

Development and characteristics of a superconducting resonator and cryogenic low-noise amplifiers for Shanghai Penning Trap

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Abstract

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Full Text

Development and Characteristics of a Superconducting Resonator and Cryogenic Low-Noise Amplifiers for the Shanghai Penning Trap

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Abstract

Accurate atomic mass data hold significant application value in various research fields, for which Penning-trap mass spectrometry is considered the most precise experimental method. A cryogenic detection system is a key component for reading out the image charge of charged particles in Penning traps using the Fourier-transform ion cyclotron resonance technique. In this paper, we present the development and characteristics of this detection system, which includes a superconducting resonator and cryogenic low-noise amplifiers. The resonator consists of delicately woven thin NbTi wires configured into multilayer helical coils, offering a quality factor of 98004 at around 1 MHz. Low-noise amplifiers are developed based on GaAs field-effect transistors, exhibiting amplification factors greater than 27 dB with a power consumption of approximately 6 mW in the frequency range of 0.1 to 10 MHz. The lowest input voltage noise is 0.8 nV/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ at 1 MHz. The fabrication process, operation, and measurements are elucidated in detail.

Keywords: Penning traps, Image charge detection, Cryogenic electronics

INTRODUCTION

The mass of an atom, a fundamental property that inherently connects the atomic and nuclear binding energies, is a unique fingerprint of the atomic nucleus, providing hints on atomic and nuclear structures, as well as the interactions between fundamental particles such as electrons and nuclei, protons, and neutrons [1, 2]. Accurate atomic mass data have significant application value in various physics research fields, including nuclear models, nuclear astrophysics, weak interaction studies, and metrology [1, 3, 4]. In addition, by observing minute deviations from theory, potential new interactions beyond the Standard Model (SM) can be probed [5, 6].

Numerous studies have been performed to precisely measure atomic masses using different techniques of mass spectrometry [2]; for example, isochronous mass spectrometry (IMS) [7–10] and Schottky mass spectrometry (SMS) [11, 12] at storage rings, time-of-flight magnetic-rigidity (TOF-B) method [13], multireflection TOF mass spectrometry (MR-TOF-MS) [14], and Penning-trap mass spectrometry [15].

Mass spectrometry based on storage rings is a suitable method for the mass measurement of radioactive beams [16–20]. Recently, the CSRe/IMP group installed a double time-of-flight detector system to improve the measurement accuracy to below 10^{-6} [18, 21, 22] and precisely determined the masses of a few neutron-deficient nuclei [23–26] for nuclear structure and astrophysics interest. The MR-ToF method was implemented at GSI [27], RIKEN [28], and TITAN

[29] to measure short-lived nuclei with resolution powers greater than 10^5 and flight times shorter than a few milliseconds.

Penning-trap mass spectrometry is considered the most precise measurement method for atomic mass owing to its extremely high accuracy at 10^{-9} or below. Using a novel phase-imaging ion cyclotron resonance (PI-ICR) technique developed by Eliseev et al. [30], the SHIPTRAP group reported the precise measurement of superheavy element masses [31]. Similar techniques have also been implemented in other online Penning-trap facilities, such as JYFLTRAP [32] and TITAN [33] for the measurement of short-lived nuclei. For long-lived or stable species, Penning-trap mass spectrometry achieves even higher precision, up to 10^{-11} , using the Fourier-transform ion cyclotron resonance (FT-ICR) technique. The higher accuracy is simply due to longer measurement times required for stable nuclei, because the measurement precision is inversely proportional to the observation time ($1/T_{\text{obs}}$). FT-ICR Penning-trap mass spectrometry is the most powerful tool for the experimental determination of atomic masses, such as electrons [34], protons [35], and even antimatter [36], providing the most accurate measurement of fundamental parameters and a stringent test of the building blocks of the SM.

