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- Lecture 1
 - Introduction to DAQ
- Lecture 2
 - DAQ for LHC experiments
- Lecture 3
 - Trigger
 - Current trends/developments

Lecture based heavily on lectures by Niko Neufeld ad Wainer Vandelli

What is it about...





DAQ

- Abbreviation for Data Acquisition System
- Wikipedia:
 - process of sampling signals that measure real world physical conditions and converting the resulting samples into digital numeric values that can be manipulated by a computer.
- In HEP it consists mainly of electronics, computer science, networking and (we hope) a little bit of physics
- Tasks
 - Gathers the data produced by the detectors (Readout)
 - Possibly feeds (several) trigger levels
 - Forms complete events (Event Building)
 - Stores event data (Data logging)
 - Provides control, configuration and monitoring facilities

Trigger

- Trigger = in general something which tells you when is the "right" moment to take your data
- System which decides very rapidly what output to keep if you can't keep all of it. The decision is based on some 'simple' criteria
- This can happen in several stages, if needed
- Note, quite often DAQ and Trigger are not two separate issues, but are 'interwoven'

Trivial DAQ (periodic trigger)



- Measure temperature at a fixed frequency
- ADC performs analog to digital conversion (digitisation)
 - Our frontend electronics
- CPU does readout and processing

Trivial DAQ (periodic trigger)



- Measure temperature at a fixed frequency
- The system is clearly limited by the time to process an "event"
- Example $\tau=1$ ms to
 - ADC conversion
 +CPU processing
 +Storage

Sustain
 ~1/1ms=1kHz
 periodic trigger rate

Trivial DAQ with a trigger



Example: measure β decay properties Events are asynchronous and unpredictable Need a physics trigger Delay compensates for

the trigger latency

Trivial DAQ with a trigger



Deadtime and Efficiency

• **Deadtime** (%): ratio between the time the DAQ is busy and the total time (Dead time / trigger = τ sec.)

• $\nu \cdot \tau \rightarrow DAQ$ is busy — (1- $\nu \cdot \tau$) $\rightarrow DAQ$ is free, ν = output rate

$$u = f(1 - \nu \tau) \Rightarrow \nu = rac{f}{1 + f \tau} < f$$

f input rate τ readout time

Efficiency: $N_{saved}/N_{tot} = 1/(1 + f \cdot \tau)$

- Note, due to the fluctuations introduced by the stochastic process the efficiency will always be less 100%
- In our specific example, d=0.1%/Hz, f =1kHz → ν=500Hz, ε=50%
- If we want to obtain ϵ ~100% \rightarrow f $\cdot \tau$ <<1

* f =1kHz, ϵ =99% $\rightarrow \tau$ <0.1ms $\rightarrow 1/\tau$ >10kHz

In order to cope with the input signal fluctuations, we would need to overdesign our DAQ system by a factor 10. hmmm...

Trivial DAQ with Derandomisation



- Buffers are introduced which hold temporarily the data.
- They decouple the data production from the data processing
 Better performance

Trivial DAQ with Derandomisation



DAQ intro, Nov 22, 2011

First In First Out

- Buffer area organized as a queue
- Depth: number of cells
- Implemented in HW and SW

- FIFO absorbs and smoothes the input fluctuations, providing a ~steady (derandomized) output rate
- introduces an additional latency on the data path

Trivial DAQ with Derandomisation



- Almost 100% efficiency and minimal deadtime if
 - ADC is able to operate at rate >>f
 - Data processing and storing operates at ~f
- The FIFO decouples the low latency frontend from the data processing
- Minimises the amount of "unnecessary" fast components
- Could the delay be replaced with a "FIFO"?
 - Analog pipelines → Heavily used in LHC DAQs

DAQ: Collider mode



- Particle collisions are synchronous
- Trigger rejects uninteresting events
- Even if collisions are synchronous, the triggers (interesting events) are unpredictable
- Derandomisation is still needed
- No trigger deadtime if trigger latency below beam crossing interval

Multi-Level Trigger



 For complicated triggers latency can be long

- if $\tau_{trig} > \tau_{BX}$, deadtime>50%
- Split trigger in several levels with increasing complexity and latency
- All levels can reject events
 - with $\tau_{L1} < \tau_{BX}$, trigger deadtime only $v_{L1} \cdot \tau_{L2}$

Multi-Level Trigger



- For optimal data reduction can add trigger level between readout and storage (High-level trigger)
- Has access to some/all processed data

A bit more complicated....



