

TBS-TR01

고속신호 전송과 문제해결을 위한

**Signal Integrity 원리와 측정,
분석 교육****Fundamental of Signal Integrity and
High Speed Signal Test**

2015년 3월 25일, 서울

Organizer: **NUBiCOM**Sponsor: **DSFSystem**이승재
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- Introduction of the high speed signal world.
- Characteristic Impedance and Transmission line
- Reflection and termination topology
- Loss, S-parameter and Loss compensation
- TDR measurement
- Differential signal, Differential Impedance, Common mode signal
- Crosstalk
- EYE diagram and Jitter analysis
- Measurement setup(Test Points)

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Recent High Speed Signal Standards Trend

Standards	Version	Data rate *	Year	Application
USB	3.1	10Gbps	2014	PC Peripherals
	3.0	5Gbps	2008	PC Peripherals
PCI Express	4.0	16GT/s	2014	Chip to Chip,
	3.0	8GT/s	2010	Chip to Chip, Card
DDR	4	~3200MT/s	2014	Chip to Chip, DIMM
	3	~2133MT/s	2007	Chip to Chip, DIMM
SATA	3.2	16Gbps	2013	Storage
	3.0	6Gbps	2009	Storage
HDMI	2.0	6Gbps	2013	Multimedia(Display)
	1.4	3.4Gbps	2009	Multimedia(Display)
MIPI	M-PHY	5.8Gbps	2011	Mobile, Chip to Chip
	D-PHY	1.5Gbps	2009	Mobile, Chip to Chip
Ethernet	IEEE802.3bq	40Gbps	2013 TF	Backplane, Server
	IEEE802.3bq	25Gbps (40Gb/s & 100Gb/s on 4lane)	2011 TF for copper	Backplane, Server

* Transfer rate only
* Max .Data rate on a Single channel



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What is "High Speed"?

Here, We have basic Questions;

Q: Why do we care about the High Speed/Frequency Signal?

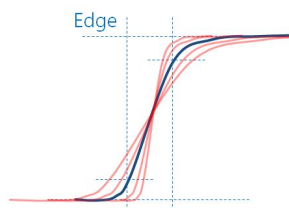
Q: How fast Data rate or Clock Frequency is the "High Speed Signal"?
100MHz Clock? 1Gbps Data?

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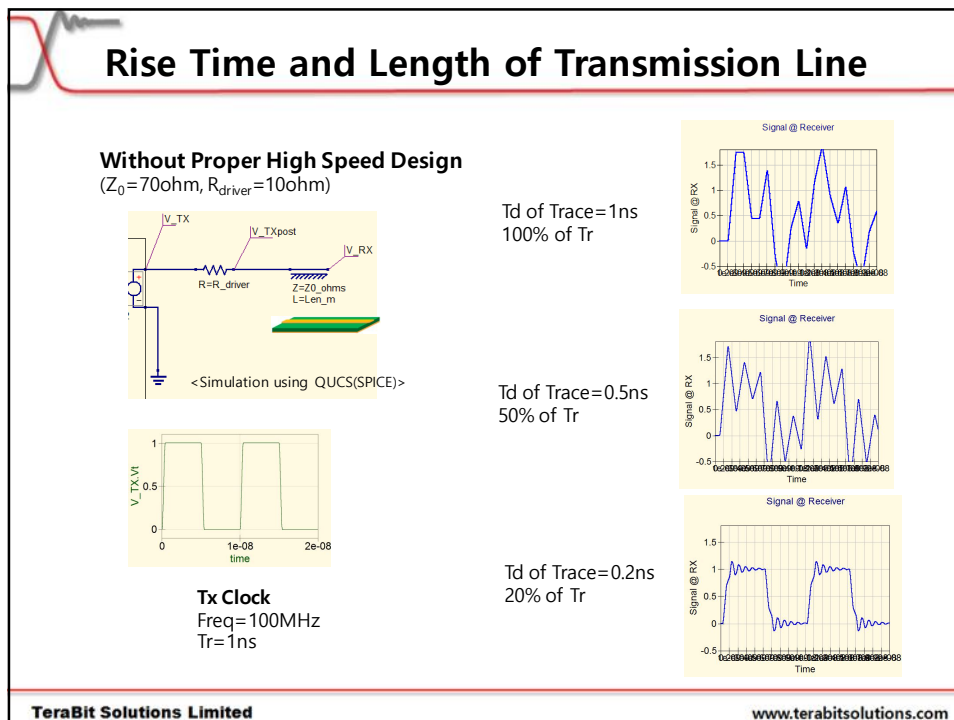
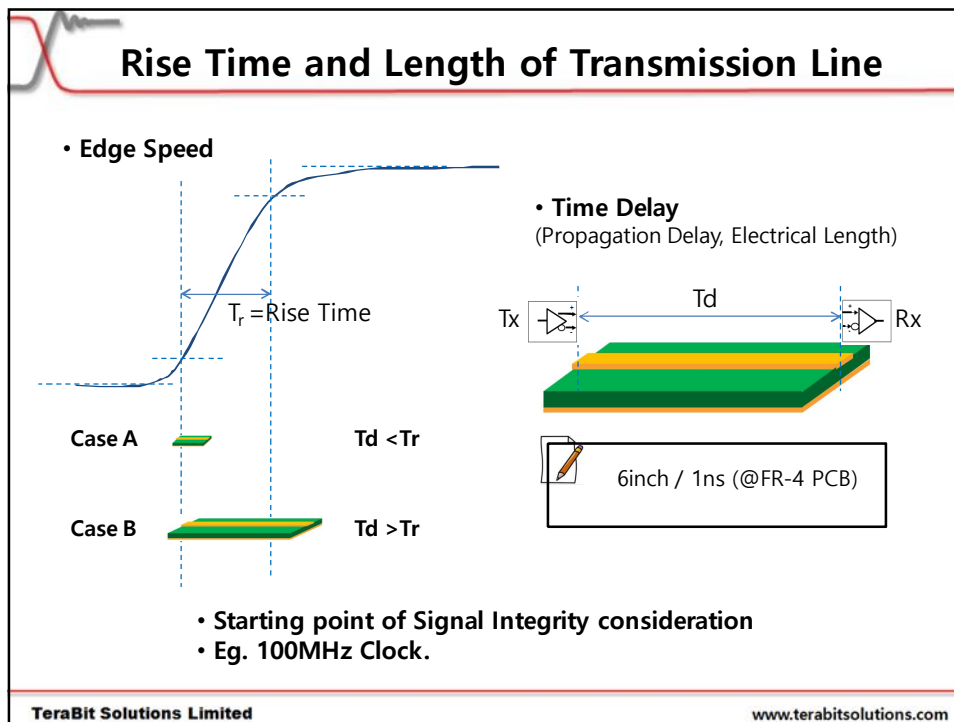
Basic Terms... on Digital Signal

- Period / Frequency
- Fundamental (harmonic) Frequency
- BPS (Bit per Second); Mbps, Gb/s
- T/s (Transfer per Second); MT/s, GT/s
- UI (Unit Interval)
- Duty cycle
- Rise Time



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Rise Time and Length of Transmission Line

6inch / 1ns (@FR-4 PCB)

- 100MHz Clock with **Tr= 1ns**
20% of Tr=Td 0.2ns → Trace > **1.2inch** Length @FR-4 PCB is Critical
- Tr≈50ps**(0.05ns) ; Commonly used in Today's HS silicons
20% of Tr=Td 10ps → Trace > **0.06inch** Length @FR-4 PCB is Critical

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SLLSE41B –JUNE 2010–REVISED FEBRUARY 2012

Two-Channel SATA 6-Gb/s Redriver

Check for Samples: [SN75LVCP601](#)

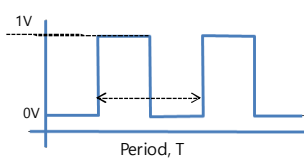
PARAMETER	TEST CONDITIONS	MIN	TYP	MAX	UNIT
t _{20-80TX}	Rise/fall time				
	Rise times and fall times measured between 20% and 80% of the signal. At 6Gbps under no load conditions	42	55	75	ps

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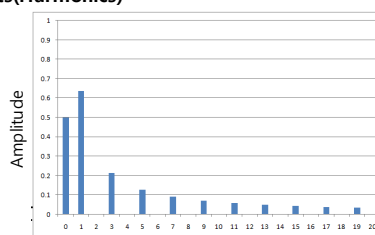
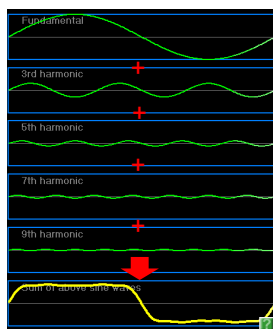
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Bandwidth of Digital signals

Ideal square wave and Frequency components(Harmonics)



$$\text{Frequency} = 1 / T$$



Ideal square wave:

Rise time is "0".
Rise and fall edges are symmetry.
Duty cycle is 50%.
No ringing, no distortion

$$A_n = \frac{2}{\pi \times n}$$

A_n: Amplitude of the nth harmonic
π: the constant, 3.14159...
n: the harmonic numbers, only odd mode

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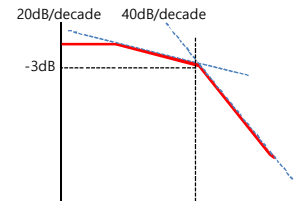
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Bandwidth of Digital signals

Rough estimation

1GHz Square wave

5th Harmonic = 5GHz → Bandwidth of this signal



Knee Frequency, BW

Bandwidth calculated by rise time, more accurate

$$BW = \frac{0.35}{T_r}$$

BW: Bandwidth, in GHz
 Tr: rise time 10~90% of edge, in ns
 0.35: constant, 0.22 for Tr 20~80%

If Tr ~ 7% of T=1ns (1GHz)
 Tr= 0.07ns(70ps) → $BW = \frac{0.35}{0.07}$
 = 5GHz

- ✓ 5th Harmonic estimation method is very accurate when Tr ~ 7% of Period.
- ✓ Constant 0.4 for Tr10~90%, 0.5 for Tr20~80% are used in some test company.

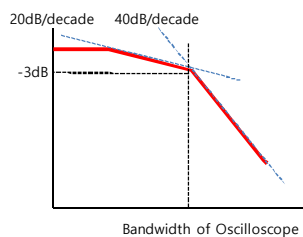
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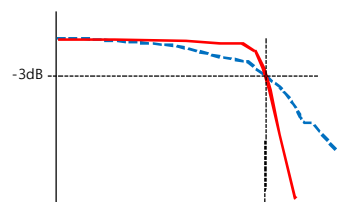
Measurement Bandwidth

Vector Network Analyzer: Specified Instrument BW has 0dB loss.

Oscilloscope and Probes: Bandwidth is specified at -3dB



Bandwidth of Oscilloscope



Bandwidth of Oscilloscope, analog and digital filtered response
 Dot plot: analog Gaussian response

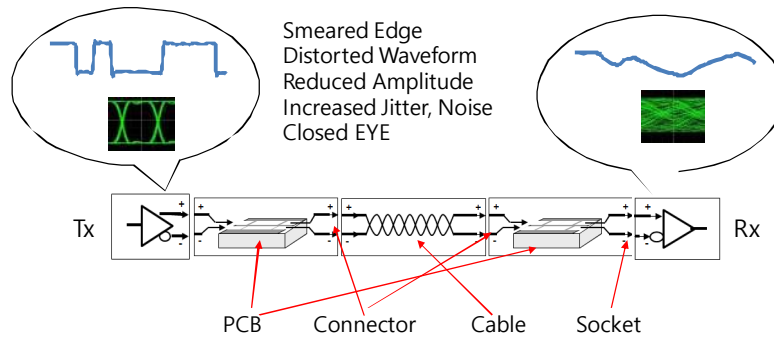
- ✓ Method 1: Put the signal bandwidth below -3dB Bandwidth of the Oscilloscope
- ✓ Method 2: With Rise time,

$$Tr_{\text{measured}} = \sqrt{Tr_{\text{signal}}^2 + Tr_{\text{system}}^2}$$

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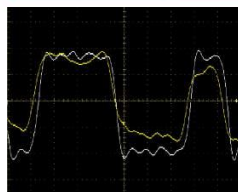
Common Issues of Channel/Interconnects



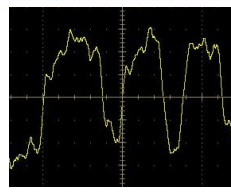
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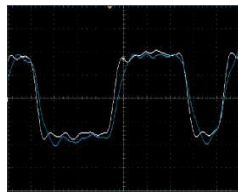
Common Problems of Analog Deviation



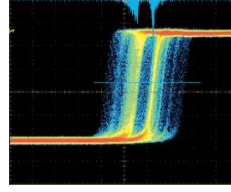
Amplitude Problems
Loss



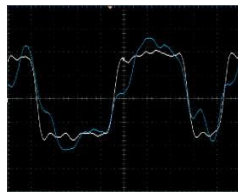
Crosstalk



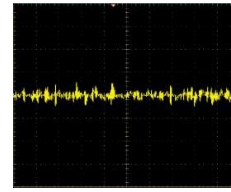
Edge Aberrations



Jitter



Reflections



Ground Bounce

Vcc Noise, Droop

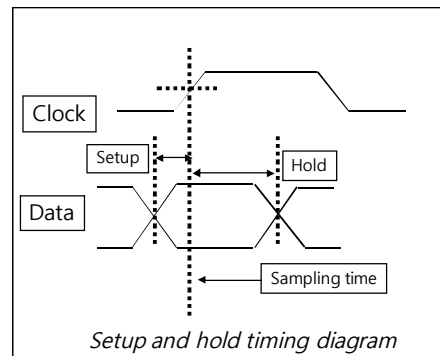
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Problems Created by Digital Timing Issues

All Analog Deviation of Clock and Data affect Digital Timing issues

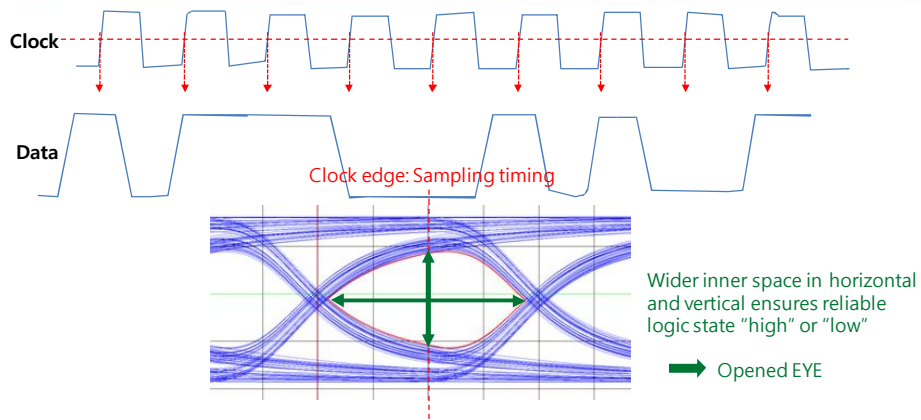
- Bus contention
- Setup and hold violations
- Metastability
- Undefined conditions



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Brief look at the EYE Diagram



EYE diagram(Pattern) is the Integrated view of signal qualities

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------|
| ✓Jitter | ✓Setup time |
| ✓Noise | ✓Hold time |
| ✓Unit Interval(UI) | ✓Rise time |
| ✓Distortion | ✓Fall time |

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What is Signal Integrity?

Good Signal Integrity of Digital Signal Means:

- Clean, fast transitions
- Stable, valid logic levels
- Accurate placement in time
- Free of transients



Examples of Signal Integrity Terms

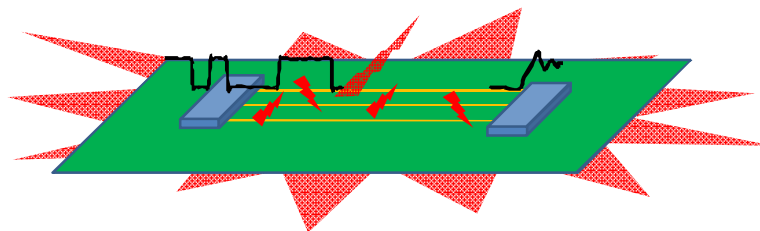
Characteristic Impedance	Rise Time Degradation	Loss	Emission
Cross Talk	Jitter		
Topology	Eye Diagram		Return Current Path
Stub	Reflections	Power Delivery	
Inductance	Ground Bounce	Mode Conversion	Capacitance
Common Mode			
Transmission Line	Ringing	Skin Depth	
Termination		Coupling	
Distortion	TDR	S-Parameter	Dielectric Constant
Differential		Inductance	
	Impedance Discontinuity		

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4 Categories of Signal Integrity

1. Signal Quality of one net
2. Crosstalk between multiple nets, ground and power plane
3. Voltage Noise in power distribution network (→Power Integrity)
4. Electromagnetic Interference (→EMI)



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Transmission Line & Characteristic Impedance

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Transmission Line




PCB

Coaxial Cable



Twisted Pair Cable


 Cable jacket
 A leg insulator
 B leg insulator
 Conductors



Microstrip Line

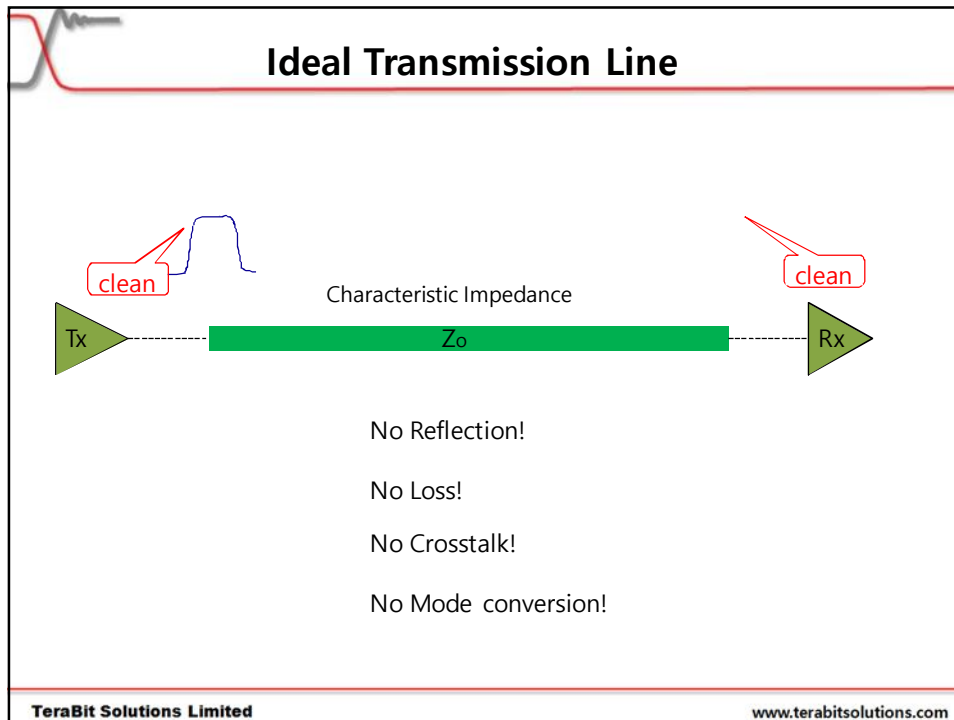


Strip Line

Coupled
Microstrip

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What is the Impedance?

Impedance

Impedance is represented as a **complex** quantity Z and the term *complex impedance* may be used interchangeably; the **polar form** conveniently captures both magnitude and phase characteristics,

$$Z = |Z|e^{j\arg(Z)}$$

where the magnitude $|Z|$ represents the ratio of the **voltage difference amplitude** to the **current amplitude**, while the argument $\arg(Z)$ (commonly given the symbol θ) gives the phase difference between voltage and current. j is the **imaginary unit**, and is used instead of i in this context to avoid confusion with the symbol for **electric current**. In **Cartesian form**,

$$Z = R + jX$$

where the **real part** of impedance is the **resistance** R and the **imaginary part** is the **reactance** X .

Where it is required to add or subtract impedances the cartesian form is more convenient. A circuit calculation, such as finding the total impedance of two impedances in series, is more easily done in cartesian form. Conversion between the forms follows the normal **conversion rules of complex numbers**.

The impedance of an ideal **resistor** is purely real and is referred to as a **resistive impedance**:

$$Z_R = R.$$

In this case, the voltage and current waveforms are proportional and in phase.

Ideal **inductors** and **capacitors** have a purely **imaginary reactive impedance**:

$$Z_L = j\omega L,$$

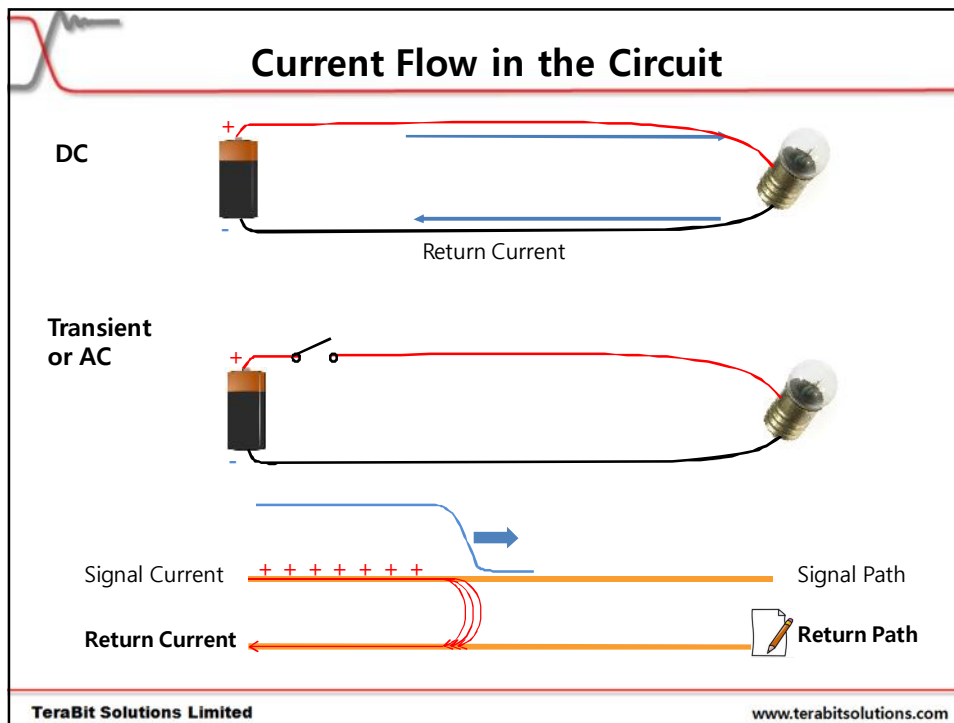
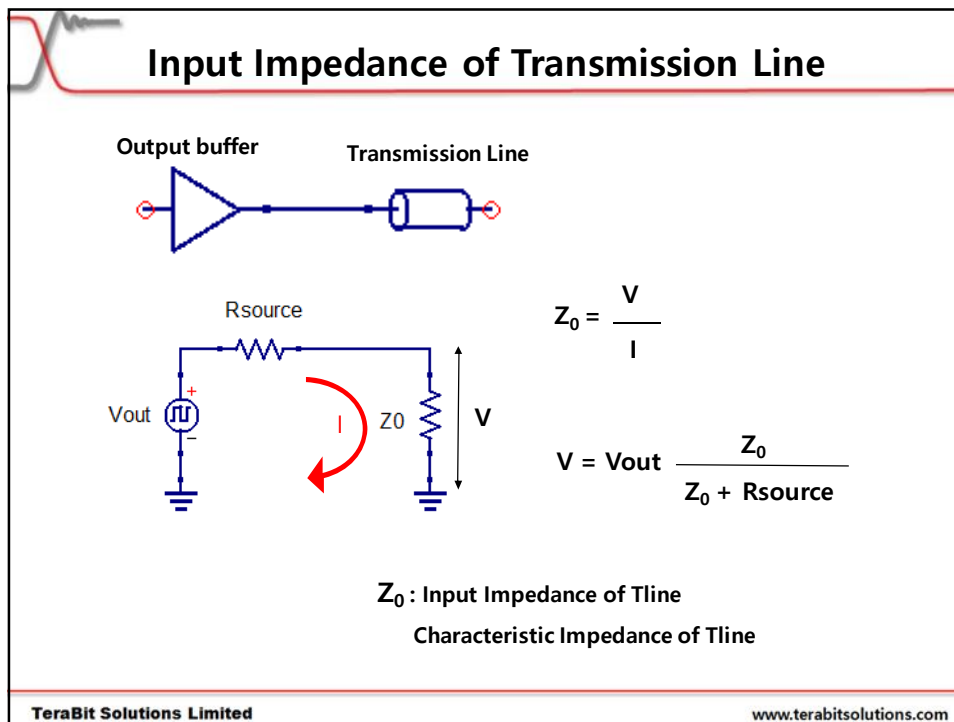
the impedance of inductors increases as frequency increases:

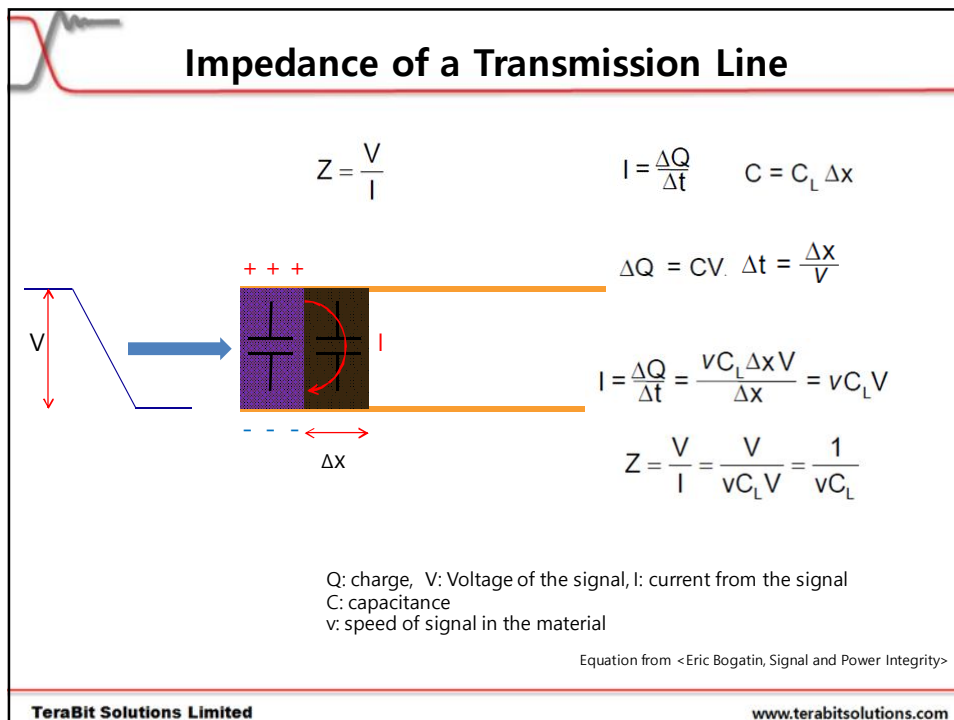
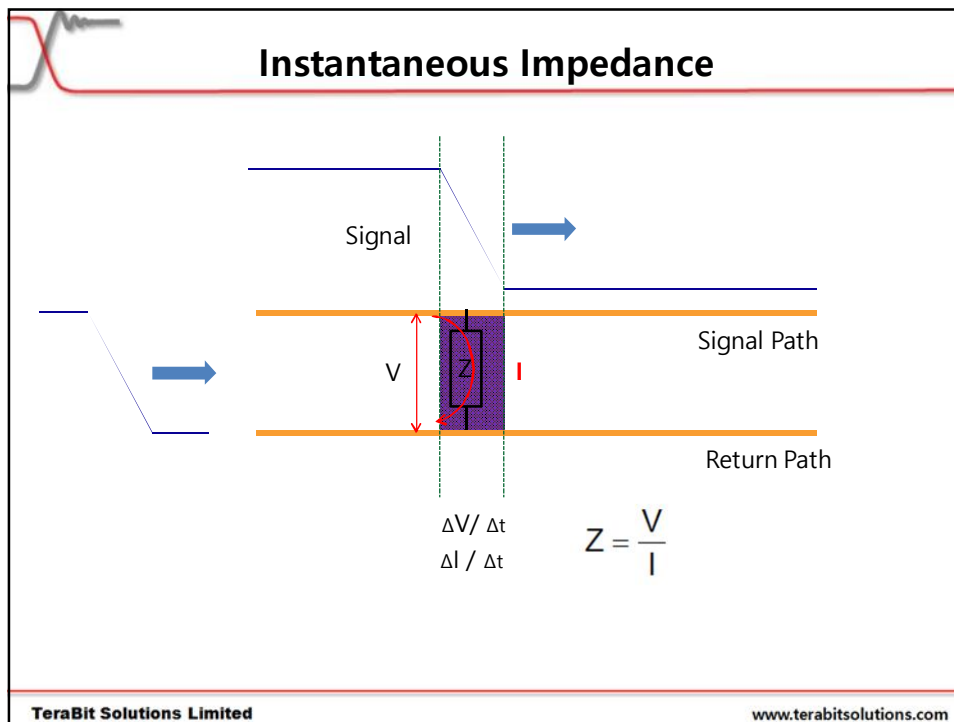
$$Z_C = \frac{1}{j\omega C},$$

the impedance of capacitors decreases as frequency increases.

