

ALBERT-LUDWIGS-UNIVERSITÄT FREIBURG

MASTER THESIS

Readout of a five dimensional Calorimeter

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Abstract

todo

Zusammenfassung

todo

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

So far the best physical description of the universe is provided by the **sm!** (**sm!**). But through observations of different phenomena, which the **sm!** can not explain, like neutrino oscillation [1] and the rotation velocity in galaxies [2], it is known, that the **sm!** can not be a complete theory [3]. Therefore different experiments are in development or are operating to search for new physics and new particles outside the **sm!**. One of these experiments is the proposed **ship!** (**ship!**) experiment. Some experiments are at the energy frontier, using large energy scale trying to discover new particles. The experiments at the **lhc!** (**lhc!**) are examples for energy frontier experiments. Other experiments are at the cosmic frontier, using for example cosmic background radiation. The third frontier is the intensity frontier. The zero background **ship!** experiment is one of the intensity frontier experiment searching for rare events. Observing such rare events requires a high interaction rate. To achieve this, **ship!** is planned to be a beam dump experiment at the **sps!** (**sps!**) accelerator ring at CERN, as shown in [4]. The goal is to dump the high intensity 400 GeV proton beam into a fixed target and thereby creating long lived particles outside of the **sm!**, e.g. heavy neutral leptons and light supersymmetric particles [5].

Figure 1.1: An overview of the SPS area with the SHiP experiment planned as beam dump experiment in the north area. [6]

Figure 1.2: Overview of the proposed setup for the SHiP experiment. The target on the left is used as a beam dump for the SPS. Most standard model particles get absorbed by the hadron absorber directly behind the target. A magnetic muon shield deflects the muon, which won't be absorbed by the hadron absorber, away from the beam line. After the muon shield is a scattering and neutrino detector and afterwards the 50 m long decay volume in which non standard model particles created at the target can decay into standard model particles. To achieve the zero background goal, the Surround Background Tagger is around the decay volume. Behind the decay volume the decay spectrometer is placed. [?]

In ?? the overall structure of **ship!** is shown. At the beginning, the 400 GeV gets dumped into the fixed target. Through the many interactions happening at the target, a lot of **sm!** particles will be created. In order to block the **sm!** particles, two shields are placed after the target. The first is a hadron absorber in which all **sm!** particles except muons and neutrinos are absorbed. The second is the muon shield. It uses magnetic fields to deflect the muons away from the beam line. The neutrinos cannot be blocked or deflected, but they are likely to be detected in the scattering and neutrino detector behind the muon shield. After the neutrino detector a 50 m long vacuum chamber is positioned. If a non **sm!** particle is created at the target, it can decay inside the vacuum decay chamber back into **sm!** particles. The decay products then get measured in the decay spectrometer behind the decay chamber.

One problem for the measurement are **sm!** particles entering the decay volume and causing events in the spectrometer. An example of such a background are muons deflected by the muon shield but afterwards reflected by the walls of the facility into the decay volume. Therefore it is crucial for the zero background requirement to detect the particles entering the decay volume and tagging every event that could be caused by the entering particle as background. For this the **sbt!** (**sbt!**) is in development. It is presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 2

One Cell Prototype

2.1 Silicon Photomultiplier

In order to correctly identify and tag background events, the light detection of the **sbt!** has to provide accurate timing information. Therefore **sipm!**s (**sipm!**s) were chosen as photodetectors. These photodetectors consist of up to thousands of pixels. Each pixel is a photodiode with a typical edge length between $10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and $100\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ [?]. If triggered by light, a **sipm!** sends out a charge signal proportional to the incoming light. This charge possesses a fast-rising edge with a rise time of the order of tens of ns [?]. Besides the good time resolution, **sipm!**s also make it possible to count the arriving photons with a sensitivity down to single photons [?].

