

The intricacies of signal integrity in high-speed communications

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Introduction

As communication rates continue to increase, data is being moved within systems at ever higher speeds, which leads to issues with how engineers design equipment and printed circuit boards (PCBs). In the past 15 years, the industry has seen interconnection speeds increase from 1 Gbps to over 28 Gbps. Modern processors may have over 100 lanes of PCI Express® (PCIe), each running at 8 Gbps. The amount of raw throughput of systems today dwarfs the throughput of just 10 years ago. Back then, signaling rates were slow enough so that signal integrity was somewhat unaffected by passive interconnections. Today, that is no longer true. In most cases, transmission lines are now absolutely part of the circuit.

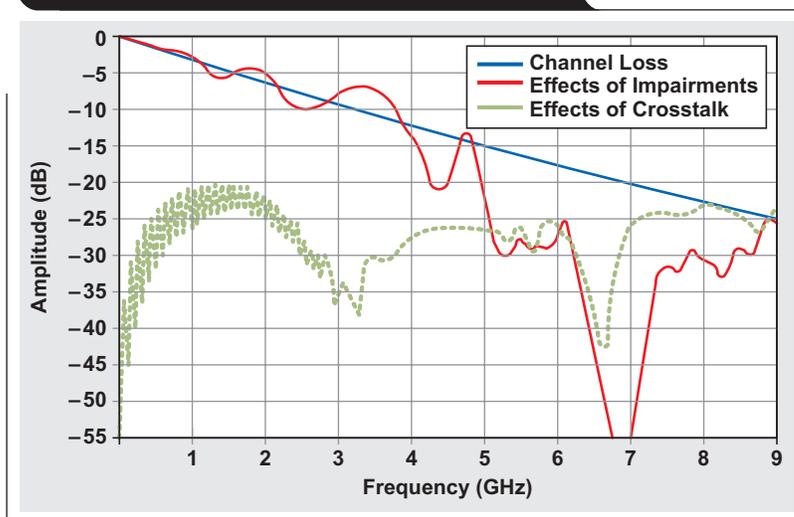
Many engineers have never had to consider what happens to the signals routed between integrated circuits. It was more of a challenge of cabling between systems, which may have required physical layer devices or special wiring. With field-programmable gate arrays (FPGAs) having increased capability and processors routinely using very high-speed interface standards such as PCIe, the system design must take into account the effects of PCB materials, transmission line design and connectors.

With the ever increasing speed of communications, the need to understand the effects caused by board layout, connectors and other parasitics is more important than ever. This article addresses the issues with high-speed signals and how to mitigate problems through proper component selection and board layout. Included in the discussion are standards such as SAS, SATA and Ethernet, as well as data converter interfaces such as JESD204B and other high-speed standards.

Signal integrity basics

All signals transmitted through a medium such as a PCB trace or coaxial cable are affected by various physical phenomena. As the signal's frequency content increases, these effects become more significant. For example, board capacitance, which is nominally very low (in the picofarad range), has little to no effect on low-frequency signals. But as the frequency increases, this capacitance begins to form a path to other signals or ground planes on the PCB. Other effects include impedance changes that cause reflections. These reflections affect the transmitted signal

Figure 1. Example signals showing various transmission-line effects



amplitude in ways that can appear random, but are actually deterministic.

At the highest level, loss of signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) directly affects the channel's capacity to carry information. Equation 1 shows this capacity relationship as presented by the Shannon-Hartley theorem. As SNR declines, channel capacity also declines. So anything that degrades the signal (assuming the channel noise remains constant) affects the channel's ability to carry information error free.

$$C = BW \times \text{LOG}_2 \left(1 + \frac{S}{N} \right) \quad (1)$$

where C is the channel capacity in bits per second, BW is the bandwidth of the channel in Hertz, S is the average signal power, and N is the average noise power.

Transmission loss is caused by a combination of things (Figure 1). These effects include linear loss (blue line), impedance discontinuities such as connectors or vias that cause peaks and valleys on the linear-loss line (red line), as well as coupling between signals known as crosstalk. All of these effects contribute to the channel insertion loss, also known as S21 or S12 scattering parameters. The most dominant loss is the bandwidth limitation of the PCB traces or cables.

