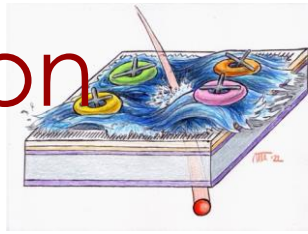
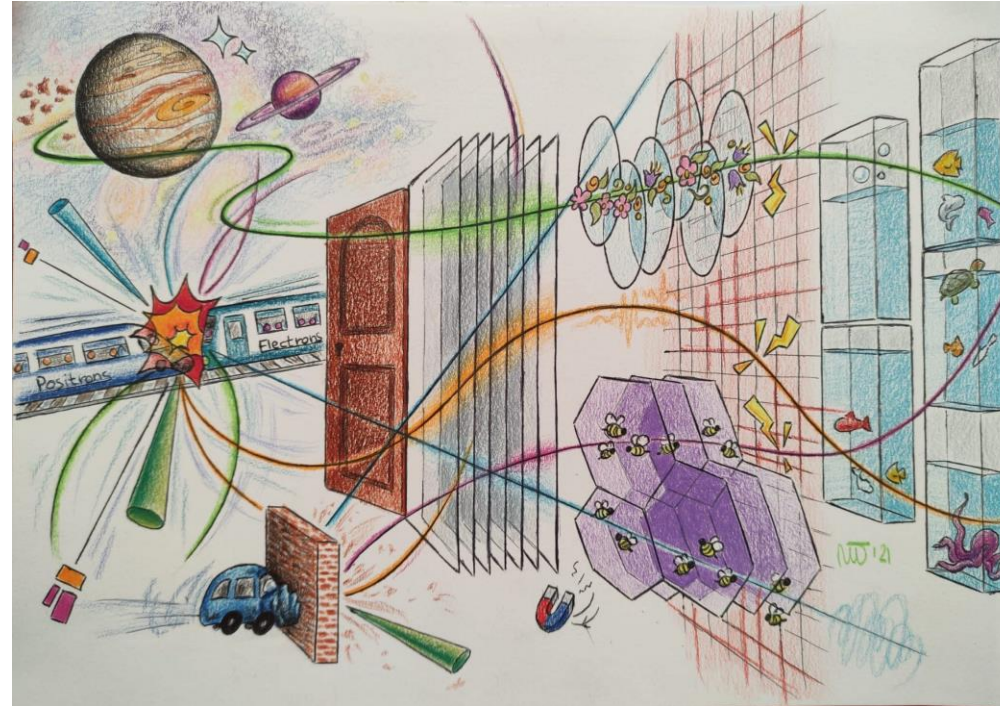


# Resistive read-out and built-in amplification



## New trends in silicon sensors design

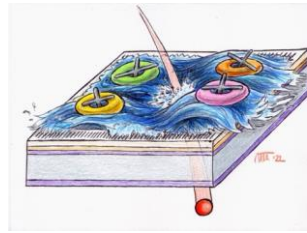


**N. Cartiglia**

**UFSD group**

**INFN Torino, Trento Univ., FBK, Perugia Univ., CNR Perugia**

# Silicon life in 2010



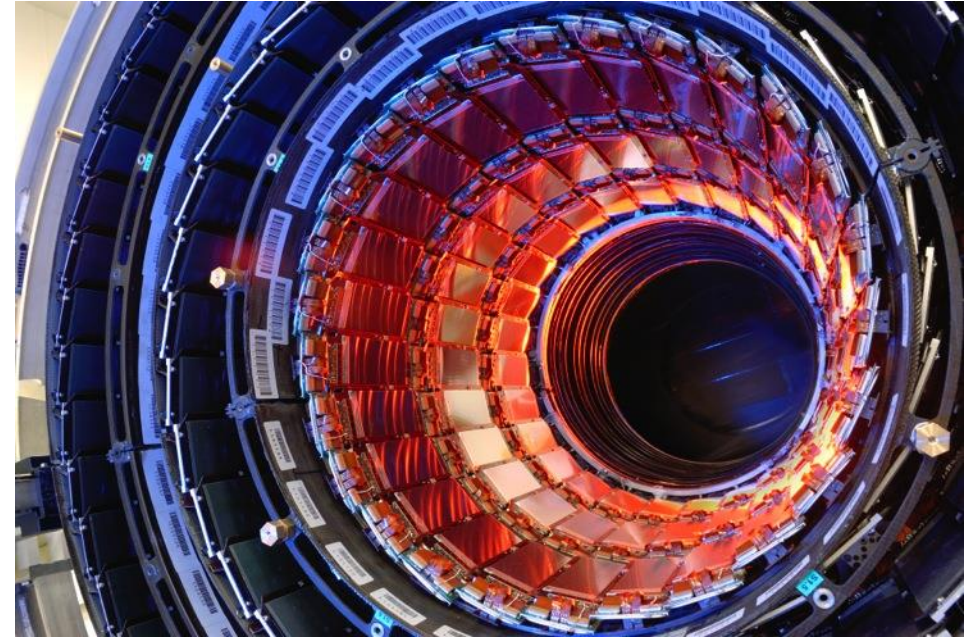
## Very mature silicon systems, very large silicon trackers

Millions of channels, very reliable, very radiation hard

### Two simple facts in 2010:

1. Silicon sensors are not suitable timing detectors
2. Silicon sensors cannot be used efficiently to detect 1-5 keV XRay

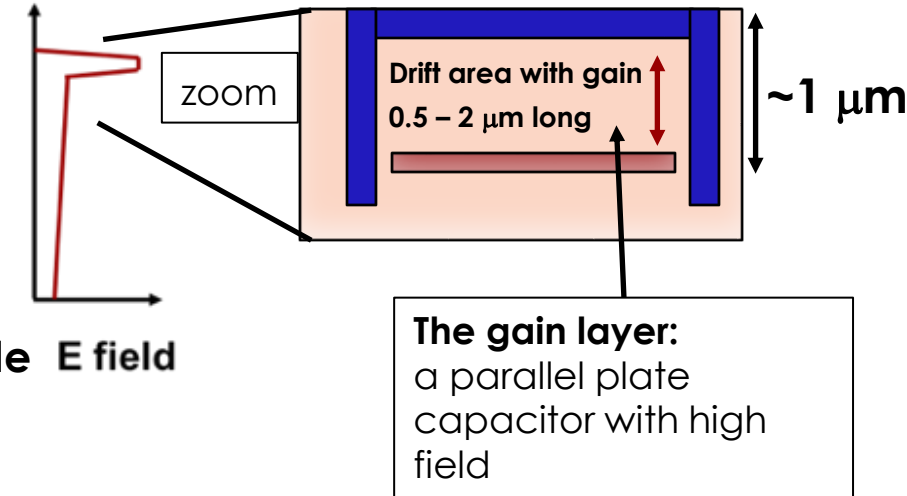
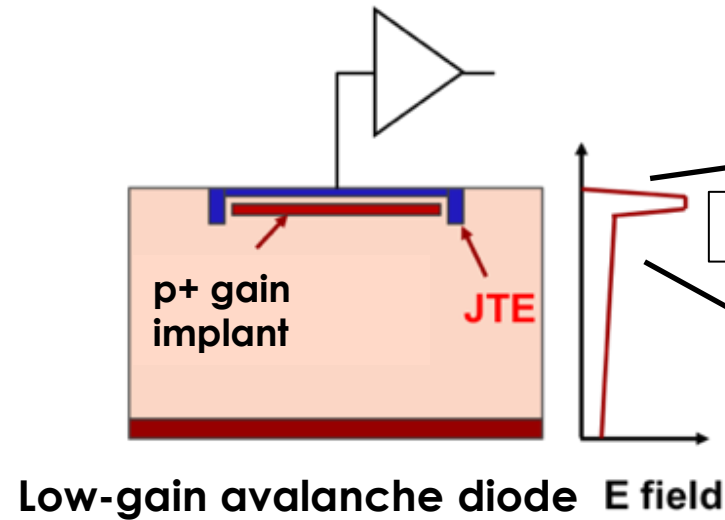
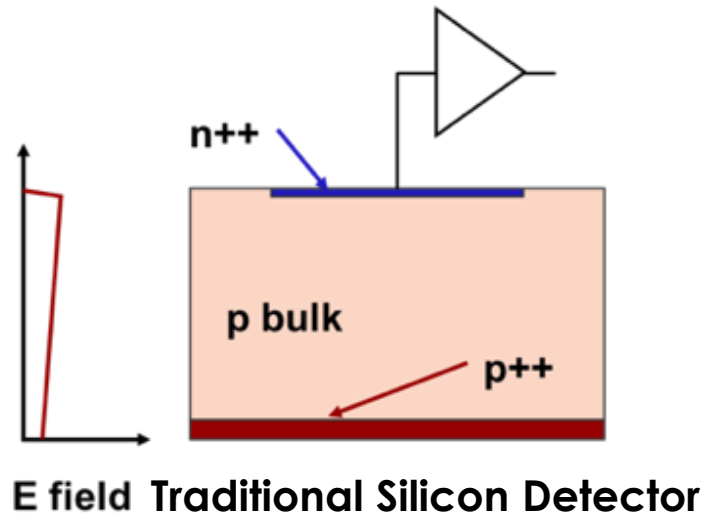
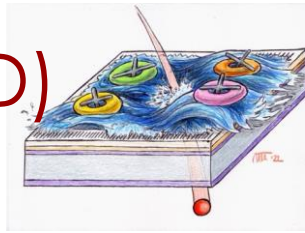
**One nagging problem:** radiation damage causes charge trapping, reducing the signal in heavily irradiated sensors.



**Solution:** add moderate gain, just enough to compensate for charge trapping  
“to control and optimize the charge multiplication effect, **in order to fully recover the collection efficiency of heavily irradiated silicon detectors**” [1]

[1] G.Pellegrini,et al., **Technology developments and first measurements of Low Gain Avalanche Detectors (LGAD) for high energy physics applications**, Nucl. Inst. Meth. A 765 (2014) 12.

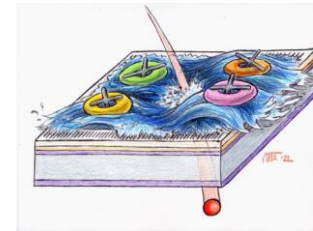
# First design innovation: low gain avalanche diode (LGAD)



- In LGAD, a moderately p-doped implant creates a volume of high field, where charge multiplication happens.
- It turned out that the LGAD design **does not solve the charge-trapping problem as the LGAD mechanism does not work well in high radiation environments (above  $2\text{-}3\text{E}15$  1-MeV  $n_{\text{eq}}/\text{cm}^2$ )**

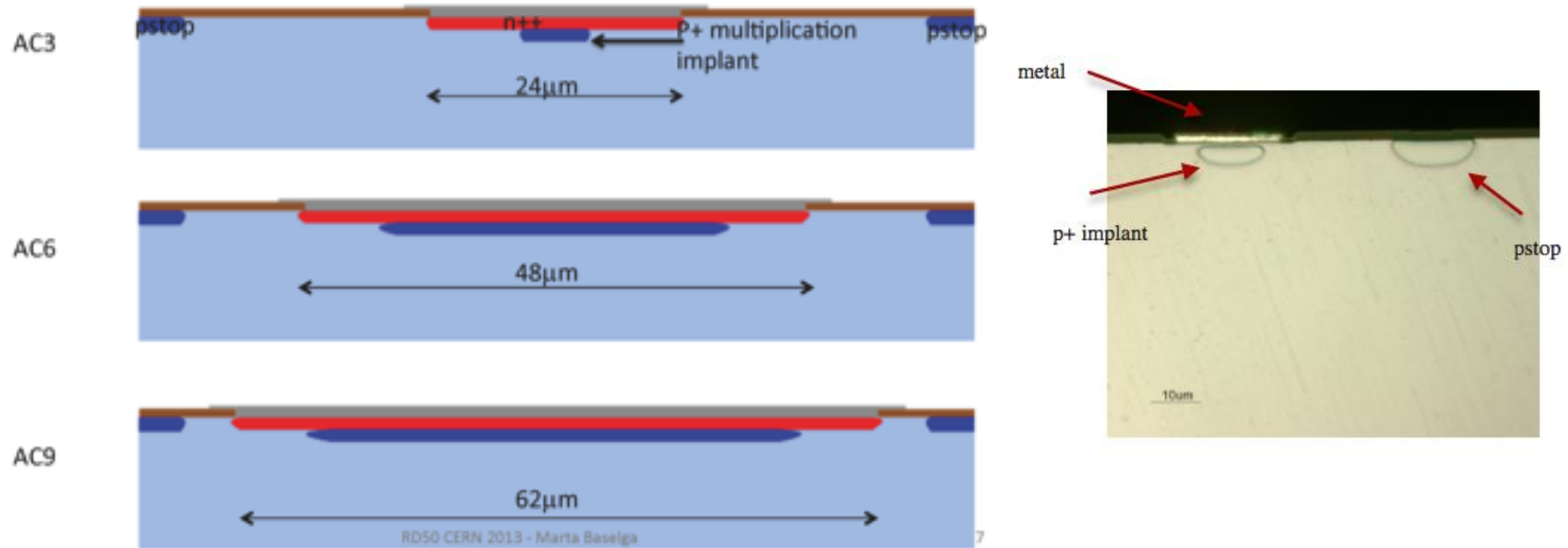
However, the LGAD design **did help solving a few other problems.**

# LGADs Pads, Pixels and Strips



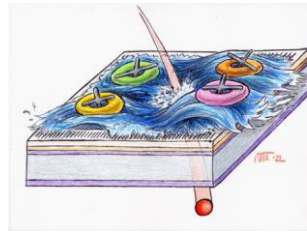
The LGAD approach can be used in any silicon structure,

This is an example of LGAD strips

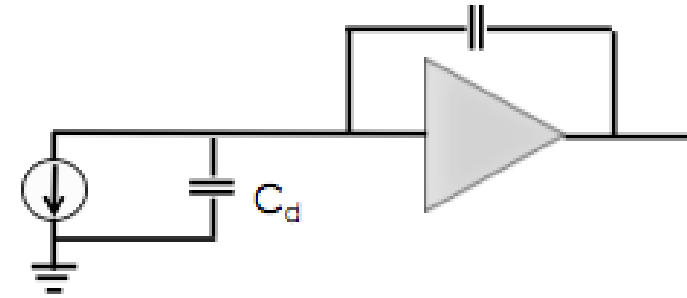


**LGAD strips are considered in space application, as they allow to have longer strips while keeping constant the ratio Charge/Capacitance**

# What does “Low Gain” mean?



“Low gain” needs to be understood in connection with the noise of the electronics, and how silicon sensors are segmented.



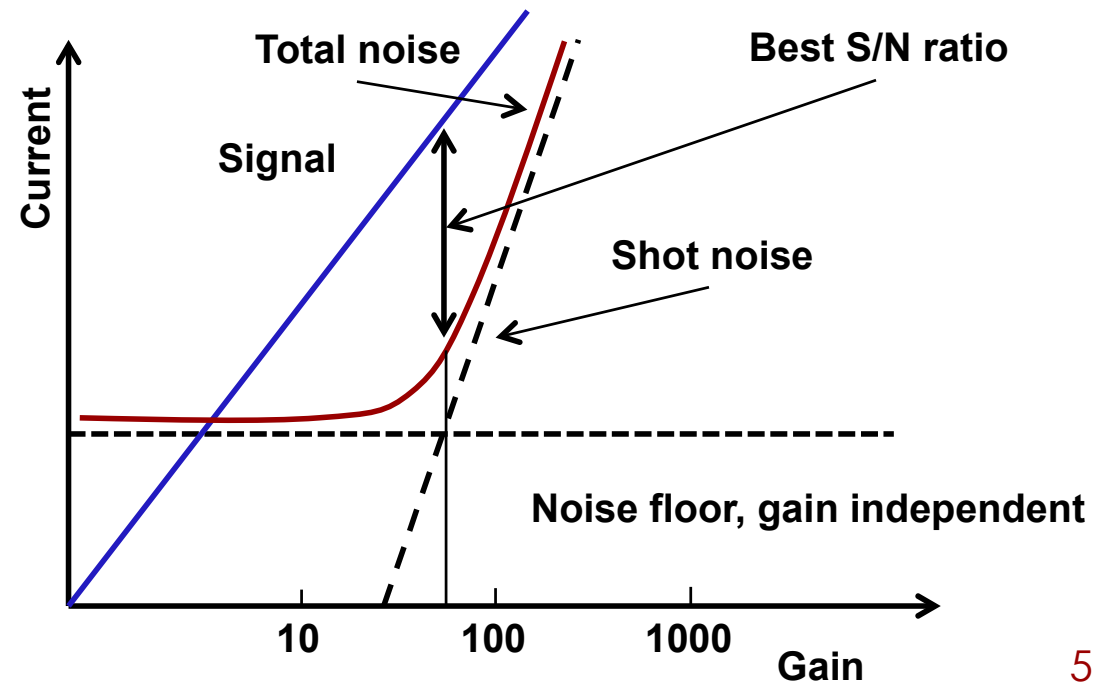
Sensor Pre-Amplifier

**Signal multiplication decreases the sensor signal-to-noise ratio:**

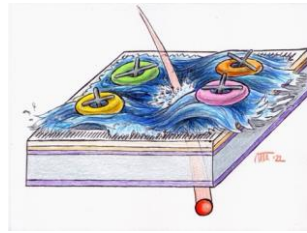
==> The noise increases faster than the signal

However, until the system noise is determined by the electronics, having gain improves the signal-to-noise ratio.

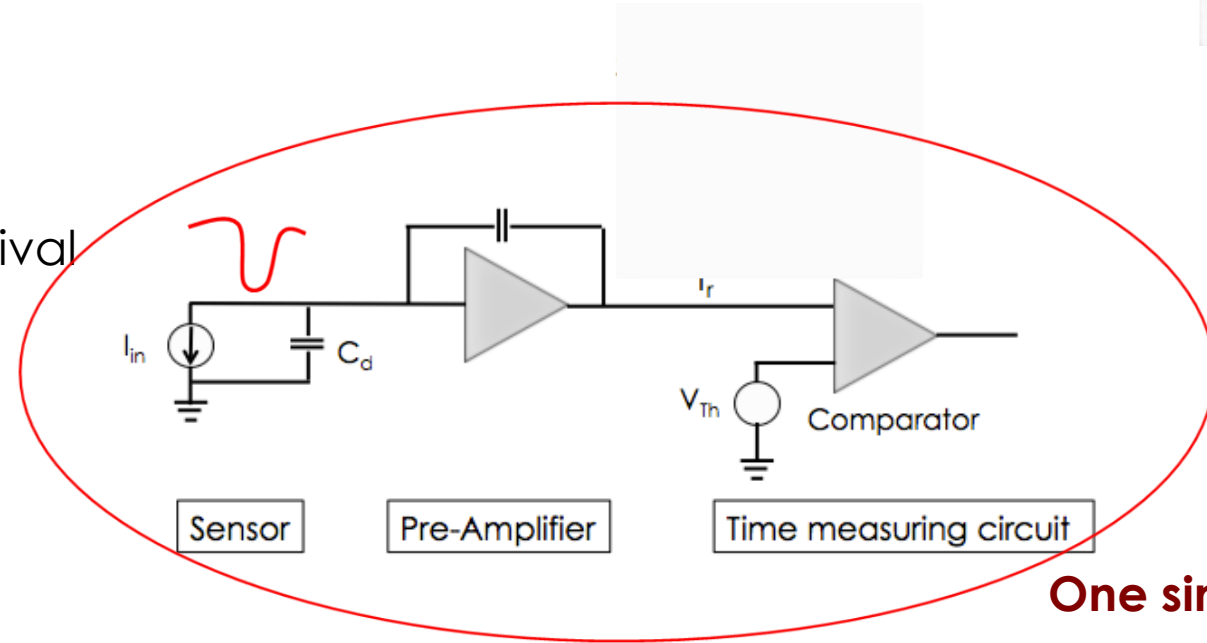
Low gain also allows segmenting the sensors.



# A time-tagging detector: sensor and ASIC



- Sensors produce a current pulse
- The read-out measures the time of arrival

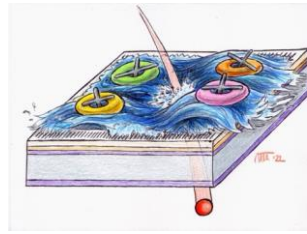


**Sensors and read-out are two parts of a single object, sometimes even on the same substrate**

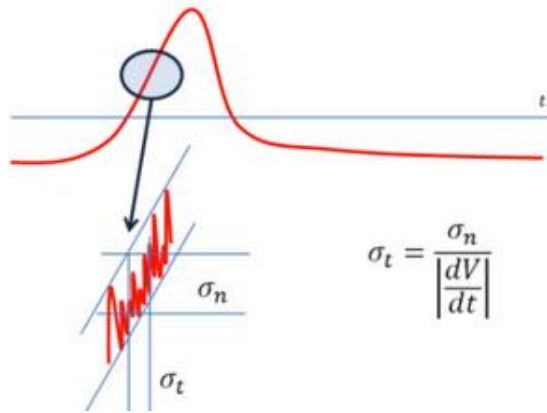
Sensors and electronics succeed (or eventually fail) together

Presently, the design of the electronics is the hardest part, the sensors have been under development for longer

# Sensor and ASIC Temporal resolution



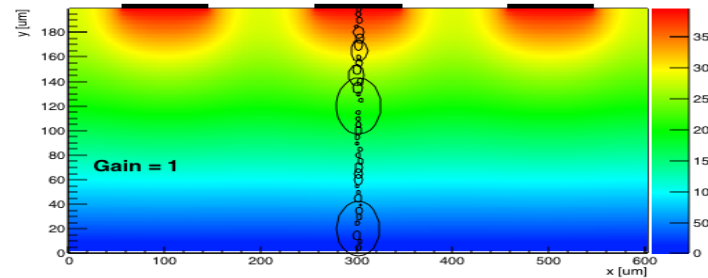
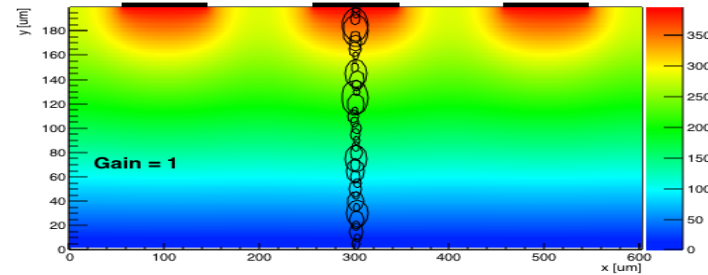
$$\sigma_t^2 = \left(\frac{\text{Noise}}{dV/dt}\right)^2 + (\Delta\text{ionization})^2 + (\Delta\text{shape})^2$$



“Jitter” term

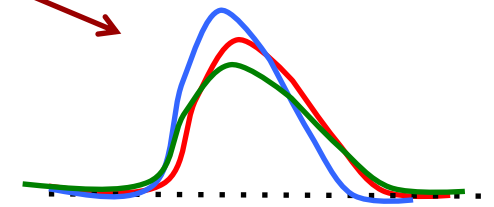
**Small noise** ==> choice of electronic technology

**LGADs, having a larger signal, decrease the jitter component**



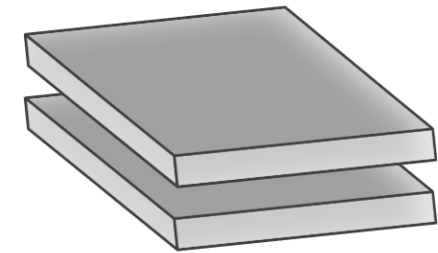
**Amplitude variation** ==> corrected offline (time walk)

**Non-homogeneous energy deposition** ==> signal change variation. Cannot be corrected, =minimized by design



Signal shape is determined by Ramo's Theorem

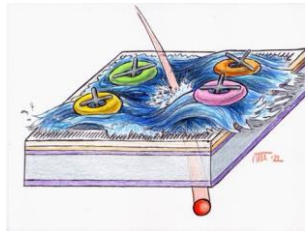
$$i \mu q v E_w$$



**Saturated drift velocity v** everywhere in the sensor volume

**Well-designed LGAD sensors (sometimes called UFSD) optimize the temporal resolution**

# Key tool to design sensors: sensor simulation



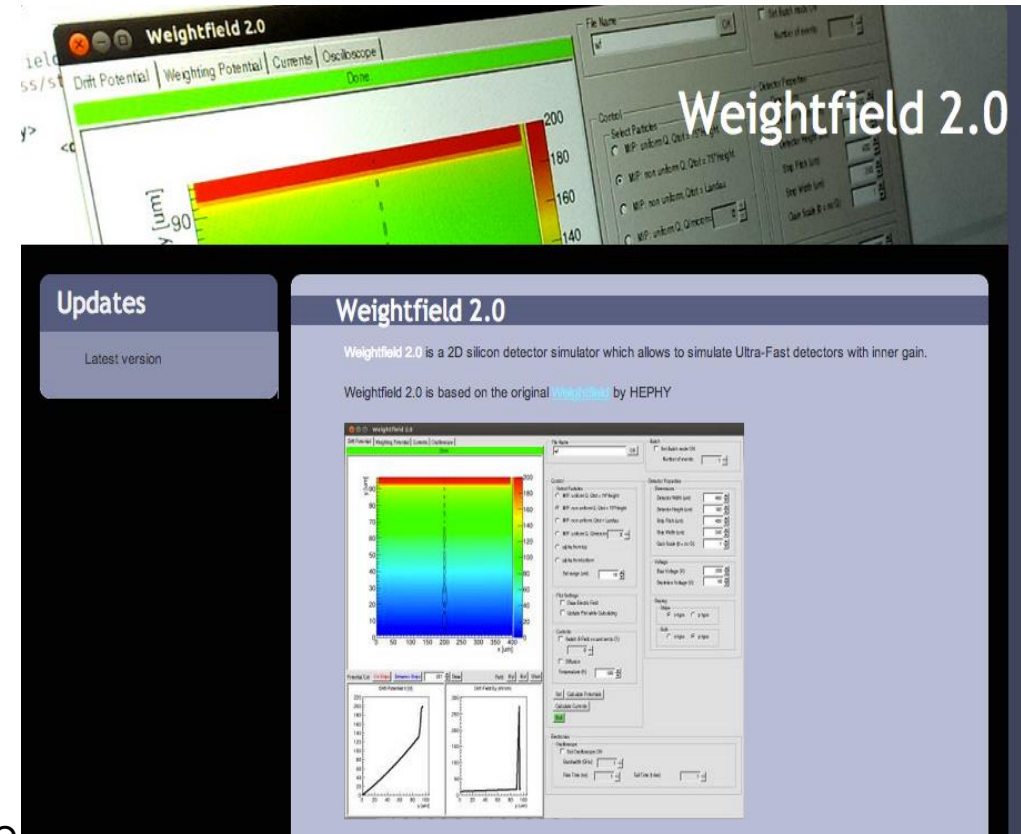
## The design of innovative sensors needs a lot of simulation

For this reason, we designed a fast simulator able to accurately simulate the current pulse generated by silicon sensors

### It includes:

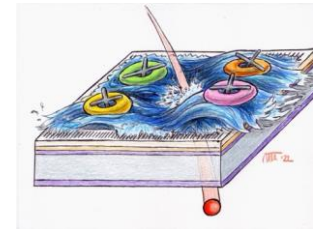
- Charge particles and X-ray
- Custom Geometry
- Calculation of drift field and weighting field
- Currents signal via Ramo's Theorem
- Gain
- Diffusion
- Temperature effect
- Non-uniform deposition
- Electronics

WeightField2, Available at <http://personalpages.to.infn.it/~cartigli/weightfield2>





# Key tool to design sensors: sensor simulation



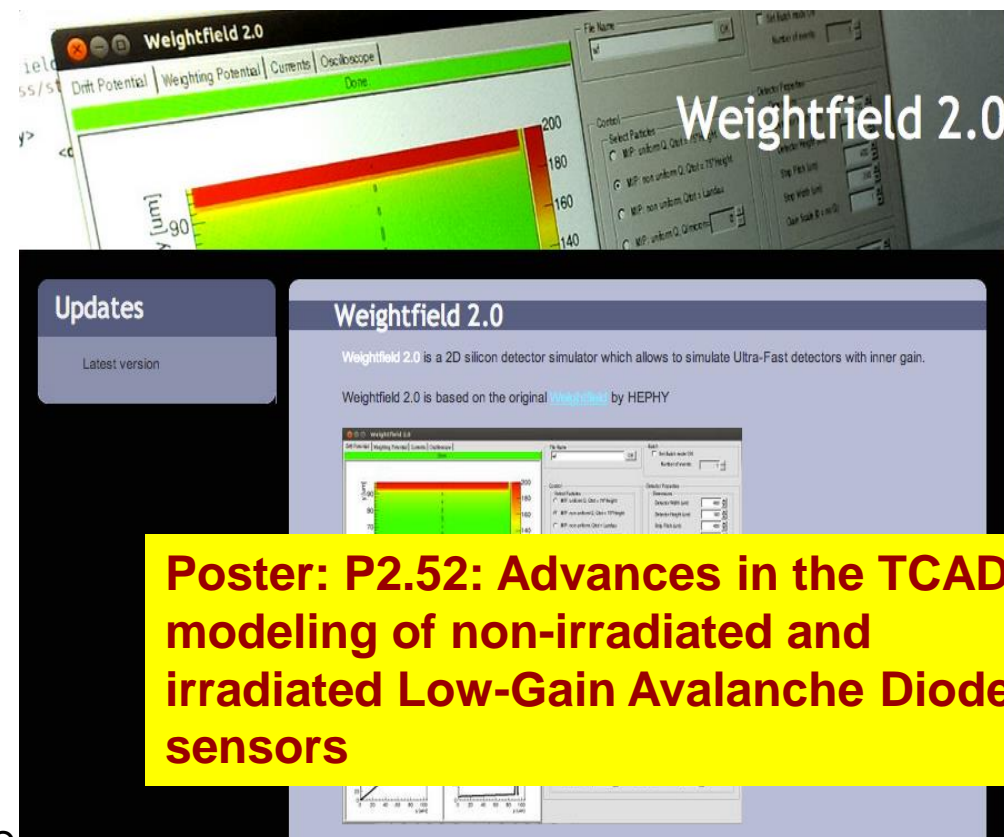
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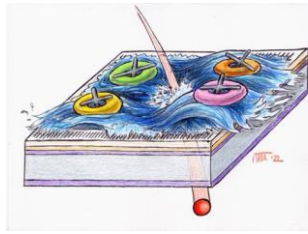
### It includes:

