HIGH RESOLUTION PIXEL DETECTORS FOR $e^+e^-$ LINEAR COLLIDERS

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The physics goals at the future $e^+e^-$ linear colliders require high performance vertexing and impact parameter resolution. Two possible technologies for the vertex detector of an experimental apparatus are outlined in the paper: an evolution of the Hybrid Pixel Sensors already used in high energy physics experiments and a new detector concept based on the monolithic CMOS Sensors.

1 Introduction

Precision measurements of Top quark and Higgs boson physics are in the reach of the next generation of $e^+e^-$ linear colliders, operating at a centre of mass...
energy ranging from the $Z^0$ pole to 1 TeV. High granularity, impact parameter resolution, secondary vertex reconstruction and jet flavour tagging are the essential tools for these measurements and define the figures of merit for a Vertex Detector.

In the 1996 Joint DESY/ECFA study, the minimal requests on the impact parameter resolutions in the $R\Phi$ plane and along the beam direction were defined to be:

$$\delta(IP_{R\Phi}) = 10 \mu m \oplus \frac{30 \mu m GeV/c}{p \sin^{5/2}(\theta)}$$

and

$$\delta(IP_z) = 20 \mu m \oplus \frac{30 \mu m GeV/c}{p \sin^{5/2}(\theta)}$$

with a total material budget below $3\% X_0$ for the complete Vertex Detector, fitting between the beam pipe originally at a 2 cm radius and the intermediate tracker starting at 12 cm. Conceptual design of vertex trackers based on hybrid pixel sensors and CCD’s were proposed and Research & Development plans defined.

Since then, several analysis remarked the advantages of possibly improved performances, both in terms of asymptotic resolution and multiple scattering. This triggered the quest for lightweight technologies that could provide space point informations along the particle track with at least 10 $\mu m$ resolution. At the same time, an improved final focusing scheme allowed to shrink the beam pipe to 1 cm radius, with the inner sensitive layer at 1.2 cm.

In the following, two possible detector technologies are presented: the former is based on the development of the Hybrid Pixel Detectors used in DELPHI and WA-97 and being finalized for the LHC experiments; the latter is based on the evolution of monolithic CMOS imagers to achieve the sensitivity to minimum ionizing particles.

2 Hybrid Pixel Detectors

2.1 General concepts

The achievement of a 10 $\mu m$ resolution in a Silicon detector can be accomplished probing the diffusion of the charge carriers locally generated around the impinging particle trail. Given the diffusion characteristics, this require a microstrip or pixel pitch well below 50 $\mu m$ and an analog output to interpolate the signals on neighbouring cells.

While this is feasible with the 1d microstrip detectors, the need to integrate the front-end electronics in a cell matching the detector pattern defines the ultimate pitch in 2d pixel detectors. At the moment, the most advanced read-out chips have a minimum cell dimension of $50 \times 300 \mu m^2$, produced in 0.8 CMOS technology, implemented in a rad-hard process. On one hand, the trend of the VLSI development and the recent studies on intrinsic radiation
hardness of deep submicron CMOS technology certainly allow to assume a relevant reduction in the cell dimensions on a mid-term. On the other hand, a detector design overcoming this basic limitation is worth being considered.

What is being proposed is a layout inherited from the microstrip detectors where it is assumed to have a readout pitch n times larger than the pixel pitch (see for instance fig. for n = 4). In such a configuration, the charge carriers created underneath an interleaved pixel will induce a signal on the output nodes, capacitively coupled to the interleaved pixel. In a simplified model where the detector is reduced to a capacitive network, the ratio of the signal amplitudes on the output nodes at the left hand side and right hand side of the interleaved pixel (in both dimensions) should have a linear dependence on the particle position. The ratio between the inter-pixel capacitance and the pixel capacitance to backplane plays a crucial role in the detector design, as it defines the signal amplitude reduction (an effective charge loss) at the output nodes and at last the sustainable number of interleaved pixels. Recent results on 200 µm readout pitch microstrip detectors have been published, and a 10 µm resolution has been achieved in a layout with 3 interleaved strips (50 µm strip pitch) and for a S/N ≈ 80. Similar results may be expected in a pixel detector, taking into account a lower noise is achievable because of the intrinsically smaller load capacitance and the charge is possibly shared on four output nodes reconstructing the particle position in two dimensions. Improvements are certainly possible sampling the diffusion with a smaller pitch.

