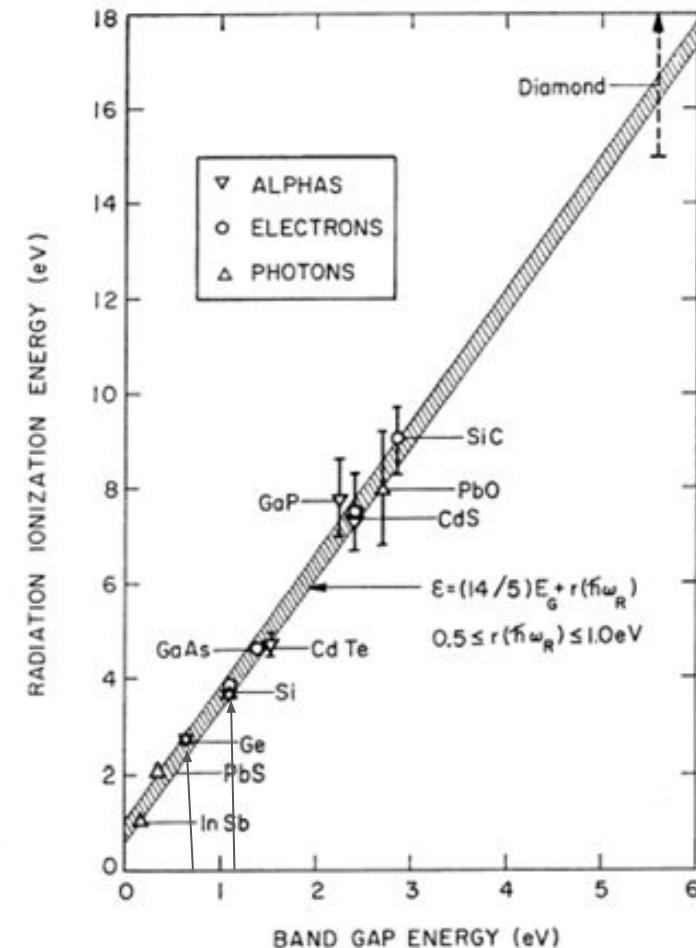
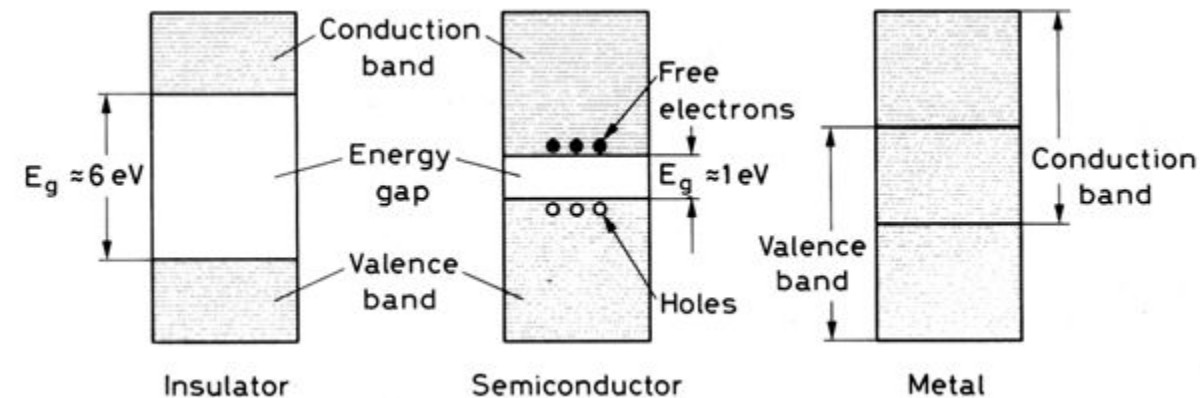


Semiconductor (Ionization) Detectors

Bandgap & Ionization Energy

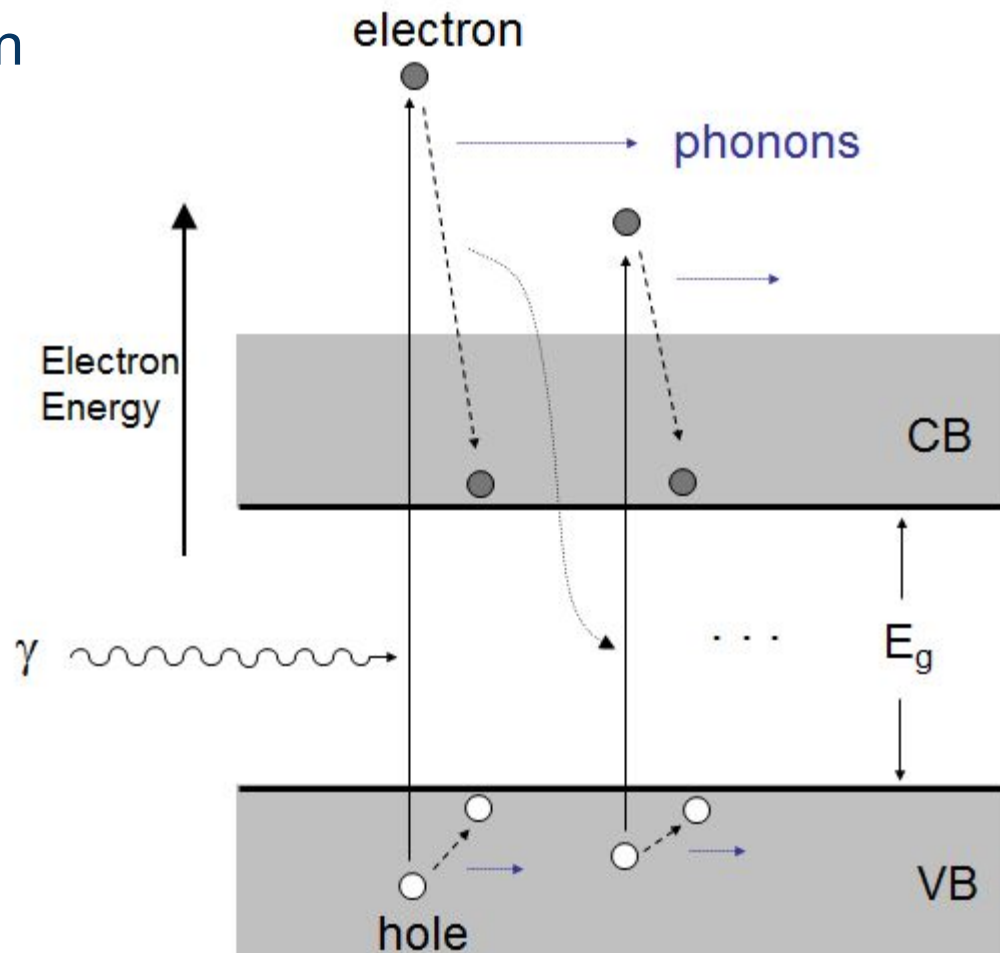
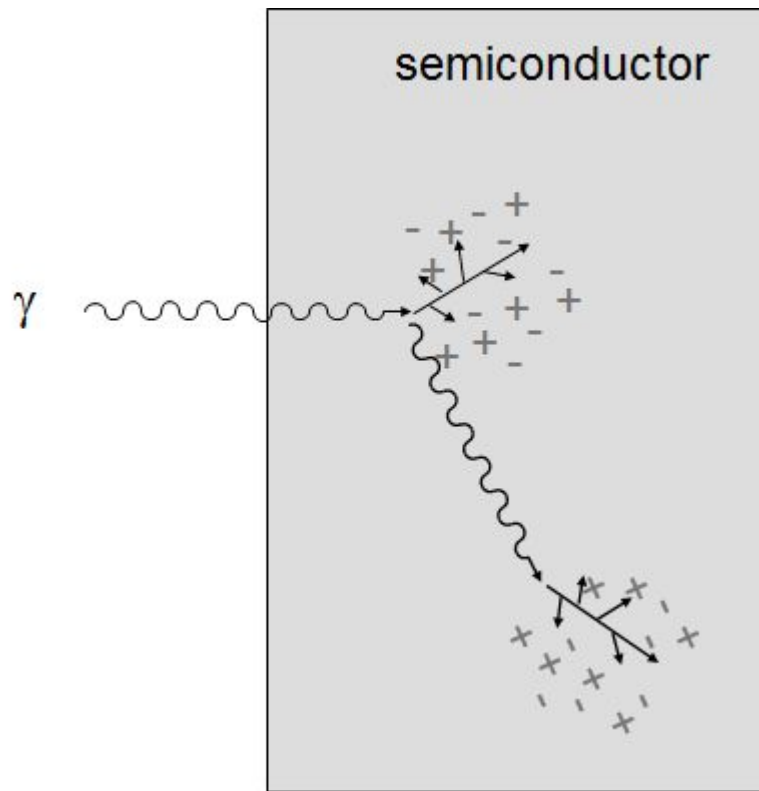
| | Mean Ioniz. En. W [eV] | Density [g/cm ³] | Fano Factor |
|-------|------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Gases | 30 | 7 – 50x10 ⁻⁴ | 0.1-0.2 (ionization vs. excitation) |
| Si | 3.62 | 2.33 | ~0.10 (ionization vs. phonons) |
| Ge | 2.96 | 5.32 | ~0.10 (ionization vs. phonons) |



