

State-of-the-art and evolution of UFSD sensors design at FBK

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Abstract

In the past few years, there has been growing interest in the development of silicon sensors able to simultaneously measure accurately the time of passage and the position of impinging charged particles. In this contribution, a review of the progresses in the design of UFSD (Ultra-Fast Silicon Detectors) sensors, manufactured at the FBK (Fondazione Bruno Kessler) Foundry, aiming at tracking charged particles in 4 dimensions, is presented. The state-of-the-art UFSD sensors, with excellent timing capability, are planned to be used in both ATLAS and CMS experiments detector upgrade, in order to reduce the background due to the presence of overlapping events in the same bunch crossing.

The latest results on sensors characterization including time resolution, radiation resistance and uniformity of the response are here summarized, pointing out the interplay between the design of the gain layer and the UFSD performances. The research is now focusing on the maximization of the sensor fill factor, to be able to reduce the pixel size, exploring the

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implementation of shallow trenches for the pixel isolation and the development of resistive AC-coupled UFSD sensors. In conclusion, a brief review on research paths tailored for detection of low energy X-rays or for low material budget applications is given.

Keywords: silicon sensor, fast timing, low gain, charge multiplication, LGAD

1 Introduction

The UFSD project, born as an ERC¹ supported project in 2015, aims at developing silicon detectors for 4D tracking with excellent time and space resolution, able to achieve concurrently a time resolution of the order of tens of ps, and a space resolution \approx tens of μm . The sensor technology used as baseline are Low Gain Avalanche Diodes (LGAD), an evolution of the n-on-p planar silicon sensor incorporating a low (10-30 range), controlled gain in the signal formation mechanism [1]. The charge multiplication conditions, where electrons and holes acquire sufficient kinetic energy to generate additional e/h pairs (electric field $E \sim 300 \text{ kV/cm}$), are obtained by implanting a layer of acceptors with appropriate charge density ($\rho_A \sim 10^{16} \text{ cm}^3$) below the n-p junction, the so-called gain layer. The key points of LGADs optimized for timing are: signals large and fast enough to assure excellent timing performance while maintaining almost unchanged levels of noise (low jitter term), reduced Landau fluctuations (≈ 50 microns thin sensors), and a very uniform weighting field. A detailed description of the UFSD characteristics can be found in [2, 3].

Within the UFSD project, the FBK Foundry started developing LGADs in 2016. Since then, four productions of 50-micron thin UFSDs have been completed, covering several aspects of R&D work necessary to reach the project goal performances, including the radiation hardness of the sensors, which should match the requirements of the future High Luminosity Large Hadron Collider (HL-LHC) experiments.

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24 **2. UFSD sensors: key performances**

25 In this section, an overview of performances of the latest UFSD produc-
26 tions is reported, covering the topics on gain uniformity, radiation hardness
27 an time resolution. To be noticed that the typical pad size of the state-of-the-
28 art LGAD is of the order of 1-3 mm². The roadmap towards fine-segmented
29 LGADs, able to measure also the position of the traversing particle with
30 high resolution, can be found in sec. 3. It is worth mentioning that the lat-
31 est UFSD production (*UFSD3*) was partially affected by early breakdown
32 of some devices, and by anomalous high random noise, which made some
33 measurements more challenging. The root cause was understood to be a
34 combination of aggressive pad termination designs and incorrect p-stop dop-
35 ing concentration. An internal FBK run was dedicated to the study of the
36 problem, and the identification of the correct p-stop dose range was achieved.

37 *2.1. The uniformity of the gain*

38 A key parameter for the feasibility of detectors with large area UFSD
39 sensors is the gain layer doping uniformity: a difference a 1% in doping
40 concentration moves the optimum biasing point by ~11-15 V depending on
41 the gain layer doping profile. It is important to keep the non-uniformity
42 below 1% on a single device, to have comparable performance on the area
43 of the sensor, and below a few percent (the lower, the better) on the whole
44 production, to have sensors that behave similarly and able to share the bias
45 voltage with neighbouring sensors, in case it is needed by the biasing scheme.

