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SOI Thin Microdosimeters for High LET Single-Event Upset Studies in Fe, O, Xe, and Cocktail Ion Beam Fields

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Abstract—The response of a 5- μm -thin silicon on insulator (SOI) 3-D microdosimeter was investigated for single-event upset applications by measuring the linear energy transfer (LET) of different high LET ions. The charge collection characteristics of the device were performed using the ion beam-induced charge collection (IBIC) technique with 3- and 5.5-MeV He^{2+} ions incident on the microdosimeter. The microdosimeter was irradiated with ^{16}O , ^{56}Fe , and ^{124}Xe ions and was able to determine the LET within 5% for most configurations apart from ^{124}Xe . It was observed that on average, measured LET was 12% lower for 30-MeV/u ^{124}Xe ion traversing through different thickness Kapton absorbers in comparison to Geant4 simulations. This discrepancy can be partly attributed to uncertainties in the thickness of the energy degraders and the thickness of the SOI layer of the devices. The effects of overlayer thickness variation are not easily observed for ions with much lower LET as O and Fe. Based on that, it is difficult to make conclusion that the plasma effect is observed for 30-MeV/u ^{124}Xe ions and

further research to be carried out for ion with LET higher than 12 MeV/ μm .

Index Terms—Geant, hadron therapy, linear energy transfer (LET), microdosimetry, silicon-on-insulator (SOI) technology, single event upsets.

I. INTRODUCTION

SINGLE-EVENT effects (SEE) occur in microelectronics when highly energetic particles strike sensitive regions of a microelectronic circuit. SEE events can cause four possible outcomes: no observable effect, disruption of circuit operation, change in logic state, or permanent damage to the device or integrated circuit [1]. One of the most common environments in which these effects occur is deep space, where a significant number of high-energy heavy ions are observed. In these environments, the linear energy transfer (LET) spectrum should be characterized and monitored due to the adverse effects on human health as well as electronic components. This is especially important within the interior of a spacecraft. As heavy ions pass through shielding materials, the energy of such ions is significantly reduced and can also produce secondary particles. Lower energy ions can have very high LET, which can cause both significant biological damage and radiation damage in microelectric circuits.

Due to the potential of biological and electrical damage in space radiation environment, it is important to be able to monitor the incident radiation field of any mix of particles. Because size and weight are important considerations in space, it is preferable to have a light and compact detector design.

When a heavy ionizing particle strikes a detector, it creates a dense column of electron-hole pairs, which is considered as plasma if the Debye length is small compared with the column dimensions [3]. This electron-hole pair column serves to reduce the amount of charge collected within the detector due to charge recombination. This occurs as the electric field generated by the applied bias cannot penetrate the high-density cloud of electron-hole pairs formed inside the column. This allows the charge carriers to diffuse laterally within the plasma track. With increasing lateral charge diffusion, the amount of recombination within the detector can be seen to increase. Due to the presence of heavy ionizing particles in space, it is important that detectors used for monitoring are radiation hard, for both accuracy and lifetime of the device.

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Fig. 1. (a) Simplified schematics illustrating SV geometry of a trenched planar structure. (b) SEM image of the mushroom microdosimeter.

Previous work, which used a thin silicon on insulator (SOI) microdosimeter [10-μm-thick sensitive volume (SV)] to measure the LET of different low energy ions, showed no presence of plasma effects, with LETs reaching up to approximately 7 MeV/μm [2]. The aim of this article was to study the applicability of a new generation, thinner silicon microdosimeter for higher LET ion measurements.

II. METHOD

A. Detector Structures

The mushroom microdosimeter structures used in this article are the second generation of devices developed by the Centre for Medical Radiation Physics (CMRP), University of Wollongong in collaboration with SINTEF MiNaLab, Oslo, Norway. With respect to the previous generation, several modifications were adopted to simplify the fabrication process to allow for improved electrical characteristics with higher reliability. In the first generation, major issues were discovered with the metal line connections traversing over regions with high topography, where a large number of disrupted connections were observed, resulting in many sensors having multiple SVs not connected [4]. In this second generation, the topography of the front surface was significantly reduced to increase the robustness of the metal connections. The planarization process in the second generation was achieved by etching the polysilicon regions on the surface of the device.

