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**Measuring Shadows: FPGA-based image sensor  
control systems for next-generation NASA  
missions**

IRFAN RAFI PUNEKAR

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# Measuring Shadows: FPGA-based image sensor control systems for next-generation NASA missions

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A Thesis Submitted  
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of the Requirements for the Degree of  
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in  
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**RIT** | **Kate Gleason** College of  
**Engineering**

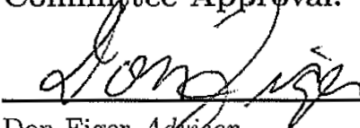
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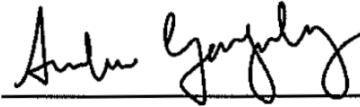
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# Measuring Shadows: FPGA-based image sensor control systems for next-generation NASA missions

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بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ



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## Abstract

Astronomy and astrophysics are fields of constant growth and exploration, and discoveries are being made every day. Behind each discovery, however, is the equipment and engineering that makes that science possible. The science and engineering go hand in hand in two ways: advances in engineering make new scientific discoveries possible, and new scientific questions create the need for more advanced engineering. The work that led to this thesis is an example of the latter statement. The big-picture goal is to support the development of next-generation detectors such as the Quanta Image Sensor (QIS), a gigapixel-scaleable Complementary Metal-Oxide Semiconductor (CMOS) photon-number resolving image sensor.

This thesis focuses on one crucial part of the development process: the characterisation of the QIS. In order to advance the NASA Technology Readiness Level (TRL) from three to four, the detector needs to undergo extensive laboratory and telescope environment testing. The testing framework is being run by an FPGA hardware design that includes a processor, and this set of hardware and software is responsible for operating the detector, managing experiment parameters, running experiments, and collecting resultant data and passing it to a host PC. The majority of the work of this portion of the project revolved around creating, improving, and testing the framework to allow for fully functional and automated detector characterisation.

Test systems already exist for the QIS in a room temperature environment, as well as for current-generation image sensors in cryogenic vacuum environments. However, there is no existing test system that allows the QIS to be tested in a cryo-vac environment. This thesis details a functional system that fills that niche. The system is built to be modular and extensible so that it can be expanded upon to characterise other types of detectors in the future as well. For now, however, the system shines as the only one that allows the QIS to be tested in an environment that simulates its behaviour in outer space.

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# Acronyms

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## **ADC**

Analog-to-Digital Converter

## **ATLAST**

Advanced Technology Large Aperture Space Telescope

## **CCD**

Charge Coupled Device

## **CDS**

Correlated Double Sampling

## **CEB**

Cold Electronics Board

## **CfD**

Center for Detectors

## **CIS**

CMOS Image Sensor

## **CMOS**

Complementary Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor

## **COR**

Cosmic Origins

## **DAC**

Digital-to-Analog Converter

**DDR**

Double Data Rate

**FIFO**

First In First Out

**FMC**

FPGA Mezzanine Card

**FPGA**

Field Programmable Gate Array

**HabEx**

Habitable Exoplanet Observatory

**HDI**

High Definition Imager

**IIC**

Inter-Integrated Circuit

**JFET**

Junction Field Effect Transistor

**LUVOIR**

Large Ultra Violet / Optical / Infra Red

**LVDS**

Low-Voltage Differential Signalling

**MB**

Megabyte

**MBps**

Megabytes Per Second

**MOSFET**

Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor

**NASA**

National Aeronautics and Space Administration (USA)

**PCIe**

Peripheral Component Interconnect Express

**QIS**

Quanta Image Sensor

**QISPF**

Quanta Image Sensor Path Finder

**RAM**

Random Access Memory

**RIDL**

Rochester Imaging Detector Laboratory

**RIT**

Rochester Institute of Technology

**SAT**

Strategic Astrophysics Technology

**SFP**

Small Form-factor Pluggable

**SPI**

Serial Peripheral Interface

**TRL**

Technology Readiness Level

**WEB**

Warm Electronics Box

# Chapter 1

---

## Introduction

*“Eventually, we reach the dim boundary—the utmost limits of our telescopes. There, we measure shadows, and we search among ghostly errors of measurement for landmarks that are scarcely more substantial.”* - Dr. Edwin P. Hubble [1]

The NASA Astrophysics Visionary Roadmap describes next-generation missions that require new technology to be successful [2]. It describes plans for a telescope known as the Large Ultra-Violet / Optical / Infra-Red (LUVOIR) Surveyor which requires improved image detection [3]. The Quanta Image Sensor, being a gigapixel-scalable [4] CMOS photon-number resolving image sensor, would be a strong candidate for this application. Additionally, the next-decade flagship mission Habitable Exoplanet Observatory (HabEx), intended to perform spectroscopy of exoplanet atmospheres, would also require a detector with photon-number resolution, radiation resistance, low power draw, and high dynamic range [5]. The Decadal Survey on Astronomy and Astrophysics 2020 mentions these projects as well, and emphasises the importance of projects such as this one towards strategic flagship missions [6]. Next-generation detectors such as the QIS are a good match for this application because of their significant improvements over current optical-wavelength detectors.

## 1.1 Scope

This thesis describes part of a fully automated test system that allows for the operation and characterisation of the QIS. Specifically, it describes the FPGA-based control system and its capabilities in the areas of experiment control, data acquisition, and PC interface. The detector itself is not part of the unit under test, nor is the portion of the test system that is housed in the cryogenic and vacuum pressure environment.

The test system as a whole is in development at RIT with additional resources provided by Dartmouth College [7] and Gigajot Technology [8]. The end goal of the system is to allow the QIS to be characterised as described in the requirements of the NASA Strategic Astrophysics Technology (SAT) project at the Center for Detectors, entitled *A Single-Photon-Sensing and Photon-Number-Resolving Detector for NASA Missions* [9]. This includes operating the QIS safely and effectively with user-defined settings as well as transferring data to the host PC.

## 1.2 Contribution

The major contributions of this thesis as compared to the current state of the art are as follows:

1. Provides a system with which to characterise the Quanta Image Sensor detector, specifically in cryogenic temperature, vacuum pressure, and radiation exposure environments
2. Provides a fully functional, modular, and extensible framework that can be modified for testing and controlling next-generation image sensors other than the QIS
3. Provides a framework that demonstrates hardware and software control of the QIS, modifiable for non-testing uses

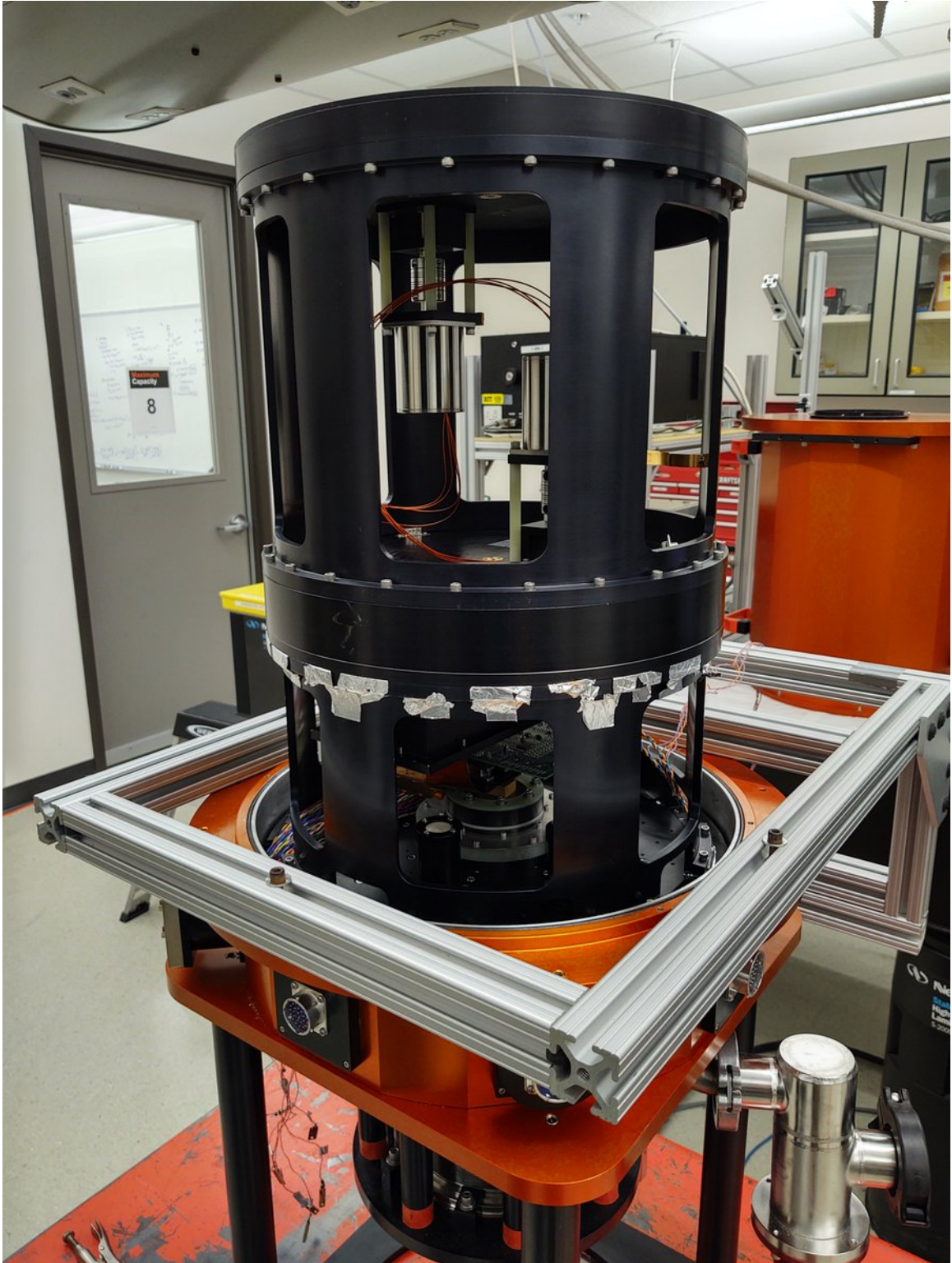
### 1.3 Motivation

Currently, there is no existing system for the cryogenic and vacuum-pressure testing of a Quanta Image Sensor. There exist systems for standard temperature and pressure testing at Dartmouth College and Gigajot Technology [8]. Additionally, there exists at the RIT Center for Detectors a robust cryogenic and vacuum-pressure testing system for detectors other than the QIS. The testing procedure at RIT involves the following subsystems.

Firstly, there is the Dewar, which holds the detector and any peripheral electronics in the desired cryo-vac environment. Figure 1.1 shows an image of the Dewar, opened up for test electronics installation. Secondly, there are the readout electronics, such as the JMCE or LEACH systems, which serve as the bridges between the Dewar and the acquisition computer. Finally, there is the acquisition computer which is responsible for collecting, storing, and reducing the data provided by the experiment, as well as running the experiment itself.

Interactive Data Language (IDL) 6.3 is used as a front-panel for all experiment electronics. To perform an experiment, the investigator enters a command such as `darkcurrent`, `quantum_efficiency`, or `egain` into the IDL command line. This begins a custom procedure designed to automatically and autonomously capture, reduce, and analyse data. In order to modify experiment parameters, edits are made to corresponding configuration and parameter files related to the experiment in question.

In order to integrate into this system, a new system is required that is both cryo-vac capable and compatible with the existing testing system.



**Figure 1.1:** Disassembled Dewar interior, with Cold Electronics Board installed



# Chapter 2

---

## Background

### 2.1 Detector Information

An image sensor is a device that turns electromagnetic radiation into electronic signals [10]. The two main types of digital image sensor used today are the Charge-Coupled Device (CCD) and the CMOS active-pixel sensor (APS). For now, CMOS image sensors (CIS) are used in lower cost and lower power draw environments. CCDs are generally used when image fidelity is the highest priority, such as in broadcast video cameras or, in this case, astrophotography [11]. However, this may change due to next-generation CMOS sensors achieving comparable or favourable results to CCDs.

One such next-generation sensor is the Quanta Image Sensor, or QIS. The QIS, developed by Dr. Eric Fossum and his team at Dartmouth College, is a concept for a CMOS image sensor that operates similarly to a photographic plate and that can be scaled to gigapixel resolutions [4]. Similarly to a photographic plate, each photon that enters the detector will change the state of a resolution element. For each pixel on the QIS, a zero reports no photons detected and a one reports one or more photons detected. As Equation (2.1) shows, the charge generated by the arrival of a photon is directly related to the voltage output. The primary innovation of the QIS is the pixel design, as it allows for a capacitance as low as 0.4 fF [12]. The voltage response to a single photo-generated electron event with a small capacitance is large and is

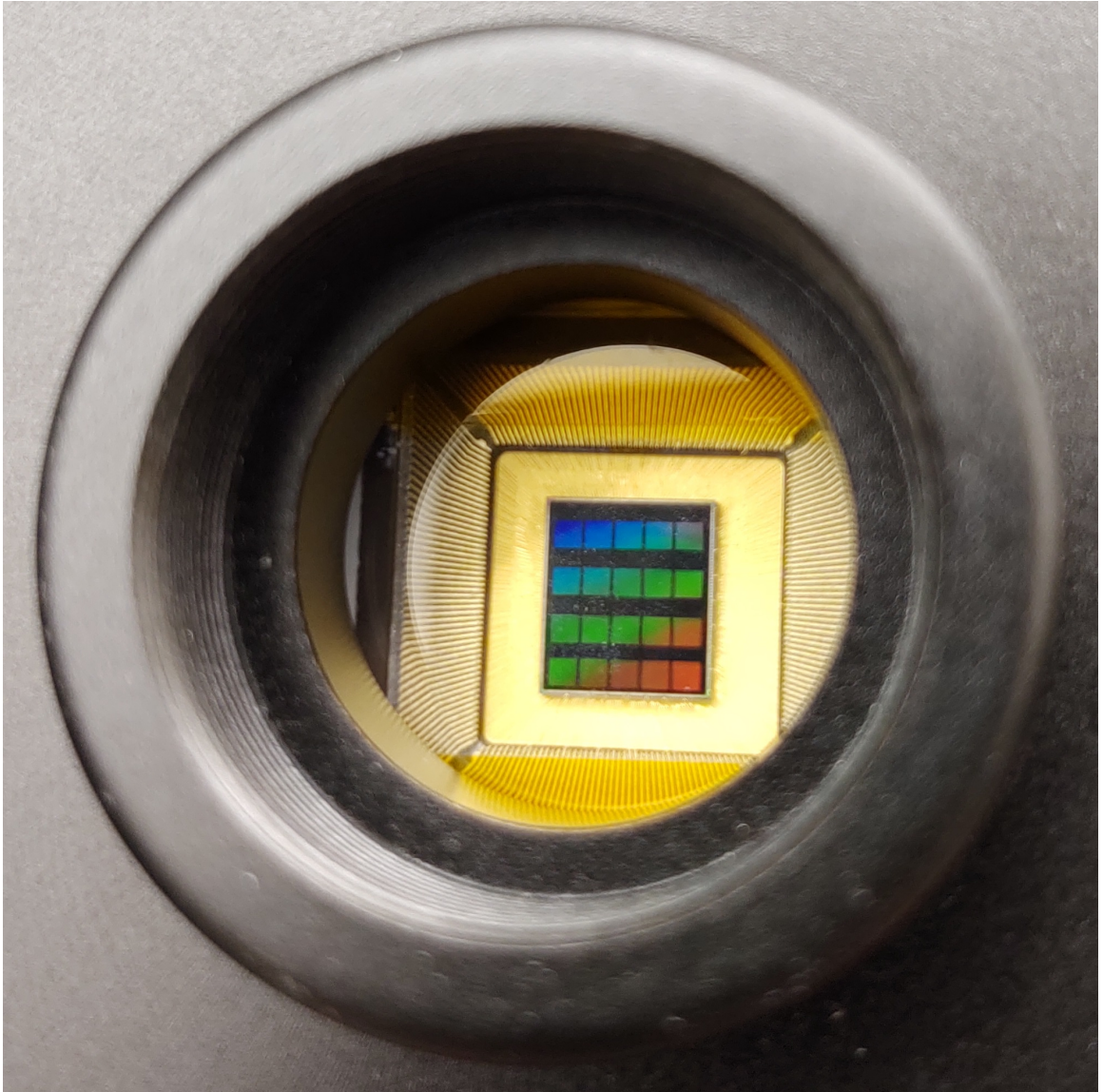
known as conversion gain, measured in  $\mu\text{V}$  per electron. As seen in Equation (2.2) the calculated conversion gain at a capacitance of  $0.4\text{ fF}$  is  $400\text{ }\mu\text{V}$  per electron. Dr. Fossum and his team report a gain of up to  $420\text{ }\mu\text{V}$  per electron [13].

$$V = \frac{q}{C} \tag{2.1}$$

$$0.0004\text{ V} = \frac{1.602\,176\,62 \times 10^{-19}\text{ C}}{4 \times 10^{-16}\text{ F}} \tag{2.2}$$

The readout architecture maintains low noise during operation through the use of design and correlated double sampling. The combination of low-capacitance and low noise allows the QIS to achieve single photon sensing and photon number resolution at room temperature [14]. Because of the limited full-well depth of the detector, the values from the QIS must be read out in real time to prevent loss of data [15]. Future QIS versions include modifications such as on-chip multi-bit ADCs as well as significantly larger full-well depth [16] [17].

