

Christian Bohm from Stockholm University

Worked with PET in from 1975-85

1 ring PET system with 95 NaI crystals 1978

4 ring PET system with 384 crystals in 1981

Also CT and MRI

Instrumentation Physics from 1987

SPECT, ATLAS, ICE-CUBE, EXFEL

Particle Physics Instrumentation and experiments

Christian Bohm
Stockholm University

Outline

Physics Background

LHC and its detectors

ATLAS and its subdetectors

Trigger and Data Acquisition

Future ATLAS

Introduction

We study new physics by **colliding high energy particles**

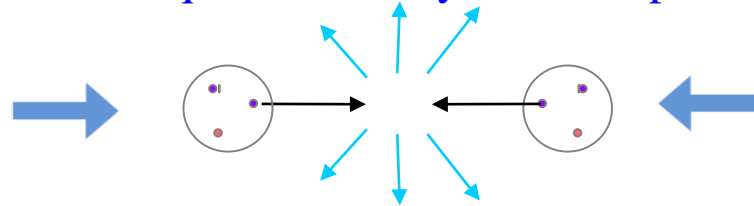
New particles can be produced in these collisions if the energy is sufficiently high.

If we collide single protons the probability (cross section) for this is extremely small.

You need many collisions to increase the probability – need **high luminosity** and **many repetitions**

To release a lot of energy there must be a head collision.

The protons contains three quarks, so only must the protons collide head-on but also their constituents.



After doing this for some time, we look for unusual interesting events.

And not only one, we want **many** such events to believe the results

Thus,

- **We must collide a large number of protons each time – use high luminosity proton beams**
- **We must repeat collisions many times – use high collision rates**

Why we need to record many events

To determine if our N observed events contain new data that constitute a discovery we must determine if the data could be produced by combinations of well-understood events. The probability for such events is the background B .

For N to be a discovery, N must be significantly larger than B

For example if N is 80 and B is 64 then $\sigma(B)$ is 8 (assume Poisson distribution $\sigma^2=N$)

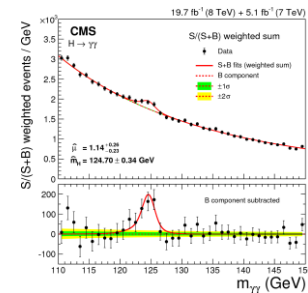
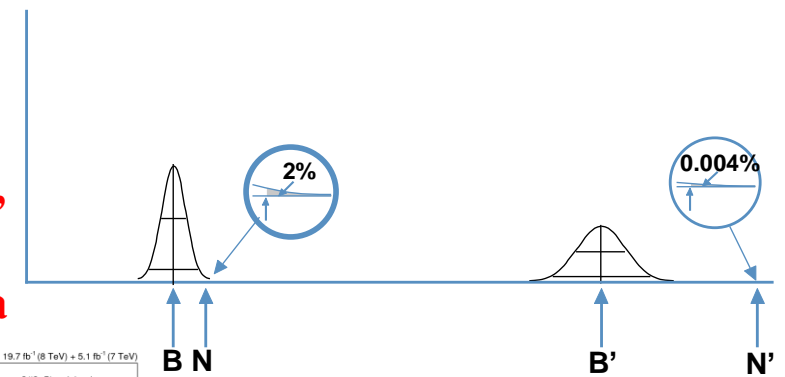
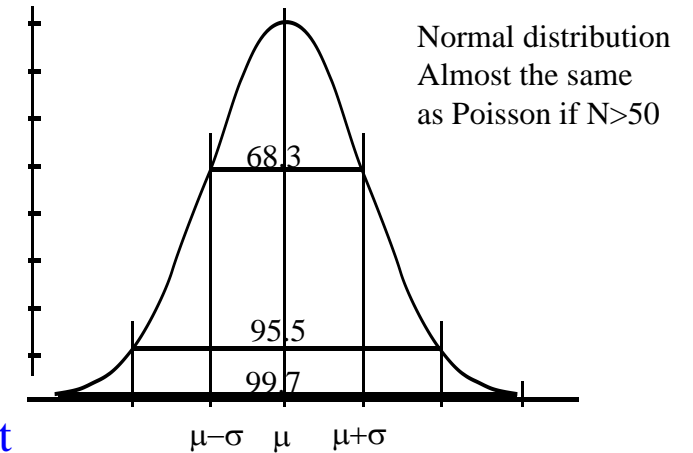
N is 2σ above i.e. 2% probability that N is just random noise

If we measure 4 times as long N' will be at 320, B' is 256 and $\sigma(B')$ 16 i.e. about $4\sigma(B')$ above i.e. 0.004% that it is random noise. Much smaller probability that N' is due to random noise but this is not enough to claim a discovery.

5σ (0.00002% it is random noise) is often required for discovery.

The significance of N will grow after more measurements if it is a real effect, but the significance could also decrease or even disappear if it is not.

There are many 3σ effects that have disappeared, but a 5σ must have been a 3σ at some point (750GeV diphoton excess)



Beyond the Standard Model

We have a theory, the **Standard Model**, to explain much of the particle physics we have observed, but not all. The task is to explore **Beyond Standard Model (BSM)** physics

One way is to find new observational results that cannot be explained by the Standard Model
Better precision (higher luminosity and longer time) increases the probability for finding deviations

Another way is to propose theories that agrees with existing experimental results but also predicts new results that can be tested with experiments

Some potential BSM theories predict super symmetric partners to all normal particles – **none of which have been seen so far**

To progress we need to know where the Standard Model fails

We need more data and/or higher energies

Detectable Standard Model particles

The **Standard Model**, explains most of the particle physics we have observed (but not all).

The most basic constituents are:

Leptons, quarks and bosons

These can be created in collisions in high energy physics experiments at accelerators, but short lived particles decay before they reach the detector. They can only be deduced by their decay products.

We can detect **electrons**, (positive) **muons** and their anti-particles (**positrons** and negative muons)

The only boson we can detect directly is the **photon**.

We can detect composite particles (charged and uncharged) formed by quarks, called **hadrons** but have problems identifying them.

The hadrons can be **mesons** and **baryons** such as **protons** and **neutrons**

Jets

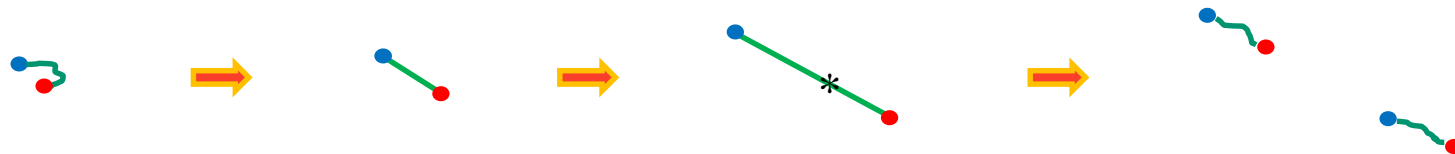
In the standard model there are 6 types of quarks and 6 types of antiquarks.

Free quarks are never seen. You only see combinations of them, hadrons.
They can combine into baryons (3 quarks) or mesons (a quark-antiquark pair).

One way to **illustrate** the quark behavior is to see them as **string ends**.

A mesons will then be modelled as:  and a baryon (e.g. a proton) as:  or 

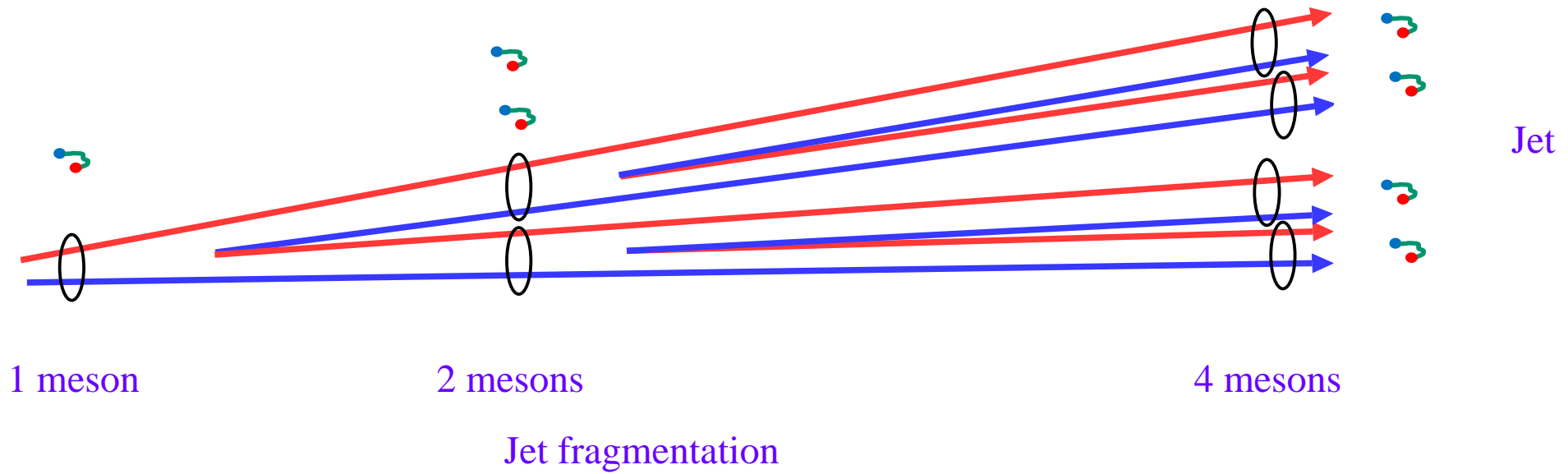
If you stretch a meson, i.e. trying to move the quark and antiquark away from each other, the string breaks.



Forming two strings with two new string ends, a new quark-antiquark pair, and thus two mesons

Jets

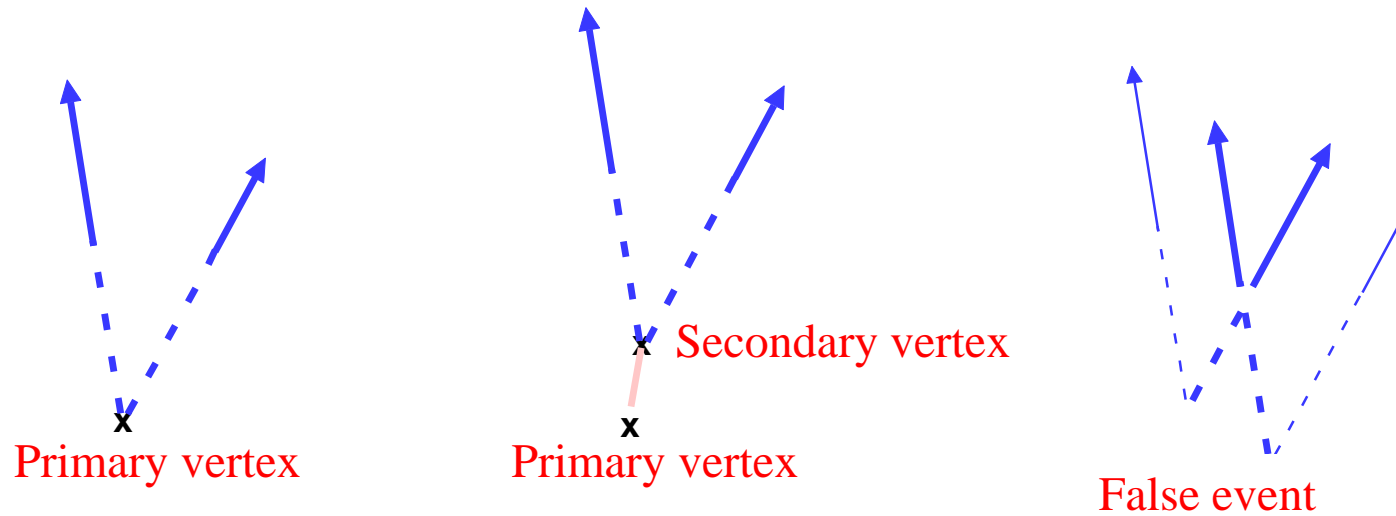
If the quarks in a meson separate with a high kinetic energy there will be multiple string ruptures a **jet** of hadrons



Whenever a quark tries to escape a jet is formed

Short lived particles

You have to infer the existence of short lived ($< 10^{-10}$ sec) particles by recording the disintegration products



But this opens for mistakes:

If $A \rightarrow B, C$ and you record B and C it is not **certaint** they came from the same A . They might have come from **different** processes

Need to know the direction with high precision, to be able to identify if it is a secondary vertex

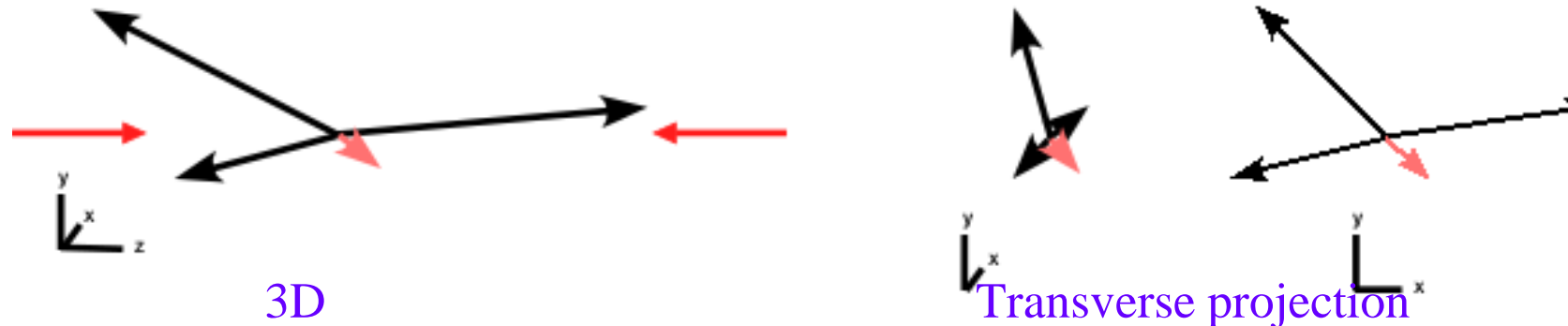
Missing Transverse Momenta (Energy)

The center of gravity of all particles created in an explosion stay at the collision center

The vector sum of all momenta in the COG system is 0

Same thing applies to the transverse projection

If one particle is not detected there will be a missing transverse momenta

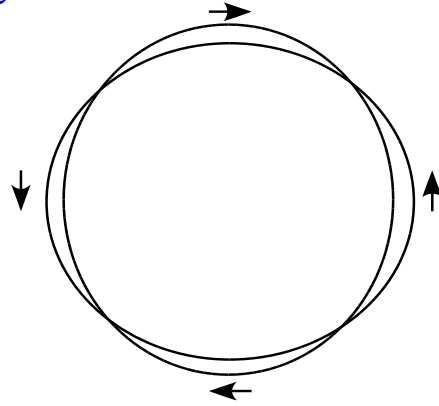


Missing transverse momenta can be due to:

- Particles that cannot be detected (e.g. neutrinos) or failing detector elements
- The detector should be hermetic

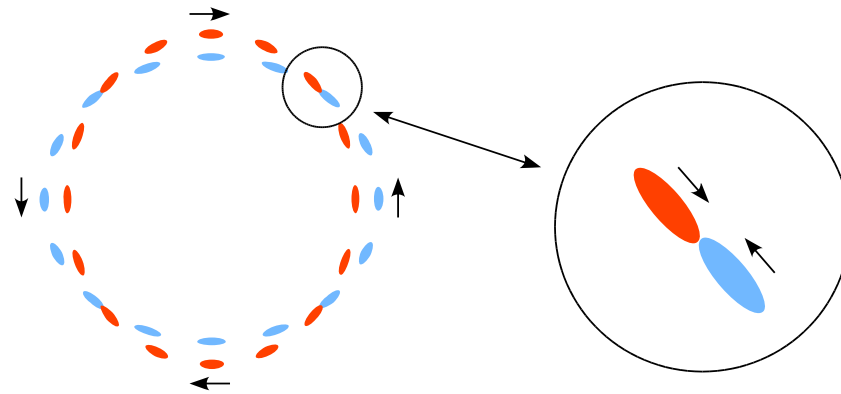
Colliders

One solution to get high luminosity and high repetition rate is to circulate the particles (e.g. protons) in two ring accelerators that cross in regions where the particles can collide



Most protons will pass through and continue to recirculate, but some would collide (along with collisions with rest gas)
Eventually all protons will be lost, but before that they will pass each other many times

A better solution is to group the protons in bunches and let the bunches collide



The Large Hadron Collider

27km circumference double ring collider

13 TeV (6.5+6.5) – 0.999999991 times c , i.e. 3m/s less than c

4 interaction points with detectors – ATLAS, CMS, LHC-B and ALICE

$1.5 \cdot 10^{34}$ protons/cm²/sec focused into 16 μ beams that collide

1600 superconducting magnets (up to 9T) to bend and focus the beams

Bunches with about 10^{11} protons collide every 25 ns

The total beam energy is 562 MJ – melts 2 ton copper

Start of operations 2010 (2008)

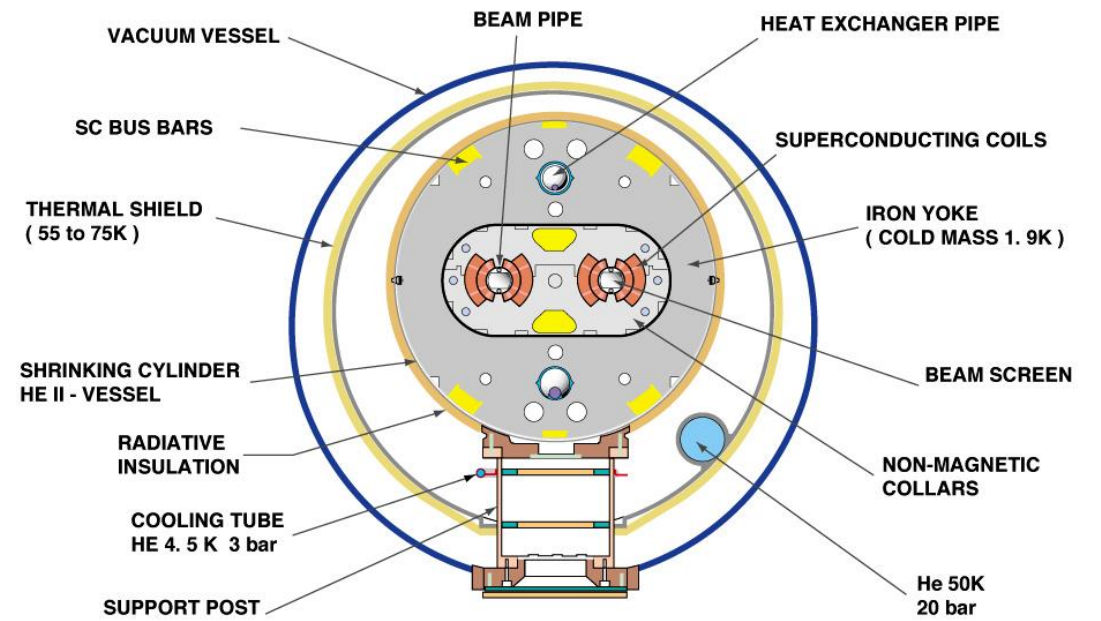


The Large Hadron Collider

Insulation vacuum at 10^{-6} mBar in a volume of 15000m^3
Beam pipe vacuum 10^{-10} mBar (as on the moon)



