

# Introduction to Silicon Detectors

**Doris Eckstein (DESY)**  
**EDIT School, 17.2.2020**



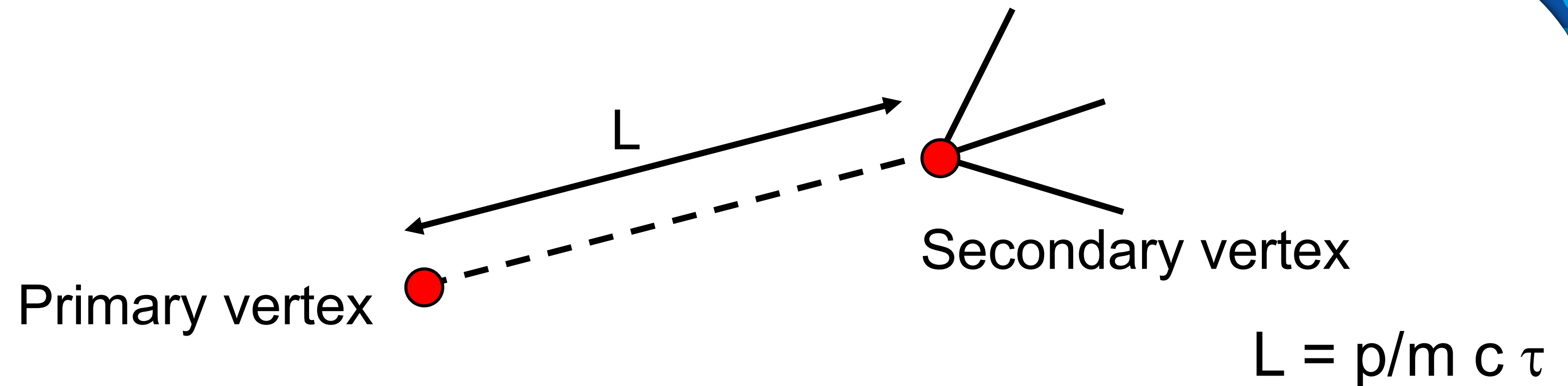




## Outline

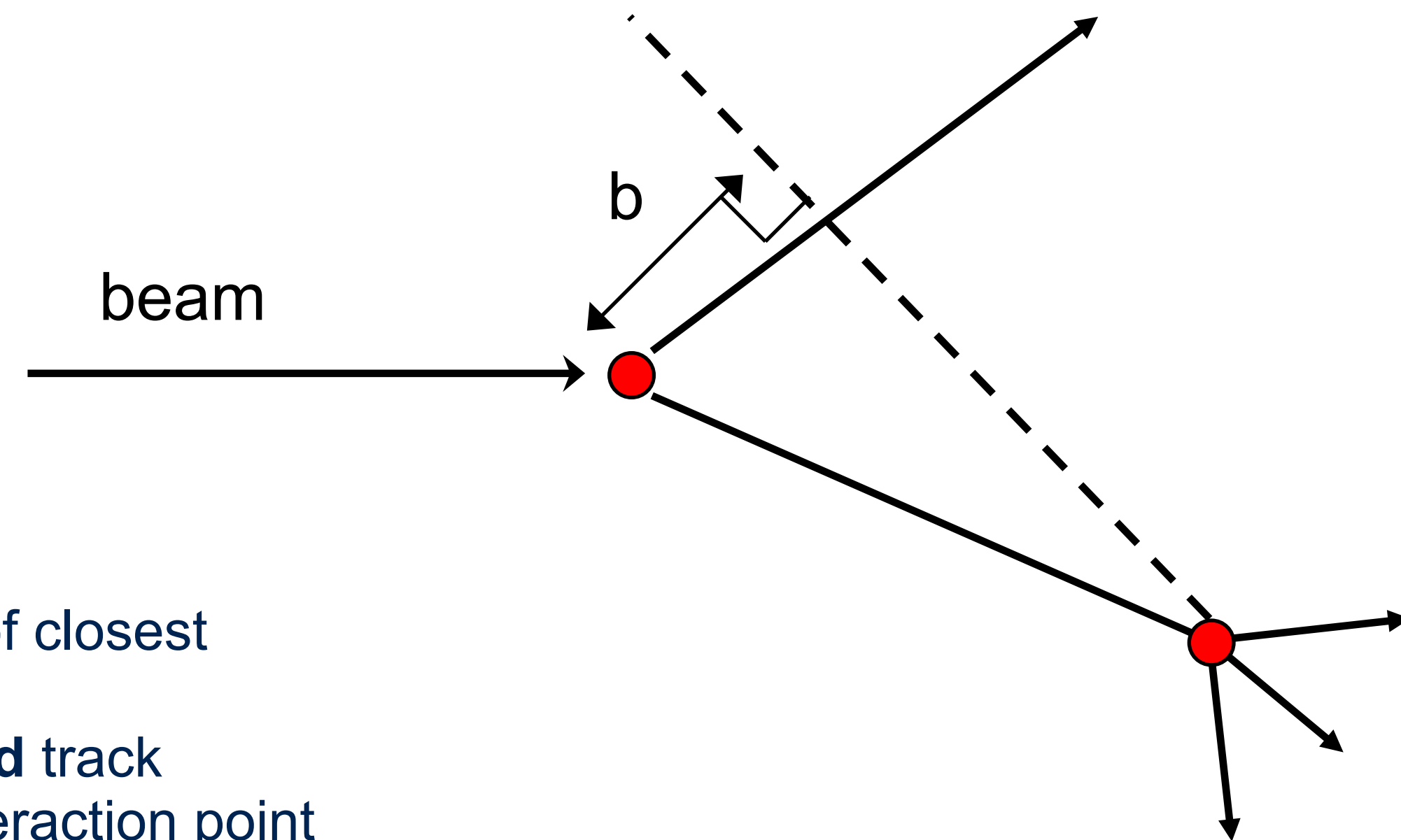
- **silicon (sensor) basics**
- **how to make a silicon sensor**
- **signal generation /collection**
- **resolution**
- **radiation damage in silicon sensors**

- Particle tracking (talk this morning)
- Vertexing
  - primary and secondary vertices
  - decay length
  - impact parameter



- By measuring the decay length,  $L$ , and the momentum,  $p$ , the lifetime of the particle can be determined
- Need accuracy on both production and decay point
- $\sigma_b = f(\text{vertex layers, distance from main vertex, spatial resolution of each detector, material before precision measurement, alignment, stability})$

$b$  = distance of closest approach of a **reconstructed** track to the true interaction point





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## FABRICATION OF LOW NOISE SILICON RADIATION DETECTORS BY THE PLANAR PROCESS

J KEMMER

*Fachbereich Physik der Technischen Universität München, 8046 Garching, Germany*

Received 30 July 1979 and in revised form 22 October 1979

*Dedicated to Prof Dr H -J Born on the occasion of his 70th birthday*

By applying the well known techniques of the planar process oxide passivation, photo engraving and ion implantation, Si pn-junction detectors were fabricated with leakage currents of less than  $1 \text{ nA cm}^{-2}/100 \mu\text{m}$  at room temperature. Best values for the energy resolution were 10.0 keV for the 5.486 MeV alphas of  $^{241}\text{Am}$  at 22 °C using  $5 \times 5 \text{ mm}^2$  detector chips.

J. Kemmer

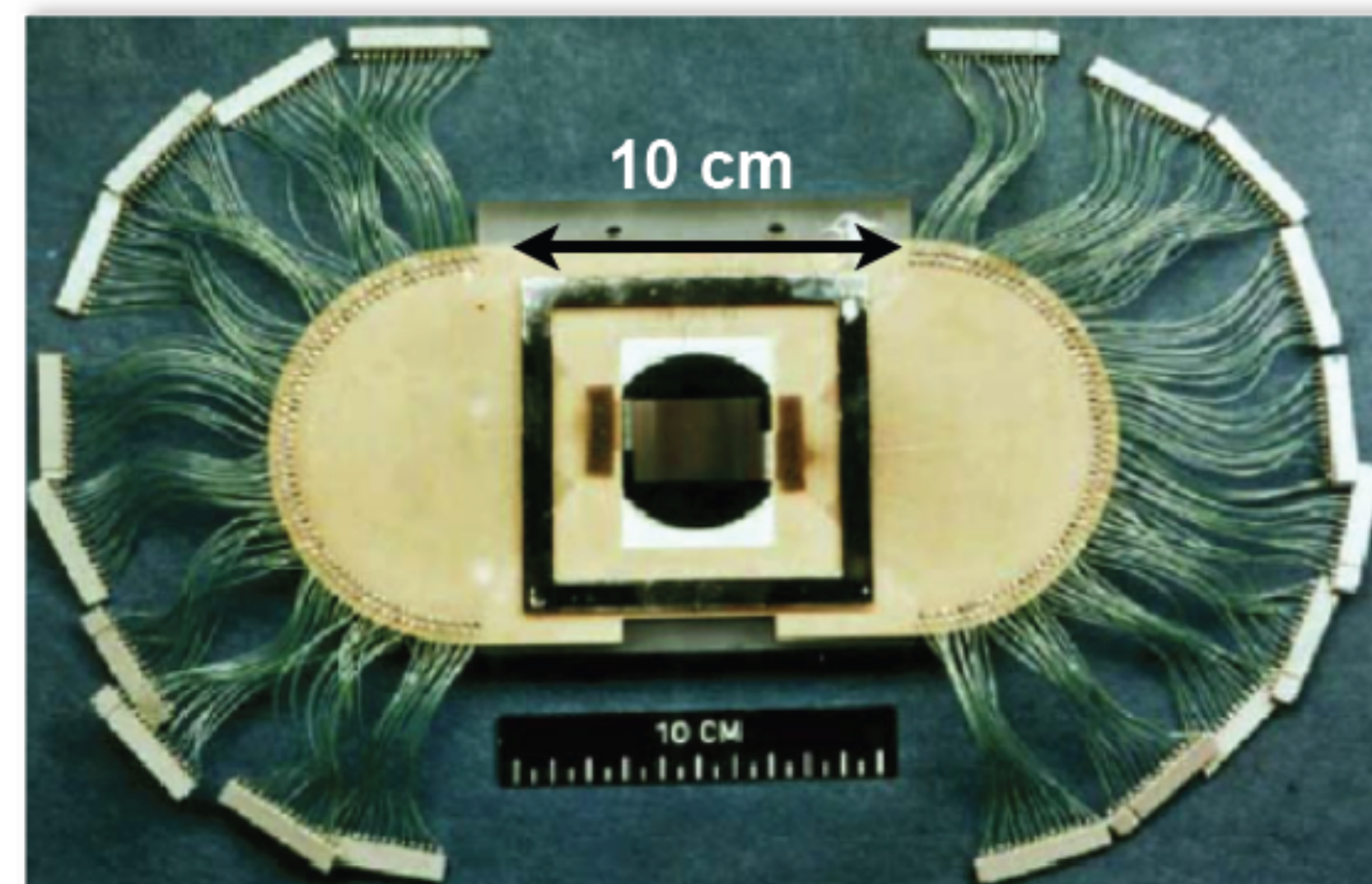
Fixed target experiment with a planar diode

Later strip devices -1980

## NA11 at CERN

**First use of a position-sensitive silicon detector in HEP experiment**

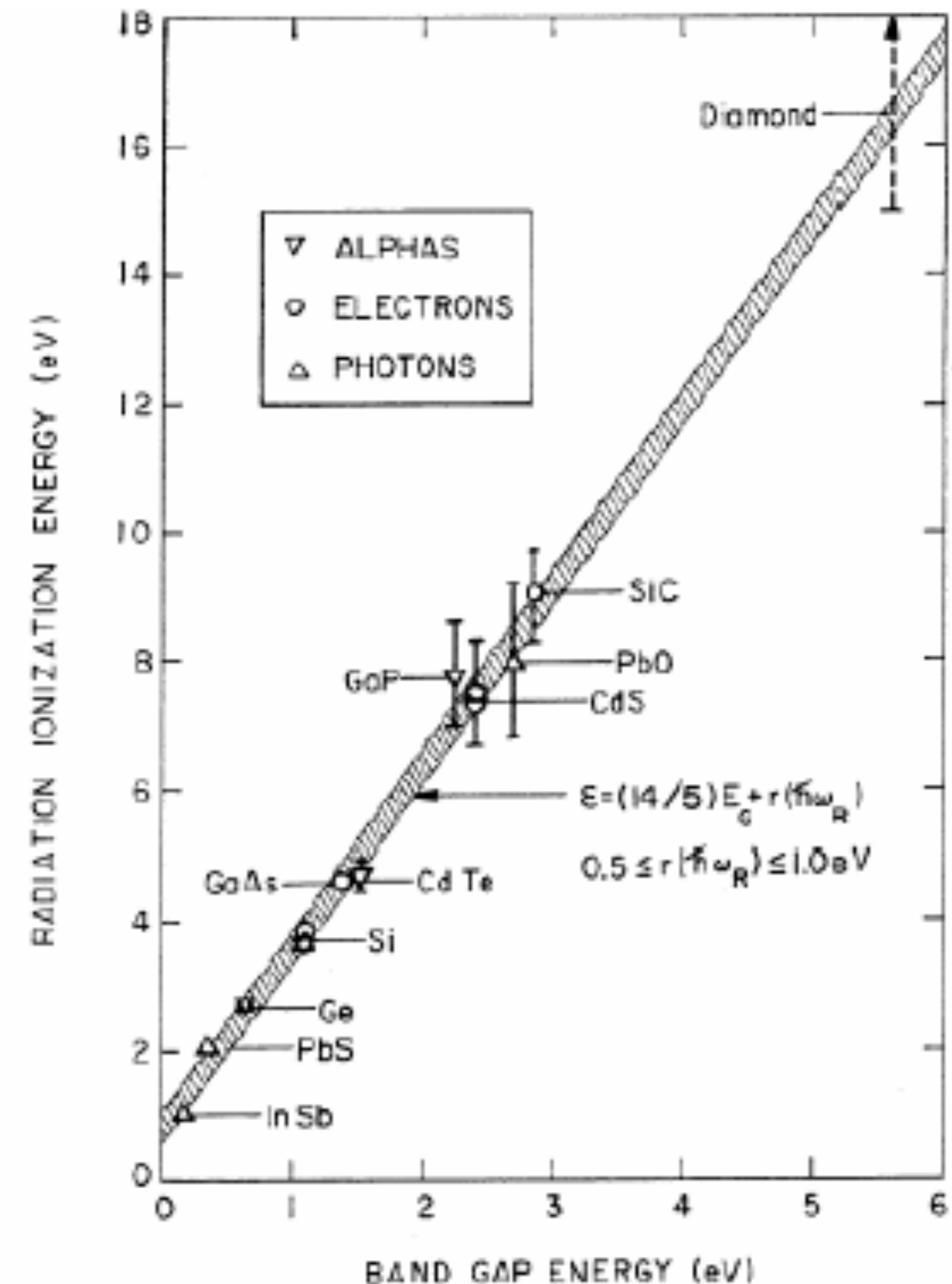
- Measurement of charm-quark lifetime (decay length  $30 \mu\text{m}$ )
- 1200 diode strips on  $24 \times 36 \text{ mm}^2$  active area
- 250-500  $\mu\text{m}$  thick bulk material
- 4.5  $\mu\text{m}$  resolution





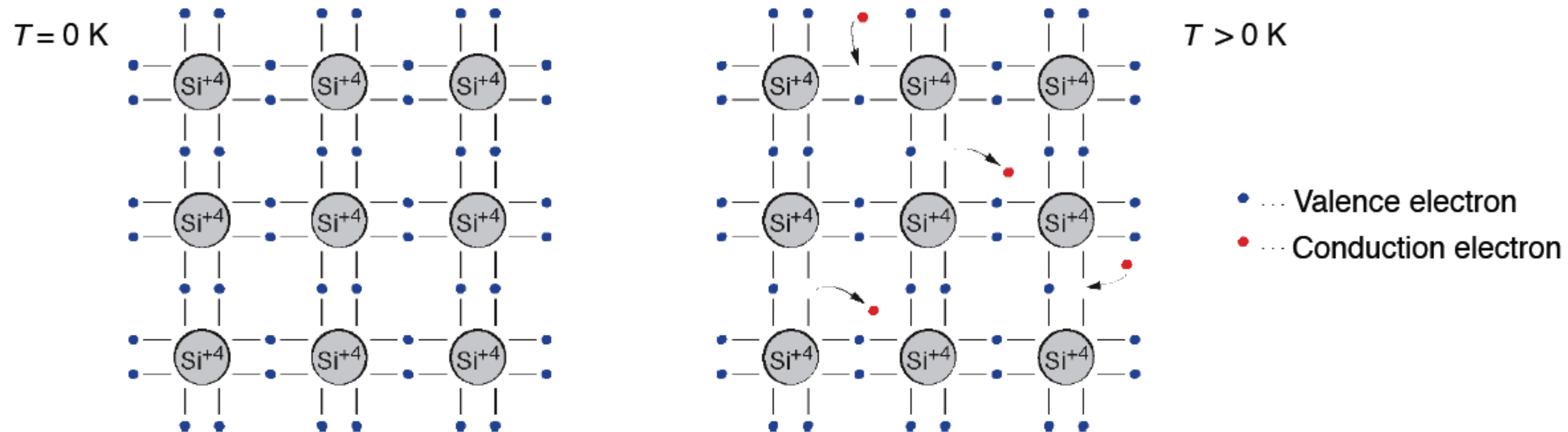
- **Semiconductor with moderate bandgap (1.12eV)**
- **Energy to create e/h pair (signal quanta)= 3.6eV**
  - (c.f Argon gas = 15eV)
  - High carrier yield
  - Better energy resolution and high signal
  - no gain stage required
- **High density and atomic number**
  - Higher specific energy loss
  - Thinner detectors
  - better spatial resolution
- **High carrier mobility Fast!**
  - Less than 30ns to collect entire signal
- **Large experience in industry** with micro-chip technology
- Intrinsic radiation hardness

plus phonon excitation





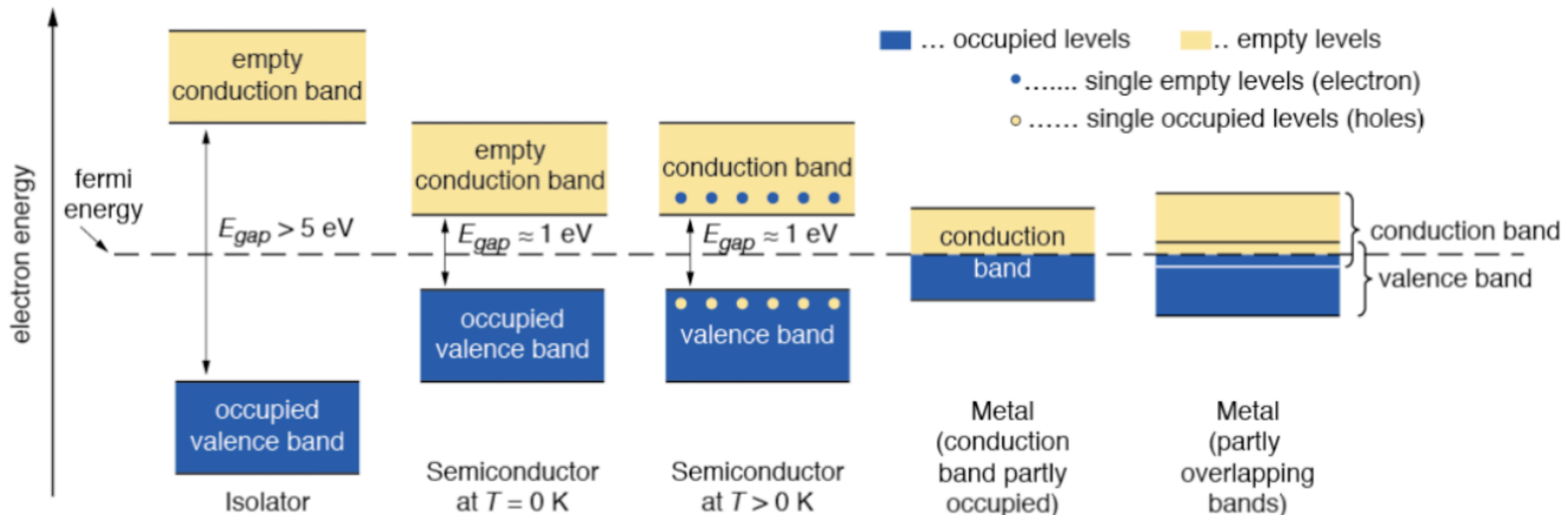
Example of column IV elemental semiconductor:



- Each atom has 4 closest neighbours, the 4 electrons in the outer shell are shared and form covalent bonds.
  - At low temperature all electrons are bound
  - At higher temperature thermal vibrations break some of the bonds
  - free  $e^-$  cause conductivity (electron conduction)
  - The remaining open bonds attract other  $e^-$ , "holes" change position (hole conduction)



- In an isolated atom the electrons have only discrete energy levels
- In solid state material the atomic levels merge to energy bands
- In **metals** the conduction and the valence band **overlap**, whereas in isolators and semiconductors these levels are **separated** by an energy gap (**band gap**)
- In isolators this gap is large







- Small band gap in semiconductors  
—> electrons already occupy the conduction band at room temperature
- Electrons from the conduction band may recombine with holes
- **thermal equilibrium** is reached between **excitation** and **recombination**:
  - charge carrier concentration  $n_e = n_h = n_i$   
—> intrinsic carrier concentration:

$$n_i = \sqrt{N_C N_V} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_g}{2kT}\right) \propto T^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_g}{2kT}\right)$$

- In ultrapure silicon the intrinsic carrier concentration is  **$1.45 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$**
- With approximately  $10^{22} \text{ Atoms/cm}^3$  about 1 in  $10^{12}$  silicon atoms is ionized



**Drift velocity** for electrons:

$$\vec{v}_n = -\mu_n \cdot \vec{E}$$

for holes:

$$\vec{v}_p = \mu_p \cdot \vec{E}$$

**Mobility** for electrons:

$$\mu_n = \frac{e \tau_n}{m_n}$$

for holes:

$$\mu_p = \frac{e \tau_p}{m_p}$$

$$\mu_n(\text{Si}, 300 \text{ K}) \approx 1450 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$$

$$\mu_p(\text{Si}, 300 \text{ K}) \approx 450 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$$

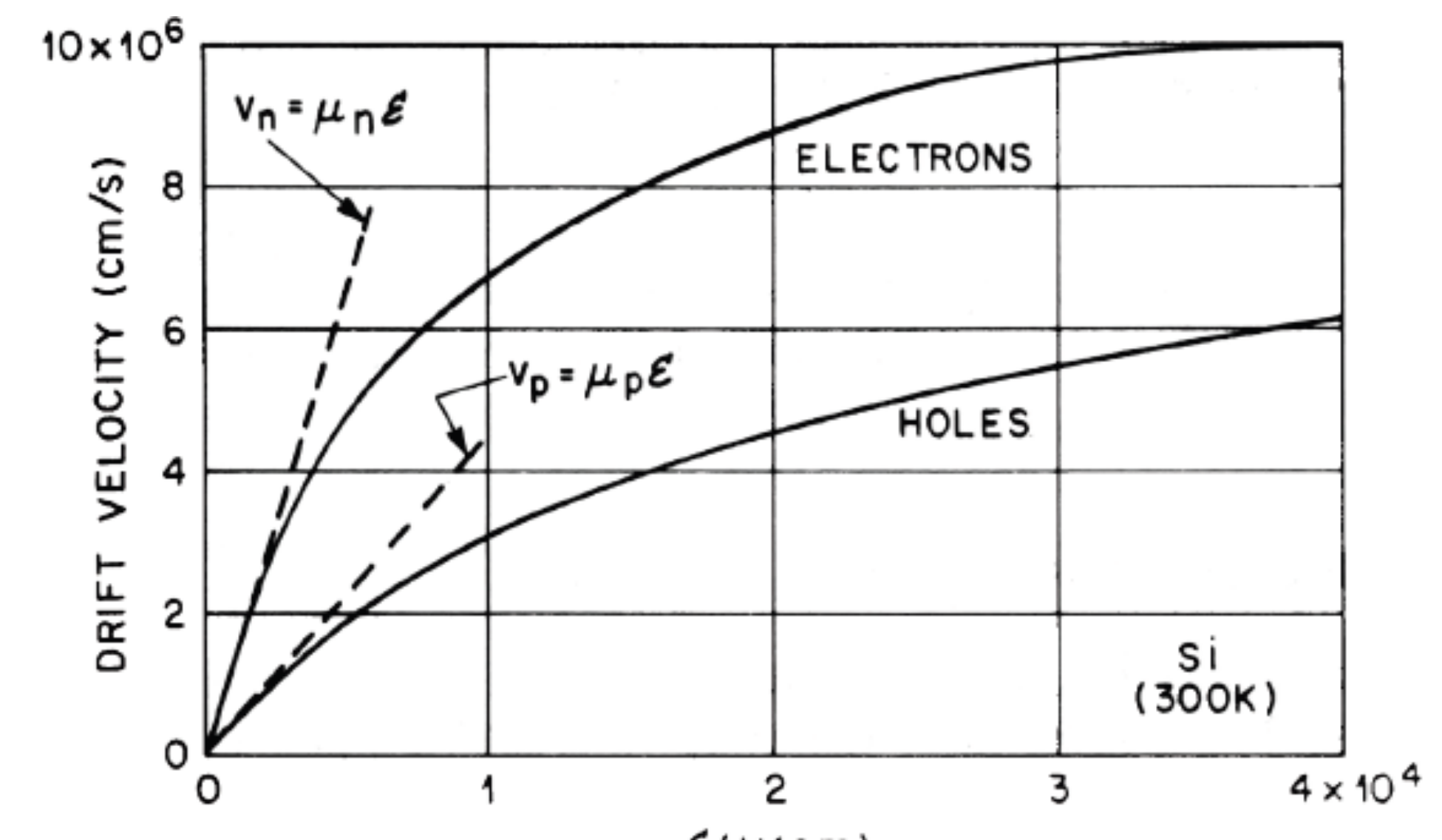
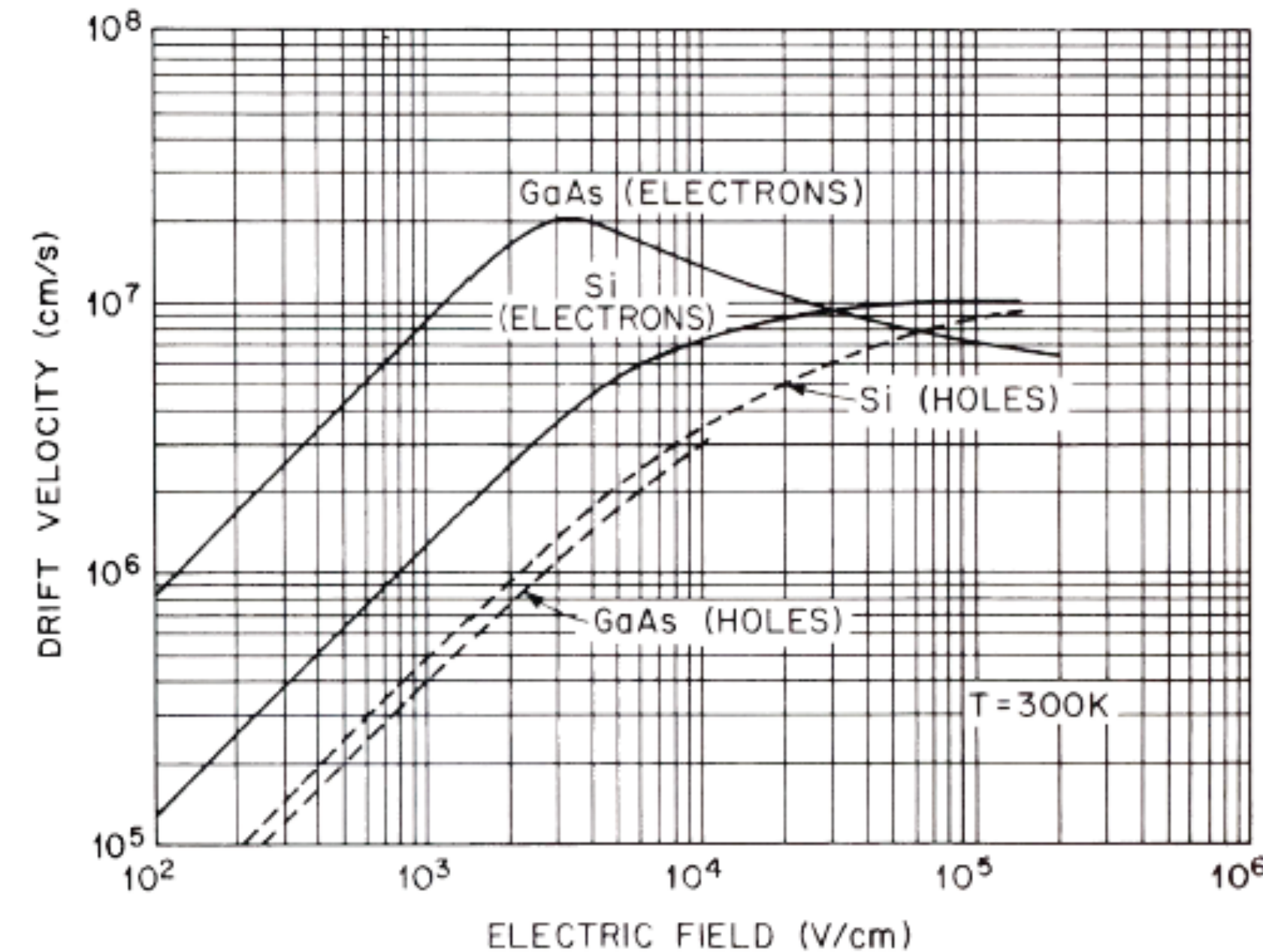
**Resistivity:**

$$\rho = \frac{1}{e(\mu_n n_e + \mu_p n_h)}$$

With the charge carrier concentration in intrinsic silicon

$$n_e = n_h \approx 1.45 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

—> intrinsic resistivity  $\rho \approx 230 \text{ k}\Omega\text{cm}$



**Thickness:** 0.3mm

**Area:** 1cm<sup>2</sup>

**Resistivity:** 10kΩcm

**Resistance (pd/A) :** 300Ω

**Mobility (electrons):** ~1400 cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs

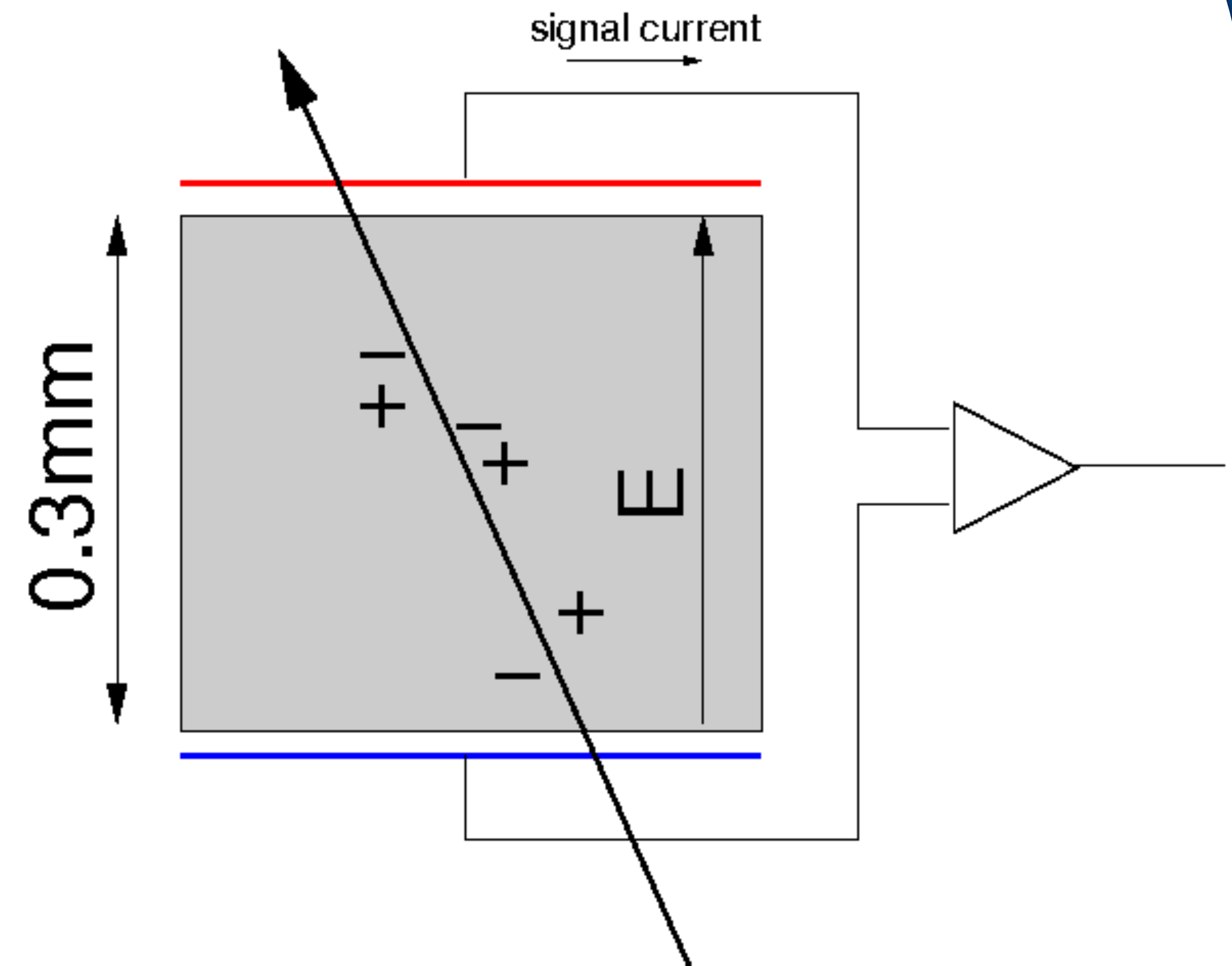
**Collection time:** ~10ns

**Charge released:** ~25000 e~4fC

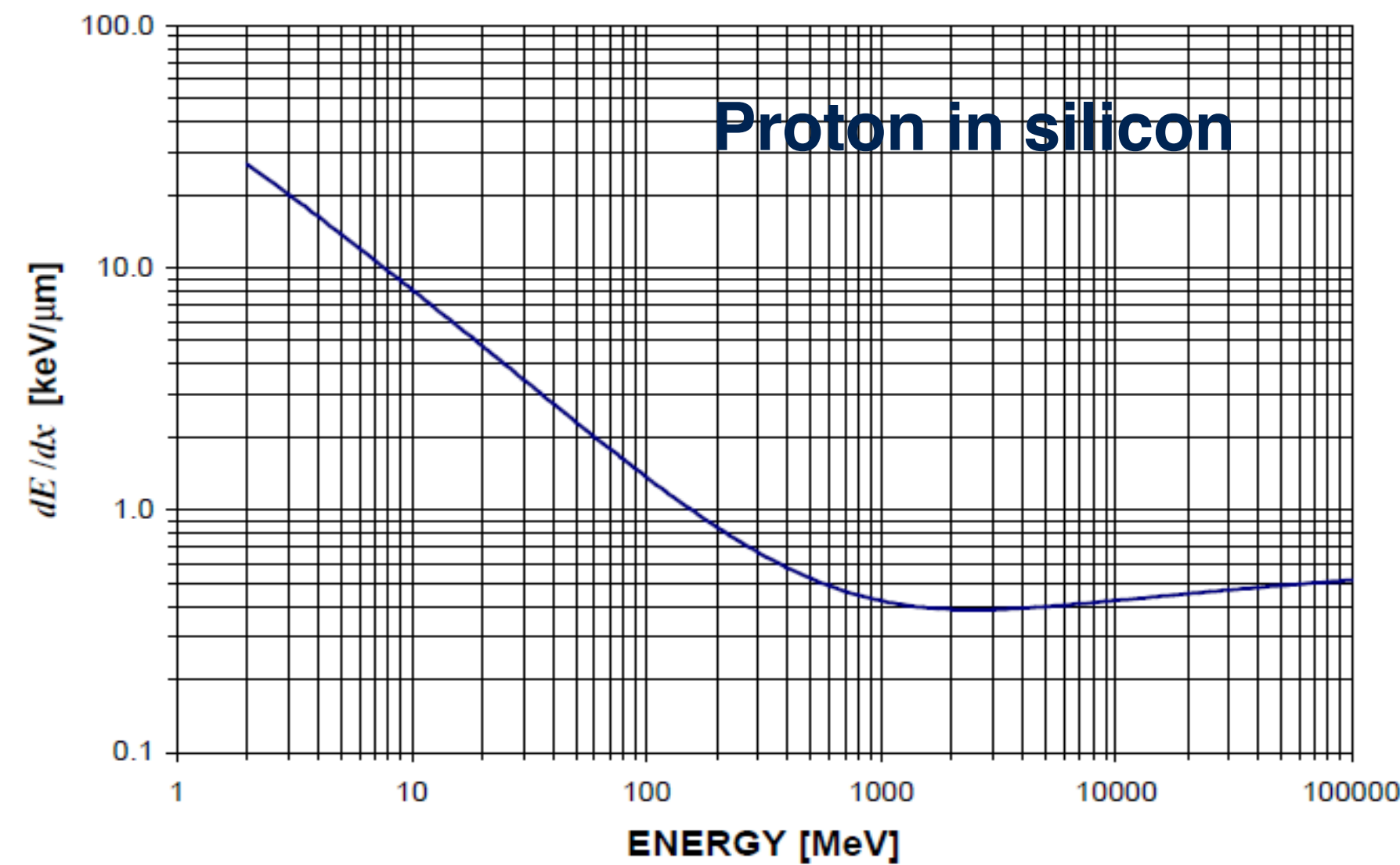
**Need an average field of**

$$E = v/\mu = 0.03\text{cm}/10\text{ns}/1400\text{cm}^2/\text{V} \sim 21000 \text{ V/cm or } V=60\text{V}$$

**Is this detector going to work?**







Mean ionization energy  $I_0 = 3.62 \text{ eV}$

- mean energy loss per flight path of a mip  $dE/dx = 3.87 \text{ MeV/cm}$

Assuming same detector with a thickness of  $d = 300 \mu\text{m}$  and an area of  $A = 1 \text{ cm}^2$ .