2.2 Detector prototypes and electrostatics characterization

Prototypes of detectors with interleaved pixels have been designed in 1998 and delivered in January 1999.

The layout of one of the structures is shown in fig. A series of guard rings defines the detector sensitive area. A bias grid allows the polarization of the interleaved pixels too; each p⁺ implant is connected to the metal bias line by polysilicon resistors in the 1 – 3 MΩ range. A metal layer is deposited on top of the pixels to be connected to the VLSI cell. The backplane has a meshed metal layer to allow the use of an IR diode for charge collection studies. In a 4” wafer 36 structures were fit, for 17 different layouts; a VLSI cell of 200 × 200 µm² or 300 × 300 µm² was assumed and detectors with a number of interleaved pixels ranging between 0 and 3 and different areas were designed.

Ten high resistivity wafers (5 – 8 kΩcm) were processed together with an equal number of low resistivity wafers for process control, the details of

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which have been outlined in Figure 1. Two wafers were retained by the factory for a destructive analysis and two others were stored for later use. All of the structures on five undiced wafers were visually inspected, tested up to 250 V and characteristics I-V and C-V curves produced; the results may be summarized as follows:

- two wafers suffered from processing problems. As a consequence of it, one wafer had a high leakage current (≥1 µA) even at very low voltages on most of the structures; the second wafer had interrupted metal lines, making the bias grid inefficient. The former problem is possibly connected to the Al pattern plasma etching; the latter to a not optimal planarization of the device.

- three wafers had extremely good characteristics, with a mean current ≈50 nA/cm² at full depletion. Structures were classified as good detectors if no breakdown was observed below 100 V, the leakage current at depletion voltage was below 1 µA with a smooth trend vs. the applied voltage and no faults in the line pattern were detected by visual inspection. According to these criteria, 55/89 structures were accepted. In fig. 2 the value of the currents and detector capacitances at depletion voltage are shown for all of structures in one of the three wafers. In fig. 3 the typical I vs. V and 1/C² vs. V curves are shown.

While the C vs. V curves behave as expected, the current has a peculiar trend. After a plateau is reached at full depletion, the current takes off at
Figure 2: Leakage current and capacitance at full depletion voltage for all of the 36 structures in one of the good wafers; circles define the detectors rejected because of breakdowns below 100 V; hexagons identify rejected detectors because of interrupted metal lines. The line corresponds to the expected capacitance per unit area.

Figure 3: I vs. V and 1/C² vs. V curves for a typical good detector
values in the 50 – 70 V range. For most of the structures it is a mild increase, but most of the rejected detectors are characterized by a steep slope, eventually ending with a breakdown below 100 V. Independent measurements of the guard ring and bias grid current has shown the latter is responsible for the increase, that might be connected to sharp edges where the electric field achieves high values. A full device simulation is planned to help understanding this feature.

2.3 Outlook

The prototypes have not shown any design fault even if processing and layout optimization has to be considered. On a short term, measurements of the inter-pixel and backplane capacitances are planned, completing the electrostatics device characterization. A charge collection study will follow, relying on a low noise strip detector analog chip and an IR light spot shone on the meshed backplane. These measurements will be a proof of principle of the proposed device and define the fundamentals for a further iteration, aiming at a 25 µm pitch.

The device thickness is a particularly relevant issue for the application of Hybrid Pixel Sensors in a linear collider experiment. The minimal thickness is defined by both the detector performances and the backthinning technology for bump bonded assembly. Industrial standards guarantee backthinning down to 50 µm and a procedure to obtain thin Hybrid Pixel detectors is being tested [15]. The small load capacitance of the pixel cells shall guarantee an extremely high S/N. Scaling what was obtained for microstrip detectors, the desired resolutions might be obtained with a 200 µm thick detector (a 250 µm (0.27%Xo) thick assembled device). Moreover, the mechanical structure of a three layer vertex detector based on Hybrid Pixel Sensors is being designed and a realistic material budget evaluated.

3 Monolithic Pixel Sensors

3.1 General concepts

In the early 90’s monolithic pixel sensors have been proposed as a viable alternative to CCD’s in visible imaging [9]. These sensors are made in a standard VLSI technology, often CMOS, so they are usually called CMOS imagers. Three main architectures have been proposed, namely: Passive Pixel Sensors (PPS) and Active Pixel Sensors (APS) with photodiode or photogate. In the former, a photodiode is integrated in each pixel together with a selection switch, while in the latter (fig. 3), three transistors are usually integrated
Figure 4: The baseline architecture of a monolithic APS. Transistor M1 resets the photosite to reverse bias; transistor M3 is a column select switch, while transistor M2 is the input of a source follower, whose current source is located outside the pixel.

together with a photosite.

