

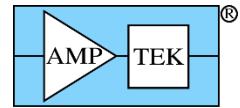
IEEE NPSS Short Course 2017

Front End Electronics for Radiation Detection & Measurement

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18 January 2018





1. Overview

1. *Purpose of front end electronics in radiation measurement*
2. *Example system*
3. *Major challenges*

2. Signal Acquisition

1. *Current pulses*
2. *Charge sensitive amplifiers*
3. *Pulse shaping*
4. *Gain*

3. Electronic Noise

1. *Example: Shot noise*
2. *Noise properties*
3. *Pulse shaping and noise*

4. Timing

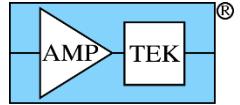
1. *Dead time*
2. *Pulse Pileup*
3. *Measuring timing*

5. Pulse Shaping Revisited

6. Digitizing the Output

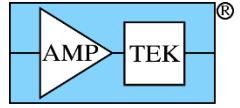
7. Why Things Don't Work

1. *Practical matters*
2. *Interference*



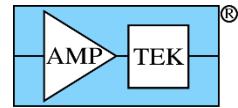
- This presentation was presented at the “Short Course on Radiation Detection and Measurement”, which was part of the 2017 IEEE Nuclear Science Symposium, in Atlanta, GA.
 - This version, available online, has some additional tutorial information which has been added. A set of notes with additional info is also available.
 - Amptek recommends these notes as an introduction to electronics for radiation detection and measurement and as a useful guide to many of Amptek’s customers.
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- **Acknowledgement**

- *Dr. Helmuth Spieler, of the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, taught this short course at the IEEE/NPSS many years*
- *This presentation draws very heavily on the notes from this class and from his textbook. His textbook (listed in the references) has derivations for many points made in this presentation.*



1. Overview

Overview: Sample system



Ionization chamber

- Particle deposits energy, creates mobile electron-ion pairs

$$N_{sig} = E_{dep} / \varepsilon_i \quad Q_{sig} = N_{sig} q_e$$

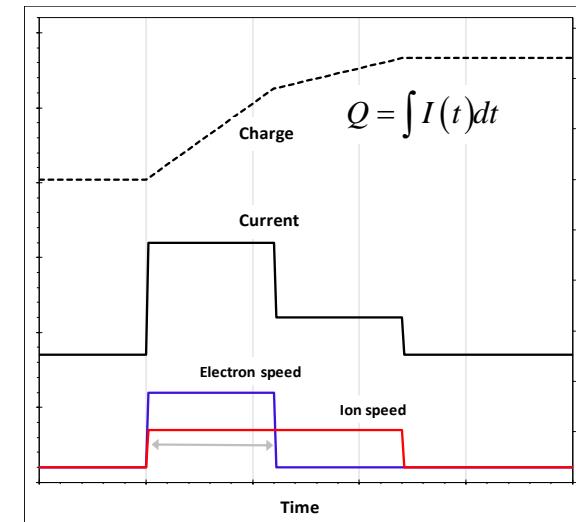
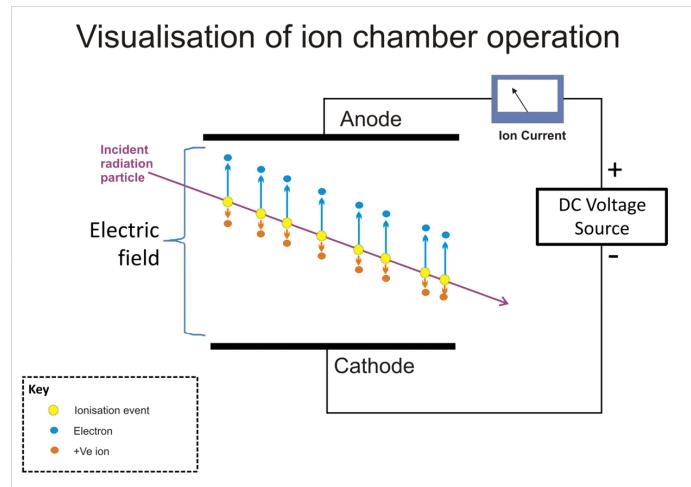
ε_i is ionization energy, ~ 30 eV in gas \rightarrow hundreds or thousands of electrons

- Electric field moves carriers towards electrodes, inducing a current

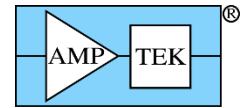
$$I_{sig} = Q_{sig} / T_{drift} = q_e N_{sig} / (L_{drift} / v_{drift})$$

v_{drift} is drift velocity, L_{drift} is drift length, T_{drift} is drift time

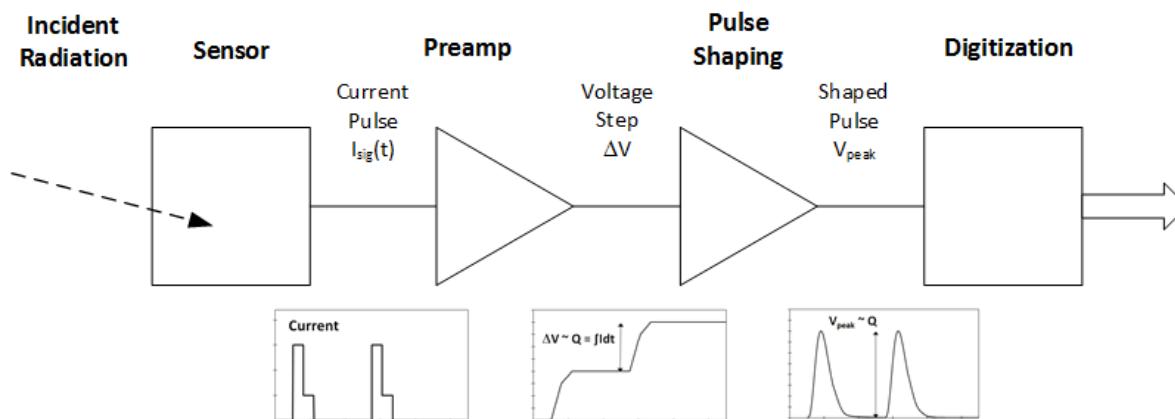
- Each interaction produces a discrete current pulse $I(i)$ of some duration
- To determine energy, one measures charge



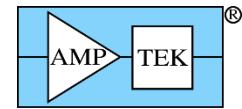
Overview: Purpose of front end electronics



- Radiation deposits energy in a detection medium
- Energy is converted into an electrical signal
 - Primary signal is charge proportional to energy absorbed
 - Results in a short and small current pulse
- Tailor the time and frequency response ("shape" the pulse)
 - Not always necessary but always present in some form
 - Must optimize for something: rate, noise, timing, etc
- Digitize the output and store for subsequent analysis
 - Count rate over threshold, count timing, digitized pulse heights
- Although detection systems look different and use radically differing technologies, all share common purpose and key functions



Overview: Goals

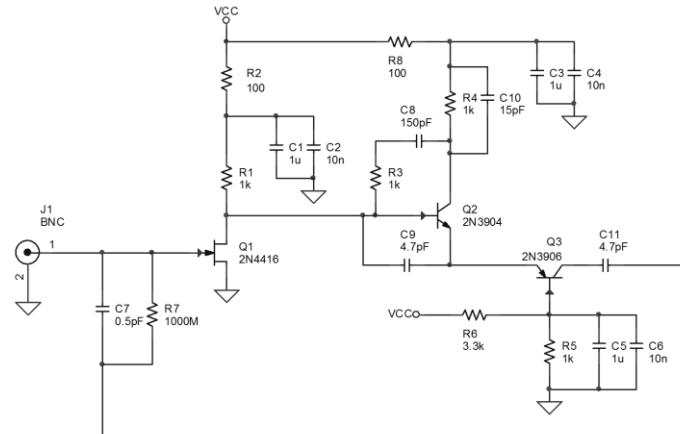
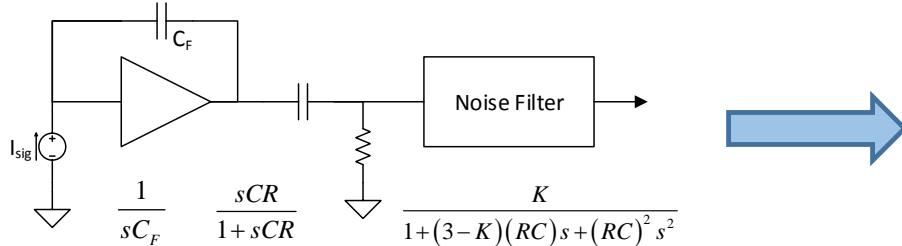


Course Goals

- Understand the major challenges, trade-offs and compromises
- There are no "one-size fits all" solutions!!

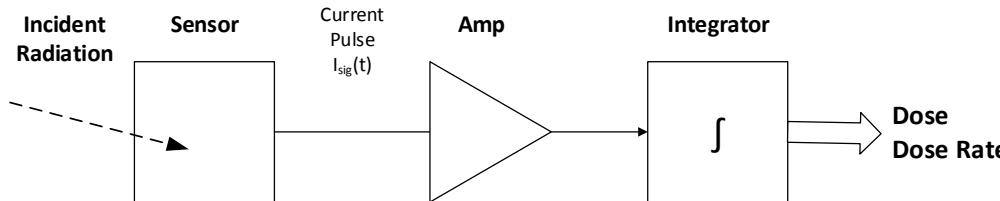
Signals and Systems vs Hardware Components

- Signals and system are the focus of this course
 - Block diagrams, transfer functions → Defines functionality and performance
- Hardware components are the workhorse
 - Schematics, components → Really do the job – outside the scope of this course



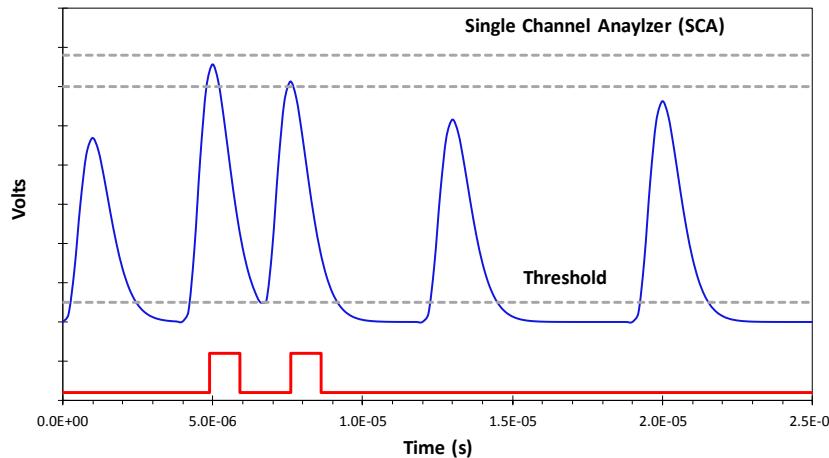
Overview: Operating Modes

- Measure continuous current → Dose rate or dose

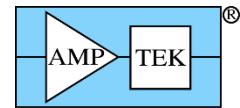


- Measure each pulse → Counts, spectroscopy, timing, etc

- Focus of this course
- System response is in counts or counts per unit time
- Counts are discrete and stochastic → Counts-per-sec, not Hz
- Electronics optimize signal to noise ratio, then increment a counter at output

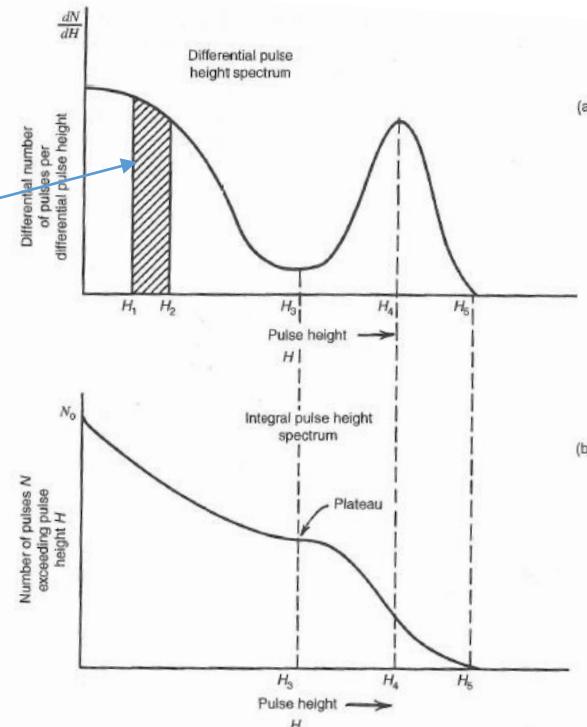
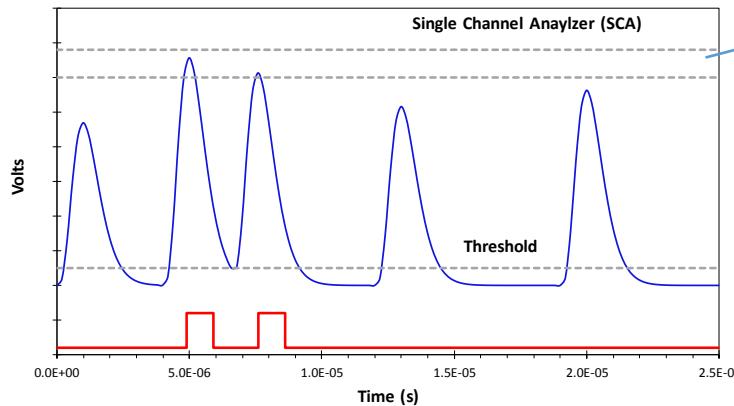


Overview: Operating Modes

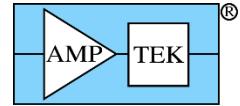


- Typical pulse information

- Total rate → Count pulses above threshold
- Rate of a peak → Count pulses in pulse height window
- Energy spectrum → Differential or integral pulse height histogram
- Pulse timing: Coincidence or measured delay
- Pulse shape: Risetime or duration or decay
- Difference in pulse heights



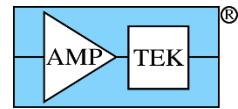
From Knoll



Overview: Challenges

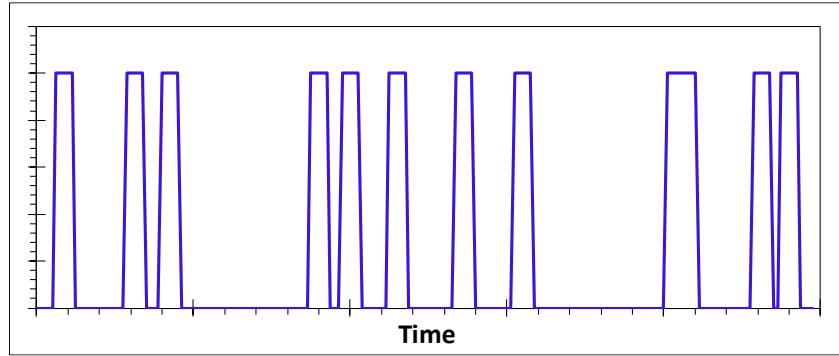
- Challenge 1: Timing is random
- Challenge 2: Precision is limited by fluctuations
- Challenge 3: Variations in current profile and in charge collection
- Challenge 4: Practical matters

Overview: Challenges



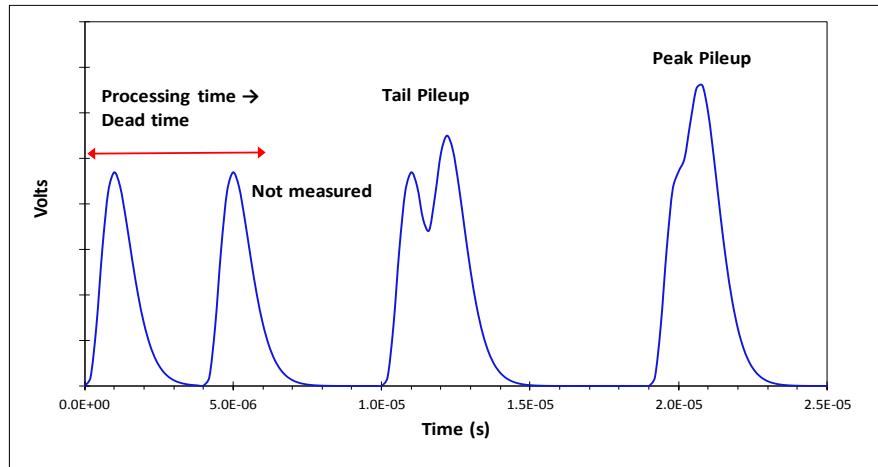
Challenge 1: Random timing

- *Random sequence*
 - Not periodic: cps, not Hz
 - Short intervals always possible

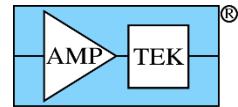


- *Random fluctuation in number of counts*
 - Well known binomial distribution $\rightarrow \sigma_N = \sqrt{N} \rightarrow \sigma \sim 1/\sqrt{N}$
 - Want lots of counts and want high count rates

- *Random pulse overlap in time*
 - Always some time to process a pulse
 - Dead time \rightarrow Pulses not detected
 - Tail pile-up \rightarrow Pulse height error
 - Peak pile-up \rightarrow “Sum” peaks

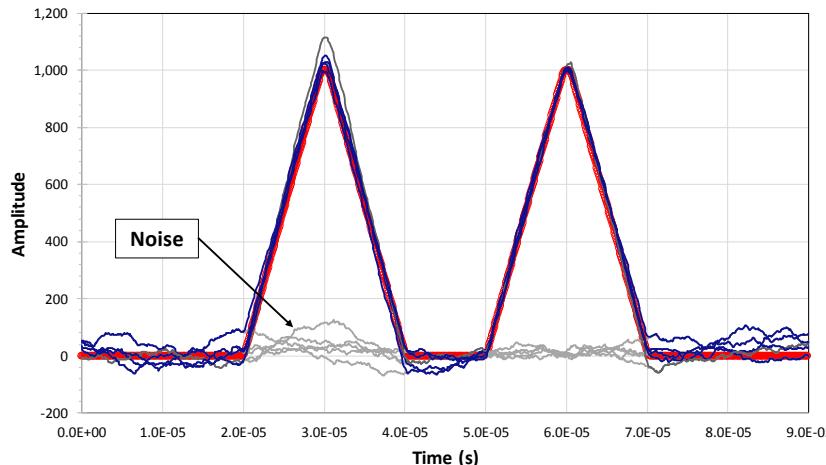


Overview: Challenges



Challenge 2: Precision limited by fluctuations

- *Fluctuations in radiation interaction (scattering)*
- *Fluctuations in signal charge for same energy absorption*
- *Fluctuations in baseline from intrinsic noise*
 - Random fluctuations in current : Shot noise, thermal noise, 1/f noise, G-R noise



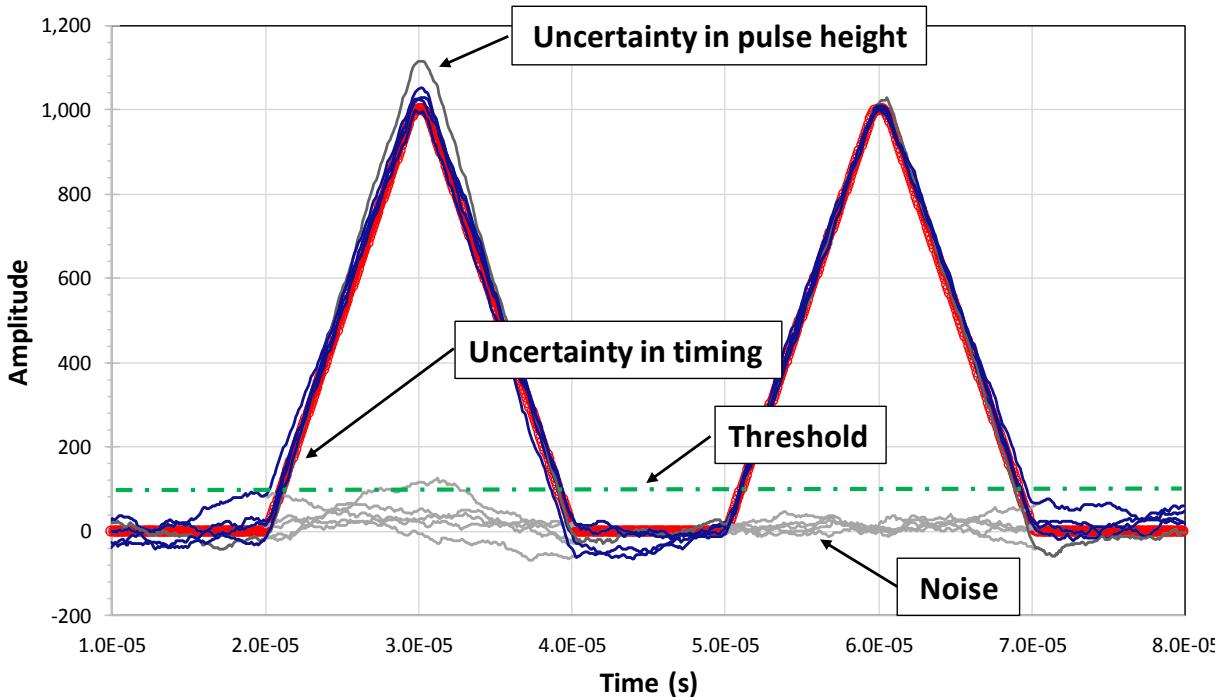
- *Total fluctuation*
 - Uncorrelated fluctuations add in quadrature

$$\delta E_{Tot} = \sqrt{\delta E_{Fluc}^2 + \delta E_{Noise}^2}$$

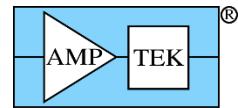
Overview: Noise

- Noise causes fluctuations in the baseline; pulses ride on top
- Consequences of noise

- 1) Creates a minimum threshold, below which signal cannot reliably be detected
- 2) If threshold is set too low, you get false counts, an erroneous measurement
- 3) Noise → fluctuation (uncertainty) in pulse height measurement
- 4) Noise → fluctuation (uncertainty) in timing measurement (start time, slope, shape)

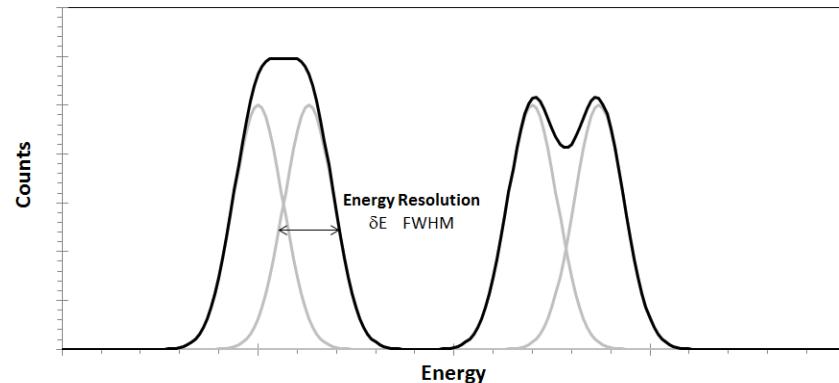


Overview: Resolution



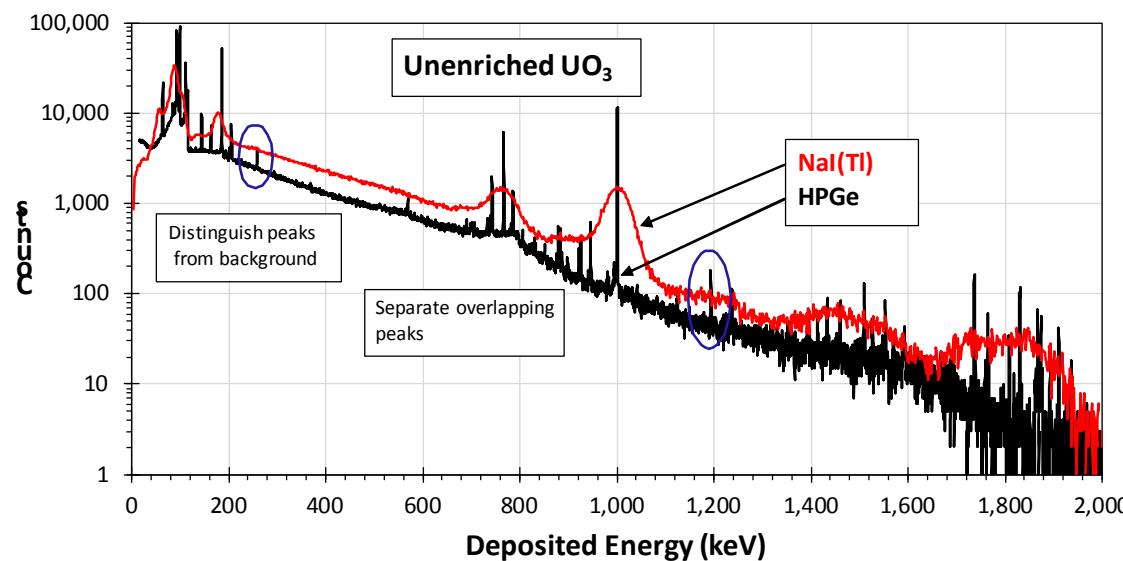
Resolution

- If two peaks are separated by $> \text{FWHM}$, there is a valley \rightarrow they are resolved
- Resolution in energy, timing, position, etc

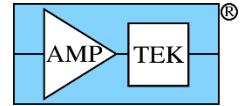


Why does it matter?