Fig. 1(a) shows simplified schematics illustrating SV geometry of a trenched planar mushroom microdosimeter. Fig. 1(b) shows an scanning electron microscope (SEM) image of the device.

The second issue observed in the first generation of the planar trenched structure of the mushroom microdosimeter was the build-up charge in the oxide layer surrounding the SVs after irradiations [4]. In this new generation of microdosimeter, the p-stop implantation is connected to the p+ doping of the cylindrical trench (NO-GAP configuration). This topology can provide charge collection conformal to the SV when the devices are irradiated with high-intensity beams, i.e., completely avoiding the effect of positive charge build-up in PSTOP oxide leading to charge collection from outside of the SV through the bridges between SVs [2].

In this work, 5-μm-thin active layer microdosimeters with different sizes and pitches of SVs were tested and investigated. Different diameters of the SV designs include 18,

Fig. 2. Cross-sectional image of the 5-μm-thin mushroom microdosimeter.

30, and 50 μm with distances between core to core of adjacent SVs (pitch) of 30 or 50 μm. Fig. 2 shows the cross section of the 5-μm-thin and 18-μm diameter microdosimeter, which was obtained using SEM after milling the device using a focused ion beam at the Electron Microscopy Centre, Australian Institute for Innovative Materials (AIIM) at University of Wollongong (UOW). It can be seen that a trench, which reaches the bottom of the active layer of silicon, was etched into the silicon that is filled with polysilicon. This trench acts to isolate the charge sharing between adjacent SVs.

B. Charge Collection Study

The charge collection properties of the new generation of mushroom microdosimeter were studied in detail using the ion beam-induced charge collection (IBIC) technique at the 6-MV accelerator SIRIUS, located at the Centre for Accelerator Science (CAS) facility at Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organisation (ANSTO) [5], [6].

The IBIC measurements utilized a microbeam of 3- and 5.5-MeV He²⁺ ions, which were raster scanned over the surface of the sample. The spot size of the microbeam is approximately 1 μm. Energy deposited in the microdosimeter was measured using an AMPTEK A250 charge sensitive preamplifier and a Canberra 2025 Shaping Amplifier with 1-μs shaping time. The signal corresponding to the beam's position "x" and "y" as well as the energy deposited "E" for each event was processed into an event-by-event list mode file. The data were processed into median charge collection image maps for spatial correlation of the energy deposition of the scanned area [2]. The energy calibration was performed using a calibrated pulse generator, which was calibrated with a 300-μm-thick fully depleted planar silicon Hamamatsu p-i-n photodiode with 100% charge collection efficiency (CCE) in response to 3- and 5.5-MeV He²⁺ ions.

C. Charge Collection Efficiency

An approximate CCE value was calculated using the peak energy determined from IBIC and the peak value taken from a Geant4 simulation spectrum. Detailed detector geometry and overlayer thicknesses taken from SEM image were included

Fig. 3. Remote control movable platform holding the detector mounted on the MicroPlus probe in a water phantom, connected to power supply box.

in Geant4 simulation

$$\text{CCE}(\%) = \frac{E_{\text{IBIC}}}{E_{\text{Geant4}}} \times 100. \quad (1)$$

D. HIMAC Irradiation

In order to study the response of this new microdosimeter for different energy ranges of heavy ions which exist in deep space environments, an experiment was carried out with 400-MeV/u ^{16}O ions and 500-MeV/u ^{56}Fe ions at the Heavy Ion Medical Accelerator in Chiba (HIMAC), located at the National Institute of Radiological Sciences (NIRS) in Japan.

