



ABSTRACT

The Large Hadron Collider (LHC) will be upgraded to the High-Luminosity LHC (HL-LHC) by the end of this decade, with five times larger luminosity and 200 inelastic collisions per proton-proton bunch crossing. Thus, the ATLAS detector is challenged to survive the stronger radiation and the increased particle flux. As a result, the new ATLAS Inner Tracker (ITk) will replace the current one with a new full-silicon detector. The new detector requires high precision during manufacturing. Thus, a metrology process is necessary, in which an optical zoom microscope with precise position measurement is used. A post-process program has been created to handle the measuring results. Validation and tests for this method for several types of the sensor have been done in this project in Lund, Uppsala and Copenhagen.

POPULAR ABSTRACT

The primary goal of this project is to demonstrate the measurement of the position of the electronics on a silicon sensor with a commercial tool with a zoom-microscope and precise moving table, known as the SmartScope. This kind of sensor will replace the current innermost detector in CERN's largest collider, namely the Large Hadron Collider (LHC), as the upgrade will finish by the end of this decade. This upgrade will multiply the flux of protons in each collision, and will require the new detector to have a stronger tolerance to the radiation and the large amount of particles per collision. A new silicon sensor with sub-millimetre segments is developed, and the fine bonding between the electronics and the silicon sensor requires the quality control process in this project.

KEYWORDS: High energy physics experiment; LHC; HL-LHC; ATLAS; ITk; Metrology; Measurement

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Standard Model

With the mathematical contribution led by Yang and Mills[1] and the experimental achievements of Wu, Glashow[2], Weinberg[3] and Salam[4] developed a theory that combined electromagnetic and weak interactions and introduced the Higgs mechanism to the electroweak interaction, namely the Standard Model. The Standard Model predicted a few particles at that time, and they were discovered one by one, like the top quark in 1995 in Fermilab[5][6] or the tau neutrino in 2000[7], leaving the Higgs boson the last missing puzzle.

The search for the Higgs boson led to the construction of the LHC (Large Hadron Collider), as the major scientific goals of the LHC are to study the Higgs mechanism, to search for any candidates of the supersymmetry theory, to learn about the dark matter and so on.[8][9]

1.2 The LHC

The LHC is the largest particle collider in the world. The LHC is the most advanced facility for the investigation of the structure of matter at the smallest scale.[10]

The LHC aims to answer several fundamental questions, i.e. the origin of mass, the nature of the dark matter, new forces and particles, etc. In 2012, the LHC collaboration announced the discovery of a new particle, which was confirmed to be the Higgs boson[II][I2]. The discovery and studies of the Higgs boson greatly enlarged our understanding of the universe and provided new and unique insights into the fundamental structure of matter and the origin of mass[I0]. Since the first data acquisition in 2010, the accelerator has delivered collisions at an increasing rate. The collider also reached the highest energy ever in colliders, proton-proton collisions at 13.6 TeV in the centre-of-mass frame in 2022.

With proposals like the Future Circular Collider, the Circular Electron Positron Collider

and the International Linear Collider still in draft, LHC will still be at the forefront of high energy physics for the next 20 years.[10] Thus, the full exploitation of the LHC, as well as the upgraded High Luminosity LHC (HL-LHC) has been given the highest priority by the international high energy physics community.[10][13]

The HL-LHC upgrade will start in 2026, after the LHC reached 14 TeV collision energy after two long shutdowns, namely LSI and LS2. In 2015, LSI was completed to prepare the accelerator for operation at its design energy and luminosity, and in 2021, LS2 was completed with significant detector upgrades, known as Phase-I.[10]

Long Shutdown 3 (LS3) is supposed to start in 2026, which will include major performance upgrades of the accelerator for the HL-LHC, which requires the replacement of several major detector components.[10]

The luminosity describes the density of collisions, as the definition of it is the amount of particles in a cross-beam that travels through a certain area within a certain period of time. With a nominal luminosity of $\mathcal{L} = 5 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and an ultimate luminosity of $\mathcal{L} = 7.5 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, HL-LHC will present an extremely challenging environment to the ATLAS experiment, well beyond that for which it was designed[14][10]. The current AT-LAS inner tracking detector would be inoperable under such increased luminosity, and the detector itself has reached the end of its service life. Thus, the ATLAS collaboration decided to replace the inner detector with a new full-silicon tracking detector, namely Inner Tracker (ITk), which can survive the harsh radiation environment and improve the segmentation.[10]

1.3 Frame & Detector

No matter in the current tracking detector or in the ITk to be installed, segmented silicon pixel sensors and microstrip sensors are used as the detecting element. The silicon microstrip detector of the ITk, with a typical size of $10 \text{ cm} \times 10 \text{ cm}$, is fabricated in a way that the silicon has many segments that represent detector channels. In the case of the HL-LHC ATLAS ITk microstrip, such segmentation would provide a few thousand of channels each, and each channel represents an area with a width of tens of micrometres and a length of a few centimetres. All of the channels are to be wire-bonded to the front-end application-specific integrated circuits (ASICs), and in this case, ATLAS Binary Chips (ABCStar). That is to say, there will be a few thousand bonds to be wire-bonded on each sensor, and the sensors will be mass-produced. The total number of microstrip detectors would also be over 17 thousands.[10]

Certain manufacturing techniques were already developed and applied to prototype modules. However, the mounting for the electronics to the sensor is still highly position-sensitive as the bonds are densely populated. Thus, the electronic and metrology tests are necessary for the quality control of the electronics and combined modules before and after the mounting process, so that it can be confirmed that all of the sensors will work properly and uniformly after installation.

Chapter 2

Modules

As mentioned in Chap.1, the current ATLAS innermost tracking detector will be replaced with a new design to accommodate the higher luminosity in the upgrade to the HL-LHC. The solution includes a series of silicon microstrip detectors as well as a more internal array of pixel detectors. This project focuses on the metrology of the microstrip modules. Therefore, it is essential to understand the structure of the new detector modules.

2.1 Modules



Figure 2.1: A visualisation of the ITk.[10]

As the name suggests, the Inner Tracker is the innermost sub-detector of the ATLAS experiment. ITk consists of four layers of silicon microstrip detectors and five layers of silicon pixel detectors. The initiated targets of this trajectory detector are reconstruction of charged particles, primary and secondary vertex identification and particle identification via energy loss. Also, this innermost sub-detector should withstand the radiation from the continuous particle interaction. The solution is a combination of outer strip detectors and inner pixel detectors, which can be seen from Fig.2.1.[10]

The strip detectors of the ITk consists of the barrel and end-caps. Fig.2.2 shows the layout of the ITk Strip Detector. The ITk Strip Detector consists of four barrel layers and six end-cap layers on each side. The four barrel layers totally consist of 392 identical staves, which are single structures with 28 modules on two sides. Each end-cap disk consists of 32 identical petals, which consist of six different geometries. Fig.2.3 shows an example of a complete stave and petal.[10]



Figure 2.2: The Layout of the ITk Detector, with the pixel detectors in red and the strip detectors in blue.[15]

The fan shape of the petal requires different curvatures for the six different geometries, which are shown in Fig.2.4. Also, there are two different sensor patterns for the barrel stave detectors, as the inner two cylinders have 24.1 mm long short-strips, while the outer two have 48.2 mm long long-strips.[10]

As the smallest unit of the detector, each detector module hosts one silicon sensor and one or two low-mass printed circuit boards (PCBs) that hold the ASICs, namely ATLAS Binary Chip (ABCStar) and Hybrid Controller Chip (HCCStar). This PCB is known as the hybrid. Each complete module has a radiation-resistant power supply board on them, known as the powerboard (PB), which is shown as orange in the illustration of Fig.2.3.[10]

The ABCStars are connected with the silicon channels via wire bonds, as shown in Fig.2.5. Fig.2.6 shows the pre-production *R*0 module that arrived in Lund in March 2023, which clearly shows that each hybrid sits in the middle of a silicon sensor sector, which is divided into two smaller halves. By dividing the sensor into smaller regions, the channel length can be reduced and a better spatial resolution can be achieved.





Figure 2.3: Local support components overview: Endcap petal (upper) and barrel stave (lower) components overview.[10]

Figure 2.4: Overview of the different end-cap hybrids and sensor shapes.[10]



Figure 2.5: Module *R*0 prototype under microscope, here the wire bonds are clearly shown.



