Outline

- History and motivations
- Semiconductors physics
- Silicon radiation detectors
- Perspectives

Silicon pad diode



A single p-n diode in reverse bias is the simplest silicon radiation detector Often it is called pad diode The size varies between few mm^2 to few cm^2 Guard Rings (GRs) assure a smooth transition between the High Voltage (HV) and the GRs Ground (GND) potential n+ shoton 100-1000 µm PAD р Central openings in the aluminium layer for visible/IR photon detection p+

Detection of photons with silicon photodiodes



Photons can experience:

- Surface reflectivity losses
- Absorption losses in the top protection layer
- Conversion inside the top high conductive p++ layer with rapid recombination, mostly for UV light
- Conversion in the top p-layer (assumed to be depleted), mostly in the case of short wavelengths
- Conversion in the depleted n-layer, mostly in the case of longer wavelengths
- Conversion in the undepleted nlayer, mostly for IR light
- No absorption at all, mostly in the case of long wavelength IR light

Silicon PIN diodes

- 'Sixties evolution: the p-i-n (PIN) photodiode
- Wavelength range of some 150 to 1100 nm, covering:
 - the emission wavelength of almost all organic and inorganic scintillators
 - Cherenkov radiators used in particle physics
- Very successful device
- Still used in
 - high energy physics (PMTs replacemet)
 - radiation detection
 - and medical imaging



Silicon PIN photodiode



A piece of intrinsic high-ohmic silicon Sandwiched between two heavily doped n+ and p+ regions

Thick bulk: low capacitance (less noise) + sensible to longer wavelengths
 Undoped bulk: low depletion voltage; longer generation/recombination
 lifetime
 small charge losses, low leakage current

Si PIN diodes for a CsI(Tl) calorimeter (BaBar)





PIN diode: Vdepl ~ 70 V, I ~ 4nA, S~2cm² QE for peak emission close to 80% PMTs only 10-15%

Photon energy resolution ~ 2-3% @ 1GeV



Si PIN diodes: pros and cons

- ✓ Simple and reliable✓ Can operate in B
- ✓ Low voltage wrt PMTs
- No internal gain:
- ✓ Output very stable



- X Charge sensitive preamplifier is needed
- X Low bandwidth filter is needed
 - To cope with noise (leakage current + capacitance)
- X Preamp & filter makes signal slow
- E.g.: minimal detectable signal: O(100)/cm² photons with a filter time constant of few μs

Position measurement: Silicon microstrip detector

Segmentation of the collecting electrode, independent readout of them → position sensitive detector

Typical strip pitch 20-50 µm



The connection between the strips and the readout chips is done via micro-bonding techniques (wires ~20 μm diameter)

Single sided microstrip detector \rightarrow Excellent position resolution in one dimension Reminder: Binary r.o., single strip: $\sigma = p/\sqrt{12}$

Analogue r.o., 2 strips cluster: x (C.O.G.) = $(x_1h_1+x_2h_2)/(h_1+h_2)$, $\sigma \sim p/(SNR)$ (h_i =sign. amp.)



Microstrip detectors with AC-coupled readout

AC-coupling the detector with the electronics allows to avoid the DC detector leakage current to offset the working point of the preamplifier. Coupling capacitors of suitable value could be integrated in the detector itself (another benefit of the planar process)



AC-coupled detector with integrated coupling capacitance

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Biasing circuits

For an AC-coupled a DC path must be provided for the strip leakage currents Two possible methods: via a resistor or by the punch-through method



Deposition of polycristalline silicon between p+ implants and a common bias line

Drawback: Additional production steps and photo lithographic masks required.

Small potential difference between strip implant and the bias dot

bias

Al SiO2

n

SiO2

n-

SiO

Atlas, TU Dortmund & MPI-HLL

This solution allows avoiding the technological steps required for polysilicon deposition in the detector processing; same technology DC and AC strips Radiation damage?

