

Optical characterization of semiconductor Detectors: An introduction to TCT (Transient Current Technique)

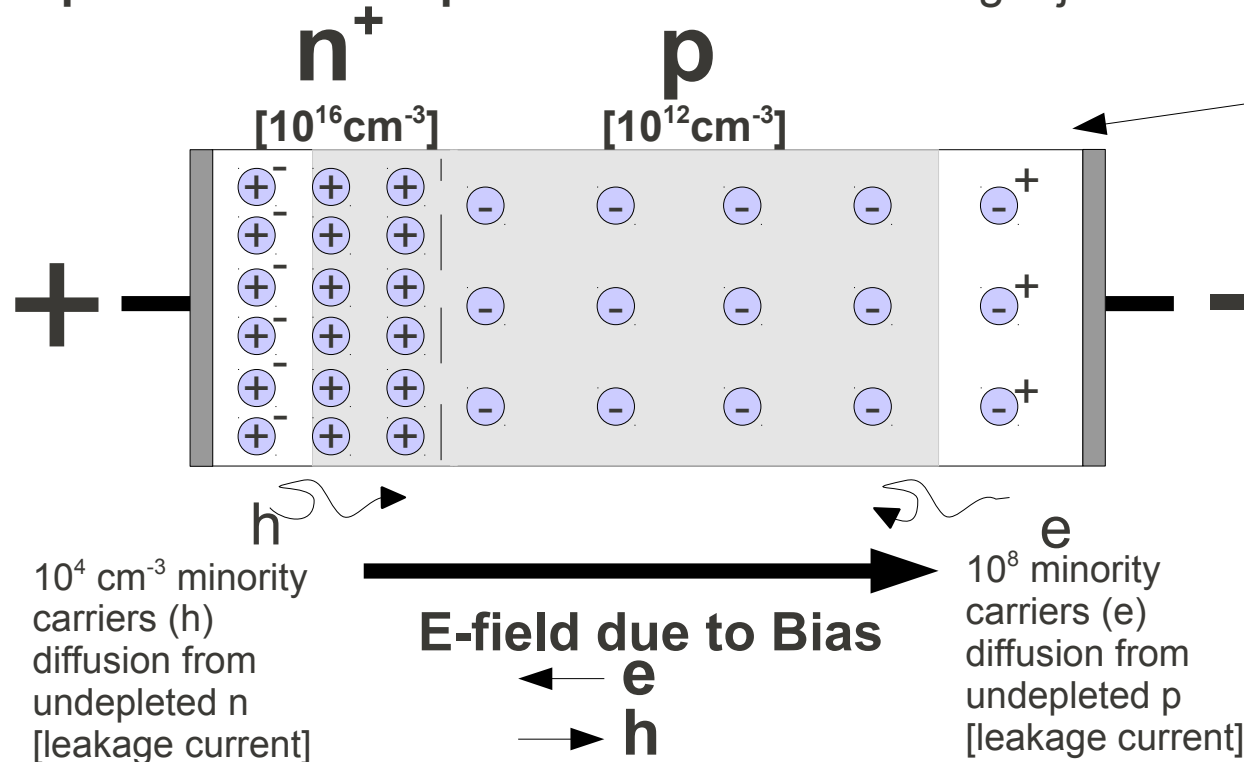
Reminder of useful concepts

- Number of free thermally generated charge carriers in intrinsic Si prevents usage as a solid state detector: $n_i \sim 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ vs 10^4 e-h pairs produced by a **MIP** in $300 \mu\text{m}$ of Si.

- Si atomic density is $\sim 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-3} \rightarrow 1$ in 10^{12} atoms loose an electron at RT

- Mass action law** (valid for doped/undoped material) relates number of charge carriers of each type in equilibrium: $n \cdot p = n_i^2$. Out of equilibrium, generation-recombination processes will try to get back to this condition.

- Problem: deplete intrinsic Si bulk of charge carriers \rightarrow not possible. However a bulk of **doped Si can be depleted**. Trick is done using a junction of **n** and **p-doped** Si.



Here you are! The most basic semiconductor detector

Majority	Minority
$N_n \sim 10^{16}$	$p_n = 10^{20}/10^{16} = 10^4 \ll n_n$
$p_p \sim 10^{12}$	$n_p = 10^{20}/10^{12} = 10^8 \ll p_p$

Reminder of useful formulae

$$-\frac{d^2\Phi(x)}{dx^2} = \frac{\rho_{el}}{\epsilon\epsilon_0} = \frac{eN_{eff}}{\epsilon\epsilon_0}$$

■ Poisson equation because this is an electrostatics problem

$$V_{dep} = \frac{eN_a}{2\epsilon\epsilon_0} d^2$$

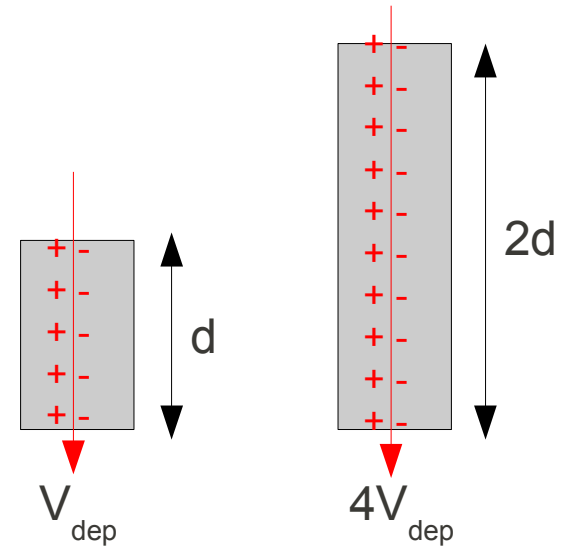
■ If we increase the thickness by factor 2 (to collect more charge) we need to apply four times the depletion voltage!

■ Doping concentration can be calculated, once thickness is known

■ Capacitance is inversely proportional to depleted thickness

$$W(U) = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon\epsilon_0}{eN_a} (U + U_{bi})}$$

■ Depleted width increases as the square root of voltage



What is TCT?

What is TCT?

TCT is a tool to characterize semiconductor detectors

TCT can answer the following question

TCT can answer the following (unlikely) question

TCT can **answer** the following (unlikely) **question**
that you may pose yourself

What does an electron see...



What does an electron see



when it is traveling
inside a detector?



It sees:

1) other electrons traveling



It sees:

1) other electrons traveling



2) Silicon lattice



It sees:

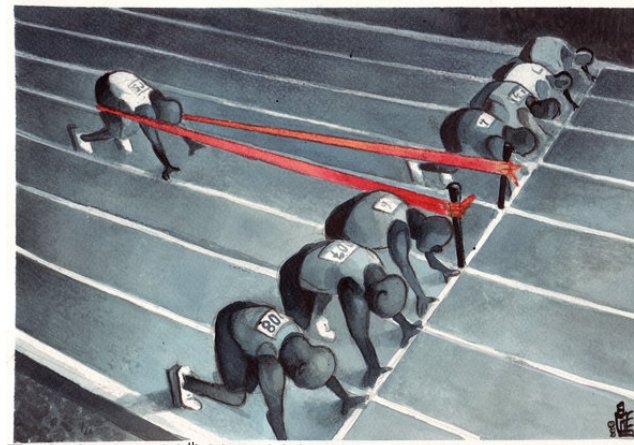
1) other electrons traveling



2) Silicon lattice

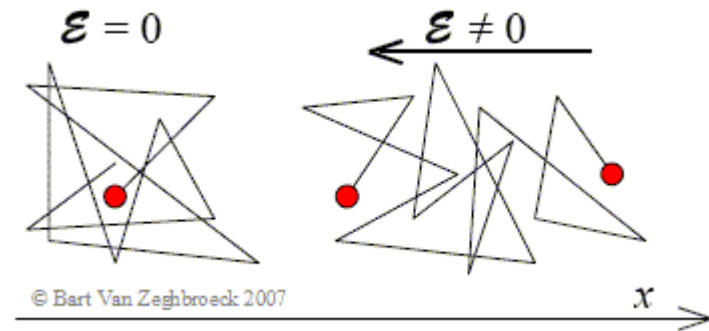


3) Some doping

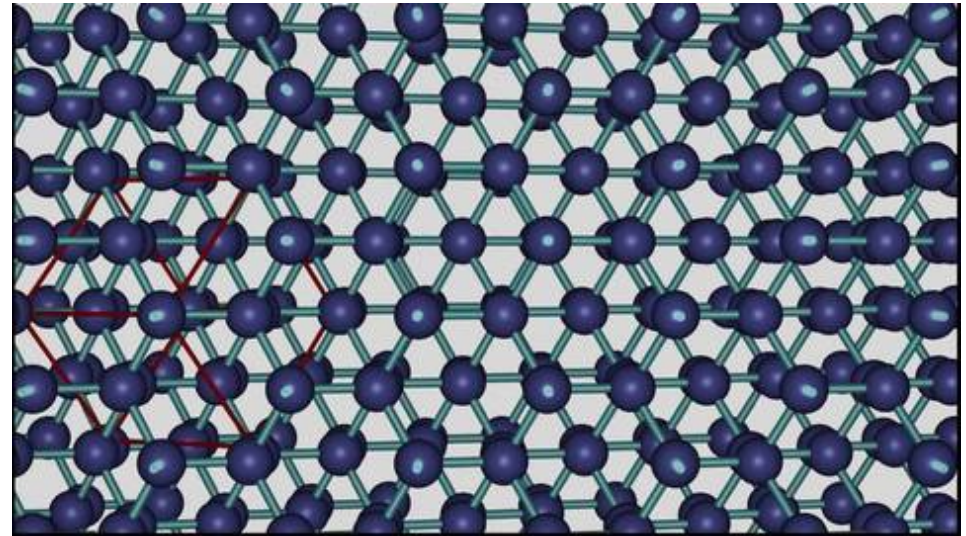


It sees:

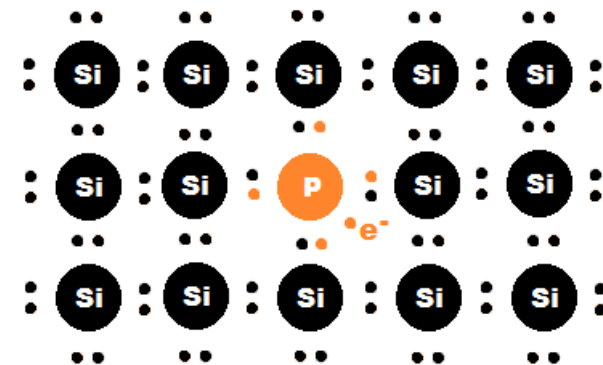
1) other electrons traveling



2) Silicon lattice



3) Some doping



It feels:

1) an electric field



TCT (Transient Current Technique) gives us information of the **electric field** the carriers **feel** during their trip across a silicon detector



And **why** is this **important**? Because if you know the electric field inside your device, you know everything about it. And the **E-field** of a detector embedded in a radiation field **changes** alongside the life of the detector. We can **measure** these changes using **TCT**.

Ramo's theorem: signal formation

In a **roller coaster** the slope of the tracks determines the speed of the train. If we measure the velocity of a wagon as a function of time we could infer the shape of the roller coaster.



In TCT, the **signal** we measure is the **current** induced by the movement of carriers



This man (**Simon Ramo**, 1913-2016) demonstrated that the induced current in a system of electrodes can be calculated considering the **drift velocity** of the carrier... **weighted** by a magnitude (so-called weighting field) that depends on the position of the particle.

In a **2 electrode system**, the **velocity profile** corresponds to the **E-field profile** (diode~roller coaster)

$$I(t) = q_e v_{drift} E_w$$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} q_e \text{ is the electron charge} \\ v_{drift} \text{ is the drift velocity of the carrier} \\ E_w \text{ is the weighting or Ramo field} \end{array} \right.$



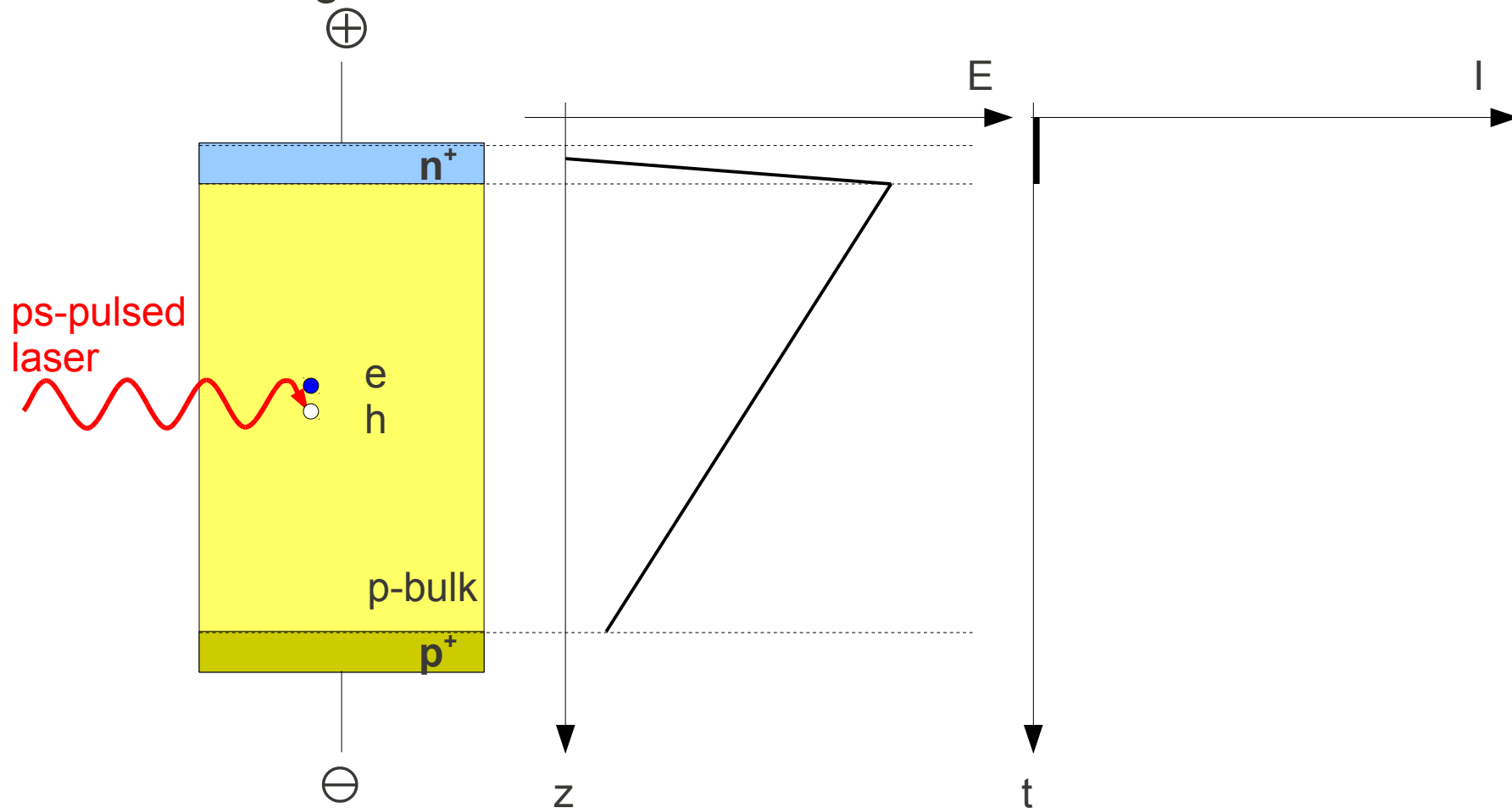
The **drift velocity** of a carrier is, for small fields, **linear with the intensity of the field** (see backup slides). Therefore the **“shape” of the induced current** will tell us something about the **shape of the E-field** the carriers see.

