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40	Characterization of monolithic CMOS pixel sensors for charged particle detectors and for high intensity dosimetry		

⁴² **Chapter 1**

⁴³ **Introduction**

⁴⁴ Pixel detectors, members of the semiconductor detector family, have significantly been used since
⁴⁵ () at the first accelerator experiments for energy and position measurement. Because of their
⁴⁶ dimension (today $\sim 30 \mu m$ or even better) and their spatial resolution ($\sim 5\text{-}10 \mu m$), with the
⁴⁷ availability of technology in 1980s they proved to be perfectly suitable for vertex detector in the
⁴⁸ inner layer of the detector.

⁴⁹ Technological development has been costant from then on and today almost every high energy
⁵⁰ physics (HEP) experiment employs a pixels detector; hybrid pixel currently constitute the state-
⁵¹ of-art for large scale pixel detector but experiments began to look at the more innovative monolithic
⁵² active pixels (MAPS) as perspective for their future upgrades, as BelleII, or they already have
⁵³ installed them, as ALICE.

⁵⁴ Requirement imposed by accelerator are stringent and they will be even more with the increase
⁵⁵ of luminosity/intensity, in terms of radiation hardness, efficiency and occupancy, time resolution,
⁵⁶ material budget and power consumption.

⁵⁷ Qual è invece la richiesta per la dosimetria?

⁵⁸

⁵⁹ **Chapter 2**

⁶⁰ **Pixel detectors**

⁶¹ **2.1 Signal formation**

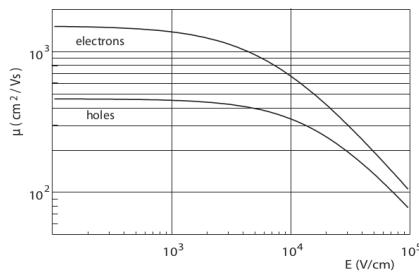
⁶² When a charge particle passes through a pixel and loses energy by ionization a part of that
⁶³ energy is used to generate electron-hole pairs (another part is used for other processes, as the
⁶⁴ lattice excitation) which are then separated by the electric field and collected at their respectively
⁶⁵ electrodes (p for holes and n for electrons)¹; by the drift of these charges, a signal i_e is generated
⁶⁶ on the electrode e as stated by the Shockley–Ramo's theorem:

$$i_e(t) = -q v(t) E_{WF,e} \quad (2.1)$$

⁶⁷ where $v(t)$ is the instantaneous velocity of the charge q and E_{WF} is the weighting field, that is the
⁶⁸ field obtained biasing the electrode e with 1V and all the others with 0V. The drift velocity of the
⁶⁹ charge depends on the electric field and on the mobility of the particle:

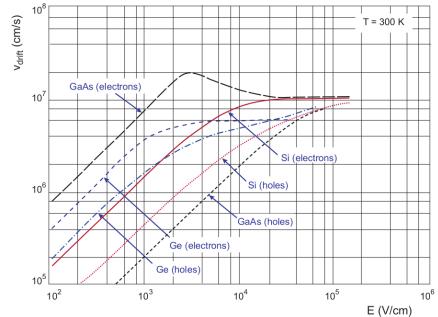
$$v = \mu(E) E \quad (2.2)$$

⁷⁰ where $\mu(E)$ is a function of the electric field and is linear with E only for small E : at higher values
⁷¹ the probability of interactions with optical phonons increases and the mobility drops and this leads
⁷² to an independence of the velocity from the electric field (fig. 2.1b).



(a) Typical values for electrons and holes mobility in

silicon at room temperature are $\mu_n \sim 1450 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$, $\mu_h = 500$



(b) Drift velocity at room temperature in different semiconductors

⁷³ The average energy needed to create a pair at 300 K in silicon is $w_i = 3.65 \text{ eV}$, that is more
⁷⁴ than the mean ionization energy because of the interactions with phonon, since for a minimum
⁷⁵ ionizing particle (MIP) the most probable value (MPV) of charge released in the semiconductor is
⁷⁶ 0.28 keV/ μ , hence the number of e/h pairs is:

$$\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \rangle \frac{1}{w_i} \sim 80 \text{ e}/\text{h} \sim \frac{1.28 \cdot 10^{-2} fC}{\mu m} \quad (2.3)$$

¹Even if in principle both the electrode can be used to read a signal, for pixel detectors, where the number of channel and the complexity of readout are high, only one is actually used. In strip and pad detectors, instead, is more common a dual-side readout

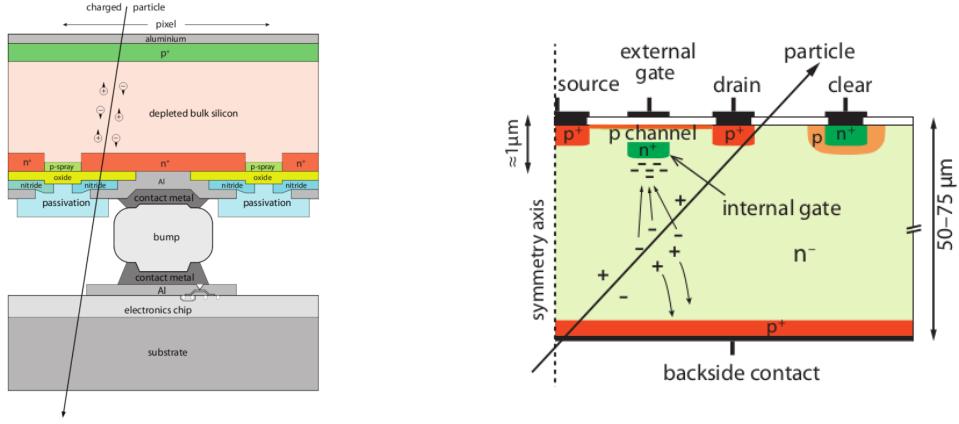


Figure 2.2: Concept cross-section of hybrid pixel (a) and of a DEPFET (b)

77 CON UN'INCERTEZZA CHE È RADICE DI N; ED EVENTUALEMTE SI AGGIUNGE IL
 78 FATTORE DI FANO NEL CASO DI ASSORBIMENTO TOTALE. IL FATTORE DI FANO È
 79 0.115 NELL SILICIO. ecc It is fundamental that pairs e/h are produced in the depleted region
 80 of the semiconductor where the probability of recombination with charge carriers is low to avoid
 81 loss of signals. Pixel detectors are then commonly reverse biased: a positive bias is given to the
 82 n electrode and a negative to the p to grow the depletion zone in the epitaxial layer below the
 83 electrode. The width of the depletion region is related with the external bias V_{ext} , the resistivity
 84 ρ and also with the dopant:

$$d_n \sim 0.55 \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{\Omega cm} \frac{V_{ext}}{V}} \mu m \quad (2.4) \quad d_p \sim 0.32 \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{\Omega cm} \frac{V_{ext}}{V}} \mu m \quad (2.5)$$

85

86

87

88 For that reason high resistivity wafers ($100 \Omega cm - k\Omega cm$) are typically preferred because they
 89 allow bigger depletion zone with smaller voltage bias.

90 2.2 Hybrid pixels

91 Hybrid pixels are made of two parts (fig. 2.2a), the sensor and the electronics: for each pixel these
 92 two parts are welded together through microconnection (bump bond).
 93 They provide a practical system where readout and sensor can be optimized separately, although
 94 the testing is less easy-to-do since the sensor and the R/O must be connected together before.
 95 In addition, the particular and sophisticated procedure to bond sensor and ASIC (application spe-
 96 cific integrated circuit) makes them difficult to produce, delicate, especially when exposed to high
 97 levels of radiation, and also expensive.
 98 A critical parameter for accelerator experiments is the material budget, which represents the main
 99 limit factor for momentum measurement resolution in a magnetic field; since hybrid pixels are
 100 thicker (\sim hundreds of μm) than monolithic ones (even less than $100 \mu m$), using the latter the
 101 material budget can be down by a third: typical value for hybrid pixels is 1.5 % X_0 per layer,
 102 while for monolithic 0.5 % X_0 .
 103 Among other disadvantages of hybrid pixels there is the bigger power consumption that implies,
 104 by the way, a bigger cooling system leading in turn to an increase in material too.

105

106 DEPFET are the first attempt towards the integration of the front end (FE) on the sensor bulk:
 107 they are typically mounted on a hybrid structure but they also integrate the first amplification
 108 stage.

109 Each pixel implements a MOSFET (metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistor) transistor
 110 (a p-channel in fig. 2.2b): an hole current flows from source to drain which is controlled by the
 111 external gate and the internal gate together. The internal gate is made by a deep n+ implant
 112 towards which electrons drift after being created in the depletion region (to know how the signal

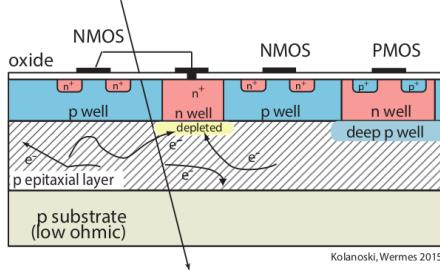


Figure 2.3: Concept cross-section of CMOS MPAS pixel

is created in a pixel detector look at appendix A); the accumulation of electrons in the region underneath the n implant changes the gate potential and controls the transistor current.
DEPFET typically have a good S/N ratio: this is principally due the amplification on-pixel and the large depletion region. But, since they need to be connected with ASIC the limiting factor still is the material budget.

2.3 CMOS MAPS and DMPAS

Monolithic active pixels accommodate on the same wafer both the sensor and the front end electronics, with the second one implanted on top.

MAPS have been first proposed and realized in the 1990s and their usage has been enabled by the development of the electronic sector which guarantees the decrease in CMOS transistors dimension at least every two years, as stated by the Moore's law².

As a matter of fact the dimension of components, their organization on the pixel area and logic density are important issues for the design and for the layout; typically different decisions are taken for different purposes.

Monolithic active pixel can be distinguished between two main categories: MAPS and depleted MAPS (DMAPS).

MAPS (figure a 2.3) have typically an epitaxial layer in range 1-20 μm and because they are not depleted, the charge is mainly collected by diffusion rather than by drift. This makes the path of charges created in the bulk longer than usual, therefore they are slow (of order of 100 ns) and the collection could be partial especially after the irradiation of the detector (look at A for radiation damages), when the trapping probability become higher.

