



# Front-end electronics for radiation sensors in ultra-deep submicron CMOS technologies

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Angelo Rivetti Società Italiana di Fisica – XCIX Congresso Nazionale -Trieste 2013





- CMOS technologies dominate today the market of integrated circuits:
  - Ability to integrated on the same substrate PMOS and NMOS devices.
  - CMOS transistors are fairly easy to squeeze.
- Integration density doubles roughly every 24 months (Moore's Law).
- Scaling makes transistors faster: CMOS has progressively replaced bipolar transistor in a growing number of applications, including RF.





- CMOS was always the preferred choice to implement frontend for radiation detectors:
  - Easily available and cheap.
  - Allows the fabrication of good sampling circuits.
- CMOS became the solution for implementing front-end electronics in radiation-sensitive environments:
- Reason: thin gate oxide makes transistors less sensitive to radiation damage.
- Deep sub-micron front-end:
  - First generation: CMOS 0.25 μm. Now in the LHC detectors. Radiation hard with enclosed layout.
  - Second generation: CMOS 130 nm. Radiation hard even with standard layout. Increased functionality, smaller area.
  - Next step: 65 nm. Much increased functionality.



# Scaling CMOS transistors





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- For digital circuits: things can only get better!
  - Scaling is optimized for digital circuits.
  - Digital gates becomes smaller, faster and lower power.
  - Note: while power/gate decreases, power/chip increases to the increased number of gate and augmented functionality.
- For analog circuits situation is more complex.
- Analog circuits sensitive to a number of effects arising in the deep sub-micron regime.
- For analog circuits, key parameters are:
  - Transconductance  $g_m$ :  $\Delta I_{DS} = \frac{\partial I_{DS}}{\partial V_{GS}} \Delta V_{GS} = g_m \Delta V_{GS}$
  - Output conductance  $g_{ds}$ :  $g_{ds} = \frac{\partial I_{DS}}{\partial V_{DS}} \approx \lambda I_{DS}$
  - Noise and matching...

#### The g<sub>m</sub>/g<sub>ds</sub> ratio is a metric of a gain that can be achieved by CMOS amplifiers.



Transconductance



#### **Strong inversion**

$$I_{DS} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_n C_{OX} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_{TH})^2 (1 + \lambda V_{DS})$$

$$g_m = \sqrt{2\mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} I_{DS}}$$

#### Weak inversion

$$I_{DS} = I_0 \frac{W}{L} e^{\frac{V_{GS}}{nU_T}} (1 - e^{-\frac{V_{DS}}{nU_T}}) \qquad U_T = \frac{kT}{q} \qquad g_m = \frac{\partial I_{DS}}{\partial VGS} = \frac{I_{DS}}{nU_T}$$

$$I_C = \frac{I_{DS}}{2n\mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} U_T^2} \qquad \qquad I_c < 0.1: \text{ W.I.}$$
In between: moderate inversion!
$$I_c > 10: \text{ S.I.}$$

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### Gm in weak inversion

$$I_C = \frac{I_{DS}}{2n\mu C_{ox}\frac{W}{L}U_T^2}$$

- Scaling the technology, C<sub>ox</sub> increases.
- For the same bias current and aspect ratio, I<sub>c</sub> decreases
- Transistors work more and more in weak inversion.
- g<sub>m</sub>/l<sub>d</sub> is maximized
- MOS resembles a bipolar transistor



The EKV model was developed in an attempt to have a physical based model providing continuity of MOS characteristics across different level of inversion:

MOS equation in saturation valid in all region of inversion

$$I_{DS} = 2n\mu C_{ox}\phi_T^2 \frac{W}{L} \left[ \ln\left(1 + e^{\frac{V_{GS} - V_{TH}}{2n\phi_T}}\right) \right]^2$$

#### Trasconductance

$$g_m = \frac{I_D}{n\phi_T} \frac{1}{\sqrt{I_C + 0.5\sqrt{I_C} + 1}}$$

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- **1.** Drain-induced barrier lowering: reduces g<sub>ds</sub>
- 2. Surface scattering: reduces mobility/g<sub>m</sub>
- **3. Velocity saturation: reduces g<sub>m</sub>**
- 4. Impact ionization:substrate current, reduces g<sub>ds</sub>
- 5. Hot electrons: long term reliability







Example of traditional short channel effect: threshold is lower as channel length is decreased.

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The gate voltage needs to maintain also the depletion region.

