



ECE 621

Signaling & Synchronization

Fall 2020

Topic 3

TX Circuitry

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ICL

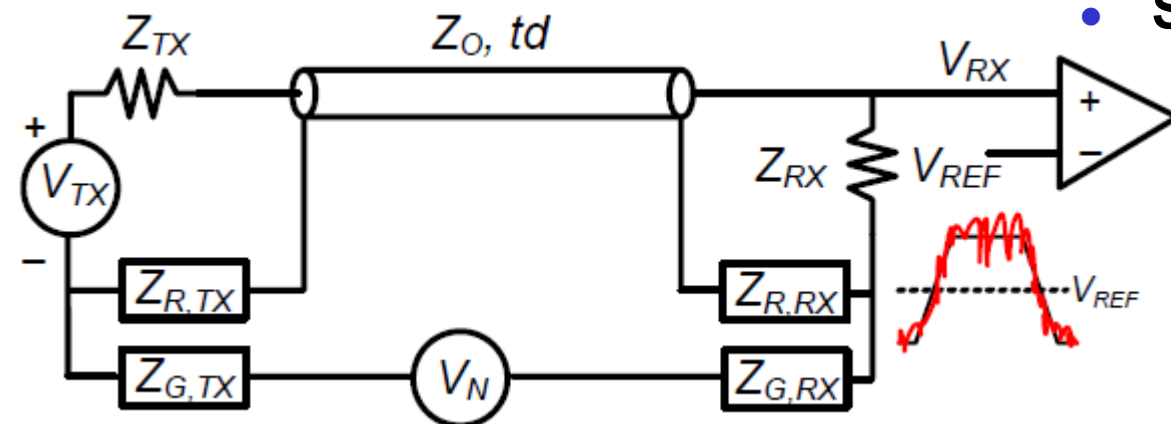
**(Courtesy of S. Pamarti – UCLA, S. Palermo – TAMU,
and E. Alon – UCB)**

Outline

- **Signaling Basics**
 - Single-ended vs. differential
 - Voltage-mode vs. current-mode
- **Termination Circuits**
 - On-Chip vs. off-chip
 - AC vs. DC coupled
 - Active vs. passive
- **TX Driver Circuits**
 - Large swing drivers
 - Small swing drivers
 - Pre-drivers
- **Multiplexing**
 - Multiplexing depth
 - Multiplexing circuits



Single-Ended Signaling



- **Sources of signal corruption**

- Return-path impedances, $Z_{R,TX}$ and $Z_{R,RX}$
- Supply coupling impedances, $Z_{G,TX}$ and $Z_{G,RX}$
- Supply mismatch and noise, V_N

- **Clean reference (V_{REF}) generation is very difficult**

- Tx and Rx grounds could be different.
- The difference, V_N , has a significant high frequency content because of supply noise generated by high speed switching.

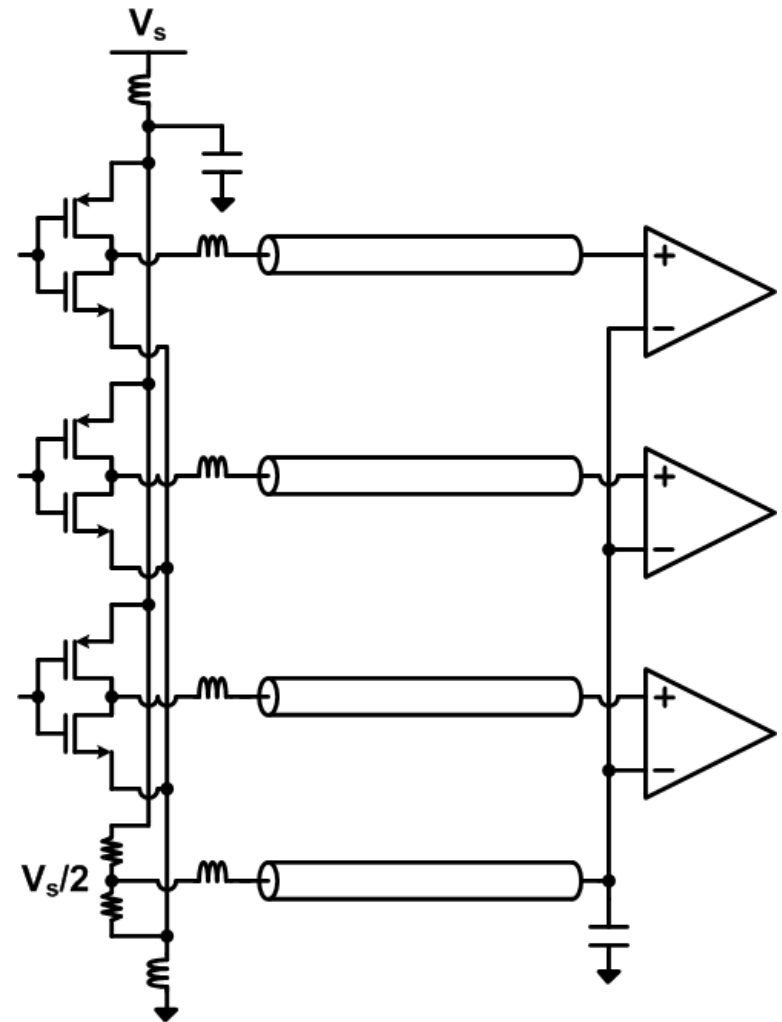
- **We can use an additional line to send the reference signal**

- Matching becomes a problem.



SE Signaling for Multiple Links

- **Finite supply impedance causes significant Simultaneous Switching Output (SSO) noise.**
 - Imagine many TXs switching at the same time
- **Necessitates large amounts of decoupling capacitance for supplies and reference voltage**
 - Decap limits I/O area more than circuitry
- **Is it still used? Why?**

