

Silicon sensors with resistive read-out: ML techniques for ultimate spatial resolution

M. Tornago^{a,b,*}, F. Giobergia^d, L. Menzio^{b,a}, F. Siviero^a, R. Arcidiacono^c, N. Cartiglia^b, M. Costa^a, M. Ferrero^c, G. Gioachin^a, M. Mandurrino^b, V. Sola^b

^aUniversità degli Studi di Torino, Torino, Italy

^bINFN, Torino, Italy

^cUniversità del Piemonte Orientale, Novara, Italy

^dPolitecnico di Torino, Torino, Italy

Abstract

Resistive Silicon Detectors (RSDs) are based on the LGAD technology, characterized by a continuous gain layer, and by the innovative introduction of resistive read-out. Thanks to a novel electrode design aimed at maximizing signal sharing, the second FBK production of RSD sensors, RSD2, achieves a position resolution on the whole pixel surface of about $8 \mu\text{m}$ for $200\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ pitch. RSD2 arrays have been tested in the Laboratory for Innovative Silicon Sensors in Torino using a Transient Current Technique setup equipped with a 16-channel digitizer, and results on spatial resolution have been obtained with machine learning algorithms.

Keywords:

LGAD, AC-LGAD, Particle tracking detectors, Solid-state detectors, High Energy Physics

1. Introduction

Resistive AC-coupled Silicon Detectors (RSDs) are a new generation of n-in-p silicon sensors with nearly 100% fill-factor designed for high-precision 4D tracking in experiments at future colliders. RSDs are based on the Low Gain Avalanche Diode (LGAD) technology but are featured with one single continuous gain layer. The segmentation of the device is realized thanks to the introduction of resistive AC-coupled read-out: (i) the AC coupling of the metal pads occurs through a dielectric layer, and (ii) a continuous resistive n+ electrode allows charge sharing. As a result, the signal is shared among multiple read-out pads. When a particle hits the sensor, each AC pad sees a signal which becomes smaller and more delayed with increasing distance from the impinging point. This RSD key feature allows reaching an unprecedented spatial resolution, up to a factor 10 better than the corresponding binary readout precision. After the first RSD production (2019) [3], a second batch, RSD2, has been manufactured by Fondazione Bruno Kessler (FBK) in 2021 [4]. It is featured with 15 wafers with varying resistivity, oxide thickness, and gain dose. Each wafer includes several sensors geometries, with different active areas, pitch, and AC pad number, size, and shape.

2. Laboratory measurements

RSD2 sensors have been tested in the Laboratory for Innovative Silicon Sensors (LISS) in Torino. Three $750 \times 750 \mu\text{m}^2$ RSD arrays with $200 - \mu\text{m}$ pitch and 3×4 AC pads have been

selected for spatial resolution studies. The three matrices differ in the layout of the AC pads, which have shapes of “Swiss crosses”, “flakes” and “boxes” 1. Measurements have been performed with the Particulars Transient Current Technique (TCT) setup [6], which exploits a laser to simulate the passage of a minimum ionizing particle (MIP) through the device under test (DUT). This setup is provided with (i) a picosecond infrared laser with 1064 nm wavelength, (ii) an optical system that allows reaching a minimum laser spot of $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$, and (iii) an x-y moving stage with micrometrical precision where the sensor is mounted. Each array is wire-bonded to a 16-channel read-out board designed at Fermilab [9]. Data are acquired with a 16-channel CAEN DT5742 Desktop Digitizer, simultaneously recording all the detector channels. The whole DUT surface is scanned with the TCT setup: the laser is shot every $10 \mu\text{m}$ along x and y and 100 waveforms are acquired for each AC pad. When impinging on the sensor surface, the laser provides a signal equivalent to ~ 5 MIPs. For each RSD2 matrix, the scan is repeated at three bias voltages, 250 V, 300 V, and 330 V, corresponding to gain values of $\sim 10, 15,$ and $20,$ respectively.

3. Machine Learning Analysis

Position reconstruction is based on the combination of information on signals from each AC pad. The correct analytic law describing the relation between signal properties and predicted coordinates is not easy to define [2]. This task is instead perfectly suited for a Machine Learning (ML) algorithm [5]: signal properties are fed as input features, while the predicted x-y coordinates are the output. The ML analysis of RSD data is based on the following steps: (i) *feature extraction*: meaningful input features are extracted from the experimental data,

*Corresponding author

Email address: marta.tornago@edu.unito.it (M. Tornago)

57 such as the signal amplitudes; (ii) *train/test split*: the data ex-
 58 tracted is split into a training set – used to build a regression
 59 model – and a test set, used to assess the performance of the
 60 model itself in terms of spatial resolution. We adopted an 80/20
 61 train/test split. For a fair estimate of the model performance,
 62 we split the dataset so that all 100 waveforms collected for a
 63 specific x-y position are all either used for the training or the
 64 test; (iii) *model training*: a random forest regression model [7]
 65 is trained using the training dataset. The random forest is com-
 66 prised of 100 trees independently trained on random subsets of
 67 the training set; (iv) *model evaluation*: the model performance
 68 is assessed on the test dataset to obtain the final results. The
 69 positions used for the test set differ from the ones used during
 70 training to assess the capability of the ML model to generalize
 71 to new, unseen positions.

