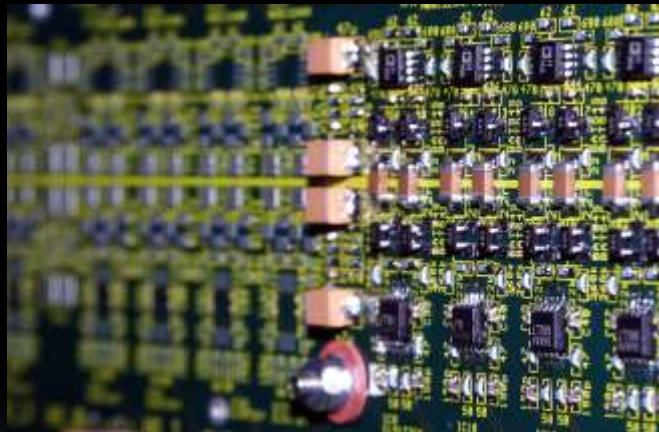


12 September 2014
Danube School @ Novi Sad

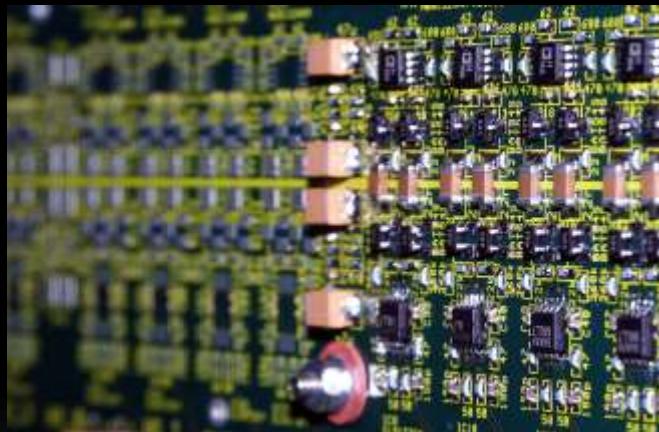
Electronics 1

Markus Friedl (HEPHY Vienna)

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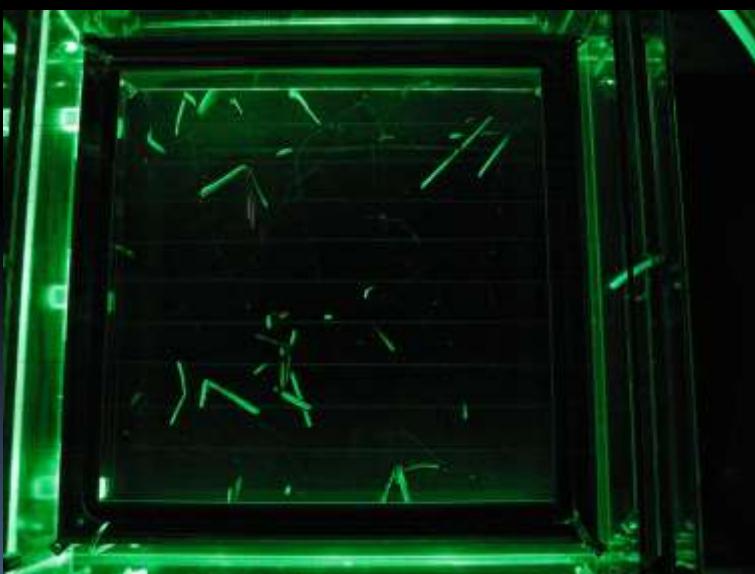
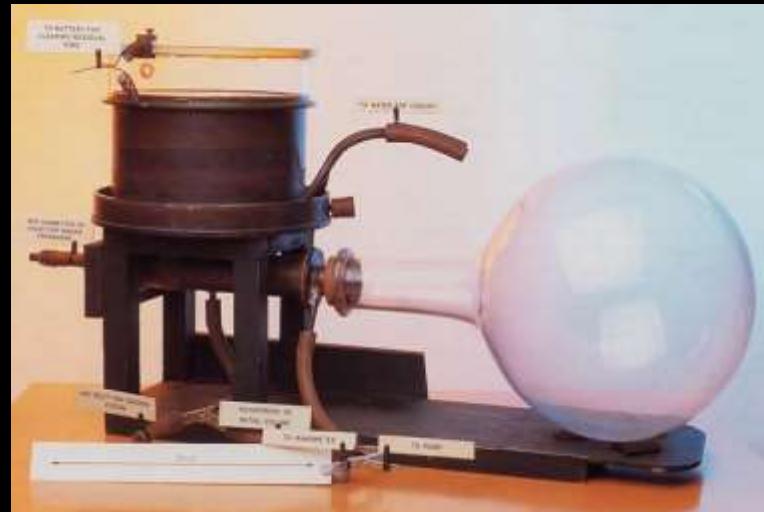
Early Detectors
Modern Detectors
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Detectors
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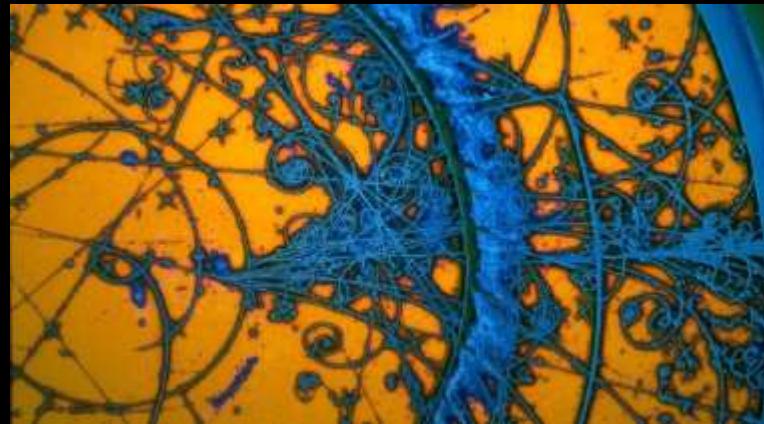
Early Detectors 1/4

- **Cloud chamber**
 - Supersaturated vapor
 - Ionization by charged particle creates condensation
 - Used 1920s...1950s



Early Detectors 2/4

- **Bubble chamber**
 - Like cloud chamber, but with superheated liquid
 - $O(1)$ photo/second
 - Used 1960s...1980s



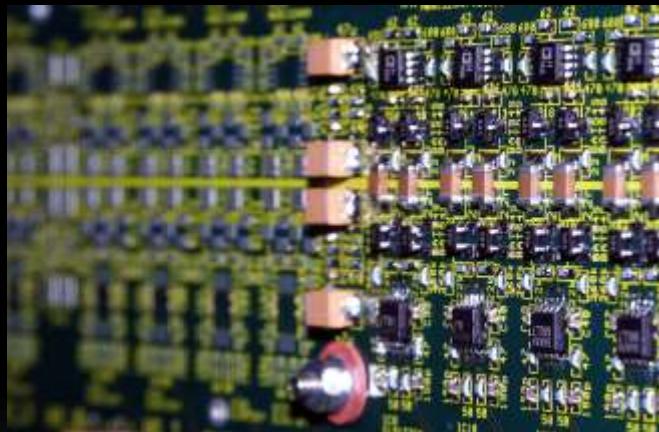
Early Detectors 3/4

- What do those historic detectors have in common?
- Their output is “visual” (captured by photography)
- No electronics involved
 - True for output data
 - Not exactly true in general, as bubble chambers were embedded in a strong magnet to bend charged particles depending on their momentum

Early Detectors 4/4

- “Scanning girls” working on bubble chamber photos
- Manual way of analog-to-digital conversion
- To provide particle track data for mainframe computers
- 1970s...1980s

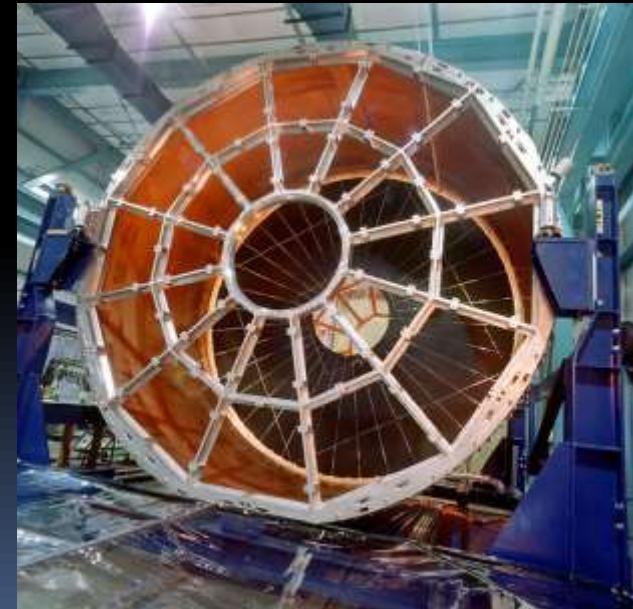




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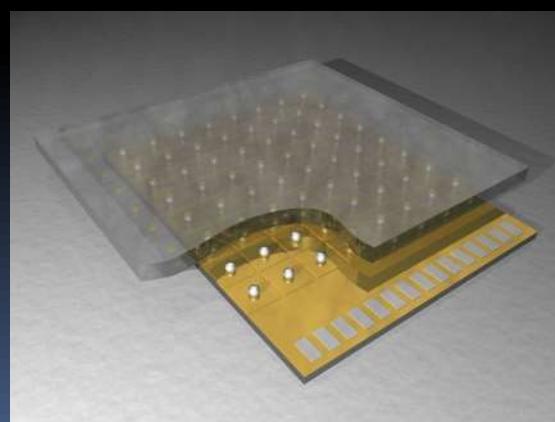
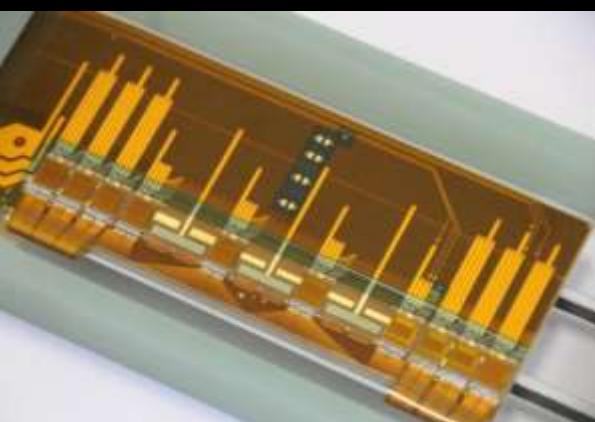
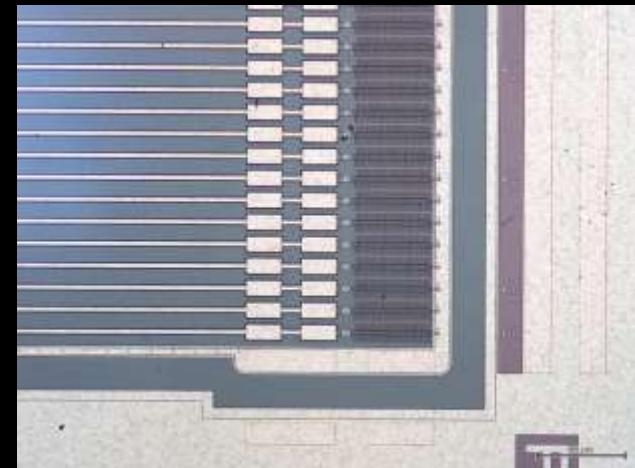
Modern Detectors 1/3

- Gas detectors
 - Multi-wire proportional chamber (MWPC)
 - Array of wires
 - Invented 1968 by Georges Charpak
 - Time projection chamber (TPC)
 - XY measurement by MWPC
 - Z measurement by drift time in gas volume
 - Invented 1974 by David Nygren
 - O(1000) measurements per second



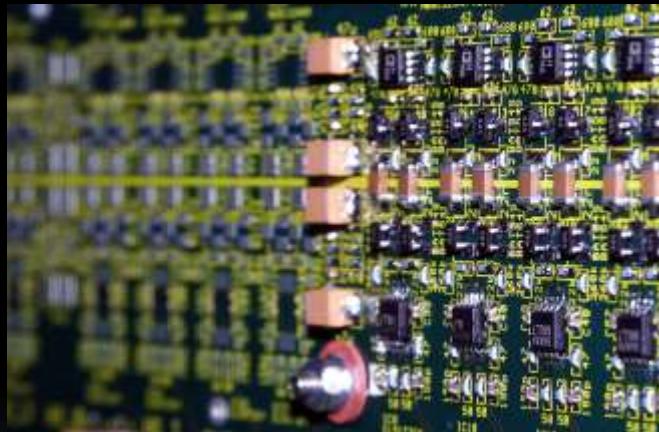
Modern Detectors 2/3

- Silicon detectors
 - Arrays of electrodes
 - Single-sided strips, double-sided strips and pixel geometries
 - Since 1990s
 - $O(100k)$ measurements per second



Modern Detectors 3/3

- What do those modern detectors have in common?
- Their output are electrical signals
- Lots of electronics involved



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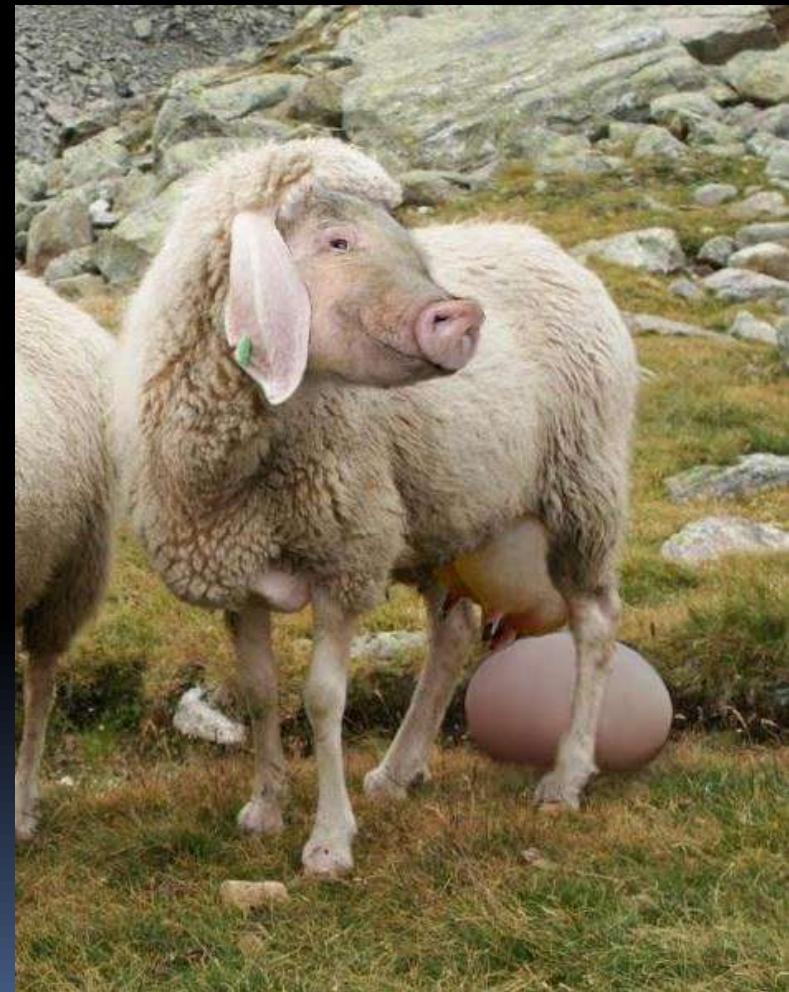
Why Electronics?

- Measure signals from a detector
 - Amplitude
 - Timing
 - Rate
 - ...
- **Amplification**, processing, storage of analog signals
- **Digitization**
- **Processing**, storage of digital signals

Ideal Electronics

- We want to have
 - **Amplification:** perfectly linear, infinitely fast, noise-free
 - **Digitization** with infinite speed and as many bits as we can
 - **Processing** with infinite speed, bandwidth and complexity

- German saying: “wool-milk-pig laying eggs”
 - *jack of all trades device*

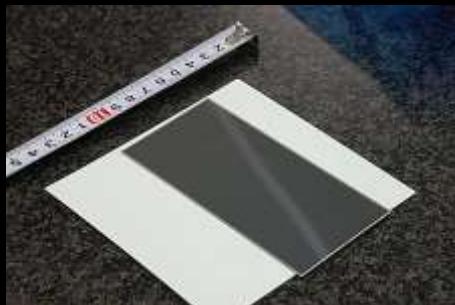


Back to Reality

- What we really get
 - Amplifiers always have limited linearity and speed, noise largely depends on bandwidth (faster \equiv noisier)
 - Digitization speed and number of bits are contradictory
 - Processing of course has speed, bandwidth and complexity limitations



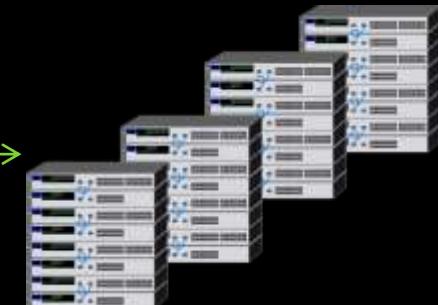
Where Is It?



Detector
front-end

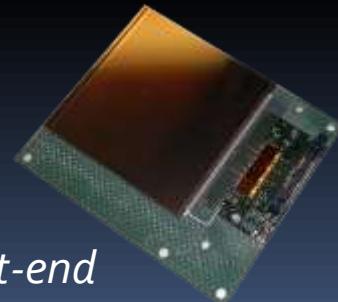


Electronics



Server Farm / DAQ
back-end

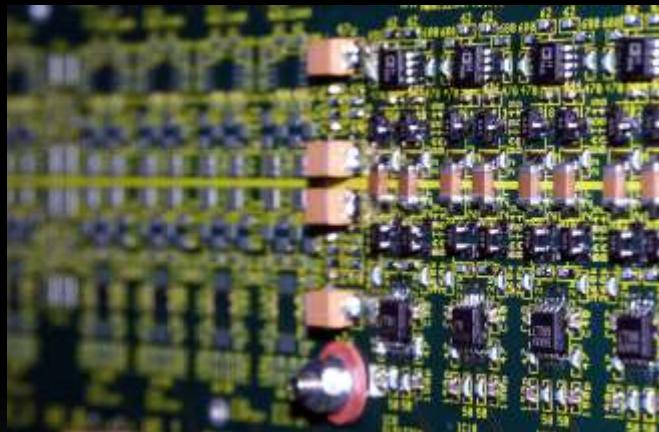
Typically split into 2 parts:



front-end

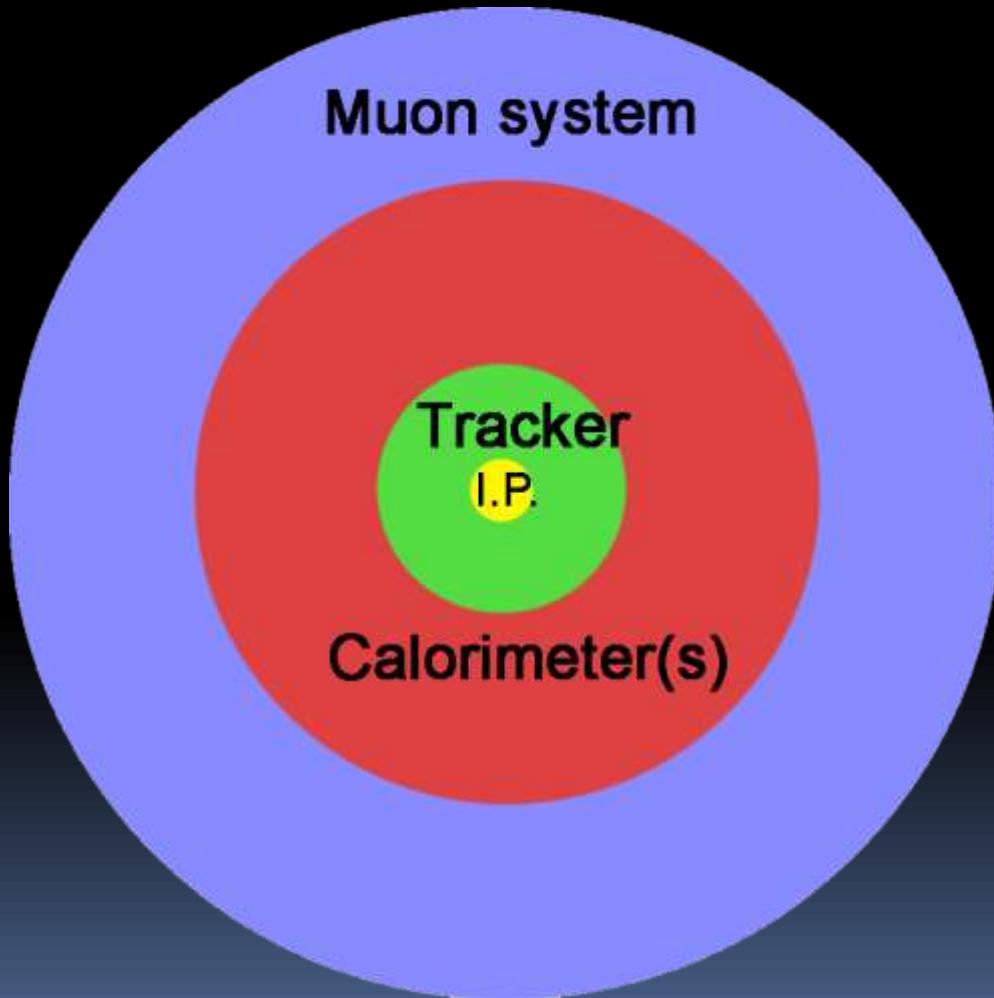


back-end



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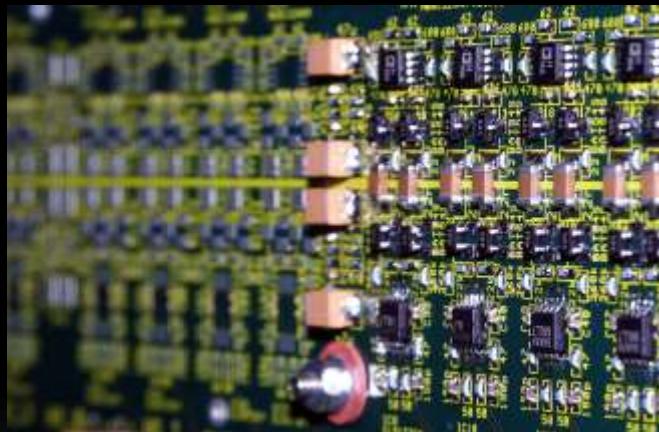
Concentric Layout



- General detector layout is concentric
- From inside to outside:
 - Interaction point
 - Tracker
 - Silicon/gaseous
 - Calorimeter
 - Electromagnetic
 - Hadronic
 - Muon Detector

Sensor Types

- Ionization (Electrical) – directly
 - Silicon detectors (pixel, strip)
 - Wire chambers (MWPC, TPC, RPC)
- Optical (Photons) – needs photon detector
 - Scintillator
 - Ring-Imaging Cherenkov (RICH)
 - Transition Radiation Detector (TRD)
- Thermal – needs SQUID: Bolometer
- Tracker
 - Silicon
 - Wire Chambers
- Calorimeter
 - Often scintillator, but also others
- Muon Detector
 - Wire chambers



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Tracker: Pixels

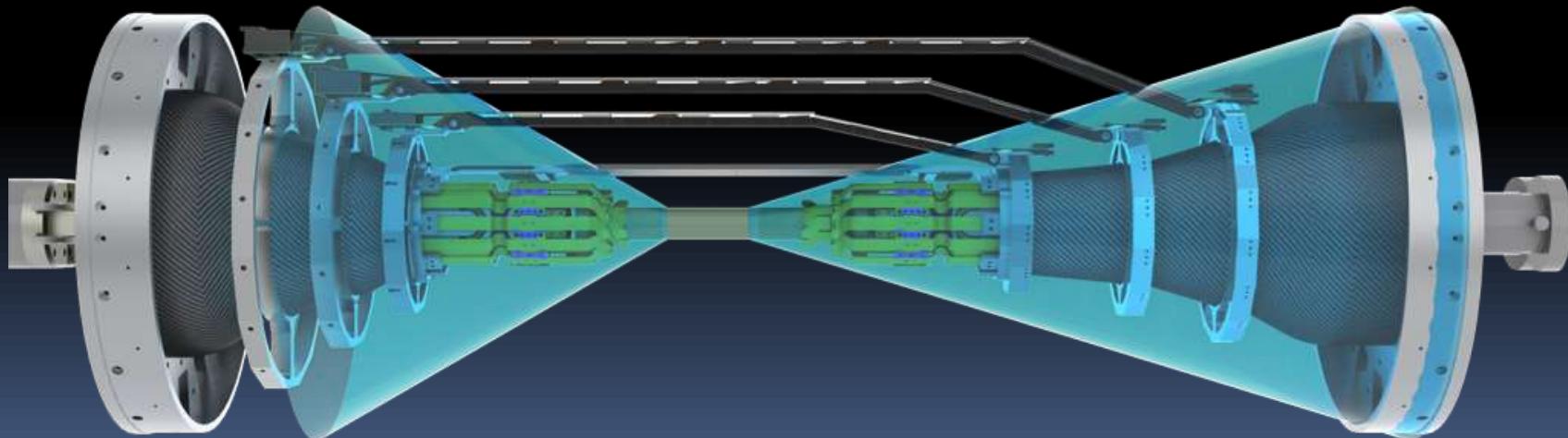
- Silicon detector segmented in pixels
 - Typical cell size $< 100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$
 - Lots of readout channels → high power & cost / area
- Two basic types
 - Hybrid: sensor and electronics are two different pieces bonded together
 - Pro: each manufactured in optimal process, radiation hard
 - Con: much material, difficult to assemble
 - Monolithic: all-in-one, typically using epitaxial layer
 - Pro: little material, easier to produce
 - Con: long integration time, low radiation resistance

What Is the Material Budget?

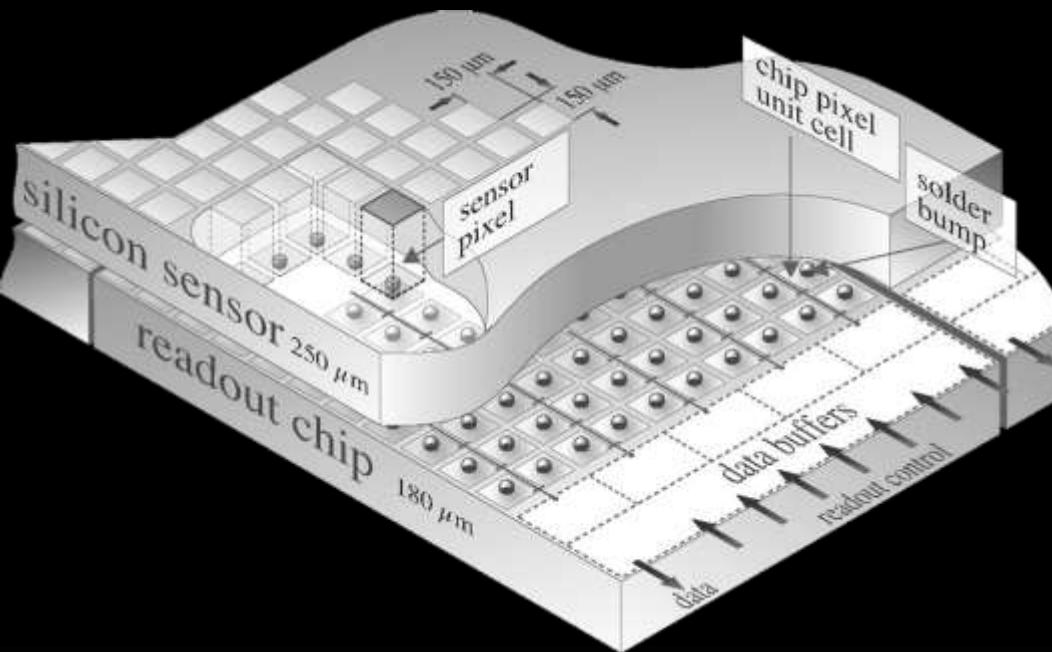
- The ideal tracking detector is made of **nothing**
- Any real material interacts with the particle
 - Necessary for detection
 - Not desirable because of potential deflection
- Material budget:
 - Given as a fraction of X_0 = radiation length
 - Multiple scattering depends on amount of material in units of X_0
 - Example: 300 μm silicon $\equiv 0.32\% X_0$
 - Important especially for low-energy experiments, because scattering is also energy-dependent

Hermetic vs. Non-Hermetic

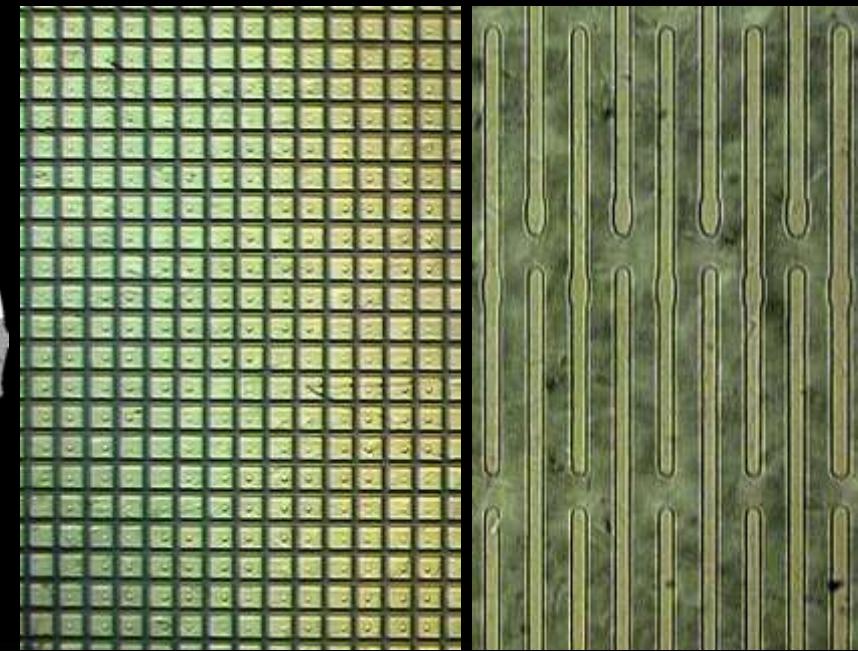
- A hermetic detector has an angular coverage of (almost) 4π
- That means material budget is important everywhere
- Special (low-energy) detectors are non-hermetic
 - E.g. Belle: $17\dots 150^\circ$ polar angle coverage
 - Heavy materials outside of the sensitive double cone



Hybrid Pixel Detectors



CMS Pixel Readout Scheme

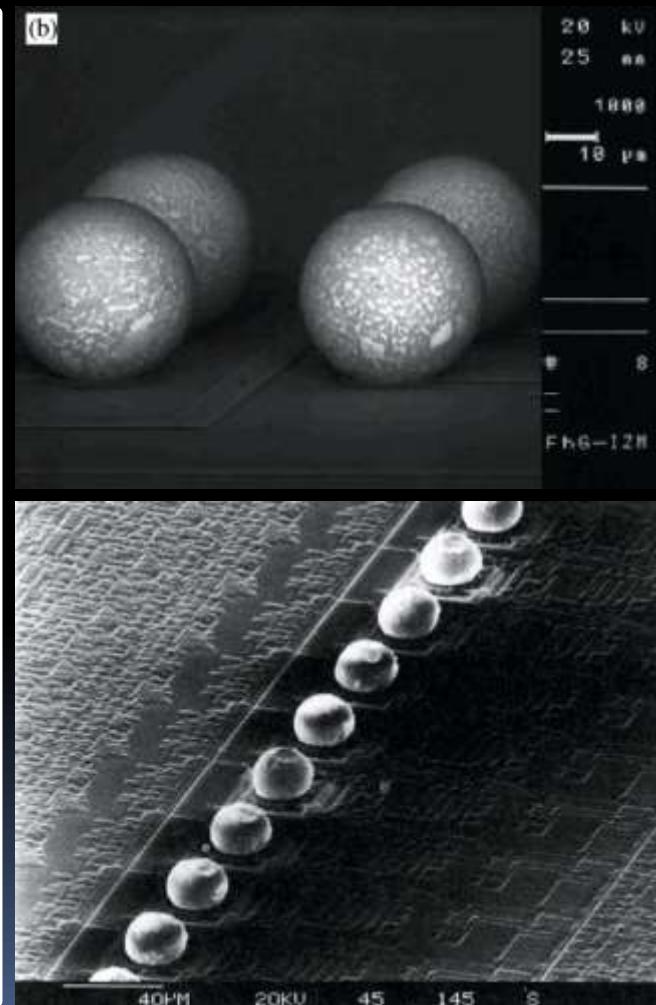
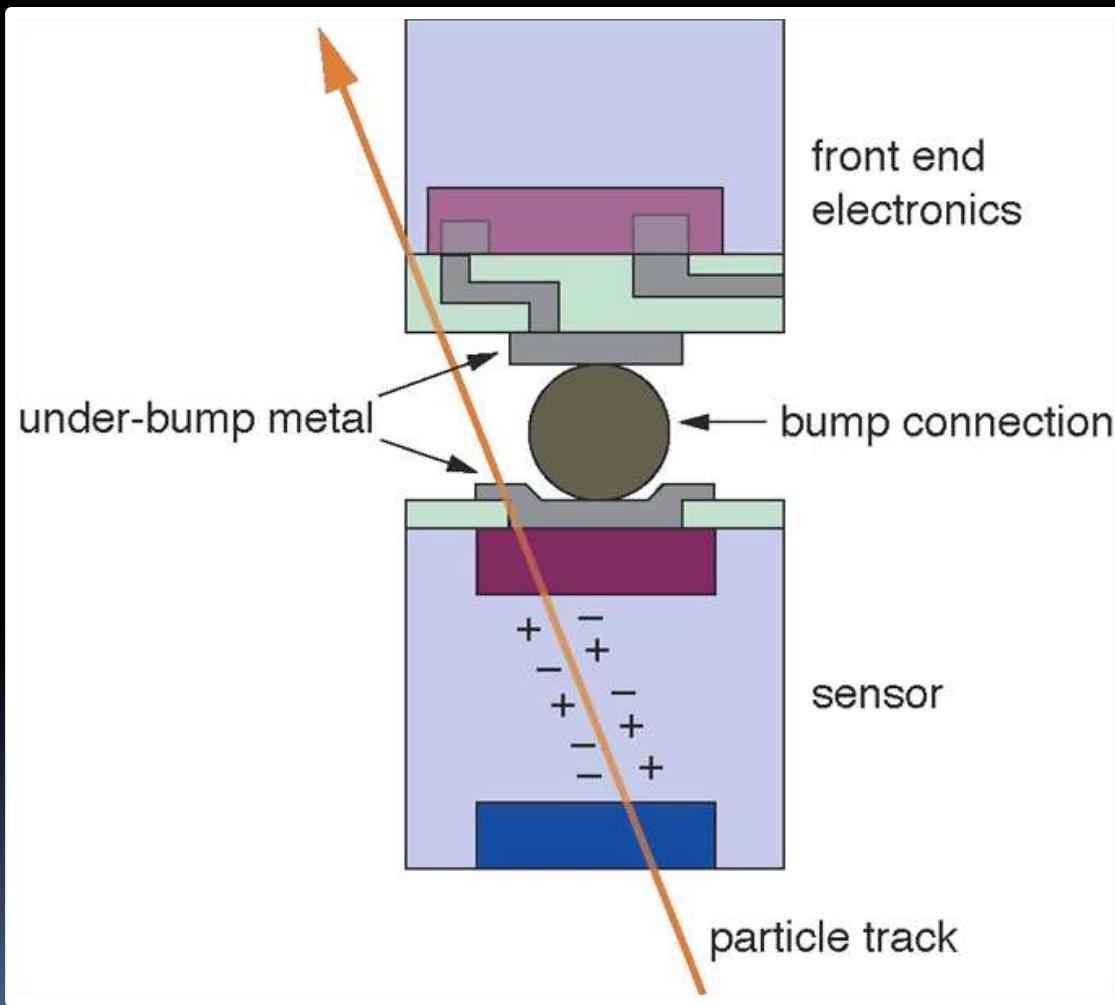