Further, this bandwidth limitation is a function of the dielectric loss, which is directly proportional to frequency, and the skin effect, which is proportional to the square-root of the frequency. Skin loss is a phenomenon where

the higher-frequency current flows on the outside of the conductor. This causes the effective resistance to increase with frequency. Additionally, the dielectric loss of the insulating material varies with frequency, thus adding complexity to the actual absorption characteristics.

To solve the insertion-loss issue, designers have several choices. The first and most straight forward is to select a low-loss, high-performance dielectric material for their PCB. Examples of high-performance materials are NY9000 or MEGTRON 7, which have excellent loss characteristics. These materials are polytetrafluoroethylene-based (for example, Teflon[®]) with extremely low loss, but are fairly expensive and may have limited availability from fabricators. Lower-cost alternatives will require some understanding of the channel characteristics to make the best selection.

Alternatives to expensive dielectric materials are to use active equalization on the receiver side or the addition of pre-distortion (also known as emphasis) to the transmitted signal to compensate for the linear loss. In effect, both circuits boost the high-frequency components of the signal that are absorbed by the transmission line, which results in a somewhat flat response in the required bandwidth. These devices are often protocol/physical-layer dependent, such as the DS80PCI402, which is specifically engineered to equalize PCIe (gen 3) channels.

Another effect that can degrade a channel is jitter, or the uncertainty of when the crossing point of the signal's bit state will occur at the receiver. In an ideal transmission line, there would be no impedance discontinuities to create reflections. In reality, the slightest imperfection in the PCB or simply routing a transmission line across an isolation boundary will result in discontinuities and reflections. These imperfections add up as the signal propagates down the transmission line before it reaches either a terminated receiver or a connector. Connectors are notorious for issues with mismatching impedances simply due to the mechanical structure and how it interfaces to the transmission lines.

Jitter effects can be divided into two major categories: deterministic and random. Deterministic jitter is further divided into periodic jitter, data-dependent jitter, and bounded uncorrelated jitter. Periodic jitter is caused by things such as switching power supplies and clocks leaking into the signal. Data-dependent jitter is caused by sources such as inter-symbol interference (ISI) or duty-cycle

distortion (DCD), which affects when the receiver detects the state of the bit. Bounded uncorrelated jitter is a function of mostly layout where channels are placed close to one another. This is also called crosstalk and occurs when an aggressor signal leaks into a victim channel. All of these types of jitter can be corrected mostly through either equalization at the receiver, pre-distortion at the driver, or a combination of both.

Random jitter caused by various effects such as thermal noise will continue to increase within a given sample time, also referred to as “unbounded” jitter. Random jitter becomes an issue as transmission rates increase where the period of each bit, also known as the unit interval (UI), decreases, which allows less time for a bit to stabilize. Equalization cannot remove this type of jitter and, if severe enough, will require a re-timer device such as the DS100RT410 designed for 10-Gbps Ethernet to “re-clock” the data. The effect of re-clocking removes all jitter with a slight penalty in delay through the device. Re-clockers cannot be used on protocols such as serial AT attachment (SATA) or serial attached SCSI (SAS) where out-of-band (OoB) signaling is used to train the channel drivers and receivers (more on this later).

Protocol dependencies

With the introduction of serialized physical layers and protocols, standards have emerged that simplify system interoperability. Most serialized standards include the physical-layer electrical properties. It may be based on other standards such as current-mode logic (CML) or low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS) electrical specifications. This will dictate the drivers and receivers as well as the type of termination used. Other parts of the standards include a link or transport layer with specific protocols for training the channel or synchronizing the data fields. This can affect which types of signal-integrity components can be used to improve channel performance. Some standards include the physical connectors such as small form-factor pluggable (SFP) and quad SFP (QSFP), which also dictates the interconnect's form factor.