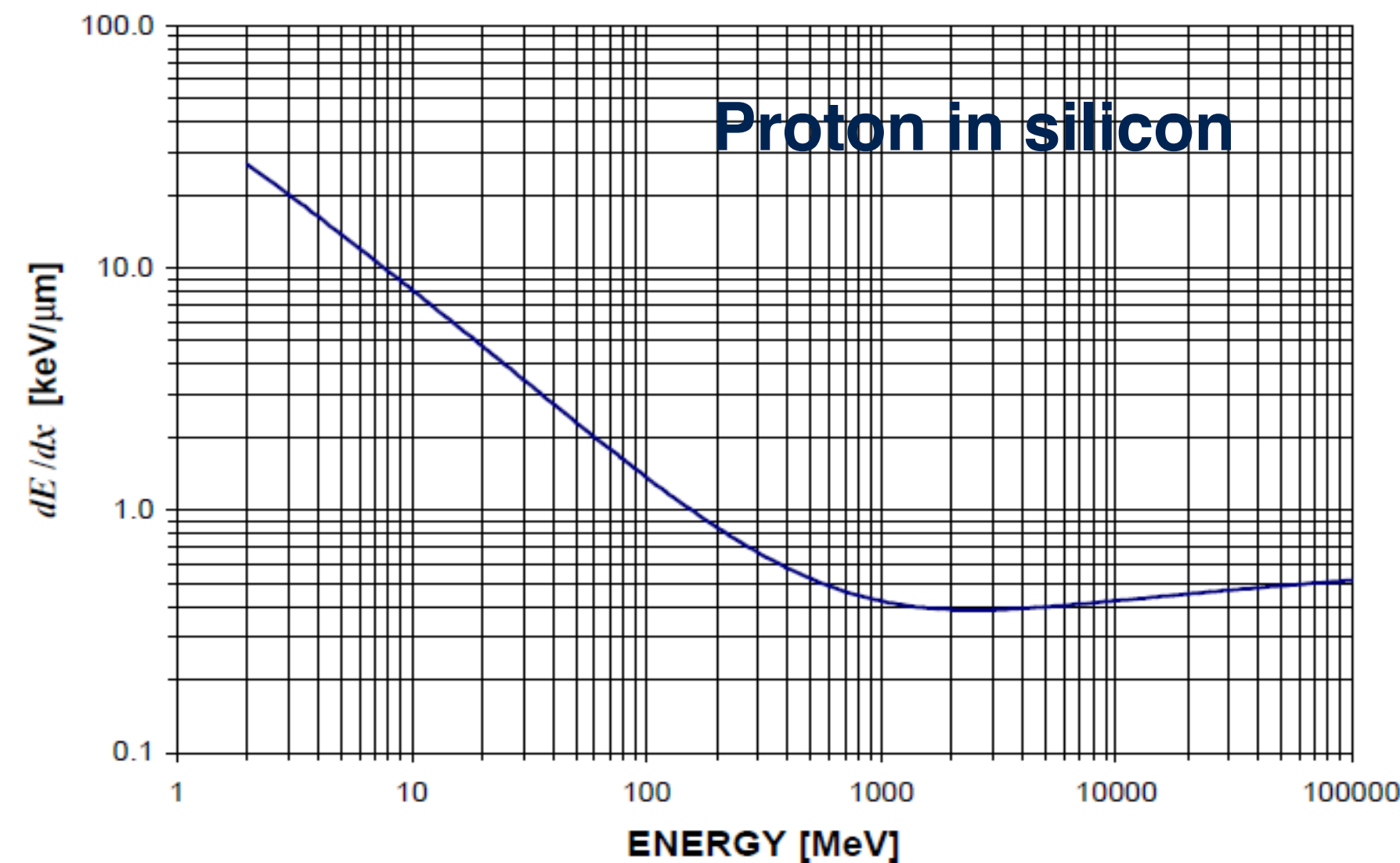
**Signal of a mip in such a detector:**

$$\frac{dE/dx \cdot d}{I_0} = \frac{3.87 \cdot 10^6 \text{ eV/cm} \cdot 0.03 \text{ cm}}{3.62 \text{ eV}} \approx 3.2 \cdot 10^4 \text{ e}^- \text{h}^+ \text{-pairs}$$

**Intrinsic charge carrier in the same volume ( $T = 300 \text{ K}$ ):**

$$n_i d A = 1.45 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3} \cdot 0.03 \text{ cm} \cdot 1 \text{ cm}^2 \approx 4.35 \cdot 10^8 \text{ e}^- \text{h}^+ \text{-pairs}$$





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**Result: The number of thermal created e-h+-pairs (noise) is four orders of magnitude larger than the signal**

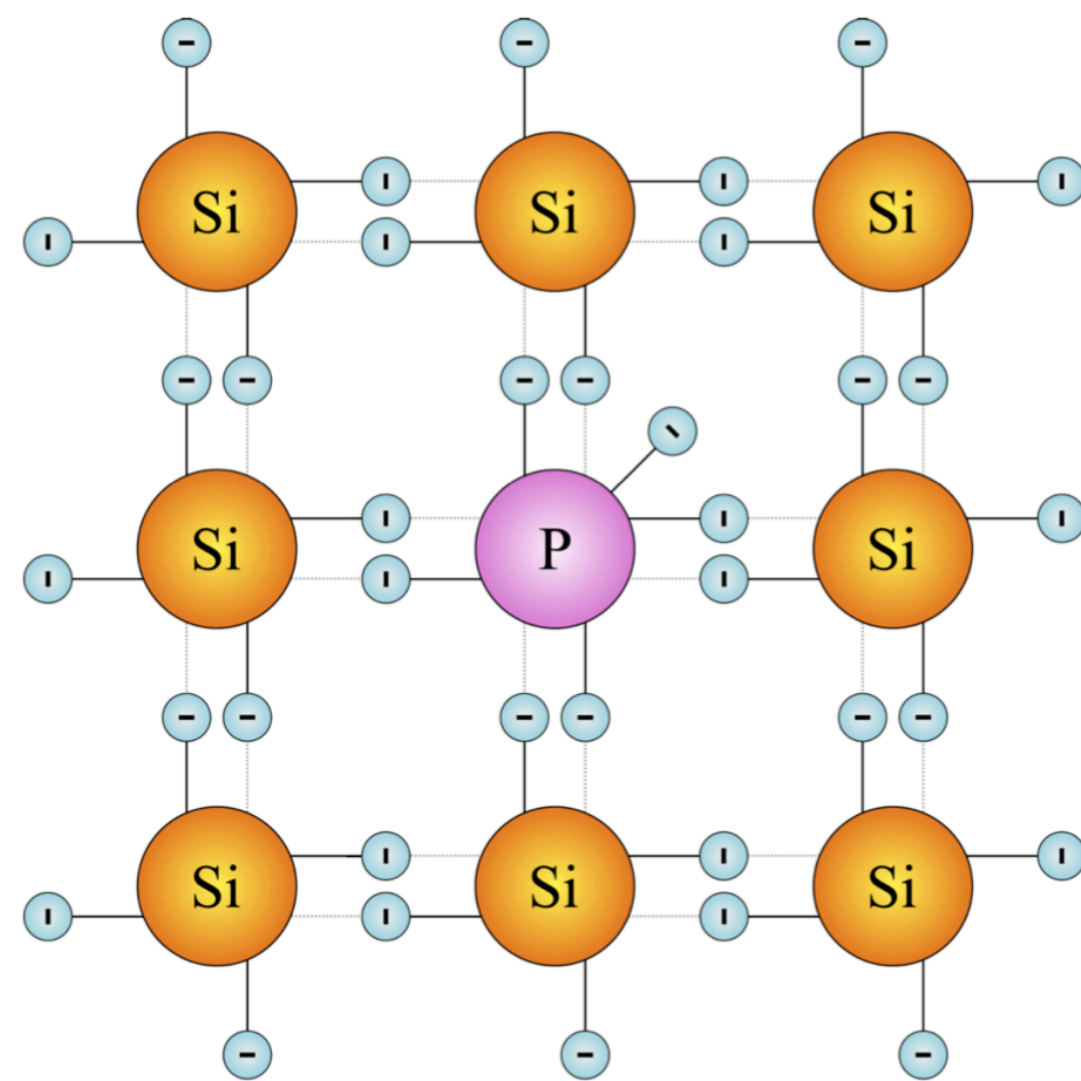




- **Remove the charge carriers by generating a depletion zone in a pn junction**
- **create n- and p-type silicon by doping**

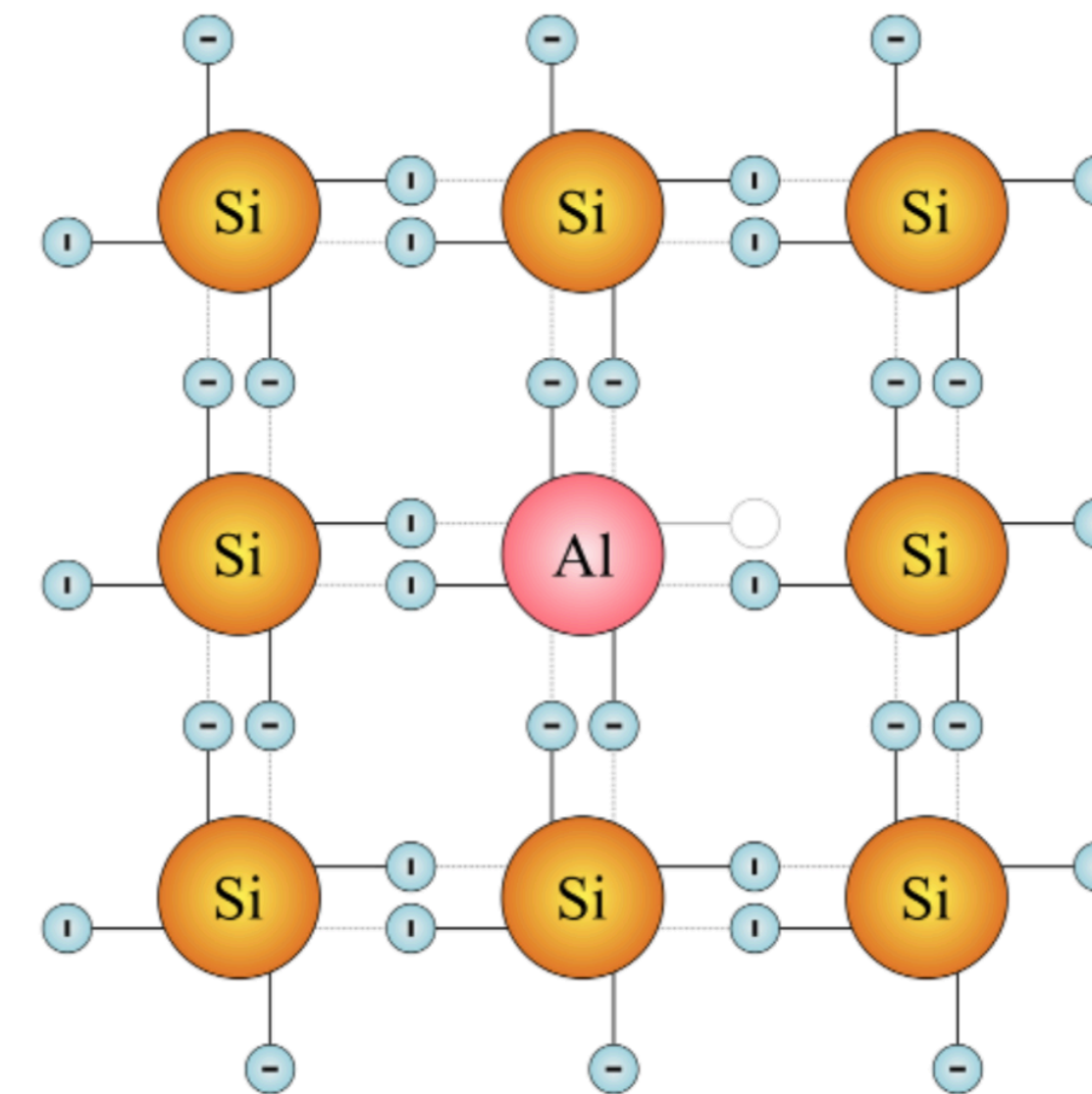
- **Doping:** replacement of a small number of atoms in the lattice by atoms of neighboring columns from the periodic table
  - > energy levels within the band gap created
  - > conductivity altered

## n-type silicon



- **Dopant:** element V atom (e.g. P, As, Sb)
- **Donor**
- 5th valence electron is weakly bound
- **majority carriers:** electrons
- **space charge:** positive

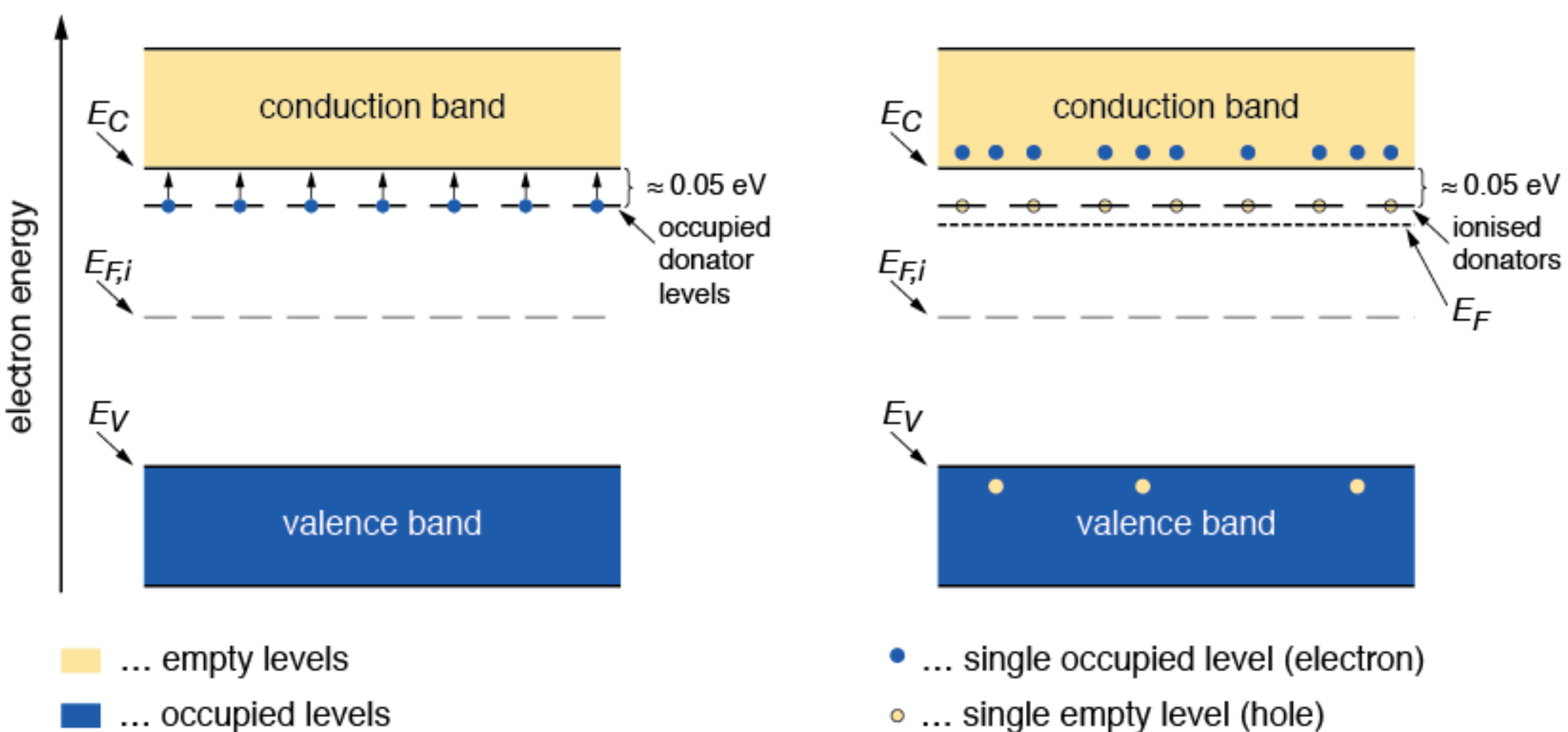
## p-type silicon



- **Dopant:** element III atom (e.g. B, Al, Ga, In)
- **Acceptor**
- one valence bond open attracts electrons from neighbouring atoms
- **majority carriers:** holes
- **space charge:** negative

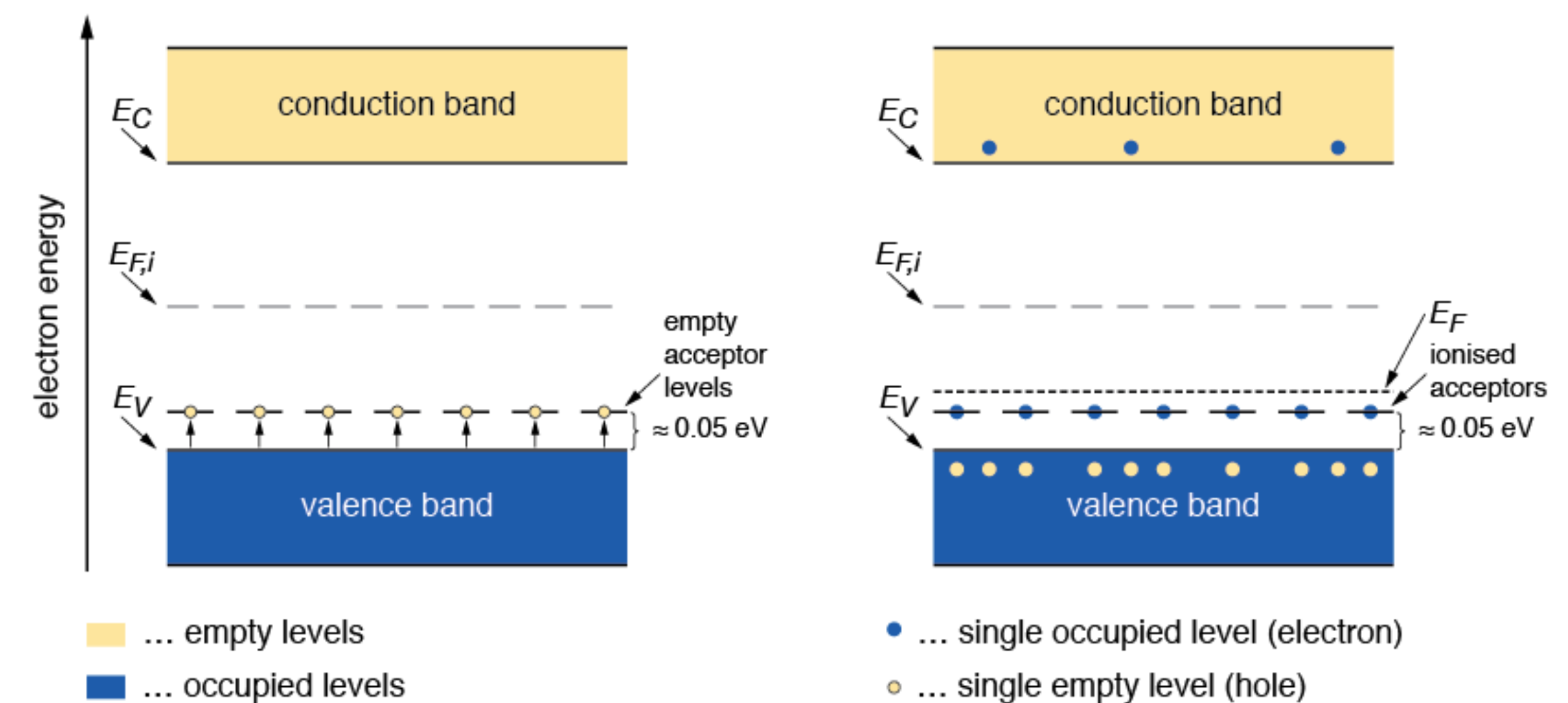
## n-type silicon

- Energy level of **donor** just below the edge of the conduction band
- At room temperature most **electrons** are raised to the **conduction band**
- The Fermi level  $E_F$  moves up



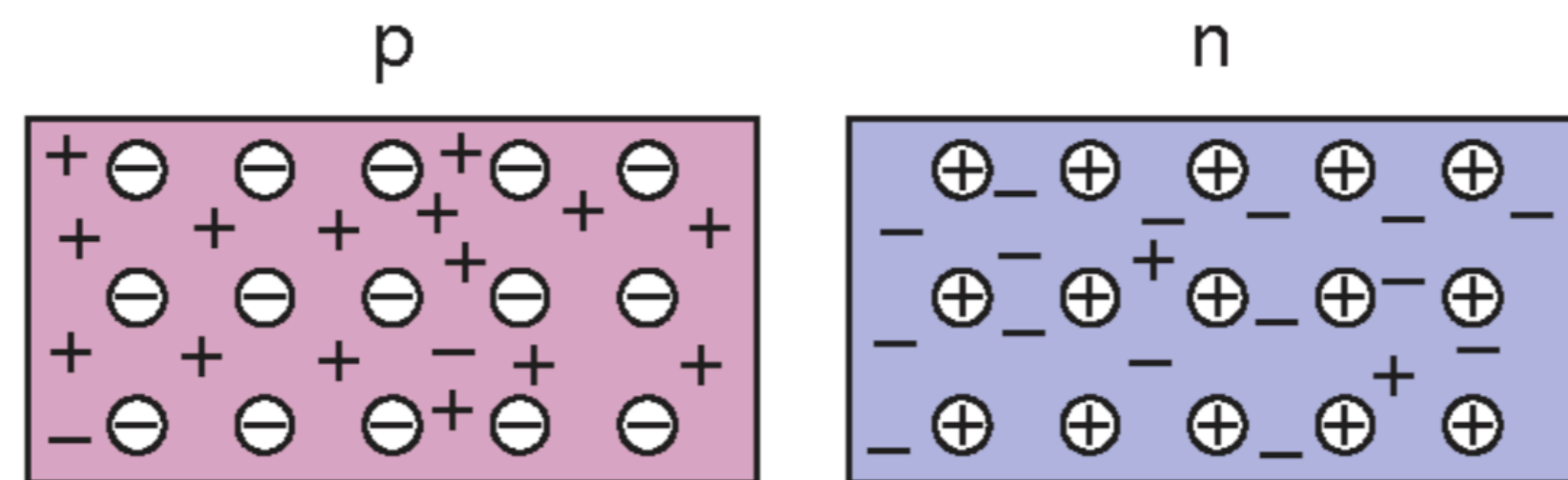
## p-type silicon

- Energy level of **acceptor** just above the edge of the valence band
- At room temperature most levels are occupied by electrons leaving **holes** in the **valence band**
- The Fermi level  $E_F$  moves down





- Difference in the Fermi levels cause **diffusion of excessive carriers** until thermal equilibrium
- Fermi level is equal
- Remaining ions create a **space charge region** and an **electric field** stopping further diffusion
- Space charge region is free of charge carriers —> **depletion zone**

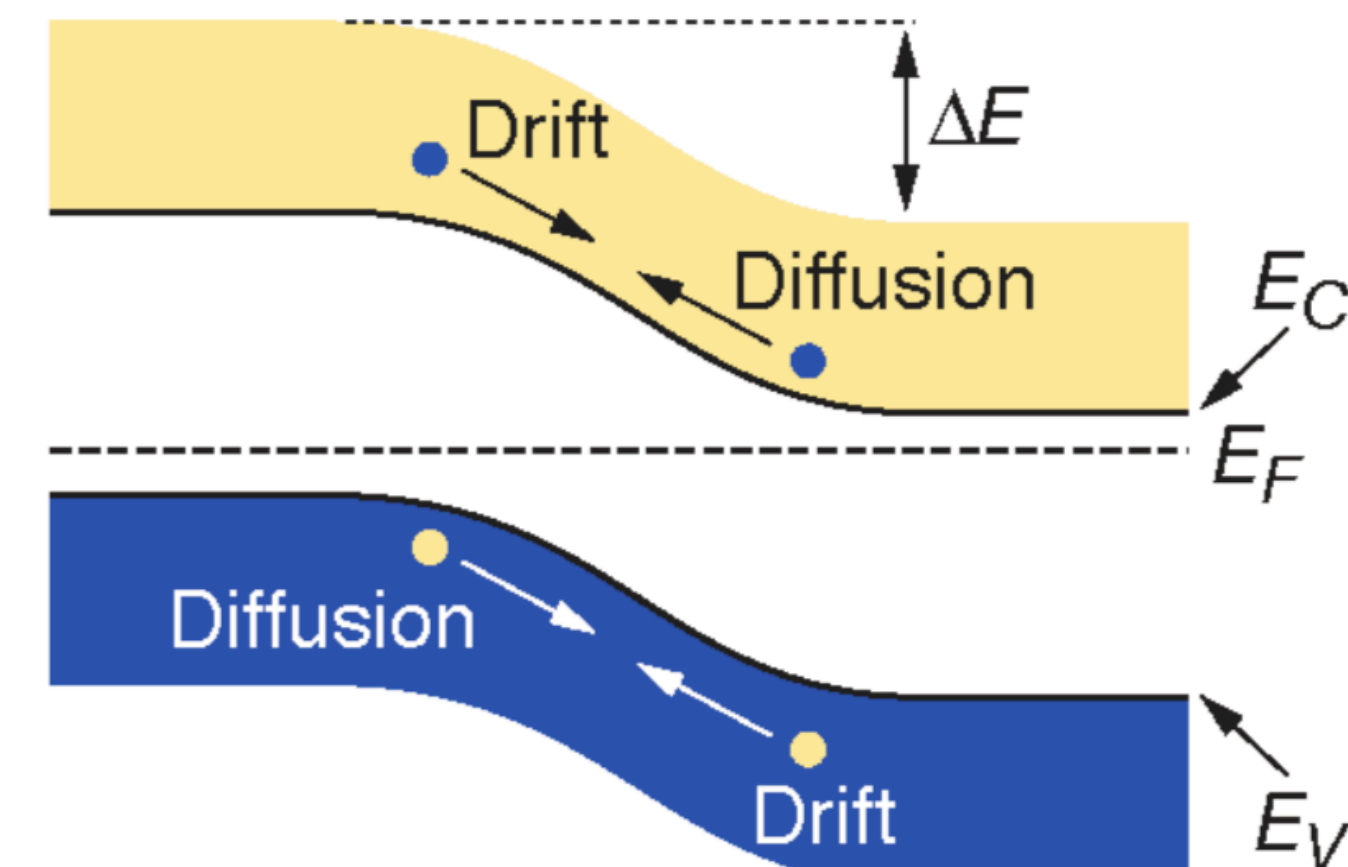
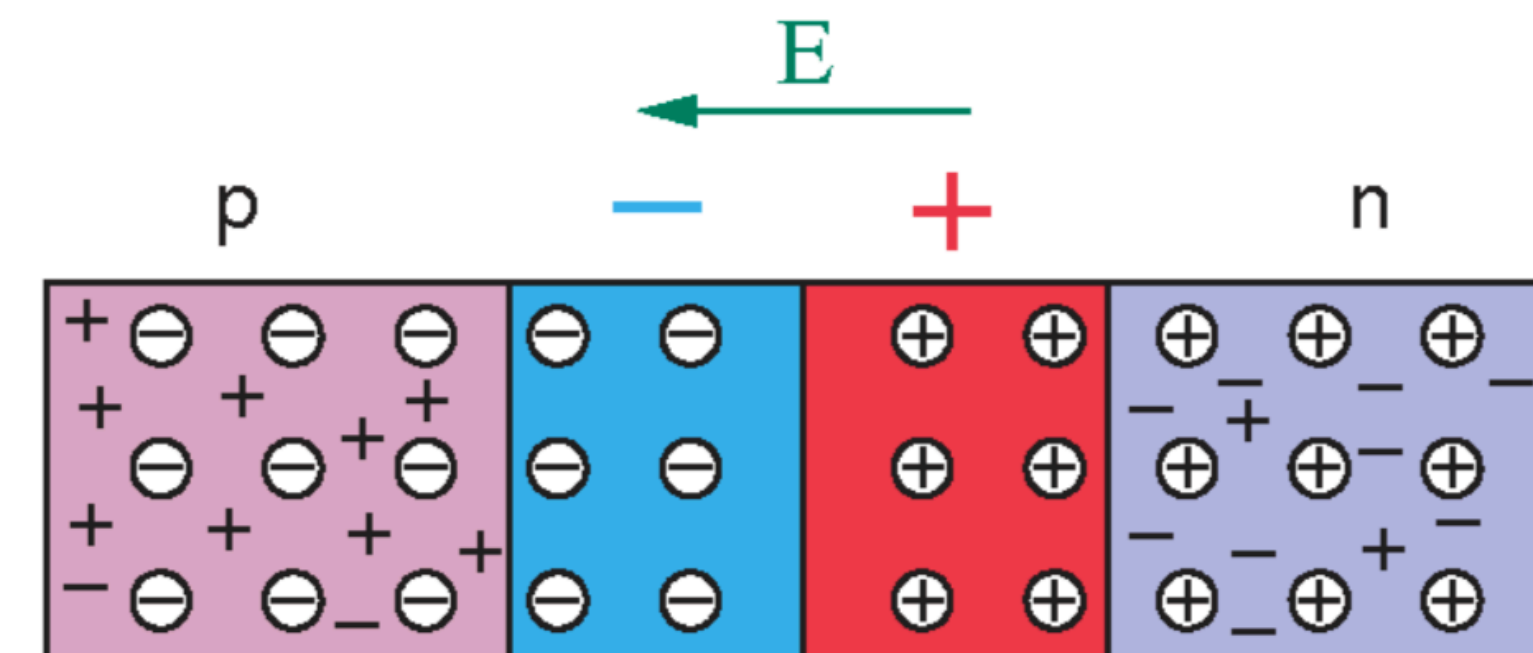


⊖ ... acceptor

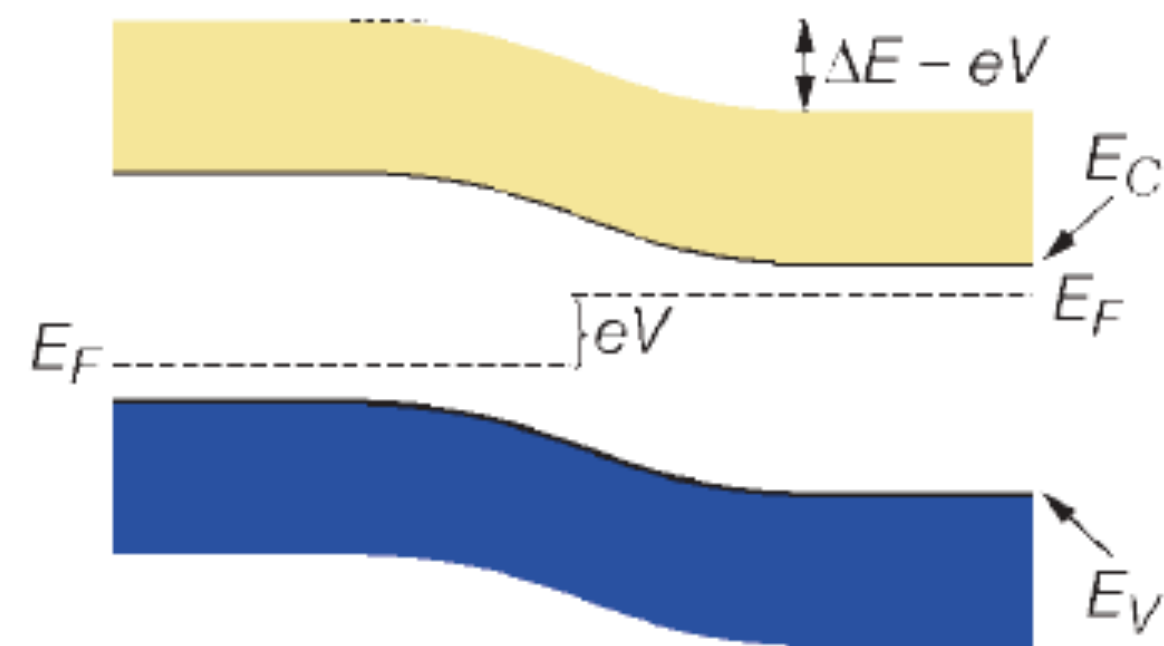
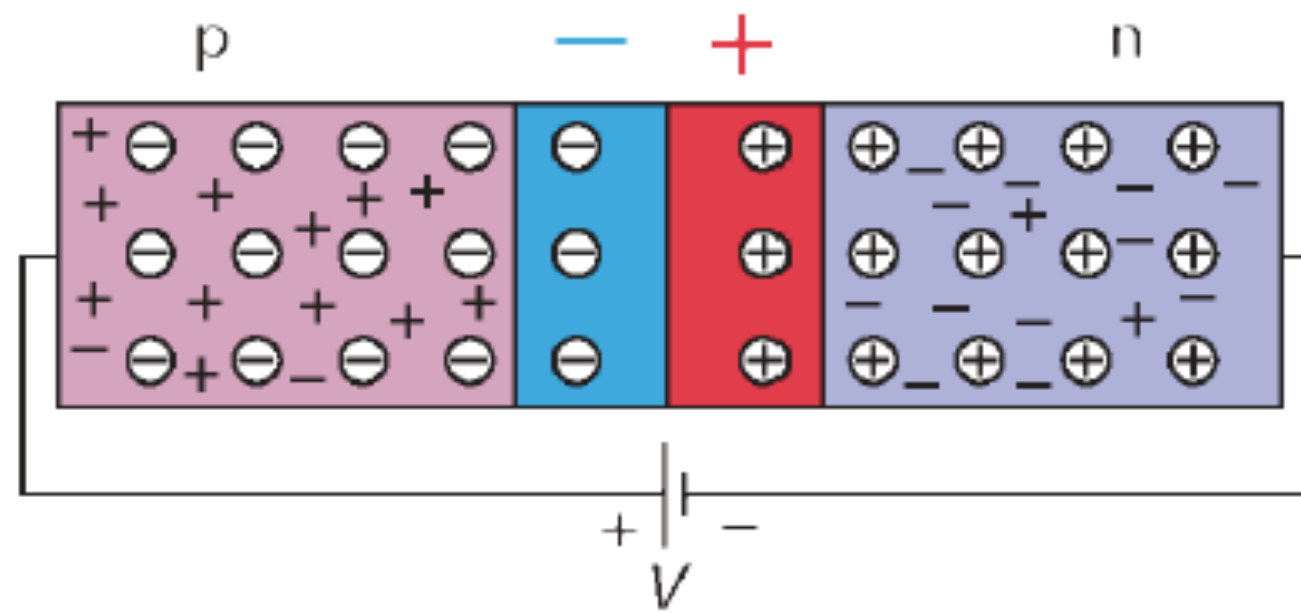
+ ... hole

⊕ ... donor

- ... conduction electron

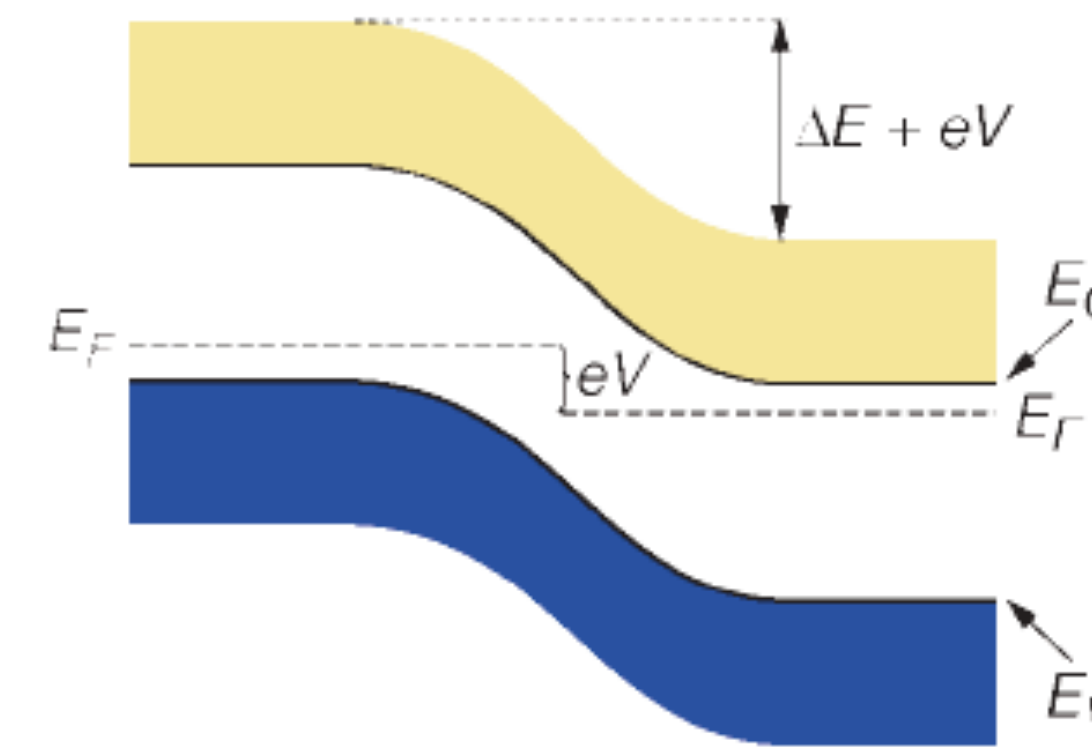
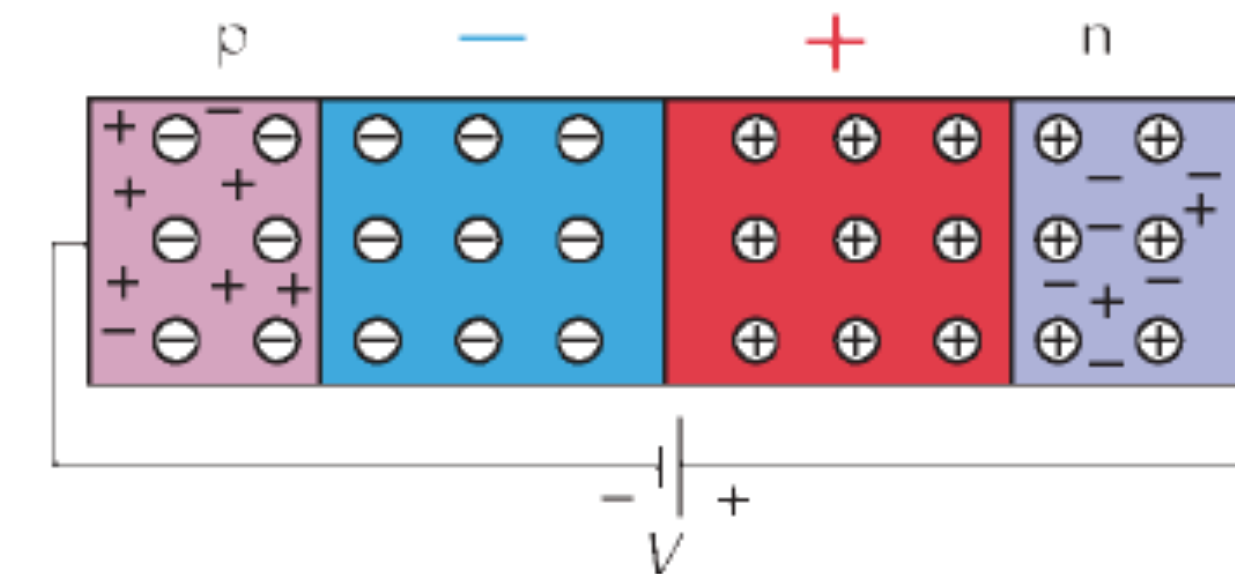


p-n junction with forward bias



- External voltage  $V$  with  $+$  to p and  $-$  to n  
 $\rightarrow$   $e^-$  and holes are refilled to the depletion zone
- **depletion zone becomes narrower** (forward biasing)
- **Consequences:**
  - The potential barrier becomes smaller by  $eV$
  - Diffusion across the junction becomes easier
  - The current across the junction increases significantly

p-n junction with reverse bias



- External voltage  $V$  with  $-$  to p and  $+$  to n  
 $\rightarrow$   $e^-$  and holes are pulled out of the depletion zone
- **depletion zone becomes larger** (reverse biasing).
- **Consequences:**
  - The potential barrier becomes higher by  $eV$
  - Diffusion across the junction is suppressed
  - current across junction is very small ("leakage current")



Effective doping concentration in **typical silicon detector with p+-n junction**

$N_a = 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  in p+ region

$N_d = 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  in n bulk.