Example: Ge bandgap $\sim 0.7 \text{ eV}$; Ge mean ionization energy = $2.96 \text{ eV} \rightarrow \sim 4\times$ phonon production per e/h pair.

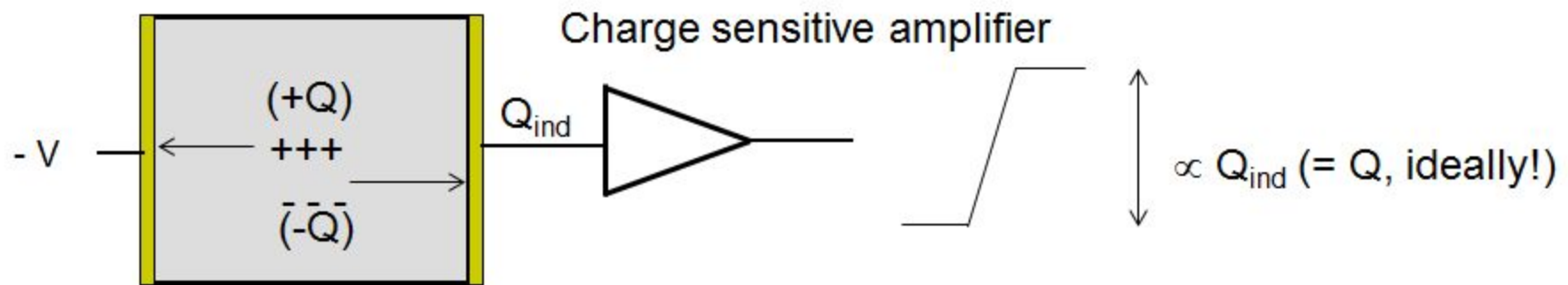
Electron/Hole Pairs: Information Carriers

- Total # of e/h pairs (charge) \propto energy deposition
- Low mean ionization energy \rightarrow More information carriers / interaction



Measuring e^-/h Pairs

- **Challenge:** Measure ionization with high precision (better than 0.1%) in large detector volumes ($> \sim \text{cm}^3$)
 - E.g. 300 keV energy deposition in Ge $\rightarrow \sim 10^5$ e^-/h pairs: .1% ~ 100 e^-/h pairs



- **Requirements**
 - Establish E-field to accelerate charge collection (with low leakage current)
 - Excellent carrier transport
 - High carrier mobility (μ) and lifetime (τ)



Establishing E-Fields with Low Leakage

- Requires material with high resistivity - depends on dopant concentration and carrier mobility $\rho = (eN_D\mu_{maj})^{-1}$
 - Dopant dictates majority carrier (p-type = holes, n-type = e^-)
 - Dopant concentration \rightarrow total number of available charge carriers
 - Challenge of crystal growth: defects affect carrier mobility
- Truly “pure” material not achievable in practice
 - Properties of Si/Ge determined by minute imbalances of dopant concentrations
 - Compensated material: donor and acceptor impurity concentration equal
 - E.g. Lithium-drifting: Si(Li) & Ge(Li) detectors
- High resistivity can be achieved in some compound semiconductors as well

Implementation: Reverse-Biased Diodes

Near-intrinsic bulk ($N_D \sim 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$)

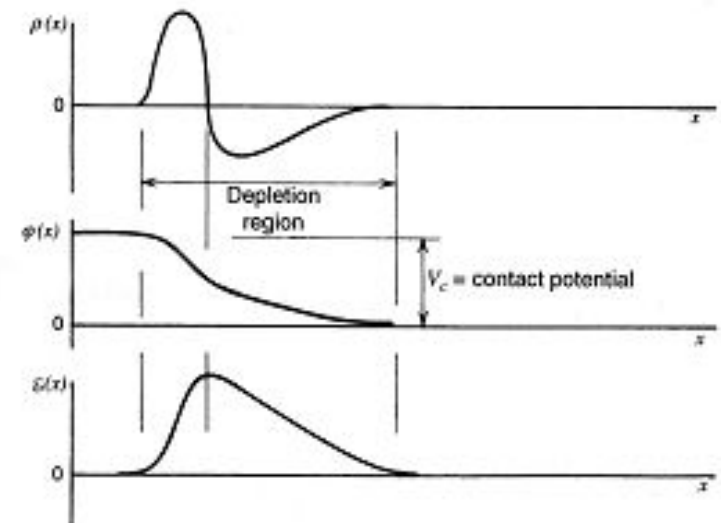
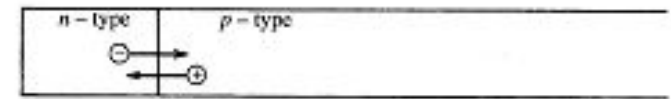
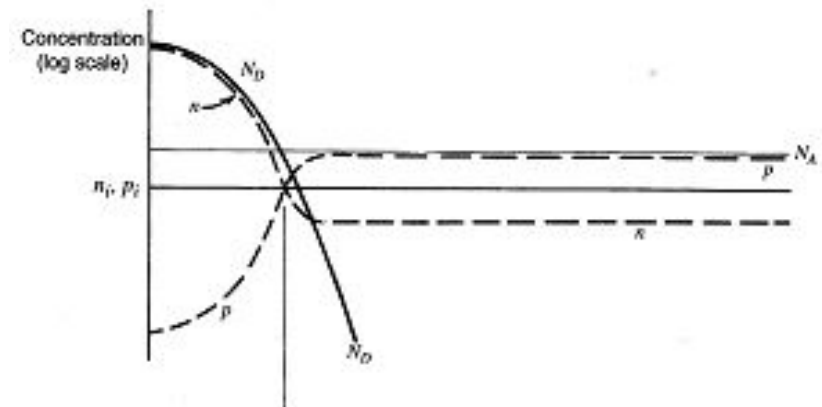
Heavily doped thin contacts

$$N_A \sim 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3} \quad N_D \sim 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

$$B \sim 3 \text{ mm} \quad \text{Li} \sim 0.5 \text{ mm}$$

Apply reverse bias to accentuate contact potential difference

- Attract minority carriers across junction = very low current
- Generate high electric field



