

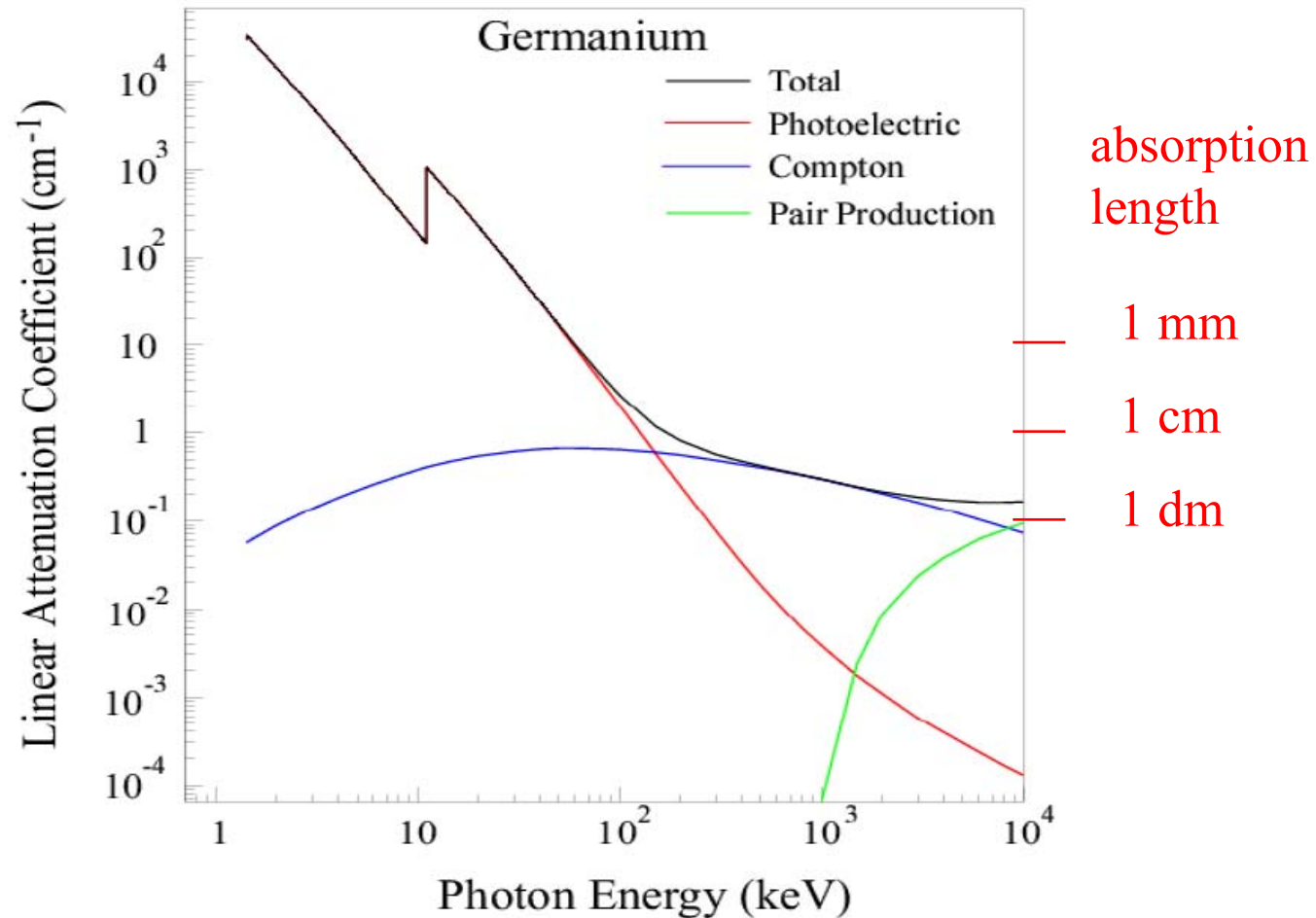
Semiconductor Scintillators and Three-Dimensional Integration



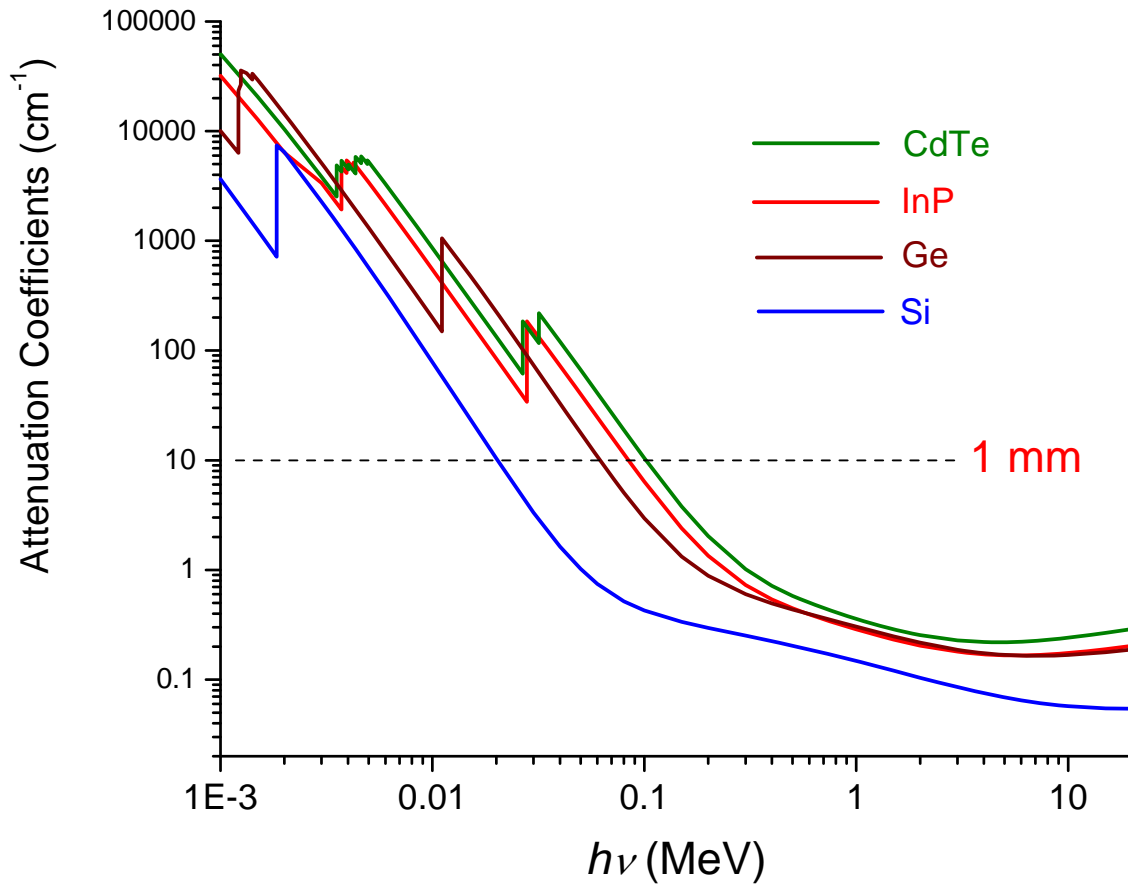
critical needs:

- Isotope identification
 - spectroscopic energy resolution
- Direction to source
 - angular resolution

X-ray (γ -ray) attenuation

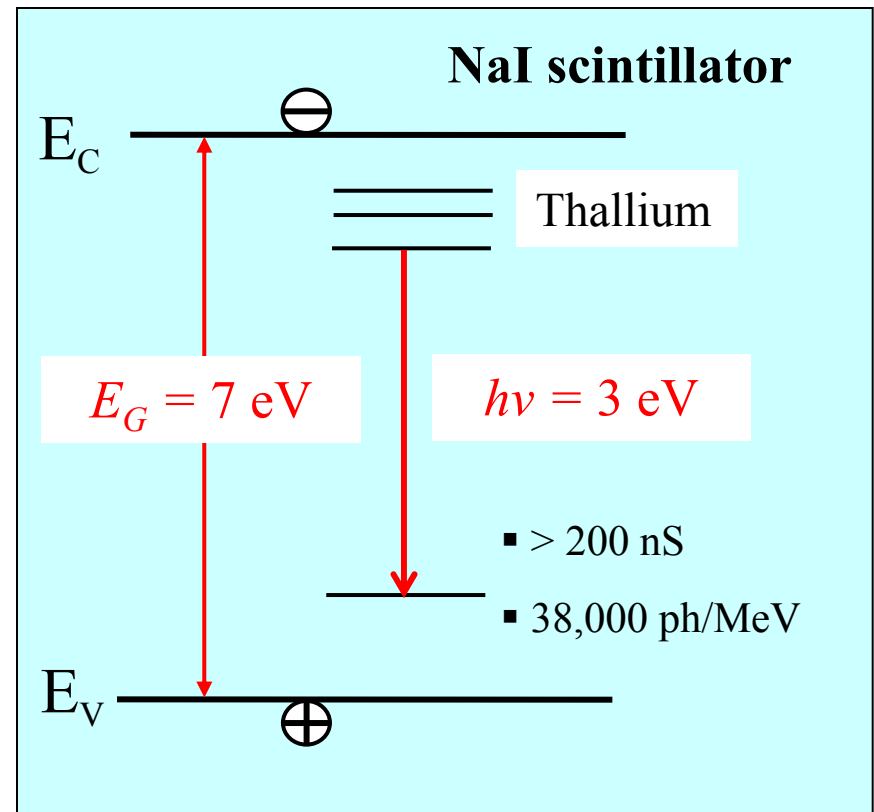
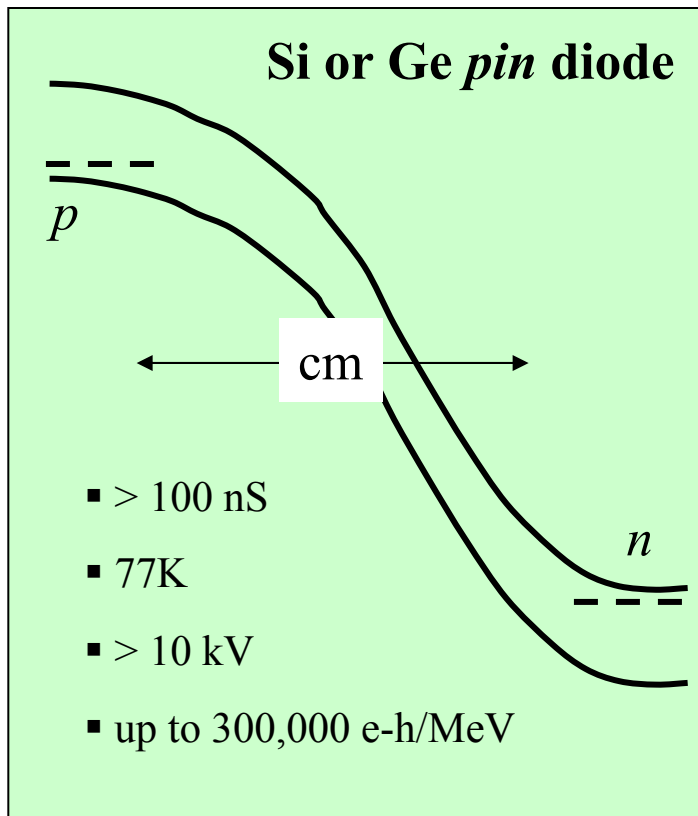


