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## Characterization of the focal plane of the microchannel X-ray telescope at the metrology beamline of SOLEIL synchrotron for the space astronomy mission SVOM

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# 1 **Characterization of the focal plane of the Microchannel X-ray Telescope at the Metrology beamline of SOLEIL**

## 2 **synchrotron for the space astronomy mission SVOM**

### 3 **1. Introduction**

#### 4 1.1 Scientific context

5 The SVOM mission to be launched in 2023 by the Chinese Academy of Science is an observatory dedicated to the time-  
6 domain astrophysics and in particular the study of the gamma-ray bursts. Gamma-ray bursts are brief flashes of  
7 gamma rays, appearing in random directions in the sky. They are produced by the death of massive stars or the  
8 coalescence of compact binary systems. They are characterized by a prompt emission in the gamma-ray range  
9 followed by an afterglow emission in all wavelengths of the electromagnetic spectrum. The SVOM mission is  
10 composed of a satellite with 4 instruments and 3 ground-based telescopes for the follow-up (see Figure 1). Onboard  
11 the satellite, the Microchannel X-ray Telescope (MXT) will rapidly refine the location error box of the transient source  
12 detected by the wide field of view instrument ECLAIRs and will observe the afterglow in the 0.2 to 10 keV energy  
13 range. MXT is developed by a European collaboration under the responsibility of the French Space Agency (CNES) [1];  
14 it is a focusing X-ray telescope of 1.15 m focal length with time-resolved spectroscopy capability [2]. It is composed of  
15 a microchannel-pore-based optics, a telescope structure, a radiator, a camera [3] and a data processing unit, for a  
16 total mass of 35 kg and a power of 60 W.

#### 17 1.2 Motivations for a characterization campaign

18 In the camera, the detection chain is based on a 256 x 256 pixels pnCCD for X-ray imaging spectroscopy, read out by  
19 CAMEX analog ASIC, both provided by the Max-Planck-Institute for Extraterrestrial Physics (see Figure 2). This system  
20 is similar to the camera development for the eROSITA instrument on-board the Spektrum Roentgen Gamma mission  
21 [4]. There are nevertheless two major design differences. On one hand, the optical on-chip filter has not the same  
22 composition and so the quantum efficiency (QE) cannot be inferred from eROSITA QE calibration. On the other hand,  
23 the warm front-end electronics is a new US-free design which performance in terms of noise and linearity shall be  
24 characterized.

25 Three space-grade focal planes were produced and characterized in a full-custom cryostat. An X-ray source was  
26 developed with an X-ray tube and a composite fluorescence target to produce X-ray lines from 1.5 keV to 9 keV (see  
27 Figure 3). This allows a rapid energy calibration over the whole energy range and the evaluation of the energy  
28 resolution, especially at 1.5 keV which the scientific requirement of the instrument is specified. However, the crucial  
29 energy response of the camera where the MXT optics is the most sensitive (< 2 keV) was only characterized by one  
30 line (Al-K) produced by the X-ray tube. In addition, the simultaneous presence of several spectral lines associated to

31 the Bremsstrahlung continuum spectrum induced by the X-ray tube introduce uncertainties in the energy calibration  
32 and energy resolution determination. Finally, the evaluation of the charge transfer efficiency (CTE) might be  
33 overestimated in the case of a bright and uniform illumination of the detector (e.g., the X-ray tube) compared to very  
34 low flux astrophysics sources that MXT will detect in flight. For a bright and uniform source, electron traps are more  
35 likely to be filled by existing charges, which reduced the probability of trapping during the charge transfer. To address  
36 these questions, we carried out a test campaign at the Metrology beamline of SOLEIL synchrotron and further  
37 characterized the spectral response of the MXT camera at  $E < 2$  keV. This facility offers three fundamental  
38 characteristics for this objective. First, the monochromatic beam, tunable from 40 to 1800 eV, allows for energy  
39 calibration and characterization of the spectral resolution. Then, the focused beam allows local illumination of  
40 selected areas of the detector to determine the CTE. Finally, the knowledge of the absolute flux sent onto the detector  
41 allows for quantum efficiency evaluation.

## 42 **2. Experimental setup**

### 43 *2.1 Metrology beamline and MXT setup*

44 The Soft X-ray branch of the Metrology Beamline uses the radiation emitted by a bending magnet (see Figure 4). It  
45 covers an energy range between 40 and 1800 eV with few  $10^9$  photons/s in a  $250 \times 120 \mu\text{m}^2$  FWHM focused beam.  
46 The typical spectral resolution is about a few tenths of eV. A low order sorter is used for rejection of the  
47 monochromator higher order harmonics to reach a spectral purity better than 99 % over the whole energy range.  
48 We adapted the existing Focal Plane Assembly (FPA) cryostat for interfacing with the Metrology beamline. Initially, for  
49 the first characterization in the laboratory, the cryostat was equipped with a liquid nitrogen ( $\text{N}_2\text{L}$ ) tank above the  
50 functional part holding the FPA; a thermal link with a heater was connected to the FPA shielding to control the  
51 detector temperature from  $-100^\circ\text{C}$  to room temperature. The cryostat was 178 cm high with an optical axis at 74 cm.  
52 In the soft X-ray experimental hutch of the beamline, the beam output height is 173 cm with respect to the floor, for a  
53 ceiling height of 200 cm. Consequently, the cryostat was vertically rotated to get the functional part on top and the  
54  $\text{N}_2\text{L}$  tank was replaced by a baseplate filled with coolant fluid controlled by a cryocooler. We designed a mechanical  
55 structure for the cryostat to be used as a trolley and to hold the cryostat with 6 degrees of freedom for the alignment  
56 on the X-ray beam. Inside the cryostat, the FPA was fixed to two displacement tables to allow the scan of the detector  
57 in front of the beam.

58 The system characterized at SOLEIL is the flight spare model of the MXT detection channel, i.e., the flight spare model  
59 of the focal plane assembly inside the cryostat and the flight spare model of the front-end electronics assembly  
60 outside the cryostat. All parts of the flight spare models come from the same production batches as the flight models.

61 So the global trends and results are applicable to the flight model but some special features (noisy pixels...) can be  
62 device dependent.

### 63 *2.2. MXT implementation and beamline settings*

64 The nominal photon flux of the beamline is far too high to operate the detector without event pile-up in the pixels of  
65  $75\ \mu\text{m} \times 75\ \mu\text{m}$ :  $10^8$  photons/s/pixel for a detection system reading out 10 frames per second. The target count rate  
66 for adequate photon counting and spectroscopy should not exceed 1 count/pixel/second (see pile-up assessment in  
67 [5]), meaning a required flux reduction of 8 orders of magnitude. This challenge in the photon flux reduction was  
68 addressed by several means: (i) the distance between the X-ray beam focal spot and the detector to take benefit of  
69 the beam output divergence, (ii) the reduction of the monochromator exit slits opening and (iii) the use of additional  
70 X-ray filters combined with a higher rejection of the monochromator higher-order harmonics.

71 The beam divergence is 1 mrad in the horizontal plane (i.e., in the charge transfer direction of the CCD) and 0.3 mrad  
72 in the vertical one (i.e., along the columns of the CCD). The full length of the casemate was used to place the detector  
73 5 meters downstream of the beamline exit. As a result, while impinging the detector, the beam spot has an expected  
74 size of  $5.2\ \text{mm} \times 1.6\ \text{mm}$  (~300 times the initial surface), corresponding to illuminate 70 columns and 20 rows of the  
75 image area. This method provides a surface flux reduction by a factor of 300. The monochromator exit slits, which are  
76 nominally opened at  $100\ \mu\text{m}$ , could be adjusted as well to only few  $\mu\text{m}$  leading to a further flux reduction per pixel.  
77 Calibration tests of the slits apertures have been made in the past to demonstrate the proportionality between the slit  
78 opening reduction factor and the flux reduction factor. Both methods allowed to reduce by 4 to 5 orders of magnitude  
79 the photon flux per pixel. To gain the 3 to 4 other orders of magnitude needed for pile-up reduction, additional X-ray  
80 filters can be placed in the last beamline chamber. Filters with different materials and thicknesses were placed on a  
81 motorized frame to cover the energy range from 200 to 1800 eV. However, the use of strong absorbing filters leads to  
82 beam hardening and a higher level of contamination from undesired higher energies. Thus, rejection power of the  
83 beamline Low-Order Sorter was increased accordingly to maintain the output beam spectral purity.

84 As given in Table 1, settings of the beamline were adjusted from 300 eV to 1800 eV to provide monochromatic beam  
85 with the desired flux and spectral purity on the detector. The requirement was to detect less than 1 % of the incident  
86 flux at twice the working energy, ensuring both good harmonics rejection and no pile-up in the detector. This working  
87 condition was obtained in any of the settings below. The resulting images and spectra at few energies are illustrated in  
88 Figure 6. Beam settings that satisfied our spectral and counting requirements were not found during the campaign  
89 between 200 eV and 300 eV. This is due to the difficulty to reject the higher-order harmonics when they start at rather  
90 low energy (400 to 600 eV).