Depletion, Electric Fields, Capacitance

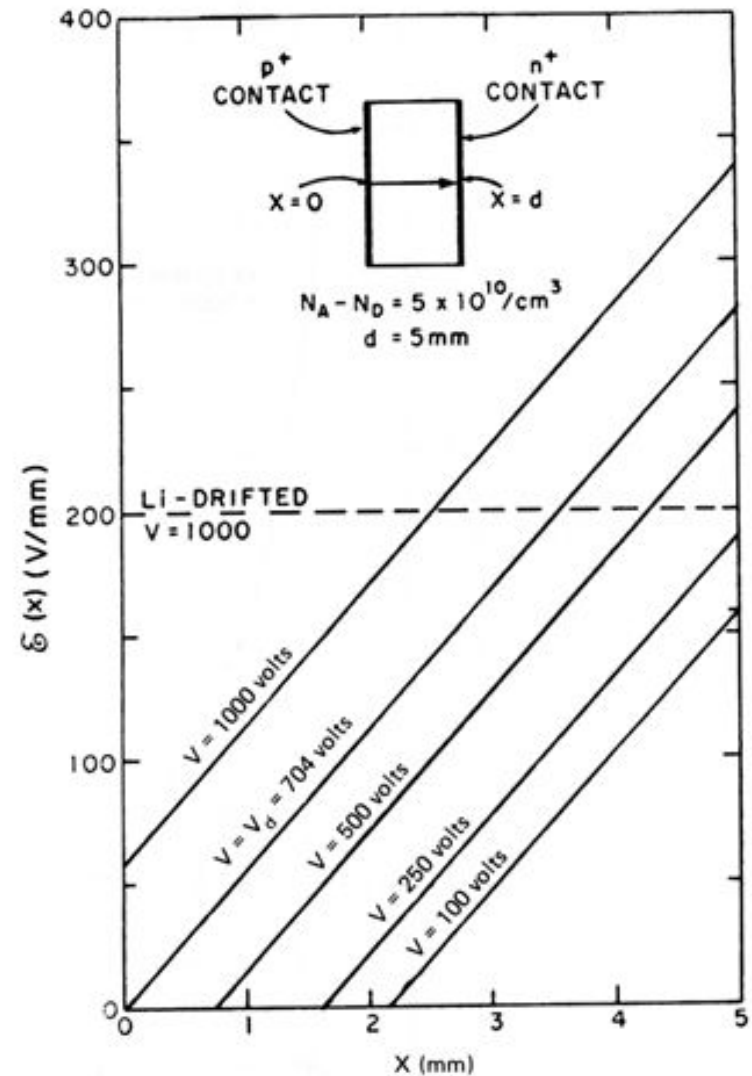
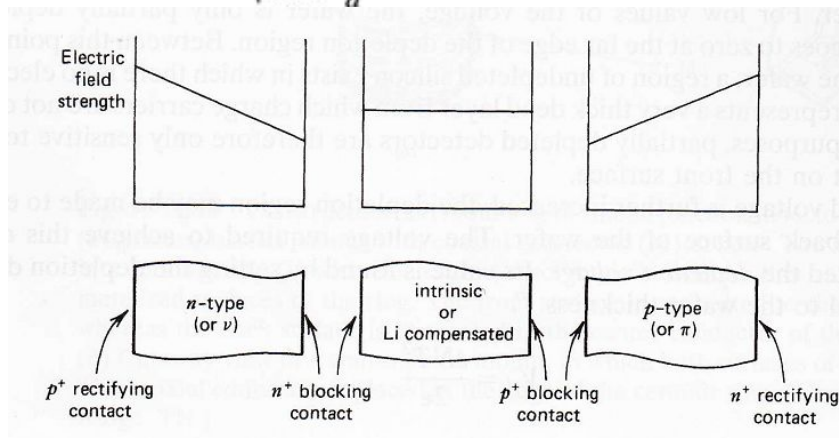
- Example: Planar detector

Electric field:
$$-\mathcal{E}(x) = \frac{V}{d} + \frac{\rho}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{d}{2} - x \right)$$

Depletion voltage:
$$V_d = \frac{\rho d^2}{2\epsilon}$$
 $\rho = \text{charge dens.} = (eN)$

Capacitance per unit area:
$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon \rho}{2V}}$$

= constant =
$$\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon \rho}{2V_d}} \quad \text{for } V > V_d$$





Signal Formation - Shockley-Ramo

- Measure current signal induced at electrode due to carrier motion
- Weighting field & potential: convenient constructs for computing induced charge & current

$$i_{ind}(t) = \frac{dQ_{ind}}{dt} = -q \frac{dV_w(P)}{dt} = -q \frac{dV_w(P)}{d\vec{l}} \bullet \frac{d\vec{l}}{dt} \quad \vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{l}}{dt}$$

$$i_{ind}(t) = q \vec{E}_w(P) \bullet \vec{v}(P(t))$$

N.B. e^- & holes drift in opposite direction: induce signals of same sign!

$$Q_{ind}(t) = \int i dt = q \int \vec{E}_w \bullet d\vec{l} = q(V_w(P_0) - V_w(P_t))$$

$$\vec{v} = \mu(E) \vec{E}$$

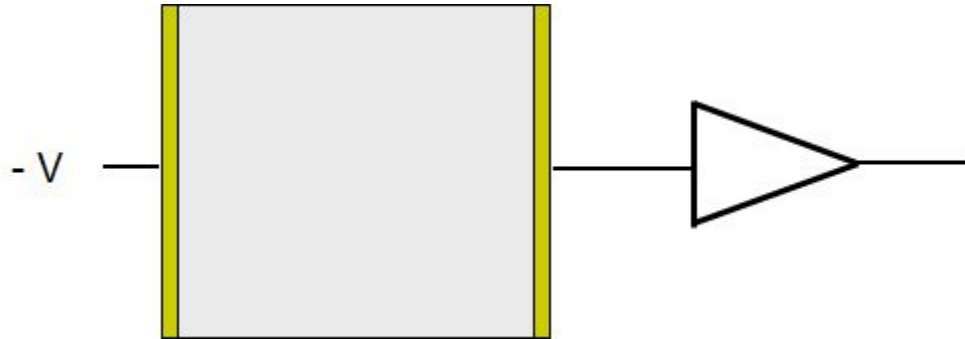
Carrier velocity determined by **electric field** → compute via **Poisson** equation (with space charge) in the detector

$$\vec{V}_w(P)$$

Coupling determined by **weighting potential** → compute via **Laplace** equation (ignore space charge) according to S/R



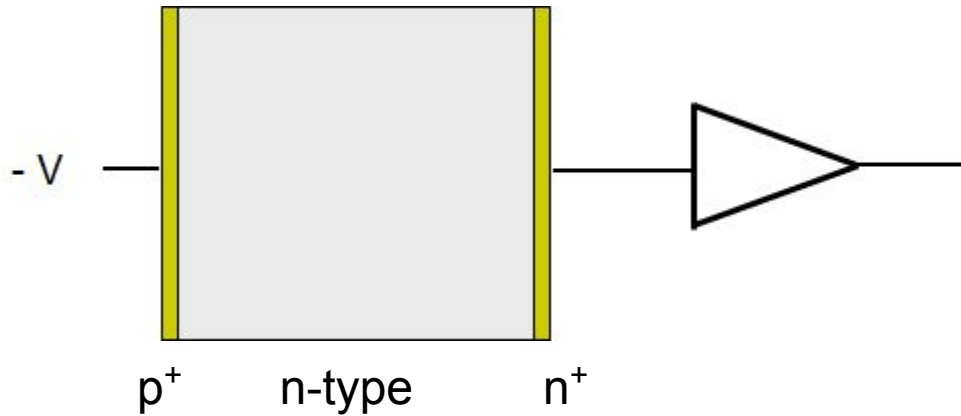
Example: Planar Detector w/ Perfect Charge Transport