CROSS SECTION OF LHC DIPOLE



CERN AC_HE107A_V02/02/98

The CERN Accelerator Systems

A hierarchical system of accelerators

Linac 2 → PS Booster → PS → SPS → LHC
 50 MeV 1.4 GeV 25 GeV 450 GeV 6.5 (7) TeV

One or two injections into LHC per day

450 GeV injected protons accelerate to 6.5 TeV in 20 minutes

Aim for 7 TeV 2021

CERN Accelerator chronology

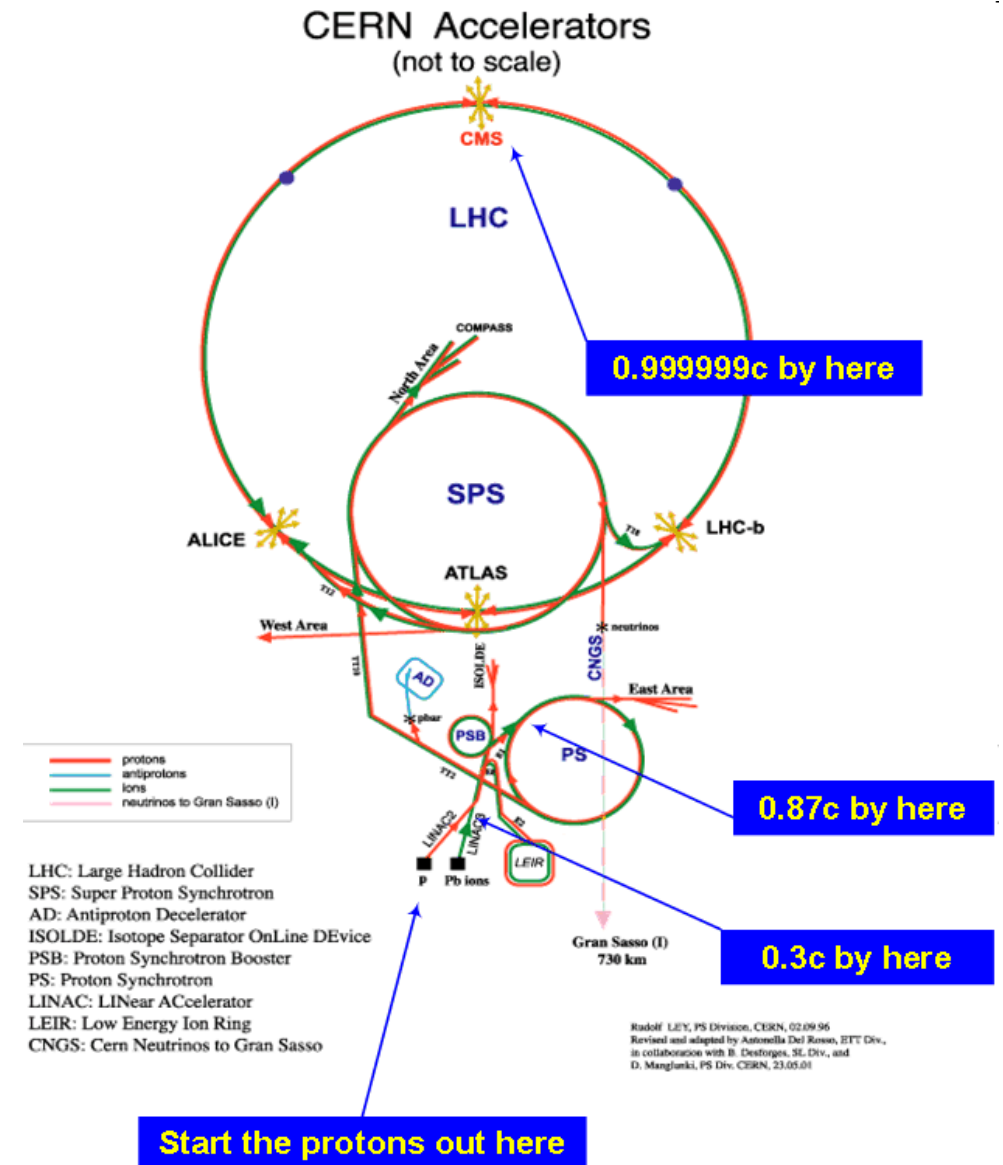
Linac 1 and PS started 1959

PS Booster started in 1972

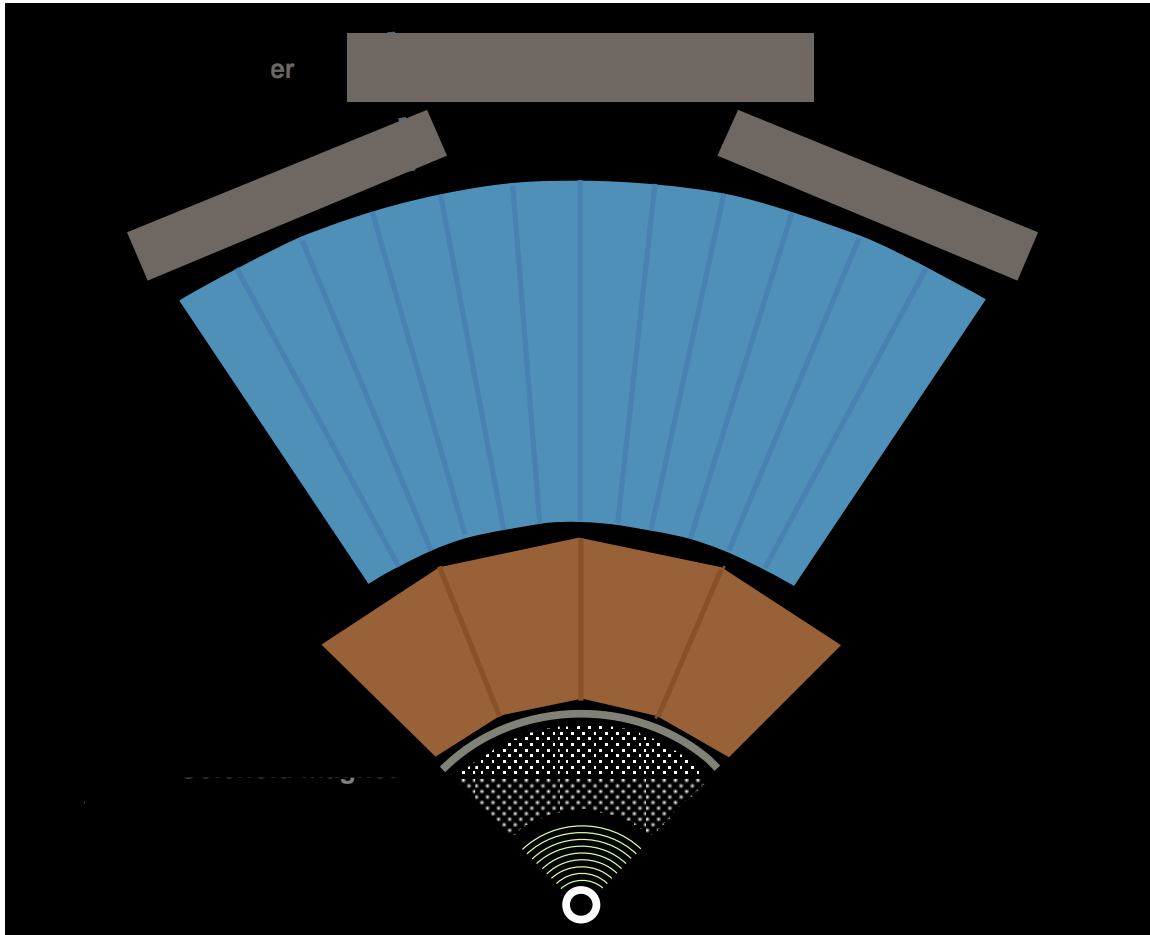
SPS started in 1976

Linac 2 started in 1978

LEP started in 1989 reached 104+104 GeV



Detector and Subdetectors



All short-lived particles decay before entering the detector itself

Remaining particles: e^- , e^+ , γ , hadrons (p, n..., jets), μ^+ , μ^- , ν , ?

Onion-like with multiple subdetector and magnet shells:

Inner detector (tracker) with Pixel, SCT and TRT
to find charged particle tracks

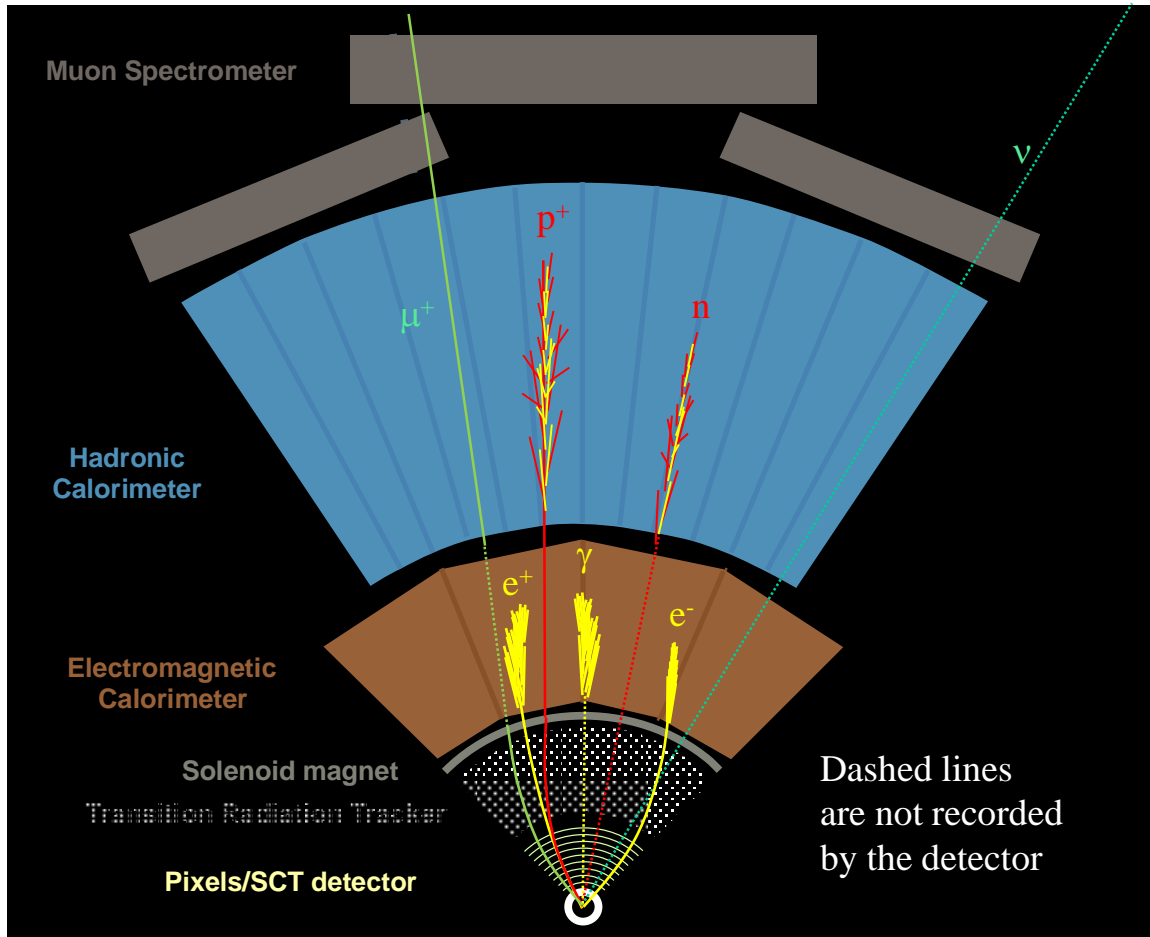
Solenoid magnets to deduce charge and momentum

Electromagnetic calorimeter to measure e/m tracks and energy

Hadron calorimeter to measure hadron and jet tracks and energy

Muon detector to detect muon tracks and momentum

Identifying the collision event



An electron (e^-) leaves a track in the inner detector with negative (here counter clockwise) curvature and showers and is absorbed in the electromagnetic calorimeter

An higher energy positron (e^+) leaves a positive smaller curvature

A photon (γ) leaves no track in the inner detector

A positive muon (μ^+) leaves a positive curvature track in the inner detector, a weak track in the hadron calorimeter and a signal in the muon spectrometer

A proton (p) leaves a positive curvature track in the inner detector, a track in the e/m calorimeter and a track in the hadron calorimeter

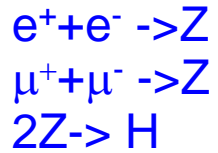
A neutron (n) leaves no track in the inner detector, a track in the e/m calorimeter and a track in the hadron calorimeter

A neutrino (ν) does not leave any tracks at all

Identifying the collision event

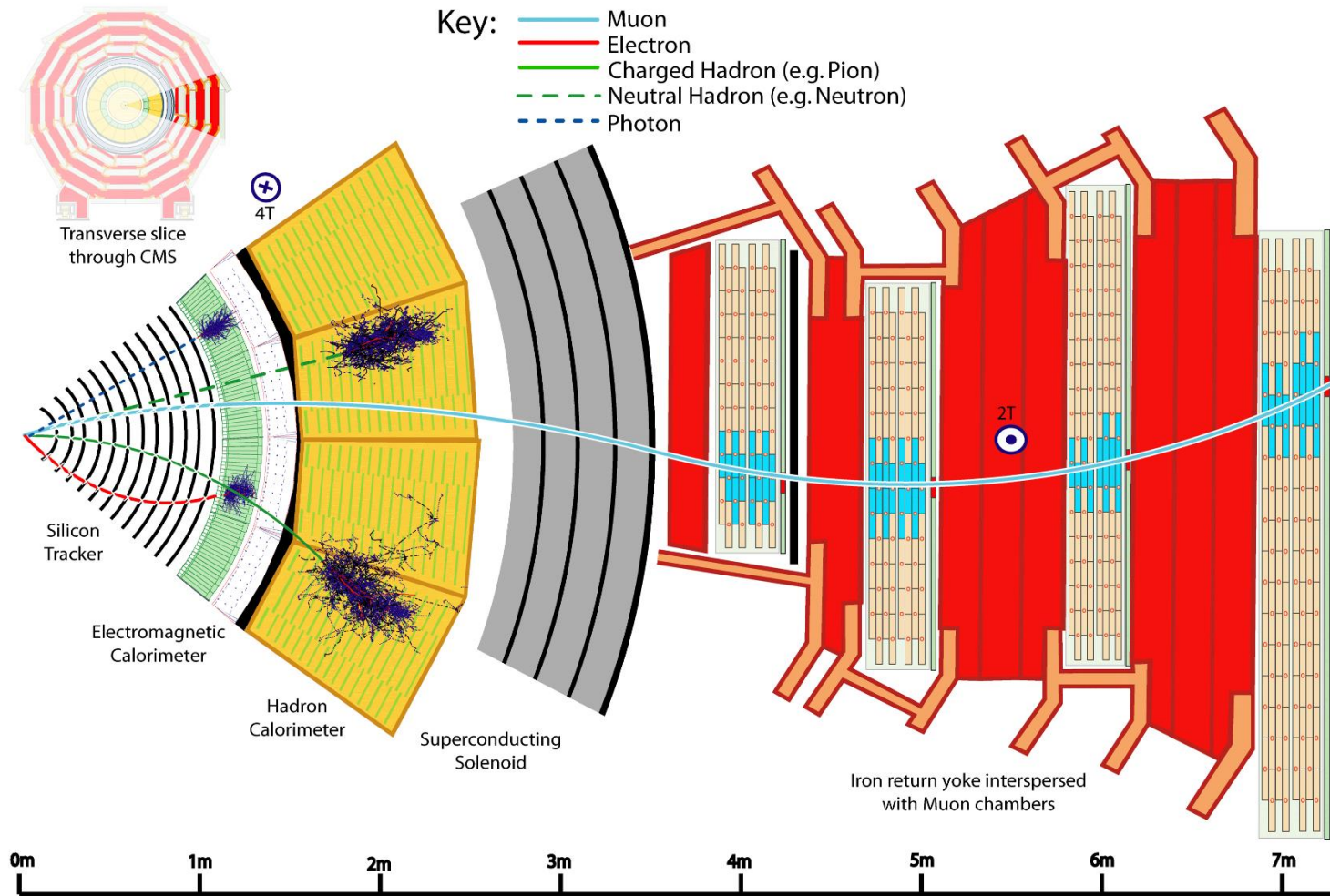
Group particles from the same interaction point
 point – could be outside beam pipe

Deduce source particle:



Transverse vectoral momentum sum should be zero
 If not, something is missing – a neutrino, or
 something more exciting

Broken parts must be
 corrected for



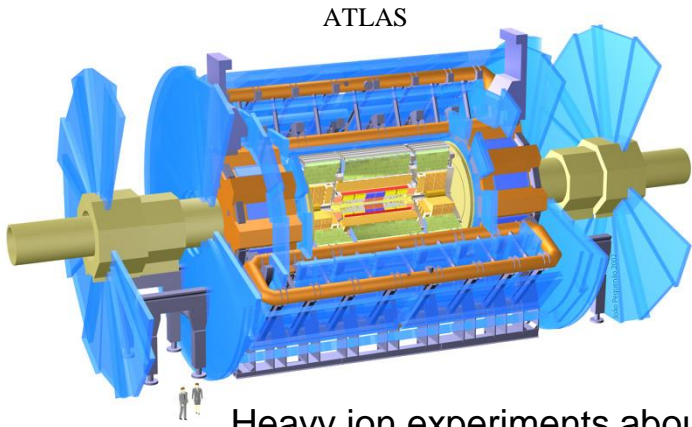
Desirable detector properties

- High precision inner detector position information to identify secondary vertices, but amplitude information is not needed here – many layers and many channels
- Inner detector should be a light construction that does not compromise calorimeter resolution
- Good energy information in calorimeters and muon detector to determine missing momentum accurately
- All detectable particles should be detected – hermeticity
- Detector signals are often long, many bunch crossings, but must be associated with correct bunch crossing, if not, false missing momentum – **pile-up** problem at high count rates
- E/M calorimeter should be deep enough to contain electrons and γ
- Hadron calorimeter should be deep enough to contain hadrons
- Radiation exposure determine choice of detectors and electronics

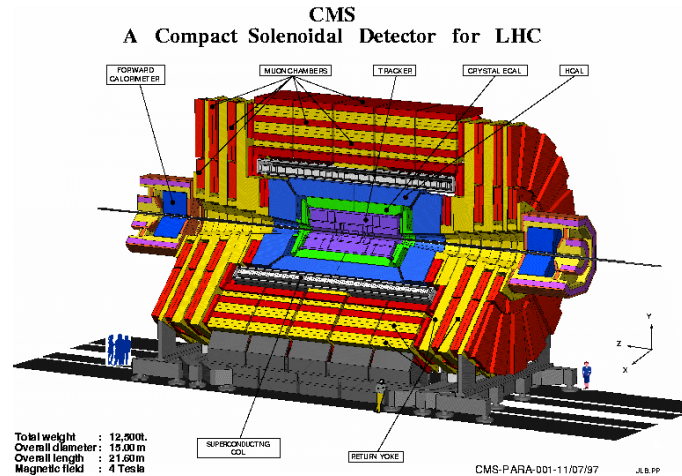


Design compromises necessary for economical reasons

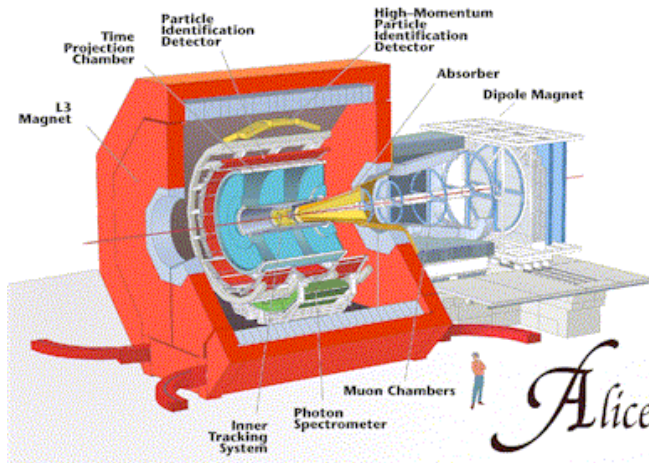
LHC Detectors



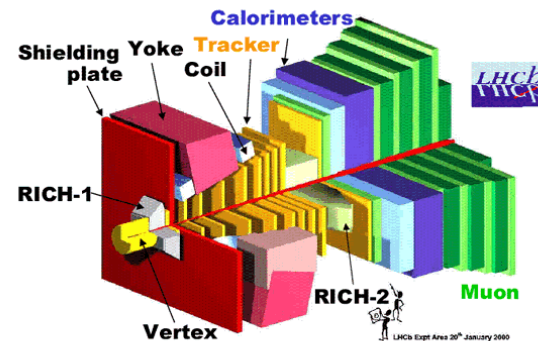
ATLAS
Heavy ion experiments about 2 weeks/year



ATLAS -CMS
Similar but different – magnet system,
detector solutions, TDAQ system
Competition – Collaboration