**Without external voltage:**  $W_p = 0.02 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$   
 $W_n = 23 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$

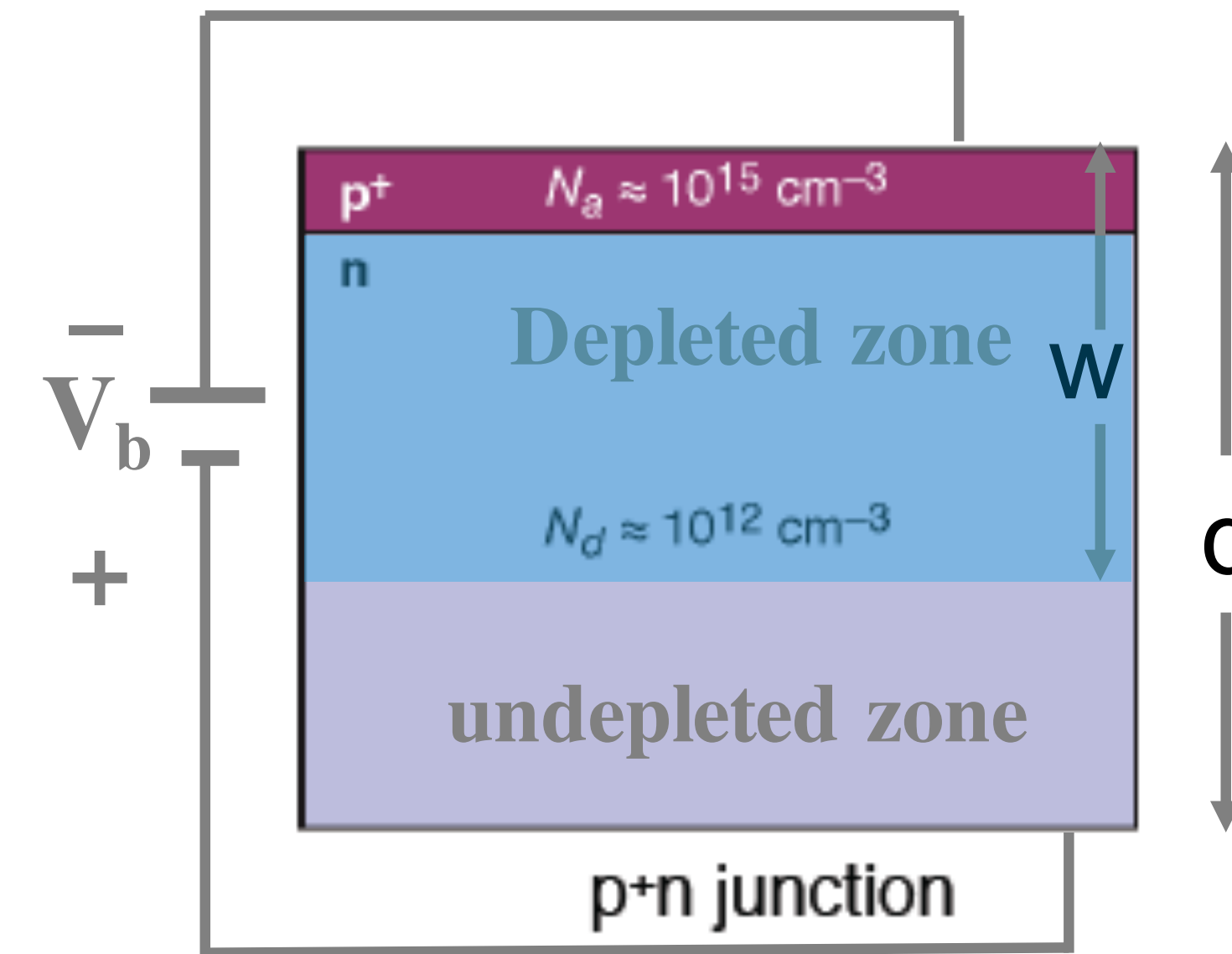
**With bias voltage:**

$$W = \sqrt{\frac{2\varepsilon V}{q} \left( \frac{1}{N_D} + \frac{1}{N_A} \right)}$$

**For a given thickness, Full Depletion Voltage is:**

$$V_{fd} = \frac{qN_D W^2}{2\varepsilon}$$

$W = 300 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $N_D = 5 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3} \rightarrow V_{fd} = 100 \text{ V}$



**Resistivity:**  $\rho = \frac{1}{q\mu_p N_D}$

High-resistivity material (i.e. low doping) requires low depletion voltage :

**FZ sensors:**

Doping concentrations:  $10^{12} - 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

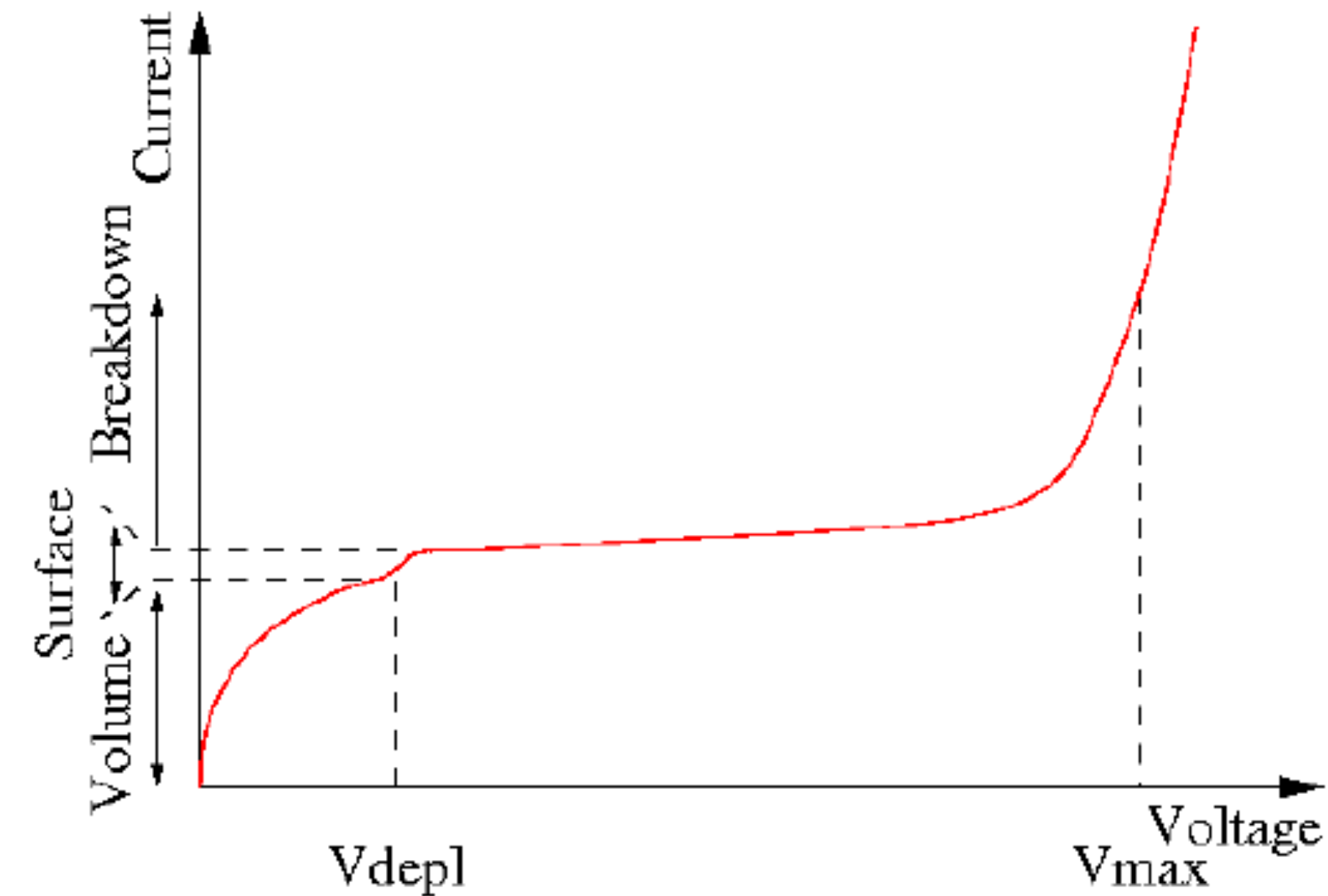
Resistivity  $\sim 5 \text{ k}\Omega\text{cm}$

**CMOS:**

Doping concentrations:  $10^{17} - 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

Resistivity  $\sim 1 \text{ } \Omega\text{cm}$

## Current of the reverse biased diode



## Diffusion current

- From generation at surface, interfaces, edge of depletion region
- Negligible for a fully depleted detector

## Generation current

- From thermal generation in the depletion region
- Reduced by using pure and defect free material
- Must keep temperature low & controlled

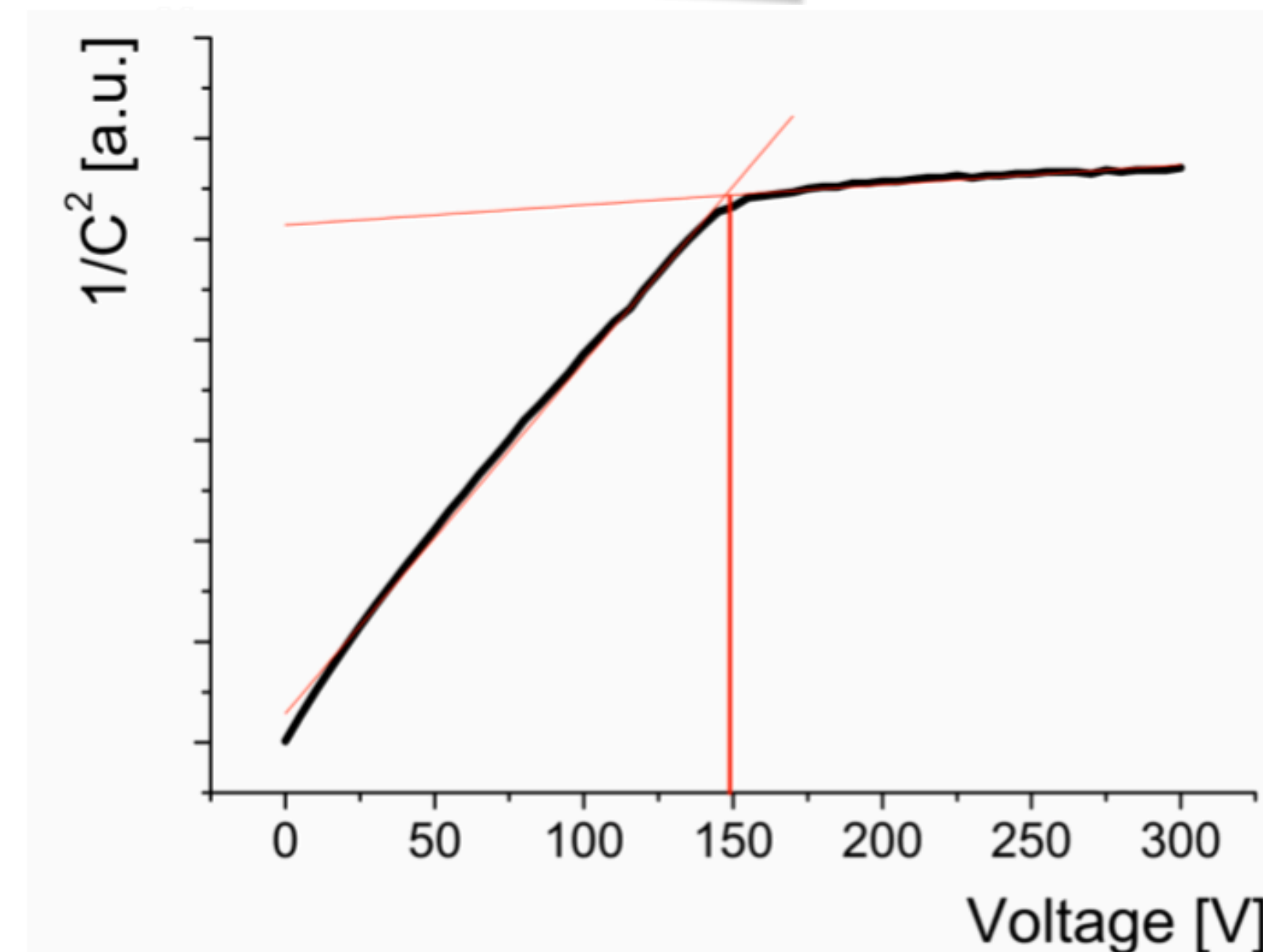
$$j_{gen} = \frac{1}{2} q \frac{n_i}{\tau_0} W \quad j_{gen} \propto T^{3/2} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2kT}\right)$$

factor 2 every  $\Delta T = 8K$

## Capacitance of the reverse biased diode

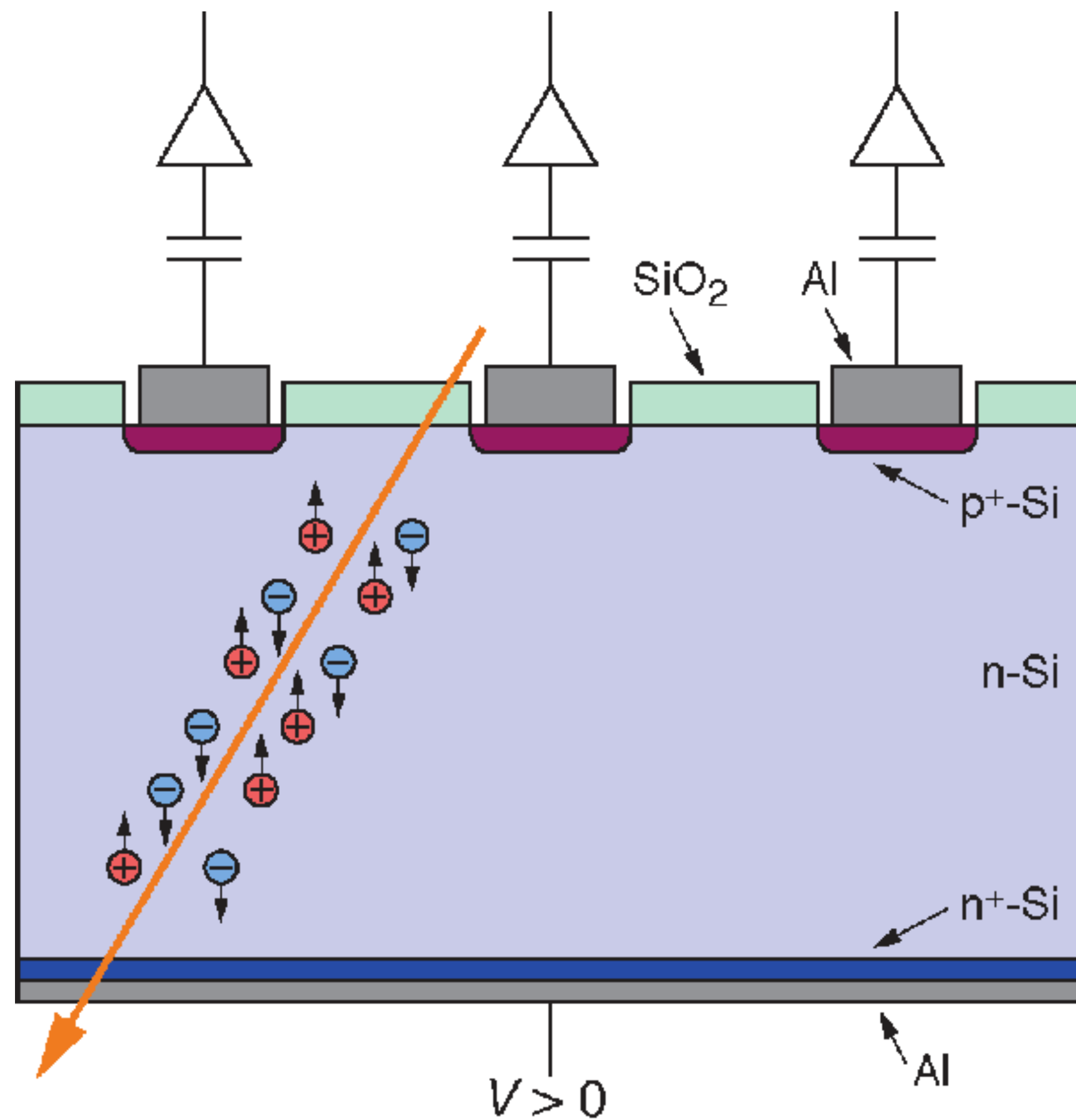
- Similar to parallel-plate capacitor
- Fully depleted detector capacitance defined by geometric capacitance

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r}{2\mu\rho|V|}} \cdot A$$

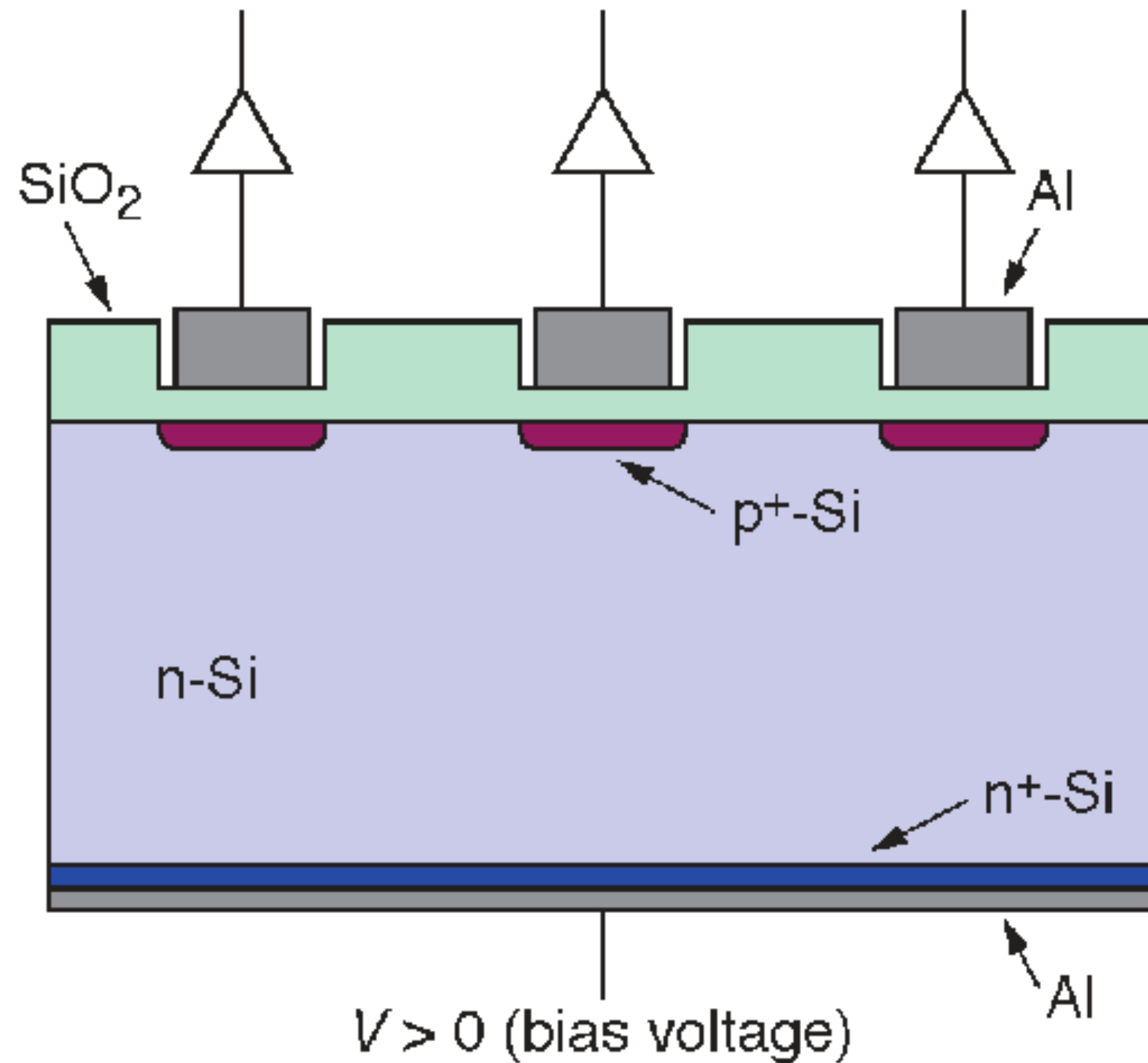


exercise  
CV/IV



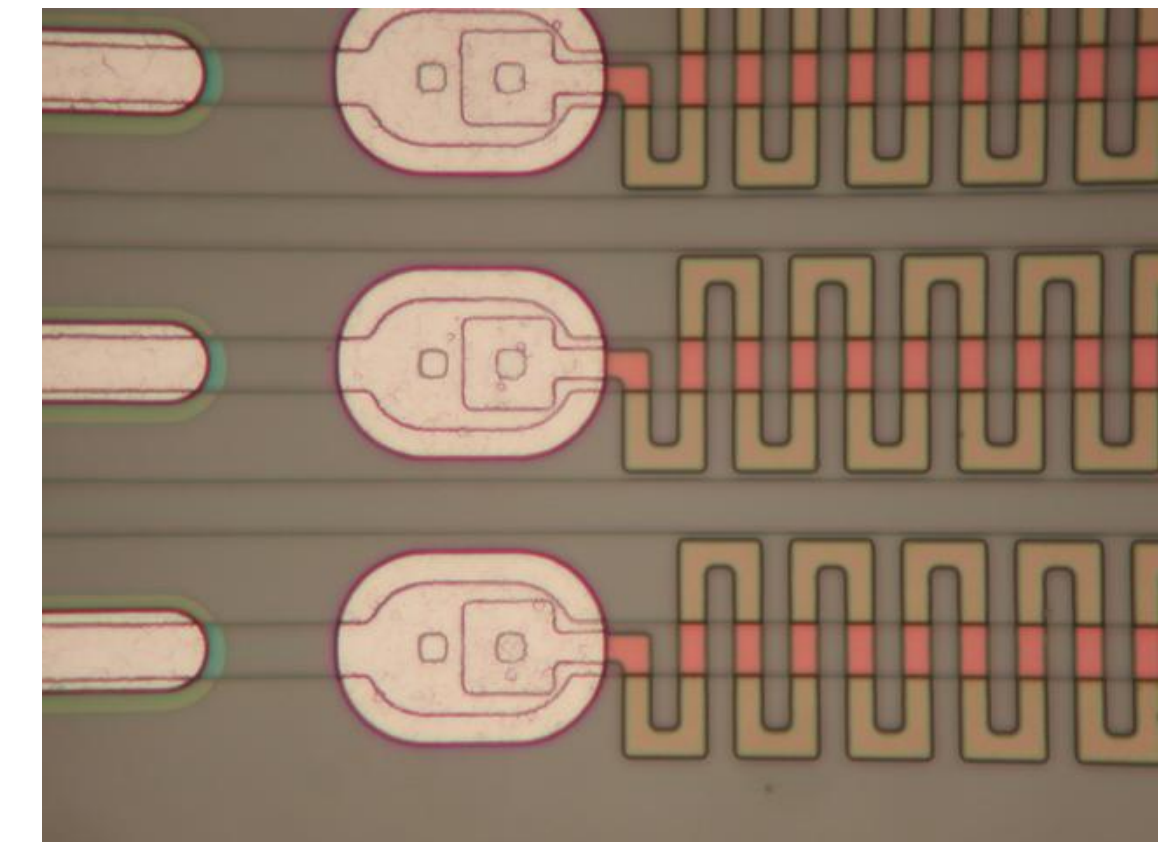


- Segmenting the implant  
—> one-dimensional position of the traversing particle
- Simplest version: **DC-coupled** strip detector
- **p-in-n** sensor:
  - Strips are Boron implants (p+)
  - Substrate is Phosphorous doped ( $\sim 2\text{-}10\text{ k}\Omega\text{cm}$ )
- Thickness  $\sim 300\mu\text{m}$
- $V_{\text{dep}} < 200\text{V}$
- Backside Phosphorous implant (n+) to establish ohmic contact and to prevent early breakdown
- Highest field close to the collecting electrodes where most of the signal is induced

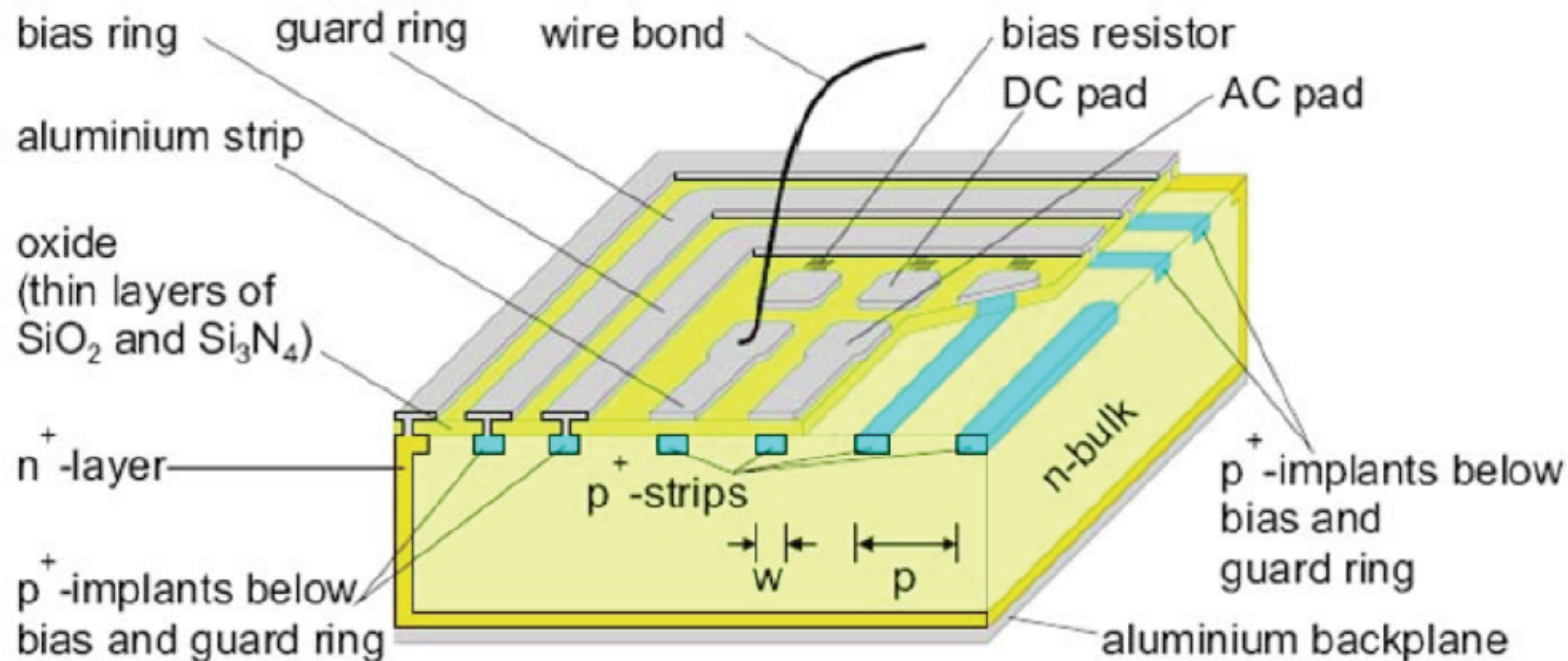


- **AC coupling** blocks leakage current from the amplifier
- Integration of coupling capacitances in standard planar process:
  - Deposition of  $\text{SiO}_2$  with thickness of 100–200 nm between  $\text{p}^+$  and  $\text{Al}$  strip
- Increase quality of dielectric by a second layer of  $\text{Si}_3\text{N}_4$

connect bias to strips —>  
Long poly silicon resistor  
with  $R > 1\text{M}\Omega$



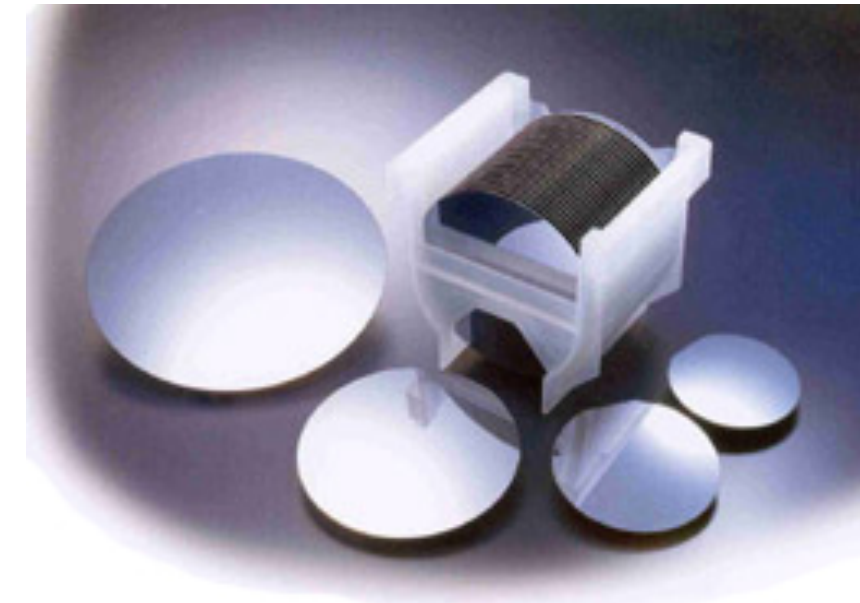






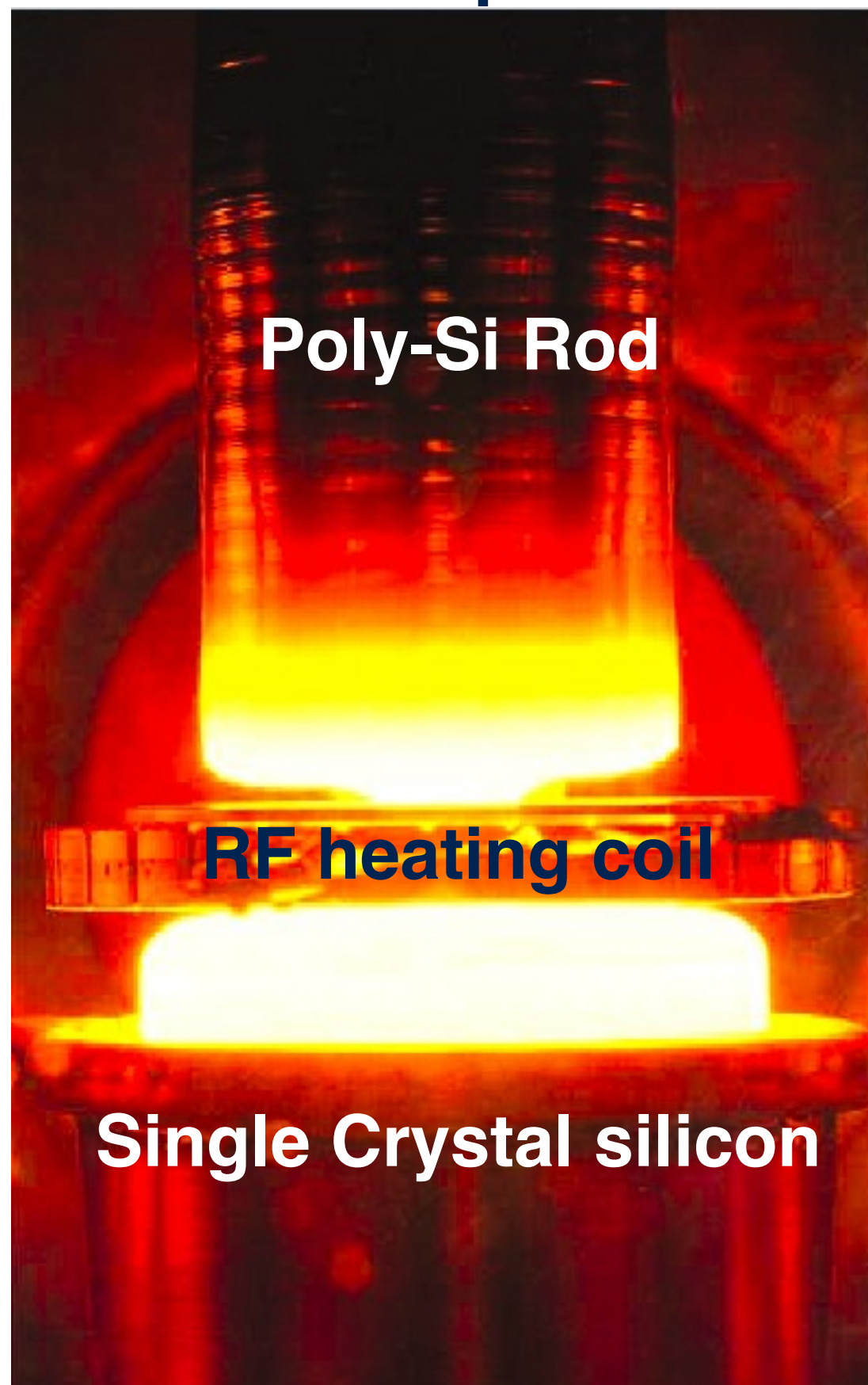
Properties of Si bulk required for detectors:

- 4, 6 or 8 inches
- Lattice orientation  $\langle 111 \rangle$  or  $\langle 100 \rangle$
- high Resistivity 1–10 k $\Omega$ cm



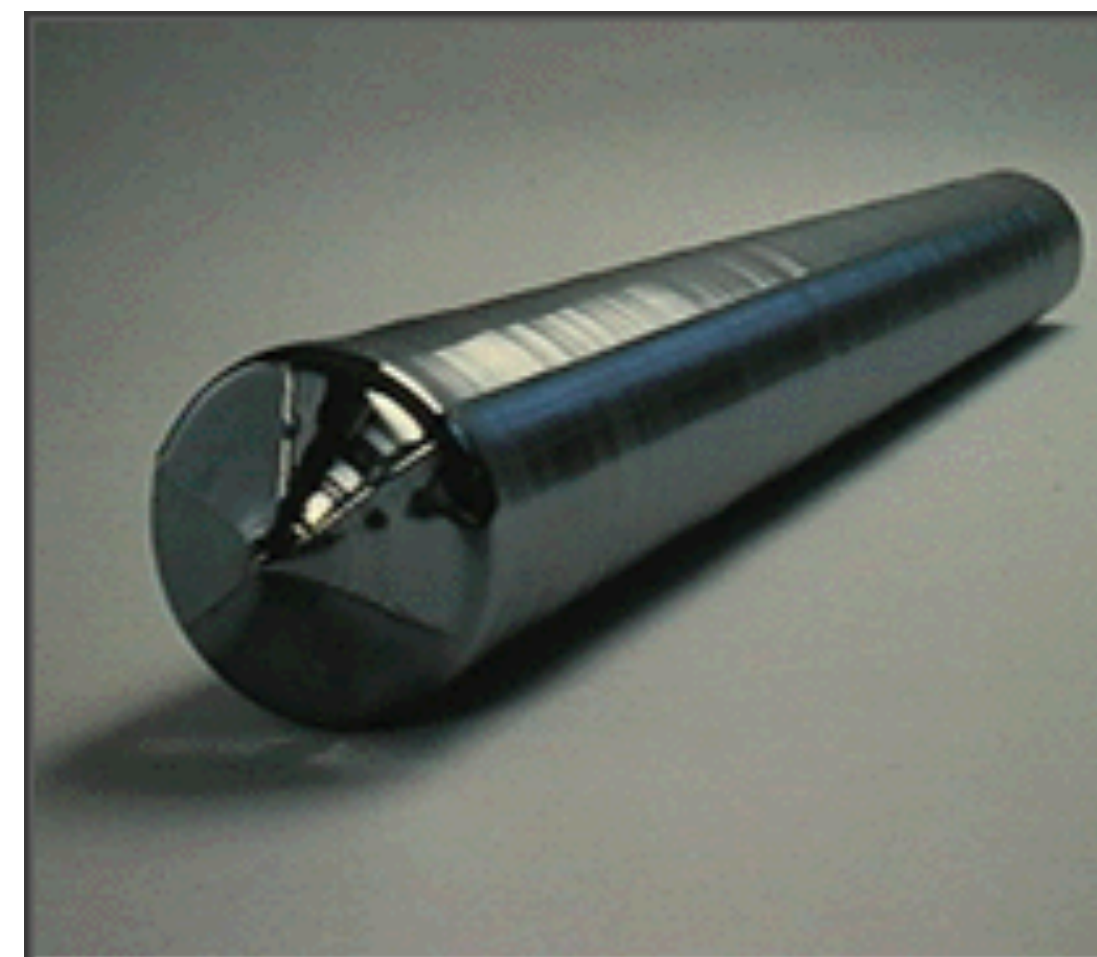
- slice (lap, etch, polish) wafers from ingot

## Float Zone process

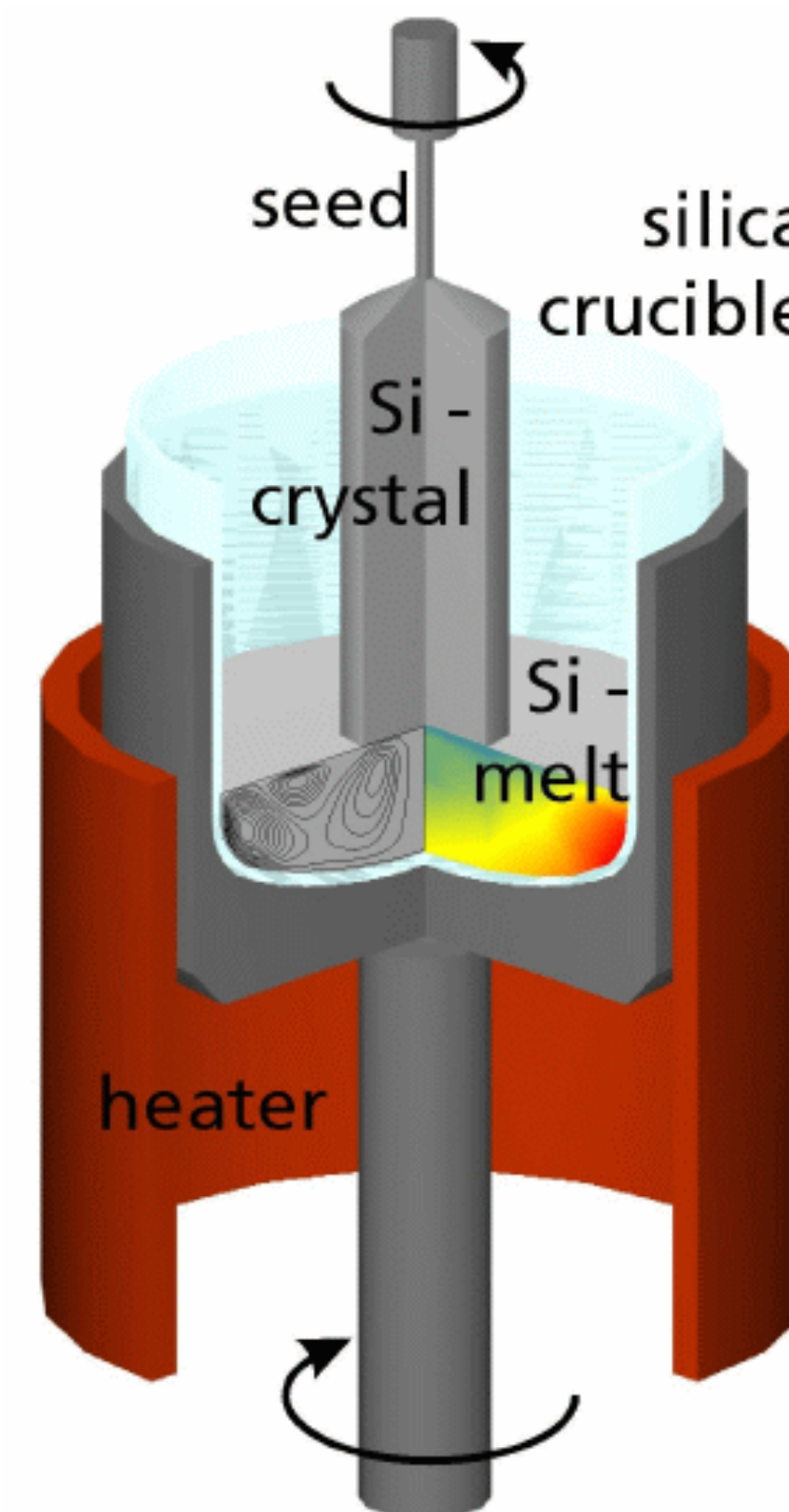


- single crystal seed
- melt the Poly-Si rod and
- 'pull' the single-crystal ingot

## mono crystalline Ingot



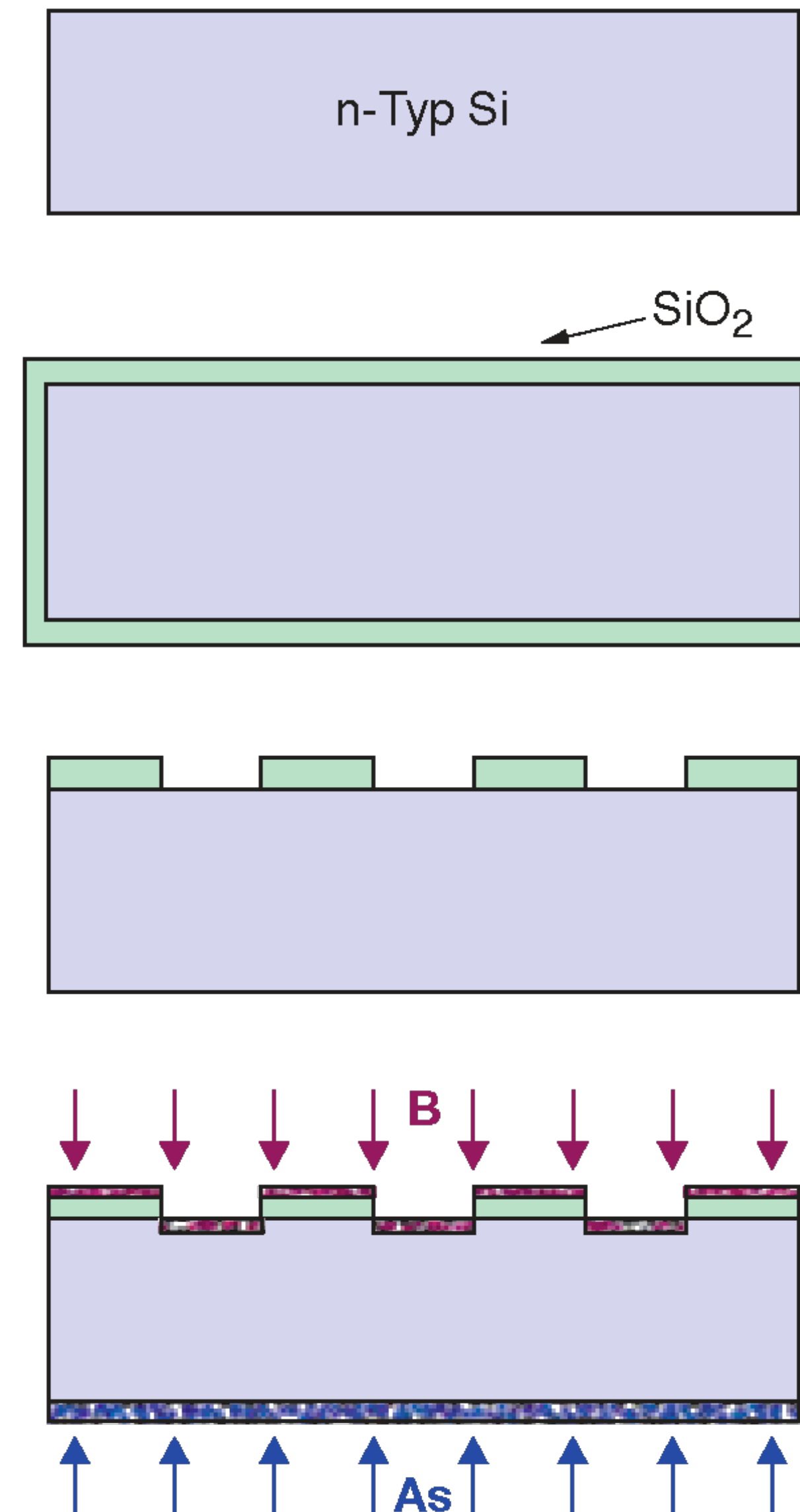
## Czochralski process



- Si melt in silica crucible
- 'pull' the single-crystal from melt
- less pure as O (and other) in melt
- used by IC industry
- now also available in higher resistivity