In figure 2.3 is shown as example of CMOS MAPS: the sensor in the scheme implements an n well as collection diode; to avoid the others n wells (which contain PMOS transistor) of the electronic circuit would compete in charge collection and to shield the CMOS circuit from the substrate, additionally underlying deep p well are needed. DMAPS are instead MAPS depleted with d typically in $\sim 25\text{-}150 \mu\text{m}$ (eq. 2.1) which extends from the diode to the deep p-well, and sometimes also to the backside (in this case if one wants to collect the signal also on this electrode, additional process must be done).

2.3.1 DMAPS: large and small fill factor

There are two different sensor-design approaches (figure 2.4) to DMAPS:

- large fill factor: a large collection electrode that is a large deep n-well and that host the embedded electronics
- small fill factor: a small n-well is used as charge collection node

To implement a uniform and stronger electric field, DMAPS often uses large electrode design that requires multiple wells (typically four including deep n and p wells); this layout adds on to the standard terms of the total capacity of the sensor a new term (fig. 2.5), that contributes to the total amplifier input capacity. In addition to the capacity between pixels (C_{pp}) and between the pixel and the backside (C_b), a non-negligible contribution comes from the capacities between wells

²Moore's law states that logic density doubles every two years.

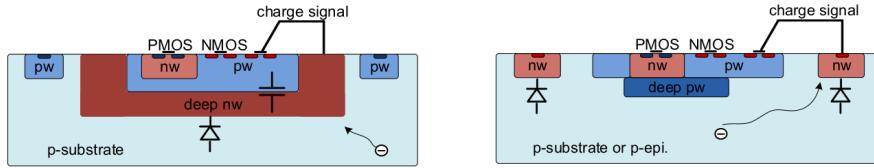


Figure 2.4: Concept cross-section with large and small fill factor

	small fill factor	large fill factor
small sensor C	✓ (< 5 fF)	✗ (~ 100-200 fF)
low noise	✓	✗
low cross talk	✓	✗
velocity performances	✓	✗ (~ 100 ns)
short drift paths	✗	✓
radiation hard	✗	✓

Table 2.1: Small and large fill factor DMAPS characteristics

151 (C_{SW} and C_{WW}) needed to shield the embedded electronics. These capacities affect the thermal
152 and 1/f noise of the charge amplifier and the τ_{CSA} too:

$$ENC_{thermal}^2 \propto \frac{4}{3} \frac{kT}{g_m} \frac{C_D^2}{\tau_{sh}} \quad (2.6) \quad \tau_{CSA} \propto \frac{1}{g_m} \frac{C_D}{C_f} \quad (2.7)$$

154 where g_m is the transconductance, τ_{sh} is the shaping time.
155 Among the disadvantages coming from this large input capacity could be the coupling between
156 the sensor and the electronics resulting in cross talk: noise induced by a signal on neighbouring
157 electrodes; indeed, since digital switching in the FE electronics do a lot of oscillations, this problem
is especially connected with the intra wells capacities. So, larger charge collection electrode

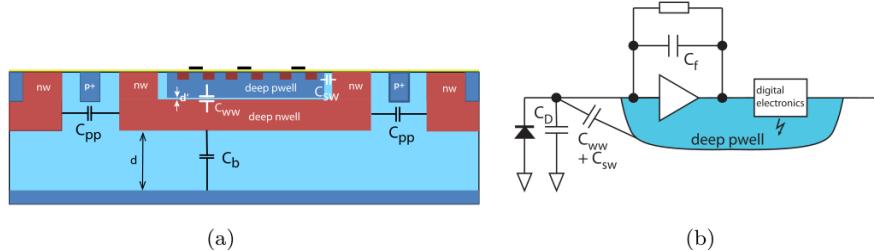


Figure 2.5: C_{pp} , C_b , C_{WW} , C_{SW}

158 sensors provide a uniform electric field in the bulk that results in short drift path and so in good
159 collection properties, especially after irradiation, when trapping probability can become an issue.
160 The drawback of a large fill-factor is the large capacity (~100 fF): this contributes to the noise
161 and to a speed penalty and to a larger possibility of cross talk.

162 The small fill-factor variant, instead, benefits from a small capacity (5-20 fF), but suffers from
163 a not uniform electric field and from all the issue related to that. **Ho già detto prima parlando dei
164 MAPS, devo ripetere qui?**

165 As we'll see these two different types of sensor require different amplifier: the large electrode one is
166 coupled with the charge sensitive amplifier, while the small one with voltage amplifier (sec 2.4.1).

168 2.3.2 A modified sensor

169 ?? A process modification developed by CERN in collaboration with the foundries has become the
170 standard solution to combine the characteristics of a small fill factor sensor (small input amplifier
171 capacity) and of large fill factor sensor (uniform electric field) is the one carried out for ALICE

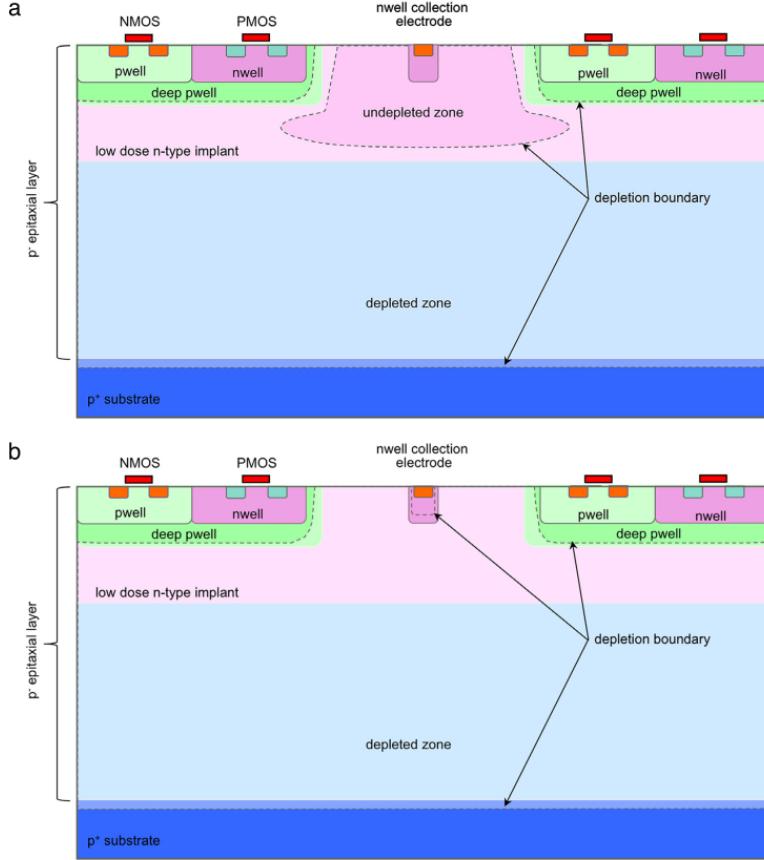


Figure 2.6: A modified process for ALICE tracker detector: a low dose n implant is used to create a planar junction. In (a) the depletion is partial, while in (b) the pixel is fully depleted.

172 upgrade about ten years [1].

173 A compromise between the two sensors could also be making smaller pixels, but this solution
174 requires reducing the electronic circuit area, so a completely new pixel layout should be though.
175 The modification consists in inserting a low dose implant under the electrode and one its advantage
176 lies in its versatility: both standard and modified sensor are often produced for testing in fact.

177 Before the process modification the depletion region extends below the diode towards the sub-
178 strate, and it doesn't extend laterally so much even if a high bias is applied to the sensor (fig. 2.6).

179 After, two distinct pn junctions are built: one between the deep p well and the n^- layer, and the
180 other between the n^- and the p^- epitaxial layer, extending to the all area of the sensor.

181 Since deep p well and the p-substrate are separated by the depletion region, the two p electrodes
182 can be biased separately³ and this is beneficial to enhance the vertical electric field component.

183 The doping concentration is a trimmer parameter: it must be high enough to be greater than the
184 epitaxial layer to prevent the punchthrough between p-well and the substrate, but it must also be
185 lower enough to allow the depletion without reaching too high bias.

186 2.4 Analog front end

187 After the creation of a signal on the electrode, the signal enters the front end circuit (fig.2.7), ready
188 to be molded and transmitted out of chip. Low noise amplification, fast hit discrimination and an
189 efficient, high-speed readout architecture, consuming as low power as possible must be provided
190 by the readout integrated electronics (ROIC).

191 Let's take a look to the main steps of the analog front end chain: the preamplifier (that actually
192 often is the only amplification stage) with a reset to the baseline mechanism and a leakage current

³This is true in general, but it can be denied if other doping characteristics are implemented, and we'll see that this is the case of TJ-Monopix1

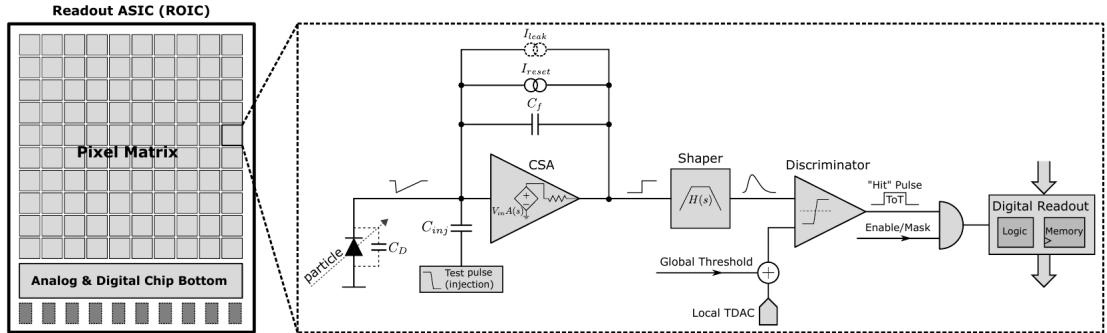


Figure 2.7: Readout FE scheme: in this example the preamplifier is a charge sensitive one (CSA) but changing the capacitive feedback into a resistive one, this can be converted in a voltage or current amplifier.

compensation, a shaper (a band-pass filter) and finally a discriminator. The whole chain must be optimized and tuned to improve the S/N ratio: it is very important both not to have a large noise before the amplification stage in order to not multiply that noise, and chose a reasonable threshold of the discriminator to cut noise-hits much as possible.

2.4.1 Preamplifier

Even if circuits on the silicon crystal are only constructed by CMOS, a preamplifier can be modeled as an operational amplifier (OpAmp) where the gain is determined by the input and feedback impedance (first step in figure 2.7):

$$G = \frac{v_{out}}{v_{in}} = \frac{Z_f}{Z_{in}} \quad (2.8)$$

Depending on whether a capacity or a resistance is used as feedback, respectively a charge or a voltage amplifier is used: if the voltage input signal is large enough and have a sharp rise time, the voltage sensitive preamplifier is preferred. Consequently, this flavor doesn't suit to large fill factor MAPS whose signal is already enough high: $v_{in} = Q/C_D \approx 3fC/100 \text{ pF} = 0.03 \text{ mV}$, but it's fine for the small fill factor ones: $v_{in} = Q/C_D \approx 3fC/3 \text{ pF} = 1 \text{ mV}$.