What is TCT?

(finally!)

TCT: Transient Current Technique

Allows to probe the space charge of a detector by measuring transport of induced charge carriers

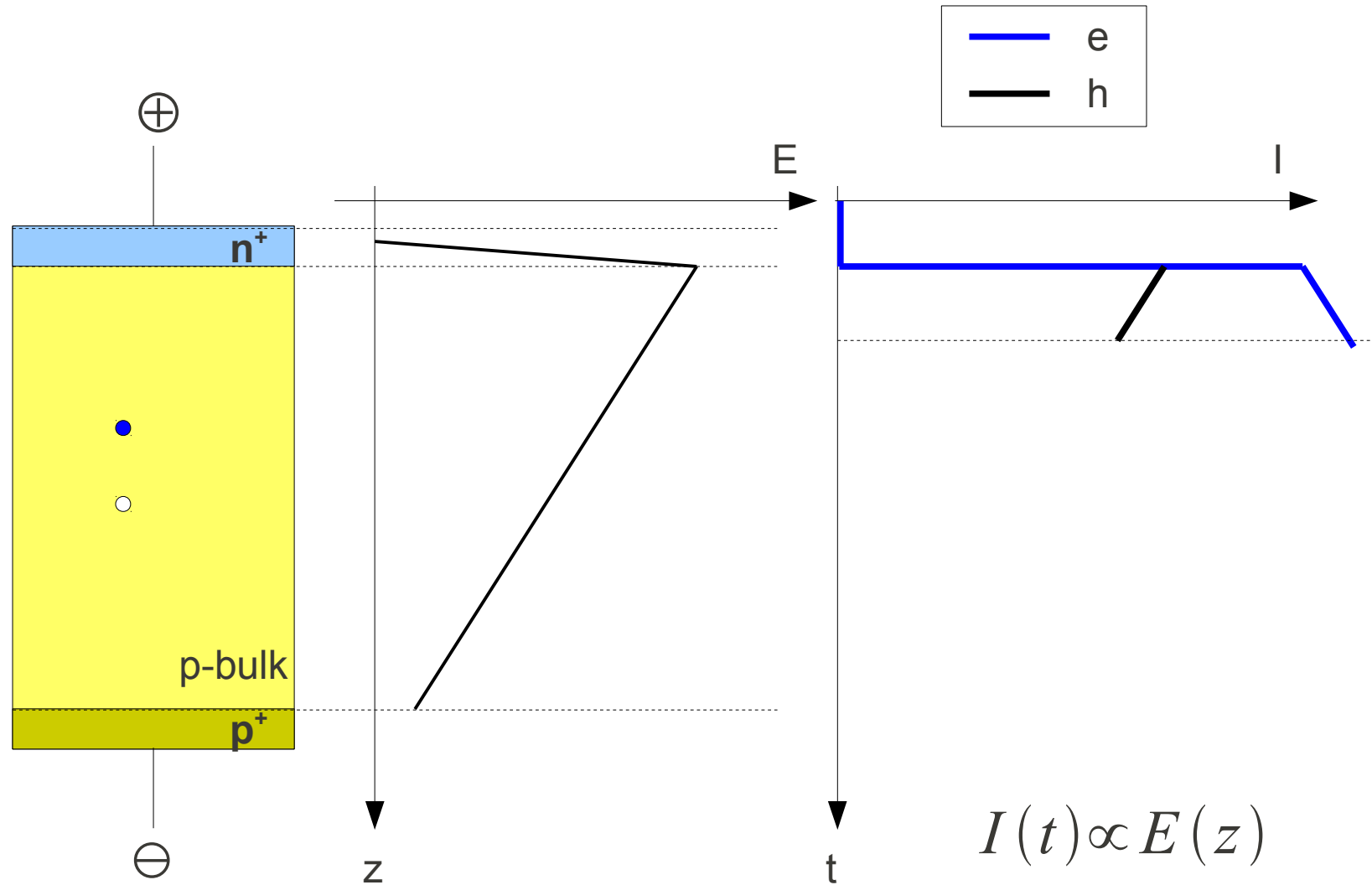


$$I(t) = N_{eh} A q_e v_{drift} E_W \propto v_{drift} = \mu(E) E \Rightarrow I(t) \propto E(z)$$