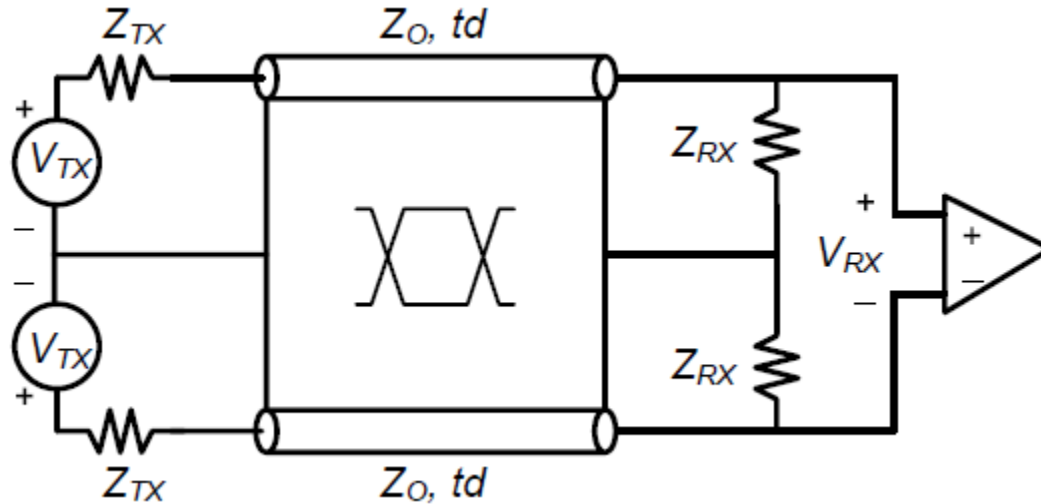


Classic Debate

- **Area constraints mandates single ended.**
- **“Differential must be twice as fast as single ended in order to win”**
- **Reality more complicated**
 - Ex: SSO mandates the use of more ground and supply pins for SE
 - i.e. higher supply to signaling pin ratio in SE
- **Differential is a lot easier to build and get right the first time.**
- **SE can be built to work but needs more care and is more painful.**
- **Differential links can possibly save power.**

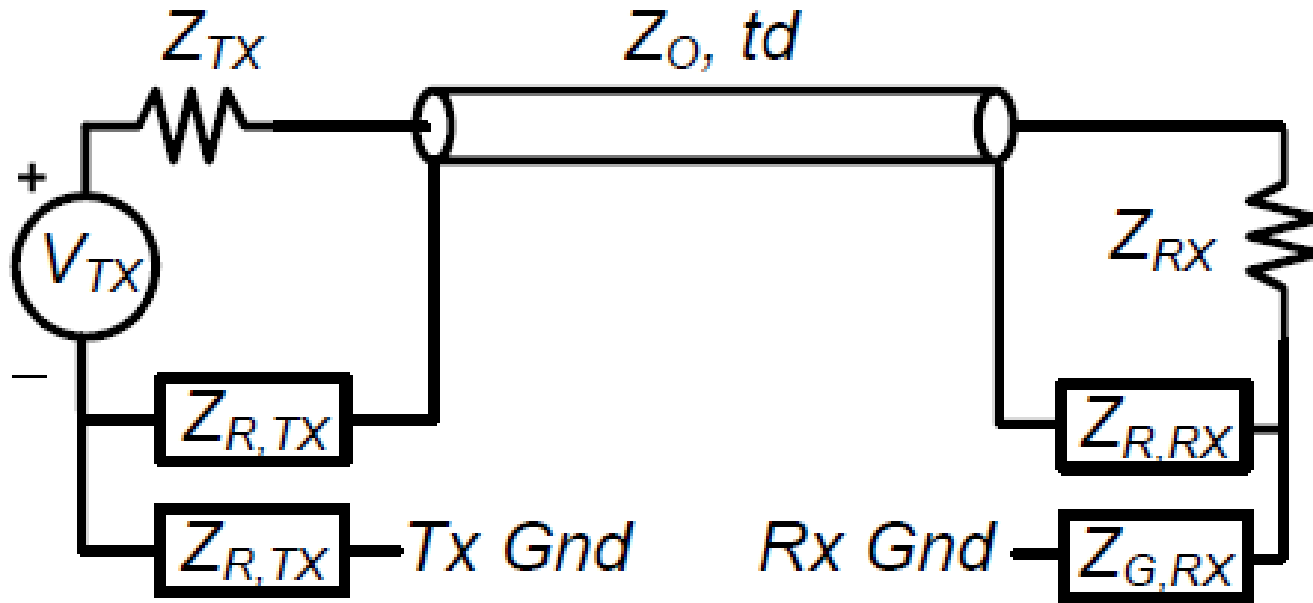


Differential Signaling



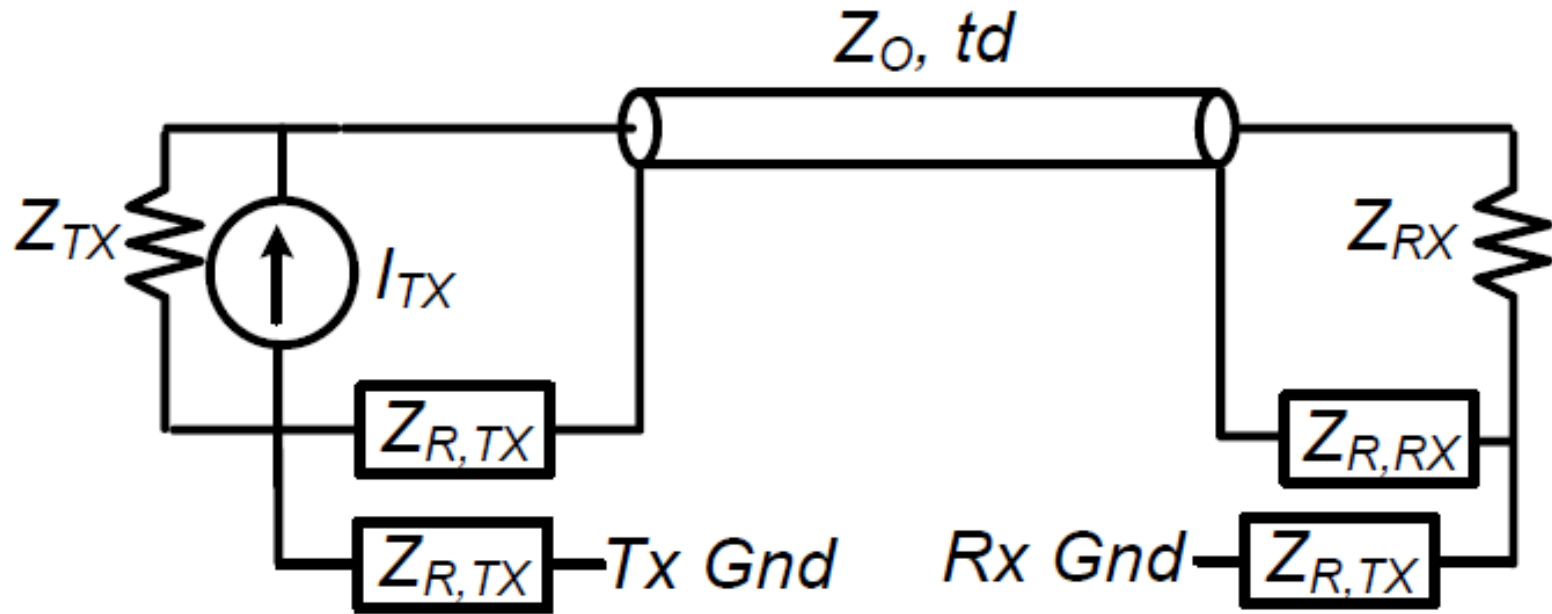
- Use of two transmission lines per I/O link
- No reference voltage is used to extract data. 😊
- Swing is twice as large as SE signaling. 😊
- No return path corruption 😊
- Minimum self-induced power supply noise 😊
- Matching between lines is crucial 😞
- Low pin/wire utilization is becoming a problem. 😞

