

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

### Infrared Physics & Technology

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/infrared

Regular article

## Precise determination of thermal parameters of a microbolometer



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ARTICLEINFO	A B S T R A C T
<i>Keywords:</i> Microbolometer MEMS Thermal parameters Lock-in amplifier IR response	Determination of microbolometer thermal properties such as thermal capacitance, conductance, time constant, and IR responsivity is of the utmost importance as they directly influence microbolometer performance. Here we show a technique to measure them by using a minimized self-heating effect, thus leading to their precise de- termination via measurements based on an AC-biased Wheatstone bridge containing a microbolometer. The bridge outputs were subtracted from each other by a differential voltage preamplifier with its output processed by a lock-in amplifier. The lock-in amplifier output as a function of the amplitude of AC bias provided an amplitude of microbolometer thermal conductivity. A microbolometer temperature response to pulse irradiation of its membrane provided the value of its thermal time constant and, thus, its thermal capacitance. Finally, we also extracted microbolometer responsivity using a blackbody IR source. The method was experimentally ver- ified using a micromachined bolometer, which showed excellent agreement with the analytical solution.

#### 1. Introduction

Midrange infrared (IR) with a wavelength range from ( $\approx 8$  to  $\approx$  14) µm has a wide range of applications such as security and commercial uses. Among security applications, IR surveillance can help firefighters look for people in dense smoke or to identify fire hot spots to extinguish. IR devices can also help police identify cars recently arrived in a parking area. Typical commercial applications are as an aid for driving in poor visibility, looking for hot spots in an electrical power distribution system, finding heat leakages from buildings to conserve energy, precise tumor identification during surgery, and many others. The development of midrange IR detectors dates back to 1947 with the invention of a pneumatic IR detector, called the "Golay cell [1]". In 1984 [2], and following an improvement in 1986 [3], a new concept of a microbolometer as part of a microelectromechanical system (MEMS) device was introduced. This allowed the integration of an array of microbolometers with read-out integrated circuits into a focal plane array, i.e., a true IR imager. The microbolometer, operating in a vacuum, consists of an IR-absorbing thermally isolated membrane integrated with an embedded temperature sensor. Most commonly, the resistive temperature detector (RTD) is made of metal such as Ti [2], phase transition materials such as VO<sub>x</sub> [4], or semiconductors such as amorphous Si [5]. Their resistance amplitude R changes with temperature change  $\Delta T$  as per the equation

$$R = R_0 (1 + \alpha \cdot \Delta T) \tag{1}$$

where  $R_0$  is sensor resistance at ambient temperature  $T_0$  and  $\alpha$  is its temperature coefficient of resistance. Microbolometer membrane  $\Delta T$  expressed as change of sensor resistance change ( $\Delta R$ ) is:

$$\Delta R = R - R_0 = R_0 \cdot \alpha \cdot \Delta T \tag{2}$$

The  $\Delta T$  value is linearly proportional to the amplitude of absorbed IR radiation ( $P_{\rm IR}$ ) and inverse to the value of the microbolometer thermal conductance (*G*) [6], making the *G* amplitude the parameter of utmost importance

$$\Delta T = \frac{P_{\rm IR}}{G} \tag{3}$$

Other important parameters are thermal capacitance (*H*) and the thermal time constant ( $\tau$ ), which determine the rate of the microbolometer response as

$$\tau = \frac{n}{G} \tag{4}$$

Thus, all three parameters *G*, *H*, and  $\tau$  have to be determined to optimize the microbolometer performance.