Assumption: overdepleted, non-irradiated diode

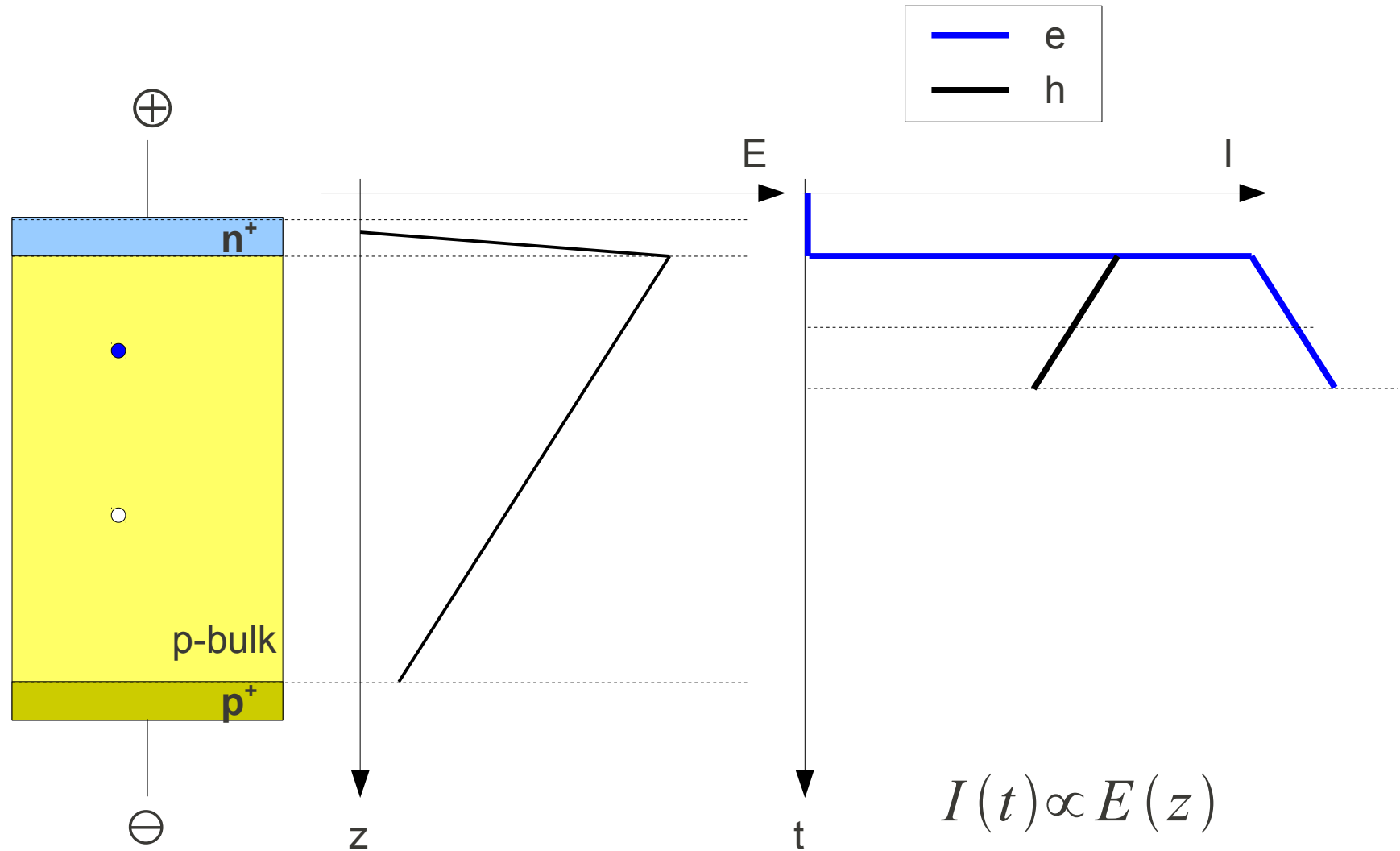
t = -0 ns 19

TCT: Transient Current Technique



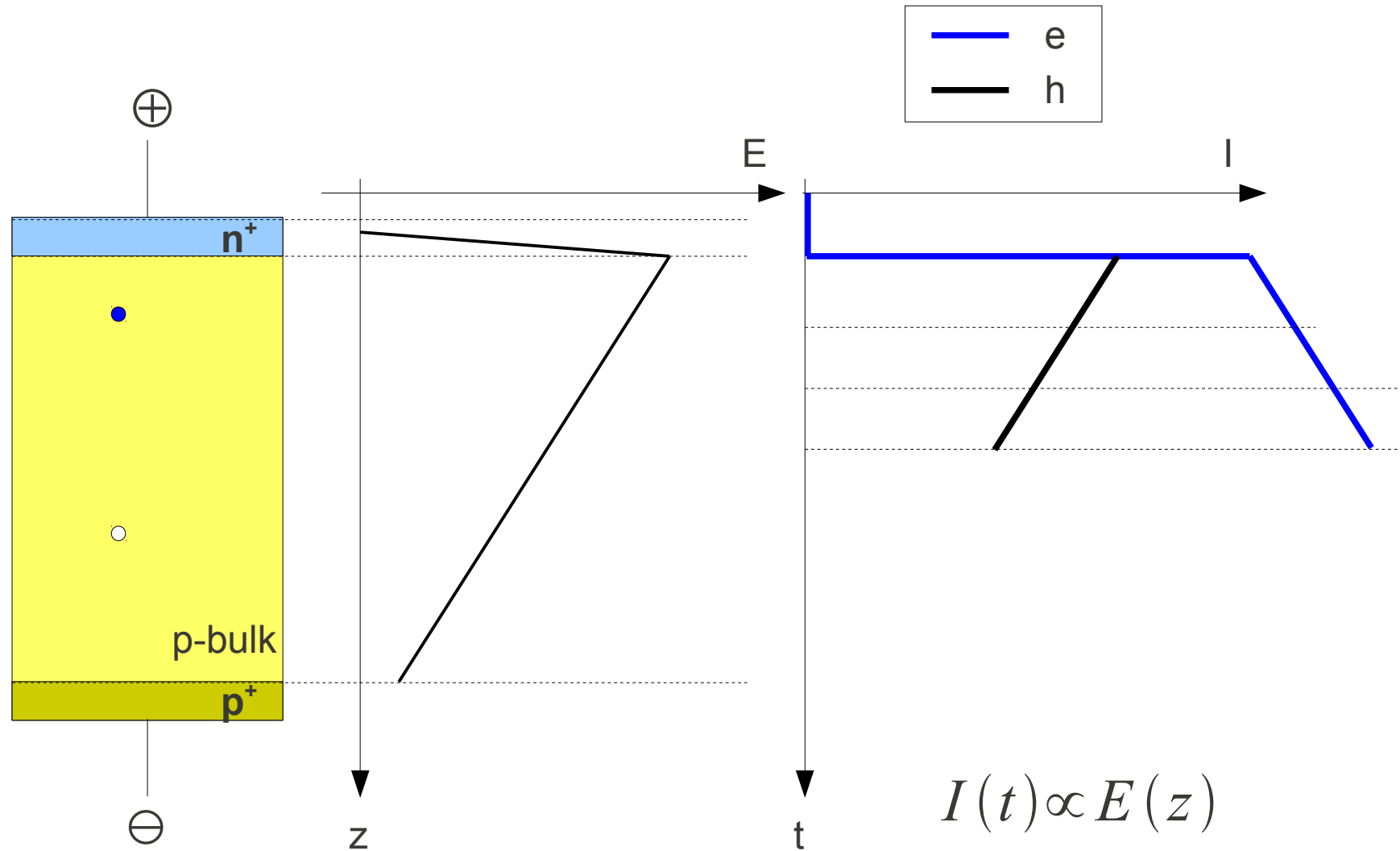
t = 1 ns

TCT: Transient Current Technique



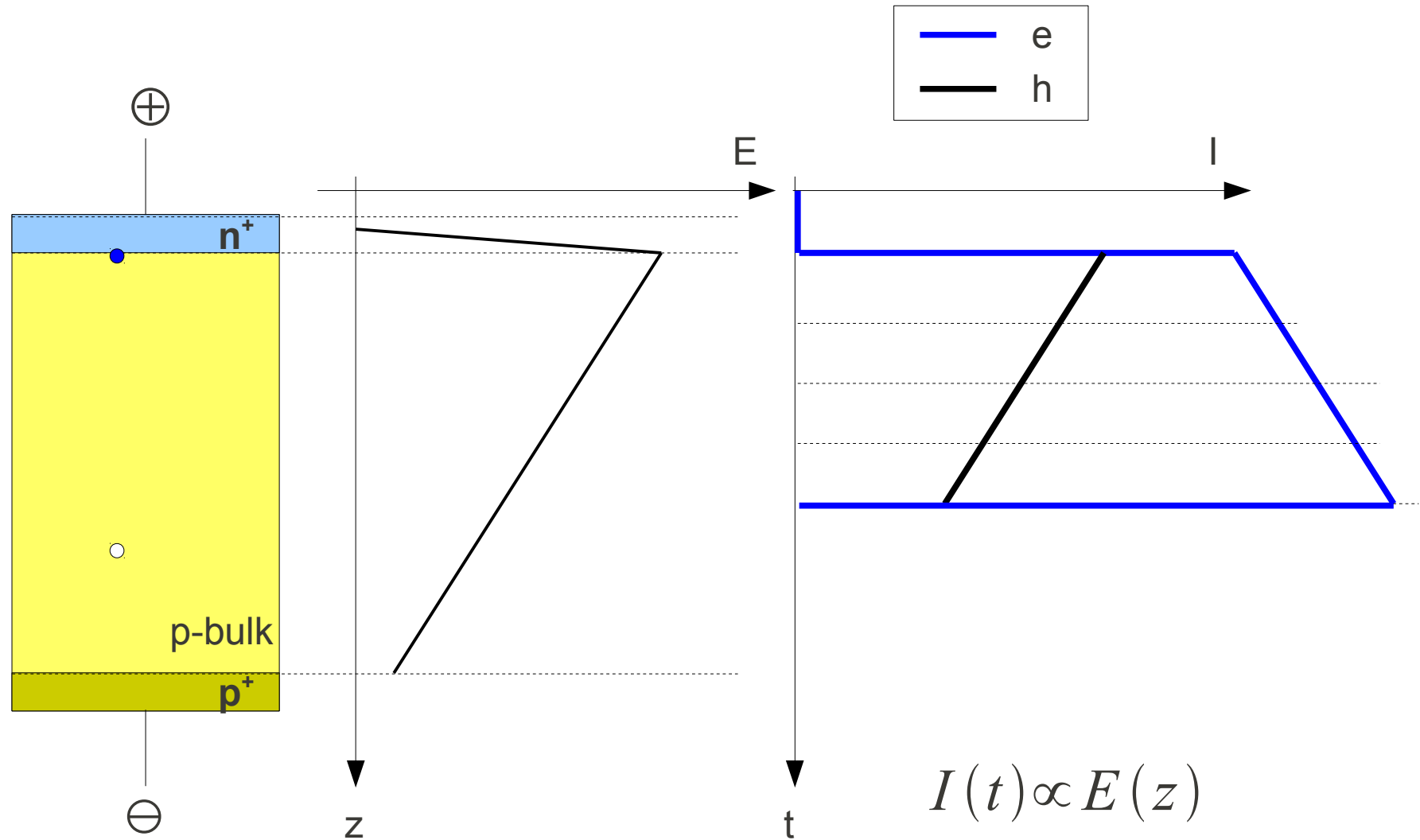
t = 2 ns

TCT: Transient Current Technique



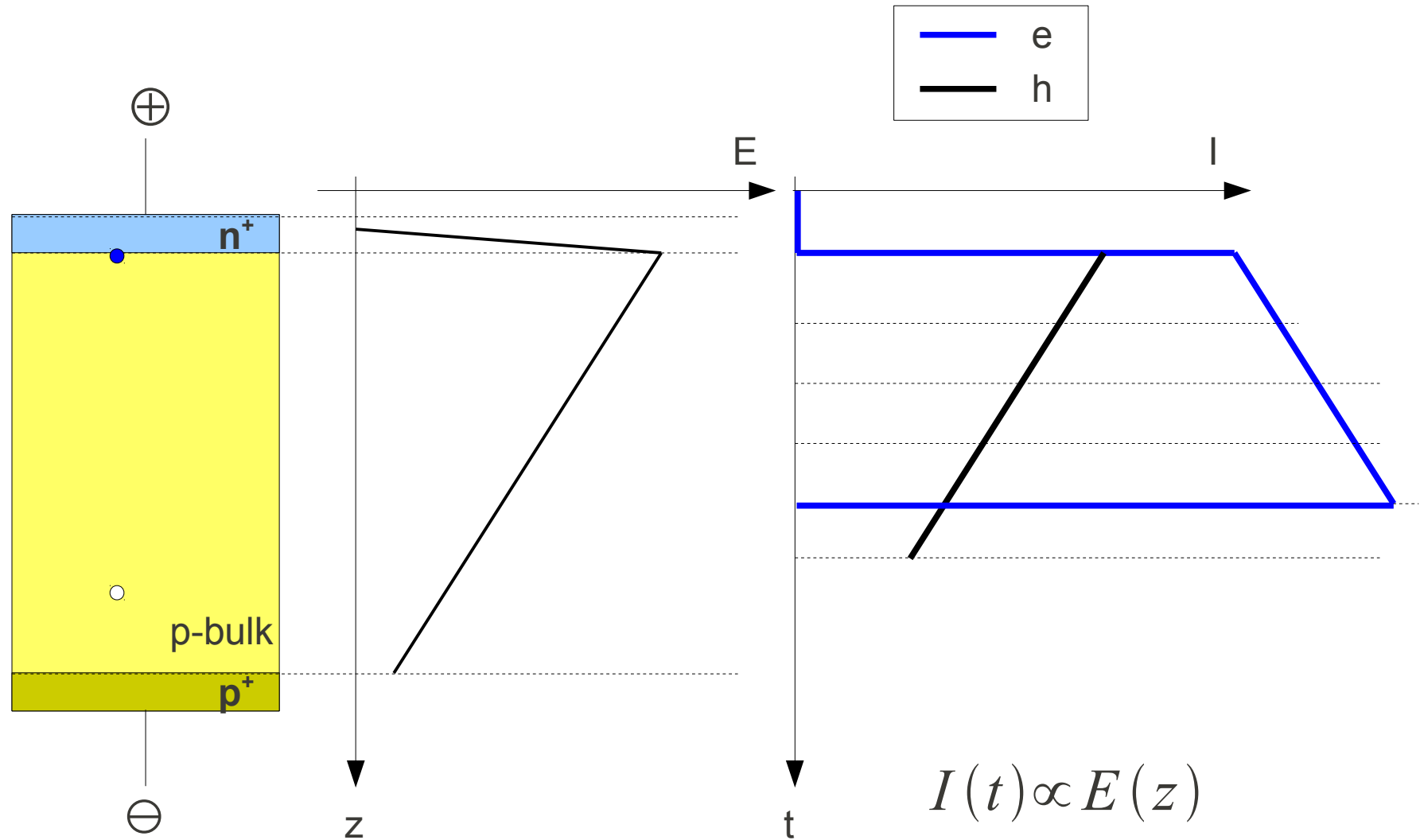
t = 3 ns

TCT: Transient Current Technique



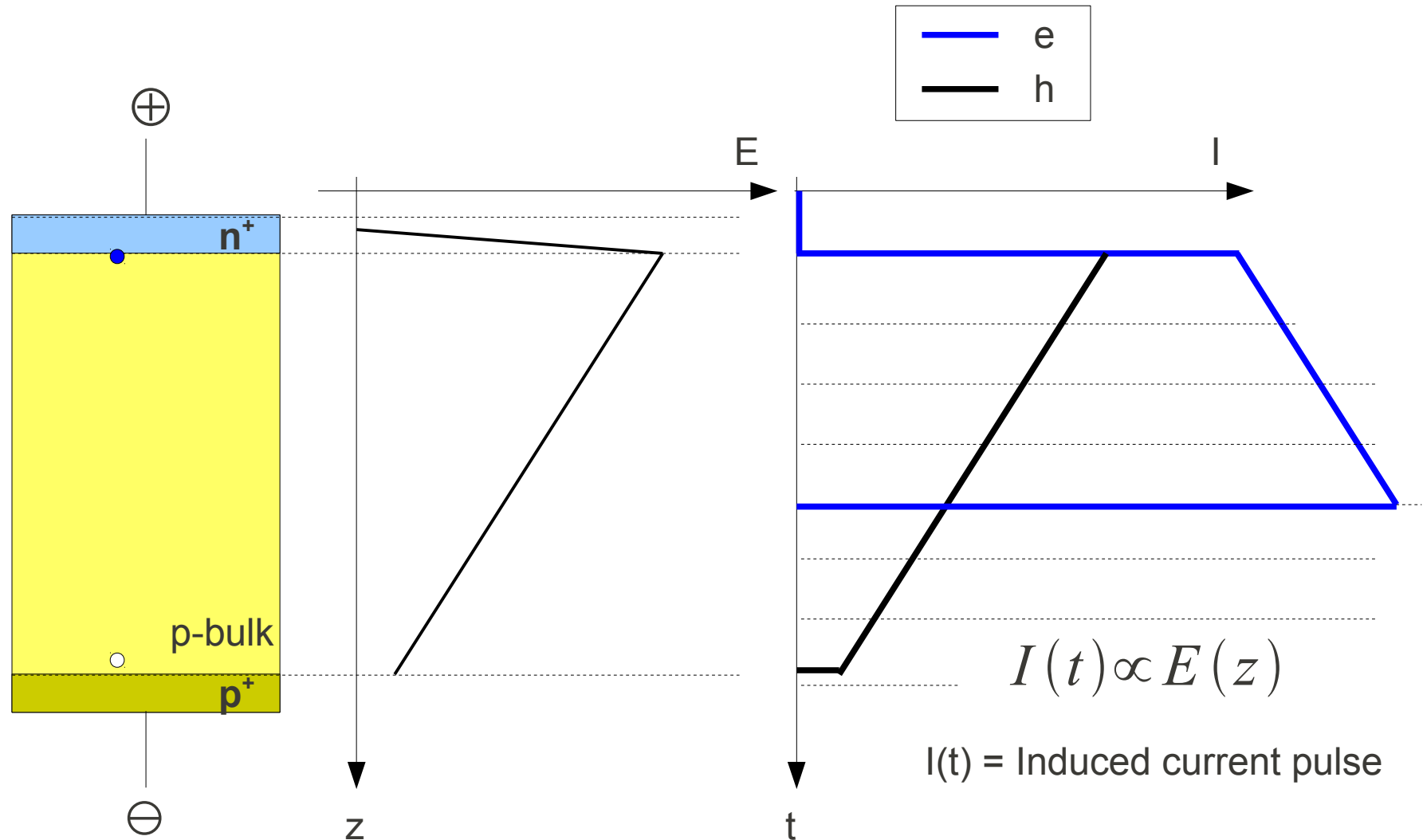
$t = 4 \text{ ns}$

TCT: Transient Current Technique



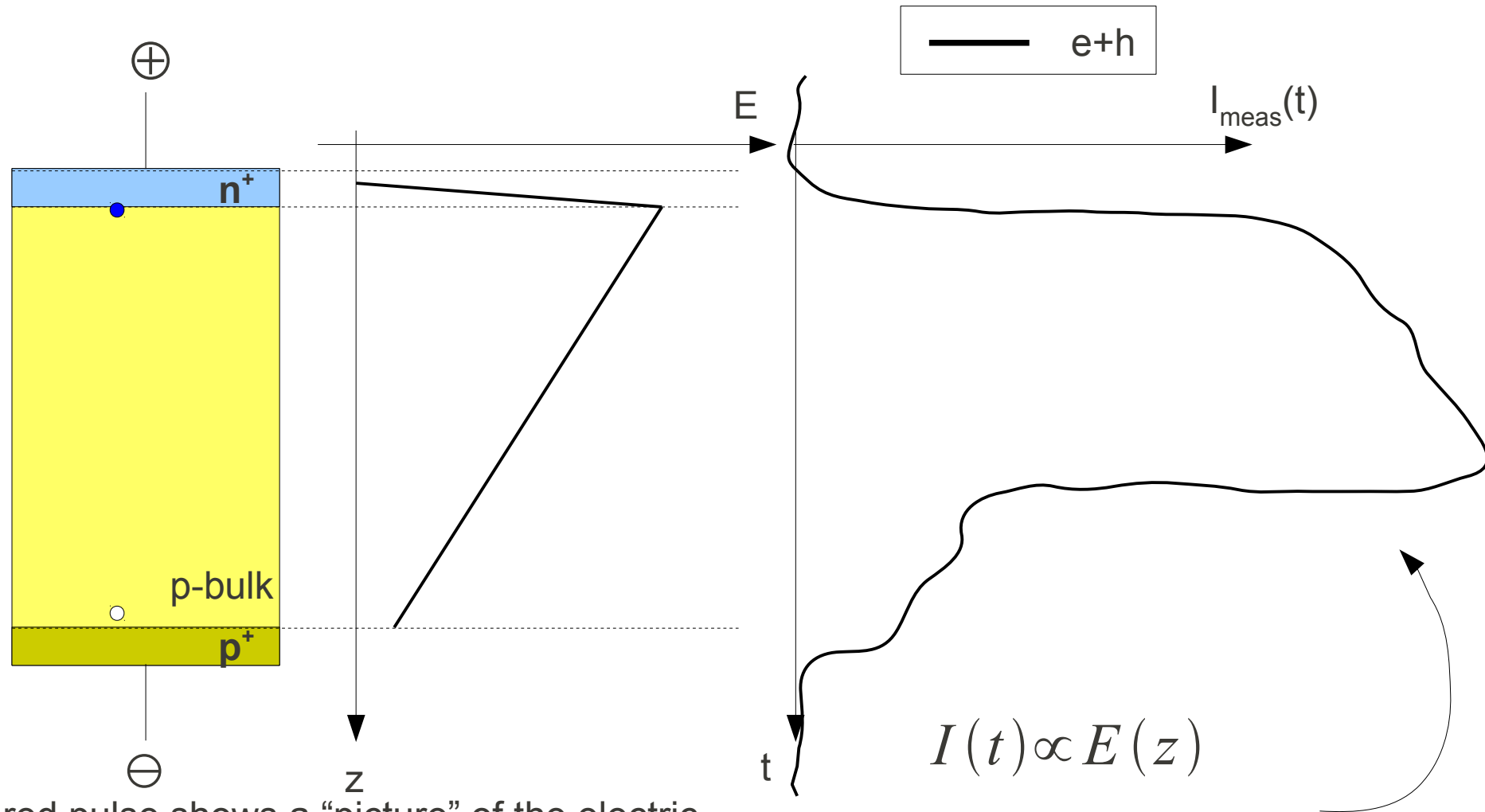
t = 6 ns

TCT: Transient Current Technique



$t = 12 \text{ ns}$ ₂₅

TCT: Transient Current Technique



Measured pulse shows a “picture” of the electric field the carriers encountered during drift.