Voltage-Mode Signaling



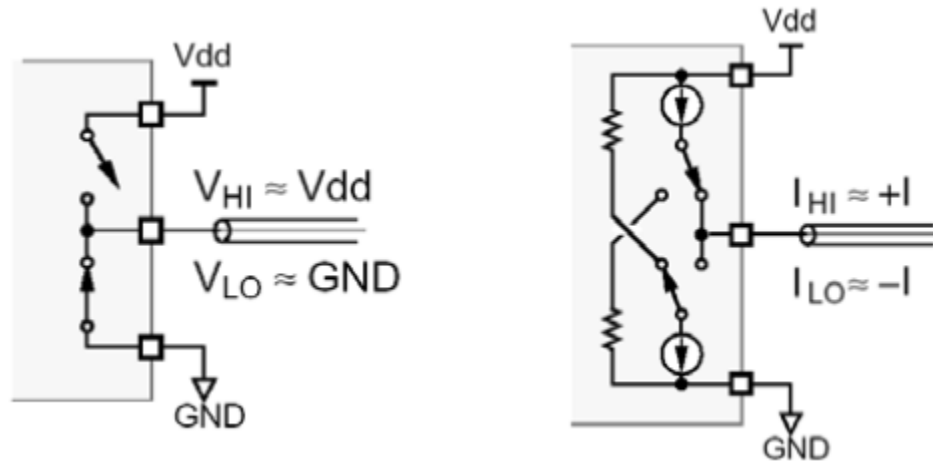
- Output Impedance is low.
- Older systems used $Z_{TX} \ll Z_0$.
- Newer Systems use $Z_{TX} = Z_0$ to minimize reflections.
- Thevenin-equivalent series termination

Current-Mode Signaling



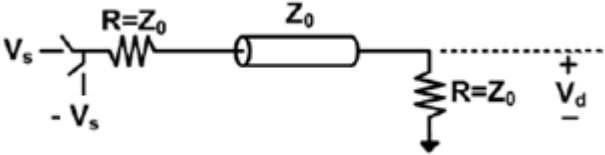
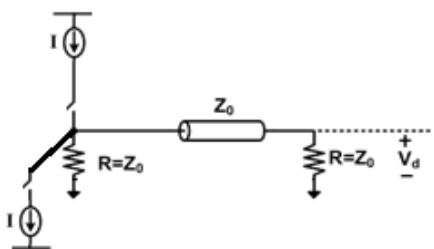
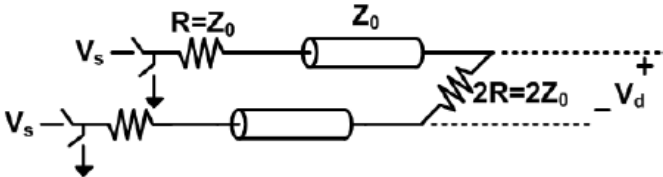
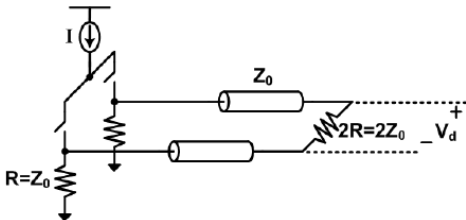
- Output Impedance is high.
- Older systems used $Z_{TX} \gg Z_o$.
- Newer Systems use $Z_{TX} = Z_o$ to minimize reflections.
- Norton-equivalent parallel termination

Old "Voltage-Mode" vs. "Current-Mode"



	<i>"Low Impedance"</i>	<i>"High Impedance"</i>
Single Ended	<p>A single-ended circuit with a source V_s and a reference $V_s/2$ connected to two parallel transmission lines. The outputs of these lines are connected to a differential amplifier configured as a single-ended output, with one input grounded. A label "shared" points to the common ground connection.</p>	<p>A single-ended circuit where a transmission line is connected to a differential amplifier. The other end of the transmission line is connected to a node labeled "d" (drain) of a transistor, which is also connected to a reference voltage "ref".</p>
Differential	<p>A differential circuit with two sources V_s and two references $V_s/2$ connected to two parallel transmission lines. The outputs of these lines are connected to a differential amplifier.</p>	<p>A differential circuit where two transmission lines are connected to a differential amplifier. The other ends of the transmission lines are connected to the gates of two transistors, which are also connected to a reference voltage "ref".</p>

Gb/s "Voltage-Mode" vs. "Current-Mode"

	Voltage-Mode	Current-Mode
Single-Ended	 $V_{d,1} = (V_s/2)$ $V_{d,0} = -(V_s/2)$ $V_{d,pp} = V_s$ $I = \frac{V_{d,pp}}{2R}$ $I = (V_s/2R)$	 $V_{d,1} = (I/2)R$ $V_{d,0} = -(I/2)R$ $V_{d,pp} = IR$ $I = \frac{V_{d,pp}}{R}$
Differential	 $V_{d,1} = (V_s/2)$ $V_{d,0} = -(V_s/2)$ $V_{d,pp} = V_s$ $I = \frac{V_{d,pp}}{4R}$ $I = (V_s/4R)$	 $V_{d,1} = (I/4)(2R)$ $V_{d,0} = -(I/4)(2R)$ $V_{d,pp} = IR$ $I = \frac{V_{d,pp}}{R}$

Voltage-Mode vs. Current-Mode Summary

Driver/Termination	Current Level	Normalized Current Level
Current-Mode/SE	$V_{d,pp}/Z_0$	1x
Current-Mode/Diff	$V_{d,pp}/Z_0$	1x
Voltage-Mode/SE	$V_{d,pp}/2Z_0$	0.5x
Voltage-Mode/Diff	$V_{d,pp}/4Z_0$	0.25x

- An ideal voltage-mode driver with differential RX termination enables a **potential** 4x reduction in driver power.
- Finally, since TL has both voltage and current, terminology can mean
 - Whether or not the termination is high
 - How termination is set
 - What sets the output swing (supply or current source)

