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Progress in DMAPS developments and first tests of the Monopix2 chips in 150 nm LFoundry and 180 nm TowerJazz technology

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Abstract

Depleted Monolithic Active Pixel Sensors (DMAPS) are monolithic pixel de-16 tectors with high-resistivity substrates designed for use in high-rate and highradiation environments. They are produced in commercial CMOS processes, resulting in relatively low production costs and short turnaround times, and 19 offer a low material budget. LF-Monopix1 and TJ-Monopix1 are large DMAPS prototypes produced in 150 nm LFoundry and 180 nm TowerJazz technology, 21 respectively, that follow two different design concepts regarding the charge collection electrode. Prototypes of both development lines have been extensively tested and characterized over the last years. The second-generation Monopix 24 prototypes, Monopix2, were recently produced. They were designed to address the shortcomings of their predecessors, in particular related to radiation hardness and cross talk, and further improve upon their performance. The latest measurements with LF-Monopix1 and TJ-Monopix1 concerning hit efficiency, depletion, and radiation hardness as well as the initial test results of the new Monopix2 prototypes are presented.

Keywords: Pixel detector, monolithic pixel, DMAPS, CMOS sensor, radiation

1. Introduction

In monolithic pixel detectors, the sensor and the readout electronics form an entity that is fabricated in the same silicon substrate using a commercial 35 CMOS process. As compared to the hybrid pixel detector technology, which is still the standard in current particle physics experiments and provides excel-37 lent rate capabilities and radiation tolerance, monolithic pixel detectors offer a low material budget and make the labor- and cost-intensive bump bonding process to connect sensor and readout chip unnecessary [1]. A challenge for the design of monolithic detectors is to decouple the charge collection from the high-frequency switching processes of the electronics and to reach sufficiently 42 large charge collection efficiencies in high-radiation environments, as expected for instance at the HL-LHC. Improved radiation tolerance can be achieved with Depleted Monolithic Ac-45 tive Pixel Sensors (DMAPS) that use high-ohmic substrates ($\rho > 1 \text{ k}\Omega \text{ cm}$) and large enough bias voltages to facilitate full depletion of the substrate (depletion 47 depth $d \propto \sqrt{\rho V_{\rm bias}}$) and fast charge collection by drift. Large-scale DMAPS prototype chips have been designed in various CMOS technologies with integrated fast readout electronics [2–4]. The two DMAPS development lines LF-Monopix 50 and TJ-Monopix, fabricated in 150 nm LFoundry and 180 nm TowerJazz tech-51 nology, respectively, feature different pixel layouts (in particular concerning the 52 size of the collection electrode), front-end implementations and biasing schemes while using the same readout architecture. They were initially developed to comply with the requirements of the outer layer of the ATLAS Inner Tracker 55 upgrade [5], but have a broad range of potential applications in particle physics, for instance for an upgrade of the Belle II experiment in Japan, and as imaging 57 sensors.

- generation prototypes, Monopix2, were submitted for both DMAPS lines in 2020
- ₆₂ and became available for testing in spring 2021. In this contribution, recent
- 63 updates on the Monopix1 characterizations and the first test results of the new
- 64 Monopix2 prototypes are presented.

₆₅ 2. The Monopix chips

LF-Monopix and TJ-Monopix are both fully monolithic pixel designs with
the readout electronics completely integrated in the pixel cell, but follow different concepts for the charge collection electrode. LF-Monopix features a large
electrode that surrounds the electronics, while TJ-Monopix has a small collection electrode with the electronics placed outside of the electrode. Both chips
use a fully synchronous column-drain readout architecture [6] that is similar to
the one used in the FE-I3 readout chip of the ATLAS pixel detector [7]. Charges
that are created in the sensitive volume by a traversing ionizing particle are collected in the collection electrode, amplified and converted into a voltage pulse
that is compared to an adjustable threshold. The leading and trailing edges
of the discriminator output determine the time of arrival and the total length
(time over threshold) of the pulse using a 40 MHz clock.

⁷⁸ 2.1. LF-Monopix design (LFoundry 150 nm)

LF-Monopix1 is the first large-scale DMAPS prototype with a large collection electrode and fully integrated electronics for fast standalone readout [8]. The pixel matrix has a size of 1×1 cm² and a pitch of $50 \times 250~\mu\text{m}^2$. A cross section of the pixel layout is shown in Fig. 1. The collection electrode is formed by a large deep n-implant that contains the in-pixel electronics, while being isolated from it through a p-type implant. A p-type substrate with a high resistivity (> $2~k\Omega$ cm) constitutes the sensitive volume, which can be fully depleted if a large enough bias voltage is applied. After wafer thinning and back-side processing, substrate thicknesses ranging from 750 μ m down to 100 μ m are available. The large electrode and strong electric field lead to short drift times

that result in a high charge collection efficiency and a good radiation tolerance.