- Distinguish closely spaced peaks
- Lower minimum detectable activity (narrow ROI \rightarrow few background counts)
- BUT trade-offs: Higher cost, or lower volume, or lower count rates, or....



Overview: Challenges

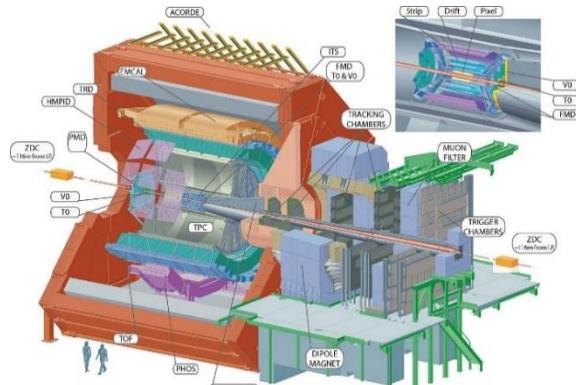
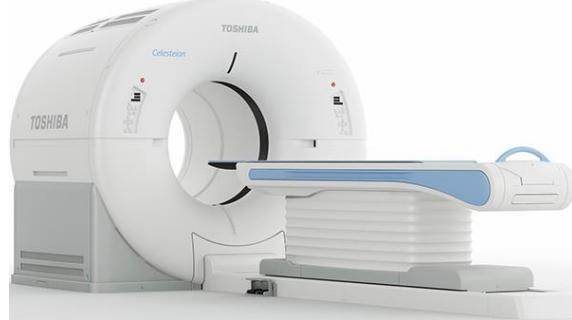


Challenge 3: Variations in current and charge

- *Variations in signal current profile $I_{sig}(t)$ can cause variations in pulse height, pulse time determination, etc*
- *Variation in charge collection efficiency can force complicated electronics*

Challenge 4: Practical matters

- *Cost, power, size, complexity, ...*
- *Ruggedness, radiation hardness, ...*
- *Reliability, configurability, maintainability, ...*
- *Huge range of applications to consider!*



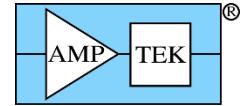
2. Acquiring the Detector Signal

2.1 Input Pulses

What is to be measured?

What are the characteristics of the input current pulse?

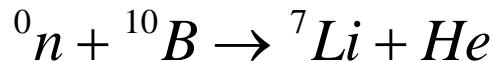
Total charge Q_{dep} and time profile $I(t)$



Acquiring the signal

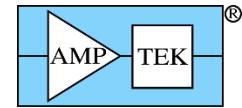
■ Any elementary excitation can be used to detect radiation

- *Electrical signal formed directly by ionization*
 - Gases: ~ 30 eV/pair
 - Semiconductors: 1 to 10 eV/pair
- *Electrical signal formed indirectly*
 - Optical states in scintillator → light intensity (20 to 500 eV/photon) → photodetector produces current
 - Excite lattice vibrations (phonons) → temperature change (meV/phonon) → sensitive temperature sensor
 - Break up Cooper pairs in a superconductor
 - Neutron creates a directly ionizing particle, which is then measured

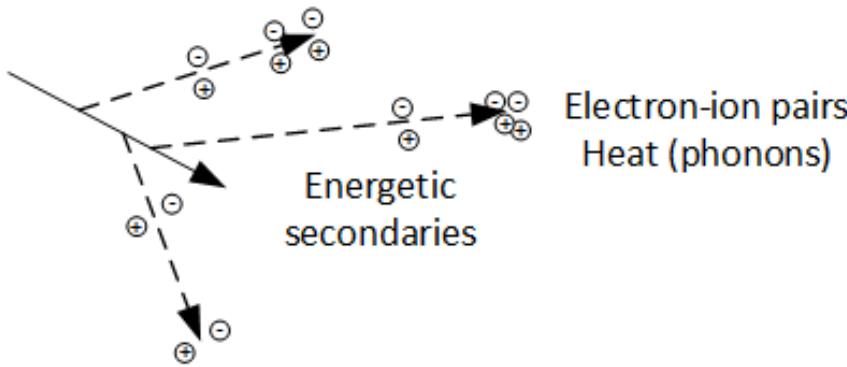


■ In all sensors considered here, the output is an electrical signal

Acquiring the signal



■ Fano Factor: Fluctuations in charge generation

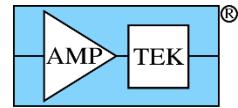


- In Si, $\varepsilon_{\text{pair}}$ is 3.6 eV \rightarrow 6 keV X-ray gives 1,667 e-h pairs and 6×10^{-16} J heat
- If the process were deterministic, exactly 3.6 eV/pair, no variation, $\sigma_N = 0$
- If process of creating each e-h pair was random and uncorrelated, expect Poisson variation, $\sigma_N = \sqrt{N} = 41$ e-h
- Correlations \rightarrow Fano factor F , reducing variation below Poisson.

$$\sigma_N = \sqrt{N_{\text{sig}} F_{\text{Fano}}}$$

- F is a property of the material: Ar ~ 0.20 , Ge ~ 0.13 , Si ~ 0.12

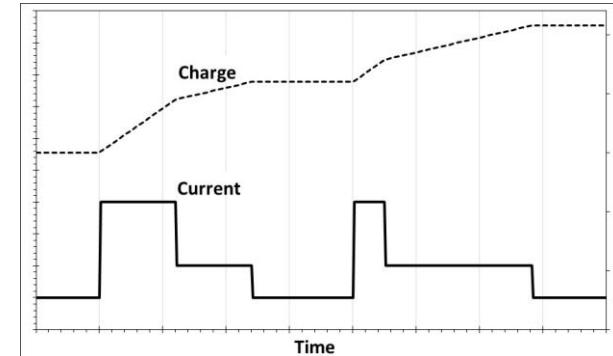
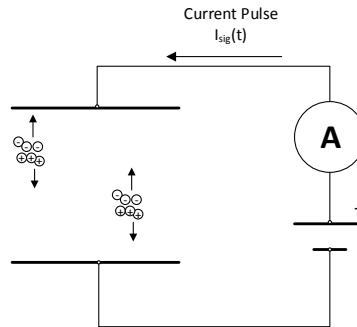
Acquiring the signal



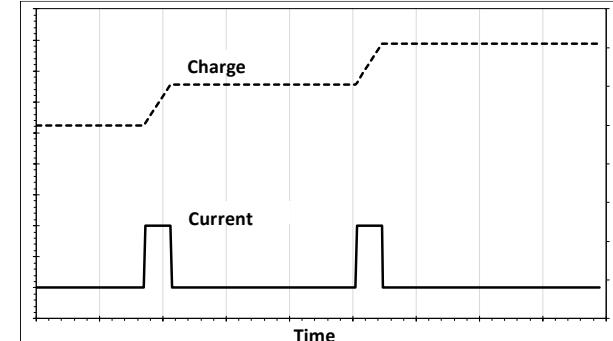
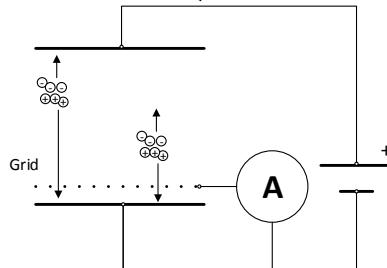
Ion Chamber

- Current flows when charges move, not when "collected"
- Current detected when charge is induced on electrode
 - Electrons, ions different drift times $\rightarrow I(t)$ varies, depends on position
 - Frisch grid "shields" signal electrodes \rightarrow Delayed, single carrier current
 - Shockley-Ramo theorem: Current into an electrode is due to "weighting field", derived when all other electrodes are grounded

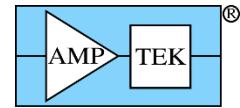
Variation in $I(t)$



Electrodes $\rightarrow I(t)$

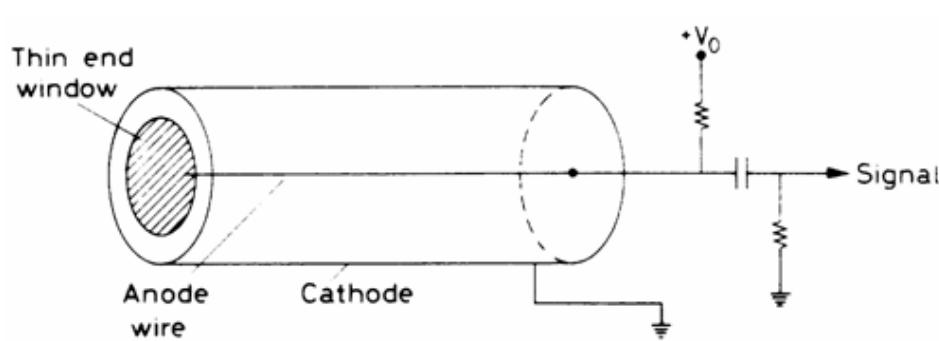


Acquiring the signal

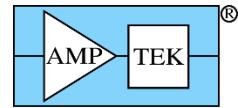


Ion Chamber

- *Planar chamber not actually used in pulse mode*
 - Too slow: 1 cm chamber → electrons take 100 μs to cross, ions many millisec
- *Cylindrical ion chamber*
 - Field strong near wire → most of current at the end.
 - Current pulse is short, mostly electrons, independent of position
- *Proportional counter*
 - If field near wire is strong enough, electrons ionize more, giving gain
 - Gives bigger charge and even shorter pulse
 - Cylindrical proportional counters are very common



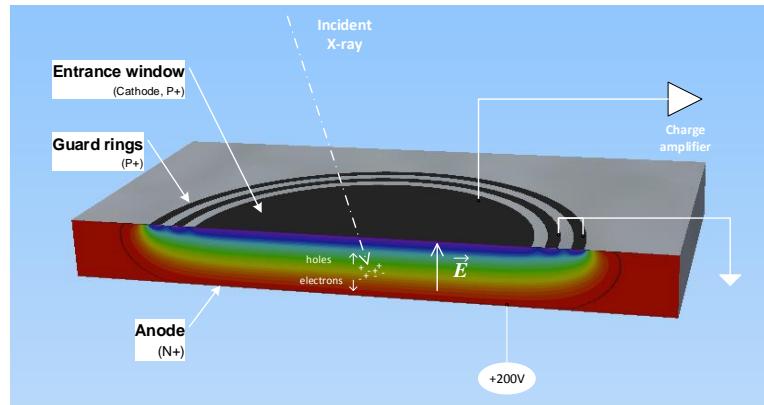
Acquiring the signal



Semiconductor detector

- *Solid state ionization chamber*

- Planar SiPIN is much like planar ion chamber
- Lower ε_i , lower F_{Fano} → Better resolution High density → Better stopping



- Signal from X-ray

$$E_{\text{dep}} := 6 \text{ keV} \quad \frac{E_{\text{dep}}}{\varepsilon_{\text{pair}}} = 1.7 \times 10^3 q_e \quad \frac{E_{\text{dep}}}{\varepsilon_{\text{pair}}} = 2.7 \times 10^{-16} C$$

$$v_e := \mu_e \cdot \frac{200V}{0.5 \text{-mm}} = 6 \times 10^4 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \quad T_e := \frac{0.5 \cdot \text{mm}}{v_e} = 8.3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ s}$$

$$I_e := \frac{E_{\text{dep}}}{\varepsilon_{\text{pair}} \cdot T_e} = 3.2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ A}$$

$$v_h := \mu_h \cdot \frac{200V}{0.5 \text{-mm}} = 1.8 \times 10^4 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \quad T_h := \frac{0.5 \cdot \text{mm}}{v_h} = 2.8 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s}$$

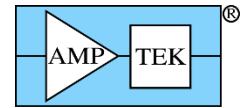
$$I_h := \frac{E_{\text{dep}}}{\varepsilon_{\text{pair}} \cdot T_h} = 9.6 \times 10^{-9} \text{ A}$$

- Signal from alpha or beta particle

Larger signal → Signal to noise ratio

Straggling → Electronics noise less important

Acquiring the signal

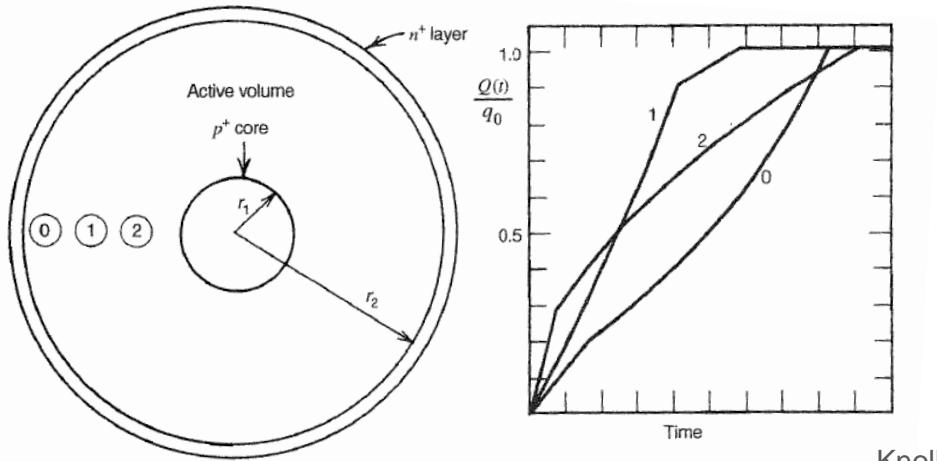


High Purity Germanium (HPGe)

- Large volume (many cm³), high Z → Widely used in γ -ray spectroscopy
- Signals typically 100x larger than Si X-ray Coaxial geometry → Field varies with radius → Collection times of many μ s, large variation in $I(t)$

Electronics

- Signals and signal to noise ratio 100x larger than X-rays in Si diode
- Very narrow peak widths → Sensitive to “secondary” issues
- Long collection time → Pulse shaping is critical
- Pulse shape can tell you position



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Acquiring the signal

■ Cd_{1-x}Zn_xTe

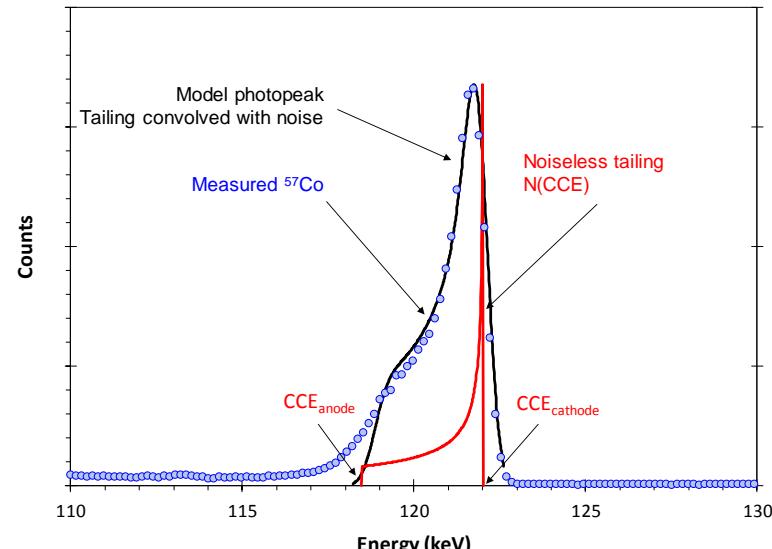
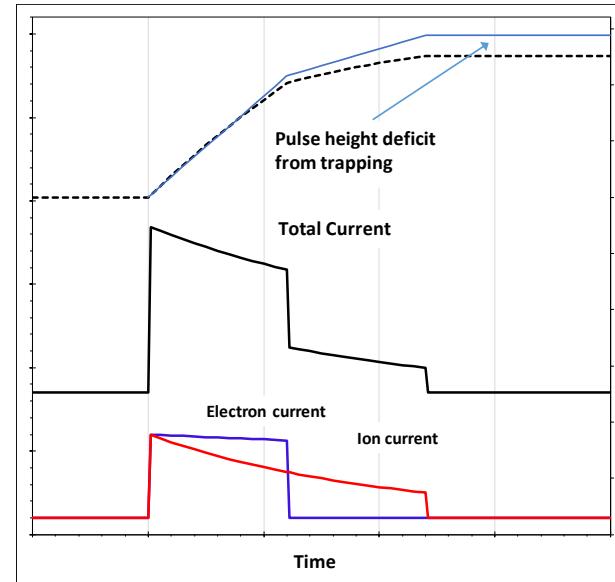
- Crystals have high density of traps
- Charges have short lifetime (100 ns)
- Trapped while crossing detector
- Creates pulse height deficit CCE(x)
- Creates "tail" in spectrum

$$CCE(x) = \left(\frac{\lambda_e}{L} \right) \left(1 - e^{-\left(\frac{x}{\lambda_e}\right)} \right) + \left(\frac{\lambda_h}{L} \right) \left(1 - e^{-\left(\frac{L-x}{\lambda_h}\right)} \right)$$

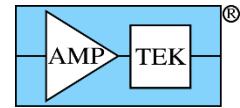
$$N(x) = 1 - e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda_{atten}}}$$

- Electronics

- CCE more important than noise
- Pulse shape → CCE
- Correction but complexity

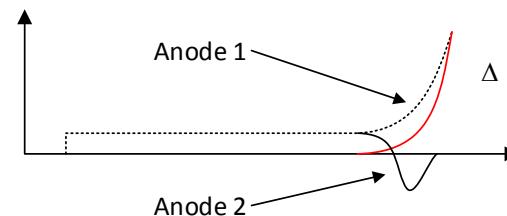
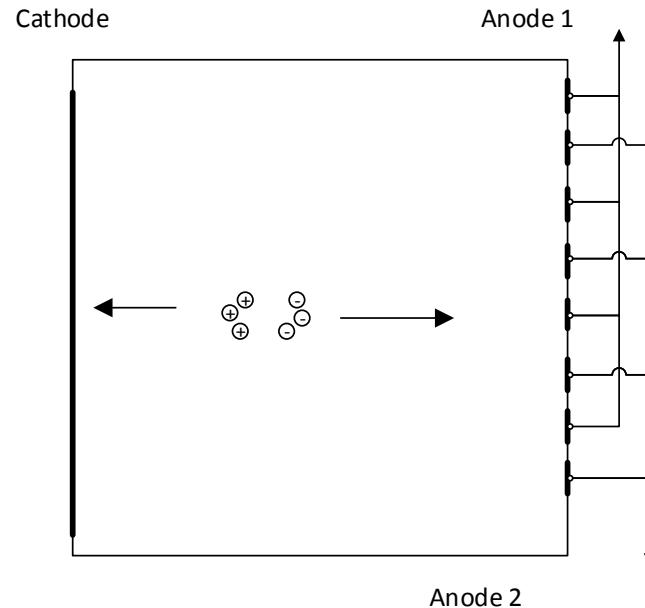


Acquiring the signal

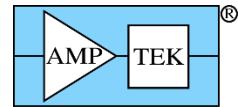


Semiconductor electrodes

- *Coplanar grid*
 - Similar to Frisch grid
 - Unipolar (electron only), quick rise
 - Reduces effects of trapping
 - Allows much larger volumes
 - Other electrode designs are similar
- *Drift detectors*
- *Strip detectors*
- *Other electrode designs*
- *All based on Shockley-Ramo theorem*
- *Much active research*

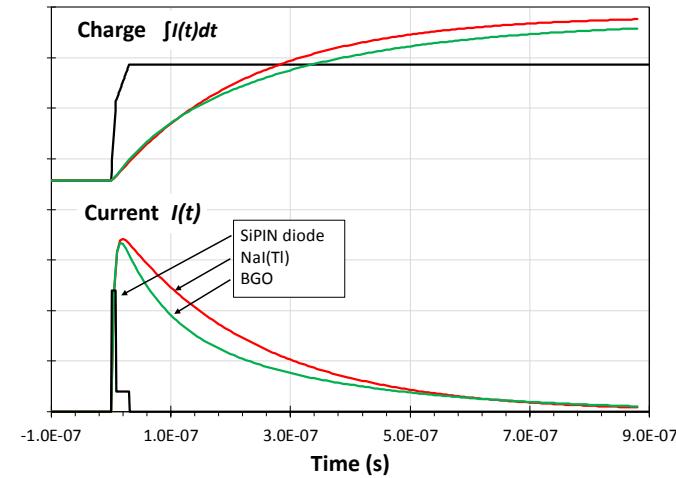
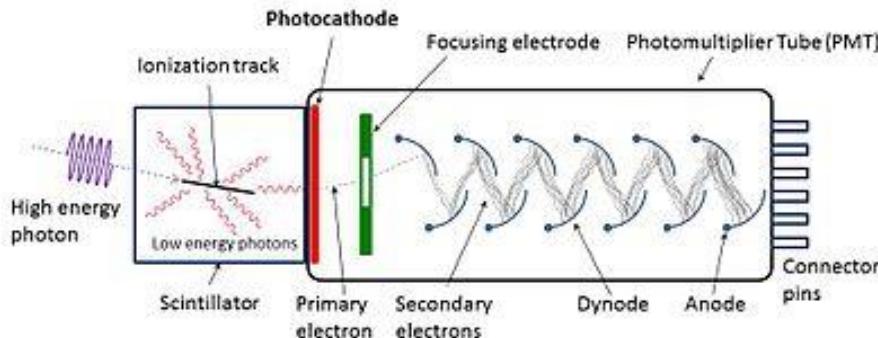


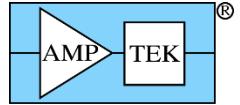
Acquiring the signal



Scintillation detector

- *Interaction produces excited state in crystal*
 - E_i is high (light yield low) → photosignal is small and $F = 1$
 - Light intensity is exponential with time (infinite impulse response)
- *Photons interact in a photodetector*
 - Photodiodes are used but signal current is small
 - Photomultiplier with high gain ($\sim 10^5$) common
- *Electronics*
 - Large signal current, resolution limited by photostatistics,
 - Infinite impulse response (IIR)
 - Pulse shapes from scintillator





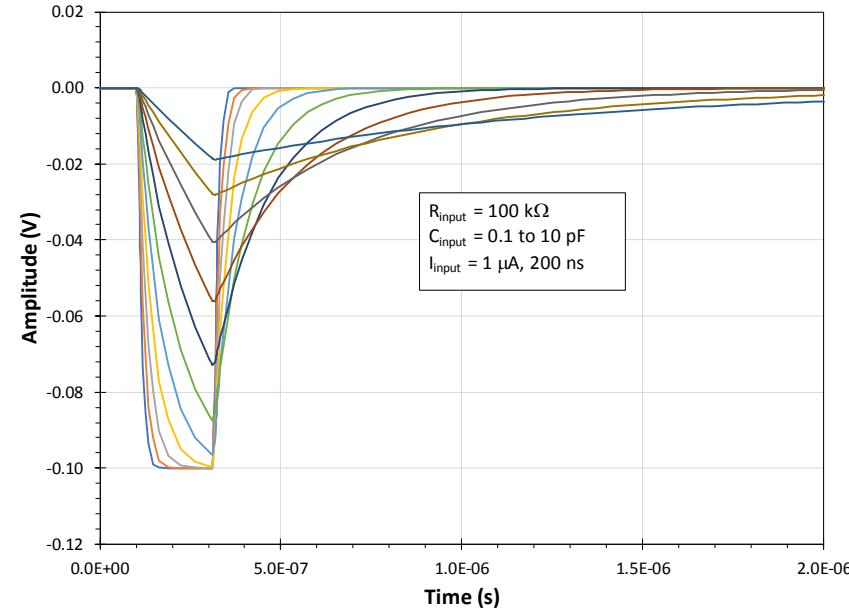
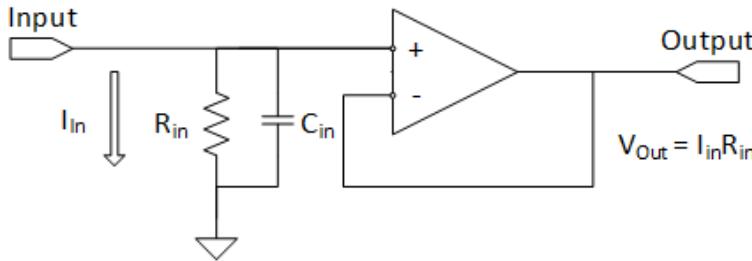
2.2 Preamplifier

How do we process the current pulse?

