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²⁰ **Chapter 1**

²¹ **Experimental results**

²² *Diamond irradiation study*

²³ This chapter contains the measurement results of data taken with diamond sensors.
²⁴ First the measurement setup is described (section 1.1). Then the measured particle
²⁵ spectra are shown in 1.2. This is followed by a study of effects of irradiation damage
²⁶ on the electrical signal of the diamond detector and its lifetime. The last section
²⁷ shows the results of the measurements of irradiated diamond samples at cryogenic
²⁸ temperatures. The aim of these studies is to find the operational limitations of dia-
²⁹ mond detectors for spectroscopy and tracking applications. The studies compare the
³⁰ experimentally acquired data with the theory from the previous chapter and define
³¹ limitations of the diamond detectors in terms of noise, radiation and temperature.

³² Diamond sensors are mainly used for two types of measurements: particle counting
³³ and spectroscopy. The first type of measurements depends on the sensor's efficiency –
³⁴ the ability to detect all or at least a known percentage of radiation quanta (particles
³⁵ or photons) that hit it. The energy of the radiation is not so important; what bears
³⁶ the information is the rate and the spatial distribution. Here the radiation does
³⁷ not necessarily stop in the bulk, but rather continues its way. In spectroscopy, on
³⁸ the other hand, the idea is that a particle stops within the sensor, depositing all
³⁹ its energy, which is then measured via the freed charge carriers. The aim of the
⁴⁰ experiments described in this chapter is to:

- ⁴¹ 1. Quantify the efficiency of the sCVD diamond in counting mode,
- ⁴² 2. Quantify the degradation of efficiency with respect to the received radiation
⁴³ dose,
- ⁴⁴ 3. Quantify the macroscopic effects on charge carrier behaviour with respect to
⁴⁵ the received radiation dose and
- ⁴⁶ 4. Define limitations for its use in spectroscopy.

⁴⁷ The results discussed here show that there are several limitations for using diamond as
⁴⁸ a measurement device. All of them need to be taken into account for the measurement

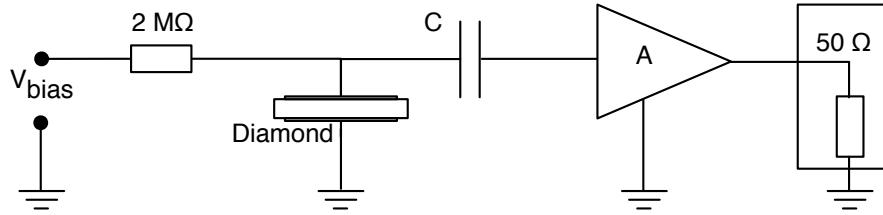


Figure 1.1: Diagram of a diamond detector readout chain.

device to perform reliably and stably. The first step is to build a setup that is insensitive to external electromagnetic interferences and minimises electrical noise in the system. The setup needs to be calibrated before use. Then, the measurement conditions have to be defined, such as the temperature, the type of radiation and its flux. This allows us to estimate the lifetime of the detector and predict the longterm change of the signal. This change can then be accounted for when interpreting the output data.

1.1 Measurement setup

To get reliable measurement results, great care has to go towards designing a measurement setup that minimises the noise in the measurements. Shielding has to be applied wherever possible. For instance, aluminium foil can be wrapped around the exposed parts of the system to shield them from external radio-frequency (RF) interferences. In addition, the sensors have to be covered to prevent the light from shining directly onto them. The incident photons can deposit enough energy to increase the leakage current of the detector.

The measurements using diamond that are explained in these chapters were carried out using several measurement setups, but they are all similar in terms of the electrical signal chain. The measurement chain consists of three main parts: a diamond sensor, a signal preamplifier and a readout device, as seen in diagram 1.1. The signals propagating along the analogue chain (before being digitised by the readout device) are fast – in the GHz bandwidth range – and with low amplitudes – of the order of tens of μV . This gives rise to importance of RF shielding. Also, the connection between the carrier and the preamplifier has to be as short as possible to avoid capacitive signal losses in the transmission line. Finally, the system needs to be grounded properly.

1.1.1 Preamplifiers

Two preamplifiers are used for the measurements, one sensitive to charge and the other to current. *CIVIDEC Cx* (figure 1.2a) is a charge sensing amplifier. Its high SNR (equivalent noise charge of $300 + 30 \text{ pF}^{-1} \text{ e}^-$ and a reported gain of $\sim 12 \text{ mV/fC}$) makes it a good choice for spectroscopic measurements with diamond

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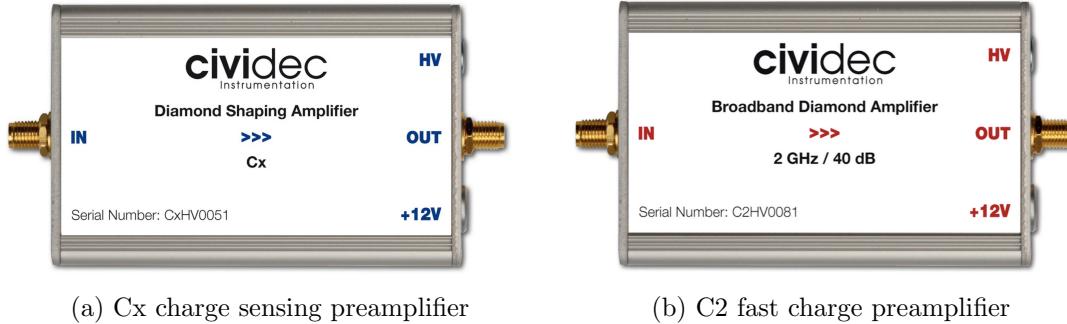


Figure 1.2: Amplifiers used for the charge and current measurements

78 sensors. *CIVIDEC C2* (figure 1.2b) is a fast current preamplifier with a 2 GHz band-
 79 width limit. It is used for TCT measurements because of its fast response and a good
 80 SNR. Both are embedded in an RF-tight aluminium box to reduce the noise pickup.
 81 Both have an AC coupled input and an output with a 50Ω termination.

82 Calibration

83 The amplifiers have to be calibrated before use to determine their gain. Both are
 84 calibrated using a square signal generator with a known amplitude step of $U_{\text{in}} =$
 85 (252 ± 5) mV. A 2 GHz oscilloscope with a 10 GS/s sampling is used to carry out
 86 these measurements.

87 In the case of the Cx charge sensitive amplifier, the signal is routed through a
 88 capacitor with a calibration capacitance $C_{\text{cal}} = (0.717 \pm 0.014)$ pF and then to the
 89 input of the amplifier. The pulse area behind the capacitor is $a_{\text{cal}} = (5.0 \pm 0.5)$ pVs,
 90 with the signal amplitude on the output amounting to $U_{\text{Cx}} = (1.95 \pm 0.05)$ V. The
 91 input voltage step combined with the calibration capacitance yields a calibration
 92 charge $Q_{\text{cal}} = C_{\text{cal}} \cdot U_{\text{in}} = (181 \pm 5)$ fC. The gain of the Cx amplifier is therefore
 93 $A_{\text{Cx}}^Q = \frac{U_{\text{Cx}}}{Q_{\text{cal}}} = (9.3 \pm 0.4)$ mV/fC or $A_{\text{Cx}}^a = \frac{U_{\text{Cx}}}{a_{\text{cal}}} = (390 \pm 40)$ mV/pVs. The area-based
 94 amplification factor has a higher uncertainty ($\sim 10\%$) than the amplitude-based
 95 factor ($\sim 4\%$) due to the measurement limitations of the oscilloscope. Nevertheless,
 96 it can be used as an estimate for the integrated charge of a current pulse.

97 To calibrate the C2 current amplifier, only the amplitude gain has to be measured.
 98 The input signal amplitude has to be such that it keeps the output amplitude within
 99 the amplifier's linear range, that is ± 1 V. The signal from the generator is therefore
 100 routed through a 36 dB attenuator to decrease its amplitude to $U_{\text{inAtt}} = (3.95 \pm$
 101 $0.05)$ mV. Two amplifiers with different gains have been measured, because both
 102 are used for the measurements at different times. The output of the first amplifier
 103 amounts to $U_{\text{C2-1}} = (860 \pm 5)$ mV. This yields the amplification gain equal to $A_{\text{C2-1}} =$
 104 $\frac{U_{\text{inAtt}}}{U_{\text{C2-1}}} = (217 \pm 3)$. The second amplifier has the output equal to $U_{\text{C2-2}} = (632 \pm 5)$ mV
 105 with the gain equal to $A_{\text{C2-2}} = (152 \pm 3)$.

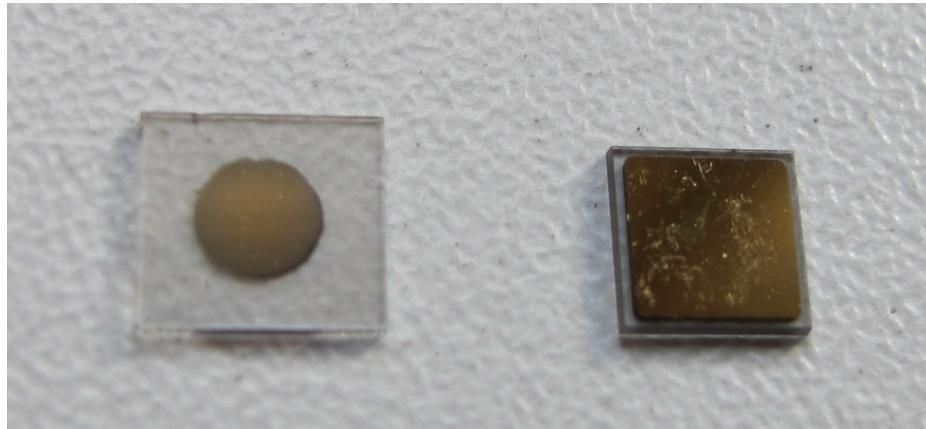


Figure 1.3: Two scCVD diamond samples: A IIa 1scdhq (left) and an E6 S37 (right)

1.1.2 Diamond samples

Detector-grade diamonds are very difficult to produce, mostly because it is very difficult to ensure a high enough purity of the lattice. The sensor samples used for these studies were bought at Element Six (E6) [1]. They all have the same standard dimensions. sCVD diamonds with dimensions $4.7 \times 4.7 \text{ mm}^2$ are already sufficiently large for most of the beam monitoring applications and still affordable. One of the samples with dimensions of $5.6 \times 5.3 \text{ mm}^2$ produced by IIa Singapore [2] was also sent to CERN to be characterised. The target thickness for all the samples is $500 \mu\text{m}$. Diamonds this thick yield a high enough signal-to-noise ratio for MIPs to be measured by the electronics. Table 1.1 shows all the samples used for this study. Two of them were later irradiated with 300 MeV pions and then compared to the pre-irradiated state. Irradiation doses for damaging the material need to be high – above 10^{12} particles per cm^2 to be able to observe change in the sensor's behaviour.

