

Electronics and DAQ

CERN Summerstudent Programme 2011

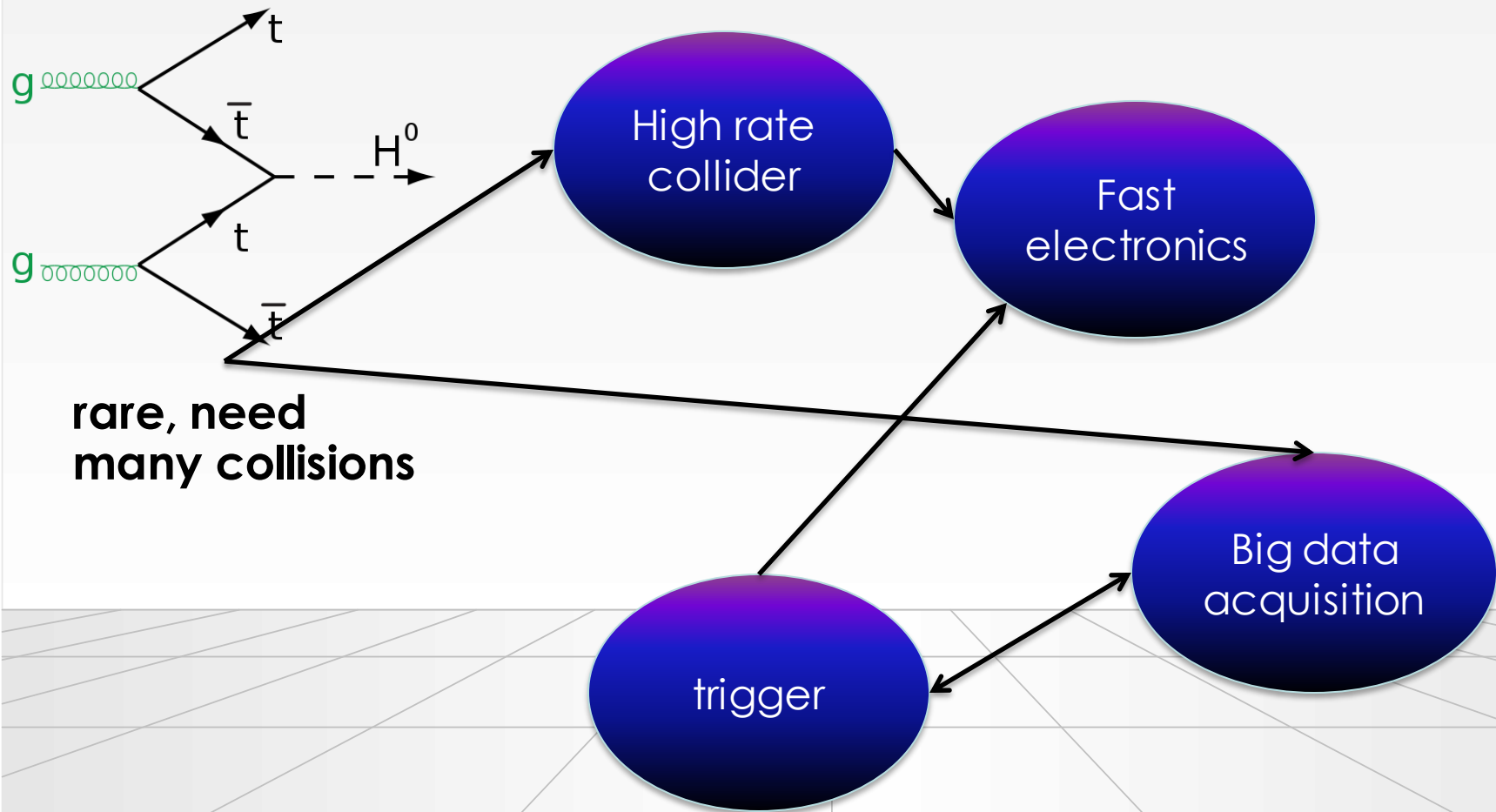
Niko Neufeld, CERN-PH
(final version of slides)

Contents

- Lecture 1: Mostly electronics, some triggering
- Lecture 2: More electronics, basics of Data Acquisition
- Lecture 3: Data acquisition at the LHC, odds and ends
- Topics are related, no 100% separation between the 3
- We want to fill in some of the blanks from Werner Riegler's "Detectors" lectures to Jamie Boyds's "From raw data to physics". Triggering will be only treated in so far it is relevant for the electronics and DAQ. The "physics" of the trigger is treated in "Triggers for LHC physics" by Bryan Dahmess

Physics, Detectors, Electronics

Trigger & DAQ



Disclaimer

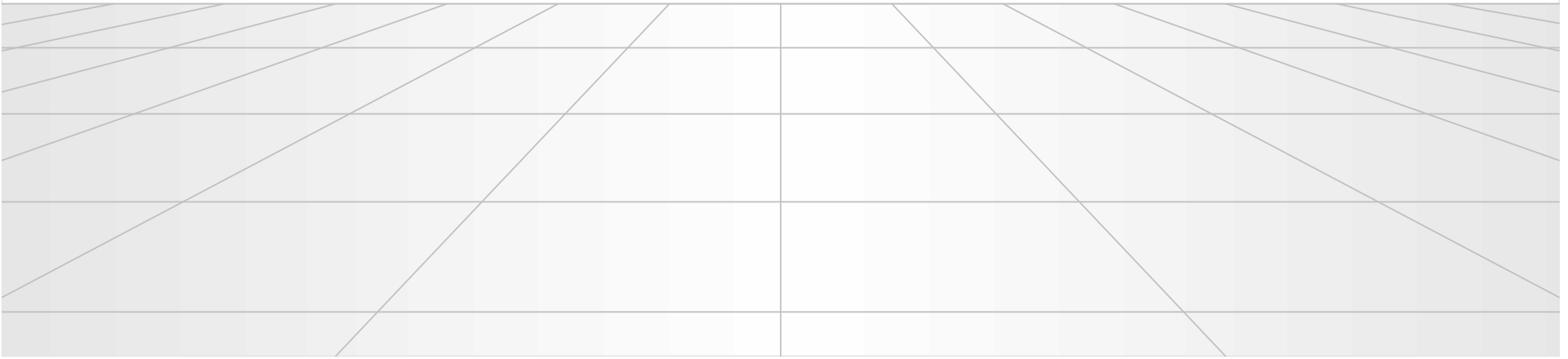
- Electronics, Trigger and DAQ are vast subjects covering a lot of physics and engineering
- Based entirely on personal bias I have selected a few topics
- While most of it will be only an overview at a few places we will go into some technical detail
- Some things will be only touched upon or left out altogether – information on those you will find in the references at the end
 - Quantitative treatment of detector electronics & physics behind the electronics
 - Derivation of the “physics” in the trigger
 - DAQ of experiments outside HEP/LHC
 - Management of large networks and farms & High-speed mass storage

Thanks

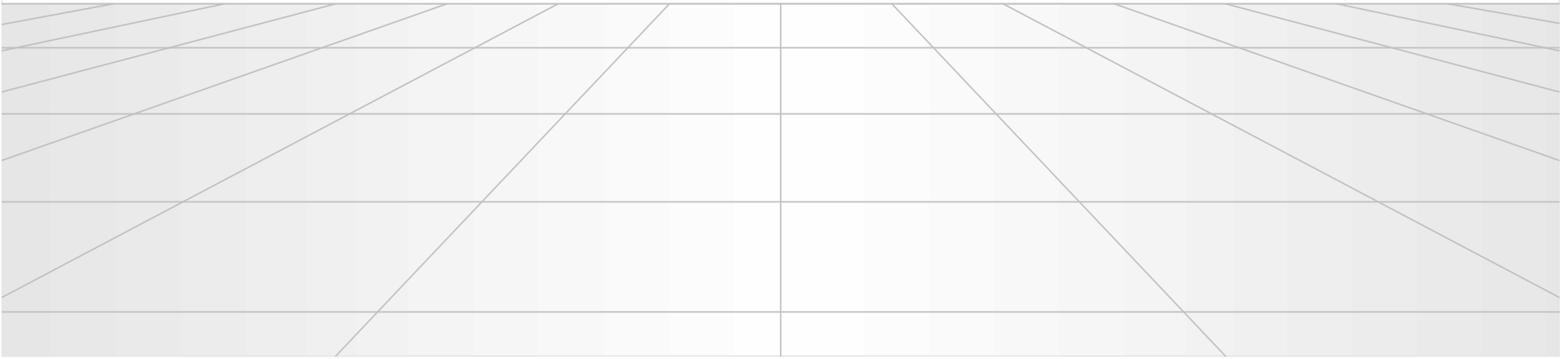
- Some material and lots of inspiration for this lecture was taken from lectures by my predecessors: P. Mato, P. Sphicas, J. Christiansen
- In the electronics part I learned a lot from H. Spieler (see refs at the end)
- Trigger material I got from H. Dijkstra
- Many thanks to S. Suman for his help with the animations

Lecture 1/3

Mostly electronics



Electronics in a nutshell



Electronics: introduction

- Why do we care about electronics?
 - As physicists?
 - As computer scientists?
- The Readout Chain
 - Shaping, Amplifying
 - Digitizing, Transmitting, Noise and all that
- Timing and Synchronization
- Systems
 - Power, Cooling & Radiation

Physicists stop reading here

- It is well known that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho$$

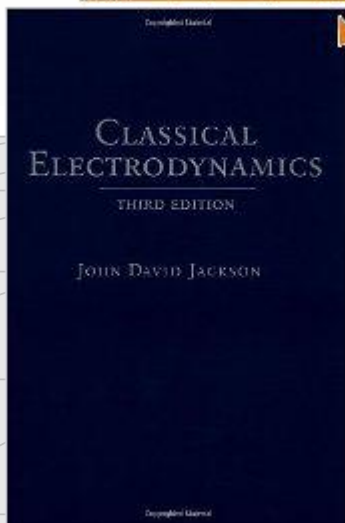
$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$$

- “Only technical details are missing”

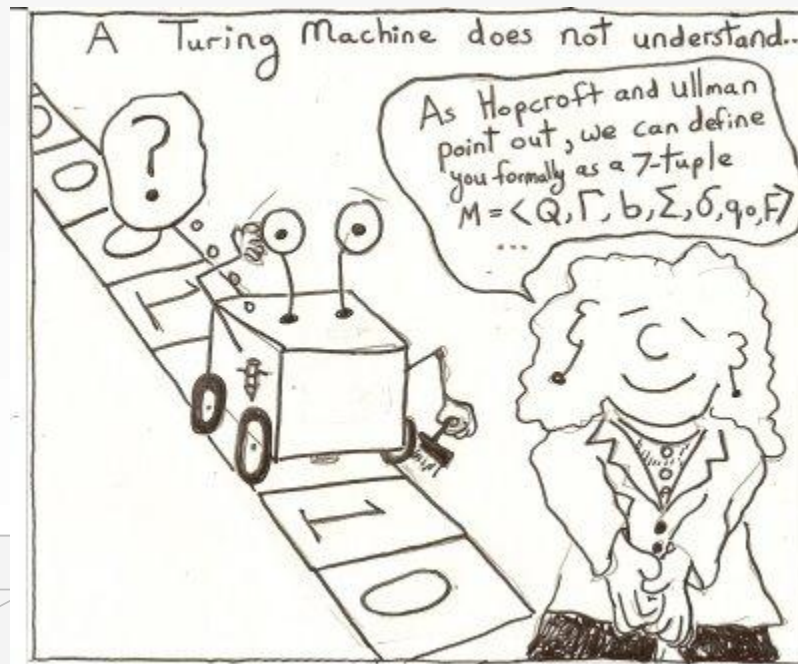
Werner Heisenberg, 1958



A physicist is someone who learned
Electrodynamics from Jackson

Computer scientists wonder...

- Why bother with this gruesome analogue electronics stuff



- The problem is that Turing machines are so bad with I/O and it is important to understand the constraints of data acquisition and triggering

The bare minimum

- From Maxwell's equations derive:
- Ohm's law and power
- The IV characteristics of a capacitance
- Kirchoff's laws
- where: Q = charge (Coulomb),
 C = Capacitance (Farad), $U = V$
 = Voltage (Volt), P = Power
 (Watt), I = Current (Ampere)

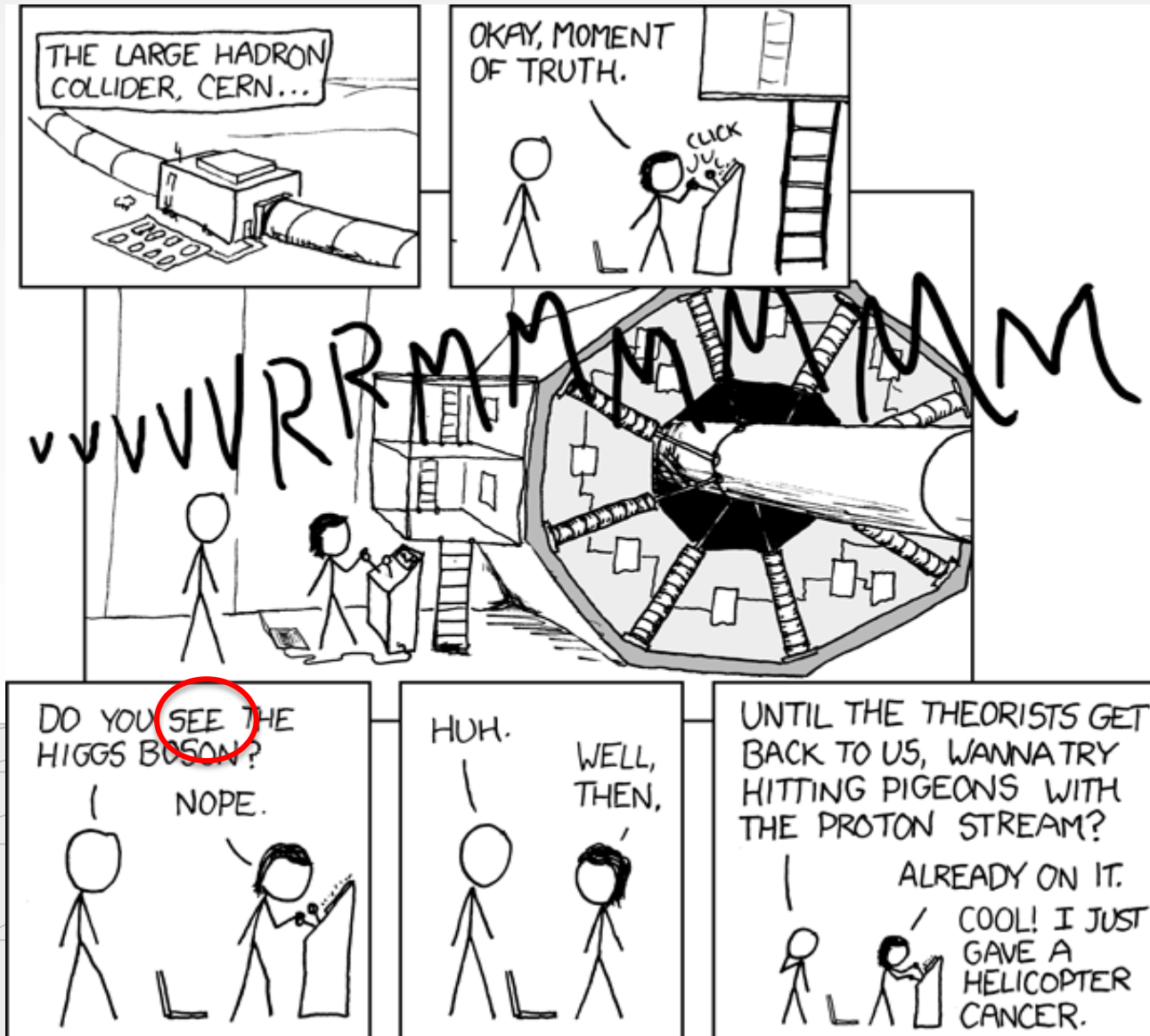
$$I = \frac{U}{R} \quad P = U \times I$$

$$I = C \times \frac{dV}{dt}$$

Detector Frontend Electronics (FEE)

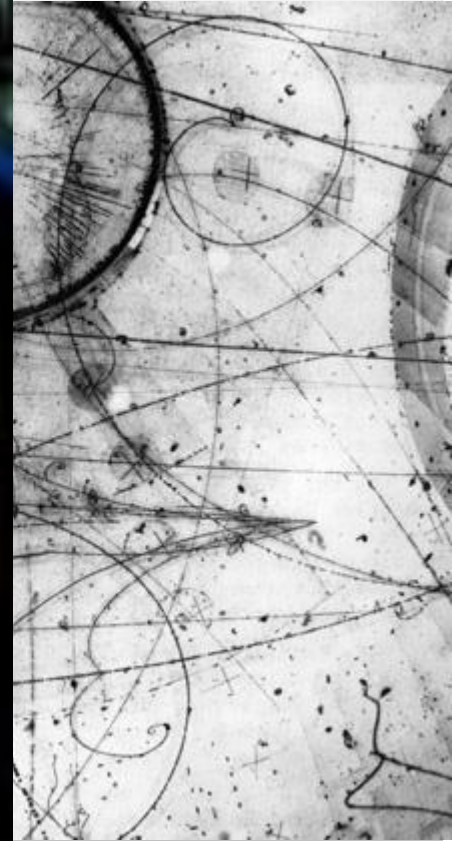


Seeing the data



Once upon a time...

Camera



Particles

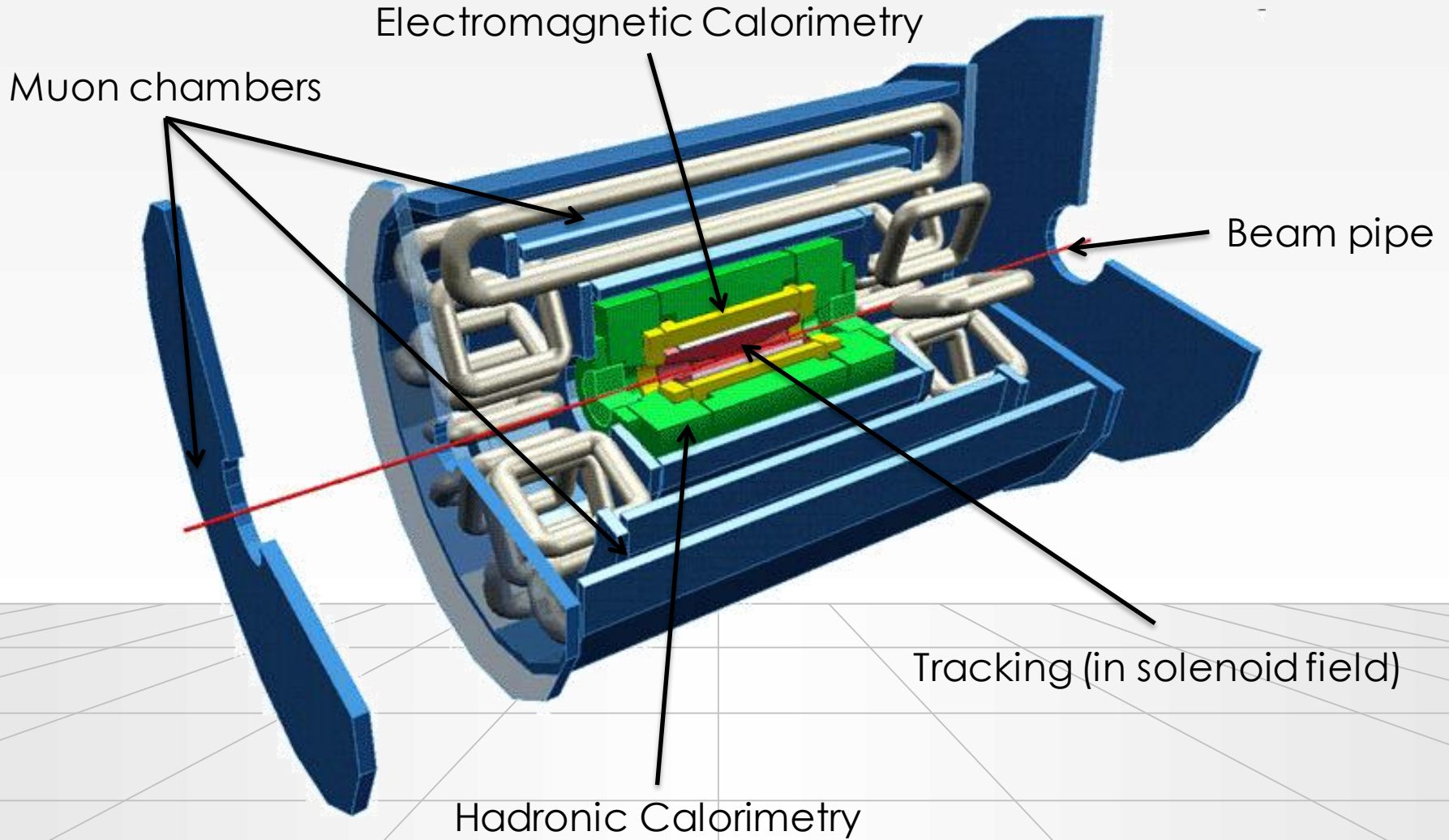
from Wikipedia

Magnetic field

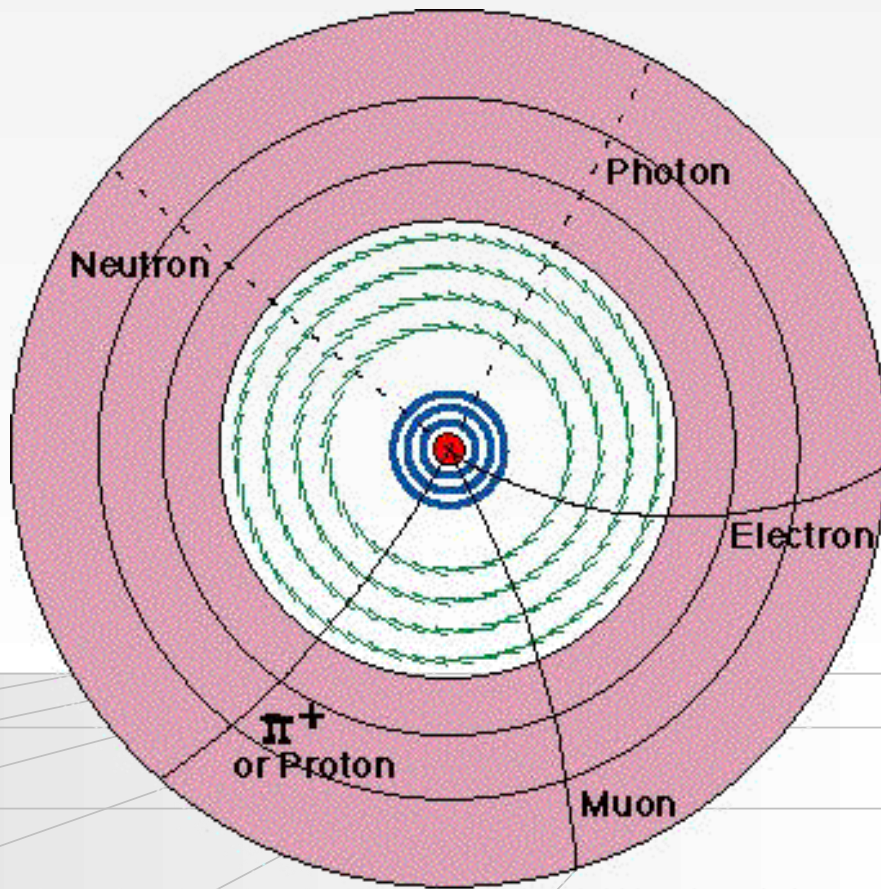
...experiment-data were read



Looking at ATLAS

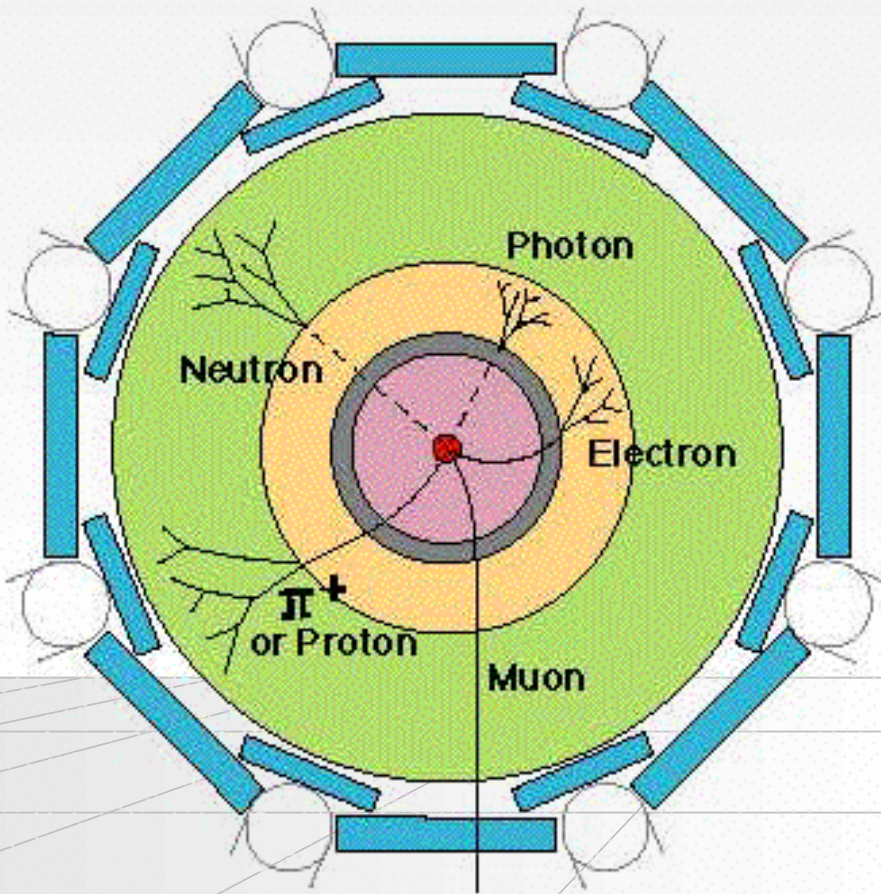


Tracking



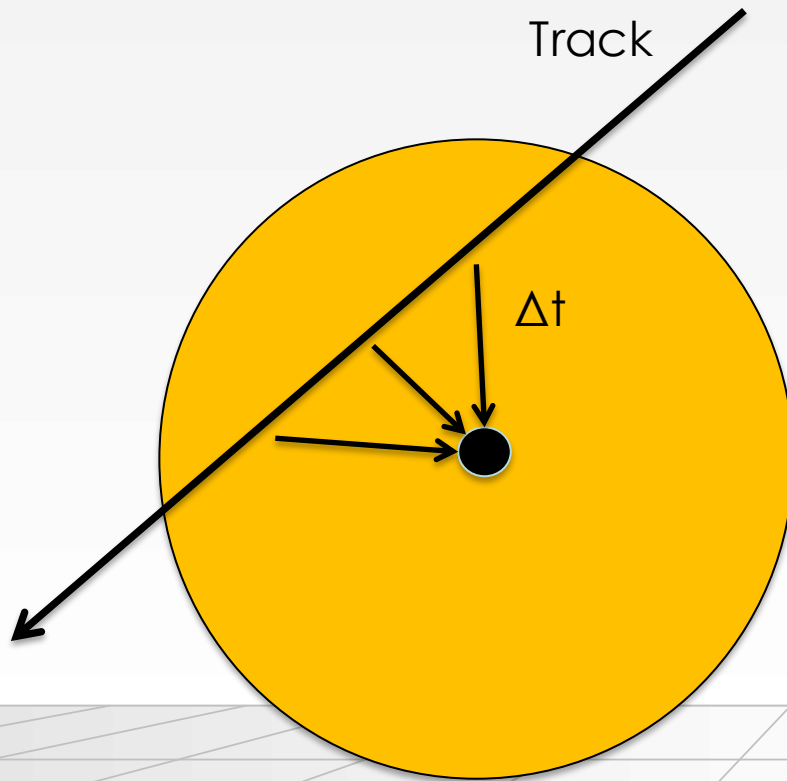
- Separate tracks by charge and momentum
- Position measurement layer by layer
 - Inner layers: silicon pixel and strips → presence of hit determines position
 - Outer layers: “straw” drift chambers → need time of hit to determine position

Calorimetry



- Particles generate showers in calorimeters
 - Electromagnetic Calorimeter (yellow): Absorbs and measures the energies of all electrons, photons
 - Hadronic Calorimeter (green): Absorbs and measures the energies of hadrons, including protons and neutrons, pions and kaons
- amplitude measurement
- position information provided by segmentation of detector

Muon System



ATLAS Muon drift chambers have a radius of 3 cm and are between 1 and 6 m long

- Electrons formed along the track drift towards the central wire.
- The first electron to reach the high-field region initiates the avalanche, which is used to derive the timing pulse.
- Since the initiation of the avalanche is delayed by the transit time of the charge from the track to the wire, the detection time of the avalanche can be used to determine the radial position^(*).
- Principle also used in straw tracker – *need fast timing electronics*

(*) Clearly this needs some start of time $t=0$ (e.g. the beam-crossing)

Different detectors: similar requirements

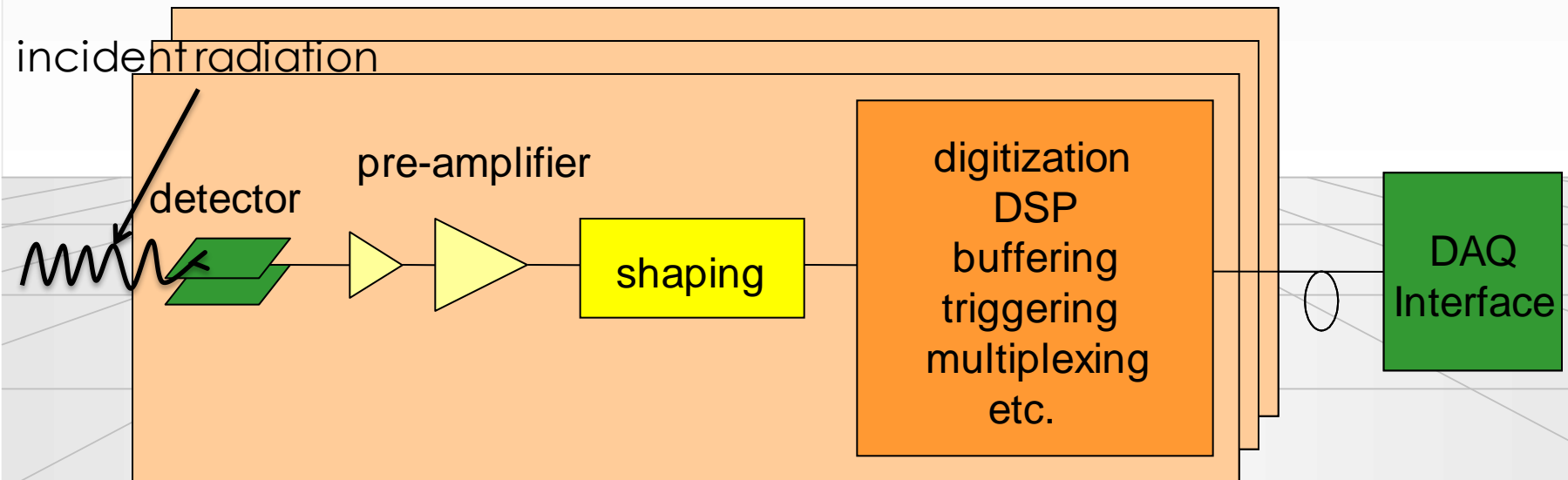
- Sensors must determine several or all of the following:
 - 1) presence of a particle
 - 2) magnitude of signal
 - 3) time of arrival
- Some measurements depend on *sensitivity*, i.e. detection threshold, e.g.: silicon tracker, to detect presence of a particle in a given electrode
- Others seek to determine a *quantity very accurately*, i.e. resolution, e.g. : calorimeter – magnitude of absorbed energy; muon chambers – time measurement yields position

All have in common that they are sensitive to:

