



European School of Instrumentation
in Particle & Astroparticle Physics



European Scientific Institute

DETECTOR TECHNOLOGIES

Lecture 3: Semi-conductors

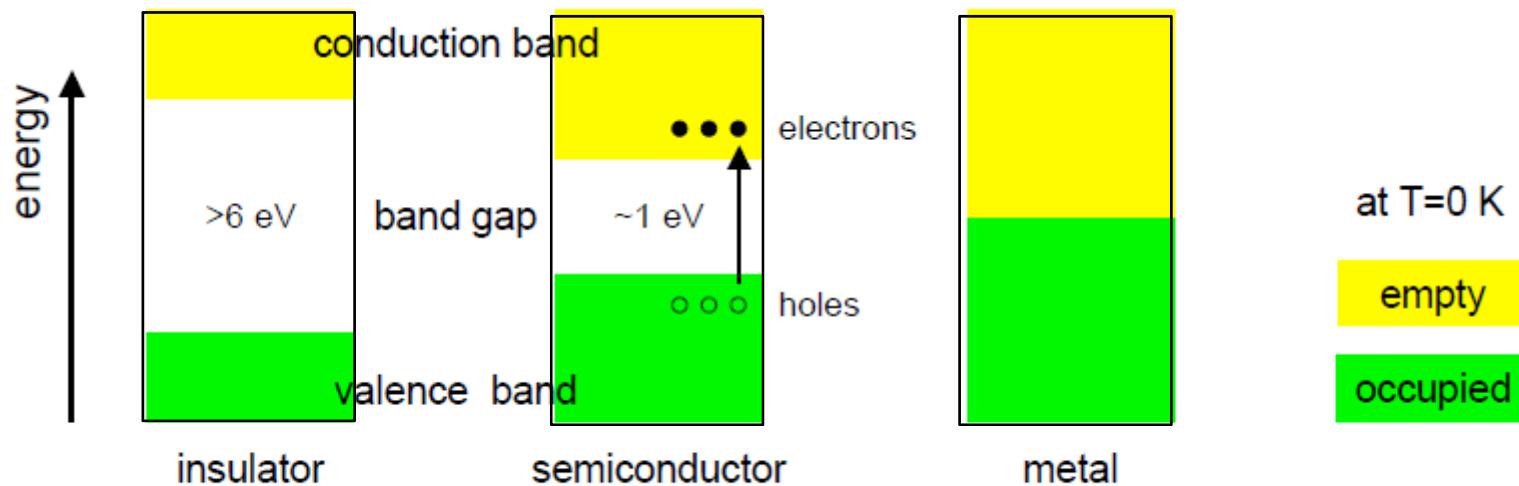
- Generalities
- Material and types
- Evolution

Semiconductors : generalities

Solid-States band structures :

Valence band : e^- bond atoms together

Conduction band : e^- can freely jump from an atom to another



at $T > 0$ K

$$n_i = p_i = \sqrt{N_c N_v} e^{-\frac{E_g}{2kT}} = AT^{3/2} e^{-\frac{E_g}{2kT}}$$

n_i : intrinsic density of electrons in conduction band

p_i : intrinsic density of hole in valence band

$N_{c,v}$: number of states in conduction, valence band

E_g : band gap at 0 K

A: temperature-independent constant

kT at 300 K = 0.025 eV

at $T = 0$ K

empty

occupied

At $T \neq 0$ K

Electrons may acquire enough energy to pass the band gap... Thermal conduction

Semiconductors : generalities

	Si	Ge
atomic number	14	32
density (g/cm ³)	2.33	5.32
atomic density (atoms/cm ³)	4.96 x 10 ²²	4.41 x 10 ²²
dielectric constant (relative to vacuum)	12	16
band gap (eV) 300 K	1.115	0.665
0 K	1.165	0.746
intrinsic carrier density at 300 K (/cm ³)	1.5 x 10 ¹⁰	2.4 x 10 ¹³
mobility (cm ² /V/s) at 300 K: electrons	1350	3900
holes	480	1900
mobility (cm ² /V/s) at 77 K: electrons	2.1 x 10 ⁴	3.6 x 10 ⁴
holes	1.1 x 10 ⁴	4.2 x 10 ⁴
ionisation energy (eV) 300 K	3.62	(*)
77 K	3.76	2.96

Not the same !
(Thermal excitation + phonons)

	Si	Ge	GaAs	Diamond
E _g [eV]	1.12	0.67	1.35	5.5
n _i (300K) [cm ⁻³]	1.45 x 10 ¹⁰	2.4 x 10 ¹³	1.8 x 10 ⁶	< 10 ³

Energy loss by a charged particle : Bethe-Bloch

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = K z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2 T_{\max}}{I^2} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta(\beta\gamma)}{2} \right]$$

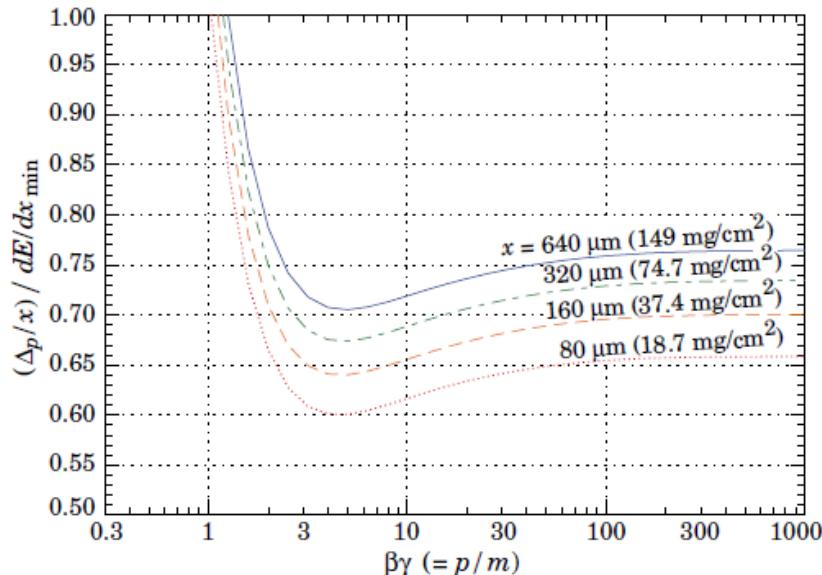
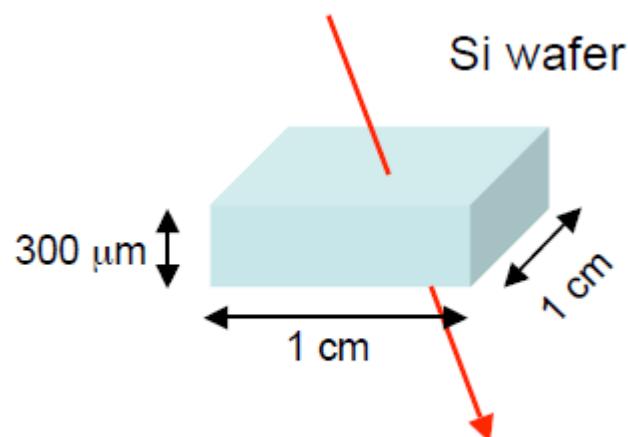


Figure 27.9: Most probable energy loss in silicon, scaled to the mean loss of a minimum ionizing particle, 388 eV/ μm ($1.66 \text{ MeV g}^{-1}\text{cm}^2$).

Standard :
Energy loss :
electrons – holes pairs created
(NOT electrons – ions...)
If Field (even natural)
electrons migration
Electrical pulse
Information

Too simple !

Semiconductors : generalities



One MIP in Silicon at 300°K

Energy loss : $dE / dx \approx 388 \text{ eV}/\mu\text{m}$

Ionisation Energy : 3.62 eV

e – holes pairs created : $107/\mu\text{m}$

For 300 μm : 3.2×10^4 pairs created

at T>0 K

$$n_i = p_i = \sqrt{N_c N_v} e^{-\frac{E_g}{2kT}} = AT^{3/2} e^{-\frac{E_g}{2kT}}$$

Free charge carriers in the same volume :
 $\approx 4.5 \times 10^9$

n_i : intrinsic density of electrons in conduction band
 p_i : intrinsic density of hole in valence band
 $N_{c,v}$: number of states in conduction, valence band
 E_g : band gap at 0 K
 A : temperature-independent constant

kT at 300 K = 0.025 eV

Signal is lost !

Solution : Depletion of the detector

- Doping
- Blocking contacts

Depletion : removing the maximum possible thermally excitable electrons

Semiconductors : generalities : the Fano factor

Number of e – h pairs is a statistical process :

$$\text{Number of e-h pairs : } N = E_{\text{loss}} / E_{\text{ionization}}$$

If excitations are independants , they obey to a Poisson statistic with a standard deviation

$$\sigma_N = \sqrt{N} = \sqrt{\frac{E_{\text{loss}}}{E_{\text{ionization}}}}$$

$$\text{variance : } \sigma^2_N = \frac{E_{\text{loss}}}{E_{\text{ionization}}}$$

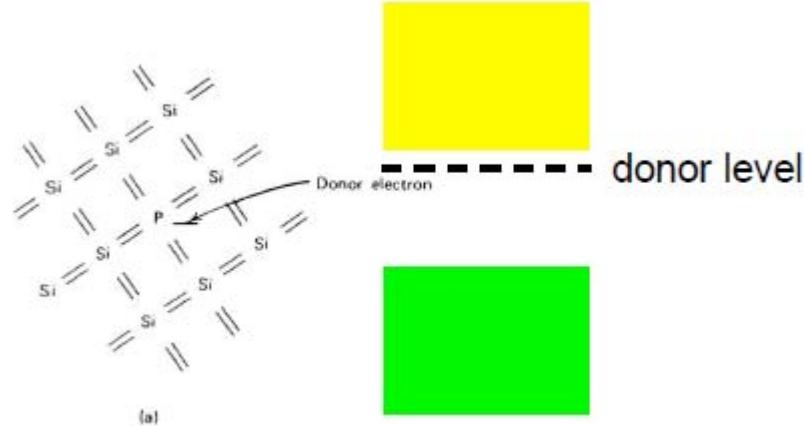
Fano factor :

variance / mean of the process (should be 1 for a perfect Poisson distribution)

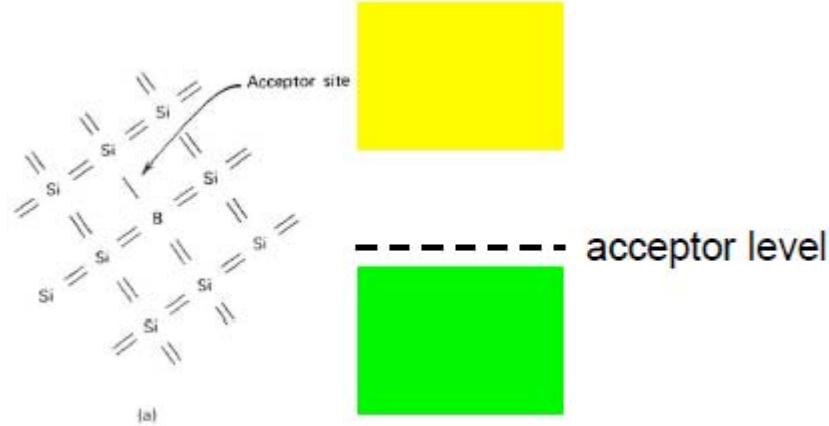
Si	0.115
Ge	0.13
GaAs	0.10
Diamond	0.08

Fano factor related to energy resolution :
A Fano factor < 1 means that the energy resolution would be better than theoretically expected...

Semiconductors : generalities : p and n types



- pentavalent elements (group V/15, e.g. P, As, Sb) have one electron too much to fit in: "donor impurities"
 - extra electrons are lightly bound
 - energy level close to the conduction band
 - thermally excited into the conduction band
 - recombination with holes: $n_e \gg n_h$
- n-type semiconductors
- electrons are the majority charge carriers
 - holes are the minority charge carriers



- trivalent elements (group III/13, e.g. Ga, B, In) have one electron too little to fit in: "acceptor impurities"
 - electrons in missing bond slightly less bound
 - energy level close to the valence band
 - thermally excited electrons fill the acceptor level, creating holes
 - holes recombine with conduction band electrons: $n_h \gg n_e$
- p-type semiconductors
- holes are the majority charge carriers
 - electrons are the minority charge carriers

dopants :

Arsenic, Phosphorous

dopants :

Boron, Gallium, Indium

Semiconductors : generalities : p and n types

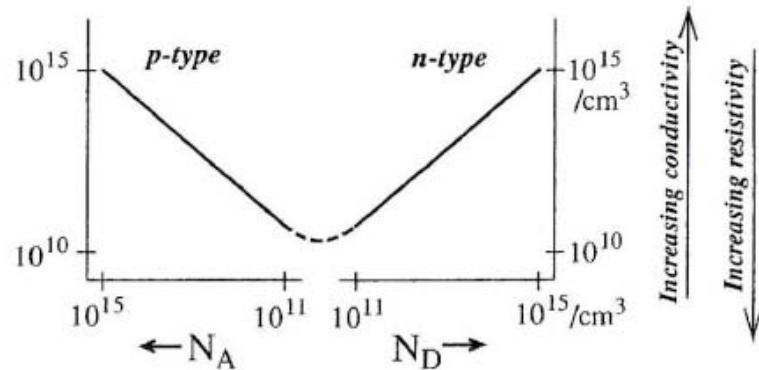
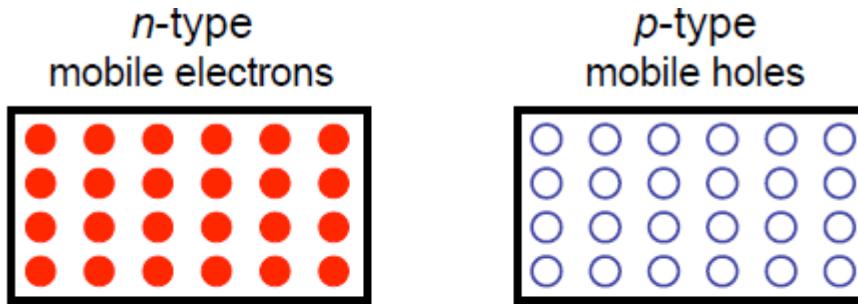


Figure 11.6 Plot using logarithmic scales of the conductivity of a semiconductor as a function of the net concentration of acceptors (N_A) or donors (N_D).

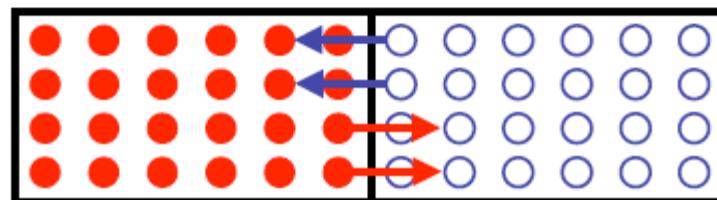
Typically : doping level for a Silicon Detector : $10^{12} \text{ atoms / cm}^3$

Doping us usually done by ion implantation.



A p-n junction is formed when a single crystal of semiconductor is doped with acceptors on one side and donors on the other

diffusion: holes to n-region, electrons to p-region



uncompensated fixed charges build up
emerging "contact" potential stops diffusion

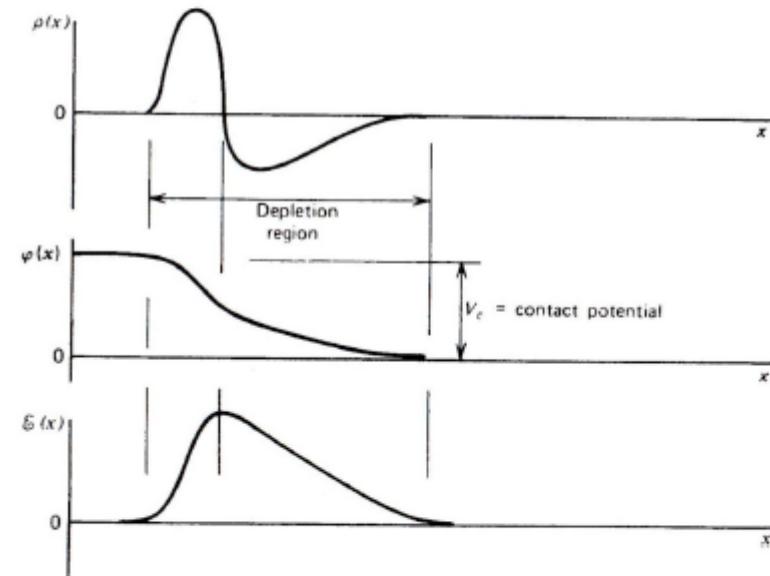
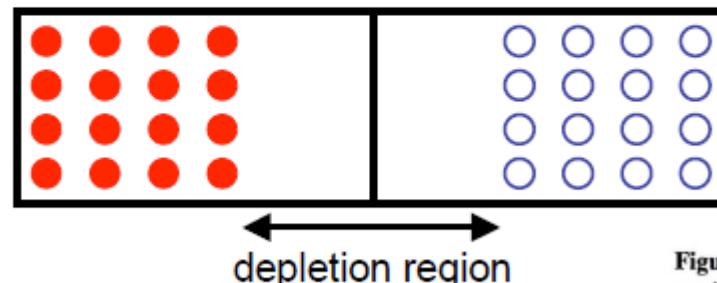
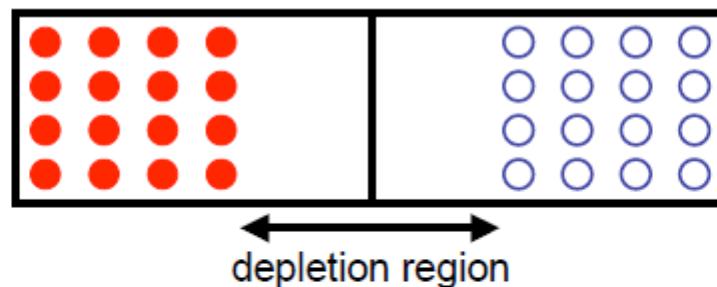
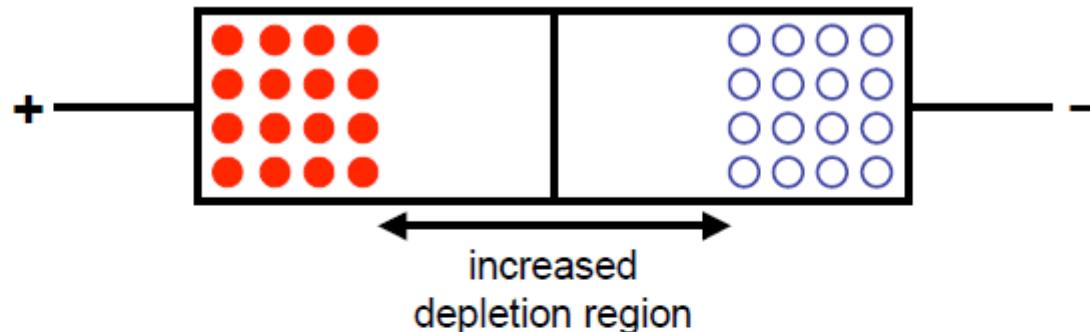


Figure 11.8 The assumed concentration profiles for the $n-p$ junction shown at the top are explained in the text. The effects of carrier diffusion across the junction give rise to the illustrated profiles for space charge $\rho(x)$, electric potential $\varphi(x)$, and electric field $E(x)$.



- thermally generated charge carriers are quickly swept away due to the contact potential
 - highly suppressed charge carrier density
 - relatively small amount of charge carriers created by an ionising particle is easily detected
- poor performance because:
 - small contact potential (~ 1 V): slow-moving charges can be trapped, resulting in incomplete charge collection
 - depletion layer is thin:
 - high capacitance → large electronic noise
 - small sensitive volume cannot detect high-energy radiation

Semiconductors : generalities : reverse biasing scheme



- bias: 100 - 1000 V/cm
- $V \gg$ contact potential
- depletion region thickness increases
 - smaller capacitance, smaller electronic noise
 - quick and complete charge collection

$$d = \left(\frac{2 \epsilon V}{e N} \right)^{1/2}$$

d: depletion region thickness

V: reverse bias voltage

ϵ : dielectric constant

e: electronic charge

N: net impurity concentration (atoms/cm³)

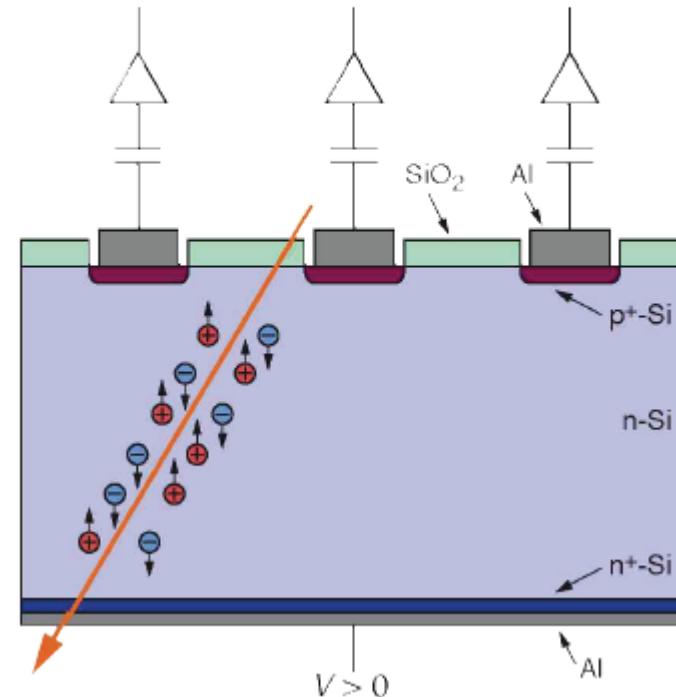
The p – n zones will be used for contact
and to block (Blocking Contacts) the undesired noise

DC Coupling Silicon detector

Through going charged particles create e^-h^+ pairs in the depletion zone (about 30.000 pairs in standard detector thickness). These charges drift to the electrodes. The drift (current) creates the signal which is amplified by an amplifier connected to each strip. From the signals on the individual strips the position of the through going particle is deduced.

