

Refinement of Transition-Edge Sensor Dimensions for the X-ray Integral Field Unit on ATHENA

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Abstract— At NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, we have previously demonstrated a kilo-pixel array of transition-edge sensor (TES) microcalorimeters capable of meeting the energy resolution requirements of the future X-ray Integral Field Unit (X-IFU) instrument that is being developed for the Advanced Telescope for High ENergy Astrophysics (ATHENA) observatory satellite. The TES design in this array was a square device with side length of $50\ \mu\text{m}$. Here, we describe studies of TES designs with small variations of the dimensions, exploring lengths, parallel to the current direction, ranging from $75\ \mu\text{m}$ to $50\ \mu\text{m}$ and widths, perpendicular to the current direction, ranging from $50\ \mu\text{m}$ to $15\ \mu\text{m}$. We describe how these changes impact transition properties, thermal conductance and magnetic field sensitivity. In particular, we show that using a TES with a length of $50\ \mu\text{m}$ and width of $30\ \mu\text{m}$ may be a promising route to reduce the maximum time-derivative of the TES current in an X-ray pulse and reduce the sensitivity of the TES to magnetic field.

Index Terms—Superconducting devices, Superconducting photodetectors, Transition-edge sensor, X-ray microcalorimeter

I. INTRODUCTION

THE X-ray Integral Field Unit (X-IFU) is an instrument on the Advanced Telescope for High ENergy Astrophysics (ATHENA), an ESA led X-ray observatory satellite due for launch in the 2030's [1]. X-IFU is currently baselined to have 2,376 transition-edge sensor (TES) microcalorimeter pixels in a single array read out using time division multiplexing (TDM)

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with an energy resolution of $2.5\ \text{eV}$ at X-ray energies up to $7\ \text{keV}$. The Mo/Au TES microcalorimeters for this mission have been developed over many years at NASA Goddard Space Flight Center. Recently, in close collaboration with National Institute of Standards and Technology, it was shown that the baseline TES design is capable of meeting X-IFU requirements using 32 row TDM in a demonstration of > 200 pixels in a 1000 pixel array [2]. Building upon this successful demonstration, our collaboration has continued to seek to improve the TES performance to create margin on the current requirements.

One area for potential refinement of the TES design is in the rise and fall-time of the X-ray pulse. In the current TES design there is margin to increase the fall-time of the pulse by $\sim 25\%$ and still meet count-rate requirements. By increasing the pulse rise-time, the slew-rate in the X-ray pulse, or the maximum time-derivative of the TES current I , will also be reduced. With a reduced slew-rate at the maximum X-ray energy, the mutual inductance of the first-stage SQUID readout may be increased, and this could (a) allow a reduction in the energy resolution degradation as a result of multiplexing with the current requirement of 34 rows, or (b) allow an increase in the multiplexing factor above 34 rows while maintaining the current energy resolution performance [3].

A second area of potential improvement of the TES design is in the sensitivity of the X-ray response to external magnetic field. While the current baseline TES design meets the X-IFU requirements, there is little margin. The sensitivity of the TES to magnetic fields, both constant and time-varying, is important for determining the energy resolution, the uniformity of response of the TES array to X-rays, and the ability to calibrate and correct the energy gain-scale of this response [4], [5].

The current baseline design for X-IFU is a square TES with side length of $50\ \mu\text{m}$. In this report, we discuss results of an exploration of changes to the TES dimensions as one avenue to improve overall TES performance for X-IFU. We have studied TES's with length ranging from $75\ \mu\text{m}$ to $50\ \mu\text{m}$ and width ranging from $50\ \mu\text{m}$ to $15\ \mu\text{m}$. We discuss how these changes to the TES dimensions affect the key parameters of the superconducting transition, the thermal conductance of the TES to the thermal bath, the slew-rate, energy resolution, and magnetic field sensitivity.