CMS Pixel Sensor

ATLAS Pixel Sensor

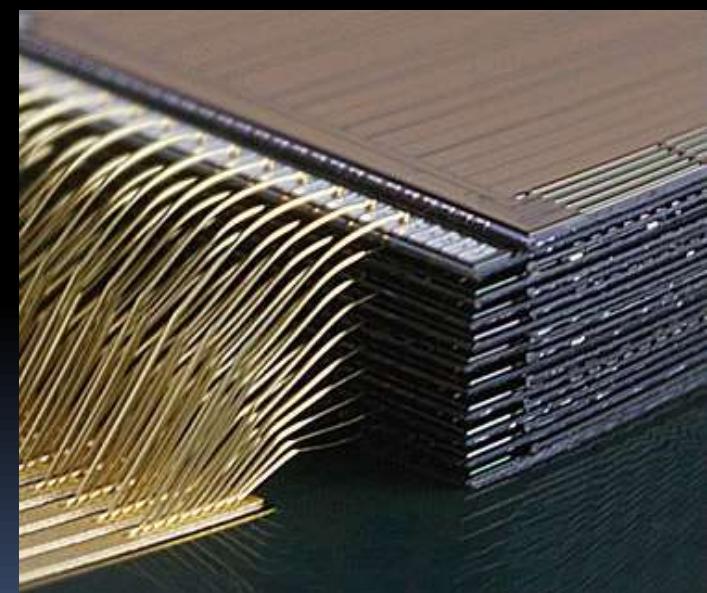
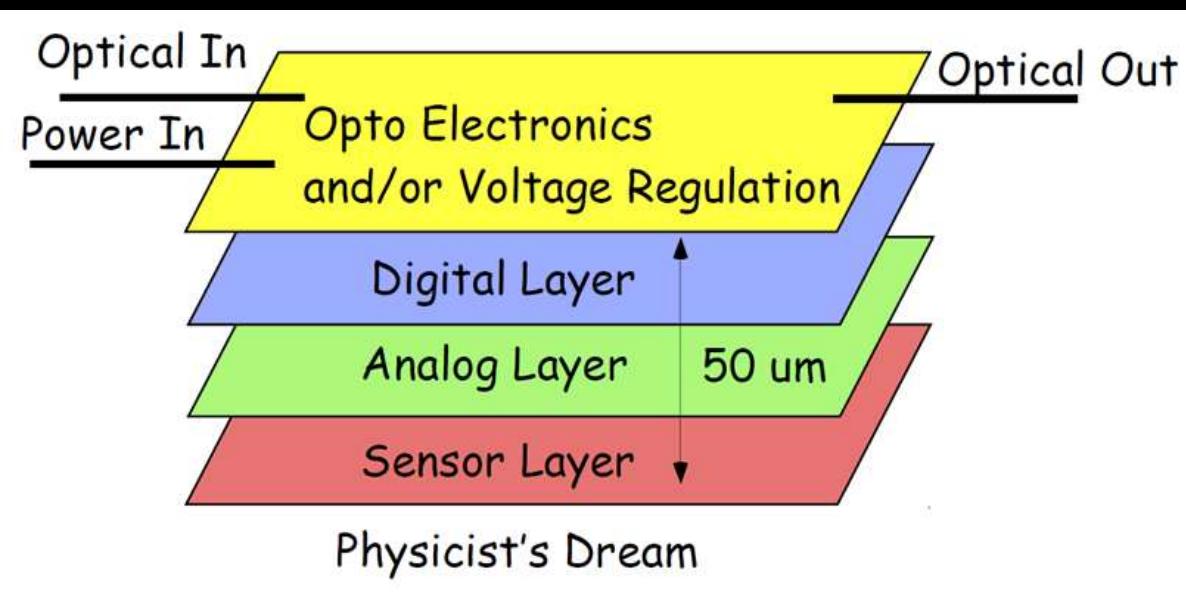
- Connection sensor to electronics by bump bonds
- Pixels can be square (CMS) or oblong (ATLAS)

Bump Bonding

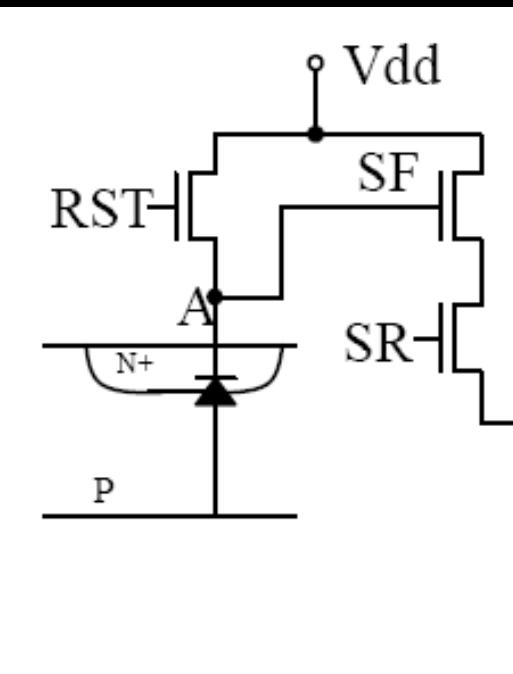
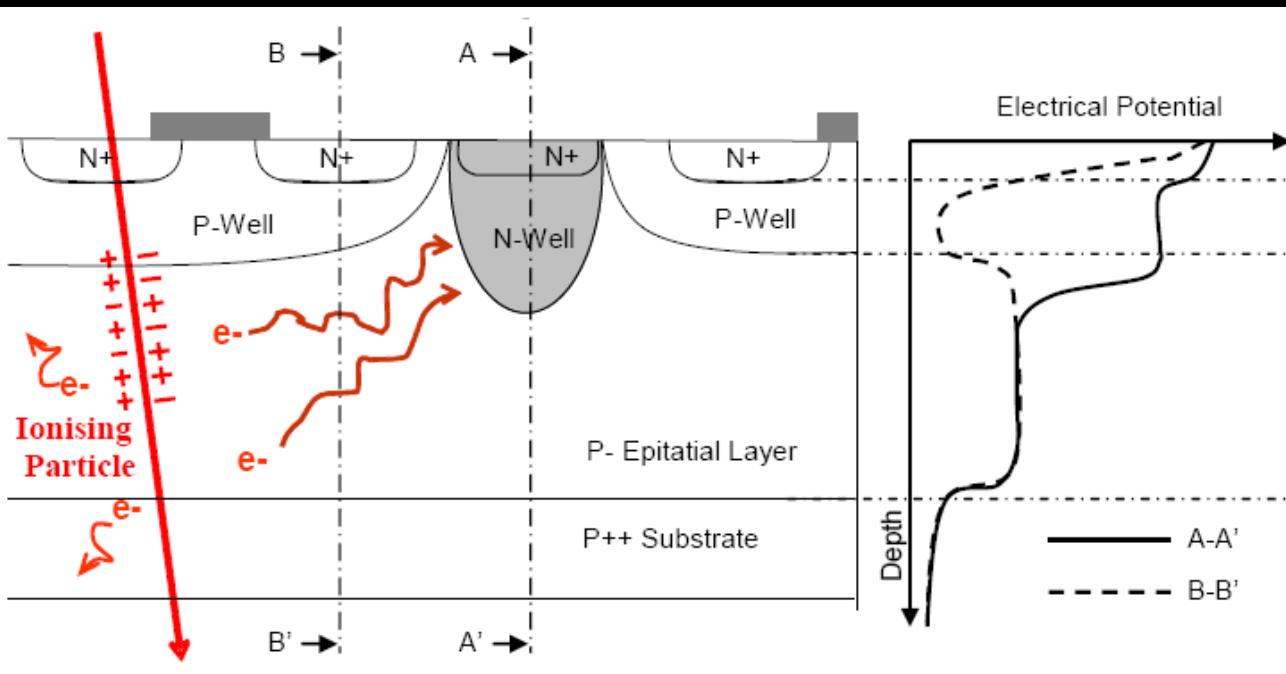


Stacking Multiple Chips?

- 3D electronics: stacking multiple dies with different functions
 - Each layer could be made in the optimal technology
- Already done in industry (RAMs)



Monolithic Pixel Detectors

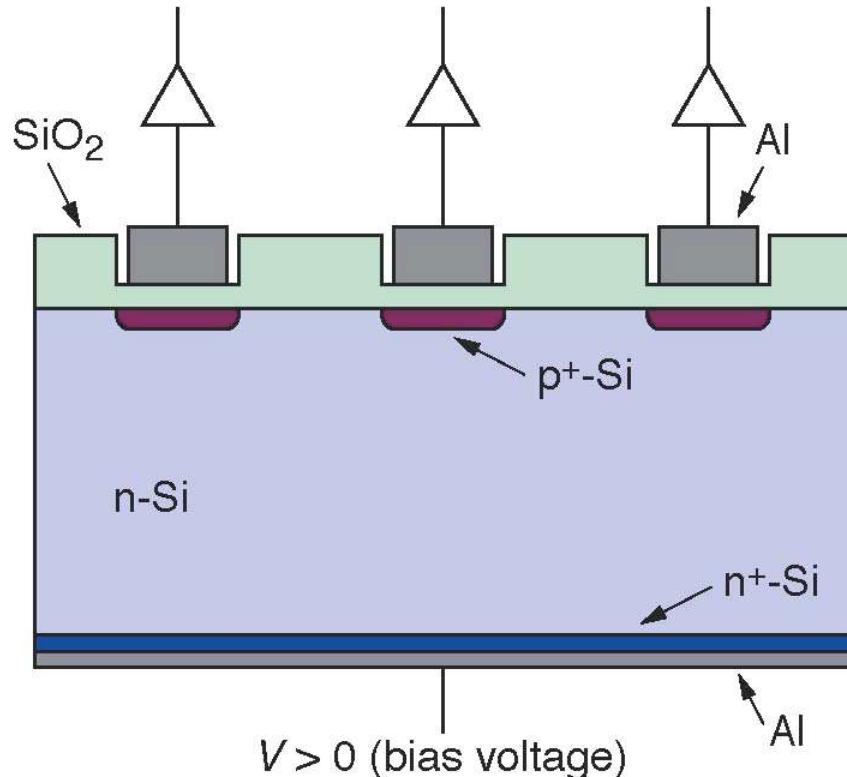


- Electrons move towards electrode by thermal diffusion
- Readout by simple 3-transistor cell
 - Small cell size ($\sim 20 \times 20 \mu\text{m}^2$) possible → high spatial resolution

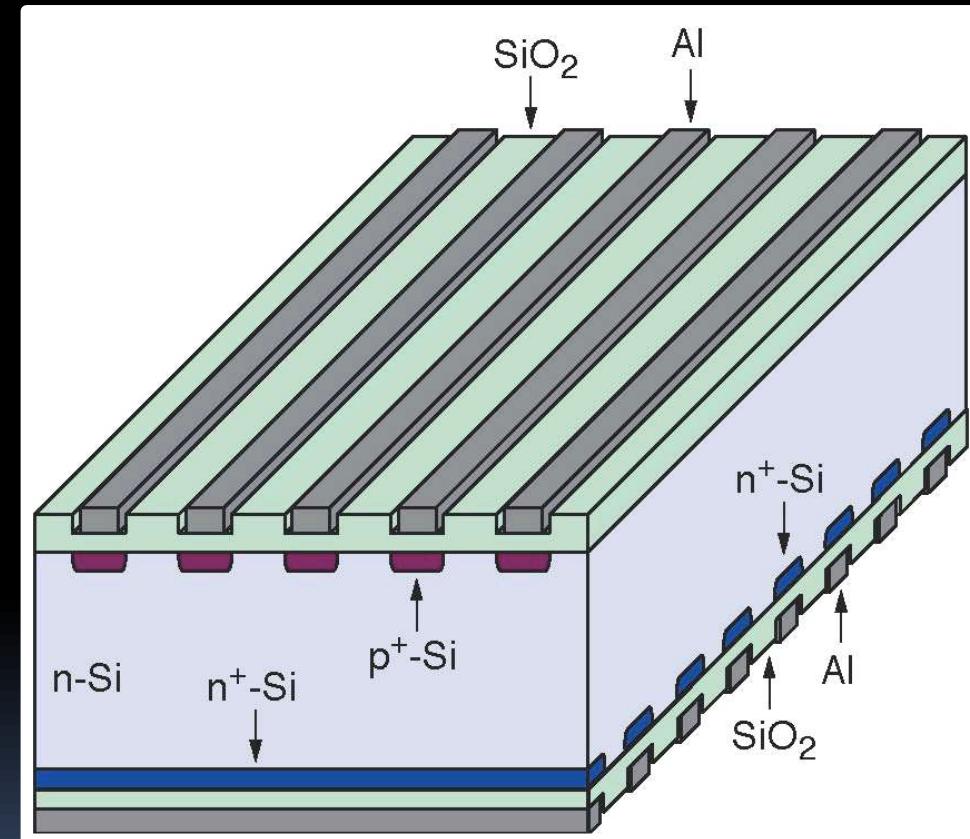
Tracker: Strips

- Silicon detector segmented in strips
 - Typical strip pitch $O(100 \mu\text{m})$
 - Only N (instead of N^2) channels \rightarrow cheaper than pixels
- Two types
 - Single-sided: backplane electrode is fully metallized
 - Pro: easy to manufacture, radiation hard
 - Con: higher material budget for “stereo” ($=2$ layers \rightarrow 2D) readout
 - Double-sided: both electrodes have perpendicular strips
 - Pro: little material
 - Con: less radiation tolerance, at least one side not at ground

Single-Sided vs. Double-Sided



Fully metalized backplane



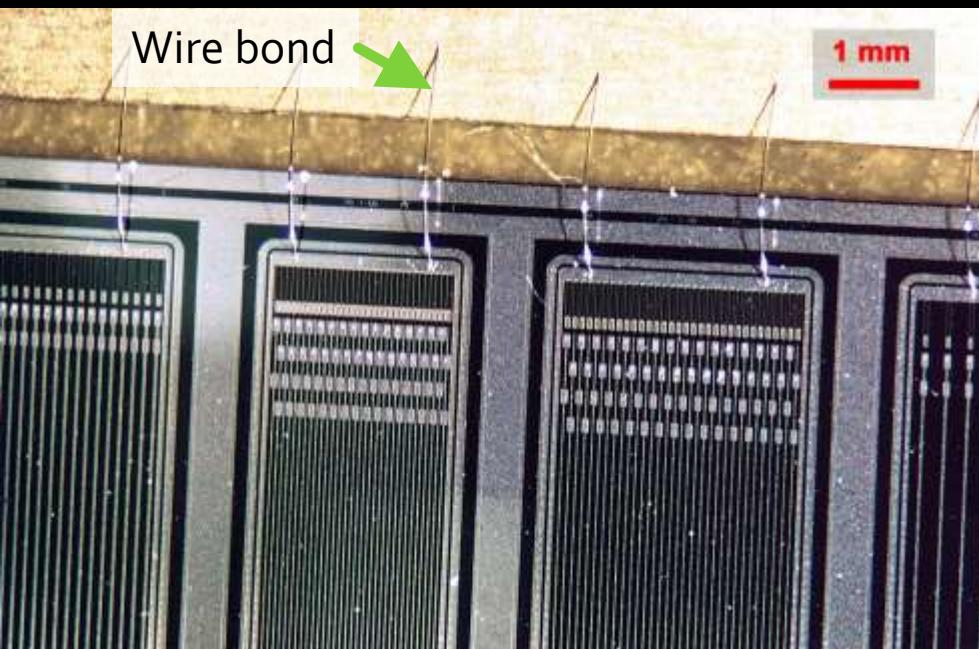
Strips on both sides

Silicon Strip Detectors

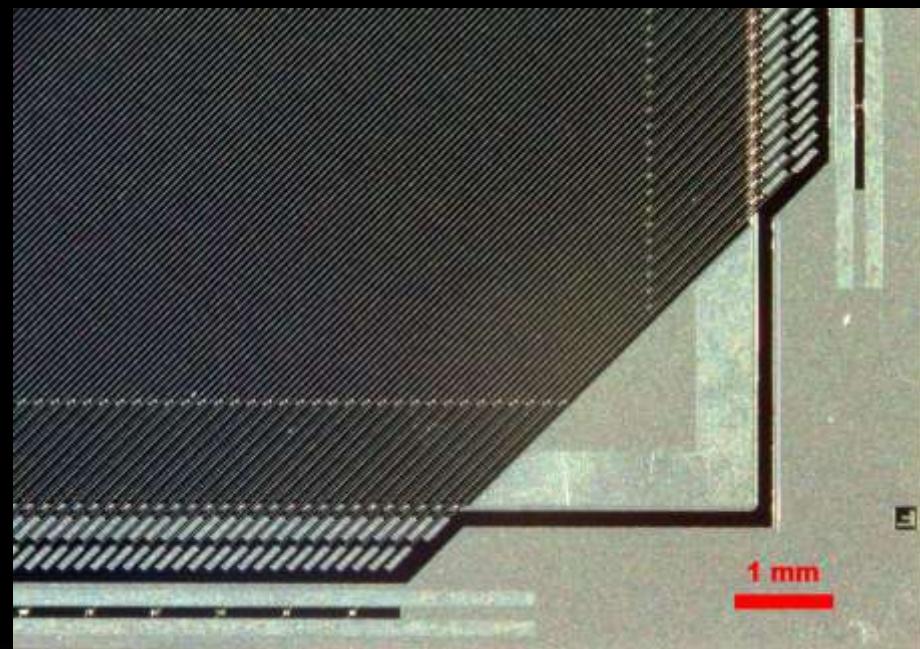
Wire bond



1 mm



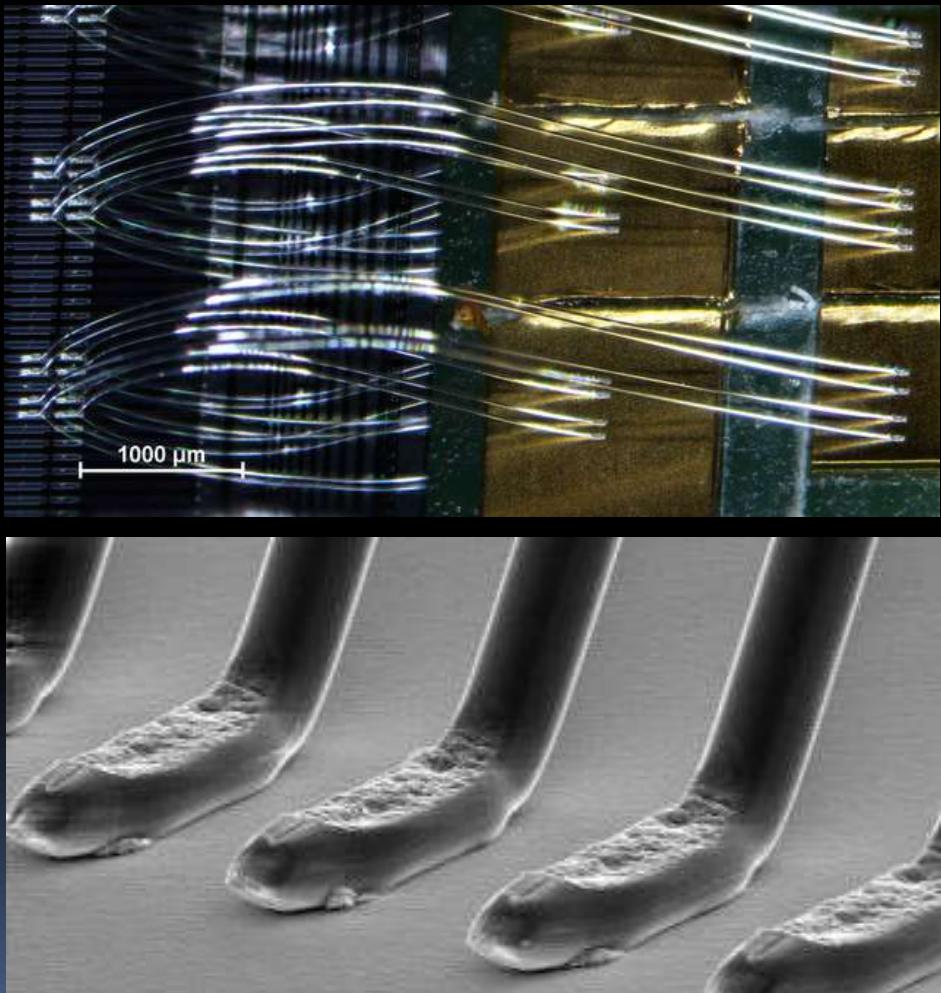
CMS Test Sensor with various geometries (1998)



Belle Sensor with 45° strips (2004)

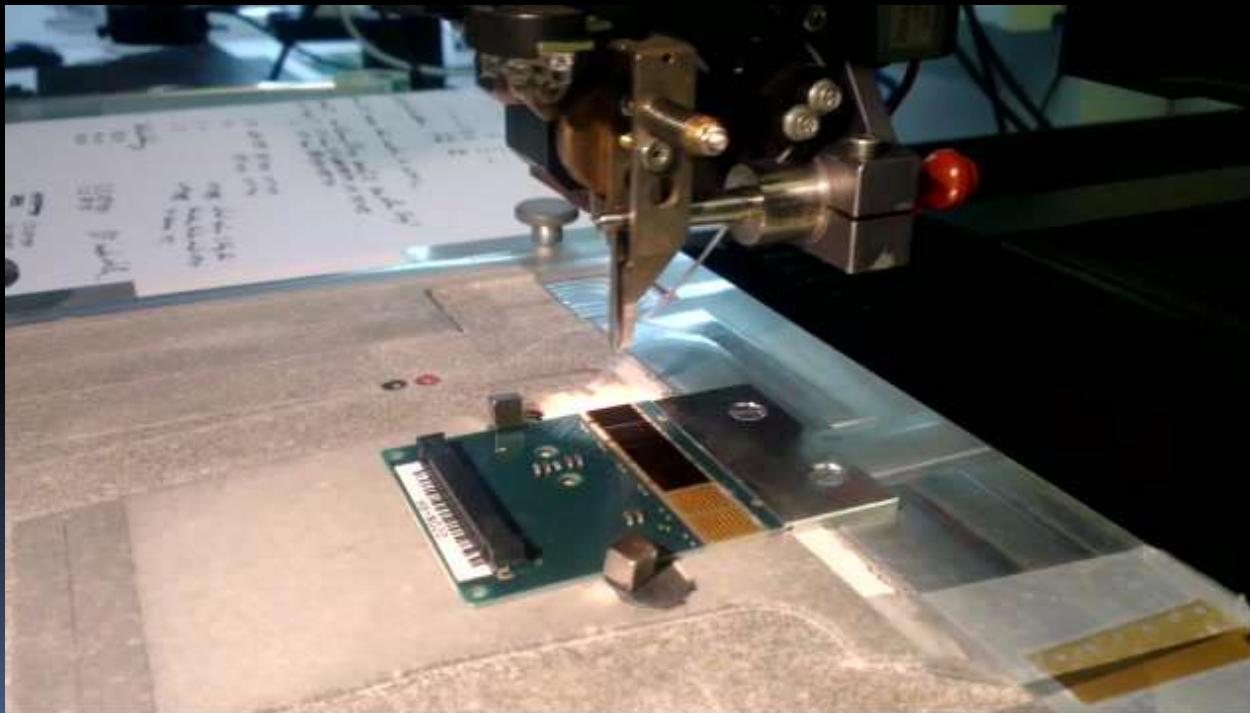
- Typically $300\mu\text{m}$ thick, strip pitch $50\ldots200\mu\text{m}$
- Reverse bias voltage for full depletion $50\ldots500\text{V}$
- Connection by wire bonds

Wire Bonding Machine



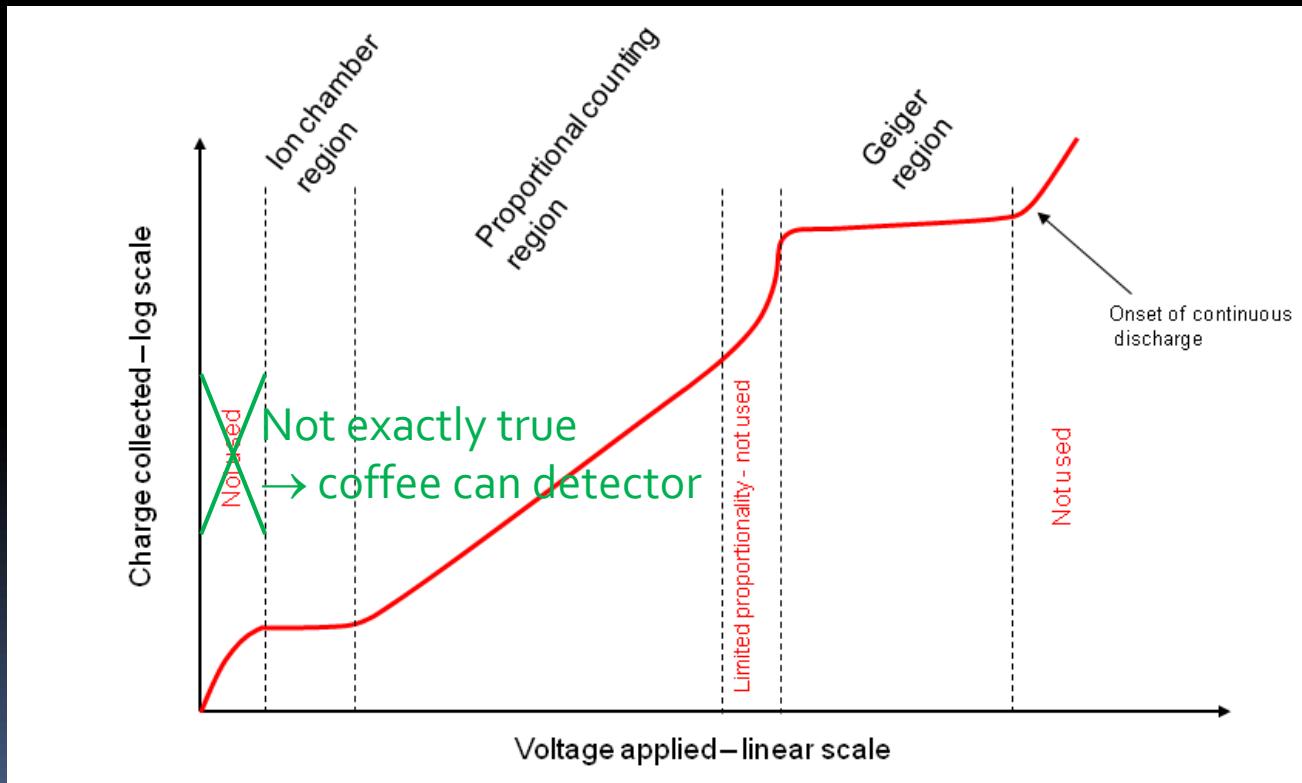
Wire Bonding

- Microscopic kind of sewing machine
- Aluminum (or gold) wire (typical diameter: $25\mu\text{m}$) is connected to pads by ultrasonic welding



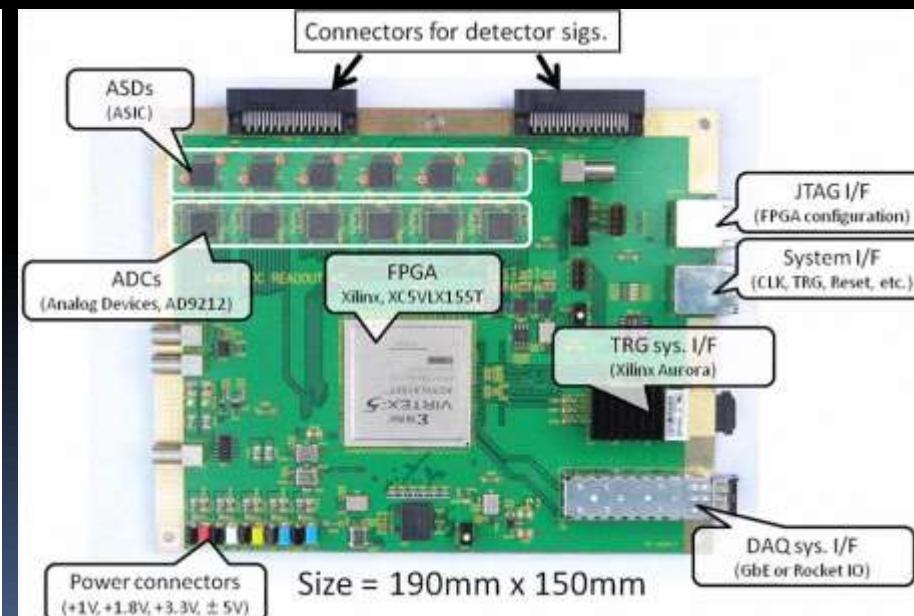
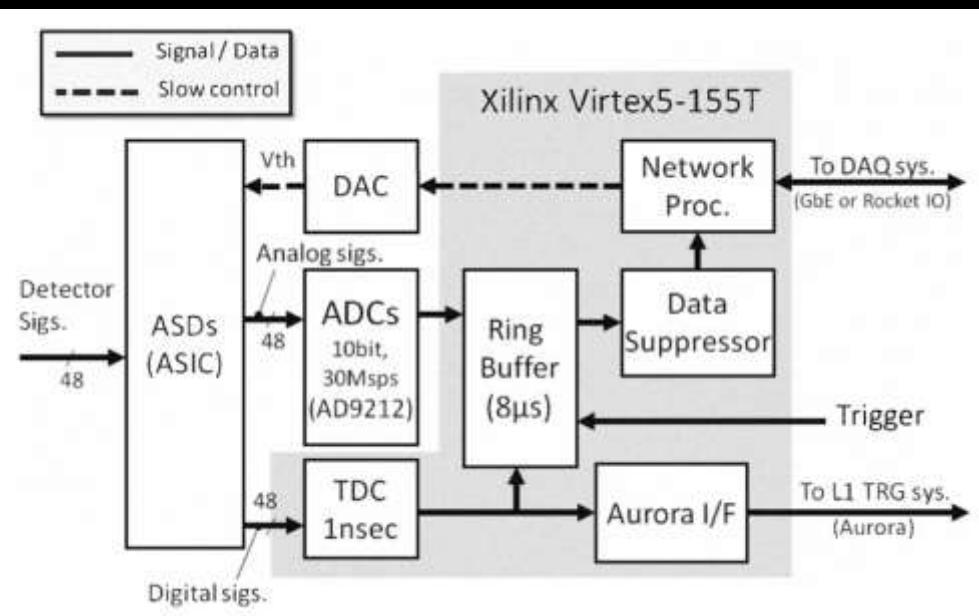
Gas Detectors

- Various types already mentioned in the beginning
- Operation mode depends on electric field



Example: Belle II Central Drift Chamber

- Gas mixture: helium – ethane (50:50)
- MWPC (proportional mode)
- Uses Amp-Shaper-Discriminator chips (ASDs) ASICS and commercial electronics including FPGA



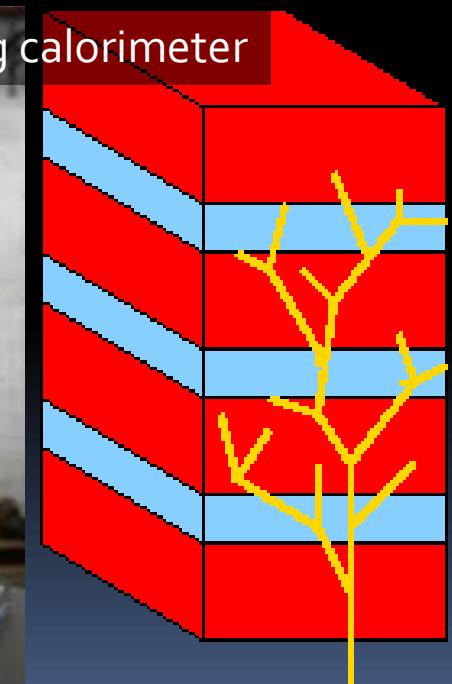
Calorimeter

- Two types:
 - Homogenous (absorber = sensitive material), e.g. CMS ECAL
 - Sampling (absorber and detector layers alternate), any HCAL

