

FPGA Development for the LHCb Vertex Locator Upgrade

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Abstract

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1 Scrambler

Due to radiation levels inside the detector chamber, the main data processing takes place in a concrete bunker away from the detector. To facilitate this, 20 optical links (per modual) are used to transfer the data from the front end VELO to the Data Aquizition FPGA (DAQ). When communicating data digitaly, the transferring modual (TX) and the recieving modual (RX) must have syncrinised clocks. In these case, the GWT serialiser is the TX, and the DAQ is the RX. When achieving synchronised clock, there are two main approuches:

- I. Transmit the TX clock with the data to the RX modual - used in I²C and SPI communication.
- II. Use bit-changes in the data to continuously synchronise the RX clock.

The former of these options, although widely used in convertional electronics, requires a finely tuned clock accounting for all possible delays. The latter, while negating cons of the former, requires data with a high density of tranitions to reduce the likelyhood of a desyncronisation event. Becuase delays in the data are possible, the latter option has been selected.

1.1 The Role of Scrambling Data in the VELO

For the reasons described in Section 1, it is nessesary to ensure that the data has large density of transitions before being transmitted from the front-end detector to the DAQ modual. However, as the majority of super pixel hitmaps are empty, the data has bais towards '0's. This reduces the frequency of transitions in the data - increasing the probability of a desyncronisation event. It is therefor nessecary to scramble the data prior to transmtion and descramble the data in the DAQ FPGA.

Scrambling and later descrambling the data is not a trivial exercise. The scrambling (TX) modual and descrambling (RX) modual must use a sycronised 'key', that is used in both the scrambling and descrambling processes. In the FPGA, the 'key' is derived from the current and previous states of the data; execpt for the first 'key', which substitutes a reset constant for the previous states, as they do not yet exist. There are two methods when generating this 'key':

Additive The 'key' is generated by evolving the previous 'key' at each itteration of data using the incoming frame.

Multiplicative The 'key' is generated from the previos n frames. (Here n is a variable specific to the algorithm).

1.2 Scrambler Options

Three scrambling algorithms have been considered:

Additive Scrambler

This scrambler is was originally implemented and used two sets of two-input XOR logic gates. As the name implies, this scrambler used additive key generation which is dependent all previous input frames since the last reset signal.

Intermediate Scrambler

Created by Karol Hennessy, and deriving its name arbitrarily from the order of consideration, this multiplicative scrambler combines the current and previous frames to generate the *'key'*. Therefor, in the event of desynchronisation, only two frames are lost before the *'key'* is automatically recovered. This feature alone is a significant improvement over the Additive Scrambler.

VeloPix Scrambler

This is the current implemented scramble algorithm in the DAQ and VeloPix code. Like the Intermediate Scrambler, it uses multiplicative *'key'* generation. However, the VeloPix scrambler is compatible with further constraints enforced by the ASIC, including the number of combinational logic operations. The Intermediate Scrambler was design purely for simulation purposes and as such does not meet these constraints.

1.3 Cross Checks

The main priority when scrambling data, is ensuring that the data is recoverable. For all three scramblers, the algorithm was synthesised in Quartus¹ and simulated in Modelsim². The aim of synthesising and simulating the scramblers in these programs was to ensure that the design was both physical in term of on-board logic gates, and to check that the scrambled data was recoverable, respectively.

Furthermore, a C++ simulation was created for the three scramblers. This simulation had two main purposes: firstly to cross check the output of the C++ against the Modelsim simulations; secondly to simulate the scrambler over a much larger simple of data as Modelsim simulations are less time effecient. In attition to the cross checks, the C++ code allowed for the injection of a descronisation event, in which the *'key'* is lost. As expected, the Additive Scarmbler was unable to recover any data post descronisation, however the intermediate and VeloPix scarmblers both recovered the *'key'* after two frames and continioud to recover data.

1.4 Algorithm Analysis

For analytical purposes, it is assumed that fully scrambled data is indistinguishable from randomly generated data. For this reason, the three algorithms are not only tested against each other and the pre-scrambled QWT data but also randomly generated binary. The randomly generated data was created using the Python ‘*random*’ library, selecting a ‘0’ or ‘1’ with equal probability. While the Python ‘*random*’ library is only pseudo-random, on the scale of this example (i.e. $\gg 100,000$ frames), it is by far sufficient.

