

A UV Sensitive Integrated Micromegas with Timepix Readout

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Abstract

This article presents a detector system consisting of three components, a CMOS imaging array, a gaseous-detector structure with a Micromegas layout, and a UV-photon sensitive CsI reflective photocathode. All three elements have been monolithically integrated using simple post-processing steps. The Micromegas structure and the CMOS imaging chip are not impacted by the CsI deposition. The detector operated reliably in He/isobutane mixtures and attained charge gains with single photons up to a level of $6 \cdot 10^4$. The Timepix CMOS array permitted high resolution imaging of single UV-photons. The system has an MTF50 of 0.4 lp/pixel which corresponds to approximately 7 lp/mm.

Key words: Gaseous radiation detector, Micromegas, UV-photon detection, InGrid, CsI photocathode, CMOS post-processing

1. Introduction

We present a novel integrated gaseous UV-photon detector that is made by post-processing a charge-sensitive CMOS pixel detector. It is based on the InGrid technology [1] which uses microtechnology techniques to construct a Micromegas detector structure on top of the readout chip. This method allows aligning the different components of the detector with the anode plane. The pillars are placed at the intersections of four adjacent pixels; the circular holes in the grid are centered on the input pad of each pixel. The hole pitch equals that of the readout matrix, here $55 \mu\text{m}$. The hole diameter can be varied, typical values are $20\text{--}30 \mu\text{m}$. This affects the optical transparency of the grid, for the range mentioned it is $10\text{--}23\%$. The photosensitivity is obtained by coating the grid with a reflective CsI photocathode [2]. CsI is a very robust photocathode that has been used in combination with many gaseous photon detectors [3]. In [4] a Micromegas device with a single anode is coupled to a CsI reflective photocathode. A CMOS imaging chip coupled to a non-integrated gaseous electron multiplier (GEM) with a CsI photocathode is described in [5]. This work presents the first fully monolithic embodiment of such a UV-photon imaging detector.

2. Experimental

The detectors are composed of three elements: the imaging chip, the integrated Micromegas grid, and a reflective photocathode. Fig. 1 shows the full detector assembly. The Micromegas structure, the photocathode and some of the experi-

mental methods discussed below are similar to our earlier work reported in [6].

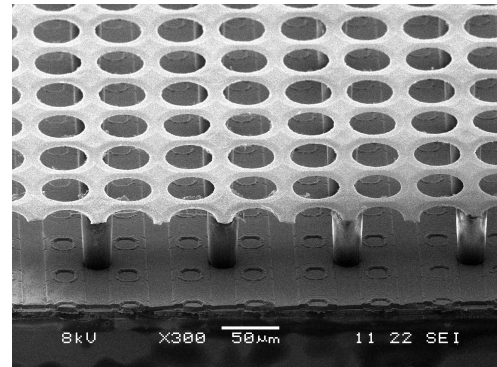


Figure 1: SEM image of a complete detector with Timepix substrate, highly resistive spark protection layer and InGrid structure with isolating pillars supporting a perforated Al grid.

The Timepix chip used here [7] is a variant of the Medipix2 chip [8]. It has been designed for the Medipix2 collaboration by CERN, within the EUDET framework. The Timepix chip contains a matrix of 256×256 square pixels with a size of $55 \mu\text{m}$. The total imaging area is $\sim 14 \times 14 \text{ mm}^2$. Each of the pixels has a large metal input pad connected to an input capacitor. The collected charge is read out with a charge sensitive pre-amplifier capable of detecting charges of less than 1000 e^- . The charge is compared with a threshold value which can be changed per pixel. There are different readout modes. Just as Medipix2, the chip can be used to count the number of hits above a selected threshold during a defined shutter period. In Timepix-mode the arrival time of the first hit above threshold is recorded per pixel, and in TOT-mode (Time Over Threshold) the 14 bit counter is incremented as long as the signal remains above threshold. Be-

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cause the discharge current of the input capacitor is kept constant at a known value, the TOT readout can be used to measure the input charge.

