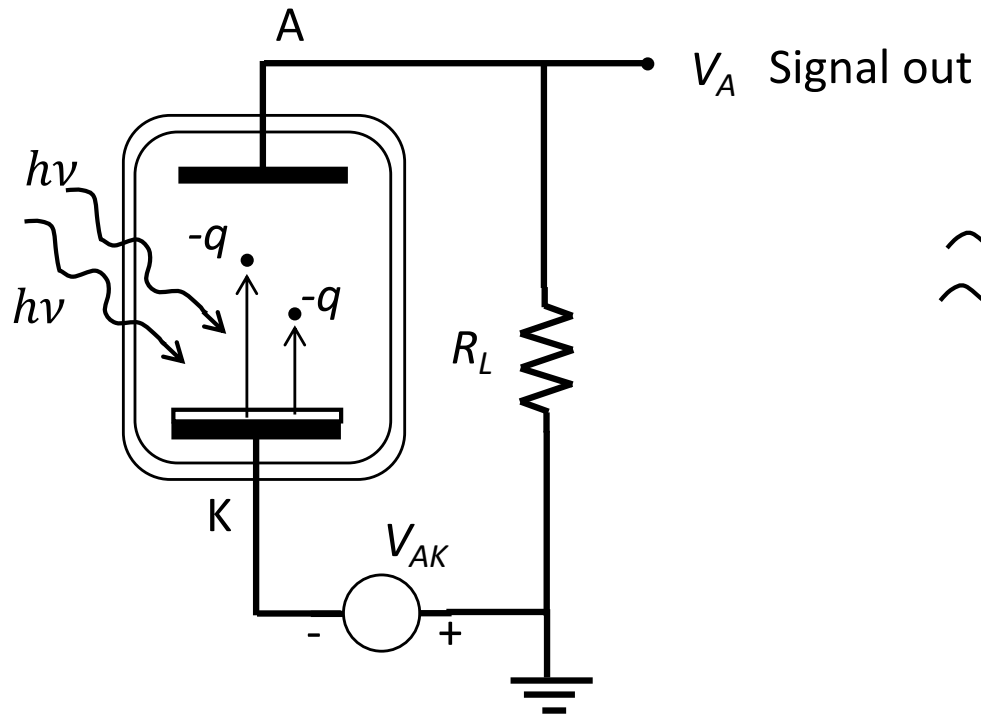


## COURSE OUTLINE

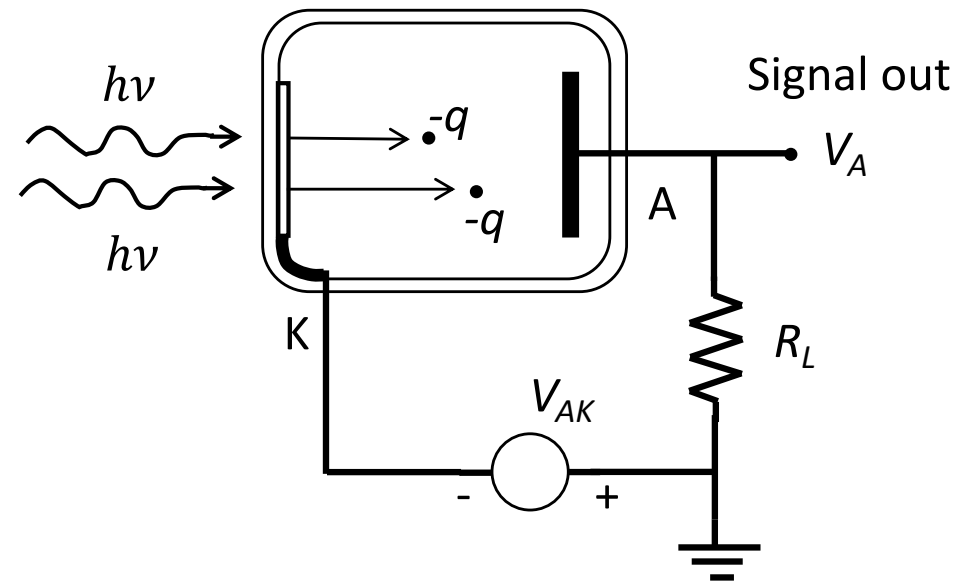
- Introduction
- Signals and Noise
- Filtering
- Sensors: PD2 - PhotoTubes