Monoenergetic ^{16}O and ^{56}Fe ions with initial energies of 400 and 500 MeV/u, respectively, were used in this experiment to irradiate the microdosimeter. The mushroom microdosimeters were connected to a low noise spectroscopy-based readout circuit (also called a MicroPlus probe). The probe was inserted into a water proof sheath and then placed in a water tank, as shown in Fig. 3. The MicroPlus probe measured at different depths in water along the central axis of the 400-MeV/u ^{16}O and 500-MeV/u ^{56}Fe ion beams. We define the quantity LET_{MCA} , calculated from the experiment and Geant4 simulation. This differs from the LET provided by SRIM [7], which is the theoretical energy lost by the ion in silicon. LET_{MCA} is defined as the energy deposition peak of the primary beam obtained in the multichannel analyzer (MCA) spectrum divided by the SOI active layer thickness of the microdosimeter. The ion energy for each experimentally obtained LET_{MCA} value corresponds to the energy of the ion after traversing water and over layers of microdosimeter calculated using Geant4. In the simulation, the ion energy was tuned to 493 MeV/u for Fe ions and 394 MeV/u for O ions to match the observed range in the experiment.

E. KVI Irradiation

The response of the new microdosimeter was also studied in mixed low energy ions (cocktails) at KVI-Center for Advanced Radiation Technology, The Netherlands. Oxygen and xenon ion beams were produced by the Advanced Electron Cyclotron

Fig. 4. Experimental setup at KVI.

Resonance (AEER) ion source and accelerated to approximately 30 MeV/u by the Accélérateur Groningen-ORsay (AGOR) cyclotron. The ions were transported in vacuum to the irradiation setup, which is in air. The 50- μm aramid vacuum window was located 79-mm upstream of the detectors. The beam intensity was reduced such that the count rate of the silicon detectors would not produce pile-up. A selection of degrader materials was inserted using a carousel of eight degrader foils, which is located just in front of the detector (Fig. 4).

F. Geant4 Modeling

The two configurations used to irradiate the microdosimeter at NIRS and KVI were modeled using the Geant4 (version 10.02p3) toolkit [8], [9]. For the HIMAC beamline, an existing simulation, which has been previously described extensively and validated in [10], was used. Briefly, the beamline consists of a pencil beam, which is shaped by a pair of wobbler magnets to shape the beam into a circular shape with a diameter of 100 mm at isocenter. After passing through the pair of wobbler magnets, the dose uniformity of beam is improved by passing through scatterer filters. For the ^{16}O ion beam, the scatterer filter was 0.91-mm-thick tantalum while for the ^{56}Fe ion consisted of 1.6 mm of lead and 0.215 mm of tantalum. After the beam passes the scatter filter, its neutron contribution is reduced by passing through a neutron shutter and is then shaped by a series of collimators, with the final collimation being performed by a pair of moveable X-Y brass collimators 5 cm thick.

The KVI beamline was modeled with the beam generated before the vacuum window, between the window and the surface of the detector there was 79 mm of air, with the degrader material being 30 mm in front of the detector.

The mushroom microdosimeter was accurately modeled in Geant4, with overlayers taken into account. For an extensive description of the modeling of the mushroom microdosimeter design in Geant4, readers are directed toward [11]. Bolst *et al.* [11] performed a validation study of the first-generation air-trenched microdosimeter in heavy-ion

Fig. 5. MCA spectra obtained with the 5- μm -thin microdosimeter at 0 and 10 V in response to 3-MeV He^{2+} ions.

Fig. 6. Median energy map of 5- μm -thin mushroom microdosimeter in response to 3-MeV He^{2+} ion at (a) 0 V and (b) 10 V.

therapy. Although the work discussed in this article uses a second-generation device, the method discussed for the first generation device is similar.