Figure 2.6: Module R0 prototype in a frame.

2.2 Metrology Tasks

As shown in Fig2.7, the module can be described as a segmented silicon board with several PCBs on it. Each ABCStar chip on the hybrid has 256 channels and each connects to a strip in the silicon. Meanwhile, a hybrid has seven to twelve ABCStar chips on it depending on the specific geometry. An R0 module, for example, has nine ABCStar chips on one hybrid. The average width of this module is at the magnitude of 100 mm, indicating the width of each channel segment is at the magnitude of 100 μ m.



Figure 2.7: Exploded view of a short-strip barrel module with all relevant components.[10]

The goal of this project is to develop a routine to measure and define the three-dimensional position of each individual part on a module, and to determine if this module passes the metrology test. The tool used for measurement is an optical microscope with a precise moving table, known as the SmartScope produced by Optical Gaging Products. This machine will be discussed in detail in Sec.3.1.

The purpose for the metrology test is to make sure that the whole single module would perform as expected. As described in the technical document,[16]

- 1. The glue thickness under the hybrid and powerboard needs to be controlled for good electrical and thermos-mechanical performance.
- 2. The XY position of hybrids on the sensor needs to be controlled so that...

...the wirebonding is possible;

... the hybrids will not be glued over the guard-ring on the sensor;

- ...the module will not clash with neighbouring ones.
- 3. The XY position of powerboard on the sensor needs to be controlled so that...
 - ...the powerboard will not be glued over the guard-ring on the sensor;
 - ...the module will not clash with neighbouring ones.
- 4. The height of both hybrids and powerboard should be controlled so that the module will not clash with neighbouring ones.
- 5. The module bow should be controlled so that...

...the gluing process can be controlled;

- ...the thermal performance falls within expectation;
- ...the module will not clash with neighbouring ones.

It is worth noting that, in this project, the module bow is not involved. Thus this project only focuses on the XYZ position of the hybrids and the powerboard, in reference to the sensor plane.

Hence there are the limits for the positioning:

I. For XY position for hybrids and powerboards,

$$\begin{split} |\Delta X| < 0.25 \, \mathrm{mm} \\ |\Delta Y| < 0.25 \, \mathrm{mm} \end{split}$$

2. For Z position for hybrids and powerboards,

pass within 70 µm-170 µm;

pass with problems within 40 μm-70 μm; fails otherwise.

2.2.1 Procedure

Module metrology occurs before wire bonding since its primary objective is to validate that the module's geometry allows bonding. The whole procedure of the metrology measurement is discussed in Chap.4, and here only the brief list is given.

The first thing is to set up the measurement coordinate system, which overwrites the coordinate system default in the SmartScope. All measurements will be conducted in reference to this coordinate system. The coordinate system is always based on the same feature on the





Figure 2.8: Two fiducial marks between two ABCStar ASICs under microscope.



silicon sensor. The coordinate system is always defined by the corners of a sensor, as shown in Fig.4.1 and it will be discussed with details in Sec.4.1.

Then the position of the hybrids and powerboards will be measured. The position of all these PCBs is defined by two certain fiducial marks, which are the leftmost and rightmost ones. Fig.2.8 shows a pair of the fiducial marks on a hybrid between ABCStars.

For the height measurement, many more measurement points are used. First of all, the reference plane on the silicon sensor is to be taken. In principle, at least four points that create a square with the hybrid and powerboard inside are requested. These points should be as close to the PCBs as possible yet still a few millimetres away from them to prevent the effects of possible glue overflowing from under the PCBs. These points will be used to define the z = 0 reference plane.[16]

Then the height of the hybrids and powerboard should be defined. For the hybrids, four measure points on the bond pads around each ABCStar and HCCStar chip are required, which are shown as the yellow squares in Fig.2.9. For the powerboards, four points on the data/power pads and on the powerboard-to-hybrid power pads are required, while for the fiducial mark near the HV-mux (PB_2) and the pad by the shielding shell (PB_5), one measure point is required. Detailed measurement process will be discussed in Sec.4.3.[16]

Chapter 3

Apparatus

Several instruments are used to validate and design the metrology routine via a SmartScope.

3.1 SmartScope

The SmartScope is a 3D multisensor measurement system manufactured by Optical Gaging Products (OGP), the major part of which is a telecentric 10 : 1 zoom lens with a precise moving system. A touch probe can be and was used for the measurement. A set of lights beneath the glass table, around and in the lens can be tuned for a proper light setting.



Figure 3.1: The SmartScope Flash 200 in NBI, KU.



Figure 3.2: The coordinate system of the SmartScope software. Note the view origin in the middle and the part origin at the corner.[17]

The SmartScope is controlled by a specific corresponding software. A Machine Coordinate System exist in the software as the base coordinate system, while an explicit coordinate

system can be set up during the measurement, known as the Set-Zero Coordinate System. There's also a Part Coordinate System available if multiple parts that are same.[18] Fig.3.2 shows an example, where the yellow arrow represents the Z-axis while the red and green arrows define the XY-plane.

At Lund University (LU), a SmartScope Vantage 250 is installed, while the installed model is SmartScope Flash 200 in Niels Bohr Institute (NBI) at Copenhagen University (KU) and in Uppsala University (UU). The differences will be discussed in the next subsection.

The telecentric lens used on the SmartScope has such a property that the magnification ratio is only affected by the focal length of the lens, and it gives an orthogonal view of the item. Thus, the off-focus objects also have the same image centre as that when in focus, which would reduce the error of the measurement. Also, the focal distance of the lens is fixed at each focal length, indicating that the lens is always at the same distance from the object, but the distance is different at each focal length setting, in another way, the zoom setting. This indicates how the SmartScope measures the height in this non-contact way. The height of the camera can be converted to the height of the object, as long as the proper zero plane is set.



Figure 3.3: Field of view on a fiducial mark, from on-focus-height to 50 µm above the onfocus-height. The step between neighbouring pictures from left to right is 10 µm each.

One question still remains, as the machine has to know when it is in focus. This is done

when the desired region reaches maximum contrast. The SmartScope will move the whole optics up and down and record the height when it reaches the maximum contrast, and beep to notify when failing to find the position. The contrast is distance-sensitive as a small offset would bring the loss of contrast, which can be shown in Fig.3.3 and Fig.3.4. Here we can see that the contract loss is visible even only with a difference of $10 \,\mu\text{m}$.

The measurement on the on-sensor XY plane is much easier. The table and camera will have relative movement, which is controlled by the DC servo. The precision of the movement is at the magnitude of 1 μ s. The SmartScope has multiple functions like tracing the edges, but all of the measurement is based on the fact that the SmartScope can pick up a point with a precise coordinate. For most of the time, the SmartScope would be asked to pick up a point on an edge, which could be a dividing line of two different materials like the bare copper on a PCB, or an physical edge of an item like the outermost edge of the silicon sensor.



Figure 3.4: Field of view on a fiducial mark, from on-focus-height to 50 µm beneath the onfocus-height. The step between neighbouring pictures from left to right is 10 µm each.

The touch probe, however, measures the surface height with direct contact. A Renishaw Probe Interface 200 (PI200) is used to operate the TP20 touch probe. A small deflection of the stylus tip produces a force which is applied via the stylus module and kinematic coupling to the strain sensing structure housed in the probe body.[19] The level signal from the stylus will be processed, and the SmartScope system can trigger the data acquisition by such signal.

3.1.1 Differences of devices in institutes

As the metrology test will be conducted with the Flash 200 SmartScope in UU, the method and routine created and validated with the Vantage 250 in LU shall be implemented. Also, the difference between these two models should be discussed.

The most straightforward difference between the two machines is that the camera module on the Vantage 250 only moves along the height Z-axis, while the one on Flash 200 is also responsible for the X-axis measurement. That is to say, the moving table of the Vantage 250 has two degrees of freedom, while the Flash 200 only has one. This is no huge difference since the software only cares about the relative movement between the camera and the table. A minor difference could be that the unidirectional moving table would have less impact on the accuracy of the object's position, which can be dismissed as long as the object is fixed.