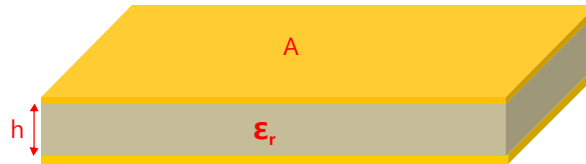
<source: Wikipedia>

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Capacitance



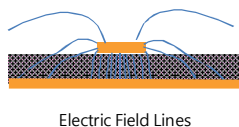
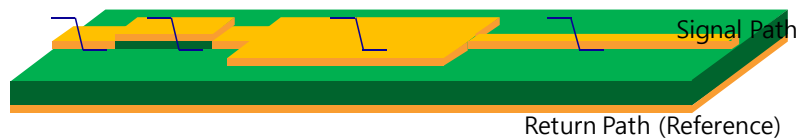
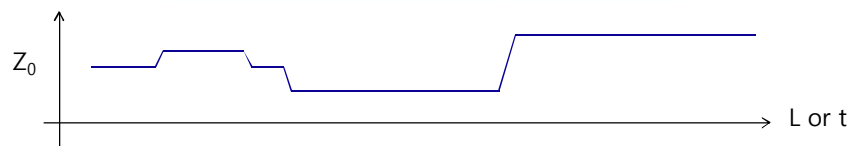
$$C = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \frac{A}{h}$$

C: capacitance of the plane, in pF
 ϵ_0 : permittivity of free space, 0.089pF/cm or 0.225pF/inch
 ϵ_r : relative dielectric constant, typically ~ 4 in FR4
 A: area of the plane, in inches
 h: distance between the planes, in inches

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Change of Instantaneous Impedance

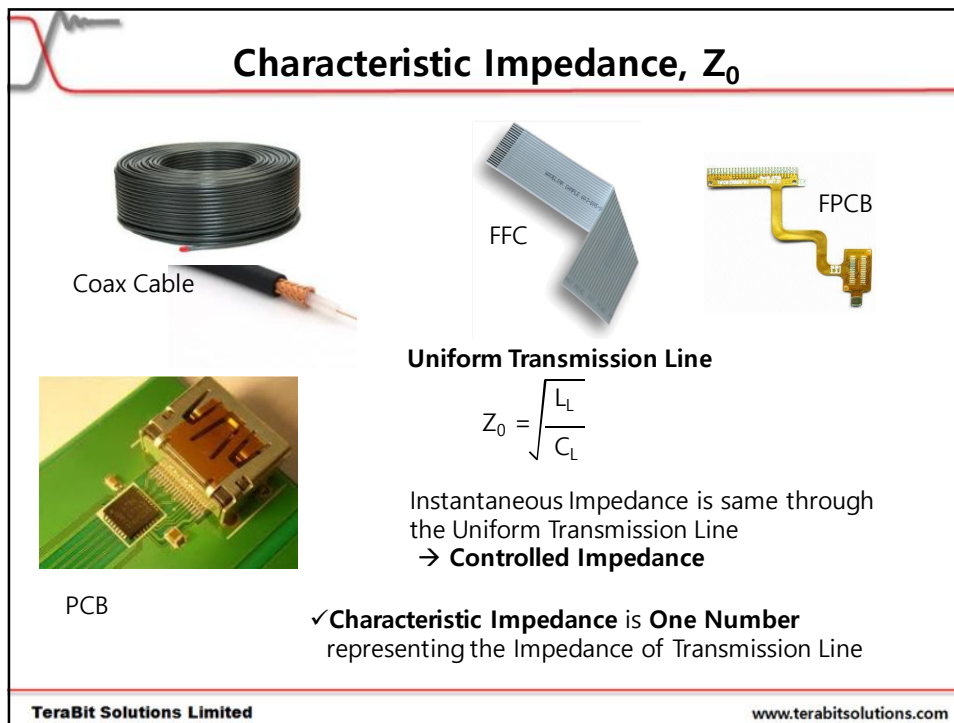
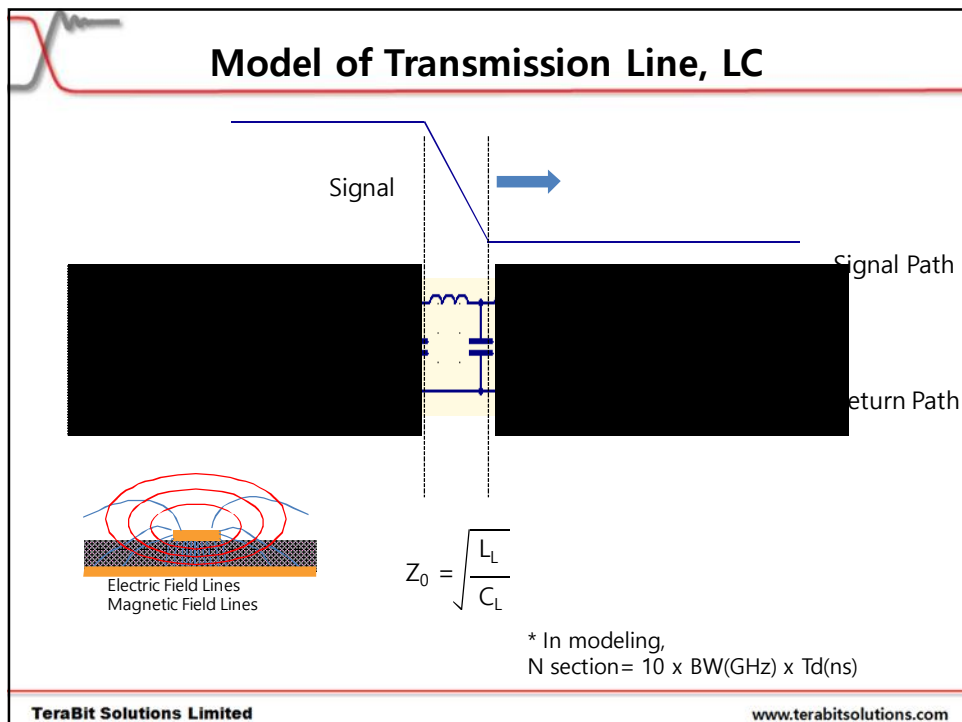


$$Z_0 = \frac{1}{v C_L} = \frac{83}{C_L} \sqrt{\epsilon_r}$$

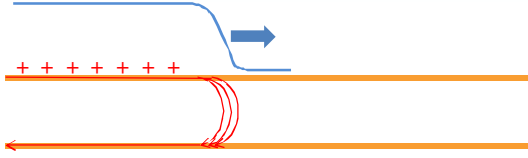
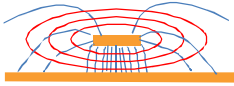
v: the speed of light in the material
 ϵ_r : dielectric constant of the material

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Speed of Signal

Electric Field Lines
Magnetic Field Lines in Microstrip

$$v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \mu_0 \mu_r}}$$

v = speed of signal
 ϵ_0 = permittivity of free space = 8.89×10^{-12} F/m
 ϵ_r = relative dielectric constant of the material
 μ_0 = permeability of free space = $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ H/m
 μ_r = relative permeability of the material

✓ In air,

$$v = \frac{2.99 \times 10^8 \text{ m}}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r \mu_r} \text{ secs}} = \frac{11.9 \text{ inches}}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r \mu_r} \text{ nsecs}}$$

✓ In FR4, μ_r is 1, ϵ_r is 4

$$v = \frac{11.9}{\sqrt{4}} \frac{\text{inches}}{\text{nsecs}}$$

approximation

6inch / 1ns (@FR-4 PCB)

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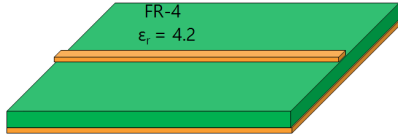
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Propagation Velocity, Time Delay

$$v = \frac{C}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}}$$

$$PD = \frac{1}{v} = \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}}{C}$$

$$TD = \frac{x \sqrt{\epsilon_r}}{C}$$



- v = propagation velocity, in meters/sec
- C = speed of light in a vacuum (3×10^8 m/s)
- ϵ_r = dielectric constant
- PD = propagation delay, in seconds per meter
- TD = time delay for a signal to propagate down a transmission line of length x
- x = length of transmission line, in meters

$$TD = \sqrt{L C}$$

L = total series inductance for the length of the line
 C = total shunt capacitance for the length of the line

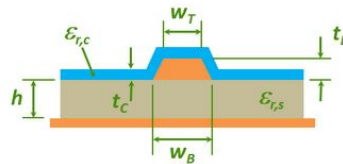
✓ Higher Dielectric constant, Inductance, Capacitance make signal slower in Tline.

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Transmission Line Impedance Calculator

Coated Microstrip



Top width (w_T): μm
 Bottom width (w_B): μm
 Substrate height (h): μm
 Thickness (t): μm
 Coating thickness (t_C): μm
 Dielectric constant ($\epsilon_{r,1}$):
 Dielectric constant ($\epsilon_{r,2}$):

1.6 T		0.5 Oz
		0.2 X 1
		0.4 T
		0.2 X 2
		0.4 T
		0.2 X 1
		0.5 Oz

Results

Z0	49.8 Ohm
ErEff	3.3
Cs	121.7 pF/m
Ls	301.9 nH/m
Velocity	164898416 m/s
PropDelay	6.064 ns/m

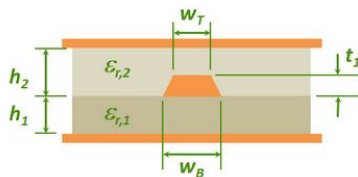
<Calculated by STLC (Seqid Transmission-Line Online-Calculator)>

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Transmission Line Impedance Calculator

Stripline



Top width (w_T): μm
 Bottom width (w_B): μm
 Substrate height (h_1): μm
 Substrate height (h_2): μm
 Thickness (t): μm
 Dielectric constant ($\epsilon_{r,1}$):
 Dielectric constant ($\epsilon_{r,2}$):

1.6 T		0.5 Oz
		0.2 X 1
		0.4 T
		0.2 X 2
		0.4 T
		0.2 X 1
		0.5 Oz

Results

Z0	50.1 Ohm
ErEff	4.3
Cs	137.9 pF/m
Ls	346.5 nH/m
Velocity	144572720 m/s
PropDelay	6.917 ns/m

<Calculated by STLC (Seqid Transmission-Line Online-Calculator)>

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Dielectric Constant

ϵ_r : Dielectric Constant

Relative Permittivity, Dk

the property of the insulating material between the conductors.
increase the capacitance of conductors.

$$\epsilon_r = \frac{C}{C_0}$$

Insulation Material

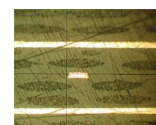
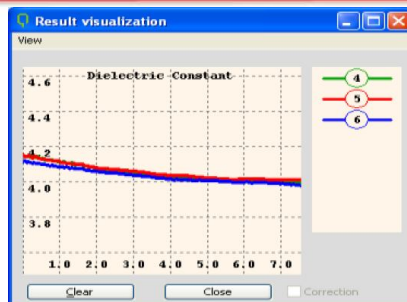
ϵ_r = relative dielectric constant of the material
C = capacitance when conductors are in the material
C0 = capacitance when conductors are in the air

Material	ϵ_r
Air	1
Teflon	2.1
PTFE	2.8
FR4	4-4.7
Nelco	3.36
Rogers	3.5
Water	8

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Dielectric Constant of FR4 over Frequency



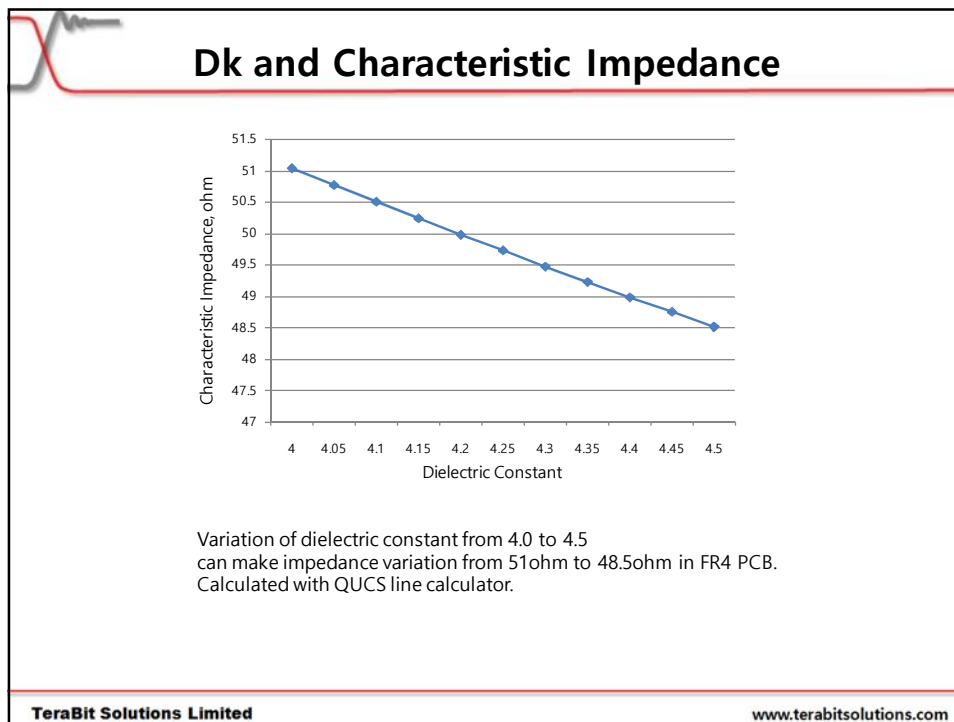
<Microsection of Stripline>

<Example of Measured Dielectric constant vs Frequency
From 10MHz to >5GHz, source: Sequid GmbH>

- ✓The dielectric constant of FR4 is sometimes vary with frequency, especially below 10MHz.
- ✓In higher frequency it will be more constant.
- ✓Real value of Dielectric Constant of FR4 varies depending on the relative amount of epoxy resin and glass weave.
- ✓The variation of dielectric constant of FR4 during production may be bigger than frequency variation.

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Choice of Characteristic Impedance?

Attenuation in Coax cable \approx Series Resistance of inner, outer conductors / Z_0

✓30, 60, 77ohm were determined at Bell Lab. In 1929 for high power, high voltage, low attenuation.

RG59: 75ohm Coax Cable → CATV. Low-attenuation is important. Easy to make 4:1 balun transformer to be used with 300ohm antenna.

TV antenna: 300ohm → Close to the Impedance of free space, 377ohm. Optimized for radiating energy.

RG62: 93ohm Coax Cable → Computer network in 1970 and early 1980s. Low Capacitance per unit-length is important for Square wave

✓50ohm is a compromise between power handling and attenuation. Commonly used in many of transmission lines.

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Value of Z_0 and Trade-offs in Digital System

	Lower Z_0	Higher Z_0
Board Costs	😞	😞
Delay Adder	😞	😞
Cross Talk	😞	😞
Attenuation	😞	😞
Connector Costs	😞	😞
Twisted pair/cable costs	😞	😞
Driver Design	😞	😞
Power dissipation	😞	😞

✓ 50ohm is good starting points among trade-offs.

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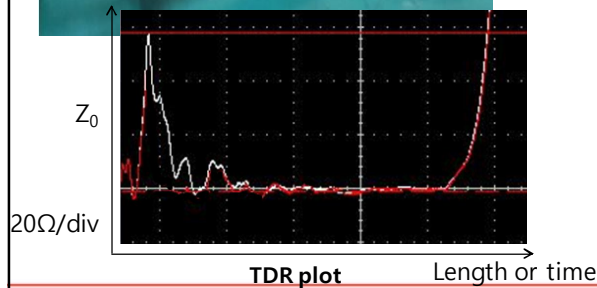
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Inductive High Impedance



Inductive Discontinuities

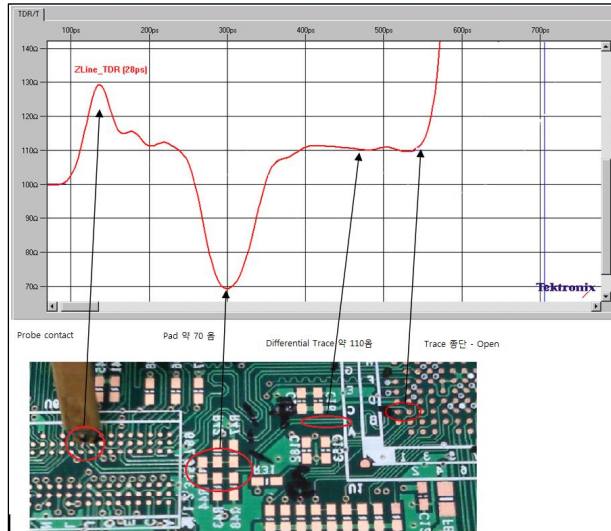
- Connectors
- Joint of cable assembly
- Slit of Ground(Return) plane
- Differential Trace near Pads
- Vias
- etc.



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Capacitive Low Impedance



Capacitive Discontinuities

- Decoupling capacitor Pads
- Termination resistor Pads
- Filter Pads
- Connector and Pads
- Stubs
- Vias
- etc.

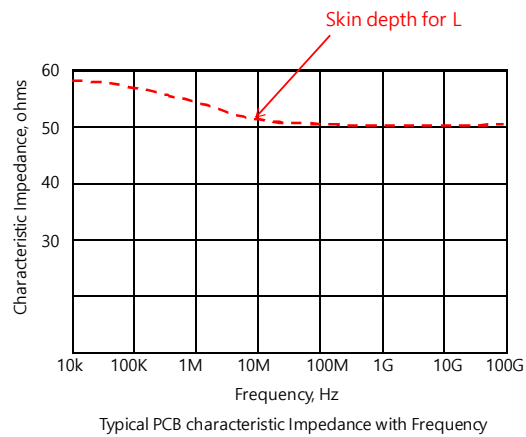
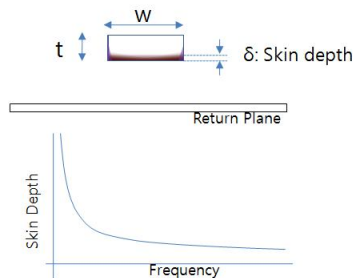
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Characteristic Impedance vs Frequency


- ✓ lossless TL (when Dielectric constant is constant)

$$Z_0 = \sqrt{\frac{L_L}{C_L}}$$




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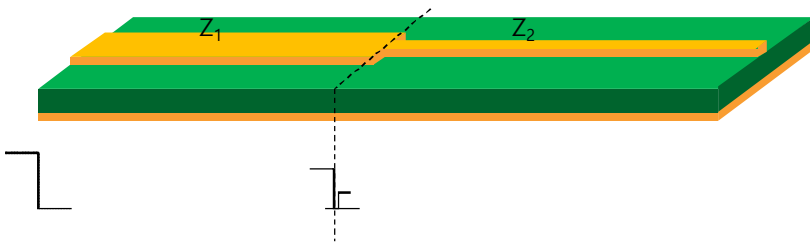


Reflection Termination topology Discontinuity

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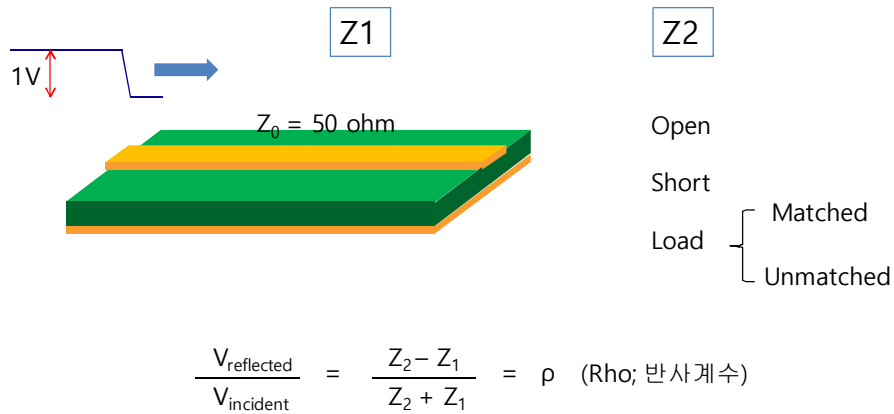
Reflections at Impedance changes



$$\frac{V_{\text{reflected}}}{V_{\text{incident}}} = \frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1} = \rho \quad (\text{Rho; 반사계수})$$

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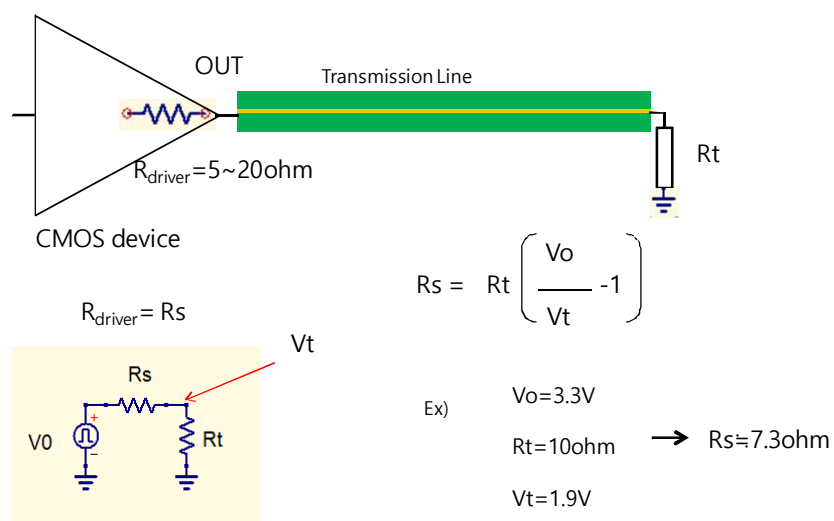
Reflections at the End of the Line - Termination



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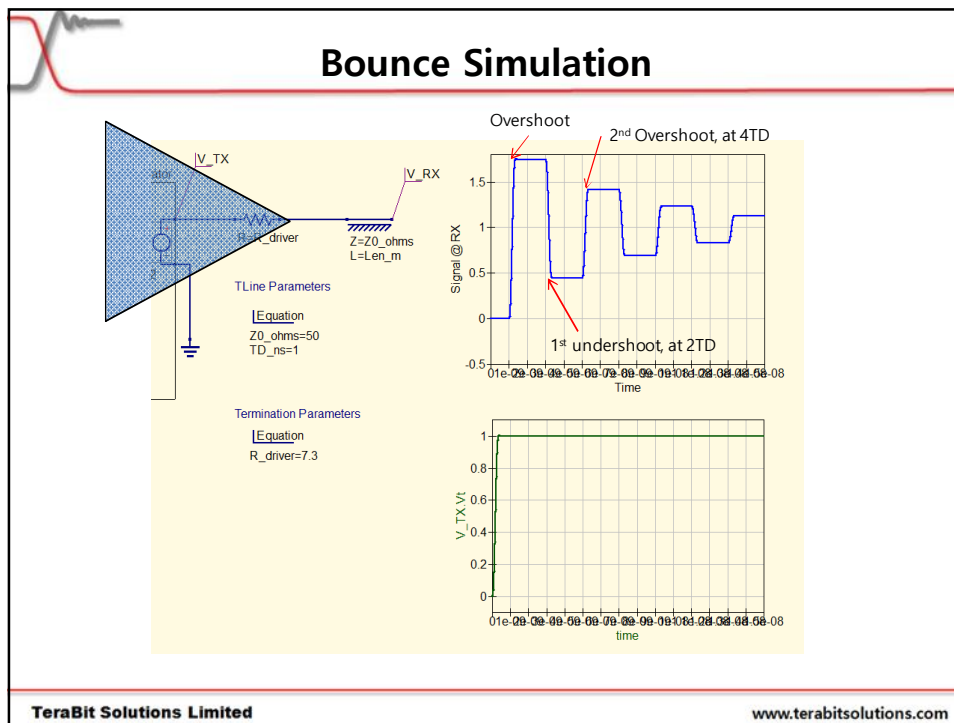
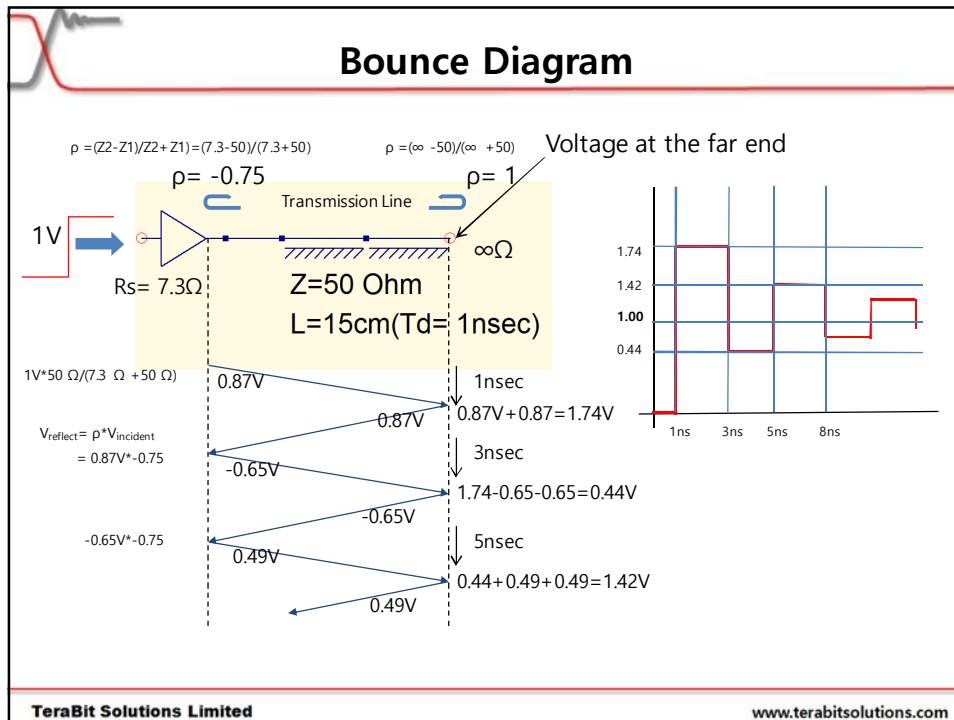
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Source Impedance of Device Output

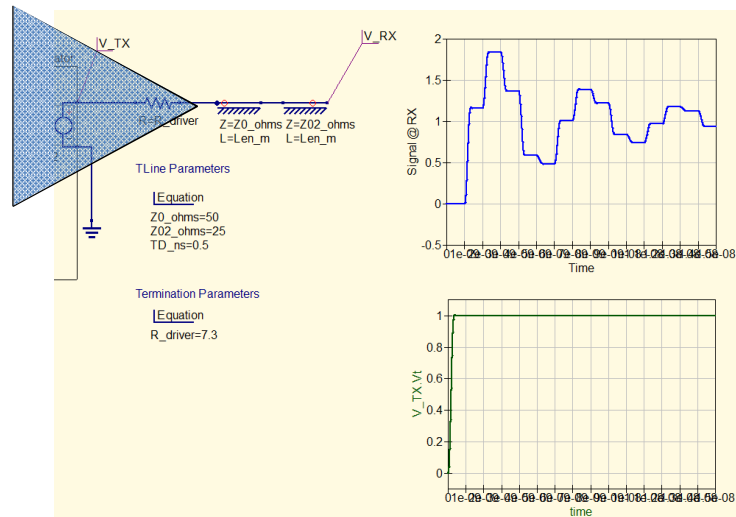


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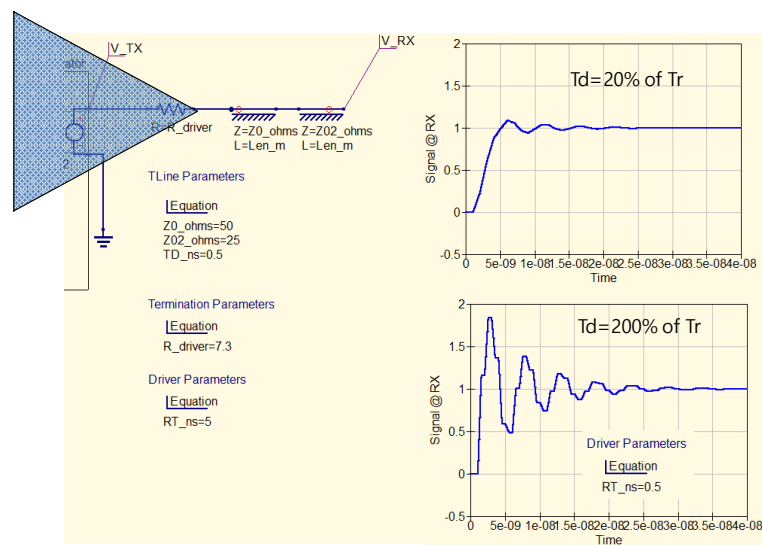
Bounce Simulation_Multi Reflection



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Reflection of T.line and Rise Tme



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Termination

Match Impedance to eliminate Reflection at Source or(and) Far-end.