In the case of a resistor feedback, if the signal duration time is longer than the discharge time ($\tau = R_S C_D$) of the detector the system works as current amplifier, as the signal is immediately transmit to the amplifier; in the complementary case (signal duration longer than the discharge time) the system integrates the current on the C_D and operates as a voltage amplifier.

2.5 Readout logic

Readout logic includes the part of the circuit which takes the FE output signal, processes it and then transmit it out of pixel and/or out of chip; depending on the situation of usage different readout characteristics must be provided.

To store the analogical information (i.e. charge collected, evolution of signal in time, ...) big buffers and a large bandwidth are needed; the problem that doesn't occur, or better occur only with really high rate, if one wants record only digital data (if one pixel is hit 1 is recorded, and if not 0 is recorded).

A common compromise often made is to save the time over threshold (ToT) of the pulse in clock cycle counts; this needs of relatively coarse requirement as ToT could be trimmer to be a dozen bits but, being correlated and hopefully being linear with the deposited charge by the impinging particle in the detector, it provides a sufficient information. The ToT digitalization usually takes advantage of the distribution of a clock (namely BCID, bunch crossing identification) on the pixels' matrix. The required timing precision is at least around 25 ns, that corresponds to the period of bunch collisions at LHC; for such reason a reasonable BCID-clock frequency for pixels detector is 40 MHz.

Leading and trailing edges' timestamp of the pulse are saved on pixel within a RAM until they have been read, and then the ToT is obtained from their difference.

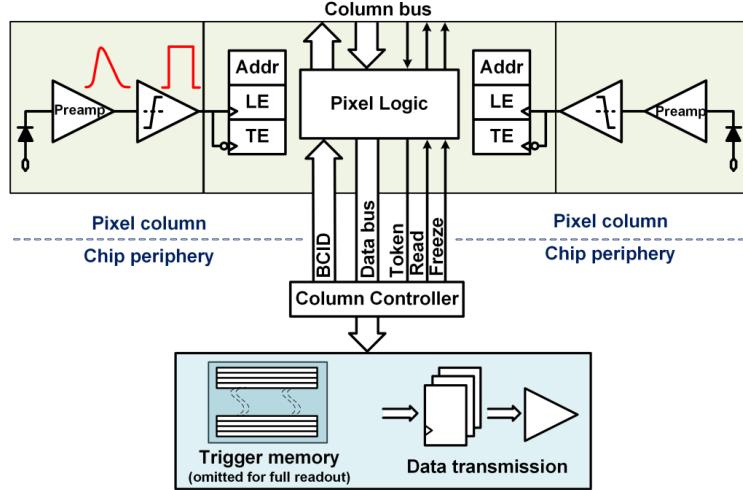


Figure 2.8: Column drain R/O scheme where ToT is saved

Moreover, the readout architecture can be full, if every hit is read, or triggered, if a trigger system decides if the hit must be stored or not. On one hand the triggered-readout needs buffers and storage memories, on the other the full readout, because there is no need to store hit data on chip, needs an high enough bandwidth.

A triggered readout is fundamental in accelerator experiments where the quantity of data to store is too large to be handled, and some selections have to be applied by the trigger: to give an order of growth, at LHC more than 100 TBit/s of data are produced, but the storage limit is about 100 MBit/s [2] (pag. 797).

Typically the trigger signal is processed in a few μs , so the pixel gets it only after a hundred clock cycles from the hit arrival time: the buffer depth must then handle the higher trigger latency.

After having taken out the data from the pixel, it has to be transmitted to the end of column (EoC) where a serializer delivers it out of chip, typically to an FPGA.

There are several ways of transmitting data from pixel to the end of column: one of the most famous is the column-drain read out, developed for CMS and ATLAS experiments [3]. All the pixels in a double-column share a data bus and only one pixel at a time, according to a priority chain, can be read. The reading order circuit is implemented by shift register (SR): when a hit arrives, the corresponding data, which can be made of timestamp and ToT, is temporarily stored on a RAM until the SR does not allow the access to memory by data bus.

Even if many readout architectures are based on the column-drain one, it doesn't suit for large size matrices. The problem is that increasing the pixels on a column would also raise the number of pixels in the priority chain and that would result in a slowdown of the readout.

If there isn't any storage memory, the double-column behaves as a single server queue and the probability for a pixel of waiting a time T greater than t , with an input hit rate on the column μ and an output bandwidth B_W is [4]:

$$P(T > t) = \frac{\mu}{B_W} e^{-(B_W - \mu)t} \quad (2.9)$$

To avoid hit loss (let's neglect the contribution to the inefficiency of the dead time τ due to the AFE), for example imposing $P(T > t) \sim 0.001$, one obtains $(B_W - \mu) t_t \sim 6$, where t_t is the time needed to transfer the hit; since t_t is small, one must have $B_W \gg \mu$, that means a high bandwidth [4].

Actually the previous one is an approximation since each pixel sees a different bandwidth depending on the position on the queue: the first one sees a full bandwidth, but the next sees a smaller one because occasionally it can be blocked by the previous pixel. Then the bandwidth seen by the pixel i is $B_i = B - \sum_j \mu_j$, where μ_j is the hit rate of the j th pixel.

The efficiency requirement on the bandwidth and the hit rate becomes: $B_{W,i} > \mu_i$, where the index i means the constraint is for a single pixel; if all the N pixels on a column have the same rate $\mu = N\mu_i$, the condition reduces to $B_W > \mu$. The bandwidth must be chosen such that the mean time between hits of the last pixel in the readout chain is bigger than that.

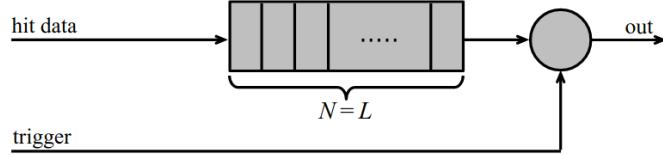


Figure 2.9: Block diagram of a pipeline buffer: N is the dimension of memory buffer and L is the trigger latency expressed in BCID cycles

264 In order to reduce the bandwidth a readout with zero suppression on pixel is typically employed;
265 this means that only information from channels where the signal exceeds the discriminator thresh-
266 old are stored. Qu'è succiso con la zero suppression? La metto qui questa affermazione?

267 If instead there is a local storage until a trigger signal arrives, the input rate to column bus
268 μ' is reduced compared to the hit rate μ as: $\mu' = \mu \times r \times t$, where r is the trigger rate and t is
269 the bunch crossing period. In this situation there is a more relaxed constraint on the bandwidth,
270 but the limiting factor is the buffer depth: the amount of memory designed depends both on the
271 expected rate μ and on the trigger latency t as $\propto \mu \times t$, that means that the higher the trigger
272 latency and the lower the hit rate to cope with.

273 In order to have an efficient usage of memory on pixels' area it's convenient grouping pixels
274 into regions with shared storage. Let's compare two different situations: in the first one a buffer
275 is located on each pixel area, while in the second one a core of four pixels share a common buffer
276 (this architecture is commonly called FE-I4).

Consider a 50 kHz single pixel hits rate and a trigger latency of 5 μs , the probability of losing

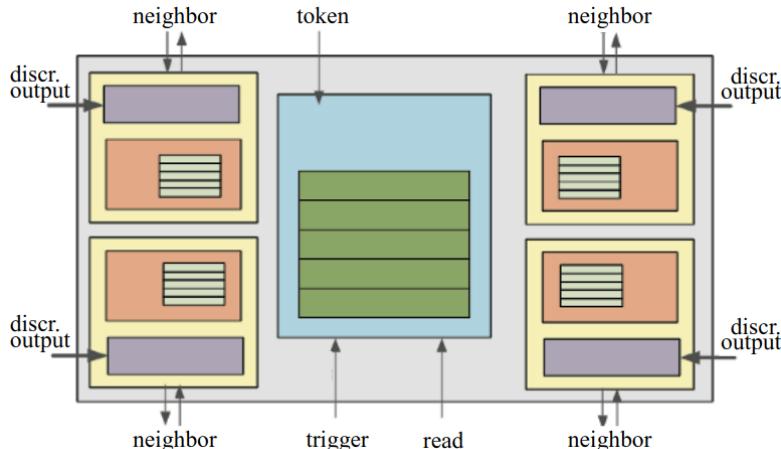


Figure 2.10: Block diagram of the FE-I4 R/O. Read and memory management section is high-
lighted in light blue; latency counters and trigger management section are highlighted in green; hit
processing blocks are highlighted in purple; ToT counters and ToT management units are high-
lighted in orange

277 hits is:

$$P(N > 1|\nu) = 1 - P(N = 0|\nu) - P(N = 1|\nu) = 1 - e^{-\nu}(1 + \nu) \approx 2.6\% \quad (2.10)$$

279 where I have assumed a Poissonian distribution with mean $\nu = 0.25$ to describe the counts N.
280 To get an efficiency ϵ greater than 99.9 % a 3 hit depth buffer is needed:

$$P(N > 3|\nu) = 1 - \sum_{i=0}^3 P(N = i|\nu) < 0.1\% \quad (2.11)$$

281 Considering the second situation: if the average single pixel rate is still 50 kHz, grouping four
282 pixels the mean number of hits per trigger latency is $\nu = 0.25 \times 4 = 1$. To get an efficiency of
283 99.9% (eq. 2.11) a buffer depth of 5 hits in the four-pixels region, instead of 3 per pixels, is needed.

²⁸⁴ **Chapter 3**

²⁸⁵ **Use of pixels detector**

²⁸⁶ A partire dal 2017, i sensori CMOS rappresentano l'89% delle vendite globali di sensori di immagine.
²⁸⁷ Ma praticamente dal 2010 in poi solo CMOS e non più CCD.

²⁸⁸

²⁸⁹ **3.1 Tracking in HEP**

²⁹⁰ Per gli acceleratori la richieste sono molto stringenti e lo saranno sempre di più con l'aumento dell'
²⁹¹ intensità o della luminosità in termini di radiation hardness (per HL-LHC for example expected
²⁹² in 5 anni 500 Mrad e NIEL di 10 alla 16), efficiency e occupancy (efficienza alta dopo tanta
²⁹³ radiazione e noise occupancy bassa), time resolution (bunch crossing 40 Mhz), material budget e
²⁹⁴ power consumption (material budget below 2 per cento e power consumption 500 mW/cm²)
²⁹⁵ Usati come tracciatori per misure di impulso e per misure di energia (per rigettare) ad esempio
²⁹⁶ dati di fondo (topic fondamentale per BELLE-II).

