

# Introduction to Silicon Detectors

J. Lee

*Center for High Energy Physics*

*Kyungpook National University*

First School for Particle Detectors and Applications  
SPDAK 2021

2021. 1. 21

# Outline

1. Introduction
  - Examples of silicon detectors
  - Interaction of particles with silicon
2. Properties of silicon
3. Silicon detectors for charged particle detection
4. Silicon detectors for photon detection
5. Summary

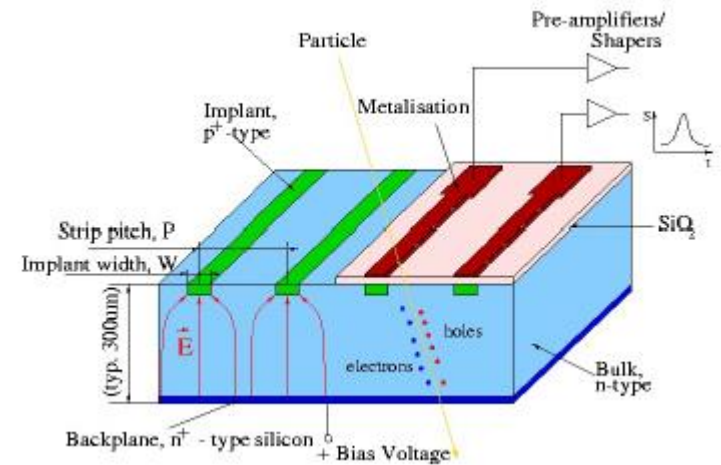
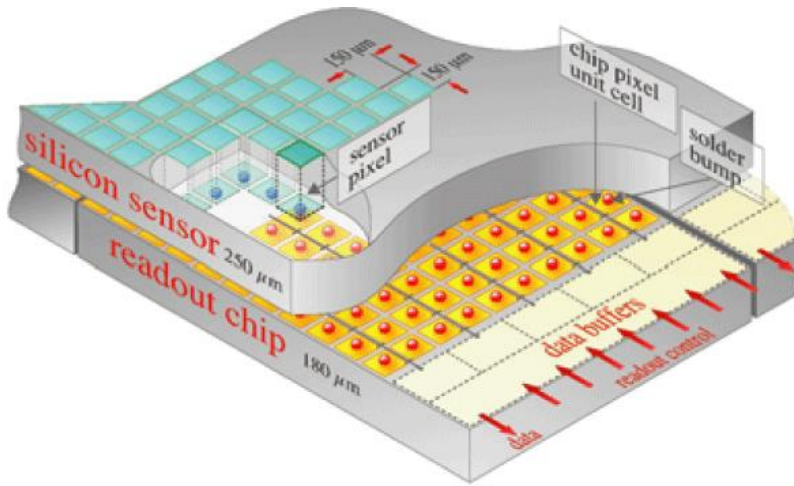
# 1. Introduction

# Examples of Silicon Detectors for Charged Particle Detection

## Pixel sensor for CMS

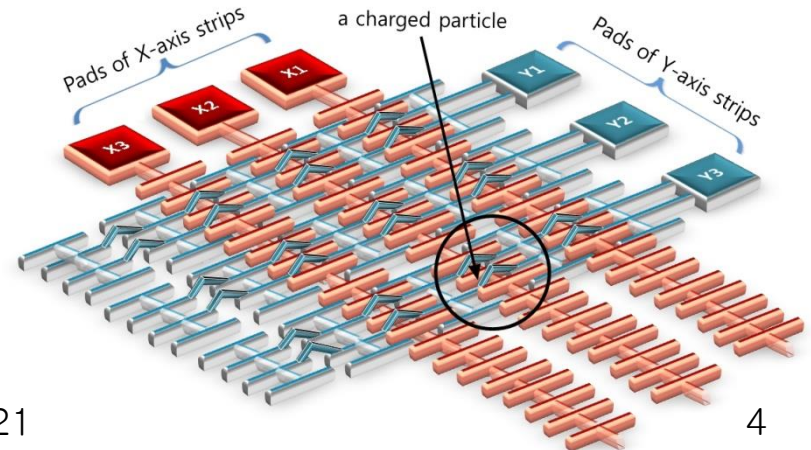
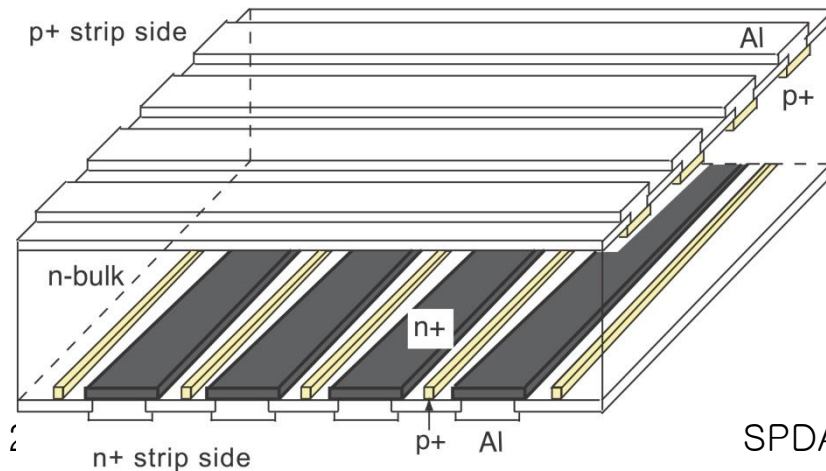
[http://hep.fi.infn.it/CMS/sensors/Silicon\\_Detector.gif](http://hep.fi.infn.it/CMS/sensors/Silicon_Detector.gif)

## Single-side strip sensor



## Double-side strip sensor

## Strip-pixel sensor



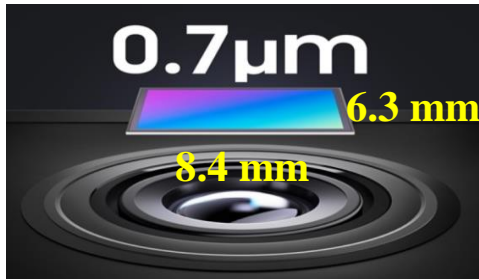
# Examples of Silicon Detectors for photon detections

CCD



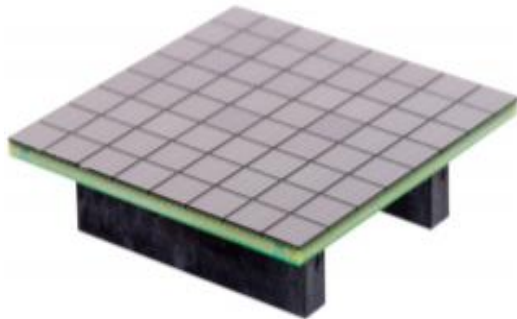
Sony ICX493AQA APS-C, 6.05  $\mu\text{m}$  pixel size, 10.14 M pixels, 23.4 mm  $\times$  15.6 mm, CCD from digital camera Sony  $\alpha$  DSLR-A200 or DSLR-A300, sensor side

CMOS



Samsung ISOCELL HM2 sensor, 0.7  $\mu\text{m}$  pixel size, 12,000  $\times$  9,000 (108 M) pixels, used in Xiaomi Redmi Note 9 Pro 5G and Xiaomi Mi 10i

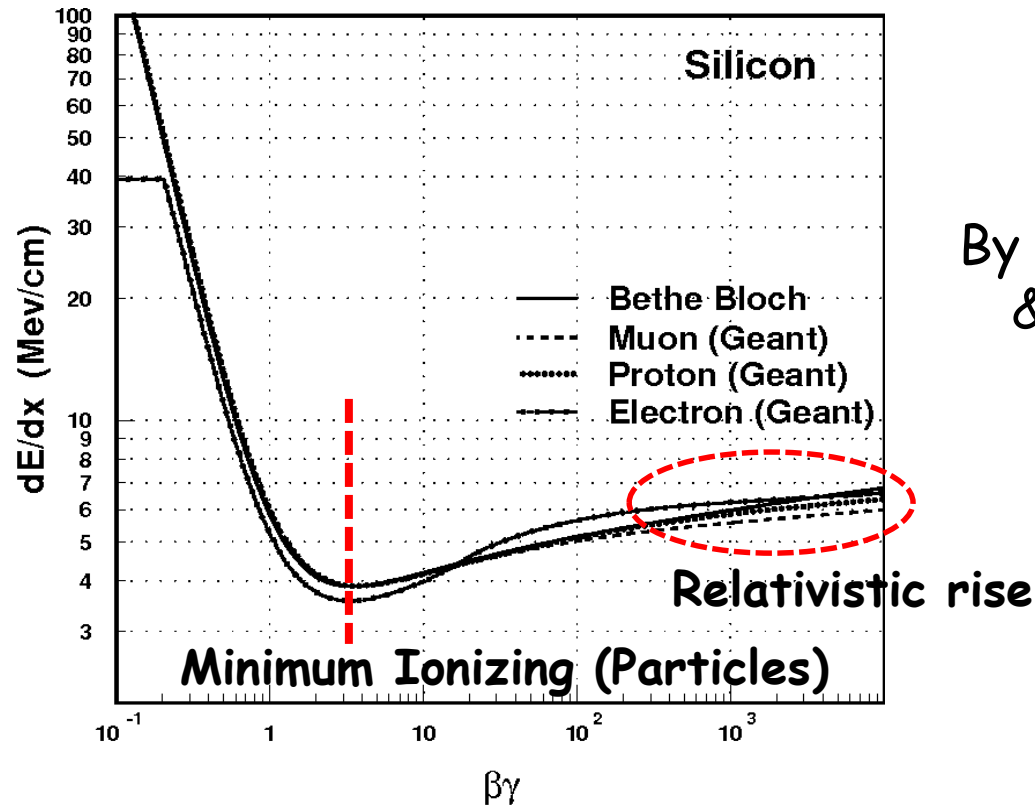
SiPM



Sensl SiPM pixel array, 8  $\times$  8 pixels, 6 mm pixel size, 22,292 micro-pixels, 40  $\mu\text{m}$  micro-pixel size

# Interaction of charged particles with silicon

## Energy loss by ionization



By S. Banerjee  
& A. Caner

We will not discuss about energy loss by radiation.

Note that  $\frac{dE}{dx}$  (ionization)  $\gg$   $\frac{dE}{dx}$  (radiation) for heavy particles.

# Energy loss by ionization

$z$ : charge of incident particle

Bethe equation

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

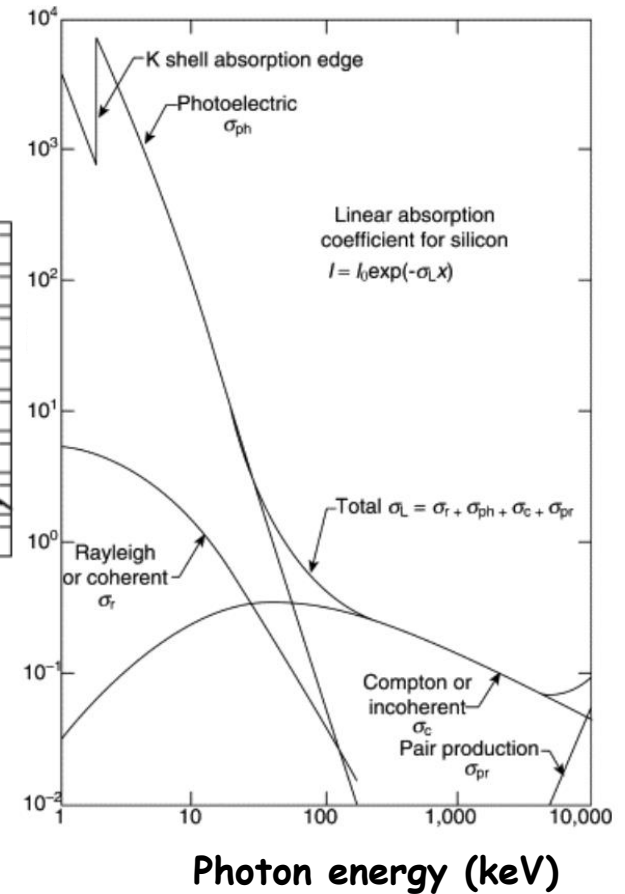
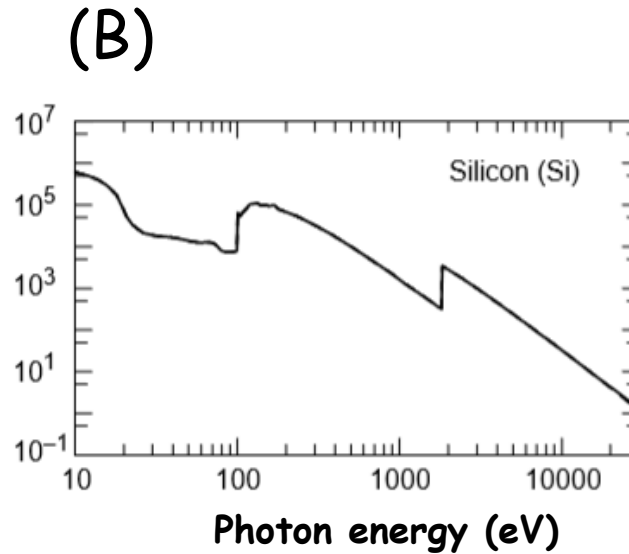
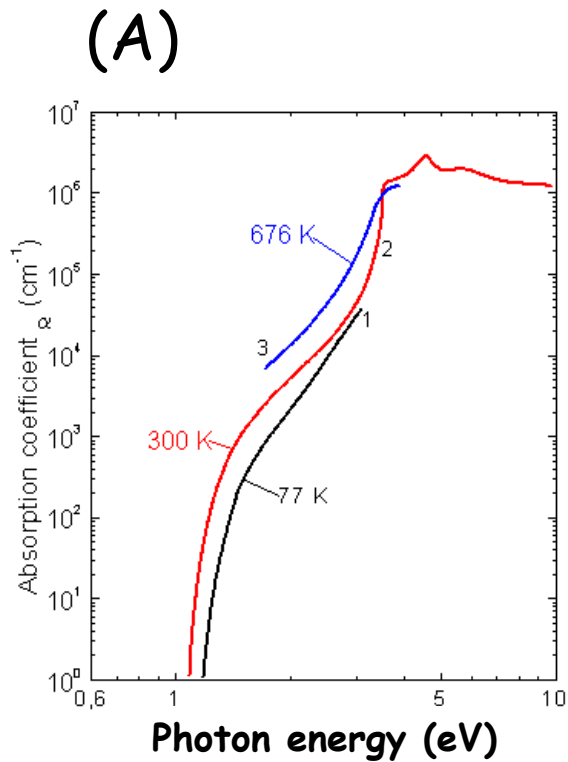
$$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle \propto z^2$$

$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle \approx 40 \text{ keV} / 100 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$  in Si for minimum ionizing particles

3.6 eV required for producing a pair of e-h in Si  
 $\approx 10,000$  e-h pairs / 100  $\mu\text{m}$  expected in Si

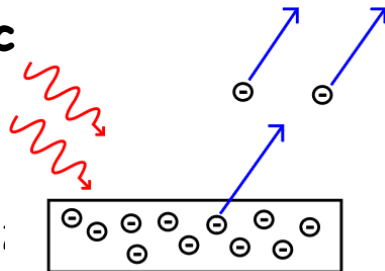
# Interaction of photons with silicon

(C)



Photoelectric effect

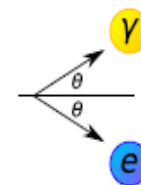
20211-01-



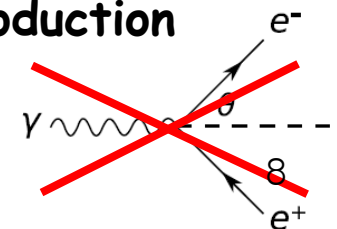
Compton scattering

$\gamma \rightarrow e$

SPDAK 2021



Pair production





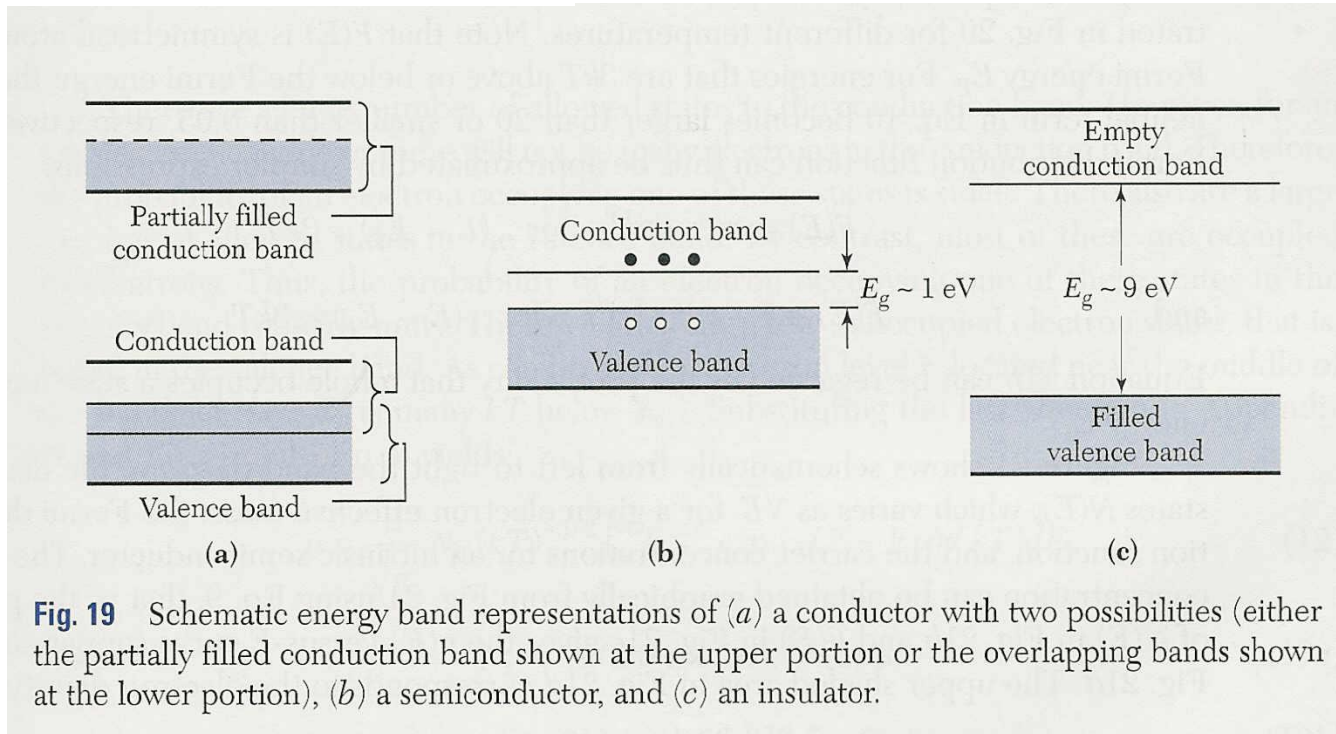
# References for the plots in Page 8

- A. Sze, S. M., *Physics of Semiconductor Devices*, John Wiley and Sons, N.Y., 1981; Jellison, Jr., G. E. and F. A. Modine, *Appl. Phys. Lett.*- 41, 2 (1982) 180-182.
- B. X-RAY DATA BOOKLET, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory
- C. Durini (Editor), "High Performance Silicon Imaging: Fundamentals and Applications of CMOS and CCD Sensors", Woodhead Publishing, 2014 Particularly: Chapter 10 (p286) by R. Turchetta, STFC, UK

## **2. Properties of silicon**

# Band & bandgap

Isolated atoms brought together to form lattice  $\rightarrow$  discrete atomic levels shift to form energy bands



From 'Semiconductor Devices  
Physics and Technology Second Edition'  
by S.M. Sze

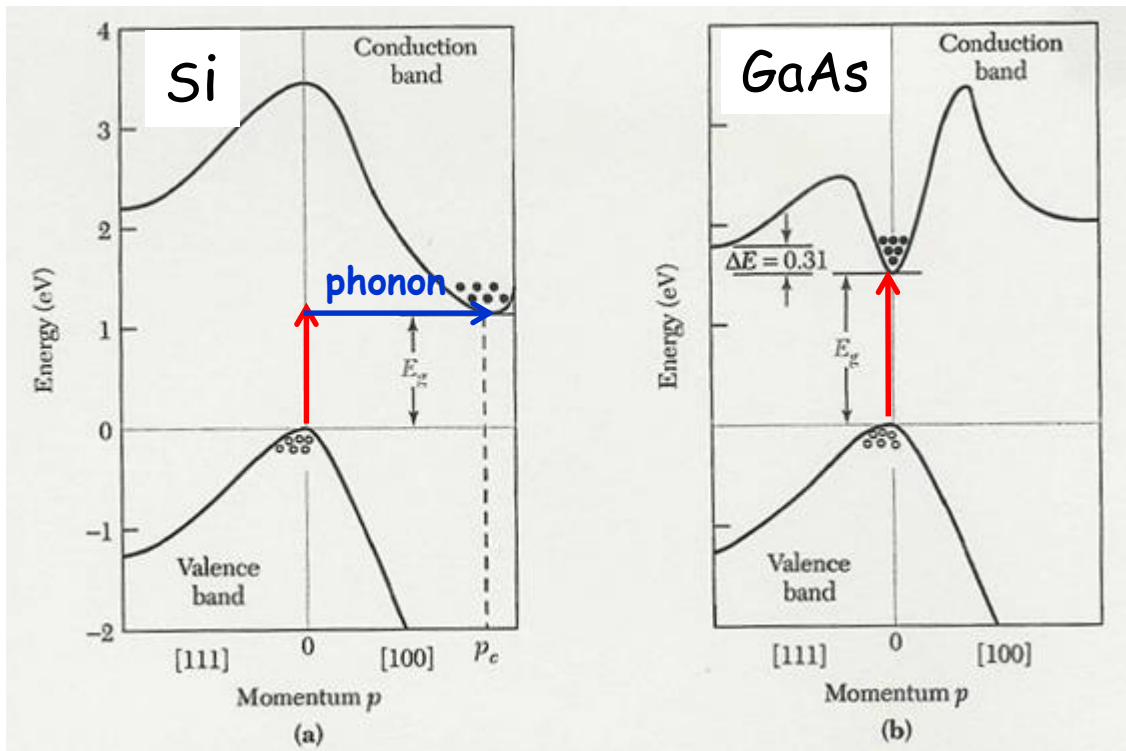
$E_g$ : band gap (1.12 eV for Si)

