Experimental techniques in high-energy nuclear and particle physics

"Dottorato di Ricerca in Ingegneria dell'Informazione"

LECTURE 5.

Tracking detectors

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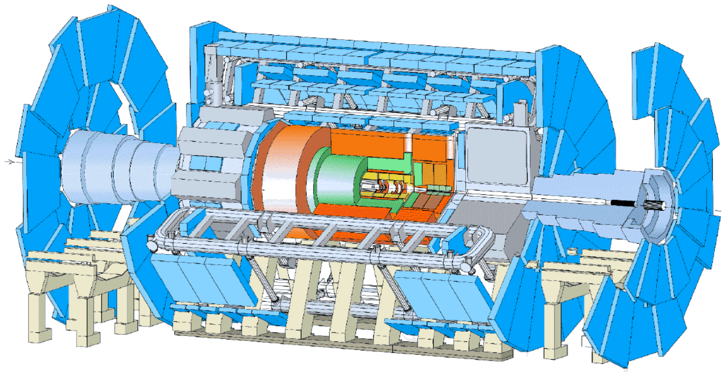
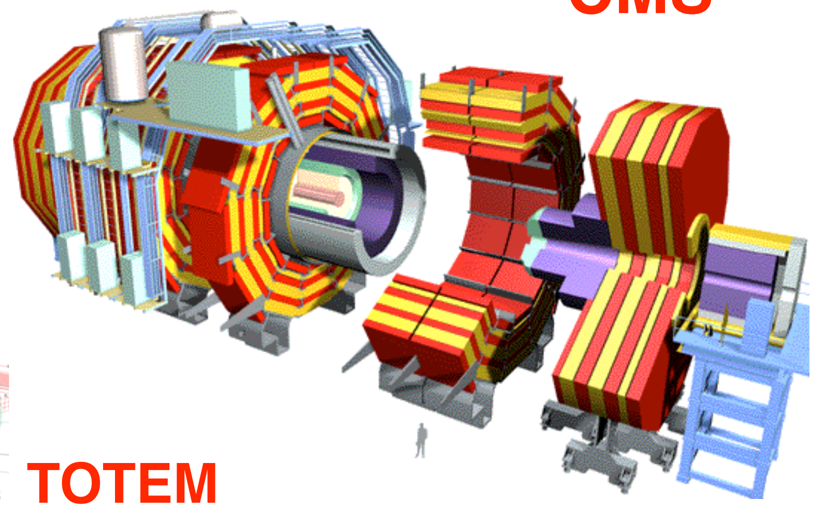
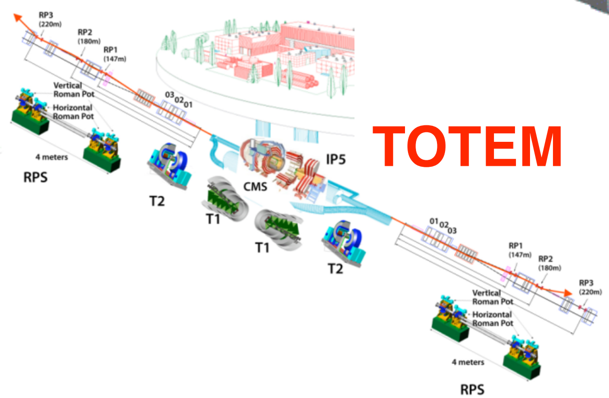
The LHC Detectors

ATLAS

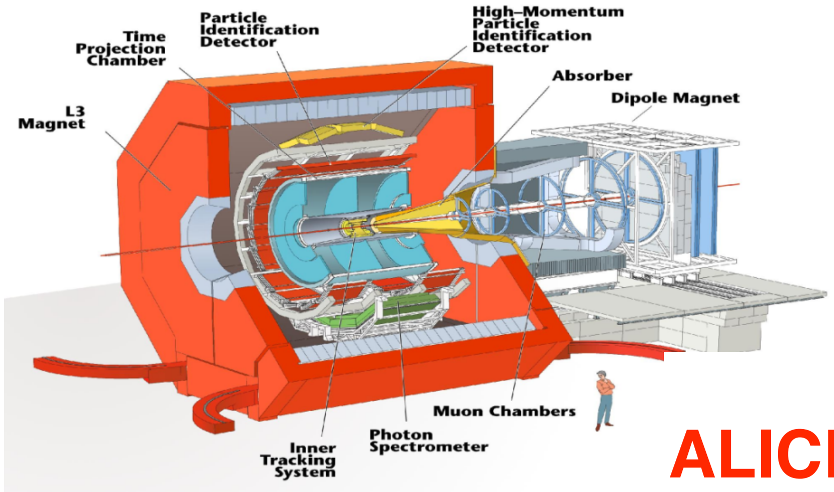


CMS

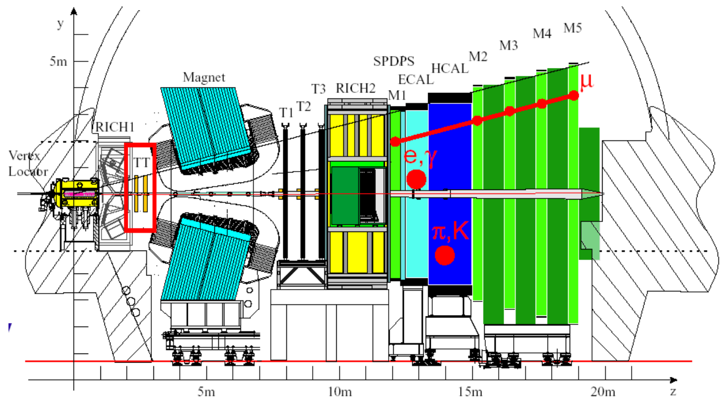




TOTEM

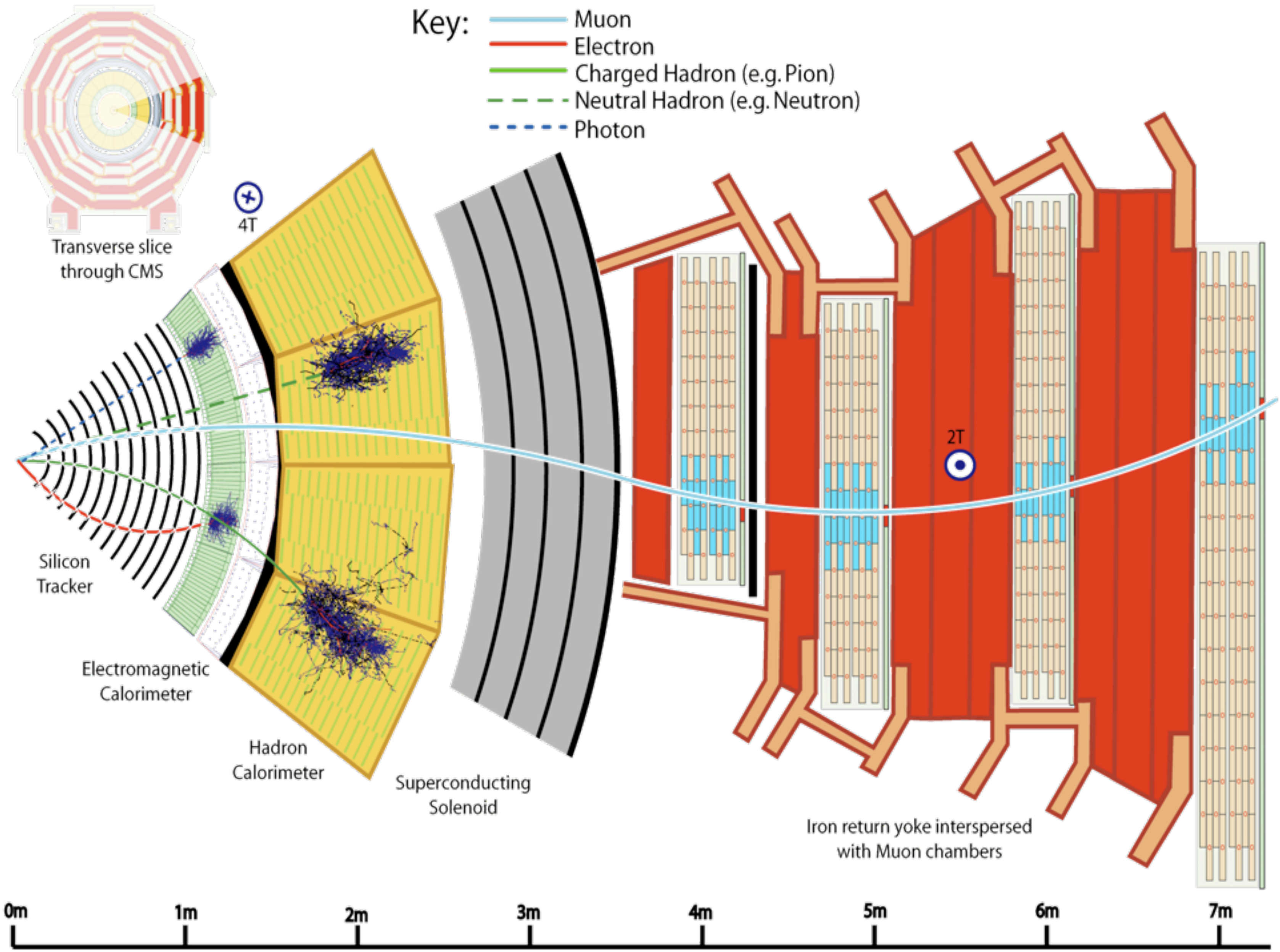


ALICE



LHCb

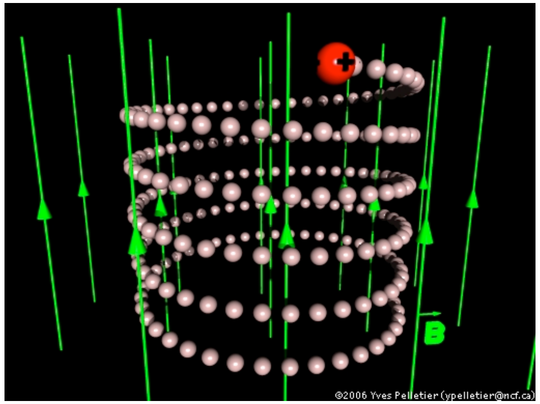
Transverse slice of CMS



Tracking: why

At hadron colliders the challenging aim is the full reconstruction of the events produced in the interaction under study. Therefore primary goals are:

✓ reconstruct the trajectories ("tracking") of charged particles and measure their momenta



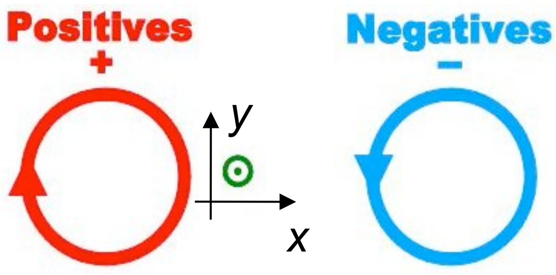
Most common case: in a solenoidal uniform magnetic filed the Lorentz force

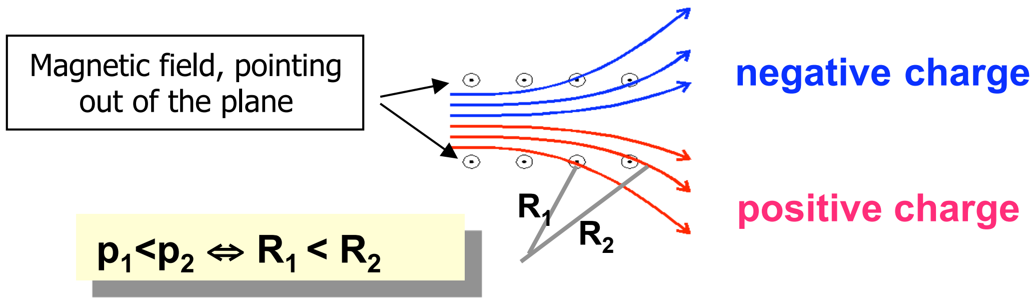
$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = q\vec{E} + q\left(\vec{v} \times \vec{B}\right)$$

induce charged particles to follow a helicoidal path:
- describe circles in the transverse plane
- move uniformly along the magnetic field direction

$$P_T(GeV) = 0.3\ B(T)\ R(m)$$

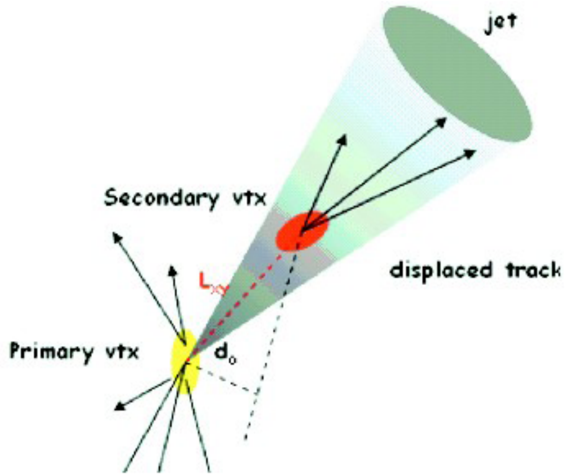
✓ identify the sign of the charge

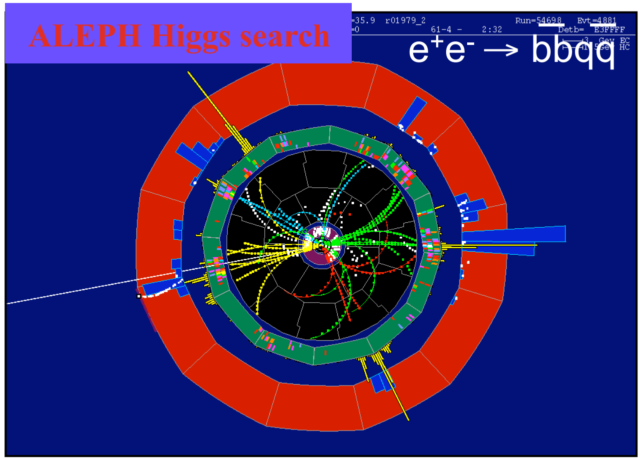


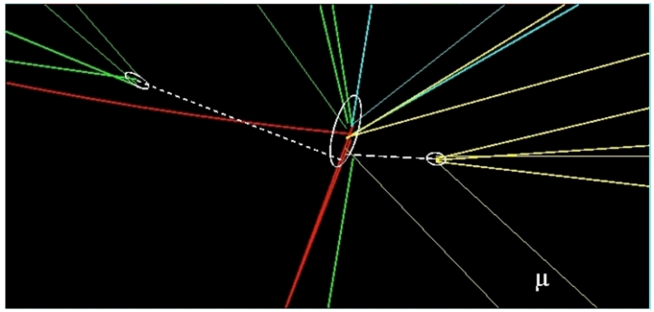


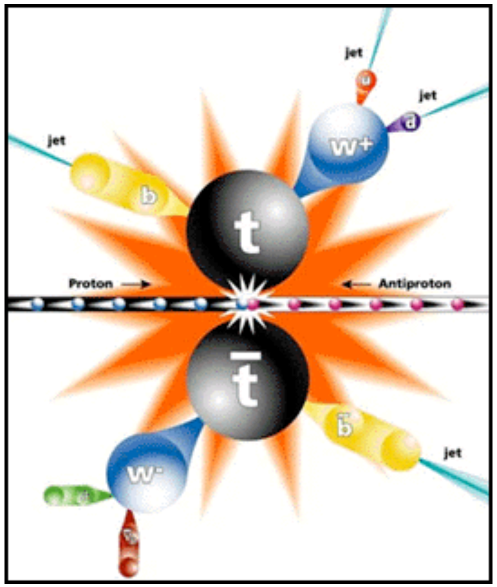
Tracking: why

✓reconstruct the primary and secondary vertices of the interaction
(at LHC with large pile-up of events in the same bunch crossing !)

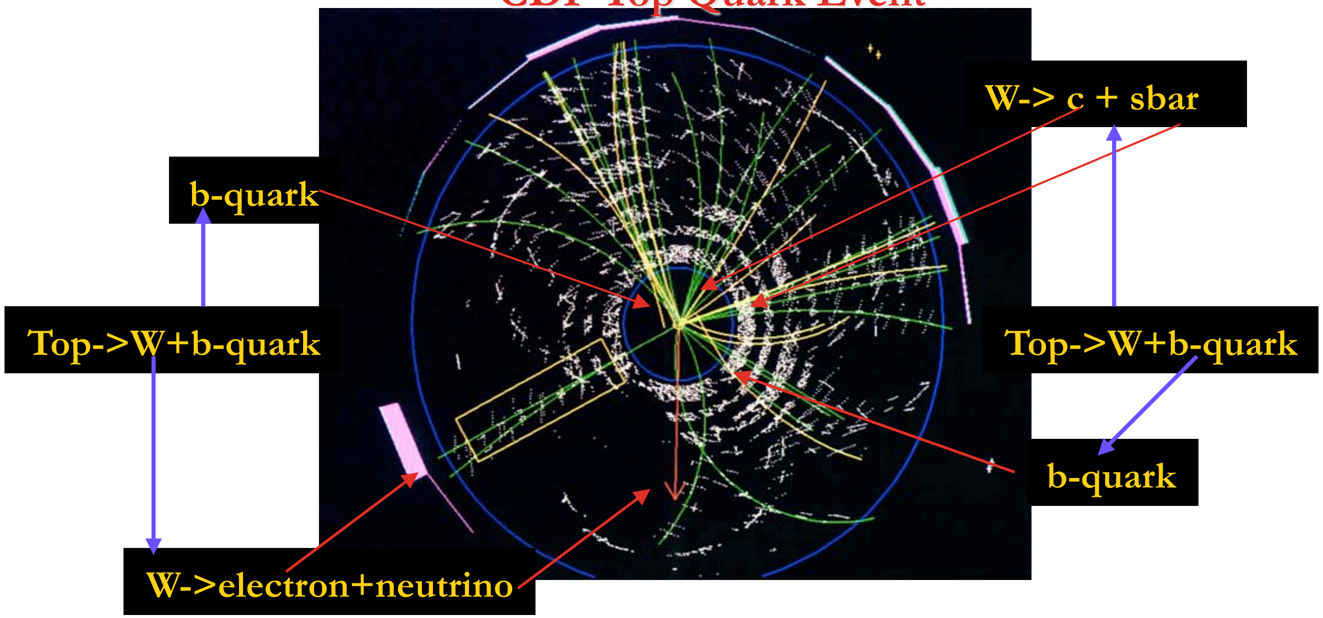








CDF Top Quark Event



Tracking: a real challenge at LHC

- Tracking at LHC is a very complex procedure due to the high track density. It needs specific implementation adapted to the detector type and geometry

- Precise and efficient detector modules are required to measure where the particle crossed the module

- Fast and radiation hard detectors and electronics are needed

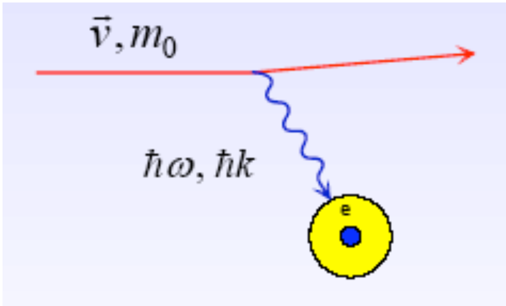
- Track reconstruction requires specific software implementation:
  - track finding (pattern recognition)
  - estimation of track parameters (fitting)

- Precise alignment of detector modules is a prerequisite for efficient tracking

Tracking: how

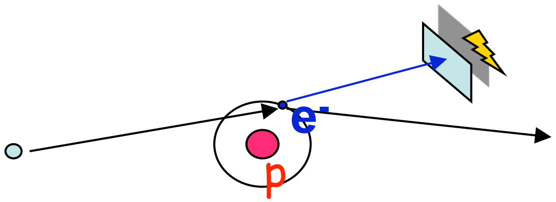
measureable signals occur via the interaction of charged particles with the detector material.

Dominant interaction is due to the coulomb interactions with the atomic *electrons* of the detector.



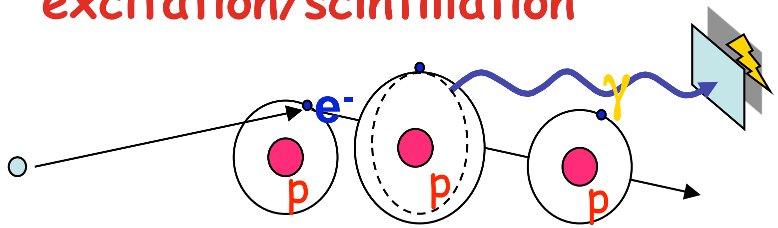
Depending on the $\hbar\omega$ value we may have:

- ionization



or

- excitation/scintillation



Ionization and excitation of atomic electrons in matter are the most common processes and allow to build precise tracking detectors .