II. METHODS

Figure 1 shows a generalized schematic diagram of the TES pixel design used in this study with length L and width

W , which will be referred to in the following as an $L \times W$ TES. We have studied TES devices on two different detector

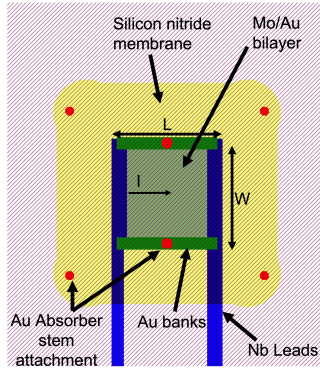


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of TES design under study viewed from above with the Bi/Au absorber removed for clarity. I indicates the TES current direction.

chips from two independently fabricated wafers. The Mo/Au bilayer in wafer 1 was 41.5/223 nm thick with sheet resistance $R_{\square} = 18.5 \text{ m}\Omega/\square$ and intrinsic bilayer transition temperature $T_{ci} \sim 88 \text{ mK}$. The Mo/Au bilayer in wafer 2 was 46/257 nm thick with $R_{\square} = 11.6 \text{ m}\Omega/\square$ and intrinsic bilayer $T_{ci} \sim 80 \text{ mK}$. Each TES also has a Bi/Au absorber mounted on the absorber stem attachments that is not shown in the diagram for clarity. The square absorbers had a side length of $\sim 269 \mu\text{m}$ and the Bi/Au bilayer had a typical thickness of $3/1.5 \mu\text{m}$. The TES was situated on a $0.5 \mu\text{m}$ thick silicon nitride membrane and had additional gold banks down the edge of the TES parallel to the current direction. The absorber stem attachments on the silicon nitride membrane were gold with a diameter of $4 \mu\text{m}$.

Below, we show results from measurement of the TES current I as function of the bias circuit voltage V to determine the TES resistance R as function of TES temperature T , and the thermal conductance from the TES to the thermal bath G_{bath} . Through the use of complex impedance measurements we also show the transition parameters $\alpha = \frac{T}{R} \frac{\partial R}{\partial T} \Big|_I$ and $\beta = \frac{I}{R} \frac{\partial R}{\partial T} \Big|_T$. More details of the TES design, measurement circuit, and measurement techniques are given in [4], [6]–[8]

III. RESULTS

A. Transition Properties and Thermal Conductance

We begin by discussing the basic transition properties of the different devices we have studied. Figure 2 shows $R(T)$ for pixels with different TES lengths and widths. As discussed above, each of the measured wafers had a different R_{\square} and T_{ci} of the bilayer. This can be seen by the lower TES transition temperature T_c and normal state resistance R_n of the $50 \times 50 \mu\text{m}$ devices from wafer 2 compared with wafer 1. As the TES becomes longer or narrower, R_n increases as expected from the increased aspect ratio. T_c decreases as the TES becomes longer because of the reduced proximity effect from the Nb leads, and as the TES becomes narrower because of the increased lateral inverse proximity effect from the Au banks down the edge of the TES. These effects have been discussed in detail elsewhere [9]–[11]. Note that the T_c in the $50 \mu\text{m} \times$

$22.5 \mu\text{m}$ and $50 \mu\text{m} \times 15 \mu\text{m}$ devices was too low to warrant comprehensive study in this wafer beyond $R(T)$ and G_{bath} .

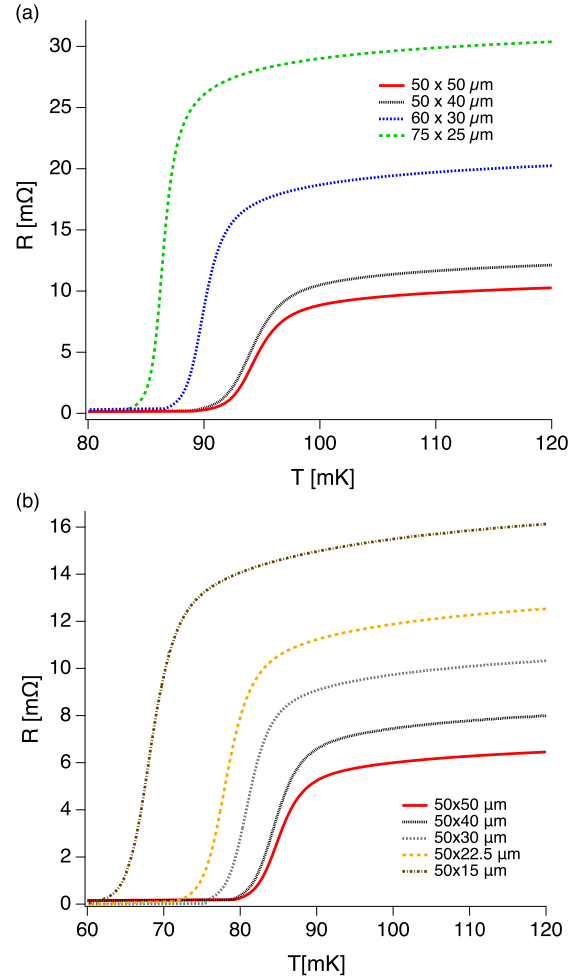


Fig. 2. TES resistance as a function of TES temperature for different TES designs on (a) wafer 1 and (b) wafer 2. Calculated from measurement of TES current as a function of applied voltage at $T_{bath} = 55 \text{ mK}$, and measured G_{bath} for each device.