	Name	Type	Producer	Dimensions [mm^2]	Thickness [μm]	Electrode	Irradiated
	S37	sCVD	E6	4.7×4.7	548	Cr/Au	no
	S50	sCVD	E6	4.7×4.7	537	Cr/Au	no
	S52	sCVD	E6	4.7×4.7	515	Cr/Au	$1 \times 10^{14} \pi \text{ cm}^{-2}$
	S79	sCVD	E6	4.7×4.7	529	Cr/Au	$3.63 \times 10^{14} \pi \text{ cm}^{-2}$
	ELSC	sCVD	E6	4.7×4.7	491	Cr/Au	no
	1scdhq	sCVD	IIa	5.6×5.3	460	Cr/Au	no

Table 1.1: Diamond sensor samples used

The diamond samples have quoted impurity densities of $\leq 2 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and nitrogen incorporation of $\leq 1 \text{ ppb}$. The electrodes were added by various companies and institutes. For instance, S52 was metallised by a company DDL [3] while the Physics Department of the University of Firenze, Italy metallised the S79. There are also several techniques for producing the electrodes. The DDL contacts consist of three layers: DLC (diamond-like carbon)/Pt/Au with 4/10/200 nm thicknesses, respectively. The metallisation for S79, on the other hand is made up of Cr/Au with

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a total thickness of \sim 400 nm. The area coverage also differs from sample to sample. Diamonds must not be metallised until the very edge as the proximity of contacts with a high potential can lead to sparking. However, the areas not covered by the metallisation are less efficient because the fringe fields at the edges are not as strong as in the middle. This effectively reduces the sensitive area of the sensors. In the diamonds used here the effective area was anywhere from 9 mm^2 to 18 mm^2 . Leakage current through the bulk was below 1 ns, but increased for the irradiated samples. The capacitance was of the order of $(2.0 \pm 0.3)\text{ pF}$.

1.1.3 Readout devices

Electrical signals in diamond detectors are in the GHz frequency range. To preserve this information, the readout device has to have a high bandwidth limit. For instance, a 250 MHz limit is enough for the spectroscopic measurements with the Cx charge amplifier, but might be insufficient for the current measurements with the C2 amplifier. Two devices are used take data shown in this chapter. The first choice is a 2 GHz LeCroy WaveRunner 204MXi-A. This specific model has a high enough limit for the fast current preamplifier signals. It offers a versatile solution for analogue signal readout – it is fast to set up and reliable. It is very convenient for use in lab tests and for experiments where small amounts of data are taken and where speed is not crucial. However, its slow acquisition speed turns out to be a bottleneck in the test beam experiment. Its initial 100 Hz readout rate decreases to a mere 20 Hz within 20 minutes, because every single trigger is saved as a separate file and the Windows operating system is not capable of handling 10000+ files in a single directory easily. This is why it has been exchanged with a DRS4 [], an analogue readout device developed by PSI, Switzerland. This compact device is capable of recording up to four waveforms at a time at a steady rate of up to 500 Hz. Its 700 MHz bandwidth limitation is sufficient for the signal from the charge amplifier.

1.1.4 Setup for the efficiency study using β particles

The efficiency study of the diamond sensors has been carried out at CERN in the North Hall test beam facility. There a straight high-energy particle beam of $\pi_{120\text{ GeV}}$ is provided to the users to calibrate their detectors. The beam had a transverse spread of $\sigma = 10\text{ mm}$ in both axes. The particle rate is of the order of $10^4\text{ }\pi\text{ cm}^{-2}\text{ s}^{-1}$. A diamond sensor embedded in a PCB carrier has been placed in the beam spot perpendicular to the beam and connected via an SMA connector directly to a charge amplifier (described below). The amplified signal is read out using a LeCroy oscilloscope and a DRS4 analogue readout system (both described below). A computer is used as a controller and data storage for the readout device. A beam telescope [] is used as a reference detector. It is a device that helps to cross-check the measurements of the devices under test (DUTs) and to carry out spatially resolved studies on the DUTs. It consists of several pixellated sensor planes placed in series, which can track a particle's trajectory with a precision of a few μm . The sensor planes are positioned

in front of the DUT and behind it. Then the beam telescope acts as a trigger system – it triggers the readout of both the telescope data and DUT data when both the planes in front and behind the DUT recorded a hit by the impinging particle. A particle detected by all the planes within the DUT window and the DUT itself counts towards its efficiency whereas a hit missed by the DUT means that the DUT is not 100 % efficient. To discard the hits that miss the DUT completely, a region of interest (ROI) can be chosen in the beam telescope planes. The equation for calculating the sensor efficiency is therefore

$$\epsilon = \frac{N_{\text{DUT}} \wedge N_{\text{telescope}}}{N_{\text{telescope}}} \quad (1.1)$$

for an ROI smaller than the sensitive region of the diamond.

1.1.5 Room temperature α -TCT setup

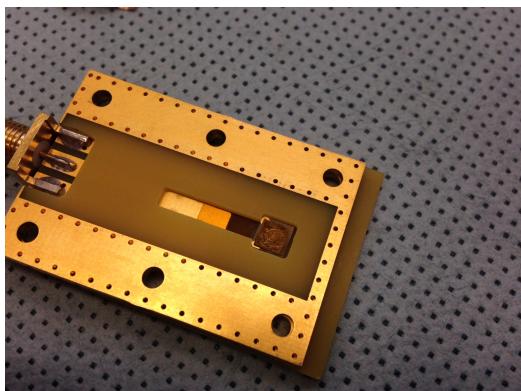
This TCT study is a follow-up of an extensive diamond TCT study at cryogenic temperatures []. The room-temperature TCT measurements have been carried out in the lab. The setup consists of a diamond sensor embedded in a PCB carrier, a current amplifier and an oscilloscope. To measure α particles, their energy loss during their trajectory has to be minimised. Therefore the diamond is placed inside a vacuum chamber. The chamber is a steel tube with a diameter of 5 cm. On one side it is connected to a vacuum pump via a steel pipe. A feedthrough with an SMA connector is placed on the other side. A C2 current amplifier is connected directly onto the feedthrough. The amplified output is connected to the oscilloscope via an SMA cable. An ^{241}Am source with a diameter of 2 cm and a height of 0.5 cm is fixed onto the sensor carrier (figure 1.4a, figure 1.4b). Then the carrier is inserted in the chamber and fixed in place using an air-tight clamp. The pump can then be switched on. It is capable of providing the inside pressure as low as 10^{-4} mbar after approximately one hour of operation, but measurements can take place even after five minutes of evacuation, at around 10^{-3} mbar. The most important thing to bear in mind is to switch the bias voltage of the sensor OFF during the process of evacuation, because the gas becomes more conductive at the pressure of the order of 10^{-1} mbar []. A failure to switch off the bias voltage may cause a spark between the signal and ground line, destroying the amplifier.

1.1.6 Cryogenic α -TCT setup

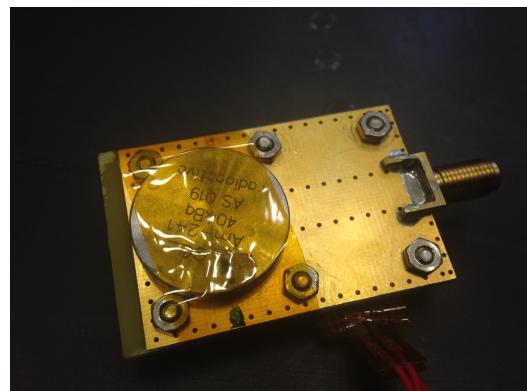
The experiment at cryogenic temperatures has been carried out in the cryolab at CERN. The room-temperature TCT setup has to be modified to allow for measurements at temperatures as low as 2 K. It consists of three parts:

- 202 1. a cryostat – a thermally insulated cylinder capable of containing liquid helium,
- 203 2. an inlet – an air-tight mechanical tube with valves and feedthroughs at the top
204 that is lowered in the liquid helium and

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(a) PCB carrier with an embedded diamond sample



(b) Radioactive source over the carrier

Figure 1.4: Positioning of the α -source on top of the sensor carrier

- 205 3. the diamond sample embedded in a PCB carrier with a fitted temperature
206 sensor, a heater and cables leading to the feedthroughs.

207 The setup is described in detail in [1].

208 When the diamond sample is placed in the PCB carrier and the ^{241}Am source is in
209 place, the inlet is sealed and lowered in the empty cryostat. Then the inside volume
210 of the inlet is evacuated to down to 10^{-5} mbar while the liquid helium is flowing into
211 the cryostat. To improve the thermal contact between the diamond and the coolant,
212 a small amount of helium gas is added inside the evacuated inlet, setting the vacuum
213 to around 10^{-3} mbar. This value changes with time, because the gas condenses on
214 the walls of the inlet, reducing the number of floating particles. For this reason the
215 helium gas has to be added on an irregular basis. Every addition causes a significant
216 undershoot of the sample temperature, which had to be corrected for using a heater
217 placed on the back of the PCB carrier. Also, the added gas deteriorates the vacuum
218 inside the inlet. It is very important to monitor the pressure so as not to let it rise
219 above 10^{-2} mbar. The gas at this pressure is significantly more conductive and could
220 cause a short circuit between the two diamond plates or in the SMA connectors,
221 destroying the amplifier. Furthermore, at approximately 60 K the helium gas has to
222 be evacuated from the inlet to avoid a potential explosion due to the expansion of
223 the gas with temperature.

224 When the sample is cooled to the minimum temperature achievable by means
225 of liquid helium without over-pressurising it (4.2 K), the measurements start. A
226 temperature sensor placed on the back of the PCB carrier is used to measure the
227 temperature of the sample. After every temperature data point, the current through
228 the heater placed in the PCB next to the diamond sample is increased, warming up
229 the sample. The initial temperature time constant of the order of tenths of seconds at
230 low temperatures increases with temperature. Even more so when helium is evacuated
231 from the inlet at 60 K, removing the thermal bridge between the wall of the inlet and
232 the diamond sample. At the room temperature (RT), the time constant increases to

233 the order of minutes.

234 1.2 Charged particle pulses and spectra

235 In previous chapter the ionisation profiles for different types of radiation were dis-
236 cussed. It is known that β and γ radiation induces a triangular electric pulse whereas
237 α radiation induces a rectangular one. However, their amplitude, width and rise/fall
238 time depend heavily on the type of interaction with the diamond, the purity of the
239 diamond and the bandwidth of the amplifier and the oscilloscope. This section shows
240 the signal pulses of α , β and γ radiation with their respective energy distributions for
241 the case of a diamond detector. Then follows a discussion of effects of noise on these
242 measurements.

243 A CIVIDEC C2 current amplifier together with the LeCroy oscilloscope (both
244 with a bandwidth limit of 2 GHz) has been used to record the pulse shapes whereas
245 the Cx charge amplifier is used for charge measurement. A 2 GHz bandwidth limit
246 defines the minimum rising time equal to $t_r \simeq \frac{0.34}{BW} = \frac{0.34}{2 \times 10^9} = 170$ ps, therefore
247 the system is capable of measuring pulses with a minimum FWHM $\simeq 170$ ps. This
248 already makes it impossible to measure the initial peak in the α response due to the
249 two flavours of charge carriers travelling. If a charge carrier travelling through the
250 bulk takes $t_{t1} \sim 6$ ns to get to the electrode on the other side ($d_1 \sim 500$ μm), the
251 carrier with the opposite charge and a shorter path to the closer electrode – max.
252 $d_2 \sim 10$ μm – only takes $t_{t2} \sim \frac{d_2}{d_1} t_{t1} = 120$ ps. A drift time this short induces a
253 current pulse that is too narrow for the C2 amplifier or the oscilloscope to be able to
254 observe.

255 Figure 1.5 shows a set of pulses and an averaged pulse for α , β and γ radiation
256 using an ^{241}Am , ^{90}Sr and ^{60}Co source, respectively. The particles are measured with
257 the non-irradiated sCVD diamond S37. α particles always produce the same signal
258 pulse, but with a high noise RMS. The averaging suppresses the noise while still
259 retaining most the information. It does, however, smear the rising and falling edge,
260 increasing the rise time. The t_r is now of the order of 0.5 ns. Both β and γ pulses
261 look similar - triangular and with a wide range of amplitudes. Here the pulse count
262 is low, so the pulses with a high amplitude are not recorded. A trigger set very high
263 would be needed to “catch” them with the oscilloscope.

