

RADIATION DETECTORS: IMAGING WHAT YOU CANNOT SEE



Cinzia Da Vià

The University of Manchester, UK & Stony Brook University USA

Some Information about myself

- Professor at The University of Manchester (UK)
- Visiting Professor at the University of Stony Brook, New York, USA
- Member of the ATLAS Collaboration at CERN – LHC
- Chief editor Frontiers in Physics, Radiation detectors and Imaging
- IEEE WIE International Committee Member @WIE@25 Chair
- Member of the IEEE TAB Program on Climate Change
- IEEE NPSS WIE Liaison
- Distinguished Lecturer and Organizer of the IEEE NPSS Instrumentation School

Scientific Interests:

- Radiation Detector development : silicon pixels, fast timing
- Radiation effects in silicon, Lazarus effect
- 3D sensors for high energy physics and other applications
- 3D printed detectors, Vertical integrated microsystems
- Quantum Imaging



*With Joyce Mwangama
WIE South Africa and
R8 WIE Rep 2018
Organizing a WIE event with local students
Cape Town July 2018*

Imaging radiation ..



Web cams



Smart phones



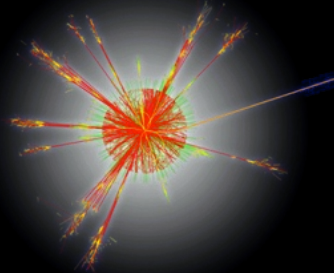
photo cameras



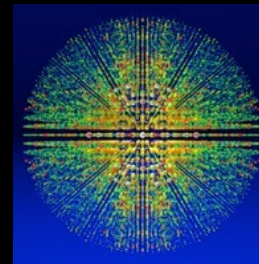
machine vision, automotive, security etc...



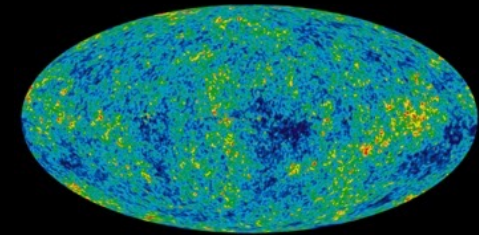
Medical imaging



HEP



x-ray crystallography

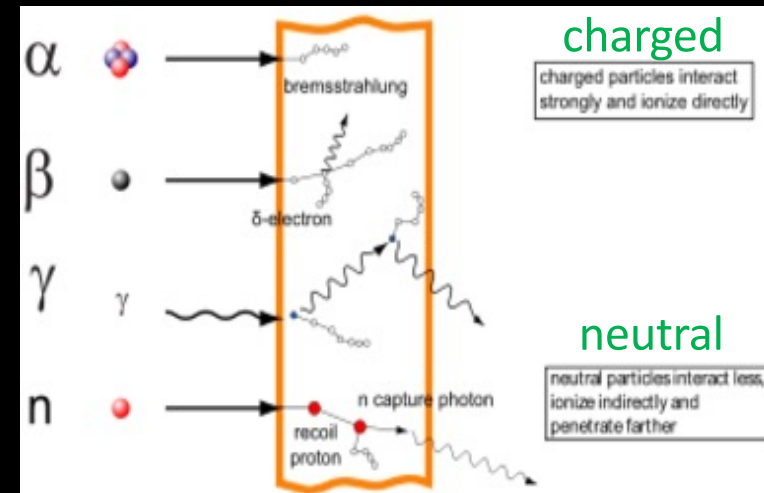
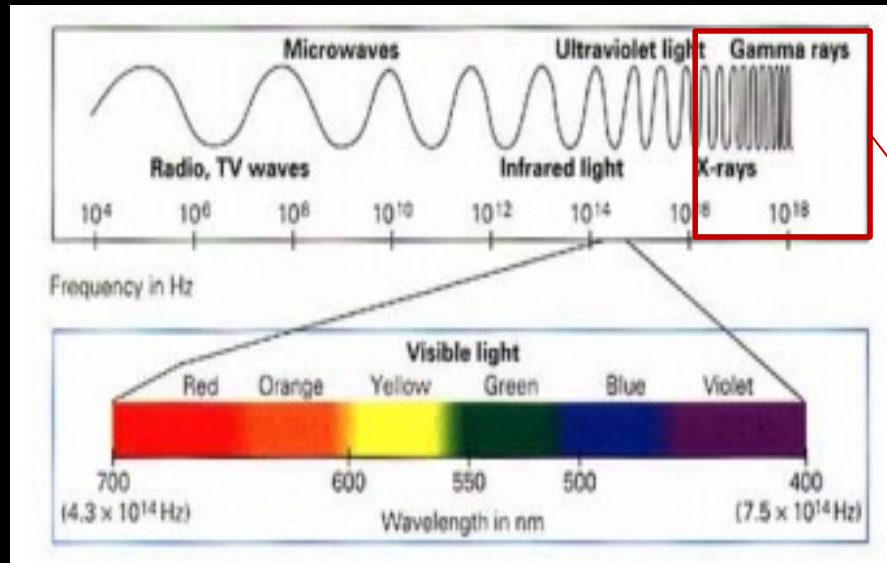


cosmology

mass spectroscopy, neutrons, electrons, TOF, SEM/TEM etc...

What is Radiation and its interaction with matter

Radiation can be defined as the propagation of energy through space or matter in the form of electromagnetic waves or energetic particles.

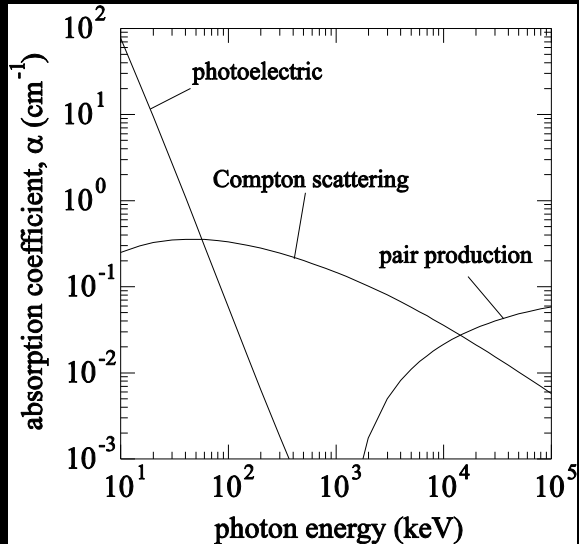


When radiation interacts with matter:

Non-ionizing does not have enough energy to ionize atoms but **generate heat** in the material it interacts with. At high energy it becomes ionizing

Ionizing has the ability to knock an electron from an atom, i.e. to ionize..

Interaction of radiation with matter



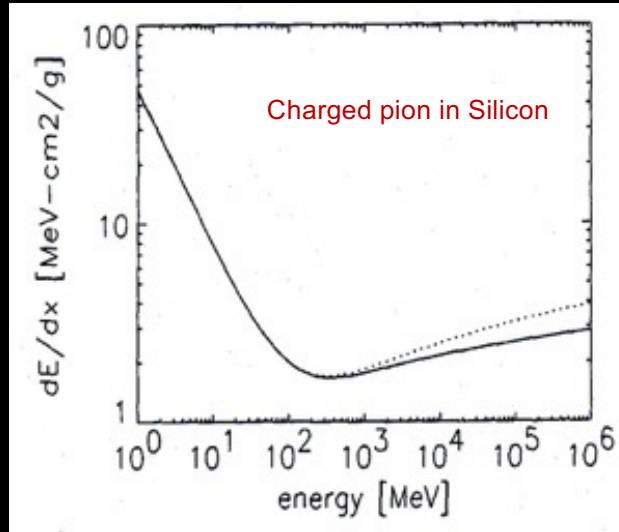
Photons:

There are 3 main modes of interaction:

- Photoelectric absorption
- Electron scattering
- Pair production

Lambert-Beer's law

$$\phi(x) = \phi_0 \cdot e^{-\alpha x}$$



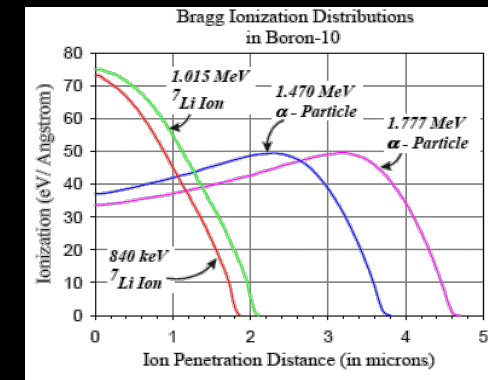
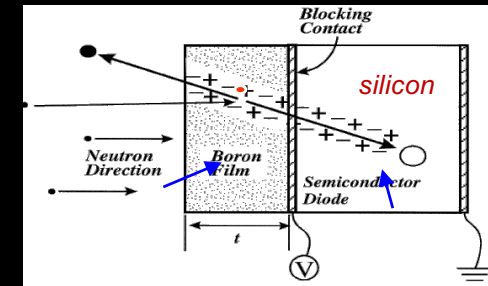
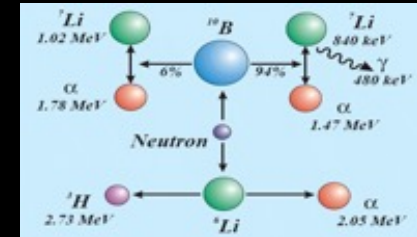
Ionizing particles:

Bethe-Bloch equation:

average/mean amount of energy lost due to ionization per unit of distance in the media)

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

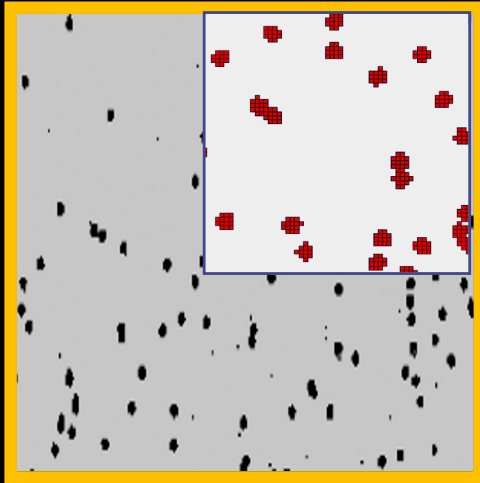
$$n = \frac{N_A \cdot Z \cdot \rho}{A \cdot M_u}$$



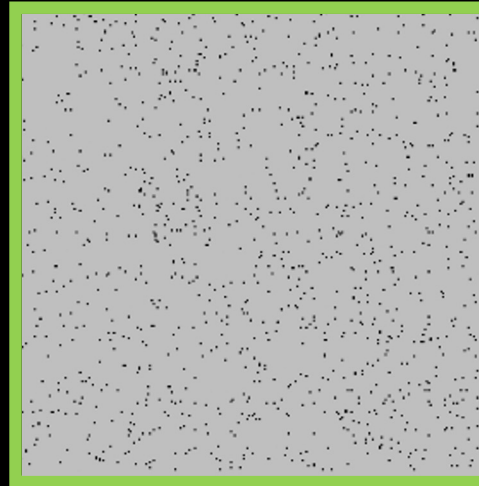
Neutrons: Alpha Bragg peak

Particle “signatures” with the Timepix readout electronics

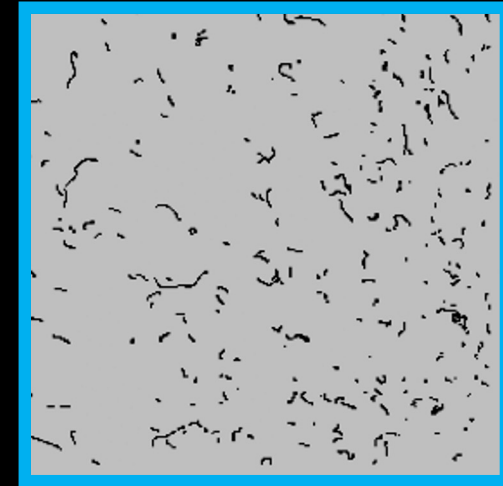
α



5 KeV X-rays



2MeV electrons



- ◆ ^{241}Am alpha source gives clusters of $\sim 5 \times 5$ pixels measured with the MEDIPIX-USB device and a $300 \mu\text{m}$ thick silicon sensor. The clusters are shown in detail in the inset. The cluster sizes depend on particle energy and threshold setting.
- ◆ Signature of X-rays from a ^{55}Fe X-ray source. Photons yield single pixel hits or hits on 2 adjacent pixels due to charge sharing.
- ◆ A ^{90}Sr beta source produces curved tracks in the silicon detector.
- ◆ A pixel counter is used just to say “YES” if individual quantum of radiation generates in the pixel a charge above the pre-selected threshold

How things started...

Experiments in Gas Discharge tubes

Faraday
Eugene
Geissler
William Crookes

1896 : Therapeutic use of X-rays
1903 : Authored first textbook of radiotherapy

A five yr old girl with pigmented hairy naevus all over her back treated and cured, then lived upto 75 yrs.

Leopold Freund

1897 : Discovery of Electrons by J . J . Thompson

Received Nobel Prize in Physics 1906

1899: Discovery of α & β particles (E. Rutherford)
1900: Proposal of Radioactive Decay & Half life

Received Noble prize in Chemistry 1908 for "Disintegration theory" of elements

Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen: Discovery of X-ray (November 8, 1895)

1896 Becquerel discovers spontaneous radioactivity

The Nobel Prize in Physics 1903.....awarded to Antoine Henri Becquerel "in recognition of the extraordinary services he has rendered by his discovery of spontaneous radioactivity"

1898: Discovery of Radium And Polonium

Marie and Pierre Curie shared 1903 Nobel prize in physics with Becquerel

1800es

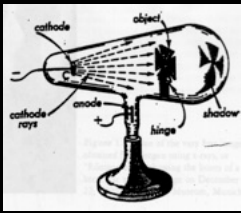
1895

1896

1897

1898

1899



Hittorf-Crookes tube



Power off.

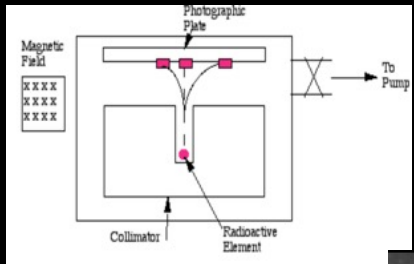


Without magnet, rays travel straight.

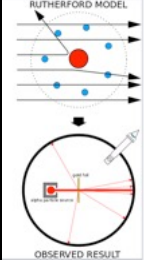
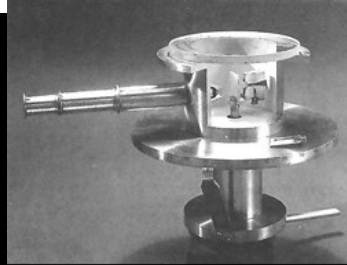


With magnet, rays are bent down.


Photographic plate Used to study "x-rays".. But they deflected with B-field



1908-1913 Geiger-Masden Apparatus Or Rutherford Gold foil Experiment proved the atomic structure

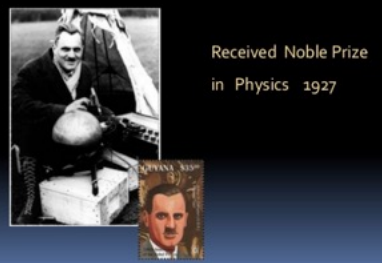


1903: Noble Prize in medicine for Neils Ryberg Finsen



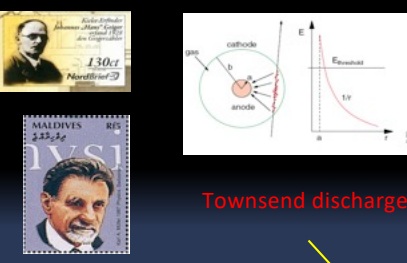
Used UV rays to treat Lupus Vulgaris, which also used to treat cancer later on.

1922: Discovery of Compton Scattering



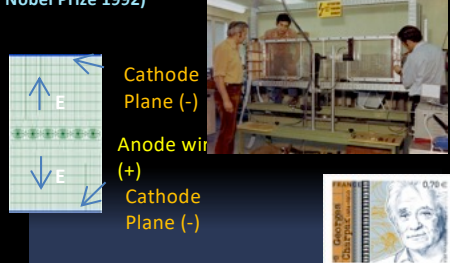
Received Noble Prize in Physics 1927

The Geiger-Müller tube (1928 by Hans Geiger and Walther Müller)



Townsend discharge

Multi Wire Proportional Chamber (MWPC)(1968 by Georges Charpak, Nobel Prize 1992)



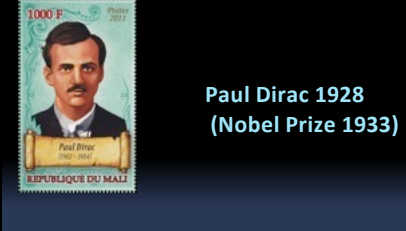
Cathode Plane (-)
Anode wire (+)
Cathode Plane (-)

1905 Photo electric effect

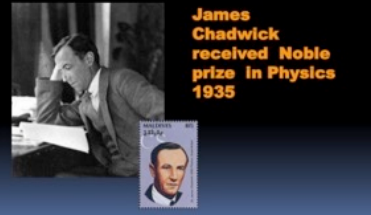


Albert Einstein was awarded with Noble prize in Physics 1921

Paul Dirac 1928 (Nobel Prize 1933)

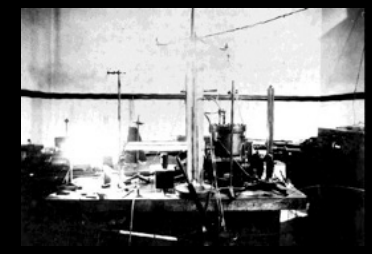


1932 : Discovery of Neutron



James Chadwick received Noble prize in Physics 1935

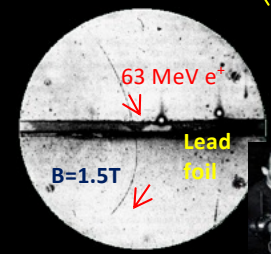
1903 1905 1911 1922 1928 1932 1934 1968



In 1914, Robert Millikan's experiment confirmed Einstein's law on photoelectric effect by measuring the electric charge of the electron (Oil drop experiment)



Cloud chamber (1911 by Charles T. R. Wilson, Nobel Prize 1927)



Carl D. Anderson 1932 (Nobel Prize 1936)



1934: Photo-Multiplier Tube Invented by Harley Iams and Bernard Salzberg (RCA Cooperation)



The semiconductor revolution 1947

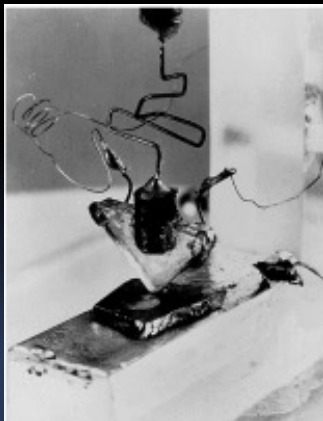


First transistor invented 1947 by William B. Shockley, John Bardeen and Walter Brattain (Nobel Prize 1956)

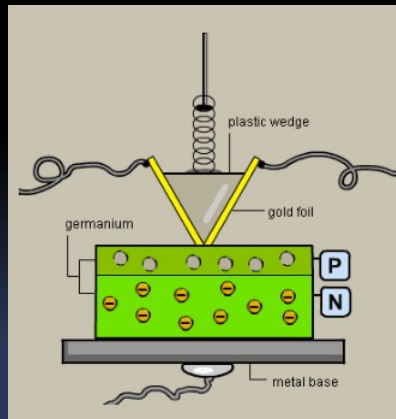
First semiconductor particle sensor: Pieter Jacobus Van Heerden, *The Crystalcounter: A New Instrument in Nuclear Physics*. University Math Naturwiss, Fak (1945).