Heavy ion experiments,
Pb – Pb or Au – Au



B physics at lower luminosities

Different sizes:
ATLAS 46x25 m
CMS 21x15 m
Alice 26x16 m
LHCb 21x10x13 m

LHC results and cost

RESULTS so far

Higgs particle discovered 2012 July 4th (Nobel prize 2013)

No strong indications for BSM physics (Beyond Standard Model) yet

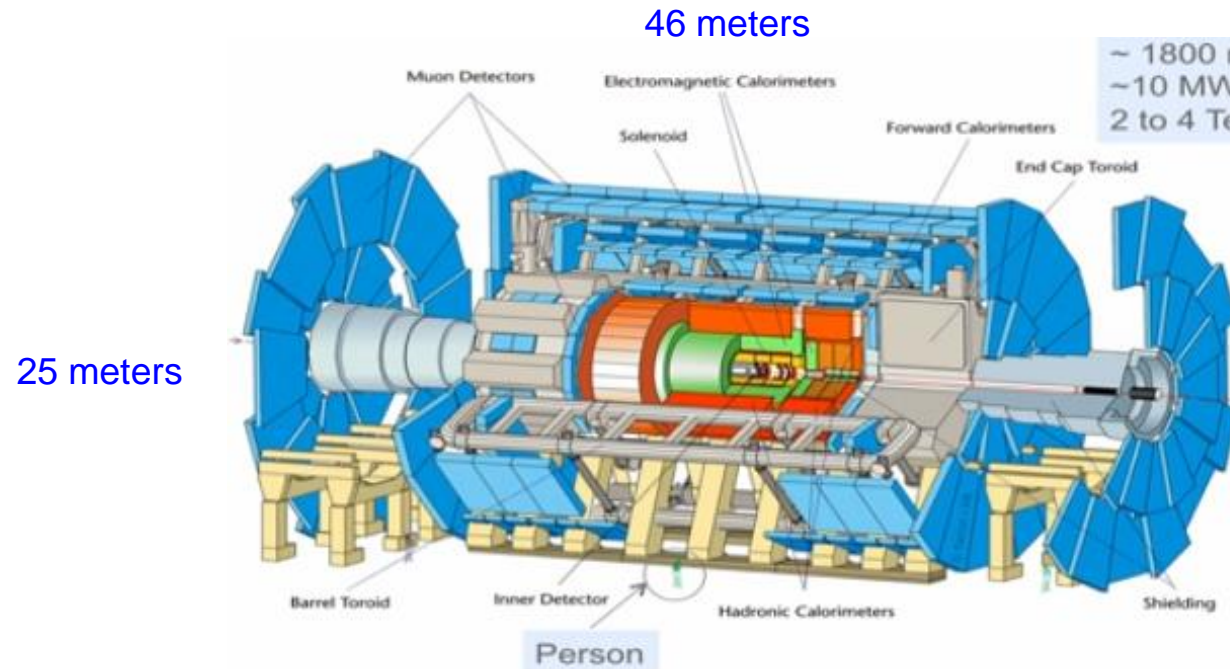
No SUSY (SuperSymmetry) yet

COSTS

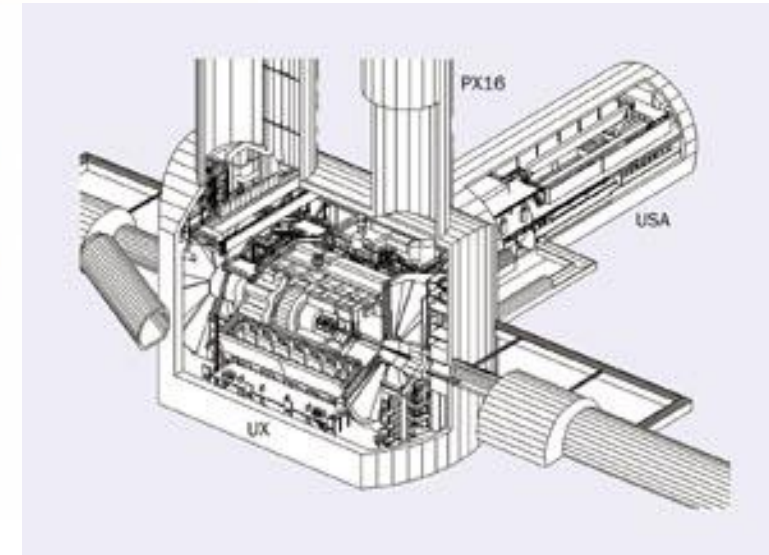
LHC material costs ~3.1 G€

ATLAS material costs ~.3 G€

A Toroidal Apparatus - ATLAS



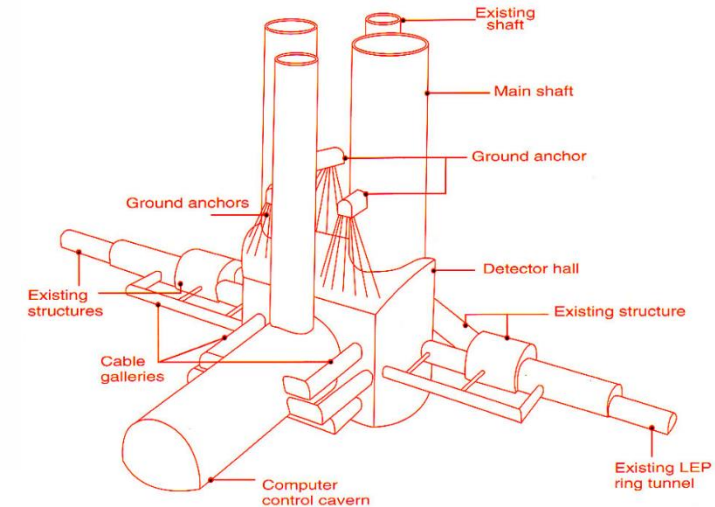
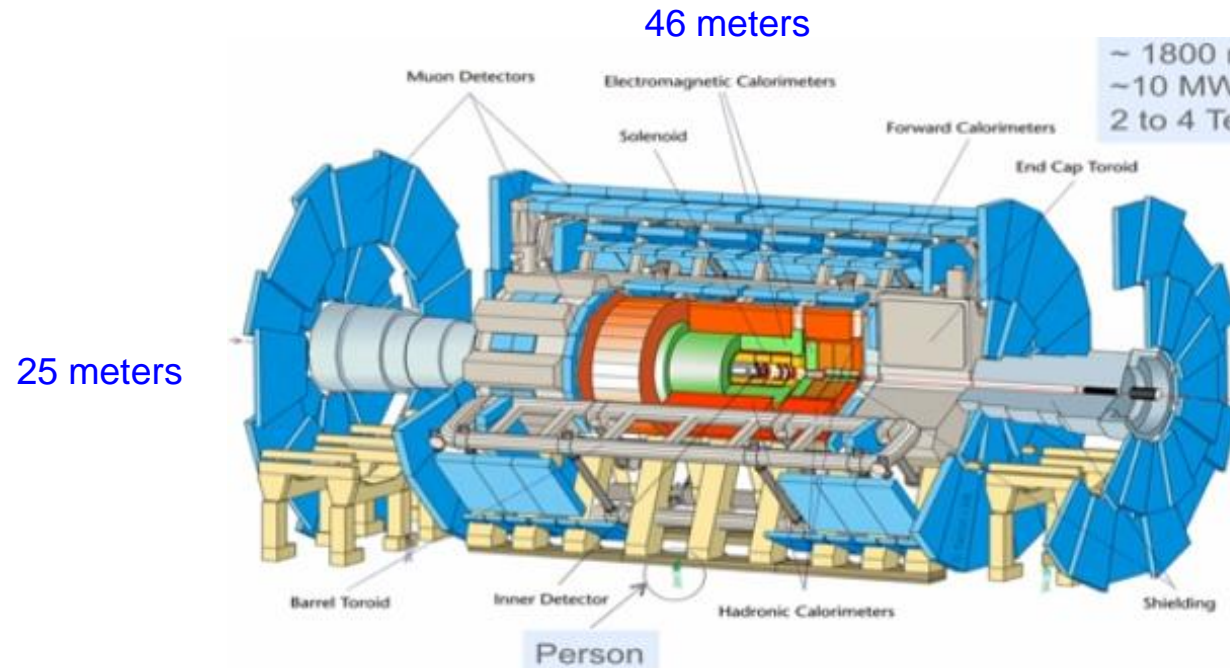
~ 1800 miles of cables
 ~10 MW of electric power
 2 to 4 Tesla mag. field



USA = Underground Storage Area
 100m below surface
 Access shafts 12 – 22 m diam.

Inner detector 1 bit? - ~86 Mch	Weight 7000 tons
E/M calorimeter 16 bit - ~300 kch	3000 physicists + x engineers
Hadron calorimeter 16 bit ~10kch	181 institutes from
Muon detector x bit ~100 kch	38 countries

A Toroidal Apparatus - ATLAS



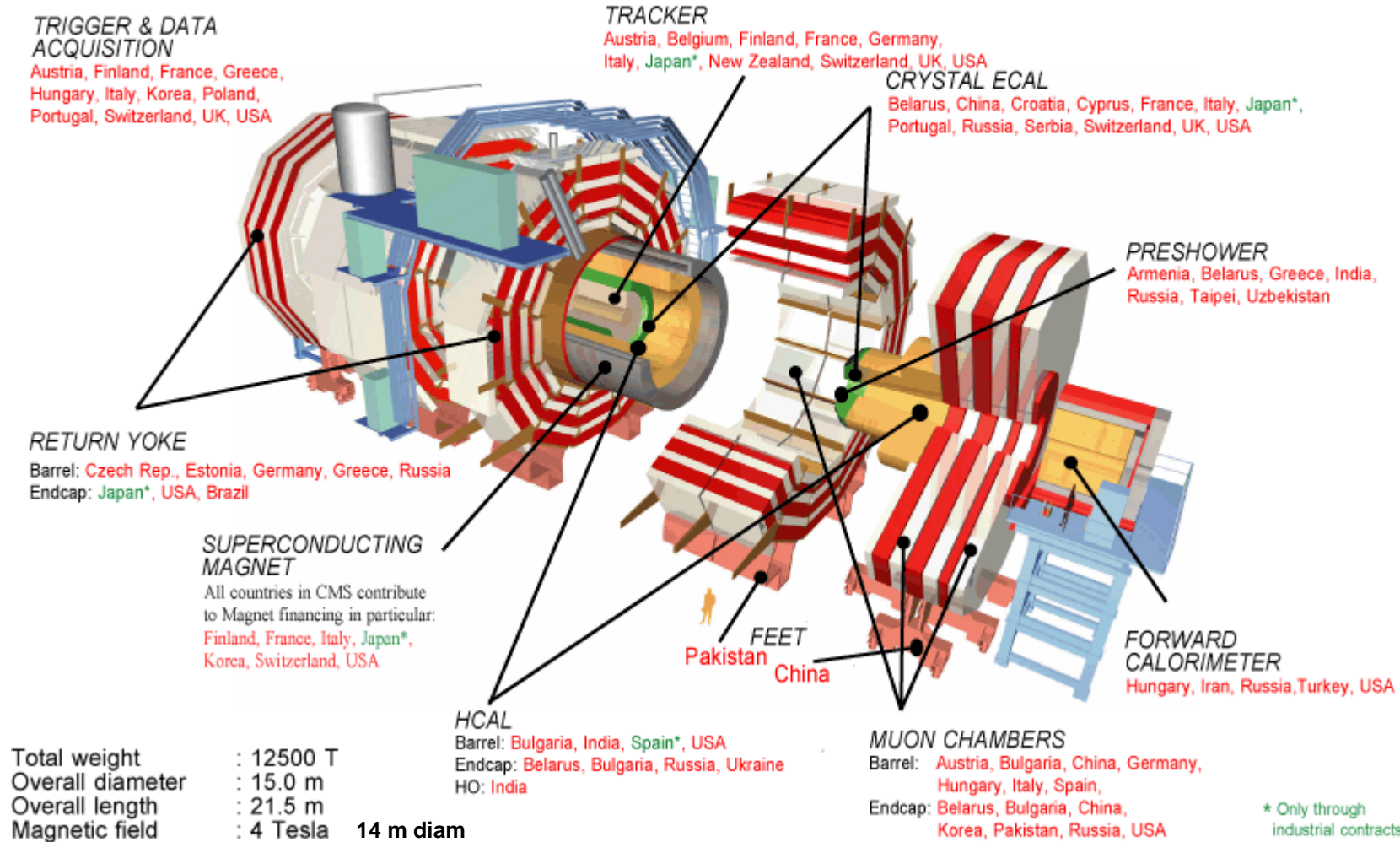
Inner detector 1 bit? - ~86 Mch
 E/M calorimeter 16 bit - ~300 kch
 Hadron calorimeter 16 bit ~10kch
 Muon detector x bit ~100 kch
 Dipole magnet 2T 2.4m diam
 Toriod magnets
 Barrel 4T 20.1 m diam
 Endcap 4T 10.7 m diam

Weight 7000 tons
 3000 physicists + x engineers
 174 institutes from
 38 countries

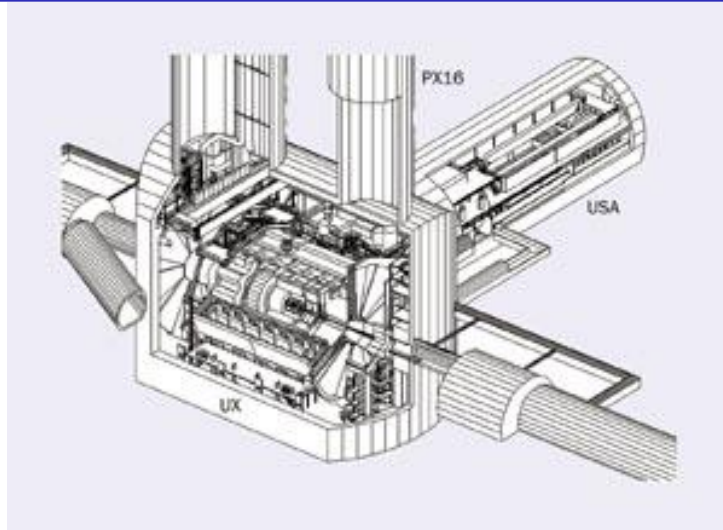
USA = Underground Storage Area
 100m below surface
 Access shafts 12 – 22 m diam.

CMS – Compact Muon Solenoid

36 Nations, 159 Institutions, 1940 Scientists (February 2003)



ATLAS installation



ATLAS installation



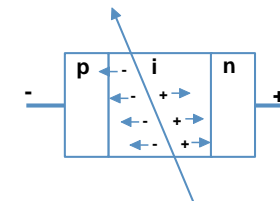
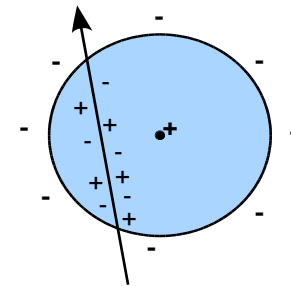
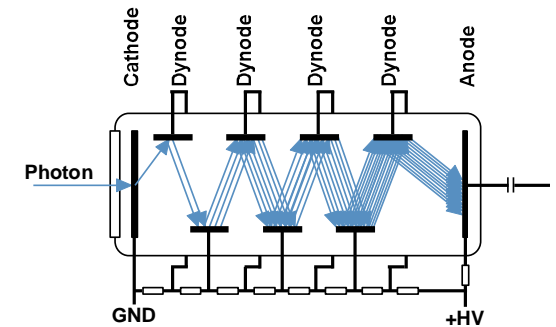
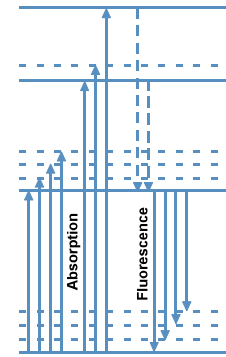
Radiation Detectors

A large class of radiation detectors are based on **scintillation** where the ionizing radiation excites an inorganic or organic scintillator. When the scintillator de-excites it emits light of characteristic wavelengths.

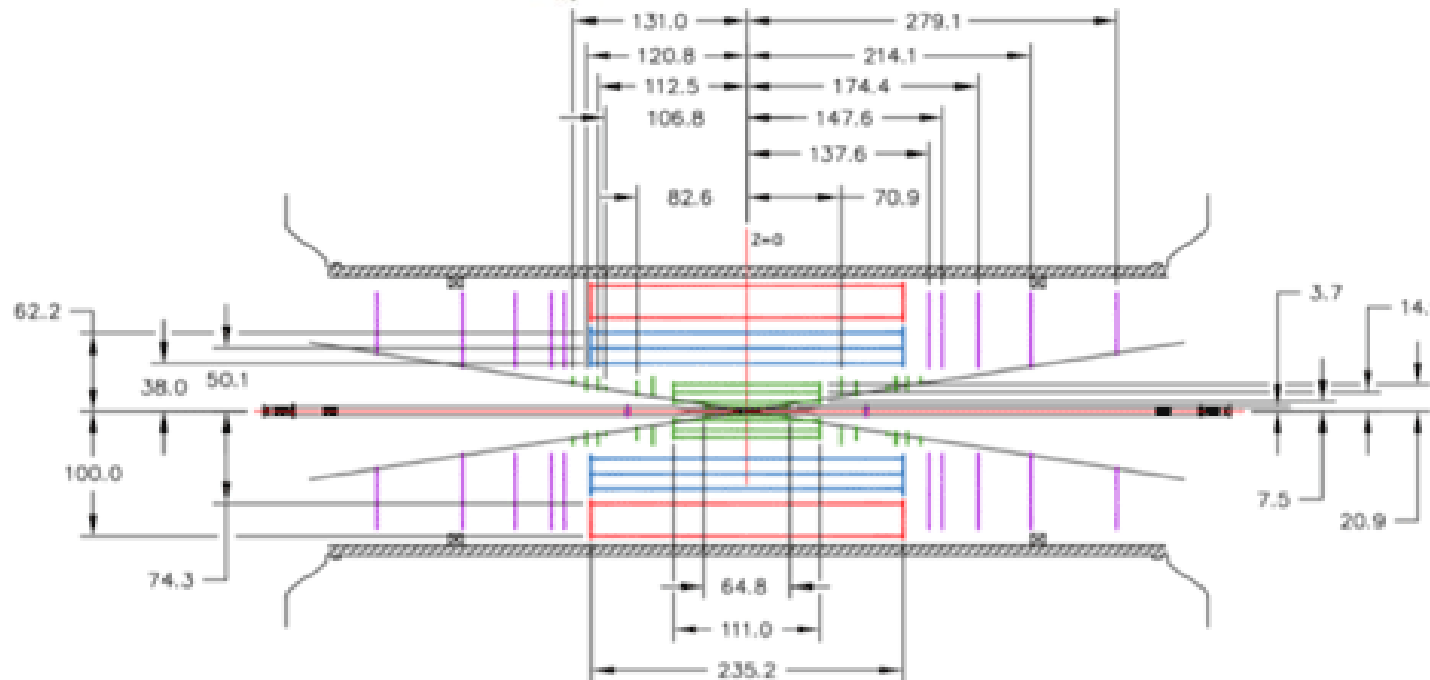
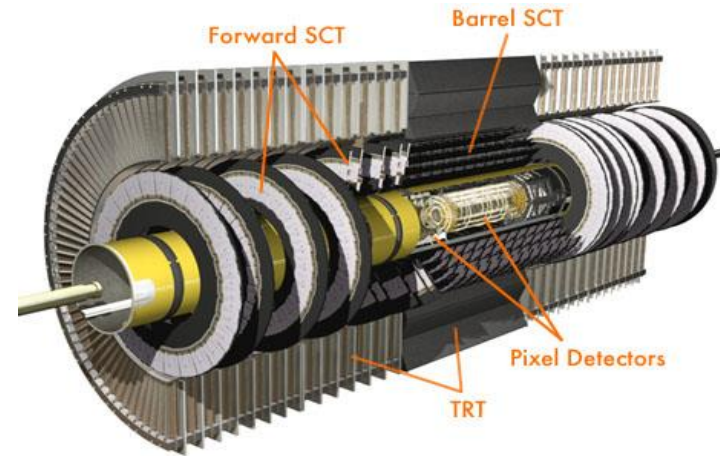
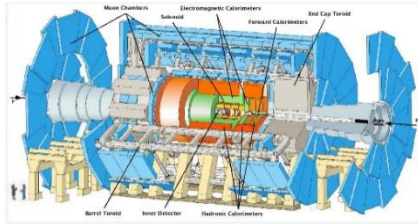
The light can be collected by **photo multipliers (PMTs), APDs or SiPMs**.