For an **irradiated** detector, the picture gets **distorted** due to **trapping** of charge carriers. Carriers do not “**see**” the full E-field profile.

Measured pulse convolutes:

- 1) EM noise
- 2) RC_{detector} (low pass filtering)
- 3) Amplifier transfer function²⁶

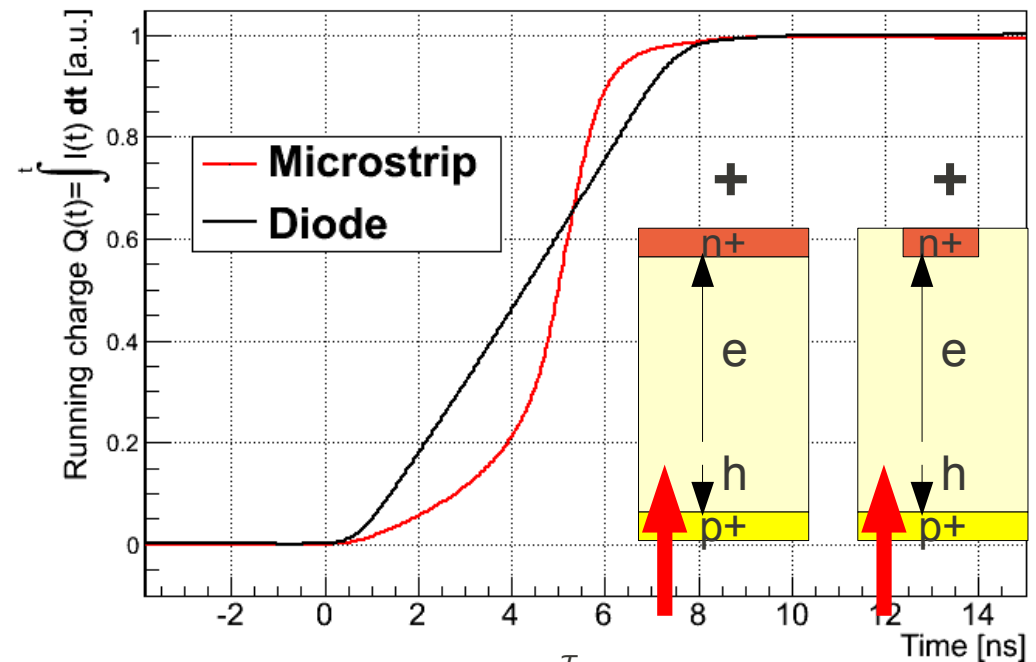
Sensing weighting field effects

- **Weighting field** is not a physical field, **cannot** be measured. It can be calculated by solving Laplace's equation ($\rho=0$) setting the collecting electrode to 1 V and all the rest to 0V.
- Mathematically, the charge induced by a particle moving from position 1 \rightarrow 2 can be expressed as the difference of the weighting potential at these 2 points: $Q=e[\Phi(r_2)-\Phi(r_1)]$

▪ By measuring the induced current in red back illumination we can picture the weighting field of the detector.

- \rightarrow At $t=0$ the carrier is at the back and it did not induce any current.
- \rightarrow At $t=\tau$ the carrier is at r

We can plot



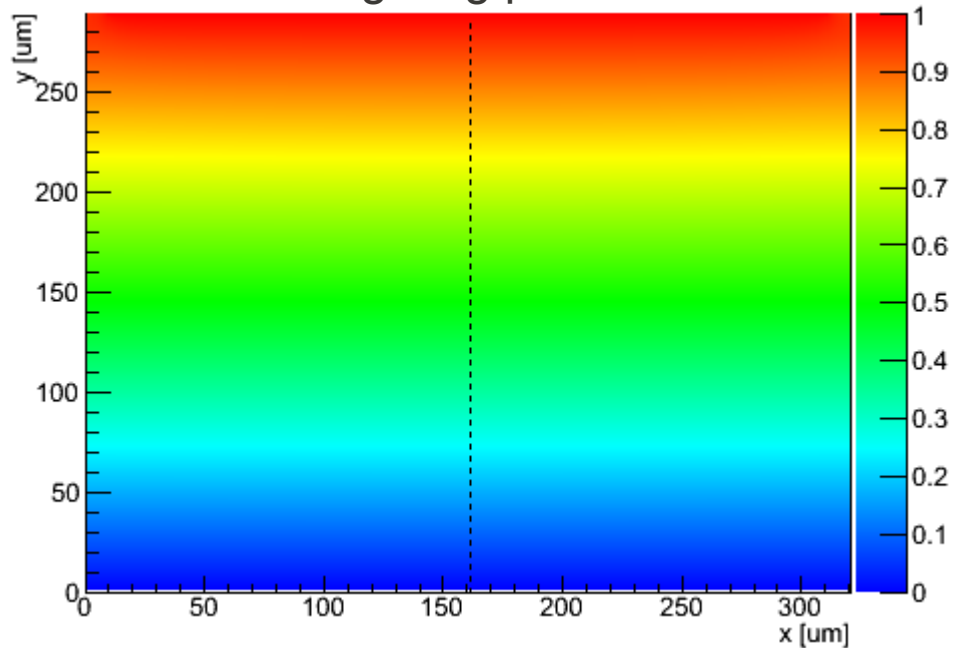
$$Q(\tau) = e(\phi_W(\tau) - \phi_W(0)) = e(\phi_W(\tau) - 0) = e\phi_W(\tau) = \int_0^{\tau} I(t) dt$$

Induced charge in a diode does not depend on the position of the carriers. However, for a microstrip, most of the charge for a strip is induced near the strip

DIODE

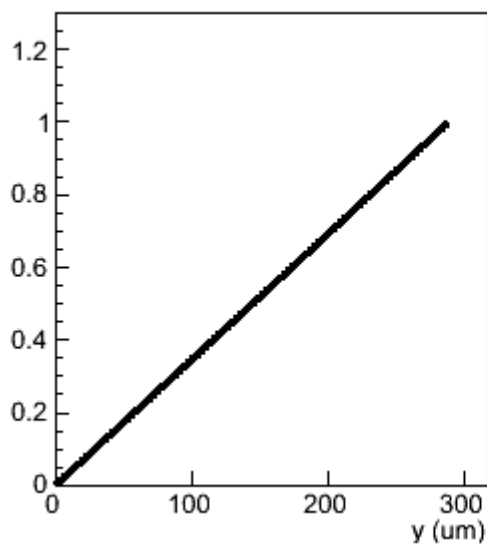
300 μm thick

Weighting potential

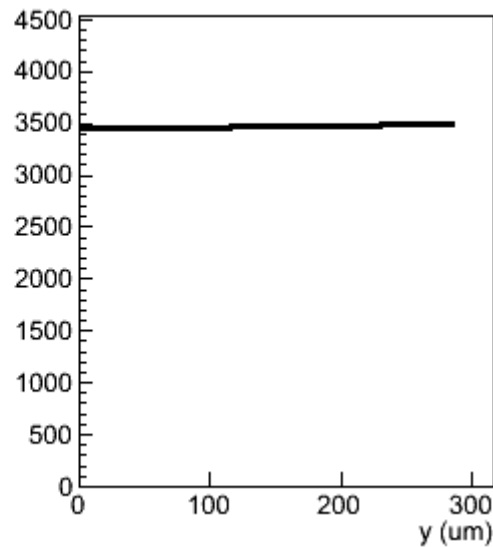


Weighting **potential** is **linear** function of depth

Weighting Potential



Weighting Field Ew (1/m)

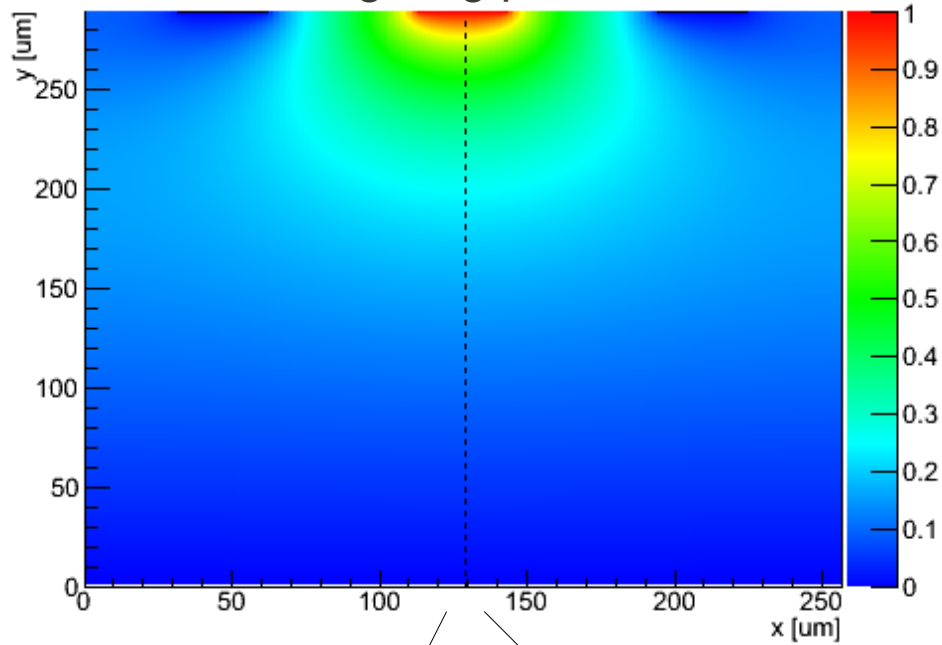


Weighting **field** is a **constant**

Microstrip (collecting electrode)

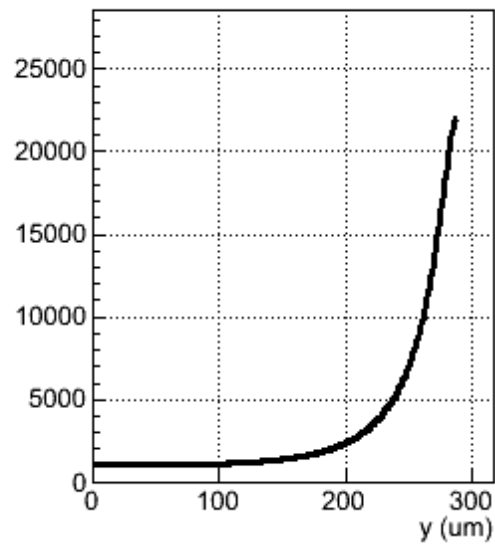
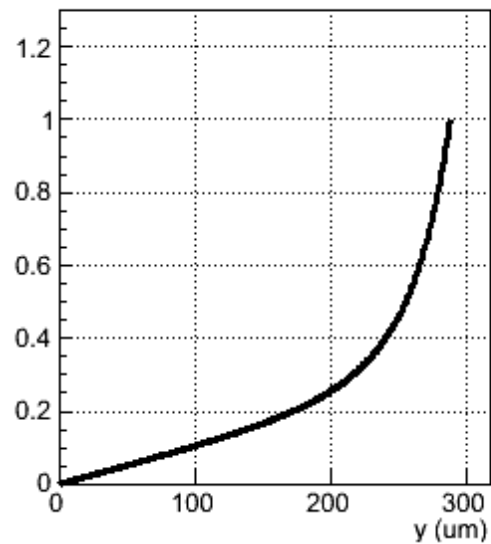
300 μm thick, 3 strips ($w=30\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, $p=80\text{ }\mu\text{m}$)

Weighting potential



Weighting Potential

Weighting Field E_w (1/m)



Microstrip (neighbor electrode)

300 μm thick, 3 strips ($w=30\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, $p=80\text{ }\mu\text{m}$)