264 1.2.1 Noise limitations

265 Noise is a major limiting factor in particle detection. It defines the minimum measur-
266 able particle energy and the minimum measurement resolution. It is hence important
267 to minimise the electric noise in the detector signal. The major noise contribution
268 comes from poor shielding from external electromagnetic sources. These often cause
269 ringing, whereby the signal oscillates with a frequency defined by the external source.
270 The ringing makes high-frequency measurements impossible. Another source of noise
271 is the sensor itself. In the case of silicon, natural light increases the number of ther-

1.3. RADIATION LIMITATIONS

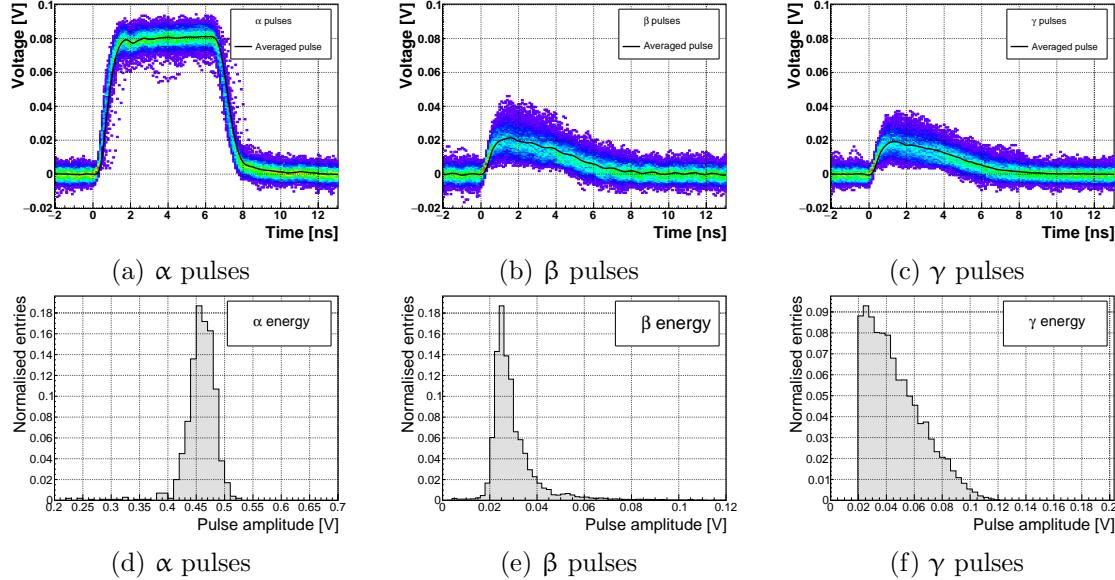


Figure 1.5: Superimposed and averaged pulses (a, b and c, current amplifier) and distributions of deposited energy (d, e, f, charge amplifier) for three types of radiation. Note the scale on the X axis of the distributions.

272 mally excited free charge carriers, increasing the leakage current. This is not the
 273 case for diamond, which is with its high energy band gap insensitive to visible light.
 274 Nevertheless, any noise produced by the sensors is amplified by the signal amplifiers,
 275 which add an additional noise of the analogue electrical circuit to the amplified
 276 signal. Finally, the digitisers add the quantisation noise to the digitised signal. If
 277 the measurement range is significantly higher than the actual measured signal, the
 278 quantisation noise can be a significant contributor to the decrease of the overall mea-
 279 surement resolution.

280 1.3 Radiation limitations

281 Exposure to ionising radiation degrades sensors. It introduces charge traps by damag-
 282 ing the sensor material. The electrons and holes created by the impinging particle get
 283 trapped in these traps, decreasing the induced current on the electrodes. This yields
 284 a lower integrated charge in an irradiated sensor than that in a non-irradiated one.
 285 Charge collection efficiency is therefore correlated with the level of irradiation. This
 286 section contains a study of the effects of pion ($\pi_{300 \text{ MeV}}$) irradiation on the charge col-
 287 lection efficiency of sCVD diamond detectors. To carry out this study, two diamond
 288 samples were irradiated to doses of $1 \times 10^{14} \pi \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (S79) and to $3.63 \times 10^{14} \pi \text{ cm}^{-2}$
 289 (S52). Then a test beam campaign was carried out to observe the charge collection
 290 efficiency at different bias voltage settings. The highest achieved efficiency values
 291 were used to determine the effective drop in efficiency with respect to received ra-
 292 diation dose. A model [] defined by a collaboration researching diamond behaviour

RD42 was applied to the measured values and a damage factor was extracted. The next subsection contains measurements and results of a long-term stability study using α and β particles. In particular, the charge collection efficiency as a function of time was measured during the measurements with β and α radiation. To investigate this effect on the scale of charge carriers, the change of TCT pulses with time was observed. Finally, a procedure that improves the pulse shape and with it the charge collection is proposed.

1.3.1 Quantifying radiation damage in diamonds

Radiation damage varies with the type of radiation (particles or photons) and its energy. There are several models existing [?, ?, ?] that try to explain the impact of irradiation and to provide *hardness factors* to compare the radiation damage between different particles. The standard way is to convert the damage into *neutron equivalent* []. Some models have been extensively verified with simulations and with experiments. In these experiments charge collection in sensors is measured before and after irradiation. This procedure is repeated several times, with a measurement point taken after every irradiation. When a set of measurements of charge collection is plotted against the radiation dose received by a specific particle at a specific energy, a damage factor k_λ can be extracted. Damage factors have to be measured across a range of energies and types of radiation to properly quantify the damage in the sensors []. They are then compared against the simulations to verify that the experimental observations are in line with the theory.

Diamond is an expensive material and the technology is relatively new as compared to silicon. Therefore not many institutes are carrying out diamond irradiation studies. To join the efforts, the RD42 collaboration [] was formed. It gathers the experimental results so far show no significant correlation with the NIEL (non-ionising energy loss) model [?], which correlates detector efficiency with the *number of lattice displacements*. Therefore an alternative model was proposed [?], correlating the diamond efficiency with *displacements per atom* (DPA) in the bulk. Figure 1.6 shows the DPA model for a range of energies of proton, pion and neutron irradiation in diamond. According to the figure, a 300 MeV pion beam damages the diamond bulk twice as much as a 24 GeV proton beam. The data points obtained by RD42 are also added to the figure. They have been normalised to damage by 24 GeV protons. Finally, the data point measured in the scope of this thesis has been added for comparison. The calculation is done below.

Irradiation with a $\pi_{300 \text{ MeV}}$ beam

The samples were irradiated at the Paul Scherrer Institute (PSI) [] by means of a beam of pions with an energy of 300 MeV (kinetic energy 191.31 MeV) and with a flux of up to $1.5 \times 10^{14} \pi \text{ cm}^{-2}$ per day. The system has a 10 % uncertainty on the beam energy. In addition, the equivalent fluence [] calculation has an error of $\pm 20 \%$.

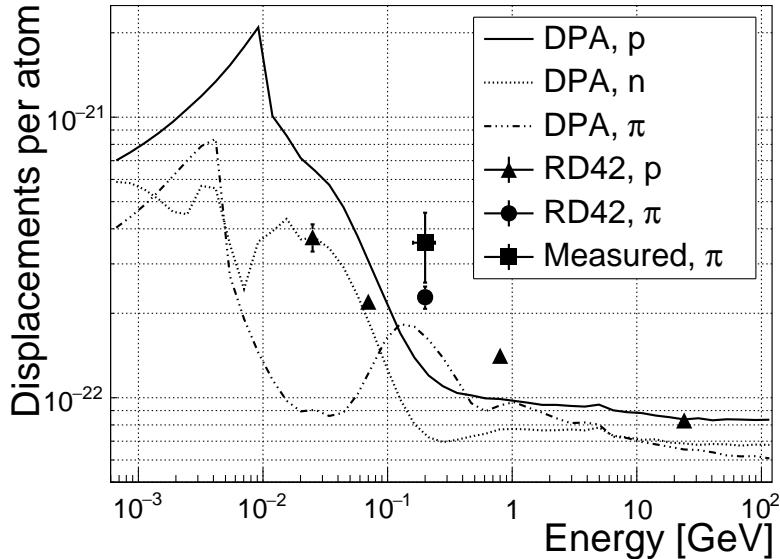


Figure 1.6: Diamond radiation damage - a model based on displacements per atom [1]. Added are data points for protons and pions by RD42 [2] and one data point for pions measured in the scope of this thesis.

333 Looking at the pion damage curve in figure 1.6, $\pi_{300 \text{ MeV}}$ point sits on a steep section
 334 of the DPA curve. This means that a deviation in beam energy can have a significant
 335 effect on the damage.

336 Two diamond samples, S52 and S79, were put in the $\pi_{300 \text{ MeV}}$ beam in the 2014
 337 PSI irradiation campaign; S52 to $(1 \pm 0.21) \times 10^{14} \pi \text{ cm}^{-2}$ and S79 to $(3.63 \pm 0.77) \times$
 338 $10^{14} \pi \text{ cm}^{-2}$. During the process, the golden electrodes got slightly activated, but the
 339 activation decayed in two weeks.

340 Charge collection efficiency and charge collection distance

341 Three diamonds – non-irradiated S37 and irradiated S52 and S79 – were tested in
 342 a $\pi_{120 \text{ GeV}}$ test beam [3] before and after irradiation. The goal was to estimate the
 343 charge collection efficiency (CCE) and charge collection distance (CCD) as a function
 344 of irradiation dose. The samples were primed (pumped) prior to data taking using a
 345 ^{90}Sr radioactive source. The data were then taken at a range of bias voltages ranging
 346 from 30 V to 900 V, yielding between $0.06 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$ and $1.8 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$ electrical field in
 347 the bulk. Every data point contained approximately 5×10^4 measured particles.
 348 The charge deposited by the particles was measured using a CIVIDEC Cx charge
 349 preamplifier. As expected, the integrated amplitude spectrum followed a landau
 350 distribution. Its most probable value (MPV) was used to calculate the most probable
 351 collected charge Q_i :

$$Q_i [e^-] = \frac{Q_i [fC]}{1.6 \times 10^{-4}} = \frac{MPV [mV]}{A [mV/fC]} \cdot 6.241 \times 10^4 \quad (1.2)$$

352 where $A = 9.2 \text{ mV/fC}$ is the preamplifier gain factor. The CCD was then calculated
353 using the average number of electron-hole pairs produced per micrometer in diamond
354 $\delta_d = 36 \text{ e-h } \mu\text{m}^{-1}$ (from table ??):

$$CCD = \frac{Q_i}{\delta d} \quad (1.3)$$

355 The resulting CCD for the three measured samples at bias voltages ranging from
356 $0.2\text{--}1.6 \text{ V } \mu\text{m}^{-1}$ is shown in figure 1.7a. S37 exhibits full collection distance already
357 at $0.4 \text{ V } \mu\text{m}^{-1}$ whereas the irradiated samples have a more gentle increase of CCD
358 with increasing bias voltage. It is evident that at $1 \text{ V } \mu\text{m}^{-1}$ the maximum CCD has
359 not been reached in the case of S79 and S52.

360 Irradiation damage factor

361 The irradiation damage factor k is a way to quantify irradiation damage of a specific
362 particle at a specific energy. Via this factor different types of irradiation can be
363 compared. It is obtained experimentally by measuring the CCD of a number of
364 samples at various irradiation steps and fitting the equation 1.5 to the data. λ is the
365 measured CCD, λ_0 is the CCD of a non-irradiated sample and Φ the radiation dose.