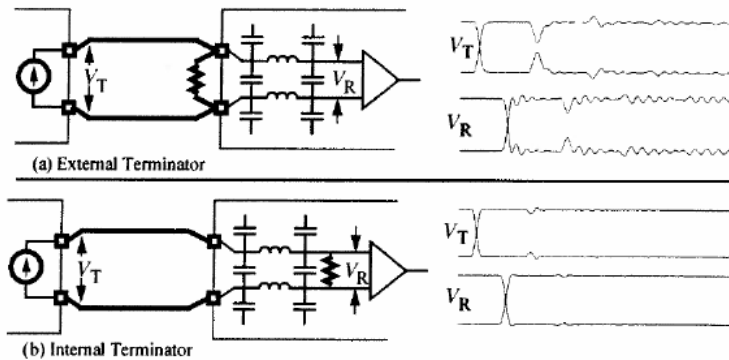


Outline

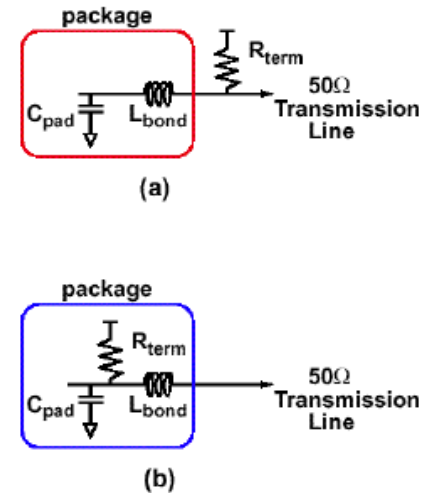
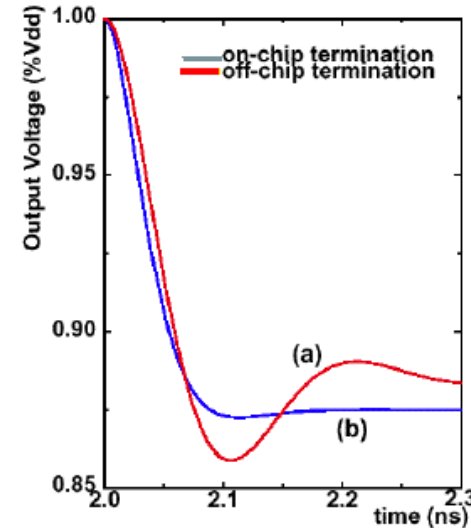
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On-Chip vs. Off-Chip Termination



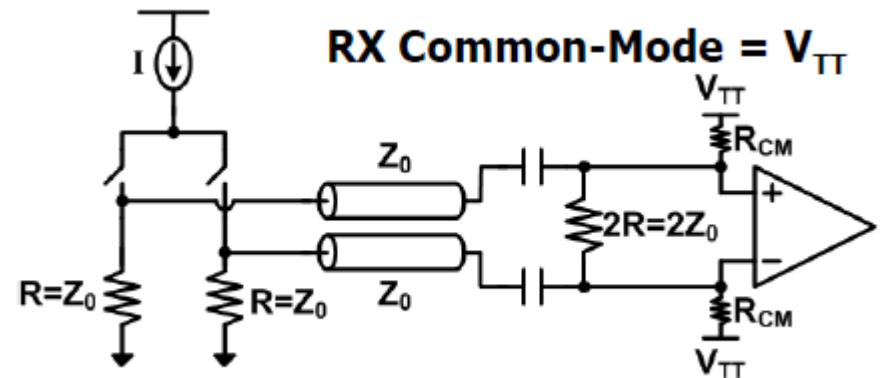
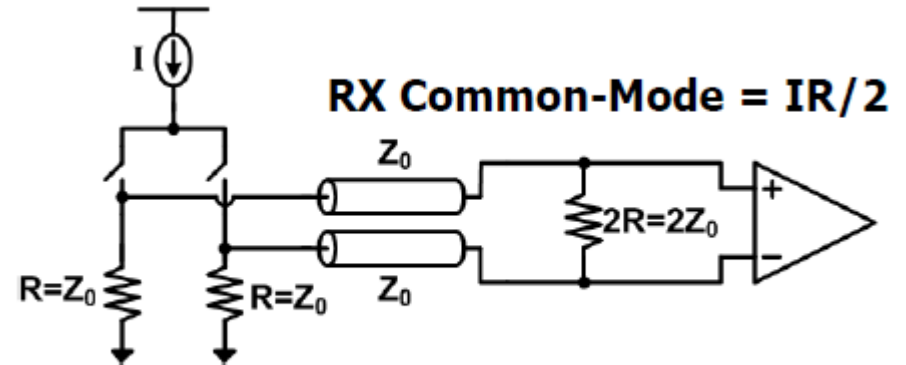
[Dally]



- Package parasitics act as an unterminated stub which sends reflections back onto the line.
- On-chip termination makes package inductance part of transmission line.
- But on-chip termination needs control.

AC vs. DC-Coupled Termination

- DC coupling allows for uncoded data.
- RX common-mode set by transmitter signal level.
- AC coupling allows for independent RX common-mode level.
- Data must be coded because of channel's low frequency cut-off.



Passive Termination

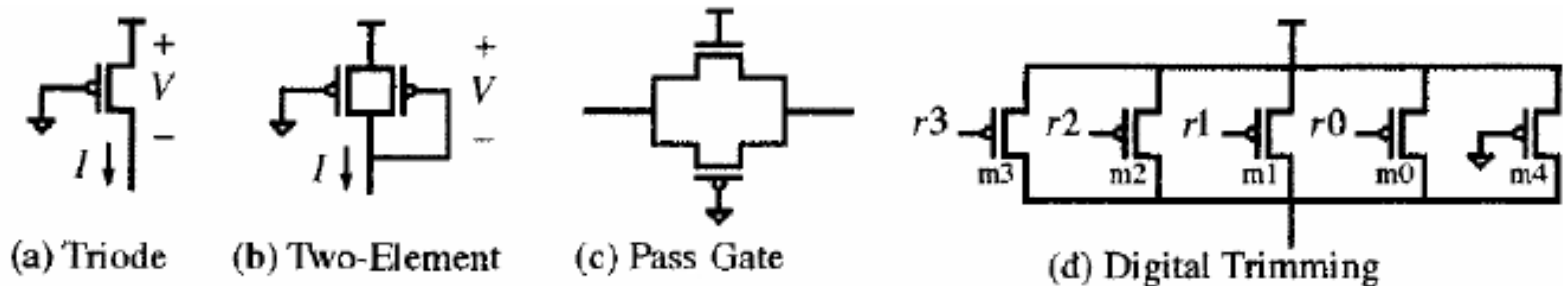
- Choice of integrated resistors involves trade-offs in manufacturing steps, sheet resistance, parasitic capacitance, linearity, and ESD tolerance.
- Integrated passive termination resistors are typically realized with unsilicided poly, diffusion, or n-well resistors.
- Poly resistors are typically used due to better linearity, but they typically vary $\pm 30\%$ over process and temperature.