Double-sided microstrip detectors (DSSD)

Single sided detector measures only one coordinate. To measure second coordinate requires second detector layer

Double sided strip detector measures two coordinates in one detector layer (minimizes material)

In n-type detector the n⁺ backside becomes segmented, e.g. strips orthogonal to p⁺ strips

Drawback: expensive as production, handling, and tests are more complicated

Scheme of a double sided strip detector (biasing structures not shown):



DSSD: p⁺ stops

Problem with n+ segmentation: Static, positive oxide charges in the Si-SiO₂ interface Shorting of n+ strips hence No position measurement possible

p⁺-implants (p⁺-stops, blocking electrodes) between n⁺-strips interrupt the electron accumulation layer. \rightarrow Interstrip resistance reach again G Ω .



J. Kemmer and G. Lutz, New Structures for Position Sensitive Semiconductor Detectors, Nucl. Instr. Meth. A 273, 588 (1988)

n+-side of a DSSD with p⁺-stops

DSSD: the BaBar Silicon Vertex Tracker (SVT)



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Babar SVT: physics requirements and layout



BaBar primary goal:

- Study of CP asymmetries in B decays
- Overconstrain CKM matrix parameters

Main SVT physics requirements:

- SVT standalone tracking for $\rm p_t < 120~MeV/c$ with high efficiency
- Single vertex resolution along z-axis better than
- 80 μ m (< Δ z> of B mesons about 250 μ m)



- Microstrip silicon detector; 5 double-sided layers
- Polar acceptance: $17.2^{\circ} < \theta < 150^{\circ}$
- Layer 1-3 (barrel-shaped) for a precise measurement of track impact parameter
- Layer 4-5 (arch shaped) for pattern recognition and low pt tracking
- $X_0(Si) = 9cm$: multiple scattering was the limiting factor to the resolution
- 150 k channels, 340 wafers (6 different models)

BaBar SVT sensors characteristics







- Double-sided, AC-coupled Si
- Integrated polysilicon bias resistors
- 300 μm n-type (4-8 kΩcm)
- P⁺ and n⁺ strips perpendicular to each other

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BaBar SVT performance

TDR target for perpendicular tracks p > 1 GeV:

Layer 1-3 10-15 μm Layer 4-5 30-40 μm

Hit efficiency typically 98%

The BABAR Detector: Upgrades, Operation and Performance NIM A729 (2013) 615-701







The AMS-02 Instrument





The AM-02 Silicon Tracker



- ➤ 2284, 300µm thick, double-sided silicon micro-strip sensors (p+-n-n+)
- 7 to 15 sensors arranged in basic functional units (ladders)
- Intrinsic position resolution : 10 (30) μm in y(x) bending (non-bending)
- 6 honeycomb carbon fiber planes (0.04 X₀)
- ▶ 196k channels → 192 Watts
- 126 Watts cooled by Tracker Thermal Control System (2 phase CO₂)
- Operational temperature range : -10°C to 25 °C.



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DSSD limitations

DSSD measure the 2 dimensional position of a particle track. However, if more than one particle hits the strip detector the measured position is no longer unambiguous. "Ghost"-hits appear!

True hits and ghost hits in a double sided strip detector in case of two particles traversing the detector:



Pixel detectors produce unambiguous hits!

Measured hits in a pixel detector in case of two particles traversing the detector:



Hybrid Pixel Detectors

HPD: Typical size is (50-400) μm x 50 μm

If signal pulse height is not recorded, resolution is the digital resolution: $\sigma = p/\sqrt{12}$ *e.g.* $\sigma = 14 \ \mu m$ for $p = 50 \ \mu m$ Reminder: better resolution is achieved with analogue readout

Small pixel area \rightarrow low detector capacitance (~ few fF/pixel) \rightarrow large SNR (>> 10) Small pixel volume \rightarrow low leakage current (~ few pA/pixel)

Drawbacks of HPD: large number of readout channels DSSD ~ 2n HPD ~ n² Large number of electrical connections in case of HPD Large power consumptions of electronics

S.L. Shapiro et al., Si PIN Diode Array Hybrids for Charged Particle Detection, Nucl. Instr. Meth. A 275, 580 (1989)



HPD – bump bonding process

Electron microscope picture of pixel detector with long strip. Left: Detector chip, right: readout chip with bump bonds applied.