CCD Nobel prize Boyle Smith 2009

Semiconductor a material that has a conductivity between a conductor and an insulator; electricity can pass through it, but not very easily

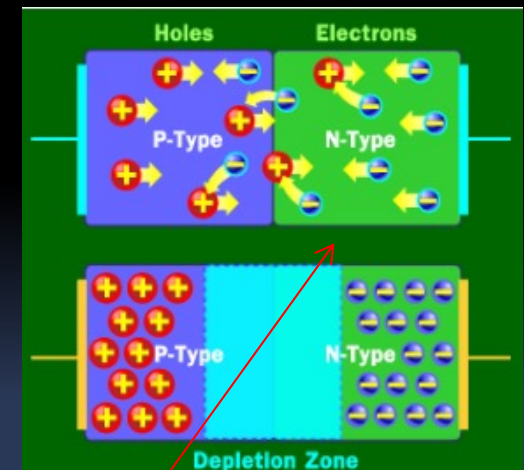


The point contact germanium transistor



p-n junction

Depleted region
particle yes/no



particle

Why Silicon is still the most used material

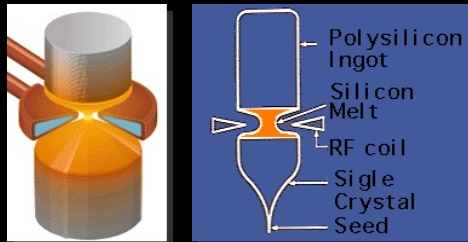
- ❖ Semiconductor with Low ionization energy → big signal
The band gap is 1.12 eV, but it takes 3.6 eV to ionize an atom. The remaining energy goes to phonon excitations (heat)
- ❖ High purity → long carrier lifetime
- ❖ High mobility → fast charge collection
- ❖ Low Z → Z=14 low multiple scattering but low x-ray detection efficiency
- ❖ Oxide (SiO₂) has excellent electrical properties
- Good mechanical properties → Easily patterned to small dimensions
- Can be operated in air and at room temperature (before irradiation – afterwards requires cooling)
- Industrial experience and commercial applications
- **Silicon is abundant! Over 90% of the Earth's crust is composed of silicate minerals**
making silicon the second most abundant element in the Earth's crust (about 28% by mass) after oxygen

Parameter	cBN	hBN	Diamond	AlN	GaN	3C-SiC	GaAs	Si
Energy Bandgap (eV)	6.4	5.2	5.45	6.2	3.39	3.00	1.43	1.12
Electron Mobility (cm ² /Vs)	280	-	2200	300	440	400	8500	1500
Hole Mobility (cm ² /Vs)	-	-	1600	30	~20	50	400	600
Thermal Conductivity (W/cm K)	13	a = 6.0 c = 0.3	20	2.9	1.3	5	0.46	1.5
Breakdown (× 10 ⁵ Vcm ⁻¹)	~80	~80	100	~80	~80	40	60	3
Lattice Constant (Å)	3.615	a = 2.504 c = 6.661	3.567	4.982	a = 3.189 c = 5.185	4.358	5.65	5.43
Thermal Expansion Coefficient (× 10 ⁻⁶ °C ⁻¹)	3.5	a = -2.7 c = 38	1.1	4.0	4.5	4.7	5.9	2.6
Density (gm/cm ³)	3.487	2.28	3.515	3.26	6.15	3.216	5.316	2.328
Melting Point (°C)	2973	3000	3800	2200	>2500	2540	1238	1420
Dielectric Constant	7.1	5.1	5.5	-	9.5	9.7	12.5	11.8
Resistivity (Ω cm)	10 ¹⁶	10 ¹⁰	10 ¹³	10 ¹⁴	10 ¹²	150	10 ⁸	10 ³
Absorption Edge (μm)	0.205	0.212	0.20	-	0.35	0.40	-	1.40
Refractive Index	2.17	1.80	2.42	2.00	2.33	2.65	3.4	3.5
Hardness (kg/mm ² , T = 300 K Kg/mm ²)	5000	100	10,000	2500	1100	3000	600	1000

SILICON: from sand to wafer

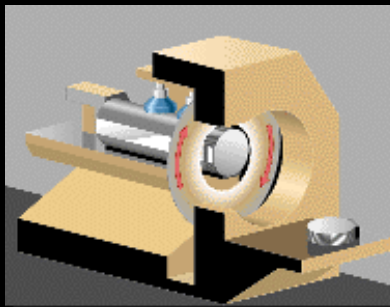


a) The sand is cleaned and further purified by chemical processes. It is then melted. Then a tiny concentration of phosphorus (boron) dopant is added to make n (p) type poly-crystalline ingots

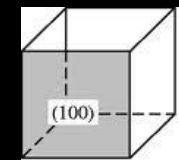
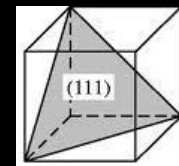


b) Single-crystal silicon is obtained by melting the vertically oriented poly-silicon cylinder onto a single crystal "seed" --- called "Float Zone-→ FZ"

c) Wafers of thickness 200- 500 μ m are cut with diamond encrusted wire or disc saws.

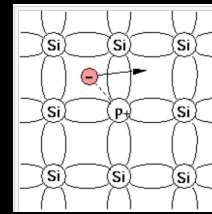


Note: the crystal orientation matters!
<111> and <100> crystals can influence the detector properties eg. capacitance

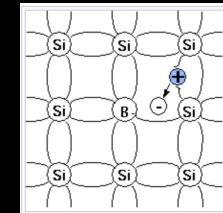


From Wafers to Sensors

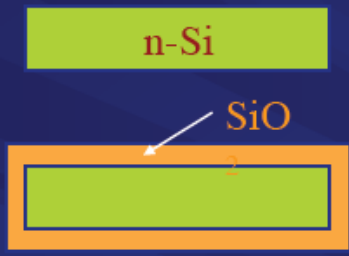
Dopants →



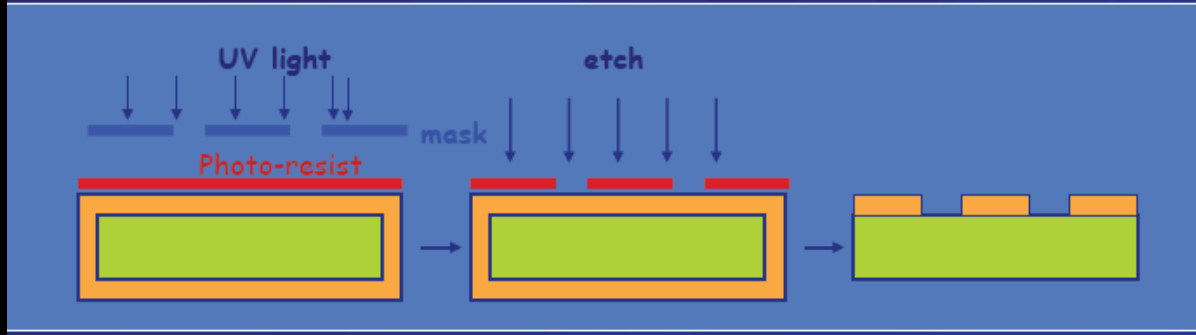
Donors (Phosphorus)



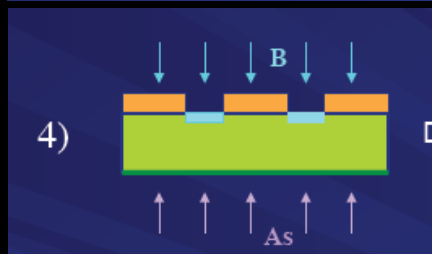
Acceptors (Boron)

- 1)  Start with n-doped silicon wafer, $\rho \approx 1-10 \text{ k}\Omega\text{cm}$. Silicon can be turned into n-type by neutron doping ($^{30}\text{Si} + n \rightarrow ^{31}\text{Si}$, $^{31}\text{Si} \rightarrow ^{31}\text{P} + \beta^- + \nu$)
- 2) Oxidation at 800 - 1200°C
- 3) Photolithography (= mask align + photo-resist layer + developing) followed by etching to make windows in oxide

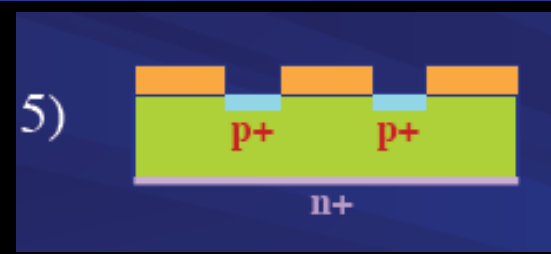
Note:
This process is used for single and double side processing



D. Bortoletto Lecture 4 50



Doping (ion implantation or diffusion)

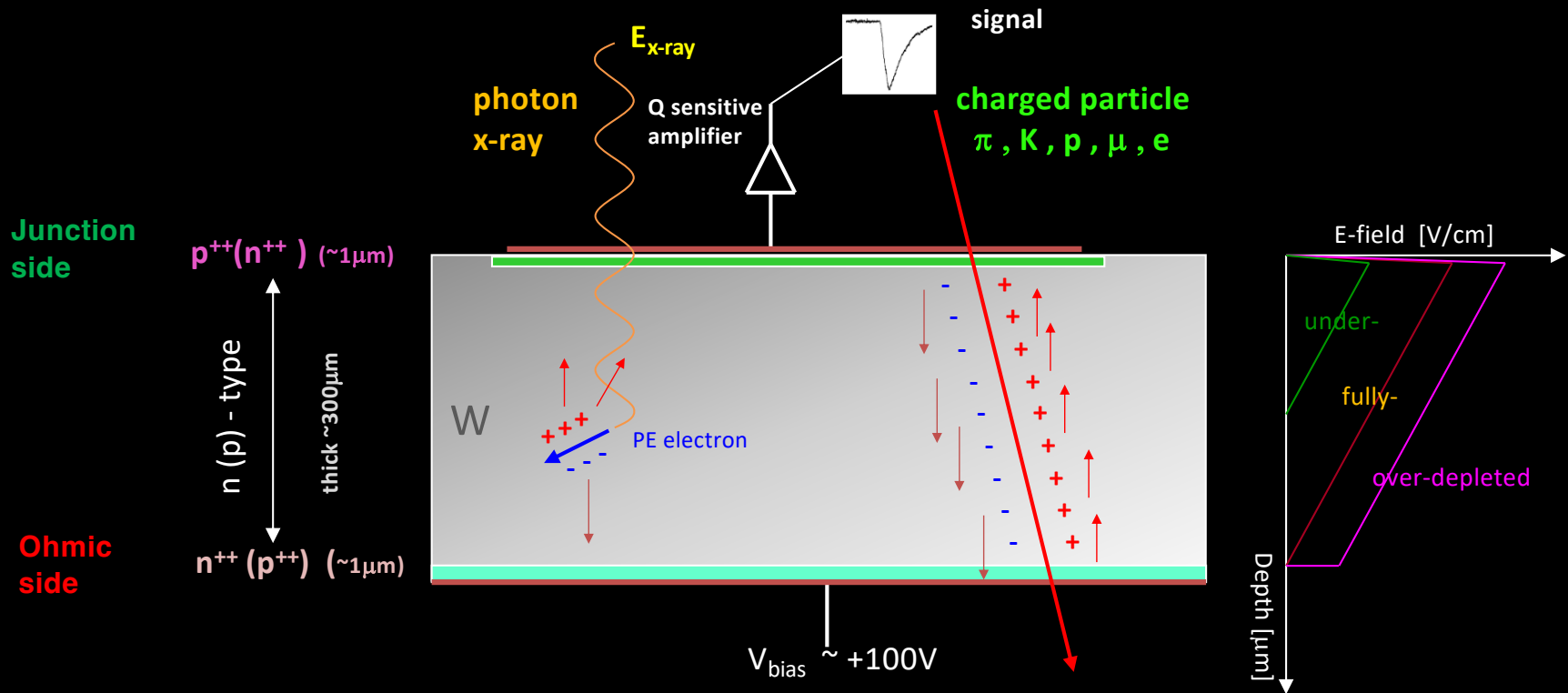


Crystal lattice annealing at 600C



Photo-lithography
Followed by Aluminum
Deposition in the contact
Regions (front and back)

p-n junction detector basic working principle

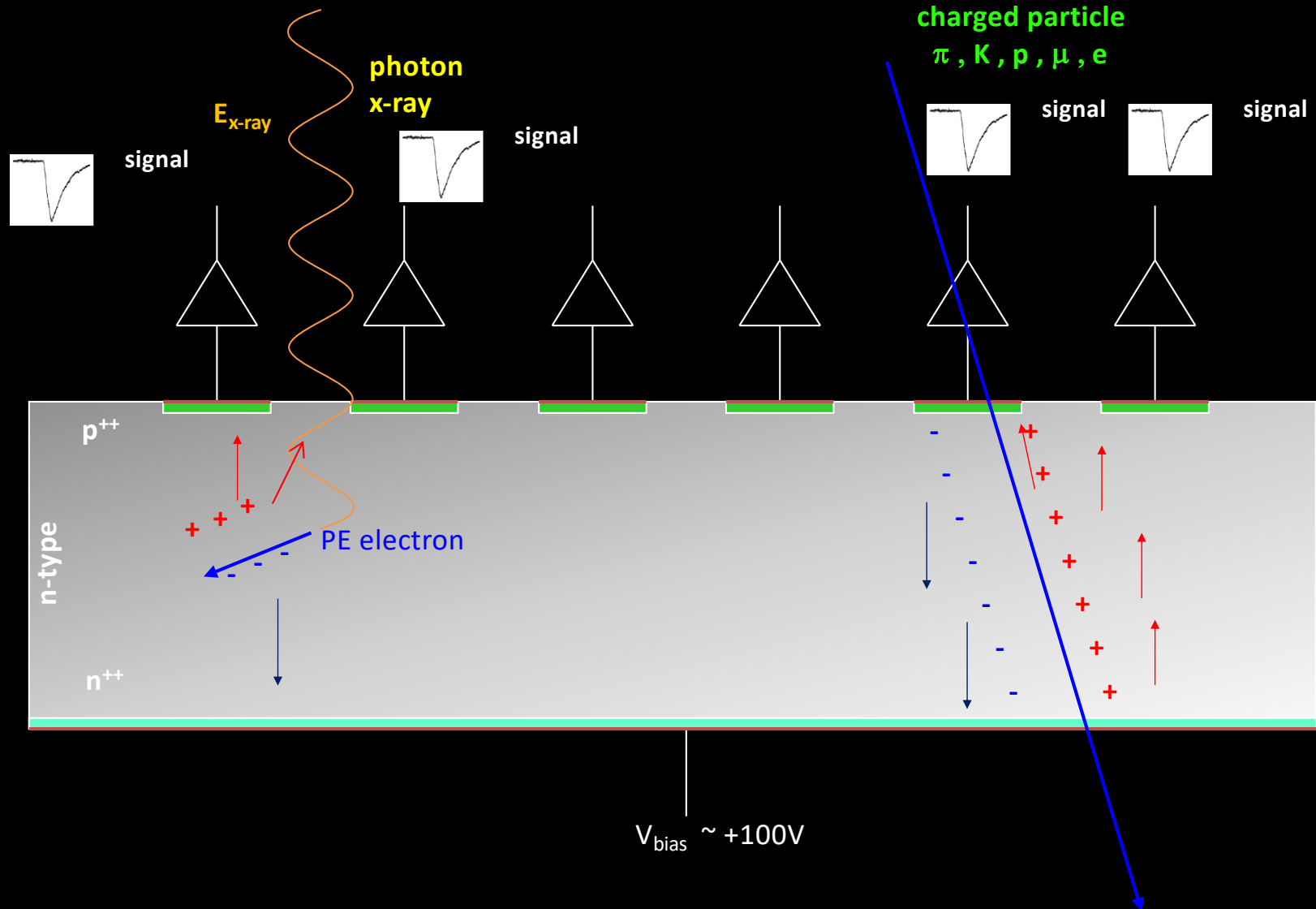


- ❖ n+ and p+ electrodes are implanted on the wafer's surfaces to form a p-i-n junction
- ❖ V_{bias} is the applied reverse bias voltage, W is the depletion region
- ❖ e-h pairs are created by the energy released by the impinging particle
- ❖ e-h drift towards the positive and negative electrode "inducing" a current pulse
- ❖ Charge collection time depends on the carrier mobility, bias voltage and carrier polarity

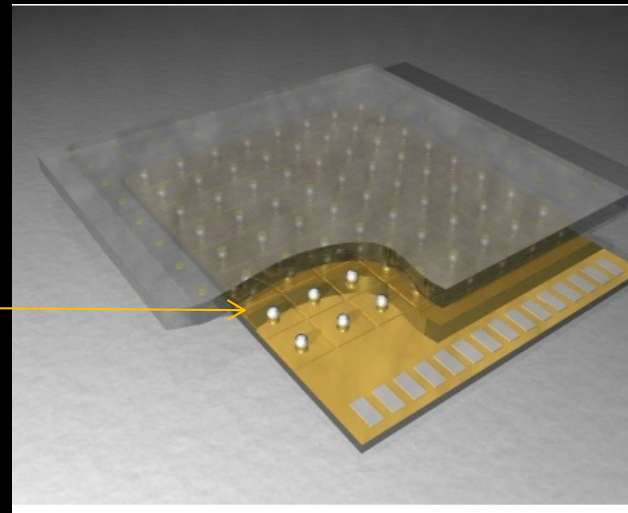
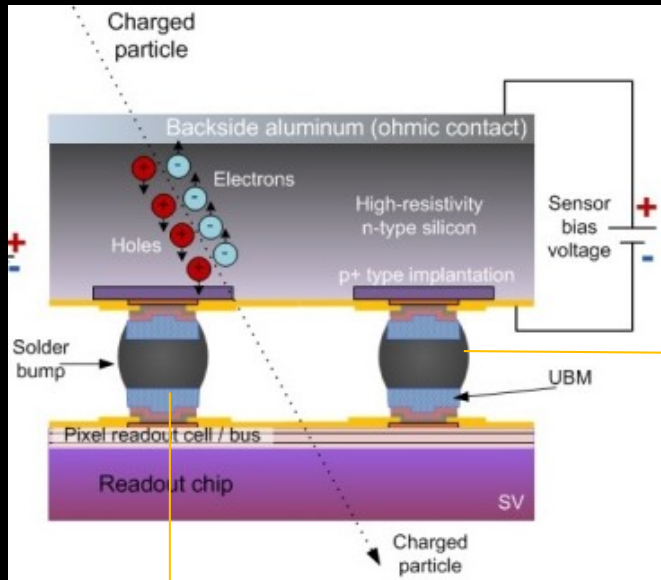
$$V_{\text{bias}} = \frac{(W)^2 \times e \times |N_{\text{eff}}|}{2\epsilon_0 \epsilon_{\text{Si}}}$$

Segmented Silicon Sensors for better position sensitivity ..“imaging”

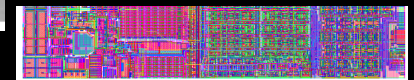
Cinzia Da Via, Stony Brook USA and The University of Manchester, UK – 2022



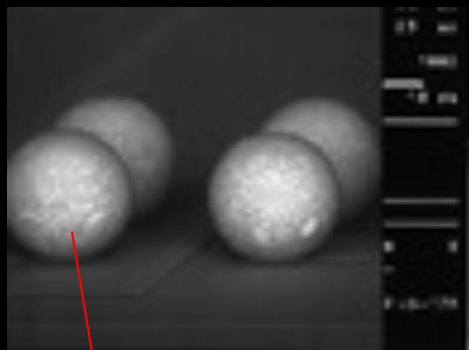
Two dimensional segmentation. Pixel Detectors “Hybrid”