Charge carriers with *different* mobilities



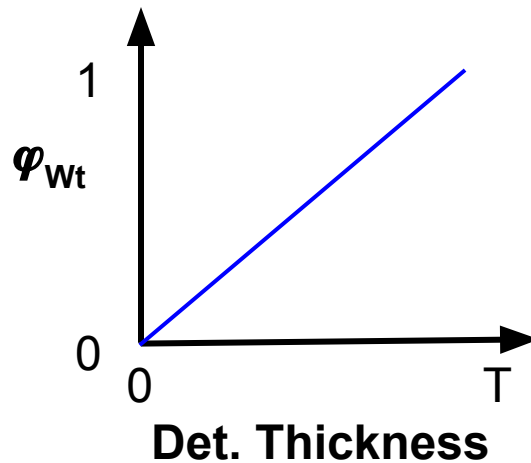
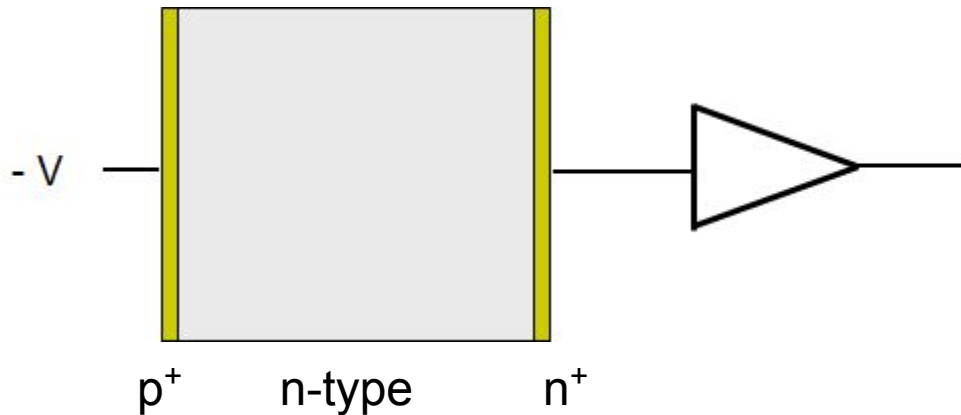
Example: Planar Detector w/ Perfect Charge Transport



Charge carriers with *different* mobilities



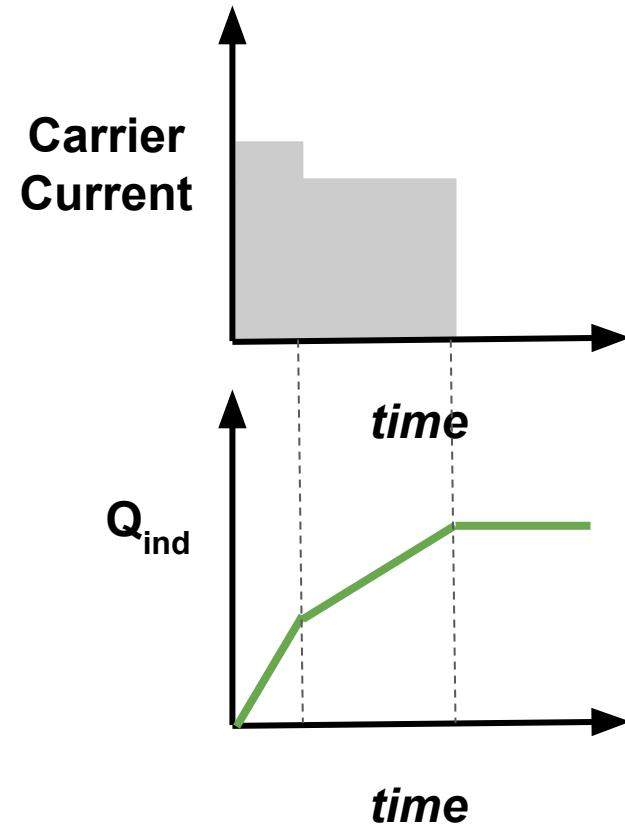
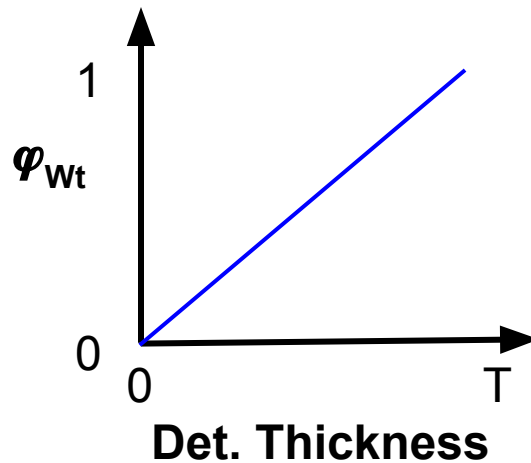
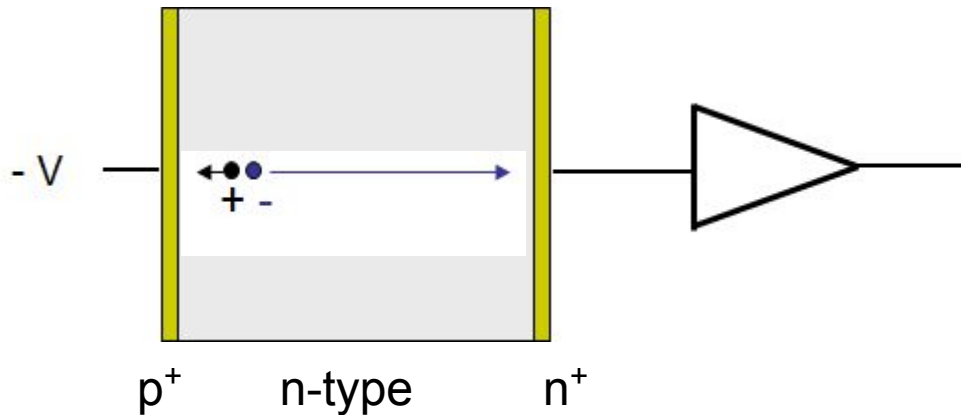
Example: Planar Detector w/ Perfect Charge Transport