### 91        **3. Data analysis methods**

#### 92            *3.1 Spectral analysis*

93        When an X-ray photon interacts in the pnCCD, it creates, by photoelectric effect, charges that drift underneath the  
94        pixel electrodes and are stored until the readout of the frame. Due to charge diffusion in the semiconductor detector  
95        during the charge drift, the total charge can be shared on up to 4 neighboring pixels. In each frame, the front-end  
96        electronics detects the pixels whose amplitude is above a configurable low-level threshold and sends their pixel  
97        coordinates and amplitude information (corresponding to the collected charge) to the downstream processing. The  
98        MXT analysis pipeline consists in converting this list of hit pixels to a list of photon events. This requires a processing  
99        step of event clustering: the pixel clusters shall be identified and the amplitudes in each pixel of the cluster shall be  
100       summed after individual energy calibration. As a result, our detection and acquisition system record the photon time  
101       of arrival, the photon position, the photon energy. The time resolution is the frame integration time of 100 ms. The  
102       spatial resolution is the pixel size of 75  $\mu\text{m}$  (coordinates of the pixel recording the biggest charge); a finer position  
103       estimate would be possible with a barycentric method but is not implemented in the analysis software due to the final  
104       use of the detector (focal plane of a 10 arcmin angular resolution telescope, the point spread function is  $\sim 45$  pixels  
105       diameter wide at FWHM). The energy resolution is energy dependent and multiplicity dependent and is discussed  
106       here after. From this list of events, we can compute cumulative photon count maps (images) and histograms of  
107       amplitudes or energy with an a priori calibration table (spectra), as illustrated in Figure 6. This calibration table were  
108       obtained during the pre-campaign measurements in our laboratory using the X-ray source with multiple spectral lines.  
109       During the test campaign, a quicklook version of this pipeline was used to extract single events and display their  
110       spectra. The algorithm simplifies the pattern recognition step by avoiding the time-consuming event clustering  
111       process. Multiple hit events are so rejected from this quick analysis. This speeds up the process by a factor of 10 while  
112       maintaining a sufficient quality of the reduced products (count map, spectra). During the tuning phase of the beam,  
113       this online analysis was crucial to determine the spectral purity and validate the beamline configuration. After the test  
114       campaign, a complete offline analysis was performed. The energy calibration was refined using a dataset of one spot  
115       position on the detector. The new calibration table was in good agreement with the initial reference table used for the  
116       quicklook analysis. As a consequence, for the analysis concerning the energy resolution and the charge transfer  
117       efficiency, we decided to use the initial calibration tables obtained with the X-ray tube source based on more event  
118       statistics over the full matrix.

#### 119            *3.2 Photon counting analysis*

120 The photometric analysis consists in several computing steps. First, the beam flux (number of X-ray photons,  $N_0$ , per  
 121 second) is obtained from the beam current measured by a reference diode (equation 1). The 10 mm  $\times$  10 mm diode  
 122 fully intercepts the 240  $\mu\text{m}$   $\times$  120  $\mu\text{m}$  beam at the focal spot; the 19.2 mm  $\times$  19.2 mm detector fully intercepts the 5.2  
 123 mm  $\times$  1.6 mm beam after divergence in vacuum.  $N_0$  is calculated from the diode current  $I_D$  with the following formula  
 124 (valid only for a monoenergetic beam of energy  $E$ ):

$$I_D(A) = q \times N_0 \times T_{Al}(E) \times \frac{E}{\varepsilon} \quad (1)$$

125 where  $q$  is the charge of the electron,  $T_{Al}$  is the transmission of the 150 nm aluminum coating of the diode and  $\varepsilon$  is the  
 126 averaged pair creation energy in silicon at room temperature. This transmission can be obtained by calibration and is  
 127 known with a 5 % precision;  $\varepsilon$  was measured in the literature between 3.62 and 3.65 eV (1 % precision) [6].

128 Secondly, we derive the photon flux ( $N_i$ ) impinging on the MXT detector by taking into account the differences in the  
 129 beamline settings used for the diode and the MXT measurements for each energy run:

$$N_i = N_0 \times \frac{I_M}{I_{M0}} \times \frac{H_{PB}}{H_{PB0}} \times T_{FE} \times F \quad (2)$$

130 where  $I_M$  and  $I_{M0}$  are the synchrotron machine current intensities during MXT and diode measurements respectively,  
 131  $H_{PB}$  and  $H_{PB0}$  are the transfer functions of the low-pass filter for the angle used in the MXT measurement and in the  
 132 diode measurement respectively,  $T_{FE}$  the transmission of the external filter only used during the MXT measurement,  
 133 and  $F$  the ratio of the openings of the slits between the MXT and the diode measurements. The machine current is  
 134 stable within 0.5 % so its correction is not necessary at first order. The transfer functions are computed by simulations  
 135 of the optical system; when we operate the diode and the MXT detector with the same low-pass filter angle, the  
 136 uncertainties only depend on how reproducible the angle and the energy can be set, and are estimated below 5%.  
 137 After calibration of the external filters, the remaining uncertainty on the transmission  $T_{FE}$  comes from the modeling of  
 138 the transmission and the knowledge on the absolute energy and is evaluated to be lower than 10%. The absolute  
 139 opening of the slits is known with 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  precision; so, for some configurations with small openings, the error can  
 140 reach 10%. Thirdly, we extract the number of events per second  $N_D$  recorded in the detector after pixel clustering.  
 141 Measurement duration is defined to collect at least 20000 photons to limit the measurement error due to the Poisson  
 142 statistics to 1 %. Looking at the spectral distribution of the events, we estimated the photon pile-up to 1 % and the  
 143 pattern pile-up to 5%. Finally, we compute the ratio between the detected and the incoming fluxes to obtain the  
 144 quantum efficiency (QE):

$$QE = \frac{N_D}{N_i} \quad (3)$$

145 Taking into account all (independent) uncertainties, we expect an error on QE between 5 and 20 %.

## 146 **4. Experimental results**

### 147 *4.1 Event statistics*

148 The event multiplicity, i.e., the number of hit pixels per photon event, was characterized at low energy and close to  
149 the threshold of the detection chain (0.2 keV). If we consider a punctual electron charge cloud (true in X-rays) and the  
150 diffusion phenomenon only in a planar detector (good approximation in the integration phase of the pnCCD), the  
151 spatial distribution of the charge cloud at distance  $z$  from the interaction point can be modeled by a 2D-Gaussian of  
152 variance:

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{2kTL}{qV}z \quad (4)$$

153 where  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant,  $T$  the operating temperature,  $L$  the thickness of the fully depleted detector,  $V$  the  
154 depletion voltage. The event multiplicity statistics depends on the ratio between the charge cloud size defined by Eq.  
155 4 and the pixel size on one hand, and the ratio between the signal (amplitude of the Gaussian) and the low-level  
156 threshold on the other hand. For a given detector geometry and mean low-level threshold, the statistics is thus energy  
157 dependent. Such a modeling was applied with eROSITA detector which has the same pixel size (75  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and about the  
158 same low-level threshold (50 eV versus 46 eV for MXT) [7]. The operating temperature was  $-60^\circ\text{C}$  in the SOLEIL  
159 experiment versus  $-85^\circ\text{C}$  during the eROSITA calibration campaign, which increases the size of the charge cloud by 6%  
160 according to Eq. 4. By adapting this size parameter, we could fairly model the statistics of the event multiplicity  
161 measured during the SOLEIL campaign except at 300 eV (see Figure 7). The same model was also applied during the  
162 MXT calibration test campaign in the PANTER test facility at  $-65^\circ\text{C}$  with the same low-level threshold [7]. The deviation  
163 at 300 eV is an artefact from the experimental setup. The measurements at low energy (below 400 eV) in SOLEIL  
164 synchrotron were corrupted by spurious and numerous low energy events that were not correlated to the photon  
165 beam but by the opening of the gate valve fixed on our cryostat; we assume that the holding current of this valve  
166 (with a Vatlock system) caused electromagnetic perturbations. This point shall be investigated and corrected for the  
167 next test campaign.

### 168 *4.2 Energy resolution*

169 The energy resolution measured during the campaign is summarized in Figure 8. We obtained typically 88 eV FWHM  
170 at 1.5 keV versus 84 eV with the MXT cryostat in the lab in the same configuration. The thermal, vibration and  
171 electromagnetic environments in the hutch were likely to be less favorable for the electronic noise. In particular, the  
172 operating temperature of the detector had to be set to  $-60^\circ\text{C}$  instead of  $-65^\circ\text{C}$  for a long-term use of the cryocooler (96

173 hours continuous operation). The energy resolution can be modeled with an electronic noise of 7 electrons rms  
174 independent of the energy and a Fano factor of 0.13 (see [8] for comparison with the flight configuration).