72 4. Experimental results

73 The spatial resolution for the DUTs has been computed by 105
 74 comparing the x-y predicted positions with the laser reference 106
 75 ones, which are provided by the TCT stage. The differences 107
 76 between predicted and reference coordinates are collected in a 108
 77 distribution that is fitted with a gaussian: its standard deviation 109
 78 represents the spatial resolution of the whole system, account- 110
 79 ing for both the RSD and the laser resolution: 111

$$80 \quad \sigma_{sys} = \sqrt{\sigma_{RSD}^2 + \sigma_{laser}^2}. \quad (1) \quad 112$$

81 As the distributions are created separately for x and y coordi- 113
 82 nates, the total spatial resolution for a RSD array is the combi- 114
 83 nation of the two resolutions: 115

$$84 \quad \sigma_{RSD} = \sqrt{\sigma_{RSD,x}^2 + \sigma_{RSD,y}^2}. \quad (2) \quad 117$$

85 The results are shown in figure 1, where spatial resolution 119
 86 values are represented as a function of bias voltage for the three 120
 87 geometries. 200 – μm -pitch RSD2 matrices can reach a total 121
 88 spatial resolution $\sigma_{RSD,tot} \sim 8\mu\text{m}$ at a bias voltage corre- 122
 89 sponding to a gain ~ 20 . This result is much smaller than 123
 90 the corresponding binary readout precision, which would be 124
 91 $pitch\ size / \sqrt{12} \sim 58\mu\text{m}$. Spatial resolution errors are mainly 125
 92 represented by the uncertainty on σ_{laser} , which is estimated to 126
 93 be $\sim 2\mu\text{m}$. The contribution from ML reconstruction has 127
 94 been calculated and can be considered negligible [5]. Better 128
 95 spatial resolution results are expected using point-like particles, 129
 96 instead of a 10 – μm spot laser and exploiting a setup provided 130
 97 with a precise tracking system. 131

98 5. Conclusions

99 This contribution describes the latest studies on the spatial 137
 100 resolution of three arrays from the FBK RSD2 production with 138
 101 $750 \times 750\ \mu\text{m}^2$ active area, 200 μm pitch, and 3×4 AC pads 139
 102 with different shapes: “Swiss crosses”, “flakes” and “boxes”. 140
 103 The sensors have been tested at the Laboratory for Innovative 141
 104 Silicon Sensors in Torino with a TCT setup equipped with a 142

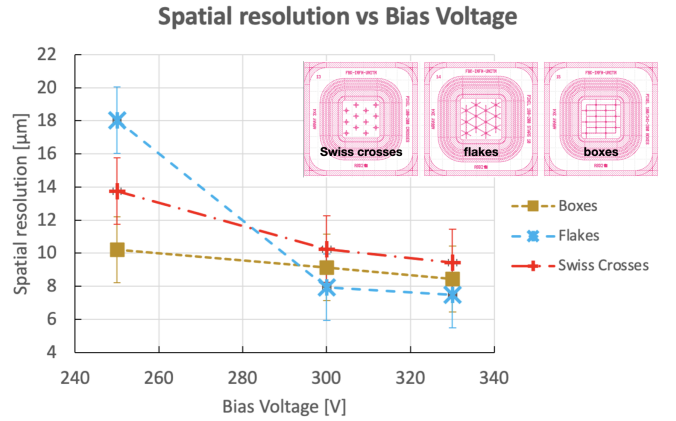


Figure 1: Results for total spatial resolution represented as a function of bias voltage for “boxes”, “flakes” and “Swiss crosses” 200 – μm pitch RSD2 arrays.

16-channel digitizer. The characteristic charge sharing of RSDs allows performing position reconstruction by combining the information from signals of each AC pad. Machine Learning perfectly suits this task: a random forest regression model has been trained to analyze experimental data. Results demonstrate that RSD2 200- μm -pitch matrices can achieve a spatial resolution of $\sim 8\ \mu\text{m}$ at gain ~ 20 with a laser intensity corresponding to ~ 5 MIPs.

6. Acknowledgements

We kindly acknowledge the following funding agencies and collaborations: INFN–CSN5, RSD Project; FBK-INFN collaboration framework; MIUR PRIN project 4DInSiDe; Dipartimenti di Eccellenza, Torino University (ex L.232/2016, art. 1, cc. 314, 337); SmartData@PoliTo.

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