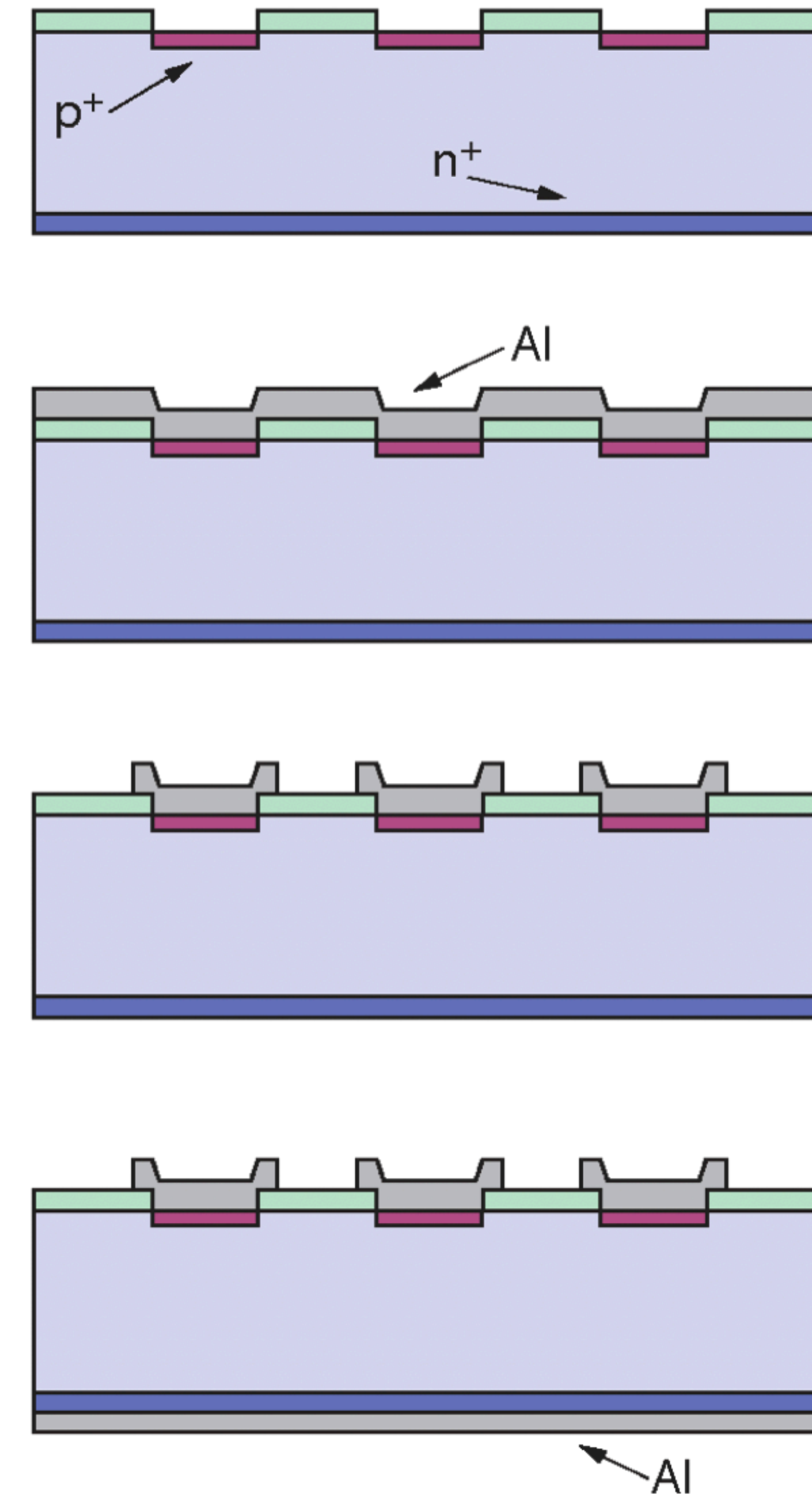


1. Starting Point: single-crystal n-doped wafer ( $N_D \approx 1-5 \cdot 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ )
2. Surface passivation by  $\text{SiO}_2$ -layer (approx. 200 nm thick). E.g. growing by (dry) thermal oxidation at 1030 °C.
3. Window opening using **photolithography technique** with etching, e.g. for strips
4. Doping using either
  - **Thermal diffusion** (furnace)
  - **Ion implantation**
    - p<sup>+</sup>-strip: Boron, 15 keV,  $N_A \approx 5 \cdot 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-2}$
    - Ohmic backplane: Arsenic, 30 keV,  $N_D \approx 5 \cdot 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-2}$



5. After ion implantation: **Curing** of damage via thermal annealing at approx. 600°C, (activation of dopant atoms by incorporation into silicon lattice)
6. **Metallization** of front side: sputtering or CVD
7. Removing of excess metal by photolithography: **etching** of non-covered areas
8. Full-area metallization of backplane with annealing at approx. 450°C for better adherence between metal and silicon

Last step: wafer **dicing** (cutting)





## The signal

- depends essentially only on the thickness of the depletion zone and on the  $dE/dx$  of the particle
- electron-hole pairs generated along the particle trajectory

## Reminder:

- mean energy loss per flight path of a mip  $dE/dx = 3.87 \text{ MeV/cm}$
- Fluctuations give the famous “Landau distribution”
- The “most probable value” MPV is 0.7 of the mean value
- For  $300 \mu\text{m}$  of silicon, most probable value is  
~23400 e<sup>-</sup> / h pairs

## The noise in a silicon detector system

- depends on various parameters: geometry, biasing scheme, readout electronics
- typically given as “equivalent noise charge” ENC
- This is the noise at the input of the amplifier in elementary charges
- Most important wise contributions from:

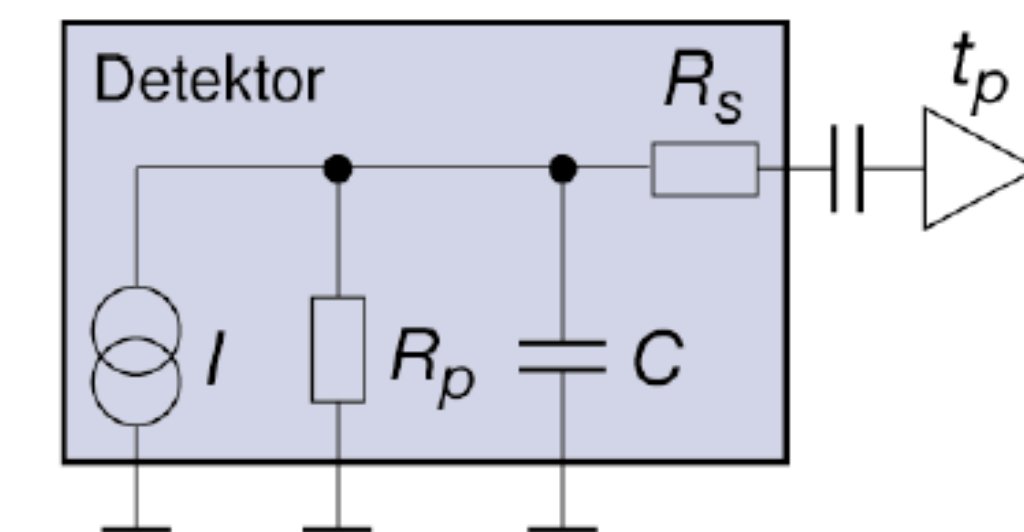
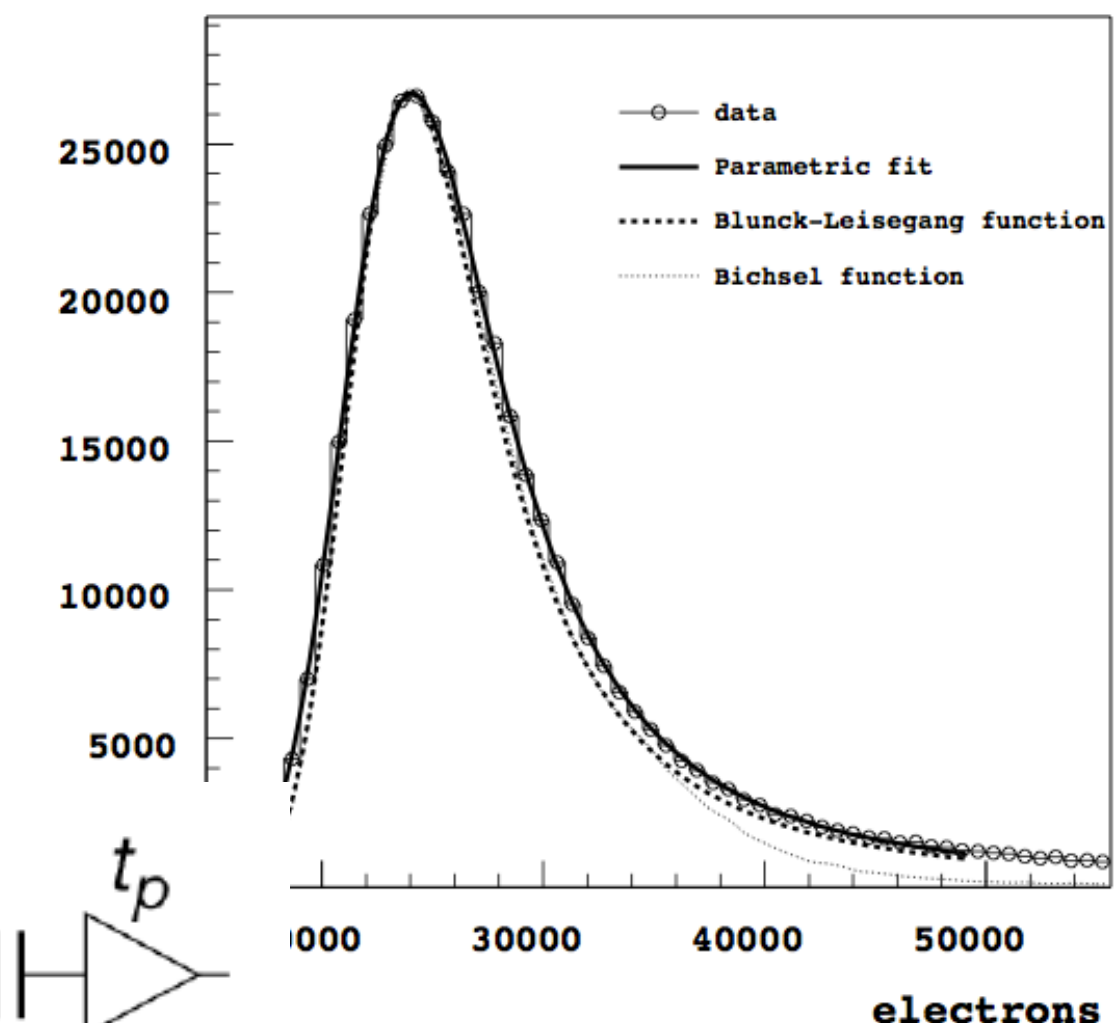
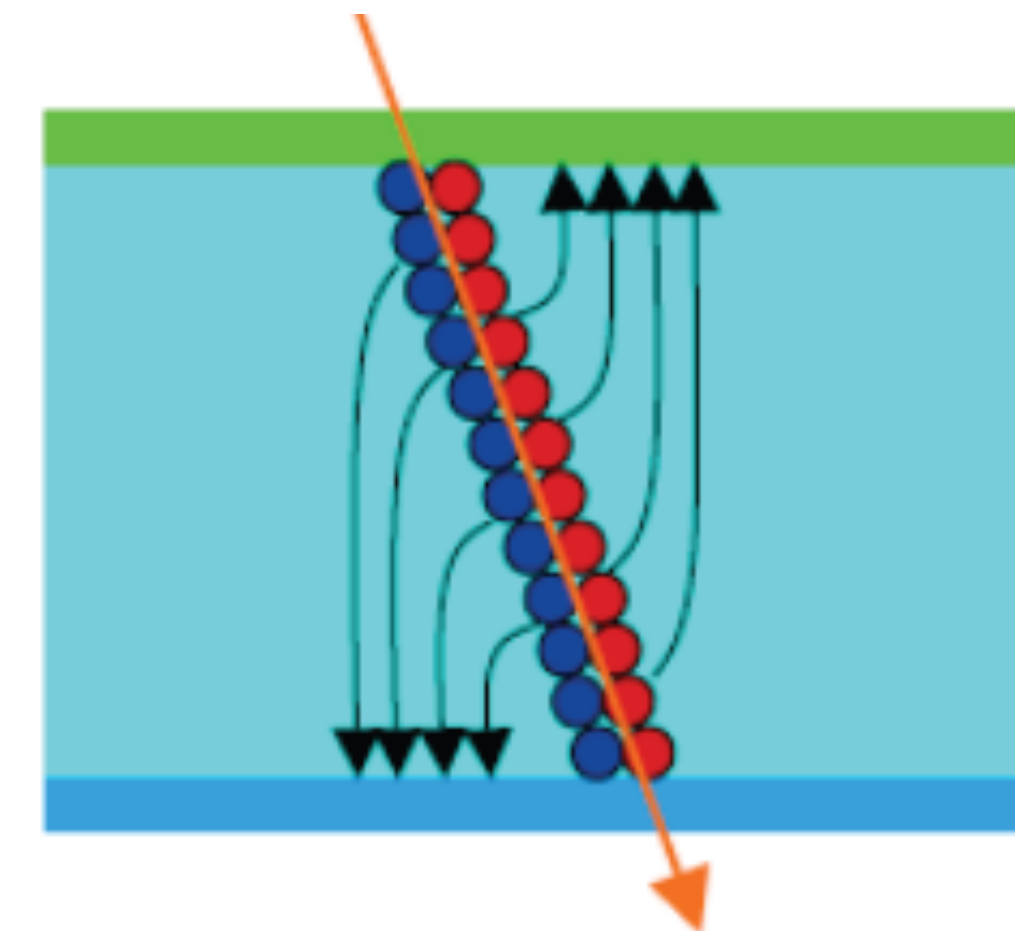
Leakage current ( $\text{ENC}_I$ )

Detector parallel resistor ( $\text{ENC}_{R_p}$ )

Detector capacitance ( $\text{ENC}_C$ )

Detector series resistor ( $\text{ENC}_{R_s}$ )

$$\text{ENC} = \sqrt{\text{ENC}_C^2 + \text{ENC}_I^2 + \text{ENC}_{R_p}^2 + \text{ENC}_{R_s}^2}$$

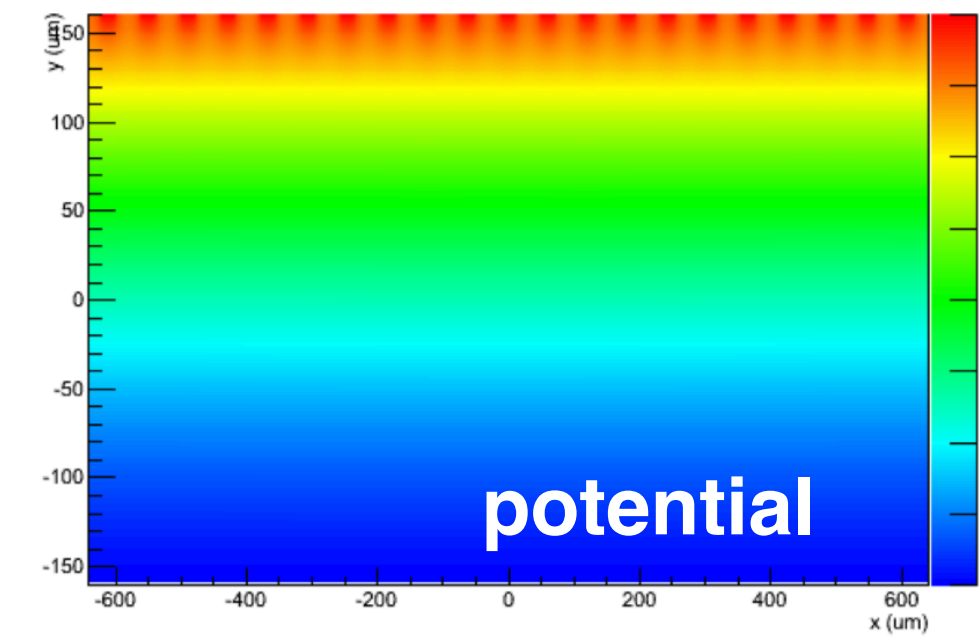


Equivalent circuit diagram of a silicon detector.

**exercise**  
**Landau distribution**

## Drift under E-field

- $p^+$  strips on  $n^-$  bulk
- $p^+$  —ve bias
- Holes to  $p^+$  strips, electrons to  $n^+$  back-plane
- **E-field determines the charge trajectory and velocity**



## Typical bias conditions

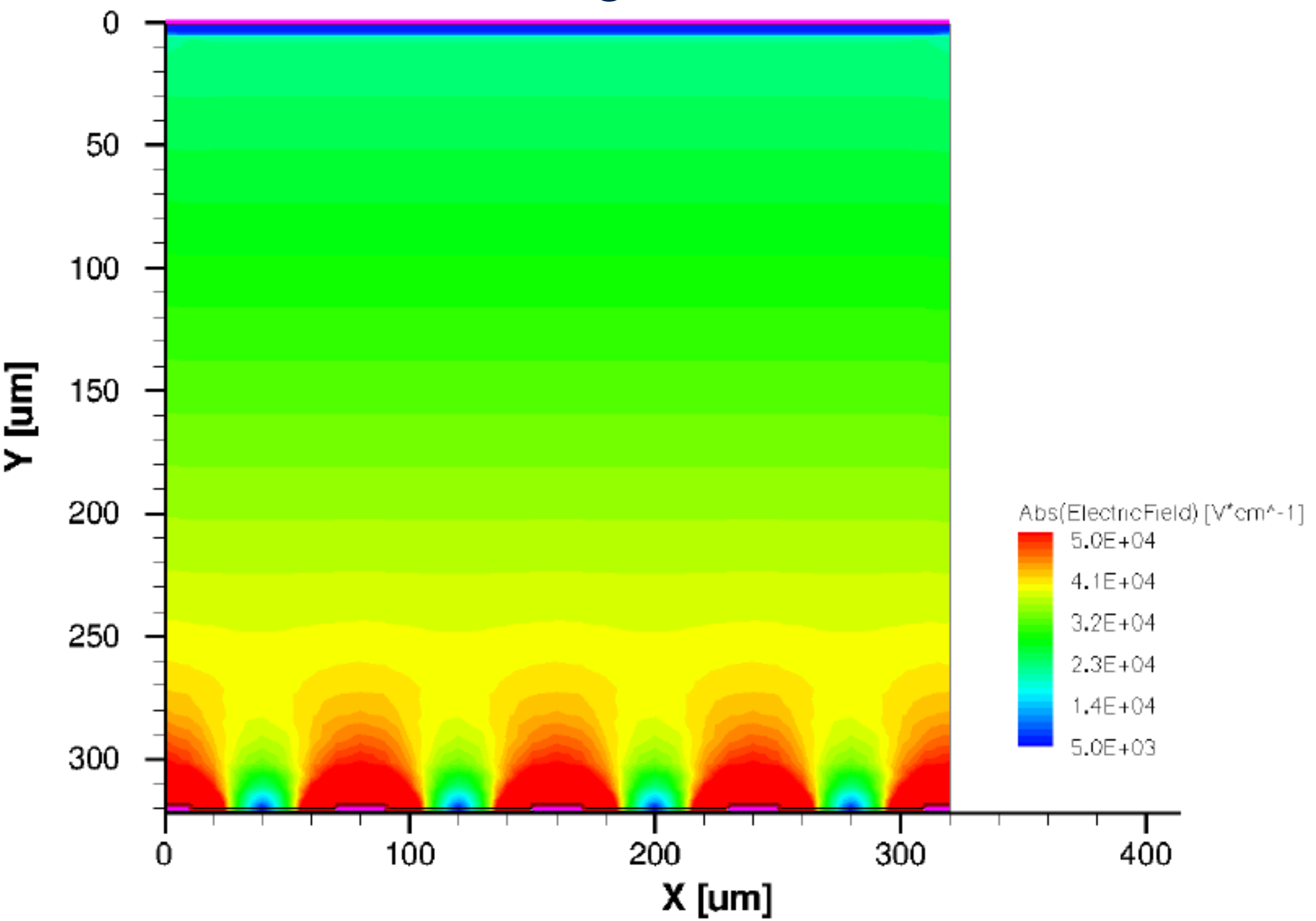
- 100V,  $W=300\mu\text{m}$   $E=3.3\text{kVcm}^{-1}$
- Collection time:  $e=7\text{ns}$ ,  $h=19\text{ns}$



- a typical silicon sensor
- thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
- n bulk
- p+ readout strips

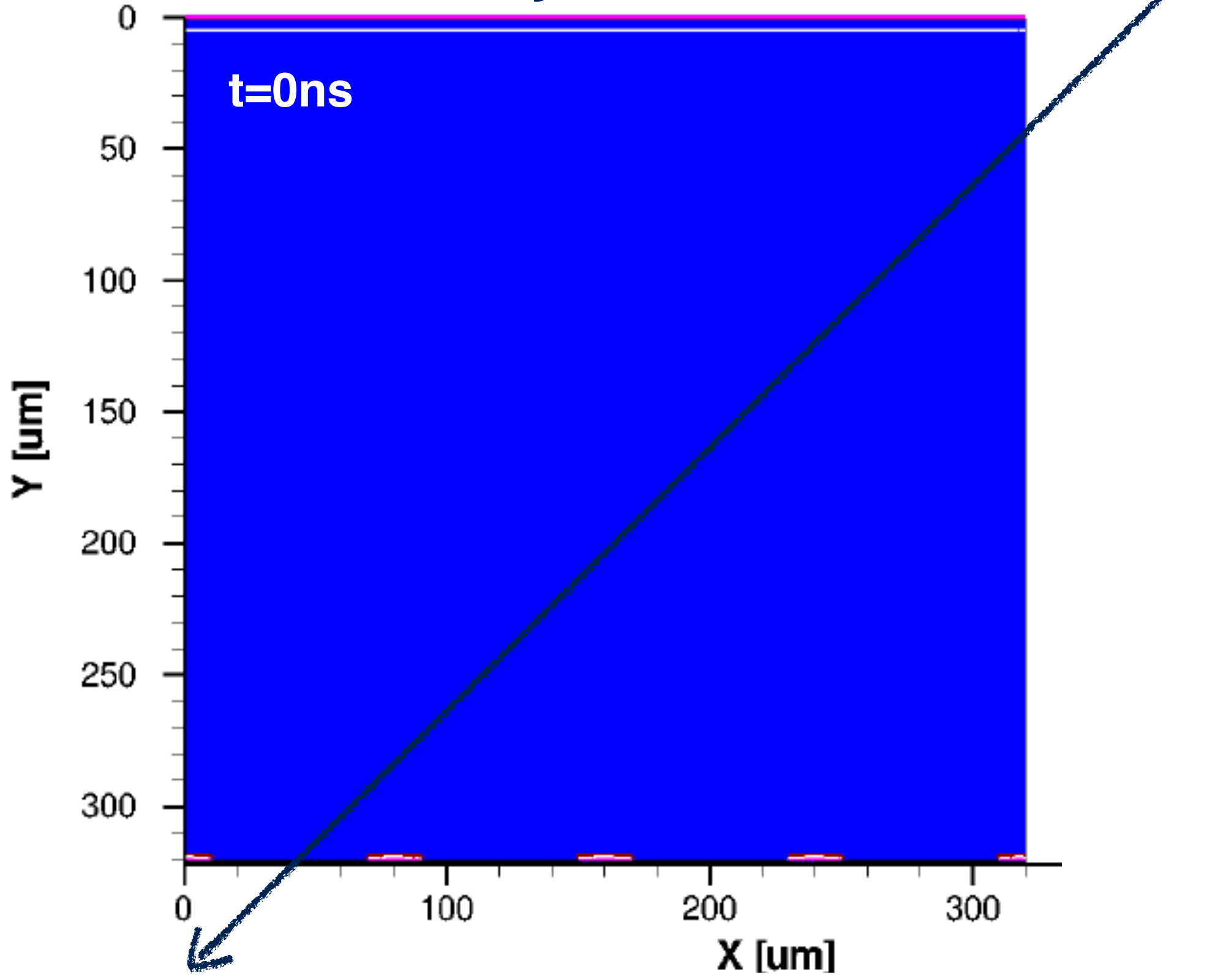
Ionizing particle at 45° incidence

Electric field configuration



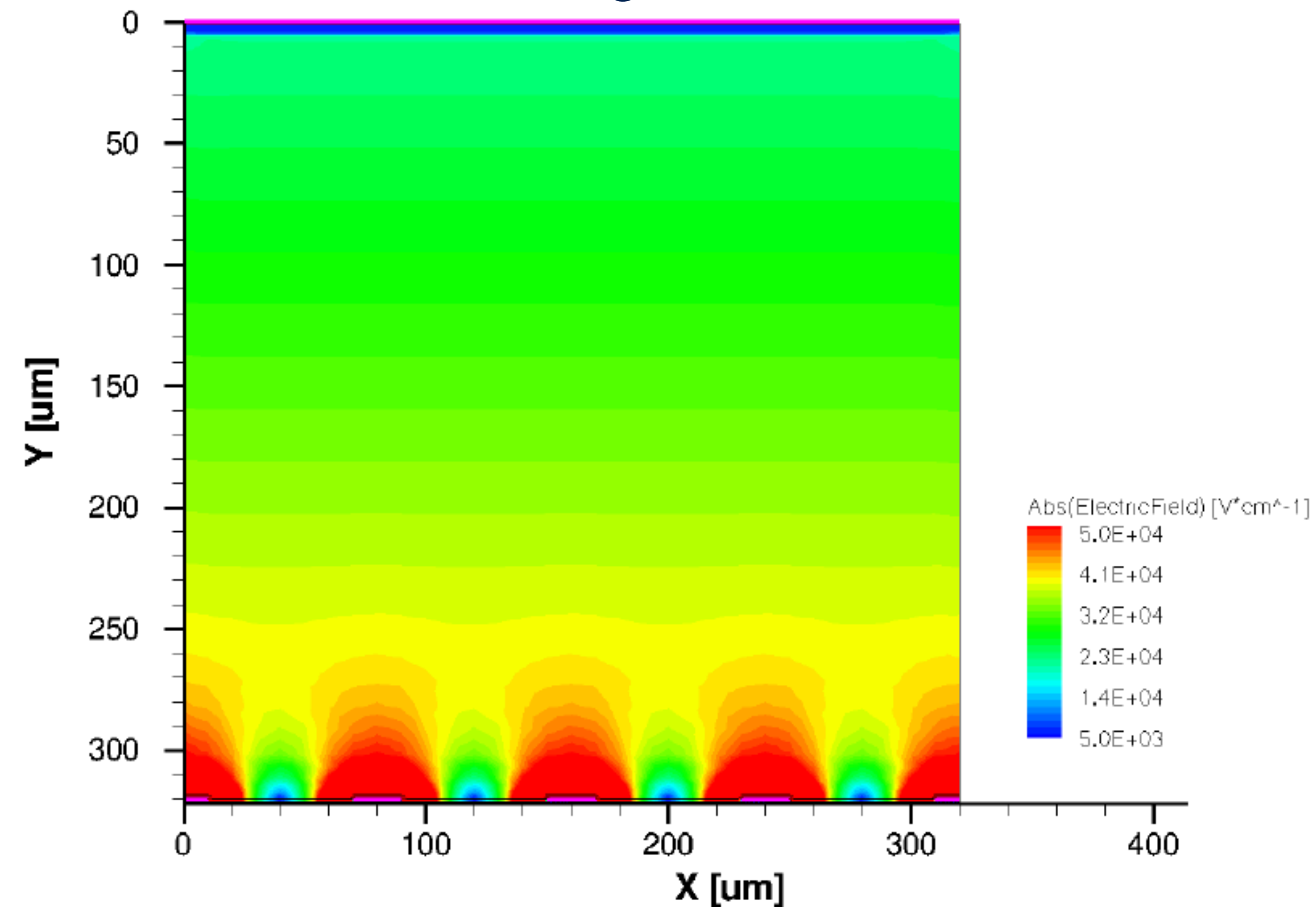
Simulation with Synopsys TCAD by Thomas Eichorn

current density

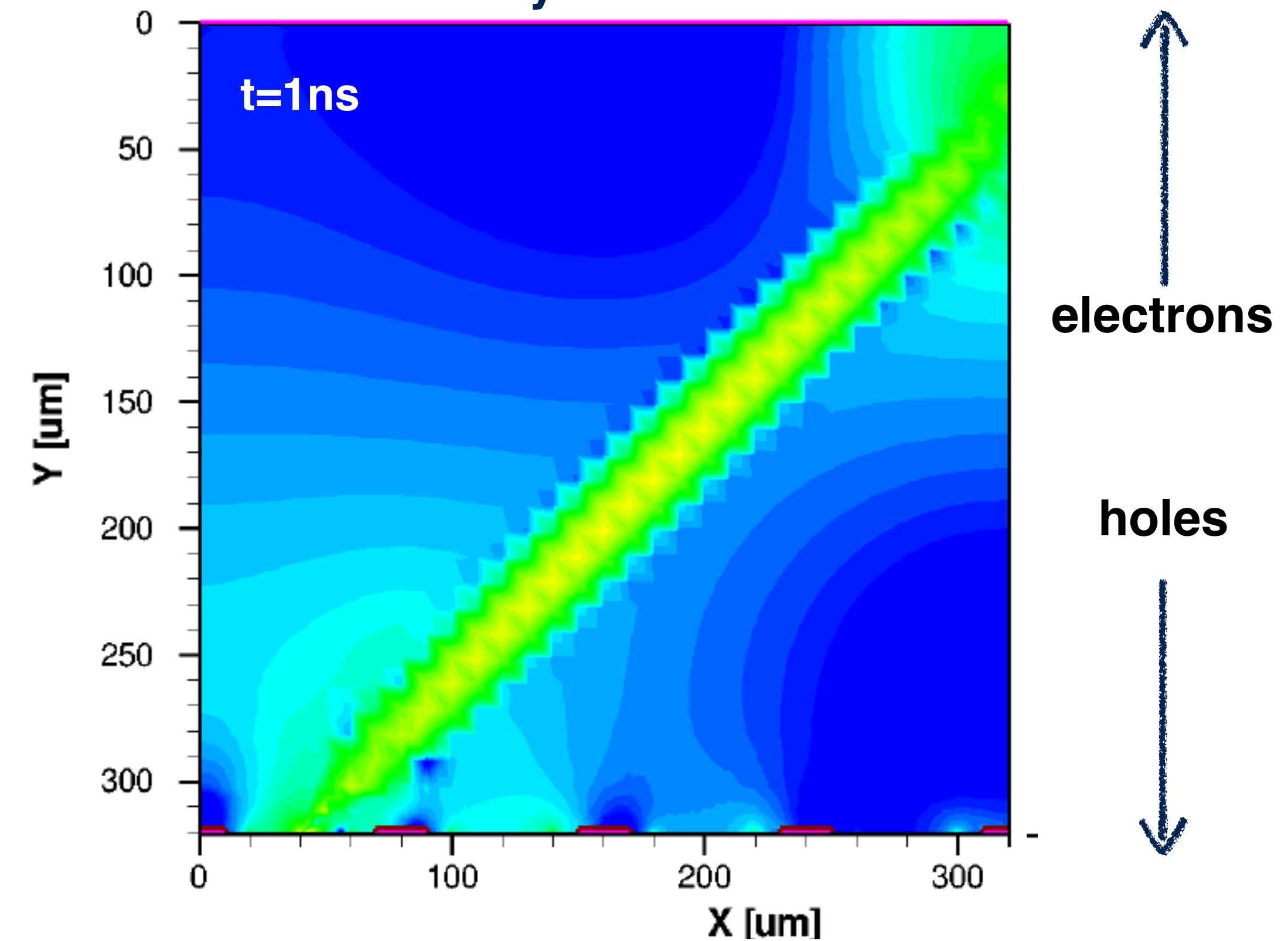


- a typical silicon sensor
- thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
- n bulk
- p+ readout strips

Electric field configuration



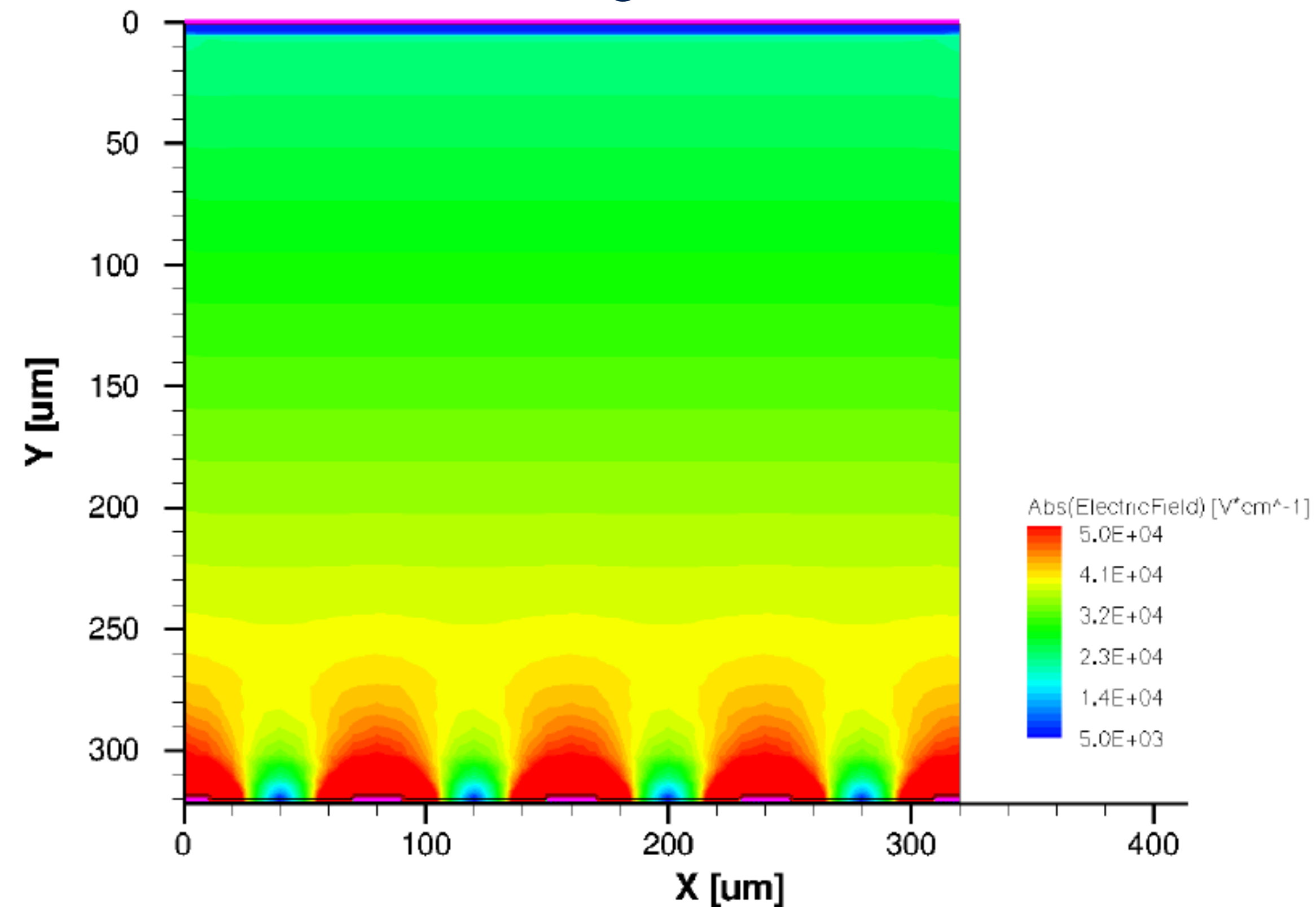
current density



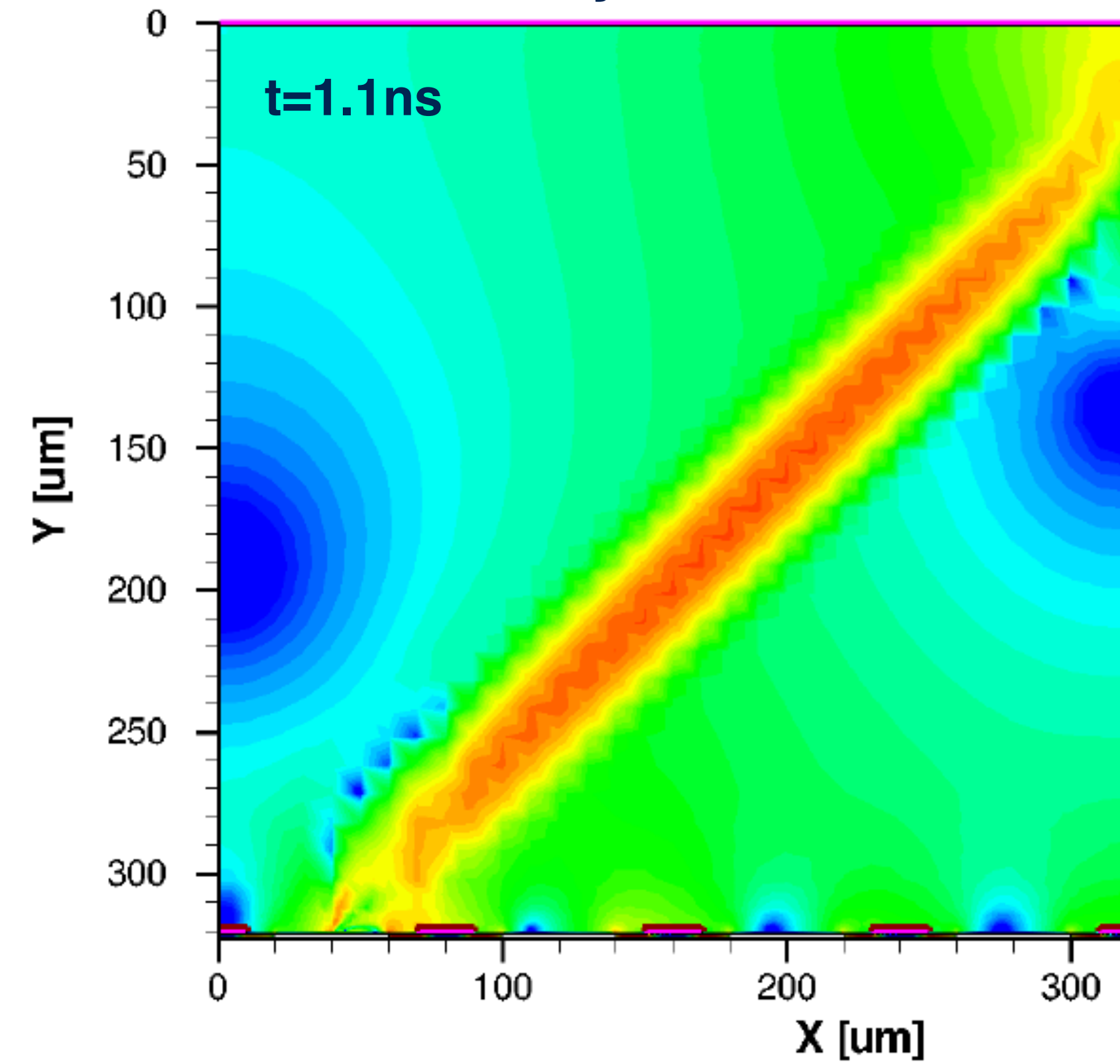


- a typical silicon sensor
- thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
- n bulk
- p+ readout strips