Other differences are more about technical specifications. The two models have a slightly different XYZ moving range, but both are sufficient for this sensor measurement (300 × 150 × 200 mm for Vantage 250 and 200 × 200 × 150 mm for Flash 200). Both have an XYZ scale resolution of 0.1 µm, but the accuracy differs.[20][21]

The SmartScope Vantage 250 has an XY area accuracy of $E_2 = (1.8 + 4L/1000) \mu m$, while that for Flash 200 is $E_2 = (2.0 + 6L/1000) \mu m$. The Z linear accuracy for the Vantage 250 is $E_1 = (2.5 + 5L/1000) \mu m$ and that for Flash 200 is $E_1 = (3.5 + 6L/1000) \mu m$. Note that L is the measured length in millimetres, and it indicates that the expected accuracy should be better than 4.4 μm in general. This is more than one magnitude better than the range requirement on the CERN document.[16]

3.1.2 Lighting

Both SmartScopes are equipped with three lights. The light under the glass table is for a bright background and is not used in this project. A ring light with 3×8 segments and a through-the-lens (TTL) light is of more importance here. Multiple materials are involved in the metrology test for the sensor: silicon strips, metal bonding pads, ASICs, etc. These things are never perfect reflective surfaces, and a proper light setting is significant for the best contrast.

As shown in Fig.3.5-3.8, the TTL lights will only highlight the surface structure that is perpendicular to the optical axis, and thus are harsh on the measured item. The ring-light, however, has a non-zero angle of incidence, making it easier to illuminate the edges, which will make it much easier for the SmartScope to define the edge. Yet since the field of view is



Figure 3.5: Different light configurations on the #50 block. The focused area is in a carved letter "A". Light configuration: left-up: TTL off, ring-light 60%; right-up: TTL 50%, ring-light 60%; left-down: TTL 70%, ring-light 50%; right-down: TTL 90%, ring-light off.

around 0.3×0.4 mm, this difference in the edge positioning on XY plane can be dismissed, and all it matters is the height definition.

Also, Fig.3.5 and Fig.3.6 show the situation for machined metal surfaces, Fig.3.7 shows metal bonding pad on PCB and Fig.3.8 shows the surface of the silicon strip sensor. From them it is clear that different materials will have a completely different reaction to the same light configuration. The flat, glossy PCB surface appears dark under the ring-light, and the silicon sensor will show the crystal texture on the same occasion, and the rough metal parts are always bright on any occasion.

It is important to create a high contrast view to make the SmartScope easier to focus on, and to maintain the same light configuration during the whole measurement and among different measurements to acquire a set of results that can be compared, for a different light configuration can possibly result in a different height measured.

3.2 Gauge Blocks

A few metal gauge blocks are used to validate the measurement in this project. All of the gauge blocks are chosen from one set of blocks of C.E.Johansson AB. #4, #5, #10, #11, and #50 of this set are used, and the number of each block indicates the length of the measurement



Figure 3.6: Different light configurations on the #50 block. The focused area is on the corner of it. Light configuration: left-up: TTL off, ring-light 60%; right-up: TTL 60%, ring-light 50%; left-down: TTL 80%, ring-light 20%; right-down: TTL 90%, ring-light off.



Figure 3.7: Different light configurations on a dummy hybrid. The focused area is on a metal pad. Light configuration: left-up: TTL off, ring-light 60%; right-up: TTL 70%, ring-light 50%; left-down: TTL 80%, ring-light 40%; right-down: TTL 90%, ring-light off.



Figure 3.8: Different light configurations on a sample silicon sensor from Hamamatsu. Light configuration: left-up: TTL off, ring-light 80%; right-up: TTL 30%, ring-light 70%; left-down: TTL 40%, ring-light 60%; right-down: TTL 50%, ring-light off.

edge of each in millimetres.

However, the machining can never be perfect, so a few measurements are done to validate the actual size. Also, it is worth noticing that, the #50 block is only used as an anvil to put other blocks on.

No.	Caliper	Touch Probe
#4	$4.000 \mathrm{mm}$	(3.9997 ± 0.0096) mm
#5	$5.000\mathrm{mm}$	$(4.9977 \pm 0.0046) \text{ mm}$
#10	$10.000 \mathrm{mm}$	N/A
#11	$11.003\mathrm{mm}$	N/A

3.3 Mock-up of Sensor

A glass-based dummy sensor was used as the replacement before the prototype module arrived in Lund, and Fig.3.9 is the photo of it. The silicon sensor was represented by a piece of flat glass, and the hybrids and powerboard did not function. Among the two hybrids, one has true PCB but still no ASICs or wire bonds mounted. The rest two fake electronics are built with plastic, with several parts 3D-printed to resemble the geometric limits, i.e. the tallest shielding shell on the powerboard.



Figure 3.9: The *R*0 glass mock-up in Lund.

The idea of this glass mock-up is to provide a cheap and low-risk item to test and validate the measurement routine, as the fragile silicon module should always be measured with no coverage, which could expose the sensor to the threat of dust and other mechanical damage.

As the glass has the same shape and the one fake hybrid PCB is built with all of the necessary fiducial marks, it is possible to test the methods to measure them. However, the edges of this mock-up are full of breakages due to the property of the glass, which can be seen in Fig.3.10 and makes it difficult to define the actual edges for the mock-up. Since all measurements rely on edge measurement, this defect prevents any practical full routine from happening.

3.4 Specific Modules Used

The routine is planned to be conducted on two true modules separately, firstly at UU and then at LU. The sensor used at LU is an *R*0 PPA (Pre-Production A) and is shown in Fig.3.11, with the serial number 20USEM00000044, while the one at UU is an R1 and shown in Fig.3.12, which is also a PPA model with the serial number 20USEM10000014. However, by now only the R1 at UU was tested.

The *R*1 PPA module was tested and measured at UU. It went through the electronic and thermal tests, and when it was tested with the protect frame on a vacuum plate, the acrylic cover was adsorbed down and squashed the shielding box on the powerboard, which can be clearly shown in Fig.3.13. Also, the pink foam for buffering and protecting was put above the silicon part, and the result can be clearly told from the colour difference on the exposed silicon parts.



Figure 3.10: A corner of the R0 glass mock-up at LU. The cracked edges are clearly shown.



Figure 3.11: The R0 PPA module tested at LU on its arrival day.



Figure 3.12: The R1 PPA module tested at UU.



Figure 3.13: The R1 PPA module tested at UU.

This sample went through a few metrology tests during the author's visit to UU in 2023 March. The fiducial marks were measured multiple times to check the consistency of the measurement, as was the height measurement. Also, a full routine was created and conducted multiple times to validate the consistency when the position of the sensor was moved.

During the metrology test, the acrylic cover and foam should be removed, and the sensor was moved alongside the testing frame, which is the yellow circuit board beneath and can be seen in Fig.3.12. The frame should be put on a jig, which is a chunk of metal with trenches and holes for vacuum adsorption. To improve the precision of the measurement, the testing frame should always be adsorbed by a vacuum pump, in which way enough friction can be provided to prevent the frame or the sensor from any displacement.

The measurement for the R0 PPA module should follow the same principles, and there is no fundamental difference between the metrology test at UU on the R1 PPA and that at LU on the R0 PPA. The differences only appear in the fact that the shield box of the LU R0is still undamaged, leaving more things to measure, and the different geometry between the two modules and consequently a different number of ABCStars.

Chapter 4

Methods

In this chapter, the complete measurement process will be discussed in details. The procedure is based on the CERN document AT2-IS-EP-0067 and is updated based on the latest decisions from the collaboration.[15][16]

4.1 Coordinate System Setting

The whole measurement should have a coordinate system as a reference for all measurements. The coordinate system is based on the silicon sensor. Fig.4.1 shows the idea of the coordinate system. The endcap sensors themselves have fan shapes. Thus, it is impossible to appoint an edge to be the axis. Thus, the upper left corner is appointed as the zero point, while the upper right corner is the point to define the X-axis. The z = 0 plane is defined additionally by the lower left corner. As a Cartesian coordinate system is always used here, the Y-axis will be naturally derived. Note that for endcap modules, this third point is never on the Y-axis as the artificial edges are not perpendicular, which is clear in Fig.4.1. In this way, the coordinate system is decided.