The Geant4 Low Energy Physics Package, based on Livermore data libraries, was selected to describe the electromagnetic interactions of particles. The threshold of production for e^- , e^+ , and γ was set to 250 eV, which is the lower limit of validity of this physics model [12], [13]. The Geant4 Quark Gluon String Precompound (QGSP) Binary Intranuclear Cascade (BIC) high-precision (HP) physics list was selected to model the hadronic physics processes.

III. RESULTS

A. Charge Collection Study

Fig. 5 shows the MCA spectra obtained at 0 and 10 V in response to 3-MeV He^{2+} ions for the 5- μm mushroom microdosimeter, using the IBIC technique. The energy peak was observed at 1163 keV, which corresponds correctly to the expected energy deposition of 1150 keV in 5- μm -thin silicon with 1.2- μm Al and 400-nm oxide calculated using a Geant4 simulation. It can be seen that at 0 V, the detector is almost completely depleted, with only a 3% difference in CCE between 0 and 10 V. Overall, the trenched planar structure has been shown in previous work to have a CCE of 96% [4].

Fig. 6 shows the median energy map of the full-array of SVs. It can be clearly seen that 100% yield was obtained in

Fig. 7. Median energy map of mushroom microdosimeter showing four cells at 10 V in response to a 5.5-MeV He^{2+} beam.

this generation of mushroom microdosimeter. Each SV has a diameter of 30 μm , with a pitch of 50 μm between SVs. It can be seen that each of the SVs has very uniform charge collection and well-defined volume shapes. Very low-energy charge was observed in a narrow region surrounding each SV due to the trench wall filled with polysilicon. Furthermore, no charge collection can be seen within the connecting regions between SVs when the detector is biased.

The response of the microdosimeter to a 5.5-MeV He^{2+} scanning microbeam when the detector is biased at 10 V is shown in Fig. 7. The median energy map shows four SVs collecting charge individually, there is some random events outside the SVs but these are related to noise in the electronics, meaning that no charge collection was observed from outside the SV. Fig. 8 shows the MCA spectra and windowed median energy maps obtained in response to the He^{2+} ions. The energy deposited by the He^{2+} ions crossing the SVs produces a peak at approximately 760 keV.

Comparing the experimental peak obtained using IBIC, with the simulated average peak energy of 760 keV. It can be seen that the CCE within the SV (not including the core) is almost exactly 100%.

Low-energy events in the spectrum from 100 to 400 keV occur in the border ring of the SV next to the polysilicon trench ($\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ width), due to p+ doping going into the inner sidewall of the cylindrical SV. Charge collection within the SVs is very uniform except for within the n+ planar core. The energy window of 400–600 keV and 600–700 keV in the MCA spectrum shows that there is a deficit of collected charge produced by He^{2+} ions in the planar core. Calculating the CCE with respect to the frequency of events, it can be seen that, on average, the CCE within the planar core is approximately 84%.

B. LET Measurements of SOI Microdosimeter for a 500-MeV/u⁵⁶Fe and 400-MeV/u¹⁶O Beam

Fig. 9 shows a comparison of LET and LET_{MCA} values in silicon for Fe ions of different energies in silicon calculated using SRIM, Geant4, and experiment using the 5- μm -thin mushroom microdosimeters. The experimental results for Fe

Fig. 8. MCA spectra of IBIC with associated energy windowing.

Fig. 9. LET_{MCA} measurements by SOI mushroom microdosimeters at different depths in water for 500-MeV/u ^{56}Fe in comparison with SRIM and Geant4 data.

match values from SRIM reasonably well. The values of LET_{MCA} , measured by the microdosimeter, are slightly lower compared to the theoretical values calculated by SRIM. Part of the difference can be attributed to delta electrons produced along the ion track, which do not contribute to the LET_{MCA} but is included in the unrestricted LET value as energy lost to the medium as calculated using SRIM. Comparing to Geant4, it can also be seen that Geant4 gives slightly lower values compared to SRIM, giving excellent agreement with experimental results.