Electric field configuration



current density

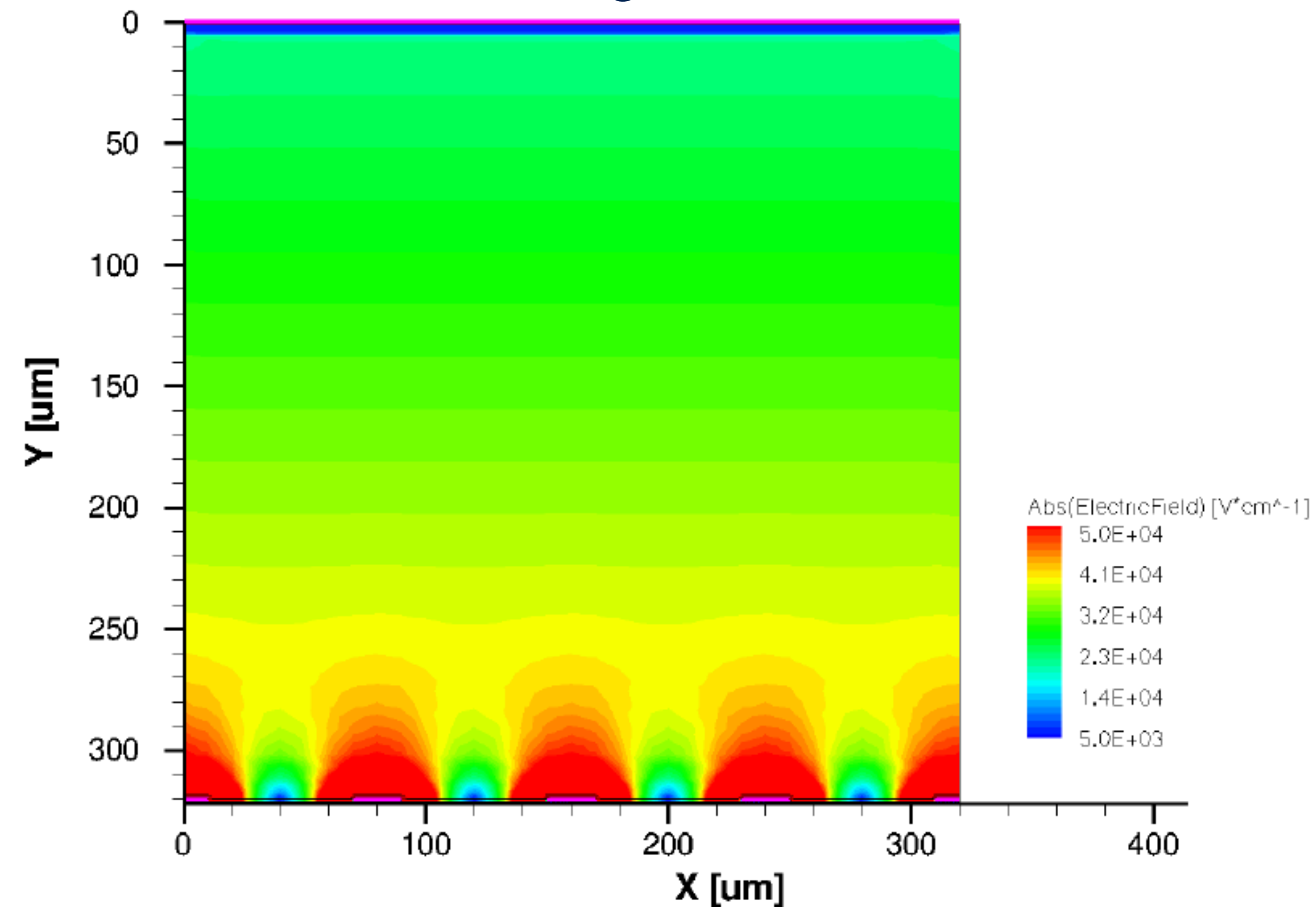


↑  
electrons

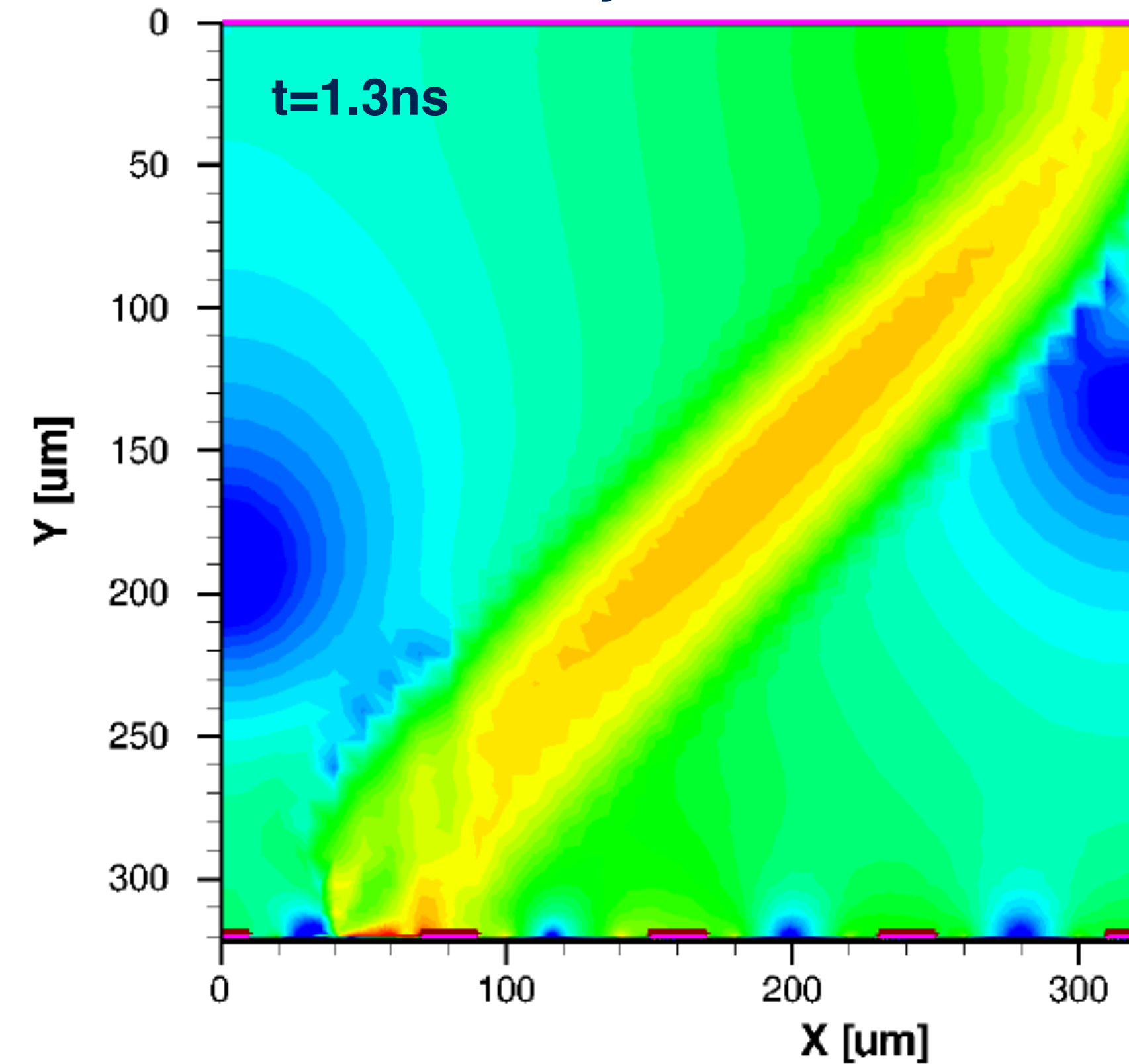
holes  
↓

- a typical silicon sensor
- thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
- n bulk
- p+ readout strips

Electric field configuration



current density



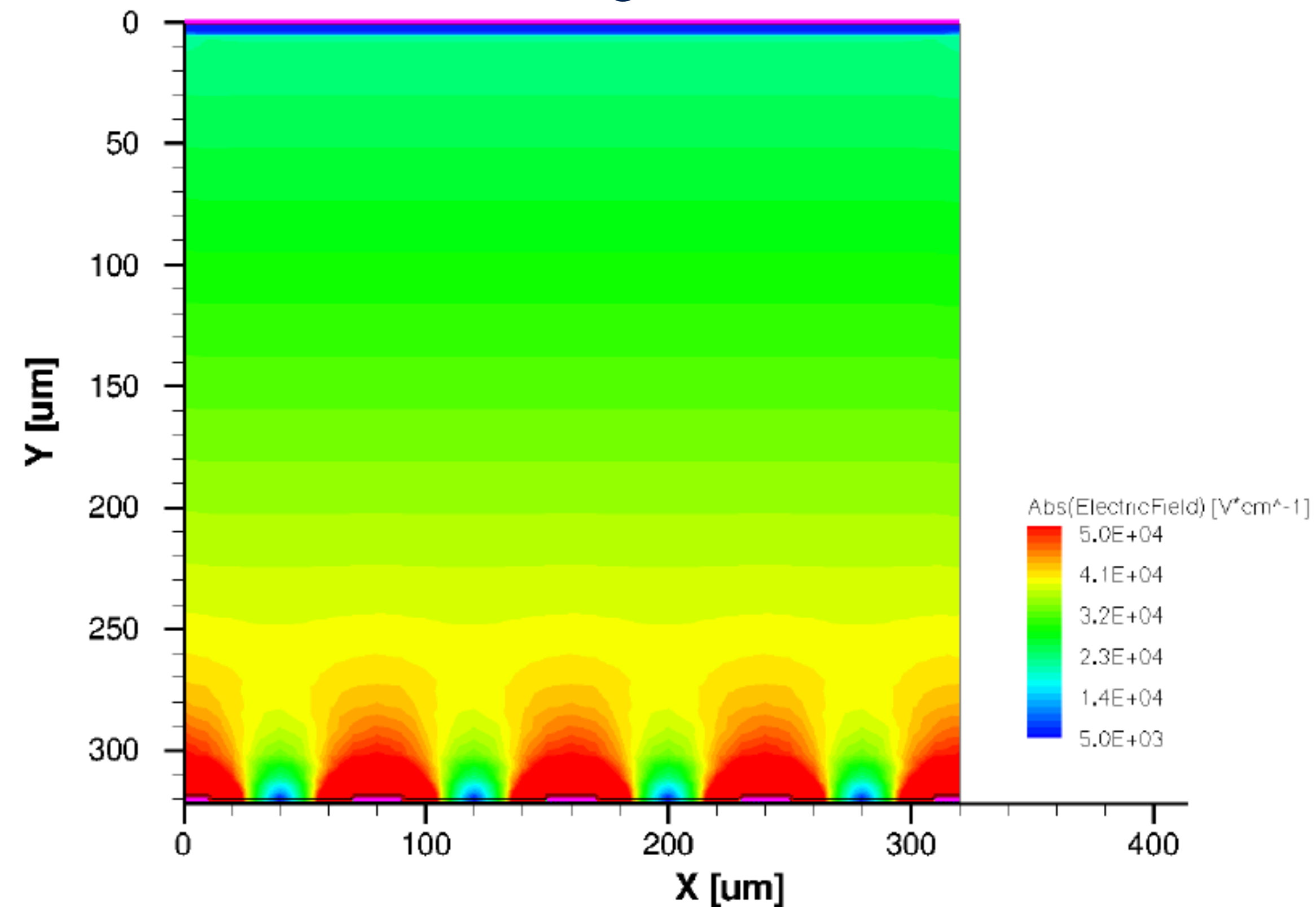
↑  
electrons

holes  
↓

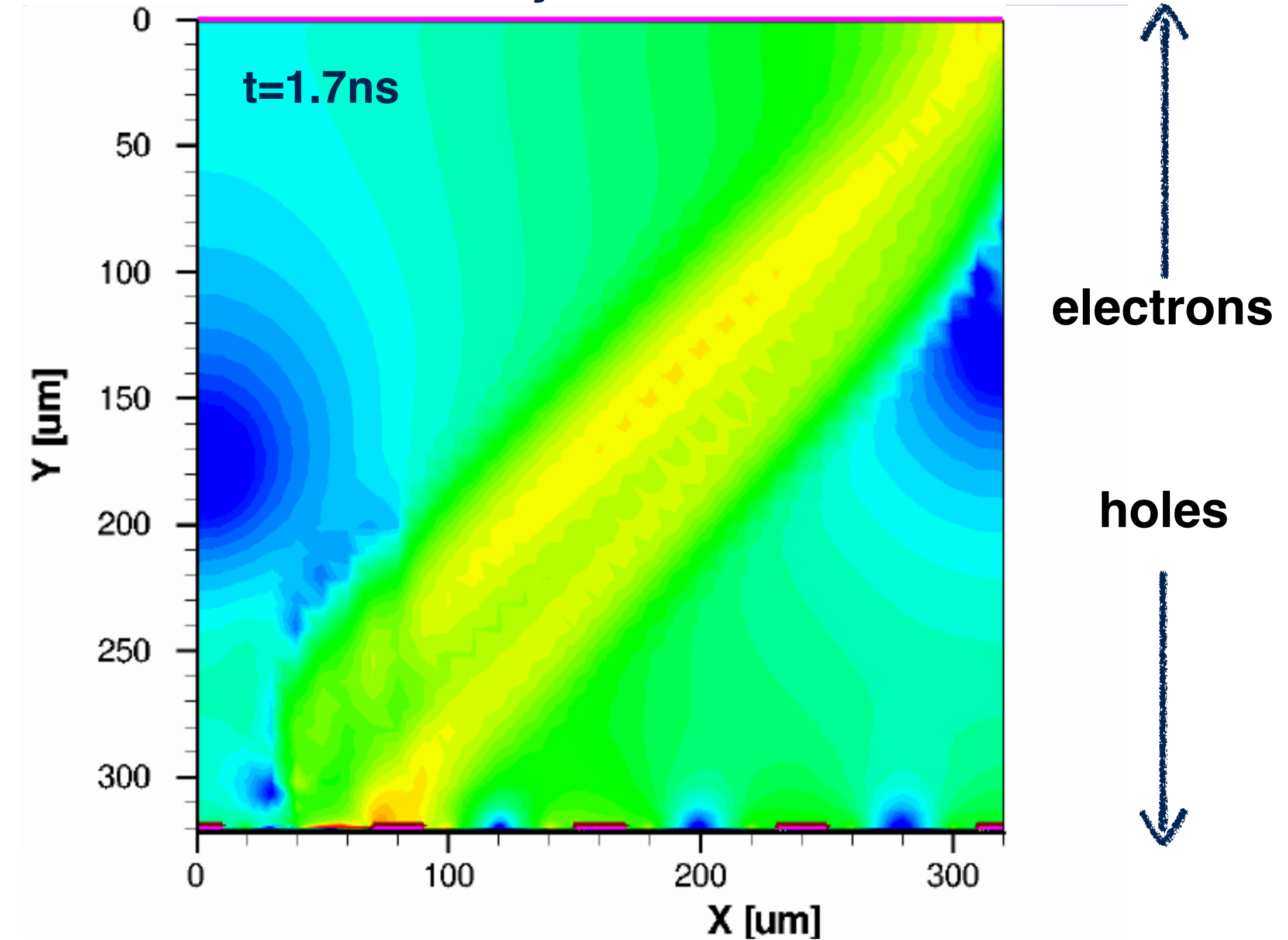


- a typical silicon sensor
- thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
- n bulk
- p+ readout strips

Electric field configuration

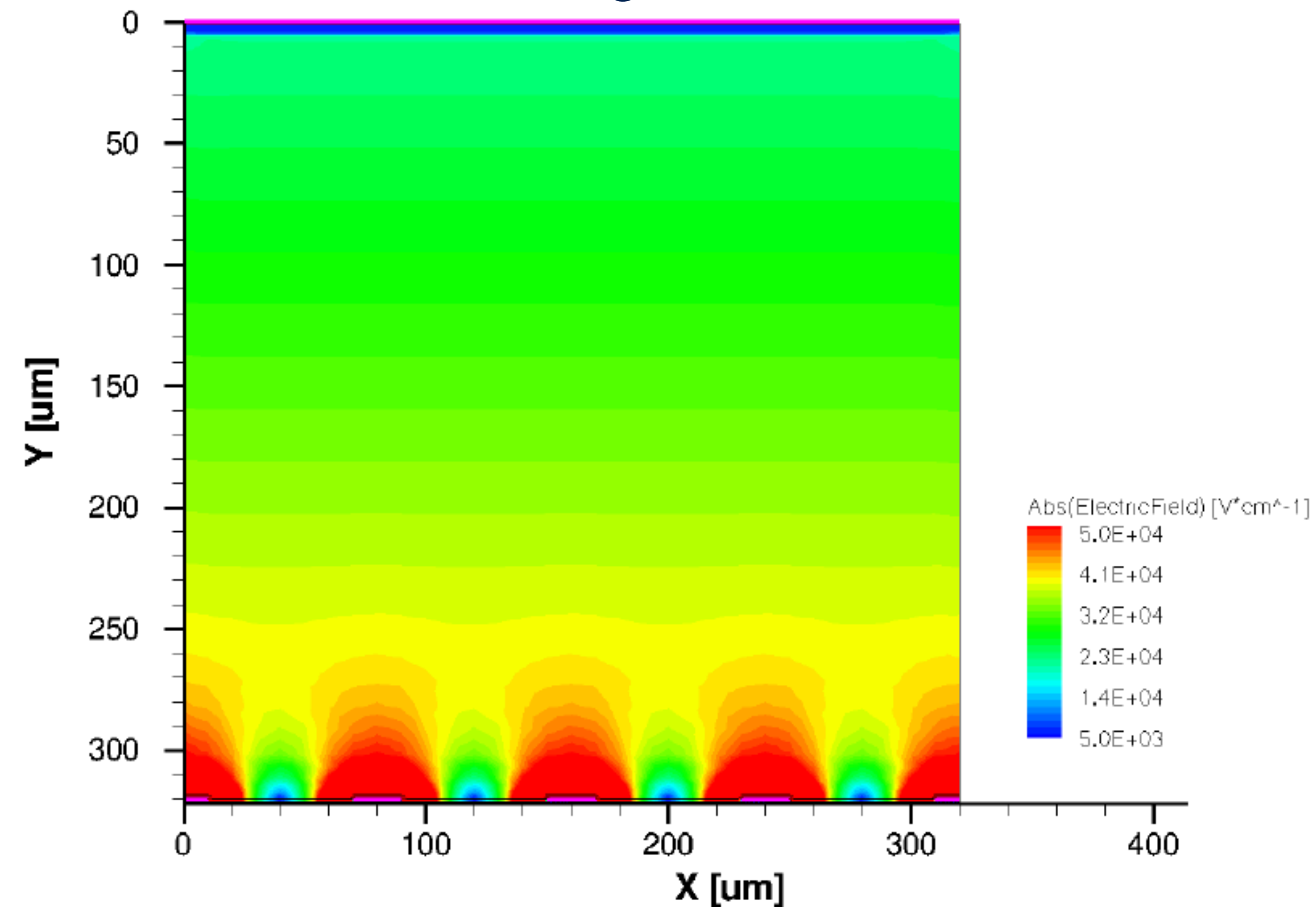


current density

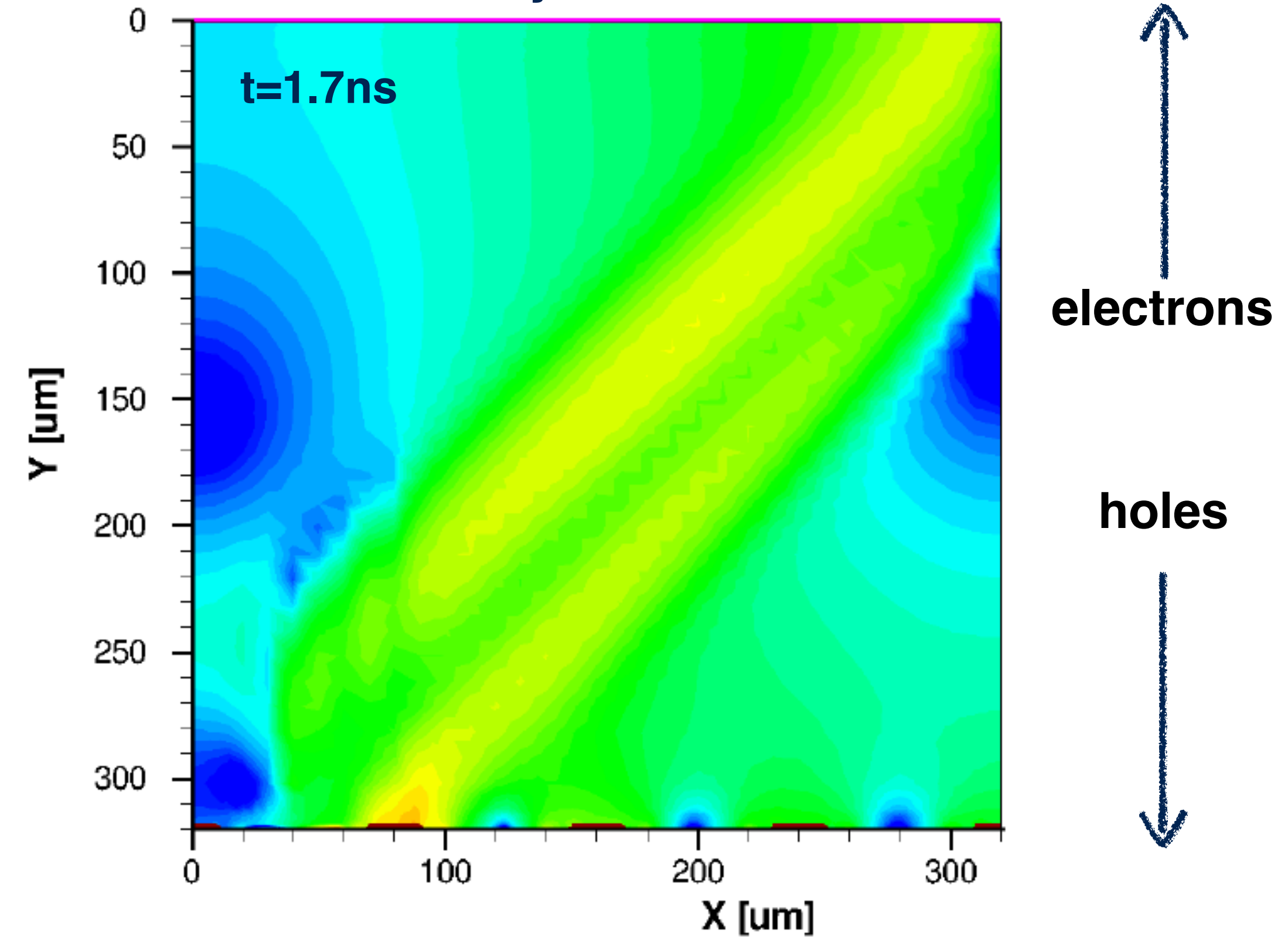


- a typical silicon sensor
- thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
- n bulk
- p+ readout strips

Electric field configuration



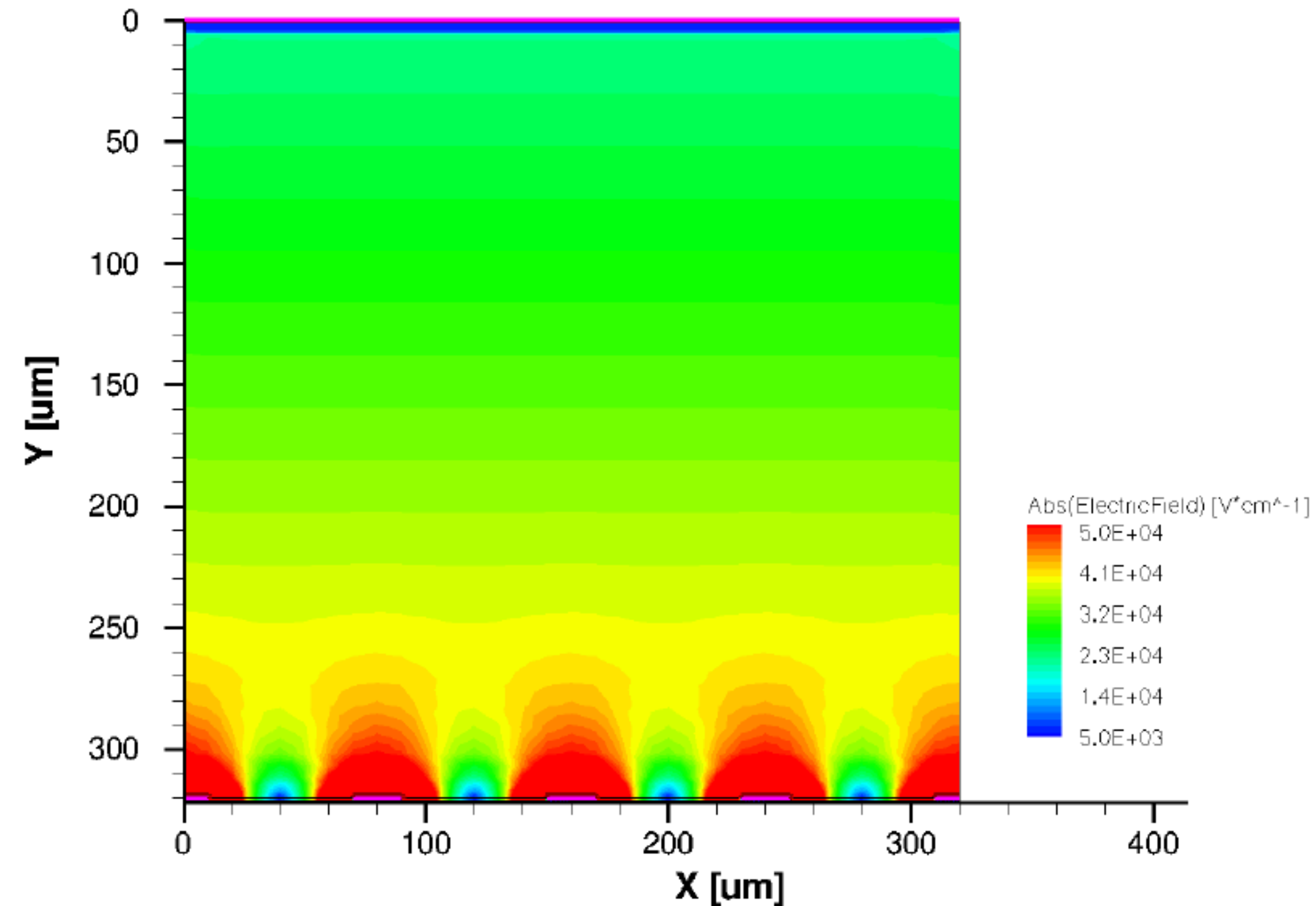
current density



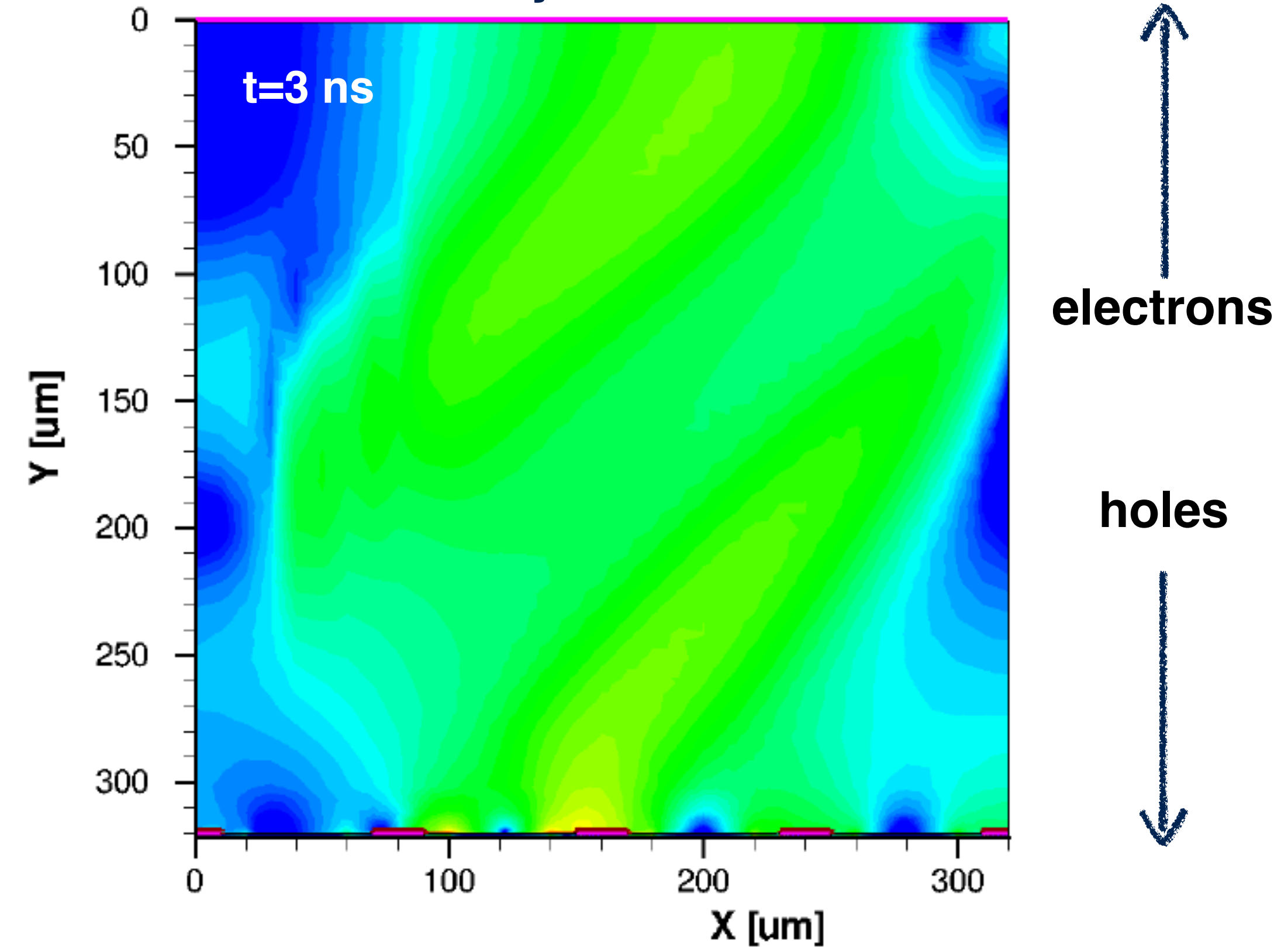


- a typical silicon sensor
- thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
- n bulk
- p+ readout strips

Electric field configuration

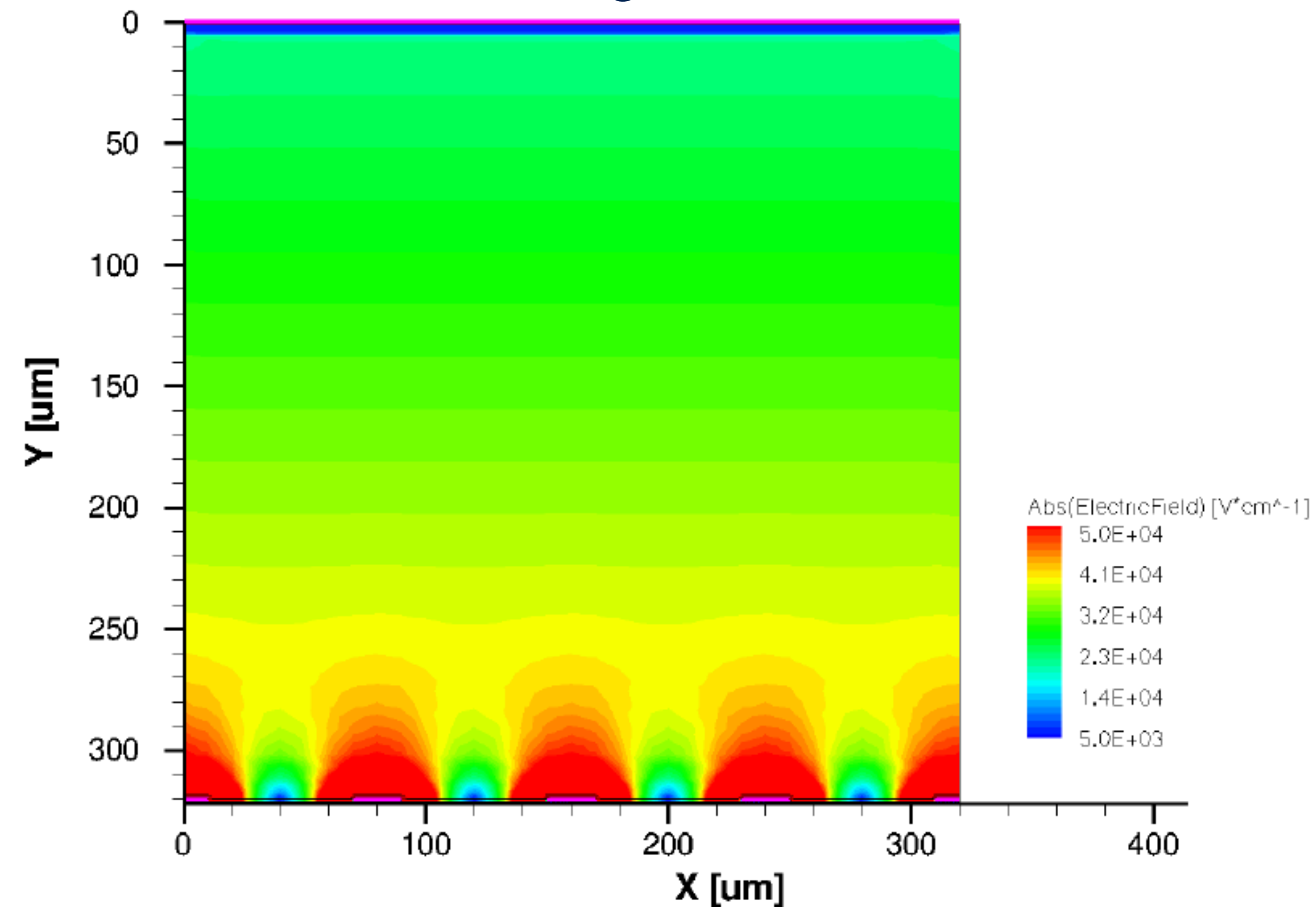


current density

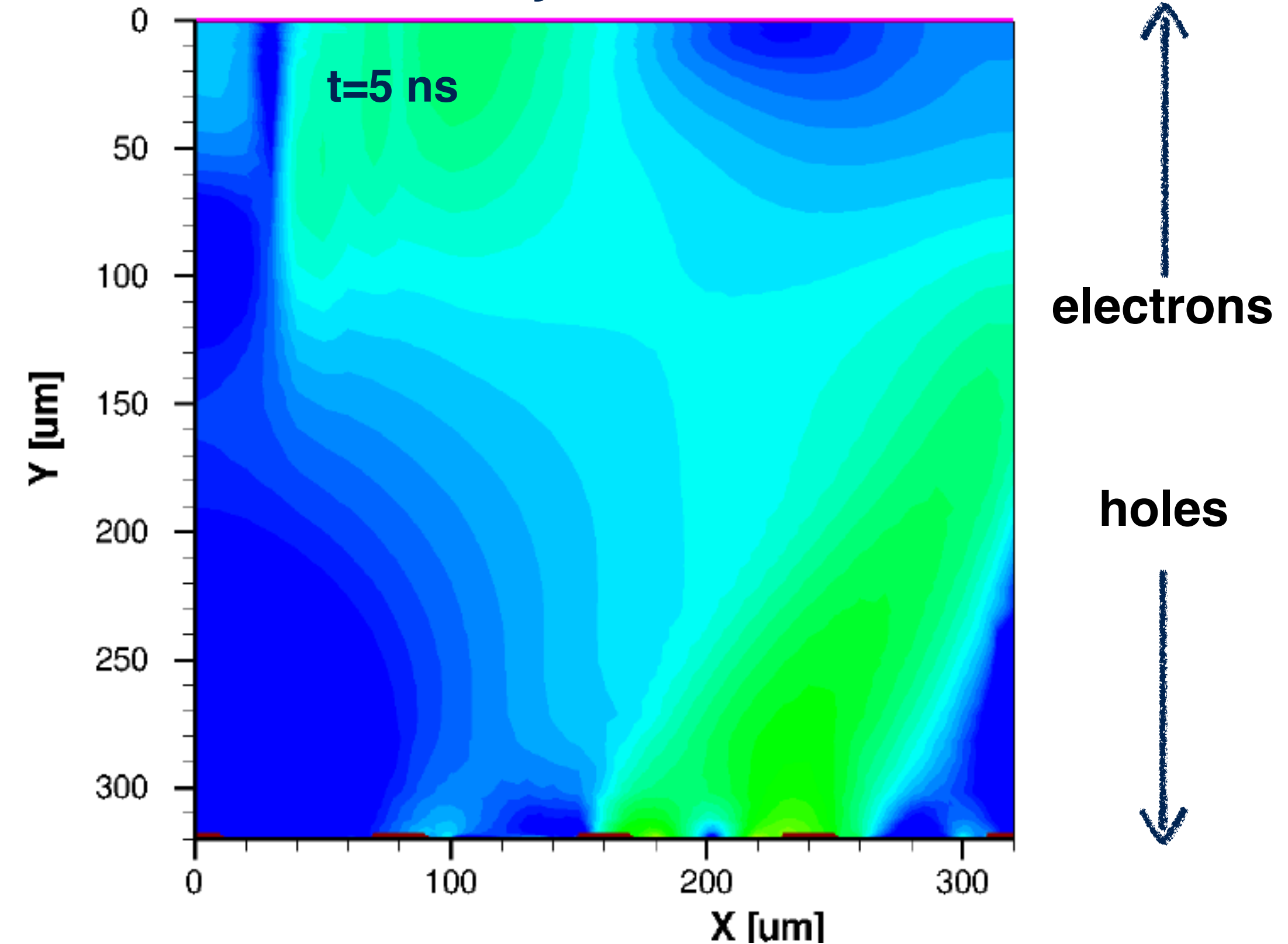


- a typical silicon sensor
- thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
- n bulk
- p+ readout strips

Electric field configuration



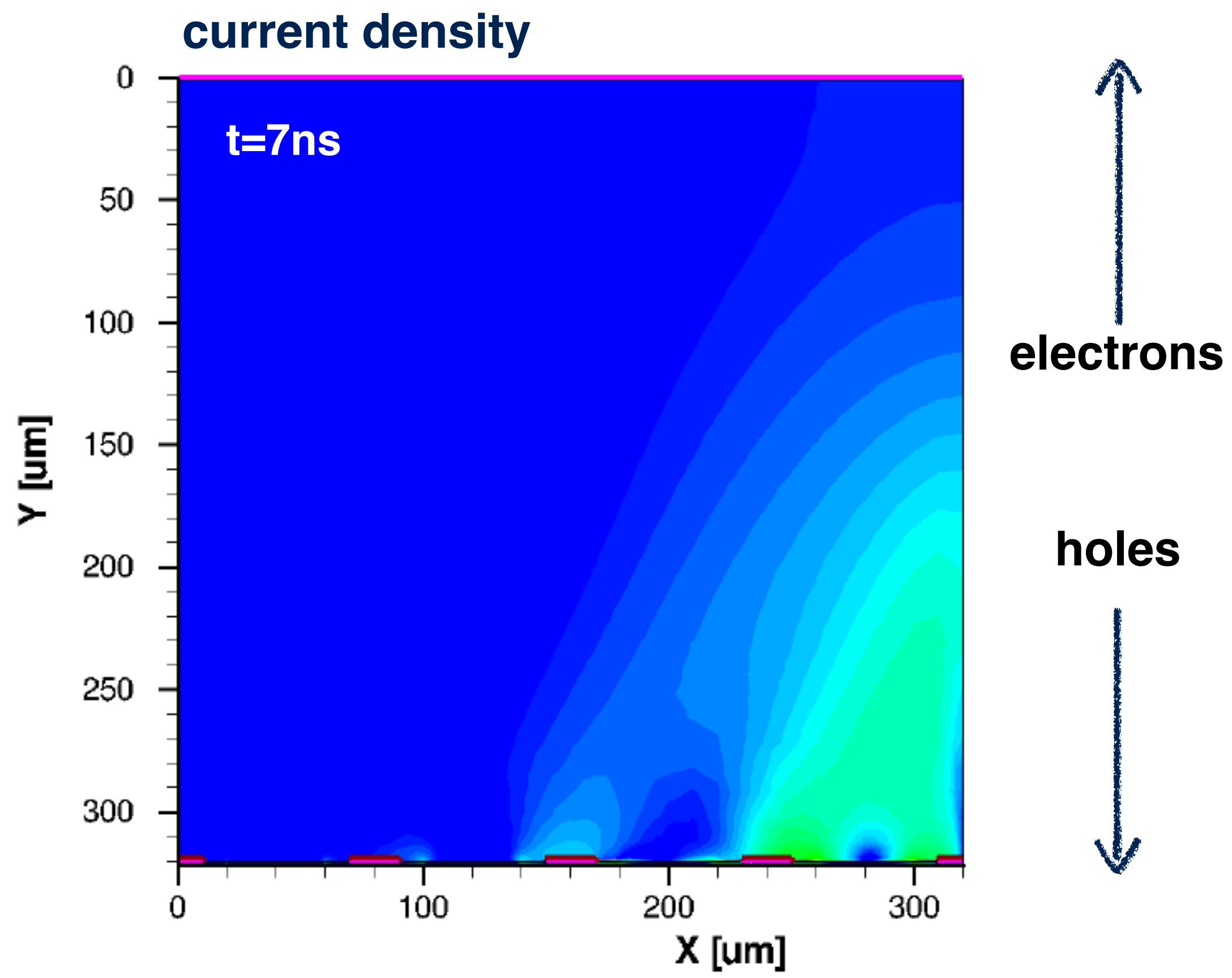
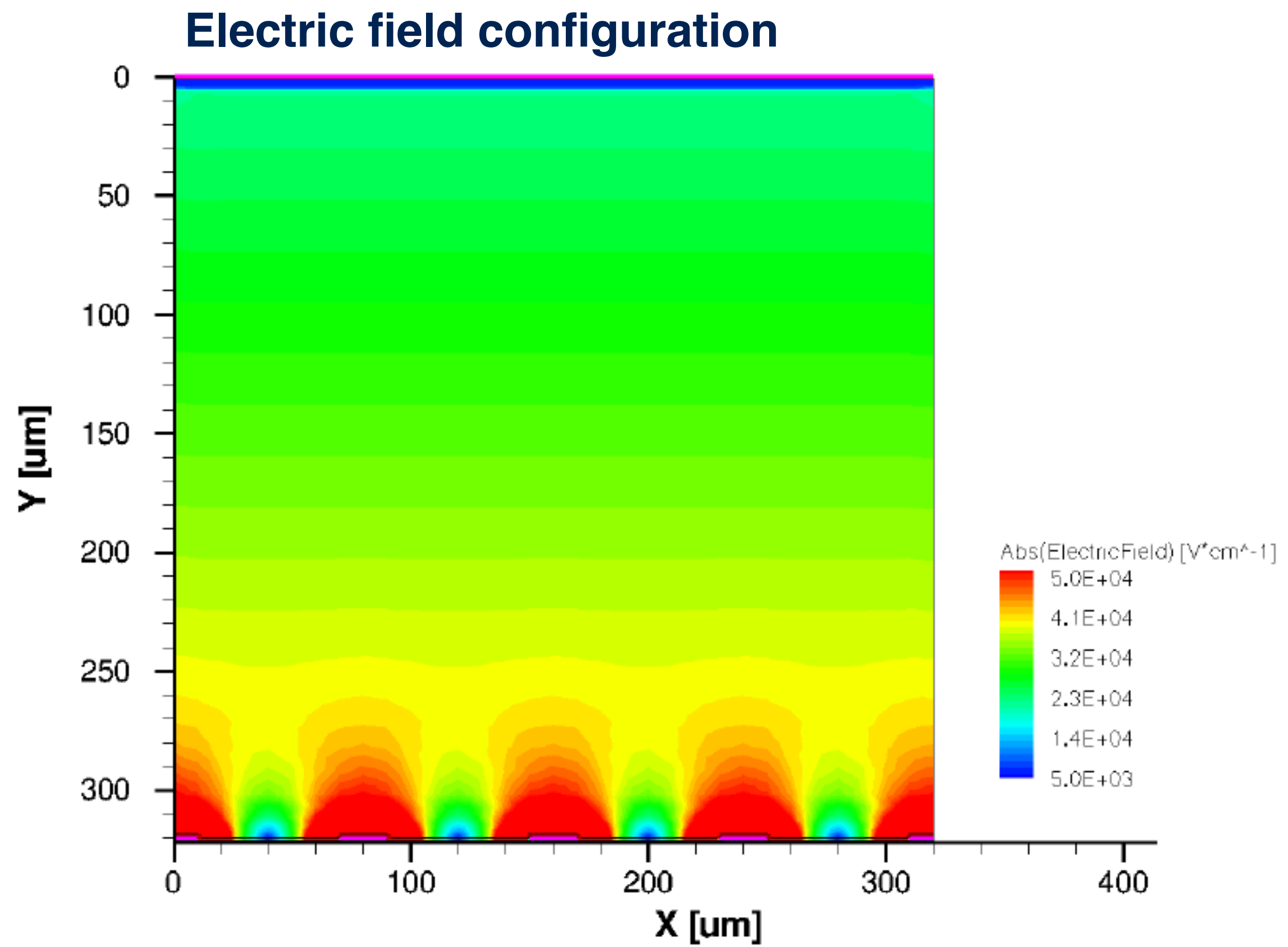
current density