However, in practice, it is not necessarily that the edge corners are chosen as the reference point. The sensor is designed with a safety outer ring, the slight damage of which doesn't affect the performance of the whole sensor. Thus features slightly inside can be chosen as the reference point, and all the positions can be moved correspondingly afterwards. In this project, the HV-ring is chosen as the feature, for 1) this ring is printed on the silicon and represents the true position of the silicon segments; 2) it is much clearer to define; 3) the sensor could work when the part outside the ring is broken but hardly when inside.

In actual measurement, the sensor is always fixed. As a fragile unit, it should be transported and tested on a test frame as shown in Fig.4.2. During the metrology test and other manufacturing processes, the module is always put on a jig, which is a metal chunk with small





Figure 4.1: Example of an endcap module on an assembly jig with coordinate system highlighted in yellow.[16]

Figure 4.2: A sensor on a test frame, while the frame is on a jig.

holes for vacuum adsorption, with parts that can constrain the sensor. In this way, the sensor or frame can be fixed without any potential damage, just like what is shown in Fig.4.2.

4.2 XY-plane Measurements

The measurement of the hybrid and powerboard positions on the sensor plane is straightforward, as the SmartScope is designed to measure with optical tools most of the time. On the plane, the parts have three degrees of freedom (X, Y and rotation); thus, at least two points each are used to define the hybrid and powerboard.

4.2.1 Hybrid

As shown in Fig.4.3, the position of a hybrid is defined by two outermost fiducial marks, which are named H_X_P1 and H_X_P2 . Fig.4.5 shows a typical fiducial mark, which is printed on the PCB and has a special shape, so that it can be easily and precisely identified.

The cross-fiducial has an area, and the position of this fiducial mark is defined by the centre of it. A typical fiducial mark of this kind is shown in Fig.4.5. However, the positioning of the fiducial marks requires additional processes, for the edges of them are not necessarily straight due to manufacturing reasons.

Two methods can be applied to define the centre. The first one can be applied when the four tips of this cross-shaped fiducial are round. The SmartScope software has the function to



Figure 4.3: Barrel hybrid with fiducials for position measurements highlighted in yellow.[16]



Figure 4.4: Example for naming of the points, as described in hybrid metrology document.[16]





define a circle based on three measured points; thus, a point within each tip can be measured when the tip is fitted as a circle. Finally, the centre can be defined by the intersection of the lines connecting opposite points.

This method runs quickly with only four measurements; however, the fiducial doesn't always have round tips. A more general method can be applied where the straight edges are measured.

In this method, two side edges of each tip are measured; thus, there are a total of eight points measured for the four tips. Four lines are created accordingly to form two sets of lines roughly parallel, which gives four intersections that can form a convex quadrilateral.



Figure 4.6: The cross-fiducial with virtual measurements via Geogebra online.

Fig.4.6 gives an illustration of this method. This method shows strong reproducibility, as the inner quadrilateral will not exceed the fiducial, and the centre point to define its position will always be somewhere in the middle. As described in Sec.2.2, the XY allowance is ± 0.25 mm, while the uncertainty brought by this method will be far less than 0.1 mm, which is about the size of the centre region.

The process to guarantee that the fiducial falls within the allowance will be discussed in Chap.5.

4.2.2 Powerboard

Similarly, the position of each end-cap powerboard is defined by two double-square shape markers, which can be seen in Fig.4.7. A few of them can be found in the photo, yet two are appointed for the position measurement. The definition of this fiducial marks is simpler than the one on the hybrids, as only four points will be picked on two edges in the middle, and the centre is defined as the intersection of the two lines created from the opposite points.

For the barrel powerboards, two holes are used for the position definition, yet the barrel sensor metrology is not included in this project.



Figure 4.7: The lower part of the R0 powerboard and upper of the R0 hybrid Ho.

4.3 Height Measurements

The height measurement is the most complex task in the whole metrology test, as the SmartScope relies on the movement of the camera to give the height. As discussed in Sec.3.1, the SmartScope has the ability to find the focal point by seeking the highest contrast of the image, which is less direct than the XY measurement. However, the height measurement reveals the glue thickness between the electronics and the sensor, which affects the heat conductance and could cause possible collisions between modules as they are densely populated.

4.3.1 Sensor

It is important to set up a zero plane when a height measurement is conducted, and the upper surface of the silicon sensor is the ideal one with sufficient patterns on it. Another practical reason is that the glue sits between the PCBs and the sensor and the glue shall be avoided in all measurements.

To measure the sensor, a series of points are taken for this task. In principle, more than four points that create a square that contains the hybrids and powerboard as much as possible should be used, yet in practice, many more points with a uniform distance can be chosen, as it would always be better to have more than four points to fit the plane.[16] In a test routine conducted at Uppsala University with an *R*1 model, 21 points are used, with 11 on the wider side and 10 on the narrower side. These points can reduce the uncertainties of the sensor plane measurement and reflect the flatness of the silicon. This test run will be discussed in Chap.5.

The procedure guideline also recommends that the points chosen are taken a few mil-

limetres away from the PCBs yet still close to them. In the Uppsala test routine, the points are approximately 1 mm from the two hybrids, with no points taken between hybrids and powerboards, for the glue could be on this part of the sensor and bring errors, as said in the the operation document.[16]

4.3.2 Hybrid

Exposed metal pads on the hybrid PCB **have** to be used for the surface height measurement. A few patterns are required.[16]

- 1. The copper pads by the ABCStar chips, which are the "F" and cross fiducials shown in Fig.4.8. At least four points should be taken, and they are named as *ABC_RxHy_n*.
- 2. The four copper pads around the HCCStar chips, which are shown in Fig.4.9. At least four points should be taken, and they are named as HCC_RxHy_n .
- 3. Two measurements near the stave/petal data pads near the HCC, which are shown as the leftmost golden bonding pads in Fig.4.9.
- 4. The hybrid-to-PB power pads, which are shown in Fig4.10-4.11.
- 5. The large square pad at the far end of the hybrid from the HCC.

These patterns are measured by sequence and analysed in the post-processing program.

4.3.3 Powerboard

The powerboard does not have so many ASICs like the hybrids with ABCStar and HCC-Star, yet there still exists a list of all of the things to measure:

- 1. PB_{-1} is the averages the four points taken on the data/power pads on the left.
- 2. PB_2 is the single point on the fiducial near the HV-mux.
- 3. PB_{-3} is the average of the four measurements on the top PB-to-hybrid power pads.
- 4. PB_4 is the average of the four measurements on the bottom PB-to-hybrid power pads.
- 5. PB_{-5} is the single point on the tab to the very right.
- 6. All measurements on the capacitors (C1, C2, C3, C4) should be reported individually.



Figure 4.8: R0 under microscope with a few ABCStars in view. Note the fiducial marks in the between.



Figure 4.9: R0 under microscope with an HCCStar in view. Note the four fiducial marks on the corner of the HCC.



Figure 4.10: R0 under microscope with R0H0 and powerboard in view. This is the bonding area between the hybrid (up) and powerboard (down).



Figure 4.11: R0 under microscope with R0H1 and powerboard in view. This is the bonding area between the hybrid (down) and powerboard (up).

7. The five measurements on the shield box (Shield) should be combined into a single number which is the maximum of the five.

These patterns are measured in sequence and processed in the analysis program.

In the routine conducted in Uppsala, the capacitors and shield box are excluded. The shield box was pressed and cracked, so it was meaningless to measure it.

4.4 Analysis Program

Given the complexity of the measurement, a post-processing program is necessary, even with the calculated results from the SmartScope software. This program aims to solve the following tasks:

- 1. To read the measurement from the SmartScope output file.
- 2. To calculate necessary results.
- 3. To create an output file in the required format.
- 4. To illustrate the measurement in a interactive graphical interface when necessary.

The last illustration is not part of the measurement task so it was handled separately. A C++ program package was developed to fulfil the rest functions, for the customized classes and functions can easily handle the different measurements.

After testing with several iterations, the program can now read the SmartScope output file with different data sets collected at LU, UU and NBI, as the output formats depend on the setting of the local SmartScope software. The files are organized by lines, and each line is stored with the sequence number, the type (point, line, intersection and so on), the coordinate, the so-called size (which is the general name given to the angle between lines, the diameter of circles and other properties of different features) and the measurement reference.

The different types of measurements are organized into a few geographical classes, which can be straightforwardly achieved with C++. Based on a *point* class that only consists of an XYZ coordinate, a *point with distribution* class and a *circle* class are created. The *point with distribution* class aims to describe a point with a standard deviation, which is useful when multiple measurements on the same point are conducted. The circle class is used to describe the circle measurement from the SmartScope.