- PhotoTube (PT) device structure
- PT current-voltage characteristics and stationary equivalent circuit
- PT dynamic response and dynamic equivalent circuit
- Photocathode types
- Detector Dark Current and Noise
- Photocathode Noise-Equivalent-Power NEP and Detectivity



## SIDE-WINDOW TUBE

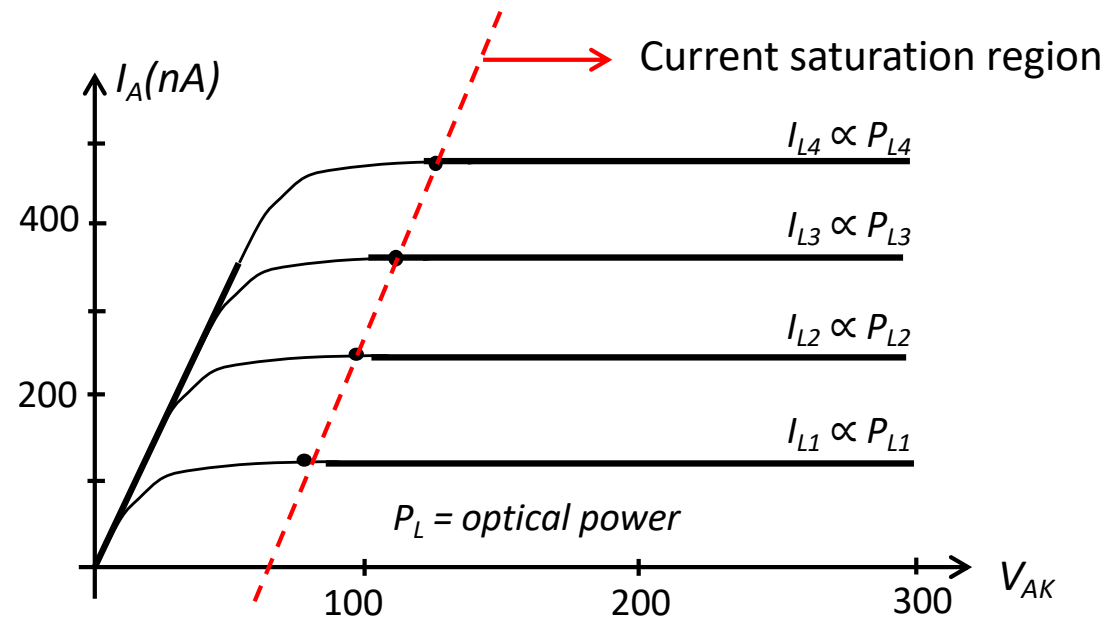
- Photocathode: thick opaque layer deposited on metal support electrode
- Side window of the glass tube: unfavourable geometry, collection of light on the photocathode is uneasy and not very efficient



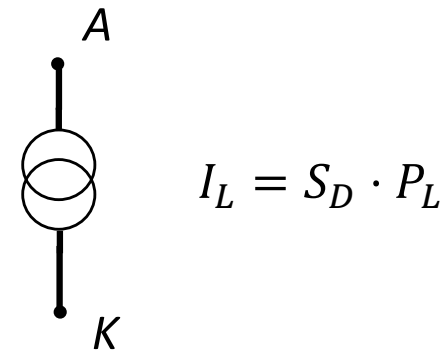
## END-WINDOW TUBE

- Photocathode: thin semitransparent layer deposited on the interior of the glass tube end
- End window of the glass tube: favourable geometry, collection of light on the photocathode is easy and efficient

- At low voltage  $V_{AK}$  the photocurrent collected at the anode is limited by the electron space charge effect
- As  $V_{AK}$  is increased the higher electric field reduces the space charge and the current increases
- As  $V_{AK}$  exceeds a saturation value  $V_{AKS}$  all photoelectrons are collected and the current is constant vs.  $V_{AK}$
- The saturation value  $V_{AKS}$  increases with the optical power  $P_L$  on the detector
- Phototubes are operated biased into the current saturation region



PT stationary equivalent circuit:  
photo-controlled current generator



# Phototube Dynamic Response

## Main causes that limit the dynamic response:

1. Transduction from light flux to detector current: the **SER** waveform  $h_D(t)$  has finite-width  $T_D$
2. **Load circuit:** it has a low-pass filter action,  $\delta$ -response  $h_L(t)$  with finite-width  $T_L$