- Charge particles and X-ray
- Custom Geometry
- Calculation of drift field and weighting field
- Currents signal via Ramo's Theorem
- Gain
- Diffusion
- Temperature effect
- Non-uniform deposition
- Electronics

WeightField2, Available at <http://personalpages.to.infn.it/~cartigli/weightfield2>

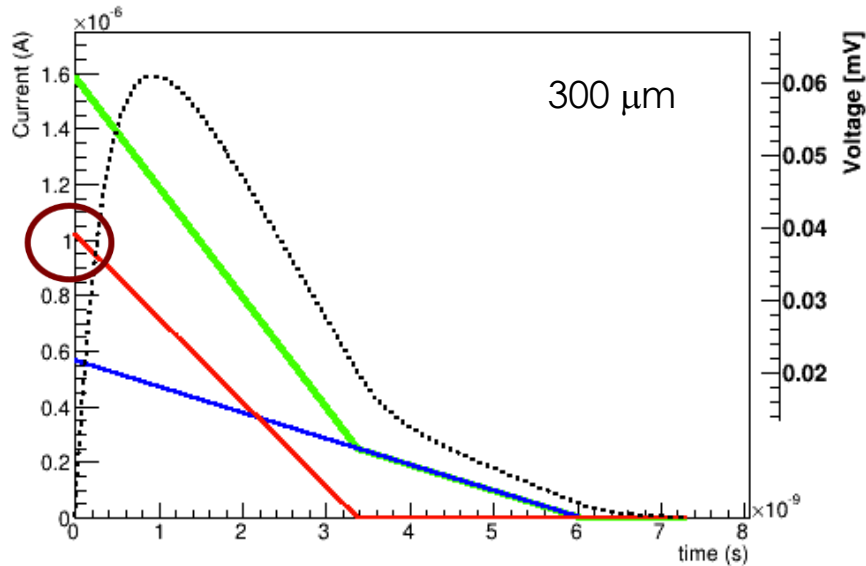
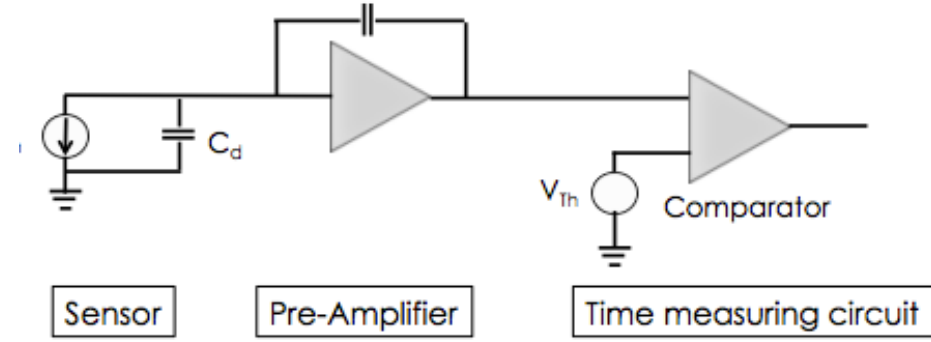


# How gain shapes the signal

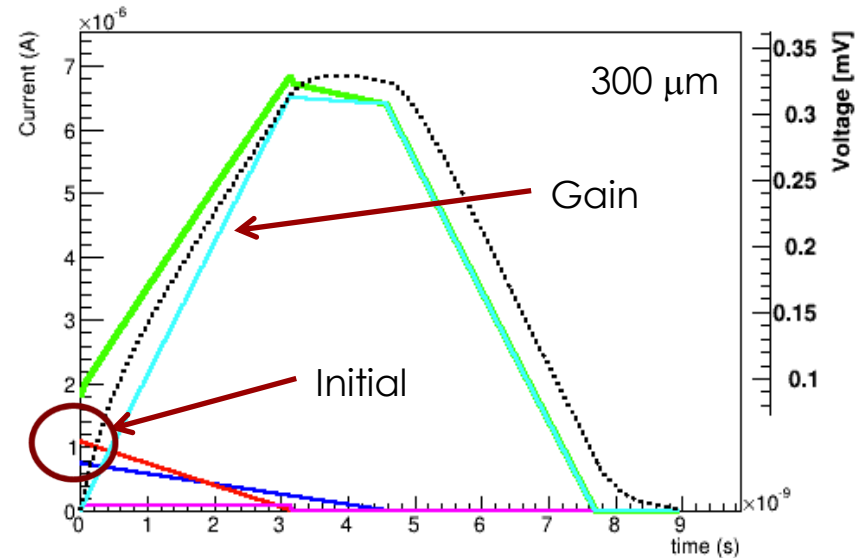


To fully exploit UFSDs, dedicated electronics needs to be designed.

**The signal from UFSDs is different from that of traditional sensors**



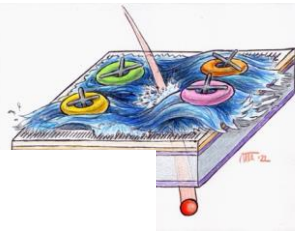
**Pads with no gain**  
Charges generated uniquely by the incident particle



**Pads with gain**  
Current due to gain holes creates a longer and higher signal

Simulated Weightfield2

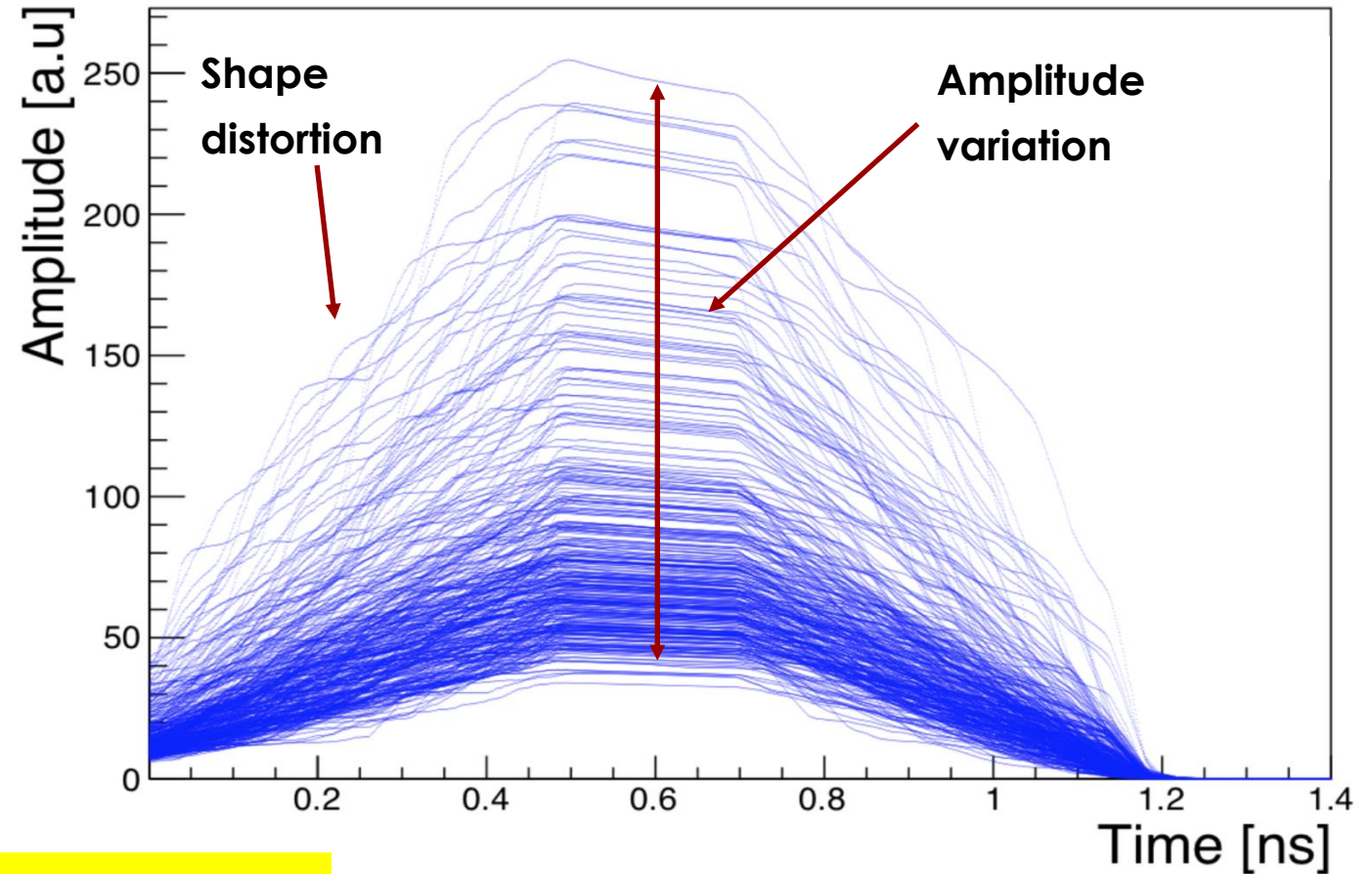
# Input signals for the ASIC design



WF2 simulation shows how the current signal changes.

Two effects:

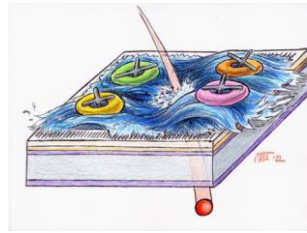
1. Amplitude variations
2. Shape distortions



**To efficiently design the front-end, it is necessary to have detailed knowledge of the input signals**

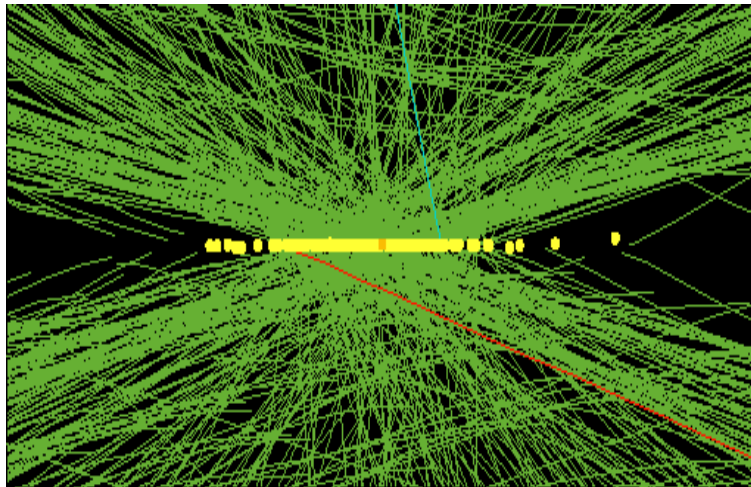
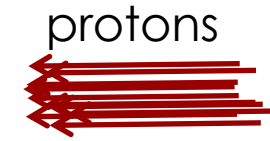
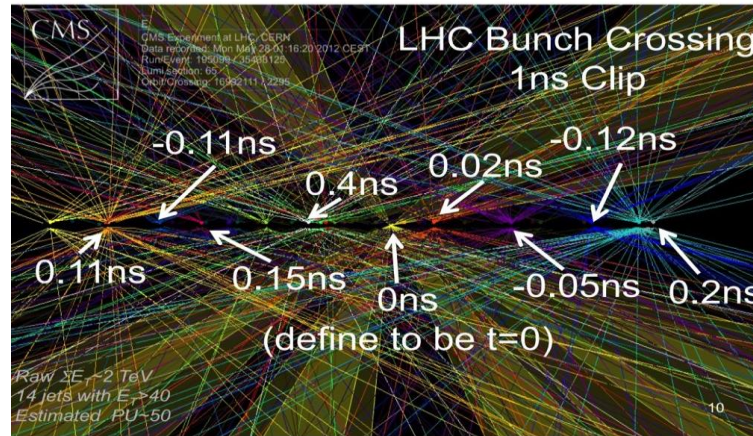
WF2 simulation of signals generated by a MIP crossing a 50 micron thick UFSD, gain ~ 20

# Why is timing needed in the HL-LHC upgrade?



## LHC situation:

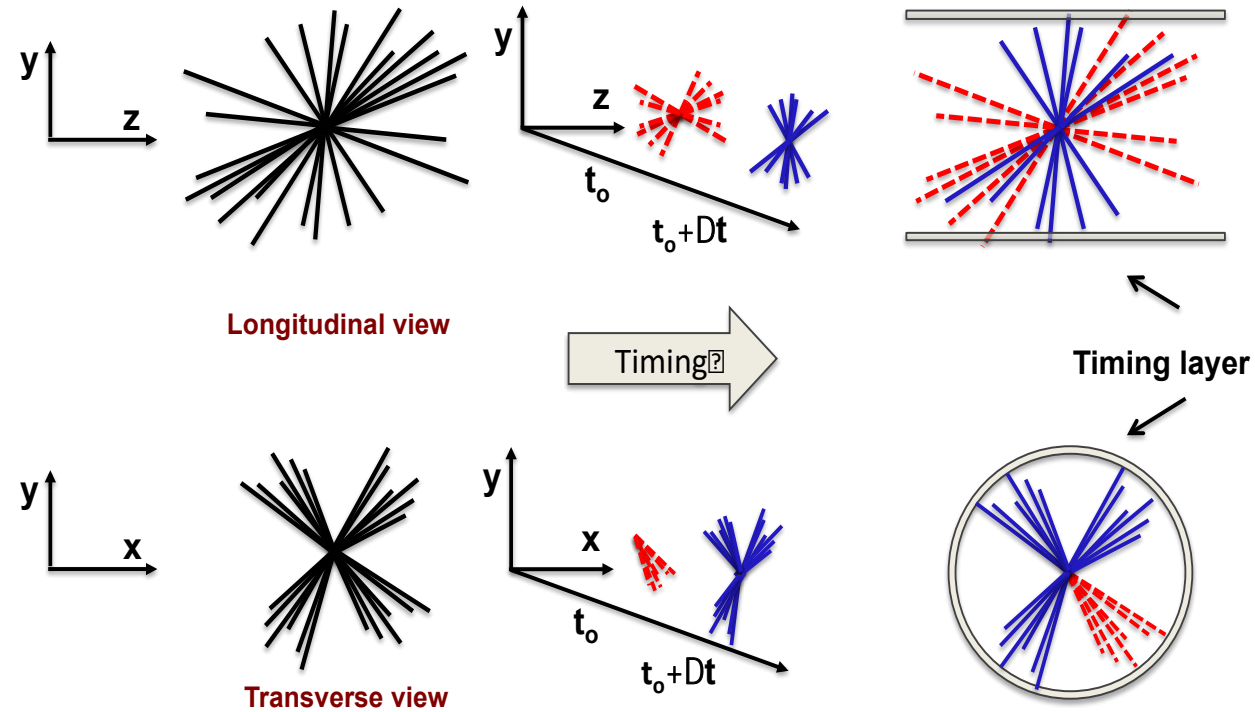
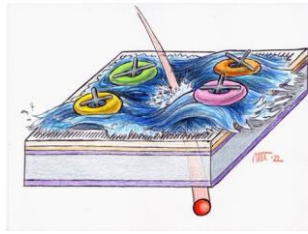
the collisions are separated in space and time



## HL-LHC situation:

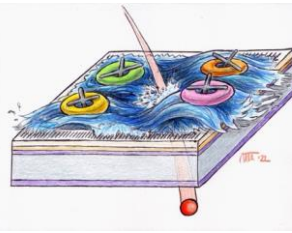
the collisions are so dense that they overlap in space and time.  
This leads to error in the reconstruction of the event

# Tracking in 4Dimension

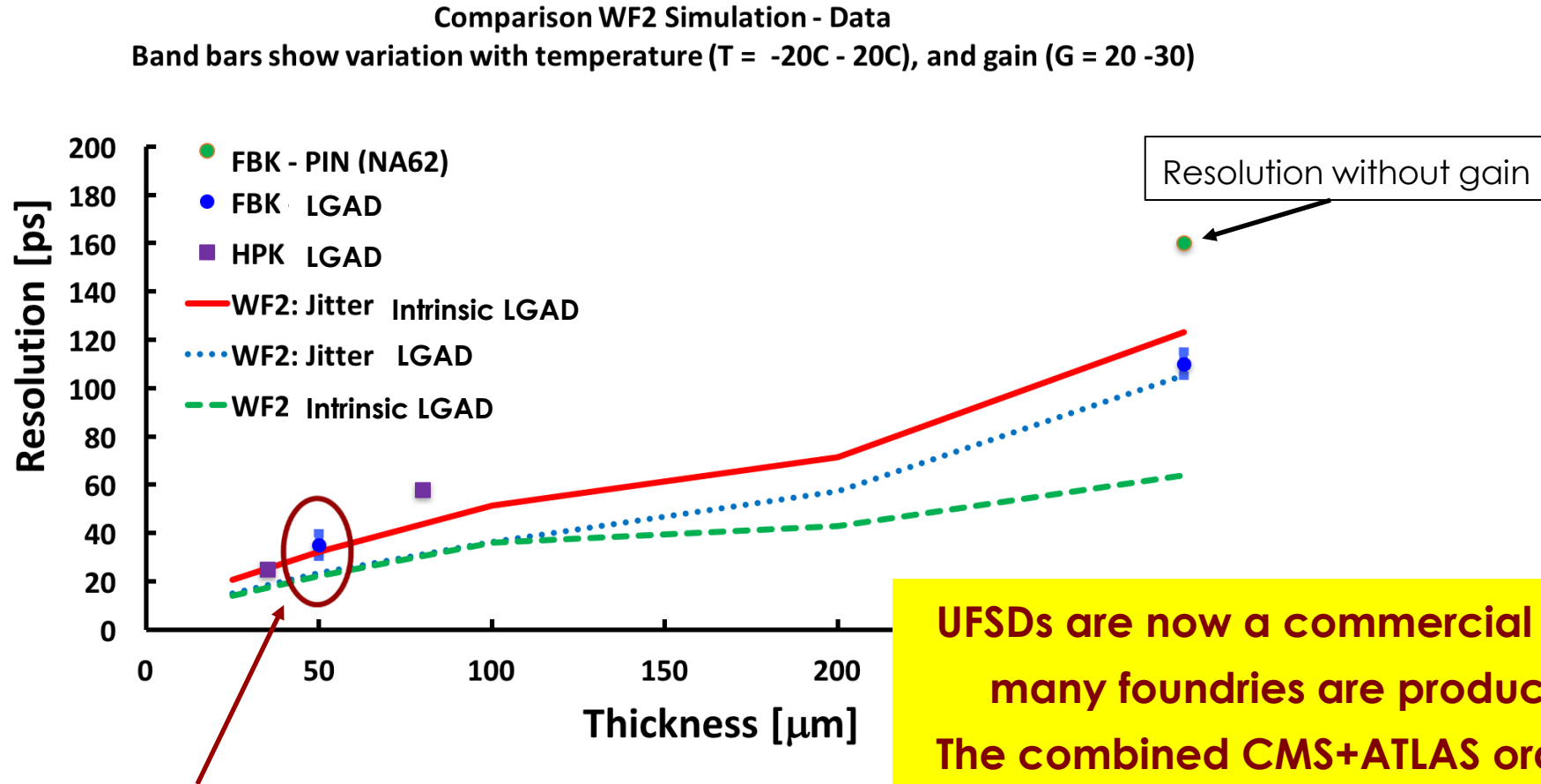


**The introduction of timing allows separating collisions that happen in the same location**

# UFSD temporal resolution vs sensor thickness



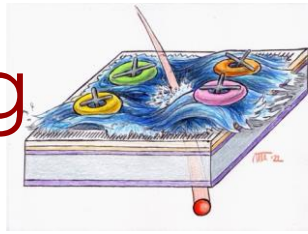
**Note: UFSD have an intrinsic resolution that depends on the thickness**



**UFSDs are now a commercial commodity, many foundries are producing them. The combined CMS+ATLAS order exceeds 20 m<sup>2</sup> for a cost in excess of 5-6 million CHF**

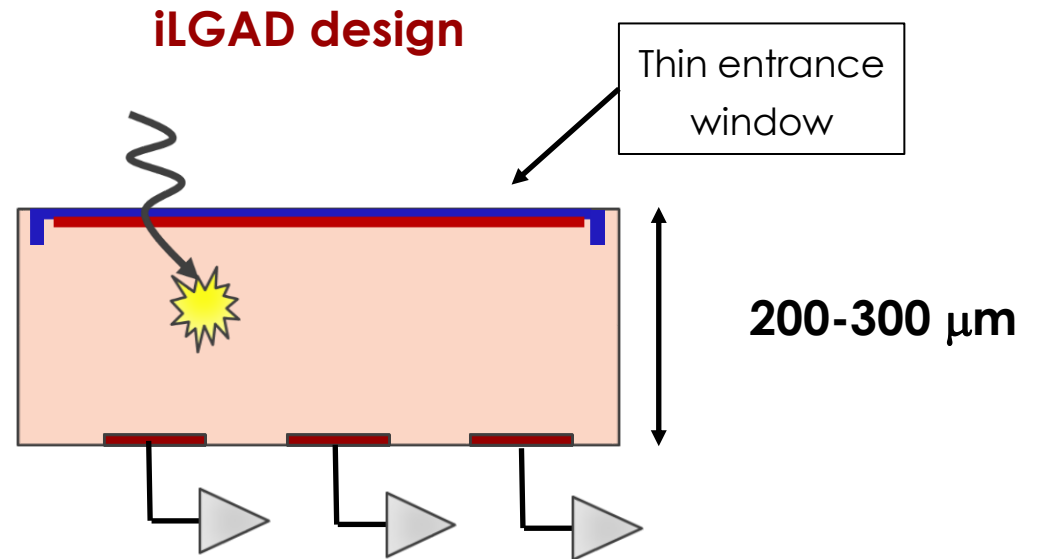
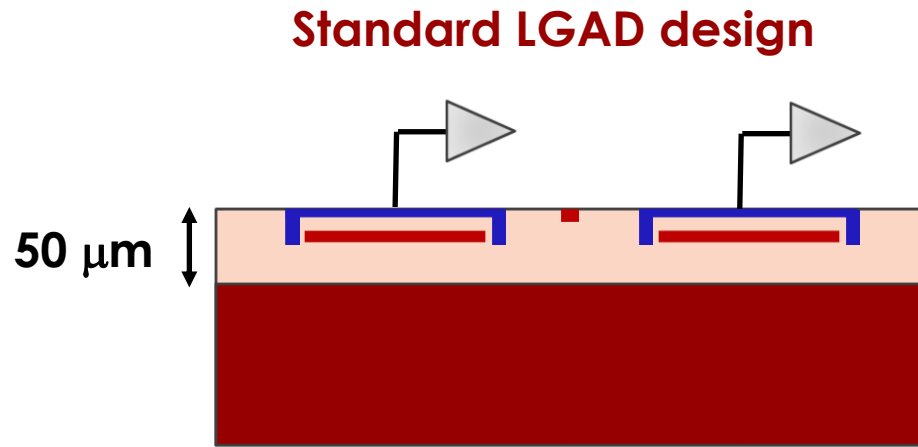
**Both CMS and ATLAS have opted for 50 μm thick UFSD, (intrinsic time resolution of about 30 ps)**

# Development of low-energy X-ray detectors using LGAD sensors

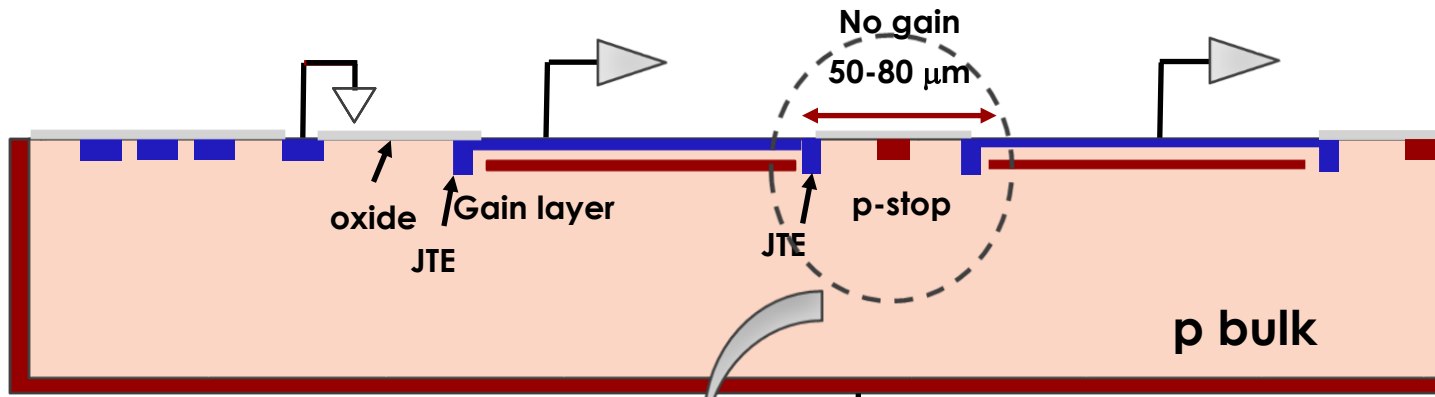


Internal gain allows boosting the sensor signal by about 10-30 times, opening up the possibility of detecting soft X-rays without changing the electronic design.

The combination of the iLGAD design with a thin entrance window lowers the minimum detectable energy to about 500 eV.