X-ray (γ -ray) attenuation by materials

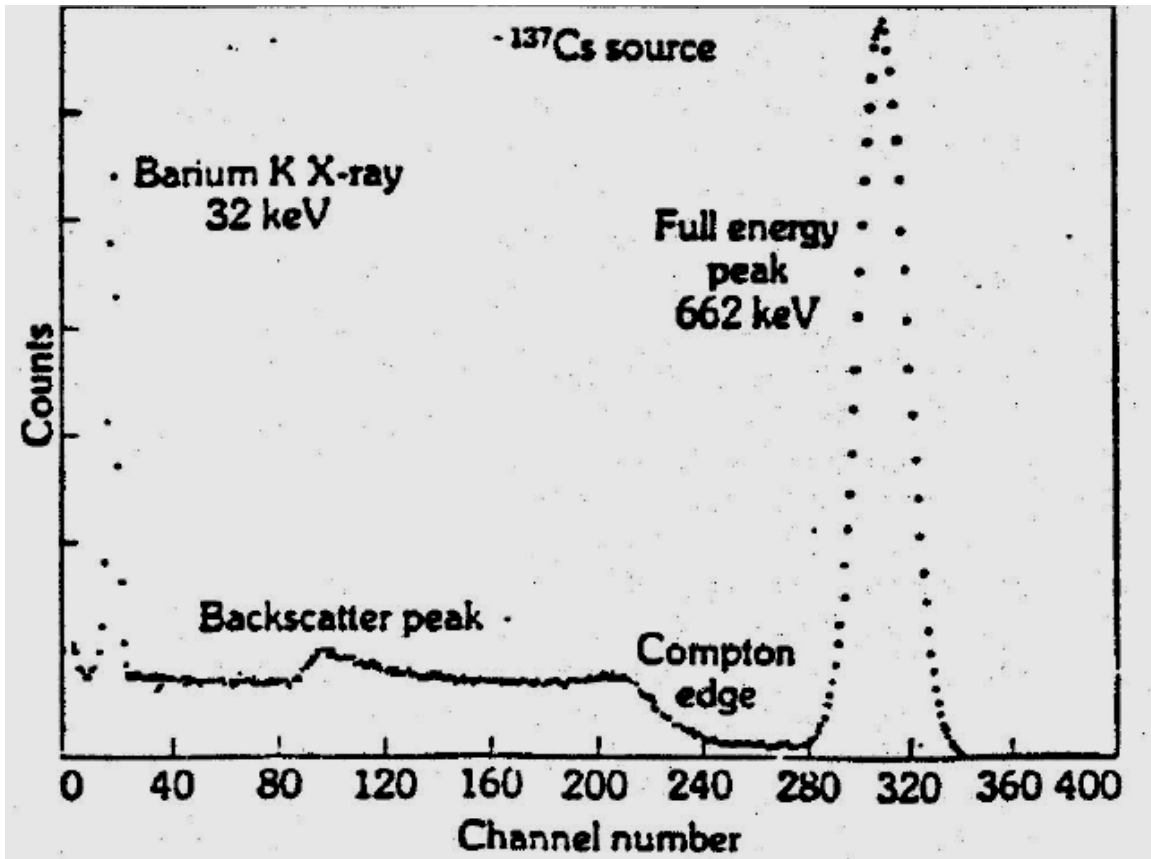


Element	Z
Si	14×2
Ga/As	31/33
Ge	32×2
In/P	49/15
Cd/Te	48/52

Semiconductors and scintillators



Gamma spectroscopy



One measures the number N of electrons and holes produced by incident gamma particle

$$N \sim E_\gamma$$

That number fluctuates.

If the statistics of N were Poisson,

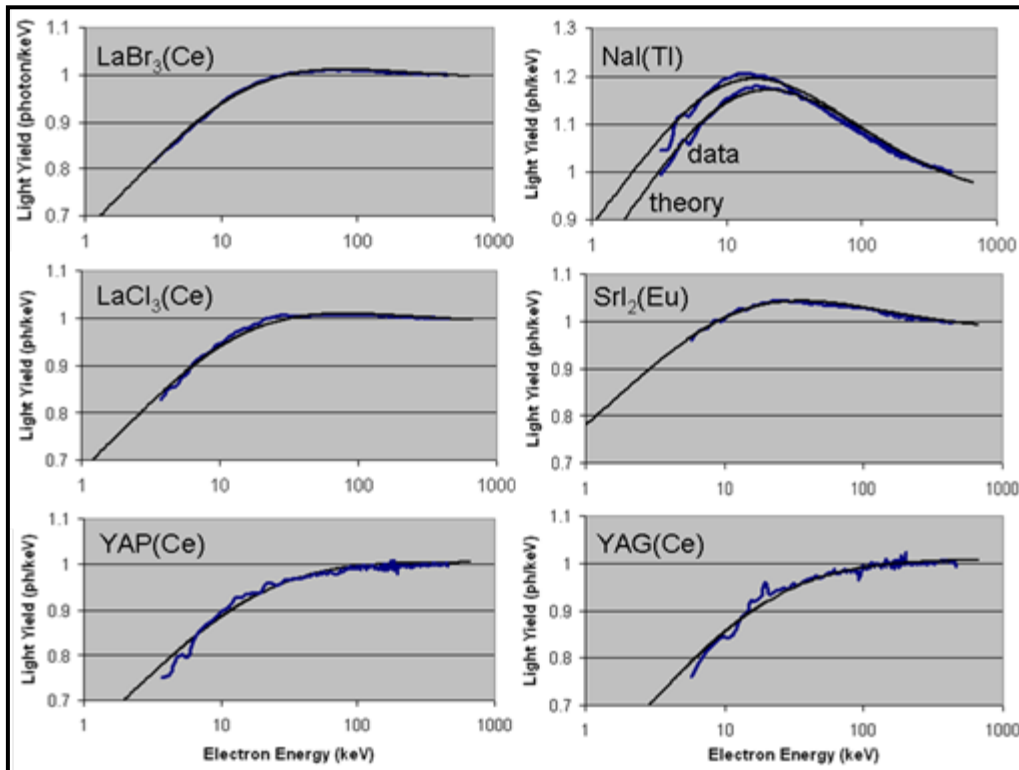
$$\text{var}(N) = N$$

but due to correlations
(in semiconductors)

$$\text{var}(N) = FN$$

the Fano factor, $F \approx 0.1$

Non-proportionality in scintillators



Need: $N \sim E_\gamma$ but ...

Luminescence in dielectric scintillators is controlled by reactions nonlinear in N (exciton formation, Auger, etc.)

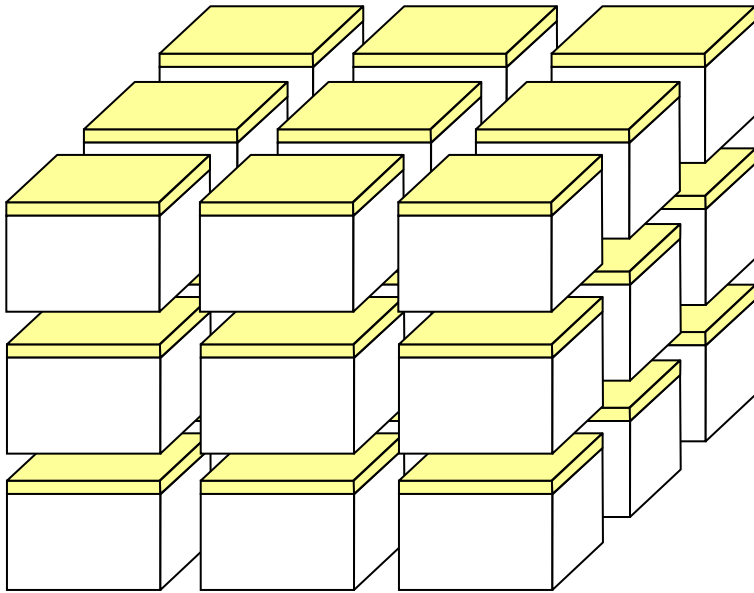
This is one of the reasons γ spectroscopy with scintillators is not as accurate as it is with semiconductor (diodes).

In semiconductor scintillators, every reaction on the way to luminescence is *linear* in the N of *minority carriers*

Expect *no* non-proportionality effects!

S. A. Payne *et al* (LLNL group), preprint, 2009

3D scintillator array



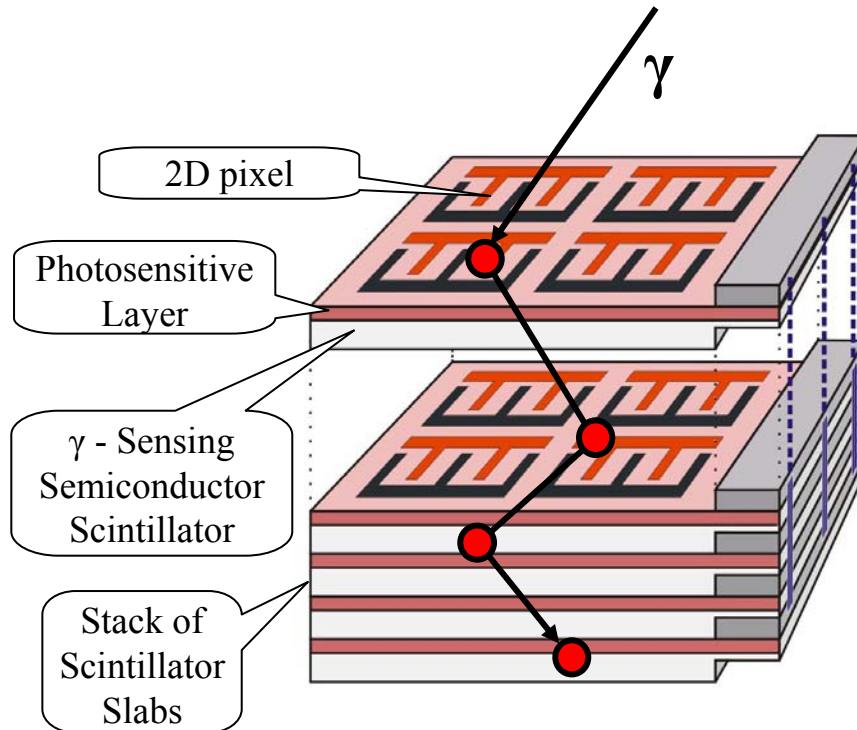
Semiconductor scintillators, each endowed with its own photoreceiver

$10 \times 10 \times 10$ array contemplated

Enables *both* isotope discrimination and determination of the direction to source

A different way of determining E_γ (unlike γ spectroscopy)

3D pixellation of response to a single γ photon

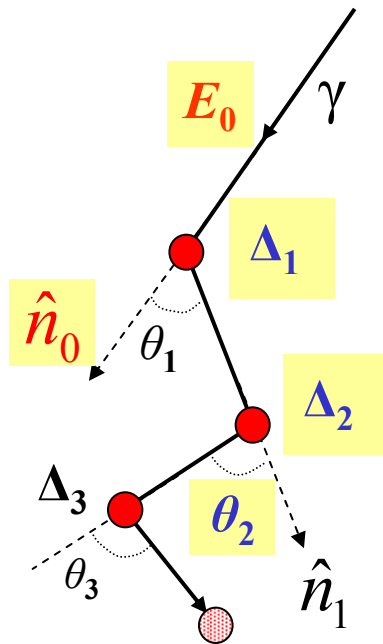


Upon analog-to-digital conversion each unit reports not a 1 ns pulse but an information-carrying signal:

- where ionization occurred
- time of the event
- amplitude of the event

Compton "telescope"

