



Tracking Detectors for LHC and beyond

Tracking Detectors at LHC

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Outline

- Detector Requirements at LHC
- Semiconducting Detectors
 - Semiconductors for tracking
 - Solutions at LHC
 - Improvements for the future
- Gas Detectors
 - Gas detection technique & issues
 - Gas detectors at LHC



LHC Requirements

- High granularity for high track density
- Low material budget
- Speed : bunch crossings every 25ns, detectors and their electronics need to be fast.
- Radiation hardness :
 - Expected accumulated dose = $2 \cdot 10^6 \text{ Gy} / r^2 / \text{year}$ (r in cm),
 - 70kGy of ionizing radiation
- Magnetic Field for high momentum precision

Float Zone ingot growth



Silicon Detectors for tracking

Czochralski ingot growth





Some characteristics of Silicon crystals

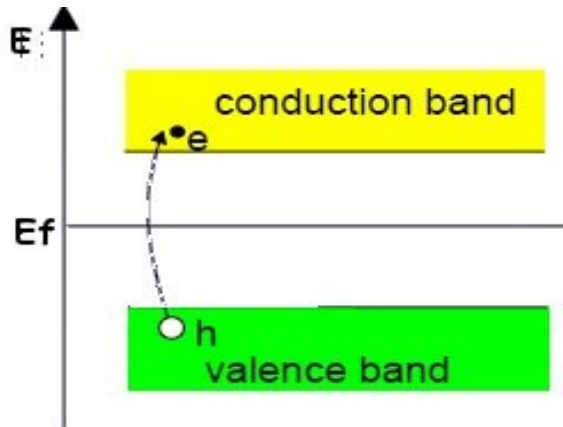
- Small band gap $E_g = 1.12 \text{ eV} \Rightarrow E(\text{e-h pair}) = 3.6 \text{ eV} (\approx 30 \text{ eV for gas detectors})$
- High specific density 2.33 g/cm^3 ; $dE/dx \text{ (M.I.P.)} \approx 3.8 \text{ MeV/cm} \approx 106 \text{ e-h}/\mu\text{m}$ (average)
- High carrier mobility $\mu_e = 1450 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$, $\mu_h = 450 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs} \Rightarrow$ fast charge collection ($< 10 \text{ ns}$)
- Very pure $< 1\text{ppm}$ impurities and $< 0.1\text{ppb}$ electrical active impurities
- Rigidity of silicon allows thin self supporting structures
- Detector production by microelectronic techniques $\Rightarrow$ well known industrial technology, relatively low price, small structures easily possible

Alternative semiconductors

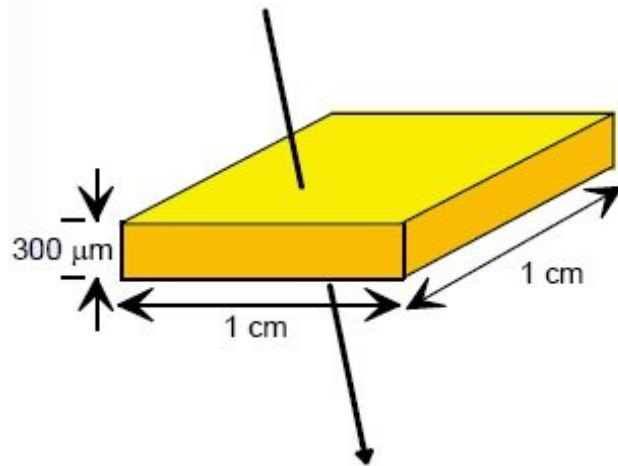
- Diamond
- GaAs
- Silicon Carbide
- Germanium

	Diamond	SiC (4H)	GaAs	Si	Ge
Atomic number Z	6	14/6	31/33	14	32
Bandgap E_g [eV]	5.5	3.3	1.42	1.12	0.66
$E(\text{e-h pair})$ [eV]	13	7.6-8.4	4.3	3.6	2.9
density [g/cm^3]	3.515	3.22	5.32	2.33	5.32
e-mobility μ_e [cm^2/Vs]	1800	800	8500	1450	3900
h-mobility μ_h [cm^2/Vs]	1200	115	400	450	1900

Signal of a charged track

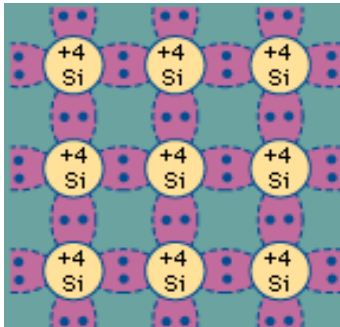


- In an undoped (intrinsic) semiconductor the carrier densities $p=n=n_i$. For Si: $n \approx 1.45 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$.



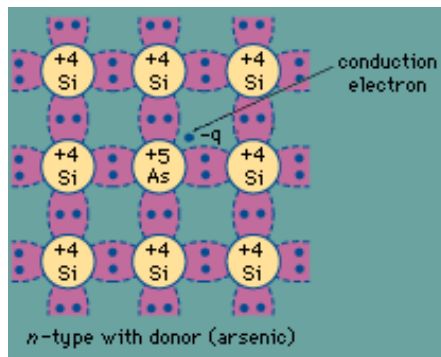
- $4.5 \cdot 10^8$ free charge carriers in this volume, but only $3.2 \cdot 10^4$ e-h pairs produced by a M.I.P.
- We need to "remove" the initial charges, to deplete the silicon

Doping



- Si is in group IV
- $E_g = 1.11 \text{ eV}$

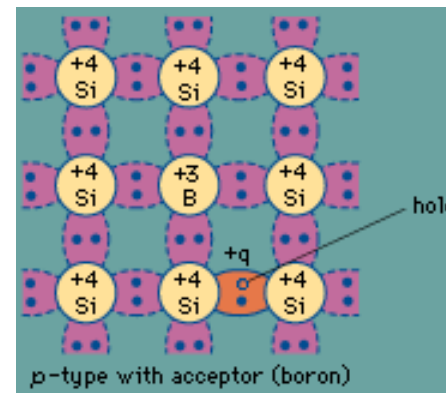
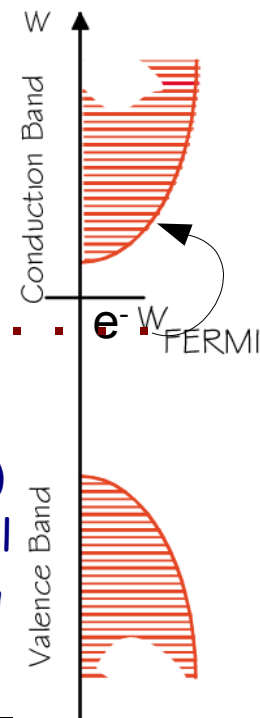
Doping



n-Type

P, As, Sb (Group V)
5 electrons in the M-shell
→ 1 electron with binding energy 10-50 meV

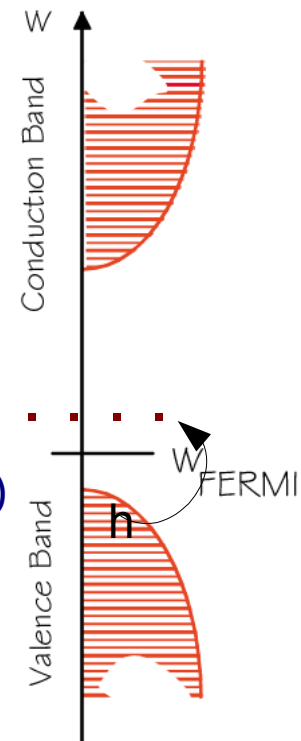
donors



P-Type

B, Al, Ga (Group III)
3 electrons in the M-shell
→ 1 electron missing

acceptors



p-n junction

- Resistivity

carrier concentrations n, p

carrier mobility μ_n, μ_p

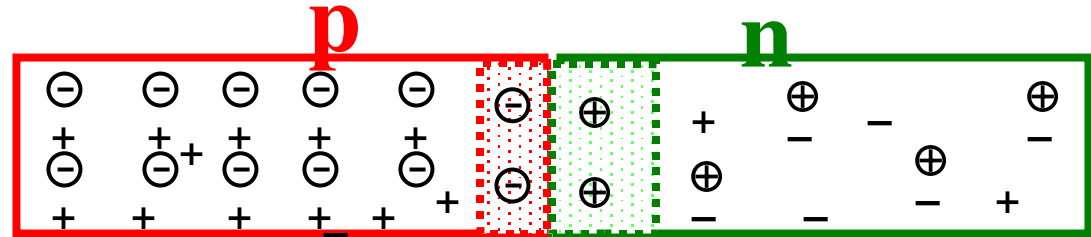
$$\rho = \frac{1}{q_0(\mu_n n + \mu_p p)}$$

- Detectors: doping: 10^{12} cm^{-3}

➤ $\rho = 5 \text{ k}\Omega \text{ cm}$

- After migration of majority carriers across the junction, an E field due to immobile ions prevents further migration

- $V_d \approx \text{few } 100 \text{ mV}$



Dopant

concentration

Space charge

density

Carrier

density

Electric

field

Electric

potential

$$V_d = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \frac{N_a N_d}{n_i^2}$$

Depletion Voltage

- The crystal is neutral: $N_a W_1 = N_d W_2$
- Poisson equation on each side of the junction
- Imposing the boundary condition $V=0$ at $-W_1$

$$\frac{d^2 V}{dx^2} = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon} = \frac{qN_a}{\epsilon}$$

$$V = \frac{qN_a}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{x^2}{2} + W_1 x + \frac{W_1^2}{2} \right) \quad V_1 = \frac{qN_a W_1^2}{2\epsilon}$$

- Similarly $V_2 = \frac{qN_d W_2^2}{2\epsilon}$

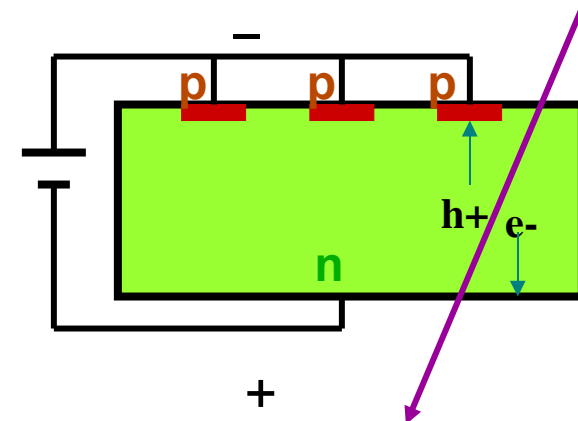
$$V_B = V_1 + V_2 = \frac{q}{2\epsilon} (N_a W_1^2 + N_d W_2^2)$$

$$W_1 = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon V_B}{qN_a(1+N_d/N_a)}}$$

$$W_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon V_B}{qN_d(1+N_d/N_a)}}$$

- The 2 depletion regions extend in inverse proportion of the impurity concentration! If $N_a \gg N_d \Rightarrow W_1 \ll W_2$
- For p⁺n type: $N_a \sim 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $N_d \sim 5 \cdot 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
 $W_1 = 0.4 \mu\text{m}$, $W_2 = 300 \mu\text{m}$ for $V_B = 100 \text{ V}$: the p⁺ layer is there to allow depletion of the n-type active volume

➤ + = highly doped



Leakage current

- Thermal generation of carrier pairs

in depletion zone: $j_{gen} = \frac{1}{2} a \frac{n_i}{\tau_0} W$

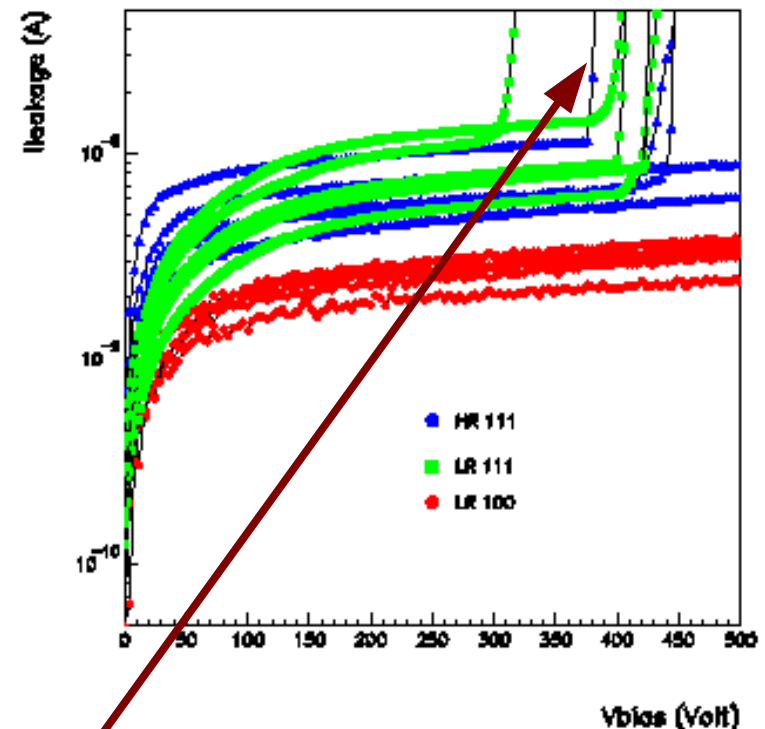
➤ n_i depends on T $n_i^2 = N_c N_v \exp\left(\frac{-E_g}{kT}\right)$

so one needs to keep T low

➤ W depends on $\sqrt{V}$ until fully depleted

➤ τ_0 is the lifetime of minority carriers : regulated by impurities

- Need a pure, clean crystal !



- Local defect can locally $\uparrow E$ to give enough energy for e-h creation ($E \sim 30 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$)
Breakdown by avalanche creation.