The  $\delta$ -response from light power  $P_L$  to  $V_A$  has overall shape  $h_p(t)$  resulting from the cascade

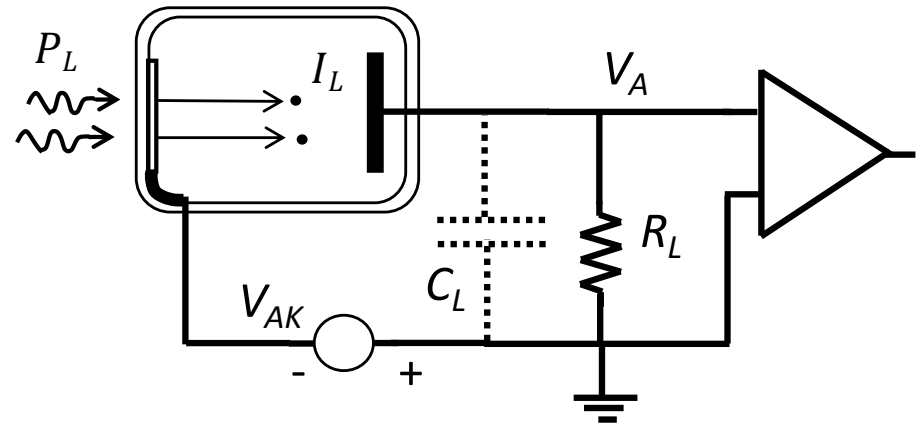
$$h_p(t) = h_D(t) * h_L(t)$$

the width  $T_p$  thus results from quadratic addition

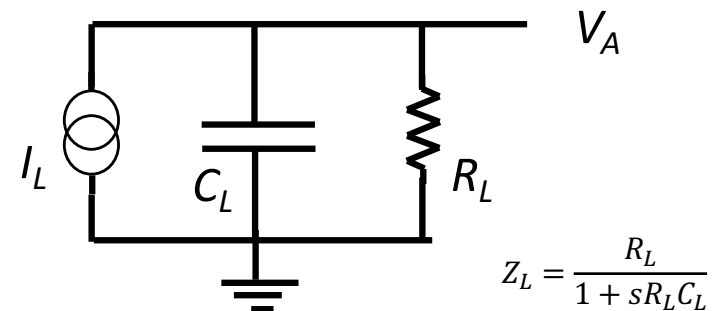
$$T_p = \sqrt{T_D^2 + T_L^2} = \sqrt{T_D^2 + R_L^2 C_L^2}$$

and for well exploiting the fast intrinsic response  $h_D(t)$  of a detector it is sufficient to have

$$T_L = R_L C_L \leq T_D$$



PT equivalent circuit



Load-circuit  $\delta$ -response  $R_L \cdot h_L(t)$  with

$$h_L(t) = 1(t) \frac{1}{R_L C_L} \exp\left(-\frac{t}{R_L C_L}\right)$$

The light-to-current transduction by a phototube can be fairly fast, with SER pulse duration  $T_D$  around 1ns. For exploiting it, the load filtering must be adequately limited

$$R_L C_L \leq T_D$$

- for wide-band response low-value  $R_L$  is employed; typically,  $R_L = 50 \Omega$  to match a coaxial cable connection. With  $T_D \approx 1\text{ns}$  and  $R_L = 50 \Omega$ , the above requirement implies

$$C_L \leq 20\text{pF}$$

- The load capacitance  $C_L$  is sum of
  - $C_A$  input capacitance of amplifier (or other circuit) connected; it can be  $< 1\text{pF}$
  - $C_S$  stray capacitance of connections; it can be  $< 2\text{pF}$
  - $C_D$  electrode capacitance; it depends on the area  $A_D$  of the photocathode
- $C_D$  is small even for wide sensitive area  $A_D$ , because the dielectric is vacuum and the electrode spacing is wide. In plane geometry with cathode-to-anode spacing  $w_a$

$$C_D = \epsilon_o \frac{A_D}{w_a} \quad (\epsilon_o = 8,86 \frac{\text{pF}}{\text{m}})$$

e.g. with  $w_a \approx 1\text{cm}$  it is  $C_D [\text{pF}] \approx 0,09 A_D [\text{cm}^2]$ . It's only  $9\text{pF}$  for  $A_D = 100 \text{cm}^2$

- **In conclusion:** a definite advantage of Vacuum Phototubes is that they offer **very wide sensitive area together with fast response**. We will see that with semiconductor photodiodes this is not achievable