Ionization: the Bethe-Bloch formula

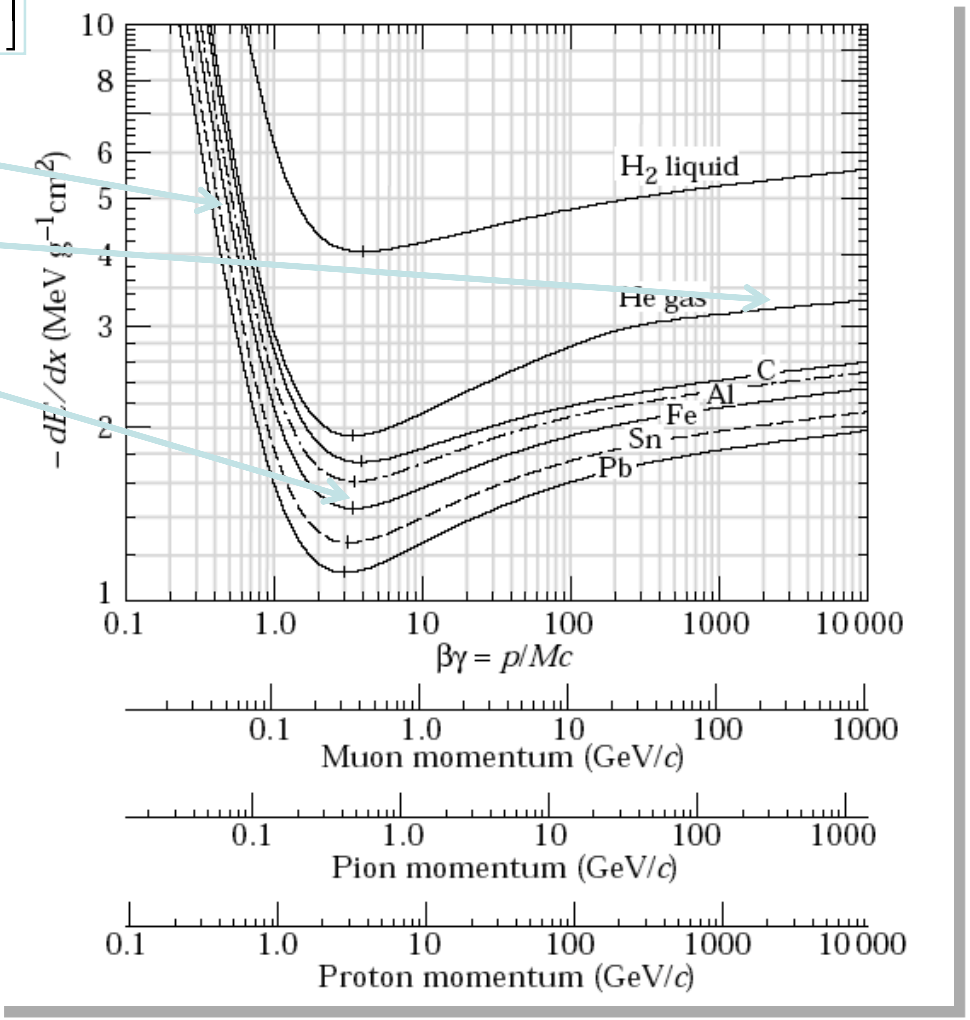
$$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = -4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 z^2 \frac{Z}{A}\frac{1}{\beta^2}\left[\frac{1}{2}\ln\frac{2m_e c^2\gamma^2\beta^2}{I^2}T^{\max} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta}{2}\right]$$

$$T_{\max} \approx 2m_e c^2\beta^2\gamma^2$$

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} \approx Kq^2\frac{Z}{A\beta^2}\left[\ln\frac{2m_e c^2\beta^2\gamma^2}{I^2} - \beta^2\right]$$

Charaterized by:

- a fall off at low energy $\sim 1/\beta^2$
- a relativistic rise ~ ln $\beta\gamma$
- a minimum at $\beta\gamma \approx 3$
- depends only on $\beta\gamma$ not on m

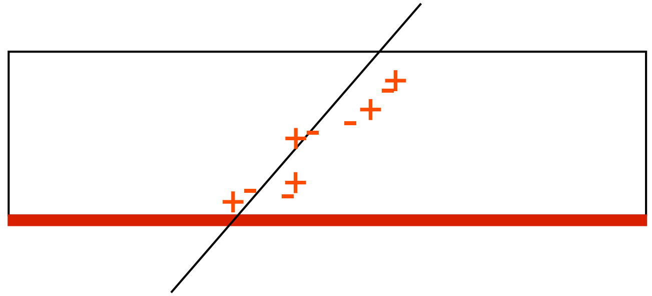


High energy charged particles lose energy slowly in material due to ionization leaving tracks as they pass (For $Z \approx 0.5A$ at $\beta\gamma \approx 3$ $1/\rho\ dE/dx \approx 1.4$ MeV cm ^{2}/g)

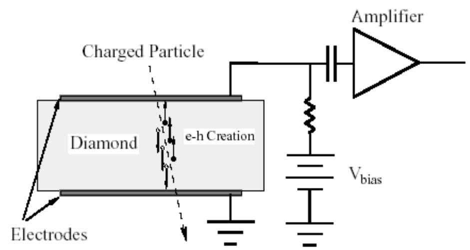
➔ many kinds of tracking detectors can be done !

Tracking Detectors

Charged particles crossing a material loose energy by ionizing (and exciting) atoms and thus leaving along their path a trace of electron-ion pairs in gases and liquids and electron-hole pairs in solids.



Measurable electronics signals can be induced by the charges produced in this way and can be read by dedicated electronics



- In solid state detectors the charges produced by the ionization due to the incoming particle are sufficient to provide a measurable signal.

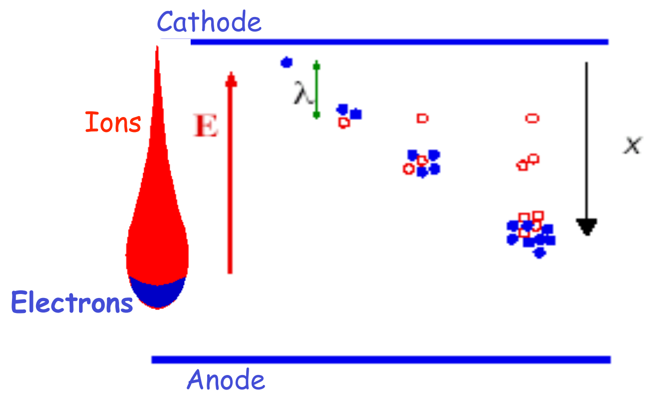
- Mean (most probable) energy loss: 116 (78) keV for 300μm Si thickness
- 3.6 eV to create an e-h pair
  - ⇒ 72 e-h/μm (mean)
  - ⇒ 108 e-h/μm (most probable)
- Mean charge (300μm Si) ≈ 22000 e ≈ 3.6 fC

- In gas detectors the charges produced by the primary ionization due to the incoming particle need amplification in order to provide a measurable signal.

GAS)	Helium	Argon	Xenon	CH_4	DME
dE/ dx (keV/ cm)	0.32	2.4	6.7	1.5	3.9
<n>(ion-pair/ cm)	5.9	29	44	16	55

Gas Detectors: the avalanche multiplication

As the electric field increases to sufficient high value (~100kV/cm) more and more electrons gain kinetic energy in excess of the ionization energy so that they can ionize in turn other atoms (secondary ionzation) and so on.



The mean free path λ is defined as the average distance that an electron must walk before another ionizing collision may occurs. On average every λ the number of ion pairs is doubled. $\alpha = 1/\lambda$ is called Townsend coefficient:

$dN = N \alpha\, dx$

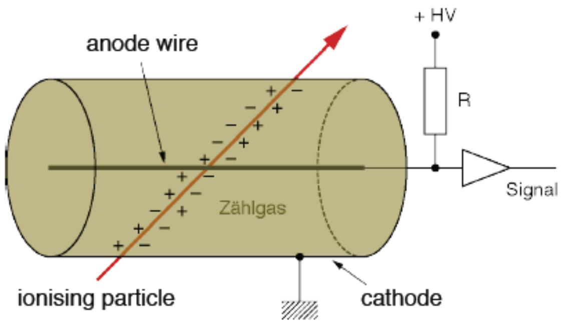
$N(x) = N_0 \exp(\alpha x)$ $N/N_0 = A =$ Amplification or *Gas Gain*

The problem with an avalanche multiplication with an homogeneous electric field is that very high field on are needed and may easily cause breakdown
The solution is to obtain the avalanche multiplication in an inhomogeneous field:

$\alpha(E) \rightarrow N(x)/N_0 = A = \exp\left[\int \alpha(E(x'))dx'\right]$

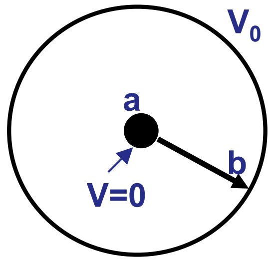
Wire Chamber: Electron Avalanche

- **Basic design:** ionization chamber with HV sense wire



Typically a gas detector will have ~20 primary ions per cm created by a track: amplification needed in order to provide a measurable signal.

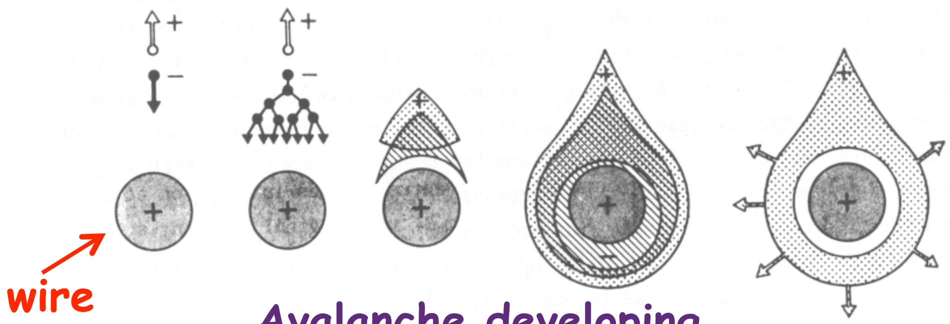
Consider a thin wire with radius a (10-25μm) at voltage V=0 in a tube of outer radius b (1-3cm) voltage V_0. The electric field inside the tube is given by:



$$E = 2\lambda / r, \quad V_0 = 2\lambda \ln(b/a), \quad V(r) = V_0 \frac{\ln(r/a)}{\ln(b/a)}, \quad E(r) = \frac{V_0}{r \ln(b/a)}$$

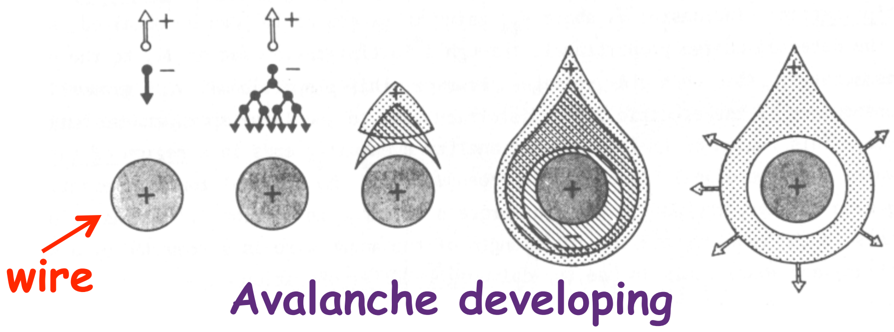
Example: V_0=1000V, a=10μm, b=10mm,
E(a)=150kV/cm

Electric field is sufficient to accelerate electrons to energies which are sufficient to produce secondary ionization → electron avalanche → signal.
(tipical amplification: 10^3-10^5)



Avalanche developing

Wire Chamber: Signals from Electron Avalanches



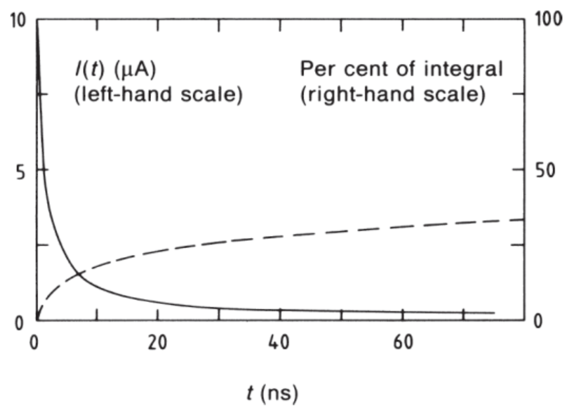
The electron avalanche happens very close to the wire. First multiplication only around R =2x wire radius. Electrons are moving to the wire surface very quickly (<<1ns). Ions are drifting slowly towards the tube wall (typically several 100μs).

The signal is characterized by a very fast 'spike' from the electrons and a long ion tail.

The total charge induced by the electrons amounts to 1-2% of the total induced charge.

Signal due to ions dominates, as they travel all the way to the cathode.

The signal is characterized by a very fast peak from the electrons and a long ion tail.



Amplification vs applied voltage

- Average energy lost in creating ion pair ~ 10-20 eV.
- Primary ionization: number of ionizing collisions per unit length for the incident particle. (Poisson distribution)
- Secondary ionization: the electric field is sufficient to accelerate electrons to energies which are sufficient to produce secondary ionization

For intermediate value of the electric field the number of electrons produced in the avalanche is proportional to the primary ionization (amplification $A \approx 10^3 - 10^4$; Landau distribution)

Increasing the electric field the amplification increases but the detector is not working anymore in a proportional regime:

$A \approx 10^4 - 10^5$ Semi proportional region due to space charge screening around the anode

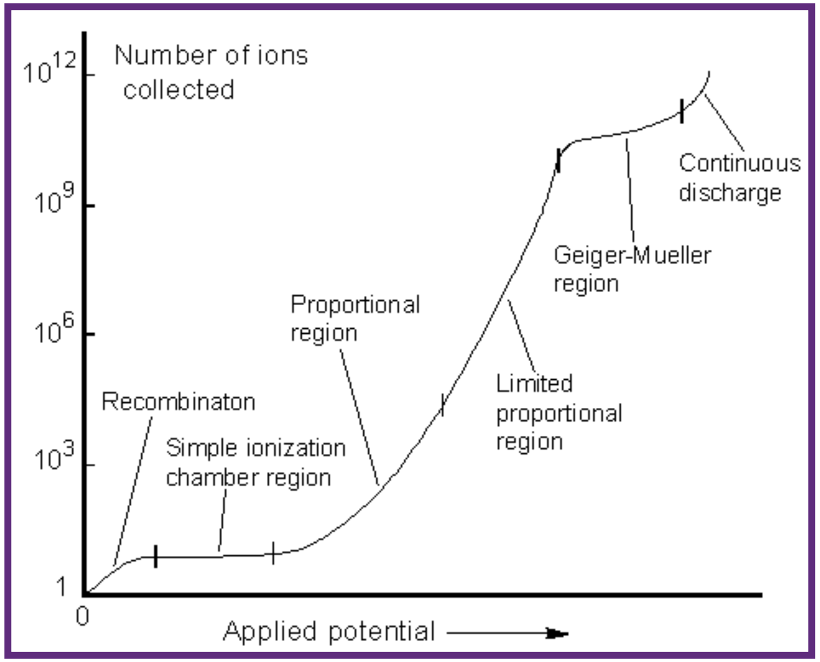
$A > 10^6$ Saturation region: the number of ions collected are independent from the number of primary electrons.

$A > 10^7$ Streamer region: the avalanche develops along the particle track.

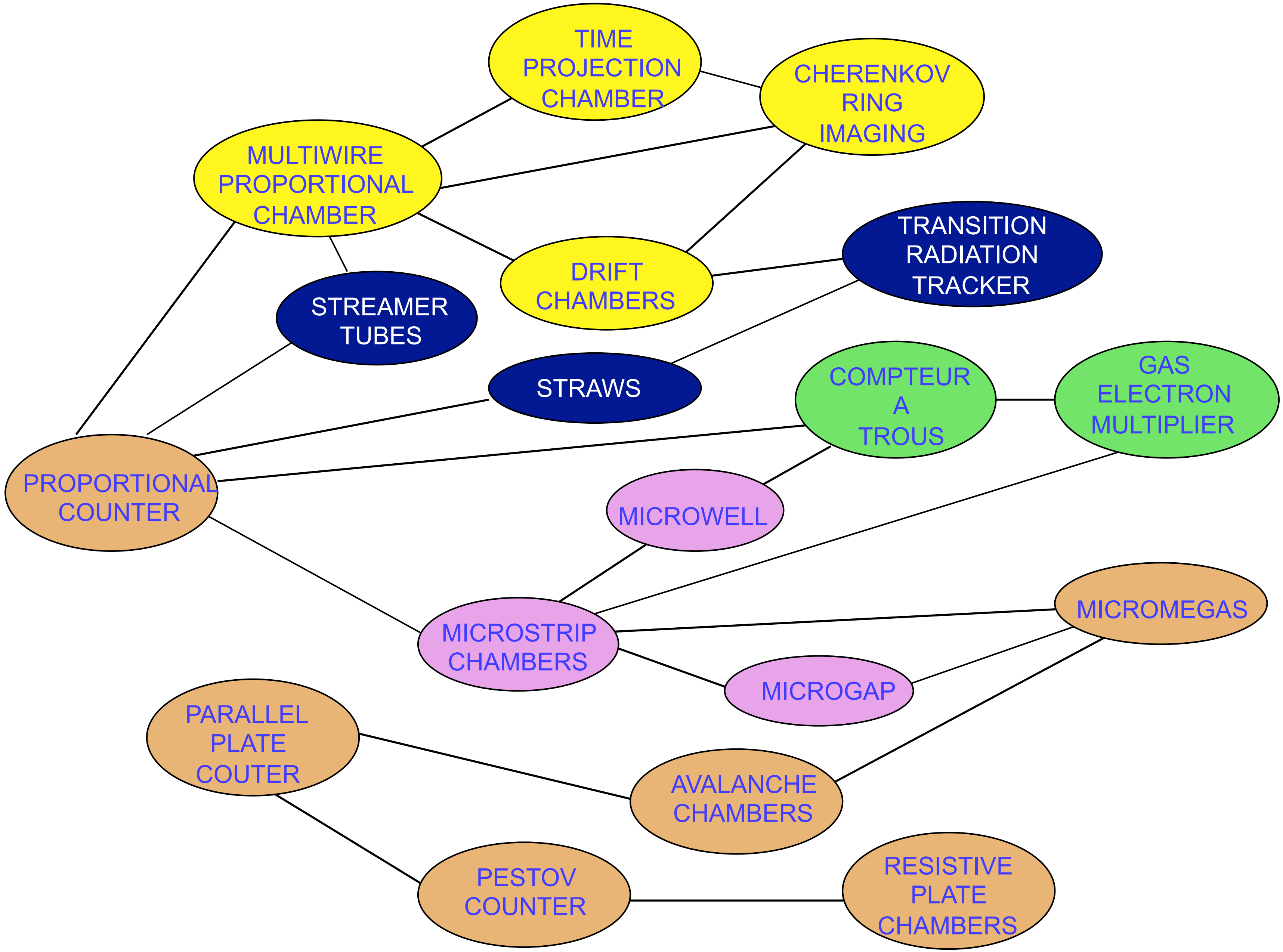
$A > 10^8$ Limited Geiger region: the avalanche is propagated by UV photons.

$A \approx 10^9$ Geiger region: the avalanche is produced along the entire wire.

• • • • Continuous discharge !



The family of gas detectors

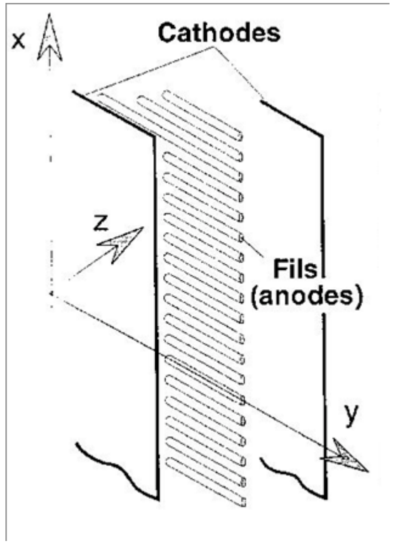


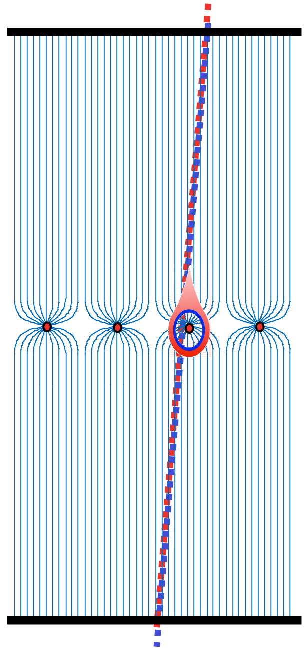
Multiwire Proportional Chambers

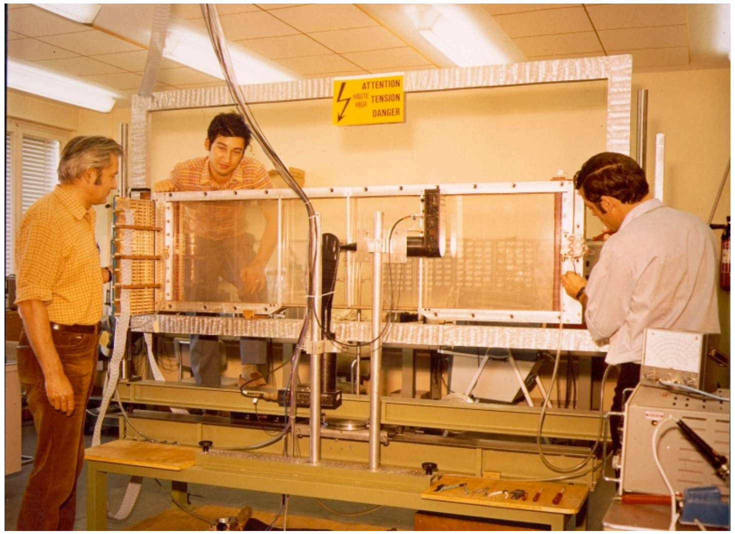
The MWPC was invented by Charpak at CERN 1992 

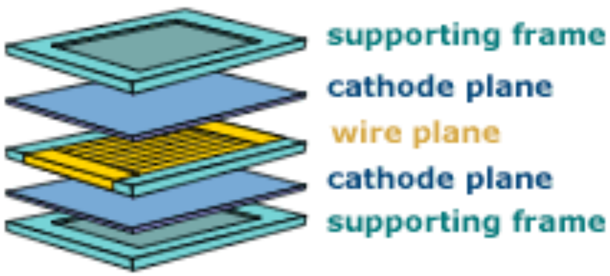
Prize

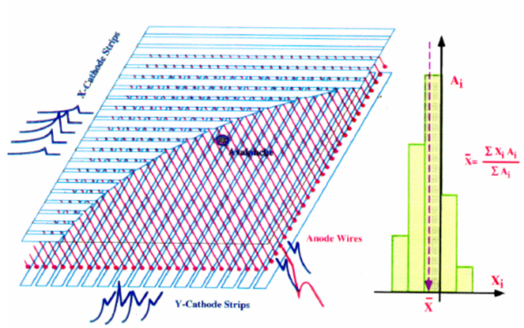
Principle of proportional counter is extended to large areas. One plane of thin sense wires is placed between two parallel plates. Typical dimensions: wire distance 2-5mm, distance between cathode planes ~10mm. Electrons (v≈5cm/μs) are collected within ≈ 100ns. The movement of the charges induces a signal on the wire AND on the cathode. By segmentation of the cathode plane and charge interpolation, resolutions of 50μm can be achieved.
Stack several wire planes up in different direction to get position location.