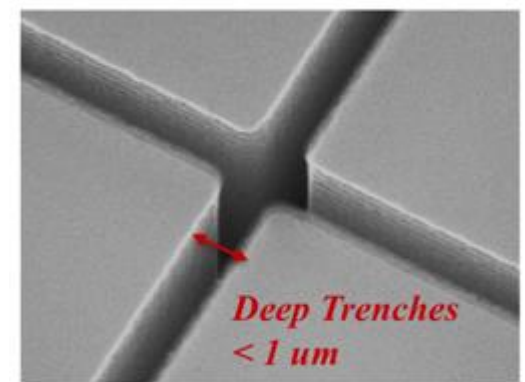
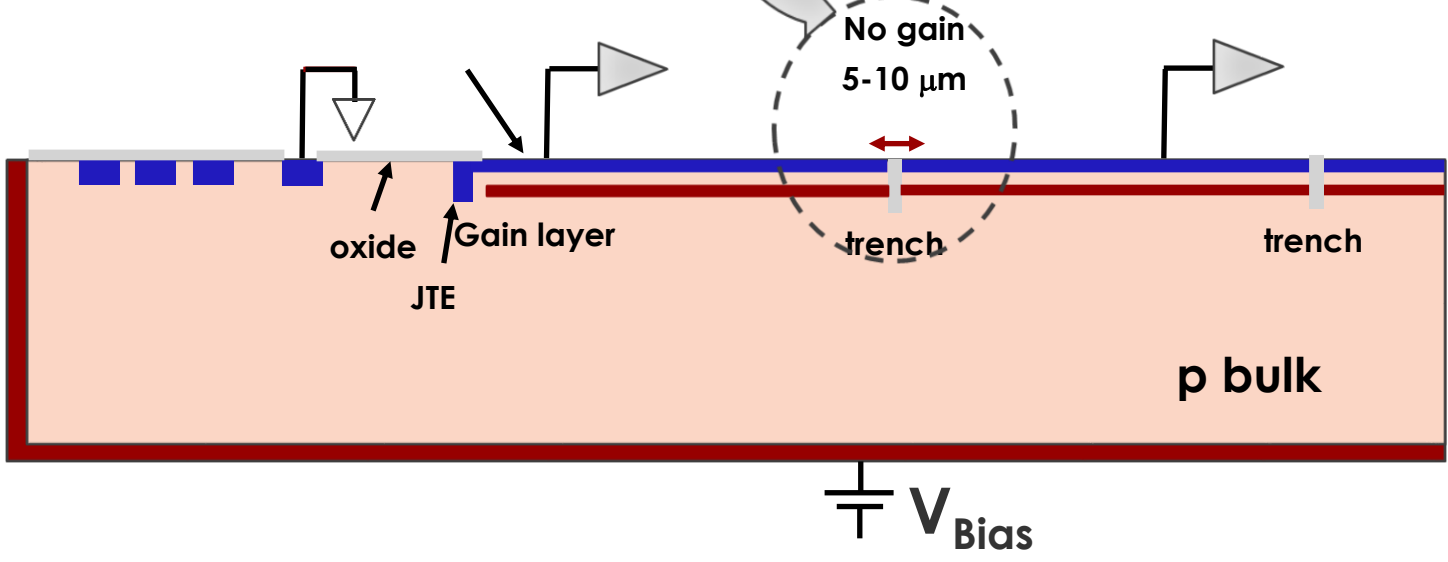


# LGAD Trench Isolated: enabling small UFSD pixels



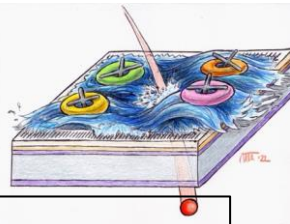
No-gain region ~ 50-80  $\mu\text{m}$   
→ cannot use for small pixels

**Solution: use trenches for pad isolation**  
→ No-gain region ~ 0 – 10  $\mu\text{m}$



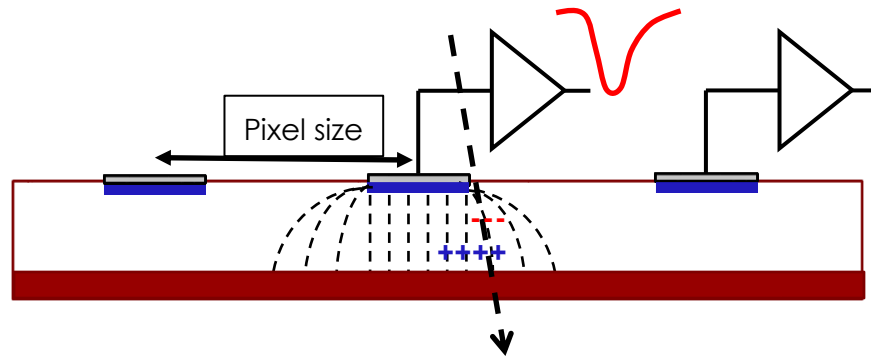


# Silicon life in 2020: spatial resolution



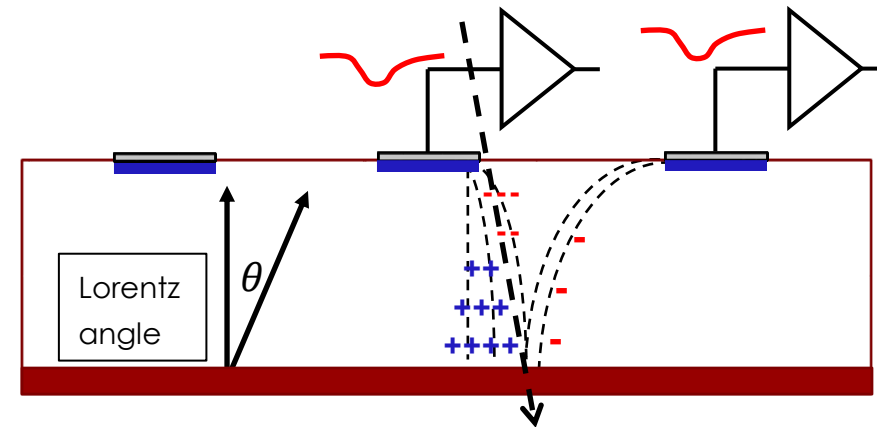
## Single pixel

where the charge is collected in one pixel



## Multi pixels

where the charge is collected in a few pixels

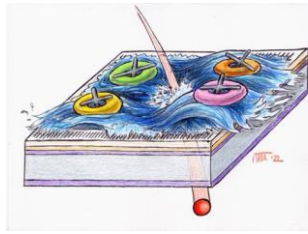


**The need of excellent spatial resolution and low material budget forces the use of small pixels.**

- $\text{pixel} = 100 \mu\text{m} \rightarrow \sigma_x = 20 \mu\text{m}$
- $\sigma_x \ll \text{pixel size}$
- Sensors have to be thick to maintain efficiency
- Need B field (or floating electrodes) to spread the signal

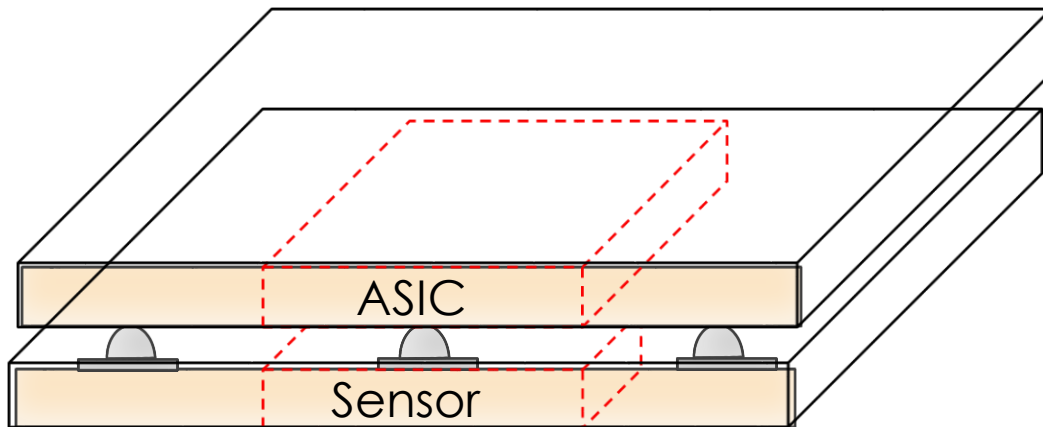
$$x_i = \frac{A_i x_i}{\sum_1^2 A_l x_l}$$

# Spatial and temporal resolutions vs power consumption



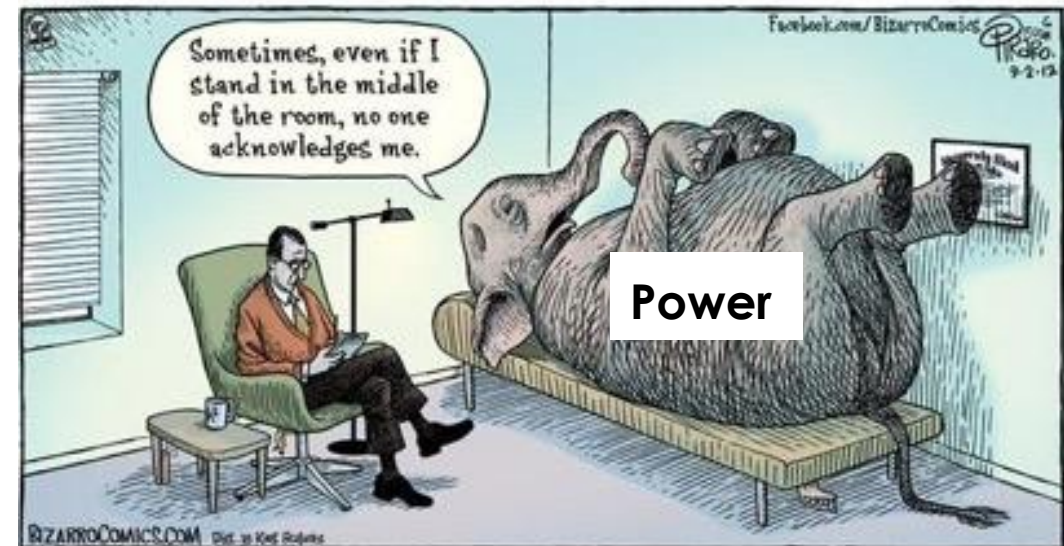
In single-pixel architecture, **the position resolution determines:**

- The pixel size
- The space available for the electronics

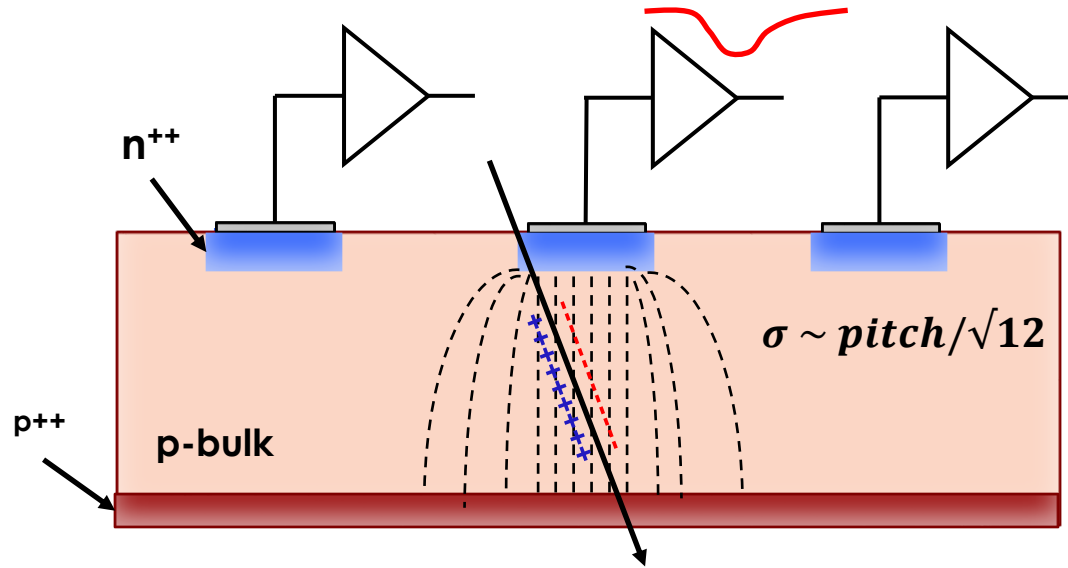
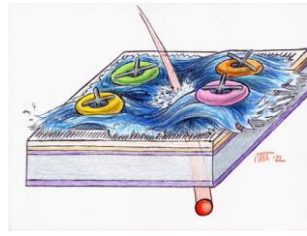


Good timing resolution requires a sizable amount of power per amplifier.

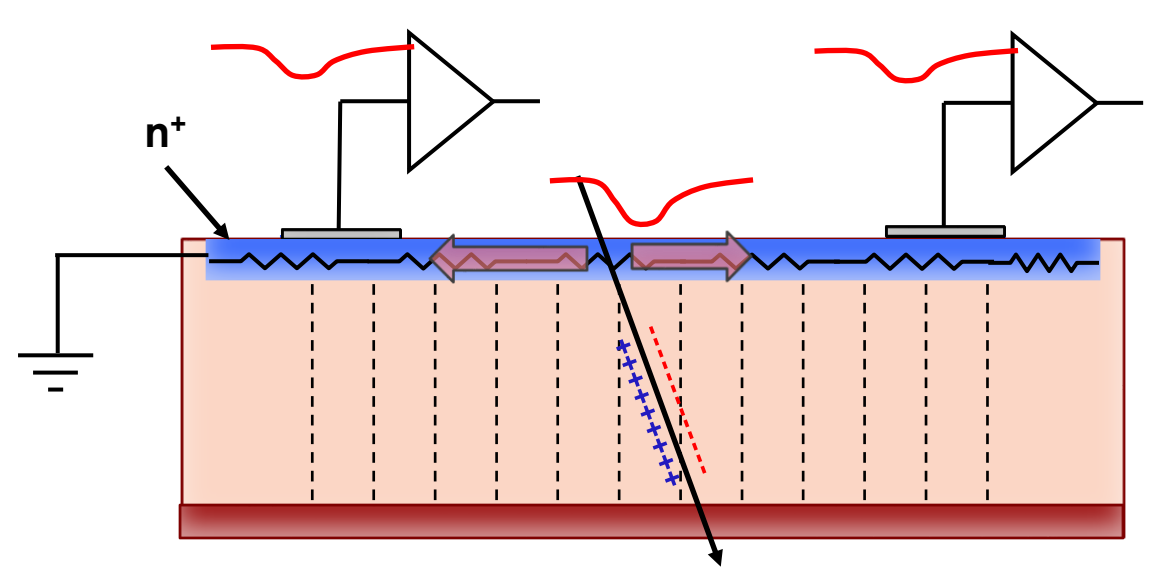
**A large number of small pixels requires too much power**



# Second design innovation: resistive read-out



Silicon detector with standard read-out

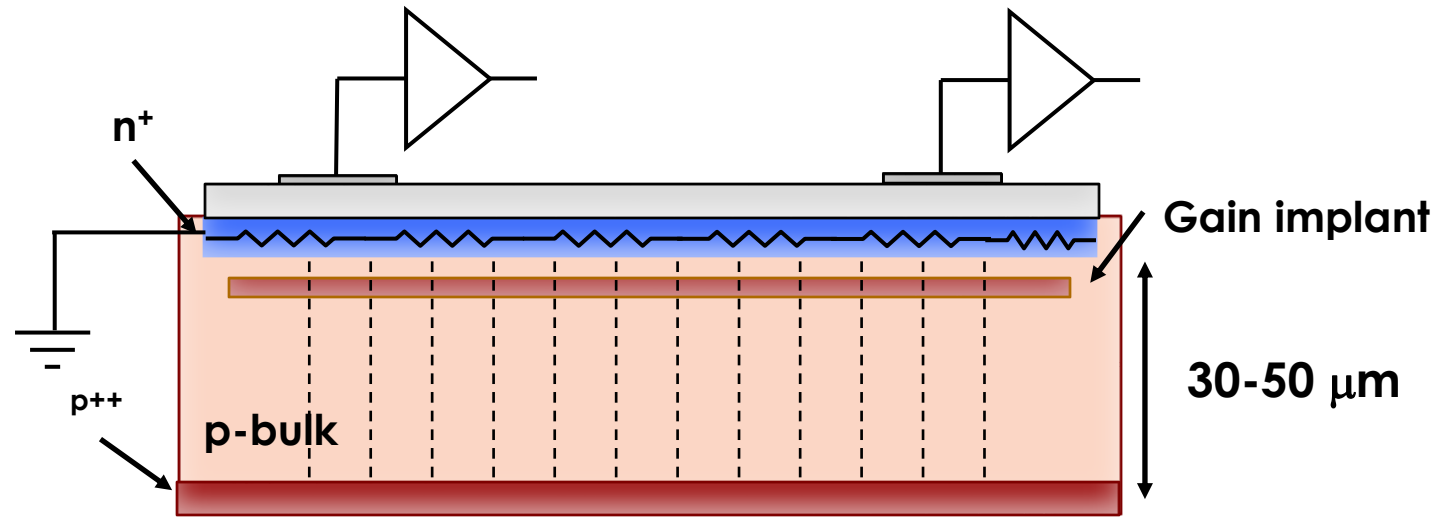
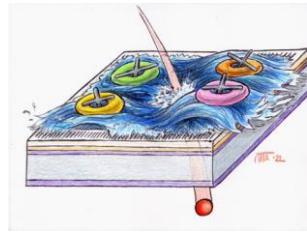


Silicon detector with resistive read-out

- In resistive read-out, instead of many p-n diodes, there is a single diode.
- The n-doped implant is resistive and acts as a signal divider
- Very uniform electric and weighing fields, perfect geometry for timing

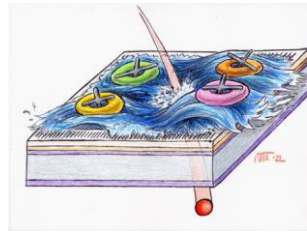
**Signal sharing is the key ingredient to excellent spatial resolution using large pixels**

# Resistive Silicon Detector (RSD)



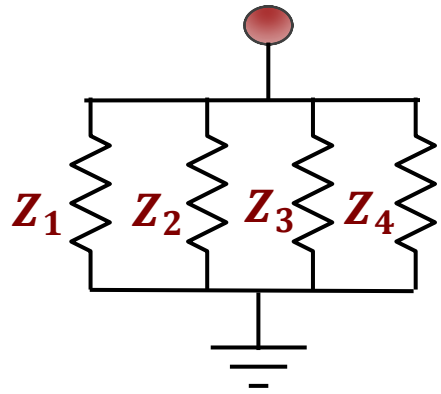
**Resistive Silicon Detectors  
combine low-gain and resistive read-out**

# Charge sharing in RSD

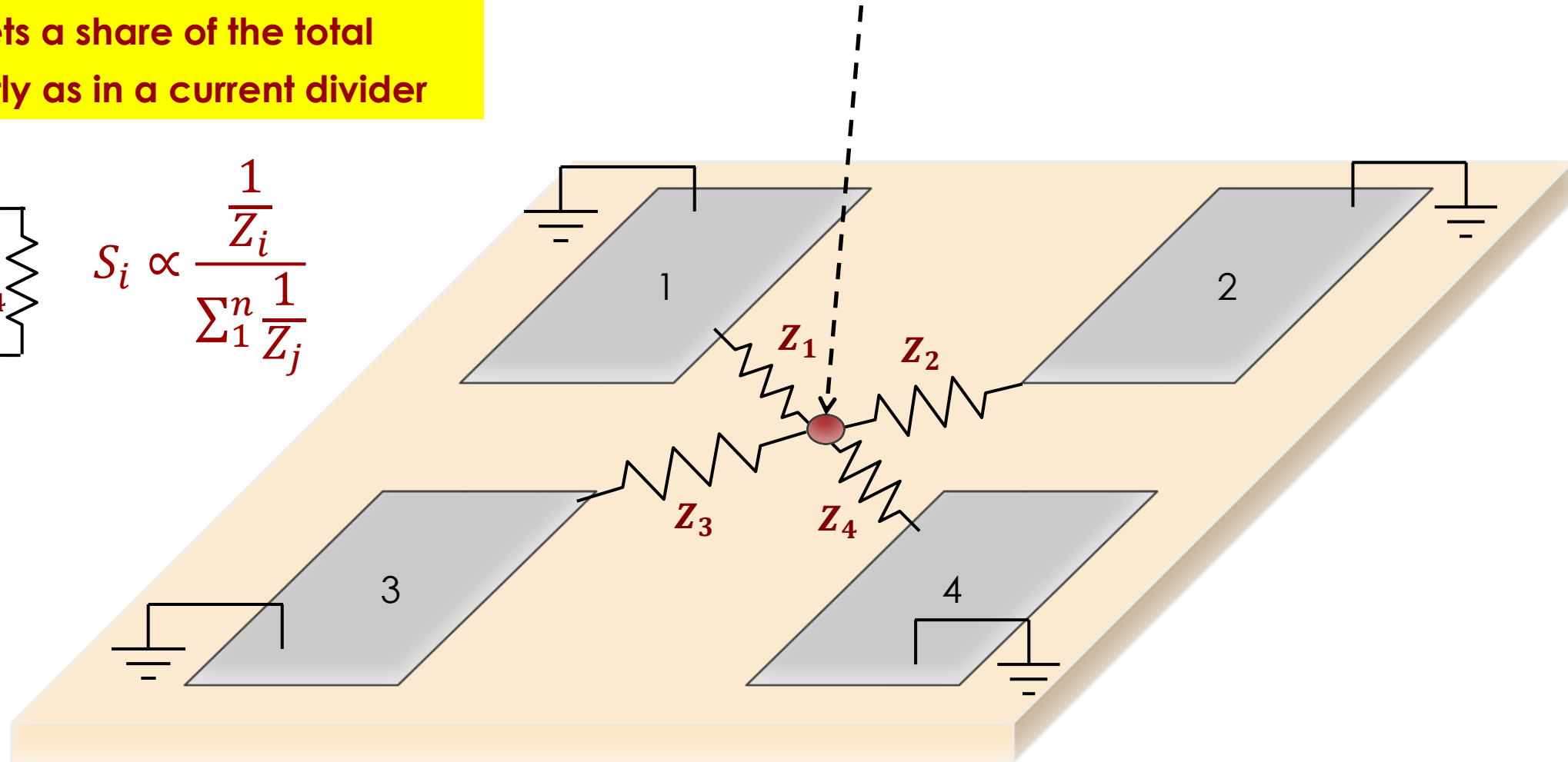


The signal sees several impedances in parallel, and it is split according to Ohm's law.

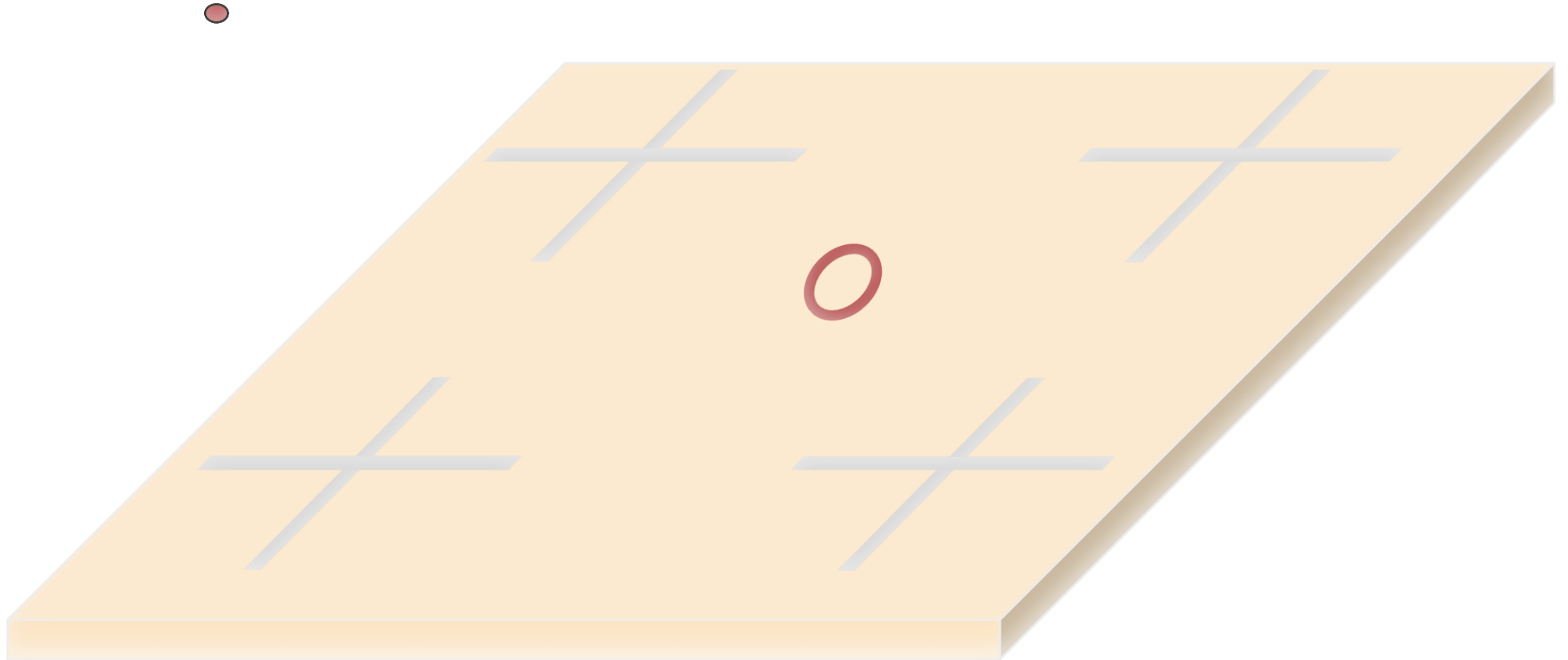
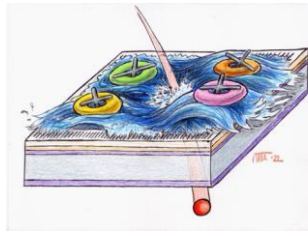
Each pad gets a share of the total signal, exactly as in a current divider



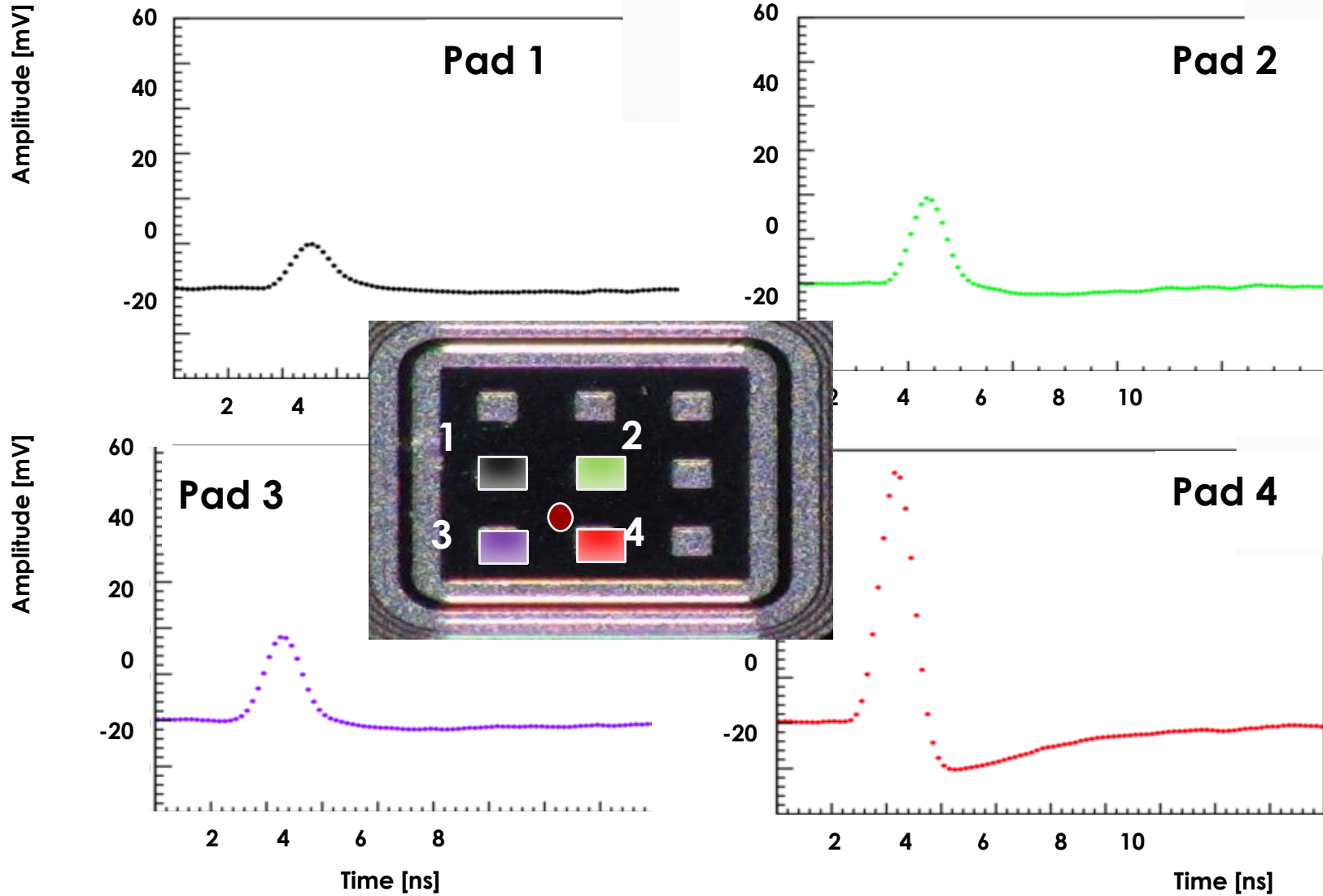
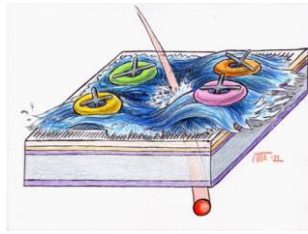
$$S_i \propto \frac{1}{Z_i} \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{Z_j}}$$