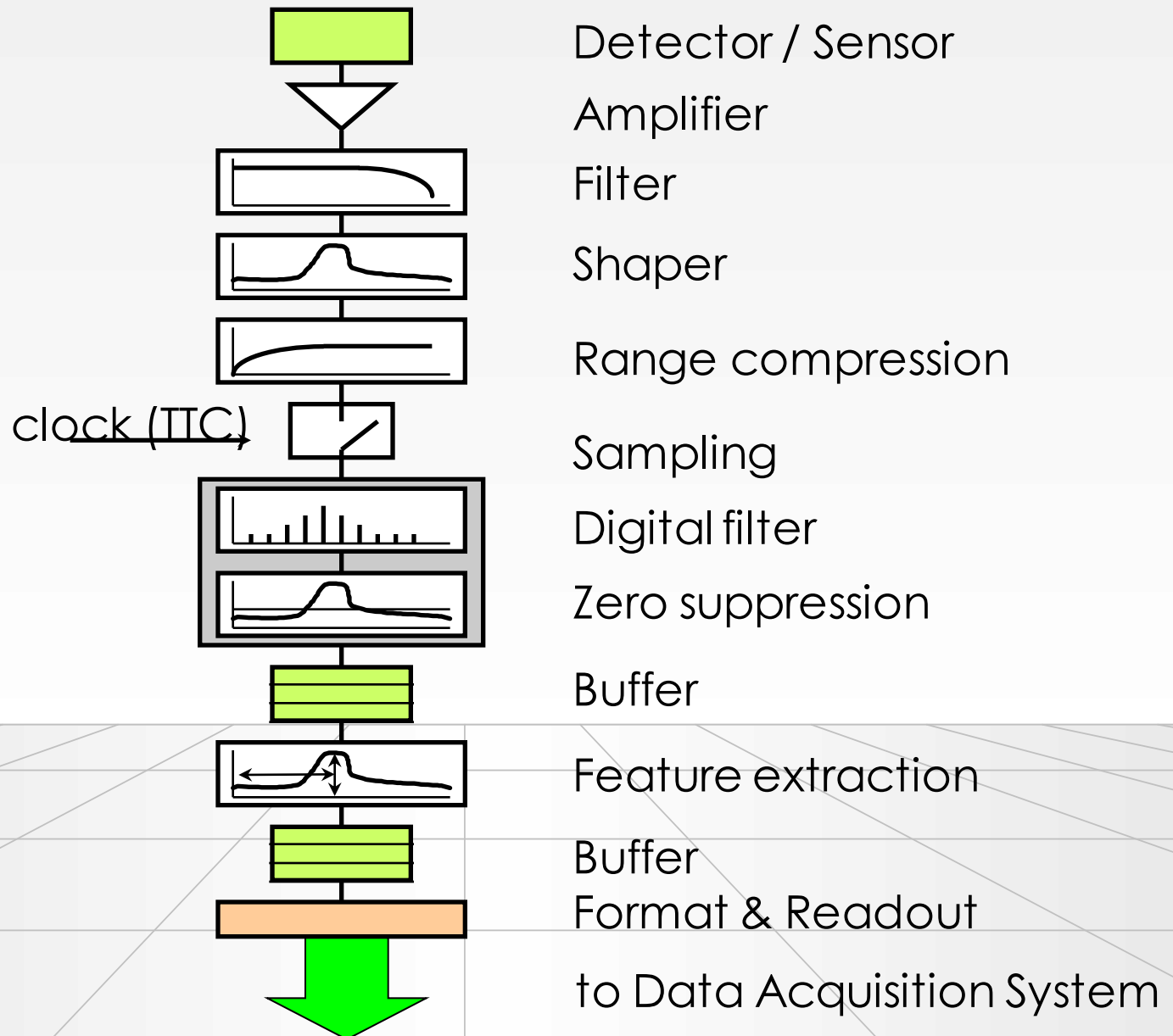
1. signal magnitude
2. fluctuations

The “front-end” electronics`

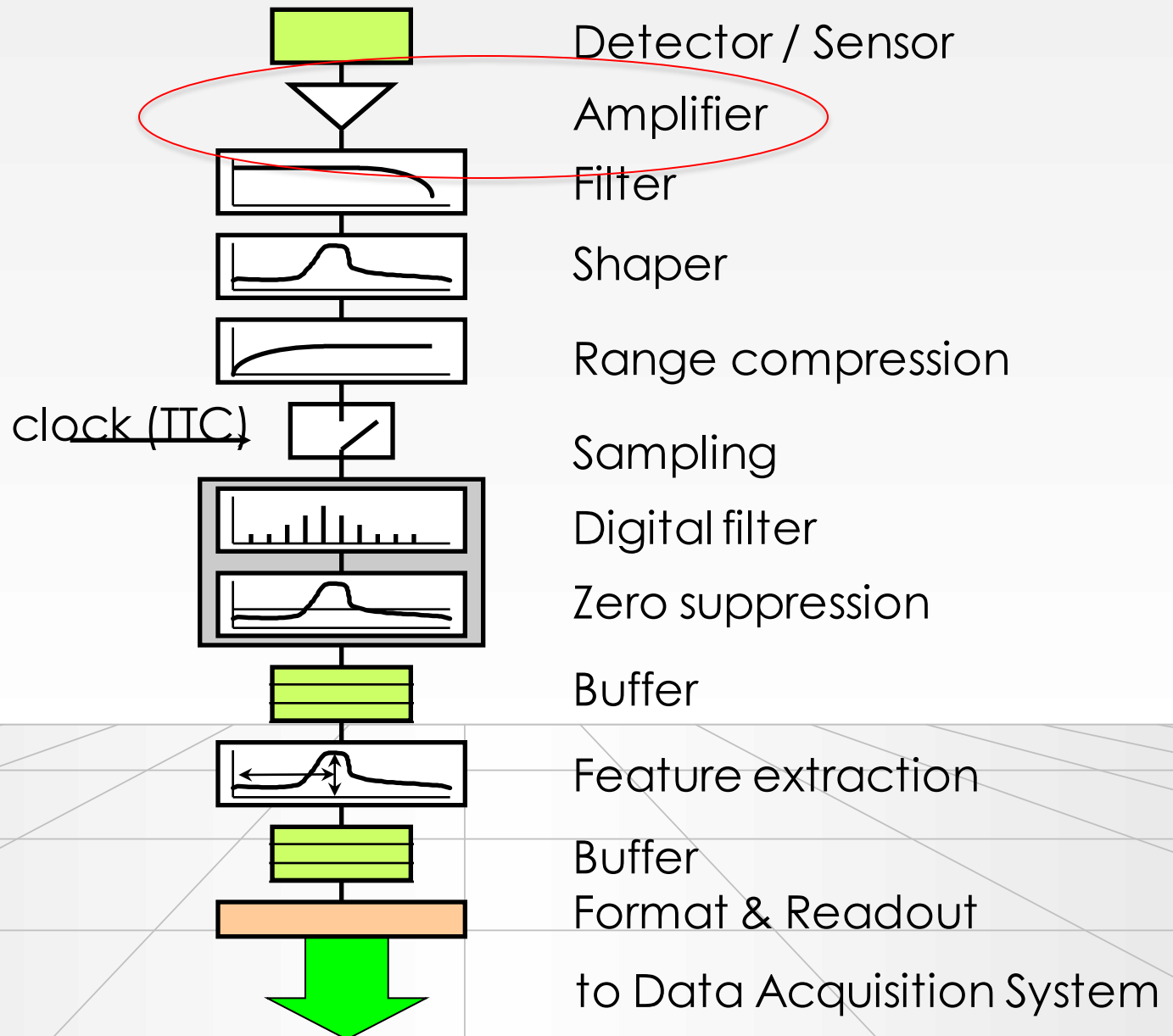
- Front-end electronics is the electronics directly connected to the detector (sensitive element)
- Its purpose is to
 - acquire an electrical signal from the detector (usually a short, small current pulse)
 - tailor the response of the system to optimize
 - the minimum detectable signal
 - energy measurement (charge deposit)
 - event rate
 - time of arrival
 - insensitivity to sensor pulse shape
 - digitize the signal and store it for further treatment



The read-out chain



The read-out chain



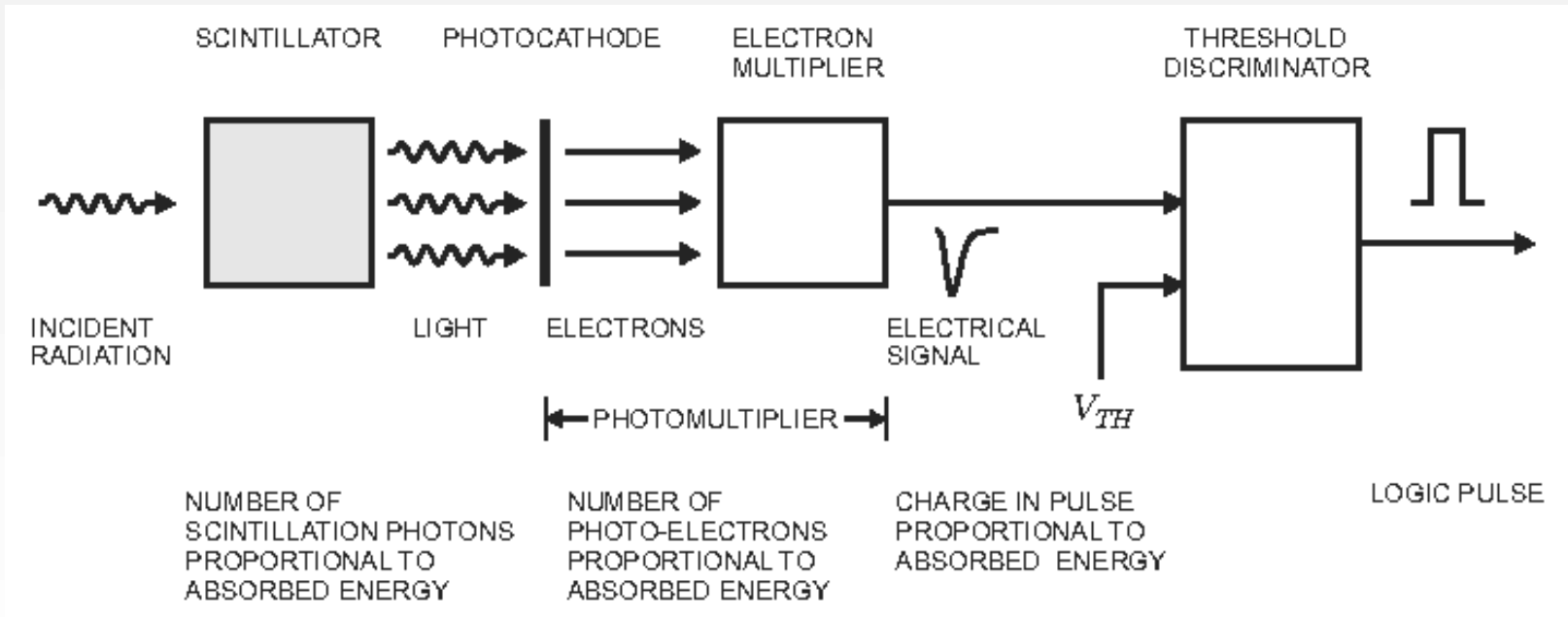
The signal

- The signal is usually a small current pulse varying in duration (from ~ 100 ps for a Si sensor to $O(10)$ μ s for inorganic scintillators)
- There are many sources of signals. Magnitude of signal depends on deposited signal (energy / charge) and excitation energy

$$S = \frac{E_{absorbed}}{E_{excitation}}$$

Signal	Physical effect	Excitation energy
Electrical pulse (direct)	Ionization	30 eV for gases 1- 10 eV for semiconductors
Scintillation light	Excitation of optical states	20 – 500 eV
Temperature	Excitation of lattice vibrations	meV

A very simple example: Scintillator

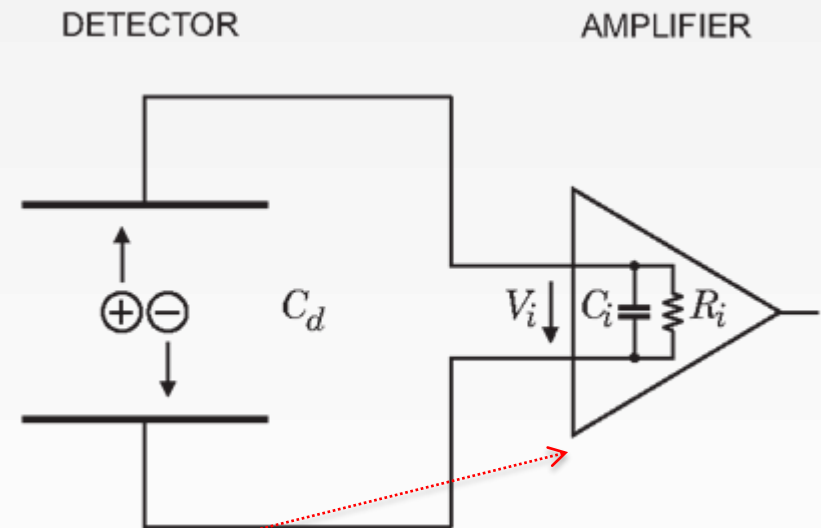


from H. Spieler "Analog and Digital Electronics for Detectors"

- Photomultiplier has high intrinsic gain (== amplification) → no pre-amplifier required
- Pulse shape does not depend on signal charge → measurement is called *pulse height analysis*

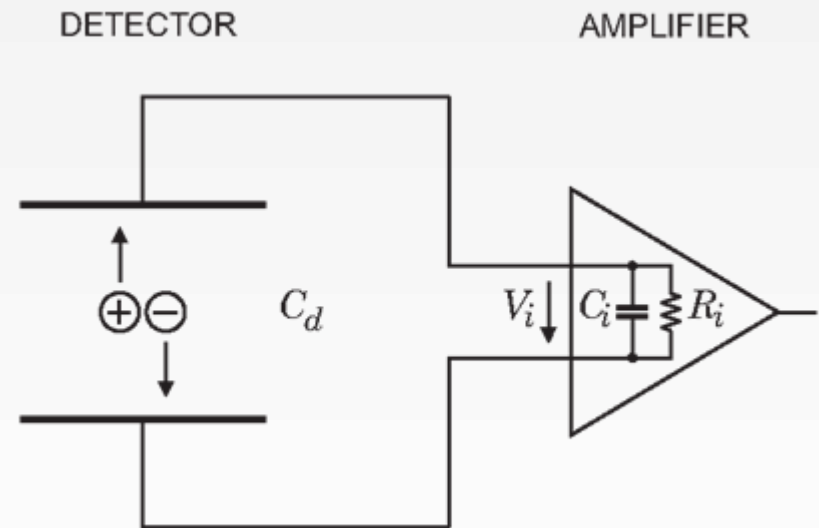
Acquiring a signal

- *Interesting signal is the deposited energy* → need to integrate the current pulse
 - on the sensor capacitance
 - using an integrating pre-amplifier, or
 - using an integrating Analog Digital Converter (ADC)
- The signal is usually very small → need to amplify it
 - with **electronics**
 - by signal multiplication (e.g. photomultiplier, see previous slide)



A first approach

- The detector is essentially a capacitance C_d (This is valid for solid-state detectors! For other detectors the equivalent circuit can have resistive and inductive elements)
- A particles puts Q_s into the detector
- Add an amplifier and amplify V_i

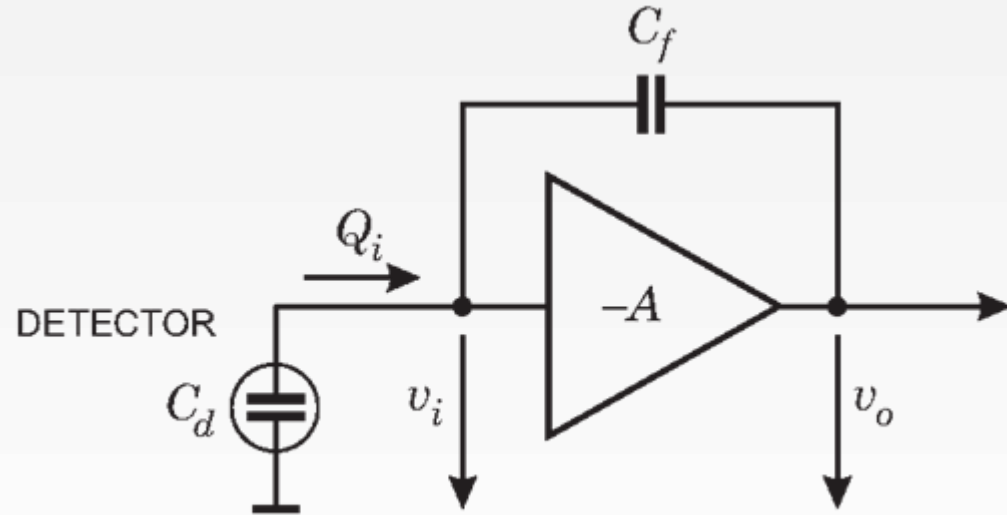


$$V_i = \frac{Q_s}{C_d + C_i}$$

Not so practical!
 Response depends
 on sensor capacitance

Charge sensitive amplification

- Feedback amplifier with gain $-A$
- Assume infinite input impedance \rightarrow no current flows into the amplifier and all signal charge builds up on C_f
- Input signal produces v_i at the input of the amplifier generating $-Av_i$ on output



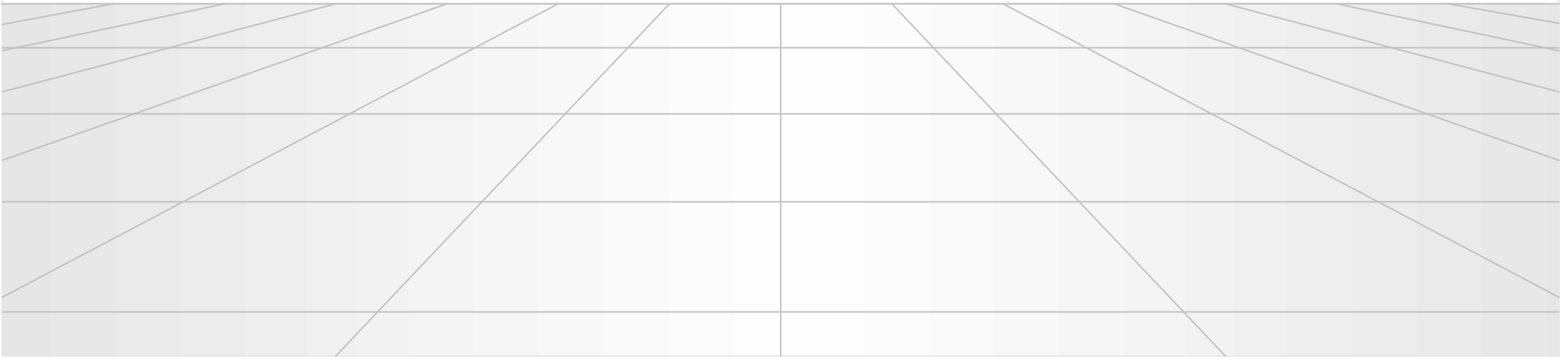
$$A_Q = \frac{v_o}{Q_i} = \frac{Av_i}{C_f(A+1)v_i} = \frac{A}{A+1} \frac{1}{C_f} \approx \frac{1}{C_f} \quad (A \gg 1)$$

- Charge gain depends only on C_f
- $C_i = C_f \times (A+1)$ needs to be large compared to C_d

$$\frac{Q_i}{Q_s} = \frac{C_i}{C_d + C_i} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{C_d}{C_i}}$$

How good can we get?

Noise



Fluctuations and Noise

- There are two limitations to the precision of signal magnitude measurements
 1. Fluctuations of the signal charge due to a an absorption event in the detector
 2. Baseline fluctuations in the electronics (“noise”)
- Often one has both – they are independent from each other so their contributions add in quadrature:

$$\Delta E = \sqrt{\Delta E^2_{fluc} + \Delta E^2_{noise}}$$

- Noise affects all measurements – must **maximize signal to noise ratio S/N ratio**

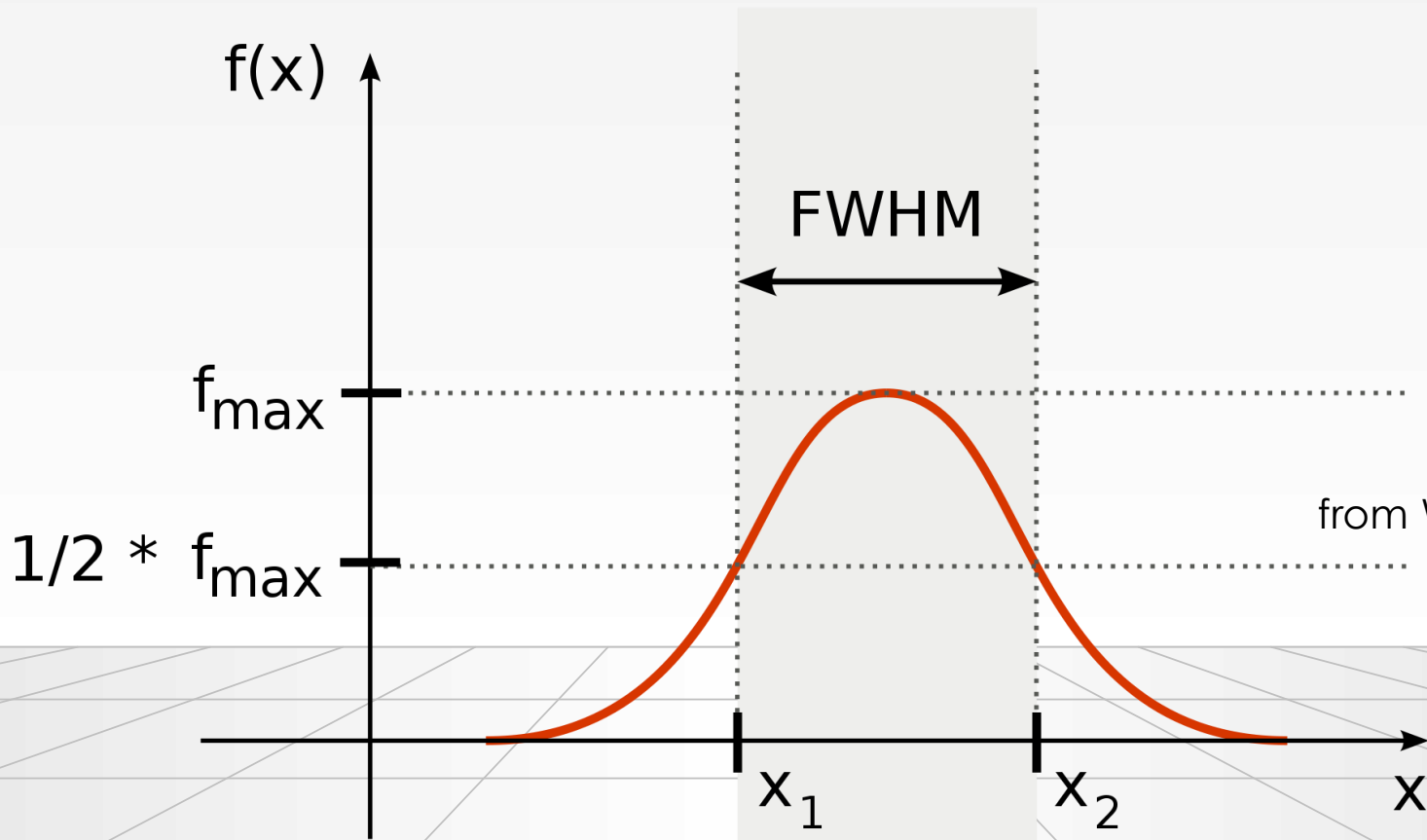
Signal fluctuation

- A signal consists of multiple **elementary events** (e.g. a charged particle creates one electron-hole pair in a Si-strip)
- The number of elementary events fluctuates $\Delta N = \sqrt{FN}$ where F is the Fano factor (0.1 for Silicon), E_i the energy of an elementary event

- $\Delta E = E_i \Delta N = \sqrt{FEE_i}$ r.m.s.

$$\Delta E_{FWHM} = 2.35 \times \Delta E_{rms}$$

Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM)



from Wikipedia

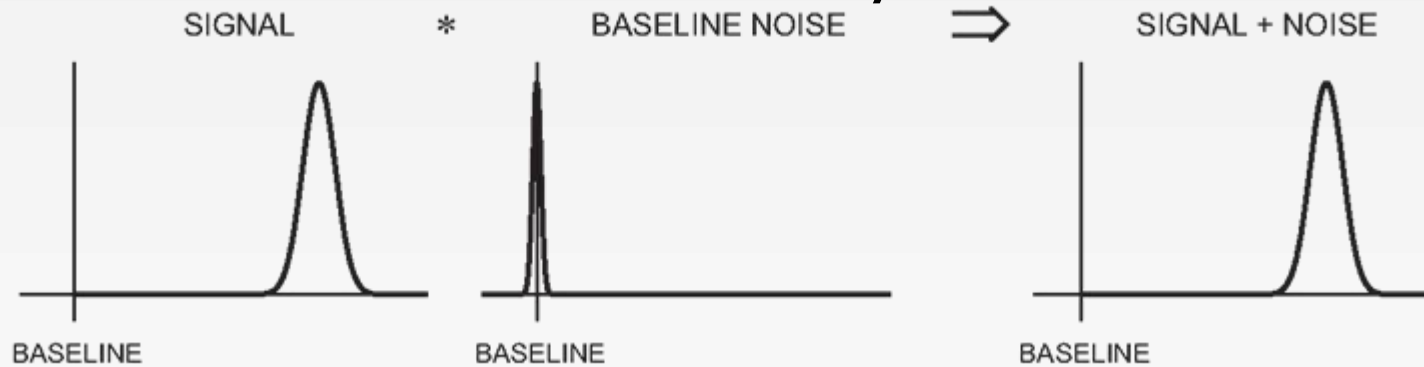
FWHM = 2.35σ for a Gaussian distribution

Electronics Noise

- Thermal noise
 - created by velocity fluctuations of charge carriers in a conductor
 - Noise power density per unit bandwidth is constant: white noise → larger bandwidth → larger noise (see also next slide)
- Shot noise
 - created by fluctuations in the number of charge carriers (e.g. tunneling events in a semi-conductor diode)
 - proportional to the total average current

SNR / Signal over Noise

What do we actually care about?

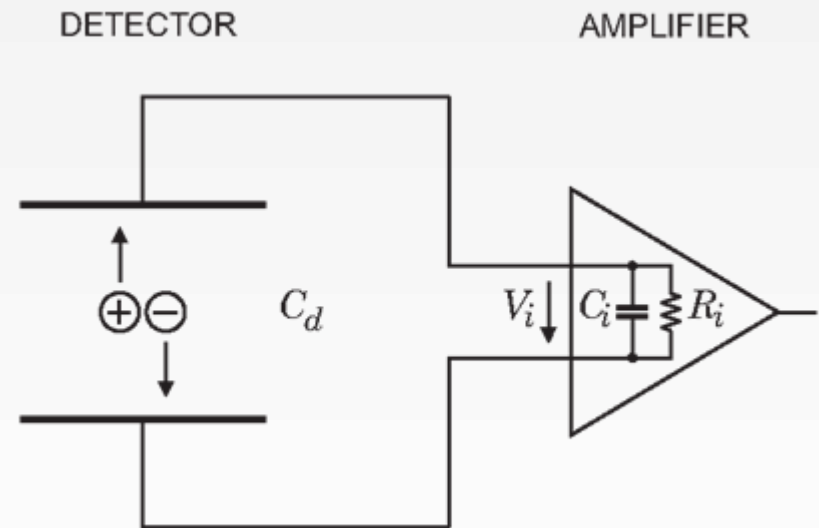


Need to optimize Signal over Noise Ratio (SNR)

SNR and detector capacitance

- For a given signal charge Q_s :

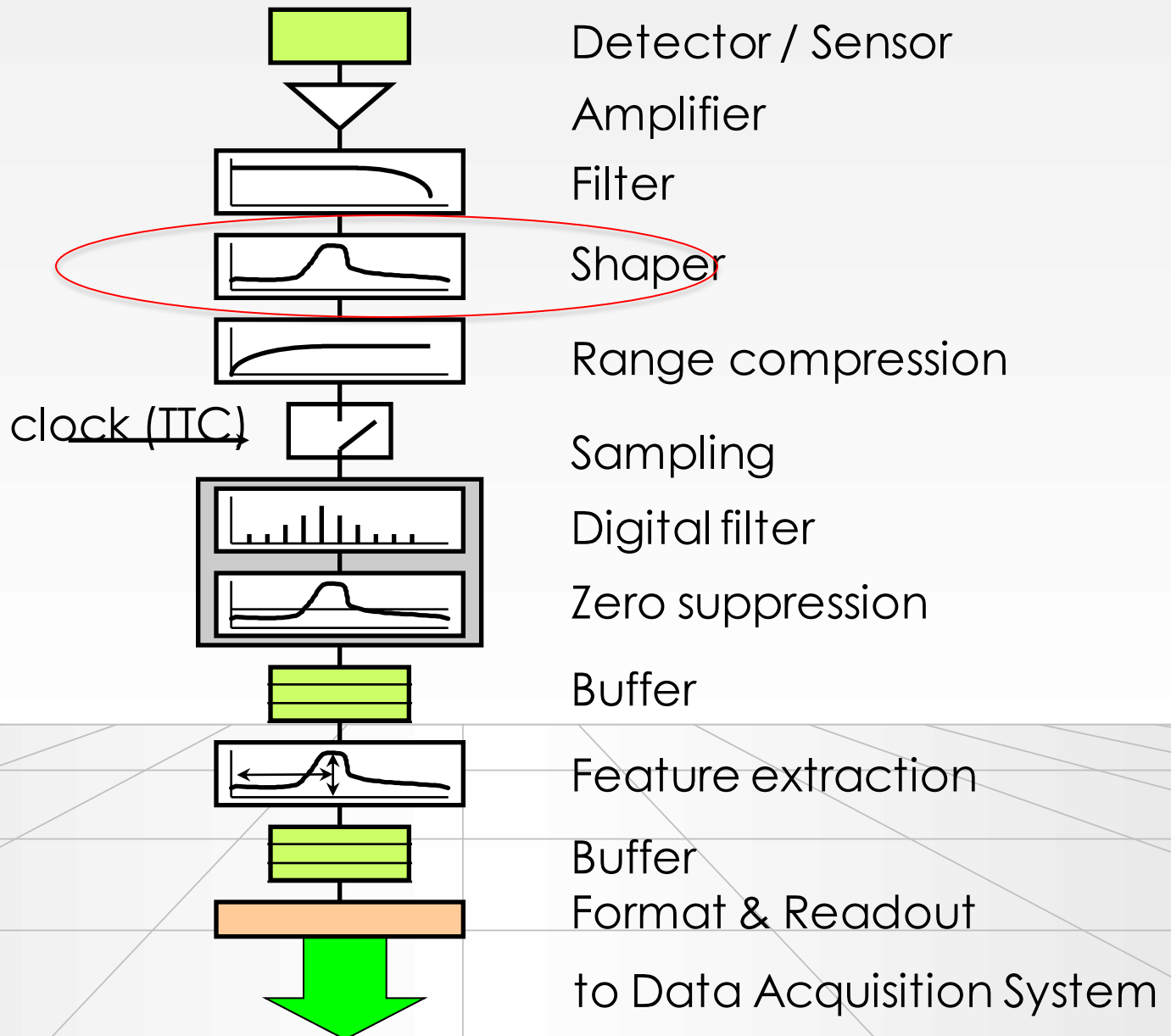
$$V_s = Q_s / (C_d + C_i)$$
- Assume amplifier has an input noise voltage V_n , then



SNR is inversely proportional to total capacitance on the input → thicker sensor gives more signal but also more noise

- $$\text{SNR} = \frac{V_s}{V_n} = \frac{Q_s}{V_n \times (C_n + C_d)}$$

The read-out chain



Two important concepts

- The *bandwidth* BW of an amplifier is the frequency range for which the output is at least half of the nominal amplification
- The *rise-time* t_r of a signal is the time in which a signal goes from 10% to 90% of its peak-value
- For a linear RC element (amplifier):

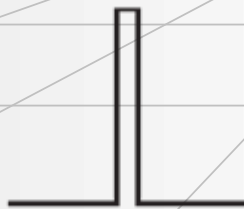
$$BW * t_r = 0.35$$

- For fast rising signals (t_r small) need high bandwidth, but this will increase the noise
→ shape the pulse to make it “flatter”

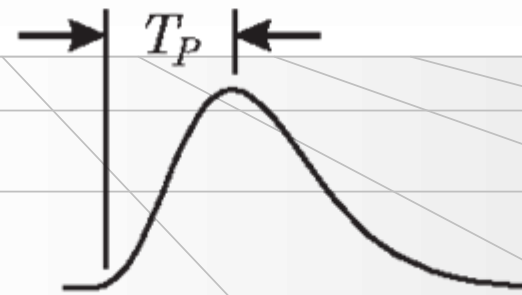
The pulse-shaper should “broaden”...

