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Permalink
https://escholarship.org/uc/item/9dg729jz

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Publication Date
2002-07-28
Proton Radiation Damage in P-Channel CCDs Fabricated on High-Resistivity Silicon.

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Abstract — P-channel, backside illuminated silicon CCDs were developed and fabricated on high-resistivity n-type silicon. Devices have been exposed up to $1 \times 10^{11}$ protons/cm$^2$ at 12 MeV. The charge transfer efficiency and dark current were measured as a function of radiation dose. These CCDs were found to be significantly more radiation tolerant than conventional n-channel devices. This could prove to be a major benefit for long duration space missions.

Keywords — CCD, High Resistivity Silicon, Radiation Damage.

I. INTRODUCTION

UNIQUE CCDs have been developed at Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory (LBNL) using high-resistivity n-type silicon and boron implants to create p-channel devices. Such devices are expected to be more radiation tolerant than standard CCDs since they are manufactured using the same high-purity n-type substrate used in the production of radiation detectors at high energy physics experiments. While standard CCDs are manufactured on low resistivity p-type silicon with typical depletion depths of several microns [1], our CCDs allow the application of an external voltage to create a depletion zone of 300 $\mu$m or more in the high resistivity n-type substrate [2].

This thicker depletion region has a twofold advantage. One, near infrared photons have a greater probability of being absorbed. Two, blue response can be extended via back-side illumination while maintaining a robust 300 $\mu$m thickness. This is unlike conventional CCDs that require thinning to tens of micron to minimize field-free collection regions.

II. RADIATION DAMAGE

Proton irradiation generates displacement damage in the silicon. Midgap levels in the depletion region will contribute to the dark current. Since our CCDs have a much larger depleted volume a concern existed that unacceptable dark current levels might result from radiation damage.

Traps in the channel region capture charge carriers during readout and degrade the charge transfer efficiency (CTE). The number of such traps is a function of occupied channel volume, and as such is independent of the depletion depth, so thicker CCDs do not have a disadvantage here. An additional narrow channel implant increases the charge density for small charge packets and thereby improves the CTE [3]. Large charge packets that fill the entire well cannot benefit from this improvement.

Conventional n-channel CCDs have a phosphorus-doped buried channel and suffer from the generation of phosphorus-vacancy (P-V) electron traps that degrade charge transfer efficiency [4]. As pointed out by Spratt et al. [5] and Hopkinson [6], the dominant hole trap expected after proton irradiation of a p-channel CCD is the divacancy. Divacancy formation is considered to be less favorable in a p-channel CCD compared to P-V formation in an n-channel CCD. In addition, the energy level of the divacancy, 0.21 eV above the valance band, is not likely to yield efficient dark current generation sites when compared to P-V sites, located closer to the middle of the bandgap (0.42 - 0.46 eV below the conduction band edge [4], [5]).

Fabrication of the CCD on high-resistivity silicon is expected to enhance the hardness to P-V generated dark current given the extremely low phosphorus concentration in the bulk (low to mid $10^{11}$ cm$^{-3}$). For these reasons it is expected that p-channel CCDs will be more resistant to proton damage than their n-channel counterparts. However, other hole traps are possible (e.g interstitial carbon [7]) and are under investigation for possible deleterious effects on p-channel CCDs.

III. MEASUREMENTS

For this study two sets of four CCDs were characterized and then irradiated with protons at the LBNL 88° Cyclotron. One set employed an additional “notch” implant in the channel. A proton energy of 12 MeV was chosen to yield a high Non Ionizing Energy Loss (NIEL), giving the greatest damage at the lowest radiation dose, while maintaining sufficient penetration depth to spread out the damage evenly over the device thickness. The dose can easily be scaled to other proton energies using the NIST PSTAR data [8].