# RSD principle of operation in motion



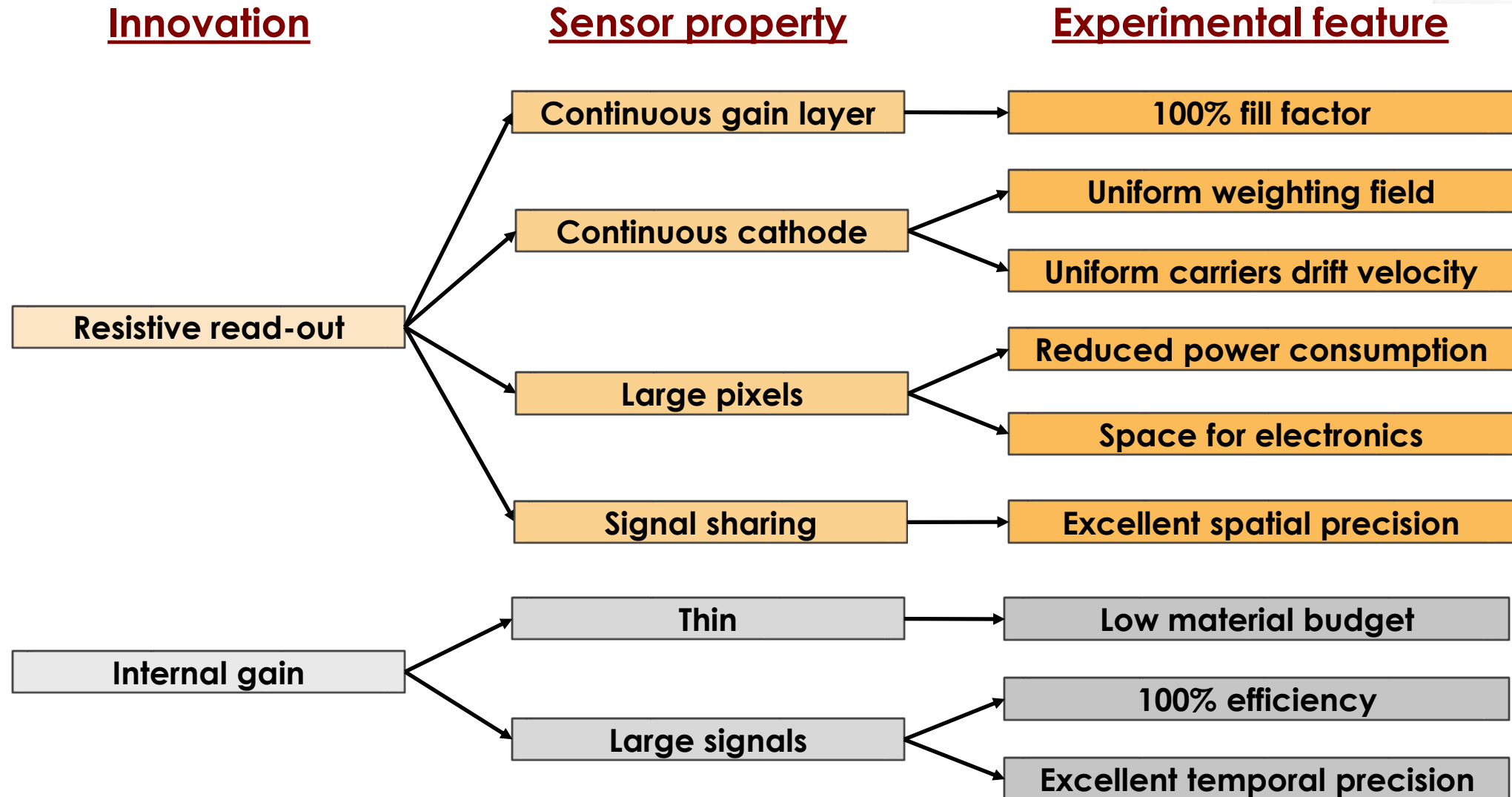
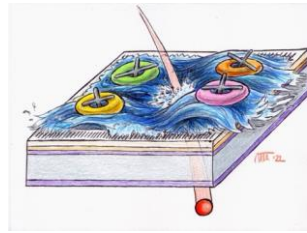
# Example of signal sharing



50-mm thick RSD,  
Gain ~ 20

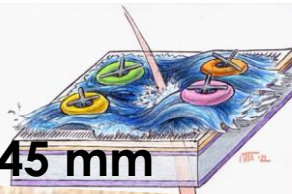
The laser is shot at the position of the red dot: the signal is seen in 4 pads

# RSD: an almost "ideal" silicon sensor





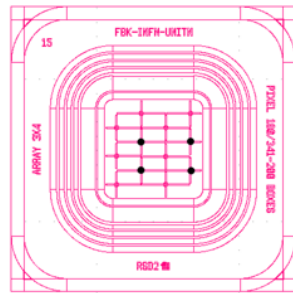
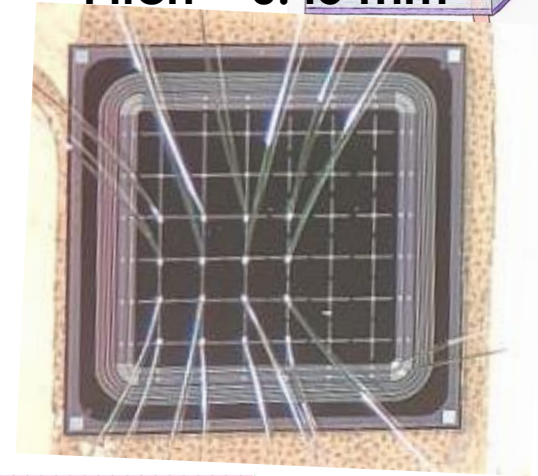
# RSD2 sensors with cross-shaped electrodes



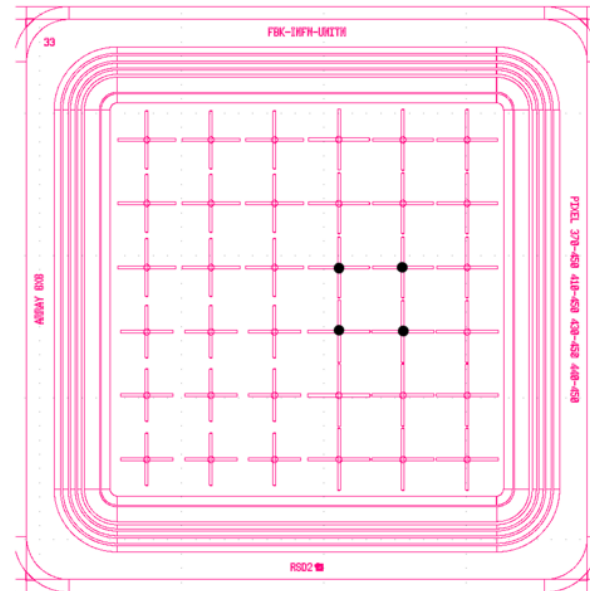
Pitch = 0.45 mm

Sensor production at Fondazione Bruno Kessler

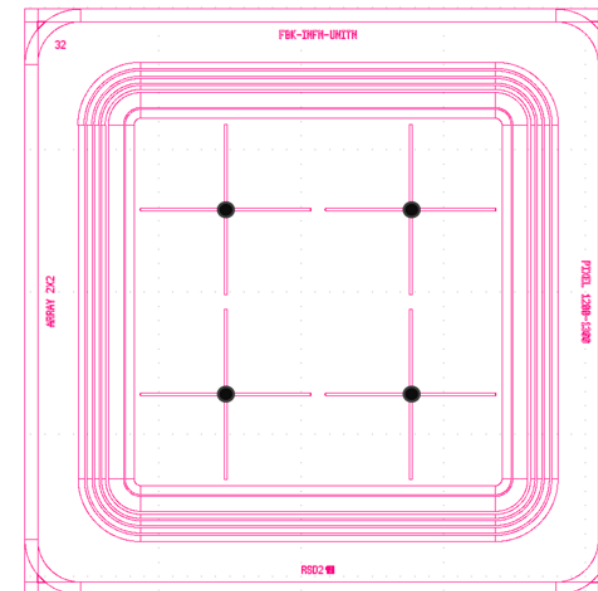
Several geometries are explored in RSD2, for example cross with different pitch and arm length: 200, 340, 450, and 1300  $\mu\text{m}$



(A)  
200 x 340  $\mu\text{m}^2$

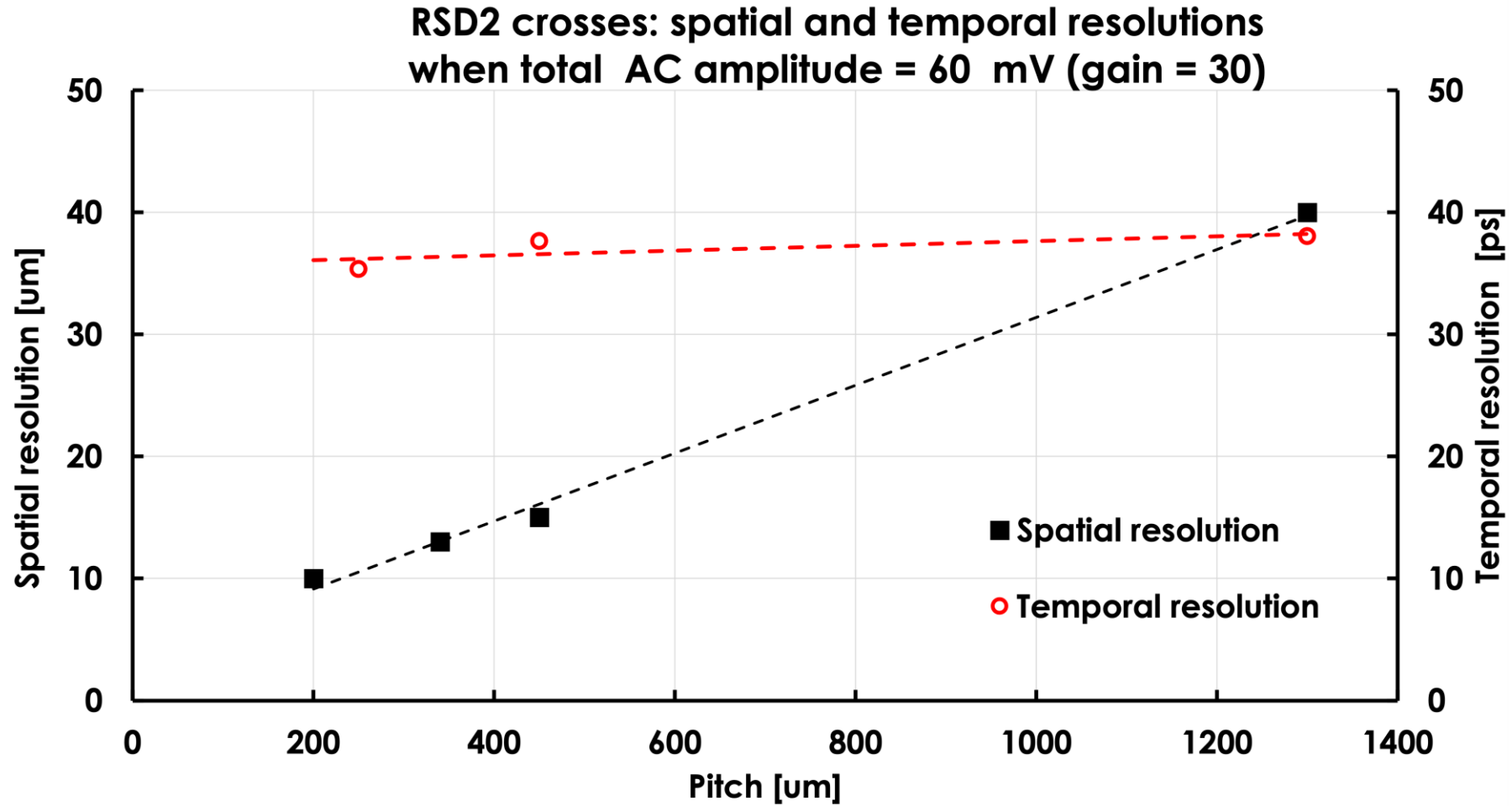
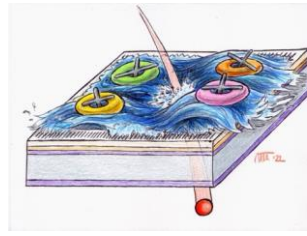


(B)  
Pitch = 450  $\mu\text{m}$

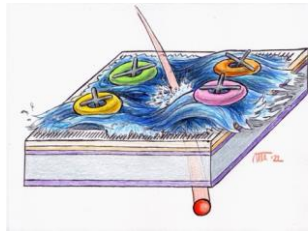


(C)  
Pitch = 1300  $\mu\text{m}$

# FBK-RSD2 performance summary

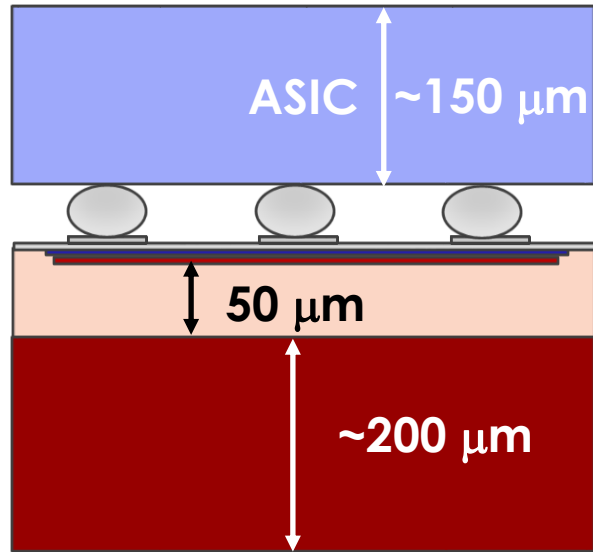


# Reduced material budget

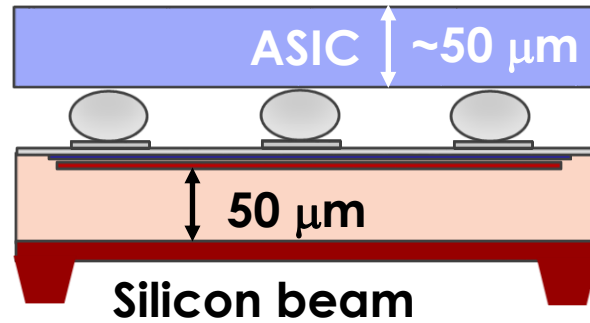


The active thickness of RSD sensor is rather small  $\sim 50 \mu\text{m}$ .

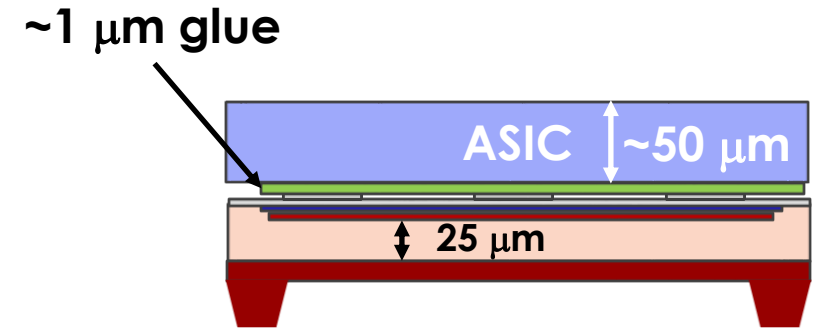
**There is a clear path leading to  $< 100 \mu\text{m}$  material:**



Present design: no material budget optimization

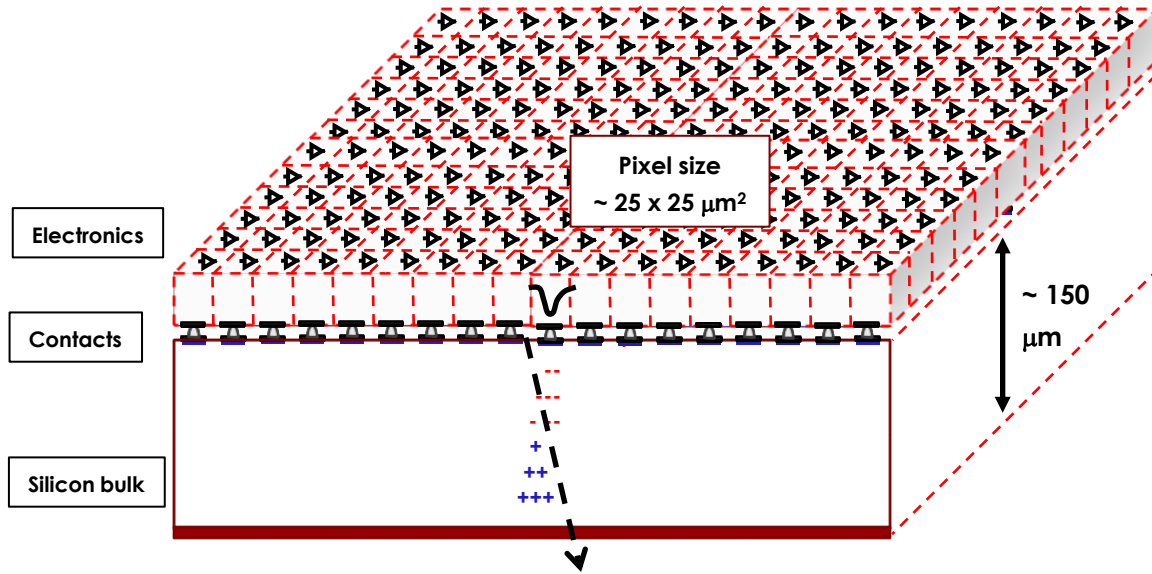
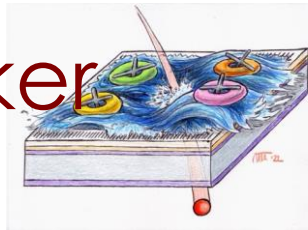


- Thinned handle wafer:  $500 \mu\text{m} \rightarrow 10\text{-}20 \mu\text{m}$

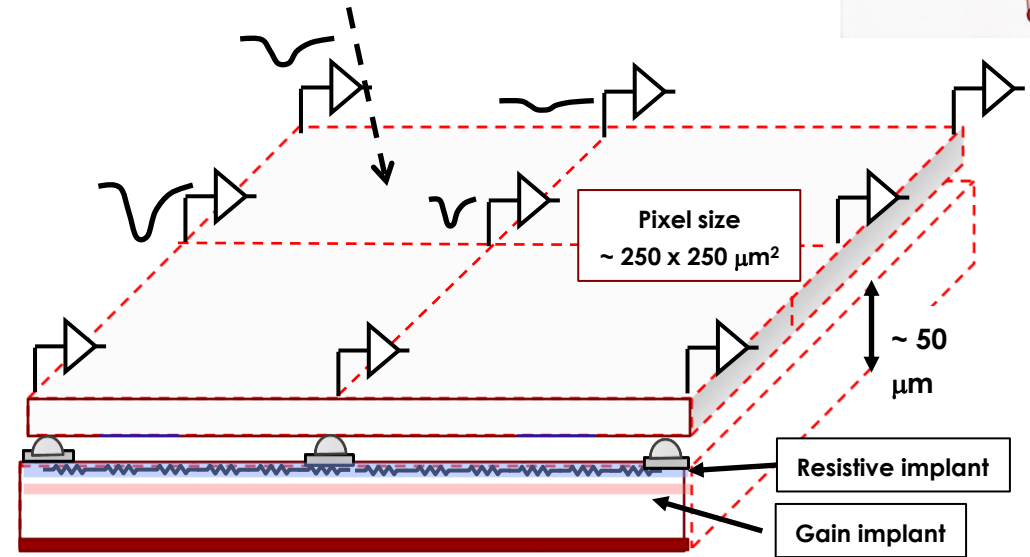


- Thinned handle wafer:  $500 \mu\text{m} \rightarrow 10\text{-}20 \mu\text{m}$
- Thinned active area:  $50 \mu\text{m} \rightarrow 25 \mu\text{m}$   
 $50 \text{ ps} \rightarrow 25 \text{ ps}$

# Final goal of RSD R&D: a completely new tracker



**Standard Tracker**

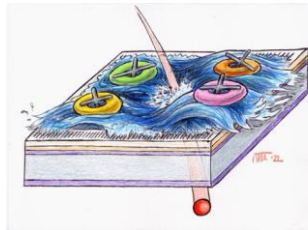


**RSD-based tracker**

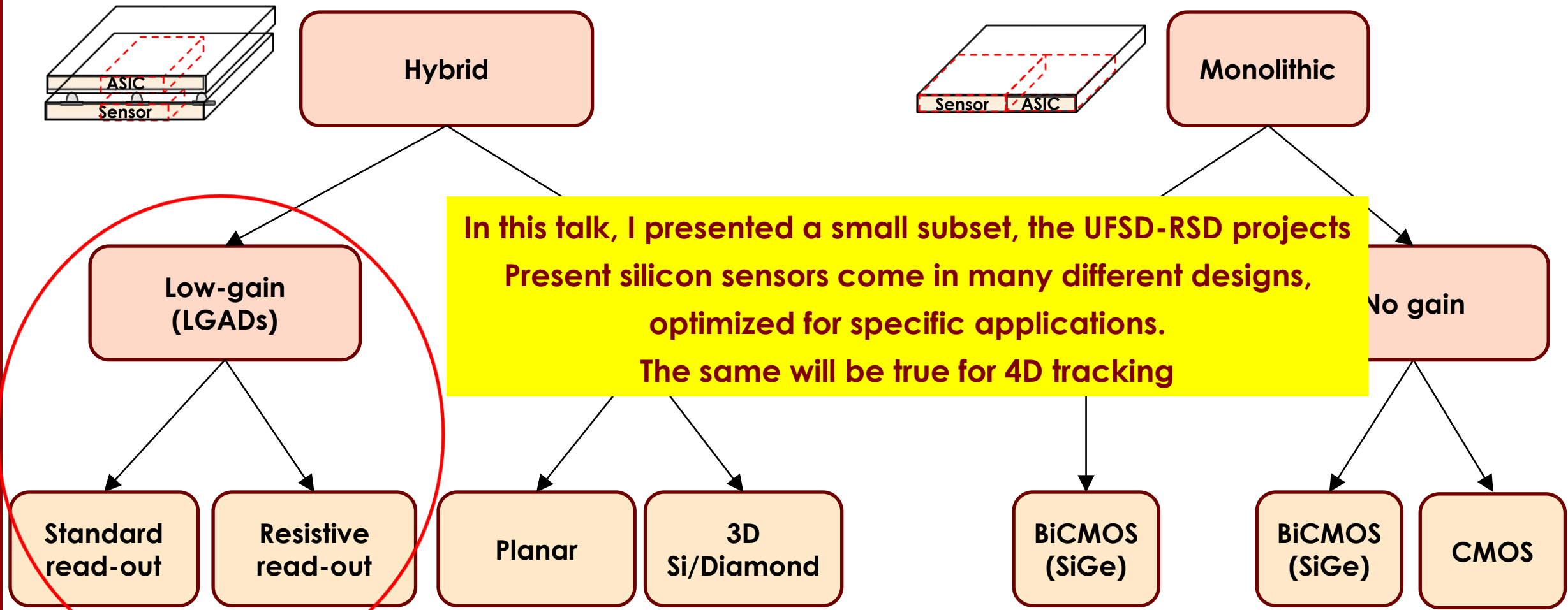
**The design of a tracker based on RSD is truly innovative:**

- It delivers ~ 20 -30 ps temporal resolution
- For the same spatial resolution, the number of pixels is reduced by 50-100
- The electronic circuitry can be easily accommodated
- The power consumption is much lower; it might even be air-cooled (~ 0.1-0.2 W/cm<sup>2</sup>)
- The sensors can be really thin

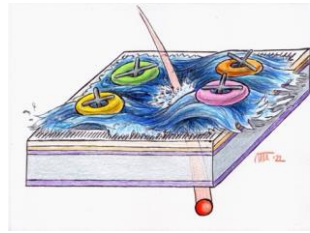
# Tracking in 4-dimensions: a very rich field



The present R&Ds in position-sensitive timing detectors is very diverse



# Future R&D paths in RSD

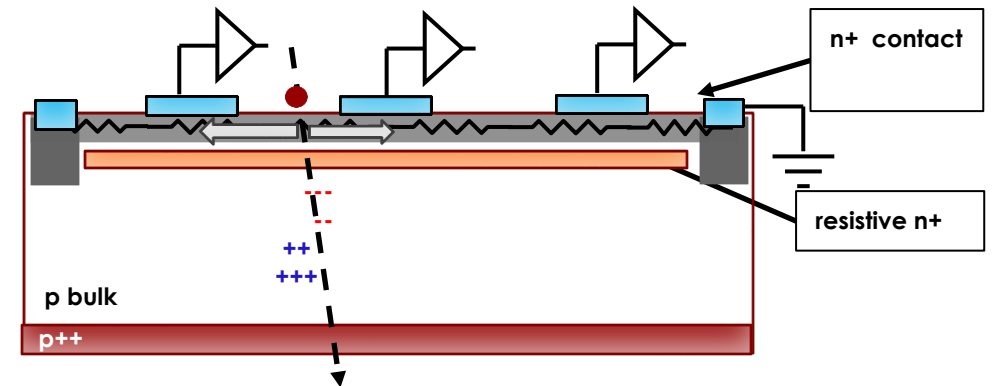
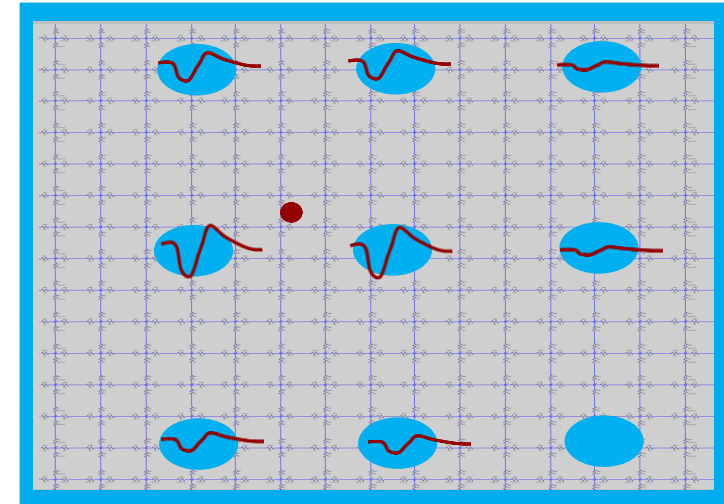


**We have been too successful in signal sharing:**

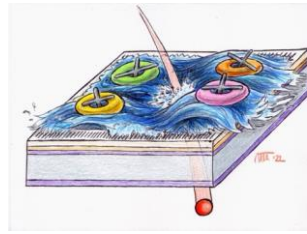
the signal is seen on electrodes that are "far" from the hit point.

Sharing the signal on too many electrodes has several disadvantages:

- **The signal-to-noise ratio degrades**, part of the signal is wasted on electrodes that are not used.
- **The area used by a single hit becomes very large**, impacting the use of such sensors in high-occupancy environments.



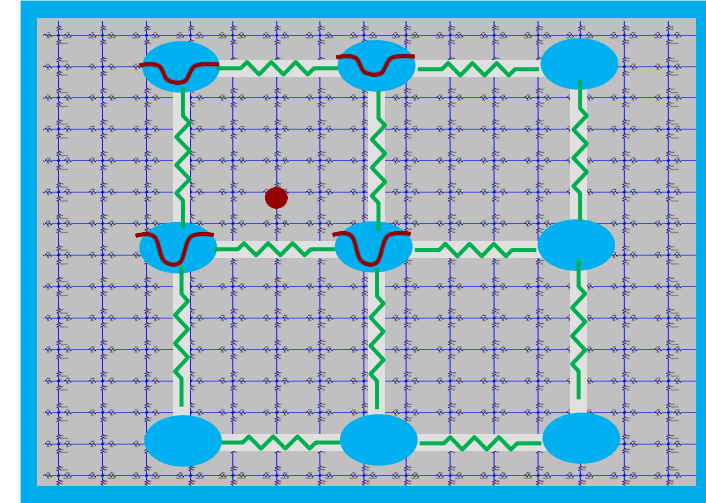
# Future R&D paths in RSD: signal containment



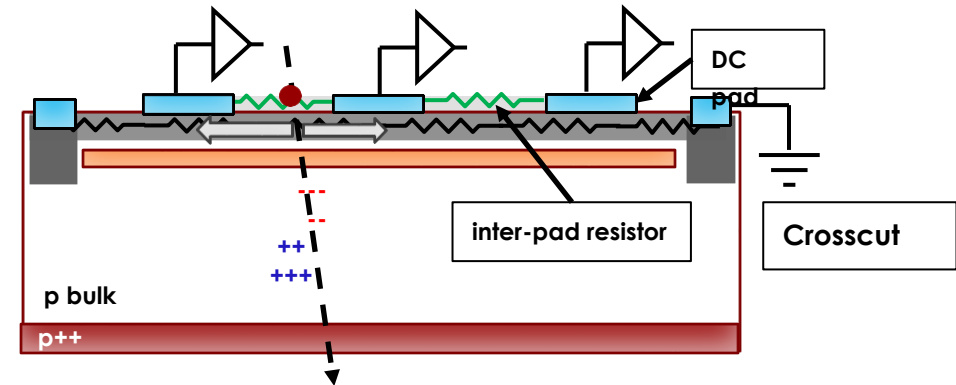
We are exploring various solutions to contain the signal only within the closest electrodes.

