A Biasing and Demodulation System for Kilopixel TES Bolometer Arrays
Graeme Smecher, Member, IEEE, François Aubin, Eric Bissonnette, Matt Dobbs, Peter Hyland, and Kevin MacDermid

Abstract—We describe the signal-processing logic, firmware, and software for a frequency-domain multiplexed (FDM) biasing and demodulation system that reads out Transition Edge Sensor (TES) bolometer arrays for mm-wavelength cosmology telescopes. This system replaces a mixed-signal readout backend with a much smaller, more power-efficient system relying on Field-Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) for control, computation, and signal processing. The new system is sufficiently robust, automated, and power efficient to be flown on stratospheric balloon-borne telescopes and is being further developed for satellite applications.

Index Terms—Field-Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs), Digital Up/Down Converters, Digital Signal Processing (DSP)

I. INTRODUCTION

Large arrays of Transition Edge Sensor (TES) bolometers have recently seen widespread application to dark matter detection experiments and astronomical telescopes in the millimeter, sub-millimeter, far-infrared, soft x-ray, and gamma-ray bands (see, for example, [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [8]). This is due to their exquisite sensitivity for incoherent detection, ease for fabrication of large monolithic arrays using photolithographic techniques, and relative insensitivity to microphonics due to their low impedance. The detector arrays typically operate at sub-Kelvin temperatures, so the thermal load presented by the wires connecting cryogenic hardware to room-temperature electronics is a significant design constraint. In such situations, it is desirable to multiplex many signals onto a reduced number of wires, using, for example, time-domain multiplexing [9] (TDM) or frequency-domain multiplexing (FDM) [10], [11].

In this paper, we describe the logic and firmware design of the Digital Frequency-domain Multiplexer (DFMUX), a power- and space-efficient FDM system that multiplexes up to 16 TES bolometers on a single readout module consisting of one set of wires entering the cryostat. Each module uses a single series array Superconducting Quantum Interference Device (SQUID) [12] operating at 4°K as a transimpedance pre-amplifier. This readout system is being used for several mm-wavelength telescopes including the EBEX Balloon-borne polarimeter [3] and POLARBEAR experiment [13].

The FDMUX is intended to supersede a mixed-signal readout system described in [10], [13] with a system that is sufficiently small and power-efficient for balloon-borne experiments. An overview may be found in [11], with a description of an early system design. The high-level software control of the system, along with its use to tune the cryogenic electronics, is documented in [16]. In this paper, we focus on a system-level description and analysis of the DFMUX signal path, and highlight recent changes that extend the design, improve channel density, and increase performance in the noise environment exhibited in the field. We begin by describing the system’s basic operation in Section II. We focus on the digital signal path in Section III. We then examine the firmware and on-board software in Section IV. We explore the system performance in Section V and conclude with Section VI.

II. SYSTEM DESCRIPTION

Figure 1 shows a simplified diagram of a FDM bolometer readout system. The goal of such a system is to minimize the number of wires crossing into the cryostat by multiplexing several bolometer signals on a single set of wires, without degrading each bolometer’s noise performance. Multiplexing is desirable since the thermal load presented by wires entering the cryostat is substantial. Cryogenic refrigeration consumes a significant fraction of an experiment’s power budget, and cryogenic fridge cycling is time-consuming enough to impact the experiment’s uptime.

This system synthesizes a set of carrier combs, which enter the cryostat on a single wire. Each of these combs is selected by a corresponding bandpass filter and passes through a bolometer, which imposes a gain proportional to its incoming photon flux. This time-varying gain modulates each carrier frequency, producing sidebands. Each bolometer’s band-limited output is summed together to form the modulated sky signal.

The modulated sky signal is of very low power, and must be amplified before being passed to room-temperature electronics. To do so, we use a Semiconductor Quantum Interference Device (SQUID). SQUIDs may be used as extremely sensitive transimpedance amplifiers, but are only approximately linear in a limited dynamic range. To minimize harmonic distortion, we operate the SQUID in a negative feedback loop. In addition, we remove the residual carrier signals via destructive interference using a nuller comb.
Implementations in several crucial ways: However, the DFMUX differs from traditional DUC and DDC and other multichannel base-station applications [17], [18].