A typical n-type Si strip detector:

- ★ p⁺n junction:
 $N_a \approx 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $N_d \approx 1-5 \cdot 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- ★ n-type bulk: $\rho > 2 \text{ k}\Omega\text{cm}$
→ thickness 300 μm
- ★ Operating voltage < 200 V.
- ★ n⁺ layer on backplane to improve ohmic contact
- ★ Aluminum metallization

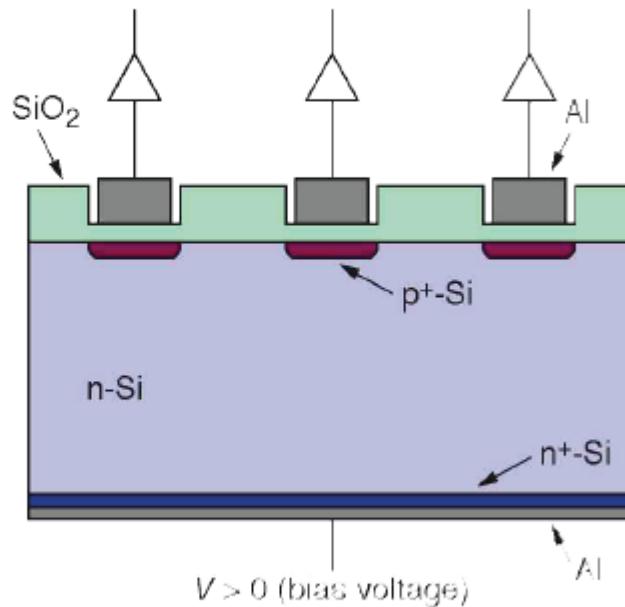


AC Coupling Silicon detector

AC coupling blocks leakage current from the amplifier.

- ★ Integration of coupling capacitances in standard planar process.
- ★ Deposition of SiO_2 with a thickness of 100–200 nm between p+ and aluminum strip
- ★ Depending on oxide thickness and strip width the capacitances are in the range of 8–32 pF/cm.
- ★ Problems are shorts through the dielectric (pinholes). Usually avoided by a second layer of Si_3N_4 .

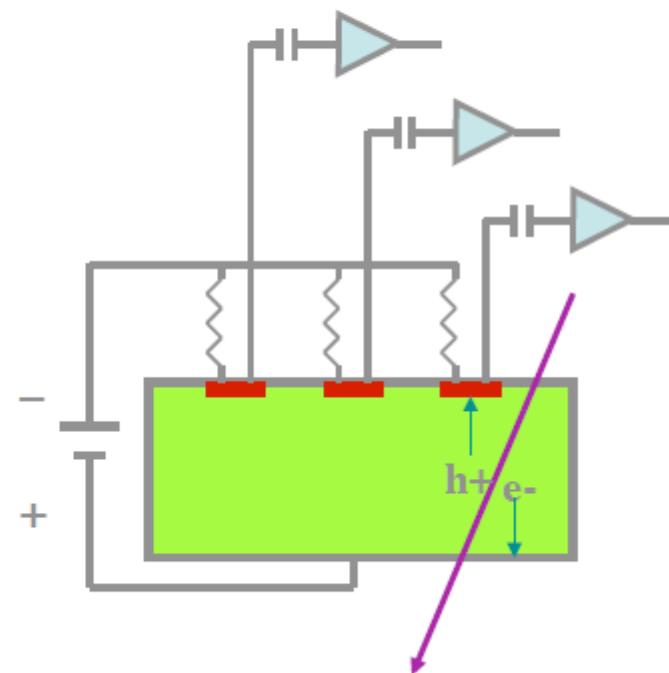
AC coupled strip detector:



Several methods to connect the bias voltage: polysilicon resistor, punch through bias, FOXFET bias.

AC coupled Si detectors create 2 electrical circuits :

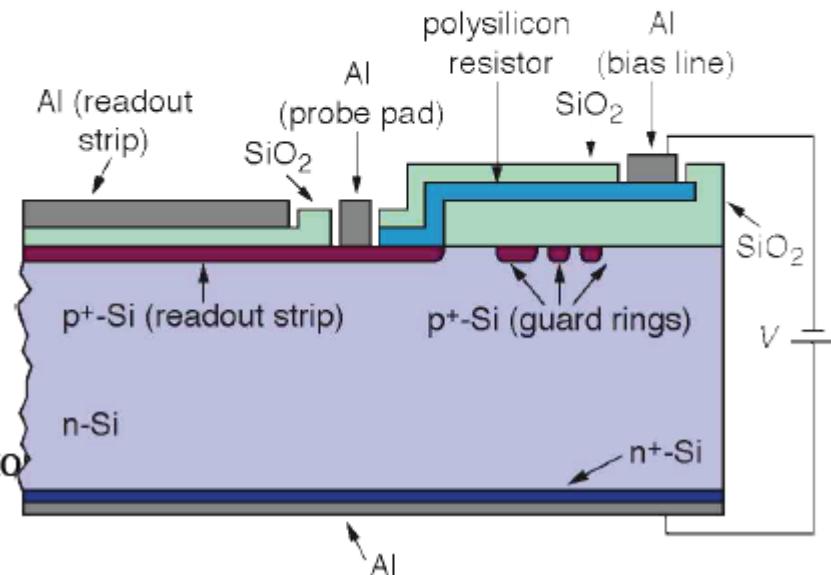
- Read-out circuit to the amplifier (AC current)
- Biasing circuit (DC current)



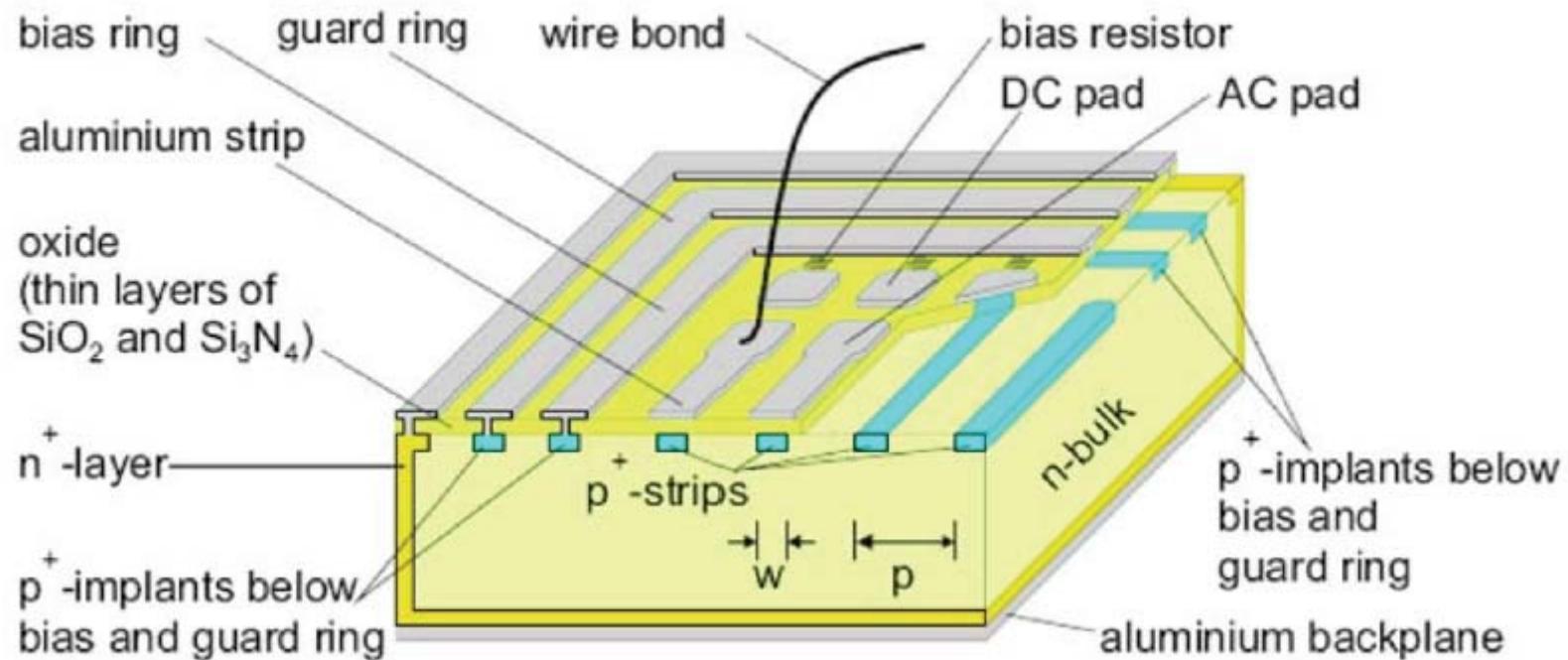
AC Coupling Silicon detector : bias voltage system

- ★ Deposition of polycrystalline silicon between p⁺ implants and a common bias line.
- ★ Sheet resistance of up to $R_s \approx 250 \text{ k}\Omega/\square$. Depending on width and length a resistor of up to $R \approx 20 \text{ M}\Omega$ is achieved ($R = R_s \cdot \text{length}/\text{width}$).
- ★ To achieve high resistor values winding poly structures are deposited.
- ★ Drawback: Additional production steps and photo lithographic masks required.

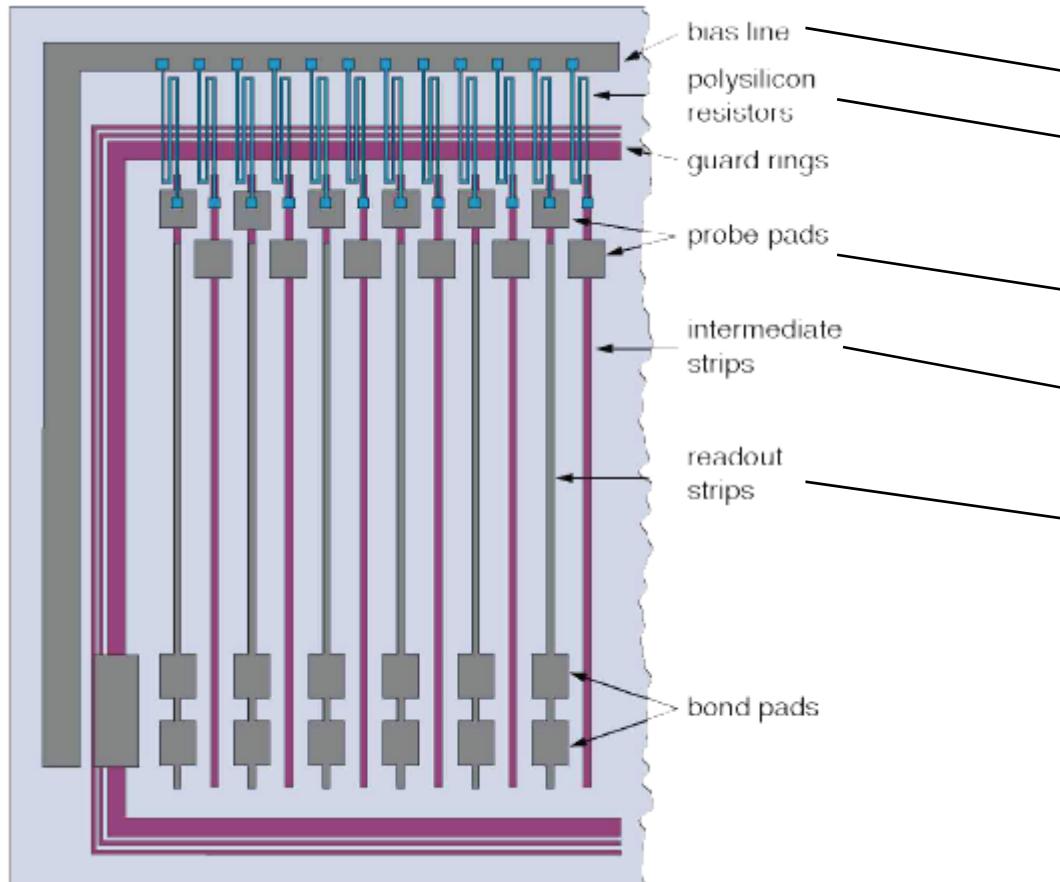
Cut through an AC coupled strip detector with integrated poly resistor



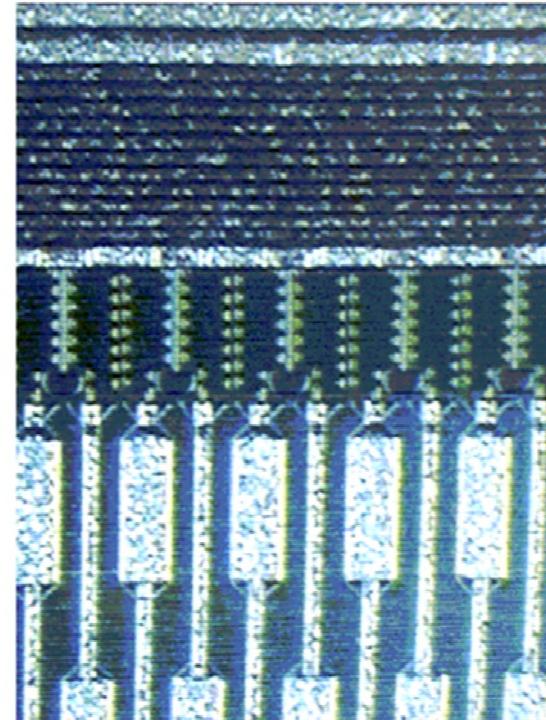
Most commonly scheme AC + poly S-bias resistor



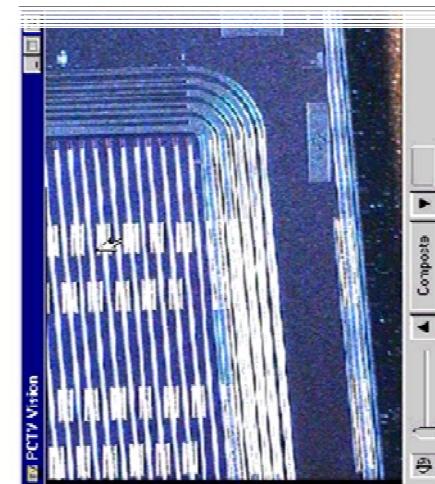
Semiconductors : Si detectors designs



CMS design



ATLAS design



Semiconductors : Si detectors designs

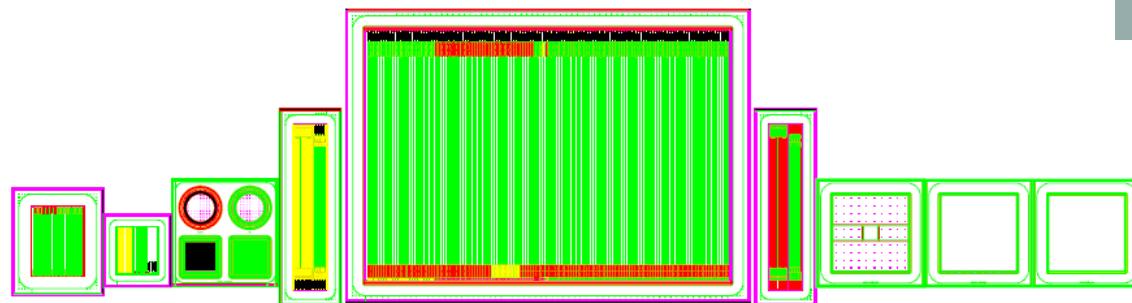
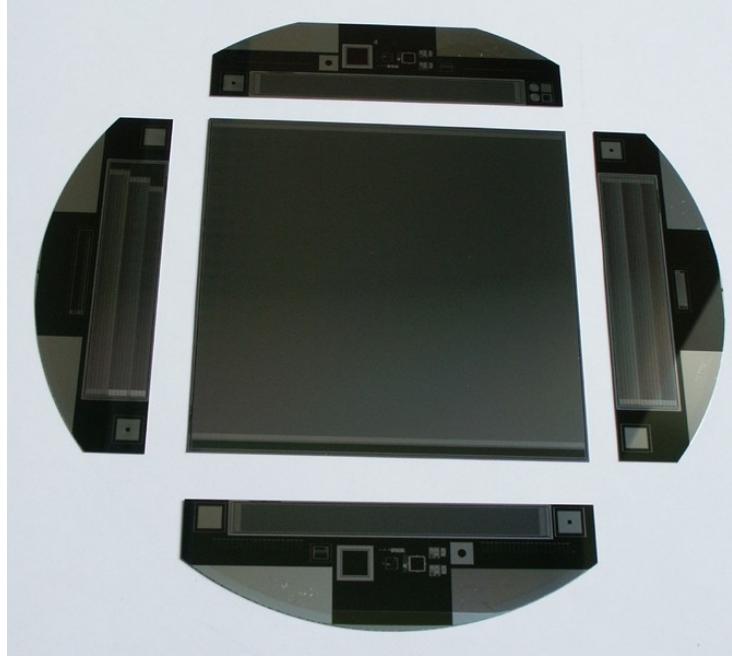


Figure 4.1: View of the Standard half-moon. The devices are (from left to right): TS-CAP, sheet, GCD, CAP-TS-AC, baby, CAP-TS-DC, diode, MOS1 and MOS2.

Two types of radiation damage :

- Bulk (Crystal) damage due to Non Ionizing Energy Loss (NIEL)
 - displacement damage, built up of crystal defects –

Change of effective doping concentration (higher depletion voltage,
under- depletion)

Increase of leakage current (increase of noise, thermal runaway)
Increase of charge carrier trapping (loss of charge)

- Surface damage due to Ionizing Energy Loss (IEL)
 - accumulation of positive in the oxide (SiO_2) and the Si/SiO_2 interface –
affects: interstrip capacitance (noise factor), breakdown behavior, ...

Impact on detector performance

(depending on detector type and geometry and readout electronics!)

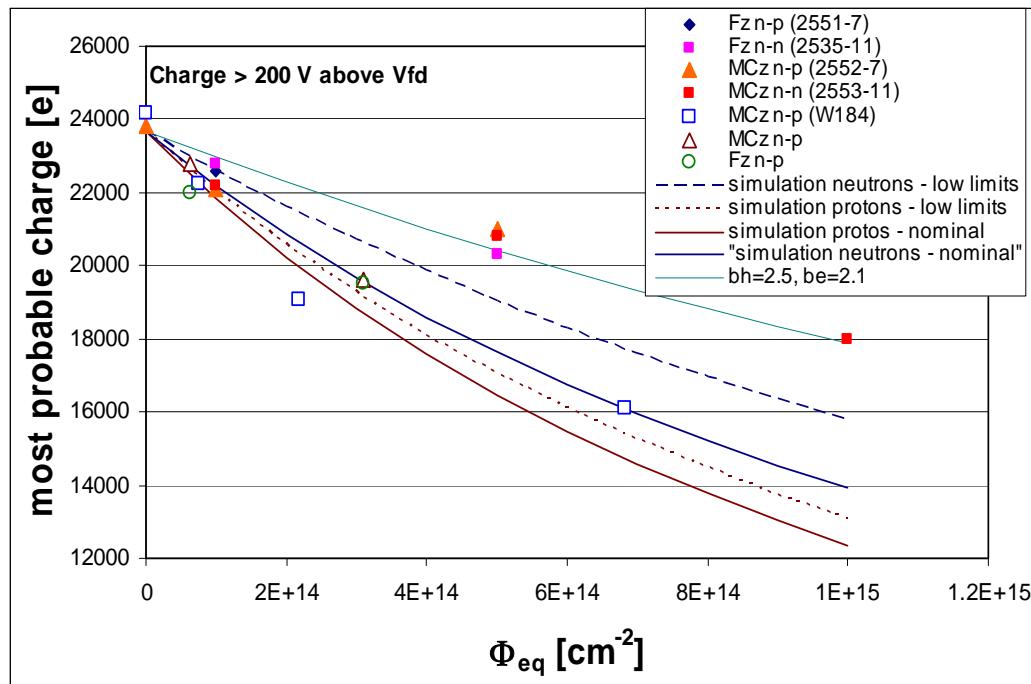
Signal/noise ratio is the quantity to watch

⇒ Sensors can fail from radiation damage !

Loss of collected charges

(new 300 µm Silicon $\approx 24\,000$ e- for 1 MIP)

Trapping is characterized by an effective trapping time τ_{eff} for electrons and holes:

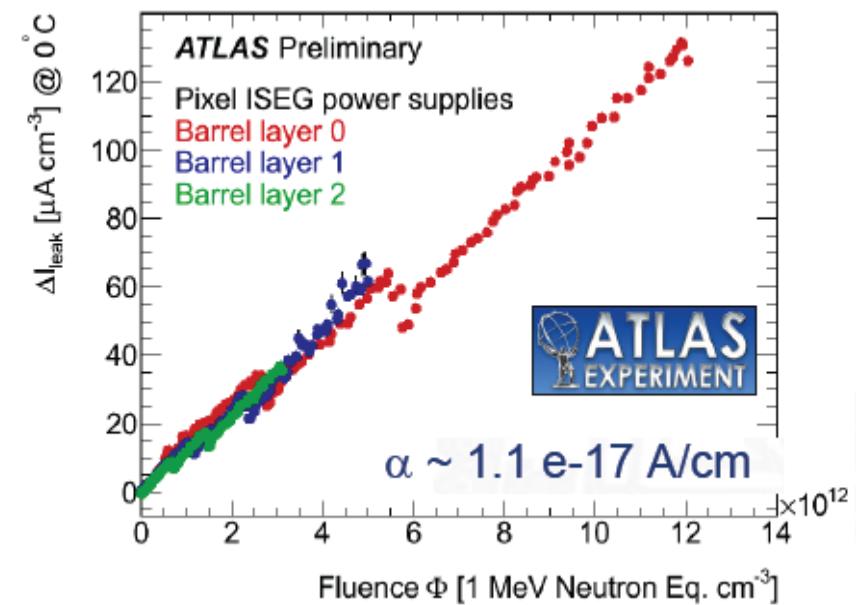
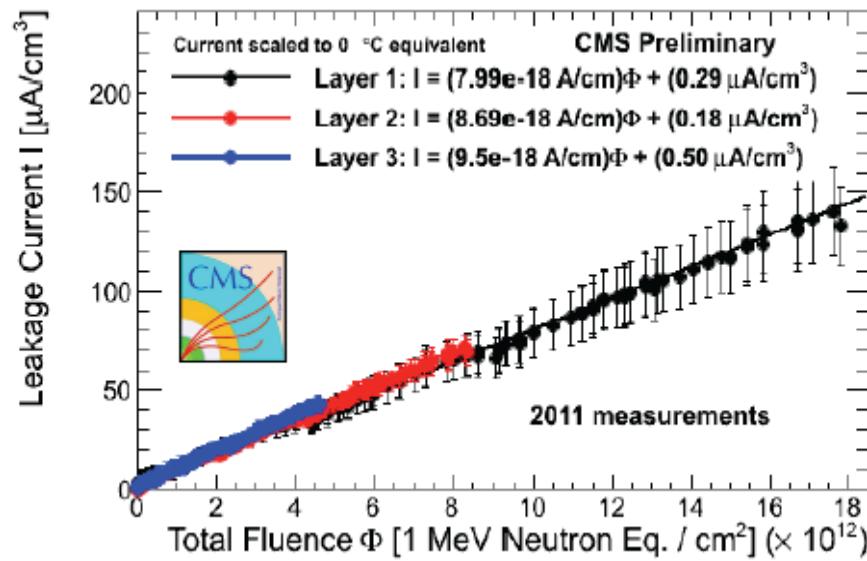


$$Q_{e,h}(t) = Q_{0e,h} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\tau_{\text{eff } e,h}} \cdot t\right)$$

where

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{\text{eff } e,h}} \propto N_{\text{defects}}$$

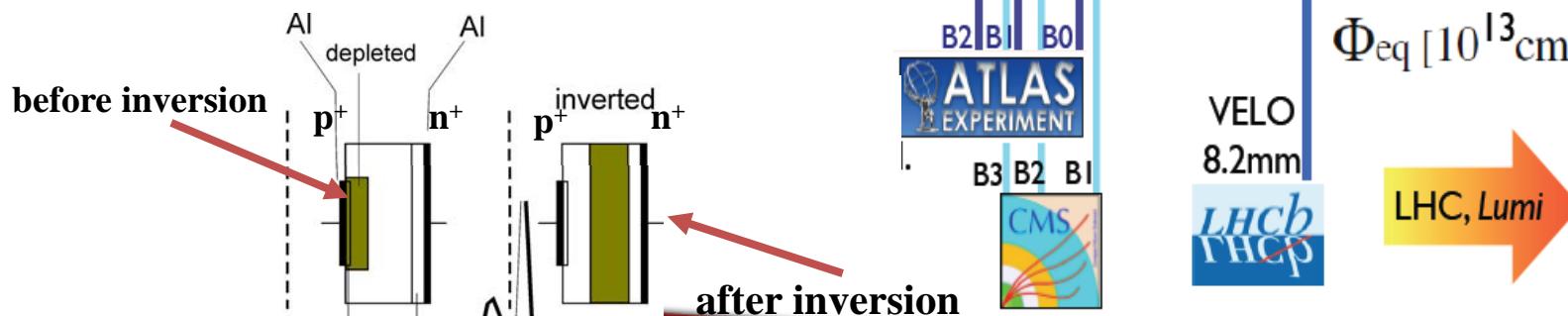
Increase of Leakage current



Change in depletion voltage and type inversion

- The present status of the innermost layers of ATLAS, CMS and LHCb:

Innermost layers
should still work after
 $\Phi_{eq} \approx 10^{15} cm^{-2}$



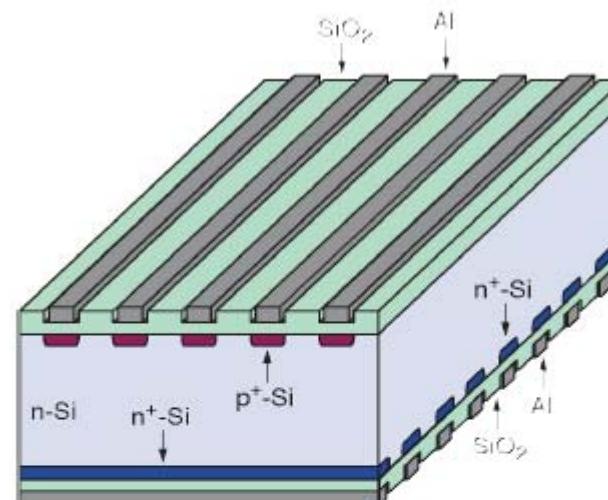
Double Sided Silicon Detectors (DSSD) Not much in use...