One interesting proposal is to **implant resistors between the electrodes.**

The resistors offer a lower impedance path with respect to the n++ resistive layer so that they will guide the signal to the electrodes

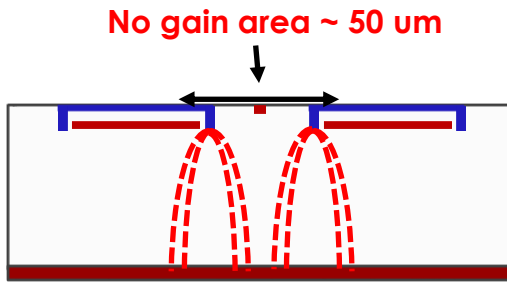
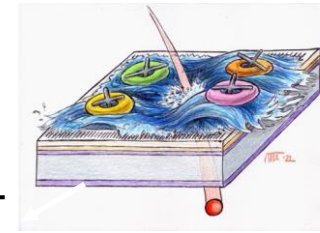


Top view

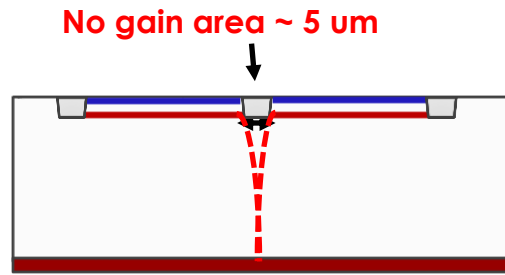


Crosscut

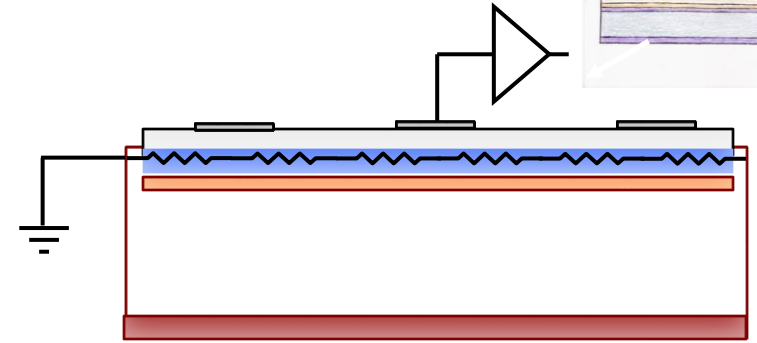
# Summary: gaining and sharing



JTE + p-stop design



Trench-isolated design



RSD -- AC-LGAD

## JTE/p-stop UFSD

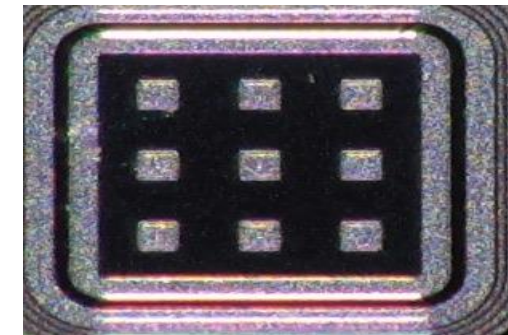
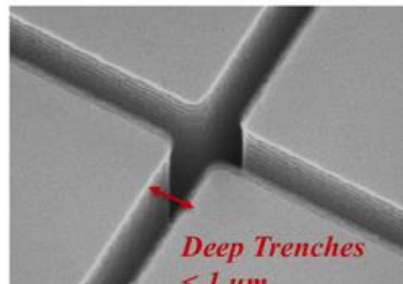
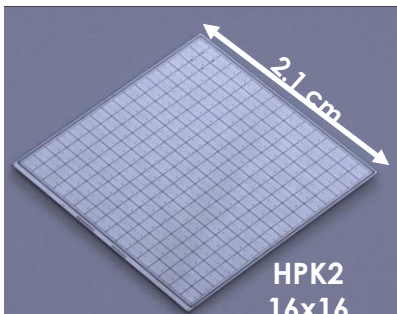
- CMS & ATLAS choice
- Signal in a single pixel
- Not 100% fill factor
- Very well tested
- High Occupancy OK
- Rate ~ 50-100 MHz
- Rad hardness ~ 2-3E15 n/cm2

## UFSD evolution: use trenches

- Signal in a single pixel
- Almost 100% fill factor
- Temporal resolution (50  $\mu\text{m}$ ) : 35-40 ps
- High Occupancy OK
- Rate ~ 50-100 MHz
- Rad hardness: to be studied

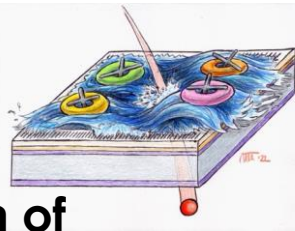
## RSD evolution: resistive readout

- Signal in many pixels
- 100% fill factor
- Excellent position resolution:  
~ 5  $\mu\text{m}$  with large pixels
- Temporal resolution (50  $\mu\text{m}$ ) : 35-40 ps
- Rate ~ 10-50 MHz
- Rad hardness: to be studied





# Conclusions



The combination of internal multiplication and built-in charge sharing leads to the design of a new type of silicon tracker.

Resistive read-out && LGAD can be used both in hybrid and monolithic sensors

The pixel size can be quite large given the very good spatial resolution.

Limitations might be introduced by occupancy.

Spatial resolution depends upon  $\sim 1/\text{gain}$ ,  $\sim 1/\text{pitch}$ , and  $\sim \text{noise}$

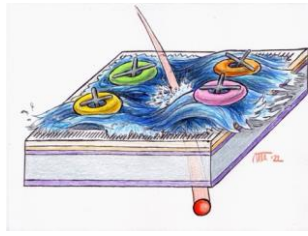
The temporal resolution is weakly dependent on the pixel size

Our laboratory measurements yield to (at gain = 30)

- a spatial resolution of about 3% of the pixel size
- a temporal resolution similar (but marginally worse) than that of standard LGADs

# Acknowledgement

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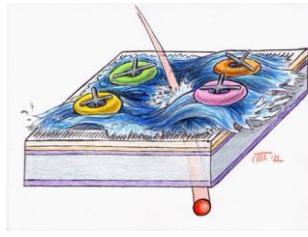


We kindly acknowledge the following funding agencies, collaborations:

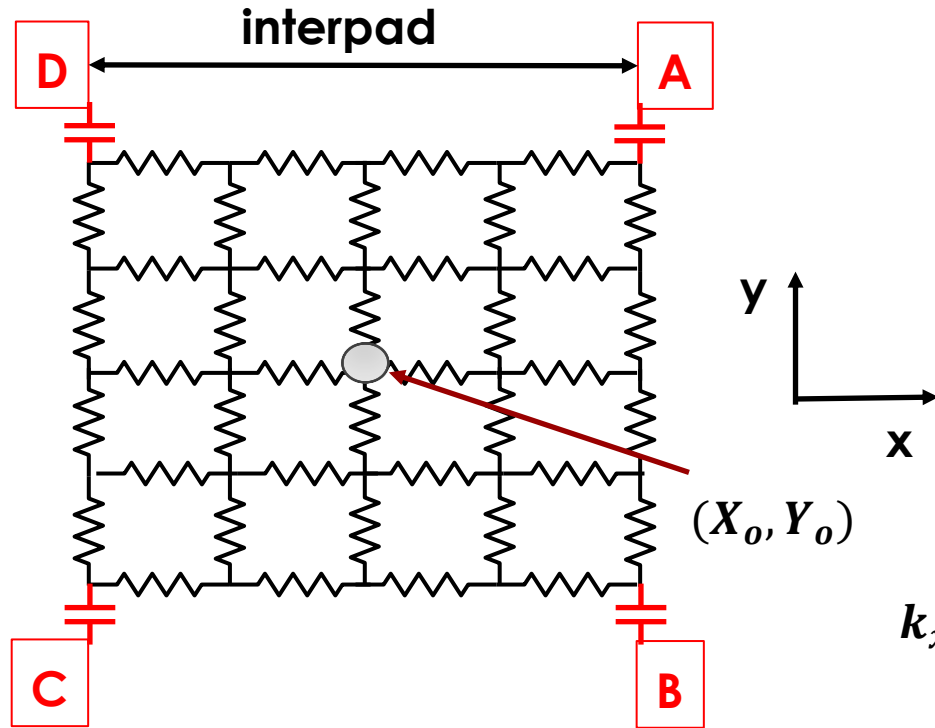
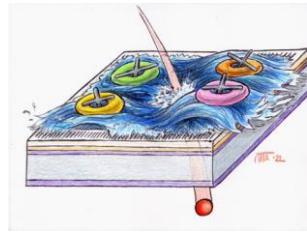
- RD50 collaboration
- INFN - Gruppo V 4DShare project
- INFN – FBK agreement on sensor production (convenzione INFN-FBK)
- Horizon 2020, grant UFSD669529

# Backup

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# RSD as a Discretized Positioning Circuit



$$X = X_o + k_x \left( \frac{Q_A + Q_B - Q_C - Q_D}{Q_A + Q_B + Q_C + Q_D} \right)$$

$$Y = Y_o + k_y \left( \frac{Q_A + Q_D - Q_B - Q_C}{Q_A + Q_B + Q_C + Q_D} \right)$$

$$k_x = \frac{\text{interpad}}{2} * \frac{\alpha_x}{\left( \frac{Q_A + Q_D - Q_B - Q_C}{Q_A + Q_B + Q_C + Q_D} \right)_{x=X_o + \frac{\text{Interpad}}{2}, y=Y_o}}$$

RSD is a hybrid resistors/capacitors DPC circuit

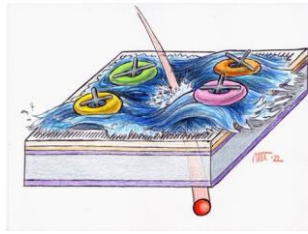
The reconstruction method uses only the signals in the 4 pads to reconstruct the hit position

➔ no need for an analytical sharing law.

➔  $k_{x,y}$  = imbalance parameter along x or y

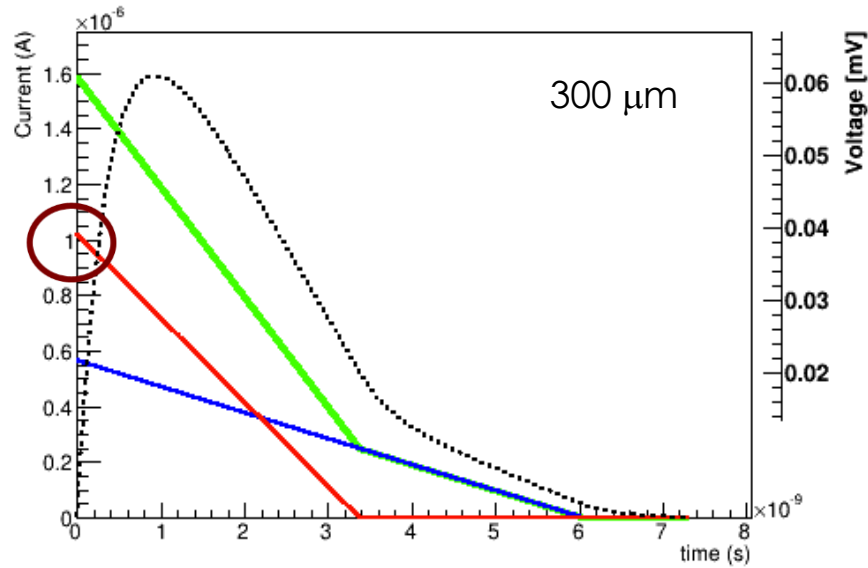
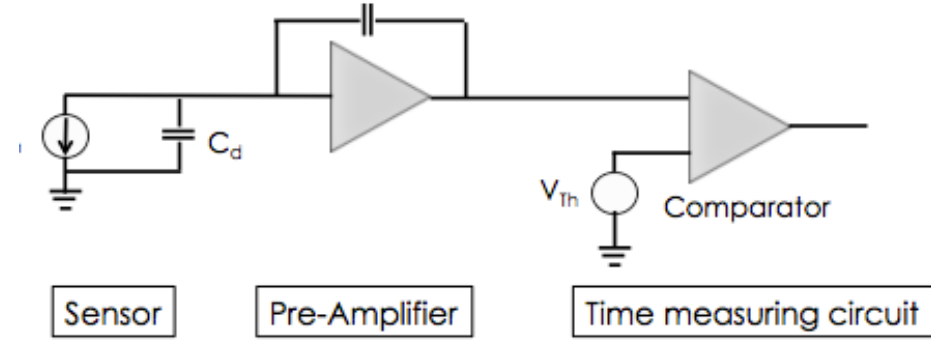
- Maximum value of the charge imbalance within the pixel
- Needs to be determined experimentally for each geometry

# How gain shapes the signal

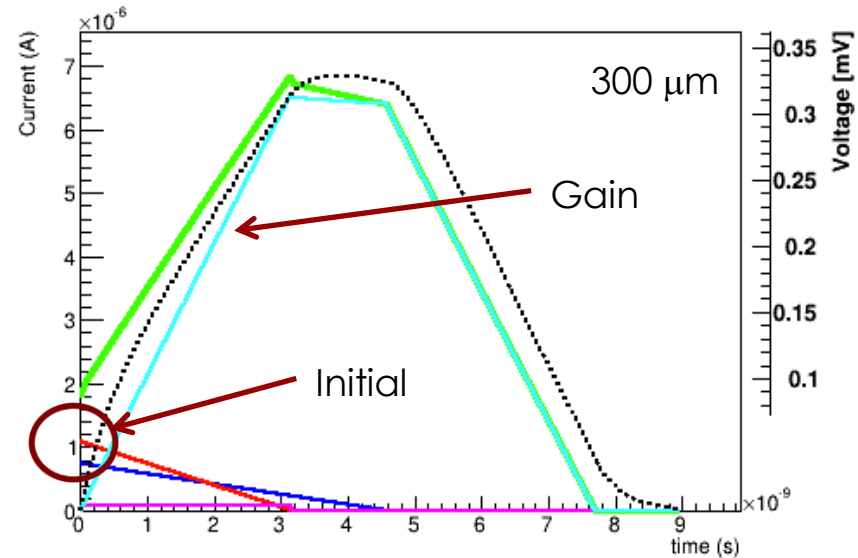


To fully exploit UFSDs, dedicated electronics needs to be designed.

**The signal from UFSDs is different from that of traditional sensors**



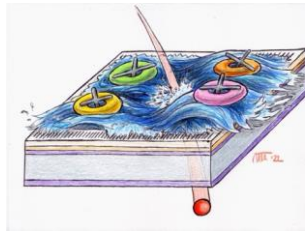
**Pads with no gain**  
Charges generated uniquely by the incident particle



**Pads with gain**  
Current due to gain holes creates a longer and higher signal

Simulated Weightfield2

# Limiting the signal spread to a single cell



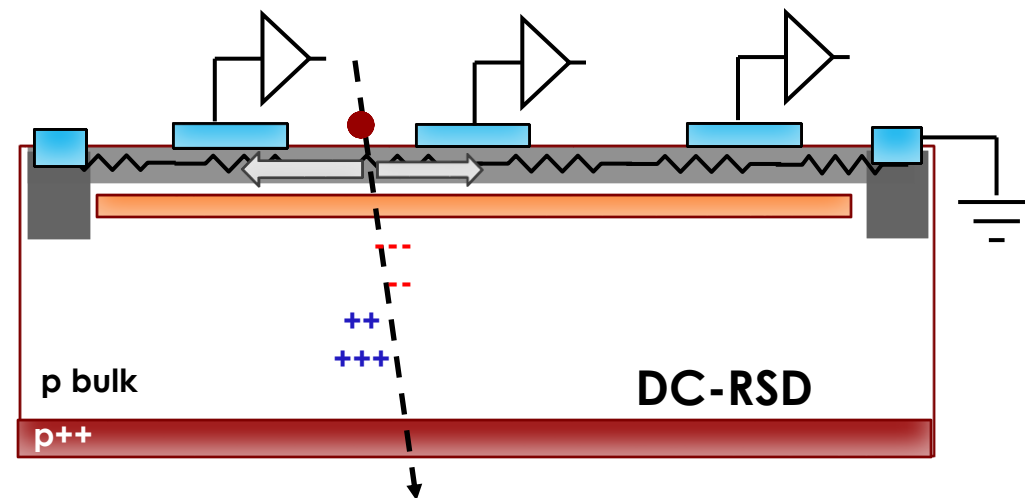
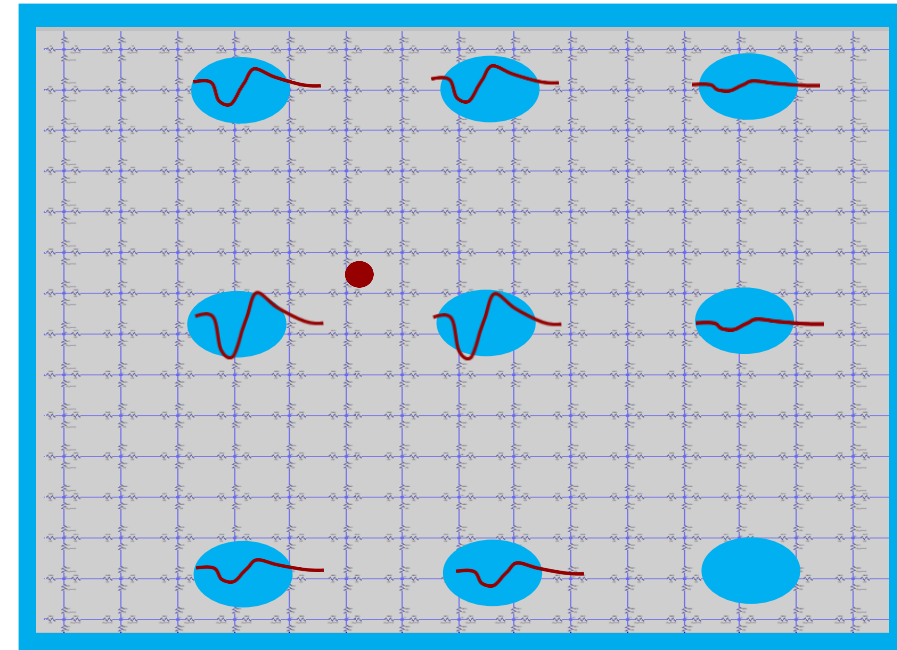
Top view

## Problem:

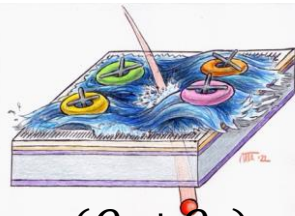
we have been too successful in charge sharing.

In our measurements, the signal is shared on too many electrodes.

**If the signal is shared on too many electrodes, the signal-to-noise ratio is degraded**



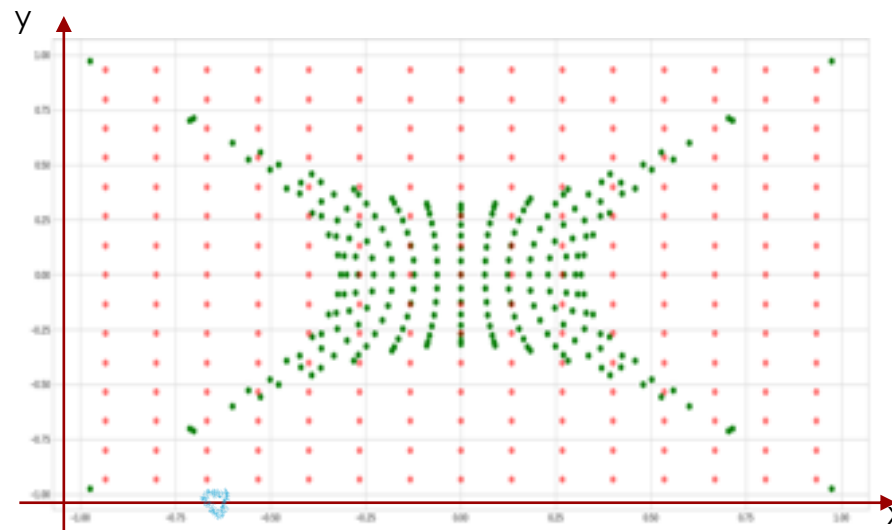
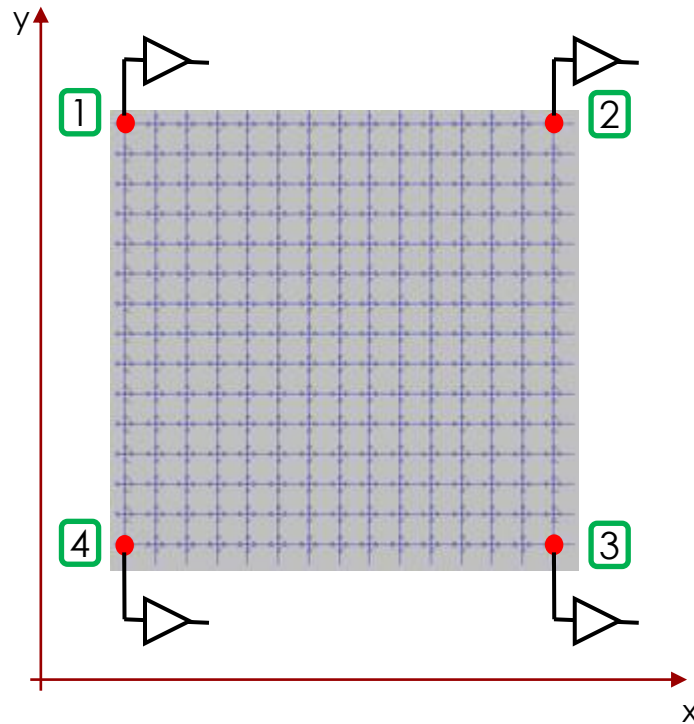
# Position Reconstruction: DC-RSD



Position distortion is typical of resistive devices and well documented in the literature.

$$x_i = x_{center} + k_x \frac{pitch}{2} * \frac{Q_3 + Q_4 - (Q_1 + Q_2)}{Q_{tot}}$$

$$y_i = y_{center} + k_y \frac{pitch}{2} * \frac{Q_1 + Q_3 - (Q_2 + Q_4)}{Q_{tot}}$$

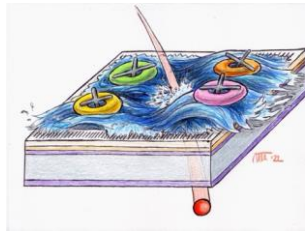


Red  
original points

Green  
reconstructed points

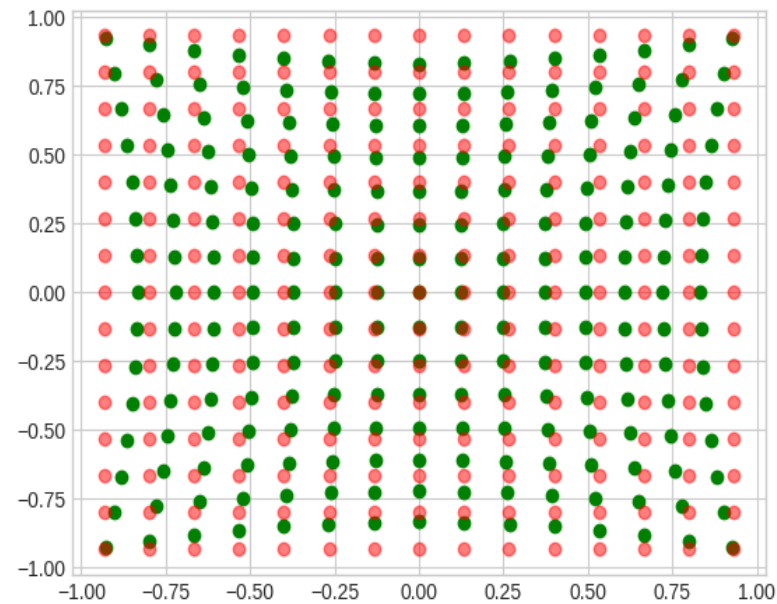
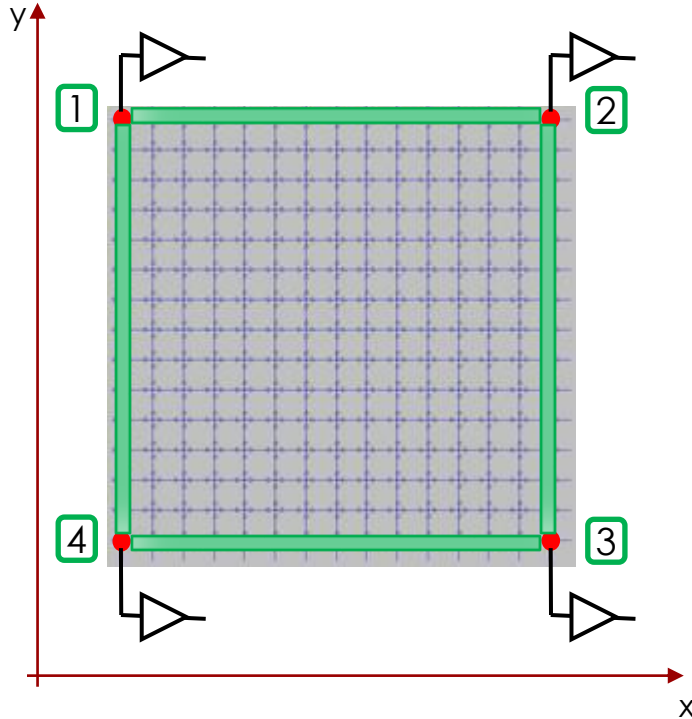
**This is an extreme case, chosen to illustrate the problem**

# Position Reconstruction: DC-RSD with resistive strip



$$x_i = x_{center} + k_x \frac{pitch}{2} * \frac{Q_3 + Q_4 - (Q_1 + Q_2)}{Q_{tot}}$$

$$y_i = y_{center} + k_y \frac{pitch}{2} * \frac{Q_1 + Q_3 - (Q_2 + Q_4)}{Q_{tot}}$$



Red  
original points

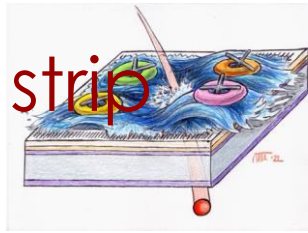
Green  
reconstructed  
points

The distortion in the reconstruction can be strongly reduced by adding resistive strips connecting the electrodes.