²⁹⁷ **Resolution**

²⁹⁸ Depending on the type of signal reading the spatial resolution is $\sigma_x = \frac{p}{\sqrt{12}}$ where p is the pitch
²⁹⁹ between pixels, or even better if other analogica information, as the charge, are read and capacitive
³⁰⁰ charge division method is applied.

³⁰¹ **3.1.1 Hybrid pixels: ATLAS, CMS and LHC-b**

³⁰² **3.1.2 CMOS MAPS: ALICE and STAR**

³⁰³ I've already mentioned ALICE pixel dector talking about the new process modification, now the
³⁰⁴ ALICE name comes up again talking about FE: this is because ALPIDE (ALice PIxel DEtector)
³⁰⁵ is one of the first MAPS detector (TowerJazz 180 nm CMOS) installed ¹, therefore it is the current
³⁰⁶ state-of-art and most of the following chips' FE are inspired by that, making it a standard in the
³⁰⁷ FE design.

³⁰⁸ For years ALICE have been pioneering MAPS detectors and its sensors are currently state-of-
³⁰⁹ the art in this sector, to the point that most of today's CMOS MAPS chips implement the same
³¹⁰ FE of ALICE Pixel Detector, and in fact they are commonly called "ALPIDE-like" sensors².

³¹¹ **3.2 Application in medical imaging**

³¹² **3.2.1 Medipix and Timepix**

³¹³ **3.2.2 Applicability to FLASH radiotherapy**

¹It was installed in the Inner Tracking System during the second long shut down of the LHC in 2019

²As we'll see TJ-Monopix1 and ARCADIA have an ALPIDE-like front end.

³¹⁴ **Chapter 4**

³¹⁵ **TJ-Monopix1**

³¹⁶

- ³¹⁷ • scrivere la differenza tra i FE
- ³¹⁸ • fare disegno uguale a quello del mascheramento però con solo due coordinate (oggi?)
- ³¹⁹ • scrivere delle misure cambiando i parametri del FE, e rifare le misure del FE con oscilloscopio
³²⁰ e qualche plot
- ³²¹ • scrivere misure del tempo morto (oggi)

³²² The TJ-Monopix1 is one of the chips fabricated by TowerJazz with 180 CMOS imaging process.
³²³ From the middle of 2013 a dedicated collaboration, RD 53 ('Development of pixel readout integrated
³²⁴ circuits for extreme rate and radiation'), has been established with the specific goal to find
³²⁵ a sensor suitable as vertex detector for future upgrade of CMS and ATLAS experiments. Among
³²⁶ the main objects of study of the collaboration there are both hybrid pixels and monolithic options
³²⁷ as CMOS MAPS: fig 4.1 shows the intermediate MAPS-prototypes made by TowerJazz.

Besides the TowerJazz series, also LFoundry fabricated other similar sensors with 150 CMOS

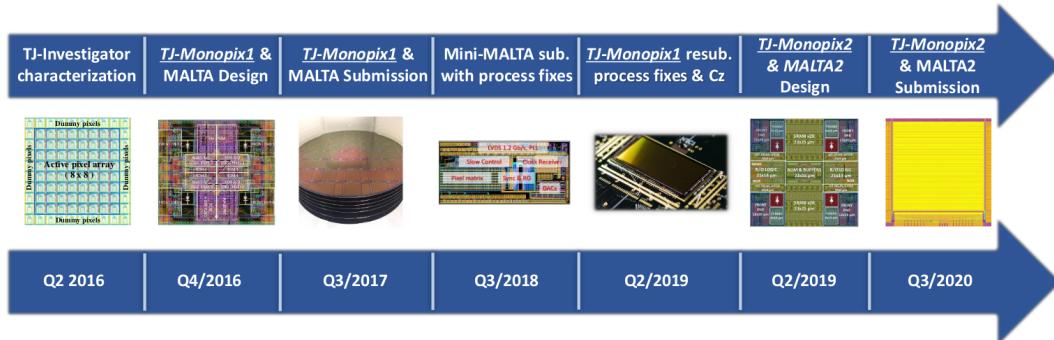


Figure 4.1: Timeline in TowerJazz productions. In addition to Monopix series also the small electrode demonstrator TJ-Malta and mini-Malta have been produced and tested[5]. The Malta prototypes differ from TJ-Monopix in the readout: while Monopix implements a column-drain R/O, an asynchronous R/O without any distribution of BCID has been used by TJ-Malta in order to reduce power consumption.

³²⁸
³²⁹ technology [6][7]: LF-Monopix.
³³⁰ The main differences between the LFoundry and TowerJazz's products (tab. 4.2), are in the sensor
³³¹ structure rather than in the readout architecture, based on a column drain R/O with ToT capability
³³² (LF-Monopix has 8 bits dedicated and TJ-Monopix 6 bits). Concerning the sensor, LFoundry
³³³ pixels are bigger and have a large fill factor, while TJ-Monopix ones have a small fill-factor elec-
³³⁴ trode.

³³⁵ The performances of both the detectors have been tested before and after irradiation ($\sim 10^{10} n_{eq}/cm^2$) and the result is, as expected since LF-Monopix is a large fill factor electrode (chap.
³³⁶ ??), that LF-Monopix is more radiation hard than TJ-Monopix whereas the main degradation of

	LF-Monopix1	TJ-Monopix1
Bulk Resistivity	p-type substrate <i>maggior</i> $2\text{k}\Omega\text{cm}$	p-epi. on a low ρ substrate <i>maggior</i> $1\text{k}\Omega\text{cm}$
Pixel size	$50 \times 250 \mu\text{m}^2$	$26 \times 40 \mu\text{m}^2$
Depth	$100\text{-}750 \mu\text{m}$	$25 \mu\text{m}$
Capacity	$\sim 400 \text{ fF}$	$\sim 3 \text{ fF}$
Preamplifier	CSA	Voltage
Threshold trimming	on pixel (4-bit DAC)	global threshold
Readout mode	Fast column drain	Fast column drain
Consumption	$\sim 300 \text{ mW/cm}^2$	$\sim 120 \text{ mW/cm}^2$
Threshold	$1500 e^-$	$\sim 270 e^-$
ENC	$100 e^-$	$\sim 30 e^-$

Table 4.1: Main characteristics of TJ-Monopix and LF-Monopix [7]

Parameter	Value
Matrix size	
Pixel size	$26 \times 40 \mu\text{m}^2$
Depth	$25 \mu\text{m}$
BCID	40 MHz
ToT-bit	6
Power consumption	$\sim 120 \text{ mW/cm}^2$

Table 4.2

efficiency in TJ-Monopix chips is due to the low electric field in the pixel corner. On the other hand one more accidental consequence of the large fill factor size in LF-Monopix (the deep p-well covers $\sim 55 \%$ of the pixel area) is a significant cross-talk problem.

4.1 The sensor

TJ-Monopix1 adopts the modification described in ?? that allows to achieve a planar depletion region near the electrode applying a relatively small reverse bias voltage: a low dose n implant is build on a high resistivity ($\geq 1 \text{ k}\Omega \text{ cm}$), p-type epitaxial layer.

This modification improves the efficiency of the detector, especially after irradiation[]; however a Technology Computer Aided Design (TCAD) simulation has shown that a nonuniform electric field is still produced in the lateral regions after the modification; since the transversal component of the electric field drops at the pixel corner (this point in figure 4.2 is indicated by a star) the efficiency at the side is reduced.

On a sample of chip, the one I've tested in Pisa belongs to these, a second optimization have been made to enhance the lateral component of electric field and improve the efficiency and velocity in charge collection near the corners of the sensor: a portion of low dose implant has been removed, creating a step discontinuity in the pixel corner. A side effect is the weaker separation between the deep p-well and the p-substrate, that cannot be biased separately anymore to prevent the punchthrough. Moreover, to investigate the charge collection properties, as the threshold, the noise and the efficiency, pixels within the matrix feature a difference in the doping structure of the deep p-well: rows from 0 to 111 are fully covered by deep p-well (FDPW) under p-well near the sensor, while rows from 112 till the last 223 have a portion of deep p-well removed (RDPW). The removing enhance the lateral electric field component then resulting in a higher efficiency, as we'll see later.

361

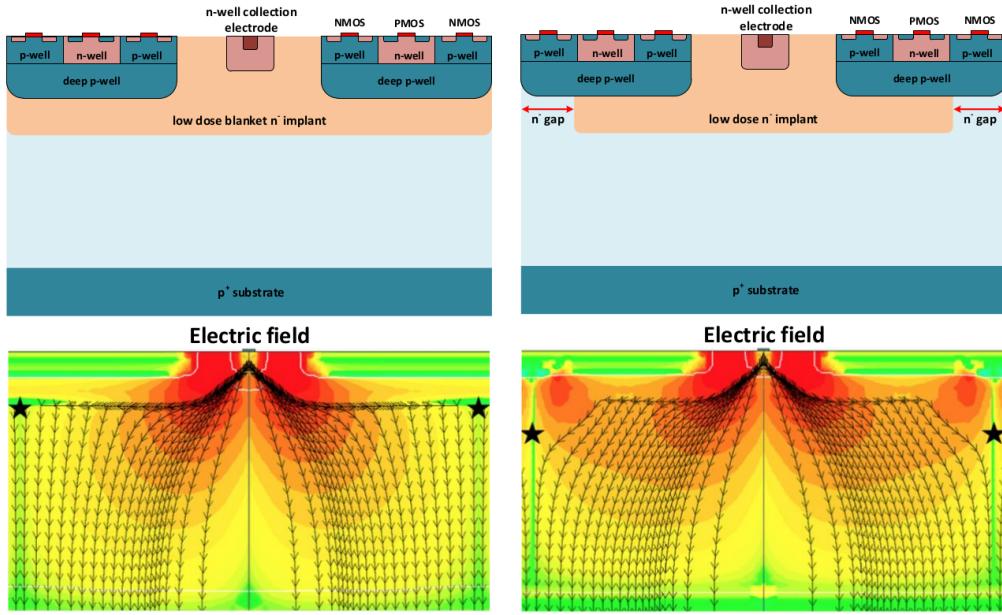


Figure 4.2: (a) The cross-section of a monolithic pixel in the TJ-Monopix 180 nm with modified process; additionally in (b) a gap in the low dose implant is created to improve the collection of charge due to a bigger lateral component of the electric field