46 The gain uniformity of several wafers of the last FBK production has been
47 tested, measuring C(V) curves for many pads and analyzing the $1/C^2(V)$
48 functions. The voltage at which the gain layer is depleted, V_{GL} , is propor-
49 tional to the amount of active acceptor density N_A in the gain layer itself (see
50 [4] for more details on this method). The relative spread observed in V_{GL} is
51 a measure of the non-uniformity of the gain layer, and it is found to be 2-3%
52 over the whole production, and less than 2% when excluding sensors at the
53 periphery of the wafers.

54 *2.2. On radiation hardness*

55 Previous studies have demonstrated that neutrons and charged hadrons
56 irradiations, among other well known effects on the silicon substrate, reduce
57 the gain value of the LGADs, changing the way they behave. This effect

58 is due to the initial acceptor removal mechanism that progressively deacti-
 59 vates the acceptors of the gain layer. The initial acceptor removal can be
 60 parametrized as $\rho_A(\Phi) = \rho_A(0)e^{-c\Phi}$, where Φ is the irradiation fluence [cm^2],
 61 $\rho_A(0)$ ($\rho_A(\Phi)$) the initial (after a fluence Φ) acceptor density [cm^3], and c
 62 [cm^2] is the *acceptor removal coefficient* that depends on the initial acceptor
 63 concentration $\rho_A(0)$ and on the type of irradiation [4].

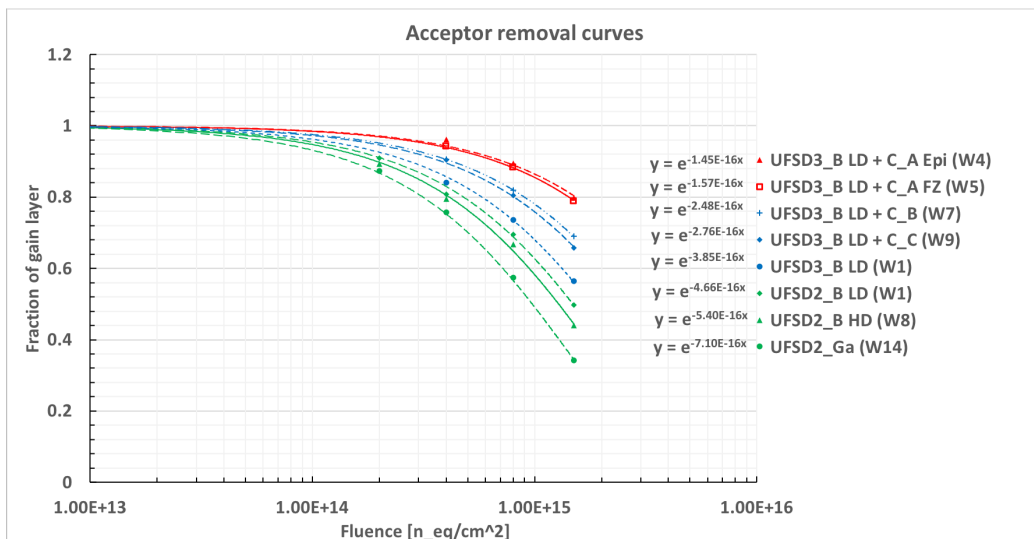


Figure 1: Fraction of gain layer (active acceptor density) as a function of the irradiation fluence received, for UFSD sensors belonging to the UFSD3 production, differing in gain layer design. Data points are superimposed with an exponential fit $y = e^{-cx}$. Smaller coefficient c leads to more radiation resistant gain layers. For reference, a few sensors from the UFSD2 production are shown.

64 A great effort has been put, in the past three years, to enhance the ra-
 65 diation hardness of the gain layer, exploring different solutions for the gain
 66 layer design (varying doping profile/type of acceptor, co-implanting carbon).
 67 Extensive irradiation campaigns allowed to study the radiation hardness of
 68 the various designs.