On the other hand, the large sensor capacitance (~ 400 fF) related to the size of the electrode compromises the noise and rise time of the signal (more power for the analog front-end is needed to maintain a good timing performance) and requires special design efforts to reduce cross talk from digital activity into the sensing node. Detailed results of the characterization of LF-Monopix1 can be found in Refs. [2, 9–12].

The successor chip LF-Monopix2 has a size of 1×2 cm², i.e. full column length, and a smaller pixel pitch of $50 \times 150 \ \mu \text{m}^2$. The pixel matrix takes up 97 82% of the chip area, the rest is occupied by guard rings, decoupling capacitors and peripheral circuitry at the top and bottom of the chip. Due to the smaller 99 pixel size and hence reduced capacitance ($\sim 250-300~\mathrm{fF}$) an improved signal-100 to-noise ratio and a better timing performance are expected. A problem with spurious signals caused by cross talk related to switching of the digital read 102 signal that was observed with LF-Monopix1 was addressed by improving the 103 substrate potential connection inside the pixel and the shielding of the sensing 104 node from transients in $V_{\rm DD}$ lines caused by fast switching signals. A fast 105 and radiation-hard combination of preamplifier and discriminator was chosen 106 as main front-end implementation, based on performance measurements of the 107 first prototype. In addition, variations of such front-end and the chip's tuning 108 circuitry were designed to further improve the timing and threshold dispersion. 109 The matrix is divided into three main submatrices that include different charge sensitive amplifier (CSA) designs. One of the submatrices is further subdivided 111 into four regions with different CSA feedback capacitances (1.5 fF or 5.0 fF), 112 local threshold tuning schemes (unidirectional or bidirectional) and pixel-level 113 logic. The pixel design of LF-Monopix2 features rounded corners for reduction 114 of the electric field on the edges, which together with an optimized guard-ring 115 design improve the breakdown behavior of the sensor.



Figure 1: Schematic pixel cross section of LF-Monopix. The deep n-implant forms the charge collection electrode.

2.2. TJ-Monopix design (TowerJazz 180 nm)

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The TJ-Monopix series is based on a small collection electrode design [12– 118 14]. The TJ-Monopix1 chip has an area of 1×2 cm² and a pixel pitch of 119 $36 \times 40 \ \mu \text{m}^2$. A small n-well is used as collection electrode and separated from 120 the area where the in-pixel electronics is implemented (Fig. 2). A 25 μ m thick 121 p-type epitaxial layer with a resistivity of more than 1 k Ω cm grown on a lowresistivity substrate serves as sensitive volume. A deep p-well shields the n-wells 123 of the PMOS transistors and isolates them from the charge collection node, thus 124 facilitating full CMOS logic. One of the main advantages of this pixel geometry 125 is the small sensor capacitance ($\sim 3-4$ fF), which facilitates low noise levels and 126 fast timing while keeping the power consumption minimal. In addition, cross 127 talk is substantially reduced. However, the small-electrode design is generally 128 less radiation-hard due to longer drift times and regions with low electric field. 129 A modified CMOS process [15] with a low-dose n-type layer added over the full 130 pixel area improves the charge collection and is used to achieve full depletion of the epitaxial layer with small reverse bias voltages, thus enhancing radiation 132 hardness [16]. Since the hit efficiency after radiation damage turned out to be 133 still too low, additional implant modifications (n-gap or extra deep p-well) for 134 lateral field enhancement [17] or the use of a thick Czochralski substrate to 135 obtain a larger charge signal [18] were implemented and tested. Their effect is 136 discussed in Section 3.2.1. The TJ-Monopix1 chip has been characterized in a 137 series of measurements and the results can be found in Refs. [9, 10, 12]. 138

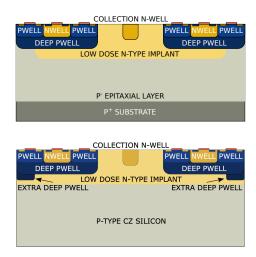


Figure 2: Schematic pixel cross section of TJ-Monopix. The small n-well separated from the readout electronics forms the charge collection electrode. Two process modifications are shown with p-epitaxial layer and n-gap on the pixel edges (top) and with p-type Czochralski substrate and extra deep p-well (bottom).