A more mathematically rigorous approach, however, is to evaluate the system abstractly in the framework of statistical physics. In this abstraction, the 120 bit frame (with the header and parity removed) is considered an ensemble; microstates are the particular form of the frames; and macroscopic quantities can be calculated by averaging a large number of frames (i.e. the desync data). For the analysis outlined in section 1.4.1, predictions will be made using these principles and outlined in section 1.4.2.

In the context of the statistical model, it is reasonable to consider the degree of ‘*scrambledness*’ analogous to entropy. This analogy is not dissimilar to the common interpretation of entropy as a measure of disorder.

$$S \sim \ln(\Omega) \tag{1.1}$$

where Ω is the number of microstates associated with the macrostate, we learn that this state of maximum entropy is a macrostate with the maximum number of associated microstates.

The entropic argument of Equation 1.1 is not only mathematically founded. For a scramble algorithm to hold for all possible data sets, it must also be capable of outputting all possible permutations. As such, assuming all possible outputs are equally likely, the count of each macroscopic output will be proportional to the number of microstates associated.

1.4.1 Measurements of the Algorithms

To compare the efficiency of the three algorithms in section 1.2, the algorithms were run over the same input data and compared for the following measures:

Number of Transitions Per Frame

This measure counts the total number of bit transitions (i.e. $bit(n) \neq bit(n-1)$) in a 120 bit frame. The header and parity information was not included as they are not scrambled. This is an important test as one of the roles of the scrambler is to maximise the number of transitions.

Common Bit Chain Length

One of the downsides of the ‘Number of Transitions Per Frame’ analysis is that the two hypothetical 20 bit frames,

- a) 10101010101111111111,
b) 10011001100110011001,

both with 10 transitions, are considered equaly. However, (b) is clearly a more suitable output for data transfer as (a) has a large probability of desynchronised due to the long chains of '1's in the right most bits. It is therefore also nessecary to evaluate the length of common bit chains within the scrambled data as shorter chains are more suitable for data transfer.

Bit Asymetry

Pre-scramble, the data had a large bais towards '0's due to the majority of the hitmaps being empty. Scrambled data, via entropic arguments, *should* show zero bias eitherway. Therefor, by investigating how the number of '1's - '0's evolves over many frames, any bias in the scrambler can be found.

1.4.2 Statistical Predictions

Number of Transitions Per Frame

Consider a particle in a symmetric, descrete time-dependent, two state system,

$$p_0(t) = p_1(t) = 0.5 \quad : \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{N}, \quad (1.2)$$

At each time itteration,

$$p_{i \rightarrow j}(t) = 0.5 \quad : \quad i, j = [0 \ 1], \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (1.3)$$

However, assuming zero bias and detailed balance, as $p_{1 \rightarrow 0}(t)$ is equal in both probalility and importance to $p_{0 \rightarrow 1}(t)$, the probability of a bit change shall herefore be refered to as $p_t(t)$.

Over a n step process, analogous to a n bit frame, the probalility distribution of the number of transitions N_t is given by Binomial statistics,

$$f(N_t) = \frac{n!}{N_t!(n - N_t)!} p^{N_t} (1 - p)^{n - N_t} \quad (1.4)$$

Simplified for the special case $p = p_t = 0.5$,

$$f_t(N_t) = \frac{n!}{N_t!(n - N_t)!} (p_t)^n \quad (1.5)$$

For $n = 120$, we can calulate,

$$\langle N_t \rangle^{Binomial} = \sum_{N_t=0}^{n-1} N_t f(N_t) = n p_t = 60 \quad (1.6)$$

$$\sigma_{N_t}^{Binomial} = \sqrt{n p_t^2} = 5.48 \quad (1.7)$$

Furthermore, when considering the entropic argument in section 1.4 equation 1.1, the number of microstates corresponding to each macrostate N_t can be related to equation 1.5,

$$\Omega_t \sim \frac{n!}{N_t!(n - N_t)!} \quad (1.8)$$

$$\langle N_t \rangle^{Entropic} = MAX[S_t] = MAX[\Omega_t] \quad (1.9)$$

This can be numerically solved,

$$\langle N_t \rangle^{Entropic} = 60 \quad (1.10)$$

While the result of equation 1.10 does not contribute anything new, it is important as a ‘sanity check’. Because the system can be described as in section 1.4, it would indicate a problem in the theoretical framework if the result did not match.