Weighting potential

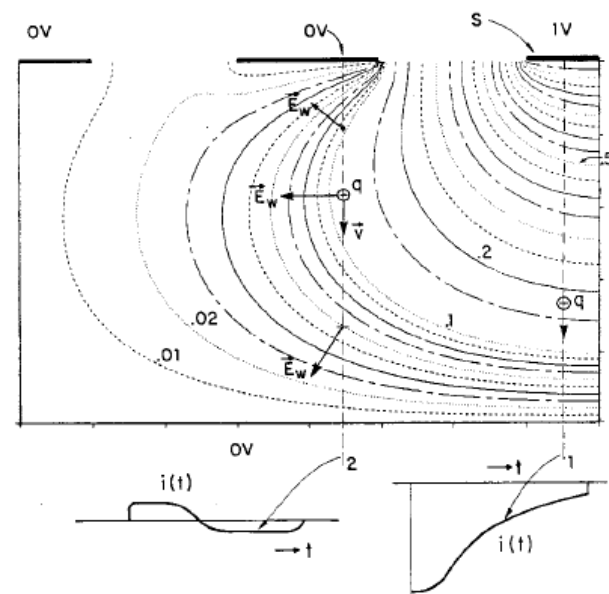
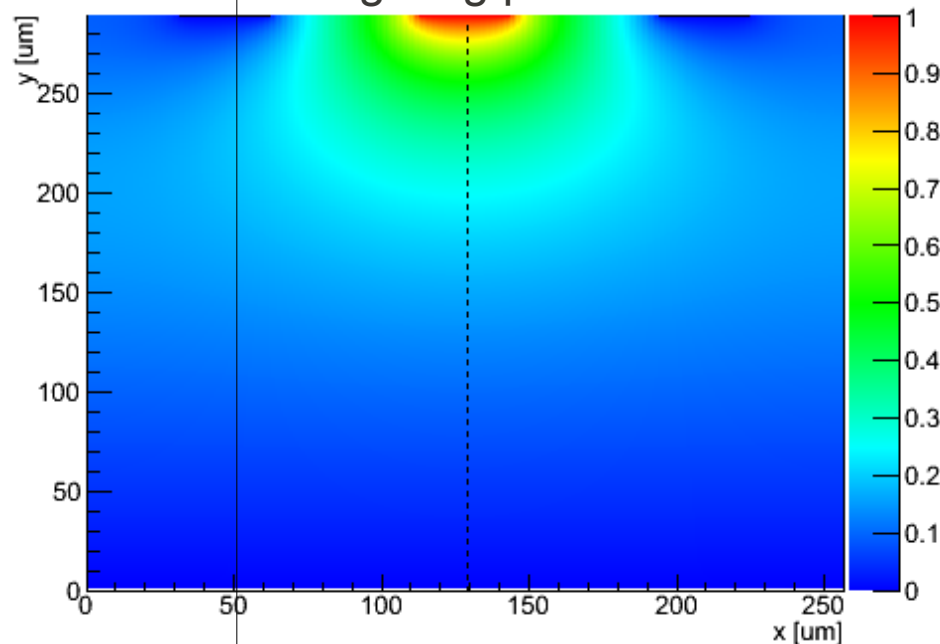
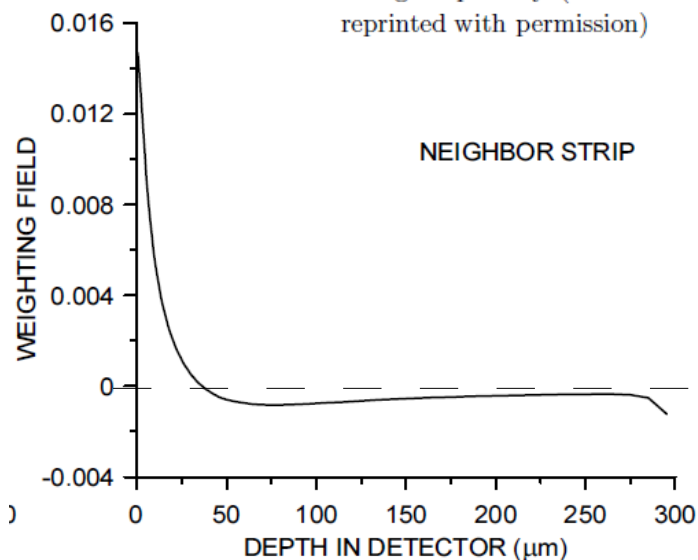
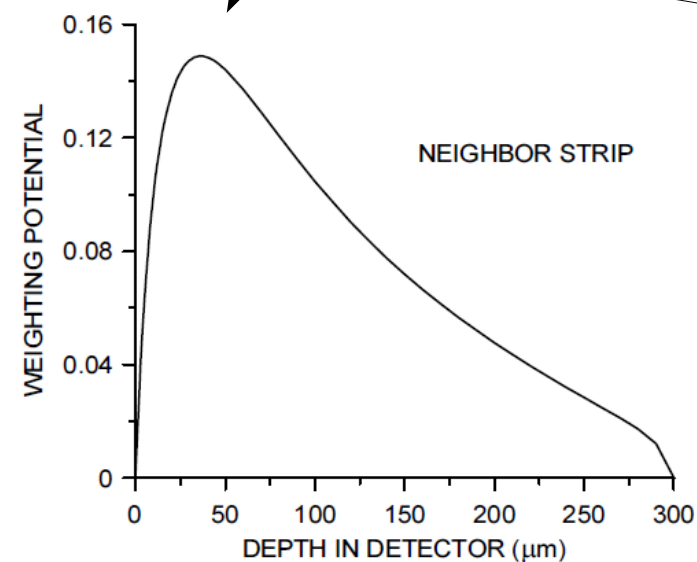
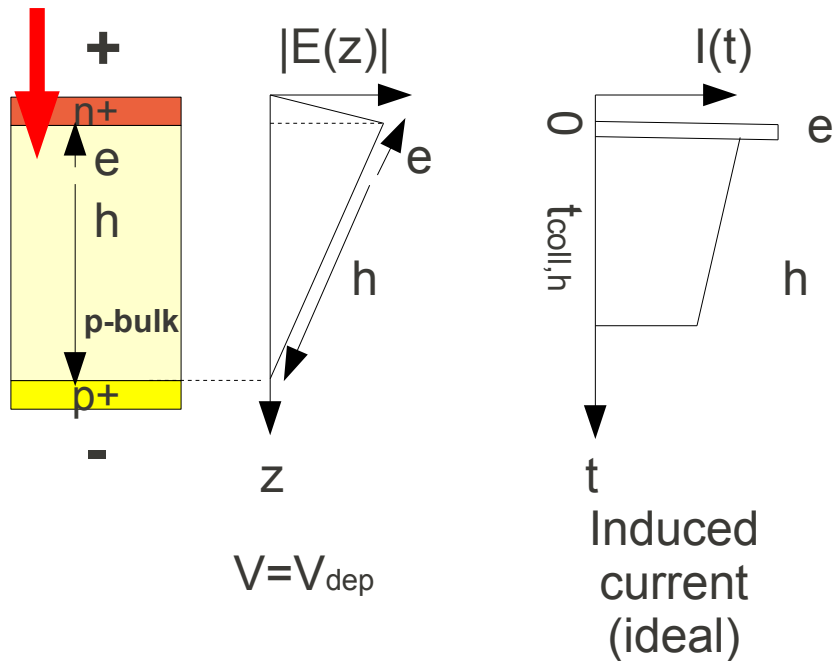


FIG. 2.31. The weighting field in a strip detector. The measurement electrode is the right-most strip. The induced current is shown for a charge terminating on the measurement electrode (right) and the neighbor electrode (left), showing the change in polarity. (From Radeka 1988. ©Annual Reviews www.annualreviews.org, reprinted with permission)

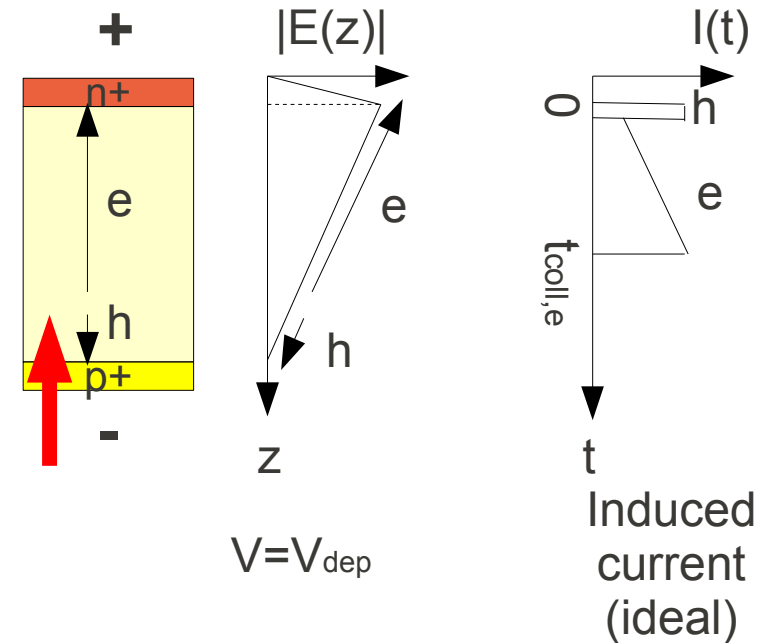


Transient Current Techniques

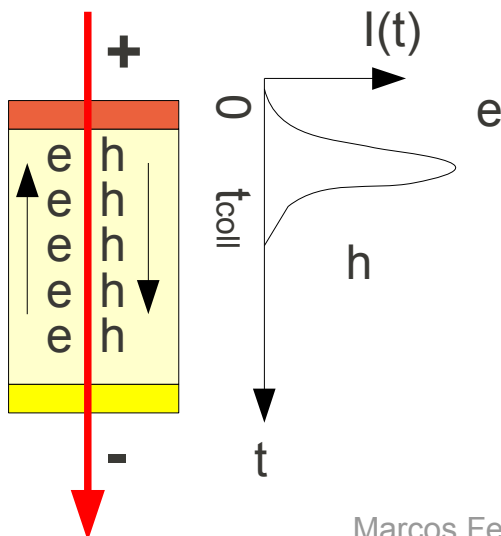
Top Red TCT (h injection)



Bottom Red TCT (e injection)



IR TCT



- TCT is a direct application of Ramo's theorem (diode):

$$\begin{cases} I(t) \propto v_{drift}(t) \frac{1}{d} \\ v_{drift}(t) \propto E(z(t)) \end{cases}$$

- Red TCT offers a “**picture**” of the electric field the carriers “see” along the drift. However for heavily irradiated detectors, charge is trapped before crossing the whole bulk, and then we see a “**cropped**” picture of the field. **Edge-TCT** is a **solution** for that.

Setup sketch

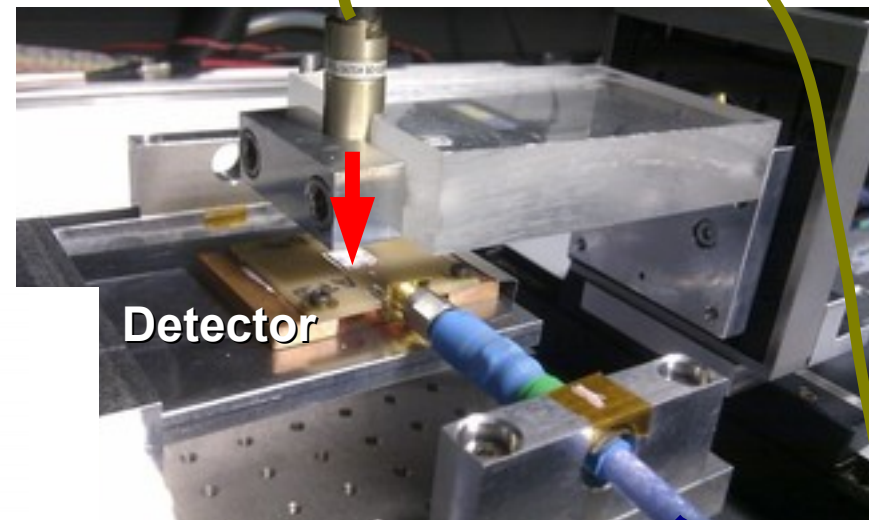


Power supply

DC in



Bias tee



Detector

DC+AC

Amplifier



Scope



Pulser

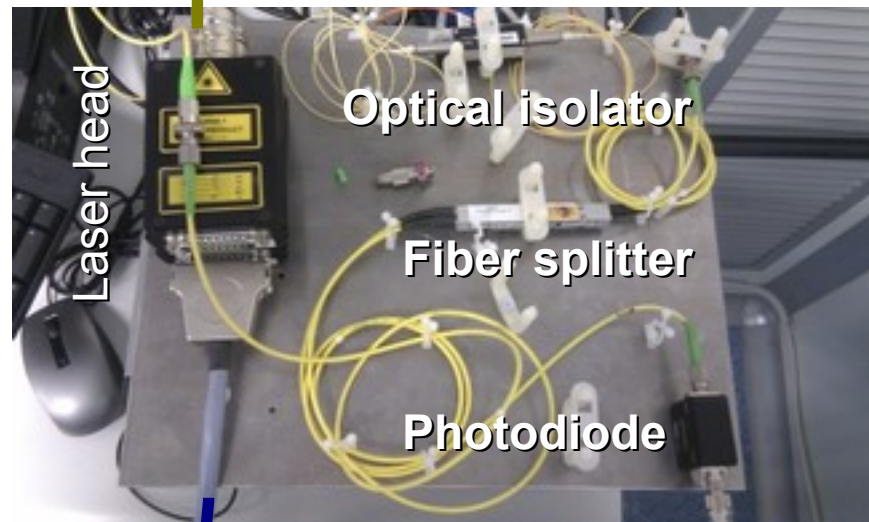


Sync out

Laser trigger



Laser controller



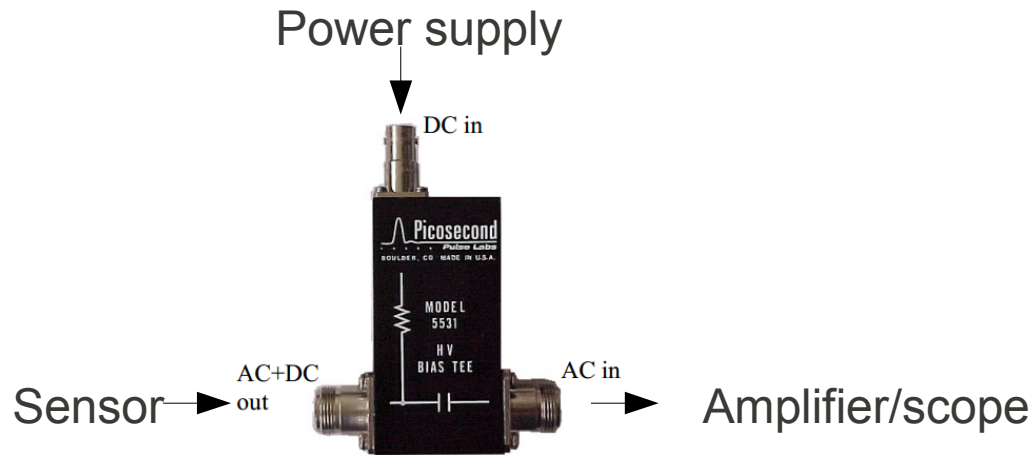
Laser head

Optical isolator

Fiber splitter

Photodiode

Components: electronics



Bias Tee: allows biasing & readout using 1 cable. HV for the sensor is decoupled from AC response