4.2 FE flavors

TJ-Monopix1 has been implemented in four different flavors, each one corresponding to a different sector on the matrix (fig. 4.3) and thus having a separate readout and data transmission, in order to explore different variations of the FE. The four flavors mainly differ in the reset input circuit. R resistenza di reset deve essere abbastanza grande in modo da far sì che il ritorno allo

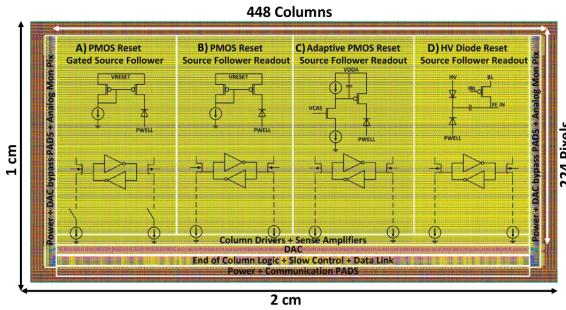


Figure 4.3

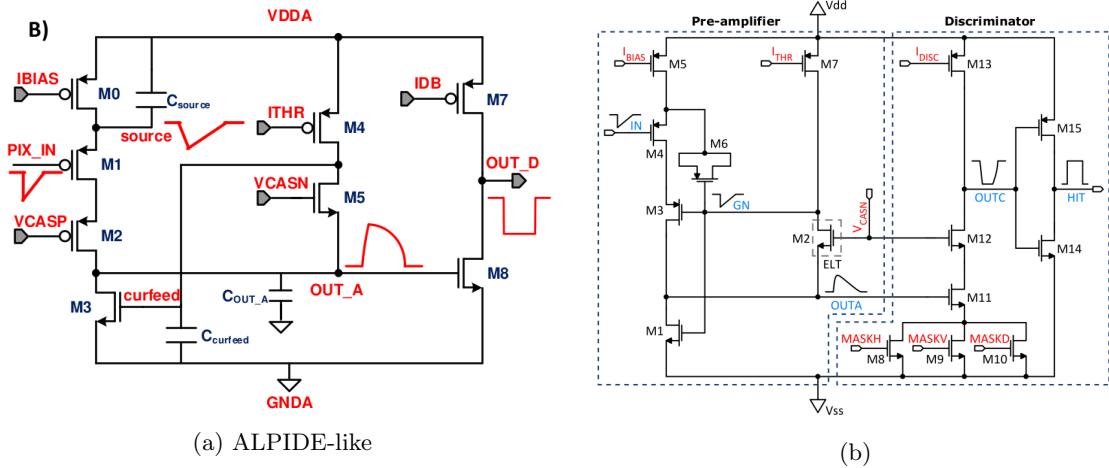
zero è abbastanza lento (non devi "interferire" con la tot slope e non devi più corto del tempo del preamplificatore, sennò hai perdita di segnale).
Baseline reset: all'input solitamente hai un PMOSS o un diodo;

4.2.1 ALPIDE-like front end

As I already mentioned, ALICE Pixel Detector (ALPIDE) is the current state-of-art and most of the following chips' FE are inspired by that, making it a standard in the FE design

The idea of the amplification stage is to transfer the charge from a bigger capacity[8], C_{source} , to a smaller one, C_{out} : the input transistor M1 with current source IBIAS acts as a source follower and this forces the source of M1 to be equal to the gate input $\Delta V_{PIX_IN} = Q_{IN}/C_{IN}$.

$$Q_{source} = C_{source} \Delta V_{PIX_IN} \quad (4.1)$$



376 The current in M2 and the charge accumulates on C_{out} is fixed by the one on C_{source} :

$$\Delta V_{OUT_A} = \frac{Q_{source}}{C_{OUT_A}} = \frac{C_{source} \Delta V_{PIX_IN}}{C_{OUT_A}} = \frac{C_{Source}}{C_{OUT_A}} \frac{Q_{IN}}{C_{IN}} \quad (4.2)$$

377 A second branch (M4, M5) is used to generate a low frequency feedback, where VCASN and ITHR
378 set the baseline value of the signal on C_{OUT_A} and the velocity to goes down to the baseline.

379 **IL RUOLO DI CURVFEED NON L'HO CAPITO.**

380 Finally IDB defines the charge threshold with which the signal OUT_A must be compared: de-
381 pending on if the signal is higher than the threshold or not, the OUT_D is high or low respectively.

382 The FE circuit 4.4b is ALPIDE-like, so it is similar to the one described in ??; a quanto già
383 detto voglio però aggiungere due parole: come viene implementato il mascheramento dei pixels e
384 il reset.

385

386 In order to reduce the hit rate and to avoid saturating the bandwidth, is uttermost important
387 to include in the FE a way to mask noisy pixels, which typically are those with manufacturing
388 defects. In the circuit in fig. 4.4b transistors M8, M9 and M10 have the function of disabling
389 registers with coordinates MASKH, MASKV and MASKD (respectively vertical, orizontal and
390 diagonal) from readout: if all three transistors-signals are low, the pixel's discriminator is disabled.
391 Compared with a configurable masking register which would allow disableing pixels individually,
392 to use a triple redundancy reduces the sensistivity to SEU¹ but also gives amount of intentionally
393 masked ("ghost") pixels. This approach is suitable only for extremely small number N of pixel has
394 to be masked: if two coordinate projection scheme had been implemented, the number of ghost
395 pixels would have scale with N^2 , if instead three coordinates are used, the N's exponential is lower
396 than 2 (fig. 4.5)

397 4.2.2 FE parameters

398 Descrivo un po' le misure fatte sul fe e sul significato dei vari parametri.
399 it allows injecting pixels with a known charge in DAC units.

400 4.3 Readout logic

401 TJ-Monopix1 has a triggerless, fast and with ToT capability R/O which is based on a column-drain
402 architecture. On the pixel are located two Random Access Memory (RAM) cells to store the 6-bit
403 LE and 6-bit TE of the pulse, and a Read-Only Memory (ROM) containing the 9-bit pixel address.

¹Single Event Upset, in sostanza è quando un bit ti cambia valore (da 0 a 1 o viceversa) perché una particella deposita carica nell'elettronica che fa da memoria registro/RAM/.... Questo tipo di elettronica ha bisogno di un sacco di carica prima che il bit si "flippi" (cambi valore), infatti tipicamente per avere un SEU non basta una MIP che attraversa esattamente quel pezzo di chip in cui è implementata la memoria, ma un adrone che faccia interazione nucleare producendo più carica di quanto farebbe una MIP. Questo metodo pur essendo più comodo richiede less amount of area ha però come drawback che il registro può essere soggetto a SEU problema non trascurabile in acceleratori come HL-LHC adronici

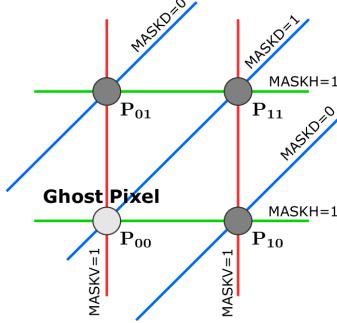


Figure 4.5

Parameter	Meaning
IBIAS	
IDB	
ITHR	
VCASN	
VREF	
IREF	

Table 4.3

404 Excluded these memories, TJ-Monopix1 hasn't any other buffer: if a hit arrives while the pixel is
 405 already storing a previous one, the new data get lost. After being read, the data packet is sent to
 406 the EoC periphery of the matrix, where a serializer transfers it off-chip to an FPGA (4.6). There
 407 a FIFO is used to temporarily stored the data, which is transmitted to a computer through an
 408 ethernet cable in a later time.

409 The access to the pixels' memory and the transmission of the data to the EoC is based on
 410 a Finite State Machine (FSM) composed by four state: no-operation (NOP), freeze (FRZ), read
 411 (RD) and data transfer (DTA). The readout sequence (??) starts with the TE of a pulse: the pixel
 412 immediately tries to grab the column-bus turning up a hit flag signal called *token*. The token is
 413 used to control the priority chain and propagates across the column indicating what pixel that
 414 must be read. To start the readout and avoid that the arrival of new hits disrupt the priority logic,
 415 a *freeze* signal is activated, and then a *read* signal controls the readout and the access to memory.
 416 During the freeze, the state of the token for all pixels on the matrix remains settled: this does
 417 not forbid new hits on other pixels from being recorded, but forbids pixels hit from turning on the
 418 token until the freeze is ended. The freeze stays on until the token covers the whole priority chain
 419 and gets the EoC: during that time new token cannot be turned on, and all hits arrived during
 420 a freeze will turn on their token at the end of the previous freeze. Since the start of the token is
 421 used to assign a timestamp to the hit, the token time has a direct impact on the time resolution
 422 measurement; this could be a problem coping with high hits rate.

423 The analog FE circuit and the pixel control logic are connected by an edge detector which is
 424 used to determine the LE and the TE of the hit pulse(fig. 4.8): when the TE is stored in the first
 425 latch the edge detector is disabled and, if the **FREEZE** signal is not set yet, the readout starts. At
 426 this point the HIT flag is set in a second latch and a token signal is produced and depending on
 427 the value of **Token** in the pixel can be read or must wait until the **Token in** is off. In figure an OR
 428 is used to manage the token propagation, but since a native OR logic port cannot be implemented
 429 with CMOS logic, a sum of a NOR and of an inverter is actually used; this construct significantly
 430 increases the propagation delay (the timing dispersion along a column of 0.1-0.2 ns) of the token
 431 and to speed up the circuit optimized solution are often implemented. When the pixel become the
 432 next to be read in the queue, and at the rising edge of the **READ** signal, the state of the pixel is
 433 stored in a D-latch and the pixel is allowed to use the data bus; the TE and the HIT flag latches
 434 are reset and a **READINT** signal that enable access of the RAM and ROM cells is produced.