 The increased number of channels require hierarchical structure with well defined interfaces between components











Read-out Topology

- Reading out = building events out of many detector channels
- We define "building blocks"
 - Example: readout crates, event building, nodes, ...
- Crate: many modules put in a common chassis which provides
 - Mechanical support
 - Power
 - A standardised way to access the data
 - Provides signal and protocol standard for communication
- All this is provided by standards for (readout) electronics such as VME (IEEE 1014)





Read-out Topology

- How to organize the interconnections inside the building blocks and between building blocks?
- Two main classes: bus or network
 - Both of them are very generic concepts









Bus

A bus connects two or more devices and allows them to communicate

• Bus \rightarrow group of electrical lines

- Examples: VME, PCI, SCSI, Parallel ATA, …
- \ref{scher} The bus is shared between all devices on the bus \rightarrow arbitration is required
- Devices can be masters or slaves (some can be both)
- Devices can be uniquely identified ("addressed") on the bus



Bus

Relatively simple to implement

- Constant number of lines
- Each device implements the same interface
- →Easy to add new devices

Scalability issues

- Number of devices and physical bus-length is limited
- Each new active device slows everybody down as bus bandwidth* shared among all the devices
- Maximum bus width is limited (128 bit for PC-system bus)
- Maximum bus frequency (number of elementary operations per second) is inversely proportional to the bus length
- Typical buses have a lot of control, data and address lines (e.g. SCSI cable (Small Computer System Interface)
- Buses are typically useful for systems < 1 GB/s</p>

Bandwidth = amount of data transferred / per unit of time (measured in Bytes/h) DAQ intro, Nov 22, 2011 26

Bus: another limitation



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
 - Examples: Ethernet, Telephone, Infiniband, ...
 - Devices are equal ("peers")
 - They communicate directly with each other by sending messages
 - no arbitration necessary
 - bandwidth guaranteed
 - data and control use the same path

much fewer lines (e.g. in traditional Ethernet only two)

- On an network a device is identified by a network address
 - eg: phone-number, MAC address
- At the signaling level buses tend to use parallel copper lines. Network technologies can be also optical or wire-less



Switched Networks

- Modern networks are switched with point-to-point links
- 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
- Switches move messages between sources and destinations
 - Find the right path
 - Handle "congestion" (two messages with the same destination at the same time)



Example

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

Switched Network

Challenge

- Find the right path
- Handle "congestion" (two messages with the same destination at the same time)



Switch implementation: cross-bar



- Paradise scenario:
 - No congestion, since every data package finds a free path through the switch.

Switch implementation: cross-bar



Paradise scenario:

No congestion, since every data package finds a free path through the switch.

Switch implementation: cross-bar



Nightmare scenario:

- Only one packet at a time can be routed to the destination. Congestion!
- How can we avoid this?



- Use the old "trick"Add buffer
- FIFOs can "absorb" congestion …until they are full.



Use the old "trick"
Add buffer
FIFOs can "absorb" congestion ...until

they are full.















Still problematic:

- Input FIFOs can absorb data fluctuations until they are full. How good it works depends on:
 - FIFOs capacity
 - data distribution
 - Internal speed of the switch
- traffic: blocking problem remains to some extend

What we have learnt so far

- The principle of a simple data acquisition system
- Introduction to some basic elements: trigger, derandomiser, FIFO, busy logic
- How data is transported
 - Bus versus network
- In the next lecture we will look in more detail at the DAQ used by the experiments at LHC