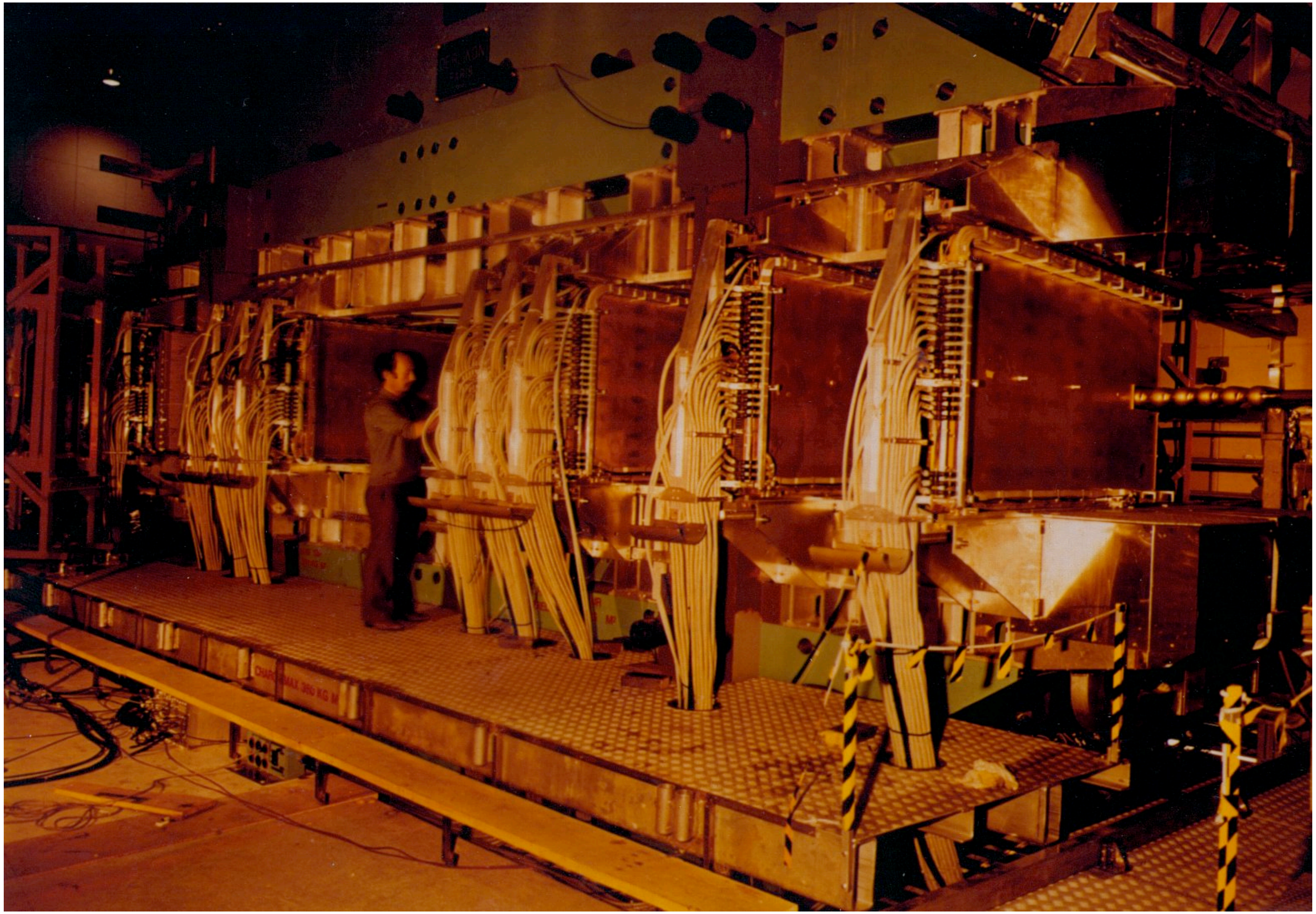




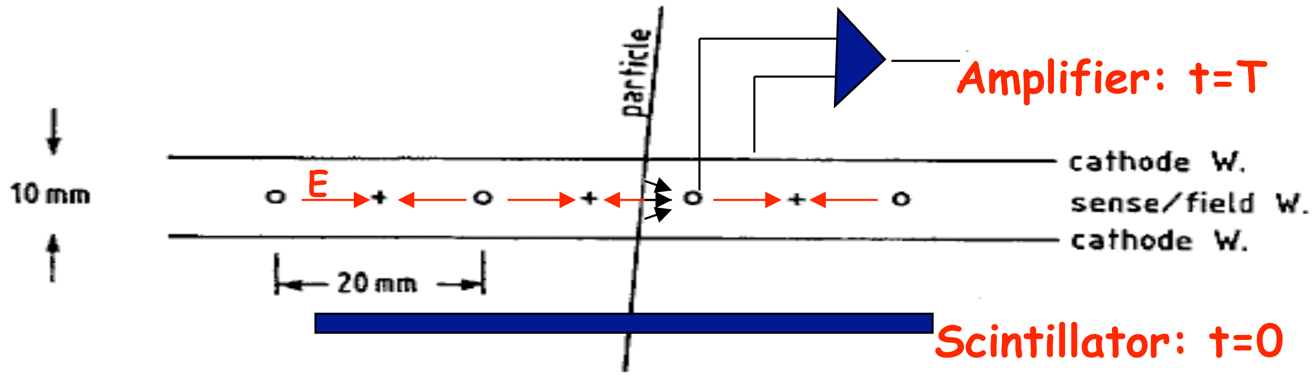


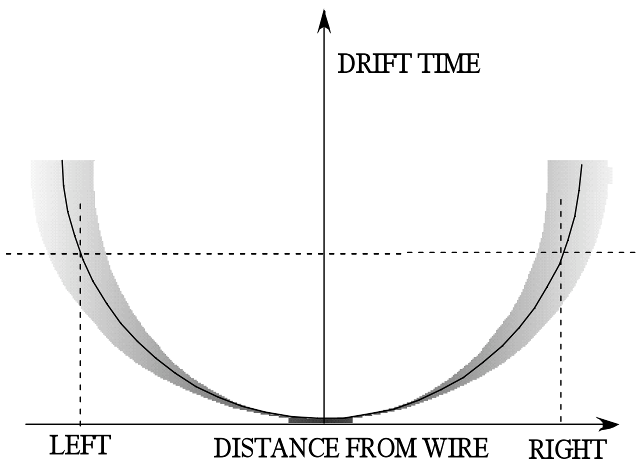
Lo Split Field Magnet Detector (CERN ISR 1972-1983)

40 large area MWPCs



Drift Chamber (1971: H. Walenta)

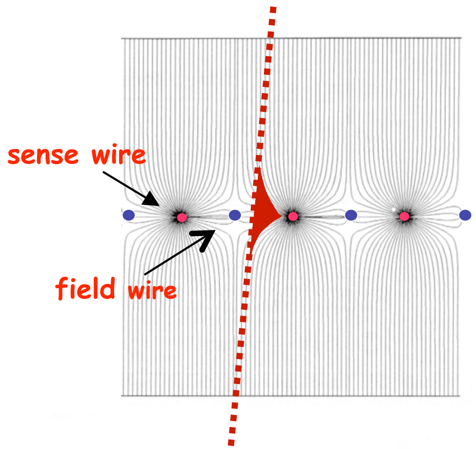


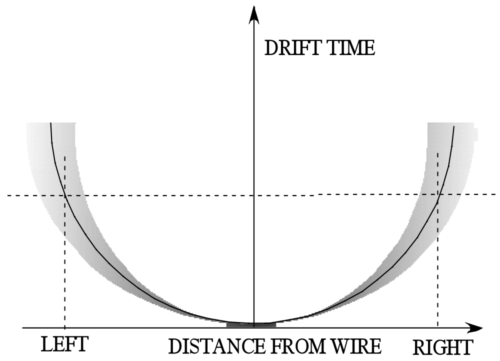


The electric field in an alternating sequence of sense and field wires at different potentials cause the electrons to drift toward the sense wire. The measurement of the drift time T between the passage of the particle and the arrival of the electrons at the sense wire is a measurement of the position of the particle (precision ~100μm)
The wire distance can be increased up to several centimeters (drift time ~μs; v≈5cm/μs) saving a lot of electronics channels with respect to the MWPC.
however:

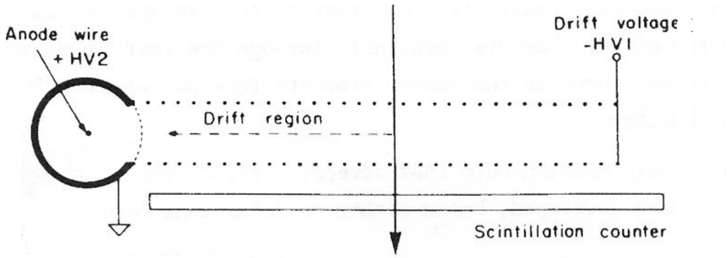
- ❑ Left-Right ambiguity
- ❑ Not a linear relation between drift time and distance from the wire

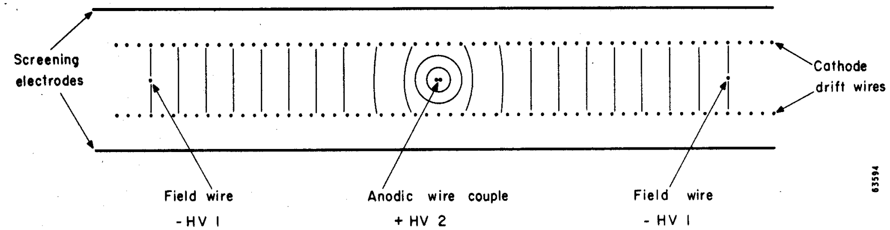
Drift Chambers



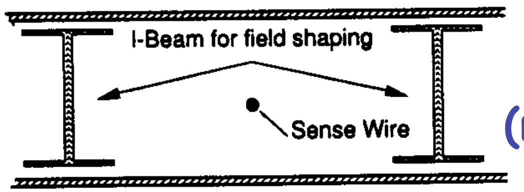


improved drift cell geometry with constant field

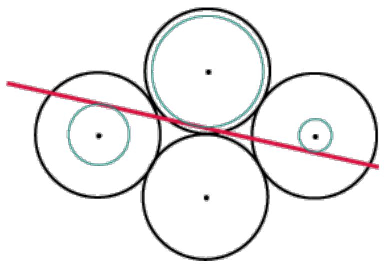




simplified drift geometry for construction of very large area chambers



DT CMS
(muon chambers)

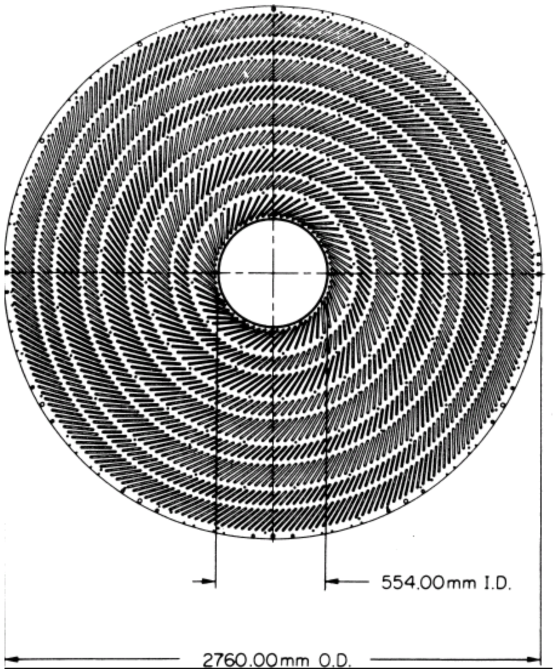


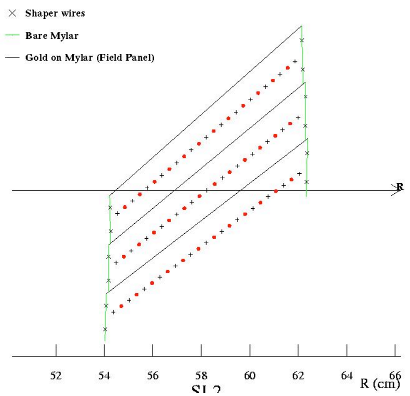
MDT ATLAS
(muon chambers)

Drift Chambers

CDF Central Tracking Chamber

660 drift cells tilted 45^0 with respect to the particle track to take into account ExB drift!

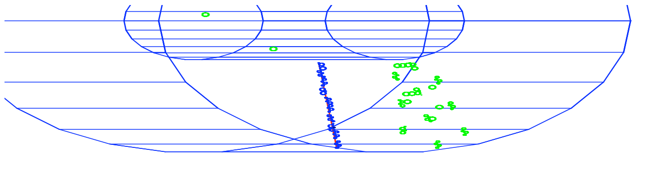


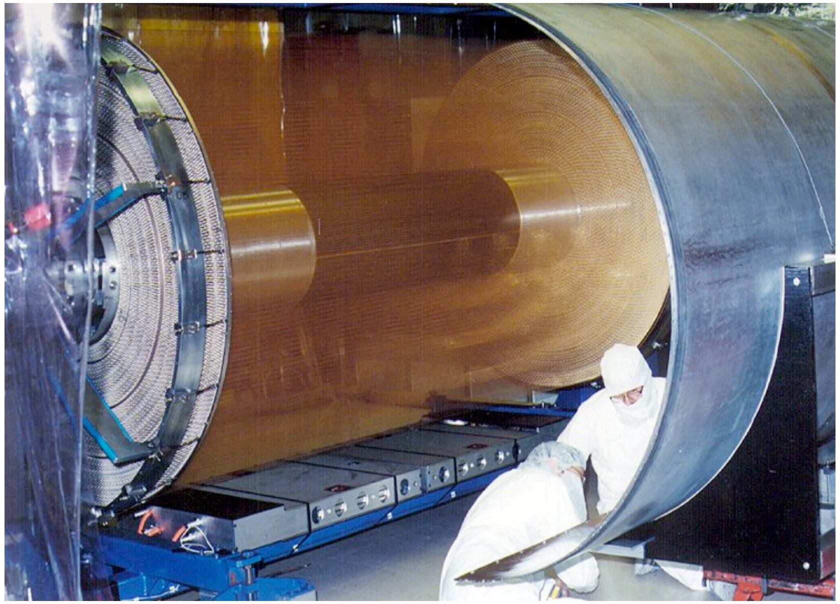


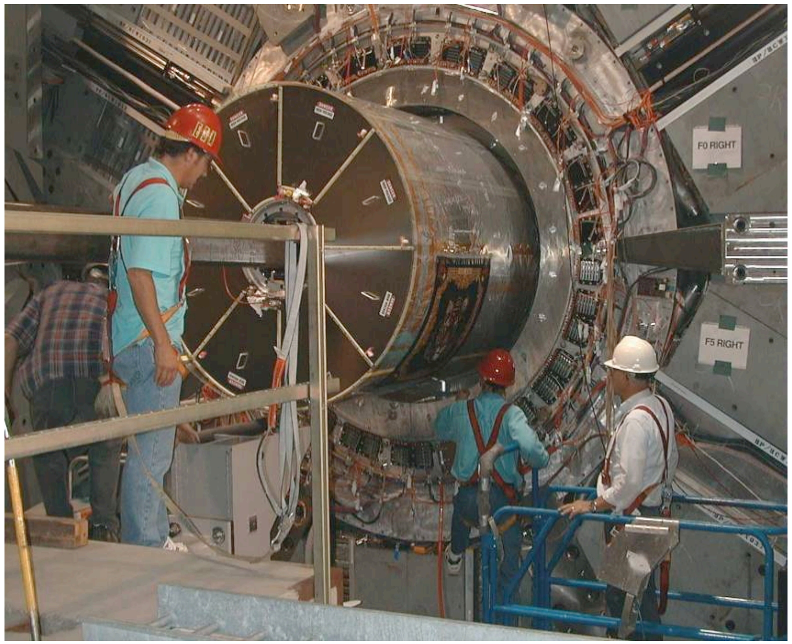
Drift Chambers

BABAR Central Tracking Chamber

- 2.8 m long
- Gas volume ~ 5.6 m^3
- 7100 anode sense wires
- ~50,000 wires in total

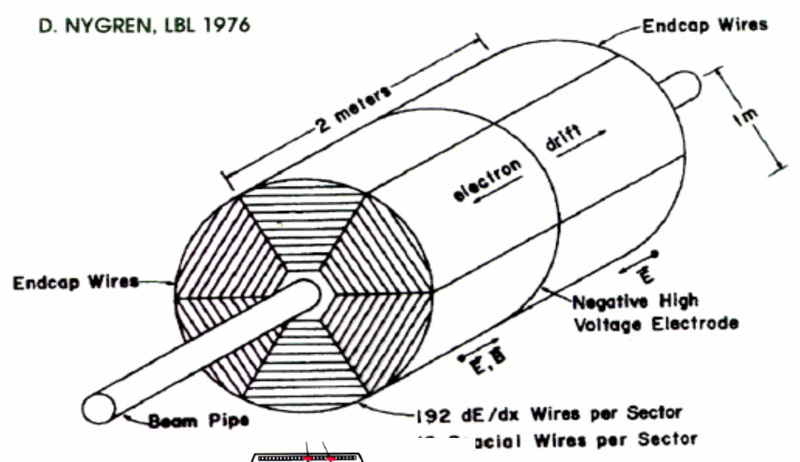


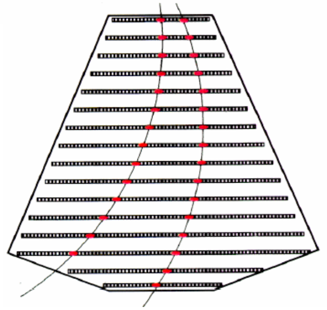




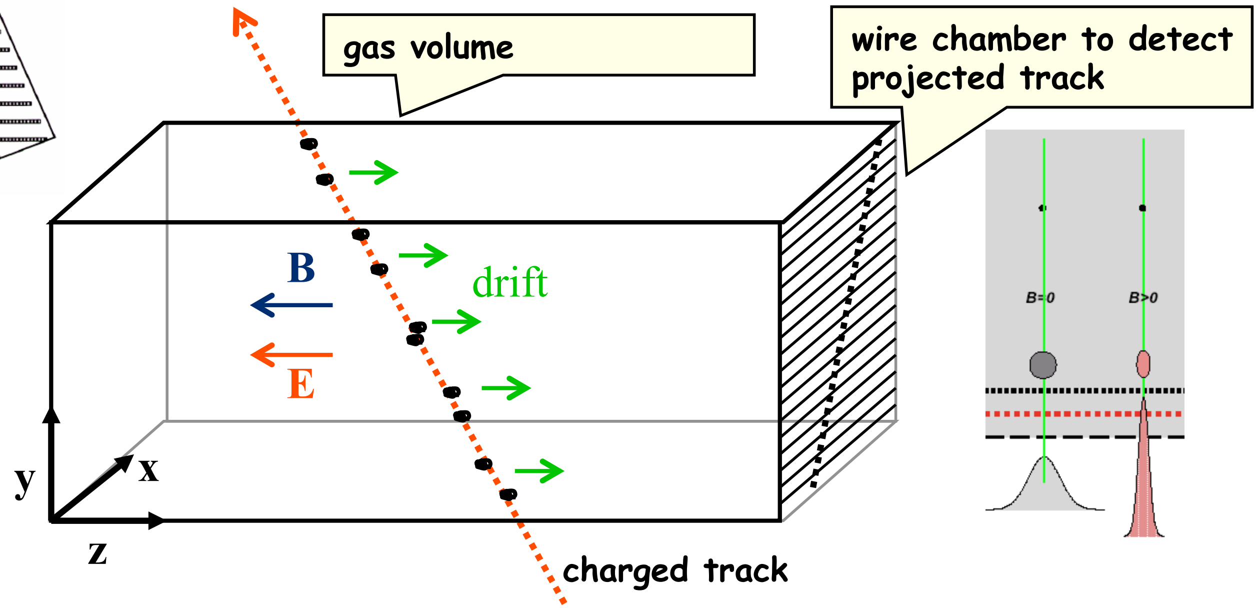
Time Projection Chamber (TPC)

1976: D. Nygren (LBL)