The thermal conductance G_{bath} for each TES from the two wafers is shown in Fig. 3 as a function of the TES perimeter. This shows G_{bath} scales approximately linearly with the perimeter of the TES and the Au stems in contact with the silicon nitride membrane. This linear dependence of G_{bath} on TES perimeter is in agreement with previous observations [11]–[13] and is expected when the thermal conductance is dominated by ballistic phonon transport in the membrane, as is the case here.

Figure 4 shows the transition parameters α and β as a function of the bias point R/R_n for a selection of the devices on each wafer. This shows a monotonic decrease in α and β as a function of R/R_n . We also observe that as the TES length increases there is significant increase in α and decrease in β for a given bias point. These results are consistent with previous observations that the ratio of α/β increases as the TES is made longer [7], [14]. For devices with $L=50 \mu\text{m}$ and varying width, the change in α and β is less pronounced and is likely insignificant. There is currently no complete theory to

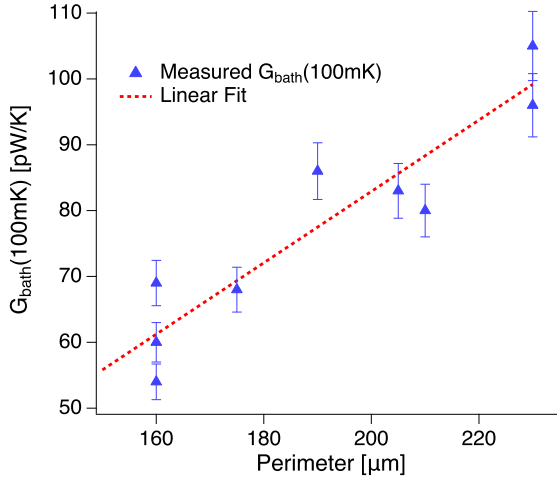


Fig. 3. Thermal conductance G_{bath} of TES to the thermal bath as a function of perimeter of TES plus perimeter of base of Au absorber stems in contact with silicon nitride membrane. Note that the effective length of TES is calculated as $(L - 10\mu\text{m})$ in the perimeter calculation to account for the region of overlap between Nb leads and TES which does not contribute to phonon emitting perimeter.

describe the exact dependence of α and β on TES size, R_n , and T_c . Here we observe an interesting difference between the transition parameters observed in identical device designs in the two different wafers, with α significantly lower and β significantly higher in the devices from wafer 2. The reason for this change is not yet understood. One possibility is that the parameters are sensitive to R_{\square} of the bilayer, which is significantly lower in wafer 2, and therefore sensitive to the current distribution across the TES and within the normal metal banks. However, more data will be needed to confirm this. The difference in T_{ci} may also be important.

B. Slew-Rate

Figure 5a shows the slew-rate, or maximum in the time-derivative of the TES current response, during a 6 keV X-ray event for different TES designs in this study. This is then compared to the measured response of a baseline pixel with the $50\mu\text{m} \times 50\mu\text{m}$ TES design that was used in the latest demonstrations of TES performance for X-IFU [2] and is used here as a reference pixel. This shows that the measured slew-rate in the $75\mu\text{m} \times 25\mu\text{m}$ and $60\mu\text{m} \times 30\mu\text{m}$ TES designs is significantly higher than observed in the baseline pixel. However, the slew-rate in the $50\mu\text{m} \times 30\mu\text{m}$ design is significantly lower.