FT-ICR is a non-destructive measurement technique capable of detecting single ions in Penning traps. The ions oscillating in the electromagnetic field can induce image currents in the trap electrodes, which are typically a few fA and have frequency features identical to the eigenmotions of the ions. In 1992, Jefferts et al. [37] described the development of a detection system consisting of a superconducting inductor and a GaAs field-effect transistor preamplifier for image current-signal readout. Subsequently, Ulmer et al. [38] presented an optimization procedure for a helical superconducting resonator, whereas Nagahama et al. [39] reported another design for a toroidal resonator with extremely high quality factors. Currently, this detection system is indispensable for precision Penning-trap mass spectrometry based on the FT-ICR method [40].

A new cryogenic Penning-trap setup is currently under construction in Shanghai, China. The goal of this Penning trap is to detect the decay of long-lived electronic metastable states in a single ion confined within the trap directly, such as $3s^2 3p^5 3d^3 F_4$ of $^{56}\text{Fe}^{8+}$ with a lifetime of 1110 s [41], which requires extremely high mass accuracy at 10^{-11} or even better. To this end, a cryogenic detection system for reading out the image charges of trapped ions must be developed. In this study, we follow the original design described in Ref. [40], utilizing helical superconducting resonators and low-noise high-gain cryogenic amplifiers. This article introduces the fundamental principle of Penning traps and the nondestructive image-charge detection technique (Sect. II). Then, we present the design of the cryogenic radio-frequency (RF) amplifiers and superconducting resonator as well as experimental tests on their performance at a cold-head base cryogenic stage (Sect. III). Finally, we summarize the characteristics of the proposed detection system and predict its potential improvements.

II. PRINCIPLE OF PENNING TRAP

A. Ion Motion in a Penning Trap

In a homogeneous magnetic field, a charged particle with mass m and charge q experiences a Lorentz force $\vec{F} = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$, resulting in circular motion with free-space cyclotron frequency:

$$\nu_c = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{q}{m} B$$

where ν_c is the frequency of ion motion in a pure magnetic field. To confine ions in all spatial directions, a quadrupole electrostatic potential is superimposed along the axial axis. The quadrupolar electric potential $U(r, z)$ takes the following form:

$$U(r, z) = \frac{U_0}{2d^2} (2z^2 - r^2)$$

where U_0 is the potential difference between the endcap and ring electrodes, and d is the characteristic dimension of the Penning trap. The potential can be generated by employing two electrodes shaped as infinite revolution hyperboloids.

In practice, a semi-quadratic electric potential in the central region is primarily generated using two geometries: (a) two finite hyperboloids of revolution with two additional correction electrodes and (b) a stack of several (typically five) cylindrical electrodes or other exotic geometries [42]. The fields are oriented such that an electrostatic potential well is created along the magnetic-field lines. In this configuration, the magnetic field confines ion motion to the plane perpendicular to the magnetic field lines (radial motion), whereas the electrostatic potential traps ions along the magnetic field lines (axial motion). A detailed theory of the Penning trap can be found elsewhere [43].

The presence of an electrostatic quadrupolar field modifies the pure cyclotron motion of an ion in the magnetic field, resulting in three independent eigen motions with frequencies:

$$\nu_{\pm} = \frac{\nu_c}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\nu_c}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{\nu_z^2}{2}}$$

$$\nu_z = \sqrt{\frac{qU_0}{md^2}}$$

where ν_+ , ν_- , and ν_z are the frequencies of the modified cyclotron, magnetron, and axial motions, respectively. Typically, ν_+ is over ten MHz, ν_z is several hundreds of kilohertz, and ν_- is of the order of kilohertz according to the Shanghai

Penning Trap design [41]. The free cyclotron frequency can be determined from the invariance theorem [44]:

$$\nu_c^2 = \nu_+^2 + \nu_-^2 + \nu_z^2$$

which links the eigenfrequencies to the charge-to-mass ratio of an ion. This relation is applicable not only to an ideal Penning trap but also to existing Penning-trap systems with small imperfections in the alignment of the electric and magnetic fields.