Source Series Termination

Far-end Parallel Termination

Far-end RC Termination

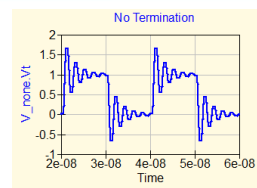
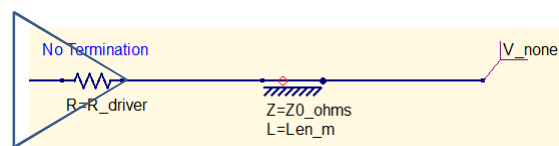
Far-end Thevenin Termination

Vtt Termination

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Source Series Termination

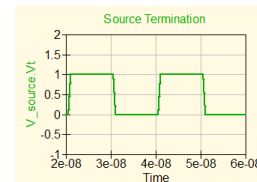
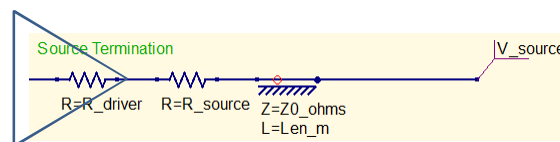


Driver

Driver Impedance=10ohm
Tr=0.5ns
V=1V

Transmission Line

$Z_0=50ohm$
Td=0.5ns



Source Series Termination Resistor

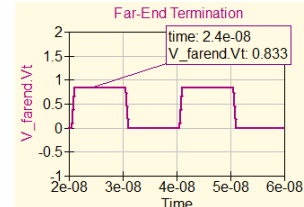
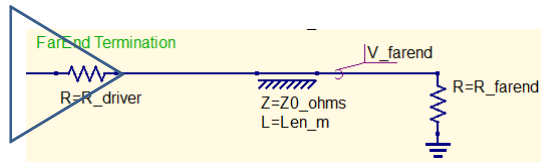
$R_{driver} + R_{source} = Z_0 = 50ohm$

- ✓Low current consuming
- ✓Only for point to point topology

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Far-end Parallel Termination



Driver
Driver Impedance=10ohm
 $T_r=0.5\text{ns}$
 $V=1\text{V}$

Transmission Line
 $Z_0=50\text{ohm}$
 $T_d=0.5\text{ns}$

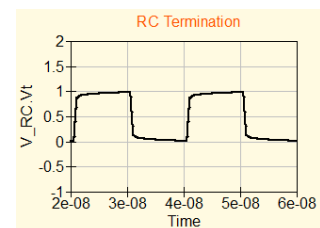
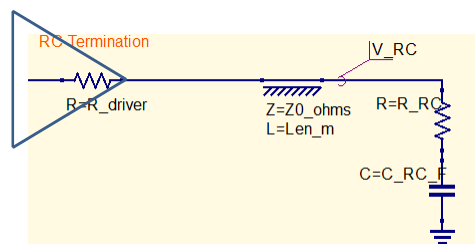
Far-end Termination Resistor
 $R_{\text{farend}}=Z_0=50\text{ohm}$

- ✓Eliminate the unknown variable of buffer Impedance
- ✓Large DC current consuming during state "1" at the load
- ✓Voltage is divided by R_{driver} and R_{farend}

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Far-end RC Termination



Driver
Driver Impedance=10ohm
 $T_r=0.5\text{ns}$
 $V=1\text{V}$

Transmission Line
 $Z_0=50\text{ohm}$
 $T_d=0.5\text{ns}$

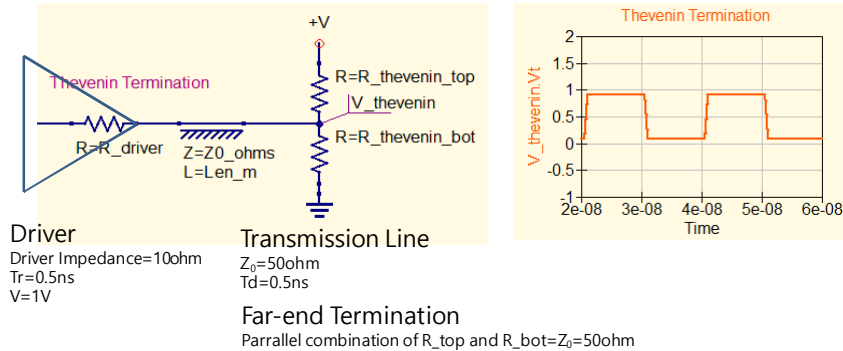
Far-end Termination
 $R_{\text{RC}}=Z_0=50\text{ohm}$
 $C_{\text{RC}} \rightarrow$ chose such that RC time constant is appx equal to one or two rise time.
 $2.2RC \sim T_{\text{rise}}$
Simulation is needed to chose exact C value

- ✓As charging the capacitance, the DC power dissipation will be reduced.
- ✓Capacitive Loading will increase the signal delay by slowing down the rise time
- ✓Board space and cost

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Far-end Thevenin Termination

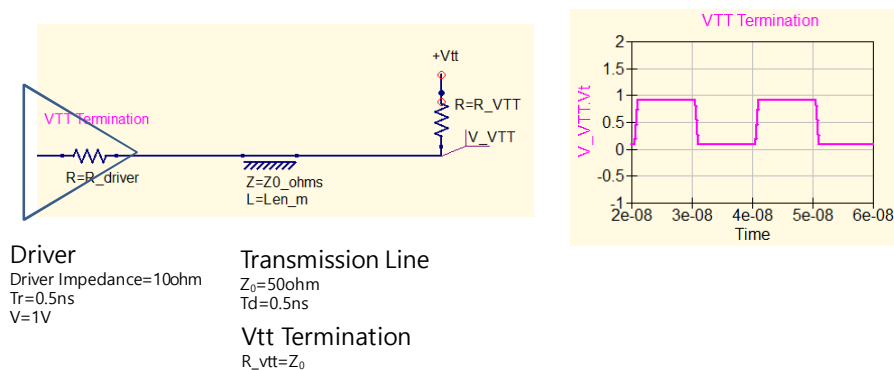


- ✓ Pull-up and Pull-down R help stable logic state thereby improve the noise margin
- ✓ Smooth power dissipation variation helps signal integrity
- ✓ Constant flow of DC current from V_+ to Gnd, high power dissipation
- ✓ Board space and cost

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Vtt Termination



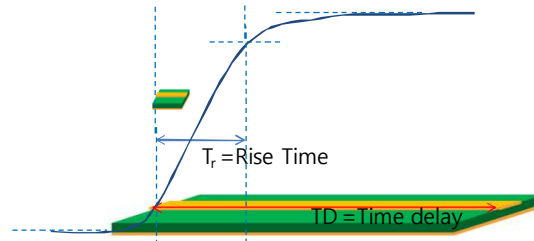
- ✓ Behave like as pull-up makes stable logic state
- ✓ Improving signal integrity because of constant load current
- ✓ Less power dissipation over the Thevenin termination

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When should we terminate the line?

✓ Time delay vs Rise Time

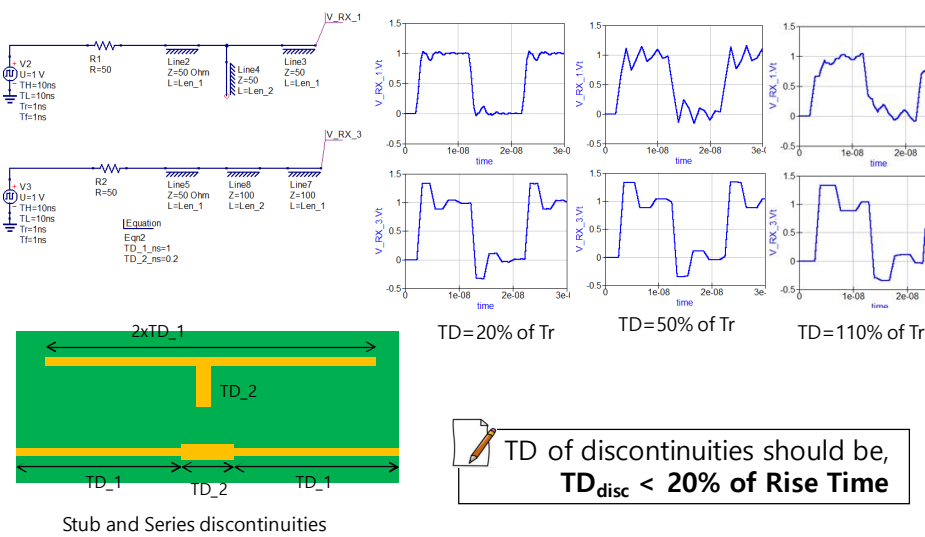


Termination is required for
 $TD > 20\% \text{ of Rise Time}$

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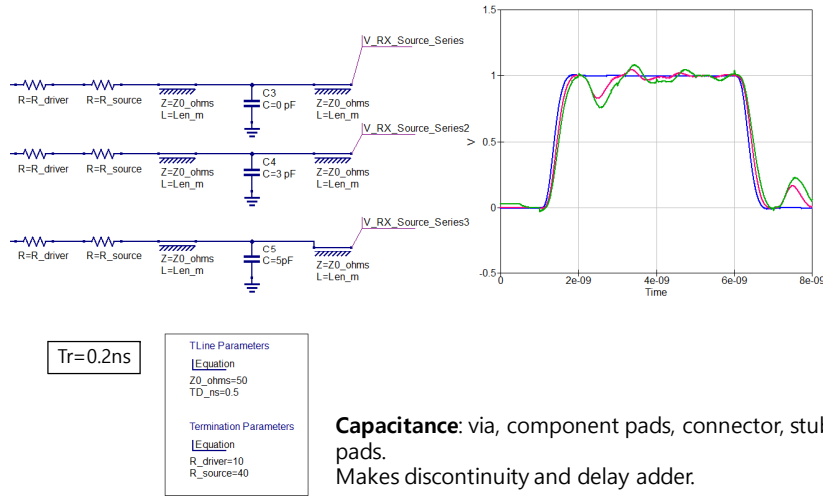
Length of Impedance Discontinuity



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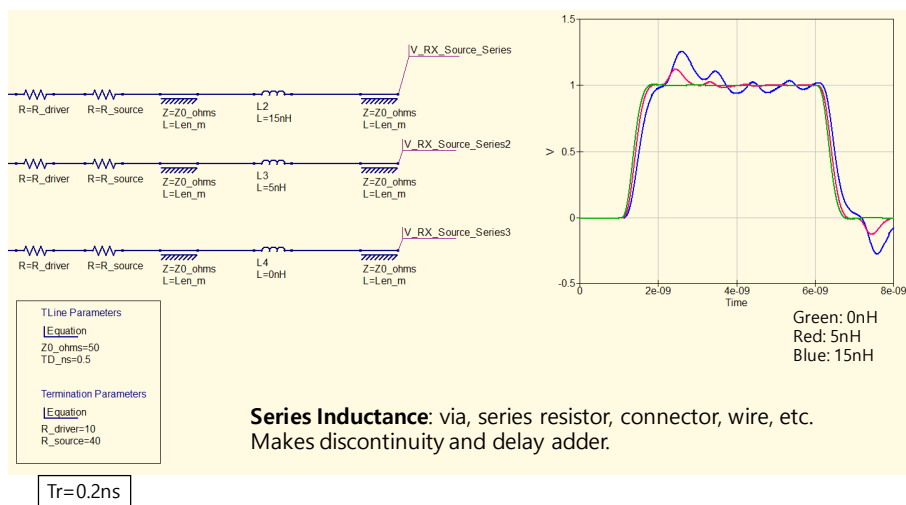
Capacitive Discontinuity with Series Termination



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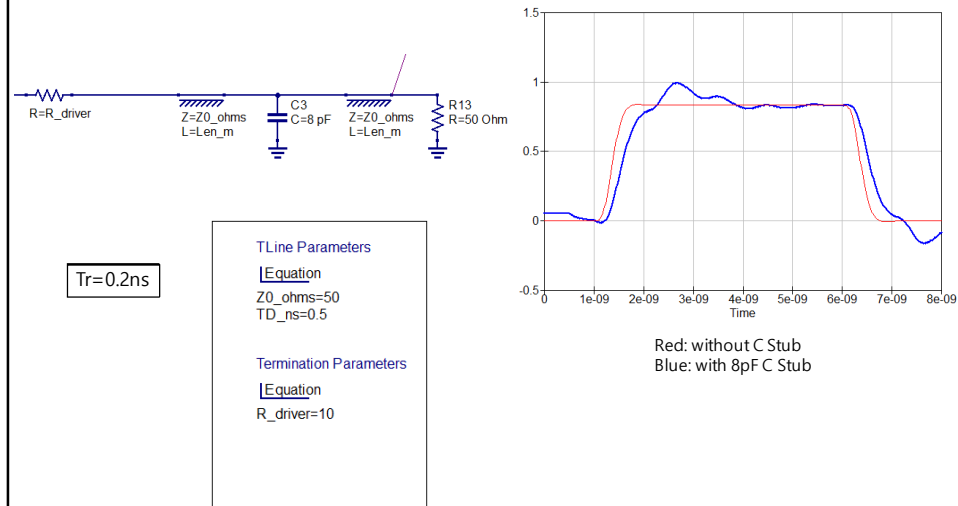
Inductive discontinuity with Series Termination



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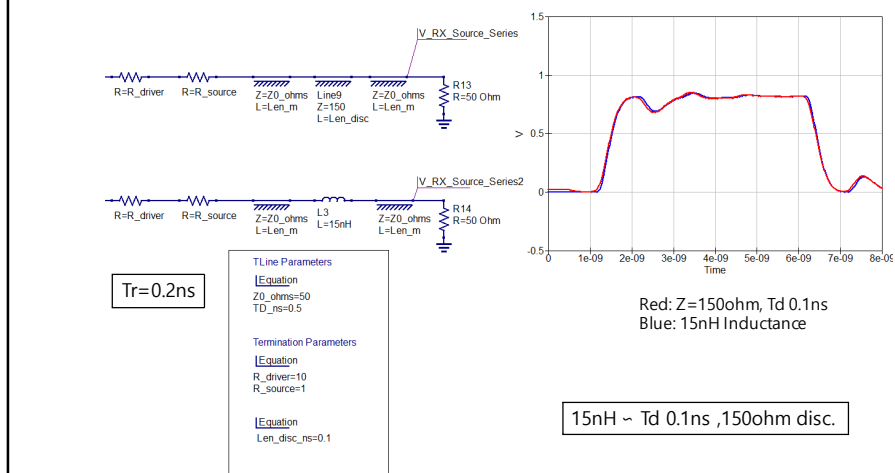
Capacitive discontinuity with Far-end Termination



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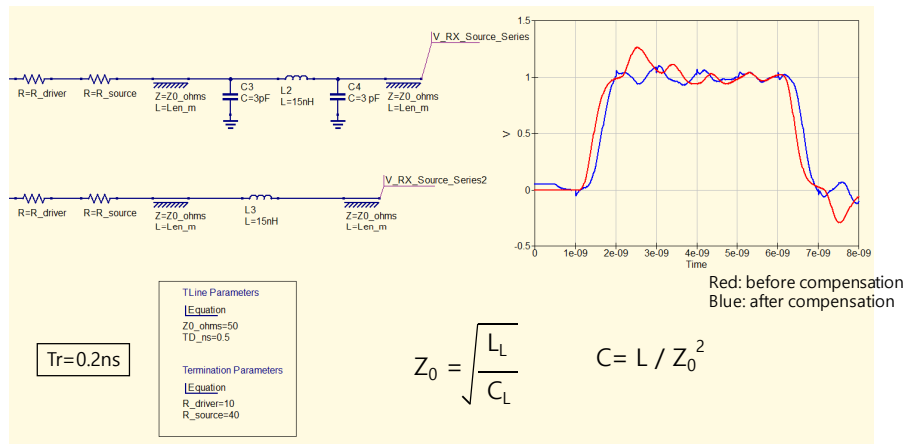
Inductive discontinuity with Far-end Termination



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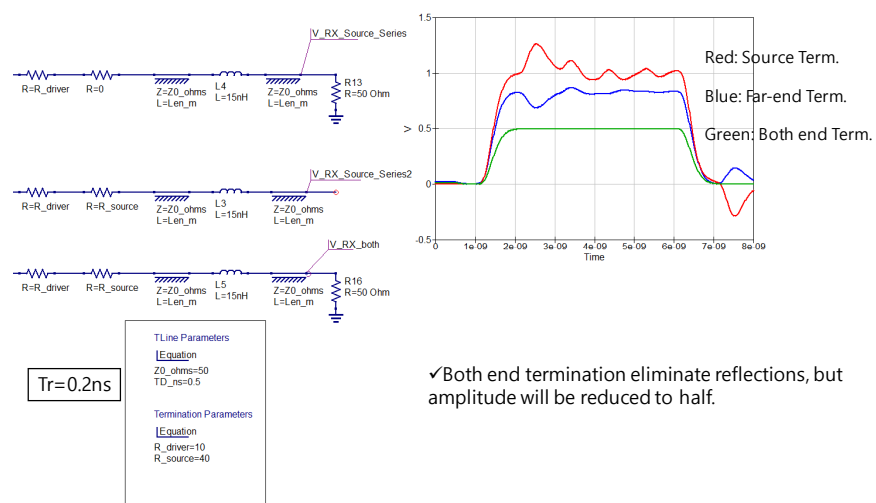
Compensation of Inductive discontinuity



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Discontinuity and Termination Topologies



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Time Delay by Impedance discontinuity-C, L

✓ Delay adder

Capacitive

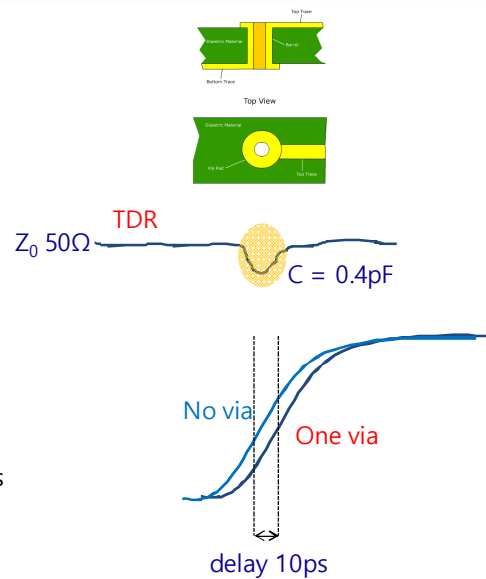
$$\Delta T_d \approx 0.5 Z_0 C$$

Inductive

$$\Delta T_d \approx 0.5 \frac{L}{Z_0}$$

Ex)

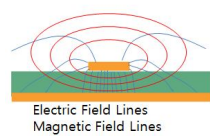
$$\Delta T_d = 0.5 \times 50 \times 0.4 \times 10^{-12} = 10 \text{ ps}$$



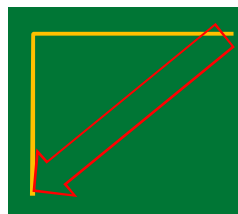
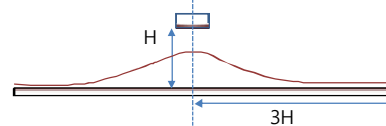
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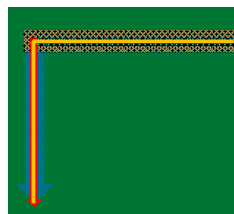
Return Path



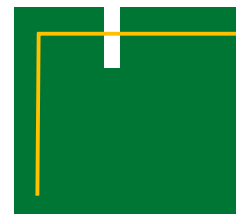
Current density distribution in the return plane



Return current flow at DC



Return current flow at high frequency



Slit on return plane

✓ In high speed frequency, solid return path is important as much as signal line.

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Impedance discontinuity

The End of the line Corner Connector

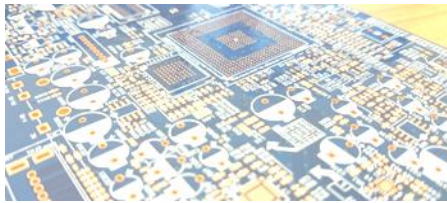
Stub Test Pad Package Lead

Branch Via

Gap in the return path

Pad for Components

Input Gate Capacitance

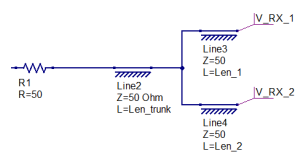


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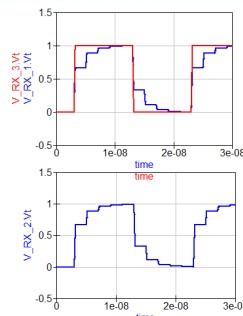
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Topology

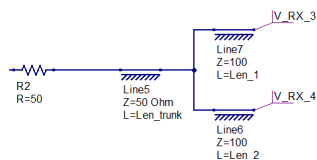
✓Balanced length of branches



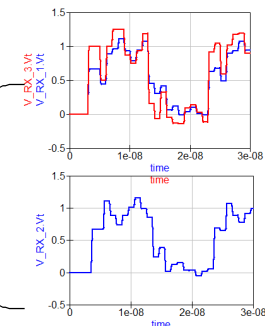
Equation
Eqn2
TD_trunk_ns=2
TD_1_ns=1
TD_2_ns=1



✓Unbalanced length of branches



Equation
Eqn2
TD_trunk_ns=2
TD_1_ns=1
TD_2_ns=1.5



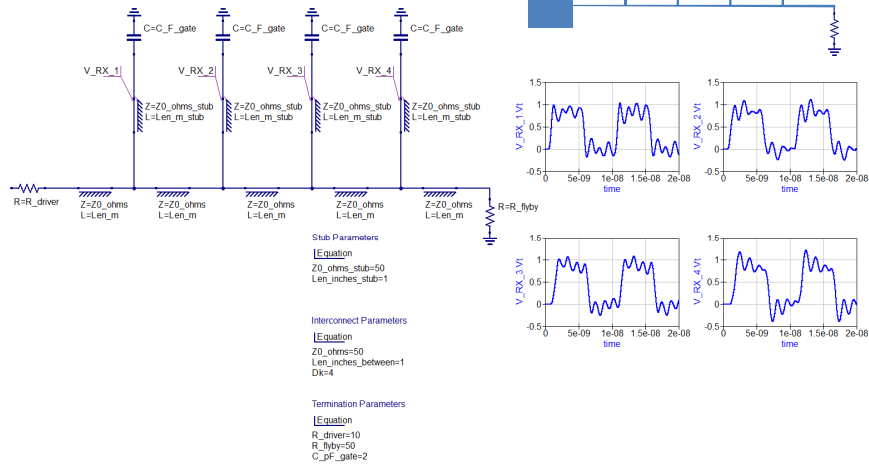
✓Topology must look symmetric from the point of view of any driving agent.
✓Impedance, Length and loading of each leg.

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Daisy chain topology

Daisy chain: multi drop buses



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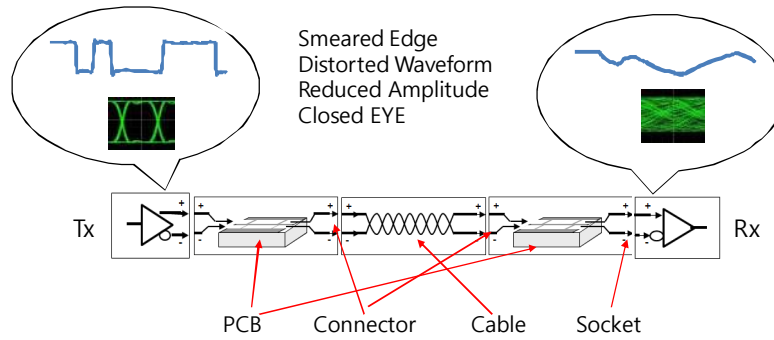
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Signal Loss S-parameters Loss compensation

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Loss of Transmission Line

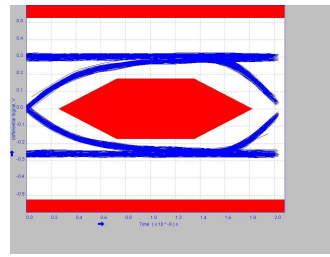
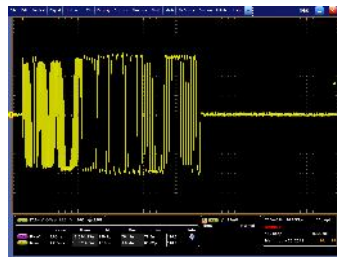


✓ Loss influences more on the closed EYE in Gpbs.

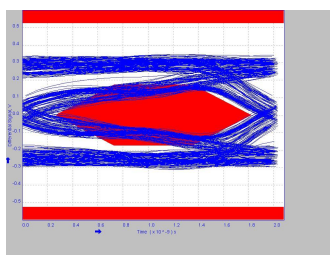
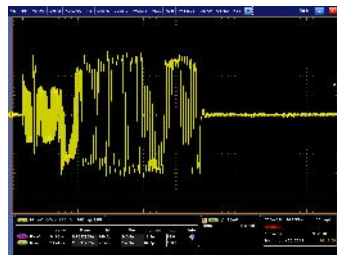
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Example of Loss: Waveform and EYE diagram



Frequency dependant Loss!



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5 sources of Energy Losses in Tline

- Radiative Loss
- Coupling to adjacent Traces
- Impedance mismatches
- Conductor loss
- Dielectric Loss

Small

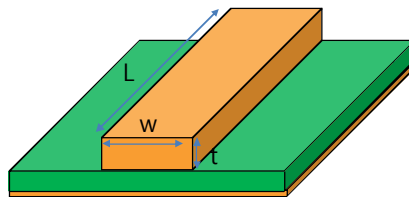
Big

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Source of Loss: DC Loss

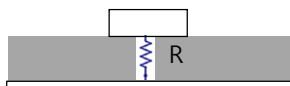
Conductor DC Loss



$$R = \rho \frac{L}{wt}$$

R: Resistance of conductor, in ohm
 ρ: Bulk resistivity of conductor, in ohm/inch
 L: Length of the line, in inch
 w: Conductor width, in inch
 t: conductor thickness, in inch

Dielectric DC Loss



R @ DC is very high(eg. 10^{12} ohm-cm)

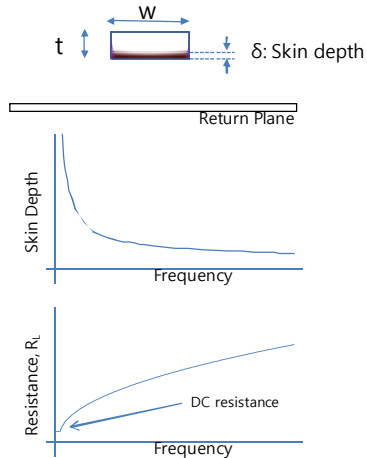
Dielectric DC loss is negligible and can be ignored.

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Source of Loss: AC Loss

Conductor AC Loss



$$R = \rho \frac{L}{w\delta}$$

R: Resistance of conductor, in ohm
 ρ : Bulk resistivity of conductor, in ohm/inch
 L: Length of the line, in inch
 w: Conductor width, in inch
 t: Conductor thickness, in inch
 δ : Skin depth, in inch

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{\pi F \mu}}$$

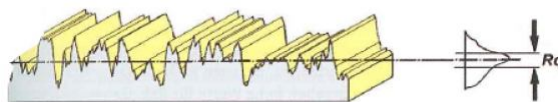
δ : Skin depth
 ρ : Bulk resistivity of conductor
 F: frequency
 μ : permeability of free space

$$R_L = R_{DC} + R_{AC} \sqrt{F}$$

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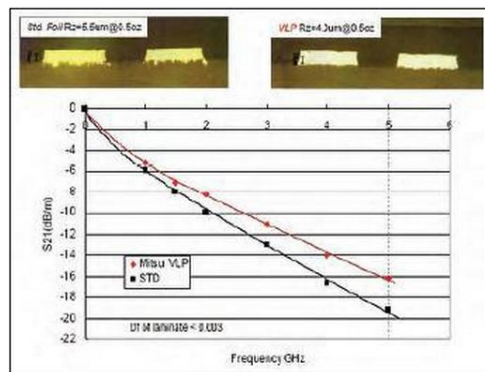
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Source of Loss: Surface Roughness



✓Skin effect and surface roughness increase AC resistance.