Compton kinematics:



$$\cos \theta_i = 1 + E_{i-1}^{-1} - E_i^{-1}$$

$$\Delta_i = E_{i-1} - E_i$$

two equations at each interaction site i

(in units of $m_e c^2 = 511 \text{ keV}$)

The energy E_0 of the incident γ -photon

$$E_0 = \Delta_1 + \frac{\Delta_2}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\Delta_2^2 + \frac{4\Delta_2}{1 - \cos \theta_2} \right)$$

The incident direction

$$\cos \theta_1 = 1 + \left(\frac{1}{E_0} - \frac{1}{E_1} \right)$$

What is needed

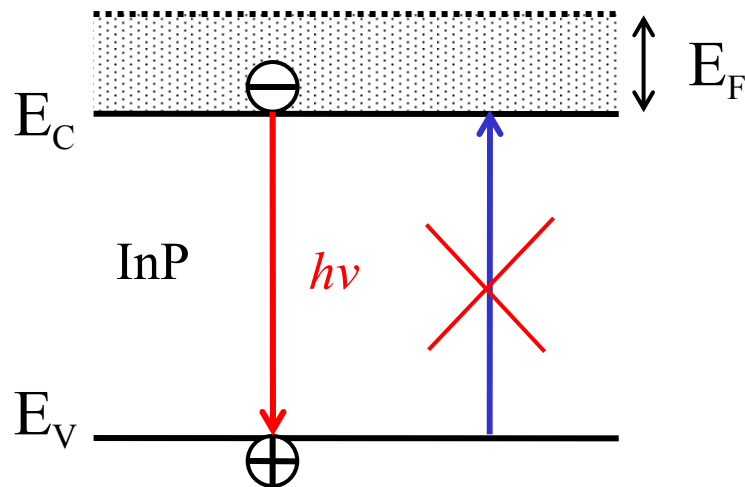
The triad:

- Semiconductor scintillator
“transparent” to its own luminescence
- Integrated (optically tight) surface photoreceiver system
of slightly smaller bandgap
- Readout ASIC
customized to the photoreceiver system

I will focus on the first two legs of the triad

Semiconductor scintillator: transparency

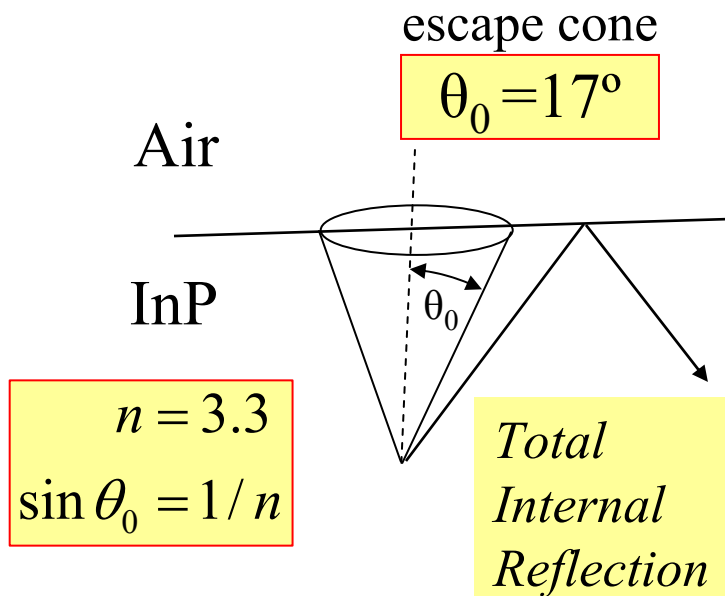
- *Need material transparent to its own fundamental light emission*
- *Photons must be delivered to the surface*



- Moss-Burstein shift
- Photon re-absorption suppressed
- Radiative decay time $\approx 10^{-9}$ s

“Conventional” transparency

Need for optically-tight photoreceiver



escaping fraction of photons

$$\frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{\theta_0} \sin \theta \, d\phi d\theta = \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta_0}{2}\right) \approx 0.023$$

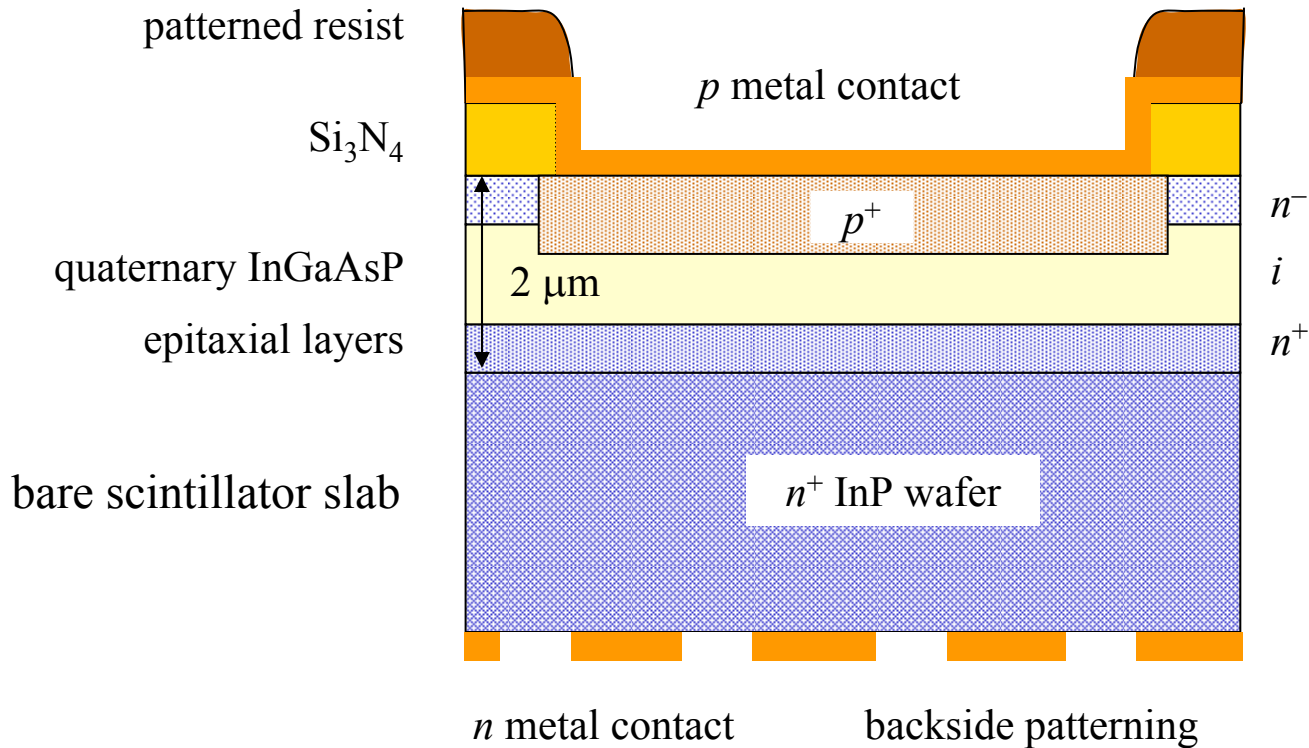
2% ☹️ *for free-space detectors*

Optically-tight integrated detectors collect the entire scintillating radiation

Epitaxial InGaAsP diodes on InP

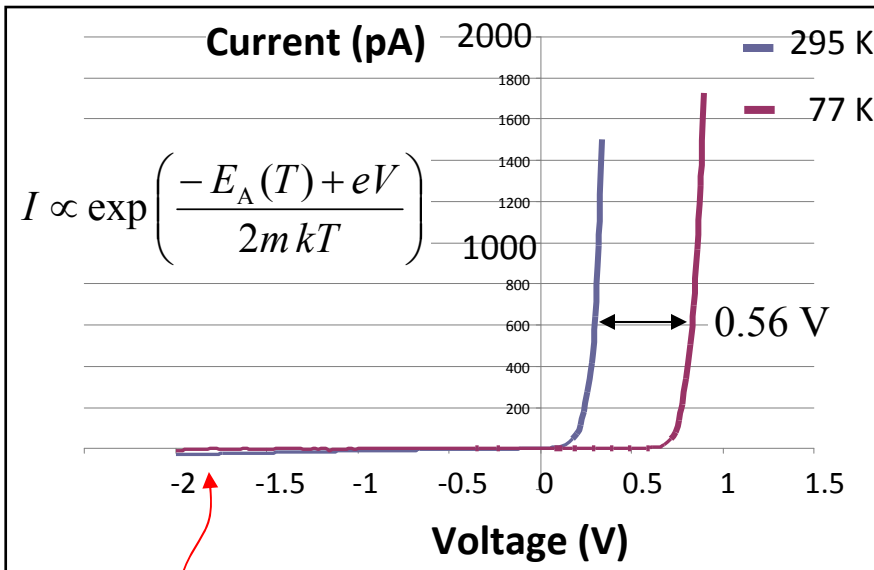
Epitaxially integrated *pin* diode

Sarnoff – SBU collaboration

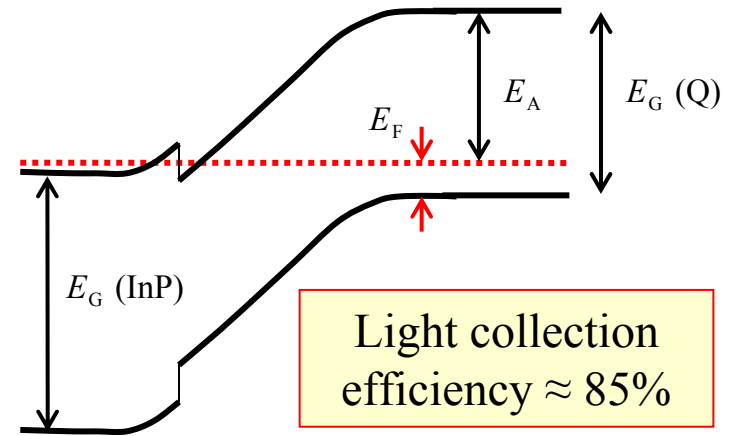


Characteristics of quaternary epi diodes

IV Characteristics of Diodes at 300 and 77 K



< 10 pA at 300 K
(1 pA in best diodes)



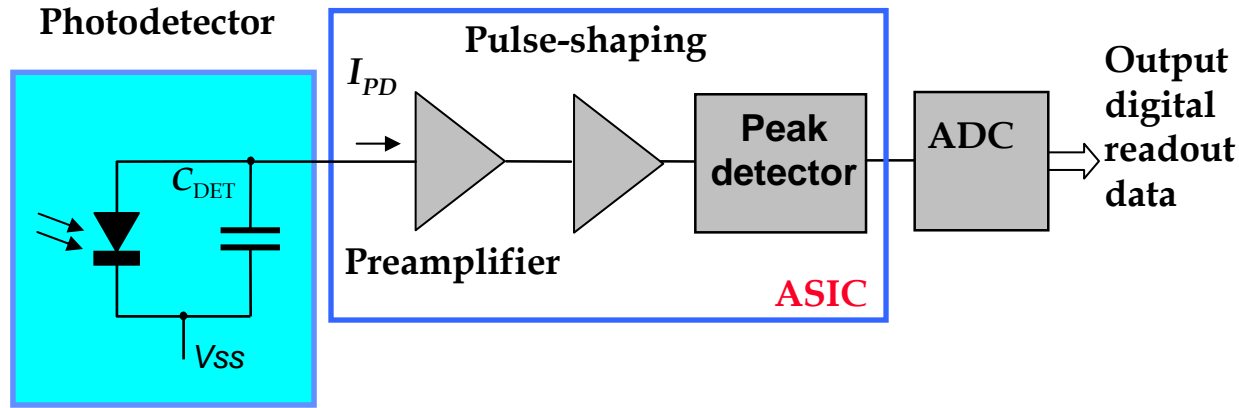
$$E_A(300\text{K}) \approx 1 \text{ eV (expt)}$$

$$E_G(Q; 300\text{K}) = 1.24 \text{ eV (designed)}$$

$$E_F = 0.23 \text{ eV (for } n \approx 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}\text{)}$$

as determined by *CV* profiling
both estimate jibe !