Advantages:

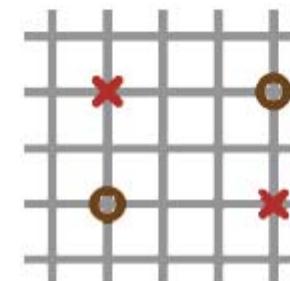
- More elegant way for measuring 2 coordinates
- Saves material

Disadvantages:

- Needs special strip insulation of n-side (p-stop, p-spray techniques)
- Very complicated manufacturing and handling procedures ⇒ expensive
- Ghost hits at high occupancy



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



✗ real hits
○ "Ghosts"

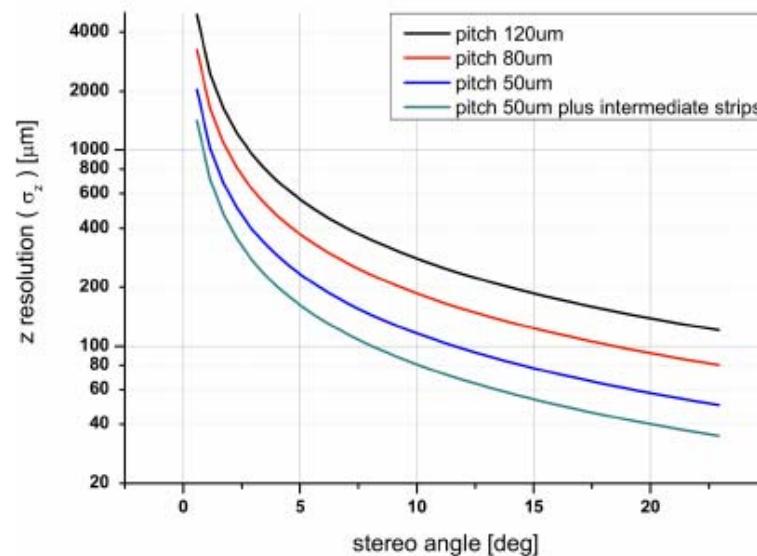
Stereo Modules

2nd coordinate requires second detector underneath
→ double the material

- Acceptable for hadron colliders like LHC
- Not acceptable for e+/e- colliders with tighter material budget

Tilt angle defines z-resolutions (usually along beam axis)

- CMS uses ~6 degrees



Semiconductors : Performance

★ Threshold readout (one strip signal):

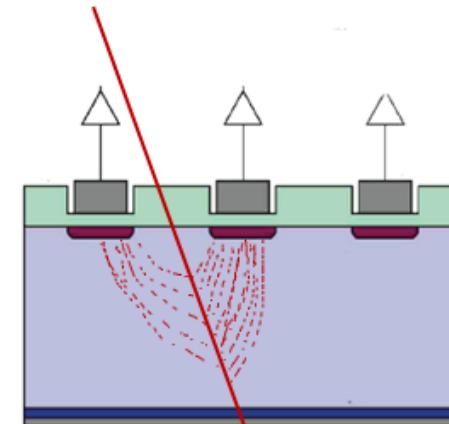
→ position: $x = \text{strip position}$

→ resolution:

$$\sigma_x \approx \frac{p}{\sqrt{12}}$$

p ... distance between strips
(readout pitch)

x ... position of particle track



★ charge center of gravity (signal on two strips):

→ position:

$$x = x_1 + \frac{h_1^2}{h_1 + h_2} (x_2 - x_1) = \frac{h_1 x_1 + h_2 x_2}{h_1 + h_2}$$

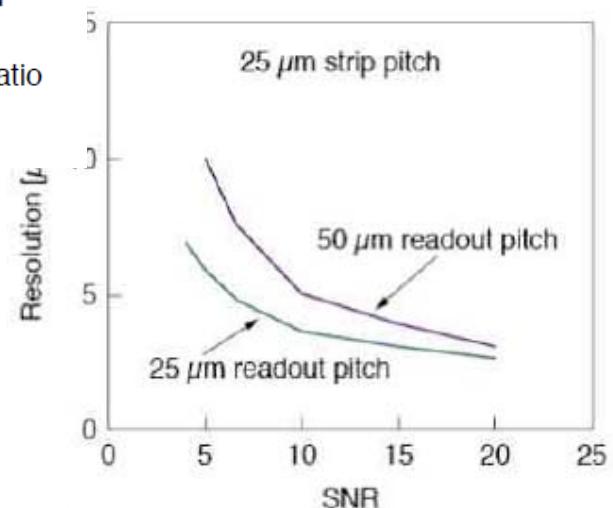
x_1, x_2 ... position of 1st and 2nd strip

h_1, h_2 ... signal on 1st and 2nd strip

SNR ... signal to noise ratio

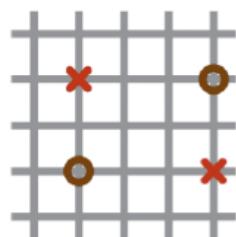
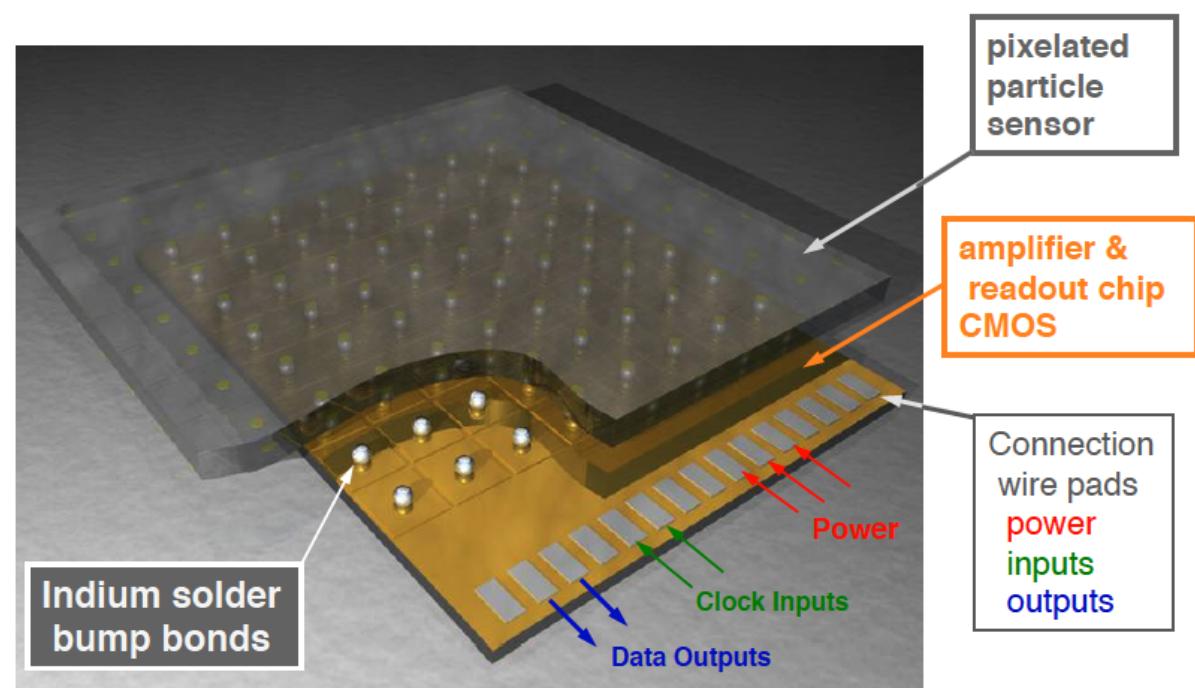
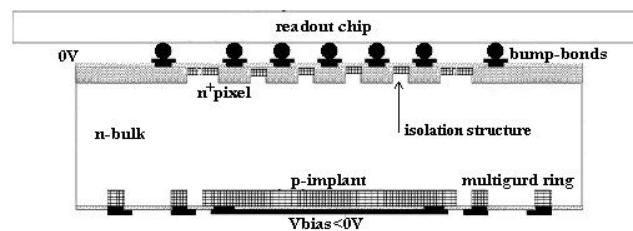
→ resolution:

$$\sigma_x \propto \frac{p}{SNR}$$

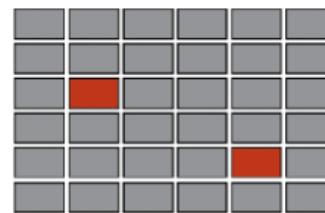


A. Peisert, *Silicon Microstrip Detectors*,
DELPHI 92-143 MVX 2, CERN, 1992

Semiconductors : Pixels Detectors



real tracks
"ghosts"



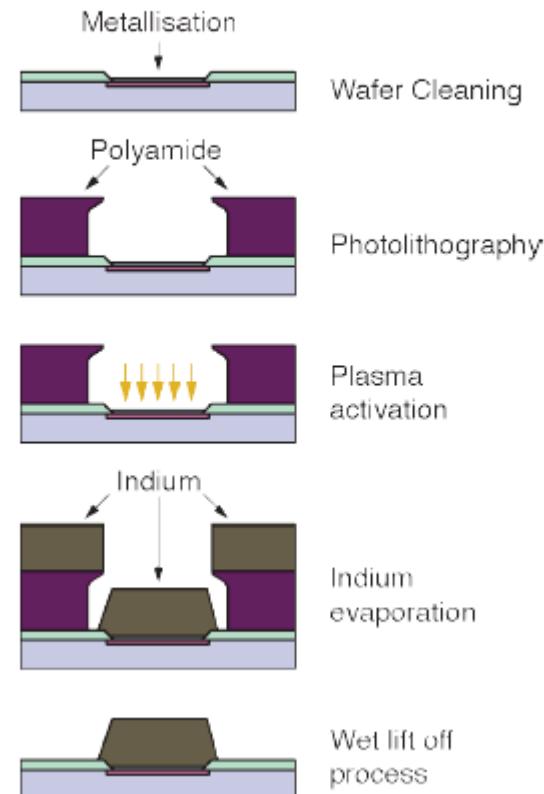
real tracks

Pixel sizes :
 ATLAS : 50 µm x 400 µm
 CMS : 100 µm x 150 µm
 ALICE : 50 µm x 425 µm

CONNECTION BY BUMP BONDING

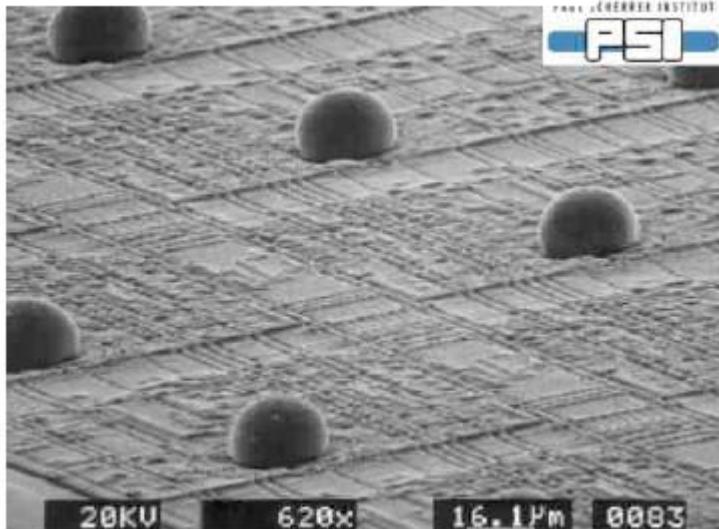
A typical bump bonding process (array bump bonding) is the following:

1. Deposition of an “under-bump metal layer”, plasma activated, for a better adhesion of the bump material.
2. Photolithography to precisely define areas for the deposition of the bond material.
3. Deposition, by evaporation, of the bond material (e.g. In or SnPb) producing little “bumps” ($\approx 10 \mu\text{m}$ height).
4. Edging of photolithography mask leaves surplus of bump metal on pads.
5. Reflow to form balls.



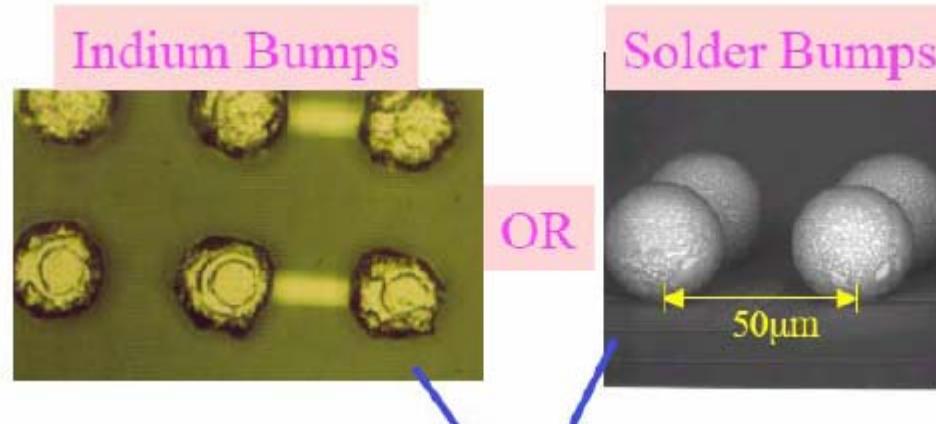
L. Rossi, *Pixel Detectors Hybridisation*,
Nucl. Instr. Meth. A 501, 239 (2003)

Semiconductors : Pixels Detectors

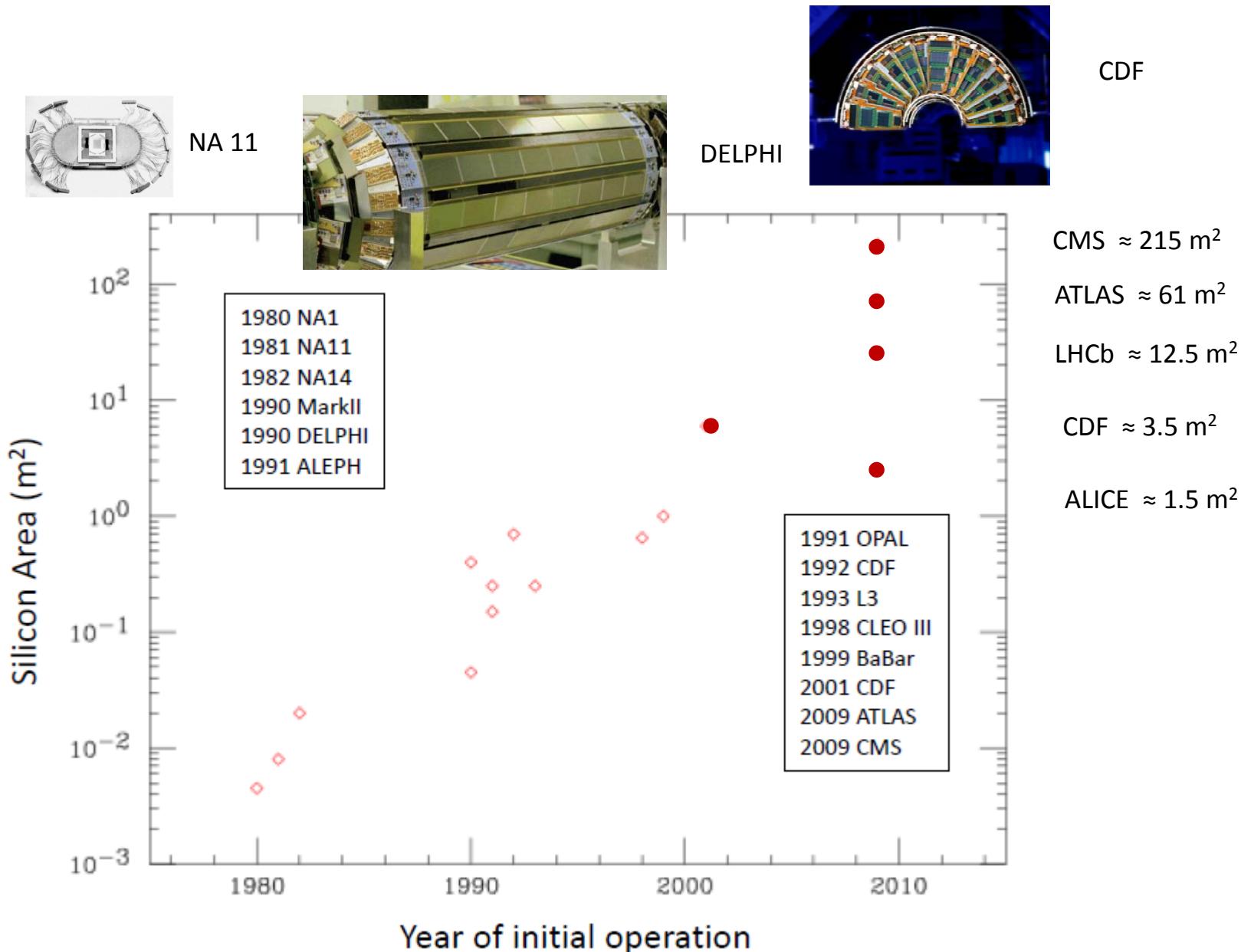


Pitch : 50 μm

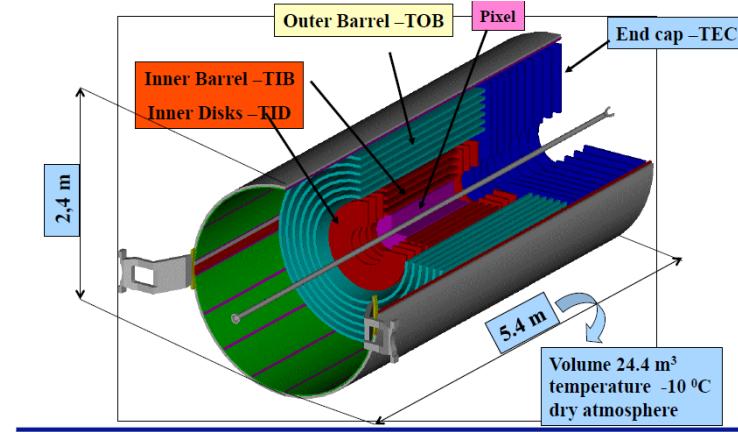
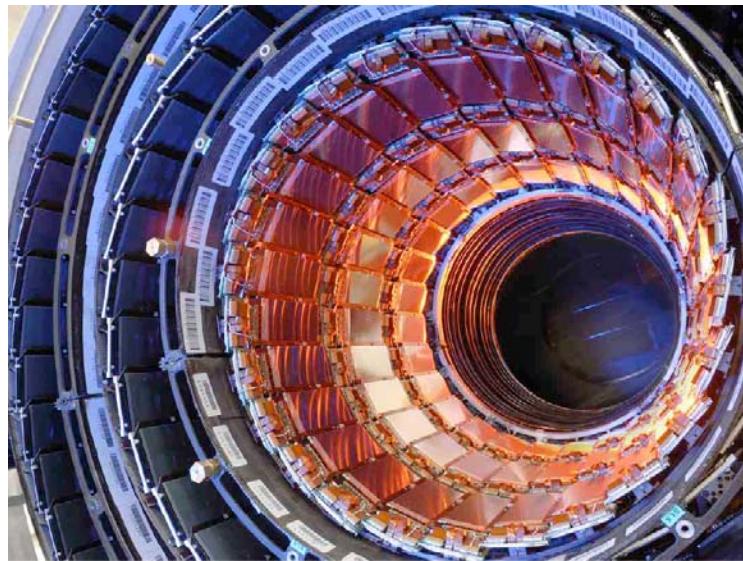
(wire bonding typically 200 μm)



Semiconductors : Silicon history



Semiconductors : CMS Silicon Detector

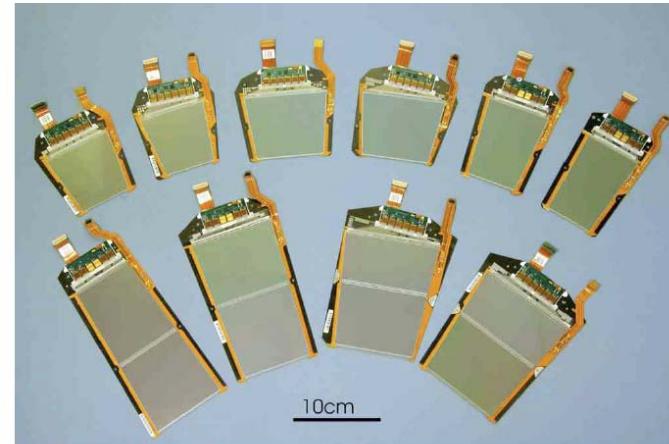


Strip detector:

~200 m² of silicon sensors
24,244 single silicon sensors
15,148 modules
9,600,000 strips ≈ electronics channels
75,000 read out chips (APV25)
25,000,000 Wire bonds

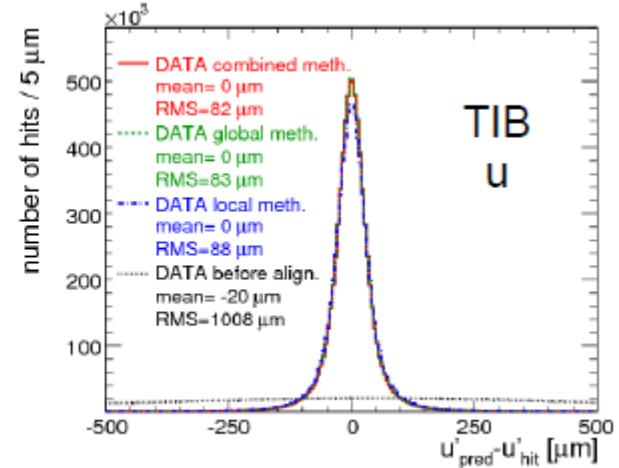
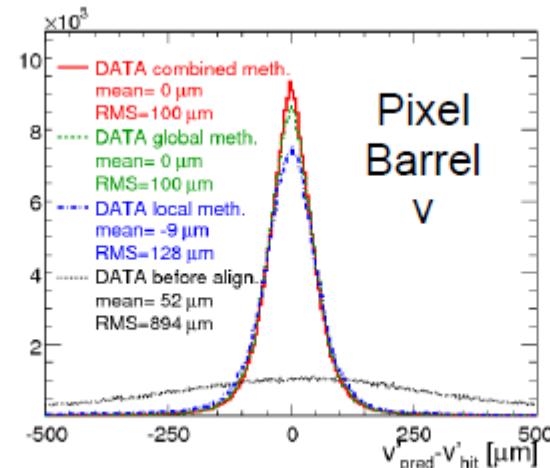
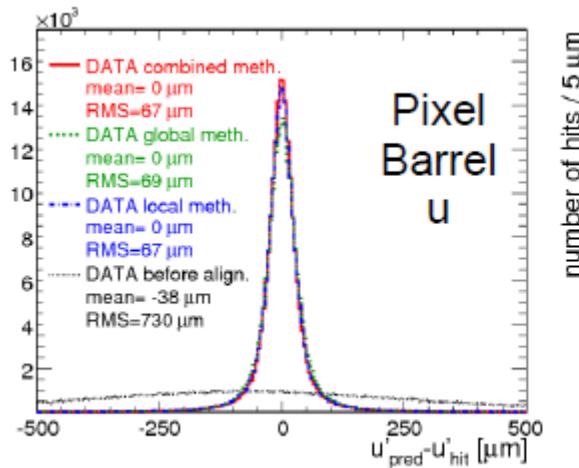
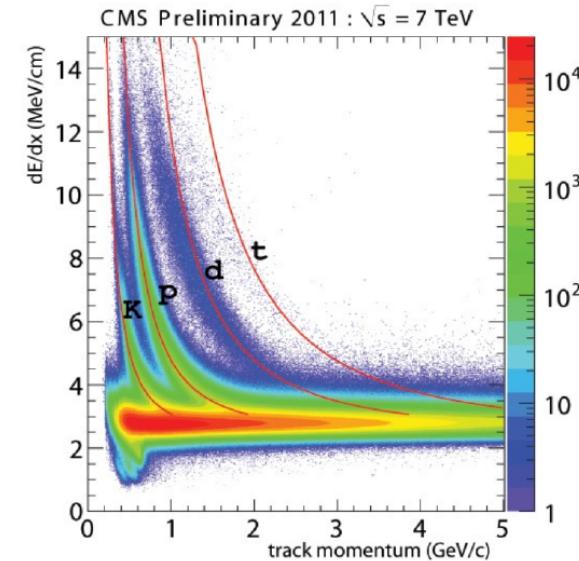
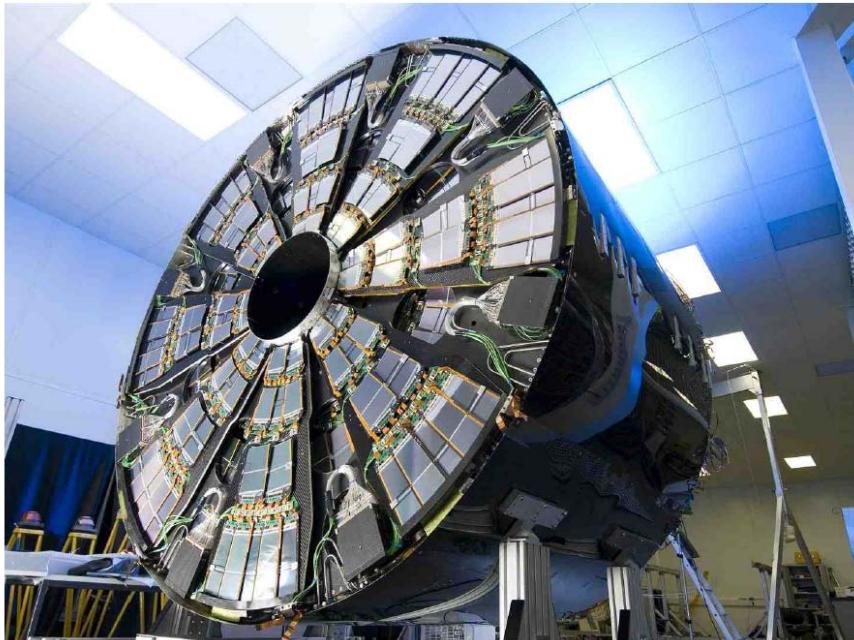
Pixel detector:

1 m² detector area
1440 pixel modules
66 million pixels

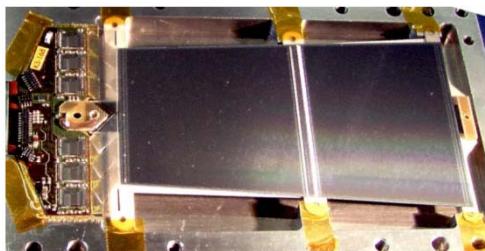
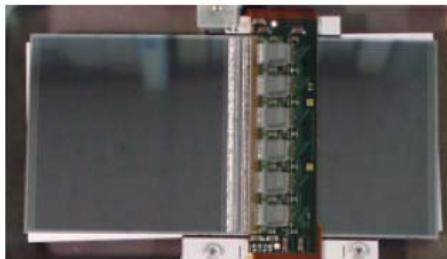
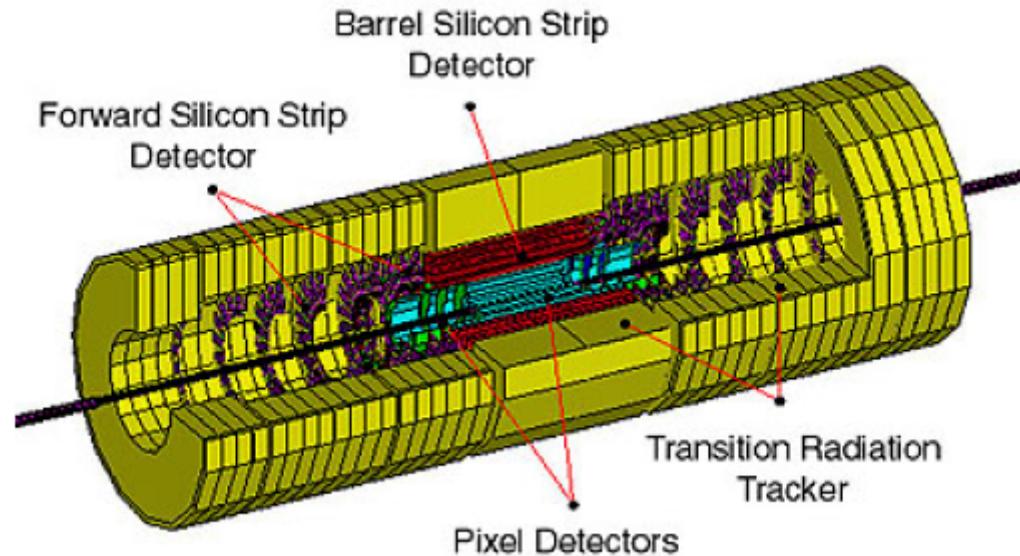


27 mechanical different modules + 2 types of alignment modules

Semiconductors : CMS Silicon Detector

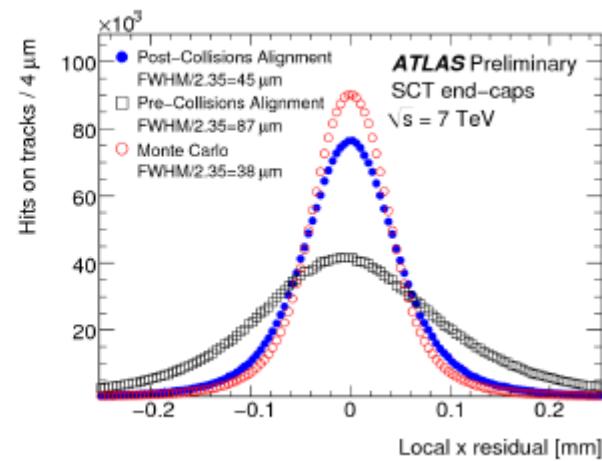
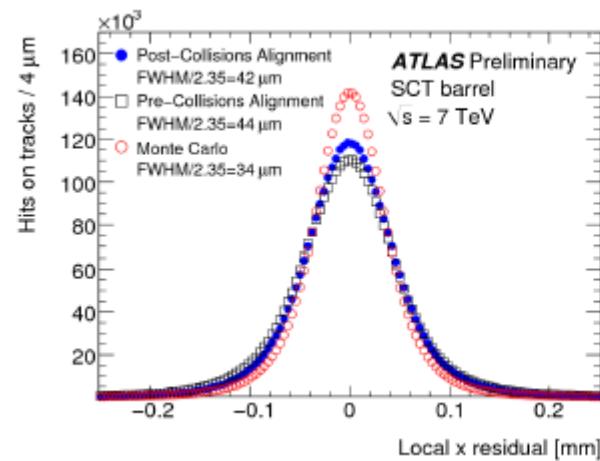
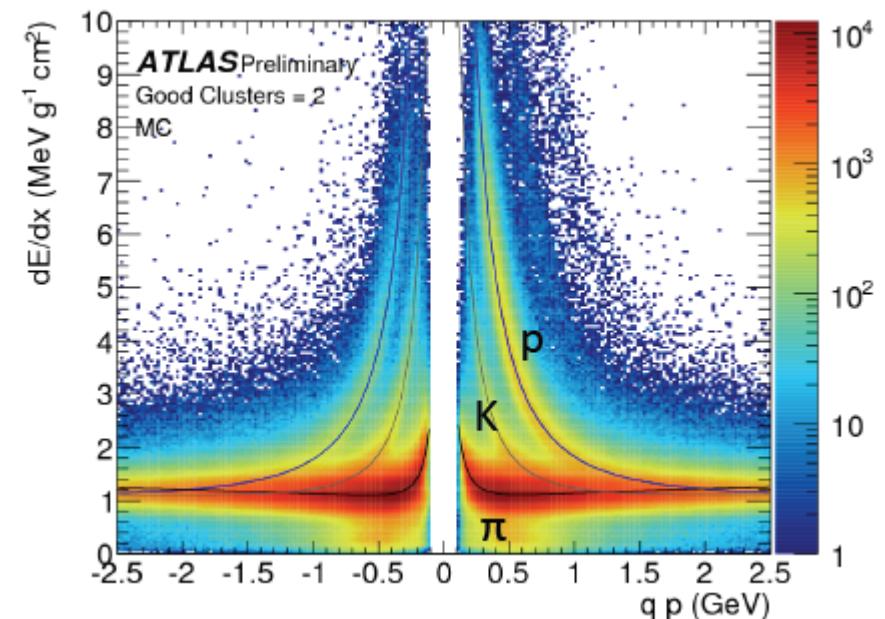
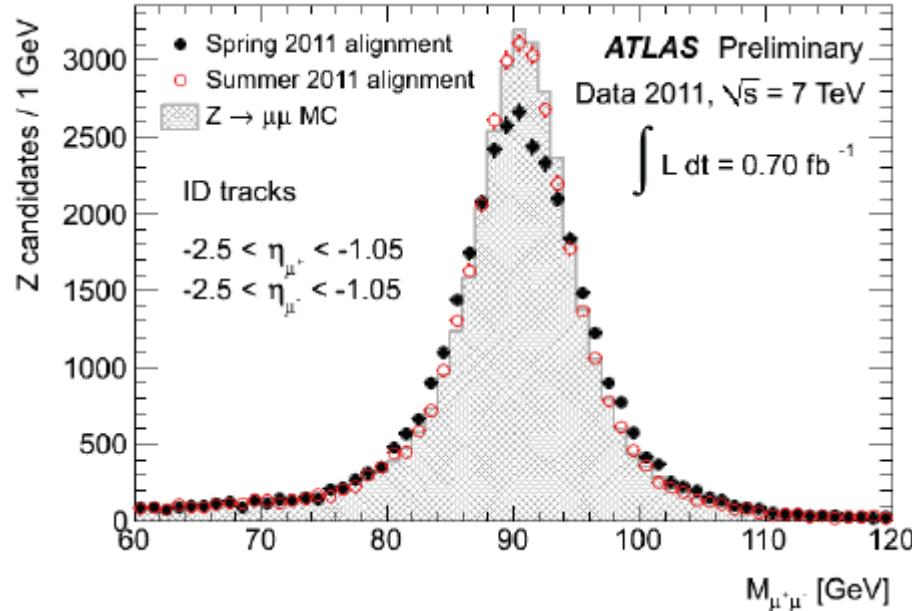


Semiconductors : ATLAS Silicon Detector



system		area (m ²)	resolution (μm)	channels (10 ⁶)	h coverage
pixel	1 b layer	0.2	RF=12, z=66	16	2.5
	2 barrels	1.4	RF=12, z=66	81	1.7
	2x5 disks	0.7	zF=12, R=77	43	1.7-2.5
	total	2.3		140	2.5
SCT	4barrels	34.4	RF=16, z=580	3.2	1.4
	2x9 disks	26.7	zF=12, R=580	3.0	1.4-2.5
	total	61.1		6.2	2.5

Semiconductors : ATLAS Silicon Detector



Main performance characteristics of the ATLAS and CMS trackers

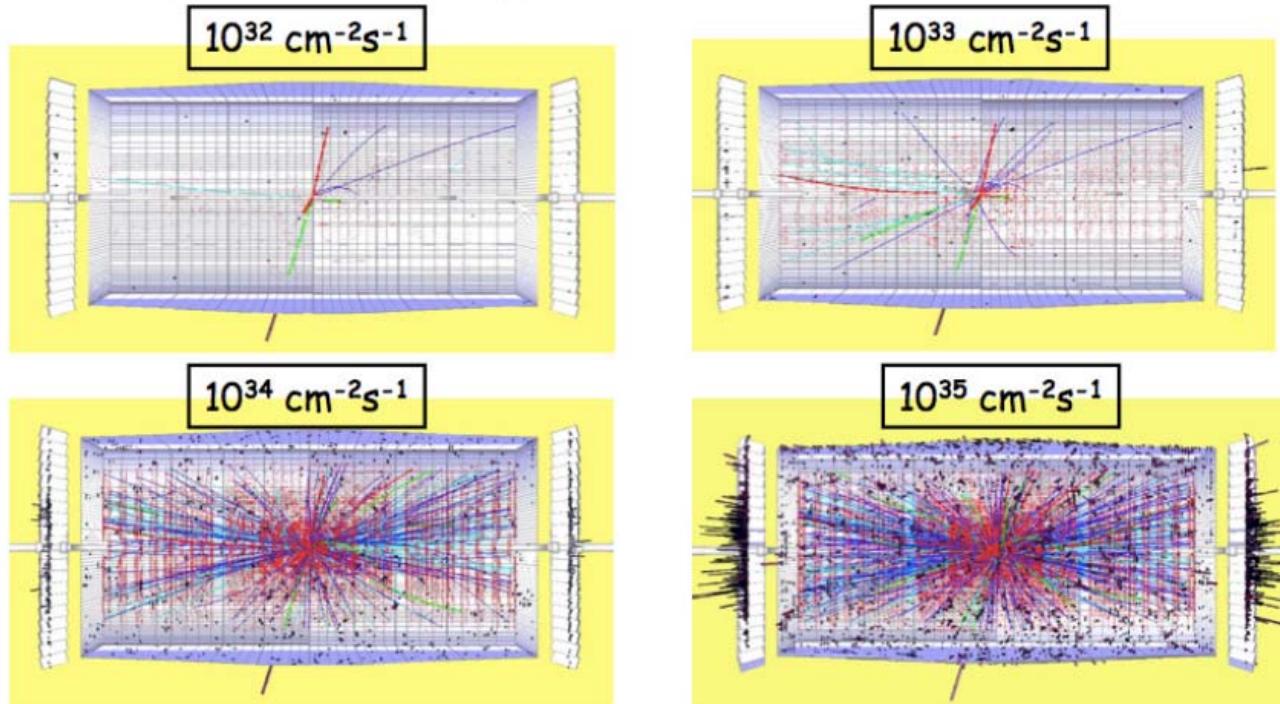
	ATLAS	CMS
Reconstruction efficiency for muons with $p_T = 1$ GeV	96.8%	97.0%
Reconstruction efficiency for pions with $p_T = 1$ GeV	84.0%	80.0%
Reconstruction efficiency for electrons with $p_T = 5$ GeV	90.0%	85.0%
Momentum resolution at $p_T = 1$ GeV and $\eta \approx 0$	1.3%	0.7%
Momentum resolution at $p_T = 1$ GeV and $\eta \approx 2.5$	2.0%	2.0%
Momentum resolution at $p_T = 100$ GeV and $\eta \approx 0$	3.8%	1.5%
Momentum resolution at $p_T = 100$ GeV and $\eta \approx 2.5$	11%	7%
Transverse i.p. resolution at $p_T = 1$ GeV and $\eta \approx 0$ (μm)	75	90
Transverse i.p. resolution at $p_T = 1$ GeV and $\eta \approx 2.5$ (μm)	200	220
Transverse i.p. resolution at $p_T = 1000$ GeV and $\eta \approx 0$ (μm)	11	9
Transverse i.p. resolution at $p_T = 1000$ GeV and $\eta \approx 2.5$ (μm)	11	11
Longitudinal i.p. resolution at $p_T = 1$ GeV and $\eta \approx 0$ (μm)	150	125
Longitudinal i.p. resolution at $p_T = 1$ GeV and $\eta \approx 2.5$ (μm)	900	1060

ATLAS : Si Pixels + Si Strips + Gas TRD

CMS : Si Pixels + Si Strips

Main Challenge : The LHC at High Luminosity (2024 ?)

$H \rightarrow ZZ \rightarrow \mu\bar{\mu}ee$ event with $M_H = 300$ GeV for different luminosities



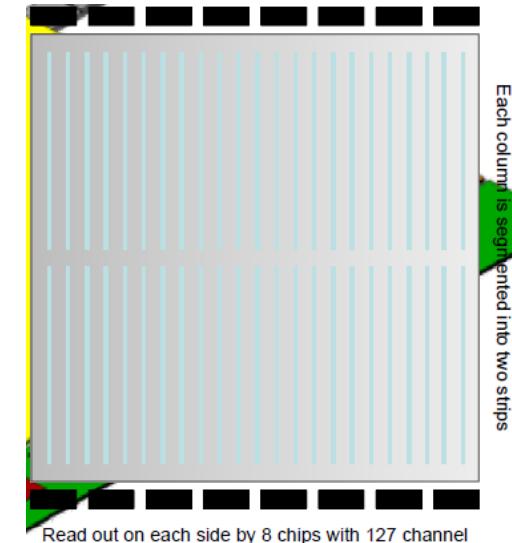
More tracks : Occupancy increases - Less resolution

More Flux : Radiation (bulk) damage

Reduce the Occupancy : Increase the granularity

Mini-strips sensors (reduce lenght from 10 cm to 5 cm)

- Increases the number of channels
- Increases the cost
- Increases the power to be dissipated
(already 3kW in CMS, at -10°C)

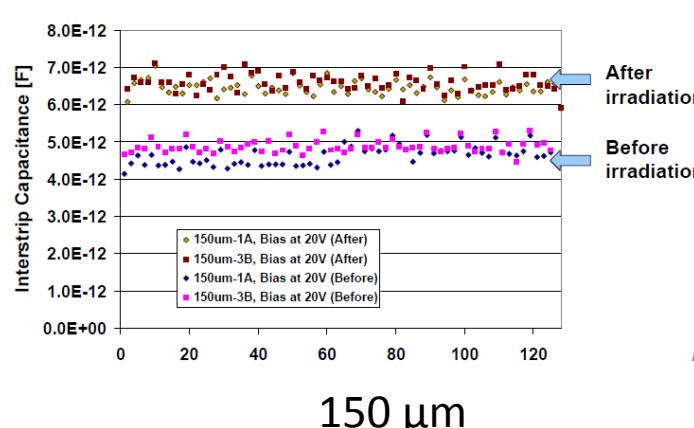
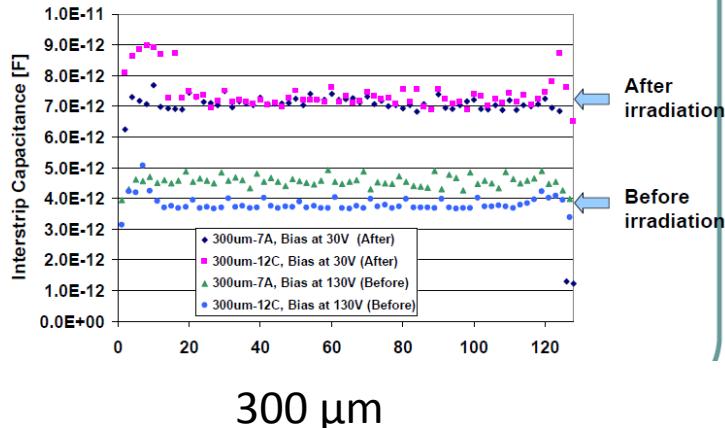