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\lambda_0} + k_\lambda \cdot \Phi \quad (1.4)$$

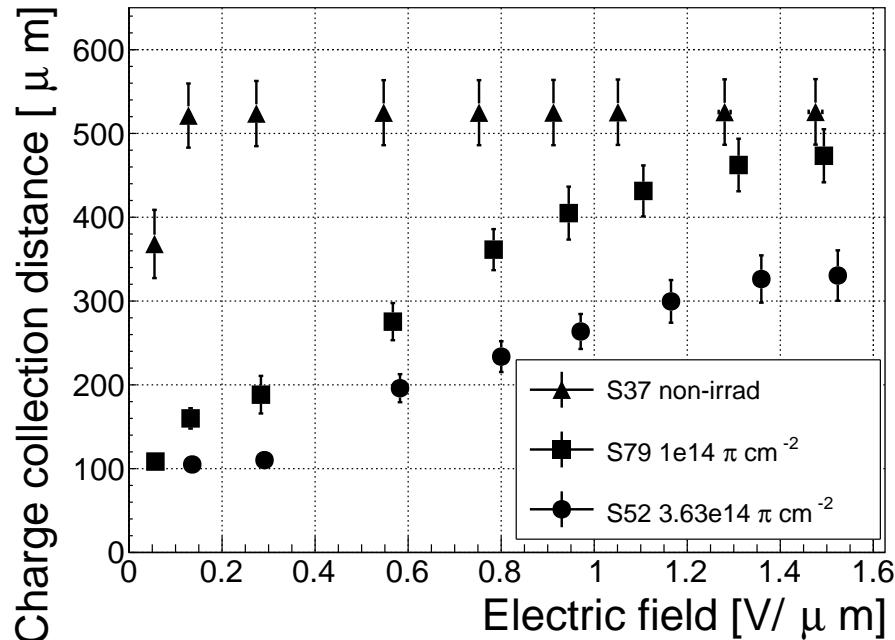
$$\lambda = \frac{\lambda_0}{k_\lambda \lambda_0 \Phi + 1} \quad (1.5)$$

366 The data points with the maximum CCD obtained in the test beam measurements
367 are plotted against radiation dose received (see figure 1.7b). Equation 1.5 is fitted
368 to the data points and a damage factor $k_\lambda = (3.0 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-18} \text{ } \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ was
369 obtained. This value is for a factor of two higher than the damage factor obtained
370 by RD42. Also, with only two samples measured, the statistical uncertainty is high.
371 Nevertheless, it can be concluded that the 300 MeV pions damage the diamond bulk
372 more than the 24 GeV protons.

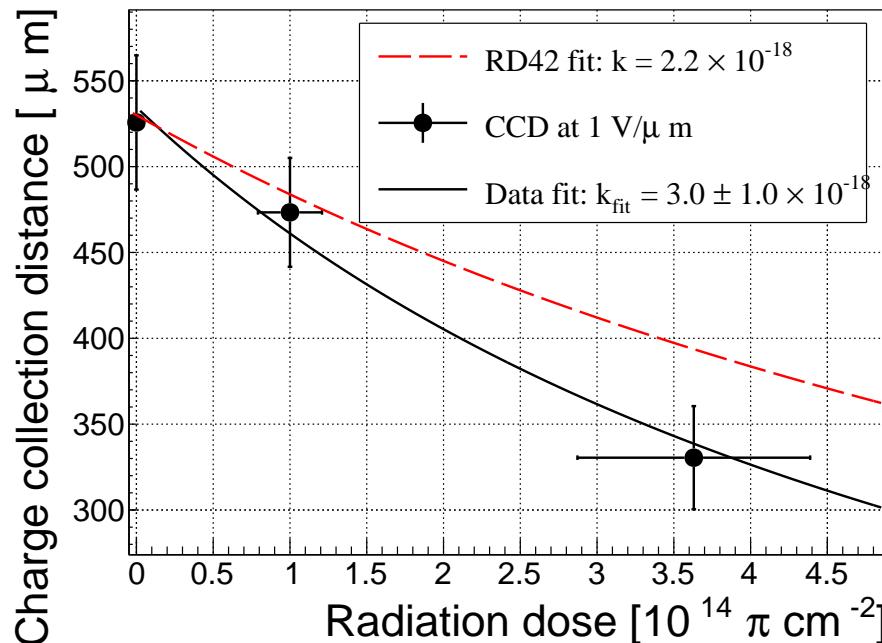
374 1.3.2 Long-term measurement stability

375 An important requirement for particle detectors is a stable performance over long
376 periods of time. For instance, the charge collection for a defined radiation type and
377 quantity must not change over time or has to change in a predicted way. Diamonds
378 are stable as long as their environment and their operating point does not change
379 significantly. The stability of diamond detectors depends on many factors (material
380 purity, polishing process, electrode material, irradiation damage etc.). The aim is
381 to study the behaviour of diamond under controlled conditions, with the goal to
382 understand its limitations. One of these limitations is for sure the received radiation
383 dose as it can affect the long-term stability of the sensor during operation.

1.3. RADIATION LIMITATIONS



(a) CCD for S37, S79 and S52



(b) Comparing the data points obtained in a test beam against the RD42 data

Figure 1.7: The charge collection distance at 500 V bias voltage for the three diamond samples was compared to the RD42 data for pion irradiation. The data points are about 5–15 % lower than expected from the RD42 data [1].

385 types of ionising radiation for a longer period to see if their behaviour changes over
386 time. Two parameters have been observed in particular:

- 387 1. Charge collection of β particles and
388 2. Charge collection and ionisation profile of α particles.

389 The results in this and in the next section will show that, in both cases, priming plays
390 an important role in improving the diamond measurement stability.

391 **β long-term stability**

392 The diamond samples have undergone a long-term stability test using β radiation.
393 This has been done using a ^{90}Sr source emitting ~ 2 MeV electrons at a rate of
394 approximately $10^4 \text{ e}^- \text{ cm}^{-2}$. To simulate the initial conditions in HEP experiments,
395 the sensors must not be primed before starting the measurements. The measurement
396 setup consists of a diamond sample (S37, S52 or S79) with the Cx spectroscopic
397 amplifier, a silicon diode with a C6 amplifier for a trigger and a ^{90}Sr source on
398 top. A particle emitted by the source traverses the sensor bulk and hits the silicon
399 diode, triggering the analogue signal readout. The source is left on the top for the
400 course of the experiment. The measurements, however, are taken at discrete times.
401 For every data point, approximately 10^4 triggers are recorded. The offline analysis
402 of the recorded signal pulse amplitudes yields a landau distribution for every data
403 point. The most probable value (MPV) of the distribution is proportional to the
404 collected charge by the diamond sensor. The resulting graph of charge collection over
405 time (see figure 1.8) shows that the charge collection efficiency improves when the
406 diamond sensor is primed with a β source. This is especially evident in the case of
407 the two irradiated samples. S79 achieves close to a full efficiency whereas S52 reaches
408 about 50 %. Both increases are significant. At a received dose of approximately
409 4×10^6 particles the signal stabilises. As expected, the signal of the non-irradiated
410 S37 does not change with time – this pure sCVD diamond sample has the maximum
411 collection distance from the start of the measurement.

412 It should be noted that the ~ 2.28 MeV electrons emitted by this source are not
413 MIPs; their charge deposition is higher than that of an electron MIP, according to
414 the Bethe-Bloch distribution []. Nevertheless, for the purpose of these measurements
415 this energy was adequate since only the relative change in charge collection was of
416 our interest.

417 To sum up, diamond is a good choice for β radiation detection. Even if damaged
418 by radiation, it reaches a stable charge collection at a received dose of $\sim 4 \times 10^6$ MIP
419 particles. The efficiency decreases with a high irradiation dose (effects visible above
420 $10^{12} \text{ MIP cm}^{-2}$). However, the decrease can be accounted for if the damage factor and
421 the rate and energy of the particles are known. γ radiation has a similar impact on
422 the diamond as the β because the ionisation mechanism is the same. The impinging
423 photons, if they interact with the diamond, prime the bulk, causing the increase in

1.3. RADIATION LIMITATIONS

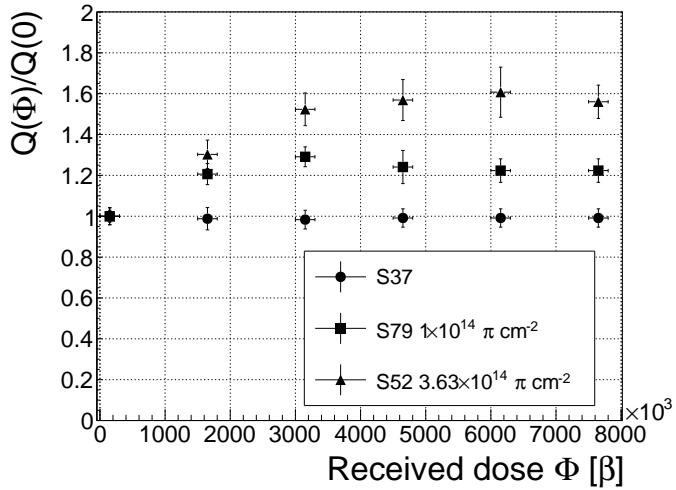


Figure 1.8: Increase of charge collection over time due to priming with the ^{90}Sr radioactive source. The bias voltage for this measurement is $1\text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$.

424 charge collection efficiency. The difference, however, is that the interaction probability
 425 (cross section) is lower for gammas [].

426 α long-term stability

427 This part discusses the stability of irradiated diamond sensors during α measurements.
 428 An ^{241}Am source is used, emitting α particles with a mean energy of 5.5 MeV. It is
 429 safe to assume that they will behave differently than when subject to β radiation.
 430 This is due to the point-like charge carrier creation when an α particle penetrates the
 431 bulk and stops at a depth of $\sim 14\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (for a 5.5 MeV particle). The deposited energy
 432 produces $\frac{5.5\text{ MeV}}{13.6\text{ eV}} = 4 \times 10^5$ e-h pairs. Compared to a MIP, which produces an MPV
 433 of $500\text{ }\mu\text{m} \times 36\text{ e-h }\mu\text{m}^{-1} = 18 \times 10^3$ e-h pairs in a $500\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, the collected charge
 434 is for a factor of 22 higher. In addition, the energy is deposited in a small volume
 435 – $14\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in depth and $\sim 20\text{ nm}$ radially []. This dense distribution of charge carriers
 436 affects their behaviour at the start of the drift. Furthermore, carriers of only one
 437 polarity drift through the sensor while those of the opposite polarity almost instantly
 438 recombine with the adjacent electrode. Taking into account that the diamond bulk
 439 has been damaged by irradiation, these two phenomena might have an effect on the
 440 operation of the detector on a macro scale.