2.1. Chip post-processing

The detector is built directly on the surface of the imaging chip as described in detail in [1]. The present devices have been built on single chips, but the process can also be performed on clusters of several chips (for instance a square of 3 by 3 chips) or on entire wafers.

The first step is to cover the anode surface of the pixel matrix with a highly resistive layer, in our case this is a $7\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ Si-rich Si_3N_4 layer deposited by plasma-enhanced CVD. This layer protects the chip by quenching discharges that may occur in the gas during detector operation.

In a next phase the InGrid (Integrated Grid) structure is built. First a photoimagable SU-8 polymer layer is spin cast onto the substrate. This layer is baked to render it solid. A $1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ thick Al layer is sputtered onto the SU-8. To form the perforated grid the metal is patterned using standard lithography and wet etch techniques. The SU-8 layer, which has already been exposed earlier, is then developed in acetone, removing the unexposed, not crosslinked material from below the grid through the holes in the metal. The structure is rinsed by immersion in iso-propyl alcohol. After drying, the structure appears as shown in fig. 1. Our present detector has $25\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ diameter holes at a pitch of $55\text{ }\mu\text{m}$; the multiplication gap (grid-to-anode) is $\sim 80\text{ }\mu\text{m}$.

The chip is bonded to a readout board. To operate the Timepix chip we further need a small, USB-connected readout module and a PC with dedicated software [9]. The readout board has an integrated gas chamber of approximately $10 \times 10 \times 1.5\text{ cm}^3$. Inside this volume an additional steel cathode mesh is mounted 5–10 mm above the grid. Above this mesh, centered on the location of the chip, is a UV-transparent Suprasil quartz window.

After mounting the chip can be coated with CsI. For this the whole assembly – without the top cover, window and cathode mesh – is placed inside the evaporation chamber. The deposition is done by thermal evaporation in vacuum from a solid CsI source, using resistive heating [2]. In some cases the CsI layer is patterned using a simple Al foil shadow-mask during deposition. The typical CsI thickness is 220 nm.

2.2. Measurement methods

The different elements of the system and the detector operation principle are shown in fig. 2. Light impinges onto the photocathode layer on the top surface of the grid. The chip surface (anode) is kept at ground potential. The cathode mesh and the grid are typically biased at the same negative potential, to prevent electrons from drifting upwards. The electrons follow the evanescent field of the high field region below the grid. After drifting through the holes the charge is multiplied towards the anode. The charge cloud then falls onto one of the pixels of the matrix.

Charge signals from the detector are recorded from the grid, using a charge preamplifier, a shaping amplifier and a multi-channel analyzer (MCA). The amplifier chain is calibrated by

injecting a known charge from a test capacitor. The images are recorded with the Timepix chip, using the readout methods discussed above.

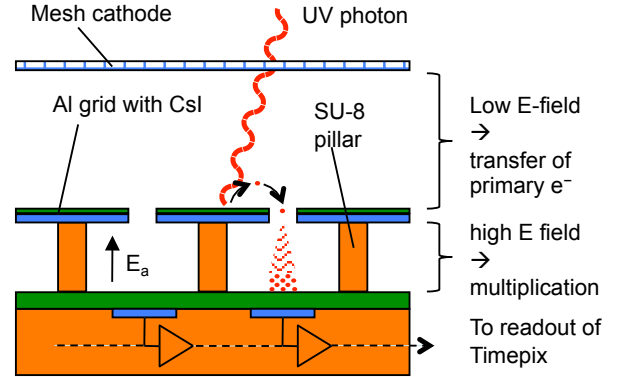


Figure 2: Illustration of the device and its operation. Light enters through a window from the top; photoelectrons from a CsI photocathode on the grid are focused into the multiplication gap; the resulting avalanche induces charge onto the CMOS pixel array of the Timepix chip, via a discharge-protecting film. Operation was in gas flow mode at 1 atm.