Ex) 3dB difference in S21 at 5GHz between Std foil and VLP foil.
 (Courtesy of Oak-Mitsui)

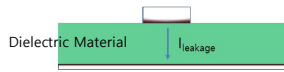


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Source of Loss: AC Loss

Dielectric AC Loss

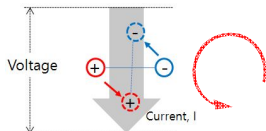


- ✓ When voltage is applied across capacitor
- ✓ Electric Field is generated
- ✓ Dipole of the material will tend to align in the direction of field
- ✓ Dipoles motion generates the leakage current
- ✓ Current heat the material and dissipate the energy

✓ Faster AC voltage makes faster movement of dipoles and higher current

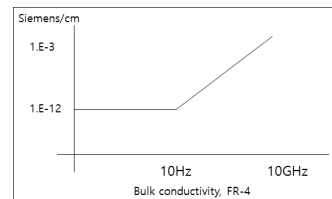
➔ **Higher the Frequency, higher the leakage conductivity, and the higher the power dissipation in the dielectric**

➔ **Rise time degradation**



<Electric Polarization; dipole movement >

Conductance, $G = 1 / R$



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Dissipation Factor of the material

- ✓ As frequency increase, the conductivity of the material increase due to the motion of the dipole.
- ✓ The more dipoles, the farther dipoles move make the higher conductivity.

Dissipation factor of the material

$\tan(\delta)$, Df

measure of the number and how far each of them can rotate

$$\tan(\delta) \sim n \times p \times \theta_{\max}$$

n: the number of density of dipoles in the dielectric

P: the dipole moment, a measure of charge and separation of each charge

θ_{\max} : how far the dipoles rotate in the applied field

- ✓ In the real, Df at high frequency can be changed nonlinearly due to the variation of θ_{\max} .

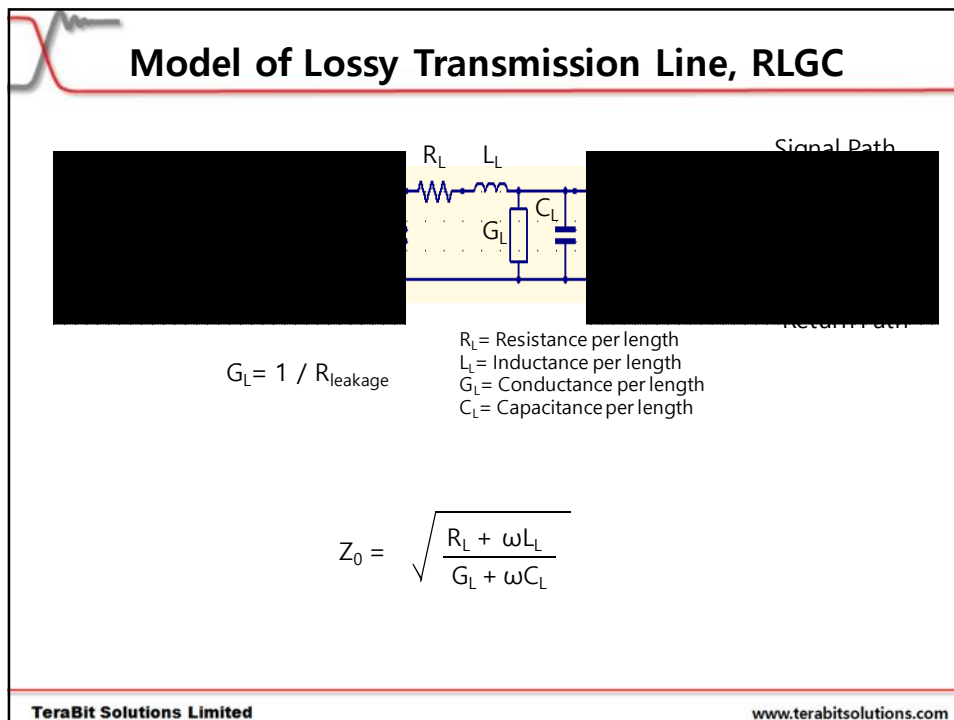
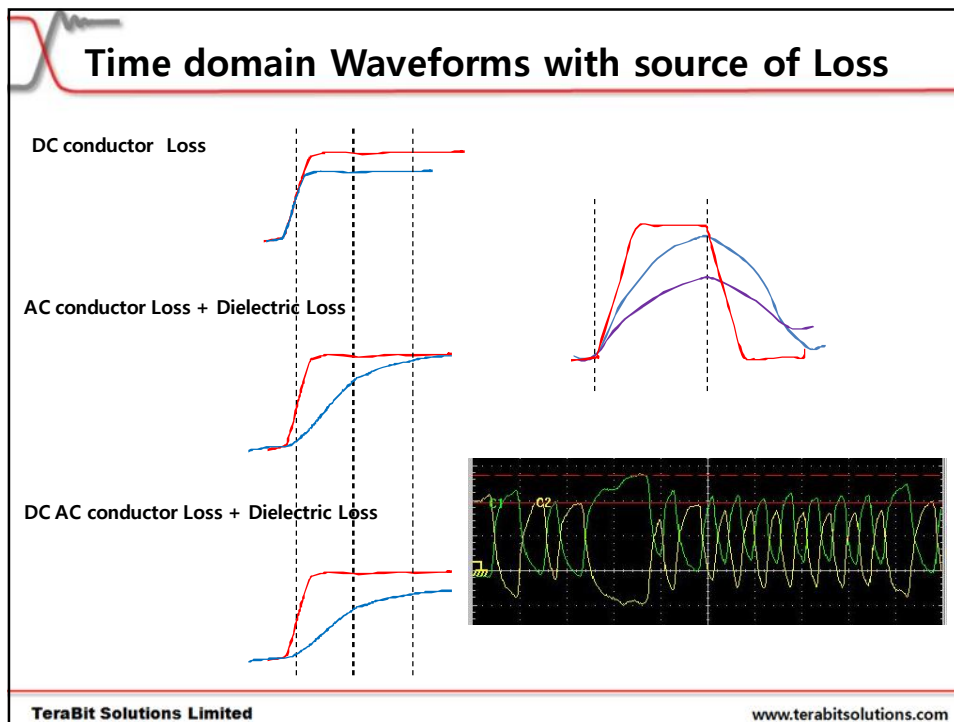
The bulk conductivity of the dielectric

$$\sigma = 2\pi f \times \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \times \tan(\delta)$$

Material	ϵ_r	$\tan(\delta)$
FR-4	4.0~4.7	0.02
GETEK	3.5	0.009
Nelco N9000	3.0~3.5	0.004
Rogers RO3003	3.0	0.0013
DiClad880	2.2	0.0009

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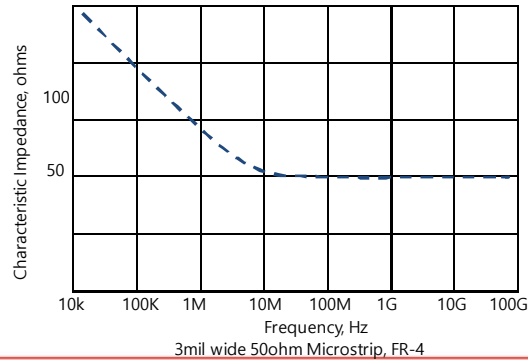
Characteristic Impedance with Loss

$$Z_0 = \sqrt{\frac{R_L + \omega L_L}{G_L + \omega C_L}}$$

✓ Above 2MHz on 3mil trace, the impedance of resistance is much smaller than the reactance of the inductance.

✓ The conductivity is much smaller than the reactance of the capacitance when $\tan(\delta) \ll 1$.

0.02 in FR4 and <0.001 in some low loss materials.



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Signal Velocity with Loss

$$v = \frac{\omega}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left[\sqrt{(R_L^2 + \omega^2 L_L^2)(G_L^2 + \omega^2 C_L^2)} + \omega^2 L_L C_L - R_L G_L \right]}}$$

✓ When the impedance of resistance is much smaller than the reactance of the inductance.

✓ When the conductivity is much smaller than the reactance of the capacitance when $\tan(\delta) \ll 1$.

0.02 in FR4 and <0.001 in some materials.

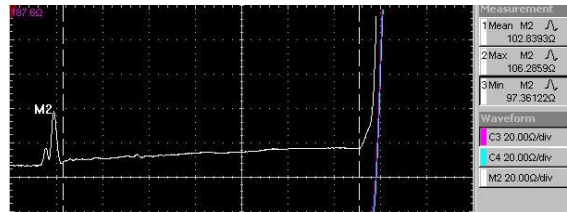
$$\rightarrow v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_L C_L}}$$

✓ Above 10MHz, for 3mil FR4 50ohm microstrip, Signal speed is **not affected by the loss**.

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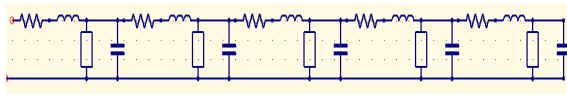
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TDR waveform with Loss

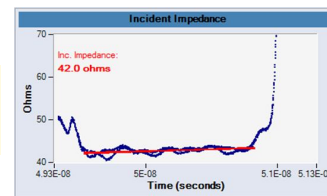


TDR waveform of Uniform Transmission Line with dribble up effect

Model of Lossy Transmission Line



Incident Impedance



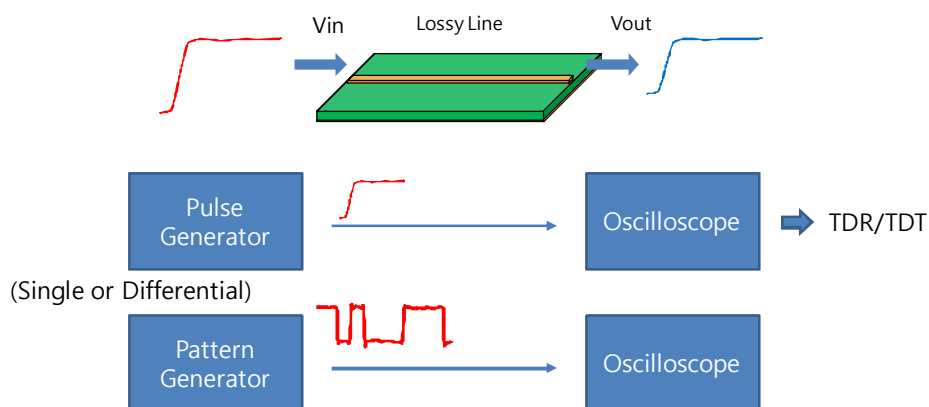
<Source: Introbitix>

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Measured Example of Lossy Transmission Line

Time Domain: TDT(Time Domain Transmission),
or Pulse Response Test

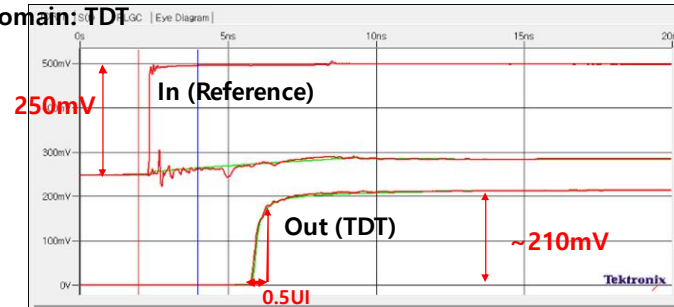


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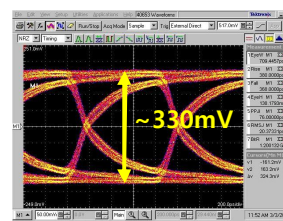
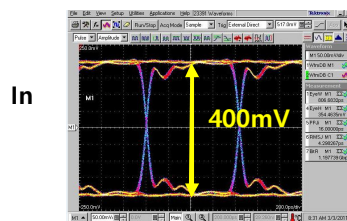
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Measured Example of Lossy Transmission Line

Time Domain: TDT



EYE measurement @ 1.2Gbps, 400mV

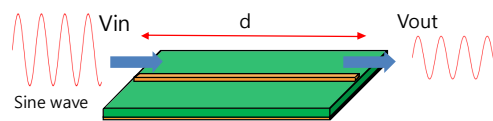


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Loss in Frequency domain

Attenuation



$$V_{out} = V_{in} \exp(-A_n) = V_{in} \exp(-d \times \alpha_n)$$

V_{out} = the voltage at the end of the line
 d = the distance of the line, in inch
 V_{in} = the amplitude of the input voltage
 A_n = the total attenuation, in neper
 α_n = the attenuation per length, in neper/inch

✓The attenuation increases exponentially with distance.

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Loss in Frequency domain

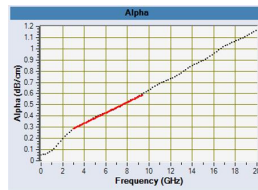
Attenuation in dB

$$V_{out} = V_{in} 10^{-\frac{A_{dB}}{20}} = V_{in} 10^{-d \times \frac{\alpha_{dB}}{20}}$$

A_{dB} = the total attenuation, in dB
 α_{dB} = the attenuation per length, in dB/inch
 20 = the factor to convert dB into amplitude

$$\text{Ratio(dB)} = 10 \times \log \frac{P_1}{P_0} = 10 \times \log \left(\frac{V_1^2}{V_0^2} \right) = 20 \log \left(\frac{V_1}{V_0} \right)$$

$$\text{Ratio} = \frac{V_1}{V_0} = 10^{\frac{\text{ratio}_{dB}}{20}}$$



dB	Power ratio	Voltage ratio
30	1000	100
20	100	10
10	10	3.16
6	4	2
3	2	1.4
0	1	1
-3	0.5	0.7
-6	0.25	0.5
-10	0.1	0.316
-20	0.01	0.1
-30	0.001	0.01

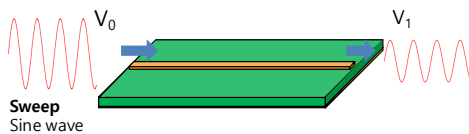
✓ In dB, the attenuation increases linearly with frequency.

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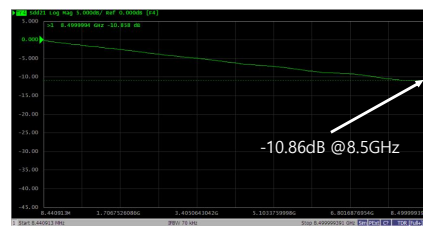
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Loss in Frequency domain

Insertion Loss



$$\text{Ratio(dB)} = 20 \log \left(\frac{V_1}{V_0} \right)$$



✓ Higher frequency is attenuated more than lower frequency.

➡ Rise time degradation at the end of lossy line



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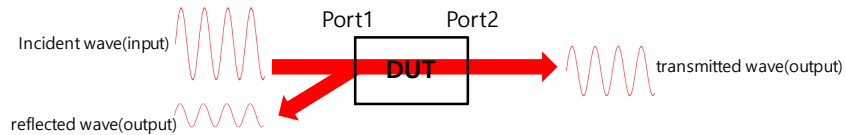
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Loss in Frequency domain

S-parameters

"Scattering-parameters"

Origins in RF world, this technique has been widely used to describe the behavior of any interconnects in time domain in the digital world.



- ✓ Incident wave scatter back into the source, reflected wave: **S11 or Return Loss**
- ✓ Incident wave scatter through the device, transmitted wave: **S21 or Insertion Loss**

$$\text{mag(S)} = \frac{\text{amplitude of output sine wave}}{\text{amplitude of input sine wave}}$$

$$S_{dB} = 20\log(\text{mag(S)}) \quad \text{Phase(S)} = \text{Phase(output sine wave)} - \text{Phase(input sine wave)}$$

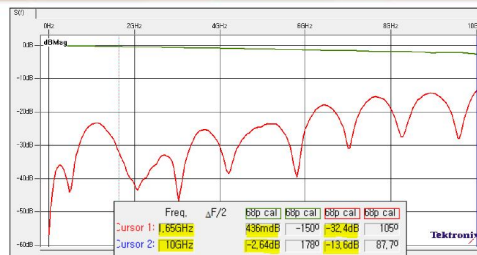
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S-parameters



<50ohm Transmission line, FR4, 5cm>



<Measured S21 and S11 plot. Measured with Tektronix DSA8300/80E04. Calculated and displayed with I-Connect SW>

In all linear, passive devices, $S_{21}=S_{12}$. $S_{11}=S_{22}$.

S_{21} (Insertion Loss) describes how big the transmitted signal will be, at each frequency.

Ex) 1V, 10GHz, sine wave will be reduced to 0.738V(-2.64dB) at the output port.

This Frequency is the appx. Bandwidth(-3dB) of this device.

$$\text{Ratio} = \frac{V_1}{V_0} = 10^{\frac{\text{ratio}_{dB}}{20}}$$

S_{11} (Return Loss) describes how small the reflected signal will be, at each frequency.

Ex) 0.2V(-13.6dB) out of 1V, 10GHz, sine wave will be returned back to the source.

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S21 and S11

The relationship between S21 and S11

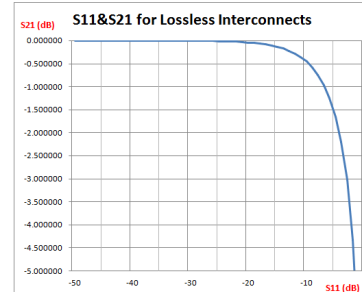
$$1 = S_{11}^2 + S_{21}^2$$

$$S_{21} = \sqrt{1 - S_{11}^2}$$

Ex)

$$S_{11} = \frac{(75-50)}{(75+50)} \approx 0.2 \approx -14\text{dB}$$

$$S_{21} = \sqrt{1 - 0.2^2} \approx 0.98 \approx -0.18\text{dB}$$



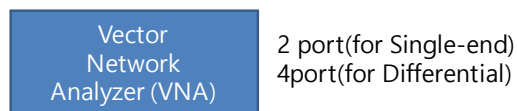
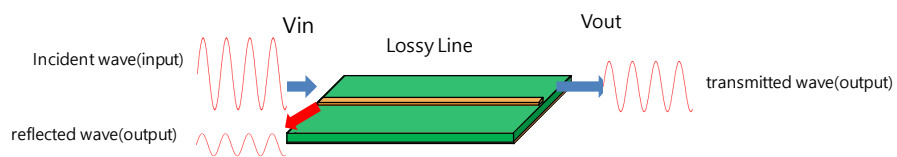
- ✓ -14dB(20%) reflection affects only -0.18dB(2%) on Insertion loss.
While more than 10dB loss in S11 will dramatically affect on insertion loss.

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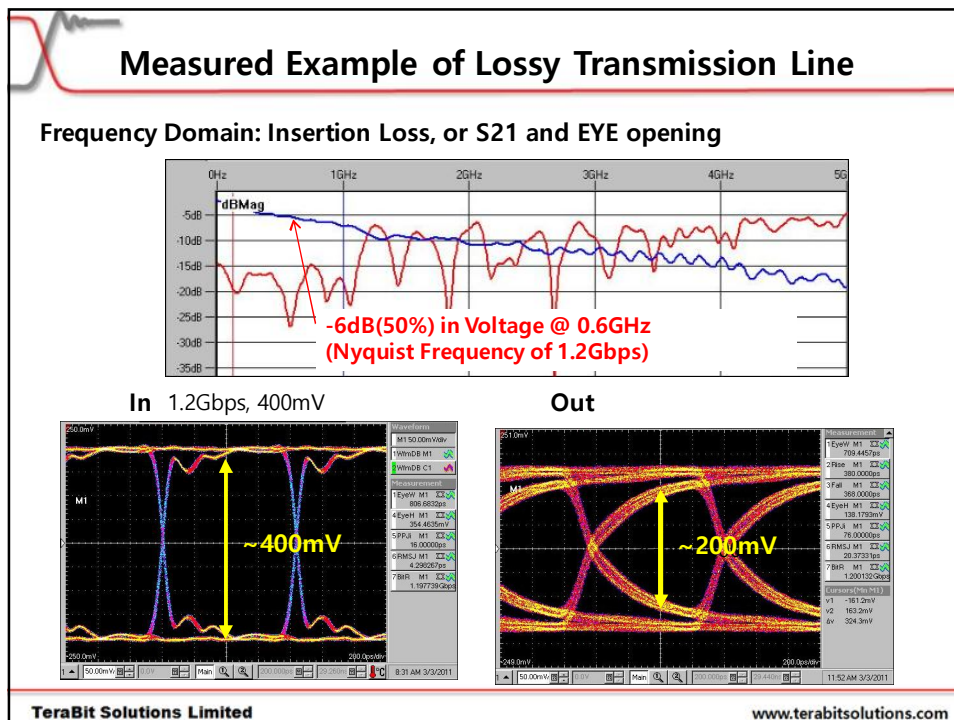
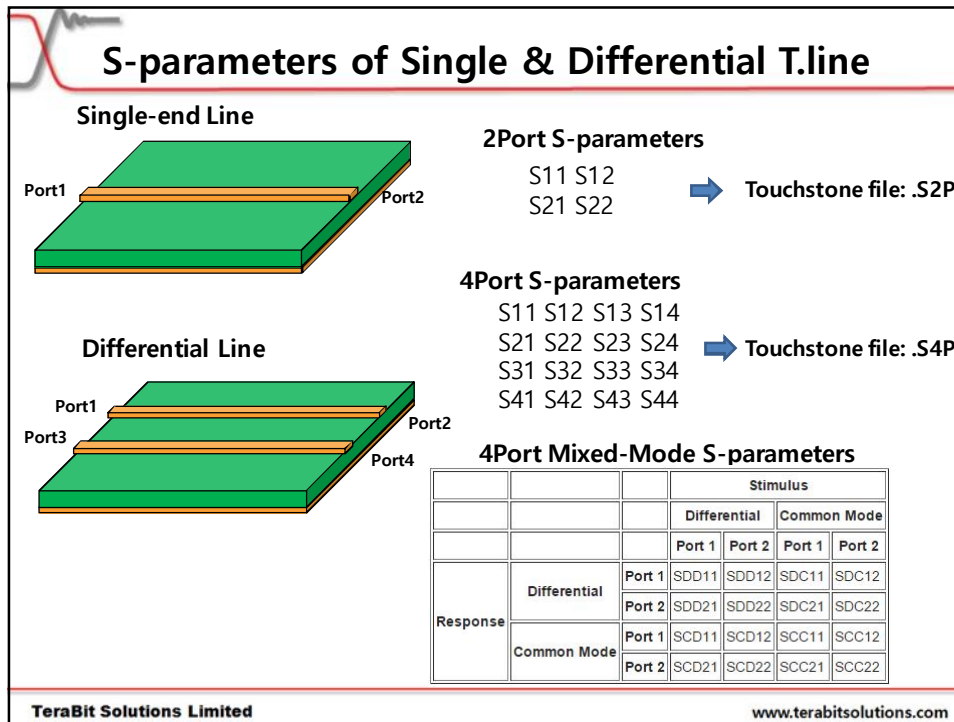
Measured Example of Lossy Transmission Line

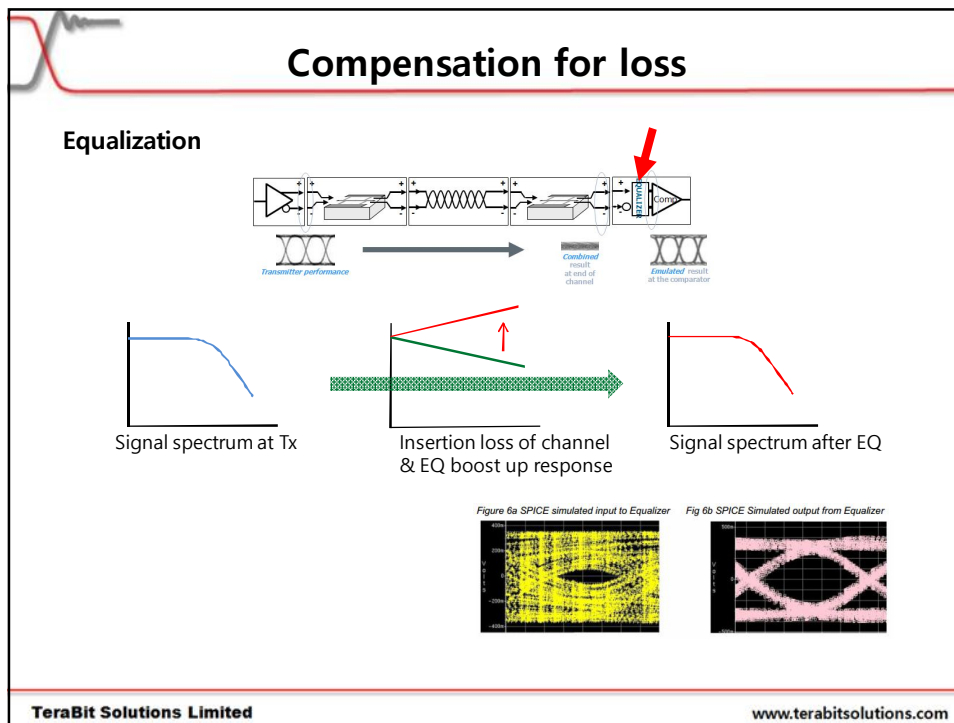
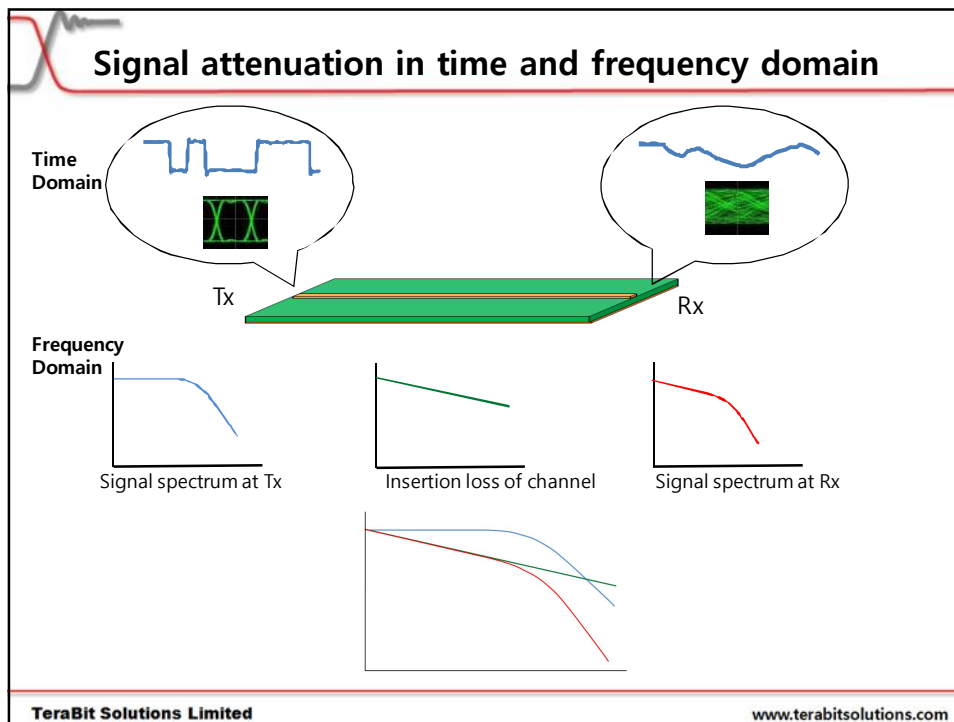
Frequency Domain: Insertion Loss/Return Loss, or S21/S11



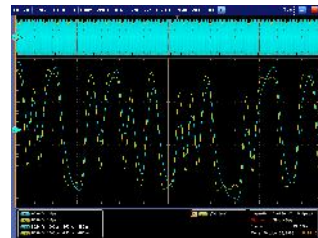
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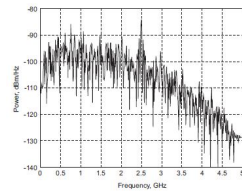




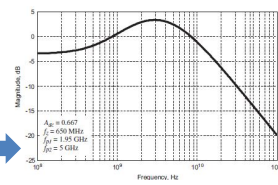
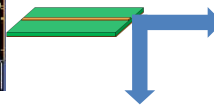
Equalization Example of USB3.0 standard



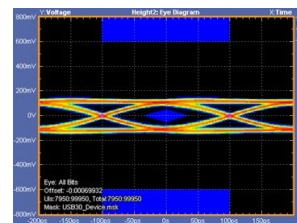
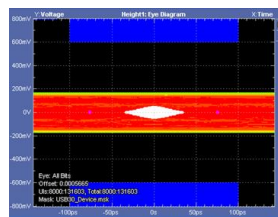
<waveform in time domain, 5Gbps
Blue: original, yellow: after EQ>



<Tx signal spectrum>



<CTLE Equalizer, high frequency boost up>

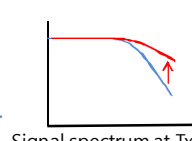
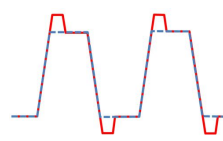


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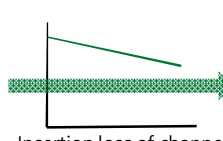
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Compensation for loss

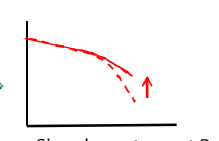
Pre-emphasis



Signal spectrum at Tx

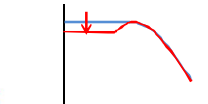


Insertion loss of channel

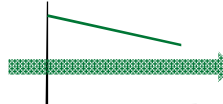


Signal spectrum at Rx

De-emphasis



Signal spectrum at Tx



Insertion loss of channel



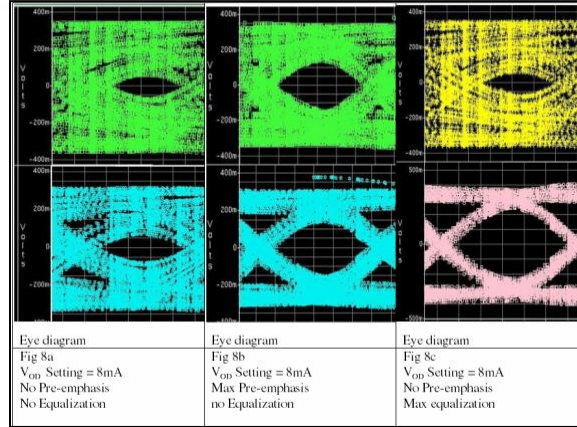
Signal spectrum at Rx

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Example of Loss compensation

Fig 8 40" Tyco backplane using a PRBS 10 pattern



<Source: Altera Corp.>

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Pros and Cons of loss compensation

Equalization

- ✓EQ will amplify all high frequency component. Too much compensation can make more noise and jitter.