Junction capacitance

- In the bulk region of p+n junction $N_a \gg N_d$ and $\rho = \frac{1}{q\mu_n N_d}$

$$W = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon V_B}{qN_d(1+N_d/N_a)}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon V_B}{qN_d}} = \sqrt{2\epsilon\rho\mu V_B}$$

(note for the same thickness if p bulk, μ_h is lower $\rightarrow V_B$ must be higher)

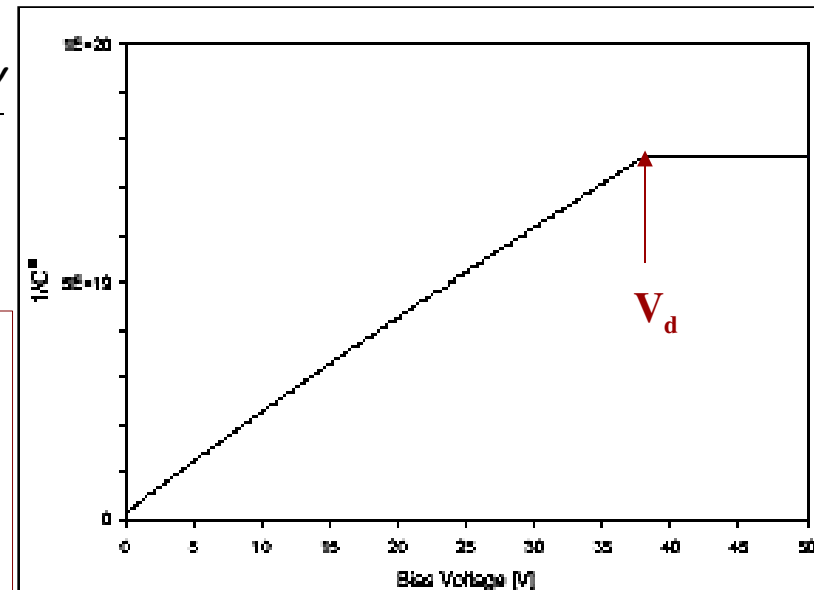
- The higher the resistivity, the lower the bias voltage to apply to reach full depletion !
- Junction capacitance linked to the charges appearing on either side of the junction when V_B is applied

$$C_j = \frac{dQ}{dV_B} = \frac{dQ}{QW} \frac{dW}{dV_B} \quad \text{with} \quad dQ = qN_d dW = \frac{dW}{\rho\mu}$$

$$\text{and} \quad \frac{dW}{dV_B} = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\rho\mu}{2V_B}}$$

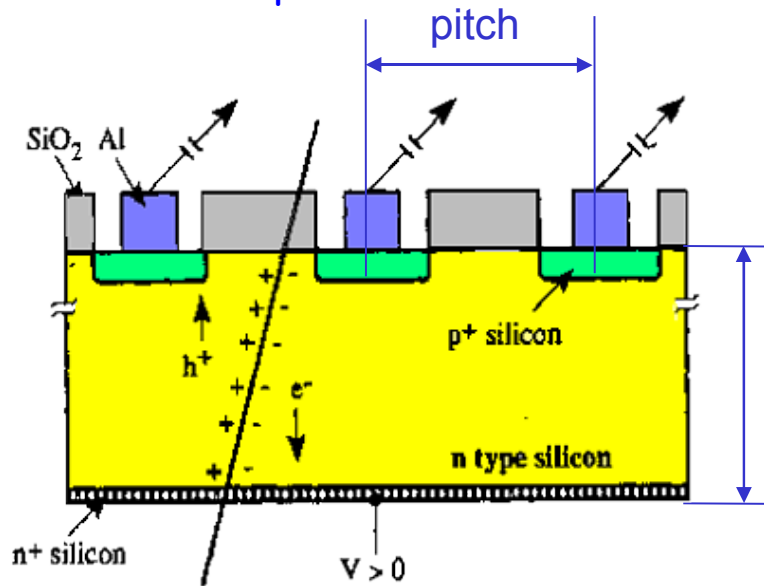
$$C_j = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{2\rho\mu V_B}}$$

One measures the capacitance as a function of the voltage to find the depletion voltage.



Single sided strip detector

- Segmentation of the p^+ layer into strips (Diode Strip Detector) and connection of strips to individual read-out channels gives spatial information

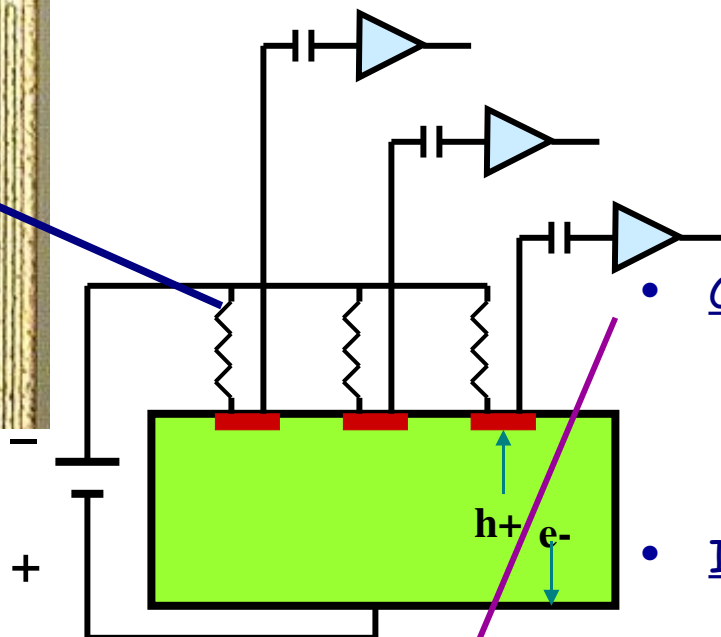
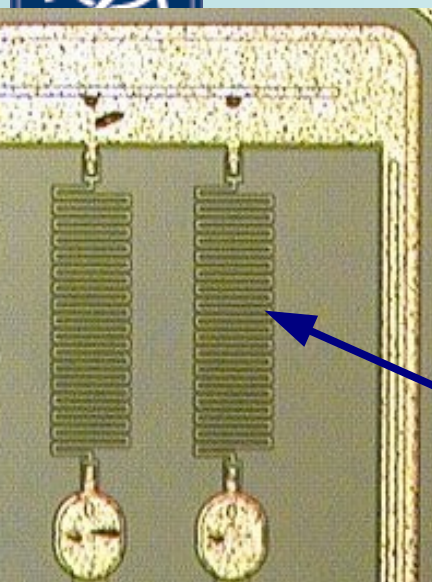


- using n-type silicon with a resistivity of $\rho = 2 \text{ K}\Omega\text{cm}$ ($N_D \sim 2.2 \cdot 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$)

results in a depletion voltage $\sim 150 \text{ V}$

- Resolution σ depends on the pitch p (distance from strip to strip) $\sigma = \frac{p}{\sqrt{12}}$
- e.g. detection of charge in binary way (threshold discrimination) and using center of strip as measured coordinate results in:
- typical pitch values are $20 \mu\text{m} - 150 \mu\text{m} \Rightarrow 50 \mu\text{m}$ pitch results in $14.4 \mu\text{m}$ resolution

Operation



- Bias Resistor

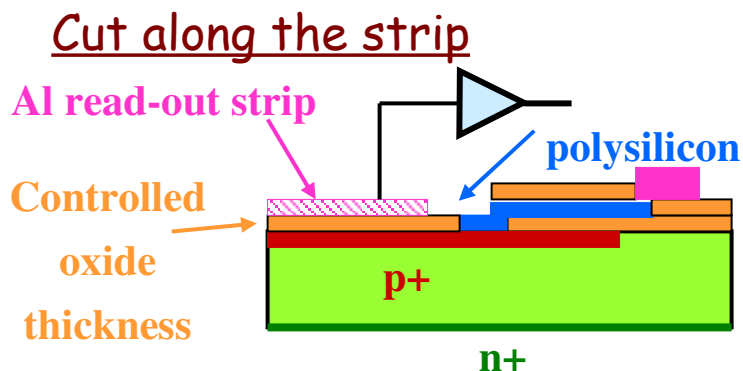
- Need to isolate strips from each other and collect/measure charge on each strip $\Rightarrow$ high impedance bias connection ($1\text{M}\Omega$ resistor)

- Coupling capacitor

- Usually want to AC couple input amplifier to avoid large DC input currents

- Integration on sensor

- Bias resistors via doped polysilicon deposition
- capacitors via metal readout lines over the implants but separated by an insulating dielectric layer (SiO_2 , Si_3N_4 $d=0.1\text{-}0.2\mu\text{m}$ for $C \geq 100\text{pF}$).



Collected signal

- Collected Charge for a Minimum Ionizing Particle (MIP)

- Mean energy loss

$$dE/dx (\text{Si}) = 3.88 \text{ MeV/cm}$$

$$\Rightarrow 116 \text{ keV for } 300 \mu\text{m thickness}$$

- Most probable energy loss

$$\approx 0.7 \times \text{mean}$$

$$\Rightarrow 81 \text{ keV}$$

- 3.6 eV to create an e-h pair

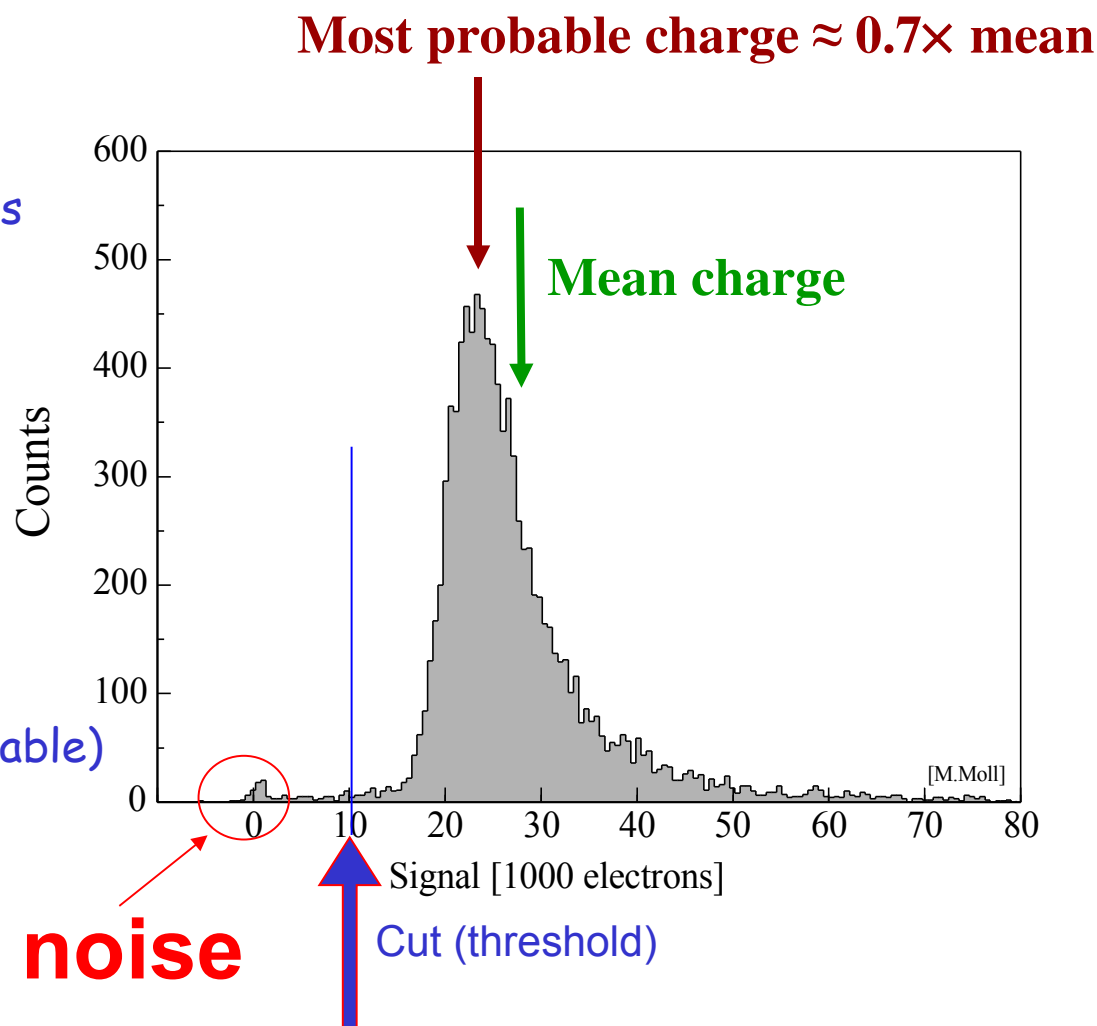
$$\Rightarrow 72 \text{ e-h} / \mu\text{m (mean)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 108 \text{ e-h} / \mu\text{m (most probable)}$$

- Most probable charge (300 μm)

$$\approx 22500 \text{ e}$$

$$\approx 3.6 \text{ fC}$$



Signal to Noise ratio

- Landau distribution has a low energy tail
 - becomes even lower by noise broadening

- Noise sources: (ENC = Equivalent Noise Charge)

- Capacitance $ENC \propto C_d$

- Leakage Current $ENC \propto \sqrt{I}$

- Thermal Noise (bias resistor) $ENC \propto \sqrt{k_B T / R}$

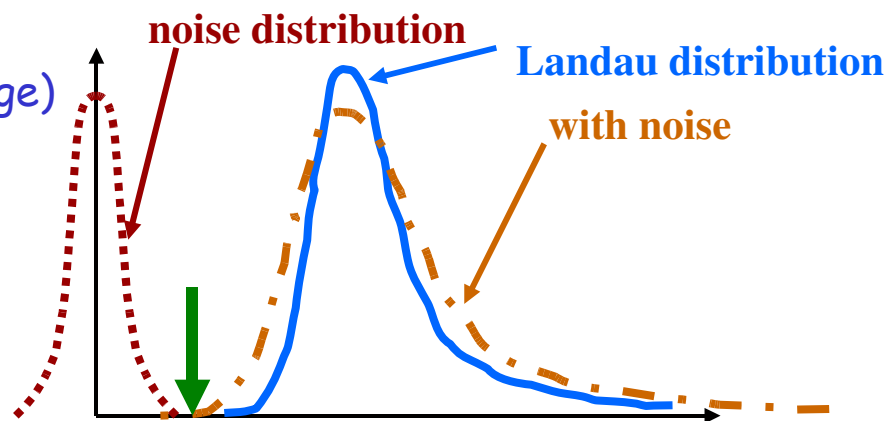
- Good hits selected by requiring $N_{ADC} > \text{noise tail}$

If cut too high $\Rightarrow$ efficiency loss

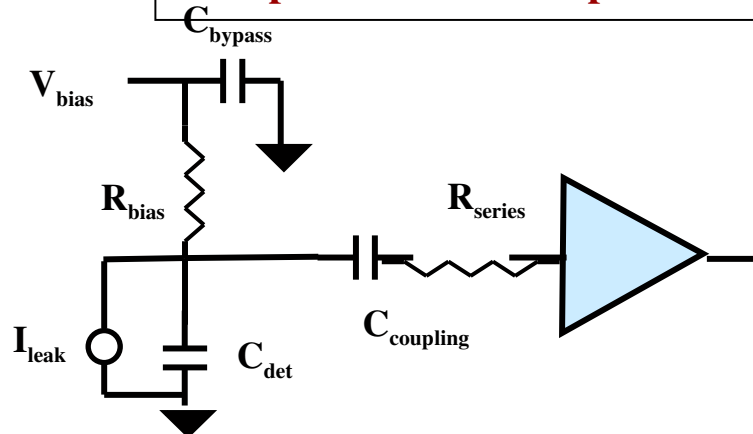
If cut too low $\Rightarrow$ noise occupancy

- Figure of Merit: Signal-to-Noise Ratio S/N

- Typical values $>10-15$, Radiation damage severely degrades the S/N.