Read-Out Circuits



$$ENC^2 = (C_{DET} + C_{MOS})^2 \left[\frac{a_{th}}{\tau} \cdot \frac{8kT}{3g_m} + \frac{a_f K_f}{C_{MOS} \cdot f} \right] + a_{sh} \tau 2qI_{LK}$$

ENC – currently: 3×10^3

Next generation: $< 10^3$

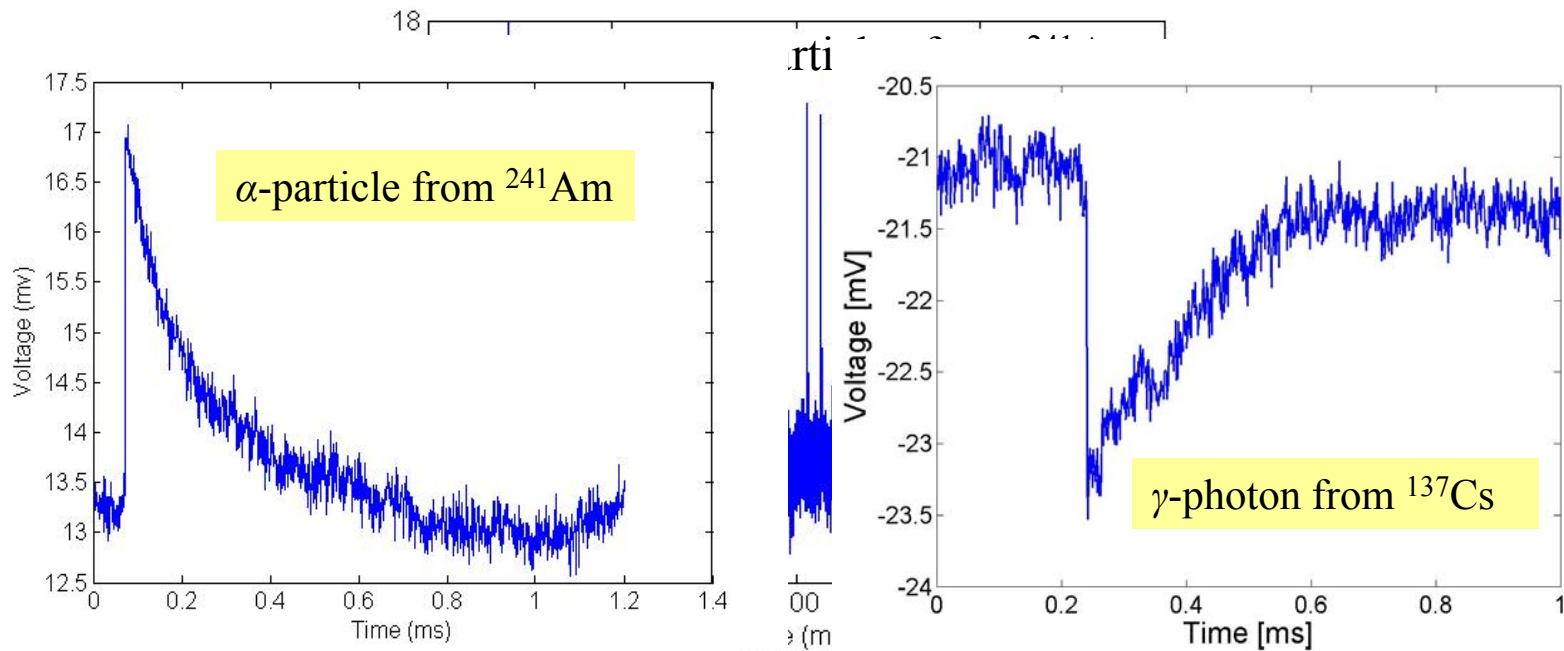
thermal noise

☹ high $C_{DET} \approx 50$ pF

shot noise

☺ low $I_{LK} \approx 10$ pA

Single-quanta response



Train of scintillator pulses recorded as voltage waveform in the read-out circuit

Making semiconductor transparent

... to its own fundamental luminescence

- Moss-Burstein shift
Success “mixed”
- Photon recycling
Nearly ideal *non-transparent* scintillator
- Subband luminescence centers
E.g., Yb^{3+} luminescent ion in InP ($1\mu\text{m}$ emission)
- Impregnated “guest-host” structures
Non-layered two-phase random systems

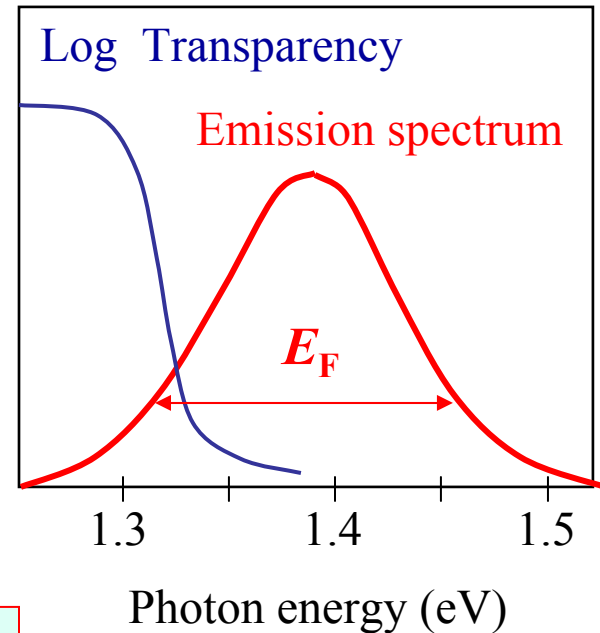
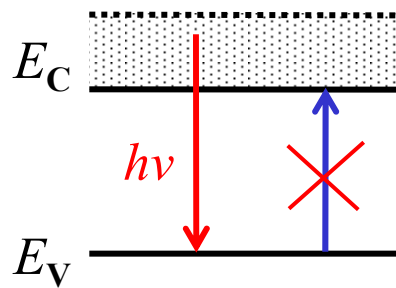
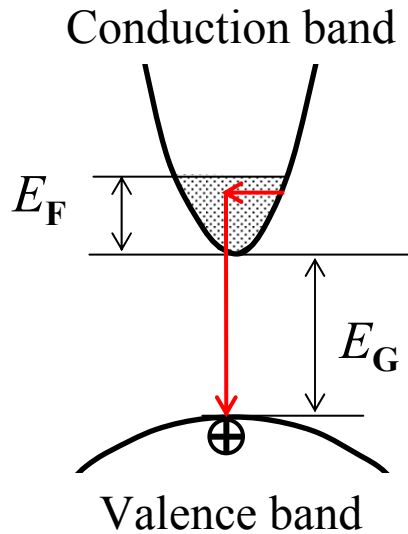
... new ideas are welcome

Transparency: theory vs. reality

no free
lunch



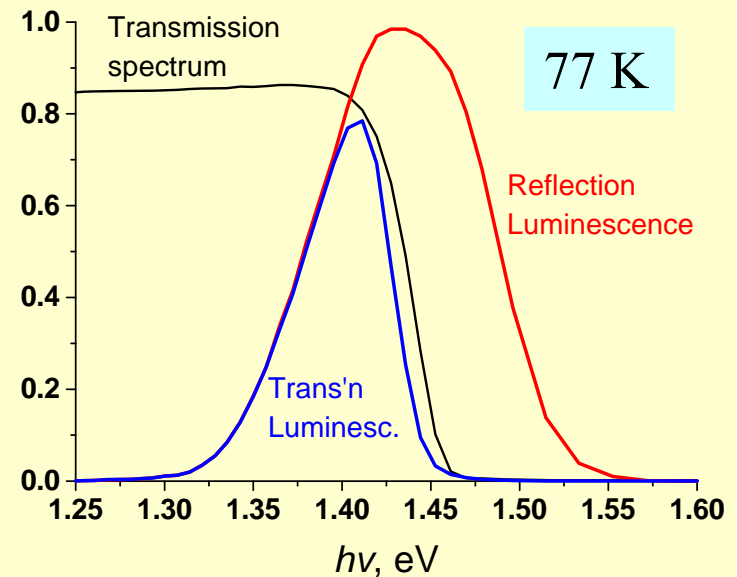
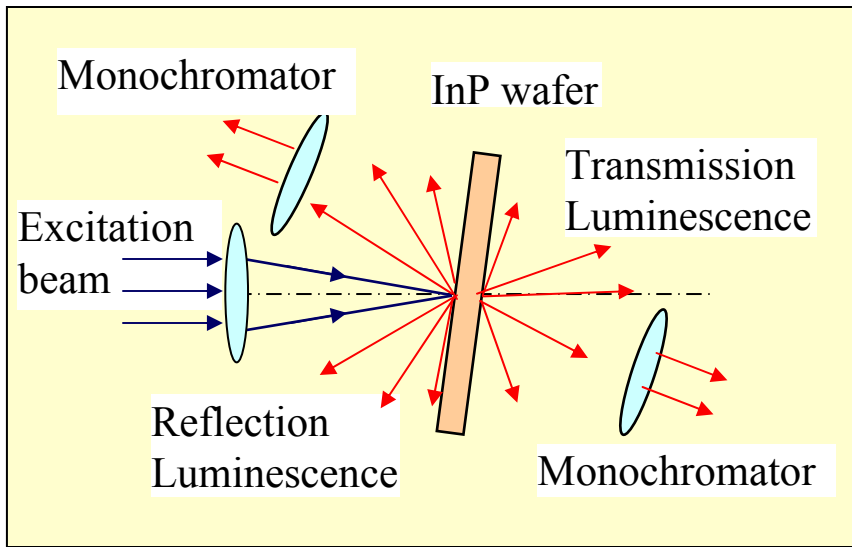
Momentum non-conservation in heavily-doped InP



*“Average” (over the emission spectrum)
photon mean free path is about 0.1 mm*

Luminescence Experiments

InP, $N_D = 6.3 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (S)