The particular form of QIS used at RIT is the prototype QIS Pathfinder (QISPF) chip developed by Gigajot Technology [18]. The chip contains twenty one-megapixel QIS detector arrays made using a  $45\text{nm}/65\text{nm}$  standard process, each with megapixel resolution and with slight variations in pixel design. The twenty QIS detectors are divided into two types: detectors with integrated single-bit ADCs and detectors that rely on off-chip ADCs. These are known as the Digital and Analog QIS, respectively. Within each of the two categories are sub-groups with multiple detector design choices such as MOSFET vs. JFET and variations in source-follower width between  $0.14\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  to  $0.2\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  [19]. Figure 2.1 shows the Pathfinder chip with the detector array visible. Table 2.1 shows the sensor specifications for the device, as provided by Gigajot Technology [18].



**Figure 2.1:** QIS Pathfinder Device

**Table 2.1:** Sensor Specifications

Type of Sensor	1st Generation Quanta Image Sensor
Resolution	1020 X 1020 Active Pixels
Pixel Size	1.1 $\mu\text{m}$ X 1.1 $\mu\text{m}$
Sensor Format	1.1mm X 1.1mm
Shutter Mode	Cluster-Parallel Rolling Shutter
Read Noise (Typ.)	As Low As 0.24e- RMS @ 20C
Dark Current (Typ.)	0.068e-/Sec/Pixel @ 20C
Quantum Efficiency (Typ.)	Up To 87%
Full-Well Capacity	200e-

## 2.2 Detector Test Methodology

Detectors can be characterised to illustrate their performance at research organisations such as the Center for Detectors. The performance of detectors varies strongly with respect to temperature. The method of cooling detectors reduces dark current and read noise. It has long been used to improve efficiency of detectors, although room-temperature functionality is generally preferred [20].

Detectors are characterised based on commonly used performance metrics, which correlate with the list of experiments run at the Center for Detectors. These metrics are as follows:

1. Output Efficiency: Measures the device's overall ratio of incoming to detected photons.
2. Conversion Gain: Measures the average ratio of electrons per single Analog-to-Digital Unit.
3. Read Noise: Measures the variance in detector output based on environmental noise at the input, averaged over all pixels of the device.
4. Dark Current: Measures the detector output current over long exposures with

no external radiation at different temperatures. It is caused by the electrons naturally freed from the valence band and collected within the potential well of a pixel.

5. Quantum Efficiency (QE): Measures the detector's light sensitivity by counting the number of charge carriers and comparing with the number of photons the detector is exposed to. This is measured with varying wavelengths to measure efficiency at varied photon energy levels and represents the percentage of incoming photons that the device can successfully detect.
6. Linearity: Measures the relationship between photons detected and Analog-to-Digital Units. A linear relationship is ideal.
7. Full Well Depth: Measures the maximum number of electrons that can be stored in a pixel's potential well before the electrons can no longer be confined.
8. Persistence: Measures the lifetime and quantity of electrons that remain in the substrate after a bright source causes overexposure. This can be seen as after-images or, in extreme cases, dead pixels or pixel areas.
9. Cross-talk: Measures the amount of charge diffused between an active and inactive pixel.
10. Inter-pixel Capacitance (IPC): Measures the voltage change on neighbouring pixels based on the amount of charge built up on a target pixel.

These tests are run by taking large amounts of controlled data through the detector readout system, reducing the data to its important parts, and then analysing results. At the Center for Detectors, the data reduction and analysis are done outside of the detector readout chain on dedicated machines so as to provide a centralised data manipulation centre [21]. This means that various readout electronics may provide data in different ways, but the data is manipulated in the same way in all cases. This

also means that the readout electronics themselves do not modify or analyse the data themselves, but rather provide all of the data, in the proper format, to the reduction and analysis machines. This list of tests comprises the end goal of this system as a whole. The FPGA system described in this thesis presents the link between the data computers and the hardware related to the detector itself, and is crucial to the completion of the system as a whole.

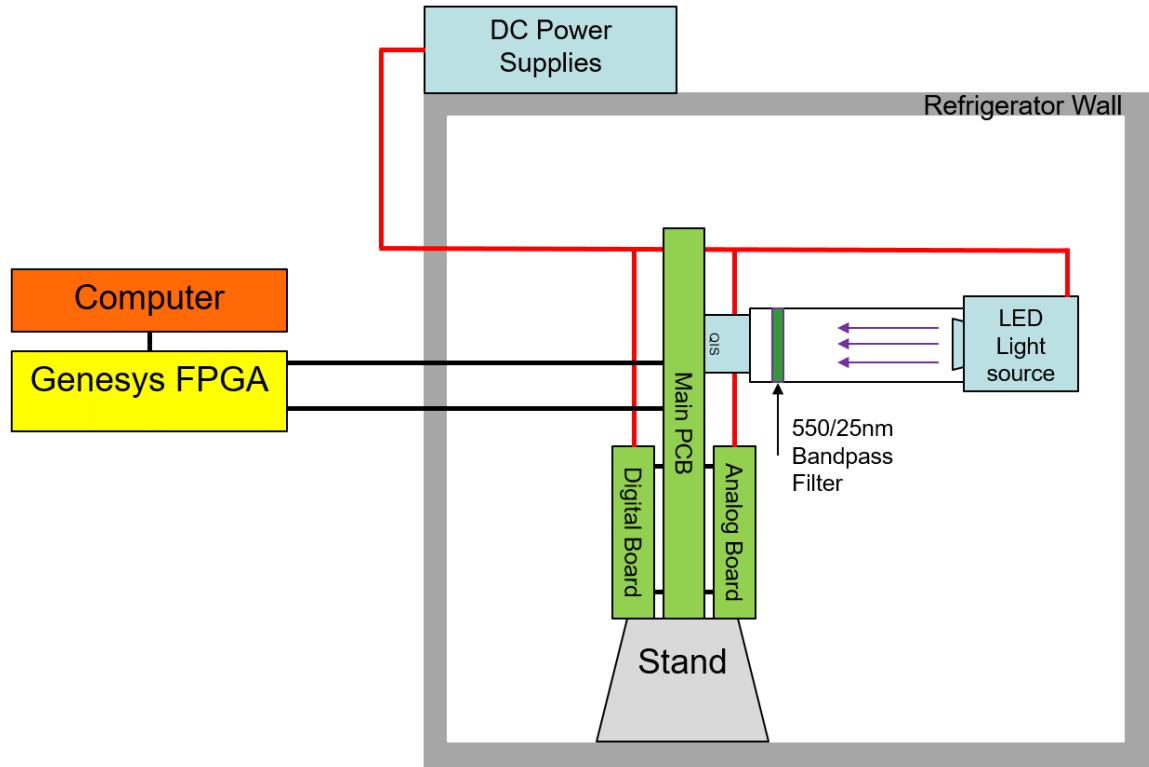
## 2.3 Supporting Work

### 2.3.1 Dartmouth College and Gigajot Technology

The team at Dartmouth College provided an incredibly helpful starting point for the development of this system. The Dartmouth system is capable of testing the QIS at temperatures as low as negative seventy degrees Celsius. However, low-pressure testing is not possible. The Dartmouth design process used the Xilinx ISE software for FPGA hardware development and a series of custom MATLAB scripts for data acquisition. The FPGA used is the now-discontinued Genesys FPGA Development Kit, home to a Virtex-5 Xilinx FPGA chip. Figure 2.2 shows a block design that shows RIT's understanding of the Dartmouth system, and Figure 2.3 shows an image of the inside of the refrigerator.

Dartmouth College, as well as the students who started Gigajot Technology after graduating, have had success characterising the QIS with this and their own testing systems. In 2013, Dr. Fossum presented metrics for single and multi-bit QIS devices in [22]. Further results were presented in [23]. Most recently, however, students at Fossum's lab have written about their testing system in [24]. The paper describes a variable bit ADC image-sensor test chip for use in future QIS iterations.

Dartmouth's system provided a framework for the RIT system in terms of inspiration and proof-of-concept. Dartmouth's FPGA work was studied but ultimately,



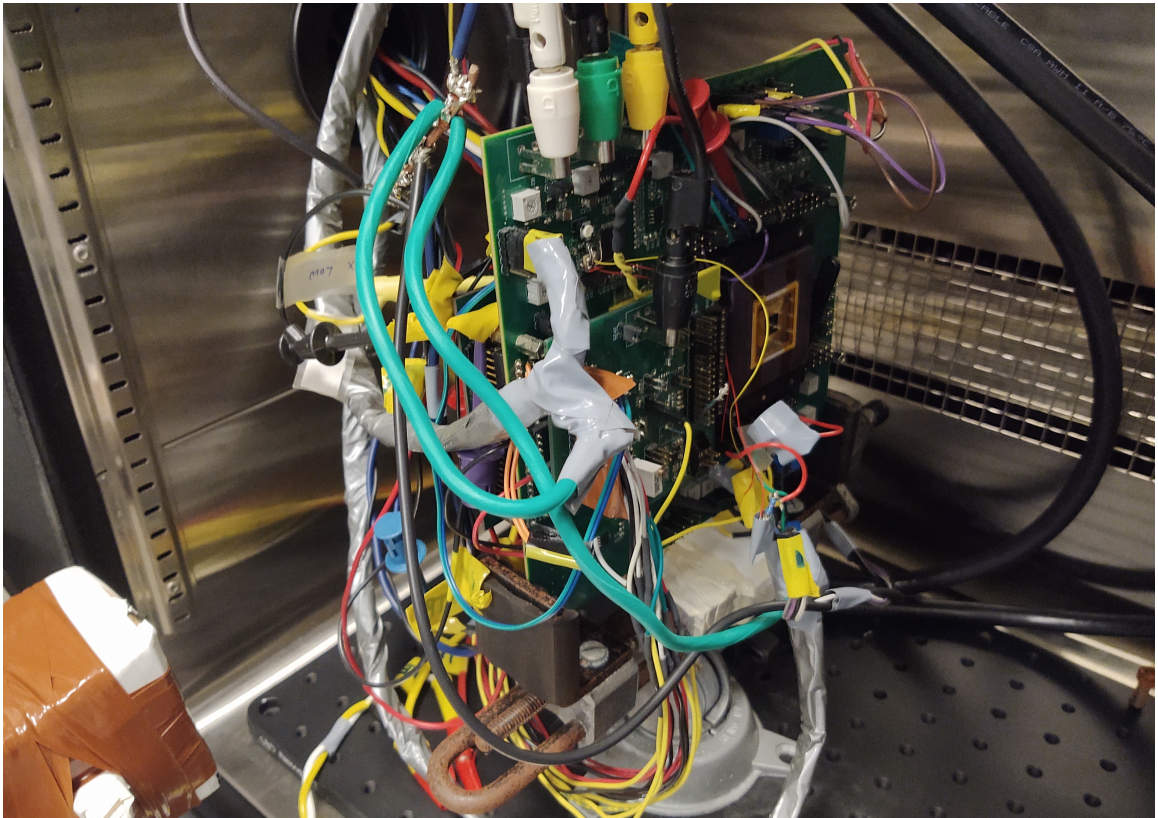
**Figure 2.2:** Block Design of Dartmouth College QIS testing

the work needed for this thesis required a new FPGA system framework.

### 2.3.2 Previous Work at the Center for Detectors

A somewhat similar system was developed at the Center for Detectors in collaboration with Precision Optical Transceivers between August 2018 and May 2019 as part of the Engineering Verification & Test (EVT) project. This project, in which the author also held the lead FPGA and systems engineering role, was done in support of AIM Photonics and consisted of a Xilinx Virtex UltraScale based system that was used to characterise the effectiveness of transceivers and photonic integrated circuits. The system was similar to the SAT project in that the FPGA operated an external device and collected data. The main differences were that the device under test was physically held on the development kit by the QSFP cage and that the EVT system provided much less data and feedback to the host PC. Regardless, the basis of the





**Figure 2.3:** Dartmouth College QIS testing refrigerator interior



EVT project was used as a rough guideline for the framework of the SAT project. Despite the hardware, software, and environmental differences, the conceptual design blocks were maintained between the two projects.

# Chapter 3

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## Design Methodology

### 3.1 System Requirements

Much of the time and effort invested into this thesis involved the research and planning required to create a functional system. Of course, as with any project, requirements and considerations were updated throughout the design and implementation cycle, but the first major task in creating the system was to determine the exact system requirements.

The initial system requirements review for the FPGA subsystem was held in July 2020. The reason why an FPGA was chosen for this project was because of their suitability to high-speed data transmission as well as their previous use at the CfD. The main goals of the system were to use the PC as a front panel to operate the cold electronics board (CEB) and the QIS, transfer commands and data between the PC and the CEB, and provide clocking and synchronisation signals for the CEB and the QIS [25]. The formal list of system requirements is as follows:

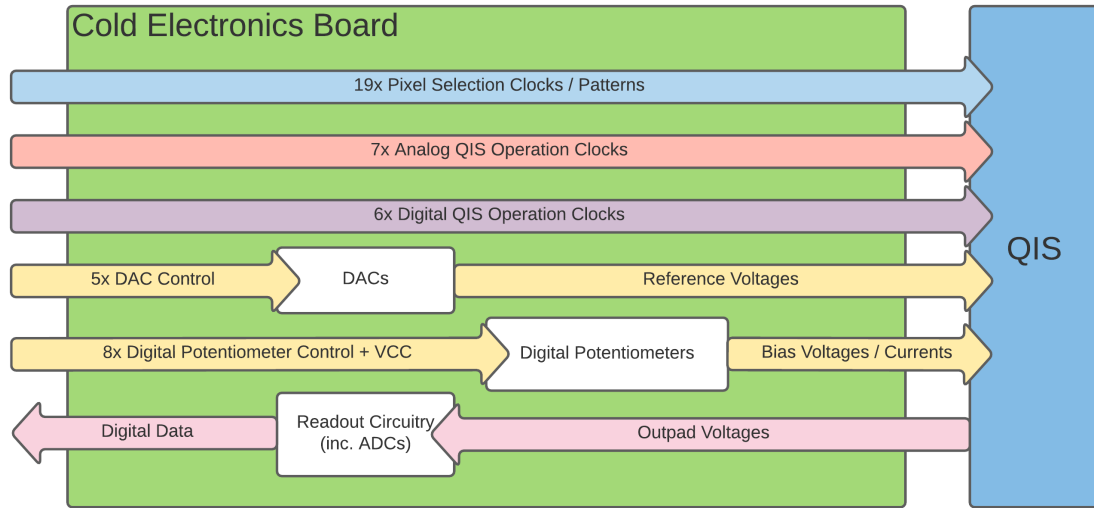
1. The FPGA system will be able to clock the QIS in accordance with Dartmouth College's specifications.
2. The FPGA system will be able to perform at the rate of one full image per second.

3. The FPGA system will be able to process input from the PC and use it to control experiment variations and to program components on the CEB.
4. The FPGA system will be able to capture the sixteen stream outputs from the CEB and present them to the PC in a reasonable data format.
5. The FPGA system will deliver all raw data (i.e. without reduction) to the PC for reduction and analysis.
6. The FPGA system will utilise an off-the-shelf FPGA development kit.
7. The FPGA system will allow bidirectional communication between the PC and the CEB.
8. The FPGA system will use an IDL / C / C++ DLL to enable IDL support.
9. The FPGA system will be powered by its included DC power supply.

These requirements were chosen as a team during the preliminary planning phase of this work. They were agreed upon based on the necessary functionality as well as on the availability of developmental and financial resources.

Several of these requirements involve controlling the CEB and the QIS. The signals needed to satisfy that requirement are signals that either directly or indirectly control the QIS. Figure 3.1 shows a diagram of the signals sent to and received from the QISPF through the CEB.

The direct control signals are passed through the CEB and sent to the QIS as-is, while the indirect control signals are used to control peripherals on the CEB which then output their own signals to the QIS. The three arrows that illustrate the direct control signals correspond to the clock signals shown in Table 3.2.



**Figure 3.1:** Direct and Indirect QISPF control and data signals

### 3.2 System Test Plan

Each requirement listed above must have a test associated with it in order to verify functionality. Table 3.1 shows the various tests and their relationships to the requirements as shown above.

**Table 3.1:** Testing Plan vs. Requirements

Req. #	Test	Test Description
1	A	Verify that all QIS signals operate within their prescribed timing and electrical requirements.
2	B	Verify that the FPGA system is not the limiting factor in image capture speed.
3	C	Verify that the FPGA system can program the DACs and Digital Potentiometers on the CEB.
4	D	Verify data integrity through the data-path on the FPGA system.
5		
6	N/A	No testing needed.
7	E	Verify that the FPGA system can communicate with standard RIDL device control.
8		
9	N/A	No testing needed.