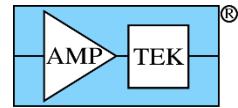
Acquiring the signal: Preamp

Resistor and amplifier

- Current across a resistor produces a voltage
 - If $RC \ll \tau_c \rightarrow$ proportional to current
Pulse height is proportional to I_{max} , not Q_{sig}
 - If $RC \gg \tau_c \rightarrow$ proportional to charge (integrated on C_{in})
 - Noise, timing, etc depend strongly on stray capacitance, cable, etc
 - Not recommended



Acquiring the signal: Preamp



Transimpedance amplifier

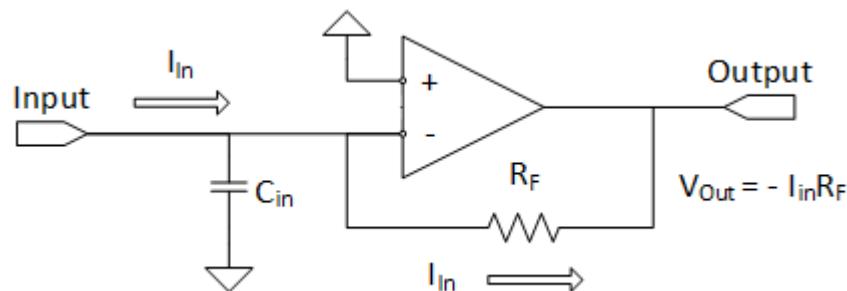
- Operation

- Inverting input is virtual ground → No current can flow into it
- Input current must flow across feedback resistor, giving output voltage

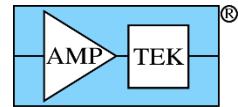
$$V_{out}(t) = -I_{in}(t)R_F$$

- Characteristics

- Much less dependent on C_{in} , etc
- Pulse height is proportional to I_{max} rather than Q_{dep}
- Used when pulse shapes unchanging or one wants to measure pulse shape



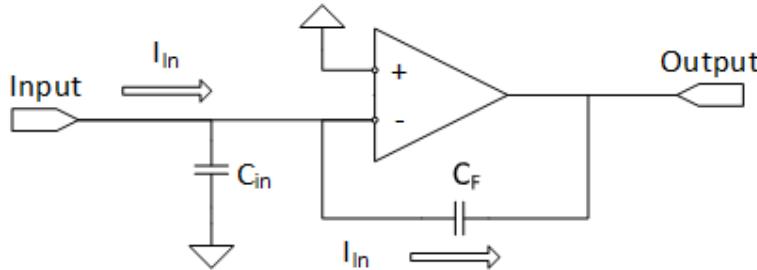
Acquiring the signal: Preamp



Charge amplifier

- Operation

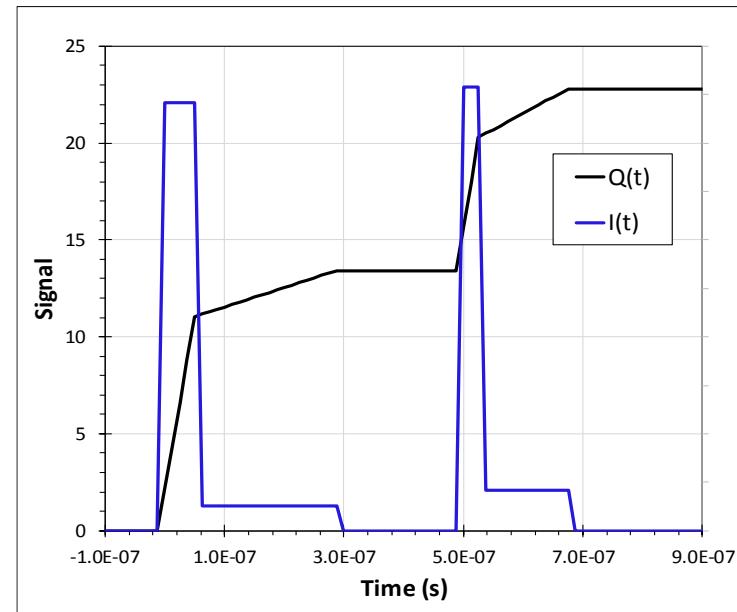
- Input current must flow across feedback capacitor
- Voltage change across C_F drives current



$$\frac{dV_{out}(t)}{dt} = -I_{in}(t) \left(\frac{1}{C_F} \right) \Rightarrow V_{out}(t) = \left(\frac{1}{C_F} \right) \int I_{in}(t) dt = \frac{Q_{in}}{C_F}$$

- Characteristics

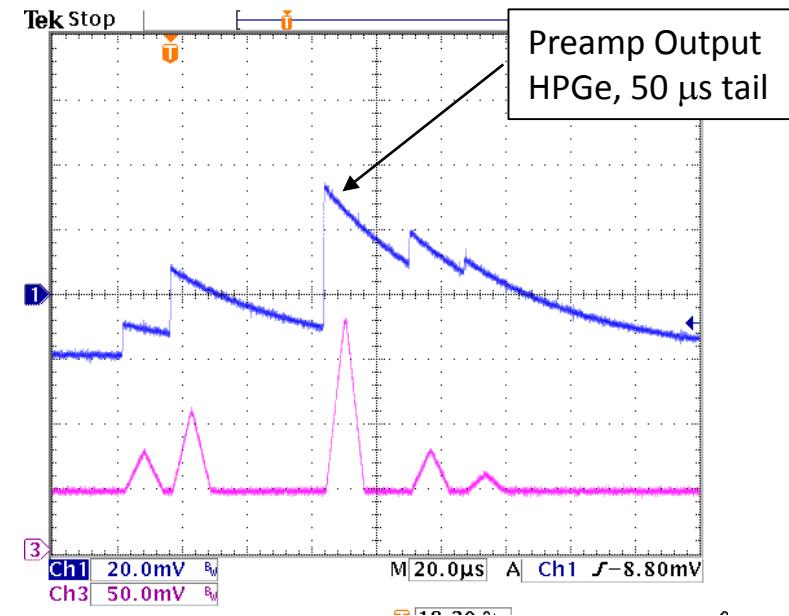
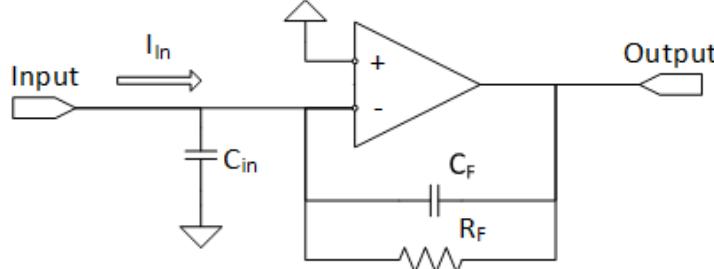
- Output step is proportional to charge, not current
- Independent of C_{in} (to within A_{OL})
- Scales as $1/C_F$



Acquiring the signal: Preamp

▪ Resistive feedback

- With only C_F output goes to power rail → Must restore DC current
- Feedback resistor
 - $RC \gg \tau_c$ → Rapid integration, slow exponential decay
 - Simple and commonly used

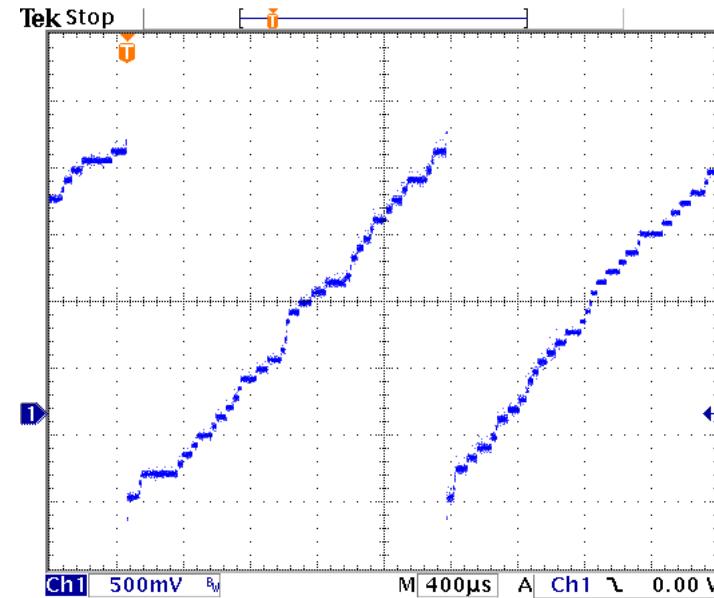
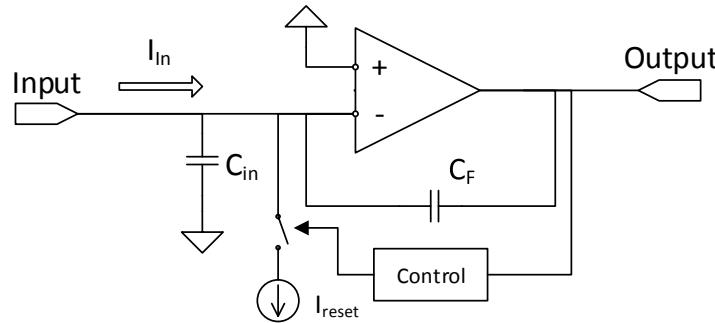


- Other options for continuous feedback
 - R_F adds thermal noise
 - Feedback transistor, current into JFET drain, etc
 - All have pros and cons
 - Ongoing research

Acquiring the signal: Preamp

✓ Reset preamps

- Current pulse restores charge at input
- Lowest noise (no sources for thermal noise or I_{dark}), high rates
 - Used in lowest noise systems, e.g. high rate X-ray detectors
 - Several implementations: LED into JFET, reset diode, reset via HV



Acquiring the signal: Preamp

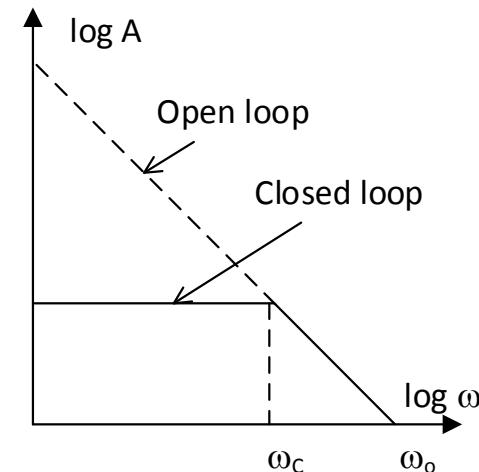
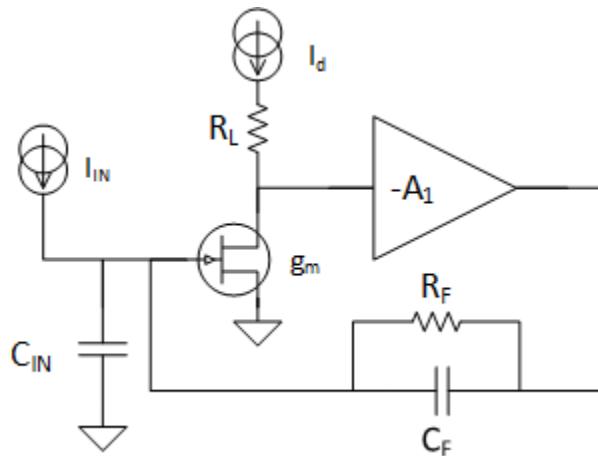
Realistic Preamp Input

- *Input stage is a FET (usually JFET)*
 - First stage dominates performance (noise, risetime, etc)
 - FET for low input current → low noise
 - FET's characteristics are key

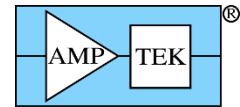
Finite risetime

$$\tau_{\text{Preamp}} = C_{IN} \left(\frac{1}{\omega_0 C_F} \right)$$

- Risetime increases with C_{IN}

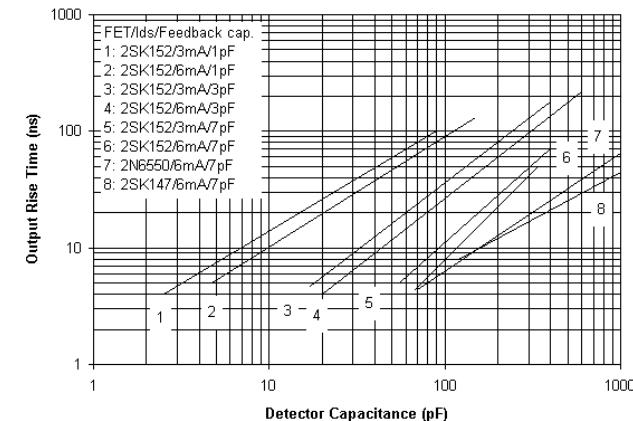
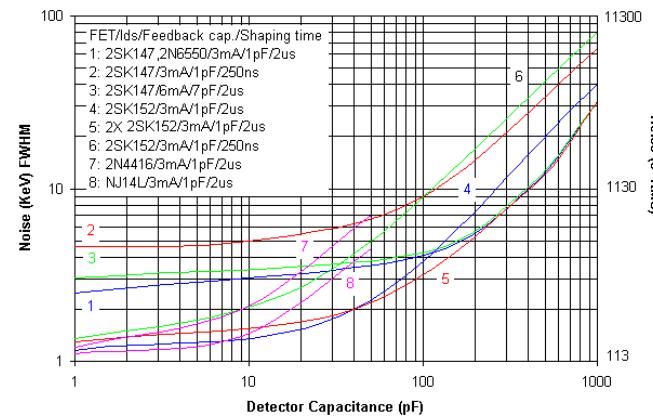
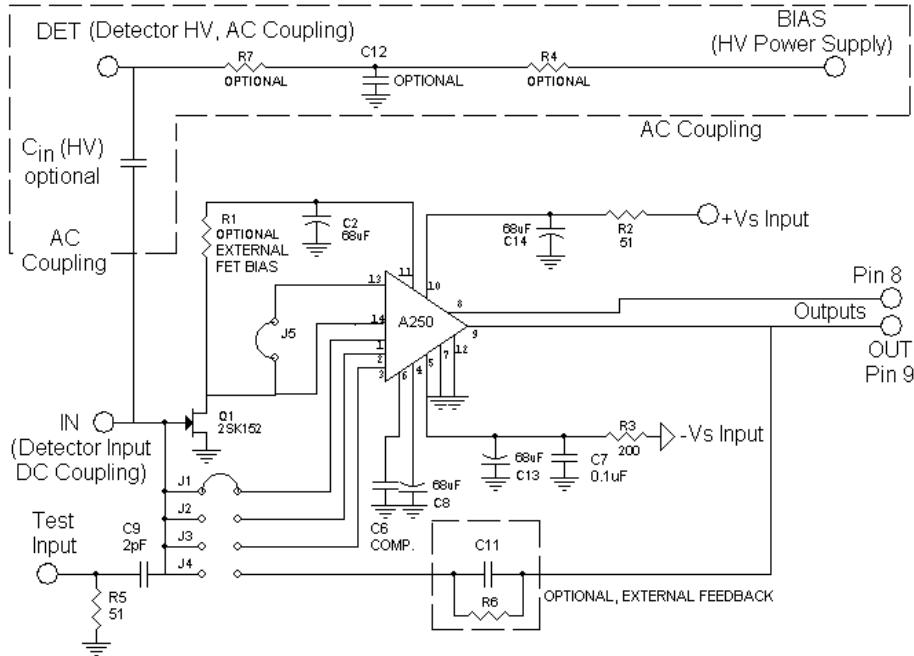


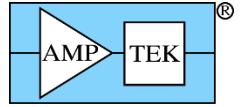
Acquiring the signal: Preamp



Real Preamp: Amptek A250 on test board

- External JFET to match detector
- Feedback cap gives charge gain, feedback resistor gives time constant
- HV bias with filters





2.3 Pulse Shaping

What are the goals of pulse shaping?
How do we shape the pulses?

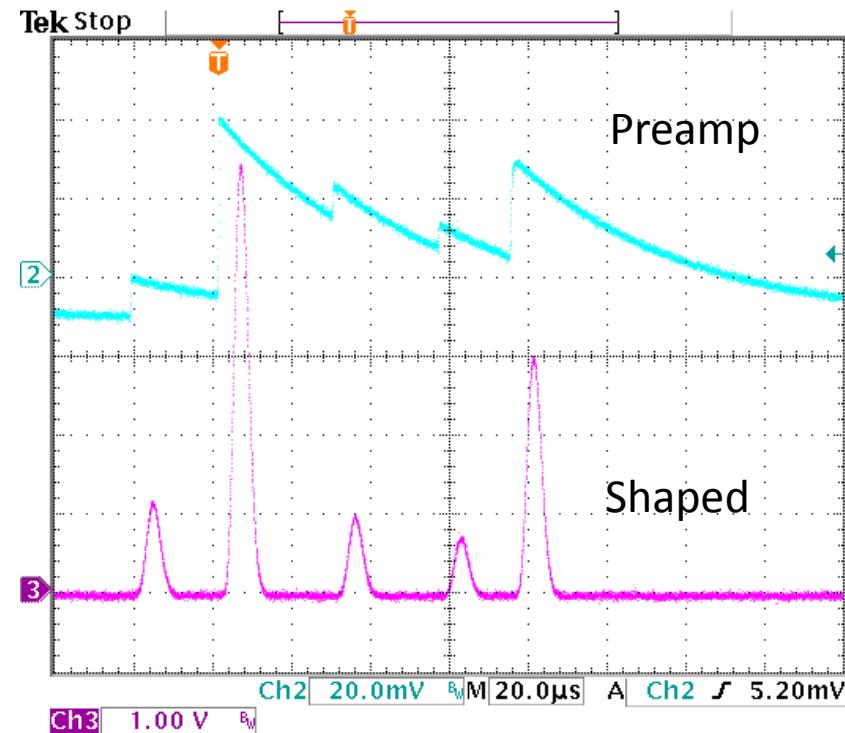
Acquiring the signal: Shaping

Goal of shaping

- *Optimize time response of system for*
 - Measurement of signal amplitude or count rate, or timing, or shape, or ...

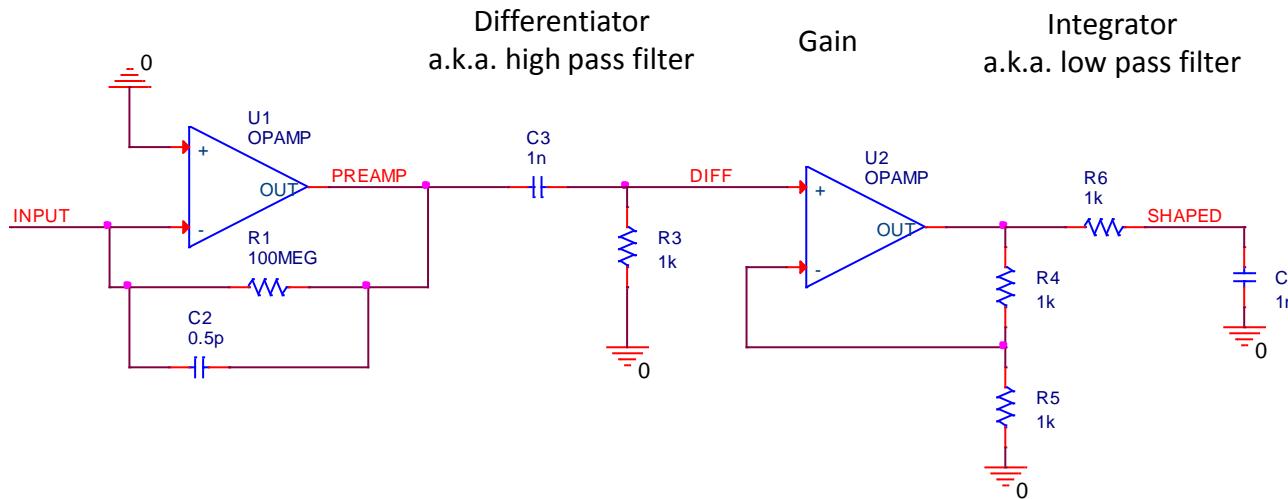
Key objectives

- 1) Remove preamp tail (*prevent tail pileup*)
- 2) Limit pulse duration (*limit dead time & pileup*)
- 3) Filter noise (*improve S/N ratio*)
- 4) Minimize pulse shape effects (*ballistic deficit*)
- 5) Apply gain



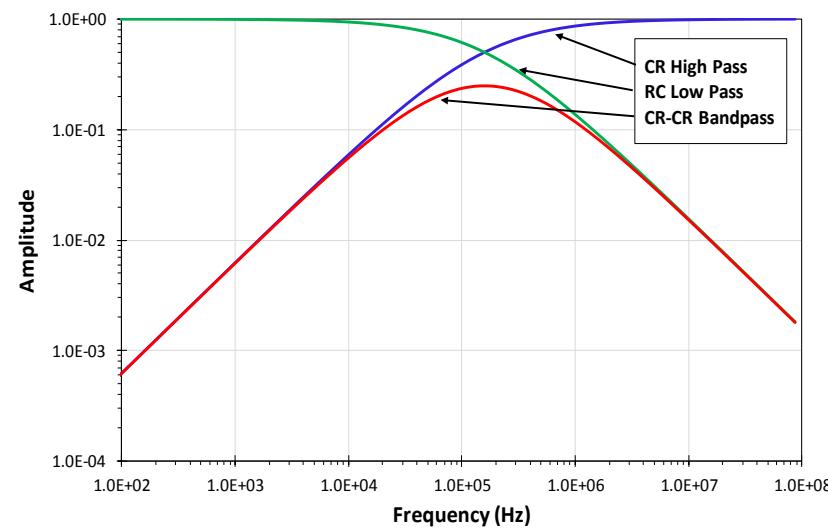
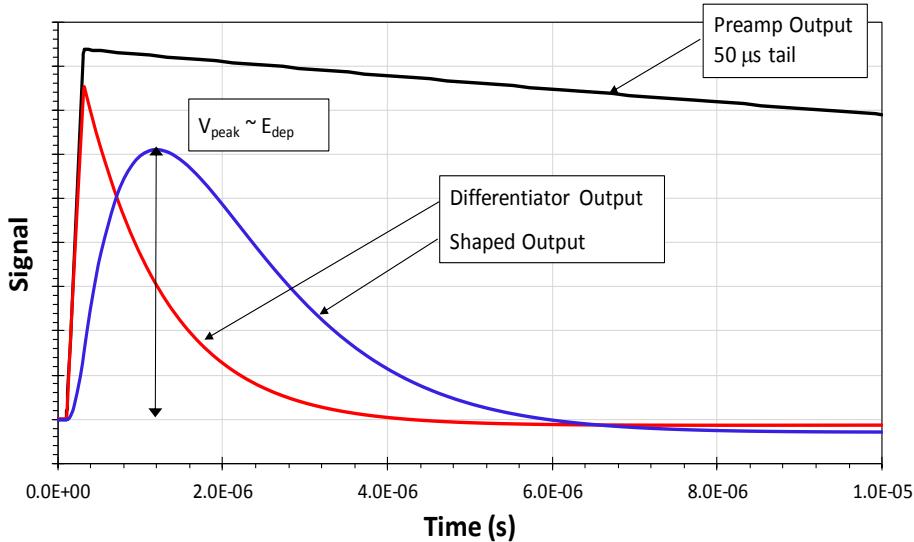
Acquiring the signal: Shaping

Simple Example: CR-RC Shaper

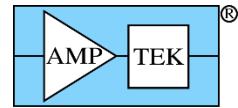


$$V(t) = \left(\frac{t}{\tau} \right) e^{-\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right)}$$

$$V(\omega) = \left(\frac{1}{1 + \omega\tau} \right) \left(\frac{\omega\tau}{1 + \omega\tau} \right)$$



Acquiring the signal: Shaping



Simple Example: CR-RC Shaper

- Key Characteristics

- Differentiator (a.k.a. high pass filter)
 - 1) Removes baseline and preamp tail
 - 2) Reduces low frequency noise
- Integrator (a.k.a. low pass filter)
 - 1) Slows the leading edge and flattens pulse to reduce ballistic deficit
 - 2) Reduces high frequency noise
- Characteristic time duration – "dead time"
- Peak voltage attenuated by shaping

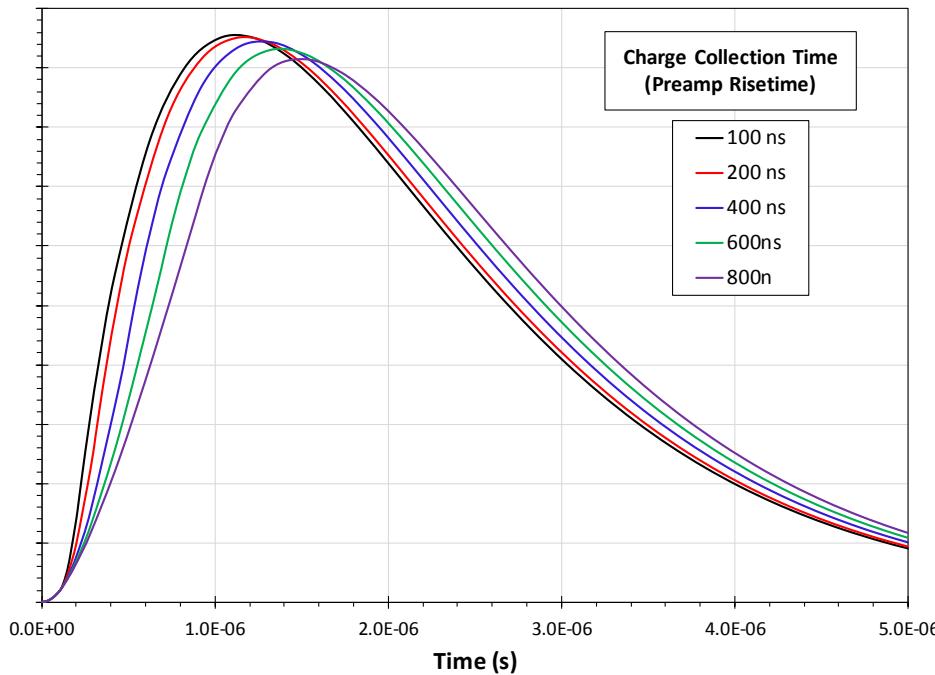
- Compromises

- Highest count rates → narrow pulse (short τ)
- Best resolution → most noise filtering → long pulse (long τ)