B. Principle of Image Charge Detection

The frequency of motion of a single ion is determined through the utilization of the FT-ICR technique. The detection principle is illustrated in Fig. 1 [Figure 1: see original paper]. The oscillating charged particles induce an image current in the trap electrodes. With a large impedance, this small current signal is converted into a detectable voltage. This impedance is realized by a superconducting inductor L connected in parallel to the trap, forming a tank circuit with parasitic capacitance C_p and a resonance frequency:

$$\nu_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC_p}}$$

The serial ohmic and dielectric losses are converted into large parallel resistances. Once the ion oscillates in resonance with the tank circuit, the resonator acts as a pure resistor R_p :

$$R_p = 2\pi\nu_{res}QL$$

where Q is the circuit-quality factor. In this case, the ions can be cooled using a resonator. Once the particle reaches thermal equilibrium with the resonator at cryogenic temperature (typically at liquid-helium temperature), its motional energy dissipates into the tank circuit, producing an image current typically on the order of a few fA. Thus, a cryogenic detection system with a high Q value and low input noise is essential for signal amplification prior to Fourier transformation in a spectrum analyzer at room temperature.

[Figure 1: see original paper] shows a schematic of the image charge detection system in a cryogenic Penning trap, which consists of an LC tank circuit and a low-noise cryogenic amplifier. The cut model shows a typical five-electrode (gold) Penning trap with sapphire insulation spacers (blue). The endcap electrodes V_0 (black) are connected to ground, and the ring electrode V_r (red) as well as the correction electrodes V_c (green) are supplied by negative voltages. The oscillation of the charged particle in the axial direction is indicated by the double-headed arrow. The resonator can be represented as an inductance L , an

effective resistance R_p , and a parasitic capacitance C_p . The signal through the resonator is then coupled to a low-noise cryogenic amplifier before entering a room-temperature (RT) amplifier and a spectrum analyzer.

III. CRYOGENIC ELECTRONIC DETECTION SYSTEM DEVELOPMENT

A. Cryogenic Amplifiers

The detection system comprises two crucial components: a high- Q resonator and a cryogenic low-noise amplifier. The ion signal from the trap can be affected by noise as it travels through the transmission line, which is several meters long. Therefore, using a low-noise amplifier positioned in the cryogenic region, close to the downstream of the resonator, is essential for signal amplification. Currently, most commercial amplifiers with a bandwidth that meets the ion frequencies in Penning traps cannot operate at liquid helium temperatures because the charge carriers in standard silicon semiconductors can freeze. In addition, some amplifiers suffer from high power consumption and significant input noise, rendering them unsuitable for very weak image charge signals. A desirable amplifier requires low noise and power consumption, along with a suitable bandwidth in the range of a few hundred kHz to tens of MHz.

The first low-noise cryogenic amplifier design, denoted AMP1, is shown in Fig. 2 [Figure 2: see original paper], where the core component, a GaAs-based field-effect transistor (MESFET), was tested with excellent performance at cryogenic temperatures. In this design, the first stage comprises a cascode common-source amplifier with two FETs to mitigate the Miller effect. This significantly reduces the amplifier's back-action on the resonator's quality factor caused by the parasitic Miller capacitance. The second stage is a standard common-source amplifier connected to the output of the first stage for additional amplification. The third stage, which is also called a source follower, does not amplify the signal but rather aims for impedance matching. The entire fabrication process utilized a printed circuit board (PCB) technique, with a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) substrate to minimize dielectric loss. All electronic components, including FETs denoted here as Q1 to Q4, resistors, and capacitors, are surface-mountable, resulting in an amplifier board with dimensions $20\text{ mm} \times 40\text{ mm}$ and 1.5 mm in thickness. We used metal film resistors and stacked metallized film chip capacitors with low-temperature drift. Note that all the FETs used in this study were dual-gate GaAs transistors. However, we shortened the two gates of Q1 and Q2 in the cascode stage to increase the channel length and thus reduce the $1/f$ noise of the transistor in the low-frequency range. Another FET, referred to as Q5, was placed on the PCB board (not shown in the design sheet). The dual-gate FET aims to replace the cascode stage for comparison. The signal input and output were coupled via SMA connectors. The four FETs on the PCB board were operated with a total of six bias voltages, denoted here as V_{g1} , V_{g2} , and V_{d1} for cascode stage gates and drain voltages, V_{g3} and V_{d1} for the second-stage

gate and drain voltages, and V_{g4} and V_{d2} for the source-follower gate and drain voltages. In practice, V_{g1} and V_{g3} control the opening of the first and second stages, respectively, whereas V_{g2} and V_{g4} are grounded to reduce the number of voltage supply channels. The first and second stages share the same drain voltage, whereas a separate drain voltage supplied to the third stage can reduce power consumption. Consequently, the resulting total power consumption of the amplifier was approximately 6 mW.