Our design has much in common with the digital up- and down-converters (DUC and DDC, respectively) used in GSM analysis. Our bandwidth for each channel is relatively small (10s of Hz). Since the modulator sinusoid is used to both electrically bias the TES and carry the ultra-low noise signals, the dynamic range requirement of $\sim 10^6 \sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ is extreme. We require no degradation of noise performance down to several 10s of mHz.

Finally, the nulled sky signal is passed back to room-temperature electronics for demodulation. Each channel is demodulated to baseband, low-pass filtered, and archived for analysis.

Our design has much in common with the digital up- and down-converters (DUC and DDC, respectively) used in GSM and other multichannel base-station applications [17], [18]. However, the DFMUX differs from traditional DUC and DDC implementations in several crucial ways:

- Our bandwidth for each channel is relatively small (10s of Hz). Since the modulator sinusoid is used to both electrically bias the TES and carry the ultra-low noise signals, the dynamic range requirement of $\sim 10^6 \sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ is extreme. We require no degradation of noise performance down to several 10s of mHz.
- The modulator generates only combs of carrier sinusoids. The modulation process itself takes place inside the cryogenic vessel.
- Both the modulator and demodulator for each channel reside on the same FPGA. This means, for example, that each channel’s modulator and demodulator need only be synchronized once since their clocks cannot drift with respect to each other. Clock jitter cancels and is not a significant source of low-frequency noise.
- In addition to its readout and tuning roles, the DFMUX is also used as a real-time bench instrument. Thus, it is desirable to have flexible control and a readily understandable signal path. This motivates features that are used occasionally, such as input re-routing and debugging facilities.
- The system must be robust against crashes causing interruptions in the detector biases since this can necessitate thermal cycling of the sensors, requiring re-initialization of cryogenic systems. This can take about an hour per comb, adversely affecting the observing efficiency of the telescope applications.

### III. SIGNAL PATH

In this section, we describe the signal path for each detector channel during ordinary operation. Fig. 2 shows a schematic including a single readout module [1]. At a channel’s resonant frequency, its LC filter has negligible impedance, permitting current to flow through the associated bolometer (modeled here as a resistance that varies with incoming optical power.) Although crosstalk from adjacent channels is nonzero, it may be controlled by selecting a set of resonant frequencies with adequate spacing.

Each DFMUX consists of a motherboard, shown on the left side of Fig. 2 and up to two mezzanines. Each mezzanine contains the analog electronics for two of the DFMUX’s

---

1. Fig. 2 has been simplified. It neglects, for example, details of the differential signaling scheme and a separate board containing additional amplifiers (the “SQUID controller” board.) For details of the warm and cold electronics beyond the DFMUX, readers are referred to [19], [20].
functions. We refer to the signal path performing carrier synthesis as the Digital Multi-Frequency Synthesizer (DMFS) and the demodulation signal path as the Digital Multi-Frequency Demodulator (DMFD).

A. Digital Multi-Frequency Synthesizer (DMFS)

1) Structure: Each of the four modules in a DFMUX is associated with two identical DMFS blocks. One generates the carrier signals that bias bolometers. The other DMFS generates the nuller signals that cancel out these carriers at the SQUID input. These blocks synthesize waveforms for one wire at 25 MSPS. DMFSes operate independently and are not synchronized (meaning that the fixed phase between any two DMFS channels set to the same frequency cannot be determined without measurement.) The schematic for a single DMFS block is shown in Fig. 2.