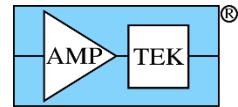
Acquiring the signal: Shaping

■ Ballistic Deficit

- Charge collection time affects pulse amplitude
- Pulse height depends on $I_{in}(t)$ → slow pulses have pulse height deficit
- Creates a "tail" in the spectrum

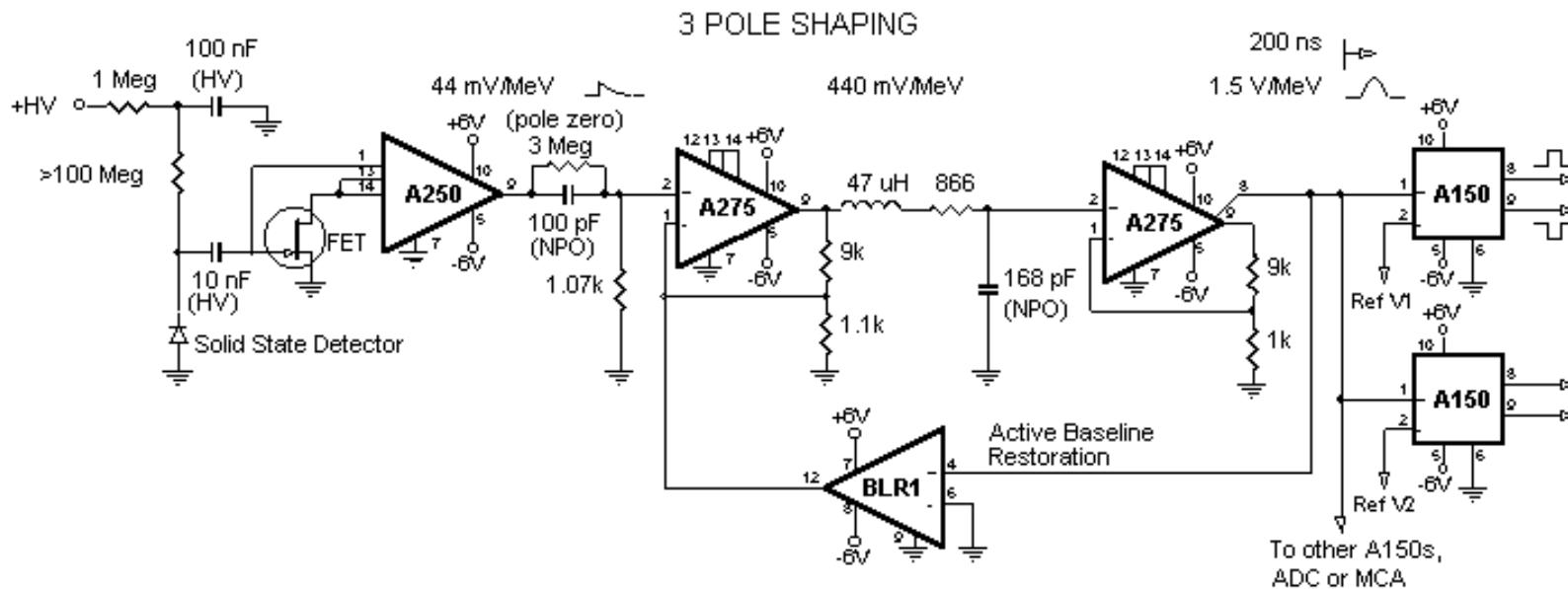


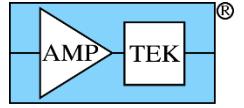
Acquiring the signal: Shaping



Real shaping circuit: Amptek hybrids

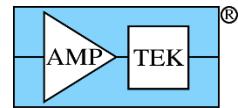
- For solid state particle detector
- A250 preamp with matched JFET and resistive feedback
- CR-(RC)² shaping with active baseline restore
- Will discuss details in next sections





2.4 Gain

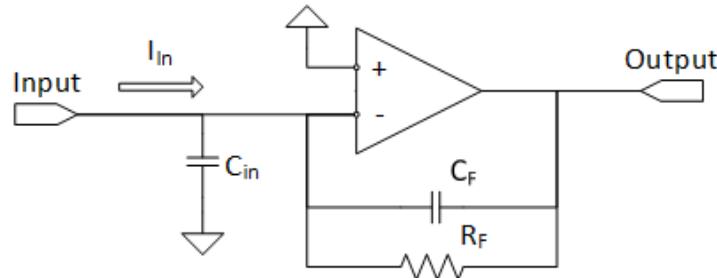
Acquiring the signal: Gain



■ Preamplifier conversion gain

$$\Delta V_{\text{preamp}} = \left(\frac{E_{\text{dep}}}{\varepsilon_{\text{pair}}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{q_e C_F} \right)$$

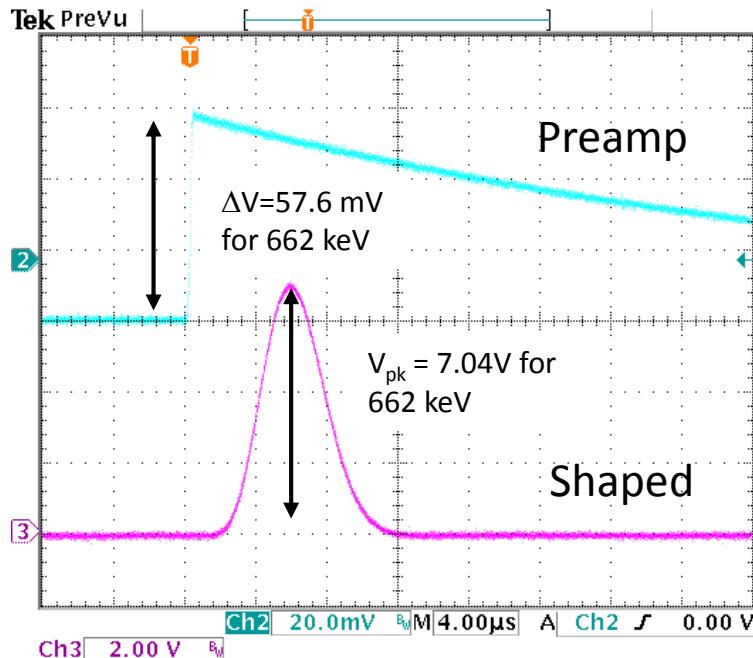
- mV per eV (or keV or ...)
- Depends on ε_i and C_F
- 1 pF \rightarrow 44 mV/MeV (Si) or 0.16 μ V/e-h



■ Shaper gain

- V/keV of the peak of the shaped pulse
- Product of a shaping factor and any voltage gain
- Needs to match subsequent circuits

$$V_{\text{peak}} = \Delta V_{\text{preamp}} (G_{\text{shape}} G_{\text{gain}})$$



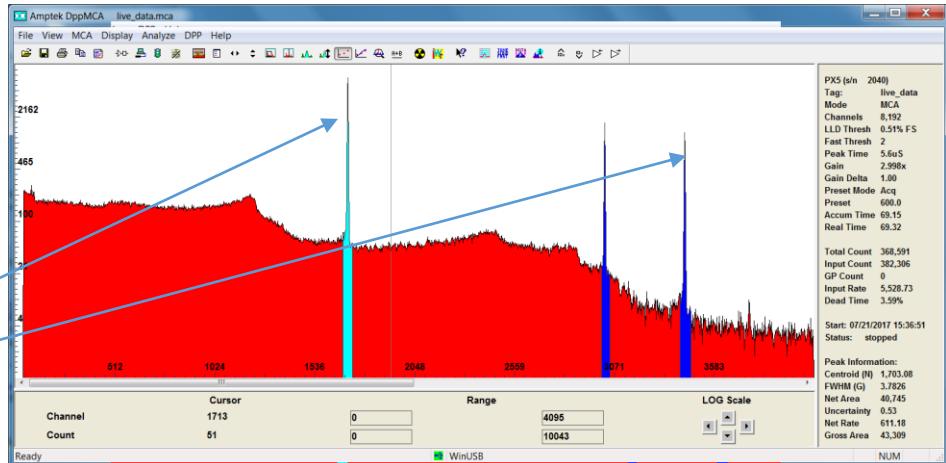
Acquiring the signal: Gain

■ MCA System Conversion Gain

- Input range (e.g. 5V) and number of channels (e.g. 4096) → 1.22 mV/channel
- Combines with shaper gain to get "system conversion gain", eV/ channel

$$Channel = \left(\frac{E_{dep}}{\epsilon_{pair}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{q_e C_F} \right) (G_{shape} G_{gain}) \left(\frac{N_{chann}}{V_{max_chann}} \right)$$

Channel 1703: 662.7 keV
Channel 3428: 1332.5 keV



■ Offset

- Many people assume zero offset, e.g. zero eV in channel zero. Not true!

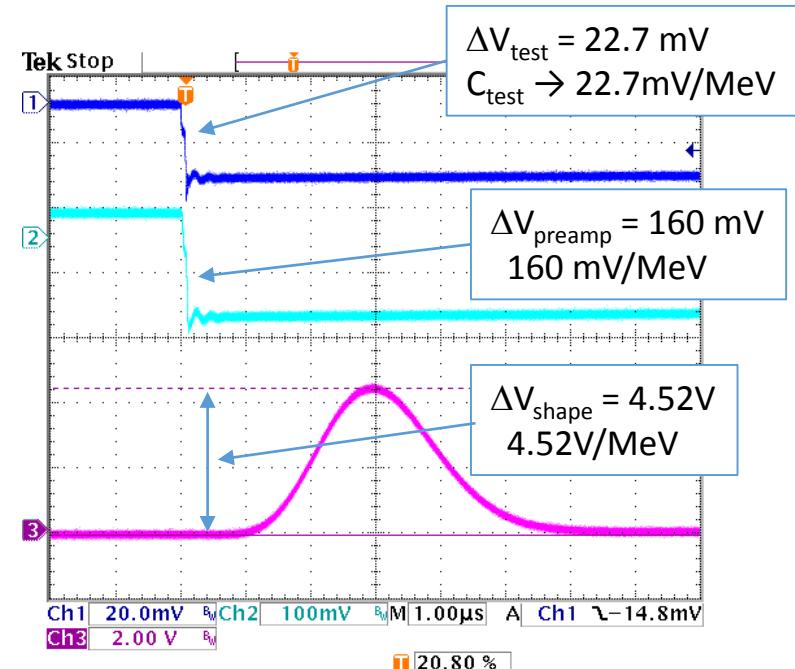
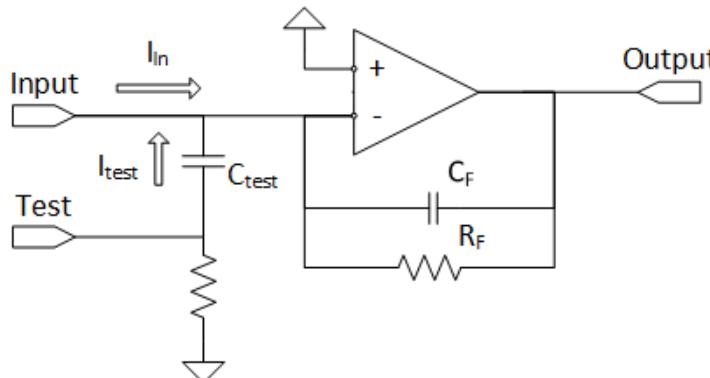
■ Related topics

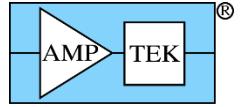
- Gain stability is important
 - HPGe, FWHM ~ 1 part in 1,000 → 100 ppm change affect measurements
- Linearity is important

Acquiring the signal: Gain

Calibrating the gain

- Best solution: source with known energies (prior slide)
 - Emission energies from physical constants, no standards needed
 - Photopeaks are ideal but you can use Compton edges, β endpoints, etc
- Alternate method: test pulse
 - Inject pulse ΔV_{test} into C_{test} , delivers $Q = C_{test} \Delta V_{test}$
 - Accuracy limited by C_{test} , C_{stray} , ΔV_{test}
 - Pulse shape may not match detector
 - Circuit may be affected by pulser



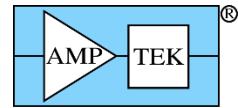


3. Resolution & Electronic Noise

3.1 Example: Shot Noise

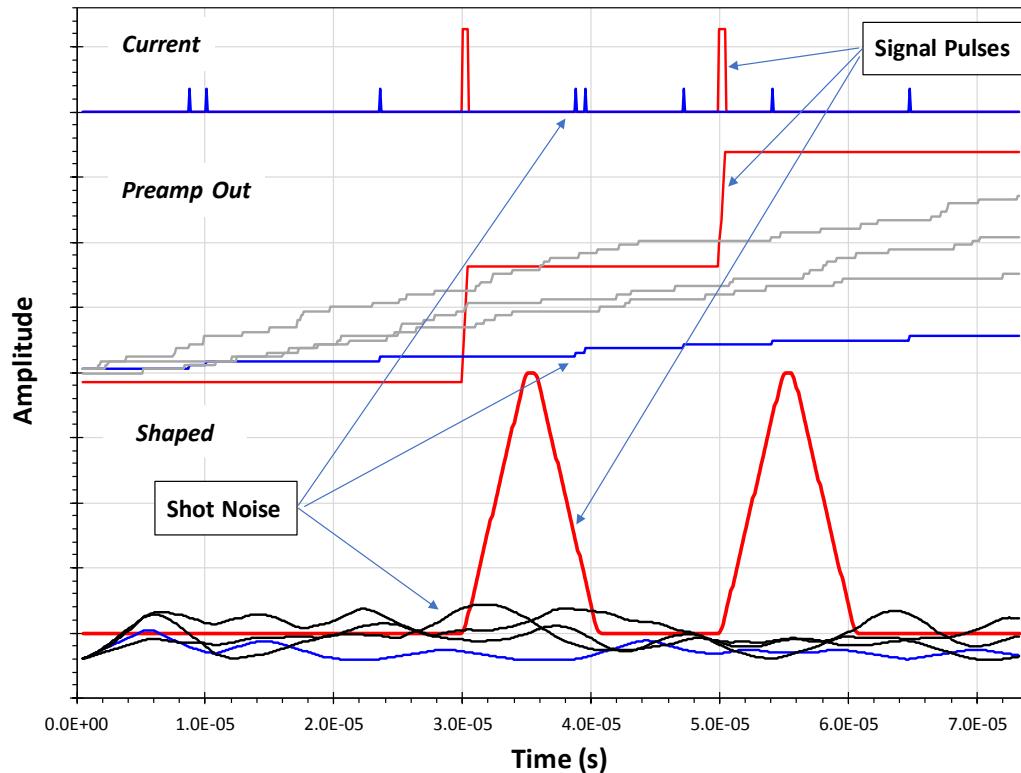
An intuitive picture of intrinsic noise

Resolution & Noise: Shot Noise



■ Intuitive Picture

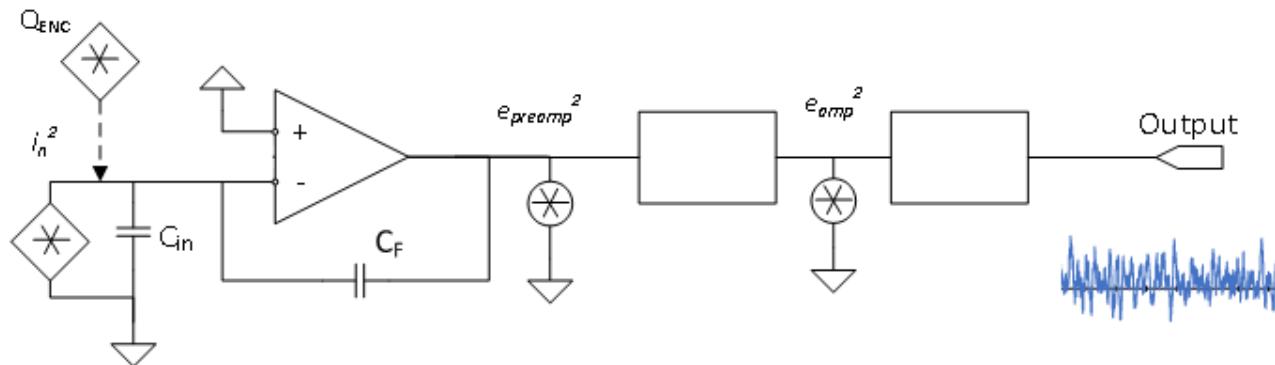
- Current pulse from detector gives output shape $S_{out}(t)$
- Every electron "leaking" through detector gives same shape but smaller
- These impulses, at random times, cause random output fluctuations
- Analogous to balls (shot) falling on a tin roof



Resolution & Noise

■ Equivalent Noise Charge (ENC)

- Noise sources throughout circuit combine to give rms output voltage
- Most of the noise at the output does not arise from a physical current or voltage at the preamp input.
- We define an input equivalent noise: Equivalent Noise Charge (Q_{ENC})
- Q_{ENC} is the rms input charge that would give observed output rms voltage
- Defined as the input charge needed to give S/N=1



Resolution & Noise: Shot Noise

■ Noise Index: Time Domain

- Each electron yields an output pulse $S_{out}(t)$
- Electrons occur at time t_k , average rate ν , amplitude a_k , rms $\langle a^2 \rangle$
- Output waveform is

$$V_{out}(t) = \sum_k a_k S_{out}(t - t_k)$$

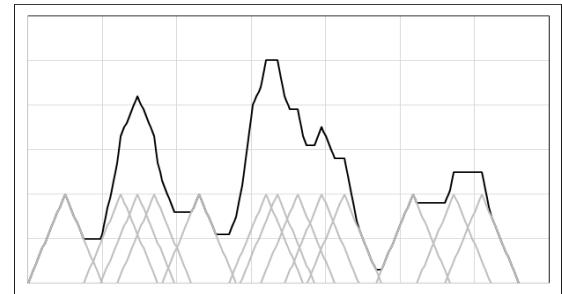
- Variance in output (from Campbell's theorem) is

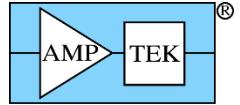
$$\sigma_V^2 = \nu \langle a^2 \rangle \int_0^\infty |S_{out}(t)|^2 dt$$

- Separate intensity of noise source from circuit response
- We define a noise index, property of the shaper,

$$N_{step}^2 = \int_0^\infty |S_{out}(t)|^2 dt$$

$$\sigma_V^2 = \nu \langle a^2 \rangle N_{step}^2$$





Resolution & Noise: Shot Noise

■ Noise Index: Time Domain CR-RC

- For CR-RC,

$$N_{step}^2 = \int_0^\infty |S_{out}(t)|^2 dt = e^2 \int_0^\infty \left[\frac{t}{\tau} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \right]^2 dt = \left(\frac{e^2}{4} \right) \tau$$

- In general, for noise impulses into the preamp

$$N_{step}^2 = \int_0^\infty |S_{out}(t)|^2 dt = A_{step}^2 \tau$$

- A_{step} is characterizes of the shaping network, $S_{out}(t)$
- τ is a characteristic time constant
- For CR-RC, $A_{step}=e/2$, $\tau=RC$ and $T_{peak}=2.4\tau$
- For shot noise in a CR-RC shaper,

$$\nu = \frac{I_{dark}}{q_e} \quad a = q_e \quad \Rightarrow \quad Q_{ENC}^2 = (q_e I_{dark}) \left(\frac{e^2}{4} \right) \tau$$

Resolution & Noise

■ Noise Index: Frequency Analysis

- Take Fourier transform (Carson's theorem) and find

$$\sigma_v^2 = v \langle a^2 \rangle \int_0^\infty |S_{out}(t)|^2 dt = \frac{v \langle a^2 \rangle}{\pi} \int_0^\infty |S_{out}(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

- This is true for random, uncorrelated, noise impulses – white noise
- If noise sources are correlated in time, or filtered to have some intensity distribution, we generalize to

$$\sigma_v^2 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty e_n^2(\omega) |H(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$
 - $H(\omega)$ is the response of the circuit to that noise source
 - $e_n^2(\omega)$ is the “noise spectral density”, with units V^2/Hz
 - For "white" noise, $e_n^2(\omega)$ is constant \leftrightarrow noise represented as impulse $\delta(t)$
 - $i_n^2(\omega)$ is the "current noise spectral density", units A^2/Hz

Resolution & Noise

Frequency Analysis

- *Effect on circuit*

- Assume a filter has gain $A(\omega)$, which peaks at some value A_{peak}
- Output noise is

$$V_{on}^2 = \int_0^{\infty} e_n^2(\omega) A^2(\omega) d\omega$$

- *White noise effect*

- e_n^2 independent of frequency so

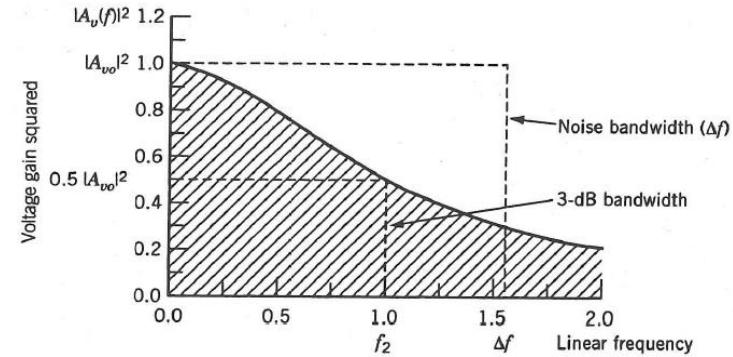
$$V_{on}^2 = e_n^2 \int_0^{\infty} A^2(\omega) d\omega$$

- We define a "noise bandwidth"

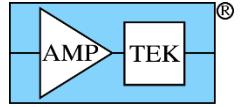
$$\Delta\omega = \frac{1}{A_{peak}^2} \int_0^{\infty} A^2(\omega) d\omega$$

$$V_{on}^2 = (e_n^2)(\Delta\omega)$$

- Reducing bandwidth reduces output noise. Key to noise filtering
- Noise bandwidth is from integral
- Noise bandwidth \neq signal bandwidth

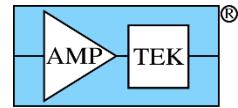


From Motchenbacher



3.2 Noise in General

What are the general characteristics of
intrinsic electronic noise?



■ Noise

- *Unwanted disturbances superposed on a signal that obscure its information content (IEEE Dictionary of Elec. & Electronic Terms)*
- *Intrinsic noise is generated within a circuit itself*
- *Extrinsic noise is generated outside a circuit and coupled in*
- *In nuclear electronics, noise modulates the baseline: signal pulses ride on top of the randomly fluctuating baseline.*

■ Intrinsic noise mechanisms

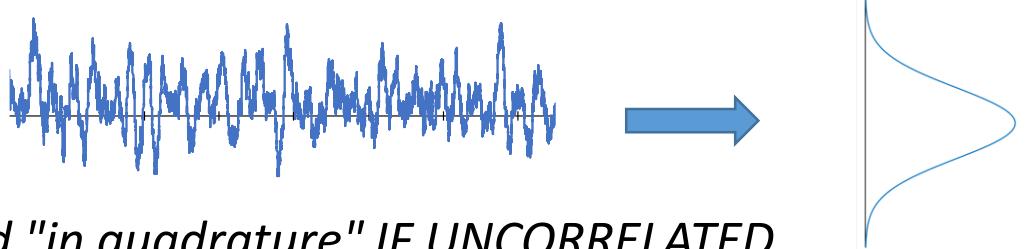
$$i = n_e q_e v \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sigma_i^2 = (n_e q_e)^2 \sigma_v^2 + (v q_e)^2 \sigma_n^2$$

- *Intrinsic noise arises from fluctuations in (1) number of the carriers or (2) velocity of the carriers*
- *Every component in a circuit can generate intrinsic noise*

Resolution & Noise

General properties of intrinsic noise

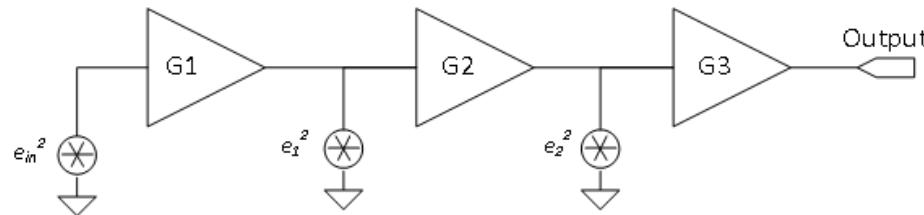
- Noise amplitude varies randomly with time
- Probability distribution of amplitude is Gaussian



- Sources add "in quadrature" IF UNCORRELATED

$$\langle \sigma_{TOT}^2 \rangle = \langle \sigma_1^2 \rangle + \langle \sigma_2^2 \rangle + \langle \sigma_3^2 \rangle + \dots$$

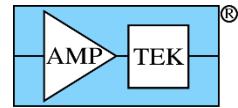
- Noise at input, before gain, dominates



$$\langle V_{output}^2 \rangle = (G_1 G_2 G_3)^2 \langle V_{in}^2 \rangle + (G_2 G_3)^2 \langle V_1^2 \rangle + (G_3)^2 \langle V_2^2 \rangle$$

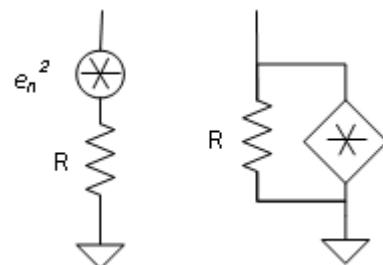
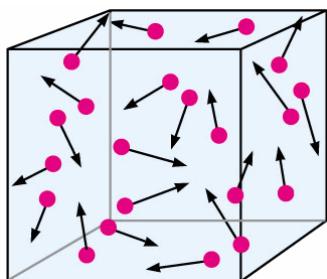
- Can be minimized (by changing noise sources or noise filtering) but can never be eliminated.