The gain and noise features of the amplifier are mainly determined by the FETs, and the first transistor (Q1) among the four FETs on the PCB board has the most significant impact on the input noise. In this study, we evaluate the performance of a low-noise amplifier using various FETs placed at Q1. The measurements were performed at the cold-head base 4 K cryogenic stage. A transmission network was established to measure the amplifier gain, as shown in Fig. 3 Figure 3: see original paper. A vector network analyzer was used to deliver and receive the RF signal. The input voltage noise of the amplifier was measured using a spectrum analyzer, which included an additional RT amplifier with a known gain in the network, as shown in Fig. 3(b). The cryogenic amplifier input is then grounded. The noise spectrum measured by the spectrum analyzer has the following form:

$$N_{meas} = \sqrt{(N_{cryo}^2 \cdot G_{cryo}^2 + N_{RT}^2) \cdot G_{RT}^2 + N_{SpA}^2}$$

Here, N_{cryo} , N_{RT} , and N_{SpA} represent the actual input voltage noise of the cryogenic amplifier, the RT amplifier, and the spectrum analyzer, respectively. N_{meas} , N_{RT} , and N_{SpA} can be determined independently. Therefore, N_{cryo} can be calculated using the measured gains of the cryogenic amplifier G_{cryo} and RT amplifier G_{RT} .

The measured forward transmission S_{21} and input voltage noise of the cryogenic amplifier with different first FETs at Q1 are shown in Fig. 4 [Figure 4: see original paper] and Fig. 5 [Figure 5: see original paper], respectively. The remaining components remain unchanged. Q2, Q3, and Q4 are CF739, Ne25139-U71, and CF739, respectively. For each FET, the gate voltage is tuned to the working point. In general, the amplifier with Ne25139 series at Q1 exhibited a higher amplification factor than those with 3sk164 and 3sk166 in the frequency range of 0.1–10 MHz. The input voltage noise of the amplifier, which consists of 1/f noise and white noise, is dominated by the noise of Q1. To detect the axial frequency of the ion in the Penning trap, input noise within the frequency range of a few hundred kilohertz to 1 MHz is critical. The voltage noise densities of the FETs are summarized in Table 1. Ne25139-U71 demonstrates the lowest 1/f noise, whereas the noise levels of Ne25139-U73 and 3sk166 are the highest. Notably, the measured input noise could contain noise from the transmission line because we ground the input of the amplifier at RT feedthrough. However, we did not observe any significant effect on the voltage noise density measurement.

The 1/f noise is dominated by the fluctuation of carrier mobility due to random scattering of impurities. This process can be described using the empirical Hooge equation:

$$u_n = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha_L I_{ds}^2 r_{ds}^2}{N f L_{ch}}}$$

where u_n is the 1/f noise density, α_L is an empirical parameter dependent on the fabrication process, I_{ds} is the drain-source current, r_{ds} is the effective drain-source resistance, N is the number of free charges in the channel, and L_{ch} is the channel length. The saturated drain-source current I_{dss} of FETs is listed in Table 1. Ne25139-U71 demonstrates the lowest 1/f noise because it has the lowest I_{dss} among the Ne25139 series, all of which have identical channel lengths according to the datasheet. Owing to the larger I_{dss} in 3sk166, it also exhibited higher 1/f noise. However, the channel length value is not provided in its datasheet, although it shares the same footprint as that of the Ne25139 series. Compared to using a cascode stage with Ne25139 and CF739, employing a single Ne25139 as Q5 results in higher input voltage noise. This is because shortening the two gates of the FET increases the channel length, leading to a reduction in low-frequency noise.