The comparison of the slew-rates for different TES sizes is complicated by the variations in T_c , R_n and the ratio of the circuit inductance to the critical inductance L/L_{crit} . Without an accurate model of these highly non-linear devices a direct renormalization is not possible. Instead, we must take an approximate renormalization using the linear small signal single-body model [6], [7]. To do this, for each design we have taken the predicted slew-rate S in the small signal model using the measured parameters of α , β , R , T_c , L , G_{bath} , shunt resistance R_{shunt} , as well as the heat capacity that is approximately constant for all these devices. We then calculate

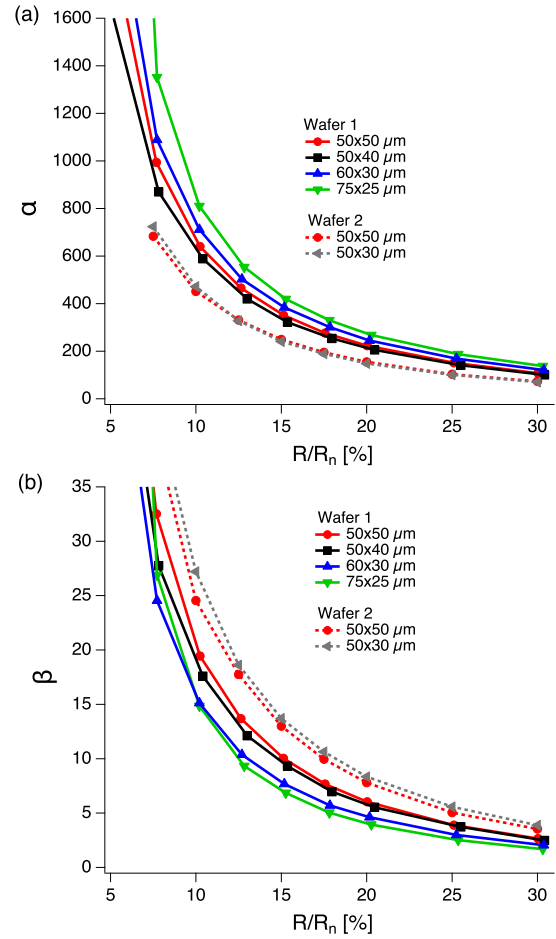


Fig. 4. (a) $\alpha = (T/R) \partial R / \partial T|_I$ and (b) $\beta = (I/R) \partial R / \partial I|_T$ as a function of TES resistance R as fraction of normal state resistance R_n .

the predicted slew-rate for that design S_N in the small signal model if L/L_{crit} , T_c , R_{shunt} , and R were equal to that of the baseline reference pixel, while all other parameters are held at their measured values. The measured slew-rate is then multiplied by this factor of S_N/S to give the normalized slew-rate for each device. This normalized slew-rate is plotted in Fig. 5b. The trends shown in Fig 5a are broadly unchanged by this normalization. The slew-rate of the $75\mu\text{m} \times 25\mu\text{m}$ and $60\mu\text{m} \times 30\mu\text{m}$ designs are significantly higher than the $50\mu\text{m} \times 50\mu\text{m}$ designs. In the small signal limit the slew-rate is expected to be proportional to $G_{bath}^{3/2}$, and therefore one might have expected the slew-rate to be reduced in the $60\mu\text{m} \times 30\mu\text{m}$ TES. However, both the higher α and lower β in this TES increase the slew-rate, and this dominates over the effect of the reduced G_{bath} . In the $50\mu\text{m} \times 30\mu\text{m}$ design the normalized slew-rate is reduced by 31% compared to the $50\mu\text{m} \times 50\mu\text{m}$ device from the same wafer. This is in reasonable agreement with the 35% reduction in slew-rate expected from the $\sim 25\%$ reduction in G_{bath} shown in Fig. 3 as the perimeter is reduced from $230\mu\text{m}$ to $190\mu\text{m}$. Note that the measured slew-rate in the $50\mu\text{m} \times 50\mu\text{m}$ TES in wafer 2 is significantly lower than the baseline reference pixel. This is likely a consequence of the low α and high β in wafer 2, but warrants further investigation.