Resistor Options (90nm CMOS)

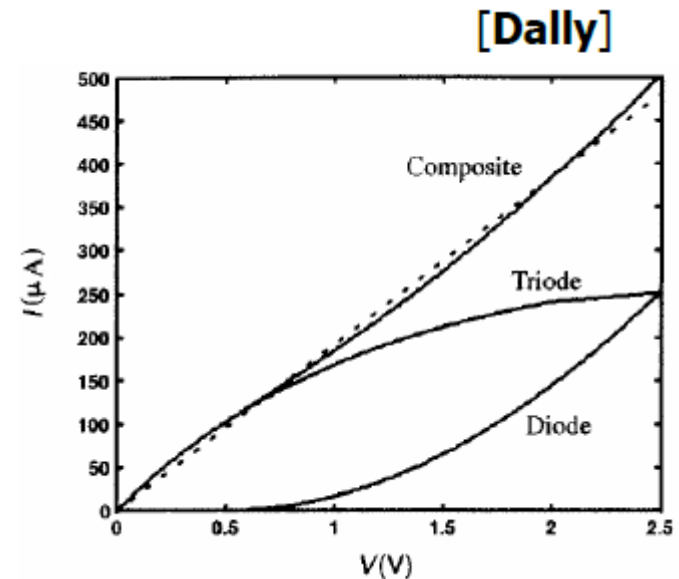
Resistor	Poly	N-diffusion	N-well
Sheet R (Ω/sq)	90 ± 10	300 ± 50	450 ± 200
VC1(V^{-1})	0	10^{-3}	8×10^{-3}
Parasitic Cap	$2\text{-}3\text{fF}/\mu\text{m}^2$ (min L poly)	$0.9\text{fF}/\mu\text{m}^2$ (area), $0.04\text{fF}/\mu\text{m}$ (perimeter)	$0.2\text{fF}/\mu\text{m}^2$ (area), $0.7\text{fF}/\mu\text{m}$ (perimeter)



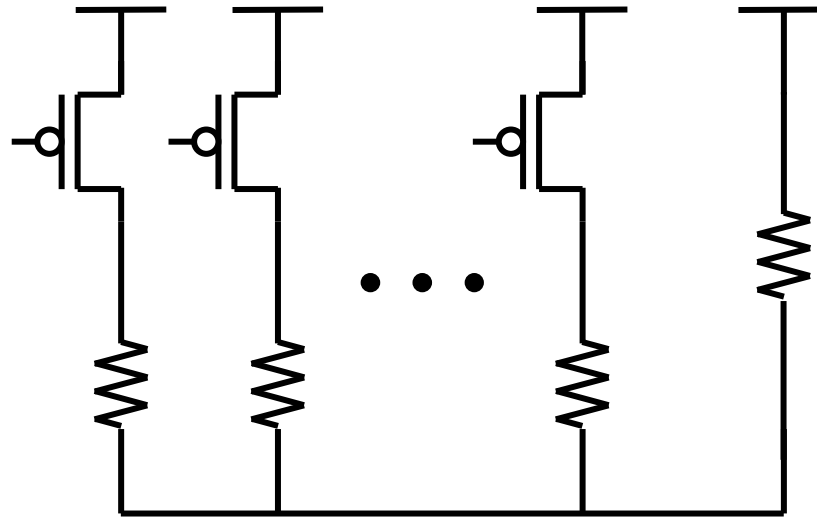
Active Termination



- Transistors must be used for termination in CMOS processes with no resistors.
- Triode-based FET works well for low-swing (<500 mV)
 - Adding a diode-connected FET increases linear range.
- Pass-gate structure allows for differential termination.
- Not ESD robust, needs adjustment loop (Analog or Digital), and adds extra capacitance.



Combination of Active and Passive

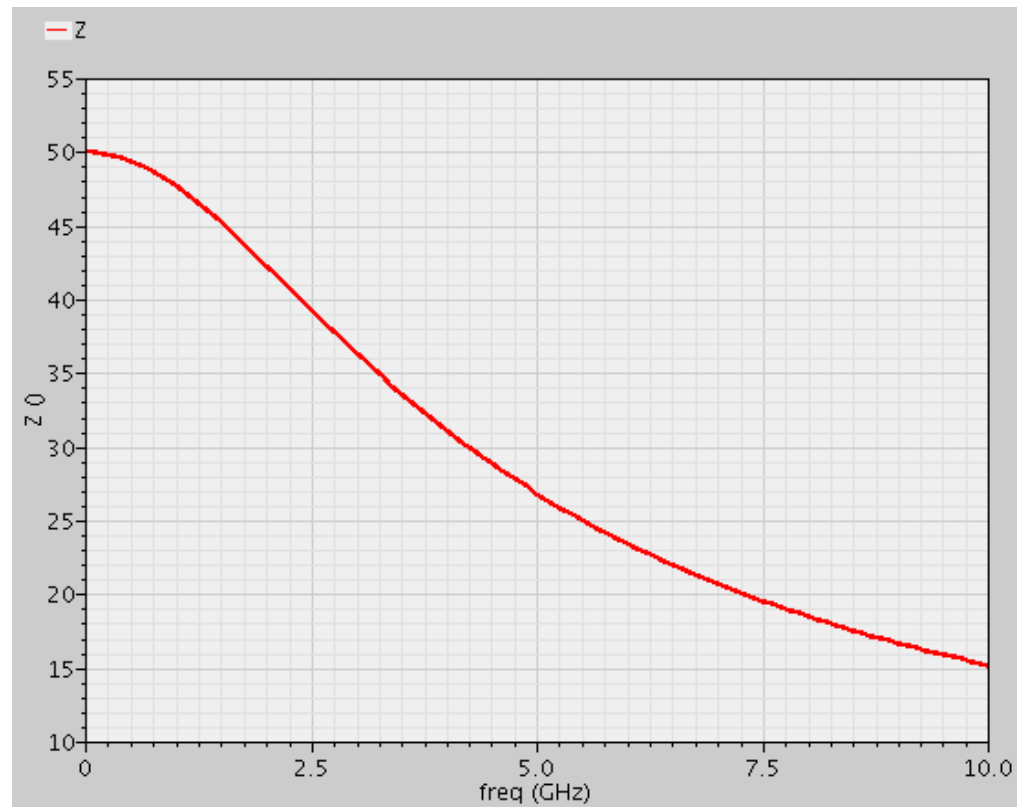
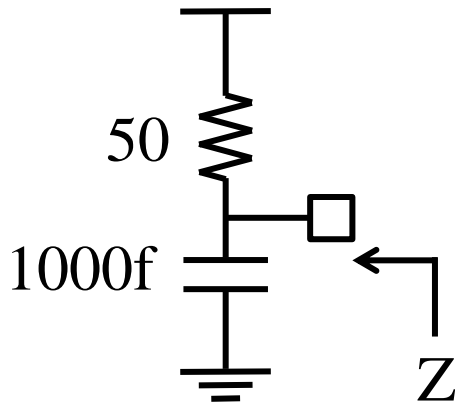