441 The first test has been carried out using the Cx spectroscopic amplifier, with the
 442 bias voltage of the samples set to $+500\text{ V}$. Figure 1.9 shows the results of 6500 recorded
 443 hits at a rate of ~ 7 particles per second. The collected charge for the non-irradiated
 444 sample is stable with time. It is expected that the irradiated samples will have a
 445 lower charge collection efficiency than the non-irradiated sample. However, their
 446 initial efficiency suddenly drops after a certain period of time. The initial efficiency
 447 is improved after priming with β particles, but eventually it deteriorates again. In

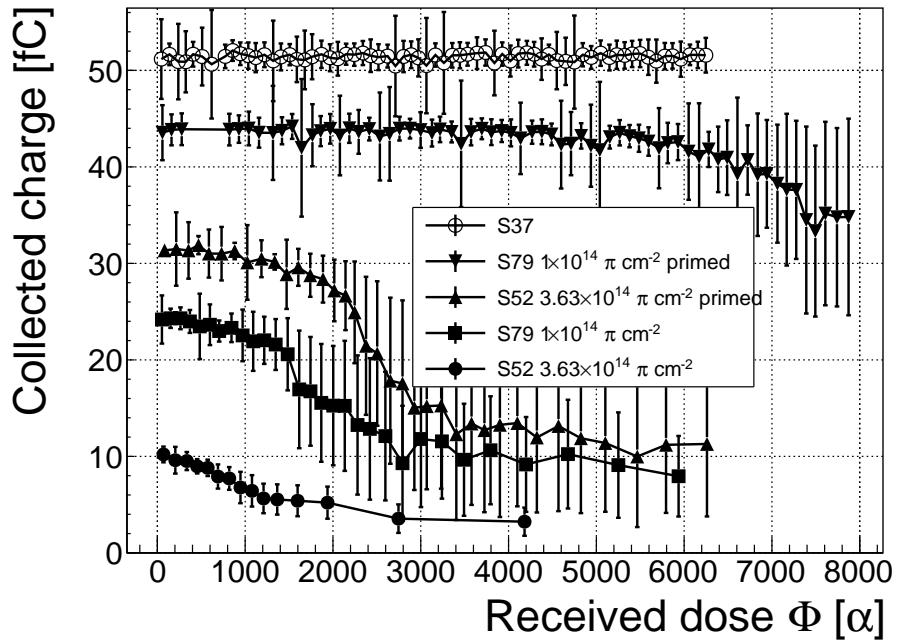


Figure 1.9: Comparison of collected charge with time for non-irradiated and irradiated diamond samples.

addition, the spread of measured energies increases significantly. Finally, the particle counting rate decreases with the decreased efficiency.

To investigate this sudden drop in efficiency, the current pulse shapes using a C2 current amplifier have to be observed (see figure 1.10). The shape of the pulse holds more information about the charge carrier properties in the sensor than solely the value of the integrated charge. This time only the primed S79 sample has been tested. Both hole and electron collection are observed to determine whether they behave differently or not. The sample has been measured long enough for the pulse shapes to start changing. The data in figures 1.10 show that the initially stable pulses start deteriorating – suddenly several different shapes start appearing, some still very similar to those from the beginning while the others with almost zero amplitude.

Some charges get stopped in the charge traps in the bulk for a long time, building up regions of space charge. The built up space charge affects the electric field, making it non-uniform. The non-uniform field in turn affects the drifting carriers, slowing them down or speeding them up, depending on the field gradient. Since the movement of the carriers is inducing the electric current, the field gradient can be observed in the signal.

The second test with the C2 current amplifier has been carried out as follows: At the beginning of the test when the diamond is still operating stably, 60 pulses are recorded. An average pulse is calculated. This is a reference pulse for the subsequent measurement points. Then an RMS of the single pulses with respect to the reference pulse is calculated and the values are summed together (σ_{ref}).

1.3. RADIATION LIMITATIONS

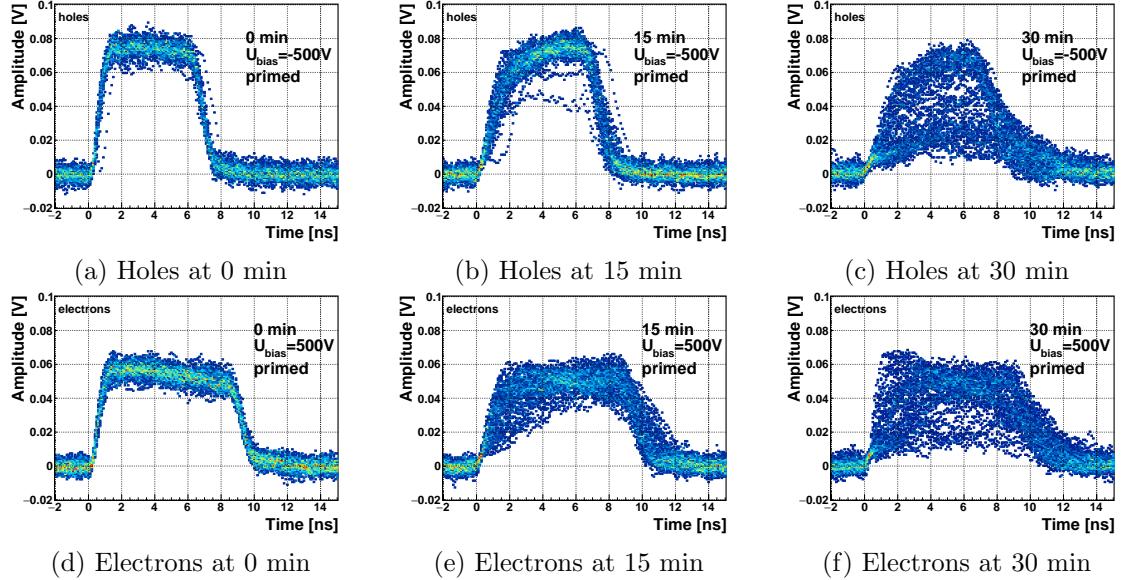


Figure 1.10: The signal of the irradiated and primed S79 deteriorates with time for both polarities. Every plot contains 60 superimposed pulses.

All the subsequent data points also consist of a set of 60 pulses. At every data point the summation of the RMS values of the individual pulses with respect to the initial averaged pulse is calculated (σ). The ratio between the initial σ_{ref} and discrete values σ gives a measure of change of the pulse shape with respect to the reference pulse at the start of the measurement. Figure 1.11 shows the ratio $\frac{\sigma_{\text{ref}}}{\sigma(\alpha \text{ dose})}$. From the data obtained it can be concluded that initial pulse shape quickly starts deteriorating. In fact, the deterioration of the shape correlation follows an exponential decay function, which can be fitted to the data. The resulting decay constants for electrons and holes are $\tau_e = (4400 \pm 150) \alpha^{-1}$ and $\tau_h = (3300 \pm 140) \alpha^{-1}$. The electrons retain the initial shape for longer. The deteriorated shapes also seem to be for a factor of 2 better than those of the holes.

Finally, an effort has made to find a way for the pulse shapes to return to their initial state. Five methods were tested:

1. Removing the source and leaving the bias voltage switched on,
2. Removing the source and switching the bias voltage off,
3. Priming with γ at a rate of $400 \text{ s}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ without applied bias voltage,
4. Priming with β at a rate of $1000 \text{ s}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ with applied bias voltage and
5. Priming with β at a rate of $1000 \text{ s}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ without applied bias voltage.

The diamond sample S79 was first primed using a ^{90}Sr source for about one hour. Then the bias voltage was switched on and an ^{241}Am source was put on top. The pulses produced by the impinging α particles had a proper rectangular pulse at the beginning, but then started changing in an erratic way, as described in the text above.

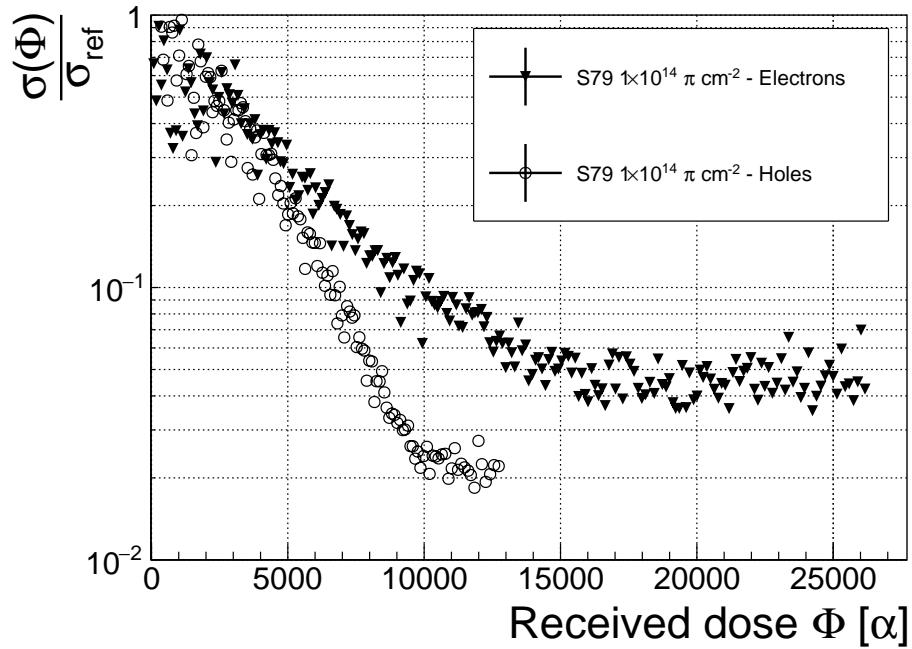


Figure 1.11: Deterioration of the pulse correlation with time

492 After approximately 30 minutes, one of the methods was tested. When a “healing”
 493 procedure was started, a set of 60 pulses was taken at irregular points of time to
 494 observe the change in the pulse shape and to assess the quality of the “healing”
 495 procedure. Then the bias voltage was switched off and the sample was primed again
 496 to reset its state before starting with the next run.

497 It turns out that the methods (3) and (5) improve the shape, method (2) helps
 498 slowly, (1) does not show any change with time and (4) at first improves, but then
 499 significantly degrades the shape. The effect observed in method (4) has already been
 500 described in [?]. The “healing” process therefore depends on the rate of radiation,
 501 the bias voltage and the time of exposure. The ionising radiation creates free charges,
 502 which quickly recombine close to the place of generation. It is likely that they also
 503 release the charges trapped during the measurement, reducing the overall effect of
 504 the space charge. The traps get filled with both flavours of carriers, thus they are
 505 neutralised. The pulse shape gradually returns to its initial state.

	Procedure	Source	Bias voltage	Effectiveness
506	1	/	ON	no
	2	/	/	slow
	3	^{60}Co	/	YES
	4	^{90}Sr	ON	no
	5	^{90}Sr	/	YES

507 Table 1.2: Effectiveness of healing procedures

508 In summary, the shape of the pulses caused by α radiation changes with time

1.4. TEMPERATURE LIMITATIONS

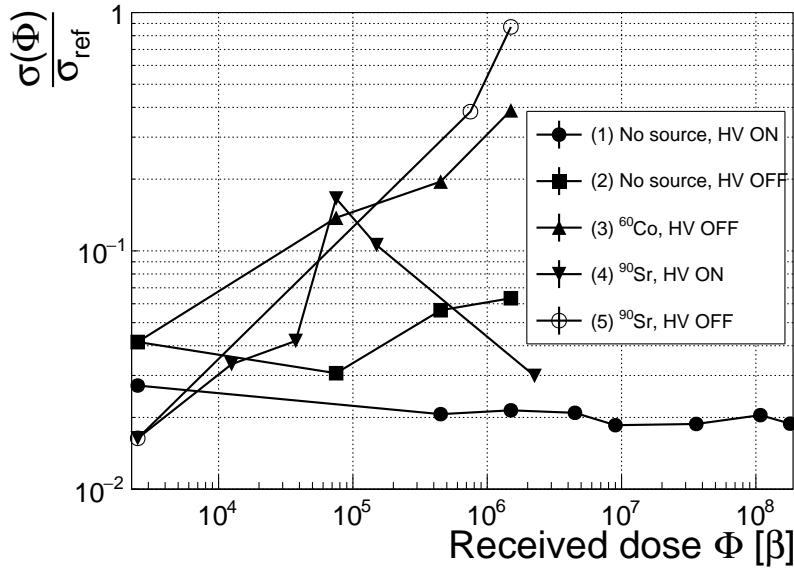


Figure 1.12: Five procedures of the “healing” process for an irradiated diamond that was exposed to α radiation at bias voltage switched on for at least 30 minutes at a rate of 10^4 s^{-1} .

for irradiated samples. The shape of the pulses gets distorted and becomes erratic. Charge collection decreases and its spread increases. This happens even faster for non-primed diamonds. To “heal” the diamond – to bring the pulse shapes back to their initial shape – the sample must be primed using a β or a γ source for several minutes at the bias voltage set to 0 V. Switching to the inverse polarity for a few seconds helps a bit, but in a long run distorts the signal, which cannot get back to its initial shape.