Each of the 16 sinusoids in an individual DMFS block are generated using vendor-supplied 12-bit, 2’s-complement Direct Digital Synthesizers (DDSes) as shown in Fig. 3. To maximize design density, each DDS generates sinusoids for 8 channels and operates at an internal clock rate of 200 MHz. Each DDS uses a 32-bit phase accumulator to track the waveform’s phase. Each clock cycle this accumulator is incremented, truncated to 14 bits, then used to reference the address of the waveform’s amplitude in a look-up table. A separate 32 bit register provides a programmable phase offset. When operating at 25 MHz, the frequency can be specified to 0.006 Hz. The spurious free dynamic range (SFDR) is 96 dB. This algorithm does not use substantial logic resources, but does use a significant number of the FPGA’s block RAM (BRAM) structures. Since each DDS block synthesizes 8 sinusoids, two such DDSes are required for each 16-channel module.

After synthesis by a DDS, each channel’s sinusoid is then weighted by a 20-bit 2’s-complement amplitude. This weighting is used to allow Joule heating provided by the voltage bias to be individually controlled. This allows each bolometer, which can have significantly different device parameters due to fabrication process variability, to be tuned to its optimum bias point. Each weighted sinusoid is then summed with the other 15 channels in its DMFS, and truncated to form a 16-bit signal for the associated DAC. The signal from each DMFS is finally converted from 2’s-complement to a positive binary number and passed to the 25 MHz clock domain for digital-to-analog conversion.
The slight DC bias resulting from truncation in the DMFS is unimportant since carrier and nul output are AC-coupled.

**B. Digital Multi-Frequency Demodulator (DMFD)**

Signal processing within the DMFD is illustrated in Fig. 3.

1) **Routing:** The DMFD simultaneously demodulates input signals from four readout modules, each sampled at 25 MSPS. These inputs generally correspond to each of the DFMUX’s four 14-bit ADCs. For debugging and biasing duties, it is also possible to reroute the four inputs directly to the DMFS signals, bypassing A/D and D/A conversion entirely. (This routing capability has been used, for example, to use the DFMUX as a network-analysis tool, comparing the phase shift and attenuation caused by an analog circuit to a reference sinusoid that has been rerouted from the DMFS directly into a separate DMFD.)

2) **Downconversion:** Once each signal has been routed for demodulation, it is mixed with 17 real reference waveforms to produce baseband signals. The frequency and phase of the reference waveforms can be programmed independently. The number of demodulators is one greater than the number of multiplexed detector channels. The 17th channel is identical to the other 16, but is not otherwise committed to a bolometer and is thus free to be placed in quadrature with another channel’s demodulator to form a complex (IQ) demodulator. A complex demodulator is helpful during tuning and testing, but is not necessary during ordinary readout.

Waveforms generated within the DMFD are equivalent to coarsely quantized sinusoids. These waveforms are synthesized with a custom DDS that uses samples of a length-16 sequence addressed with a phase accumulator at the desired frequency. The frequency spectra of references generated in this manner are tractable but complicated, and are suitably approximated by that of ideal sinusoids for our purposes. The sequence is symmetric; a positive half-cycle is \([0, 3, 6, 7, 7, 6, 3]/8\). The RMS amplitude of waveforms synthesized using this sequence is approximately 0.681, or about 4% lower than the ideal sinusoid’s RMS of \(1/\sqrt{2}\). The synthesizer’s SNR is frequency-dependent. Vendor-supplied DDSes are not used for downconversion in the DMFD due to limited FPGA resources, and because the available DDSes do not permit phase synchronization between channels.

In order to permit quadrature demodulation, waveforms synthesized in the DMFD may be phase locked. Each synthesizer’s instantaneous phase may be placed on a bus, and other synthesizers may load it if instructed. This process allows any two channels in the DMFD to be phase-locked with a fixed, programmable phase offset between them. It is typically used to construct quadrature demodulators using the 17th DMFD channel mentioned above. While this implementation does require that all channels share a phase bus, it does so at modest cost in terms of FPGA resources, and uses vastly fewer resources than producing quadrature outputs for each channel.

3) **Decimation:** After mixing, each channel within the DMFD contains a demodulated signal at baseband, sampled at 25 MSPS. Since the bandwidth of interest is a tiny fraction of the full Nyquist bandwidth, and since this sampling rate presents practical difficulties for streaming and storage, it is desirable to decimate these signals by a large factor (~ 10^5). The remainder of the DMFD is largely devoted to performing this decimation efficiently.