- **Fixed resistor and digitally-controlled resistor to account for variations**
- **Better ESD robustness and linearity**
- **Device capacitances are partially shielded.**
- **But adjustment loop is still required.**



Termination Capacitance

- Many parasitic caps: ~500 fF ESD and pads and ~500 fF driver.
- This gives a BW of ~ 6 GHz for double-terminated links.

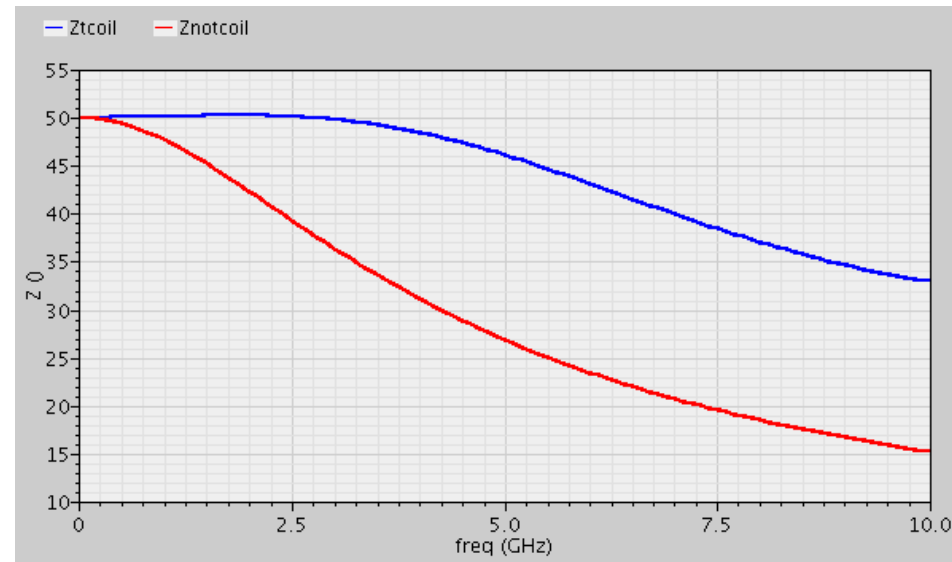
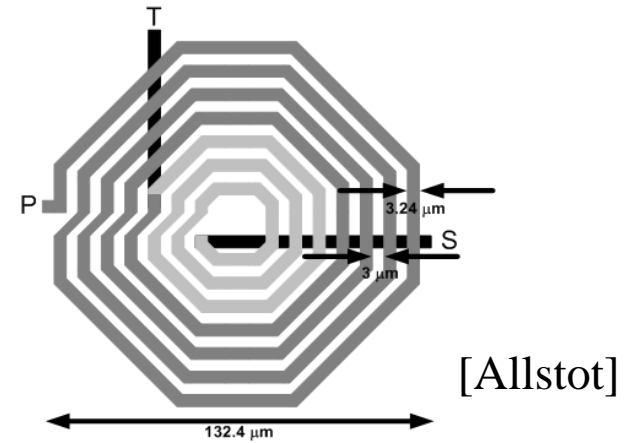
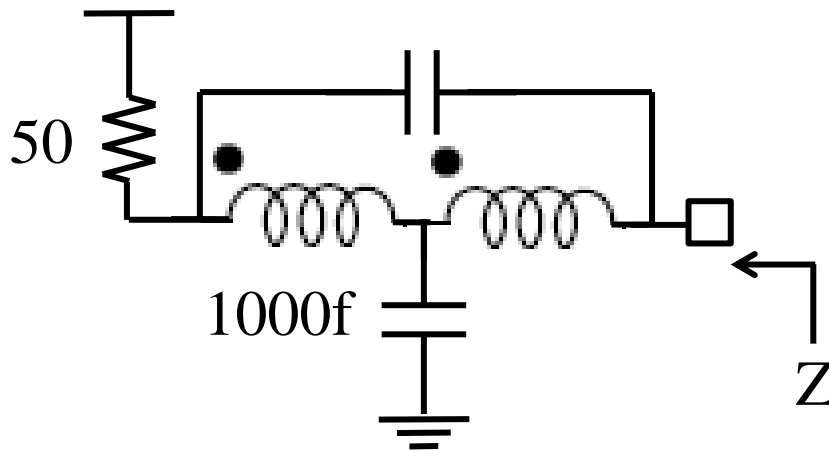


T-Coils

- Old technology recently used in bandwidth extension and ESD capacitance compensation.