The devices can be operated with different gas mixtures; best results were obtained with a He/isobutane (80/20) mixture. Device operation is very stable in He/isobutane, several detectors have been operated for up to several weeks without any signs of degradation. Lower gains were reached in Ar-based mixtures. There are two drawbacks related to the use of He and isobutane. First, isobutane absorbs UV radiation. For our setup this effect is limited because of the low isobutane concentration and the small thickness of the gas layer ($\sim 1\text{ cm}$). Secondly, in He there is rather high backscattering of photoelectrons on gas molecules compared to other noble gases [10]. This reduces the effective quantum efficiency of the detector, even when mixed with isobutane. Fig. 3 shows the measured extraction efficiency into various gases; this efficiency is the ratio between the extraction levels in gas and in vacuum, at the same bias and irradiation conditions. In He/isobutane (80/20) we reach an extraction level of around 50% for normal operating conditions ($\sim 2\text{ kV/cm}$). For the backscattering in other gas mixtures see [11].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Gain as determined from pulse measurements

The gain of the detector was determined by irradiating it with two different sources (UV light and ^{55}Fe). In both cases the grid and the cathode mesh were biased at equal potentials and the anode was grounded; the measurements were done in He/isobutane (80/20) at atmospheric pressure. In one experiment we used an Ar(Hg) lamp with a pinhole aperture placed far from the detector. The light flux was further reduced by means of absorbers. The response of the detector to this irradiation was measured with the pre-amplifier attached to the grid. The exponential pulse-height spectra (typical for single-photon

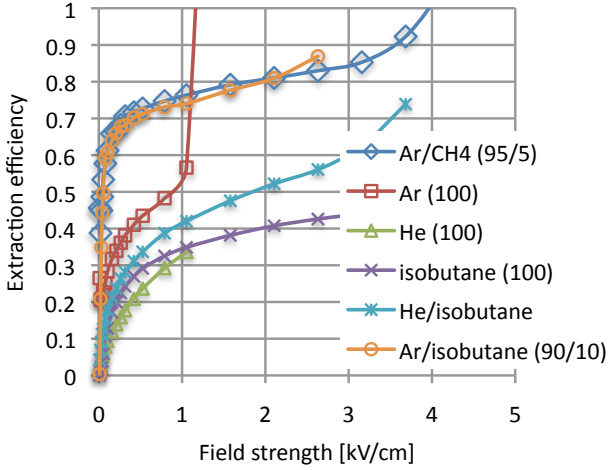


Figure 3: Extraction efficiency of photoelectrons from a CsI photocathode into various gas mixtures (reference to vacuum). All gases were maintained at 1 atm.

gas avalanche detectors) for a range of bias voltages are shown in fig. 4a. The distributions are accurately described by eq. 1, where N is the number of hits, Q is the charge, G is the average gain and C is a constant.

$$N(Q) = C \cdot 1/G \cdot \exp(-Q/G) \quad (1)$$

By making fits to the measured spectra we determined the average gain G for all voltages. We have also determined the gain by measuring the average charge cloud arriving after multiplication of the initial charge from the conversion of ^{55}Fe photons (irradiating through a thin Kapton window) in the gas. The results of both gain measurements are plotted in fig. 4b. There is good agreement between the two methods; with ^{55}Fe we obtained a slope of 100 V/decade and with UV-photons it is 110 V/decade. The maximum gain that we reached was $6 \cdot 10^4$.

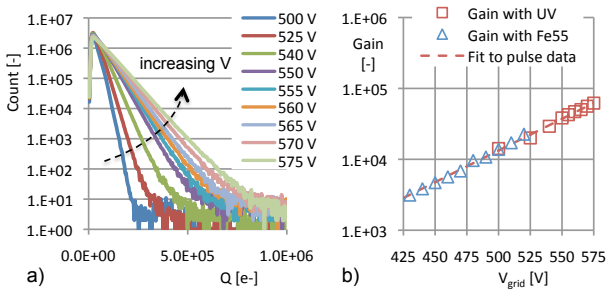


Figure 4: a) Pulse-height spectra for a range of bias voltages, recorded on the grid under UV irradiation, b) Gain vs. bias voltage derived from pulse-height spectra of UV-photons and of ^{55}Fe 5.9 keV X-rays.