AMP1 was designed for axial frequency readout and had the highest gain in the relevant frequency range. However, the cyclotron frequency is not within this range. Although the cyclotron frequency is usually read out through sideband coupling, which couples the radial motion to the axial motion of the ion, it is also beneficial to directly detect the cyclotron motion using a cryogenic amplifier specifically designed for that frequency range. For this purpose, we developed another cryogenic amplifier, denoted AMP2, which is similar to AMP1 but excludes the second common-source amplification stage. The cascode stage comprises two ATF35143 transistors. The measured gain and input voltage noise of AMP2 in the 1–200 MHz frequency range are shown in Fig. 6 [Figure 6: see original paper]. At the highest frequency, the amplifier still has a gain of 15 dB. Note that noise peaks in the high-frequency range may originate from the environment.

B. Resonator

The other component of the cryogenic detection system can be described as an effective parallel RLC-circuit. In experimental realization, it is manufactured with a solenoidal coil wound on a PTFE core and mounted in a cylindrical housing. The Q value of the tank circuit is strongly influenced by the series resistance and self-capacitance of the coil. Both the ohmic and dielectric losses should be minimized to achieve a high equivalent parallel resistance. Close to the resonance frequency, R_p can be approximated in terms of the capacitor's equivalent series resistance (ESR) and the equivalent winding resistance of the inductor, R_L :

$$R_p \approx \frac{1}{2\pi\nu_{res}C(ESR + R_L)}$$

According to this relation, R_p can be increased by minimizing the circuit parameters C , R_L , and ESR while maximizing the inductance L . To control these parameters, an inductor is developed as a coil in a shield or housing. The resonator's inductance and capacitance are determined by the size of the coil and the shield dimensions. These losses stem mainly from the choice of materials and partly from the geometry. An overview of the materials, geometries, and fabrication processes used in the development of the resonator is provided below.

A resonator wound with superconducting NbTi wires can minimize the conductive loss when operated below the critical temperature of $T_c \approx 9.5$ K, presenting a very low series resistance to the induced current. The conductor of the superconducting wire (manufactured by California Fine Wire) was 75 μm in diameter, and the insulation layer made of PTFE brought the total diameter of the wire to approximately 100 μm . The thin wire allowed dense winding, enabling the achievement of a large inductance within a limited housing space. Meanwhile, the PTFE insulator, with its low permittivity and low loss tangent, ensured that the dielectric loss remained sufficiently low. The geometry of the resonator is shown in Fig. 7 [Figure 7: see original paper]. The body frame of the coil, also made of PTFE, with an outer diameter of 20 mm matching the coil diameter, was divided into 16 chambers. The NbTi wire was wound into three layers within each chamber before crossing the edge to the next chamber. This effectively reduces the self-capacitance. The cylindrical housing, which was approximately 140 mm high and 40 mm wide including the end caps, was also made of NbTi, and its inner face was polished to mitigate the eddy current effect [45]. In total, the manufactured resonator comprises 900 turns wound across 10 chambers over a total length of 100 mm, yielding a designed inductance of 4.5 mH and a capacitance of 5.6 pF.

Ensuring good thermal contact between the wire and PTFE core is crucial because at the phase transition to the superconducting state, electrons condense to the BCS ground state, leading to a decrease in the heat conduction coefficient of NbTi. The windings were fixed to the body frame using PTFE thread-seal tape, and the body was pressed against the bottom plate of the housing using a brass screw. This configuration also ensured mechanical stability of the coil during thermal cycling. Both ends of the coil were soldered to high-conductivity copper wires with 0.7 mm diameters. One end was designed to connect to the trap, namely the “hot end,” whereas the other was RF grounded, denoted here as the “cold end.” A 1/10 winding tap was present in the coil, where the signal was picked up and fed into the input of the cryogenic amplifier. This design utilized the coil as a self-transformer, effectively reducing the noise from subsequent electronics to the trap.

The measurement setup is illustrated in Fig. 8 Figure 8: see original paper.