Common Bit Chain Length

The probability of a chain of length n is,

$$p_n = p_1(1 - p_t)^{n-1}, \quad : \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad n > 1 \quad (1.11)$$

where p_1 is the number of chains of length 1. As $p_1 = N_0(1 - p_t)$, where N_0 is the total number of chains,

$$\frac{N_n}{N_0} = (1 - p_t)^n, \quad : \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad n > 1 \quad (1.12)$$

where N_n is the number of chains of length n . Taking the log of both sides,

$$\begin{aligned} \log\left(\frac{N_n}{N_0}\right) &= n \log(1 - p_t), \\ \log(N_n) &= n \log(1 - p_t) + \log(N_0). \end{aligned} \quad (1.13)$$

Therefore, for a graph of $\log(N_n)$ against n for a large sample of data, the gradient would be $\log(1 - p_t)$. In this case, as $p_t = 0.5$,

$$\log(1 - p_t) = -0.30. \quad (1.14)$$

Bit Asymetry

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$A_{1,0}$, the assymetry of ‘1’s and ‘0’s is defined as,

$$A_{1,0} = N_1 - N_0, \quad (1.15)$$

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where N_1 and N_0 are the number of ‘1’s and ‘0’s respectively. We can consider the evolution of $A_{1,0}$ with frame t of size n as a stockastic iterative map with zero deterministic growth [3],

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$$A_{1,0}(nt + n \Delta t) = A_{1,0}(nt) + \mathcal{N}(nt) \quad (1.16)$$

Where \mathcal{N} is an independant random variable picked from a gaussian distribution. While $A_{1,0}(t) \in \mathbb{Z}$, in the limit of large nt we can approximate that $A_{1,0}$ is continious. If we consider the moments of $A_{1,0}$,

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$$\langle A_{1,0}(nt = M n \Delta t) \rangle = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \mathcal{N}(m n \Delta t), \quad (1.17)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A_{1,0}(nt = M n \Delta t)^2 \rangle &= \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{m'=0}^{M-1} \mathcal{N}(m n \Delta t) \mathcal{N}(m' n \Delta t) \delta_{mm'} \\ &= \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \langle \mathcal{N}(m n \Delta t)^2 \rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (1.18)$$

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Clearly, in Equation 1.17, $\langle A_{1,0} \rangle = 0$. In Equation 1.18, we assume the variance is of form $(n \Delta t)^\alpha$ [3]. Then,

$$\langle A_{1,0}(nt = M n \Delta t)^2 \rangle = M(n \Delta t)^\alpha. \quad (1.19)$$

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Running the analysis over the frames $t = 0$ to t_f , the number of bits sampled is $M = t_f/n \Delta t$. Substituting this into Equation 1.19,

$$\langle A_{1,0}(nt = M n \Delta t)^2 \rangle = t_f (n \Delta t)^{\alpha-1}. \quad (1.20)$$

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Concidering the three cases of α in the approximation of continious $n\Delta t$:

- $\alpha > 1$: Here $A_{1,0} \rightarrow 0$ as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$.
- $\alpha < 1$: Here $A_{1,0} \rightarrow \infty$ as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$.
- $\alpha = 1$: This is the only sensible choice.

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With $\alpha = 1$,

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$$\langle A_{1,0}(nt = M \ n \ \Delta t)^2 \rangle = M(n \ \Delta t). \quad (1.21)$$

And thus,

$$\sigma_{A_{1,0}} = \sqrt{\langle A_{1,0}^2 \rangle - \langle A_{1,0} \rangle^2} = \sqrt{\langle A_{1,0}^2 \rangle} = \sqrt{n \ \Delta t}. \quad (1.22)$$