Charge carriers with *different* mobilities



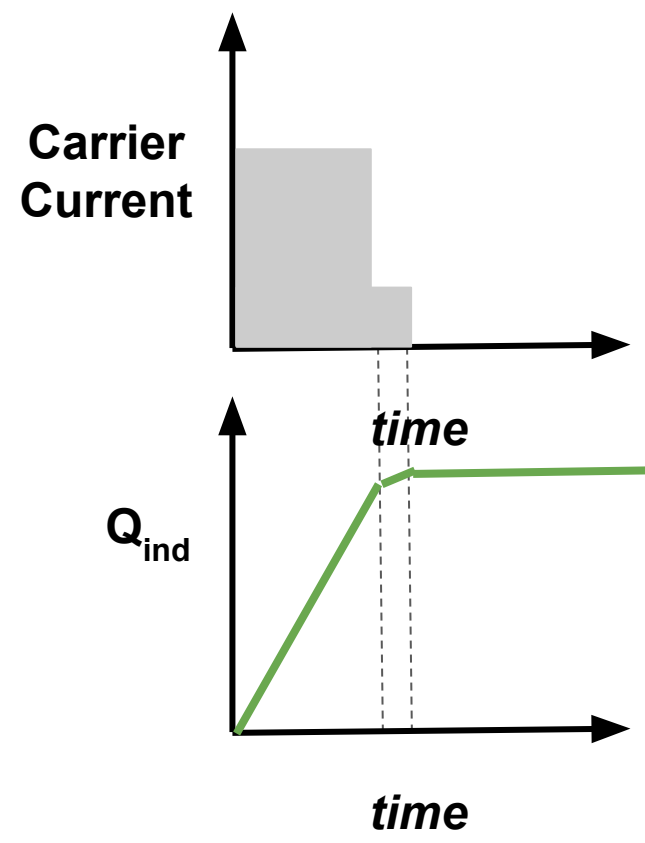
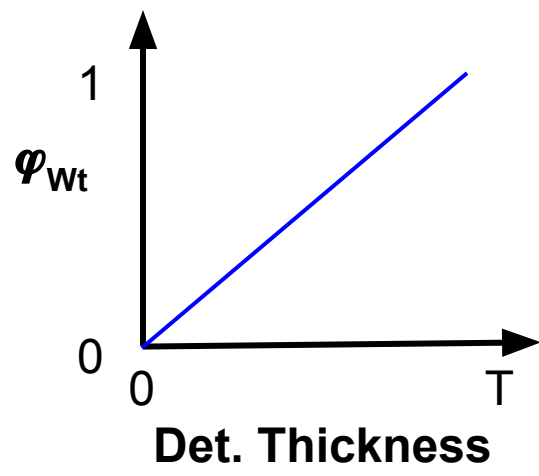
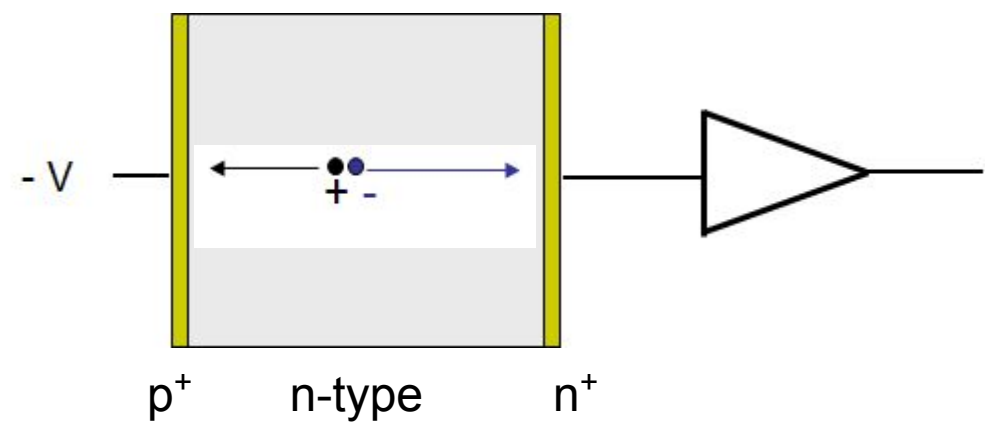
Example: Planar Detector w/ Perfect Charge Transport



Charge carriers with *different* mobilities



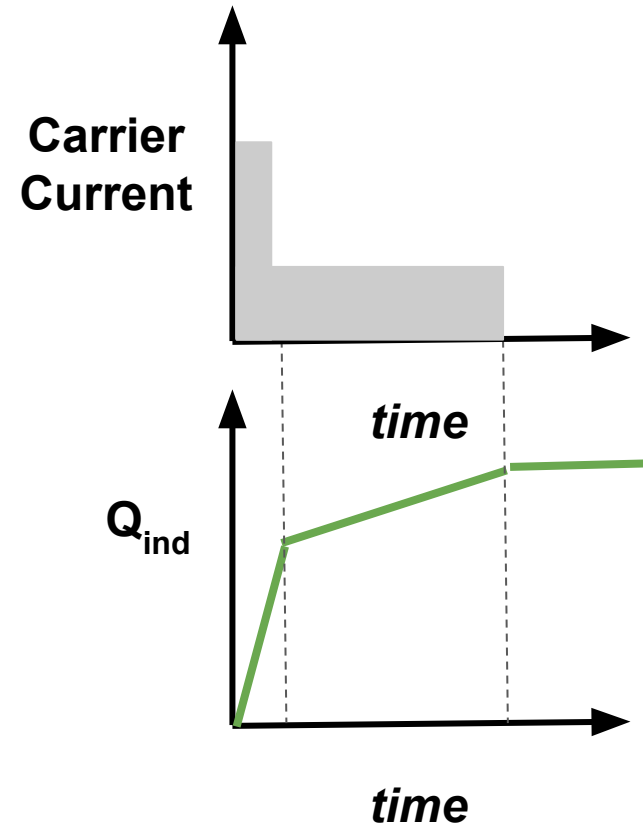
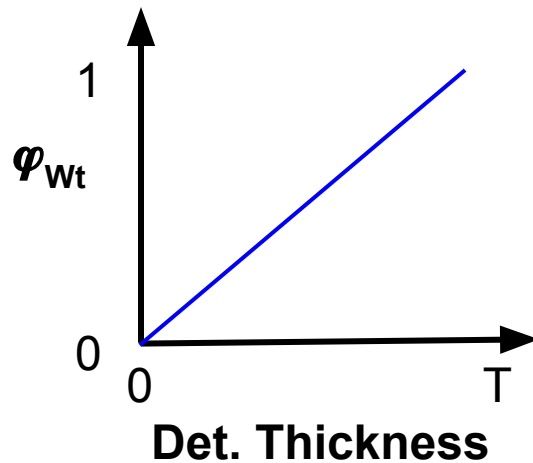
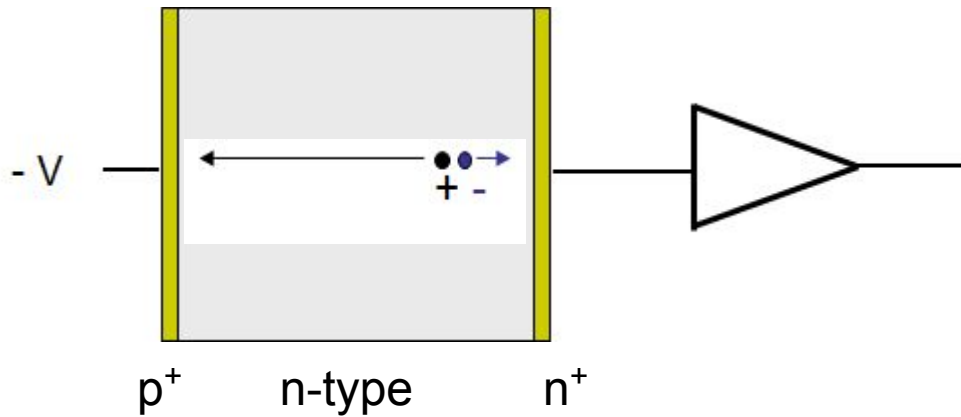
Example: Planar Detector w/ Perfect Charge Transport