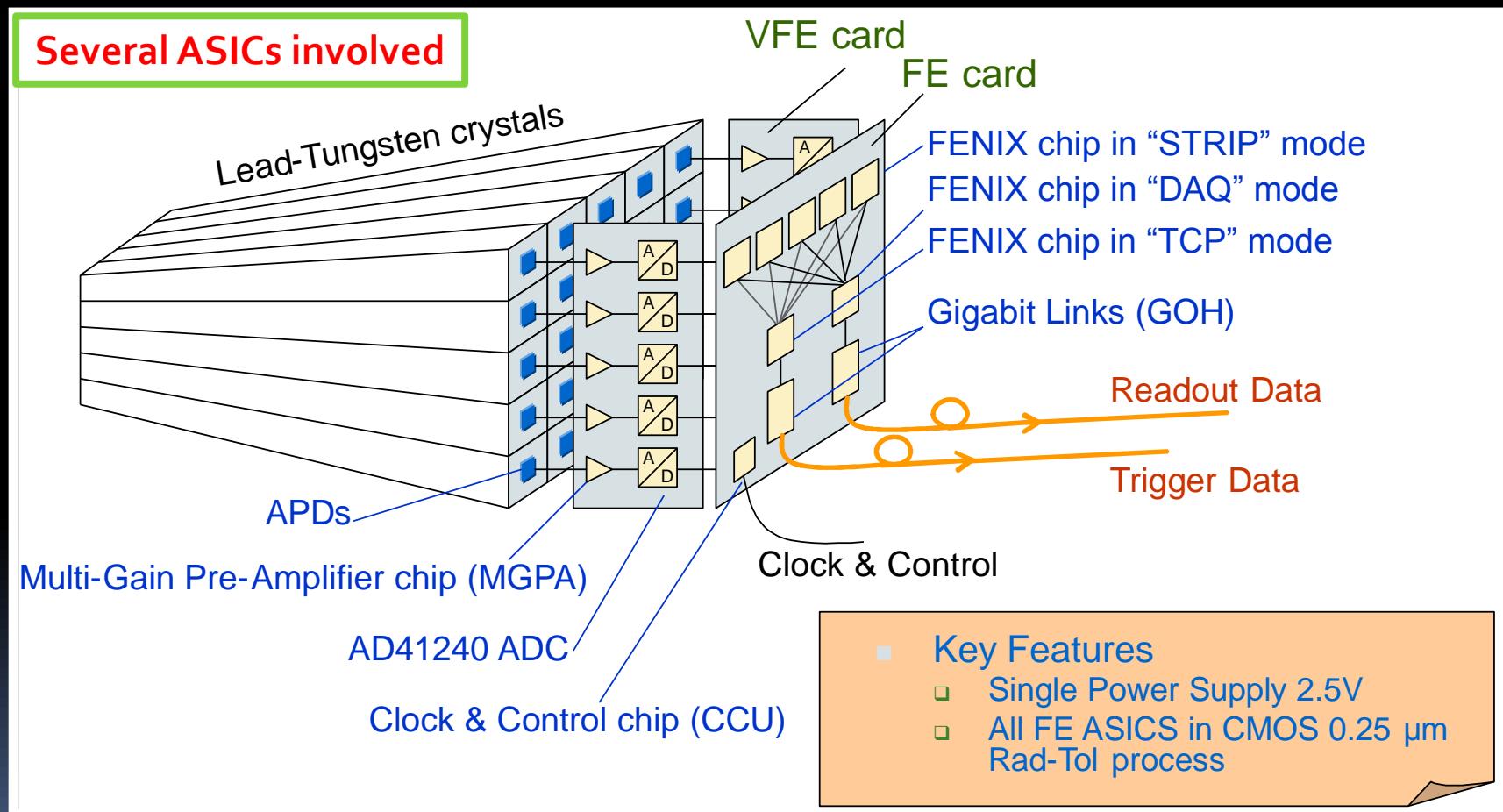
CMS ECAL: PbWO_4 (lead tungstate) crystals



Sampling calorimeter

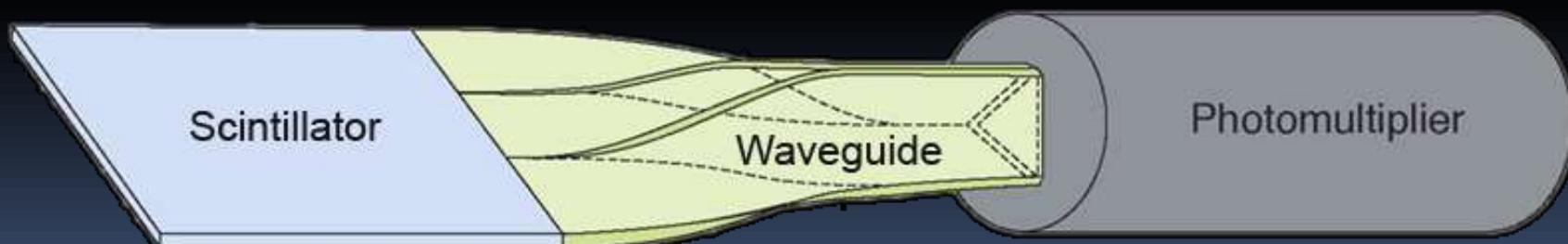


Example: CMS ECAL Readout



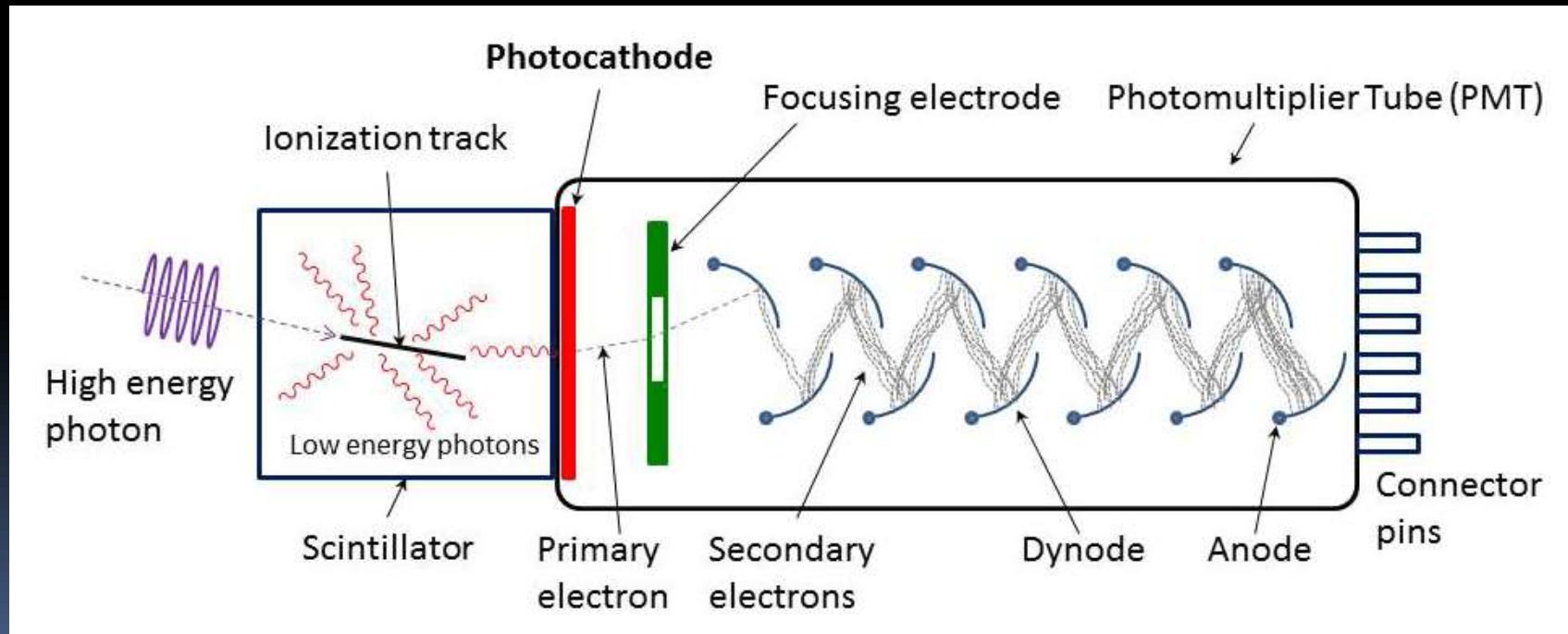
How to Measure Photons?

- Classical arrangement:
 - Scintillator – waveguide – photomultiplier
- Scintillator and waveguide are covered with reflective foil to achieve total reflection
- Everything must be completely light-proof
 - Want to measure scintillation photons, not daylight



Photomultiplier (PM) Tubes 1/2

- Photon extracts electron from photocathode (**Photo effect**)
- **Dynodes** with increasing potential accelerate electrons and knock out additional **secondary electrons** (amplification)



Photomultiplier (PM) Tubes 2/2

- Several **sizes** and types
- **Amplification** depends on the number of dynodes
 - Typically $\sim 10^6 \dots 10^7$



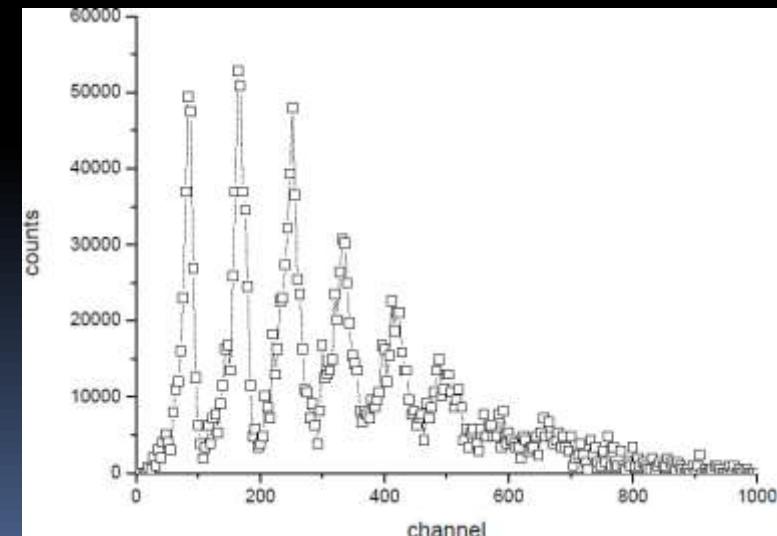
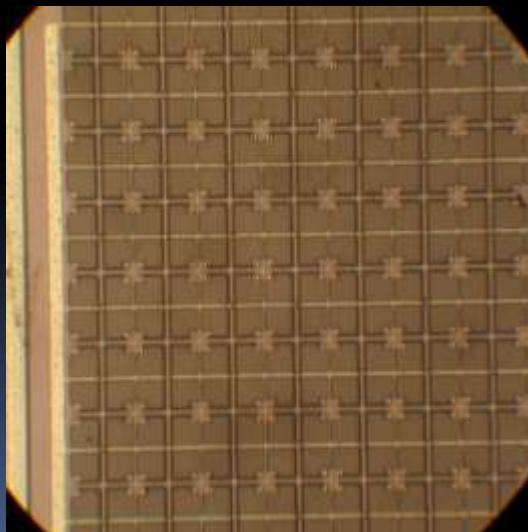
Photomultiplier Made of Semiconductors

- Traditional **PMs** have several cons:
 - Size, high voltage, magnetic field sensitivity
- **Semiconductor diodes** biased slightly under breakthrough
- **APD** = Avalanche Photodiode
- Active area up to 1 cm^2 , amplification ~ 100
- Operating voltage $< 500 \text{ V}$



SiPM = Silicon Photomultiplier

- **Array** of many parallel APDs on a chip
- (Discrete) „analog“ signal according to the number of incident photons
- Operating voltage < 100 V (Geiger mode)
- Single photon detection

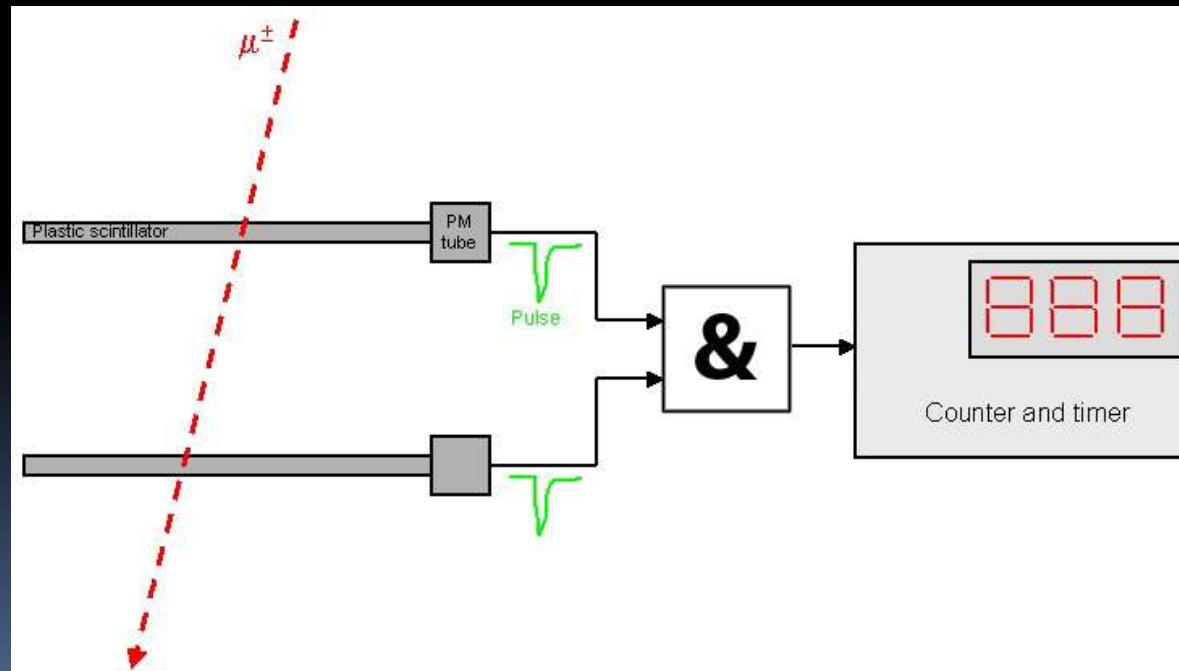


Comparison of Photodetectors

	PM	APD	SiPM
Amplification	$10^6 \dots 10^7$	~ 100	$10^5 \dots 10^6$
Operating voltage	1...2 kV	300...500 V	<100 V
Active area	$<200 \text{ cm}^2$	$<100 \text{ mm}^2$	$\sim 1 \text{ mm}^2$
Dark rate	$\sim 1 \text{ kHz}$	-	$\sim 1 \text{ MHz}$
Photon efficiency	$\sim 30\%$	$\sim 80\%$	$\sim 50\%$
Magnetic field tolerance	✗	✓	✓

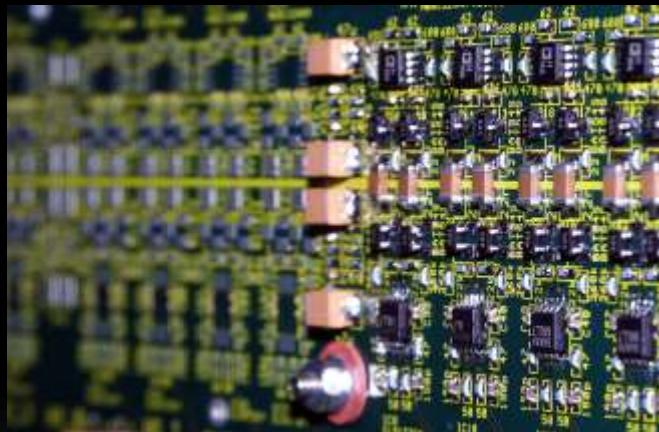
Is the Dark Rate a Problem?

- **Thermal Noise:** A single (Si)PM also delivers counts in absolute darkness
- **Trick:** Using 2 (or more) (Si)PMs and looking at the ANDed signal (**coincidence**)



Detector Summary

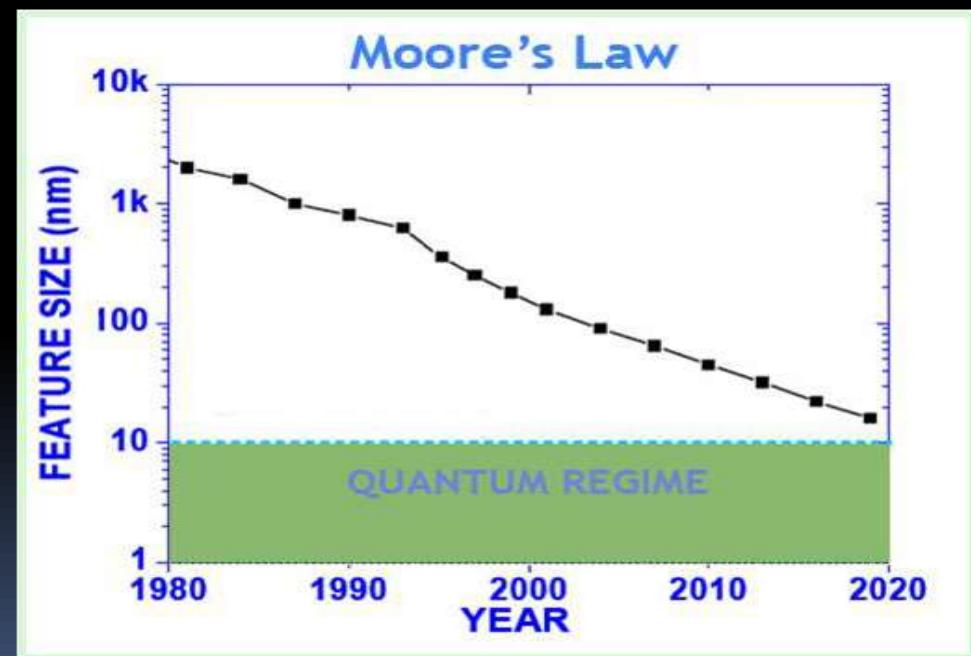
- ASICs and specific developments everywhere
 - There is no jack of all trades device
- General issues in front-end:
 - Radiation hardness
 - Only specifically developed active electronics (depending on location and experiment)
 - Magnetic field
 - No iron/ferrite core coils allowed (saturation), no magnetic parts
 - Space and power/cooling budget



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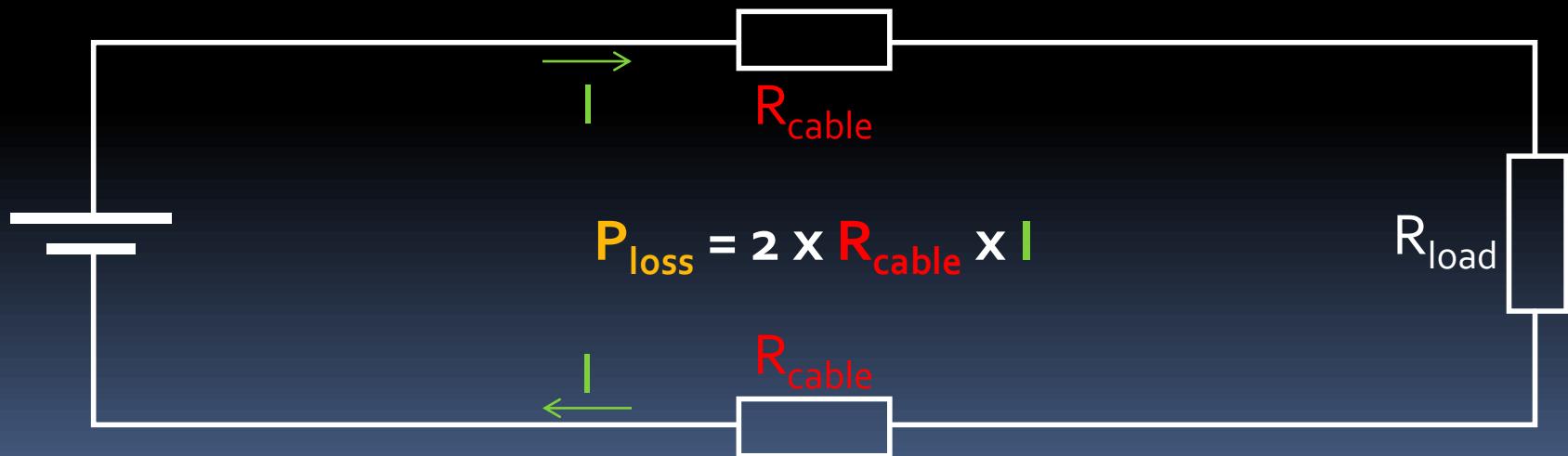
ASICs

- Chip feature size getting smaller and smaller (Moore's law)
 - Mask costs increase
 - Suitability for analog circuitry decreases
- Obsolescence problem
 - LHC ASICs were typically made in 250nm technology
 - Process not available anymore



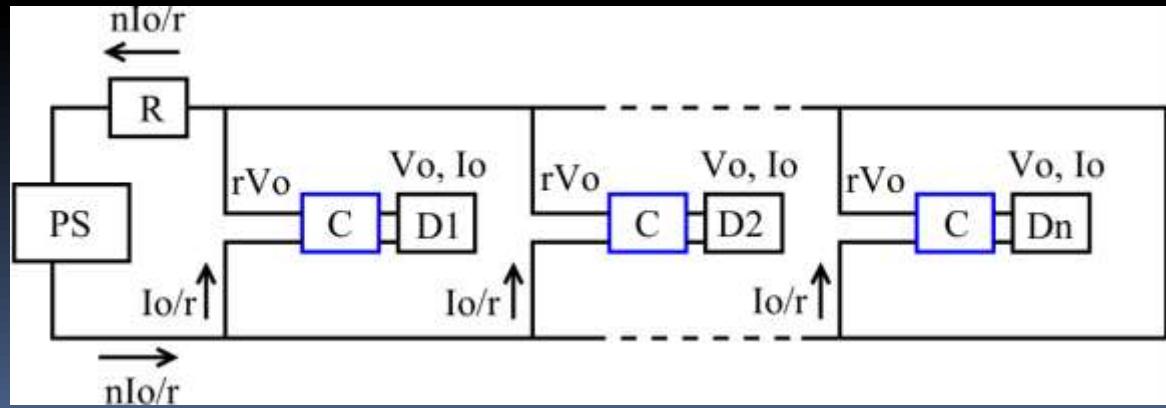
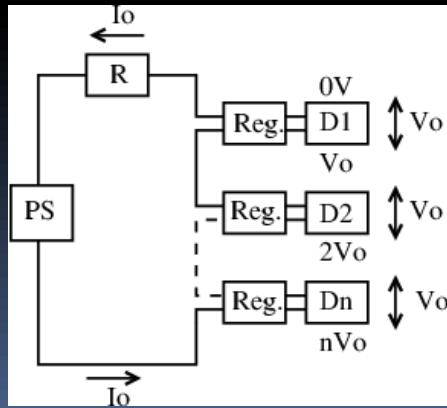
Powering: What's It All About?

- We need to bring power to the front-end
- There can be a significant power drop in the cables
 - Limited space and material budget
 - Low voltages required by modern electronics
 - In CMS and ATLAS Trackers, ~50% of total power (tens of kW) is burnt in the cables



How to Avoid This?

- **Lower R_{cable}** : hardly possible ☹
- **Serial powering**: deliver constant current at higher voltage, needs shunt regulator for each serially connected unit
- **DC/DC converters**: deliver higher voltage, needs converter for each parallel unit
- Both methods reduce **I** and thus power loss at constant **R_{cable}**



Serial Powering vs. DC/DC Converters

- Both options have pros and cons and are intensively studied for S-LHC upgrades
- **Serial powering:**
 - no common ground: requires level translation for I/O
 - generally easier for digital output – ATLAS
- **DC/DC converters:**
 - switching device: requires careful design to avoid noise
 - generally easier for analog output – CMS
- Completely different concept (ILC): pulsed powering (1/200 duty cycle)

Cooling

- Front-end power should be minimized
 - But cannot be avoided
- Why?
 - Dissipated power needs to be removed
 - Necessity of cooling system
 - Adds material budget
- State-of-the art:
 - Two-phase CO₂
 - Pro: high efficiency, minimal material budget
 - Con: Complicated cooling plant, high pressure (~20bar)

Monitoring

- Measuring environmental conditions
- Requires (rad-hard) sensors for temperature, humidity, displacement, ...
- Readout of those sensors is slow – $O(1 \text{ Hz})$
- Often neglected and started quite late...

- Monitoring also includes data quality
 - Typically some histograms made with measurement data and compared to reference ones



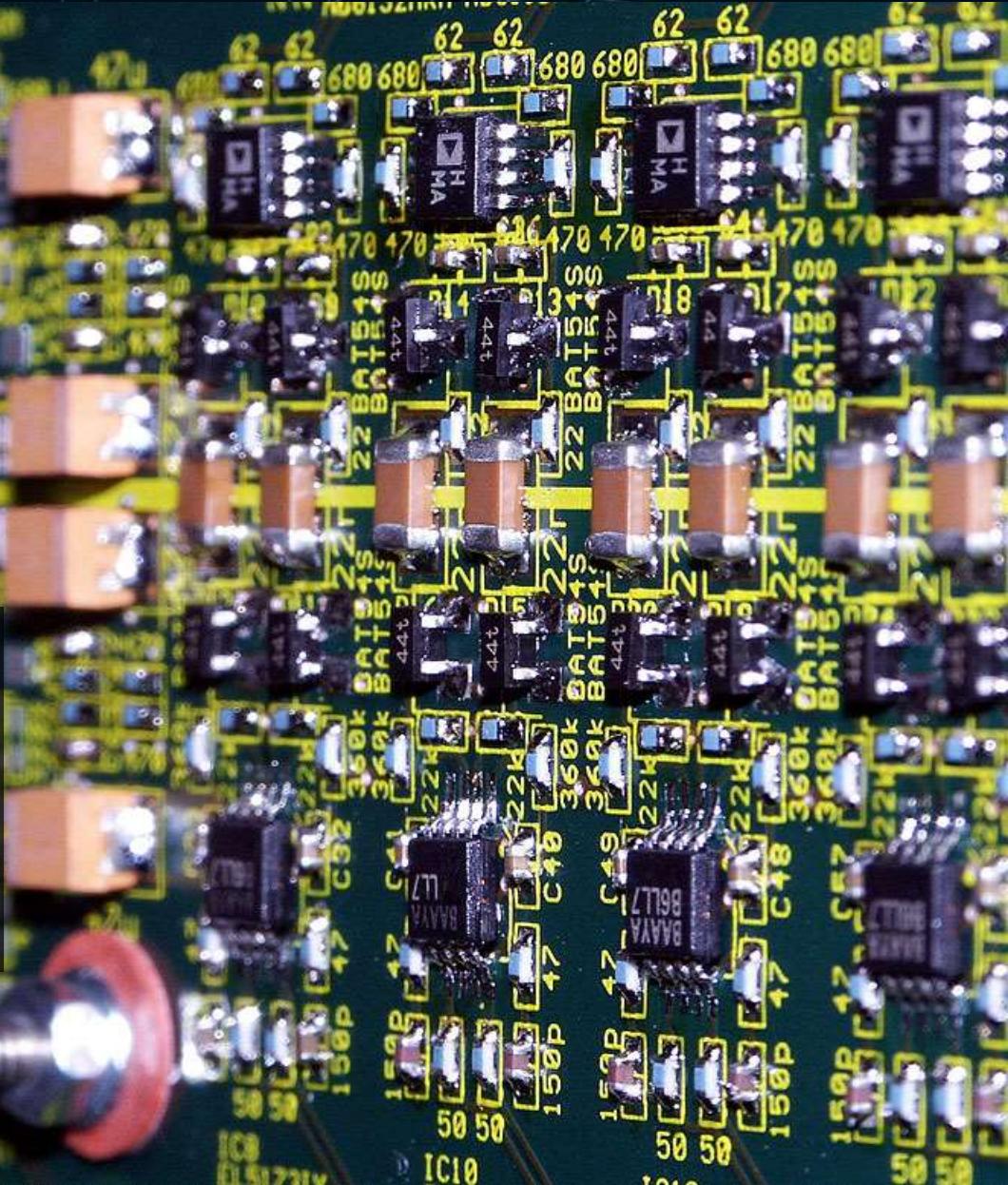
What else ?

Tomorrow, we will
have a closer look
onto a readout chain
example.

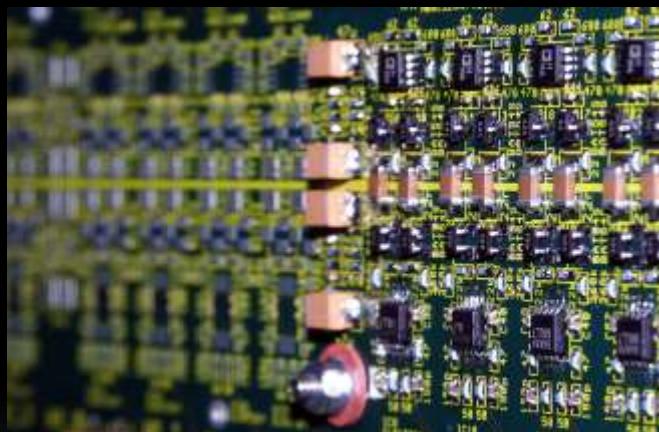
13 September 2014
Danube School @ Novi Sad

Electronics 2

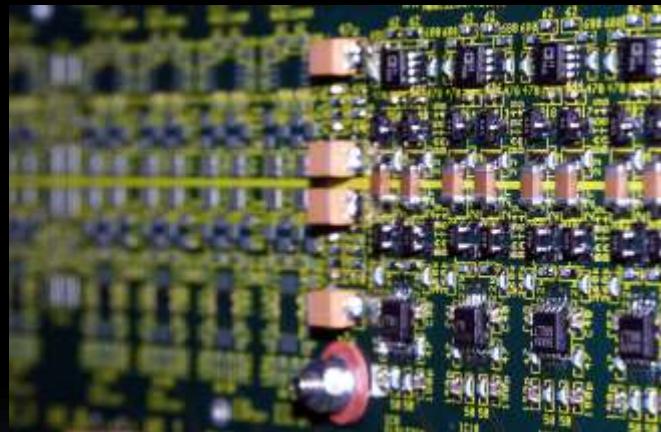
Markus Friedl (HEPHY Vienna)



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Typical Readout Chain
Readout Chain – Front-End
Signal Transmission
Readout Chain – Back-End
Additional Topics



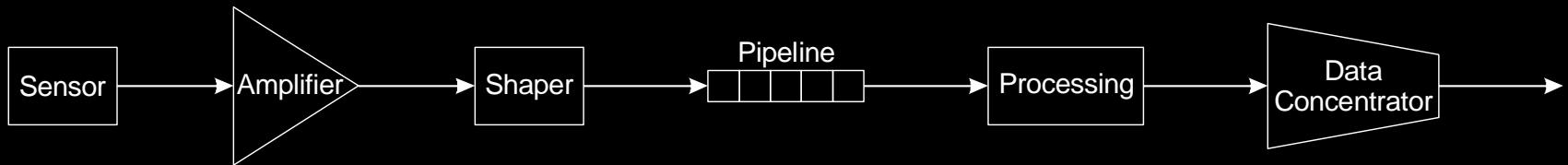
Typical Readout Chain

Readout Chain – Front-End
Signal Transmission

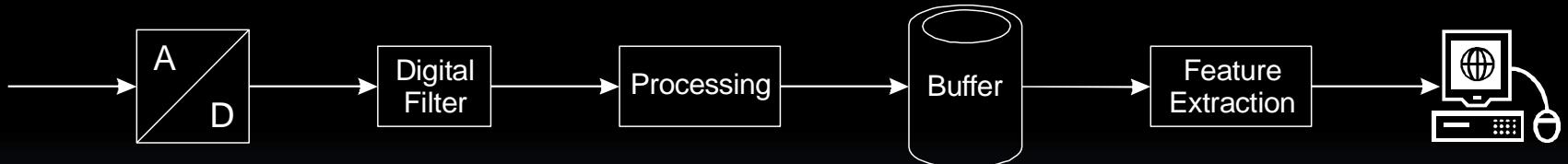
Readout Chain – Back-End
Additional Topics

Typical Readout Chain

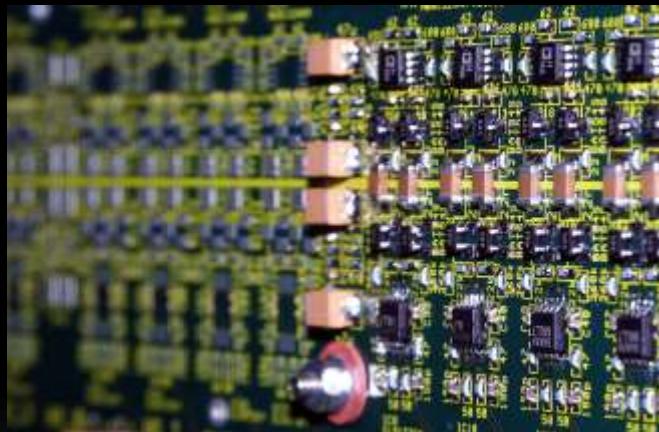
- Front-end part:



- Back-end part:

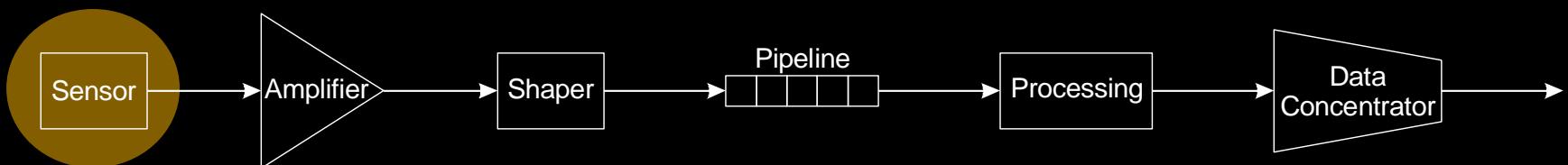


- This is just a typical example, not a law of nature
 - E.g., digitization may already happen in the front-end