#### 175 *4.3 Charge transfer efficiency*

176 The energy resolution at various energies was determined in one area of the detector. To address the charge transfer  
177 efficiency, measurements were made at three positions on the detector while maintaining the beam in exactly the  
178 same conditions (one energy, one flux); the data set are represented overplotted in Figure 9a. The line positions are  
179 fitted for each row and are represented as a function of the number of transfer  $n$  to extract the CTE using the  
180 following equation (see Figure 9b):

$$\frac{A(0) - A(n)}{A(0)} = 1 - CTE^n \quad (5)$$

181 where  $A(j)$  is the mean amplitude (spectral line position in ADU or eV) of events recorded at the detector row #j. The  
182 measurement was performed at two energies, 600 and 1000 eV. Data obtained are in agreement with the  
183 measurements performed in the laboratory with the composite X-ray source and with the MXT Panter calibration  
184 campaign done with the flight model [7](see Figure 10). The dependency of the CTE with energy can be explained by  
185 the fact that CTE expresses a ratio of charge loss whereas physically this is a number of charges which is lost  
186 depending of the time constants of the traps in the material and the delays to readout the matrix. We can notice than  
187 for the two other campaigns, the pixel flux was similar (0.1 ct/pixel/s) to the one in the experiment at SOLEIL but the  
188 matrix was fully illuminated. This validates both methods (full and partial illumination) for the determination of the  
189 CTE, provided that the flux is low enough. The plan for a next campaign is to improve the system with the  
190 displacement table in order to allow a continuous scan of the detector along a column. The goal would be to provide  
191 again a global CTE value for the matrix at a given energy but with more row data to better constraint the parameter.  
192 The experiment can be reproduced at different energies, and in particular close to the low-level threshold where the  
193 charge loss is affected by other effects like the quantum efficiency and the thresholding.

#### 194 *4.4 Quantum efficiency*

195 The Figure 11 presents the results of the data analysis: the flux measured by the diode  $N_0$ , the incident flux on MXT  $N_i$   
196 and the flux measured by MXT  $N_0$  are extracted according to the method detailed in section 3.2. However, by making  
197 the ratio between the detected and incident flux we failed in getting realistic values of the quantum efficiency in any  
198 of the tested energy bands. The measurement protocol, given the experimental and time constraints, consisted in two  
199 (time) independent sets of measurements: on one hand, the diode current measurements for a set of energies sharing  
200 the same adequate beam configuration (order-sorter, slits, line internal filter, no external filter) and on the other



201 hand, the MXT measurements for the same energies with the same beam configuration but with a different slit  
202 opening and using an additional external filter (see Table 1). The reproducibility of the Metrology beam is expected to  
203 be excellent (precision on the energy better than 0.2 eV and on the angle of the low-pass filter better than  $0.001^\circ$ ) so  
204 that even if it could happen that the beam configuration parameters were changed in between these two  
205 measurements, the same photon flux values are recovered when the parameters were returned to their nominal  
206 values. To reduce the uncertainties, we calibrated the attenuation of the external X-ray filters and we performed a  
207 new calibration of the reference diode. We refined the data analysis to perform the photon counting in the energy  
208 band of the beam only to get rid of spurious events below 200 eV. Despite this work, the results of the computation of  
209 the quantum efficiency are far from the expected value for a 450  $\mu\text{m}$  thick silicon detector with a theoretical  
210 composition of the on-chip filter of 100 nm Al, 30 nm  $\text{Si}_3\text{O}_4$  and 40 nm  $\text{SiO}_2$ . As a conclusion, our test protocol based  
211 on indirect reference photon counting is not validated for absolute quantum efficiency measurement. Possible  
212 explanations would be bad offset values in the current measurement of the diode or in the opening of the slits (errors  
213 in  $N_0$  and F in equation 2). Actually, better results on the composition of this filter were obtained with a Rutherford  
214 Backscattering Spectroscopy (RBS) method applied in the JANNuS-SCALP platform in May 2021 [9]; it concludes to a  
215 thickness of aluminum of  $104 \text{ nm} \pm 8 \text{ nm}$  in 9 regions of the detector. The RBS method was not suited to find localized  
216 defaults expected in the aluminum layer and we expected achieving this goal with in the SOLEIL facility. For a second  
217 test at SOLEIL Metrology beamline, we plan to scan the detector in the prospect of studying relative variations of  
218 quantum efficiency instead of measuring absolute quantum efficiency.

## 219 **5- Conclusions and perspectives**

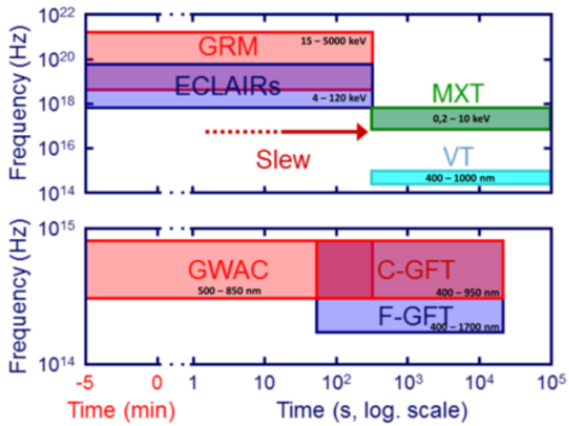
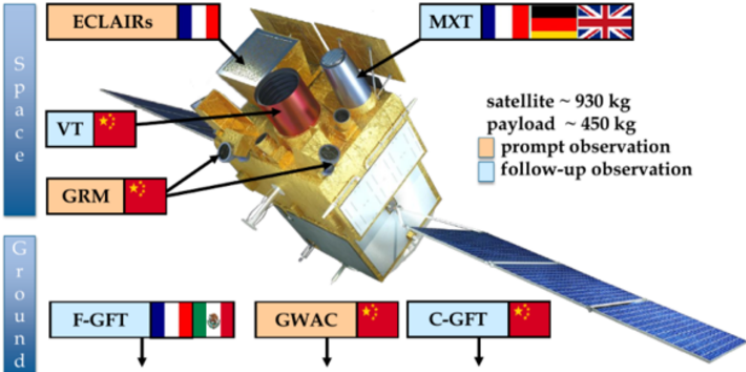
220 This paper presents the calibration campaign of the flight spare detection chain of the MXT instrument on the soft X-  
221 ray branch of the Metrology Beamline at SOLEIL. This first campaign was technically successful, with the challenges of  
222 placing a cryostat at  $10^{-6}$  mbar in the experimental hutch 5 meters downstream from the X-ray beam focal spot. For  
223 the first time, the system was continuously operated during 96 hours with a cryocooler and a system of thermo-  
224 electric coolers to maintain the detector between  $-65^\circ\text{C}$  and  $-60^\circ\text{C}$ . Specific configurations of the beamline were  
225 successfully implemented to provide a monoenergetic beam from 300 to 1800 eV with a photon flux reduced to 1  
226 photon/s/pixel while keeping excellent spectral purity. Accurate measurements of the energy resolution and the  
227 charge transfer efficiency were obtained below 1 keV, in good agreement with other facilities. Characterizations from  
228 100 to 300 eV could be the goal of a next campaign to better characterize the low-energy threshold of the detection  
229 chain. This would require, on one hand, another tuning of the beamline (probably with other external filters) and on  
230 the other hand, an upgrade of the MXT set-up to get rid of spurious events at low energy probably caused by the VAT

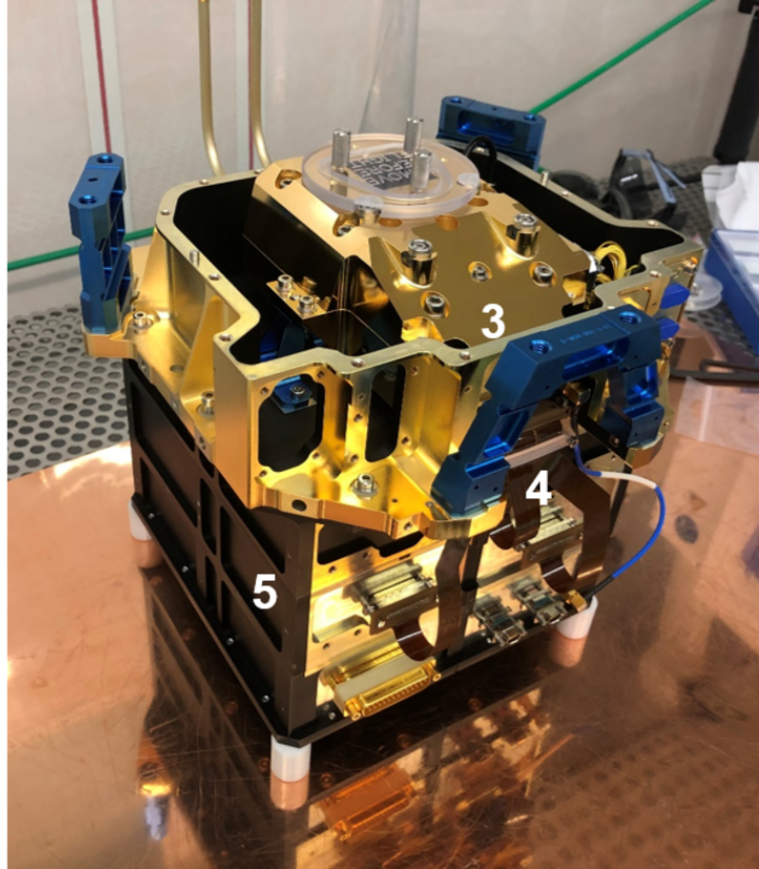
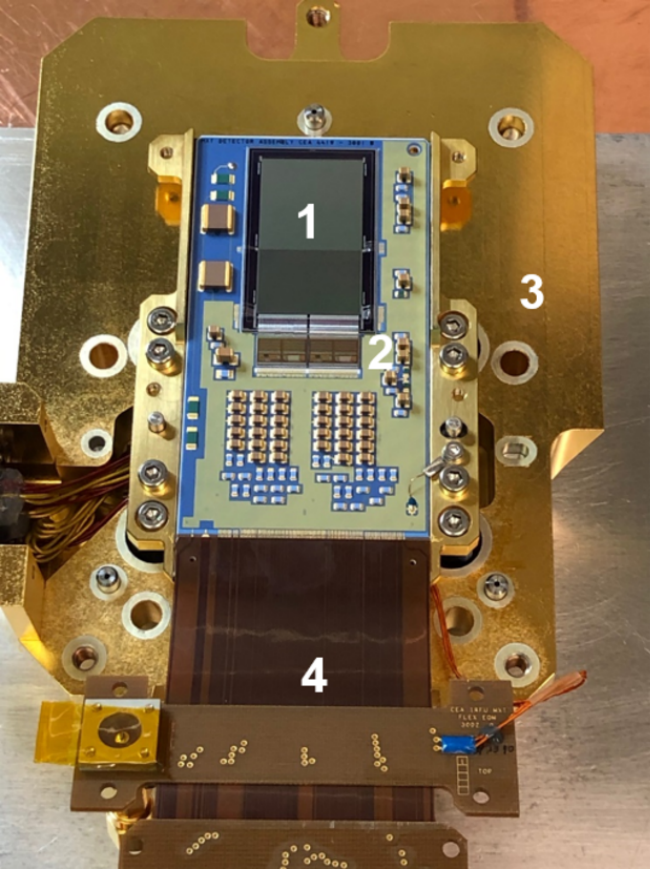
231 gate valve. The absolute measurement of the quantum efficiency was not achieved. The absolute flux needs to be  
232 measured at the level of 150 ph/s in the same beamline configuration and optical setup than for the MXT  
233 measurements. Such measurements can only be achieved with cryo-cooled X-ray bolometers. However, to answer the  
234 question of the uniformity of the aluminum on-chip filter, we can contemplate for a next campaign the possibility of a  
235 relative measurement of the quantum efficiency by scanning the full detector surface at one or two energies. Another  
236 interesting perspective of this work would be to measure again the energy resolution and the charge transfer  
237 efficiency of this specimen after proton irradiation, in order to predict the performance in flight of the focal plane  
238 assembly of MXT on board SVOM.