- Sharp pulse is “broadened” – rounded around the peak
- Reduces input bandwidth and hence noise

SENSOR PULSE

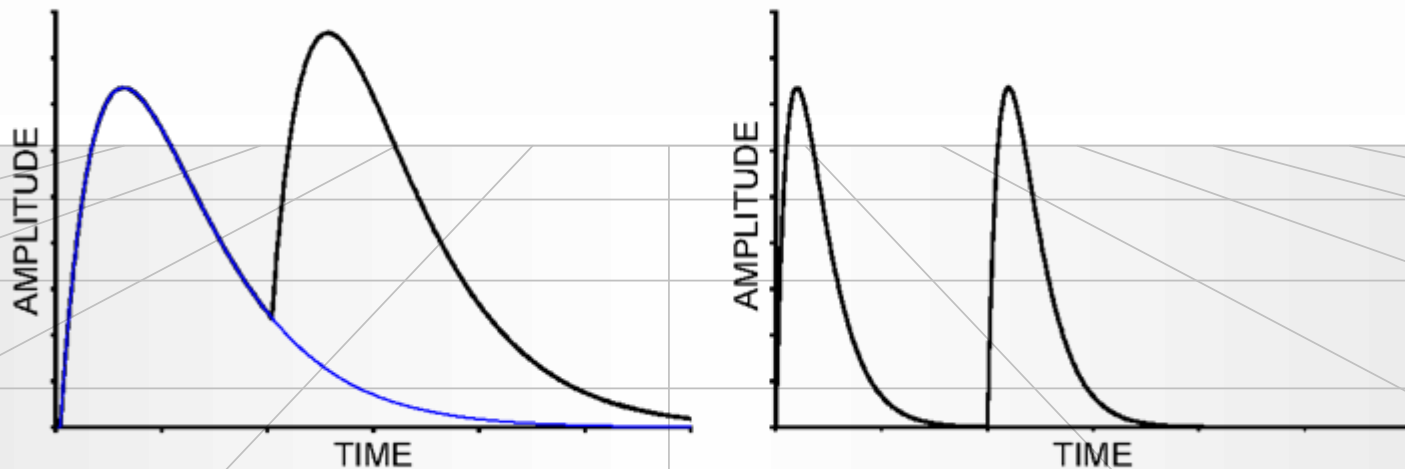


SHAPER OUTPUT

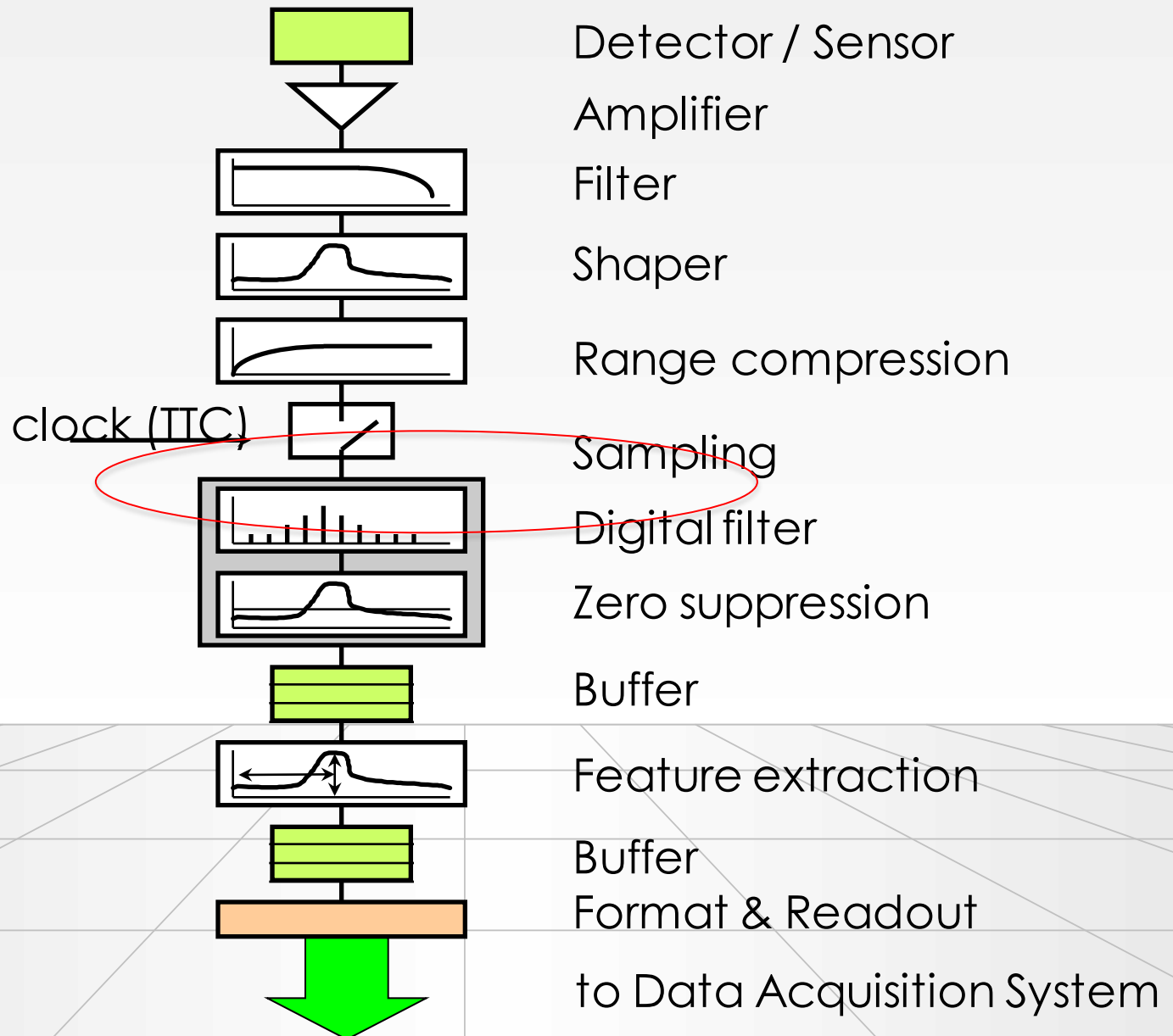


...but not too much

- Broad pulses reduce the temporal spacing between consecutive pulses
- Need to limit the effect of “pile-up” → pulses not too broad
- As usual in life: a compromise, in this case made out of low-band and high-band filters



The read-out chain



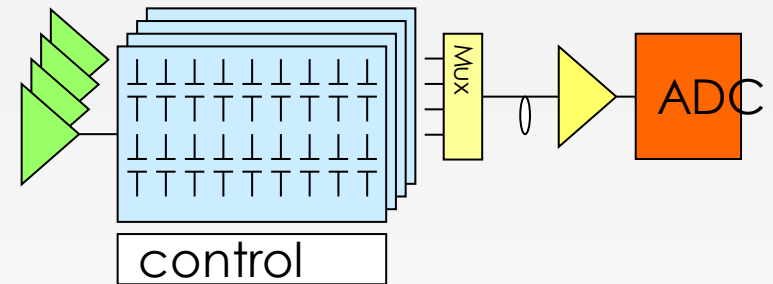
Analog/Digital/binary

After amplification and shaping the signals must at some point be digitized to allow for DAQ and further processing by computers

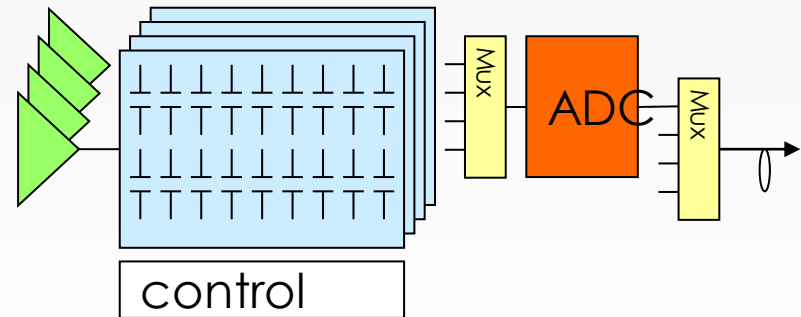
1. Analog readout: analog buffering ; digitization after transmission off detector
2. Digital readout with analog buffer
3. Digital readout with digital buffer

- *Binary*: discriminator right after shaping
 - Binary tracking
 - Drift time measurement

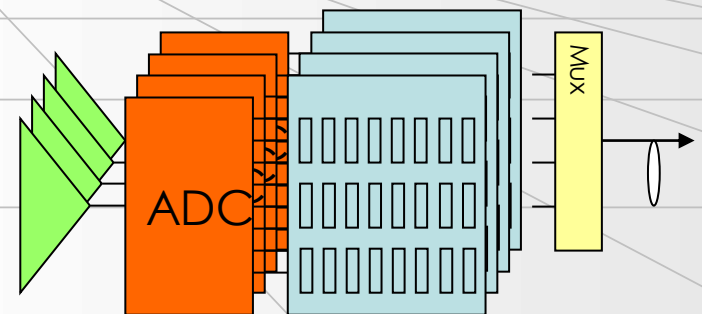
1) Analog memory



2) Analog memory

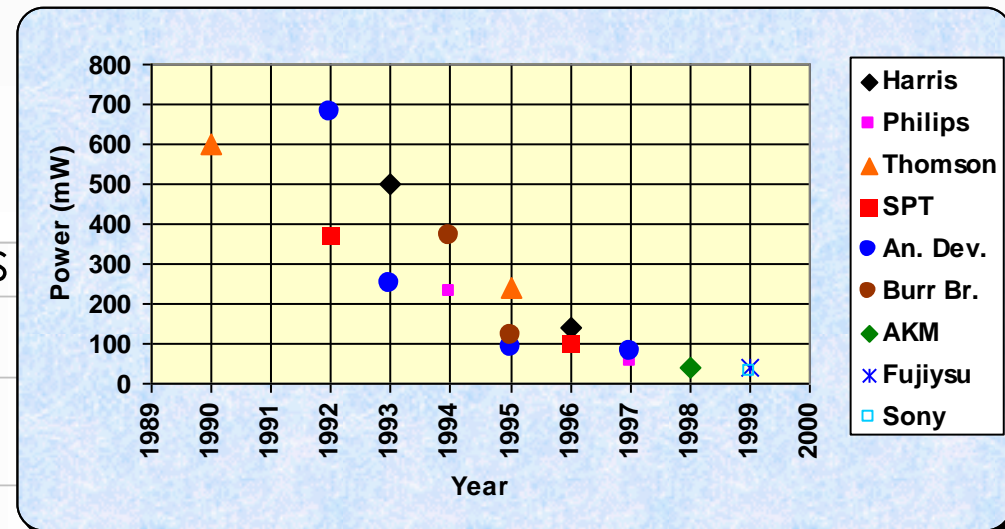


3) Digital memory



Analog to digital conversion

- There is clearly a tendency to go digital as early as possible
 - This is extensively done in consumer goods
- The “cost” of the ADC determines which architecture is chosen
 - Strongly depends on speed and resolution
- Input frequencies must be limited to half the sampling frequency.
 - Otherwise this will fold in as additional noise.
- High resolution ADC also needs low jitter clock to maintain effective resolution



An inconvenient truth

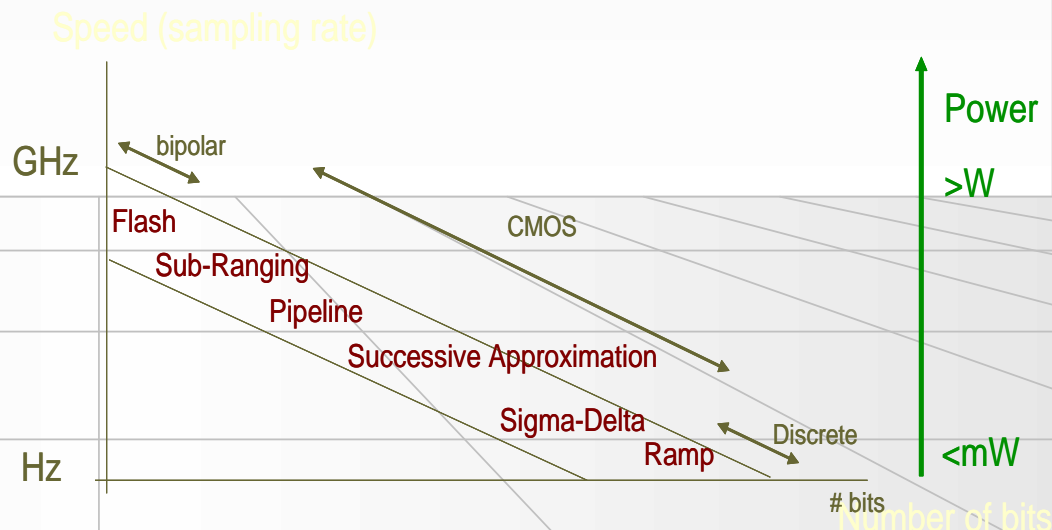
- A solution in detector-electronics can be:
 1. fast
 2. cheap
 3. low-power
- *Choose two of the above*: you can't have three

Cost means:

Power consumption

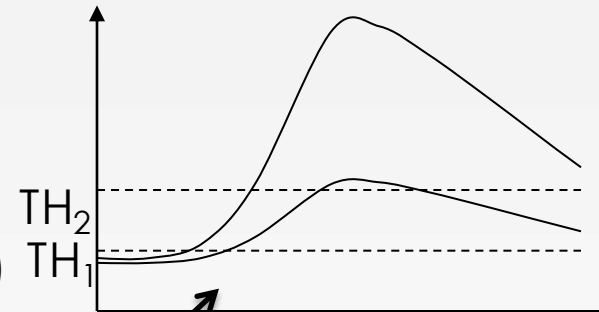
Silicon area

Availability of radiation hard ADC

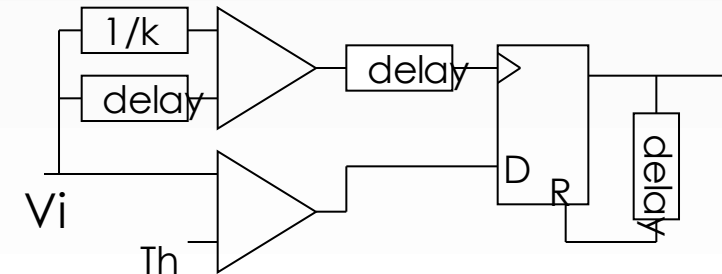


Time measurements

- Time measurements are important in many HEP applications
 - Identification of bunch crossing (LHC: 25ns)
 - Distinguishing among individual collisions (events) in continuous beam like experiments (or very short bunch interval like CLIC: ~250ps)
 - Drift time
 - Position in drift tubes (binary detectors with limited time resolution: ~1ns)
 - Time projection chamber (both good time and amplitude)
 - Time Of Flight (TOF) detectors (very high time resolution: 100ps)
- Time walk: Time dependency on amplitude
 - Low threshold (noise and pedestal limited)
 - Constant fraction discrimination
 - Works quite well but needs good analog delays (cable delay) which is not easy to integrate on chip.
 - Amplitude compensation (done in DAQ CPU's)
 - Separate measurement of amplitude (expensive)
 - Time measurements with two thresholds: 2 TDC channels
 - Time over threshold (TOT): 1 TDC channel measuring both leading edge and pulse width
- Time Over Threshold (TOT) can even be used as a poor mans ADC
 - E.g. ATLAS Pixel

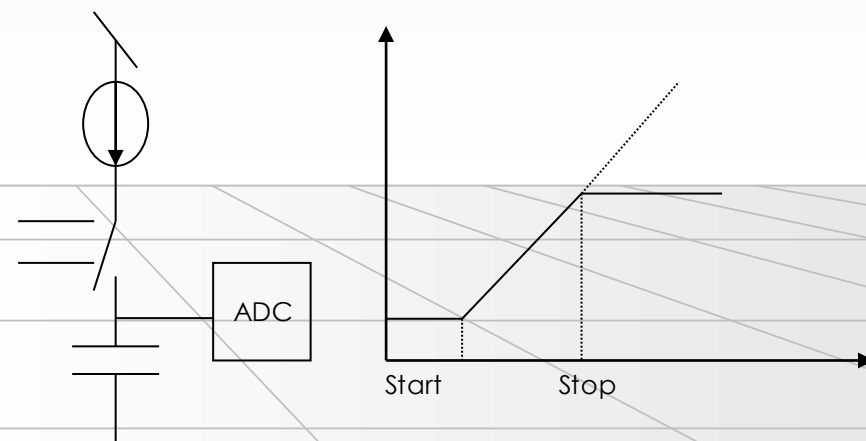
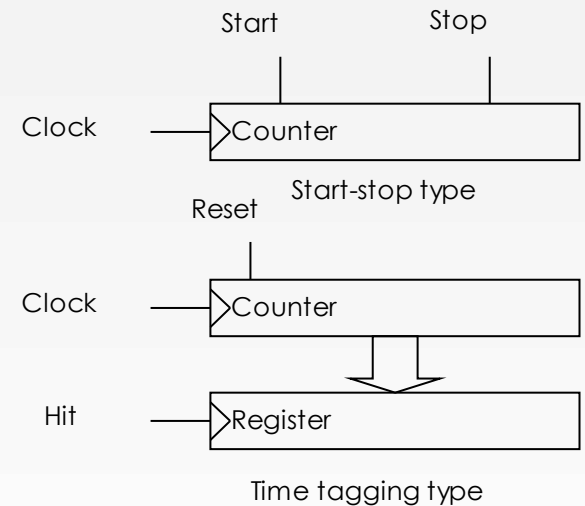


Constant fraction discriminator

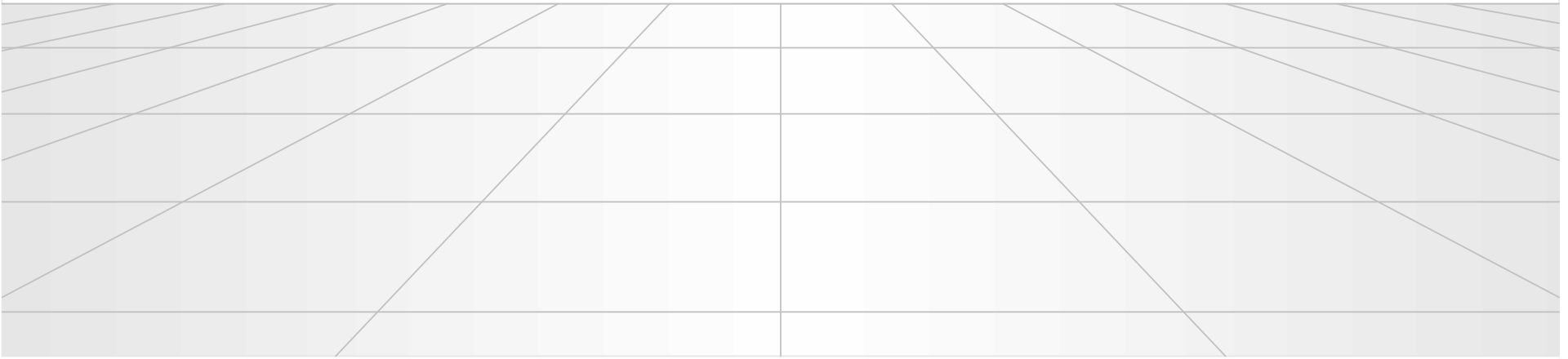


Time to digital conversion

- Counter
 - Large dynamic range
 - Good and cheap time references available as crystal oscillators
 - Synchronous to system clock so good for time tagging
 - Limited resolution: ~ 1 ns
- Charge integration (start – stop)
 - Limited dynamic range
 - High resolution: ~ 1 -100 ps
 - Sensitive analog circuit needing ADC for final conversion.
 - Sensitive to temperature, etc. so often needs in-system calibration
 - Can be combined with time counter for large dynamic range



Readout



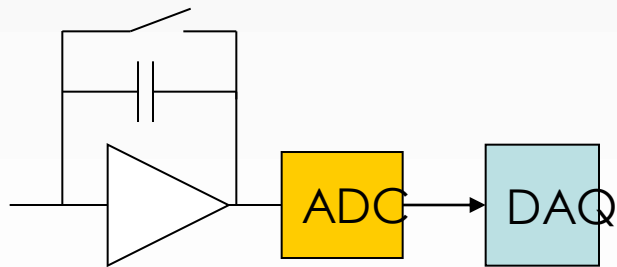
After shaping and amplifying

As usual ☺ what you do depends on many factors:

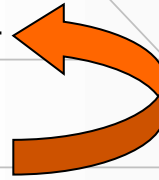
- Number of channels and channel density
- Collision rate and channel occupancies
- *Triggering*: levels, latencies, rates
- Available technology and cost
- What you can/want to do in custom made electronics and what you do in standard computers (computer farms)
- Radiation levels
- Power consumption and related cooling
- Location of digitization
- Given detector technology

Single integrator

- Simple (only one sample per channel)
- Slow rate (and high precision) experiments
- Long dead time
- Nuclear physics
- Not appropriate for HEP

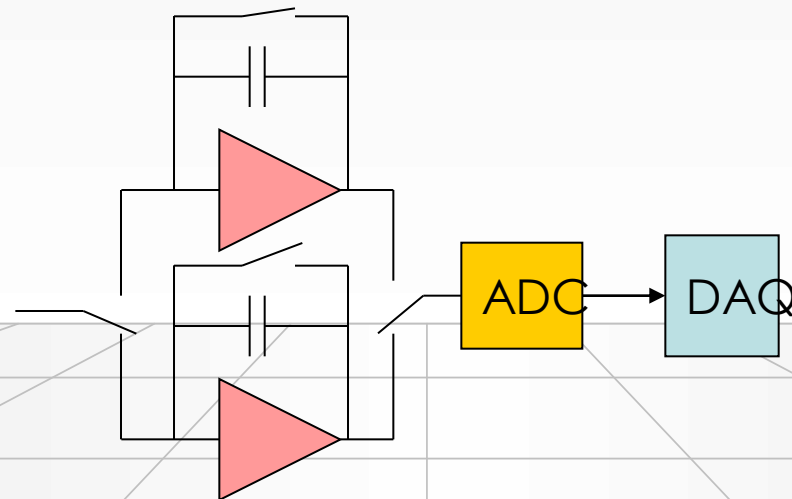


1. Collect charge from event
2. Convert with ADC
3. Send data to DAQ



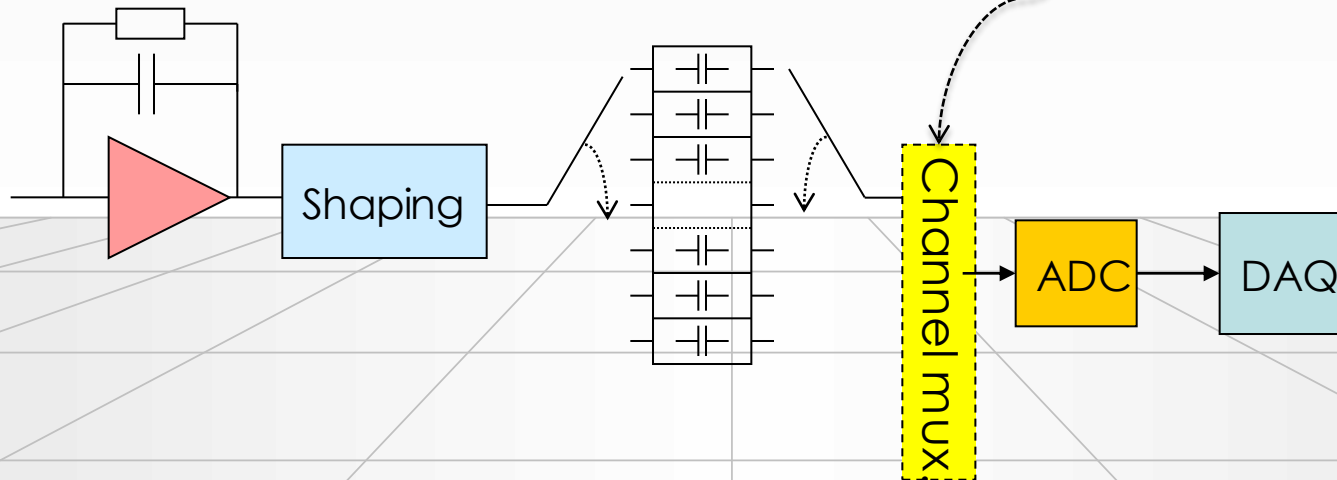
Double buffered

- Use a second integrator while the first is readout and reset
- Decreases dead time significantly
- Still for low rates



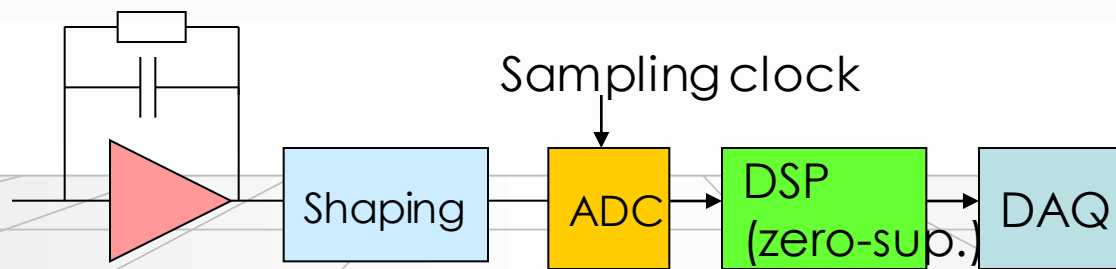
Multiple event buffers

- Good for experiments with short spills and large spacing between spills (e.g. fixed target experiment at SPS)
- Fill up event buffers during spill (high rate)
- Readout between spills (low rate)
- ADC can possibly be shared across channels
- Buffering can also be done digitally (in RAM)



Constantly sampled

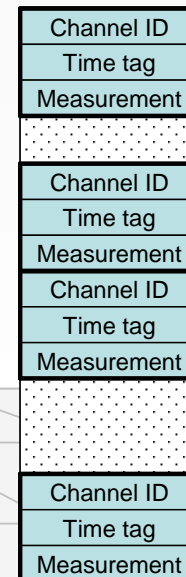
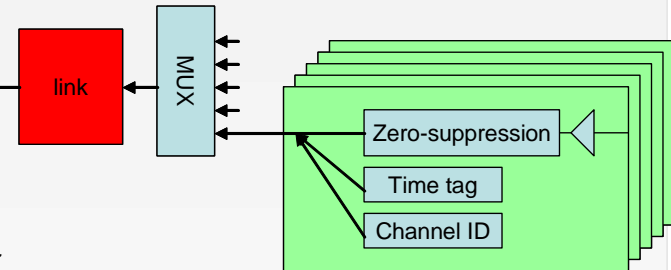
- Needed for high rate experiments with signal pileup
- Shapers and not switched integrators
- Allows digital signal processing in its traditional form (constantly sampled data stream)
- Output rate may be far to high for what following DAQ system can handle



- With local **zero-suppression** this may be an option for future high rate experiments (SLHC, CLIC)

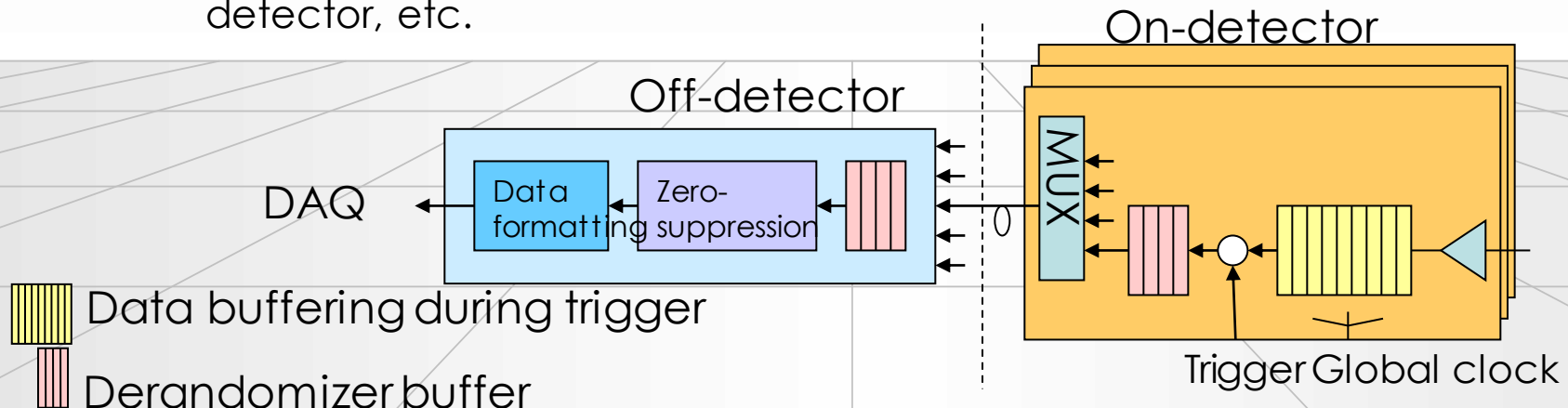
Excursion: zero-suppression

- Why spend bandwidth sending data that is zero for the majority of the time?
- Perform **zero-suppression** and only send data with non-zero content
 - Identify the data with a channel number and/or a time-stamp
 - We do not want to lose information of interest so this must be done with great care taking into account pedestals, baseline variations, common mode, noise, etc.
 - Not worth it for occupancies above ~10%
- Alternative: data compression
 - Huffman encoding and alike
- TANSTAFEL (There Aint No Such Thing As A Free Lunch)
 - Data rates fluctuates all the time and we have to fit this into links with a given bandwidth
 - Not any more event synchronous
 - Complicated buffer handling (overflows)
 - Before an experiment is built and running it is very difficult to give reliable estimates of data rates needed (background, new physics, etc.)

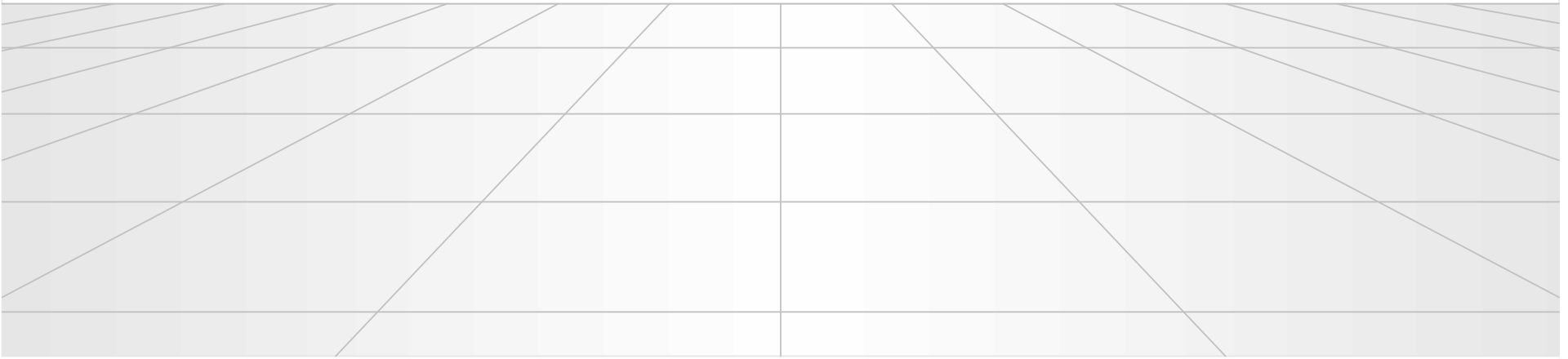


Synchronous readout

- All channels are doing the same “thing” at the same time
- Synchronous to a global clock (bunch crossing clock)
- Data-rate on each link is identical and depends only on *trigger-rate*
- On-detector buffers (*de-randomizers*) are of same size and their occupancy (“how full they are”) depends only on the *trigger-rate*
- ☹ Lots of bandwidth wasted for zero's
 - Price of links determine if one can afford this
- ☺ No problems if occupancy of detectors or noise higher than expected
 - But there are other problems related to this: spill over, saturation of detector, etc.



Trigger & DAQ (Sneak Preview)



What is a trigger?

01:02.18
02:50.00



An open-source
D rally game?

An important part
of a Beretta

The most famous
horse in
movie history?

What is a trigger?

Wikipedia: **“A trigger is a system that uses simple criteria to rapidly decide which events in a particle detector to keep when only a small fraction of the total can be recorded.”**

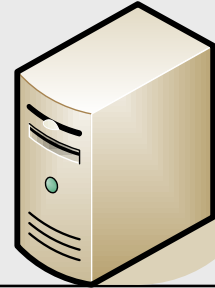
Trigger

- Simple
- Rapid
- Selective
- When only a small fraction can be recorded

Trivial DAQ

External View

sensor



Physical View

sensor

ADC Card

CPU



disk

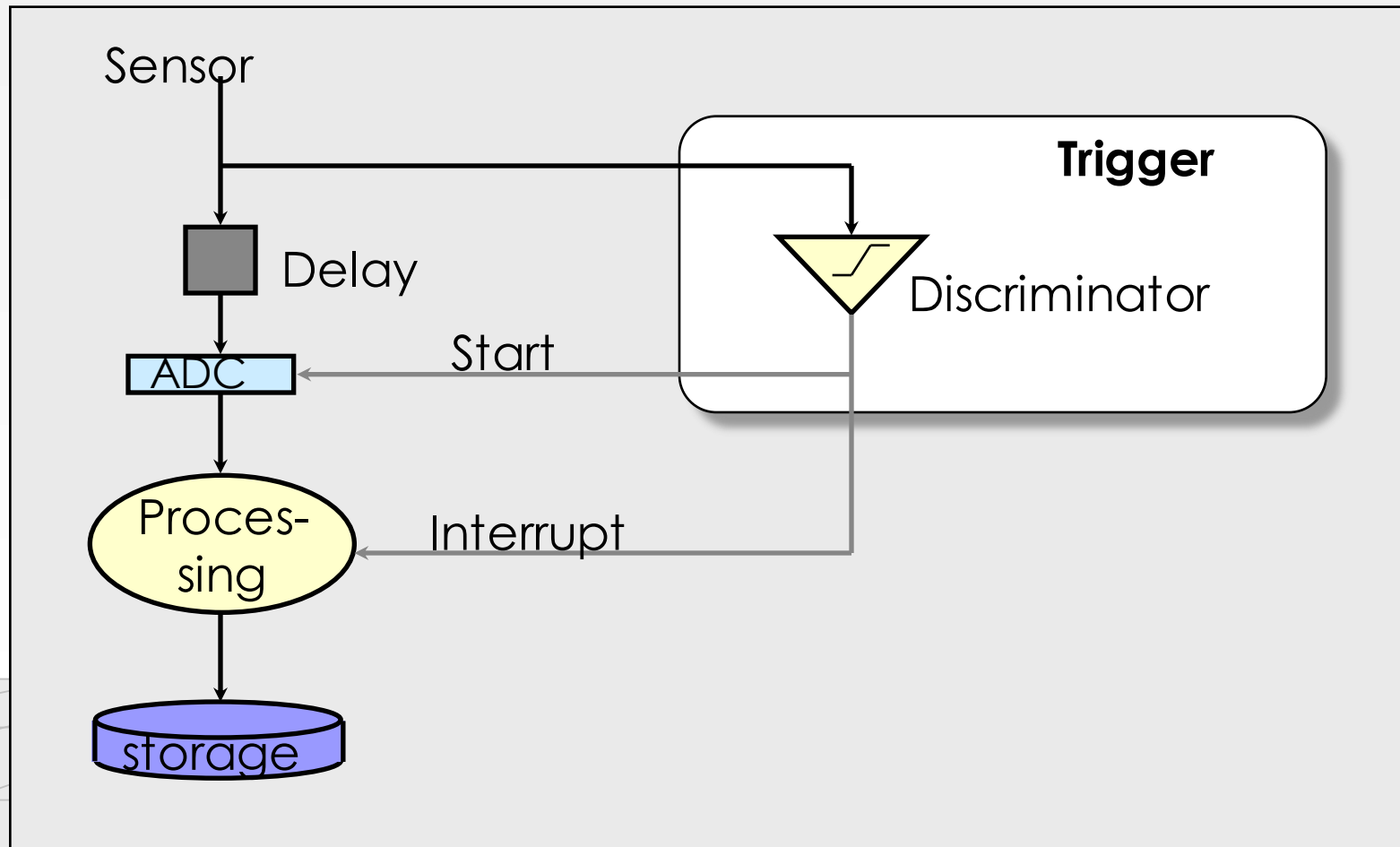
Logical View

ADC

Processing

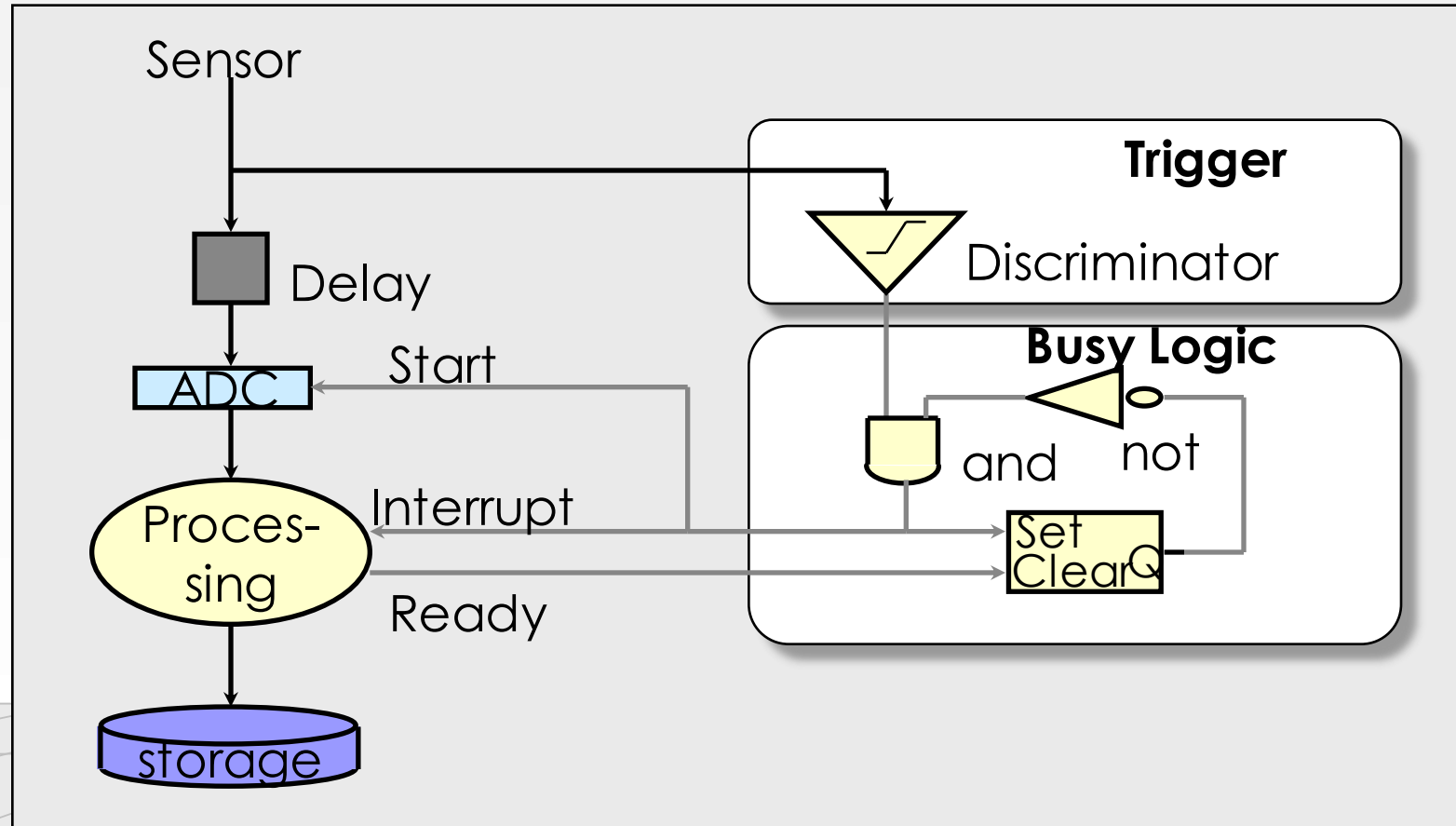
storage

Trivial DAQ with a real trigger



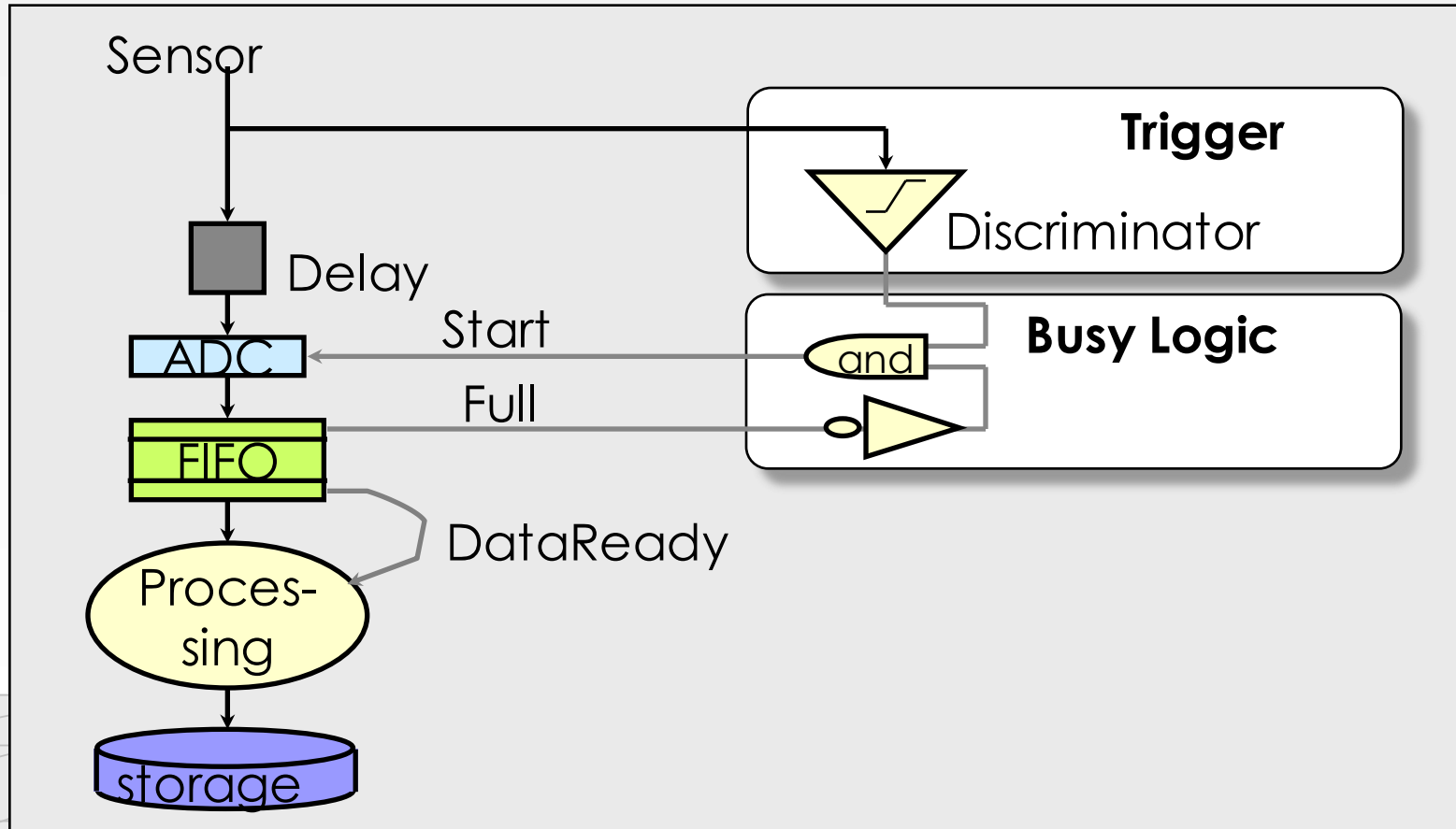
What if a trigger is produced when the *ADC* or *processing* is busy?