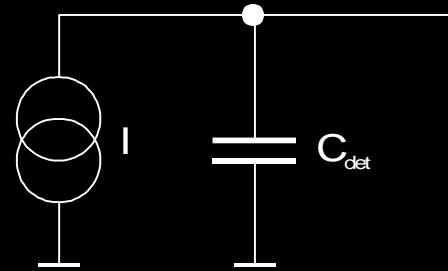


Typical Readout Chain
Readout Chain – Front-End
Signal Transmission
Readout Chain – Back-End
Additional Topics

Sensor



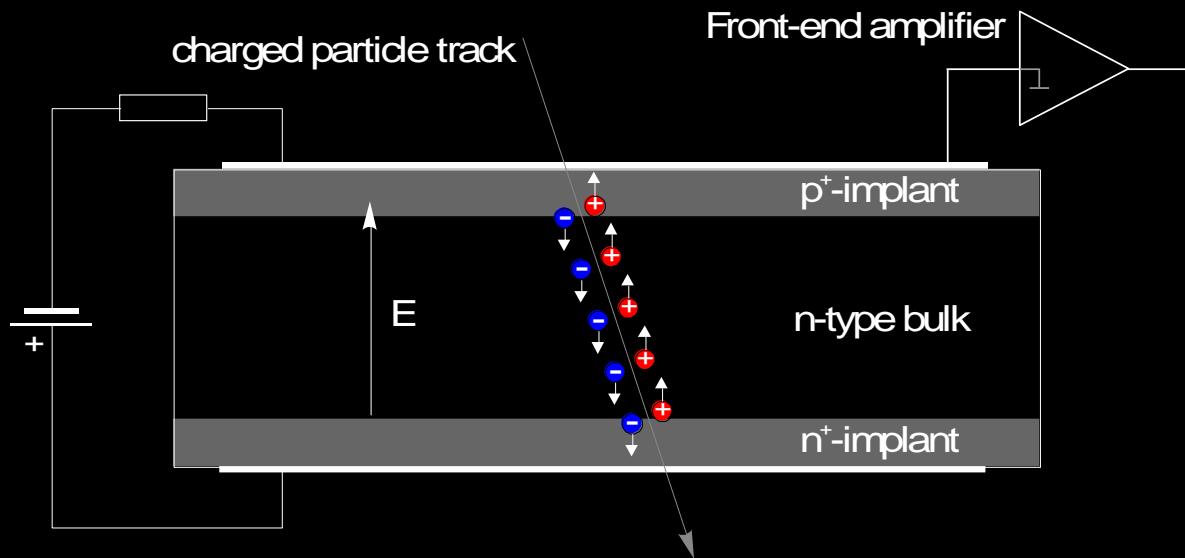
- Equivalent circuit of the sensor:



**Current source with
capacitor in parallel**

- Example 1: wire chamber
 - Coaxial capacitor configuration
 - Moving charges induce current

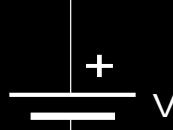
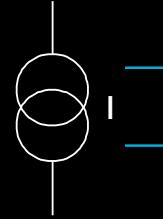
Example 2: Silicon Sensor



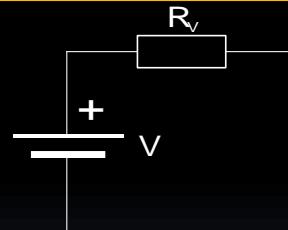
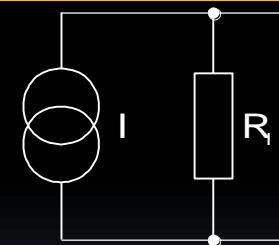
- Traversing charged particle creates electron-hole pairs
- Carriers drift towards electrodes in the electric field
- Moving carriers induce current in the circuit → current source
- Parallel plates act as a capacitor

Comparison: Voltage vs. Current Source

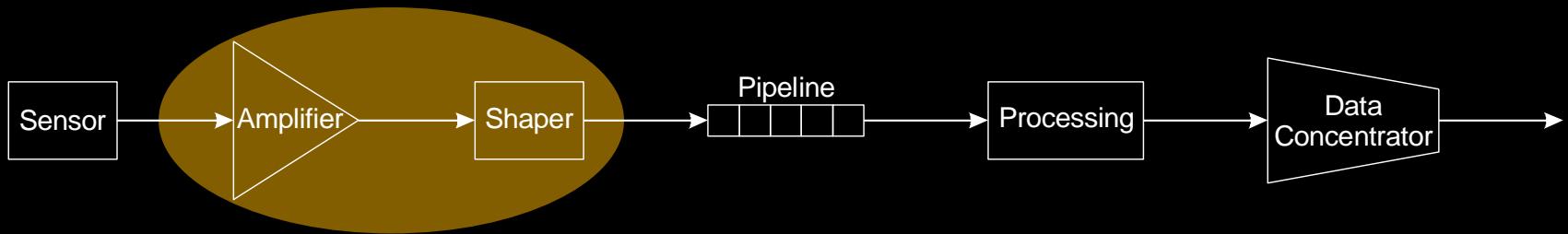
IDEAL

Property	Voltage Source	Current Source
Voltage	constant	+  V anything
Current	anything	constant  I
Idle (no power)	Open ($I=0$)	Shorted ($V=0$)

REAL

Property	Voltage Source	Current Source
(Linear) equivalent circuit		
Resistor causes	Internal voltage drop	Internal current drop
Conversion	Norton-Thevenin equivalent: $R_V = R_I$; $V = I R_{V//I}$	
Examples	Battery Wall plug (AC)	Detector NIM module outputs

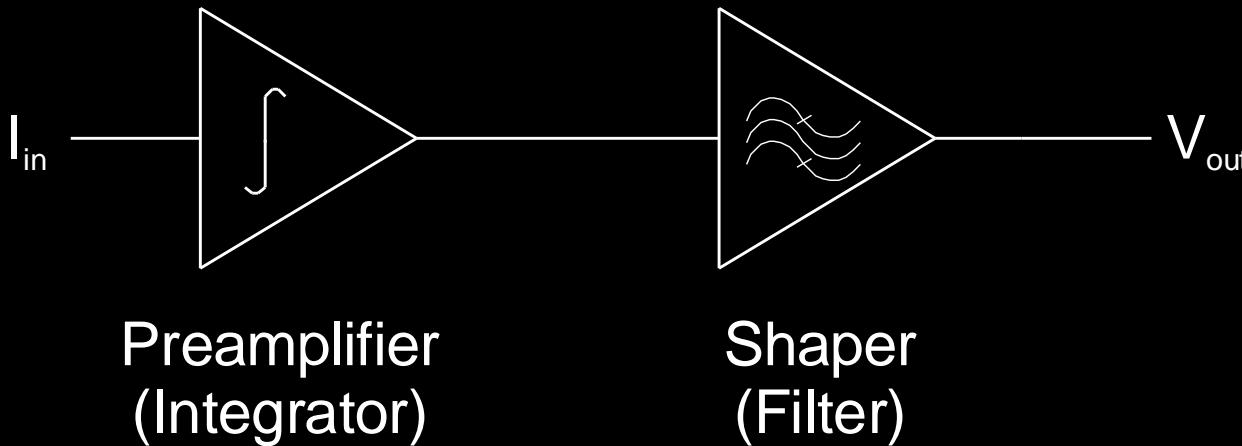
Amplifier & Shaper



- Typically, the amplifier is an integrator
 - Integration of current over time = ?
 - Measuring charge
- Signal-to-noise performance of the whole system mainly depends on this very first amplifier stage
- Located as close to sensor as possible

$$\int i \, dt = Q$$

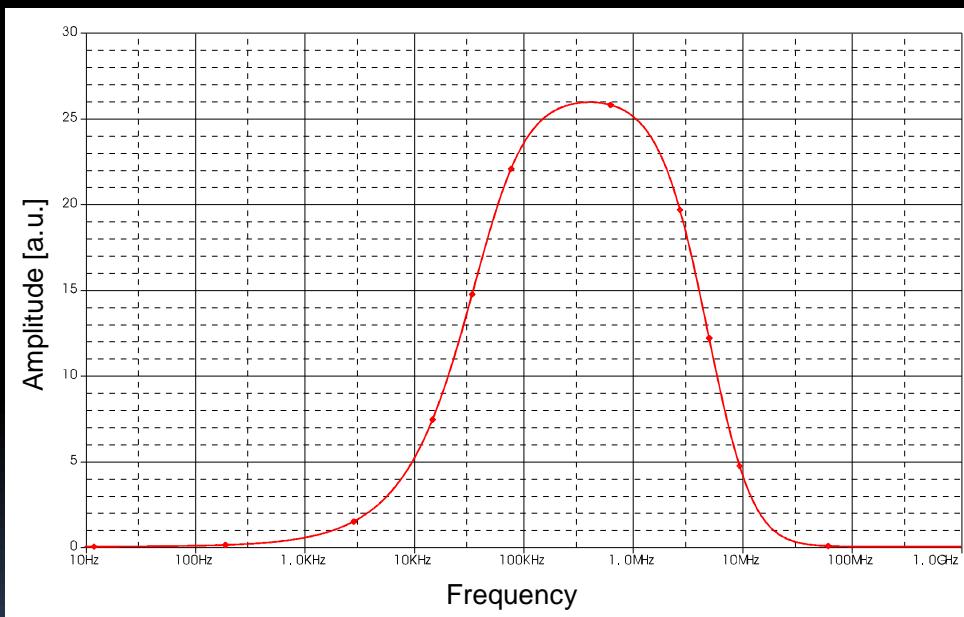
Front-End Amplifier Principle



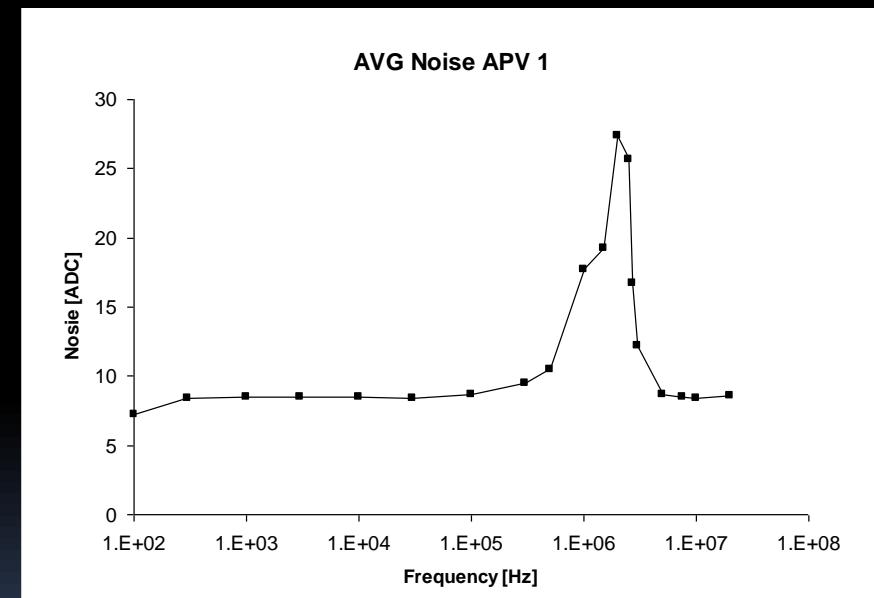
- First stage: Integrator
 - Detector current → charge
- Second stage: Filter
 - Limit bandwidth to reduce noise
 - Let desired signal pass and cut away all the rest

Shaper Bandwidth Reduction

- Example: APV25 Tracker front-end amplifier (CMS)
 - Shaper sensitive around 1 MHz

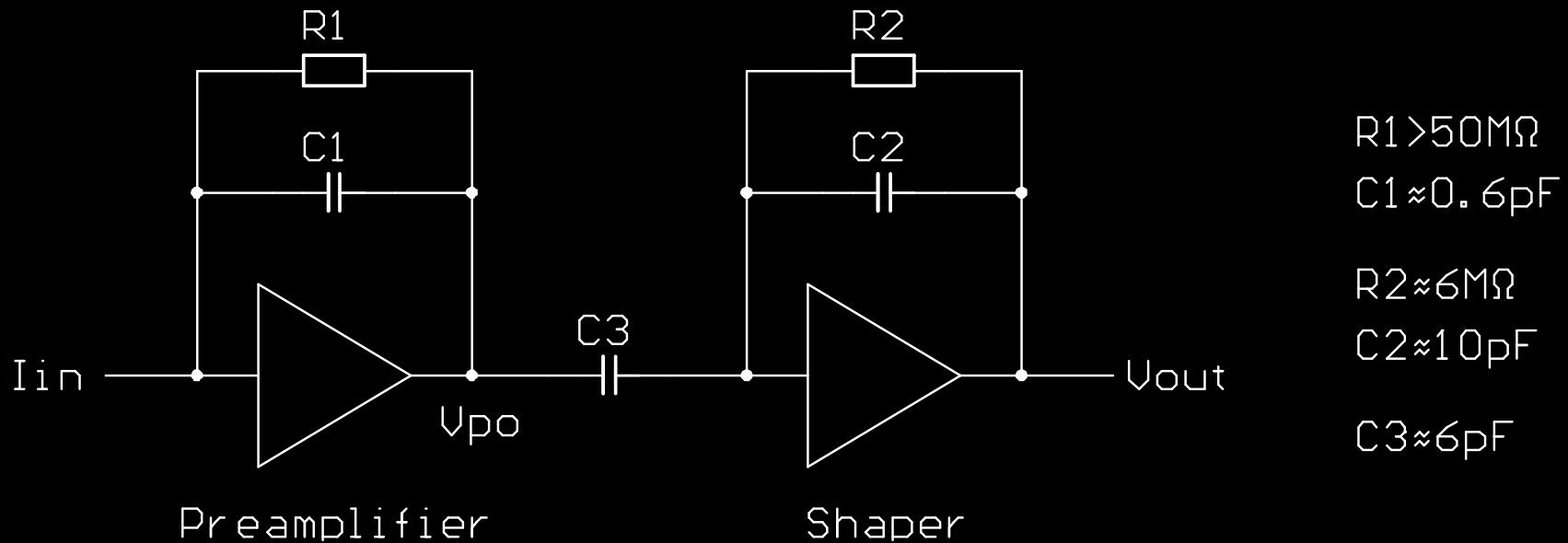


Simulation



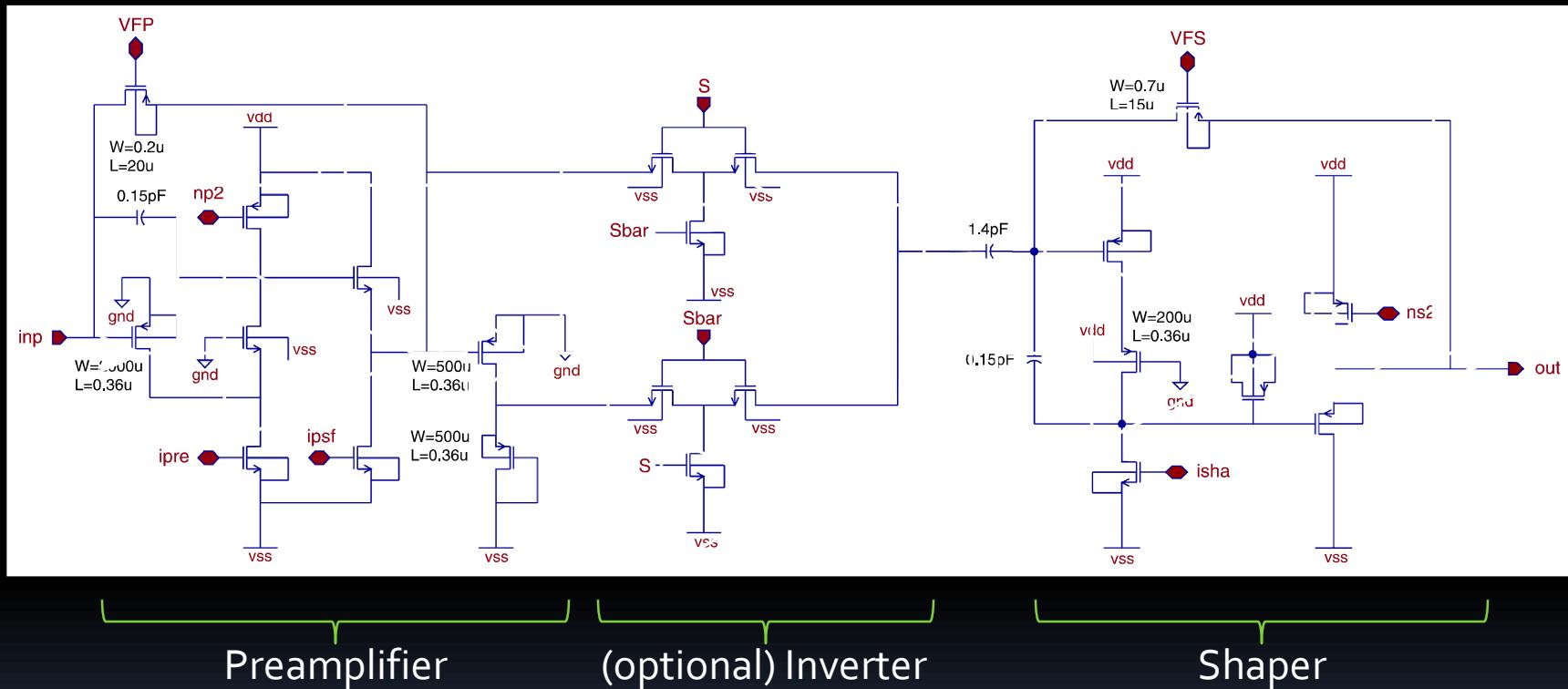
Measurement

Example: VA2 Chip Input Stage



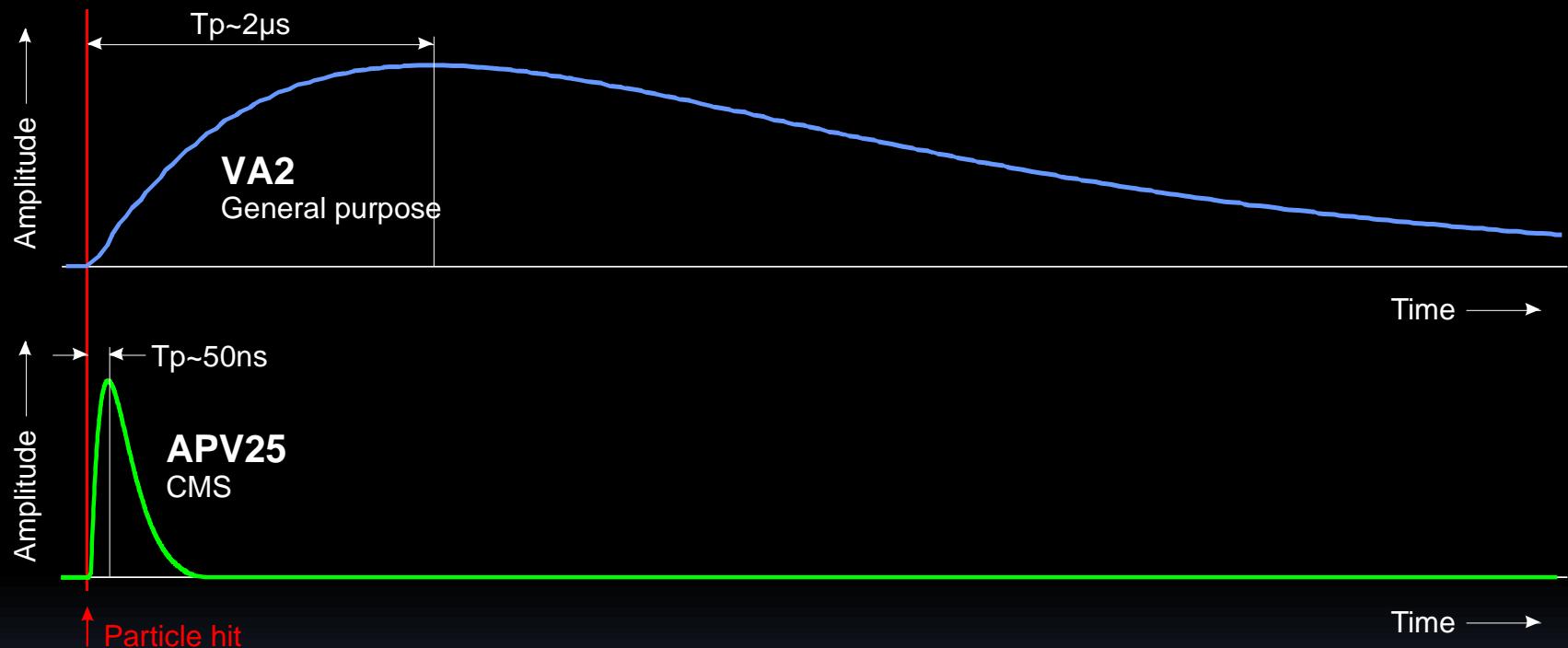
- VA2 is a general-purpose front-end amplifier chip for silicon strip detectors
- “Slow” shaper in the μs range – what does this mean for the noise?

Example: APV25 Chip Input Stage



- APV25 is the front-end chip for the CMS Tracker
- “Fast” shaper: 50ns – what does this mean for the noise?

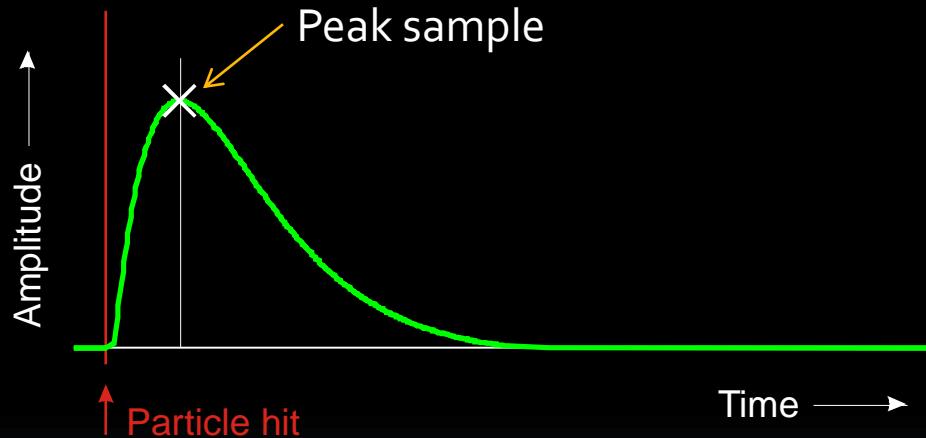
Shaper Output



- T_p ...shaping time (or peaking time)
- Faster shaping can be a necessity of the experiment to distinguish subsequent events, but also implies larger noise

Shaper Output Sampling

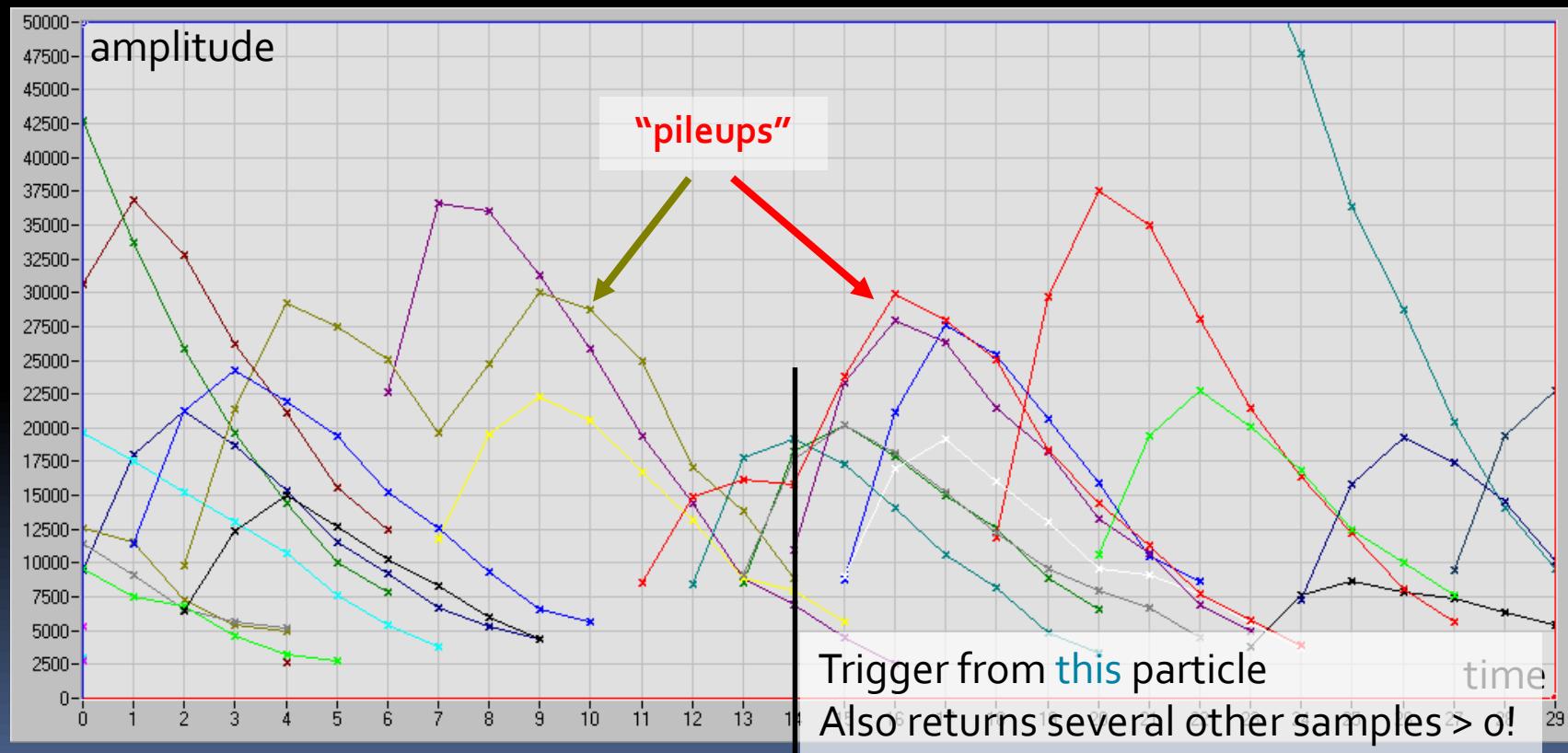
- Usually, shaper output is sampled once at the peak
 - Only sampled value is passed on in the readout chain



- The timing is given by a constant offset from the particle hit (as supplied by an external trigger, e.g. scintillator)
- What happens if there are several particles with different timing?

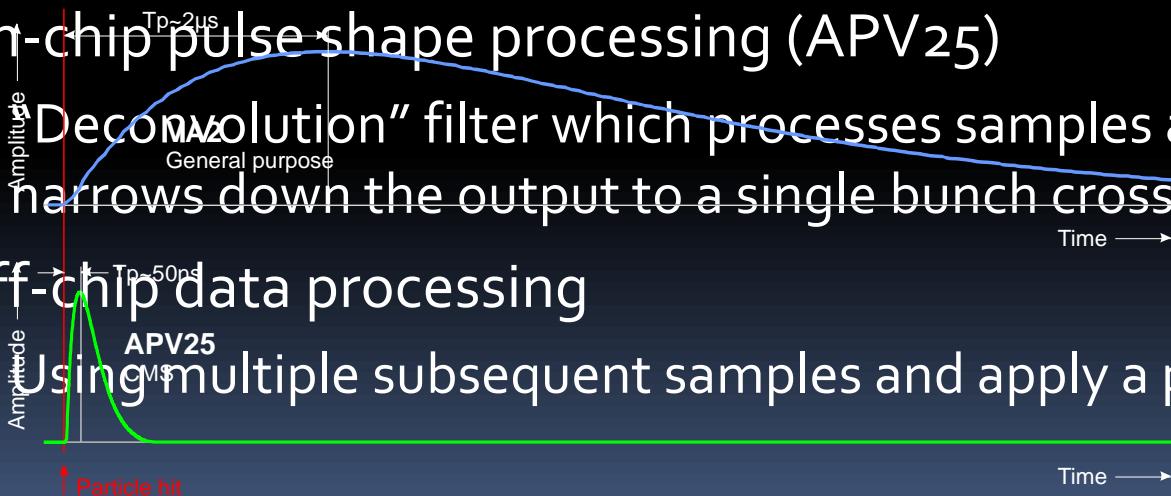
Pile-up Events

- Strip detector measurement in a high intensity beam
- Ambiguities and non-peak sampling can occur



How to Avoid Such Ambiguities?

- Better timing information implies more data, more energy and/or a higher noise figure
- Faster Shaping = narrower output pulses
 - Limited by noise performance
- On-chip pulse shape processing (APV25)
 - “Deconvolution” filter which processes samples and essentially narrows down the output to a single bunch crossing
- Off-chip data processing
 - Using multiple subsequent samples and apply a pulse shape fit



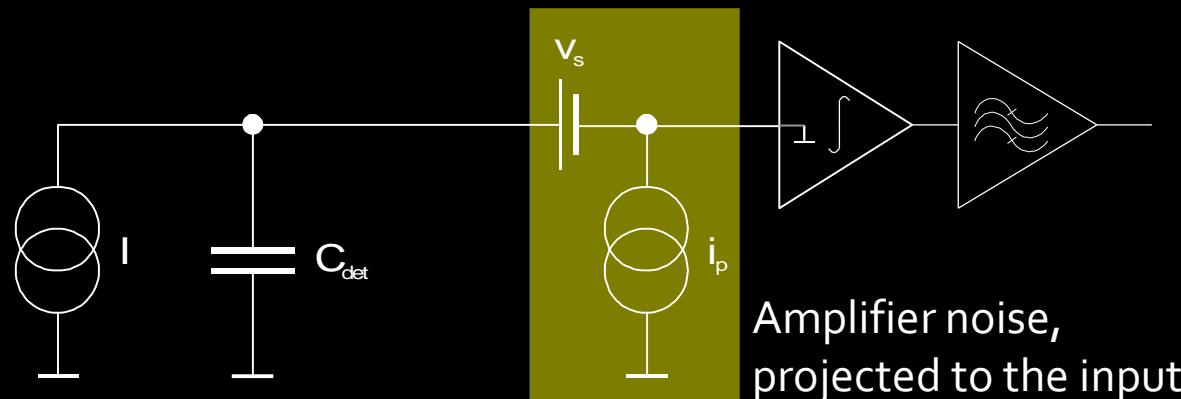
“Low-Noise” Amplifiers

- Nearly all front-end chips are called “low-noise”
- General feature of the integrator+shaper combination
- Noise is typically given by ENC (equivalent noise charge) referred to the input
- $\text{ENC} = a + b \cdot C_{\text{det}}$ ($a, b \dots \text{const}$, $C_{\text{det}} \dots \text{detector capacitance}$)
- Examples:

	T_p [ns]	ENC [e]
VA2 (1993)	2000	$60 + 11 / \text{pF}$
APV25 (CMS, 1999)	50	$250 + 36 / \text{pF}$

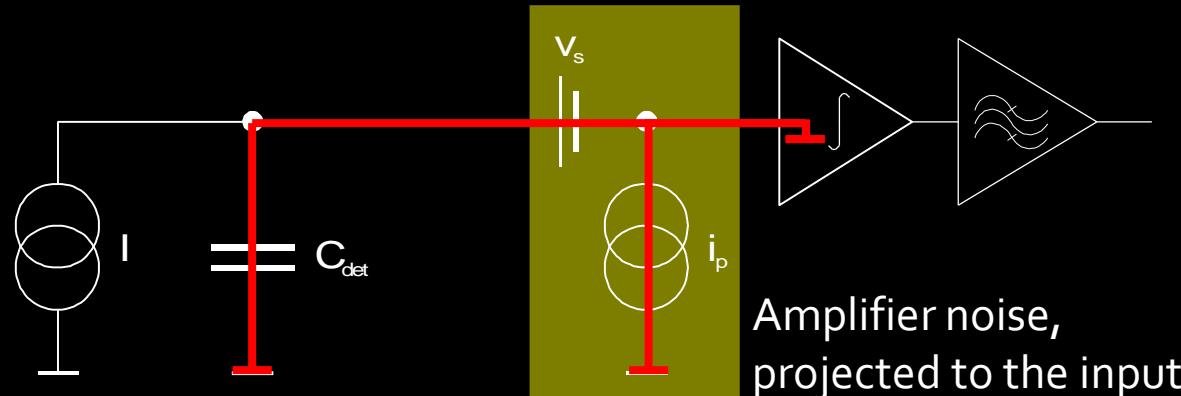
- How can noise depend on the detector capacitance?