Resolution & Noise



Thermal noise

- *Mechanism*
 - Electrons in a conductor form a gas and exhibit Brownian motion.
 - Even when average current is zero, fluctuating velocities of individual carriers lead to an instantaneous fluctuating current
- *Statistical fluctuation in velocity of carriers*
 - No current flow needed: a resistor on a bench exhibits thermal noise
 - Depends only on the resistance: every $1\text{k}\Omega$ resistor has $4 \text{nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ noise
 - Occurs in anything dissipative (dissipation fluctuation theorem)
 - Slope of IV curve has units ohms but no dissipation \rightarrow no shot noise
- *Properties*
 - Model as voltage noise source in series with resistor or current source in parallel
 - Increases with temperature
 - Uniform spectral density (white noise) \leftrightarrow uncorrelated in time



$$e_n^2 = 4kTR \quad i_n^2 = \frac{4kT}{R}$$

Resolution & Noise

Thermal noise in radiation detection

- Resistors in input circuit
 - Feedback resistor, HV bias resistor

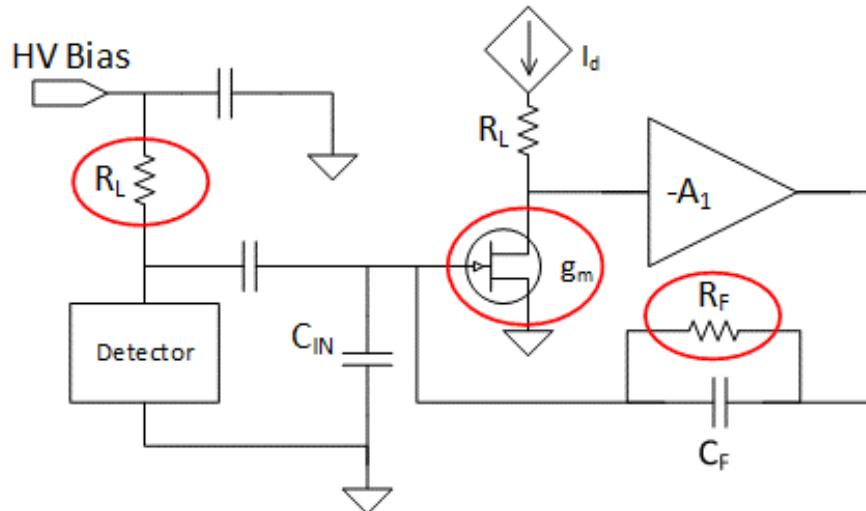
$$i_n^2 = \frac{4kT}{R_{\parallel}}$$

- Channel of input transistor
 - Fluctuations of velocity of carriers in the channel

$$i_n^2 = \frac{N_{chan} q_e}{L^2} \mu_0 4kT = \gamma g_m (4kT)$$

- Input capacitor
 - Dielectric dissipation → noise scales as $1/\omega$

$$e_n^2(\omega) = \frac{4kT}{\omega C \tan \delta}$$

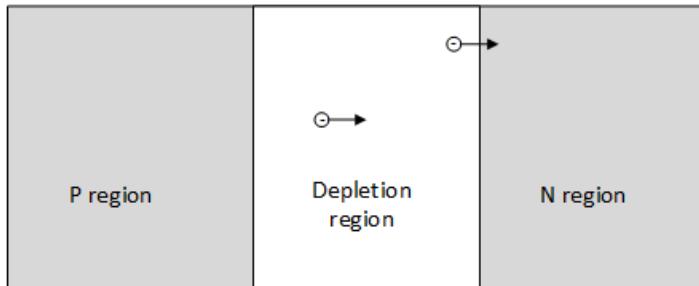


Resolution & Noise

■ Shot noise

- *Statistical fluctuation in number of carriers in current flow*
 - Associated with current flow
 - Occurs when charge cross a barrier (junction, vacuum tube)
 - Occurs when carrier motion is independent (not correlated)
 - Does not occur in "ohmic" conductor
- *Shot noise is independent of temperature*
 - The current causing it may depend on temperature
- *Uniform spectral density*
 - In time domain, represented as an impulse
 - In frequency domain, it is white (Fourier transform of impulse)

Discrete charges at random times



$$i_n^2 = 2q_e I_{DC}$$

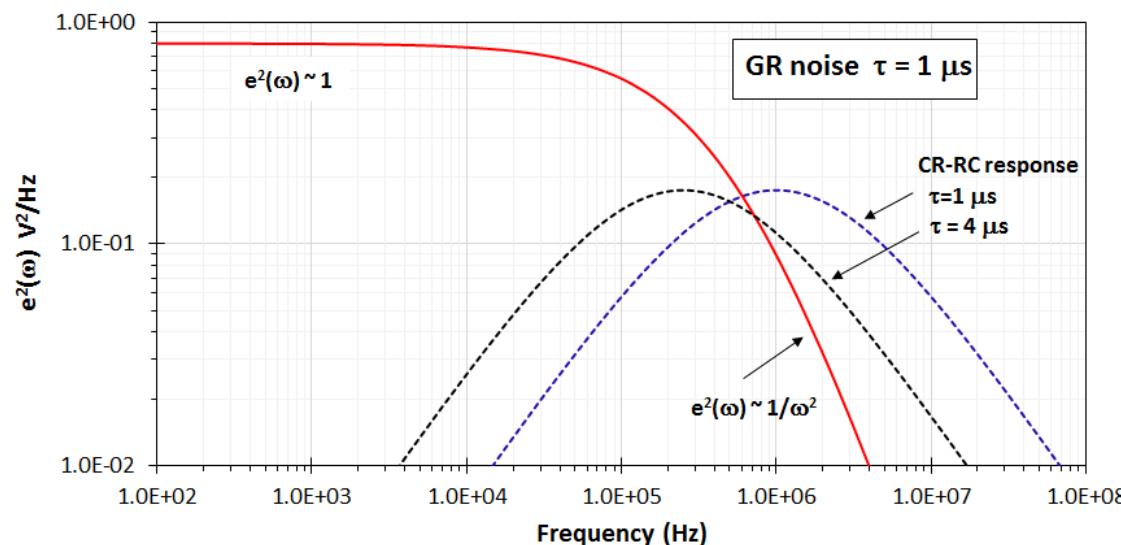
Resolution & Noise

■ Generation-Recombination noise

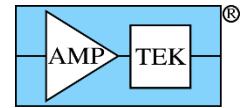
- *Statistical fluctuation in number of carriers generated and recombining*
 - Associated with a characteristic lifetime τ
 - At time intervals $T < \tau$, number is correlated so $e^2(\omega)$ decreases with as ω increases
- *Non-uniform spectral density*
 - $I_n^2(\omega)$ follows a Lorentzian distribution

$$I_n^2(\omega) = \left(\frac{4I_{DC}^2}{N} \right) \left(\frac{\tau}{1 + (\omega\tau)^2} \right)$$

where g is generation rate, so number of carriers is $N = g\tau$



Resolution & Noise



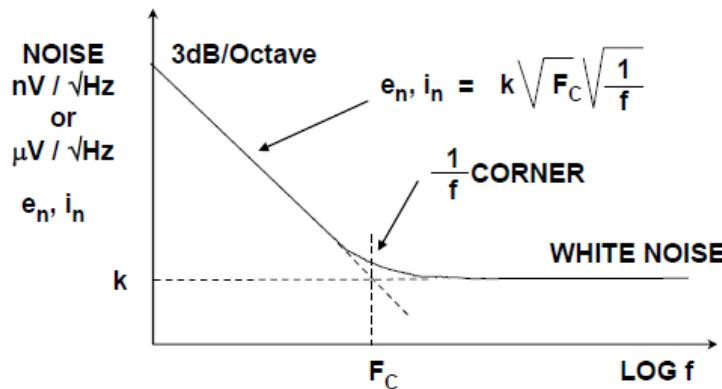
■ 1/f noise

- Various origins

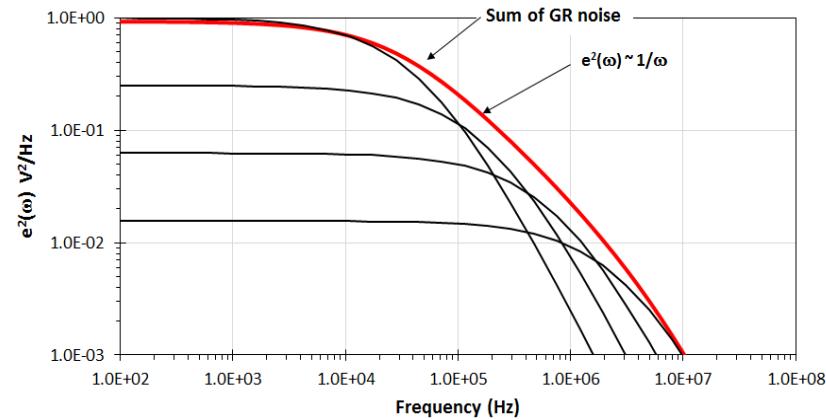
- All active devices also exhibit 1/f noise
- MOSFETs theory → 1/f fluctuations in number and velocity
- Resistors exhibit material dependent 1/f noise (a.k.a. excess noise)
- Not always strictly 1/f. Can be 1/f² or to another power
- Sum of GR lifetimes give 1/f over some band

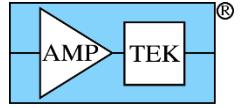
- Key properties

- Difficult to suppress. Usually important .



From Analog Devices





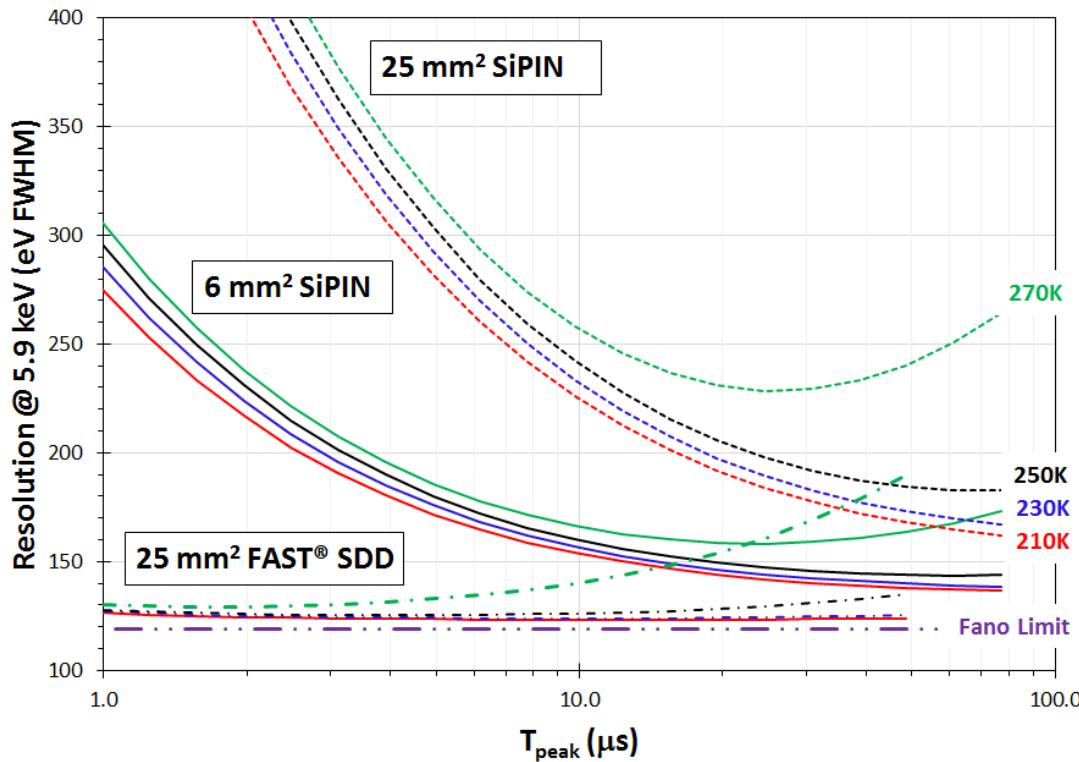
3.3 Noise and Pulse Shaping

How does pulse shaping filter noise?

Resolution & Noise

■ Noise dependence

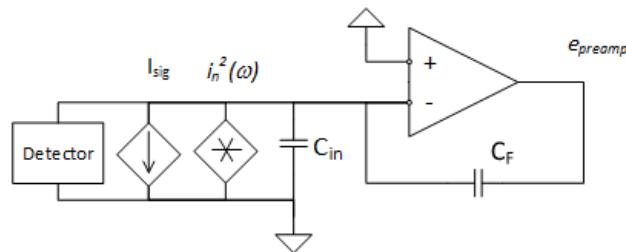
- Varies with shaping time
- Varies with temperature (different at long and short τ)
- Varies with detector area and technology
- Varies with type of pulse shaping (not shown here)



Noise and Pulse Shaping

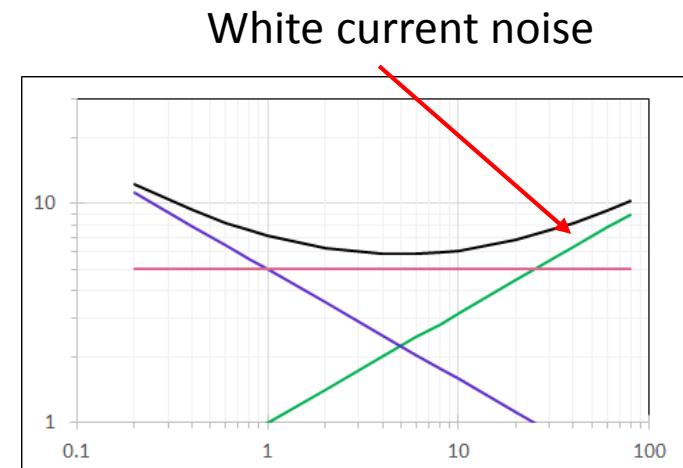
Parallel noise (a.k.a. current noise)

- There are current noise sources in parallel with signal current
 - Detector leakage current shot noise, feedback resistor thermal noise, etc.
 - Actual, physical fluctuating currents into the preamp input
 - Mostly shot noise from I_{dark} and thermal noise from $R_{||}$ (both white)
- These are integrated by the feedback capacitor
 - This is a low pass filter (integration $\leftrightarrow 1/\omega C_F$)
 - White parallel noise \rightarrow low frequency at preamp output



$$e_{preamp}(\omega) = \frac{i_n(\omega)}{\omega C_F}$$

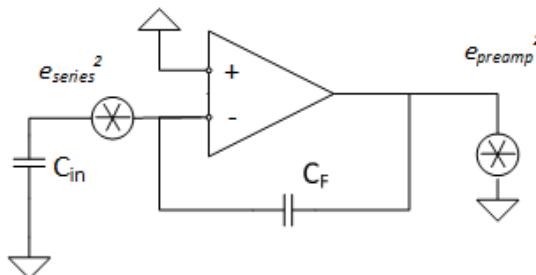
$$Q_{ENC} = \left(2qI_d + \frac{4kT}{R_{||}} + i_{amp}^2 \right) (A_{step}^2 \tau)$$



Noise and Pulse Shaping

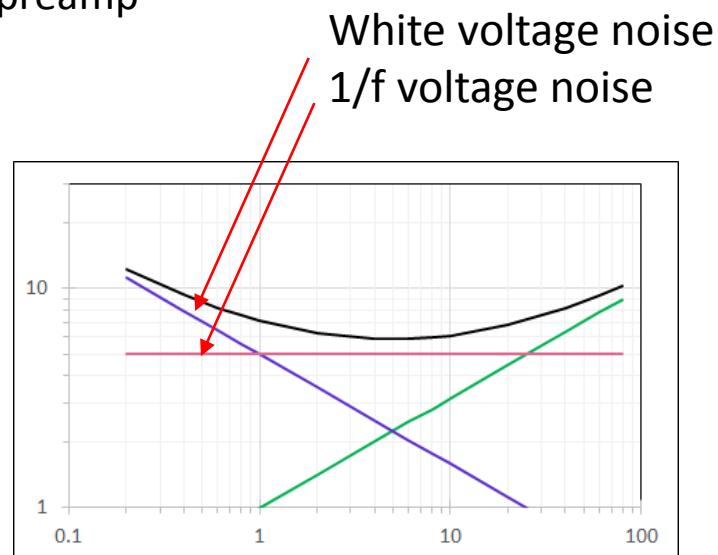
■ Series noise (a.k.a. voltage noise)

- Noise sources in the preamp → noise at preamp output
- Model these as a voltage noise source in series with input
 - An input equivalent noise source. The fluctuations are not actually there
 - Input equivalent noise increases with C_{in} . Low capacitance is important
- Not integrated by feedback capacitor
 - White noise sources lead to white noise at preamp
 - Mostly white and 1/f noise from FET



$$e_{preamp}(\omega) = e_{series}(\omega) \left(1 + \frac{C_{in}}{C_F} \right) = e_{series}(\omega) \frac{(C_{in} + C_F)}{C_F}$$

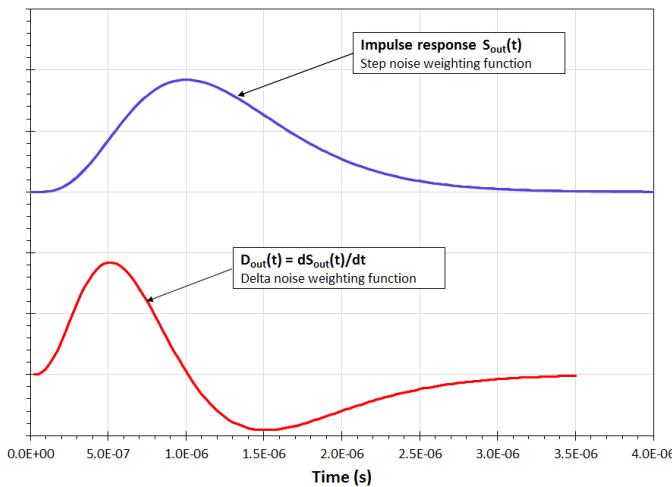
$$Q_{ENC}^2 \cong C_{in}^2 \left\{ \left(v_{1/f}^2 \right) A_{pink}^2 + \left(4kT \left(\frac{\gamma}{g_m} \right) + i_{preamp}^2 \right) \left(\frac{A_{delta}^2}{\tau} \right) \right\}$$



Noise and Pulse Shaping

■ Noise Weighting Functions

- Parallel white noise a.k.a. "Step noise"
 - Impulse at preamp input → step at preamp out → Output impulse is $S_{out}(t)$
 - Noise scales as $A_{step}^2 \tau$
- Series white noise a.k.a. "Delta noise"
 - Impulse (or "delta") at preamp output
 - Not integrated → Output impulse is $D_{out}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} S_{out}(t)$
 - Noise scales as A_{delta}^2 / τ
- Series 1/f noise a.k.a. "Pink noise"
 - Noise is independent of τ

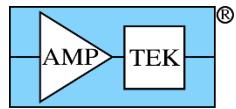


$$D_{out}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} S_{out}(t)$$

$$N_{step}^2 = \int_0^{\infty} |S_{out}(t)|^2 dt = e^2 \int_0^{\infty} \left[\frac{t}{\tau} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \right]^2 dt = \left(\frac{e^2}{4} \right) \tau$$

$$N_{delta}^2 = \int_0^{\infty} |D_{out}(t)|^2 dt = e^2 \int_0^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{1}{\tau} - \frac{t}{\tau^2} \right) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \right]^2 dt = \left(\frac{e^2}{4} \right) \frac{1}{\tau}$$

$$N_{pink}^2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{|D(\omega)|^2}{\omega} d\omega \sim \ln \left(\frac{f_u}{f_l} \right)$$



Resolution & Noise

■ Noise in a practical circuit

$$Q_{ENC}^2 \cong \left(2qI_d + \frac{4kT}{R_{\parallel}} + i_{FET}^2 \right) \left(A_{step}^2 \tau \right) + C_{in}^2 \left(v_{1/f}^2 \right) A_{pink}^2 + C_{in}^2 \left(4kT \left(\frac{\gamma}{g_m} \right) + e_{amp}^2 \right) \left(\frac{A_{delta}^2}{\tau} \right)$$

- Parallel noise

- Depends on dark current and parallel resistance
- I_d increases with detector size, strongly depends on detector temperature
- Dominates at long shaping times

- 1/f noise

- Scales with detector capacitance
- Depends on input FET and on materials at input
- Independent of shaping time. Dominates at minimum

- Series noise

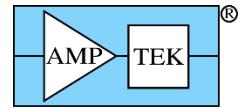
- Scales with detector capacitance
- Depends on FET properties

$$g_m \sim C_{FET} \rightarrow \text{Optimum when } C_{FET} \sim C_{det}$$

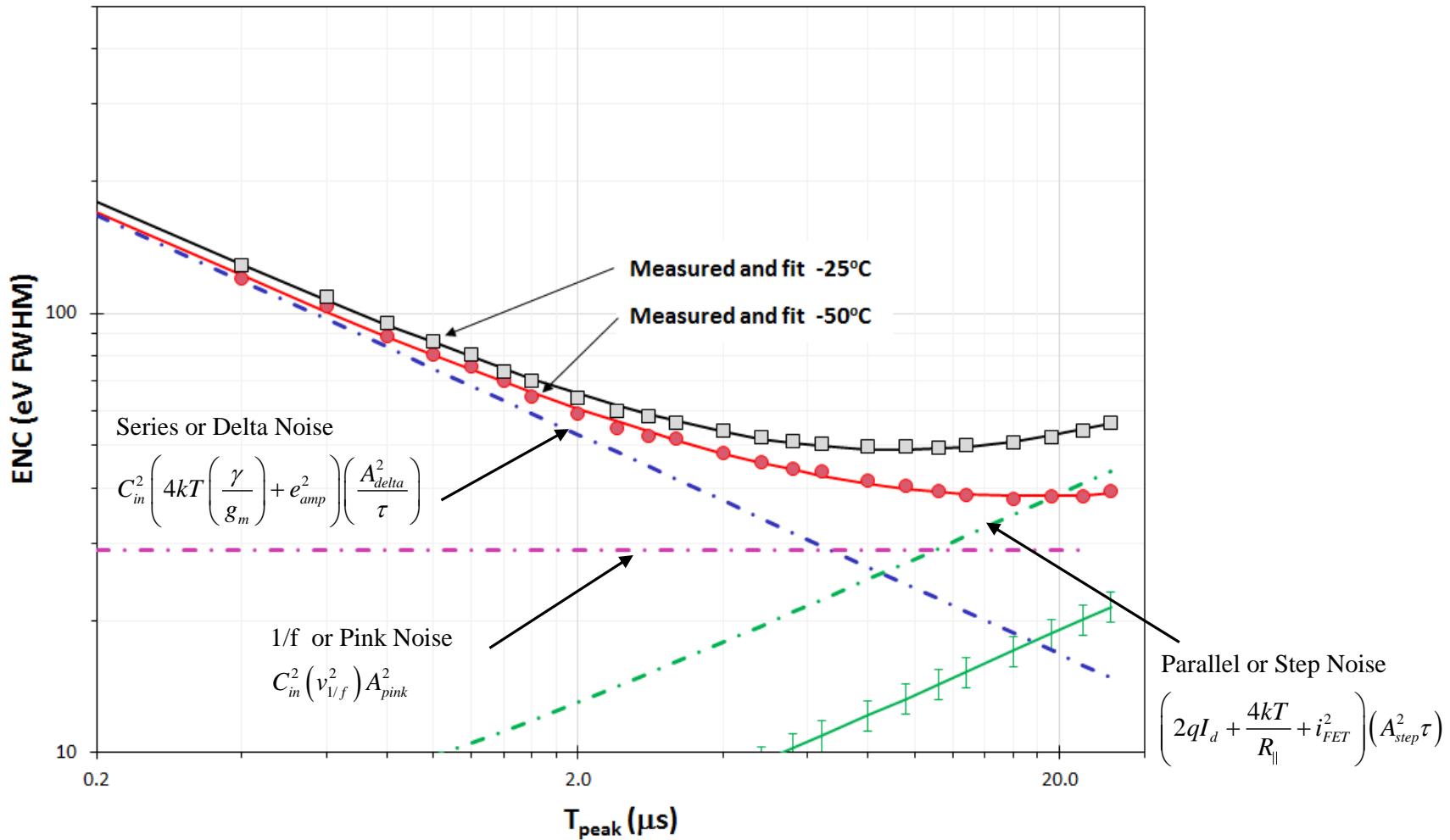
- Dominates at short shaping times (needed for high count rates)

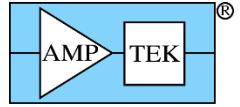
- Indices depend on pulse shaping: CR-RC versus others

Resolution & Noise



Example





4. Timing

4.1 Dead Time

What is dead time?
How does it affect a measurement?