Trivial DAQ with a real trigger 2



Deadtime (%) is the ratio between the time the DAQ is *busy* and the total time.

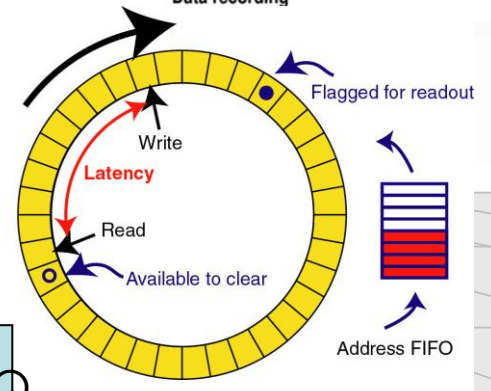
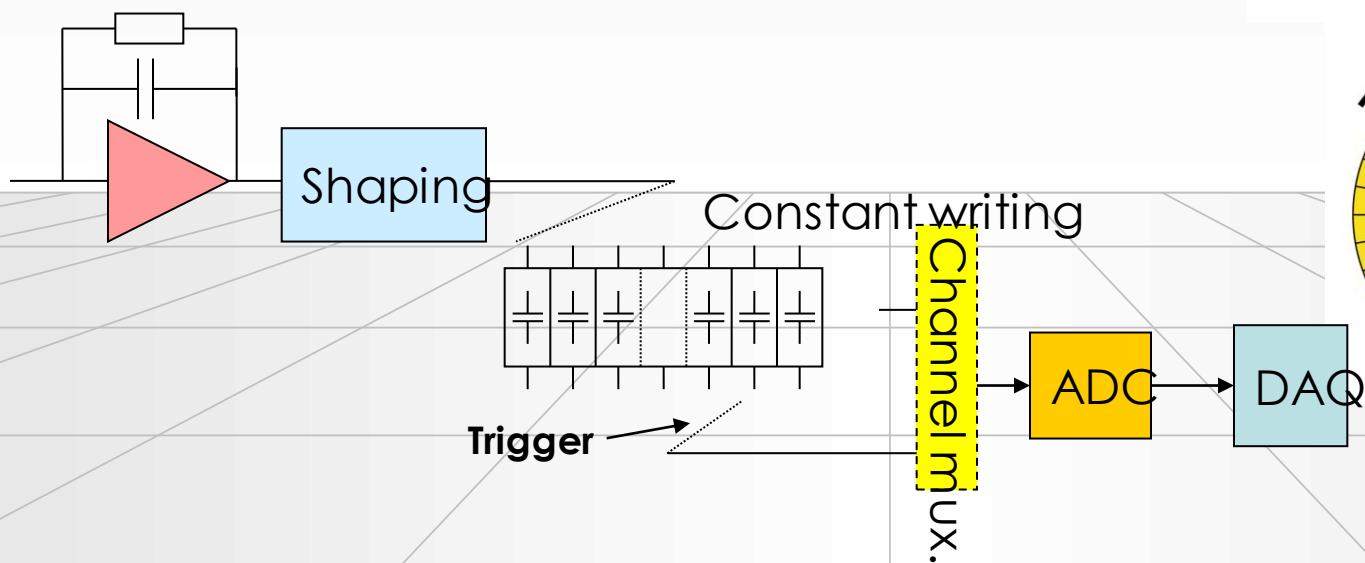
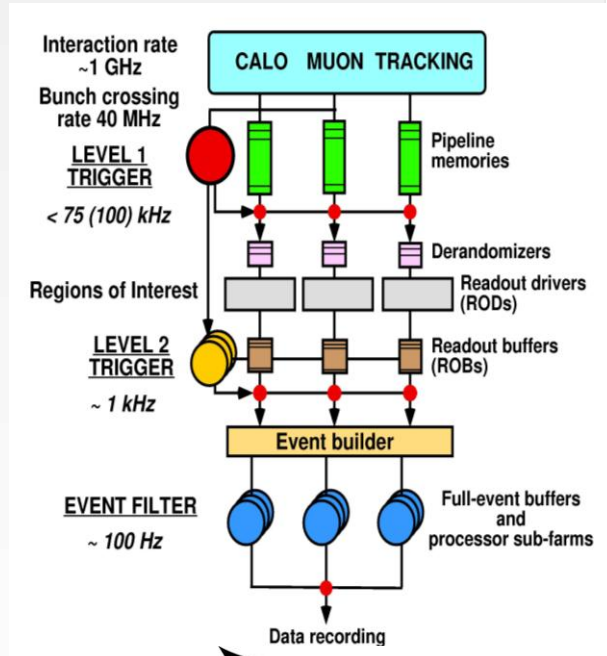
Trivial DAQ with a real trigger 3



Buffers are introduced to de-randomize data, to decouple the data production from the data consumption. **Better performance.**

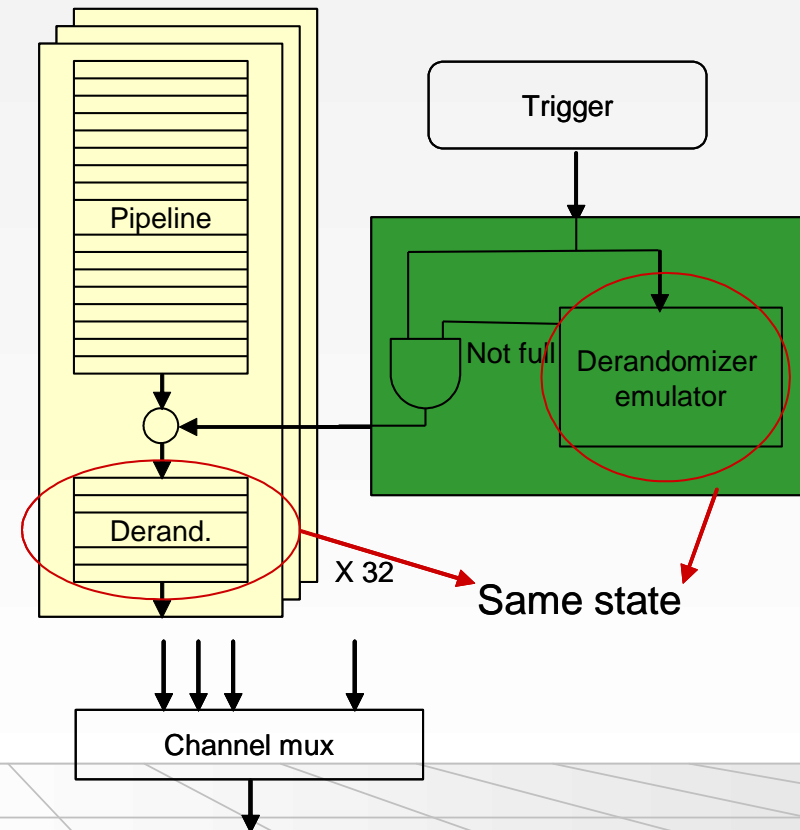
Triggered read-out

- Trigger processing requires some data transmission and processing time to make decision so front-ends **must buffer data** during this time. This is called the **trigger latency**
- For constant high rate experiments a “pipeline” buffer is needed in all front-end detector channels: (analog or digital)
 1. Real clocked pipeline (high power, large area, bad for analog)
 2. Circular buffer
 3. Time tagged (zero suppressed latency buffer based on time information)

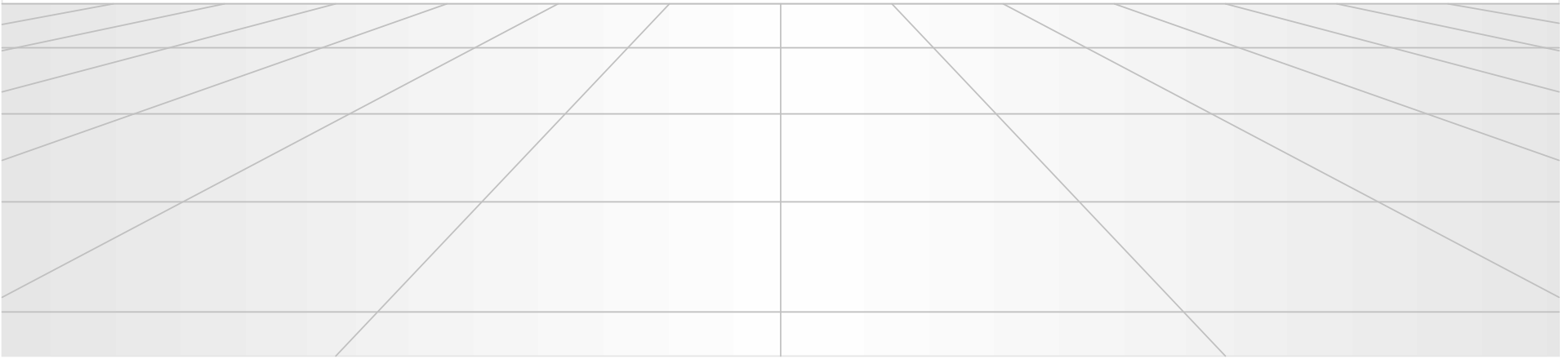


Trigger rate control

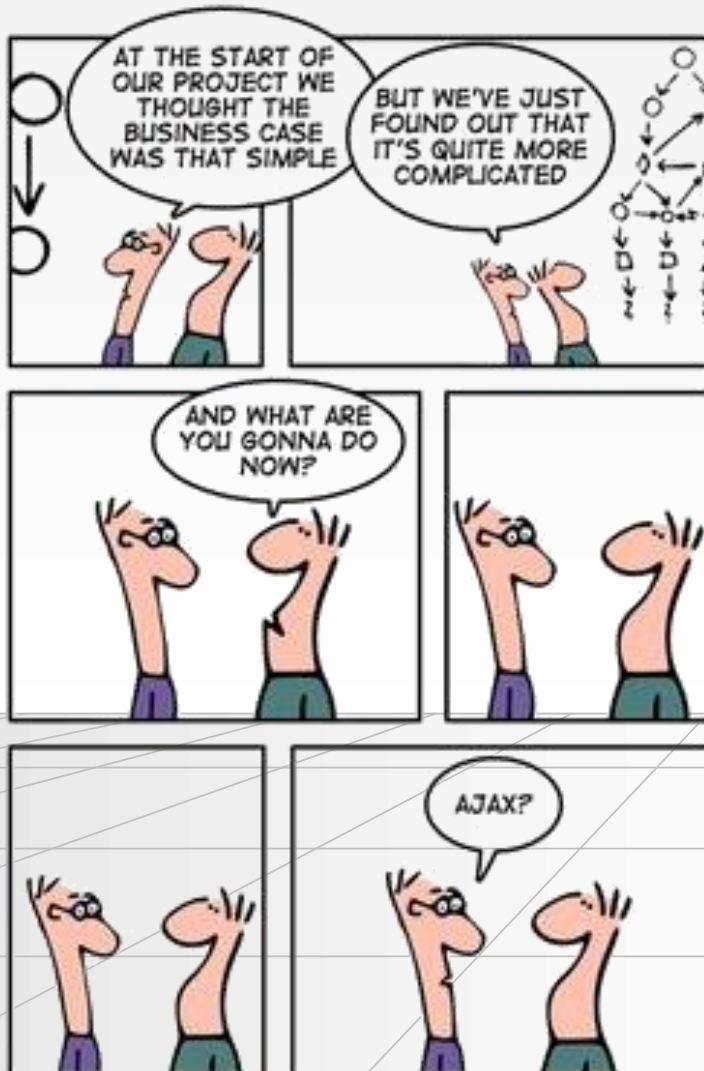
- Trigger rate determined by physics parameters used in trigger system:
 - 1 kHz – 1MHz for LHC experiments
 - The lower rate after the trigger allows sharing resources across channels (e.g. ADC and readout links)
- Triggers will be of random nature i.e. follow a Poisson distribution → a burst of triggers can occur within a short time window so some kind of rate control/spacing is needed
 - Minimum spacing between trigger accepts → dead-time
 - Maximum number of triggers within a given time window
- Derandomizer buffers needed in front-ends to handle this
 - Size and readout speed of this determines effective trigger rate



(Large) Systems



New problems



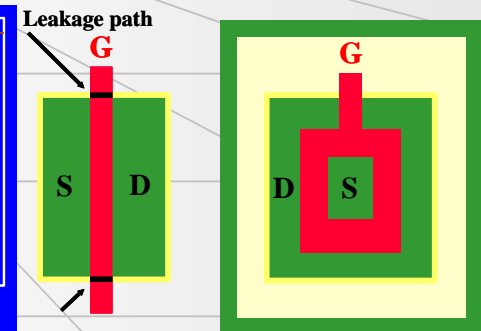
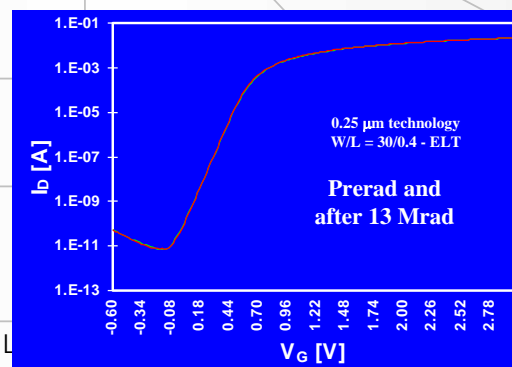
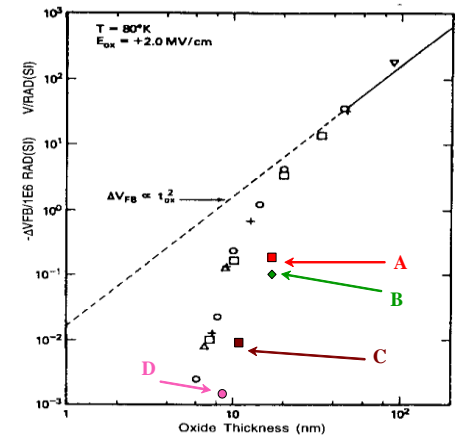
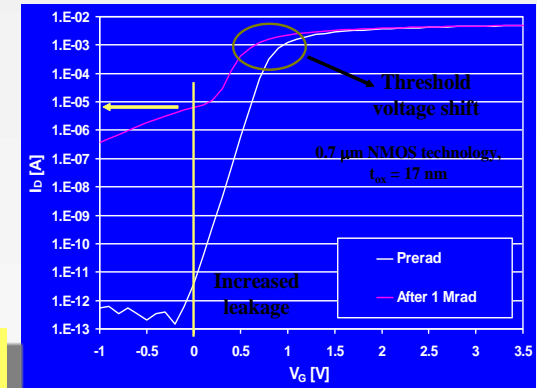
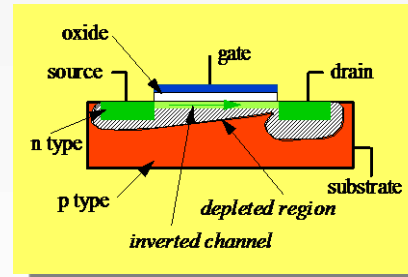
- Going from single sensors to building detector read-out of the circuits we have seen, brings up a host of new problems:
 - Power, Cooling
 - Crosstalk
 - Radiation (LHC)
- Some can be tackled by (yet) more sophisticated technologies

Radiation effects

- In some experiments large amounts of electronics are located inside the detector where there may be a high level of radiation
 - This is the case for 3 of the 4 LHC experiments (10 years running)
 - Pixel detectors: 10-100 Mrad
 - Trackers: ~10Mrad
 - Calorimeters: 0.1 – 1Mrad
 - Muon detectors: ~10krad
 - Cavern: 1 – 10krad
- 1 Rad == 10 mGy
 1 Gy = 100 Rad
- Normal commercial electronics will not survive within this environment
 - One of the reasons why much of the on-detector electronics in the LHC experiment are custom made
 - Special technologies and dedicated design approaches are needed to make electronics last in this unfriendly environment
 - Radiation effects on electronics can be divided into three major effects
 - Total dose
 - Displacement damage
 - Single event upsets

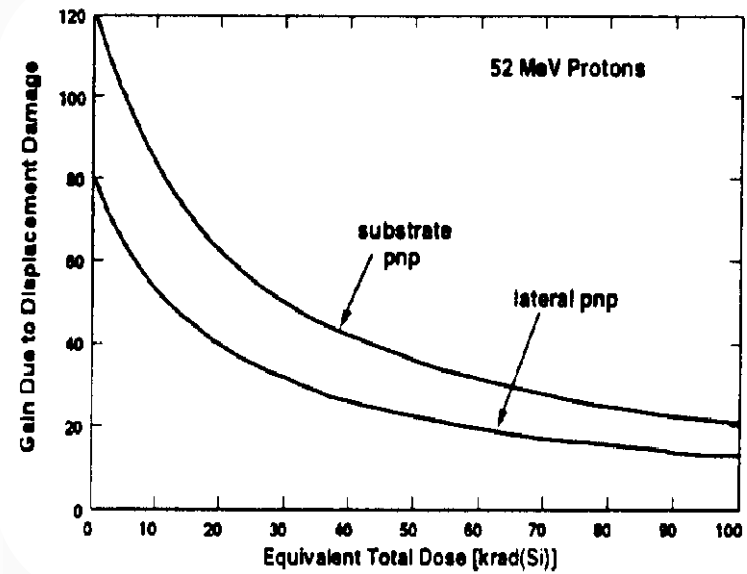
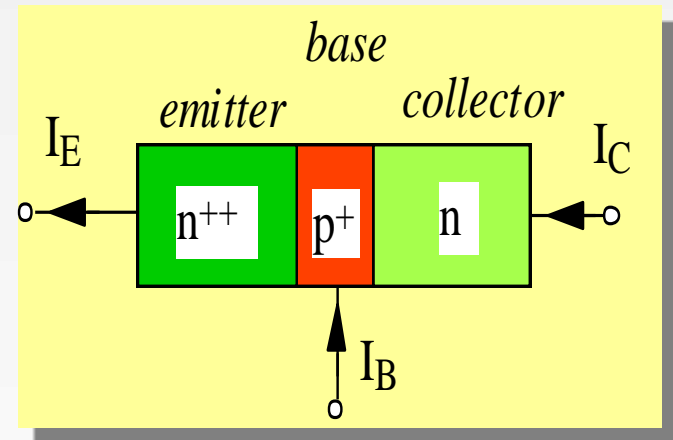
Total dose

- Generated charges from traversing particles gets trapped within the insulators of the active devices and changes their behavior
- For CMOS devices this happens in the thin gate oxide layer which have a major impact on the function of the MOS transistor
 - Threshold shifts
 - Leakage current
- In deep submicron technologies (<0.25um) the trapped charges are removed by tunneling currents through the very thin gate oxide
 - Only limited threshold shifts
- No major effect on high speed bipolar technologies



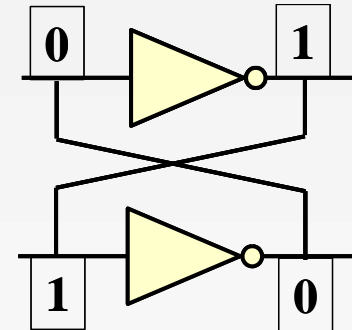
Displacement damage

- Traversing hadrons provokes displacements of atoms in the silicon lattice.
- Bipolar devices relies extensively on effects in the silicon lattice.
 - Traps (band gap energy levels)
 - Increased carrier recombination in base
- Results in decreased gain of bipolar devices with a dependency on the dose rate.
- No significant effect on MOS devices
- Also seriously affects Lasers and PIN diodes used for optical links.



Single event upsets

- Deposition of sufficient charge can make a memory cell or a flip-flop change value
- As for SEL, sufficient charge can only be deposited via a nuclear interaction for traversing hadrons
- The sensitivity to this is expressed as an efficient cross section for this to occur
- This problem can be resolved at the circuit level or at the logic level
- Make memory element so large and slow that deposited charge not enough to flip bit
- Triple redundant (for registers)
- Hamming coding (for memories)

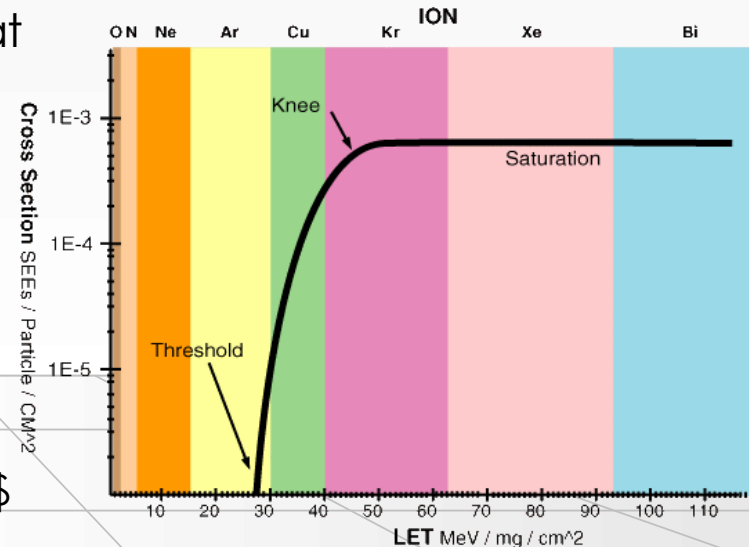


- Single error correction, Double error detection
- Example Hamming codes: 5 bit additional for 8 bit data

```

• ham[0] = d[1] $ d[2] $ d[3] $ d[4];
  ham[1] = d[1] $ d[5] $ d[6] $ d[7];
  ham[2] = d[2] $ d[3] $ d[5] $ d[6] $ d[8];
  ham[3] = d[2] $ d[4] $ d[5] $ d[7] $ d[8];
  ham[4] = d[1] $ d[3] $ d[4] $ d[6] $ d[7] $
  d[8];
  $ = XOR
  
```

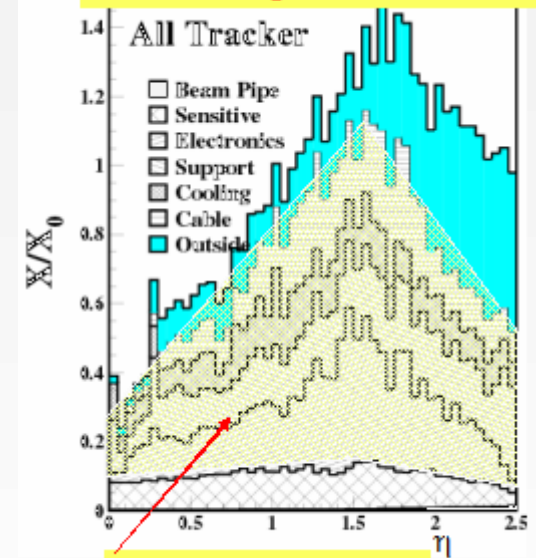
- Overhead decreasing for larger words
32bits only needs 7hamming bits



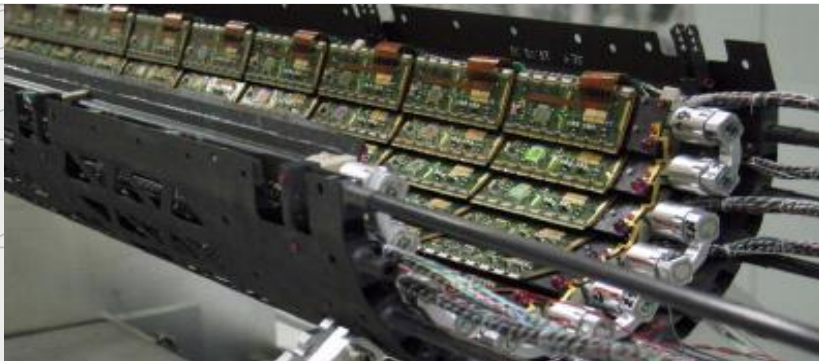
Powering

- Delivering power to the front-end electronics highly embedded in the detectors has been seen to be a major challenge (underestimated).
- The related cooling and power cabling infrastructure is a serious problem of the inner trackers as any additional material seriously degrades the physics performance of the whole experiment.
- A large majority of the material in these detectors in LHC relates to the electronics, cooling and power and not to the silicon detector themselves (which was the initial belief)
- How to improve
 1. Lower power consumption
 2. Improve power distribution

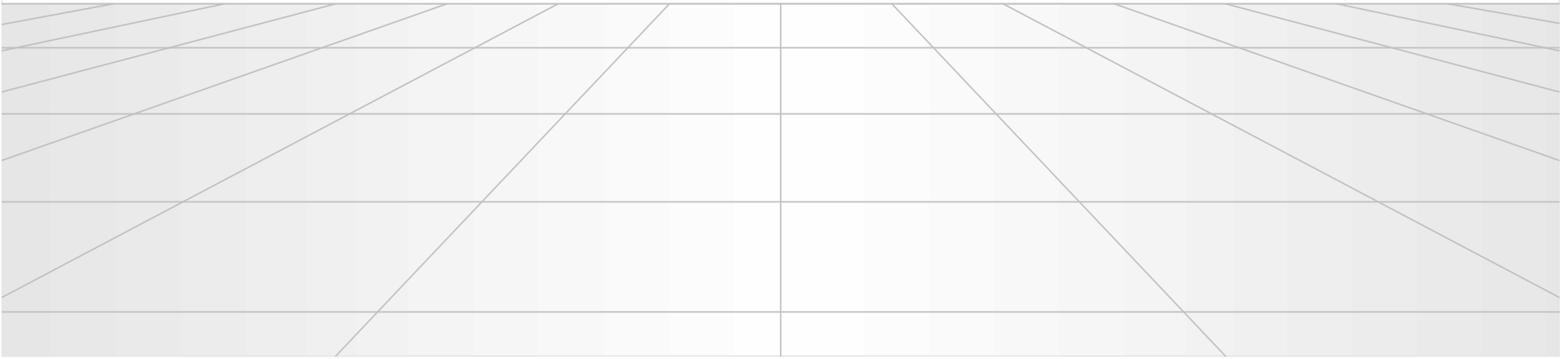
Material budget in CMS Tracker



All electronics related



Data Aquisition



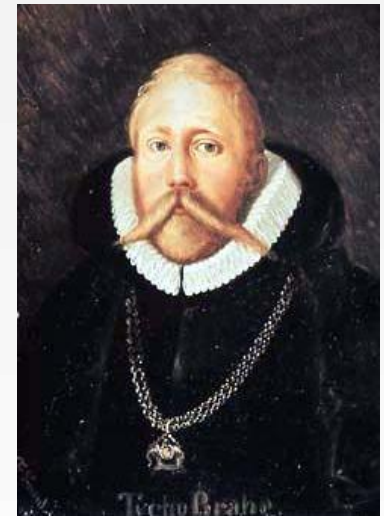
Introduction: DAQ

- Data Acquisition is a specialized engineering discipline thriving mostly in the eco-system of large science experiments, particularly in HEP
- It consists mainly of electronics, computer science, networking and (we hope) a little bit of physics

Tycho Brahe and the Orbit of Mars

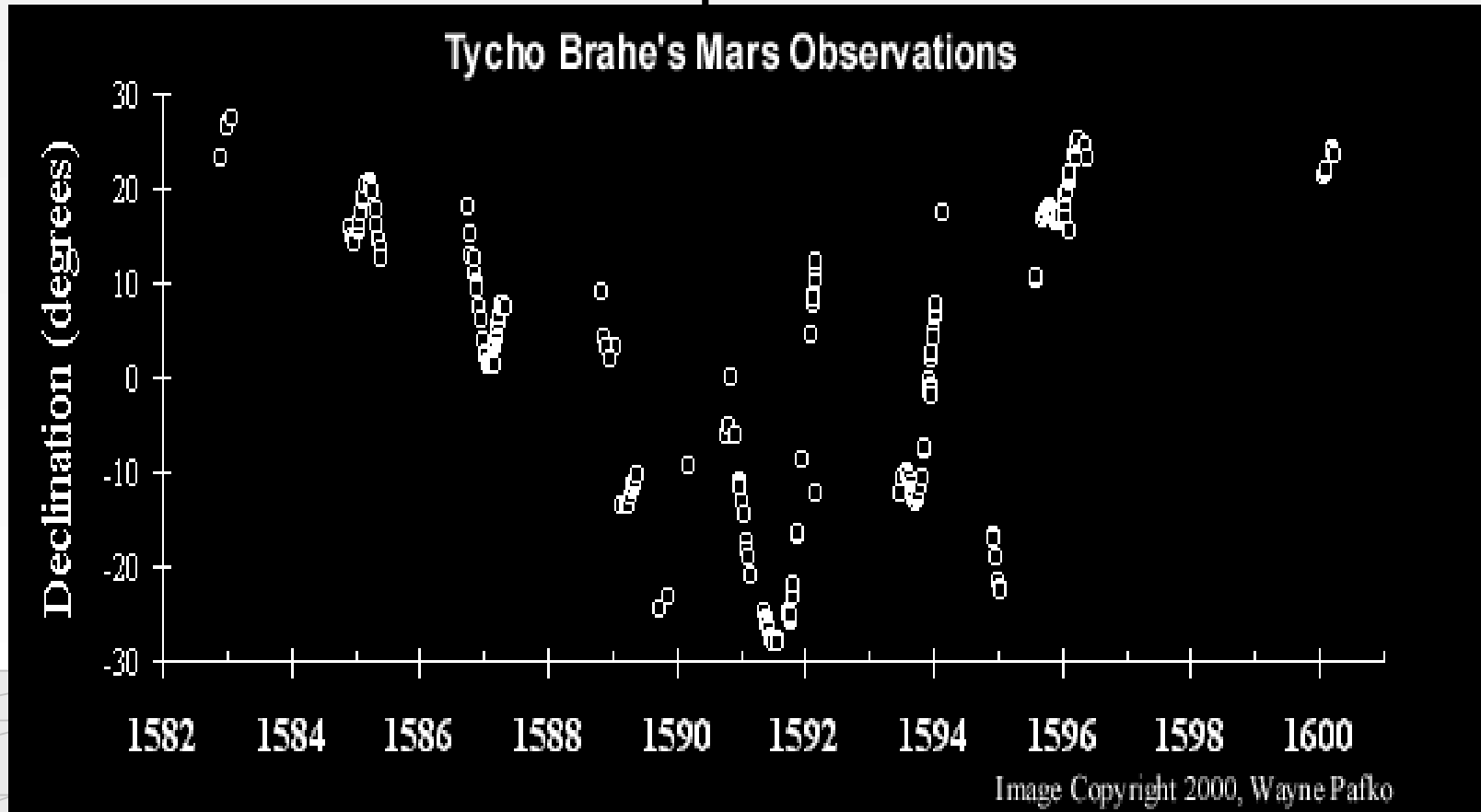
I've studied all available charts of the planets and stars and none of them match the others. There are just as many measurements and methods as there are astronomers and all of them disagree. What's needed is a long term project with the aim of mapping the heavens conducted from a single location over a period of several years.