Each channel is first processed by its own Cascaded Integrator-Comb (CIC) decimation filter, labelled CIC1 in Fig. 4. CIC decimators are constructed using only accumulators and adders, which map very naturally to the resources available on an FPGA. However, since CICs exhibit significant passband nonlinearity and have broad transition regions, they are generally followed by compensating FIRs to restore uniform gain and perform additional decimation. The first-stage CIC reduces the overall sampling rate by a factor of 128, has 3 stages, and uses 35 bits internally. CIC1 output is then truncated to 17 bits.

After the CIC1 filter, all 68 channels are multiplexed onto a shared data bus. Hereafter, all filters are time-multiplexed and operate on each channel in sequence for a substantial savings in FPGA resources.

Following this multiplexer, a second CIC filter (CIC2) decimates by a further factor of 16. CIC2 uses four stages using 33-bit internal signals. After CIC2, each channel has a data rate of 12.21 kHz and is truncated to 17 bits.

The signals are then processed by a sequence of Finite Impulse Response (FIR) filters. The first FIR includes correction for amplitude distortion introduced by the CIC filtering stages, and is 43 taps in length. The second through sixth FIRs are identical, unit-gain, 108-tap filters with unit passband gain. Although it would be computationally more efficient to optimize each FIR individually, using the same FIR prototype for each of the DMFD’s possible outputs provides a consistent and predictable output scale at a variety of sampling rates. This consistency is particularly desirable since switching between FIRs is only typically used during debugging, when it is sometimes necessary to view the baseband signal with greater bandwidth than is provided by normal readout (which typically occurs at FIR5 or FIR6.) The DMFD’s decimation stages are summarized in Table II. Each filter’s accumulator width is large enough to avoid overflow. Output is truncated to 17 bits.

The system’s baseband spectral response is shown after CIC1, CIC2, and FIR1 in Figures 5-6. The spectral response for filters FIR2 through FIR6, which are identical, is shown.
Fig. 4. Simplified schematic showing the Digital Multi-Frequency Demodulator (DMFD) signal path. One DMFD services 4 readout modules.

Fig. 5. Filter response curves. The black (topmost) curve shows the frequency response of the CIC1 filter. The grey (middle) curve shows the combined response of the CIC1 and CIC2 filters. Finally, the solid grey (bottommost) region shows the combined responses of CIC1, CIC2, and FIR1. The filters’ noise performance, is dominated by aliasing, which depends on the width of the many nulls in this plot and is not evident here. It, and the passband (which is too narrow to be visible in this figure) are examined in Fig. 6.

Fig. 6. Spectral response of the filter chain after CIC2 (dashed; top) and after FIR1 (solid; bottom). The passband, shown on the left, has a ripple on the order of $10^{-3}$ dB. The filter null shown near the center of the plot defines the alias-rejection performance of the chain, which exceeds 100 dB for the whole passband of FIR stages 4–6. The shaded regions show the passband width for each of the FIRs, any of which may be selected as demodulator outputs.

Fig. 7. Normalized frequency response for FIR stages 2 through 6. Each of these filters decimates by a factor of 2; the passband covers 80% of the full output bandwidth and exhibits ripple on the order of $10^{-3}$ dB.
in Fig. 7.

4) Buffering and MicroBlaze Interface: The user may instruct the DFMD to send data directly from any of the FIR stages to the output FIFO through a software-controlled multiplexer, such that the data rate and signal bandwidth can be varied. This makes the system immediately amenable to different detector bandwidths and to debugging and measuring detector properties. Each sample emerging from the selected FIR stage is truncated to a 24-bit 2’s-complement number and tagged with an 8-bit channel identifier. The resulting 32-bit data is timestamped and written into the data FIFO for retrieval by software.

We note that it is slightly redundant to store channel identifiers alongside channel data. We used this approach since the data FIFO will overflow and lose samples unless software is able to consume samples faster than they are produced. While this is not the case under ordinary operation, the FIFO does fill up during system boot or when data is not being streamed from the board; thus, software must be able to detect and recover from disordered data. This is easy to accomplish with channel identifiers, and the additional FIFO requirements are not onerous. (In future revisions, this problem may be avoided by delivering samples via either DMA or a so-called packet FIFO.)