# Indirect vs Direct Bandgap Semiconductors

From 'Semiconductor Devices  
Physics and Technology  
Second Edition'  
by S.M. Sze

Indirect bandgap

Direct bandgap



Excitation/De-excitation =  $E_g + E_{\text{phonon}}$

Excitation/De-excitation =  $E_g$

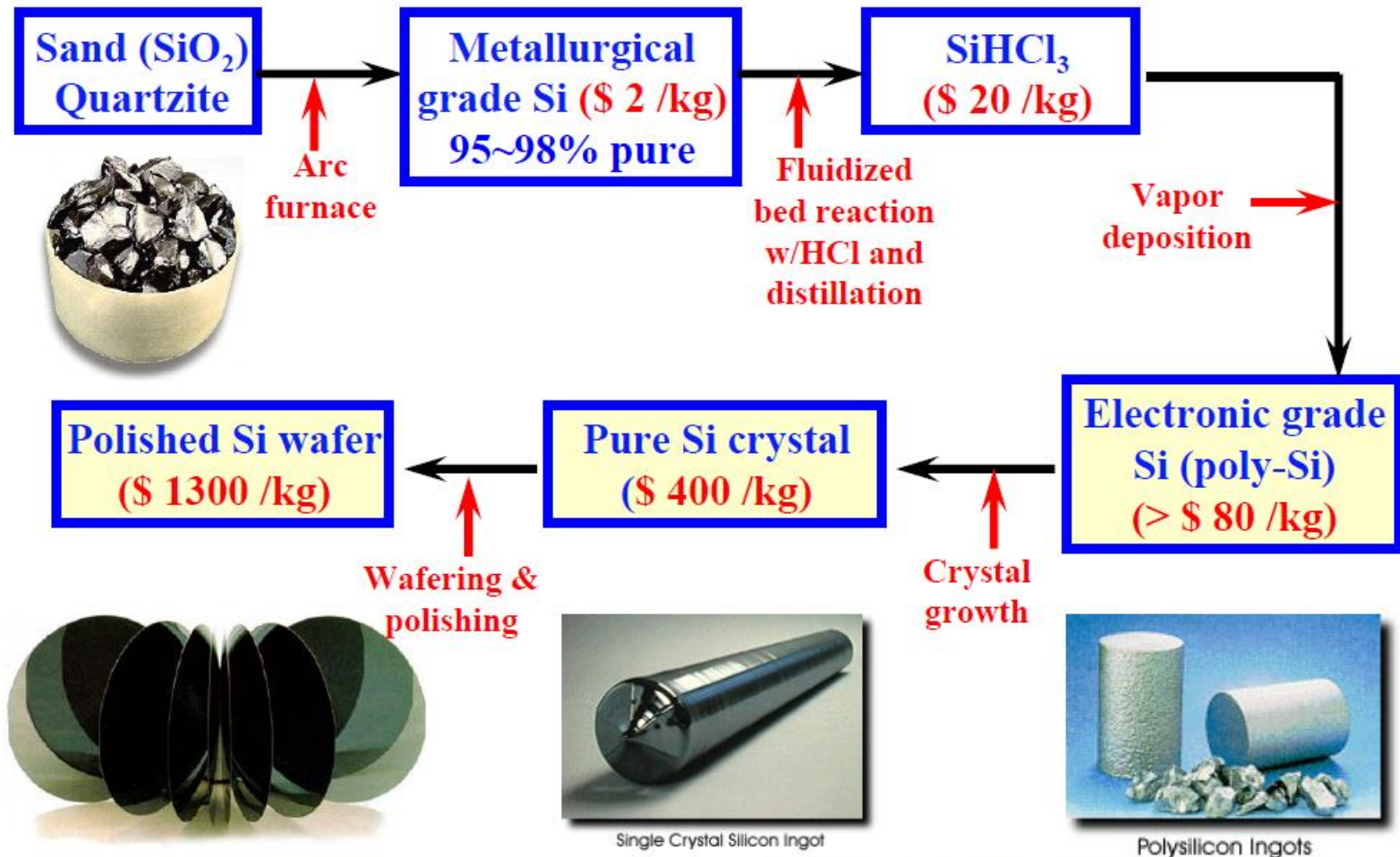
# Why Silicon?

- abundant --> cheap
- Lighter
- SiO<sub>2</sub> layer
  - Naturally or inexpensively formed
  - chemically and mechanically very stable
  - effectively passivates the surface states of the underlying silicon
  - forms an effective diffusion barrier for the commonly used dopant species
  - easily preferentially etched from the silicon, and vice versa, with high selectivity
  - By contrast, GeO<sub>2</sub> is a chemically unstable, poor electrical insulator that is 33 times more soluble in water than SiO<sub>2</sub>, making it less suited to the photolithographic and wet chemical processes used to fabricate integrated circuits.

III	IV	V
5 B	6 C	
13 Al	14 Si	15 P
31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As
49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb

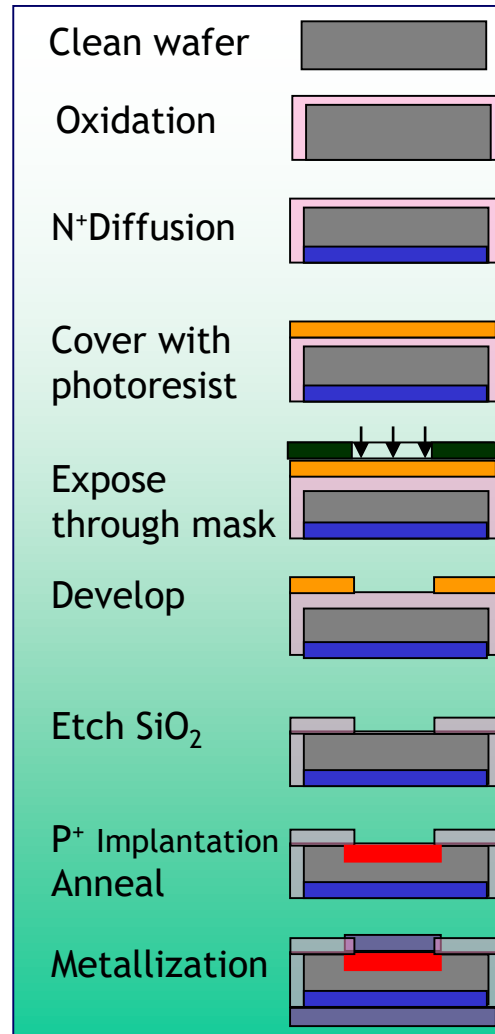
Acceptors      Semiconductors      Donors

# Sand to silicon wafer

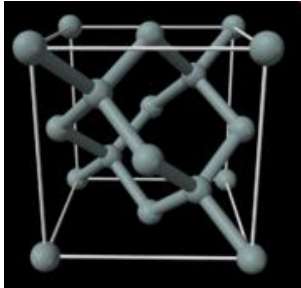


Source: <http://www.fullman.com/semiconductors/semiconductors.html>

# Recipe for fabrication process

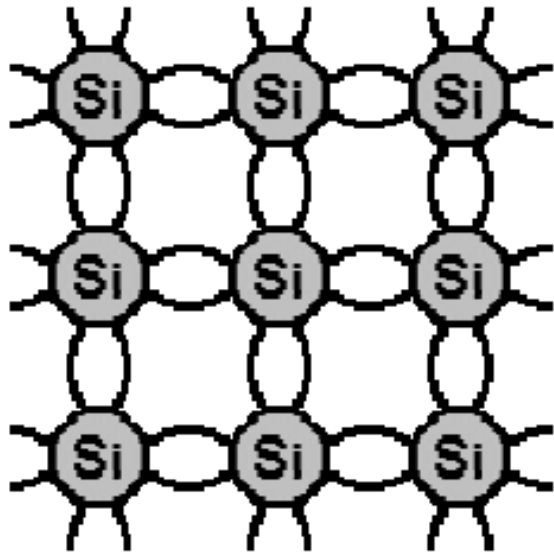


# Intrinsic Si semiconductor

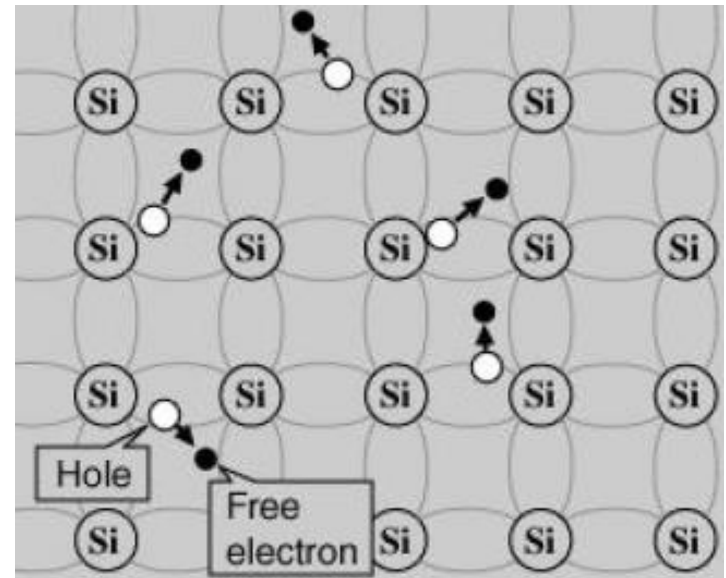


The crystalline structure is *Diamond Cubic* (FCC). Bare wafers of  $\langle 100 \rangle$  or  $\langle 111 \rangle$  crystals are popular ones used for silicon detector fabrications.

low T : electrons bound in lattice



higher T : free electrons & holes





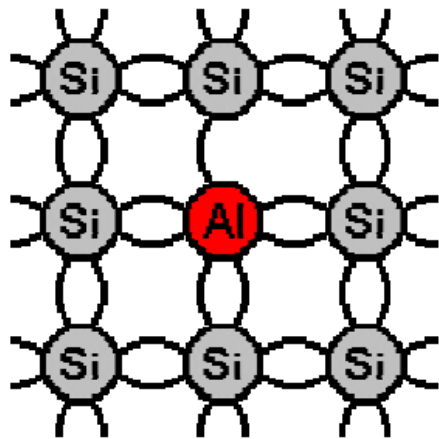
# Impurities

- Intrinsic semiconductor = pure, no impurities.
- Extrinsic semiconductor = impurities added.
- Some impurities always present.
- Turns out to be extremely useful to add impurities to control the properties of the semiconductor.

## Jargons

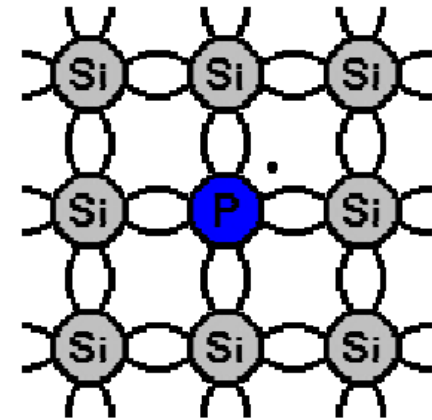
- The heavily-doped pieces are called  $n^+$ -type or  $p^+$ -type; the lightly-doped pieces, simply n-type or p-type.

# Doping: acceptors & donors



III	IV	V
5 B	6 C	
13 Al	14 Si	15 P
31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As
49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb

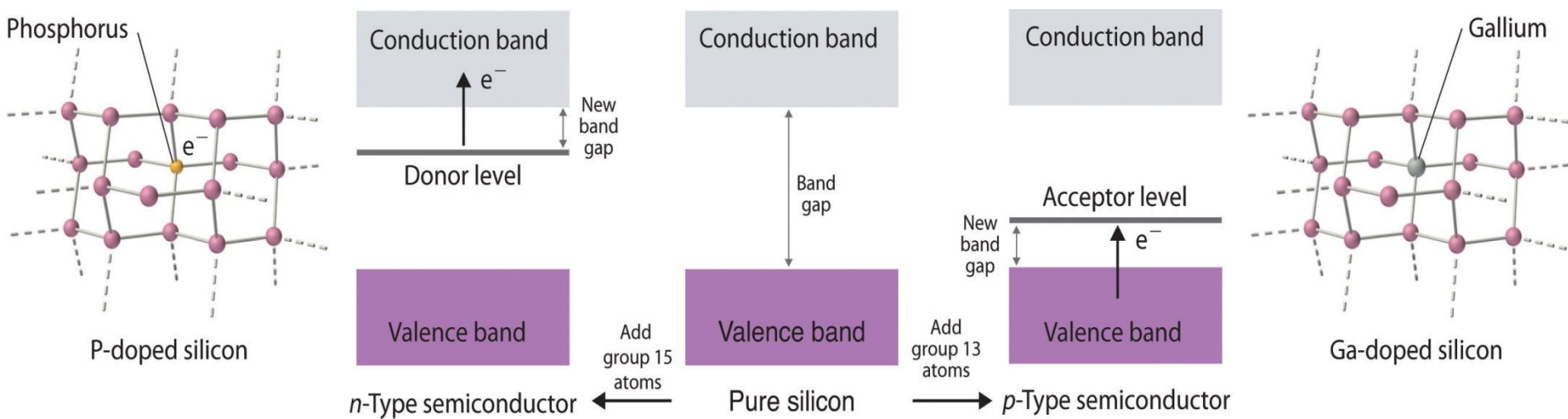
↑ Acceptors                      ↑ Semiconductors                      ↑ Donors



- Al or B impurities.
- 3  $e^-$  in outer shell
- 3  $e^-$  for bonds, one hole left-over (free)
- Acceptor impurity
- P-type silicon

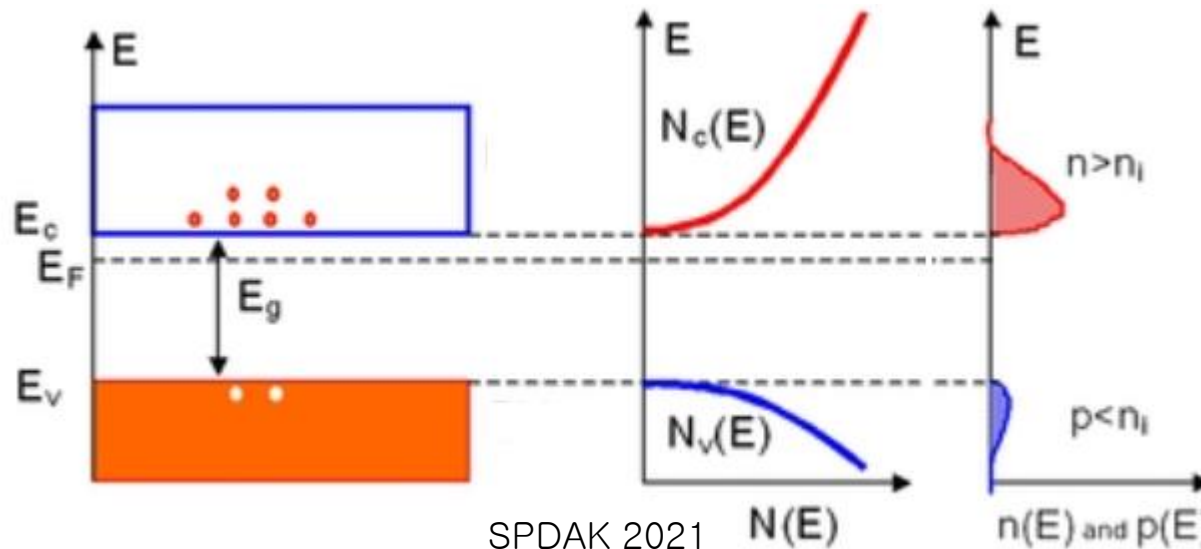
- P or As impurities.
- 5  $e^-$  in outer shell.
- 4  $e^-$  for bonds, one  $e^-$  left-over (free).
- Donor impurity
  - (donates  $e^-$ )
- N-type silicon

# Effect of doping



(a) Doping with a group 15 element

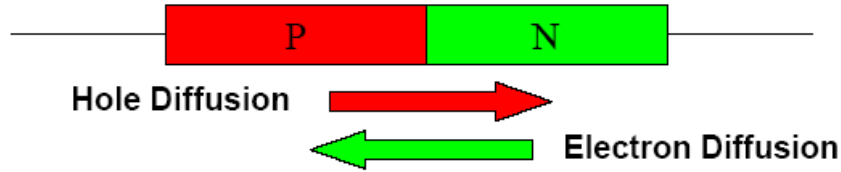
(b) Doping with a group 13 element



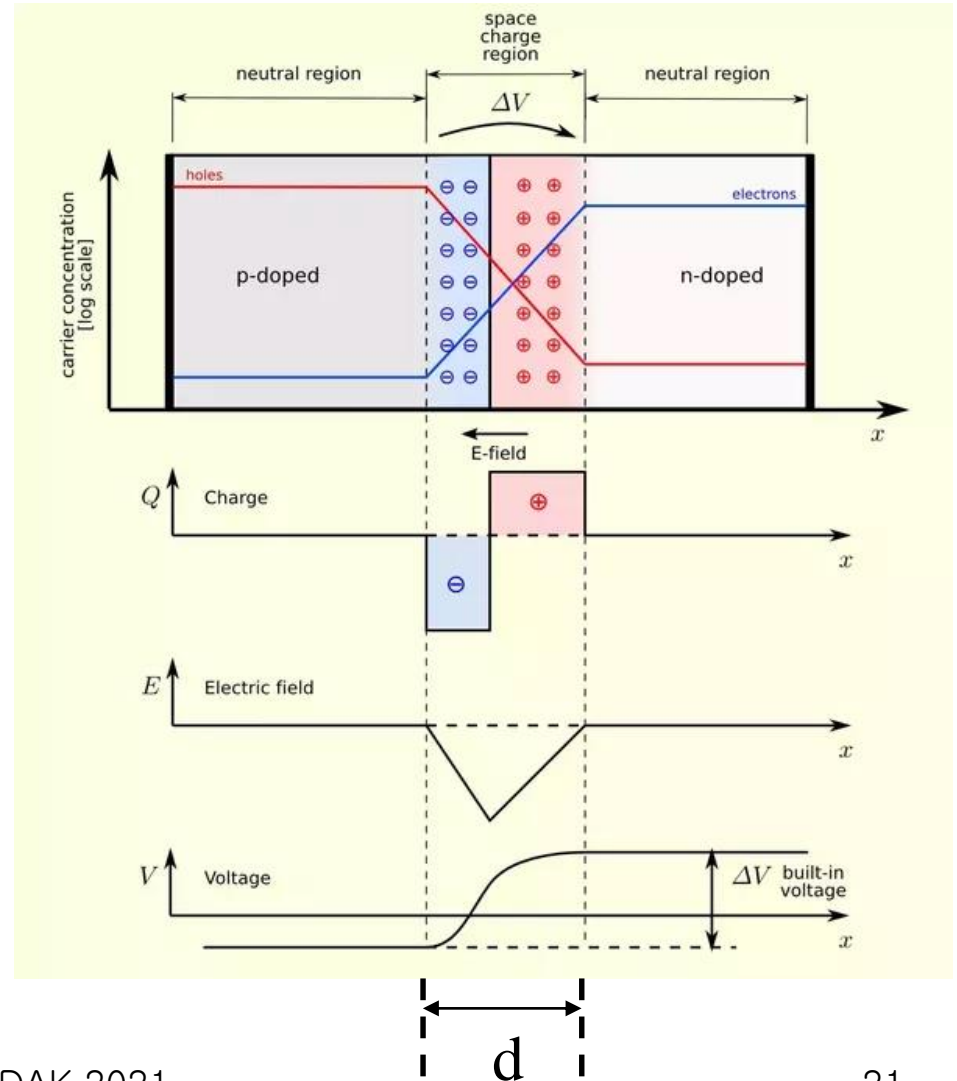
### **3. Silicon detectors for charged particle detection**

# p-n junction (fundamental structure)

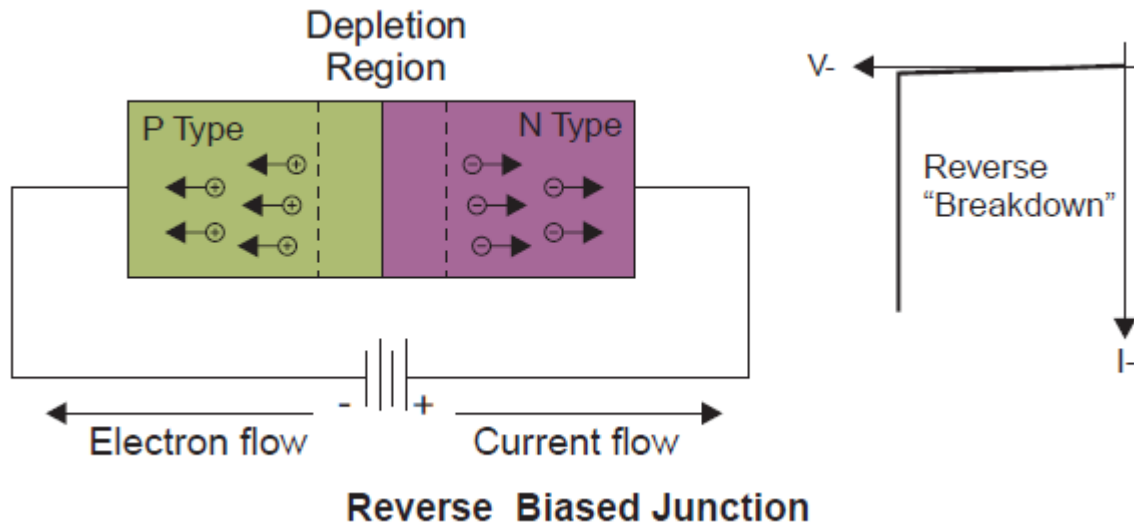
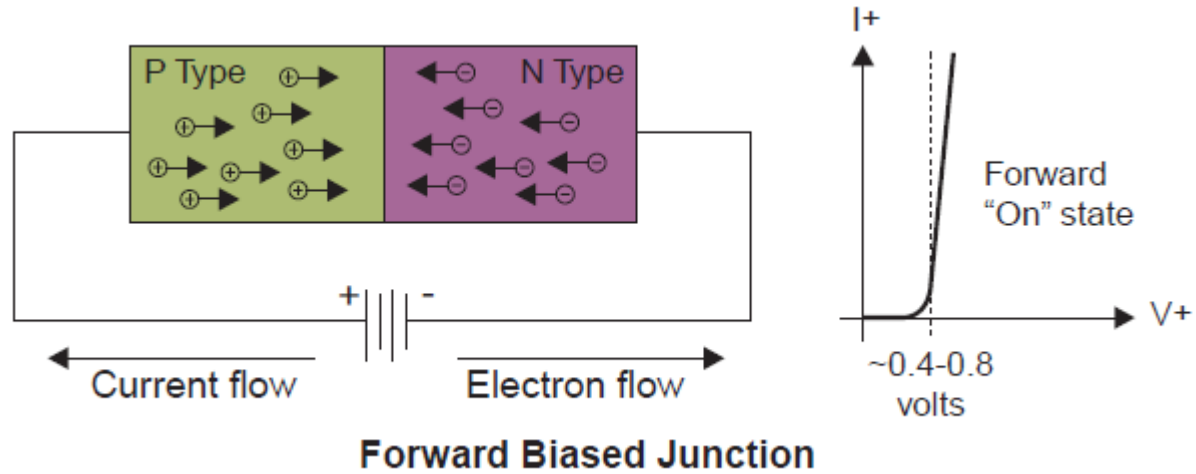
Bring p-type and n-type into contact:



The depletion region  $d$  is a region with no charge carriers (with no free charges).