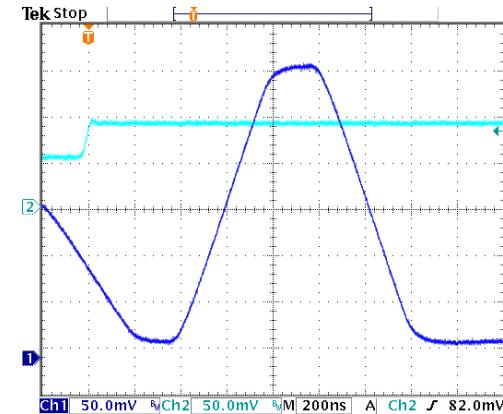
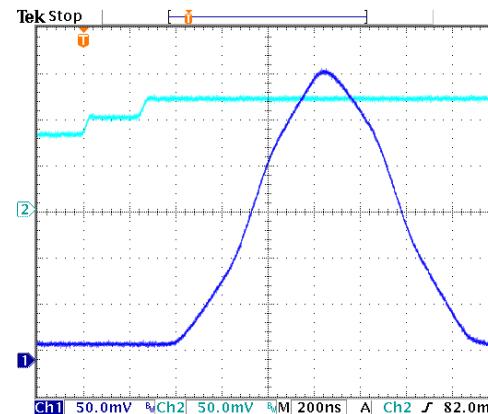
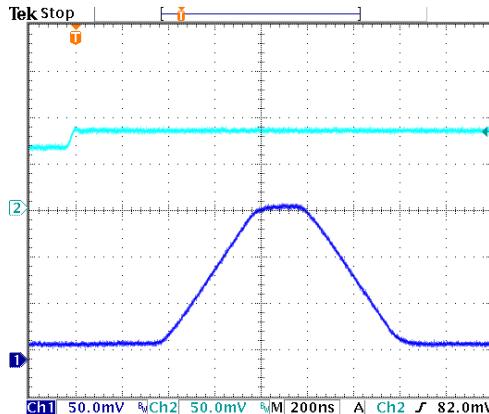
Timing: Dead Time

■ What is dead time?

- Time after each event during which the system cannot record another event
- Since events occur at random times, some events are always “lost”
- True input rate is R_{IN} . Measured output rate is R_{OUT}
- Want to know $R_{IN} \rightarrow$ minimize and correct for dead time losses

■ What causes dead time?

- Intrinsic detector response time
 - If detector current pulse is 10 to 50 ns, cannot detect a second if $\Delta T = 20 \text{ ns}$.
- Time associated with pulse shaping
 - Exact dead time depends on how events are identified
- Time associated with data acquisition, storage, and conversion



Timing: Dead Time

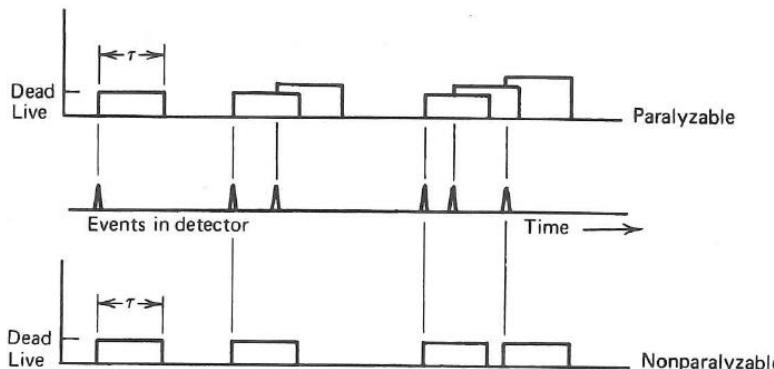
Dead Time Models

- *Non-paralyzable*

- An event happening during the dead time is simply lost
- At high rates, saturates at $R_{out} = 1/T_{dead}$

- *Paralyzable*

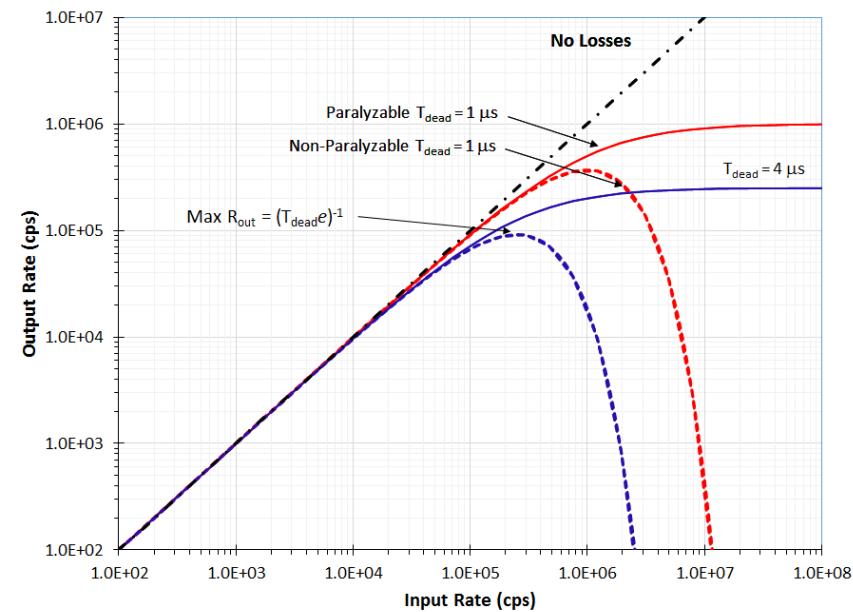
- Event happening during dead time restarts dead time
- At high rate, saturates as $R_{out} \rightarrow 0$
- Peak R_{out} occurs at $R_{in} = 1/T_{dead}$ and 68% ($1/e$) dead time



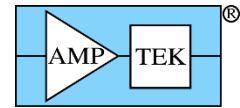
From Knoll

$$R_{out} = R_{in} \left(\frac{1}{1 - R_{in} T_{dead}} \right)$$

$$R_{out} = R_{in} \left(e^{-R_{in} T_{dead}} \right)$$

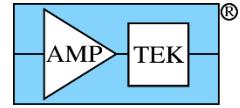


Timing: Dead Time



■ How do we correct for dead time losses?

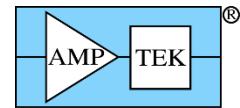
- *Computation*
 - If you know the dead time per pulses, and which model applies, then you can measure R_{out} and compute R_{in}
 - Works well in many systems but requires careful characterization
- *Live time clock*
 - Count rate comes from measured counts divided by measurement time
 - Can stop the clock while the system is dead, yielding live time
 - Must be able to define well the dead time of each pulse. Worked well in analog systems, where ADC acquisition time dominated
 - There are many sophisticated variations on this approach
- *Measuring input rate*
 - Can use a faster channel, with little dead time, and measure its rate directly
 - Must make sure all events are registering in both channels. Noise will be different in fast and slow; can get spurious noise pulses or events lost in noise, causing errors
- *Note*
 - We CAN correct for dead time losses with good accuracy
 - All corrections are approximate. Lower dead losses give better accuracy



4.2 Pile-Up

What is pile-up?
How does it affect a measurement?

Timing: Pileup



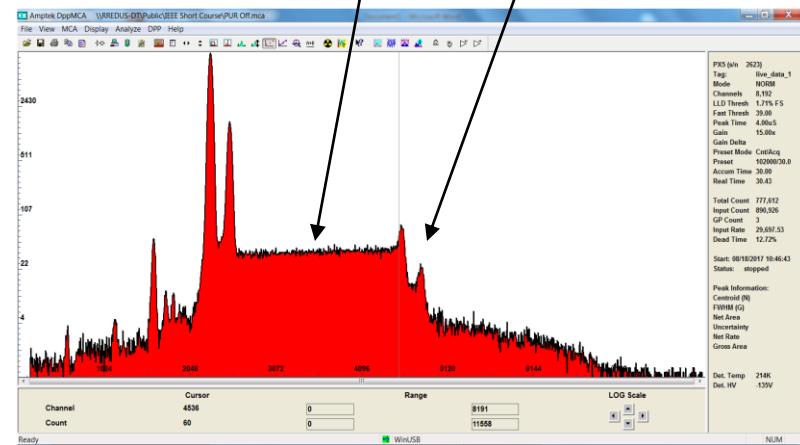
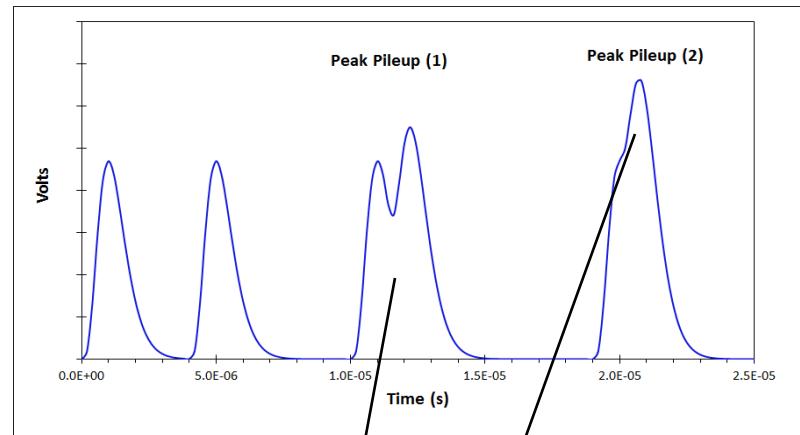
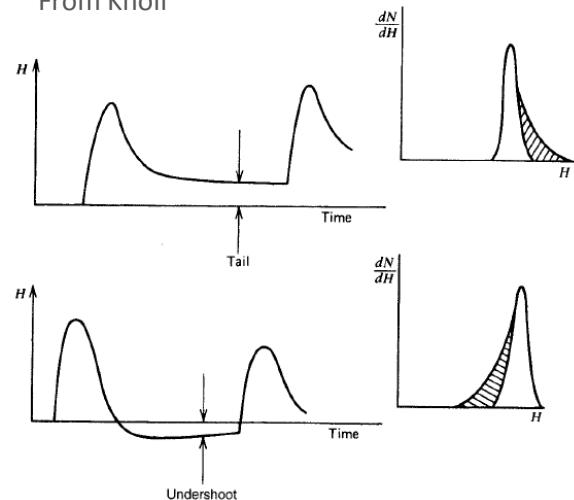
What causes pulse pileup?

- If two pulses are too close together in time, pulse height of second is affected.
- Result is an error in measured pulse height → Distortion in spectrum

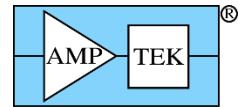
Three pile-up cases

- Tail Pile-up
- Peak Pile-up continuum, $\Delta T > T_{flat}$
- Peak Pile-up sum, $\Delta T < T_{flat}$

Tail Pile-up
From Knoll



Timing: Pileup

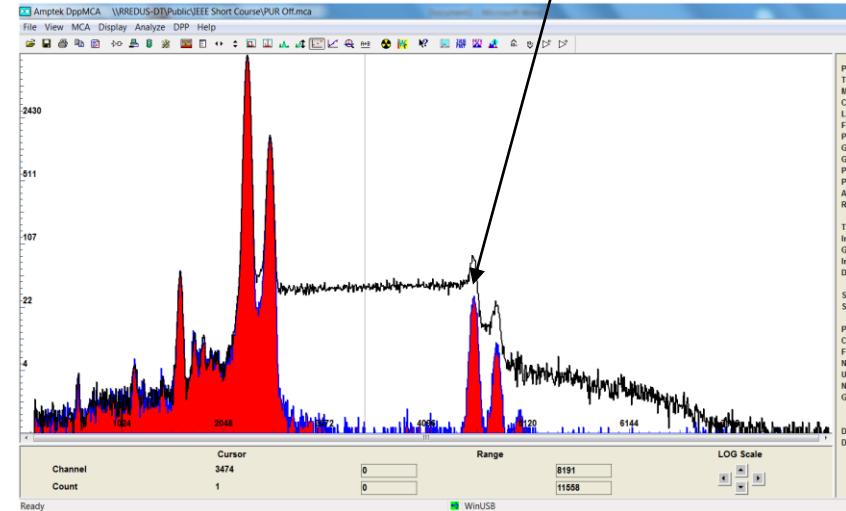
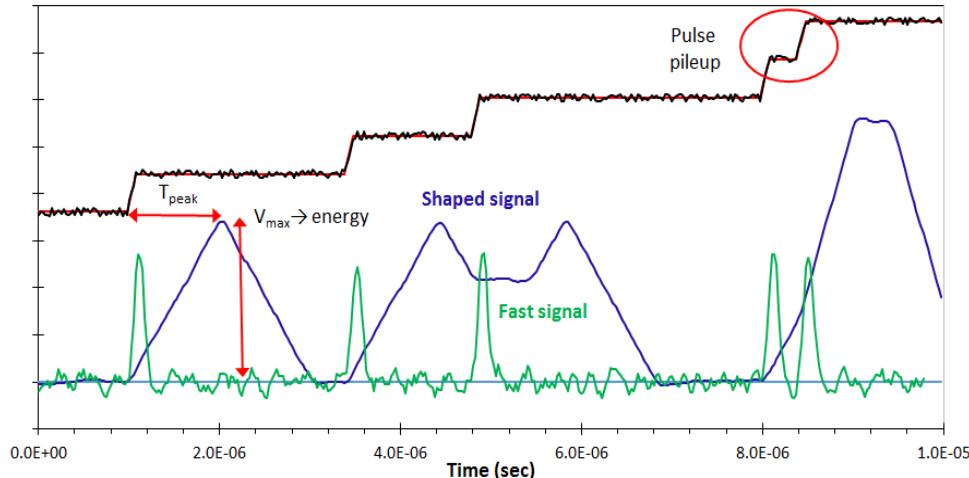


■ Pile-up Rejection

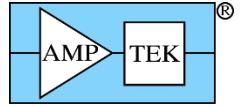
- A parallel fast channel is used, optimized to detect pulses quickly
- Identify pulses distinguishable in fast channel but overlapped in slow
- Rejects all pulses which would have pulse height error
- Reduces total count rate (double dead time per pulse) but cleans spectrum

■ Sum Peak

- Does not remove sum peak
- "Pulse pair resolving time"



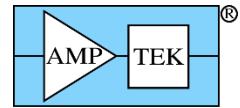
$$R_{sum} = R_1 R_2 T_{PPRT}$$



4.3 Timing Measurements

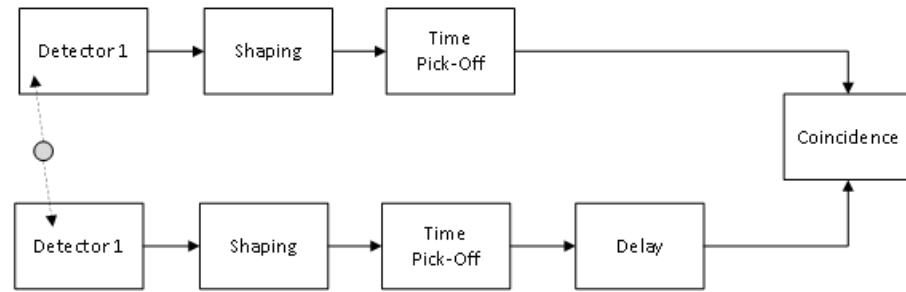
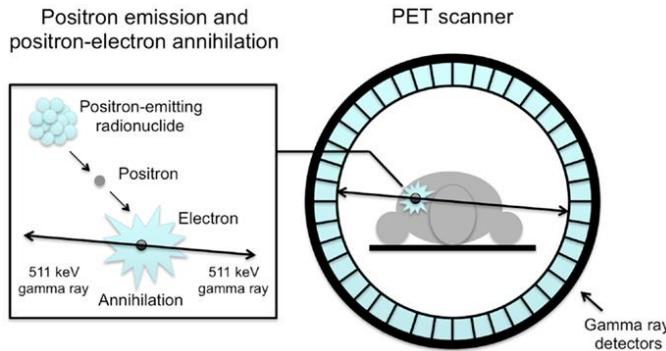
How do we measure pulse timing?

Timing Measurement

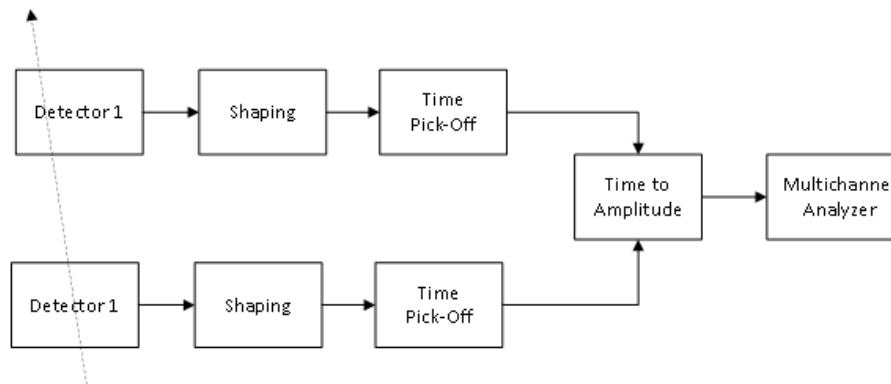


Applications

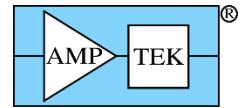
- *Positron Emission Tomography*
 - Were detectors triggered at some time (coincidence)?



- *Delay Measurement*
 - Velocity in accelerator, half-life of excited state



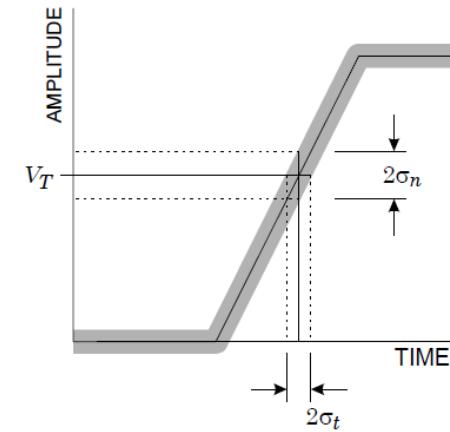
Timing Measurement



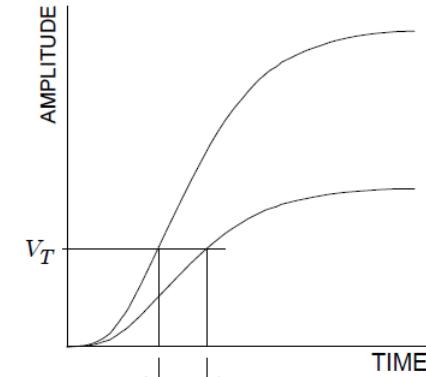
Leading Edge timing

- Pulse "time" defined by leading edge crossing a threshold
- Two sources of timing uncertainty
- Timing "jitter" (random)
 - ENC → fluctuation in timing measurement
 - Slope to noise ratio that matters

$$\sigma_{time} = \sigma_{noise} \left(\frac{dV}{dt} \right) \Big| V = thresh$$

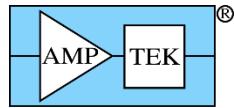


- Timing "walk" (systematic)
 - Time depends on pulse amplitude
 - Time crossing depends on shape of signal current



From Spieler

Timing Measurements



Key timing characteristics

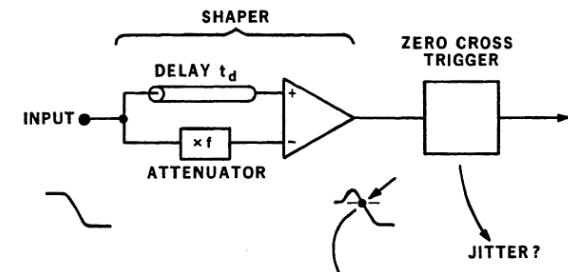
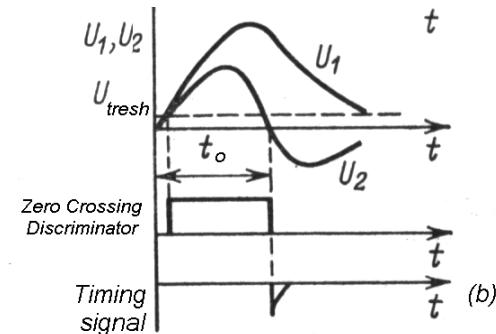
- There is always a delay: trigger happens after the event
- Timing properties depend on derivative, slope of shape pulse
 - Derivative → noise
 - Fast pulses often better → noisy

Other timing pick-off methods

- Trigger at peak
 - Find derivative of pulse, into zero crossing
 - Need to AND with a threshold
- Constant fraction
 - Sum signal and delayed, attenuated
 - Fires at a constant fraction of risetime
 - Independent of amplitude (no walk)

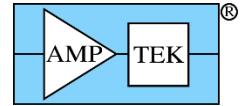
Digital

- Fit waveform or run other algorithms
- Limited by ADC clock



From Ortec

Timing Measurements



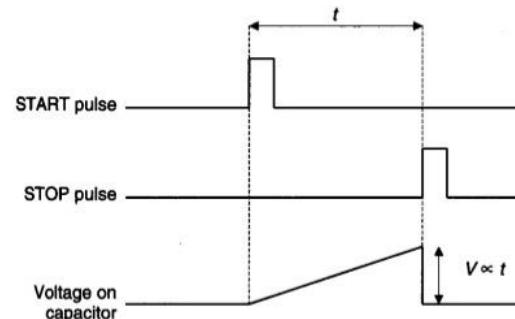
Other Timing Components

- *Delay units*
 - One always needs to adjust delays between channels

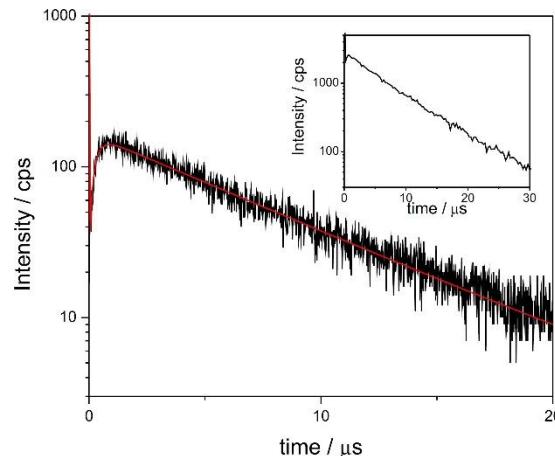
- *Coincidence units*
 - Looks for logic signals to be simultaneous

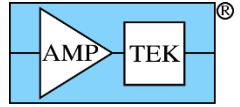
- *Time to amplitude converter*
 - Linear ramp from START to STOP
 - Use pulse height electronics for timing

- *Multichannel scaler (MCS)*
 - Records counts in successive time bins
 - Gives timing spectrum
 - Measure half-life



From Ortec



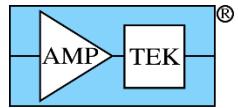


5. Pulse Shaping Revisited

Why are there different pulse shapers?
Which one should I use?