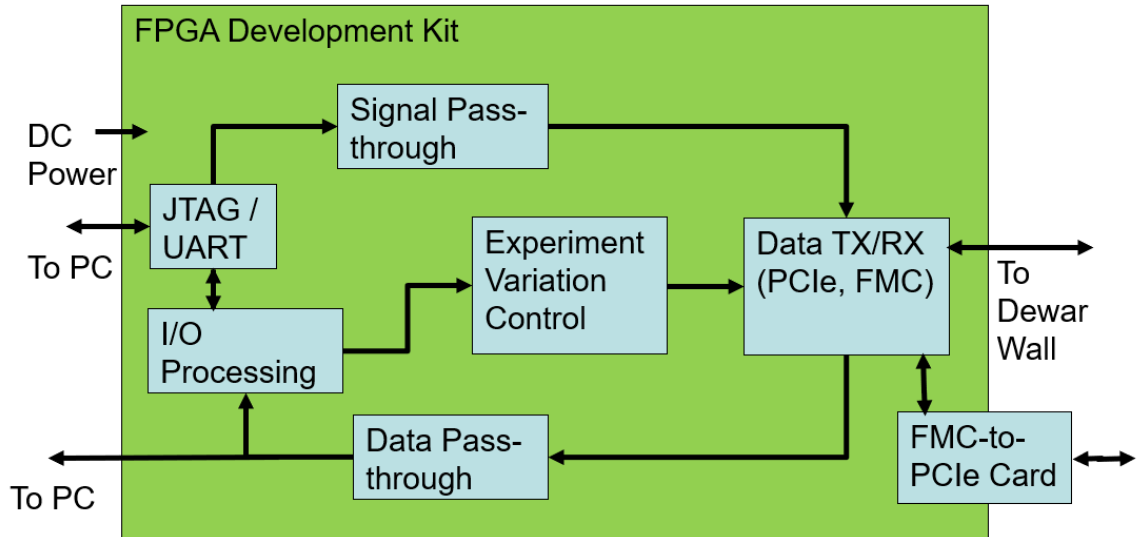
Requirements 6 and 9 do not require additional testing as they are proven inherently by the design of the FPGA system.

### 3.3 Design Process

The nature of FPGA design work in general as well as the specific nature of this project provides a strong basis for an iterative design process. The process consisted of a proposed design being presented and checked against the pre-determined set of system requirements. If a proposed design met the requirements, the most complex or unknown facets of it were quickly prototyped as a basic proof of concept. Once the prototype system was complete, it was then evaluated for functionality and performance. Any shortcomings were then noted to be improved in subsequent iterations.

#### 3.3.1 Preliminary Design Elaboration

The preliminary FPGA System Diagram is shown in Figure 3.2, and despite design modifications, remains representative of the overall functionality of the system.



**Figure 3.2:** Preliminary FPGA System Diagram

Part of the requirements of the system was that it must be able to connect to two of the lab's Dewar systems that are used to test components in cryogenic temperature and vacuum pressure environments. Therefore, the system needed to be

flexible enough to support both test setups without requiring considerable additional development. Figures 3.3 and 3.4 show system diagrams for the two Dewar systems in question.

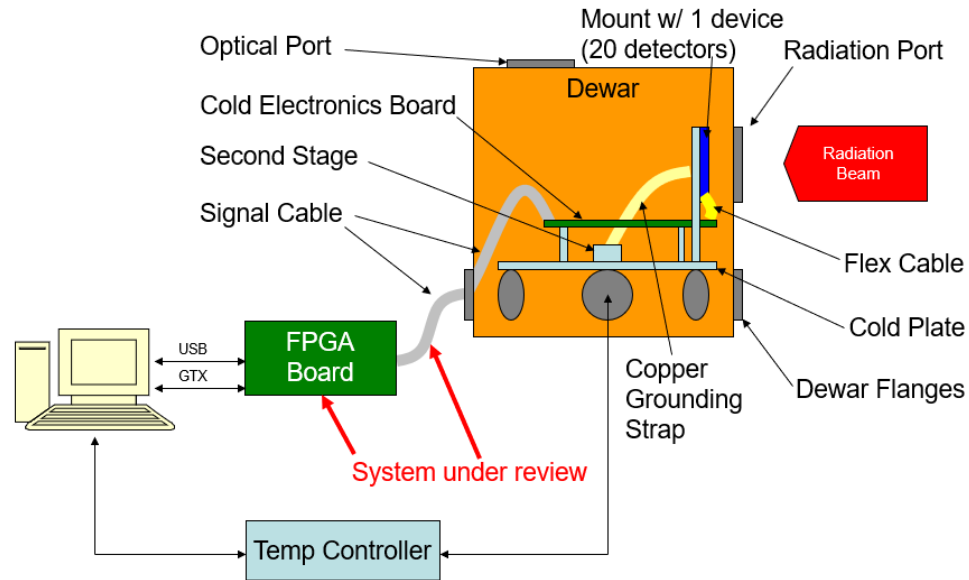


Figure 3.3: System Diagram for RIDL Dewar 2

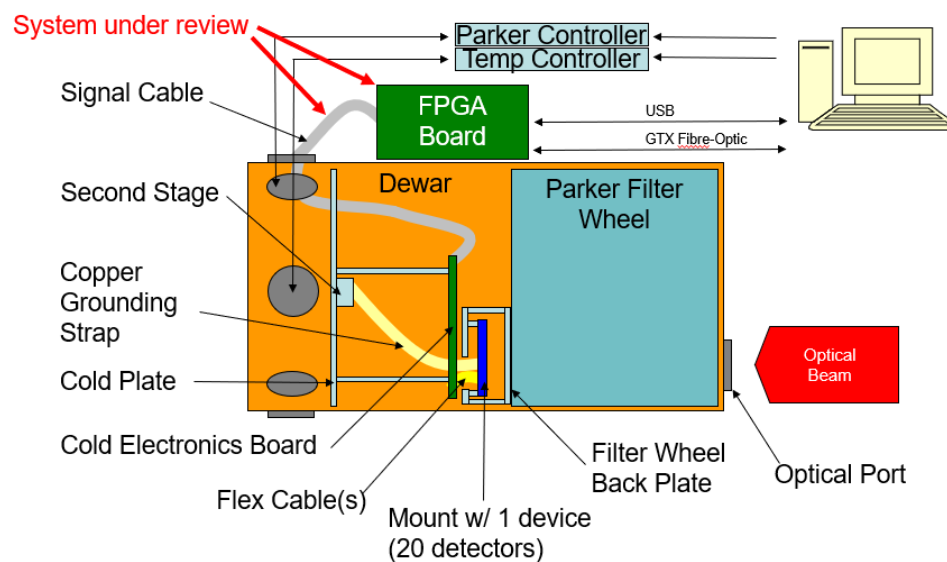


Figure 3.4: System Diagram for RIDL Dewar 4

Due to budgetary and lead time constraints, the system had a requirement to use an off-the-shelf FPGA development kit. Additionally, the system should not perform

any data reduction or analysis on its own and should provide every piece of data to the host PC.

The primary function of the system, however, is to operate the QIS itself with settings provided by a user at the host PC. The user must be able to make variations to each experiment chosen. These variations included integration time, sequential vs simultaneous pixel mode, the number of Correlated Double Samples (CDS), and the state of certain QIS binary control signals. Table 3.2 shows all signals that the FPGA is responsible for controlling [26].

Based on these requirements, the FPGA chosen was the Xilinx KC-705 Development kit due to its large number of I/O pins. Notably, FPGAs do not have the same kind of General Purpose I/O (GPIO) pins that devices such as microcontrollers may have. The design choice made to circumvent this issue was to use the individual pins of the two FPGA Mezzanine Card (FMC) connectors on the FPGA as discrete GPIO pins. Between the High Pin Count (HPC) and Low Pin Count (LPC) banks, 128 pins were made available. Figure 3.5 shows an overview of the chosen development kit.

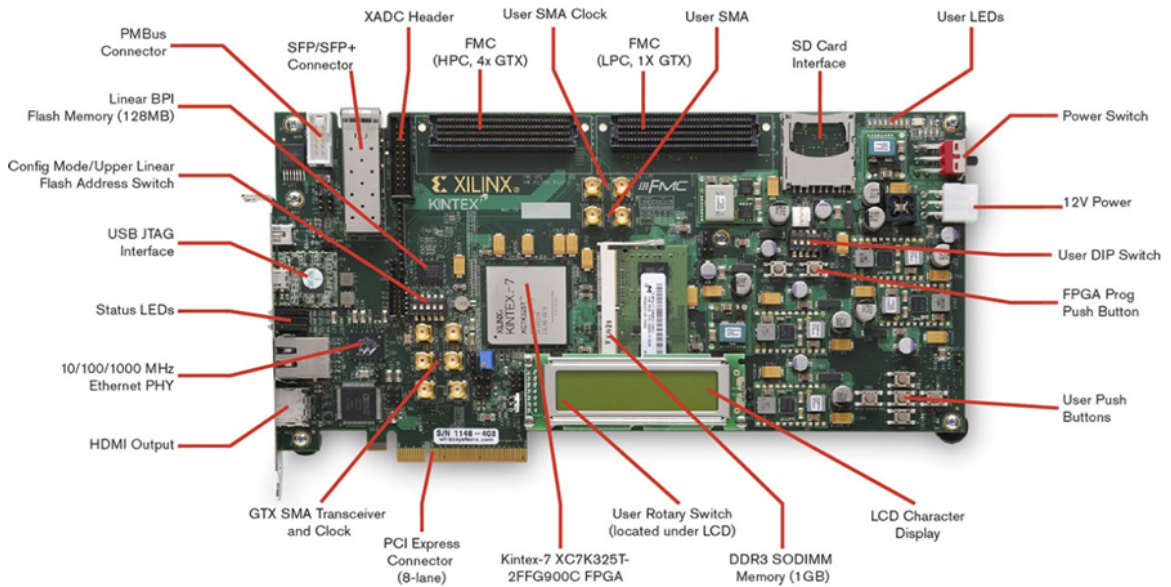


Figure 3.5: Xilinx Kintex-7 KC705 Development Kit

Table 3.2: FPGA-generated clocks and patterns for QIS exposures

Signal name	Function	Signal type	FMC pin
Pixel Selection Signals			
DEC0_PIX	row select	pattern	HPC_G24
DEC1_PIX	row select	pattern	HPC_K19
DEC2_PIX	row select	pattern	HPC_J19
DEC3_PIX	row select	pattern	HPC_J22
DEC4_PIX	row select	pattern	HPC_K22
DEC5_PIX	row select	pattern	HPC_J12
DEC6_PIX	row select	pattern	HPC_G31
DEC7_PIX	row select	pattern	HPC_G30
CDS_A<0>	col select (part 1)	pattern	HPC_K20
CDS_A<1>	col select (part 1)	pattern	HPC_H32
CDS_A<2>	col select (part 1)	pattern	HPC_K13
CDS_A<3>	col select (part 1)	pattern	HPC_J13
CDS_A<4>	col select (part 1)	pattern	HPC_K13
CDS_A<5>	col select (part 1)	pattern	HPC_G22
SEL_CLUS<0>	cluster select	pattern	HPC_H23
SEL_CLUS<1>	cluster select	pattern	HPC_H32
SEL_BUFF_IN_CDS<0>	col select (part 2)	pattern	HPC_H34
SEL_BUFF_IN_CDS<1>	col select (part 2)	pattern	HPC_G33
SEL_BUFF_IN_CDS<2>	col select (part 2)	pattern	HPC_H35
Analog QIS Operation and Readout Signals			
RST	reset gate	pattern	HPC_G37
AMP	amp gate	pattern/clock	HPC_H31
SAMP	samp gate	pattern/clock	HPC_J11
TX1	transfer gate 1	pattern	HPC_H38
TX2	transfer gate 2	pattern	HPC_H37
SHR	CDS circuit reset gate	pattern	HPC_G28
SHS	CDS circuit signal gate	pattern	HPC_G27
Digital QIS Operation and Readout Signals			
DDS	CDS gate connect SHR/S	pattern	HPC_G25
SHC		pattern	HPC_G34
PRECH	CTA precharge gate	pattern	HPC_G36
RESET	CTA RESET gate	pattern	HPC_H29
UGA_RST	UGA reset gate	pattern	HPC_H28
DFF_CK	D flip flop for output	clock	HPC_G25
ADC Signals			
CLKP_ADCI	ADC clock (P)	clock	HPC_E02
CLKN_ADCI	ADC clock (N)	clock	HPC_E03
ADC_SYNC	ADC frame sync	pattern	HPC_F05
DAC Signals			
DAC_SCLK	DAC serial clock	clock	LPC_D11
DAC_SYNC	serial frame sync	pattern	LPC_C14



# Chapter 4

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## Implementation Process

An iterative design process was used to complete the design and implementation of this FPGA hardware and software suite. As such, parts of the initial design were implemented until errors or roadblocks were found. Each difficulty was then investigated and researched until either a solution or an alternative design choice was found. These intermediary implementation cycles are discussed here for future reference and for reader edification.

### 4.1 Initial Design

The very first proposed design consisted of three main connections. The first was the UART over serial connection between the development kit and the host PC used to provide a terminal interface for either a user or the automated testing system. The second was the FPGA-to-PC data pipeline, implemented via GTX transceivers over fibre-optic cables. Finally, there was the connection between the Dewar and the FPGA which used two PCIe cables, one of which would be attached to the FMC-to-PCIe adapter connected to the KC705.

The computational power of the FPGA development kit would be provided by a MicroBlaze processor, a Xilinx soft microprocessor core. The core would be provided with an embedded software program. Figure 4.1 shows the initial block design of the FPGA hardware and Figure 4.2 shows the design of the embedded software.

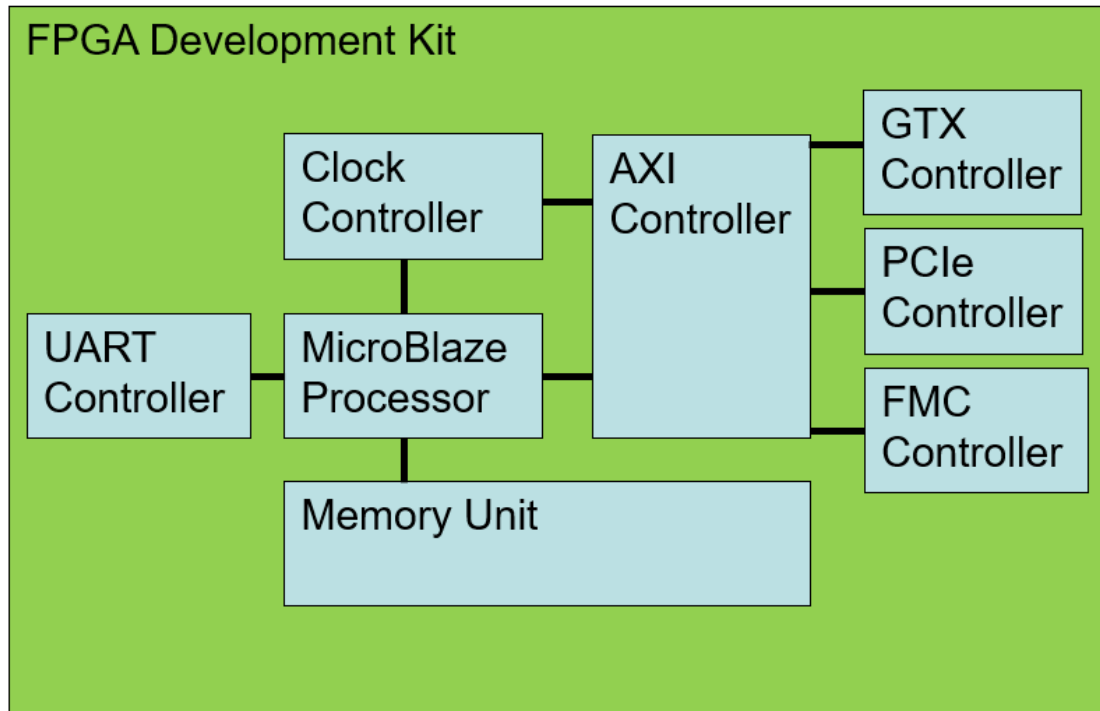


Figure 4.1: Preliminary Hardware Design Block Diagram

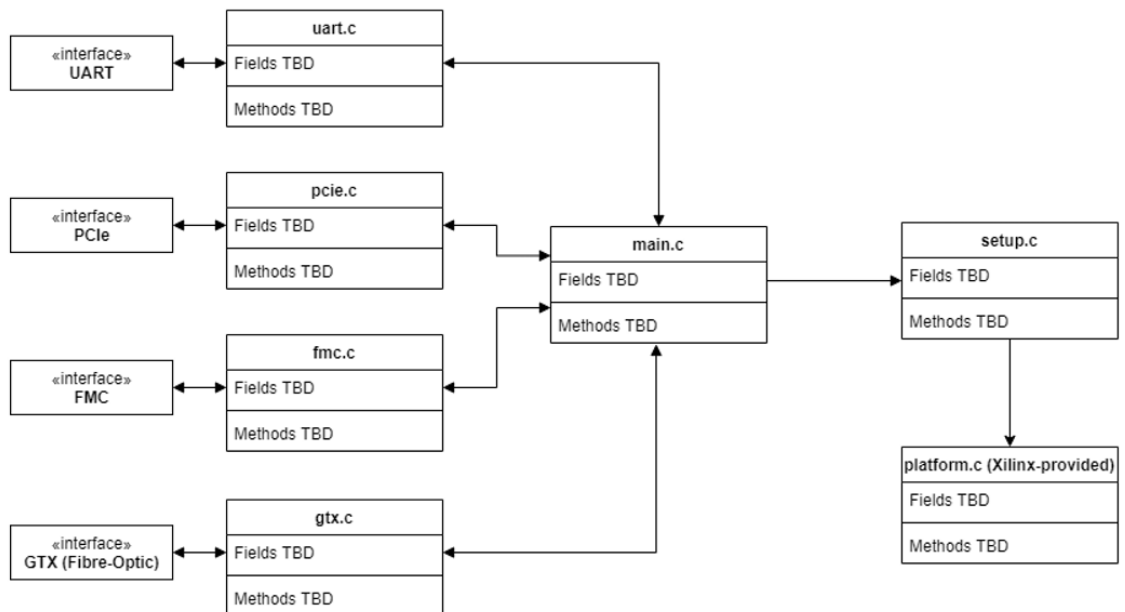


Figure 4.2: Preliminary Embedded Software Block Diagram

## 4.2 Intermediary Implementation Discussion

### 4.2.1 PCIe GPIO Connection

The initial design of the system used the built-in PCIe connector on the development kit as well as an additional PCIe connector attached via the FMC ports. This idea was quickly scrapped due to the impracticality of a long PCIe cable stretching between the FPGA and the Dewar wall as well as the difficulty involved in manipulating the PCIe standard to serve as discrete digital GPIO pins.