In another class of radiation detectors the radiation **ionizes the media** and an electric field separates the electrons and the ions. The media can be gaseous or liquid. Different media gives different performance.

In semiconductor detectors the radiation creates **electron-hole pairs** that are separated by the field over a p-n junction.



ATLAS inner detector



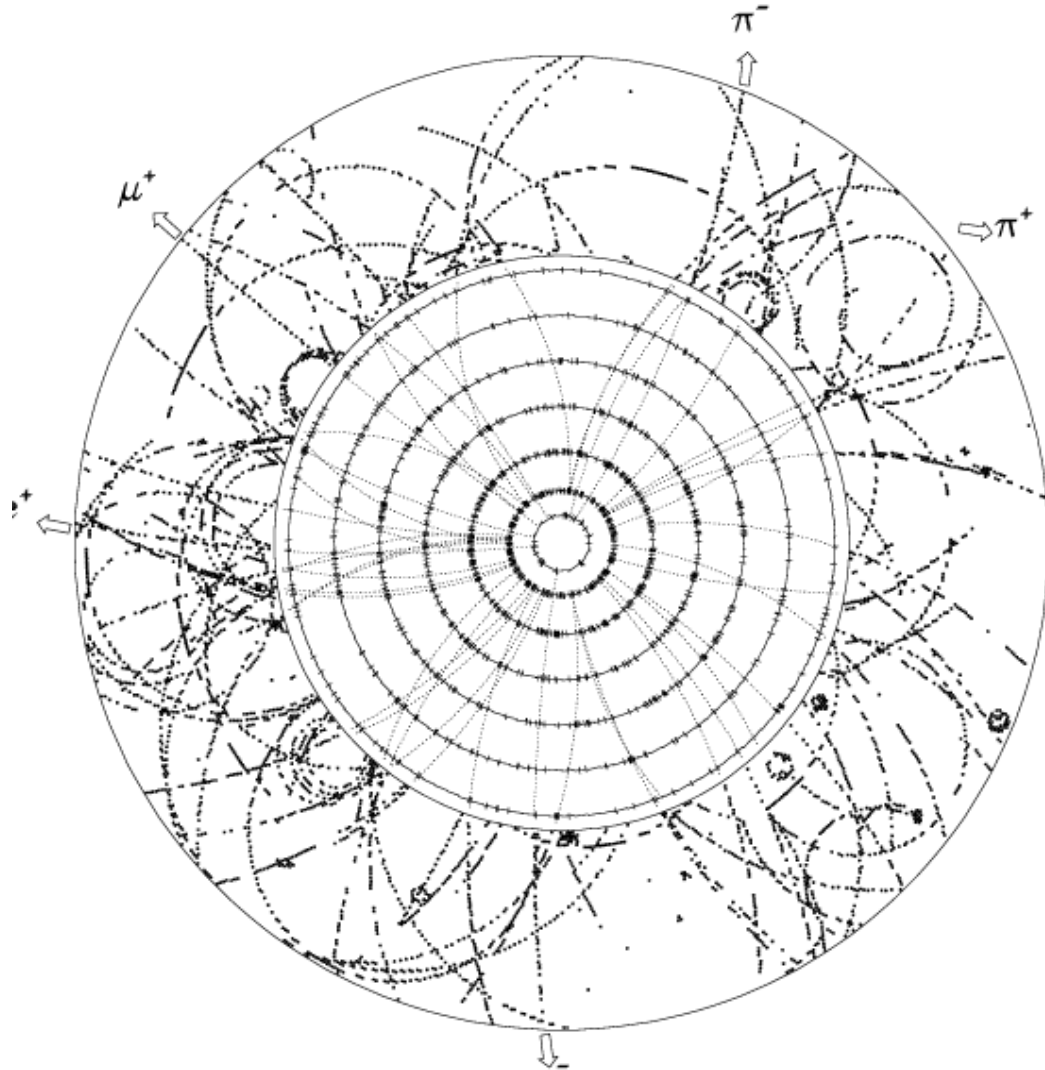
Magnetic field 2T
3 different detector types

Pixel detector 80 Mch
Silicon pad detector 2D resolution $12\ \mu \times 110\ \mu$

Semiconductor Tracker (SCT) 6 Mch
Silicon strip detector (1D)
Double layers Resolution $23\ \mu \times 800\ \mu$

Transition Radiation Tracker (TRT)
300kch
Gas detector – straw tubes
Electron identification

ATLAS inner detector



About 1000 particles

Magnetic field 2T
3 different detector types

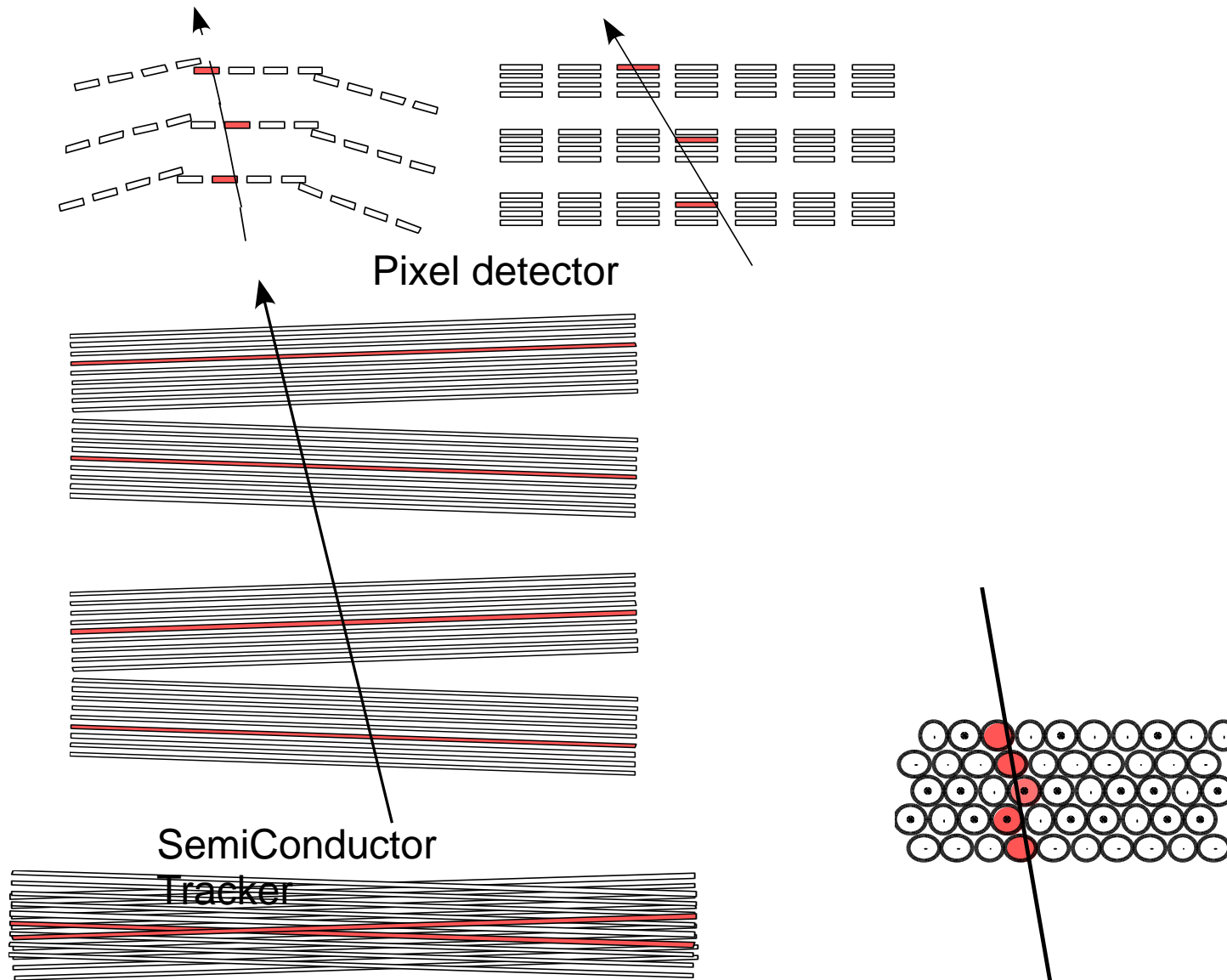
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Transition Radiation Tracker (TRT)
300kch
Gas detector – straw tubes
Electron identification

Pixel detector 3 sample points
Strip detector 4 sample points
TRT 36 sample points

ATLAS inner detector



Magnetic field 2T
3 different detector types

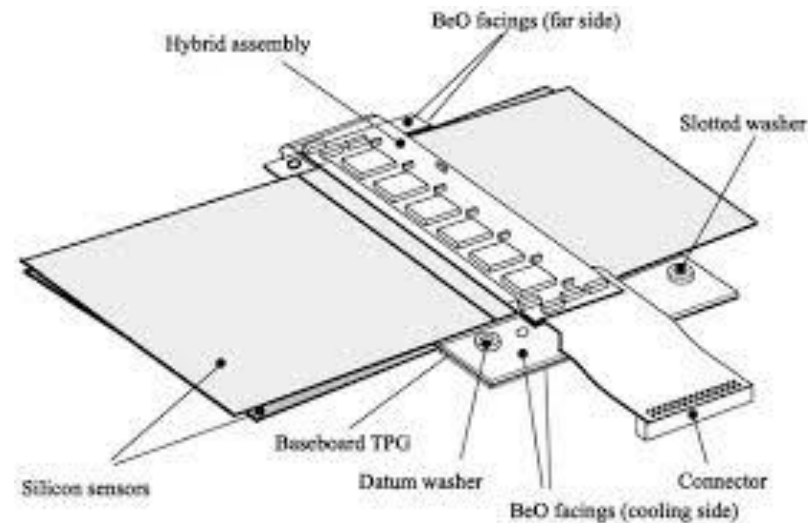
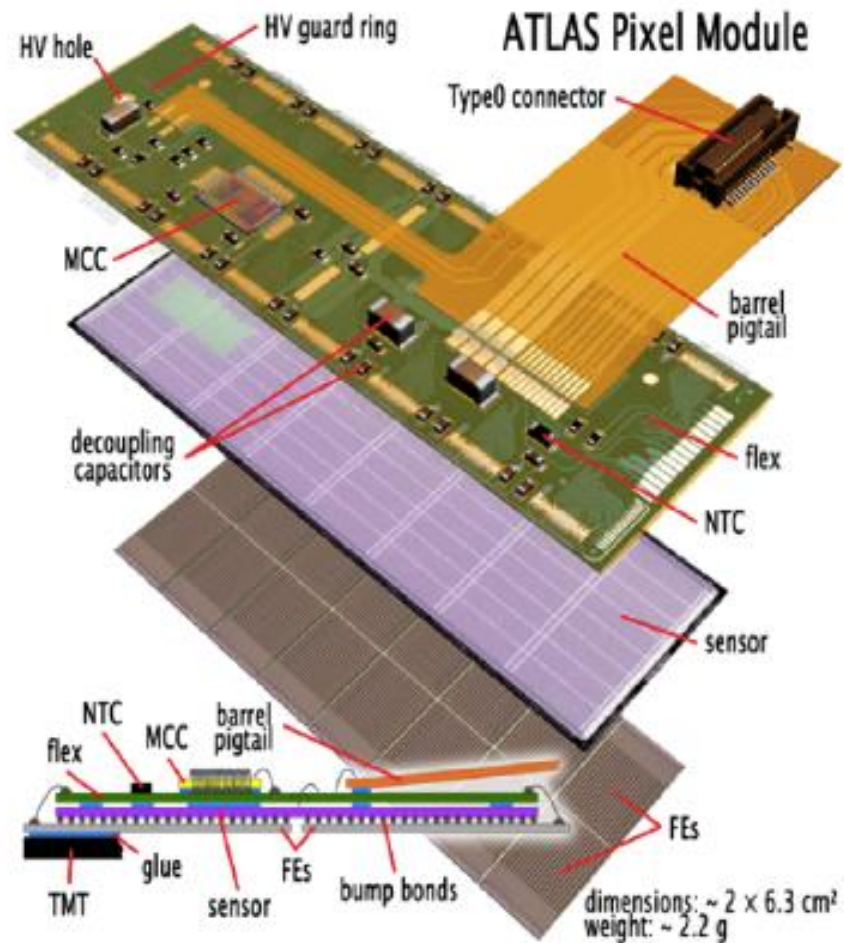
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Electron identification

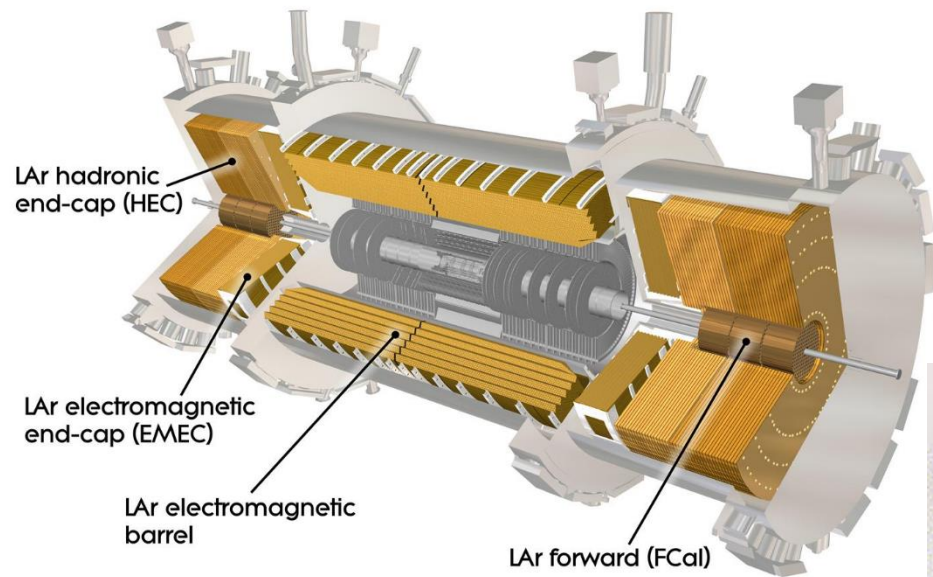
TRT

ATLAS inner detector



Radiation tolerance, power and cooling problematic

Liquid Argon e-m calorimeter

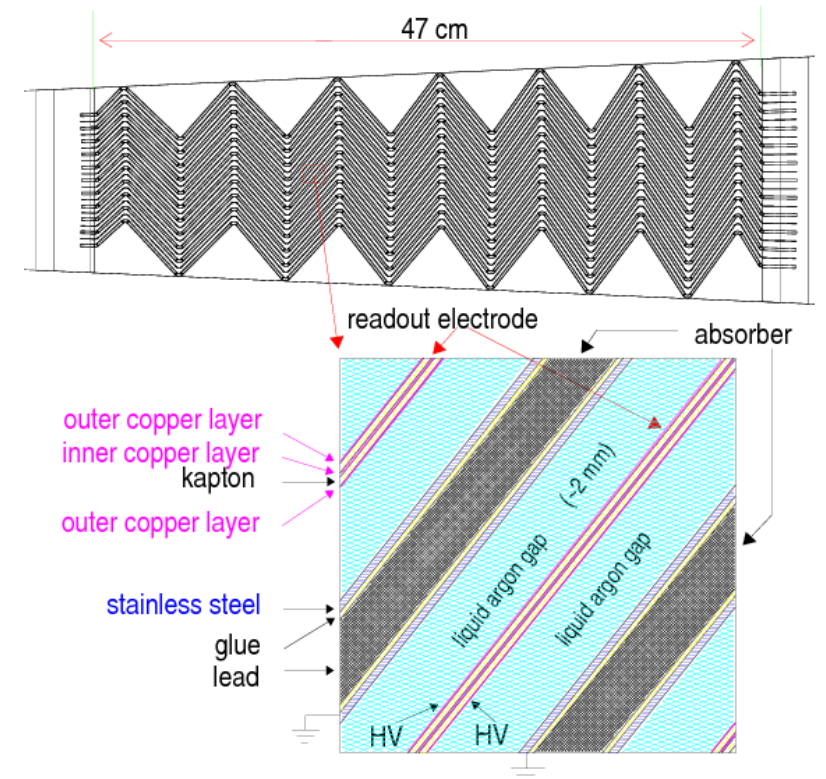
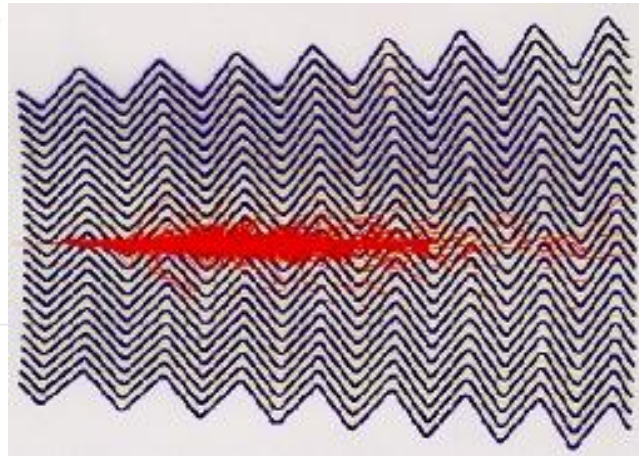
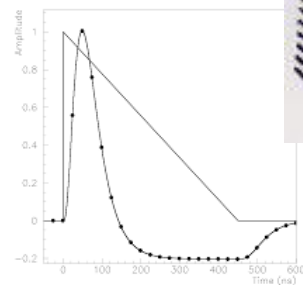


Liquid Argon-Lead/stainless steel calorimeter (87°K)