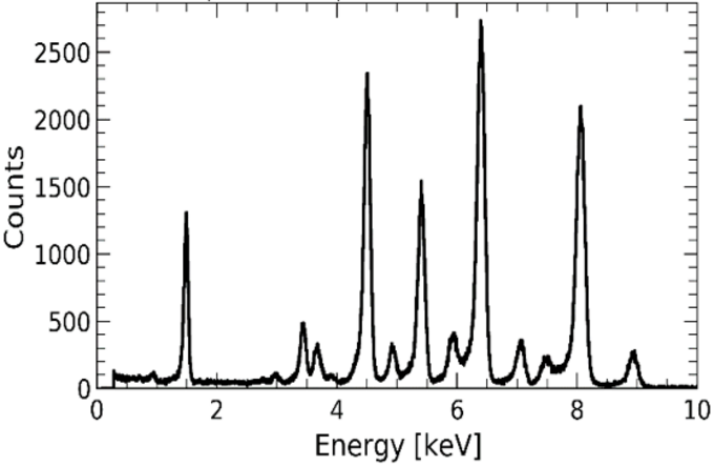
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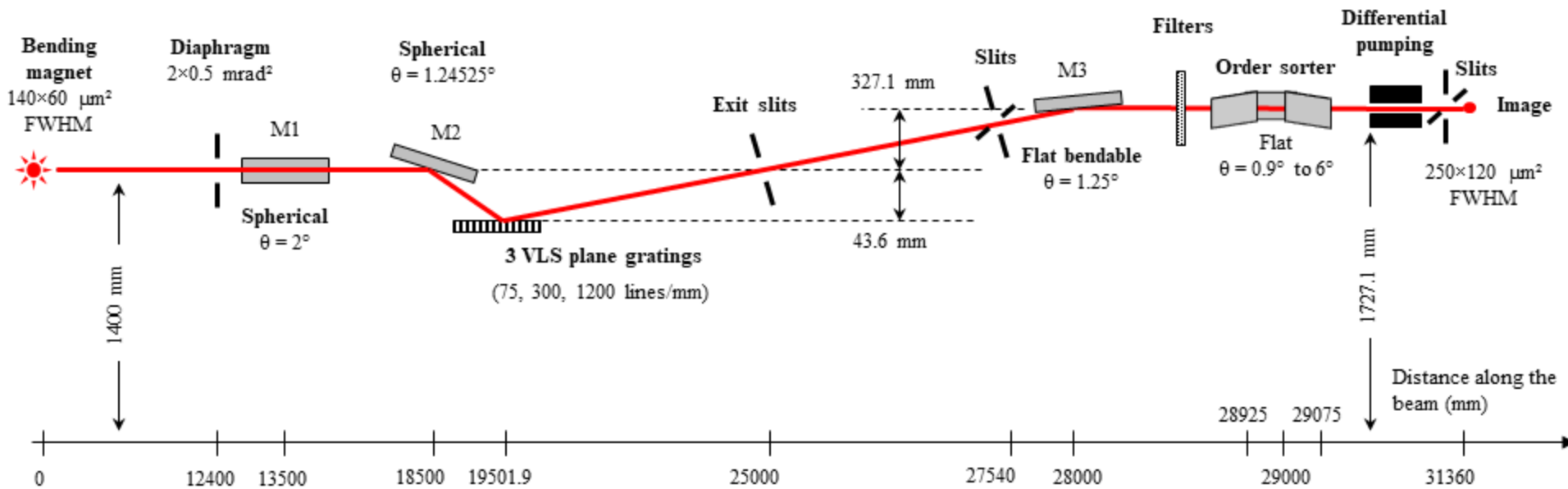
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261 406, Part A, 2017, Pages 48-52, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nimb.2017.03.036>.









Entrance window  
(Beam axis)