Pre-emphasis


- ✓Pre-emphasis has higher power dissipation.
- ✓Faster edge speed, overshoot and undershoot can make more EMI issues.
- ✓Pre-emphasis can send more signal to the end of very lossy line.

De-emphasis

- ✓De-emphasis has less power dissipation.
- ✓Less near end crosstalk to adjacent channel


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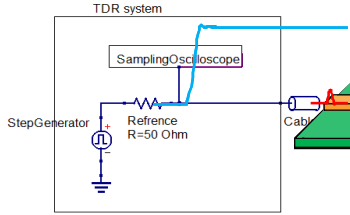
TDR (Time Domain Reflectometry)

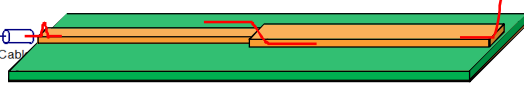
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How does TDR works?

TDR system

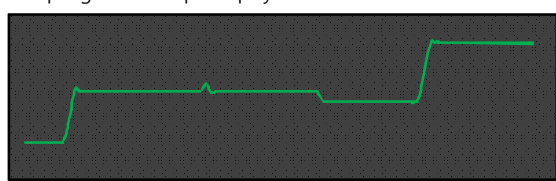




$$\rho = \frac{V_{\text{reflected}}}{V_{\text{incident}}} = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0} \quad Z_L = Z_0 \times \frac{(1 + \rho)}{(1 - \rho)}$$

ρ = reflection coefficient, rho
 Z_0 = reference Impedance
 Z_L = DUT Impedance

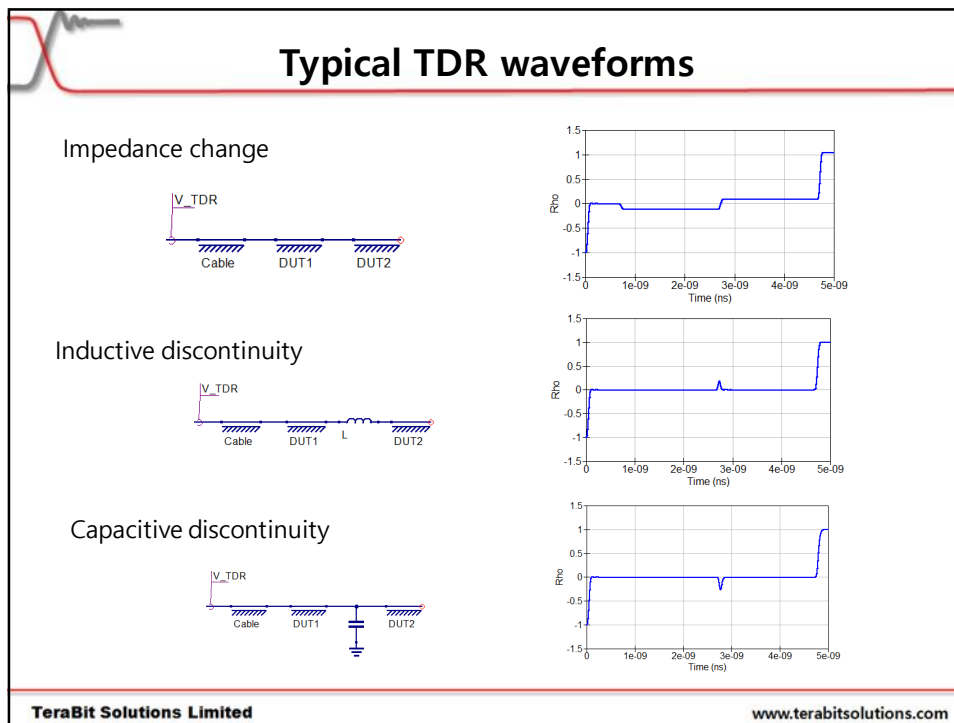
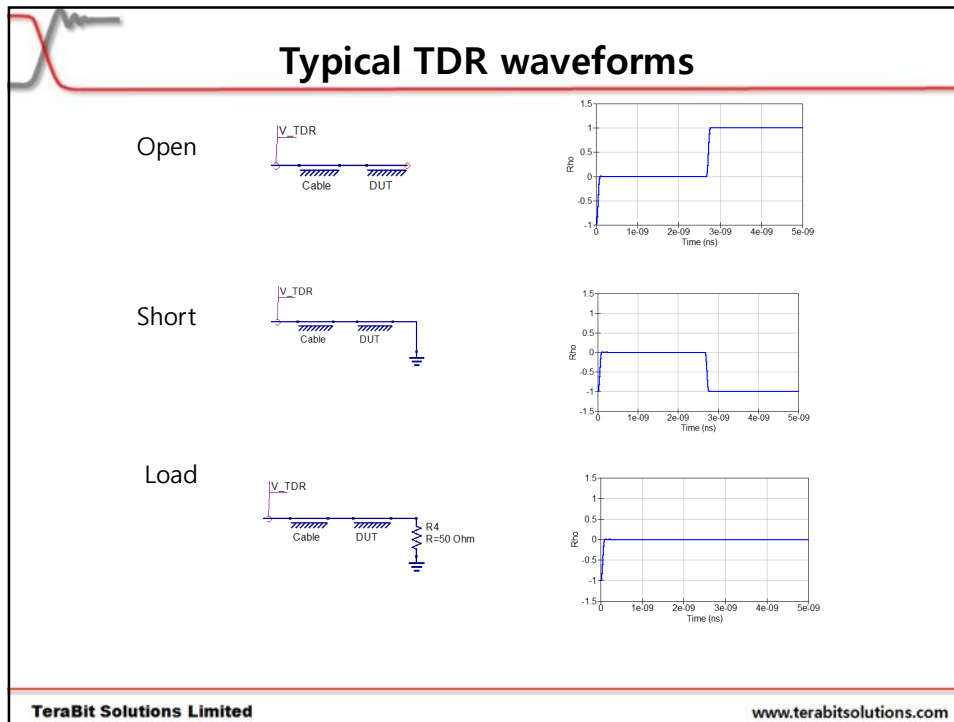
Sampling Oscilloscope Display

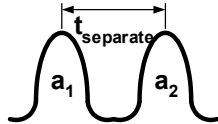


Time (or distance)

Voltage (or ρ or Impedance)

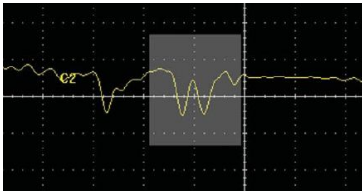
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To resolve a_1 and a_2 as separate discontinuities:

$$t_{\text{separate}} > t_{\text{TDR_risetime}} / 2$$



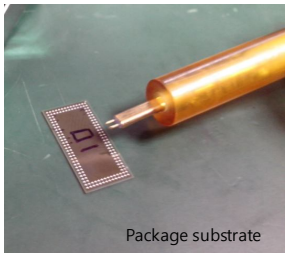
Rise time, ps	Resolution in air, mm	Resolution in FR4, buried run ($v=0.446 \cdot C_{light}$), mm
10	1.50	0.67
15	2.25	1.00
20	3.00	1.34
28	4.20	1.87
40	6.00	2.68
150	22.50	10.04



<source: Tektronix, Tested with 15ps, 80E10>

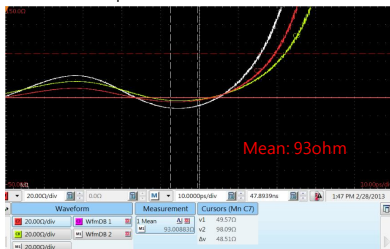
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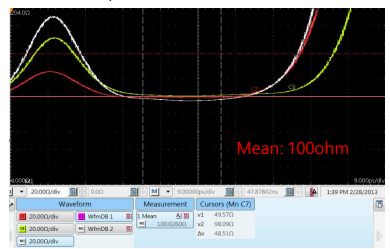
Short trace, appx <10mm length

Package substrate



Rise time 50ps

Mean: 93ohm



Rise time 20ps

Mean: 100ohm

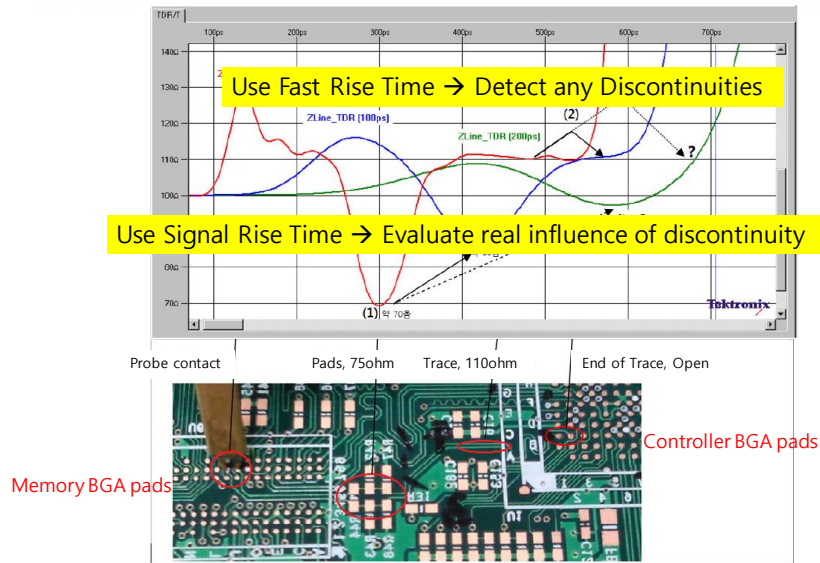
TDR System Risetime	Resolution	4X Resolution
10 ps	5 ps / 1 mm [0.04 in]	4 mm [0.16 in]
20 ps	10 ps / 2 mm [0.08 in]	8 mm [0.31 in]
30 ps	15 ps / 3 mm [0.12 in]	12 mm [0.47 in]
100 ps	50 ps / 10 mm [0.39 in]	40 mm [1.57 in]
200 ps	100 ps / 20 mm [0.79 in]	80 mm [3.15 in]
500 ps	250 ps / 50 mm [1.97 in]	200 mm [7.87 in]

<Source: IPC>

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Rise Time and TDR Resolution Example(2)



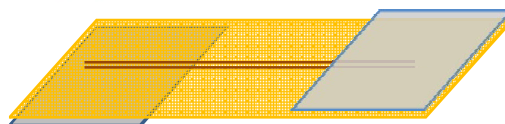
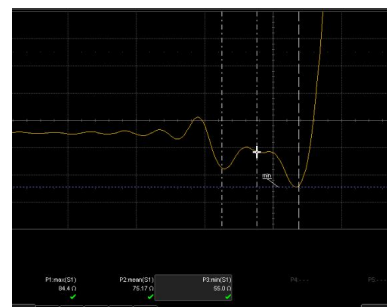
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Measurement example



<Probing with Gigaprobes>

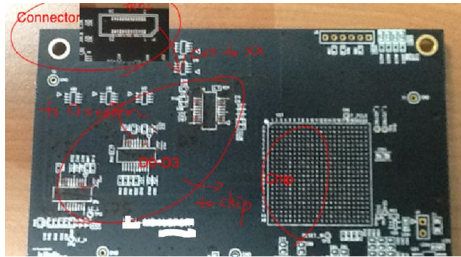


Metal Plane works as additional solid Reference(GND). And they might make Impedance Lower.

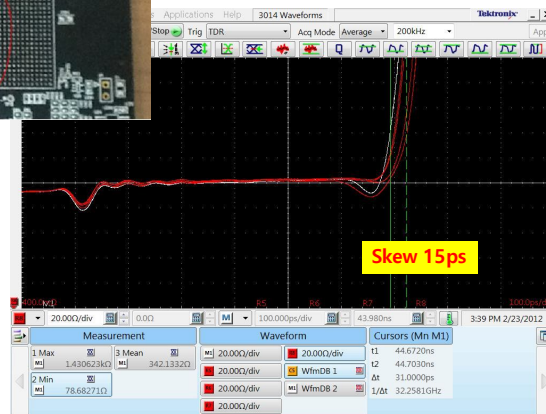
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Time delay, Skew



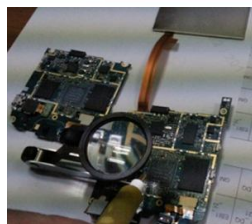
From Dxx to Chip
Skew 15ps = $\frac{1}{2}$ of TDR skew result



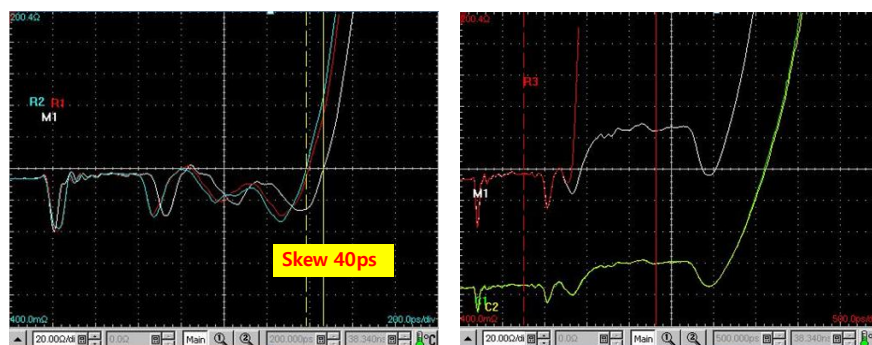
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TDR Measurement Example: MIPI DSI traces



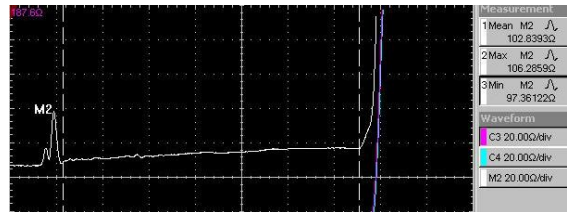
- ✓ Impedance discontinuities
- ✓ skew



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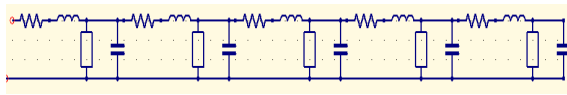
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TDR waveform with Loss

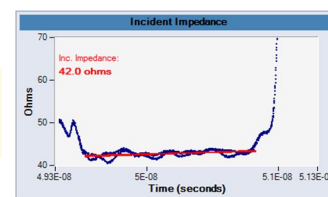


TDR waveform of Uniform Transmission Line with dribble up effect

Model of Lossy Transmission Line



Incident Impedance

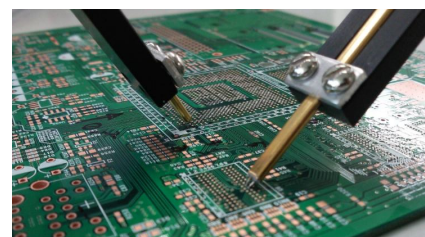
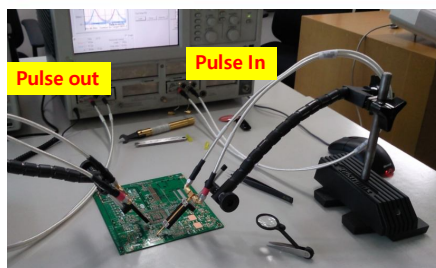


<Source: Introbitix>

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TDT (Time Domain Transmission)



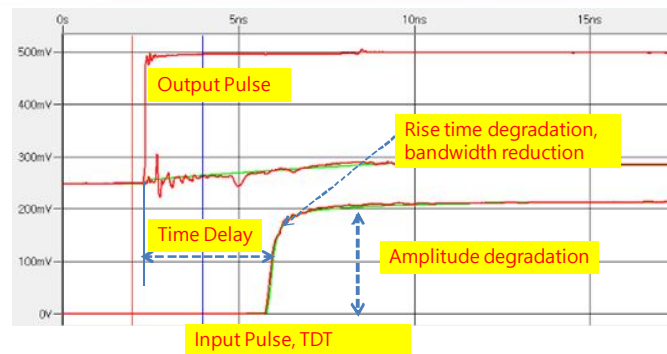
Measurement parameters

- ✓Time delay /Skew
- ✓Rise time degradation → Bandwidth
 $0.35/Tr$
- ✓Waveform distortion by reflection

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Example of TDT measurement



Output pulse should be acquired by low loss through connection.



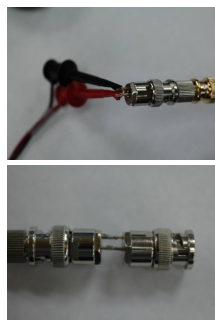
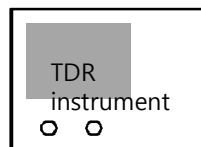
$$Tr_{DUT} = \sqrt{Tr_{Input}^2 - Tr_{output}^2}$$

$$BW(-3dB) \text{ of DUT} = 0.35 / Tr_{DUT}$$

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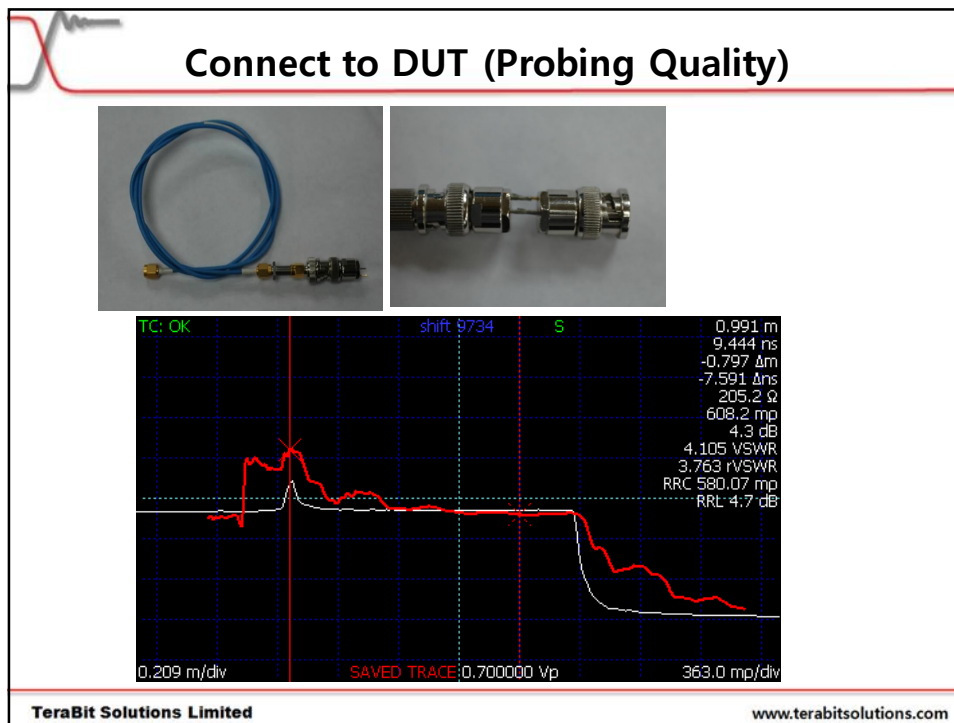
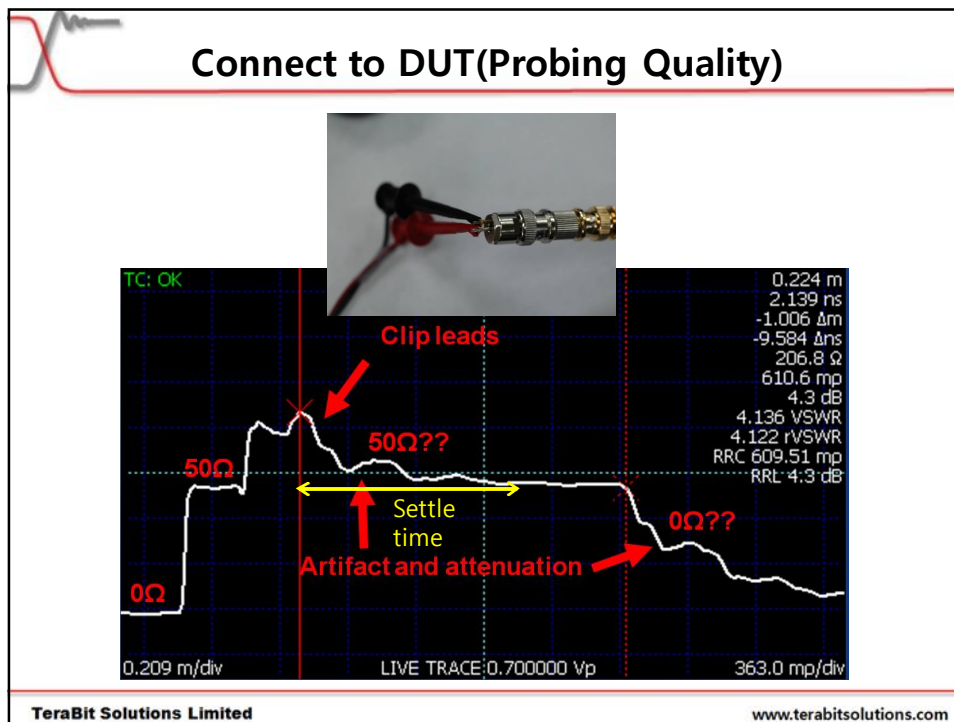
Connect to DUT (Probing Quality)



Coax cable, $Z_0 = 50\Omega$
Length = 1m

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TDR Probe Example(1)

✓ Hand Held Probe



Tektronix, P8018



P80318

- ✓ BW: ~20GHz
- ✓ Pitch: 0.5mm~4.2mm, adjustable
- ✓ Signal to Signal for differential(odd mode)
- ✓ Test Coupon and Large Pad

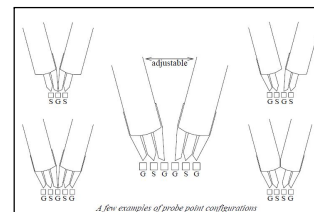
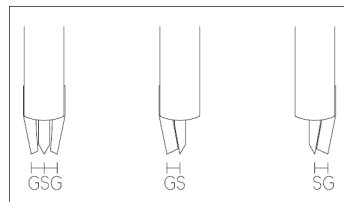


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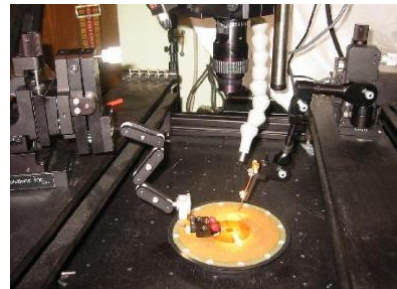
TDR Probe Example(2)

✓ RF Micro Probe



A few examples of probe point configurations

- ✓ BW: ~ 40GHz, ~220GHz
- ✓ Pitch: 50um ~1.25mm, fixed
- ✓ Signal to Ground, G-S-S-G, etc.
- ✓ Wafer, Die, Small pads



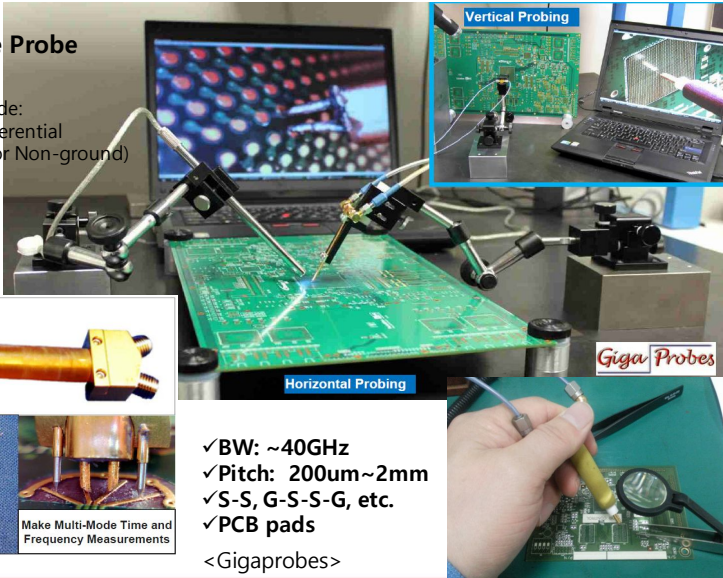
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TDR Probe Example(3)

✓ **Multi Purpose Probe**

Convertible Multimode:
Single ↔ Differential
(Ground or Non-ground)



Horizontal Probing

Giga Probes

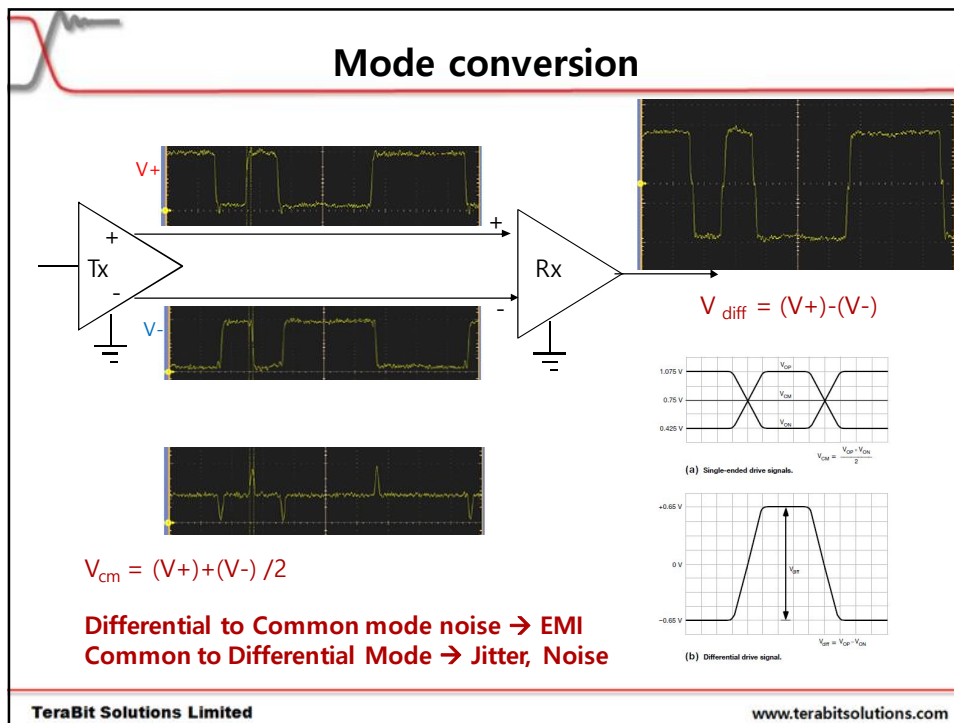
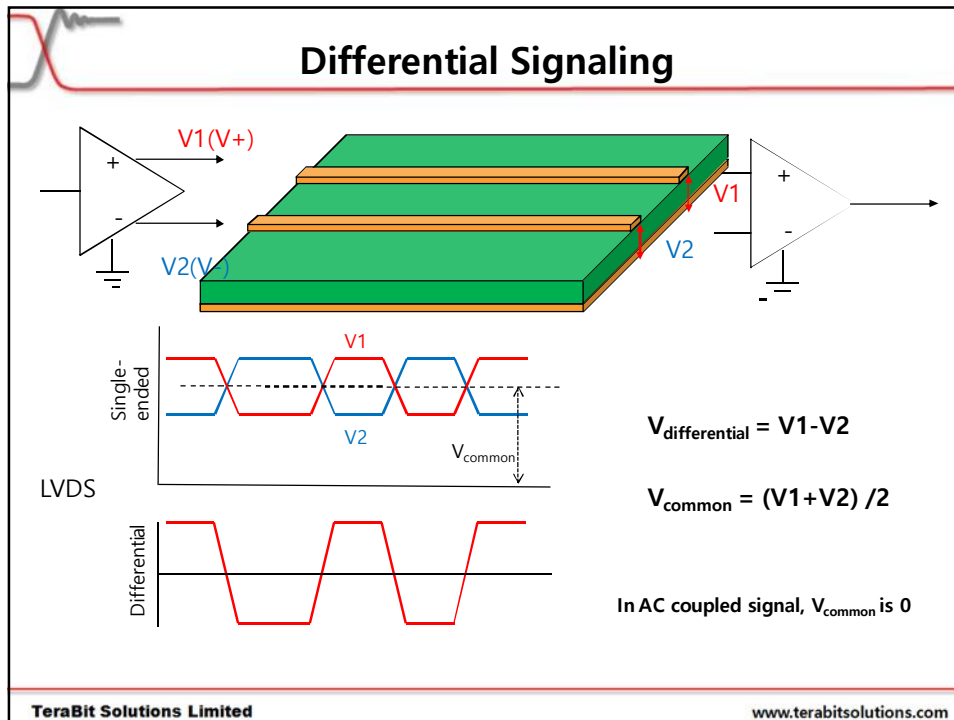
- ✓ BW: ~40GHz
- ✓ Pitch: 200um~2mm
- ✓ S-S, G-S-S-G, etc.
- ✓ PCB pads