69 Figure 1 represents the fraction of gain layer (active acceptor density)
 70 surviving at a given fluence, as a function of the fluence received, for var-
 71 ious UFSD3 sensor types. The superimposed exponential fit $y = e^{-cx}$ is
 72 parametrized with the acceptor removal coefficient. A smaller value of the
 73 coefficient c leads to more radiation resistant gain layers. For reference, a

74 few sensors from the UFSD2 production are also shown (in green). These
 75 measurements demonstrate that: (i) the gain layer produced in Low Diffu-
 76 sion (LD - narrower layer profile) is more radiation resistant than the High
 77 Diffusion (HD) type; (ii) the co-implantation of carbon in the gain layer vol-
 78 ume improves by a factor of ~ 2 the radiation resistance; (iii) the carbon dose
 79 called C_A (a.u.) shows the best radiation resistance (both for Epi and FZ
 80 wafer substrate), and increasing the carbon dose by a factor of 2 or 3 (C_B ,
 81 C_C) does not improve the radiation hardness. The best radiation-hard FBK
 82 UFSD device has a LD type of gain layer, co-implanted with a C_A dose of
 83 carbon.

84 *2.3. On time resolution*

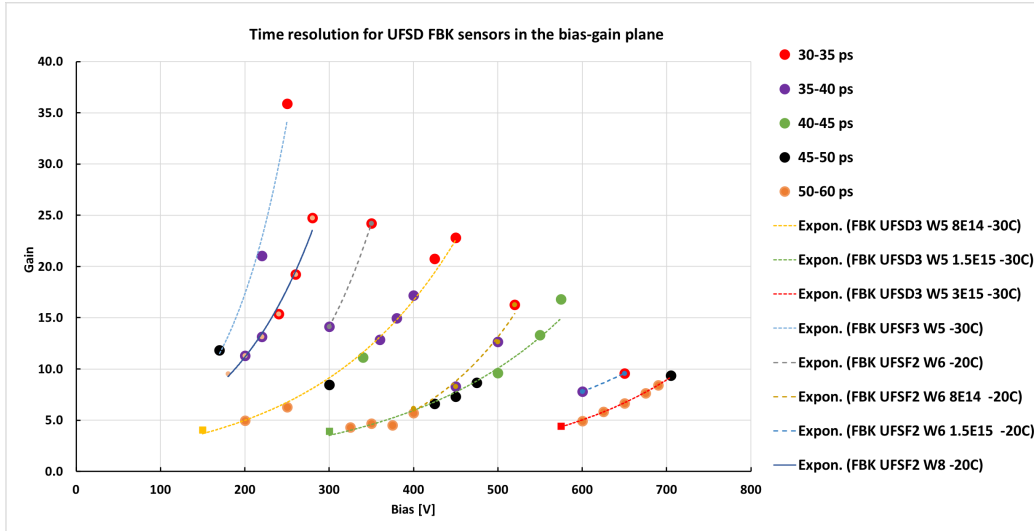


Figure 2: Gain(V) curves of several FBK sensors, new and irradiated at different fluences. The colors around the markers define the time resolution values (in 5 ps range), obtained in laboratory measurements with a β -source, at cold (-20 or -30 °C). The plot shows also how the behavior of a given device changes as a function of the irradiation level.

85 The time resolution of these devices has been measured with laser sys-
 86 tems, for the study of the jitter contribution to the time resolution, with
 87 β -source setups in the laboratory, or at beam tests, for a subset of them.

88 A time resolution in the 25-30 ps range, for 50 microns thick UFSD, has
 89 been achieved for new devices with the correct gain layer design, when the
 90 sensor is coupled with a fast low-noise pre-amplifier.

91 The plot shown in fig. 2 gives a comprehensive overview of the state-of-
 92 the-art UFSD time performance in relation to the *gain* versus *bias voltage*
 93 curve of a given device. Three types of UFSD sensors are represented, new
 94 and irradiated up to $3E15 \text{ n}_{eq}/\text{cm}^2$. In particular, the plot shows the Gain(V)
 95 curves of the three selected devices, with colors around the markers defining
 96 the time resolution measured (in 5 ps range), as obtained with the very same
 97 β -source setup, at cold (-20 or -30 °C). The three devices differ one another
 98 for the gain layer design (doping concentration and profile). As expected, the
 99 irradiated sensors are able to reach a given gain for progressively higher bias
 100 voltages. For two out of three, it is possible to reach a 30-35 ps time resolution
 101 when biased high enough (the gain being high enough to nearly saturate the
 102 holes' drift velocity). The UFSD3 W5 device irradiated at $1.5E15 \text{ n}_{eq}/\text{cm}^2$
 103 does not reach the expected performance due to random noise at high voltage
 104 affecting this production, as previously explained.