### 4.2.2 Fibre-Optic Network Connection

The initial design of the system intended that the SFP cage on the development kit be used to transfer data to an SFP port on the host PC. The high-speed interface of the gigabit transceivers lends itself to data transfer at the required speeds. Unfortunately, weeks of development went into having the PC and the FPGA communicate over the network connection with no success. The reason for this is not definitively known, but it is likely that the hardware SFP card installed into the PC refused to acknowledge the FPGA as a network device.

### 4.2.3 Simultaneous Operation

One important requirement of the design was overlooked during the planning phase, but fortunately it was a simple fix. The process of clocking and controlling signals used by the CEB and the QIS was implemented in software. Running an SFP or Ethernet network server on the FPGA required full-time use of the MicroBlaze processor. The solution to this was to implement the clock and control logic in hardware instead of software so that it runs constantly. This way, the process is initialised on boot and thereafter proceeds on its own, leaving the processor free to run the server.

### 4.2.4 Ethernet Network Connection

One of the steps taken in the debugging process was to haphazardly replace the SFP cable with a standard Ethernet cable and modify the design accordingly. After doing this, the PC was able to recognise and communicate with the FPGA via basic tests such as an echo server. This method of data transfer was pursued nearly to the point of success. The FPGA was able to send data packets to the PC and have them retain integrity. While investigating memory access and custom buffering solutions for the Ethernet subsystem, however, the team discovered deepfifo [27] and thereby XillyUSB [28]. The development path was moved to the XillyUSB ecosystem due to the fact that the Ethernet subsystem required a license of \$650 and the license to use the XillyUSB ecosystem was provided free of charge for academic use.

### 4.2.5 Custom FMC Board

One of the changes made to the design in order to achieve functionality was changing how the GPIO ports were used. Instead of the impractical PCIe interface, the design was modified to simply use FMC pins directly with the assistance of a custom-made FMC printed circuit board, implemented by Justin Gallagher. This board attaches to the FMC connectors on the FPGA and directly accesses the pins, removing the need for any interface definition past what is needed by each signal. Figure 4.3 shows an image of the FPGA with the custom FMC board attached.

### 4.2.6 XillyUSB

The XillyUSB system mentioned previously advertises itself as “a simple turnkey solution.” The following quote describes the system in the company’s own words:

Xillybus was designed with the understanding that data flow handling is where most FPGA engineers have a hard time, and is also a common

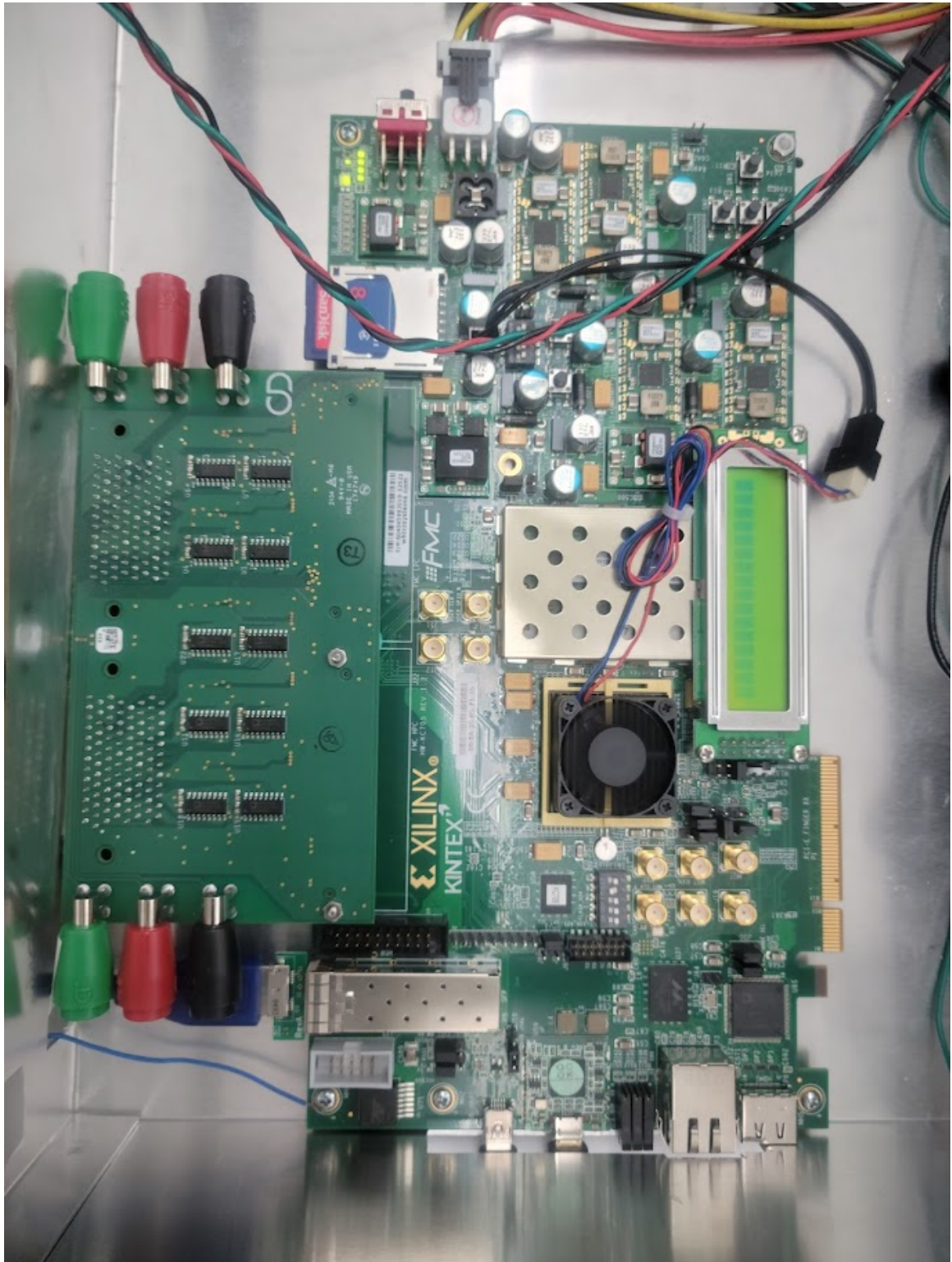


Figure 4.3: KC705 with custom FMC PCB (Left)

reason for bugs. Fluctuations in application data supply and demand tend to generate rarely reached states in the logic, often revealing hidden bugs which are extremely difficult to tackle.

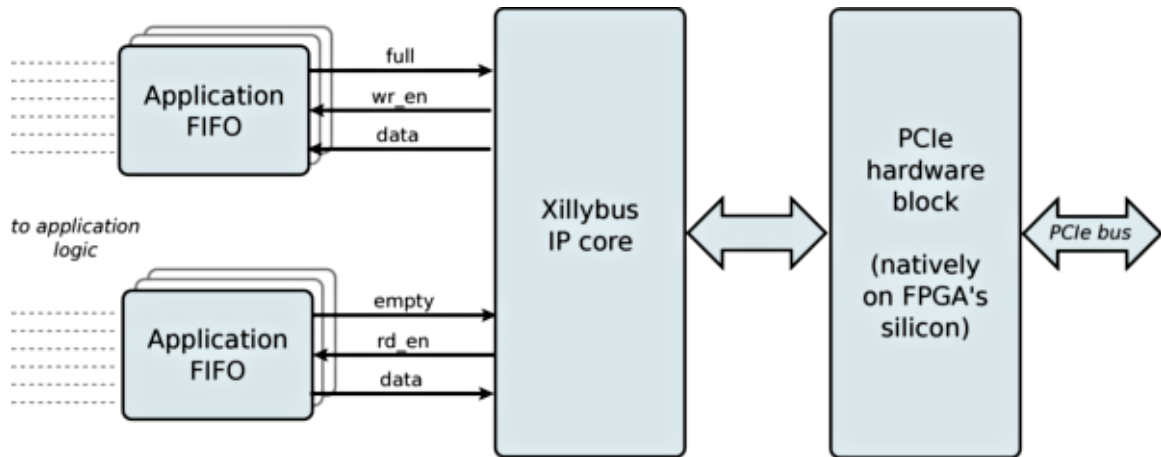
Accordingly, Xillybus doesn't just supply a wrapper for the underlying transport (e.g. a PCIe DMA engine), but offers several end-to-end stream pipes for application data transport. This is a "once-and-for-all" solution, which has undergone heavy stress testing on numerous FPGA platforms and IP core configurations. Robustness and dependability can't be specified on a datasheet, but are easily told while testing. Luckily, integrating Xillybus with a target application for real-life stress testing is a relatively simple task, so evaluating its worthiness is an immediate and low-risk assignment. [28]

Figure 4.4 shows the company's provided block diagram for the system. The system was used in place of Ethernet or fibre-optic communication between the FPGA and PC due to its meeting the requirements for data rate and stability and being a pre-tested solution. This solution was not available when the planning for this project was completed, and this is why it was only discovered as part of the iterative design process.

In practice, Xillybus proved to be very useful and relatively simple to implement into this design. It proved to be simpler and more reliable than the TCP/IP implementation in testing.

### 4.2.7 deepfifo

The solution to memory access and buffering on the FPGA was also provided by the Xillybus company. It is called deepfifo and is described as "a drop-in standard FPGA FIFO with gigabyte depth." It also happens to be most tested on the KC705, which



**Figure 4.4:** Simplified block diagram, showing the application of one data stream in each direction

is the FPGA development kit already in use for this project. The following quote describes deepfifo in the company’s own words:

“This module was written in response to repeated request for one-shot data acquisition with Xillybus at bandwidths that are above what Xillybus makes possible (or even the PCIe interface itself). As the FPGA boards involved often have DDR RAM memories with a much larger bandwidth capability, it’s appealing to suggest using the DDR memories as the immediate target for the data, and then move the data further to the computer with Xillybus at a slower pace. However that requires some kind of logic to get the data on and off the DDR memories.

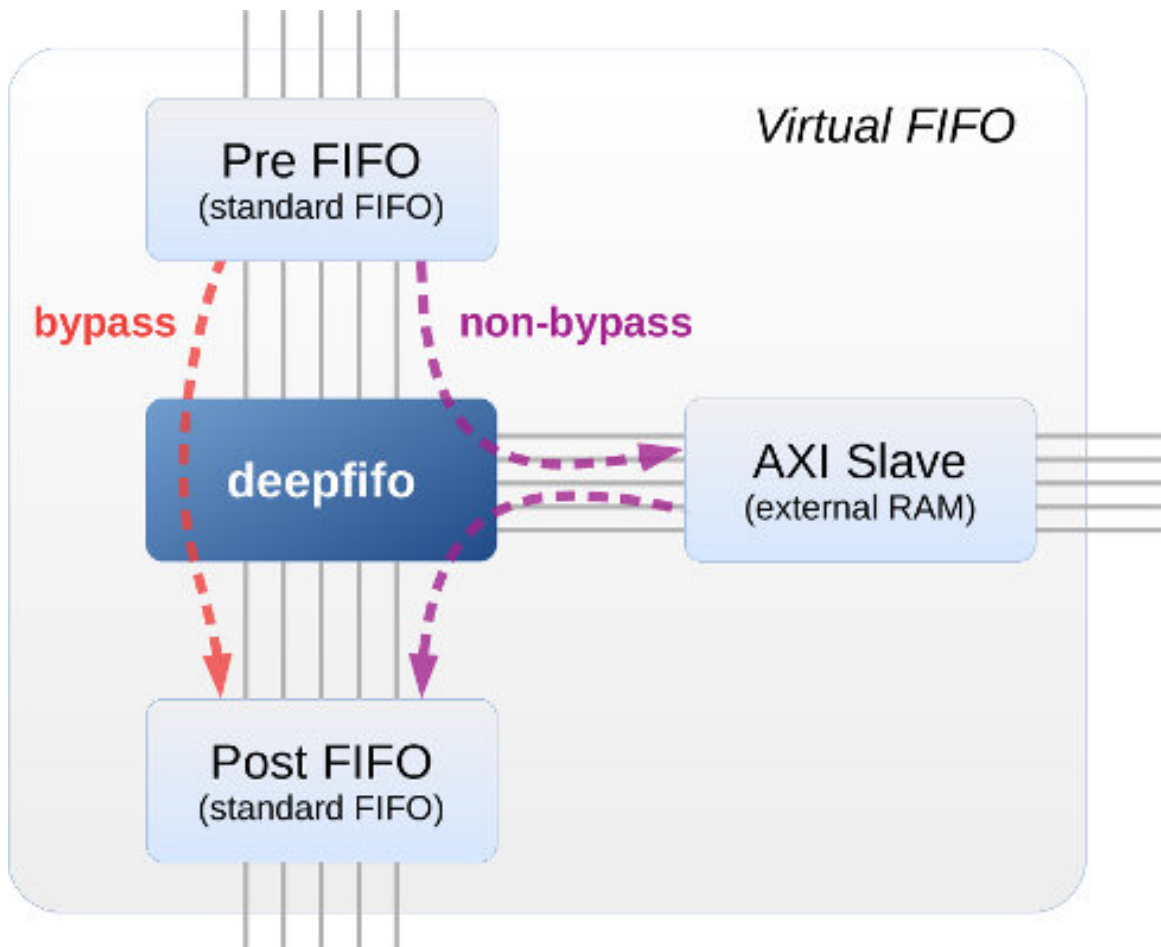
With the module suggested on this page, it’s roughly a matter of replacing the existing FIFO between Xillybus and the application logic with another FIFO, having a depth measured in Gigabytes.

But it’s a wider issue: In many FPGA applications there’s a need for a plain, standard FIFO that is substantially deeper than possible with the memory resources given by the FPGA itself. The obvious solution is to utilise external memory, in particular when working on a development

board which has DDR memories on board anyhow.

Surprisingly enough, there's currently no immediately available solution for this. While Xilinx supplies a Virtual FIFO Controller in Vivado's IP catalogue, it's hardly an extension of a standard FIFO, but rather a storage controller for bursts of data.

This page presents a Verilog module, `deepfifo`, that implements a virtual FIFO with a standard FIFO API. Based upon some external storage, which is supplied to `deepfifo` in the form of an AXI slave, `deepfifo` mimics the behaviour of a standard FIFO with the depth allowed by this external storage." [27]



**Figure 4.5:** `deepfifo`: A drop-in standard FPGA FIFO with gigabyte depth



In this hardware design, this module serves as a stand-in for the direct memory access system in place to support the Ethernet subsystem. The design was modified to use this module instead due to it being pre-tested, which allowed the team to save development time and reassign resources to other tasks. Figure 4.5 shows the company's provided block diagram. The described implementation instructions were followed and proved to be an adequate guide to using the hardware.

# Chapter 5

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## Design Elaboration

### 5.1 Design Innovations

The most important distinction of this system from the others that are in use involves the use of the Dewar. By splitting QIS control and data acquisition between the FPGA system and the cold electronics board, it presents the ability to test the detector in a cryo-vac environment. This is a significant innovation to Dartmouth College's design, as their readout detector PCB and digital / analog readout electronics are all attached to each other. This prohibits installation into a Dewar. By separating the system into a detector head, cold electronics, and warm electronics, RIT will be able to perform space-environment testing. Figure 5.1 shows a block diagram of the RIT testing system with included Dewar wall. Figure 5.2 shows the physical testing setup used at RIT, with the three distinct parts of the system visible.

The detector head and cold electronics subsystems were designed specifically for use in a Dewar, and as such have very specific limitations on size and shape of electronics. This affects the rest of the design in terms of part selection, cable length, and overall design topology. Because of the custom peripherals as well as the need to transport data through the Dewar wall, Dartmouth's FPGA system could not be used for this application. Therefore, a new hardware and software system was needed.