3.2. Spatial resolution using the slanted edge method

To determine the spatial resolution we followed the ISO 12233 procedure [12]. Under UV irradiation images were recorded of the edge of a thin steel sheet placed at a slight angle with respect to the pixel orientation. The response was corrected for fixed patterns, dividing by the data of an open frame

(flat-field) measurement taken under the same conditions. The step response was analyzed within a certain Region Of Interest (ROI), as shown in fig. 5a. For each line of pixels we took the derivative of the pixel counter value and determined the centroid; this defined the edge location within each line of pixels. A linear fit was performed through the centroid locations to derive a description of the edge. The data of all lines were re-binned (in this case with 8 bins per pixel) and simultaneously shifted according to the slant that was determined before. In this way we could combine all data in the ROI in one Edge Step Function (ESF). The derivative of the ESF is the Line Spread Function (LSF). A Gaussian curve was fitted to the LSF; the 1σ spread is 0.48 pixels or $26.4 \mu\text{m}$ and the FWHM is 1.13 pixels or $62.2 \mu\text{m}$. The results are shown in fig. 6.

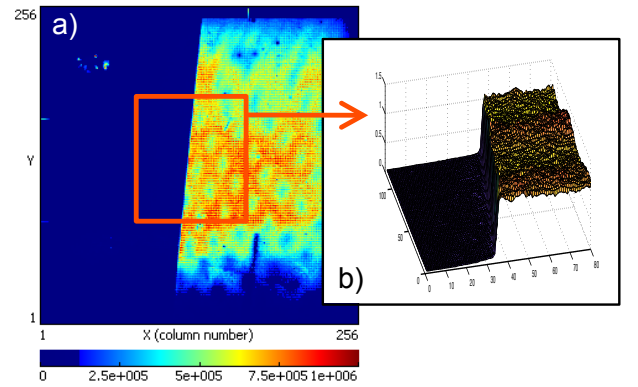


Figure 5: a) An image of a slanted metal sheet, the data of a certain ROI is considered, the raw image data is corrected with an open frame measurement taken under the same conditions — providing the step response on the right (b).

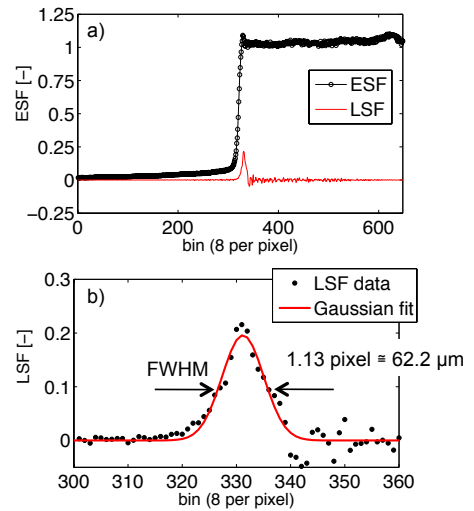


Figure 6: a) ESF as derived from the re-binned data within the ROI, b) LSF data and Gaussian fit.

By performing a Fourier transform of the LSF we obtained the Modulation Transfer Function (MTF) of the entire system. The MTF reaches 50% (MTF50) at 0.4 lp/pixels ($\approx 7 \text{ lp/mm}$). The resolution limit is below the pixel pitch, at the Nyquist

frequency $\text{MTF} = 0.32$. The resolution limit is reached at 0.8 lp/pixels ($\approx 14 \text{ lp/mm}$).

3.3. Imaging results

The cathode mesh (see fig. 2), needed to shape the field above the grid, modulates the light reaching the photocathode. In fig. 7a we see a Moiré pattern which is the result of using a cathode mesh with a wire pitch of $56 \mu\text{m}$ and a detector pitch (both grid and read-out pads) of $55 \mu\text{m}$. Using a coarser mesh, with a pitch of $500 \mu\text{m}$, the mesh wires are directly imaged by the detector (fig. 7b). The high resolution permits observing mesh defects.