Simplified Noise Model (1/2)



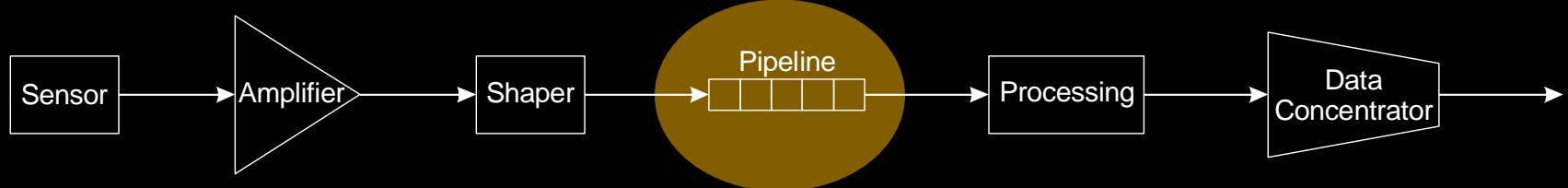
- Amplifier noise is projected to voltage noise source and current noise source at input
- Integrator measures charge, which is equivalent to:
 - $Q = \int i \, dt$
 - $Q = C \cdot V$

Simplified Noise Model (2/2)



- Superposition analysis (one by one, other voltage sources are closed, other current sources are open; **very simplified**):
 - Parallel noise: $Q_p = \int i_p dt$
 - Series noise: $Q_s = C_{\text{det}} \cdot V_s$
 - Total noise: $Q_n = Q_p + Q_s \quad \text{ENC} = a + b \cdot C_{\text{det}}$

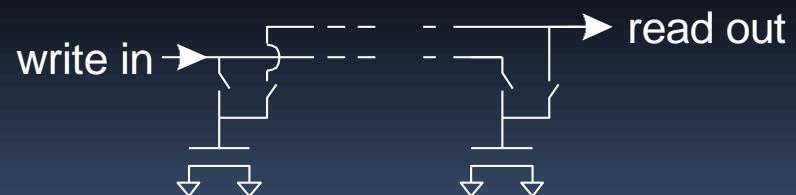
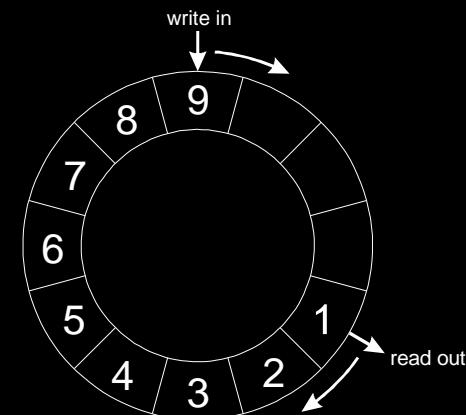
Pipeline



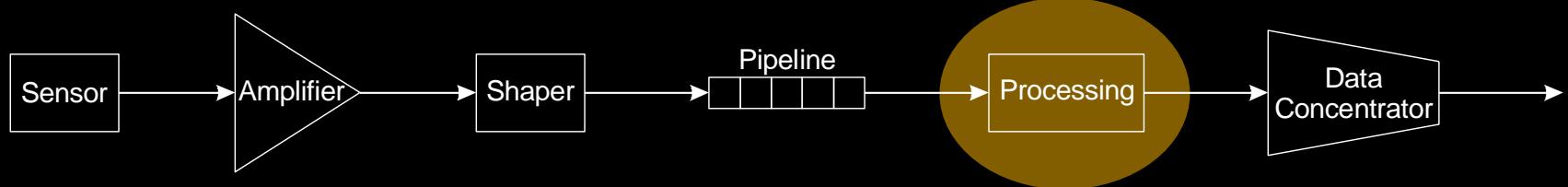
- Modern experiments require that data are retained for a while
- Why?
 - LHC bunch crossings occur every 25 ns ($\equiv 40$ MHz)
 - Only selected events are read out
 - It takes ~ 3 μ s to decide whether or not
 - ~ 120 bunch crossings happen during that time
 - LHC readout electronics contains a storage for >120 clocks
 - Example: APV25 (CMS Tracker) has a pipeline with 160 cells

Pipeline Example

- APV25 chip (CMS Tracker):
 - Shaper output is sampled
 - Analog values are stored in the pipeline
 - Noise and losses would not allow real shifting of analog data
 - In fact, it is a ring buffer with moving write/read pointers
 - Storage element: capacitors



Processing



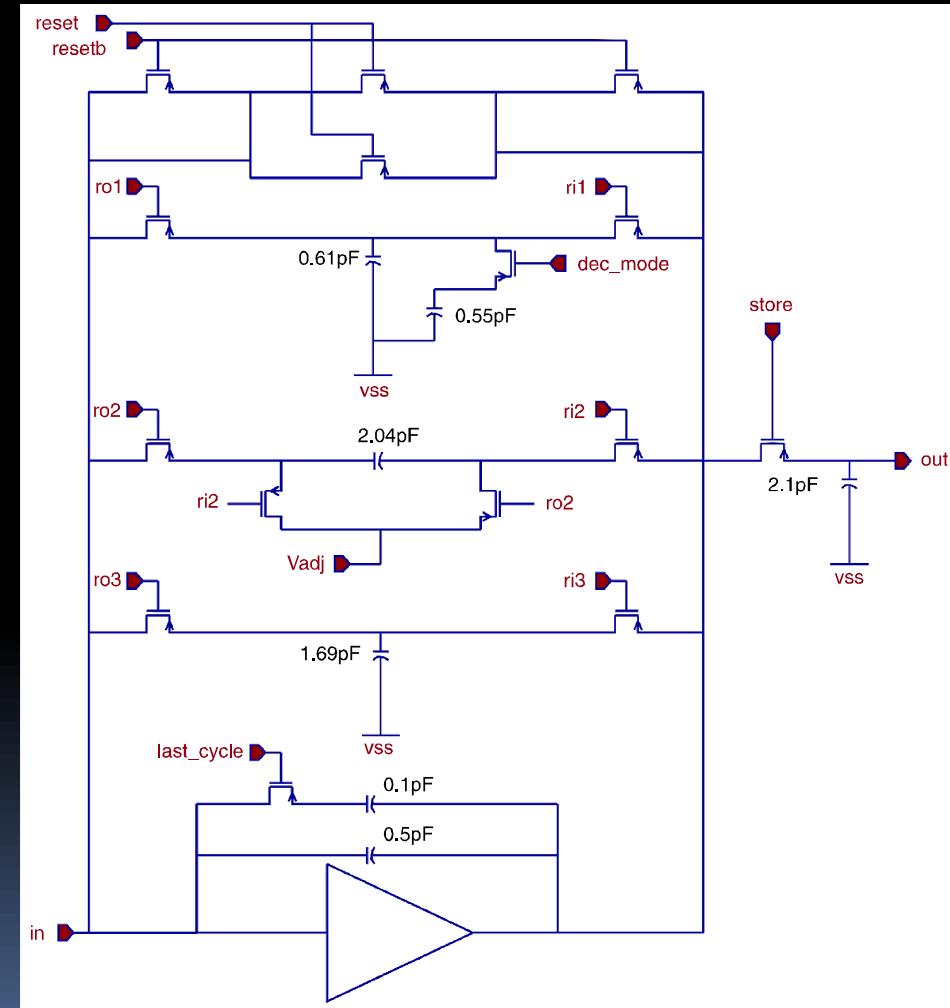
- This is a very individual feature
- Example: APV25
 - “Deconvolution” filter
 - Essentially reverts shaping
 - (Ideally) reduces width of shaper output curve to 1 clock

Deconvolution

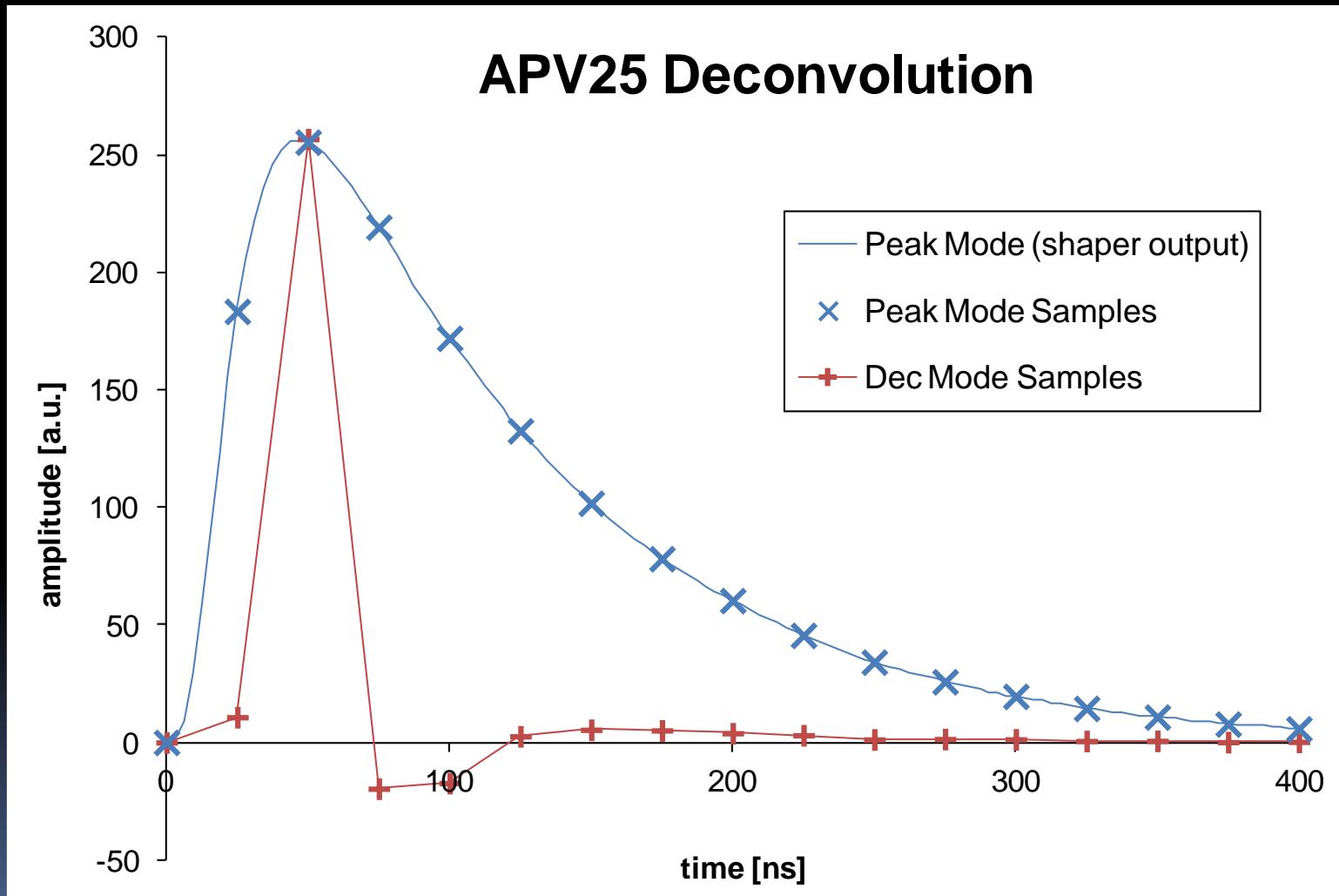
- Switched capacitor filter
- Time-discrete operation
- Weighted sum of 3 consecutive samples

$$d_k = w_3 p_{k-2} + w_2 p_{k-1} + w_1 p_k$$

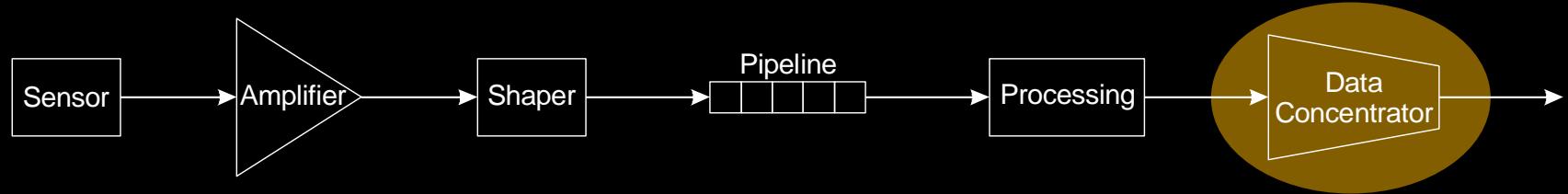
- 3-stage FIR (finite impulse response) filter
- Requires clock-synchronous bunch crossings (=LHC)



Deconvolution Result

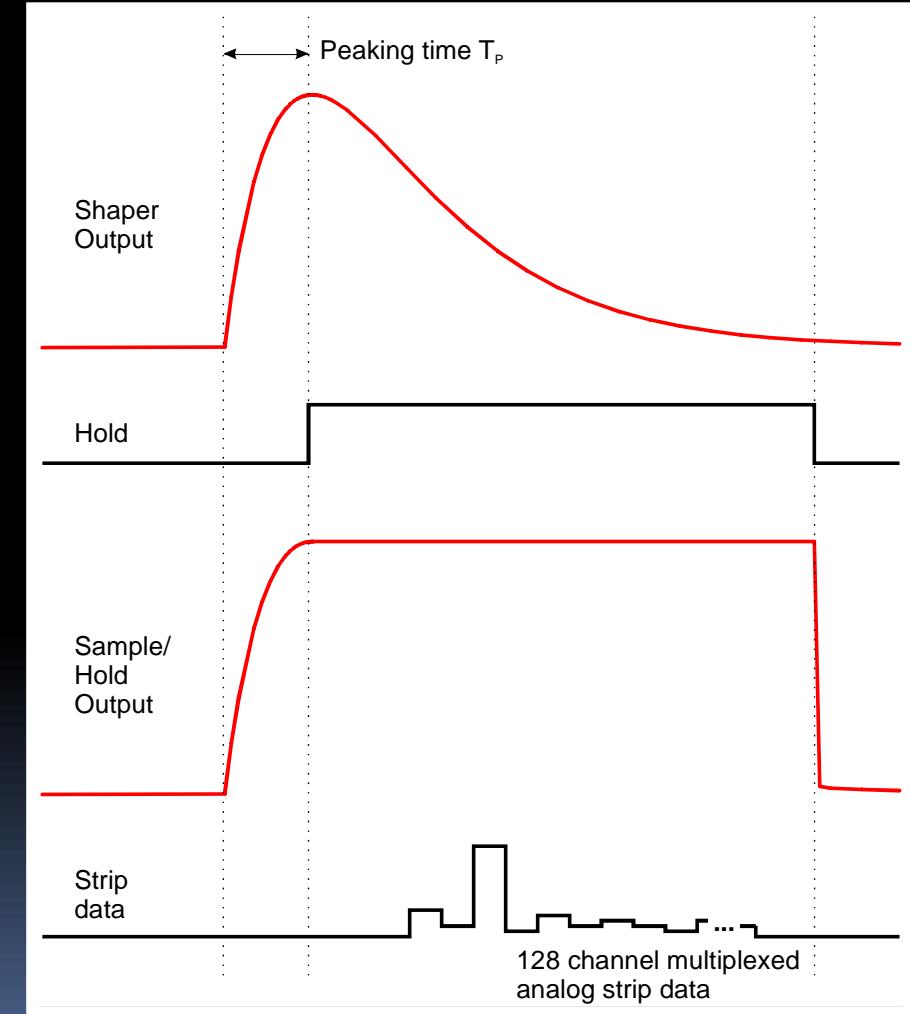
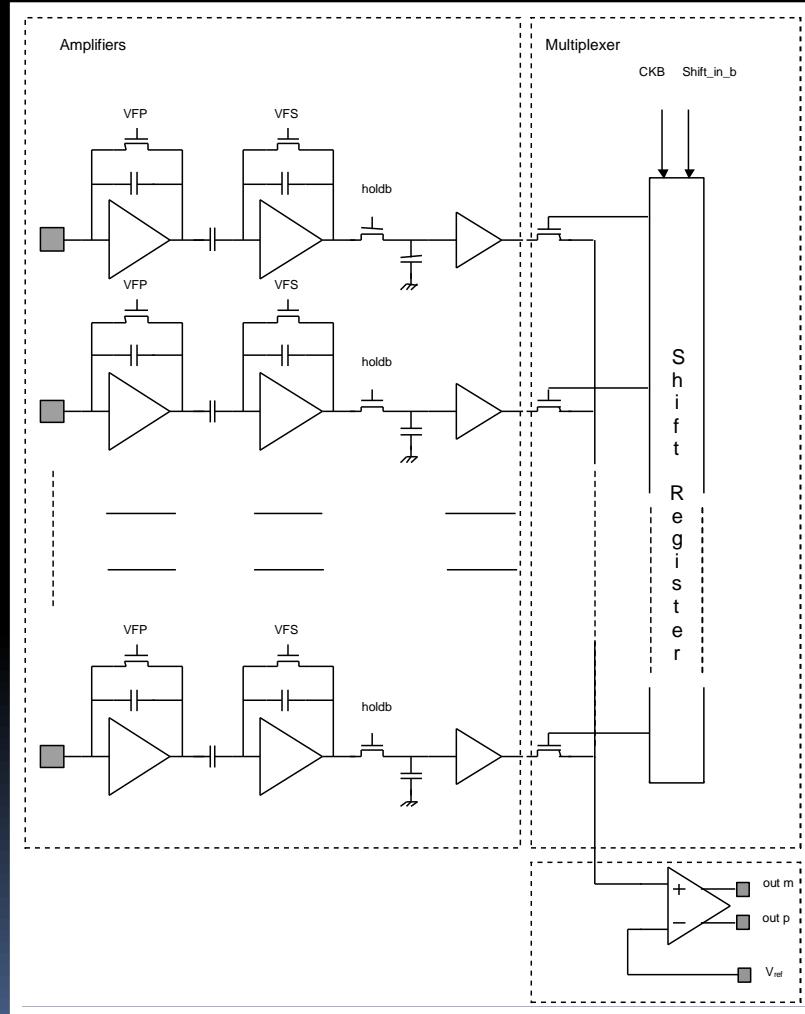


Data Concentrator



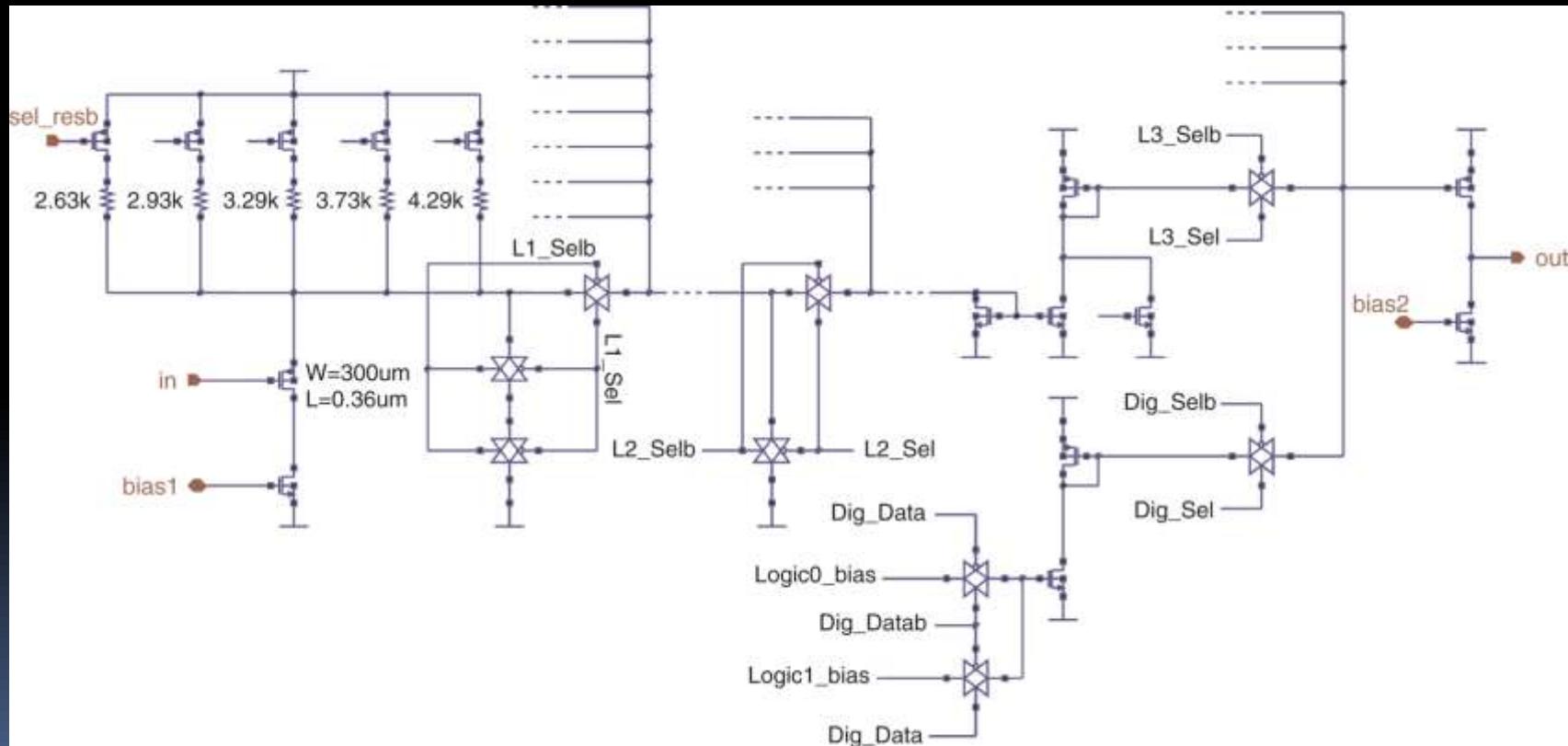
- Last stage of front-end chip
- Front-end chip has many channels in parallel (typically 128)
 - Impossible to handle so many output lines
 - Usually only one single (or differential) output line
- Multiple channels to be sent out on a single output
- Typically done with time-multiplexing
 - All 128 channel values sent out one after another

Sample/Hold and Multiplexer

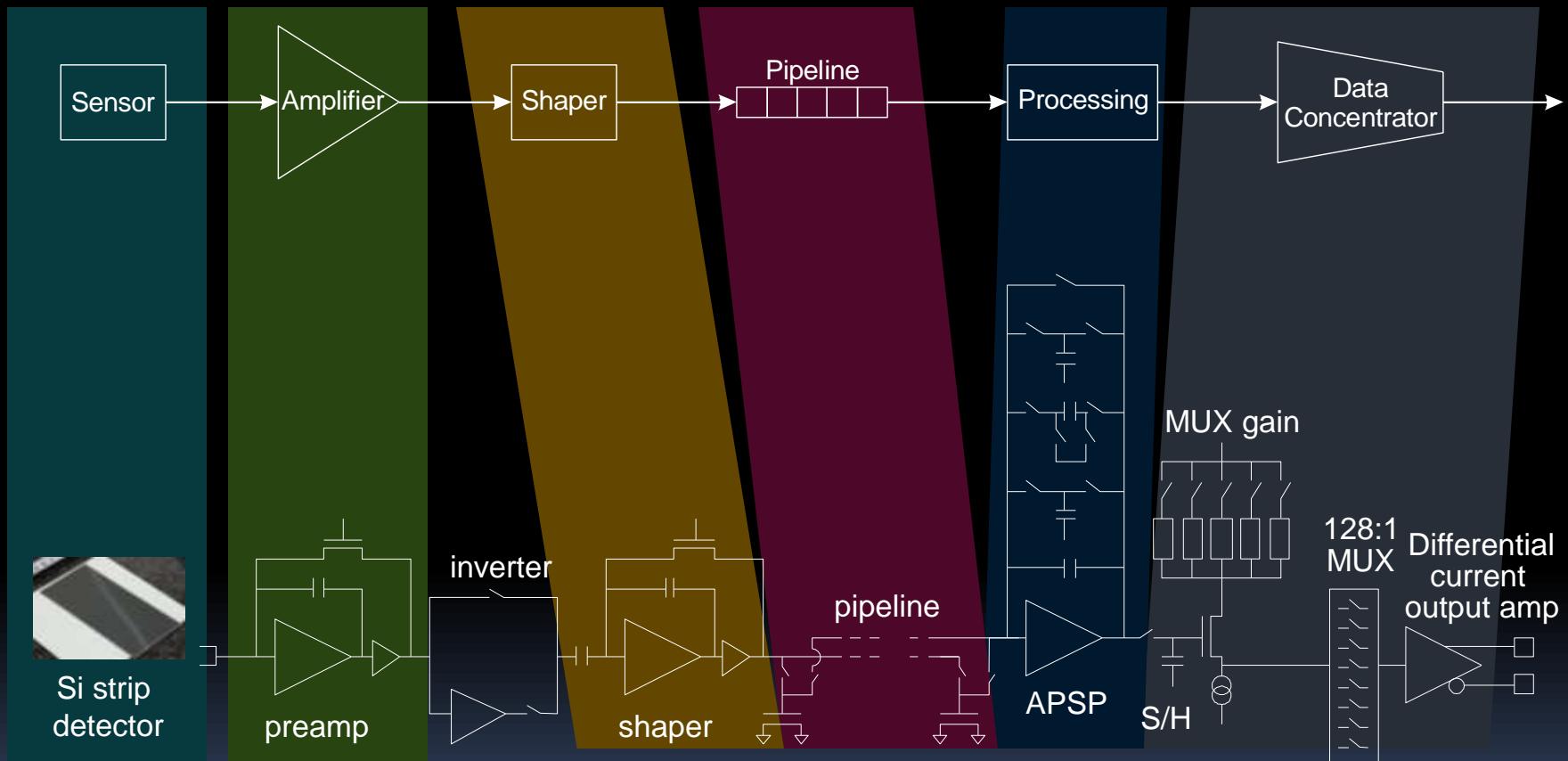


Multiplexer

- Example: APV25 chip with tree-like structure (3 levels)
 - Only final 4:1 stage runs at full speed – lower power consumption



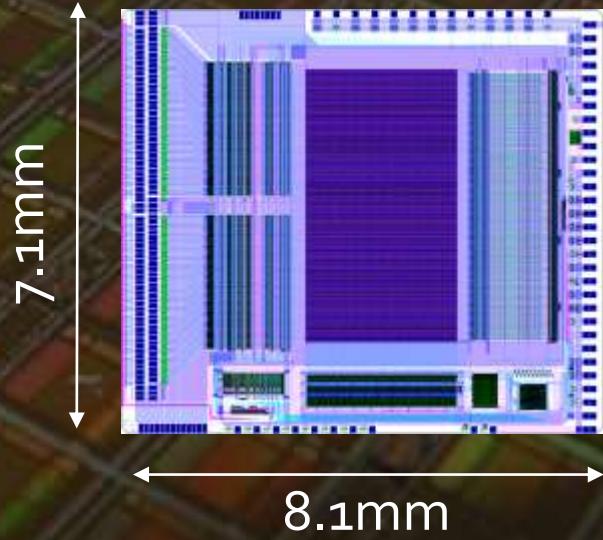
Full Picture



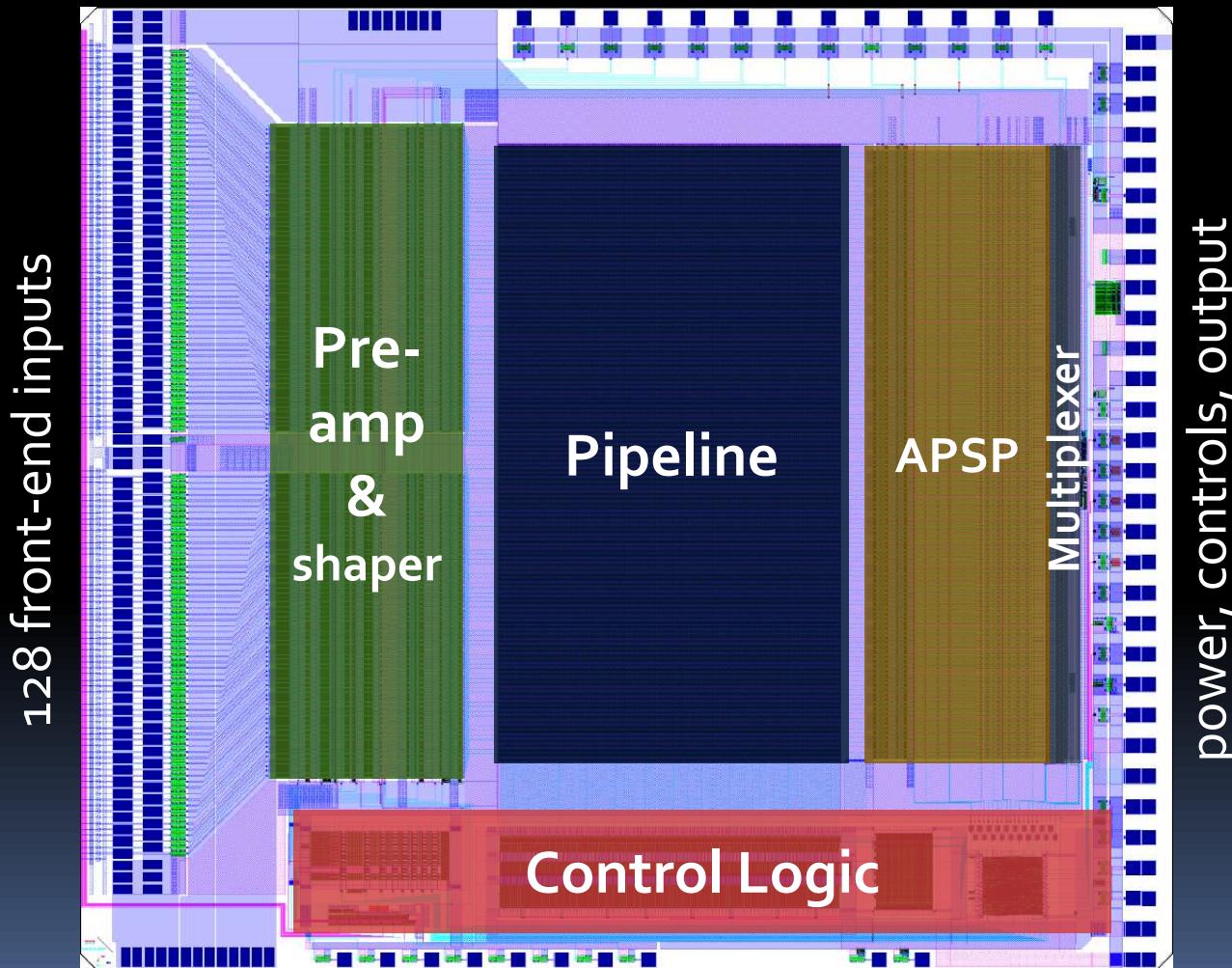
Silicon strip detector + APV25 front-end chip

Full Chip Example: APV25 (CMS)

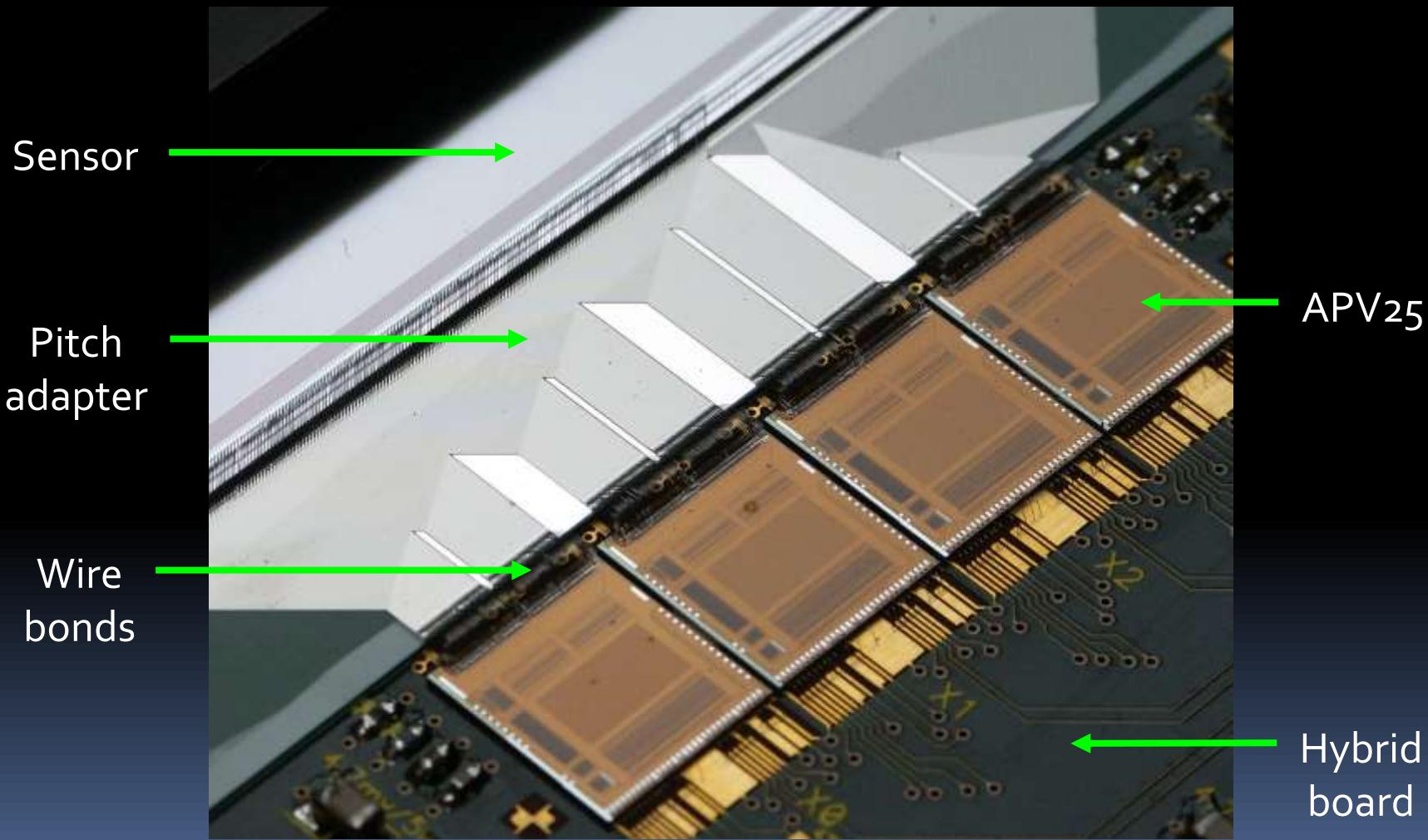
- Shaping time: 50ns
- Sampling (clock): 40MHz
- Analog pipeline (192 cells) to store data until trigger arrives
- Optional “deconvolution” (APSP=analog pulse shape processing) filter
- 128:1 multiplexer
- Differential output driver



APV25 Chip Layout



APV25 in Action

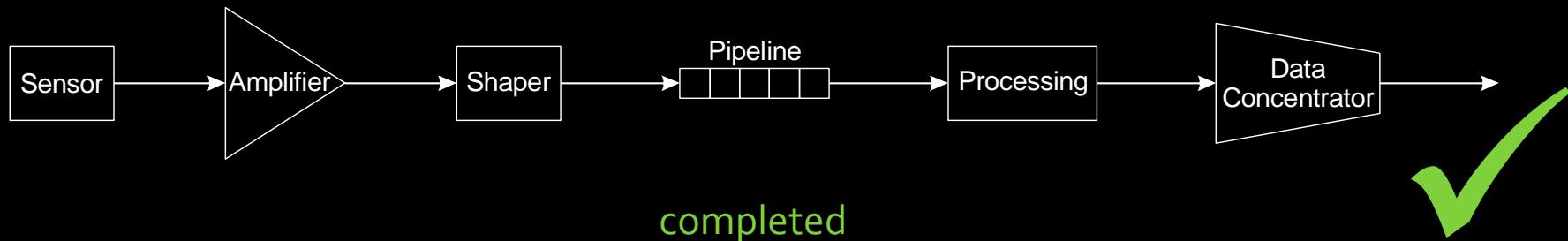


Front-End Amplifier Summary

- Integrated circuits with typically 128 channels
- 2 stages:
 - Preamplifier (integrator: current → charge)
 - Shaper (band-pass filter to reduce noise)
- Noise is referred to input and expressed as charge:
 - $\text{ENC} = a + b \cdot C_{\text{det}}$ (a,b...const, C_{det} ...detector capacitance)
- Shaper bandwidth determined speed and noise
 - Fast ≡ large noise; slow ≡ low noise
 - Required speed is usually defined by the experiment
 - Slow shaping and pile-up can lead to ambiguities

Reminder: Typical Readout Chain

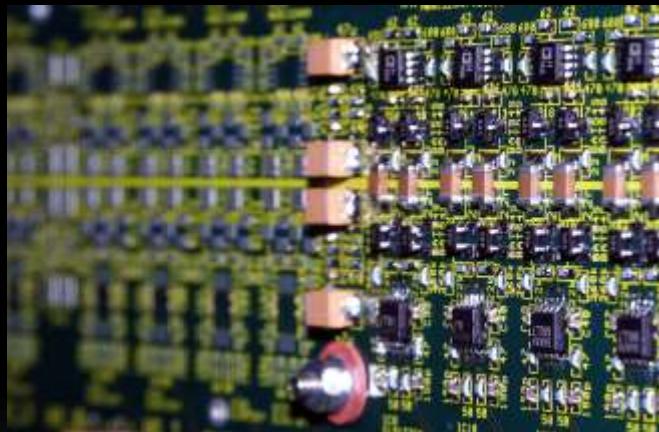
- Front-end part:



- Back-end part:



- Let's first look at the connection between the 2 parts...