1.4 Temperature limitations

A test has been carried out to evaluate the effect of temperature changes on the output signal of the diamond sensors. A cryostat filled with liquid helium is used to cool down the sensor during the measurement process. The current signal response to α -particles is measured at 18 temperature points between 4 K and 295 K. At every temperature point, a set of 300 pulses is read out at various bias voltages. Resulting data show that the charge collection is stable down to 150 K, where it starts decreasing and stabilises again at about one third of the initial value at 75 K. This behaviour was first measured and discussed by H. Jansen [?].

The band gap energy in diamond is equal to $E_g = 5.5 \text{ eV}$ while the average energy to produce an electron-hole pair is $E_{e-h} = 13.25 \text{ eV}$. This means there is excessive energy deposited in the diamond bulk. The incident α -particle stops within $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$ of the bulk, transferring all its energy to the lattice. A part of this energy,

529 approximately 40 % [1], directly ionises the carbon atoms, creating free electron-hole
530 pairs. The positively charged hole and the negatively charged electron in the hole
531 attract each other via the Coulomb force and may undergo a bonding process during
532 which a phonon is emitted.

533 The remaining energy, however, is converted into lattice vibrations (phonons [?]).
534 This means that the lattice within the ionisation volume (approximately $\sim 10 \mu\text{m} \times \sim 2 \text{ nm}$
535 in size) is briefly heated up. The hot plasma then cools down to the temperature of
536 the surrounding material by heat dissipation, (i.e. phonon transport). The free elec-
537 tron binds the free hole into a bound state (not recombination) – the exciton [1]. The
538 exciton binding energy is 80 meV. At higher temperatures, the lattice provides enough
539 energy to excite the electron from the exciton state back to the conduction band. At
540 lower temperatures, however, the exciton lifetime increases, which means that it will
541 take a longer time for the electrons to get re-excited to the conduction band. The
542 re-excitation lifetime at room temperature is $\sim 30 \text{ ps}$, increasing to $\sim 150 \mu\text{s}$ at 50 K [1].
543 This means that some of the bound electrons will not even start drifting within the
544 period of $\sim 10 \text{ ns}$, which is the expected carrier drift time. When they are finally freed,
545 the current they induce is already hidden in the electronics noise. The effective area
546 of the observed current pulse is therefore smaller than that of a pulse induced by all
547 the carriers drifting at the same time. This in effect reduces the measured collected
548 charge. The longer the time constant, the lower the measured collected charge, as
549 shown in figure 1.17 below.

550 1.4.1 Temperature-variant α -TCT before irradiation

551 Three sCVD diamond samples have been tested at a range of temperatures using
552 the α -TCT technique. At each temperature point, the bias voltage is set to several
553 positive and negative values. A set of 300 pulses is recorded at every data point
554 and averaged offline. The resulting averaged pulses of sample S37 at the 260 K
555 temperature point and a bias voltage of $\pm 400 \text{ V}$, $\pm 500 \text{ V}$ and $\pm 700 \text{ V}$ are shown in
556 figure 1.13. The pulses induced by holes as charge carriers are shorter than those
557 induced by electrons, which means that holes travel faster in diamond. The area of
558 the pulse, however, is the same for both polarities, which corresponds to the fact that
559 the same amount of charges is drifting in both cases.

560 Figure 1.14 shows pulses at a bias voltage set to $\pm 500 \text{ V}$ across the range of
561 temperatures between 4 K and 295 K – room temperature (RT). Several conclusions
562 can be drawn by observing their shape. First, the pulse shapes change with decreasing
563 temperature. The pulse time gets shorter, hinting at the faster carrier drift velocity
564 v_{drift} . Second, between 150 K and 75 K there is a significant change in shape - the
565 time constant of the rising edge increases significantly and the pulse area decreases.
566 From 75 K down to 4 K there is no significant observable change. Last, the top of
567 the pulse at the S52 is not flat, which means that a portion of the drifting charge is
568 lost along its way. This is due to charge trapping, likely by means of crystal defects
569 or impurities.

1.4. TEMPERATURE LIMITATIONS

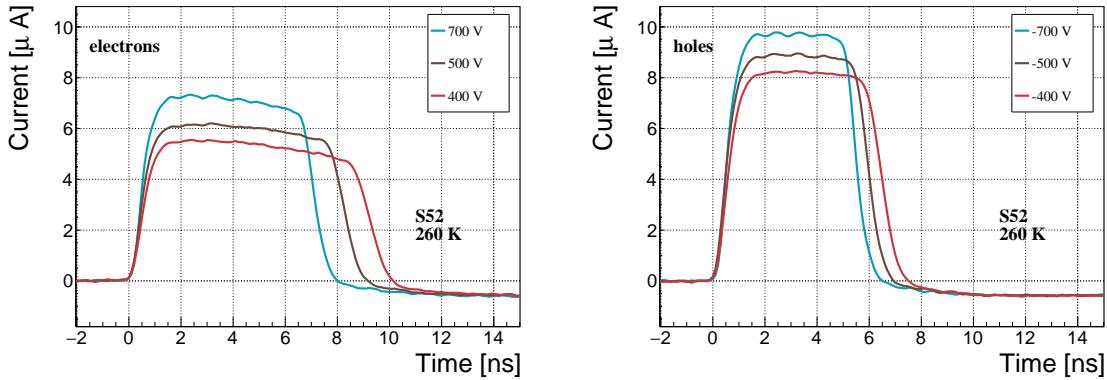


Figure 1.13: Varied bias voltage at a fixed temperature

1.4.2 Temperature-variant α -TCT after irradiation

The irradiated S79 and S52 have been re-tested in the cryostat after irradiation. The aim was to see how their pulse shapes change with decreasing temperature, in particular the decaying top of the pulses (see figure 1.15). The decay time gives information on trapping of charge carriers while travelling through the diamond bulk. A variation of the decay time constant as a function of temperature might help to reveal the type and depth of the charge traps. To observe these effects or lack thereof, a number of requirements has to be met. First, the diamond samples are intentionally not primed prior to the experiment because priming would improve the pulse shapes and possibly change the decay time constant of the signal. Second, keeping in mind that the pulse shape of irradiated diamonds changes with time, the duration of the measurement of an individual data point has to be short – of the order of 30 seconds. Last, the sequence of the bias voltage settings is important, the reason for which is explained below.

Unfortunately it is not possible to avoid temporal pulse changes. For instance, one measurement point takes approximately one minute. After the measurement, the bias voltage polarity is swapped for a few seconds to bring the diamond back into its initial state. But a few seconds with respect to a minute is not enough. Therefore, when the bias voltage is set to the next value, there is still some residual effect of the previous measurement. Similar to the effects of polarisation, this effect is also decreasing the pulse height. This can be observed in figure 1.15, which shows the resulting pulses of S52 for bias voltages of ± 200 V, ± 300 V, ± 400 V and ± 500 V at 230 K and 260 K. In this case the measurements sequence is: 230K (200 V, 300 V, 400 V, 500 V, -500 V, -400 V, -300 V), 260 K (-200 V, -300 V, -400 V, -500 V, 500 V, 400 V, 300 V). The changes in pulse shapes for holes at 230 K and 260 K cannot be attributed to the temperature change. Instead, the explanation could lie in diamond “polarisation”. This means that, when exposed to an electric field with α measurements ongoing, the diamond builds up an internal electric field of inverse polarity, which effectively reduces the overall electric field. This internal

CHAPTER 1. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS
DIAMOND IRRADIATION STUDY

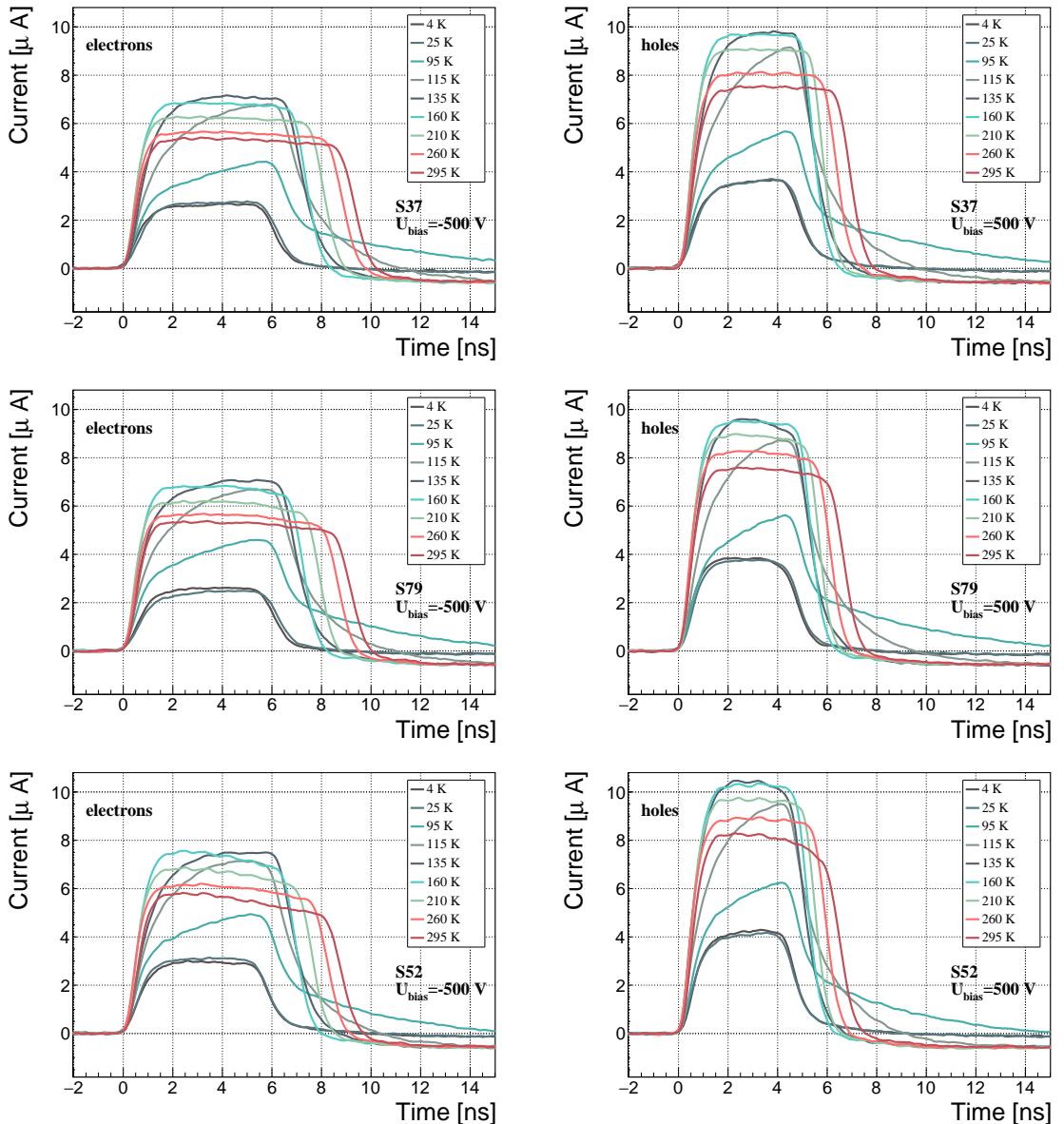


Figure 1.14: Several data points between 4 K and 295 K at a bias voltage of ± 500 V

1.4. TEMPERATURE LIMITATIONS

599 field does not dissipate when the external bias voltage is switched off. It can be
600 said that the diamond becomes “polarised”. When switching the polarity of the
601 external bias voltage, the internal and external electric field point in the same direction
602 at the beginning, increasing the overall electric field and with it the pulse height.
603 In figure 1.15, this happens when switching from 500 V (figure 1.15a) to -500 V
604 (figure ??) at 230 K. The built up polarisation contributes to the pulse having a
605 sharp rising edge and a high amplitude. This effect decays during the next two
606 voltage points. There would be a handful of ways to avoid this polarisation effect in
607 the data:

- 608 1. After every data point invert the bias voltage and leave it to return to a neutral
609 state for the same amount of time,
- 610 2. Make a hysteresis of data points, going from minimum negative to maximum
611 positive bias several times,
- 612 3. Reduce the measurement time at every bias voltage setting.