In the next section, we describe a timestamping process occurring in tandem with the filtering described above. After decimation and timestamping, the aggregate data throughput is relatively low, and slight variations in signal delay are no longer problematic. Thus, we drain the FIFO under software control as described in Section IV-B.

5) Timekeeping: The DFMUX system is used in several experiments, each of which uses different timekeeping standards and hardware. To integrate seamlessly with these experiments, a timestamp multiplexer system accepts timestamps from different timestamp units, including IRIG-B [27] (derived from an external GPS receiver) and an EBEX-specific [28] timing system generated by a separate timekeeping board.

Along with the format-specific timestamp decoders, we maintain local “ticks” counters. These counters are clocked by the DFMUX’s oscillator and reset whenever a new timestamp is decoded. They are used to increase the resolution of timestamps available to the DFMUX within each interval between external timestamps. They also permit the system to assign its own timestamps when no external timestamps are provided to the board.

In both cases, decoded timestamps are less than 96 bits in size. These timestamps fit into four 32-bit entries in the data FIFO, after reserving space for 8-bit channel identifiers as described above for channel data. Each timestamp format is assigned four distinct channel identifiers.

Timestamps are added after multiplexing as follows: when the first channel is emitted from the selected readout stage, the DMFD captures a timestamp of user-specified format from the timestamp multiplexer. After the last data channel has been stored in the FIFO, this captured timestamp is broken into four 24-bit numbers, tagged with the selected format’s four assigned channel identifiers, and placed into the FIFO.

Since timestamps are captured and associated with data after the decimation process, the processing delays introduced by CICs and FIRs must be subtracted from the timestamps to refer data back to the instant it were sampled. This correction occurs in analysis software, since the timestamp format is opaque to the DFMUX itself.

IV. Firmware and Software

From a user’s perspective, the high-level control of the DFMUX is described in [16]. In this section, we describe how the system is designed to present a straightforward, flexible interface for real-time use and automated control algorithms.

A. Control

Control instructions and queries are encoded as HTTP requests and received via the board’s Ethernet interface. They are decoded by a MicroBlaze processor running the Linux kernel. Providing the HTTP interface are two webservers: a fully-featured, third-party webservice that serves a browser-accessible interface, and a fastpath used only for rapid interaction with hardware.

Although the HTTP interface allows all aspects of the DFMUX to be controlled, it is a low-level interface that does not provide a method of interacting with data from the signal path. To perform higher-level, possibly data-dependent interactions (such as tuning the board), we provide a port of the Python scripting environment, with a hardware-interface library that permits scripts to control device registers directly. A Python library, pyWTL, supplies higher-level interactions and allows board-level control to be performed in a consistent, network-transparent manner, regardless of whether it runs on a DFMUX or a PC.

Developing the higher-level code in an user-friendly environment like Python, and allowing this code to run on either the DFMUX or a PC, permits physicists as well as engineers to contribute to the development process.

B. Data Streaming

In Sections III and IV we described the signal path and its control. In the following section, we discuss how data is removed from the FIFO, packaged, and streamed across the network for storage.

Depending on which FIR stage has been selected, data from each channel is streamed into the FIFO at a rate between 12 kHz and 190 Hz, for an aggregate throughput of between 13 ksps and 880 ksps including timestamps. Data are removed from the FIFO in frames (sets containing one sample from each user-selected channel and a single timestamp), and wrapped into packets containing several frames. The number of frames per packet is chosen to maximize network throughput, i.e. to maximize the size of each packet without causing fragmentation at the network layer.

Once a packet is constructed, it is sent via unicast or multicast UDP to a network address controlled by the Python or web interfaces. Since UDP does not guarantee data transmission, network topology and hardware have been carefully tested to ensure minimal packet loss. (Although TCP would permit
retransmission of dropped packets, a TCP-based transport would not permit multicasting. It is also not clear, at expected data rates, that the MicroBlaze and network hardware have the capacity to recover without further packet losses.