Tycho Brahe, 1563 (age 17).



- First measurement campaign
- Systematic data acquisition
 - Controlled conditions (same time of the day and month)
 - Careful observation of boundary conditions (weather, light conditions etc...) - important for data quality / systematic uncertainties

The First Systematic Data Acquisition



- Data acquired over 18 years, normally every month
- Each measurement lasted at least 1 hr with the naked eye
- Red line (only in the animated version) shows comparison with modern theory

Tycho's DAQ in Today's Terminology

- Bandwidth (bw) = Amount of data transferred / per unit of time
 - “Transferred” = written to his logbook
 - “unit of time” = duration of measurement
 - $\text{bw}_{\text{Tycho}} = \sim 100 \text{ Bytes / h}$ (compare with LHCb $40.000.000.000 \text{ Bytes / s}$)
- Trigger = in general something which tells you when is the “right” moment to take your data
 - In Tycho's case the position of the sun, respectively the moon was the trigger
 - the trigger rate $\sim 3.85 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Hz}$ (compare with LHCb $1.0 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$)

Some More Thoughts on Tycho

- Tycho did not do the correct analysis of the Mars data, this was done by Johannes Kepler (1571-1630), eventually paving the way for Newton's laws
- Morale: the size & speed of a DAQ system are not correlated with the importance of the discovery!

Publicité / Commercial

ISOTDAQ 3rd International School

2012 OF TRIGGER AND DATA ACQUISITION

1 - 8 February 2012
Cracow, Poland

isotdaq.web.cern.ch

Registration until 1 November 2011



Topics

Trigger

NIM Electronics
Front-end Electronics
FPGA Programming

Data Acquisition

ADC, TDC, Detector Readout
Event & Buffer Management
DAQ Control Software
Storage Technologies

Data Transfer Technologies

VMEbus, xTCA
PCI, PCI-X
Data Networks

Review Talks

LHC Experiments
ATLAS TDAQ Architecture
CMS TDAQ Architecture

Advisory Committee

Enrico Pasqualucci (INFN Roma)
Gokhan Unel (UCI)
Kostas Kordas (AUTH)
Livio Mapelli (CERN)
Markus Joos (CERN)
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Krzysztof Korcyl (IFJ PAN, CUT)
Michal Turala (IFJ PAN)



The ISOTDAQ permanent lab

**Publicite
Advertisement**

In February 2010 the first ISOTDAQ school was held in Ankara

See: <http://isotdaq.web.cern.ch/isotdaq/isotdaq/2010.html>

Slides and videos can be found at:

<http://indico.cern.ch/conferenceTimeTable.py?confId=68278#20100201>

- Some of the exercises that were prepared for this school were (or will soon be) installed at CERN
- Interested students can register themselves to do some of these exercises. To register:
 - Add yourself to:
https://twiki.cern.ch/twiki/bin/view/Sandbox/DaqSchoolLab#Requests_for_access
 - Or write an e-mail to markus.joos@cern.ch
- It is recommended to have a look at the slides / videos before doing an exercise

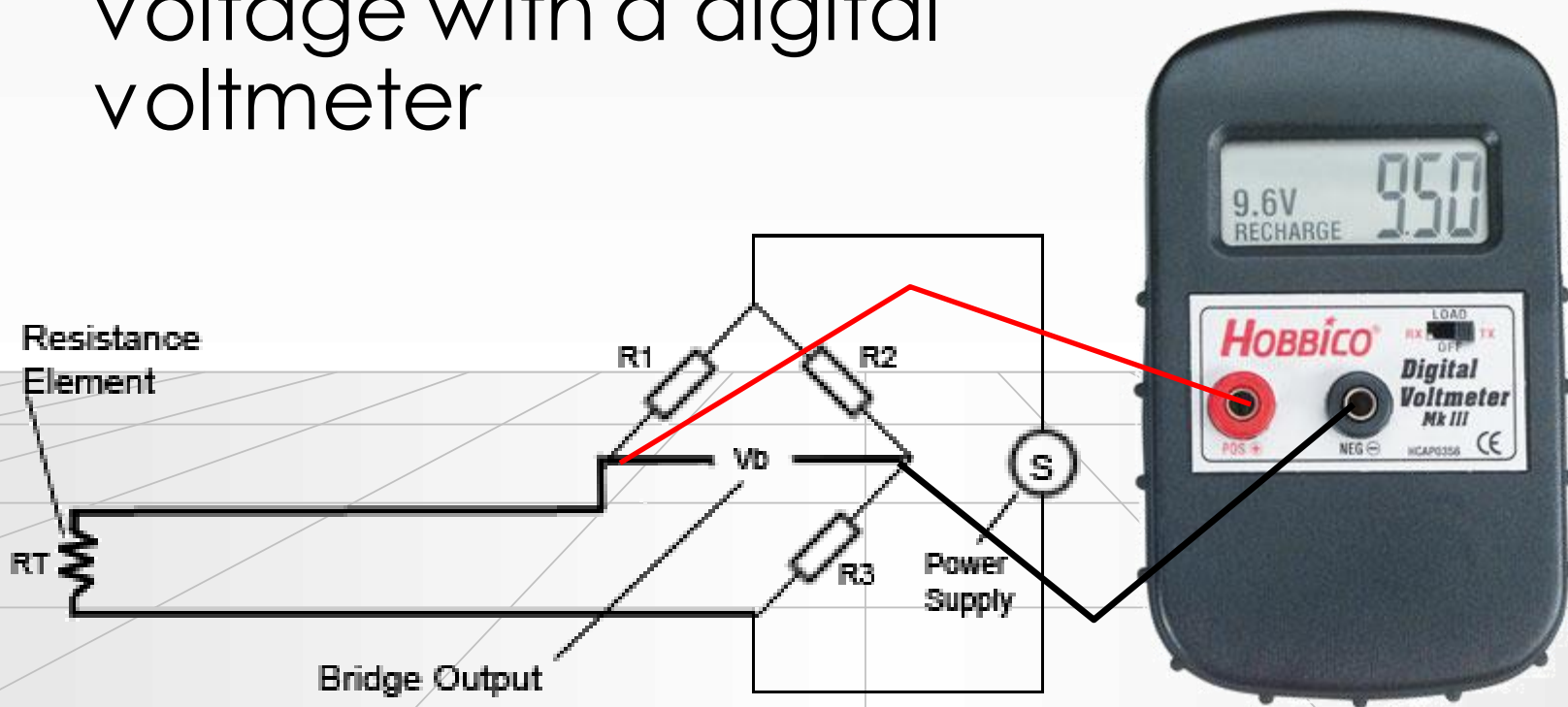
NOTE: We cannot guarantee that all the exercises will take place. So, don't be disappointed, if your favourite is not in

A Very Simple Data Acquisition System



Measuring Temperature

- Suppose you are given a Pt100 thermo-resistor
- We read the temperature as a voltage with a digital voltmeter



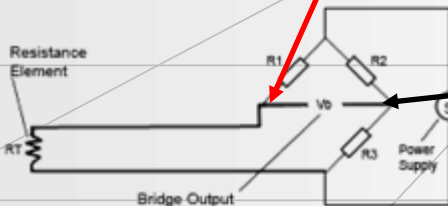
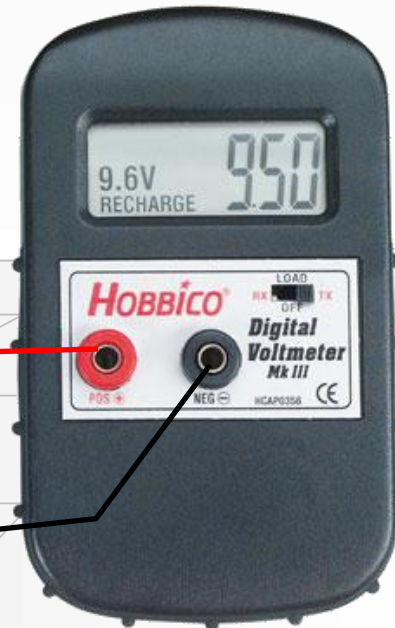
Reading Out Automatically

```
#include <libusb.h>
struct usb_bus *bus;
struct usb_device *dev;
usb_dev_handle *vmh = 0;
usb_find_busses(); usb_find_devices();
for (bus = usb_busses; bus; bus = bus->next)
    for (dev = bus->devices; dev; dev = dev->next)
        if (dev->descriptor.idVendor ==
            HOBBICO) vmh = usb_open(dev);
usb_bulk_read(vmh, 3, &u, sizeof(float), 500);
```



Note how small the sensor has become. In DAQ we normally need not worry about the details of the things we readout

USB/RS232



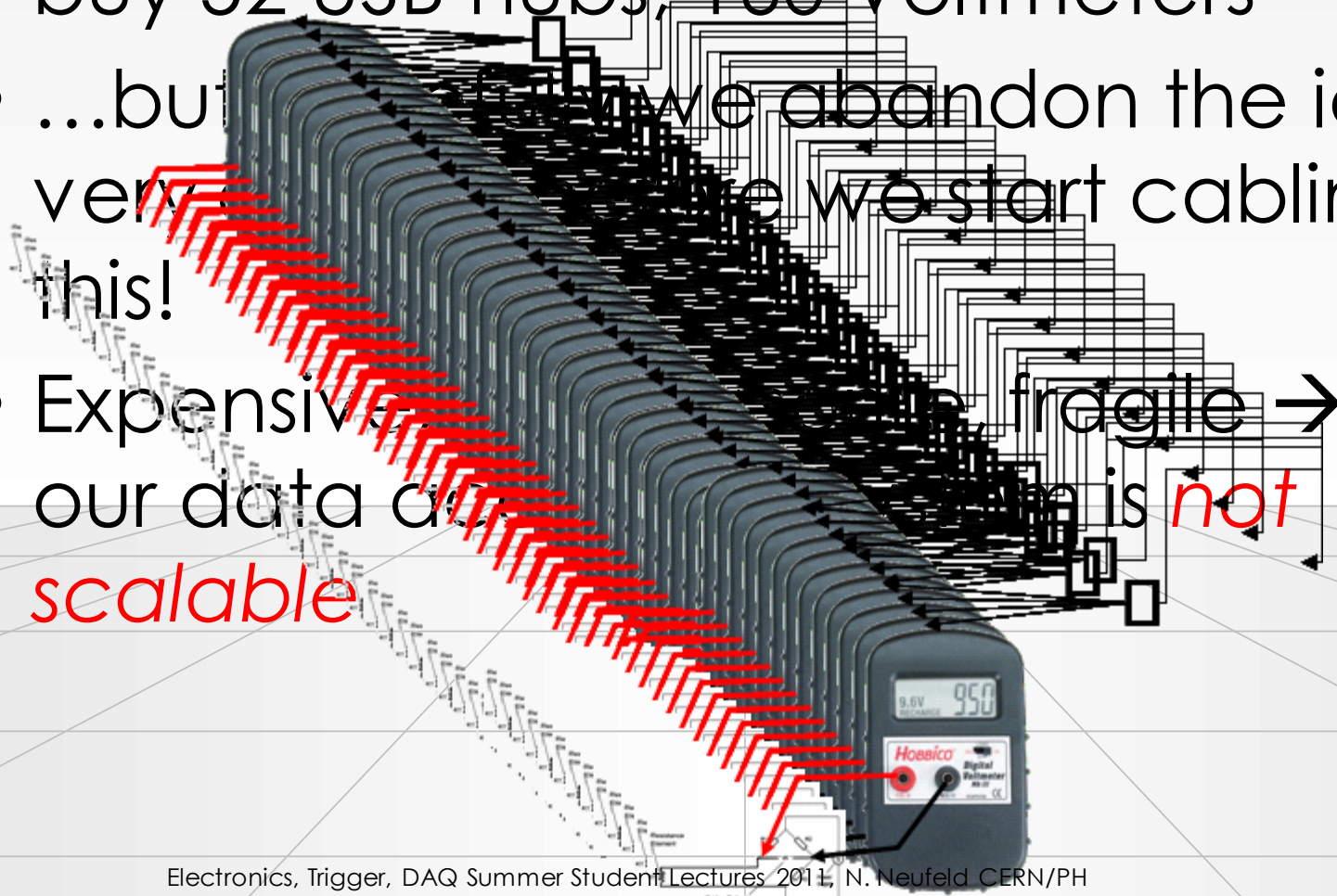
Read-out 16 Sensors



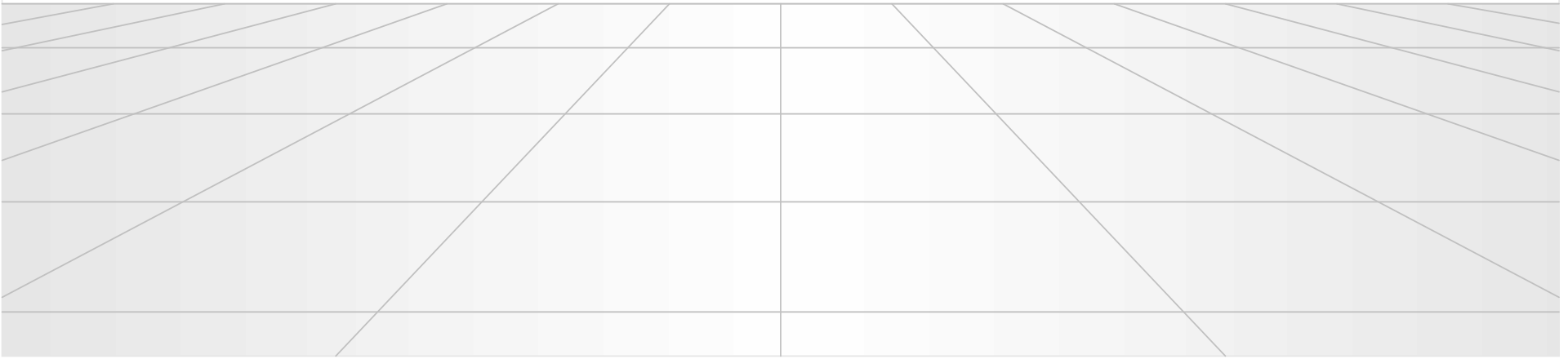
- Buy 4 x 4-port USB hub (very cheap) (+ 3 more voltmeters)
- Adapt our little DAQ program
- No fundamental (architectural) change to our DAQ

Read-out 160 Sensors

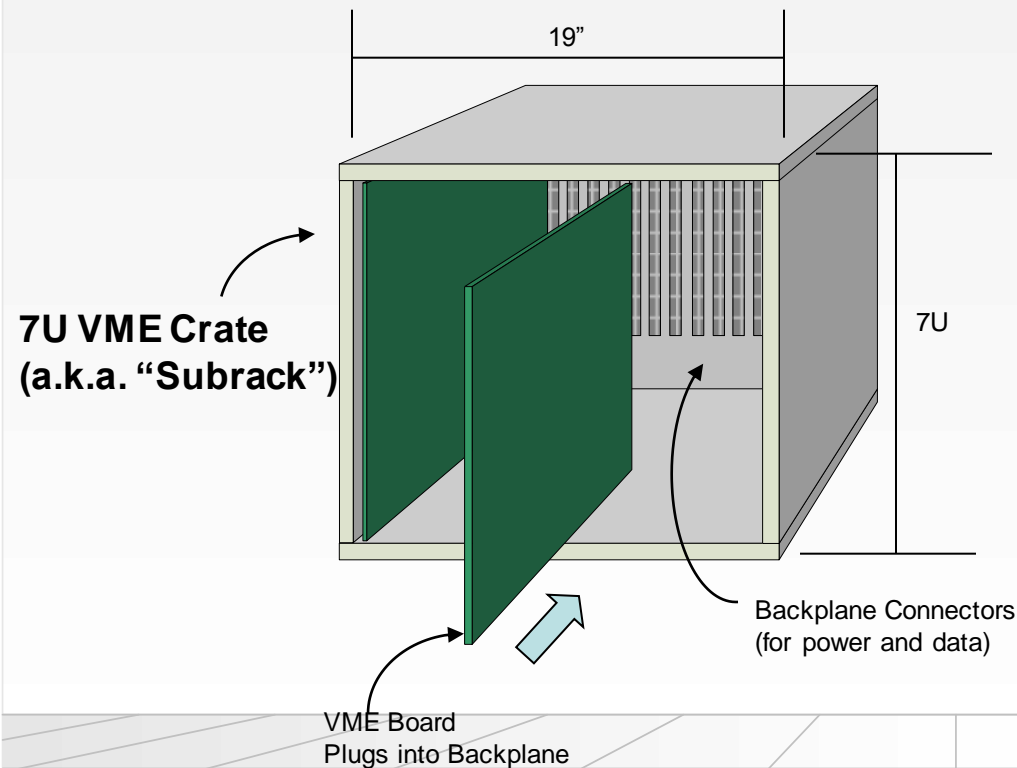
- For a moment we (might) consider to buy 52 USB hubs, 160 Voltmeters
- ...but ~~then~~ we abandon the idea very ~~early~~ when we start cabling this!
- Expensive, fragile → our data acquisition is *not* *scalable*



Read-out with Buses



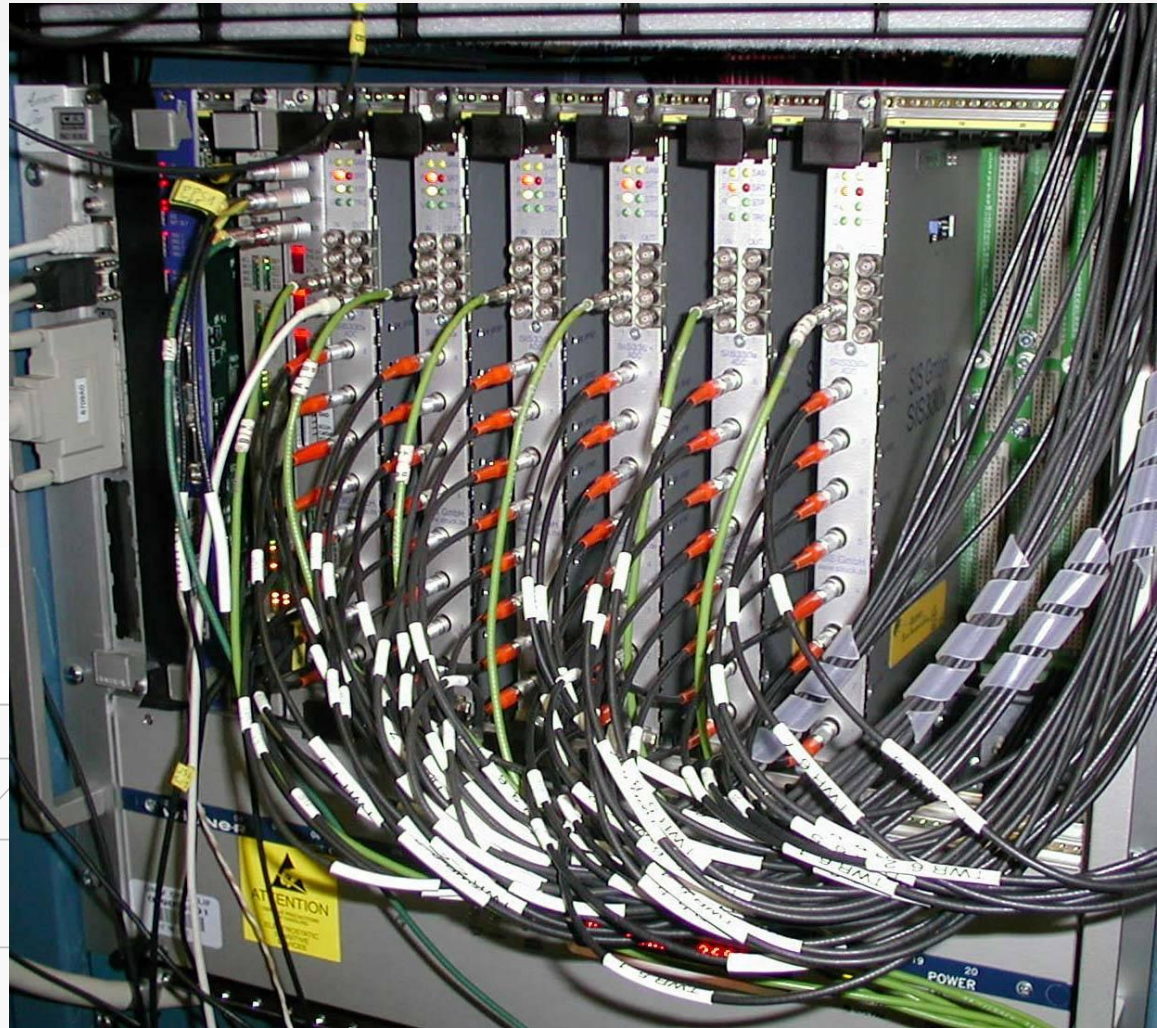
A Better DAQ for Many (temperature) Sensors



- Buy or build a compact multi-port volt-meter module, e.g. 16 inputs
- Put many of these multi-port modules together in a common chassis or **crate**
- The modules need
 - Mechanical support
 - Power
 - A standardized way to access their data (our measurement values)
- All this is provided by standards for (readout) electronics such as **VME** (IEEE 1014)

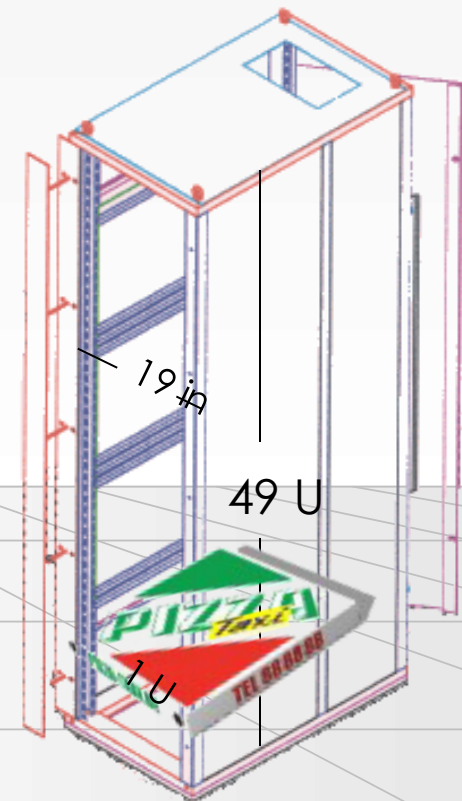
DAQ for 160 Sensors Using VME

- Readout boards in a VME-crate
 - mechanical standard for
 - electrical standard for power on the backplane
 - signal and protocol standard for communication on a *bus*



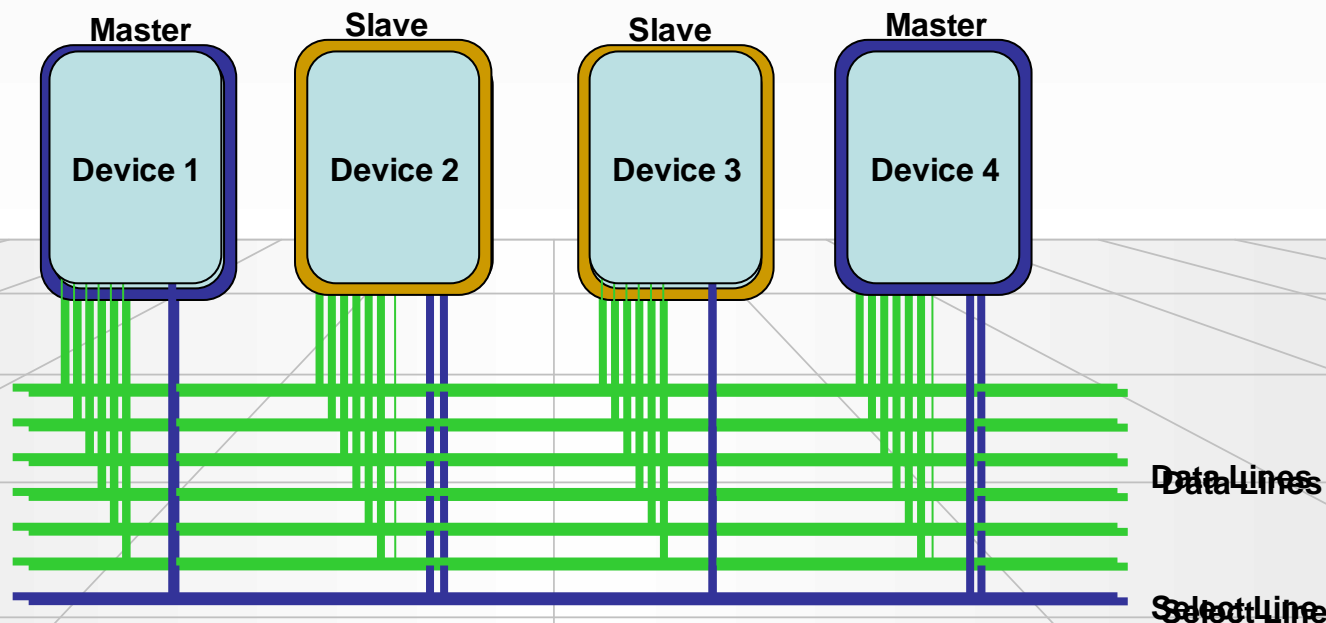
A Word on Mechanics and Pizzas

- The width and height of racks and crates are measured in US units: inches (in, ") and U
 - 1 in = 25.4 mm
 - 1 U = 1.75 in = 44.45 mm
- The width of a "standard" rack is 19 in.
- The height of a crate (also sub-rack) is measured in Us
- Rack-mountable things, in particular computers, which are 1 U high are often called *pizza-boxes*
- At least in Europe, the depth is measured in mm
- Gory details can be found in IEEE 1101.x (VME mechanics standard)



Communication in a Crate: Buses

- A bus connects two or more devices and allows them to communicate
- The bus is **shared** between all devices on the bus → arbitration is required
- Devices can be **masters** or **slaves** (some can be both)
- Devices can be uniquely identified ("**addressed**") on the bus



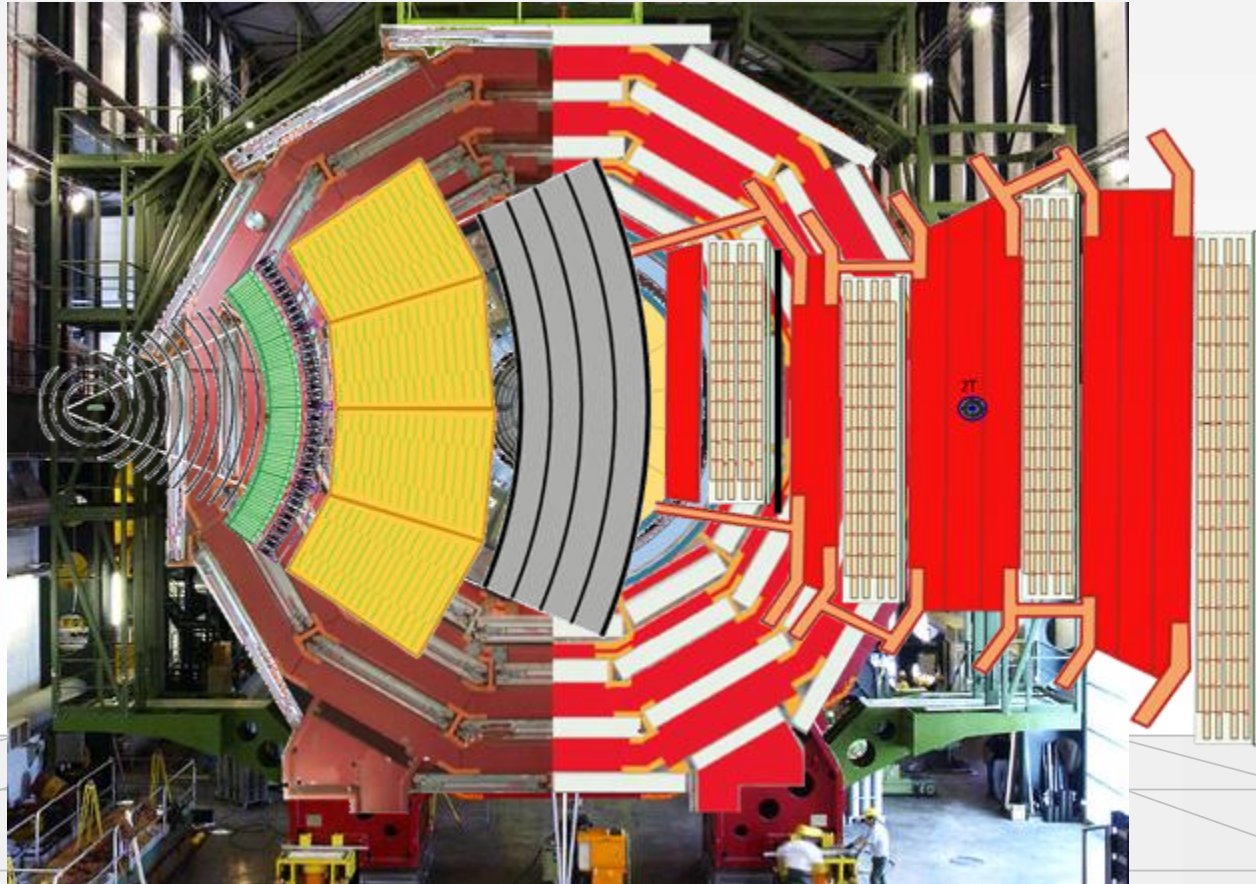
Advantages of buses

- Relatively simple to implement
 - Constant number of lines
 - Each device implements the same interface
- Easy to add new devices
 - topological information of the bus can be used for automatically choosing addresses for bus devices: this is what **plug and play** is all about.

Buses for DAQ at LHC?

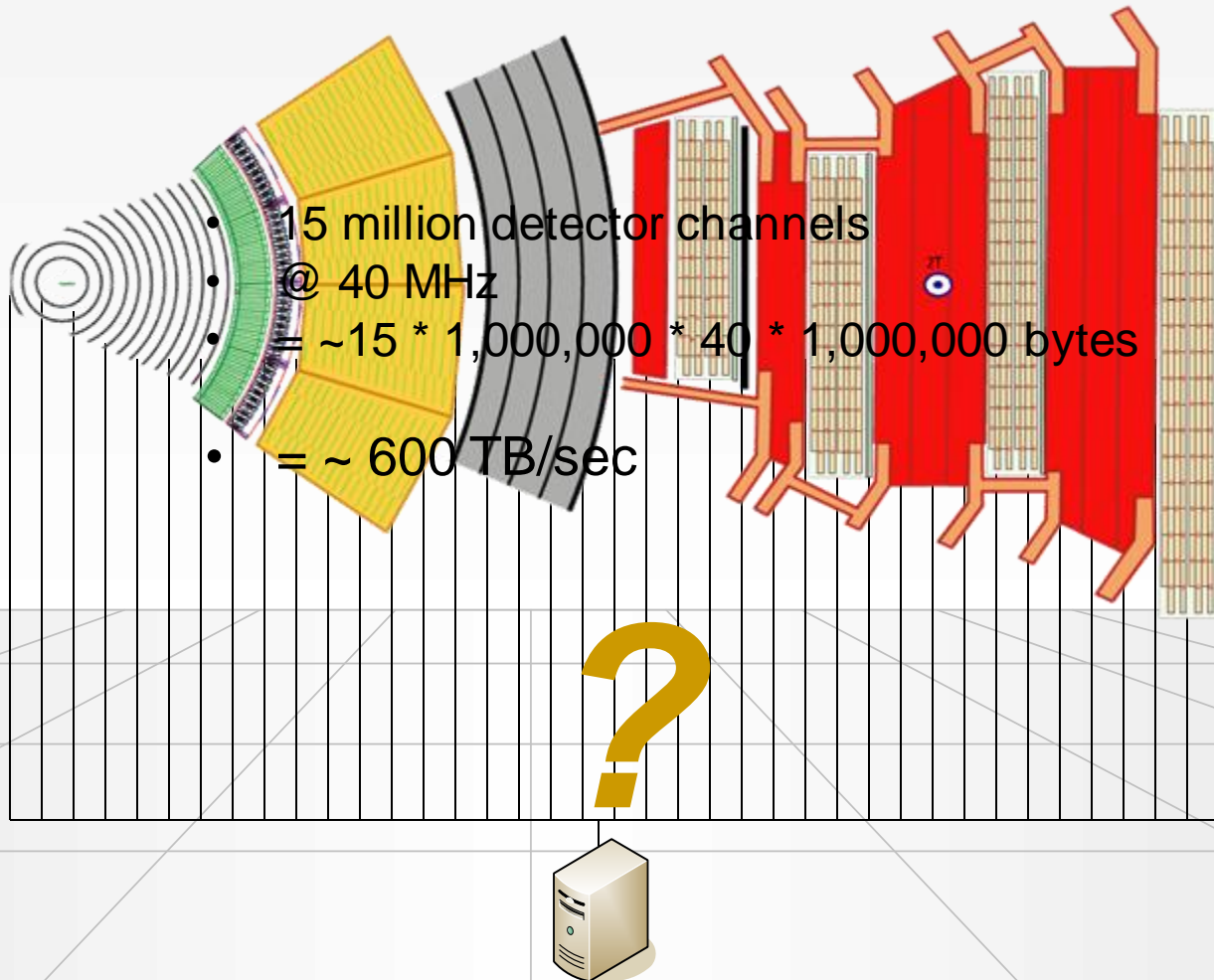
- A bus is shared between all devices (each new active device slows everybody down)
 - Bus-width can only be increased up to a certain point (128 bit for PC-system bus)
 - Bus-frequency (number of elementary operations per second) can be increased, but decreases the physical bus-length
- Number of devices and physical bus-length is limited (**scalability!**)
 - For synchronous high-speed buses, physical length is correlated with the number of devices (e.g. PCI)
 - Typical buses have a lot of control, data and address lines (look at a SCSI or ATA cable)
- Buses are typically useful for systems $< 1 \text{ GB/s}$

Moving on to Bigger Things...



The CMS Detector

Moving on to Bigger Things...