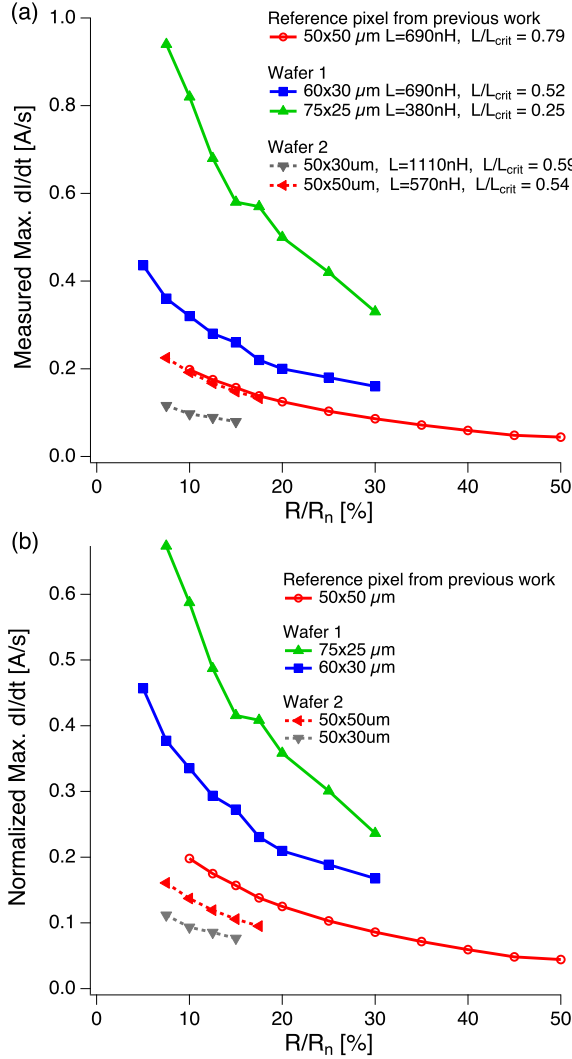


Fig. 5. (a) Maximum in time-derivative of TES current dI/dt during a $\text{MnK}\alpha$ X-ray pulse as a function of TES resistance R/R_n for several TES designs in this study compared to a reference pixel used in previous performance demonstrations [2]. (b) This measured slew-rate normalized to the T_c , R_n , R_{shunt} , and L/L_{crit} of the reference pixel. The normalization scale-factor for each TES design was calculated as the fractional change in slew-rate in the small signal single-body model for the given pixel parameters.

C. Energy Resolution

Table I shows the measured energy resolution ΔE for the $\text{MnK}\alpha$ complex on several different designs of TES from the two fabricated wafers and the reference baseline pixel. Comparison of the energy resolution of these devices is complicated by the variation in T_c and L/L_{crit} . If all pixel parameters are constant then energy resolution is expected to scale with $T_c^{3/2}$ in the small signal limit. However, it has been shown that these devices are highly non-linear and deviate significantly from small signal predictions. In general, one manifestation of this is a strong dependence of integrated noise equivalent power on L/L_{crit} . The energy resolution, however, is found to depend more weakly on L/L_{crit} as long as $L/L_{crit} < 1$. Therefore, while detailed comparison is not possible, we can draw broad conclusions from the results of Table I. In Wafer 1, the energy resolution in the 75 μm x 25 μm and 60 μm x

30 μm devices is slightly better than in the 50 μm x 50 μm . However, when scaled for the reduced T_c the difference in normalized energy resolution ΔE_N is within the measurement uncertainty. The intrinsic bilayer T_{ci} in wafer 2 is lower than in wafer 1, and therefore we might have expected an improved energy resolution in this wafer. However, as shown in Fig. 4, the α is significantly lower and β significantly higher in the devices from wafer 2 and this even negates any improvement from the lower T_c .

TABLE I
ENERGY RESOLUTION AT 6 keV
FOR DIFFERENT TES DESIGNS AT $R/R_n = 10\%$

TES size L[μm] \times W[μm]	L/L_{crit}	T_c [mK]	ΔE [eV]	ΔE_N^a [eV]
Ref. Pixel ^b 50 x 50	0.65	93	1.9 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 0.1
Wafer 1 50 x 50	0.1	94	2.16 ± 0.13	2.13 ± 0.13
60 x 30	0.52	91	1.77 ± 0.12	1.83 ± 0.12
75 x 25	0.25	87	1.61 ± 0.20	1.78 ± 0.2
Wafer 2 50 x 50	0.59	86	2.04 ± 0.11	2.29 ± 0.11
50 x 30	0.54	82	1.91 ± 0.11	2.30 ± 0.11

^aEstimated energy resolution when normalized to $T_c \sim 93$ mK of baseline reference pixel.

^bReported in [2].