Specs:

3 k Ω resistance → ~1V drop irradiated detectors
20 mA max DC input
Risetime (10-90%) < 45 ps
BW: 750 kHz-10 GHz → High Low freq cut
50 Ω terminated

CAREFUL: Mind the connections



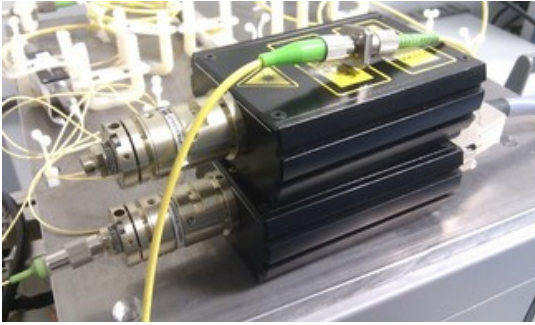
Current amplifier: provides output voltage proportional to input voltage

Specs: Miteq 1660

Gain ~60dB dB ($\times 1000$)
BW: 10kHz-1.3 GHz
Bias voltage: 15V, current 0.135 A

CAREFUL: Max. output voltage 1V

Components: optics



ps pulsed diode Laser: controller + optical head

- 670 (1060) nm, 50 ps FWHM
- \uparrow TUNE setting leads to higher power, shorter pulse width but longer tail
- Constant pulse energy ~ 10 pJ /pulse
- Pulse power = $10 \text{ pJ} / 50 \text{ ps} = 200 \text{ mW} / \text{pulse}$
- Average pulse power = pulse power \times freq = nW- μ W



Optical monitor “photodiode”: measured output current per pulse is linearly proportional to the input optical power.



Range: 800-1700nm

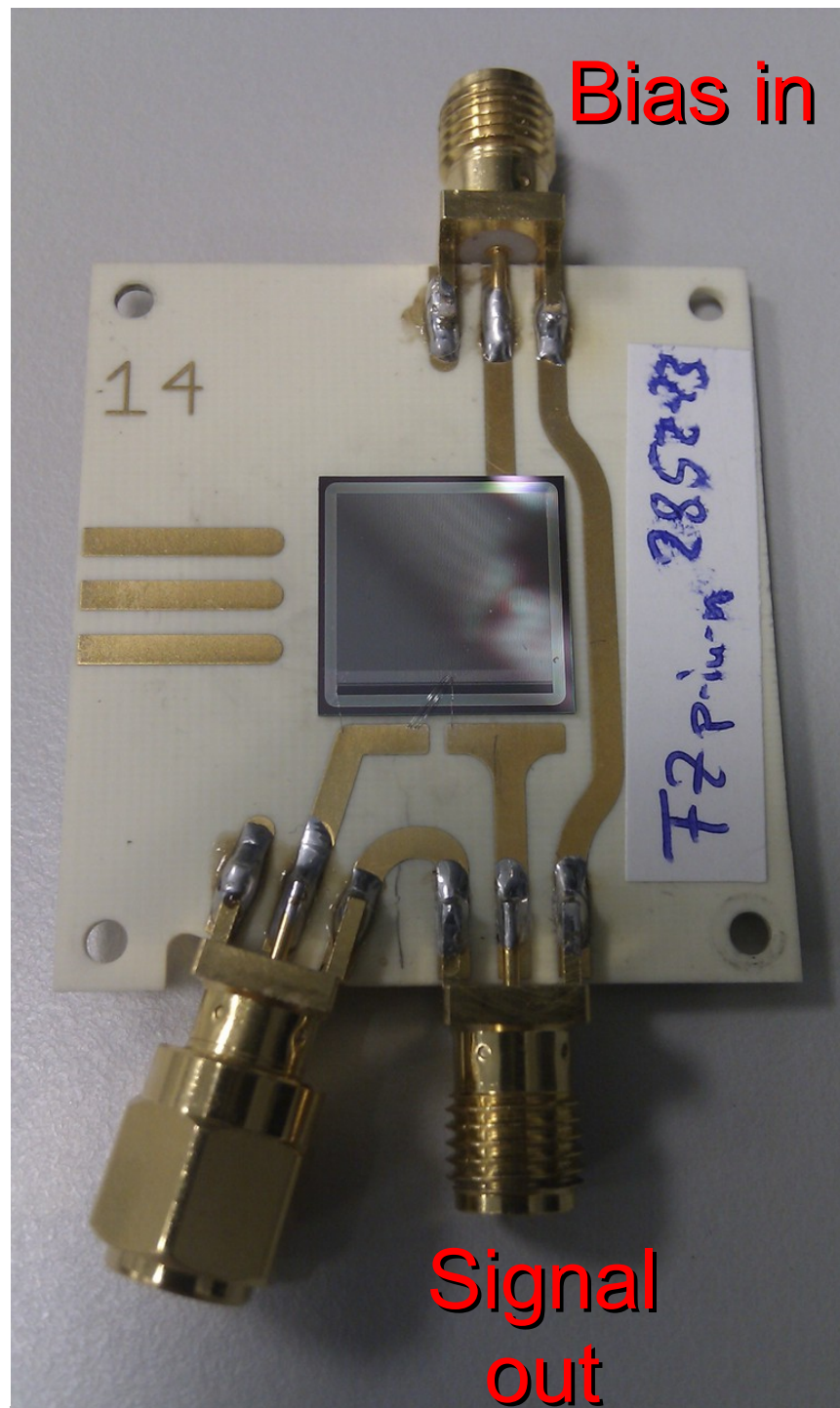
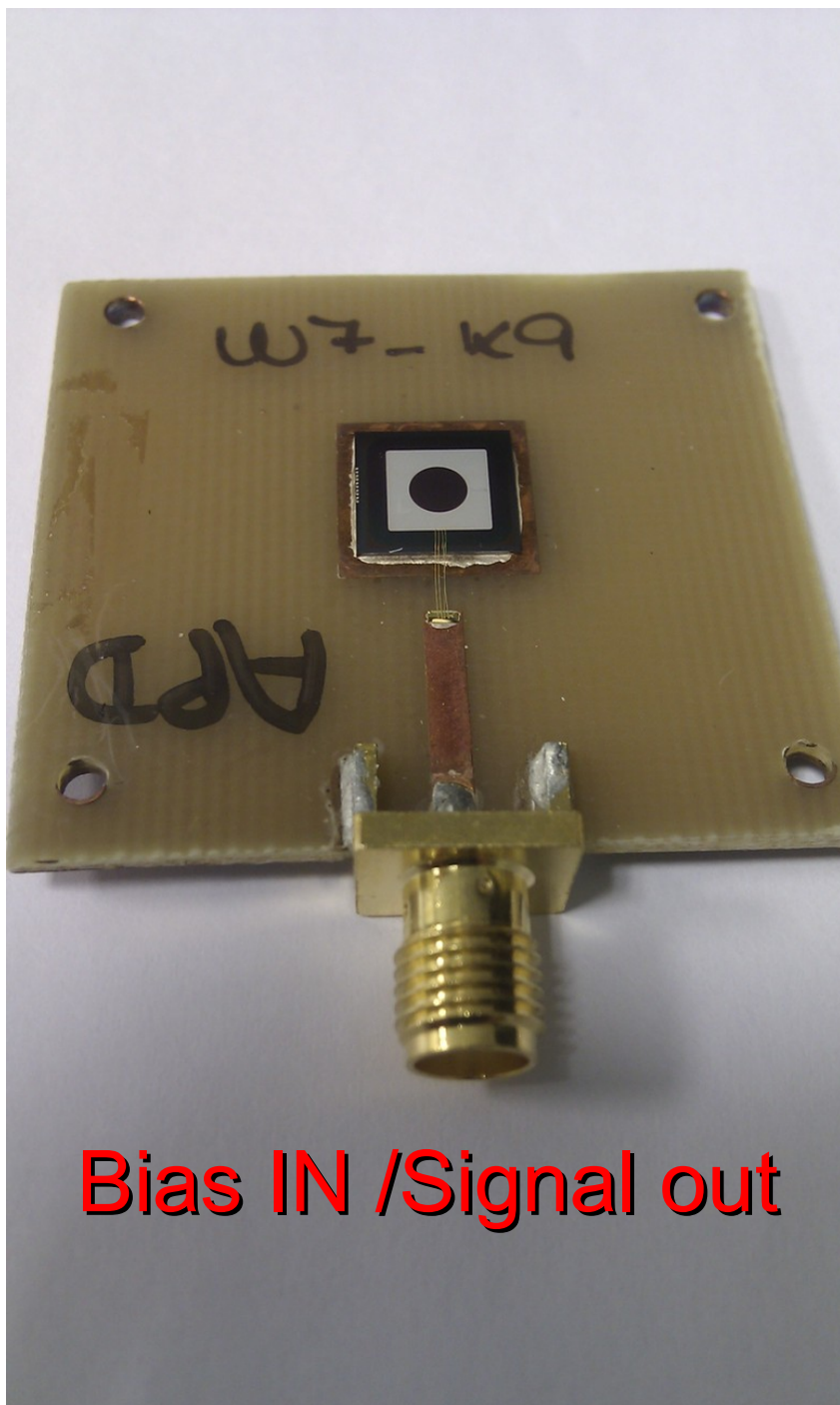
Responsivity: 0.77 A/W

BW: 1.2 GHz

$V_{\text{OUT}} = 0-3.5 \text{ V} (50 \Omega)$

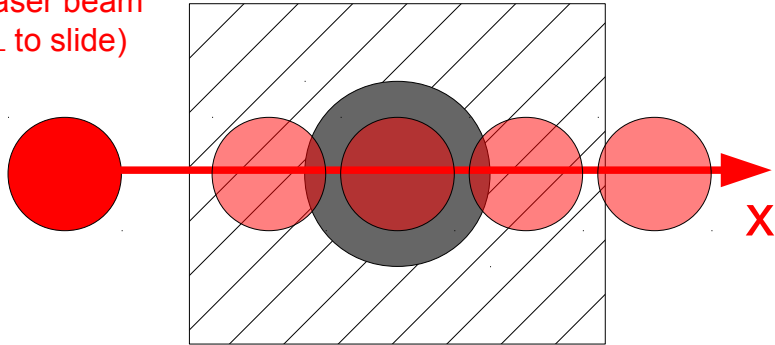
Damage Threshold = 70 mW

Components: detectors



Experiment 1: calculating the waist of the beam: knife edge technique

Laser beam
(⊥ to slide)



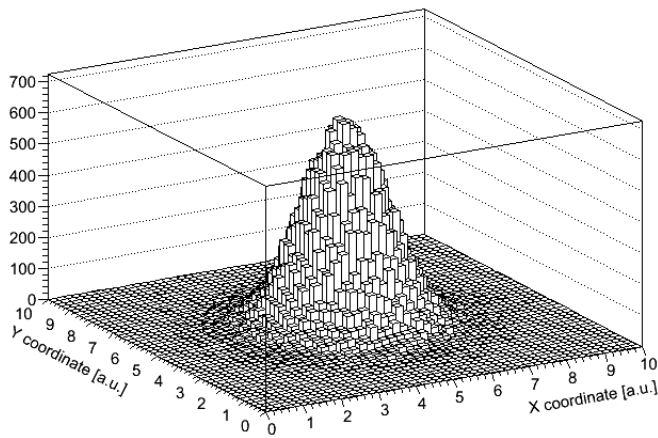
To calculate the beam waist, the beam is swept along a line that intercepts the opening in the electrode. The impinging beam intensity follows a Gaussian distribution.

If one absorbed photon produces an e-h pair then, after the drift, the collected charge will be e (=integral of the induced current pulse).

If we inject a gaussian distribution of photons, the collected charge will display a gaussian shape in x .