# p-n junction



# Depletion depth

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon}{e} \frac{N_A + N_D}{N_A N_D} (V_{bi} + V)}$$

$V_{bi}$  : potential difference due to barrier field

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon(V_{bi} + V)}{eN_B}}$$

In many cases,  $N_A \gg N_D$  or  $N_D \gg N_A$   
 $N_B$  is the smallest of  $N_D$  and  $N_A$

$$d = \sqrt{2\epsilon\mu\rho(V_{bi} + V)}$$

An exercise :

p-type Si

$\rho \sim 10 \text{ k}\Omega \text{ cm}$

$d \sim 300 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$

$\rightarrow V \sim 110 \text{ V}$

$$d = 0.5\mu\text{m} \sqrt{\rho(V_{bi} + V)} \quad (\text{n-type})$$

$$d = 0.3\mu\text{m} \sqrt{\rho(V_{bi} + V)} \quad (\text{p-type})$$

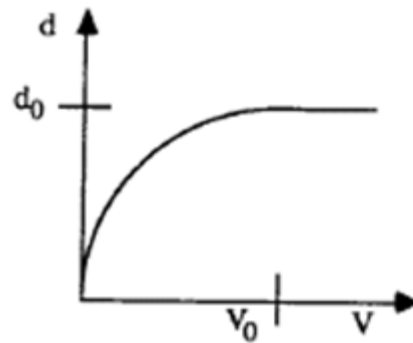
( $V$  in Volts &  $\rho$  in  $\Omega \text{ cm}$ ) for Si

# p-n junction reverse bias characteristics

$d$  = depletion layer depth

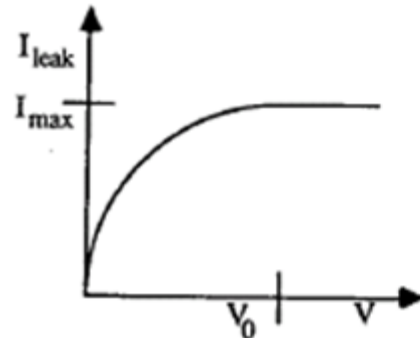
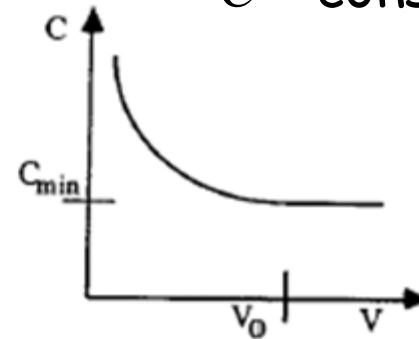
$$d \propto \sqrt{V} \text{ for } V < V_0$$

$$d = d_0 \text{ for } V > V_0$$



$$C \propto 1/\sqrt{V} \text{ for } V < V_0$$

$$C = \text{const. for } V > V_0$$



$$i \propto d \propto \sqrt{V} \text{ for } V < V_0$$

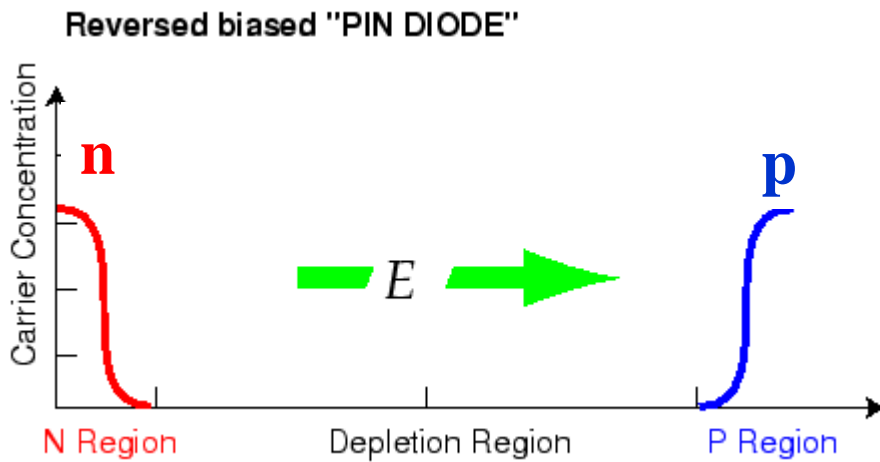
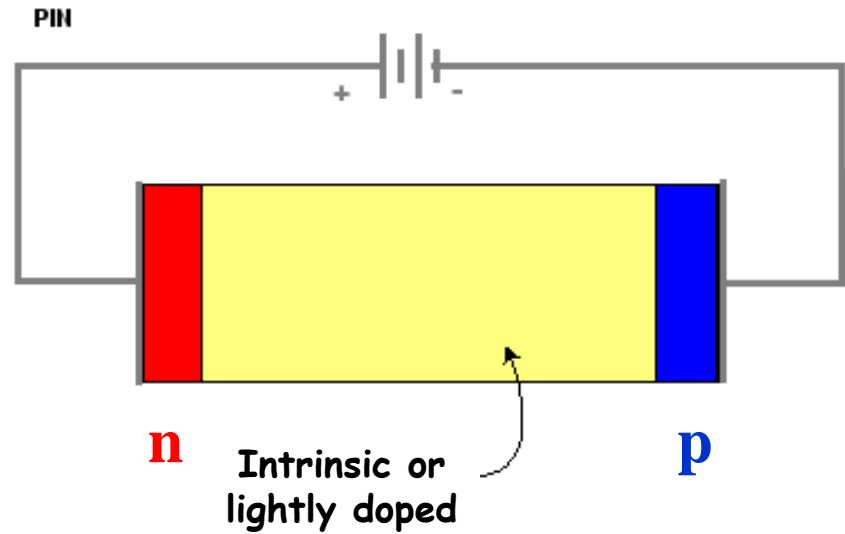
$$i = \text{const. for } V > V_0$$

$V_0$  = full depletion voltage

$d_0$  = junction thickness

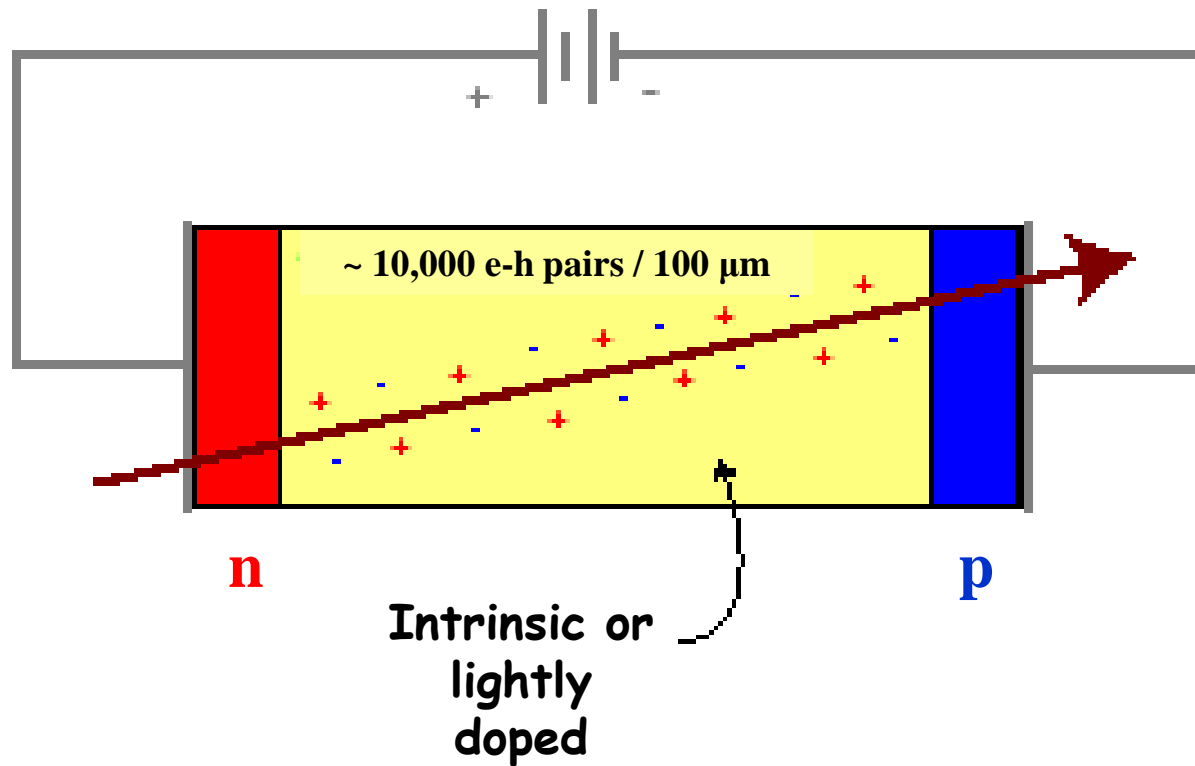


# PIN Diode



# When a charged particle traverses the depletion zone

Simple detector

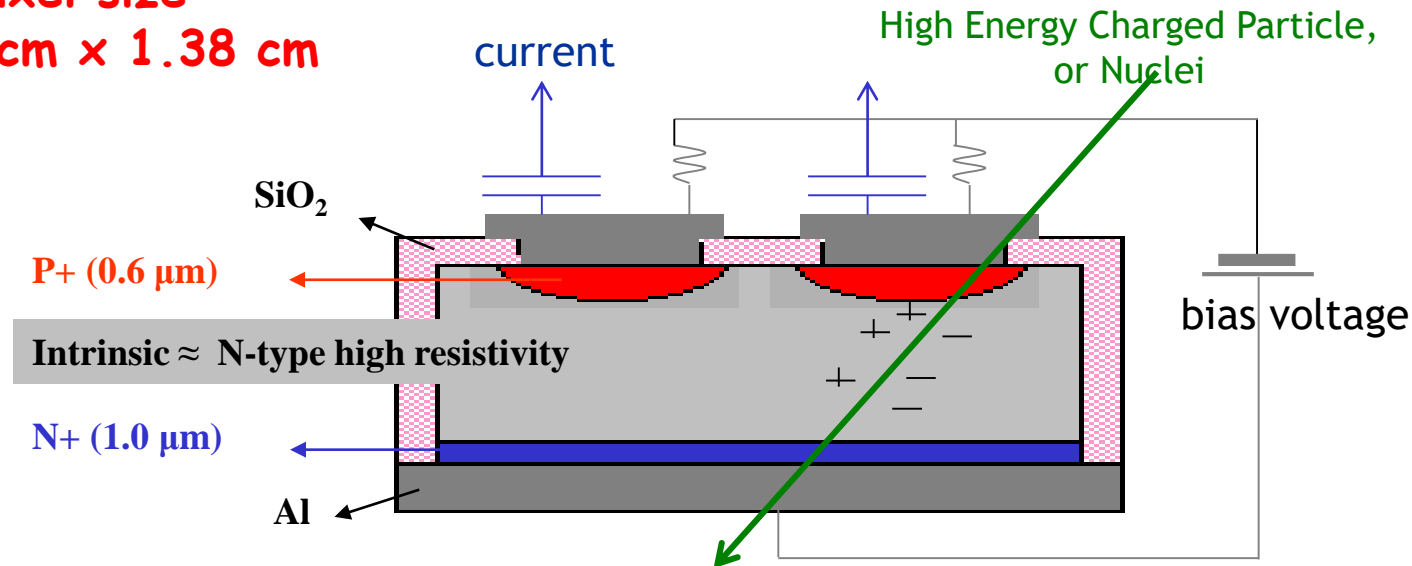


# Silicon pixel sensor

- PIN diode, DC type
- Wafer: 5 inch, 525  $\mu\text{m}$  in thickness, double polished side, N-type high resistivity ( $>5 \text{ k}\Omega\text{-cm}$ ), (111) orientation

pixel size

= 1.55 cm  $\times$  1.38 cm

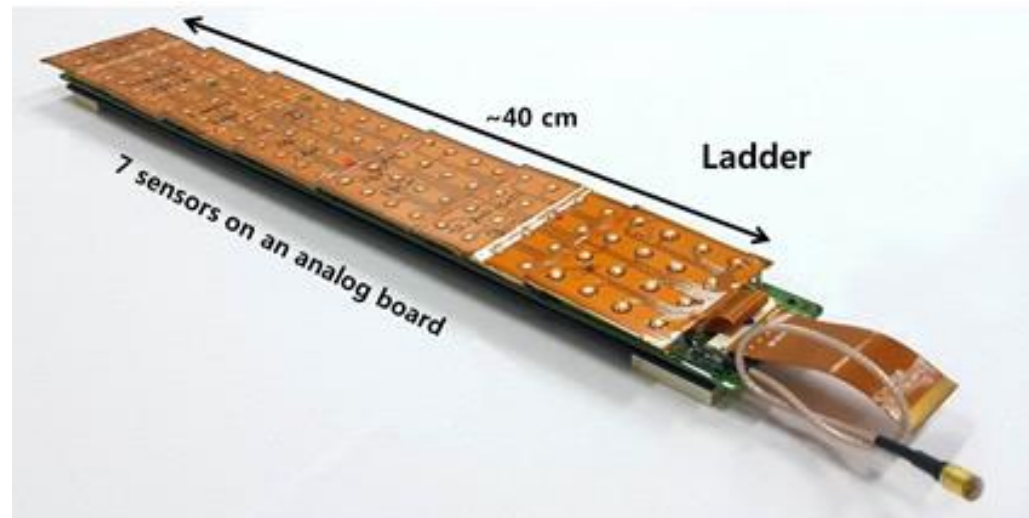
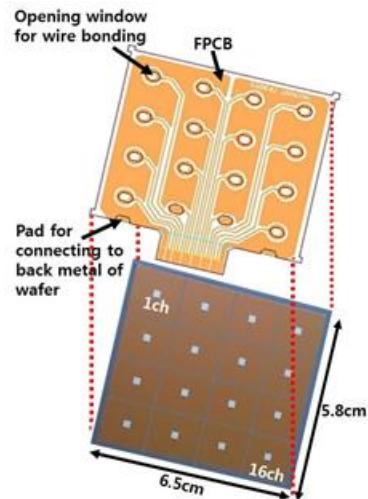


$$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle \propto z^2$$

Measure the ionization energy loss in silicon sensor  
-> Determine the charge of the incident particle

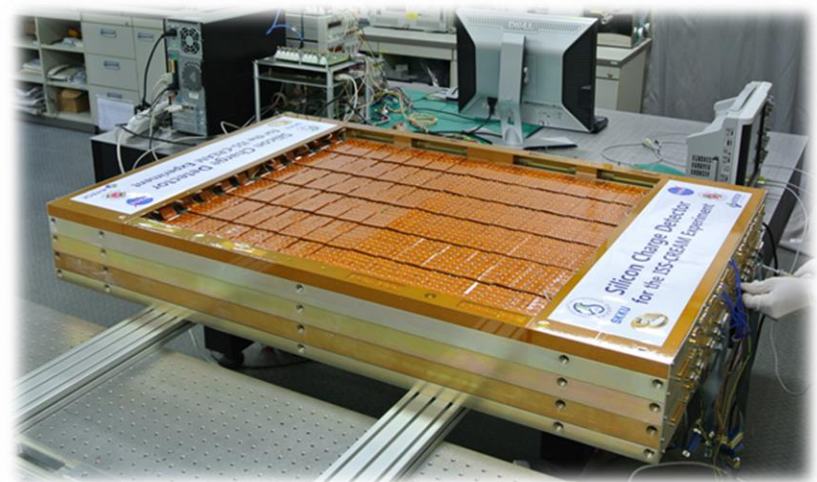
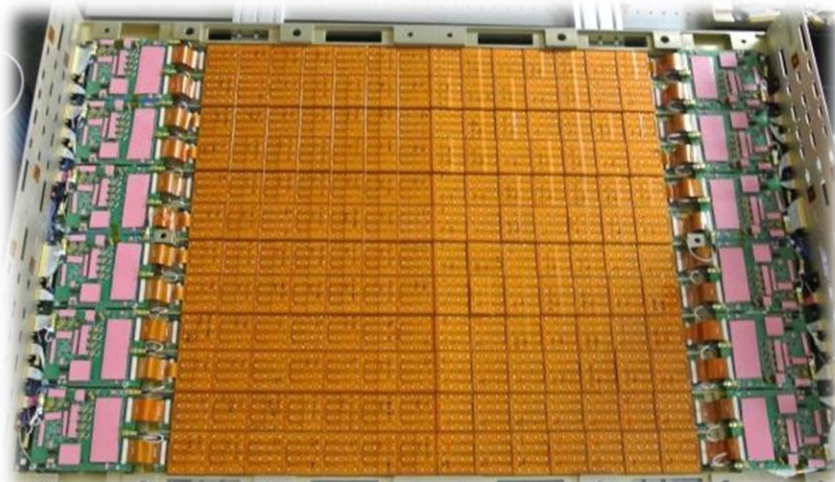
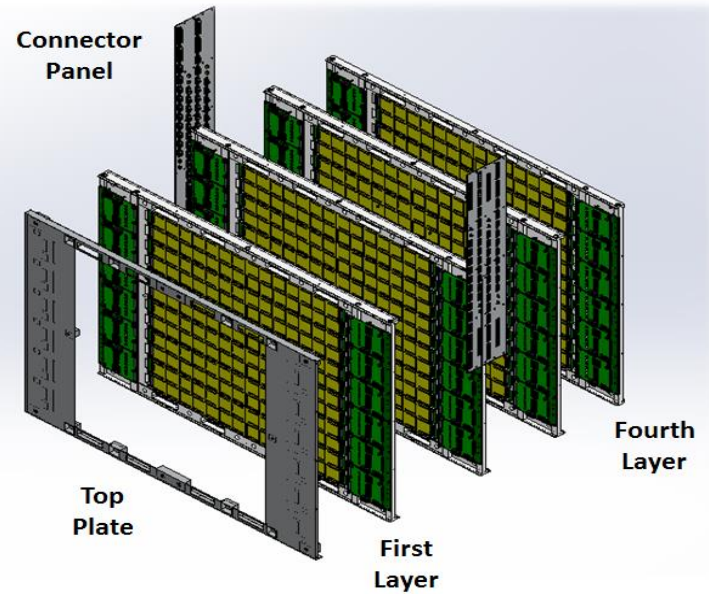
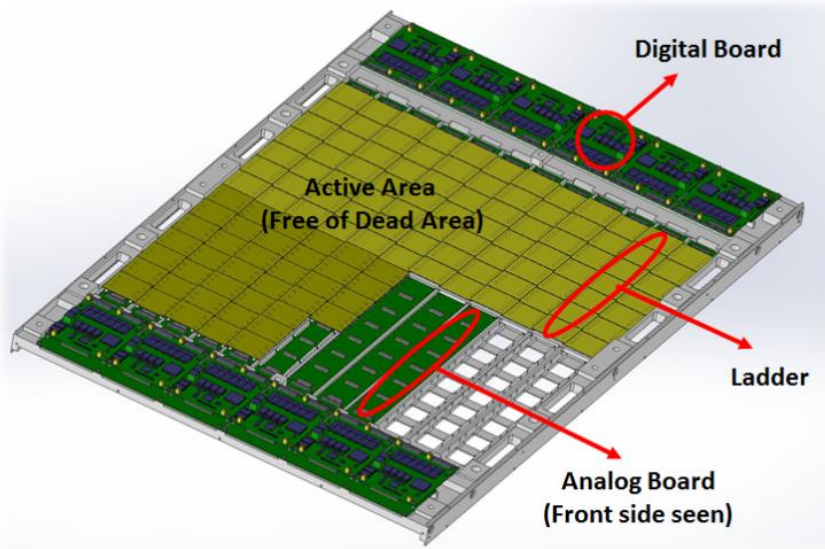
# Silicon Pixel Sensor & Ladder for SCD