105 2.4. Near future developments

106 FBK is currently working on the next UFSD production (*UFSD3.2*),
 107 which is expected to be completed in Spring 2020. The production is partially
 108 dedicated to the CMS and ATLAS timing layer detector upgrades, provid-
 109 ing small-scale prototypes, and it will also address a number of optimization
 110 studies, including *i*) the exploration of lower carbon dose to be co-implanted
 111 in the gain layer, to improve the radiation hardness, *ii*) the fabrication of
 112 deep gain layer implant combined with carbon, to improve the operating pa-
 113 rameters in highly irradiated devices, and *iii*) the study of aggressive interpad
 114 designs, to reduce the no-gain area.

115 3. Towards fine-segmented LGADs

116 In the current UFSD design, the area between read-out pads is hosting
 117 a Junction Termination Extension (JTE) on each side to contain the gain
 118 layers of the two adjacent pads, separated by a p-stop area for the electrical
 119 isolation of the pads (a p-type material implantation with a certain pattern).
 120 This design leads to a no-gain area for signal collection, due to the nominal
 121 distance between the two gain layers, and to an extra periphery of the gain
 122 implant where the charges are collected by the JTE and do not pass through
 123 the gain layer. The measured width of the no-gain area in state-of-the-art
 124 devices ranges between 40 and 75 microns, depending on the producer. The
 125 shortest distance achieved in fully working FBK UFSD sensor is 38 microns.

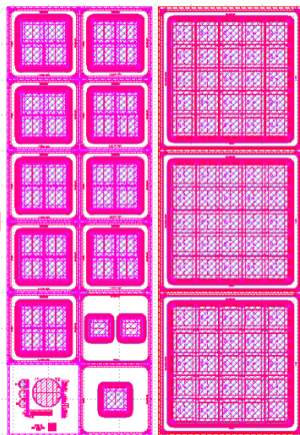


Figure 3: Layout of the UFSD3.2 photo mask, hosting single pads, 2×2 and 5×5 matrices with $1.3 \times 1.3 \text{ mm}^2$ pad size.

126 The size of the inter-pad no-gain area has an impact on a sensor array
 127 fill factor, defined as the ratio of a pixel's particle sensitive area to its total
 128 area. As an example, a no-gain area of 40 microns leads to a fill factor of
 129 94% (36%) for a 1.3 mm (100 microns) pitch sensor array.

130 TCAD simulations performed on UFSD sensors (50 microns thick) show
 131 that a no-gain area of about 20 microns could be reached with aggressive
 132 designs. Two new technological developments, the Trench-Isolated LGAD
 133 (TI-LGAD FBK) and the Resistive AC-coupled LGAD (RSD project), aim
 134 at the maximization of the sensor fill factor.

135 3.1. Trench-Isolated LGADs

136 The Trench-Isolated LGAD (TI-LGAD) is a technological development
 137 of the standard thin LGAD, which implements a different strategy in the pad
 138 electrical isolation, to reduce the no-gain area between pads. The standard
 139 LGAD inter-pad design is substituted by shallow trenches, less than a $1 \mu\text{m}$
 140 wide, dug with deep reactive ion etching technique and filled with silicon
 141 oxide (Deep Trench Isolation technology). This fabrication process could
 142 lead to a nominal no-gain region of a few microns.

143 The first internal FBK run to study this novel design was produced in
 144 2019. Several wafers with different layouts were processed, changing several
 145 fabrication parameters. Each wafer hosts, among other types, 2×1 -pixel

146 devices ($250\ \mu\text{m} \times 375\ \mu\text{m}$) with single- and double-trench isolation. Figure
 147 4 shows a sketch of the inter-pad region of a single trench TI-LGAD, and a
 148 view of the wafer layout for the 2-pixel device. The initial characterization of
 149 the production shows that the pixels are electrically isolated, the breakdown
 150 voltage and the gain-voltage curves are as in the homologous LGADs. More
 151 details can be found in [5].