**Proposed in:** *On the dynamic two-dimensional charge diffusion of the interpolating readout structure employed in the MicroCAT detector*, Wagner et al., NIM A, (2002). 6<sup>th</sup> Vienna Conference on Instrumentation

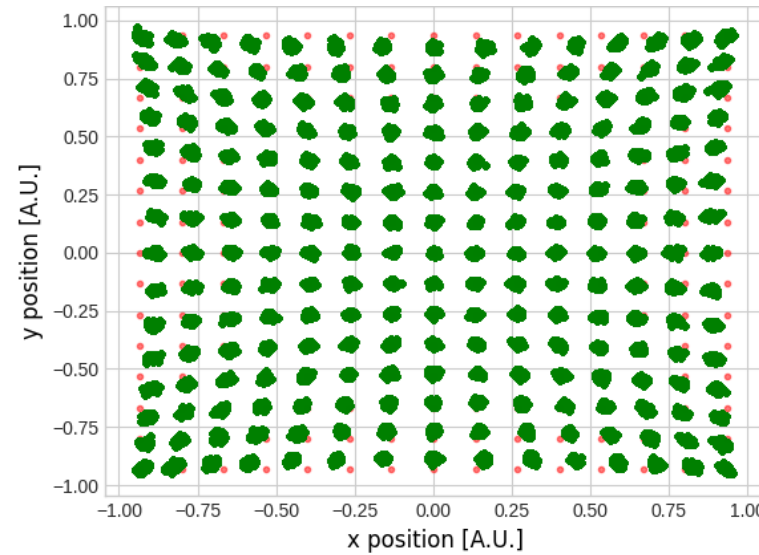
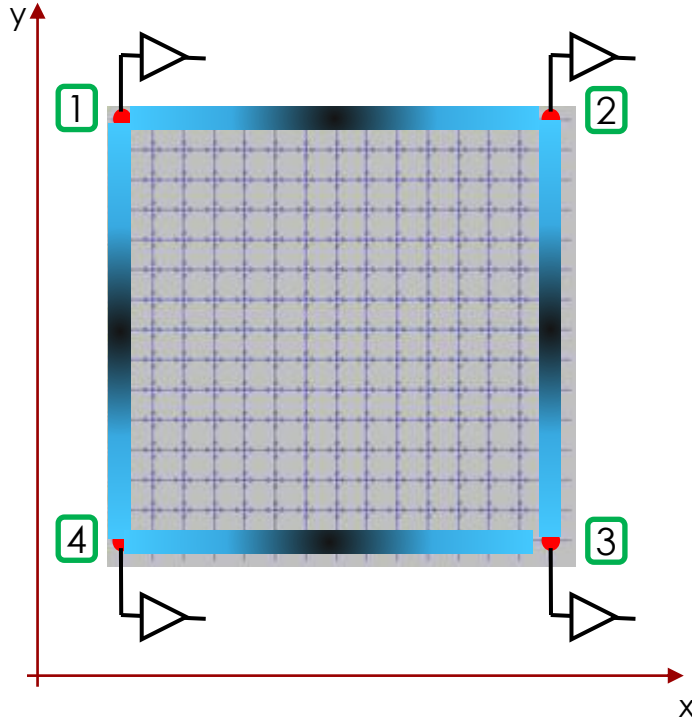


# Position Reconstruction: DC-RSD with variable resistive strip



$$x_i = x_{center} + k_x \frac{pitch}{2} * \frac{Q_3 + Q_4 - (Q_1 + Q_2)}{Q_{tot}}$$

$$y_i = y_{center} + k_y \frac{pitch}{2} * \frac{Q_1 + Q_3 - (Q_2 + Q_4)}{Q_{tot}}$$

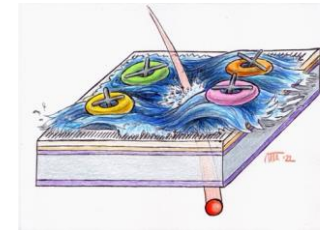


Red  
original points

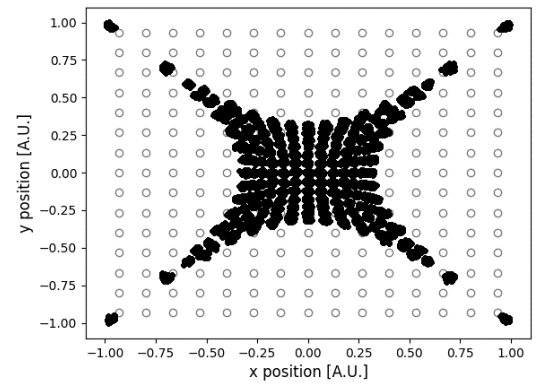
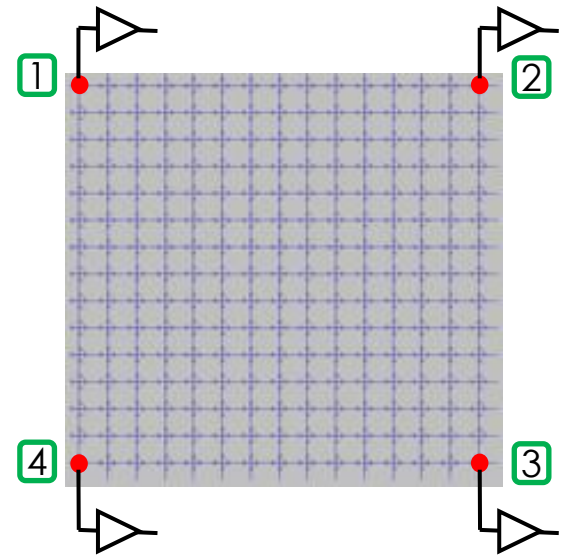
Green  
reconstructed  
points

Variable resistive strips have the potential to almost totally eliminate the distortion in the position reconstruction

# DC-RSD research paths

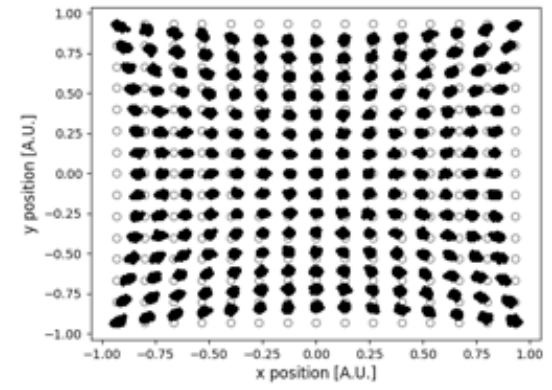
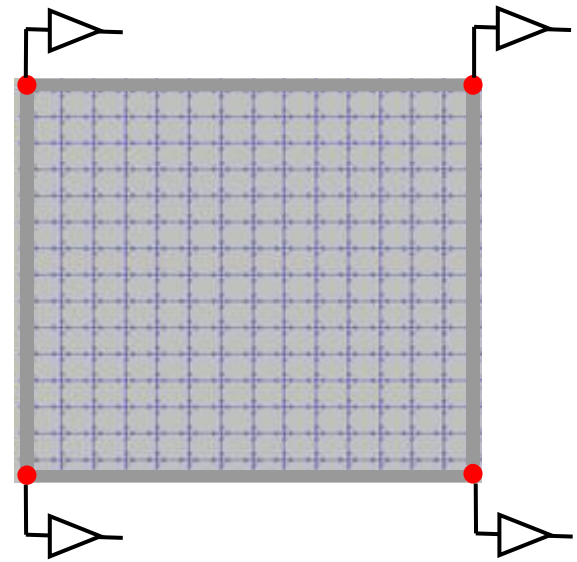


DC-RSD



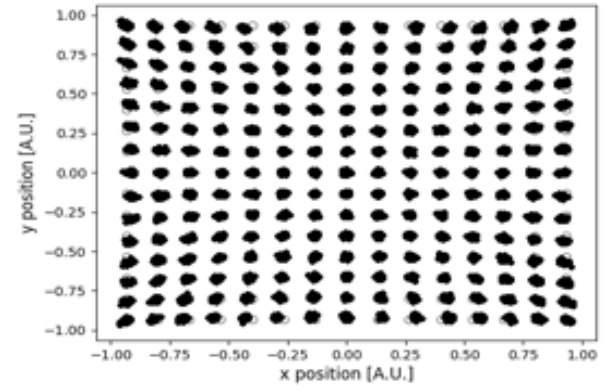
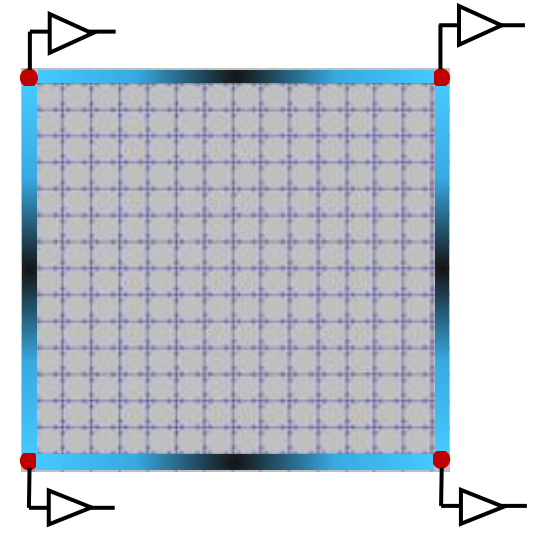
DC-RSD

with resistive strips



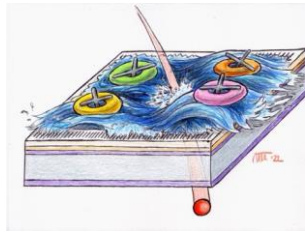
DC-RSD

with variable resistive strips



**Empty circles:** original points  
**Filled Circles:** reconstructed points

# Spatial resolution in resistive readout



$$\sigma_x^2 = \sigma_{Jitter}^2 + \sigma_{Sensor}^2 + \sigma_{Reconstruction}^2$$

$$\sigma_{Jitter} = \frac{\sigma_{El\_noise}}{\frac{dV}{dx}}$$

## Electronic noise

Assume a geometry with only 2 pads:

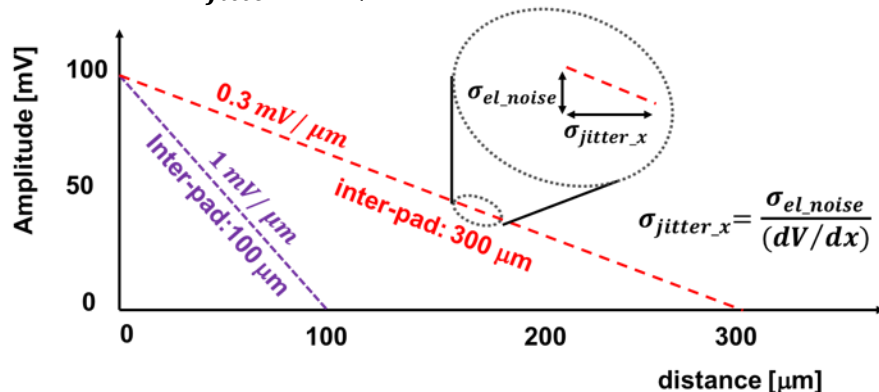
- 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 300  $\mu\text{m}$  apart
- 100mV signal
- 3 mV electronic noise

**100  $\mu\text{m}$ :** the signal changes by 1 mV/  $\mu\text{m}$

$$\rightarrow \sigma_{Jitter} = 3 \mu\text{m}$$

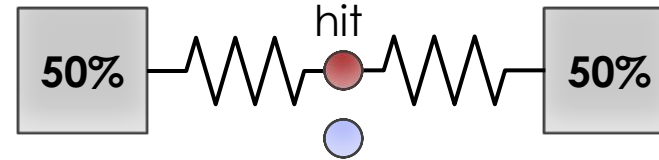
**300  $\mu\text{m}$ :** the signal changes by 0.3 mV/  $\mu\text{m}$

$$\rightarrow \sigma_{Jitter} = 9 \mu\text{m}$$

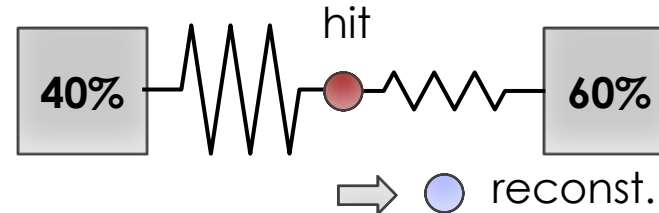


$\sigma_{Sensor}$

## Sensor non-uniformity



For equal resistivity, 50%-50% sharing indicates the hit is in the middle



If the resistivity is not uniform, the reconstruction shifts the point closer to the smaller resistivity

$\sigma_{Reconstruction}$

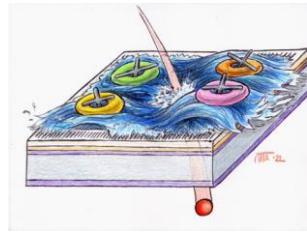
## Algorithm

$$S_i(\alpha_i, r_i) = \frac{\frac{\alpha_i}{\ln(r_i)}}{\sum_1^n \frac{\alpha_j}{\ln(r_j)}}$$

If the predicted sharing is incorrect, the reconstructed position is shifted.

**DPC:** RSD might not be a perfect DPC, yielding to systematic errors.

# Spatial resolution: the role of jitter

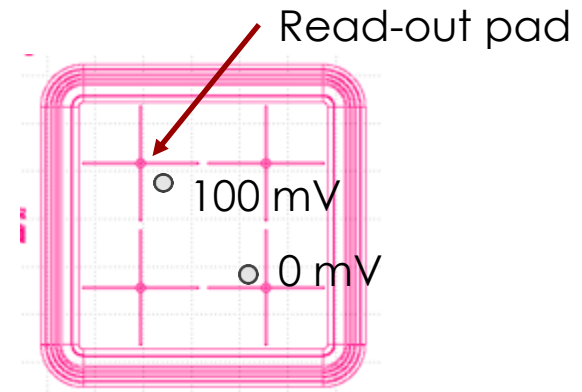


The main component of the position resolution is the position jitter, defined as:

$$\sigma_{jitter} = \frac{\sigma_{el\_noise}}{\frac{dA}{dx}}$$

Imagine a system with a single read-out pad where a hit generates:

- A signal of 100 mV when shot near a pad
- A signal of 0 mV when shot at the opposite corner
- Noise  $\sim 1$  mV (as in our lab)

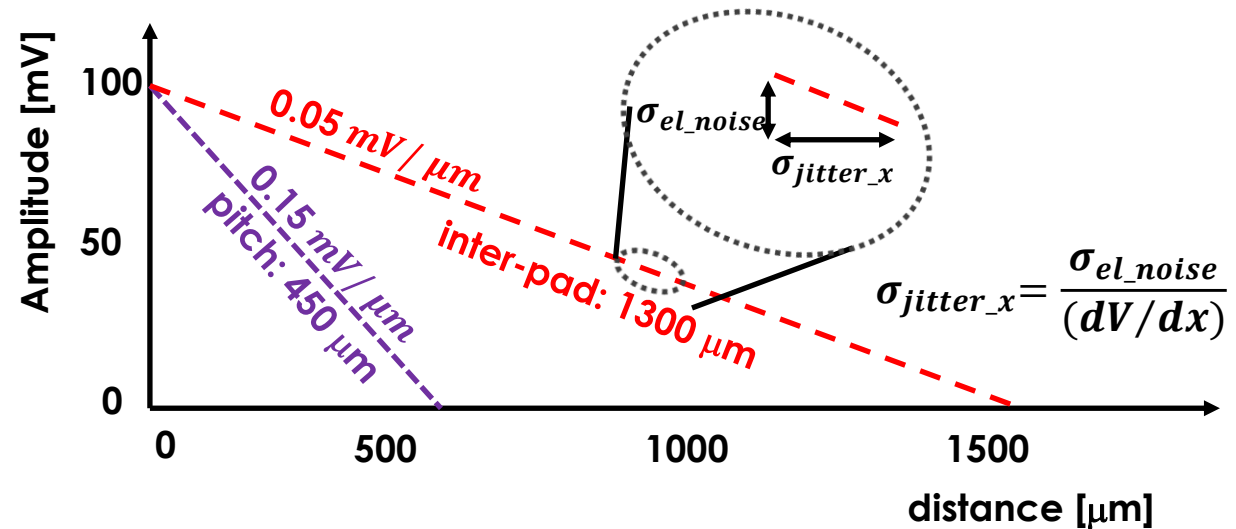


In this simplified system, the signal decreases by:

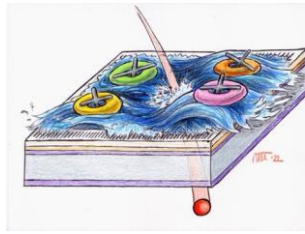
- Pitch 1300  $\mu\text{m}$ : 0.05 mV/ $\mu\text{m}$
- Pitch 450  $\mu\text{m}$ : 0.15 mV/ $\mu\text{m}$

So, the jitter is:

- Pitch 1300  $\mu\text{m}$ :  $1 \text{ mV} / (0.05 \text{ mV}/\mu\text{m}) = 20 \mu\text{m}$
- Pitch 450  $\mu\text{m}$ :  $2 \text{ mV} / (0.15 \text{ mV}/\mu\text{m}) = 7 \mu\text{m}$



# Irradiation effects



## Irradiation causes 3 main effects:

- Decrease of charge collection efficiency due to trapping
- Doping creation/removal
- Increased leakage current, shot noise

The main effect in LGAD is “acceptor removal”, i.e., the reduction of the gain implant doping

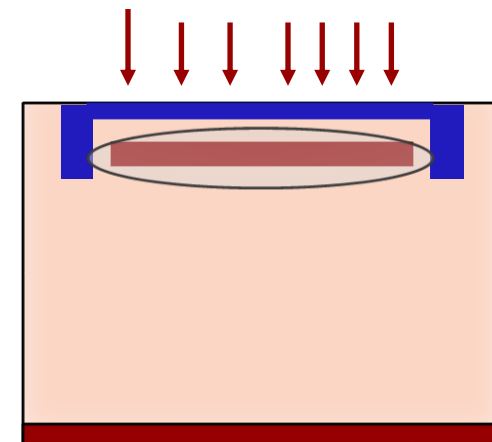
The electric field due to the gain implant decreases → Compensated with higher bias

**Main technique to decrease acceptor removal:** carbon implantation in the gain layer

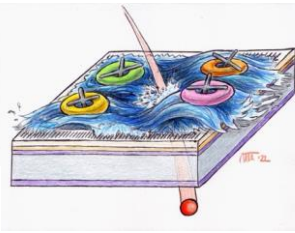
Carbon spoils the properties of silicon sensors.

However, **in the right amount and only on the gain implant, it increases the sensor rad. resistance by a factor of 3**

## carbon implantation

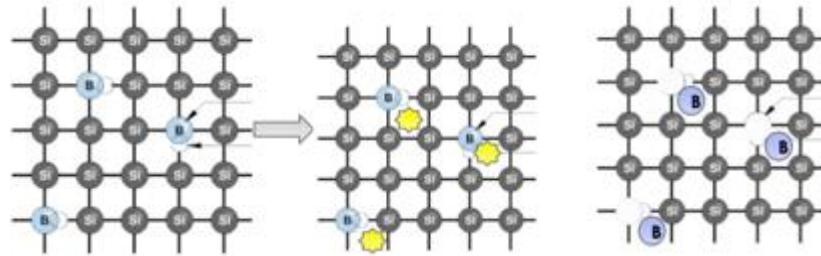
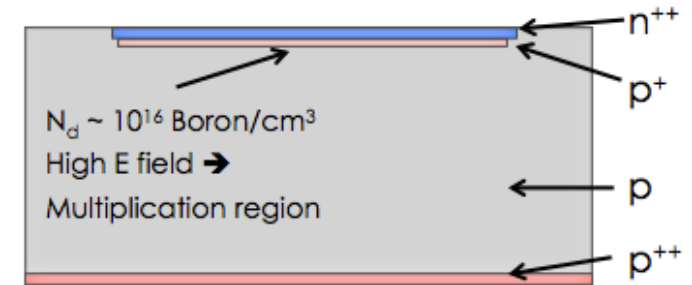


# Acceptor removal



**Unfortunate fact:** irradiation de-activate p-doping removing Boron from the reticle

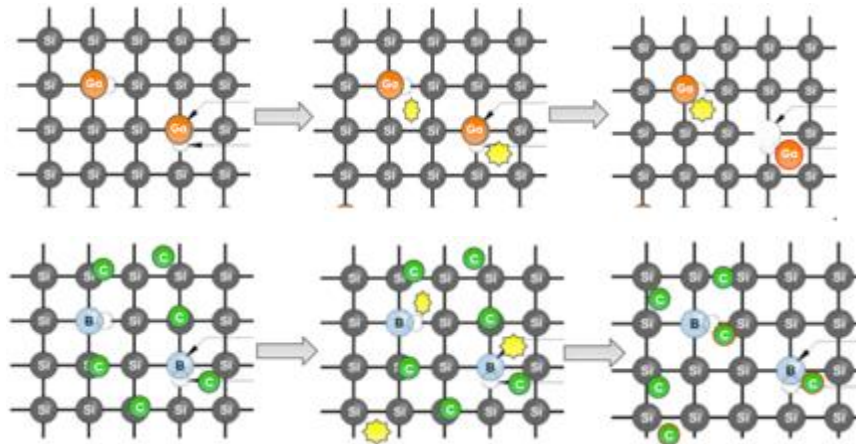
$$N(\emptyset) = N(0) * e^{-c\emptyset}$$



## Boron

Radiation creates Si interstitial that inactivate the Boron:  
 $Si_i + B_s \rightarrow Si_s + B_i$

Two possible solutions: 1) use Gallium, 2) Add Carbon



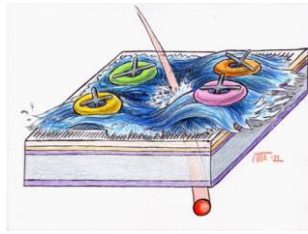
## Gallium is substitutional

From literature, Gallium has a lower possibility to become interstitial

## Carbon is substitutional

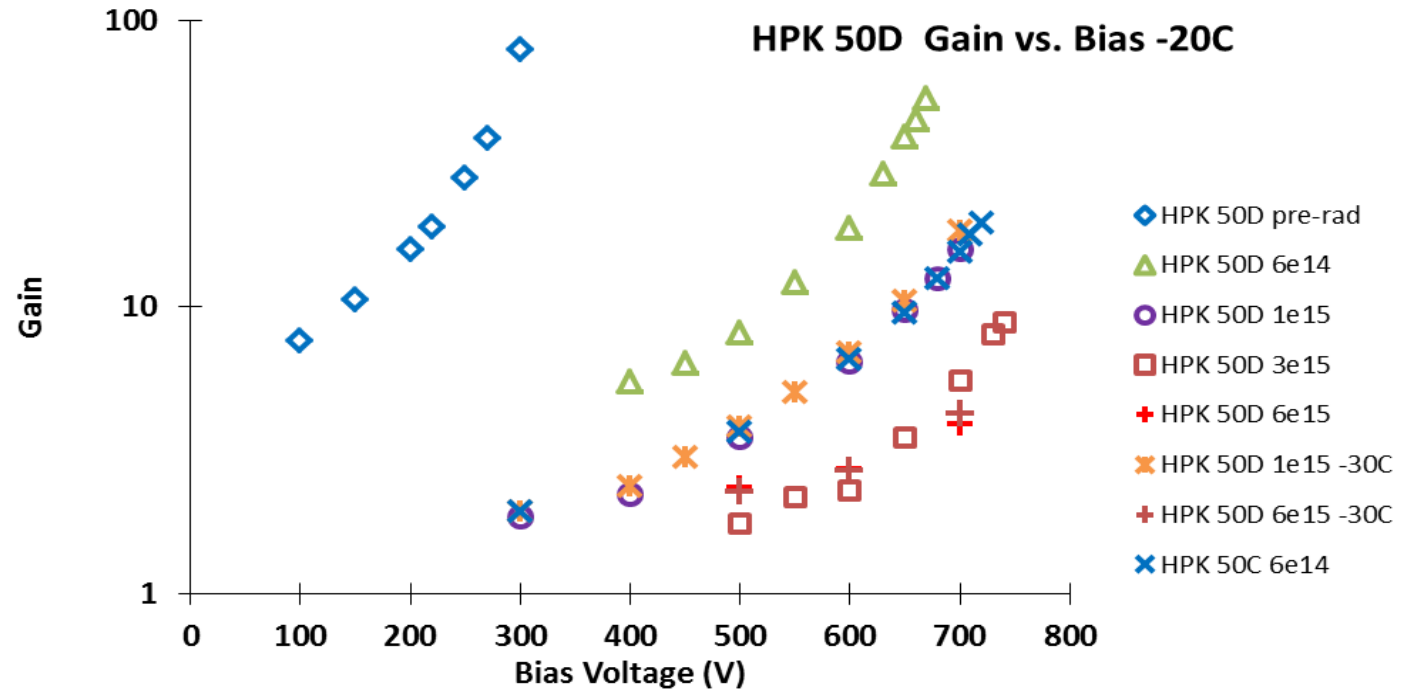
Interstitial Si interact with Carbon instead of with Boron and Gallium

# Effect of acceptor removal



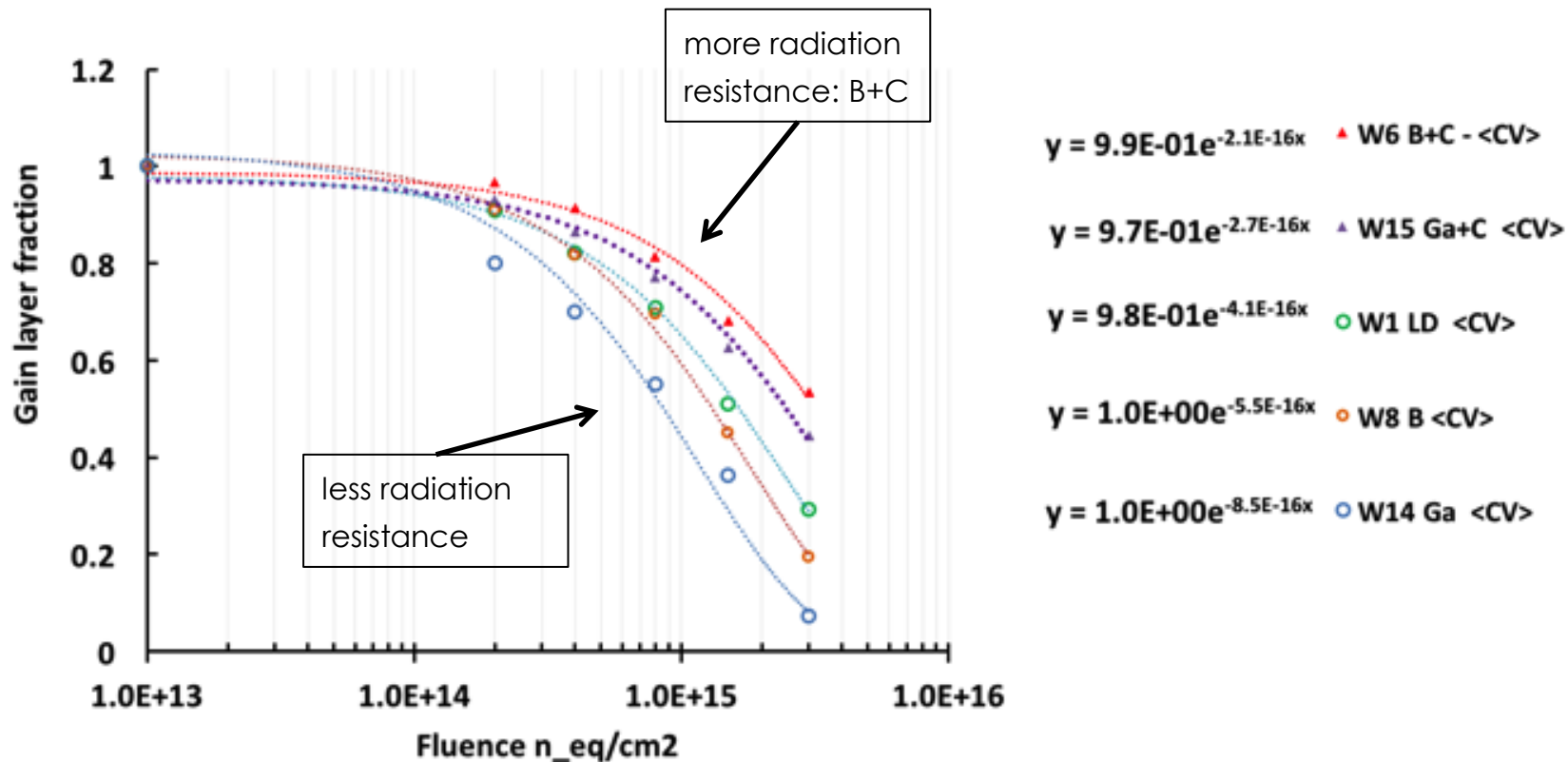
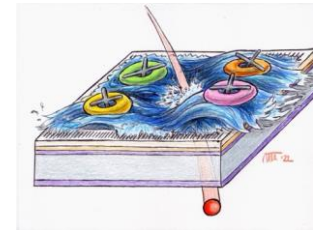
$$N_D = N_0 e^{-cf} + bf$$

Acceptor removal,  
Gain layer deactivation



To some extent, the gain layer disappearance might be compensated by increasing the bias voltage

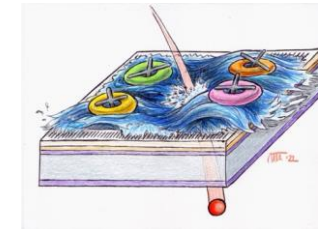
# Impurity engineering of radiation resistance



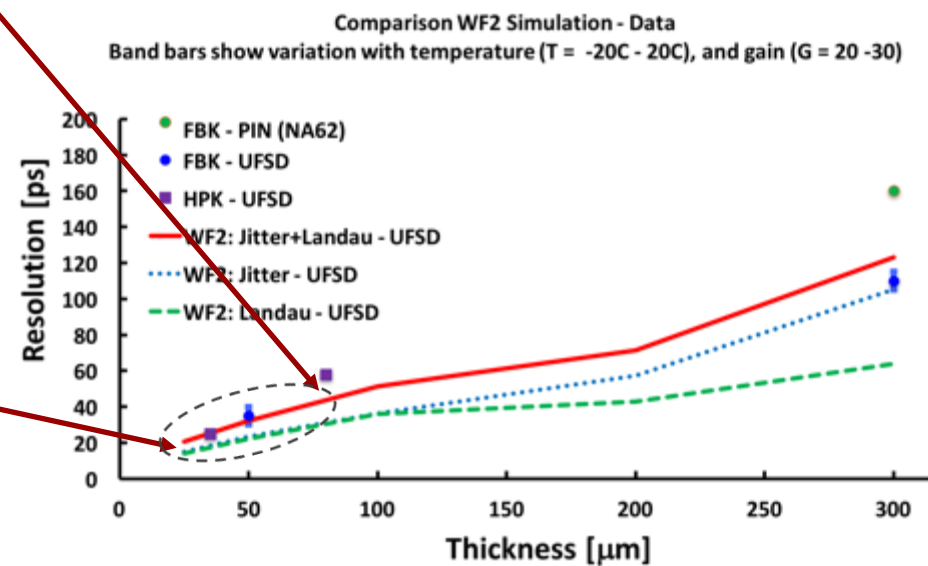
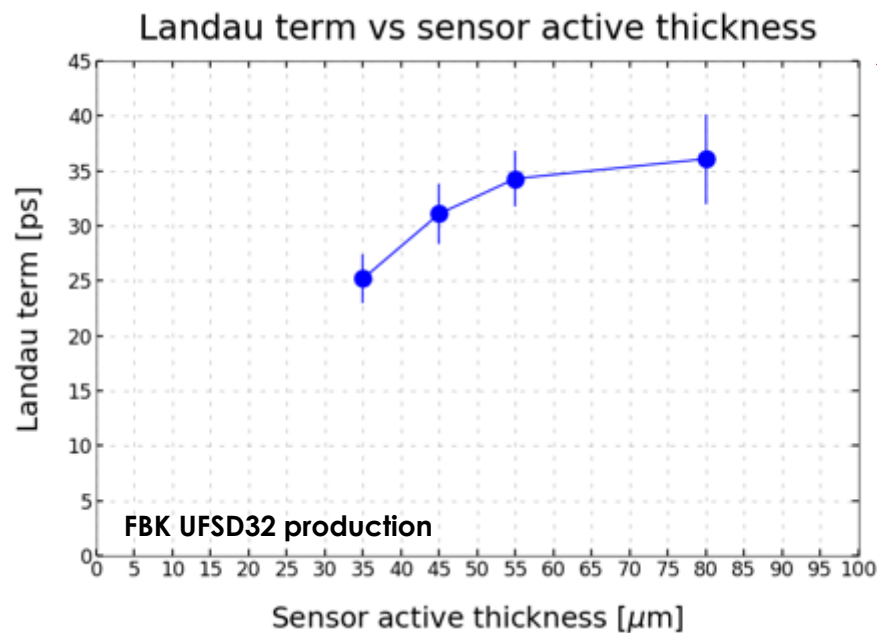
- 1) Carbon addition works really well, increasing by a factor of 2-3 the radiation hardness
- 2) Gallium is actually is not more rad-hard than Boron



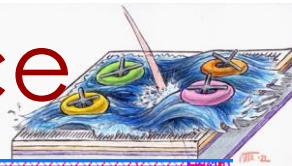
# UFSD temporal resolution in thinner sensors