# Semi-transparent photocathode

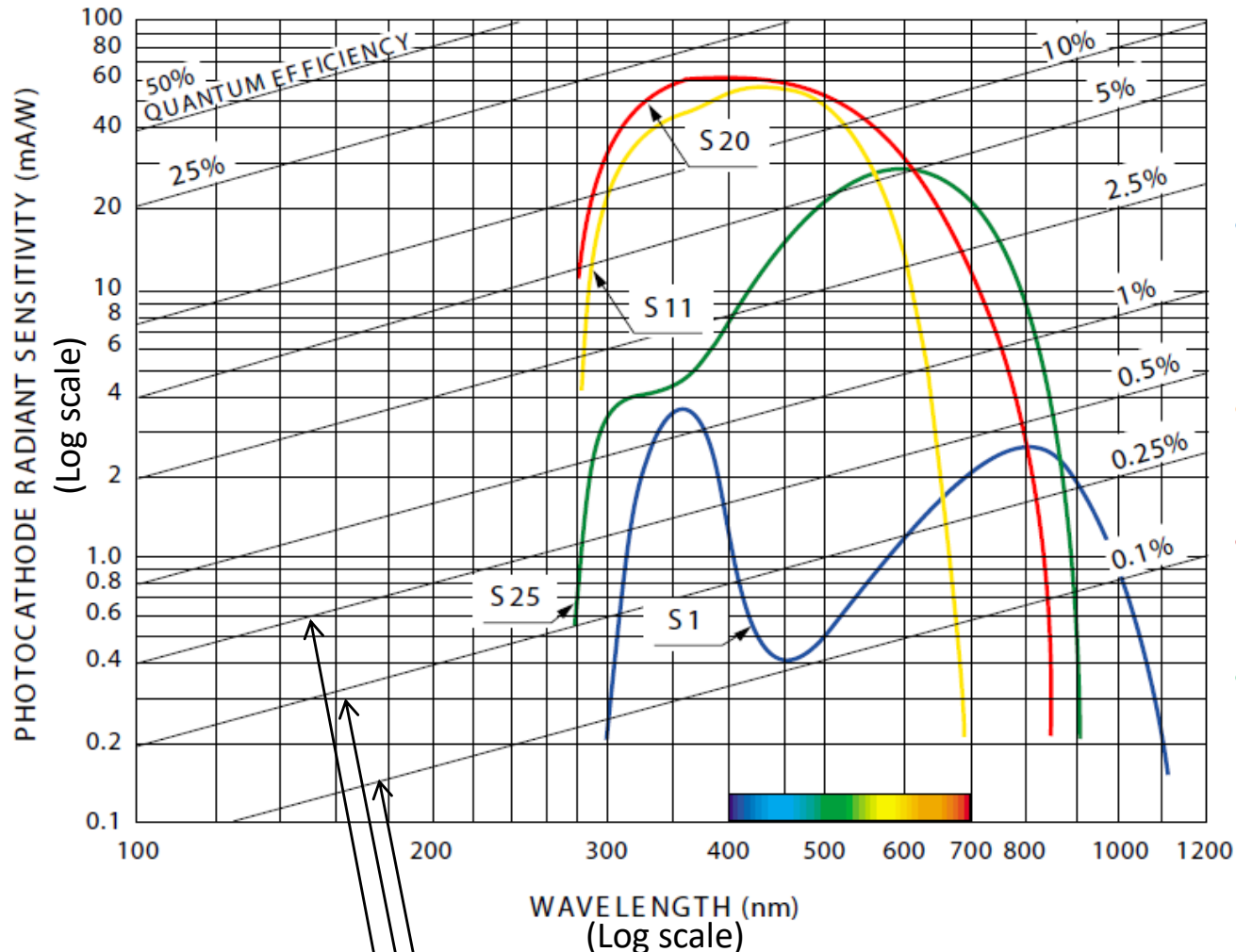




Classifications of Photocathode types are made by *industrial standard committees*. Most widely used is that by **JEDEC (Joint Electron Devices Engineering Council US)**, which denotes cathode types S1, S2, ... and classifies them by spectral responsivity type (rather than by chemical composition or fabrication recipe).