G. Lutz, Semiconductor Radiation Detectors, Springer-Verlag, 1999

Atlas Detector



Atlas Pixel System

M. Keil, TIPP 2011

- 3 hit-system for $|\eta| < 2.5$
 - •3 barrel layers
 - •2 x 3 endcap discs
- 1744 modules, 80M readout channels
- Innermost barrel layer at 5 cm
- Radiation tolerance
 500 kGy / 10¹⁵ 1MeV n_{eq} cm⁻²

430mm 430mm End-cap disk layers

Requirements

High space point resolution: 12 (90) μ m in R Φ (z) Pattern recognition: cope with ~ 25 interactions/crossing, tag heavy quarks at HLT High hit-track efficiency

Atlas Pixel Module

M. Keil, TIPP 2011



Atlas Pixels: Threshold and Noise

M. Keil, TIPP 2011

Typical threshold dispersion: $\sigma \sim 40 e$

Noise in normal pixels ~ 170 e

Figure of merit: Threshold-Over-Noise ~ 20

Pixels with hit rate higher than 10⁻⁵ are masked (0.1% @ 3500e)
After offline masking noise rate ~ 10⁻⁹
→less than 0.1 hit / event for 80M channels (< 1 hit/event without offline masking)
A very "quiet" detector"!



Atlas Pixels (Offline) Performance

M. Keil, TIPP 2011



Other Si Detector Structures

Silicon (PIN) diodes, Silicon Single and Double Sided Strip detectors and Hybrid Pixels detectors are mature technologies employed in almost every experiment in High Energy Physics

Let's now look at other interesting Silicon Detector Structures

- Charged Coupled Devices (CCD)
- Silicon Drift Detectors (SDD)
- Avalanche Photo Diode (APD)
- Silicon Photo Multipliers (SiPM or Pixelized Photon Detector (PPD) or Multi-Pixel Photo Counters (MPPC))

MOS CCDs detectors

Invented in 1969, CCDs have been used for a long time as memories (storing and transfer of charge) and as optical sensors (image devices in video cameras)

Most important field of application as detectors: imaging in Astrophysics, from near infrared to X-rays.



Conceptually: an array of MOS capacitors operated in overdepletion mode. Electrons are created by ionization in the thin depleted region close to the silicon- oxide interface.

Charges are stored in the local energy minima at the Si-SiO₂ interface. The charge can be moved towards the collecting electrode by periodically switching the voltages $\phi 1$, $\phi 2$ and $\phi 3$.

Slow device, hence not suitable for fast detectors

Problem: charge losses during transport are high because of the large density of trapping defects at the Si-SiO2 interface.

CCDs for astronomy and astrophysics today

Scientific CCDs typically use the same 3-phase clocking as in the original Boyle and Smith concept with overlapping polysilicon gate electrodes (triple poly)



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Scientific CCDs: front vs back illumination

Front illumination: Quantum efficiency loss from absorption in polysilicon gates Reflections from complicated thin film stack

To overcome the problem of charge losses, the "buried channel" CCD (BCCD) has been developed. An n-doping region shifts the electrons



Scientific CCDs for Astronomy

Scientific charge-coupled devices are the detector of choice for astronomy

Wavelength range: $\lambda \simeq 350$ nm to 1100 nm (from atmospheric cutoff to Silicon bandagap) \rightarrow UV, visible and near-infrared wavelengths

Back illuminated: for high QE \rightarrow up to 90% at peak

Slow readout for low noise: less than 5 e- at 100 kpixels/s readout

Cryogenically cooled for low dark current: for -100 °C < t < -140 °C few e-/pixel/hour

Quite expensive (10MPixel ~ 100k€)

In the following some examples of astronomy cameras

CCD cameras for astronomy

SDSS Photometric Camera – 30 2k x 2k, (24 μm)²-pixel Sloan Digital Sky Survey Telescope 2000 – 2008



CCD: Thinned (10-20µm) partially depleted 64 MPixels



SuprimeCam – 8² 2k x 4k, (15 μm)²-pixel CCDs Subaru 8-m Telescope (1998)