D. Magnetic Field Sensitivity

It has been shown previously that TES devices are highly sensitive to an applied magnetic field B perpendicular to the plane of the TES [4], [9], [10], [15]. This is a consequence of the TES acting as a Josephson weak-link and therefore the TES critical current I_c forming a Fraunhofer-type pattern as function of magnetic field. This field dependence means that the current pulse-height from an X-ray event is dependent on magnetic field. For small changes in B close to zero, one expects dI_c/dB to reduce linearly as the area of the TES is reduced and therefore the period of the Fraunhofer pattern of $I_c(B)$ increases, assuming all other parameters are constant, including G_{bath} . However, in the devices tested here there are two additional contributions that affect dI_c/dB . First, the current in the TES creates its own self-magnetic field which is dependent on R_n and G_{bath} [4]. Second, the current distribution across the width of the TES affects the width of the central maximum of the Fraunhofer pattern [15], [16]. As the TES is made narrower, the lateral inverse proximity effect from the normal metal banks at the edge of the TES increasingly leads to a higher current density at the center of the TES compared with the edge. This broadens the central maximum and therefore further reduces dI_c/dB . This field dependence of I_c impacts $I(B)$ for constant voltage bias. This is demonstrated in Fig. 6, which shows $I(B)$ for the 50 μm x 50 μm and 50 μm x 30 μm TES designs from wafer 2 when a constant voltage bias is applied to give $R/R_n = 10\%$ at $B = 0$. Note the larger dI/dB in the 50 μm x 50 μm device and the additional features in the curve.

The variation in $I(B)$ means that the current pulse-height from an X-ray event is dependent on magnetic field. Figure 7

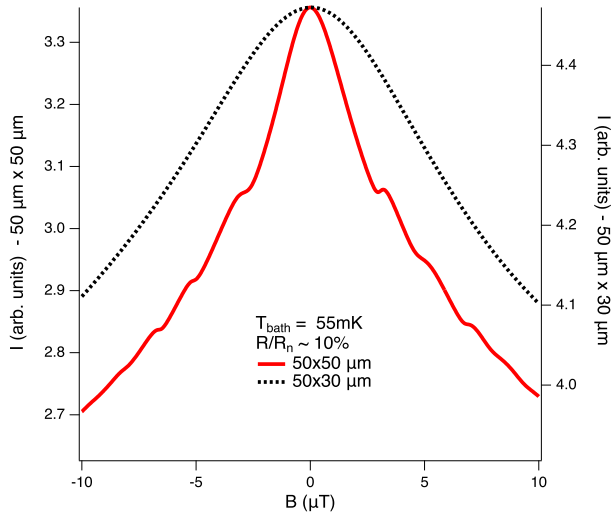


Fig. 6. TES current I as a function of magnetic field B for two TES designs from wafer 2. Thermal bath temperature T_{bath} was at 55 mK and TES's were biased with a constant voltage such that $R/R_n = 10\%$ at $B = 0$.

shows this magnetic field dependence calculated as a change in the energy gain-scale δE_B , after optimal filtering, divided by the change in magnetic field B in units of eV nT^{-1} for each TES design. Figure 7a shows a weak correlation of the reduction of $\delta E_B/dB$ with reducing TES area. Figure 7b shows the much stronger correlation of $\delta E_B/dB$ with TES width.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results presented above demonstrate several key findings as small changes are made to the TES dimensions from the baseline $50\ \mu\text{m} \times 50\ \mu\text{m}$ design. First, R_n , T_c and G_{bath} vary as expected as a function TES dimensions and Mo/Au bilayer properties. The behavior of the transition properties, α and β , are more subtle. In general, we observe an increase in α/β as the TES length is increased, and little change when TES width is decreased for a fixed length, but there also appears to be a significant variation in α and β between the two wafers studied. This may be a consequence of the different R_{\square} and T_{ci} in the two wafers, but as yet there is no theory to accurately predict this behavior, and therefore these effects require further study.