With two points, a vector class and a line class are introduced. They are supposed to be the same thing, but to make everything clear, they are separated to achieve different targets. The vector class is described by a starting point, an ending point and the vector described by XYZ coordinate. The line class is described by two points on the line and a vector to indicate the direction of the line. The actual length of the line is arbitrary and can be normalized for easier calculation.

One more important class introduced is the plane class. This plane class is only described by a point on the plane and the normal vector of the plane.

All of the above classes are used for different functions. Basic calculation of trigonometric functions is achieved with simple vector calculation. With that, the distance between different items can be realized. The distance between two points and between one point and one plane is easy to calculate, while the one between one point and one line costs a few more steps.

As described in Sec.4.2.1, the cross-fiducial requires taking intersections of lines, and such a calculation is very common during post-processing. However, a problem arises naturally. The lines are almost never strictly coplanar and have no mathematical intersection because measurement errors from SmartScope and calculation errors from computer float numbers exist. Thus, the definition of the line intersection here is the midpoint of the shortest line segment between two lines. The only interesting intersection is between lines, as the *plane* is only used to calculate the height difference, and no intersection calculation is involved with planes.

One more function derives a plane from multiple points. The plane is fitted with linear least squares. Singular value decomposition is used to calculate the result, for there exists a linear algebra package named *Eigen* that can solve the result quickly, and SVD can give a relatively good result.[22]

Finally, the results are organized and output in the format required. A sample can be seen in Fig.4.12. The comparison between the results and the schematic of the module, Fig.4.13-4.14 showed a valid and reasonable result.

The code is uploaded to a GitHub project under the thesis name.[23]

4.5 Validation with the Gauge Blocks

Before testing this method on the sample sensor, the SmartScope routine and an earlier version of the post-processing program were tested on a few gauge blocks, which are metal blocks that have precise widths on one side. The marking of the block is the width in millimetres.

As described in Sec.3.1, NBI and UU share the same model of the SmartScope, while there is another model at LU. So it is necessary to validate the consistency of the machines.

#10 and #11 blocks were measured at NBI and LU. As the calculated edges are not exactly parallel, the distances between neighbouring corner points are used. The result showed that the differences are all better than 0.15%, and most of them are better than 0.06%.

Another test is to validate the accuracy of the SmartScope. A comparison between optical SmartScope and physical probe results is conducted on #4 and #5 blocks. The blocks are put in a way that the number of them indicates the height in millimetres. They were put on a #50

1	HHoodon						
2	EC on Rannol :			c c			
2	Modulo Typo:			3E M1			
4	Module ref N	umber		NZA			
5	Date:			N/A			
6	Instituto:			Unneala Universitet			
7	Operator:			Xiangyu XII			
8	Instrument ty	ne•		OGP SmartScope Flash 200			
q	Run Number	pc.		3	in escope in 205		
10	Measurement n	rogram	version.	n: v.23.04.12			
11	#Positions	6					
12	#Location	x	ſmm]	Υſπ	m]		
13	H R1H0 P1	+0	09.2411	-067	.7858		
14	H R1H0 P2	+1	08.5716	-061	.0706		
15	H R1H1 P1	+0	02.7515	-015	.8128		
16	H R1H1 P2	+1	10.6005	-032	.9741		
17	PB P1	+1	06.7728	-033	.5318		
18	PB_P2	+1	06.7850	-033	.5342		
19	#Glue heig	hts:					
20	# Location	Туре	X [m	n]	Y [mm]	Z [mm]	
21	Sensor		+001	.9997	-012.6942	-000.0175	
22	Sensor		+012	.0008	-012.7856	-000.0185	
23	Sensor		+022	.0290	-011.5737	-000.0325	
24	Sensor		+032	.0001	-011.6648	-000.0420	
25	Sensor		+041	.9992	-011.7567	-000.0439	
26	Sensor		+052	.0126	-010.6076	-000.0504	
27	Sensor		+062	.0008	-010.6988	-000.0596	
28	Sensor		+071	.9990	-010.7901	-000.0654	
29	Sensor		+081	.9992	-010.8815	-000.0661	
30	Sensor		+091	. 9999	-010.9734	-000.0689	
31	Sensor		+101	. 9995	-011.0647	-000.0714	
32	Sensor		+112	.0019	-011.1560	-000.0731	
33	Sensor		+008	.4058	-068.0447	-000.0369	
34	Sensor		+018	.4033	-068.1355	-000.0382	
35	Sensor		+028	.4009	-068.2269	-000.0433	
36	Sensor		+038	.4019	-068.3189	-000.0485	
37	Sensor		+048	.4001	-068.4102	-000.0556	
38	Sensor		+058	.4013	-068.5015	-000.0659	
39	Sensor	1	+068	.4015	-068.5928	-000.0712	
40	Sensor	1	+078	.4002	-068.6840	-000.0754	
41	Sensor	1	+088	.4000	-068.7753	-000.0718	
42	Sensor	1	+098	.4006	-068.8671	-000.0657	
43	Sensor	1	+108	.4000	-068.9583	-000.0752	
44	ABC_R1H0_0	2	+108	.9720	-058.8738	+000.1971	
45	ABC RIHO 0	2	+108	6399	-061.1860	+000.1967	

114.979 114.841 112.020 111.731 107.332 4.925 3.633 0.145 5.329 8.085 10.022 10.132 50.737 70.939 107.984 108.100 108.671 110.634 111.938

114.979

Figure 4.12: A sample of the output from the program. This result was obtained from a R1 sample module in Uppsala University.

Figure 4.13: The schematic of the R1.



Figure 4.14: The schematic of the R1.

block.

The planes were all fitted with the linear least squares method introduced in Sec.4.4. All of the normal vectors calculated were rather perpendicular to z = 0 plane; the X component and Y component of the normalized normal vector are better than 6×10^{-4} rad away from the vertical line. The standard deviations for this probe measurement are better than 0.04 mm. For the optical SmartScope measurement, the X component and Y component of the normalized normal vector are better than 4×10^{-3} rad away from the vertical line. The standard deviations for this are better than 0.04 mm. The height differences are relatively 1.478% and 1.568% and are better than 0.08 mm.

As it is suspected that this error comes from the gap between the two blocks, an additional test was done on several one-piece metal parts. The results showed a similar systematic difference between the optic and touch probe methods, which is a few dozen micrometers. By now there is not enough evidence to determine what caused this difference.

Chapter 5

Results

With the post-process program, the measured points can be turned into meaningful sizes or positions of the items. To validate this result, a few measurements were conducted on the mock-up sensor dummy and the gauge blocks. The tests on the mock-up at LU verified the accuracy of this method, and the tests on the gauge blocks proved the consistency among different SmartScopes. A routine was made and tested on an R1 pre-production prototype, and three individual results were gained at UU. Such results proved the consistency of this system, yet a few challenges arose as we gained the result.

5.1 Mock-up Measurements

With the mock-up module, it is possible to test the fiducial measurement and other validations.

The first test was to validate the post-process program. A few items were measured on the mock-up, and the SmartScope provided simple but necessary tools to calculate certain intersections. The same calculation with the post-process program returned the result with relative differences better than 0.01%.

The second test was to validate the fiducial measurement. Three fiducial marks were measured separately four times, and their corresponding standard deviation on the XY plane was 0.00213 mm, 0.00306 mm and 0.00124 mm, which is good enough for the sensor measurement, since the criteria require both absolute values of ΔX and ΔY smaller than 0.25 mm.

5.2 Gauge Block Measurements

A few measurements were conducted on the gauge blocks to verify the performance of the SmartScope and the corresponding software. It is vital to validate the results of this machine so that the measurement on the modules could be treated.

5.2.1 Measurement Consistency

The first is to repeat the measurement of the width and length of the blocks in LU and in NBI to see if the two different machines return a consistent result. Block #10 and #11 were used. Note that this is an early test, when the light configuration was arbitrary and set to the highest edge contrast. Errors could be generated from this light difference, for the edges observed would move with a change of the light configuration.