- **S1** was introduced in the '30s and is still in use. The QE is low (peak  $\eta_D \approx 0,4\%$  at **800nm**) but covers a wide spectrum in the IR.
- Highly efficient photocathodes for the visible range were introduced in the '50s and progressively developed employing compounds of alkali metals (Na, K, Cs, which have low work functions) and Antimony (Sb). Main types:
  - **S11** ranges from 300nm to 600nm, peak  $\eta_D \approx 15\%$  at **450nm**
  - **S20** ranges from 300nm to 800nm, peak  $\eta_D \approx 20\%$  at **350nm**
  - **S25** extends the range up to 800nm, peak  $\eta_D \approx 5\%$  at **600nm**; higher sensitivity in the red, at the cost of lower sensitivity in the blue-green

**Photocathodes have limited QE, especially increasing the wavelength**



## PHOTOCATHODE TYPES

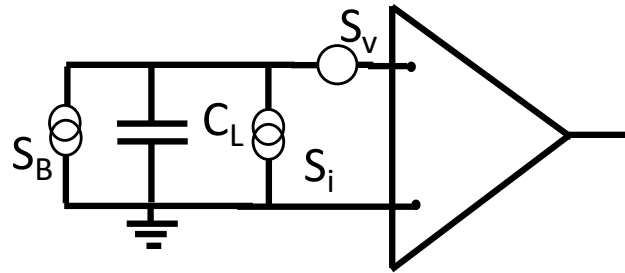
- S1 (Ag-O-Cs  
oldest type  
infrared-sensitive)
- S11 ( $\text{Cs}_3\text{Sb}$   
alkali halide)
- S20 Na-K-Sb-Cs  
Multi-alkali halide
- S25 Multi alkali halide  
extended red sensitivity

# Detector Dark Current and Noise

- A finite current is emitted by any photocathode even when kept in the dark, without any light falling on it due to spontaneous emission due to thermal effects and is called **Dark Current**.
- The dark current density  $j_B$  depends on the cathode type and on the cathode temperature. Typical values at room temperature are reported in the next Table
- The total Dark Current is  $I_B = j_B A_D$  where  $A_D$  is the area of the photocathode
- The shot noise of  $I_B$  is the photodetector unavoidable internal noise, with effective power density (unilateral)

$$\sqrt{S_B} = \sqrt{2qI_B} = \sqrt{2qj_B} \sqrt{A_D}$$

PhotoCathode type	Dark Current density $j_B$ in A/cm <sup>2</sup>	Dark Electron Rate density $n_B$ in electrons/s·cm <sup>2</sup>	Shot Noise Effective density $\sqrt{S_B}$ pA/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}\sqrt{\text{cm}^2}$
S1	$\approx 10^{-13}$	$\approx 10^6$	$\approx 10^{-4}$
S11	$10^{-16} - 10^{-15}$	$10^3 - 10^4$	$\approx 10^{-5}$
S20 and S25	$10^{-19} - 10^{-16}$	$1 - 10^3$	$\approx 10^{-7} - 10^{-6}$



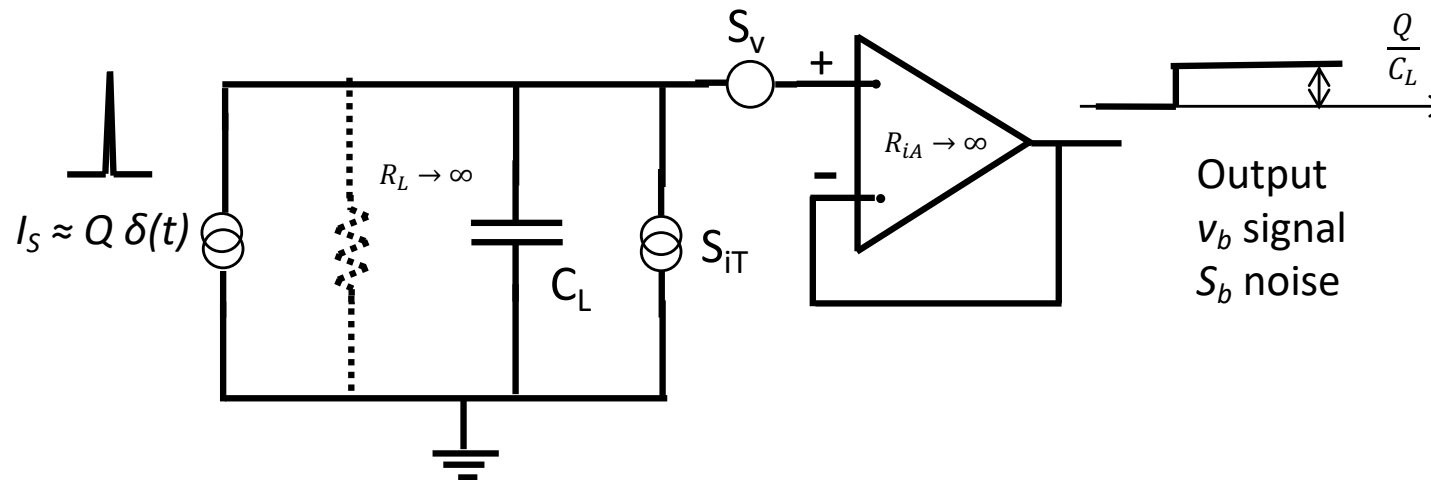
- We know that for operating with low-noise a high impedance sensor must be connected to a preamplifier with high input impedance and low input noise. The best available preamplifiers have current noise at room temperature