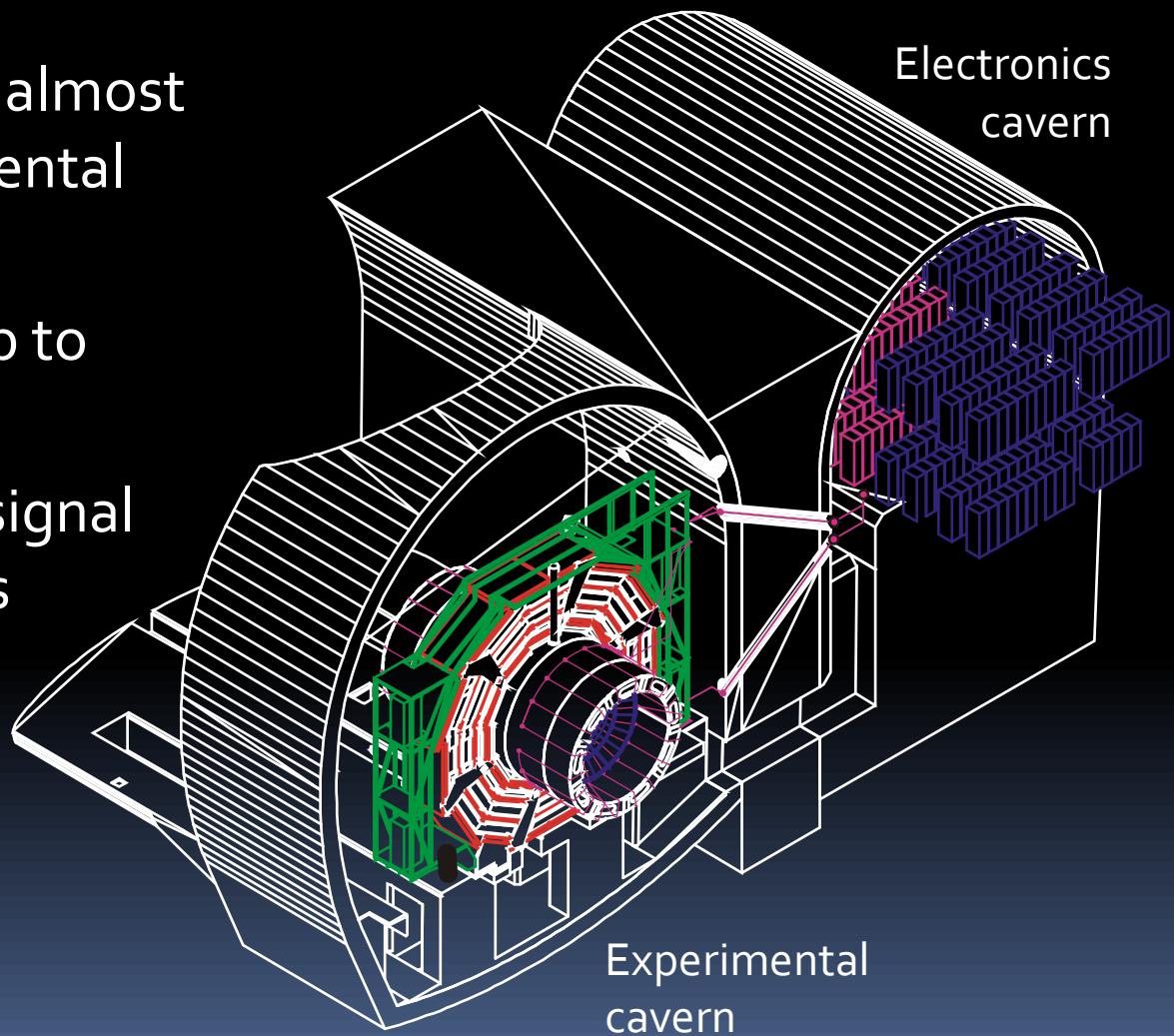
Typical Readout Chain
Readout Chain – Front-End
Signal Transmission
Readout Chain – Back-End
Additional Topics

Why Don't We Put Everything in One Place?

- Detector front-end is usually quite crowded
- Several restrictions:
 - **Radiation** environment does not allow commercial electronics
 - **Magnetic field** also puts some limitations
 - **Material budget** should be as low as possible
 - **Power consumption** as well (requires cooling = material)
- Thus, only inevitable electronics are put in the front-end
- Everything else is conveniently located in a separate room outside the detector, traditionally called “counting house”
 - Allows access during machine and detector operation

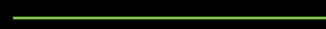
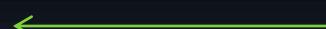
Example: CMS Experiment

- Electronics hall is almost as big as experimental cavern
- Signal distance up to 100m
- Huge amount of signal transmission lines

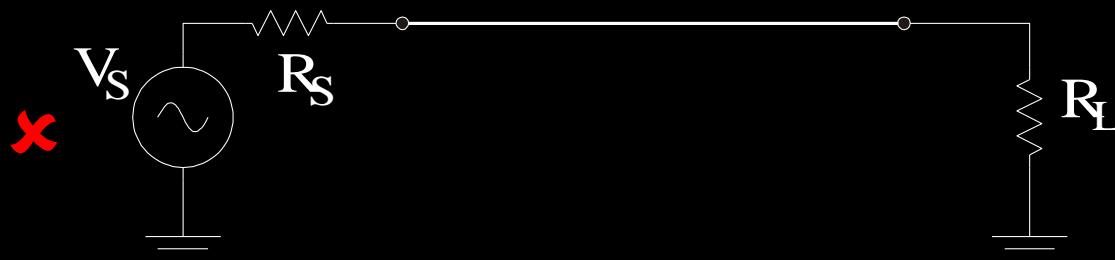


Generic Transmission Chain

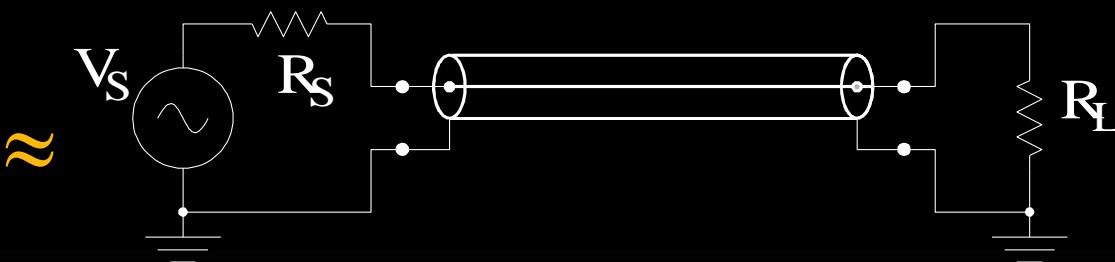


- Signal directions
 - Readout (large amount): front-end to back-end, analog or digital 
 - Controls (small amount): back-end to front-end, digital (clock, trigger, settings) 
- Often, the front-end chips cannot drive the full path
 - Repeater (driver/receiver) is needed to amplify signals

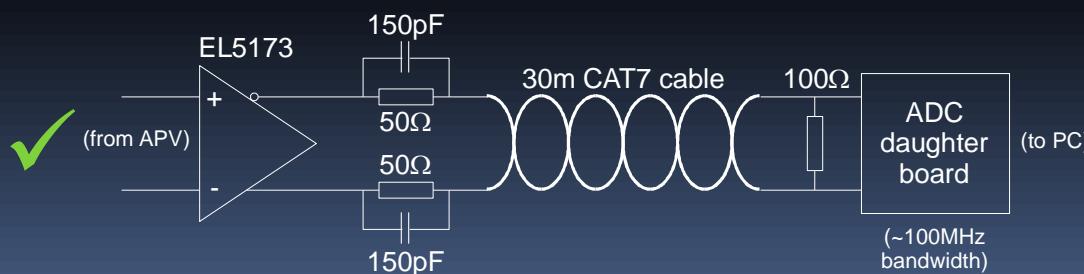
Excursion: Electrical Signal Transmission



- Single-ended against GND
 - Huge ground loop



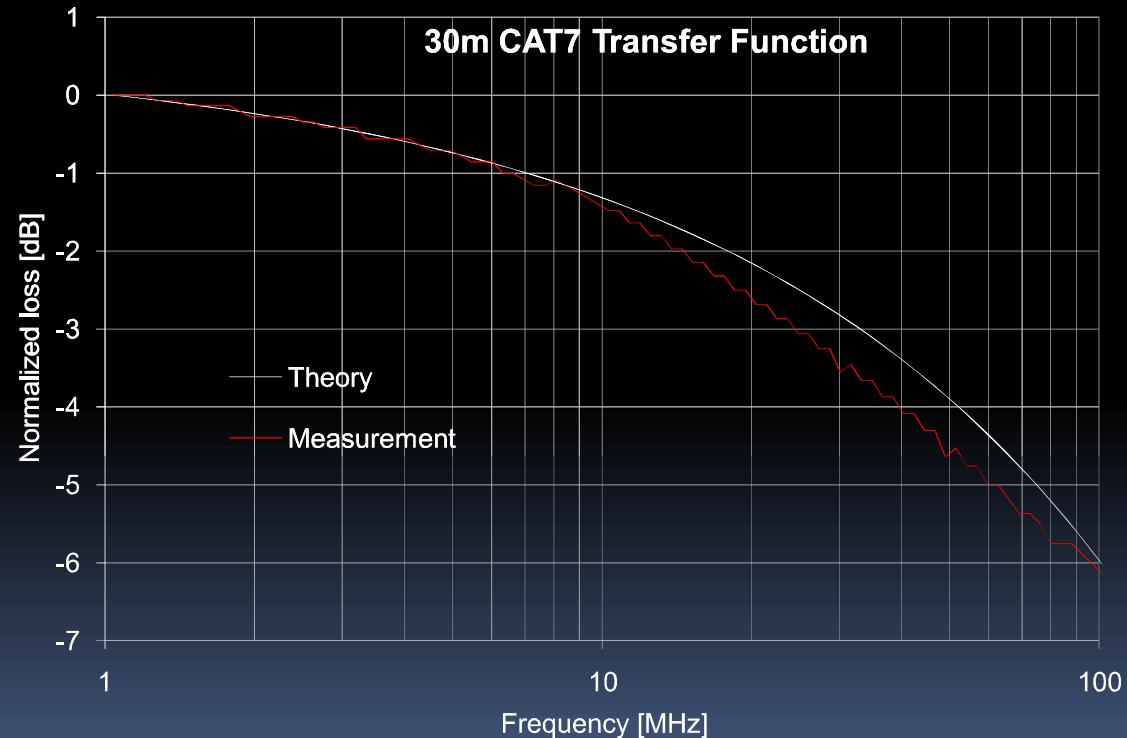
- Single-ended in coaxial cable
 - Ground loop?



- Differential twisted pair (+shield)
 - Largely immune

Cable Bandwidth

- Every cable has a finite bandwidth / damping
 - How does damping depend on frequency?
- Example: CAT7 network cable (shielded twisted pairs)
- Significant especially for analog signal transmission



Alternative: Optical Fiber

- Benefits:
 - Fibers have extremely high bandwidth and very little loss
 - Automatically provide electrical isolation between ends
- Drawback:
 - require conversion on both ends → more expensive than a cable
- Best suitable for long-haul, high-speed digital data transmission such as telecom
 - Nonetheless also often used in HEP experiments
- Optical transmission usually requires digital signals with AC coding
 - same probability for 0 and 1; average = 0.5
 - Limited number of consecutive 0s or 1s

Electrical vs. Optical Communication

- Which one is more reliable?

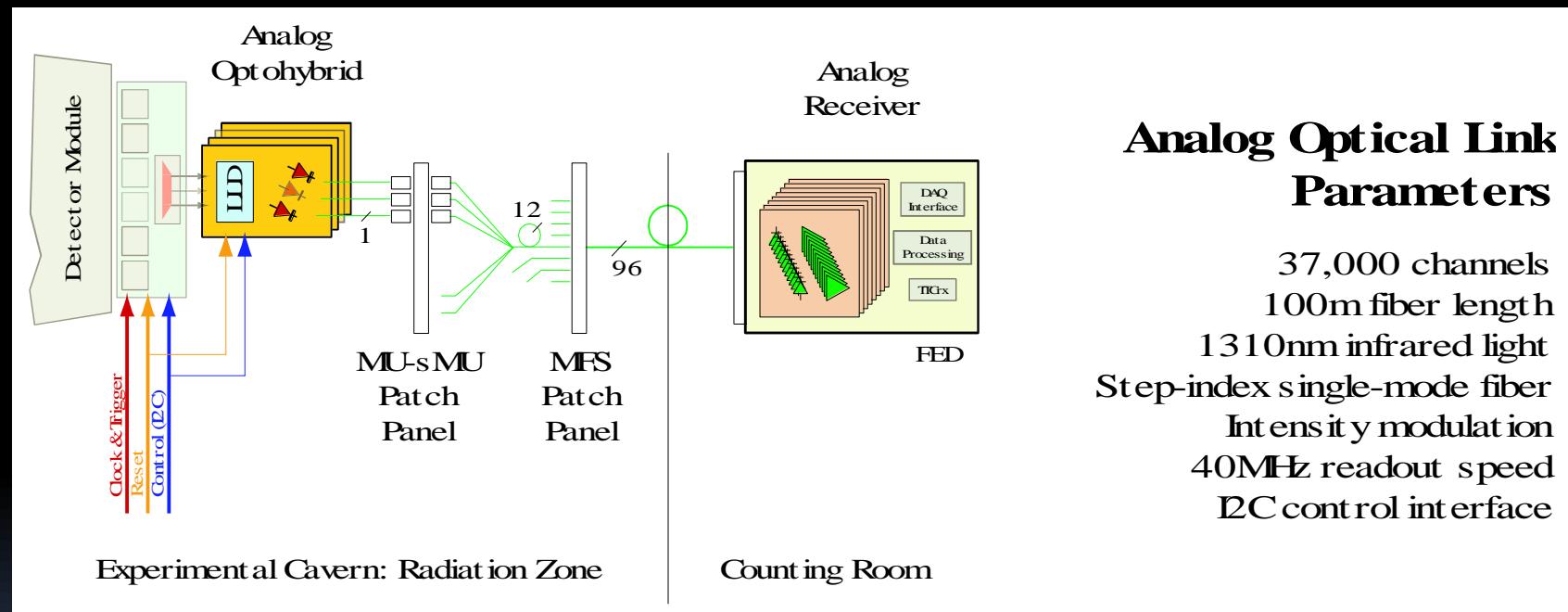


Comparison: Copper vs. Optical Fiber

Property	Copper Cable	Optical Fiber
Cable	rigid	delicate (e.g. radius)
Connectors	huge variety	few standards
Size/weight	large	small
Bandwidth	limited	high
Loss	high	low
Driver + receiver	cheap	(slightly) expensive
Level isolation	no	yes

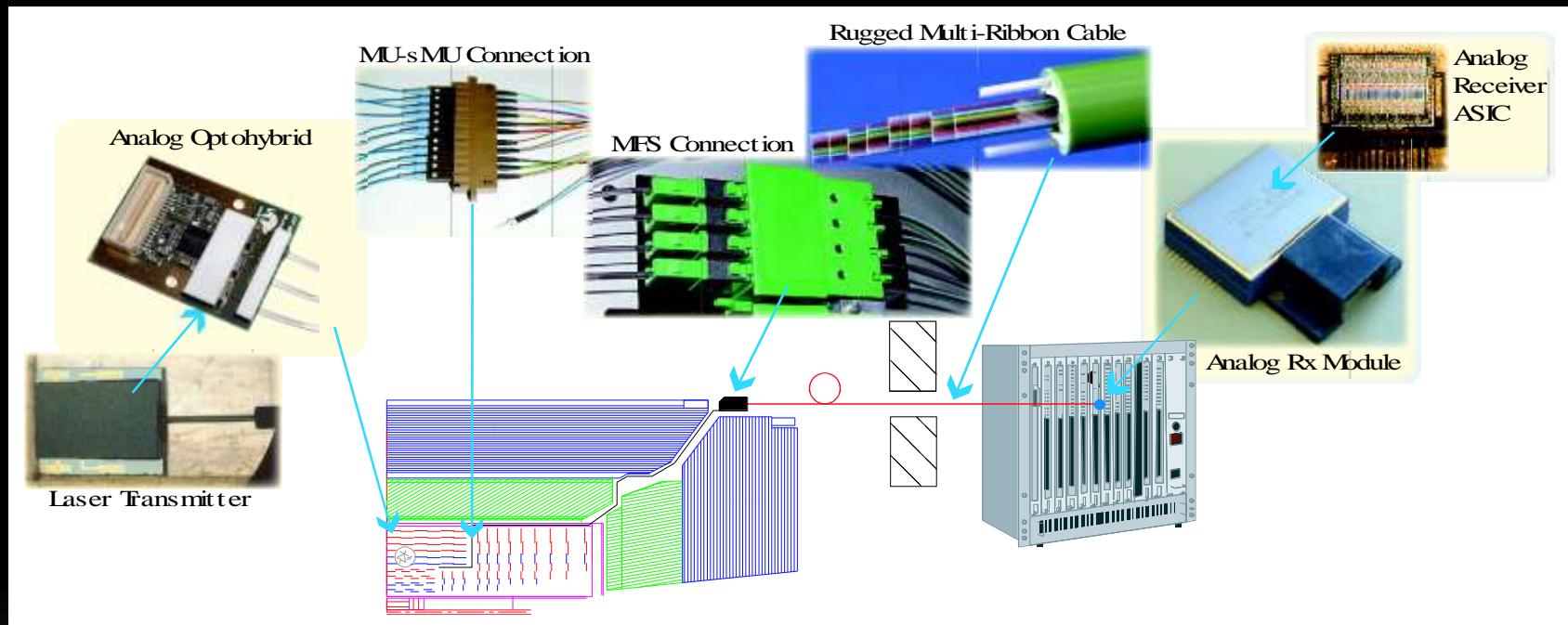
Example: CMS Tracker (1)

- Optical fiber required because of material budget



- Exceptional case: **analog** optical transmission
 - Special requirements for linearity, gain stability and noise

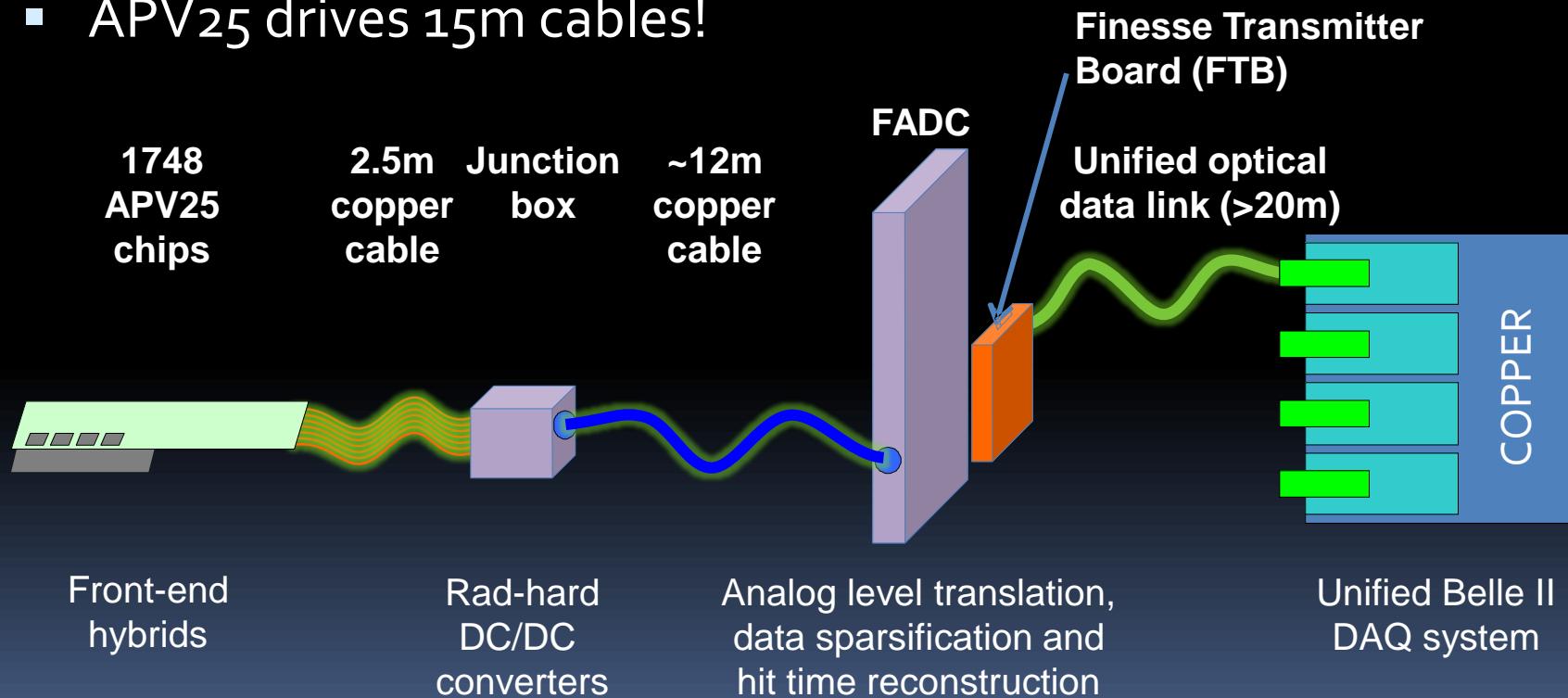
Example: CMS Tracker (2)



- Several components are customized and thus expensive
 - O(10000) are small quantities for industry
- Cost per link: ~150 € (cf. ~15 € with cable)

Example: Belle II Silicon Vertex Detector

- Analog APV25 readout is through copper cable to FADCs
- Junction box provides LV to front-end
- APV25 drives 15m cables!

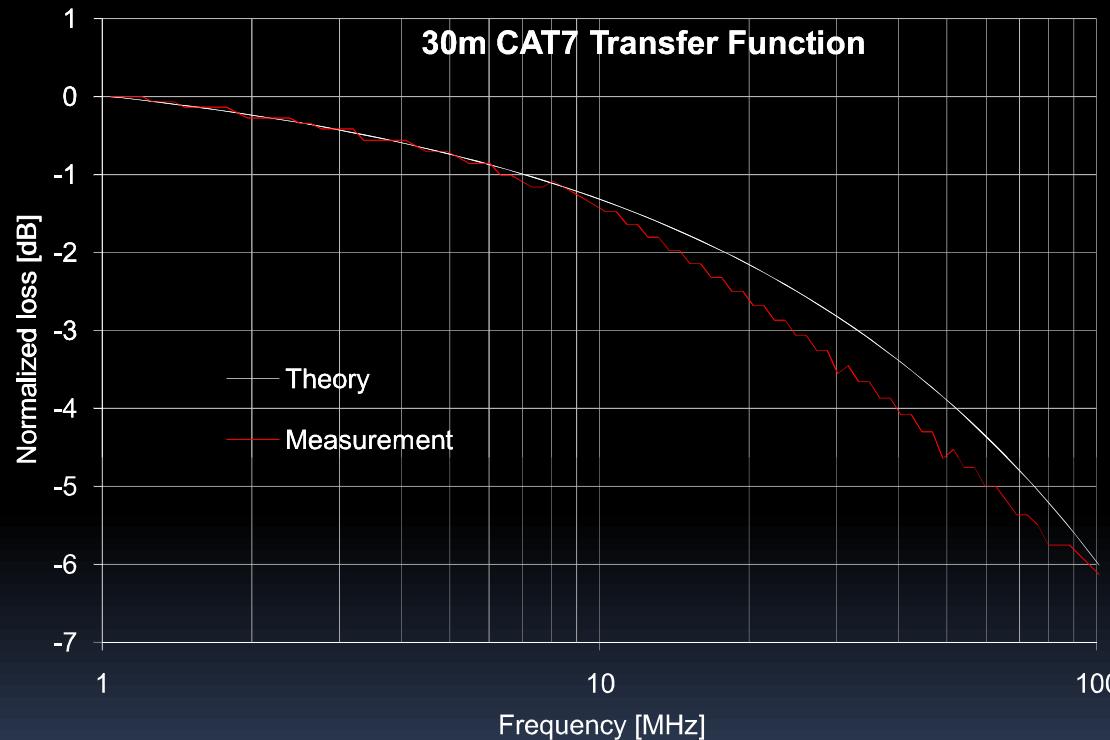


Example: Belle II Silicon Vertex Detector

- Using same APV25 chip as in CMS, but shorter distance → no optical link required
- Analog signals are attenuated in long copper cable – how to compensate this?
 - First attempt was an analog equalizer chip (enhancing higher frequencies) with moderate success
 - Later tried purely digital filter after digitization
 - Perfect regeneration with digital signal processing (FIR=finite impulse response filter) at the back-end inside an FPGA
 - Multiplication of 8 consecutive samples with 8 filter coefficients and summing in real-time (40 MHz)

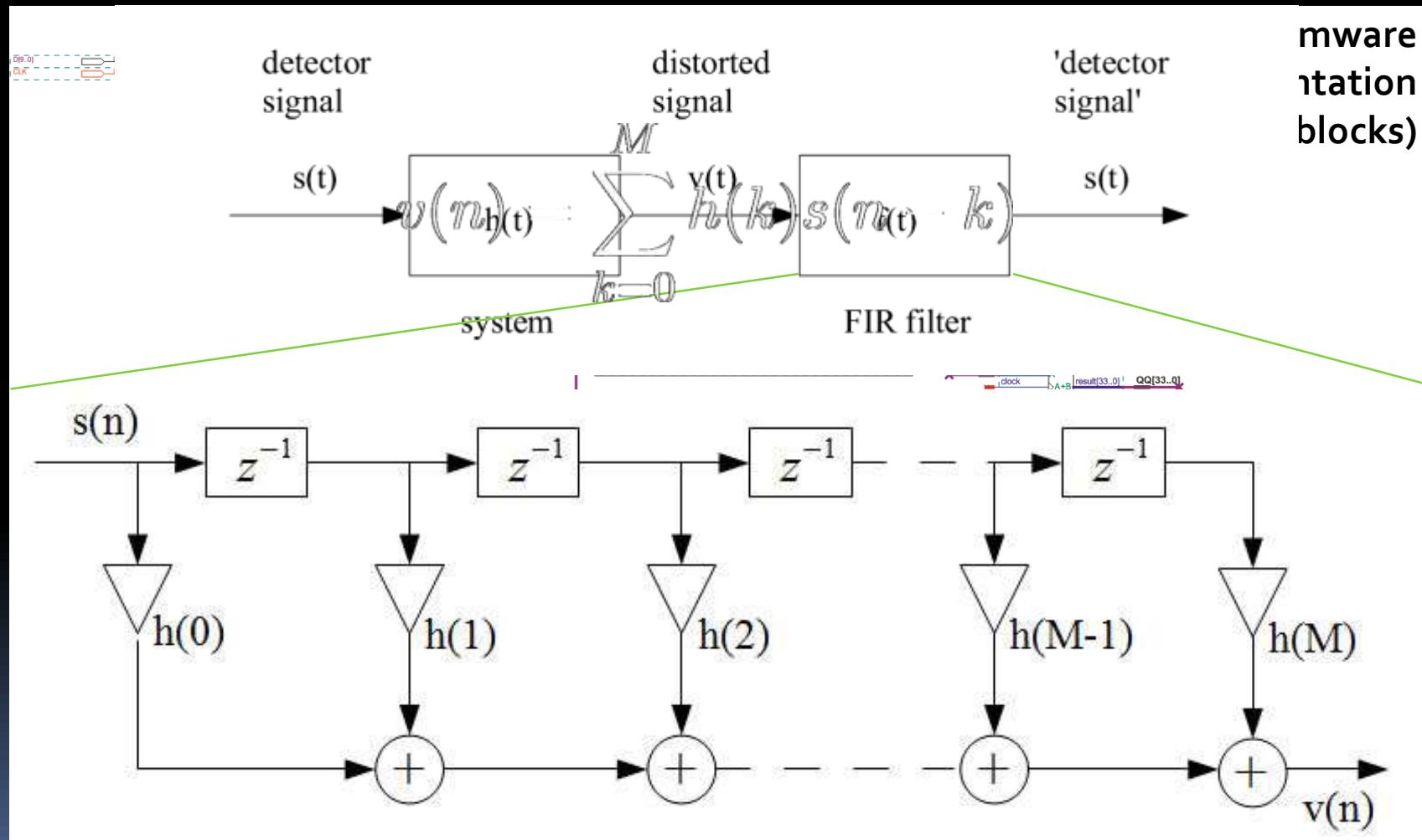
Cable Transfer Function

- Problem: non-linear attenuation depending on cable length



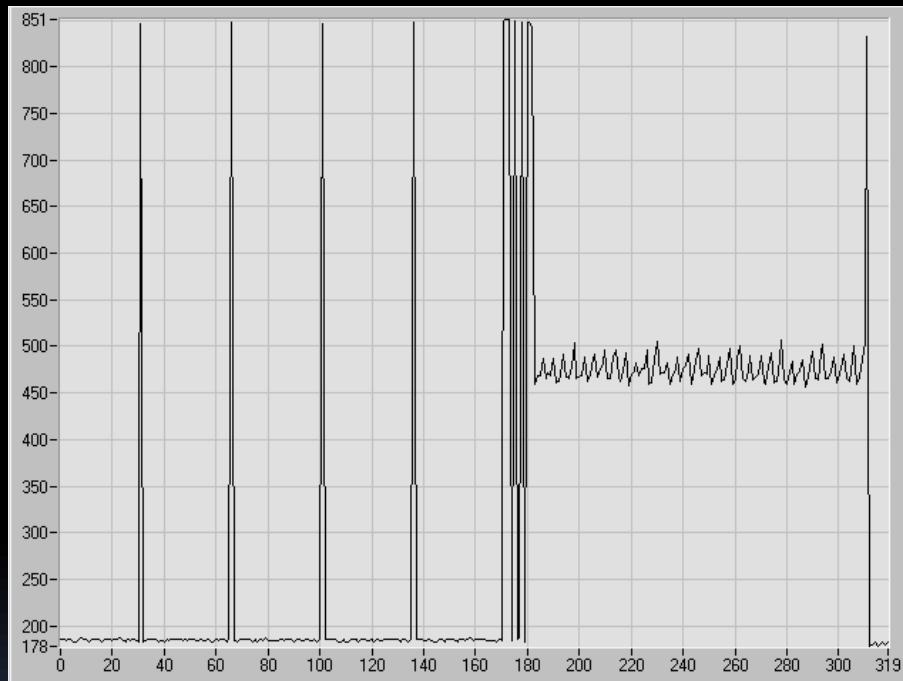
$$H(f) = e^{-kl(1+j)\sqrt{f}}$$

Solution: FIR Filter

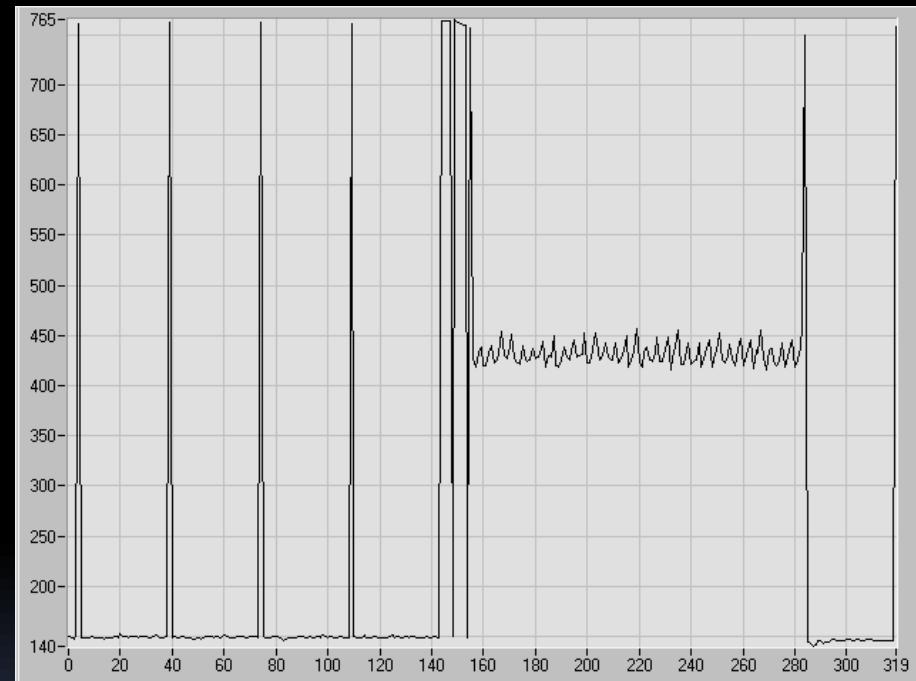


FIR Filter Results

Channel A



Channel B

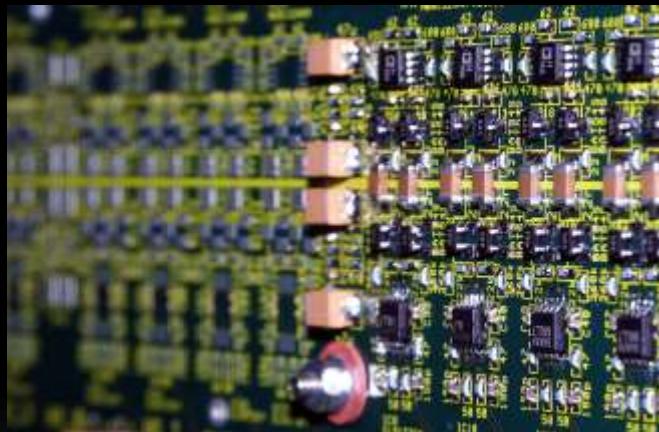


Raw APV25 output **without** FIR

- FIR filter with 8 coefficients operating continuously at 40MHz
- Removes cable loss and reflections due to imperfect termination!