UFSD temporal resolution improves in thinner sensors:  
=> reasonable to expect 10-20 ps for 10-20  $\mu\text{m}$  thick sensors.  
**Be aware: very difficult to do timing with small signals... power consumption increases**



# Position reconstruction using charge imbalance



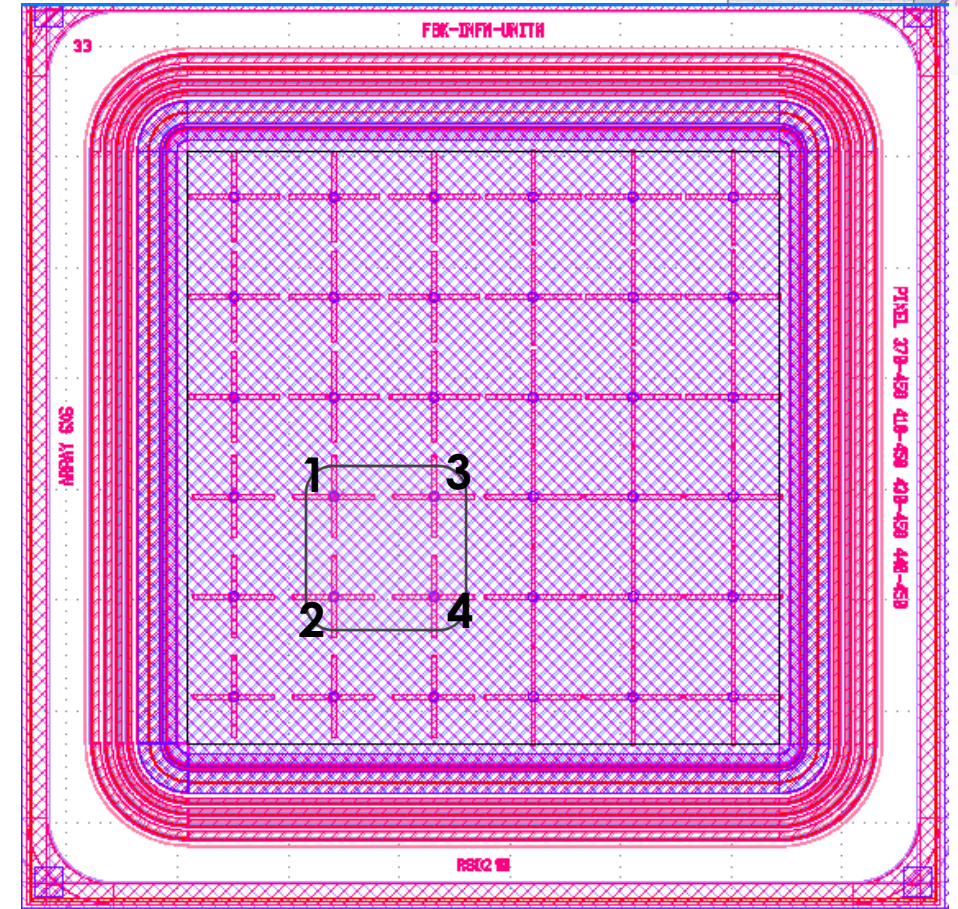
The position is reconstructed using the charge imbalance among the electrodes positioned at the 4 corners

$$x_i = x_{center} + k_x \frac{pitch}{2} * \frac{Q_3 + Q_4 - (Q_1 + Q_2)}{Q_{tot}}$$

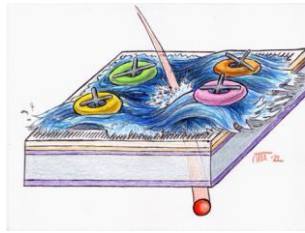
$$y_i = y_{center} + k_y \frac{pitch}{2} * \frac{Q_1 + Q_3 - (Q_2 + Q_4)}{Q_{tot}}$$

$$k_x = \frac{Q_{tot}}{Q_3 + Q_4 - (Q_1 + Q_2)} \Big|_{x@edge}$$

$$k_y = \frac{Q_{tot}}{Q_1 + Q_3 - (Q_2 + Q_4)} \Big|_{y@edge}$$



# RSD2 spatial resolution



RSDs at gain = 30 achieve a spatial resolution of about 2-3% of the pitch size:

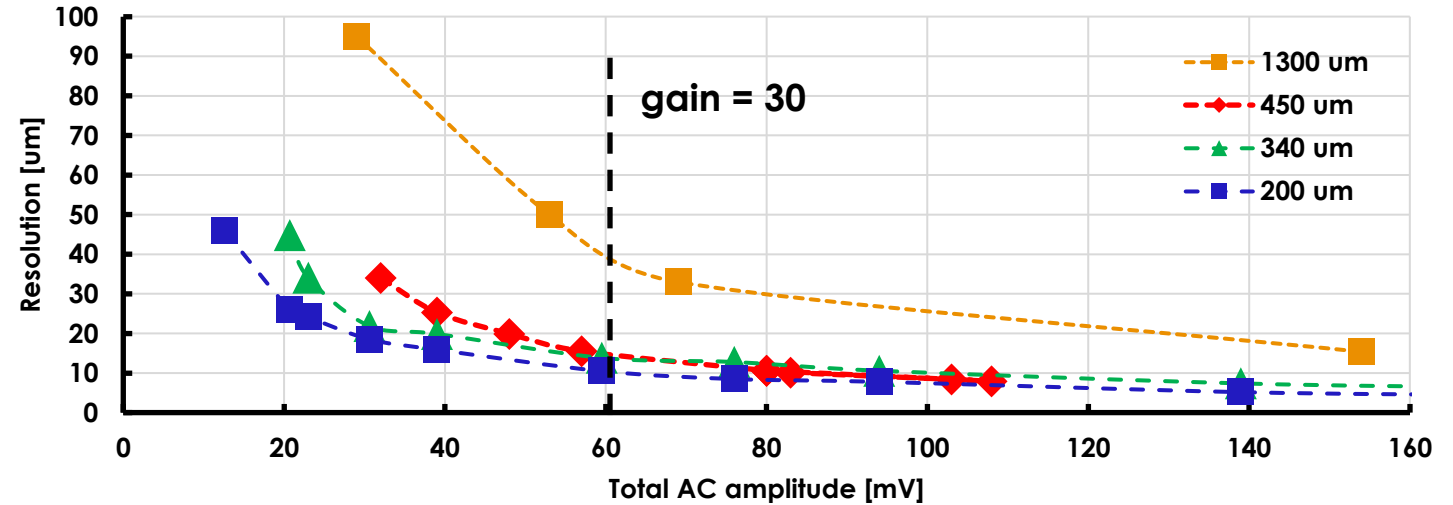
## RSD:

- 1300 x 1300 mm<sup>2</sup>:  $\sigma_x \sim 40 \mu\text{m}$
- 450 x 450 mm<sup>2</sup>:  $\sigma_x \sim 15 \mu\text{m}$

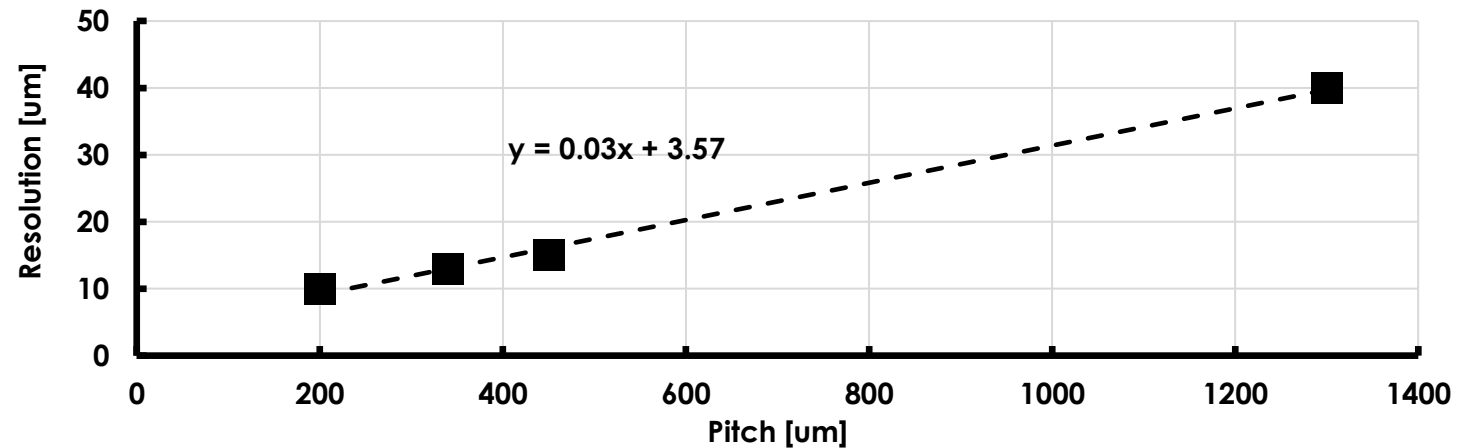
## Traditional standard pixel

- 1300 x 1300 mm<sup>2</sup>:  $\sigma_x \sim 920 \mu\text{m}$
- 450 x 450 mm<sup>2</sup>:  $\sigma_x \sim 320 \mu\text{m}$

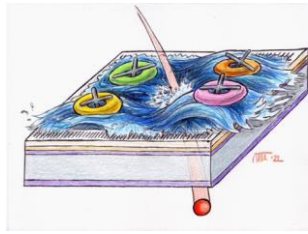
RSD2 crosses: spatial resolution for 4 different pitch sizes



RSD2 crosses: spatial resolution when the total AC amplitude = 60 mV

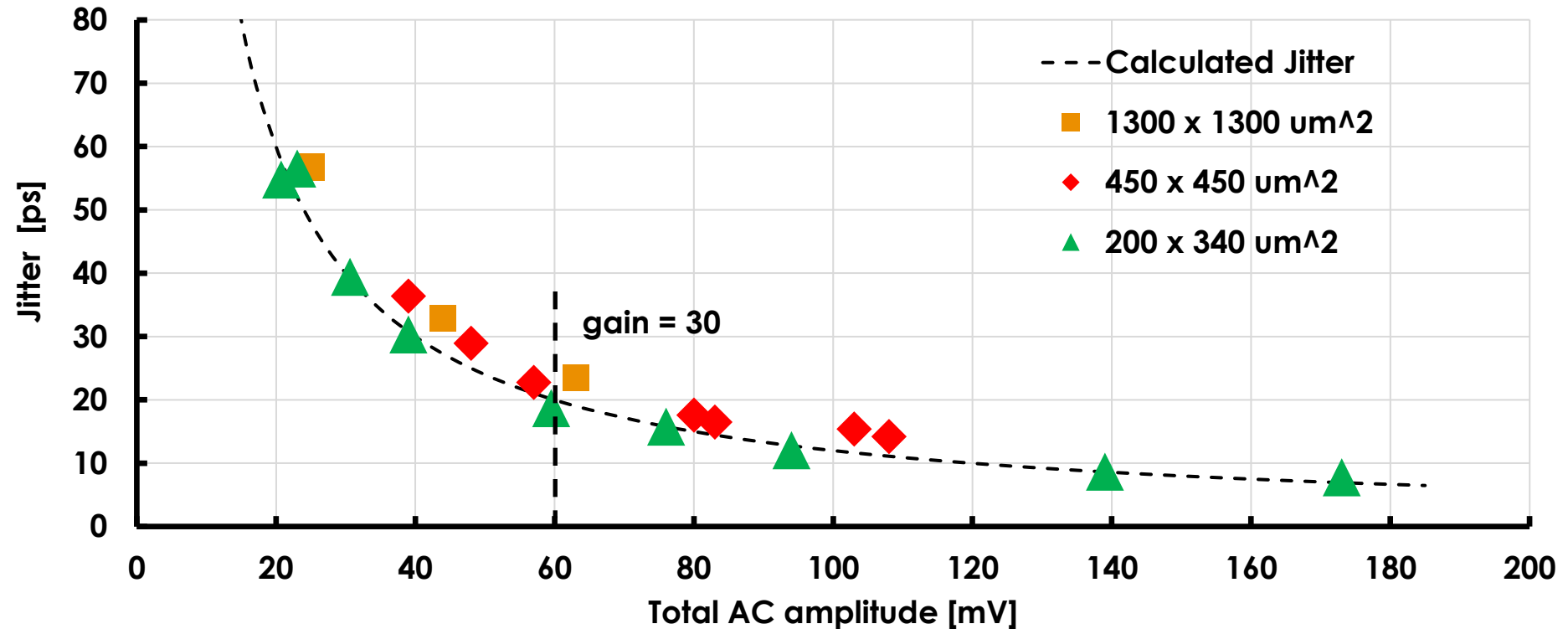


# RSD2 temporal resolution



The **resolution** depends mostly upon the signal size and **weakly on the pixel size**  
RSDs at gain = 30 achieve a temporal jitter of about 20 ps

RSD2 Crosses: time jitter for 3 different pixel sizes



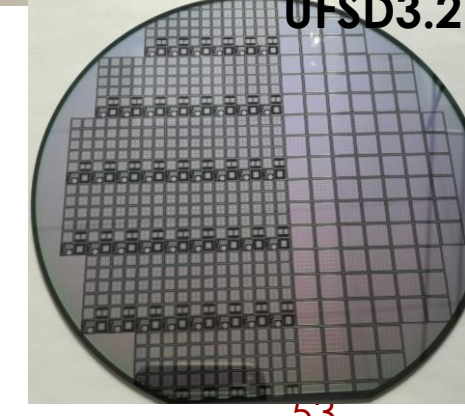
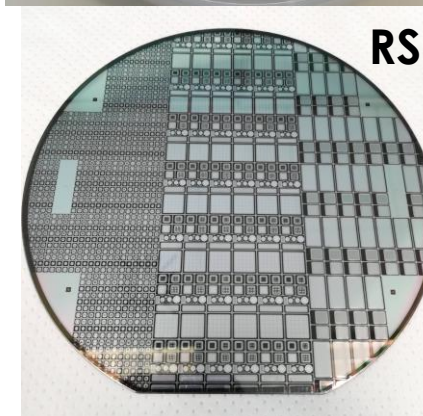
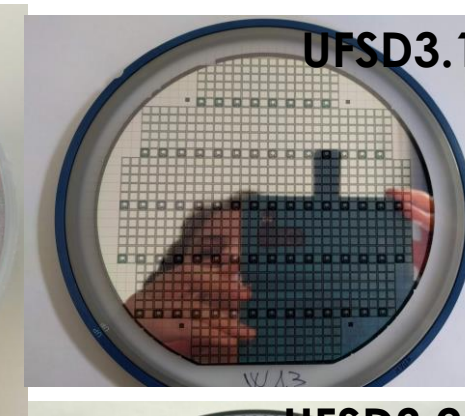
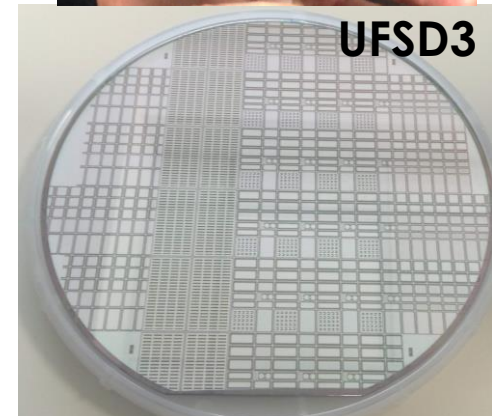
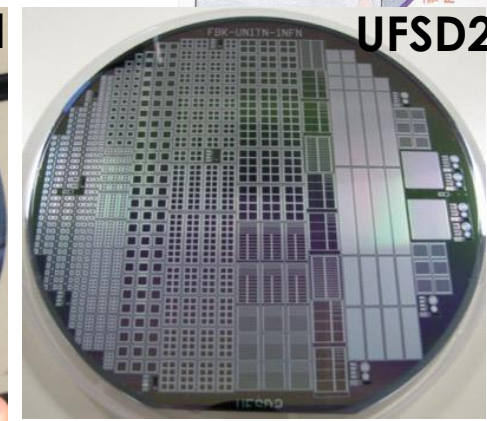
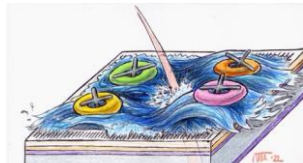
# The UFSD project: brief history

**Aim: develop sensors with excellent temporal and spatial resolutions  
via a series of productions and design refinements**

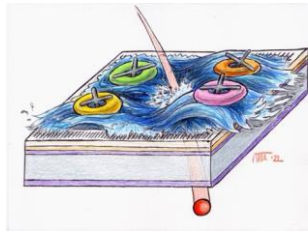
**Long term R&D, Not for a specific experiments**

1. **2016:** UFSD1 First 300  $\mu\text{m}$  thick LGAD (FBK 6" wafer )
2. **2017:** UFSD2 First 50  $\mu\text{m}$  thick LGAD (FBK 6" wafer )  
Gain layer doping: Boron, Gallium, Boron + Carbon,
3. **Fall 2018:** UFSD3 50  $\mu\text{m}$  LGAD (FBK 6" wafer), produced with the stepper (many Carbon levels, studies of interpad design)
4. **June 2019:** UFSD3.1 50  $\mu\text{m}$  LGAD (internal FBK) interpad design.
5. **June 2019** RSD1 Resistive AC-LGAD (FBK 6" wafer)
6. **June 2020:** UFSD3.2 25, 35, 45, and 55  $\mu\text{m}$  LGAD, carbon studies, deep, shallow gain implant (FBK 6" wafer)
7. **Q1/2021:** UFSD3.3 (FBK 6" wafer)
8. **Q1/2021:** Trench-Isolated (FBK 6" wafer)
9. **Q2/2021:** RSD2 (FBK 6" wafer)
10. **Q2/2021:** ExFlux -> optimized for extreme fluence

**Project fully funded for 3 more years**



# Charge screening – Gain reduction



The **External Efield** in the gain layer is due to **Bias+Doping**

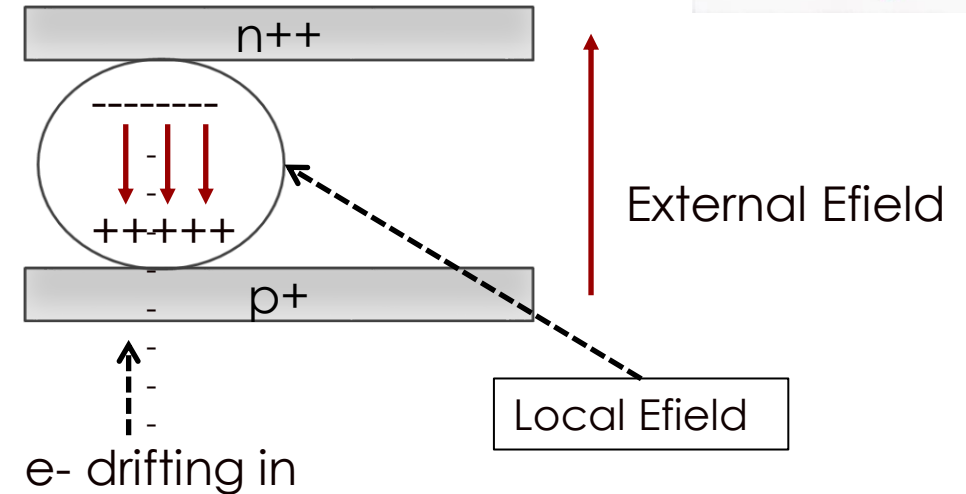
When there are charges in the gain layer, on average, the electrons are on one side while the holes are on the opposite side.

**This imbalance creates a local Efield that is opposite to the external Efield.**

**In WF2:**

Assume charges in the gain layer form a parallel plate capacitor

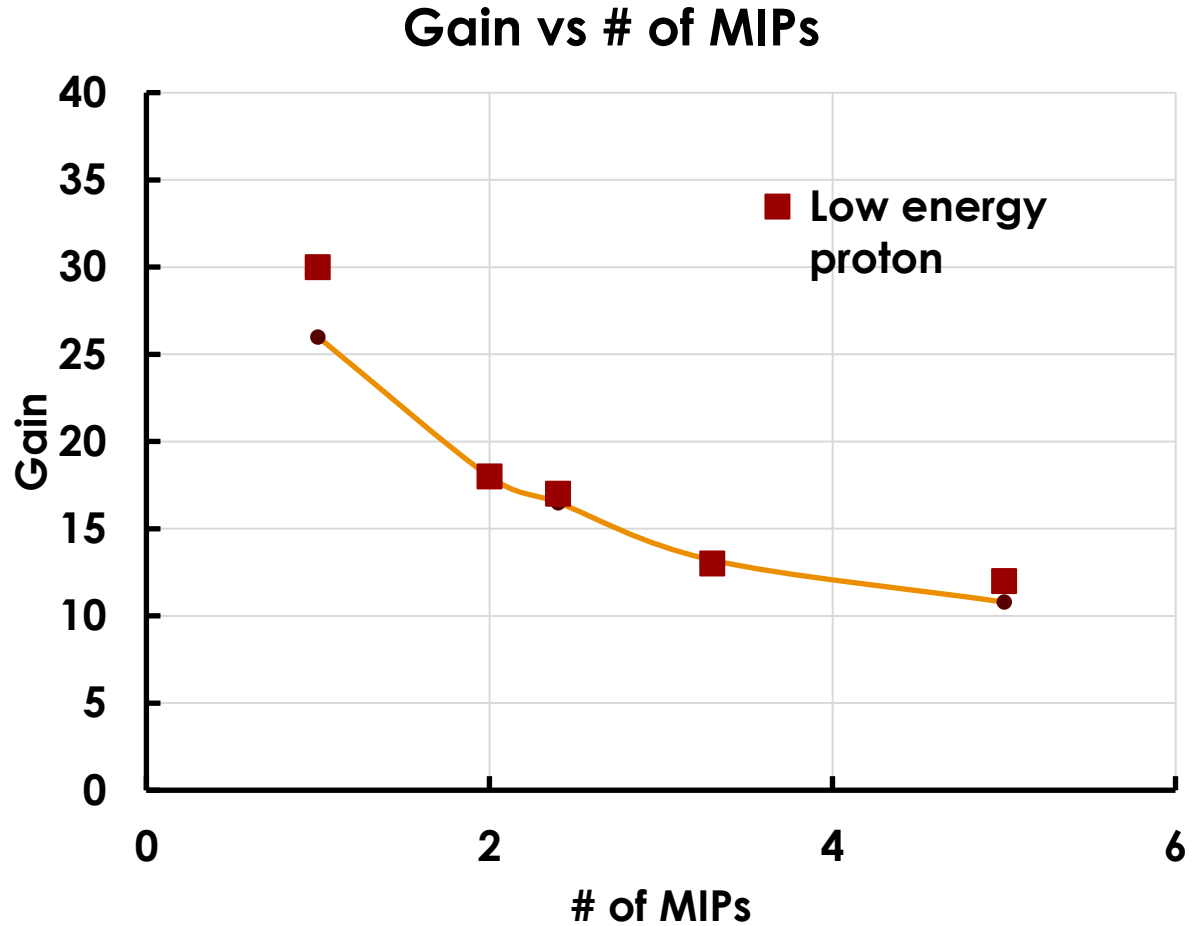
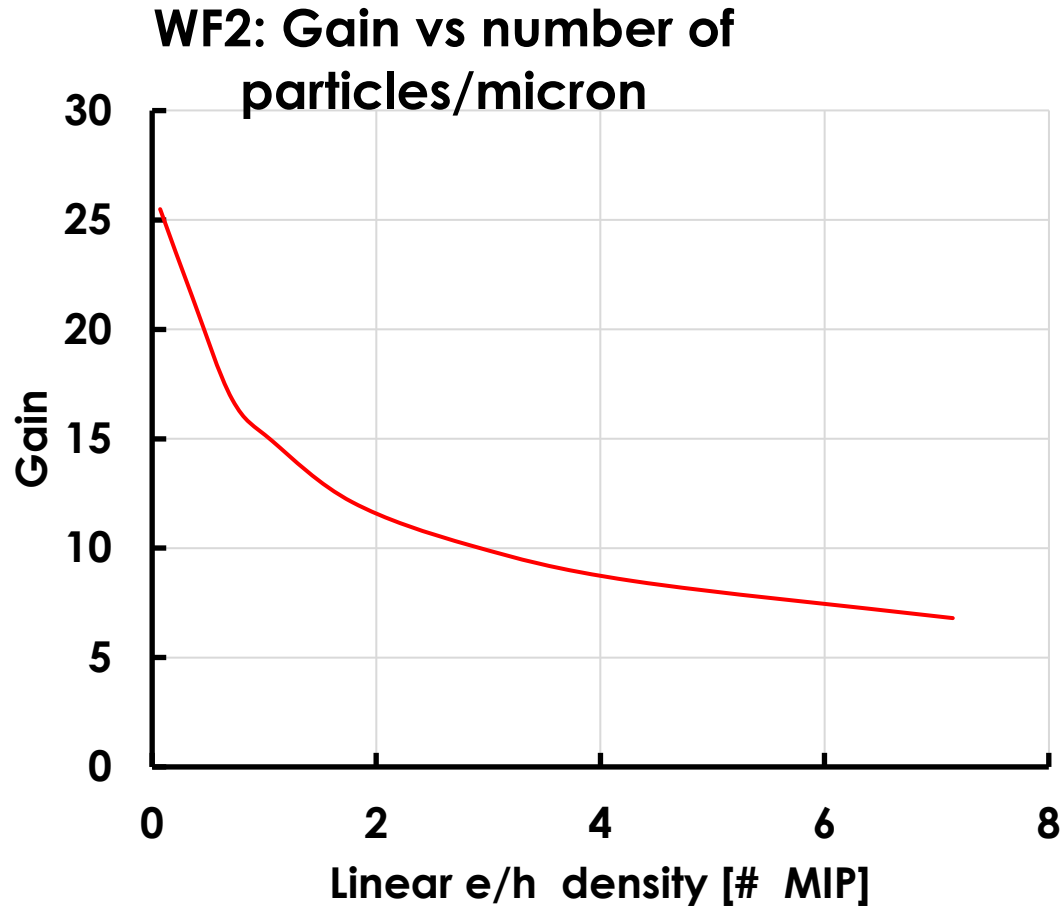
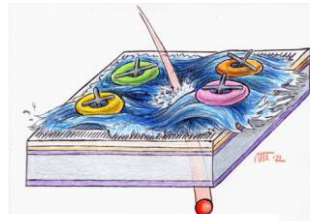
- Count the charges in the gain layer
- Compute the local field ==> To do this; you need to assume the area of the capacitor
  - I assumed an area  $1 \times 1 \text{ } \mu\text{m}^2$
- Subtract the local field from the external field



$$\sigma = \frac{Q}{A}$$

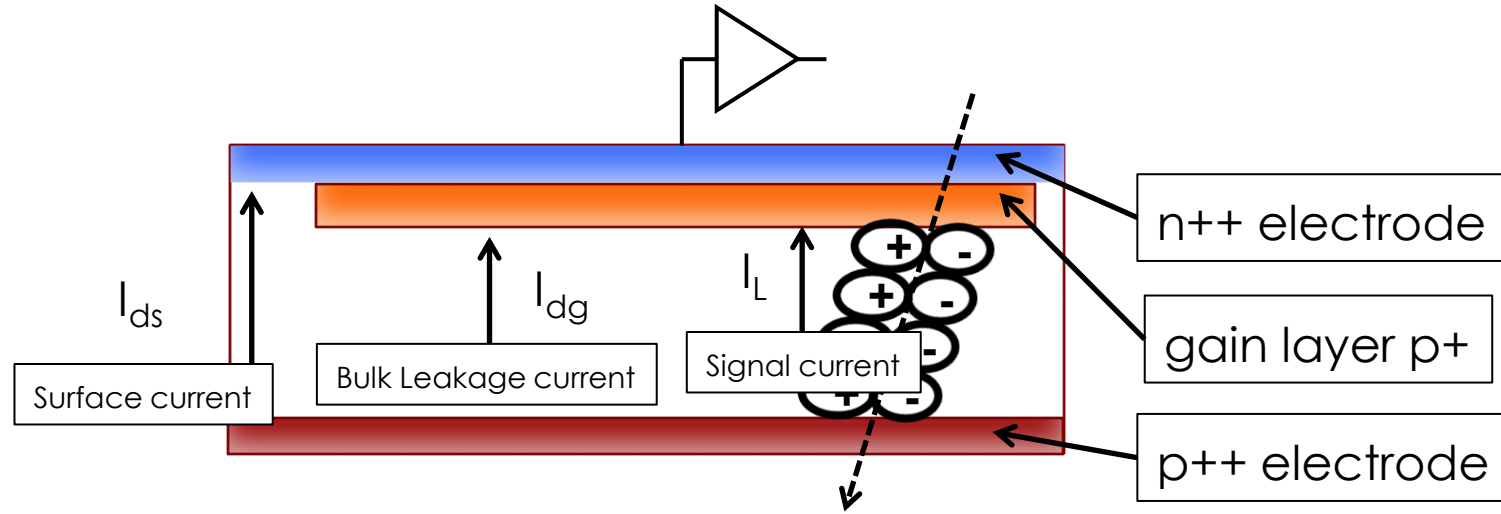
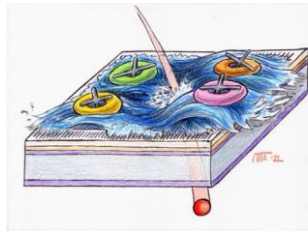
$$E_{local} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$$