Built by SKKU group



pixel size =  $1.55 \times 1.38 \text{ cm}^2$

# Silicon Charge Detector (design, fabrication & assembly) Built by SKKU group

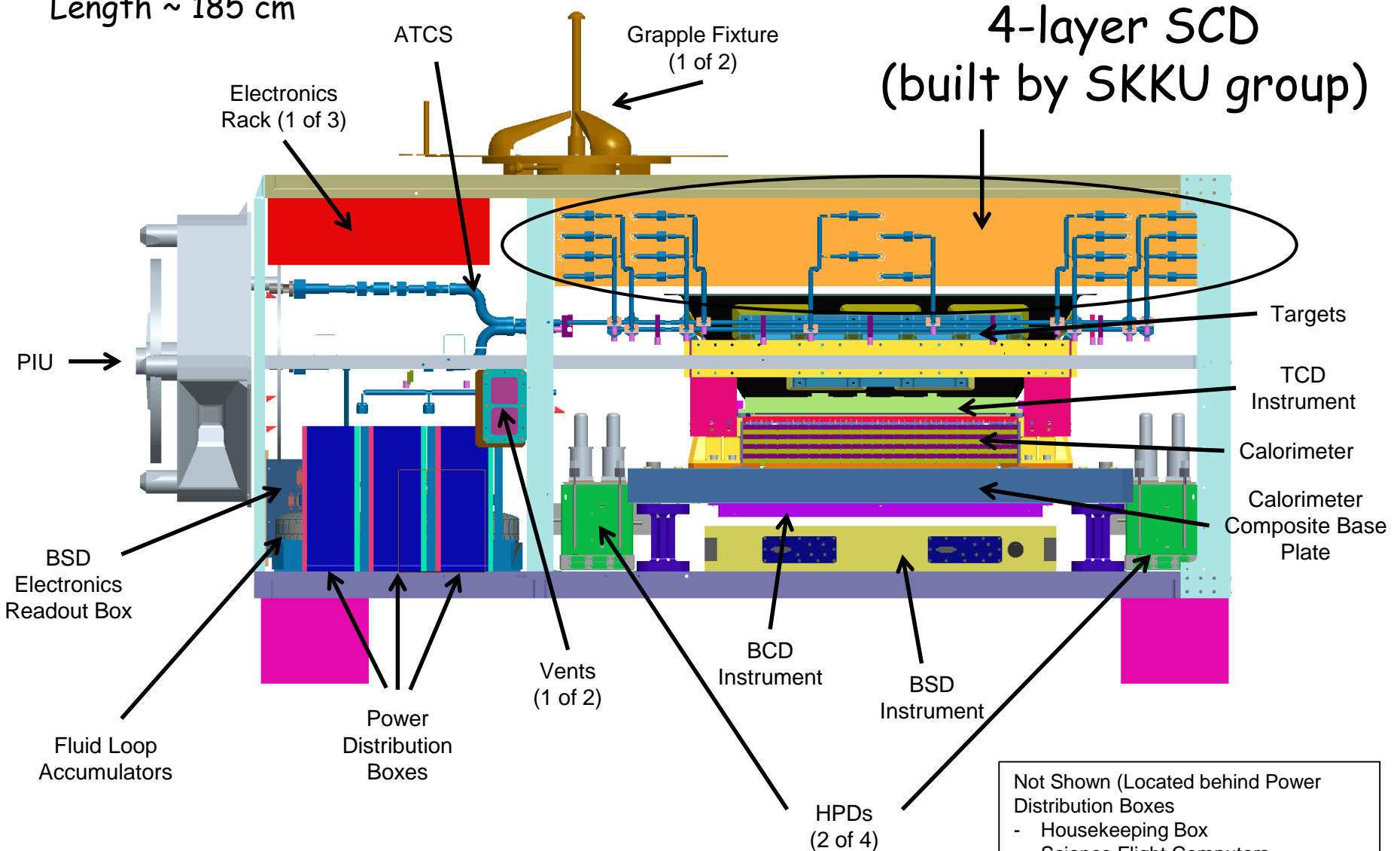


# Silicon Charge Detector (specification)

Mass (kg)	143
Overall Dimension (cm <sup>3</sup> )	127.7 (L) x 81.7 (W) x 16.6 (H)
Active Area (cm <sup>2</sup> )	78.2 x 73.6
# Layers	4
# Channels	total 10752 (2688 per layer)
Power Consumption (W)	182.5

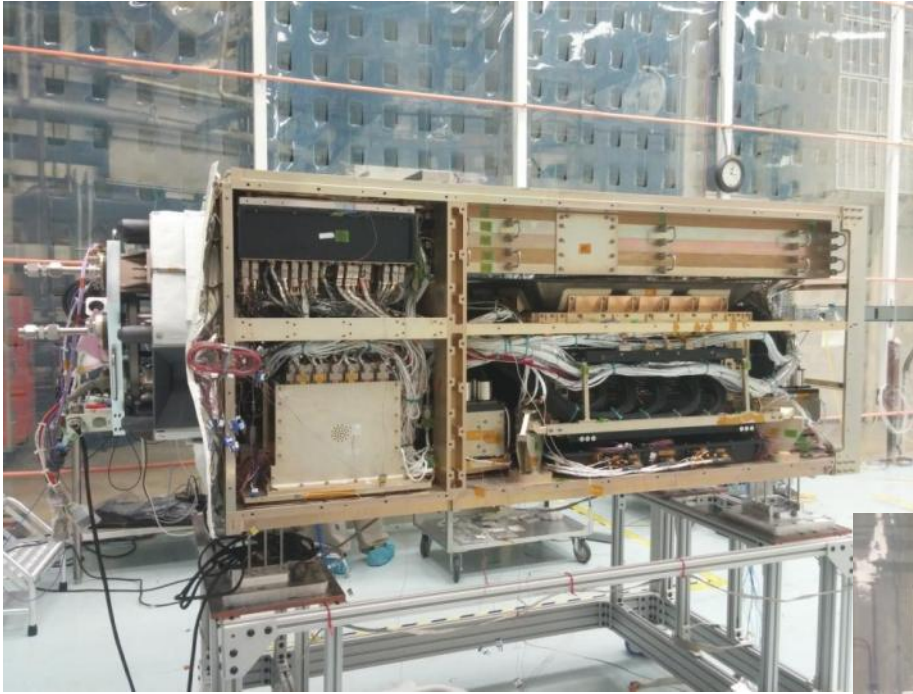
Mass ~ 1258 kg  
 Power ~ 415 W  
 Length ~ 185 cm