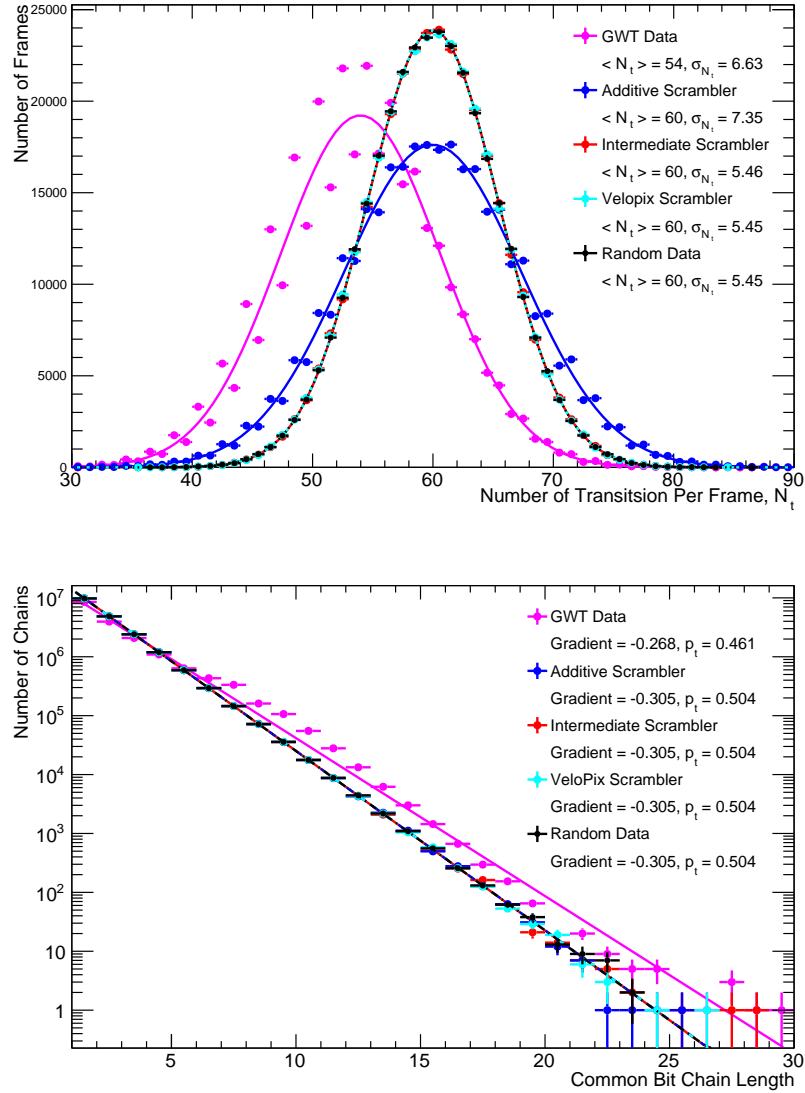


Figure 1.1: Results of the ‘*Number of Transitions Per Frame*’ analysis (Top) and the ‘*Common Bit Chain Length*’ analysis (Bottom). The results for the Random Data, Intermediate Scrambler and VeloPix Scrambler overlap for the ‘*Number of Transitions Per Frame*’ analysis. The results for the Random Data, Additive Scrambler, Intermediate Scrambler and VeloPix Scrambler approximately overlap for the ‘*Common Bit Chain Length*’ analysis.

The results from the ‘*Number of Transitions Per Frame*’ analysis, shown in Figure 1.1, show a strong correlation between the Intermediate and VeloPix Scramblers with the randomly generated data. These results are within 1% agreement with the theoretical predictions for $\langle N_t \rangle = 60$ and $\sigma_{N_t} = 5.48$, made in Section 1.4.2. The remarkable consistency between the theoretical predictions and the randomly generated data provides confidence in both the theory, and the scrambled nature of the Intermediate and VeloPix scrambler outputs.

All three scramblers, the random data, and the theoretical predictions are all consistent to within 1%. Comparing the two results for the Additive Scrambler, it is shown that