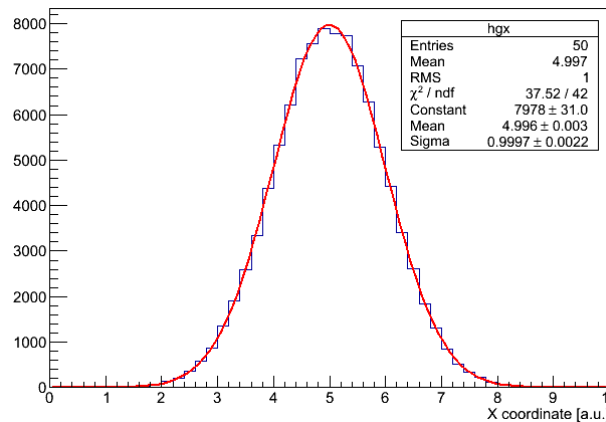
1D integral of 2D gaussian is a gaussian
1D integral of a gaussian is the error function

Sweeping the beam over the detector an error function is reproduced

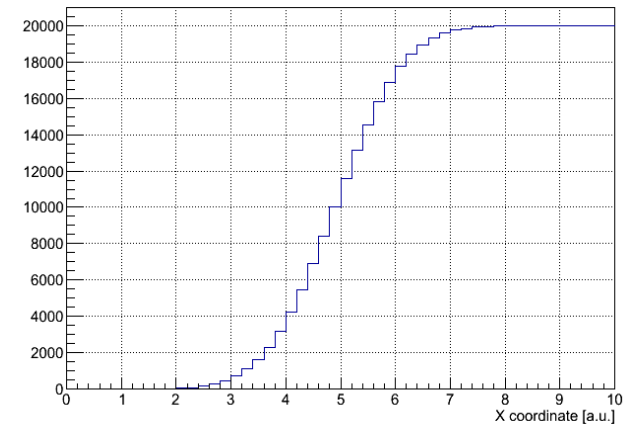


$$G(x, y) = e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_x)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu_y)^2}{2\sigma_y^2}}$$

$$\mu_x = \mu_y = 5.; \sigma_x = \sigma_y = 1.$$



$$G(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_x)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu_y)^2}{2\sigma_y^2}} dy$$



$$\text{Erf}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_x)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} dx$$

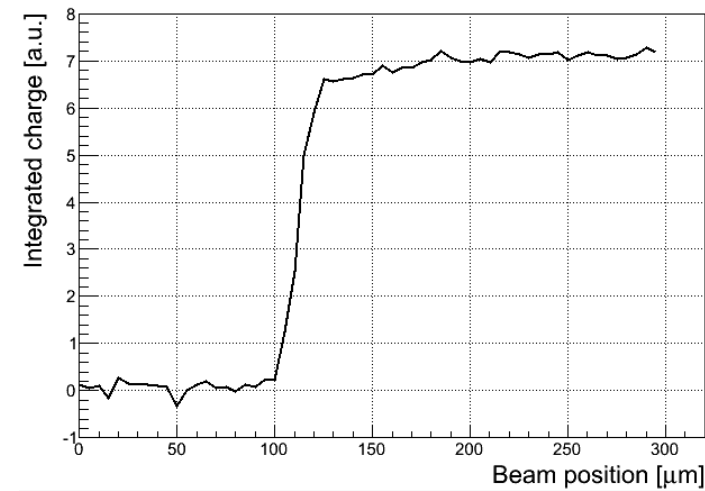
Analysis (I)

Consider the following root cheat-sheet

<code>root -l file1.root</code>	Start root and already connect a file to this session
<code>TTree *t1=(TTree*) _file0->Get("edge")</code>	Get pointer to tree called "edge". Refer to this tree from now on as t1
<code>t1->Draw("Vmax:Vbias","","1")</code>	Draw a XY graph of maximum amplitude vs bias voltage
<code>t1->Draw("Q50:Vbias","Vmax>0.1","1")</code>	Plot charge vs bias voltage, with condition on variable Vmax
<code>t1->Draw("BlineRMS")</code>	Histogram the baseline noise (no XY plot)
<code>t1->Draw("volt-BlineMean:time")</code>	Draw all waveforms in a file (DC offset removed)
<code>t1->Draw("volt-BlineMean:time-tleft")</code>	Same as above but center plots in time=0
<code>t1->Draw("volt-BlineMean:time","Vbias %50==0")</code>	Draw waveforms with bias value modulo 50
<code>t1->Draw("Q50:Vbias","","1")</code>	Draw charge vs bias voltage, use a line to link points
<code>t1->Draw("Sum\$((volt-BlineMean) * ((time-tleft)>0.&&(time-tleft)<25)) :Vbias","","1")</code> Calculating the charge in an arbitrary time range. Link values with a line	

Now try to plot the charge vs the shifting position. Let's fit it to an Error Function → (next slide)

Analysis (II)

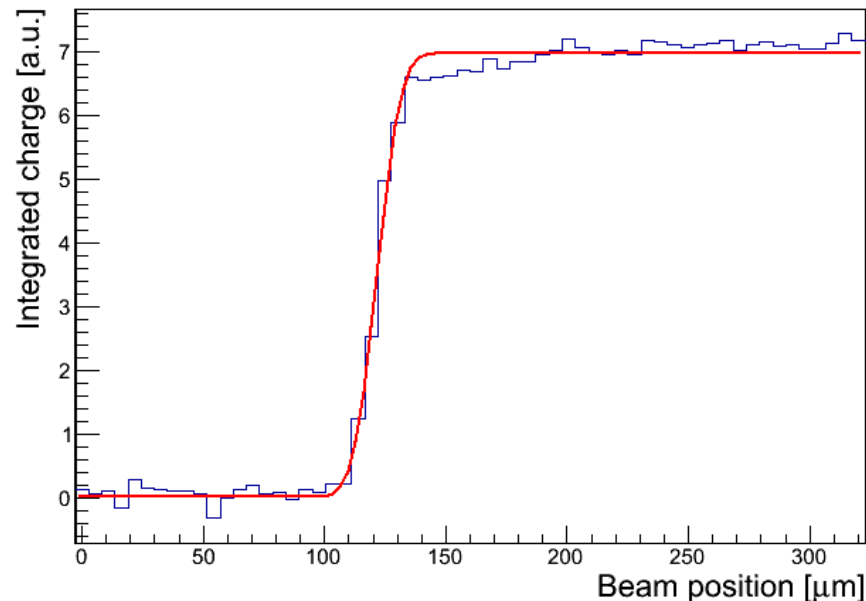


HOWTO convert the 2D graphic into a histogram (after a Draw command):
[carefull with copy/paste to include "" quotes!!!!]

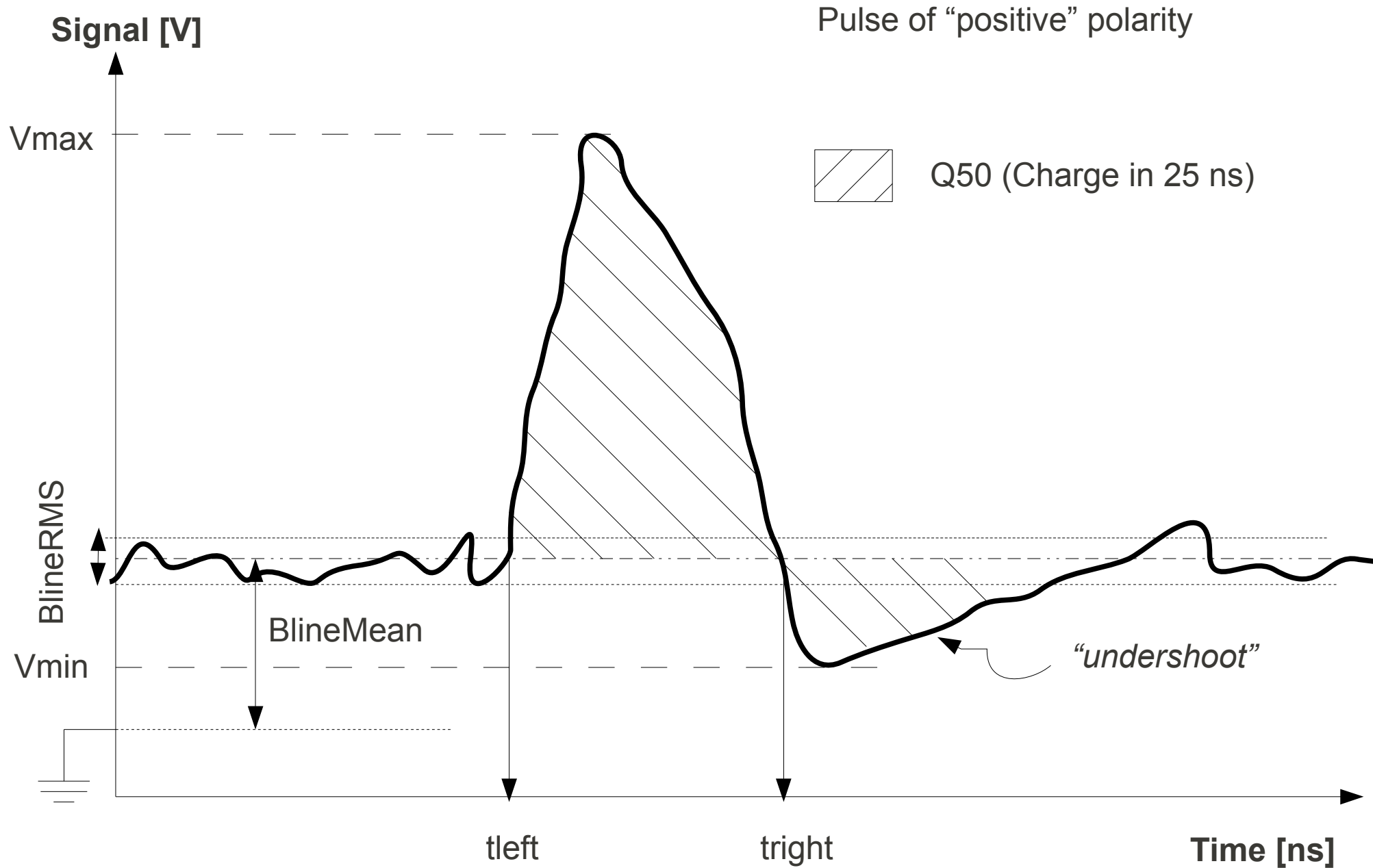
```
Int_t nent= tree->GetSelectedRows(); //Tells the number of drawn elements
Double_t *q=tree->GetV1();
Double_t *x=tree->GetV2();
Double_t Xmax=htemp->GetXaxis()->GetXmax() , Xmin=htemp->GetXaxis()->GetXmin();
Xmin=Xmin-0.5*(Xmax-Xmin)/nent ;Xmax=Xmax+0.5*(Xmax-Xmin)/nent
TH1D *h1=new TH1D( "h1","h1",nent,Xmin,Xmax );
for (Int_t il=0;il<nent;il++) h1->SetBinContent(il+1,q[il])
```

Estimate proper fitting values for the Error Function

```
h1->Draw();
TF1 *f1=new TF1("f1","[0]+0.5*[1]*(1.0+TMath::Erf((x-[2]/(1.414213562*[3])))",Xmin,Xmax);
f1->SetParameters(val1 ,val2 , val3 , val4 ) // YOU HAVE TO FIND THESE
f1->Draw("same"); //IF YOU ARE HAPPY WITH THE PARAMETERS, PROCEED TO THE NEXT LINE
h1->Fit(f1)
```



Some tree variables...



EXTRA INFO

Why choosing low energy photons for detector testing?

- Detectors need to be optimized for Minimum Ionizing Particles (MIPs) detection. Standard detector characterization procedure would be to use **radioactive sources** (Sr90, for instance) and finally **test beams** (bunched beams, real scale system test).

- Best measurement conditions met with lasers:

Reproducibility: no fluctuations in deposited energy → averaging possible → S/N improvement

Choice of absorption length by varying laser wavelength

High spatial resolution: microfocused beams down to few μm allow for fine resolution scans.

Decoupling of charge carriers possible: by illuminating top or bottom sides of a reverse biased diode

Easy ***synchronization*** of laser with DAQ

- Visible/IR ps-pulsed lasers commercially available. Red laser “scratches” the surface, IR penetrates. Laser pulse width \ll ns needed (standard drift in 300 mm Si ≤ 10 ns)
- Fast electronics needed to time-resolve e/h induced currents. Measured current pulses contain information on drift velocity, electric field configuration, trapping times...

- Time resolved induced current can be calculated using Ramo theorem

$$I(t) = -q\vec{v}\vec{E}_w$$

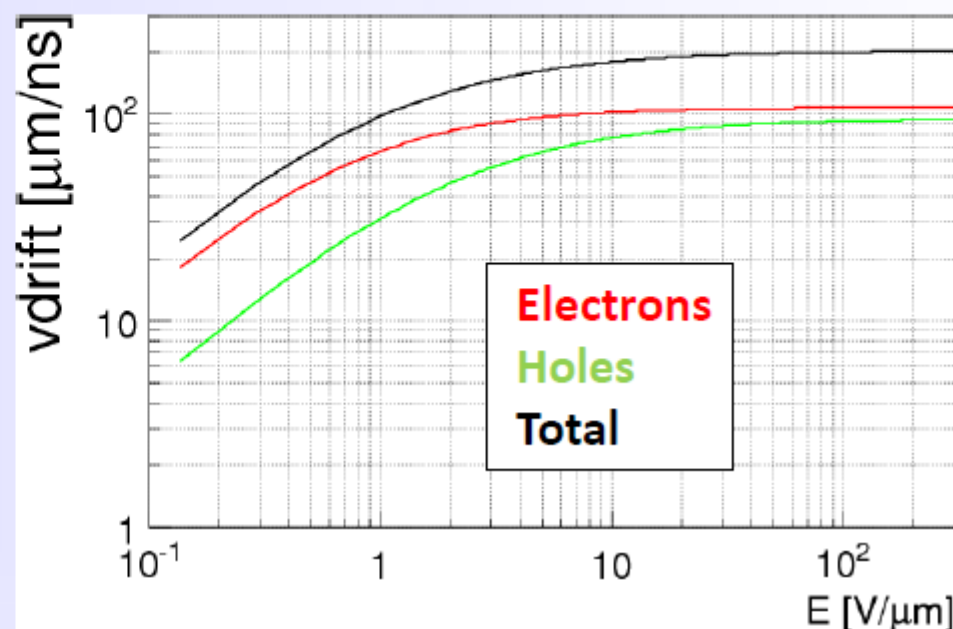
where $\vec{v} = \vec{v}(E)$ is the drift velocity, E is the electric field and \vec{E}_w the so-called weighting field

Electric field determines the charge trajectory and the velocity of the particle. It changes:

- With bias voltage
- Strip geometry
- Irradiation of the detector

Electric field for typical detectors:

- Pad diode: linear electric field (\sim capacitor)
- Strip detector: peaked near the electrodes, linear in the center