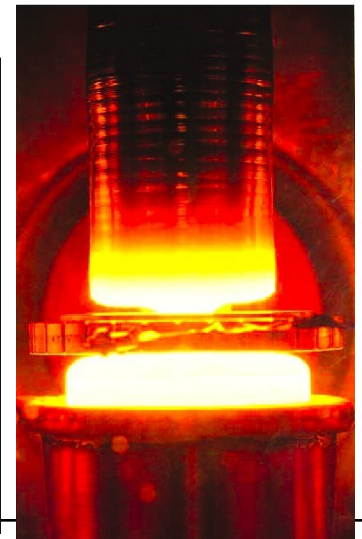
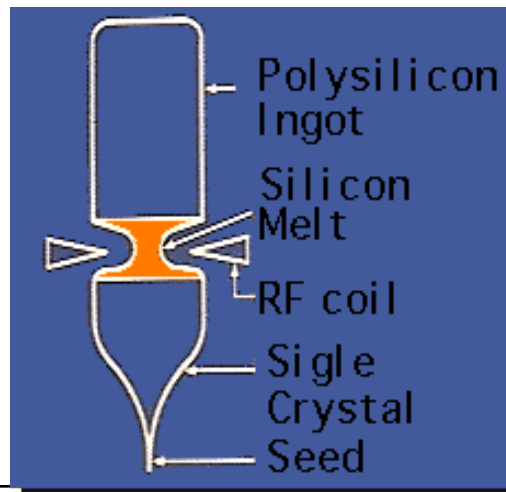
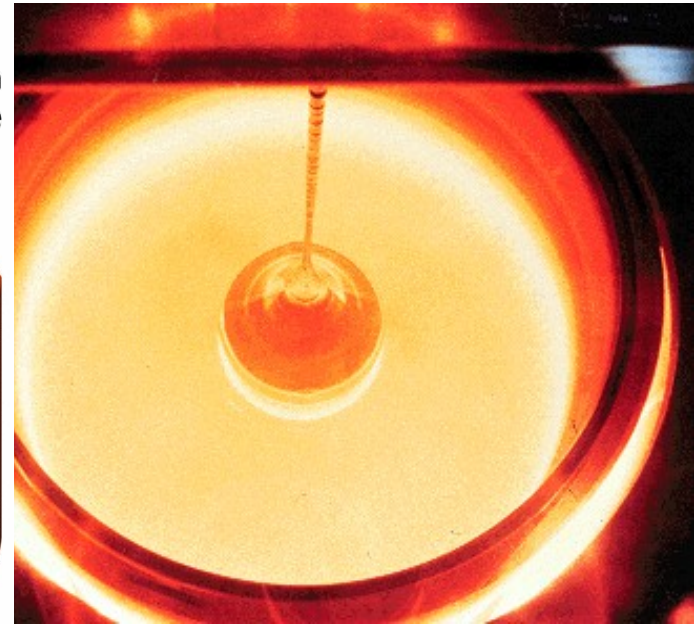
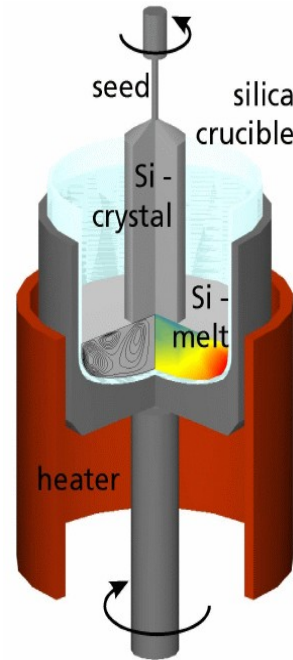


Amplifier effective input load



Mono-crystalline Ingot fabrication

- Czochralski (or magnetic Cz)
 - Silicon melt into quartz crucible
 - High Oxygen content into the crystal
 - "pull crystal out" while rotating
 - Magnetic field allows better crystal quality (homogeneity of melt)
-
- Float Zone : very pure crystal, from single-crystal seed
 - The polycrystalline ingot is melted via rf power the impurities stay into the melt



wafer fabrication

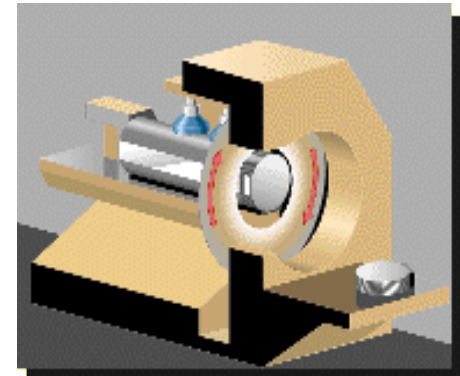
♦ Slicing, lapping, etching and polishing



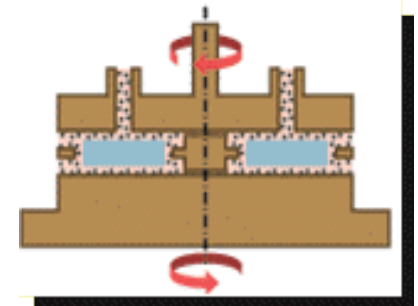
Ingot is sliced into wafers of thickness $300\text{-}500\mu\text{m}$ with diamond encrusted wire or disc saws.

Lapping (grinding away large imperfections), etching (more removal of impurities and imperfections), and polishing are needed to attain the desired wafer thickness and to ensure a surface with minimal defects.

diamond
disc saw



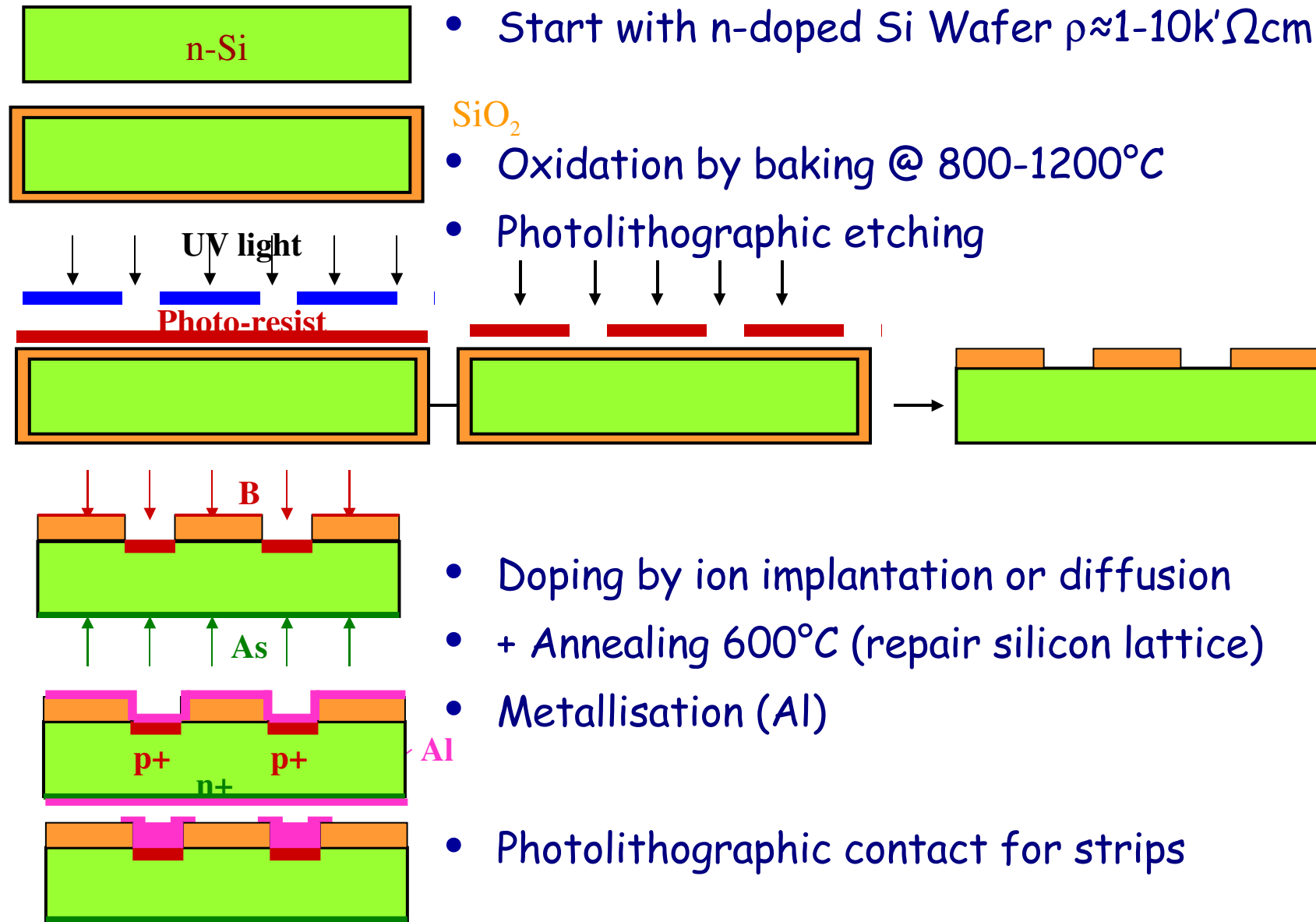
lapping
machine



polishing
machines



Sensor fabrication



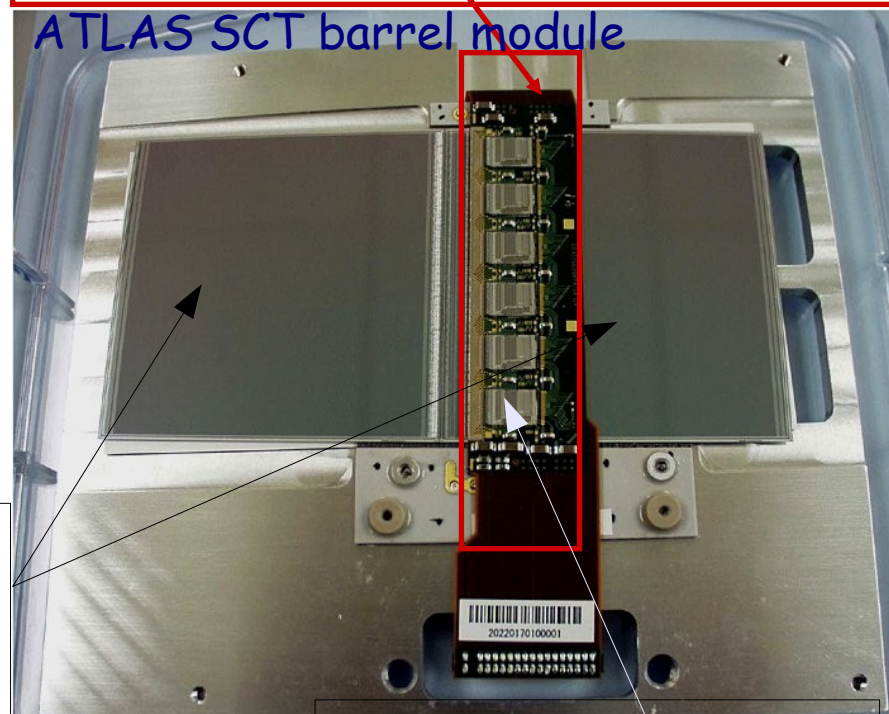
Construction of detector modules

- Detector Modules - "Basic building block of tracking detectors"
 - Silicon Sensors
 - Mechanical support (cooling)
 - Front end electronics and signal routing (connectivity)
- ATLAS-SCT
 - 15552 sensors
 - 61m² silicon

Silicon sensors (x4)

- 64 x 64 mm²
- p-in-n, single sided
- AC-coupled
- 768 strips
- 80µm pitch/12µm width

ATLAS flexible kapton hybrid circuit. Note also that hybrid is mounted directly over one of the two chained silicon sensors. A thermal challenge!



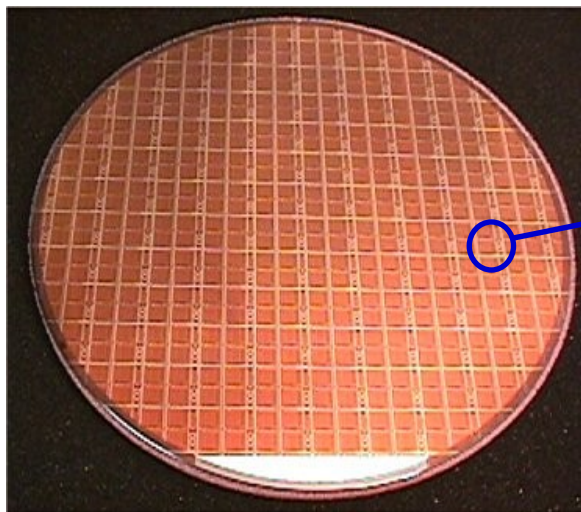
ASICs (x12)

- ABCD chip binary R/O
- DMILL technology
- 128 channels

Construction of detector modules

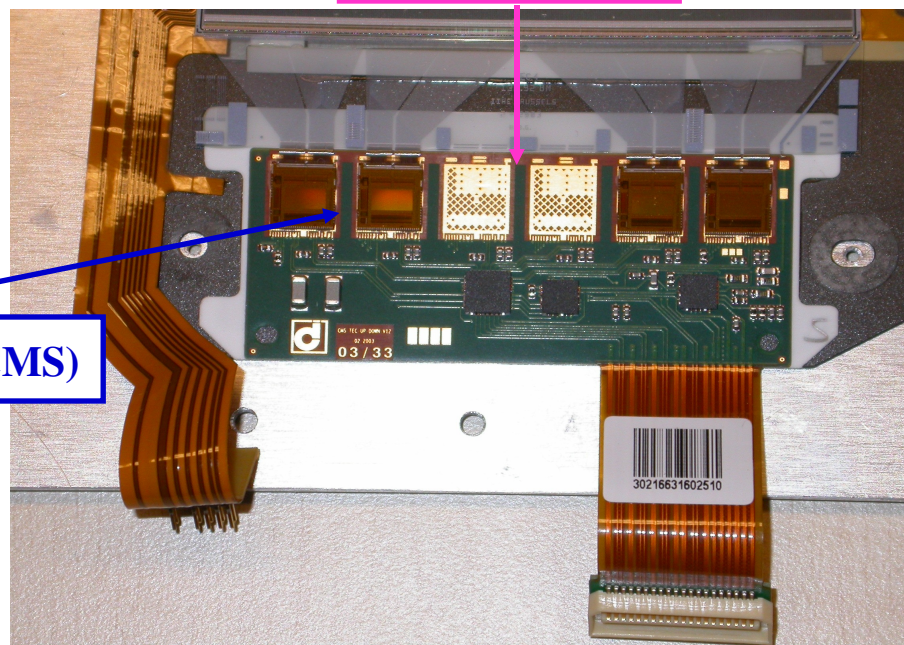
- Hybrids...
 - Front-end read-out electronics are usually in the form of ASIC (application specific integrated circuits) chips mounted on a hybrid circuit that provides power lines, control signals and read-out connectivity. This hybrid circuit has often been made on a ceramic substrate with thick-film gold deposition techniques.