# Charge screening – Gain reduction



**MIP = ~ 70 e/h pairs per micron**

# Why low gain? Shot noise in LGAD - APD



$$i_{Shot}^2 = 2eI_{Det} = 2e \left( \frac{e}{e} I_{Surface} + (I_{Bulk} + I_{Signal}) M^2 F \right)$$

$$F = Mk + \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{M} (1 - k)$$

$$F \sim M^x$$

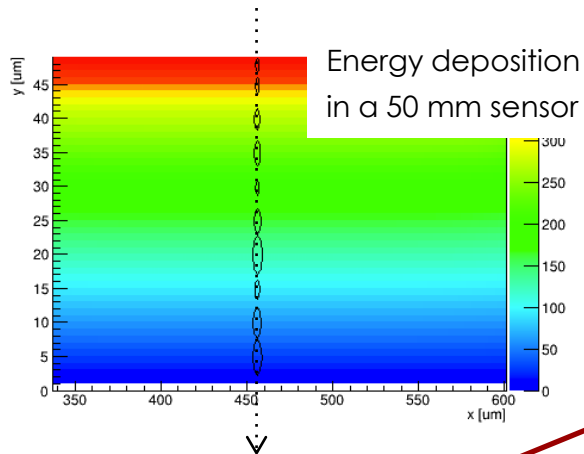
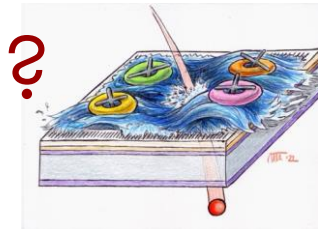
$k = e/h$  ionization rate  
 $x =$  excess noise index  
 $M =$  gain

Correction factor to the standard Shot noise, due to the noise of the multiplication mechanism

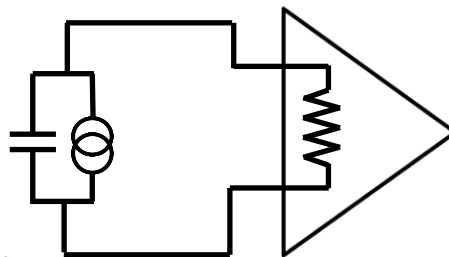
$$F = \frac{\langle M^2 \rangle}{\langle M \rangle^2} \quad \text{D} \quad \langle M^2 \rangle = \langle M \rangle^2 F$$



# Electronics: What is the best pre-amp choice?

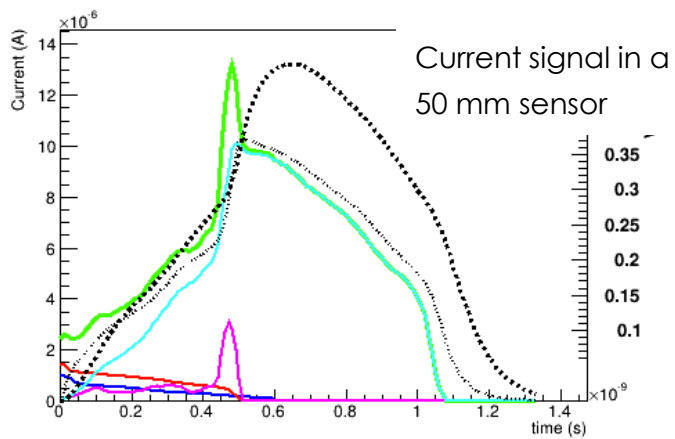
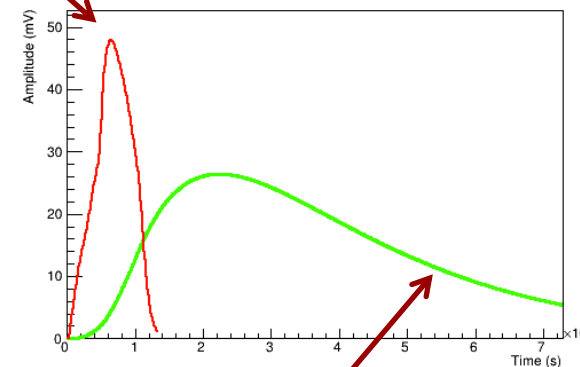


## Current Amplifier

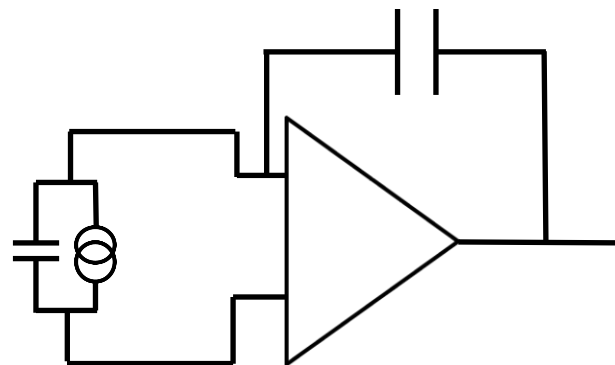


- Fast slew rate
- Higher noise
- Sensitive to Landau bumps

CSA (green) and Current Amplifier (red)

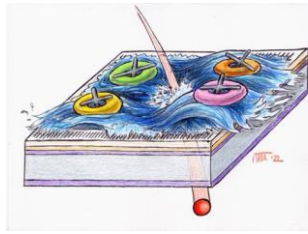


## Charge Sensitive Amplifier



- Slower slew rate
- Quieter
- Integration helps the signal smoothing

# The players: signal, noise and slope

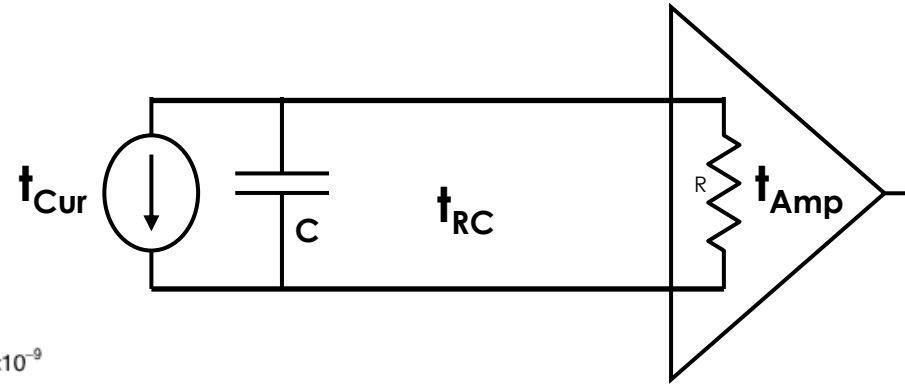
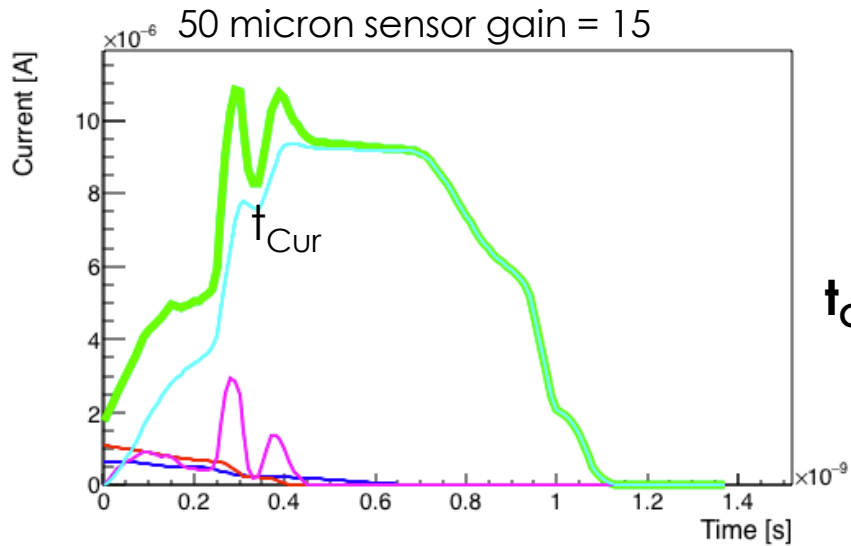


Signal  $dV/dt$

Landau Noise

Shot Noise

Electronic Noise



Electrons Gain El. Holes Gain Holes Total

The current rise time ( $t_{Cur}$ )

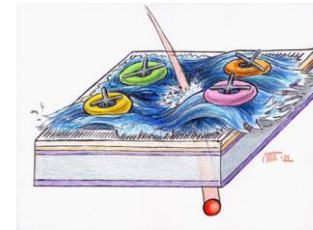
The RC circuit ( $t_{RC}$ )

Amplifier rise time ( $t_{Amp}$ )

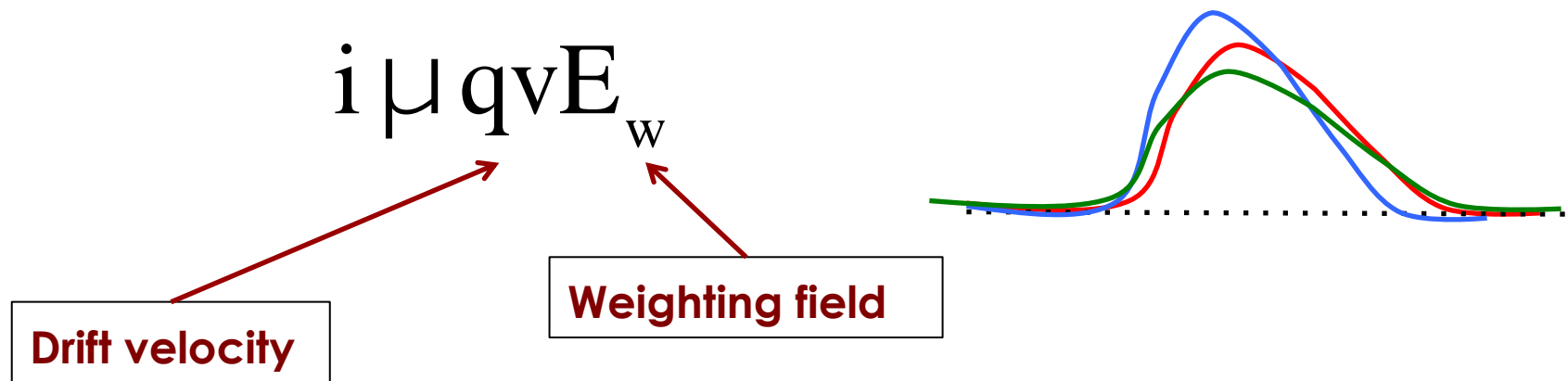
There are 3 quantities determining the rise time after the amplifier:

1. The signal rise time ( $t_{Cur}$ )
2. The RC circuit formed by the detector capacitance and the amplifier input impedance ( $t_{RC}$ )
3. The amplifier rise time ( $t_{Amp}$ )

# How to make a **good** signal



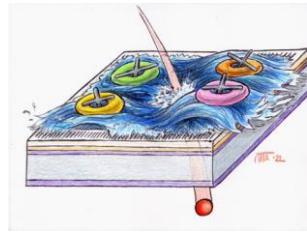
Signal shape is determined by Ramo's Theorem:



A key to good timing is the uniformity of signals:

**Drift velocity** and **Weighting field** need to be **as uniform as possible**

# Good signals for Timing



Velocity:

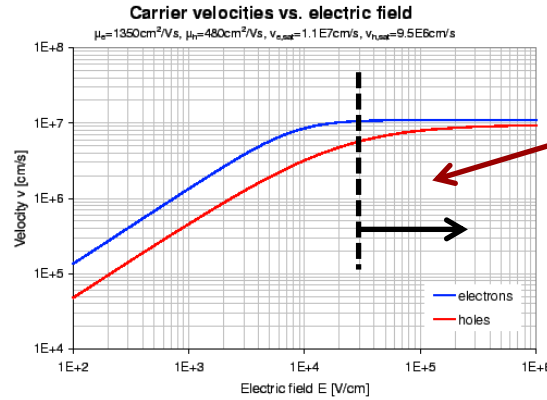
$$i \mu q v E_w$$

Weighting field:

$$i \mu q v E_w$$

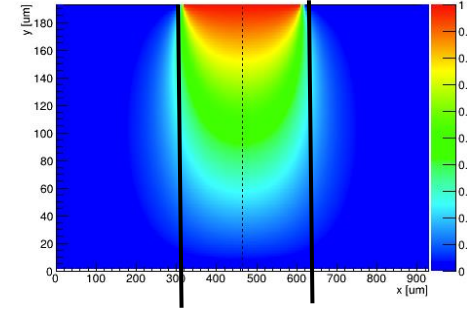
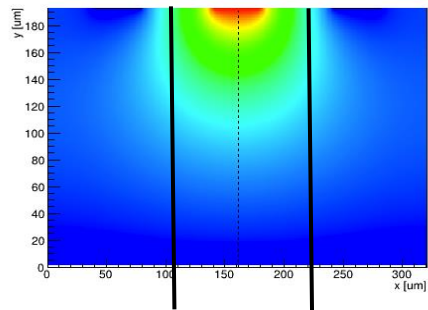
Charge:

$$i \mu q v E_w$$



We want to operate in this regime: saturated velocity

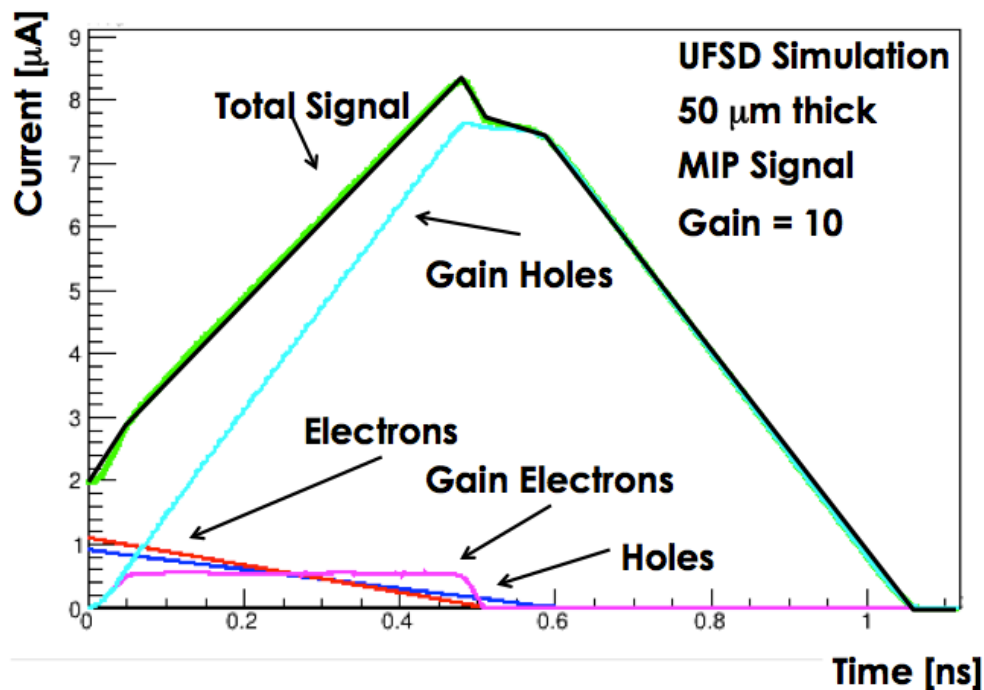
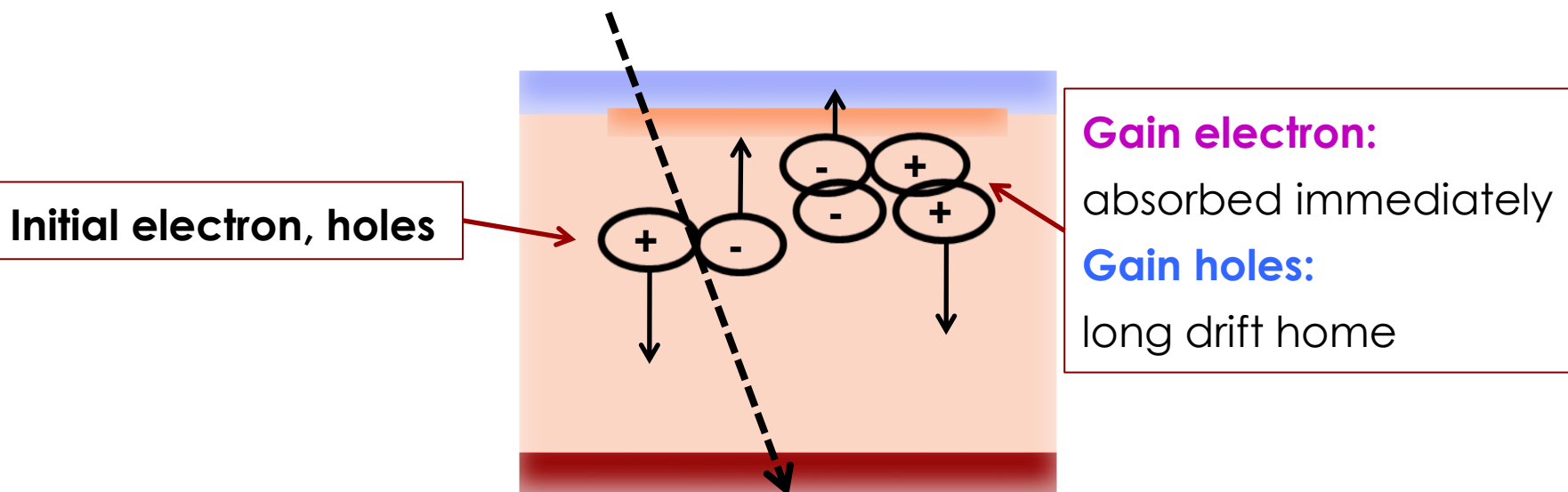
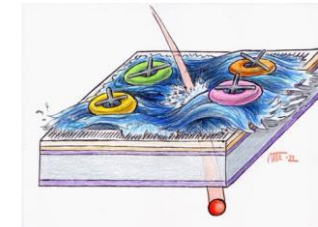
Figure: Electron and hole velocities vs. the electric field strength in silicon.



Best: uniform weighting field in a pitch

- ➔ Highest possible E field to saturate velocity
- ➔ Large pad to have uniform weighting field
- ➔ Lot's of charge

# How gain shapes the signal

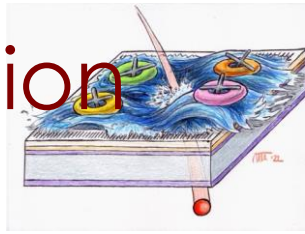


Electrons multiply and produce additional electrons and holes.

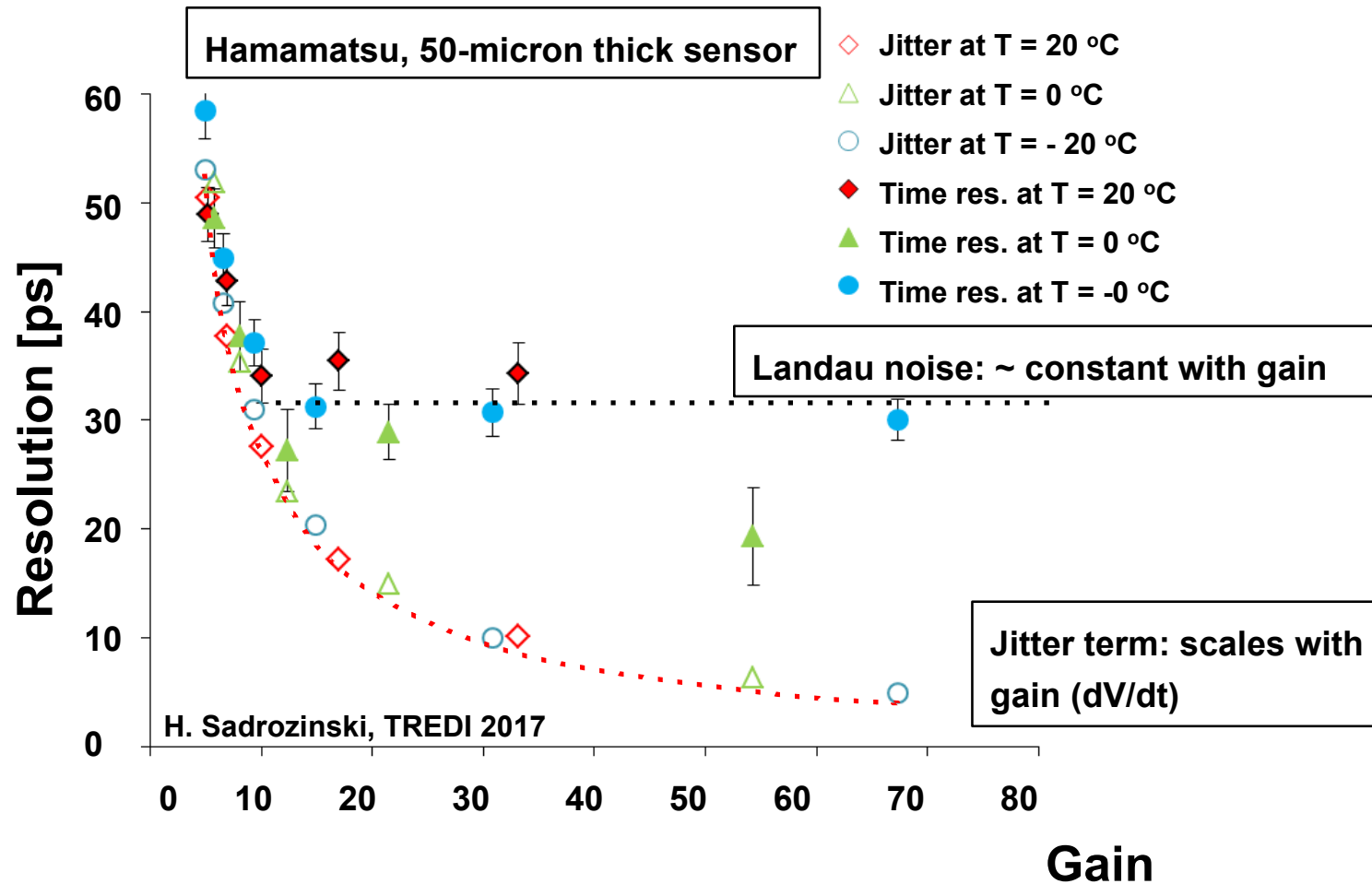
- **Gain electrons have almost no effect**
- **Gain holes dominate the signal**

➔ **No holes multiplications**

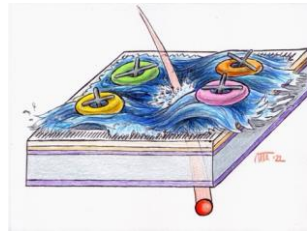
# An example of LGAD Hamamatsu's time resolution



UFSD from Hamamatsu: 30 ps time resolution,  
Value of gain  $\sim 20$

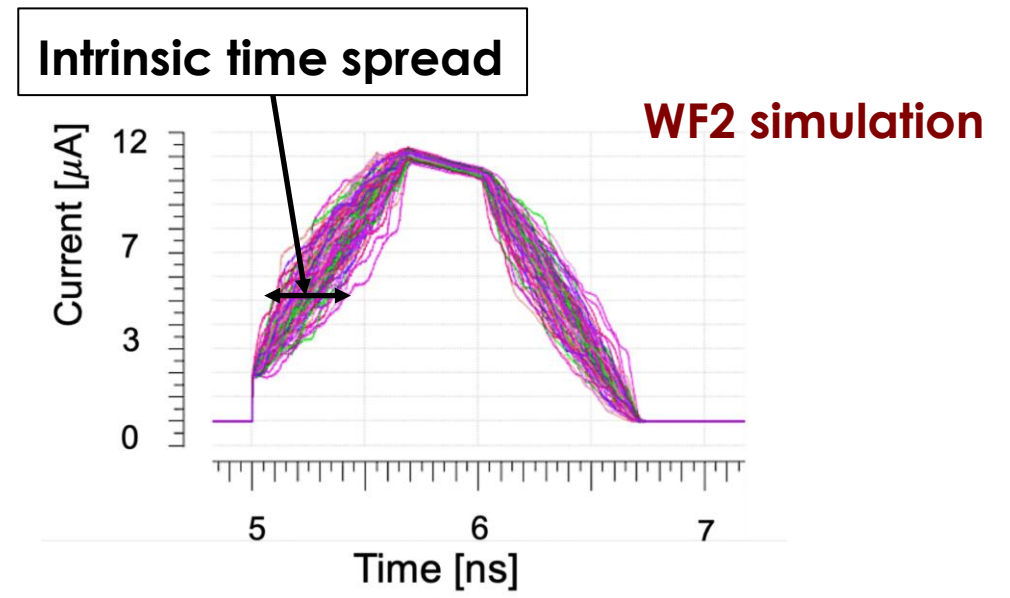
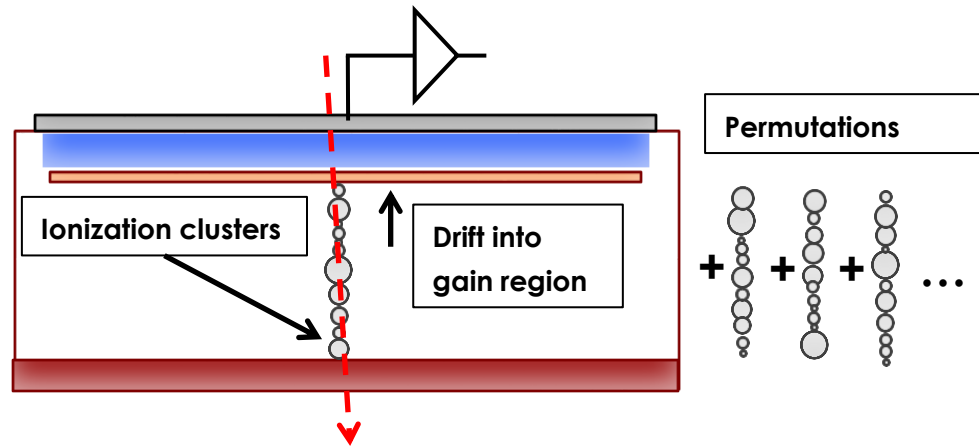


# Intrinsic LGAD time resolution



Why LGAD have an “intrinsic” time resolution?

**It is a combinatorial problem:** how many different ways are there to produce a given amplitude summing up individual ionization clusters (imagine there is 1 cluster every 1 micron) ?

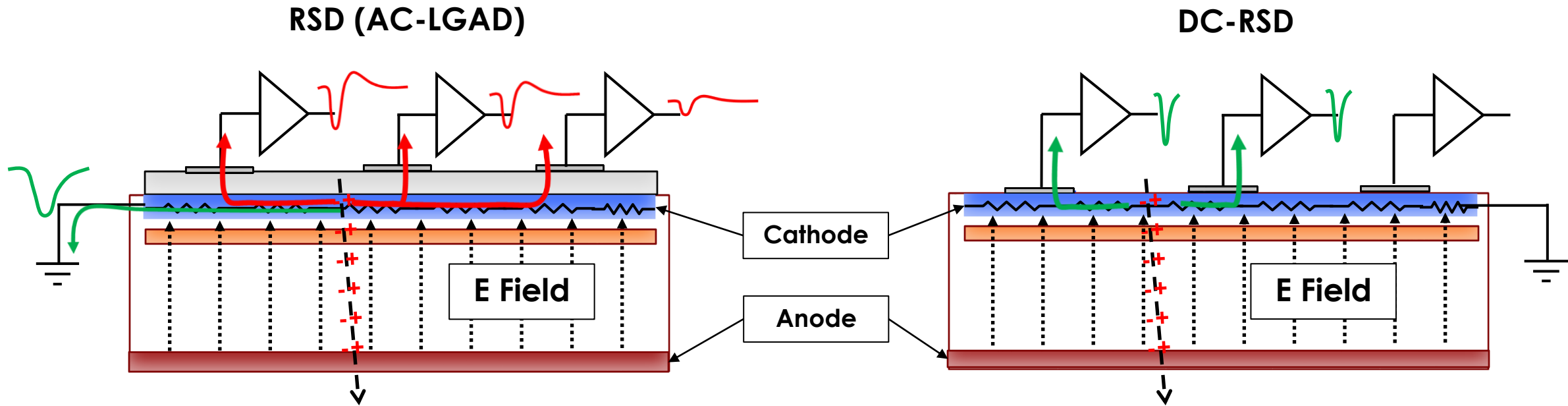
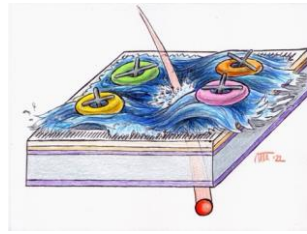


50 microns thick ==> 50! Permutations...

10 microns thick ==> 10! Permutation

**The thinner the sensor, the smaller the intrinsic time resolution**

# Present RSD research paths



This design has been manufactured in several productions by FBK, BNL, and HPK

This design is presently under development by FBK  
The main advantage of the DC-RSD design is the ability to control the signal spread