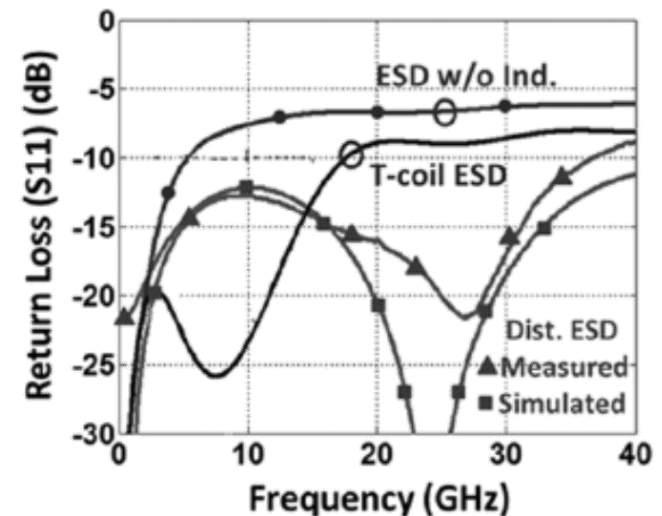
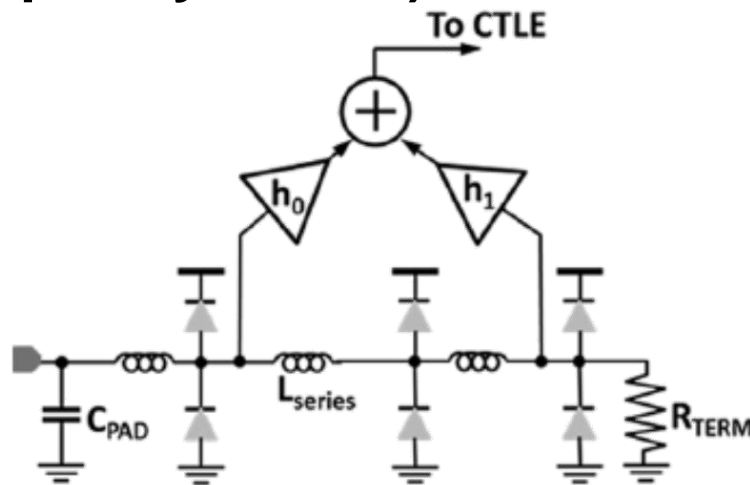
[Schmatz JSSC Dec. 2008]

- T-coil consists of two mutually coupled inductor and a bridged capacitor.



Distributed ESD

- At higher data rates (ex 40 Gb/s), even T-coil Extension is not enough.
- Distributed ESD is a possible solution.
- More on-chip inductors are used but with smaller values.
- Delay through transmission line sections can help implement equalizers at RX side.
- Impedance of inductors at ESD events is negligible (low-frequency events).



[Navid, JSSC Apr. 2015]

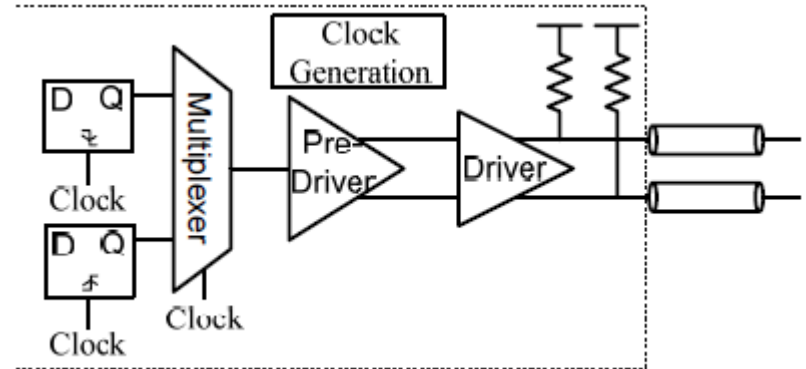
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Conceptual I/O Transmitter

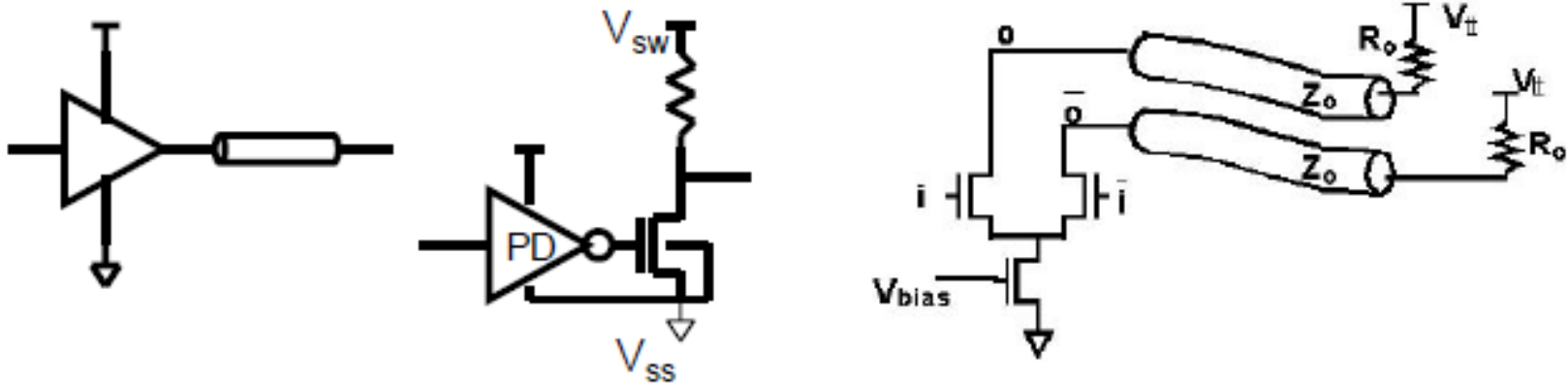
- **Multiplexers and Synchronizers**
 - To facilitate data exchange between sources and the link
- **Driver**
 - Generates signals suitable for signaling
- **Pre-driver**
 - Condition the driver e.g., level shifting etc.



- **Goals**
 - High bit rate
 - Low power consumption
 - Low noise, free of unnecessary time-domain spikes
 - Low coupling to other links

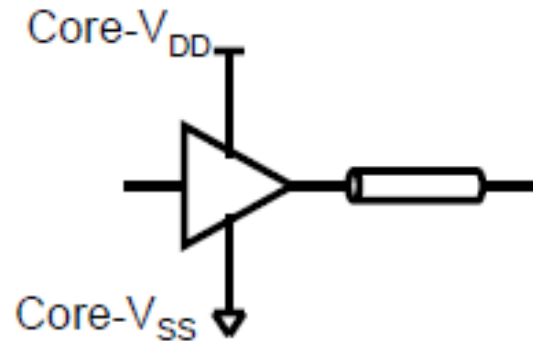


Main Driver Circuit Choices



- Single Ended or Differential
- Voltage mode or current mode
- On-chip or off-chip supplies
- Source termination
- Each choice has an implication on signal fidelity, power consumption, noise coupling, and data rate.