435
 436 The final data must provide all the hits' information: the pixel address, the ToT and the

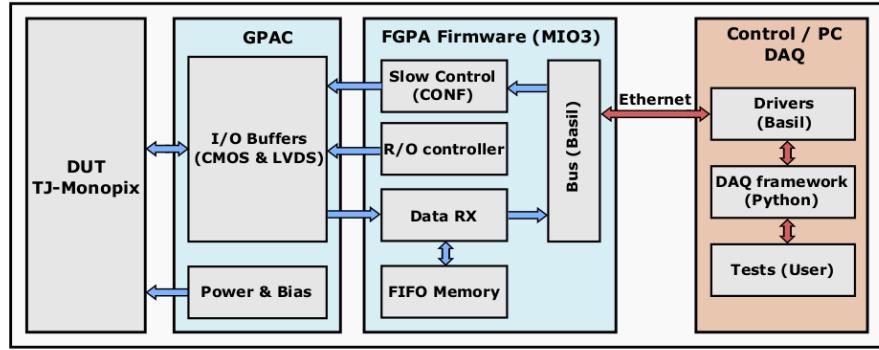
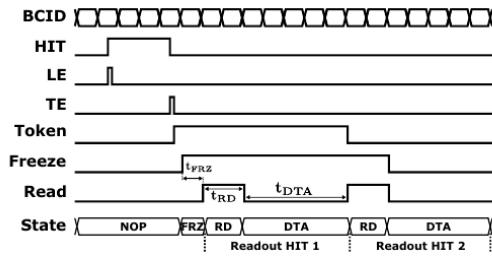


Figure 4.6: Main caption



(b) Readout sequence timing diagram. In this example two hits are being processed.

Figure 4.7: Readout timing diagram: in this example two hits are being processed

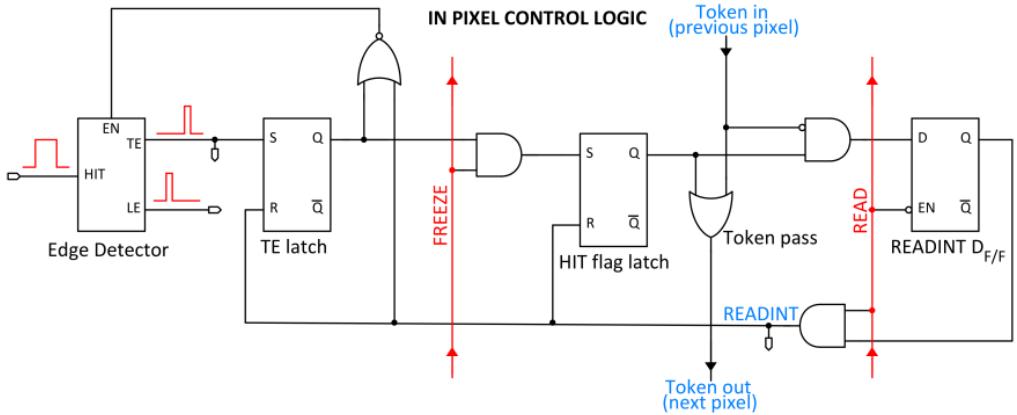


Figure 4.8

437 timestamp. All those parts are assigned and appended at different time during the R/O chain:

- 438 • **Pixel address:** while the double column address (6-bit) is appended by the EoC circuit,
439 the row address (8-bits for each flavor) and the physical column in the doublet (1-bit) are
440 assigned by the in-pixel logic
- 441 • **ToT:** is obtained offline from the difference of 6-bits TE and 6-bits LE, stored by the edge
442 detector in-pixel; since a 40 MHz BCID is distributed across the matrix, the ToT value is
443 range 0-64 clock cycle which corresponds to 0-1.6 μ s
- 444 • **Timestamp:** The timestamp of the hit correspond to the time when the pixel set up the
445 token; it is assigned by the FPGA, that uses the LE, TE and a 640 MHz clock to derive
446 it. For all those hits which arrived while the matrix is frozen, the timestamp is no more
447 correlated with the time of arrival of the particle

448 When the bits are joined up together the complete hit data packet is 27-bit.

449 4.3.1 Dead time measurement

450 The hit loss can be due to both analog and digital pile up: the first one occurs when a new hit
451 arrives during the pre-amplifier response, the second instead occurs when a new hit arrives while
452 the information of the previous hit has not yet been transferred to the periphery. The digital
453 pile-up contribution is the more relevant and the dead time is almost entirely determined by that;
454 as only one hit at a time can be stored on the pixel's RAM, until the data have completed the path
455 to get out, the pixel readout is paralyzed and the τ corresponds with the time needed to export
456 the data-packets. Since the transmission of data from pixel to the EoC occurs via a ?-bits data
457 bus (this means that only one clock cycle is need to transfer the data to the end of column), the
458 dead time bottleneck is given by the bandwidth of the serializer at the EoC: typically it operates
459 at 40 MHz, and to transmit a data packet (27-bit) at least 675 ns are needed. For what we have
460 said so far, the R/O is completely sequential and therefore is expected a linear dependence of τ on
461 the number of pixels to read:

$$\tau = 25 \text{ ns} \times (\alpha N + \beta) \quad (4.3)$$

462 where α and β are parameters dependent on the readout chain. In particular, looking at fig. 4.7, α
463 is the time with α (CONF STOP FREEZE-CONF START READ), and β ToT + CONF START
464 FREEZE.

465 To measure and to test the linearity of the dead time with the number of pixels, I have used the
466 injection mode available on the chip, that allows fixing not only the amplitude of the pulse (charge
467 in DAC, as already seen in the previous section) but also the period and width. I have injected
468 Reducing the distance between two consecutive pulses and finding the value when the efficiency
469 decrease, one can extimates the dead time

470 Per definire meglio il τ faccio riferimento alla fig ??: se una hit arriva su un pixel mentre ha
471 il token alto allora la hit viene persa. Se una hit arriva su un pixel che non ha il token alto
472 ma ha il freeze alto, allora non viene persa ma le viene assegnato un timestamp errato. PARLO
473 ANCHE DELLA "RISOLUZIONE TEMPORALE?" A tutte le hit di una iniezione che arrivano
474 contemporaneamente viene assegnato lo stesso timestamp; quando le hit iniziano ad essere meno
475 di quelle che mi aspetti. Mappa in funzione delle iniezioni di quali pixel hai letto.

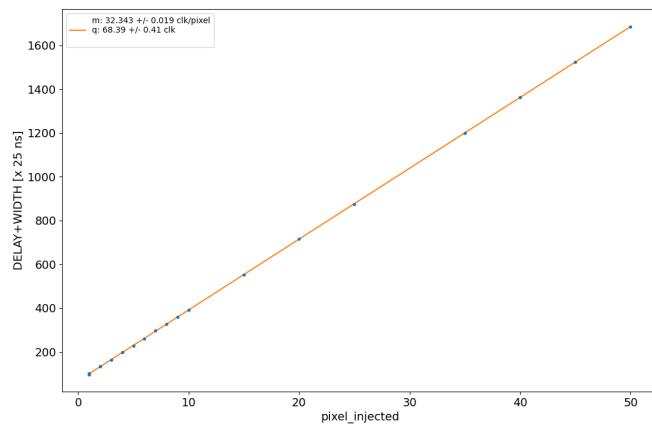


Figure 4.9

476 Chapter 5

477 Arcadia-MD1

478 [9] [10]

479 Breve introduzione analoga a Monopix1 in cui descrivo brevemente la "timeline" da SEED
480 Matisse a Md1 e Md2

481 5.1 The sensor

482 ARCADIA-MD1 is an LFoundry chip which implements the technology 110 nm CMOSS node
483 with six metal layer ???. The standard p-type substrate was replaced with an n-type floating zone
484 material, that is a tecnique to produce purified silicon crystal. (pag 299 K.W.).

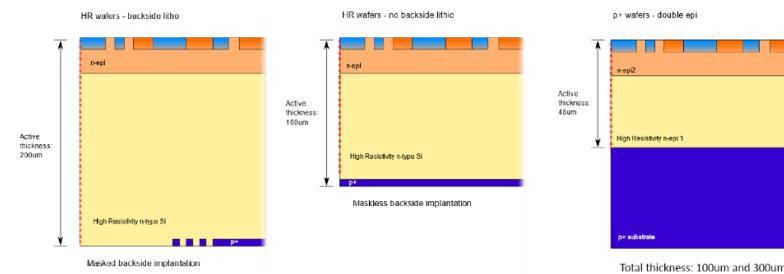


Figure 5.1

485
486 Wafer thinning and backside litography were necessary to introduce a junction at the bottom
487 surface, used to bias the substrate to full depletion while maintaining a low voltage at the front side.
488 C'è un deep pwell per - priority chainseparare l'elettronica dal sensore; per controllare il punchthought
489 è stato aggiunto un n doped epitaxial layer having a resistivity lower than the substrate.

490 RILEGGI SUL KOLANOSKY COS'È IL PUNCHTHROUGHT, FLOAT ZONE MATERIAL,
491 COME VENGONO FATTI I MAPS COME FAI LE GIUNZIONI

492 It is part of the cathegory of DMAPS Small electrode to enhance the signal to noise ratio.
493 It is operated in full depletion with fast charge collection by drift.

494 Prima SEED si occupa di studiare le prestazioni: oncept study with small-scale test struc-
495 ture (SEED), dopo arcadia: technology demonstration with large area sensors Small scale demo
496 SEED(sensor with embedded electronic developement) Quanto spazio dato all'elettronica sopra il
497 pwell e quanto al diodo. ..

498 5.2 Readout logic and data structure

499 5.2.1 Matrix division and data-packets

500 The matrix is divided into an internal physical and logical hierarchy: The 512 columns are divided
501 in 16 section: each section has different voltage-bias + serializzatori. Each section is devided in

502 cores () in modo che in ogni doppia colonna ci siano 1Pacchetto dei dati 6 cores. ricordati dei serializzatori: sono 16 ma possono essere ridotti ad uno in modalità spazio