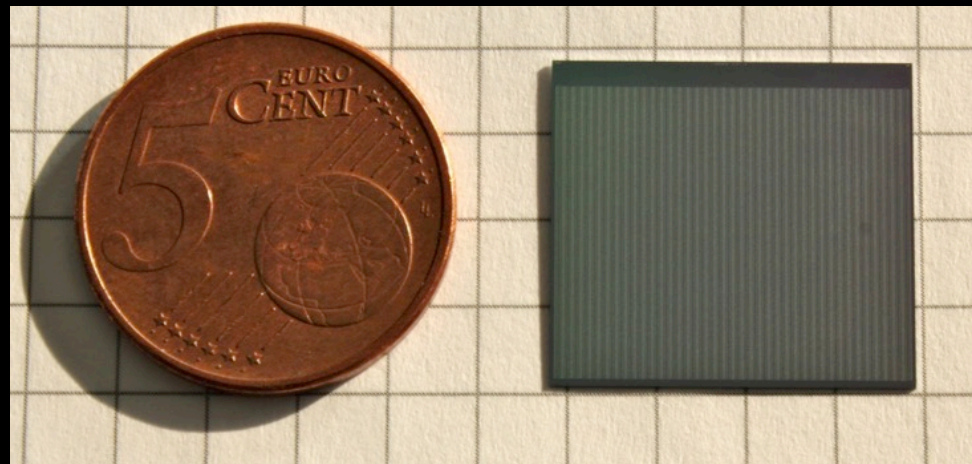
FE-I4
80x336
=26 880 pixels
125 x 50 μm^2



solder



50 microns (25 μm In, <10 μm Au)



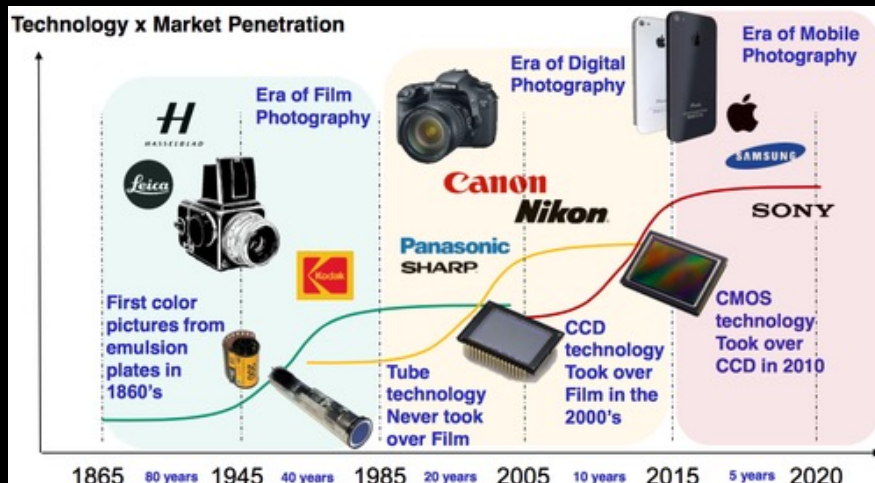
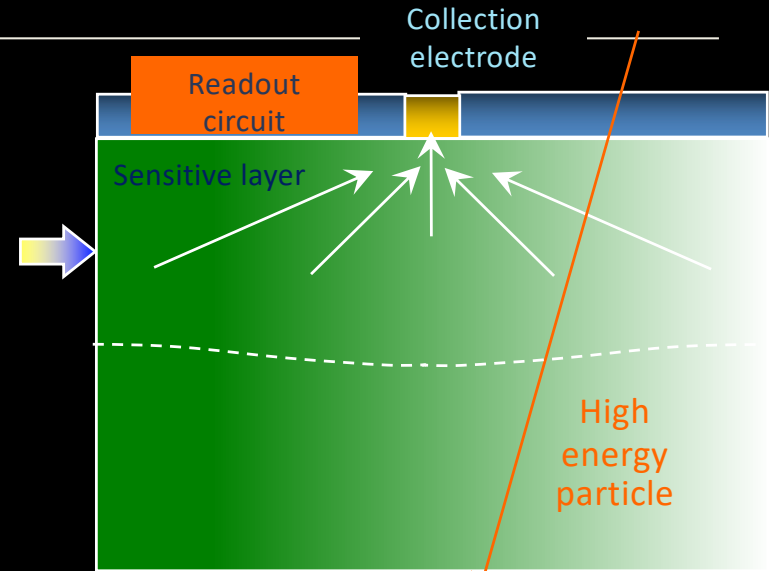
ATLAS FE-I4 ~4 cm^2

Pixel detectors “Monolithic”

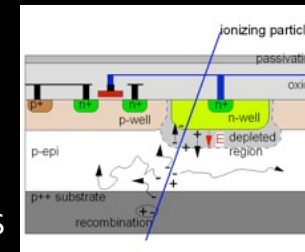
Integrate the readout circuitry together with the detector in ‘one piece’ of silicon

The charge generated by a particle is collected on a defined collection electrode either by diffusion or by the application of an E-field

Small pixel size and thin effective detection thickness

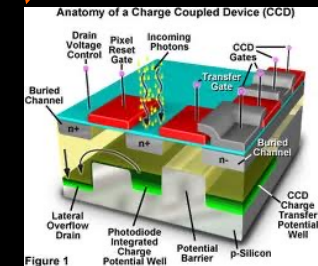


MAPS



Pixel size :
20 x 20 micron
Thickness
20-50 um

Used in the
EUDET telescope
And at STAR at RICH

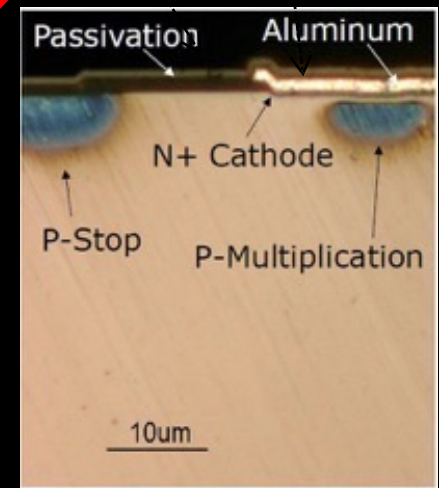
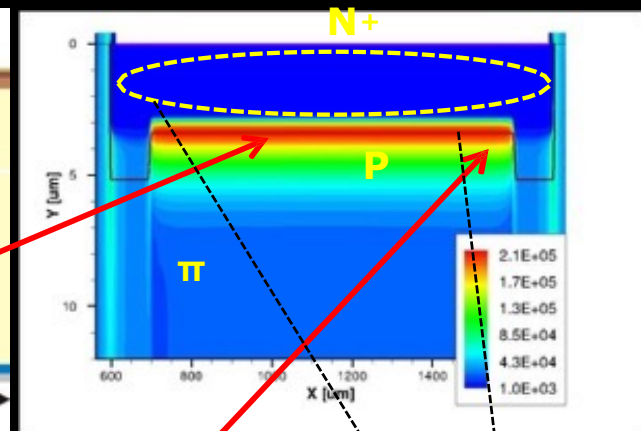
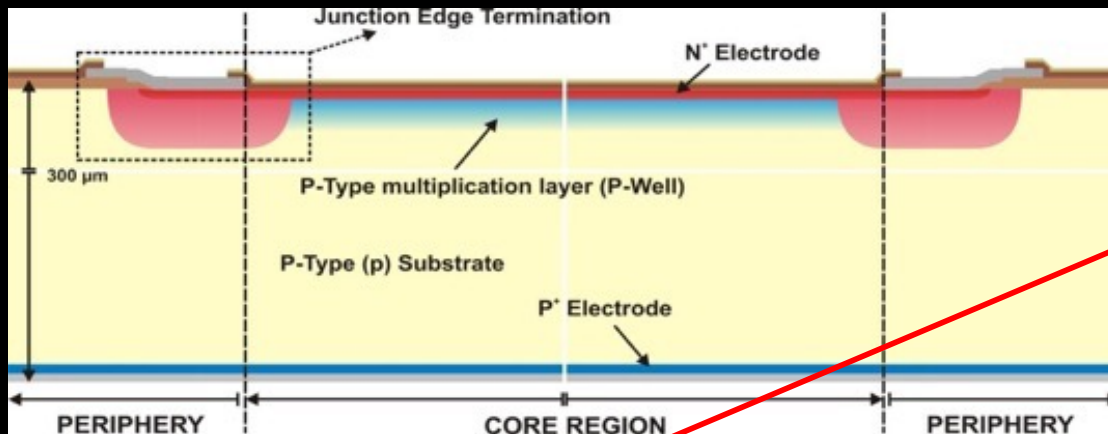


CCD
Charge coupled
Device
Various
dimensions

Many uses in
Different fields

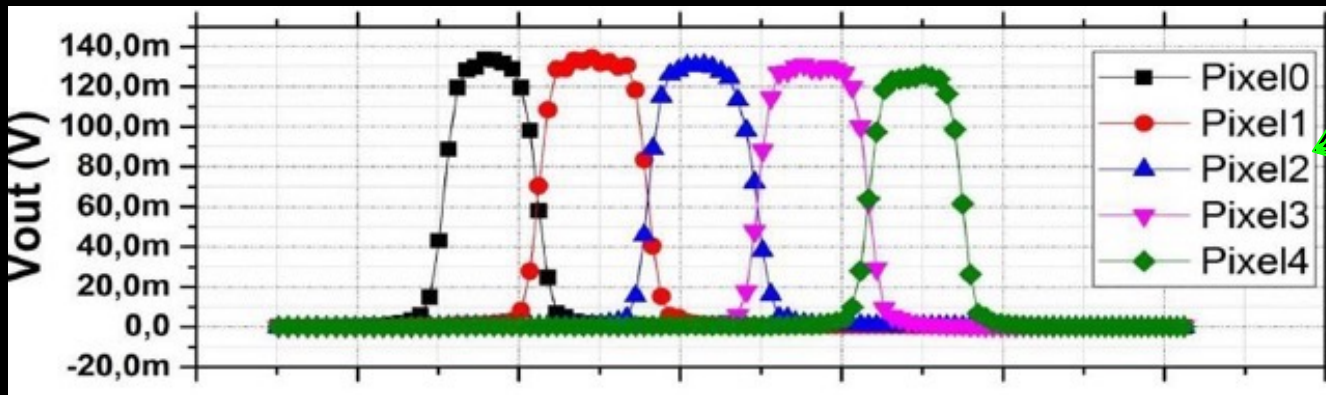
LGAD Basics. Low Gain Detector

G. Pellegrini, Low Gain Avalanche Detectors

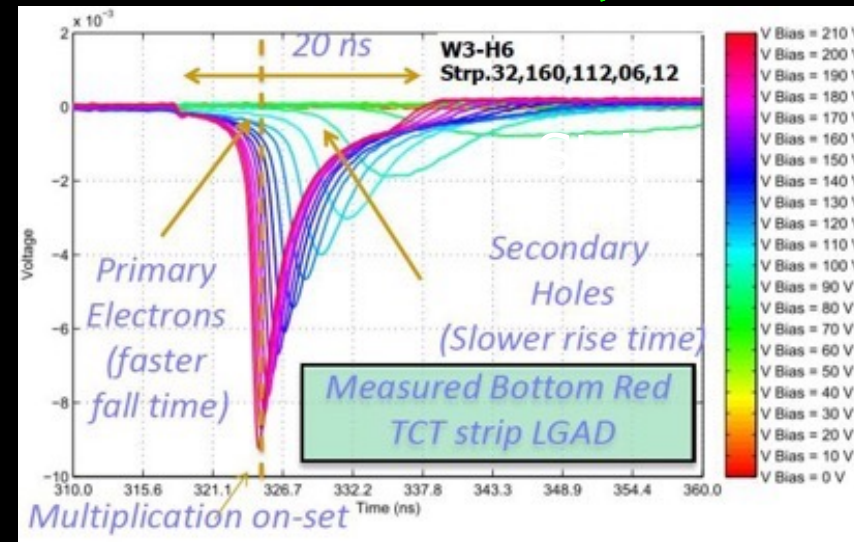
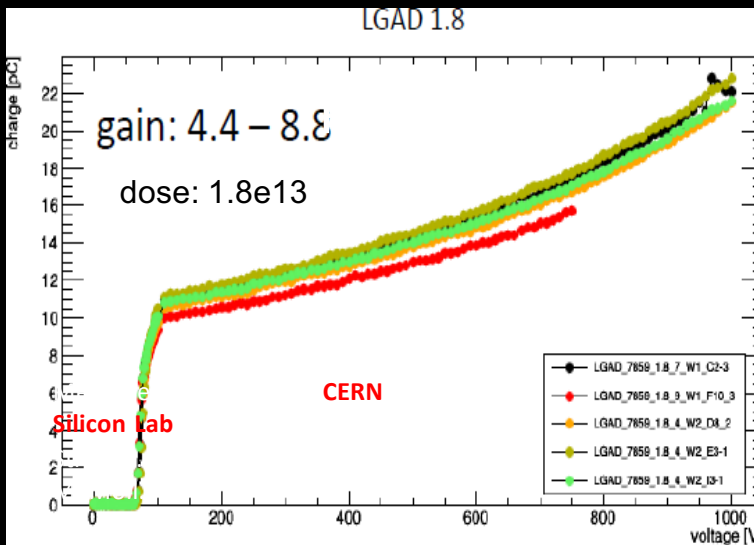


- **Core Region**
 - ✓ **Uniform electric field**, high enough to activate mechanism of **impact ionization** (multiplication)
- **Termination**
 - ✓ **High electric field** confined in the **core region**
- **Periphery**
 - ✓ **Dead region**. **Charges** should not be collected. **Reduction** of the surface **leakage currents**

LGAD Measurements



O. Alonso et al., presented at the PIXEL2016 workshop.

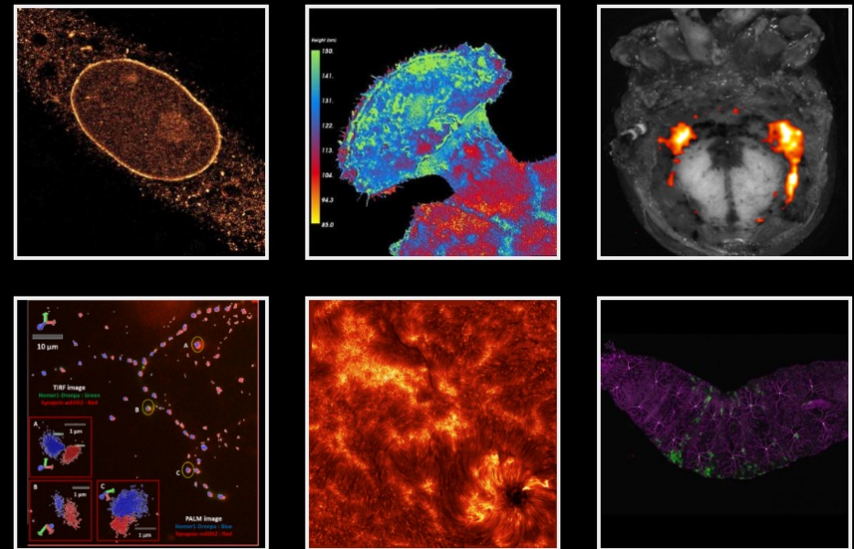
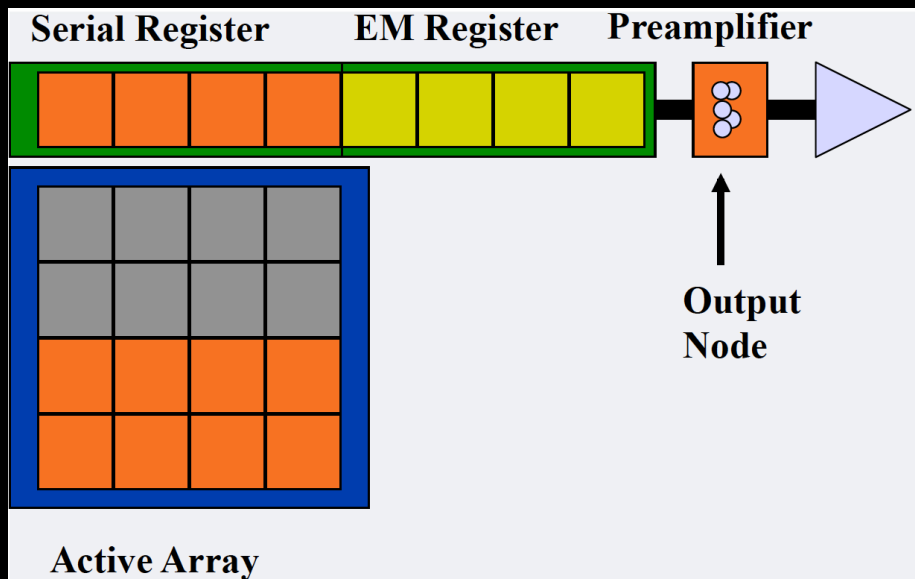


I. Vila, presented at the 28th RD50 workshop

Electron Multiplied CCD (EMCCD)

<https://andor.oxinst.com/products/ixon-emccd-cameras>

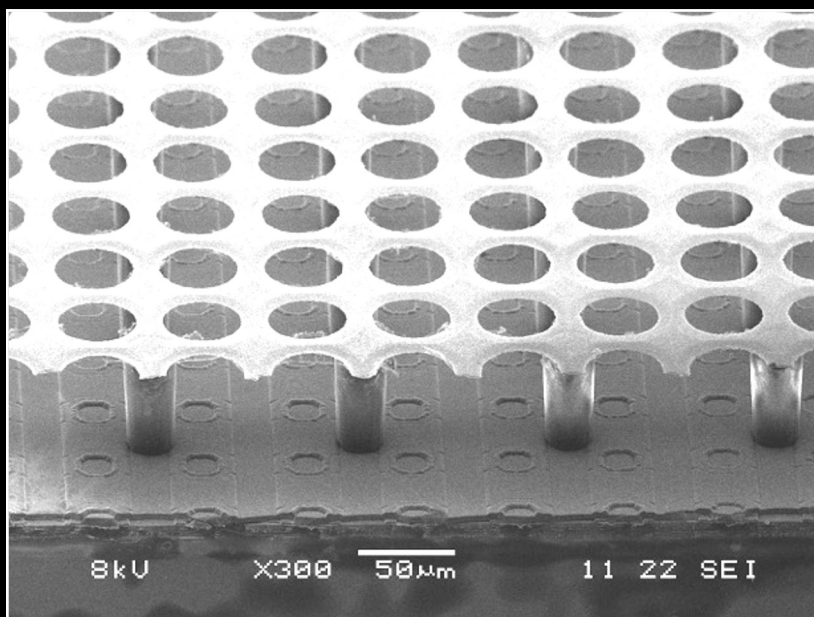
Electron-multiplying CCDs (EMCCDs) employ on-chip multiplication by impact ionization to multiply the number of photoelectrons, allowing the signal of a single photon to overcome the noise floor, effectively obtaining single-photon detection capability. The multiplication process reduces the effective readout noise below 1 electron but induces an additional noise due to the stochastic variation in the multiplication factor.



But there are also Gaseous Pixel Detectors!