Trolley with  
alignment  
systems

Turbopump

Control racks

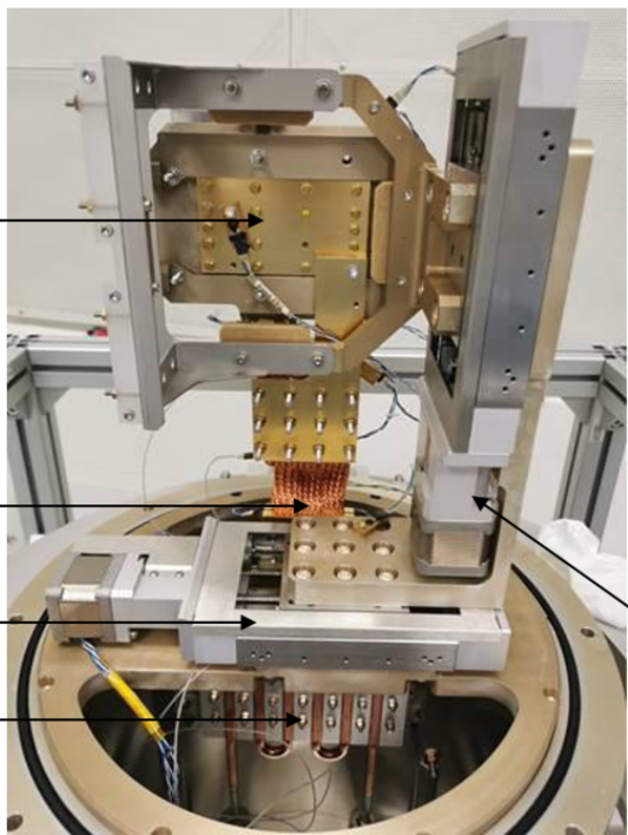


Focal plane

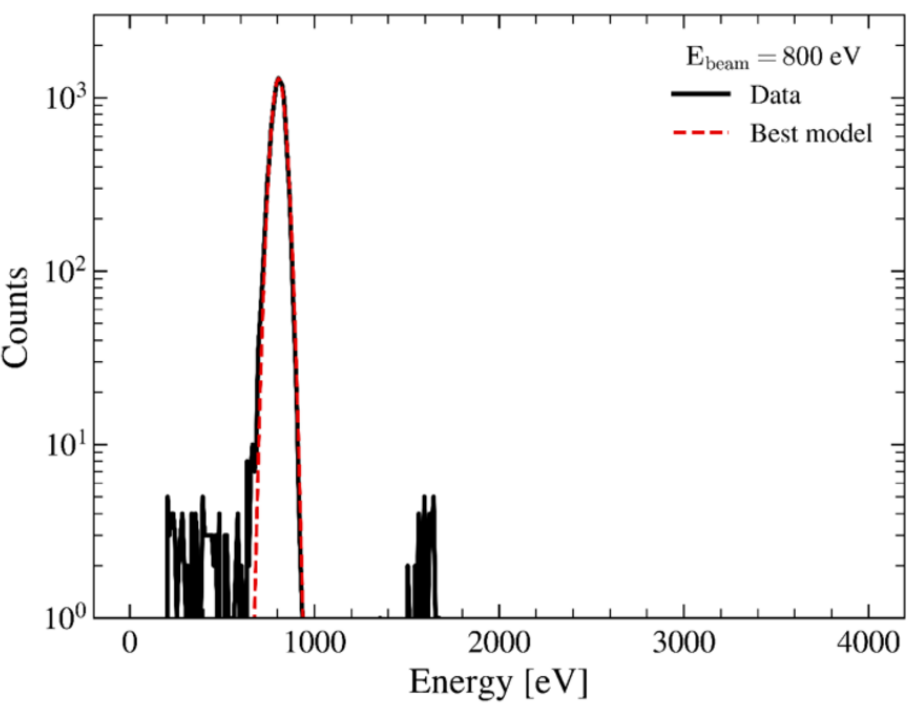
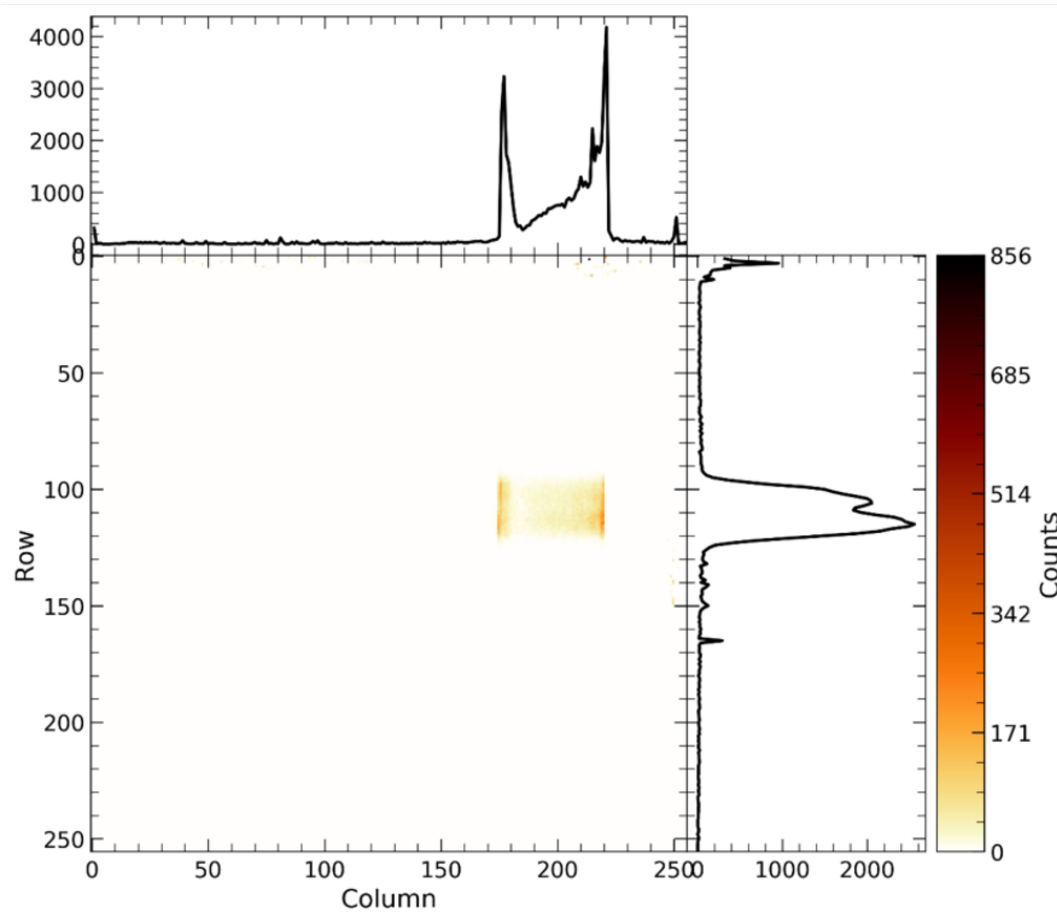
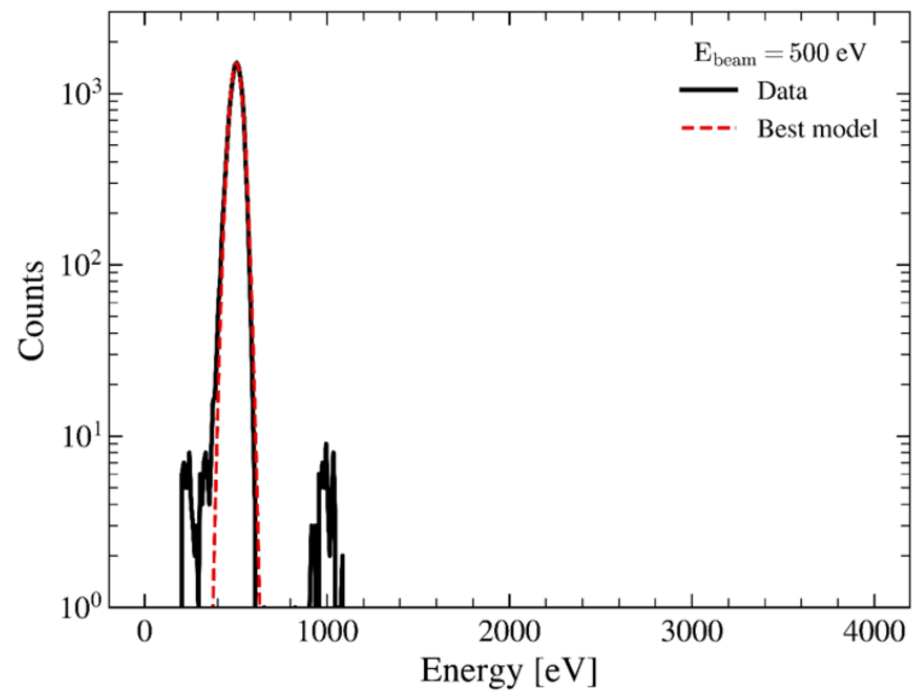
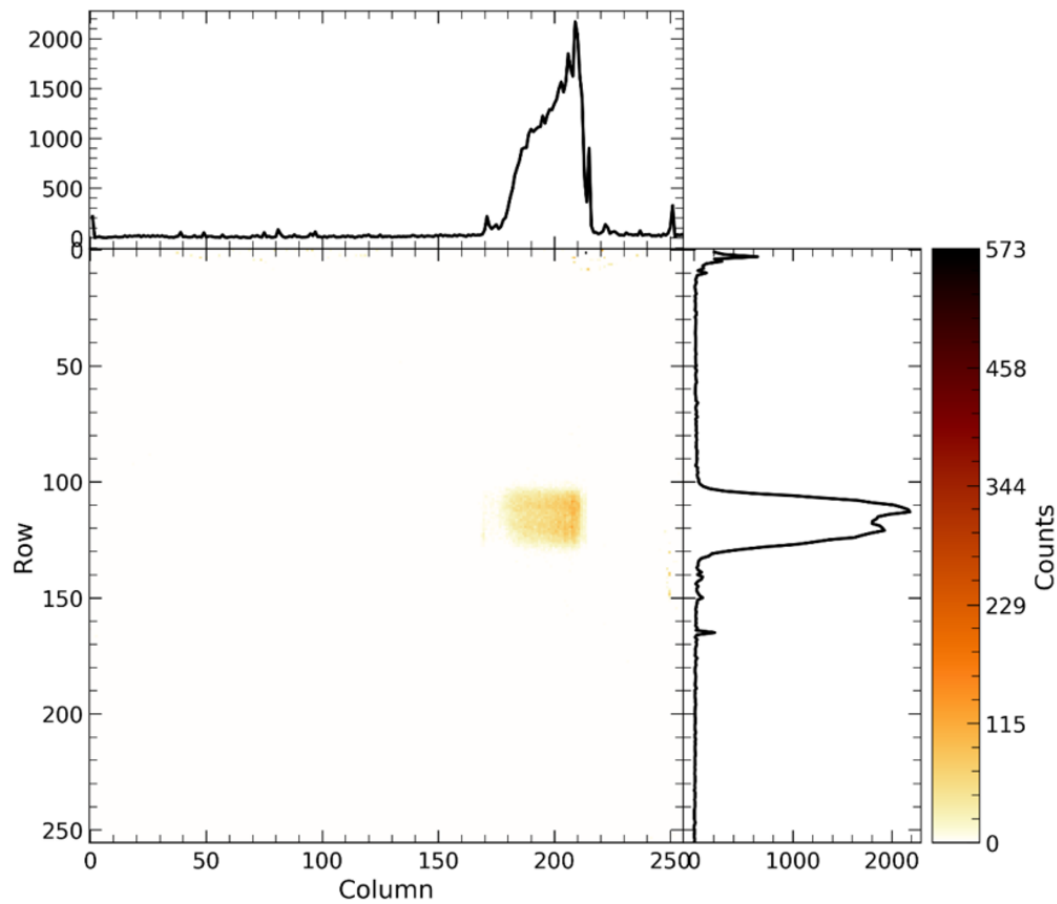
Thermal link