<Gigaprobes>

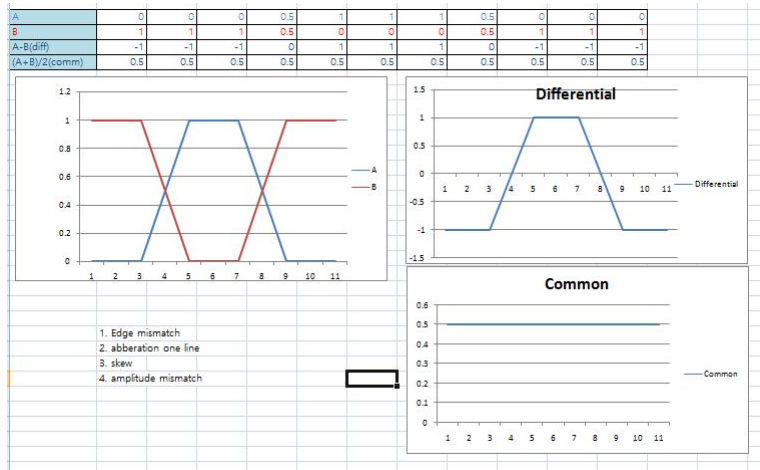
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Differential Signal
 Common mode signal
 Differential Impedance
 Common Impedance



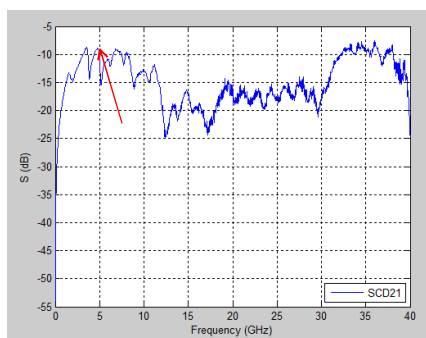
Mode Conversion



TeraBit Solutions Limited

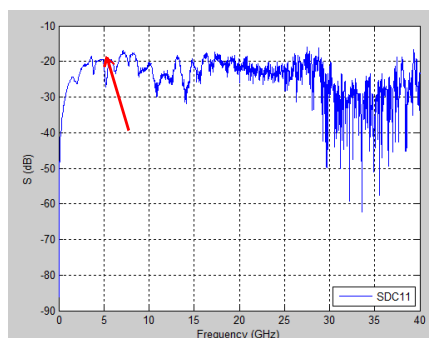
www.terabitsolutions.com

Mode Conversion in Frequency Domain



**Differential to Common mode noise
→ EMI**

@10Gbps, Nyquist 5GHz, -10dB (30%)
1Vdiff → 0.3Vcomm



**Common to Differential Mode
→ Jitter, Noise**

@5GHz, -20dB (10%)
0.3Vcomm → 0.03Vdiff

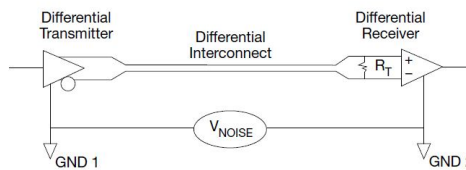
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Advantage of Differential Signaling

Advantages

- ✓ Common mode Noise rejection
- ✓ Less $dI/dt \rightarrow$ Less Ground Bounce, Less Rail collapse Noise, less EMI
- ✓ Higher Gain at the receiver
- ✓ Tightly coupled differential line
 - \rightarrow Robust to Cross talk, discontinuity in the return path, less EMI



Disadvantages

- ✓ EMI from not properly balanced pair
- ✓ Twice Number of signal lines, Layout complexity
- ✓ New principles and design guidelines to understand

Differential Pair



Twisted pair cable



coplanar



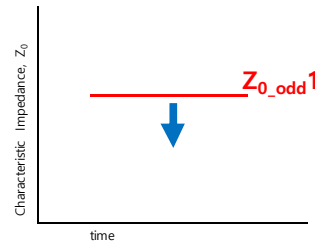
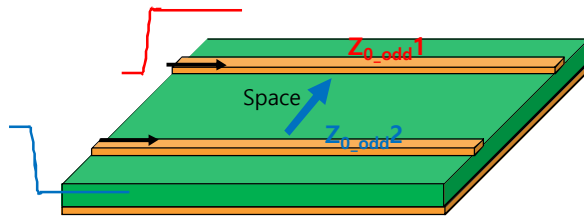
twinax

Edge-coupled
differential microstripEdge-coupled
differential striplineBroadside-coupled
differential stripline

- ✓ Good differential pairs have;
 1. Constant impedance for the differential signal.
 2. Same length/Time delay match between two lines.
 3. Exactly same both transmission lines – symmetry
 4. The greater the coupling the more robust the differential signal
- noise immunity benefit, discontinuity and imperfection

Differential Impedance – Odd mode

✓ Odd-mode Impedance is decrease as coupled line is closer.



Each pulses has opposite rise/fall directions(polarities)

This is called as Odd-mode,

Z_{0_odd1} = Odd-mode Impedance

$2 \times Z_{0_odd1}$ = Differential Impedance, Z_{diff}

Z_{0_odd2} has the same behavior with Z_{0_odd1}

$$Z_{differential} = Z_{0_odd} + Z_{0_odd}$$

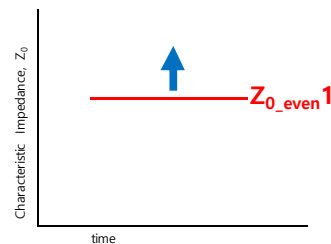
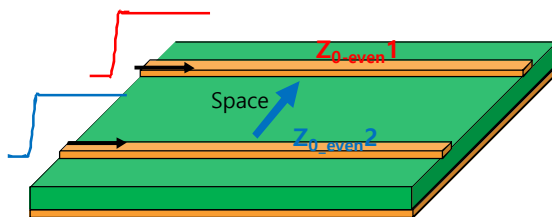


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Common Impedance – Even mode

✓ Even-mode Impedance is increase as coupled line is closer.



Each pulses has the same rise/fall directions(polarities)

This is called as Even-mode,

Z_{0_even1} = Even mode Impedance

$1/2 \times Z_{0_even1}$ = Common Impedance, Z_{comm}

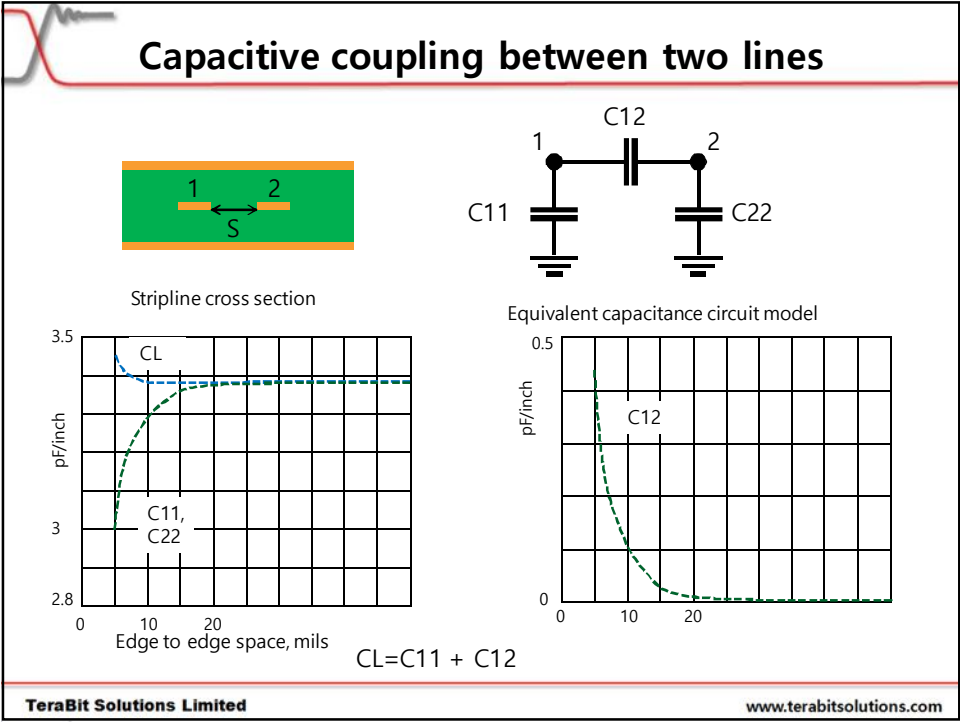
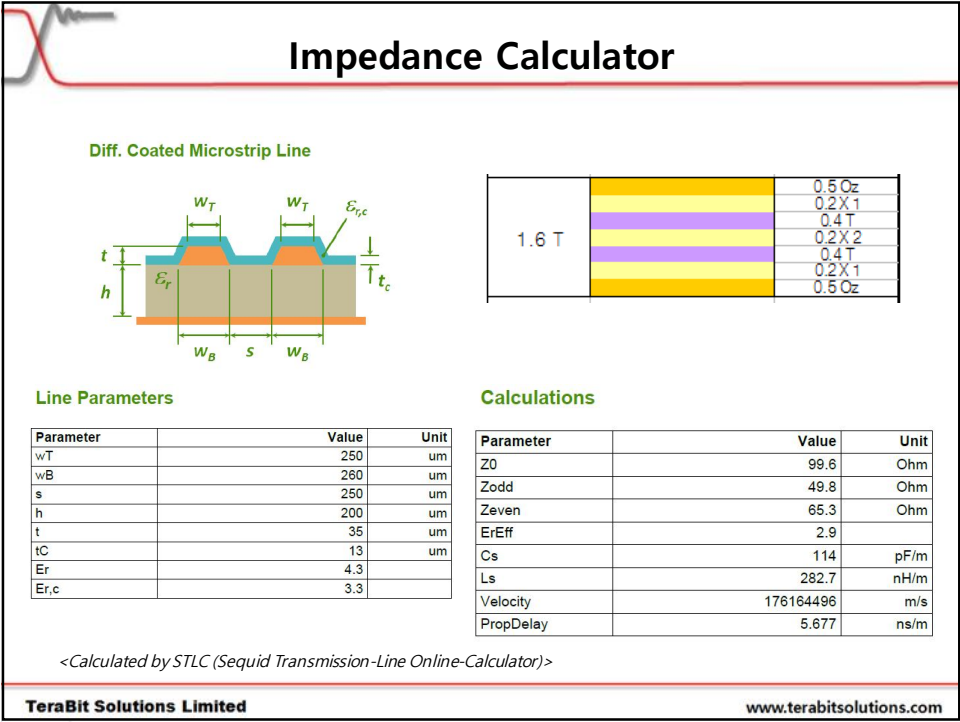
Z_{0_even2} has the same behavior with Z_{0_even1}

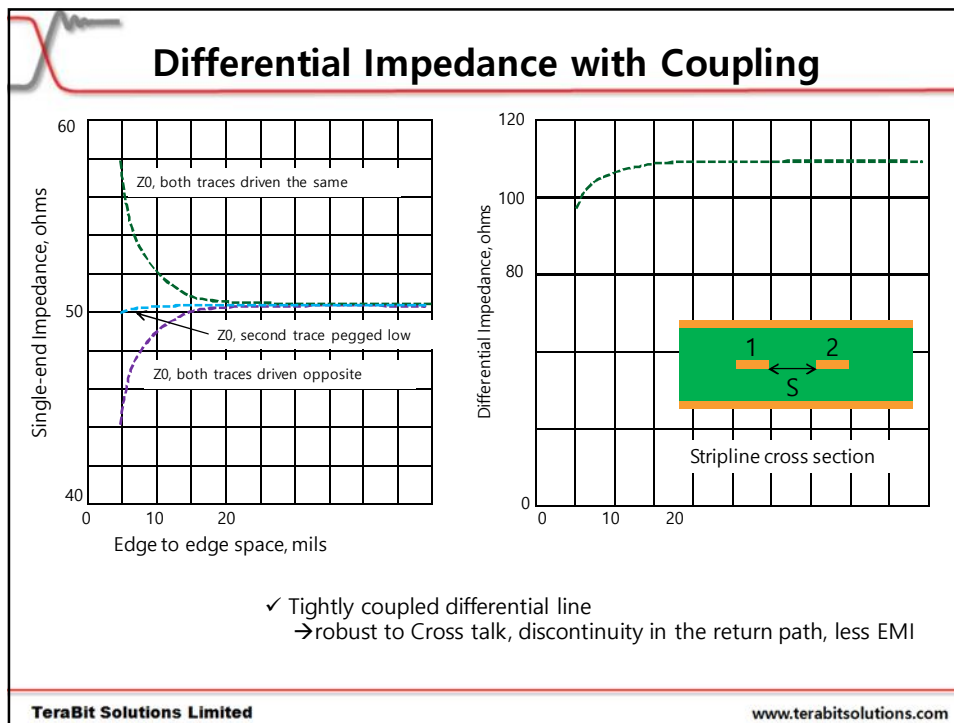
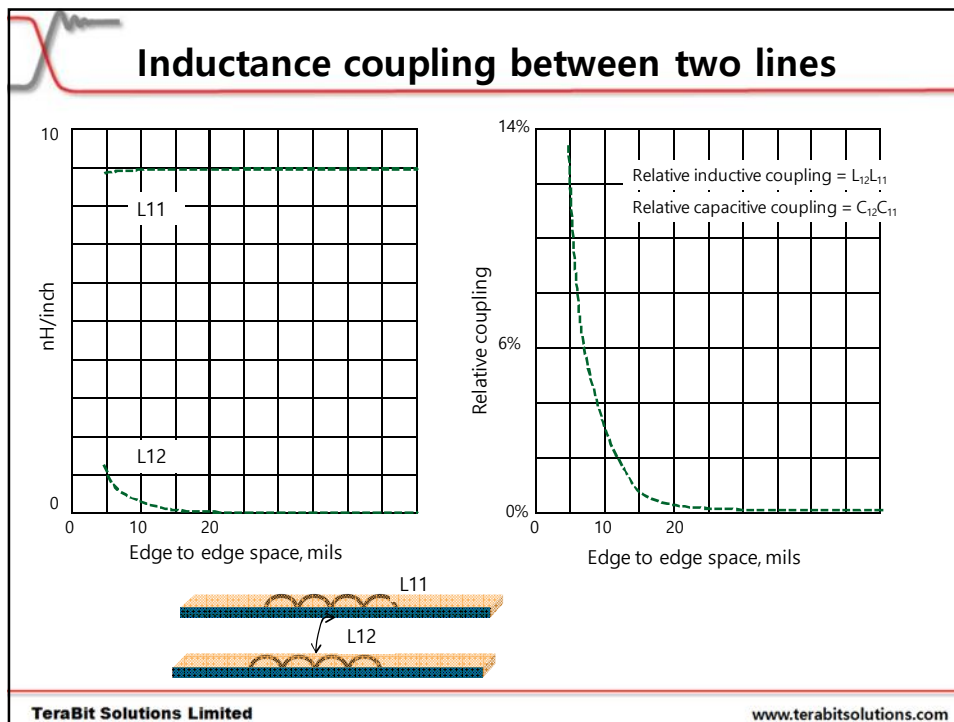
$$Z_{comm} = \frac{1}{2} (Z_{0_even} + Z_{0_even})$$



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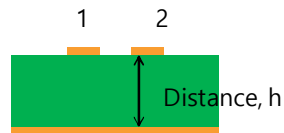




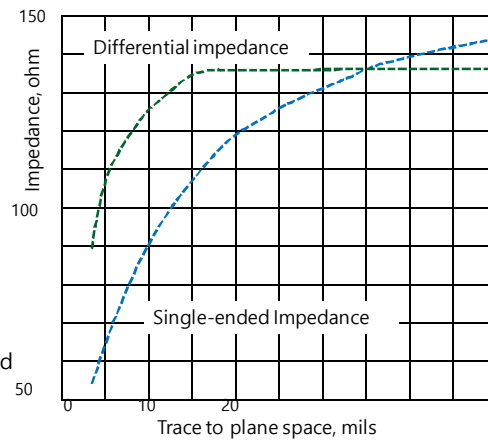
- ✓ Tightly coupled differential line
- robust to Cross talk, discontinuity in the return path, less EMI

Differential Impedance with Reference plan

Coupled Differential lines



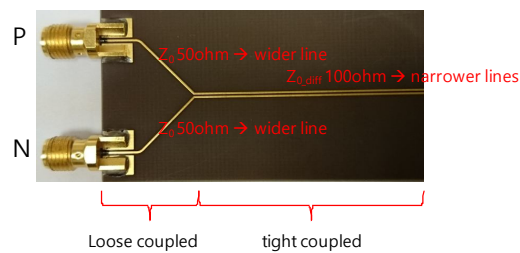
If the reference plane moves far away, return current of each traces will overlap and cancel each other as polarities are opposite. Return current of trace 1 will be carried by trace 2.



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Tight or loose coupling for differential lines?



✓ Tight coupled differential lines have advantages on;

➡ Robust to crosstalk, Board space

✓ Loose coupled differential lines have advantages on;

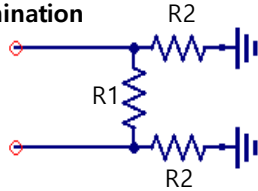
➡ Loss

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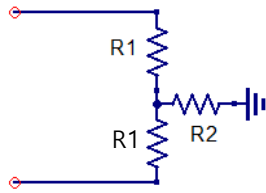
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Termination for Z_{diff} and Z_{comm}

pi termination



tee termination



$$R1 = \frac{2 Z_{even} Z_{odd}}{Z_{even} - Z_{odd}}$$

$$R2 = Z_{even}$$

$$R1 = Z_{odd}$$

$$R2 = \frac{1}{2} (Z_{even} - Z_{odd})$$

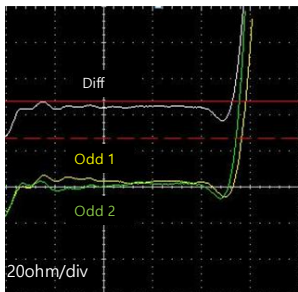
✓ Is terminating the common signal going to eliminate the common signal?

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Example of TDR Analysis on Diff Traces

- ✓ Impedance unbalance
- ✓ Skew

- ✓ Differential signal Distortion
- ✓ Common mode noise



Makes



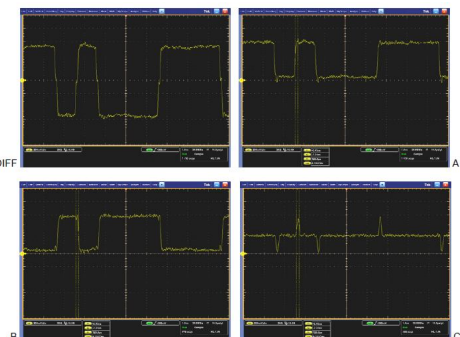


Figure 8. Differential signal example with excess time delay between the positive and negative inputs.

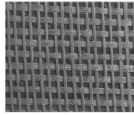
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Glass Weave induced Skew

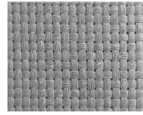
Glass weave effect of FR4 on differential impedance

Unbalance and Skew in differential pairs

Pitch ~17x21mil



1080



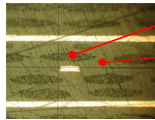
2116

Pitch ~23x31mil



7628

<Typical laminate weaves>



<5mil trace>

Higher Dk (5.6) for E-glass
Lower Dk (3.2) for FR4 epoxy

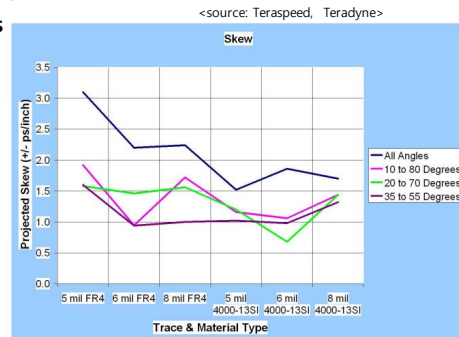


Figure 11: Projected Skew vs. Trace Routing Angle, Trace Width & Material Type

How to reduce the risk of weave induced skew

- ✓Wider traces
- ✓Zig-zag routing (45°)
- ✓Use lower Dk glass
- ✓Match diff pitch to weave pitch: eg. 8/8/8mil for 17mil weave

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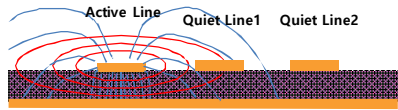
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Crosstalk

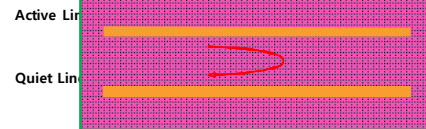
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Cause of Crosstalk



Electric Field Lines
Magnetic Field Lines in Microstrip



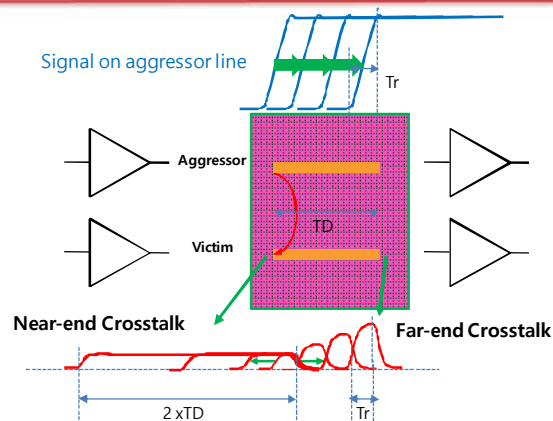
Capacitive coupling from Electric field → Mutual Capacitance (C_m)

Inductive coupling from Magnetic field → Mutual Inductance (L_m)

$$I_{\text{noise, } C_m} = C_m \times \frac{dV_{\text{driver}}}{dt}$$

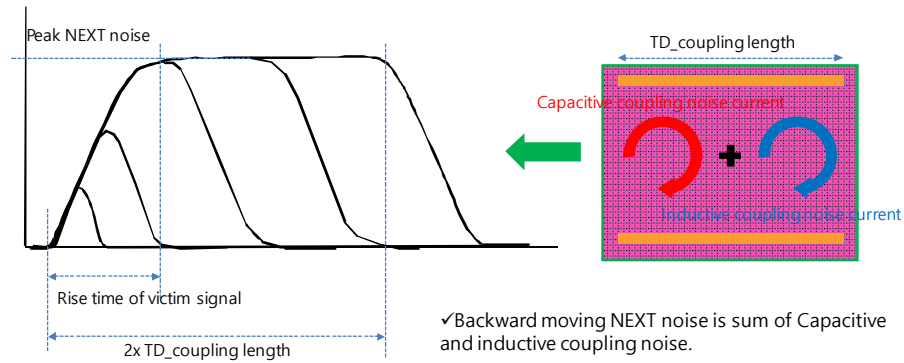
$$V_{\text{noise, } L_m} = L_m \times \frac{dI_{\text{driver}}}{dt}$$

Near and Far end Crosstalk



Crosstalk induced noise on victim line can affect on the signal integrity at near-end and far-end.

Near-end Crosstalk (NEXT)



✓Peak NEXT noise is independent with the rise time when $2 \times \text{TD}$ is longer than the rise time.

✓Backward moving NEXT noise is sum of Capacitive and inductive coupling noise.

✓With same polarity with aggressor Signal

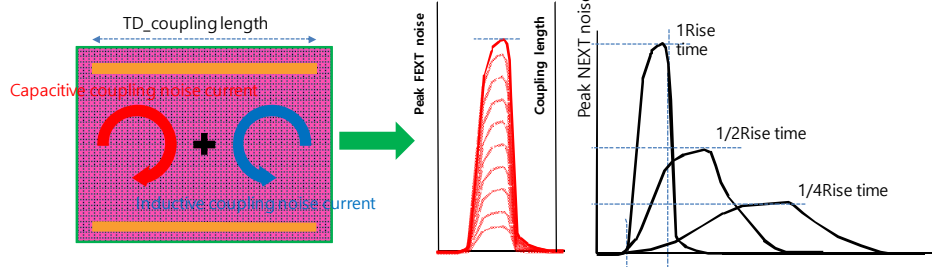
$$\text{NEXT} = \frac{V_b}{V_a} = k_b$$

V_a = Voltage of aggressor
 V_b = Voltage noise in the backward
 k_b = Backward coefficient

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Far-end Crosstalk (FEXT)



✓As inductive coupling current has opposite direction with signal current, forward moving FEXT noise is difference between Capacitive and inductive coupling noise.

✓If capacitive coupling is larger than inductive coupling, the polarity is same with aggressor Signal.

✓If inductive coupling is larger than capacitive coupling, the polarity is opposite to aggressor signal.

✓The Peak FEXT noise scales with the coupling length.

✓ dV/dt and dI/dt generate coupling noise

✓As the rise time increases, the width of noise increases and the peak of noise decreases.

$$\text{FEXT} = \frac{V_f}{V_a} = \frac{\text{TD}}{\text{Tr}} \times v \times k_f$$

V_a = Voltage of aggressor

V_f = Voltage noise in the forward

v = velocity of the signal

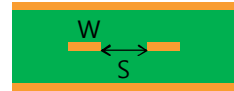
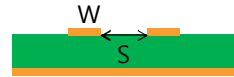
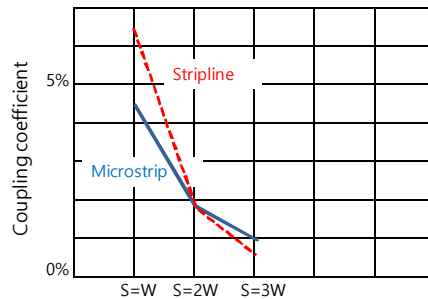
k_f = FE coupling coefficient

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Coupling

Example of coupling coefficient

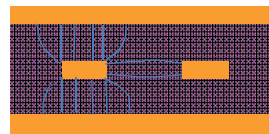
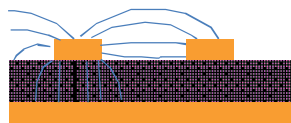


Coupling decreases exponentially with the distance of two lines.



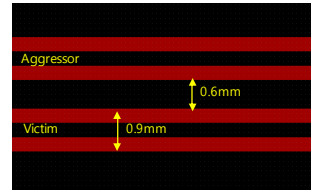
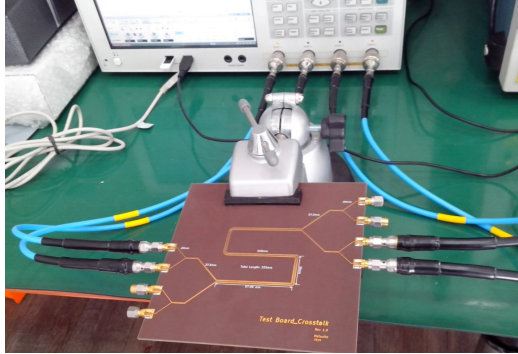
Space $\geq 3 \times$ Width, it's $< 1\%$.

Crosstalk trend in Microstrip and Stripline



- ✓ Stripline builds stronger coupling with reference planes than microstrip
- ✓ It exhibits less coupling to adjacent lines \rightarrow less crosstalk
- ✓ For stripline, mutual capacitance and mutual inductance are more balanced.
- ✓ It makes less far-end crosstalk noise.
- ✓ Thick solder mask on microstrip or embedded microstrip can reduce crosstalk.
- ✓ Strong coupling with reference plans makes more capacitance and lower impedance.
- ✓ Lower impedance exhibit less coupling to adjacent lines.