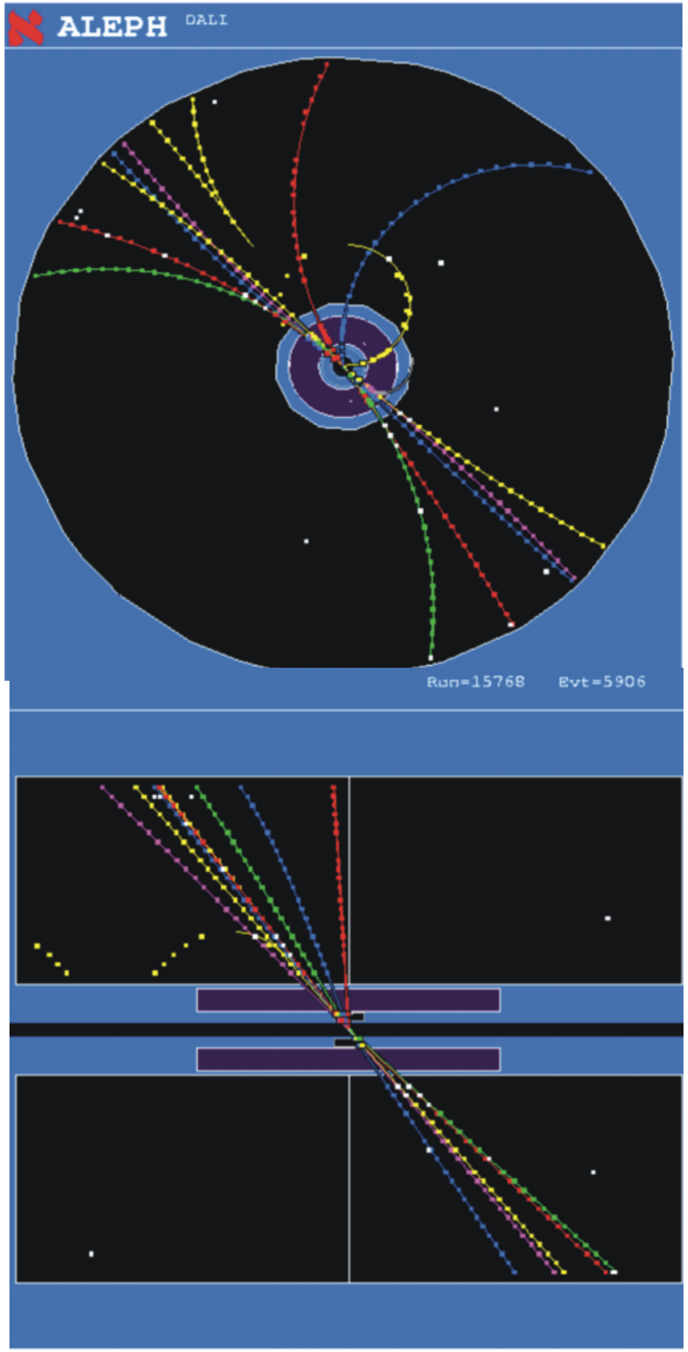


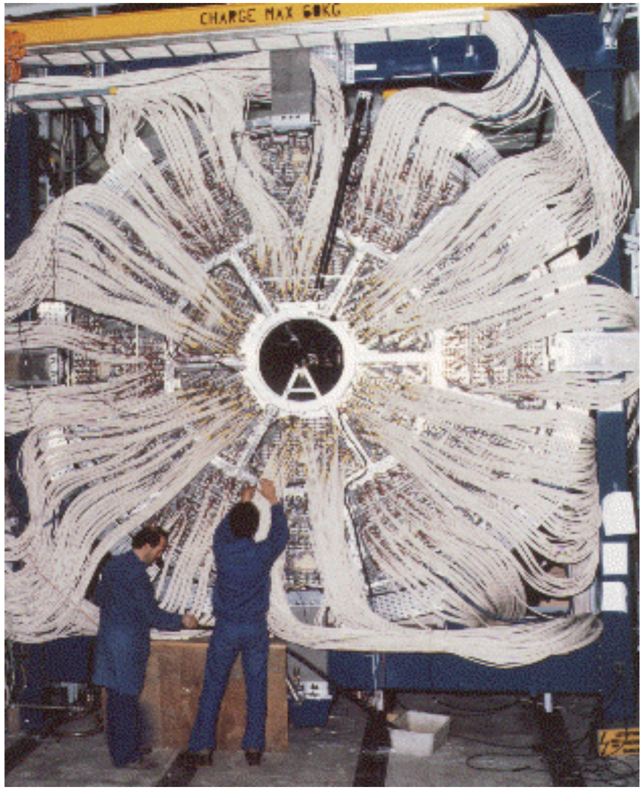


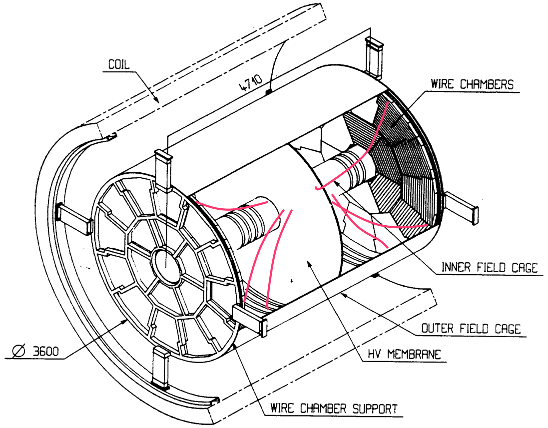
- E~100-300 V/cm. Drift times 10-100 μs
- B for momentum measurement (limit electron diffusion up to a factor 5)
- Wire chamber to detect projected tracks. Timing gives z measurement
- Long drift distances up to 2.5 m



The ALEPH TPC





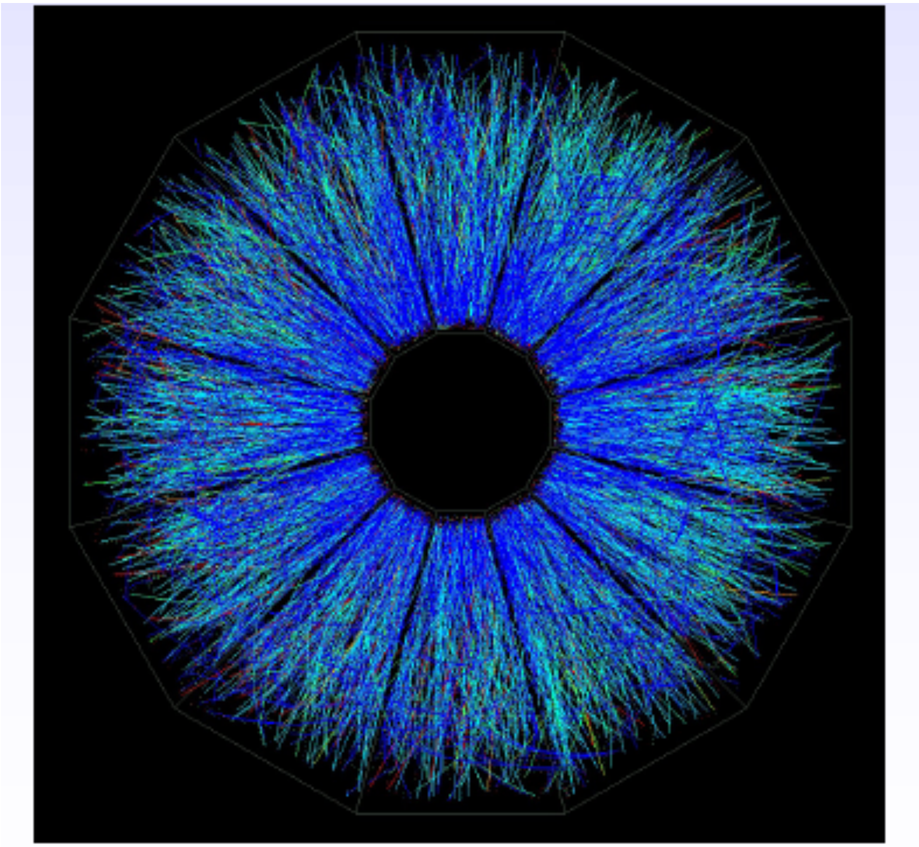


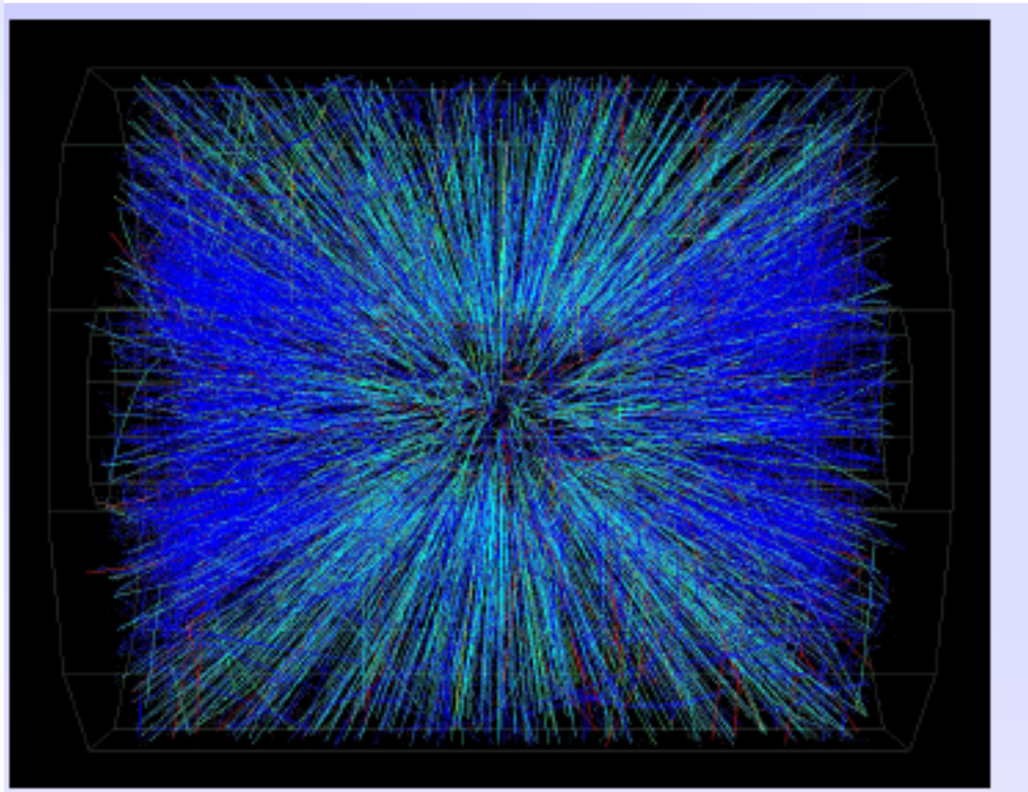
$\sigma_{R\phi}$ = 170 μm
σ_z = 740 μm

very low multiple scattering in the gas volume of the detector
→ very good momentum resolution down to low momenta !

STAR TPC (BNL)

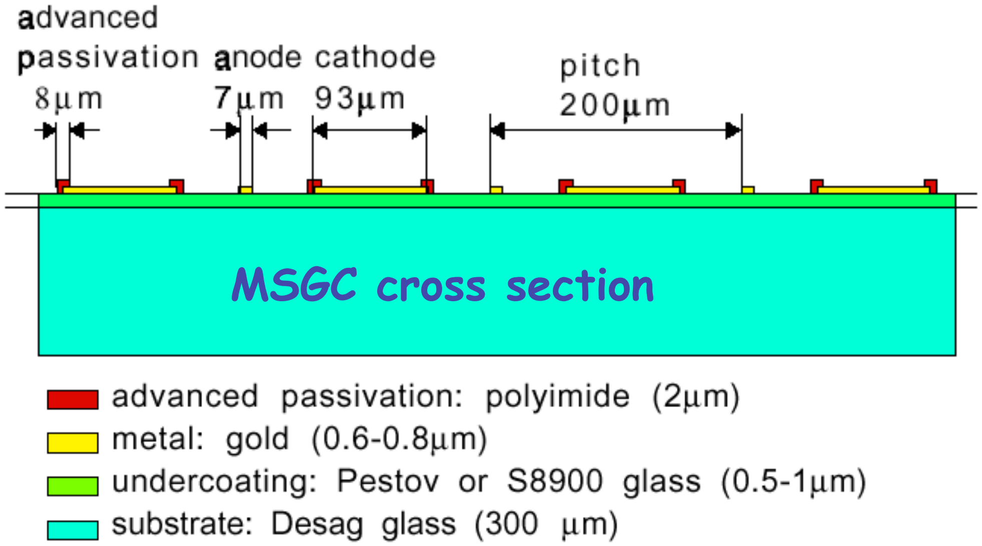
Event display of a Au-Au collision at CM energy of 130 GeV/n.

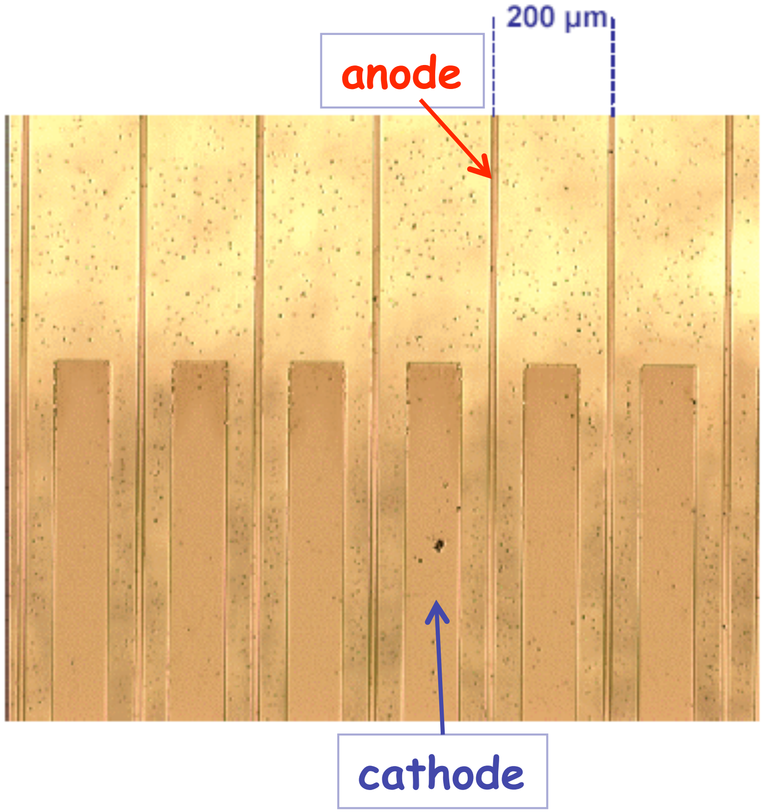


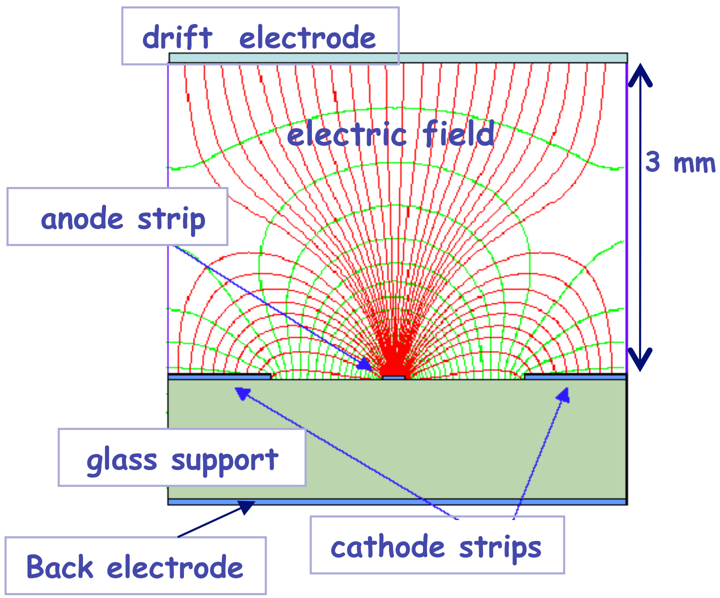


Micro Strip Gas Chamber

1988: Oed



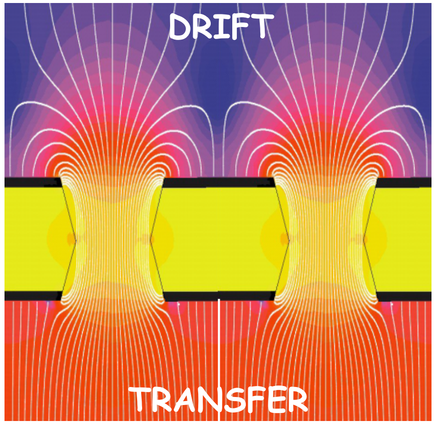


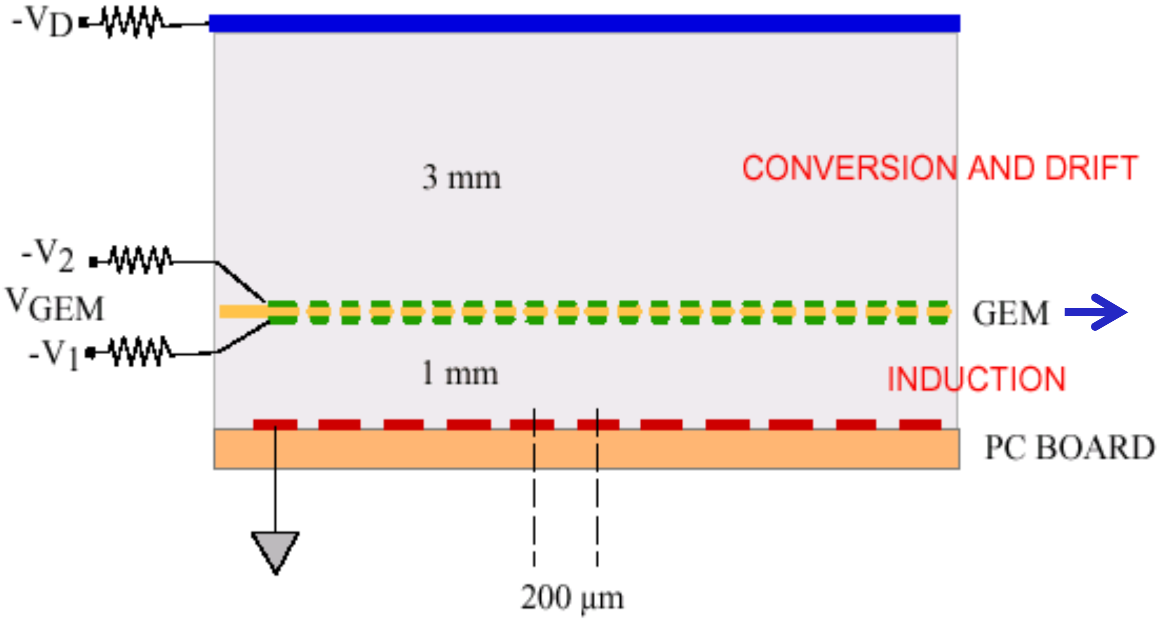


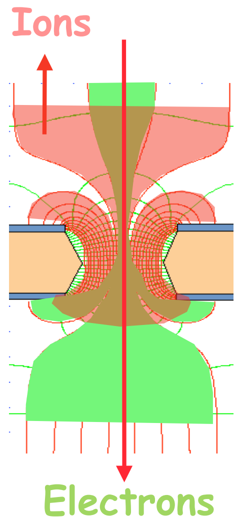
- Signals are much faster than in a MWPC: in 50 ns ~70% of the charge is collected !
- Resolution: ~40 µm

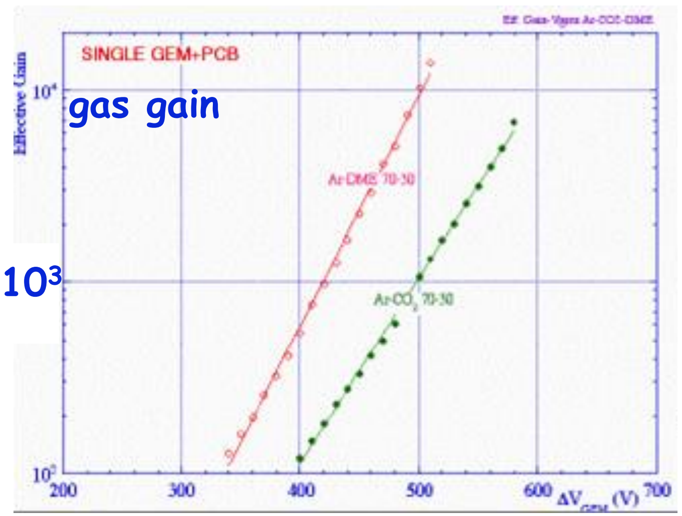
Gas Electron Multiplier (GEM)

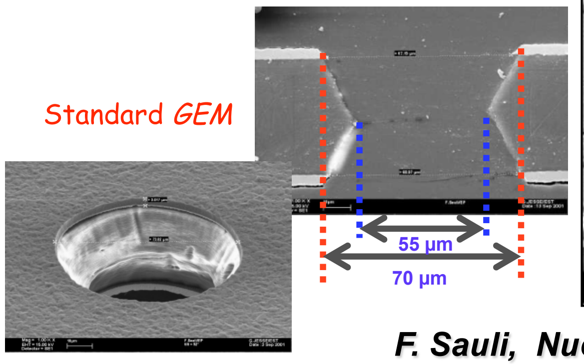
Thin Kapton foil (50 mm) double side metal-coated (Cu 5 mm)
70 μm holes at 140 mm pitch

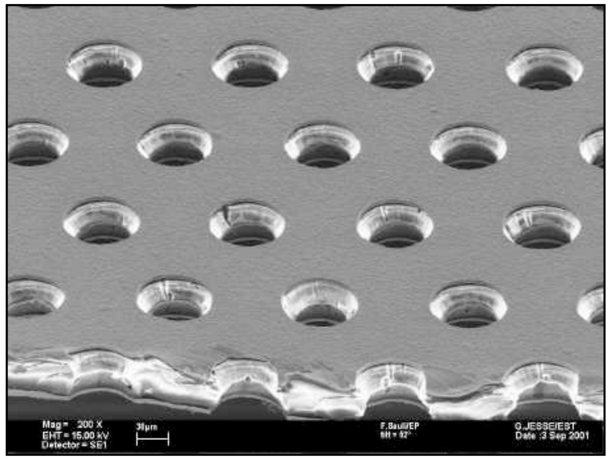






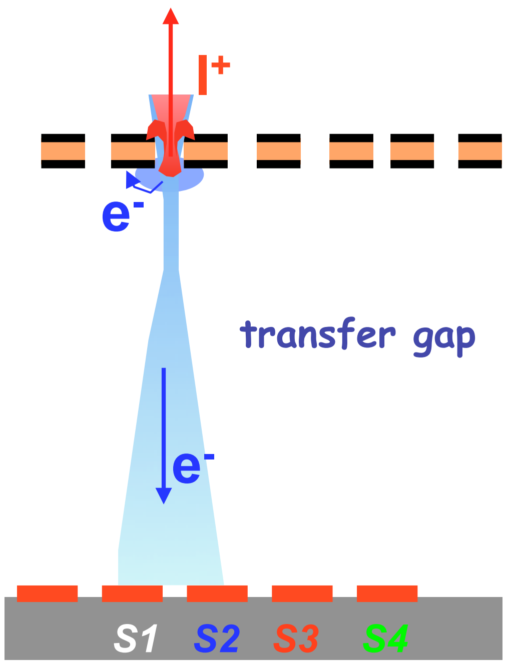




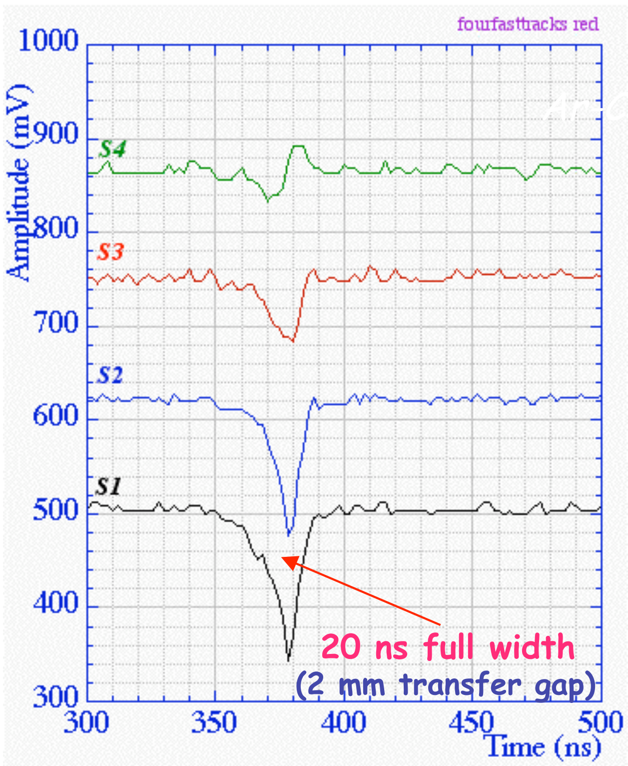


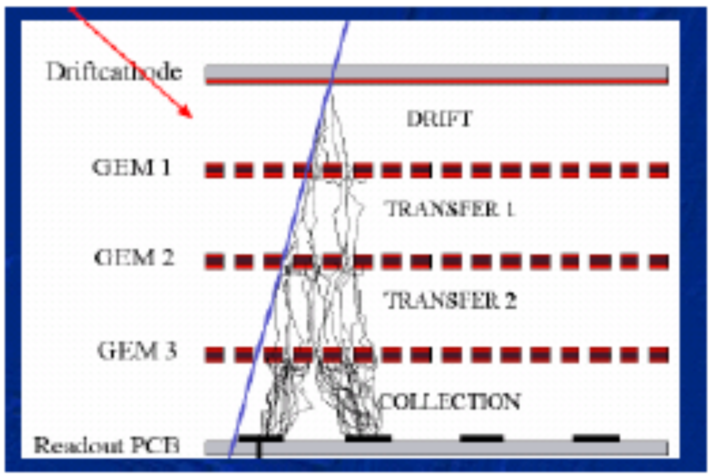
F. Sauli, Nucl. Instr. and Methods A386(1997)531