Fig. 10. LET_{MCA} measurements by SOI mushroom microdosimeters at different depths in water for 400-MeV/u ^{16}O in comparison with SRIM and Geant4 data.

Similar to Fe ions, the LET_{MCA} values obtained with the microdosimeter agreed well with the calculated values using SRIM. A slight difference between the measured LET_{MCA} and LET calculated using SRIM at lower ion energy (less than 500 MeV) of O ions could be due to the positioning of the microdosimeter at the last few millimeters of the Bragg peak where the LET of ions is significantly increasing and even submillimetre uncertainty will lead to significant error in ion energy (Fig. 10). These results demonstrated that the SOI mushroom microdosimeter is suitable for LET measurements of different ion energies.

C. KVI Measurements—Oxygen

Fig. 11 shows a comparison of LET and LET_{MCA} values in silicon for 30-MeV/u oxygen ions of different energies in silicon, produced by different thicknesses of aluminum absorbers for SRIM, Geant4, and experimental results.

There is good agreement between experimental results and both SRIM and Geant4 within the uncertainty. The uncertainty of the LET_{MCA} (vertical error bars) was calculated based on the uncertainty in the thickness of the SOI active layer ($\pm 0.5 \mu m$).

Fig. 12 shows a comparison of the LET_{MCA} values obtained from experimental results and Geant4 for oxygen. For most absorbers, there is approximately a 5% higher response from the experimental data. This corresponds to a difference in peak value of approximately 15–20 keV. The thickest absorber (0.8-mm Al) shows good agreement between the experimental and Geant4 results, this can be attributed to reduced uncertainty in the thickness of Al used.

D. KVI Measurements—Xenon

Fig. 13 shows a comparison of LET and LET_{MCA} values in silicon for xenon ions of different energies in silicon,

Fig. 11. LET_{MCA} measurements by SOI mushroom microdosimeters with different thickness aluminum absorbers for 30-MeV/u ¹⁶O in comparison with SRIM and Geant4 data.

Fig. 12. Percentage difference of experimentally measured LET_{MCA} of ¹⁶O in comparison to Geant4 predicted for different thicknesses of aluminum absorbers.

produced by different thicknesses of thin Kapton absorber, for SRIM, Geant4, and experimental results. There is good agreement between Geant4 and SRIM; however, experimental results show a significant under response. This may be contributed from uncertainties in the thickness of the SOI as half a micrometer of silicon will result in huge discrepancy

Fig. 13. LET_{MCA} measurements by SOI mushroom microdosimeters with different thicknesses of Kapton absorbers for 30-MeV/u ¹²⁴Xe in comparison with SRIM and Geant4 data.

in the energy loss due to extremely high LET of ¹²⁴Xe ions. It could also be due to plasma effect within the detector, causing recombination and therefore reducing the total charge collected. Although this has not been seen in previous work [2], and in this work with oxygen and Fe ions, the energy being deposited in the case of xenon can be an order of magnitude higher, increasing the likelihood of plasma effect occurring. Total energy deposited by xenon ranged from 46 to 59 MeV in 5 μm, corresponding to LET_{MCA} values of 9.2–11.8 MeV/μm, respectively (the range of Xe ion of 46 and 59 MeV in silicon is 9.14 and 10.63 μm, respectively).

Fig. 14 shows a comparison of the LET_{MCA} values obtained from experimental results and Geant4 for xenon. For most absorbers, there is approximately a 12% lower response from the experimental data. This corresponds to a LET_{MCA} value difference of between 0.8 and 1.1 MeV/μm.

Comparing experimental MCA data to Geant4 simulated data, the experimental energy deposition spectrum is significantly shifted to the left. Fig. 15 shows a comparison of the MCA spectra obtained experimentally with no Kapton absorber with the same spectrum simulated with Geant4.