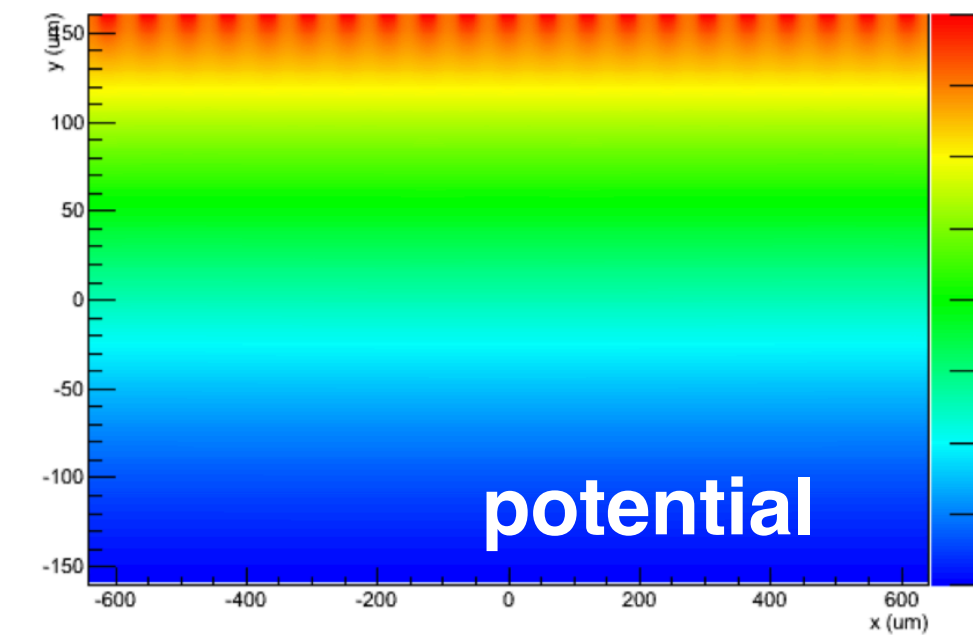
- a typical silicon sensor
- thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
- n bulk
- p+ readout strips

electrons collected  
holes still drifting



## Drift under E-field

- $p^+$  strips on  $n^-$  bulk
- $p^+$  —ve bias
- Holes to  $p^+$  strips, electrons to  $n^+$  back-plane
- **E-field determines the charge trajectory and velocity**

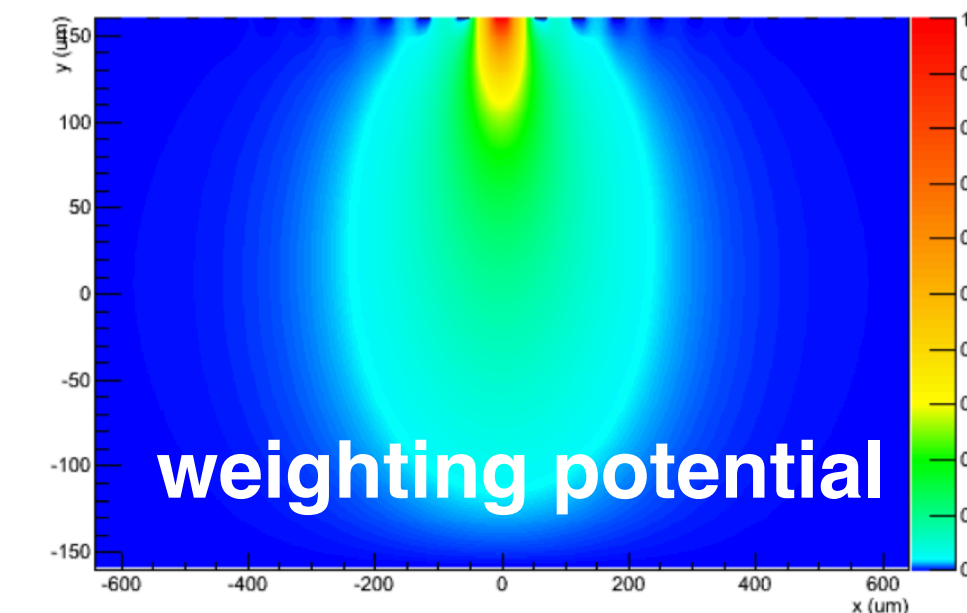


## Typical bias conditions

- 100V,  $W=300\mu\text{m}$   $E=3.3\text{kVcm}^{-1}$
- Collection time:  $e=7\text{ns}$ ,  $h=19\text{ns}$

## Signal induced on electrode

- due to the motion of charge carriers inside the detector volume & the carriers crossing the electrode
- See a signal as soon as carriers move
- **weighting field** determines how charge couples to specific electrode



Currents induced by electron motion.  
Simon Ramo  
Published in *Proc.IRE*.27:584-585,1939

- **Simple diode:**
  - Signal generated equally from movement through entire thickness
  - weighting field and electric field are the same
- **Strip/pixel detector:**
  - Almost all signal due to carrier movement near the sense electrode (strips/pixels)

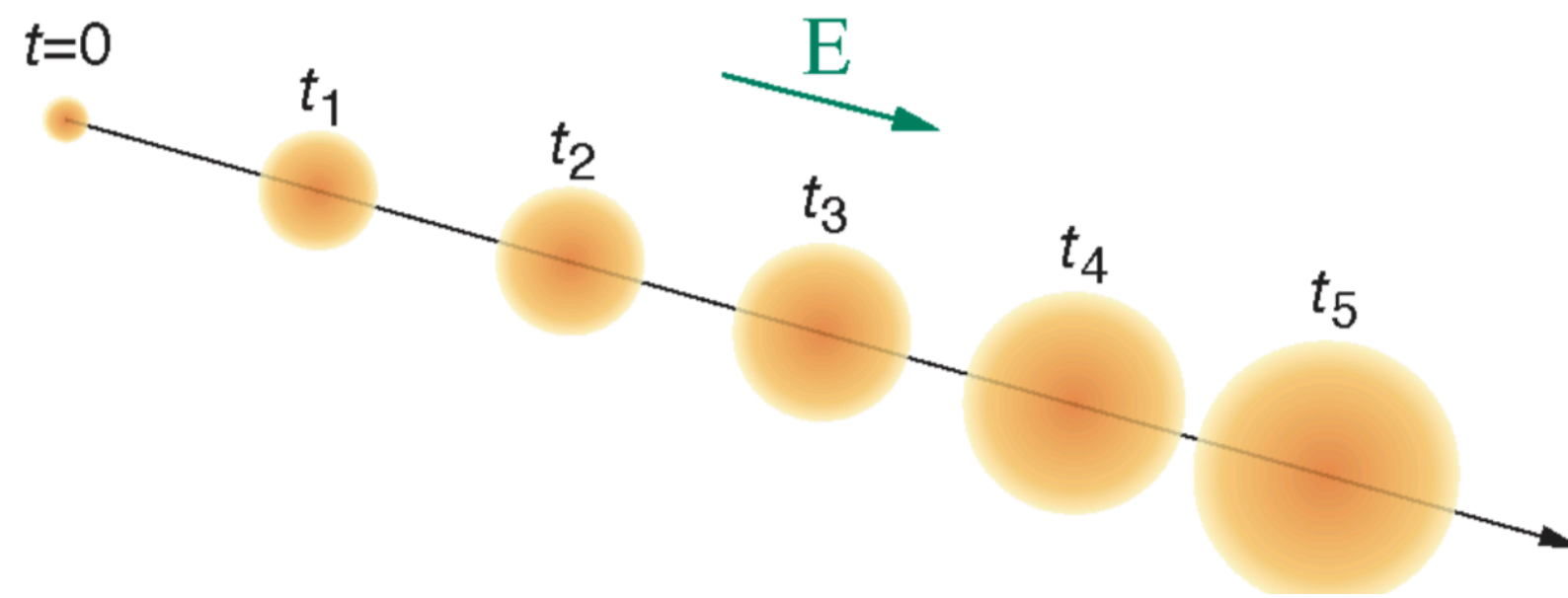
—> make sure, the device is depleted under signal readout electrodes

exercise  
weighting field

exercise  
TCT wit laser



## Diffusion



- Diffusion is caused by random thermal motion
- Width of charge cloud after a time t given by

$$\sigma_D = \sqrt{2Dt}$$

with:  $D = \frac{kT}{e} \mu$

$\sigma_D$  ... width "root-mean-square" of the charge carrier distribution  
 $t$  ... drift time  
 $k$  ... Boltzmann constant  
 $e$  ... electron charge

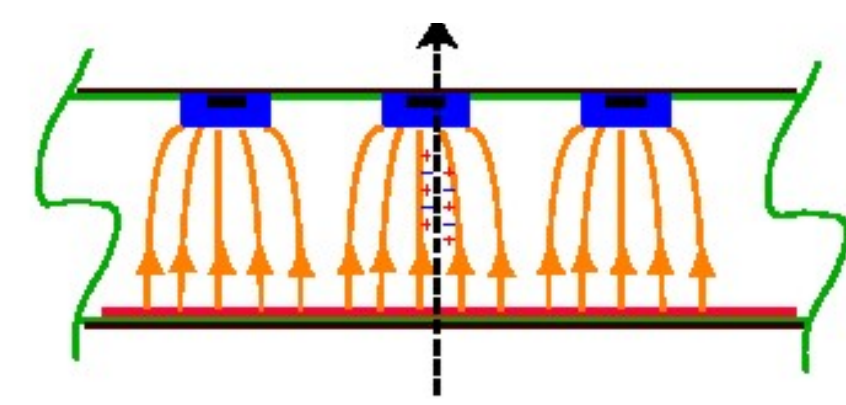
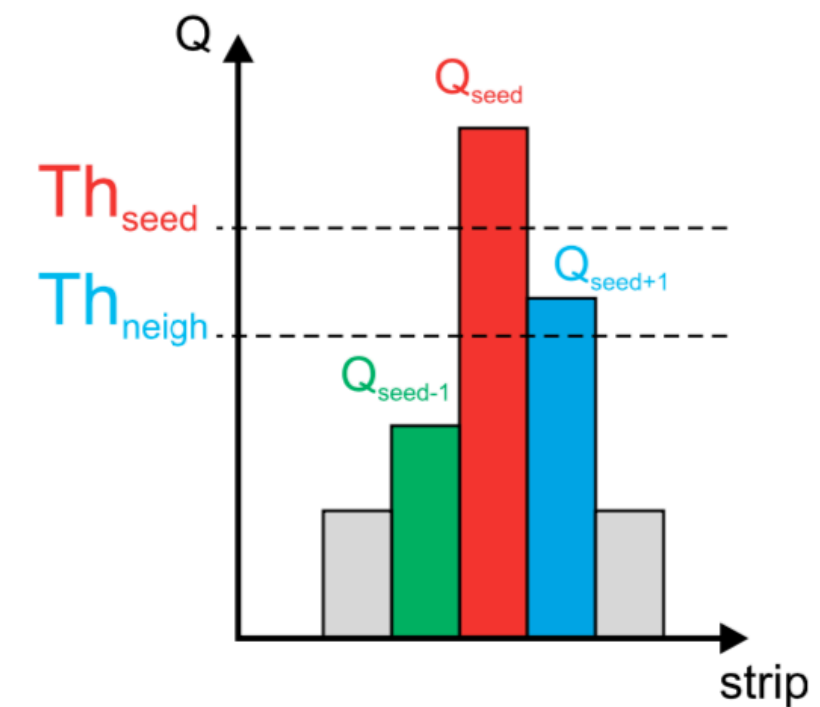
$D$  ... diffusion coefficient  
 $T$  ... temperature  
 $\mu$  ... charge carrier mobility

Note:  $D \propto \mu$  and  $t \propto 1/\mu$ , hence  $\sigma_D$  is equal for  $e^-$  and  $h^+$ .

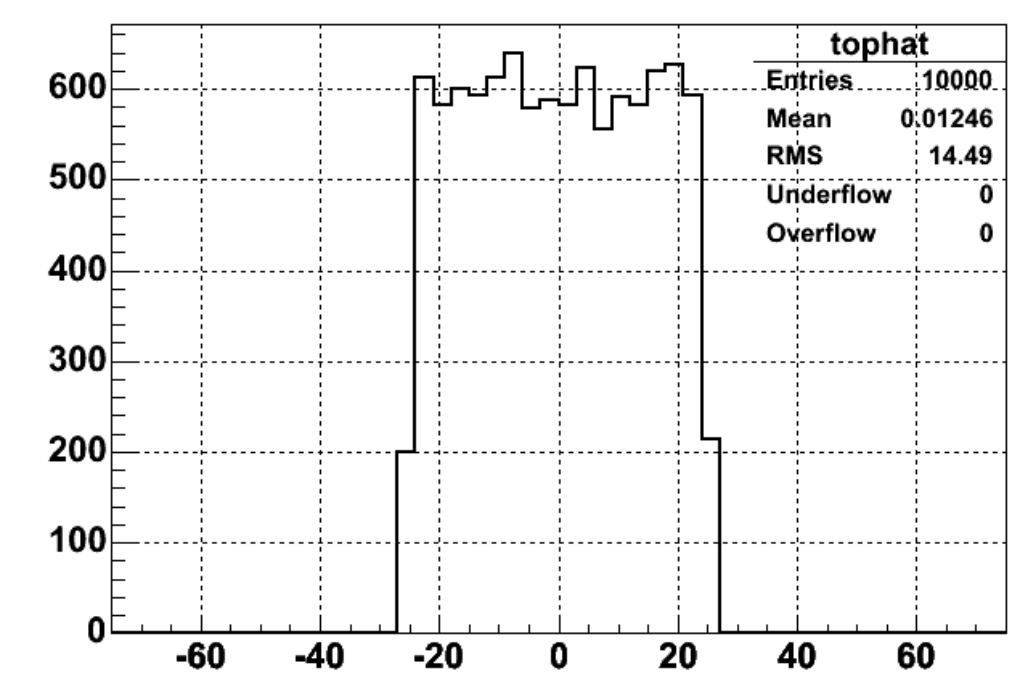
- Diffusion:Typical value: 8  $\mu\text{m}$  for 300  $\mu\text{m}$  drift.
- Can be exploited to improve position resolution

## Resolution

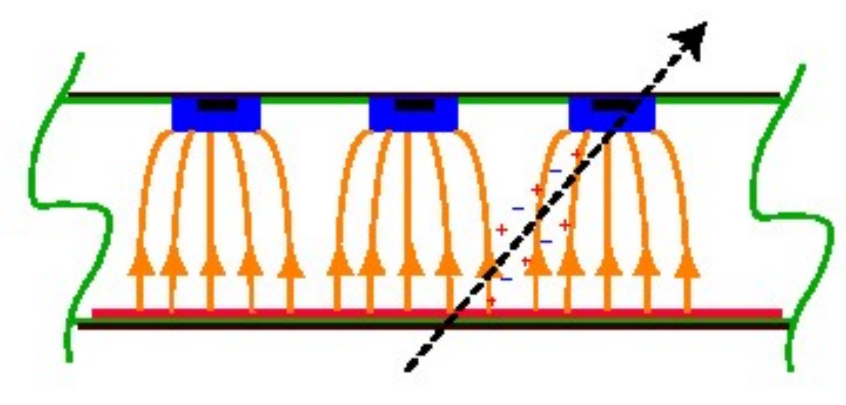
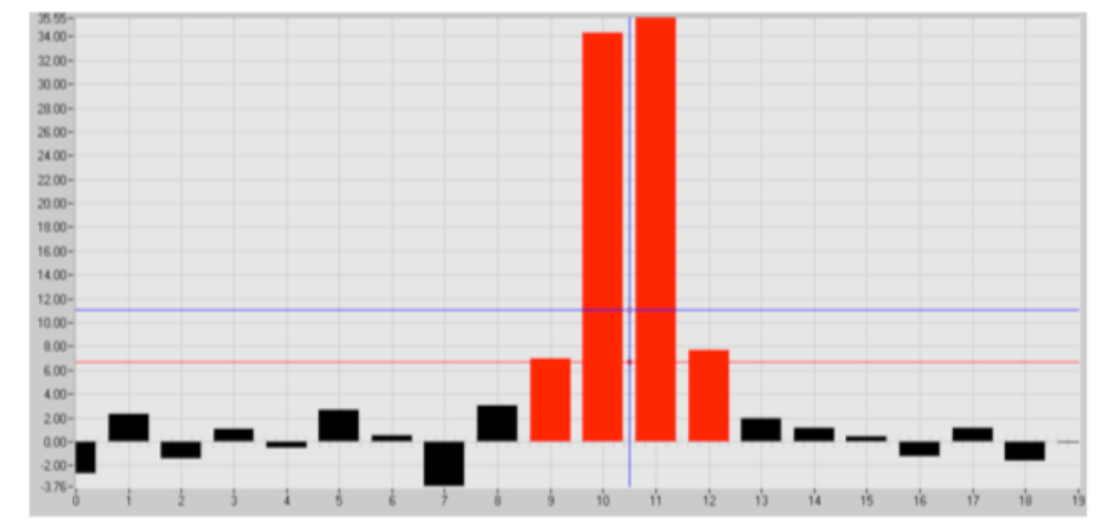
digital readout  
single strip clusters



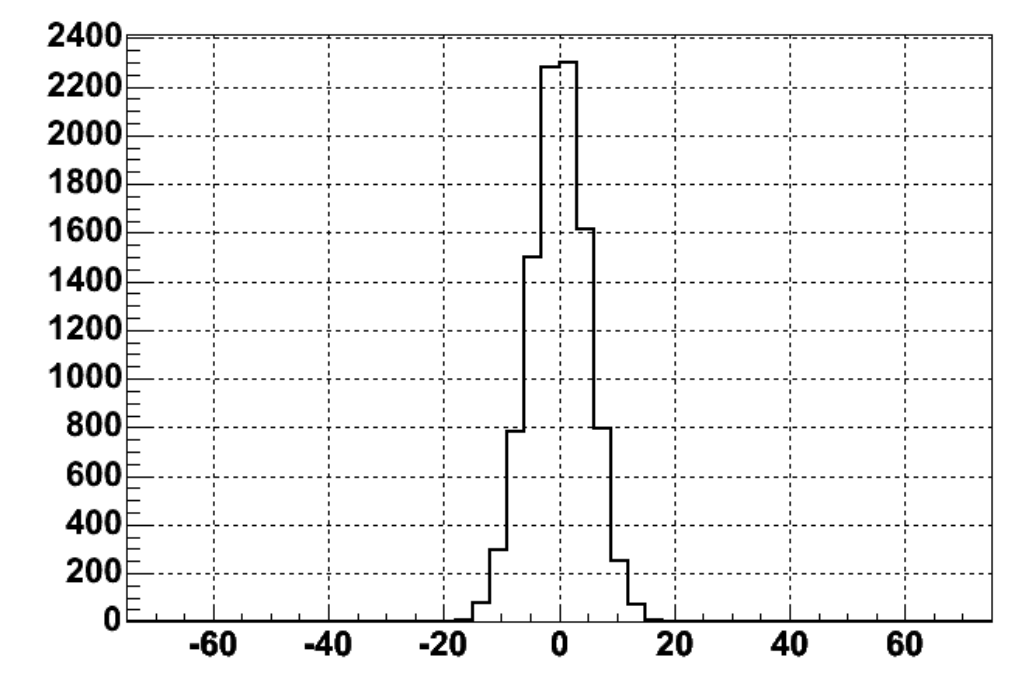
$$\sigma = \frac{\text{pitch}}{\sqrt{12}}$$



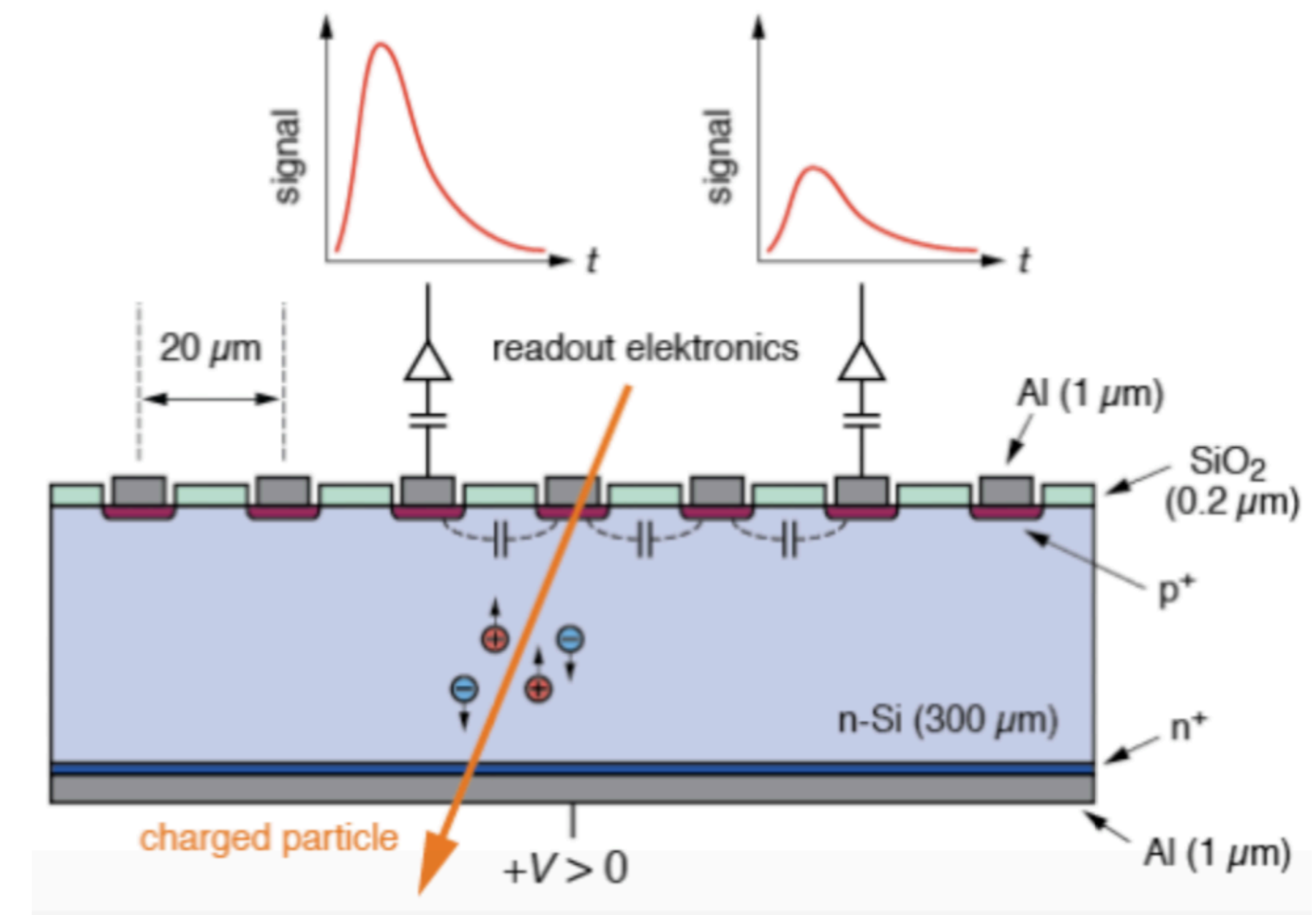
analogue readout  
multiple strips hit



$$\sigma \approx \frac{\text{pitch}}{1.5 * (S/N)}$$



- resolution depends on S/N --> increase S/N
- resolution pitch dependent --> decrease pitch
- draw-back: increased number of readout channels  
increased power dissipation  
increased cost
- resolution better when charge shared on several strips
- implementation of **intermediate strips**
  - strips not connected to the readout electronics
  - located between readout strip
  - Signal is transferred by capacitive coupling to the readout strips
    - > more hits with signals on more than one strip
    - > Improved resolution with smaller number of readout channels.



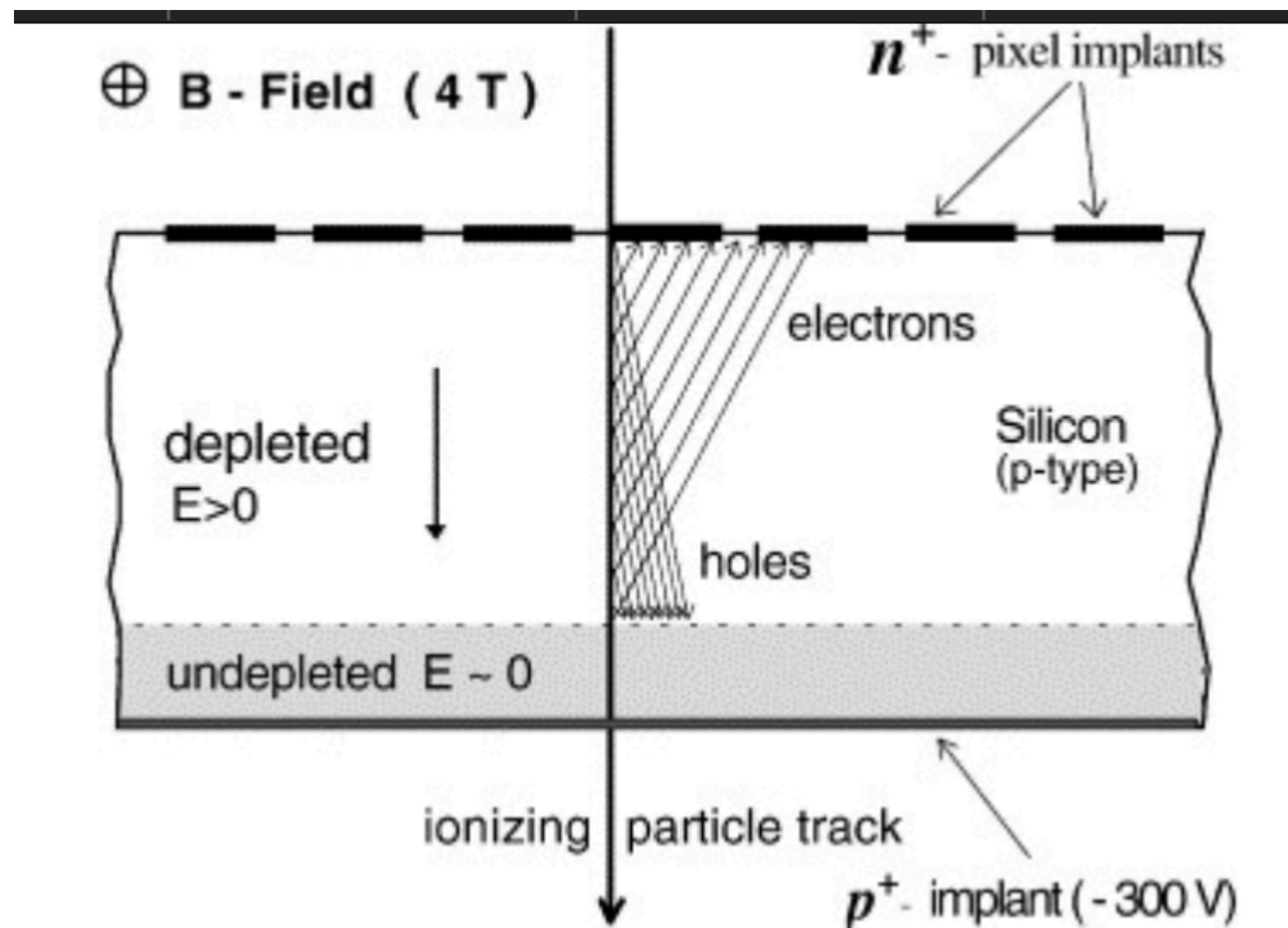


- no magnetic field:  
—> charge carriers drift along the electric field lines
- magnetic field non-parallel to electric field:

$$\vec{F} = q \left( \vec{E} + \frac{\vec{v}}{c} \times \vec{B} \right)$$

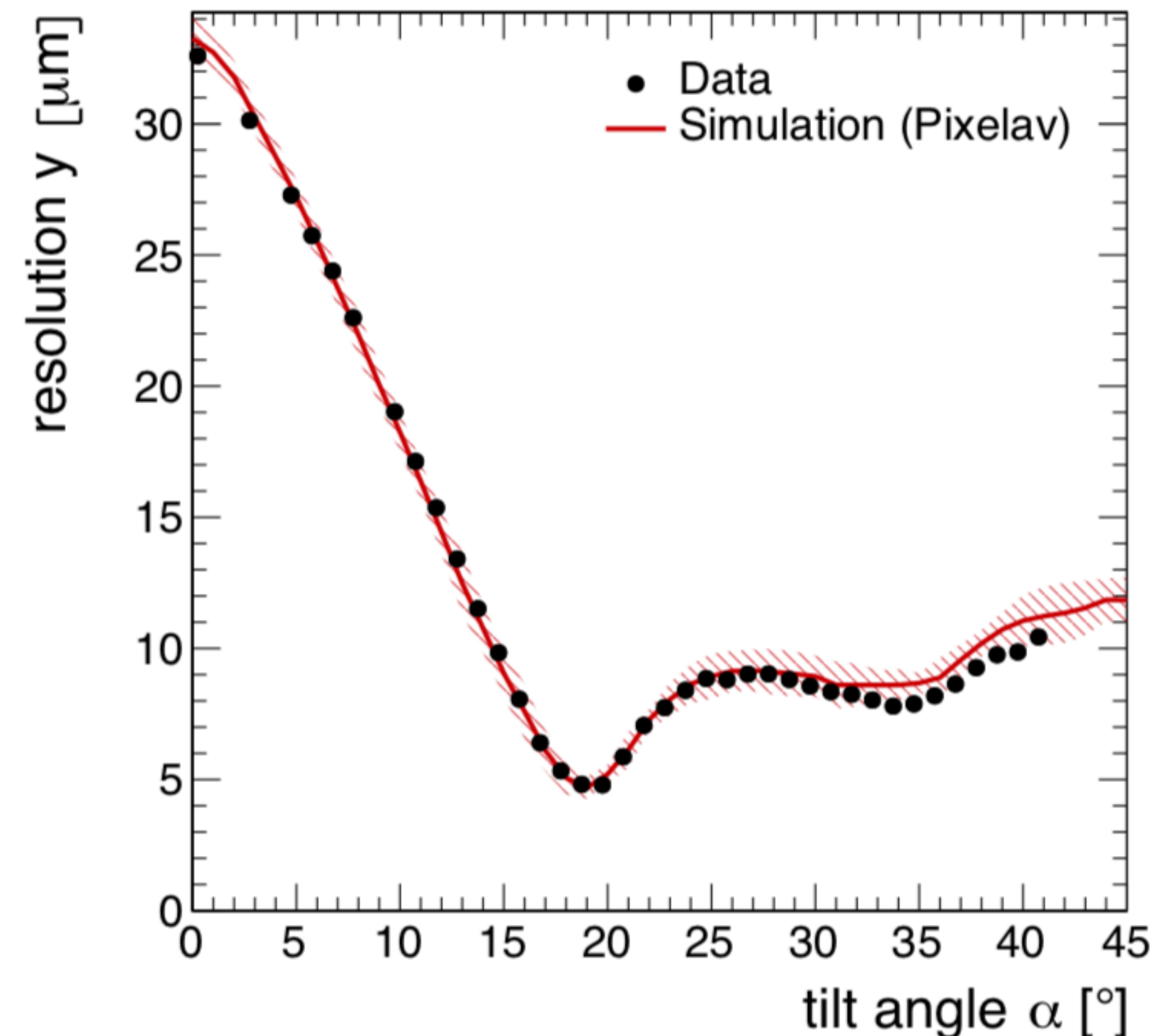
—> drift path inclined wrt. field lines

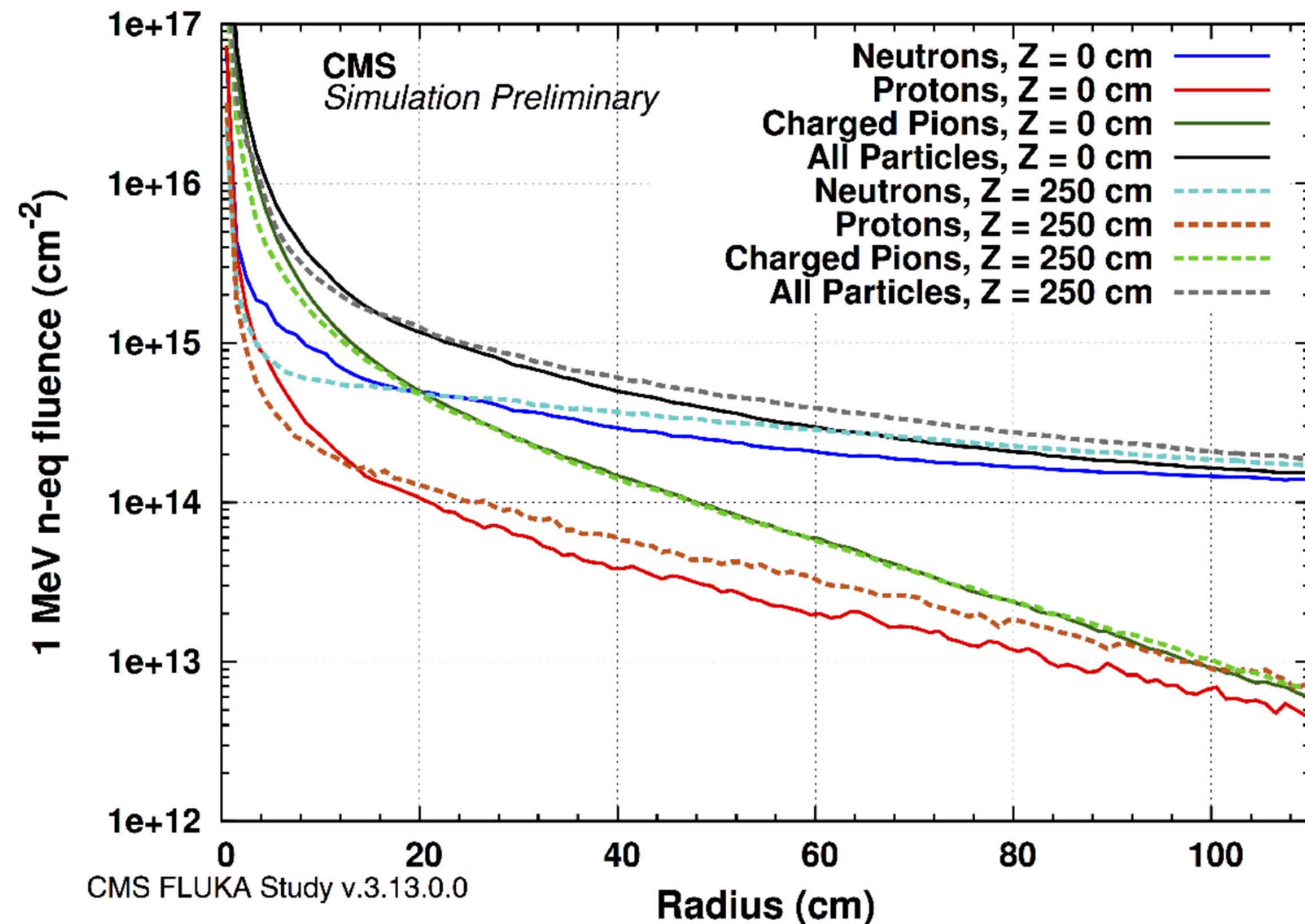
- angle wrt. non-inclined path --> Lorentz angle
- charge will be more spread
- use effect to increase resolution
- take into account designing detector



## resolution change with incident angle

$3.0 \times 10^6$  tracks (5.6 GeV)





FLUKA simulation of the fluence levels in the CMS Tracker after 3000 fb<sup>-1</sup>

- at LHC and even more at HL-LHC detector exposed to high levels of radiation

- **radiation fields:**

- charged particles dominate at small radii
- neutrons equal or dominant at higher radii

- **strip trackers:** LHC: up to  $1.8 \times 10^{14}$  neq/cm<sup>2</sup>

HL-LHC: up to  $1.1 \times 10^{15}$  neq/cm<sup>2</sup>

- what happens to silicon sensors?