CCD: 40 μm thick, partially depleted PS1 camera 60 4.8k x 4.8k, (10 μm)²-pixel Pan-STARRS telescope (2010)



1.4 GPixels

CCD: 75 μm thick, fully depleted 870 MPixels



HyperSuprimeCam 116 2k x 4k, (15 µm)²-pixel Subaru 8-m Telescope 1st light achieved 28Aug2012

CCD: 200 μm thick, fully depleted

Trend: thick, full depleted CCDs

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Thick, fully depleted CCDs



Fully Depleted, Back-Illuminated Charge-Coupled Devices Fabricated on High-Resistivity Silicon Stephen E. Holland et al., IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON ELECTRON DEVICESVOL. 50, NO. 1 (2003) 225

Merging of p-i-n and CCD technology: A conventional CCD on a thick, high-resistivity Si substrate (> $4 \text{ k}\Omega$ -cm), fully depleted

The large thickness results in high near-infrared QE The fully depleted operation results in the ability to control the spatial resolution



Drawbacks of thick, fully depleted CCDs





Cosmic rays and Compton electrons from background radiation leave long tracks

30 minute dark 200 μm thick CCD Small sub-image

CCDs in your mobile



CCDs in your mobile



Distributed Electronic Cosmic-ray Observatory

http://wipac.wisc.edu/deco

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| NOA | 43.07515° <i>Latitude</i> 238.00m <i>Altitude</i> | -89.40767° Longitude 293° Bearing | | | |
| Device Id: 00000000-7f71-62fb-f647-baf70033c587 Status: Scanning | | | | | |
| Battery: | 90% (32.0 | J°C /89.6°F) | | | |
| RGB Noise: | | (99,99,99) | | | |
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| RGB Noise: Samples 2292781 Count 1.6 sec Rate Orientation: | Candidates 310 Count Rate -3° | (199,99,99) Events 142 Count Rate / -5° / 293° | | | |





e- from a radioactive decay





LSST: Large Synoptic Survey Telescope



The Large Synoptic Survey Telescope (LSST) is a planned wide-field "survey" telescope It will photograph the entire available sky every few nights The telescope will be located in northern Chile Science first light in 2021

Some of the LSST Physics Goals

Measure gravitational lensing for DE/DM detection Map small objects in Solar System (Super)Novæ detection Milky Way mapping



LSST Science Book http://arxiv.org/pdf/0912.0201v1.pdf

LSST camera and CCDs





LSST sensor specifications



High quantum effciency from 320 to 1080 nm thanks to a large depletion depth (100 μ m) and implementation of the sensor in a back-illuminated configuration

To reduce charge diffusion the sensor is fully depleted, and a high internal field is maintained within the depletion region. This is made possible by the use of high resistivity substrates and high applied voltages.

High Fill factor. A total of 189 4 K x 4 K sensors are required to cover the 3200 cm² focal plane. To maintain high throughput, the sensors are mounted in four-side buttable packages and are positioned in close proximity to one another with gaps of less than a few hundred µm. The resulting fill factor, *i.e.*, the fraction of the focal plane covered by pixels, is 93%.



Prototype sensors mounted on a raft baseplate - <u>http://www.lsst.org/News/enews/focal-plane-201101.html</u>

Silicon Drift photon Detector (SDD)

In silicon drift detectors p⁺ strips and the backplane p⁺ implantation are used to fully deplete the bulk. A drift field transports the generated electrodes to the readout electrodes (n⁺). One coordinate is measured by signals on strips, the second by the drift time.



Used for example in the experiment ALICE (CERN)

The Alice Silicon Drift Detectors (SDD) G.C

G. Contin PSD9



SDD: from X-rays to HEP and back

Invented by Gatti and Rehak (1984) for X-ray spectroscopy

Observo

for x-ray

Used for Tracking/PID in High Energy Physics •

ARGE AREA DETECTOR

LAD with 15 m² SDD:

CTURAL TOWER

OPTICAL BENCH

SOLAR ARRAY

Back to X-ray measurements: the LOFT experiment

Feroci et al., 2012

- •The Large Observatory For x-ray Timing (LOFT) will investigate "matter under extreme conditions"
- •Black Holes, Neutron Stars, etc. Through X-ray transients
- •LAD: $15m^2 \sim 1.5$ times larger than
- predecessor
- ► Need for a light detector
- ➤Heritage: Alice SDD!
- •~ 1 kg/m^2 (before up to 100)
- More physics with less mass!