Similar to every photodiode, **apd!**s (**apd!**s) utilize the photoelectric effect, to generate an electric charge signal in response to a light signal. This is made possible by using silicon as a base material and introducing impurities. This process is called doping and there are two different possibilities for doping. In the n-doping, the impurities are atoms with five valence electrons. Four of these electrons are part of the bondings with silicon atoms, and the fifth electron is only weakly bound. When p-doping, atoms with only three valence electrons are inserted into the silicon. This leads to missing charges in the silicon, called holes. By having an n-doped and a p-doped region in the silicon, the excess electrons from the n-doped region combine with the holes from the p-doped region, resulting in a depleted region at the pn-junction. If a photon hits the photodiode, it can create an electron-hole pair, or

Figure 2.1: Composition of a avalanche photo diode with the bias voltage V_B applied in reverse direction. Between the contact to ground and the strongly doped n^+ layer is the quenching resistor R_q connected in series. Next to the n^+ layer is a strongly doped p^+ layer. In the region of these two layers is the electric field, shown on the right figure, the strongest. There a electron or hole can initiate an avalanche. After the p^+ layer comes a intrinsic weakly doped π layer. This layer increases the sensitive volume of the diode. If a electron-hole pair is created and seperated by the electric field. The hole drifts towards the multiplication region and can start an avalanche. The next layer is a p^+ layer which connects to a metal connector and high voltage. [?]

eh -pair. The electron and the hole get split by the electric field and thus create a charge signal. In order to increase the sensitivity of the photodiode, an intrinsic layer can be added in between the two doped regions, thus increasing the depletion layer and therefore the photosensitive area. Such a photodiode is called a pin-diode. An **apd!** with a weakly doped π intrinsic layer and strongly doped p^+ and n^+ layers is shown in ?? . This intrinsic layer can either be not doped at all or weakly doped. In the case of **apd!**s the intrinsic layer is weakly doped. In order to amplify the signal, a strong doped region is inserted, thus creating a multiplication zone.

When a reverse bias voltage is applied to the **apd!**, the electric field between the n^+ and p^+ layers is strong enough that a created eh -pair creates more eh -pairs, resulting in an avalanche. For this avalanche process to be possible the reverse bias voltage must be at or above the breakdown voltage of the **apd!**. With such a bias voltage applied, the **apd!** operates in the Geiger mode and the avalanche is then self-sustaining. This results in a macroscopic signal and makes the detection of single photons possible. Therefore these diodes are also called **spad!** (**spad!**). To stop the avalanche, a quenching resistor is connected in series with the **spad!**. With an increasing current signal flowing through the quenching resistor, the voltage drop at this resistor increases, and thus the bias voltage at the **spad!** decreases. When the bias voltage drops under the breakdown voltage, the avalanche is no longer self-sustaining and stops. Thus the signal amplitude of a **spad!** is always similar, independent of how many photons arrive at the same moment. In **sipm!**s hundreds to thousand **spad!**s are connected in parallel, each with a high resistance quenching resistor in series. Usually, the **spad!** pixels are placed in a rectangular form with an

Figure 2.2: Single photon avalanche diode signal shape. The exponential rise with the time constant $R_S \cdot C_d$ is followed by the exponential decay with the time constants $R_q \cdot C_d$. The maximum of the current signal is at approximately V_{ov}/R_q [?]

edge length of a few mm. ?? shows a picture of a **sipm!** and one picture of a single pixel of a **sipm!**. Due to the property of the **spad!**s that the output signal is always similar for each **spad!**, the output signal of a **sipm!** is the output signal of one **spad!** multiplied with the number of triggered **spad!**s. Therefore, if the number of photons arriving simultaneously at a **sipm!** is low enough, that the probability of one **spad!** being hit by two or more photons is low, one can count photons with a **sipm!**. This and the relatively low cost, high durability, and impassivity to magnetic fields make them a good option for photodetection for the **sbt!** and similar detectors.

In the following different properties of **sipm!**s are presented, beginning with the signal shape of a single **spad!** and of a **sipm!**.