Reduce the material : Thin Si sensors

- Reduce the Charges Collected

Reduce the number of layers

- Reduce the overall Tracker efficiency



Change the material : Oxygenated Silicon

HE detectors : **FZ** (Float Zone) Crystal

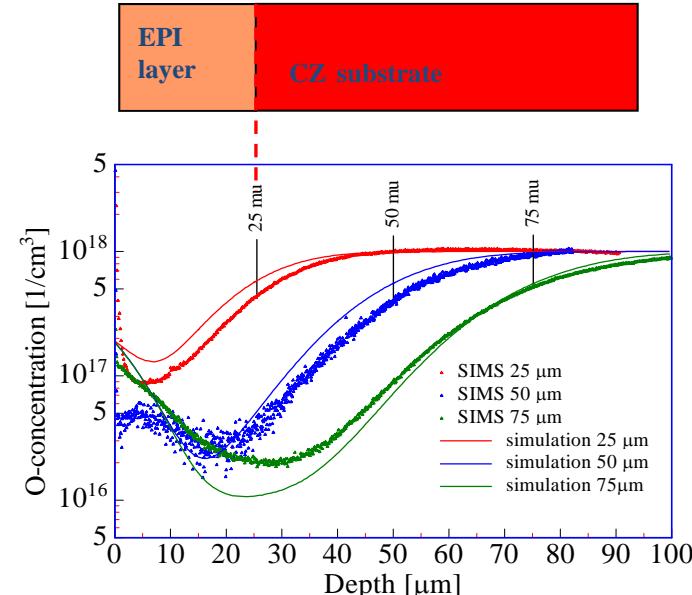
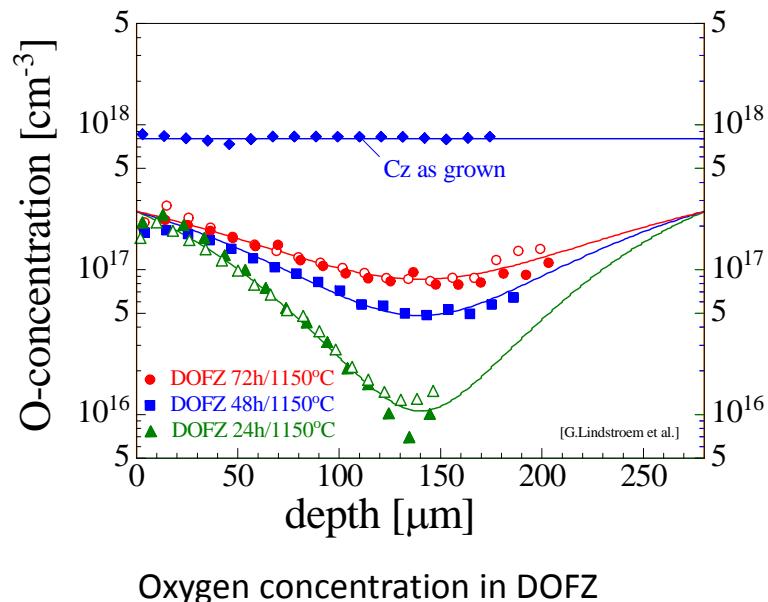
- High resistivity $> 3\text{-}4 \text{ k}\Omega\text{cm}$
- O₂ contens $< 50 \text{ } 10^{16}$

New Materials : **DOFZ** : O₂ doped FZ Silicon (Oxydation of wafer at high temperature)

MCZ (Magnetic Czochralki) - Less resistivity $\approx 1.5 \text{ k}\Omega\text{cm}$

- O₂ contens $> 5 \text{ } 10^{17}$

EPITAXIAL growth : Chemical Vapor Deposition on CZ substrate



24 GeV/c proton irradiation

- Standard FZ silicon

- type inversion at $\sim 2 \times 10^{13} \text{ p/cm}^2$
- strong N_{eff} increase at high fluence

- Oxygenated FZ (DOFZ)

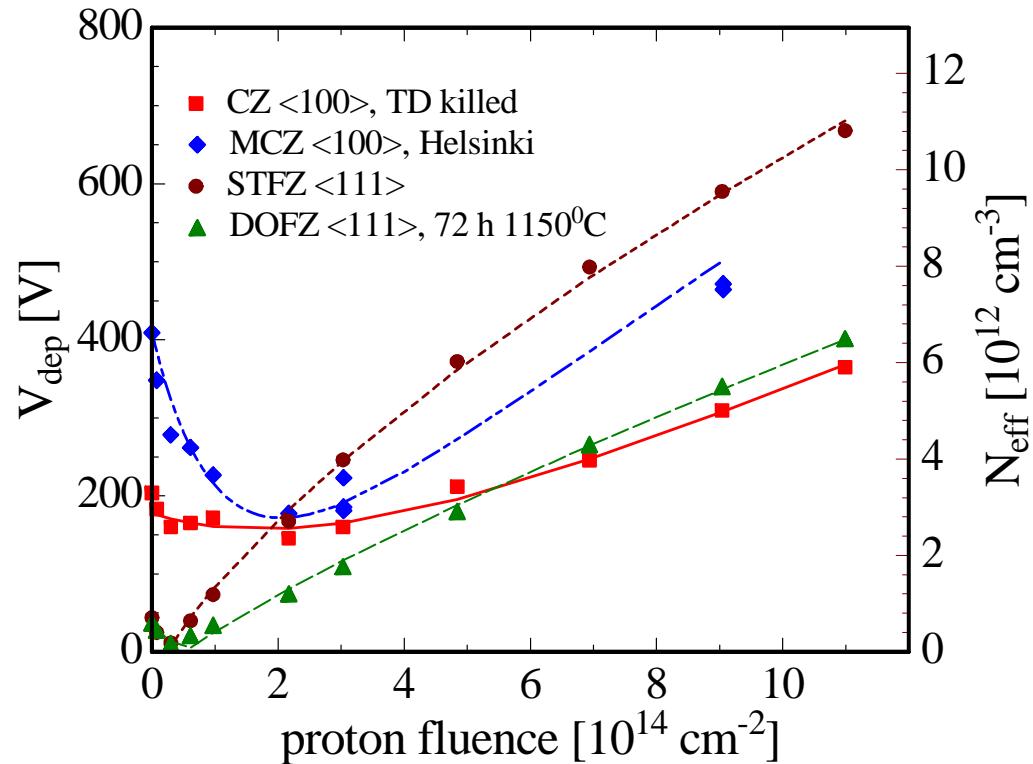
- type inversion at $\sim 2 \times 10^{13} \text{ p/cm}^2$
- reduced N_{eff} increase at high fluence

- CZ silicon and MCZ silicon

- no type inversion in the overall fluence range (verified by TCT measurements)
 (verified for CZ silicon by TCT measurements, preliminary result for MCZ silicon)
 \Rightarrow donor generation overcompensates acceptor generation in high fluence range

- Common to all materials (after hadron irradiation):

- reverse current increase
- increase of trapping (electrons and holes) within $\sim 20\%$



MAPS (Monolithic Active Sensor) or CMOS (Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor)

Signal collection

- Charges generated in epitaxial layer → ~1000 e⁻ for MIP.
- Charge carriers propagate thermally.
- In-pixel charge to signal conversion.

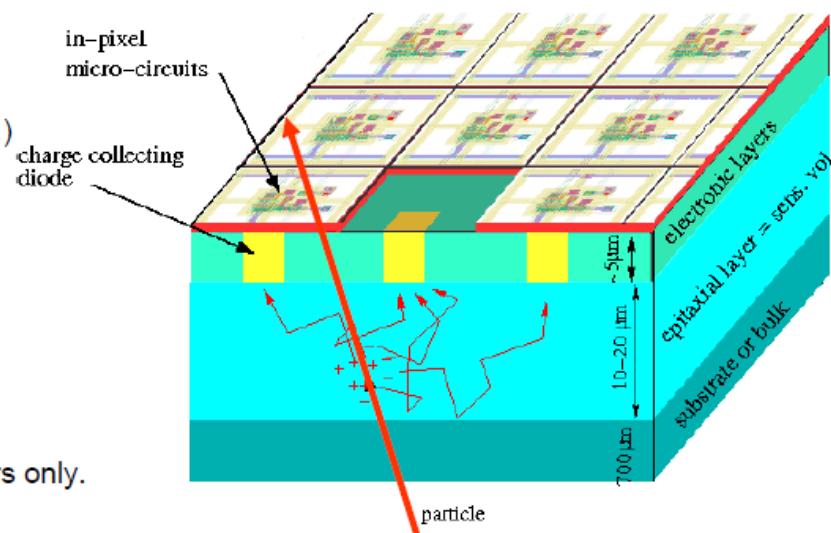
Advantages

- High granularity (< 10 μm pitch).
- Thickness (<50μm).
- Integrated signal processing.
- Standard process (cost, prototyping, ...)

Issues

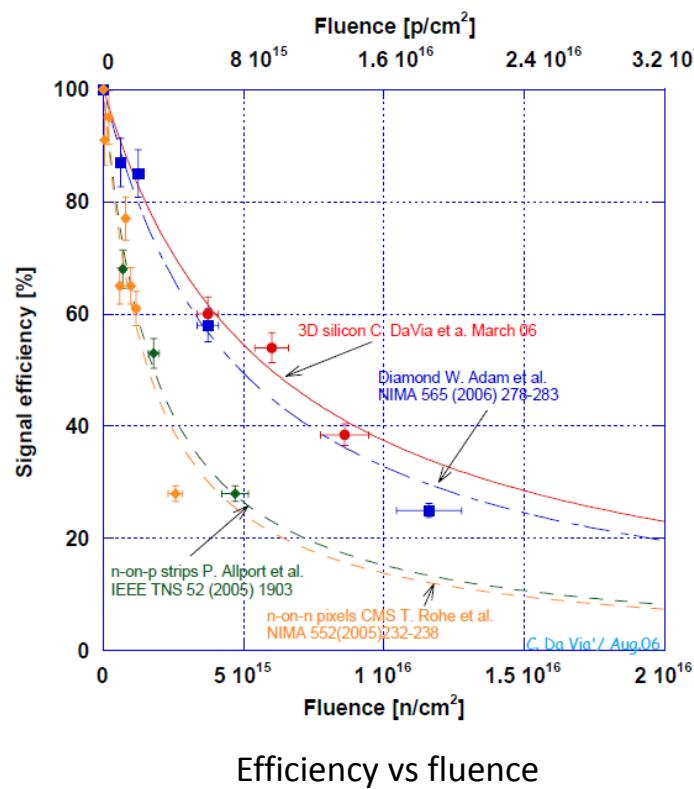
- Undepleted volume limitations .
 - radiation tolerance.
 - intrinsic speed.
- Small signal O(100e⁻)/pixel.
- In-pixel μ-circuits with NMOS transistors only.

Pointing resolution	(12 ± 19 GeV/p·c) μm
Layers	Layer 1 at 2.5 cm radius Layer 2 at 8 cm radius
Pixel size	20.7 μm X 20.7 μm
Hit resolution	6 μm
Position stability	6 μm rms (20 μm envelope)
Radiation length per layer	X/X ₀ = 0.37%
Number of pixels	356 M
Integration time (affects pileup)	185.6 μs
Radiation environment	20 to 90 kRad / year 2*10 ¹¹ to 10 ¹² 1MeV n eq/cm ²
Rapid detector replacement	~ 1 day

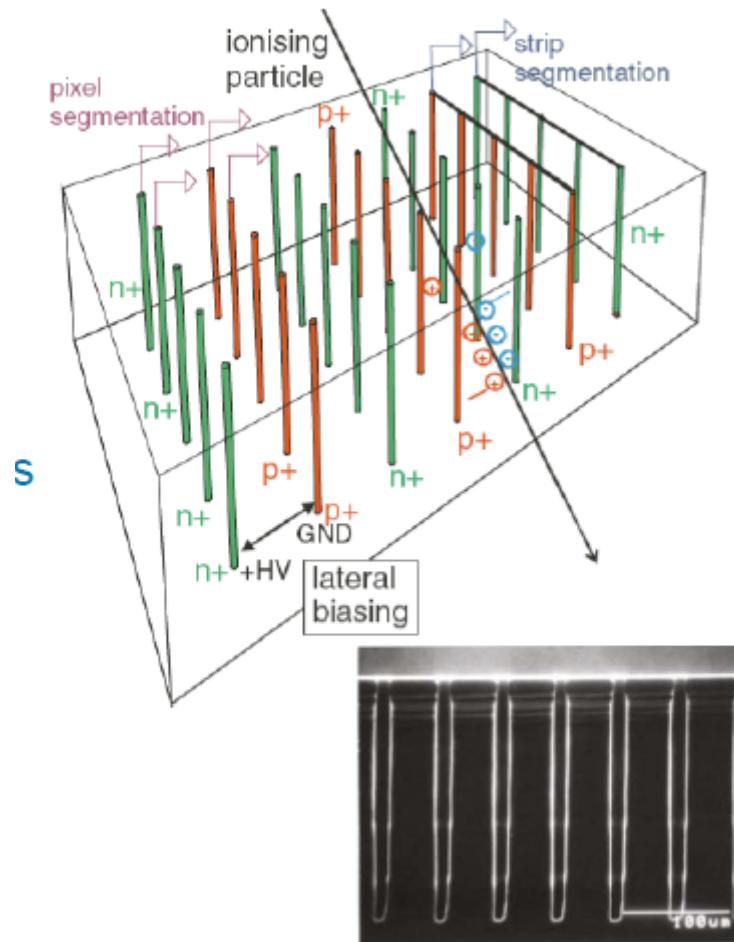


3D Silicon Detectors

Manufacturing challenge
Electrodes : dead zones



Efficiency vs fluence



Semiconductors : diamonds

Diamond detectors

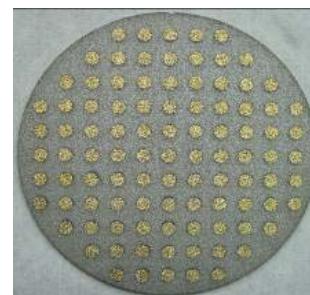
	CVD Diamond	Si
Z	6	14
Energy Gap	5,5 eV	1,21 to 1,1eV
Resistivity	$10^{13} - 10^{16}$ Ωcm	$10^5 - 10^6$ Ωcm
Breakdown	10^7 V/cm	3.10^5 V/cm
Mobility (electrons)	2000 $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$	1350 $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$
Mobility (holes)	1600 $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$	480 $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$
Displacement Energy (e⁻)	43 eV/atom	13 à 20 eV/atom
Pairs Creation	13 eV	3.6 eV
Charge Collection Distance	250 μm	100 m ?
Mean signal (MIP)	3600 e ⁻ / μm	8900 e ⁻ / μm
Dielectric Constant	5.5	10 à 12
Thermal Conductivity (W/m·K)	1600 - 2000	150

Diamond is better than Silicon

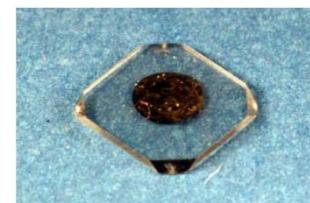
- Does not need any doping
- Better radiation hardness
- Better thermal conductivity
- Better speed (1psec vs 1 nsec)
- Light insensitive
- Multi-metalization possible
(test and physics)

But :

- 3 times less signal for MIPs (3.6 / 13)
- Difficult to manufacture
- Expensive
- Diamond is not understood (at the moment)



2 forms :
Polycrystalline
Wafer max.6 inches



Monocrystalline
max : 4 x 4 mm²

Semiconductors : Diamonds

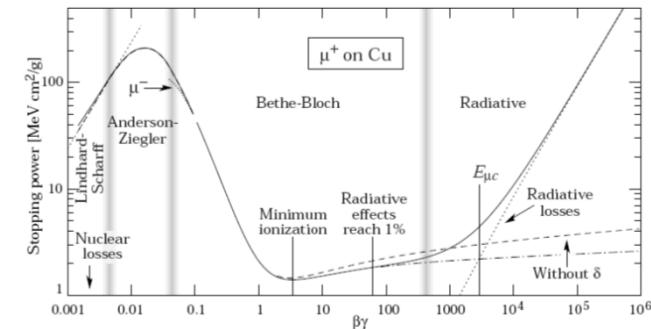
CCD : CHARGE COLLECTION DISTANCE

Energy loss (Bethe-Bloch 1932)

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{4\pi}{m_e c^2} \cdot \frac{n e^2}{\beta^2} \cdot \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \cdot \left[\ln \left(\frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2}{I \cdot (1 - \beta^2)} \right) - \beta^2 \right]$$

Charge transportation (Hecht 1932)

$$CCE = \frac{Q}{Q_o} = \frac{\lambda_e}{L} \left[1 - \exp \left(-\frac{(L - x_o)}{\lambda_e} \right) \right] + \frac{\lambda_h}{L} \left[1 - \exp \left(-\frac{x_o}{\lambda_h} \right) \right]$$



CHARGE COLLECTION DISTANCE :

$$\delta = \lambda_e + \lambda_h = (\mu_e \tau_e + \mu_h \tau_h) E$$

λ : mean drift distance (mean free path of the carrier)

μ : mobility

τ : lifetime

E : applied electric field

Si (mono) = 100m

Si (amorphe) = 10 μm

Diam = 0(100μm)

Semiconductors : Diamonds

CCD : MEASUREMENT

Charge Collection Distance : $d = (\mu_e \cdot \tau_e + \mu_h \cdot \tau_h) \cdot E$

$$\text{Collected charge: } Q = \frac{d}{L} Q_0$$

Pairs / MIP : 3600 / 100 μ diamant)

$$d = \frac{N_{\text{électrons}}}{36}$$

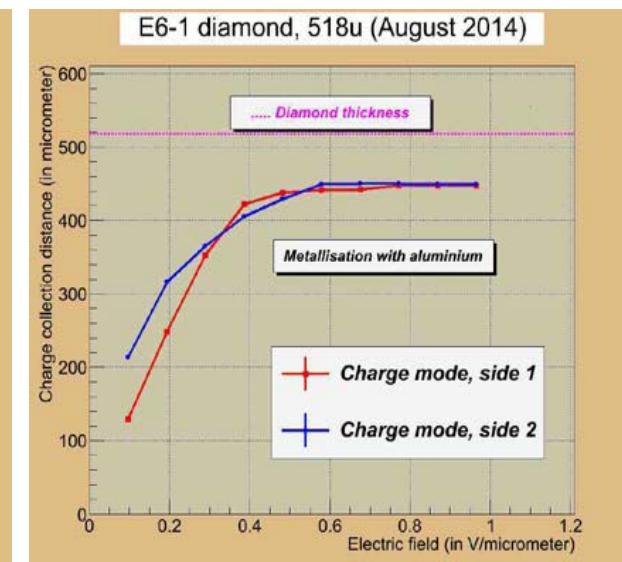
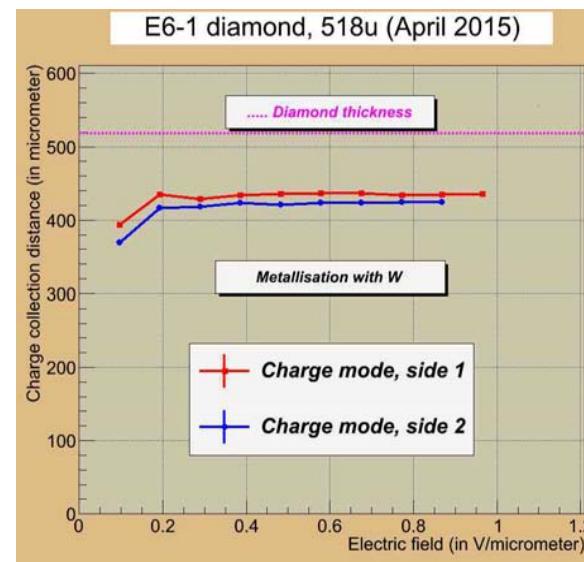
CCD : Measurement of diamond quality (pCVD ou sCVD)

For particle detection :

$N_{\text{électrons}}$ (MIP) $\sim 10\,000$

Thickness ($X_0\dots$) $\sim 300\ \mu\text{m}$

CCD $\sim 280\ \mu\text{m}$



CCD OK, but different shapes ?

Semiconductors : Diamonds

Diamant ?

Natural diamond: Lots of impurities
Lots of defects



Diamant HPHT (High Pressure – High Temperature) 1940

P > 50 000 bars

T > 2000 °C

Monocrystal

Dimension (few mm²)

Impurities



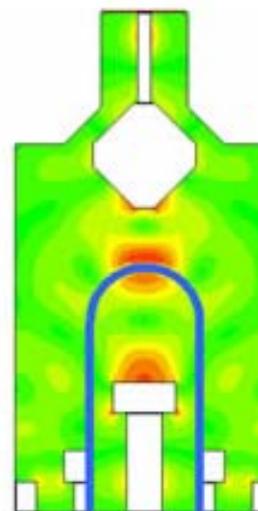
Diamant CVD (Carbon Vapor Deposition) 1980

Plasma CH₄ – H₂ (+X...)