Charge carriers with *different* mobilities



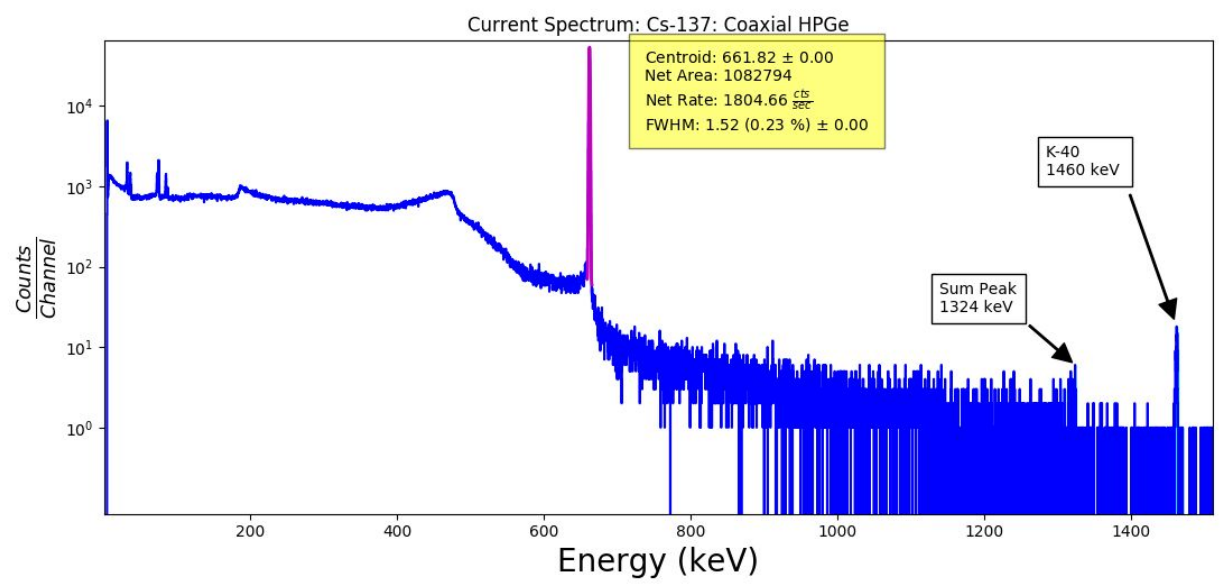
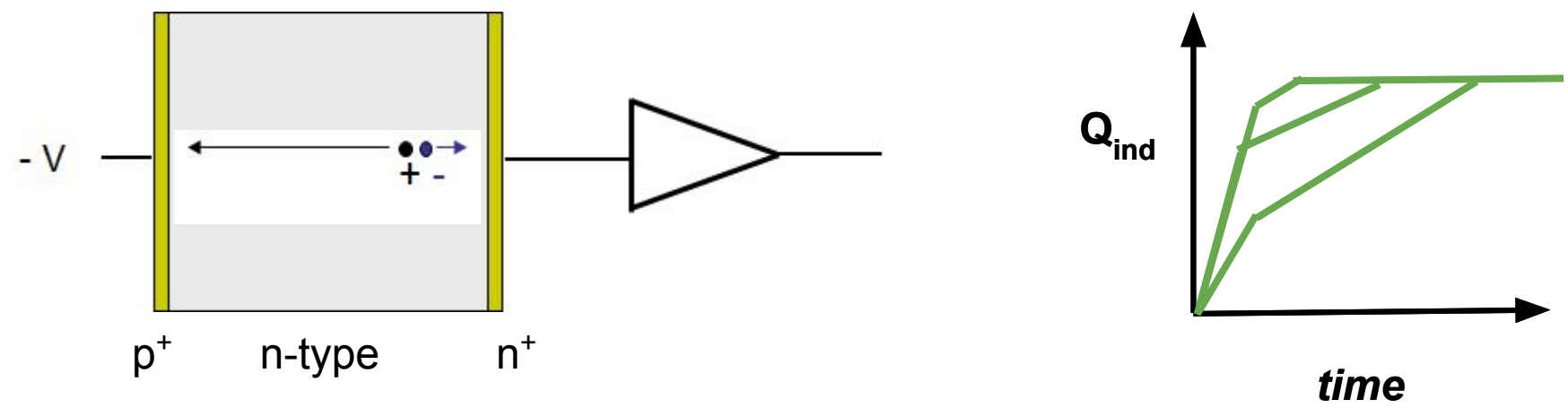
Example: Planar Detector w/ Perfect Charge Transport



Charge carriers with *different* mobilities



Example: Planar Detector w/ Perfect Charge Transport



High-Purity Germanium (HPGe) Detectors



13 14 15

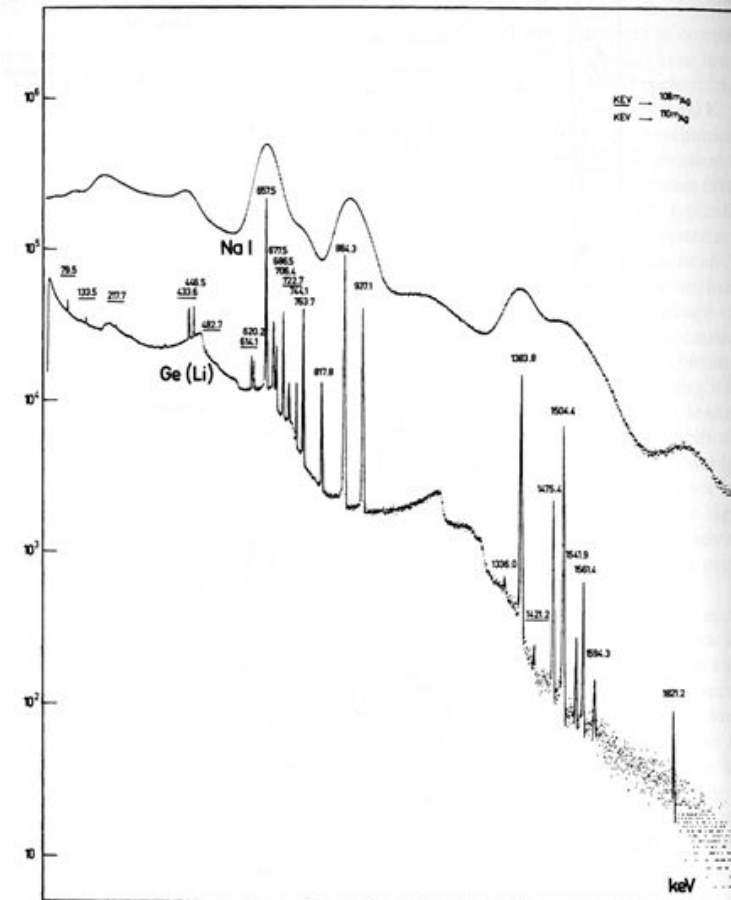
| | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 5 B 10.811 | 6 C 12.011 | 7 N 14.007 |
| 13 Al 26.982 | 14 Si 28.086 | 15 P 30.974 |
| 31 Ga 69.72 | 32 Ge 72.59 | 33 As 74.922 |
| 49 In 114.82 | 50 Sn 118.69 | 51 Sb 121.75 |
| 81 Tl 204.37 | 82 Pb 207.19 | 83 Bi 208.98 |

- Ge vs. Si detectors:
 - Smaller band gap than Si (0.7 vs 1.1 eV)
 - Higher density (5.32 vs. 2.33 g/cm³) and higher Z (32 vs. 14)
 - Lower impurity (10⁹ vs 10¹² cm⁻³) allows much larger volumes to be depleted
- 1962: Pell (LBL) produces first compensated Ge(Li) detector
 - Drawbacks: limited volume, must **always** be kept at LN₂ temperatures
- 1970's: HPGe replaces Ge(Li)
 - Improved purity (zone refining), improved crystal growth methods (Czochralski process)
- 1990's: Large-volume HPGe
 - >800 cm³
 - Impurity conc O(10⁹ cm⁻³) = purest commercially available material on earth!