Signal Transmission Summary

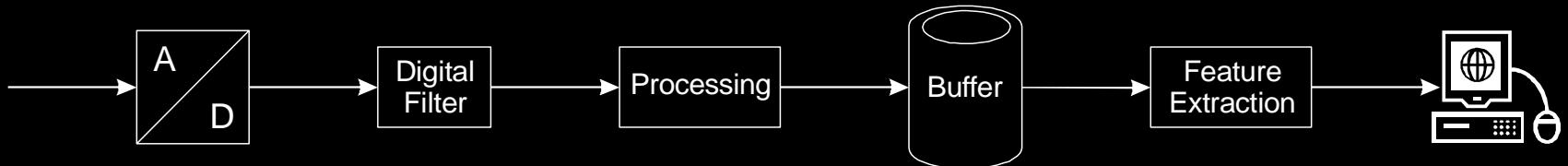
- Signals of large number of readout channels to be transmitted to back-end for data processing
- Options: copper cable or optical fiber
- Copper is much cheaper, but has frequency-dependent loss
 - Can be compensated e.g. with digital FIR filter at back-end
- Optical links are more complicated to handle
 - Usually digital with AC coding
 - Exception: CMS Tracker uses analog optical links



Typical Readout Chain
Readout Chain – Front-End
Signal Transmission
Readout Chain – Back-End
Additional Topics

Readout Chain – Back-End

- Back-end part:



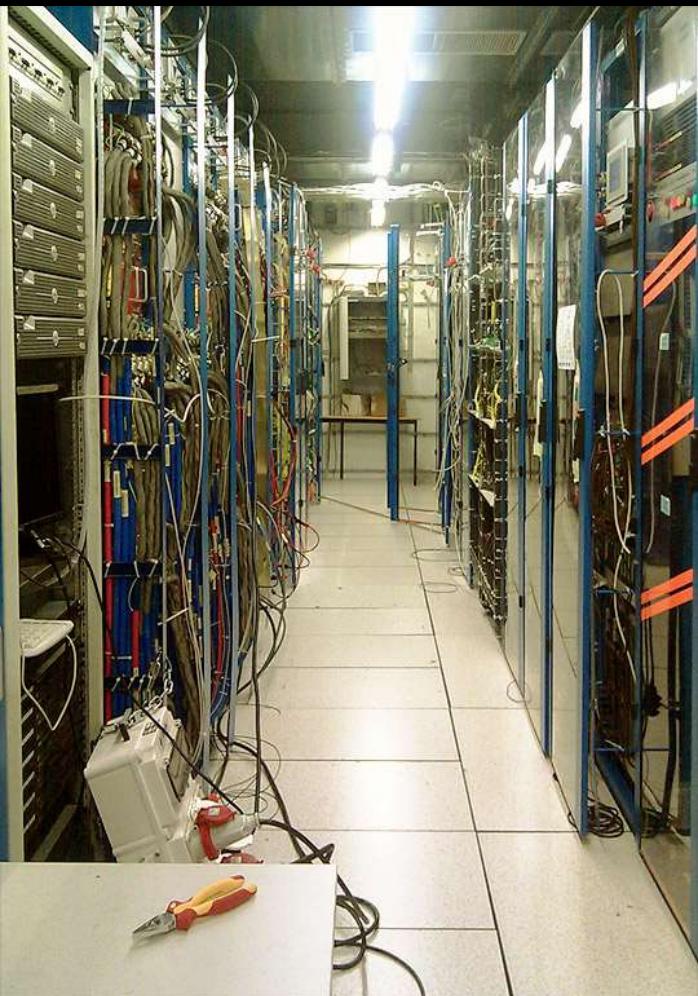
- Back-end is typically built using COTS (components off the shelf) = commercially available parts
 - No radiation
 - No magnetic field
 - Not as crowded as in the detector
- Often using lots of 19" racks

What Is a 19" Rack?

- Standardized mechanical structure (frame)
 - Width is always 19" (48.26cm)
 - Height and depth can vary
 - Many different styles offered by industry
 - Also widely used in computing and audio engineering



19" Racks in Particle Physics



DAQ and electronics-hut of Belle @ KEK (Japan)

Underground electronics cavern of CMS @ CERN

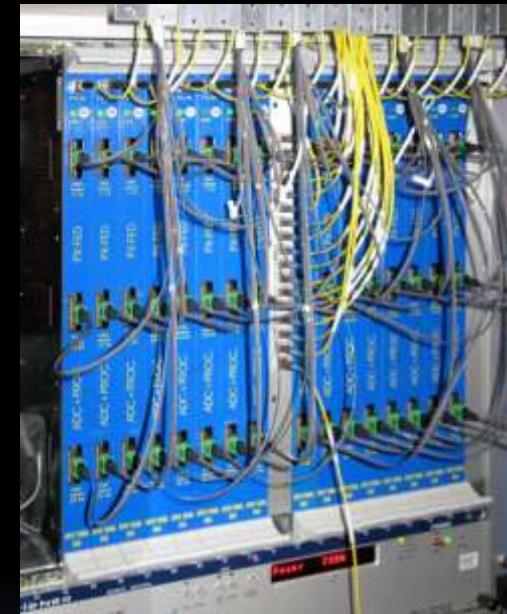
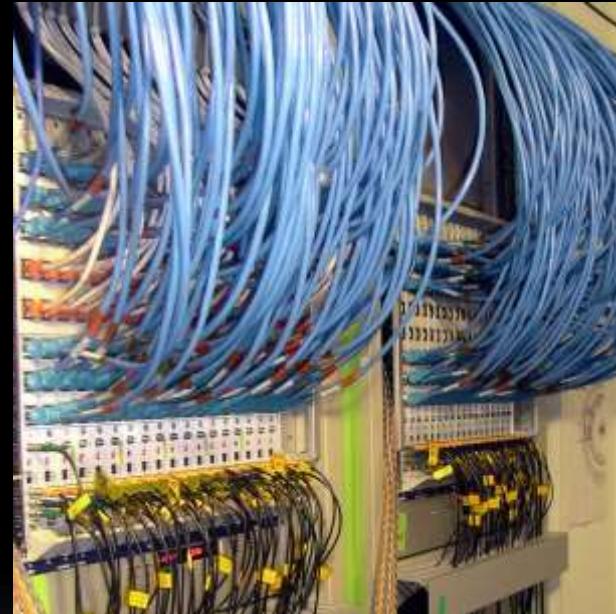
What to Put Into a Rack?

- Electronics:
 - Crates, cooling units
- Computing:
 - Servers, routers, storage (disk arrays), ...
- They are all 19" wide
- Height is measured in units ("U")
 - 1 U = 1.75" = 4.445cm (typical height for a rack server)
- Almost any depth (up to 1m)

What Is a Crate?

- Standardized frame that holds several electronics boards
 - LHC Standard: VME (Versa Module Eurocard), size 9U
 - Obsolete: CAMAC, Fastbus
 - Modern: xTCA
- All those standards describe
 - Geometry of modules
 - Electrical interface, power supply
 - Bus system for communication with crate controller & PC
- Old, but still used everywhere in our community:
 - NIM (logic modules without any data bus)

VME (9U) Crates



Empty crate
as sold by industry
(3 leftmost slots are 6U)

Belle Silicon
Vertex Detector
(cable input)

CMS Pixel-FED
(optical input)

NIM Crates

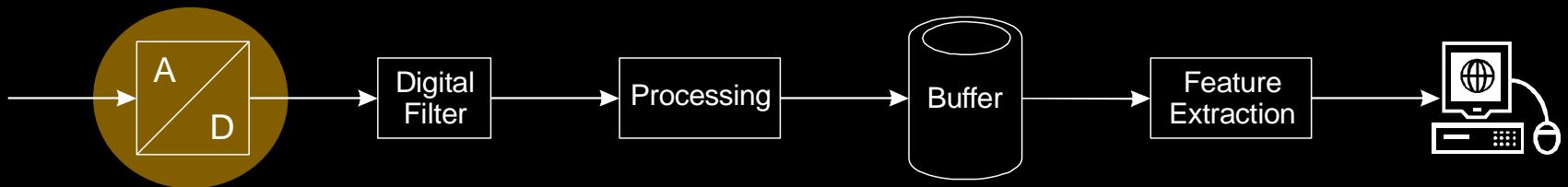


Empty crate
as sold by industry



Crates with modules and cables

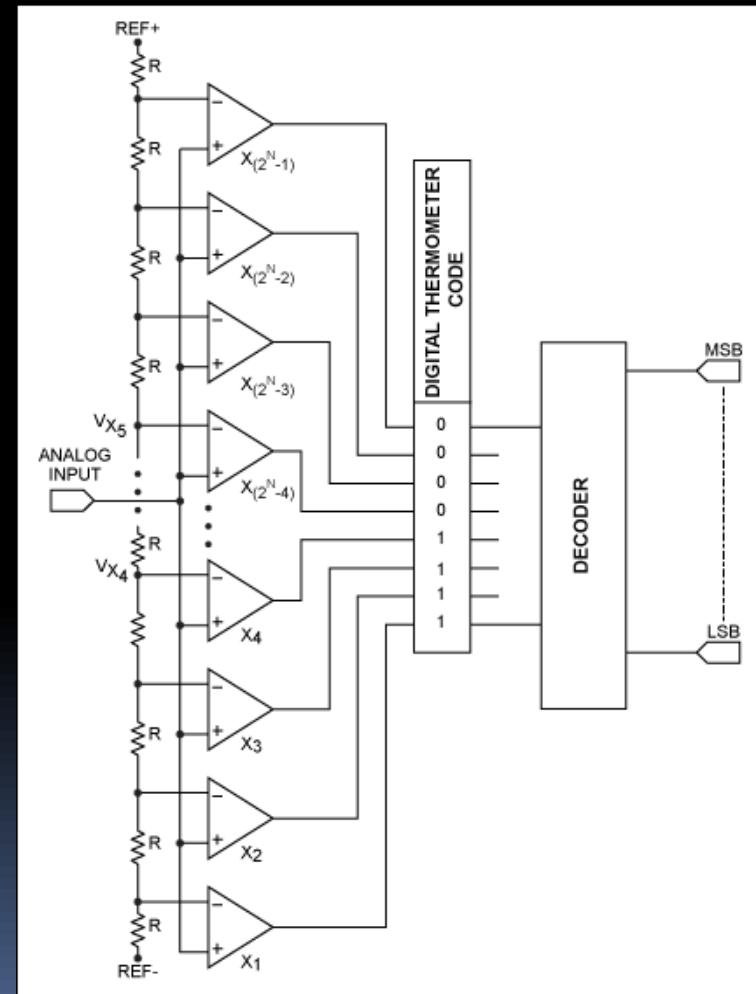
Analog-to-Digital Conversion



- Data have to become digital for computer processing
 - Sometimes, digitization already happens at the front-end
- ADC (Analog-to-Digital Converter) has 3 parameters:
 - Concept (circuitry: how the converter works)
 - Number of bits (8...24)
 - Speed (kS/s...GS/s)
 - Large number of bits implies slow conversion and vice versa
 - In our application, we typically need high-speed FADC (flash ADC) with (for example) 10 bits @ 40 MS/s

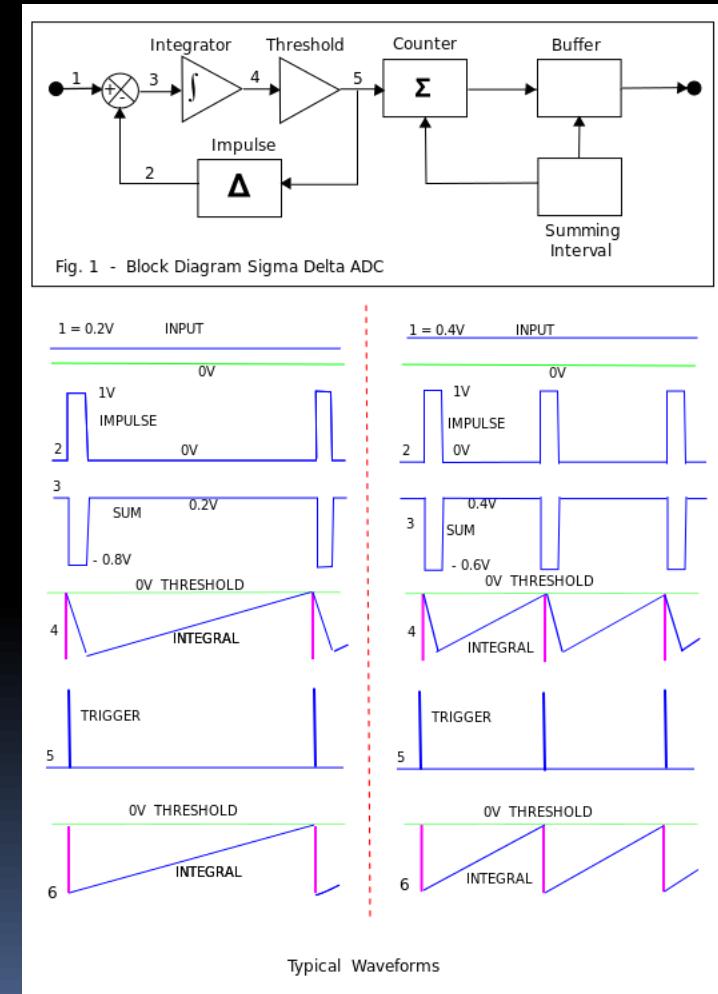
ADC Concept Examples (1/2)

- Flash ADC (our typical choice for readout)
 - High speed
 - Coarse
 - Bank of comparators that produce a “thermometer code”
 - This scheme is not practical for more than ~8 bits
 - Real FADCs use a staged design
 - State-of-the-art:
2 GS/s @ 12 bits



ADC Concept Examples (2/2)

- Sigma-Delta ADC (typically used for monitoring: precise but slow)
 - Low speed
 - Accurate
 - Ramp with integrator and comparator
 - Integration time to a certain level depends on the input
 - State-of-the-art:
2.5 MS/s @ 24 bits



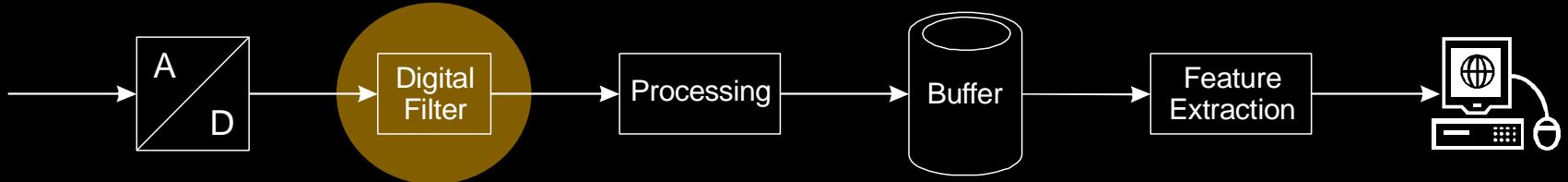
However...

- ENOB (Effective Number of Bits)
 - Describes how many bits actually deliver meaningful data
 - Least significant bits can easily drown in noise – even without any input (noise)
 - ENOB specified in data sheets, e.g. (of a 250kS/s 24bit $\Sigma\Delta$ ADC)
 - 17 noise free bits at 250 kS/S
 - 20 noise free bits at 2.5 kS/s
 - 22 noise free bits at 5 S/S
 - Never delivers 24 meaningful bits!?
- Moreover, we have to consider input noise
 - No sense to digitize with 16 bits if noise is 1/1000 of full range

Digitization Noise

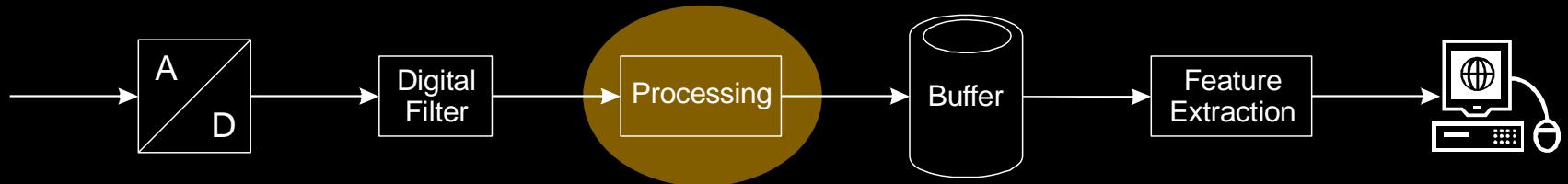
- Even an ideal ADC has a certain noise
- Quantization:
 - Analog input range is mapped to a specific digital value
 - Any input within that range (bin) results in the same digital code
 - This implies an error around the bin center
- Digitization Noise:
 - LSB (least significant bit) quantum = bin width
 - Mean Error = $\text{LSB}/\sqrt{12} \sim 0.29 \text{ LSB}$
 - In measurements, LSB is often called “ADC unit”

Digital Filter



- The purpose of this filter is signal conditioning
- Example: Belle II Silicon Vertex Detector
 - FIR (finite impulse response) filter with 8 coefficients
 - Compensate frequency-dependent damping of cable and eliminate reflections
 - Note: the filter of course cannot physically remove damping or reflections, but polish the signal by numerical calculation such that those effect essentially disappear

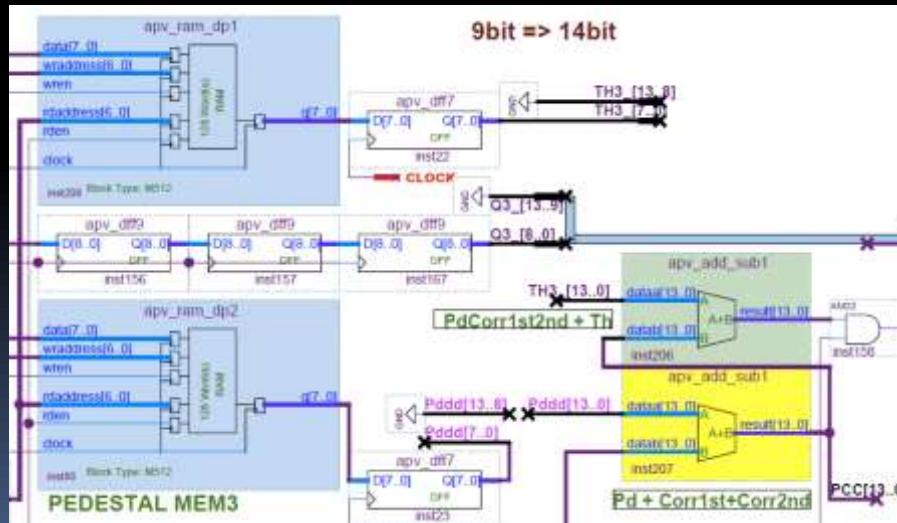
Processing



- Digital data processing is a very wide field and obviously depends on the application
- Typically done using an FPGA (Field Programmable Gate Array)
 - This may also include the two subsequent steps (buffer, feature extraction)

What's an FPGA?

- FPGA is a huge array of logical gates which can be combined according to the user's need
- Programming by software using **basic gates** & **library blocks**
 - AND, OR, NOT; adder, latch, ..., CPU core
 - Either by schematics or by VHDL programming language



```

1 library IEEE;
2 use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_1164.all;
3
4 entity subtraction is
5   port (
6     BROW_IN: in STD_LOGIC;
7     XY_IN: in STD_LOGIC_VECTOR (1 downto 0);
8     BROW_OUT: out STD_LOGIC;
9     DIV_OUT: out STD_LOGIC
10   );
11 end subtraction;
12
13 architecture subtraction_arch of subtraction is
14 begin
15   -- 4 to 1 multiplexer design with case construct
16   SEL1: in STD_LOGIC_VECTOR(1 downto 0);
17   -- A, B, C, D in STD_LOGIC;
18   -- HUX_OUT: out STD_LOGIC;
19   OUT_DIV;
20   process (XY_IN, BROW_IN)
21 begin
22   case XY_IN is
23     when "00" => DIV_OUT <= BROW_IN;
24     when "01" => DIV_OUT <= not(BROW_IN);
25     when "10" => DIV_OUT <= not(BROW_IN);
26     when "11" => DIV_OUT <= BROW_IN;
27     when others => DIV_OUT <= '1';
28   end case;
29 end process;
30

```

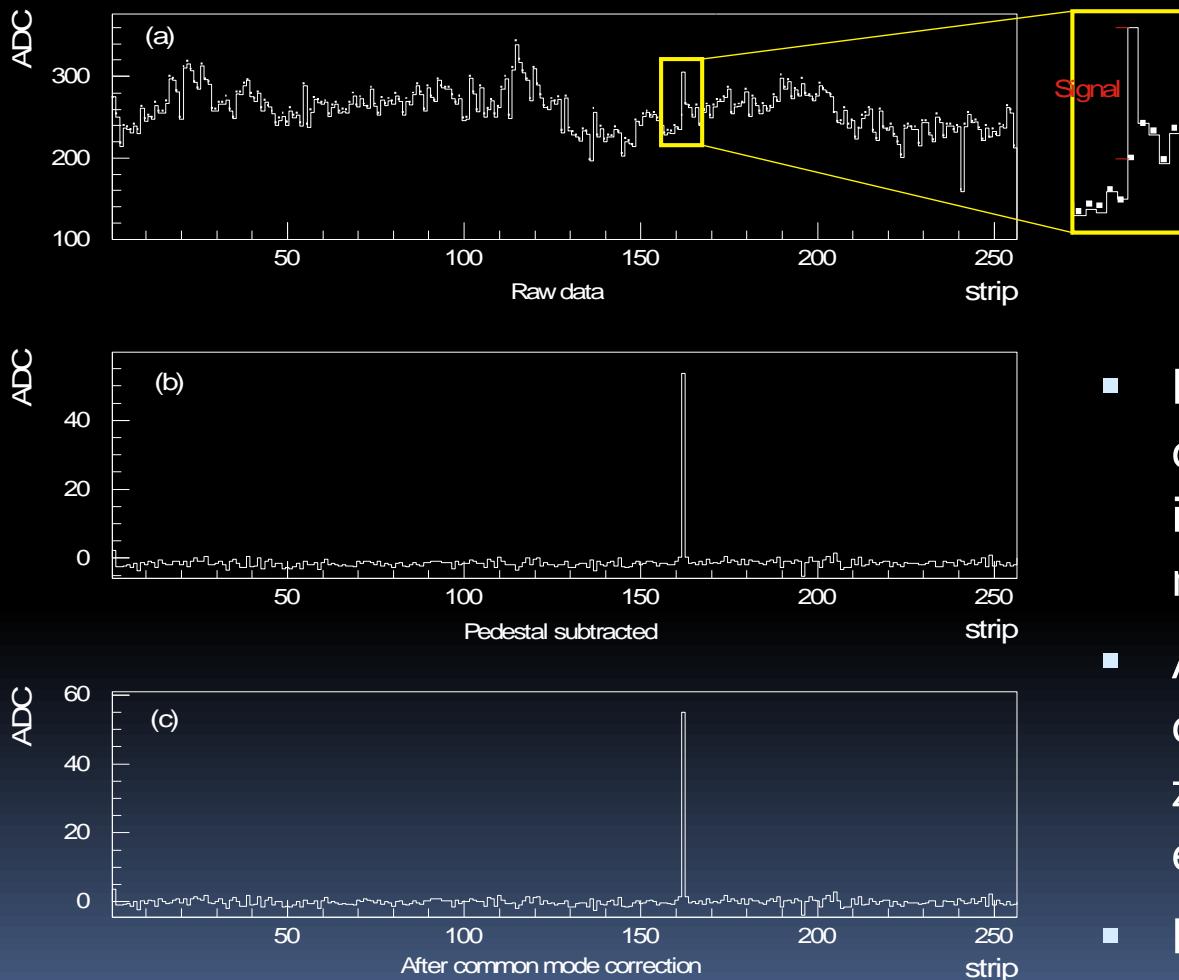
Comparison: FPGA vs. CPU

Property	FPGA	CPU
Parallelism	any	a few cores
Speed (clock)	$O(100\text{MHz})$	$O(1\text{GHz})$
I/O lines	$O(1000)$	64
Best suitable for	Fast, simple, massive parallel processing	Complex, serial programs
At the back-end	First low-level data reduction	High-level data processing (DAQ)

Example: Silicon Strip Data Processing

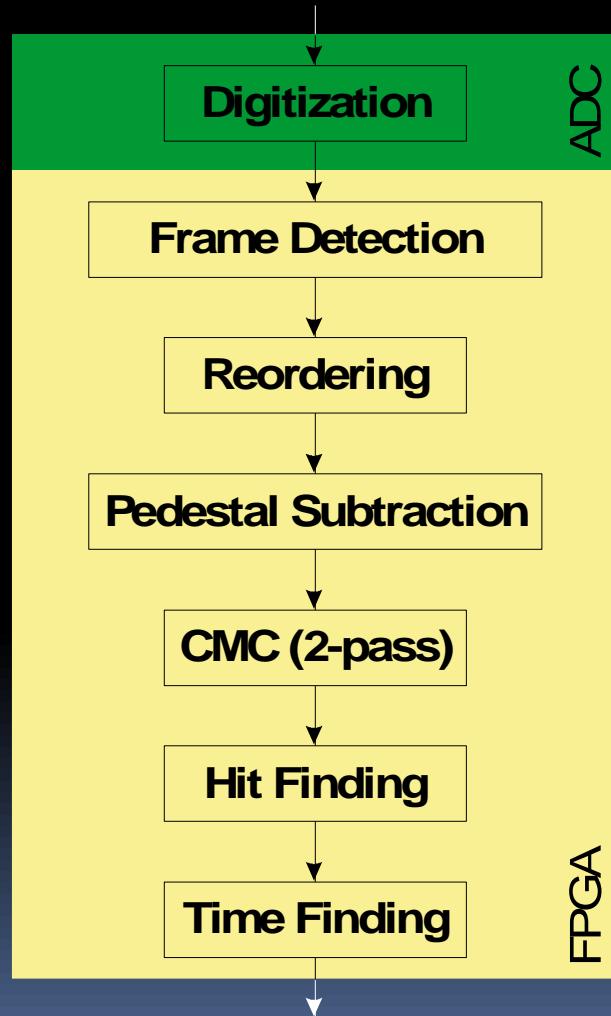
- Individual processing chain for each input (=front-end chip)
- Analog signal output of one event is a multiplexed stream of 128 data values, but not just the actual strip signal
$$\text{ADC}_i = S_i + N_i + P_i + \text{CMN}$$
 - i ...strip number
 - ADC_i ...measured amplitude in ADC units
 - S_i ...particle signal (mostly 0 unless particle hit)
 - N_i ...noise (random fluctuations)
 - P_i ...pedestal (individual “zero” value for each strip)
 - CMN ...common mode noise (common to all strips in one event)
- Pedestal and noise can be measured and saved for each channel, CMN is removed event-by-event

How to Process Strip Data?



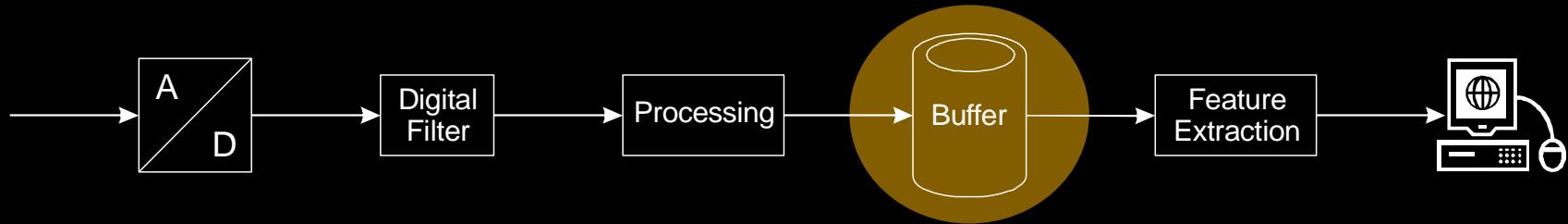
- Data stream with individual pedestals (dots)
- Dominated by pedestal variation
- Pedestals subtracted, common mode noise and individual strip noise remains
- After common mode correction, average is at zero with random noise excursions for each strip
- Next: Apply hit threshold

Typical Tasks for Silicon Strip Detector



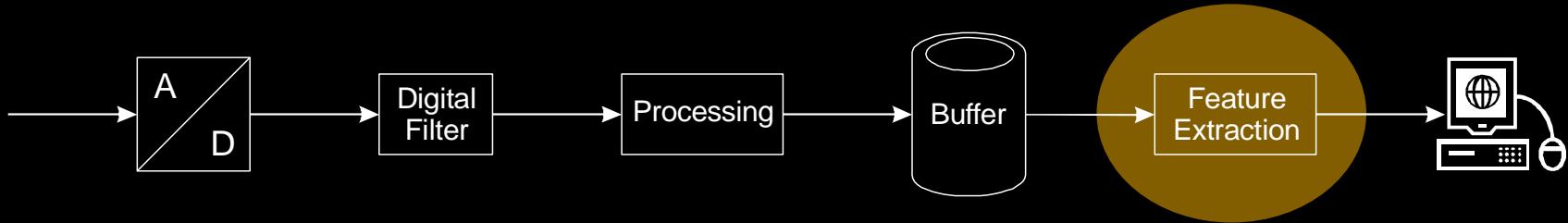
- ADC converts data to digital
- Find and extract strip data
- Put the strip data in natural order (needed if entangled, e.g. APV25)
- Subtract zero value for each strip
- Remove common-mode noise (appears on all strips in common)
- Apply hit threshold (zero suppression, sparsification) = keep only hit data
- Optional post-processing (e.g. APV25)

Processing



- Buffering actually happens in several places in the processing chain
- Should be inserted wherever a delay in data processing can be expected
- Example: Belle II Silicon Vertex Detector
 - ADC to processing is done for up to 48 channels parallel
 - Feature extraction is a centralized feature that exists only once for a group of up to 48 channels → delay can occur

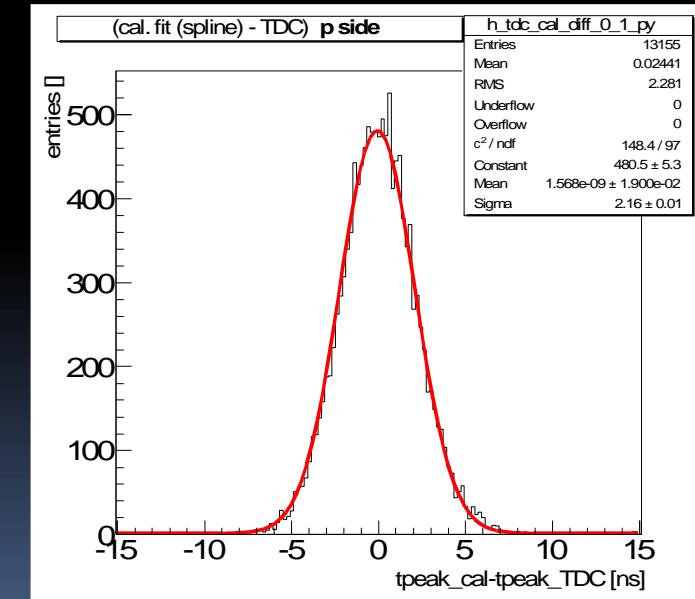
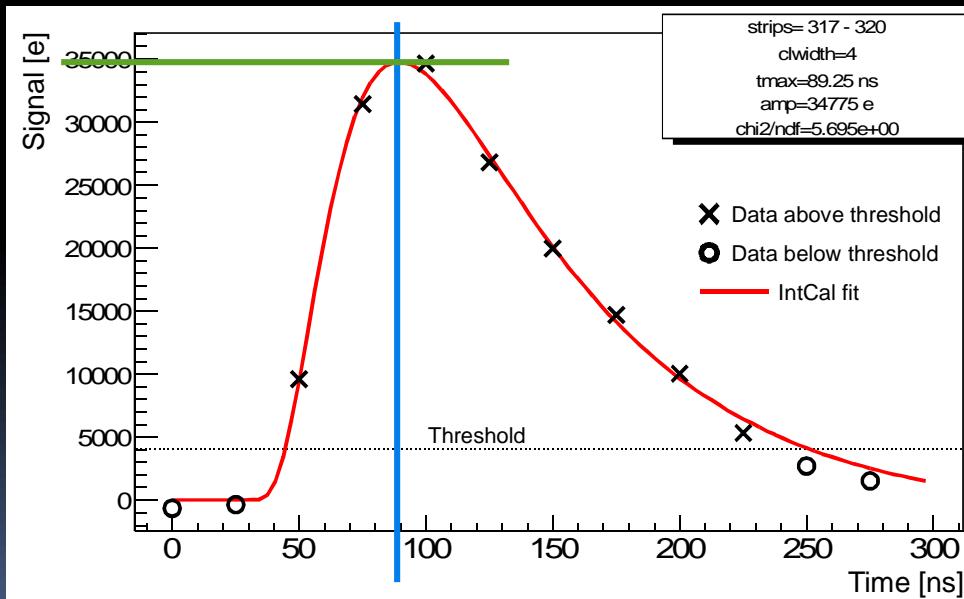
Feature Extraction