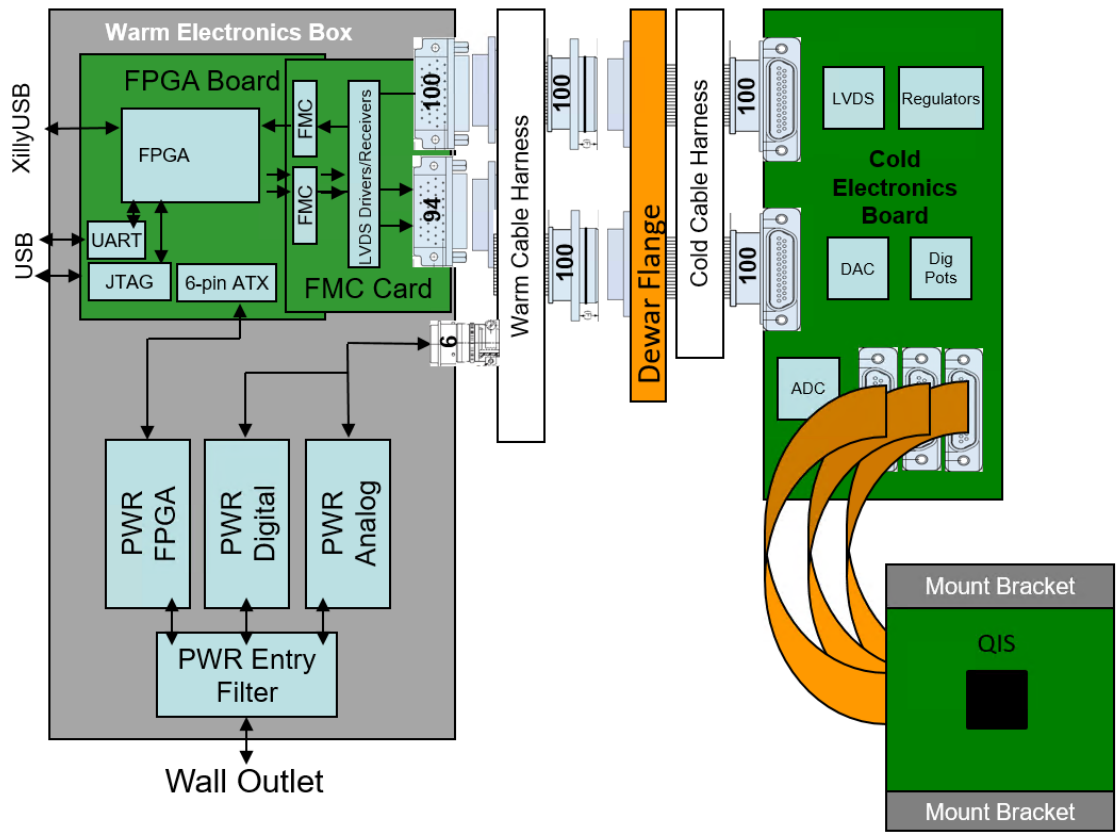
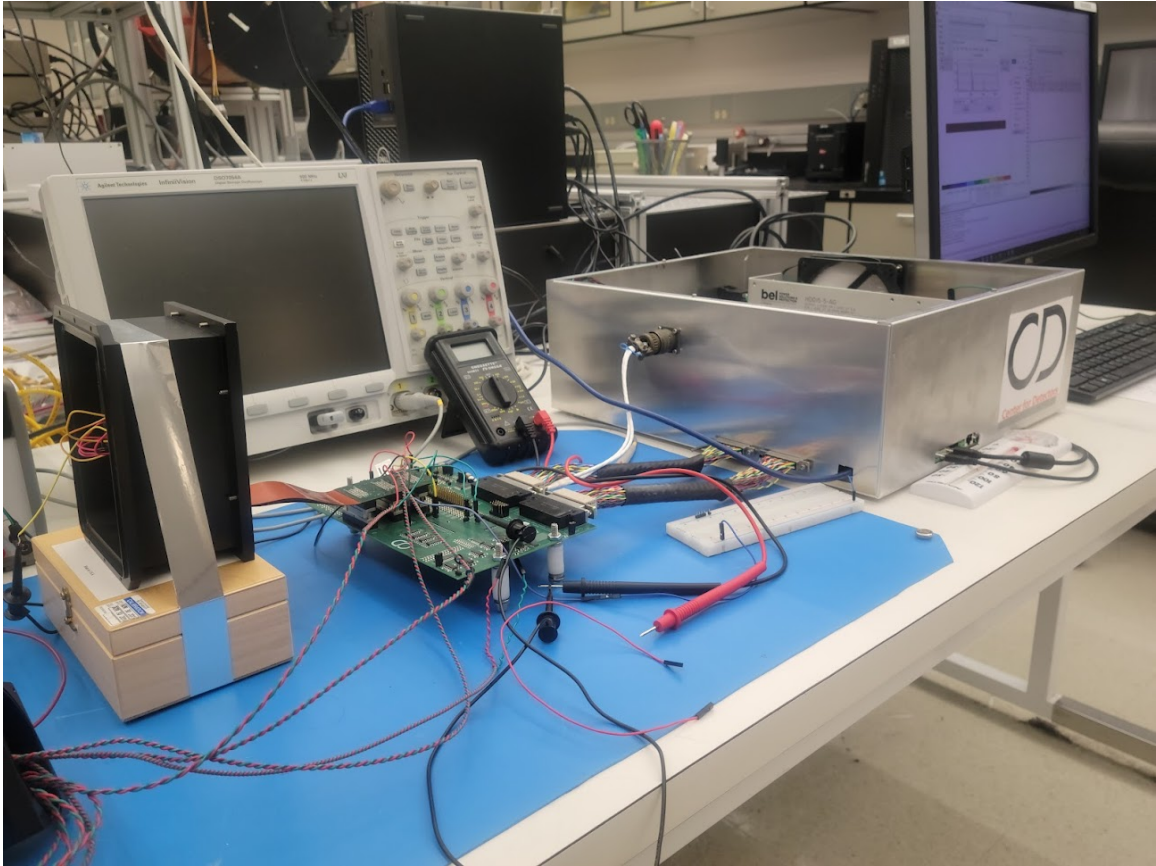


Figure 5.1: Block design of the FMC card functionality

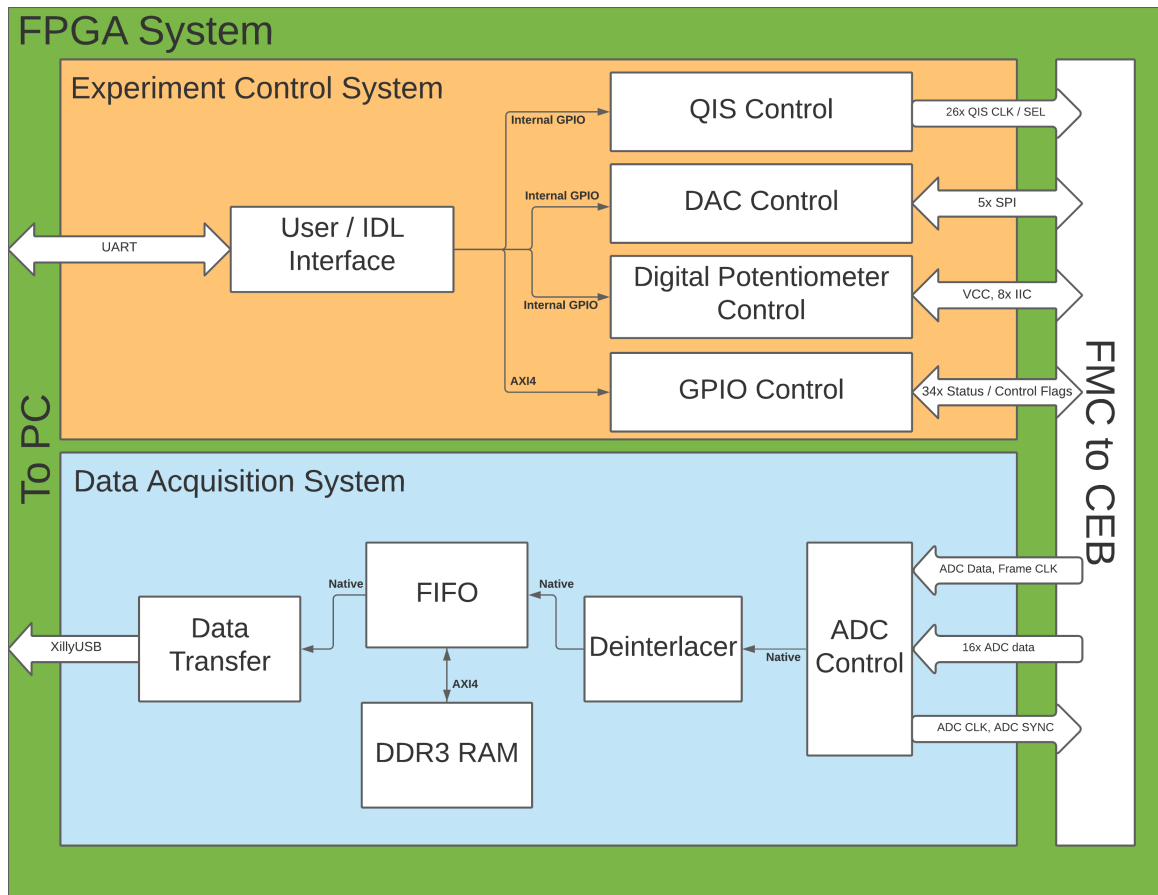


**Figure 5.2:** RIDL FPGA Test Setup

## 5.2 Hardware System

The final iteration of the design within the scope of this thesis involves all of the experience gained from unsuccessful iterations. The end result is a robust and fully functioned hardware and software system. Figure 5.3 shows a functional block diagram of the FPGA hardware.

Each portion of the hardware system serves a purpose towards the operation of the system as a whole. The following subsections will explain each subsystem of the FPGA hardware design and touch on their functionality in more detail.



**Figure 5.3:** Functional Block Diagram of the FPGA Hardware

### 5.2.1 MicroBlaze Processor Subsystem

The MicroBlaze is a soft-core microprocessor that can be instantiated onto Xilinx FPGA fabric. It serves as the main control module for the hardware design, and has several peripherals of its own. The first major peripheral is the local memory, which allows for code and data storage in a low-latency format. Next, the interrupt controller allows for hardware interrupts to be provided to the device from additional peripherals such as the Universal Asynchronous Receiver / Transmitter (UART). The debug module allows Vivado to provide, through its software development kit, software debugging functionalities similar to those available for popular non-embedded development environments. Finally, the processor system reset ensures that the processor, its local peripherals, and all external peripherals are reset synchronously when

a reset command is received or when the physical reset button on the board is pressed. The software itself that is running on the processor is detailed in Section 5.3.

### 5.2.2 Clock Control Subsystem

Timing for this system was provided by a series of Xilinx Clocking Wizards. The Clocking Wizards were noted to provide insufficiently precise period and frequency values when they were asked for more than three high-speed clock outputs, so the need for clock outputs was split across three such Clocking Wizards. Table 5.1 shows all of the system's clock signals. The `ui_clk` signal is not visible in this subsystem, but it will be shown in the memory access subsystem.

**Table 5.1:** Clock signals and frequencies

Clock Name	Frequency (MHz)	Usage
<code>clk_200_main</code>	200	Provides a single-ended clock to subsequent clocking wizards
<code>clk_350</code>	350	Operates Integrated Logic Analysers
<code>clk_200_mb</code>	200	Operates the MicroBlaze processor and its local peripherals
<code>clk_140</code>	140	Operates the pixel select and ADC hardware subsystems
<code>clk_8</code>	8	Operates the DAC hardware subsystem
<code>clk_280</code>	280	Allows the ADC hardware block to retrieve data at the proper time
<code>ui_clk</code>	200	Generated by the MIG, operates deepfifo and RAM peripherals

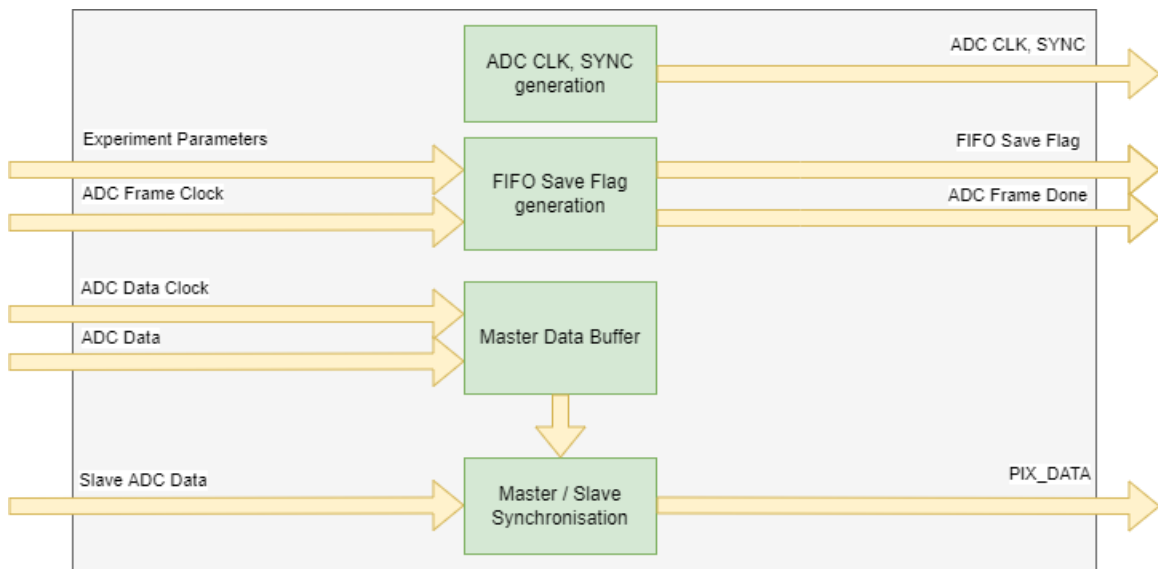
### 5.2.3 Analog-to-Digital Converter (ADC) Control Subsystem

An important distinction must be made regarding the ADC Control Subsystem: the subsystem does not perform the Analog-to-digital conversion itself, but rather controls the 14-bit ADC devices present on the Cold Electronics Board. Due to the high-speed nature of the data acquisition related to this project, the ADC controller serves a number of purposes. They are as follows:

1. Create a differential clock for the ADC chips.
2. Create a synchronisation signal for the ADC chips.
3. Read and buffer data output by the ADC chips.

4. Provide data to the Memory Access Subsystem.
5. Report to the Memory Access Subsystem when it is safe to read provided data.

Figure 5.4 shows a functional diagram of the internal logic that completes the tasks above. The ADC clock and synchronisation signals are output as designated by the data sheet for the part. One ADC clock cycle is sectioned into 28 parts based upon either transition edge of the input clock. This makes the ADC clock 14 times slower than the input clock. The input clock was chosen to be 140 MHz to clock the ADC at 10 MHz.



**Figure 5.4:** Functional block diagram of the Master ADC hardware block

The FIFO Save Flag signal telegraphs to the Memory Access Subsystem that it is safe to read the data off of the output lines, and is calculated by counting the number of samples required to fill the buffer and allowing reads to happen when the buffer is stable.

The Slave ADC hardware block works exactly in the same way, but uses the data clock, frame clock, and output data from the second ADC package on the CEB. However, instead of just outputting its data outright, it sends it to the Master block.

The Master block then synchronises both sets of data lines to the data clock of the first ADC package to avoid issues when reading.

The ADC chips used for this project were the AD9257 devices, which needed to be interacted with in specific ways. Figure 5.5, provided by Analog Devices, shows the timing diagram of the chip when used in its default mode [29]. The significance of this diagram is the updating of data (D+, D-) with respect to the Data Clock (DCO) and Frame Clock (FCO). One full period of FCO represents one full 14-bit read. However, data is updated on both edges of DCO, which means that the FPGA needs to read the data lines on both edges as well. This dual-edge activation is difficult to implement in an environment with no provided Dual Edge Flip Flop primitives. This problem was solved by providing the ADC controller with a clock that is twice as fast as the input rate of DCO so that when DCO is sampled on the rising edge of both clocks, it can be ensured that at least one sample occurs between transitions of DCO.