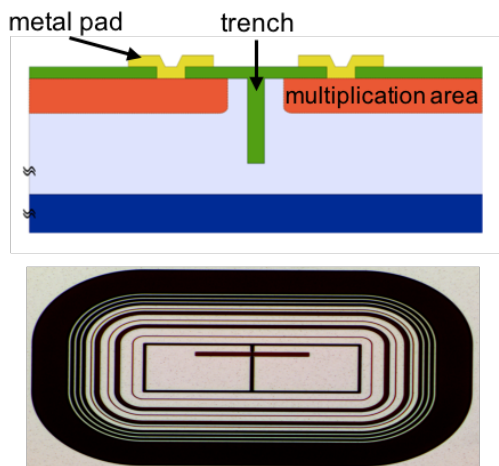


Figure 4: Sketch of the inter-pad region of a single trench TI-LGAD, with the trench (green) visible between the two multiplication regions of the two pixels, followed by a view of the wafer layout for the 2-pixel device. A thin metal opening traversing the inter-pad region is clearly visible.

152 The width of the no-gain region has been measured using a TCT setup,
 153 shooting the laser along the optical window crossing the inter-pad region.
 154 The results obtained so far on a few devices are very promising. In fig. 5, a
 155 comparison between the best UFSD device and a 2-trench TI-LGAD, both
 156 biased at 300 V, is shown. The plot represents the charge collected by two
 157 adjacent pads, read out simultaneously during the laser scan, as a function
 158 of the position of the laser along the scan line: the collected charge read out
 159 in the two channels of the UFSD device is shown in black, while the collected
 160 charge of the 2-trench TI-LGAD in blue. The measured inter-pad no-gain
 161 distance are $38\ \mu\text{m}$ and $7\ \mu\text{m}$ respectively. The plot also demonstrates the
 162 extremely good pad isolation in both types of devices.

163 Finally, preliminary results on noise level at high voltage and on time
 164 resolution are in line with the expectations. Extensive studies of the full

165 production is still ongoing. Several devices have been sent to an irradiation
 166 facility, to study the behavior of the trenches when irradiated up to fluences
 167 of $3E15 \text{ n}_{eq}/\text{cm}^2$.

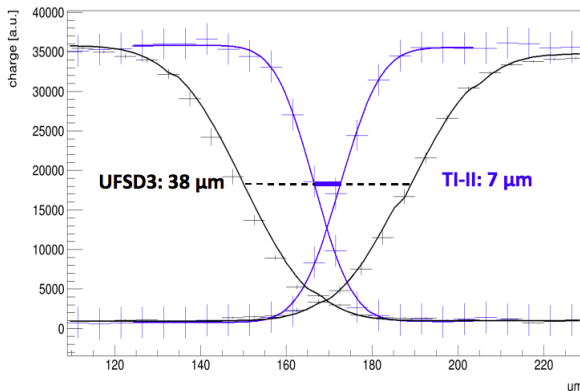


Figure 5: Charge collected by two adjacent pads, read out simultaneously, as a function of the position of the laser during a TCT scan: in black the charges collected for an UFSD device, in blue the charges collected for a 2-trench TI-LGAD. Both devices are biased at 300 V. The measured no-gain areas are $38 \mu\text{m}$ and $7 \mu\text{m}$ respectively.

168 3.2. Towards an 100% fill factor: the Resistive AC-coupled LGAD

169 The Resistive AC-coupled LGAD (RSD) is designed as a device with
 170 an intrinsic 100% fill factor: it is a thin LGAD with one continuous gain
 171 layer, where the segmentation of the sensor is defined by the read-out pads
 172 pattern. The gain layer is separated from the electrodes by a resistive sheet
 173 and a capacitive dielectric layer (see Fig.6).

174 The first FBK RSD production, delivered in mid 2019, comprises of 15
 175 wafers with different splits in key parameters such as *(i)* the resistive sheet
 176 dose and the oxide thickness, which have a direct impact on the signal am-
 177 plitude, discharge time and charge sharing, and *(ii)* the gain dose, which
 178 determines the multiplication factor and thus the signal slew rate. Several
 179 types of devices have been designed, to explore a wide range of possible
 180 pitch/AC-pad-size configuration or targetting a specific application. Exten-
 181 sive electrical characterization and quality control of the production have
 182 been performed, together with detailed studies of the RSD signal formation
 183 using a Transient Current Technique (TCT) setup [6].