Gas Electron Multiplier (GEM)



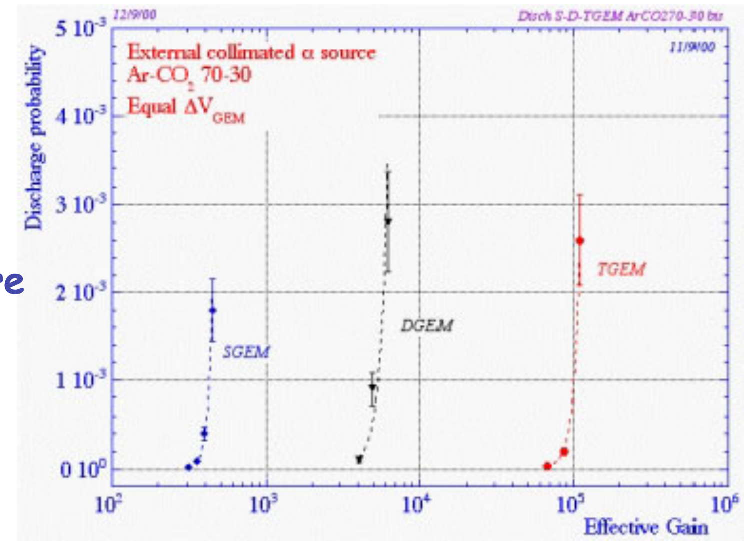
Only electrons are drifting in the transfer gap towards the readout electrodes:
⇒ no ion long tail
⇒ very fast signal
⇒ very good time resolution





Triple GEM

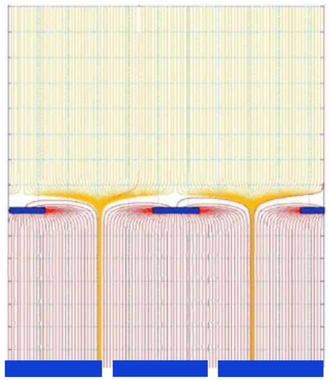
Higher final gas gains can be obtained with a series of GEMs in cascade to reduce the gain/stage and therefore reducing the discharge probability

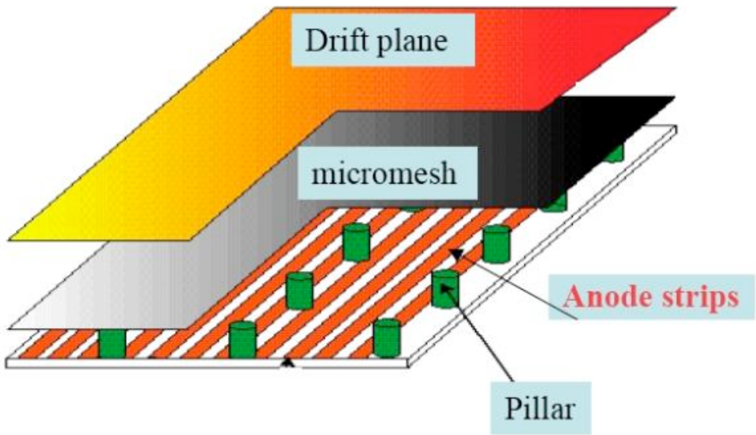


Other kinds of Micro Pattern Gas Detectors

Several different geometries of micro pattern gas detectors have proven to work efficiently at high rate: a couple of examples

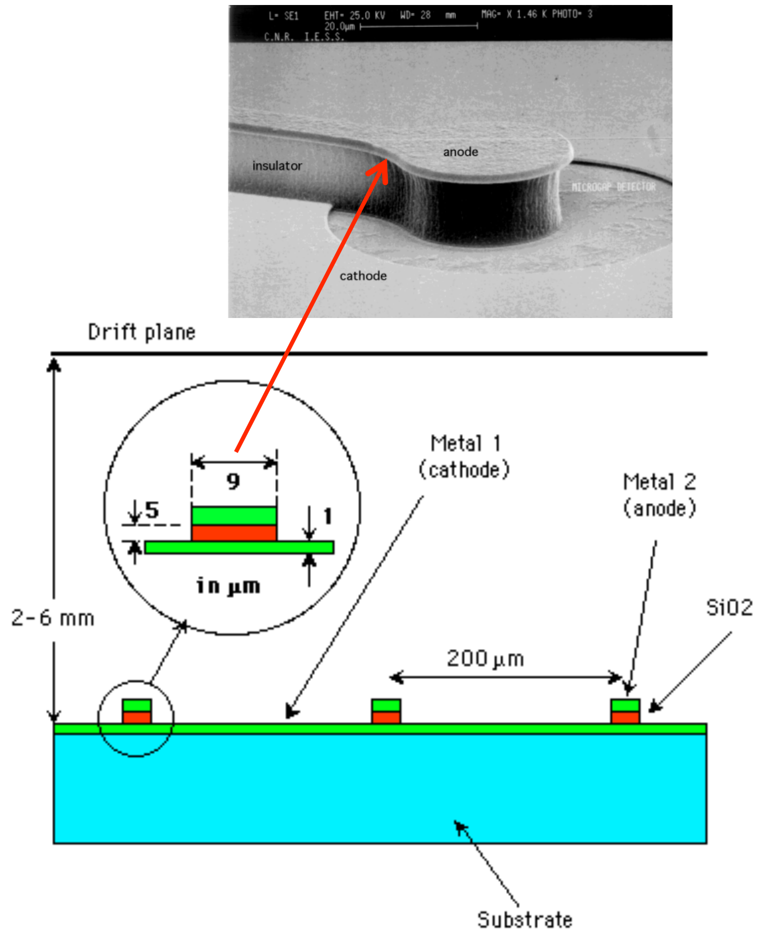
MICROMEGAS





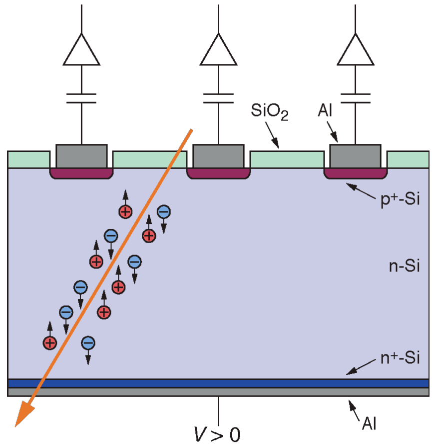
Y. Giomataris et al, Nucl. Instr. and Meth. A376(1996)239

MicroGap chamber (MGC)



R. Bellazzini et al., Nucl. Instr. Meth. A335 (1993) 69

Solid State Detectors

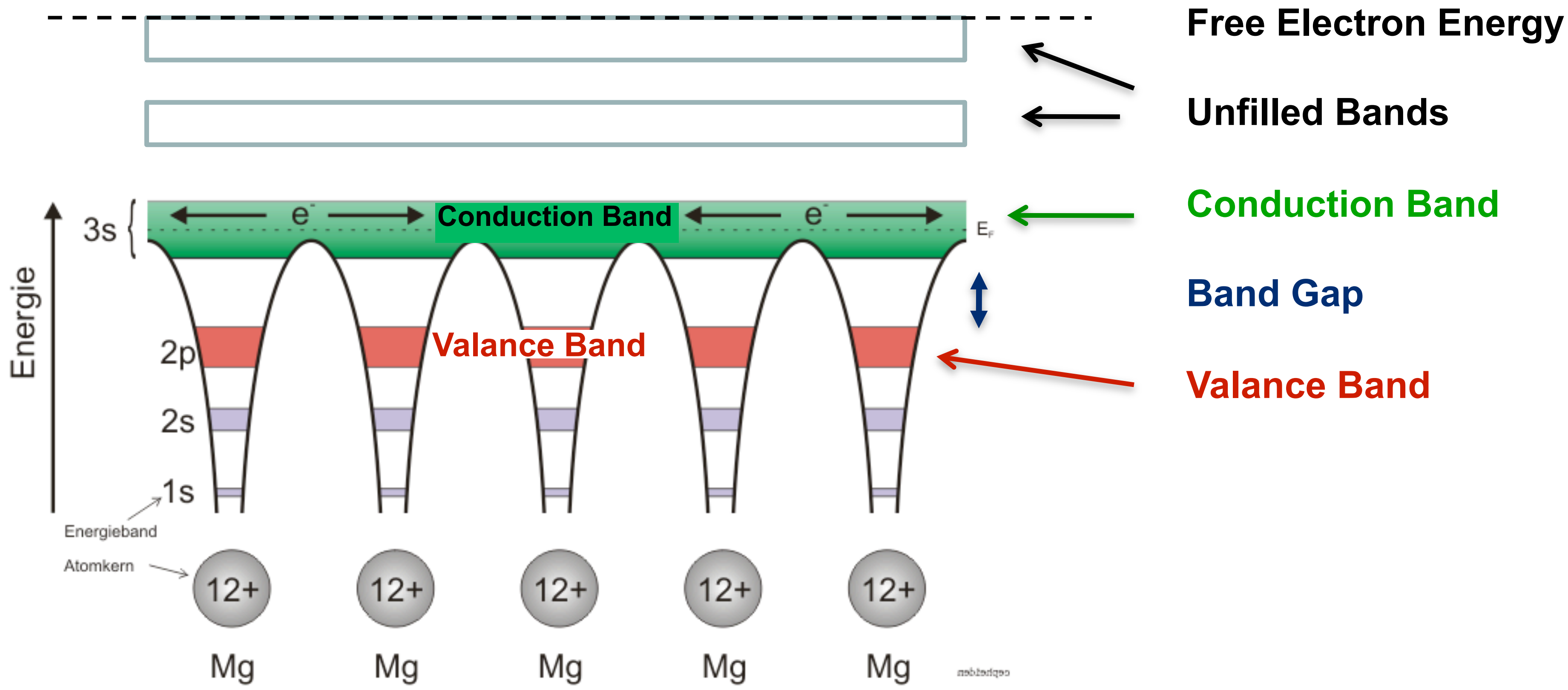


In solid state detectors the charges produced by the ionization due to the incoming particle are sufficient to provide a measurable signal.

- Solid state detectors have a high density
  ➔ large energy loss in a short distance:
  116 (78) keV = mean (most probable) energy loss
  for 300μm Silicon thickness
- Low ionisation energy (few eV per e-hole pair) compared to gas detectors (20-40 eV per e-ion pair)
  3.6 eV for silicon to create an e-hole pair
  ⇒ 72 e-h/μm (most probable); 108 e-h/μm (mean)
  ⇒ most probable charge 300μm Silicon thickness:
  ≈ 21600 e ≈ 3.6 fC
- Drift velocity much faster than in gas detectors:
  ➔ Very fast signals of only a few ns length !
- Diffusion effect is smaller than in gas detectors:
  ➔ achievable position resolution of less than 10 μm

Solid State Detectors

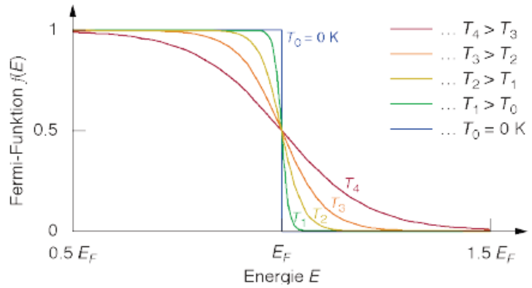
In an isolated atom of a gaseous detector the electrons have only discrete energy levels and when are liberated from the atoms by an ionizing particle they (and the ions) can freely move under an applied electric field. In solid state (crystal) material the atomic levels merge to energy bands. Inner shell electrons, in the lower energy bands, are closely bound to the individual atoms. However electrons in the conduction band and the holes in the lower valence band (bands that are still bound states of the crystal, but they belong to the entire crystal) can freely move around the crystal, if an electric field is applied.



Solid State Detectors

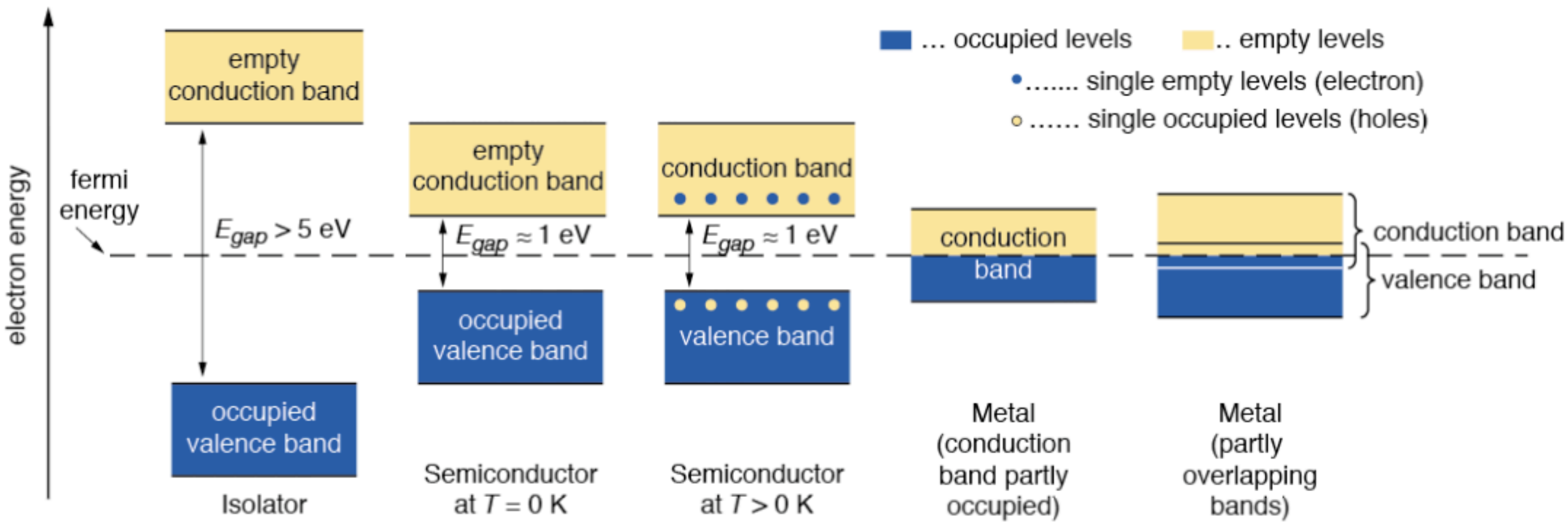
Fermi distribution $f(E)$ describes the probability that an electronic state with energy E is occupied by an electron:

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



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.

In metals the conduction and the valence band partially overlap, whereas in isolators and semiconductors these levels are separated by an energy gap. This energy gap E_g is called band gap. In isolators this gap is large.

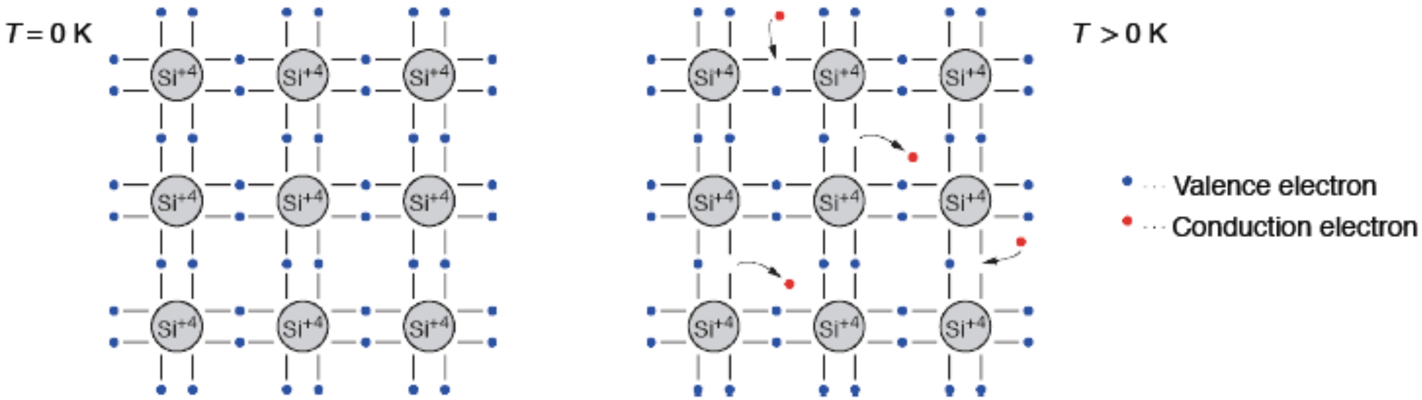


Solid State Detectors

- The energy gap E_g (band gap) of Diamond/Silicon/Germanium is 5.5,1.12,0.66 eV
- Due to the small band gap, electrons already occupy the conduction band gap in many semiconductors at room temperature.
- Electrons from the conduction band may recombine with holes
- The thermal excitation excites electrons into the conduction band leaving a hole in the valence band. Thermal equilibrium is reached at intrinsic carrier concentration:

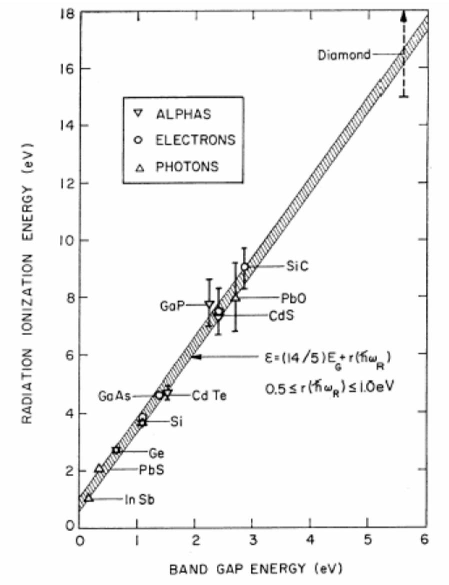
$$n_i = n_e = n_h \propto T^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_g}{2kT}\right)$$

- Therefore the number of electrons in the conduction band, and thus also the conductivity of the semiconductor, increases with temperature.



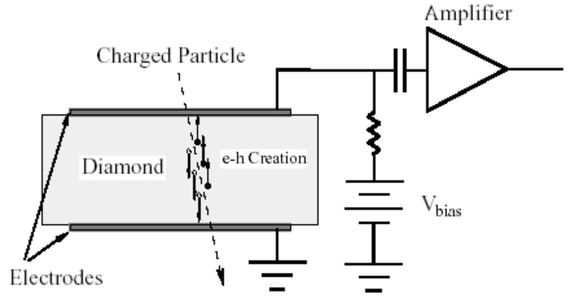
In silicon at room temperature the intrinsic carrier concentration is $1.45 \cdot 10^{10}$ cm^{-3}. With approximately 10^{22} Atoms/cm^3 about 1 in 10^{12} silicon atoms is ionised. This yields an intrinsic resistivity of: $\rho \approx 230$ kΩcm

Solid State Detectors



	Diamond	Silicon	Germanium
Band gap E_g [eV]	5.5	1.12	0.66
Energy $E_{e/h}$ for e-h pair [eV]	13	3.6	2.9
Density [g/cm^3]	3.51	2.33	5.32
e-mobility μ_e [cm^2/Vs]	1800	1450	3900
h-mobility μ_h [cm^2/Vs]	1200	450	1900
Intrinsic charge carrier: n_i [cm^{-3}] (T=300 K)	$\approx 10^{-27}$	$1.45 \cdot 10^{10}$	$2.4 \cdot 10^{13}$

In Diamond detectors there are very few charge carriers at room temperature (n_i[cm^{-3}] $\approx 10^{-27}$) due to large band gap while many e-h pairs are produced by an ionizing particle



In a 300μm Silicon detector the number (mean) of e-h pairs produced by the passage of a charged particle at the minimum ionizing is given by:

$$n_{e/h} = dE/dx \cdot d / E_{e/h} = 3.87 \cdot 10^6 \text{eV/cm} \cdot 0.03\text{cm}/3.6\text{eV} \approx 3.2 \cdot 10^4 \text{ e-h pairs}$$

In the same detector of an area A=1cm^2 the intrinsic charge carrier (T=300 K) is:

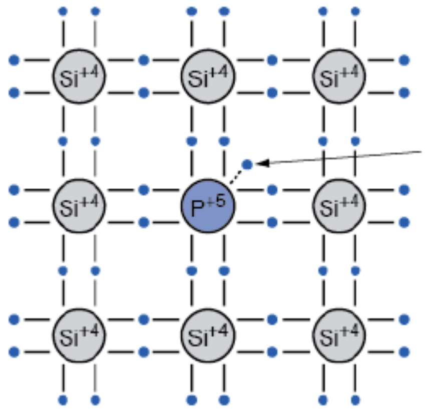
$$n_i \cdot d \cdot A = 1.45 \cdot 10^{10} \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot 0.03\text{cm} \cdot 1\text{cm}^2 \approx 4.35 \cdot 10^8 \text{ e-h pairs}$$

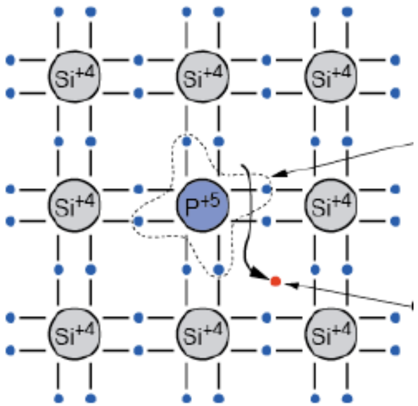
In silicon the thermal e-h pairs are four orders of magnitude larger than signal !!!