613 Unfortunately, options (1) and (2) are very time consuming and would increase the
614 overall experiment time to over one day. The third option would worsen the resulting
615 averaged pulses. In the end an alternative option was chosen: alternating the start-
616 ing bias voltage and the sequence at every temperature point. With this option, a
617 meaningful systematic error in analysing the pulse shapes can be attained.

618 Figure 1.16 shows the irradiated S52 and S79 as well as the non-irradiated S37
619 for comparison, all at a bias voltage of ± 500 V and at several temperature points
620 between 4 K and RT. It is evident that the radiation damage affected the shape of
621 the pulses across all temperatures.

622 Collected charge as a function of temperature

623 The area below the current pulse is proportional to the charge collected by the dia-
624 mond detector. The collected charge is observed as a function of temperature. First,
625 the amplitude values of the averaged pulses at a bias voltage of ± 500 V and across the
626 temperature range between 4 K and 295 K have to be integrated. Then a calibration
627 factor is used to derive the charge for all data points. This factor is obtained using a
628 Cx charge-sensitive amplifier. The resulting values for electrons and holes are plotted
629 in figures 1.17a and 1.17b, respectively. Thesis [] gives a model that explains the drop
630 in charge below 150 K. The new contribution are the data points for the irradiated
631 samples. The values for them are lower than those of non-irradiated samples,
632 which is expected.

633 The values for all samples are fairly stable in the range between 4 K and 75 K
634 and between 150 K and 295 K. However, in the values for the irradiated S52 some
635 excursions can be observed. This is due to the sequence of the measurement steps,
636 which introduced a hysteresis effect and is explained in the preceding text.

637 The collected charge drops significantly from 150 K down to 75 K. In the non-
638 irradiated samples the values in the lower temperature range are approximately 0.30

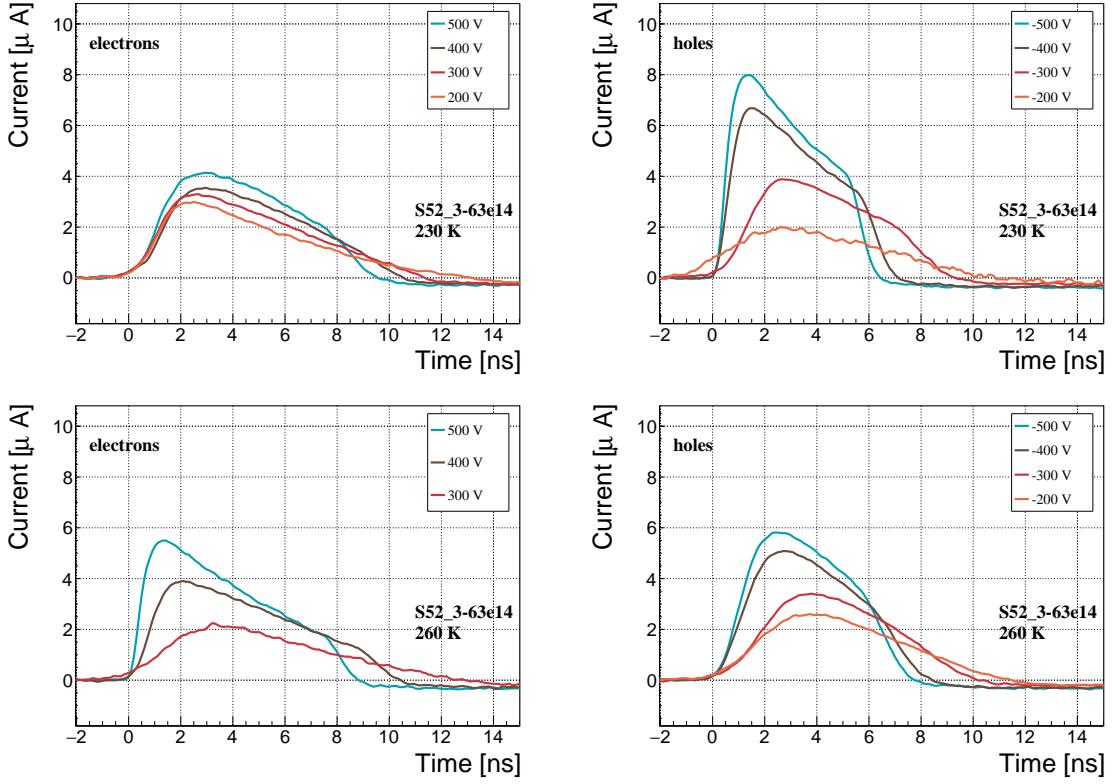


Figure 1.15: Varied bias voltage at a fixed temperature for an irradiated sample

of the values at the high range. For the irradiated ones this difference is lower – a factor of 0.35 for S79 and 0.5 for S52. An interesting detail is that the ratio between the values for non-irradiated samples and their irradiated counterparts at the lower range is different than at the higher range. Looking at the values for the electron collection in figure 1.17a: for S52 the lower ratio is equal to 1.28 and the higher equal to 1.7. For S79 these ratios are 1.00 and 1.09, which means that the difference in charge collection between 4 K and 75 K before and after irradiation is negligible.

Charge trapping

A decaying exponential function has been fitted to the decaying top of the averaged pulses at bias voltages of ± 400 V and ± 500 V across all temperatures excluding the transitional range between 75 K and 150 K. The resulting decay time constants τ for an individual temperature point are not equal, which stems from the fact that the pulses change with time due to “polarisation”. This counts as a systematic error. Therefore the fitted τ for ± 400 V and ± 500 V are averaged into one value representing the measurement at that temperature point. Figure 1.18a shows the fitted τ for the five samples between 4 K and 295 K. In principle, the time constants should be infinite for a perfect and non-irradiated sample. Here a slightly tilted top of the pulse due to space charge is already successfully fitted with an exponential function, resulting in

1.4. TEMPERATURE LIMITATIONS

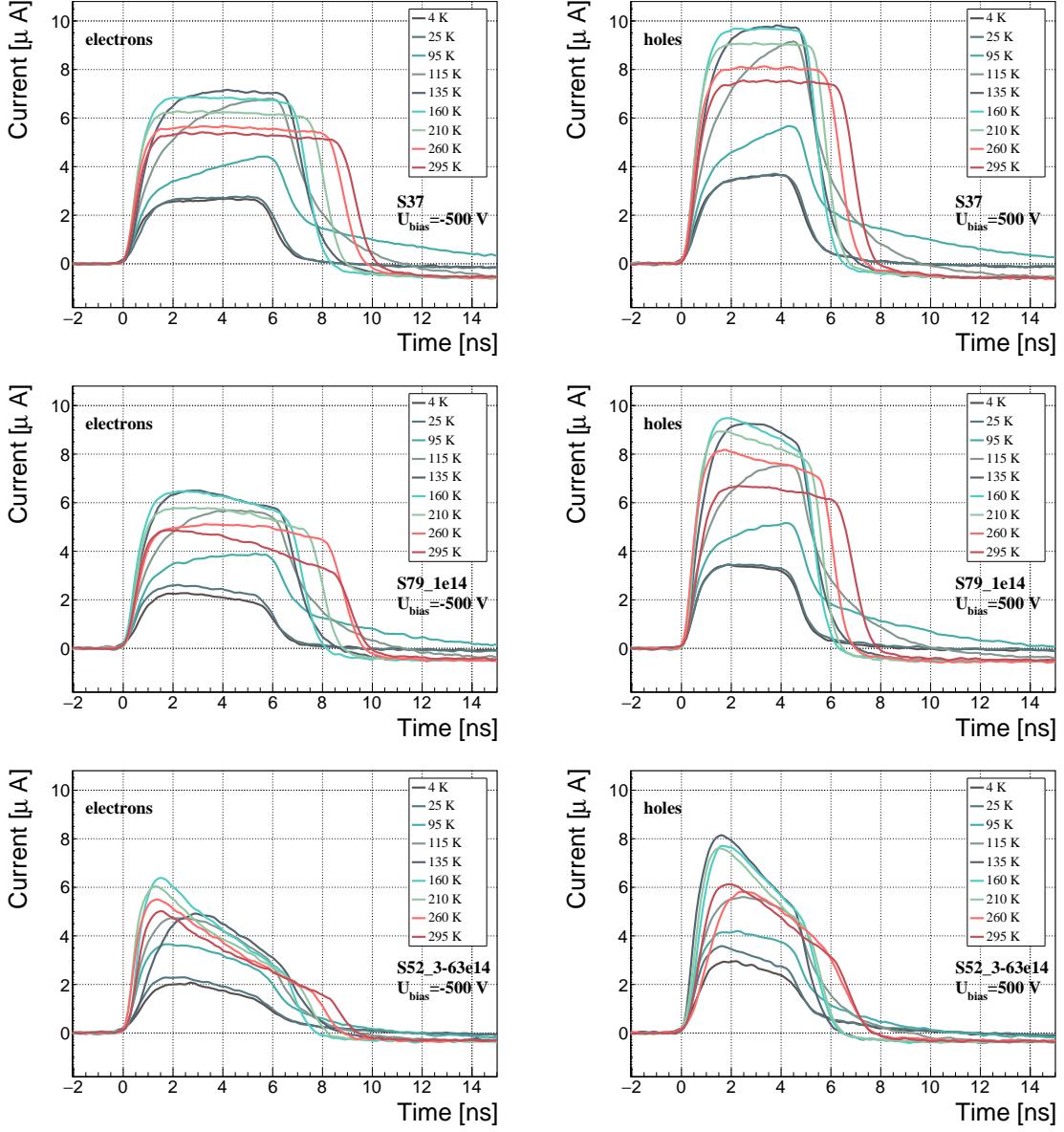


Figure 1.16: After irradiation: several data points between 4 K and 295 K at a bias voltage of ± 500 V

657 a τ of the order of (200 ± 20) ns $^{-1}$. Consequently the fitting method is not adequate
 658 for non-irradiated samples. For the irradiated samples, the fit becomes increasingly
 659 more meaningful. As seen in figure 1.18a, the fitted values of the irradiated samples
 660 are fairly stable across all temperatures. There is a slight increase in the decay time
 661 constant of the S52 from (6.0 ± 0.5) ns $^{-1}$ above 150 K to (8.5 ± 0.9) ns $^{-1}$ below 75 K.
 662 On the other hand, this step is not observable in the S79 data. With only one sample
 663 exhibiting this behaviour, the effect is not significant enough. Judging by the data
 664 acquired, the samples would need to be irradiated to doses above $1 \times 10^{14} \pi \text{ cm}^{-2}$ to
 665 quantify this effect in detail. So far this effect will not be regarded as significant for