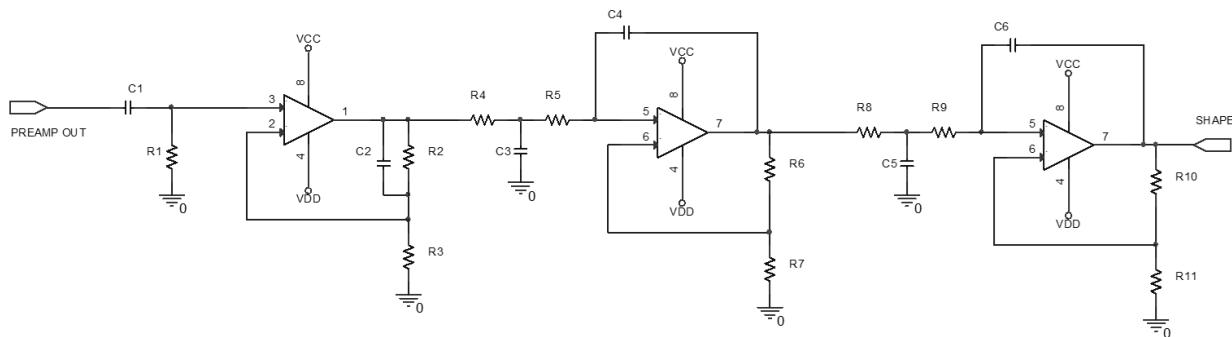
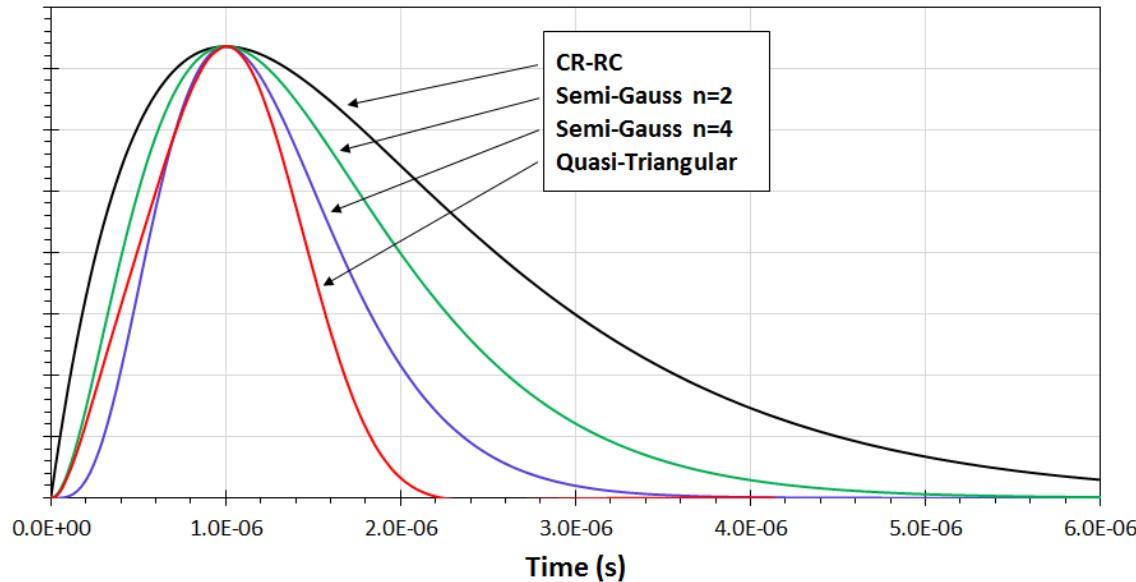
Other shaping topics

Pulse Shaping Revisited

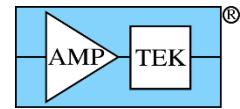


■ Analog pulse shapers

- More low pass filtering → Faster return to baseline & lower noise bandwidth
- Can also use "active" filters, Sallen-Key circuit with complex poles

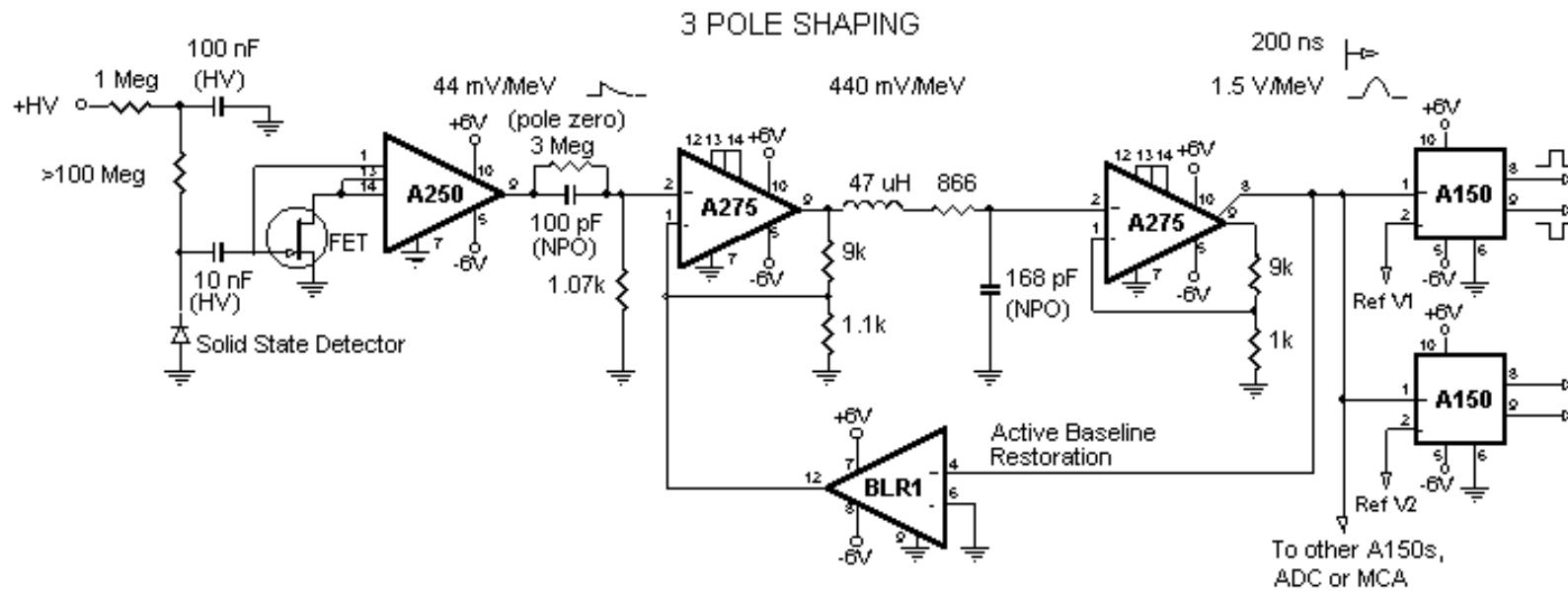


Pulse Shaping Revisited

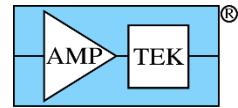


Real shaping circuit: Amptek hybrids

- For solid state particle detector
- A250 preamp with matched JFET and resistive feedback
- CR-(RC)² shaping with active baseline restore



Pulse shaping revisited



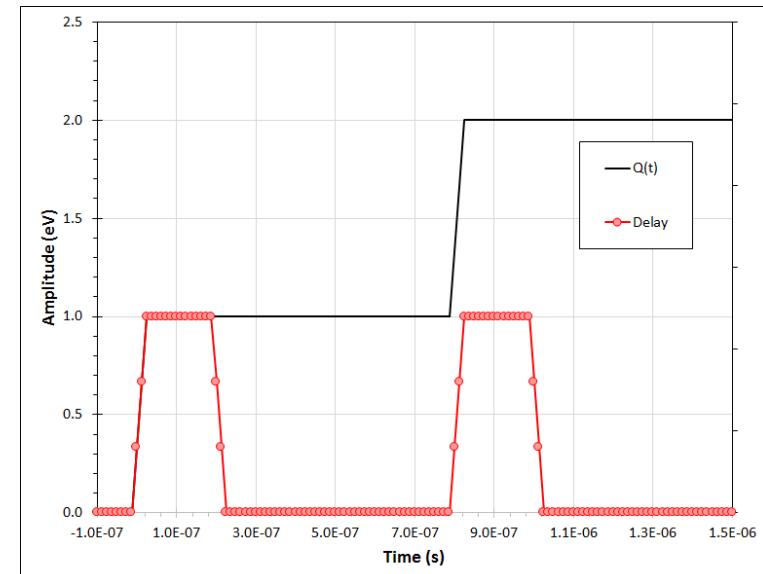
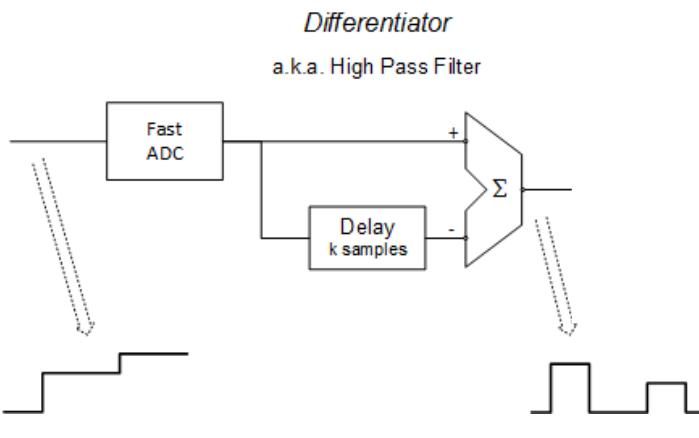
■ Digital High Pass: Finite Impulse Response

- *Problem with CR filter*

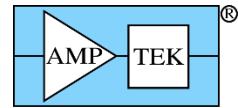
- It decays exponentially to zero → "Infinite Impulse Response" or IIR
 - It gets small but persists "forever" → long dead time, pile-up

- *Solution is delay subtract (digital high pass filter)*

- An impulse input leads to an output which goes to zero after some time
 - "Finite Impulse Response" or FIR. Yields higher count rates

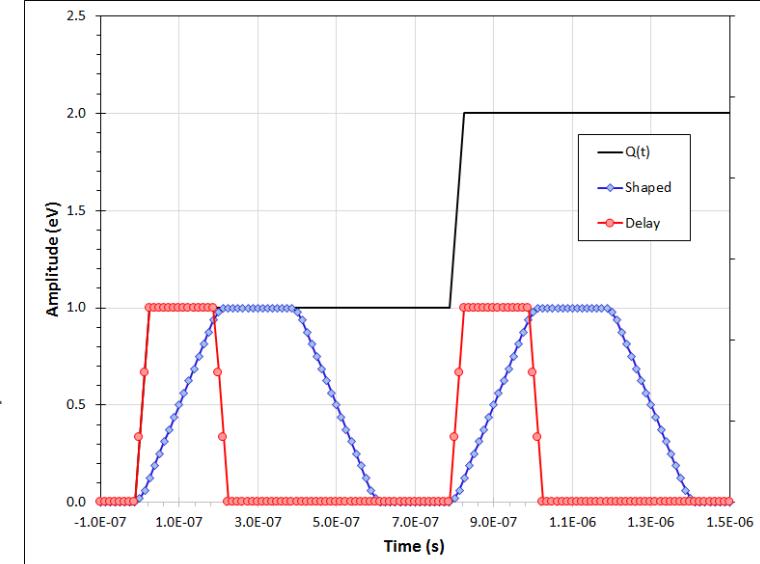
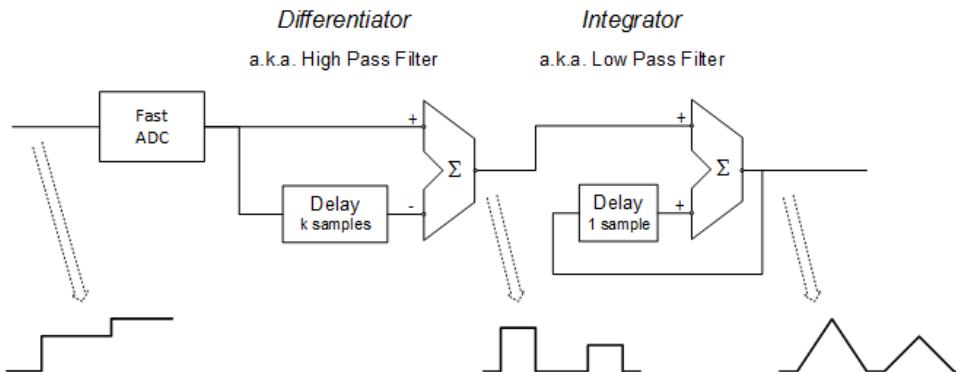


Pulse shaping revisited

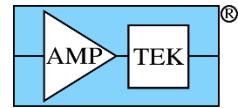


■ Digital Low Pass

- Apply running average (integrator) after differentiator
 - Pulse shape is trapezoid
 - Flat top means no ballistic deficit, clean sum peak
 - FIR means highest possible throughput
 - Noise indices are minimum
- More complex digital shapes possible: pseudo-cusp, etc



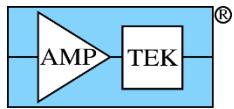
Pulse Shaping Revisited



■ What is the ideal pulse shape?

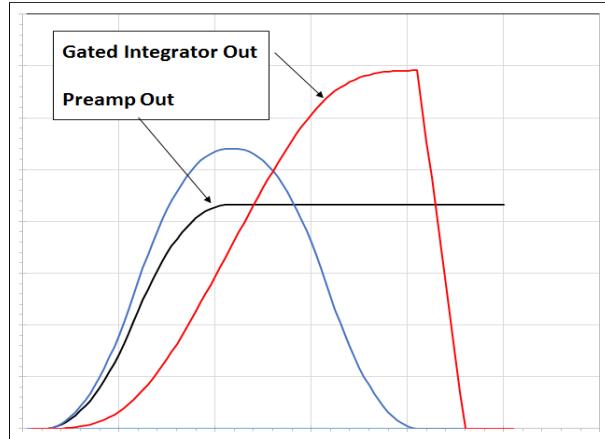
	Step (parallel) noise	Delta (series) noise	Duration (FWHM)	Duration (FWTM)
RC - CR	$\frac{e^2}{4} \tau_{peak} = 1.87\tau_{peak}$	$\frac{e^2}{4\tau_{peak}} = \frac{1.87}{\tau_{peak}}$	$2.45\tau_{peak}$	$4.8\tau_{peak}$
Semi-Gaussian	$\frac{2}{3}\tau_{peak}$	$\frac{2.5}{\tau_{peak}}$	$1.1\tau_{peak}$	$2.5\tau_{peak}$
Pseudo-Gaussian	$0.58\tau_{peak}$	$\frac{2.9}{\tau_{peak}}$	τ_{peak}	$2.2\tau_{peak}$
Infinite cusp	τ_0	$\frac{1}{\tau_0}$		
Digital Triangle	$\frac{2}{3}\tau_{peak}$	$\frac{2}{\tau_{peak}}$	τ_{peak}	$2\tau_{peak}$
Digital Trapezoid	$\frac{2}{3}\tau_{peak} + \tau_{flat}$	$\frac{2}{\tau_{peak}}$	$\tau_{peak} + \tau_{flat}$	$2\tau_{peak} + \tau_{flat}$

Pulse shaping revisited



■ Analog Time Variant: Gated Integrator

- *Adjust the integration time for every pulse*
 - Completely eliminates ballistic deficit
 - Noise depends on integration time
 - Depends on spectrum – not known a priori
 - Cannot be modeled in frequency domain
 - Peak shapes are not Gaussian (sum of Gaussian) and always varying
- *Other time variant circuits are in use*



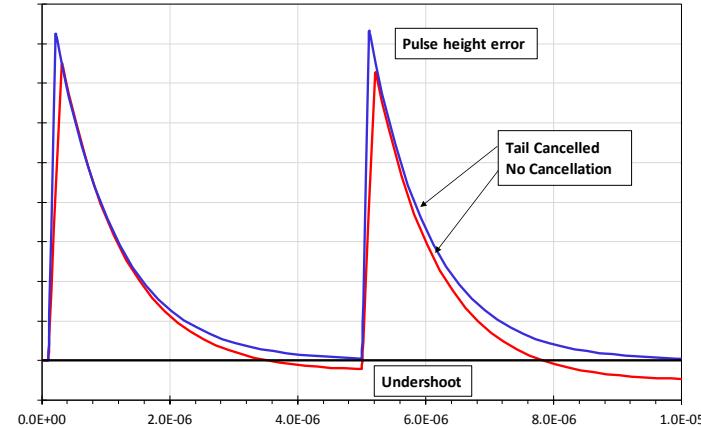
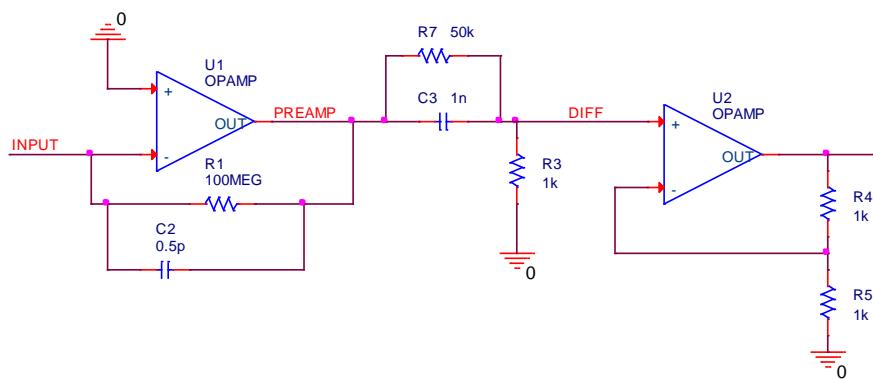
■ Digital Time Variant: Adaptive shaping

- *Adjust the peaking time on every pulse*
 - Use the longest time that avoids overlap
 - Provides highest possible resolution for good throughput
 - Resolution depends on count rate so always varying
 - Peak shapes are not Gaussian (sum of Gaussian) and always varying
- *Very active topic in research today*

Pulse shaping: Additional topics

■ Pole Zero Cancellation

- *Problem*
 - CR passes attenuated slow tail → tail undershoot → error for next pulse
- *Solution*
 - Pass an attenuated fraction of the actual tail (via R7)
 - $(R7 C3) = (R1 C2)$



- *Why is this called "pole zero cancellation"?*
 - The "pole" from the preamp is "cancelled" to get a single pole response

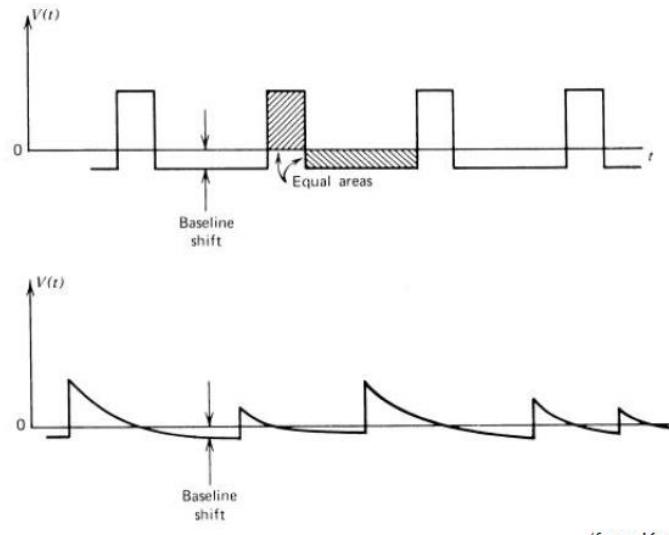
$$\left[\frac{s\tau_{\text{preamp}}}{1+s\tau_{\text{preamp}}} \right] \left[\frac{s\tau_{\text{CR}}}{1+s\tau_{\text{CR}}} \right] \Rightarrow \left[\frac{s\tau_{\text{preamp}}}{1+s\tau_{\text{preamp}}} \right] \left[\frac{\tau_{\text{CR}}(1+sR_{\text{PZ}}C)}{\tau_{\text{CR}} + R_{\text{PZ}}C + sR_{\text{PZ}}C} \right] = \left[\frac{s\tau_1}{1+s\tau_1} \right] \text{ if } R_{\text{PZ}}C = \tau_{\text{preamp}}$$

Pulse shaping: Additional topics

✓ Baseline restoration

- *Problem*

- Capacitor blocks DC. A sequence of unipolar pulses has a DC component, so baseline shifts
- Shift depends on count rate and energy spectrum



(from Knoll)

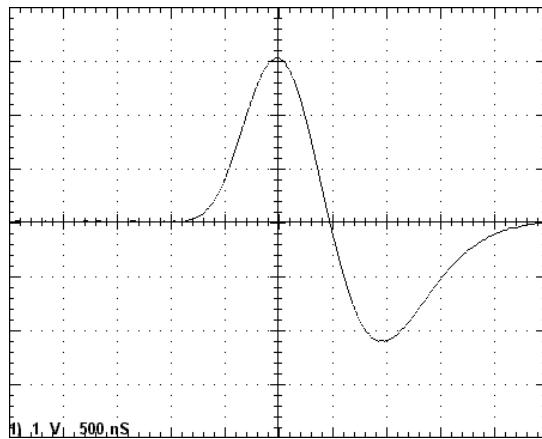
- *Solution*

- Pull the signal to ground in the absence of a signal
- Initially done with diodes, now typically uses a feedback loop
- Fast loops recover quickly but can add noise

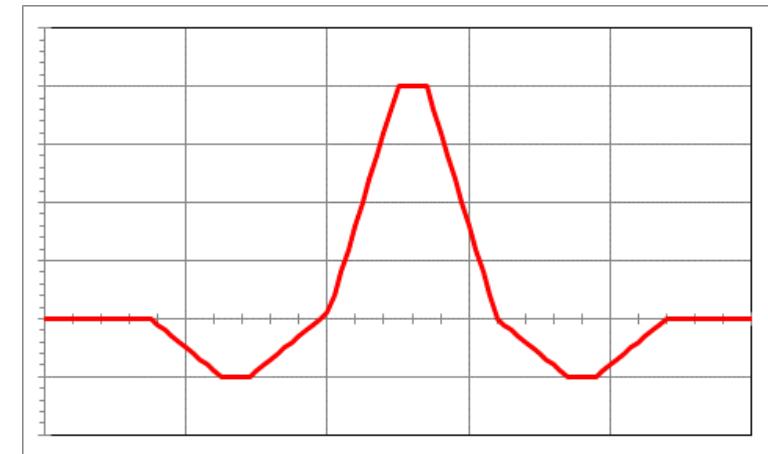
Pulse shaping: Additional topics

■ Bipolar Shaping

- *Alternate solution for baseline shift*
 - Use a double-lobed pulse, with net area zero
 - Stable baseline and better rejects low frequency noise (e.g. 60 Hz)
 - But shaping factors A_{delta} , A_{step} worse ($\sqrt{2}$ analog, $\sqrt{1.5}$ digital)
 - Used where intrinsic noise not critical, stability and simplicity are



Analog bipolar pulse



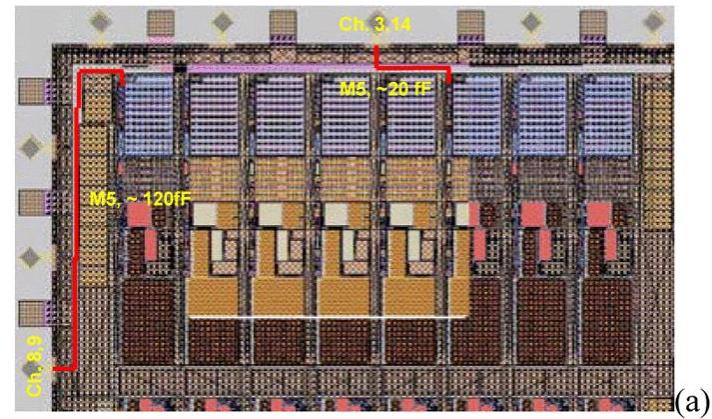
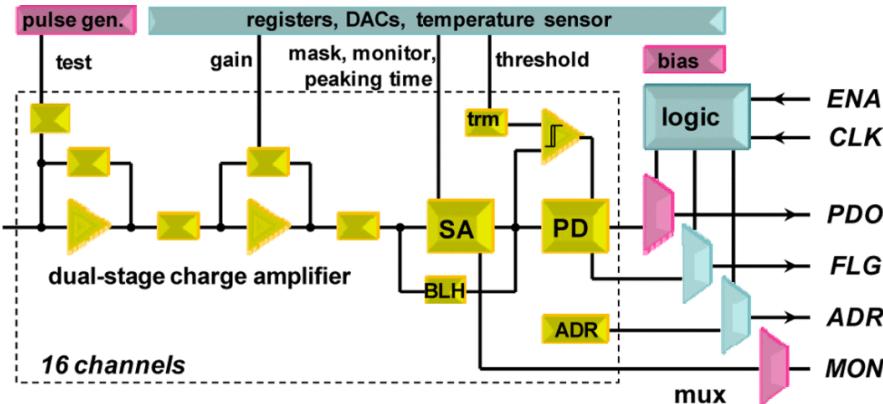
Digital bipolar pulse

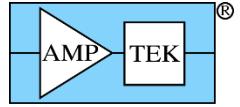
Pulse shaping: Additional topics

Application Specific ICs

- *Compact multichannel systems*

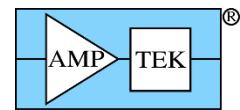
- De Geronimo, *ASIC for SDD-Based X-Ray Spectrometers*, IEEE TNS 2010
- 16 channels, each with preamp, shaper, and peak detect
- Single IC, 2 x 5 mm, <2 mW per channel, rad-hard
- Advantage: Compare to digital spectrometer: 2"x2", 1W per channel
- Disadvantage: Must customize for detector and application
- ASIC development is a very active field!





6. Digitizing the Output

Digitizing



✓ Threshold discriminator

- Logic output if signal over threshold
- Only has lower threshold

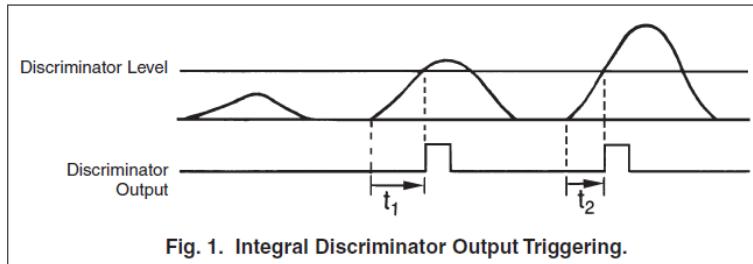


Fig. 1. Integral Discriminator Output Triggering.