P ≈ 0,1 bar

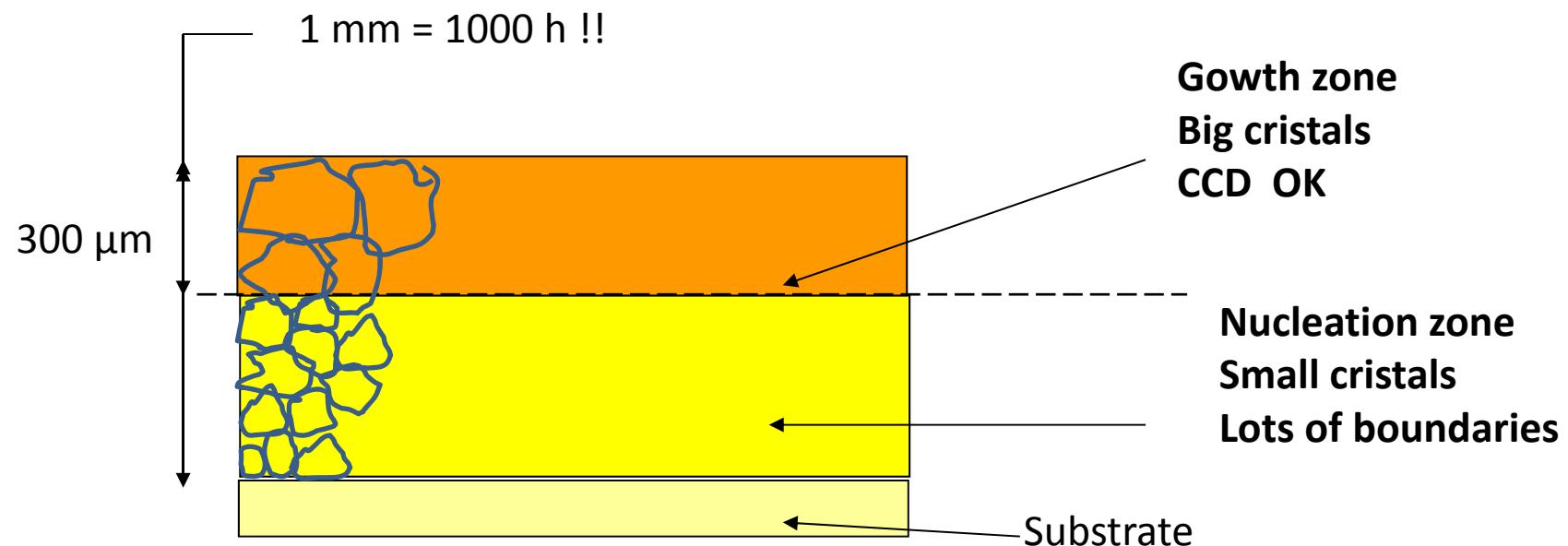
T ≈ 1000 °K

Slow deposition on substrate
1 – 50 µm / heure



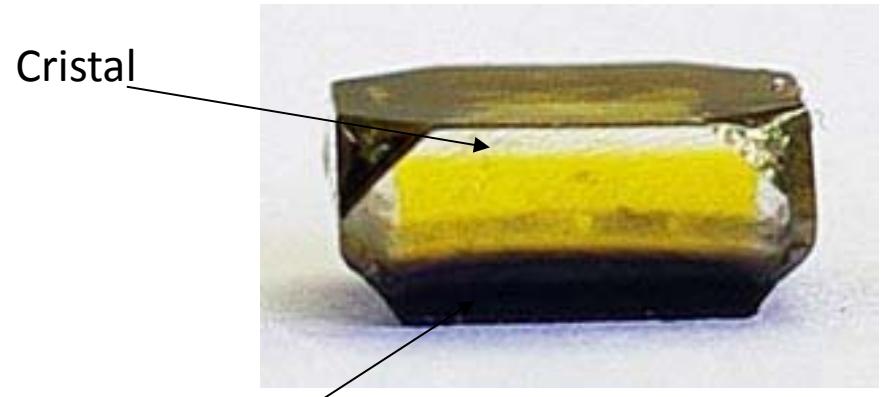
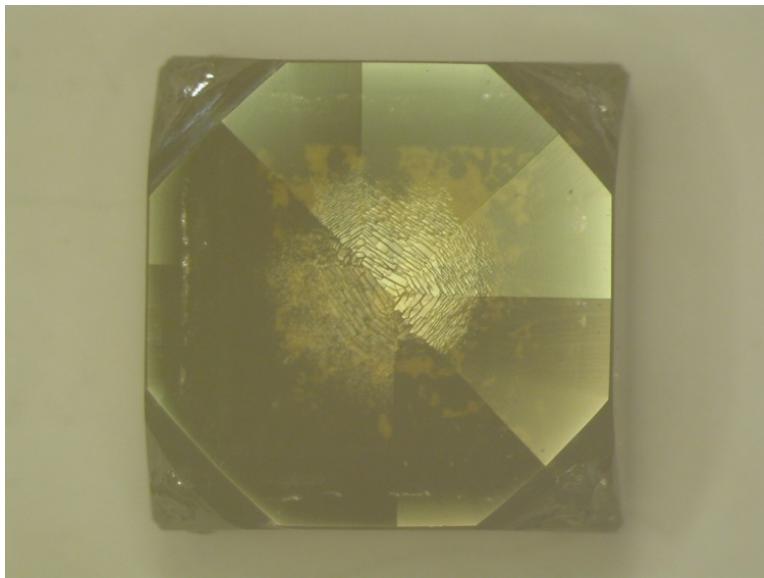
Polycrystalline CVD (pCVD)

Grows on any substrate (Si)
Slow process (around $1\mu\text{m} / \text{h}$)
Cristal bigger along the process
Industrial well controlled process



Monocrystalline CVD (sCVD)

Grows only on another monocrystal (HPTHT seed)
small dimensions (typical $4 \times 4 \text{ mm}^2$)
faster processus : $25 \mu\text{m /h}$
Very few industrial manufacturers

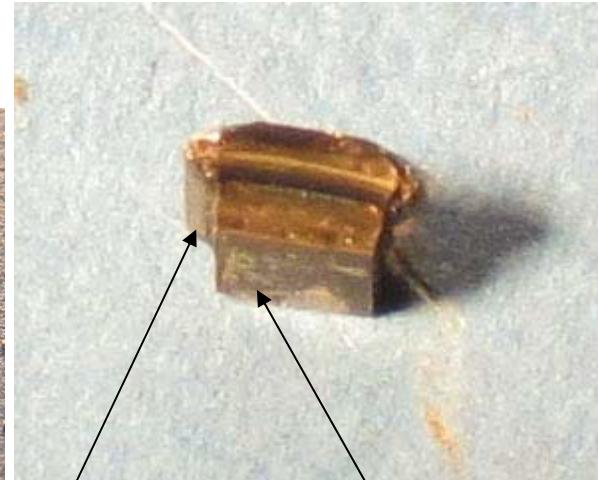


Semiconductors : Diamonds

Finishing :

pCVD : Nucleation (small grains) suppression)

sCVD : Seed suppression



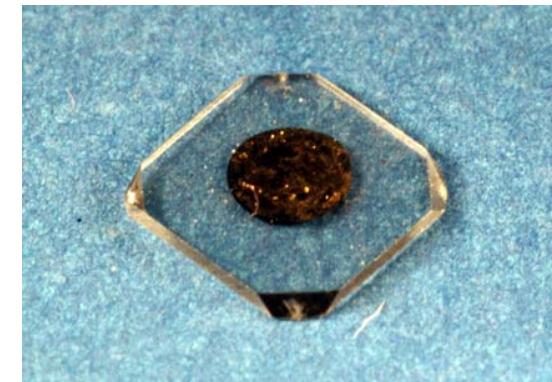
Monocrystal CVD

seed HPHT

Métalisation (cf bonding)

Cleaning
Re-métalisation

charactérisation (CCD...)



APPLICATIONS IN HEP EXPERIMENTS

Beam Conditions Monitors

Beam Loss Monitors

BaBar

CDF

ATLAS – CMS - LHCb

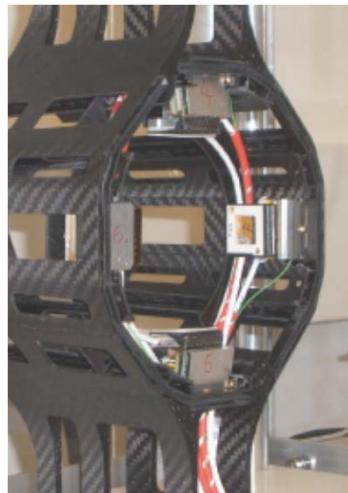
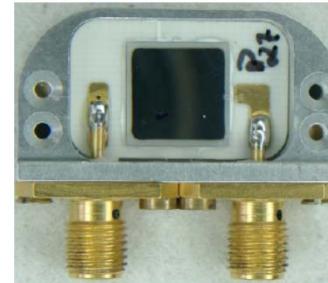
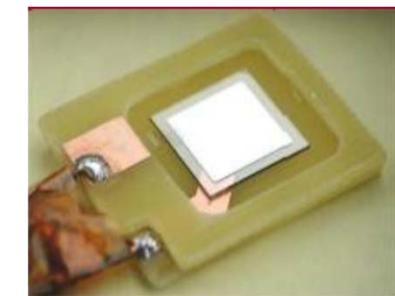
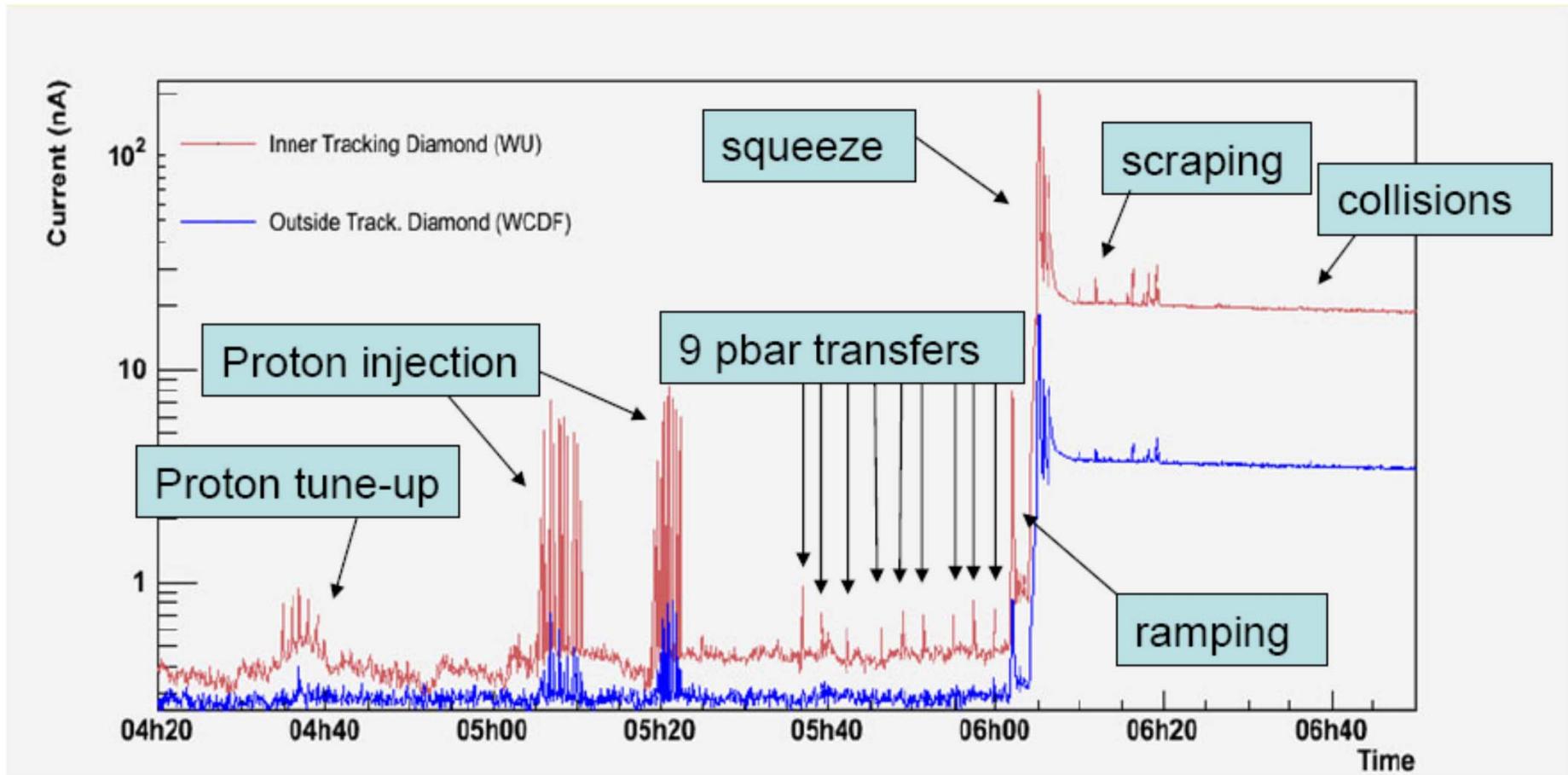


Figure 20: A photograph of the final module used by CMS for its BLM system.

Principe :
Continuous current measurement
with field $E \sim 1 \text{ V} / \mu$



MAPS vertical integration
(Heat Dissipation)
Since 2007



CDF at Fermilab

Conclusion : Diamond is OK for beam condition monitor

Idea in 1995 :

Diamond is more resistant than Silicon
can it be used for tracking in very difficult conditions ?

LHC Phase II : Φ at 4 cm $\sim 1.4 \div 1.6 \cdot 10^{16} n_{eq}/cm^2$ mainly charged
 Φ at $r > 60$ cm $\sim 1 \div 3 \cdot 10^{14} n_{eq}/cm^2$ mainly neutral

Present Tracker
Layers radii

$$L = 8 \times 10^{34}$$

High fluence regime
Charged particles
predominant

Medium fluence regime
Combined Charged
and neutral particles

Low fluence regime
Neutral particles
predominant

r (cm)	$\phi \times 10^{13} cm^{-2}$	% charged	% neutral
4,30	1509,97	84,5	15,5
7,10	622,76	82,0	18,0
11,00	297,74	78,7	21,3
22,00	117,71	69,2	30,8
32,00	72,39	63,6	36,4
41,00	54,55	59,1	40,9
49,00	43,40	55,8	44,2
58,00	35,47	51,8	48,2
74,50	19,35	26,0	74,0
82,50	17,27	21,9	78,1
90,50	15,78	18,5	81,5
98,50	14,33	13,9	86,1
114,50	12,79	8,4	91,6

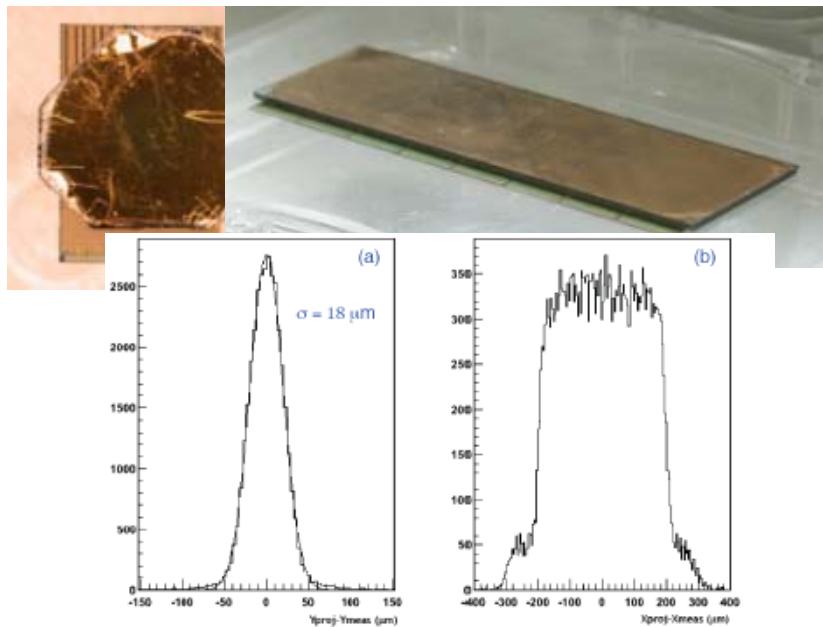
Data and simulations agree

Not a clear picture

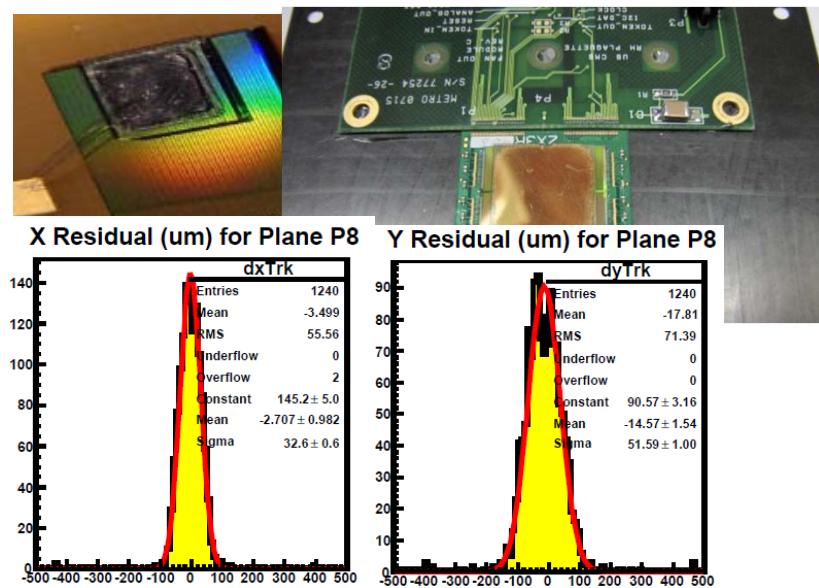
Mixed irradiation
new options/scenario

CVD diamond already tested as pixel sensors

By ATLAS (pCVD)



By CMS (sCVD)

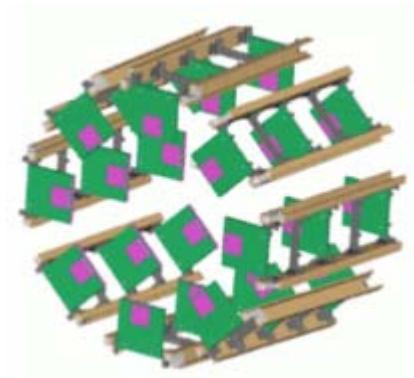
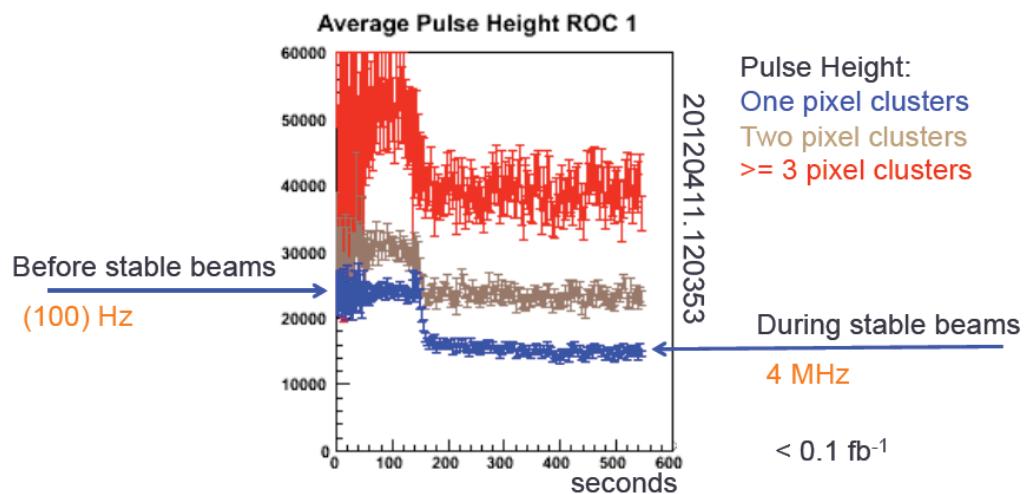
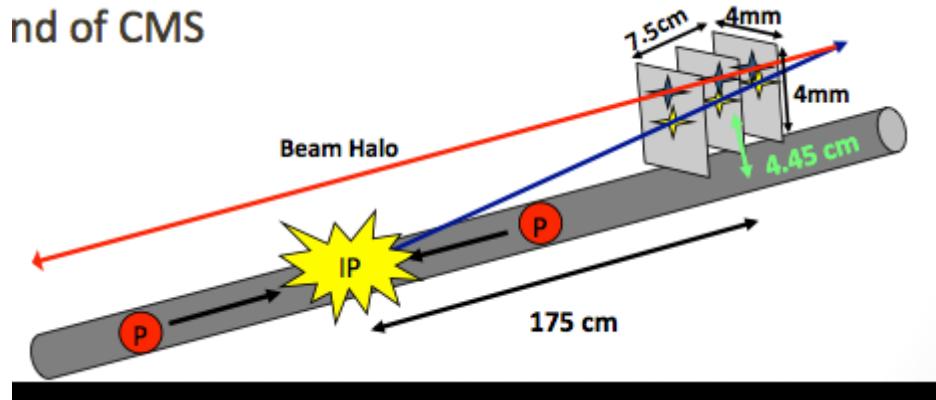


Correct...

But only
once...

THE CMS PLT

end of CMS



Failure ...

- Why ?
- Industrial manufacturers (industrial secrets)
 - Characterisation test : CCD measurement for a short time.
 - lack of information within the community.
 - Particle physicists are NOT solid state physicists.

The fundamental problems is : Understanding what makes a "good" diamond

MONODIAM-HE Project (ANR-12-BS05-0014)

Work with a laboratory expert in growing diamonds (LSPM – Paris)

- growing **sCVD** and comparison with industrial sCVDs
- Understanding the important parameters
- Improving the quality (for tracking at HE)



Answering some questions :

- Important parameters for growing diamond (the recipe)
- Important parameters for preparing the diamond
- Important parameters to watch

- **Nitrogen contents**
- **Surface finishing**
- **Metallisation**
- **Long term**

1. Growing conditions : Nitrogen impurities

Adding Nitrogen :

Strong effect on growth rates (up to 100 $\mu\text{m/h}$)

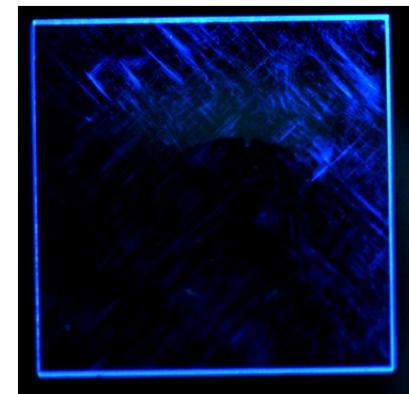
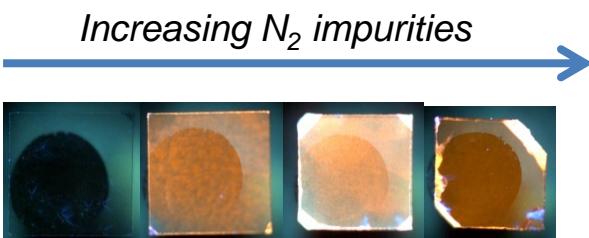
Twinning at the edges

Limitation of twinning at the surface

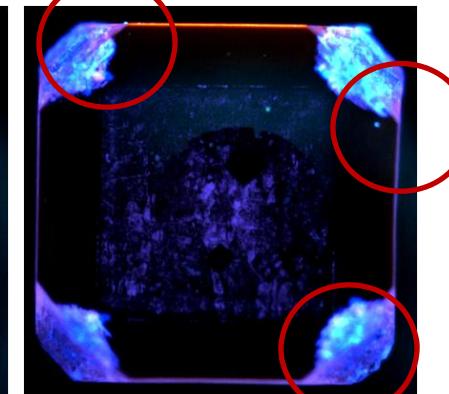
Effect on CCD

(incorporation of N₂ in the crystal)

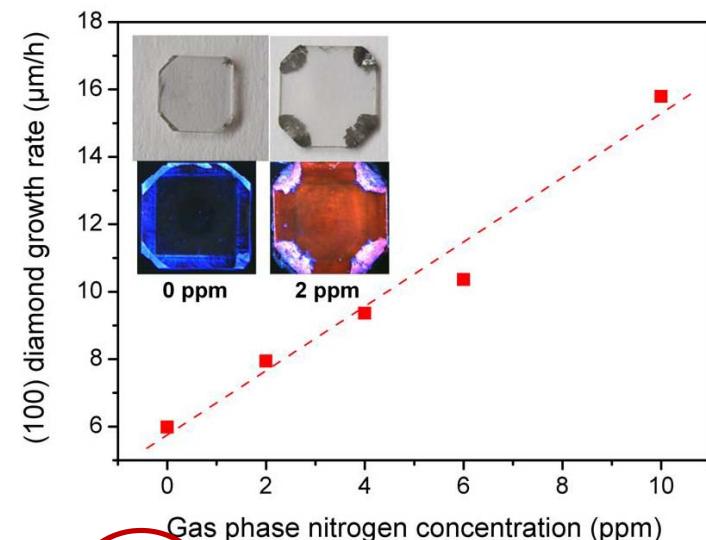
Prototypes made at LSPM with variable N₂ contents



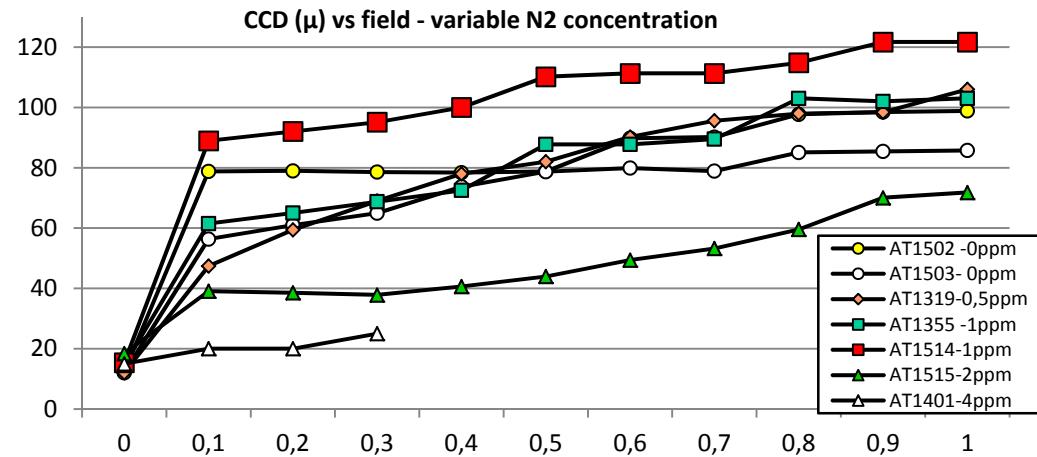
Industrial sCVD
(no N₂?)