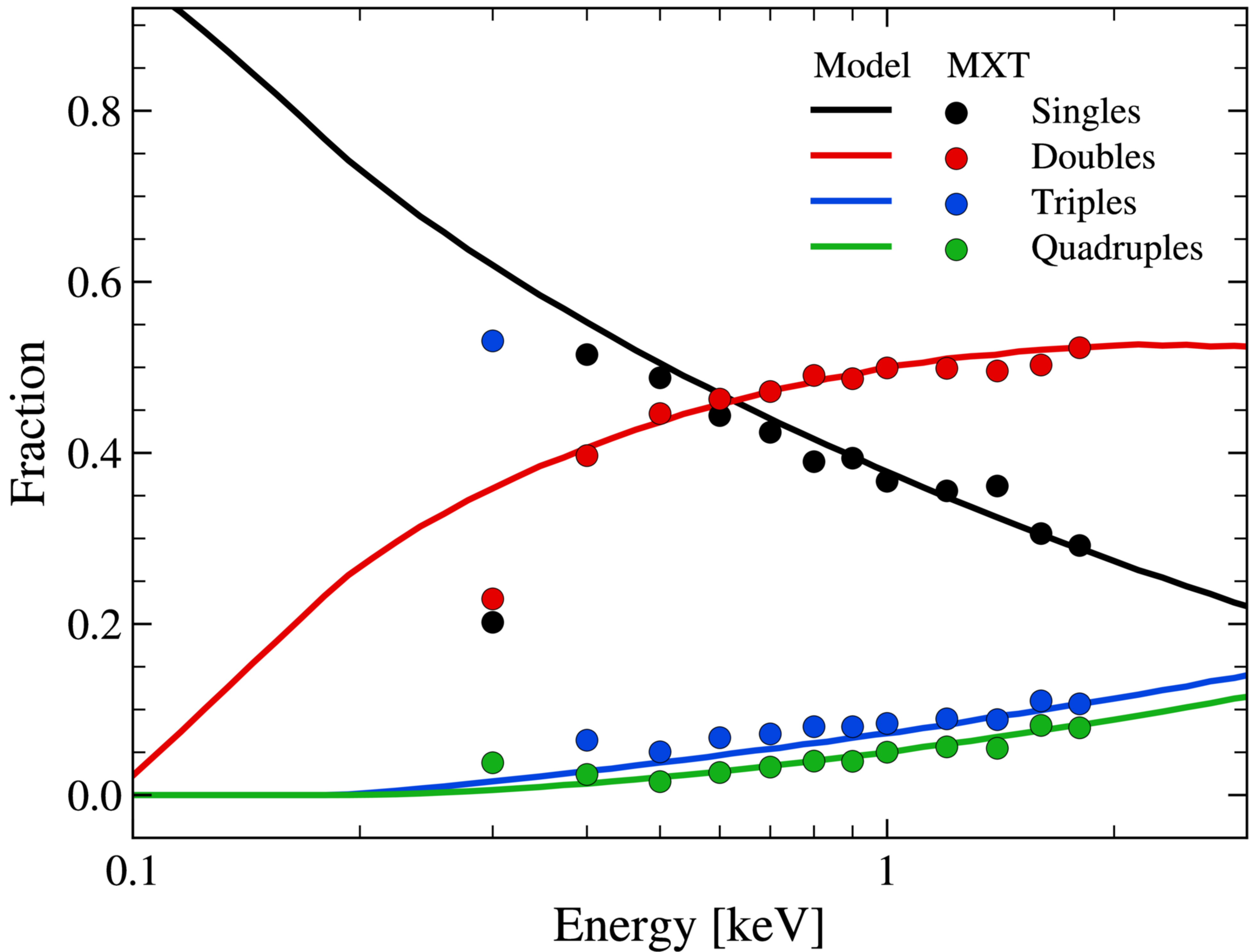
Displacement tables

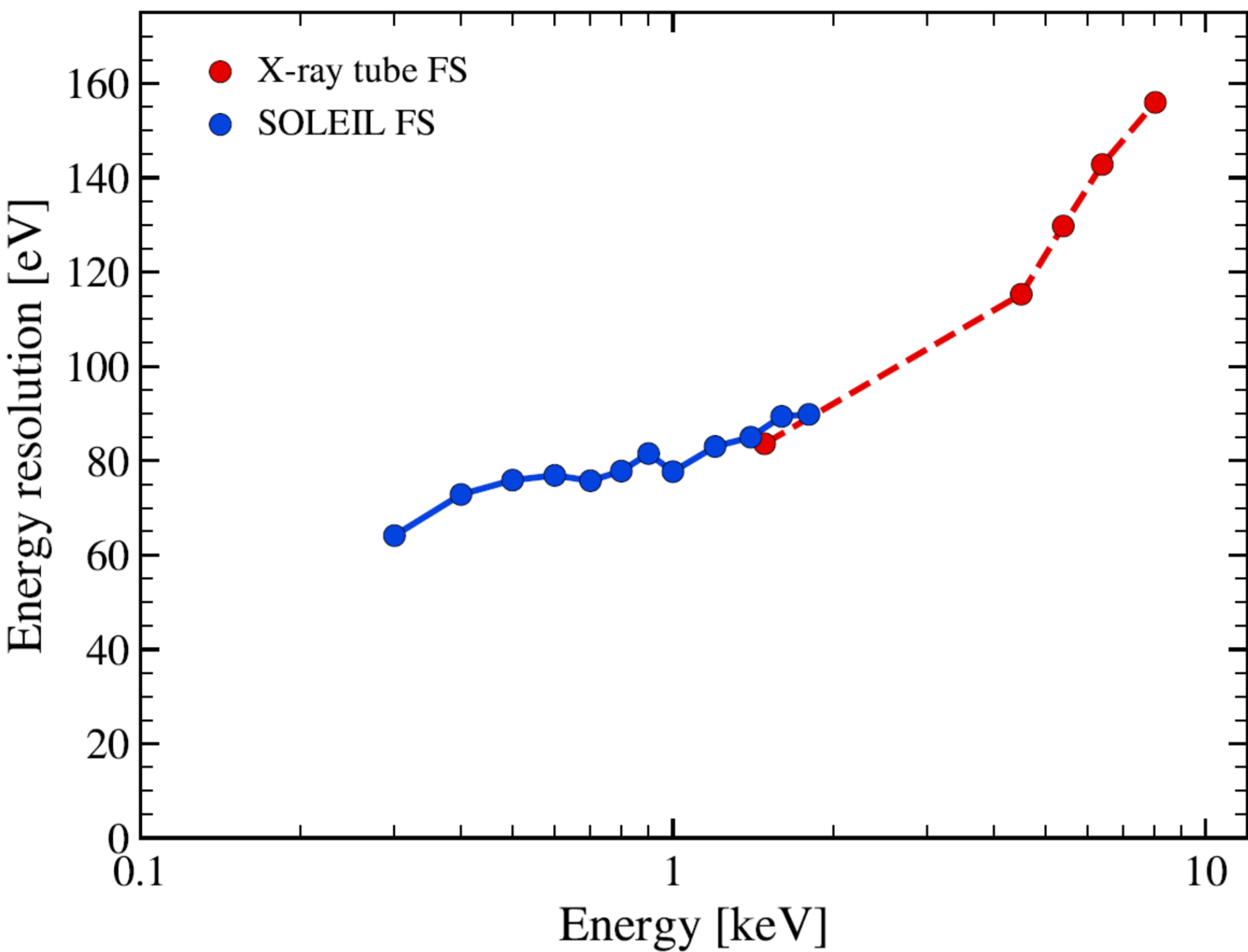
Cooling plate

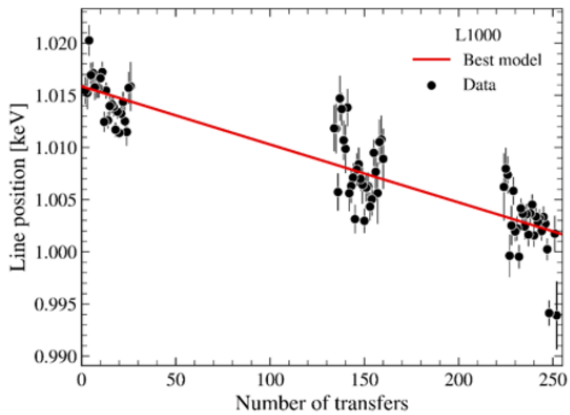
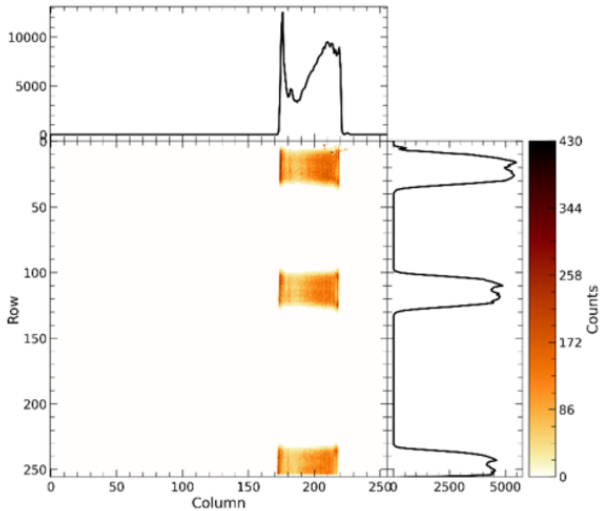