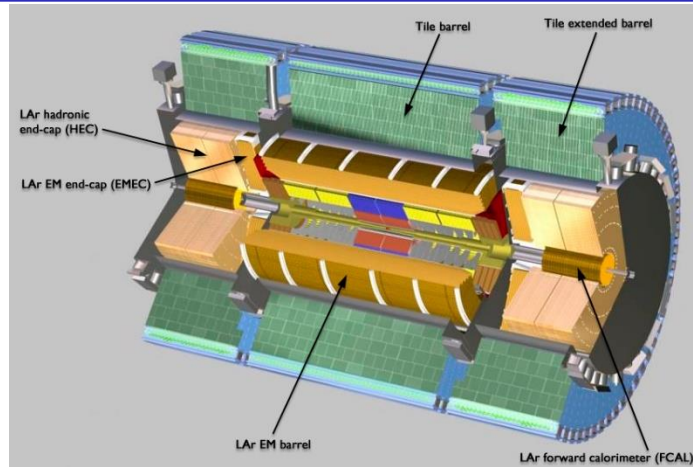
16-bit dynamic range

Cooled preamplifiers

4 layers + presampler



TileCal hadron calorimeter

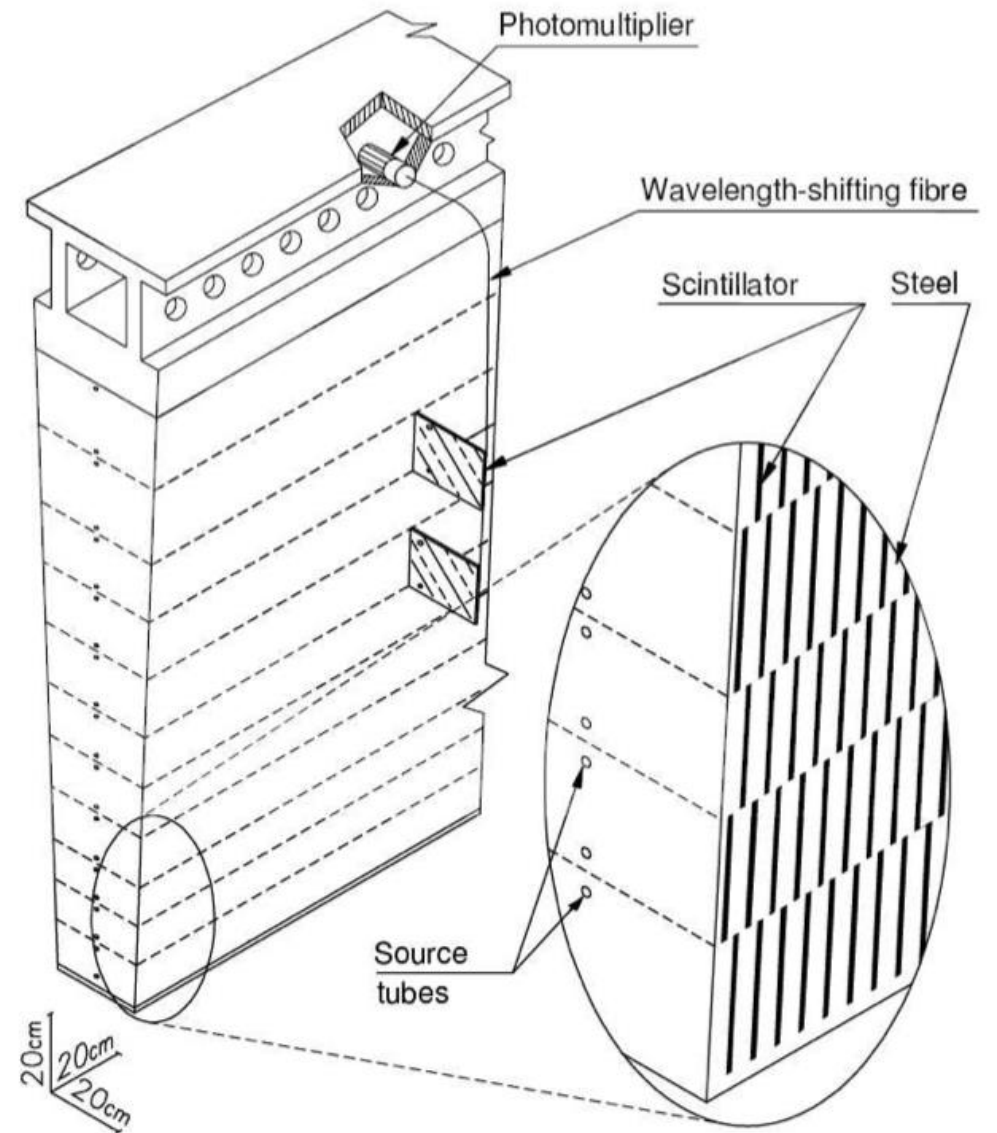
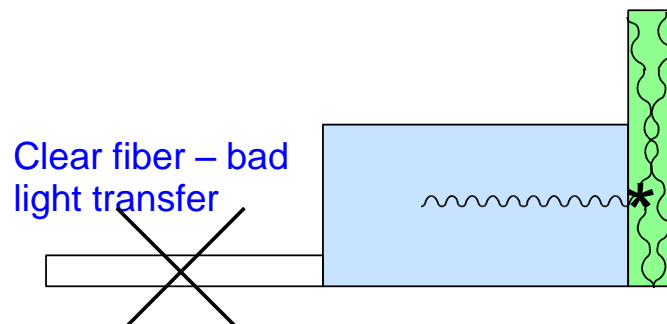


Interleaved steel and scintillator tiles

256 modules, each weighing 10 tons

4 depth layers

Coarse spatial but good amplitude resolution



The Muon Spectrometer

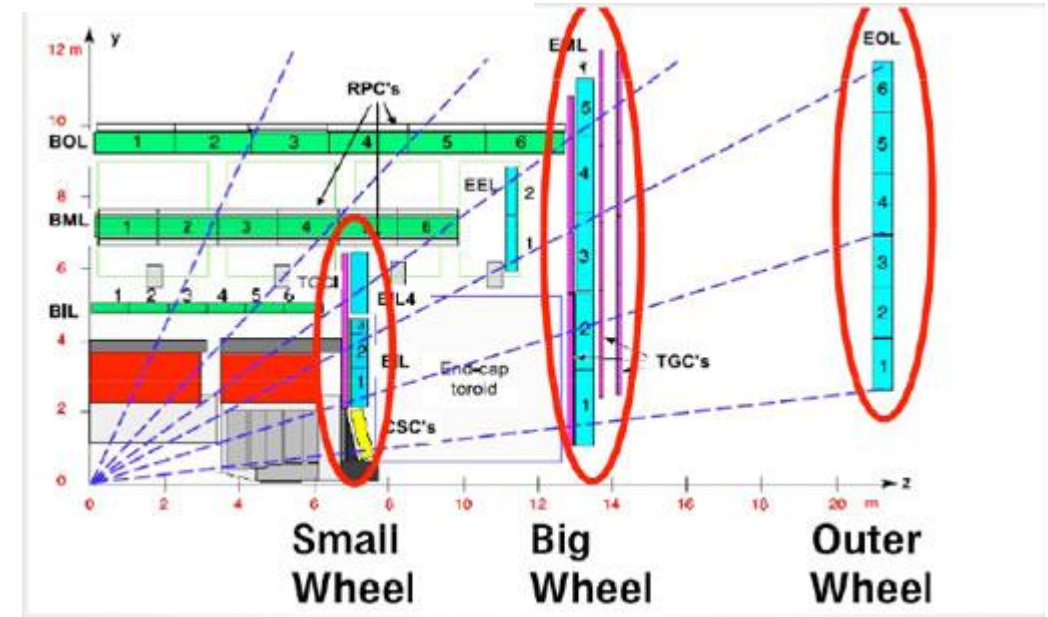
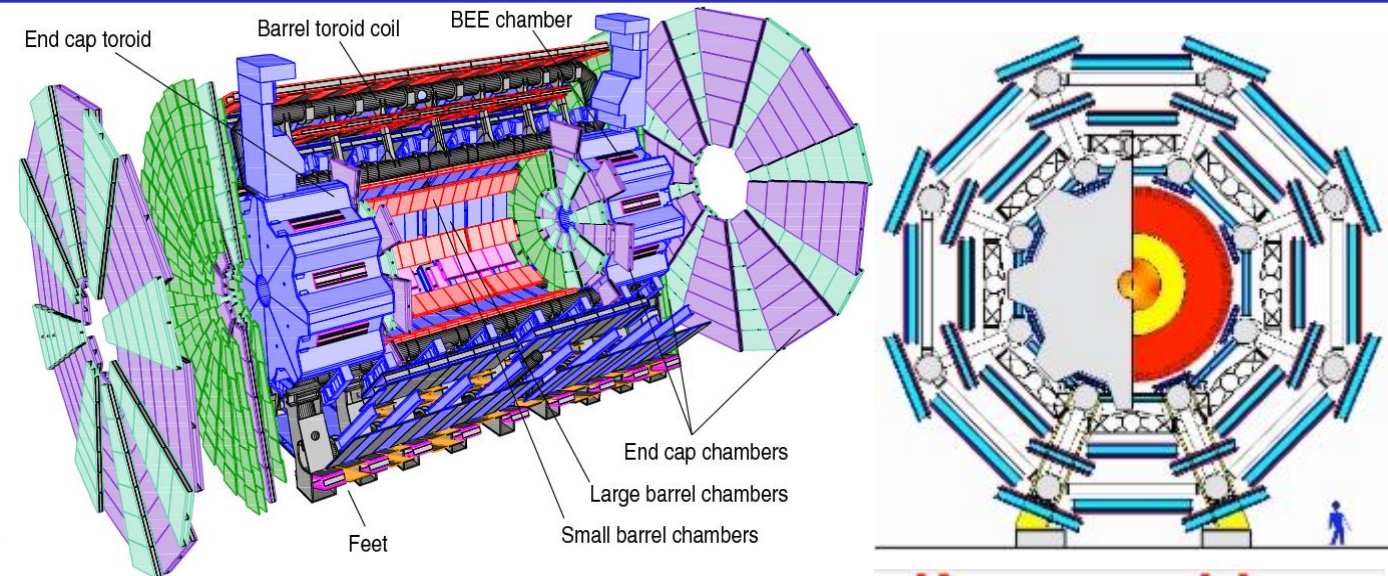
Geometrical alignment precision $30\ \mu\text{m}$

Alignment can change due to temperature change or deformations when the magnet field is changed

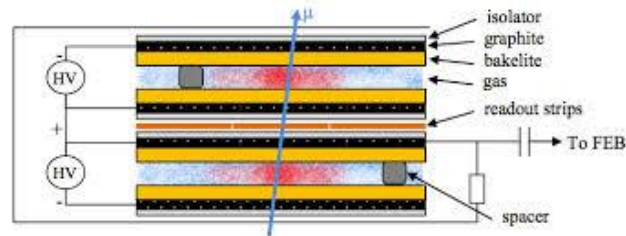
Cost → Use gas detectors, different types for precision and trigger and different types for normal and high intensity regions, close to beam pipe

MDT (Monitored Drift Tubes) and CSC (Cathode Strip Chambers) for high precision. CSC for high intensity forward regions

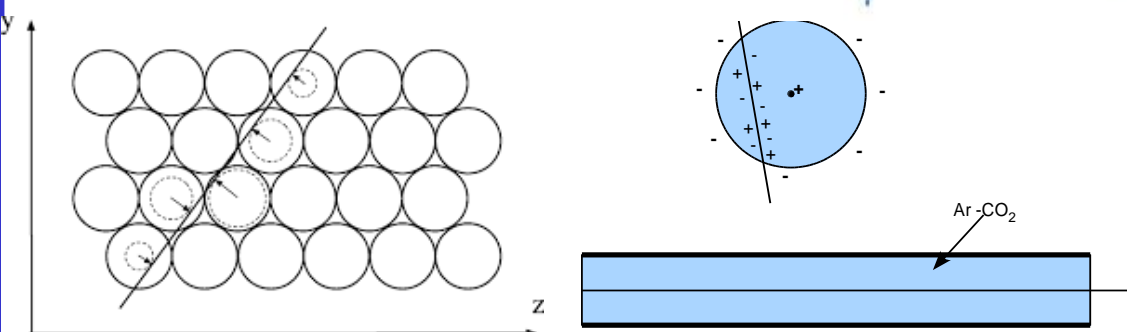
RPC (Resistive Plate Chambers) and TGC (Thin Gap Chambers) for trigger. TGC for high intensity regions.



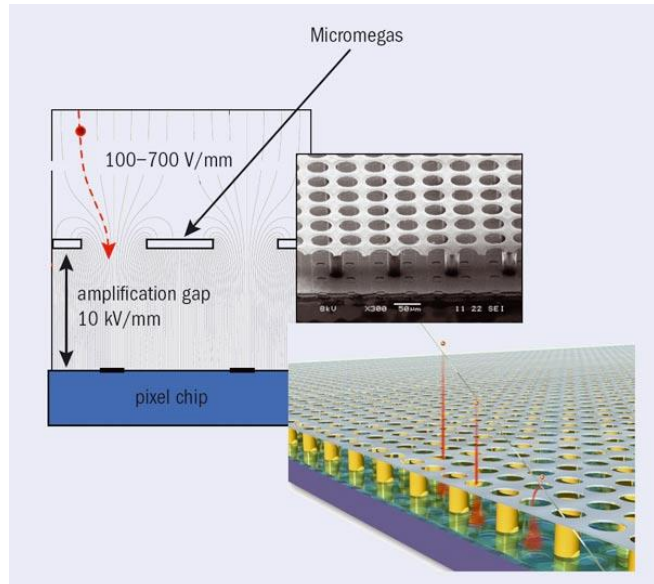
The Muon Spectrometer



RPC – Resistive Plate Chamber



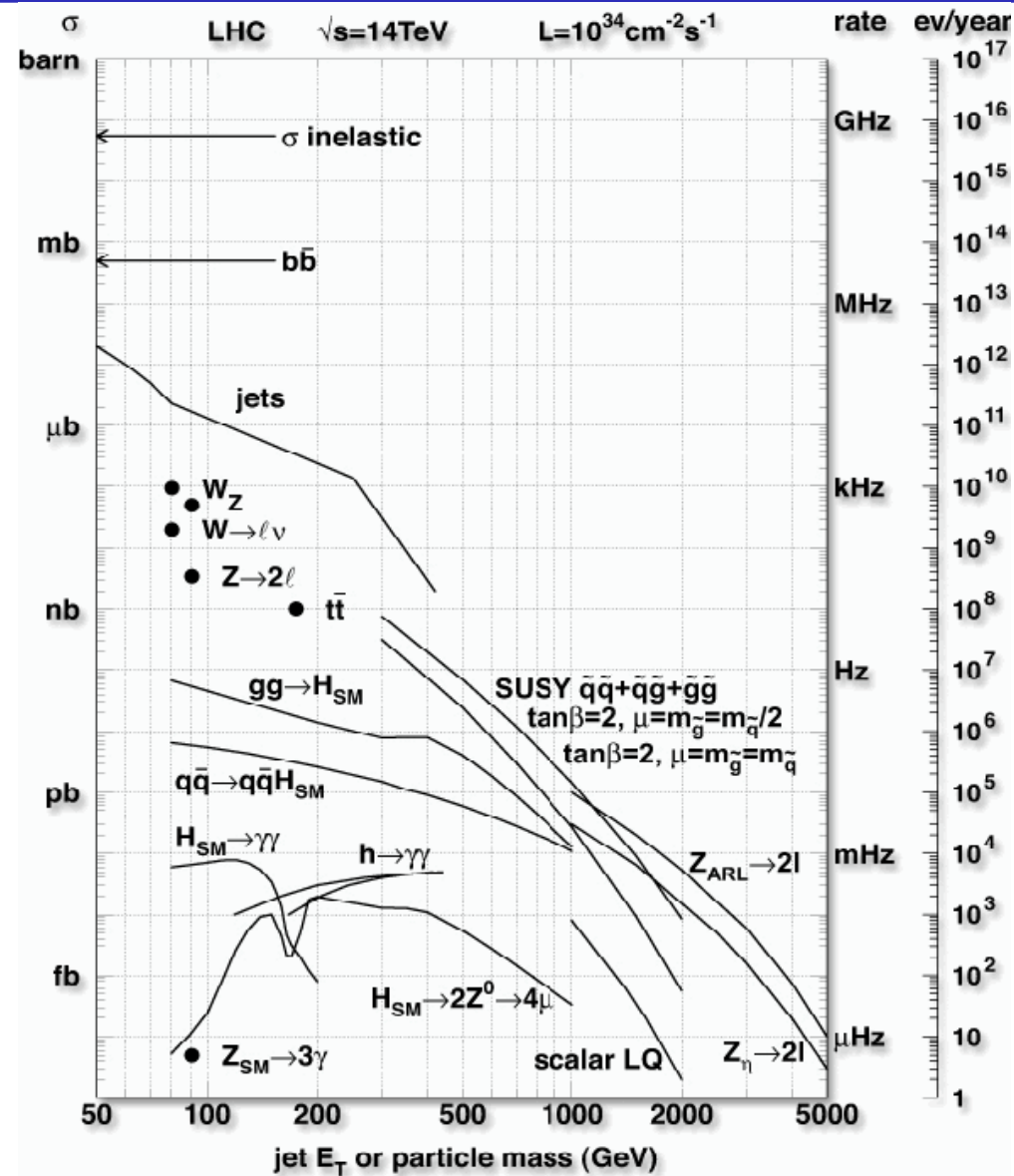
MDT – Monitored Drift Tubes



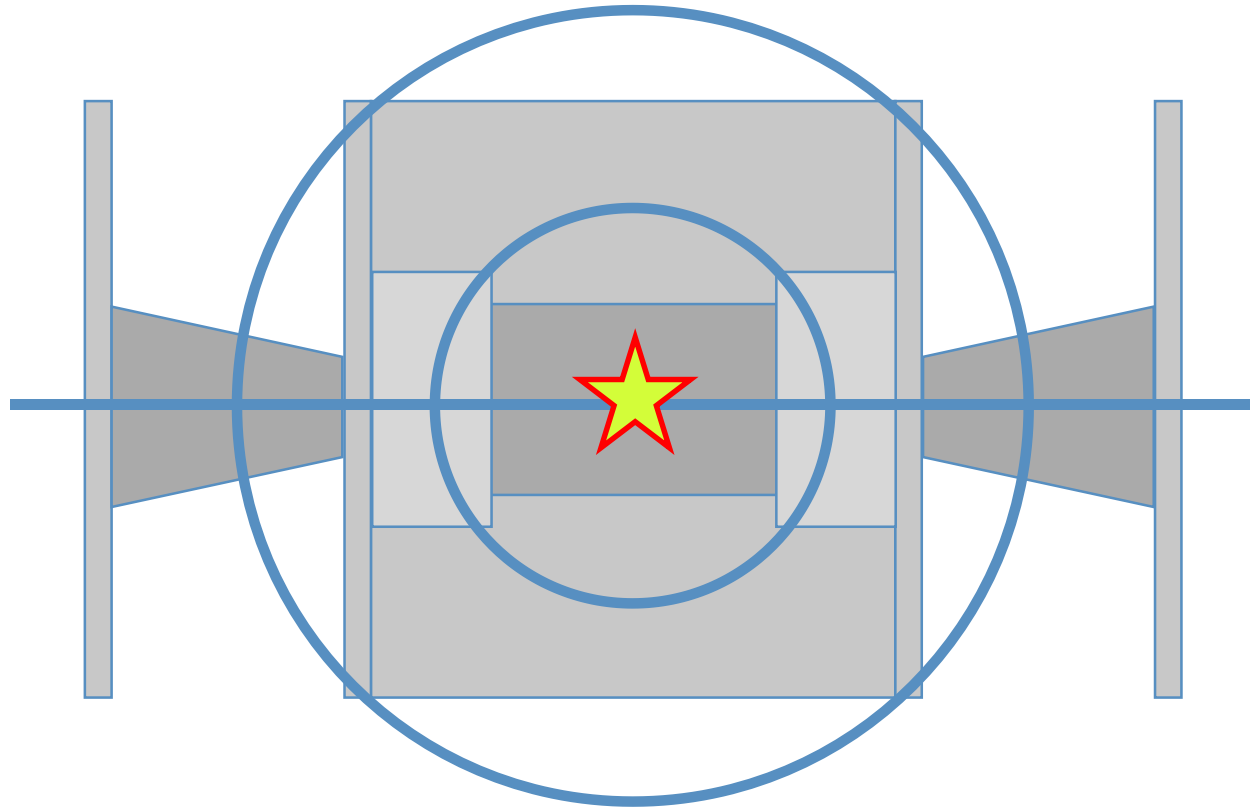
Micromegas for muon detector upgrade

Trigger and Data Acquisition (TDAQ)

20 event per BC at nominal luminosity



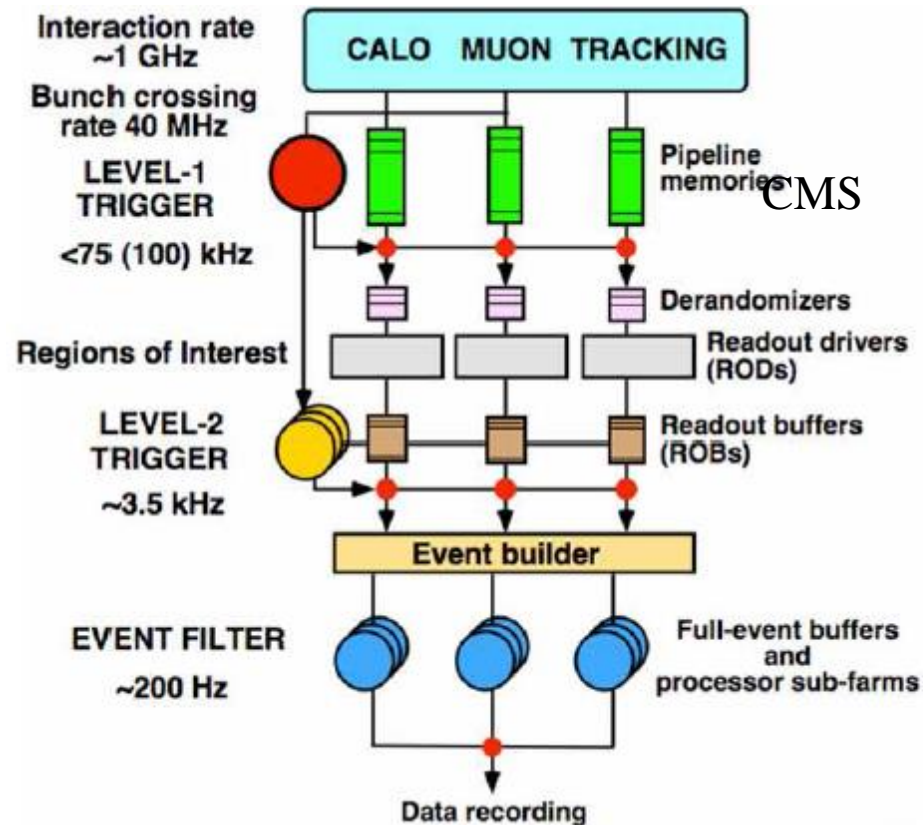
Data from Bunch crossings present



Local time reference for all detector elements so that relate to correct bunch crossing