The width and length were defined by the distance between four corners of the upper surface of the block, for the measured opposite edges were not necessarily parallel, resulting in an undefined distance between two edges. The corners were defined by the intersection of the two edges on which the corner was located, and each edge was defined by two points on it, for the SmartScope mostly measures a point on an edge, as discussed in Sec.3.I. Fig.3.5-3.8 clearly showed the difference, and the field of view is about $0.3 \text{ mm} \times 0.4 \text{ mm}$.

No.	#10	#11
TII	$9.7802\mathrm{mm}$	$10.847\mathrm{mm}$
LU	$9.7741\mathrm{mm}$	$10.847\mathrm{mm}$
NRI	$9.7910\mathrm{mm}$	$10.862\mathrm{mm}$
INDI	$9.7879\mathrm{mm}$	$10.842\mathrm{mm}$

Table 5.1: The width of the blocks. The reference size is the block number.

No. #10		#11		
TTT	$29.684\mathrm{mm}$	34.702 mm		
LU	$29.636\mathrm{mm}$	$34.641\mathrm{mm}$		
NRI	$29.690\mathrm{mm}$	34.682 mm		
	$29.650\mathrm{mm}$	$34.661\mathrm{mm}$		

Table 5.2: The length of the blocks. There is no reference size.

No.	#10	#11
Width	0.110%	0.028%
wiath	0.141%	0.046%
Length	0.020%	0.058%
Lengen	0.047%	0.058%

Table 5.3: The relative difference for this result.

The results for the width of the block are shown in Tab.5.1, and the result for the length of the block are shown in Tab.5.2. The relative difference for the same edge between results from LU and NBI is calculated and shown in Tab.5.3. It is clearly shown that the measured differences agreed with each other at the magnitude of one thousandth, and the largest difference happened on the width of the #10 block.

However, these blocks proved to be accurate by measuring them with a micrometre screw gauge. The average width is $(10.000 \pm 0.001) \text{ mm}$ for #10 and $(11.002 \pm 0.002) \text{ mm}$ for #11. The length of these blocks are not designed to be completely accurate, yet under a caliper #10 is 30.00 mm while #11 is 35.00 mm. It can be indicated that the measurements are $1 \sim 2\%$ smaller than the expected sizes, which could be a result of light configuration, as only the upper flat surface was illuminated and the chamfer was not included in the width measurement.

This test indicated that the two different models of the SmartScope, the Quest Vantage 250 and the Flash 200, return the results with high consistency, which is within expectation.

5.2.2 Measurement Accuracy

The second measurement involved the #4, #5 and #50 gauge blocks. This test is meant to demonstrate the accuracy of the SmartScope optical measurement. Both the camera on the machine and the touch probe are used to measure the same configuration of the gauge blocks.

The #4 and #5 were put on the #50 parallel to the shorter edge of #50, so that the upper surface of #50 can be used as the reference plane for the bottom glass table that can hardly show patterns to focus-on, which denied the possibility of taking the glass table as the reference plane as usual. In the optical test, the #50 was treated as the reference plane with four corners measured and treated in the post-processing program. An additional measurement of 16 points was done on the #50 surface between #4 and #5. The upper surfaces of #4 and #5 were also measured, with a 5×5 dot matrix measured for each. In the touch probe measurement, three 5×5 dot matrices were measured for #4, #5 and #50. Specifically, the matrix on #50 was divided into three groups: two rows on the left of #4, two on the right of #5 and one in the middle of the two.

As the dot matrices covered the whole upper surface of the blocks, it is more sensible to fit them with a plane rather than simply averaging the height, for this surface could be tilted. The average height for each column or row is also calculated. Comparing the tilt angles of the surfaces also extracted the heights. With the post-process program, it is possible to calculate the normal vector of the plane. Note that these normal vectors are all normalized. As a reference, the results from the touch probe would indicate the attitude of the blocks. The dot matrices were fitted into planes. The normalized normal vectors of the reference plane, #4 plane and #5 are (0.00015, -0.00001, 1.00000), (-0.00053, -0.00007, 1.00000) and (-0.00013, -0.00001, 1.00000), indicating that the tilt angles were better than 4 degrees. It suggests that if this surface was approximated as the internal XY plane of the machine, the height difference caused by this angle for a 30 mm-long block would be better than 30 μ m.





Figure 5.1: The averaged heights of #4 along two axes from touch probe measurement. The height is relative to the routine datum plane.

Figure 5.2: The averaged heights of #5 along two axes from touch probe measurement. The height is relative to the routine datum plane.



Figure 5.3: The averaged heights of #50 along two axes from touch probe measurement. The height is relative to the routine datum plane.

The planar difference is derived by taking the intersection between the plane and line x = y = 0. In this way, the heights for reference plane, #4 and #5 are (35.02900 ± 0.00911) mm, (38.92634 ± 0.01940) mm and (39.98960 ± 0.03652) mm. Hence the height difference can be calculated to extract the block height. #4 gauge block has (3.89734 ± 0.02143) mm and #5 has (4.96059 ± 0.03763) mm.

The separately grouped heights agreed with this uncertainty. The scale in Fig.5.1-5.3 is $2 \mu m$, and it is obvious that certain measurements returned with a height far from the average, which should be the major contribution to the uncertainty of the height. There is no way to know if those values come from an internal error from the machine or from the uneven surface. More tests repeating this measurement shall answer this question.

With the same method, we can process the result from the optical measurement. The normalized normal vectors of the planes for #50, #4 and #5 are (-0.00005, -0.00006, 1.00000), (-0.00325, -0.00027, 0.99999) and (-0.00135, 0.00012, 1.00000). It is clear that the tilted angle for #4 is especially large. If we take the internal machine XY plane as this surface, the resulting height error for a point 30 mm away would be 1.7 mm, which is far from acceptable. The heights for #50, #4 and #5 are (0.02757 ± 0.03489) mm, (3.98250 ± 0.00597) mm and (5.06597 ± 0.01115) mm. By reducing the height of the reference #50 plane, the block height for #4 is (3.95492 ± 0.03540) mm and that for #5 is (5.03840 ± 0.03663) mm.



Figure 5.4: The averaged heights of #4 along two axes from optical measurement.



Figure 5.5: The averaged heights of #5 along two axes from optical measurement.

The results from the separated rows showed something interesting. The standard deviations of this five-point line can be as good as the one of the touch probe; however, the one from the measurement of the Y-axis had a significantly larger standard deviation. Also, both blocks showed a monotone increase or decrease of the height among both axes, indicating that the upper surfaces of both blocks have a rather large tilt angle.

The additional measurement on the single parts as shown in Fig.5.6 showed a similar result: the relative height measured from the optical method and the touch probe has a systematic difference, and no simple conclusion can be made with current experiment results.



Figure 5.6: The parts under the touch probe for the accuracy validation. Parts from left to right are No.2, No.1 and No.3.

5.3 Sensor Measurements

The most important part should always be the measurement of the true sensor. The measurement has been done on one R0 module at LU and one R1 module at UU. A corresponding measuring routine has been created for each of the modules, and all of the required components were measured if possible.

The post-process program calculated the necessary positions and organized these positions into an output file under the requirements of the CERN document.[16] A sample is attached in the Appendix.

The routine at UU for the R1 sample was repeated three times, and gave slightly different results as the SmartScope edge finder does not always repeat the result, yet returns the result within the expected fluctuation. The distribution of the height measurement results was better than 7 μ m as shown in Fig.5.7, and that of the XY distribution was better than 2.5 μ m, which indicates that this method is reliable and ready for real-world sensor production process.

The last step is to compare the measurement result with the standard position of the fiducials to determine if this module should pass the metrology test. The design schematic of the sensor is the standard used as reference, and an example for the R1 module is Fig.4.13-4.14. In the case of the third measurement, the ΔX and ΔY is shown in Tab.5.4. Note that only both ΔX for two powerboards exceeded the allowance.

The relative height of measured to the silicon plane is shown in Fig.5.8. Note that this





Figure 5.7: The histogram of the standard distribution of the height measurements for all the height check-points on R1.

Figure 5.8: The histogram of the heights measured for all the check-points on R1.

height distribution is far from the $0.070 \text{ mm} \sim 0.170 \text{ mm}$ range, yet further measurement is required to verify if this comes from the property of this module.