For most high-speed interconnections, using advanced board materials or active repeaters works to improve channel performance. Some protocols, however, actively train the channel due to variability of the transmission lines. An example is PCIe, which has connectors for

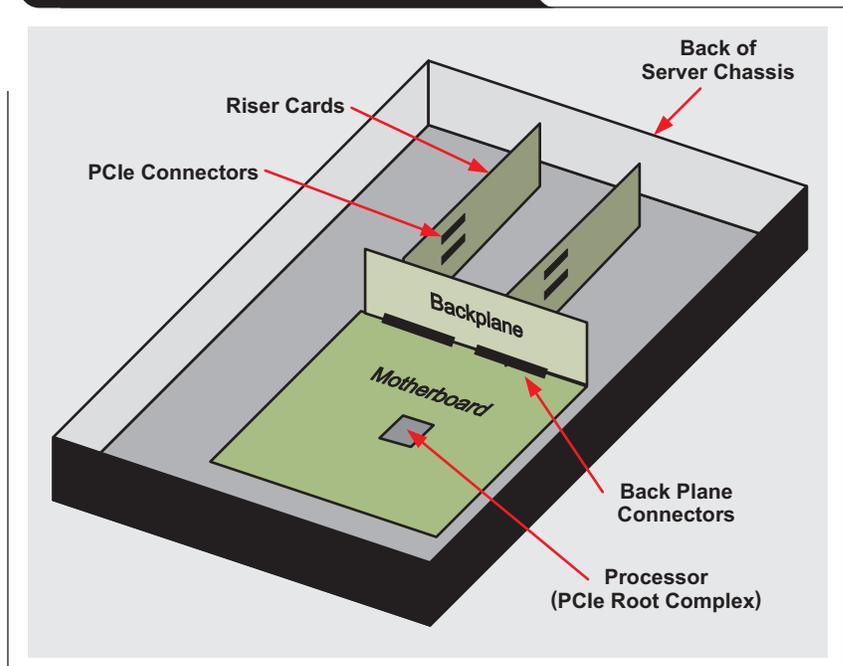
adapter cards with no knowledge of the channel characteristics until the adapter is running. For example, in a server, the communications adapter cards are normally placed at the back of the chassis along a riser card that plugs into a back-plane (Figure 2). The adapter card, known as the end node (EN), and processor side contains the root complex (RC). During initialization of each lane, the EN talks with the RC through a series of lower-frequency exchanges on the very channel that carries the high-speed data. This is referred to as out-of-band (OoB) signaling since the communication takes place at a lower rate than the normal transfer of data.

For passive channels this is not a problem, but active devices used to improve signal integrity cannot block these signals or the link will fail. For example, the DS80PCI402 allows OoB signals to pass, allowing the RC and EN to train normally. At both ends, the channel appears to have less loss.

The alternative is to completely recreate the EN and RC somewhere in the middle, effectively splitting the transmission lines into two independent PCIe channels. This method can add significant delay (30+ UIs) in each direction, resulting in a decline of performance during short bus transactions such as reading a single location in memory. Devices are available to implement this solution, however, they can also draw significant power since the device must completely recreate the root complex and end-node per PCIe lane (in both directions).

Some protocols are simpler and have no ability to train the channel dynamically. These are used in fixed point-to-point applications, such as running 10-Gbps Ethernet inside of a router to quad small-form-factor pluggable (QSFP) connectors. The length of the transmission lines are fixed and known. Issues may arise due to strict jitter specifications of optical modules that plug into these connectors. If the jitter specification cannot be met passively, then a buffer repeater can be used to adjust for the transmission loss before the connector. If this is still problematic due to excessive jitter, a re-timer can be inserted just prior to the connector at the edge of the chassis. The re-timer works in this scenario because no OoB signals are present. The great advantage of the re-timer is twofold: first it can recreate somewhat

Figure 2. Example server chassis with a back-plane and riser cards



jitter-free data at the output; and second, many re-timers include “eye” monitors that can sample the connection’s signal integrity. This could be useful on high-end routers that want to monitor the health of a channel without running bit-error rate (BER) tests, which require the connection to be taken off-line.