The thermal noise of the resonator was amplified by the cryogenic amplifier mentioned above as well as an RT amplifier before entering the spectrum analyzer. The measured noise spectra are presented in Fig. 8(b). To estimate the values rapidly, the Q value of the resonator can be determined from the ratio of the resonance frequency ν_{res} to the width at the -3 dB point below the resonance peak. A more accurate result is obtained by fitting a line-shaped model of the resonator impedance to the experimentally obtained data:

$$Z(\omega) = \left(\frac{1}{R_p} + i\omega C + \frac{1}{i\omega L} \right)^{-1} \cdot \frac{1 + iQ \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_{res}} - \frac{\omega_{res}}{\omega} \right)}{1 + iQ \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_{res}} - \frac{\omega_{res}}{\omega} \right)}$$

The resulting resonance frequency ν_{res} is 1.000810 MHz and Q value is 98004(3186). The signal-to-noise ratio, measured as the peak of the resonator to the noise floor, is approximately 25 dB, consistent with our expectations. The spikes occurring at 50 Hz intervals are likely caused by stray noise from the environment, such as interference from the cold-head supply. Notably, the experimental setup is ultimately cooled with liquid helium instead of the cold head to eliminate such noise.

To determine the inductance and self-capacitance of the coil, we soldered an additional capacitor parallel to it, which shifted the resonance frequency to $\nu_i = 1/(2\pi\sqrt{L(C_p + C_i)})$. By tuning the capacitor C_i to 3 pF, 5 pF, and 10 pF, the measured frequencies were shifted to 775.662 kHz, 704.538 kHz, and 593.688 kHz, respectively. Each time the parallel capacitor is changed, it may affect the parasitic capacitance by no more than 1 pF. Consequently, the inductance and self-capacitance of the coil were measured as 4.7 mH and 5.7 pF, respectively, which are consistent with the designed parameters. The Q value is constrained by losses in the coil owing to various factors. The weak solder joint between NbTi and Cu may introduce a fractional series resistance to the coil. Additionally, the superconducting NbTi wire that we utilized features a very thin insulating layer (approximately 10 μm), which could limit the Q value owing to dielectric losses in the thin insulator. Notably, upon connection to the trap, the quality factor can be significantly influenced by the impedance of the feedthrough and cables, which predominantly determines the final Q value.

IV. SUMMARY

A cryogenic electronic system for image charge detection was developed for use in the Shanghai Penning Trap. The system comprises two primary components: a cryogenic amplifier with low noise and high gain and a helical superconducting resonator, which resonantly amplifies the image current of a single ion. This system enables the detection of minute signals from ions, facilitating further amplification and spectral analysis at room temperature. Low-noise cryogenic amplifiers were engineered in three amplification stages. The initial stage employs a cascode common-source amplifier with two FETs to mitigate the Miller effect.

The second stage adopts another common-source design for cascaded amplification, whereas the third stage employs a source follower to ensure impedance matching. The input voltage noise and amplification factors of the amplifiers were measured at the cryogenic stage using various FETs employed at the first transistor position. In the frequency range of 0.1–10 MHz, the highest gain measured was greater than 27 dB for Ne25139-U73, whereas Ne25139-U71 exhibited the lowest 1/f noise. Additionally, we observed a correlation between 1/f noise and the saturated drain-source current in FETs. By shortening the two gates of Ne25139-U71 to increase the channel length, we also achieved a reduction in 1/f noise. To detect the cyclotron motion of the ion directly, we developed another amplifier that can be operated in the frequency range of 1 MHz to 200 MHz, demonstrating an amplification factor exceeding 15 dB at the highest frequency. The helical resonator, which was fabricated with 900 turns of NbTi superconducting wires in three layers, was housed in a cylindrical NbTi enclosure. After measurements at the cold-head base cryogenic stage, the inductance, self-capacitance, and resonance frequency were determined. The unloaded Q value is 98004. The loss in the coil arises from several factors, including soldering at the NbTi-to-Cu joint and dielectric loss within the coil. By enhancing the joint contact with a spot welder or high-indium solder and ensuring good thermal contact between the wire solder joints and the PTFE core, lower series resistive loss can be achieved. Additionally, using a thicker insulator for the NbTi wire to increase the spacing between the wires further reduces the dielectric loss, thereby increasing the Q value.

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