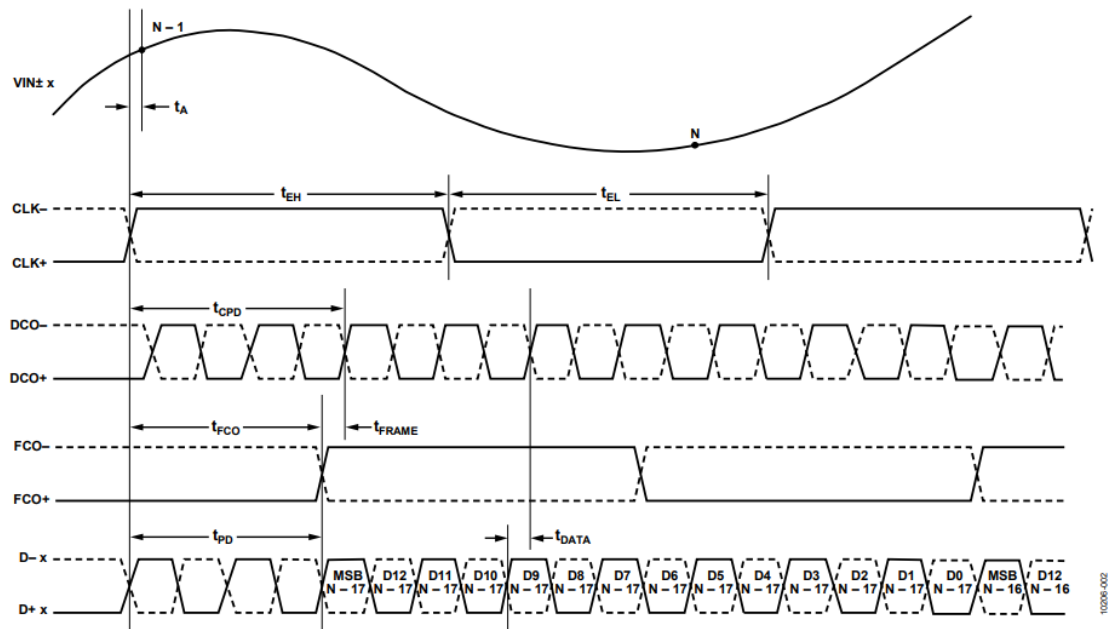


Figure 5.5: The default, single frame, 14-bit output mode timing diagram of the AD9257



#### 5.2.4 Digital-to-Analog Converter (DAC) Control Subsystem

The DAC Control Subsystem operates similarly to the ADC controller, albeit with fewer specific considerations. The chip used for this project is the AD5372 32-channel DAC, and the CEB uses this device to control voltage levels without breaking vacuum. On the FPGA, the controller is operated by a simple internal GPIO interface. Instead of exposing the GPIO pins to off-chip peripherals as is typical, they are simply connected to the hardware block on the FPGA fabric. This allows for simple and user-friendly control from the MicroBlaze embedded software. The DAC chips themselves are responsible for providing reference voltages to the QIS. The data format for DAC control is standard Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI) and does not need any specific programming past what is mentioned in the part's documentation.

#### 5.2.5 General Purpose Input / Output (GPIO) Control Subsystem

The GPIO subsystem on the FPGA is very simple. It connects external pins on the FMC connector array to the MicroBlaze so that their state can be modified in software. This is used for signals such as amplifier bypass, specific peripheral resets, and 3.3 volt power connections. Because the majority of the GPIO connections required are taken care of by other subsystems, e.g. the ADC Control Subsystem, most of the additional connections available through this subsystem are unused, but are provided for the sake of future updates or extensions.

#### 5.2.6 Inter-Integrated Circuit (IIC) Control Subsystem

The IIC peripherals used on this FPGA are reserved solely for the programming of four groups of digital potentiometer devices on the cold electronics board. These digital potentiometers are used to fine-tune bias current and voltage levels so as to meet the operational requirements of the QIS.

### **5.2.7 Memory Access Subsystem**

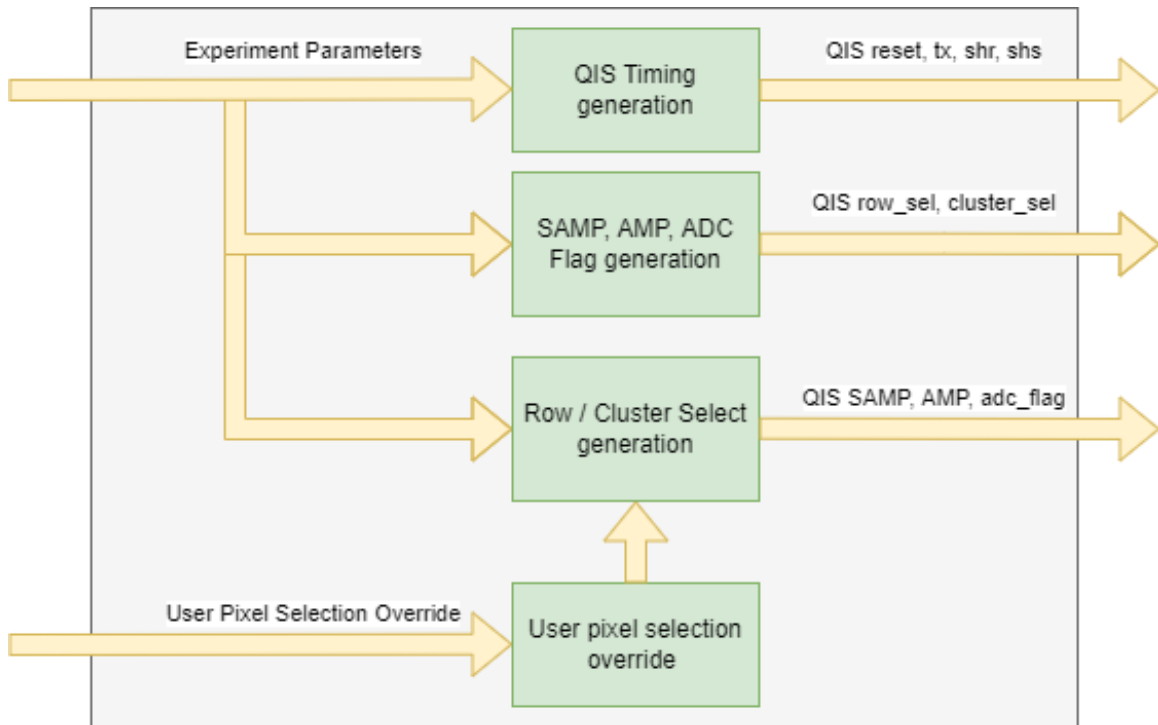
The final implementation of the Memory Access Subsystem consists of a Xilinx Memory Interface Generator (MIG) used to communicate directly with the 1-gigabyte DDR3 Random Access Memory (RAM) module on the FPGA development kit. The RAM unit is used as a data buffer in case the FPGA is able to generate data more quickly than the host PC can read it out. This buffering is enabled by the Xillybus deepfifo module[27]. As requested in the implementation directions for deepfifo, the FPGA provides it with two small FIFO primitives. Due to the high rate of speed achieved by the readout software on the host PC, deepfifo is always empty. Future projects may be simplified by removing it and replacing it with a larger on-chip FPGA FIFO, but there is no reason seen to remove it from this project at this time. It does not introduce any notable latency to the data chain and serves as a fall-back to be used if the PC cannot perform data read commands for any reason. Figure 4.5 serves as a reference for the intended operation of deepfifo.

The FPGA FIFOs, as well as deepfifo, are run off of the `ui_clk` generated by the MIG. This is to ensure that all time-sensitive events occurring within the Memory Access Subsystem are synchronised to the hardware of the RAM controller itself. This minimises the possibility of data collisions that can be caused by the use of two separate clocks in one data pipeline.

### **5.2.8 Pixel Selection Subsystem**

The final hardware subsystem used is the Pixel Selection Subsystem. This system, like the DAC Control Subsystem, is operated by an internal GPIO interface. This interface provides crucial information from the MicroBlaze subsystem, such as the number of Correlated Double Sampling (CDS) samples or the desired integration time for the exposure. The Pixel Select Subsystem is responsible for a large number of necessary control signals, as follows:

1. Transmission clock control
2. Transmission enable and reset
3. Sampling enable and reset
4. Data counter
5. ADC acquisition begin
6. Select row of detector array
7. Select column of detector array
8. Select cluster of detector array



**Figure 5.6:** Functional block diagram of pixel selection subsystem

Figure 5.6 shows a functional block diagram of the pixel selection subsystem. The main input of this subsystem is the experiment parameters, which are the number of CDS samples to be taken, the integration time, and the binning mode. Additionally,

a user may select a single pixel for debugging purposes by declaring its cluster, row, and column values.

Samples are taken by a simple control loop that iterates over detector clusters, columns, and rows respectively. This allows a larger amount of time between sampling of physically neighbouring pixels, which allows voltage levels to settle on the detector chip itself. The experiment parameters are taken into account in each loop and used to generate the control signals as required by the QIS device. The number of CDS samples relates to the number of times the pixel under observation is read for each sample. The integration time relates to the amount of time the pixels are measured for. Enabling binning mode allows charges from adjacent pixels to be measured together. This provides faster readout speeds at the expense of image resolution. By virtue of generating these control signals, this block is most directly related to the QIS detector itself, and it is essential to maintain synchronisation and reliability of this block for the safety of the device.

### 5.3 Software System

The final embedded software implementation for this project became much simpler than initially envisioned due to the shift of experiment control from software to hardware. This eliminated the need for the embedded software to control clocks, ADC control, DAC control, and memory access. This change was originally made to allow the processor to devote itself to operating the Ethernet server. When the Ethernet server implementation was eschewed in favour of XillyUSB, the software was not given additional responsibilities because it proved easier and more efficient to manage clocking and data transfer in hardware. This just left the software with three responsibilities: manage GPIO transactions, manage IIC communication, and provide a Command Line Interface (CLI) to the host PC. Figure 5.7 shows the final embedded software block diagram, and its contrast with Figure 4.2 should be noted.

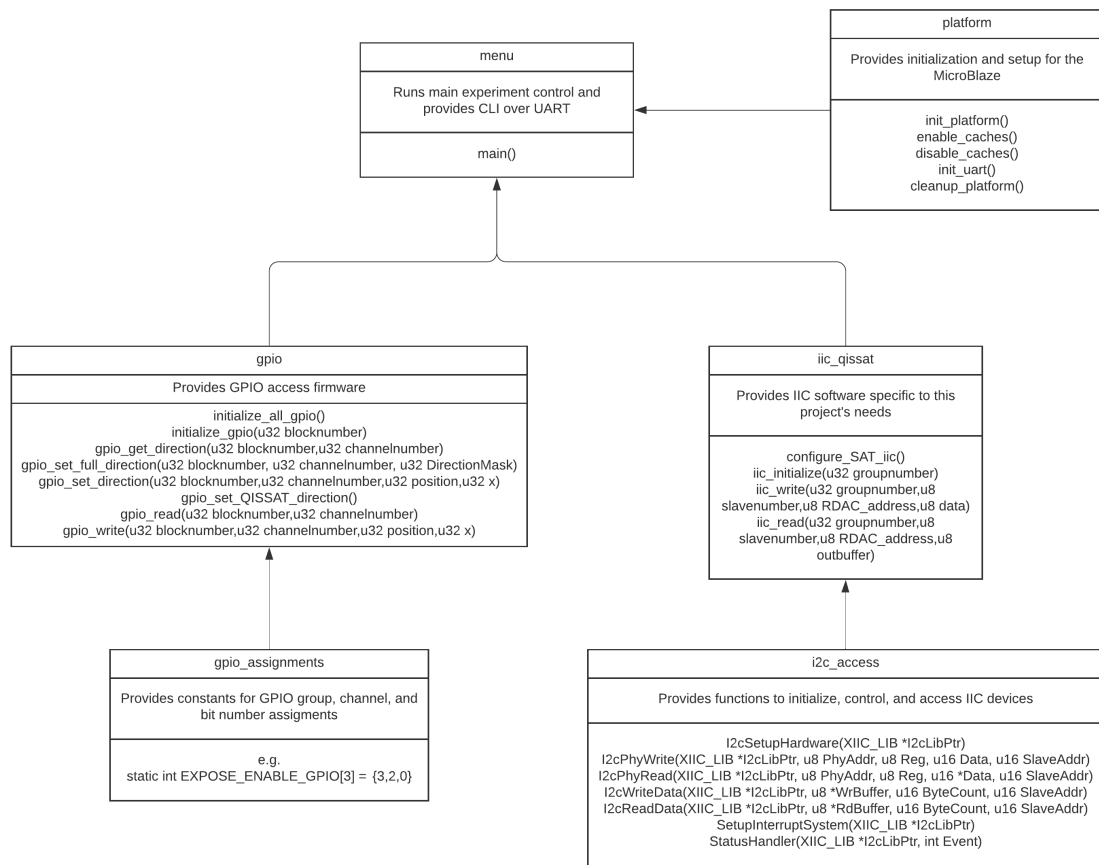


Figure 5.7: Final Embedded Software Block Diagram

# Chapter 6

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## Results & Analysis

Although the project as a whole is still underway, a great amount of progress was made over the course of the work for this thesis. The requirements mentioned in Section 3.1 have all been met. Those requirements are reproduced here for convenience:

1. The FPGA system will be able to clock the QIS in accordance with Dartmouth College's specifications.
2. The FPGA system will be able to perform at the rate of one full image per second.
3. The FPGA system will be able to process input from the PC and use it to control experiment variations and to program components on the CEB.
4. The FPGA system will be able to capture the sixteen stream outputs from the CEB and present them to the PC in a reasonable data format.
5. The FPGA system will deliver all raw data (i.e. without reduction) to the PC for reduction and analysis.
6. The FPGA system will utilise an off-the-shelf FPGA development kit.
7. The FPGA system will allow bidirectional communication between the PC and the CEB.

8. The FPGA system will use an IDL / C / C++ Digitally Linked Library (DLL) to enable IDL support.
9. The FPGA system will be powered by its included DC power supply.

## 6.1 System Performance

Table 6.1 is a copy of Table 3.1 but with the addition of the results of each test performed.

**Table 6.1:** Status of Tests Performed

Req. #	Test	Test Description	Test Status
1	A	Verify that all QIS signals operate within their prescribed timing and electrical requirements.	PASS
2	B	Verify that the FPGA system is not the limiting factor in image capture speed.	PASS
3	C	Verify that the FPGA system can program the DACs and Digital Potentiometers on the CEB.	PASS
4	D	Verify data integrity through the data-path on the FPGA system.	PASS
5			
6	N/A	No testing needed.	N/A
7	E	Verify that the FPGA system can communicate with standard RIDL device control.	PASS
8			
9	N/A	No testing needed.	N/A

### 6.1.1 Test A Results: Verify that all QIS signals operate within their prescribed timing and electrical requirements

Because of the cost and scarcity of the QIS device itself, it is incredibly important to ensure that all signals and clocks are operating within acceptable parameters before the device is installed. To this end, an external digital logic analyser was used to record all data that would have gone to the QIS device and confirm its compatibility with the requirements given by Dartmouth College [7]. The purpose of this test is to ensure there are no unexpected or unintended signal changes or pulses occurring that may damage the QIS.

Figure 6.1 shows the output of a digital logic analyser that samples at the QIS chip carrier as one part of a series of tests. It was generated with the system in standard experiment operation mode, with a CDS value of 4 and binning mode disabled. This

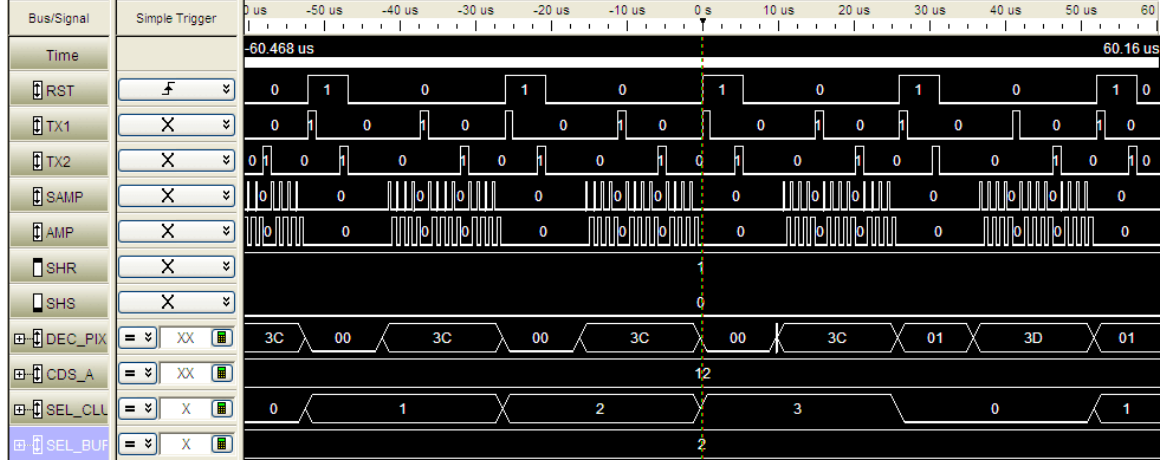


Figure 6.1: Observed QIS Logic

is one example of a typical usage of the system with the QIS installed. By ensuring that the output matches both the intended output and follows the format given by Deng [7], it can be concluded that the system is safe for QIS installation.