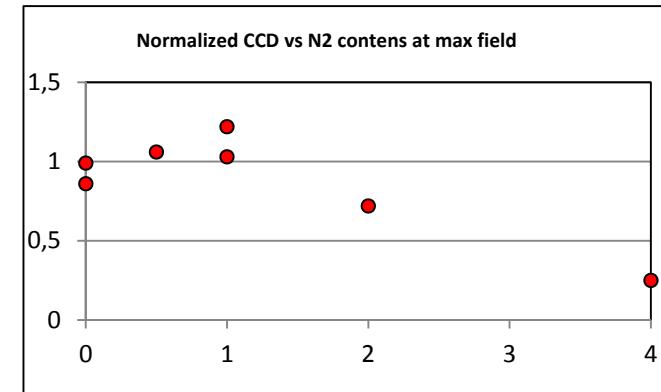
Laboratory sCVD
(2 ppm N₂)



thickness	N2 cont.	CCD max.	CCD Norm.	HT Lim
518	0	512	99	500
582	0	499	86	500
500	0,5	530	106	500
430	1	412	103	400
452	1	550	122	500
571	2	410	72	500
518	4	130	25	150



Study made on several prototypes
 - same laboratory (LSPM)
 - same growing protocol
 - same finishing
 - same metallisation
- variable N2 contents



Optimal : 0 to 1 ppm

2. Surface finishing

Observation :

2 possible problems :

- CCD not correct (less than 10000 e⁻)
- High voltage limitation (less than 1V/ μ)

Possibility ?

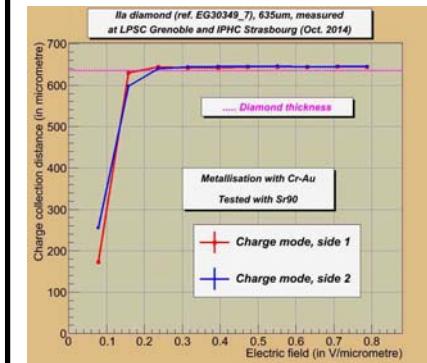
CCD related to defects (traps) in the bulk
HV limitation due to surface problems

Evaluation of the quality of a diamond detector :

Measurement of the CCD using MIP (⁹⁰Sr)

Need : 10 000 e⁻ : CCD \approx 280 – 300 μ

\approx 100% for a 300 μ sCVD



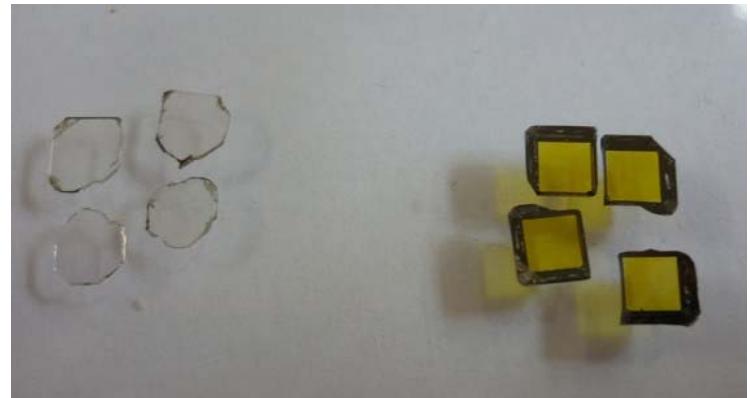
Example :
Industrial sCVD
Thickness : 635 μ
CCD about 600 μ

Use 4 LSPM prototypes sCVD (MM7- 1 to 4)

grown under the same conditions
in the same reactor
at the same time
prepared the same way (same company)
laser cut to separate the HPHT seed
precise polishing

Cleaned
metallised (Cr-Au) in laboratory
Measured (CCD and HV limts)

Use 1 industrial (good) sCVD (IND-1)



Reprocessing :

MM7-1 : precise re-polishing by another company (specialized in pCVD)

MM7- 2 : re-etched by RIE at laboratory

MM7- 3 : Terminated by VUV (172nm) in O₂ flux

MM7- 4 : untouched . For calibration

IND - 1 : badly re-polished (on purpose)

And metallisation Cr-Au

On HV Limits

sCVD	Before reprocessing		After reprocessing		Observation
	Side 1	Side 2	Side 1	Side 2	
IND - 1	500V	600V	500V	300V	degradation
MM7-1	600V	400V	600V	400V	same
MM7-2	200V	400V	400V	500V	Improvement
MM7-3	100V	100V	300V	100V	Little improvement
MM7-4	500V	350V	500V	400V	same

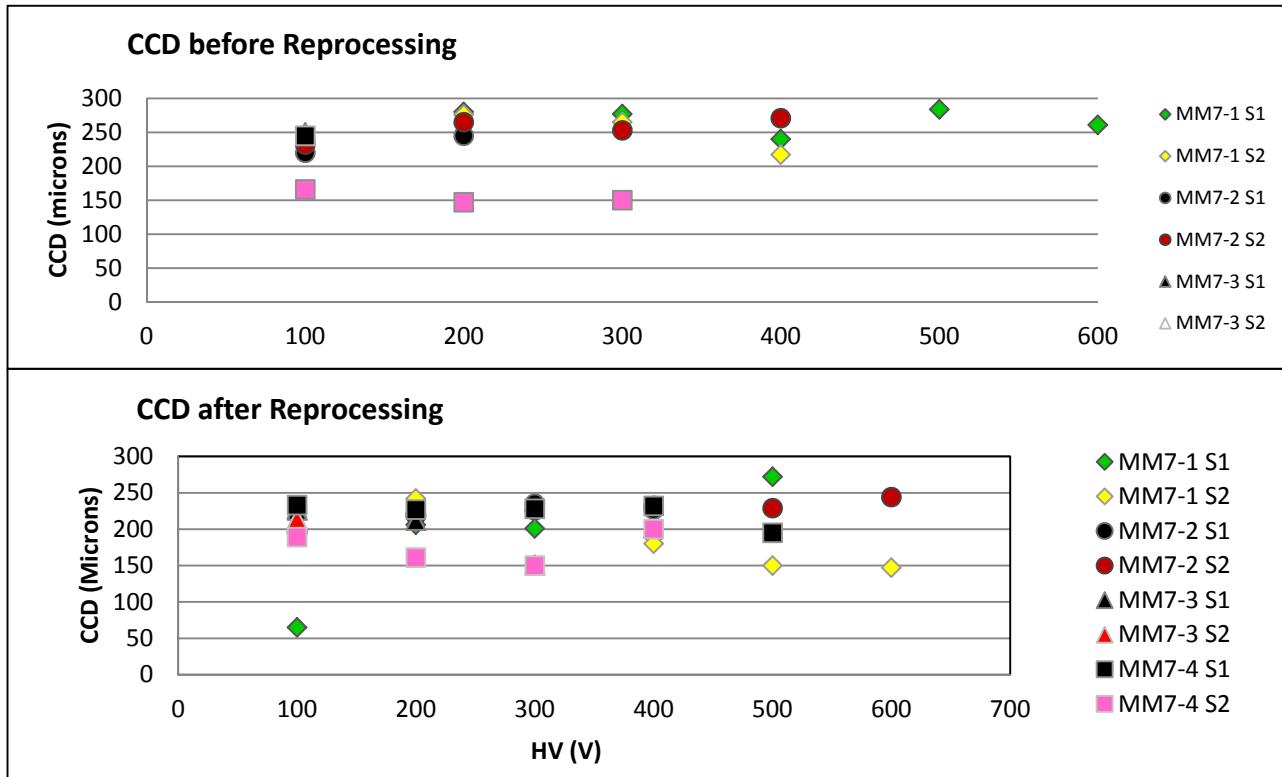
As good as it is , polishing may not be enough...

Reactive Ion etching

Ozonization

(and probably very aggressive cleaning)

Seems to be having an effect on the HV limitation



Reprocessing
has a little effect on CCD
(given the measurement
uncertainties)

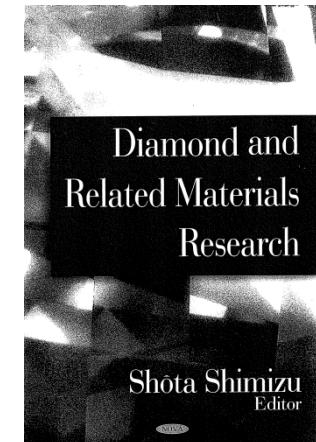
Conclusion :

- CCD is related to Bulk quality
- HV limitation is related to surface quality
and **may be improved.**

3. Metallisation

Metallisation needed for contacts (wire bonding or bump-bonding)
Early prototypes showed a Schottky Diode Behaviour
Extensive researches on diamond contacts
see, for example «

Though there are numerous reports of rectifying Schottky contacts and low resistance Ohmic contacts to diamond, currently there is no standardised process for fabrication of Schottky or Ohmic contacts to diamond.



Use Two (industrial) reference detectors

metalised Cr-Au
Tested on different benches

Cleaned
Metallisation (pulverisation)

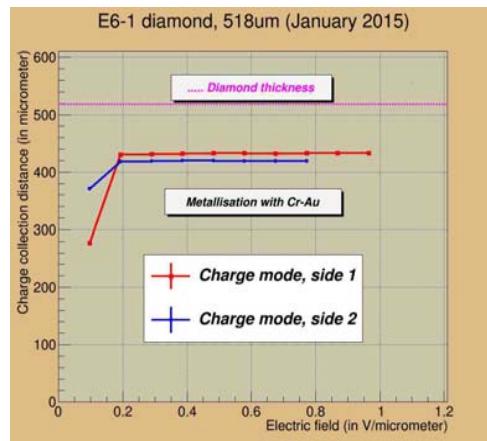
Tests : Cr- Au
 W
 Cu
 Al
 In (Cu-In)

At LPSC-Grenoble

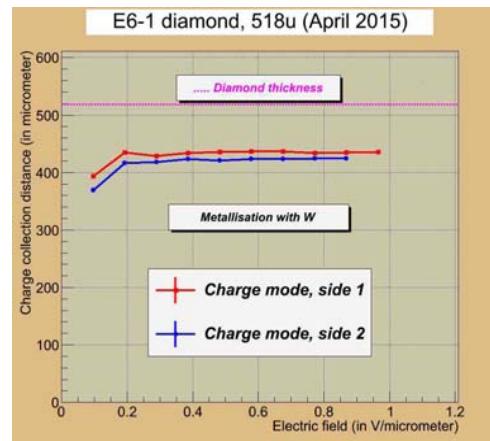
Metal deposition by
by microwave plasma-assisted sputtering
Cleaning by
2 steps of plasma-assisted cleaning

At Icube - Strasbourg

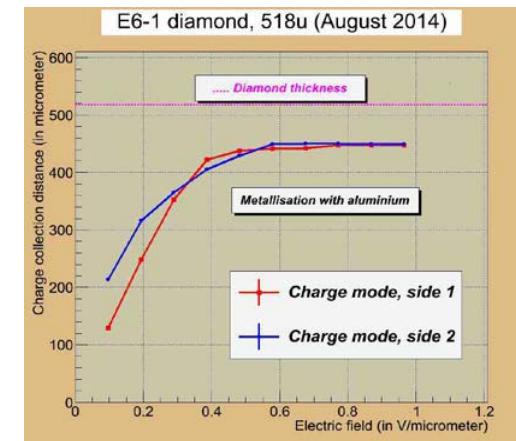
Metal deposition by
Vacuum evaporation
Cleaning by
Hot H₂SO₄ – KNO₃



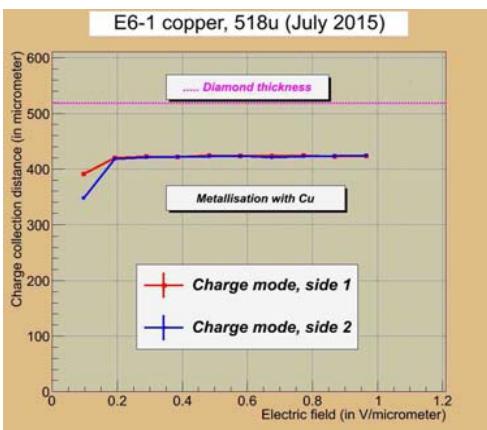
Cr-Au



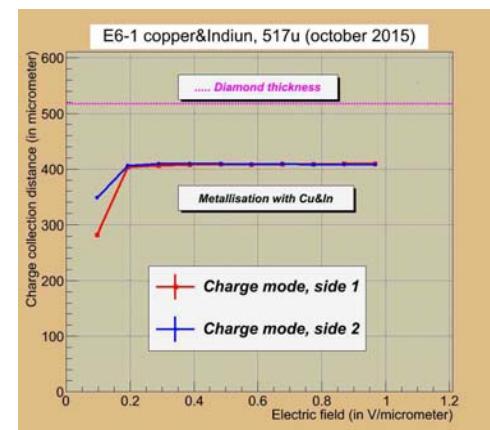
W



Al

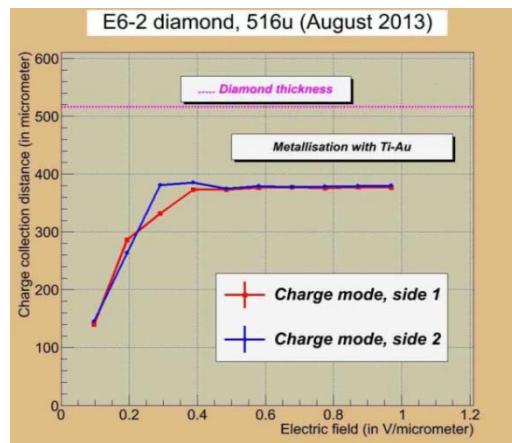


Cu

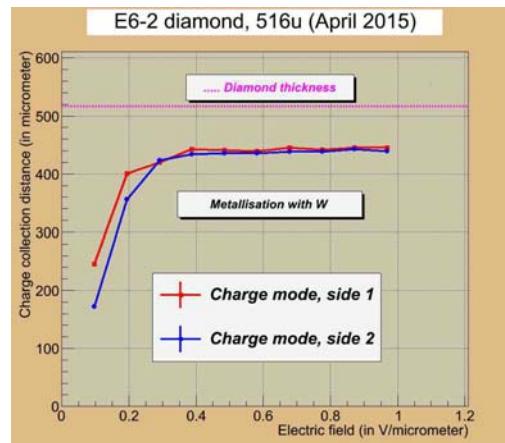


Cu-In

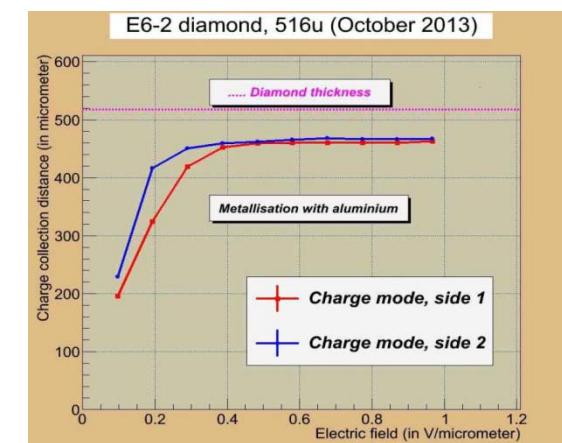
Cr-Au :	HT limits 500V / 400V CCD 440 µm / 420 µm
W :	HT limits 500V / 450V CCD 440 µm / 420 µm
Al :	HT limits 500V / 500V CCD 440 µm / 440 µm
Cu :	HT limits 500V / 500V CCD 425 µm / 425 µm
Cu-In :	HT limits 500V / 500V CCD 410 µm / 410 µm



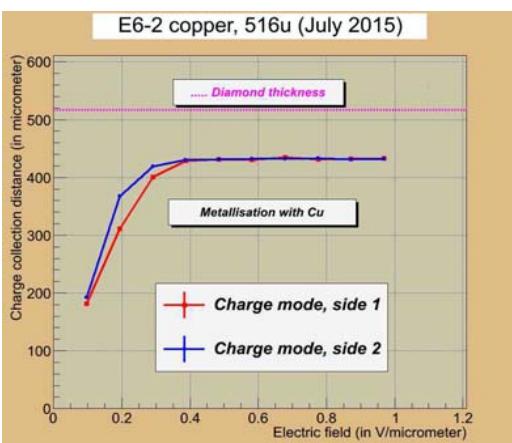
Ti-Au



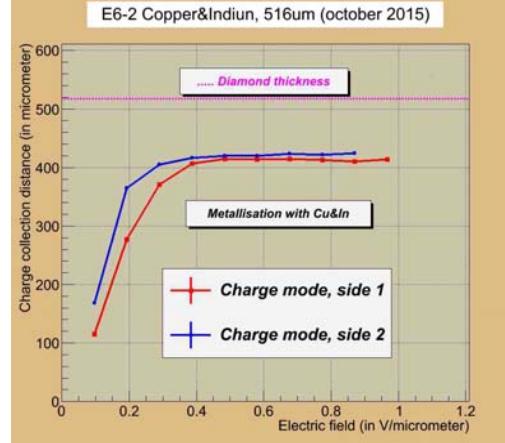
W



Al



Cu



Cu-In

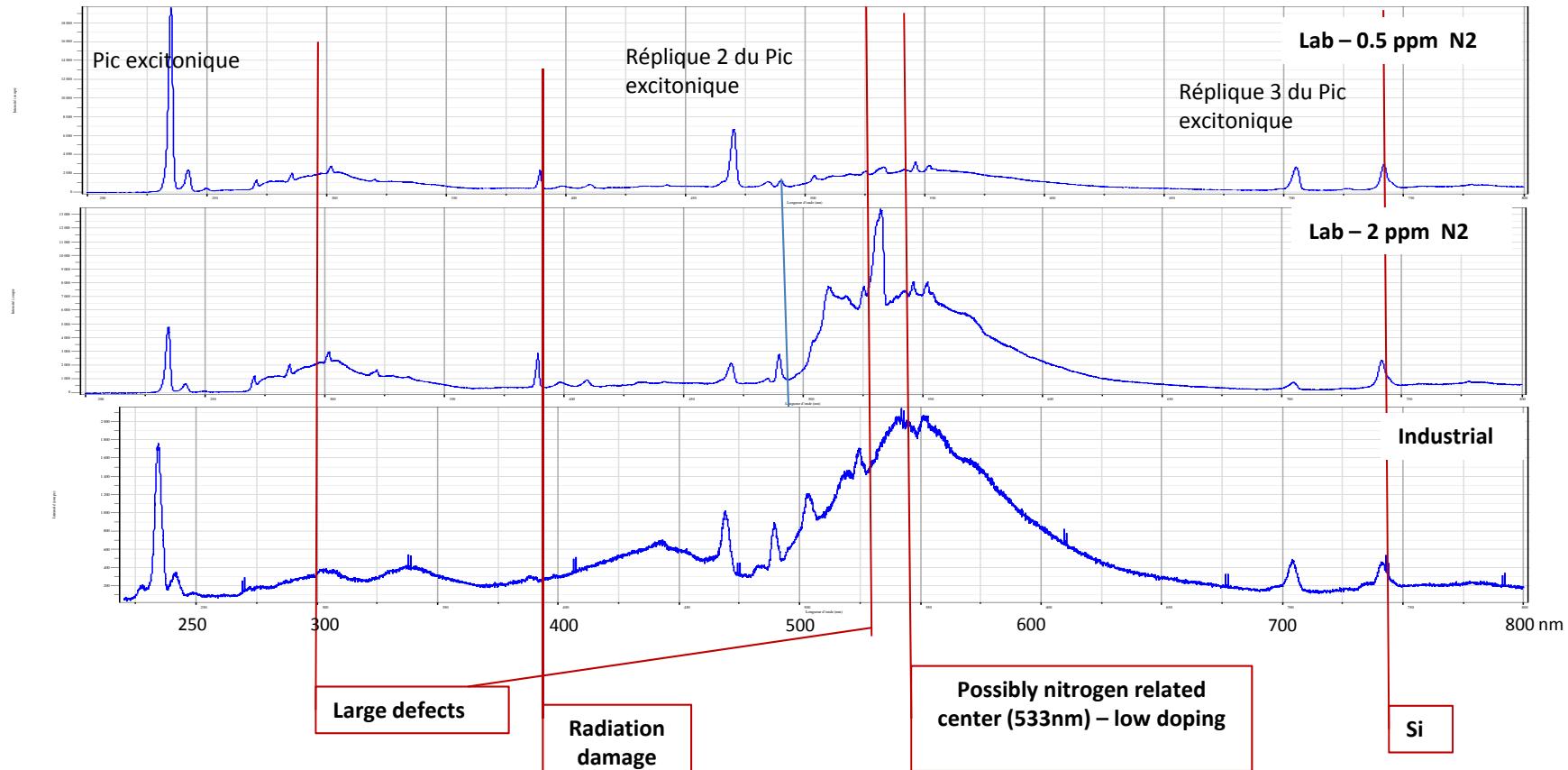
Ti-Au :	HT limit 500V / 500V
	CCD 380 μm / 380 μm
W :	HT limit 500V / 500V
	CCD 425 μm / 425 μm
Al :	HT limit 500V / 500V
	CCD 460 μm / 460 μm
Cu :	HT limit 500V / 500V
	CCD 410 μm / 410 μm
Cu-In :	HT limit 500V / 450V
	CCD 410 μm / 420 μm