A well-established technique to determine specific heat and thermal conductivity of thin film materials and structures based on  $3\omega$  method were proposed earlier [7,8]. The structures were thermally modulated

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https://doi.org/10.1016/j.infrared.2018.07.037

Received 10 May 2018; Received in revised form 30 July 2018; Accepted 30 July 2018 Available online 01 August 2018

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making this method especially suitable for thin film materials, less for slow MEMS devices such as IR microbolometers. A single measurementbased method to determine parameters *G*, *H*, and  $\tau$  was proposed and demonstrated by biasing an unbalanced Wheatstone bridge, including a microbolometer with an RTD sensor made of Ti, by a single voltage pulse with a bias amplitude (*V*<sub>B</sub>) with time period  $\ll \tau$  at a pressure of  $\approx 7.7 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa [9]. The microbolometer behavior is governed by a differential heat balance equation

$$H\frac{d\Delta T}{dt} + G \cdot \Delta T = P_{\rm J} - P_{\rm R} = \frac{V_{\rm B}^2}{4R_0} - P_{\rm R},\tag{5}$$

where  $P_{\rm J} = \frac{V_{\rm B}^2}{4R_0}$  is dissipated joule heat in the microbolometer resistor with an actual value of  $R_0$ . At a constant pressure of  $\leq 5$  Pa, heat convection due to energy transfer by the movement of gas molecules surrounding the membrane and radiation losses  $P_{\rm R}$  at ambient temperature of 25 °C are also negligible [10]. The Eq. (5) with neglected amplitude of  $P_{\rm R}$  can be solved as

$$\Delta T = \frac{V_{\rm B}^2}{4G \cdot R_0} \bigg[ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \bigg],\tag{6}$$

where t is time. The researchers expressed the Wheatstone bridge output in simplified form as function of time [9]

$$\Delta V = \frac{\alpha \cdot V_{\rm B}^3}{16G \cdot R_0} \left[ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \right] \tag{7}$$

With knowledge of  $V_{\rm B}$ ,  $R_0$  and  $\alpha$  of  $\approx 1$  V,  $\approx 3.9$  kΩ, and  $\approx 0.0025$  K<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, researchers extracted the value of *G* from Eq. (7) at steady-state and the value of *H* from the pulse response slope for t = 0 s. The thermal time constant was calculated using Eq. (4). The proposed method was simple; however, during the measurement the  $P_J$  amplitude was  $\approx 64.1 \,\mu$ W causing the microbolometer membrane with calculated *G* value of  $\approx 7.8 \times 10^{-7}$  W K<sup>-1</sup> warming by the excessive value of  $\Delta T \approx 82.2$  K affecting the  $R_0$  value, which was considered to be constant. The modulated amplitude of  $R_0$  value due to  $\Delta T$  resulted in a measurement error as Eq. (7) assumes  $R_0$  to be constant. Lowering the  $V_{\rm B}$  amplitude does lower the error due to smaller variation of *R* amplitude, but the measurement precision suffered due to the low output voltage of the system and signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) because the system response is linearly proportional to the amplitude of  $V_{\rm B}$ .

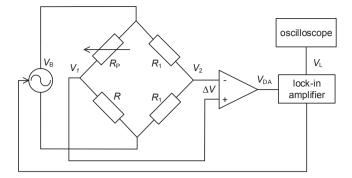
In addition, at ambient temperature, the radiation determined by the Stefan–Boltzmann law can no longer be neglected. The amplitude of  $P_{\rm J}$  is then split between power loss due to thermal conduction ( $P_{\rm C}$ ) and amplitude of  $P_{\rm R}$ :

$$P_{\rm J} = P_{\rm C} + P_{\rm R} = G \cdot \Delta T + A \cdot \varepsilon \cdot \sigma \cdot T^4 \tag{8}$$

where  $A = 2a^2$  is the total area of a microbolometer membrane with square shape and side length of *a* with neglecting its sidewalls area,  $\varepsilon$  is the emissivity of the microbolometer membrane material,  $\sigma$  is the Stefan–Boltzmann constant with value of  $\sigma \approx 5.6704 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-4}$ , and *T* is the thermodynamic temperature. This situation becomes even worse once the microbolometer membrane is heated up by  $\Delta T \approx 82.2 \text{ K}$  as the  $P_{\text{R}}$  amplitude increases by a factor of  $\approx 2.7$ .

A method to determine all thermal parameters, such as *G*, *H*, and  $\tau$ , based on a short voltage pulse with duration of  $\approx 60 \,\mu\text{s}$  was proposed [11]. This technique allowed employment of  $V_B$  with amplitude up to  $\approx 5 \,\text{V}$ , resulting in an improved SNR. Due to short pulse duration, the self-heating effect was negligible as it resulted in minimal influence by variation of *R*. Modern microbolometers use two [12,13] or three-level membrane configurations or carbon nanotubes as IR-sensitive materials [14] and their responses to the  $P_J$  are more complicated. Therefore the short pulse technique [11] cannot be utilized and the long pulse method [9] does not provide results with sufficient precision.