Xtalk measurement



Two tightly coupled differential lines, 0.3x0.3x0.3mm
Space between differential lines: 0.6mm

Coupled lines length: 220mm (8.67inch)
Total length: 333mm (13.1inch)

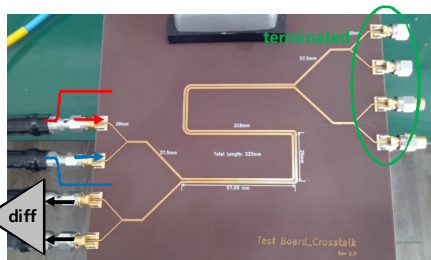
<The setup for Far-end Crosstalk measurement, differential>

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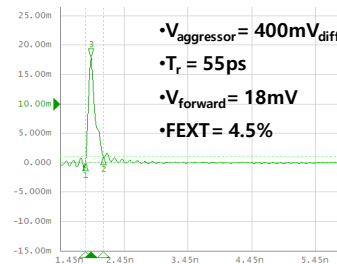
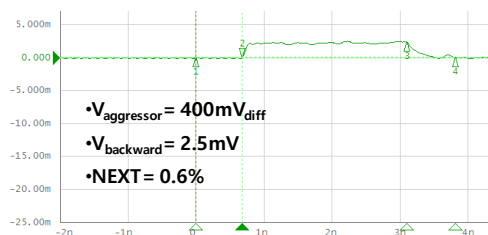
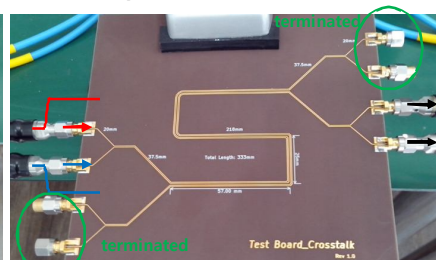
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Crosstalk Measurement

Setup for NEXT measurement



Setup for FEXT measurement

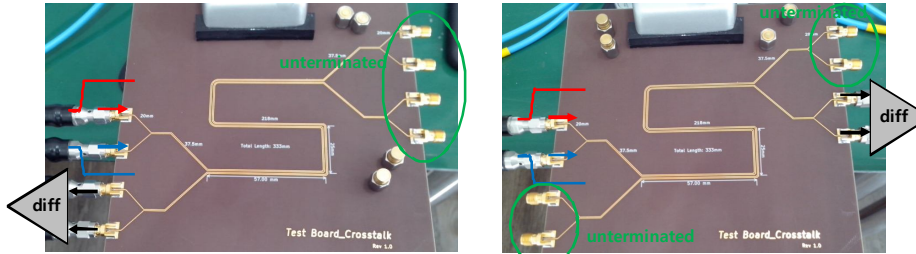


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Crosstalk Measurement

Setup for NEXT measurement- un-terminated Setup for FEXT measurement- un-terminated



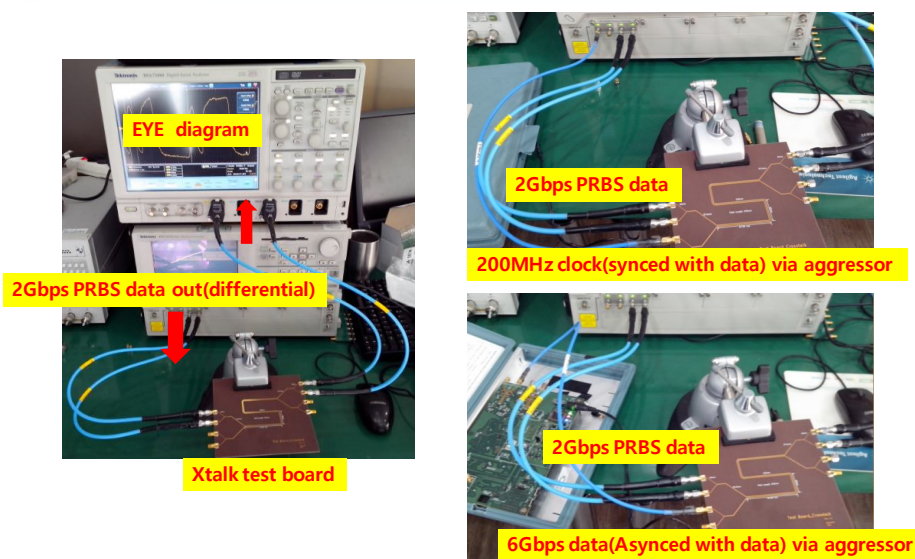
Additional noise from the multi reflection from un-terminated ports



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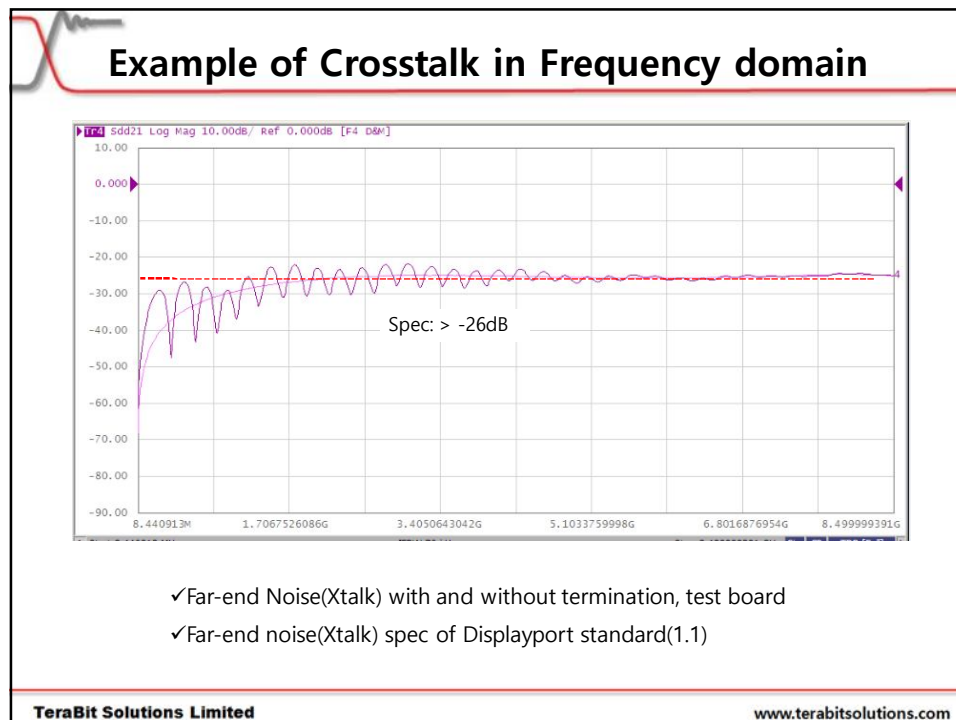
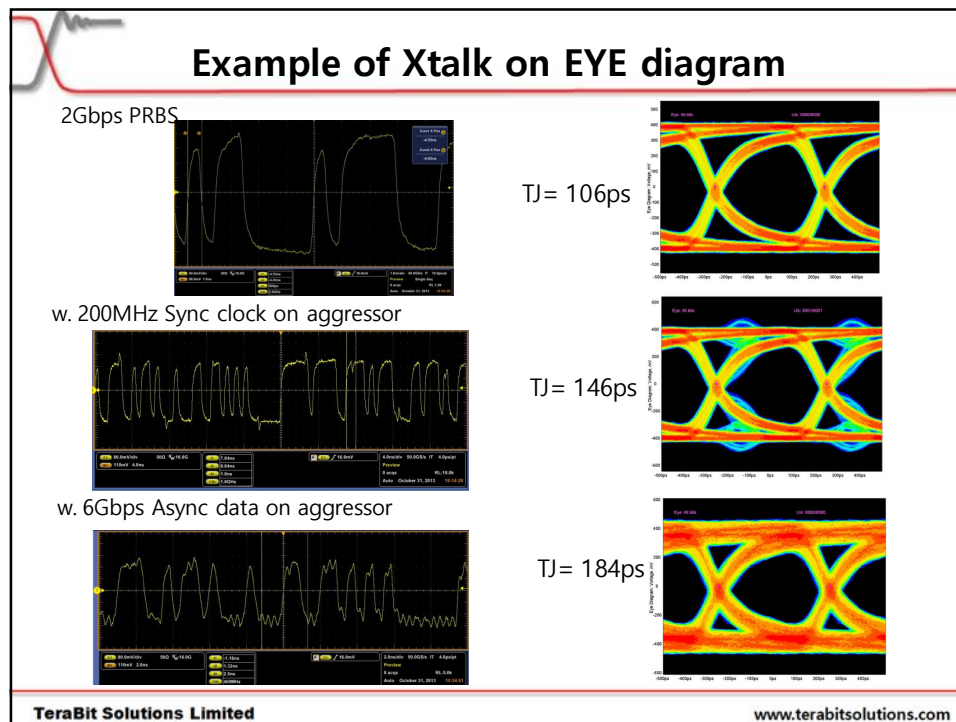
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FEXT effect on EYE diagram



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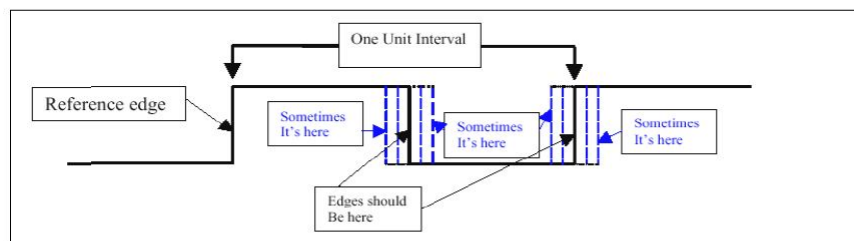
Fundamental of EYE diagram and Jitter

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What is the Jitter ?

- What is jitter?
 - “The deviation of an edge from where it should be”
 - *ITU Definition of Jitter: “Short-term variations of the significant instants of a digital signal from their ideal positions in time”*



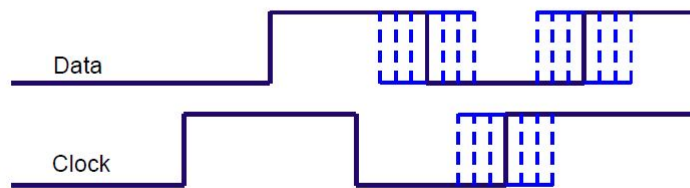
Jitter is a major signal integrity problem at high speed data rates

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Why Do We Care about Jitter

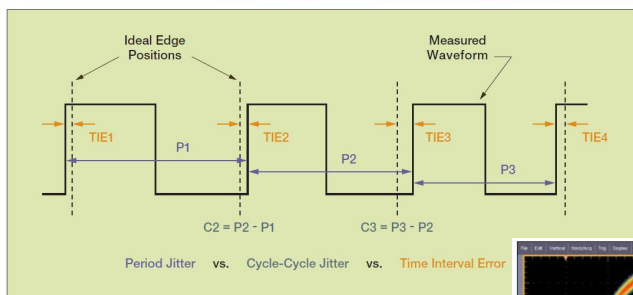
- Simply put, too much jitter causes errors.



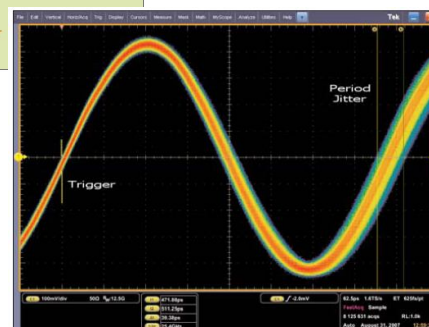
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Jitter Concept and Terms



- ✓Period Jitter (PJ)
- ✓Cycle to Cycle Jitter(CCJ)
- ✓Time Interval Error(TIE)

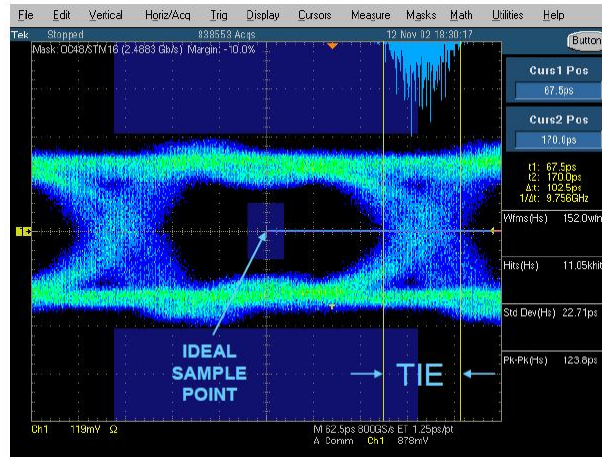


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Time Interval Error (TIE)

✓Jitter showed in EYE diagram is TIE

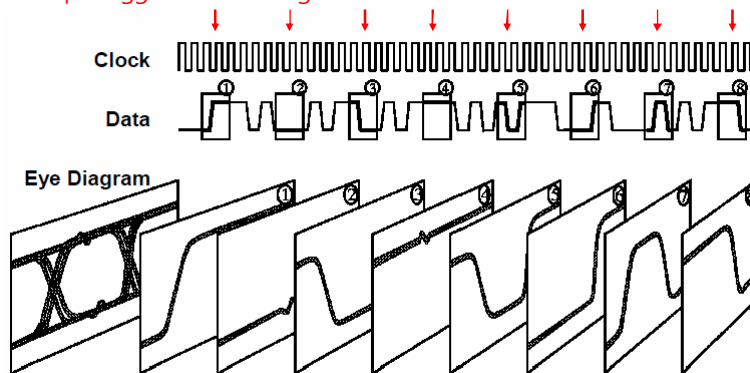


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Construction of EYE diagram_method 1

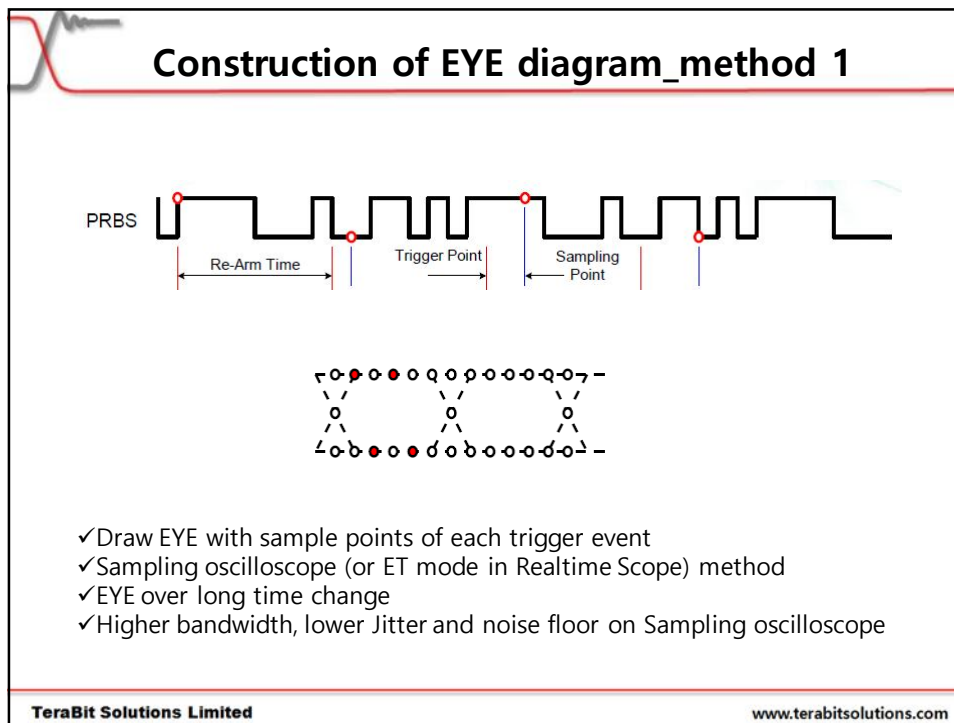
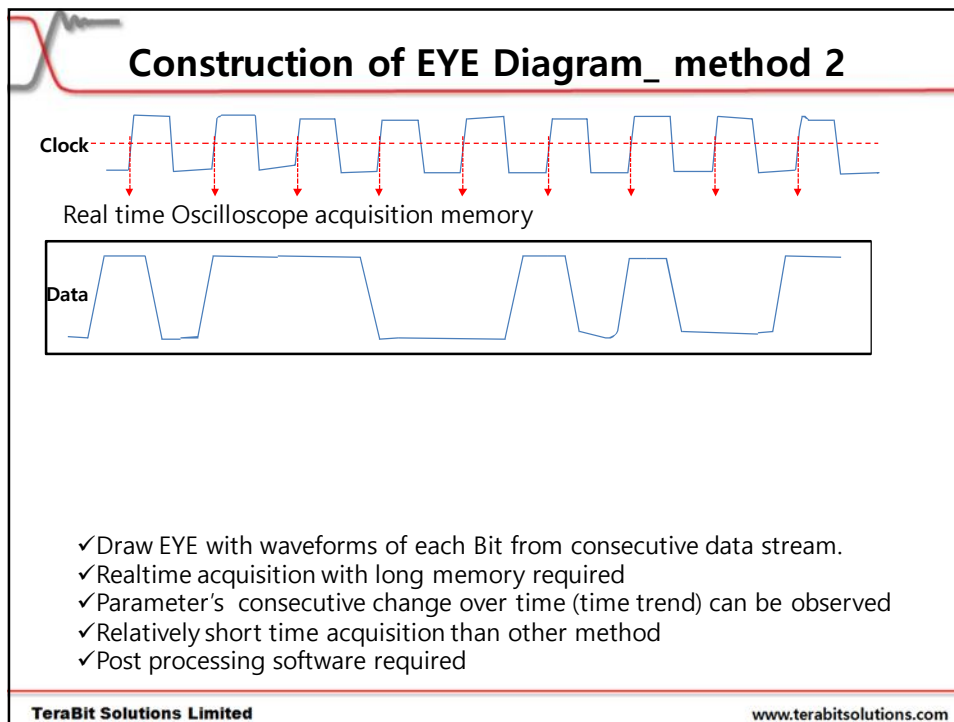
Oscilloscope trigger at clock edges



- ✓Draw EYE with each 1 UI(bit) waveforms of realtime oscilloscope's each acquisition
- ✓Two channel for clock and data acquisition
- ✓EYE with Long term monitoring or desired amount of UIs

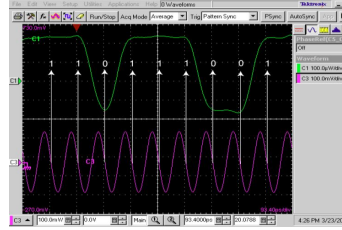
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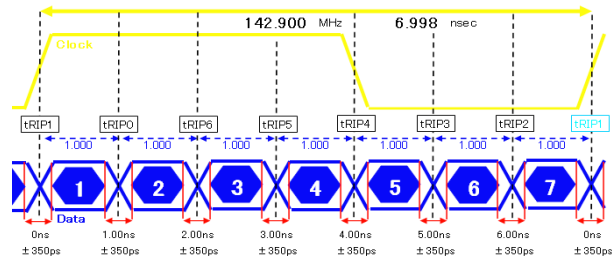


Reference Timing (Ideal Edge Position) for EYE/Jitter

✓ Clock signal



✓ Explicit Edge
(e.g. LVDS, TMDs)



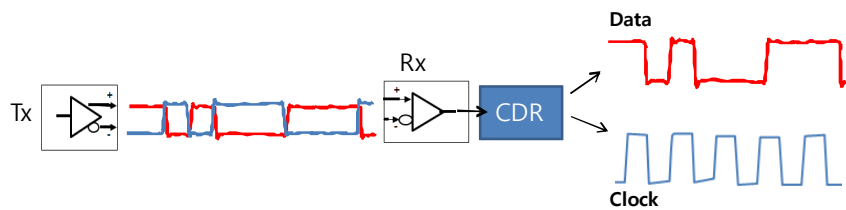
✓ Suppose Constant Clock

✓ Clock recovery (Embedded clock on serial data)

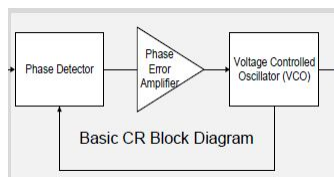
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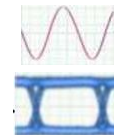
Clock Recovery _ Embedded clock



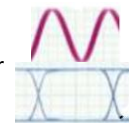
Clock Recovery and PLL Loop BW



When PLL Loop BW is narrow
→ recovered clock has low jitter
→ Measured data jitter is high



When PLL Loop BW is wide
→ recovered clock has high jitter
→ Measured data jitter is low

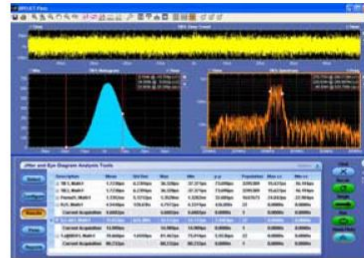


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Many Jitter Terms

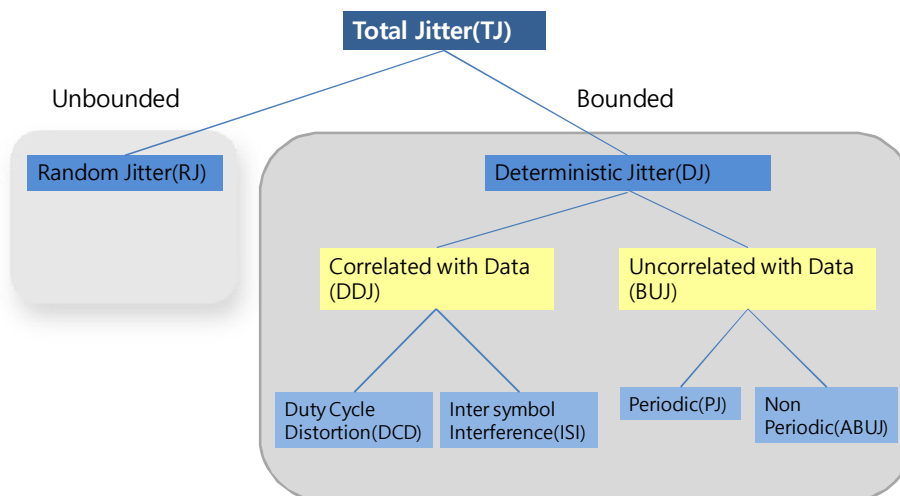
- Random Jitter (RJ)
- Deterministic Jitter (DJ)
 - Periodic Jitter (PJ)
 - Sinusoidal Jitter (SJ)
 - Duty Cycle Distortion (DCD)
 - Data-Dependent Jitter (DDJ)
 - Inter-Symbol Interference (ISI)
- Total Jitter ~ (TJ or TJ@BER)
- Bit Error Rate (BER)
- Eye Width @BER
 - versus Actual or Observed Eye Width



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Jitter Decomposition

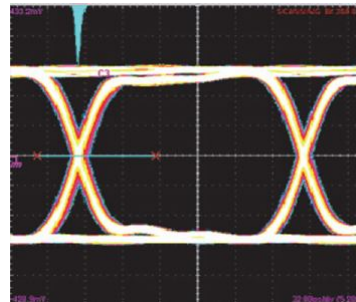
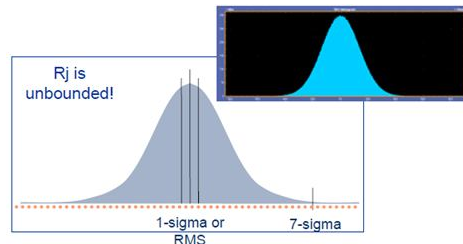


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Random Jitter

- ✓Uncorrelated with data pattern
- ✓Unbounded, Increase with bit amount
- ✓ Measured in RMS



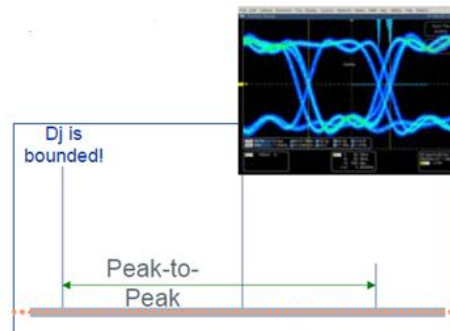
- ✓Common source:
Thermal noise, PLL of Tx, Noise of retiming in Tx

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Deterministic Jitter (DJ)

- ✓Repeatable, Predictable
- ✓Bounded
- ✓Correlated with data or Uncorrelated with data



✓DJ component

- PJ / SJ : Periodic Jitter
- DDJ / ISI : Data Dependant Jitter / Inter Symbol Interference
- DCD: Duty Cycle Distortion
- ABUJ: Asyncnd Boundary Uncorrelated Jitter

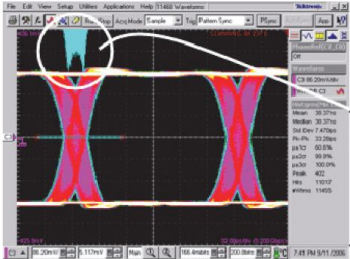
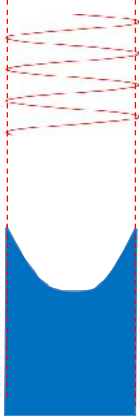
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Deterministic Jitter

- PJ/SJ (Periodic Jitter/Sinusoidal Jitter)

- ✓ Uncorrelated, Bounded
- ✓ PJ includes any jitter at a fixed frequency/period.
- ✓ Easy to measure
- ✓ Source: Power supply noise, Crosstalk, EMI
- ✓ SJ is PJ at just one frequency

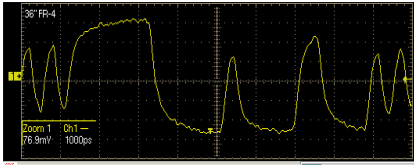
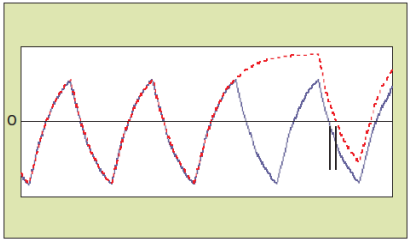



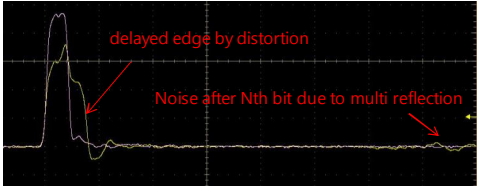
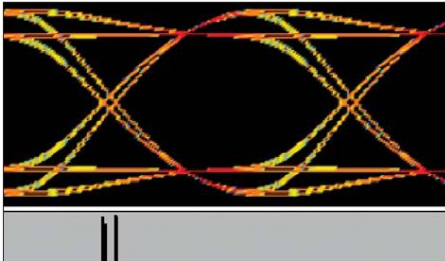
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Deterministic Jitter