The devices are 512 by 1024 pixels, 15 $\mu$m pitch, engineering grade devices. They have not been backside processed, are 600 $\mu$m thick, and therefore cannot be fully depleted. Accordingly they are used as front illuminated devices. The four CCDs from each set were irradiated at doses of $5 \times 10^9$, $1 \times 10^{10}$, $5 \times 10^{10}$, and $1 \times 10^{11}$ protons/cm$^2$. The irradiation took place while the devices were unpowered and at room temperature. The devices were characterized before and after irradiation to evaluate the performance degradation due to radiation damage.
IV. CTE Degradation

The CTE is the most critical functional parameter of the CCD affected by radiation. CTE is defined as the fraction of charge that is successfully transferred from one pixel to the next during readout. This means that the charge read out is:

\[ Q_{\text{out}} = Q_{\text{dep}} \times \text{CTE}^{n_{\text{pixel}}} \]

Where \( Q_{\text{dep}} \) is the charge deposited in a pixel and \( n_{\text{pixel}} \) is the number of transfers before the pixel is read out. CTE is separated into the horizontal component \( \text{CTE}_{\text{serial}} \) and the vertical component \( \text{CTE}_{\text{parallel}} \).

Previous space-based devices suffered from poor CTE due to radiation damage. This effectively limits CCD size, thereby increasing the parts count and complexity for large mosaic cameras. The goal is to produce a class of CCDs that can maintain a good CTE over years in space.

A. CTE Extraction

Even though the above definition seems intuitive, methods for CTE measurement can give different results since the CTE is a function of temperature, read-out speed, signal size, background signal, and clocking waveform. CTE is measured here using a \( ^{55} \text{Fe} \) \( \gamma \) source, which deposits on average 1620 e\(^{-}\) per hit pixel [1]. By plotting the peak height vs the distance along the serial register or row number the Serial CTE and Parallel CTE can easily be found (see Figure 1).

![Fig. 1. X-ray stacking plot for parallel CTE calculation. The cluster of points around the line show the \( ^{55} \text{Fe} \) \( \gamma \) X-ray. The slope is a measure of the CTE at 128 K. The measurement was performed after a dose of \( 1 \times 10^{10} \) protons/cm\(^2\).](image1)

B. CTE Results

CTE is measured as a function of temperature with a 30 kpixel/sec readout rate and an X-ray density of roughly 1/70 per pixel. Figure 2 shows the CTE as a function of radiation dose at 128 K. This temperature was chosen since it appears to be optimal for this type of CCD at this readout speed. The CTE of the devices was 0.999999 before irradiation. Errors in the CTE are dominated by the error in the fit to the peak height stacking plot. A reduction in CTE in one direction smears out the peak in the other direction, increasing the fit errors. The error is estimated to be

\[ \Delta \text{CTE}_{\text{serial}} = 10^{-6} + (1 - \text{CTE}_{\text{parallel}})/20, \]

and

\[ \Delta \text{CTE}_{\text{parallel}} = 10^{-6} + (1 - \text{CTE}_{\text{serial}})/20. \]

![Fig. 2. The CTE degradation at 128 K after irradiation.](image2)

Since each device was irradiated to a specific dose there is the opportunity to observe annealing effects and to perform additional measurements on any device at a later date. However, no insight is gained into the natural variation of the radiation tolerance from observing multiple devices with the same dose. A future irradiation run is planned to bring all devices to a common total dose. One can then look at the inherent device variation and estimate the spread in CTE at different radiation levels.

At 128K, serial CTE is less affected by the radiation since traps in the serial register are often filled by losses from a preceding X-ray. The slower parallel line shift does not benefit from the X-ray density.

![Fig. 3. The CTE as a function of temperature for the CCD with the highest dose (\( 1 \times 10^{11} \) protons/cm\(^2\)).](image3)
ing. It shows the inefficiency of the traps at high temperature, where the clock overlap time is longer than the detrapping time, as well as the low temperature region where the traps are mostly saturated due to the long detrapping time [9]. The parallel CTE does not recover at cold temperatures since trap saturation does not play a role for the much slower line transfer over the operating temperature range of the CCD. This could be different for higher frame rate read out.

C. The “Notch” Implant

The CCDs with the “notch” implant are identical by fabrication to the other set of CCDs, except for an additional boron implant which shapes the potential well in the vertical channels to create a narrow notch along the center of the channel. The horizontal register on both sets of CCDs has a notch implant, scaled wider to allow summation of multiple pixels. Figure 4 shows the parallel CTE of the regular and notch devices. The notch devices show a radiation tolerance that is more than twice as good as our regular CCDs. This is to be expected since the notch implant occupies roughly 1/2 the width of the regular channel and all of our test charges reside in the notch. Thus they are exposed to only half the radiation damage.