**400 front-end ASICs on 8" wafer
(IBM)**



APV25 (CMS)

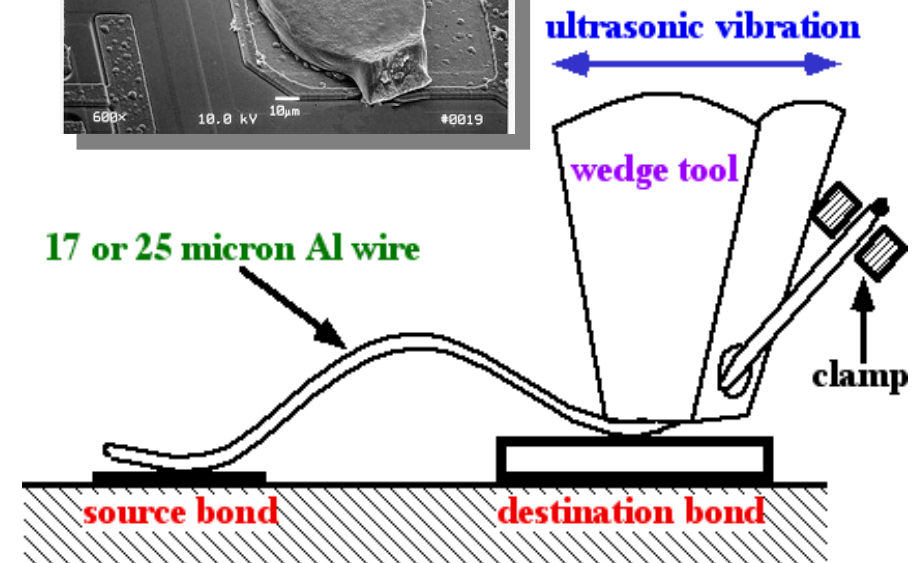
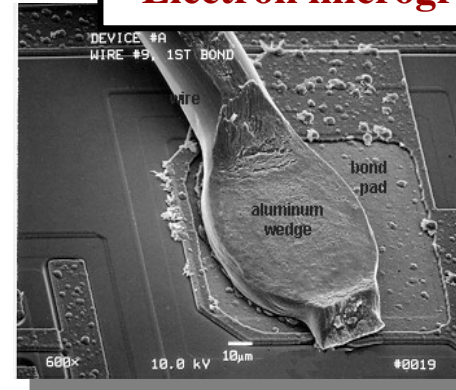
Ceramic hybrid



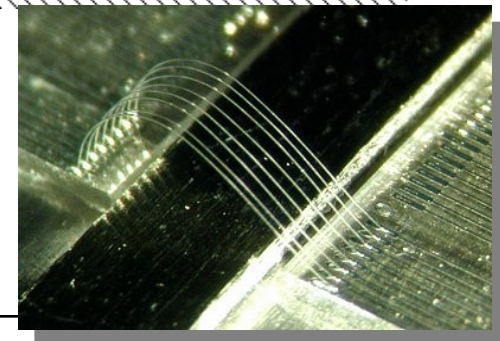
Bonding

- Wire bonding
 - Uses ultrasonic power to vibrate needle-like tool on top of wire. Friction welds wire to metallized substrate underneath.
 - Can easily handle 80 μ m pitch in a single row and 40 μ m in two staggered rows (typical FE chip input pitch is 44 μ m).
 - 25 μ m diameter aluminium wire and bond to aluminium pads (chips) or gold pads (hybrid substrates).

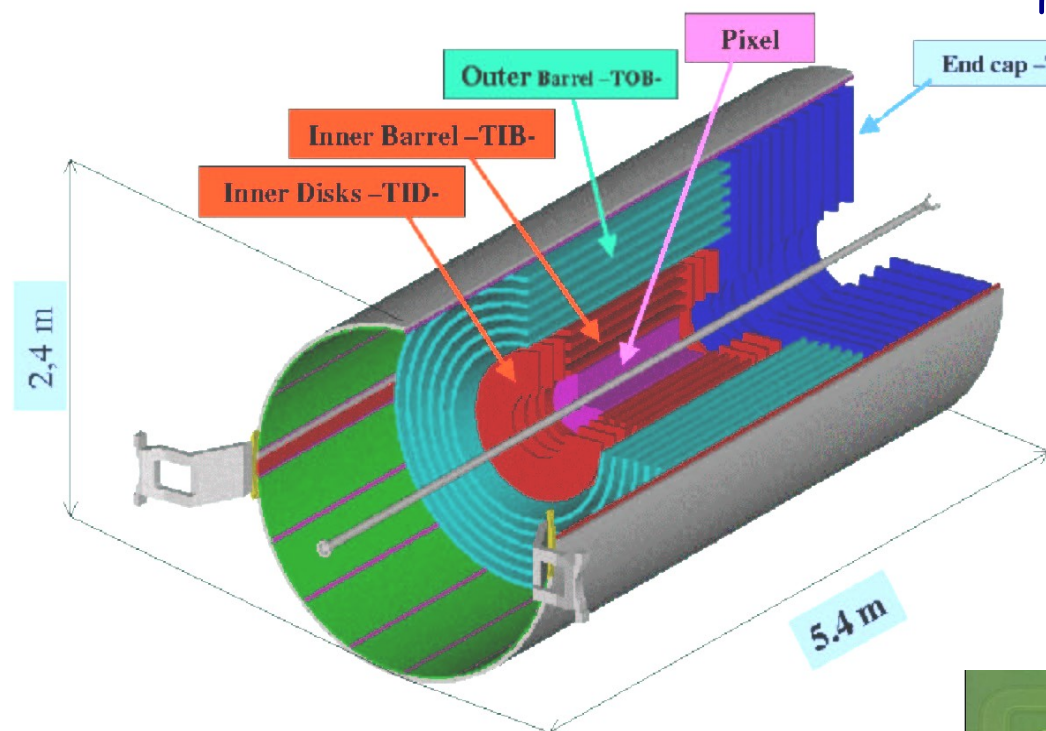
Electron micrograph of bond “foot”



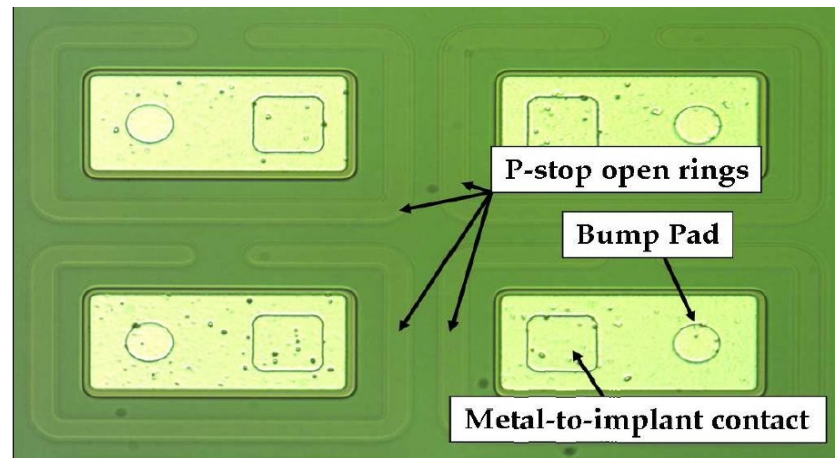
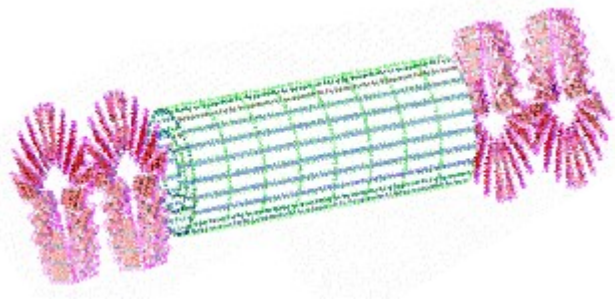
View through microscope of wire bonds connecting sensor to fan-out circuit



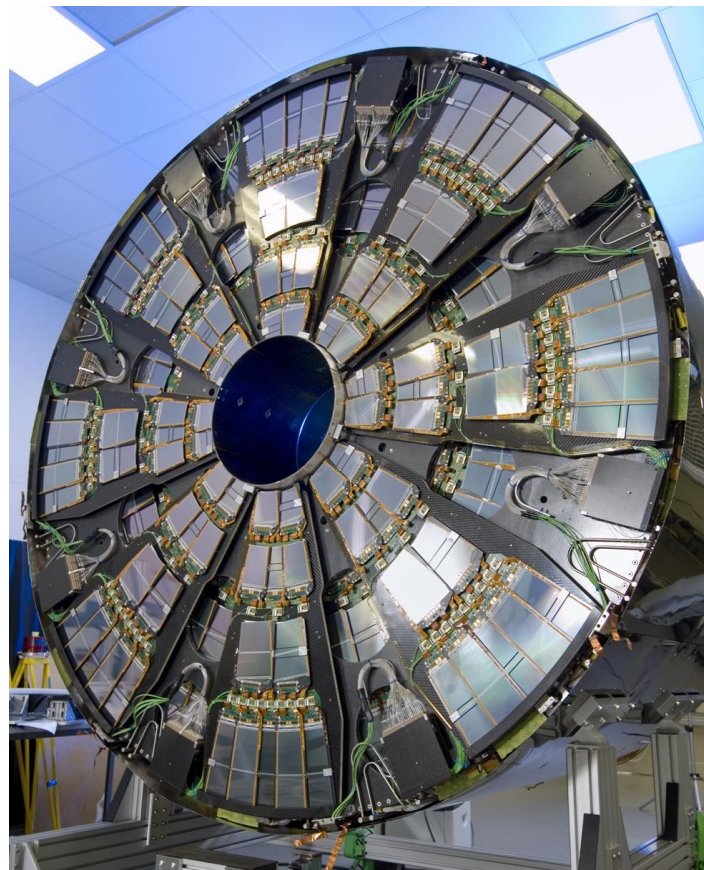
CMS pixel



- Pixel: n+ on n , electron collection
- Inner 3 layers: silicon pixels ($\sim 1\text{m}^2$)
 - 66 million pixels ($100 \times 150 \mu\text{m}$)
 - Precision: $\sigma(r\phi) \sim \sigma(z) \sim 15 \mu\text{m}$
 - Most challenging operating environments (LHC)



CMS Silicon Strip Tracker

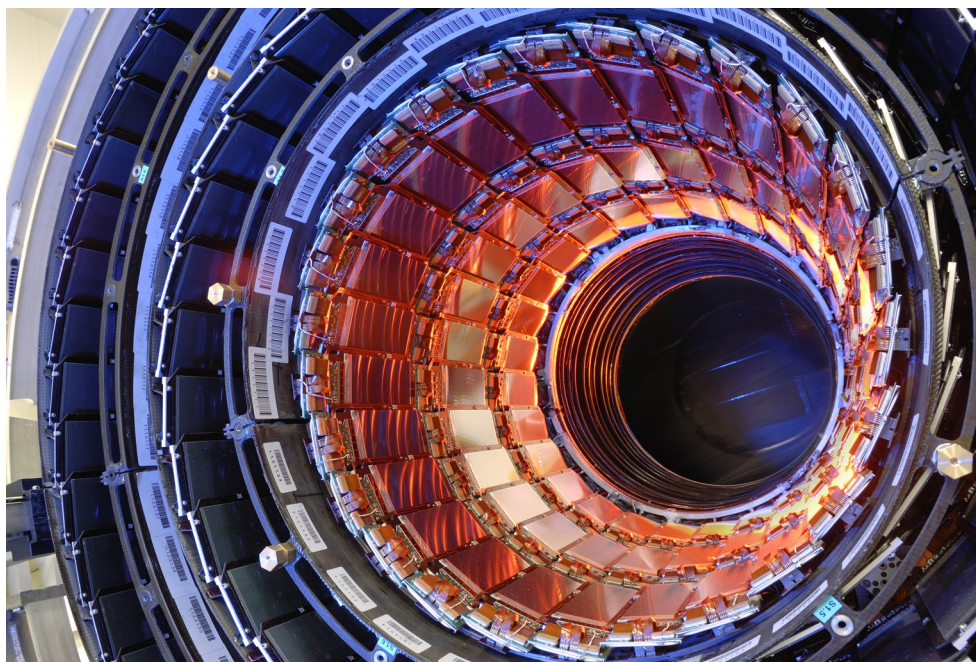
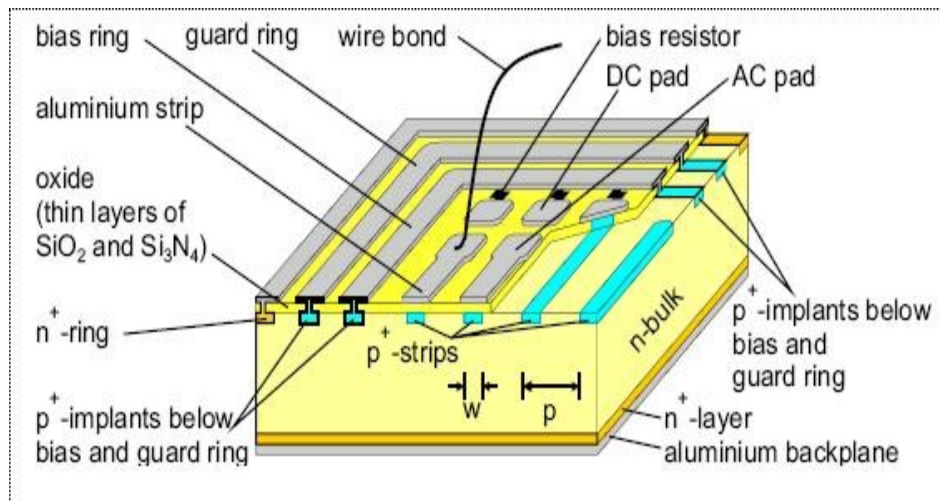