- For short channel device source and drain depletion regions protrude significantly in the channel.
- → For the same charge store on the gate, more carriers can be attracted in the channel, since the depletion region is partially supported by source/drain









→ To prevent excessive extension of the source-drain depletion region into the regions around the electrodes receive a stronger substrate doping (halo doping).

When the channel is very short the two regions tend to overlap, the local substrate doping in the channel region is increased and the threshold voltage increases.

Another reason to keep away from minimum length devices in analog design!



Reverse short channel effect: simulated threshold variation as a function of channel length in a 90 nm CMOS process.



# Gain vs IC and channel length





M. Manghisoni et al, "Analog Design Criteria for High-granularity Detector Readout in the 65 nm CMOS Technology", IEEE NSS-MIC Conference Records, N40-2, 2011.

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- Key noise sources in MOS transistors:
  - Channel thermal noise
  - Channel flicker (1/f) noise
- No big surprises concerning thermal noise.

Flicker noise:

$$e_{n1/f}^2 = \frac{K_f(I_C, L)}{C_{ox}WLf^{\alpha_f}}$$

- Kf may depend on biasing condition and channel length
- Deviation from pure 1/f behavior.

Noise performance compatible with low noise design

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- Three fundamental blocks in front-end electronics:
  - Front-end amplifiers (preamplifier/shapers).
  - Analog to Digital Converters.
  - Time to Digital Converters.



### Front-end amplifiers



 In principle, suffer from the reduced voltage swing (power supply at 1 V), but....

- Use of inverting configurations mitigate the problem
- Use of fully differential signal can increase the swing to 2 V p-p
- Weak inversion reduces the headroom required by transistors
- For very high dynamic range, thicker oxide transistor can be used.
- Front-end design more challenging, but not that grim!





Ref	Technology	Architecture	N of bit	Sampling rate (MS/s)	ENOB	Power (mW)	FOM (Fj/step)
1	90 nm	SAR	9	40	8.23	0.82	68
2	130 nm	SAR	10	50	9.11	0.82	30
3	65 nm	SAR	10	100	9.01	1.13	22
4	90 nm	FLASH+SAR	9	100-200	8.44-8.31	0.75/1.33	34.7
5	90 nm	SAR	10	50	9.5	0.32	9

 $FoM = P/(2^{ENOB} F_s)$ 

ADC with 50 MS/s, 9-10 bit resolution and < 1mW of power are now common.

The renaissance of the SAR ADC.

# Traditional SAR ADC (1)





In the sampling phase the top plate is connected to VREF and the bottom plate to VIN.

After sampling the top plate is left floating and all the bottom plate are switched to GND. Voltage of the top plate is VREF-VIN.

The capacitance of the MSB (128C) is switched to VREF. The voltage of the top plate is VREF-VIN+VREF/2. If the voltage is > VREF, the MSB is set to zero and the bottom plate of the MSB capacitors is switched back to GND.

If VREF-VIN+VREF/2 is smaller than VREF, the bottom plate of the MSB is kept at VREF and the corresponding bit is set to 1.

The procedure continues with the other bits.





- In conventional SAR ADC:
- Capacitors can be switched back and forth between VREF and GND: unnecessary power consumption in the DAC.
- DAC capacitors are usually over-sized with respect to the minimum required by noise boundaries.
- Logic is synchronous with a master clock: 40 MHz clock leads to less that 4 MS/sec.

**Performance improvements stem from:** 

- Reduction of capacitor size
- Modified switching schemes
- Use of asynchronous logic

# Modified switching algorithms









Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research A = (====) ======

# A 10 MS/s 8-bit charge-redistribution ADC for hybrid pixel applications in 65 m CMOS $\stackrel{\scriptscriptstyle \rm fr}{\approx}$

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70 um x 40 um, 8 bit, 40 uW@10MS/s in 65 nm 40 um DAC layout example C2 (folded), C3 (straight) connected to gnd connected to D0-D7 2.6 µm 1.2 um C4 3.7 um Oun DAC 6.1 µm

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#### 26.4 A 3.1mW 8b 1.2GS/s Single-Channel Asynchronous SAR ADC with Alternate Comparators for Enhanced Speed in 32nm Digital SOI CMOS