# ISS-CREAM payload

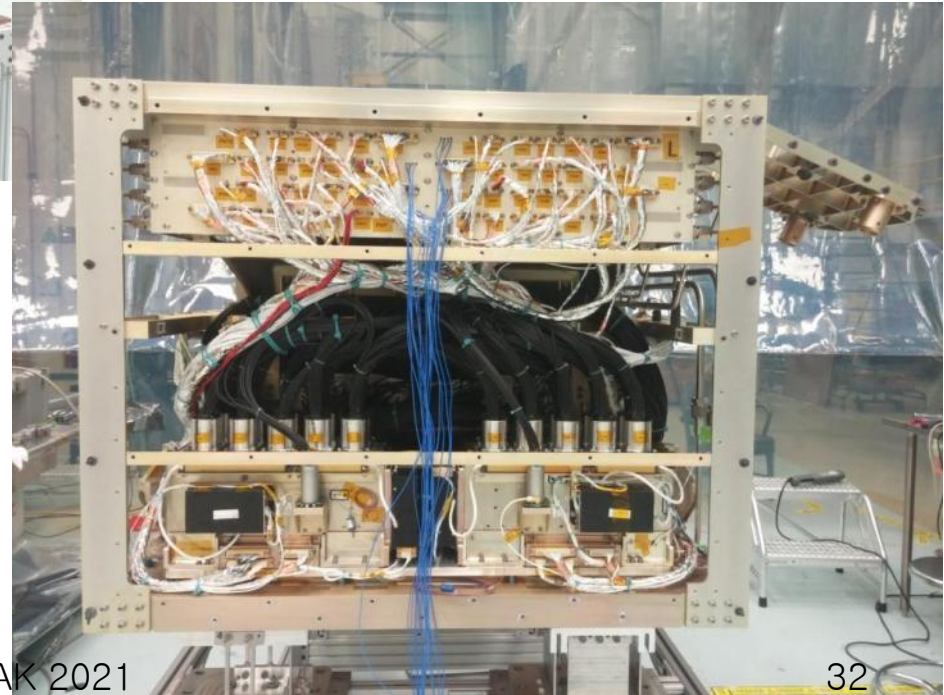




# ISS-CREAM @ GSFC before TVAC test (July 22-25, 2015)



20211-01-21

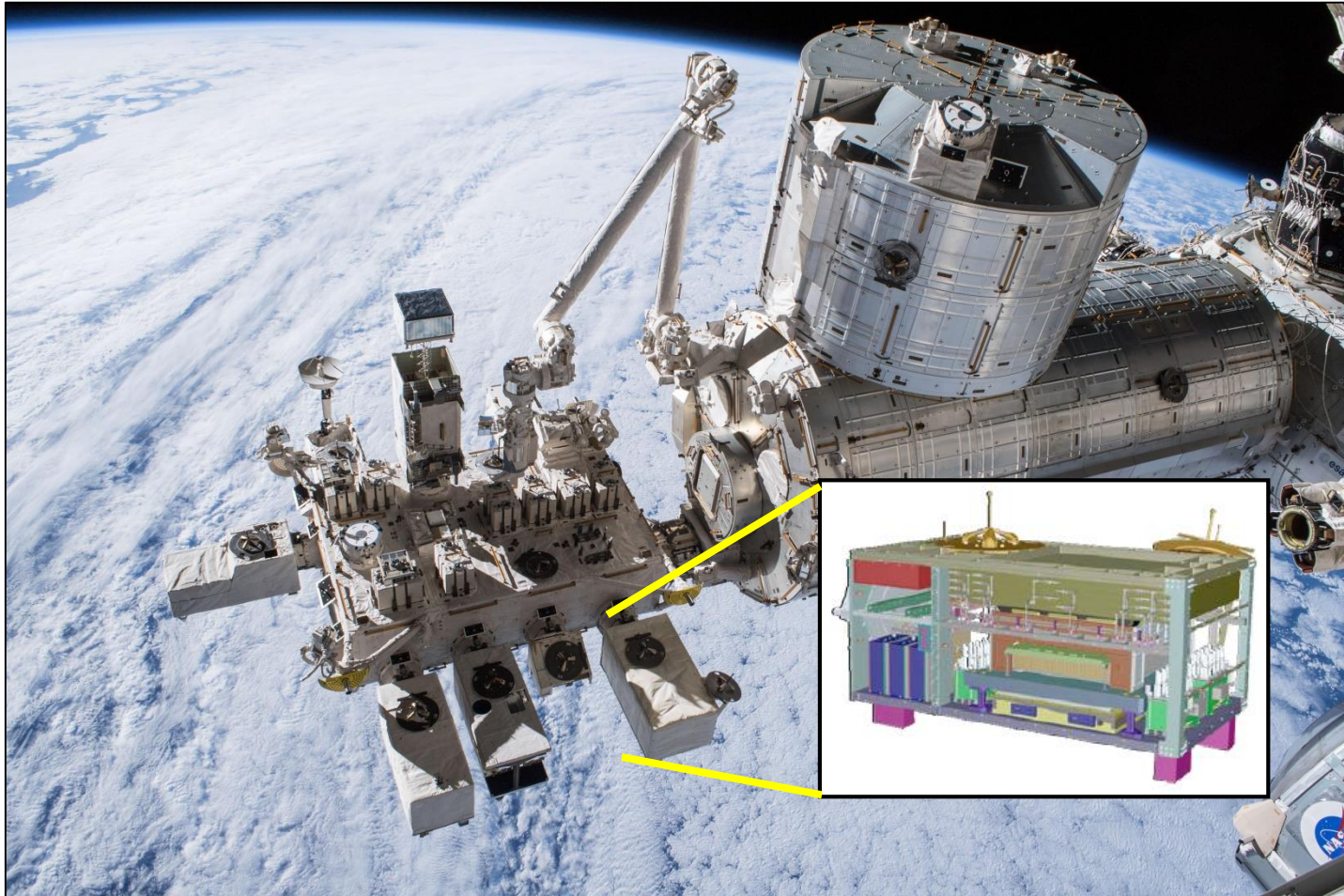


SPDAK 2021

32

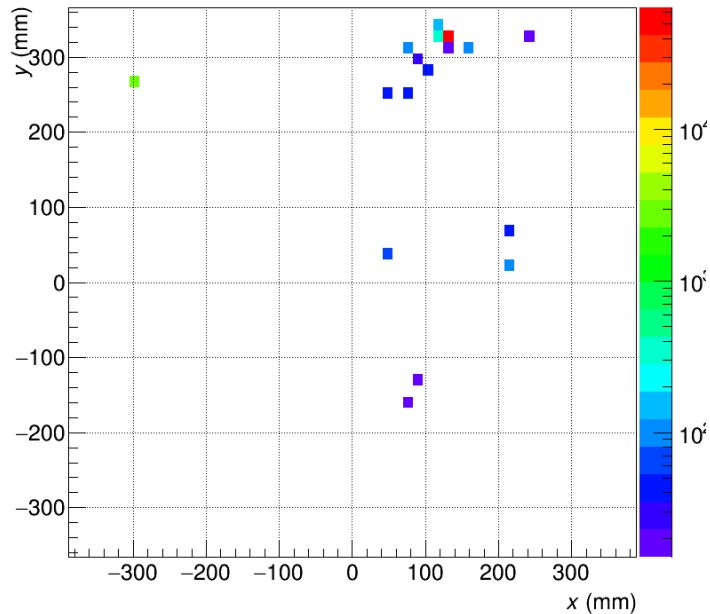


# ISS-CREAM in space operation



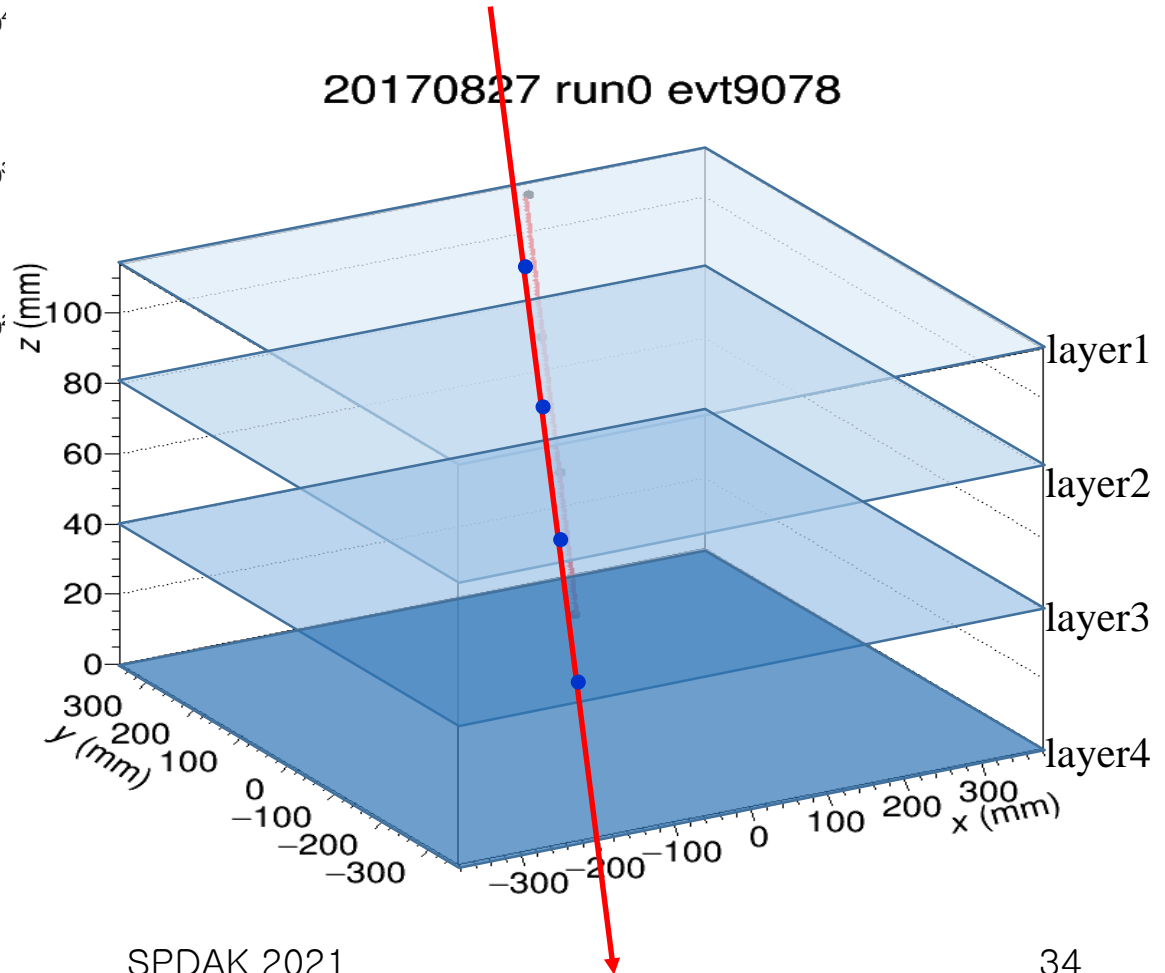
# SCD performance: standalone tracking

20170827 run0 evt9078 layer1



## A 4-layer track!

20170827 run0 evt9078

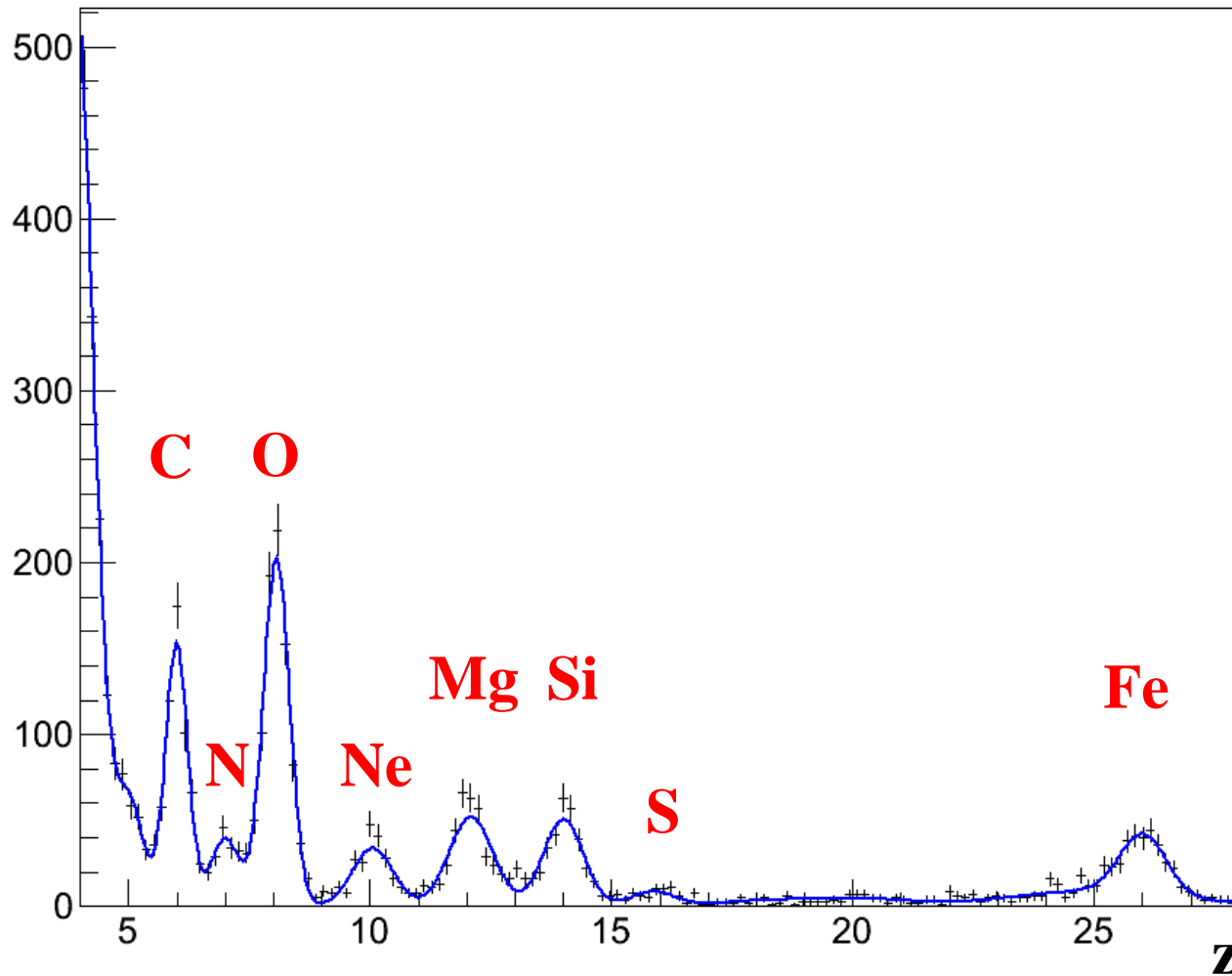


$$\theta = 34.19 +1.91 -0.59^\circ$$

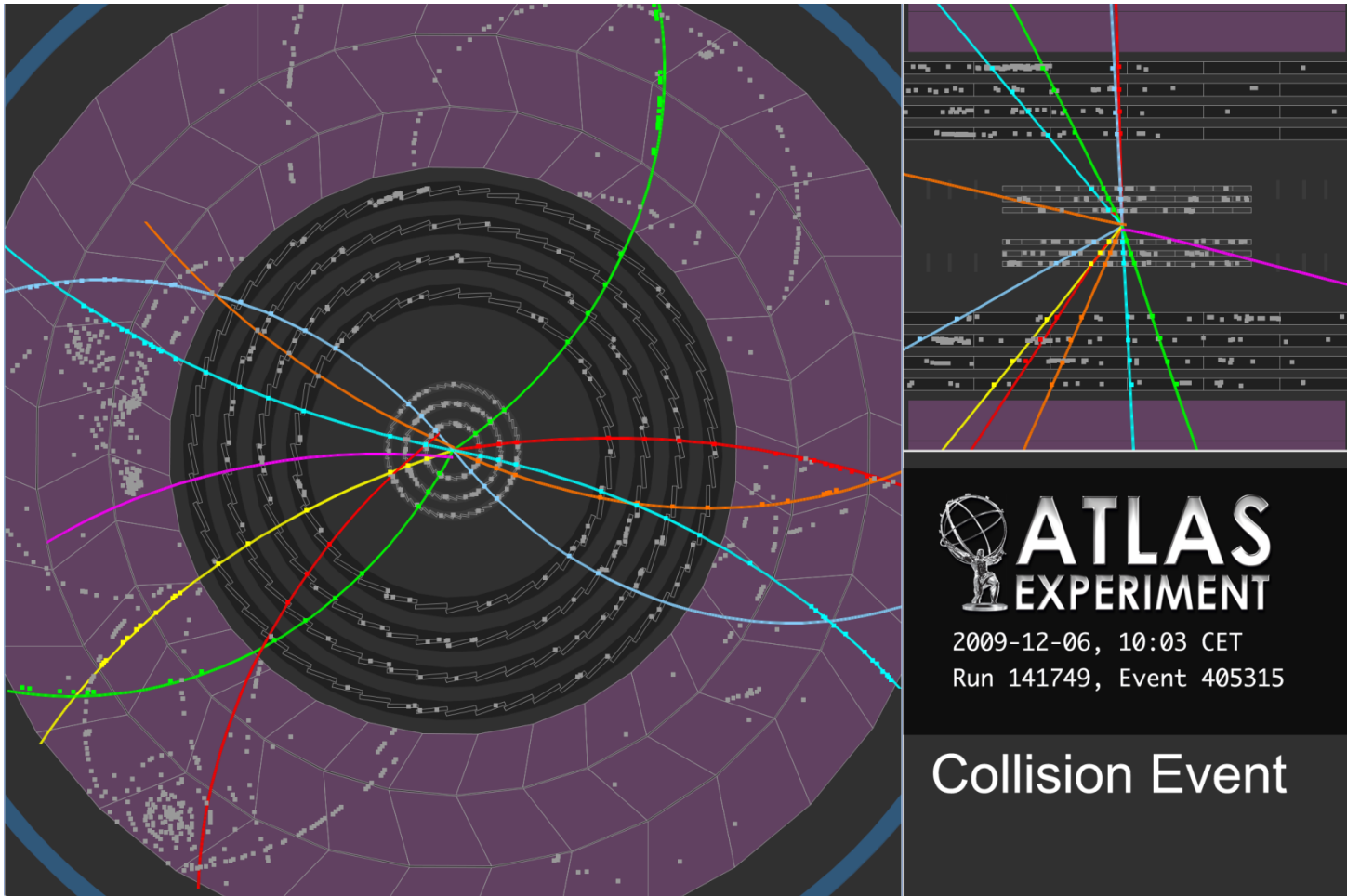
$$\varphi = 105.5 +5.9 -2.9^\circ$$

# SCD performance: charge measurement

*Preliminary!*



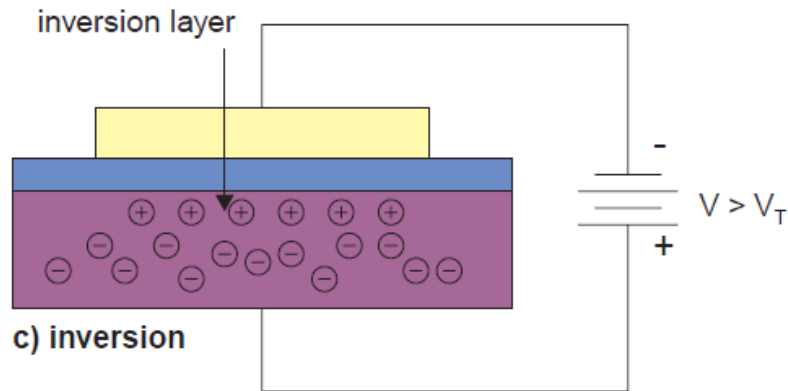
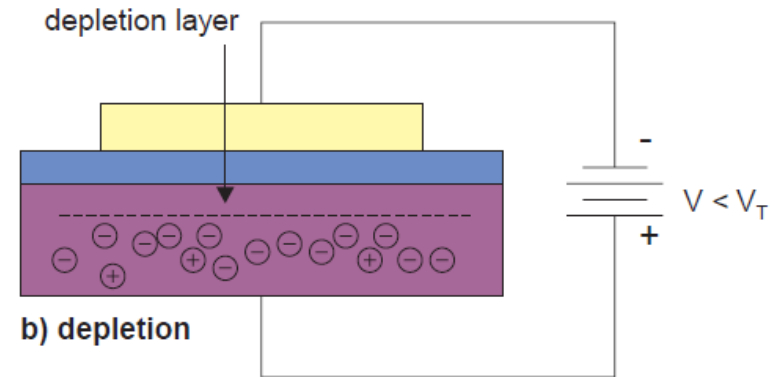
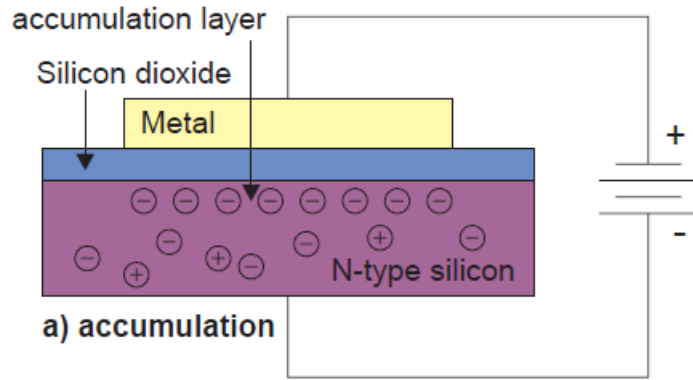
# ATLAS Silicon Trackers



<http://atlas.web.cern.ch/Atlas/public/EVTDISPLAY/events.html>

## **4. Silicon detectors for photon detection**

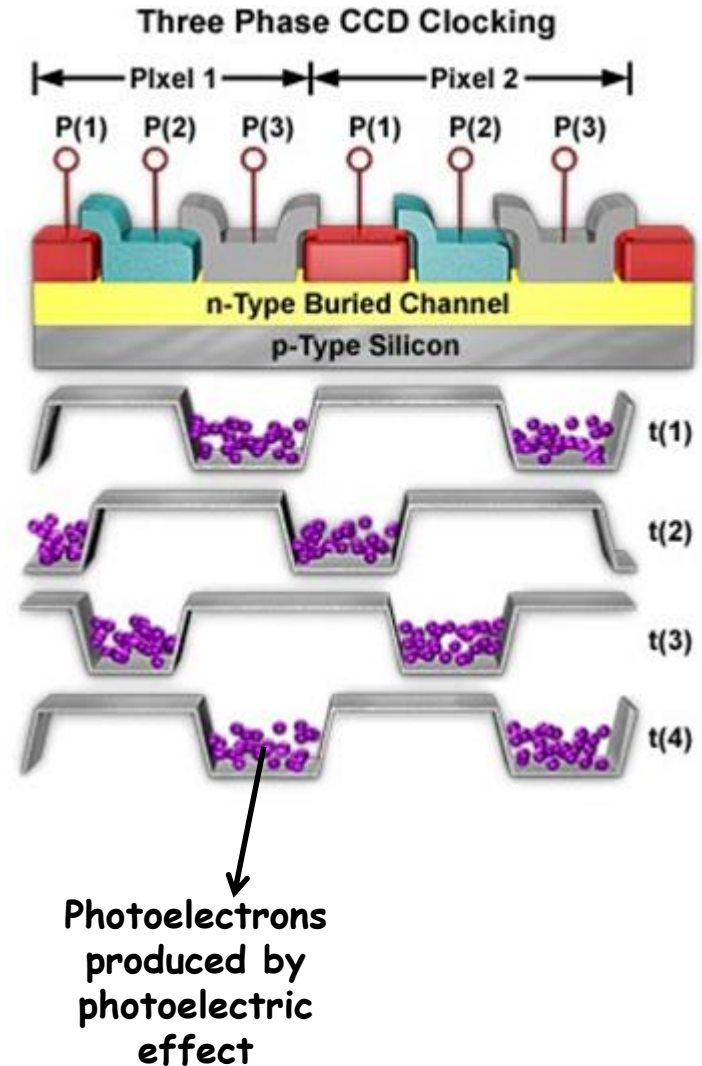
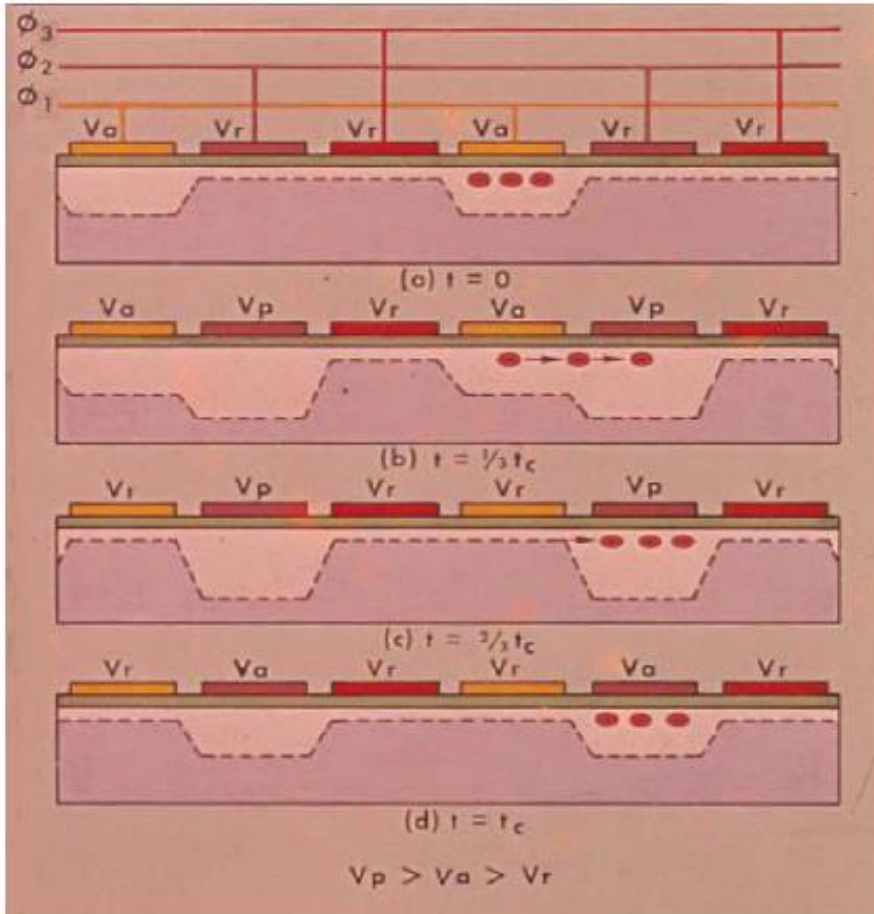
# MOS structure (fundamental structure)



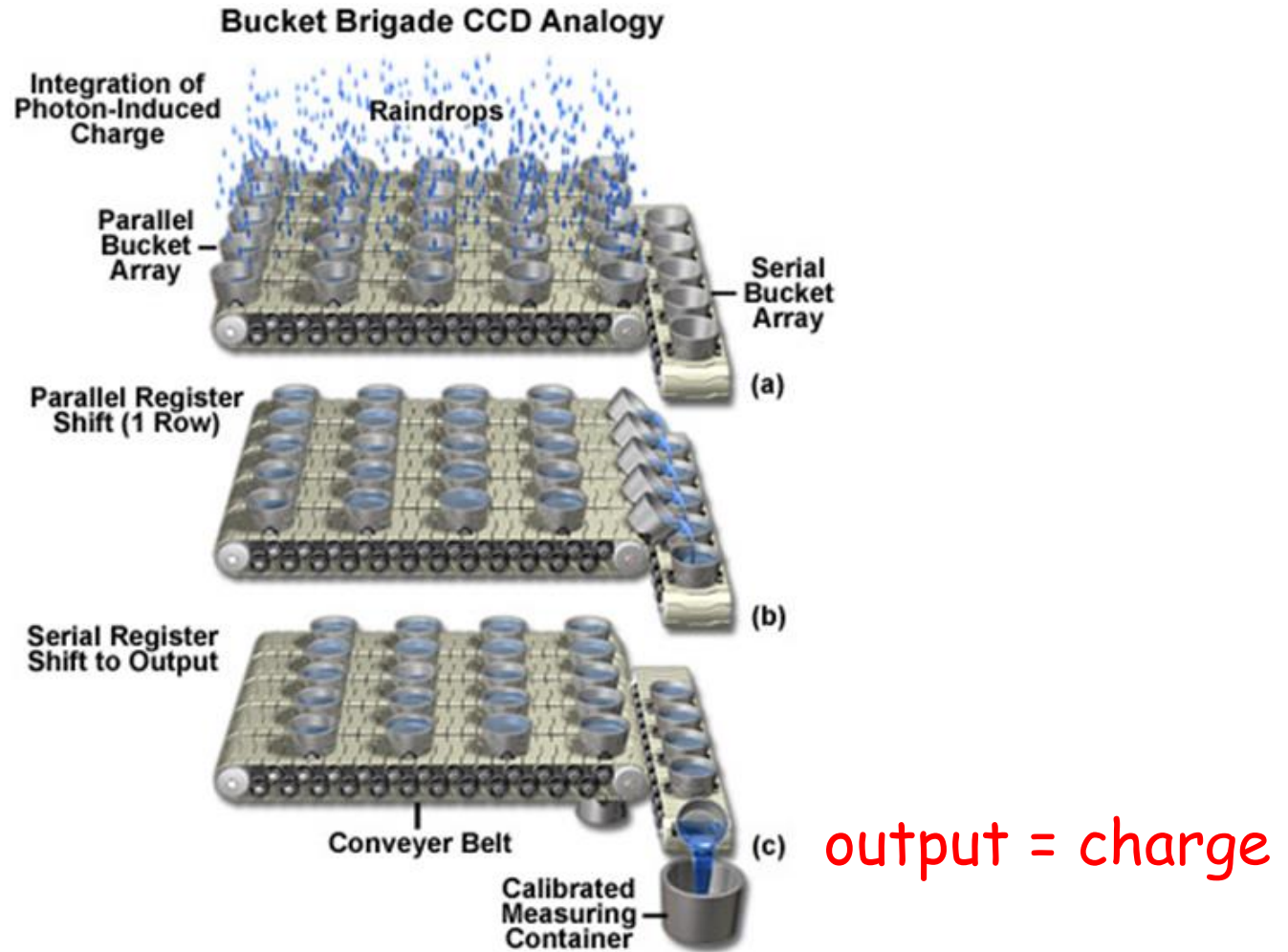


# CCD (Charge Coupled Device) sensor

## Charge Coupled Device



# CCD analogy





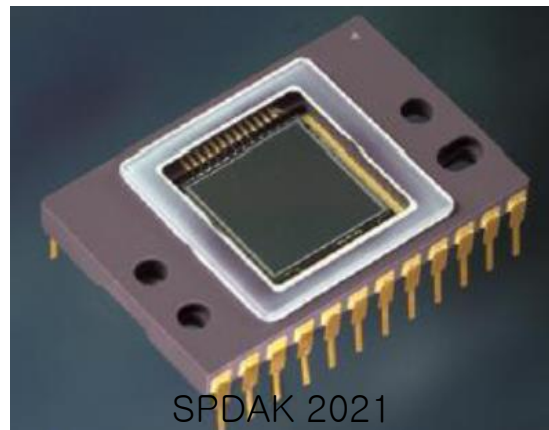
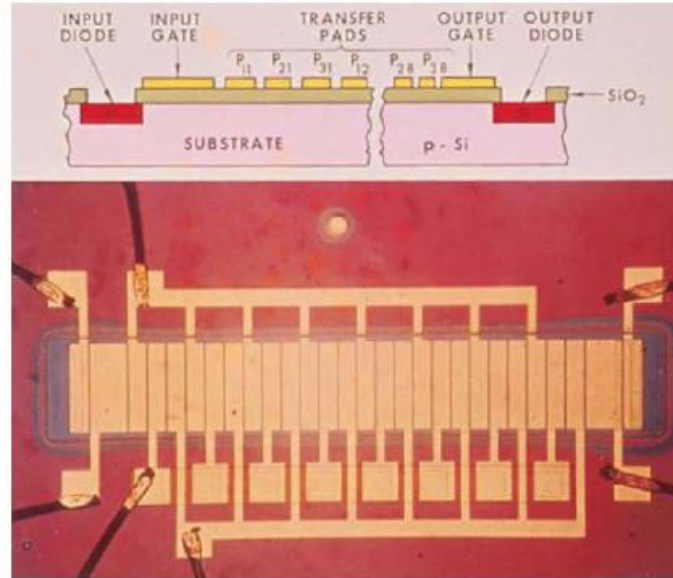
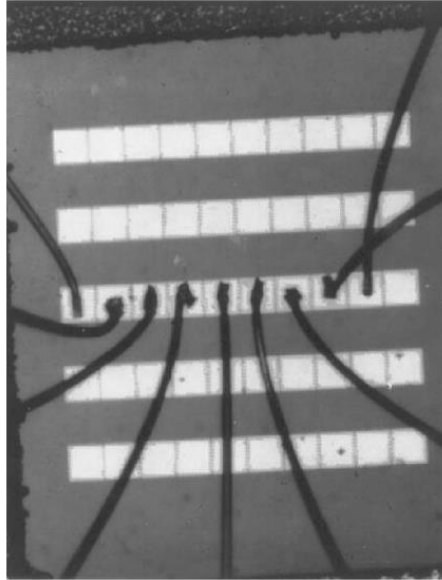
# CCD inventors (winners of Nobel prize in physics in 2010)

G. E. Smith & W.S. Boyle : invented CCD in 1970



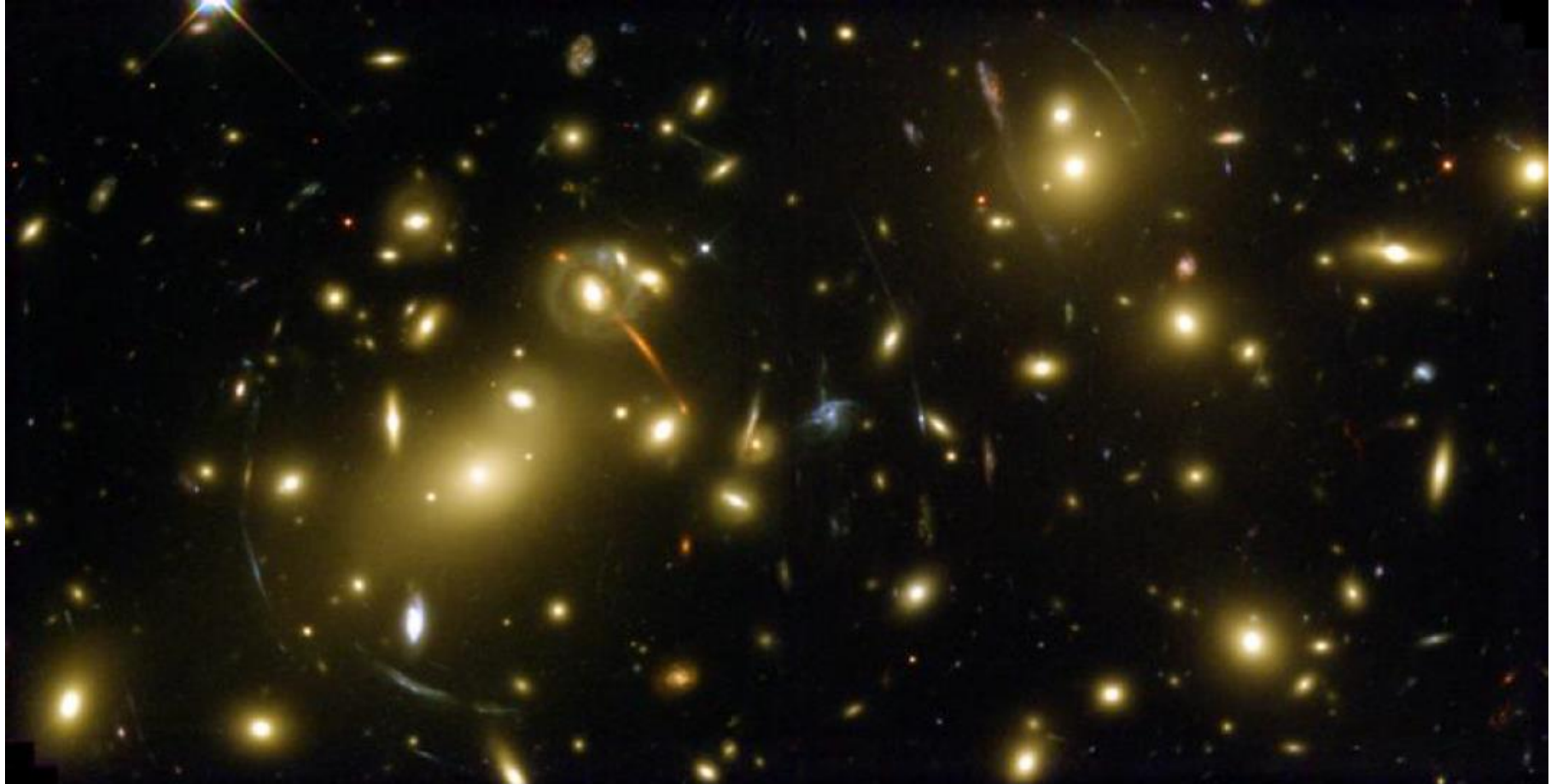
Having Fun @ Bell Lab in 1974 !