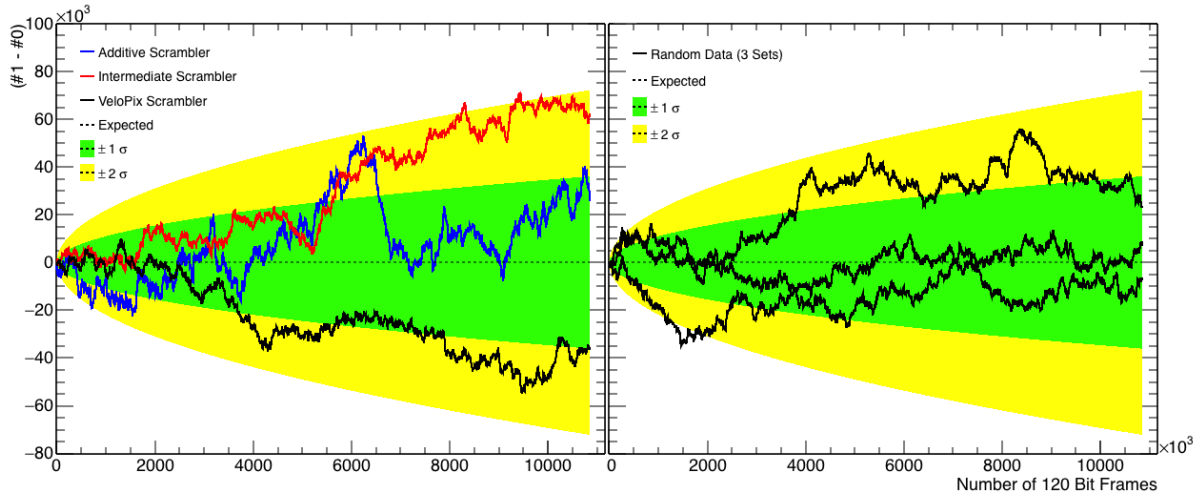


Figure 1.2: The results of the ‘*Bit Asymmetry*’ analysis.

while the frequency of longer chains is consistent with random data; but as the variance of transitions is larger than predicted, the long and short trains are more locally clustered.

The ‘*Bit Asymmetry*’ of each scrambler, shown in Figure 1.2, is consistent with the theoretical prediction. The deviation of $A_{1,0}$ for the predicted mean of 0 is fully consistent with stochastic noise. The random data also shows consistency. This gives confidence in the assumptions made in Section 1.4.2.

One notable feature of Figure 1.2 is the steep gradient of the additive scrambler at $t \sim 6 \cdot 10^6$. However, as the data stays within the theoretical limits and the ‘*drop*’ is of approximately $\Delta A_{1,0} \sim 60 \cdot 10^3$ over the range $n \Delta t \sim 1.2 \cdot 10^8$ it would be difficult to construct any argument claiming that this feature is of statistical significance.

(I am tempted to run χ^2 analysis for a fit of $y=0$ so show that the data is consistent with the model, but am not sure this will actually add to the argument?)

1.5 Conclusion

The consistency of random data and the theoretical predictions justifies the assumptions and approximations made in Section 1.4 and Section 1.4.2. Furthermore, the conformation of the statistical model allows for accurate comparisons to be made from predicted values and their measured counterparts.

The Additive Scrambler, while consistent with the ‘*Chain Length*’ and ‘*Bit Asymmetry*’ analysis, has a variance in the transition frequency that leads to the conclusion that long and short chains are locally clustered. This is not ideal for data transfer. Many sequential long chains increase the probability of TX-RX clock desynchronisation. Furthermore, the additive scrambler will not recover from this loss of synchronisation, as the ‘*key*’ will never be recovered without a common reset signal.

	$\langle N_t \rangle$	σ_{N_t}	Gradient	p_t
GQT data	54	6.63	-0.268	0.460
Additive Scrambler	60	7.35	-0.305	0.504
Intermediate Scrambler	60	5.45	-0.305	0.504
Velopix Scrambler	60	5.46	-0.305	0.504
Random Data	60	5.45	-0.305	0.504
Theoretical Prediction	60	5.48	-0.3	0.5

Table 1.1: The combined results of the algorithm analysis.

226 The Intermediate Scrambler produced an output consistant with random data. This
 228 makes the algorithm suitable of data transfer. As already mentioned¹, however, the
 228 scrambler is designed for computer simulated. As such, it is not suitable for implemen-
 228 tation as it does not meet the additions requirments of the ASIC.

230 The VeloPix Scrambler, like the Intermediate Scrambler, produces a statistically scram-
 230 bled output. Furthermore, the algorithm in inline with the additional requirments of the
 232 ASIC. As such, it ideal for implementation, and hense is currently the choice algorithm
 232 for use in the 2019 VELO upgrade.

¹Note to Marco: this is in the scrabler options section

234 References

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