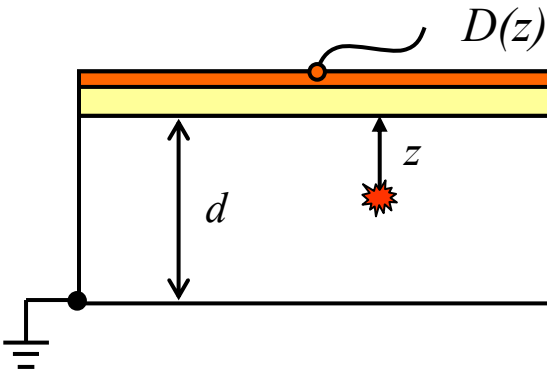
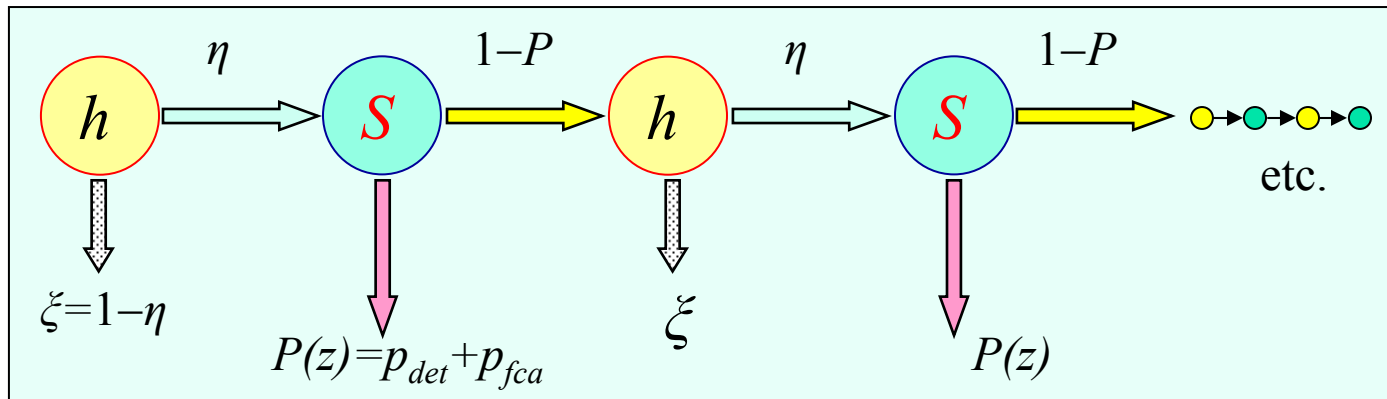


Heavily doped n-type InP wafers from Nikko materials (ACROTEC)

Transport of Holes/Photons

- In a direct-gap n -type semiconductor, an event of interband absorption does not finish off the photon:
 - It emerges as a new hole and then again a new photon (spectrum)
- Holes and photons inside are “interchangeable” entities
 - As a photon, its lifetime is limited by free-carrier absorption (rate $\sim n$).
Key parameter — *residual absorption coefficient* μ_r
 - As a hole, its lifetime is limited by non-radiative processes, (rate $\sim n^2$).
Key parameter — *radiative efficiency* η
- Photon “recycling”
 - a.k.a. photon-assisted diffusion of holes

Photon recycling



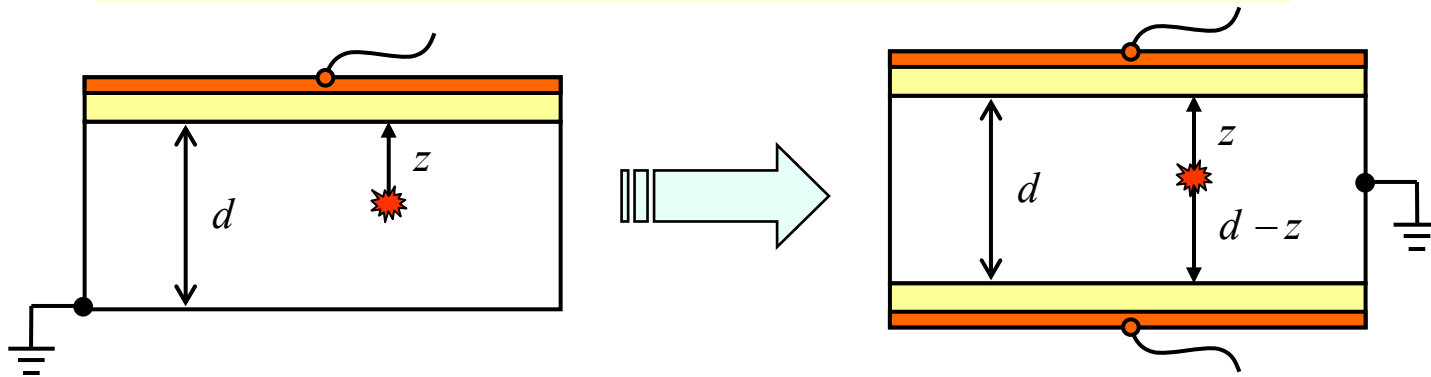
$$D(z) = \eta p_{\text{det}} \times \sum_{n=0} [\eta(1-P)]^n = \frac{\eta p_{\text{det}}(z)}{\xi + \eta P(z)}$$

where $\eta \approx 0.9$ is the radiative efficiency
and $\xi = 1 - \eta$

Problem with InP and possible remedy

The signal dependence on the position $D(z)$ presents a fundamental problem for the intended application:

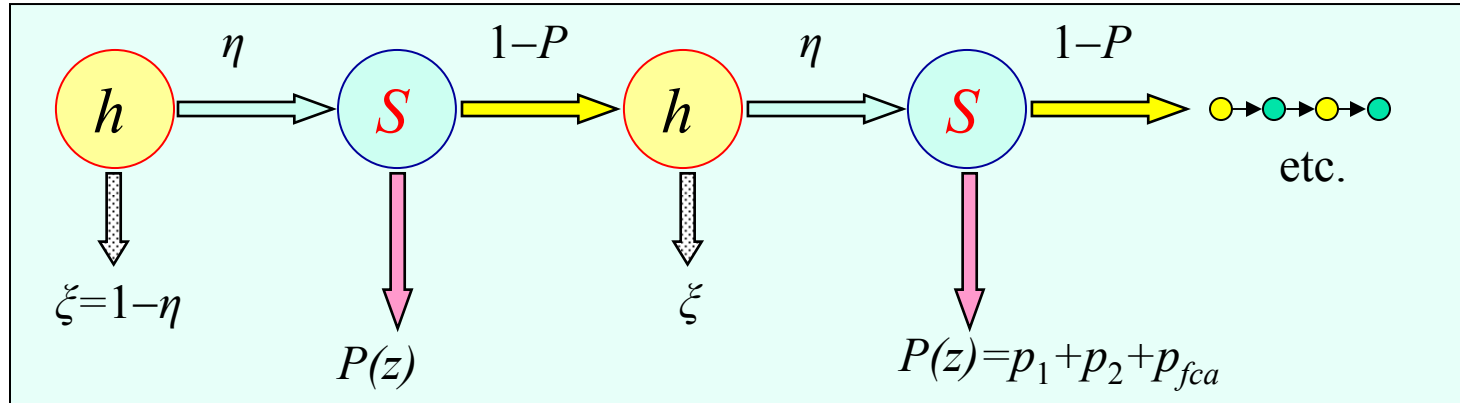
- ☹️ How do we distinguish large faraway event from a smaller event closer to the detector surface?
- ☹️ Can we correct for the z dependence?
- ☺️ Double-sided epi detector



if we know z , we can correct for the attenuation

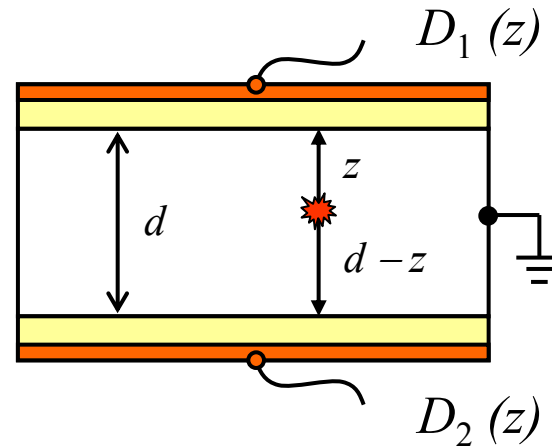
J. H. Abeles & S. Luryi
US Pat. Prov. Appl. (May 2009)

Photon recycling with 2-sided detector



$$D_1(z) = \frac{\eta p_1(z)}{\xi + \eta P(z)}$$

$$D_2(z) = \frac{\eta p_2(z)}{\xi + \eta P(z)}$$



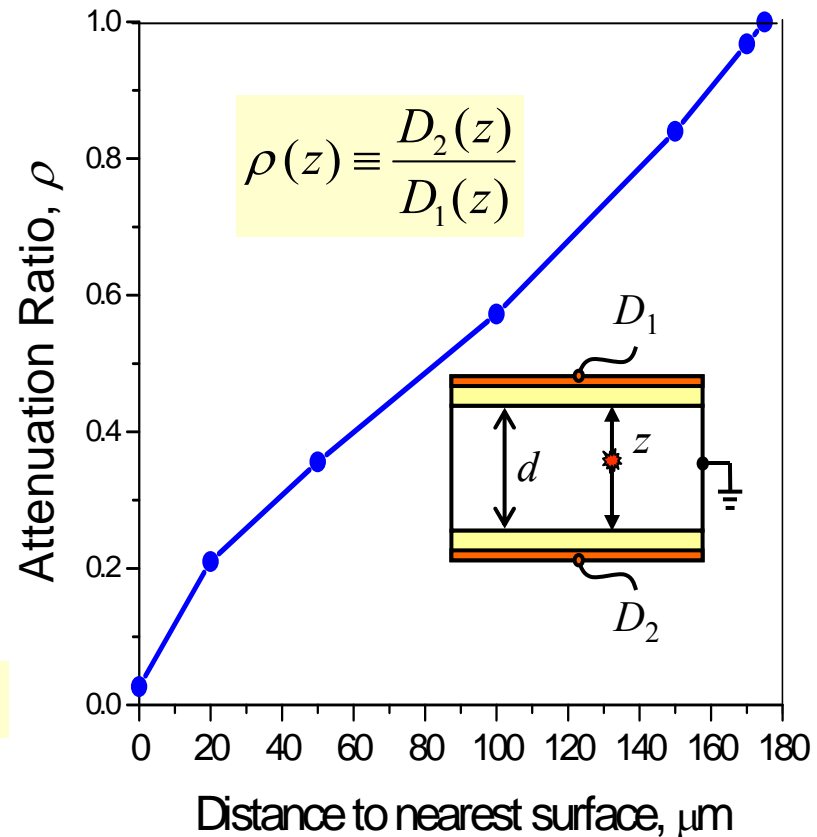
Calculated attenuation ratio

$$D_1(z) = \frac{\eta p_1(z)}{\xi + \eta P(z)}$$

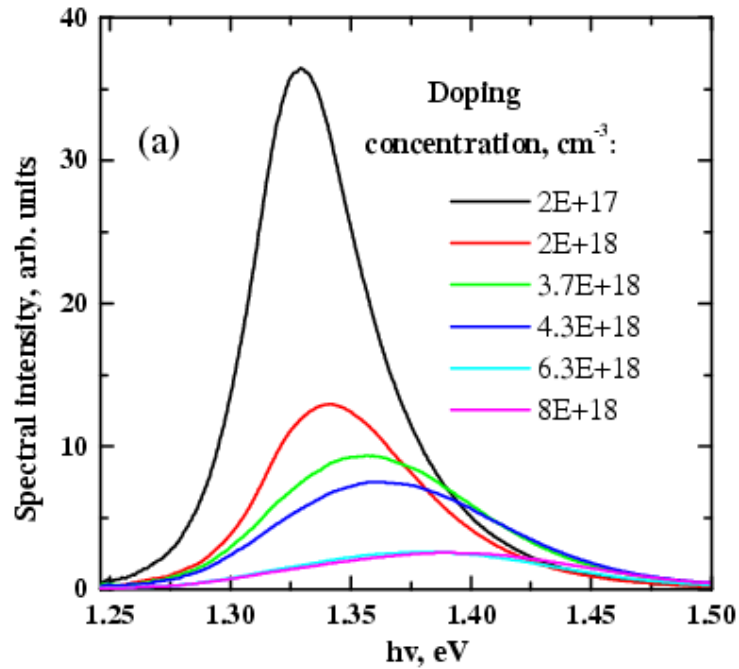
$$D_2(z) = \frac{\eta p_2(z)}{\xi + \eta P(z)}$$