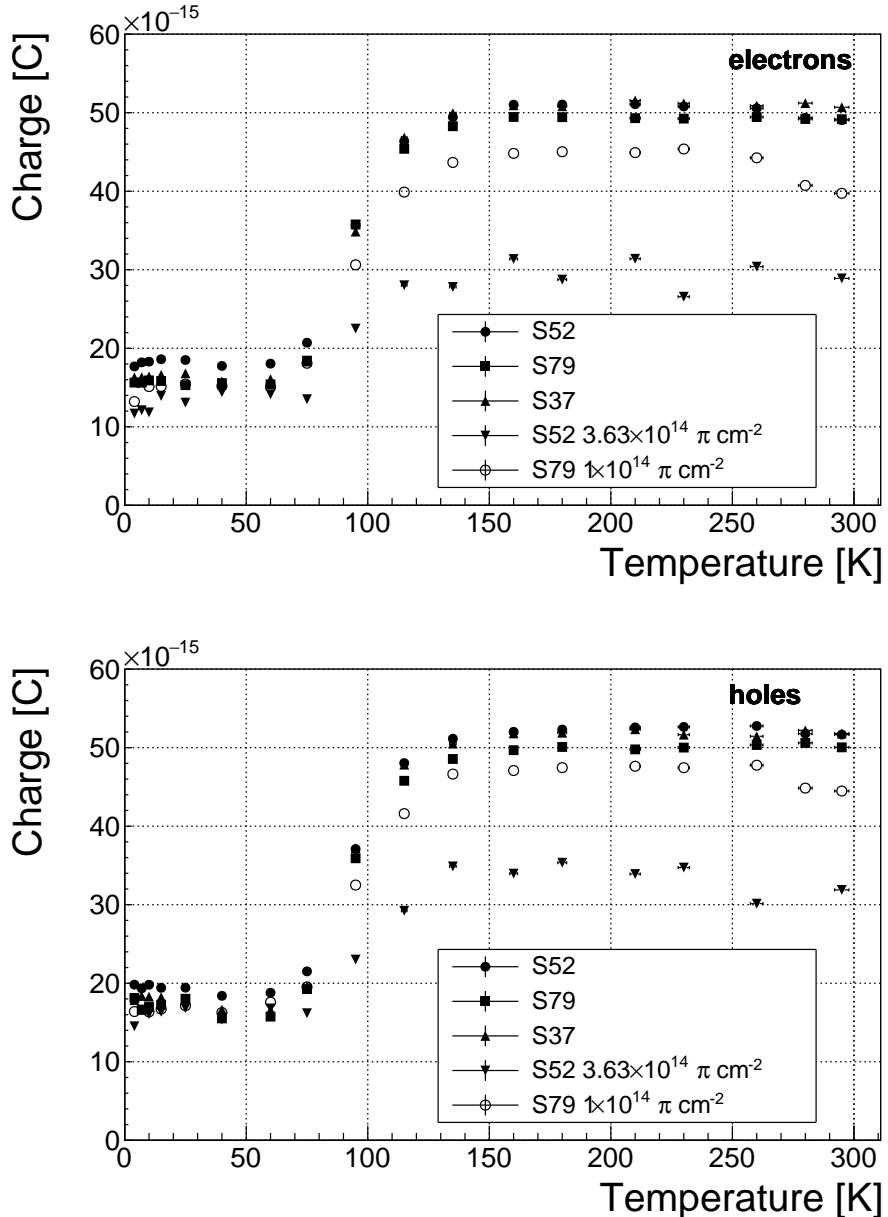


Figure 1.17: Collected charge as a function of temperature

the scope of this thesis. Building on this assumption, the conclusion is that the signal decay time constant for irradiated sCVD diamond is constant across the temperature range between 4 K and 195 K, excluding the transitional range between 75 K and 150 K.

Taking into account the conclusions above, all the values can be averaged into one decay constant. Figure 1.18b shows these values for all samples as a function of the received $\pi_{300 \text{ MeV}}$ radiation dose. To estimate the carrier lifetime with respect to the radiation dose received, a similar model is used than that in section 1.5. This model

1.4. TEMPERATURE LIMITATIONS

674 states that the inverse of the carrier lifetime is linearly decreasing with increasing
675 radiation dose:

$$\frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{1}{\tau_0} + \kappa_\tau \cdot \Phi \quad (1.6)$$

676

$$\tau = \frac{\tau_0}{\kappa_\tau \tau_0 \Phi + 1} \quad (1.7)$$

677 where τ_0 is the lifetime for a non-irradiated sample (real lifetime, therefore of the order
678 of 400 ns^{-1}), τ is the lifetime of an irradiated sample, Φ is the received radiation dose
679 and κ_τ the lifetime degradation factor. For these data the fitted factor is equal to
680 $\kappa_\tau = (3.6 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-16} \text{ s cm}^2 \pi_{300 \text{ MeV}}^{-1}$. Using this factor, the steepness of the decay
681 in the pulse shape with respect to radiation dose can be estimated. This can help
682 when designing a system where current pulse shape is an important factor.

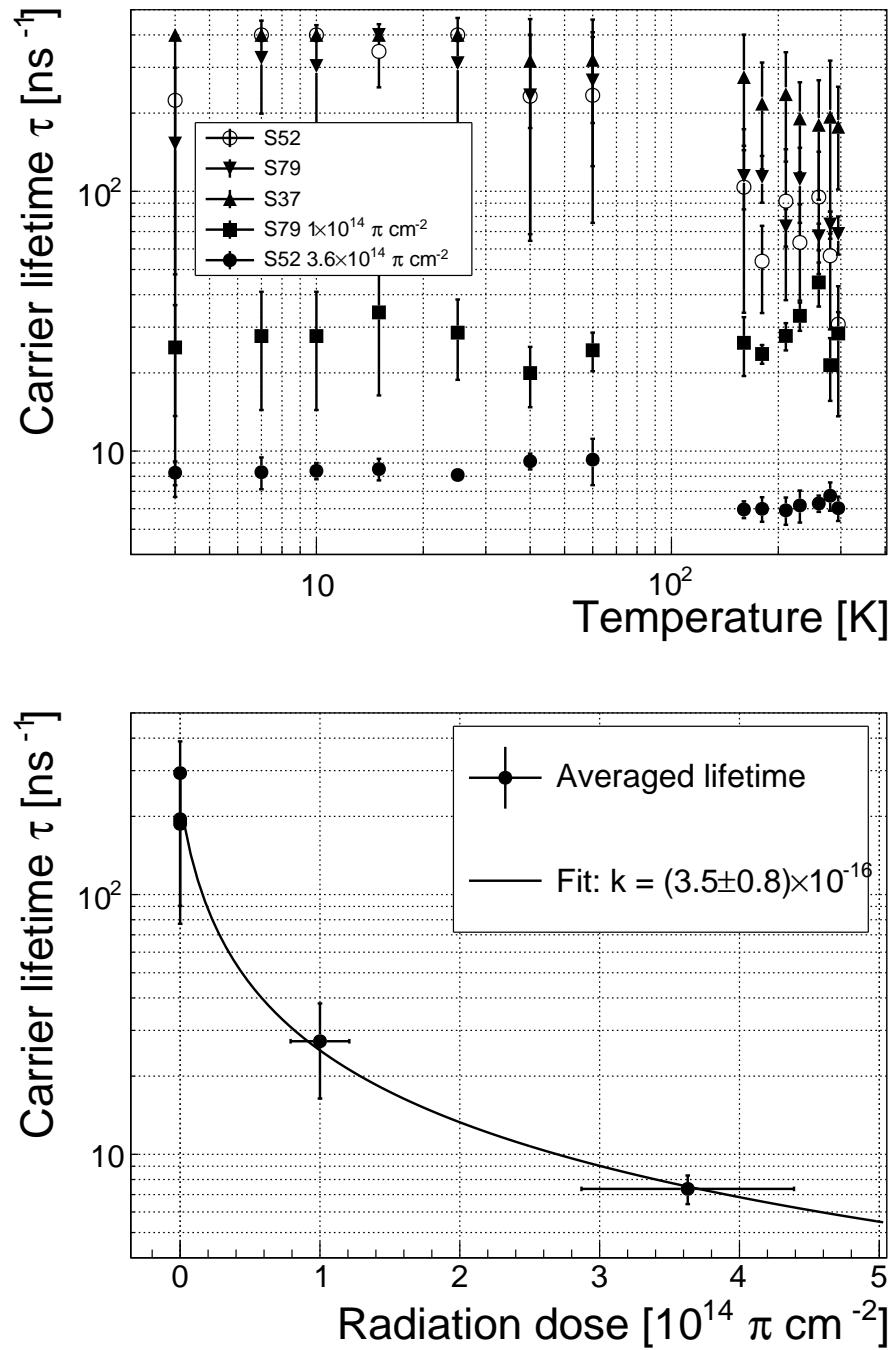


Figure 1.18: Charge carrier lifetime decreases with irradiation, but is stable across the range of temperatures between 4 K – 75 K and 150 K – 295 K. The first figure shows the carrier lifetime as a function of temperature whereas the second figure depicts the carrier lifetime averaged over all temperatures and plotted against the π irradiation dose

683 **1.5 Conclusion**

684 This chapter gives an overview of the capabilities and limitations of diamond as
685 a particle detector. Three effects on diamond were studied – noise, radiation and
686 temperature, the focus being on the latter two.

687 Two sCVD diamond detectors were irradiated with 300 MeV pions. They were
688 tested alongside a non-irradiated sample to observe the changes in the ability to detect
689 α , β and γ radiation. Their charge collection efficiency was measured in a test beam
690 facility using . The results were compared to the results from the RD42 collaboration
691 and a DPA model []. A radiation damage factor $k_\lambda = (3.0 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-18} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$
692 was obtained for $\pi_{300 \text{ MeV}}$ particles. The data point was not in agreement with the
693 data provided by RD42 nor with the model. However, the irradiation process and
694 the low number of tested samples hold a relatively high statistical uncertainty. In
695 addition, there was no diamond surface treatment done in between the measurements,
696 as is the case in the study conducted by RD42. The results obtained in the course
697 of these measurements will also be fed into the existing pool of data in the RD42
698 collaboration.

699 The next step was to test the long-term capabilities for α detection. The shape
700 of the ionisation profile was investigated to determine the behaviour of the charge
701 carriers in the irradiated diamond. An exponential decay was observed in the pulses
702 of irradiated samples, proving that there are charge traps in the bulk that were created
703 during irradiation. Then a long-term stability test was carried out. The results show
704 that the irradiated diamond detectors do not provide a stable and reliable long-term
705 measurement of α particles. This might be due to a space-charge build-up in the
706 bulk, which changes the electric field, affecting the charge carriers. A procedure to
707 improve the pulse shape using β and γ radiation was proposed.

708 Finally, the diamond sensors were cooled down to temperatures between 4 K and
709 295 K. Their response to α particles was observed. The results of the non-irradiated
710 and irradiated samples were compared. The effect of reduction for the number of
711 drifting charges due to exciton recombination was observed in both sets of data.
712 The second set had a superimposed effect of charge trapping during the drift, which
713 was represented by an exponential decay in the signal. The decay time constant
714 did not change with temperature. Therefore all temperature points for individual
715 samples were averaged and the decay time constants were plotted against the received
716 radiation dose. A damage factor equal to $\kappa_\tau = (3.6 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-16} \text{ s cm}^2 \pi_{300 \text{ MeV}}^{-1}$ for
717 non-primed diamonds was defined.