➔ remove the charge carrier !

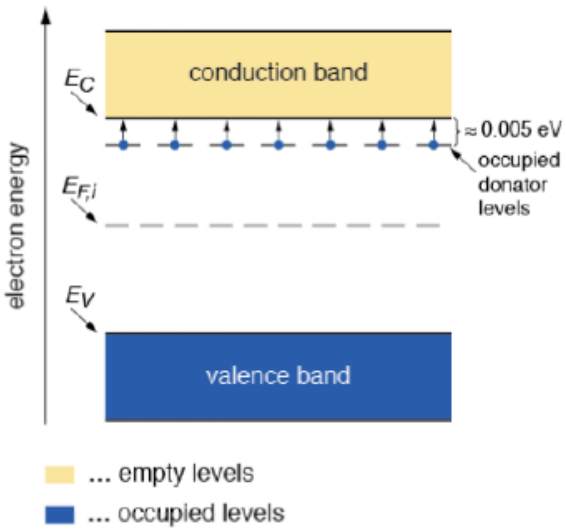
n-Doping in Silicon

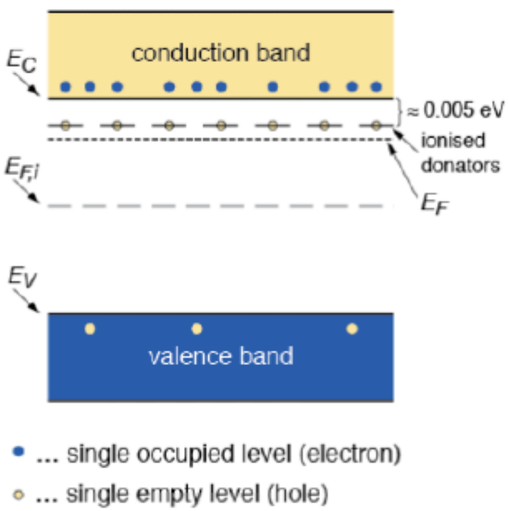
Doping with an element +5 atom with one valence electron more than silicon (e.g. P,As).
The 5th valence electrons is weakly bound. The doping atom is called donor.
The n-doped silicon becomes a n-type conductor (more electrons than holes)





Typical doping concentrations for Si detectors are $\approx 10^{12}$ atoms/cm^3

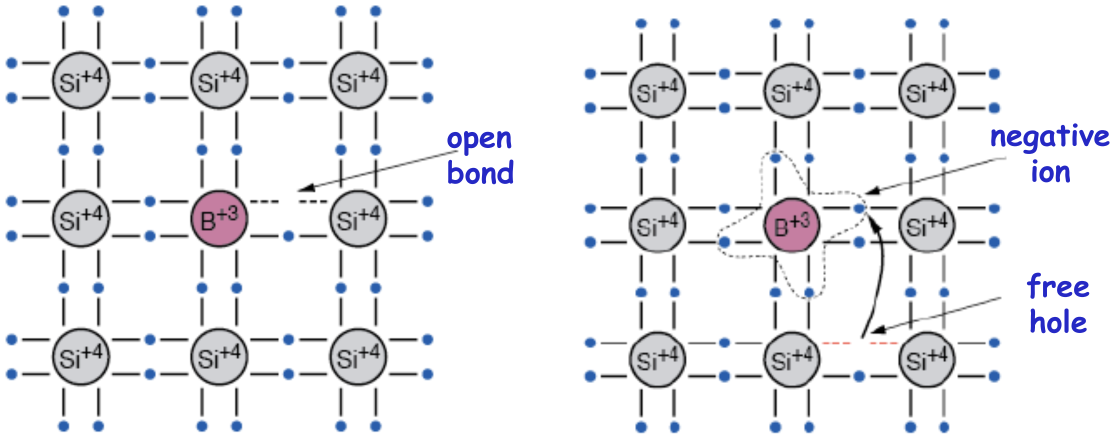




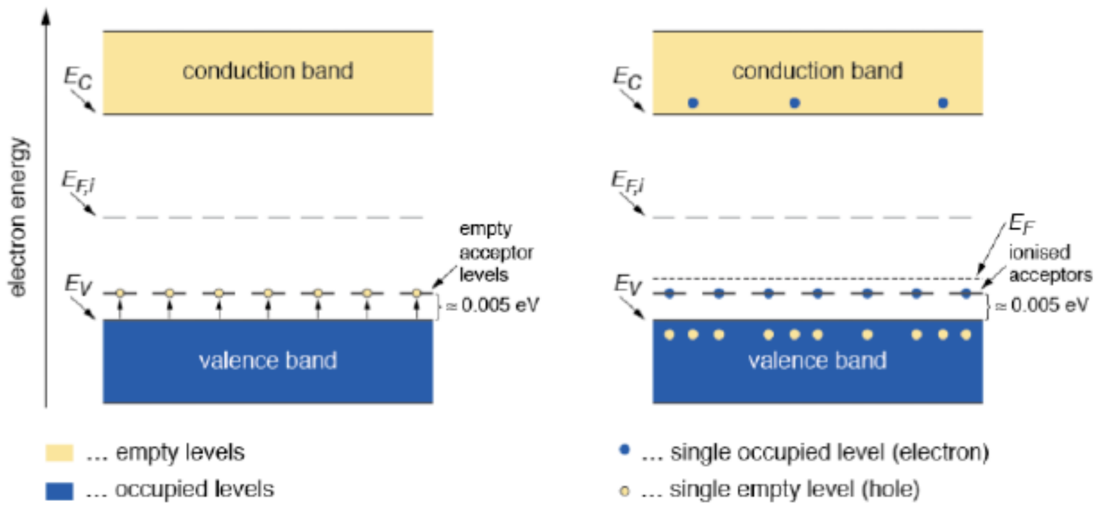
The energy level of the donor is just below the edge of the conduction band.
At room temperature most electrons are raised to the conduction band.
The Fermi level E_F moves up.

p-Doping in Silicon

Doping with an element +3 atom with one valence electron less than silicon (e.g. B,Ga).
One valence bond remains open and attracts electrons from the neighbor atoms.
The doping atom is called acceptor.
The p-doped silicon becomes a p-type conductor (more holes than electrons)



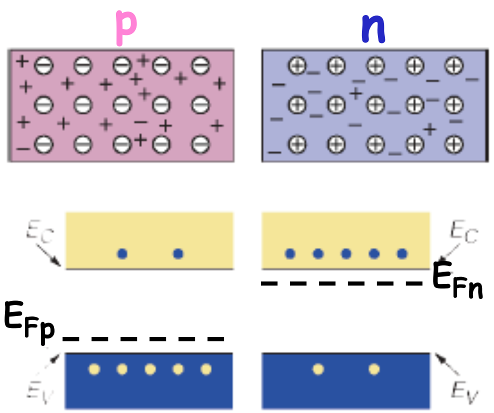
Typical doping concentrations for Si detectors are $\approx 10^{12}$ atoms/cm^3

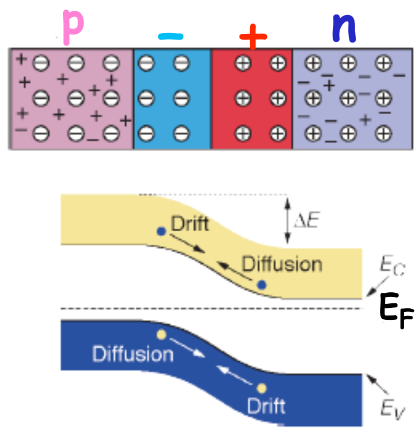


The energy level of the acceptor is just above the edge of the valence band.
At room temperature most levels are occupied by electrons leaving holes in the valence band.
The Fermi level E_F moves down.

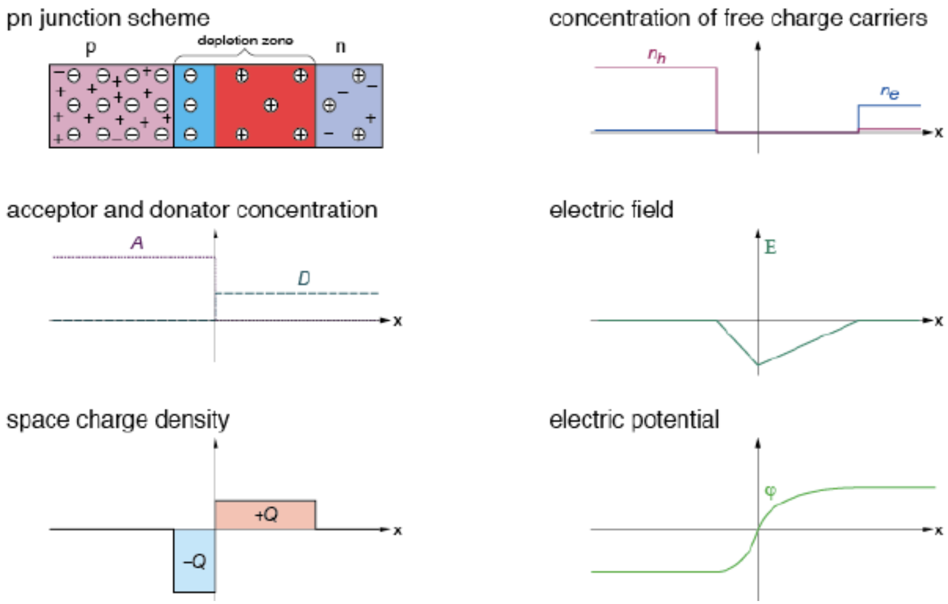
Si-Diode as Si-Detector

At the p-n junction the difference in the fermi levels cause diffusion of charge carriers until thermal equilibrium is reached and the electric field thus created stops further diffusion. At this point the fermi level is equal.
A zone free of charge carriers, called **depletion region**, is thus established .



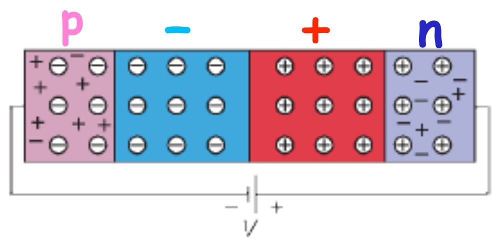


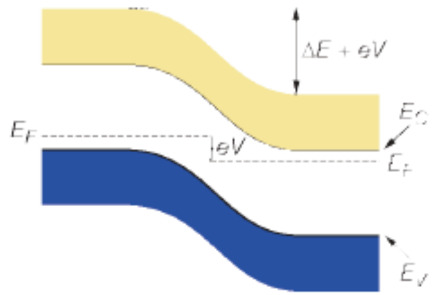
+ hole
− electron
◯ acceptor
◯ donator



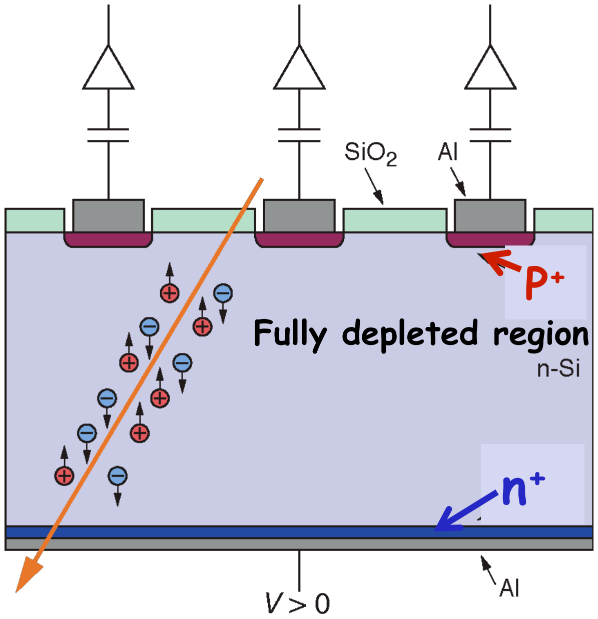
Si-Diode as Si-Detector

By applying an external voltage V, the depletion zone can be extended to the entire diode.





An incoming particle can then produce by ionization free charge carriers in the diode.
The charges carriers drift in the electric field and induce an electrical signal on the electrodes.

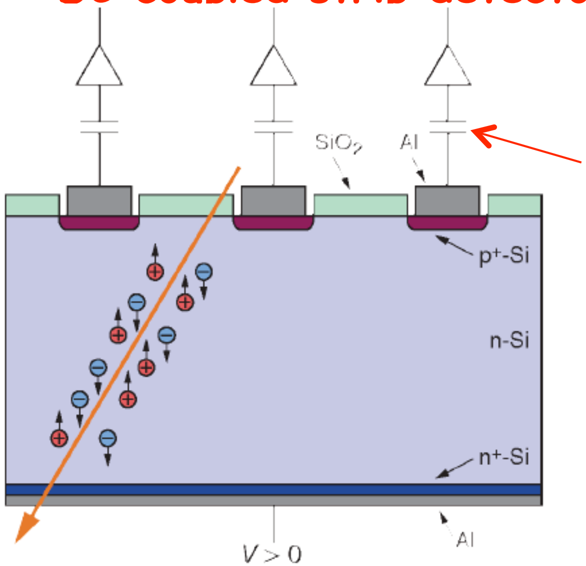


➔ That is the way a Silicon detector can work !

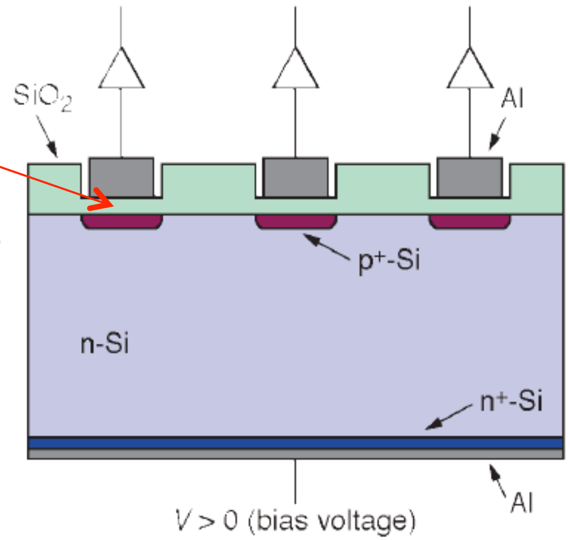
Detector Structures

DC coupled strip detector

AC coupled strip detector



coupling capacitors



A typical n-type Si strip detector:

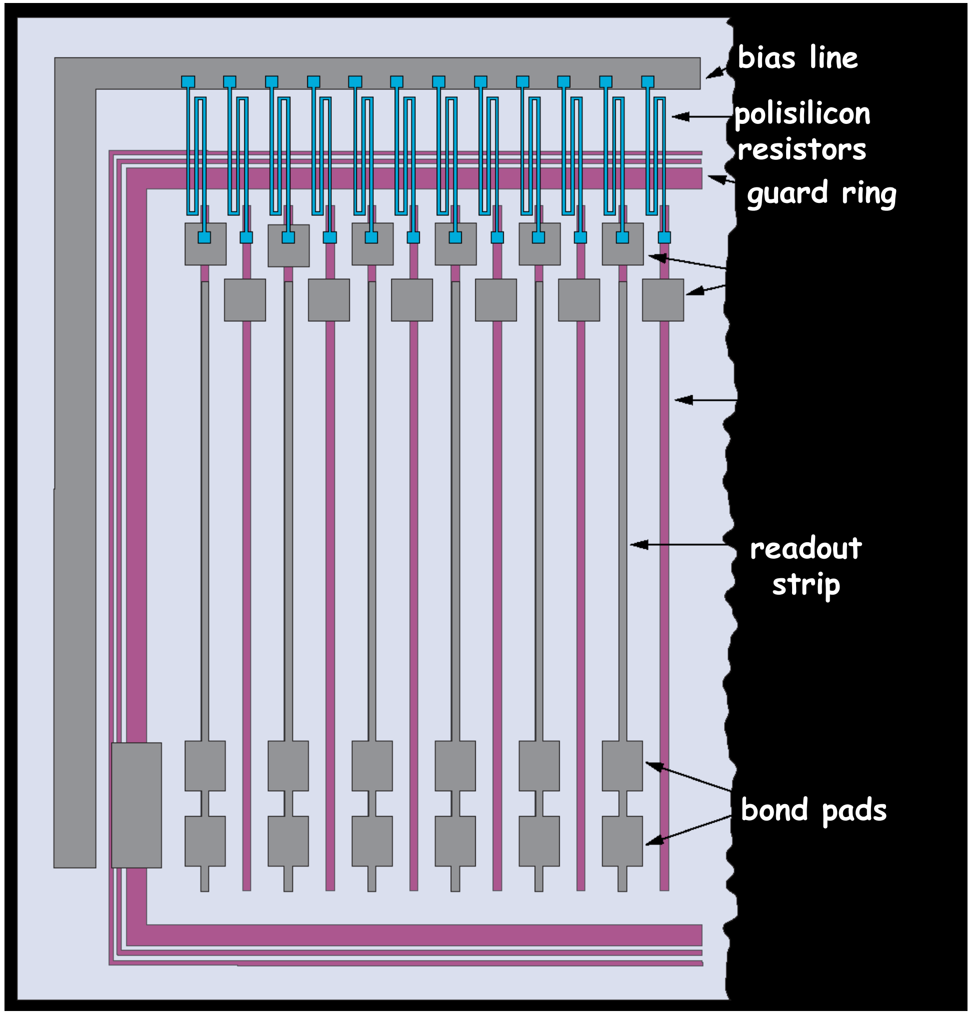
- ✓ about 30.000 e-h+ pairs in 300 μm detector thickness
- ✓ p+n junction: $N_a \approx 10^{15}$ cm^{-3}, $N_d \approx 1\text{–}5 \cdot 10^{12}$ cm^{-3}
- ✓ n-type bulk: ρ > 2 kΩcm
- ✓ operating voltage < 200 V.
- ✓ n+ layer on backplane to improve ohmic contact
- ✓ Aluminum metallization

Using p-type silicon and exchanging p+ and n+ would give a perfectly working p-type detector.

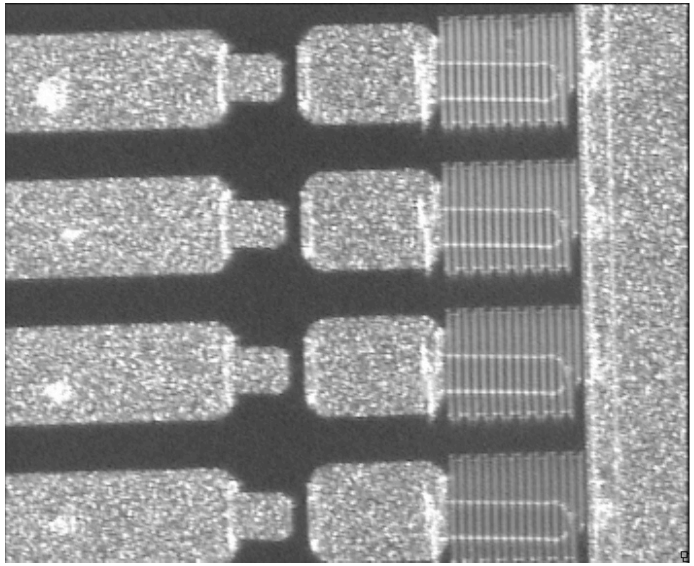
- ➢ Deposition of SiO2 with a thickness of 100–200 nm between p+ and aluminum strip
- ➢ AC coupling blocks leakage current from the amplifier.
- ➢ Problems are shorts through the dielectric (pinholes). Usually avoided by a second layer of Si3N4.
- ➢ Need to isolate strips from each other to collect charge from each strip: several methods for high impedence bias voltage connection (≈ 1MΩ resistor): polysilicon resistor, punch through bias, FOXFET bias.