~15000 modules

~9600000 strips

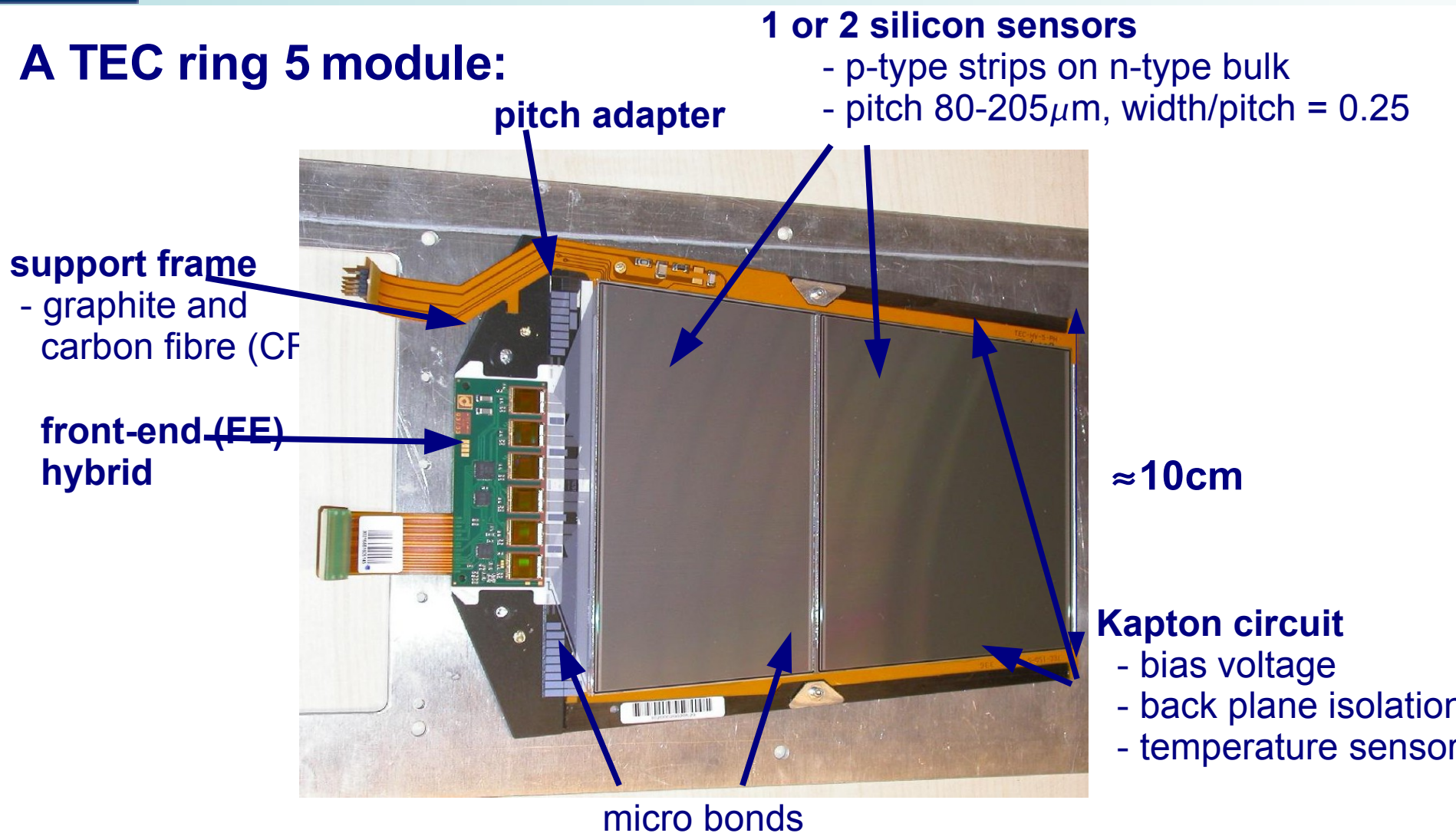
$dp/p = 1.5\%$ @ $100\text{GeV}/c$

p in n



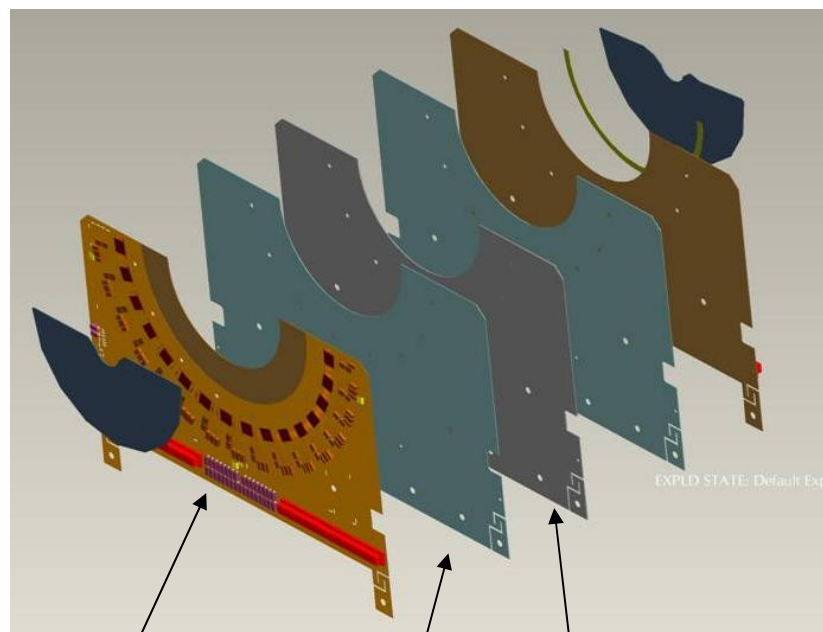
A CMS module

A TEC ring 5 module:



15 module types: 512 or 768 strips, 1 or 2 sensors, wedge-shaped sensors, geometry, coating.....

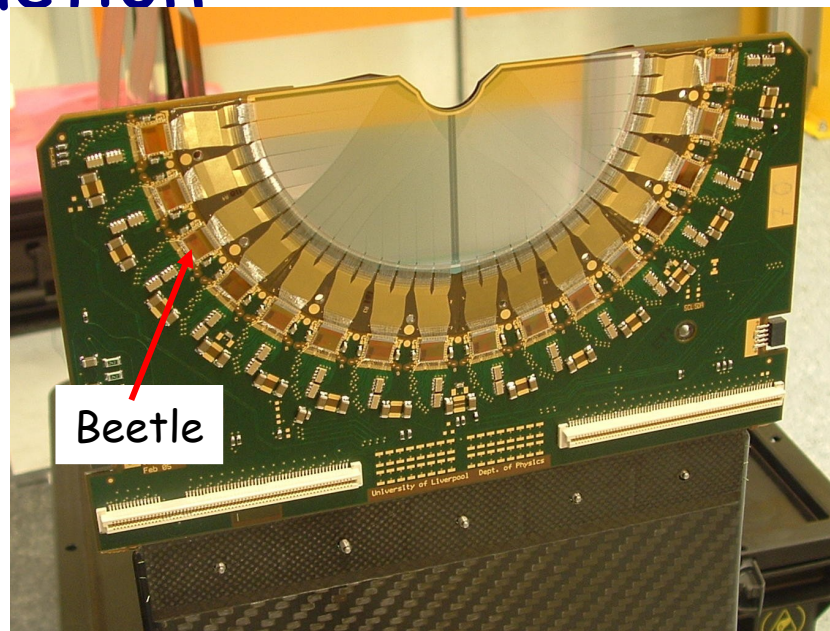
LHCb-VELO - Module construction



Kapton hybrid

Carbon fibre

Thermal Pyrolytic Graphite (TPG)



- 4 layer kapton circuit
- Heat transport with TPG
- Readout with 16 Beetle chips
 - 128 channels, 25 ns shaping time, analog pipeline
 - 0.25 μm CMOS
 - no performance loss up to 40 Mrad
 - Yield > 80 %

[Martin van Beuzekom, STD6, September

2006]

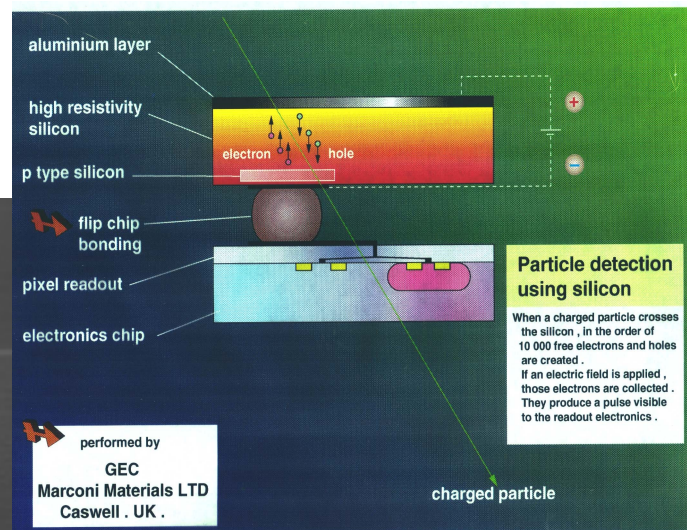
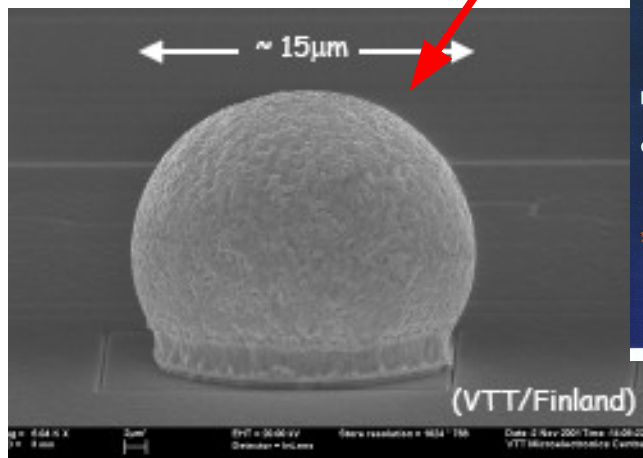
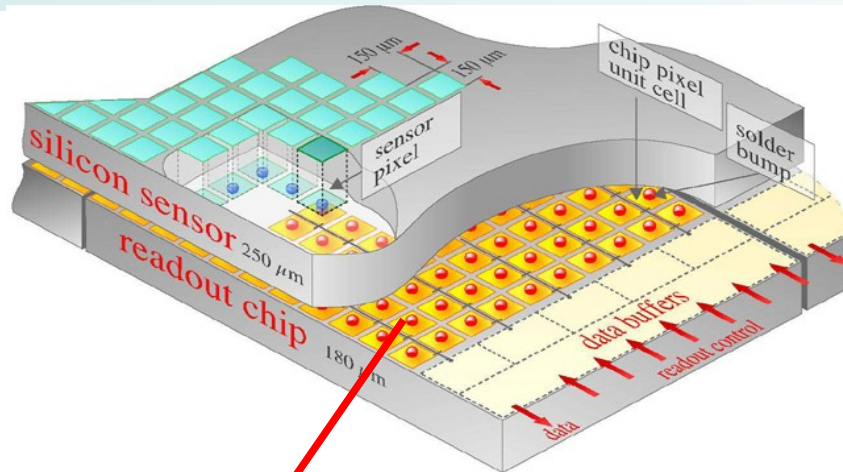
M. Vander Donckt

05/09/07

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Hybrid pixel detectors

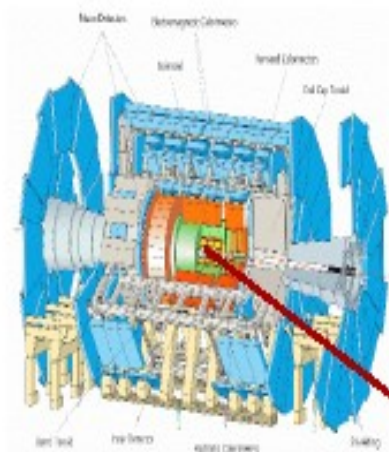
- HAPS - Hybrid Active Pixel Sensors
 - segment silicon to diode matrix with high granularity ($\Rightarrow$ true 2D, no reconstruction ambiguity)
- readout electronic with same geometry (every cell connected to its own processing electronics)
- connection by "bump bonding" requires sophisticated readout architecture
- Hybrid pixel detectors will be used in the 4 LHC experiments: ATLAS, ALICE, CMS and LHCb



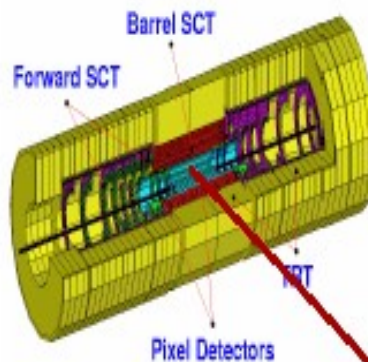
ATLAS Pixel

- An example of a HAPS:
ATLAS

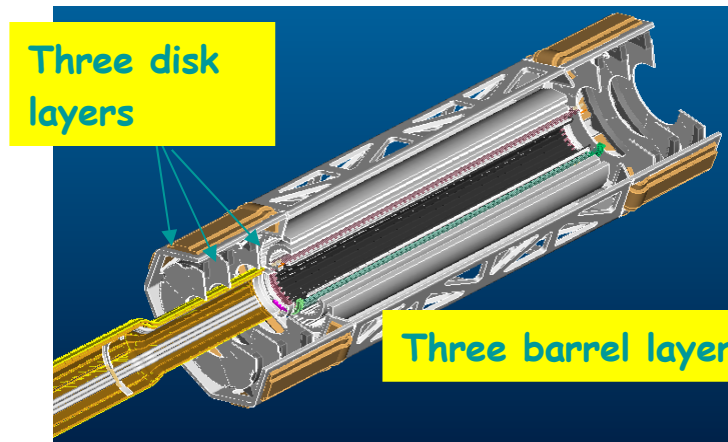
$s=8 \rightarrow 10 \mu\text{m}$



ATLAS



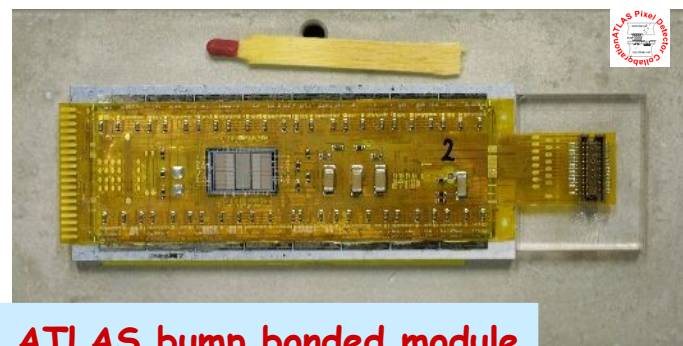
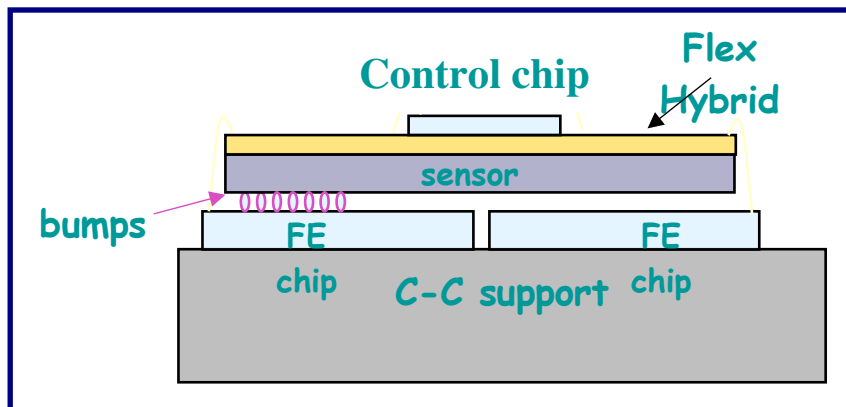
Inner detector