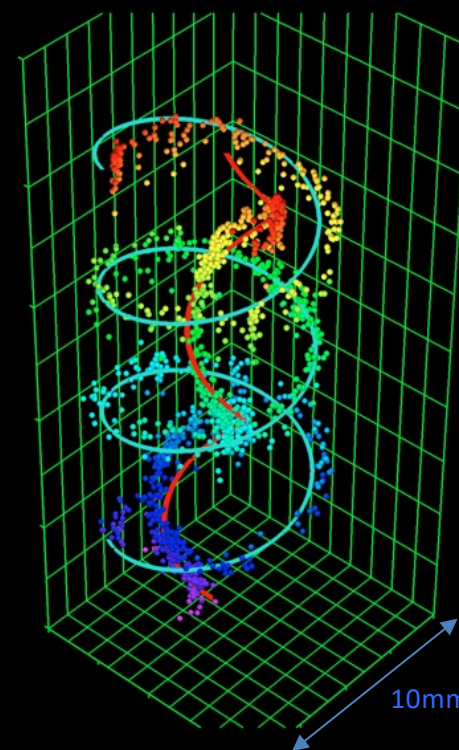
H. van der Graaf (Nikhef) TIPP2011

Gaseous Pixel detector (GridPix) is a MEMS made Micromegas like structure on a CMOS readout chip



Performance :

- position resolution: 15 µm
- single electron efficiency: > 90 %
- track detection efficiency: 99.6 %;

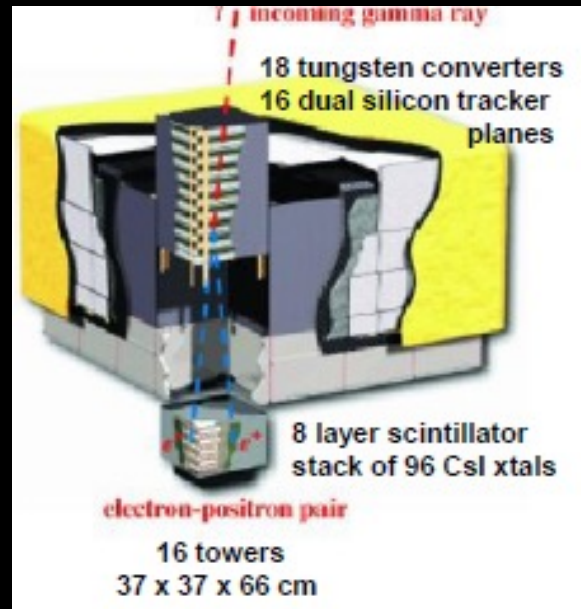
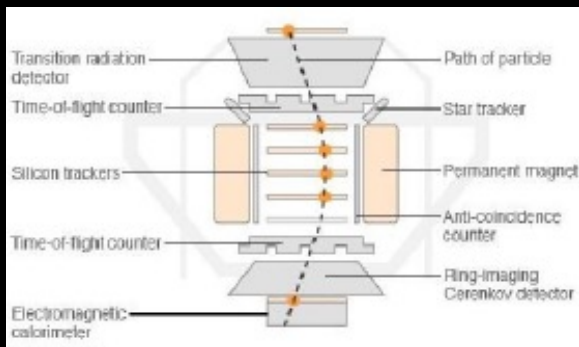
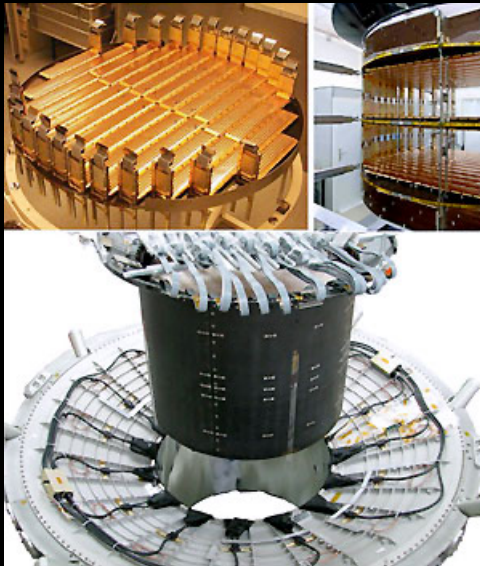


⁹⁰Sr electrons in 0.2 T B-field

µ-TPC operation with TimePix chip

Applications: Astro-particle Physics...

AMS (Alpha Magnetic Spectrometer)
 on ISS particle physics experiment in space
 to measure antimatter in cosmic rays

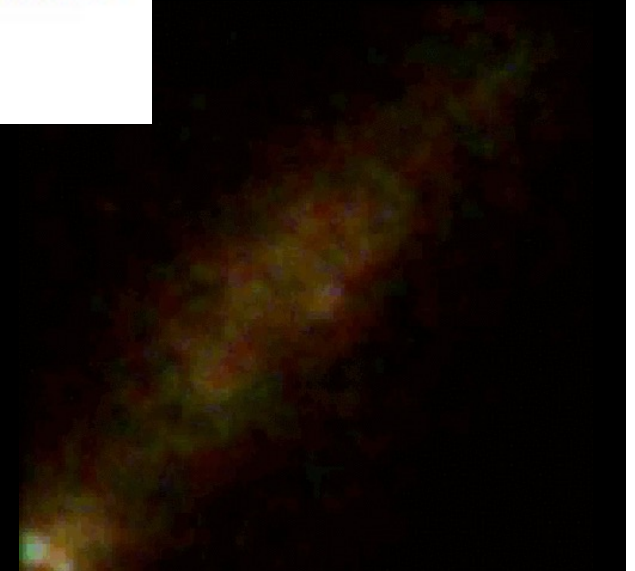


FERMI Large Area Telescope

Gamma-ray detector

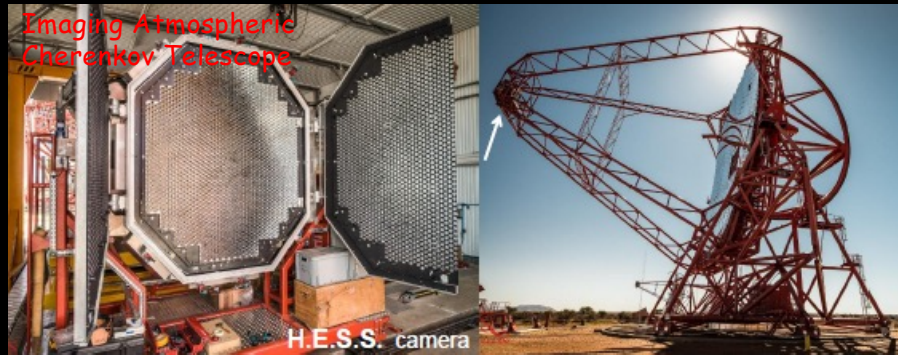
Cycle of pulsed gamma rays from the Vela pulsar.
 Constructed from photons detected by Fermi's Large Area Telescope.

Roger Romani

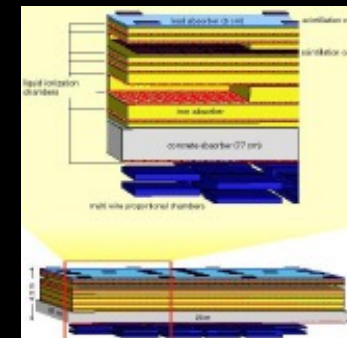
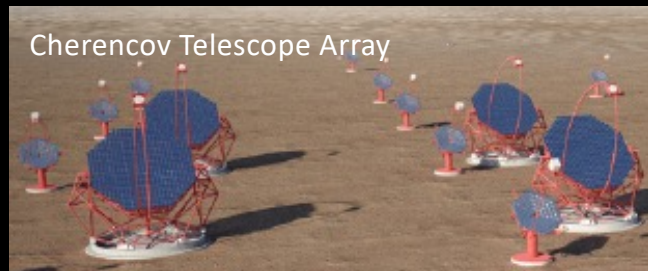


...Ground Detectors – Cosmic Rays

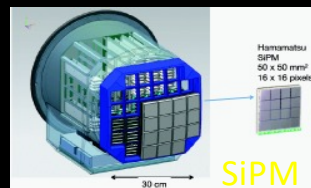
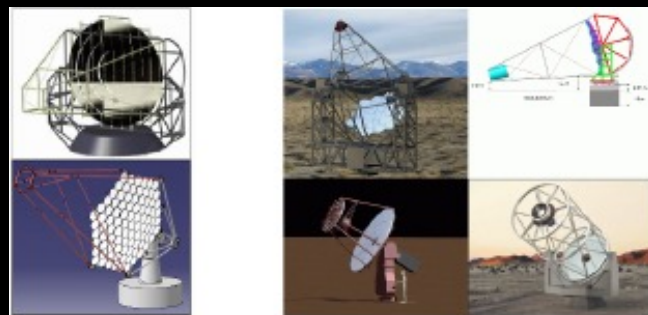
Cinzia Da Via, Stony Brook USA and The University of Manchester, UK – 2022



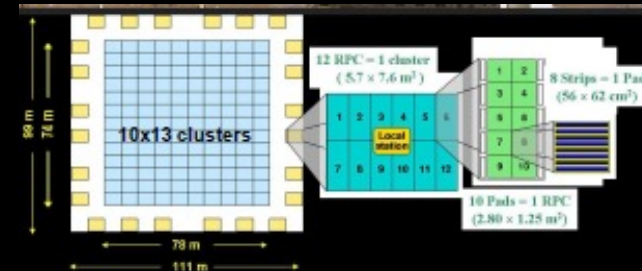
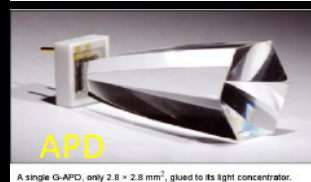
Pierre Auger Observatory
UHE 10²⁰eV
1600 water
Cherenkov detectors



KASCADE-Grande
200x200 m² scint. array
20x16 m² h. calorimeter
128 m² muon tracker



ARGO-YBJ -RPCs



Follow-up project LHAASO

SST 70x (S) : > few TeV
>5 m², >8° FoV, <0.25° pxl

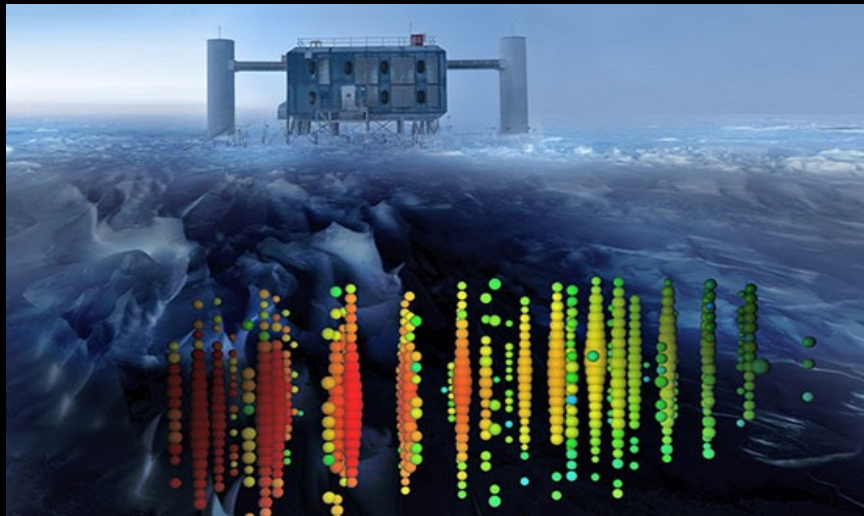
MST 25x (S) : 0.2-10 TeV
>88 m², >7° FoV, <0.18° pxl

LST 4x (S) : 20 GeV - 1 TeV
>330m², >4.4° FoV, <0.11° pxl size

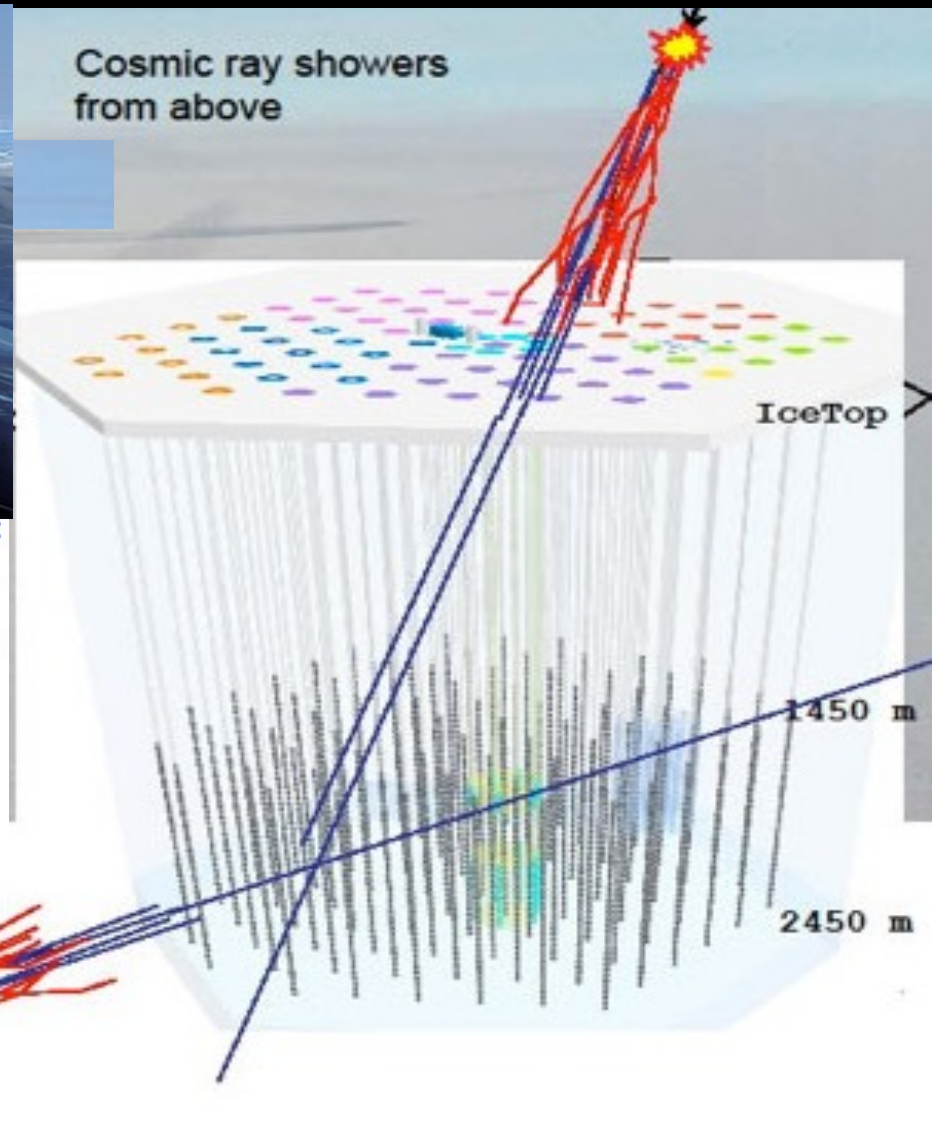
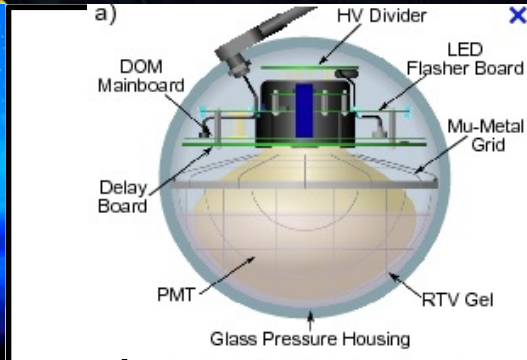
Camera Options

..... ICE-Cube (South Pole Neutrino Experiment)

Digital Optical Boards (DOMs) are deployed on 86 "strings" of 60 modules each at depths ranging from 1,450 to 2,450 meters



DOMS



Neutrinos from all directions

Primarily ν_μ -induced μ
from below

..... Environmental Radiation Monitoring

Gamma Dose Rate (GDR) networks in Europe



1cm³ coplanar grid (Cd,Zn)Te detector



Broken mountain

German Network
1800 GDR stations
to perform gamma
Spectrometry and
Create contamination
Map for long-lived
radionuclides



Inter-calibration facility (INTERCAL) on Schauinsland mountain (1200 m) since 2007

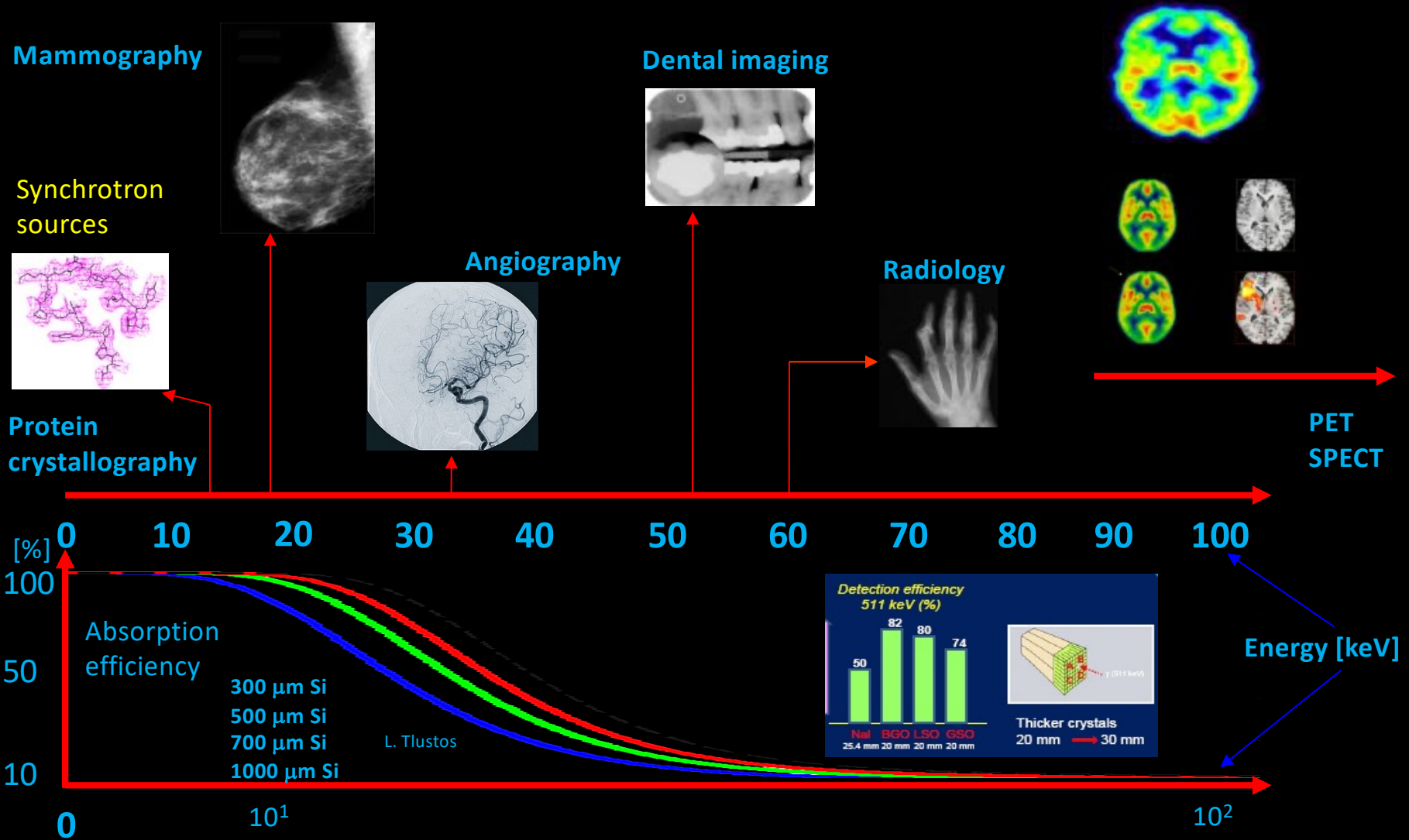


European countries established GDR networks during the cold war period and improved these networks after the Chernobyl accident in 1986.