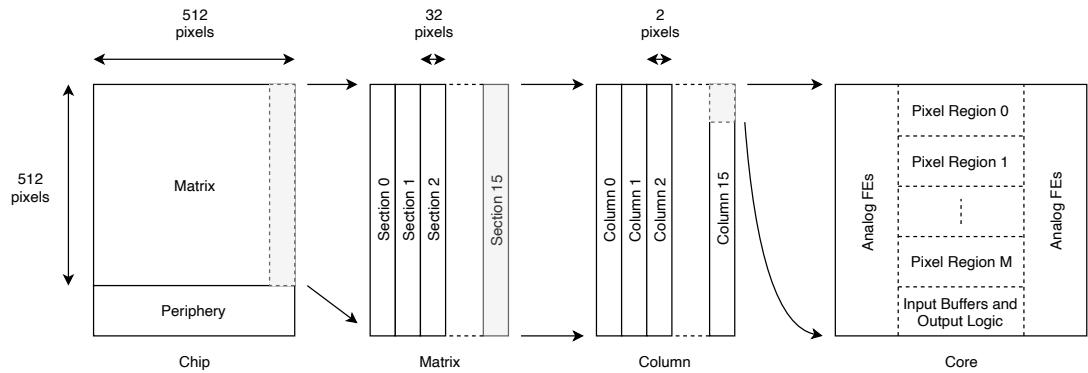


Figure 5.2

503

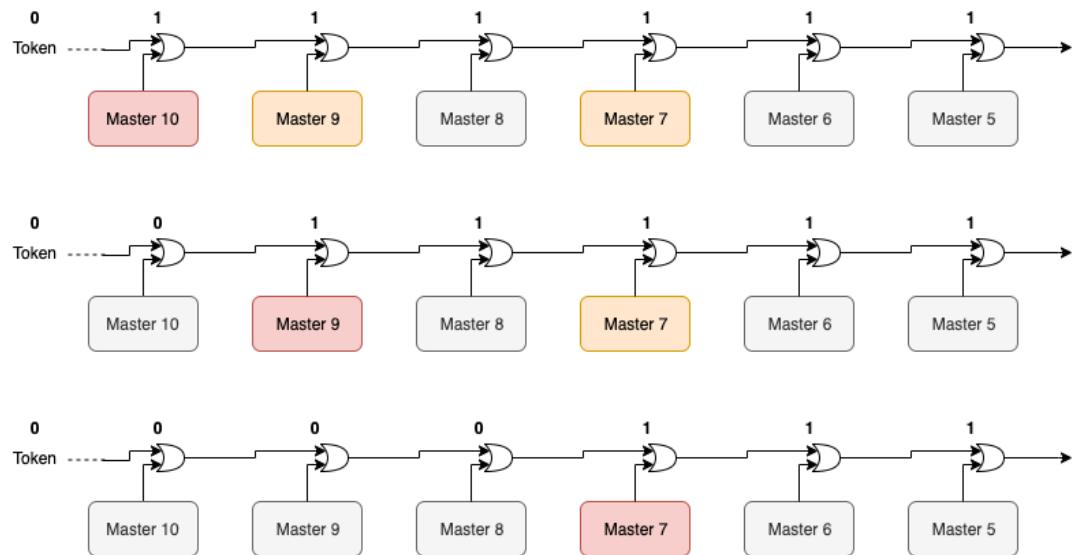


Figure 5.3

504 Questa divisione si rispecchia in come sono fatti i dati: scrivi da quanti bit un dato è fatto e le
505 varie coordinate che ci si trovano dentro; devi dire che c'è un pixel hot e spieghi dopo a cosa serve,
506 e devi accennare al timestamp

507 "A core is simply the smallest stepped and repeated instance of digital circuitry. A relatively
508 large core allows one to take full advantage of digital synthesis tools to implement complex func-
509 tionality in the pixel matrix, sharing resources among many pixels as needed.". pagina 28 della
510 review.

511

512 TABELLA: con la gerarchia del chip Matrix (512x512 pixels) Section (512x32 pixels) Column
513 (512x2) Core (32x2) Region (4x2)

514 Nel chip trovi diverse padframe: cosa c'è nelle padframe e End of section.

515 "DC-balance avoids low frequencies by guaranteeing at least one transition every n bits; for
516 example 8b10b encoding n =5"

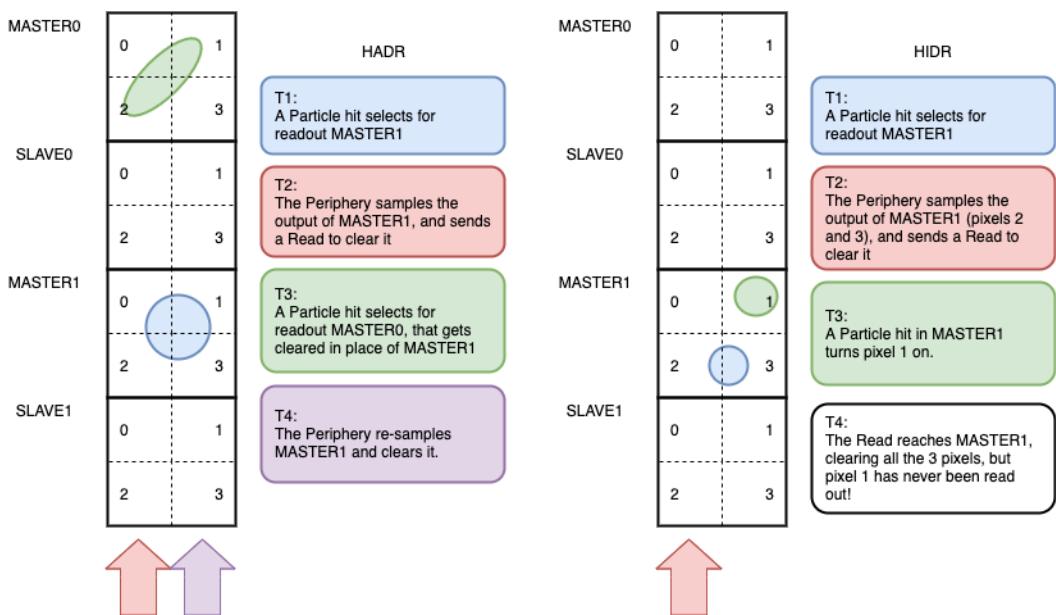


Figure 5.4

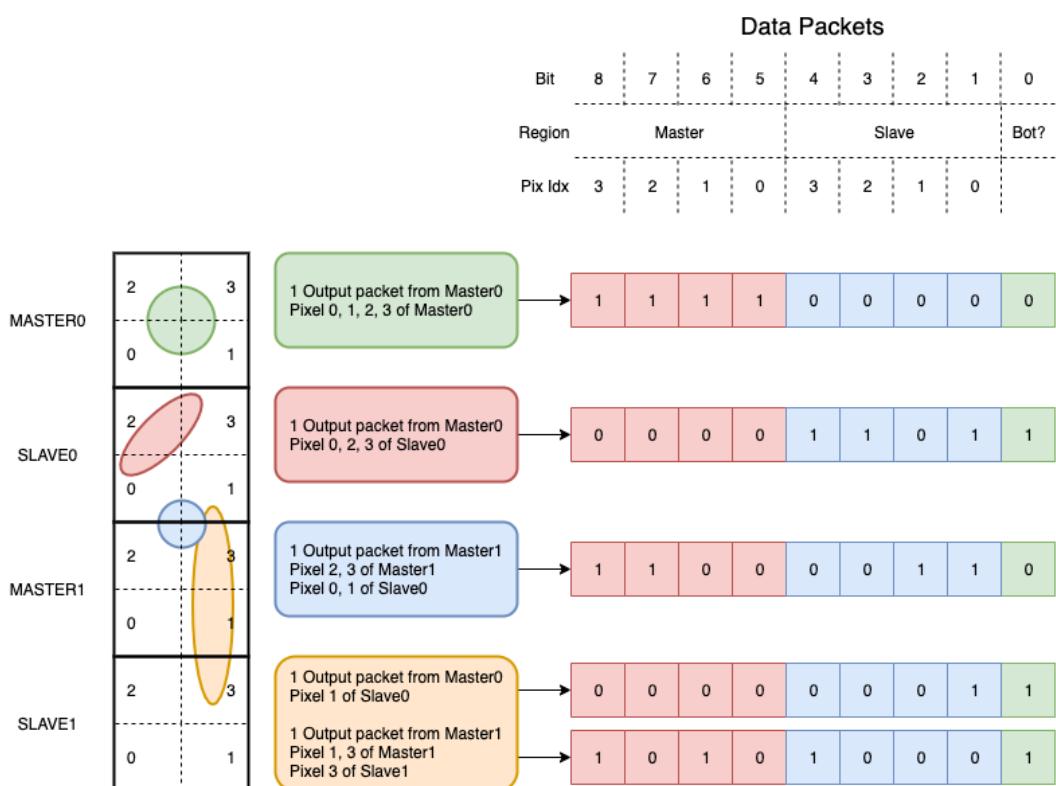


Figure 5.5

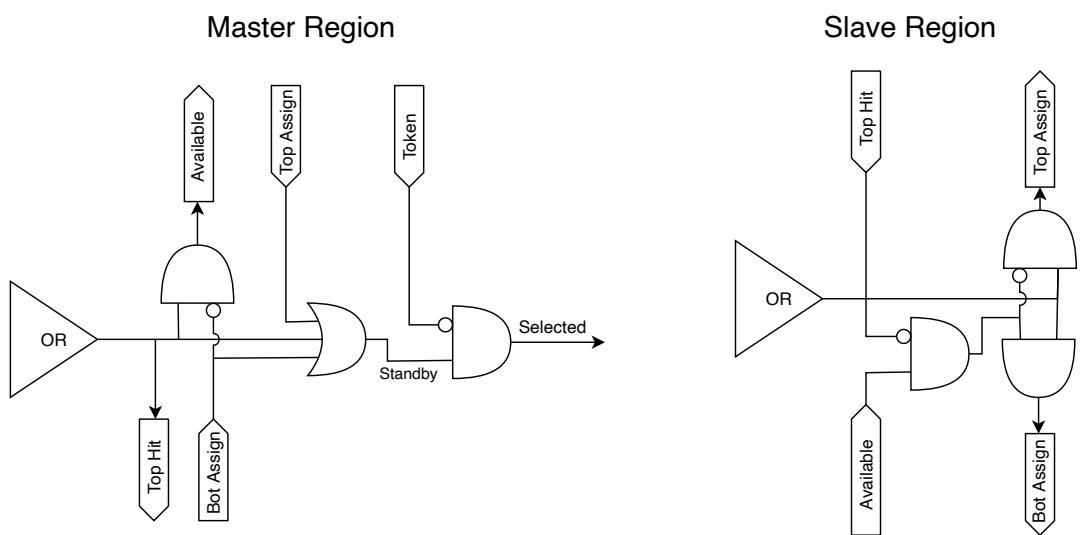


Figure 5.6

517

Chapter 6

518

Threshold and noise characterization

520

6.1 Threshold and noise: figure of merit for pixel detectors

521 The signal to threshold ratio is the figure of merit for pixel detectors.

522 la soglia deve essere abb alta da tagliare il rumore ma abb bassa da non perdere efficienza.
523 Invece di prendere il rapporto segnale rumore prendi il rapporto segnale soglia. Perchè? la soglia
524 è collegato al rumore, nel senso che: supponiamo di volere un occupancy di 10-4 allora sceglierò la
525 soglia in base a questo. (plot su quaderno) Da questo conto trovo la minima soglia mettibile
526 In realtà quello che faccio è mettere una soglia un po' più grande perchè il rate di rumore dipende
527 da molti fattori quali la temperatura, l annealing ecc, e non voglio che cambiando leggermente uno
528 di questi parametri vedo alzarsi molto il rate di rumore. In realtà non è solo il rumore sensibile a
529 diversi fattori, ma anche la soglia: ad esempio la cosa classica è la variabilità della soglia da pixel
530 a pixel.
531 In questo modo rumore e soglia diventano parenti.