Protocols beyond data communications

Many interfaces such as SATA, SAS, Fiber Channel, Ethernet, PCIe and a host of others are used for storage or connectivity applications. These are all dedicated to moving bits throughout a computer or enterprise. There are, however, other interface standards such as Common Public Radio Interface (CPRI™) or JESD204B that are designed to move data between specific functions. For example, JESD204B was designed to simplify the inter-connection of high-speed analog-to-digital converters (ADCs) and digital-to-analog converters (DACs). It has both a physical layer (CML) and several protocol layers (such as link and transport layers). Each lane is designed to be “one way” with a transmitter and receiver side. That is, there are sets of lanes for the ADC side (such as ADC to digital processing element) and another set of lanes

used to transmit to a DAC (such as digital processing element to DAC) along with a set of clocks and control lines (Figure 3). Line rates for the standard have a maximum of 12.5 Gbps, but future versions (for example, revision C) will be faster, on the order of 16 to 25 Gbps.

In direct-sampling RF applications, it can be advantageous to place the data converters near the edge of the PCB, while having the FPGA or processor located closer to other digital elements. The JESD204B standard inherently does not have specifications for driver de-emphasis or receiver equalization, but implementations may have these features. If the built-in signal-integrity features are insufficient because of longer trace lengths or discontinuities, then either improved board materials or an active solution can be applied to improve channel performance.

In the case of an active solution, there are two issues to consider. First, if an application requires phase coherency across multiple data-converter devices, deterministic latency is required (or system calibration) for you to know when all information from the coherent samples has arrived at the receiver. Adding any delay in the path also delays when the receiver can release the data to the processing element, if not symmetric. The second consideration is actually a benefit in that the JESD204B standard does not require OoB signaling, so component selection can include re-timers if channel jitter is excessive.

Conclusions

As data rates continue to increase, there is a growing need for engineers to understand the impact of signal integrity in their designs. With careful material selection and layout, many of these issues can be mitigated. When cost, material availability, or path loss becomes an issue, then active solutions such as repeaters or re-timers can be employed to restore the channel's signal integrity.

References

1. "JESD204B interface," white papers, technical papers and blog series, Texas Instruments

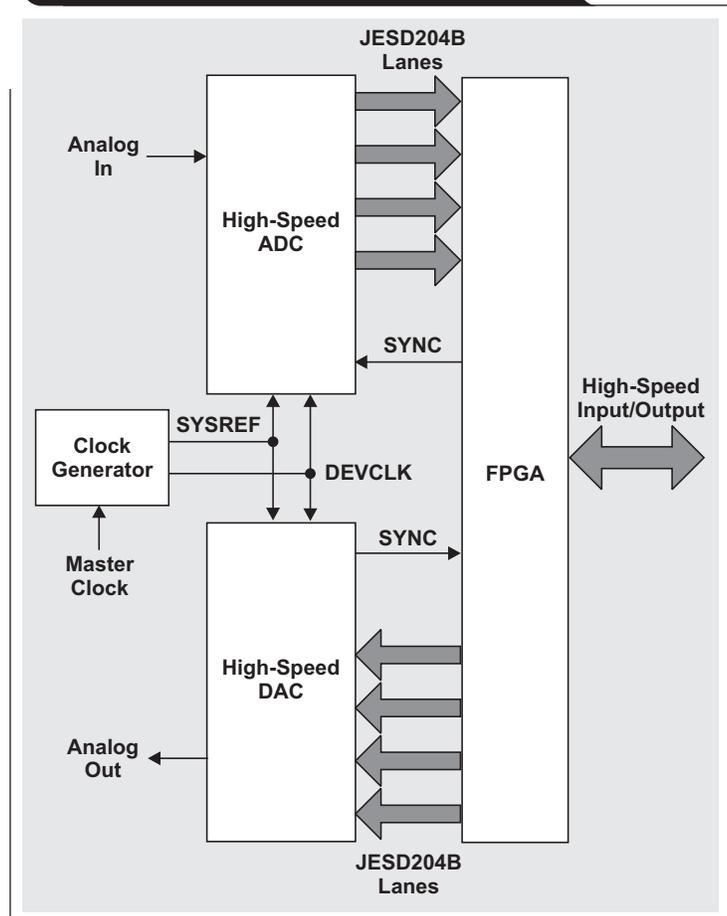
Related Web sites

Product information:

DS100RT410

DS80PCI402

Figure 3. Example JES204B system showing high-speed lanes and clocking



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