$$\frac{D_1(z)}{D_2(z)} = \frac{p_1(z)}{p_2(z)}$$

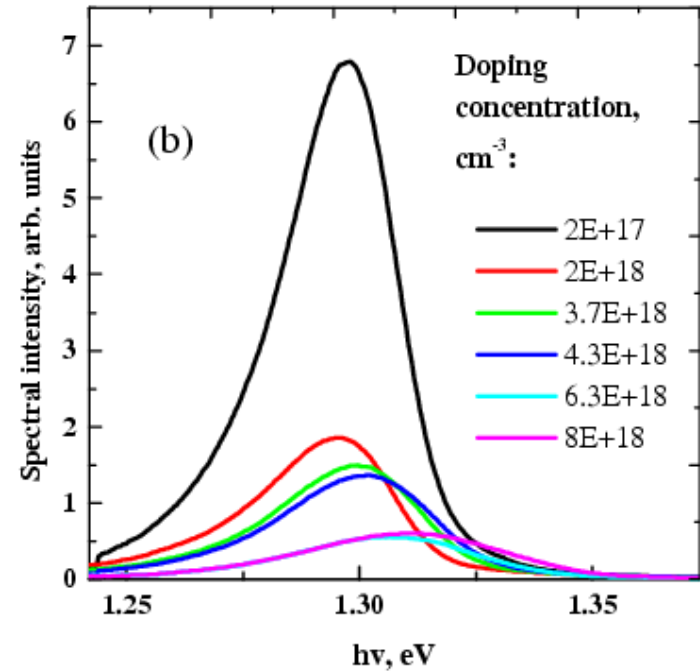
ratio of single-pass probabilities



Lightly doped InP: bright luminescence

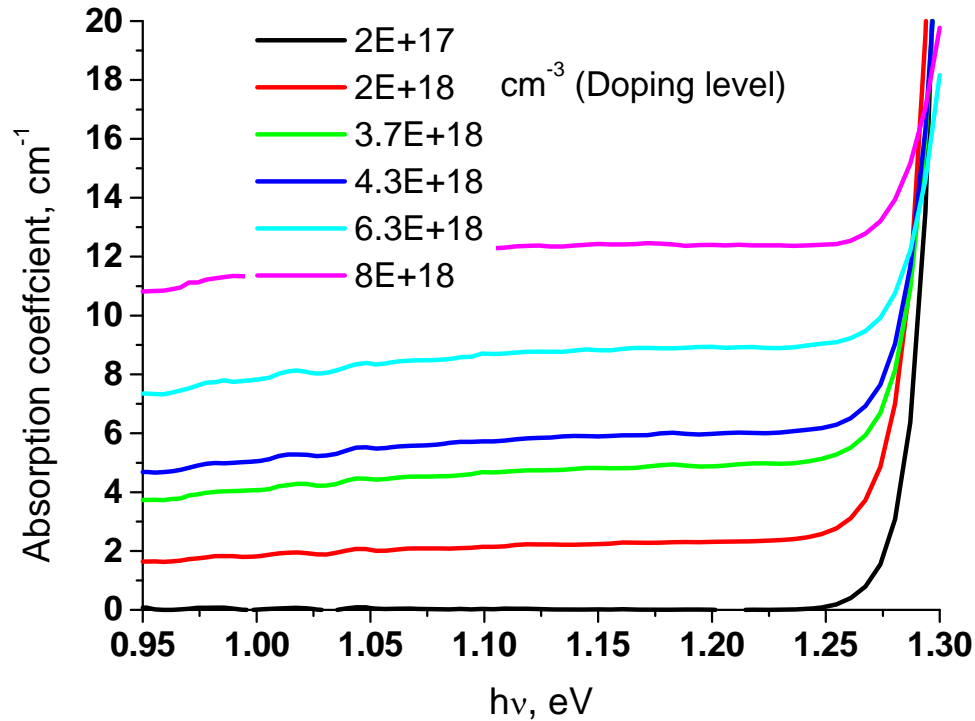


Reflection geometry



Transmission geometry

Lightly doped InP: low free-carrier abs'n

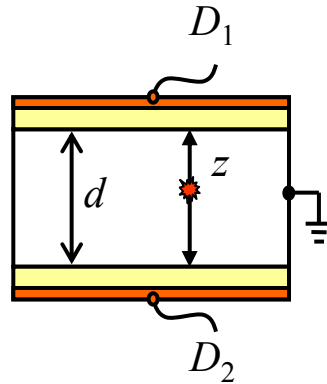


For $N_D = 2 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, the measured $\alpha_{\text{FCA}} < 0.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

Ideal *non-transparent* scintillator

$$D_1(z) = \frac{\eta p_1(z)}{\xi + \eta P(z)}$$

$$D_2(z) = \frac{\eta p_2(z)}{\xi + \eta P(z)}$$



Based on photon recycling in low-doped ($2 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$) InP, where:

$\eta \approx 98\text{-}99\%$ *and* FCA negligible

$$D_1(z) + D_2(z) = \frac{\eta [p_1(z) + p_2(z)]}{\xi + \eta P(z)}$$

$$\text{PCE} = \frac{\eta [p_1(z) + p_2(z)]}{(1 - \eta) + \eta [p_1(z) + p_2(z) + p_{FCA}]}$$

for $\eta \approx 98\%$, PCE = 91%

for $\eta \approx 99\%$, PCE = 95%

Unusual situation: semiconductor is opaque, in the conventional sense, but photon collection efficiency approaches unity. No losses!

Pause for reflection

Two-sided detection pinpoints the z -coordinate precisely because of distance-dependent attenuation of single-pass photons

Would not work in a *transparent* scintillator (except for the factor of 2)

Suppose we find semiconductor with *much* higher PCE?

Is there advantage in 2-sided detection (apart from the factor of 2)?

Precision of z determination is no longer $\pm d$, hence can make thick voxels!

Search for better PCE

Must be accompanied by due regard to leg 2 of the triad (integrated PD)

Going beyond InP needs ideas for optically tight integration

Two-phase semiconductor structures

Random non-planar inclusions:
“impregnations”

Layer

Transparency enhancement by the duty cycle factor, $(d/a) \ll 100$

Difficult

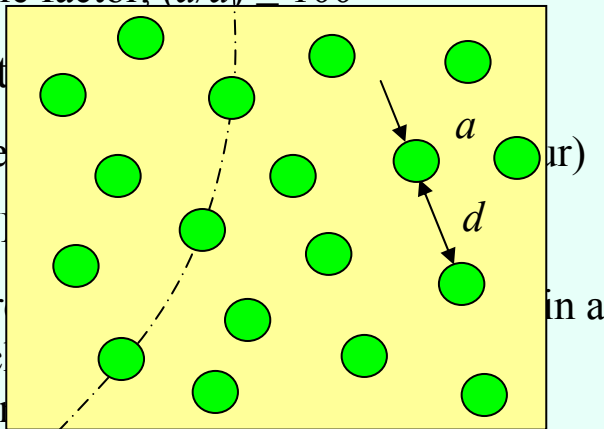
Need

HV

Har

thic

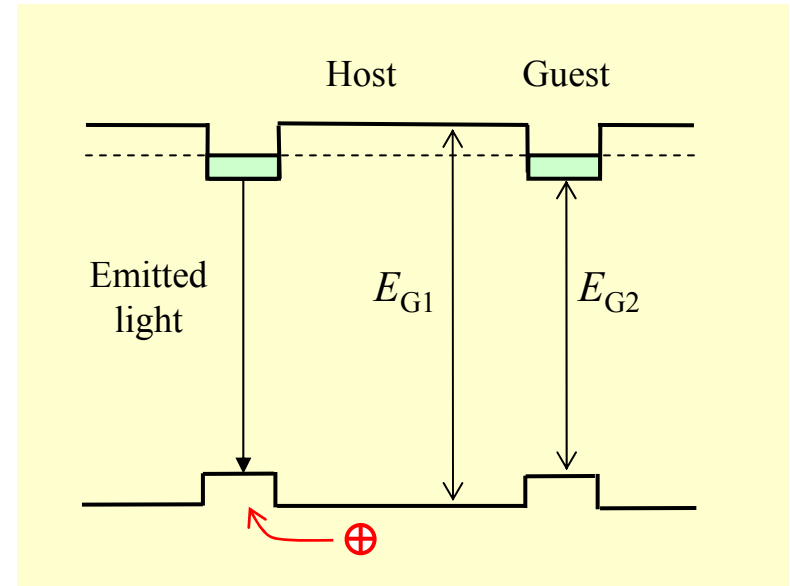
ever



Still worth trying!

Any volume

- Transparency gain scales as ratio of volumes $(d/a)^3$
- Lattice-matching requirement is removed



holes still migrate to the nearest inclusion

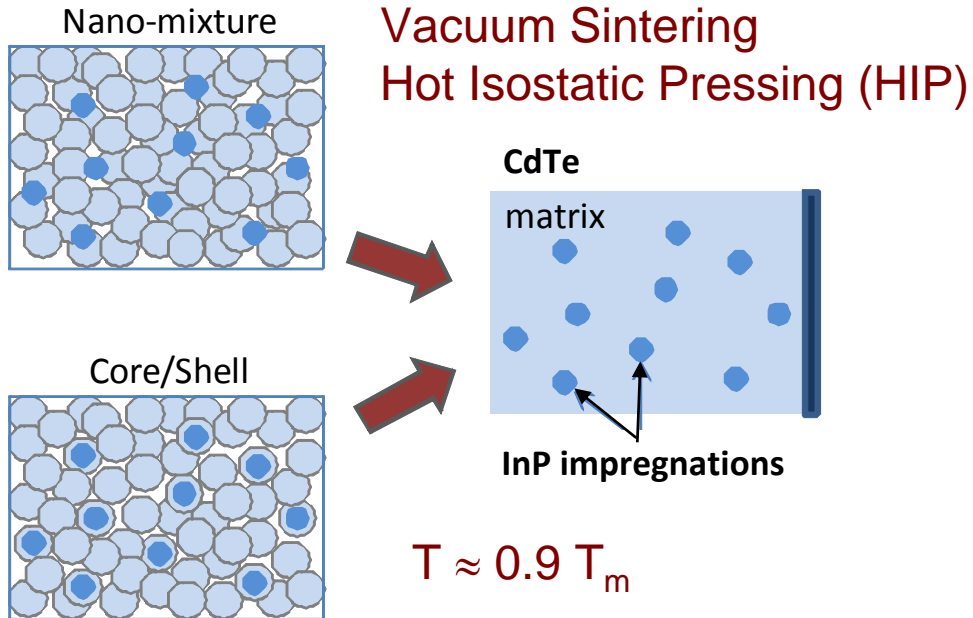
lifetime limited

Making a bulk impregnated structure ...

- Direct growth with interruptions and self-organization
e.g. InGaAs quantum dots on GaAs substrate
- Phase separation via spinodal decomposition
e.g. VPE grown InGaN shows subband emission (Shur)
- Transparent ceramics techniques (LLNL)
Consolidation of nano-dot powders (e.g. ZnSe) by HIP
Two-phase ceramic, e.g. InP guest in CdTe matrix

... any other ideas ?