General Remarks

- HPGe and Si detectors are the “gold-standard” in many applications such as electron spectroscopy (Si) and gamma-ray spectroscopy (HPGe)
 - Excellent energy resolution
 - Statistics of charge-carrier production
 - High density (solid state)
 - Excellent charge carrier collection properties
 - High mobility and lifetimes for both electrons and holes
 - Very good timing characteristics
 - Design dependent, but influenced by high carrier mobility

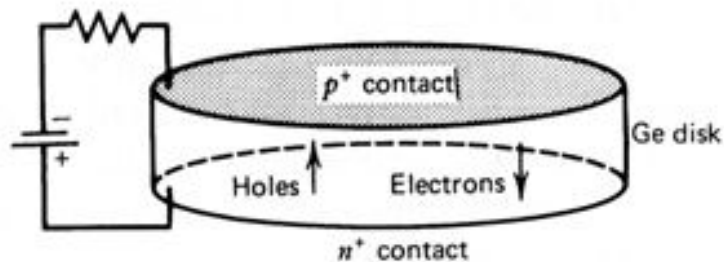


Ag-108m & Ag-110m. Knoll 12.4

HPGe Detector Configurations

- Planar configuration

- Limited volume



- Bulk material can be n-type or p-type

- Traditional contacts

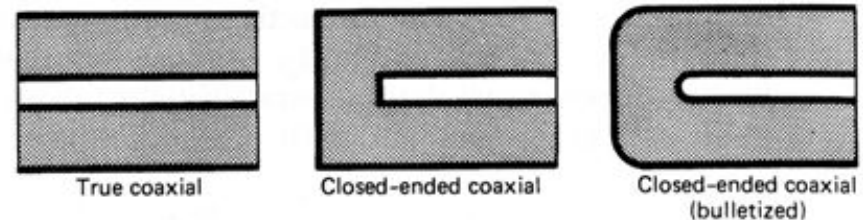
- n^+ by Li diffusion ($\sim 100\mu\text{m}$ thick)
 - p^+ by boron implantation ($< 1\mu\text{m}$ thick)

- Modern contacts: amorphous semiconductor (e.g. α -Ge)

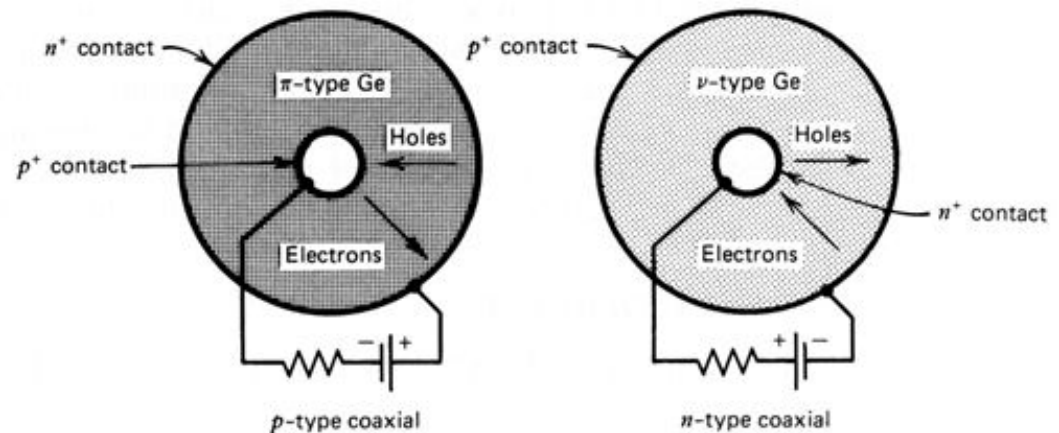
- Blocking contact for both carrier types

- Coaxial detectors

- Large volume



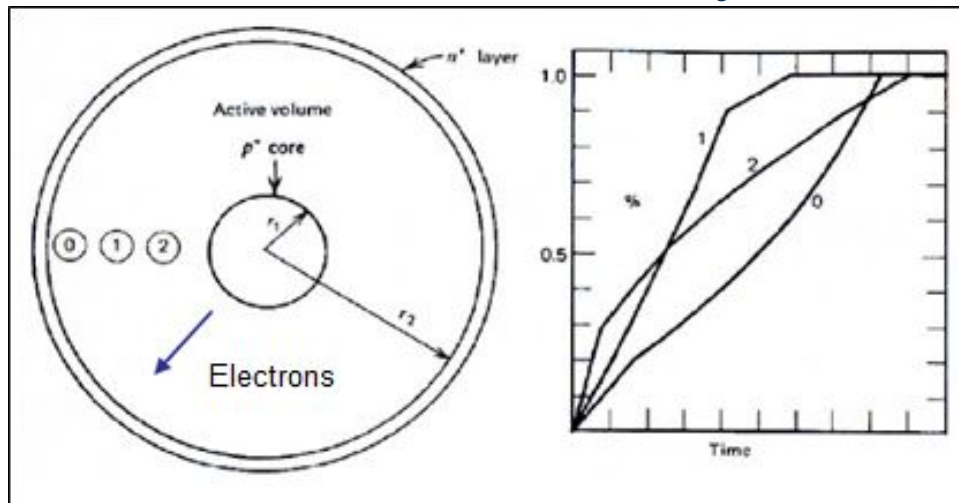
— represents electrical contact surface



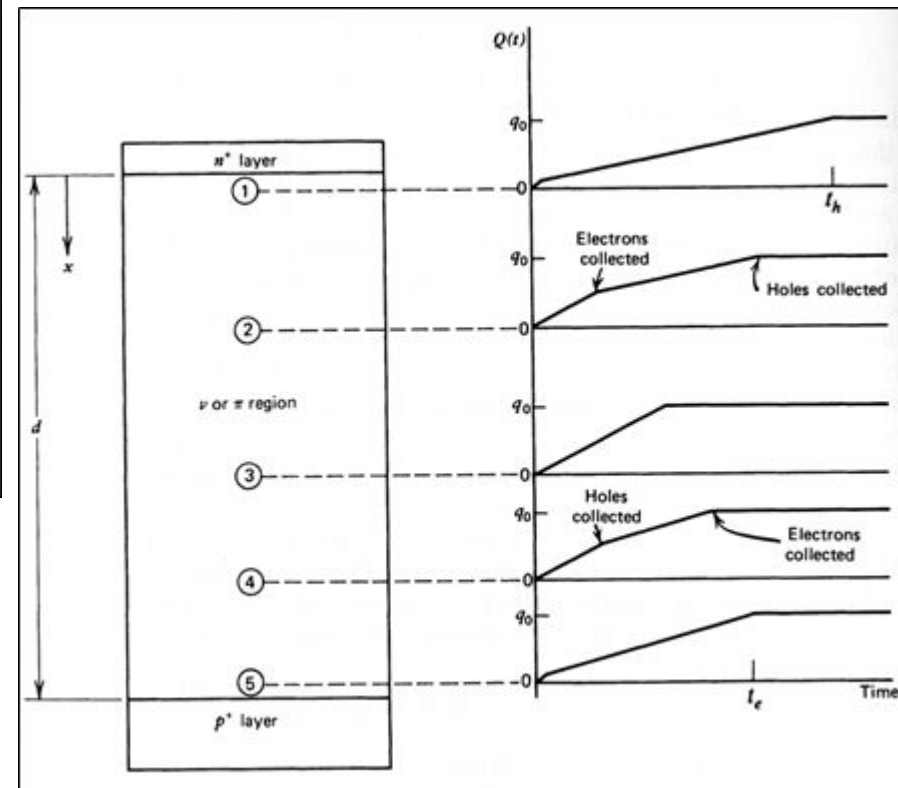
Signal Shapes in HPGe Detectors

- Signal induction process → Signal shape depends on interaction position!