$$\sqrt{S_i} \approx 0,01 \frac{pA}{\sqrt{Hz}}$$

- **The circuit noise  $\sqrt{S_i}$  is always dominant** and the detector **internal noise  $\sqrt{S_B}$  plays in practice no role with any phototube**, even for detectors with S1 photocathodes (that have the highest noise) and even with very wide sensitive area (up to many square centimeters). In fact, for producing shot noise with power density higher than that of the circuit noise, the phototube dark current should be  $I_B > 300 pA$ , corresponding to an emission rate  $n_B > 10^9$  electrons/s.
- **Vacuum tube photodiodes can thus be employed for operating at low noise without stringent limits to the sensitive area.** As we will see, this is a definite advantage over semiconductor photodiodes.

# Low-noise preamplifiers for photodiodes

- Photodiodes are high-impedance sensors (both the vacuum phototubes and the semiconductor photodiodes), hence for low-noise operation they must be connected to preamplifiers with high input resistance\*  $R_{iA} \rightarrow \infty$  (see slides in OPF2)
- Simple configuration: voltage buffer based on a high-input-impedance and low-noise amplifier



- $C_L$  total load capacitance =  $C_D$  (detector cap.) +  $C_{iA}$  (amplifier cap.) +  $C_S$  (connection cap.)
- $R_L$  total load resistance  $\rightarrow \infty$
- $S_v$  amplifier voltage noise
- $S_{iT}$  total current noise =  $S_{iD}$  detector noise +  $S_{iA}$  amplifier noise (+  $S_{iR}$  load resistor noise)

\*  $R_{iA}$  = true physical resistance between the input terminals, not the dynamic input resistance including feedback effects

Buffer voltage output:

Step signal 
$$v_b(t) = \frac{Q}{C_L} \cdot 1(t)$$

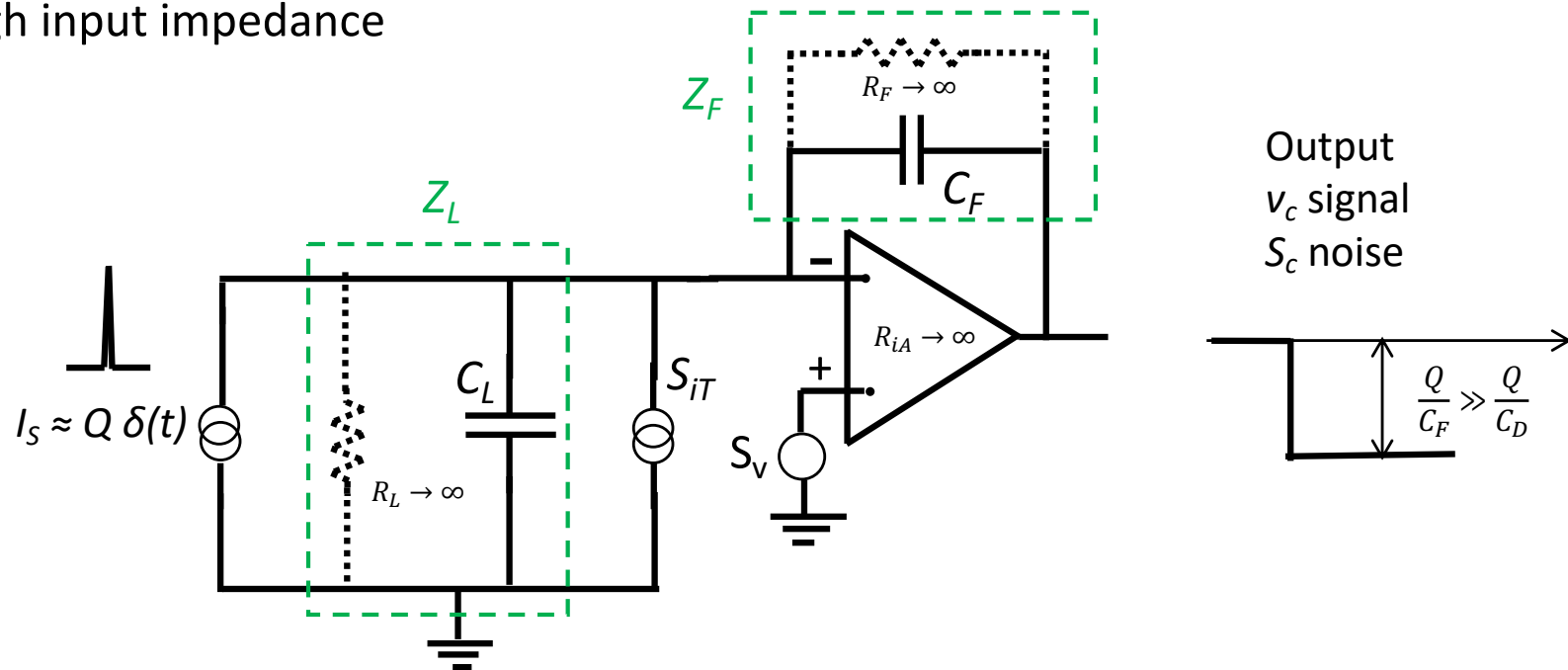
Noise Spectrum 
$$S_b = S_v + S_{iT} \frac{1}{\omega^2 C_L^2}$$

The buffer configuration has some noteworthy drawbacks.

- The signal amplitude  $Q/C_L$  is ruled by the total capacitance  $C_L = C_D + C_{iA} + C_s$ , whose value is **not very small and not well controllable**, particularly in cases where long sensor-preamplifier connections contribute a remarkable  $C_s$ .  
 $C_L$  may be different from sample to sample of the amplifier, even of the same amplifier model.
- With signals in high-rate sequence, the superposition of voltage steps may build-up and produce a significant decrease of the photodiode bias voltage. This **may change the operating conditions** and consequently the parameters and performance of the detector, particularly if the photodiode is biased not much above the saturation voltage.



**Alternative configuration:** operational integrator based on a low-noise amplifier with high input impedance



- $C_F$  capacitor in feedback. The  $C_F$  value can be very small and is accurately set by the capacitor component, because the inherent stray capacitance between output and input pins of the amplifier is negligible. Therefore, **one can work with  $C_F \ll C_L$**
- $R_F$  feedback resistor  $\rightarrow \infty$
- $C_L$  total load capacitance =  $C_D$  (detector cap.) +  $C_{iA}$  (amplifier cap.) +  $C_S$  (connection cap.)
- $R_L$  total load resistance  $\rightarrow \infty$
- $S_V$  amplifier voltage noise
- $S_{iT}$  total current noise =  $S_{iD}$  detector noise +  $S_{iA}$  amplifier noise (+  $S_{iR}$  load resistor noise)

## Output Signal:

$$\text{in frequency domain } V_c = -QZ_F = -\frac{Q}{j\omega C_F} \quad \text{in time } v_c(t) = -\frac{Q}{C_F} \cdot 1(t)$$

With respect to the buffer, the amplitude is greater by the gain factor  $G_c = C_L/C_F \gg 1$

$$|v_c| = \frac{Q}{C_F} = \frac{C_L}{C_F} \cdot \frac{Q}{C_L} = \frac{C_L}{C_F} \cdot |v_b| = G_c \cdot |v_b|$$

## Advantages:

- The higher signal makes less relevant the noise of the following circuits
- The signal amplitude is ruled by the well controlled and stable  $C_F$ , no more by the other capacitances  $C_D$ ,  $C_{iA}$  and  $C_S$
- The detector terminal is connected to the amplifier virtual ground, hence it stays at constant bias voltage even with signals in high-rate sequence

The noise analysis (see next slide) confirms that these advantages are obtained **without degrading the S/N**. The charge amplifier configuration thus is the solution of choice in most cases met in practice.