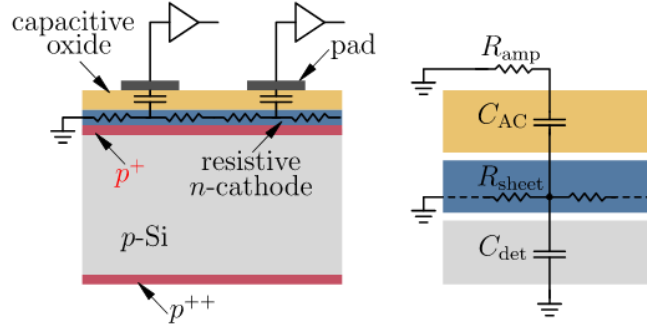


Figure 6: Schematic cross-sectional view of an RSD device, where the continuous gain layer, the resistive n-type cathode and the capacitive dielectric layer are represented. On the right side, the circuitual model of a single read-out pad is shown.

184 The TCT setup has a IR laser ($\lambda = 1064 \text{ nm}$) with a spot size of $10 \mu\text{m}$
 185 and the possibility to perform x-y scans with micrometrical precision: this
 186 allows to extract very precise information on the RSD signal dynamics. The
 187 signals induced by the laser reach their maximum when the impact point is in
 188 the middle of the AC pad, and get smaller (and delayed) moving away from
 189 the pad, as a function of the distance between the hit point and the read-out
 190 pad (more information on the signal formation characteristics can be found
 191 in [7]). As a consequence, the signal created by a particle is visible in several
 192 pads around the hit point. The characteristics of the charge induced in RSD
 193 read-out pads can be thus exploited, with the acquisition of data from more
 194 channels at the same time, to obtain excellent space and time resolution.

195 Extensive tests have been performed in the lab, always using the TCT
 196 laser setup, on a set of 3×3 matrices with different pitch/AC-pad-size geome-
 197 tries, in order to develop optimized reconstruction algorithms and evaluate
 198 their space and time resolution, in absence of Landau fluctuations of the sig-
 199 nal. During these measurements, the device under test is operated at a bias
 200 voltage such to have gain=17, and four AC-pads are wire-bonded to a multi-
 201 channel amplifier board and simultaneously read out. The other pads are
 202 grounded. The laser is shot several times on a given point, following a pat-
 203 tern (see red dots in fig. 7, representing a specific device), with an intensity
 204 emulating the charge released by one minimum ionizing particle (MIP).

205 Preliminary results for the space resolution are obtained using, as recon-

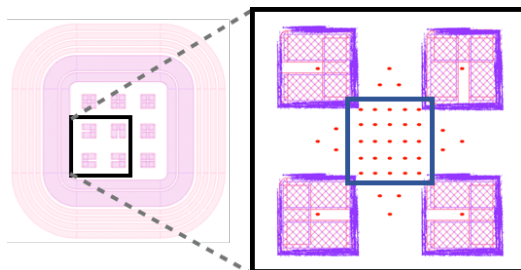


Figure 7: Layout of a 3×3 RSD matrix, with a zoom to the region covered by the TCT laser scan, represented by the red dots. Only the points included in the squared area between the four read out pads have been analysed.

206 construction algorithm for the hits' coordinates, an amplitude-weighted centroid
 207 of the coordinates of the four read out channels. The reconstructed hit po-
 208 sitions x_{reco} , y_{reco} are then compared with the well known coordinates of the
 209 laser moving stage. The space resolution is quantified by the standard de-
 210 viation of the distribution obtained plotting the difference $x_{laser} - x_{reco}$ (or
 211 the equivalent for the y coordinate) for a large number of events (~ 500 per
 212 point). To ensure an unbiased analysis, only the events where the charge
 213 induced was well sampled by the four connected pads have been selected:
 214 only the laser scan points located in the central squared area between the
 215 pads have been used, with the further request on the signal amplitudes to be
 216 >10 mV.