Monitoring of:

- nuclear facilities
- atomic bomb scenarios
- terroristic attacks

X-ray energy of the most common medical and biological applications



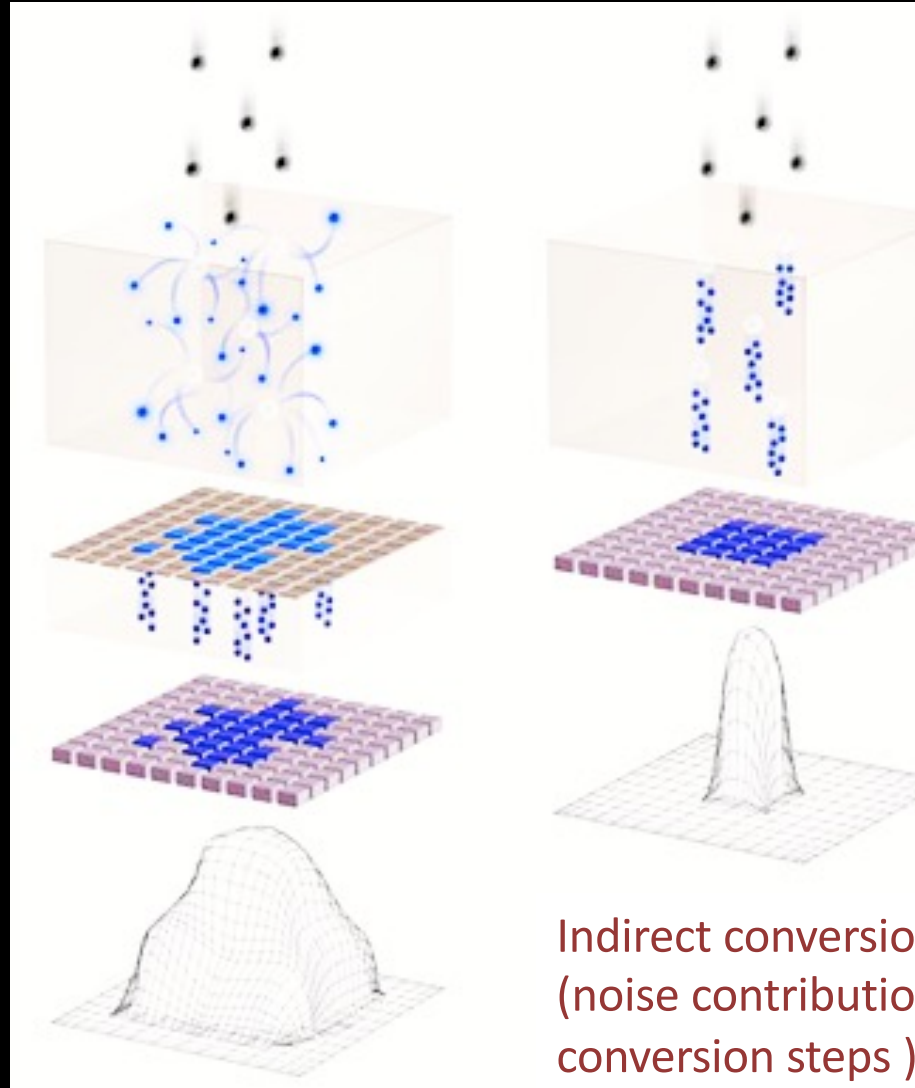
Direct / indirect conversion

The target is to reduce the dose to the patient!

Scintillator
Gadox, YAG CsI
(high Z)
Photodiode/ CCD
electronics

electronics

Sampled image



X-rays

Direct conversion
Si, Ge, CdTe,
GaAs, Se

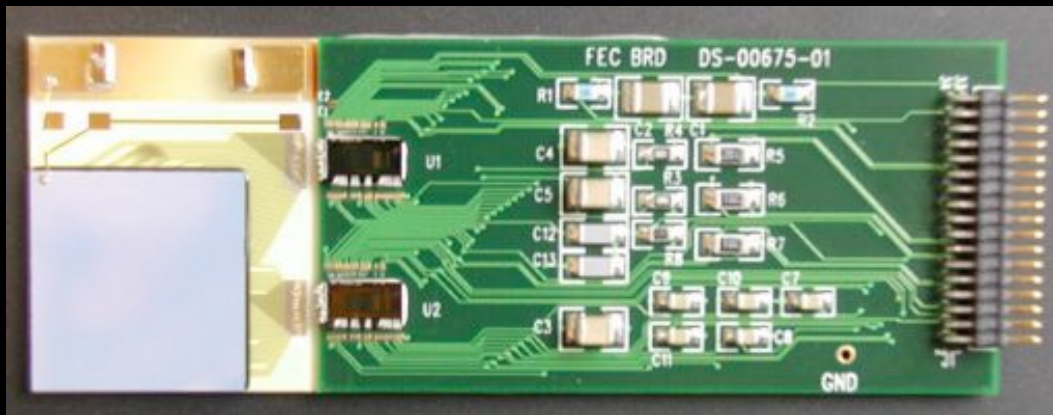
Sampled image

Indirect conversion implies lower DQE
(noise contribution from the two
conversion steps)

High Z semiconductors: CdTe and CdZnTe

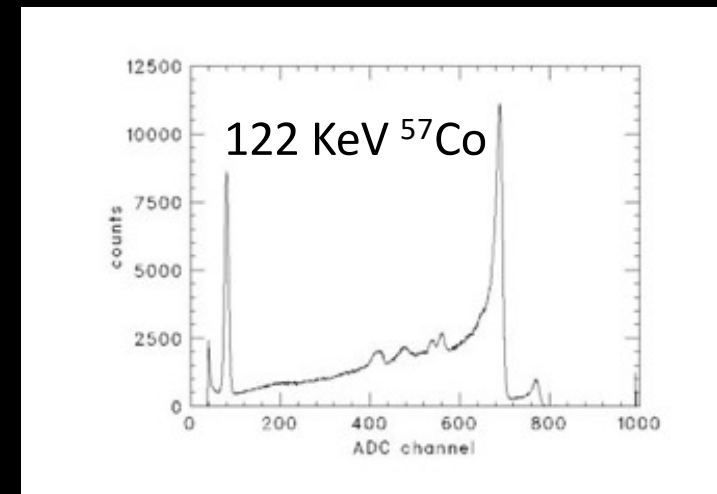
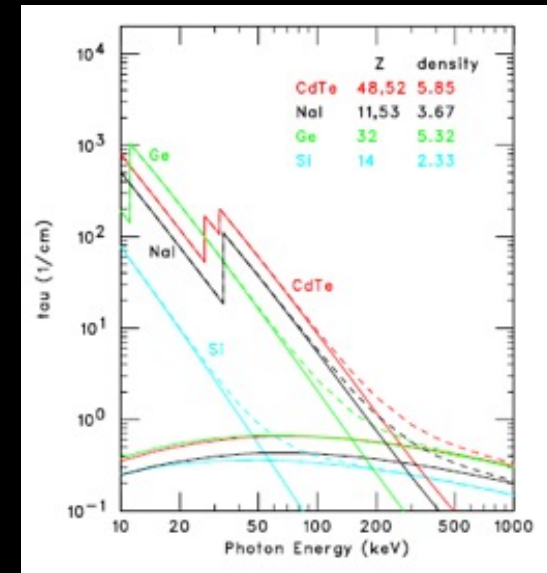
Taka Tanaka (SLAC/KIPAC)

- High detection efficiency
- Poly-crystalline material
- Poor uniformity
- Very high resistivity (semi-insulating)
- Low leakage current

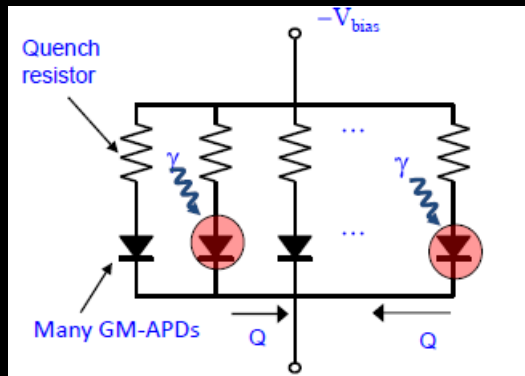
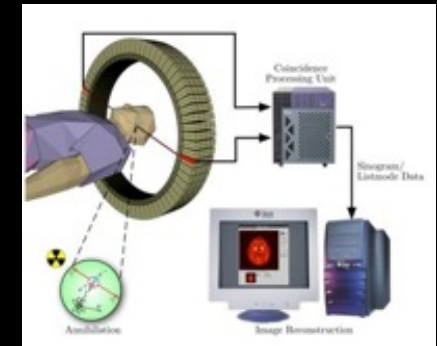
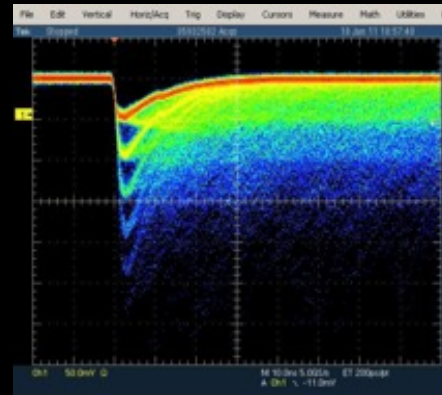
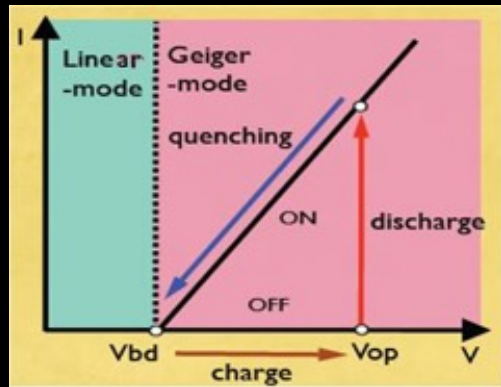


area: 18 " 18 mm²
 thickness: 0.5 mm
 pixel size: 2 " 2 mm²,
 64 ch, cathode side
 guard ring: 1 mm width

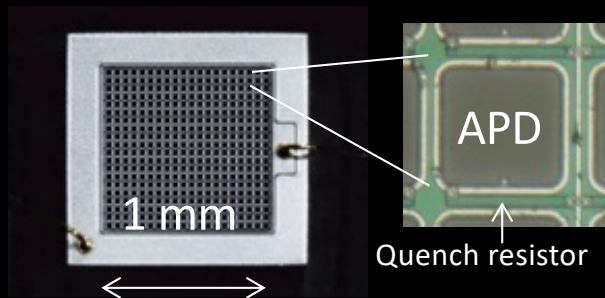
Fabricated at IDEAS
 Norway



Indirect Conversion: Scintillators and Silicon Photomultipliers (SiPm, GM-APD, MPPC...)



- SiPm requires a special doping profile to allow a high internal field ($>10^5$ V/cm) which generates avalanche multiplication
- APD cell operates in Geiger mode (= full discharge), however with (passive/active) **quenching**.
- The avalanche formation is intrinsically very fast (100ps), because confined to a small space.
- High Gain $G \sim 10^5 - 10^6$ at rel. low bias voltage (<100 V)
- **G is Sensitive to temperature and voltage variations**
- **Fill factor still low due to quench resistor on the surface (but work in progress to solve this)**



Applications in PET

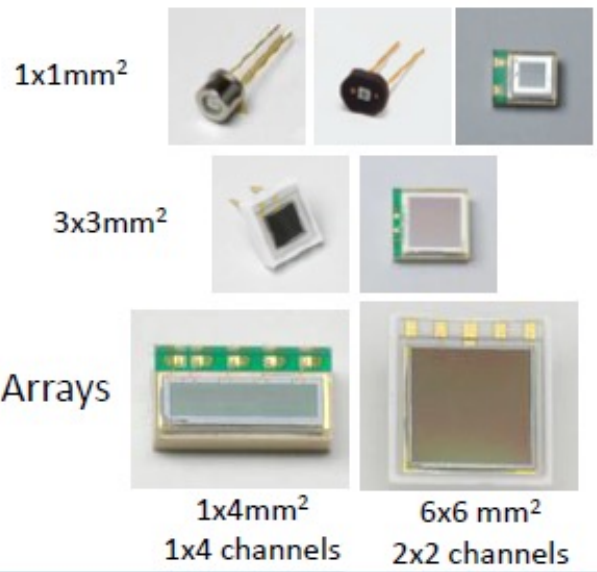
coincidence of two 511 keV photons define a line of record.

- Take projections under all angles
- (2/3D) Tomographic reconstruct of data

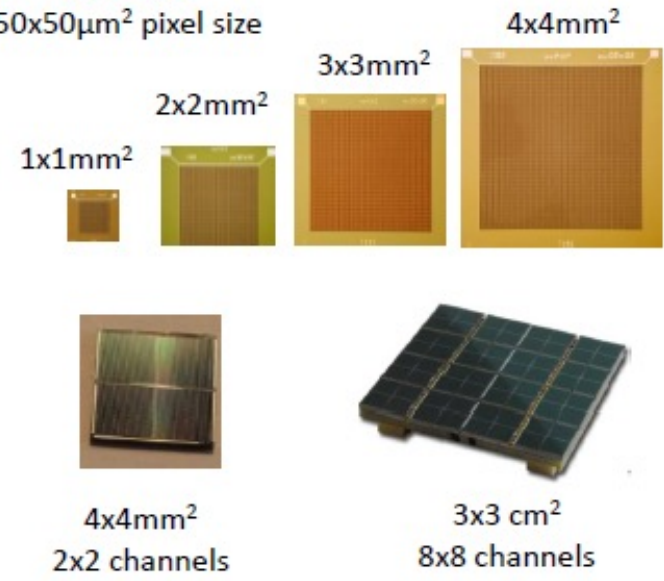
SiPm Commercial Activity

From C. Joram CERN

Hamamatsu HPK (<http://jp.hamamatsu.com/>)
 25x25 μm^2 , 50x50 μm^2 , 100x100 μm^2 pixel size



FBK-IRST
 50x50 μm^2 pixel size



SensL (<http://sensl.com/>)

20x20 μm^2 , 35x35 μm^2 , 50x50 μm^2 , 100x100 μm^2 pixel size

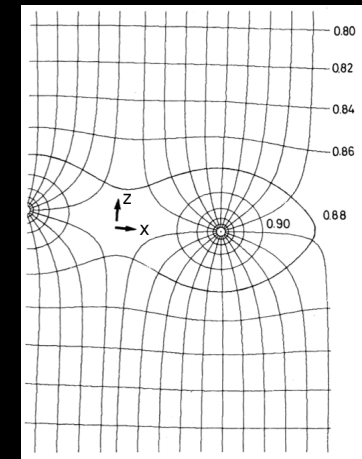


Overview of commonly used scintillators

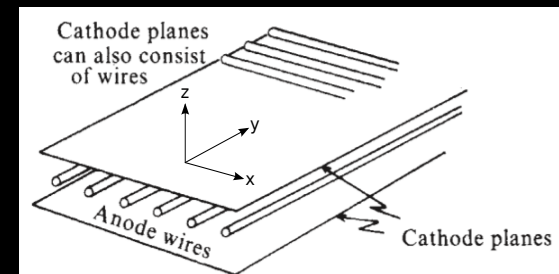
Scintillators for PET

	1962	1977	1995	1999	2001	2003	2007
	NaI	BGO	GSO:Ce	LSO:Ce	LuAP:Ce	LaBr ₃ :Ce	LuAG:Ce
Density (g/cm ³)	3.67	7.13	6.71	7.40	8.34	5.29	6.73
Atomic number	51	75	59	66	65	47	63
Photofraction	0.17	0.35	0.25	0.32	0.30	0.13	0.30
Decay time (ns)	230	300	30-60	35-45	17	18	60
Light output (hv/MeV)	43000	8200	12500	27000	11400	70000	>25000
Peak emission (nm)	415	480	430	420	365	356	535
Refraction index	1.85	2.15	1.85	1.82	1.97	1.88	1.84

Digital radiography with gas based MWPC in the 1970ies

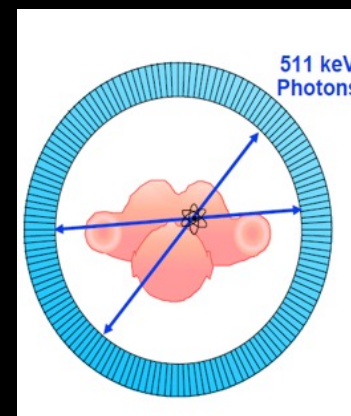
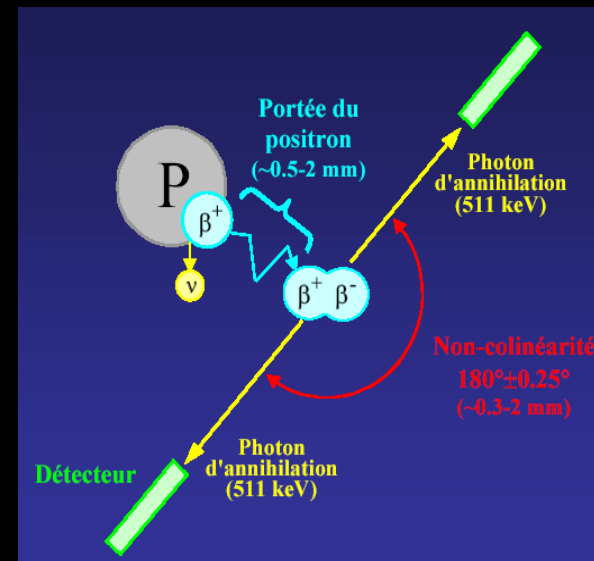
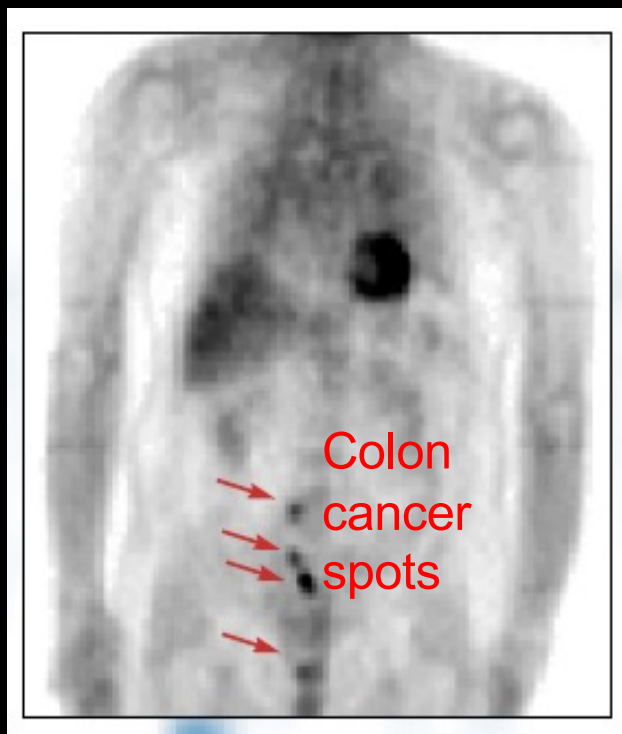


with 10 time less dose than traditional radiographic film!