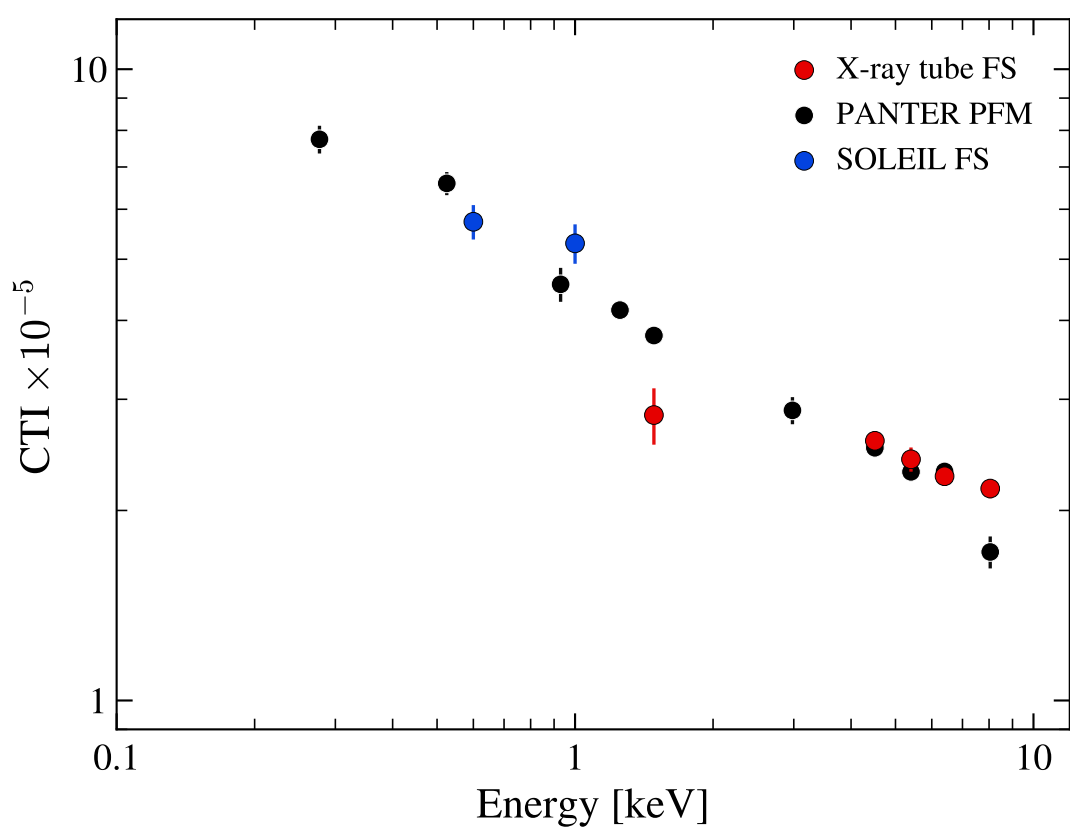




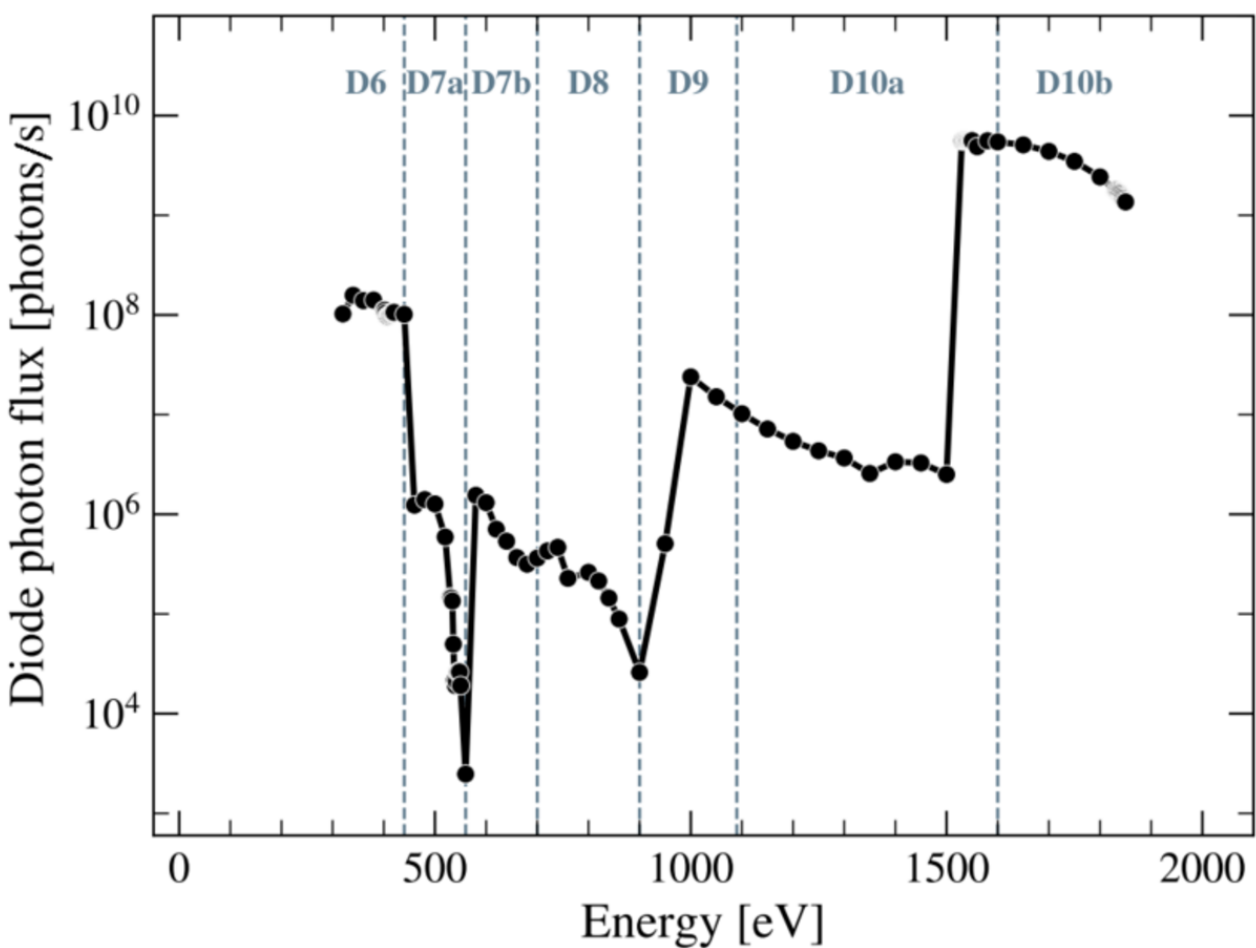




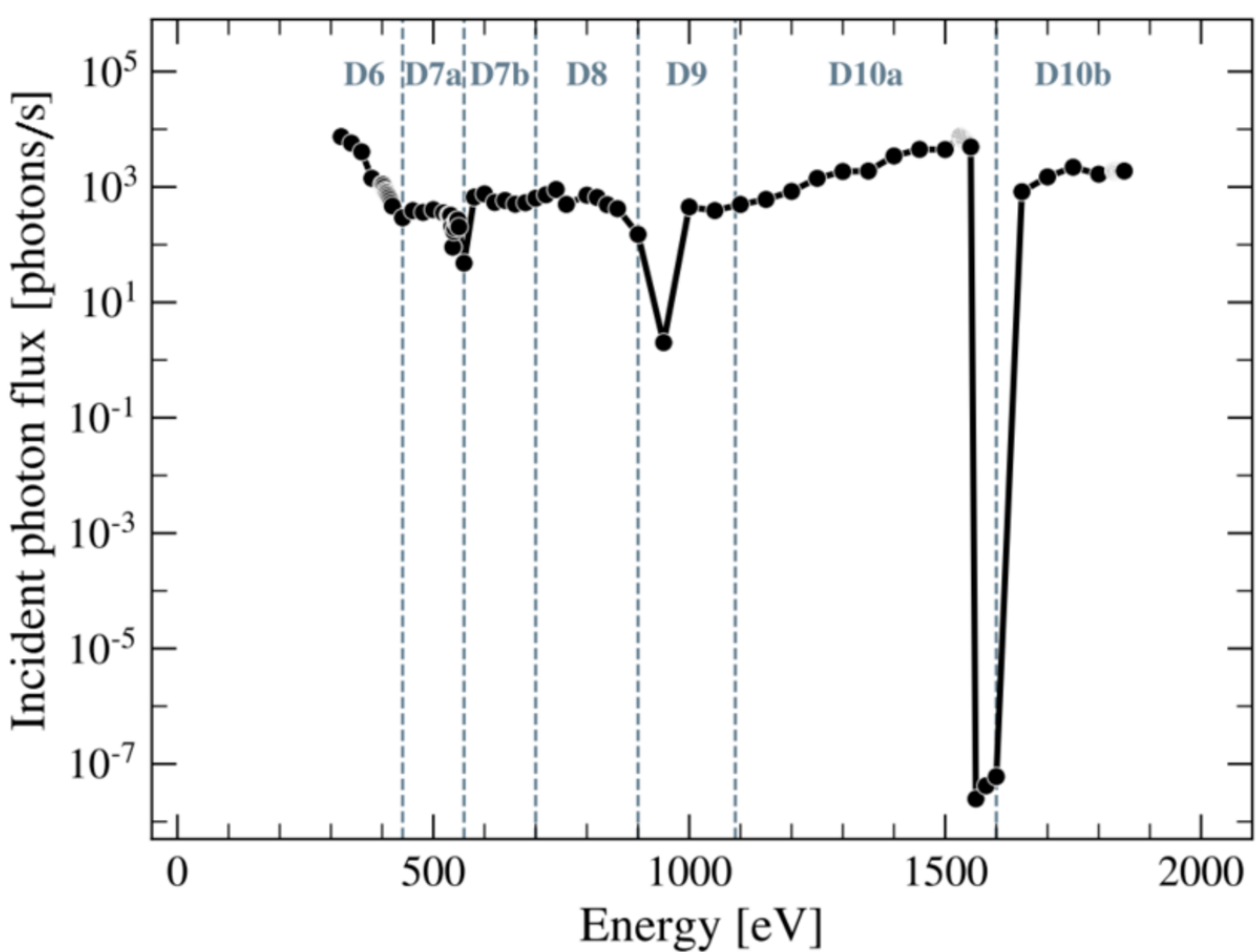




(a)