# How much advanced?



Kodak  
Mega pixel CCD  
~ 1cm<sup>2</sup>

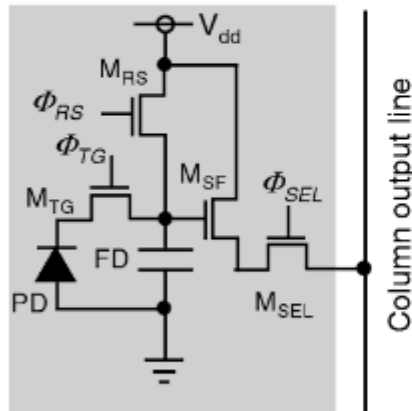
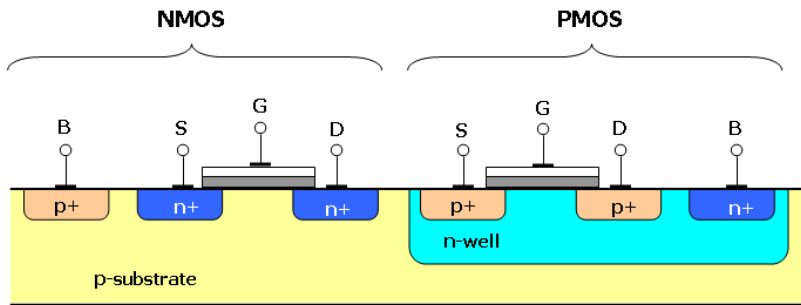
# CCD application in Astronomy/Astrophysics



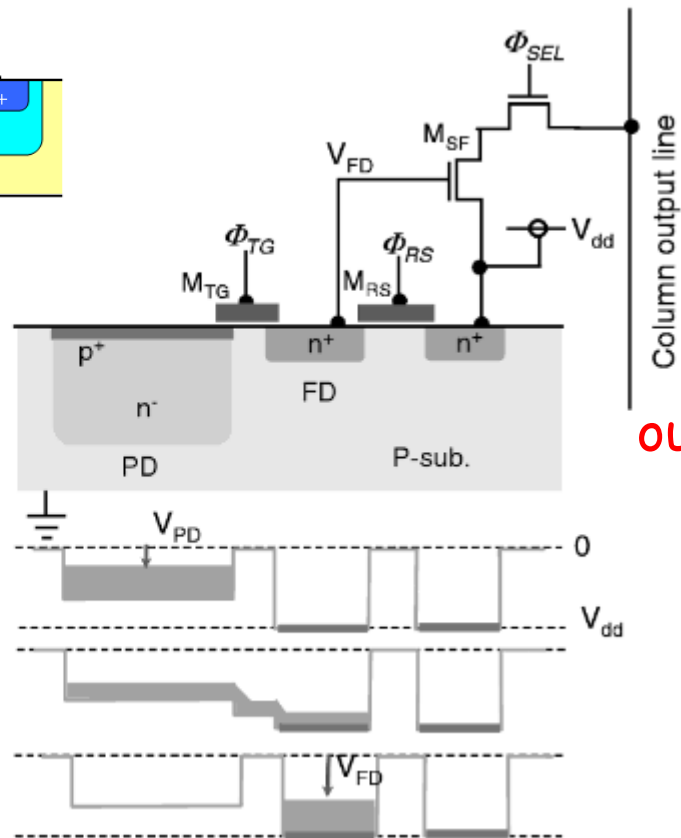
The galaxy cluster Abell 2218. *Image: WFPC2, Hubble Space Telescope, NASA.*

# CMOS sensor

CMOS : Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor



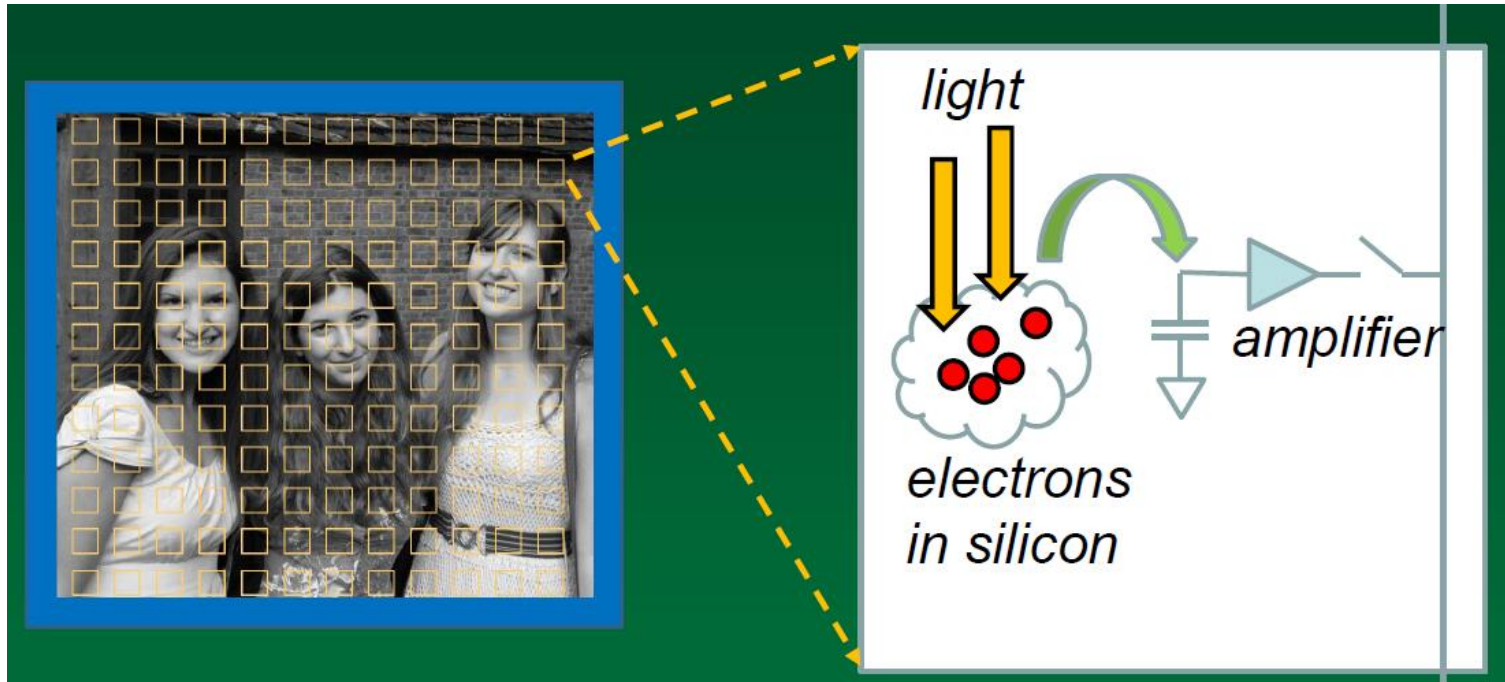
PD = Photo Diode



output = voltage

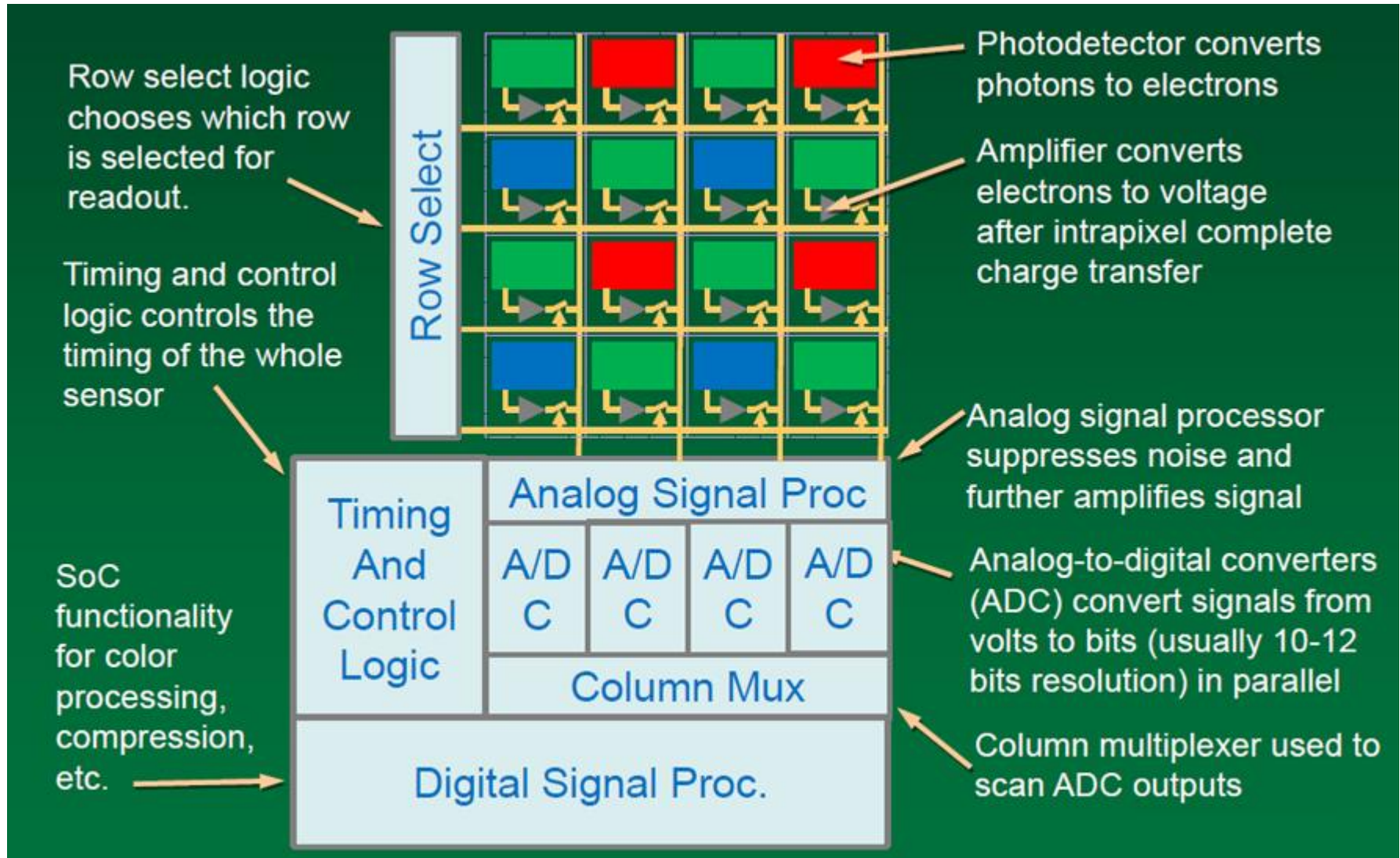
# A pixel in CMOS sensor

Amplifier converts charge signal to voltage signal !





# Layout of typical CMOS sensor



# CCD & CMOS summary

- 원칙적으로는 동일, 즉 포토다이오드 구조로, 광의 세기가 전하량으로 변환되고, 전하를 전압으로 변환 출력
- 변환기가 어디에 위치하는가가 두 센서의 근본적인 차이
  - 픽셀의 정보 이동 방법의 차이, 즉 **CCD**는 전하로 픽셀간 이동 최종 전압으로 변환, **CMOS**는 픽셀 단위에서 전압으로 변환하여 이동
- 잡음이 크고, 동적폭 (**dynamic range**) 및 속도에서 뛰어나지 않음
  - 동적폭 = Full Well Capacity / 잡음
  - Kodak Mega 픽셀 CCD 200,000 전자 / 20전자 = 100,000
- 광량이 적은 환경에서는 고민감도의 센서가 필요하나, **CCD와 CMOS는 증폭형 센서가 아니므로 야간 상황에서 그 성능에 한계**
- 우리의 눈의 민감도는 **CCD** 보다 우수함
  - **CCD** 민감도 ~ 0.03 Lux (냉각 시 0.002 Lux)

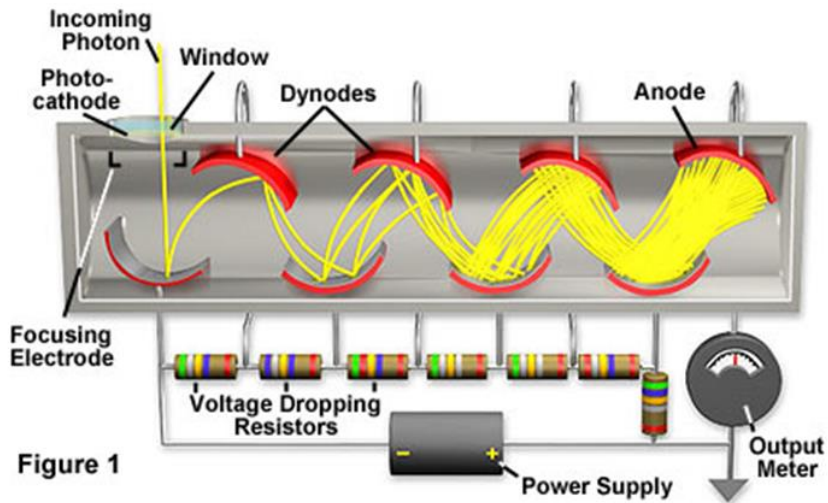


# Photomultiplier

- 정확히 말하면 광전자를 다수의 전자로 증폭
- 광음극(photocathode)과 함께 사용하는 PMT(Photomultiplier Tube)와 MCP(Microchannel Plate)가 대표적으로 단일 광자 계수 가능
- 반도체 소자에서는 센서 내부에서 광전자(photoelectron)를 증폭:  
**ICCD(Intensified CCD), EB(Electron Bombardment)CCD, EM(Electron Multiplier)CCD, APD(Avalanche Photodiode), SiPM(Silicon Photomultiplier)**

# Photomultiplier Tubes (PMTs)

- 초민감 초고속 특성을 갖는 광센서로 과거 수십년간 특수목적에 사용
- 그러나 진공관식으로 부피가 매우 크고, 충격에 취약하며 고전압을 필요로 하므로, 야전에서 내구성, 휴대성 및 실용성이 크게 떨어지며, 광량이 많아지면 소자가 파괴되는 문제



PMT의 원리와 Hamamatsu사 제품

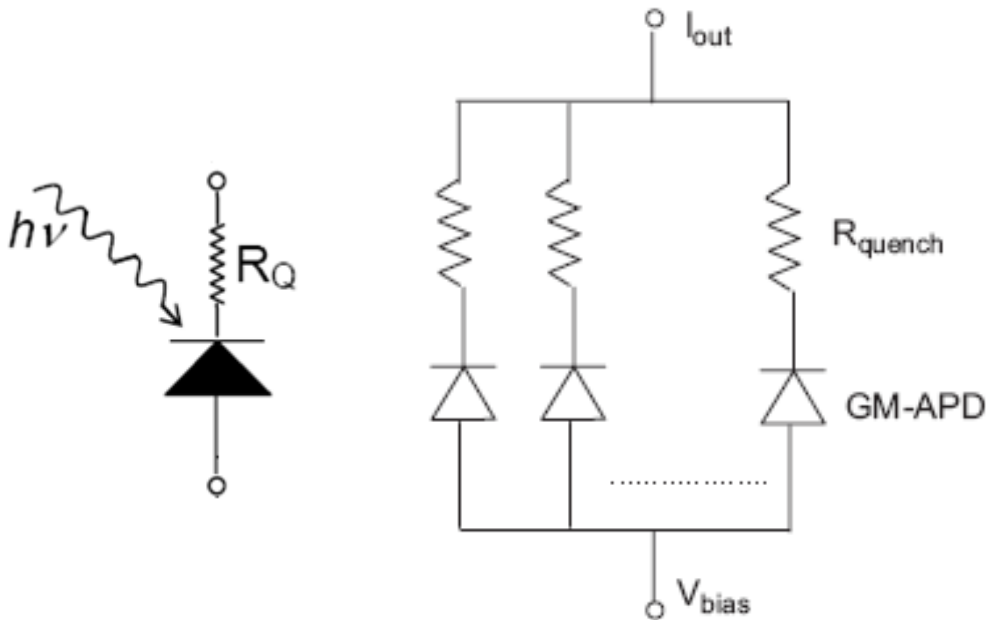
# 20 inch World largest PMT

For Super-K

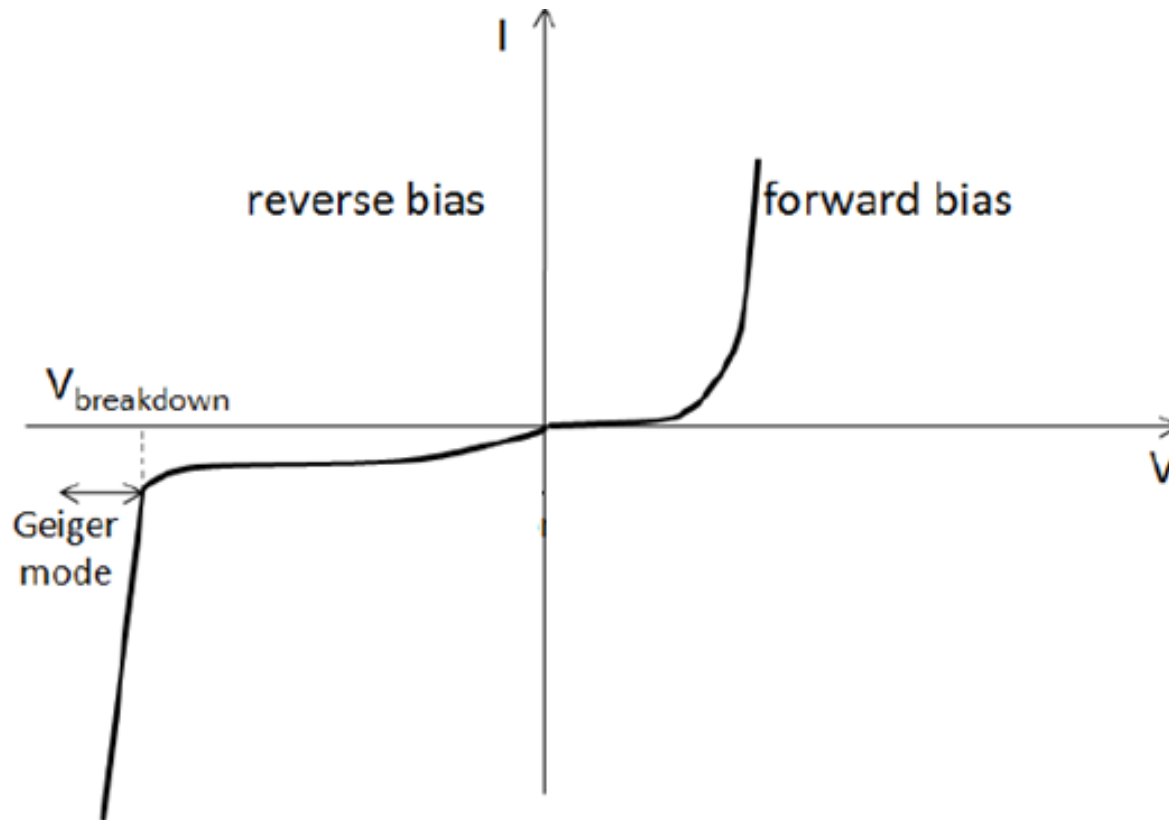


# SiPM (Silicon PhotoMultiplier)

- **Micropixel (Geiger mode APD)** 어레이로 이루어진 반도체 광다이오드
- **Micropixel**의 크기는  $10\sim 100\mu\text{m}$ 로  $1\text{mm}^2$ 의 면적당  $100\sim 1000$ 개 집적
- 각 **Micropixel** 은 공통의 인가전압과 로드 저항으로 작동, 출력신호는 모든 **Micropixel** 신호의 합(**multiplexed output**)
- 즉 **Binary**의 디지털소자로 입사광의 수를 세는 아날로그식의 광센서