Items	$ \Delta X < 0.25 \mathrm{mm}$	$ \Delta Y < 0.25 \mathrm{mm}$
H_R1H0_P1	$0.0533\mathrm{mm}$	$0.0741\mathrm{mm}$
H_R1H0_P2	$0.0963\mathrm{mm}$	$-0.1335{ m mm}$
H_R1H1_P1	$0.0362\mathrm{mm}$	$-0.1103 \mathrm{mm}$
H_R1H1_P2	$0.0114\mathrm{mm}$	$-0.1854 \mathrm{mm}$
PB_P1	$0.2791\mathrm{mm}$	$0.1413\mathrm{mm}$
PB_P2	$0.4020\mathrm{mm}$	$-0.1868 \mathrm{mm}$

Table 5.4: The relative difference from the standard position for the R1 PPA module.

Chapter 6

Outlook

This project includes the whole process of routine setting and demonstrated its reliability, yet a few tasks to be done show the necessity when this project is about to be put into use. Another method using a laser rangefinder is under evaluation and is expected to fulfil the requirements of the height metrology of the hybrids.

6.1 Remaining Challenges

The most important remaining task is to add the standard position of the hybrid fiducials to the post-process program, to produce a completely automatic system that can tell if certain module passes the metrology. It is about adding the positions of the items to be measured discussed in Chap.4.

During the process of the measurement, a difficulty arose as the XYZ coordinate form of the measurement is far from intuition, and it would take much effort to figure out if the operator came across a faulty result or where the fault is.

Based on the C++ program, it is possible to build up a graphical interaction user interface to illustrate the measurement, where OpenGL could be involved. A Python-C++ hybrid solution could be a more practical option.

Also, the standard model of the module could be added to this GUI as it can tell which item is beyond the threshold, which can provide a straightforward explanation of the situation of this sensor.

6.2 Comparison with Laser Rangefinder

A small group is working on the laser rangefinder method at Uppsala University for hybrid height metrology. An optoNCDT ILD1900-10 sensor by Micro-Epsilon is used to make a distance measurement, where the distance can be converted into the relative height.

The ILD1900-10 can measure the distance within the range of 20-30 mm, with a linearity smaller than $\pm 2 \mu m$ and a repeatability better than $0.4 \mu m$. This machine uses the principle of optical triangulation, that is, to project a point of light onto the surface and measure the position of this point with a separate image sensor. The position of the point of light seen from the image sensor is only decided by the distance between the surfaces to detect and this rangefinder.



Figure 6.1: An early-stage test on the laser rangefinder done in Uppsala University. This is a slide page from the Scandinavian ITk week meeting.[24]

In principle, this rangefinder will return a distribution of the strength of this monochrome laser, which would have single or multiple peaks that indicate that one reflection happened. By a built-in algorithm or a proper analysis program, the distance(s) can be easily calculated.

This system will be used to scan through the hybrid, making a profile that includes all ASICs. The height difference between the ASIC top and PCB base will be calculated.

By now, the mechanism to mount the rangefinder has been tested, and a preliminary measurement done recently proved that the height difference can be detected, although not quite accurately with the rough experiment setting, as shown in the briefing (Fig.6.1-6.2) during the Nordic ITk week meeting.

After personnel in UU finish this method, a cross-check between this laser optical triangulation and the SmartScope auto-focusing can be achieved. By comparing these two methods,



Figure 6.2: An early-stage test on the laser rangefinder done in Uppsala University. This is a slide page from the Scandinavian ITk weekly meeting.[24]

the laser method is more intended for hybrid height metrology, and the SmartScope is more for module planar metrology, yet the laser method can be easily implemented to the module height metrology. However, the laser rangefinder lack the ability to conduct XY plane measurement and will be attached to a camera or SmartScope to conduct the height measurement. This project demonstrated the power of the SmartScope on XY plane measurement and the SmartScope is very likely to be deployed for the metrology test in production, while the laser method is superior in Z-axis measurement by principle. A combination of the two methods can be expected afterwards as either has irreplaceable advantages in measurement.

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Appendix

The source code for the post-processing code can be acquired from: https://github.com/xxy98/ATLASModuleMetrology-LU/tree/master

Here's a sample of the standard output:

I	#Header						
2	#Header						
3	EC or Barrel:			SE			
4	Module Type:			M1			
5	Module ref. Nu	mber:		20USEM10	000014		
6	Date:			2023-05-	11T00:18:36.4	179250+0200	
7	Institute:			Uppsala	Universitet		
8	Operator:			Xiangyu	XU		
9	Instrument typ	e:		OGP Smar	tScope Flash	200	
IO	Run Number:			3			
п	Measurement pr	ogram vers	sion:	v.23.05.	02		
12	#Positions						
13	#Location	X [mm]]	Y [mm	1]		
14	H_R1H0_P1	+007.9	9933	-058.	4501		
15	H_R1H0_P2	+108.6	5223	-061.	1865		
16	H_R1H1_P1	+003.4	4518	-020.	5517		
17	H_R1H1_P2	+111.5	5746	-023.	0756		
18	PB_P1	+070.5	5149	-044.	8933		
19	PB_P2	+106.7	7850	-033.	5342		
20	#Glue heigh	ts:					
21	# Location	Туре	X [mm]	Y [mm]	Z [mm]	
22	Sensor	1	+001.	9997	-012.6942	-000.0175	
23	Sensor	1	+012.	0008	-012.7856	-000.0185	
24	Sensor	1	+022.	0290	-011.5737	-000.0325	
25	Sensor	1	+032.	0001	-011.6648	-000.0420	
26	Sensor	1	+041.	9992	-011.7567	-000.0439	
27	Sensor	1	+052.	0126	-010.6076	-000.0504	
2.8	Sensor	1	+062.	0008	-010.6988	-000.0596	
29	Sensor	1	+071.	9990	-010.7901	-000.0654	
30	Sensor	1	+081.	9992	-010.8815	-000.0661	
31	Sensor	1	+091.	9999	-010.9734	-000.0689	
32	Sensor	1	+101.	9995	-011.0647	-000.0714	
33	Sensor	1	+112.	0019	-011.1560	-000.0731	

34	Sensor	1	+008.4058	-068.0447	-000.0369
35	Sensor	1	+018.4033	-068.1355	-000.0382
36	Sensor	1	+028.4009	-068.2269	-000.0433
37	Sensor	1	+038.4019	-068.3189	-000.0485
38	Sensor	1	+048.4001	-068.4102	-000.0556
39	Sensor	1	+058.4013	-068.5015	-000.0659
40	Sensor	1	+068.4015	-068.5928	-000.0712
41	Sensor	1	+078.4002	-068.6840	-000.0754
42	Sensor	1	+088.4000	-068.7753	-000.0718
43	Sensor	1	+098.4006	-068.8671	-000.0657
44	Sensor	1	+108.4000	-068.9583	-000.0752
45	H_R1H0_0	2	+006.8150	-044.7521	+000.2775
46	H_R1H0_0	2	+007.0873	-047.4899	+000.2680
47	H_R1H0_0	2	+006.7547	-049.4385	+000.2587
48	H_R1H0_0	2	+007.1557	-050.5465	+000.2505
49	H_R1H0_1	2	+072.1924	-047.5061	+000.2674
50	H_R1H0_1	2	+075.7704	-047.9647	+000.2563
51	H_R1H0_1	2	+076.1744	-047.9676	+000.2457
52	H_R1H0_1	2	+079.7589	-048.0977	+000.2437
53	H_R1H0_2	2	+100.4650	-049.3626	+000.2256
54	H_R1H0_2	2	+106.5538	-049.7112	+000.2185
55	H_R1H0_2	2	+106.5442	-050.8208	+000.1940
56	H_R1H0_2	2	+100.7676	-050.2324	+000.2118
57	HCCR1H0_4	2	+013.2762	-044.5418	+000.3346
58	HCCR1H0_4	2	+019.2690	-044.9065	+000.3619
59	HCCR1H0_4	2	+018.9411	-049.2725	+000.3311
60	HCCR1H0_4	2	+013.2080	-049.2571	+000.3274
61	ABC_R1H0_0	2	+108.9720	-058.8738	+000.1971
62	ABC_R1H0_0	2	+108.6399	-061.1860	+000.1967
63	ABC_R1H0_0	2	+100.0062	-060.6219	+000.2464
64	ABC_R1H0_0	2	+100.1332	-057.8670	+000.2363
65	ABC_R1H0_1	2	+098.7966	-057.9526	+000.2467
66	ABC_R1H0_1	2	+098.5078	-060.2777	+000.2603
67	ABC_R1H0_1	2	+089.9632	-057.1173	+000.2729
68	ABC_R1H0_1	2	+089.9230	-059.9442	+000.2740
69	ABC_R1H0_2	2	+088.6166	-057.2503	+000.2767
70	ABC_R1H0_2	2	+088.3818	-059.5760	+000.2718
7^{I}	ABC_R1H0_2	2	+079.7682	-059.3532	+000.2918
72	ABC_R1H0_2	2	+079.7779	-056.5725	+000.2892
73	ABC_R1H0_3	2	+078.4340	-056.7330	+000.2907
74	ABC_R1H0_3	2	+078.2302	-059.0616	+000.3021
75	ABC_R1H0_3	2	+069.6180	-059.0267	+000.3055
76	ABC_R1H0_3	2	+069.5602	-056.2428	+000.2897
77	ABC_R1H0_4	2	+068.2317	-056.4090	+000.3080
78	ABC_R1H0_4	2	+068.0708	-058.7520	+000.3180
79	ABC_R1H0_4	2	+059.4639	-058.8788	+000.3105
80	ABC_R1H0_4	2	+059.3538	-056.1168	+000.2938
81	ABC_R1H0_5	2	+058.0161	-056.3084	+000.2795
82	ABC_R1H0_5	2	+057.9123	-058.6375	+000.2994