Three disk layers

Three barrel layers

The ATLAS Pixel Vertex
 $2\text{m}^2 \cdot 8 \cdot 10^7$ pixels

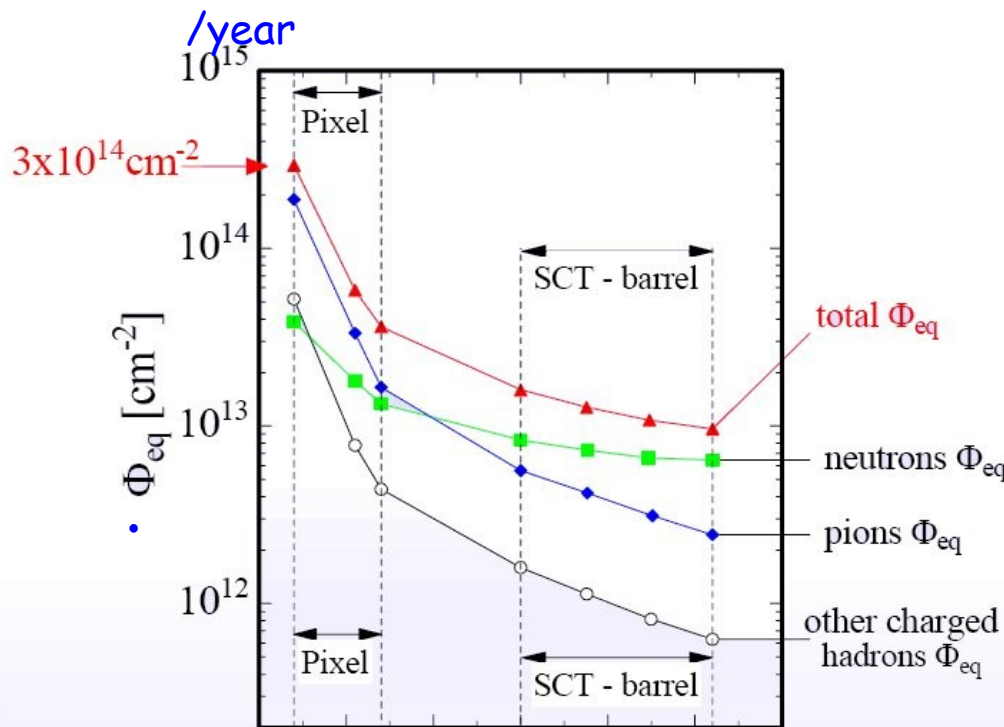


ATLAS bump bonded module

Radiation Damage

- Example: ATLAS

- Fluences per year at full Luminosity
- Pixel detector: up to $\Phi_{eq} \approx 3.5 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ /year

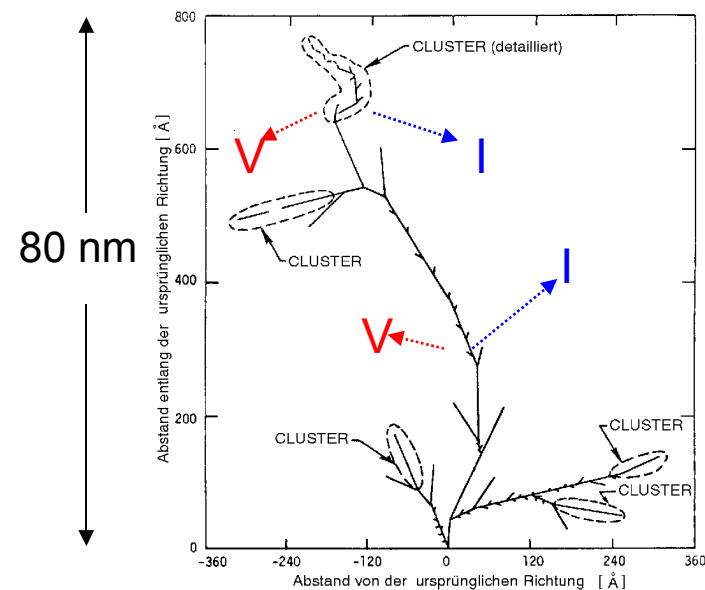
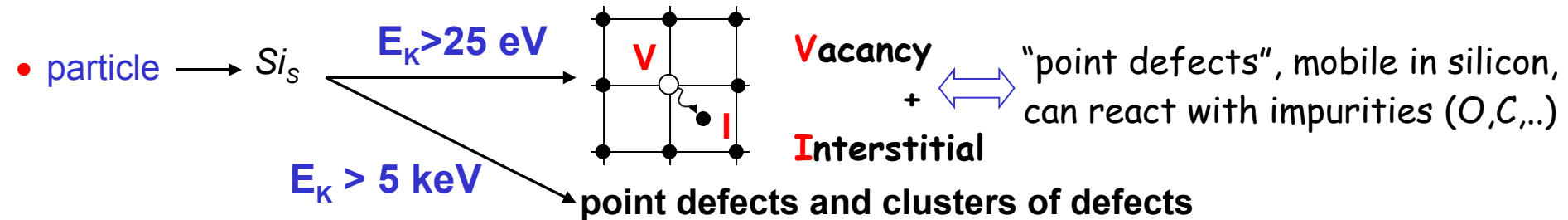


- Dominating type of particle is different for pixel (pions) and strip detectors (neutrons)

- LHC silicon detectors:
 - All detectors have been extensively tested and developed for radiation tolerance and are expected to survive the LHC radiation environment.
- Some experiments have already foreseen upgrades (e.g. LHCb Velo after 3 years).
- Super LHC
 - upgrade of LHC to 10 x higher Luminosity
 - ⇒ 10 x higher radiation levels
 - ⇒ Radiation damage will become a critical issue!
 - ⇒ New, radiation tolerant detectors needed!
- What is radiation damage ?
- How to cope with it ?

Microscopic defects

- Damage to the silicon crystal: Displacement of lattice atoms

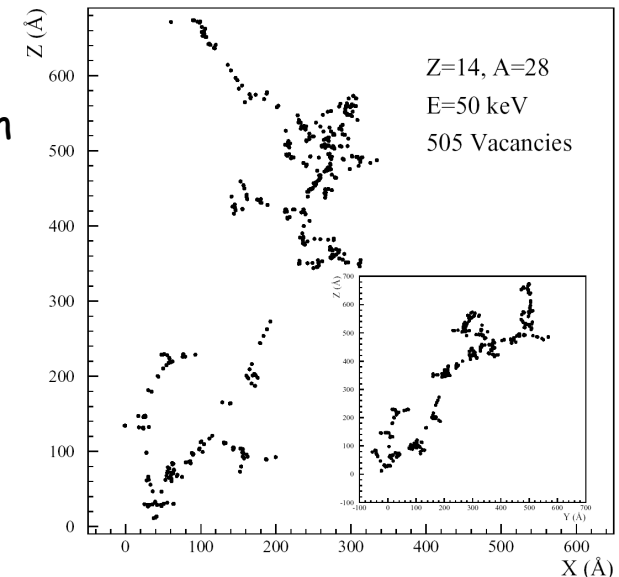


Distribution of vacancies
created by a 50 keV Si-ion
in silicon (typical recoil
energy for 1 MeV

neutrons):

Schematic
[Van Lint 1980]

Simulation



[M. Huhtinen 2001]

- Defects can be electrically active (levels in the band gap)

- capture and release electrons and holes from conduction and valence band

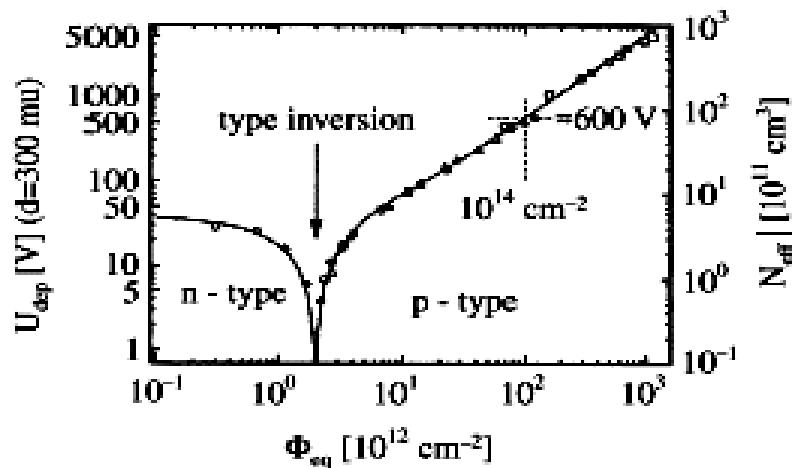
$\Rightarrow$ can be charged - can be generation/recombination centers - can be trapping centers

Radiation damage consequences

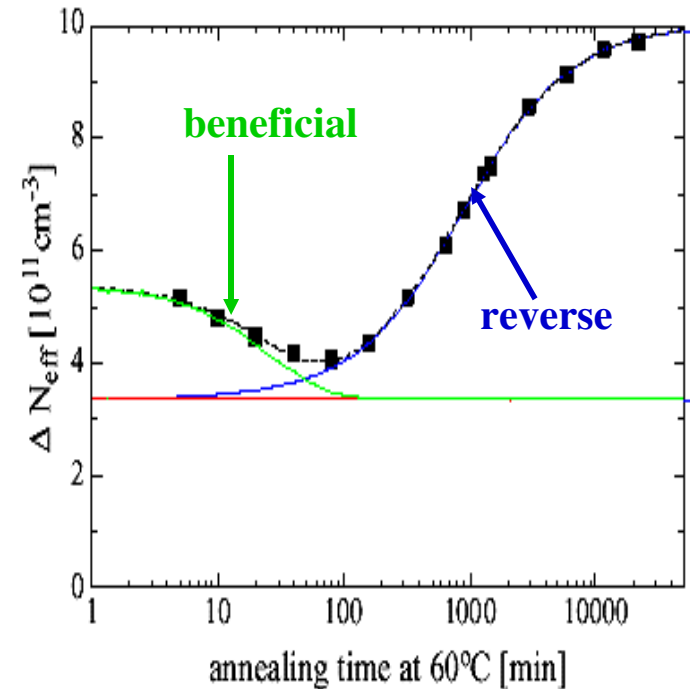
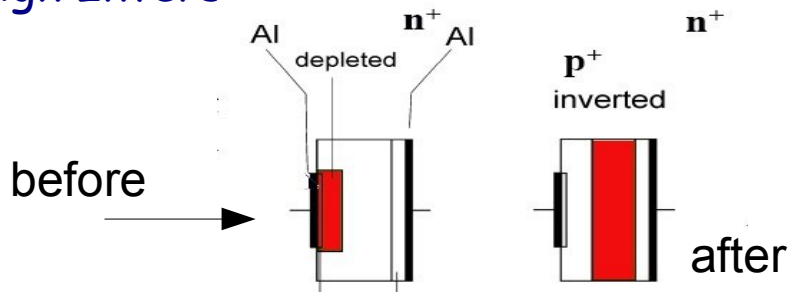
- Two general types of radiation damage:
 - Bulk (Crystal) damage due to Non Ionizing Energy Loss (NIEL)
 - I. Change of depletion voltage (higher operation voltage, underdepletion)
⇒ constant cooling needed to avoid reverse annealing
 - II. Increase of leakage current (increase of shot noise, thermal runaway) ⇒ needs cooling of sensors during operation
 - III. Decrease of charge collection efficiency due to underdepletion and increased trapping
 - Surface damage due to Ionizing Energy Loss (IEL)
 - accumulation of positive in the oxide (SiO_2) and the Si/ SiO_2 interface affects: interstrip capacitance (noise factor), breakdown behaviour and other structures depending on near-surface effects
- Signal/noise ratio is the quantity to watch
⇒ Sensors can fail from radiation damage !

Depletion Voltage

- Change of Depletion Voltage V_{dep} (N_{eff})... with particle fluence:



- "Type inversion": N_{eff} changes from positive to negative (Space Charge Sign Inversion)



- Time constant depends on T
- Detectors must be kept cold even when the experiments are not running

Effect on I_{leak} and CCE

Effects on leakage current

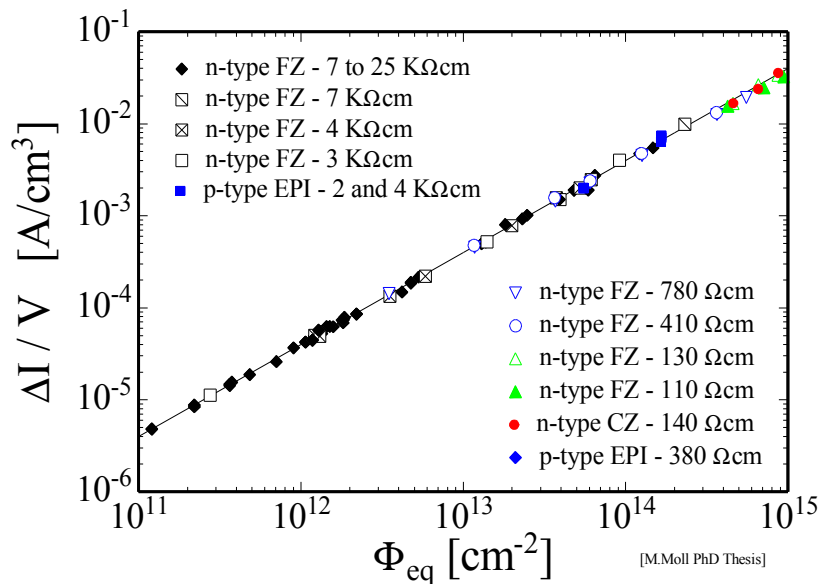
-Leakage current as function of fluence:

$$\Delta I_{\text{leak}} = \alpha \Phi, \alpha \text{ is known as the damage constant}$$

-For I_{leak} there is only beneficial and no reverse annealing effect.