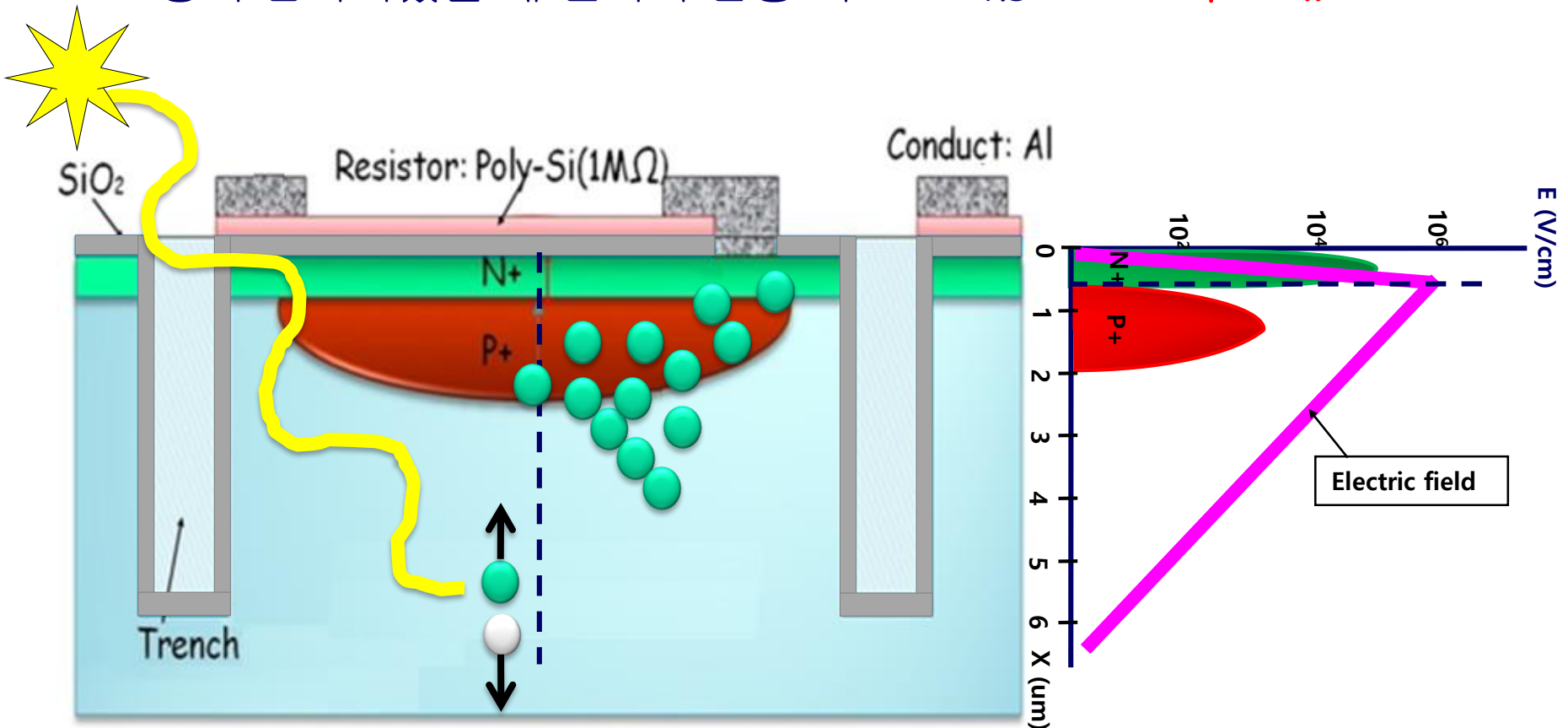


# Geiger Mode

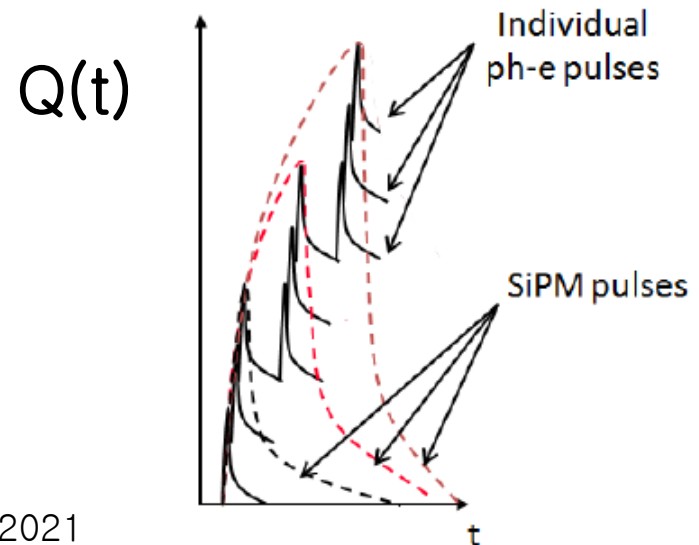
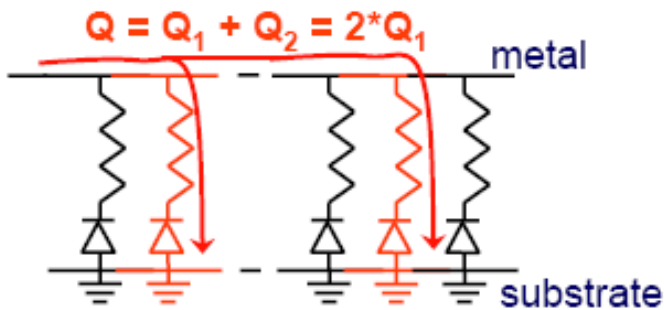
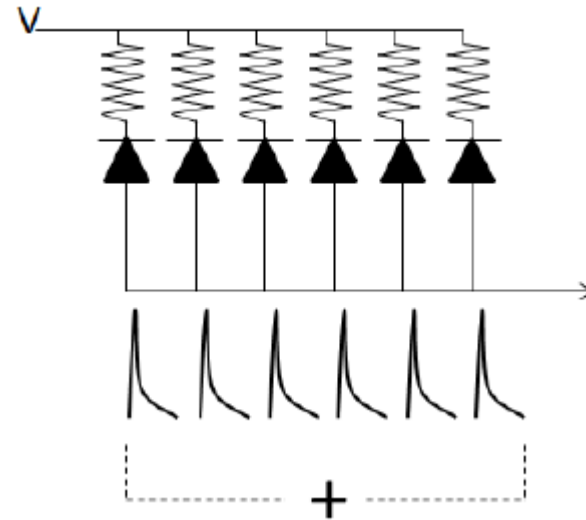
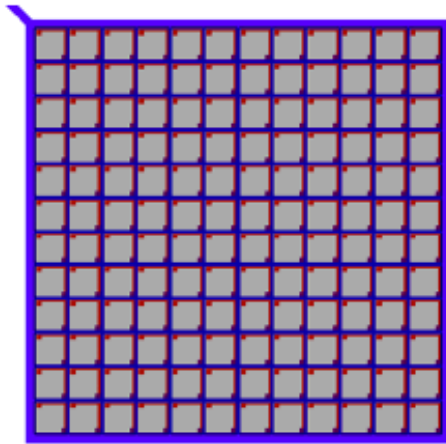


# SiPM

- PN 접합면에 매우 높은 전기장 형성
- 한 개의 광자 입사 -> **100만 배**의 전자증폭 발생 -> **초민감도 !!**
- 광이 입사되었을 때 센서의 반응 속도 -> **1ns 초고속도 !!**



# Analog Signal

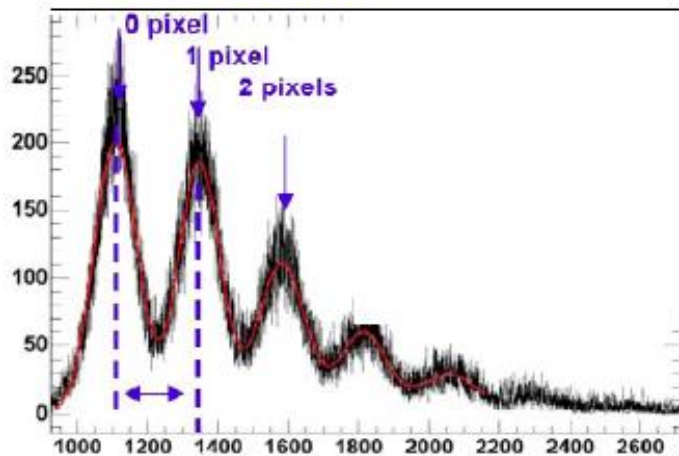




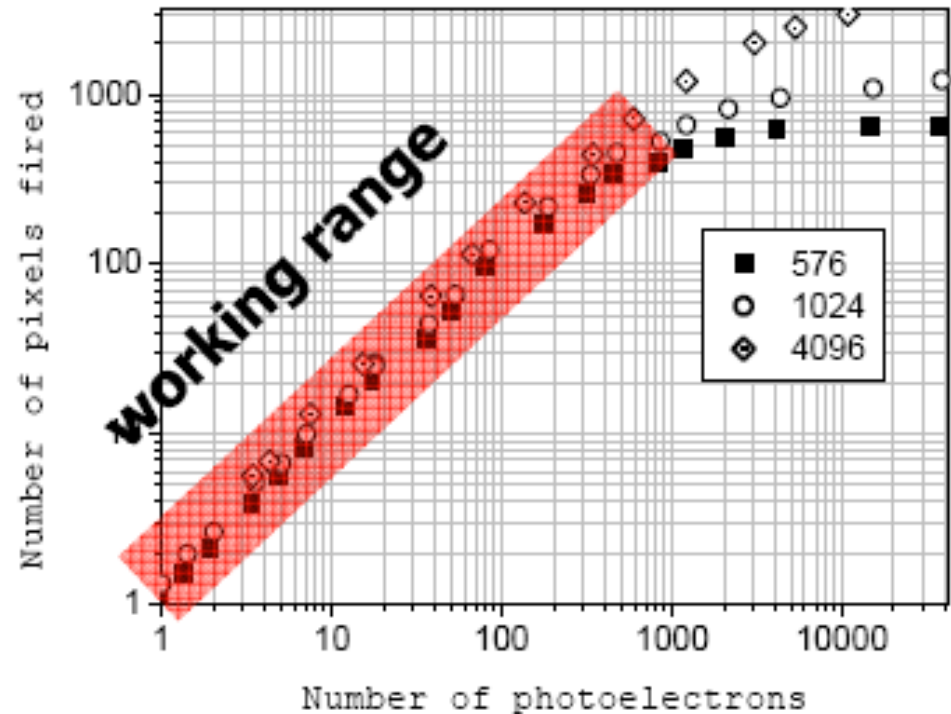
# Analog Signal & Dynamic/Working Range



Gain calibration



IRST of INFN Pisa

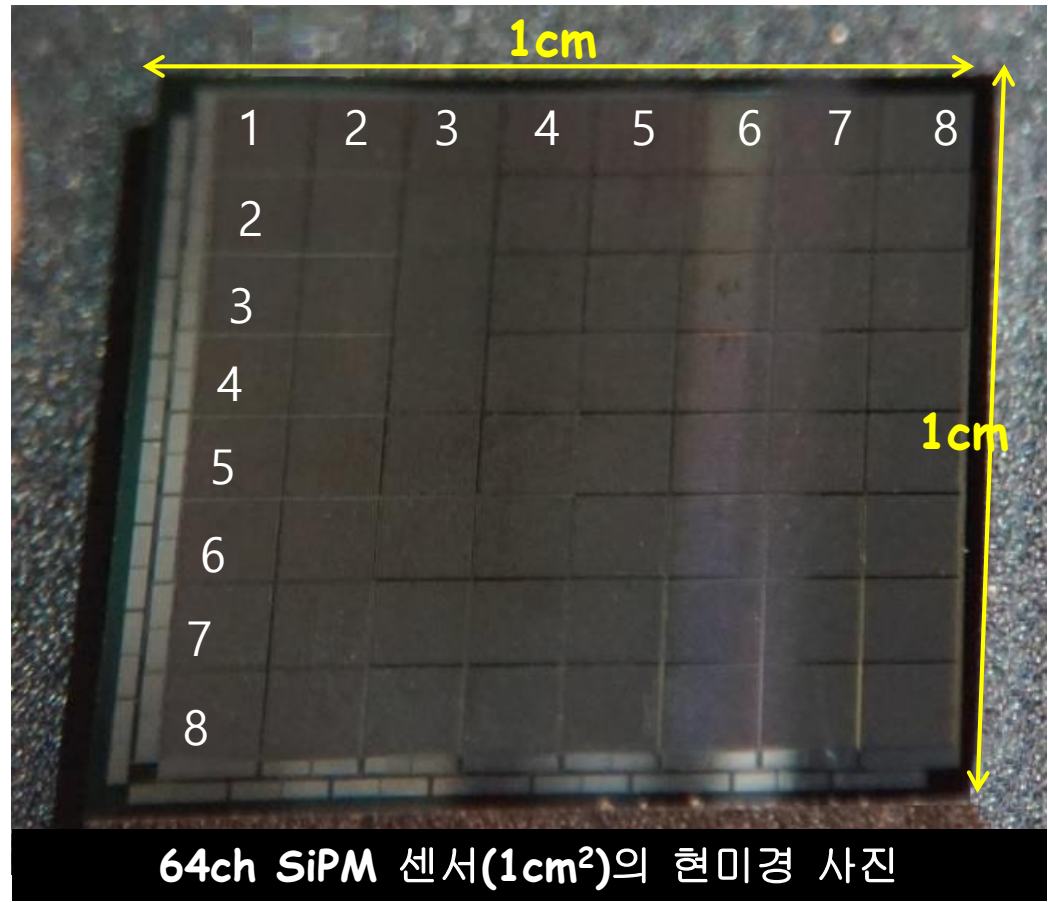
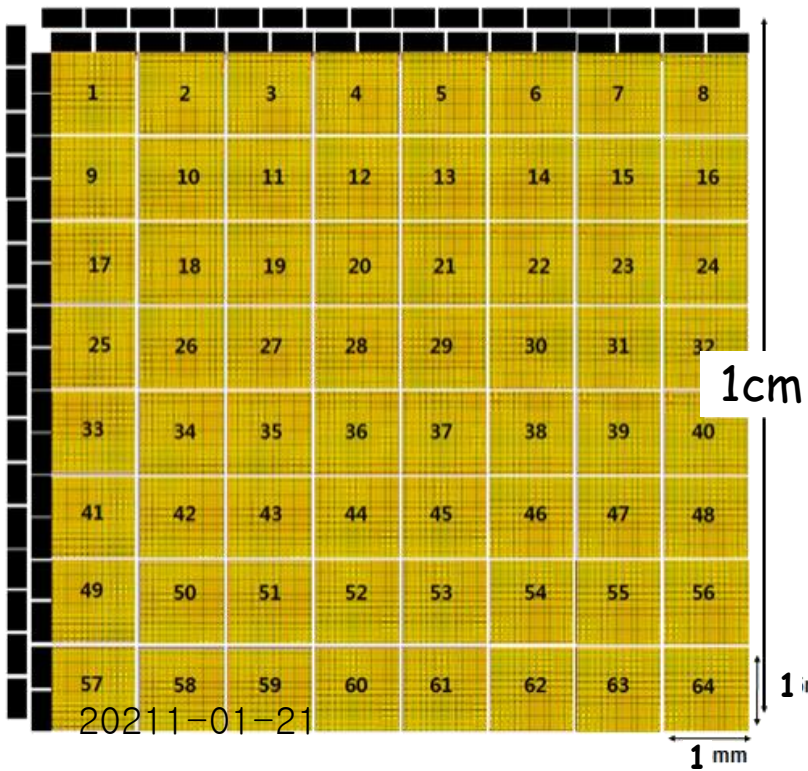


# 다화소용 8 × 8 픽셀 어레이 소자

- ◆ SiPM 픽셀 : 1 × 1 mm<sup>2</sup> 크기 (30×30μm<sup>2</sup> 크기, 10<sup>3</sup>개의 마이크로 픽셀)

- ◆ 64ch SiPM 소자 : 1 × 1 cm<sup>2</sup>

64ch 설계도  
1cm

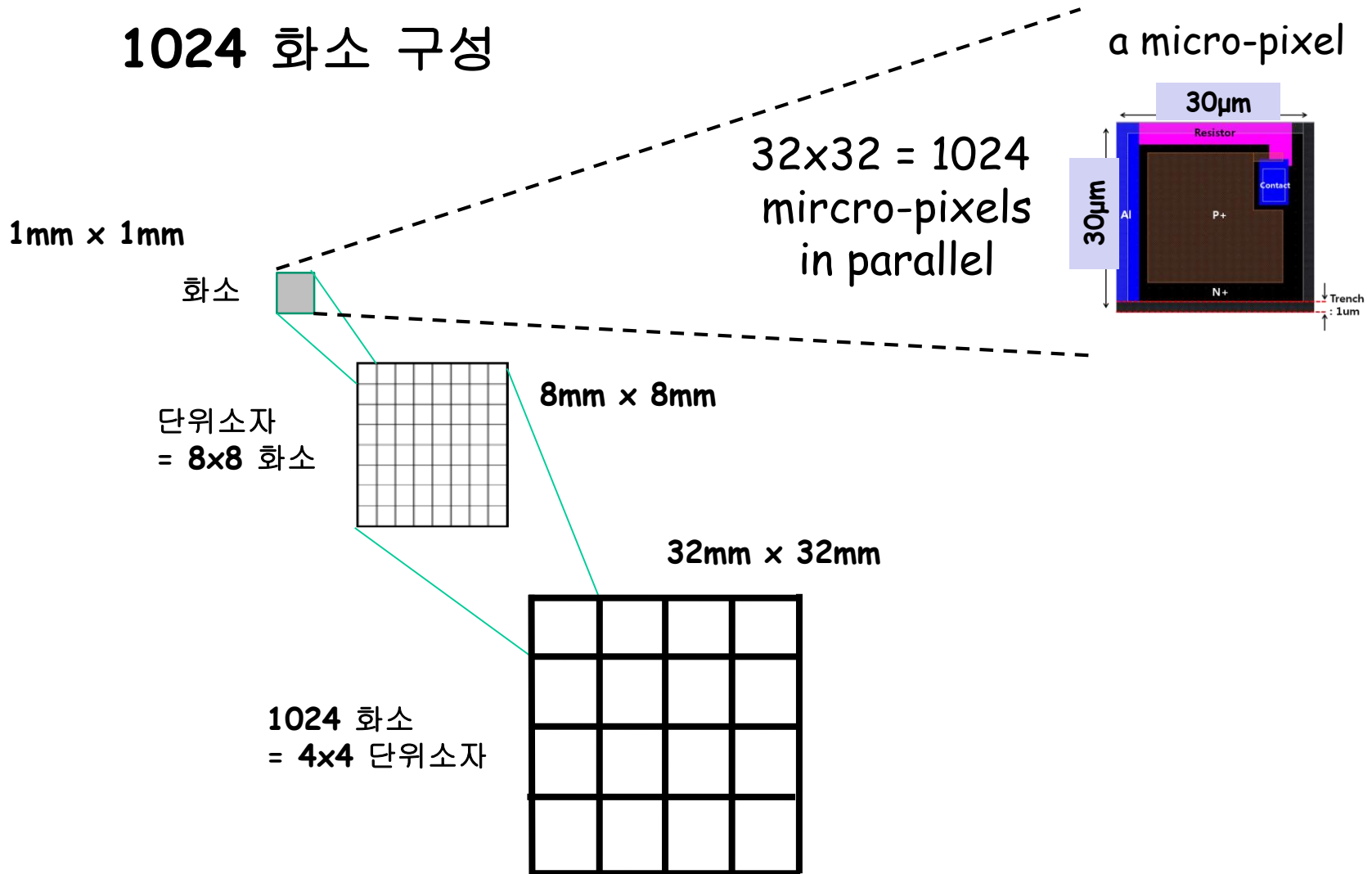


64ch SiPM 센서(1cm<sup>2</sup>)의 현미경 사진

20211-01-21

# 1024 화소 배열

## 1024 화소 구성

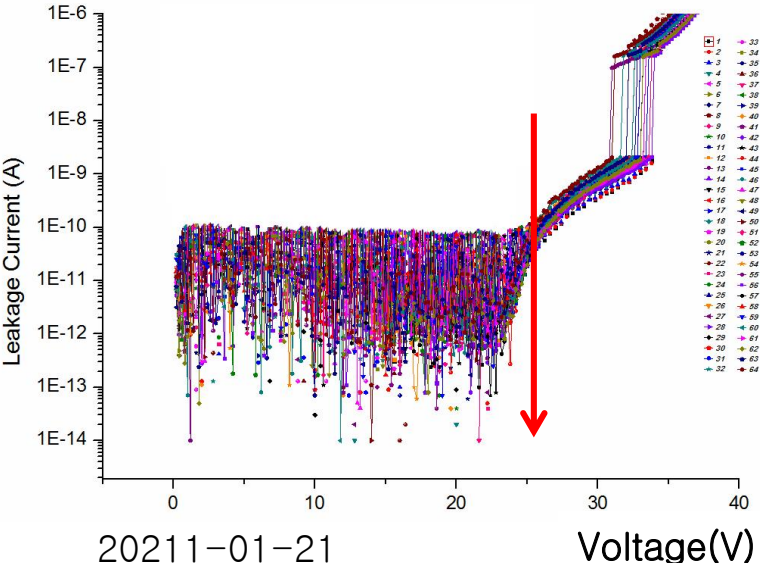


# 16개의 8 x 8 SiPM 픽셀 어레이로 구성된 다화소 (1024-ch)

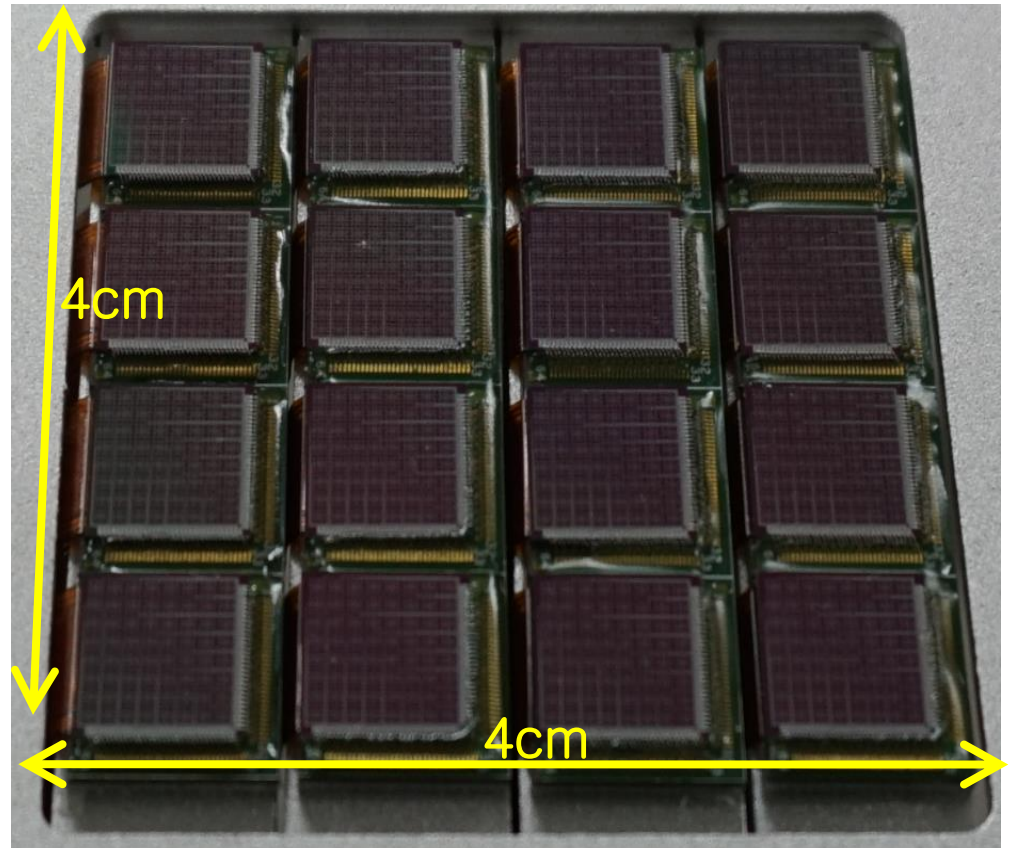
- ◆ 1단계 SiPM 픽셀 1024ch 제작  
: 1 x 1 mm<sup>2</sup> 크기  
(30x30μm<sup>2</sup>크기, 10<sup>3</sup>개의 마이크로 픽셀)