83	ABC_R1H0_5	2	+049.3008	-058.9493	+000.3227
84	ABC_R1H0_5	2	+049.1341	-056.1651	+000.2969
85	ABC_R1H0_6	2	+047.8164	-056.3970	+000.3061
86	ABC_R1H0_6	2	+047.7539	-058.7456	+000.3269
87	ABC_R1H0_6	2	+039.1462	-059.2183	+000.3255
88	ABC_R1H0_6	2	+038.9228	-056.4420	+000.3102
89	ABC_R1H0_7	2	+037.5880	-056.6971	+000.3126
90	ABC_R1H0_7	2	+037.5666	-059.0347	+000.3172
91	ABC_R1H0_7	2	+028.9846	-059.6817	+000.3272
92	ABC_R1H0_7	2	+028.7058	-056.9028	+000.3200
93	ABC_R1H0_8	2	+027.3646	-057.1919	+000.3186
94	ABC_R1H0_8	2	+027.4054	-059.5106	+000.3236
95	ABC_R1H0_8	2	+018.8309	-060.3487	+000.3312
96	ABC_R1H0_8	2	+018.4914	-057.5757	+000.3279
97	ABC_R1H0_9	2	+016.8650	-057.8892	+000.3311
98	ABC R1H0 9	2	+016.9436	-060.2283	+000.3352
99	ABC R1H0 9	2	+008.3854	-061.2141	+000.3226
100	ABC R1H0 9	2	+007.9856	-058.4294	+000.3019
101	H R1H1 0	2	+005.4948	-035.6457	+000.1983
102	H R1H1 0	2	+005.1919	-032.9171	+000.2072
102	H R1H1 0	2	+004.8454	-032.4559	+000.2064
10.4	H R1H1 0	2	+0.04.4986	-029.8148	+000.2179
105	H R1H1 1	2	+073.2578	-0.29.2904	+000.2266
105	H R1H1 1	2	+076.7732	-0.29.2453	+000.2304
107	H R1H1 1	2	+077.1818	-029.2882	+0.00.2290
107	H R1H1 1	2	+080.7661	-029.3964	+0.00, 1.906
100	H R1H1 2	2	+103.6004	-030.0596	+000.1454
109	H R1H1 2	2	+103.5914	-031.0252	+0.00, 1552
110	H R1H1 2	2	+107.7876	-031.6469	+000.1445
112	H R1H1 2	2	+108.7699	-031.4830	+000.1437
112	HCCR1H1 5	2	+011.4030	-034.9689	+0.00.2601
113	HCCR1H1 5	2	+011,4462	-030,2483	+000.2865
114	HCCB1H1 5	2	+017 4619	-030 6353	+000 3096
115	HCCB1H1 5	2	+017 1457	-034 9809	+000 2825
117	ABC R1H1 0	2	+003.4460	-020.5533	+0.00, 29.96
117	ABC R1H1 0	2	+003.5441	-022.8946	+000.2983
110	ABC R1H1 0	2	+012.3986	-022.3006	+000.3332
119	ABC R1H1 0	2	+012.0061	-019.5275	+000.3474
120	ABC R1H1 1	2	+013 4077	-019 6637	+000 3553
121	ABC R1H1 1	2	+013 4485	-021 9934	+000.3427
122	ABC R1H1 1	2	+022 3208	-021.5501	+000 3279
123	ABC R1H1 1	2	+022.0200 +022.1175	-018 7645	+000.3552
124	ABC B1H1 2	2	+023 3731	-018 9486	+0.00 3561
125	ABC B1H1 2	2	+023 3747	-021 2859	+000 3352
120	ABC R1H1 2	2	+0.32.2467	-021.0106	+000.3368
128	ABC R1H1 2	2	+031.9523	-018.2341	+000.3482
120	ABC R1H1 3	2	+033.3350	-018.4100	+0.00.3530
129	ABC R1H1 3	2	+033.3012	-020.7424	+000.3378
121	ABC R1H1 3	2	+041.9426	-017.8478	+000.3240
- 2*					

132	ABC_R1H1_3	2	+042.1804	-020.6317	+000.3129
133	ABC_R1H1_4	2	+043.2441	-020.3847	+000.3070
134	ABC_R1H1_4	2	+043.3270	-018.0473	+000.3309
135	ABC_R1H1_4	2	+051.9216	-017.6504	+000.3614
136	ABC_R1H1_4	2	+052.1284	-020.4385	+000.3287
137	ABC_R1H1_5	2	+053.1700	-020.2132	+000.3238
138	ABC_R1H1_5	2	+053.2978	-017.8843	+000.3538
139	ABC_R1H1_5	2	+062.0190	-017.6383	+000.3215
140	ABC_R1H1_5	2	+062.0538	-020.4220	+000.2919
I4I	ABC_R1H1_6	2	+063.1201	-020.2225	+000.2909
142	ABC_R1H1_6	2	+063.2725	-017.8794	+000.3237
143	ABC_R1H1_6	2	+072.1448	-017.8111	+000.3137
I44	ABC_R1H1_6	2	+071.9895	-020.6032	+000.2809
145	ABC_R1H1_7	2	+073.0319	-020.3969	+000.2905
146	ABC_R1H1_7	2	+073.2520	-018.0850	+000.3192
I47	ABC_R1H1_7	2	+081.8367	-018.1636	+000.3154
148	ABC_R1H1_7	2	+081.8901	-020.9365	+000.2926
I49	ABC_R1H1_8	2	+082.9464	-020.7784	+000.2866
150	ABC_R1H1_8	2	+083.2007	-018.4574	+000.3100
151	ABC_R1H1_8	2	+092.0472	-018.6898	+000.3014
152	ABC_R1H1_8	2	+091.8060	-021.4720	+000.2782
153	ABC_R1H1_9	2	+092.8596	-021.3309	+000.2816
154	ABC_R1H1_9	2	+093.1559	-019.0088	+000.3000
155	ABC_R1H1_9	2	+101.7673	-019.4182	+000.2634
156	ABC_R1H1_9	2	+101.6967	-022.1917	+000.2455
157	ABC_R1H1_10	2	+102.7640	-022.0767	+000.2373
158	ABC_R1H1_10	2	+103.0944	-019.7395	+000.2518
159	ABC_R1H1_10	2	+111.6767	-020.2885	+000.2608
160	ABC_R1H1_10	2	+111.5690	-023.0767	+000.2516
161	PB_0	2	+107.9425	-038.6696	+000.4289
162	PB_1	2	+093.6609	-045.2588	+000.4785
163	PB_2	2	+075.4004	-046.1000	+000.4250
164	PB_3	2	+076.3908	-031.8283	+000.4568
165	PB_4	2	+057.5172	-035.8066	+000.2729
166	#Other heig	ghts:			
167	# Location	Туре	X [mm]	Y [mm]	Z [mm]