### 6.1.2 Test B Results: Verify that the FPGA system is not the limiting factor in image capture speed

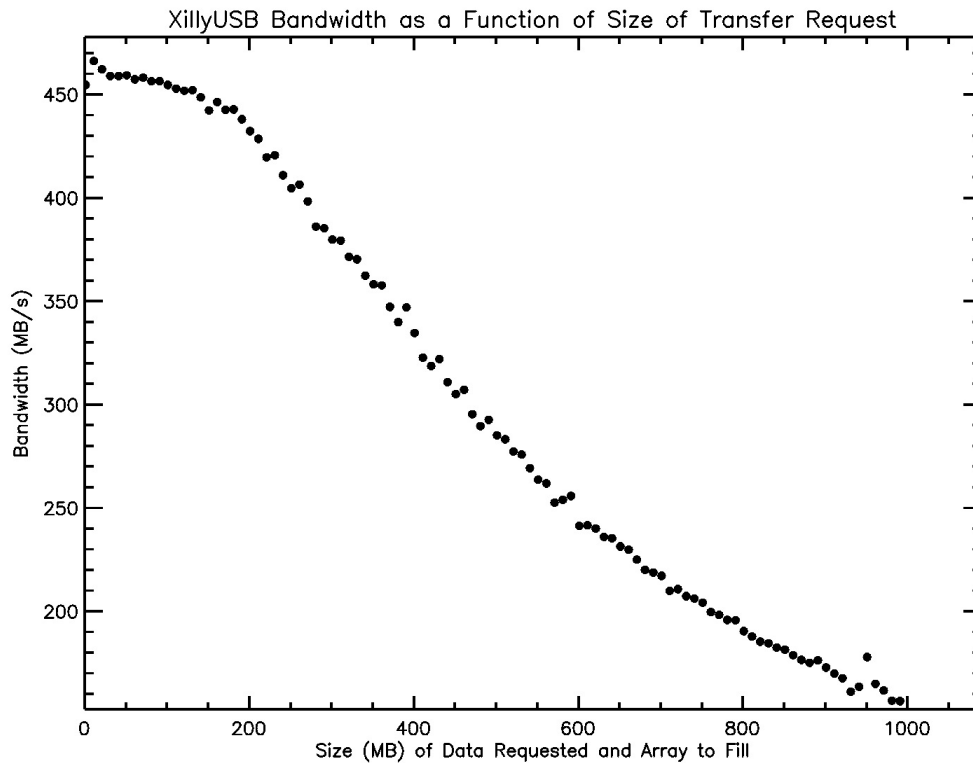
There are several ways to confirm that the system meets the data-rate required of it. The first is to notice that the 1-gigabyte FIFO used on the FPGA to buffer data never fills up and in fact, is never populated at all. This is because the rate at which the host computer can read out data exceeds the rate at which the FPGA can capture. Additionally, the maximum necessary data rate can be calculated by use of a few simple equations, as shown below, with values for the system’s largest possible data acquisition entered.

$$n\_samples = n\_CDS * (3 - binning) * n\_rows * n\_cols * n\_channels \quad (6.1)$$

$$n\_samples = 64 * (3 - 0) * 1024 * 32 * 16 = 100663296 \quad (6.2)$$



At two bytes per sample, this translates to 201.33 megabytes of data to transfer. With the system requirement of transferring one frame per second, this makes the maximum theoretical data-rate just over 200 MBps. Figure 6.2 shows a plot of observed data rate when different amounts of data are requested from the XillyUSB interface used on this project. As can be seen in the plot, 200 megabytes at 200 MBps is well within the speed observed in practice.

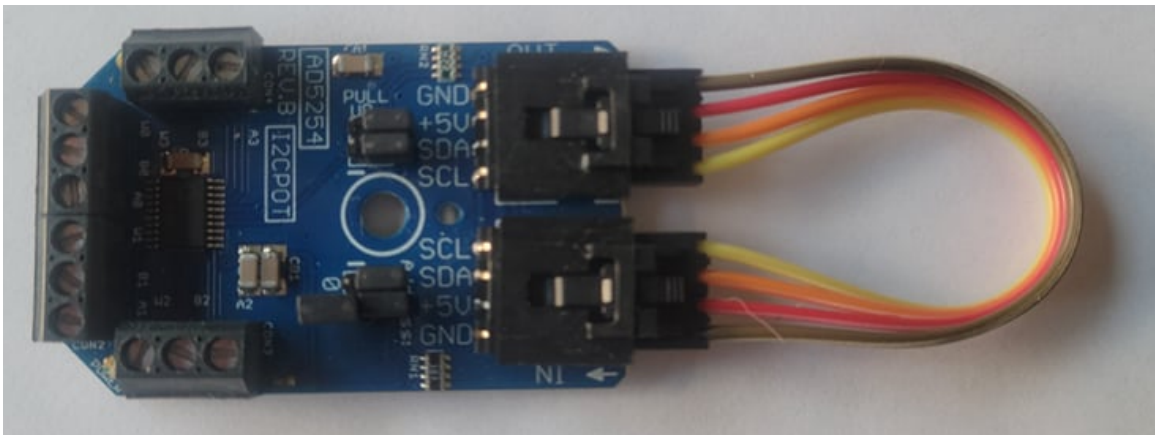


**Figure 6.2:** XillyUSB Bandwidth Analysis, data taken by Gallagher

### 6.1.3 Test C Results: Verify that the FPGA system can program the DACs and Digital Potentiometers on the CEB

This feature was tested both by observing the output logic as in the previous test as well as by testing with the devices themselves. A test device for the digital potentiometers, shown in Figure 6.3, was used to verify the programming capabilities by setting the device up and measuring the resistance at its output. The DAC, on

the other hand, was tested on the CEB itself. Both devices were seen to behave as intended.



**Figure 6.3:** Test Module used to verify programming of the digital potentiometers

#### 6.1.4 Test D Results: Verify data integrity through the data-path on the FPGA system

The FPGA system has been shown to correctly and consistently pass data to the host PC. This was tested by manually injecting known data patterns at the earliest part of the data acquisition pipeline and comparing it to the output. In this system, the injection point was at the input of the ADC subsystem, as this is the first subsystem that receives data from the CEB. Figure 6.4 shows the injection point as seen in the block design of the FPGA hardware, and Figure 6.5 shows it in the larger context of the entire system.

Based on the data taken with the data injector test mentioned above, the FPGA hardware design presents data with a zero percent bit error rate. This was determined through a comprehensive test involving different data patterns being injected and observed.

A common pattern used to display data integrity is a basic gradient which can show the digital range of the device as well as its consistency over time. The test pattern in question includes data that changes over time. This test confirms that each

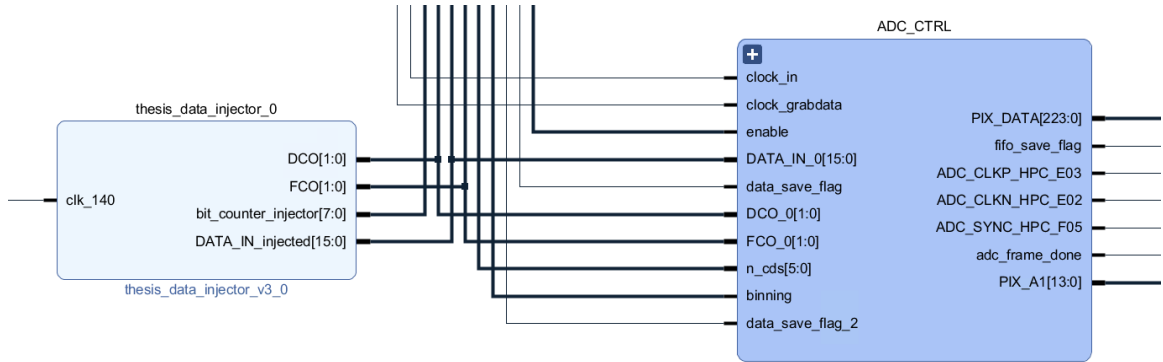


Figure 6.4: Data Injector connected to ADC Subsystem

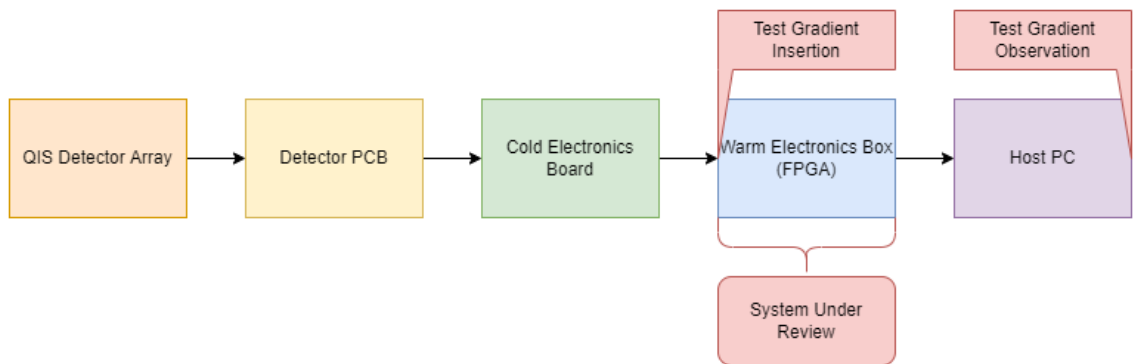


Figure 6.5: Annotated full data-path of the system

sample contains the correct bits designated for that particular sample. The values used to create this gradient pattern were 1001, 2000, 3001, and so on, to a maximum of 16000. Channels 7 and 8, which would have contained the values 8000 and 9001, respectively, were modified. They were replaced with an oscillating value of 16383, the maximum possible value output by a 14-bit ADC, or 0. The reason the values chosen are the ones above are for two reasons. Firstly, using values between 0 and 16383 models the full depth of the potential ADC outputs. Secondly, using values that end in 1 when encoded in binary makes it immediately obvious in the output image if there is a logical shift occurring between neighbouring samples.

Figure 6.6 shows the successful result of this test. The horizontal axis of this image is time, and the vertical axis represents ADC channels. The channel number as well as the observed values are added to the image as annotations. Ten sets of two exposures each were taken with this test setup and the result was the same each time. Additional exposures were taken on subsequent days simply to verify that there was no change in the output data. Based on the reliability of these results, as well as the consistency of results between multiple exposures and frames, it can be said with a high level of confidence that the portion of the data-path represented by the work of this thesis operates as intended.

### **6.1.5 Test E Results: Verify that the FPGA system can communicate with standard RIDL device control**

The FPGA and the RIDL control suite interact in two ways: the serial connection used for commands, and the USB 3.0 connection used to transfer data. the RIDL control suite, written in IDL, is able to communicate over the computer's serial connection simply by using the standard Windows `serial.dll`. The USB 3.0 connection, whose driver is provided by XillyUSB, is slightly more in-depth but was also implemented successfully. Additional proof of this success lies in the fact that all data taken as

Modeled ADC Channel: 15						16000
14						15001
13						14000
12						13001
11						12000
10						11001
9						10000
8	■	■	■	■	■	16383
7	■	■	■	■	■	0
6						7001
5						6000
4						5001
3						4000
2						3001
1						2000
0						1001

**Figure 6.6:** Test gradient with time-dependent data on centre channels

part of Section 6.1.4 was taken through the XillyUSB connection.

## 6.2 Detector Performance

Unfortunately, the detector itself has not yet been characterised due to the remainder of the data path remaining in development. Even though the scope of this thesis does not include the full testing system, the work done here does represent a baseline from which the detector can be properly characterised and tested without concern about data integrity on the FPGA itself. It also provides a safe control system for the QIS that has been tested to minimise the possibility of damage to the device. The next steps in order to complete the detector characterisation include optimising the system for the specific detector chip by slightly modifying bias currents and voltages as well as verifying the functionality of the detector head and cold electronics board.

# Chapter 7

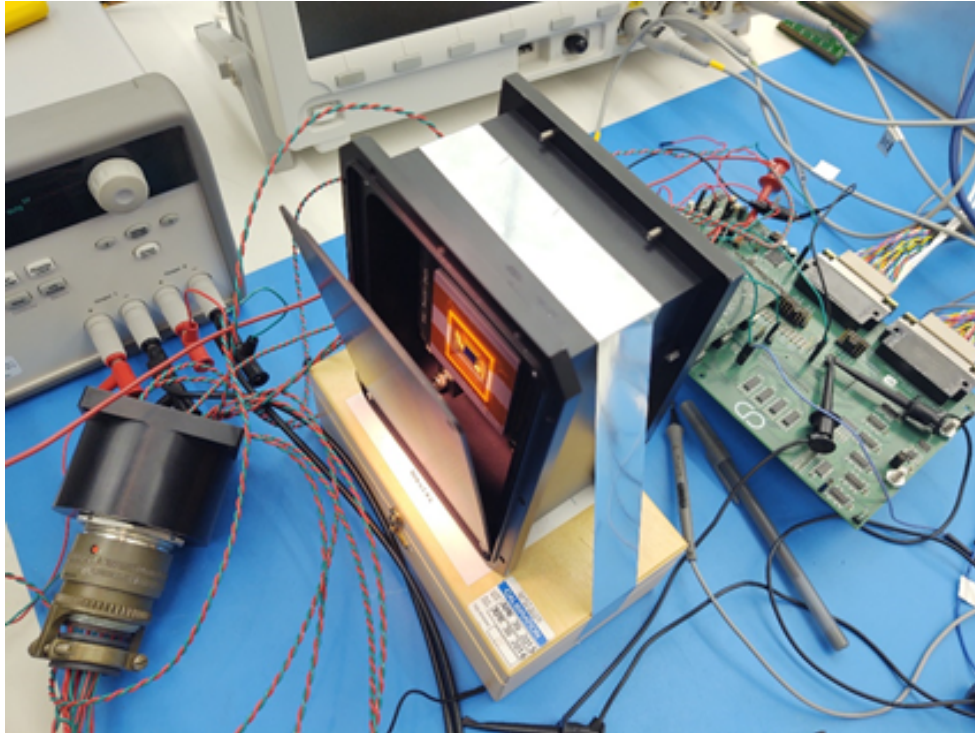
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## Conclusions

Advancements in detector technology require custom readout, control, and testing systems in order to create practical applications. This thesis details one such system. The result of this thesis was not only a successful FPGA-based data pipeline system for the QIS, but also a framework for future implementations. All things considered, the FPGA system functioned as expected and intended, despite issues encountered in the design and implementation process. Although the project as a whole remains in development, the system described in this thesis provides a functional and safe foundation that can be used through the end of this project and a baseline for future projects. Figure 7.1 shows an image of the QIS device installed into the test electronics at the RIT Center for Detectors.

As mentioned in Section 1.2, the major contributions of this thesis as compared to the current state of the art are as follows:

1. Provides a system with which to characterise the Quanta Image Sensor detector, specifically in cryogenic temperature, vacuum pressure, and radiation exposure environments
2. Provides a fully functional, modular, and extensible framework that can be modified for testing and controlling next-generation image sensors other than the QIS



**Figure 7.1:** The QIS Pathfinder device installed into the RIT CfD test setup

3. Provides a framework that demonstrates hardware and software control of the QIS, modifiable for non-testing uses

These goals were successfully met through the course of this thesis, and all information needed to replicate this design can be found in this document, the Vivado hardware project, or in the embedded C project used. Code and documentation may be made available at the RIT Center for Detectors upon request.

## 7.1 Significance

The modular design of the system allows for ease of reproduction and modification in future design implementations. This makes the system useful not only for the QIS, but also for any other detectors that need to be tested in cryogenic and low-pressure environments, both at the Center for Detectors or elsewhere. Because the principle of operation is simple, only the specifics of how the particular sensor is



operated must be changed. Additionally, this provides a baseline design for alternative uses that may also require high-speed or real-time data acquisition. Furthermore, it provides a functional interface that can be modified to fit any application that requires communication to an FPGA from an IDL or serial port connection. Despite the fact that IDL is not as commonly used as it once was, the same FPGA software can be used to interact with a C programming-based driver, as it simply relies on native Windows serial port functionality.

### 7.2 Future Work

The system as it stands can be used to evaluate the QIS detector array towards the end of advancing its Technology Readiness Level, but it also holds the potential for upgrades and extensions in the future. As Gigajot Technology continues to iterate on the QIS device, this system can be modified slightly in order to test each iteration of the device and provide feedback on how it may be improved. Additionally, the system can be expanded to provide additional functionality that is not currently implemented, such as the ability to use the QIS device as a real-time camera for testing purposes. Furthermore, the cryo-vac capabilities of this test system allows for the possibility of other non-astronomy devices to be tested in similar ways. As technology advances around the world, the need for creative solutions to technical problems as well as for creative technology to solve specific problems only increases. By bridging the gap between different fields of science and engineering, multidisciplinary projects such as this one help advance the technical prowess of all involved, and demonstrate the ever-reaching ambition of human curiosity. Where there is light, there is darkness, and where there is darkness, there is the unknown. As long as there are shadows to measure, there will always be those who measure them, as well as those who search for the next interesting darkness to investigate. And of course, there will always be more shadows.