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Specifications	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	This work		
Architecture	SAR	Ti-SAR	Ti-SAR	SAR	SAR	SAR		
CMOS Technology (nm)	65	65	65	28	40	32		
Resolution (bits)	8	6	8	8	6	8		
Supply Voltage (V)	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.9
SNDR near Nyquist (dB)	44.5	31.5	42.75	43.3	30.5	39.3	39.3	38.8
Sampling Speed (GHz)	0.4	1	1	0.75	1.25	1.2	1.3	1.0
Speed per Channel (GHz)	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.75	1.25	1.2	1.3	1.0
Power (mW)	4.0	6.7	3.8	4.5	6.08	3.1	4.2	2.0
FOM (fJ/conf step)	73	210	24	41	178	34	43	28
Area (mm²)	0.024	0.11	0.013	0.004	0.013	0.0015		
Area for 64GS/s (mm <sup>2</sup> )	3.8	7.0	8.3	0.26	0.67	0.080	0.074	0.096



ADCs in UDSM



# A 9-bit 50MS/s Asynchronous SAR ADC in 28nm CMOS

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Simulations indicate that 9 bit and 50 MS/s are achievable with 45 uW of power!
Digitization and basic DSP functions at 50 MS/s could be achieved with 150 uW of power per channel (excluding the very front-end part).

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### TDC growth



Due to the interest in ALL Digital PLL (ADPLL), TDC left the niche market of instrumentation (HEP, range finding, testing) to become more general purpose components, with an significant increase on the number of published papers in the recent years.





### Some recent TDC designs



Ref	Technology	Architecture	Resolut ion (ps)	Sampling rate (MS/s)	Range (ns)	Power (mW)	Area
1	130 nm	GRO	1	50	12	2.2-21	0.04
2	130 nm	Vernier-ring	8	15	32	7.5	0.26
3	90 nm	Passive inter.	4.7	180	0.6	3.6	0.02
4	90 nm	Delay line	20	26	0.64	6.9	0.01
5	65 nm	2D delay line	4.8	50	< 0.6	1.7	0.02
6	90	Time Amp.	1.25	10	0.64	3	0.6
7	90	Vernier+GRO	3.2	25-100	40	3.6-4.5	0.027

TDCs are now reaching the sub-ps resolution
 Many different architectures

Dynamic range low in many high resolution TDC

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- Future front-end will look more and more like this
- Embedded DSP allows for flexiblity, feature extraction, correction of analog imperfection



### Future front-ends (2)



Energy can also be extracted from timing measurement.
 Use of TDC allows for fast time over threshold system.

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64 channels, 128 TDC, 300 kHz per channel, 25-50 ps binning

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### **Pixel detectors**



- Hybrid pixels likely to play a key role also in next generation of experiments.
- Area available for the front-end electronics is one of the factors limiting the minimum pixel size.
- Moving to more and more scale technologies can improve significantly future vertex detectors.
- Future vertex detectors at the upgraded LHC will have to withstand much increased data rate O(2 Ghz/cm<sup>2</sup>).
- Present generation of hybrid pixels: CMOS 130 nm
- Next generations CMOS 65 nm.
- Smaller pixels (e.g. 25 x 100)



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- In 65 nm and beyond transistors become very small.
- When a transistors is used as an analog switched, charge injection become minimal.
- In many applications, discrete time front-end can be (again!) an attractive option.





### Discrete-time comparators





- Discrete time comparator allow the use of positive feed-back.
- High sensitivity and no problem with in-time threshold.
- Offset can be suitable stored on capacitors and subtracted.
- Due to the leakage of the switches, the procedure must be repeated from time to time
- Very small residual offset can be achieved.

$$V_{\rm OSR} = \frac{\Delta Q}{A_{01}C} + \frac{V_{\rm OSL}}{A_{01}A_{02}} + \frac{V_{OSA2}}{A_{01}(1+A_{02})}$$





- Deep sub-micron technologies are however very complex
- A lot of reliability rules, especially for obtaining good analog performance.
- Chip design is becoming more and more complex, needs to share expertise and common block among different design center:
- Cooperation and coordination of efforts is paramount
- CERN R&D 53 initiative
  - Oriented to new generation of pixel detectors for LHC upgrades
  - Common ATLAS-CMS effort





#### Direct scaling of the technology.....



#### Reverse scaling of the design rules:



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# A final thought





- MPW: 15 mm2 in 28 nm: 156 000 (standard), 189 000 SOI
- 1 mm2: 15 000 euros
- •http://cmp.imag.fr/products/ic/?p=prices

UDSM can allow a significant leap in the design of front end electronics for radiation sensors

It is really time to move forward!