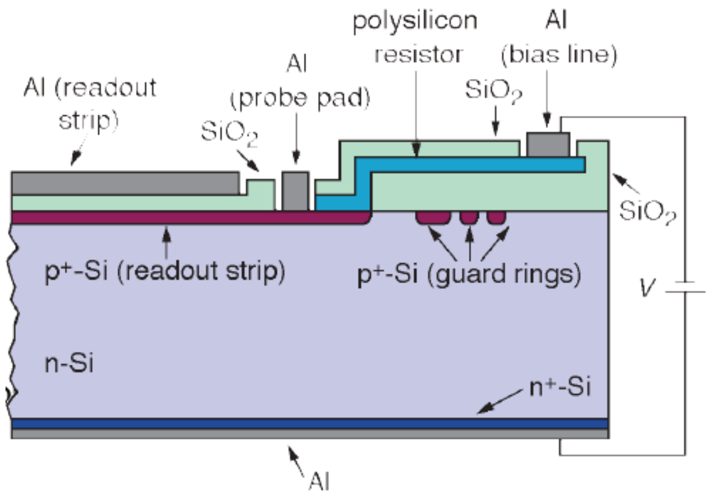
Detector Structures

Top view of a strip detector with polysilicon resistors:

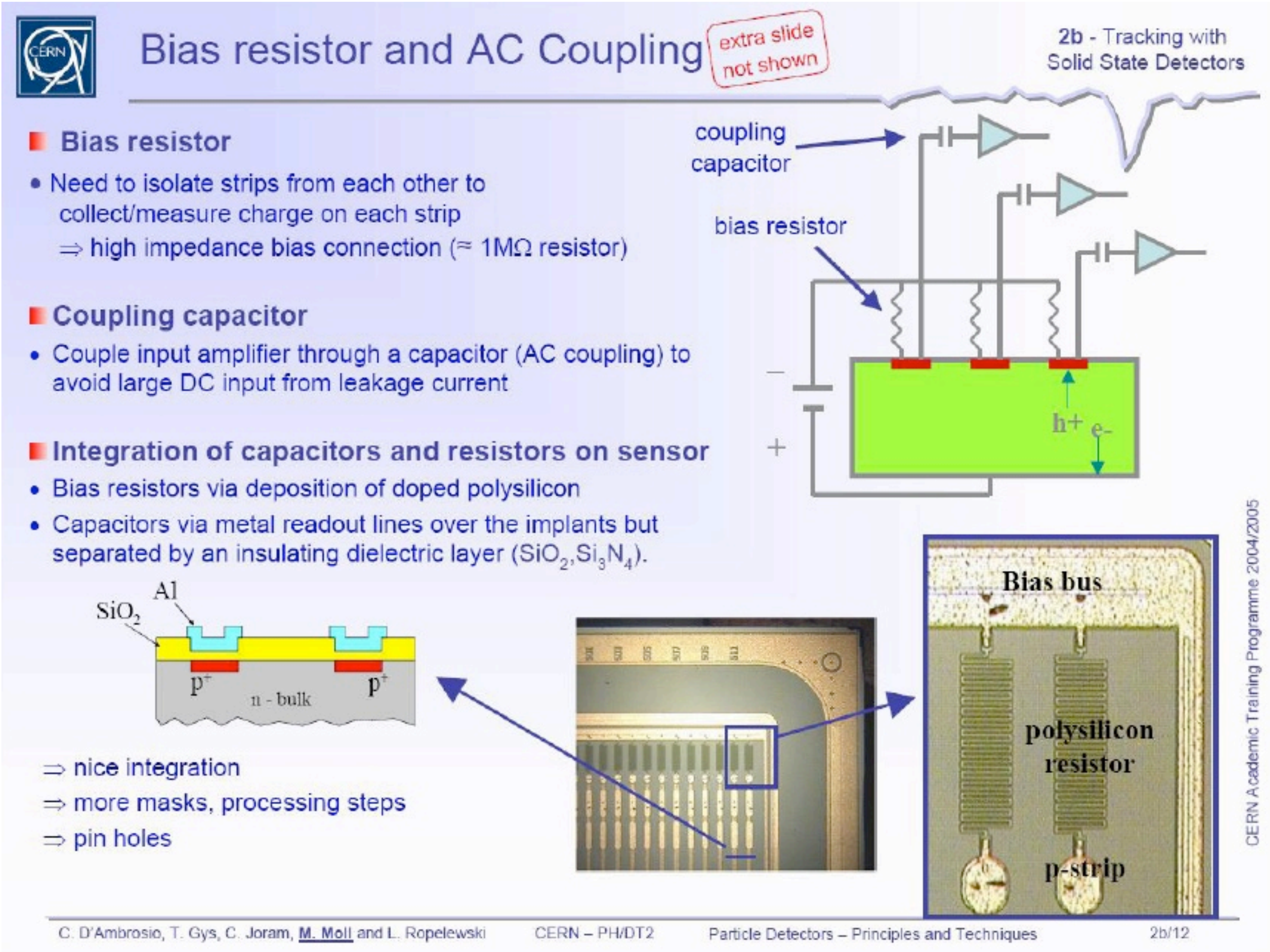


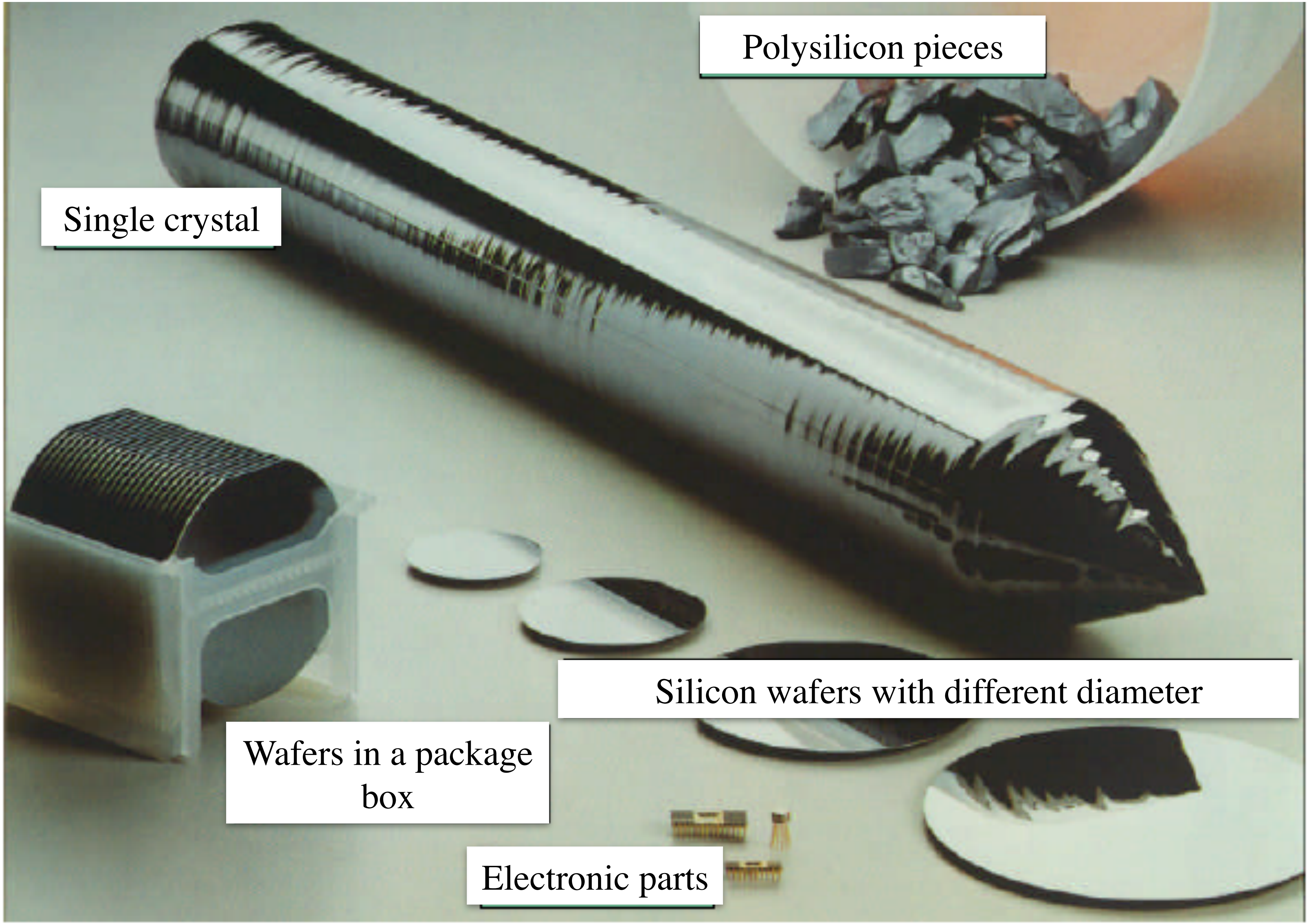
CMS-Microstrip-Detector: Close view of area with polysilicon resistors, probe pads, strip ends.



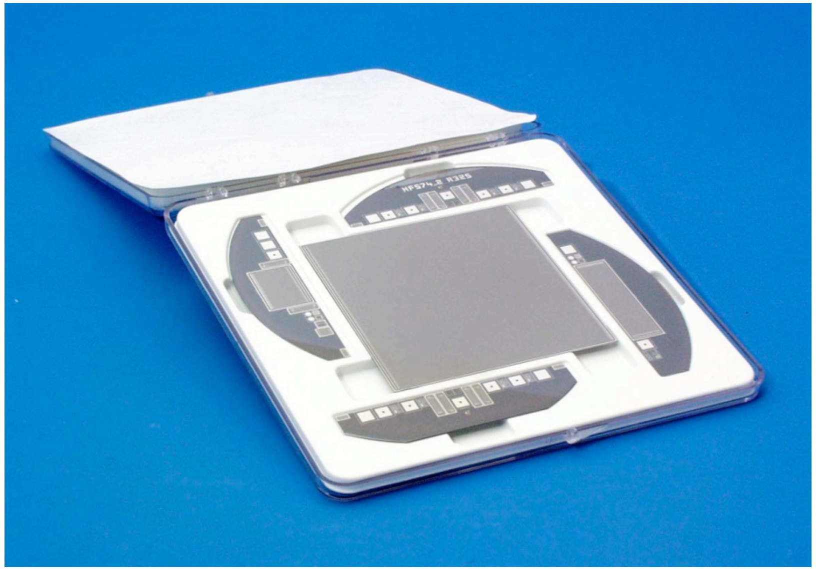


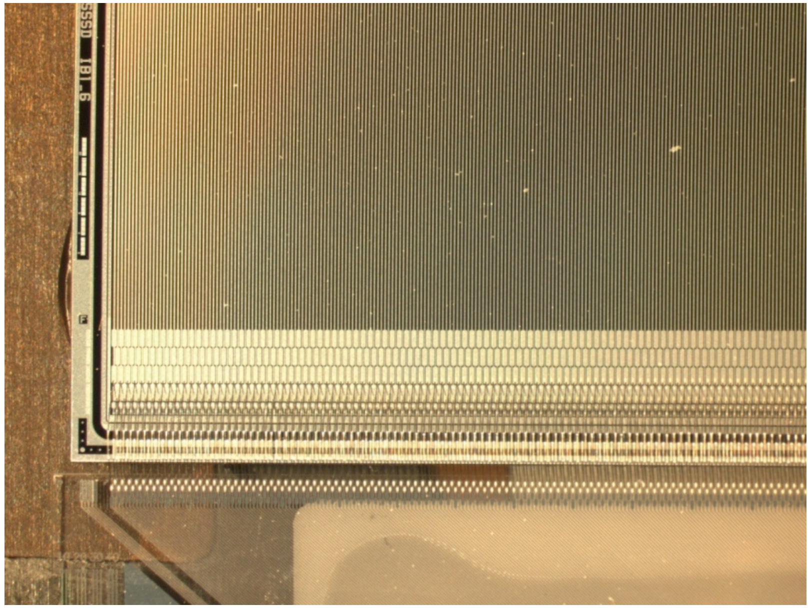
Biasing and AC coupling

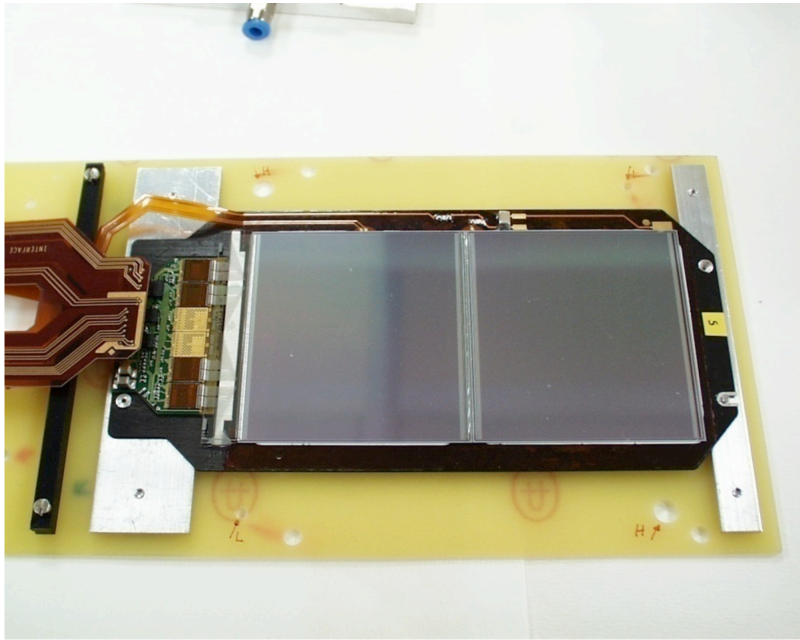


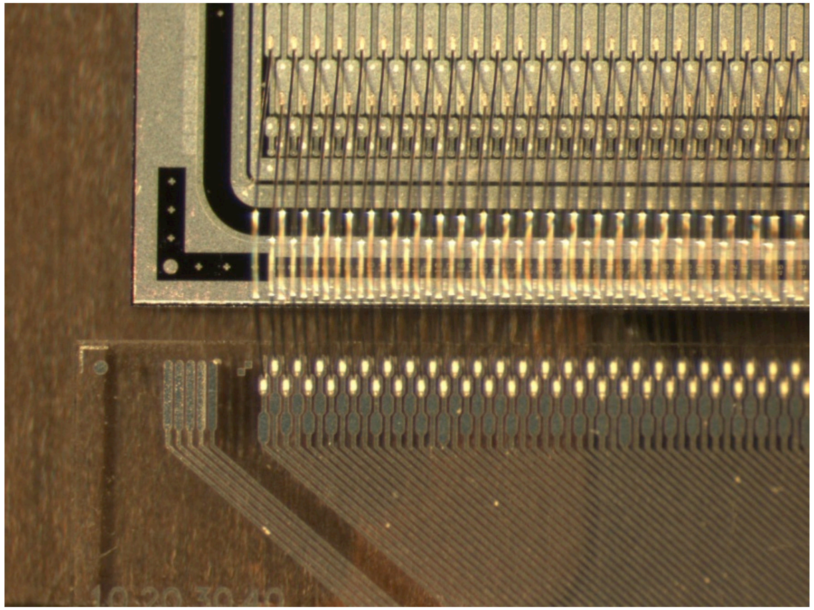

Polysilicon pieces
Single crystal
Silicon wafers with different diameter
Wafers in a package box
Electronic parts

A CMS silicon strip detector built with a 6" wafer

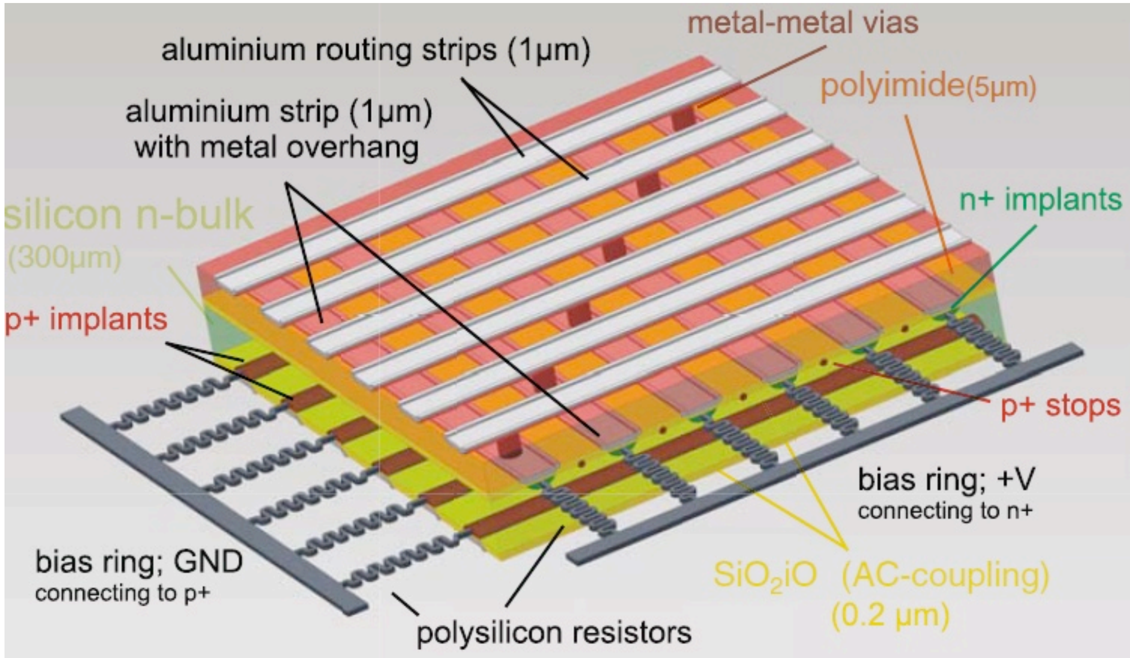






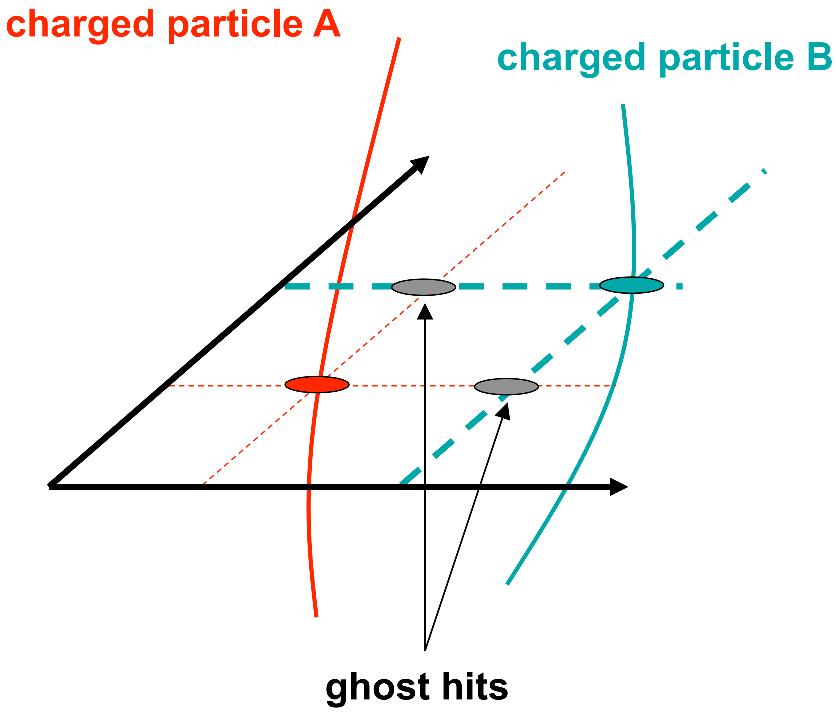


Double Sided Strip Detectors

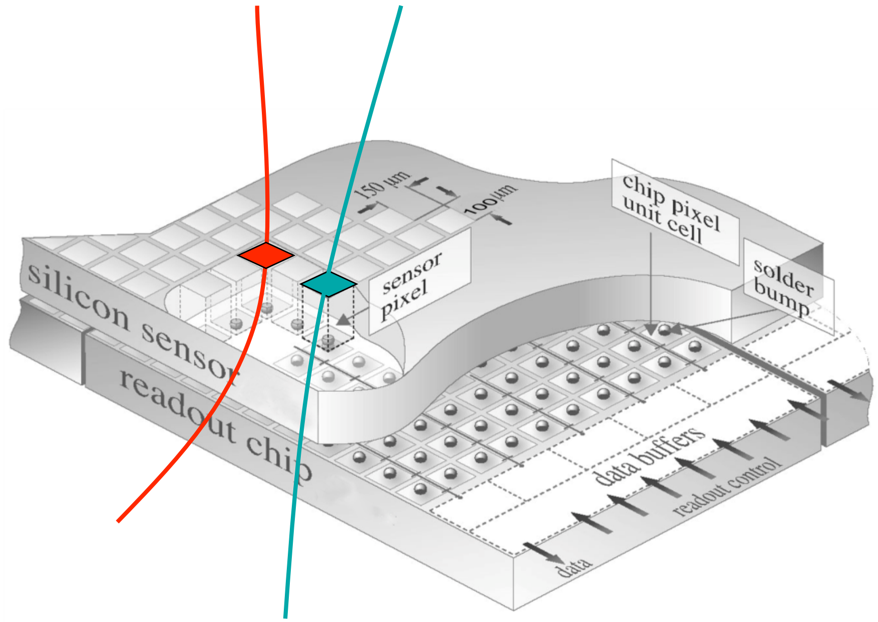


- Single sided strip detector measures only one coordinate.
  To measure second coordinate requires second detector layer.
- Double sided strip detector minimizes material measuring two coordinates in one detector layer.
- In n-type detector the n+ backside becomes segmented e.g. strips orthogonal to p+ strips.
- Drawback: Production, handling, tests are more complicated and hence double sided detector are expensive.

Double Sided Strip Detectors



Double sided strip sensors 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!



Pixel detectors produce 2-dimensional position measurements without ambiguity also in case of two particles crossing the detector!