- ◆ 64ch SiPM 소자 : 1 x 1 cm<sup>2</sup>

항복전압 균일  
->  
Multi channel test

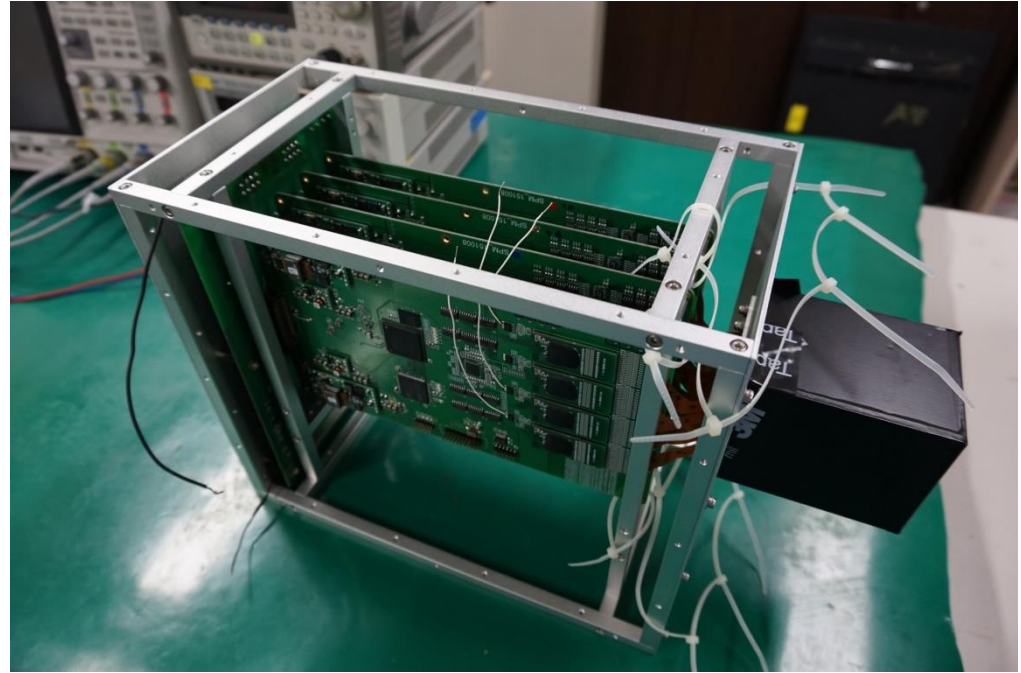
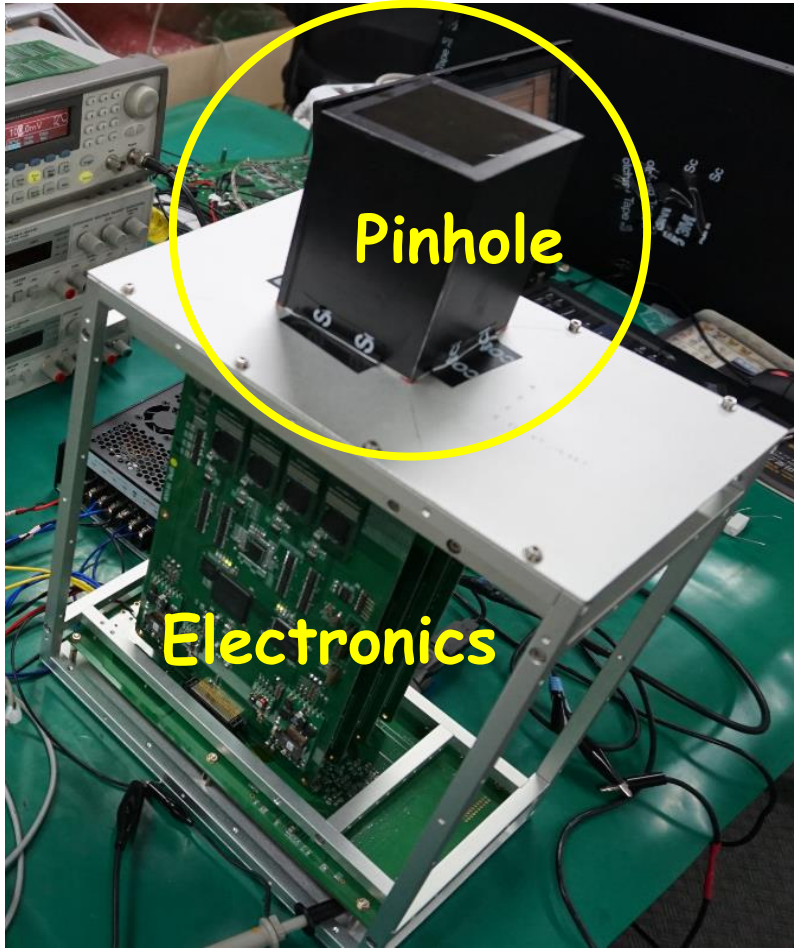


## 1024-ch



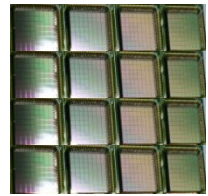
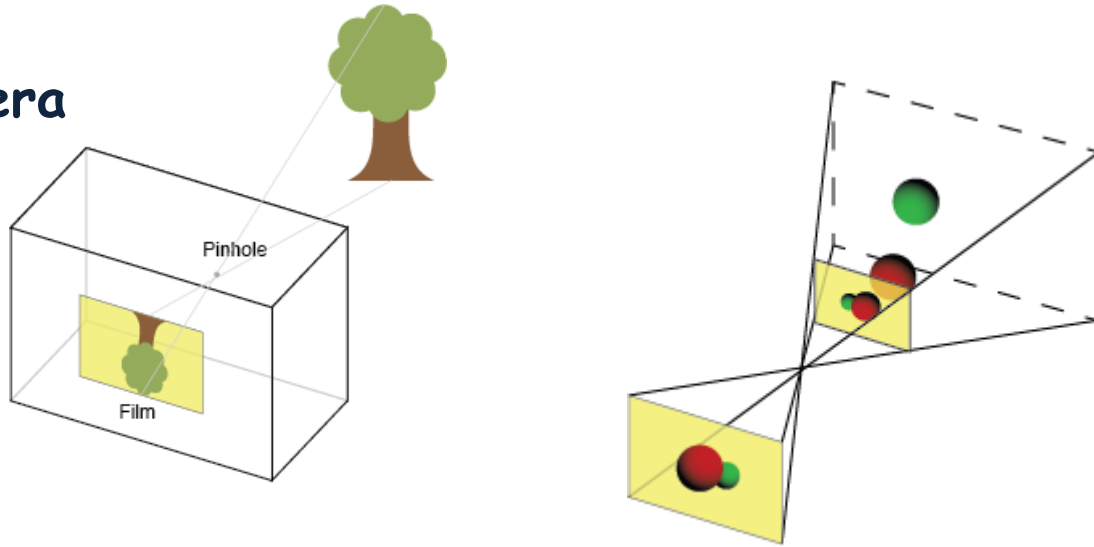


# 1024-ch SiPM + 신호처리장치 + Pinhole



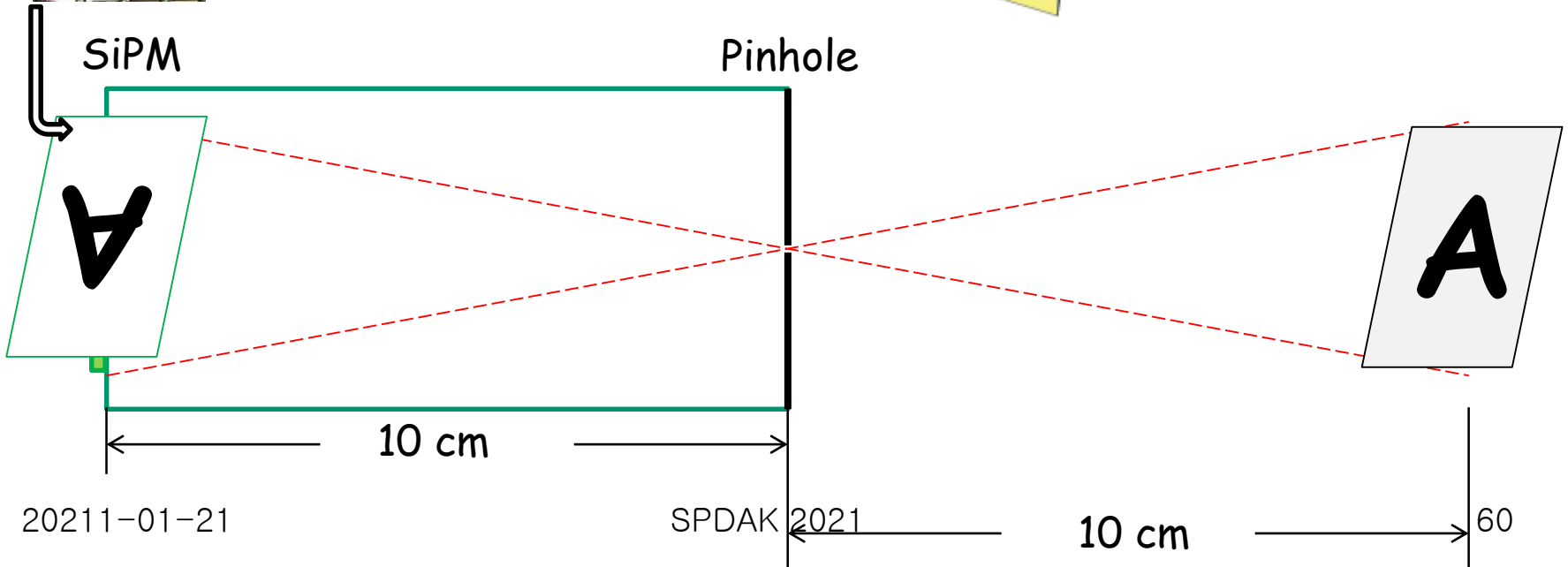
# Image Test

Pinhole Camera



SiPM

Pinhole



20211-01-21

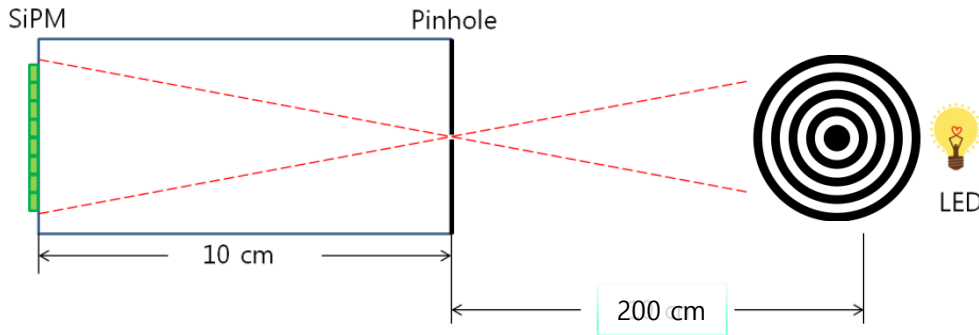
SPDAK 2021

10 cm

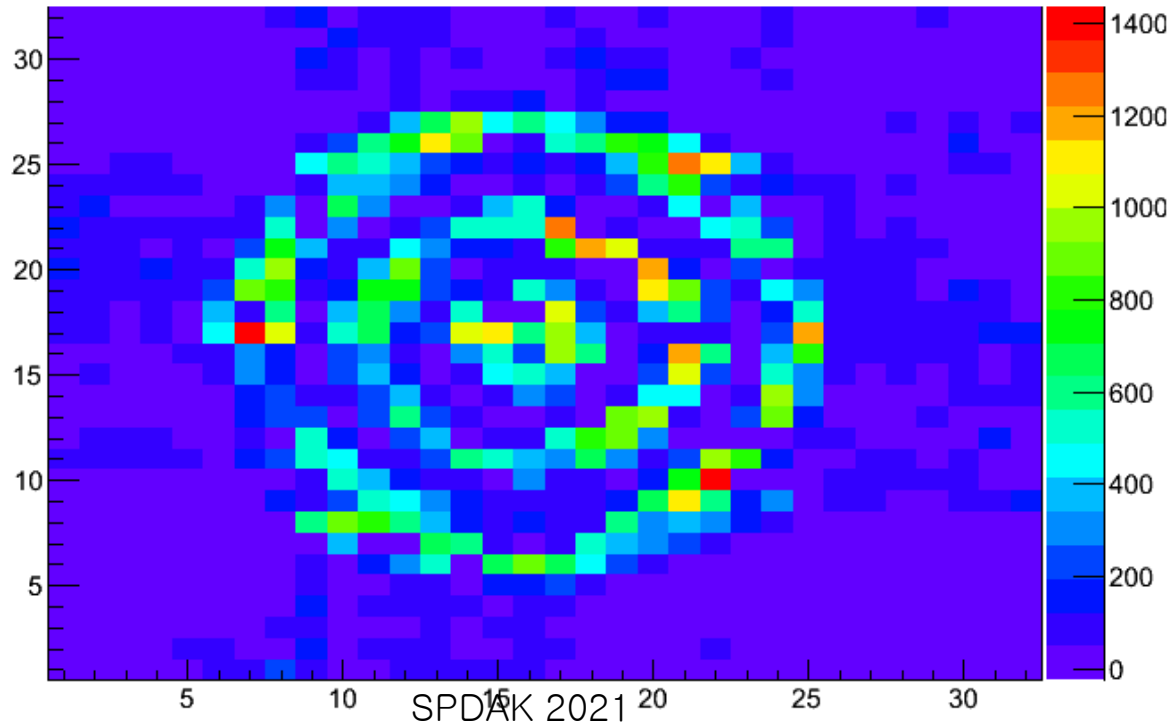
60

# Image Test

## Pinhole Camera



**Absolutely Dark!**  
**CCD or CMOS cameras**  
**can NOT get this image!**





## 5. Summary

# Summary

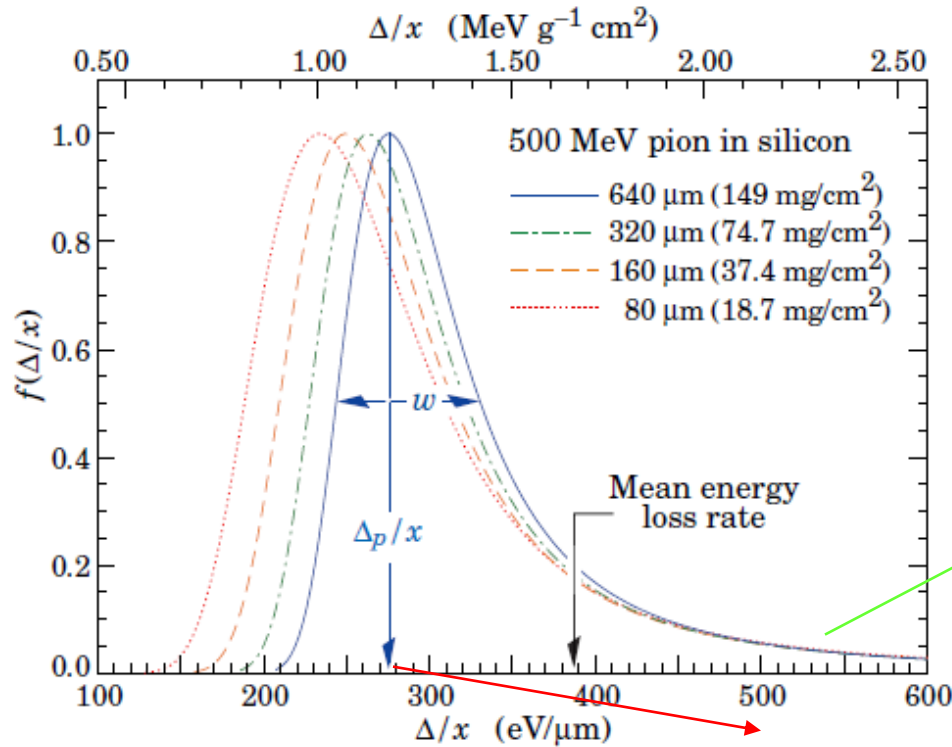
- Silicon is one of most popular material for radiation detection in the fields of Particle physics/Astro-particle physics
  - Charged particle detection
  - Photon detection
- During Lab, try to understand
  - C-V & I-V characteristics of silicon detectors
  - Responses (signals) of silicon detector to radiation sources or cosmic muons
    - Signal as a function of  $V_{\text{bias}}$  ?

**Back-up slides**

# dE/dx is of random nature

From Review of Particle Physics

Probability density function  $\sim$  Landau Function

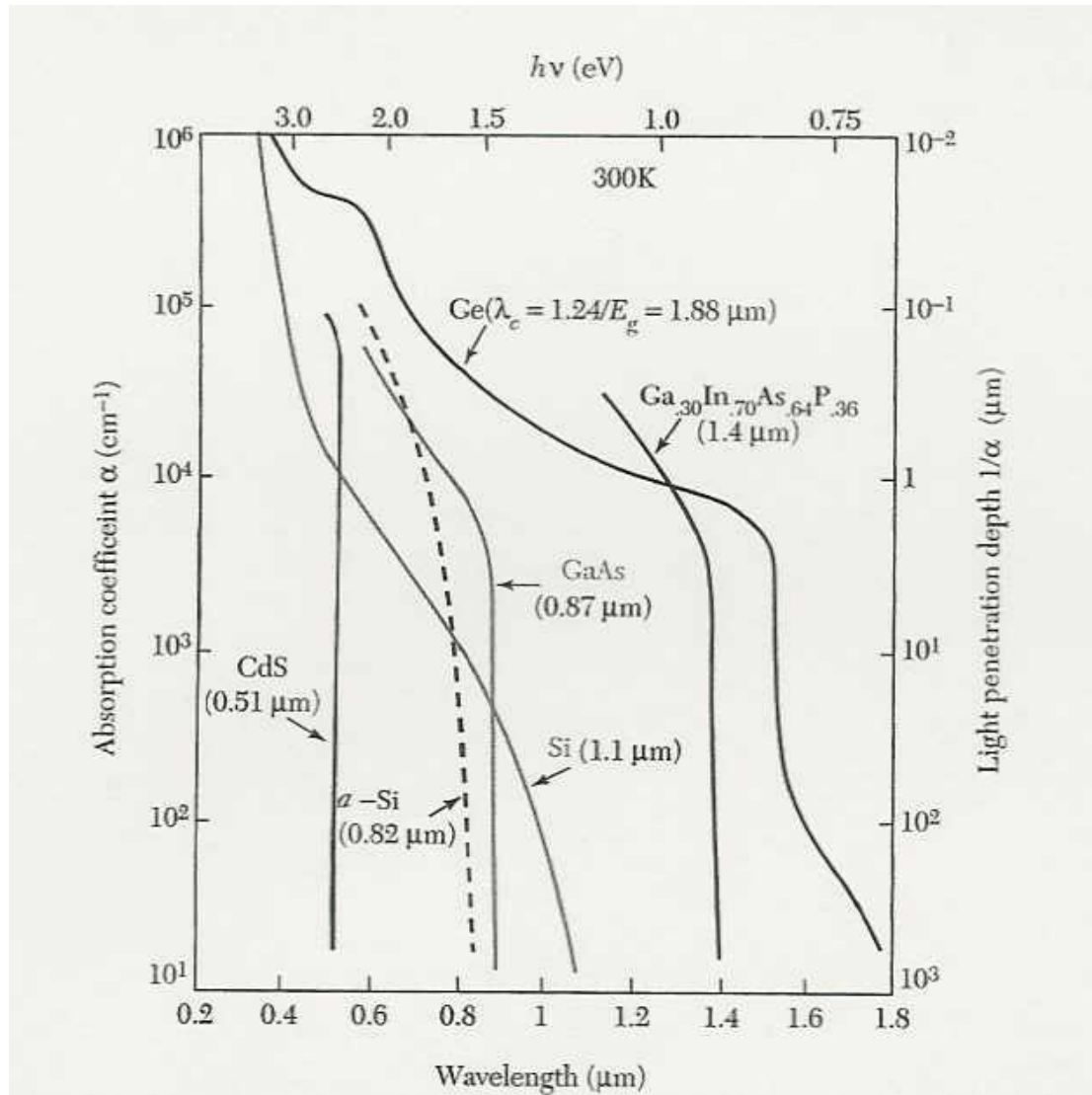


Due to  $\delta$  rays: Knock-on electrons

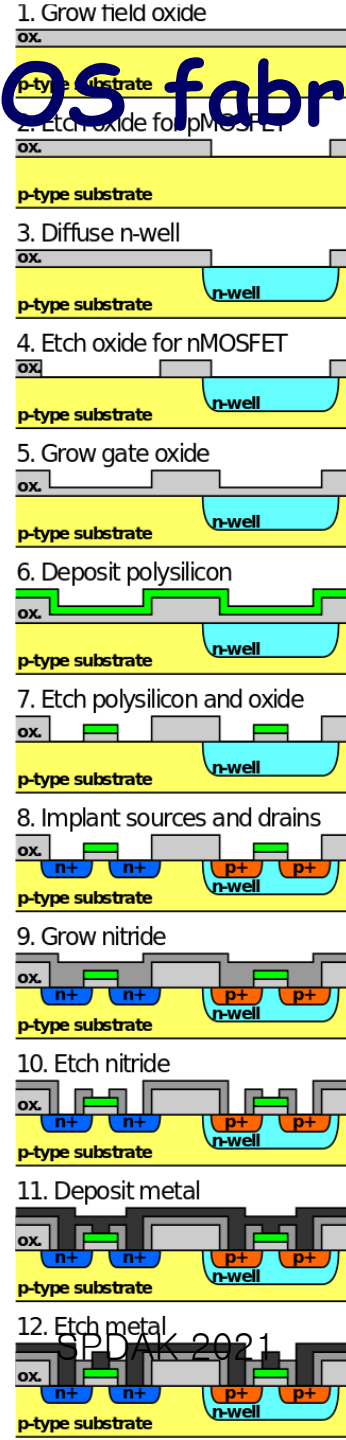
Most probable dE/dx

Landau function  $f_L(\lambda) = 1/\pi \int_0^\infty du \exp[-u(\ln u + \lambda)] \sin \pi u$

# Absorption Coefficient



# Example of CMOS fabrication process



From  
<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/CMOS>