## Output Noise Spectrum :

- the current noise  $S_{iT}$  is processed by the same transfer function as the current signal
- the voltage noise  $S_v$  is processed with the transfer function from non-inverting input to amplifier output.

Denoting by  $Z_L$  the load impedance and by  $Z_F$  the feedback impedance

$$S_c = S_v \left| 1 + \frac{Z_F}{Z_L} \right|^2 + S_{iT} |Z_F|^2$$

in our case  $Z_L \approx 1/j\omega C_L$  and  $Z_F \approx 1/j\omega C_F$  so that

$$S_c = S_v \left| 1 + \frac{C_L}{C_F} \right|^2 + S_{iT} \frac{1}{\omega^2 C_F^2} = \left( \frac{C_L}{C_F} \right)^2 \left[ S_v \left( 1 + \frac{C_F}{C_L} \right)^2 + S_{iT} \frac{1}{\omega^2 C_L^2} \right]$$

if  $C_F/C_L \ll 1$ , with good approximation it is

$$S_c \approx \left( \frac{C_L}{C_F} \right)^2 \left[ S_v + S_{iT} \frac{1}{\omega^2 C_L^2} \right] = \left( \frac{C_L}{C_F} \right)^2 S_b = G_c^2 S_b$$

**With respect to the buffer, the signal and noise thus benefit of the same gain  $G_c$  : therefore, the attainable S/N is the same with the charge preamp as with the voltage buffer preamp**

# NEP and Detectivity

- Evaluations and comparisons of Photocathodes are currently based on the **Noise Equivalent Power NEP**, a figure of merit that takes into account the photon detection efficiency and the detector dark-current noise, but not the preamplifier noise.
- NEP is defined with reference to a situation where **the limit** to the minimum measurable signal is **set by the internal noise of the detector** and not by the electronic circuit noise. We have seen that this is **NOT the case with PhotoTubes** but we will see that **it is the case with PhotoMultiplier Tubes**. NEP was devised as an figure of merit for comparing objectively the intrinsic quality of different detectors.

Let a photocathode have area  $A_D$ , signal current  $I_p$  and Dark Current  $I_B$  with area density  $j_B$ . Employing a filter with bandwidth (unilateral)  $\Delta f$  we have noise

$$\sqrt{i_n^2} = \sqrt{2qI_B\Delta f} = \sqrt{2qj_B\sqrt{A_D}\sqrt{\Delta f}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{S}{N} = \frac{I_p}{\sqrt{i_n^2}}$$

The minimum measurable current signal  $I_{p,min}$  (corresponding to  $S/N=1$ ) is

$$I_{p,min} = \sqrt{i_n^2} = \sqrt{2qj_B\sqrt{A_D}\sqrt{\Delta f}}$$

For illumination with optical power  $P_p$  at a given  $\lambda$  the Detector Responsivity is

$$S_D = \frac{I_p}{P_p} = \eta_D \cdot \frac{\lambda}{hc} = \eta_D \cdot \frac{\lambda[\mu m]}{1,24}$$

- NEP is defined as the input optical power  $P_{p, min}$  corresponding to the minimum measurable signal

$$NEP = P_{p, min} = \frac{I_{p, min}}{S_D} = \frac{\sqrt{i_n^2}}{S_D} = \frac{\sqrt{2qj_B} \sqrt{A_D} \sqrt{\Delta f}}{S_D}$$

In essence: NEP = detector noise referred to the input (in this case the **optical input**).

- However, the NEP is not a fully objective figure of merit for assessing and comparing the quality of photocathodes: in fact, **cathodes of equal quality have different NEP if they have different area**. Furthermore, the NEP is an inverse scale, that is, the best photocathodes have the lowest NEP figures.
- A different figure named Detectivity  $D^*$  was therefore derived from the NEP by
  - a) considering the NEP value normalized to unit sensitive area ( $A_D = 1cm^2$ ) and to unit filtering bandwidth ( $\Delta f = 1Hz$ )
  - b) defining the Detectivity  $D^*$  as the reciprocal of the normalized NEP

$$D^* = \frac{\sqrt{A_D} \sqrt{\Delta f}}{NEP} \quad \text{that is} \quad D^* = \frac{S_D}{\sqrt{2qj_B}} = \eta_D \cdot \frac{\lambda[\mu m]}{1,24} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2qj_B}}$$