✓ Single Channel Analyzer

- Logic output if signal in window
- Has lower and upper level
- Timing SCA generates output at a well-defined time relative to pulse
- Can stack several SCAs

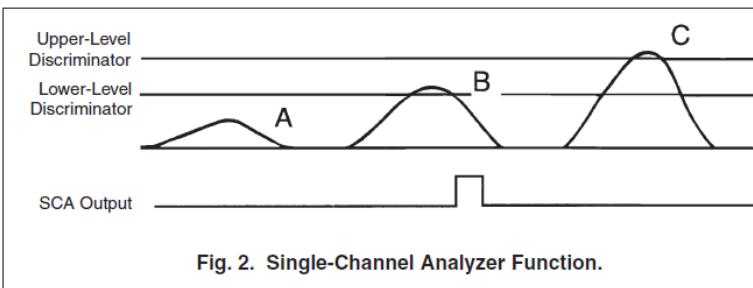
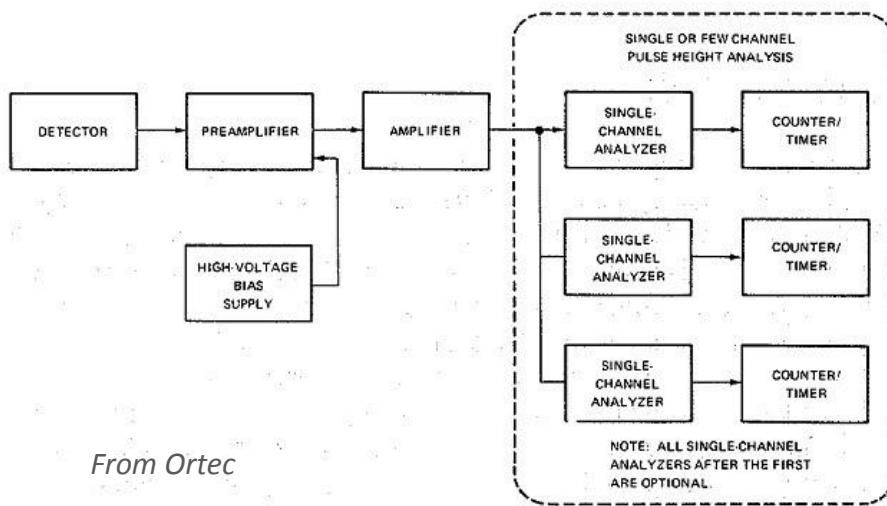


Fig. 2. Single-Channel Analyzer Function.

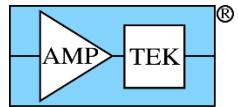
✓ Counters & Timers

- Used with discriminators & SCAs



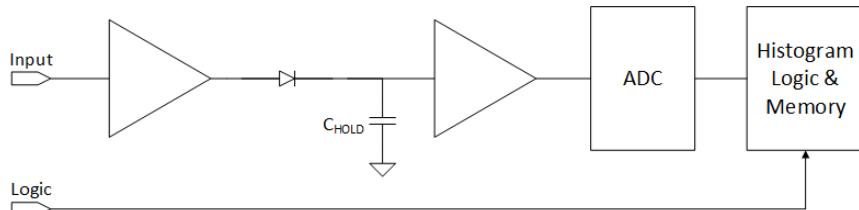
From Ortec

Digitizing



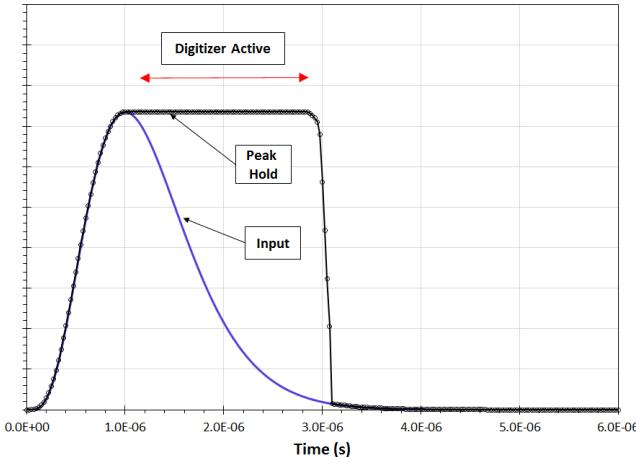
■ Multi-Channel Analyzer

- *Equivalent to many SCAs*
- *Get histogram of pulse heights*



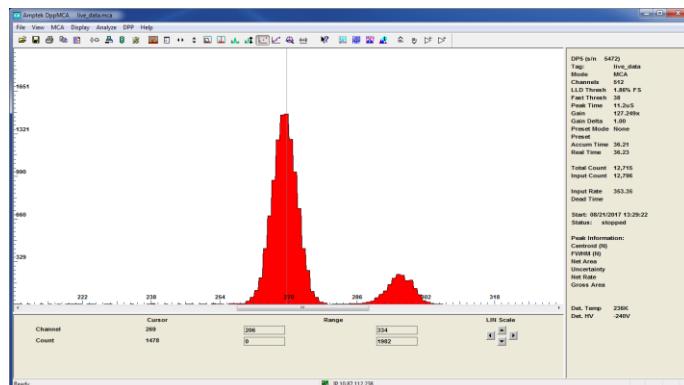
■ MCA Components

- *Peak detect & hold*
- *ADC*
- *Acceptance logic (pile-up, gate)*
- *Histogram memory*
- *Readout*

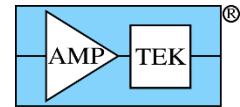


■ ADC

- *Critical to MCA*
- *Many options*

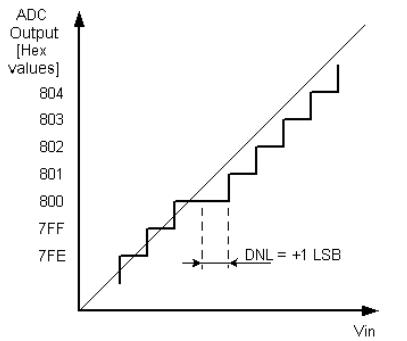


Digitizing



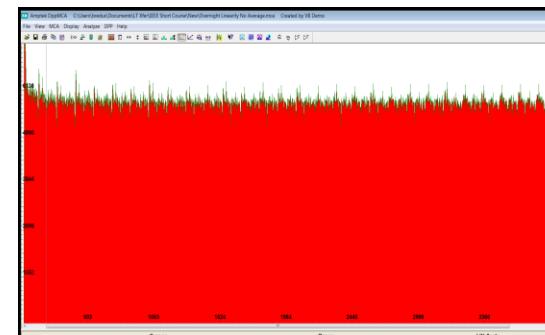
ADC parameters

- *Resolution*
 - Granularity of the output
 - Adds noise (white voltage noise)
- *Non-linearity*
 - Differential: How uniform are the digitization increments?

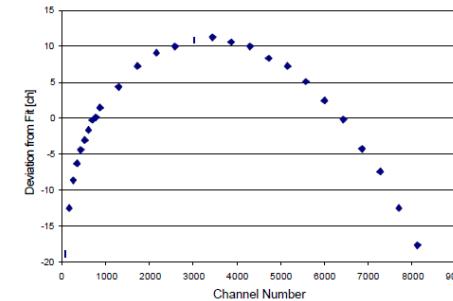
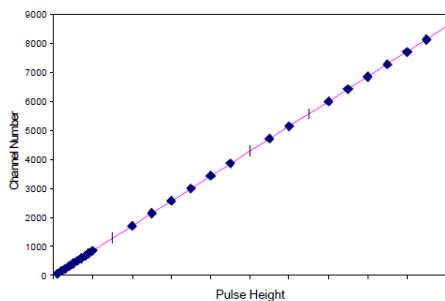


© 2009 Adrian S. Nastase, MasteringElectronicsDesign.com

$$\sigma_v = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}(\Delta V_{LSB})$$



- *Integral*: Is the digitized output proportional to the analog input



From Spieler

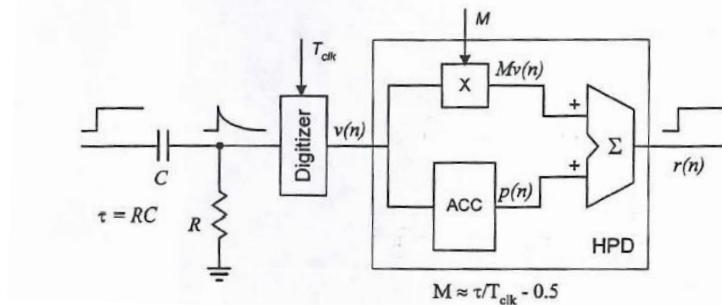
■ Digital Pulse Processing

- *Analog Prefilter*

- Signal from preamp must be prepared for digitization
- Basic problem: Millivolt preamp signal poorly matched to ADC bits
- Several different algorithms with different prefilters

- *Jordanov prefilter (NIM 1994)*

- CR high pass filter removes offset, then apply gain to match ADC
- Must then cancel (digitally) the tail thus introduced



$$d_n = \text{ADC}_n - \text{ADC}_{n-k} - \text{ADC}_{n-l} + \text{ADC}_{n-(k+l)}$$

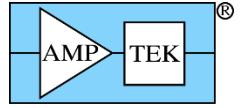
$$p_n = p_{n-1} + d_n$$

$$r_n = p_n + M d_n$$

$$s_n = s_{n-1} + r_n$$

$k \rightarrow \text{risetime}$ $(k-l) \rightarrow \text{flat}$

- *For all DPPs, analog prefilter must be matched to detector and preamp*
- *Analog pulse shaping is key to a successful DPP*



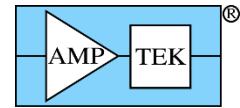
6. Why things don't work

6.1 Practical considerations

After assembling a detector system, a common experience is that it doesn't work as expected. H Spieler

Why noise theory often does not seem to matter.

Why things don't work: Practical matters

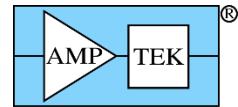


■ Shea's Law: The ability to improve a design occurs primarily at the interfaces. This is also the prime location for screwing it up.

■ Connections

- *Check that everything is connected*
- *Check that the power is turned on*
- *Cables and termination*
 - Improper termination can attenuate the signal
 - Improper termination can cause ringing → Amplified high frequency noise
 - Long cables are susceptible to reflections, resistive losses, and interference
 - USE THE RIGHT CONNECTORS AND CABLES
 - KEEP CONNECTIONS AS SHORT AS POSSIBLE
- *Check mechanical interfaces*
 - Good heat sinking matters
 - Mechanical stability matters

Why things don't work: Practical matters



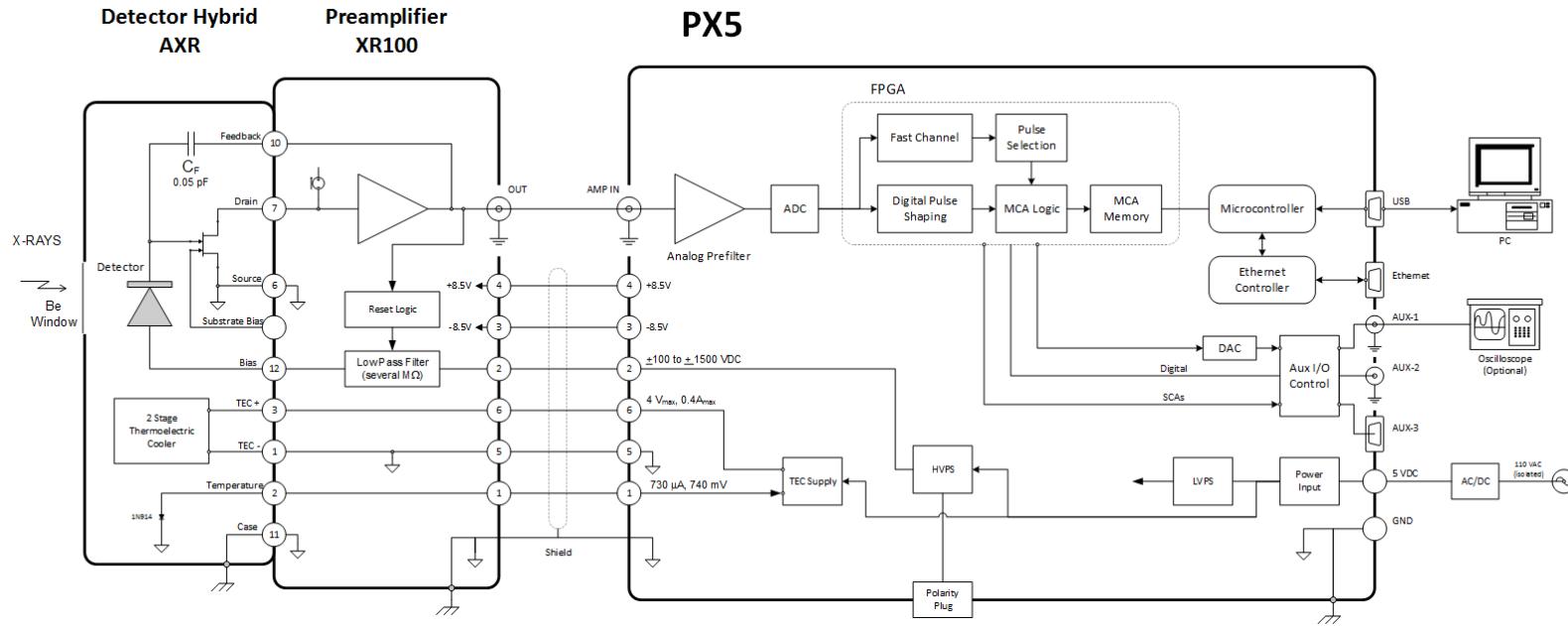
Consider the WHOLE system

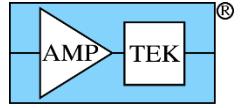
Power supplies

- Nuclear systems include HVPS, several low voltages, etc
- Can have 1/3rd the parts. Don't underestimate!

Communications interfaces

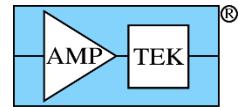
- You have to get the data from the digitizer to a computer
- Can have 1/3rd the parts. Don't underestimate!





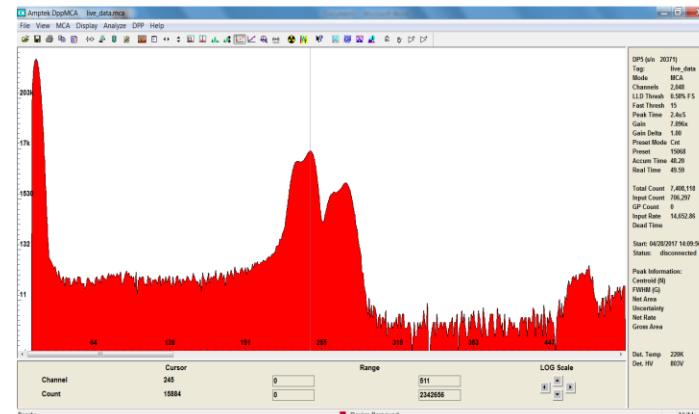
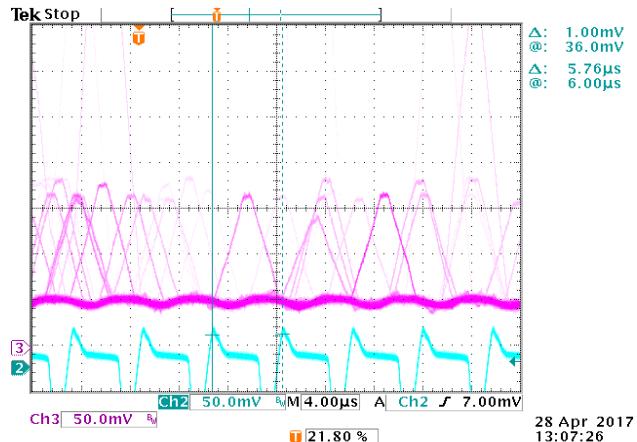
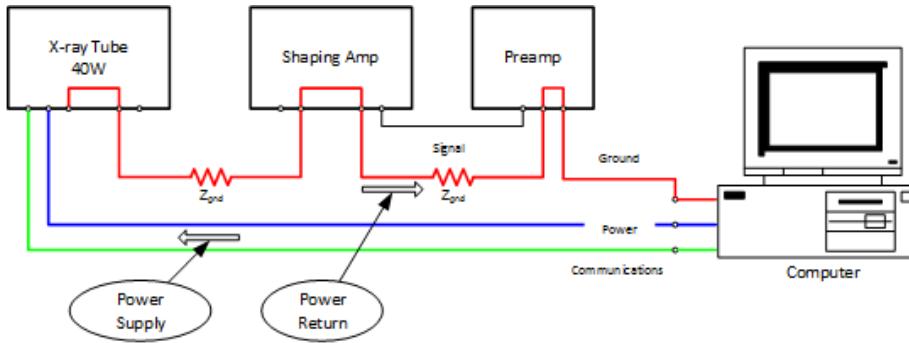
6.2 Interference

Why things don't work: Interference

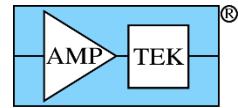


What is interference?

- Noise arising from energy coupling into the circuit from outside

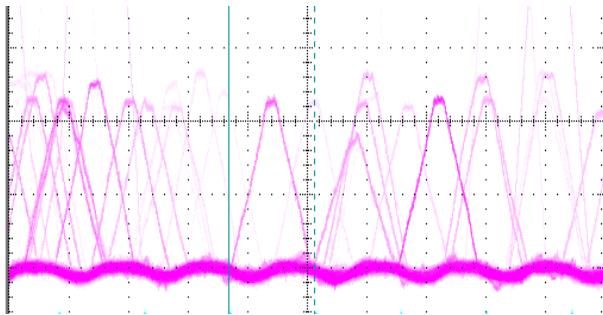


Why things don't work: Interference

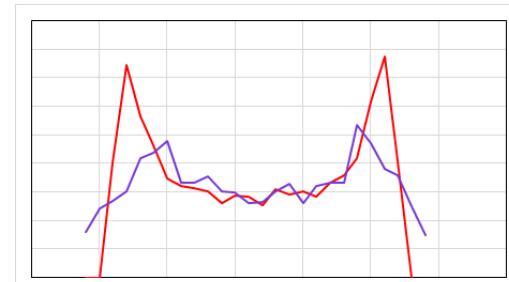
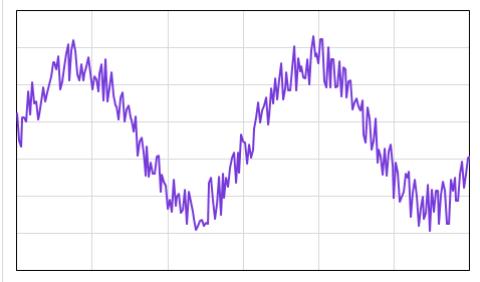


General properties of interference

- *Output voltage is periodic, not random*
- *Affects pulse heights, count rate (above threshold), timing measurements*

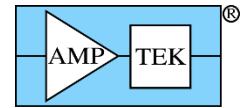


- *Limited to certain frequency bands*
- *Pulse height distribution is not Gaussian*



- *FWHM does NOT go as sum of squares*
- *In principle, it can be eliminated totally*

Why things don't work: Interference



■ What is required to have interference?

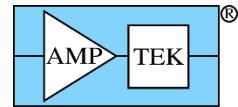
- (1) Source of energy, (2) coupling mechanism, (3) susceptible component
- To solve an interference problem, you must address one of the three
 - Eliminate the source of energy
 - Reduce the coupling
 - Change the susceptibility of your circuit

■ What are the key classes of interference?

- Conducted currents
 - Ground currents are the most common problem
 - Ripple on power lines, fluctuations on communication lines
- EM radiation
 - Capacitive coupling, usually between adjacent wires
 - Magnetic coupling, usually into a loop (sometimes a ground loop)
- Acoustic radiation
 - Vibrating biased wires create a current
- Photocoupling
 - Radiation detectors pick up light

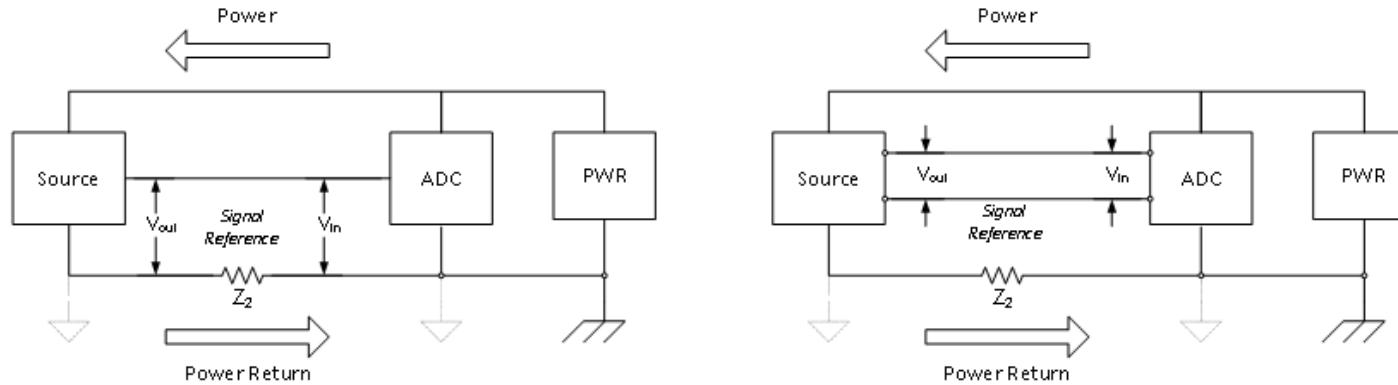
$$Q = CV \quad \Rightarrow \quad I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = C \frac{dV}{dt} + V \frac{dC}{dt}$$

Why things don't work: Interference

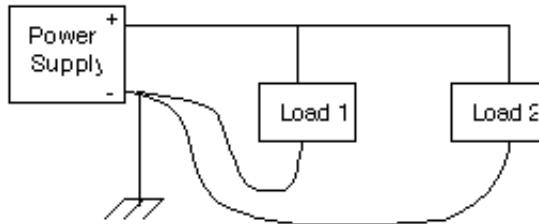


Grounding

- NEVER TRUST YOUR GROUND
- Always have a REAL ground connection
- Separate power return from signal reference

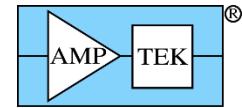


- Single point ground is usually best



- Consider where ground currents flow and ground impedance

Why things don't work: Interference

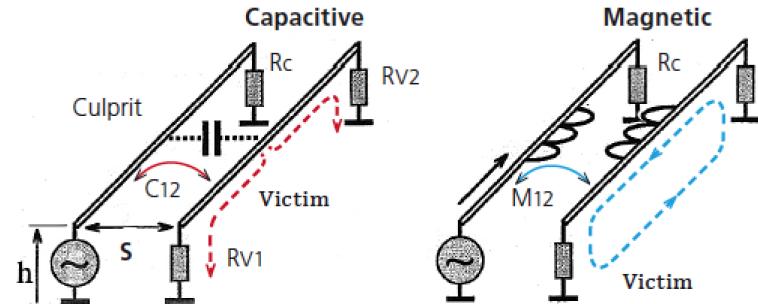


▪ Radiated

- *Capacitive or magnetic coupling*

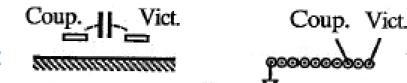
- *Reduce coupling*
 - Shielding
 - Minimize loop size
 - "Ground loop"
 - Twisted pair

- *Reduce emission*
 - Change frequency
 - FOLLOW MANUFACTURER'S RULES
 - Bypass caps, trace lengths, etc

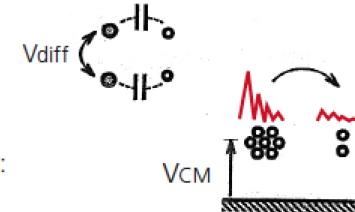


Crosstalk can happen:

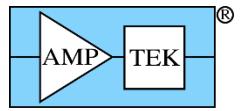
between traces or single wires:



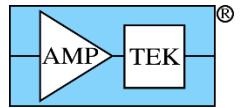
between two pairs (Diff):



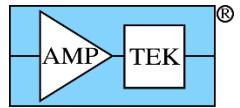
between two pairs or bundles:
vs a common ground (C.M.)



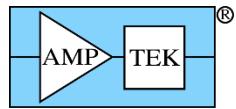
Summary



- Front end electronics are critical for good performance
- There are fundamental limits affecting every system
 - *Stochastic pulse times*
 - *Fluctuations from intrinsic noise & charge creating*
 - *Variations in current profiles*
 - *Practical matters: size, cost, the "ilities"*
- Start by considering system needs & signal from detector
 - *What are you measuring?*
 - *What resolution & rate do you need?*
 - *What are the characteristics of the current pulse from the detector?*



- **Pulse shaping is a compromise between low noise and high rate**
 - *Fast shaping \leftrightarrow Higher noise*
 - *Digital shaping \rightarrow Best performance, high cost and power*
 - *Analog shaping \rightarrow Size, cost, power critical, performance less o*
 - *Many options for each*
- **Keys to performance**
 - *Low input capacitance (detector & connections), match JFET to detector*
 - *Low leakage currents, high parallel resistances*
- **Successful systems rely on many details that go beyond "headline specs"**



For more information

■ Textbooks

- *H. Spieler, Semiconductor Detector Systems, Oxford University Press, 2005*
- *G. Knoll, Radiation Detection and Measurement (4th ed), Wiley & Sons, 2010*
- *C. Motchenbacher & J. Connelly, Low-Noise Electronic System Design, Wiley & Sons, 1993*
- *H. Ott, Noise Reduction Techniques in Electronic Systems (2nd ed), AT&T Bell Labs, 1988*

■ Online

- *Spieler tutorials: <http://www-physics.lbl.gov/~spieler/>*