Trigger and Data Acquisition (TDAQ)

Reading out all data, every bunch crossing, completely impossible 2008 - data transfer limitations
Solution -> use multilevel trigger – data storage limitations, radiation tolerance



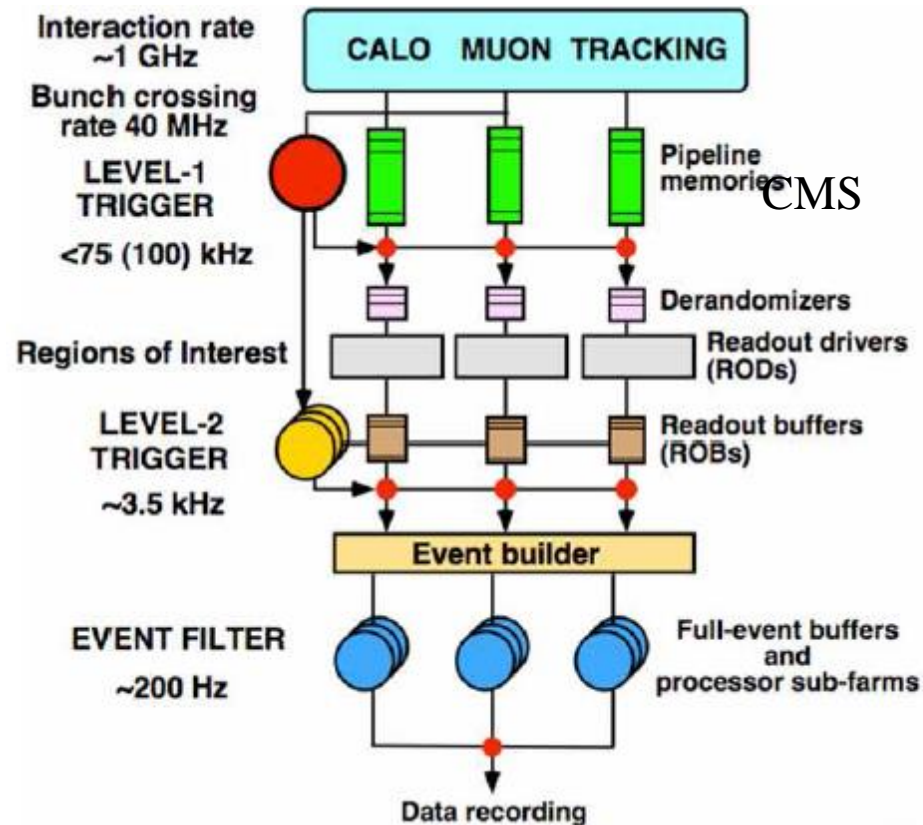
Trigger and Data Acquisition (TDAQ)

First level trigger – pipe-lined processing (in FPGAs) of merged calorimeter and muon data with reduced spatial and amplitude information - delivers Regions Of Interest

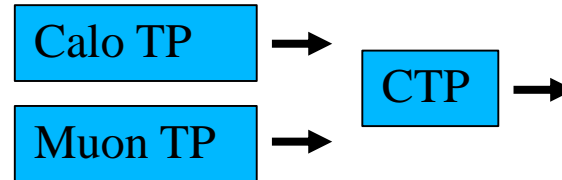
Second level trigger – PC based software processing full resolution data from all subdetectors but only from RIOs

Third level trigger – Event Builder – PC farm to on-line analyze all data at highest precision

A first selection criteria is to require large transverse energy components to guarantee a head-on collision



First level trigger



The Calorimeter trigger processor and the Muon trigger processor reports to the **Central Trigger Processor (CTP)**

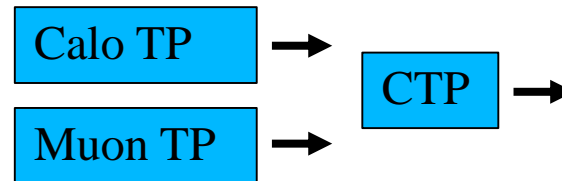
CTP looks for characteristic signatures in the data that indicates that the data contains an interesting event e.g.

- 4 isolated electrons or
- 4 muons or
- 2 high energy electrons over a certain threshold and 2 jets
- etc.

The search criteria are defined in the **Trigger Menu** data base

The current Trigger Menu selection is defined at the start of a run

First level trigger



All data can be stored on the detector for maximum $2.5 \mu\text{s}$ – the **latency** of the first level trigger

Before this, a decision must be made on saving or not saving that data

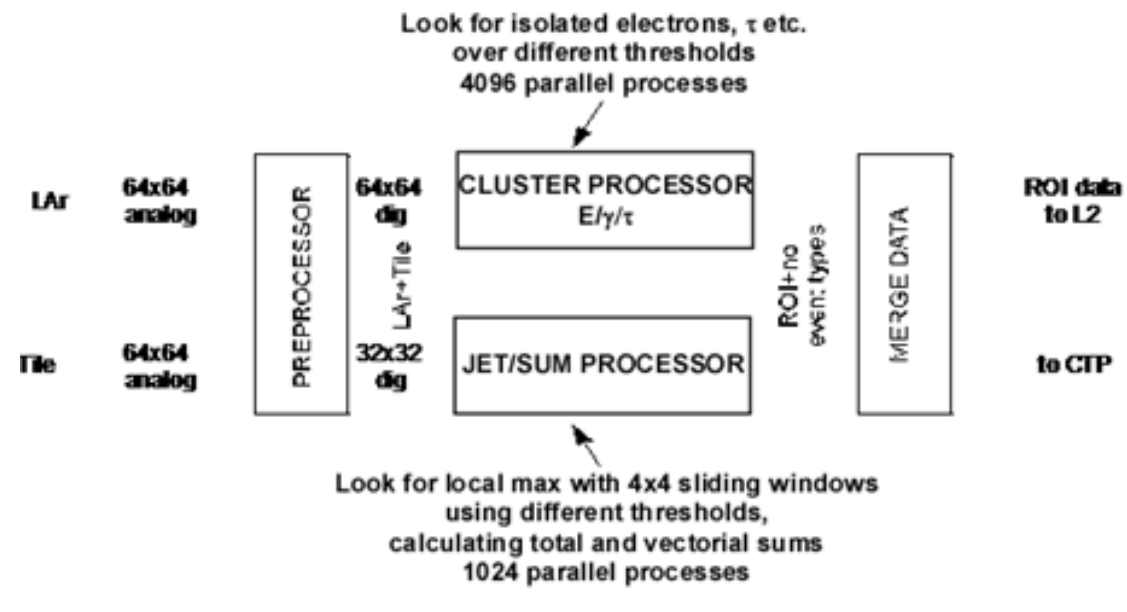
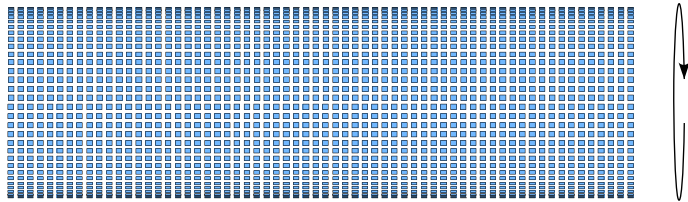
The specified data latency allows for sending the data from the detector to the trigger processor in USA-15 (Underground Storage Area), process it and send the result back to the detector for possible transmission of the entire data set.

First level trigger

Each bunch crossing, i.e. each 25ns

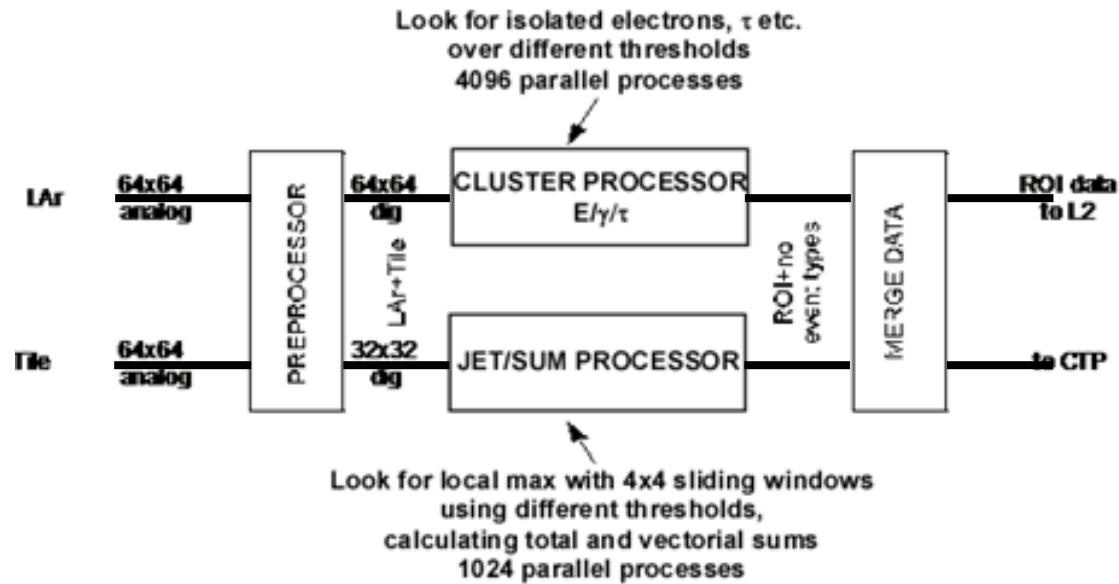
4096 trigger data values arrive from LAr and Tile

64 cell rows around the calorimeter cylinder and 64 cells in each row along the detector

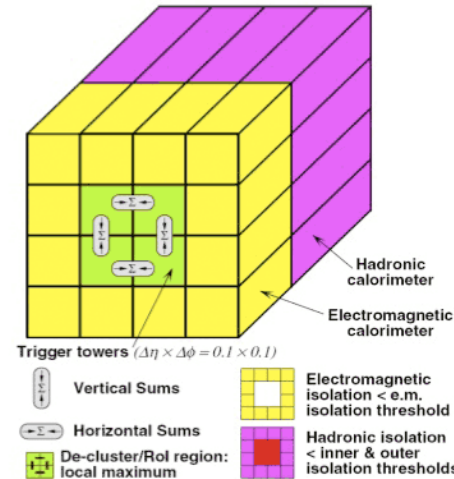


For each corresponding trigger cell one must study if it contained an interesting event
4096 parallel processes start every 25ns and should be completed within 1 μ s
FPGAs widely used together with pipelined processing

First level trigger

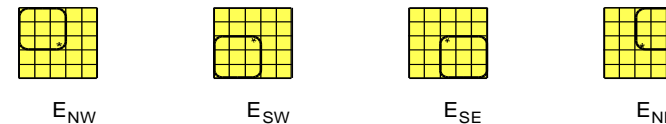
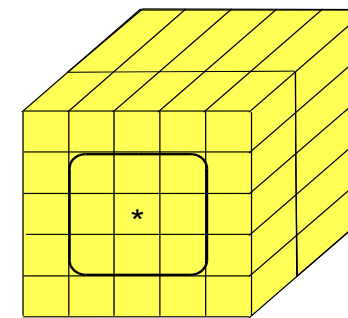


CLUSTER FINDING e/γ ALGORITHM



- For each cell and each set of thresh.
- Vert. SUM or Hor. SUM > thresh.
- Em isolation SUM < thresh.
- Had isolation SUM < thresh.

JET MAX ALGORITHM



Synchronization

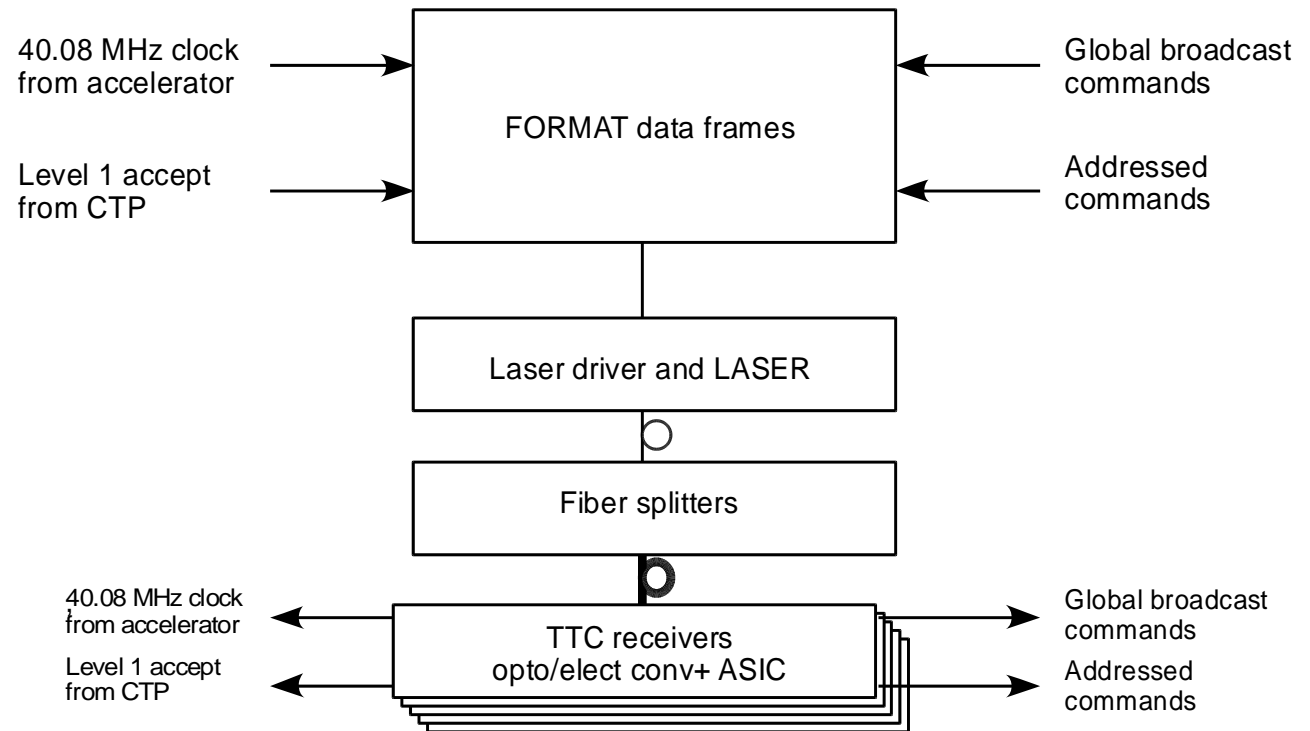
The Timing, Trigger and Control (TTC) system is responsible for synchronization

The accelerator clock 40.08 MHz distributed to all Front-End units with local phase control

L1A distributed to all FE-boards with programmable delay to maintain sync.

Addressed commands to configure local FE-boards

Maintains Bunch Crossing Identifier BCID to label events



Detector Control - DCS

The Detector Control System or Slow Control, as it was called before, is responsible for initializing and monitoring of all system components including configuring programmable logic (FPGAs).

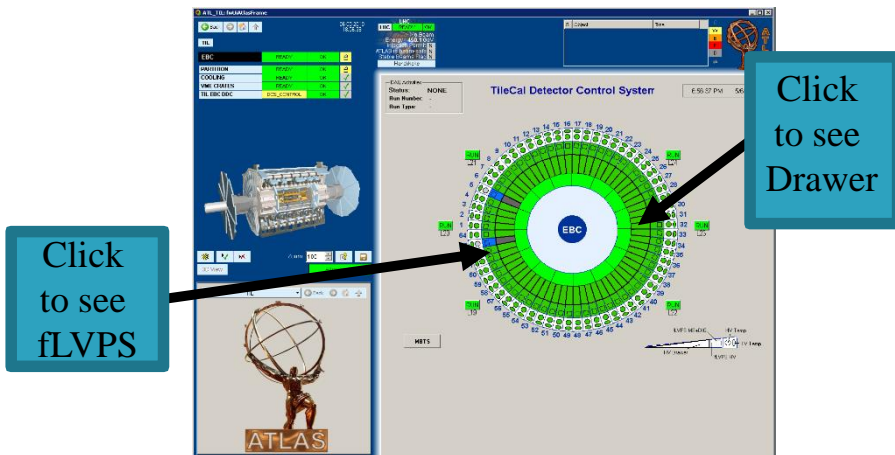
It will monitor parameters like temperatures, fan operation, pressures, voltages, currents, humidities, error conditions etc..

It is also responsible for safety functions and alarms

It records error conditions and archives monitored parameters

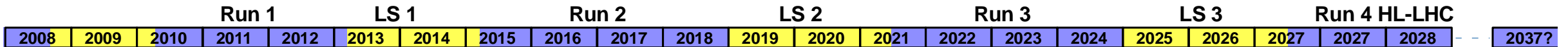
When supervising DCS it is important to have efficient and intuitive GUIs

ATLAS control room



ATLAS upgrades

LHC has yearly stops for minor repairs (end of year)
and regular stops for longer maintenance and upgrade, LS 1-

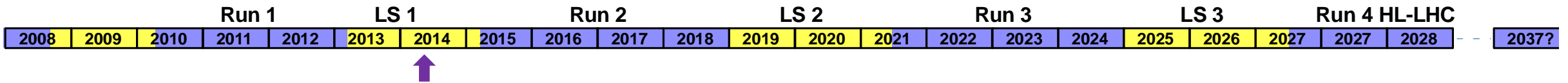


End of operation 2037?

Initial operation - Run 1
Reduced energy 6.5 TeV
Luminosity:

ATLAS upgrades

LHC has yearly stops for minor repairs (end of year)
and regular stops for longer maintenance and upgrade, LS 1-



End of operation 2037?

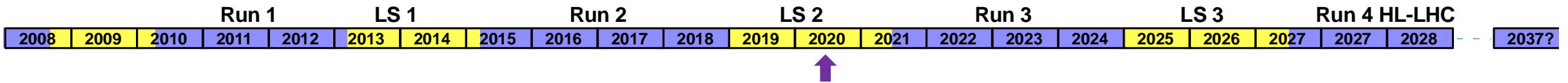
Upgrade phase 0 (LS1)

Prepare for almost full energy 13 TeV

Insertable B-layer (3.3 cm from beam center) – replaced the inner pixel layer

ATLAS upgrades

LHC has yearly stops for minor repairs (end of year)
and regular stops for longer maintenance and upgrade, LS 1-



End of operation 2037?

Upgrade phase 1 (LS 2) – 2019-2020

3 times higher luminosity, need better algorithms

Full energy 14 TeV

New Small Wheel? (at least one)

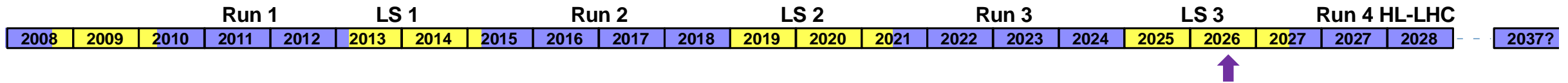
Topological trigger – not only count event but also consider their geometrical relationship

LAr fully digital trigger

New trigger architecture

ATLAS upgrades

LHC has yearly stops for minor repairs (end of year)
and regular stops for longer maintenance and upgrade, LS 1-



End of operation 2037?

Upgrade phase 2 (LS 3) – 2025-27

Prepare for HL-LHC (High Luminosity LHC)

5 times nominal instantaneous luminosity, need still better algorithms

10 times total luminosity – luminosity leveling

New Trigger system – level 0 (L0a: 1MHz, Latency: 6 μ s) (level 1

(L1a:<400kHz, Latency: <30 μ s))?

New inner detector – no TRT, track trigger (introducing track data into Level 1)?

New TileCal electronics – read out all data to USA-15 – fully digital trigger

New trigger architecture L0/L1?, higher rates, longer latencies

Track trigger?