The signal shape of a **spad!**s starts with a fast exponential rise with the time constant

$$\tau_{\text{rise}} = R_S \cdot C_d \quad (2.1)$$

with the resistance R_{rise} and capacitance C_d of the **spad!** [?]. After the signal reached its maximum current at around

$$I_{\text{max}} \approx \frac{V_{\text{ov}}}{R_q} \quad (2.2)$$

the quenching and recharging of the **spad!** starts. Thus the current signal decreases again exponentially. The time constant for the signal decay

$$\tau_{\text{decay}} = R_q \cdot C_d \quad (2.3)$$

depends on the capacitance C_d of the **spad!** and the quenching resistor R_q [?]. This signal development is shown in ??.

When multiple **spad!**s in a **sipm!** are triggered, the output signal will be the sum-

mation of the signals from all triggered **spad!**s. Besides the number of triggered **spad!**s, the time difference between the signals from the single **spad!**s influences the signal. In the case, that all **spad!**s are triggered at the same time, the **sipm!** signal will have the shape of a **spad!** signal scaled up by the factor of the number of triggered **spad!**s. If the signals from the individual **spad!**s have a small difference in time, the **sipm!** signal will become broader.

The gain G of a **sipm!** describes the number of charge carriers released in each avalanche. Due to the quenching, this parameter is well defined []. It can be calculated from the applied voltage U_{bias} , the breakdown voltage U_{bd} and the capacitance C_d of a **spad!** with

$$G = \frac{(V_{\text{bias}} - V_{\text{bd}}) \cdot C_d}{e}. \quad (2.4)$$

Here e represents the charge of one electron. Usually the gain is in the order of 10^5 to 10^7 [?].

The noise in **sipm!**s can be sorted into two categories. The first is primary noise, it describes the triggering of avalanches by thermally created eh -pairs and not by incident photons. Because the rate of these thermally caused events increases and decreases with the temperature, by controlling the temperature one can influence and decrease the rate of primary noise events. The second category is the correlated noise. It includes all events triggered by a primary event. This correlated noise does have two causes. One cause is the trapping and releasing of charge carriers from the avalanche. When the time between the trapping and releasing is long enough, the avalanche of the primary event stopped and the released carrier can trigger another avalanche.

2.1.1 Photoelectron spectrum

After the theory and important properties of **sipm!**s are now introduced, the next chapter will present the measurement setup and data acquisition used for this thesis.

2.2 The **emusic!** (**emusic!**) Board

Since the signals of the **sipm!**s are very small, a single photoelectron signal has an amplitude of around 2.5 mV, they need to be amplified. For this purpose the **emusic! asic!** (**asic!**) by Scientifica was chosen and a custom **pcb!** (**pcb!**) housing the **emusic! asic!**, from here on called **emusic!** board, was designed by the electrical engineers of the University of Freiburg. In the following first the **asic!** itself and afterwards the **emusic!** board will be presented.

The **emusic! asic!** was developed by Scientifica for the readout of **sipm!**s. It is mainly an amplifier and a shaper, but also offers other options like digital trigger signals if the signal crosses an adjustable threshold. The **asic!**'s block diagram is shown in ???. It has eight input channels each equipped with a ≈ 1 V anode voltage control to equalize the applied overvoltage between the different channels. Because the **sipm!**s deliver a charge signal, each channel has a current mode input stage. The **emusic! asic!** was designed to have a low input transimpedance, but provides the option of a high transimpedance mode with which the gain can be increased. Each individual channel has bandwidth of 150 MHz and a pole-zero cancellation chapter, shown in ??, with two adjustable resistors and a adjustable capacitor. It can be used to decrease the time constant

$$\tau = C_1 \cdot R_1 \quad (2.5)$$

of the output signal to achieve a pulse width below 10 ns FWHM. But a smaller width also attenuates the amplitude of the signal. Although the **emusic!** provides the option of a lower attenuation mode of the pole-zero cancellation, a compromise between smaller signal width and higher amplitude should be chosen depending on one's needs. Alternatively the pole-zero cancellation can be disabled completely, resulting in the highest signal amplitude possible with the **emusic!** but also in the longest signal. The signal after the shaper can be put out with an analogue output for each channel. Each channel also possesses a discriminator with an adjustable threshold to create a channel by channel trigger signal. These logical signals can be either put out by using the individual output of the channel for the digital signal

instead for the analog waveform or by using the fast OR of all channels. This fast OR allows for example the external triggering of the digitizer which then digitizes the analog waveforms if the waveform of one or more channels surpasses the threshold.