The images in fig. 7 were taken with a partial CsI coating. For experimental reasons not discussed here, the bottom 15% of the matrix were not coated with CsI, which naturally resulted in a lower response in that region.

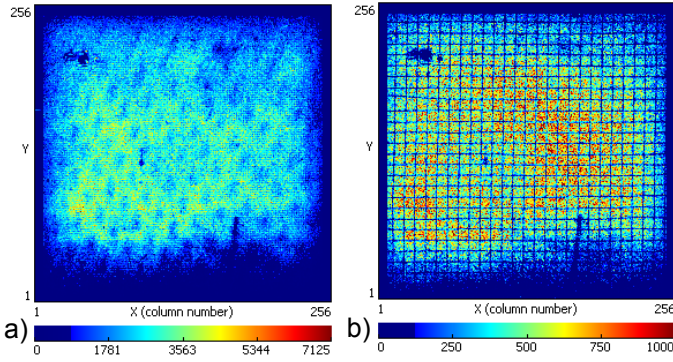


Figure 7: 2D images of flat-field UV irradiation of the detector shown in fig. 2 using He/isobutane (80/20) at 1 atm. a) Moiré pattern resulting from using a $56 \mu\text{m}$ mesh above the $55 \mu\text{m}$ pitch detector, and b) direct imaging of the mesh when the mesh pitch is increased to $500 \mu\text{m}$.

Fig. 8 shows two images obtained in He/isobutane (80/20) using TOT counting under UV-photon irradiation. Fig. 8a is an image recorded with a steel mask of the logo of the University of Twente placed in front of the detector; fig. 8b is an image of a fingerprint intentionally left on the detector window. The latter was obtained by correcting the raw image with the data of an open frame reference image recorded under the same conditions. The fingerprint image was recorded without CsI on the Al grid. This shows that, in spite of the (very) low quantum efficiency, even without CsI the detector performs as a UV imaging device.

4. Conclusions

We have presented a monolithic gaseous UV-photon imaging detector with a CsI photocathode. The photocathode deposition and its operation are found to be adequate in combination with both the Micromegas multiplier as well as with the imaging chip. Most experiments have been performed in He/isobutane (80/20), in which the extraction efficiency is around 50%. The maximum gain that was reached amounts to $6 \cdot 10^4$.

The imaging experiments indicate a good spatial resolution, the LSF has a spread of $26.4 \mu\text{m}$, MTF_{50} is reached

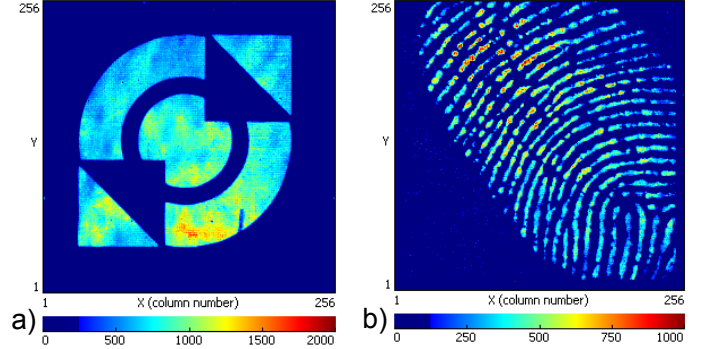


Figure 8: a) Image of the logo of the University of Twente and b) image of a fingerprint left on the detector window.

at 0.4 lp/pixel ($\approx 7 \text{ lp/mm}$). High quality 2D images were recorded.

These encouraging results suggest further investigations directed towards the search for operation conditions and for gas-mixtures assuring better photoelectron collection efficiencies (lower backscattering); investigations of absolute photon detection efficiencies and of ion-blocking (ion-feedback) are foreseen. The new device could find applications in high-resolution imaging of UV-photons. Furthermore, being made of UHV-compatible materials, it could be applicable as a multiplication and readout element also in cascaded visible-light imaging gas photomultipliers [13].

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