$\Phi_{eq}$ : equivalent fluence

-damage of different particle types  
normalized to 1MeV neutrons





Particles passing through silicon material lose energy through

- interaction with shell electrons (**Ionizing Energy Loss**)
  - > **surface damage**
    - local charges accumulate in surface (charges cannot recombine in insulating surface, i.e.  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{Si/SiO}_2$  interface, thus it causes damage in the surface)
      - > oxide charges, interface traps
    - damage caused primarily through photons, charged particles
    - fast recombination in silicon bulk —> **no damage in the bulk**
  - Interaction with atomic core or whole atom (**Non Ionizing Energy Loss**)
    - > **bulk damage**
      - Displacement of atoms in the lattice
      - Caused by massive particles as protons, pions, neutrons

Take away:

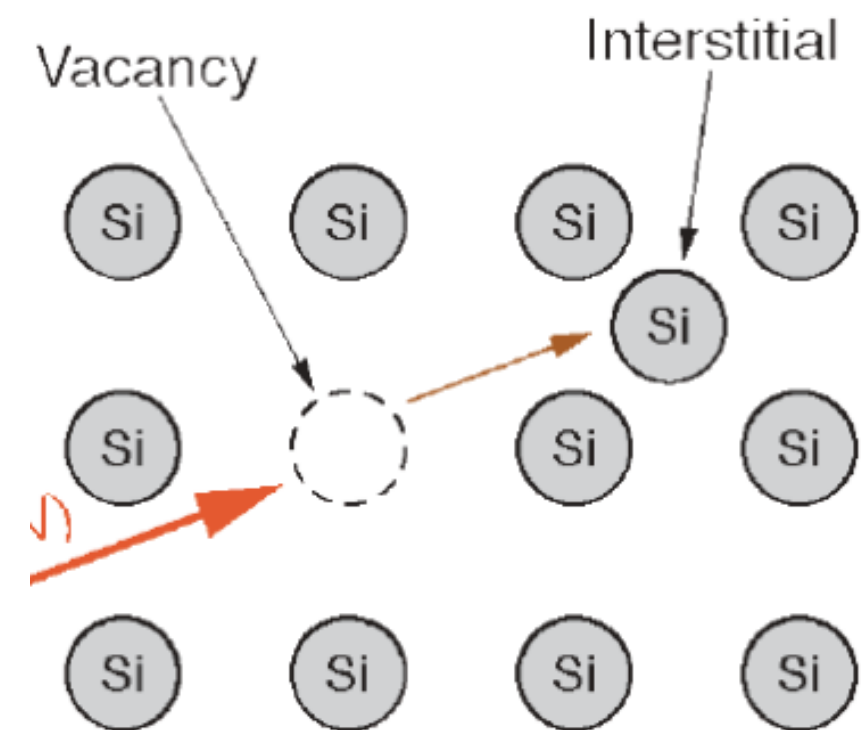
## IEL

- to first order not relevant for planar sensor
- becomes important for ASICs, monolithic sensors
- becomes important in combination with bulk damage

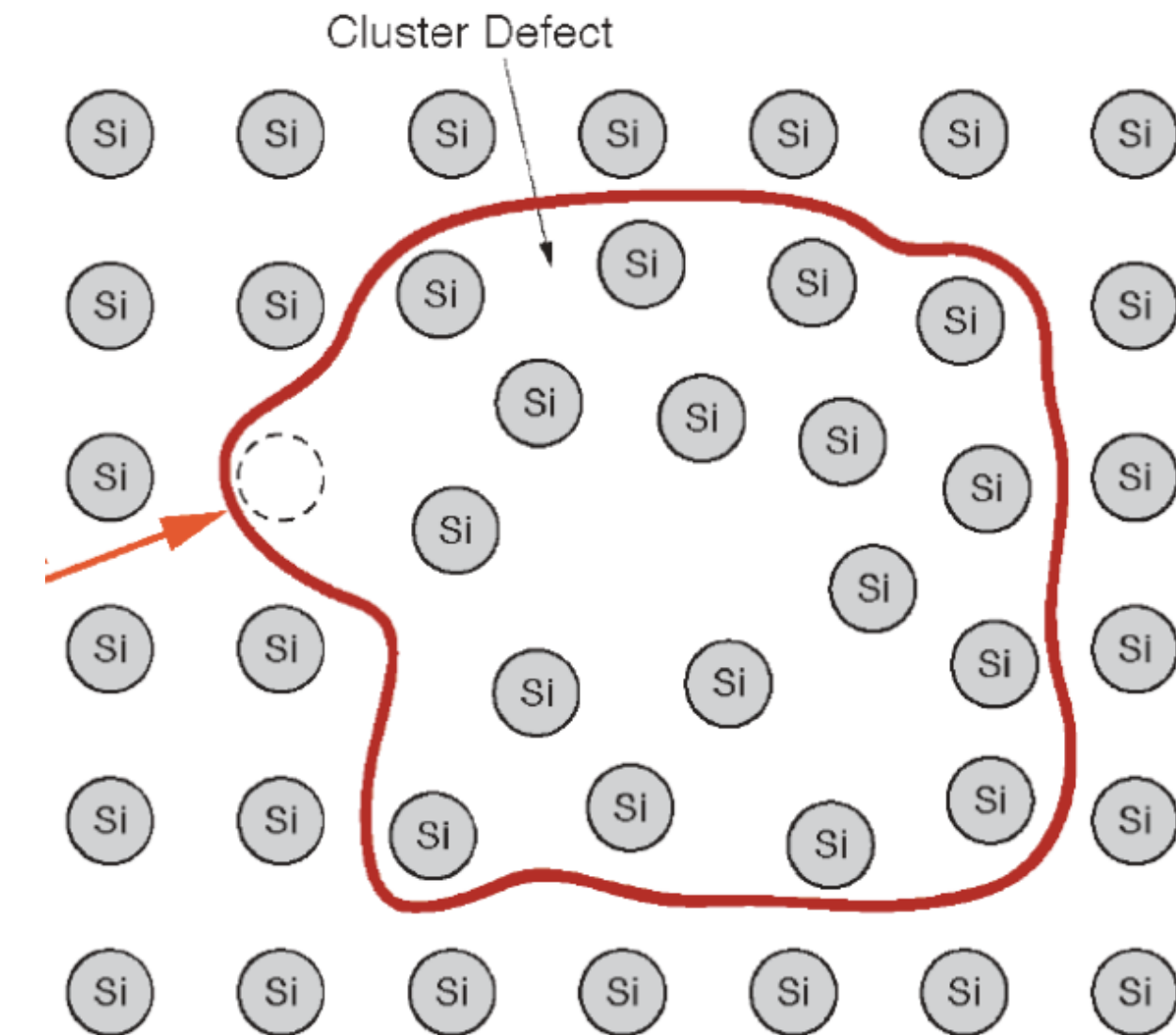
## NIEL

- major degradation of sensor properties with irradiation

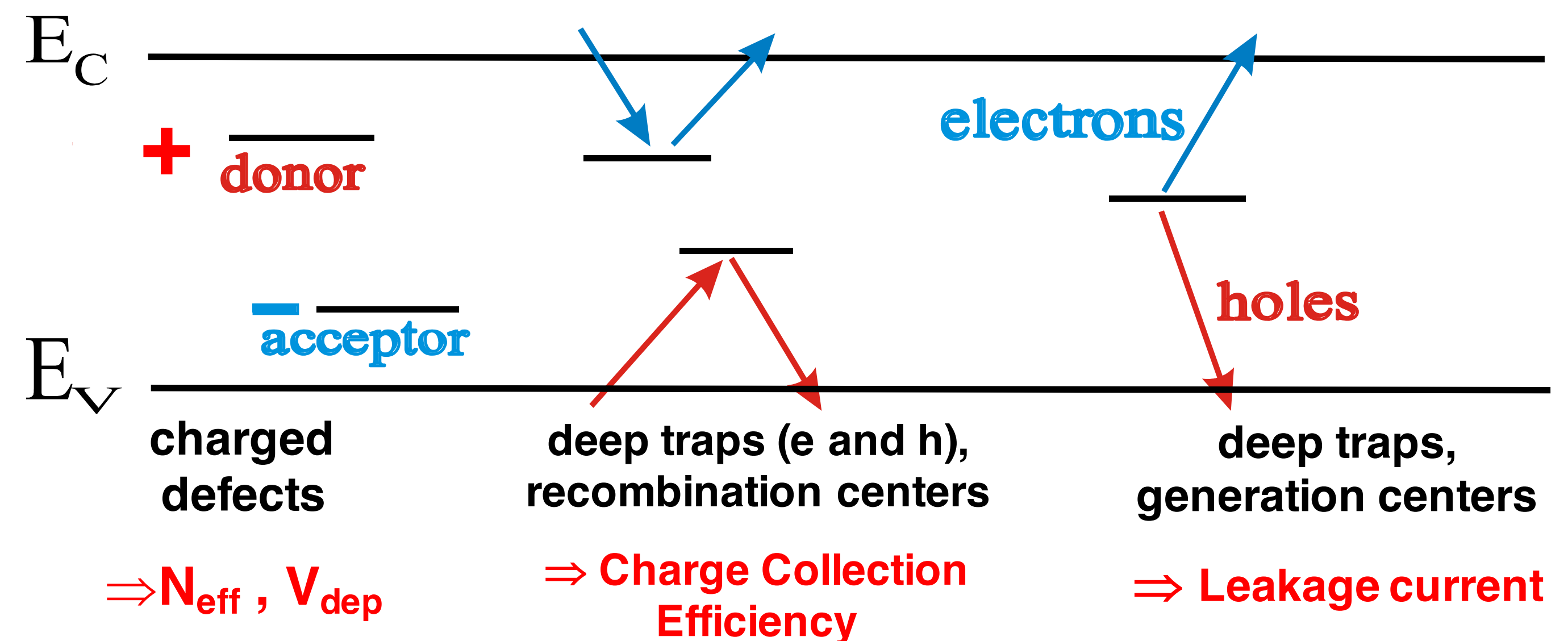
**Primary Knock on Atom**  
displaced out of lattice site



- Interstitials and Vacancies are very mobile at  $T > 150\text{K}$  and migrate through lattice
- Annihilate  $\rightarrow$  no damage remaining
- Reactions with each other and impurities ( $V_2$ ,  $V_iO_i, \dots$ )
- Along path of recoil  $\rightarrow$  formation of more defects
- at the end clusters formed



- defects in the crystal
- point defects and “cluster” defects
- $\rightarrow$  energy levels in the band gap filled





- **NIEL - Non Ionizing Energy Loss** scaling using hardness factors

## Hardness factor $k$

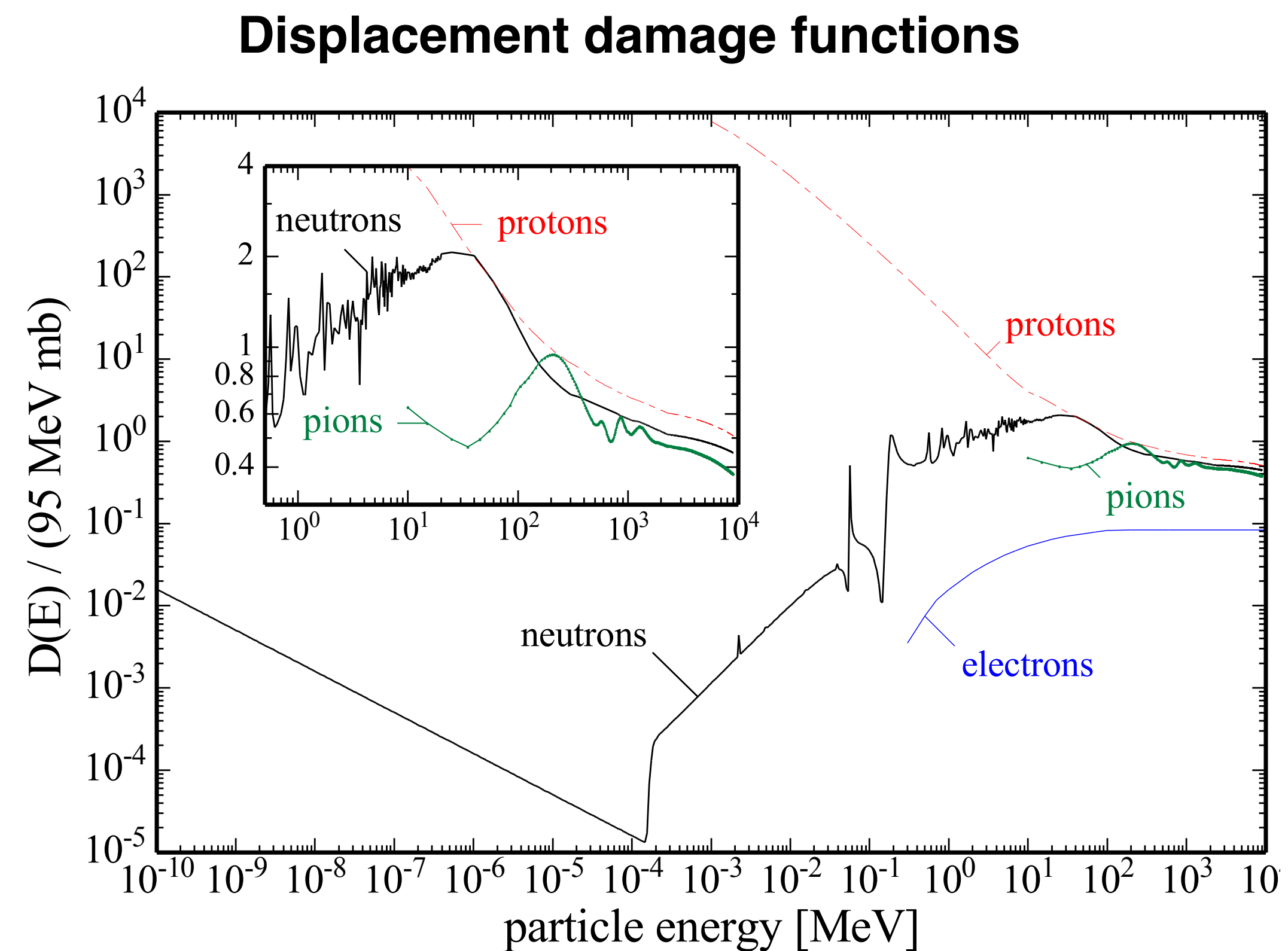
of a radiation field (or monoenergetic particle) with respect to 1 MeV neutrons

$$K = \frac{1}{D(1\text{MeV neutrons})} \cdot \frac{\int D(E) \phi(E) dE}{\int \phi(E) dE}$$

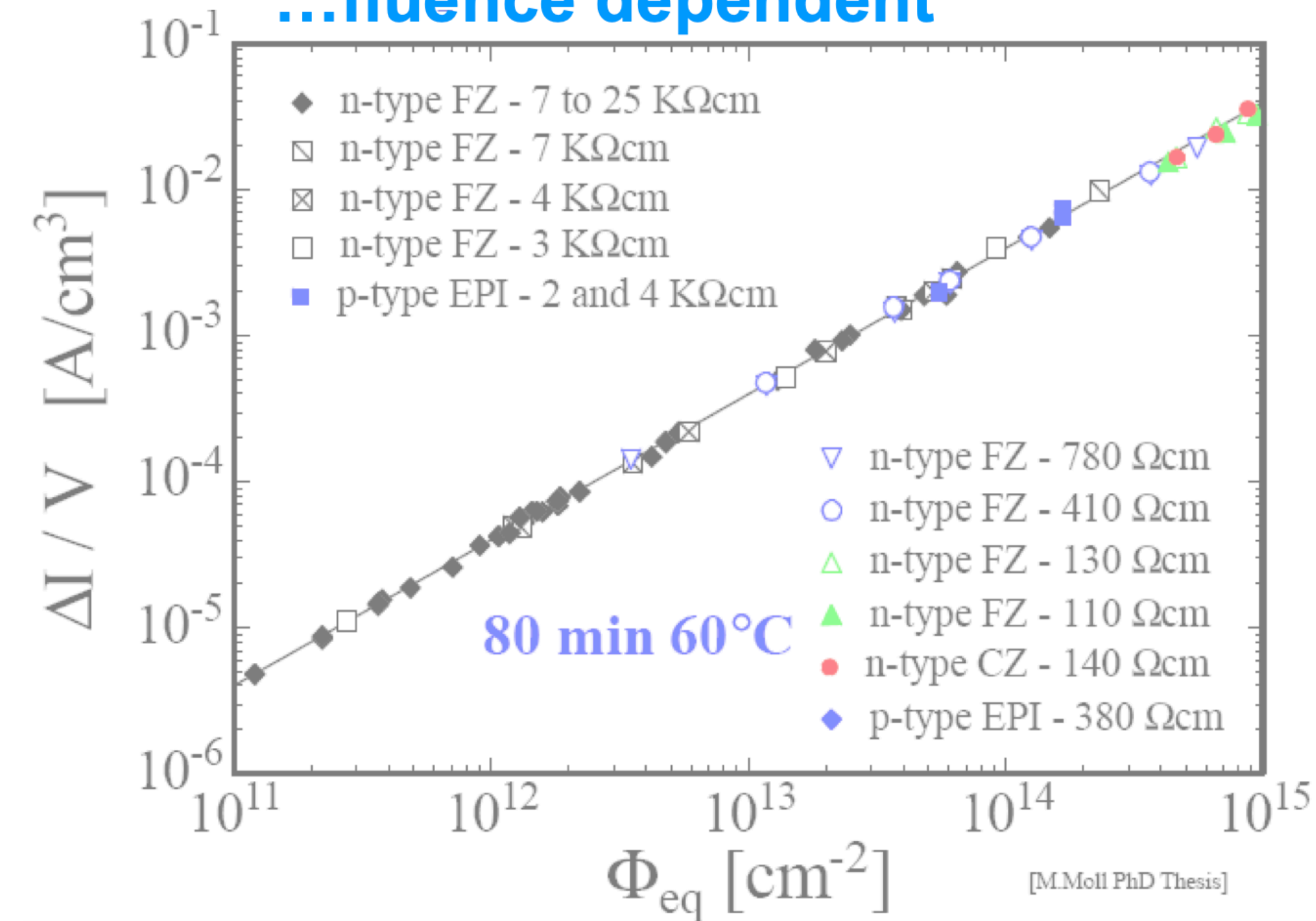
- $E$  energy of particle
- $D(E)$  displacement damage cross section for a certain particle at energy  $E$   
 $D(1\text{MeV neutrons})=95 \text{ MeV}\cdot\text{mb}$
- $\phi(E)$  energy spectrum of radiation field

The integrals are evaluated for the interval  $[E_{\text{MIN}}, E_{\text{MAX}}]$ , being  $E_{\text{MIN}}$  and  $E_{\text{MAX}}$  the minimum and maximum cut-off energy values, respectively, and covering all particle types present in the radiation field

**NIEL Hypothesis: damage parameters scale with NIEL**  
**1 MeV neutron equivalent**



## ...fluence dependent



- independent of material
- independent of type of irradiation

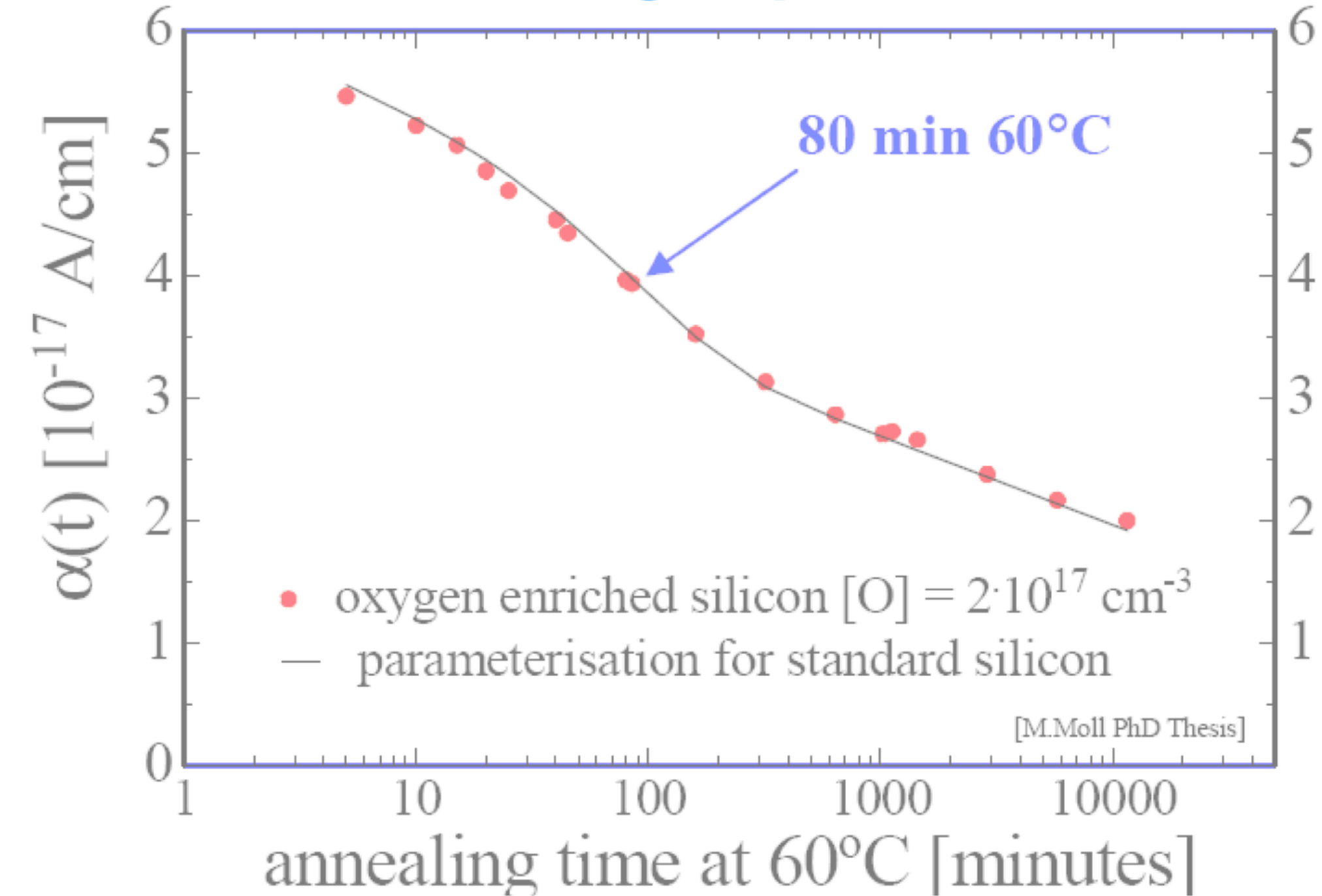
- Damage parameter

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta I}{V \cdot \Phi_{eq}}$$

- strong temperature dependence

$$I \propto \exp\left(-\frac{E_g}{2k_B T}\right)$$

## ...annealing dependent

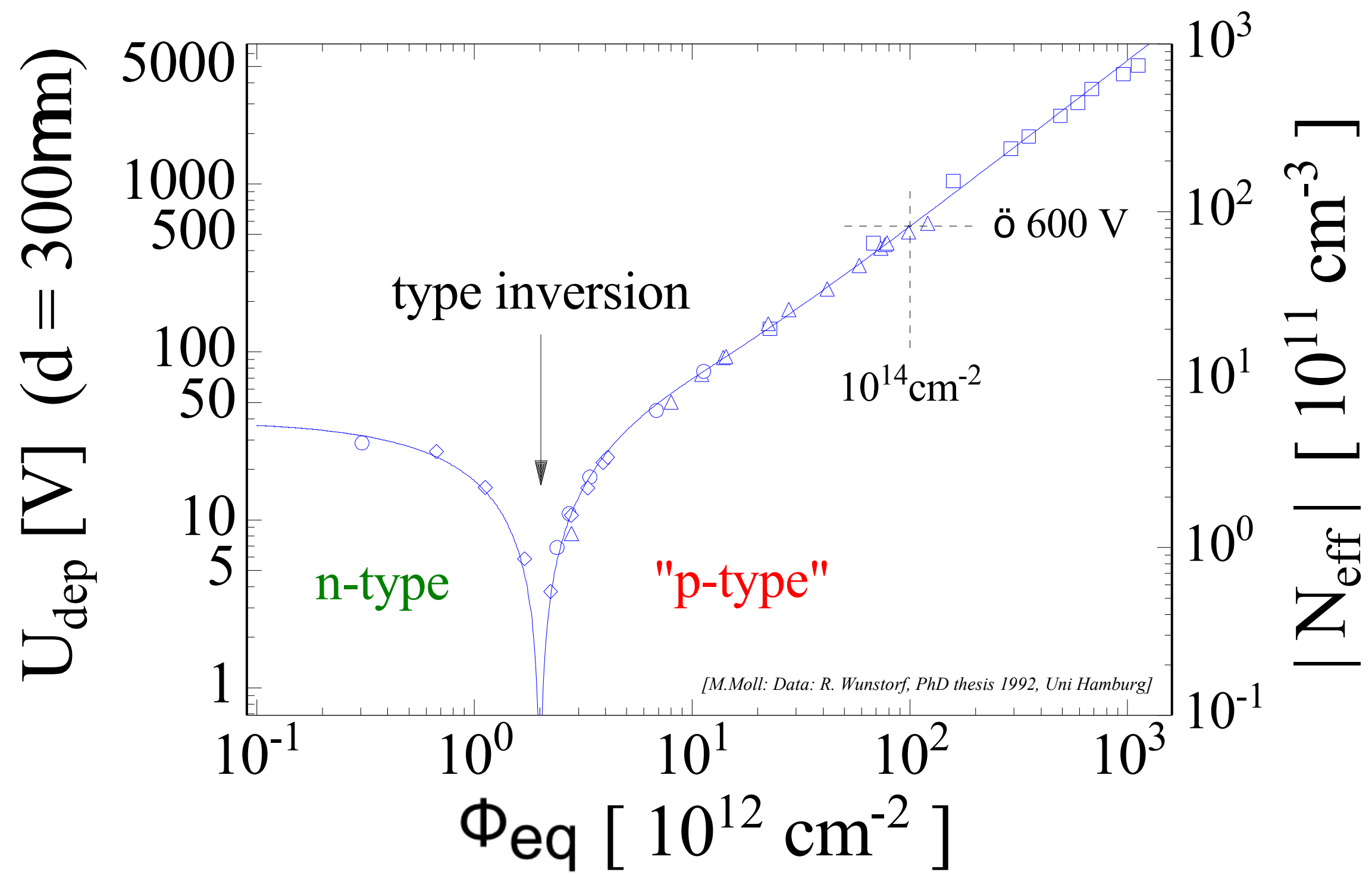


- current decreases with annealing

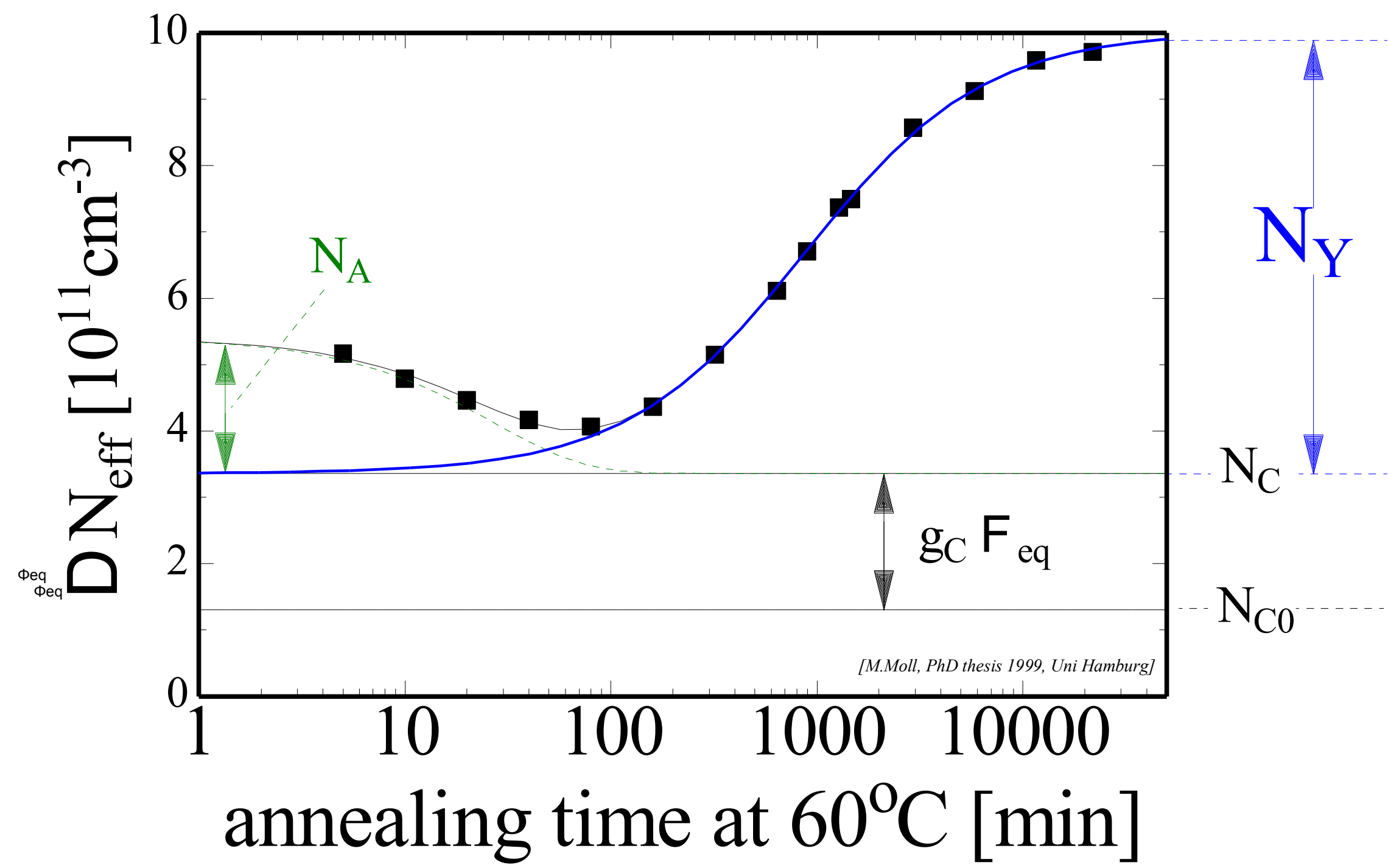
→ consider annealing

→ run cold



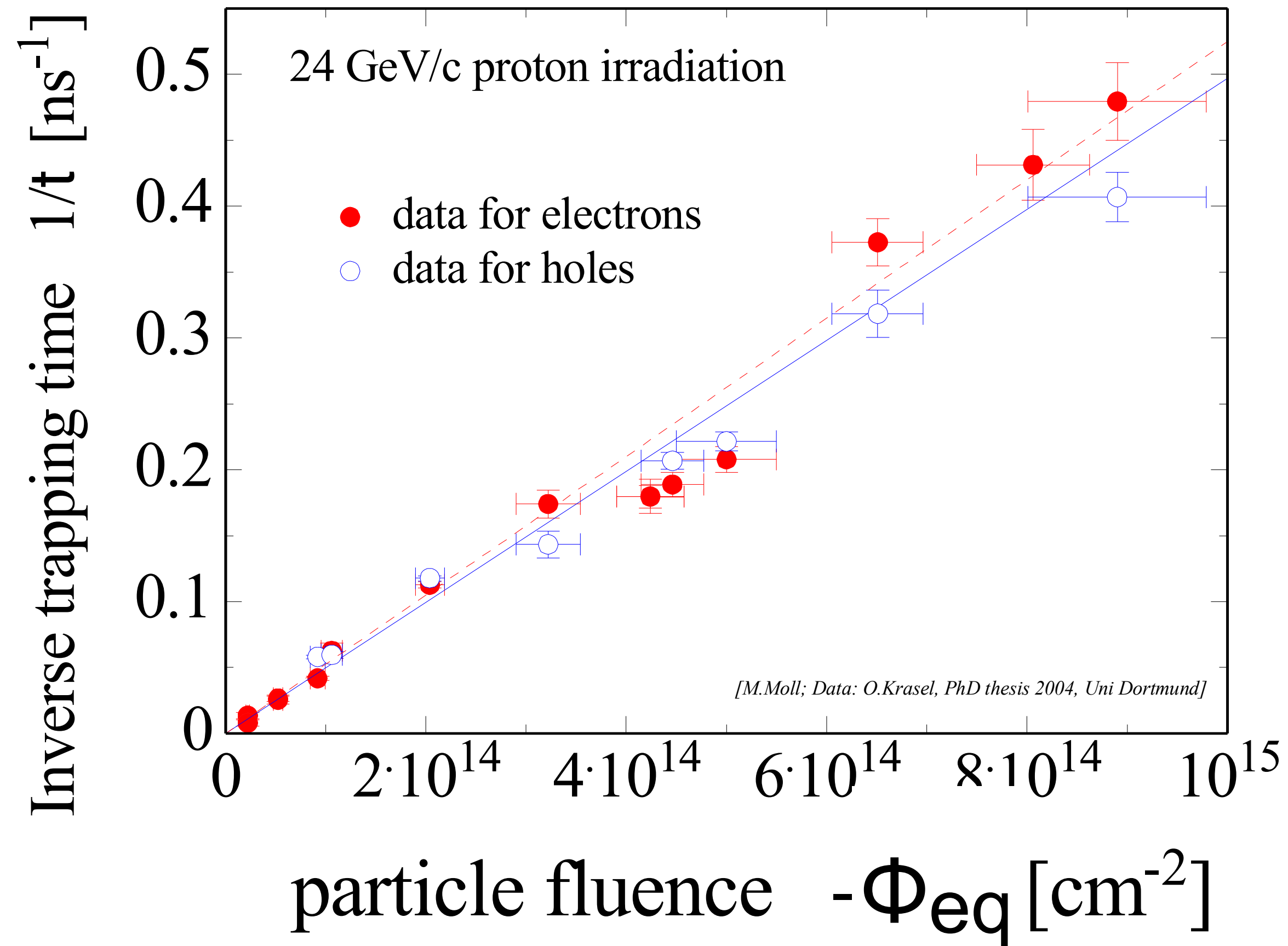


- $N_{\text{eff}}$  changes from positive to negative (Space Charge Sign Inversion)
- n-type bulk becomes 'p-type'



- short term annealing: beneficial
- long term annealing: not beneficial

—> cooling of sensors to control effects



- at high fluencies trapping is highly important
- charge carriers will not reach electrode when trapped  
—> signal lost

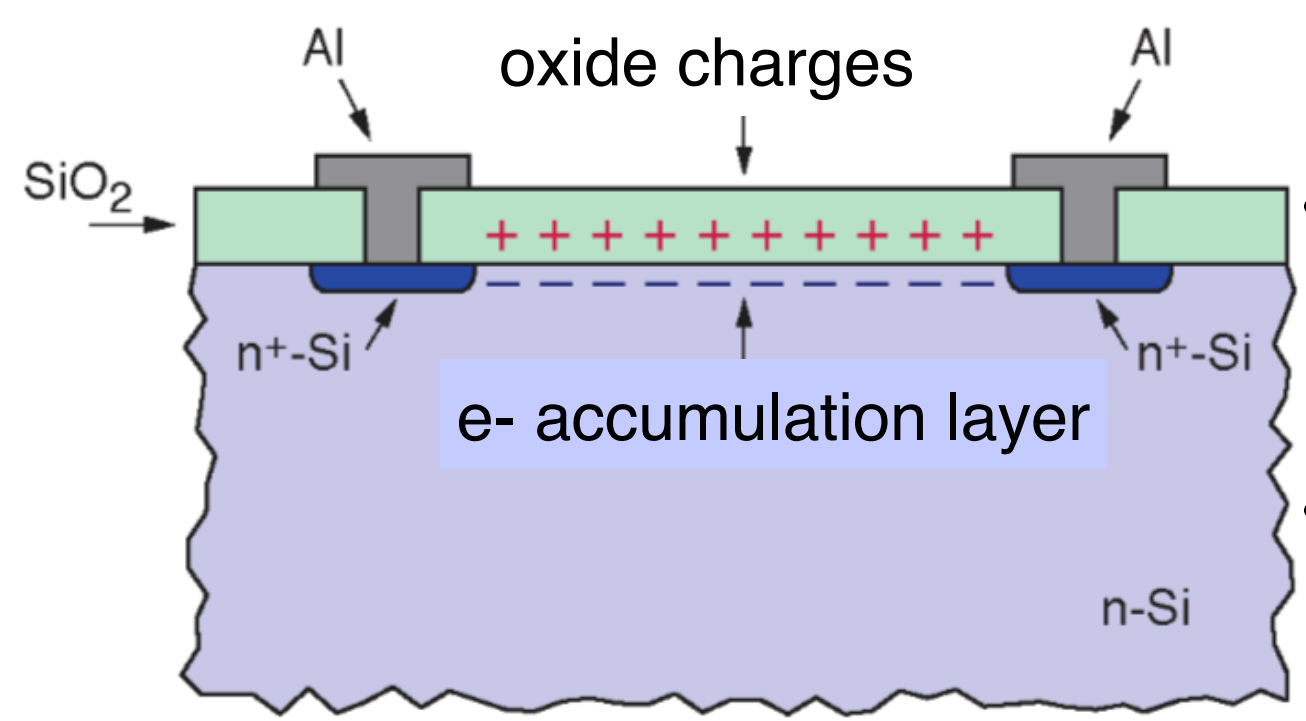
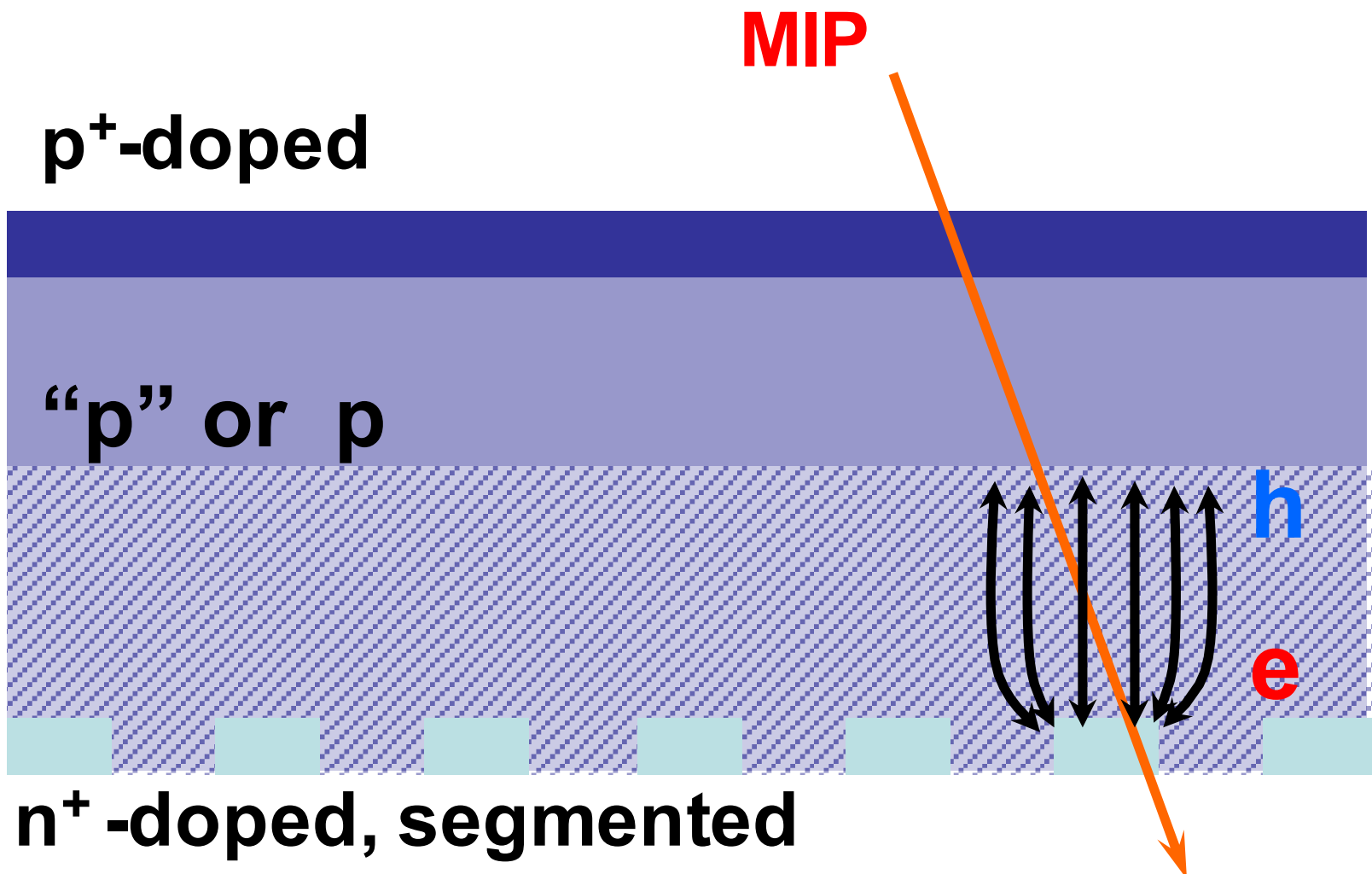
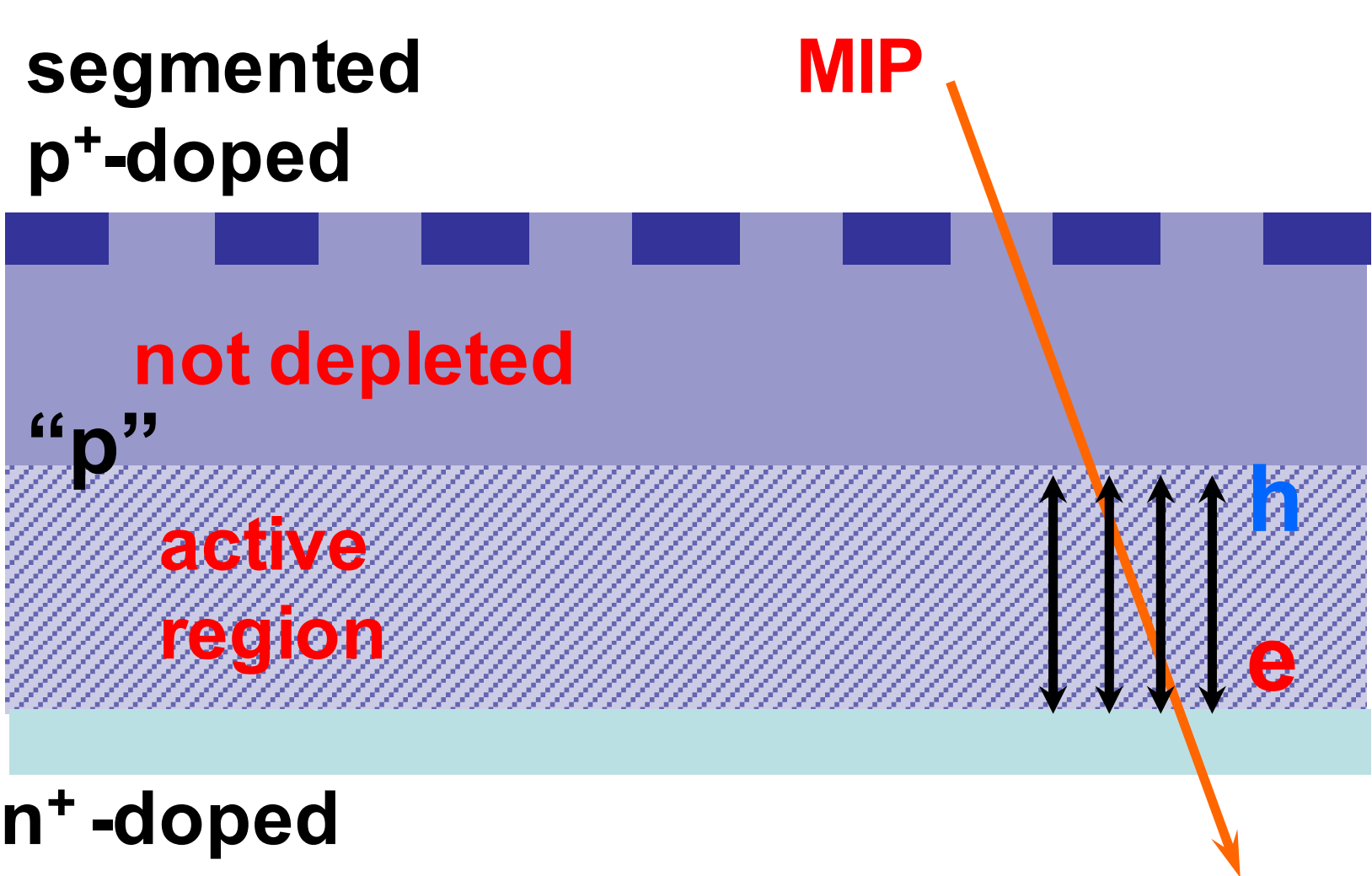
- electrons drift faster than holes