D. Comparison with Conventional Devices

In the literature there are only a limited number of rigorous measurements of CTE degradation due to radiation damage that use low temperature, similar speed CCDs, and do not use a background charge to improve CTE. Two good examples are reference [10] and [11]. Unfortunately the proton energies chosen are very different. The energy deposited in the silicon by protons can be separated into the ionizing and non ionizing energy loss (NIEL). To compare the damage to the silicon the NIEL dose is compared [8]. In Figure 5 the four different CCD types are compared. Since the data from references [10] and [11] does not include higher radiation doses the linear fit lines have been extended as an extrapolation. From the slope of the lines the shift in CTE is calculated.

\[ \Delta CTE = 8.3 \times 10^{-12}\text{g/MeV} \]

is found for the data from [10].

\[ \Delta CTE = 1.9 \times 10^{-12}\text{g/MeV} \]

is found for the data from [11], while only

\[ \Delta CTE = 2.5 \times 10^{-13}\text{g/MeV} \]

is observed for our standard high-resistivity devices and

\[ \Delta CTE = 9.6 \times 10^{-14}\text{g/MeV} \]

for our notch high-resistivity devices.

A three year high earth orbit space mission can expect $2 \times 10^7\text{MeV/g}$ of NIEL. This would cause a CTE degradation of only $1.9 \times 10^{-6}$ in one of our notch devices. While it is clear that high resistivity p-channel CCDs are much more radiation tolerant than conventional devices, the orders of magnitude difference in irradiation doses in the measurements make a direct comparison difficult. Since a much higher radiation tolerance is expected in our case, the experimental data is focused at much higher doses and comparison to low dose data is problematic.

V. Dark Current

To measure the dark current accurately at low temperature, multiple one hour dark exposures were taken. By assigning each pixel the minimum value read in any of the frames, sporadic events such as cosmic rays are eliminated, while CCD parameters such as dark current and hot pixels are retained. The dark current is then calculated by fitting a Gaussian to the histogram of all pixel values in the image area, and another Gaussian to the histogram of all pixel values in the serial overscan area. The difference in the location of the peaks is the dark current observed during one hour (see Figure 6).

Figure 7 shows the measured increase of dark current with radiation dose at one fixed temperature. The detrimental effect of dark current is that the added shot noise cannot be eliminated from the image. The minimum read noise of the tested CCDs is 2 e\(^-\). Therefore dark current of less than 4 e\(^-\)/exposure has little impact on the CCD performance. Even after the highest irradiation dose 30 minute exposures meet that benchmark.

The dark current is strongly dependent on the temperature [1]. Figure 8 shows the typical exponential in-
dark current (ADU/h) = 1718.62 - 1713.95 = 4.67

Fig. 6. Typical histogram for dark current calculation. The data to the right is from the pixel area; the data to the left is from the serial overscan area.

signal value (ADU)

number of pixels

dark current (ADU/h) = 1718.62 - 1713.95 = 4.67

Fig. 7. Dark current in electrons per pixel per hour vs. radiation dose at 128 K. The line is a linear fit to the data.

crease of dark current with temperature, as well as the low temperature limit. An exponential fit to the four high-temperature points yields an activation energy of 0.609 eV for the midgap levels responsible for the dark current generation. Even after the moderate radiation dose (5 \times 10^9 protons/cm²) of the CCD in Figure 8 the dark current is not significantly elevated.

VI. Conclusion

The high-resistivity p-channel CCDs exhibit extremely low dark current at the operating temperature. This is attributed to the ultra high purity silicon, lower operating temperature and a gettering process used for device fabrication. The dark current degradation due to radiation damage is small. Even after a dose of 1 \times 10^{11} protons/cm² exposures up to 30 minutes are read noise dominated.

The initial serial and parallel CTE of all tested devices was excellent over the entire operating temperature range. Radiation damage proved to be much less detrimental than in conventional CCDs. Both serial and parallel CTE are substantially more radiation tolerant to proton radiation exposure. The notch implant in the parallel register further improves radiation tolerance of the parallel CTE. The potential lifetime in space is measured in decades, not years.

REFERENCES