Network based DAQ

- In large (HEP) experiments we typically have thousands of devices to read, which are sometimes very far from each other → *buses can not do that*
- Network technology solves the scalability issues of buses
 - In a network devices are equal ("peers")
 - In a network devices communicate directly with each other
 - no arbitration necessary
 - bandwidth guaranteed
 - data and control use the same path
 - much fewer lines (e.g. in traditional Ethernet only two)
 - At the signaling level buses tend to use parallel copper lines. Network technologies can be also optical, wire-less and are typically (differential) serial

Network Technologies

- Examples:
 - The telephone network
 - **Ethernet (IEEE 802.3)**
 - ATM (the backbone for GSM cell-phones)
 - Infiniband
 - Myrinet
 - many, many more
- Note: some of these have "bus"-features as well (Ethernet, Infiniband)
- Network technologies are sometimes functionally grouped
 - Cluster interconnect (Myrinet, Infiniband) 15 m
 - Local area network (Ethernet), 100 m to 10 km
 - Wide area network (ATM, SONET) > 50 km

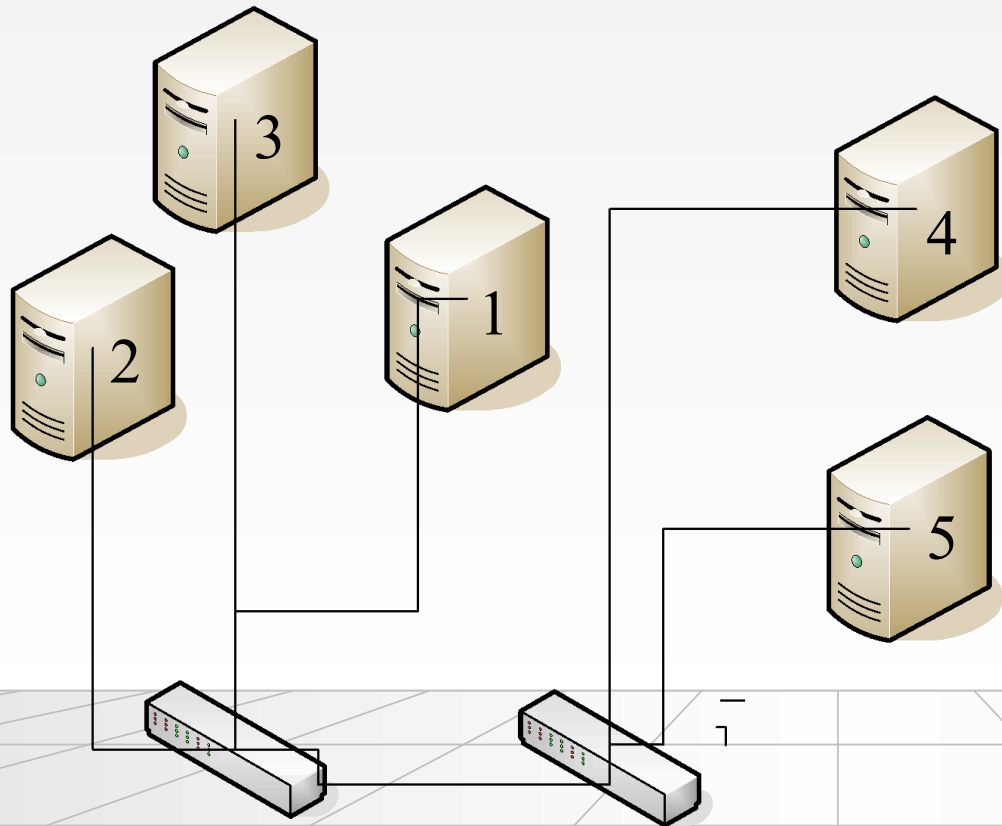
Connecting Devices in a Network

- On an network a device is identified by a **network address**
 - eg: our phone-number, the MAC address of your computer
- Devices communicate by sending messages (frames, packets) to each other
- Some establish a connection like the telephone network, some simply send messages
- Modern networks are **switched with point-to-point links**
 - circuit switching, packet switching

Switched Networks

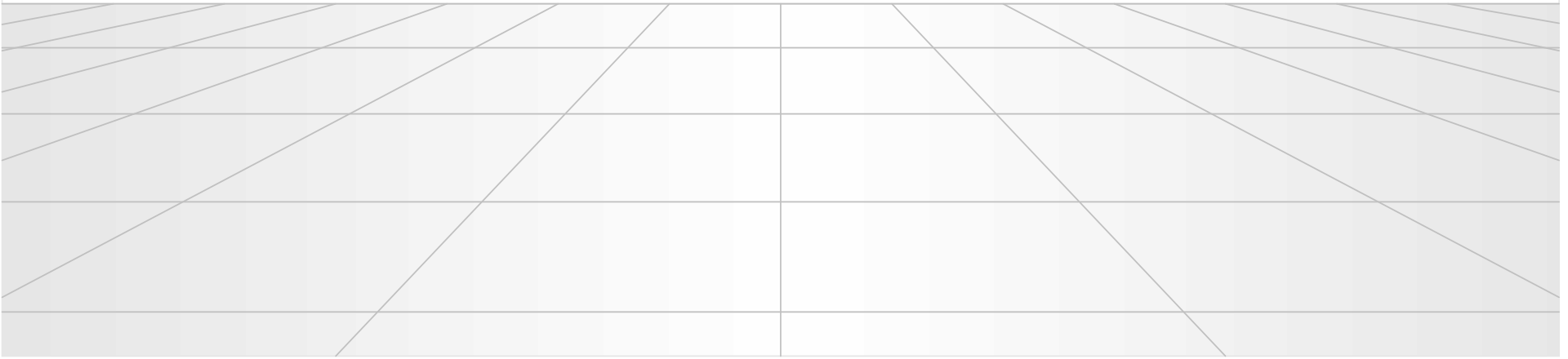
- In a switched network each node is connected either to another node or to a **switch**
- Switches can be connected to other switches
- A path from one node to another leads through 1 or more switches (this number is sometimes referred to as the number of "**hops**")

A Switched Network



- While 2 can send data to 1 and 4, 3 can send at full speed to 5
- 2 can distribute the share the bandwidth between 1 and 4 as needed

Data Acquisition for a Large Experiment



Designing a DAQ System for a Large HEP Experiment

- What defines "large"?
 - The number of channels: for LHC experiments $O(10^7)$ channels
 - a (digitized) channel can be between 1 and 14 bits
 - The rate: for LHC experiments everything happens at 40.08 MHz, the LHC bunch crossing frequency (This corresponds to 24.9500998 ns or 25 ns among friends)
- Sub-systems: tracking, calorimetry, particle-ID, muon-detectors, are of very different size from the point of view of the DAQ (the amount of data from the Muon system is normally small compared to the pixel detectors)

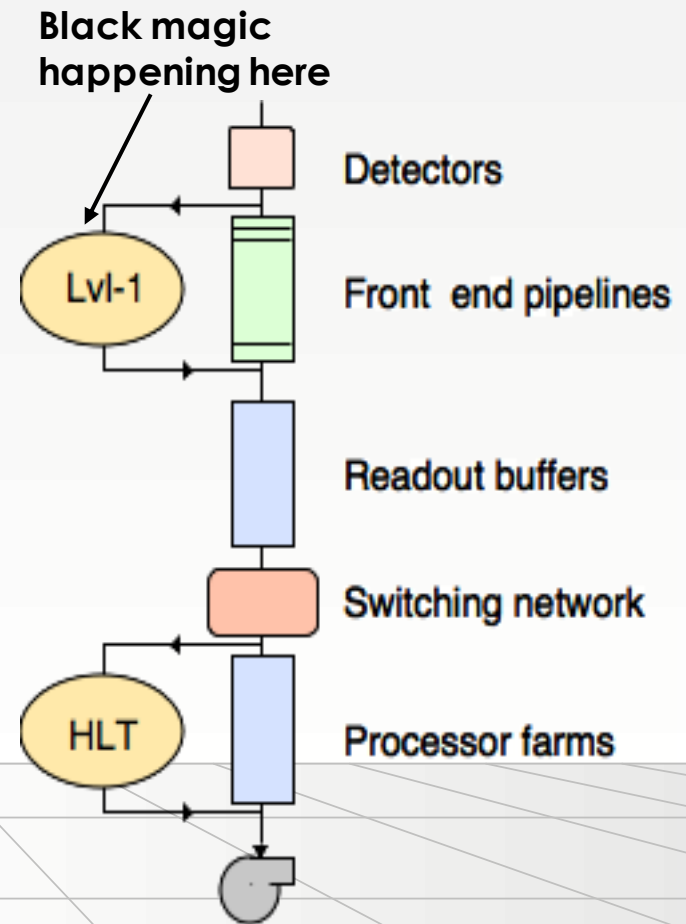
What Do We Need to Read Out a Detector (successfully)?

- A selection mechanism (“trigger”)
- Electronic readout of the sensors of the detectors (“front-end electronics”)
- A system to keep all those things in sync (“clock”)
- A system to collect the selected data (“DAQ”)
- A Control System to configure, control and monitor the entire DAQ
- Time, money, students

Trigger for LHC

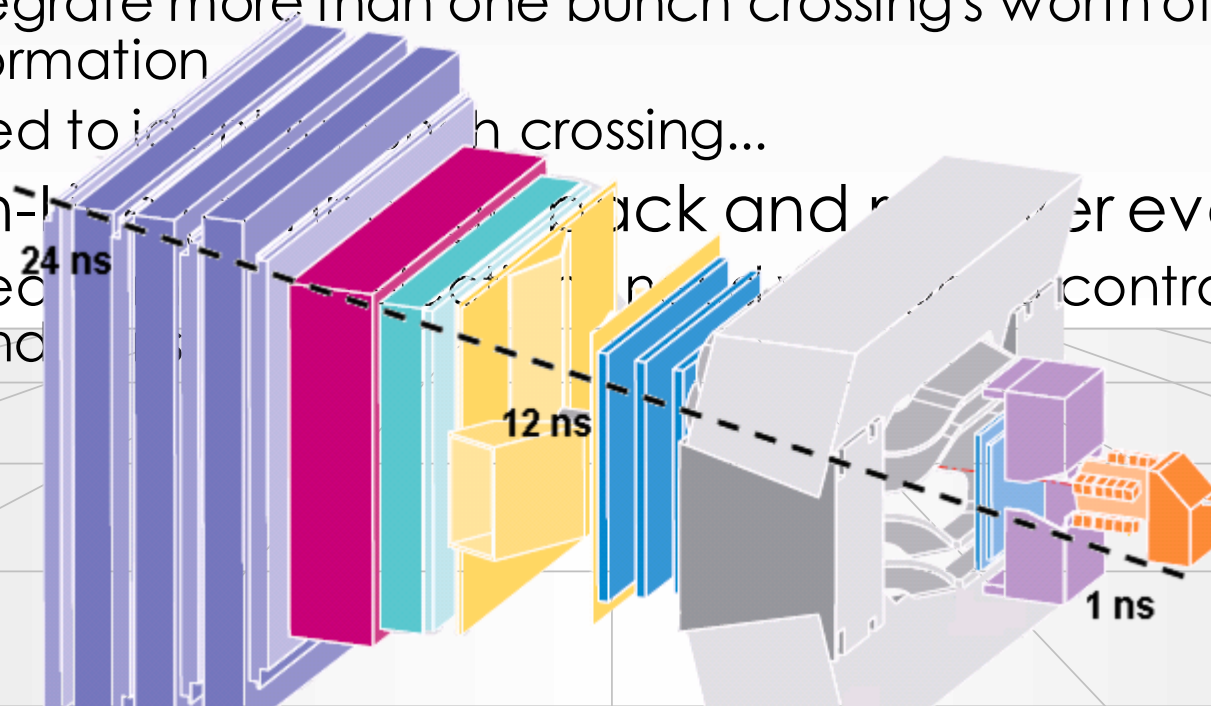
- No (affordable) DAQ system could read out $O(10^7)$ channels at 40 MHz
 → 400 TBit/s to read out – even assuming binary channels!
- What's worse: most of these millions of events per second are totally uninteresting: one Higgs event every 0.02 seconds
- A *first level trigger (Level-1, L1)* must somehow* select the more interesting events and tell us which ones to deal with any further

(*). See "Triggers for LHC Physics"



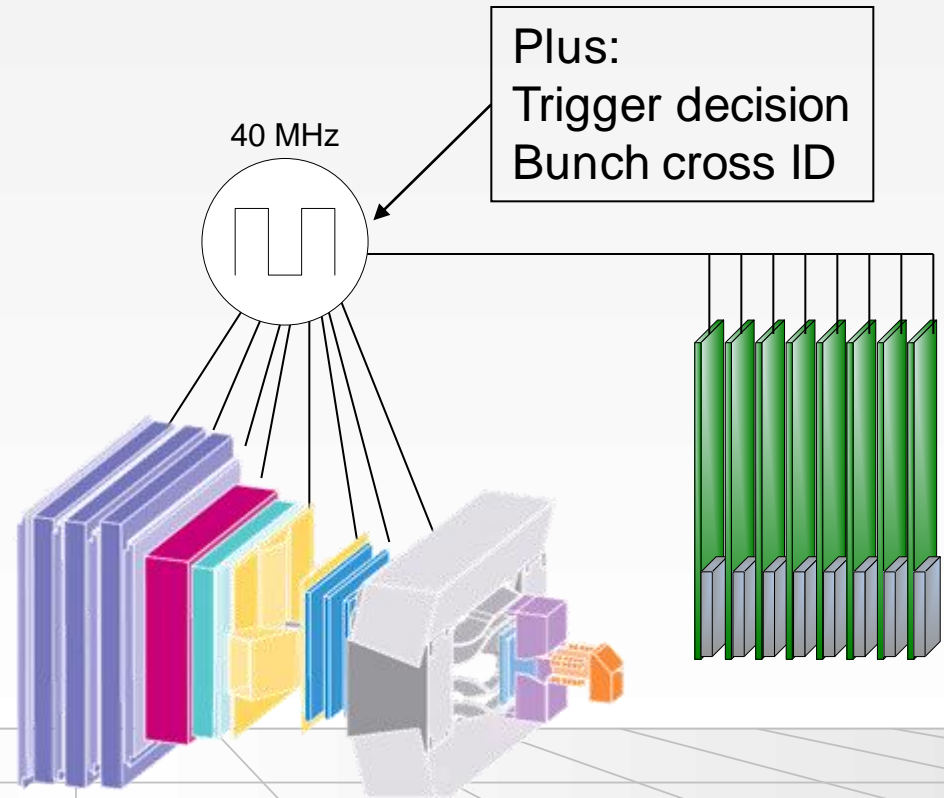
Challenges for the L1 at LHC

- N (channels) $\sim O(10^7)$; ≈ 20 interactions every 25 ns
 - need huge number of connections
- Need to synchronize detector elements to (better than) 25 ns
- In some cases: detector signal/time of flight > 25 ns
 - integrate more than one bunch crossing's worth of information
 - need to integrate over multiple crossings...
- It's On-Board (back and forth for events)
 - need control over all channels



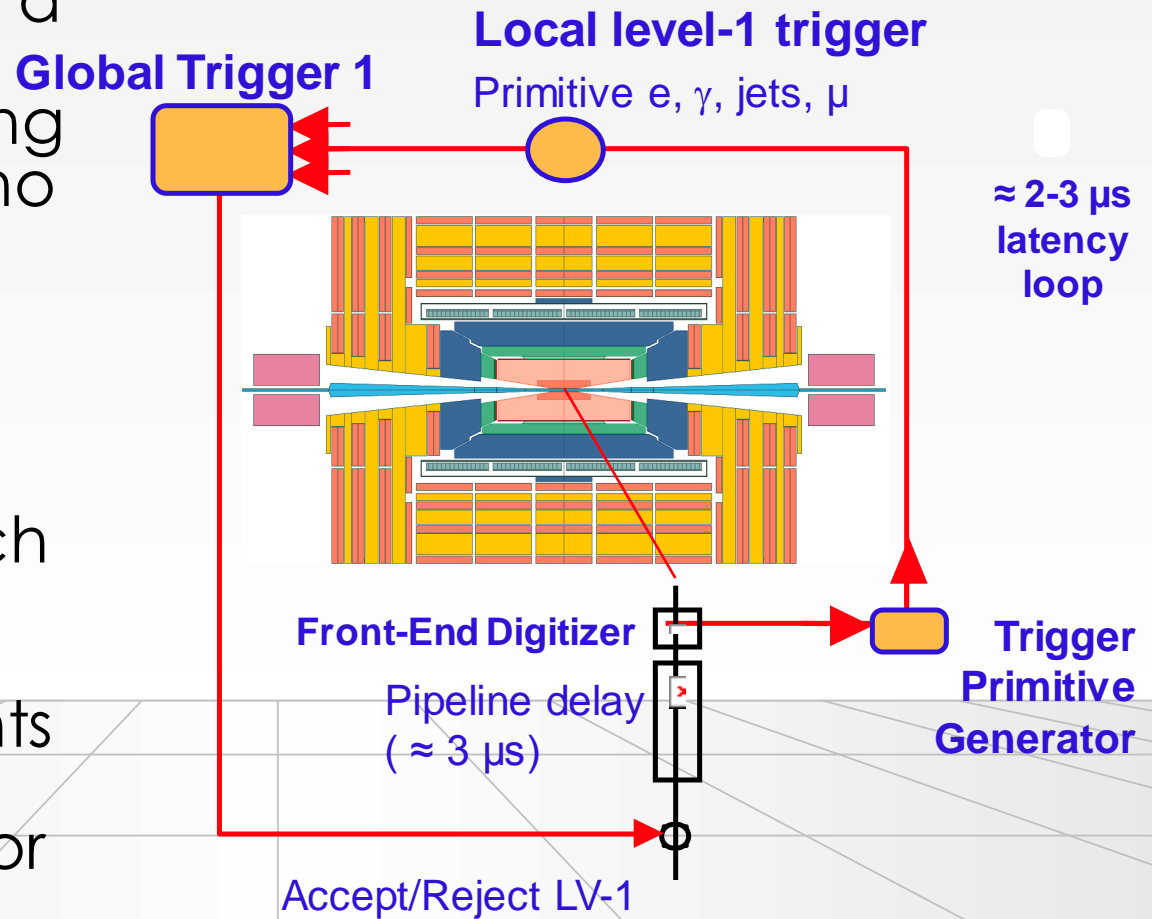
Clock Distribution and Synchronisation

- An *event* is a snapshot of the values of all detector front-end electronics elements, which have their value caused by the same collision
- A common clock signal must be provided to all detector elements
 - Since the c is constant, the detectors are large and the electronics is fast, the **detector elements must be carefully time-aligned**
- Common system for all LHC experiments **TTC** based on radiation-hard opto-electronics

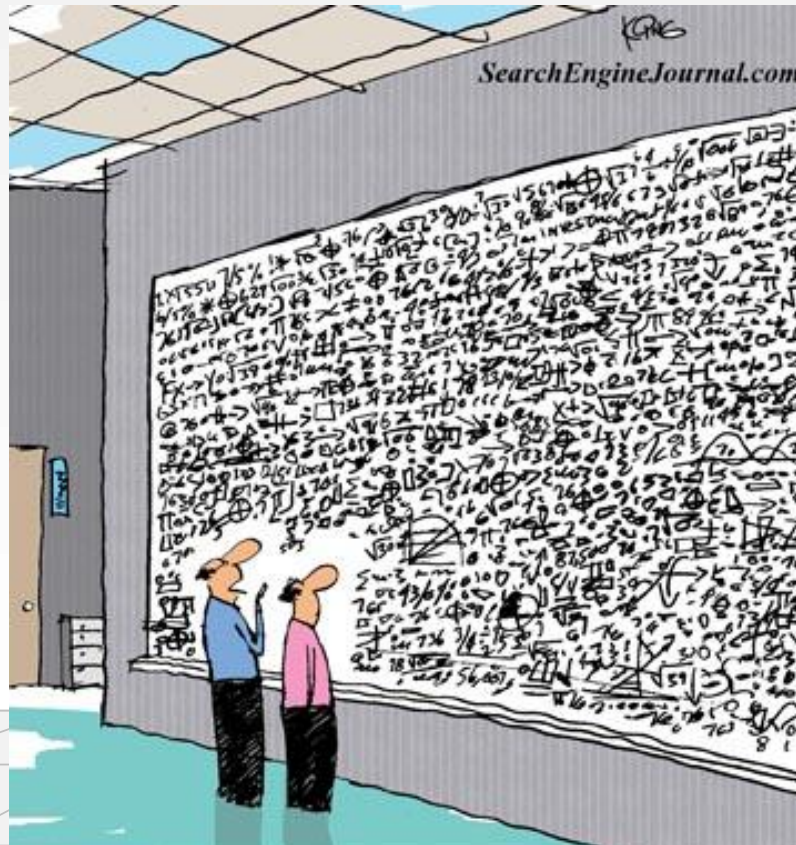


Distributing the L1 Trigger

- Assuming now that a magic box tells for each bunch crossing (clock-tick) yes or no
 - Triggering is not for philosophers – “perhaps” is not an option
- This decision has to be brought for each crossing to all the detector **front-end electronics** elements so that they can send of their data or discard it



High Level Trigger

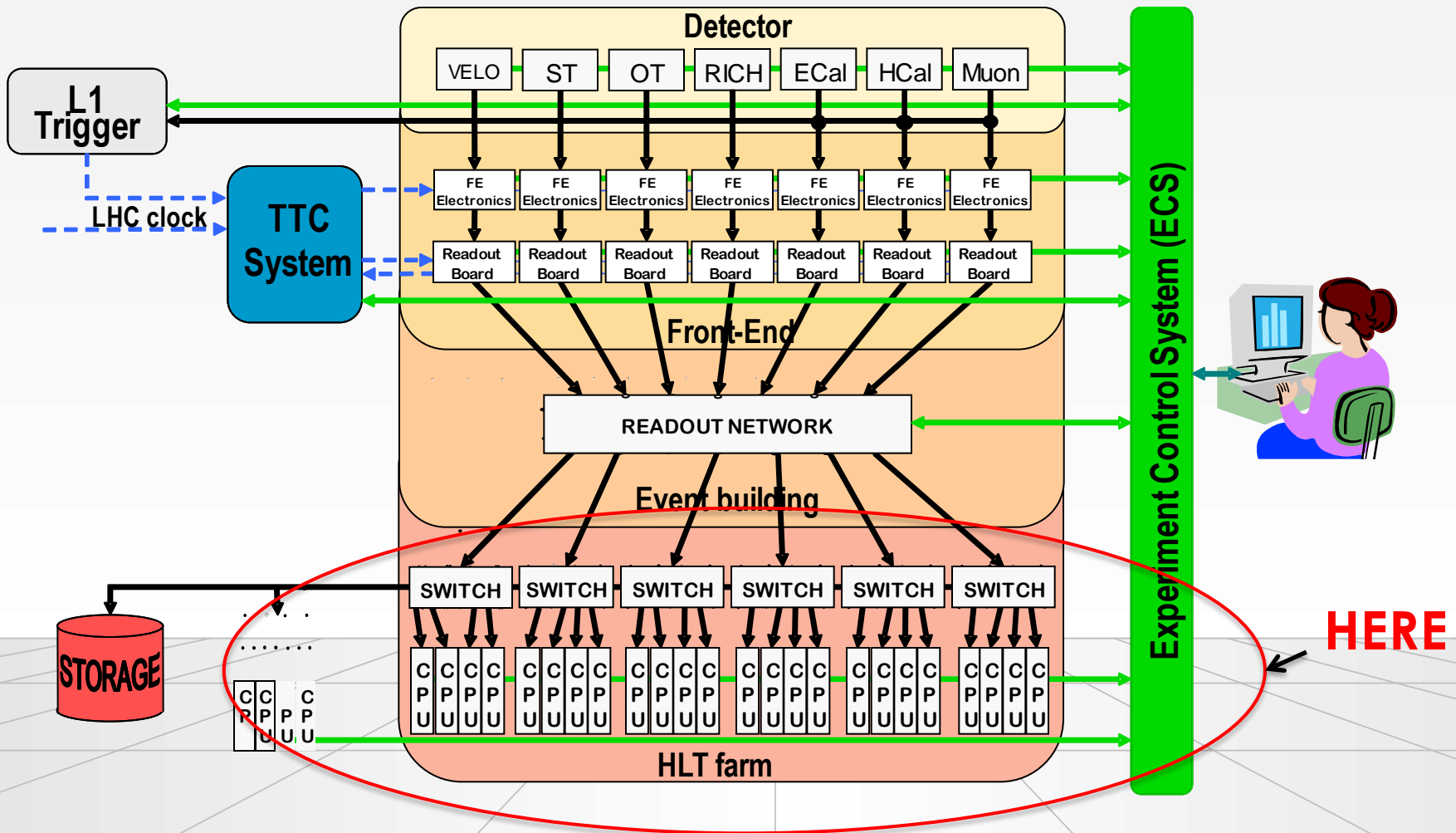


And that, in simple terms, is what we do in the High Level Trigger

After L1: What's next?

- Where are we after L1
 - ATLAS and CMS : rate is ~ 75 to 100 kHz, event size $\sim 1 - 2$ MB
 - LHCb: rate is 1 MHz, event size 40 kB / ALICE: $O(\text{kHz})$ and $O(\text{GB})$
- Ideally
 - Run the real full-blown physics reconstruction and selection algorithms
 - These application take $O(s)$. Hence: even at above rates still need **100 MCHF server farm (Intel will be happy!)**
- In Reality:
 - Start by looking at **only part of the detector data seeded by what triggered the 1st level**
 - LHCb: 1st level Trigger confirmation" algorithms: < 10 ms/event
 - Atlas: Region of Interest" (RoI): < 40 ms/event
- **→ Reduce the rate by factor ~ 30** , and then do offline analysis

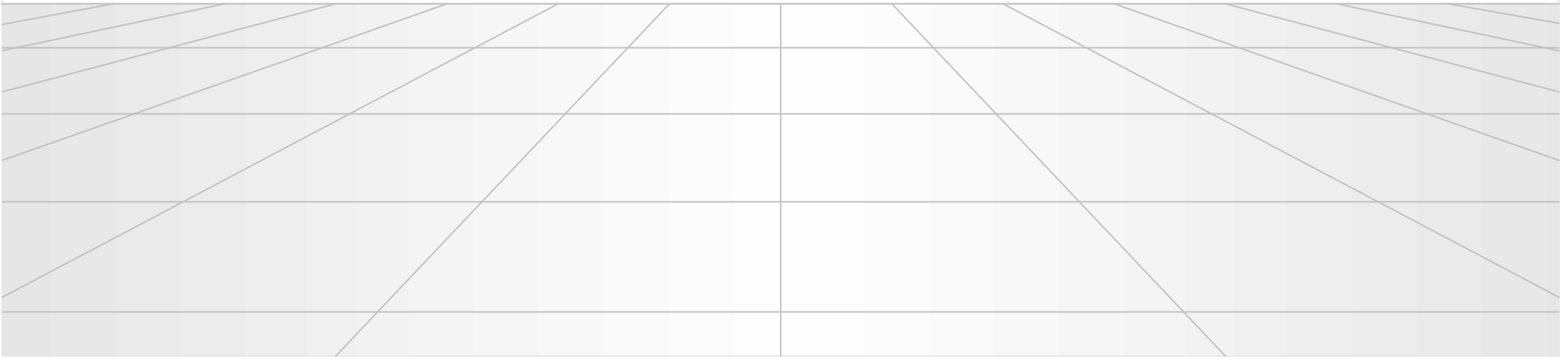
The High Level Trigger is ...



The question is: How do we get the data in?

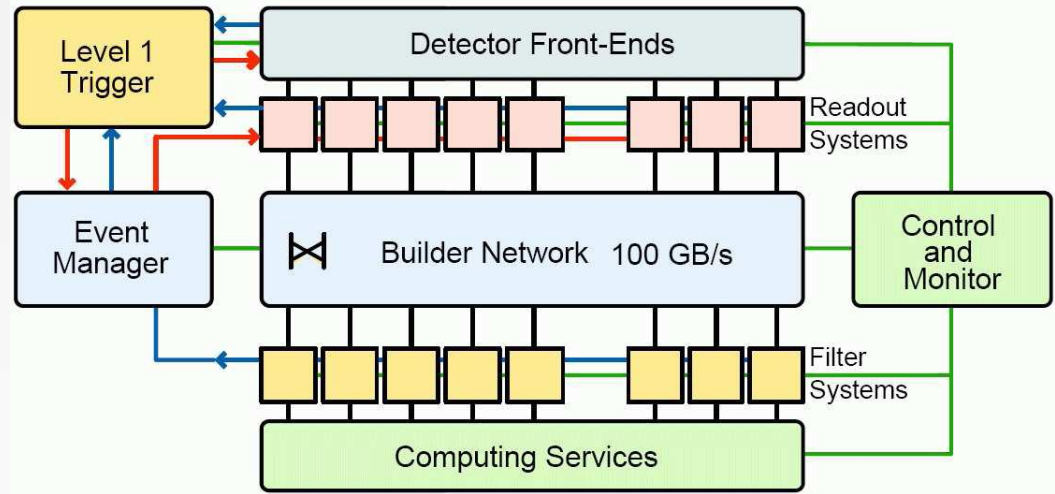
Event Building

(providing the data for the High Level Trigger)

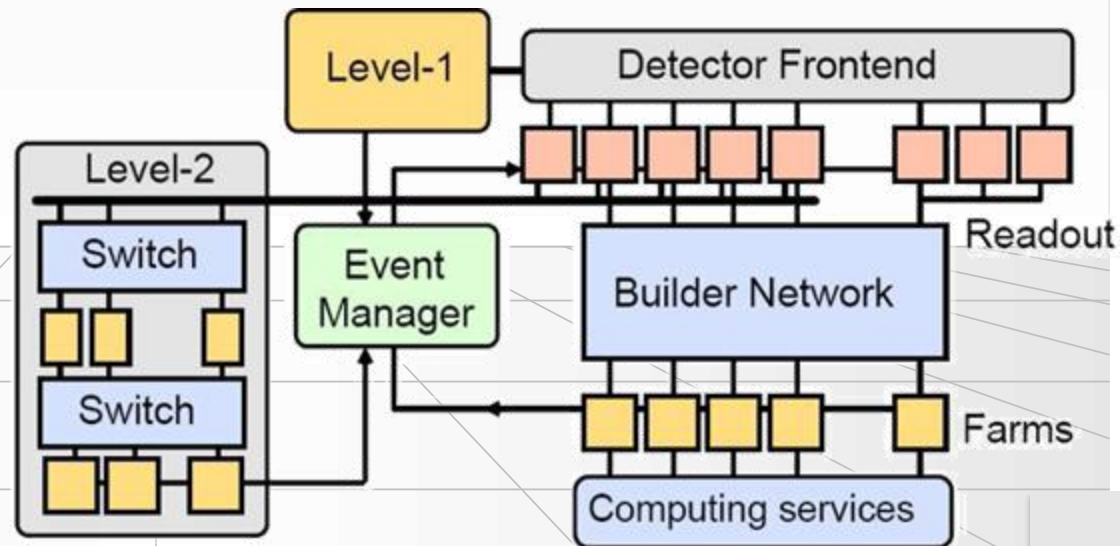


Two philosophies

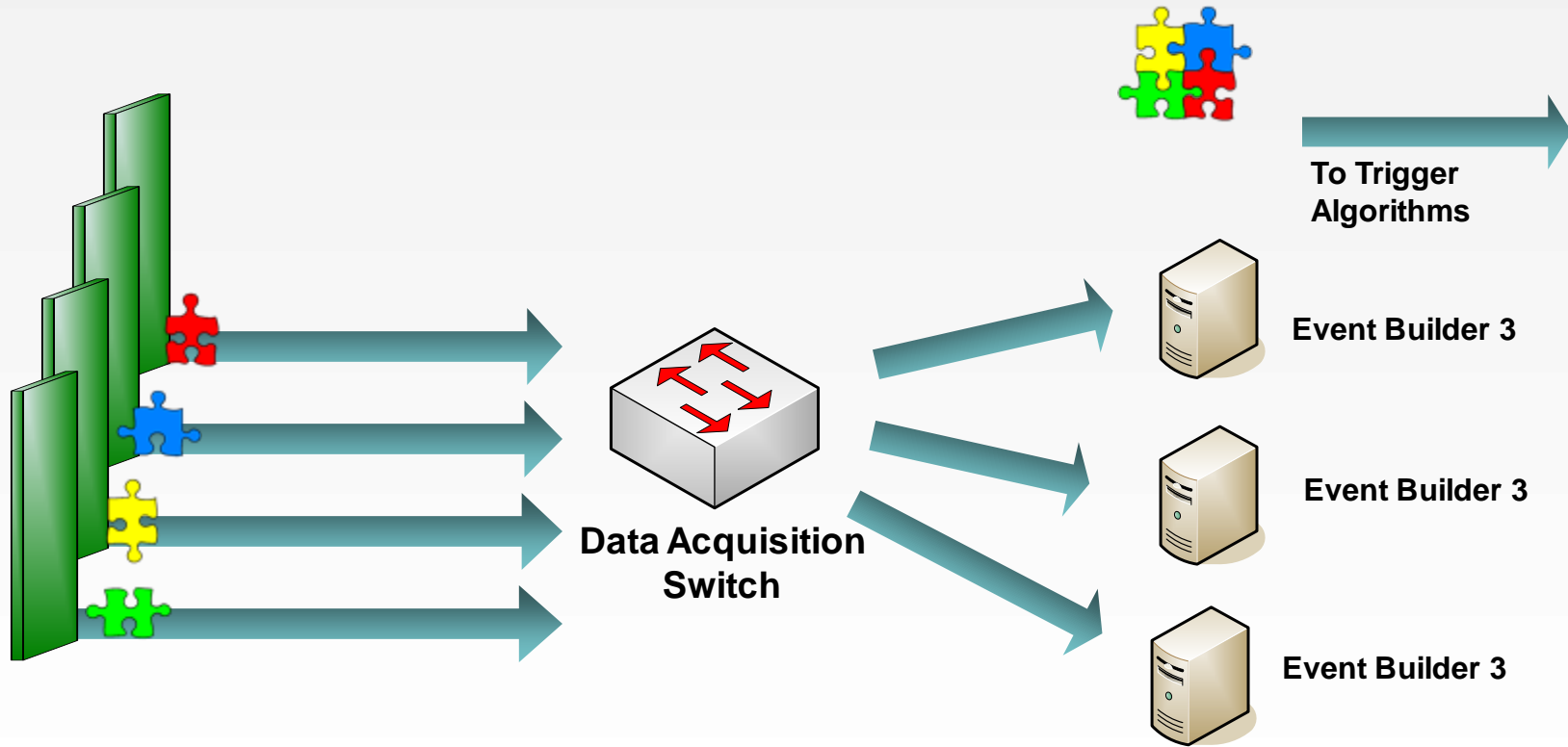
- Send everything, ask questions later (ALICE, CMS, LHCb)



- Send a part first, get better question
Send everything only if interesting (ATLAS)