Different electronic design strategies

When designing the first (present) version of the ATLAS electronics then:

- Special rad hard (tolerant) electronics was available (close to end of cold war)

- High speed data transmission (optical or electrical) expensive →

Send reduced trigger data to external L1 trigger processor. Keep data on detector until L1 accepted – reduced data flow

Now:

- standard electronics reasonably radiation tolerant – SEE problem

- High speed transmission available →

Remove all data from detector as soon as possible

Then:

- FPGAs unsafe

Now:

- SEE mitigation techniques exist making on-detector FPGAs feasible

Mistakes

We learn from mistakes but some times we forget what we learned'

Connector problems

Power supply problems

Radiation sensitivity problems

Problems with new untested techniques

Future

General trends

Higher energies

Higher luminosity

Higher granularity in all detector sub-systems

More complicated events to process early in the triggers

More on-detector FPGAs – new FPGAs more radiation tolerant to hard but not soft errors – develop correction strategies for soft errors

More high speed data transmission – 40 Gb/s or more

Early digitization – less analog, more digital

After 2037: ILC? CLIC? FCC



Future Circular Collider

FCC

50+50TeV

First $e^+ - e^-$ later $p - p$

100 km circumference

Assumes new magnet technologies

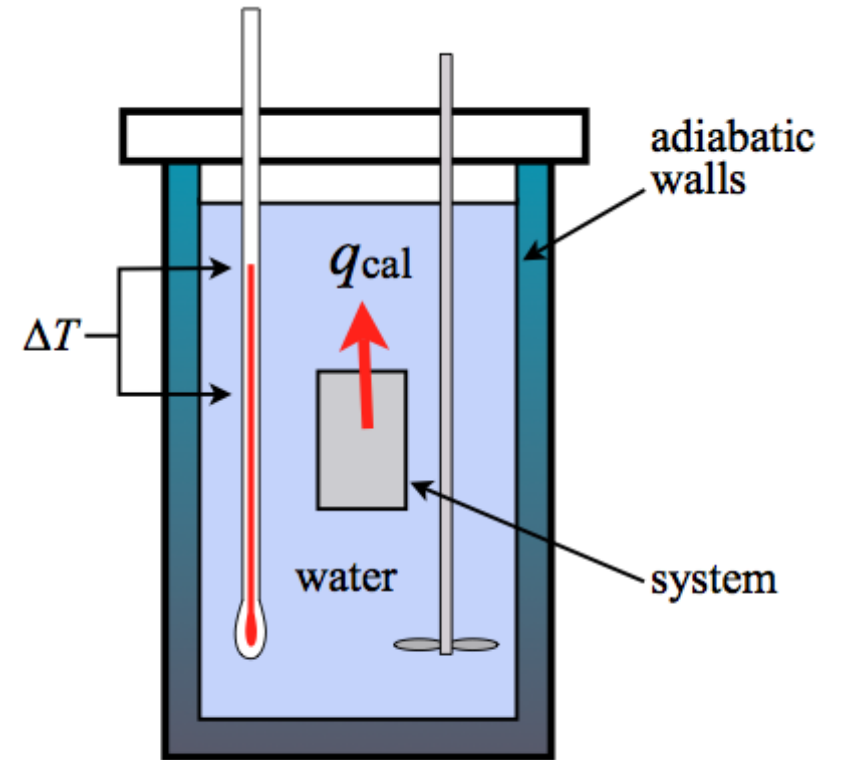
(20 TeV magnets)

Kick off for Conceptual Design Report Nov 9

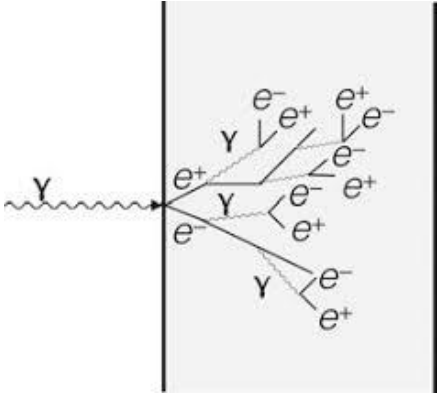
BUT THIS IS FOR YOU!

Calorimeters

This is a classical calorimeter used by chemists
Its task is to measure all the heat dissipated by the system
under study



Calorimeters



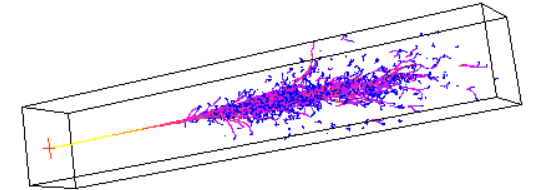
A particle physics calorimeter is supposed to contain all radiation of a certain type and estimate its energy and preferably also its trajectory

A calorimeter can be composed of a crystal or a combination of absorber and scintillator

If the incoming particle with the energy E is showered into n particles with similar energy, the total energy should be proportional to n and its standard deviation σ_E proportional to \sqrt{E} , i.e.

$$\sigma_E/E \text{ proportional to } E^{-1/2}$$

This assumes that the resolution is only statistics dependent.



A simulated shower

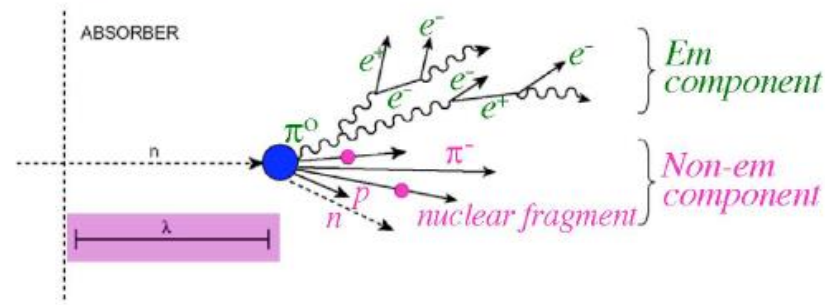
Calorimeters

EM calorimeters and hadron calorimeters are optimized differently

Fluctuations in a hadron calorimeter deviates from $E^{-1/2}$

A hadronic shower consist of two parts, e and h

- **Electromagnetic component**
 - electrons, photons
 - neutral pions $\rightarrow 2 \gamma$
- **Hadronic (non-em) component**
 - charged hadrons π^\pm, K^\pm
 - nuclear fragments, p
 - neutrons, neutrino's, soft γ 's
 - break-up of nuclei ("invisible")



The “break-up of nuclei” contribution is lost to the signal

A hadron calorimeter can be characterized by the e/h ratio

$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus b \oplus c/E$$

a stochastic term
number of shower
Particles

b constant term and
inhomogenities
non-linearities

c noise term
electronic
noise

Calorimeters

Two main types of calorimeters

Homogeneous

Crystal or liquid

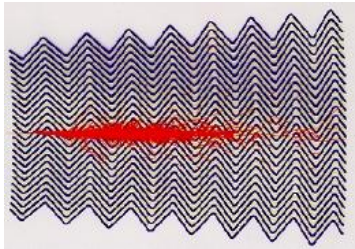
Sampling

Interleaved absorbers and scintillators

High Z values good for EM Au and W have been used

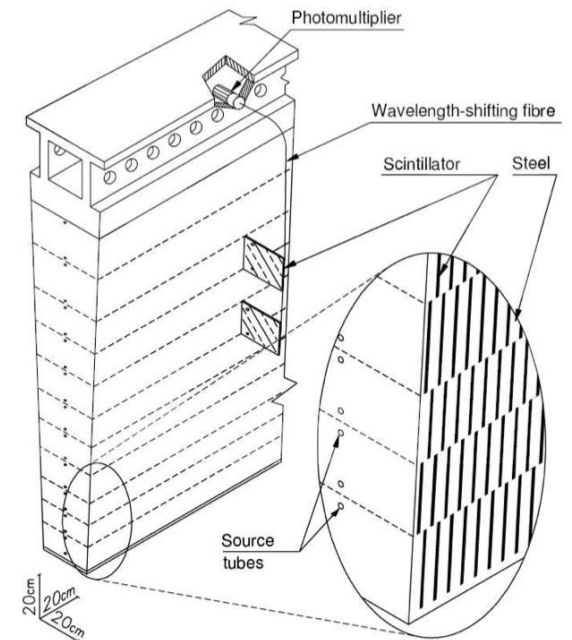
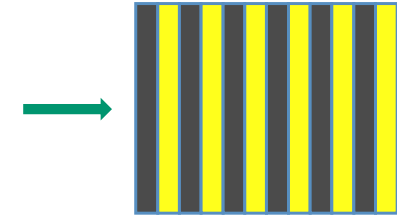
CMS ECAL is homogeneous and CMS HCAL of sampling type

ATLAS Lar and TileCal are both of sampling type



Lar: Ar (liq)+Pb

To understand the calorimeter response require multiple test beam tests



TileCal: Steel+plastic scintillator

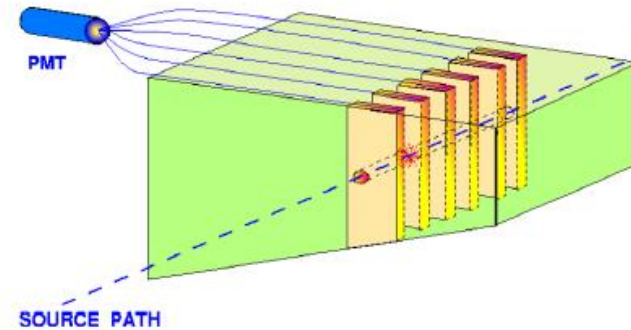
Calibration - problem for TileCal

Scintillators and fibers age due to radiation

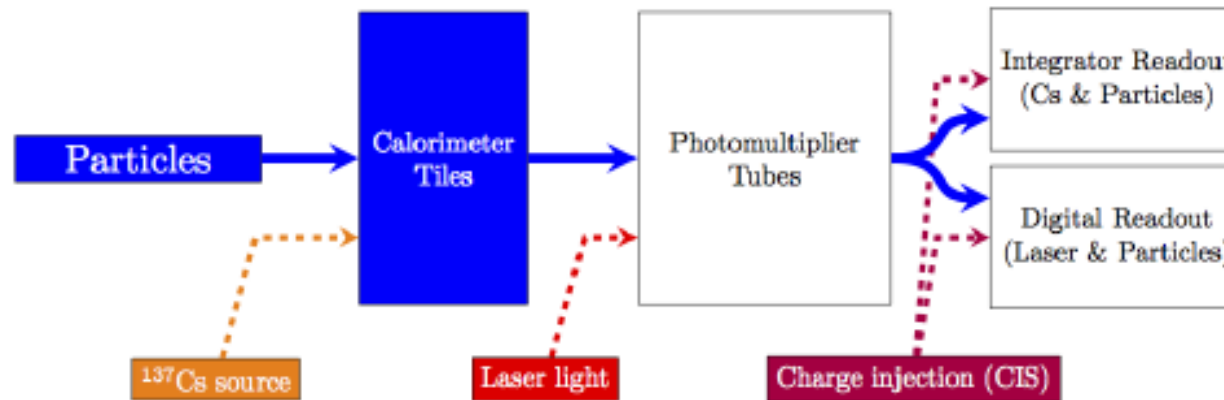
PMTs age when exposed to light

Three calibration methods:

- Cesium calibration – with circulating sources
- Laser calibration – with clear fibers
- Charge injection – in FEB



Performed often sometimes in gaps during measurements



Ref:
Richard Wigmans

TDAQ

Trigger and Data Acquisition

TDAQ tasks:

- Read out data from the detectors (**Readout**)

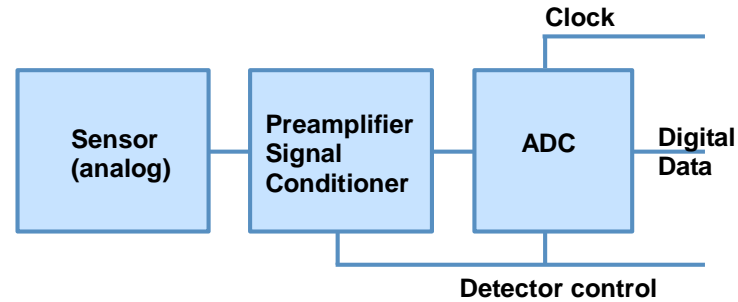
- Collect complete events (**Event Building**)

- Keep some typical uninteresting events for further analysis

- Stores event data (**Data logging**)

- Provides control, configuration and monitoring facilities (**Detector Control System, DCS**)

Front-End modules



Most detector systems perform the digitization inside the front-end unit

Preamplifier needed to amplify weak sensor signals

The signal conditioner will shape the signal to improve signal/noise ratio

Low pass filter

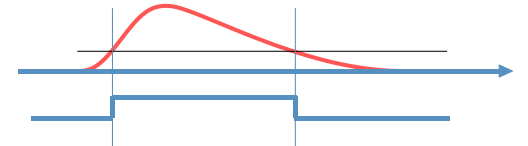
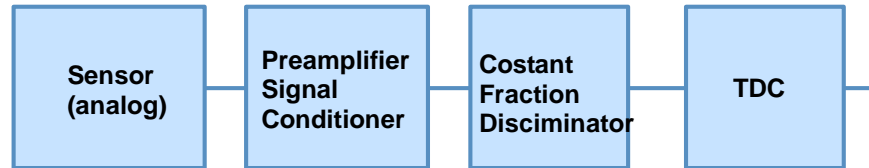
If a large dynamic range is desired the signal can be duplicated with different amplifications

The ADC will sample the signal at a suitable rate depending on the frequency range of the signal.

Nyquist sampling rate

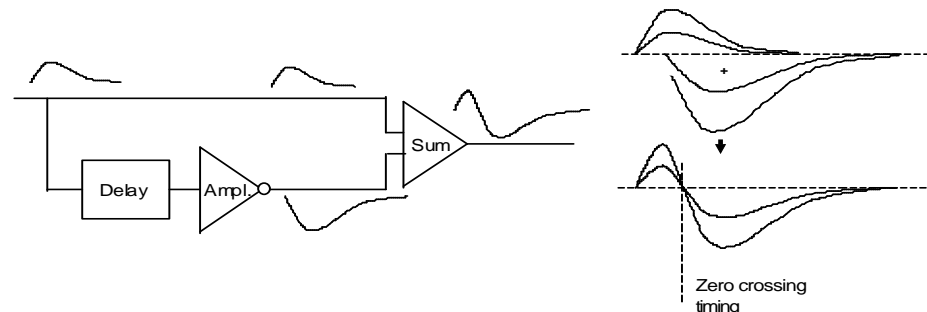
Detector control is needed to program and calibrate the front end modules

Front-End modules

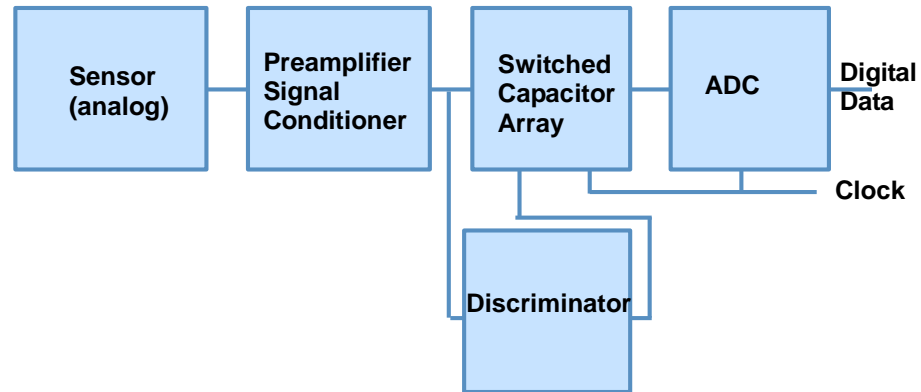


Instead of ADC a TOT, Time Over Threshold, circuit can be used if it is combined with a TDC, Time to Digital Converter. There is a non-linear relation between TOT and the amplitude.

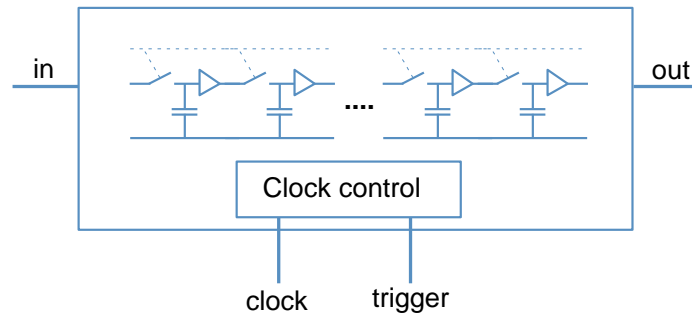
This solution is suitable to use in combination with integrated circuits, i.e. ASICs or FPGAs



Front-End modules



A wave form sampler can be used in the front-end which stores the samples in a switched capacitor array. Capable of multi Gbps sample rates
A trigger signal reduces the internal clock rate so that the samples can be read out in a standard ADC
Also called transient recorder



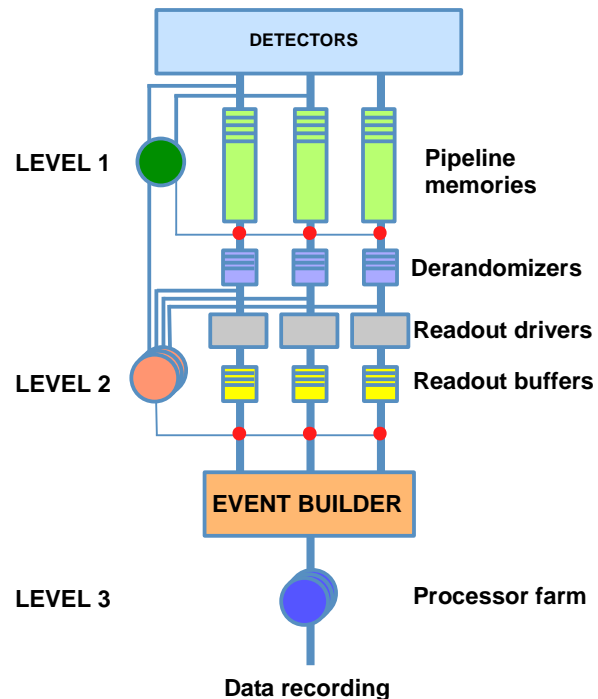
Trigger

Problem: How to extract meaning full information from $\sim 10^8$ channels and store it without exceeding the storage capacity

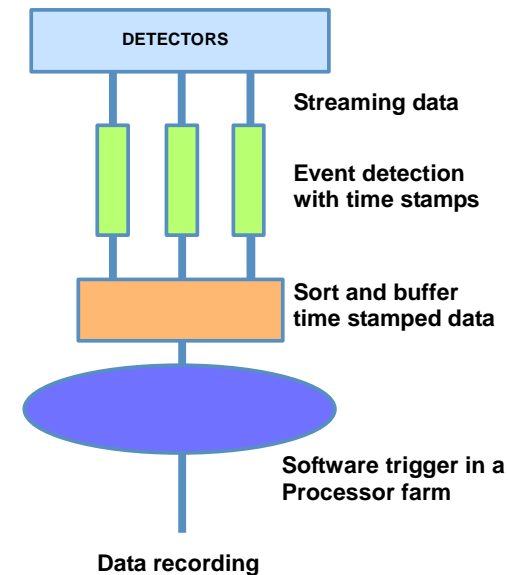
How to reduce data without losing important data