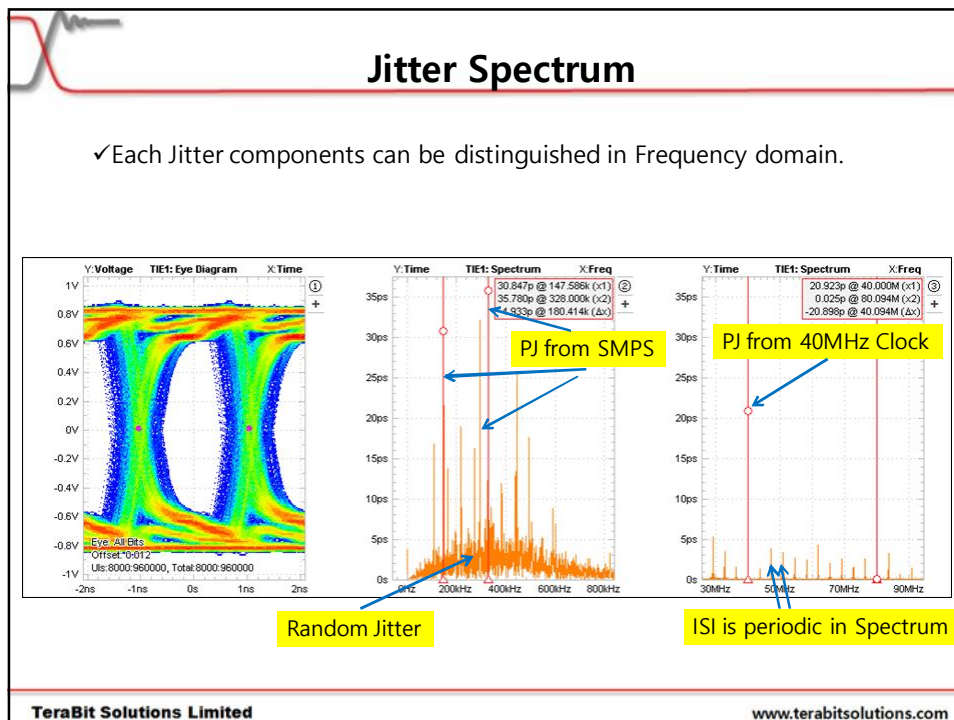
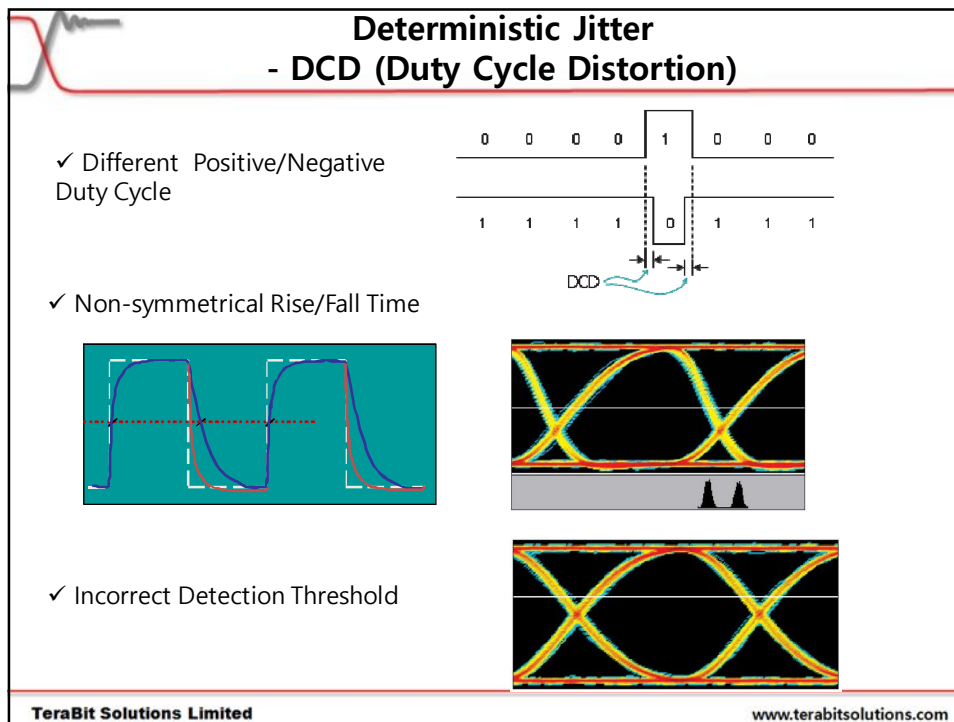
- DDJ/ISI (Data Dependant Jitter/Inter Symbol Interference)

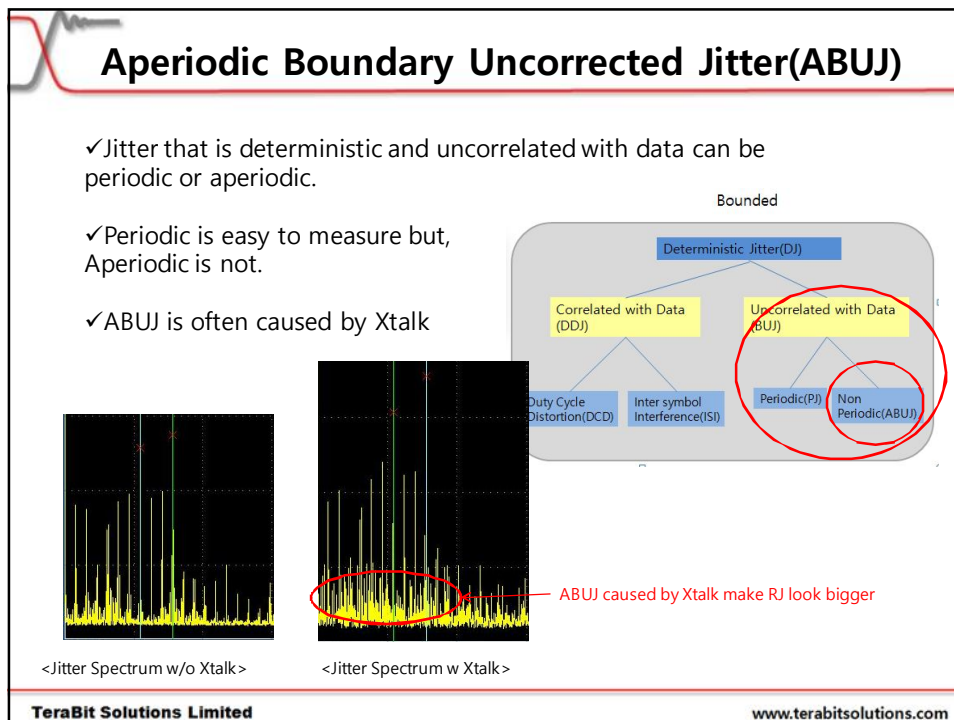
- ✓ Correlated with data pattern
- ✓ Bounded
- ✓ Source: Bandwidth limitation / Loss
- ✓ Source: Reflections

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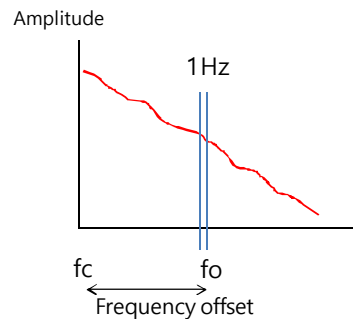
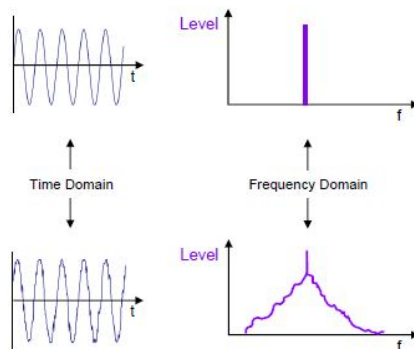
Summary of Jitter acronym

	acronym	bounded/ unbounded	correlated/ uncorrelated	periodic/ aperiodic	Example cause
Random Jitter	RJ	Unbounded	Uncorrelated	Aperiodic	Thermal noise
Deterministic Jitter	DJ	Bounded	Either	Either	Inter-Symbol Interference
Periodic Jitter	PJ	Bounded	Either	Periodic	Power supply feed-through
Sinusoidal Jitter	SJ	Bounded	Uncorrelated	Periodic	Electromagnetic interference
Data-Dependent Jitter	DDJ	Bounded	Correlated	Aperiodic	Impedance mismatch
Duty-Cycle Distortion	DCD	Bounded	Correlated	Periodic	Clock asymmetry
Inter-Symbol Interference	ISI	Bounded	Correlated	Aperiodic	Non-uniform frequency response of a transmission line
Bounded Uncorrelated Jitter	BUJ	Bounded	Uncorrelated	Aperiodic	Crosstalk

Phase Noise

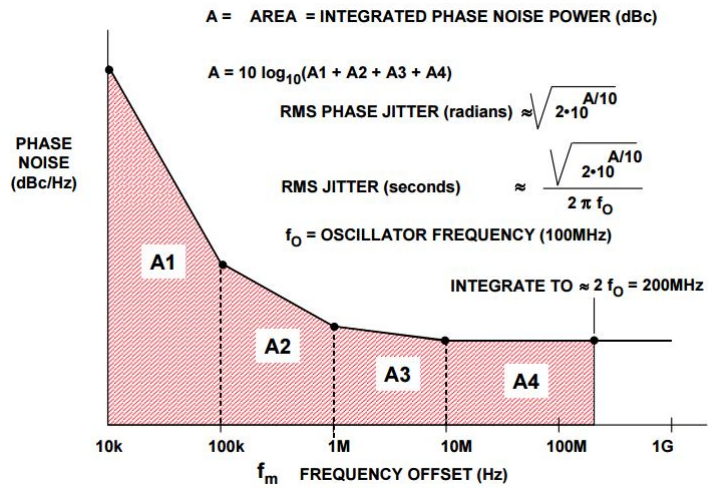
- ✓Phase noise is fluctuation on the phase of the signal
- ✓Phase noise is correlated with Jitter in time domain
- ✓Clock signal only (50% duty cycle)
- ✓Highest sensitivity (fS)

- ✓Sideband power of 1Hz Bandwidth at f_o



Phase Noise $L(f)$: dBc/Hz @ offset

Jitter from Phase Noise



<Calculation Jitter from Phase Noise, source Analog Device>

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Phase Noise Measurement Example



<source: Rohde&Schwarz>

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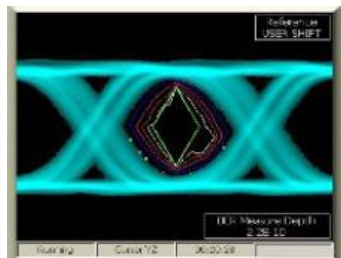
Total Jitter @ BER

✓ Total Jitter

- ✓ Estimated jitter for a large population: e.g. 10^{12} bits

✓ BER: Bit Error Rate/Ratio

- ✓ Method to describe expected or measured data stream error rate or ratio of good bits to bad bits.
- ✓ Example: In 10^{12} Bits, only one error is allowed \Rightarrow BER = 10^{-12}

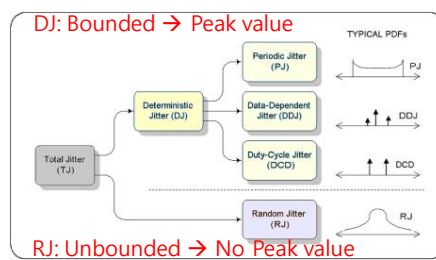


Measured EYE diagram and estimated EYE open @BER

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Total Jitter & Bathtub

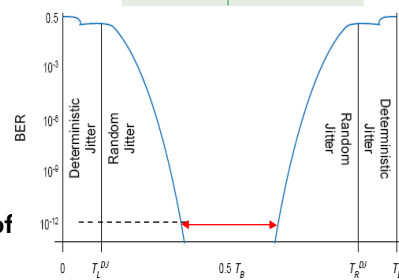


BER	Multiplier
10^{-4}	7.438
10^{-6}	9.507
10^{-7}	10.399
10^{-9}	11.996
10^{-11}	13.412
10^{-12}	14.069
10^{-13}	14.698
10^{-15}	15.883

✓ Total Jitter calculation from Dual-Dirac

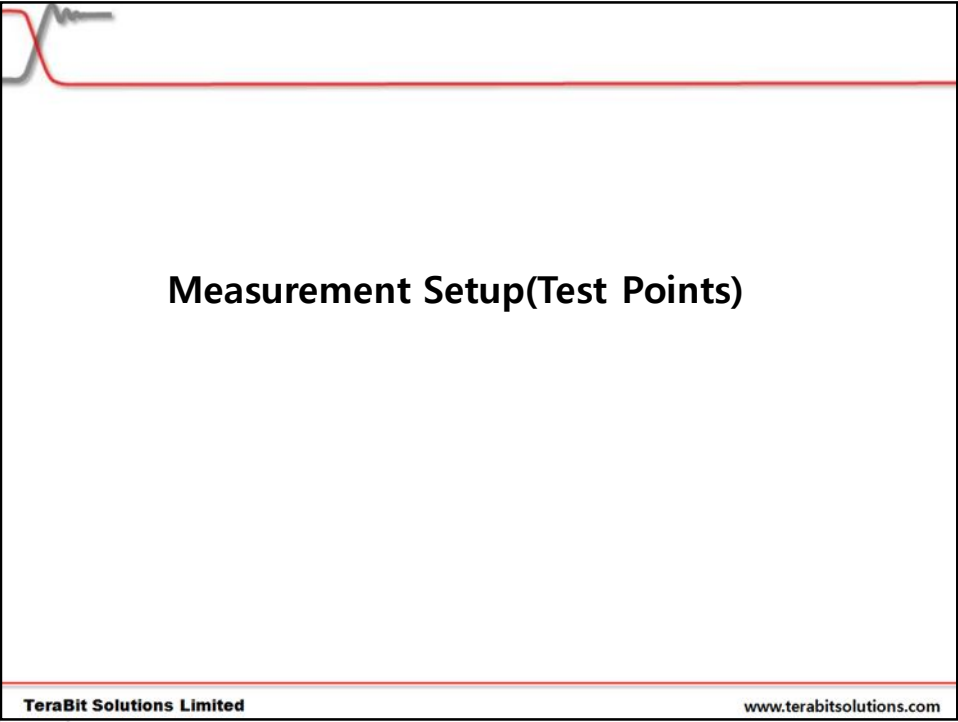
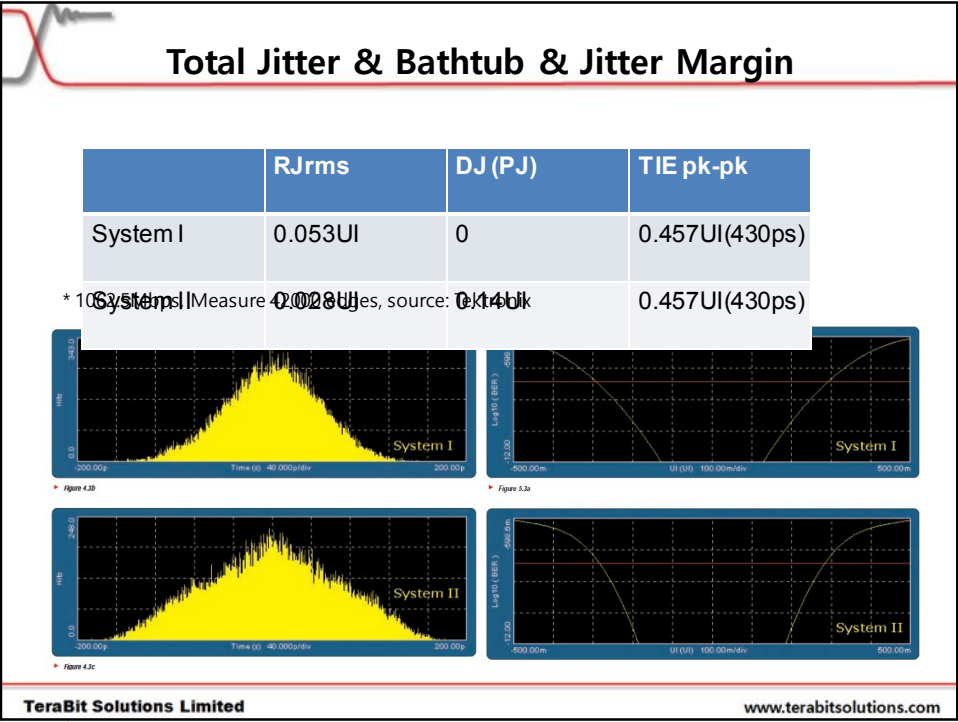
$$J_{pp}^{Total} = J_{pp}^{Random} + J_{pp}^{Deterministic} = 14\sigma + J_{pp}^{Deterministic}$$

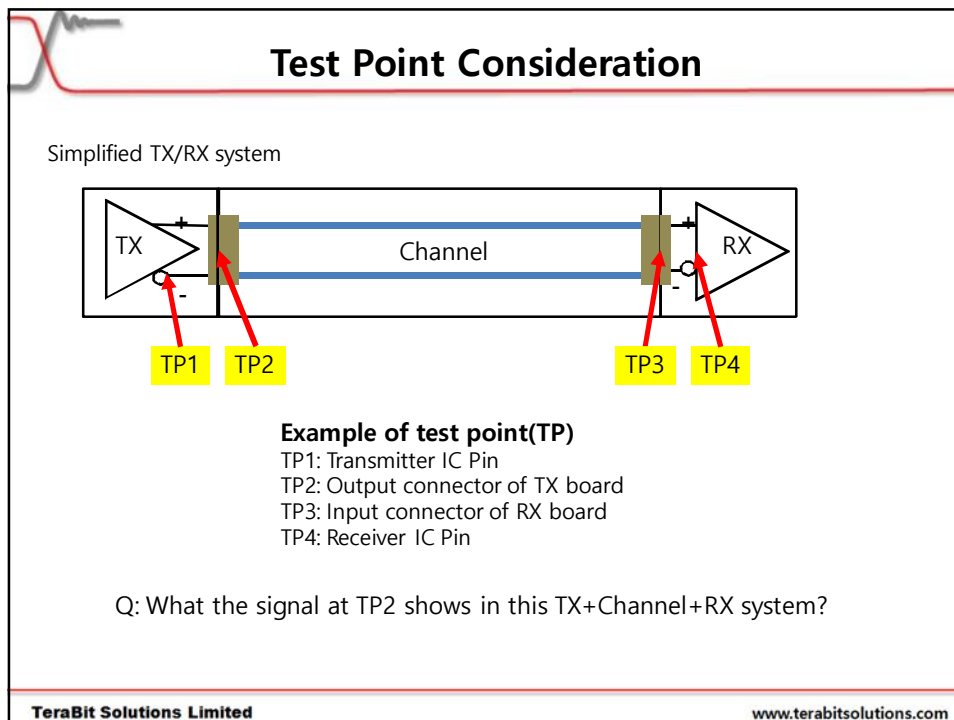
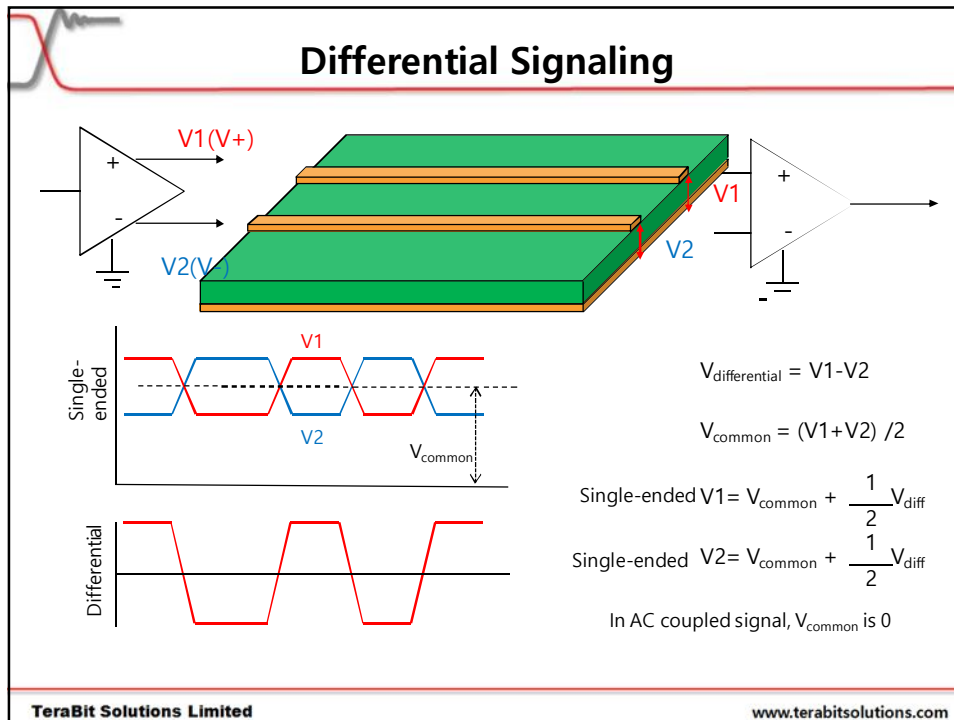
- Convert RMS to Peak-to-Peak for Specific BERs
- if 10^{-12} BER is the goal and thus a factor of 14 is used



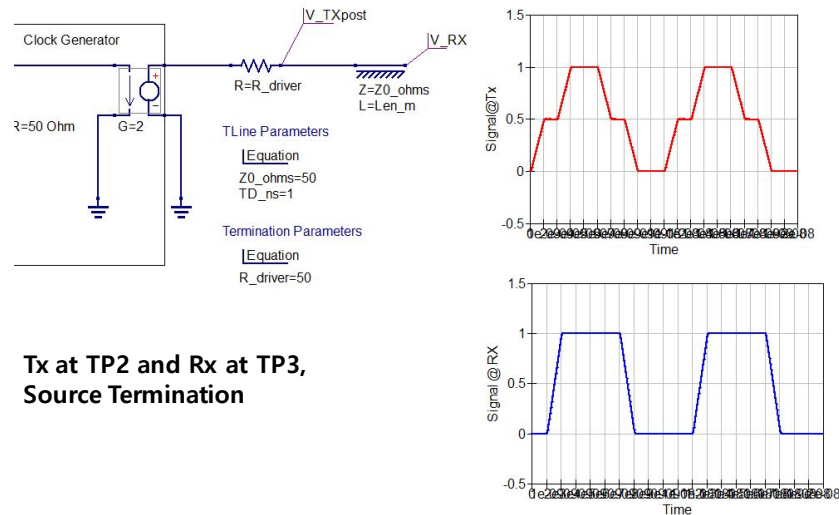
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Test Point Consideration

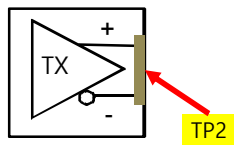


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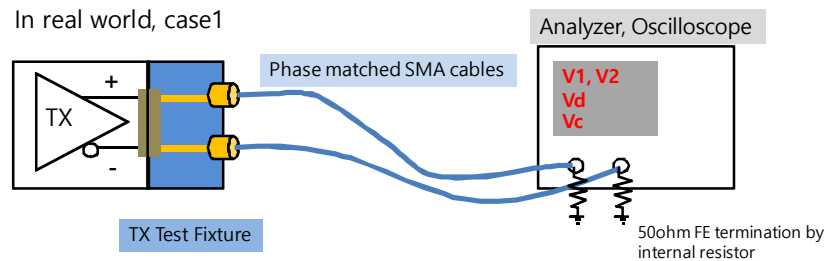
Testing the signal quality of TX

TP2 is typical for TX device testing



- ✓Jitter
- ✓EYE diagram
- ✓Skew
- ✓Differential waveform
- ✓Common mode waveform(noise)
- ✓Pre/de-emphasis
- ✓SSC

In real world, case1



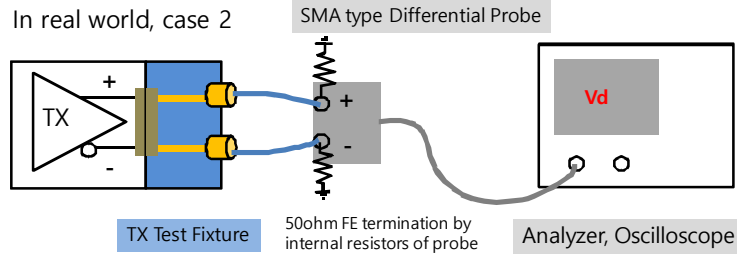
✓Loose(No) coupled differential signaling with Coaxial cables

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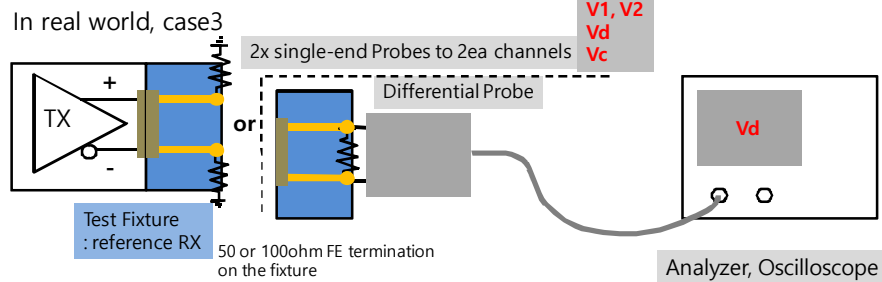
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Testing the signal quality of TX

In real world, case 2



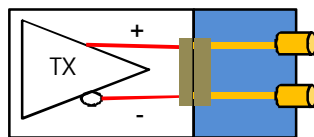
In real world, case3



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Testing the signal quality of TX



This transmission channel of PCB can affect the signal quality of TX chip.
Test this channel → de-embed this effect from the measurement : S-parameter is used(S2P, S4P)

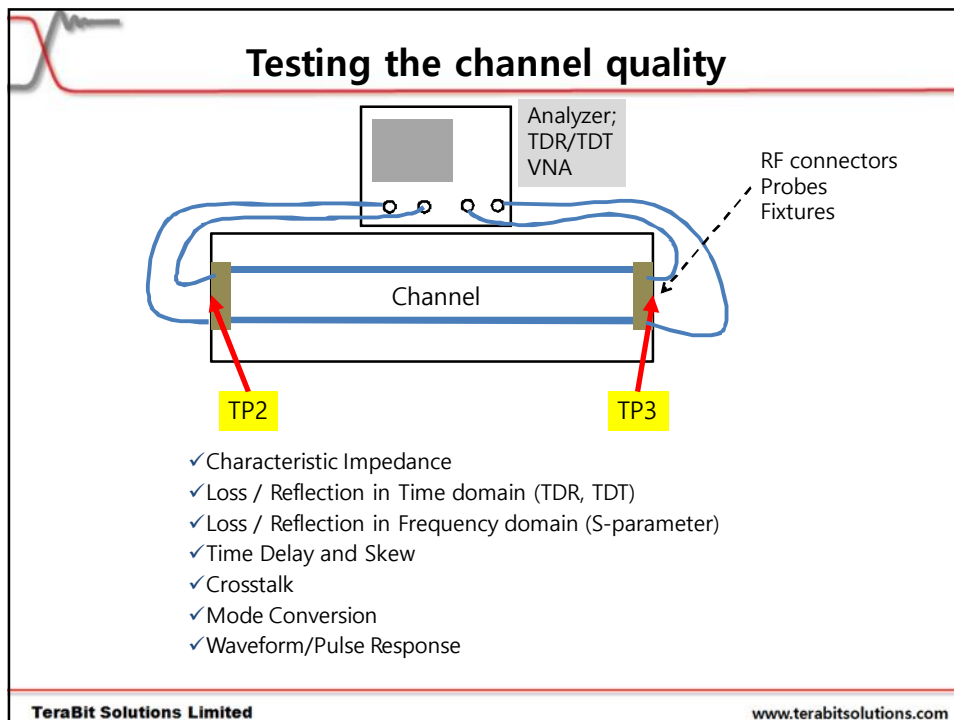
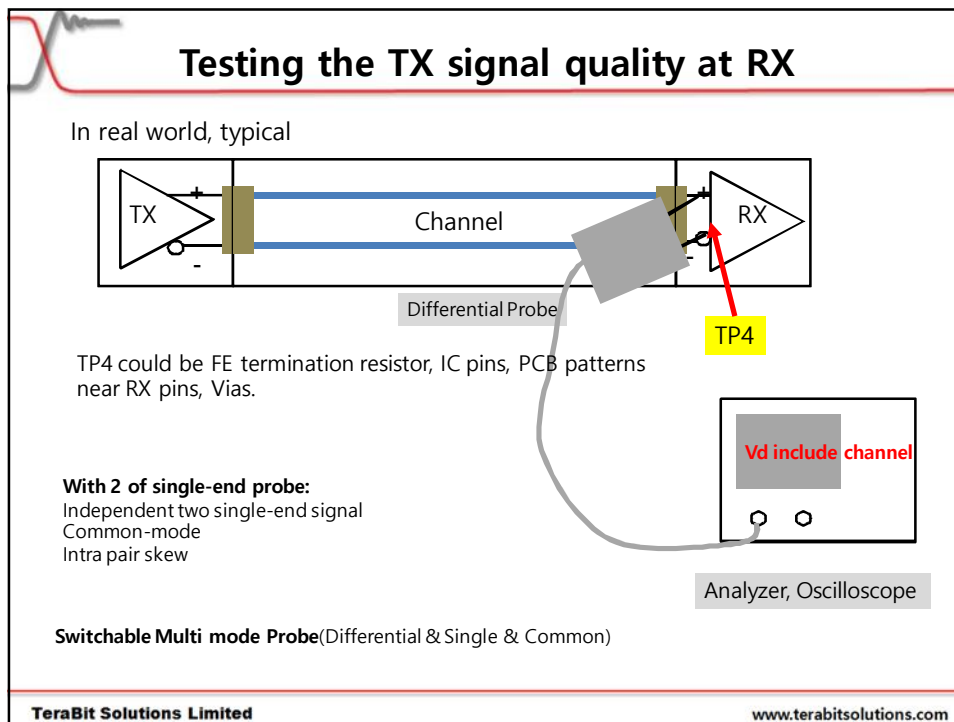


Probing on BGA pads of TX Chip. This case, Gigaprobes

Test Fixture connected to output connector. This case, SATA

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Example of Channel testing setup

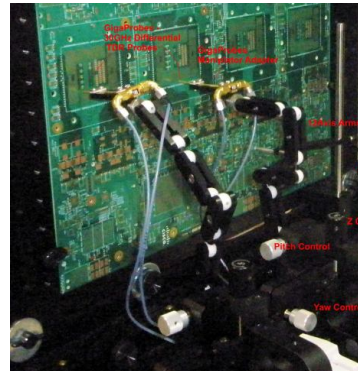
Case1, Pad to Connector
Use Probe and Fixture



Case2, Connector to Connector
Use two test Fixtures



Case3, Pad to Pad
Use two probes



Case4, RF connector to RF connector
Use RF connectors



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Q & A

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