The slew-rate data presented indicate that although G_{bath} is reduced in the $60\ \mu\text{m} \times 30\ \mu\text{m}$ TES compared to the $50\ \mu\text{m} \times 50\ \mu\text{m}$, as expected, this does not lead to an overall reduction in slew-rate because of the change in transition parameters α and β . This means this design, and the $75\ \mu\text{m} \times 25\ \mu\text{m}$ TES, are most likely not good candidates to try to improve on the performance on X-IFU at the current multiplexing factor, or a suitable route for an increase in multiplexing factor. The limited data presented in Table I also suggest that there is no significant improvement in the intrinsic energy resolution of these devices either. The $50\ \mu\text{m} \times 30\ \mu\text{m}$ TES design, however, does offer a more promising route to improve on the current baseline pixel design. The G_{bath} in this design is reduced from the $50\ \mu\text{m} \times 50\ \mu\text{m}$ design, as expected, but in this case

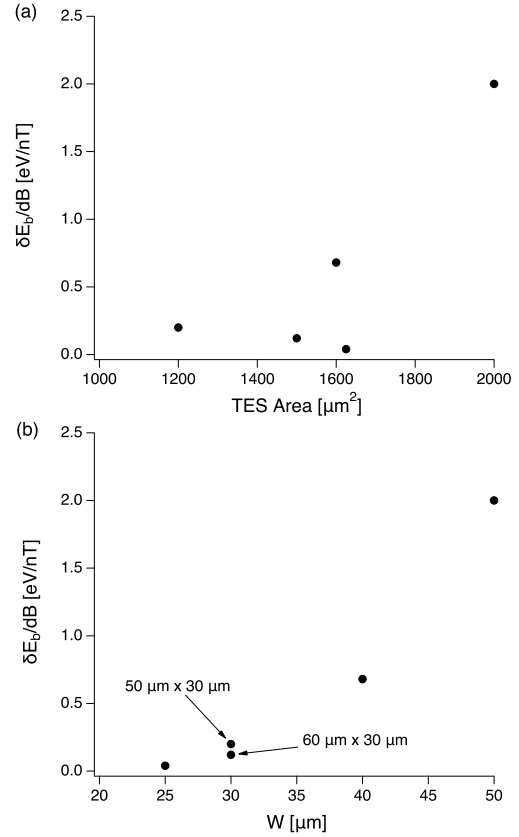


Fig. 7. The energy gain-scale of the TES changes by δE_b as a function of small changes in magnetic field. The derivative of this change in gain-scale with respect to magnetic field B is shown for 6 keV X-rays as a function of (a) TES area and (b) TES width. Note that the TES area is calculated as $W(L - 10\ \mu\text{m})$ to account for the region of overlap between the Nb leads and the TES.

the transition properties are very similar. This leads to a $\sim 31\%$ reduction in slew-rate compared to the $50\ \mu\text{m} \times 50\ \mu\text{m}$ design on the same chip, once normalized for differences in T_c , R_n and L/L_{crit} . From initial measurements of the energy resolution of this design, it also appears that this improvement in slew-rate is achieved with no significant change to energy resolution.

Finally, measurements of the sensitivity of the TES energy gain-scale to magnetic field have shown that a significant improvement can be achieved by making the TES narrower. The improvement is larger than might be expected from a linear area scaling. This is likely a consequence of the self-magnetic field and current distribution also changing as the TES width is reduced. This means that any of the designs studied here could be suitable options to reduce the magnetic-field sensitivity of the X-IFU pixels. In particular, the $50\ \mu\text{m} \times 30\ \mu\text{m}$, which showed a reduction in slew-rate, showed a reduction of $\delta E_B/dB$ of a factor of ~ 10 compared with the $50\ \mu\text{m} \times 50\ \mu\text{m}$ design on the same chip.

V. CONCLUSION

The data presented above show that by reducing the TES size from $50\ \mu\text{m} \times 50\ \mu\text{m}$ in the current baseline design for X-IFU to $50\ \mu\text{m} \times 30\ \mu\text{m}$ there is a significant reduction in the

maximum of the time-derivative of the TES current response to a 6 keV X-ray because of the reduced thermal conduction from the TES to the thermal bath. This reduced slew-rate could allow X-IFU to be operated with the currently baselined multiplexing factor, and potentially improved energy resolution, or allow the use of a higher multiplexing factor. The change in TES width to 30 μm also reduces the magnetic field sensitivity of the energy gain-scale to $\delta E_B/dB \sim 0.2 \text{ eV nT}^{-1}$, which may give margin on this important requirement for X-IFU.

In the future we must demonstrate that a uniform array of these pixels, with optimized Mo/Au bilayer parameters and added circuit inductance, is able to achieve improved performance under time division multiplexing while also continuing to meet all of the other requirements of X-IFU.

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