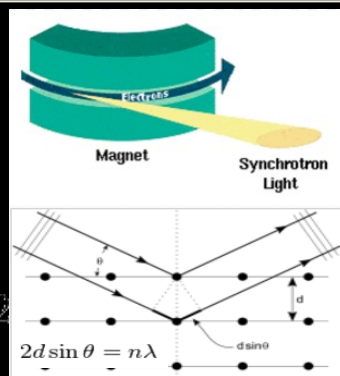
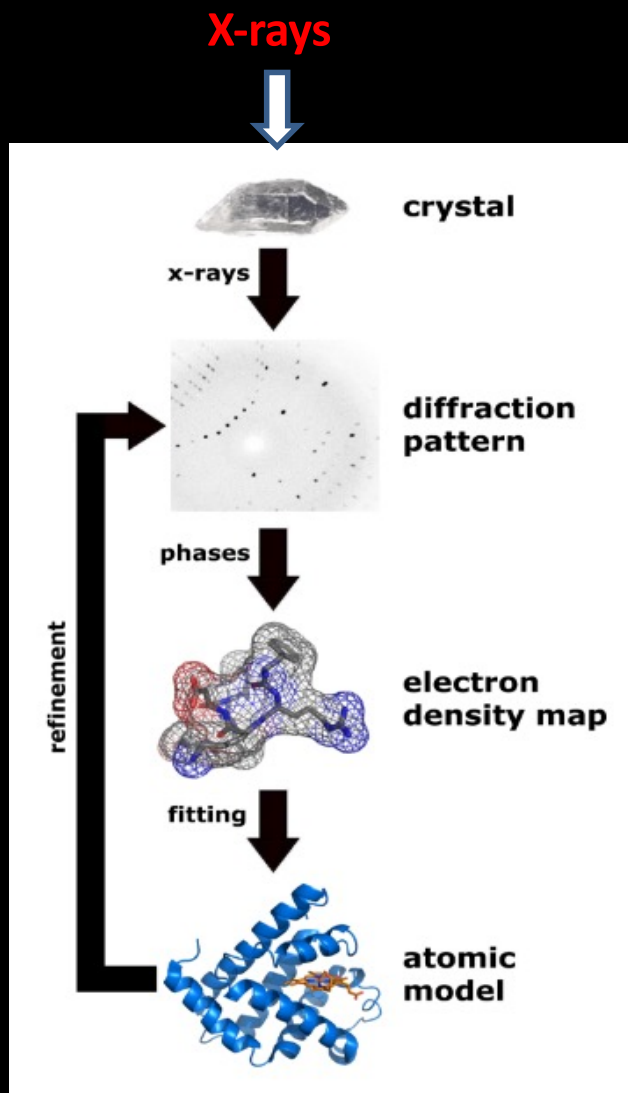


Nuclear Medicine: Positron Emission Tomography

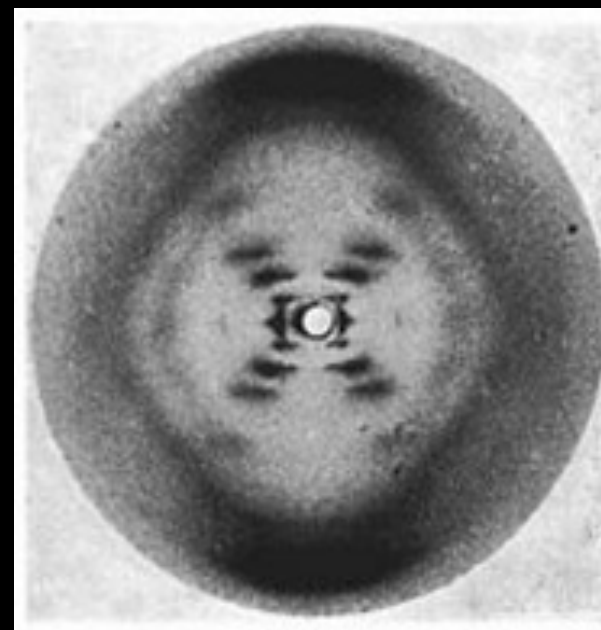
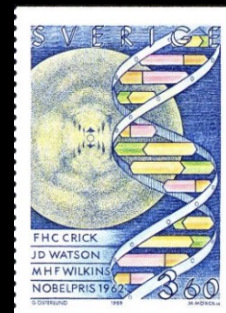
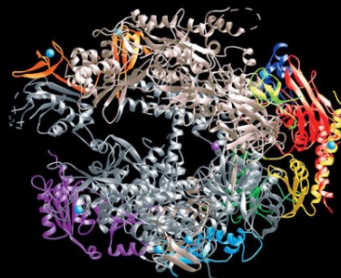
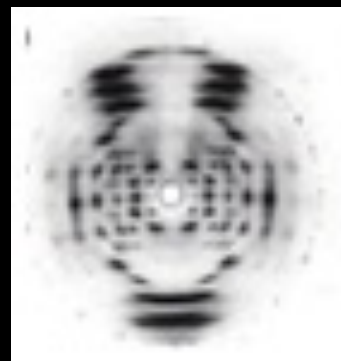
Sign the degree of activity of an organ hungry of glucose ---> show abnormal glucose metabolism like cancer tumour cells



Direct conversion Synchrotron Radiation: Protein crystallography 12 KeV



Bragg Law

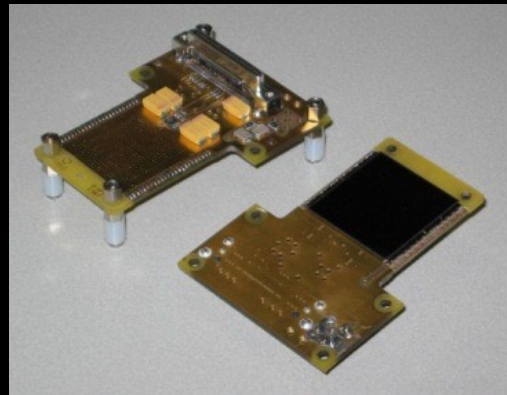


X-ray diffracted Photographic image of the double helix taken in 1952 by Rosalind Franklin and Raymond Gosling. The DNA sample was fibrous DNA

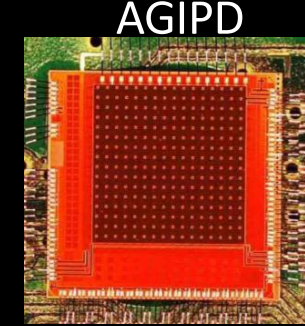
Some of the existing electronics chips for medical –synchrotron

Single photon Counting

Charge Integration



Medipix
pixellated detector
(Si, GaAs, CdTe, 3D
thickness:
300/700/1000mm

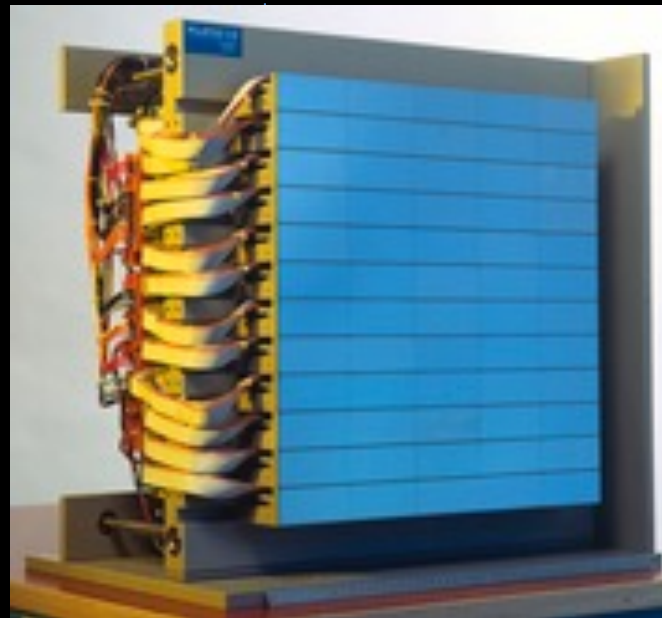


Medipix2 Quad
Pixels: 512 x 512
Pixel size: 55 x 55 mm²
Area: 3 x 3 cm²

Mithen II

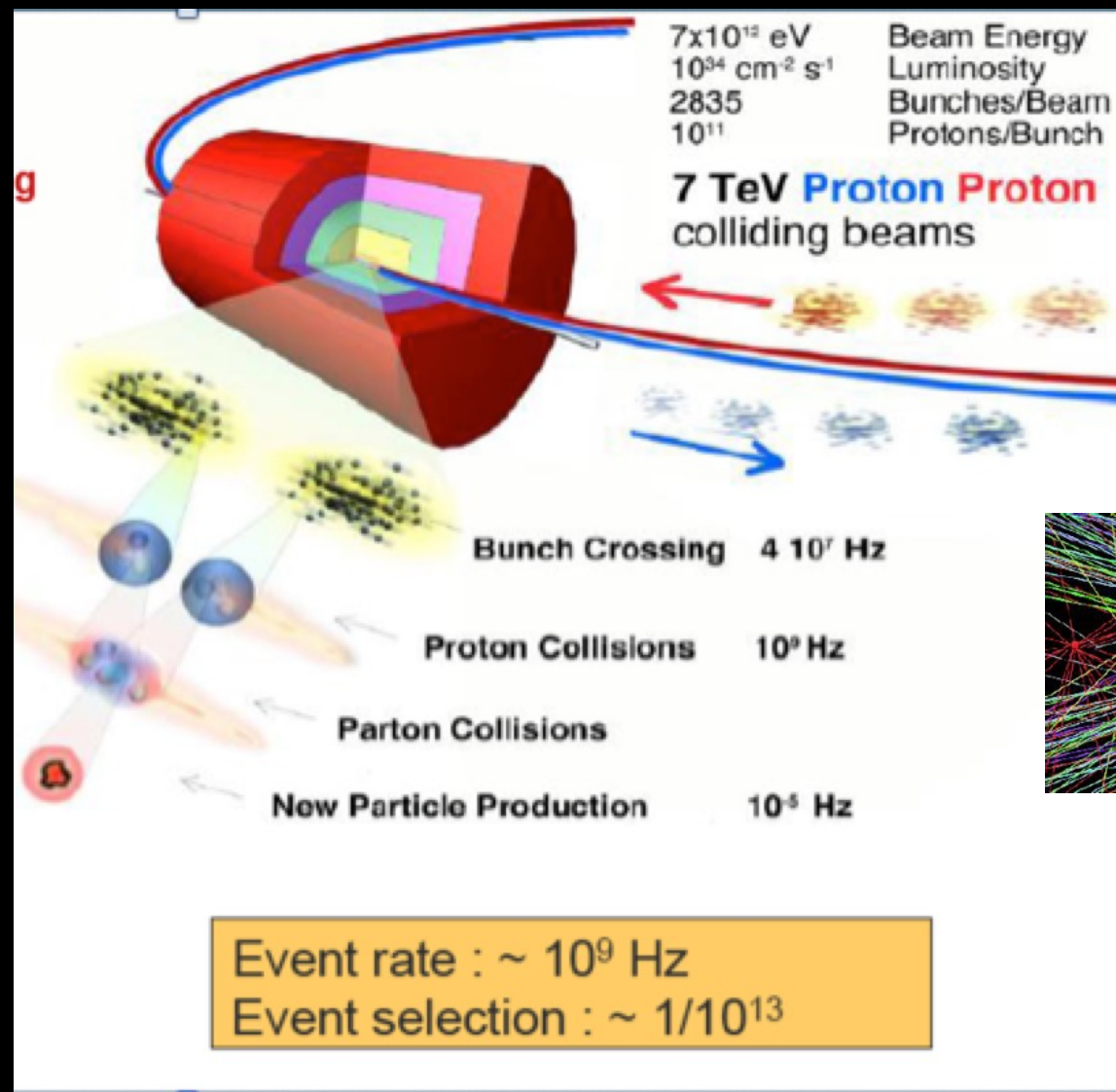


Eiger



The PILATUS 6M,
424 x 435 mm² with 170
× 170 μm² (2463 x 2527)
6 million pixels, has been
developed at PSI and
commercialized by the
company Dectris for
synchrotron imaging

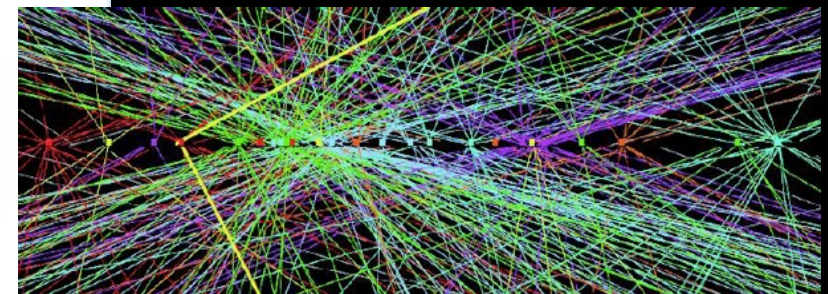
The challenge of The CERN Large Hadron Collider (LHC)



A microscope to observe
Dimensions as small as
10⁻¹⁷m!



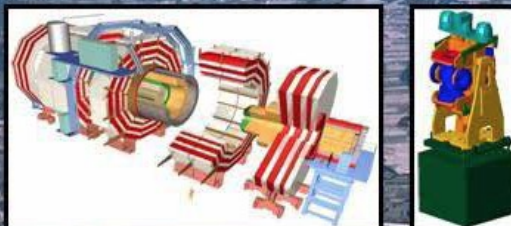
Collisions
every 25 ns



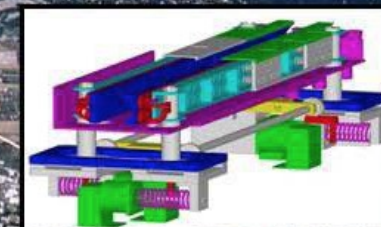
Z -> μμ event
at LHC ATLAS
15 April 2012

CERN-LHC
27 Km tunnel
~100m underground

CMS



LHCf



LHCb



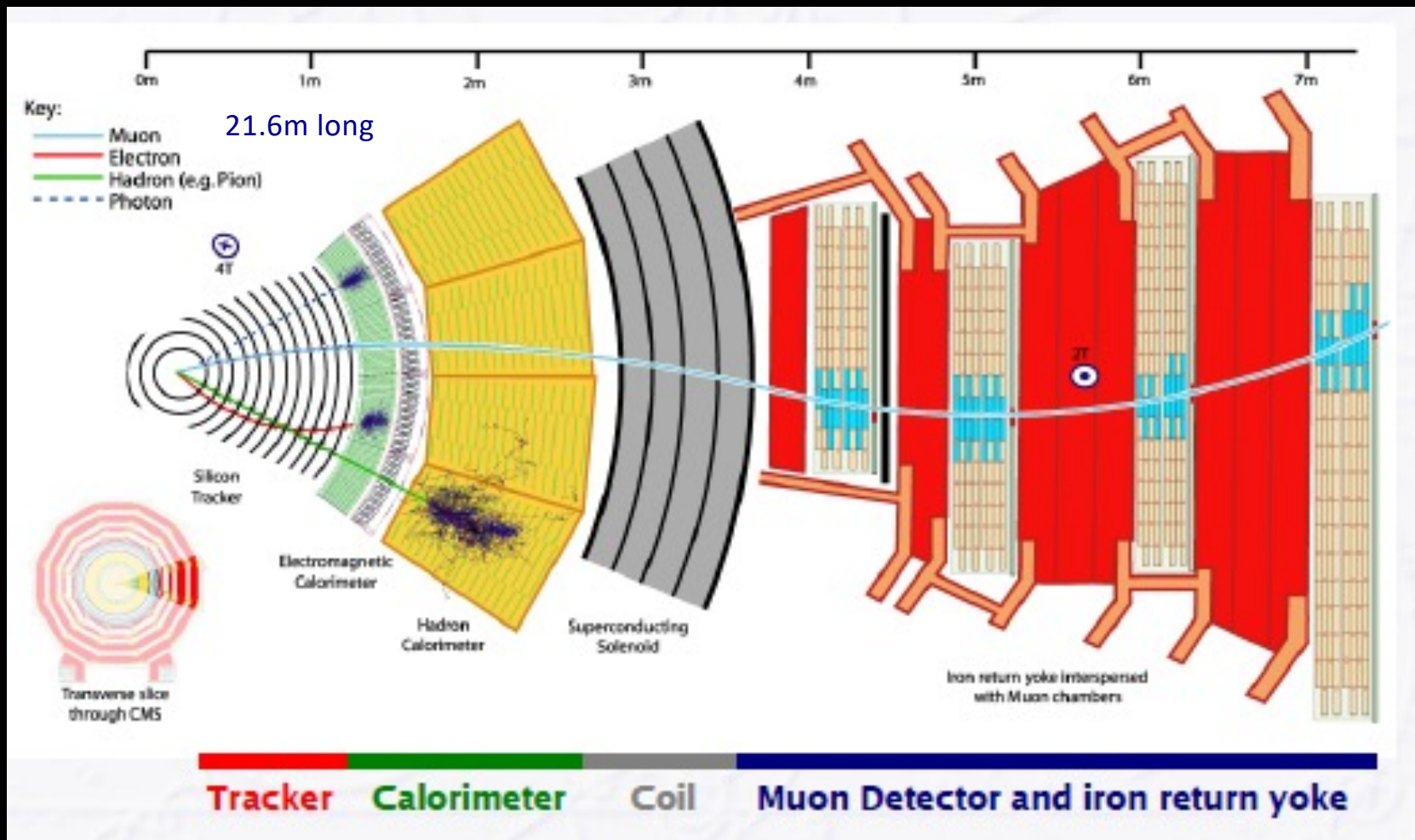
ATLAS



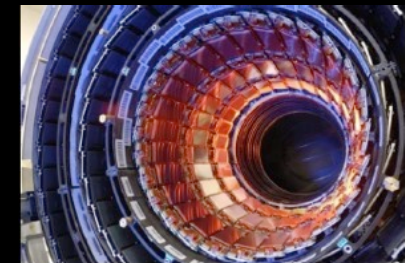
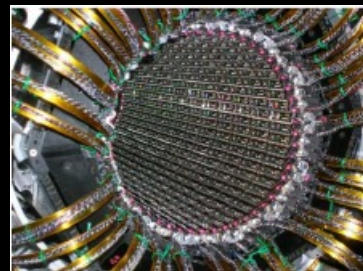
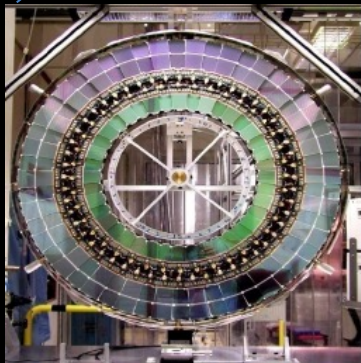
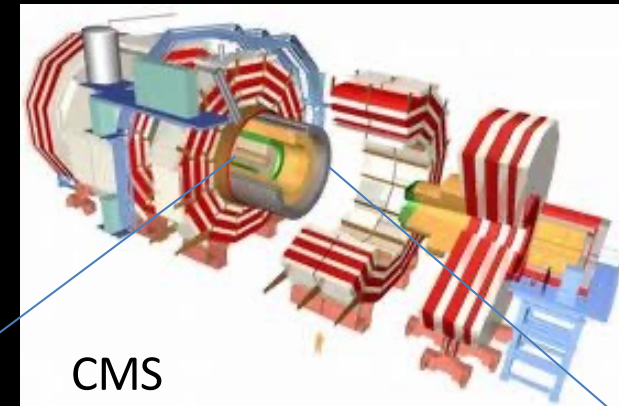
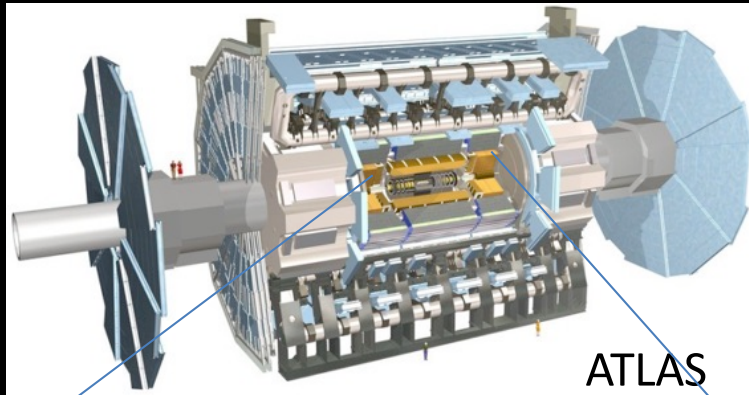
ALICE



A typical particle detector: CMS



ATLAS and CMS use alone more than 250m² of Silicon Strips to “image” charged particles



Strips

61m² of silicon.
6.2million channels
4 barrel layers + 9 disks
per endcap
30cm < R < 52cm