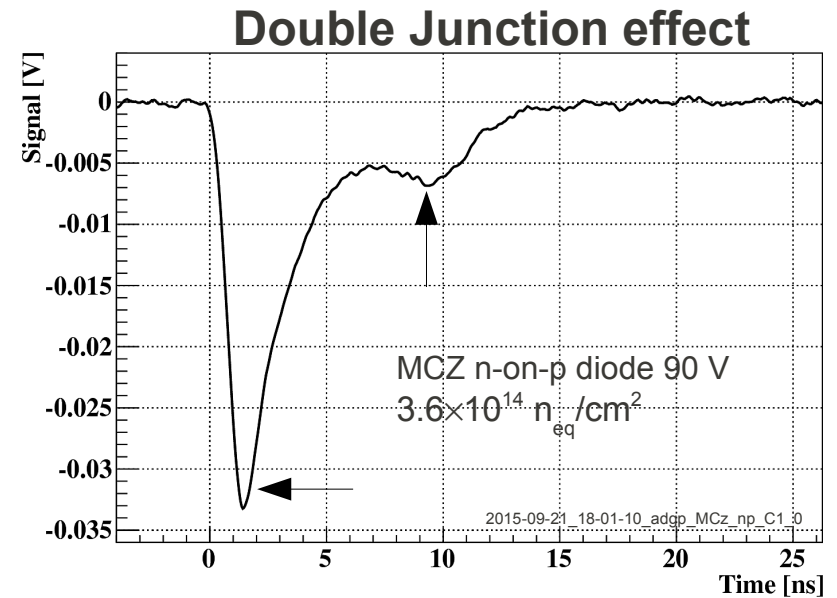
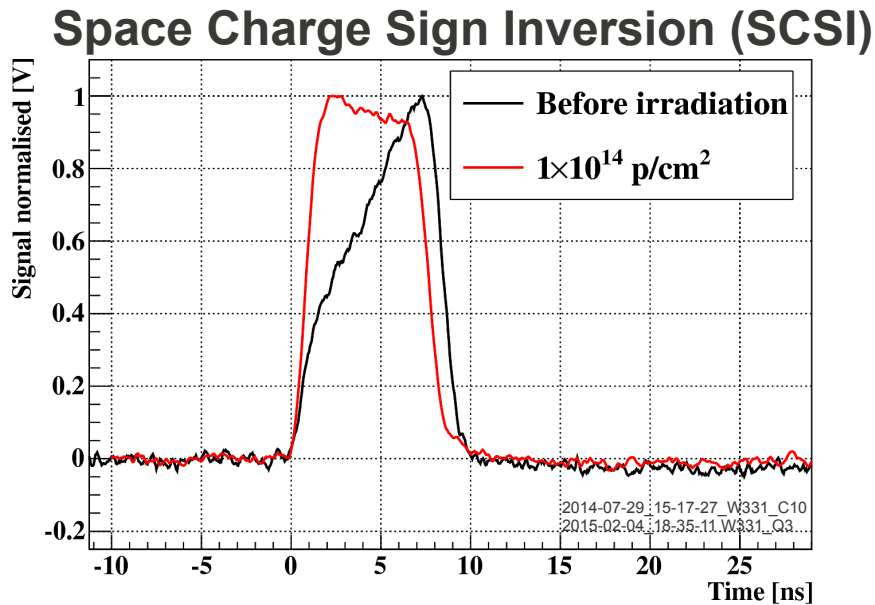


Weighting field is the derivative of the weighting potential U_w . This potential determines how charge couples to an electrode: $Q = q(U_w(2) - U_w(1))$ (induced charge by a carrier moving from position 1 to 2)

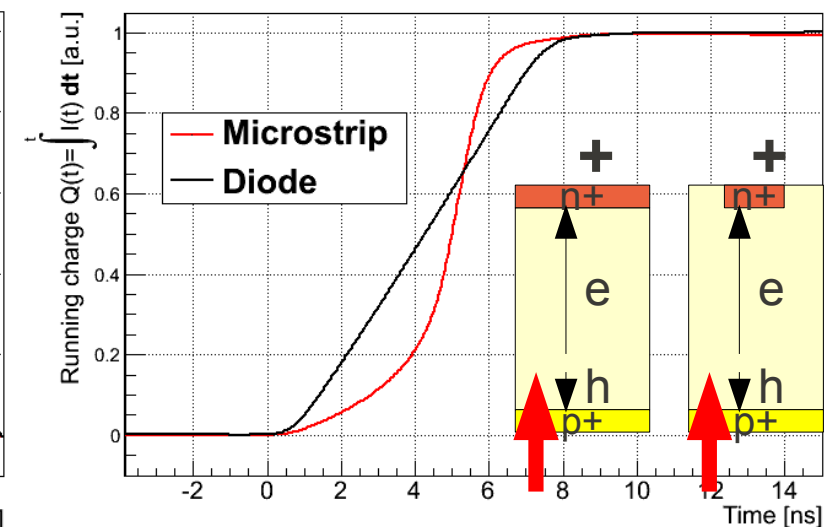
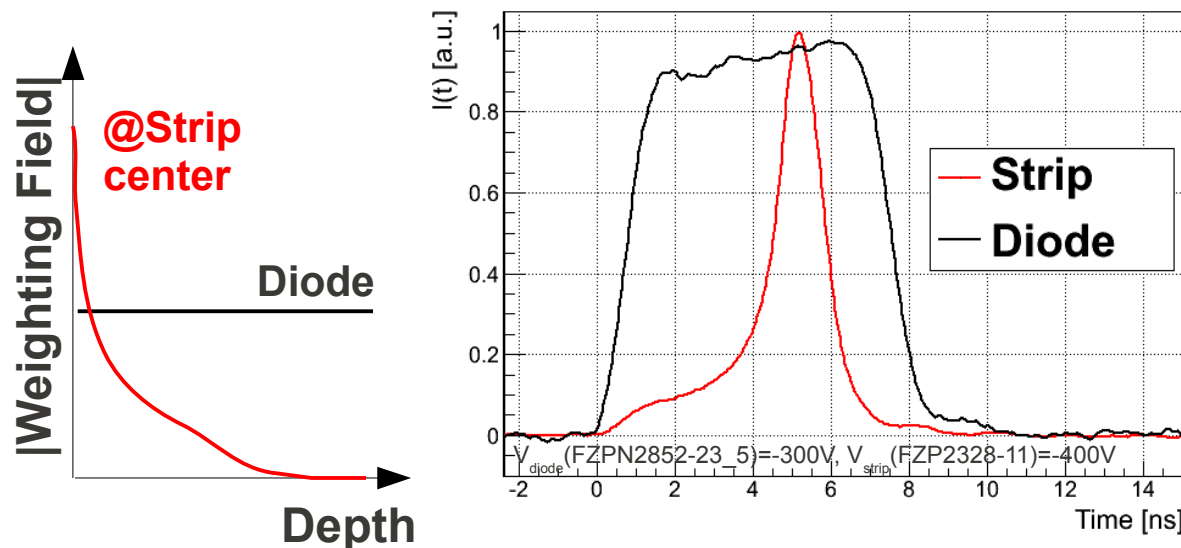
Weighting field for typical detectors:

- Pad diode: constant
- Strip detector: very asymmetric. Peaked near the collection electrode

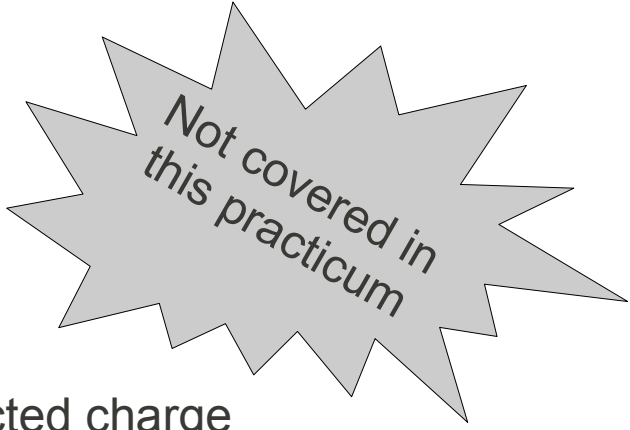
Examples of TCT performance: measured waveforms



Difference between strip and diode (**bottom red** injection)
Most of the charge for a strip is induced near the strip → **Weighting field**



Experiment 2: charge collection versus voltage



Not covered in
this practicum

For each pulse of a voltage scan we can calculate the collected charge

We then plot this charge versus the bias voltage

Explain why does the charge saturate?

Try to explain the output of the following root commands:

```
root -l measurement.root
TTree *tree=(TTree *) _file0->Get("edge");
tree->Draw("volt:time");
tree->Draw("BlineMean");
tree->Draw("volt-BlineMean:time");
tree->Draw("Sum$( (volt-BlineMean):Vbias","", "1");
tree->Draw("Sum$( (volt-BlineMean)*(time>tleft&&time<tleft+25.0)):Vbias","", "1");
```

2.5.2 Parallel plate geometry with uniform field

A semiconductor detector with very large overbias can be approximated by a uniform field. The bias voltage V_b is applied across the electrode spacing d . The electric field

$$E = \frac{V_b}{d} \quad (2.68)$$

determines the motion of a charge carrier in the detector. The carrier's velocity

$$v = \mu E = \mu \frac{V_b}{d} . \quad (2.69)$$

The weighting field is obtained by applying unit potential to the collection electrode and grounding the other:

$$E_Q = \frac{1}{d} , \quad (2.70)$$

so the induced current

$$i = qvE_Q = q\mu \frac{V_b}{d} \frac{1}{d} = q\mu \frac{V_b}{d^2} . \quad (2.71)$$

Since both the electric field and the weighting field are uniform throughout the detector, the current is constant until the charge reaches its terminal electrode.

Next, assume an electron-hole pair formed at coordinate x from the positive electrode. The collection time for the electron

$$t_{ce} = \frac{x}{v_e} = \frac{xd}{\mu_e V_b} \quad (2.74)$$

and the collection time for the hole

$$t_{ch} = \frac{d-x}{v_h} = \frac{(d-x)d}{\mu_h V_b} . \quad (2.75)$$

Since electrons and holes move in opposite directions, they induce current of the same sign at a given electrode, despite their opposite charge. The induced charge due to the motion of the electron

The induced charge

$$Q = it_c \rightarrow Q_e = e\mu_e \frac{V_b}{d^2} \frac{xd}{\mu_e V_b} = e \frac{x}{d} . \quad (2.76)$$

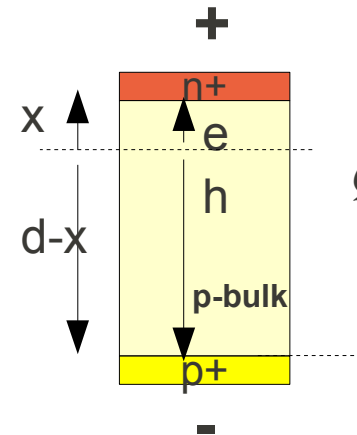
Correspondingly, the hole contributes

$$Q_h = e\mu_h \frac{V_b}{d^2} \frac{(d-x)d}{\mu_h V_b} = e \left(1 - \frac{x}{d}\right) . \quad (2.77)$$

[Spieler pg- 75-76]

TOTAL INDUCED CHARGE BY AN e-h PAIR

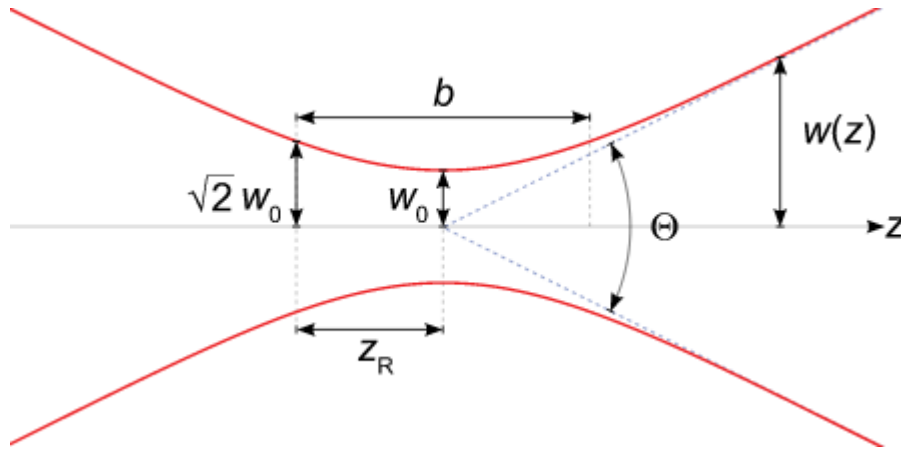
The charge induced by an e-h pair produced at a distance x from the electrodes will be e and not $2e$!



$$\begin{aligned} Q_{tot} &= Q_h(x) + Q_e(x) = \\ &= q \frac{d-x}{d} + q \frac{x}{d} = q \end{aligned}$$

Gaussian beam propagation

Many lasers emit beams that approximate Gaussian profiles: their transverse E-field and intensity are well described by Gaussian functions. Refraction does not destroy Gaussian properties.



w_0 = beam width or waist ($z=0$ @ waist)

z_R = Rayleigh length: $w(z_R) = \sqrt{2} w_0$

$b = 2 z_R$ depth of focus

Spot size increases from the waist, linearly for $z \gg z_R$

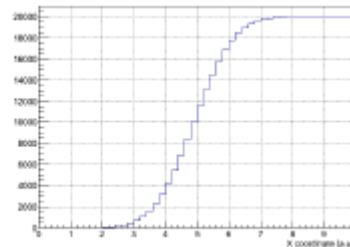
$$w(z) = w_0 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{z}{z_R}\right)^2}$$

Beam divergence

$$\theta \sim \frac{\lambda}{\pi w_0} \quad (\theta \text{ in radians})$$

Rayleigh length and beam waist are related by:

$$z_R = \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}$$



```
herf->GetXaxis()->SetTitle("X coordinate [a.u.]");
```


RED focusing

Mind the double offset to the vertical holder !!!!