TJ-Monopix2 is a full-size $(2 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2)$ chip designed to address the short-139 comings of TJ-Monopix1 and provide more sophisticated periphery and LVDS 140 communication. The active area of TJ-Monopix2, which corresponds to about 141 70% of the chip area, contains 512×512 pixels with a size of $33.04 \times 33.04 \ \mu \text{m}^2$. 142 In addition to the ca. 25% smaller pixel size, which results in faster charge col-143 lection, improvements in the analog front end make a reduction of the operating 144 threshold by about a factor of 3 (below $200 e^-$) possible. An increased coupling 145 capacitor as well as larger transistors are expected to yield higher gain, lower 146 noise and improved TID tolerance. The significantly lower threshold enables 147 the detection of small charge depositions (e.g. because of charge sharing or 148 trapping) in the thin epitaxial layer. The Monopix2 chip contains four different 149 front-end flavors: DC-coupled pixels with diode input reset and AC-coupled pixels with front-side HV biasing, both with or without an extra cascode transistor 151 to increase the preamplifier gain. The new front-end circuit design reduces the 152 noise by approx. 40% and the threshold dispersion by 80 - 90%, depending 153

on the flavor [14]. Additional new functionalities were introduced such as improved pixel masking by using individual in-pixel configuration memory and a (3-bit) threshold tuning on pixel level to allow for a more uniform threshold distribution over the matrix.

3. Measurements

3.1. Results for LF-Monopix

3.1.1. Measurements with irradiated LF-Monopix1 chips

In a previous measurement with unthinned (750 μ m) LF-Monopix1 chips, 161 the hit efficiency after irradiation with neutrons up to a fluence of $10^{15} n_{eq} \text{cm}^{-2}$ 162 was determined to be 98.9% [2] for a threshold of $1600 e^-$ and a bias voltage 163 of 130 V. The efficiency has now also been measured for a backside-processed chip thinned down to 100 μm (of which 85 μm correspond to depletable silicon 165 substrate). The measurement was performed with a bias voltage of 60 V (160 V) 166 for the unirradiated (irradiated) case. The hit efficiency maps are shown in 167 Fig. 3. Efficiencies of 99.6% (99.4%) before (after) neutron irradiation were 168 obtained for the 100 μ m thick sensor. Since this measurement was performed with the same front-end flavor that serves as default for LF-Monopix2, a similar 170 efficiency may also be expected for the new chip. 171

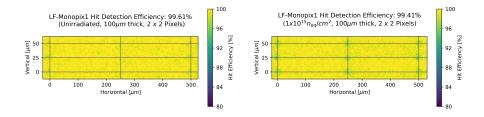


Figure 3: Hit efficiency, mapped onto a 2×2 pixel area, for LF-Monopix1 thinned down to $100 \ \mu\text{m}$, measured for an unirradiated chip (left) and after neutron irradiation up to a fluence of $10^{15} n_{eq} \text{cm}^{-2}$ (right).

The full depletion voltage for the 100 μ m thick silicon substrate used in both 172 LF-Monopix chips has been determined from a measurement of the most prob-173 able value of the deposited charge distribution for minimum ionizing particles (MIPs) in dependence of the applied bias voltage. As can be seen in Fig. 4, 175 full depletion is reached for bias voltages of ~ 15 V before and ~ 150 V after 176 irradiation. The maximum achievable charge for the neutron-irradiated sample 177 was found to be somewhat higher than for the unirradiated sample. This could 178 be due to chip-to-chip variations in thickness after wafer thinning or charge 179 multiplication occurring in a fully depleted thin sensor after exposure to severe 180 hadron fluences, but these hypotheses still require further investigation. 181

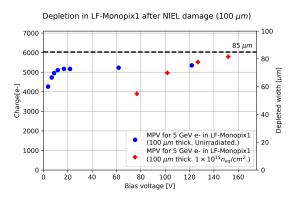


Figure 4: Depletion of LF-Monopix1 (100 μ m, unirradiated and neutron-irradiated to $10^{15}n_{eq}{\rm cm}^{-2}$) determined from the most probable value (MPV) of the charge distribution of traversing MIPs in dependence of the applied bias voltage.

3.1.2. First measurements with LF-Monopix2: Readout, leakage current, noise and threshold

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The new digital in-pixel injection circuitry implemented in LF-Monopix2 was used to validate the readout architecture and the response of the analog front end. A measurement of the CSA response as a function of injected charge is shown in Fig. 5. A linear response is observed and a gain of $\sim 20~\mu\text{V/}e^-$ is measured by looking directly at the analog output of the CSA. The correct

column-drain readout for the full-length column could successfully be demonstrated.