—> **collect electrons**

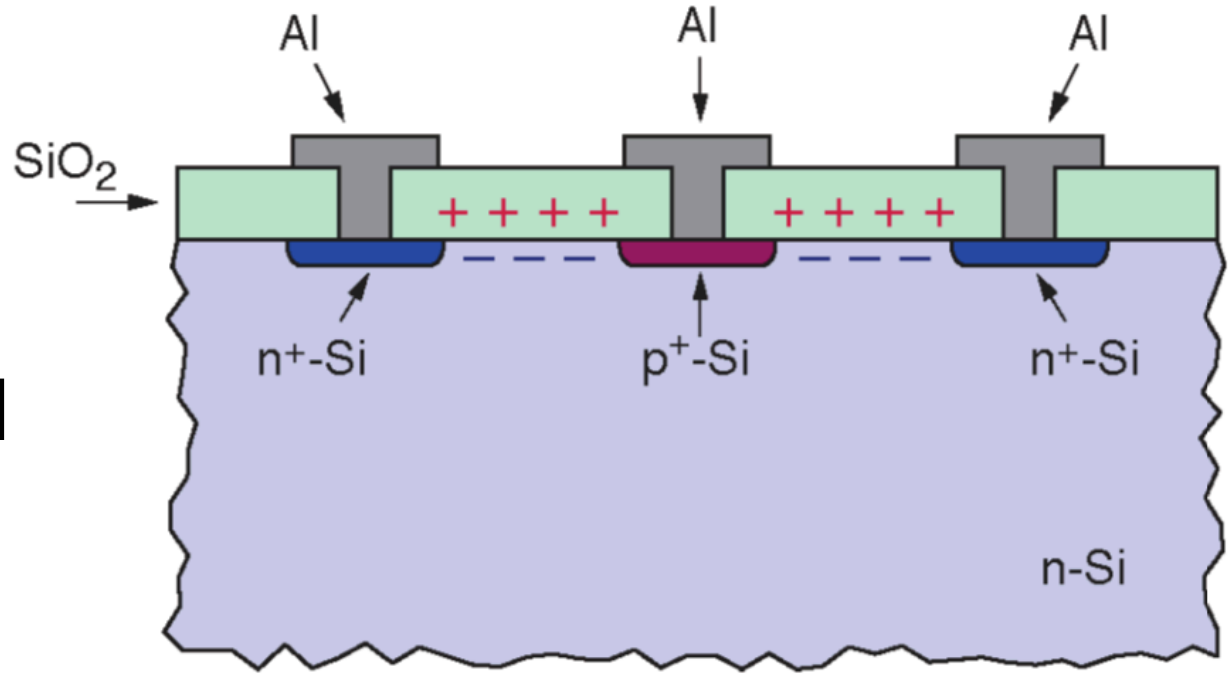


# n-in-n and n-in-p instead of p-in-n

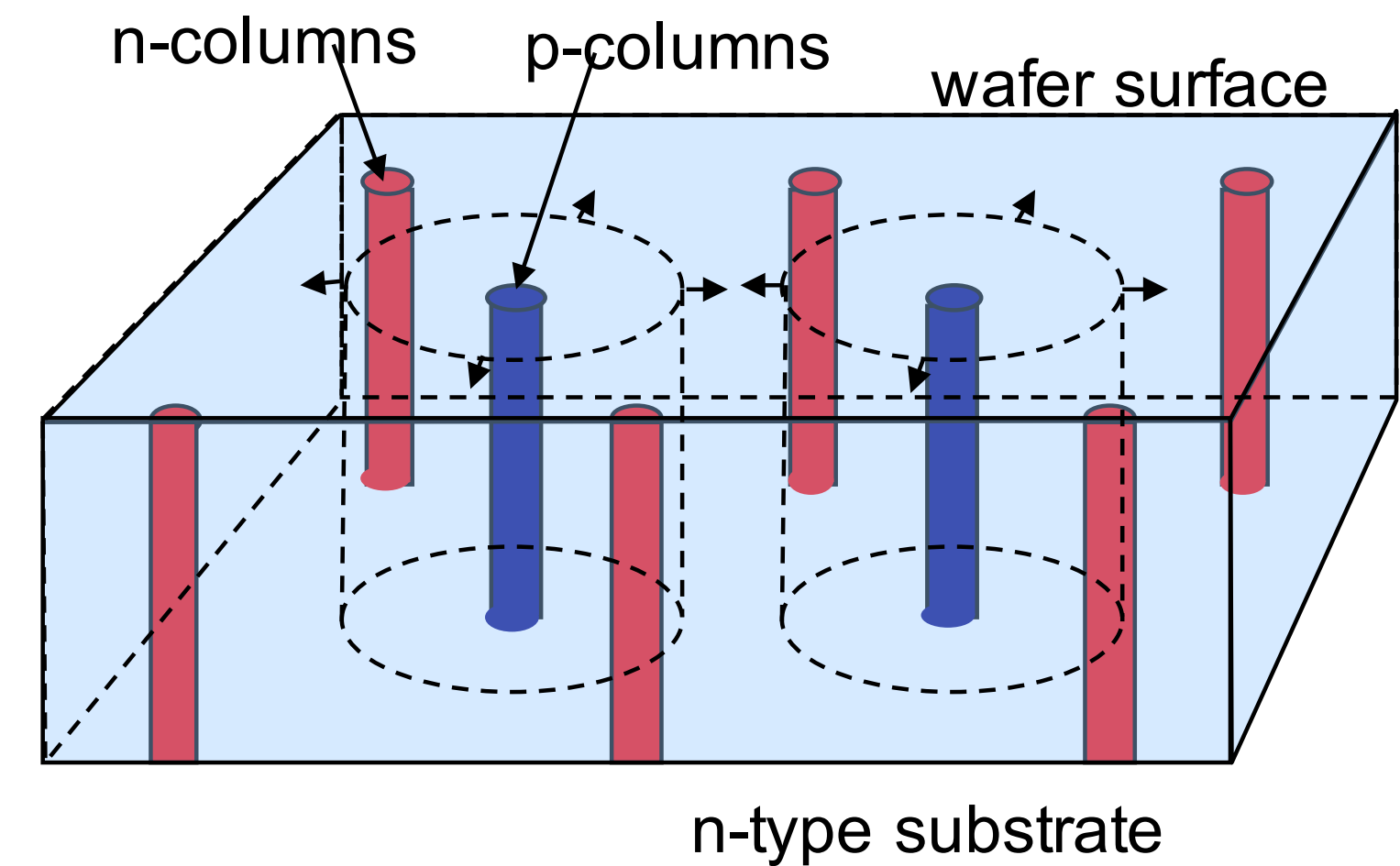
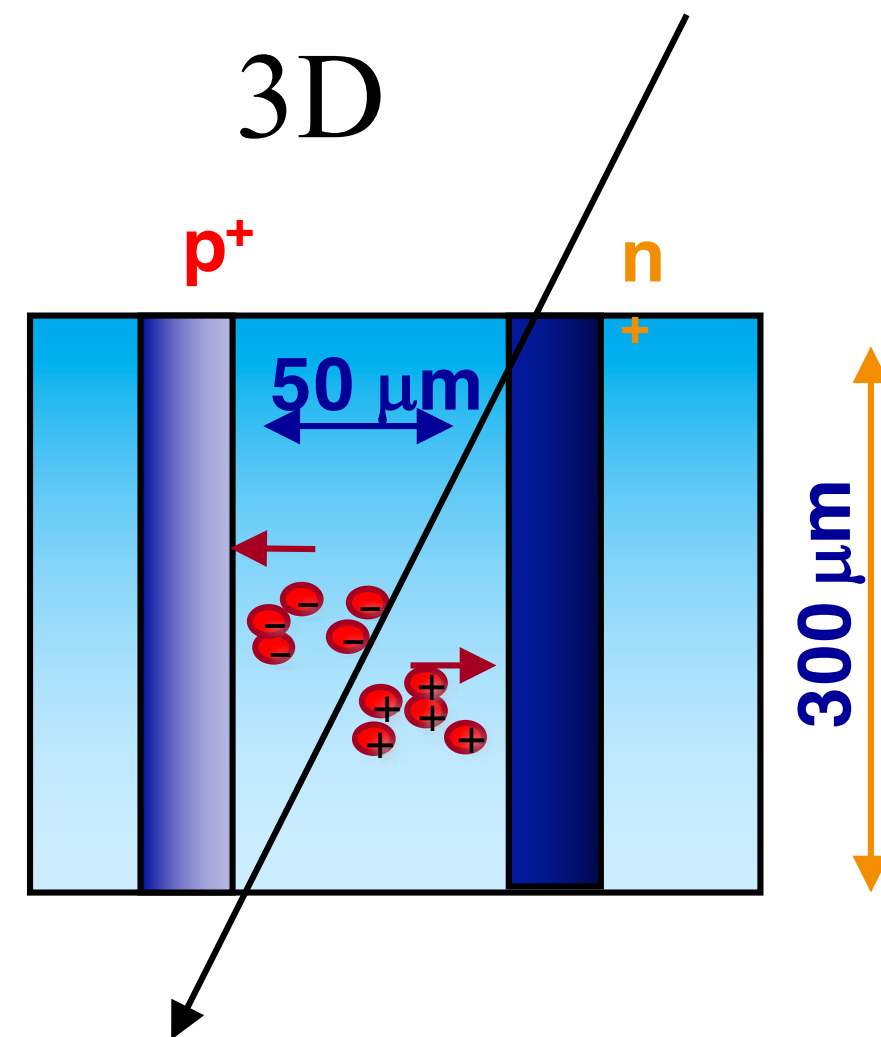
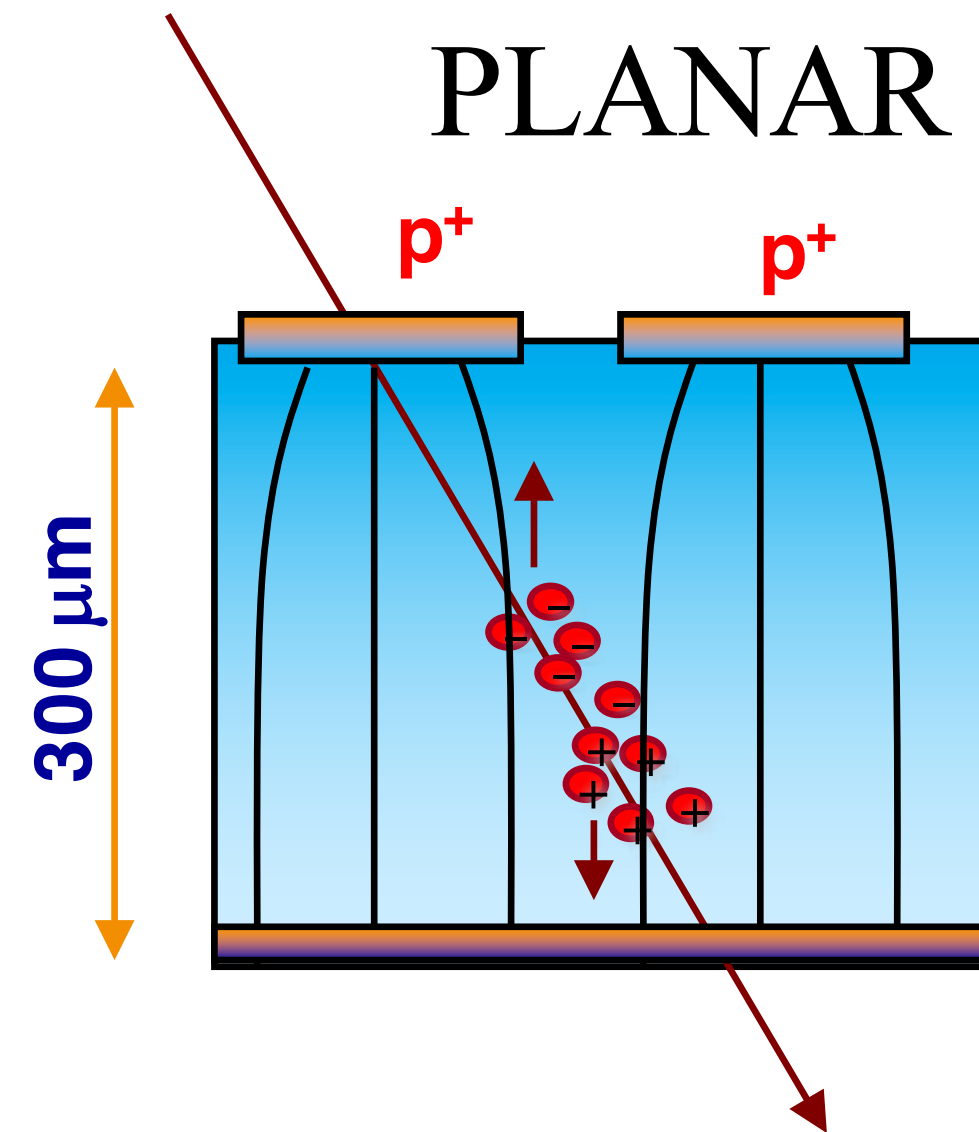
e drift faster than h → less charge trapping for e → collect electrons  
→ read out n<sup>+</sup>-side of sensors



- sensors more radiation hard:
  - charge collection decreases less
  - still good position resolution if not fully depleted
- sensors need more processing steps
- more expensive



A. Peisert, *Silicon Microstrip Detectors*,  
DELPHI 92-143 MVX 2, CERN, 1992



- Non planar detectors
- Deep holes are etched into the silicon
  - filled with  $n^+$  and  $p^+$  material.
  - Voltage is applied between
  - Depletion is sideways
- Small distances between the electrodes
- Very low depletion voltages
- Very fast, since charge carries travel shorter distances

- etch columns into silicon
- technology developed in the last years
- pixels and strips possible (connect columns of one row into strip)
- disadvantage:
  - geometrical efficiency highly dependant on particle incidence angle
- ATLAS IBL deployed 3d sensors in more forward (backward) regions



Standard material is FZ silicon

**Investigated:** contamination by carbon and oxygen

**Observed:** oxygen slows down increase  $\rightarrow$  after inversion  $N_{\text{eff}}$  |  
( $V_{\text{dep}}$ ) is smaller

**SLHC:** investigate naturally O-rich material:  
Cz, MCz, EPI

**example:**

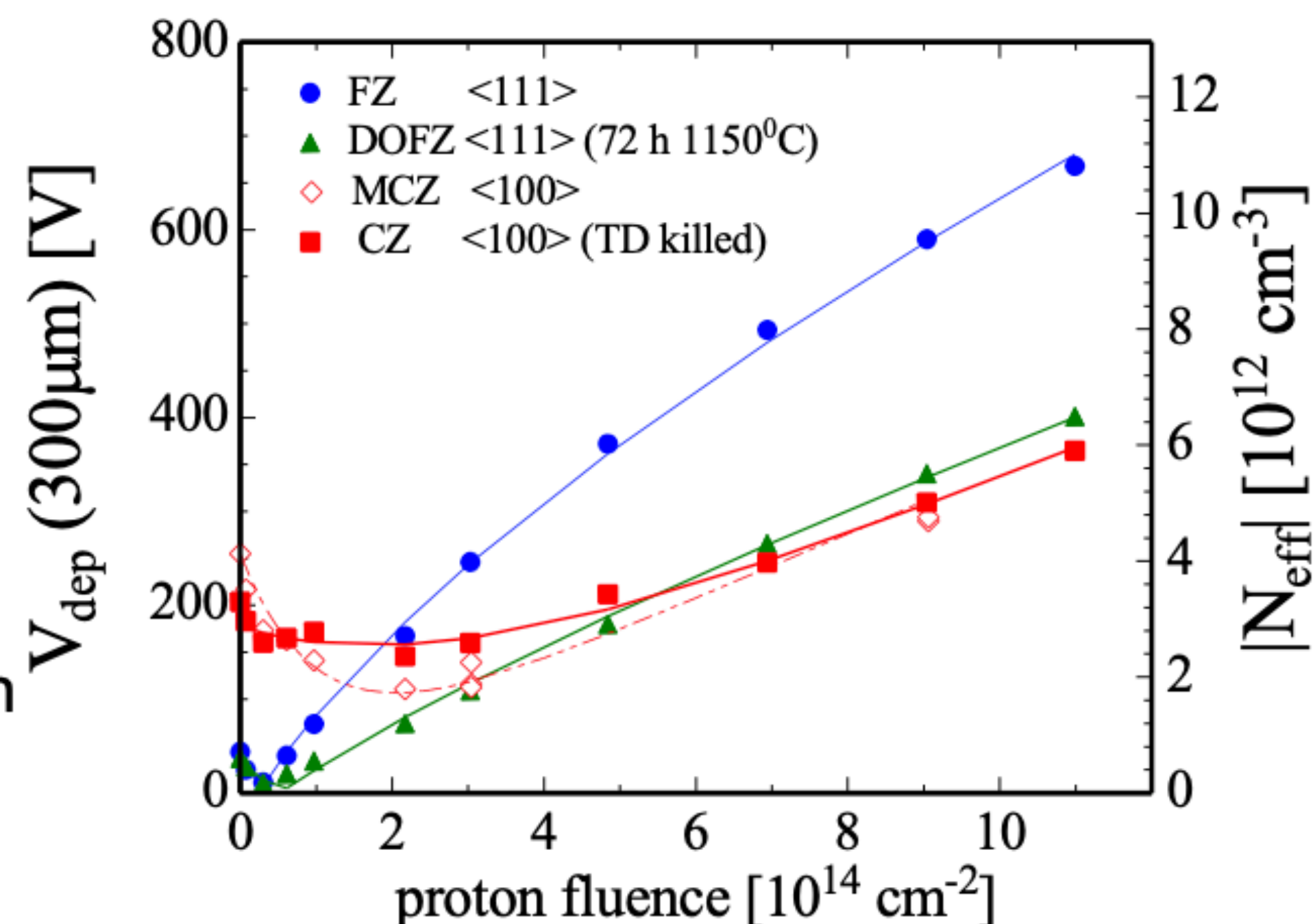
large differences in  $V_{\text{dep}}$  between

- standard FZ silicon
- oxygen rich FZ (DOFZ)
- Cz and MCz silicon

Cz and MCz silicon: no inversion

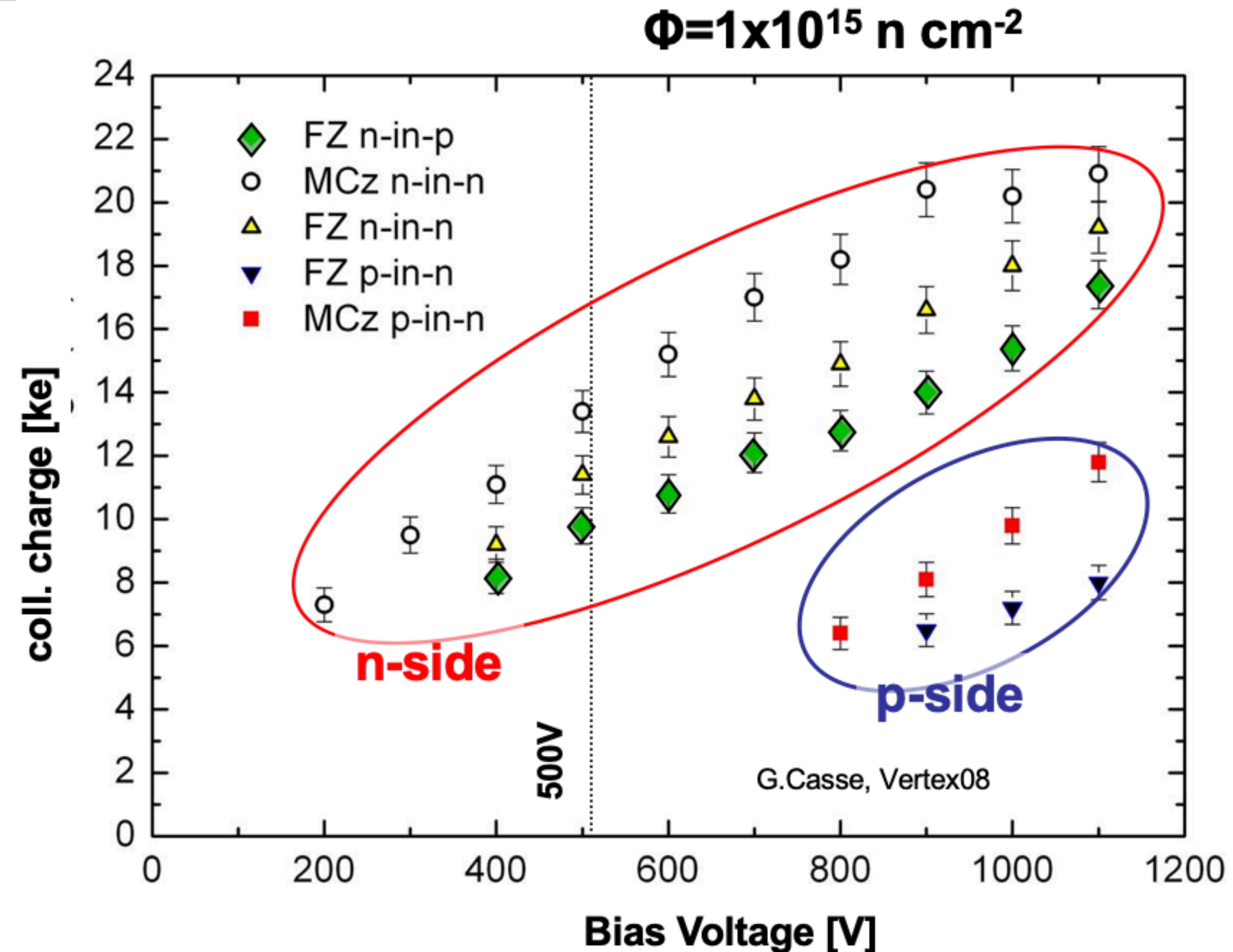
$\rightarrow$  Acceptor generation over-compensated through  
donor-Generation

### 24 GeV/c proton irradiation



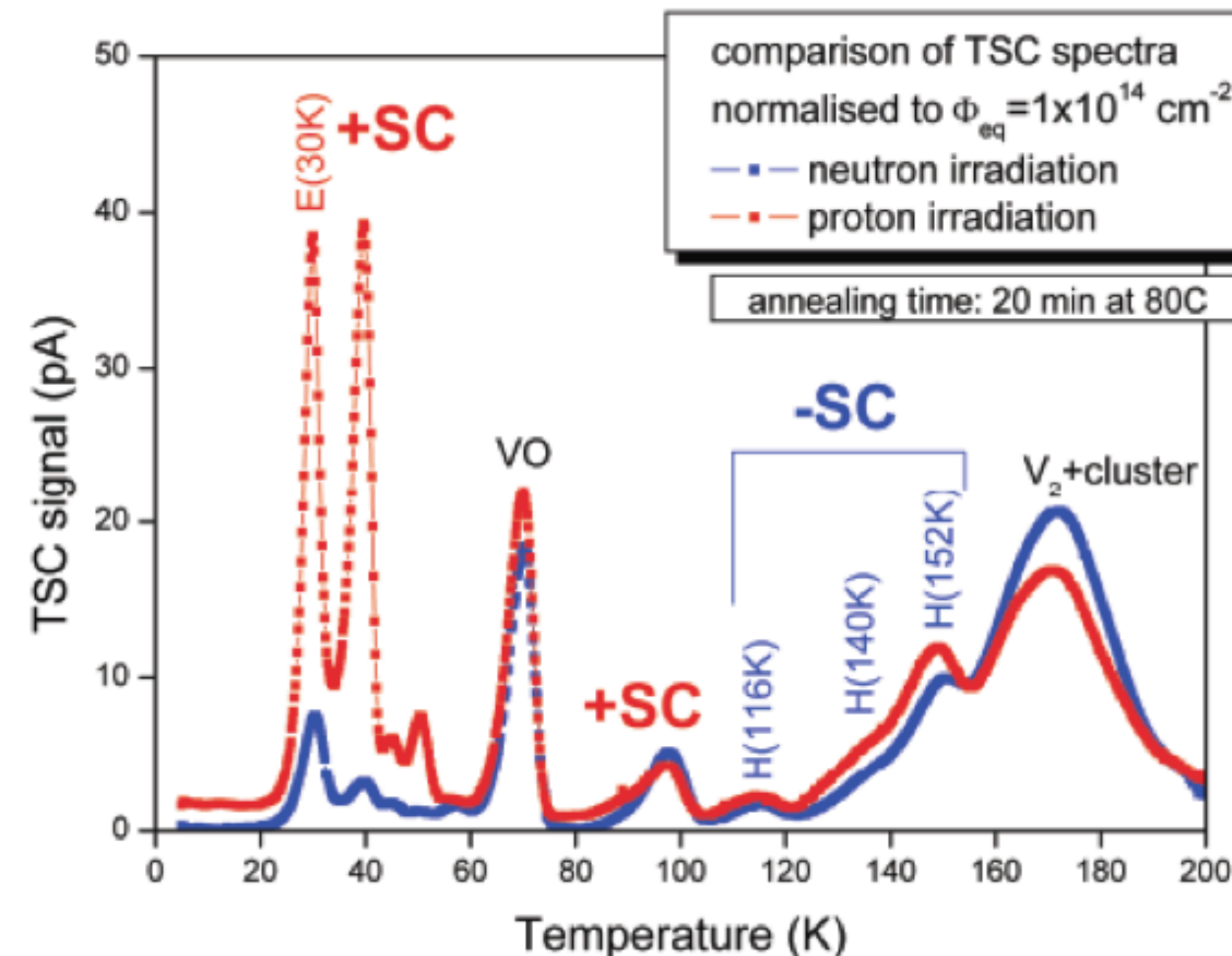
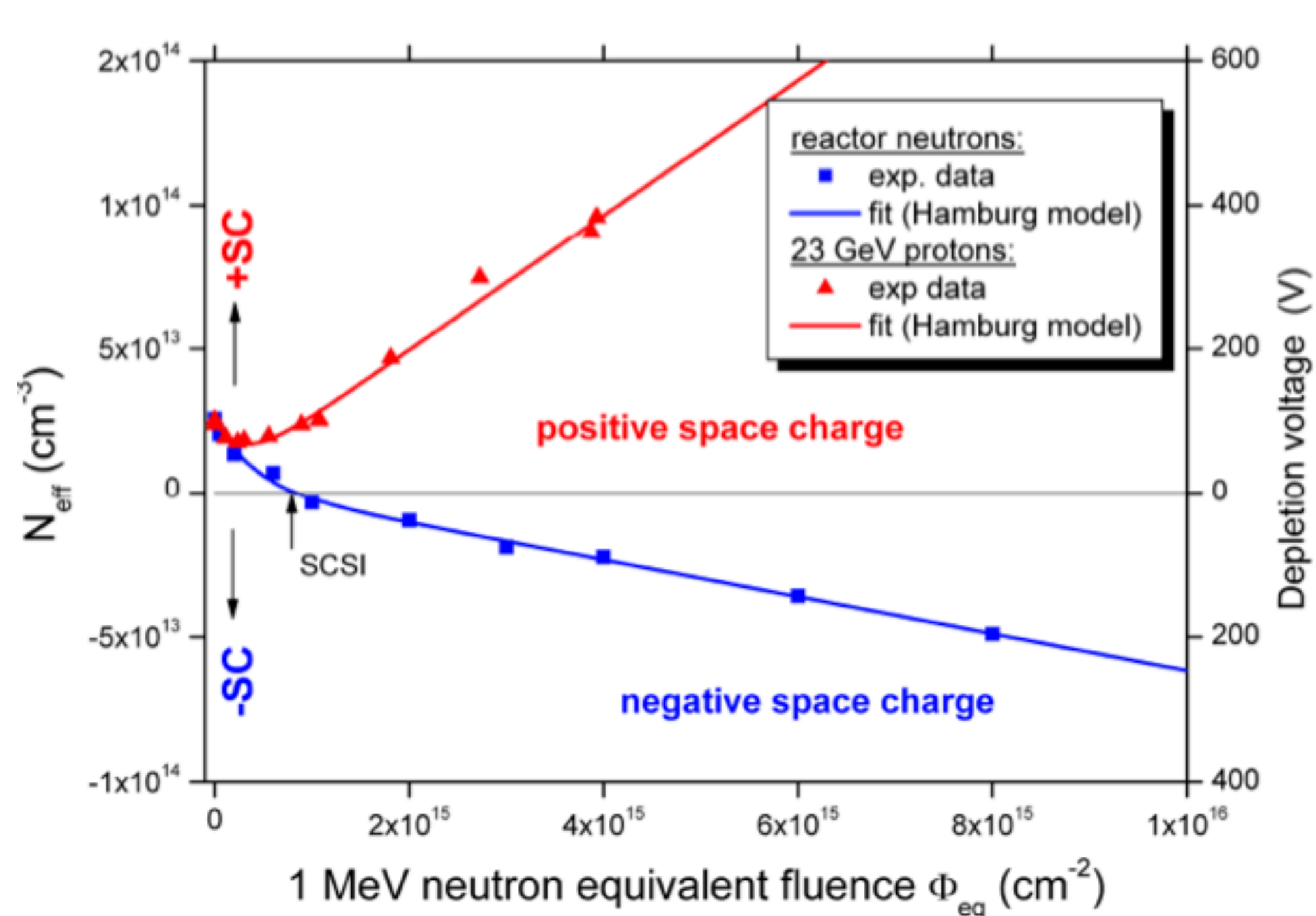
## Irradiation with Neutrons

- p-side readout: holes
- n-side readout: electrons
- electrons better than holes
- MCz better than FZ due to higher oxygen content





- Epitaxial silicon irradiated with 23 GeV protons vs reactor neutrons



- SCSI after neutrons but not after protons
- donor generation enhanced after proton irradiation
- microscopic defects explain macroscopic effect at low  $\Phi_{\text{eq}}$

be careful with NIEL scaling  
when it comes to oxygen-rich material

[Pintilie, Lindstroem, Junkes, Fretwurst, NIM A 611 (2009) 52–68]



**More on other sensor types and silicon systems in the other lectures**





S.M.Sze, Physics of Semicon. Devices , J. Wiley & Sons

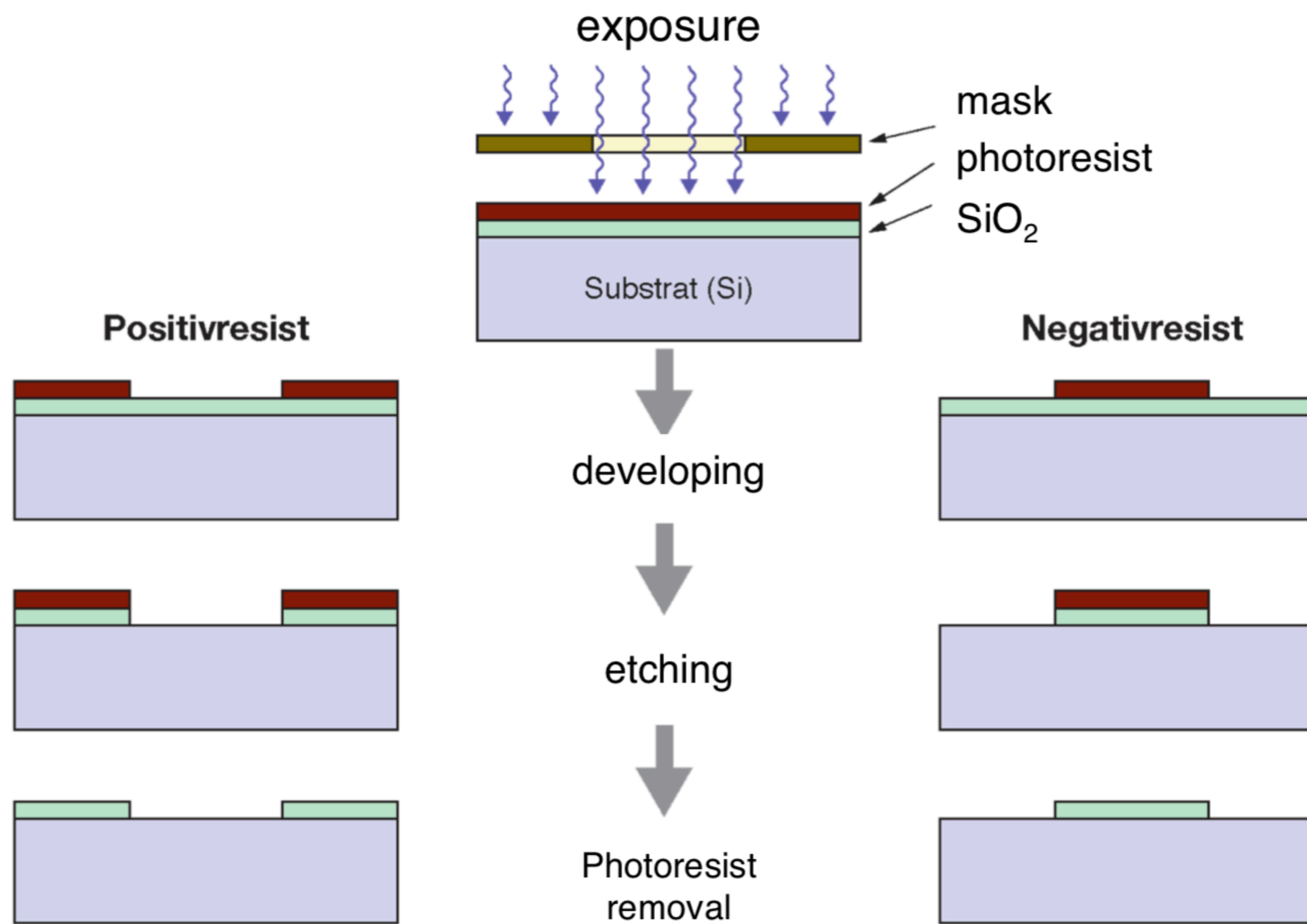
G. Lutz, Semiconductor Radiation Detectors, Springer Device Physics

H. Kolanoski und N. Wermes, Teilchendetektoren, Springer Spektrum

CERN RD50 Collaboration

Lecture Thomas Bergauer, Hefy Vienna,  
Richard Bates, Glasgow

# Photo-Lithography





# Fermi distribution, Fermi levels

Fermi distribution  $f(E)$  describes the **probability that an electronic state with energy  $E$  is occupied by an electron.**

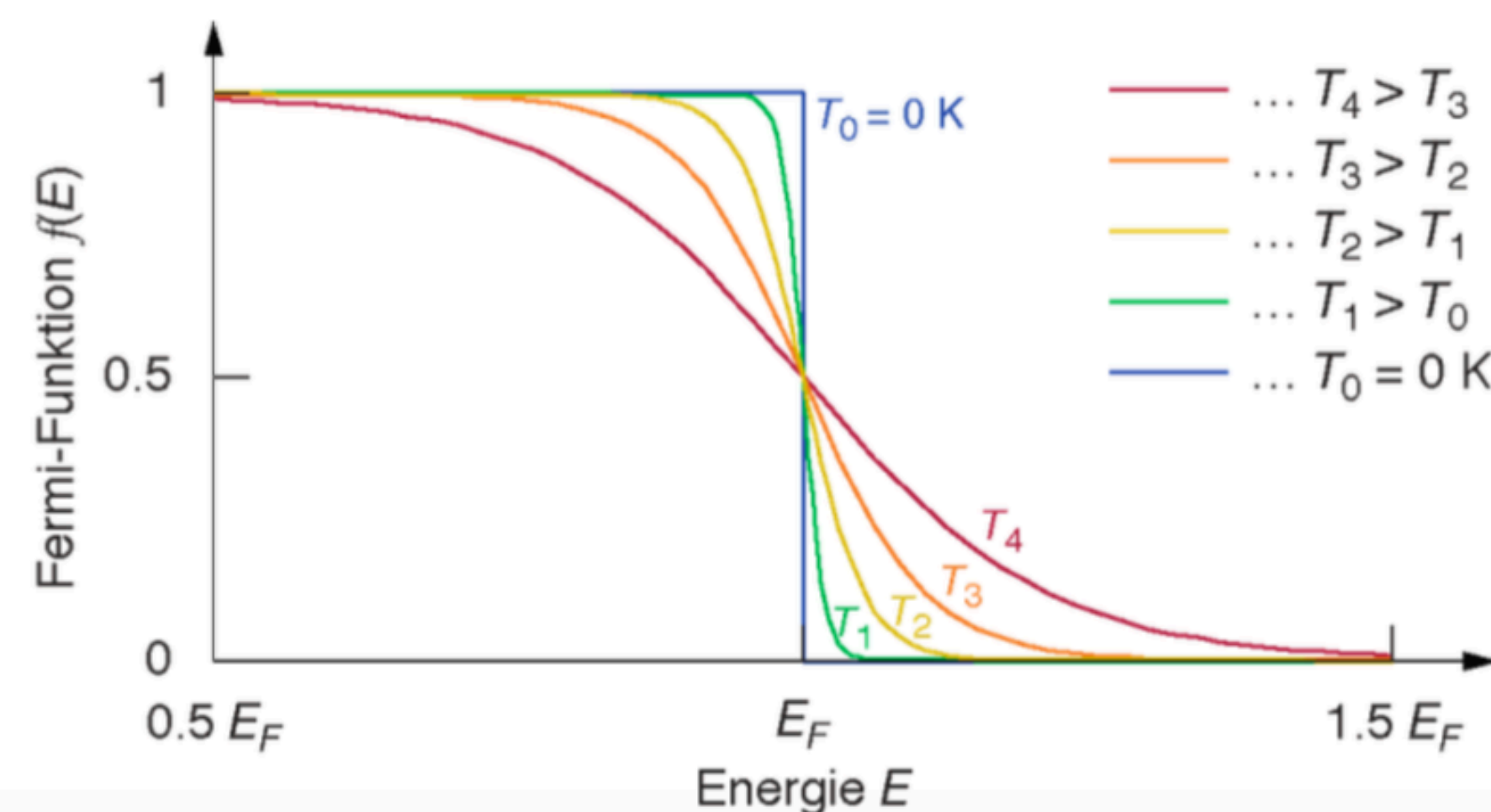
$$f(E) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\frac{E - E_F}{kT}}}$$

The **Fermi level  $E_F$**  is the energy at which the **probability of occupation is 50%**. For metals  $E_F$  is in the conduction band, for semiconductors and isolators  $E_F$  is in the band gap

Fermi distribution function for different temperatures

$$T_4 > T_3 > T_2 > T_1 > T_0 = 0 \text{ K}$$

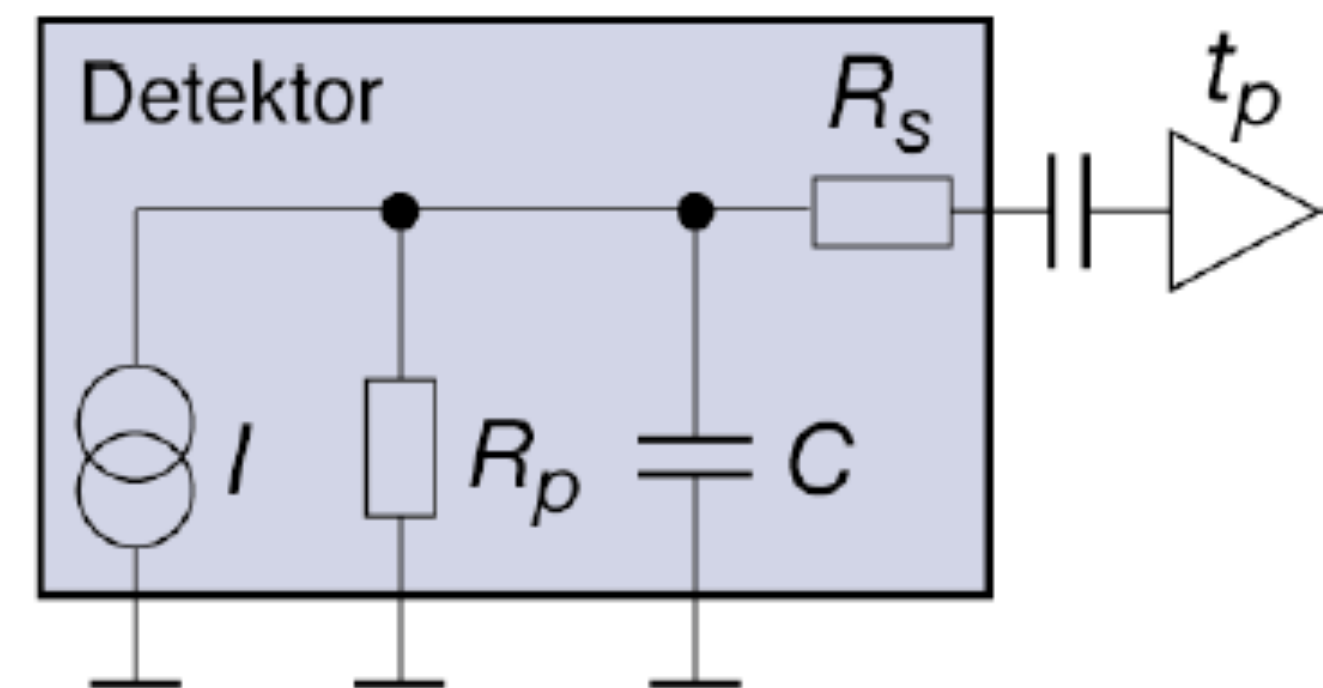
$T_0 = 0 \text{ K}$ : saltus function



# Noise

> The most important noise contributions are:

- Leakage current ( $ENC_I$ )
- Detector capacitance ( $ENC_C$ )
- Detector parallel resistor ( $ENC_{R_p}$ )
- Detector series resistor ( $ENC_{R_s}$ )



Equivalent circuit diagram of a silicon detector.

> The overall noise is the quadratic sum of all contributions:

$$ENC = \sqrt{ENC_C^2 + ENC_I^2 + ENC_{R_p}^2 + ENC_{R_s}^2}$$



**Germanium:**

Used in nuclear physics

Needs cooling due to small band gap of 0.66 eV (usually done with liquid nitrogen at 77 K)

**Silicon:**

Can be operated at room temperature

Synergies with micro electronics industry

Standard material for vertex and tracking detectors in high energy physics

**Diamond (CVD or single crystal):**

Allotrope of carbon

Large band gap (requires no depletion zone)

very radiation hard

Disadvantages: low signal and high cost

# Compound Semiconductors

## > Compound semiconductors consist of

- two (binary semiconductors) or
- more than two

atomic elements of the periodic table.

## > Depending on the column in the periodic system of elements one differentiates between

- IV-IV- (e.g. *SiGe*, *SiC*),
- III-V- (e.g. *GaAs*)
- II-VI compounds (*CdTe*, *ZnSe*)

## > important III-V compounds:

- **GaAs**: Faster and probably more radiation resistant than Si. Drawback is less experience in industry and higher costs.
- GaP, GaSb, InP, InAs, InSb, InAlP

## > important II-VI compounds:

- **CdTe**: High atomic numbers (48+52) hence very efficient to detect photons.
- ZnS, ZnSe, ZnTe, CdS, CdSe, Cd<sub>1-x</sub>Zn<sub>x</sub>Te, Cd<sub>1-x</sub>Zn<sub>x</sub>Se

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1	1 H							2 He
2	3 Li	4 Be	5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
3	11 Na	12 Mg	13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
4	19 K	20 Ca	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
5	37 Rb	38 Sr	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe
6	55 Cs	56 Ba	81 Tl	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn
7	87 Fr	88 Ra	113 Uut	114 Uuq	115 Uup	116 Uuh	117 Uus	118 Uuo





- high resolution, high granularity**
- low material for minimal multiple scattering**
- high speed**
- low power consumption**
- radiation hardness**