Pixels

3 Barrel layers
(r=5,9,12 cm)
2 end caps each
with 3 disks
80Mpixels
50x400um²
Digital I/O

Pixels

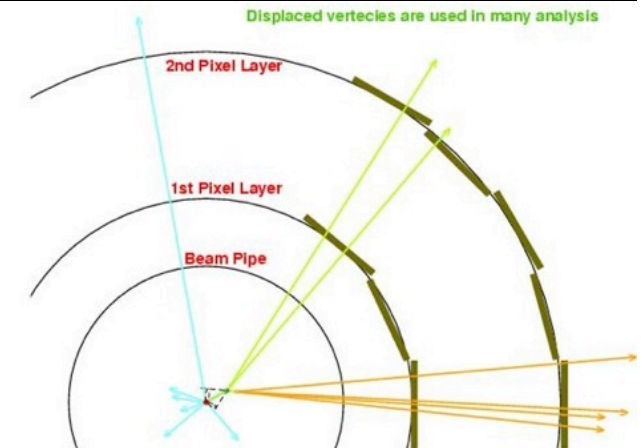
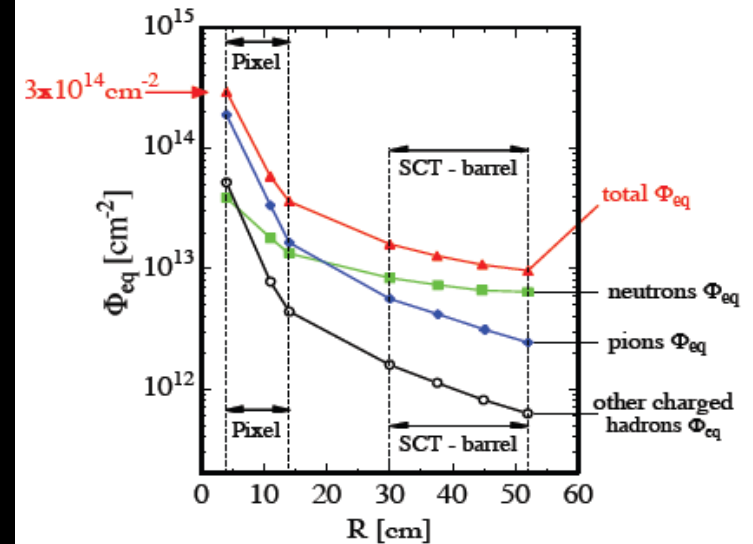
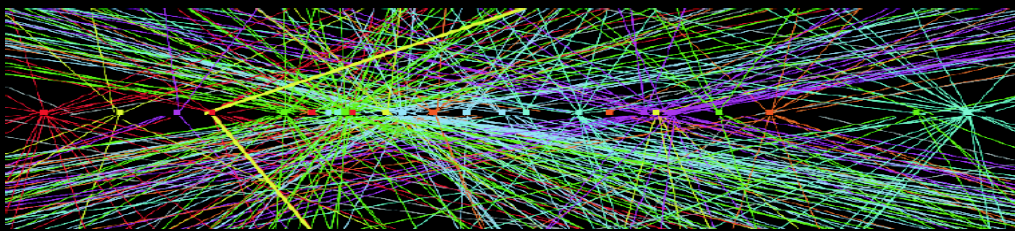
3 barrel layers
2 end caps each
with 2 disks
66 Mpixels 150 x
100um²
Analog I/O

Strips

198 m² of silicon,
9.3 million channels
Inner : 4 barrel layers,
3 end-cap disks
Outer: 6 barrel layers,
9 weels
22cm < R < 120cm

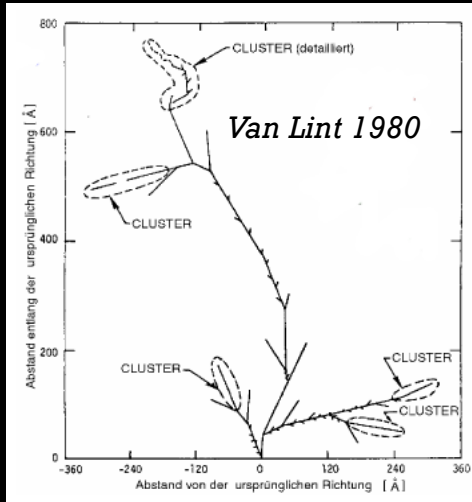
The current LHC environment for pixel detectors

- Pixels and Strips are immersed in a multiple-particle environment
- Radiation decrease radially from the beam
- Several vertices to identify



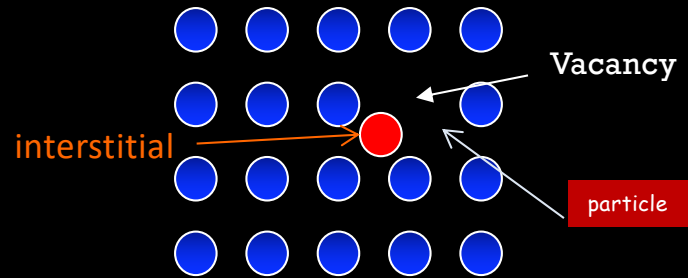
What happens during irradiation to silicon detectors?

Defects formation in irradiated silicon

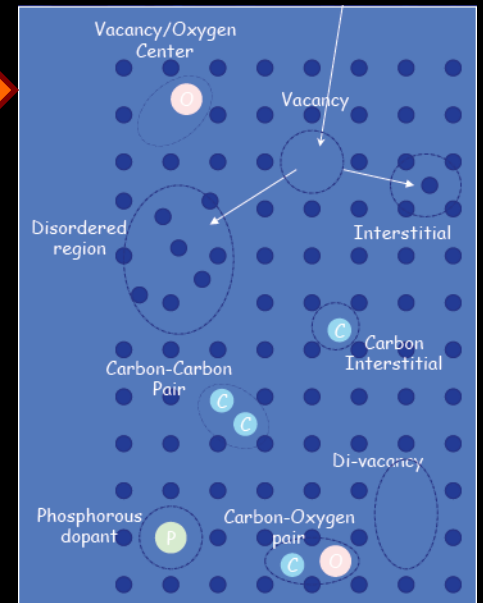
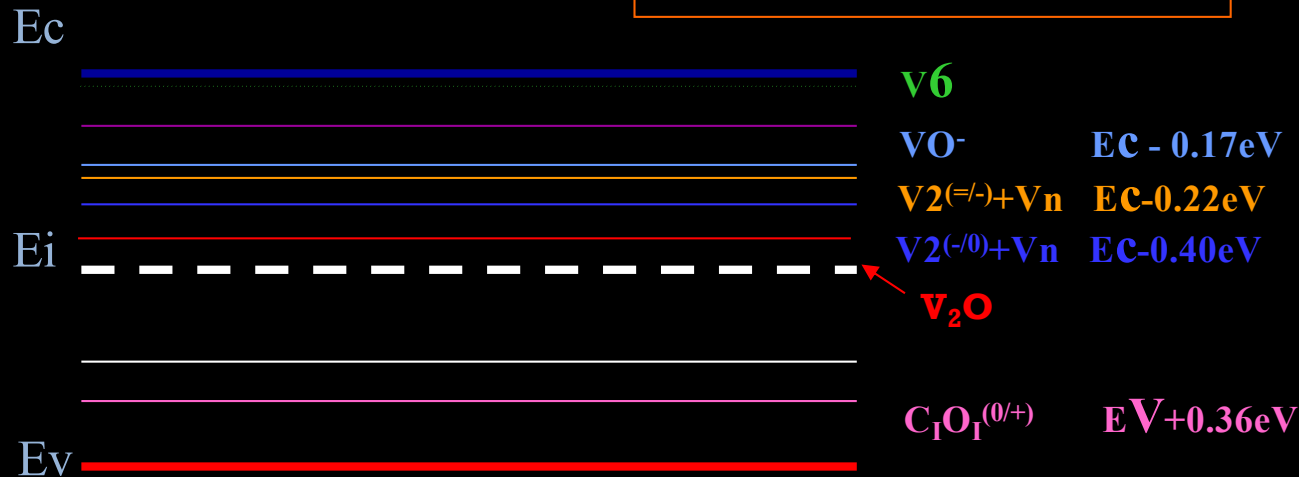


Primary Knock on Atom

Displacement thresholds in Si:
 Frenkel pair $E \sim 25\text{eV}$
 Defect cluster $E \sim 5\text{keV}$
 For X-Rays $E \sim 250\text{keV}$



V,I MIGRATE UNTIL THEY MEET IMPURITIES AND DOPANTS TO FORM STABLE DEFECTS



Defects position in the bandgap

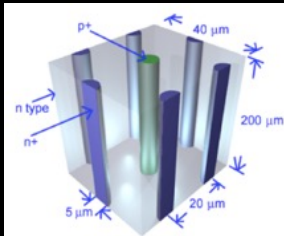
Pixels Sensors trends for the next tracking detectors

Radiation Hardness hybrid

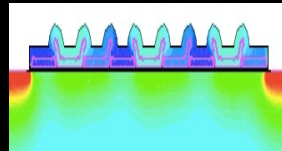
Granularity, low mass monolithic



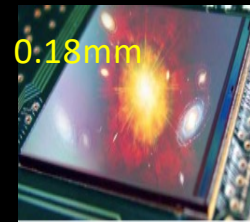
3D sensors



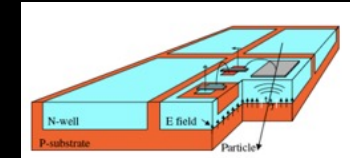
CCD



Mimosa



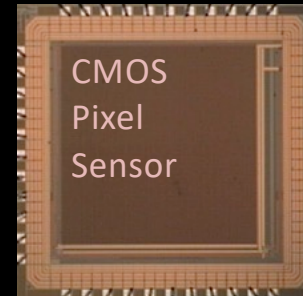
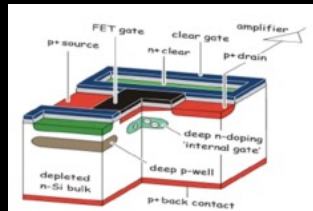
HV-MAPS



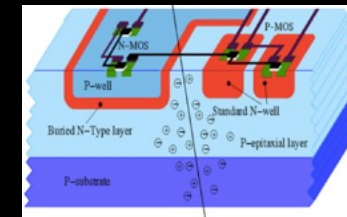
diamond



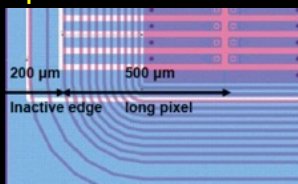
DEPFET



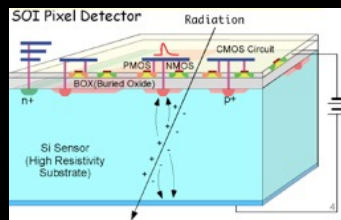
deepNwell



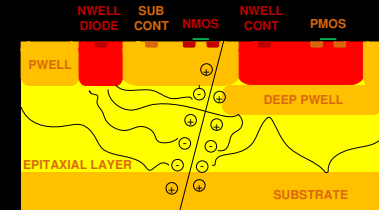
n-in-n, n-in-p-planar



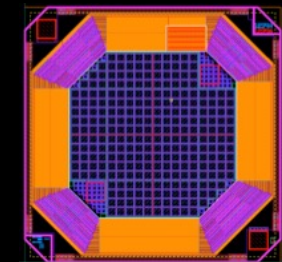
SOI



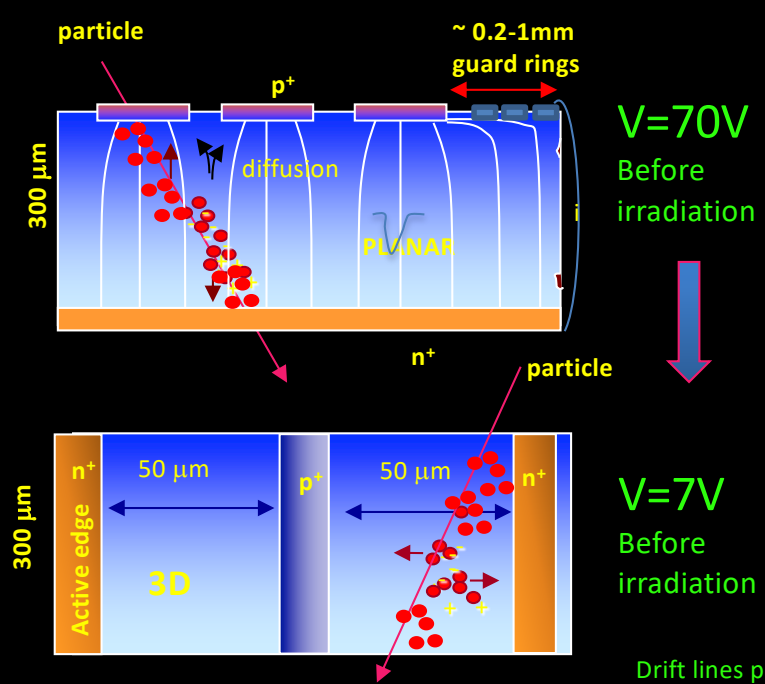
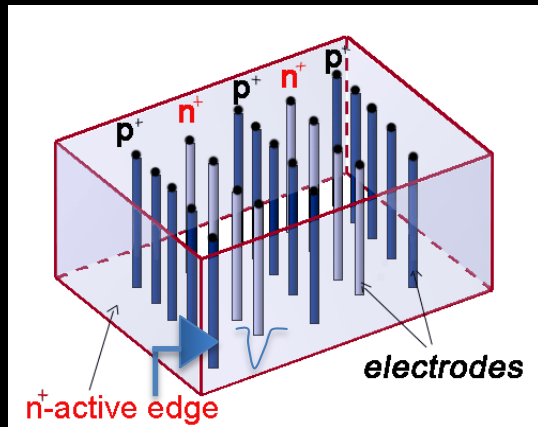
INMAPS



LePiX



3D radiation sensors



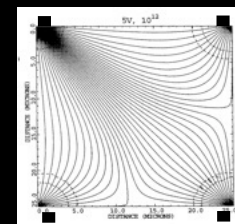
3D silicon detectors were proposed in 1995 by S. Parker, and active edges in 1997 by C. Kenney.

Combine traditional electronics processing and MEMS (Micro Electro Mechanical Systems) technology.

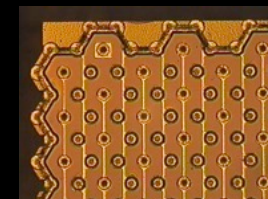
Electrodes are processed inside the detector bulk instead of being implanted on the Wafer's surface.

The edge is an electrode! Dead volume at the Edge < 5 microns!

The electric field is parallel to wafer's surface: and smaller inter-electrode spacing: low bias voltage, low power, reduced charge sharing and high speed – for the same wafer thickness



MEDICI simulation of a 3D structure



Drift lines parallel to the surface



3D is “geometrically” radiation hard at low V_{bias}

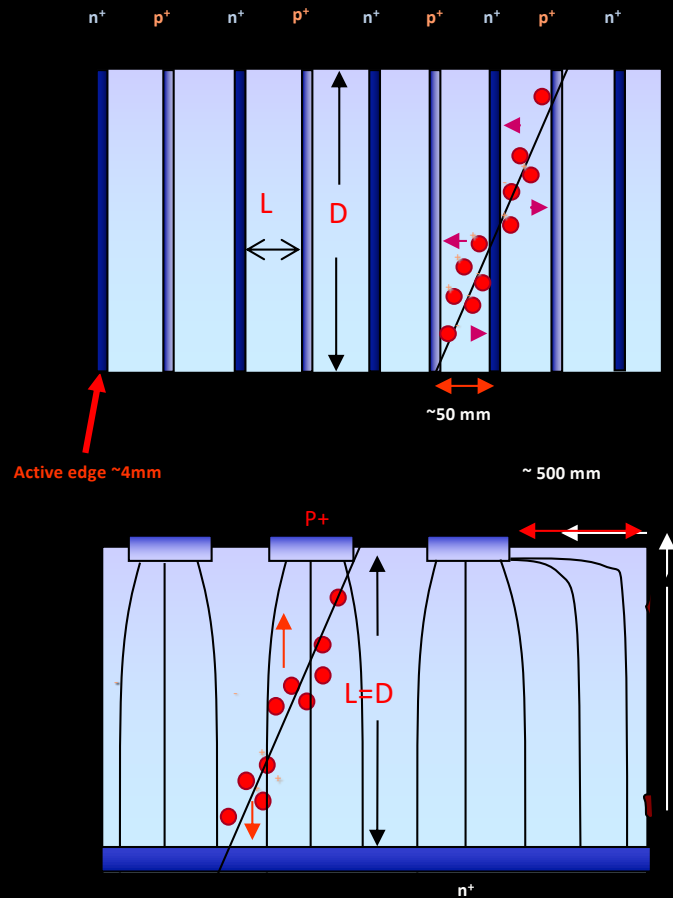
Ramo's theorem

$$\lambda = v_D \cdot \tau$$

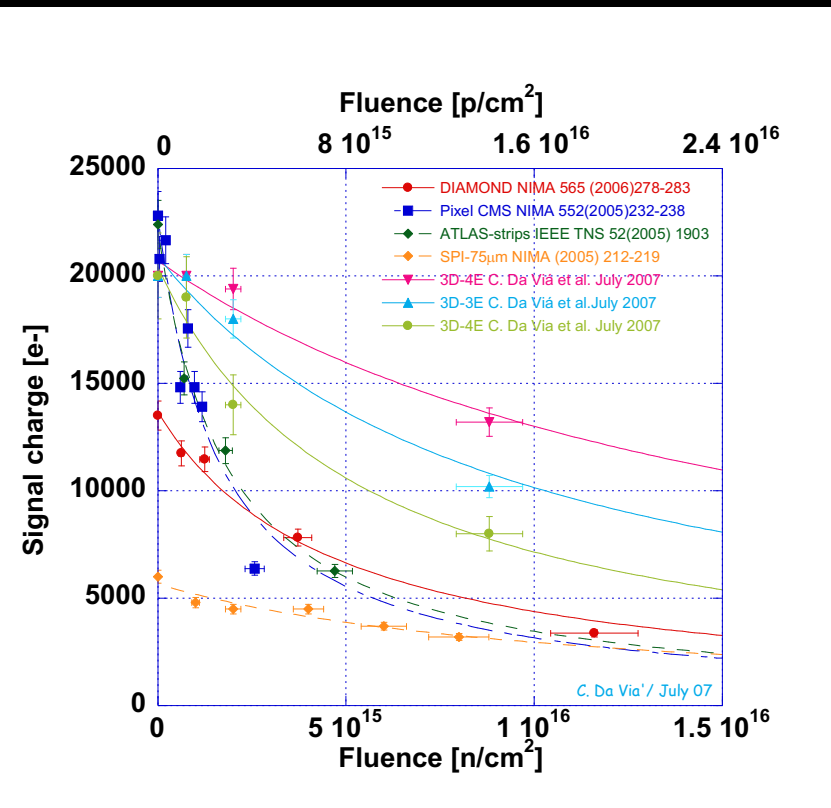
$$S = \frac{\lambda}{L} \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\lambda}\right) \right]$$

3D

particle

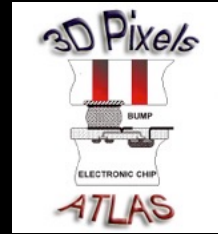


3D 4E
3D 3E
3D 2E
Diamond
Thick Si
Thin Si



PLANAR

3D sensors are now in the core of ATLAS at CERN LHC

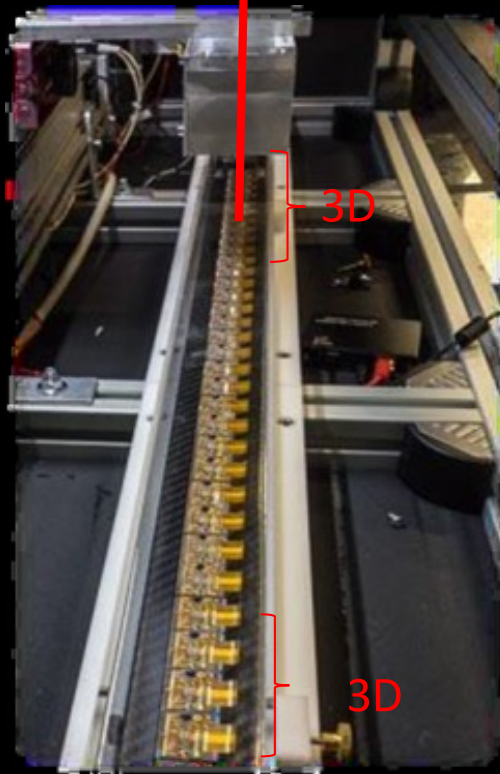
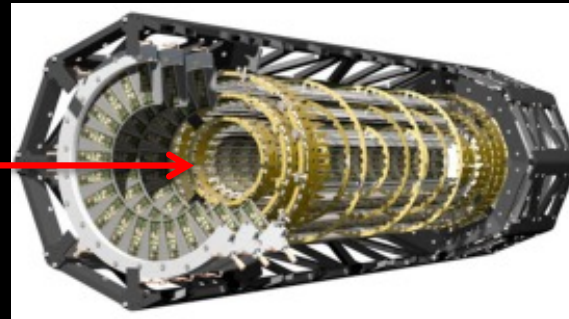


3DATLAS R&D Collaboration

NIMA 694 (2012) 321–330
2012 JINST 7 P11010.