2.3 The Gandalf Framework

The amplified and shaped output signal of the **emusic! asic!** needs to be digitized. This step is done by Gandalf modules. Originally developed at the University of Freiburg for the **compass! (compass!)** experiment it has a modular design to fill different roles in the experiments **daq! (daq!)**. Using mezzanin cards different signal, clock and trigger inputs can be chosen. In the following the Gandalf framework will be introduced. The mezzanin cards not used in this work are therefore only mentioned but not presented in detail. A overview of a Gandalf module is shown in ??.

Input Mezzanin Cards

The Gandalf module has two mezzanin card slots for input signals. For these slots three different mezzanine cards were developed, **amc! (amc!)**, **dmc! (dmc!)** and **omc! (omc!)**. First the latter two mezzanine cards are shortly presented for completeness but are not relevant for the work done in this thesis.

The dmc! has 64 digital inputs. A picture of it is shown in ??. Using either the LVDS or the LVPECL signal standard, one can use the DSP-**fpga! (fpga!)** logic for tasks like trigger decisions, time-to-digital conversion or pattern generators, to name a few. By changing the direction of the input buffer on the **dmc! pcb!**, the 64 channels of the **dmc!** can be used as outputs instead of inputs.

The omc! has four 3.25 Gs transceivers to receive digital informations, which can be further processed by the DSP-**fpga!**. With this mezzanine card, the GANDALF can be used for example to merge data or as a concentrator. A picture of a **omc!** is shown in ??.



Figure 2.3: Overview of the Gandalf module equipped with Analog Mezzanin Cards (AMCs) and the fiber Gimli mezzanin card for clock and trigger input. The analog waveforms are digitized by the AMCs and the digitized data is processed by the DSP FPGA. The MEM FPGA handles the memory of the processed data, which can be transferred to a computer via the USB interface on the front of the VME or S-Link interfaces on the backplane. [?]

The **amc!** is designed to digitize analog input signals. For the digitization, eight **adc!** (**adc!**) are used. There are **amc!** with two different **adc!** available. One is the *ADS5463* with 12 and up to $500 \frac{\text{MS}}{\text{s}}$ and the other is the *ADS5474* which samples with up to $400 \frac{\text{MS}}{\text{s}}$ at 14. The **enob!** (**enob!**) of both **adc!**s are 10.4 and 11.2 respectively. Each **amc!** has eight SMC connectors for the inputs. There are **amc!** operating in *normal mode*, meaning each SMC connector is connected to one **adc!**, resulting in eight channels with up to $500 \frac{\text{MS}}{\text{s}}$ or $400 \frac{\text{MS}}{\text{s}}$ per **amc!**. In order to increase the sample frequency, **amc!** which operate in the *interleaved mode* were build. On these **amc!**s four inputs are connected to two **adc!**s each and therefore every second SMC connector is a dead end. The clock signals which provide the sample tact for the two **adc!**s of one channel have 180° phase offset in respect to each other. By this the sample frequency is doubled to up to $1 \frac{\text{GS}}{\text{s}}$ or $800 \frac{\text{MS}}{\text{s}}$, but the number of channels per **amc!** is reduced from eight to four. The dynamic input range of the **amc!** is 4.4 and can be shifted from the negative unipolar range -4.4 V to 0 V up to the bipolar range -2.2 V to 2.2 V . This shifting is done by a *AD5665R*, a 16 **dac!** (**dac!**). The dynamic range was chosen because in the COMPASS experiment, for which the GANDALF was developed, negative voltage pulses created by **pmt!**s (**pmt!**s) needed to be digitized. But because the used **adc!**s expect positive differential signals, inverting operational amplifiers are used to change the polariy of the signal. By changing the gain of the amplifiers one can decrease the input range and therefore increase the amplitude resolution. The **amc!**s used in this thesis are 12 **amc!**s in the *interleaved mode* and a dynamic range of 2.2.