Pixel Detectors

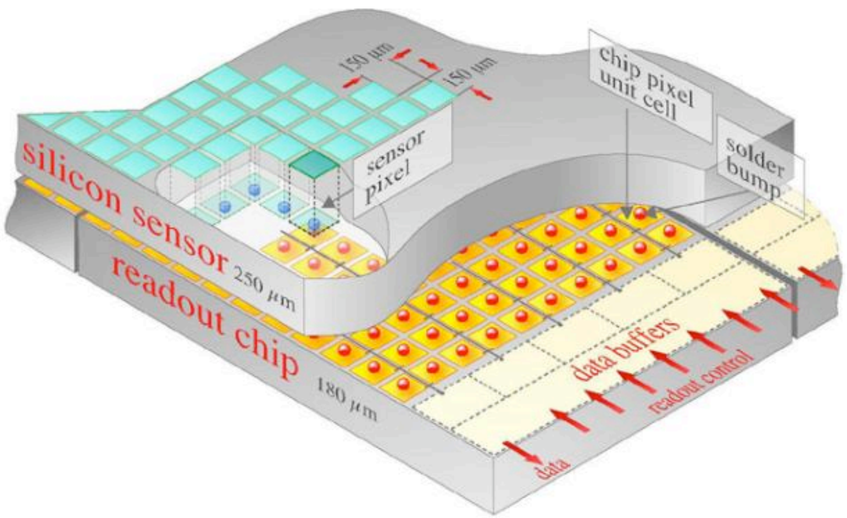
- ❑ Typical pixel size 50 x 200 μm^2; 100 x 100 μm^2:
  - ➢ Small pixel area ➔ low detector capacitance (≈1 fF/Pixel) ➔ large signal-to-noise ratio (e.g. 150:1).
  - ➢ Small pixel volume ➔ low leakage current (≈1 pA/Pixel)
- ❑ Large number of readout channels:
  - ➢ Large number of electrical connections
  - ➢ Large power consumption of electronics

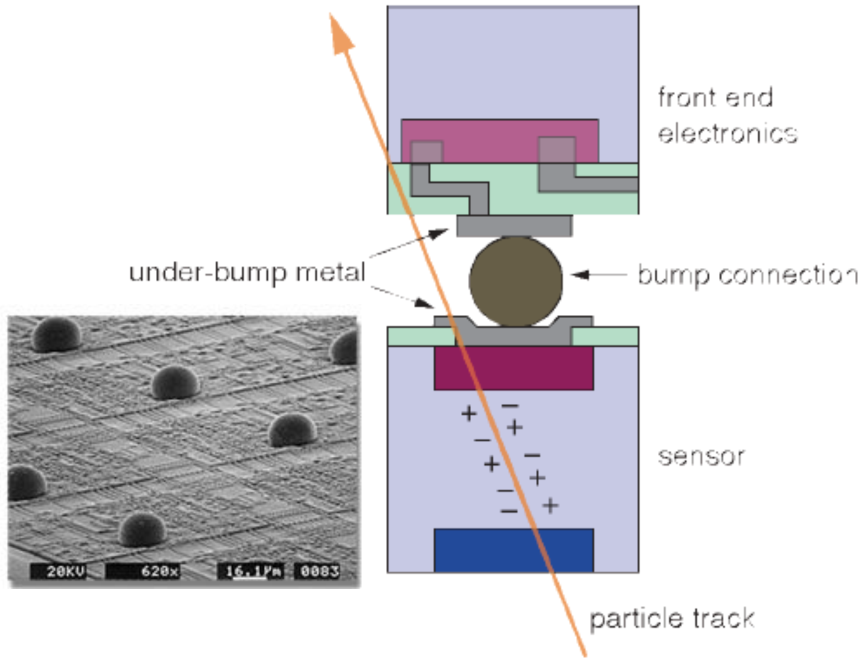
Problem:

Coupling of readout electronics to the detector

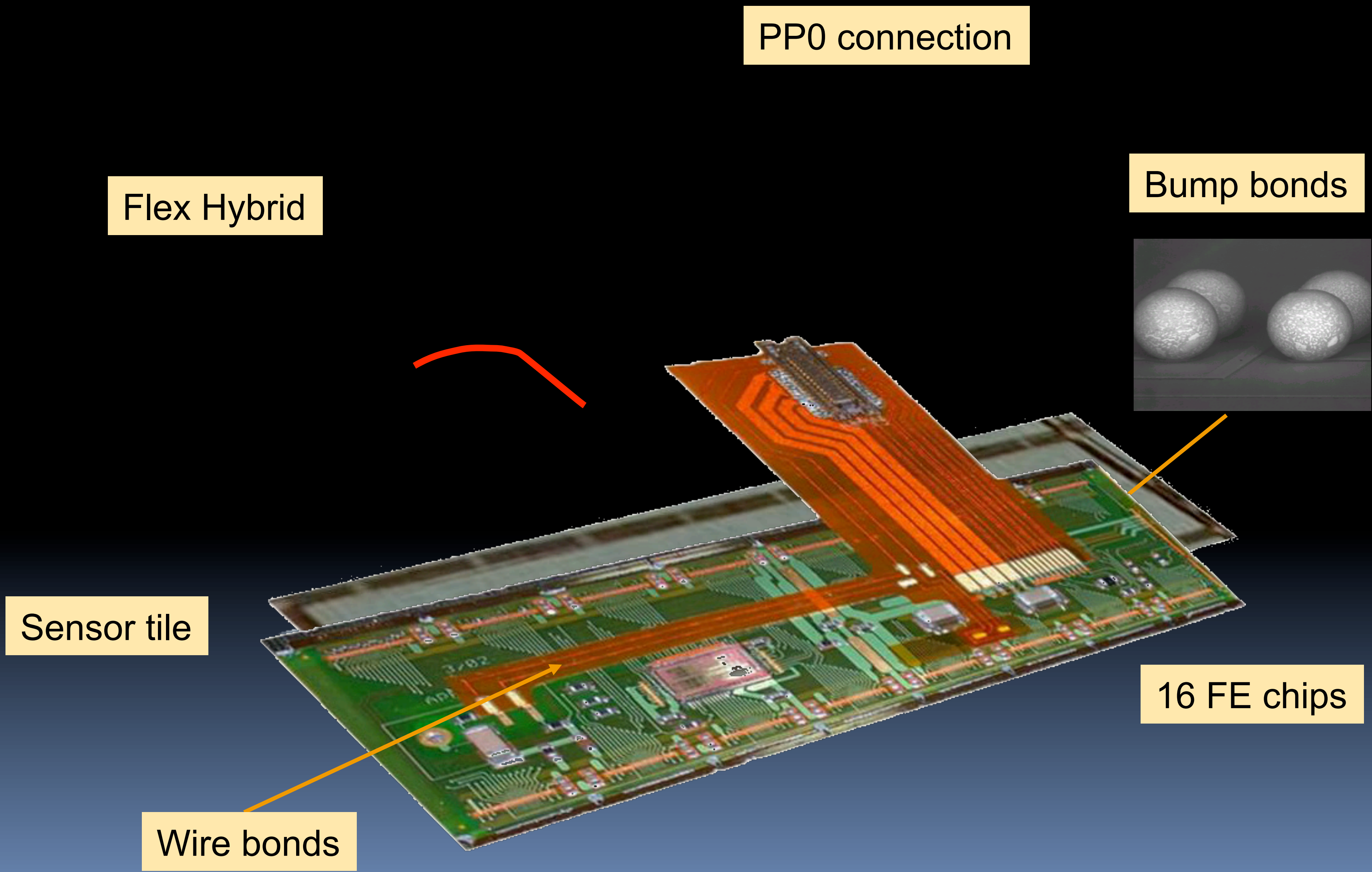
Solution:

Bump bonding

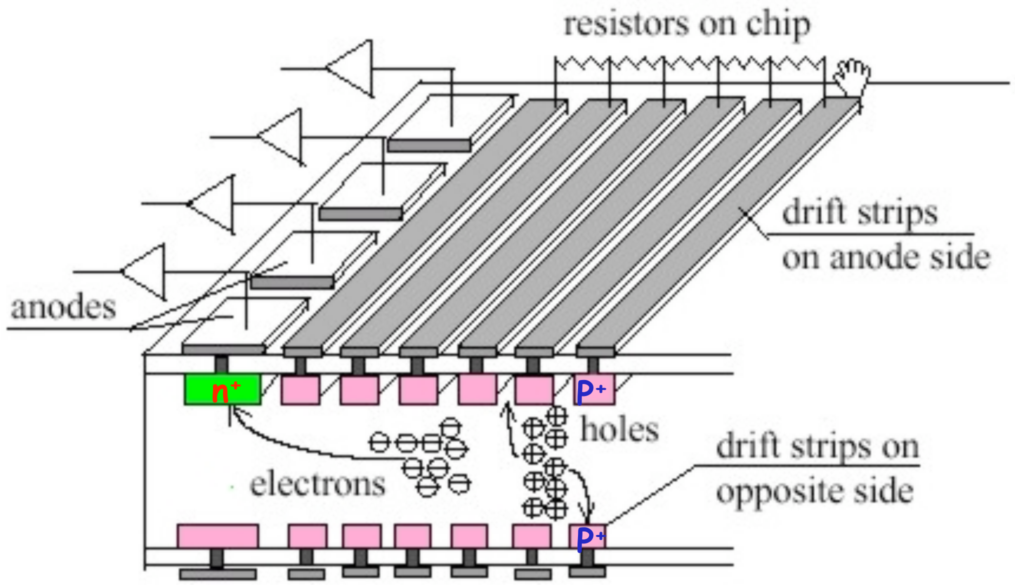




Pixel Detector Module Breakdown



Silicon Drift Detector (like gas TPC !)

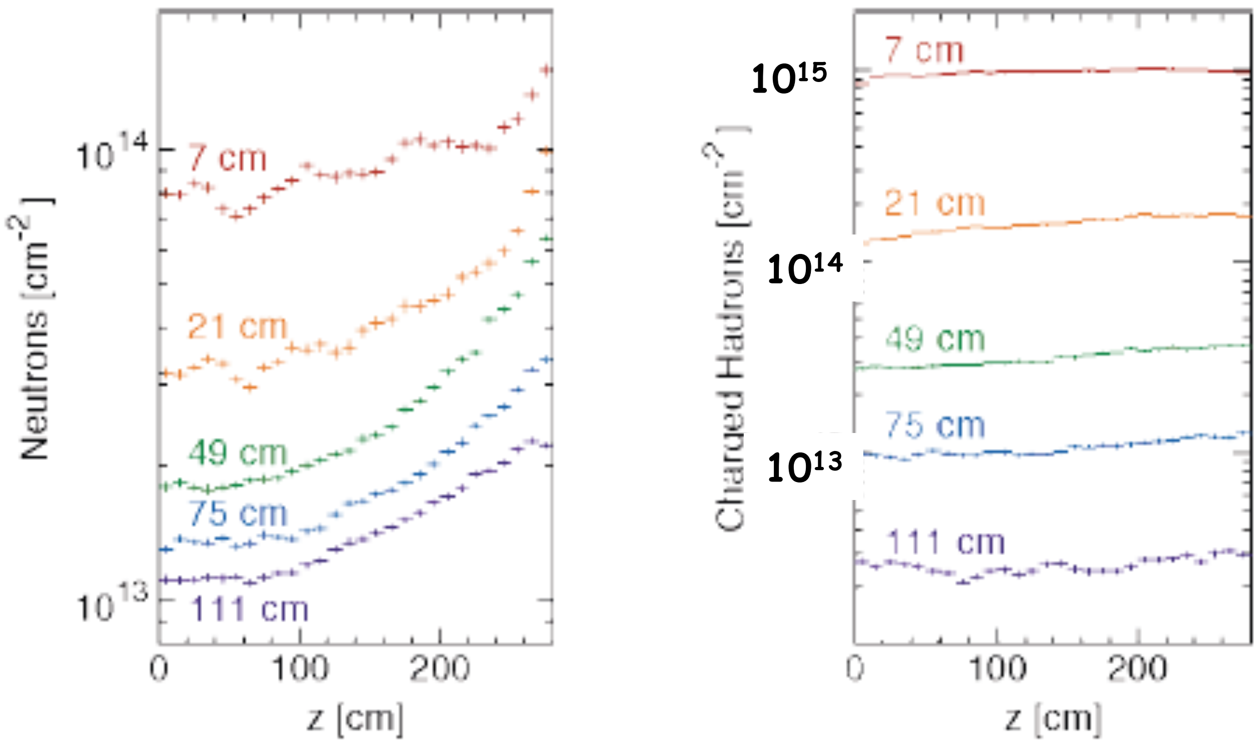


In silicon drift detectors the p+ strips and the backplane p+ implantation are used to fully deplete the bulk.

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.

Radiation environment at the LHC



Expected particle fluences for the silicon detector inner layers in CMS integrated over 10 years as a function of the distance from the vertex point and for various radii.

Left: neutrons

Right: charged hadrons

Radiation damage

Particles (radiation) interact with atoms of the detector material and may cause permanent changes (defects) in the detector bulk.

- One distinguishes two types of radiation damage:
  - damage inside the detector bulk (bulk damage): dislocated atoms from their position in the lattice caused by massive particles.
    - ➔ Bulk damage is primarily produced by neutrons, protons and pions.
  - damage introduced in the surface layers (surface damage) is due to the charges generated in the amorphous oxide
    - ➔ Surface damage is primarily produced by photons and charged particles.

- Defects may change with time:
  - one distinguishes between primary defects and secondary defects
  - the secondary defects appear with time caused by moving primary defects

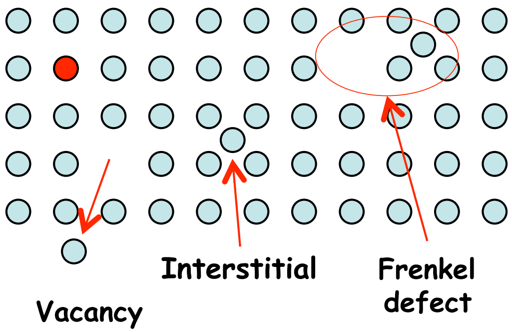
- Comulative effects:
  - increased leakage current
  - silicon bulk type inversion (n-type to p-type)
  - increased depletion voltage
  - increased capacitance

- Sensor can stop working :
  - noise too high
  - depletion voltage too high
  - loss of inter-strip isolation

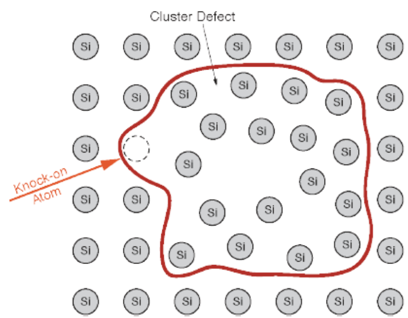
Typical limits of Si Detectors are at 10^{14}-10^{15} Hadrons/cm^2

Radiation damage

- Defects in the semiconductor lattice create energy levels in the band gap between valence and conduction band. Depending on the position of these energy levels the following effects will occur:
  - Modification of the effective doping concentration
    ➔ shift of the value of the depletion voltage.
  - Trapping of charge carriers
    ➔ reduced lifetime of charge carriers
  - Easier thermal excitement of e- and h+
    ➔ increase of the leakage current



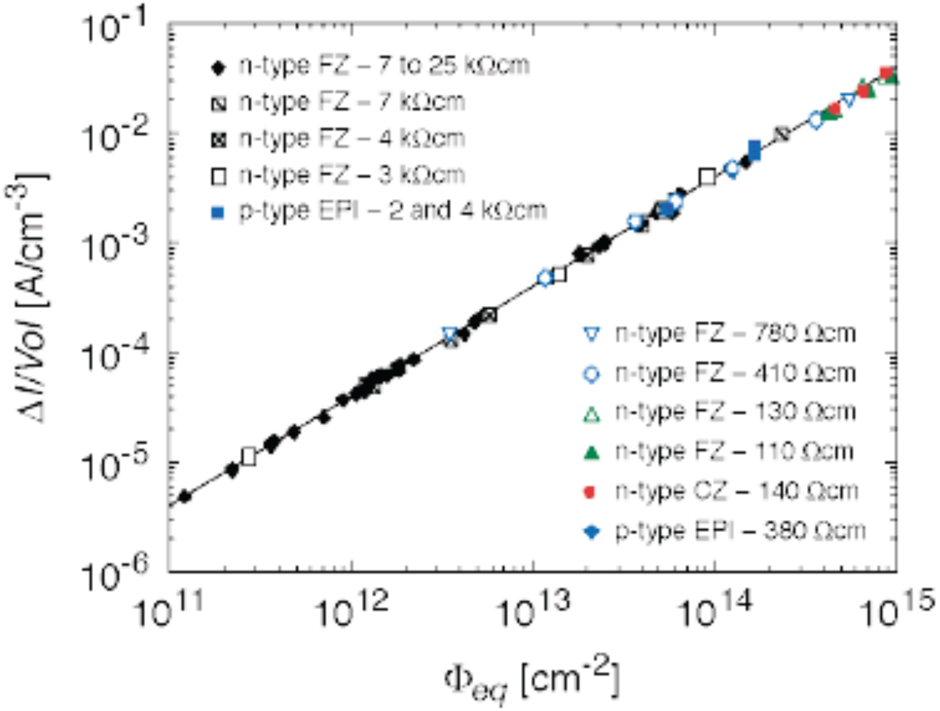
A displaced silicon atom produces an empty space n the lattice (Vacancy) and in another place an atom in an inter lattice space (Interstitial, I). A vacancy-interstitial pair is called a Frenkel-defect.



In hard impacts the primary knock-on atom displaces additional atoms. These defects are called cluster defects. The size of a cluster defect is approximately 5 nm and consists of about 100 dislocated atoms.

Radiation damage

Increase of leakage current as function of irradiation fluence (different materials)



M. Moll, *Radiation Damage in Silicon Particle Detectors*, PhD-Thesis (1999)

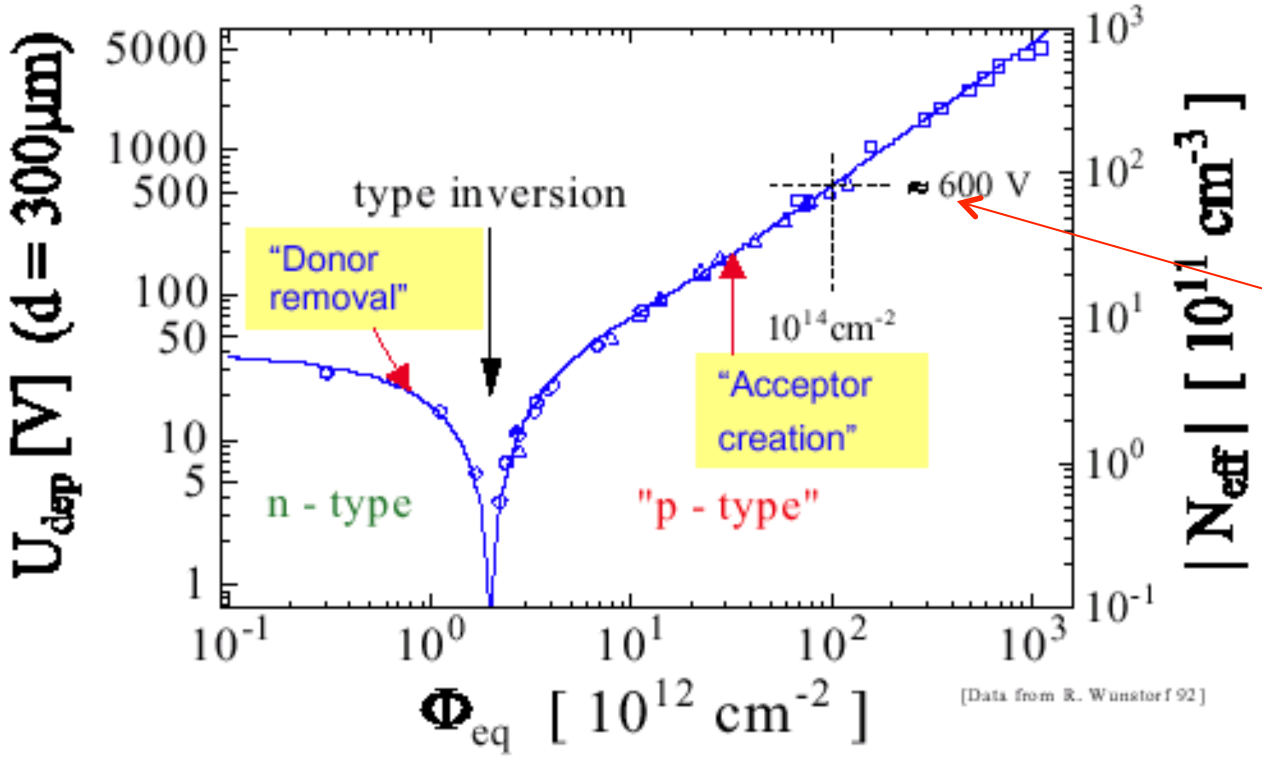
In ten years of LHC operation the currents of the innermost layers increase by 3 orders of magnitude!

- $\Delta I = \alpha \Phi_{eq} V$

α damage constant ≅ 3×10^{-17} A/cm

Radiation damage

Full depletion voltage and effective doping concentration of an originally n type silicon detector as a function of the fluence Φeq:



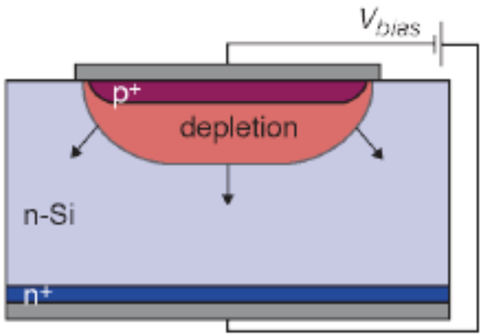
voltage may becomes too high to fully deplete:

Type inversion ! an n-tyle Si detector becomes a p-type Si detector !

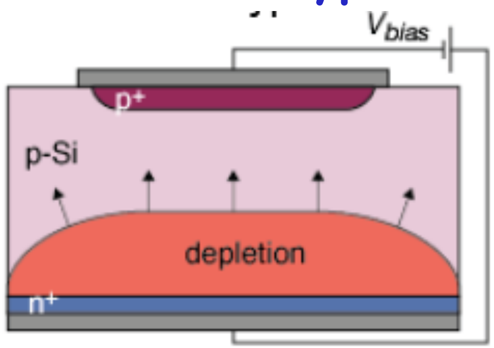
Radiation damage

In n type sensors with p+ implants the depletion zone grows from the p+ implants to the backplane n+ implant.
After type inversion the p+ bulk is now depleted from the backside (polarity of bias voltage remains the same)

Unirradiated detector:



Detector after type inversion:

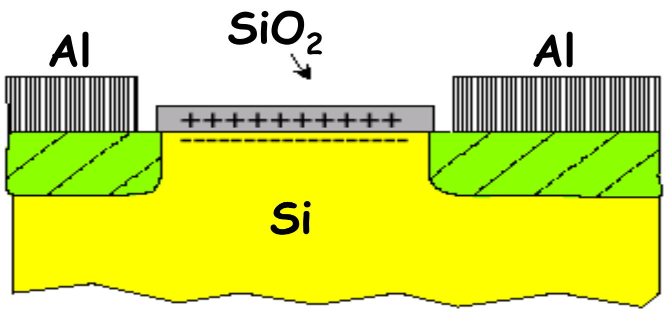


n-type detectors before type inversion can be operated below full depletion

after type inversion, the depletion zone has to reach the strips.

(a possible solution is to use n+p or n+n detectors)

Surface defects in the oxide



- ❑ **Ionizing radiation creates charges in the oxide**
  (in the amorphous oxide dislocation of atoms is not relevant)

- ❑ **The mobility of electrons in SiO_2 is much larger than the mobility of holes**
  - ➔ electrons diffuse out of the oxide, holes remain semi permanent fixed
  - ➔ the oxide becomes positively charged due to these fixed oxide charges.

➢ **Consequences for the detector:**
- ✓ reduced electrical separation between implants
- ✓ increase of interstrip capacitance
- ✓ increase of detector noise
- ✓ worsening of position resolution
- ✓ increase of surface leakage current
- ✓ reduced break down voltage

CREDITS

Several drawings of this presentation have been borrowed (sometimes with small changes only for the sake of my presentation) from very good lectures that can be found in the Web.

See for instance:

W. Riegler; Summer Student Lectures 2009
M. Krammer; XI ICFA School on Instrumentation