Various metallisations have **very little effect** on CCD
 (Schottky element already stabilized by cleaning ?)
HT limit related to **surface quality**

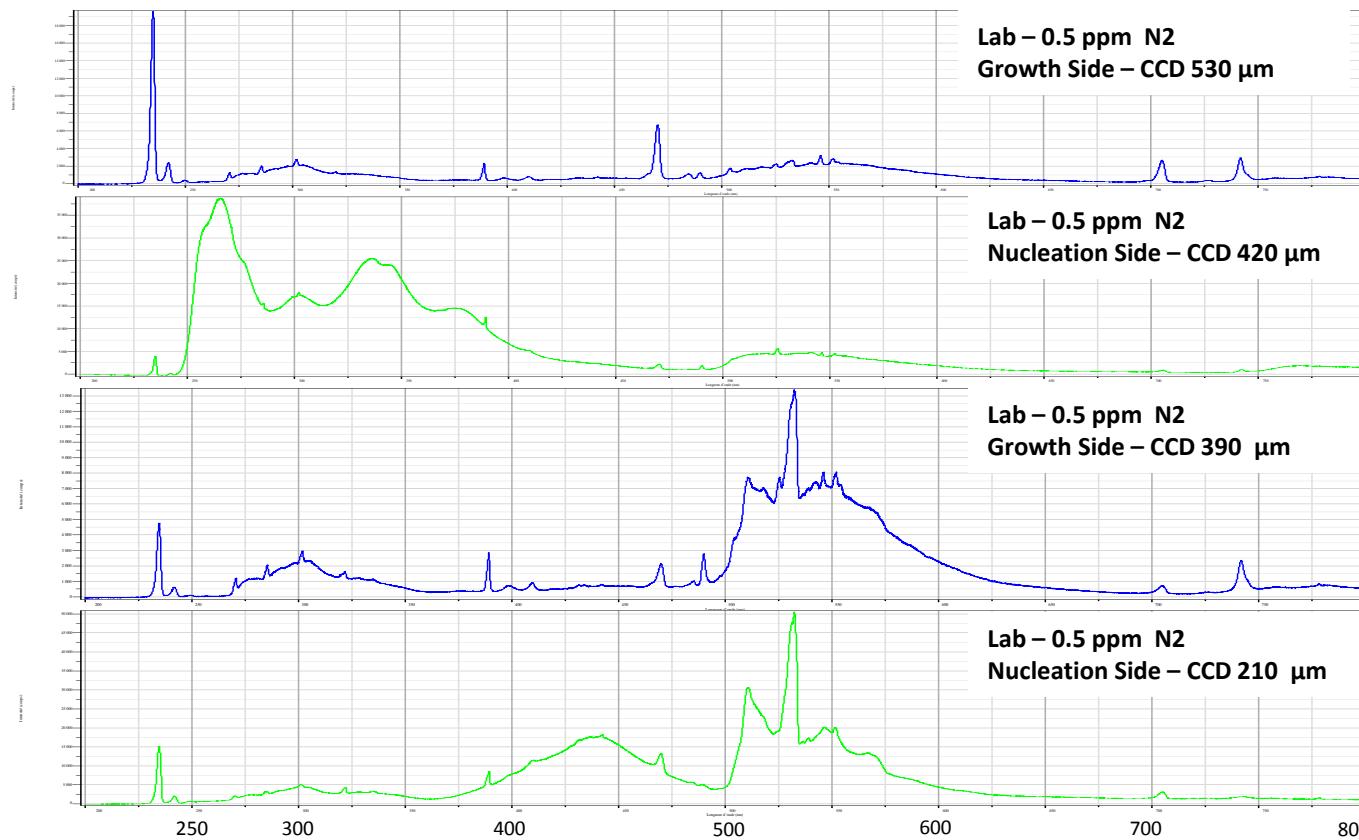
4. Bulk Studies

By Cathodo-luminescence at low temperature
(electron beam 10kV, 7nA – T=110°K)

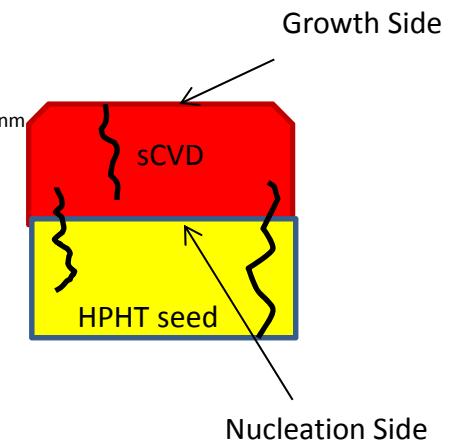
Lab – 0.5 ppm N2 : Limit HT, limited CCD
Lab – 2 ppm N2 : HT OK, CCD OK
Ind - ? : HT OK, CCD OK



One can see clearly the presence of Nitrogen
There are extended defects in all diamonds
Test under source (74 MBq) induces damages: Radiation hardness ?

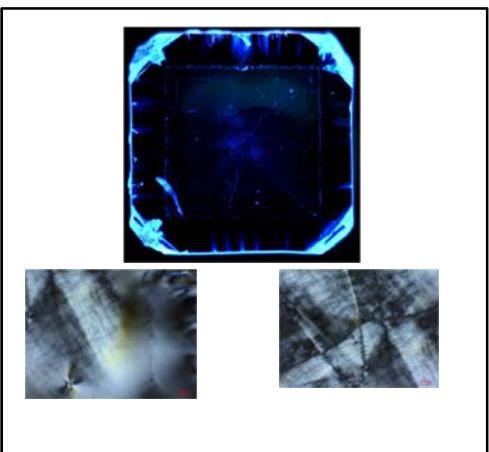


More extended defects on the nucleation side (HPHT mirror effect)
Even the sCVD are asymmetries (known for the pCVDs)
(with consequences on the CCD)

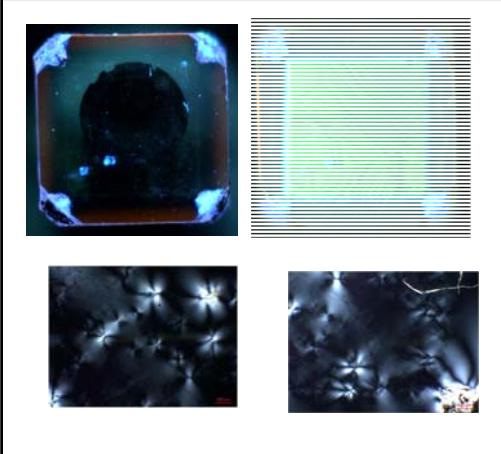


5. Bulk and surface Studies

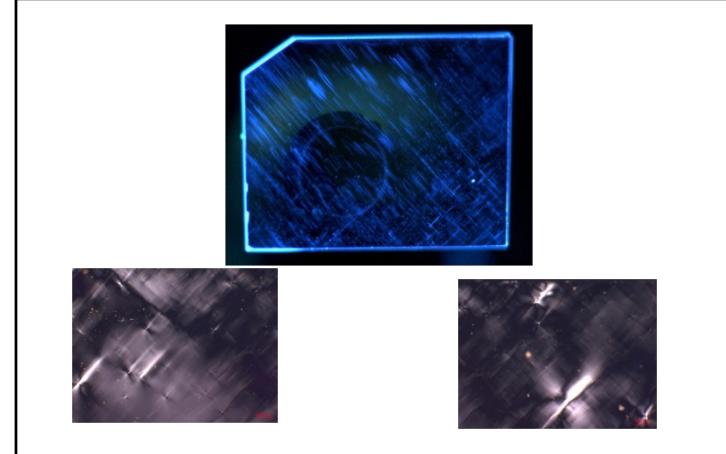
By Images (Fluorescence / polarised light / X-ray Tomography)



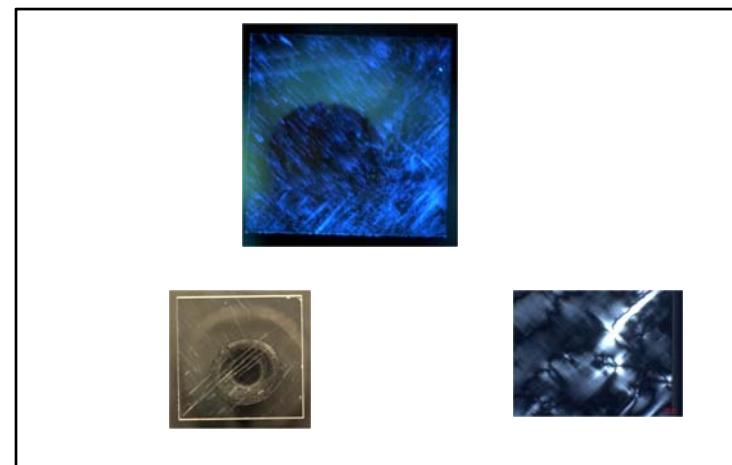
LSPM – 0 ppm N2
results on CCD OK



LSPM – 1 ppm N2
results on CCD OK



Industry
results on CCD very good

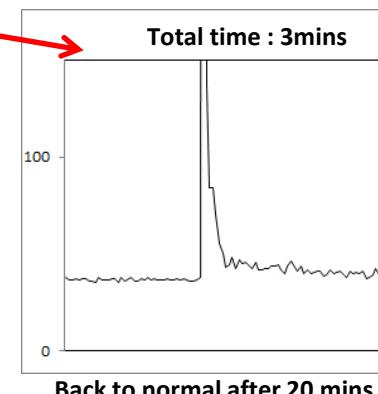
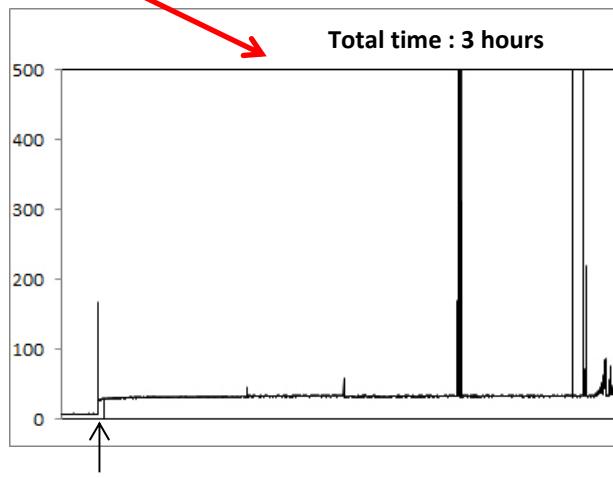
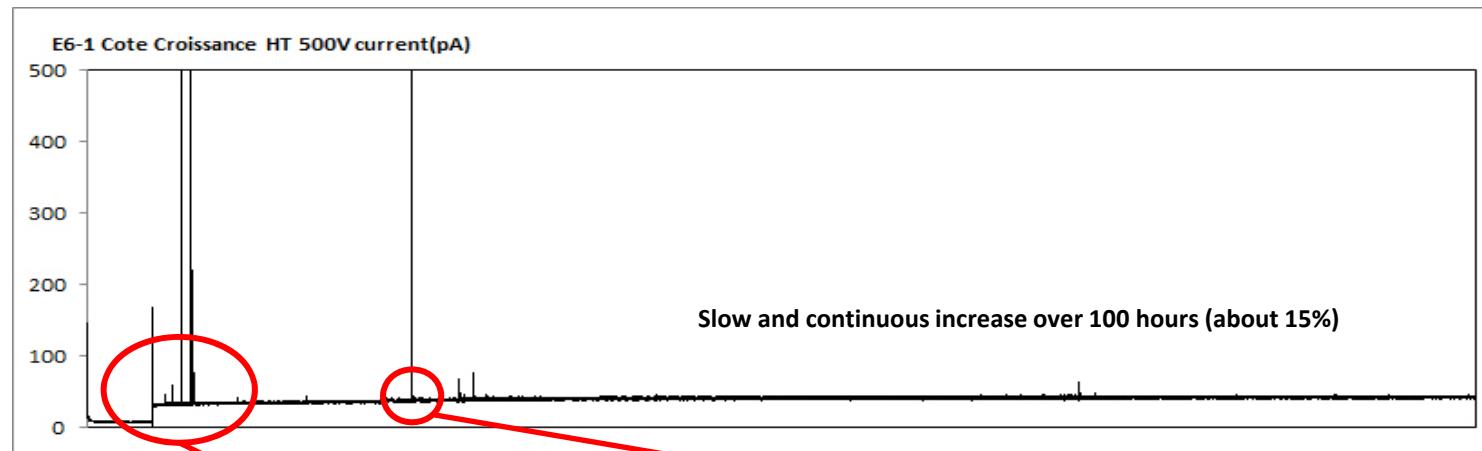


All sCVD show defects
- deep dislocations
- bad polishing
- N2 incorporation
- ...

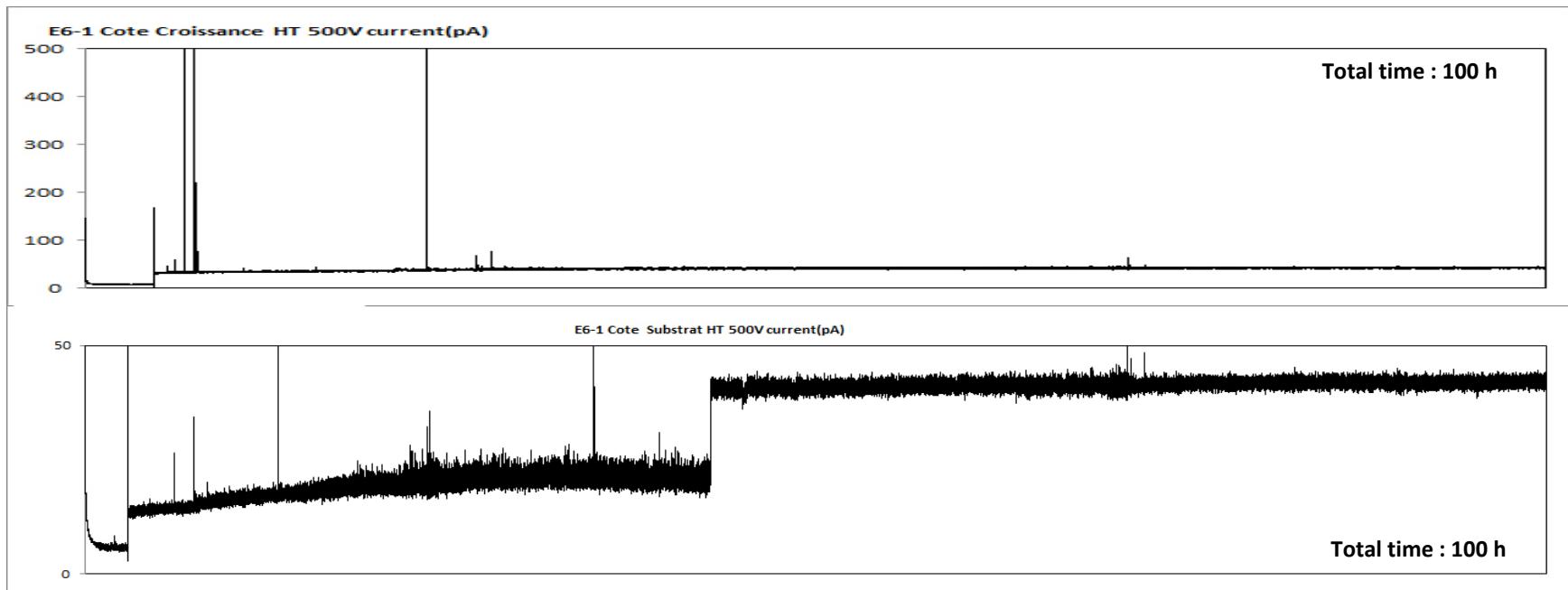
6. Long term effects – “Polarisation” ?



Long term measurement leakage current at max field ($\approx 1 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$)

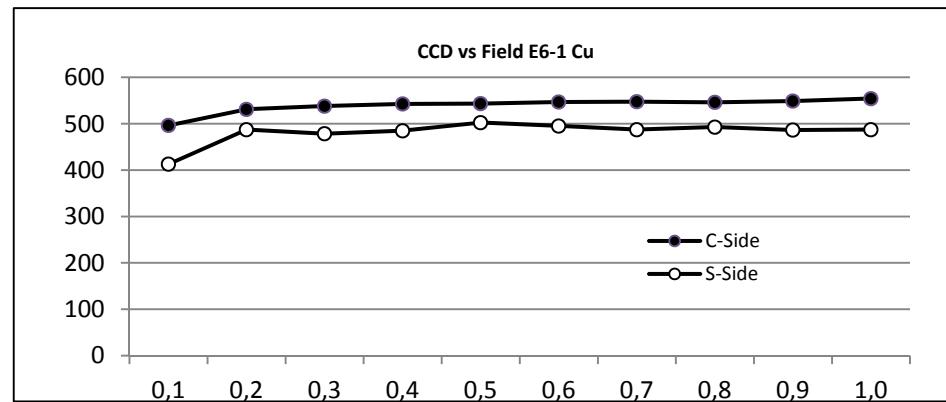


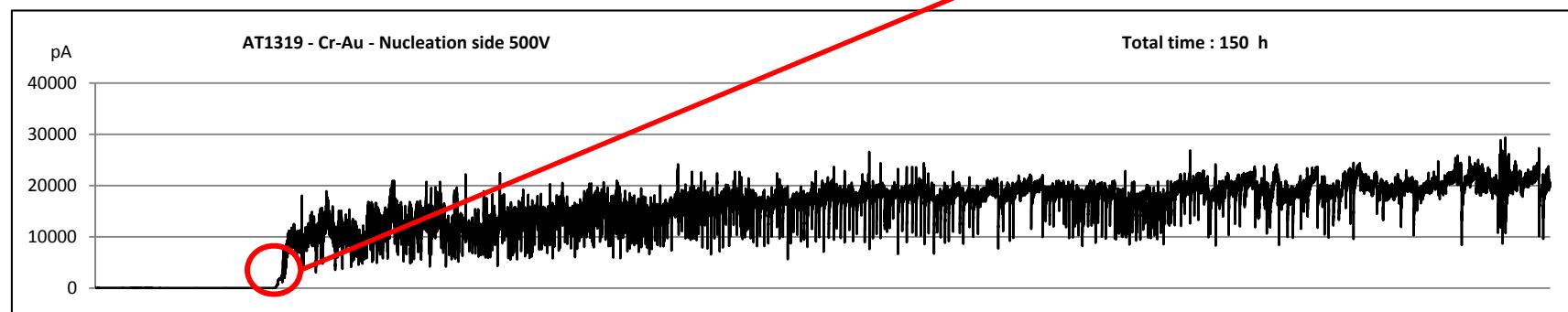
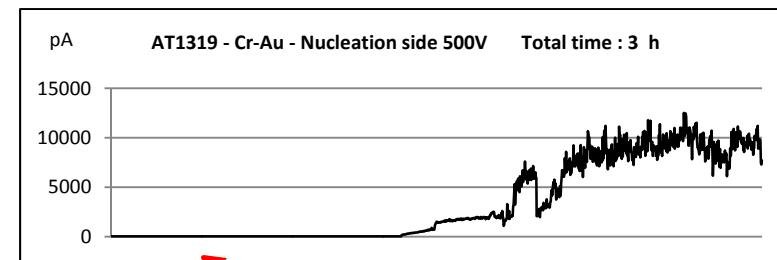
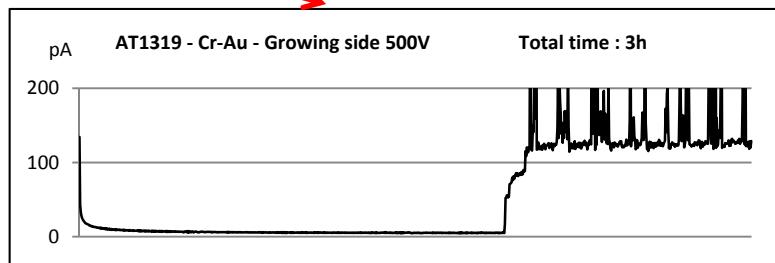
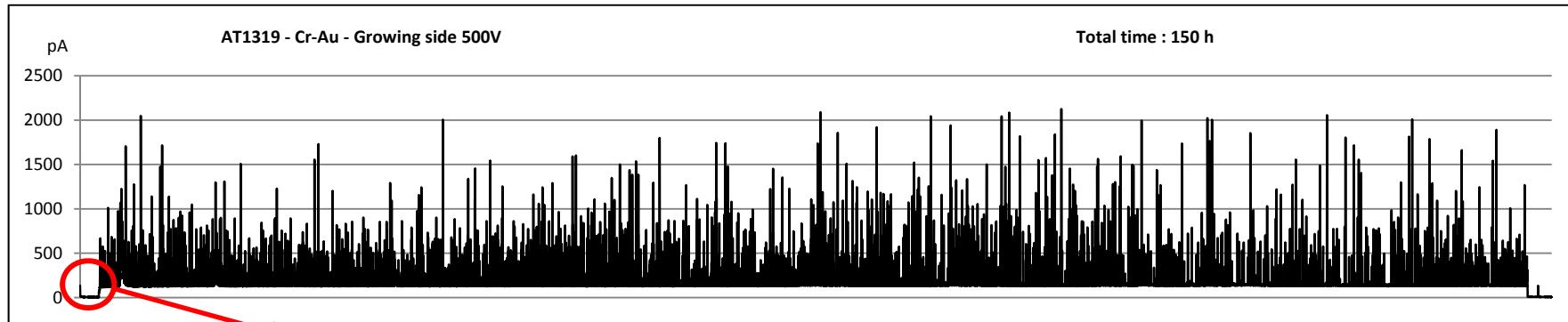
Clear source effect
“slow” discharges (charging – discharging of traps)



For a "good" (industrial) sCVD

Difference between sides
Lower CCD on the nucleation side
More defects (traps) on the nucleation side





Strong difference between sides
More defects (traps) on the nucleation side
Could be a way to evaluate the defects rate ??

Conclusion and prospectives (?)

We have started to address fundamental problems :

Diamond bulk effects

impurities (Nitrogen – Boron)

bulk defects importance

defects rate have to be understood, and under control

some ideas exist :

differential growing, immediate annealing, disorientation)

Diamond surface effects

surface finishing

metallisation

problem considered as solved (?)

The main lesson :

True :

**Developments in the Research Community may lead to
Industrial Developments.**

Wrong :

**Objects developed in the Industrial World can be easily used in the
Research Community.**