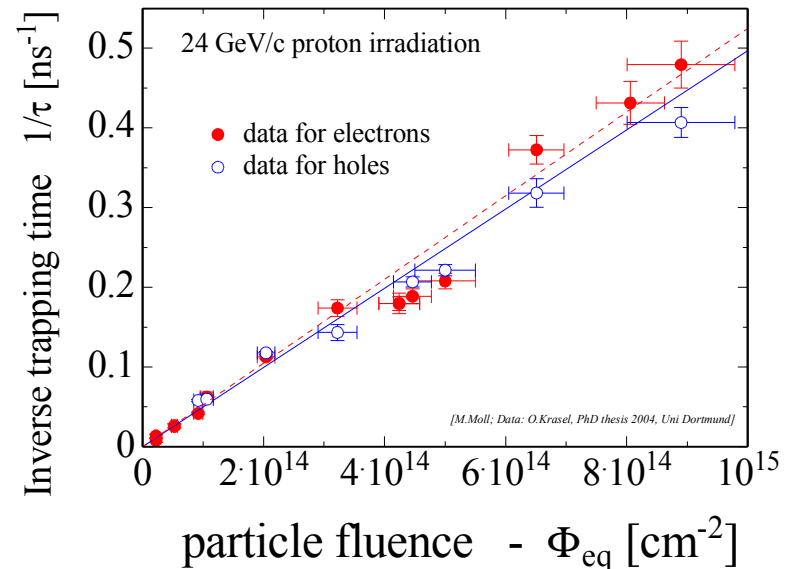
-Thermal runaway risk

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta I}{V \cdot \Phi_{\text{eq}}}$$



Effects on charge collection

-The increased number of trapping states in the depletion region leads to a decrease of CCE (signal). The magnitude of the effect is about a 10% loss of signal for $\Phi = 2 \times 10^{14}$ n/cm².





Approaches to develop radiation harder tracking detectors

Scientific strategies:

- Material engineering
- Device engineering
- Change of detector operational conditions

Defect Engineering of Silicon

- Understanding radiation damage
 - Macroscopic effects and Microscopic defects
 - Simulation of defect properties & kinetics
 - Irradiation with different particles & energies
- Oxygen rich Silicon
 - DOFZ, Cz, MCZ, EPI
- Oxygen dimer & hydrogen enriched Si
- Pre-irradiated Si
- Influence of processing technology

New Materials

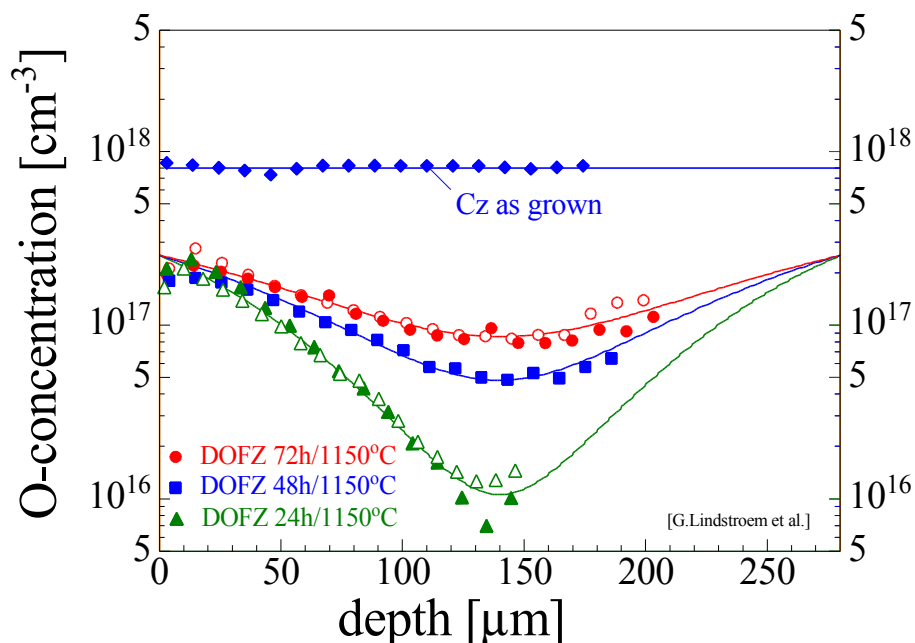
- Silicon Carbide (SiC), Gallium Nitride (GaN)
- Diamond: CERN RD42 Collaboration
- Amorphous silicon

Device Engineering (New Detector Designs)

- p-type silicon detectors (n-in-p)
- thin detectors
- 3D and Semi 3D detectors
- Stripixels
- Cost effective detectors
- Simulation of highly irradiated detectors
- Monolithic devices

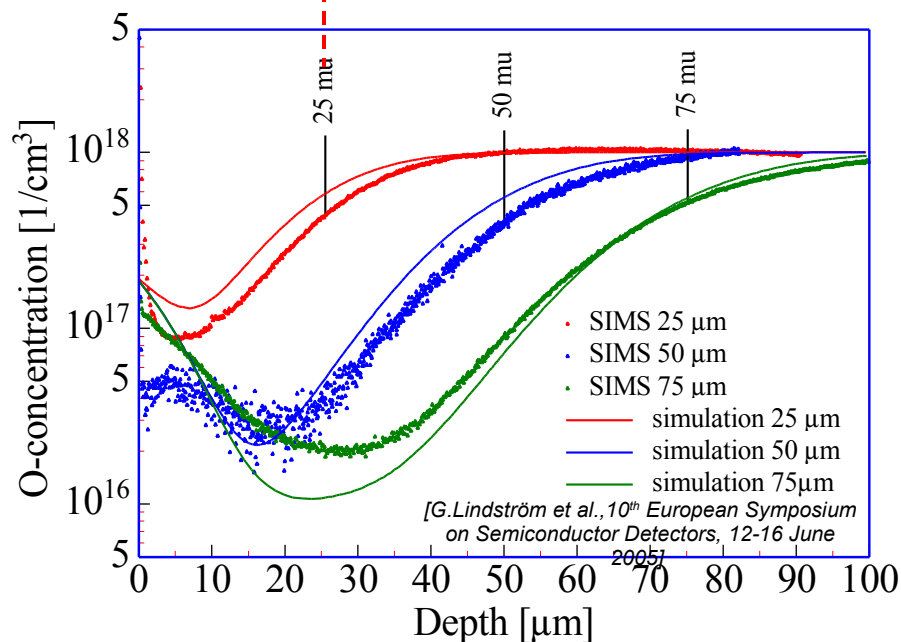
Cz and DOFZ silicon

- CZ: high O_i (oxygen) and O_{2i} (oxygen dimer) concentration (homogeneous)
- CZ: formation of Thermal Donors possible !



- DOFZ: inhomogeneous oxygen distribution
- DOFZ: oxygen content increasing with time at high temperature

Epitaxial silicon



- EPI: O_i and O_{2i} (?) diffusion from substrate into epi-layer during production
- EPI: in-homogeneous oxygen distribution

DOFZ Used by CMS & ATLAS for pixels

Standard FZ, DOFZ, Cz and MCZ Silicon

24 GeV/c proton irradiation

• Standard FZ silicon

- type inversion at $\sim 2 \times 10^{13} \text{ p/cm}^2$
- strong N_{eff} increase at high fluence

• Oxygenated FZ (DOFZ)

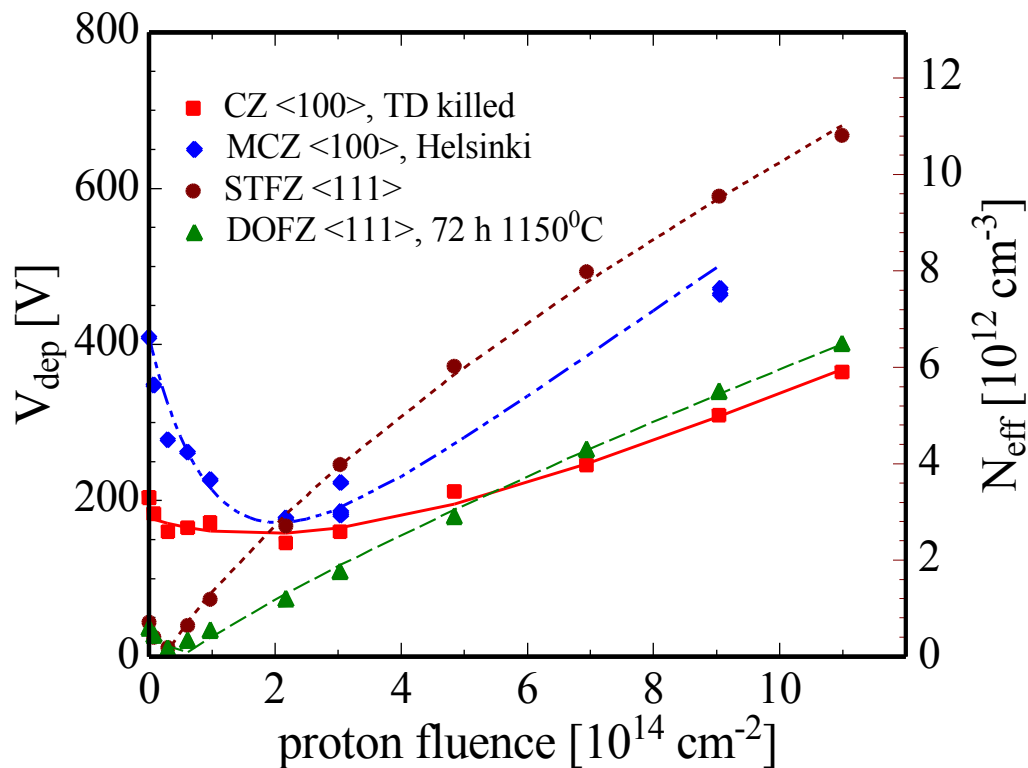
- type inversion at $\sim 2 \times 10^{13} \text{ p/cm}^2$
- reduced N_{eff} increase at high fluence

• CZ silicon and MCZ silicon

no type inversion in the overall fluence range (verified by TCT measurements)
(verified for CZ silicon by TCT measurements, preliminary result for MCZ silicon)
⇒ donor generation overcompensates acceptor generation in high fluence range

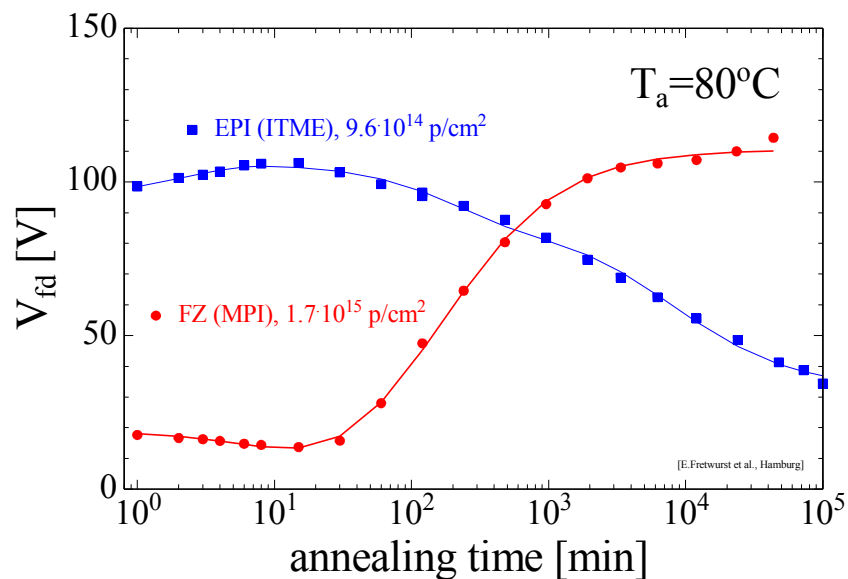
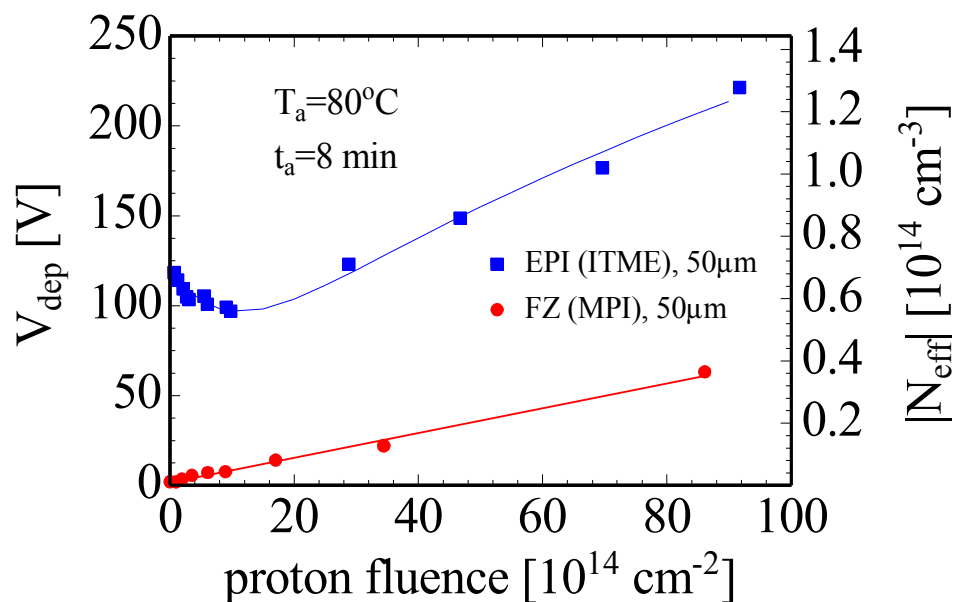
Common to all materials (after hadron irradiation):

- reverse current increase
- increase of trapping (electrons and holes) within $\sim 20\%$



Epitaxial silicon - Annealing

- 50 μm thick silicon detectors:
 - Epitaxial silicon (50 Ωcm on CZ substrate, ITME & CiS)
 - Thin FZ silicon (4K Ωcm MPT Munich, wafer bonding technique)



[E.Fretwurst et al., RESMDD - October 2004]

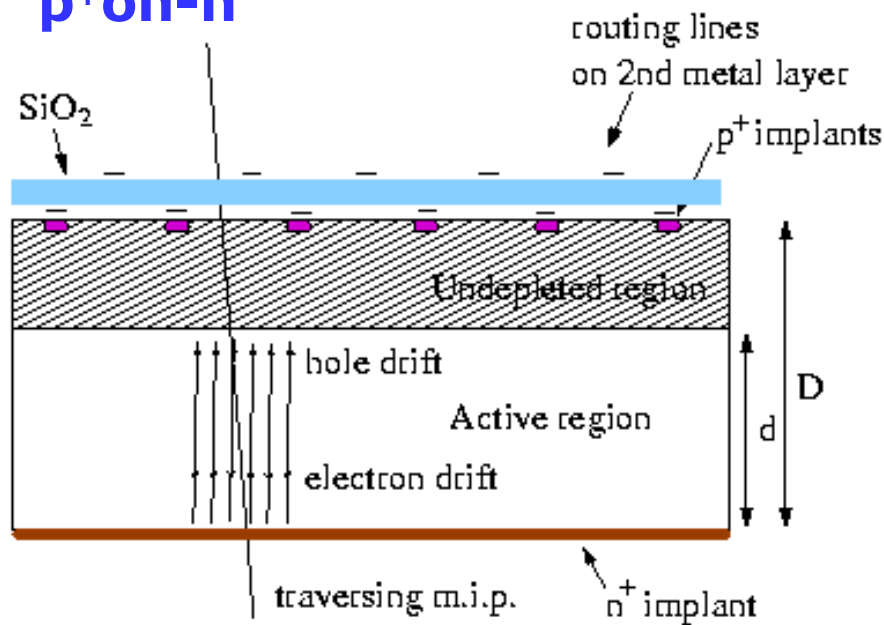
- Thin FZ silicon: Type inverted, increase of depletion voltage with time
- Epitaxial silicon: No type inversion, decrease of depletion voltage with time
 $\Rightarrow$ No need for low temperature during maintenance of SLHC detectors!