Packets are received by a companion utility (the “parser”) and a Python interface. The parser streams data to disk for both real-time monitoring using KST [29] and off-line analysis. Using SWIG [30], the Python interface integrates seamlessly with the pyWTL module described above and is used for online tuning, control, and analysis tasks.

V. System Performance

A. DMFS Noise

There are three general classifications of noise in the DMFS: digital noise, DAC noise, and analog noise. In this section, we quantify each of these noise sources and determine the dominant source.

There are two sources of digital noise: that intrinsic to the DDS algorithm, and quantization noise from the system’s finite bit length. We model both of these noises as additive uniform white noise, independent from other noise sources. The noises thus add incoherently, and we may determine an overall noise figure for the digital portion of the DMFS. Digital noise is summarized in Table III. The overall RMS noise is approximately 1.16 LSBs at the DAC. This corresponds to a PSD of 2.5 nV/√Hz at the DAC.

The vendor documentation for the DAC suggests approximately 92 dB SFDR in our operating regime. If we model this as a white-noise floor, the corresponding RMS noise is 1.65 DAC LSBs, slightly dominating the digital noise. In terms of volts at the DAC, this corresponds to 3.6 nV/√Hz.

Noise in the DMFS’s analog circuitry is dominated by the first amplification stage. These amplifiers have an input-referred noise of 1.3 nV/√Hz.

Neglecting the source signal, noise in the analog signal chain is dominated by the first amplification stage. These amplifiers have an input-referred noise of 1.3 nV/√Hz.

The ADC exhibits a SNDR (signal to noise-plus-distortion ratio) of 73 dB, or 90 nV/√Hz at the ADC (734 × 10^-6 ADC LSBs/√Hz) at a sampling rate of 25 MSPS, assuming a full-scale sinusoidal input signal.

Noise in the digital chain is dominated by truncation stage, injecting noise of its own after mixing. As noted above, the mixer’s performance depends on the particular carrier frequency chosen, but its response to a Gaussian white noise input with RMS amplitude $\sigma$ ADC LSBs/√Hz is readily approximated as a white-noise output with RMS amplitude $0.6804\sigma$ ADC LSBs/√Hz. (The factor 0.6804 is the RMS of the mixer’s coefficients; an ideal sinusoidal mixer would amplify noise by a factor of $1/\sqrt{2}$) The distortion added by the mixer’s truncation stage may be modeled as additive uniform white noise of RMS amplitude 81.6 × 10^-6 post-mixer LSBs/√Hz following the mixer, or $3.3 \times 10^{-3}$ streamer LSBs/√Hz.

To determine the overall noise level in the DMFD, we refer each source of noise both back to the DMFD input (so it may be compared to physical signal levels) and to the DMFD’s streamed output (so it may be compared to measurements.) These noise levels are summarized in Table IV. Once again, the use of truncation instead of convergent rounding throughout the DMFD presents itself as a slight DC offset. For our applications, the detectors are capable only of measuring the difference signal between sky pointings, so no information is present at DC. Since any offset is discarded during analysis, we make no attempt to correct for additional bias introduced by truncation.

C. Power Consumption

Because its intended uses include balloon-based experiments such as EBEX, the DFMUX’s power consumption is a crucial performance measure. In EBEX, the DFMUX is powered using (heavy) batteries. In addition, any heat generated by the electronics must be removed from the gondola. This is a non-trivial challenge task at high altitudes where the atmosphere is thin.