532 Review pag 26.

533 The noise requirement can be expressed as:

534 Questo implica tra le altre cose che voglio poter assegnare delle soglie diverse a diversi pixel:
535 Drawback è dare spazio per registri e quantaltro.
536 Questo lascia però ancora aperto il problema temporale delle variazioni del rumore: problema per
537 cui diventano necessarie le misure dei sensori dopo l'irraggiamento.

539 Per arcadia i registri (c'è un DAC) per la soglia (VCASN) si trovano in periferia. Non fare
540 trimming sulla soglia è uno dei problemi che si sono sempre incontrati: a casusa dei mismatch dei
541 transistor le soglie efficaci pixel per pixel cambiano tanto. La larghezza della s curve è il noise se se
542 assumi che il noise è gaussiano
543 Il trimming della soglia avviene con dei DAC: la dispersione della soglia dopo al tuning e dovuta
544 al dac è:

$$\sigma_{THR,tuned} = \frac{\sigma_{THR}}{2^{nbit}} \quad (6.1)$$

546 dove il numero di bit cambia varia tra 3-7 tipicamente. Monopix è 7 Arcadia 6

547 Each ROIC is different in this respect, but in general the minimum stable threshold was around
548 2500 electrons (e) in 1st generation ROICs, whereas it will be around 500 e for the 3rd generation.
549 This reduction has been deliberate: required by decreasing input signal values. Large pixels (2 104
550 um²), thick sensors (maggiore di 200 um), and moderate sensor radiation damage for 1st generation
551 detectors translated into expected signals of order 10 ke, while small pixels (0.25 104 um²), thinner
552 sensors (100 um), and heavier sensor radiation damage will lead to signals as low as 2 ke at the
553 HL-LHC
554 The ENC can be directly calculated by the Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) (scurve)
555 obtained from the discriminator "hit" pulse response to multiple charge injections

557 **6.2 TJ-Monopix1 characterization**

558 **6.3 ARCADIA-MD1 characterization**

559 **Appendix A**

560 **Pixels detector: a brief overview**

561 **A.1 Radiation damages**

562 Radiation hardness is a fundamental requirement for pixels detector especially in HEP since they
 563 are almost always installed near the interaction point where there is a high energy level of radiation.
 564 At LHC the ϕ_{eq} per year in the innermost pixel detector is $10^{14} n_{eq}/cm^2$; this number reduces by
 565 an order passing to the outer tracker layer [2] pag 341 Wermes. Here the high fluence of particles
 566 can cause a damage both in the substrate of the detector and in the superficial electronics.

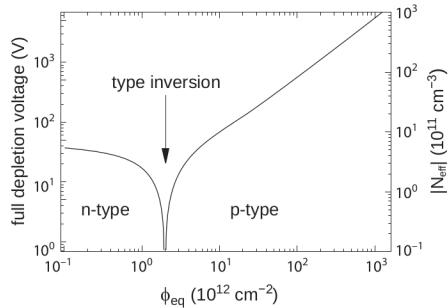
567 The first one has a principal non ionizing nature, due to a non ionizing energy loss (NIEL), but
 568 it is related with the dislocation of the lattice caused by the collision with nuclei; by this fact the
 569 NIEL hypothesis states that the substrate damage is normalized to the damage caused by 1 MeV
 570 neutrons. Differently, surface damages are principally due to ionizing energy loss.

571 **DUE PAROLE IN PIÙ SUL SURFACE DAMAGE** A charge accumulation in oxide (S_iO_2) can
 572 cause the generation of parasitic current with an obvious increase of the 1/f noise. Surface damages
 573 are mostly less relevant than the previous one, since with the development of microelectronics and
 574 with the miniaturization of components (in electronic industry 6-7 nm transistors are already used,
 575 while for MAPS the dimensions of components is around 180 nm) the quantity of oxide in circuit
 576 is reduced.

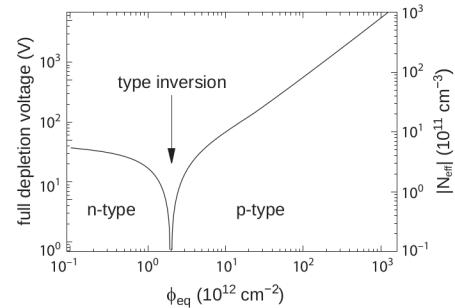
577 Let's spend instead two more other words on the more-relevant substrate damages: the general
 578 result of high radiation level is the creation of new energy levels within the silicon band gap and
 579 depending on their energy-location their effect can be different, as described in the Shockely-Read-
 580 Hall (SRH) statistical model. The three main consequence of radiation damages are the changing
 581 of the effect doping concentration, the leakage current and the increasing of trapping probability.

582 **Changing of the effective doping concentration:** is associated with the creation/removal
 583 of donors and acceptors center which trap respectively electrons/holes from the conduction band
 584 and cause a change in effective space charge density. Even an inversion (p-type becomes n-type¹)
 585 can happen: indeed it is quite common at not too high fluences ($\phi_{eq} 10^{12-13} n_{eq} cm^{-2}$). A changing
 586 in the doping concentration requires an adjustment of the biasing of the sensor during its lifetime
 587 (eq.2.1) and sometimes can be difficult keeping to fully deplete the bulk.

¹L'INVERSIONE OPPOSTA NON CE L'HAI PERCHÈ?



(a) 1a



(b) 1b

588 **Leakage current:** is associated with the generation-recombination centers. It has a strong
589 dependence with the temperature ($I_{leak} \propto T^2$), whose solution is therefore to operate at lower
590 temperature.

591 **Increase of trapping probability:** since the trapping probability is constant in the depleted
592 region, the collected charge decreases exponentially with the drift path. The exponential coefficient,
593 that is the mean trapping path, decreases after irradiation and typical values are 125-250 μm and
594 must be compared with the thickness of the depleted region which () corresponds to the mean drift
595 path.

596 Different choices for substrate resistivity, for junctions type and for detector design are typically
597 made to fight radiation issues. Some material with high oxygen concentration (as crystal produced
598 using Czochralki (Cz) or float-zone (Fz) process (**CONTROLLA LA DIFFERENZA TRA I DUE**))
599 for example, show a compensation effect for radiation damage; another example is the usage of
600 n+ -in-p/n sensors (even if p+ -in-n sensors are easier and cheaper to obtain) to get advantage
601 of inversion/to have not the inversion (since they are already p-type). After inversion the n+p
602 boundary, coming from n+ in-n, but to keep using the sensor the depletion zone still must be
603 placed near the diode.

604

Appendix B

605

FLASH radiotherapy

606 La radioterapia si usa nel 60 per cento dei pazienti, sia come cura che come trattamento palliativo.
607 Si associa spesso ad altre cure e si può fare prima/durante/dopo un intervento.

608
609 Si può fare in modi diversi: da dentro (brachytherapy) oppure da fuori (quella standard). Un
610 requisito importante è la delinazione del target (non vuoi rischiare di beccare i tessuti sani), per
611 cui prima tipicamente si fanno esami di imaginig del tumore. Tipicamente anche gli acceleratori
612 stessi per la terapia sono provvisti di radiografia.

613 Un problema dei fotoni ad esempio è che il loro rilascio di dose è lineare, per cui danneggia
614 anche i tessuti sani. Il problema dei protoni invece è che hanno un picco troppo stretto per cui non
615 puoi coprire grosse zone e soprattutto se sbagli rischi davvero di danneggiare molto i tessuti sani.

616

617

B.1 Cell survival curves

618 Curva di efficacia del trattamento in funzione della dose:

$$\frac{S(D)}{S(0)} = e^{-F(D)} \quad (\text{B.1})$$

619 dove $F(D)$

$$F(D) = \alpha D + \beta D^2 \quad (\text{B.2})$$

620 dove α e β rappresentano due tipi di danno diversi: coefficients, experimentally determined, char-
621 acterizing the radiation response of cells. In particular, alpha represents the rate of cell killing by
622 single ionizing events, while beta indicates the maximal rate of cell killing by double hits observed
623 when the repair mechanisms do not activate during the radiation exposure. Si ottiene una curva
624 di sopravvivenza dove si vede la possibilità delle cellule di autoripararsi. A basse dosi infatti le
625 cellule possono ripararsi.

626

627 Per introdurre l'effetto FLASH introduco prima la therapeutic window.

628

629 TCP è la tumor control Probability che indica la probabilità delle cellule del tumore di essere
630 uccise dopo una certa dose (con in riferimento a dose in acqua)

631 Se una media di $\mu(D)$ di cellule di tumore are killed con una dose D, la probabilità che n cellule
632 sopravvivono è data da $P(n|\mu)$ poisson:

$$P(n|\mu) = \frac{\mu(D)^n e^{-\mu(D)}}{n!} \quad (\text{B.3})$$

$$TCP(D) = P(n=0|\mu(D)) = e^{-\mu(D)} \quad (\text{B.4})$$

633 D'altra parte hai una probabilità di fare danno su normal tissue NTCP Normal Tissue Complica-
634 tion Probability, che rappresenta il problema principale e che limita la massima radiazione erogabile
635 Una scelta bilanciata si applica guardando a questi due fattori; si usa il therapeutic index definito
636 come TCP/NTCP.

637 La cosa ottimale è ampliare la finestra del therapeutic ratio.

638 CONV-RT 0.01-5 Gy/min. A typical RT regime today consists of daily fractions of 1.5 to 3
639 Gy given over several weeks.

640 Nell Intra operative radiation therapy (IORT), where they reach values respectively about 20 and
641 100 times greater than those of conventional radiation therapy.

642 FLASH vuole ultrahigh mean dose-rate (maggione di 40 Gy/s) in modo da ridurere anche il
643 trattamento a meno di un secondo.

645

646 **B.2 FLASH effect**

647 Ci sono due effetti che affect the flsh effect and la sua applicabilità: Dose rate effect e oxygen

648 Cellule che esibiscono hypoxia (cioè cellule che non hanno ossigeno sono radioresistenti); al
649 contrario normoxia e physoxia non lo sono. la presenza di ossigeno rende la curva steeper indicando
650 che lo stesso danno si raggiunge a livelli di dose più bassi rispetto al caso senza ossigeno.

651 FIGURA con una curva a confronto con e senza ossigeno.

652 Typically, the OER is in the order of 2.5–3.5 for most cellular systems

653 Quindi si vogliono sfruttare questi effetti per diminuire la tossicità sui tessuti sani

655

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