Launch 20261?1 Heritage: ALICE at LHC Few channels/surface 3D readout, HV along sensor Low input C, low noise Collimator MCP

The largest linear SDD



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LOFT SDD: specifications and performance

SUBSTRATE OPTIMIZATION FOR X-RAY DETECTION MATERIAL: NTD \rightarrow FZ GEOMETRICA AREA (filling factor): 5" \rightarrow 6" wafer <100> RESISTIVITY: 4 k Ω cm \rightarrow 9 k Ω cm THICKNESS (QE): 300 µm \rightarrow 450 µm

2-50 keV energy range with spectral resolution below 260 eV @6 keV

Enhanced quantum efficiency at the low end of the energy range (thicker)

Possibility of X-ray spectroscopy timing on a ten microseconds scale.

The sensitive-to-total-area ratio is 87 %

Large Observatory for x-ray Timing

Yuri Evangelista, Silvia Zane, Iworid2014

SDDs: pros and caveats

PROS

Non ambiguous 2D position information Low number of channels with respect to DSSDs and especially pixels;

Excellent for spectroscopic applications (mono anode devices with radial drift)

CAVEATS

Strong dependence of mobility on temperature \rightarrow calibration needed! Typical drift speeds $\approx 1 - 10 \,\mu$ m/ns (depending on the applied field) \rightarrow it is a slow device.



p+ drift strips on bias potential

Evolution of Silicon Sensor Technology in Particle Physics,

F. Hartmann, Springer Volume 231, 2009

Avalanche Photo Diodes (APDs)

The avalanche photodiode (APD): p-n device with internal gain due to the high internal field at the junction of positive and negative doped silicon



Silicon Photo Multiplier (SiPM)



A single GM-APD gives no information about light intensity \rightarrow in a SiPM the output charge is proportional to the number of triggered cells, that is (for PDE = 1) the number of photons

SiPM features

The characteristics of a SiPM are:

- possibility to detect single photons and give a signal proportional to the number of photons for low fluxes;
- <u>extremely fast response</u> (determined by avalanche spreading): in the order of few hundreds of ps.

Other features are:

- Low bias voltage (20-60V)
- Low power consumption
- Insensitive to magnetic fields
- Compact and rugged

Possible applications are: scintillator read-out, PET, photon correlation studies, calorimetry...)

Example: T2K ND280 ECAL

T2K: Measure v_{μ} disappearance and v_e appearance



ND280 : off axis neutrino beam flux and SuperK backgrounds measurements

Two Fine Grain Detectors (FGDs):

- X,Y planes of fine segmented scintillator bars
- wavelength shifting fibers collect the light from scintillators
- MPPC's detectors read-out the light from fibers





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The T2K ND280 MultiPixel Photon Counter



| Number of pixels | 667 | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|--|
| Active area | $1.3 	imes 1.3 \ \mathrm{mm^2}$ | |
| Pixel size | $50	imes50\ \mu m^2$ | |
| Operational voltage | 68 – 71 V | |
| Gain | ~ 106 | |
| | | |

M. Haigh 2010

R. Sacco, TIPP2011

Total number of SiPMs in T2K = 56000 First large experiment to use this type of sensor.

| System | Channels | Bad channels | Fraction |
|---------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|
| ECAL (DSECAL) | 22336 (3400) | 35 (11) | 0.16% (0.32%) |
| SMRD | 4016 | 7 | 0.17% |
| POD | 10400 | 7 | 0.07% |
| FGD | 8448 | 20 | 0.24 % |
| INGRID | 10796 | 18 | 0.17 % |
| Total | 55996 | 87 | 0.16 % |



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