*“The search will continue. Not until the empirical resources are exhausted, need we pass on to the dreamy realms of speculation.”* - Dr. Edwin P. Hubble [1]

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# Appendices





## A.1 MicroBlaze Processor Subsystem

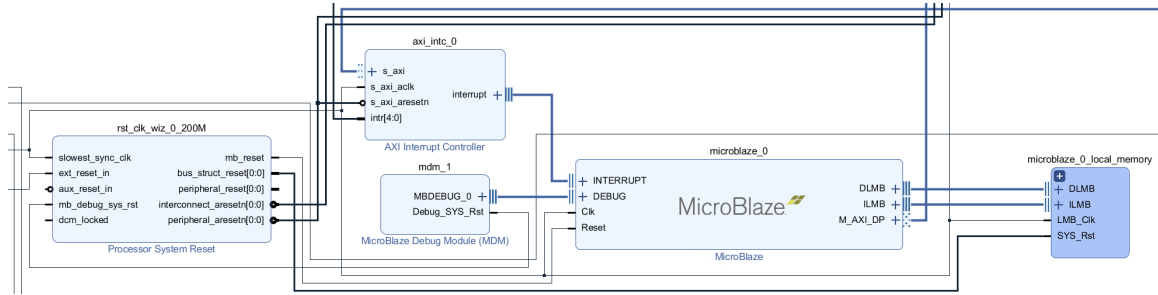


Figure A.2: MicroBlaze processor and peripherals

## A.2 Clock Control Subsystem

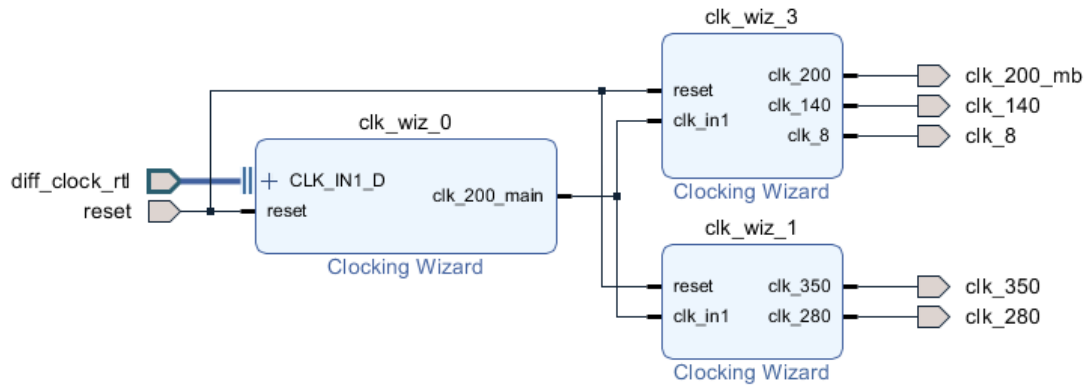


Figure A.3: The “clock block”, responsible for generating clock and synchronisation signals

### A.3 Analog-to-Digital Converter (ADC) Control Subsystem

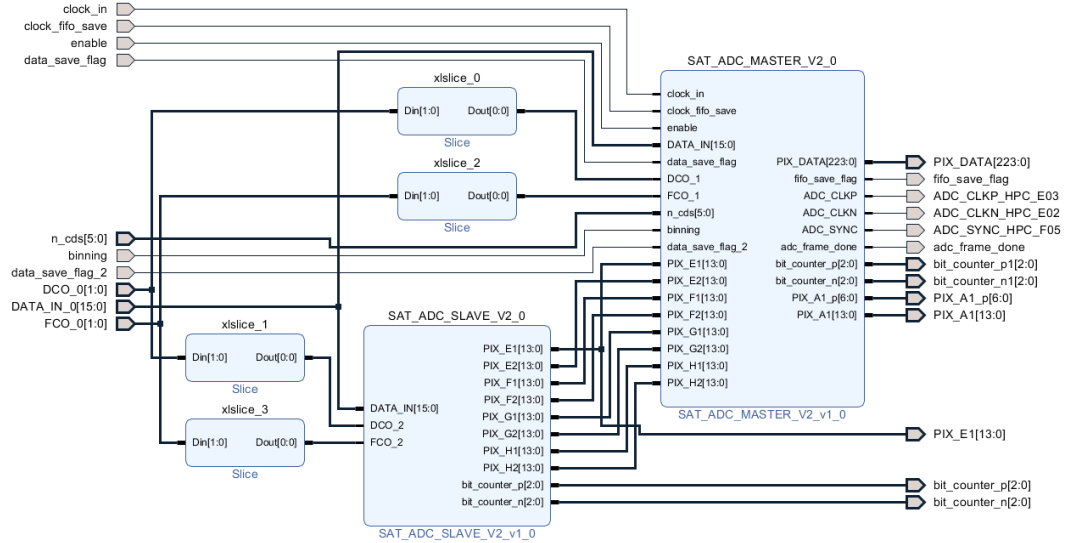


Figure A.4: The ADC block with dual clock functionality

### A.4 Digital-to-Analog Converter (DAC) Control Subsystem

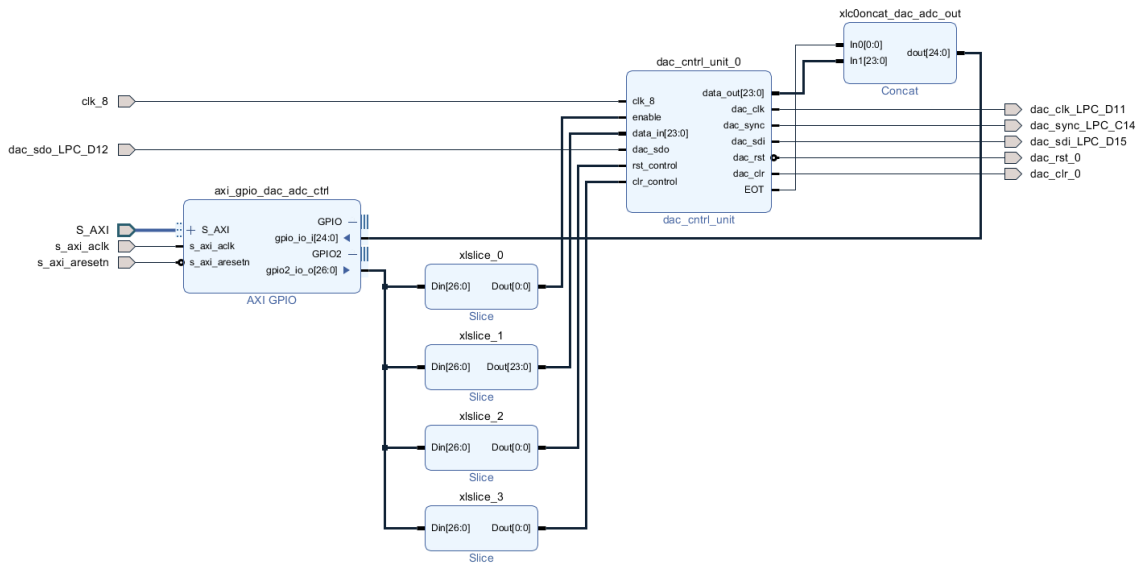
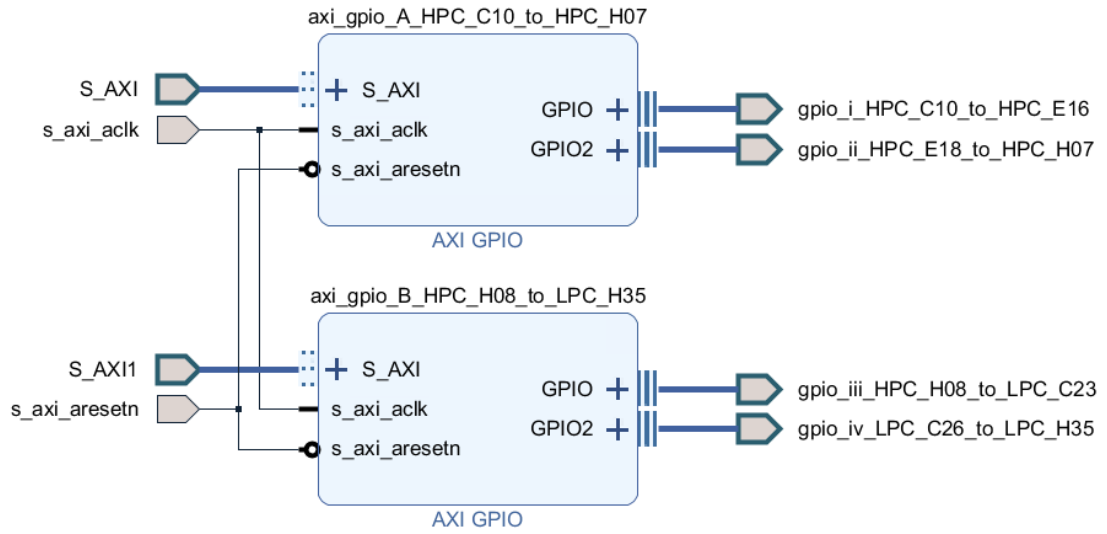


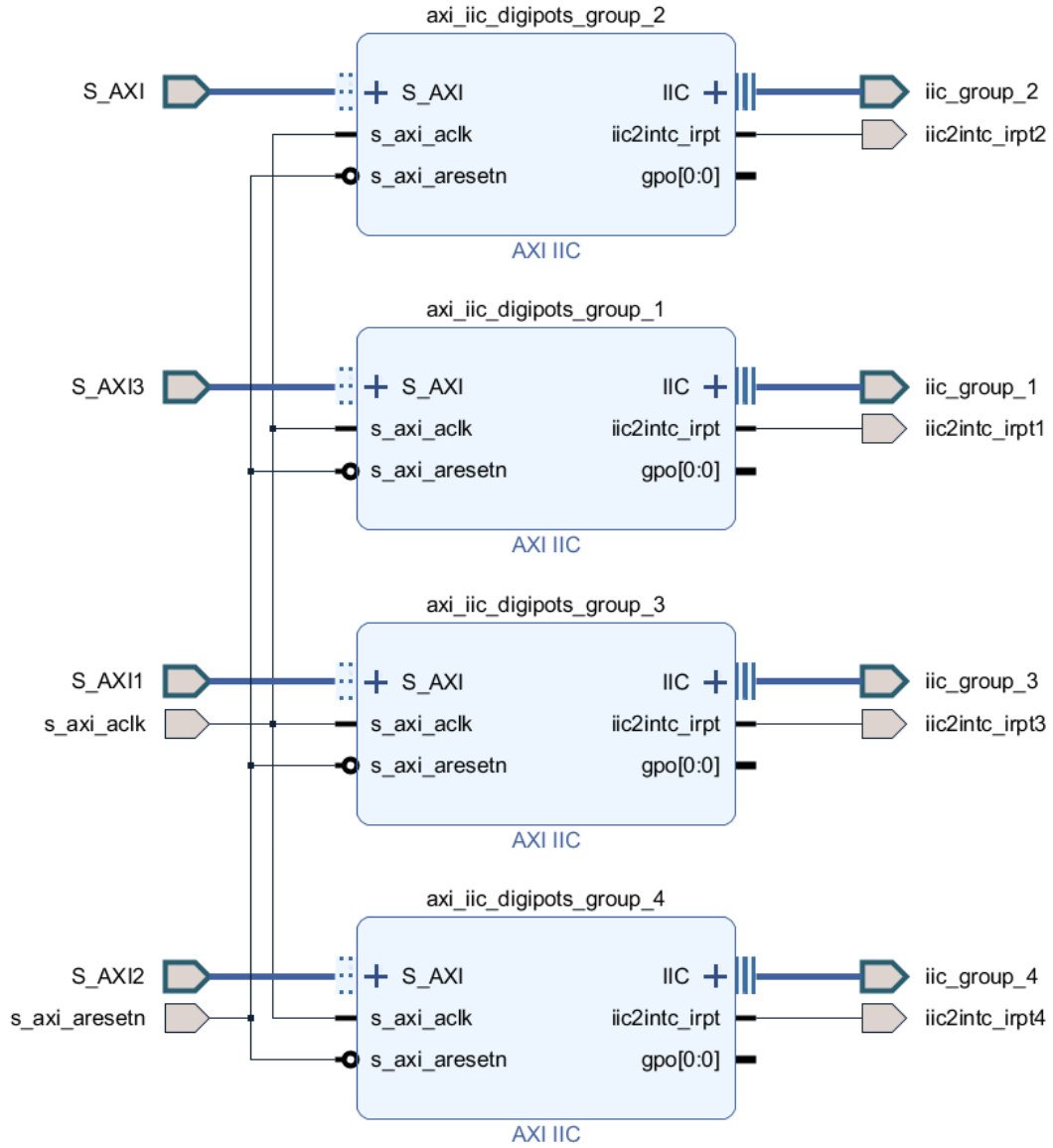
Figure A.5: The DAC block with included internal GPIO

## A.5 General Purpose Input / Output (GPIO) Control Sub-system



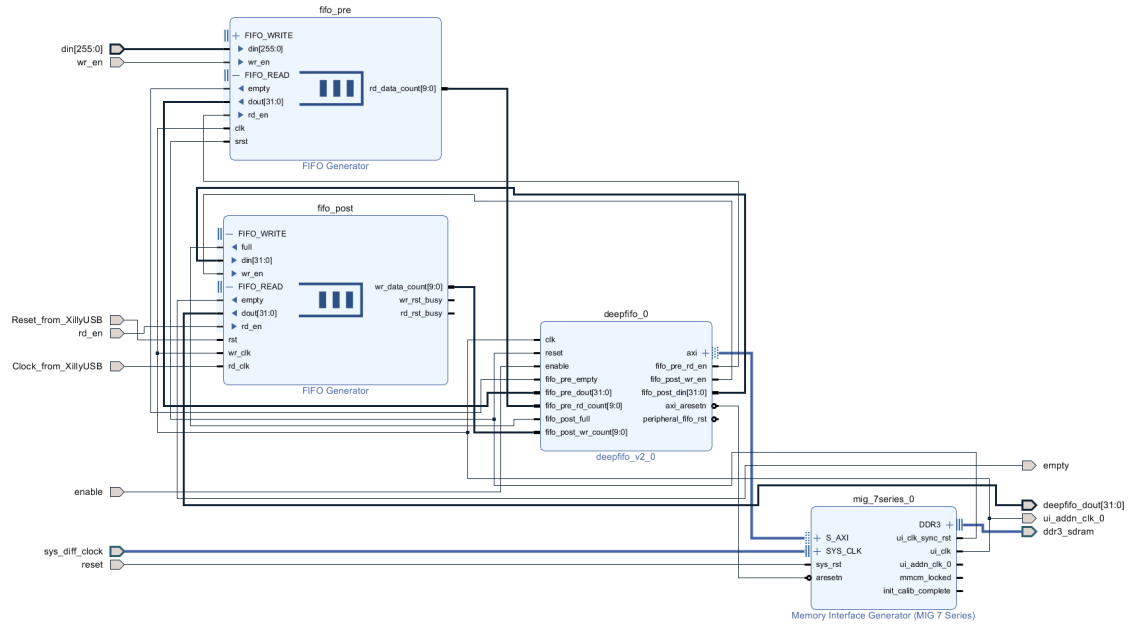
**Figure A.6:** The GPIO interface connected to the FMC ports

## A.6 Inter-Integrated Circuit (IIC) Control Subsystem



**Figure A.7:** The IIC block used for digital potentiometers on the CEB

## A.7 Memory Access Subsystem



**Figure A.8:** The memory access subsystem, including deepfifo, two internal FIFOs, and the MIG

## A.8 Pixel Selection Subsystem

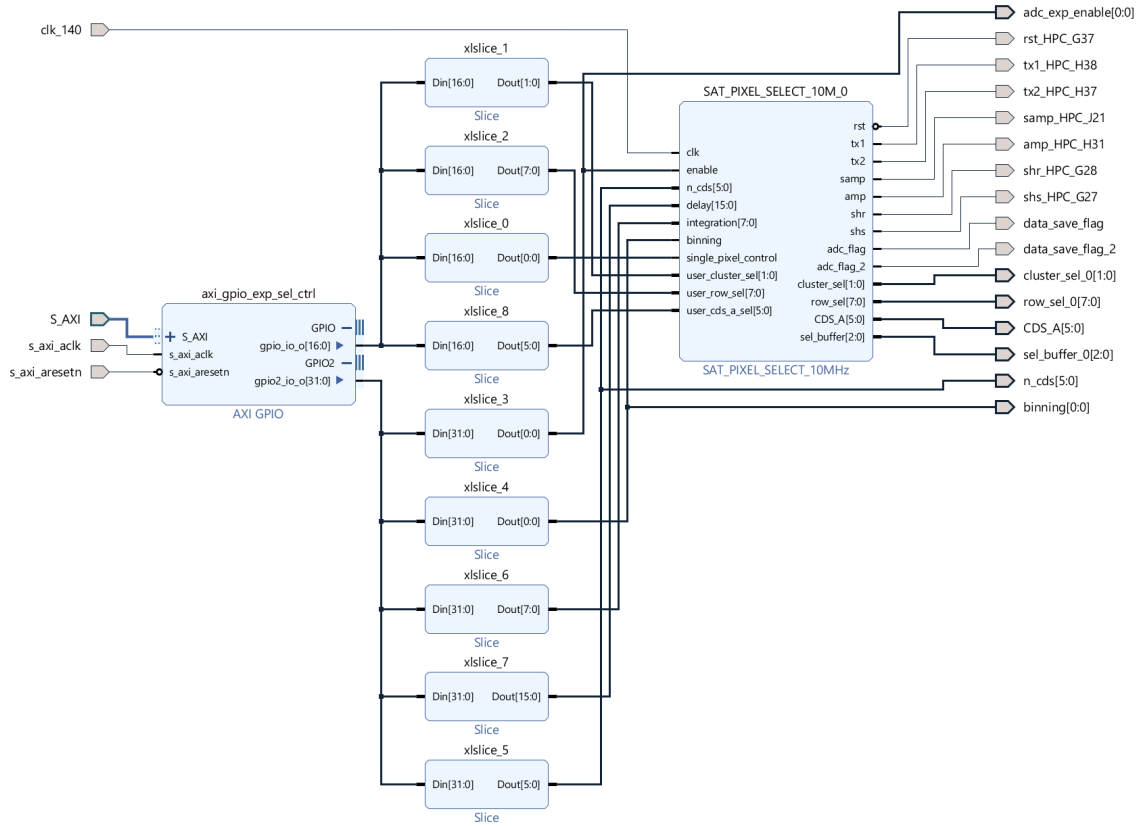


Figure A.9: The pixel selection subsystem