217 Figure 8 shows the distribution of the $x_{laser} - x_{reco}$ differences, overlaid
 218 with a gaussian fit, for three types of RSD geometry: the 50 microns AC-pad
 219 size with 100 microns pitch (50-100 for brevity), the 100-200 and the 200-500
 220 types. The measured space resolution is of the order of $6 \mu\text{m}$ for the 50-100,
 221 100-200 types, and $\sim 20 \mu\text{m}$ for the 200-500 type. These results should be
 222 considered preliminary, but they definitely point to a much improved space
 223 resolution w.r.t traditional pixelated silicon devices (typically $\text{pitch}/\sqrt{12}$).

224 The time resolution has been measured using the same set of data with
 225 identical selection criteria. The time of the hit t_{hit} is reconstructed as an
 226 amplitude-weighted centroid of the time of the maximum amplitude t'_{max}
 227 seen by the four read out pads. The quantity t'_{max} is actually the time of
 228 the maximum corrected for two effects: (i) the delay due to propagation
 229 time of the signal from the impact position to the read-out pad, which is
 230 proportional to the hit position-pad distance, and (ii) a time offset due to

231 the difference introduced by the whole read-out chain. The measurement of
232 the hit position is thus used to correct the t_{max} for the propagation delay,
233 and a mis-computed hit position will also affect the time measurement. The
234 time resolution is quantified by the standard deviation of the $t_{trigger} - t_{hit}$
235 distribution, for a large number of events, where $t_{trigger}$ is the time given by
236 the laser system.

237 Figure 9 shows the distribution of the $t_{trigger} - t_{hit}$ differences, overlaid with
238 a gaussian fit, for the three 50-100, 100-200 and 200-500 RSD geometries (AC-
239 pad size - pitch). The time resolution obtained with the above mentioned
240 method is $\sigma_t \sim 17$ ps, 24 ps and 31 ps for the 50-100, 100-200 and 200-500
241 respectively. These results should be considered preliminary.

242 It is important to note that eventual differences of the acquisition chain
243 lead to unequal response to the same input charge: the preliminary cali-
244 bration of the amplifiers used in these measurements can be optimized to
245 eliminate the offsets currently affectiing some of the central values for the
246 position reconstruction.

247 Further improvements in the performance may derive from an ongoing
248 analysis, which aims at a sophisticated reconstruction algorithm for the hit
249 position, based on a more accurate description of the propagation/attenuation
250 properties of the AC-resistive sheet. This approach uses *look-up-tables*, ge-
251 ometry dependent, in which the correlation between impact point and charge
252 sharing on the surrounding pads is encoded.

253 Studies of the RSD behavior with β source particles and at beam test are
254 ongoing.

255 4. Future developments for low energy X-rays detection

256 A recently approved three-years R&D project aims at the reduction of
257 the active and of the physical thickness of the LGAD sensors, down to 20-30
258 microns, and at the implementation of a very thin rear entrance window to the
259 active volume of the device. Such improvements open the way to different
260 fields of application, such as low energy (keV) X-rays detection, and to very
261 low material budget applications. In this project, the reduction of the size
262 of the pad is not at the center of the development work.

263 Soft X-rays (energy of $\sim 1-10$ keV) barely penetrate the silicon volume
264 and release only ~ 300 electron-hole pairs per 1 keV. The internal gain of the
265 LGADs enables the detection of low charge signals thanks to the intrinsic
266 amplification of the signal ([8]). In order to improve the performance, X-rays