(b)



(c)

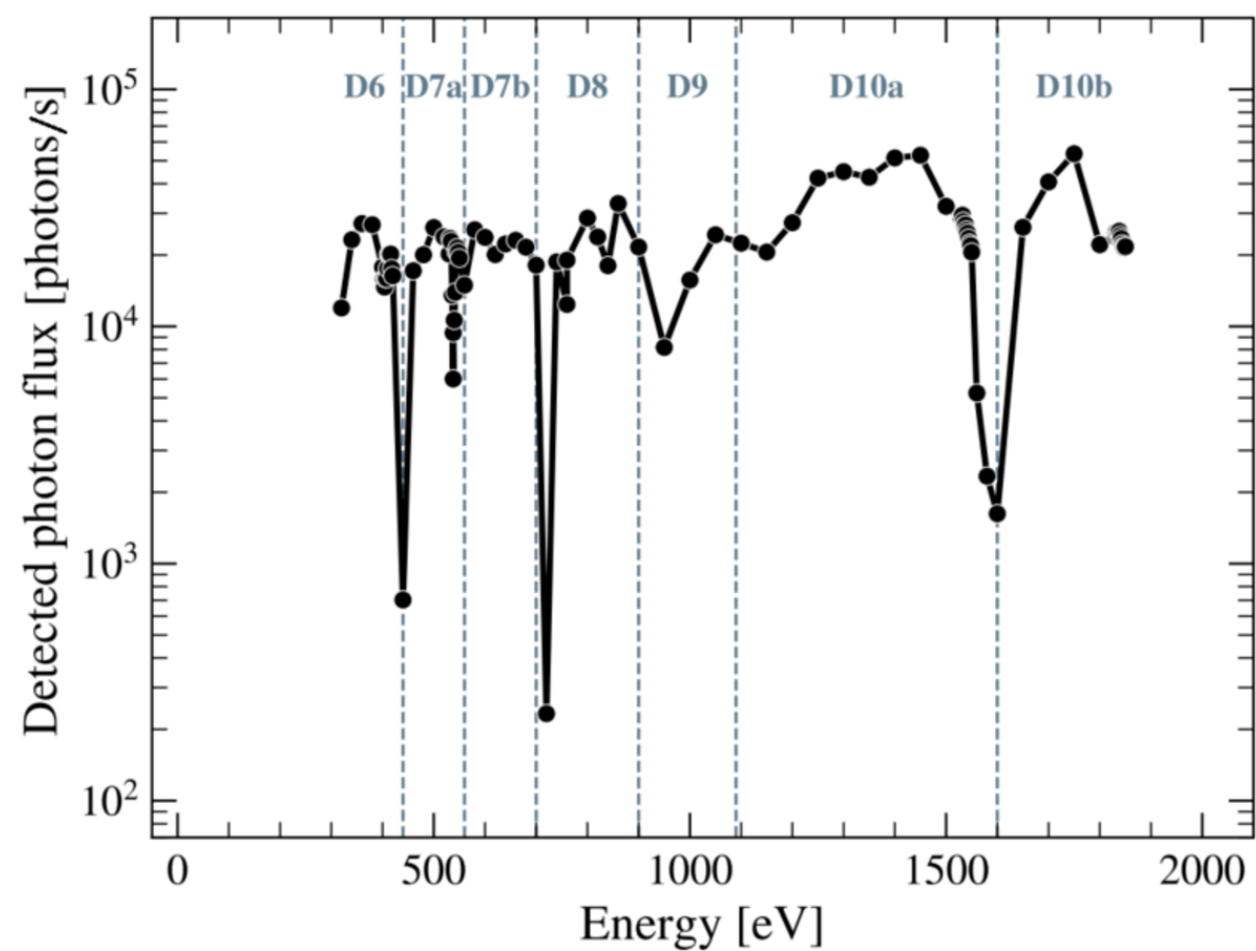


Figure 1: SVOM astrophysics mission, composed of a space segment with 4 instruments and a ground segment with 3 robotic telescopes (left) to cover the spectral domain from the infrared to the gamma-ray range and time scales from seconds to days (right).

Figure 2: Focal plane assembly (FPA) of the MXT camera. A ceramic board equipped with a pnCCD (1) and 2 Camex ASIC (2) is mounted in a proton shielding (3) and the flex lead (4) is connected to the warm front-end electronics (5).

Figure 3: Sum spectrum of single events produced with the MXT FPA cryostat equipped with a full custom X-ray source. This source is composed of an X-ray tube hitting a composite target. X-ray fluorescence lines are produced at 1.49 keV (Al  $K_{\alpha}$ ), 3.44 keV, 3.77 keV (Sn  $K_{\alpha}$  and  $K_{\beta}$ ), 4.51 keV, 4.93 keV (Ti  $K_{\alpha}$  and  $K_{\beta}$ ), 5.41 keV, 5.95 keV (Cr  $K_{\alpha}$  and  $K_{\beta}$ ), 6.40 keV, 7.06 keV, (Fe  $K_{\alpha}$  and  $K_{\beta}$ ), 7.47 keV (Ni  $K_{\alpha}$ ), 8.04 keV and 8.91 keV (Cu  $K_{\alpha}$  and  $K_{\beta}$ ). The best energy resolution measured in the initial configuration of the cryostat is 79 eV FWHM at 1.49 keV at  $-65^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; the energy resolution in the refurbished cryostat prior to the SOLEIL test campaign was measured to be 84 eV FWHM at 1.5 keV at the same temperature.

Figure 4 : Optical scheme of the soft X-ray branch of the Metrology beamline of SOLEIL synchrotron.

Figure 5 : MXT Cryostat (Top) outer part (Bottom) inner part.

Figure 6 : Count maps and spectra with single events and global energy calibration for a beam at 500 eV (top) and at 800 eV (bottom). For each energy, the fraction of counts at twice the nominal energy is below 1 %. The different shape of the image at 800 eV compared to that at 500 eV is due to the smaller slit opening ( $2\ \mu\text{m}$  instead of  $8\ \mu\text{m}$ ).

Figure 7 : Statistics of the event multiplicity measured at SOLEIL and modeling of the charge sharing in the MXT detector operated at  $-60^{\circ}\text{C}$  with an average low-level threshold of 46 eV. The incoherent result at 300 eV is explained by the experimental setup causing spurious events at low energy that are not photons and that corrupt the photon statistics.

Figure 8 : Comparison of the energy resolution of single events measured at SOLEIL and in the lab with the MXT flight spare detection chain.

Figure 9 : (Top) Data set to extract the CTE at 1000 eV. The detector was illuminated on three positions aligned along the columns. (Bottom) The line position is estimated row by row from a global energy calibration, and the slope of the line position with the number of transfers gives the charge transfer inefficiency using Equation (5).

Figure 10 : Comparison of the charge transfer inefficiency measured at SOLEIL (blue) and in the lab with the Flight spare detection chain (red). Data with the flight model from the same production batch were also obtained during the instrument calibration at PANTER [6] (black).

Figure 11 : (a) Photon flux measured by the diode according to equation 1. (b) Incident flux on the detector reconstructed according to equation 2. (c) Detected flux recorded by the detector. Between two dotted lines (one energy band), the filter configuration of the beamline is unchanged, only the slit opening is modified while scanning the energy points.

Table 1: Configurations used to ensure a photon flux of  $\sim 200$  photons/s in the beam for the MXT measurements. The incident flux on MXT was estimated from measurements given by a reference photodiode and obtained in a beamline configuration as close as possible to the one used for the MXT measurements. The gratings and the beamline filter represented in the Figure 4 are identical for the two detectors for each energy band and are not specified here. The angle of the low-pass filter (LPF) is increased for MXT measurements in some cases to reduce flux. The slits opening is also adjusted for each energy within the energy band to avoid pile-up.

Band reference	Energy (eV)	MXT detector			Reference silicon diode		
		LPF angle	Slits ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	External Filter	LPF angle	Slits ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	External Filter
D6	300-440	Cr 5.5°	15 – 100	0.5 $\mu\text{m}$ Co	Cr 2.5°	100	$\emptyset$
D7a	460-560	Si 3.2°	8 – 100	0.5 $\mu\text{m}$ Co	Si 3.2°	100	$\emptyset$
D7b	560-700	Si 2.2°	2 – 3	0.5 $\mu\text{m}$ Co	Si 2.2°	100	$\emptyset$



D8	760-900	Si 2.1°	2 – 2.5	0.9 µm Cu	Si 2.1°	100	∅
D9	910-1090	Si 1.2°	4 – 40	0.9 µm Cu	Si 1.8°	100	∅
D10a	1100-1550	Si 1.1°	2 – 2.5	25 µm Al	Si 1.1°	100	∅
D10b	1600-1800	∅	2 – 7	5 µm Co	∅	100	∅