Usage of the GANDALF with **sipm!**s

In this work, the GANDALF was used to digitize the ouput signal of the **emusic!** **ascii!** (**ascii!**). As mentioned in above in ?? theses signals have a positive polarity. But because the GANDALF was designed for the digitization and processing of negative voltage pulses created by a **pmt!**, this caused some problems. Since after the inverting operational amplifiers in the GANDALF the **sipm!** signals have a negative polarity, the input voltage range needs to be chosen to be bipolar and around -1.1 V to 1.1 V . In order to get this input range the baseline at 0 V would need

to be set to 2047 ADC_u. For unknown reasons the program which configures the **daq!**s to set the baseline to a ADC_u value selectable by the user will set the baseline to a maximum of around 1400 ADC_u. With $\frac{2.2}{2^{12}} \frac{\text{V}}{\text{ADC}_u} = 0.537 \frac{\text{mV}}{\text{ADC}_u}$ the range of the inverted signal is 1400 ADC_u which corresponds to approximately 752 mV. Should this range be not enough, one needs to either try to find the source of the problem and fix it or decrease the amplification of the **emusic! asic!**.

The next problem regards the self-trigger of the GANDALF. It functions via samples-over-threshold, the user can set a threshold and a number of consecutive samples which need to be over the threshold for the GANDALF to trigger an event. Since after the inverting of the positive signals the signals have a negative polarity, the threshold needs to be set to a lower ADC_u value than the baseline. In addition to that the sample-over-threshold condition in the GANDALF firmware needed to be inverted to trigger if a number of consecutive samples are below the threshold. The new firmware with the inverted trigger condition was tested and works as intended with the exception of one bug. If the data rate from the GANDALF to the **daq!** computer exceeds the maximum possible data rate, 20 Ms in case of the USB interface, incomplete events will be written down to disk. This is most likely caused by a missing VHDL file that was not included in the new firmware and which would, incase the buffer of the GANDALF is completely filled, prevent the GANDALF to send incomplete events to the computer. For the intended use of this bug should not be a problem, since the data rate is expected to be way below the possible 20 Ms.

Chapter 3

Setup

Chapter 4

Results of the daq! tests

Chapter 5

daq! performance at the desy! (desy!) testbeam

After the performance of the **daq!** was tested at the testbeam for one week with particles of known energy and known direction of movement, the long term performance of the one cell prototype and the **daq!** needs to be investigated. For this purpose, the one cell prototype is assembled at the University of Freiburg, where it is supposed to be taking continuously data for a year.

Chapter 6

Summary and Outlook

Appendix A

List of acronyms

| | |
|-------------|---|
| SM | Standard Model |
| LHC | Large Hadron Collider |
| SHiP | Search for Hidden Particle |
| SPS | Super Proton Synchrotron |
| SBT | Surround Background Tagger |
| SiPM | Silicon Photomultiplier |
| PCB | Printed Circuit Board |
| ASIC | Application Specific Integrated Circuit |
| DAC | Digital to Analog Converter |
| ADC | Analog to Digital Converter |
| APD | Avalanche Photodiode |
| DAQ | Data Acquisition |
| WOM | Wavelengthshifting Optical Module |
| SPAD | Single Photon Avalanche Diode |

DC Dark Count

DCR Dark Count Rate

FPGA Field Programmable Gate Array

DESY Deutsches Elektronen SYnchrotron

eMUSIC enhanced Multiple Use SiPM IC for photodetector readout

PMT Photomultiplier tube

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