Today, most of the sensors are based on APS because of their superior noise performances: electron noise can be as low as $4.5 \times 10^{-9}$ r.m.s. at room temperature.

The use of standard CMOS technology gives APS several advantages with respect to the more generally used CCD’s: they are low cost; inherently radiation hard; several functionalities can be integrated on the sensor substrate, including random access; they consume very little power as the circuitry in each pixel is active only during the readout and there is no clock signal driving large capacitances.

Because of these characteristics, CMOS sensors are the favoured technology for demanding applications which are typically found in space science.

3.2 CMOS sensors for charged particle detection

In visible light applications, special care is taken to maximise the fill factor, i.e. the fraction of the pixel area that is sensitive to the light. Because of the transistors, fill factors in CMOS sensors are relatively low (in the order of 30%). This can be a severe limitation in high-energy physics application, if no special care is taken. One of us proposed to integrate a sensor in a twin-well technology with an n-well/p-substrate diode in order to achieve 100% fill factor for ionizing particle detection (fig. 5). This technique has already proven its effectiveness in visible light applications, reducing the blind area to the metal lines, opaque for visible light but not for charged particles.

CMOS sensors could achieve high spatial resolution: the pixel size is usually between 10 and 20 times the Minimal Size Feature of the used technology,
which means that 10 μm pitch is possible, and hence spatial resolution better than 3 μm even with a binary readout. At the same time, very low multiple scattering is introduced as the substrate can in principle be thinned down to a few microns. A charge particle CMOS detector would also benefit from the generic characteristics of these devices, including low power dissipation, radiation resistance of deep submicron CMOS technologies and low cost.

3.3 CMOS sensors for a Linear Collider

In order to prove the effectiveness of CMOS sensors for the Next Linear Collider, an R&D program has been initiated by the Strasbourg group. Some existing commercial devices are currently under test. Since the performances of the sensors depend on details of the fabrication process, a full-custom design of a first prototype sensor (MIMOSA = MIP MOS APS) has been done in a 0.6 μm CMOS technology. The circuit will be back from the foundry in autumn 1999.

A preliminary detector design of a Microvertex Detector based on CMOS sensors was also completed. The detector is supposed to be made of 5 layers, the inner most having a radius of 1.2 cm. It is made of a cylindrical barrel part (|\cos(\theta)| < 0.90) associated to forward and backward conical and disk-like extensions (0.90 < |\cos(\theta)| < 0.99), intercepting with at least 4 layers charged particles produced at polar angles ranging from 6 to 174 degrees. The sensors are assumed to be 50 μm thick squares of 1.4 × 1.4 cm² area, with an active
surface close to 80%. Assuming a few per-cent overlap between the active surfaces of neighbour sensors, about 5500 units are needed to cover the 1.7 m$^2$ area of the detector. Since the sensors have low power dissipation, a mechanical support made of 100 µm thick, 7 mm large, thermal diamond rods was considered. A detailed simulation showed that such a device, connected to a light system of thin cooling pipes, would provide enough thermal conduction by itself to evacuate the heat from the sensors, thus substantially reducing the material seen by the particles. The simulation of the mechanical constraints showed that the bending of the rods should nowhere exceed a 30 µm sagitta. As a further advantage, diamond aluminised with a few micron thick layer could fan in/out all the electrical signals. Globally, the material budget is such that particles crossing the 5 detector planes would in average see a total amount of 0.8% radiation length in the barrel and 2.9% in the forward-backward parts, values making the CMOS sensor based vertex detector very competitive.

4 Conclusions

Two detector technologies suitable for a Vertex Detector at the next generation of $e^+e^-$ colliders have been presented in the paper. Hybrid Pixel Sensors could achieve the desired performances overcoming the limitations defined by the electronics cell dimension, mating the pixel, and developing a dedicated analog readout chip. Charge sharing and S/N ratio are the critical issues for these detectors as they determine both the resolution and the minimal detector thickness. Detector prototypes have been produced; the electrostatics characterization is ongoing and the first results are positive. Monolithic CMOS sensors could achieve an excellent resolution introducing a very low multiple scattering. Impressive results as visible light detectors have been recently obtained and a custom designed device optimized for ionizing particles have been submitted.

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