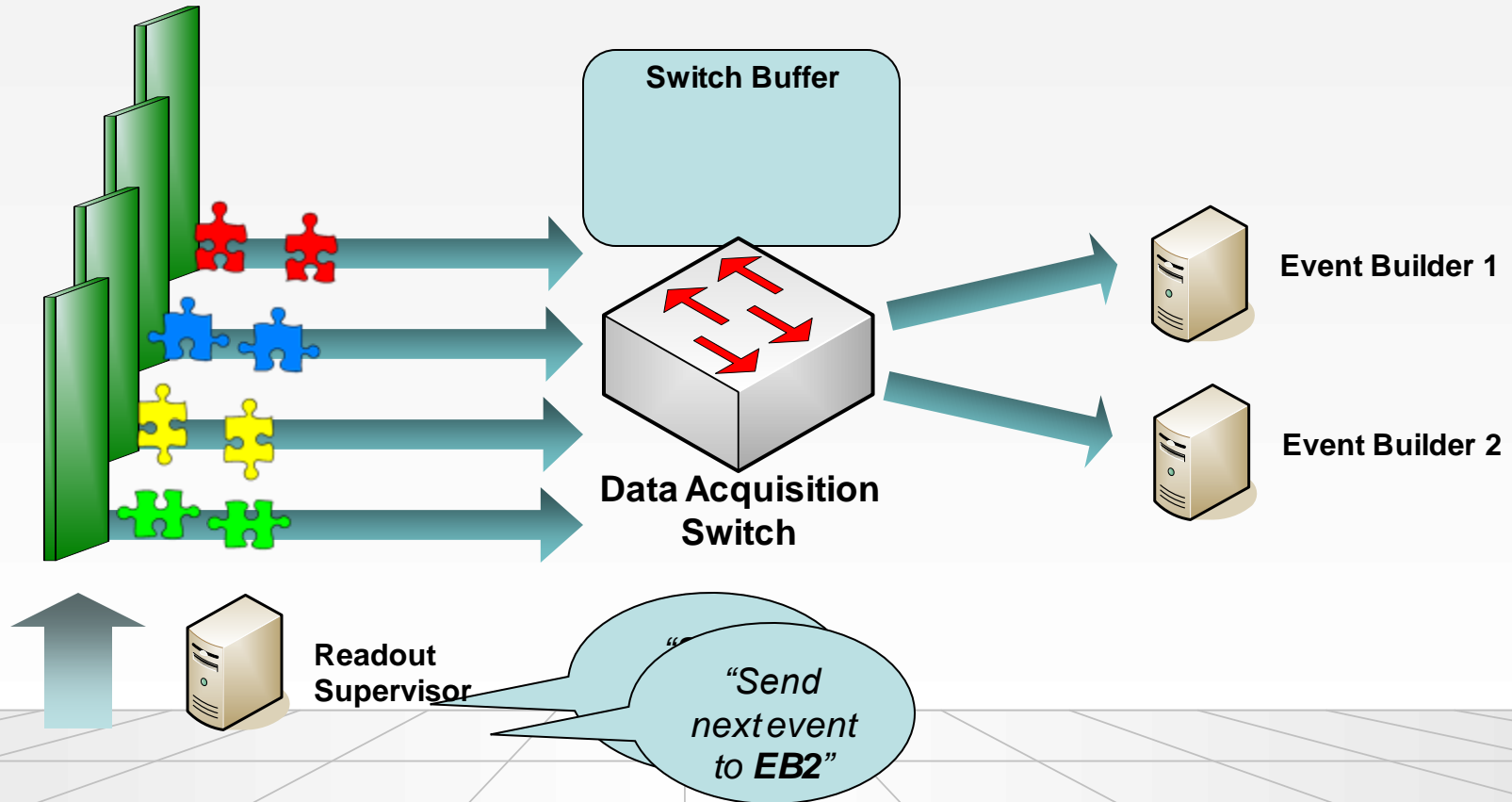


Event Building



- 1 Event fragments are received from detector front-end
- 2 Event fragments are read out over a network to an event builder
- 3 Event builder assembles fragments into a complete event
- 4 Complete events are processed by trigger algorithms

Push-Based Event Building

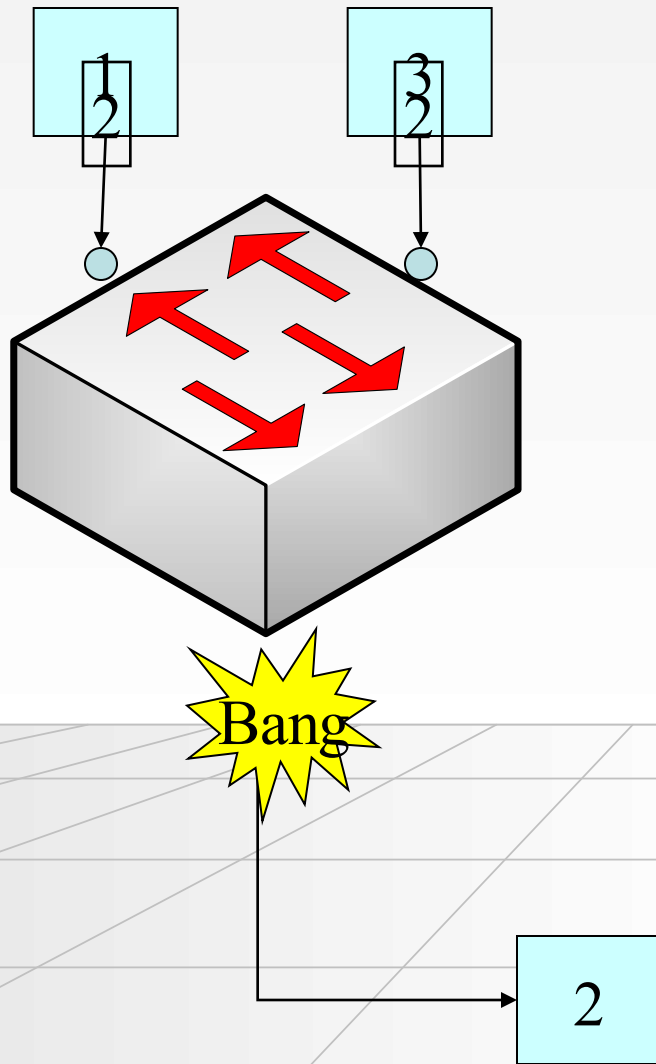


1 Readout Supervisor tells readout boards where events must be sent (round-robin)

2 Readout boards do not buffer, so switch must

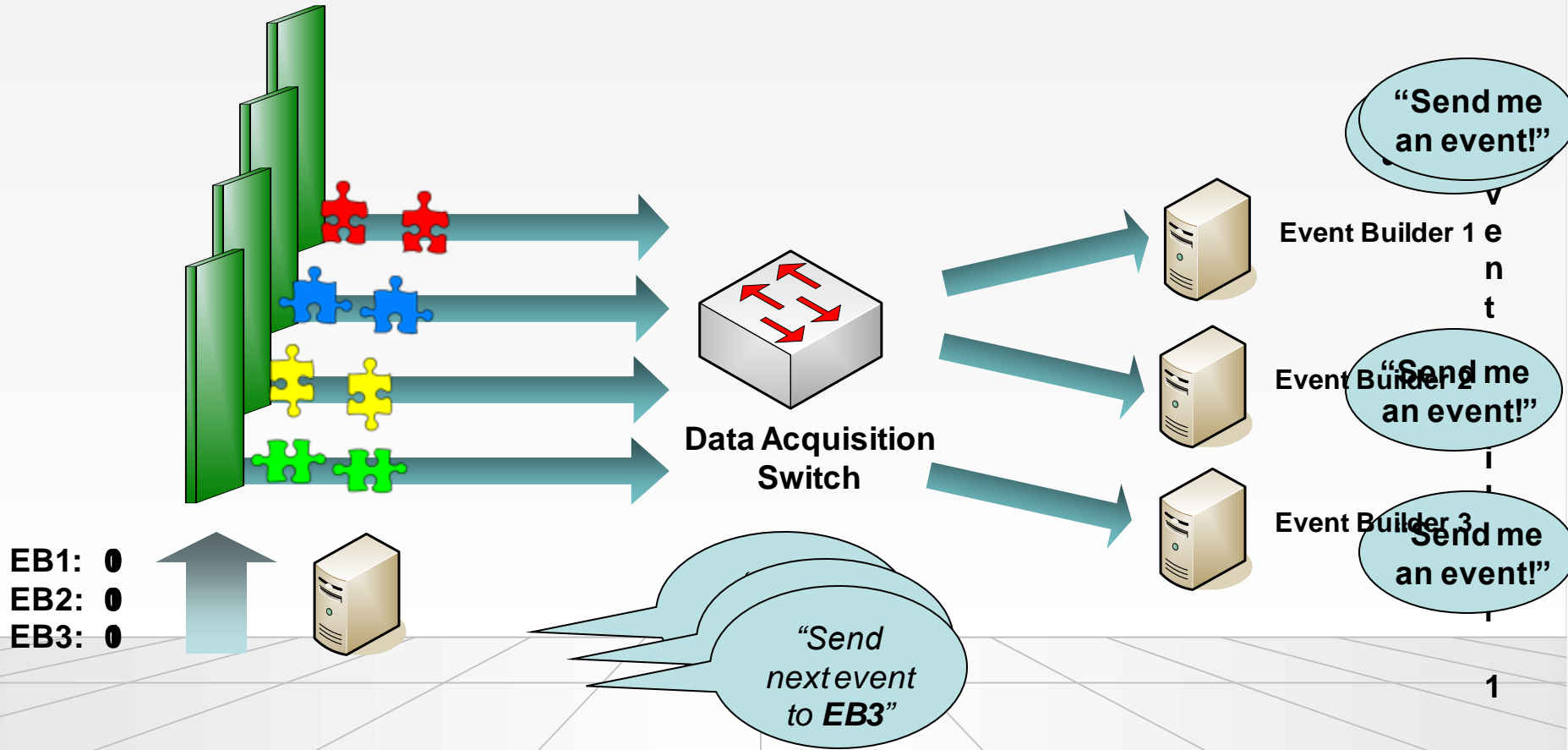
3 No feedback from Event Builders to Readout system

Congestion



- "Bang" translates into random, uncontrolled packet-loss
- In Ethernet this is perfectly valid behavior and implemented by very cheap devices
- Higher Level protocols are supposed to handle the packet loss due to *lack of buffering*
- This problem comes from **synchronized** sources **sending** to the same destination at the **same time**

Pull-Based Event Building



1 Event Builders notify Readout Supervisor of available capacity

2 Readout Supervisor ensures that data are sent only to nodes with available capacity

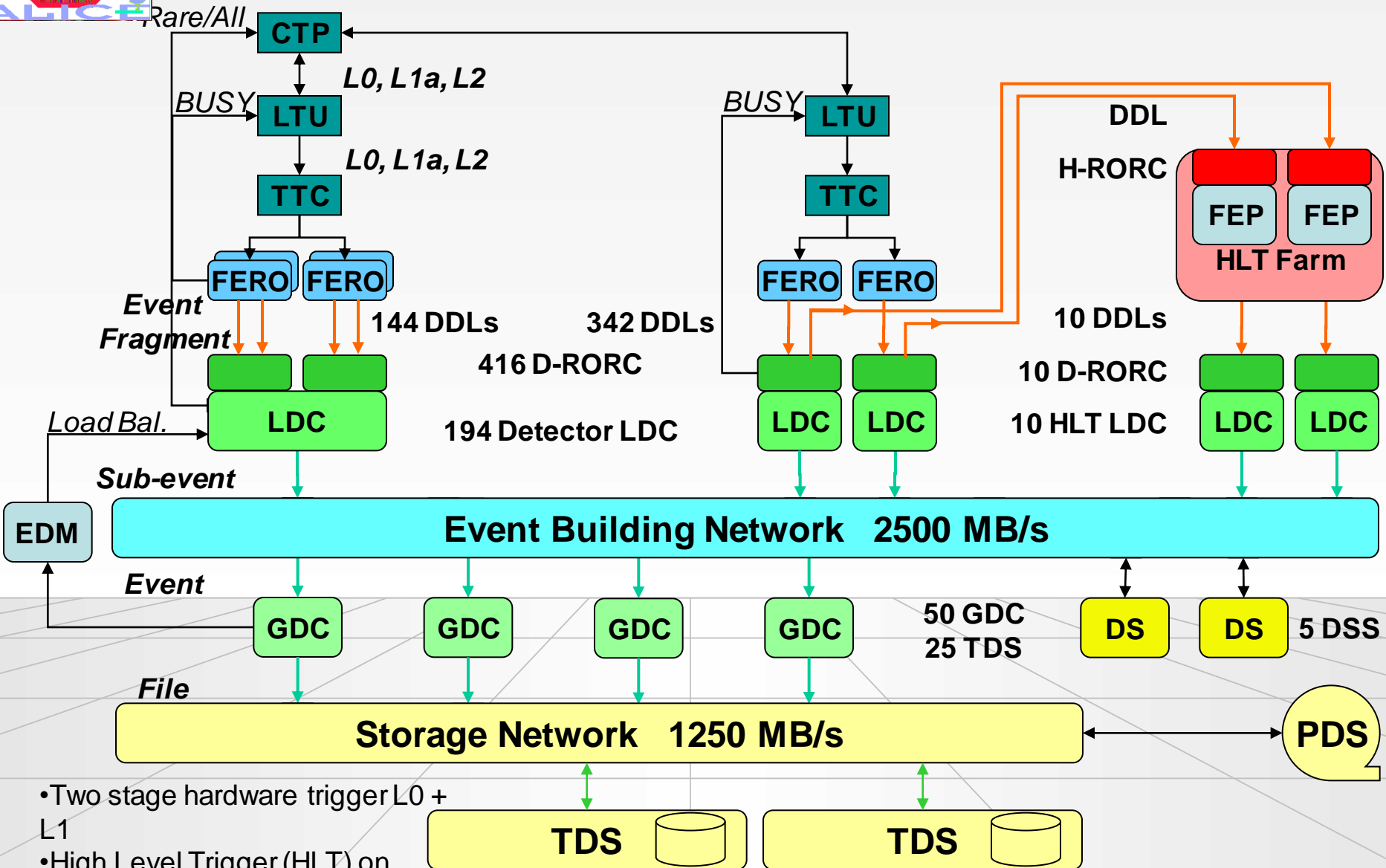
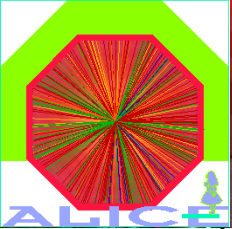
3 Readout system relies on feedback from Event Builders

AACL

ALICE, ATLAS, CMS, LHCb

DAQs in 4 slides

ALICE DAQ



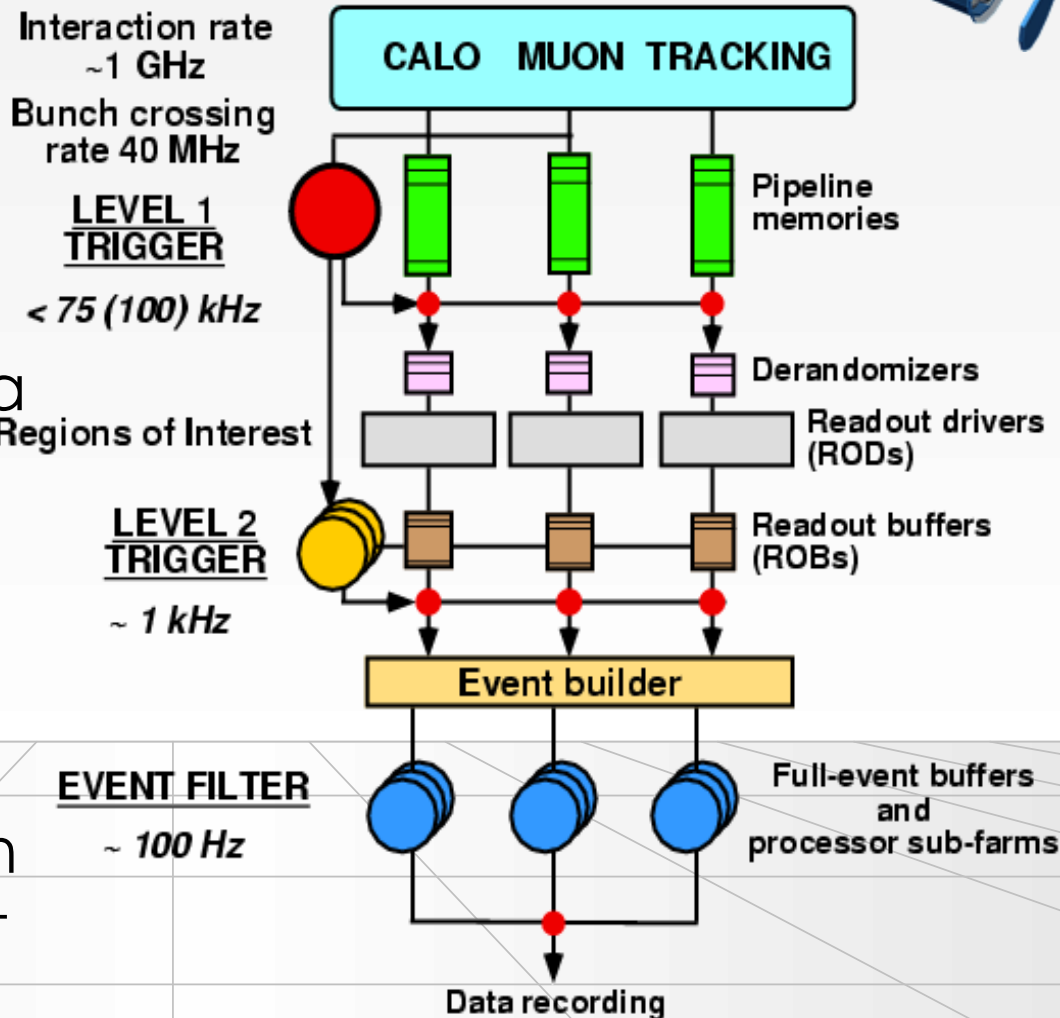
- Two stage hardware trigger L0 + L1
- High Level Trigger (HLT) on separate farm

ATLAS DAQ

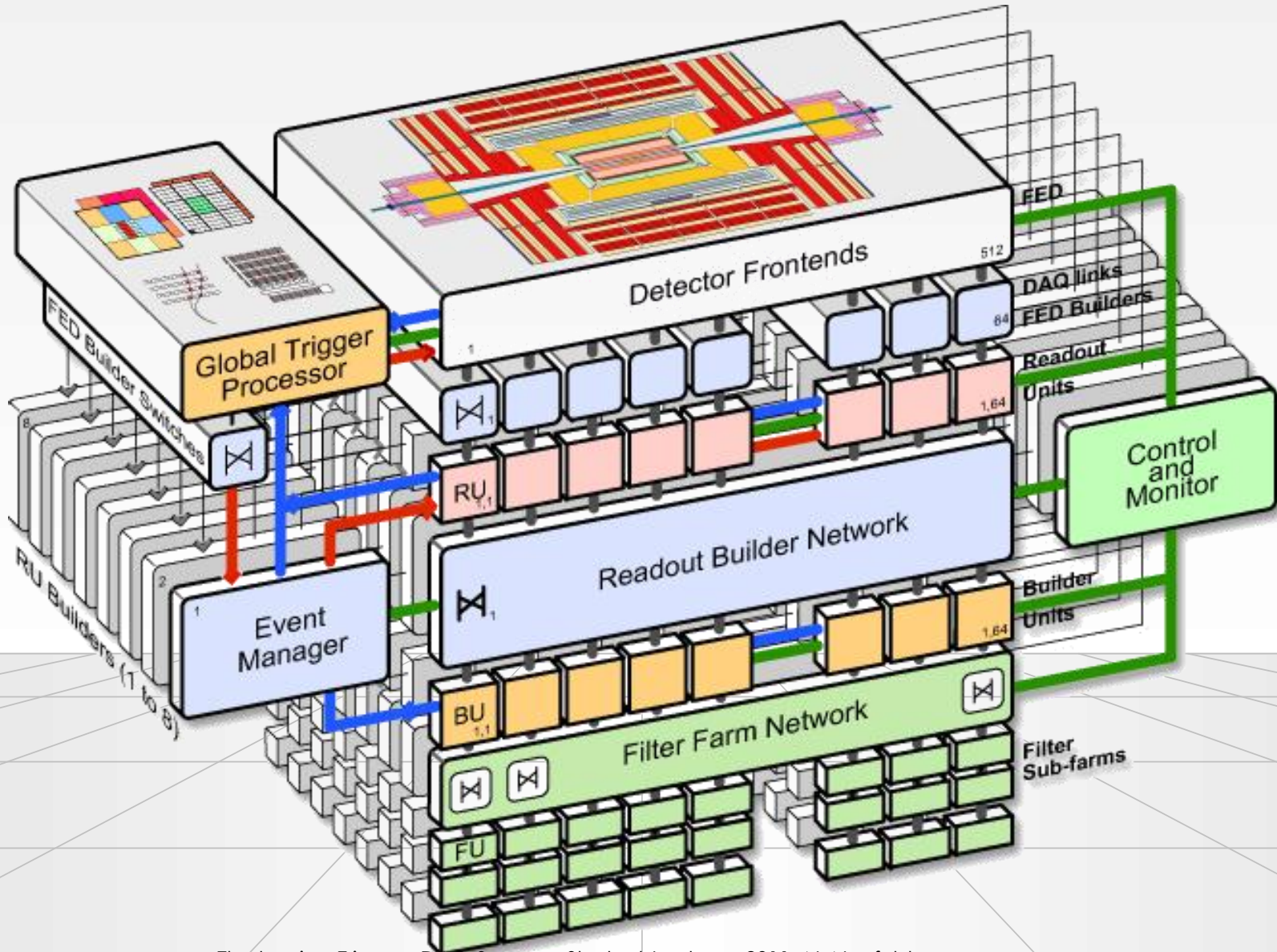
ATLAS



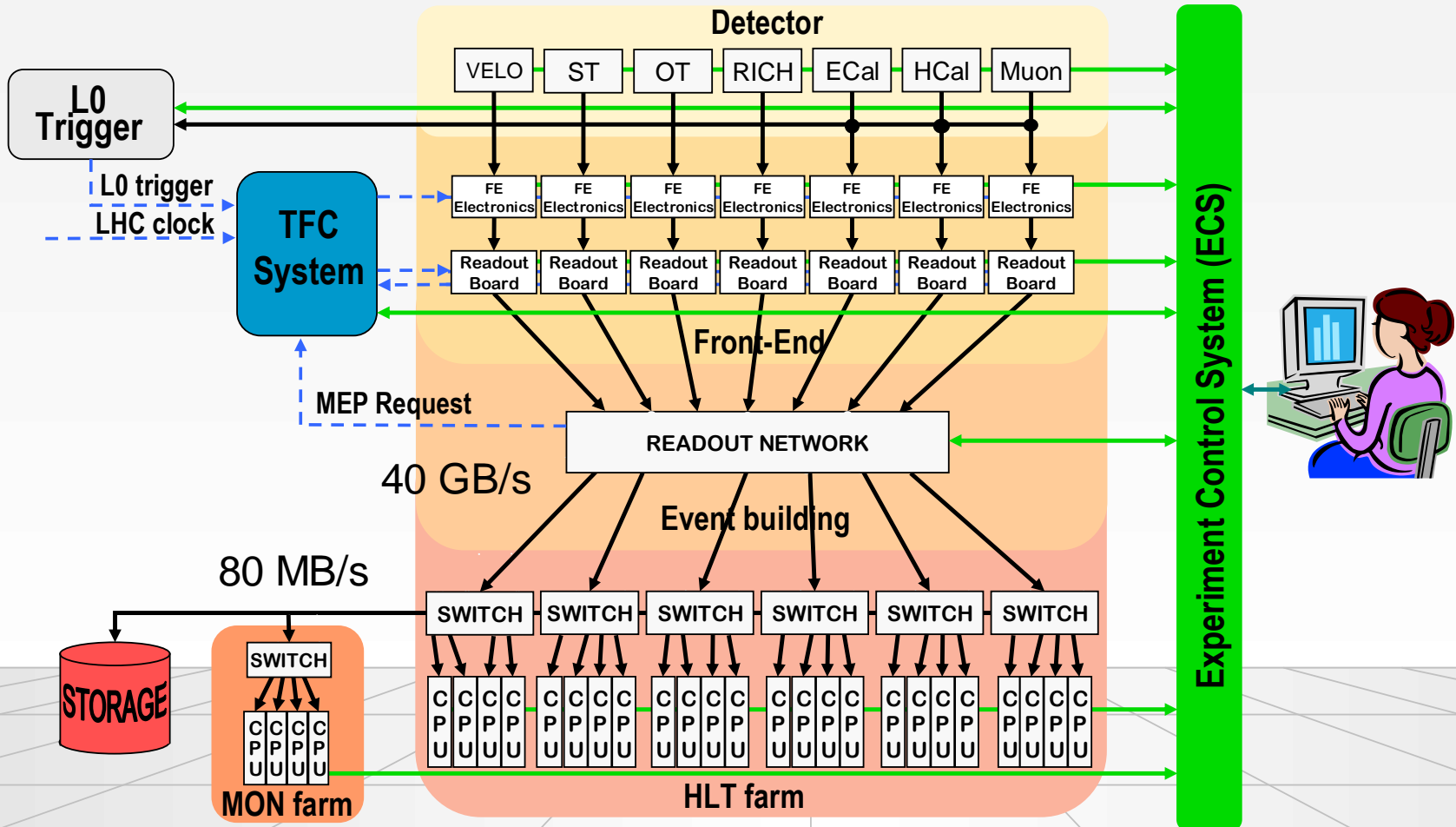
- L1 selects events at 100 kHz and defines *regions of interest*
- L2 pulls data from the region of interest and processes the data in a farm of processors
L2 accepts data at ~ 1 kHz
- Event Filter reads the entire detector (pull), processes the events in a farm and accepts at 100 Hz



CMS DAQ



LHCb DAQ

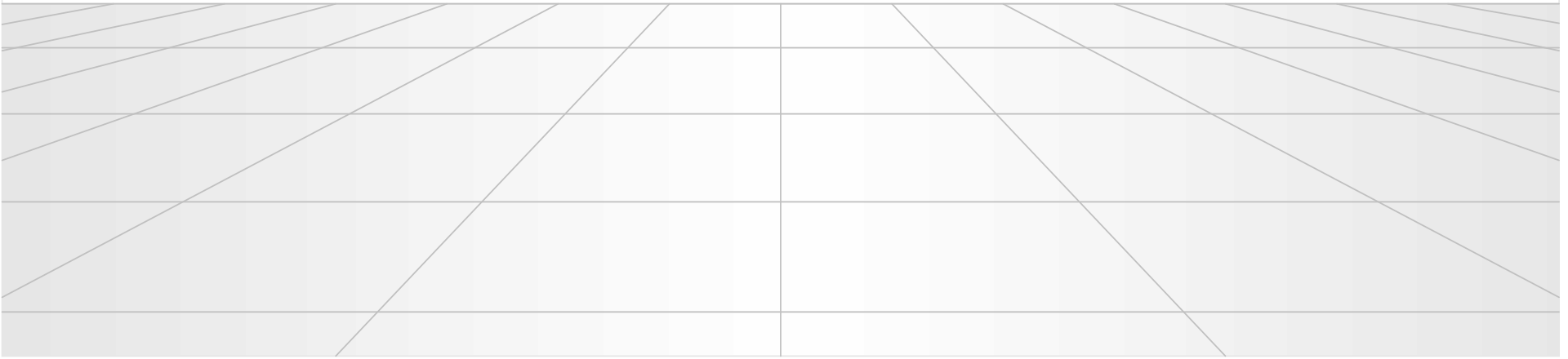


Average event size 40 kB
Average rate into farm 1 MHz
Average rate to tape 2 kHz

Trigger/DAQ parameters

	No.Levels Trigger	Level-0,1,2 Rate (Hz)	Event Size (Byte)	Readout Bandw.(GB/s)	HLT Out MB/s (Event/s)
ALICE	4	Pb-Pb 500	5×10^7	25	1250 (10^2)
		p-p 10^3	2×10^6		200 (10^2)
ATLAS	3	LV-1 10^5	1.5×10^6	4.5	300 (2×10^2)
		LV-2 3×10^3			
CMS	2	LV-1 10^5	10^6	100	~ 1000 (10^2)
LHCb	2	LV-0 10^6	3.5×10^4	35	70 (2×10^3)

The end



Further Reading

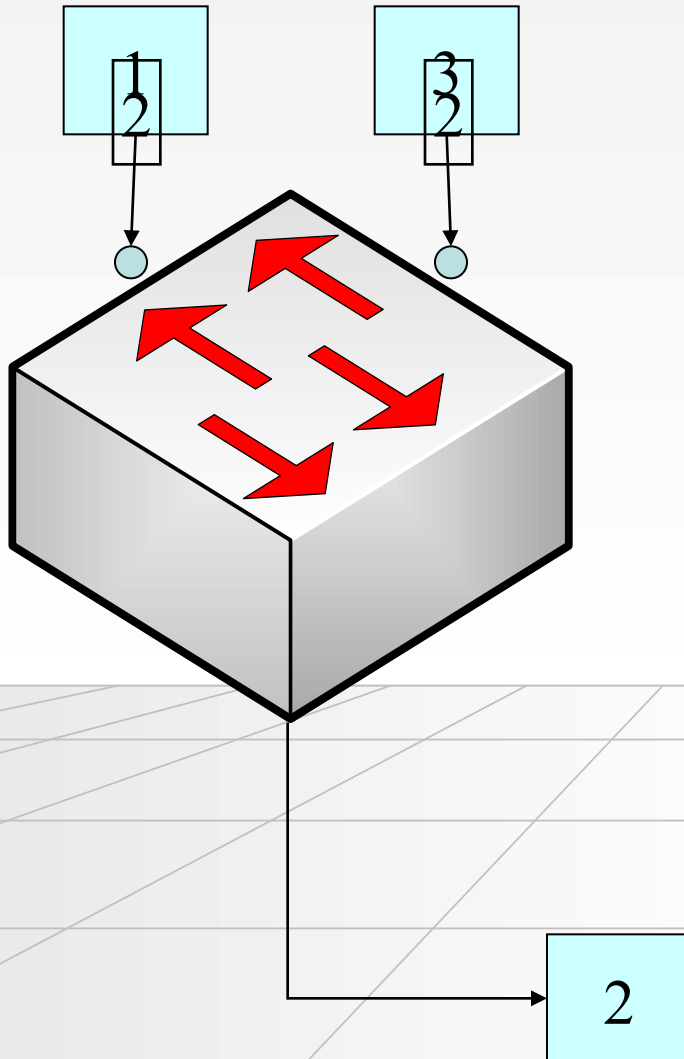
- Electronics
 - Helmut Spielers web-site: <http://www-physics.lbl.gov/~spieler/>
- Buses
 - VME: <http://www.vita.com/>
 - PCI
<http://www.pcisig.com/>
- Network and Protocols
 - Ethernet
“Ethernet: The Definitive Guide”, O’Reilly, C. Spurgeon
 - TCP/IP
“TCP/IP Illustrated”, W. R. Stevens
 - Protocols: RFCs
www.ietf.org
in particular RFC1925
<http://www.ietf.org/rfc/rfc1925.txt>
“The 12 networking truths” is required reading
- Wikipedia (!!!) and references therein – for all computing related stuff this is usually excellent
- Conferences
 - IEEE Realtime
 - ICALEPCS
 - CHEP
 - IEEE NSS-MIC
- Journals
 - IEEE Transactions on Nuclear Science, in particular the proceedings of the IEEE Realtime conferences
 - IEEE Transactions on Communications

More Stuff

Data format, DIY DAQ, run-
control

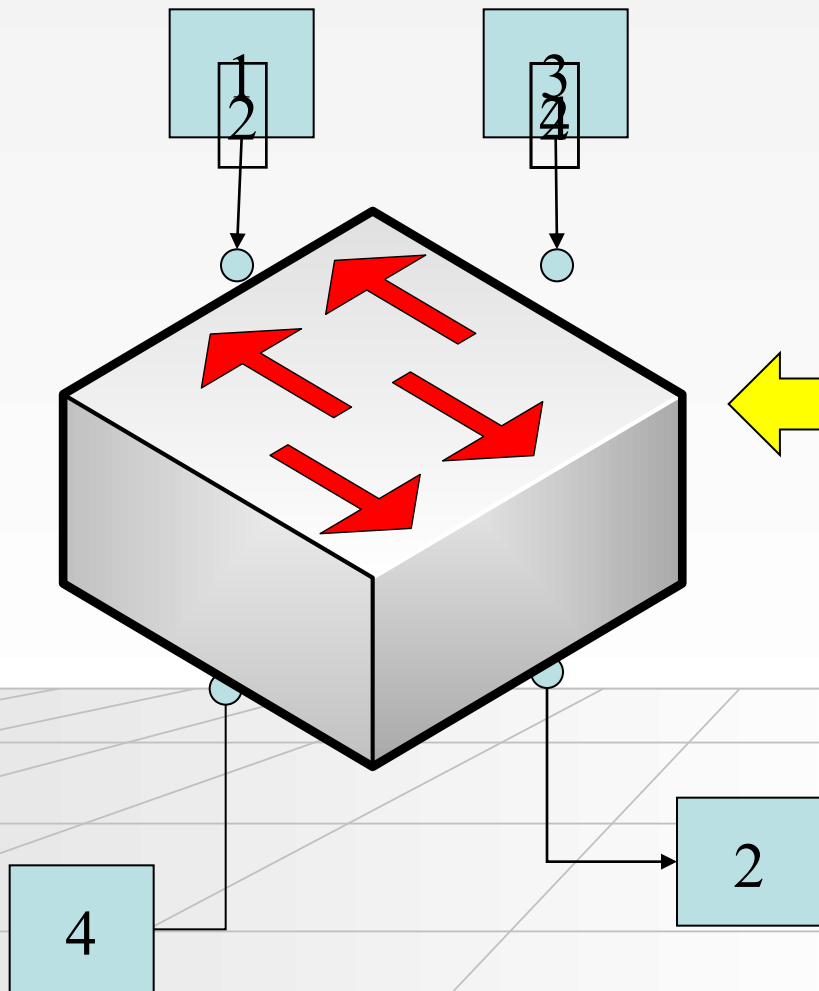
A light gray grid pattern consisting of horizontal and vertical lines, extending from the bottom of the text area to the bottom of the slide.