It can be seen that with no absorber, the main xenon peak was observed at approximately 46 MeV and the small peak was seen at approximately 4.6 MeV, which was due to the contamination of oxygen ion in the beam. In comparison, the Geant4 spectra have a peak at approximately 52 MeV. An interesting feature in the experimental spectrum is the secondary xenon peak, which is due to the lower CCE in the n+ planar core of the device as observed with IBIC (Fig. 8) and emphasized due to the high LET of xenon ions. As Geant4 only simulates physical processes, events caused by lower charge collection are not present in the Geant4 spectrum; hence, no secondary peak is observed. The energy of this secondary peak is approximately 39.3 MeV, corresponding to 84% of the primary peak energy, giving good agreement with the CCE efficiency of the planar core found using IBIC.

Fig. 14. Percentage difference of experimentally measured LET_{MCA} of ^{124}Xe in comparison to Geant4 predicted for different thicknesses of Kapton absorbers.

Fig. 15. MCA spectra obtained by 5- μm -thin SOI mushroom microdosimeter with no Kapton degrader for 30-MeV/u ^{124}Xe ion, compared to Geant4 simulated spectra.

Fig. 16 shows the response of the microdosimeter in a Xe ion beam with different thicknesses of Kapton absorbers of 0, 0.05, 0.1, and 0.15 mm. With 0.05- and 0.1-mm Kapton, the Xe peaks shifted to the right due to higher LET Xe ions straggling in Kapton and deposited more energy into the silicon detector. With 0.15-mm Kapton, the Xe almost fully stopped in the detector and very high LET ions deposited approximately 52 MeV into silicon.

Fig. 16. MCA spectra obtained by 5- μm -thin SOI mushroom microdosimeters with different thicknesses of Kapton degrader for 30-MeV/u ^{124}Xe ion.

IV. CONCLUSION

The responses of the second-generation mushroom SOI microdosimeters with thinner SVs than first generation, developed by CMRP, were investigated with a wide range of ions, namely, Fe, O, Xe, and cocktails. For O and Fe ions, the experimental results obtained from measurements in water at different depths agreed reasonably well with SRIM and Geant4 simulation. The LET_{MCA} values of O and Fe ions are slightly less than the theoretical calculated LET using SRIM at higher energies due to delta electrons produced along the ion track, which do not contribute to the LET_{MCA} but is included in SRIM calculation. For lower energies of O ions, measured LET_{MCA} is about 5%–7% higher than predicted by SRIM or Geant4 because the range of ions is comparable with SOI layer thickness and deposited energy along the ion path in SV is increasing, leading to a higher apparent LET. It was also observed that on average, measured LET was 12% lower for 30-MeV/u ^{124}Xe ion traversing through different thickness Kapton absorbers in comparison to Geant4 simulations. Considering error bars based on SOI thickness spreading provided by manufacturing, agreement is reasonable. The Geant4 simulation of deposited energy (see Fig. 14) utilized a 5.16 μm thickness of SOI as measured by SEM (see Fig. 2) for the SVs. However, it is not guaranteed that the same thickness device was used for the ^{124}Xe experiment as the manufacturer guarantees a thickness of SOI layer of $\pm 0.5 \mu\text{m}$. For example, considering thickness of the SOI layer as 4.7 μm will provide perfect agreement in LET predicted by SRIM for ^{124}Xe ions with energy 30 MeV/u. Effect of slight possible variation of SOI layer thickness is not easily observed for ions with much lower LET as O and Fe. Based on that, it is impossible to make conclusion that the plasma effect is observed for 30-MeV/u ^{124}Xe ions and further research to be carried out for ion with LET higher than 12 MeV/ μm . It has been demonstrated that the developed 5- μm SOI mushrooms can measure in a mixed ion field with LET up to 12 MeV/ μm in silicon. Build-up charge effects

within the SiO₂ have been addressed in this version, no significant radiation damage was observed after irradiation with high LET ions.

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