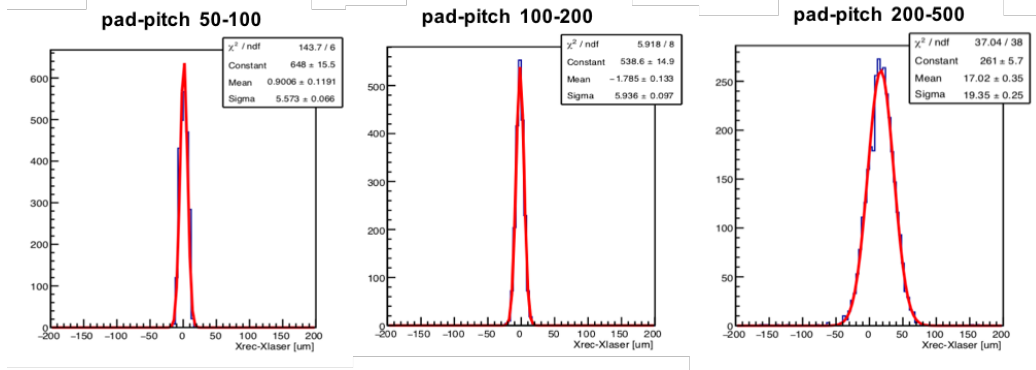


Figure 8: Distributions of $x_{laser} - x_{reco}$, overlaid with gaussian fits, for the 50-100, 100-200 and 200-500 RSD geometry types. The measured space resolution is of the order of $6 \mu\text{m}$ for the 50-100, 100-200 types, and $\sim 20 \mu\text{m}$ for the 200-500 type. Data obtained with a laser TCT setup.

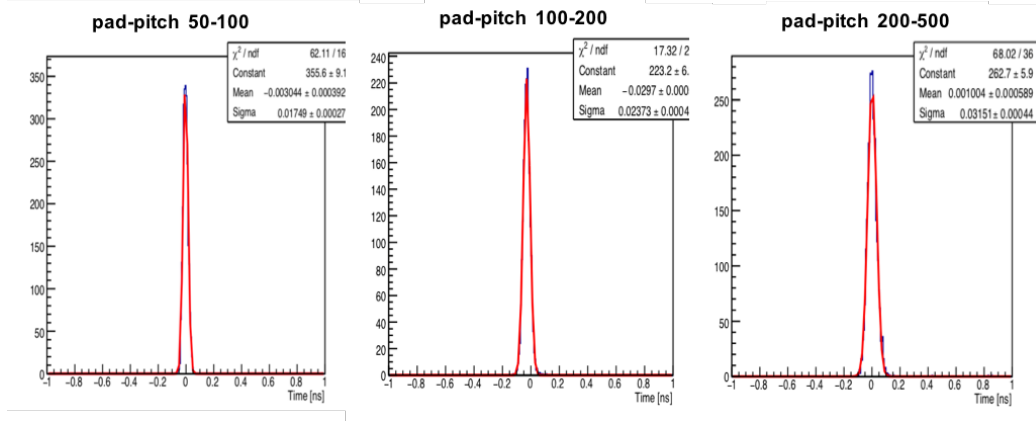


Figure 9: Distributions of $t_{trigger} - t_{hit}$ differences, overlaid with gaussian fits, for the 50-100, 100-200 and 200-500 RSD geometry types. The measured time resolution is 17 ps, 24 ps and 31 ps for the 50-100, 100-200 and 200-500 respectively. Data obtained with a laser TCT setup.

267 should reach the active volume of the sensor through back-illumination on
268 the p-side, in absence of the support wafer. The feasibility of manufacturing
269 LGADs with a double-sided process, having the gain layer on one side and
270 the thin entrance window on the other side, is the key to the success of this
271 work.

272 **5. Conclusion**

273 The UFSD project started in 2015 with the goal of designing sensors
274 suitable for 4D tracking in High Energy Physics experiments. Several pro-
275 ductions implementing aggressive or optimized technological solutions have
276 been completed and thoroughly studied. The state-of-the-art UFSD sensor
277 has achieved: excellent time resolution ($\simeq 30$ ps); very good production uni-
278 formity and yield for sensors of ~ 3 cm²; optimization of the gain layer design
279 to enhance operating parameters and radiation hardness (time performances
280 maintained up to a fluence of $1.5E15$ n_{eq}/cm²), and an inter-pad no-gain area
281 of ~ 40 microns. The R&D work to reduce further the inter-pad no-gain
282 area, the limiting factor to the production of matrices with a fine grained
283 pixelation (100's of microns or less), is currently exploring more aggressive
284 pad/gain isolation designs, as well as other technological solutions as trenches
285 to isolate the pad. The latter solution gives inter-pad no-gain region of the
286 order of 5-10 microns. Another very promising technology, which may rep-
287 resent the best option for 100% fill-factor sensors, is the resistive AC-LGAD
288 (RSD devices), currently still under studies. Preliminary results obtained
289 with a laser source point to time resolutions in the 20-30 ps range and space
290 resolutions better than the pitch/ $\sqrt{12}$. We are expecting to have more com-
291 prehensive results on the ongoing R&Ds, addressing the detector fill factor,
292 in the next 6 months.

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