Here we show a technique of precise determination of *G*, *H*, and  $\tau$  of an AC-powered Wheatstone bridge containing a microbolometer device with the bridge output signal processed by lock-in amplification



**Fig. 1.** Schematic of the system used for microbolometer testing. The microbolometer was connected into a Wheatstone bridge powered by an AC signal supplied by a lock-in amplifier. The balancing resistor  $R_P$  represents two potentiometers with maximum resistance value of 20 kΩ and 100 Ω, respectively, each with 20 turns for fine-tuning of the bridge balance. The  $R_1$  represents two resistors with the fixed value of 20 kΩ and R stands for microbolometer resistance. The voltage difference of the bridge outputs was amplified by a differential voltage preamplifier with gain *B* set to 1000, its output voltage processed by a lock-in amplifier, and its output recorded by an oscilloscope.

technique. The colossal SNR of a lock-in amplifier allowed us to perform the microbolometer testing using a  $V_{\rm B}$  value as low as  $\approx 10 \text{ mV}$  root mean square (RMS). This low amplitude of  $V_{\rm B}$  resulted in  $P_{\rm J}$  of  $\approx 26 \text{ nW}$ , leading to marginal microbolometer membrane temperature increase of  $\approx 59 \text{ mK}$  and allowing precise determination of the value of *G* with  $P_{\rm R}$  having a minimized effect on the measurement. The value of  $\tau$  was then extracted by observing the transient response of the microbolometer output to modulated external power supply and calculated *H* using Eq. (4) as  $H = \tau G$ .

#### 2. Results and discussion

#### 2.1. Theory and analytical solution

Let us consider the microbolometer connected to a Wheatstone bridge powered by an AC voltage with an amplitude of  $V_{\rm B}$  RMS with its outputs processed by a differential amplifier with a gain factor of *B* and its output signal processed by a lock-in amplifier with gain of *S* (Fig. 1). The lock-in amplifier output voltage ( $V_{\rm L}$ ) can be expressed as function of  $\Delta T$  and  $V_{\rm B}$  (see Supplementary S1 for derivation of the equation) as

$$V_{\rm L} = 10 \frac{\left[\frac{R_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T)}{R_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T) + R_0} - \frac{1}{2}\right] V_{\rm B} \cdot B}{S}$$
(9)

defining transfer function of entire system. For small values of  $\Delta T$  the value of  $\alpha \Delta T \ll 1$  the Eq. (9) can be simplified as

$$V_{\rm L} = 10 \frac{\alpha \Delta T}{4 \cdot S} V_{\rm B} \cdot B \tag{10}$$

The bridge was power by an AC voltage frequency  $\gg$  than the one corresponding to the  $\tau$  of the microbolometer. As the microbolometer membrane cannot be modulated by the AC, the total  $P_J$  can be considered as  $P_J = \frac{V_B^2}{4R_0}$  warming up the membrane by  $\Delta T = \frac{P_J - P_R}{G}$ . Assuming the microbolometer membrane had the size of  $(25 \times 25) \,\mu\text{m}^2$  and  $\varepsilon$  of 0.48 (as per Ref. [15]), the amplitude of  $P_R$  at  $T_0$  would be  $\approx 251 \,\text{nW}$ . This  $P_R$  would cause the microbolometer membrane with *G* value of 180.4 nW K<sup>-1</sup> (in Ref. [16]) to increase its membrane temperature only by  $\approx 1.39 \,\text{K}$ . Nevertheless, as the  $\Delta T$  during the microbolometer measurement is minimal, the  $P_R$  does not significantly change; thus, Eq. (8) can be simplified to  $G = P_C / \Delta T$  as the  $P_R$  only causes an offset of the  $\Delta V$ . We can then express  $V_L$  as function of *G* (Supplementary S1) as

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