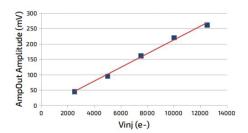


Figure 5: Measured CSA output as a function of injected charge for LF-Monopix2.

A measurement of the leakage current as a function of bias voltage was performed at room temperature for unthinned (750 μ m thick) sensors. No breakdown was observed for LF-Monopix2 up to the maximum applied bias voltage of 320 V, as can be seen in Fig. 6. For comparison, the breakdown voltage measured for a LF-Monopix1 chip of the same thickness is about 280 V. This demonstrates the effectiveness of the optimized guard-ring structure, which includes an increased ring spacing and an addition of p-type material to the rings to reduce the voltage drop in each of them.

First noise and threshold measurements for LF-Monopix2 were carried out. Threshold scans were performed by repeatedly injecting varying amounts of charge and counting the number of registered pixel hits. Threshold and ENC are extracted from a fit to the measured S-curves. The threshold is defined as the charge, for which 50% of the injections are observed as hits. The ENC was determined to be $90-100\,e^-$ (Fig.7) with a dispersion of $15-20\,e^-$. The minimum threshold was found to be approximately $1000\,e^-$. The noise is about 30% lower than for LF-Monopix1, which meets the expectation. Since it was measured with the same front-end flavor for both chips, most of the improvement in ENC mean and dispersion should come from the reduced detector capacitance.

The results of the measurements that have been performed with LF-Monopix2 so far are summarized in Tab. 1 and compared to the expected values and the

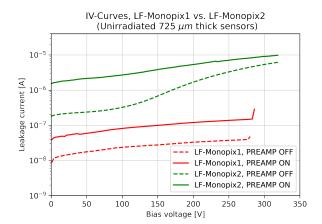


Figure 6: Comparison of I-V curves for LF-Monopix1 and LF-Monopix2 (backside-processed, 750 μ m thick sensors). The higher level of leakage current for LF-Monopix2 in this plot is mainly due to the larger number of pixels.

ones measured for LF-Monopix1.

3.2. Results for TJ-Monopix

3.2.1. Hit efficiency of irradiated TJ-Monopix1

While the measurements performed with TJ-Monopix1 have generally shown promising results, radiation hardness is still an issue. It was seen that after neutron-irradiation up to $10^{15}n_{eq}{\rm cm}^{-2}$, the hit efficiency is only about 70% [9], which is partially due to charge losses in the weak lateral electrical field under the deep p-well. As mentioned in Sec. 2.2, this problem was addressed by introducing a gap in the n-implant used for full depletion or an additional p-implant in this region to enhance the charge collection [17]. Moreover, an increase of the charge signal would be beneficial and can be achieved through use of a thick Czochralski substrate instead of a thin epitaxial layer (cf. Fig. 2).

Two such sensor variants with (1) 30 μ m epitaxial layer and n-gap and (2) 300 μ m Czochralski substrate and extra deep p-well were studied. Since the modifications with n-gap and extra deep p-well serve the purpose of enhancing radiation tolerance similarly well, as was illustrated in Ref. [19], a comparison

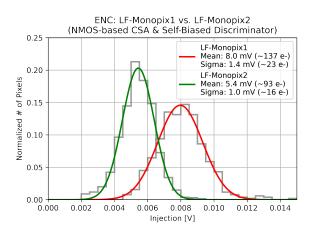


Figure 7: Normalized ENC distribution for LF-Monopix1 and LF-Monopix2.

of these two sensor variants mainly corresponds to a study of the effect of the thickness of the sensitive volume. The two sensor variants were irradiated with neutrons at the TRIGA reactor in Ljubljana and taken to a test-beam campaign 229 with a 5 GeV electron beam at DESY. The hit efficiency maps, where the 230 efficiencies obtained for all pixels have been projected onto a 2×2 pixel area, 231 are shown in Fig. 8. As expected, the charge loss appears mostly in the pixel 232 corners, where charge sharing is most prominent, while the efficiencies in the 233 central pixel regions are only reduced by a few percent. The first variant with 234 30 μ m epitaxial layer shows an increased efficiency of 87.1% after irradiation 235 with neutrons up to $10^{15}n_{eq}$ cm⁻², illustrating the improvement due to the n-236 gap. The second variant with 300 μ m Czochralski substrate yields an efficiency 237 of 98.6%. The larger amount of charge deposited in the thicker sensitive volume 238 thus leads to the expected significant improvement in hit efficiency. It can thus 239 be concluded that the sensor can be made efficient after radiation damage by 240 making the sensitive volume thicker or by lowering the minimum achievable 241 threshold through front-end optimization.