Two-phase transparent ceramics



*impregnations must have smaller bandgap
but higher melting point*

Mater.	E_G (eV)	T_m (°C)
ZnS	3.68	1,850
ZnSe	2.822	1,100
ZnTe	2.394	1,240
CdS	2.50	1,750
CdSe	1.714	1,350
CdTe	1.474	1,041
InP	1.344	1,060
GaAs	1.424	1,240

Dots	Matrix
CdSe	ZnTe
CdSe	ZnSe
ZnTe	ZnSe
CdS	ZnSe
InP	CdTe

Summary

- Semiconductor scintillators – enabling technology
 - Compact and portable Compton telescope
 - 3D array of units, each endowed with integrated photoreceiver
 - Optically tight integration, two-sided photodiode
- Semiconductors “transparent” to own luminescence
 - Direct-gap semiconductors with photon recycling
 - Semiconductors activated with luminescent centers
 - Composite “impregnated” systems

Sponsors

Semiconductor high-energy radiation detector
with excellent isotope identification and
directional capability (DHS)



Three-Dimensionally Pixellated
Semiconductor Scintillator
(DHS/NSF)



Energy and Spatial Correlation Effects in the
Energy Resolution of Semiconductor
Radiation Detectors (DTRA)



Going beyond InP... e.g., GaAs

GaAs may be better than InP, but

■ GaAs pros

- Higher radiative recombination coefficient, while nonradiative similar

$$B_{\text{GaAs}} \approx 7B_{\text{InP}}$$

$$C_{\text{GaAs}} \approx C_{\text{InP}}$$

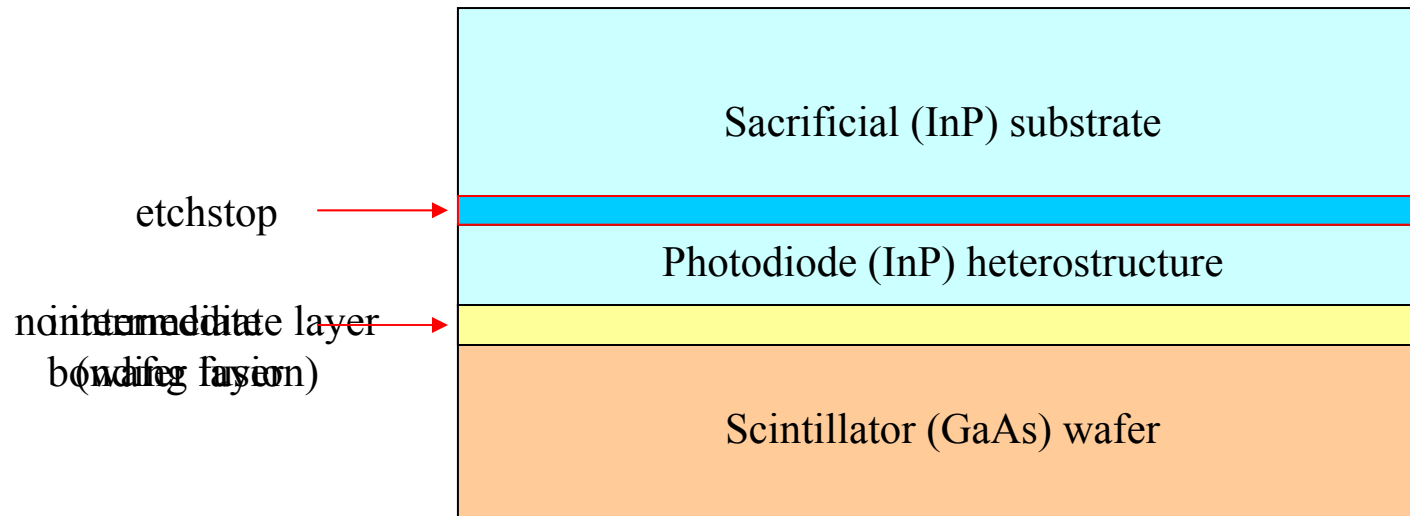
- Higher bandgap (good for low-noise photodetection at room temperature)
- May be cleaner, mature technology

■ GaAs cons

- No proven *epitaxial* detector

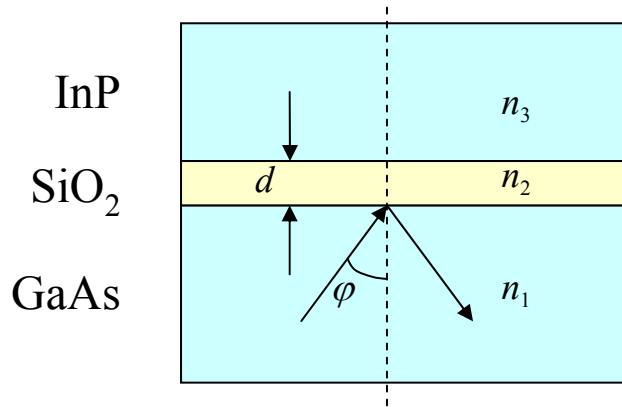
■ Wafer fusion technology may come to rescue

Wafer bonding *versus* wafer fusion

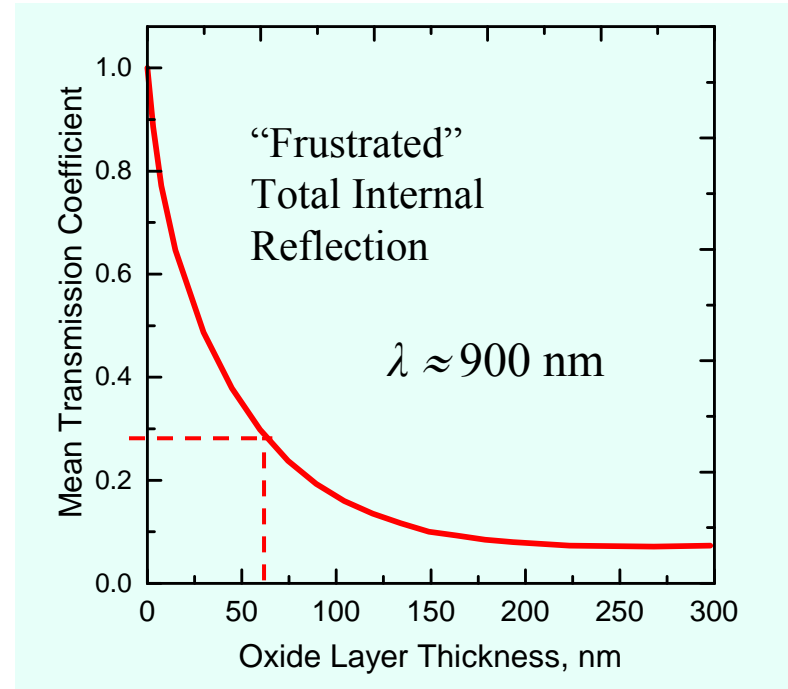


What's wrong with an intermediate layer ?

NOTHING *if it is really thin*

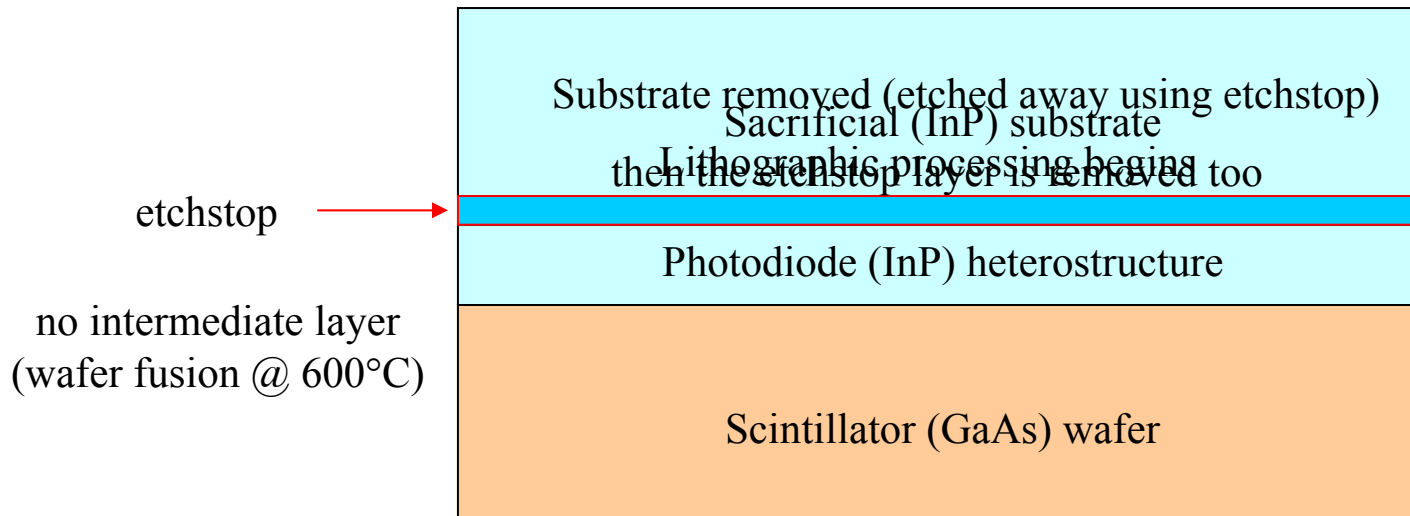


BUT *naive comparison of the optical thickness with wavelength does not work for lower-index layers*



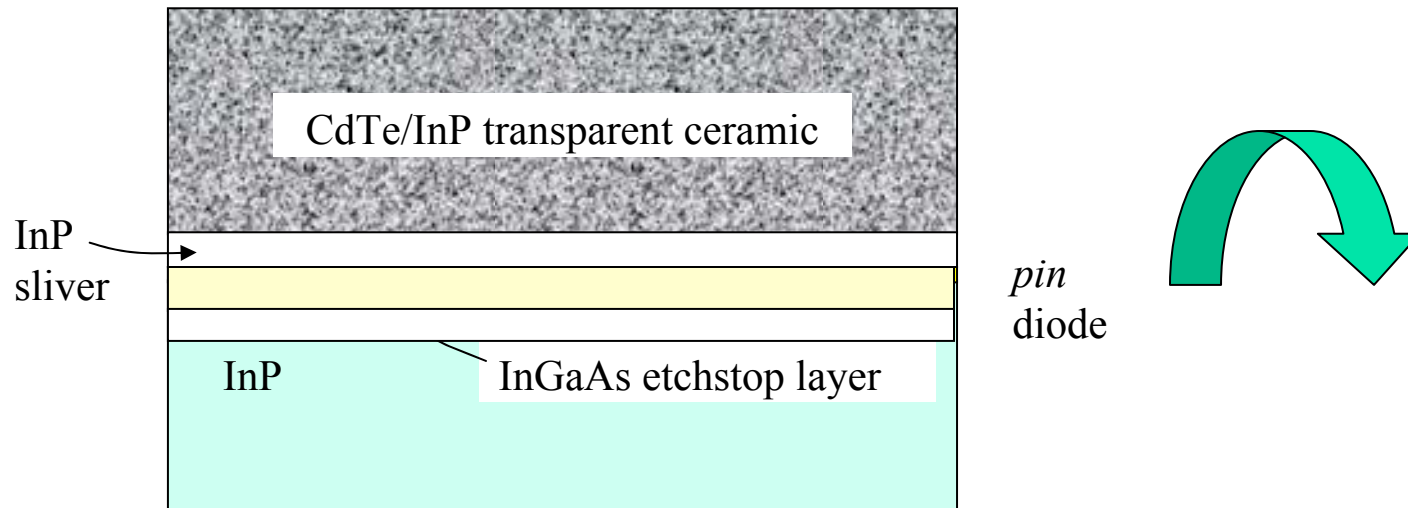
even for 60 nm thick oxide layer, over 70% of GaAs scintillation will not go through