The DFMUX’s power profile is shown in Table V. The first row shows consumption for the DFMUX’s digital circuitry only; the second includes two analog mezzanines, which include the DACs, analog signal path, and ADCs. Neglected in this power profile is the SQUID controllers, which are separate...
| Noise Source | Intrinsic DMFD Noise |
|--------------|----------------------|
|              | V/√Hz                | LSBs/√Hz |
| Low Gain (0.99) |                      |        |
| Analog       | 1.3 × 10^−5          | 2.9 × 10^−3 |
| ADC          | 9.0 × 10^−8          | 2.0 × 10^−3 |
| Digital      | 1.5 × 10^−8          | 3.3 × 10^−4 |
| Total        | 9.2 × 10^−8          | 2.0 × 10^−3 |
| Med. Low Gain (4.76) |                |        |
| Analog       | 1.3 × 10^−9          | 1.4 × 10^−4 |
| ADC          | 1.9 × 10^−8          | 2.0 × 10^−3 |
| Digital      | 3.1 × 10^−9          | 3.3 × 10^−4 |
| Total        | 1.9 × 10^−8          | 2.0 × 10^−3 |
| High Gain (33.3) |                 |        |
| Analog       | 1.5 × 10^−7          | 9.7 × 10^−4 |
| ADC          | 2.7 × 10^−9          | 2.0 × 10^−3 |
| Digital      | 4.4 × 10^−10         | 3.3 × 10^−4 |
| Total        | 3.0 × 10^−9          | 2.2 × 10^−3 |
| High Gain (100) |               |        |
| Analog       | 1.5 × 10^−9          | 2.9 × 10^−3 |
| ADC          | 9.0 × 10^−10         | 2.0 × 10^−3 |
| Digital      | 1.5 × 10^−10         | 3.3 × 10^−4 |
| Total        | 1.6 × 10^−9          | 3.5 × 10^−3 |

**TABLE V**

**DMFD NOISE SOURCES. PHYSICAL UNITS ARE EQUIVALENT VOLTAGES AT MEZZANINE INPUTS; NUMERICAL UNITS ARE EQUIVALENT LSBs IN THE 16-BIT VALUES STREAMED ACROSS THE NETWORK.**

| Scenario                  | Voltage       | Current | Power   |
|---------------------------|---------------|---------|---------|
| Motherboard Only          | ± 5.7 V       | 1.58 A  | 9.01 W  |
| With Mezzanines           | ± 5.7 V       | 2.63 A  | 15.0 W  |

**TABLE VI**

**POWER CONSUMPTION FOR THE DMUX.**

For the on- and off-board peripherals and interfaces (voltage and temperature monitors, serial ports, etc.) supported by the DMUX.

**VI. DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK**

We have described the signal path, control logic, and firmware of a highly-integrated FDM system for TES bolometers. This system is physically much smaller and less power-hungry than the mixed-signal system it replaces.

Because the bulk of the DMUX’s signal processing is performed on a FPGA which may be easily reconfigured, the system has also found use in unexpected ways. With only trivial hardware modifications, a DMUX was used to measure the surface accuracy of the South Pole Telescope’s secondary mirror [31]. A similarly modified DMUX is used to test the angular position of a rotating optical element (half-wave plate) in the EBEX telescope.

We are currently focusing on three improvements to the DMUX. The first is an attempt to reduce its power requirements (per bolometer channel) by improving the design of its signal path. The second goal is to increase the number of bolometers multiplexed via each FDM module. We anticipate doubling or quadrupling the total number of bolometers per DMUX by simply scaling the current design. Even greater channel densities may be achieved using polyphase filter banks [32] or similar techniques. Finally, we are investigating alternative biasing and feedback strategies that permit greater increases in channel density.

**VII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This work was supported by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC), the Canadian Institute for Advance Research and the Canada Research Chairs program. We also gratefully acknowledge hardware and software contributions from the Xilinx University Program. MD acknowledges Sloan Fellowship funding.

**REFERENCES**

[1] B. Cabrera, R. Clarke, A. Miller, S. W. Nam, R. Romani, T. Saab, and B. Young, “Cryogenic detectors based on superconducting transition-edge sensors for time-energy-resolved single-photon counters and for dark matter searches,” *Physica B Condensed Matter*, vol. 280, pp. 509–514, May 2000.

[2] D. Schwan *et. al.* (The APEX-SZ Collaboration), “The APEX-SZ Instrument,” *Review of Scientific Instruments*, 2010.
Virtex-4 FPGA User Guide