Overcoming Congestion: Queuing at the Input



- Two frames destined to the same destination arrive
- While one is switched through the other is waiting at the input port
- When the output port is free the queued packet is sent

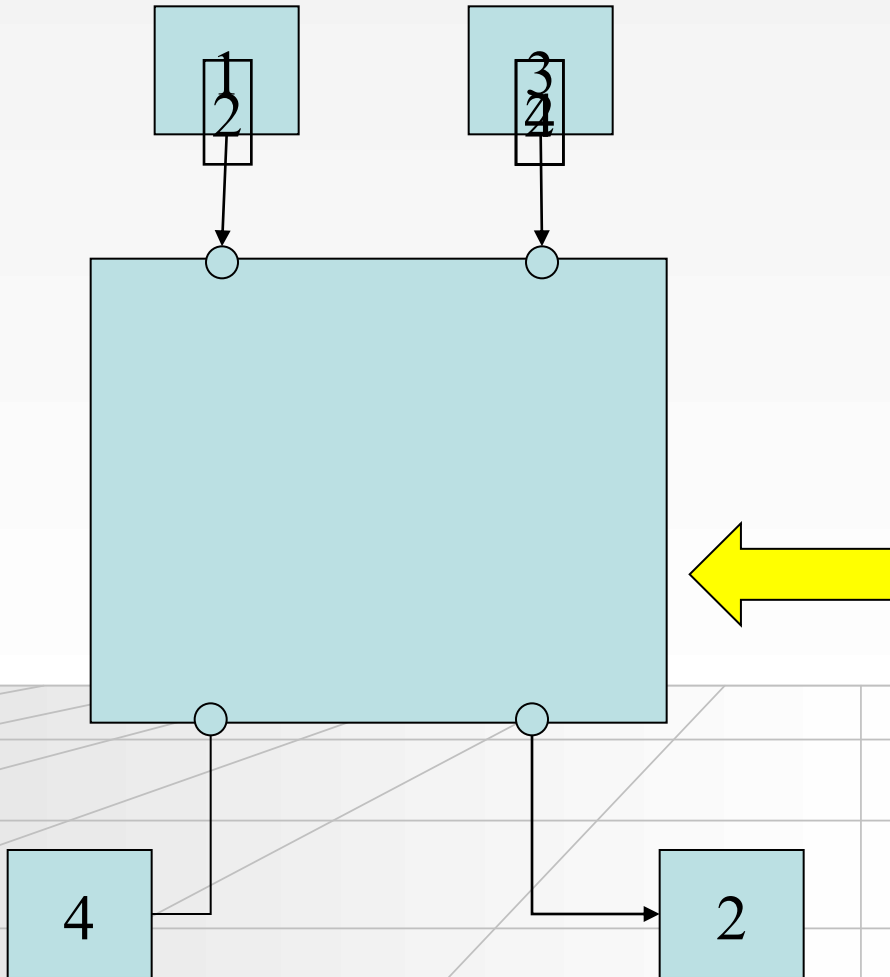
Head of Line Blocking



- The reason for this is the First in First Out (FIFO) structure of the input buffer
- Queuing theory tells us* that for random traffic that even though port to node 4 is free (and infinitely many switch ports) the throughput of the switch will go down to 58.6% → that means on 100 MBit/s network the nodes will "see" effectively only ~ 58 MBit/s

*) "Input Versus Output Queueing on a Space-Division Packet Switch"; Karol, M. et al. ; IEEE Trans. Comm., 35/12

Output Queuing

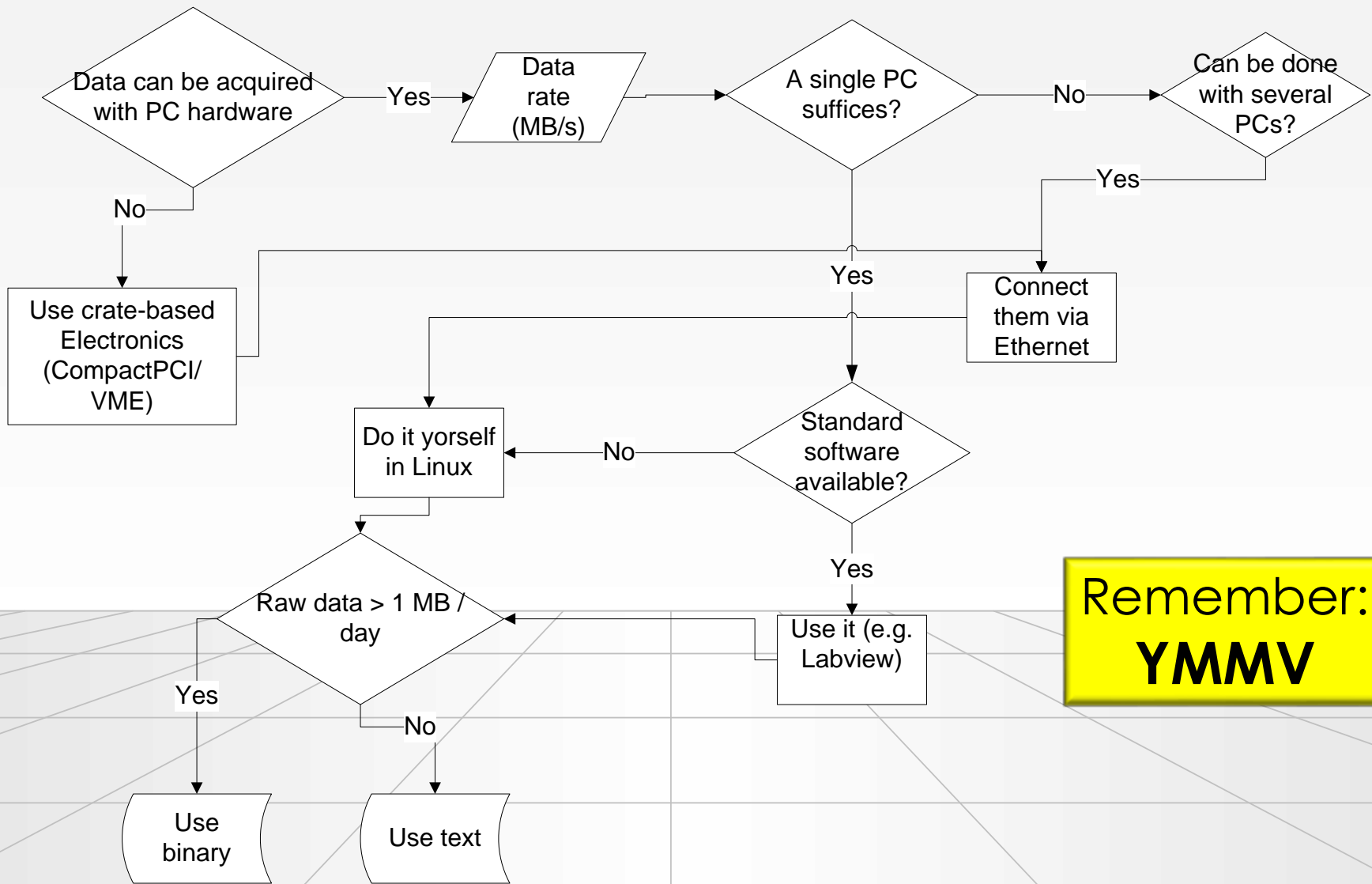


- In practice virtual output queueing is used: at each input there is a queue → for n ports $O(n^2)$ queues must be managed
 - Assuming the buffers are large enough (!) such a switch will sustain random traffic at 100% nominal link load
- Packet to node 2 waits at output to port 2. Way to node 4 is free.

Binary vs Text

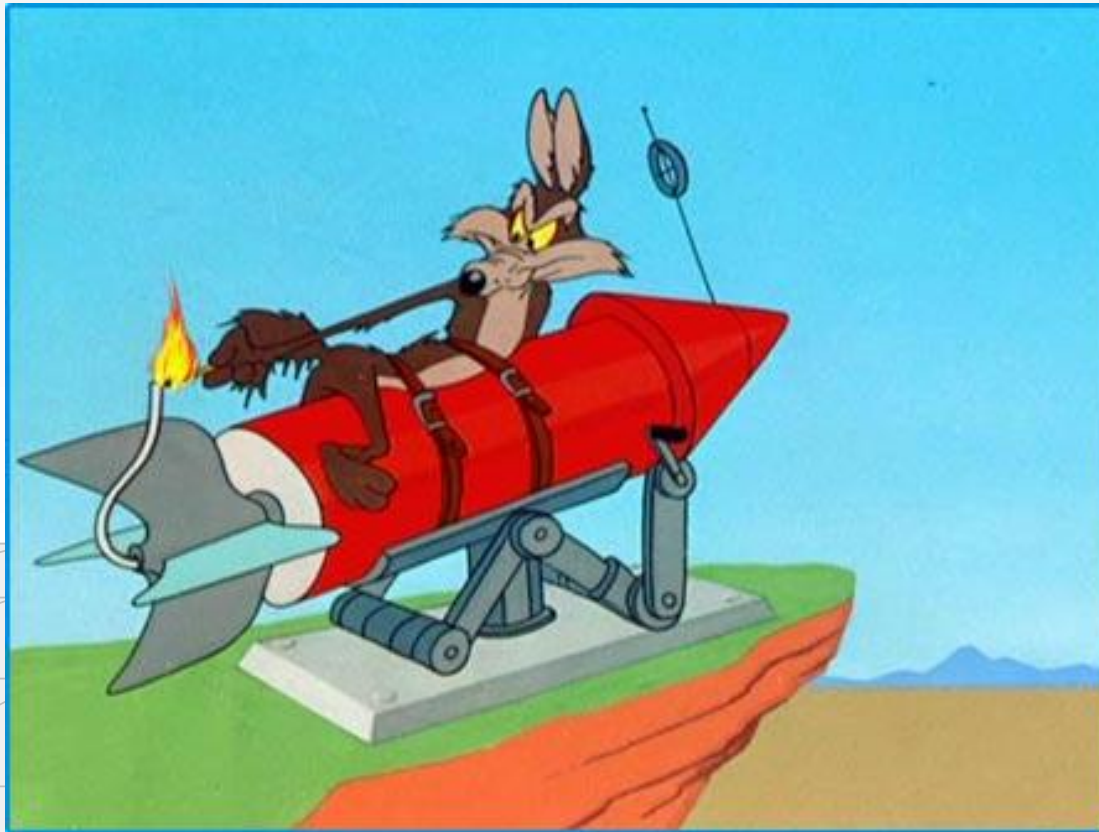
- 11010110 Pros:
 - compact
 - quick to write & read (no conversion)
- Cons:
 - opaque (humans need tool to read it)
 - depends on the machine architecture (endianness, floating point format)
 - life-time bound to availability of software which can read it
- <TEXT></TEXT> Pros:
 - universally readable
 - can be parsed and edited equally easily by humans and machines
 - long-lived (ASCII has not changed over decades)
 - machine independent
- Cons:
 - slow to read/write
 - low information density (can be improved by compression)

A little checklist for your DAQ



Remember:
YMMV

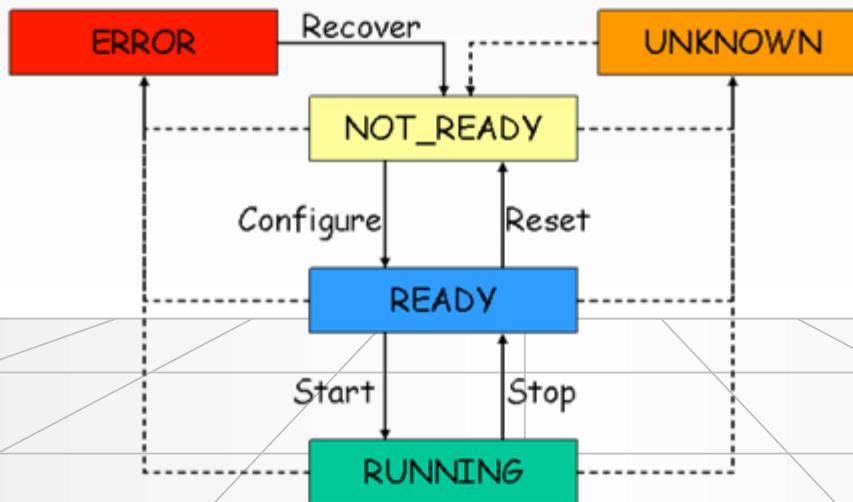
Runcontrol



© Warner Bros.

Run Control

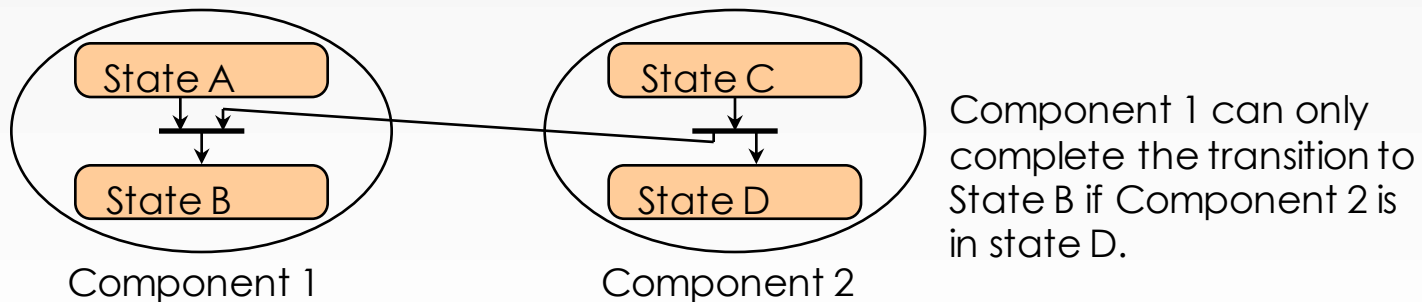
- The run controller provides the control of the trigger and data acquisition system. It is the application that interacts with the operator in charge of running the experiment.
- The operator is not always an expert on T/DAQ. The **user interface** on the Run Controller plays an important role.
- The complete system is modeled as a **finite state machine**. The commands that run controller offers to the operator are state transitions.



LHCb DAQ /Trigger Finite State Machine diagram (simplified)

Finite State Machine

- Each component, sub-component of the system is modeled as a *Finite State Machine*. This abstraction facilitates the description of each component behavior without going into detail
- The control of the system is realized by inducing transitions on remote components due to a transition on a local component

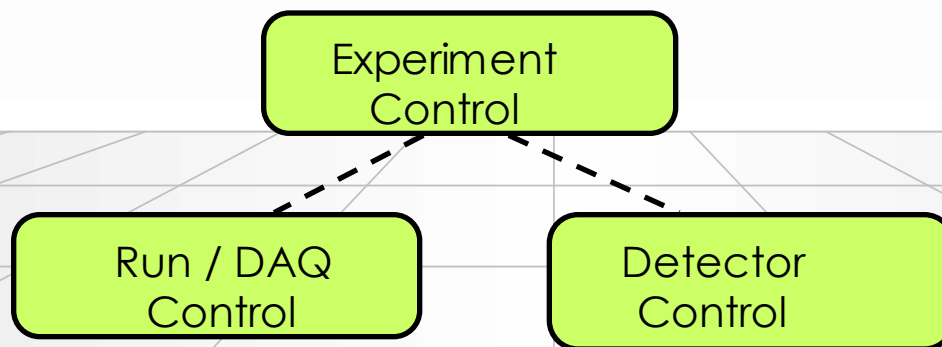


- Each transition may have actions associated. The action consist of code which needs to be executed in order to bring the component to its new state
- The functionality of the FSM and state propagation is available in special software packages such as SMI

Detector Control

- The detector control system (DCS) (also Slow Control) provides the monitoring and control of the detector equipment and the experiment infrastructure.
- Due to the scale of the current and future experiments is becoming more demanding: for the LHC Experiments: ≈ 100000 parameters

Control hierarchy



Run Control GUI

LHCb: TOP
Tue 16-Dec-2008 19:33:25

System
LHCb

State
RUNNING

Auto Pilot
OFF

root

Sub-System	State								
DCS	READY								
HV	NOT_READY								
DAQ	RUNNING								
RunInfo	RUNNING								
INF	NOT_READY								
TFC	RUNNING								
HLT	RUNNING								
Storage	RUNNING								
Monitoring	RUNNING								
Reconstruction	NOT_ALLOCATED								
Calibration	RUNNING								

Run Number:

Run Start Time:

Run Duration:

Nr. Events:

Nr. Steps Left:

Activity:

Trigger Configuration:

Time Alignment:
 TAE half window L0 Gap

Max Nr. Events:
 Run limited to Events

Automated Run with Steps:
 Step Run with Steps

L0 Rate:

10.06 KHz

HLT Rate:

110.33 Hz

Dead Time:

0.00 %

TFC Control

Data Destination: **Data Type:**

File:

Sub-Detectors:

TDET	VELOA	VELOC	TT	IT	OTA	OTC	RICH1	RICH2	PRS
RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING

Trigger Components:

ECAL	HCAL	MUONA	MUONC	LODU	TCALO	TMUA	TMUC	TPU
RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING	RUNNING

Messages

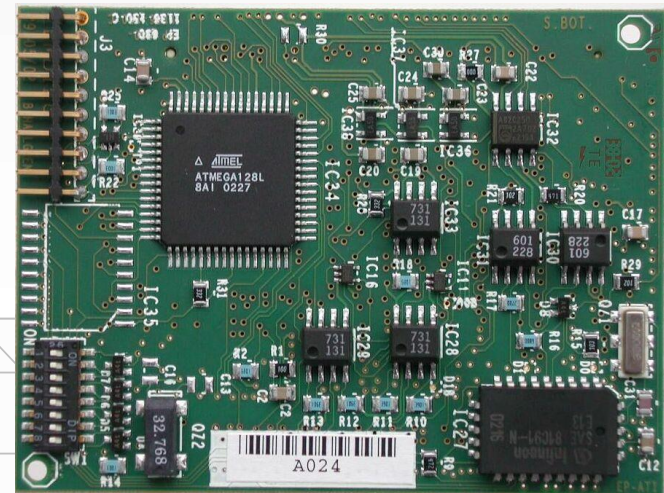
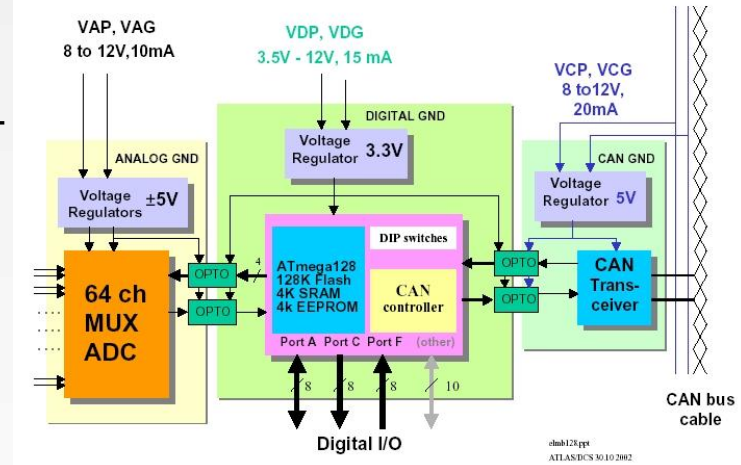
```

16-Dec-2008 19:31:38 - LHCb executing action GO
16-Dec-2008 19:31:38 - LHCb_TFC executing action START_TRIGGER
16-Dec-2008 19:31:42 - LHCb in state RUNNING
        
```

Main panel of the LHCb run-control (PVSS II)

Control and monitoring

- Access to setup registers (must have read-back)
- Access to local monitoring functions
 - Temperatures, power supply levels, errors, etc.
- Bidirectional with addressing capability (module, chip, register)
- Speed not critical and does not need to be synchronous
 - Low speed serial bus: I²C, JTAG, SPI
- Must be reasonably reliable (read-back to check correct download and re-write when needed)

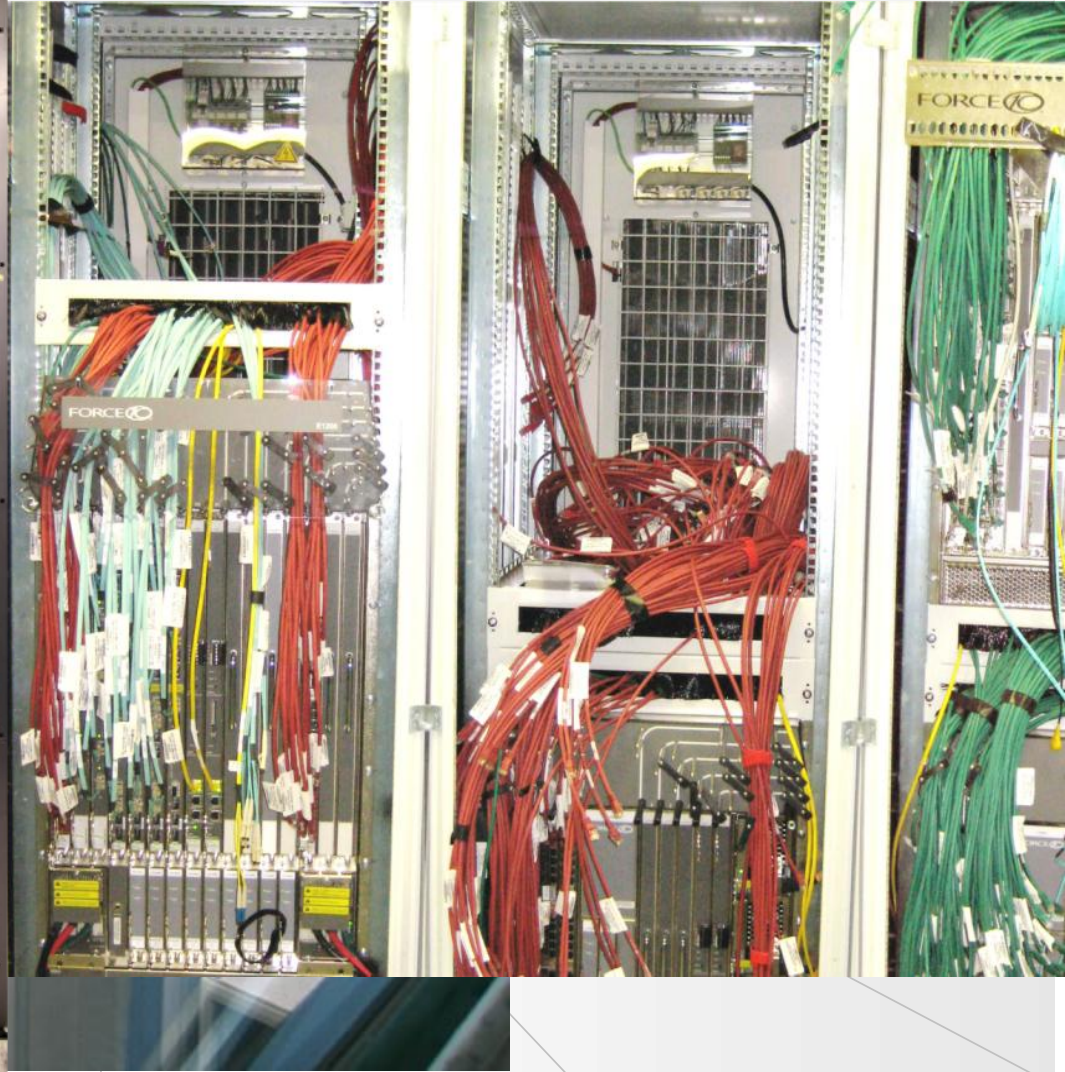


Example: ELMB

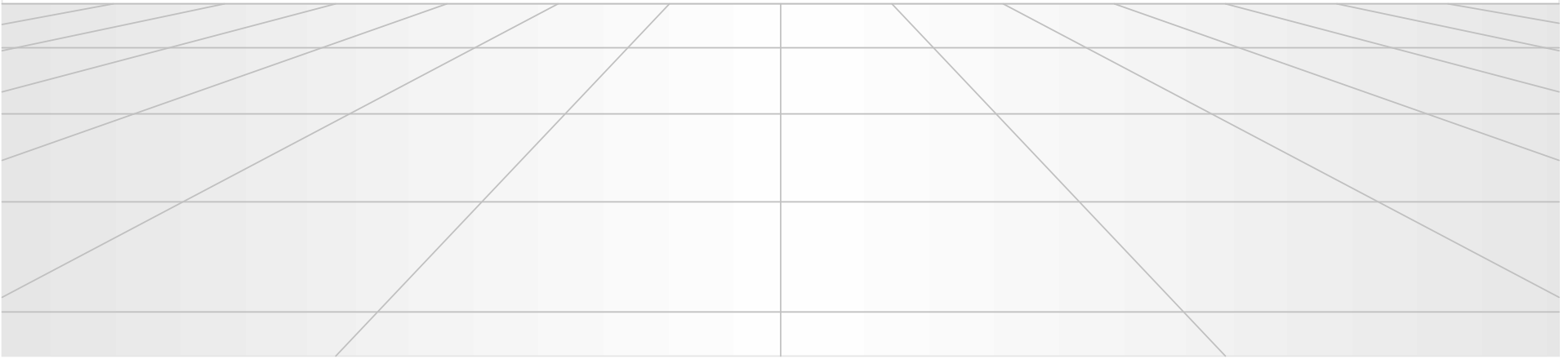
Gallery

ALICE Storage System

Online Network Infrastructure

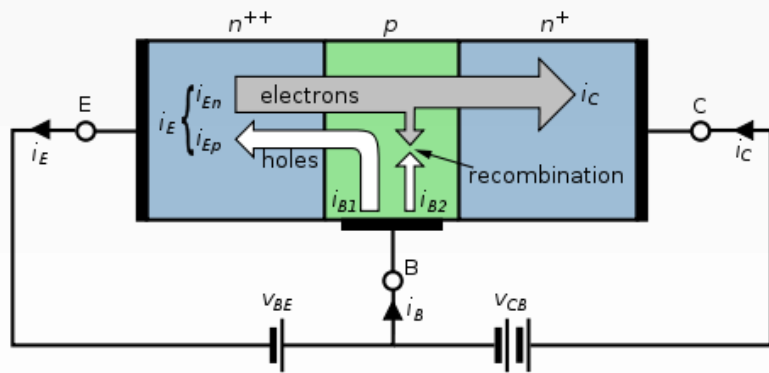


Even more stuff



Transistors

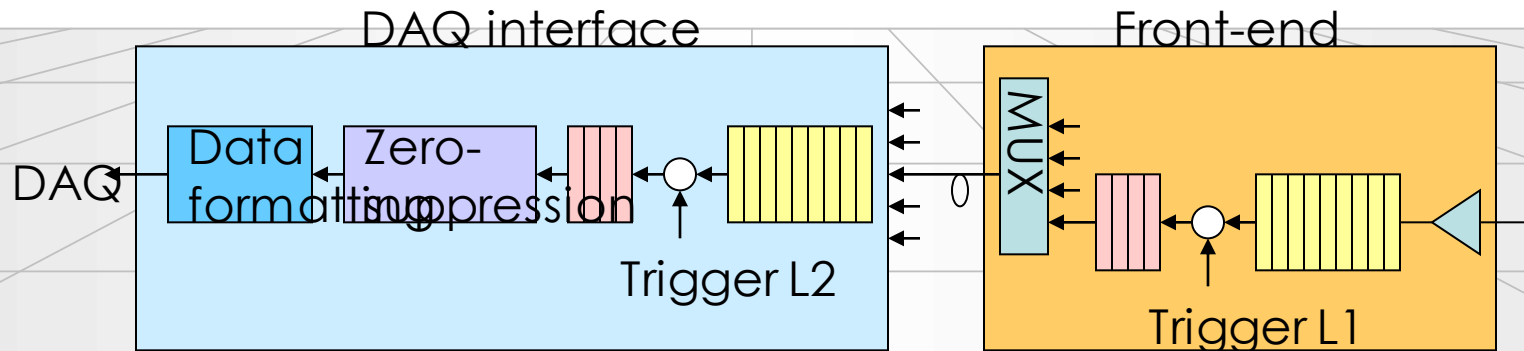
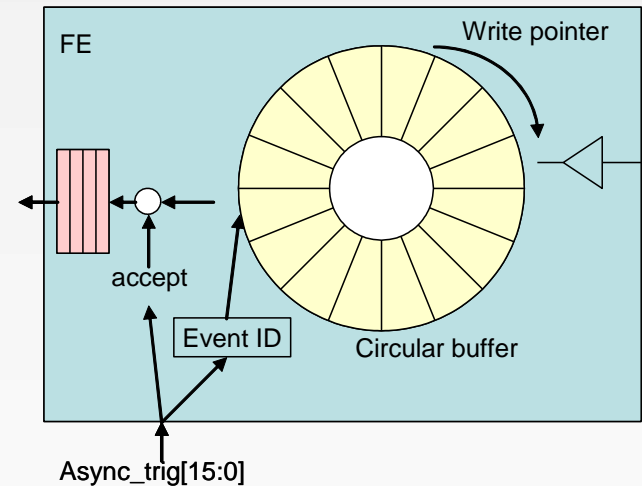
- Exemple: bi-polar transistor of the NPN type
- C collector, E emitter, B Base
- EB diode is in forward bias: holes flow towards np boundary and into n region
- BC diode is in reverse bias: electrons flow AWAY from pn boundary
- p layer must be thinner than diffusion length of electrons so that they can go through from E to C without much recombination



from Wikipedia

Multilevel triggering

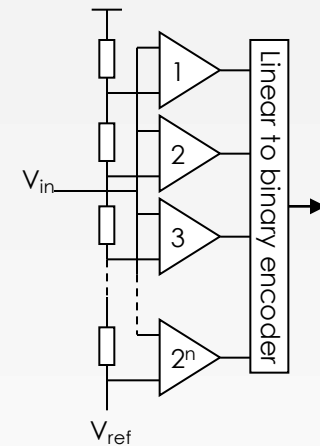
- First level triggering.
 - Hardwired trigger system to make trigger decision with short latency.
 - Constant latency buffers in the front-ends
- Second level triggering in DAQ interface
 - Processor based (standard CPU's or dedicated custom/DSP/FPGA processing)
 - FIFO buffers with each event getting accept/reject in sequential order
 - Circular buffer using event ID to extracted accepted events
 - Non accepted events stays and gets overwritten by new events
- High level triggering in the DAQ systems made with farms of CPU's: hundreds – thousands. (separate lectures on this)



ADC architectures

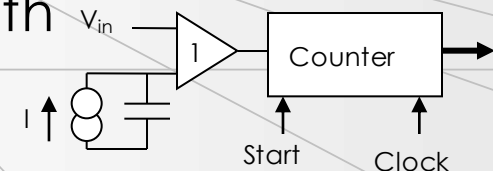
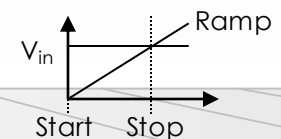
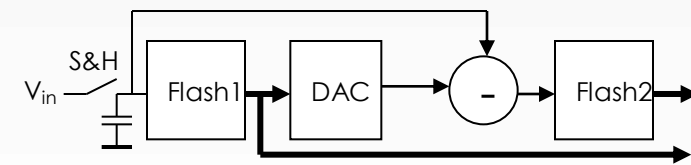
- Flash

- A discriminator for each of the 2^n codes
- New sample every clock cycle
- Fast, large, lots of power, limited to ~ 8 bits
- Can be split into two sub-ranging Flash $2 \times 2^{n/2}$ discriminators: e.g. 16 instead of 256 plus DAC
 - Needs sample and hold during the two stage conversion process



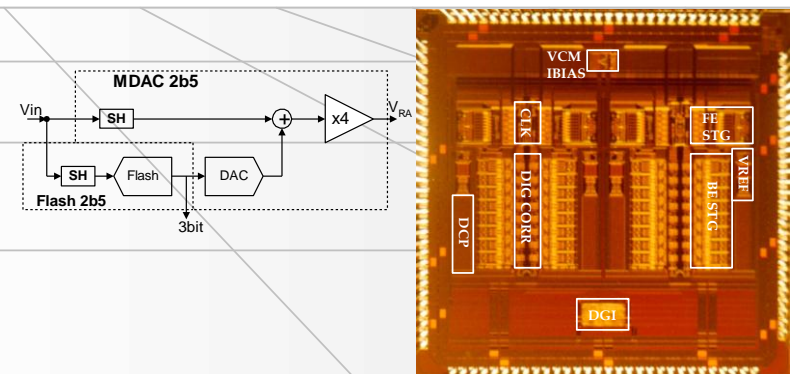
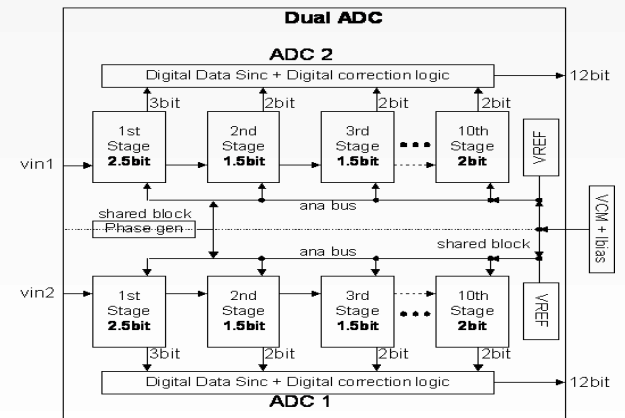
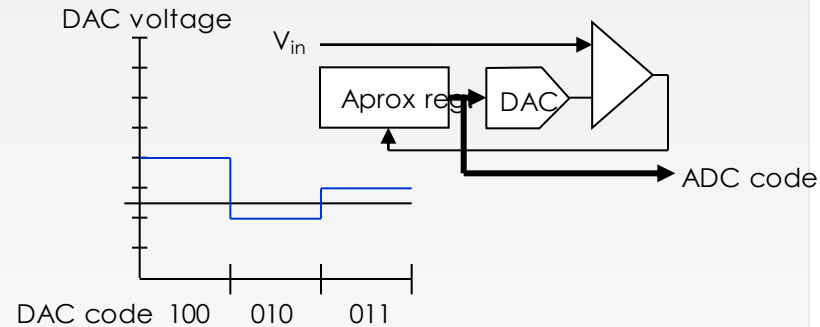
- Ramp

- Linear analog ramp and count clock cycles
- Takes 2^n clock cycles
- Slow, small, low power, can be made with large resolution



ADC architectures

- Successive approximation
 - Binary search via a DAC and single discriminator
 - Takes n clock cycles
 - Relatively slow, small, low power, medium to large resolution
- Pipelined
 - Determines "one bit" per clock cycle per stage
 - Extreme type of sub ranging flask
 - n stages
 - In principle 1 bit per stage but to handle imperfections each stage normally made with ~2bits and n*2bits mapped into n bits via digital mapping function that "auto corrects" imperfections
 - Makes a conversion each clock cycle
 - Has a latency of n clock cycles
 - Not a problem in our applications except for very fast triggering
 - Now dominating ADC architecture in modern CMOS technologies and impressive improvements in the last 10 years: speed, bits, power, size



ADC imperfections

- Quantization (static)
 - Bin size: Least significant bit (LSB) = $V_{\max}/2^n$
 - Quantization error: RMS error/resolution: $\text{LSB}/\sqrt{12}$
- Integral non linearity (INL): Deviation from ideal conversion curve (static)
 - Max: Maximum deviation from ideal
 - RMS: Root mean square of deviations from ideal curve
- Differential non linearity (DNL): Deviation of quantization steps (static)
 - Min: Minimum value of quantization step
 - Max: Maximum value of quantization step
 - RMS: Root mean square of deviations from ideal quantization step
- Missing codes (static)
 - Some binary codes never present in digitized output
- Monotonic (static)
 - Non monotonic conversion can be quite unfortunate in some applications. A given output code can correspond to several input values.