Coaxial Geometry

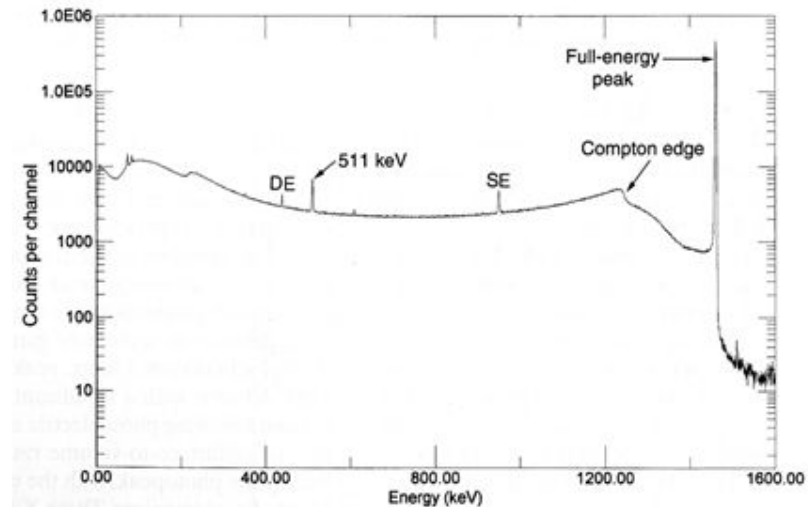
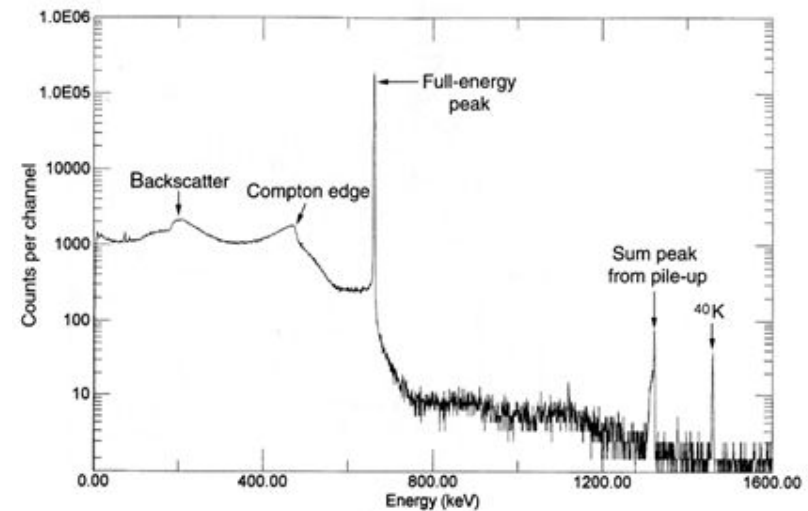


Planar Geometry



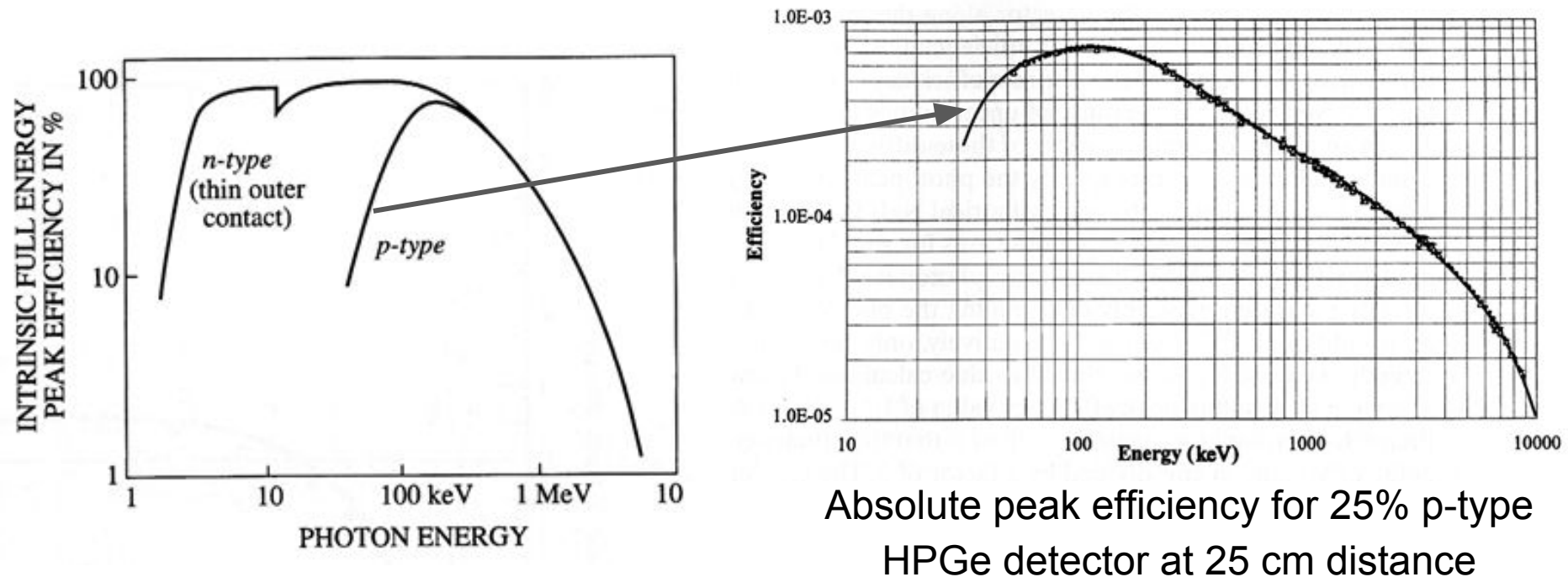
Gamma-Ray Energy Spectrum in HPGe

- Features based on various gamma-ray interaction mechanisms (coupled to detector geometry)
 - Full energy peak
 - Last interaction must be PE abs.
 - Features due to Compton scattering
 - Compton continuum, Compton Edge, Compton “valley”
 - Backscatter peak
 - Features from pair production
 - Escape peaks (single, double)
- “Good” coaxial detector
 - Ener. Res. < 0.2% @ > 1 MeV



HPGe Detector Efficiency

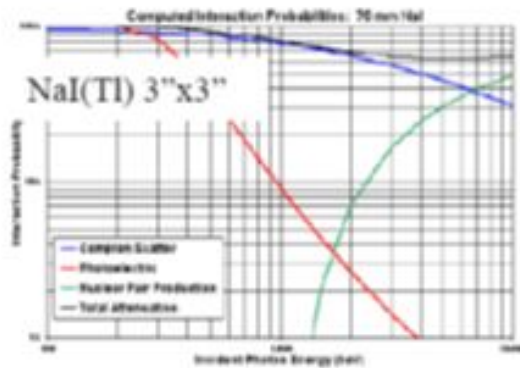
- Absolute full-energy (peak) efficiency = (Counts in photopeak) / (number of emitted gamma rays)
- Intrinsic full-energy (peak) efficiency = (Counts in photopeak) / (number of emitted gamma rays incident on the detector)
- Relative full-energy (peak) efficiency = efficiency at 1332 keV (^{60}Co source) relative to 3"x3" cylindrical NaI(Tl) crystal at 25 cm distance.



Historical Note about HPGe Efficiency



Detector efficiency is often quoted in percent of that for a 3"x3" NaI(Tl) detector (for historical reasons) and generally for the 1332.5 keV line from ^{60}Co .



$$\varepsilon_{geo} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{d}{\sqrt{d^2 + a^2}} \right) \quad d = 25\text{cm}, a = 1.5''$$

$$\varepsilon_{geo} = 5.707 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$\varepsilon_{total}(\text{NaI}) = 1.2 \times 10^{-3} \rightarrow \varepsilon_{intrinsic}(\text{NaI}) = 0.210$$