Photodiode integration by wafer fusion



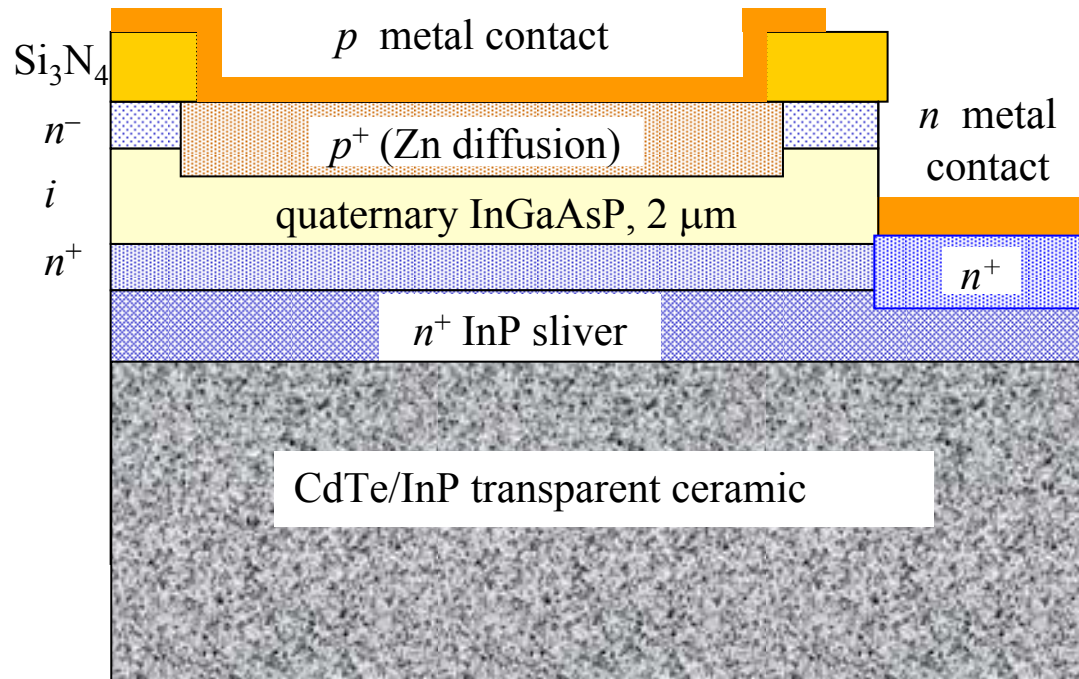
Optically tight photodiode integration

3. Etchstop layer goes away too ..



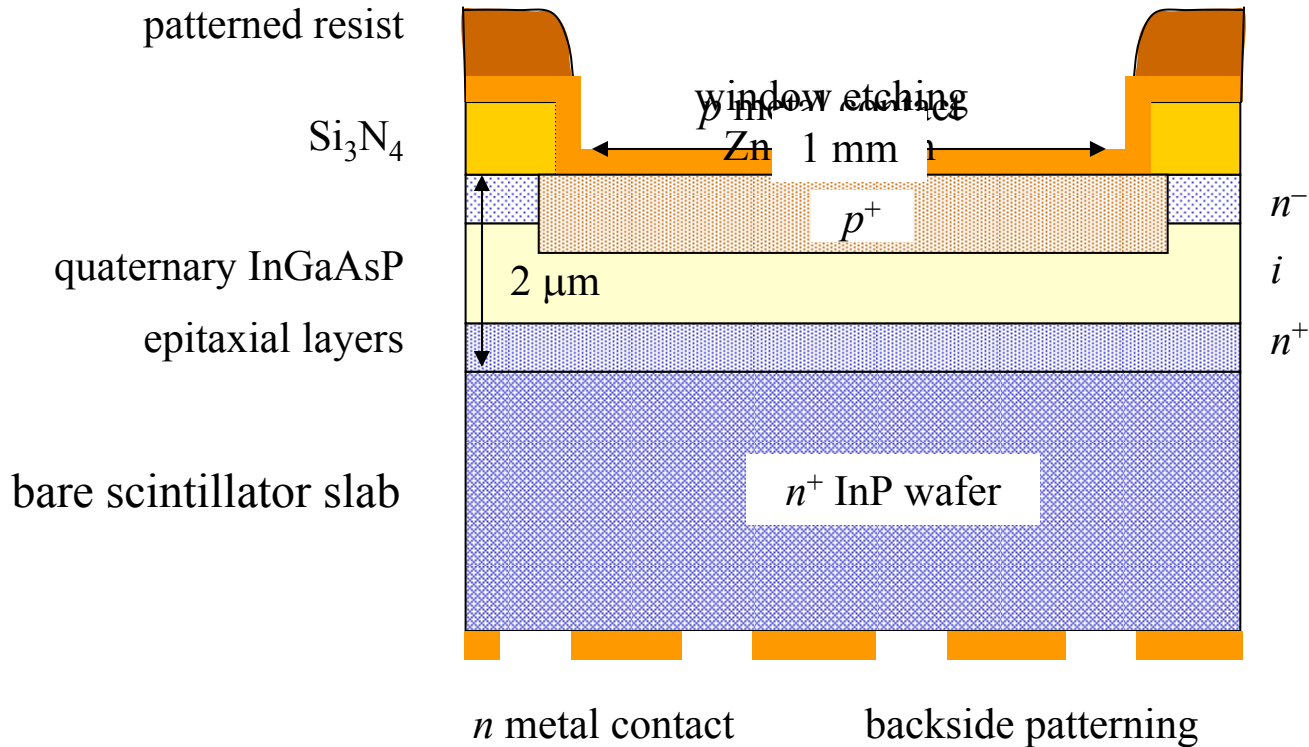
Optically tight photodiode integration

6. ... and looking at it again

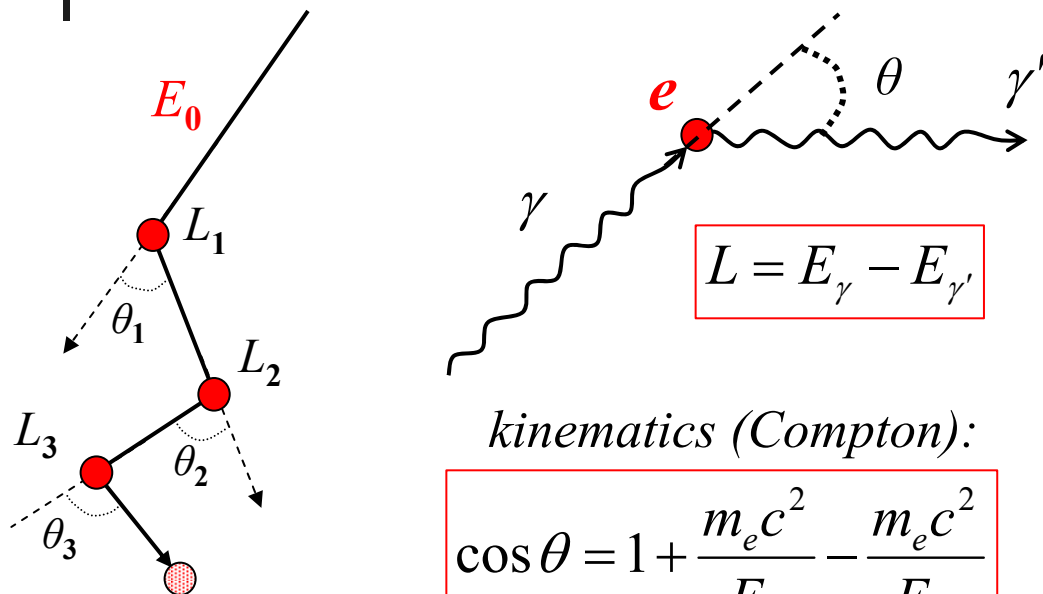


Epitaxial *pin* diode fabrication

Sarnoff – SBU collaboration



Compton Scattering



kinematics (Compton):

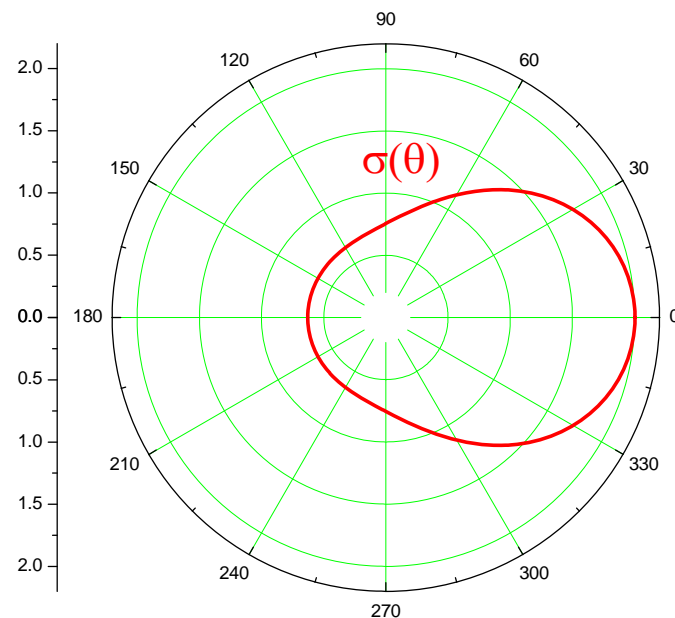
$$\cos \theta = 1 + \frac{m_e c^2}{E_\gamma} - \frac{m_e c^2}{E_{\gamma'}}$$

dynamics (Klein-Nishina):

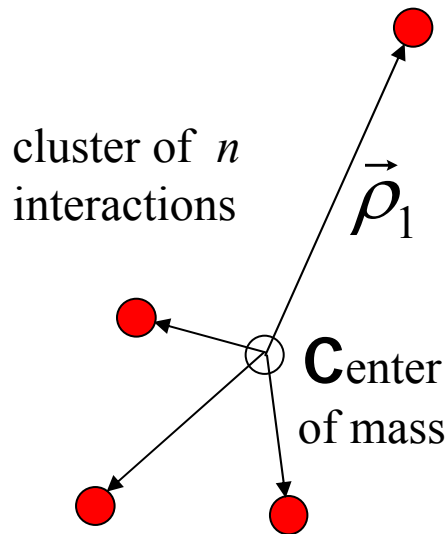
$$\sigma(\theta) = \sigma_0 \left(\frac{E_{\gamma'}}{E_\gamma} \right)^2 \left(\frac{E_{\gamma'}}{E_\gamma} + \frac{E_\gamma}{E_{\gamma'}} - \sin^2(\theta) \right)$$

$$m_e c^2 = 511 \text{ KeV}$$

$$E_\gamma = 662 \text{ KeV (Cs}^{137}\text{)}$$



Direction to source



dynamics (Klein-Nishina formula):

$$\sigma(\theta_i) = \sigma_0 \left(\frac{E_i}{E_{i-1}} \right)^2 \left(\frac{E_i}{E_{i-1}} + \frac{E_{i-1}}{E_i} - \sin^2(\theta_i) \right)$$

anisotropic scattering cross-section

662 keV:

$$\langle \vec{\rho}_1 \rangle_n \equiv \frac{1}{N_n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_n} \vec{\rho}_1^{(j)} = (np_n - 1) \vec{\rho} + \frac{\vec{\delta}}{\sqrt{N_n}}$$