Data Reduction – two different strategies

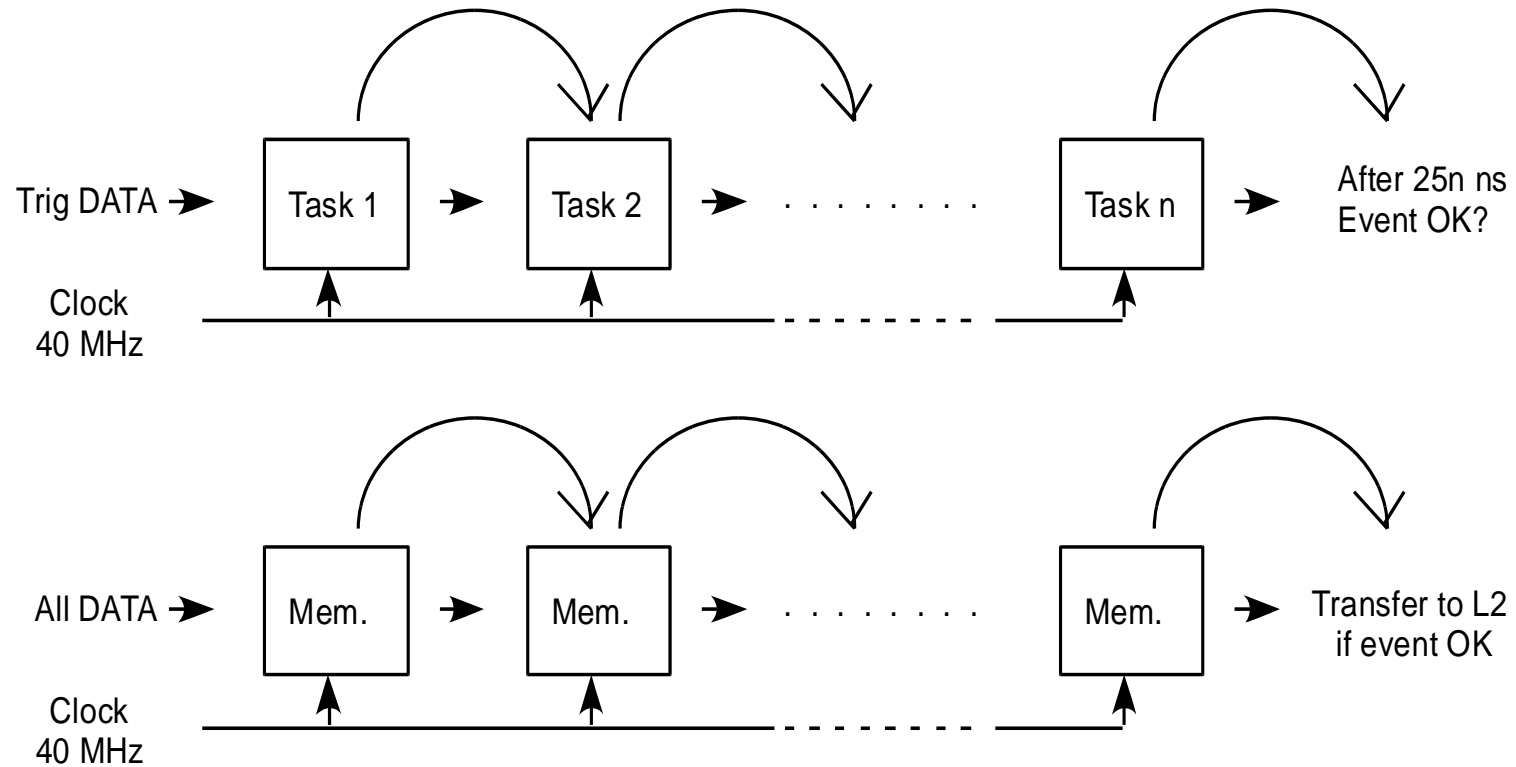
Traditional DAQ



Self triggered DAQ

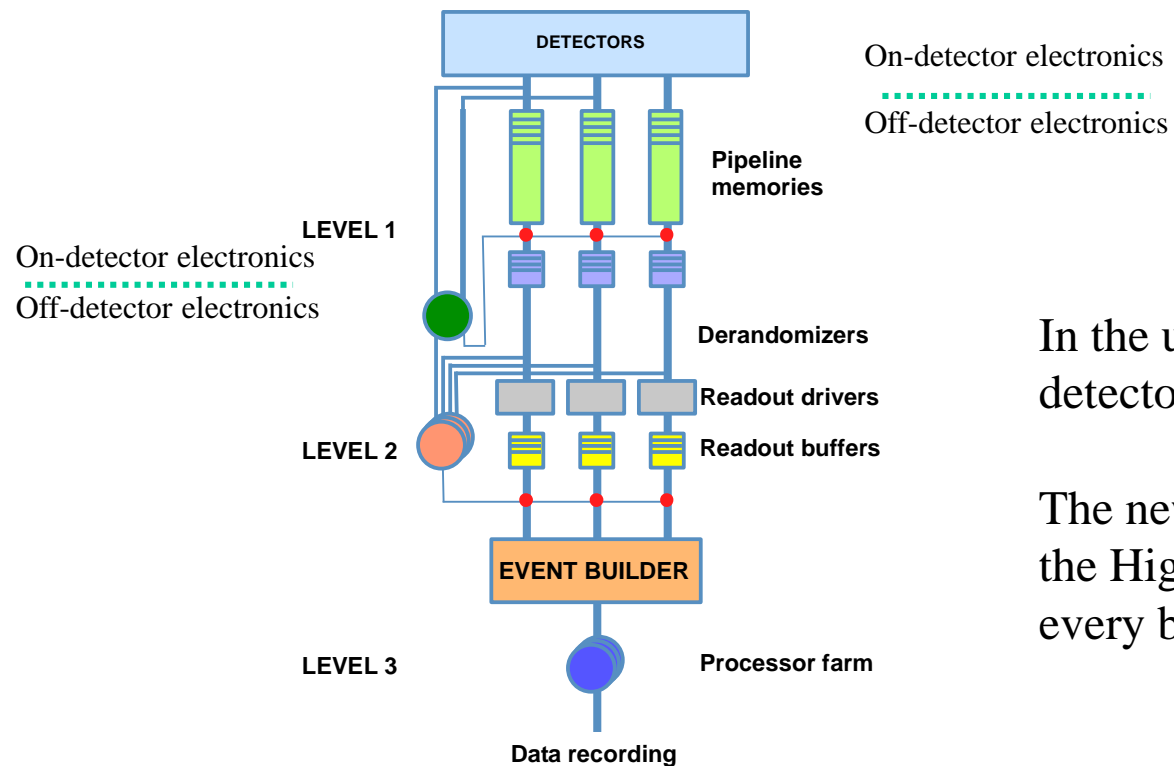


Pipelined Processing



On/off-detector Processing

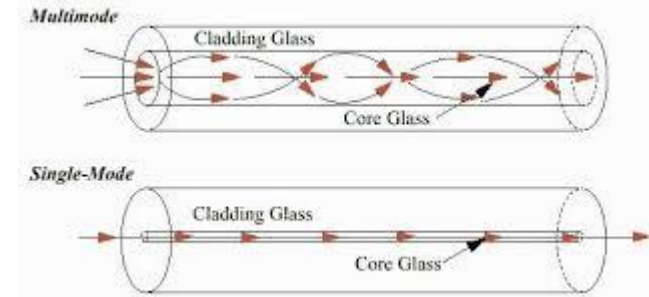
In the original ATLAS electronics high band width communication was expensive -> Send reduced (amplitude and granularity data) trigger data to off detector LEVEL 1 Trigger processor. The decision is sent back to the detector.



In the upgraded system digitized data is sent off detector without delay.

The new strategy is necessary to cope with the needs of the High-luminosity LHC and its 200 collision event at every bunch crossing.

Optical communication



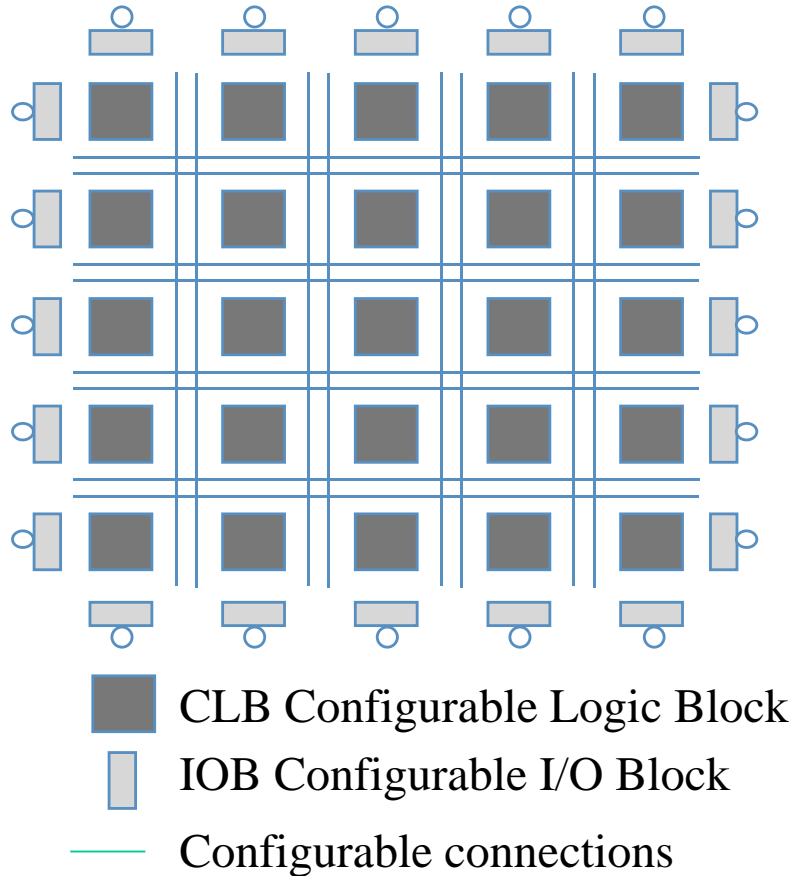
Optical communication has become much cheaper. Fiber links carrying 10 Gbps is practical over 100 m distances.

2 alternatives:

Single mode fibers -> Cheap fibers, more expensive optical transmitter and receivers.
Low signal losses

Multimode fibers -> More expensive fibers, less expensive transmitter and receivers.
Larger signal losses in the fibers, but better high multiplicity optical connectors

FPGA



Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) has become a standard component when building Data Acquisition and logic systems in general.

The programming is stored in a adjacent memory.

This memory can be volatile or fixed. Volatile memories must be programmed at every start up.

State-of-the-art FPGAs can have up to thousands of CLBs, IOBs , DSP slices and 100ds of Mb on-chip memories

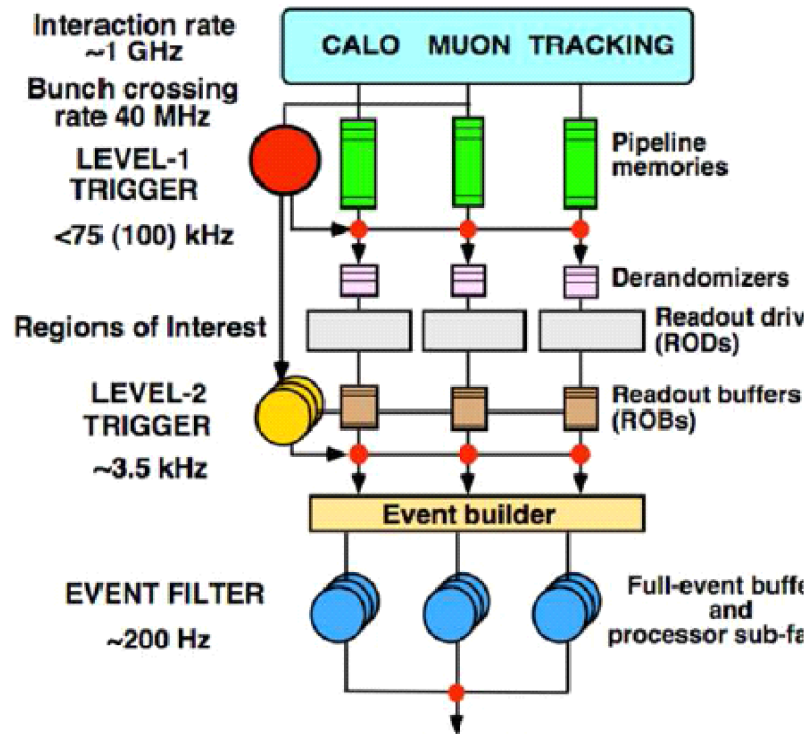
Also many 32 or 58 Gbps high speed connections and on-chip processors etc etc.

Anything is possible... almost

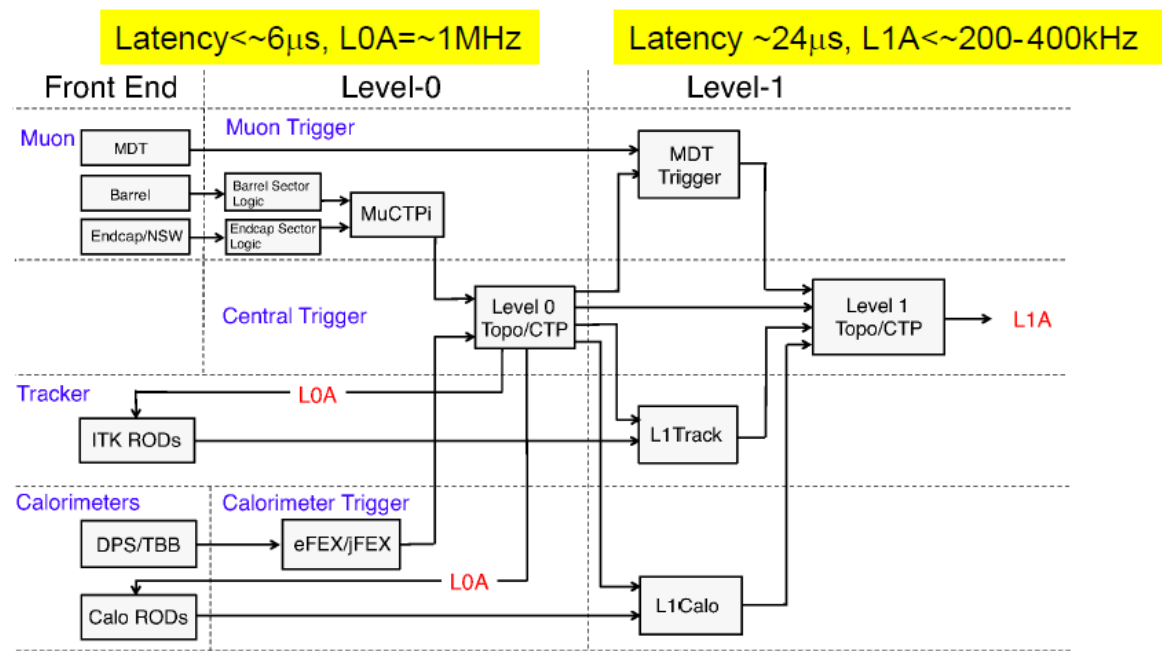
But high performance costs

ATLAS Phase-II TDAQ

Present system



Phase II system



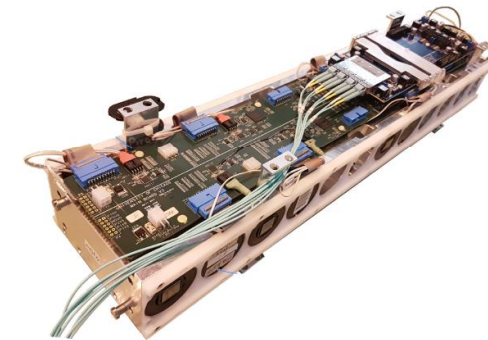
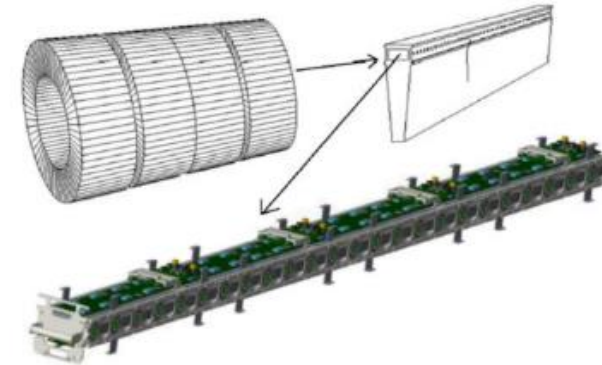
Phase 2 (LS3) upgraded TileCal electronics

More luminosity → upto 200 event/bunch crossing → more complex trigger processes → require more data → read out all data directly to off detector trigger
→ Many (4000) 9.6 Gbs links and large FPGAs

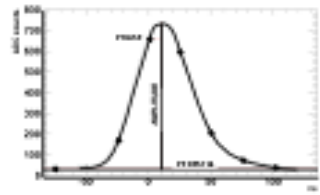
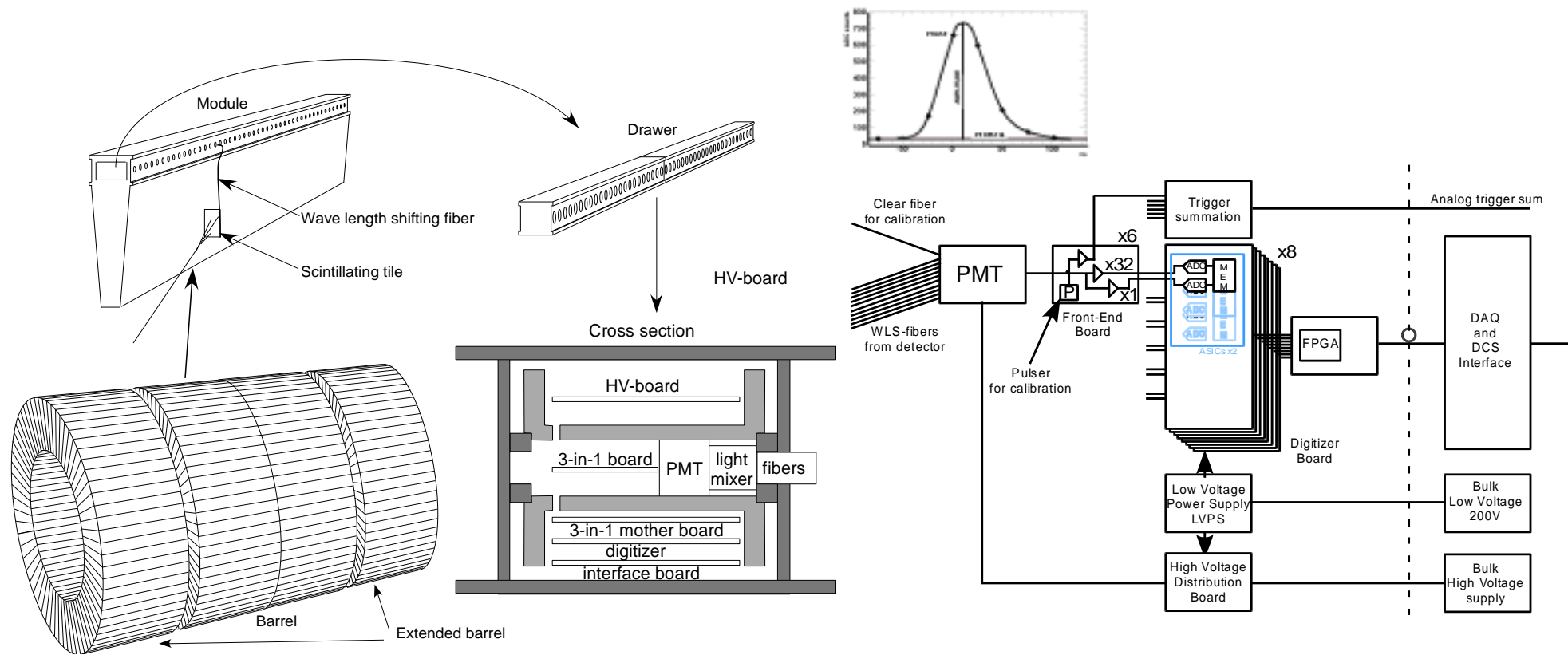
New TileCal electronics

Better redundancy, smaller units (failure less costly)

New Low Voltage Power Supplies (partly from South Africa)



Front-End example - TileCal



4x64 modules (with electronics in "drawers") with 46 or 32 PMTs each read out by 2 10 bit ADCs (high and low gain)

Each module 8 contains Digitizer boards with 2 ASICs each containing digital pipeline and de-randomizer

Analog trigger signals – digitized in USA-15

TileCal redundance

The TileCal on-detector electronics has been designed to be highly redundant to avoid unnecessary failures

Each mini-drawer takes care of 12 PMTs reading out 6 blocks of scintillators 6 from one side and 6 from the other.

The readout boards are designed so that the left side of the board reads out the left side of the scintillator block and vice versa. If some thing fails killing one side, the block is still read out from the other side.

The two sides are read out via duplicated and independent fibers.

The logic in the FPGAs are triplicated with voting circuits so that if one unit fails the other will override and if this happen the FPGA will demand to reprogrammed.

The program memory is also checki9ng itself for errors and will correct itself if the error is not too complicated.

All the on-detector electronics have been tested for radiation tolerance up to the limits predicted with large safety factors.