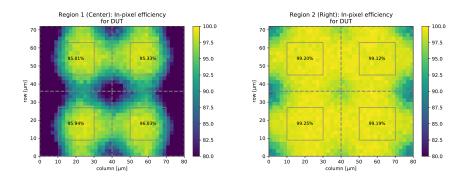


Figure 8: Hit efficiency for TJ-Monopix1 after neutron irradiation to $10^{15}n_{eq}$ cm⁻², mapped onto a 2×2 pixel area. Two different sensor variants are shown. Left: 30 μ m epitaxial layer and n-gap (threshold: $450\,e^-$), right: 300 μ m Czochralski substrate and extra deep p-well (threshold: $490\,e^-$).

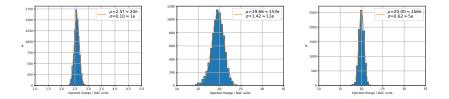


Figure 9: ENC distribution (left) and threshold distribution before (middle) and after local tuning (right) for TJ-Monopix2. The means (μ) and standard deviations (σ) obtained from Gaussian fits are given in the legends in units of electrons.

3.2.2. Noise and threshold for TJ-Monopix2

To achieve sufficient radiation hardness for a sensor with epitaxial layer, the threshold needs to be significantly reduced. The in-pixel threshold tuning, which was implemented as a new feature in TJ-Monopix2, helps to minimize the thresholds dispersion. Threshold scans were performed in the same way as explained in Sec. 3.1.2. A mean ENC of $20\,e^-$ with a dispersion of $1\,e^-$ and a threshold of $156\,e^-$ with a dispersion of $5\,e^-$ after threshold tuning are measured, which represent a significant improvement compared to TJ-Monopix1. Figure 9 compares the threshold distributions obtained before and after tuning. The in-

Table 1: Overview of measured performance parameters for the LF- and TJ-Monopix prototypes. For Monopix2 also the expected values are given. Entries with a dash (-) indicate that these parameters have not yet been measured for the Monopix2 chips.

	LFoundry			TowerJazz		
	Monopix1	Monopix2	Monopix2	Monopix1	Monopix2	Monopix2
	measured	expected	measured	measured	expected	measured
Noise	150 - 200 e -	100 - 150 e	90 - 130 e	~ 20 e ⁻	< 10 e	20 e
Threshold dispersion	100 e	80 e	100 e	~ 30 e ⁻	< 20 e	5 e-
Minimum threshold	1500 e	1000 e	$\sim 1000 e^-$	$\sim 300~e^-$	$< 150 e^{-}$	$< 150 e^{-}$
In-time threshold	2000 e	1500 e	-	$\sim 400 e^-$	250 - 300 e	_
Hit efficiency $(10^{15}n_{eq}$ cm $^{-2})$	> 99%	> 99%	-	~ 70% (> 98%*)	> 98%*	_

 $^{^*}$ for n-gap and 300 $\mu\mathrm{m}$ Czochralski substrate

pixel tuning works well and reduces the threshold dispersion by more than a factor of 2. The minimum achievable threshold has not yet been determined.

The results obtained for TJ-Monopix2 are preliminary, but indicate that the expected improvements can likely be achieved. The measured ENC is somewhat larger than expected, which is most likely due to cross talk from the digital readout. An overview of TJ-Monopix measurements is given in Tab. 1.

4. Conclusions

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The second-generation, full-size DMAPS prototypes Monopix2 arrived in 259 spring 2021 and are currently being tested and characterized. First tests have shown that their synchronous readout architecture in a full-length column is 261 fully functional and that sensors and front-ends show the performance expected 262 from their design improvements. The modifications in pixel layout and front-263 end design successfully mitigate cross talk. For TJ-Monopix2 it was shown that thanks to process modifications radiation hardness can be achieved with small enough thresholds or the use of a thick Czochralski substrate instead of an epitaxial layer. First results show significant improvements of threshold and noise 267 over the previous version. Further tests and more detailed characterizations of 268 both chips in test beams and after TID and NIEL irradiation are ongoing.

The TJ-Monopix2 prototype has recently been chosen as the baseline for the development of a CMOS sensor for an upgrade of the vertex detector of the Belle II experiment. Its specifications in terms of pixel size, rate capability, timing and radiation tolerance match the requirements for the Belle II upgrade well.

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