IBL

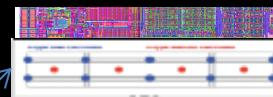


3D

3D

3D sensors just being installed in the first LHC detector upgrade in the ATLAS – Insertable B-Layer (IBL)

>300 sensors fabricated to cover 25% IBL



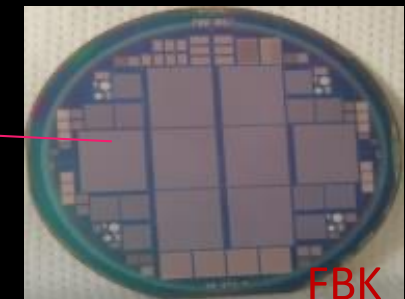
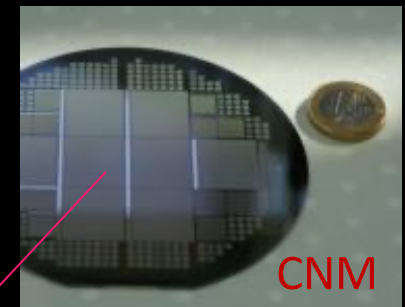
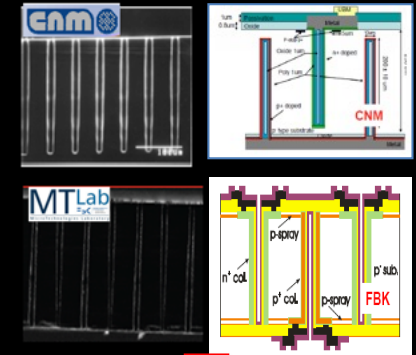
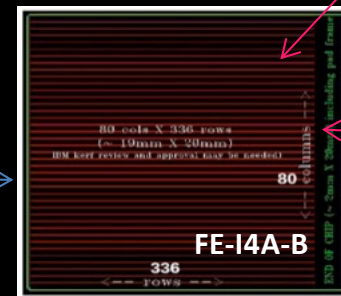
250 x 50 μm^2

FE-I4 = 2x2cm²

336 x 80

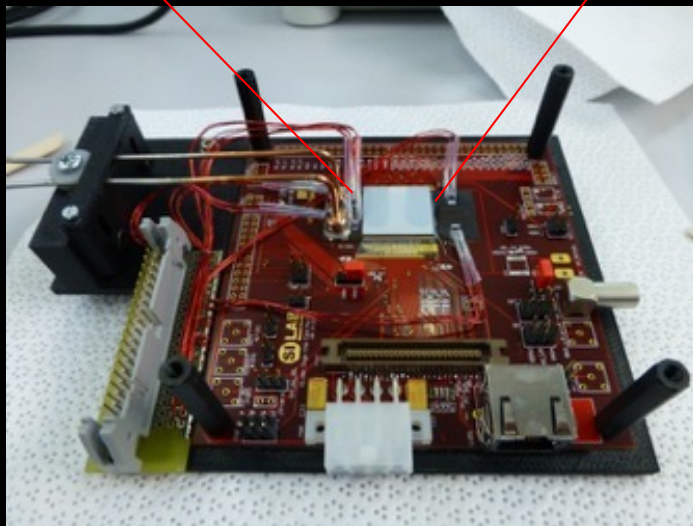
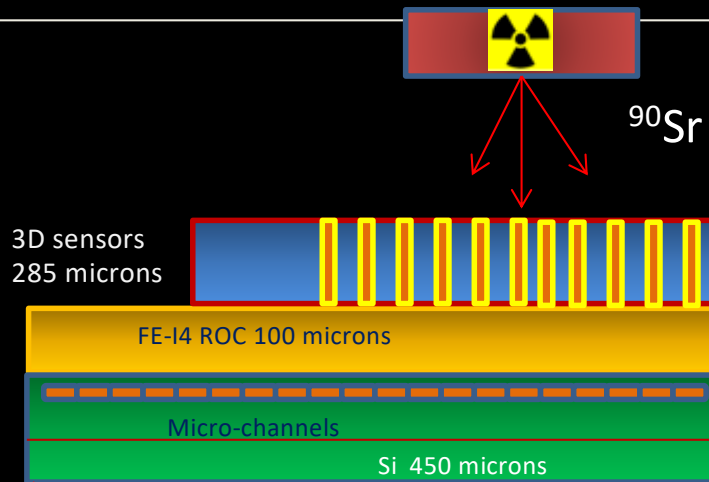
250x50 μm^2 ,

26880 pixels

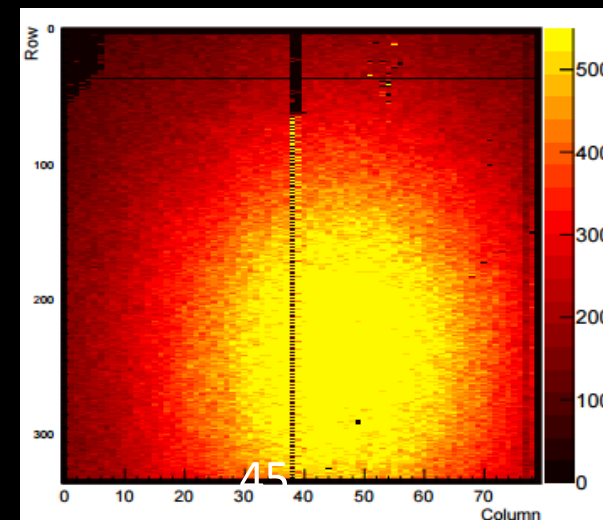


3D Vertically Integrated Module with CO₂ internal cooling

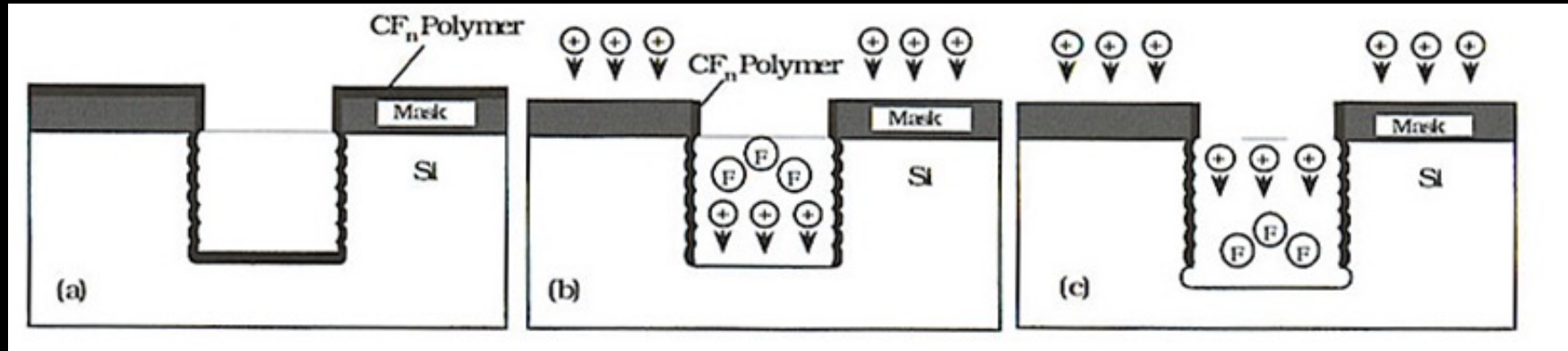
C. Da Via, F. Munoz-Sanchez, N. Dann, D. Hellesmidt, P. Petagna, G. Romagnoli



- 3D silicon : CNM double side 285 um thick IBL qualification batch
- FE-I4A: thinned to 100um at IZM
- Si-Si micro-channels
designed by CERN PH-DT,
produced by PH-DT in EPFL CMi cleanroom,
direct bonding CSEM
- Glue: 2-components
Masterbond EP37-3FLFAO

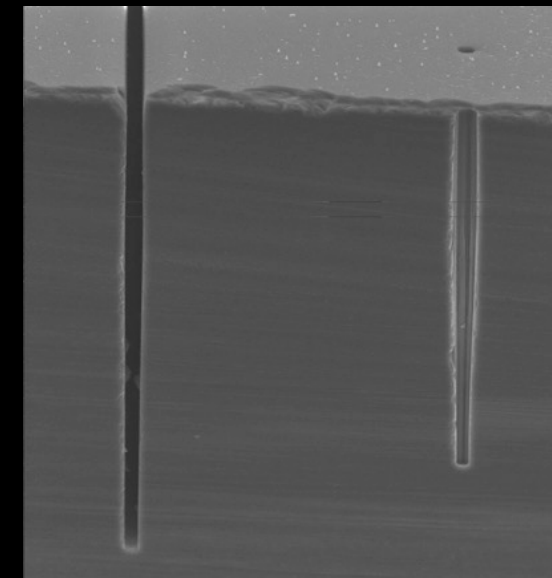


The key to fabrication: plasma etching



BOSCH PROCESS: alternating passivation (C_4F_8) and etch cycles (SF_6);

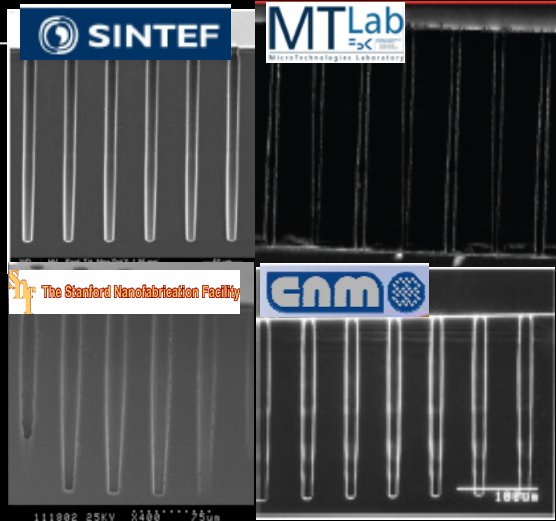
- ❖ Within the plasma an electric field is applied perpendicular to the silicon surface.
- ❖ The etch cycle consists of fluorine based etchants which react with silicon surface, removing silicon. The etch rates are $\sim 1-5\mu\text{m}/\text{minute}$.
- ❖ To minimize side wall etching, etch cycle is stopped and replaced with a passivation gas which creates a Teflon-like coating homogenously around the cavity. Energetic fluorine ions, accelerated by the e-field, remove the coating from the cavity bottom but NOT the side walls.



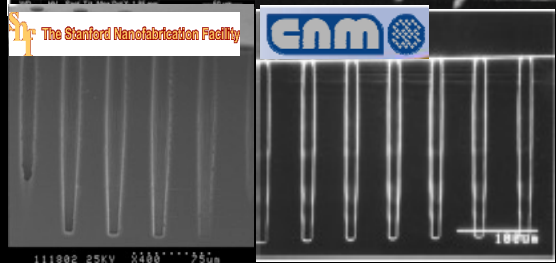
724104 25KV X300 100um
Slide from J. Hasi

Developments in Bulk Micro-Fabrication

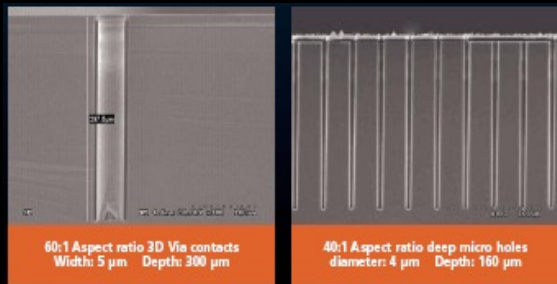
Cinzia Da Via, Stony Brook USA and The University of Manchester, UK – 2022



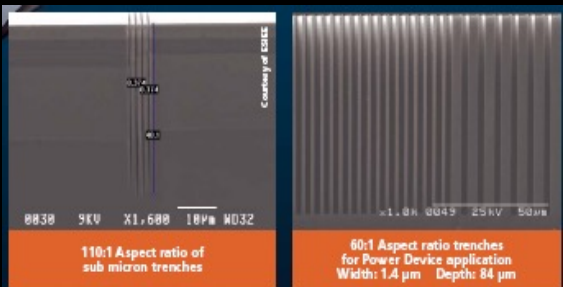
11:1
1997



24:1
today



40-60:1

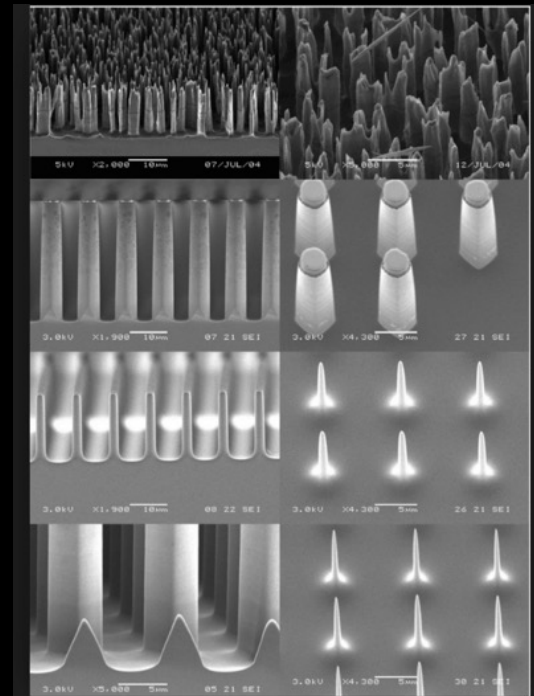
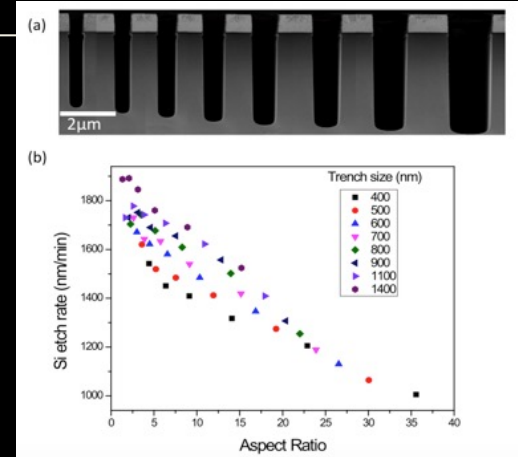


110:1!!!

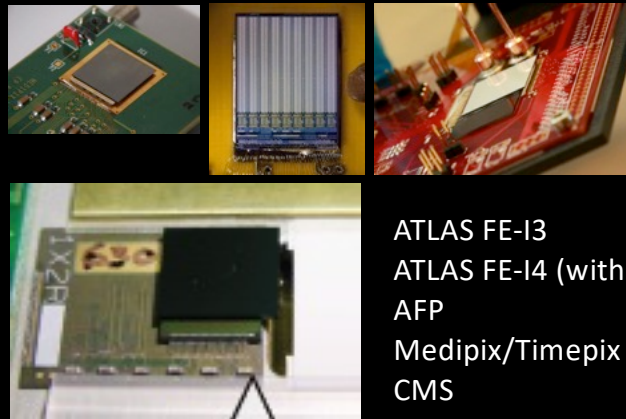


Deep Reactive Ion Etching

Cryo-etching



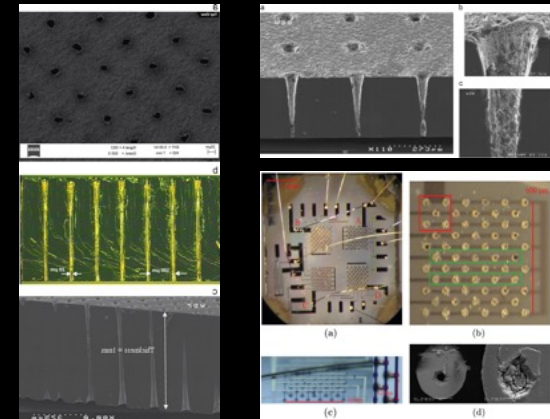
3D Detectors and applications



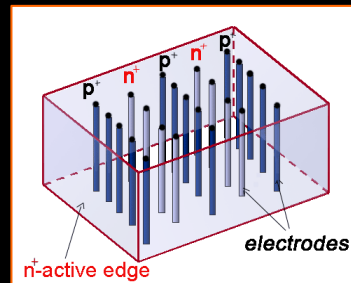
ATLAS FE-I3
 ATLAS FE-I4 (with micro-channels)
 AFP
 Medipix/Timepix
 CMS

LHC-Upgrades

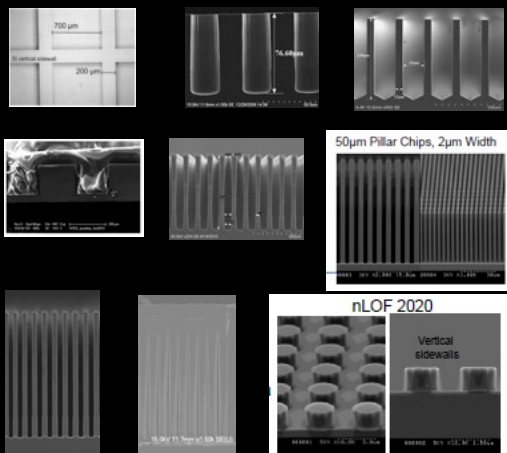
- GaAs
- CdTe
- Diamond



Consolidated Silicon +ASIC
 Silicon +Converter



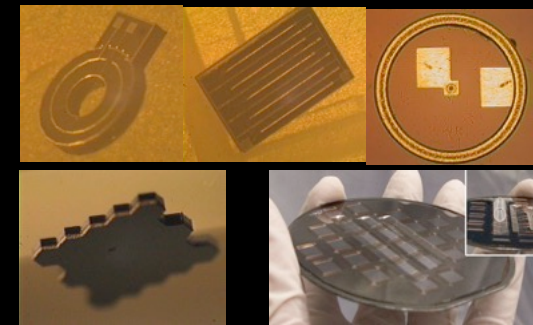
New Materials
 New Shapes
 Emerging



Neutron detectors

3D

- Core shell
- Curved
- Edge
- Ring..



Concluding Remarks

The development of radiation detectors and imaging technologies has always been a crucial component in scientific discoveries and in applications like medicine and biology

... and the best has still to come..



Material From:

Status and challenges for detectors in High Energy	– Ariella Cattai CERN
Status and main challenges for detectors in Synchrotron Applications	- Heinz Graftsma DESY , Ralf Menk
Status and challenges for detectors in Nuclear Physics	- Yacouba Diawara IAEA
Status and challenges for neutron detectors	- Richard Hall-Wilton ESS
Status and main challenges for detectors at fusion facilities	- Duarte Borba EFDA-JET
Status and main challenges for detectors in Hadron Therapy	- Bernd Voss GSI
Status and main challenges for medical imaging detectors	– Thilo Michel Erlangen
Detectors for pre-clinical imaging	- Nicola Belcari INFN Pisa
Status and challenges for detectors in electron microscopy -	Wasi Faruqi , Cambridge University
Status and main challenges for detectors in Astronomy and Astrophysics	- Karl-Tasso Knoepfle MPI
High Z Materials	- Michael Fiederle , Freiburg Univ. FMF
Natural Radiation Monitoring	– Ulrich Stohlker Freiburg Univ.
Diamond Detectors- applications as radiation sensors and beam monitors –	Wolfgang Lohmann DESY
Particle therapy	- Patrick Le Du
Gas Detectors	-Maxym Titov, Saclay
Timepix	- Stanislav Pospisil, TU Prague
History	-Ritam Jorder