- Final step of hardware data processing
 - All further data treatment is done by software on processors
- Target is to reduce the amount of data by extracting the valuable information
- Example: Belle II Silicon Vertex Detector
 - Reading out several consecutive samples from APV25 pipeline to reconstruct waveform at shaper output

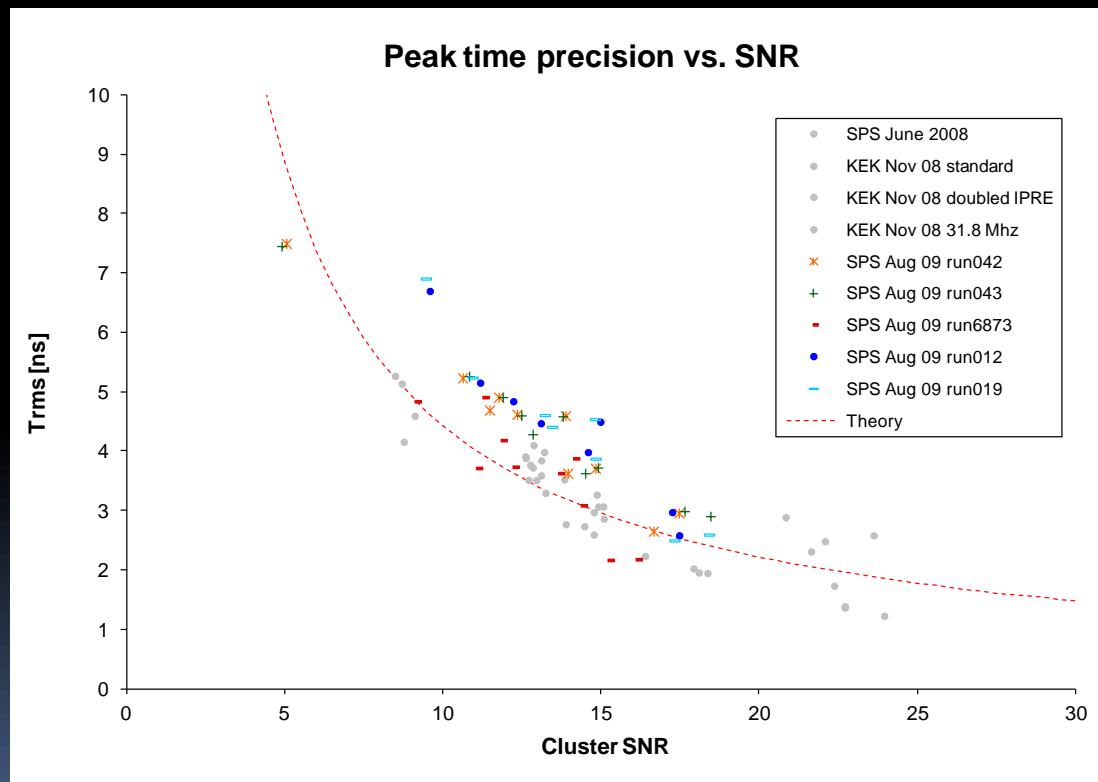
Hit Time Finding

- Shaper output curve is well known with two parameters
 - Peak amplitude, peak timing
- Event-by-event fit of shaping curve determines those two
 - Timing resolution of $\sim 3\text{ns}$ (RMS) measured with APV25



Achieved Hit Time Resolution

- Results achieved in **beam tests** with several different types of Belle II prototype modules (covering a broad range of SNR)
- **2...3 ns RMS** accuracy at typical cluster SNR (14...24)
- **FPGA** implementation is planned



Hit Time Finding Algorithms

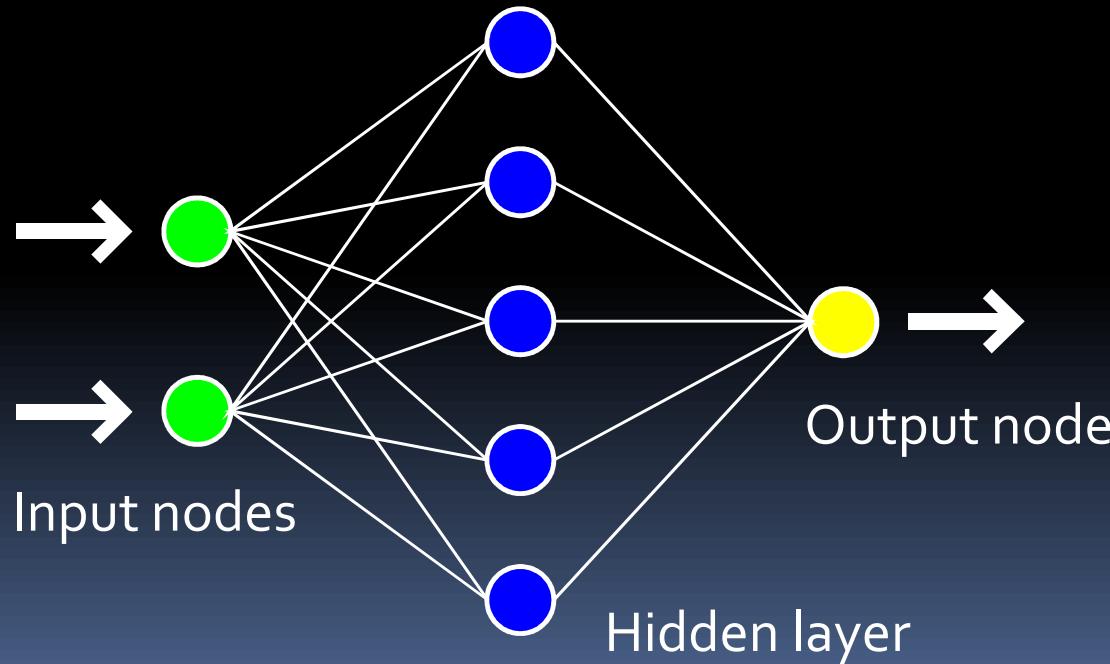
- Almost all the relevant information is contained within the 3 highest samples → enough to consider only those

Method	FPGA?	Comments
Numerical fit	✗	Only for offline software
Lookup table	✓	Consumes lots of memory, but quick Improved efficiency with hash function
Neural network	✓	Can be done using integer multiplications & additions

- All methods were simulated and **neural network** turned out to be most promising
 - Higher precision than numerical fit
 - Only few training events needed
(many more required to fill lookup table)

What Is a Neural Network?

- Artificial emulation of the brain
- Weights in each node are adapted (optimized) by training
 - Training = comparing known input/output pairs with actual performance



Occupancy Reduction

Belle
SVD₂

VA1TA
Tp~800ns

Belle → Belle II:
40 x increase in luminosity

Threshold

Time over threshold ~ 2000ns (measured)

Belle II
SVD

APV25
Tp~50ns

Gain ~12.5

Threshold

Time over threshold ~ 160ns (measured)

Belle II
SVD with
Hit time finding

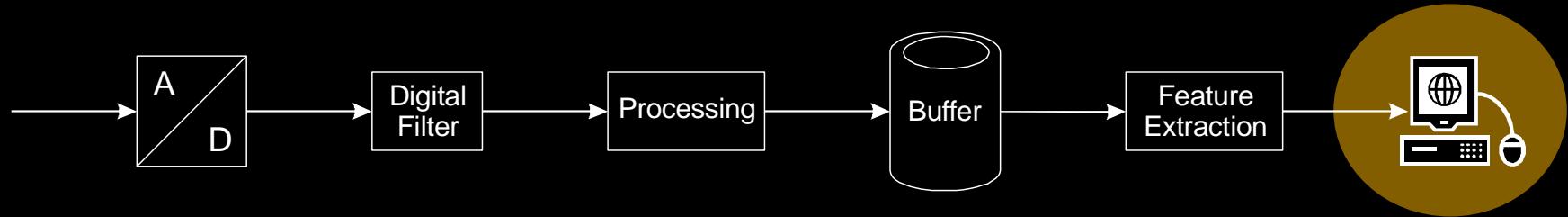
Pulse shape
processing
RMS(t_{max})~3ns

Gain ~8

Sensitive time window ~ 20ns

Total gain ~100

Data Transmission to DAQ



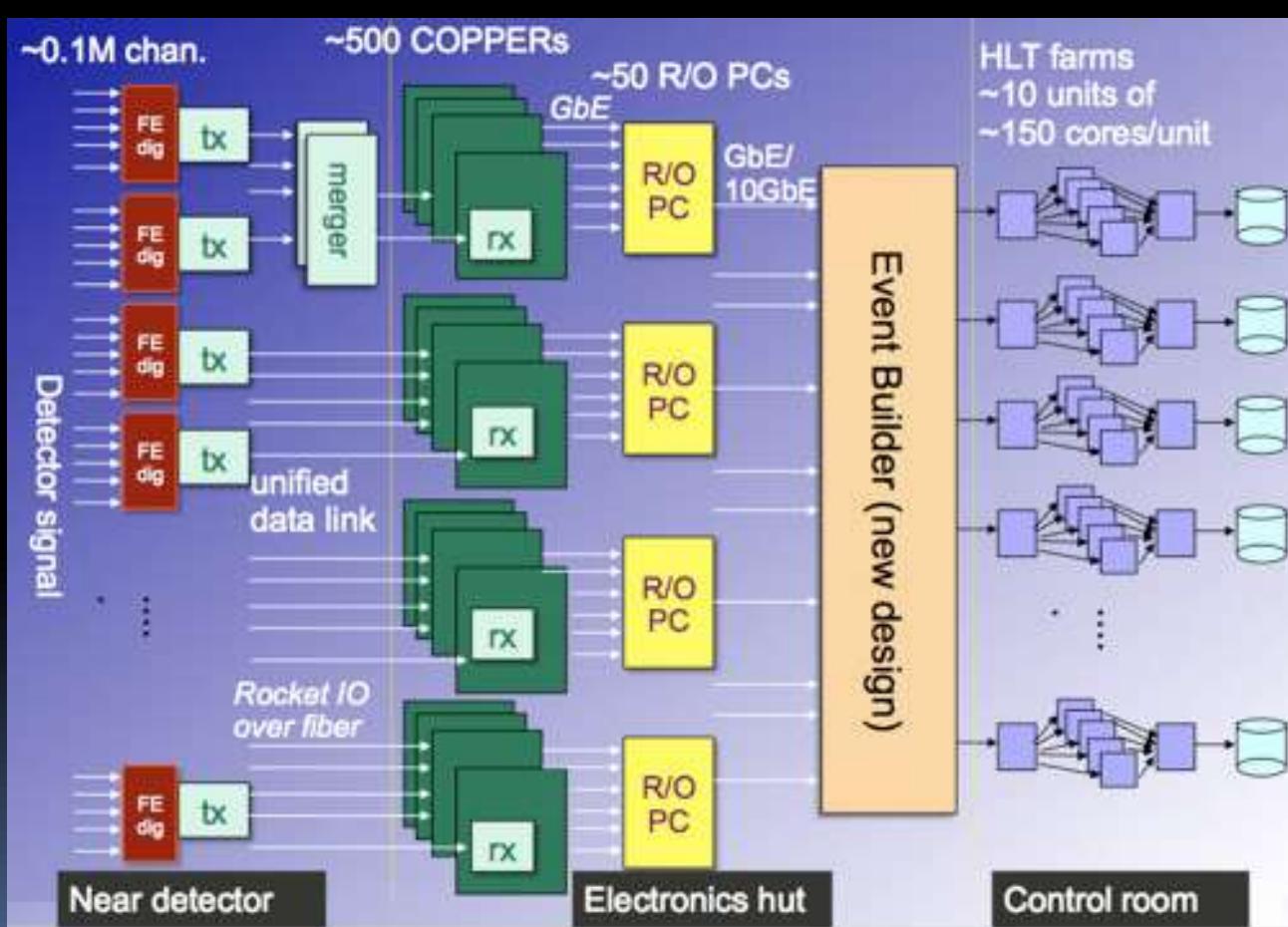
- Digital data interface
 - Electrical (e.g. GbE or S-Link, a CERN development)
 - Optical (e.g. SONET or GOL, a CERN development)
- DAQ (Data Acquisition) system consists of computer farm and network infrastructure
 - EB (Event Builder): collecting and combining event data from all the different detector elements
 - HLT (High Level Trigger): performs online analysis to find interesting events worth to be stored for offline analysis

Example: Belle II

HLT Rack

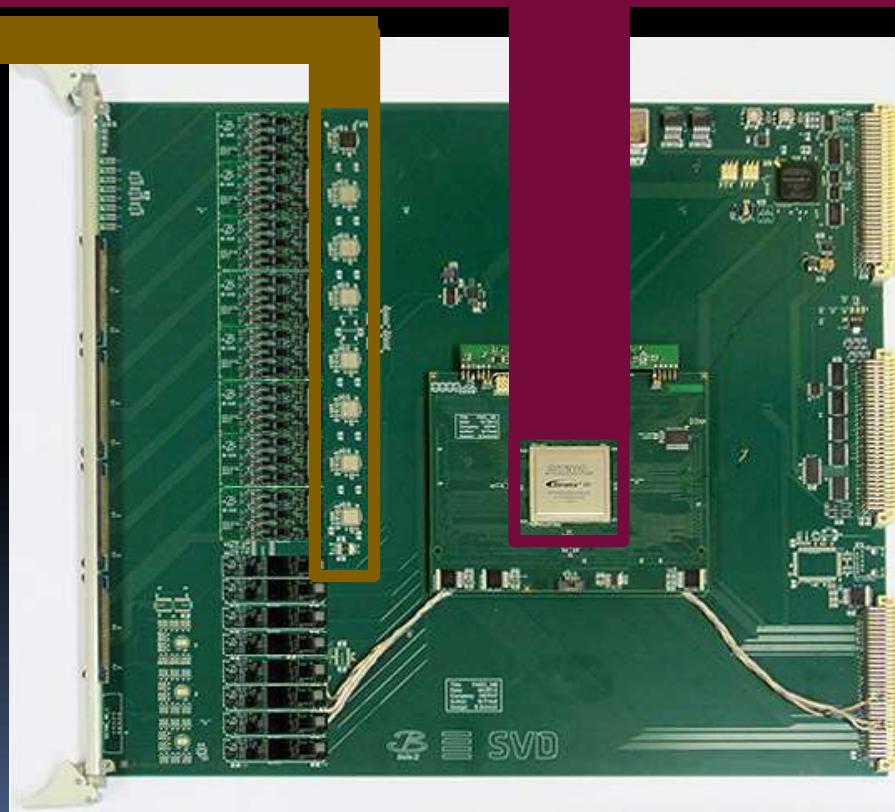
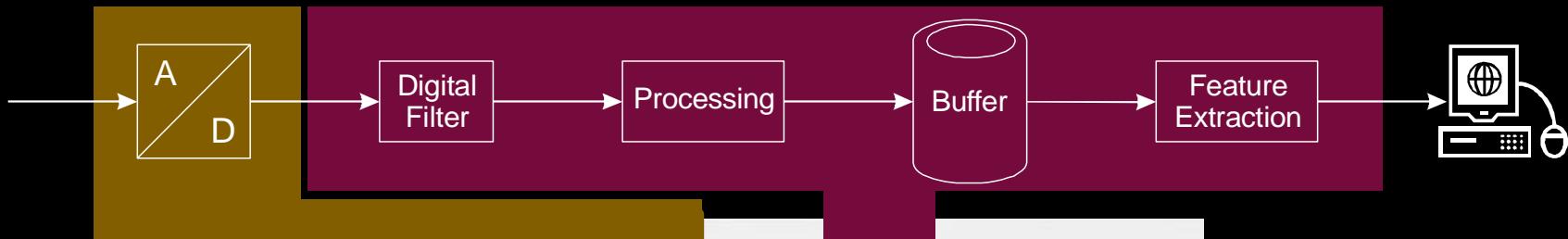


Front-end



HLT

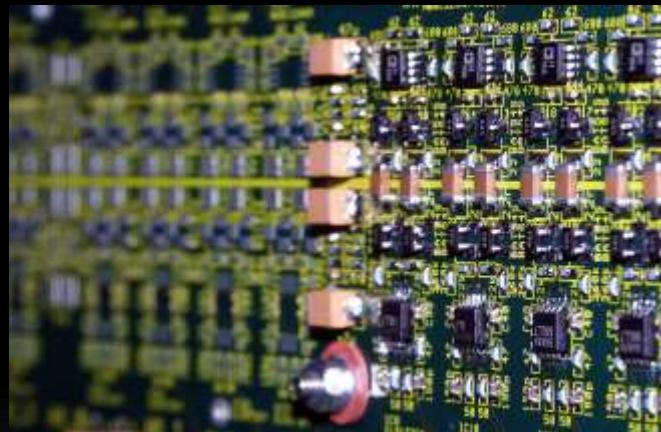
Full Picture



Belle II
“FADC”
readout
board

Back-End Signal Processing Summary

- Performing digitization, data processing (reduction) and output to subsequent DAQ (computer farm) stage
 - Pedestal subtraction, common mode correction, zero suppression
- Boards following a bus module standard
 - E.g. VME (9U)
- Organized in crates and racks
- Typically using FPGAs (field programmable logic arrays)
 - Ideal for low-level massive parallel processing
 - More powerful than CPUs for such tasks
 - Complex calculations are done in subsequent computer farm



Typical Readout Chain
Readout Chain – Front-End
Signal Transmission
Readout Chain – Back-End
Additional Topics

Trigger

- What is it?



Trigger: Introduction

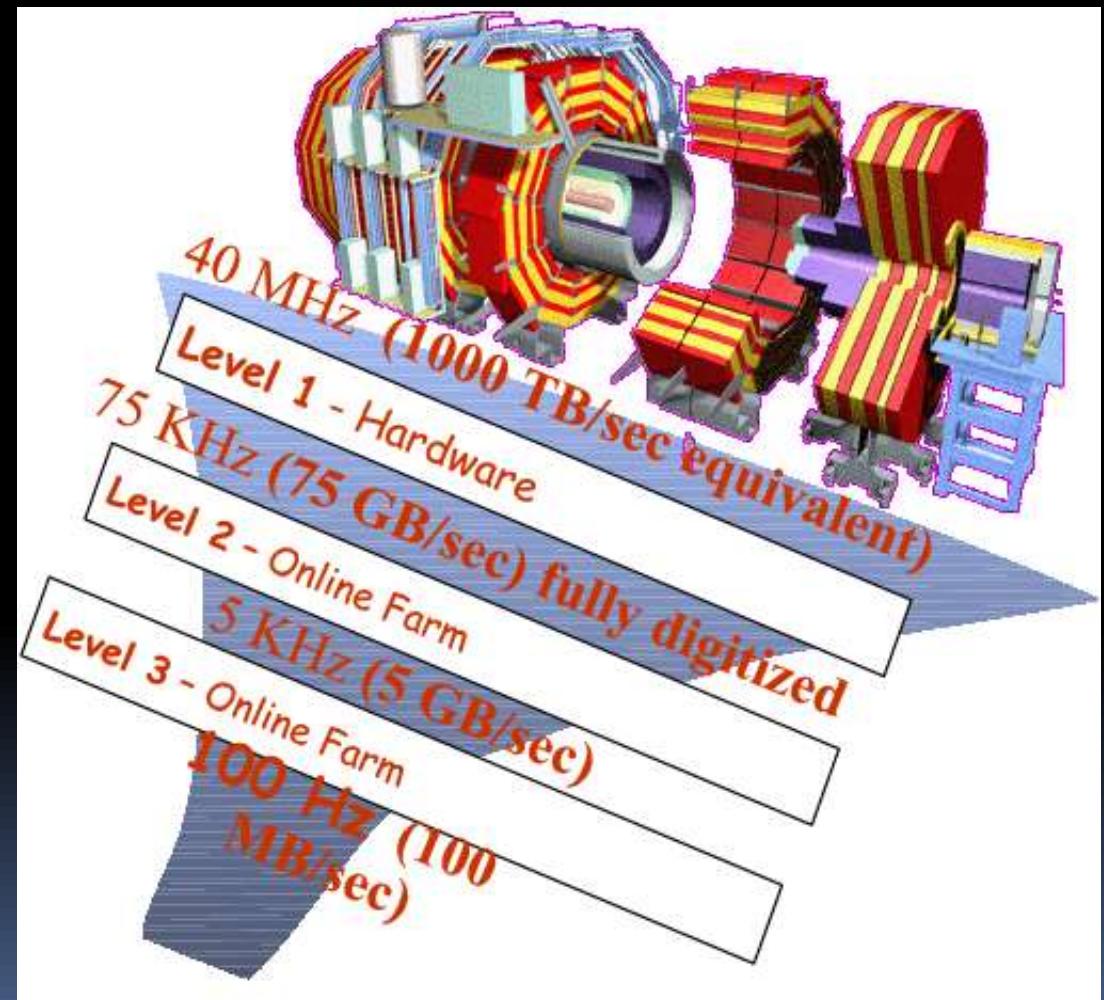
- LHC has 40 Million bunch crossings (events) per second
- Each event (in ATLAS or CMS experiment) produces about 25MB of raw data
- What would be the resulting data rate?
 - **1PB/s = 1000TB/s**
 - Largest hard disk on the market is 6TB
- How to handle such a data rate?
 - Not at all
 - For comparison: presently, **global** internet traffic is about **24TB/s** – very distributed system (source: Cisco VNI)

Trigger: Why? What? Where?

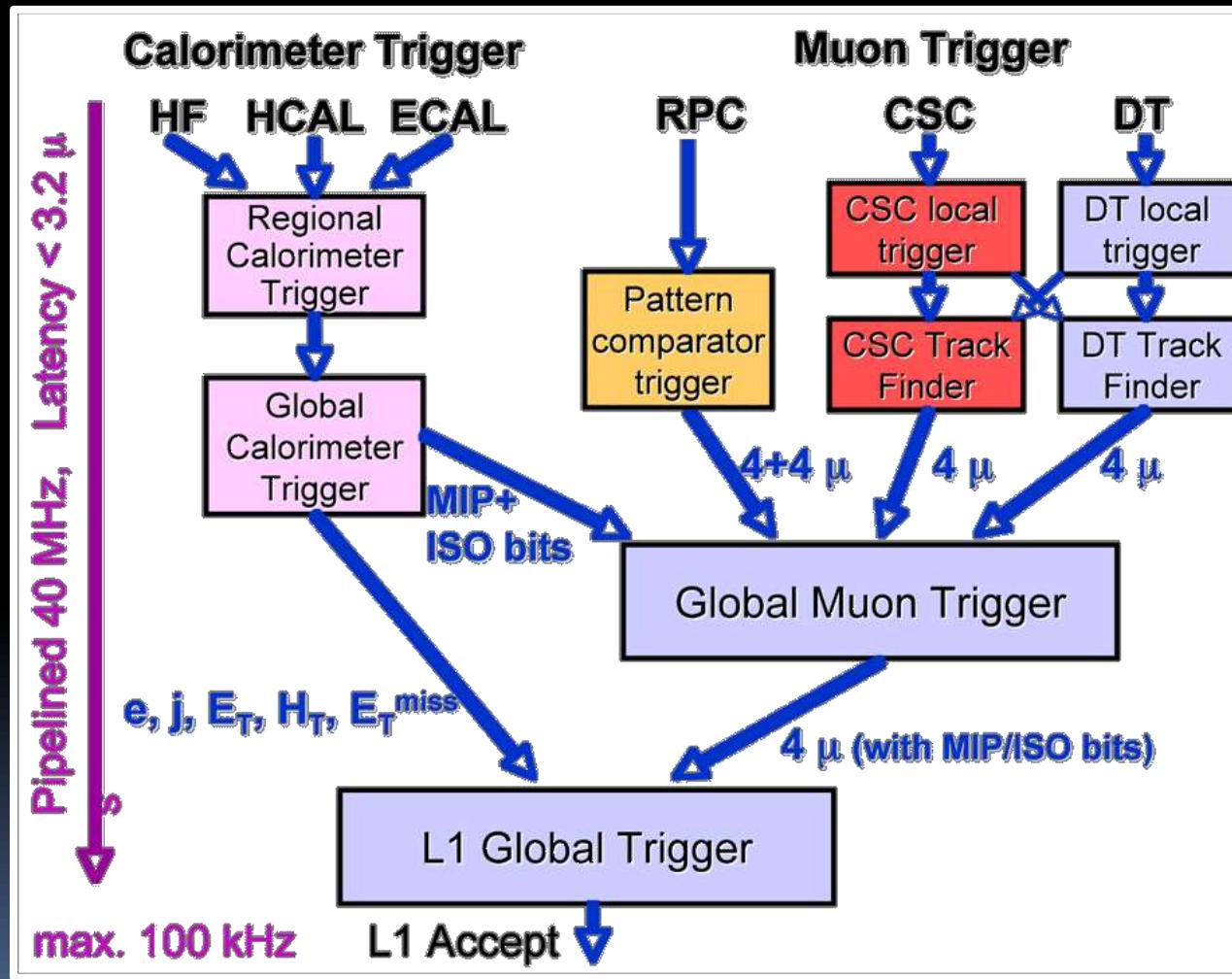
- Conclusion: it is impossible to record all events
- Luckily, most events do not contain new physics
- Trigger must quickly analyze each event to decide whether it could be of interest
 - In the CMS experiment, the trigger latency is about $3\mu\text{s}$ – 120 events occur during this time
 - Thus, every detector channel must store the last >120 events
 - If decision is yes, then the data are read out and propagated to the next stage
 - Otherwise, data are discarded
 - Reason for pipeline in the APV25 chip

CMS Trigger – Multi-Level Approach

- 3 levels:
 - 1. hardware
 - 2. software
 - 3. software
- Eventually down to 100 events/s
- Data compression down to 1MB/event
- Data rate: 100MB/s



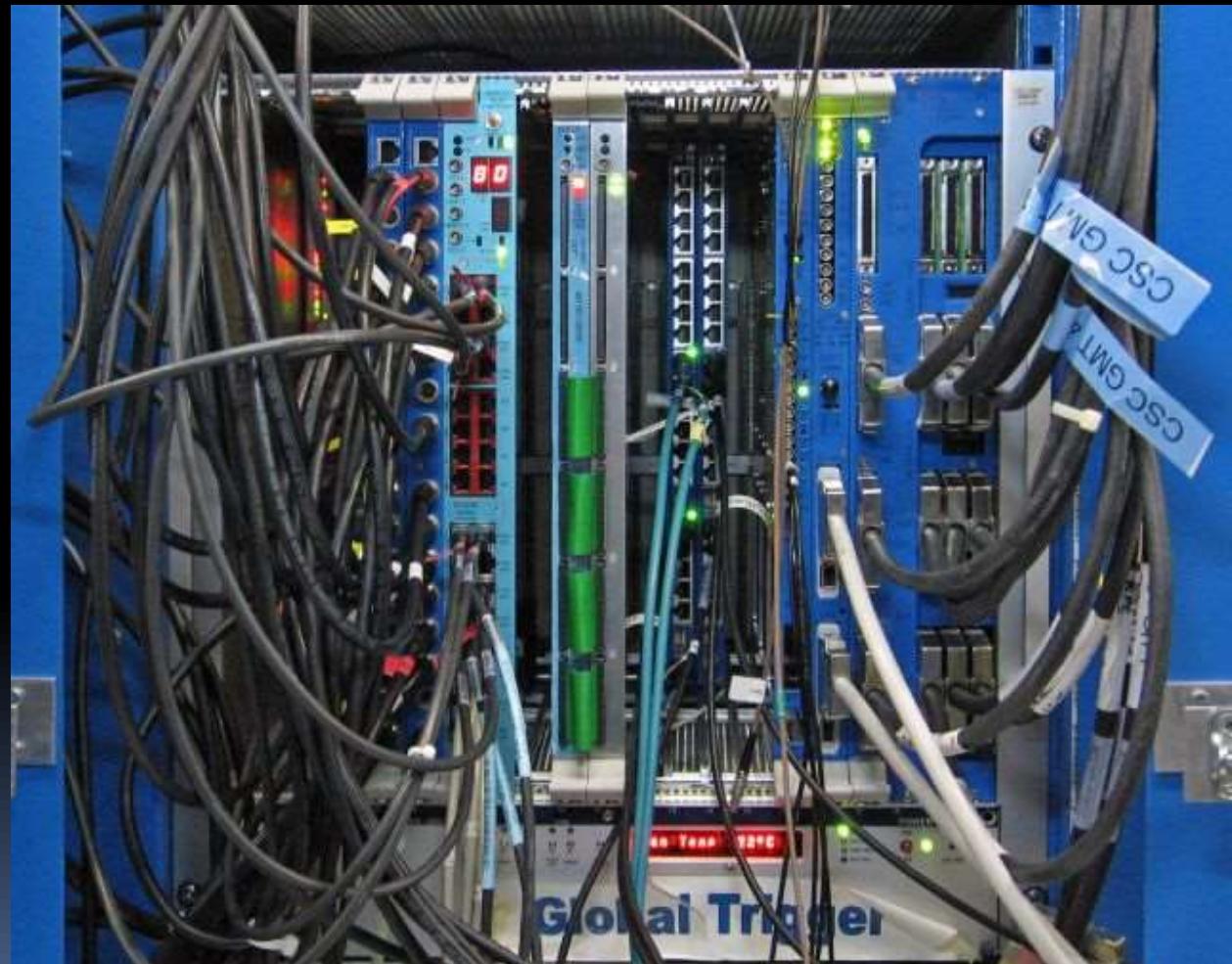
CMS Trigger – Hardware Stage (1/3)



- Receiving and processing data from calorimeters and muon detector (outermost systems)

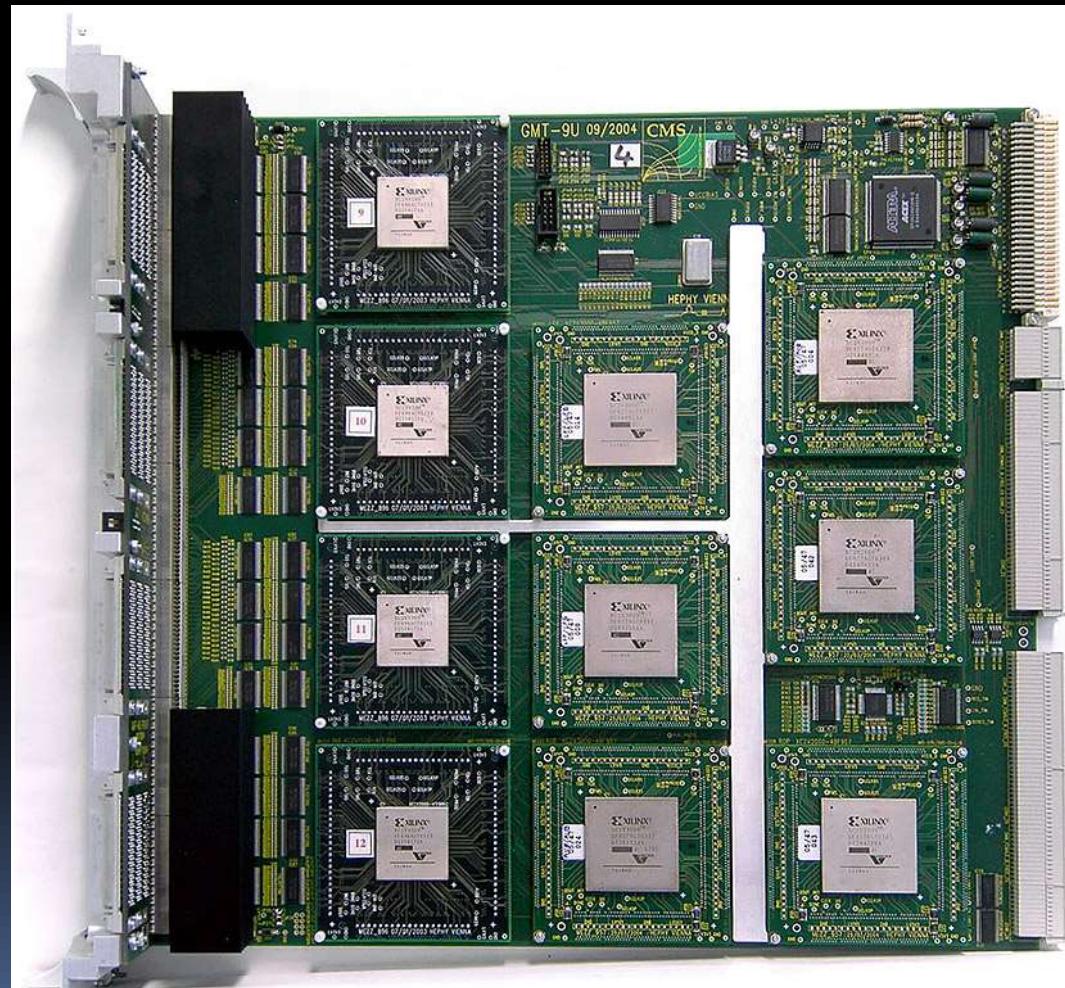
CMS Trigger – Hardware Stage (2/3)

- Final stage:
“Global
Trigger”
- Crate filled
with various
electronics
boards
- Processing
and
combining
various
inputs



CMS Trigger – Hardware Stage (3/3)

- Global Muon Trigger (GMT) board
 - Packed with FPGAs running custom firmware
- Higher levels of trigger are software in computer farms (closely coupled to DAQ)



Thank you for your attention!