Device engineering

p-in-n versus n-in-n detectors

n-type silicon after type inversion:

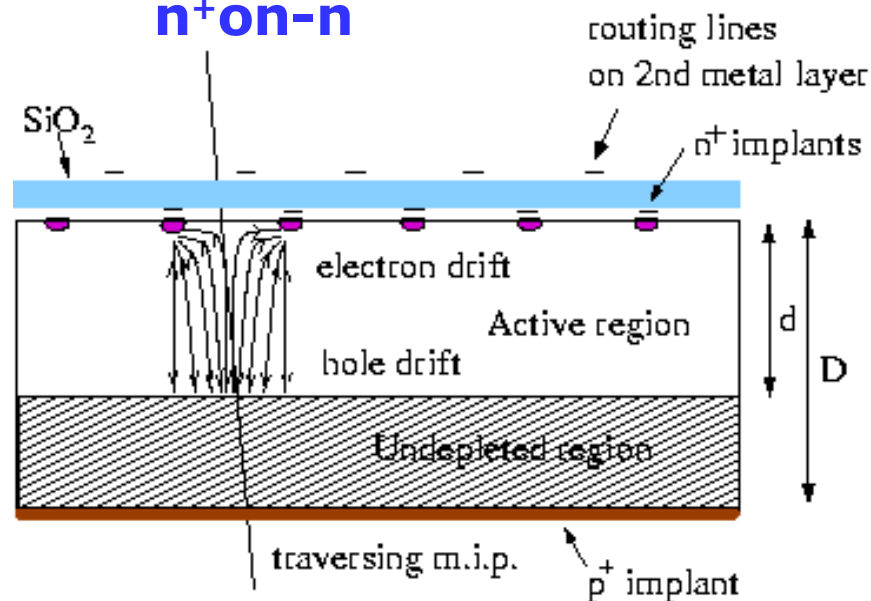
p⁺on-n



p-on-n silicon, under-depleted:

- Charge spread – degraded resolution
- Charge loss – reduced CCE
- **Atlas and CMS strips**

n⁺on-n



n-on-n silicon, under-depleted:

- Limited loss in CCE
- Less degradation with under-depletion
- Collect electrons (fast)
- **ATLAS and CMS pixels**



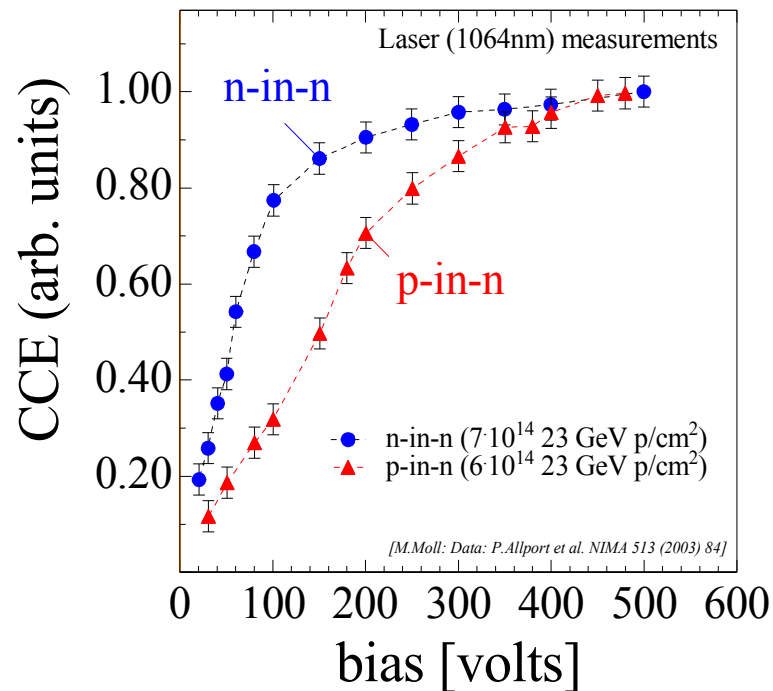
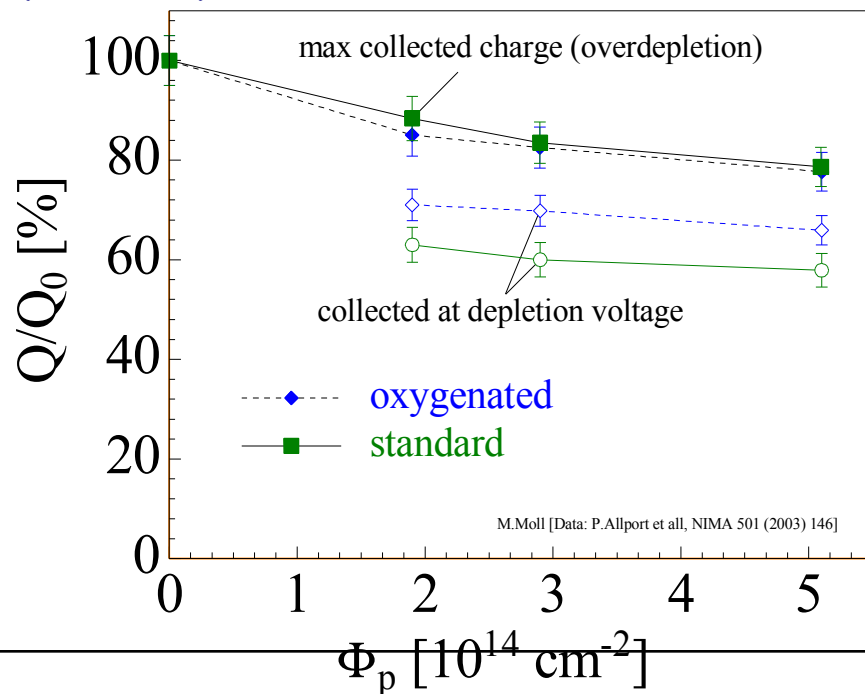
Impact on Detector: Decrease of CCE

- Loss of signal and increase of noise -

- Two basic mechanisms reduce collectable charge:
 - trapping of electrons and holes (depending on drift and shaping time !)
 - under-depletion (depending on detector design and geometry !)

• Example: ATLAS microstrip detectors + fast electronics (25ns)

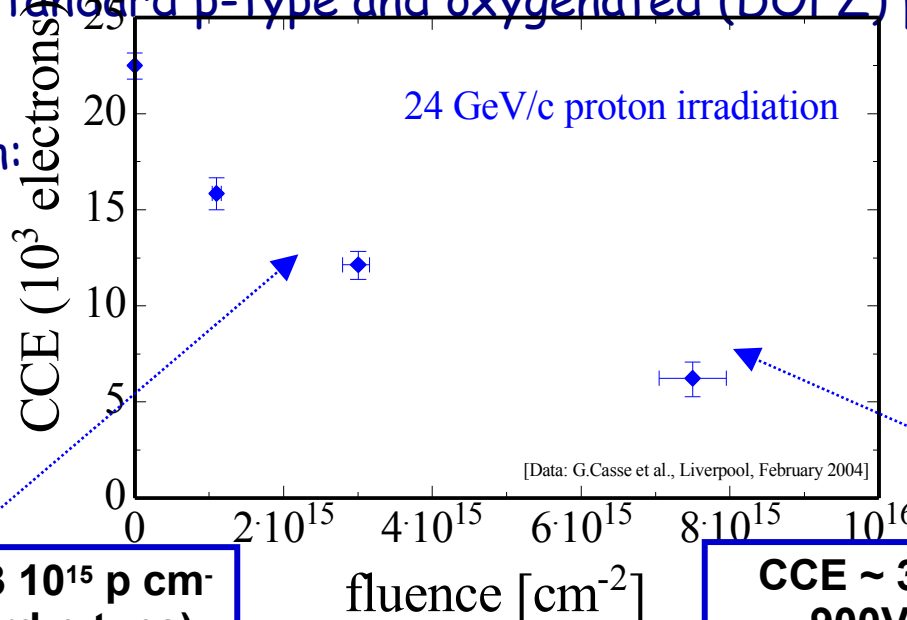
- p-in-n : oxygenated versus standard FZ
 - beta source
 - 20% charge loss after 5×10^{14} p/cm² (23 GeV)
- n-in-n versus p-in-n
 - same material, ~ same fluence
 - over-depletion needed



n-in-p microstrip detectors

n-in-p: - no type inversion, high electric field stays on structured side
- collection of electrons

- Miniature n-in-p microstrip detectors (280 μm)
- Detectors read-out with LHC speed (40MHz) chip (SCT128A)
- Material: standard p-type and oxygenated (DOFZ) p-type
- Irradiation:



G. Casse et al.,
NIMA535(2004) 362

At the highest fluence
 $Q \sim 6500e$ at $V_{\text{bias}} = 900V$

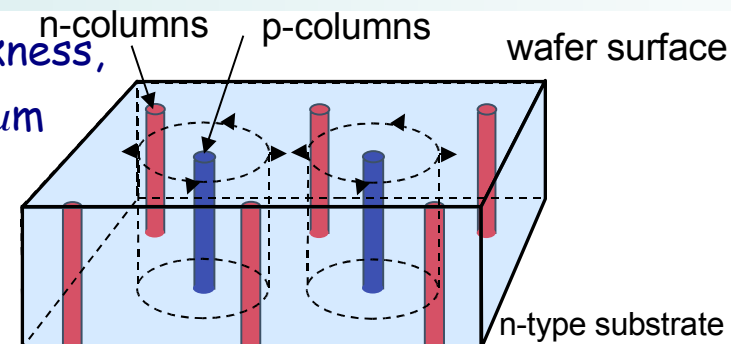
CCE ~ 60% after $3 \cdot 10^{15} \text{ p cm}^{-2}$ at 900V (standard p-type)

CCE ~ 30% after $7.5 \cdot 10^{15} \text{ p cm}^{-2}$ 900V (oxygenated p-type)

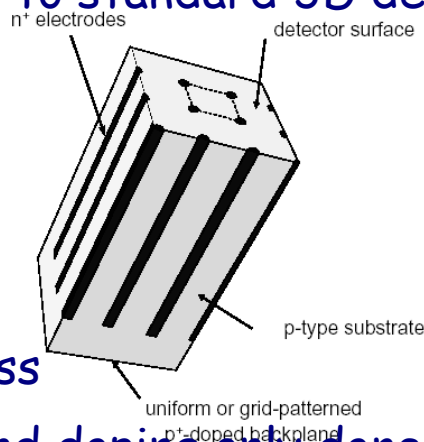
3D detector - concepts

Introduced by: S.I. Parker
et al., NIMA 395 (1997)
328

- "3D" electrodes: - narrow columns along detector thickness,
- diameter: $10\mu\text{m}$, distance: $50 - 100\mu\text{m}$
- Lateral depletion:- lower depletion voltage needed
- thicker detectors possible
- fast signal
- radiation hard



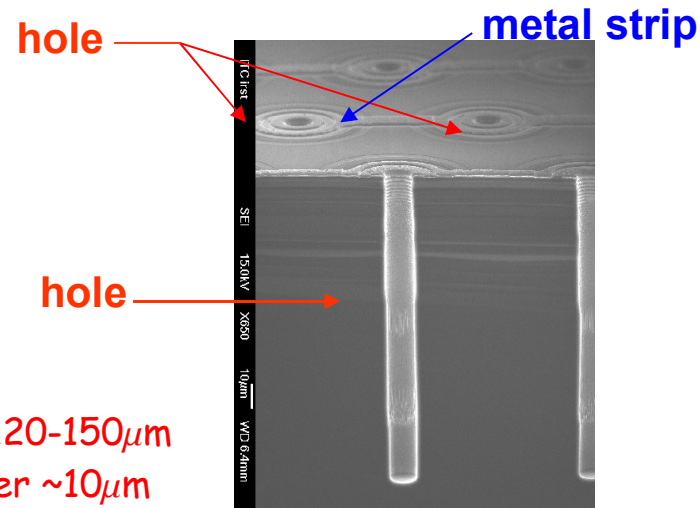
- Simplified 3D architecture
 - n^+ columns in p-type substrate, p^+ backplane
 - operation similar to standard 3D detector



[C. Piemonte et al.,
NIM A541 (2005) 441]

- Simplified process
 - hole etching and doping only done once
 - no wafer bonding technology needed

- Simulations performed
- Fabrication:
 - IRST(Italy), CNM Barcelona



Hole depth $120-150\mu\text{m}$
Hole diameter $\sim 10\mu\text{m}$

C.Piemonte et al., STD06, September 2006

- First CCE tests under way



Summary

- At fluences up to 10^{15}cm^{-2} (Outer layers of a SLHC detector) the change of depletion voltage and the large area to be covered by detectors is the major problem.
 - CZ silicon detectors could be a cost-effective radiation hard solution (no type inversion, use p-in-n technology)
 - p-type silicon microstrip detectors show very encouraging results:
 $CCE \approx 6500 \text{ e}$; $\Phi_{eq} = 4 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, $300 \mu\text{m}$, collection of electrons, no reverse annealing observed in CCE measurement!
- At the fluence of 10^{16}cm^{-2} (Innermost layer of a SLHC detector) the active thickness of any silicon material is significantly reduced due to trapping.

The promising new options are:

 - Thin/EPI detectors : drawback: radiation hard electronics for low signals needed
e.g. 2300 e at $\Phi_{eq} = 8 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, $50 \mu\text{m}$ EPI,
 - 3D detectors : drawback: technology has to be optimized
..... steady progress within RD50
- New Materials like SiC and GaN (not shown) have been characterized .
CCE tests show that these materials are not radiation harder than silicon

Further information:
<http://cern.ch/rd50/>



References

- " Silicon Microstrip Detectors ", A.Peisert, in " Instrumentation in High Energy Physics ", F.Sauli (ed), World Scientific, (1992).

Many plots (and slides) from

- M. Moll, CERN Summer Student Lectures, 2005 and Pixel2005 presentation, RD50 presentations <http://rd50.web.cern.ch/rd50/>
- O. Ullaland, CERN Summer Student Lectures, 2006
- Alan Honma, "Silicon Detectors", Nato Advanced Study Institute, Virgin Islands, 06/2002, <http://cern.ch/honma/>