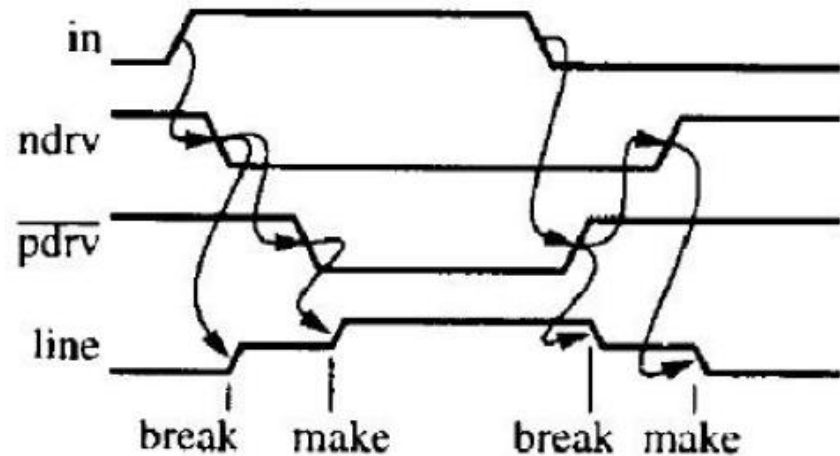
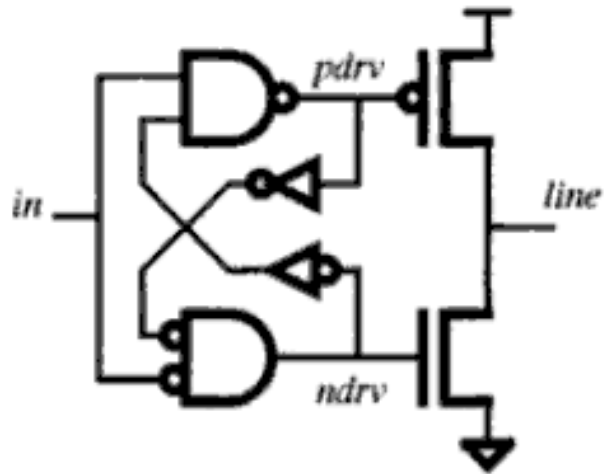
A Very Simple Large Swing Driver



- **Characteristics**
 - Push-pull architecture
 - Large signal amplitude, $V_{\text{swing}} = V_{DD}$
- **Supply noise contribution is very large.**
 - V_{DD} on chip can be very noisy
- **Reflections are significant due to lack of source termination**
- **Large crowbar current**
 - Causes significant power consumption

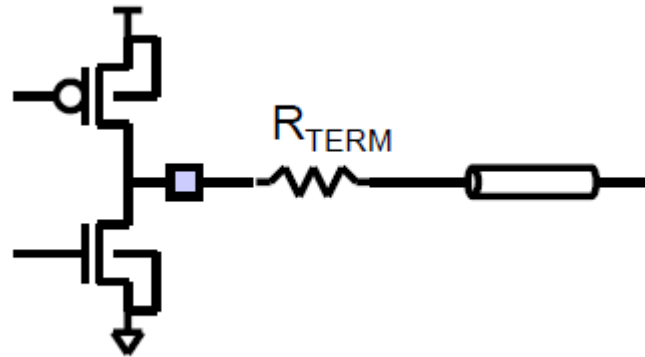


Another Simple Large Swing Driver



- **Break-before-make connection**
 - Ensures that NMOS and PMOS are not simultaneously ON, even for short duration
- **Supply noise, reflection problems remain**
- **These are mainly legacy I/Os**
 - Good for low data rate, generic interfaces with other ICs

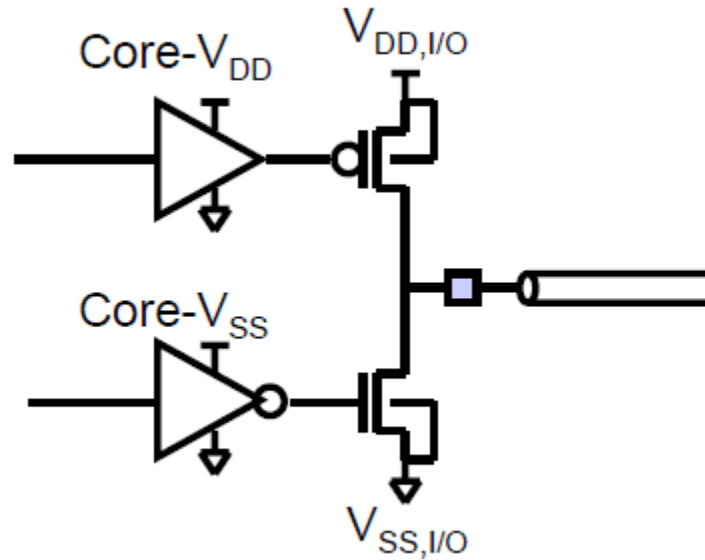
Source Terminated Large Swing Driver



- **Add a resistance in series to provide source termination.**
 - Prevents some reflection
- **Actual source impedance is a series combination of R_{TERM} and Z_{NMOS} or Z_{PMOS} .**
 - Increase NMOS and PMOS sizes to maintain switching speed performance.
- **Difficult to terminate precisely**
 - Transistor impedance varies with region of operation and PVT corners.



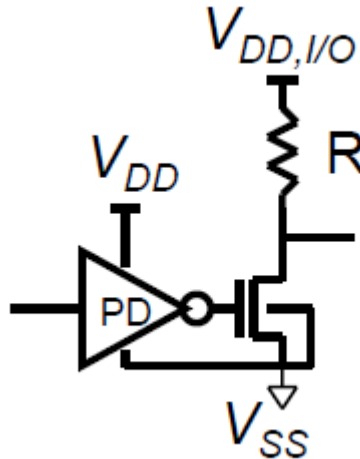
Dedicated Driver Supplies



- **$V_{\text{SWING}} = V_{DD,I/O} > \text{Core-}V_{DD}$ is possible.**
 - I/O signals are better protected from noise on core supplies.
- **The driver supplies could be on-chip or off-chip.**
- **Large DC driver currents are possible**
 - Depends on relation between $\text{Core-}V_{DD}$ and $V_{DD,I/O}$



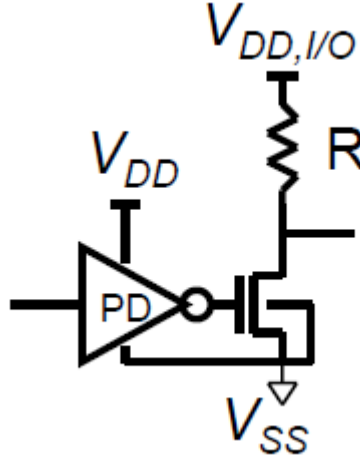
A Very Simple Low Swing Driver



- **Replace the pull-up PMOS with a resistance.**
 - Signal swings between $V_{DD,I/O}$ and $V_{DD,I/O} - I_{DS}R$
- **Pull-up time constant is determined by R.**
 - Small R results in quick pull-up.
- **Received signal is smaller than with large swing drivers.**
 - Threatens receiver margins and could increase BER.
- **More susceptible to variations in R and I_{drv} .**



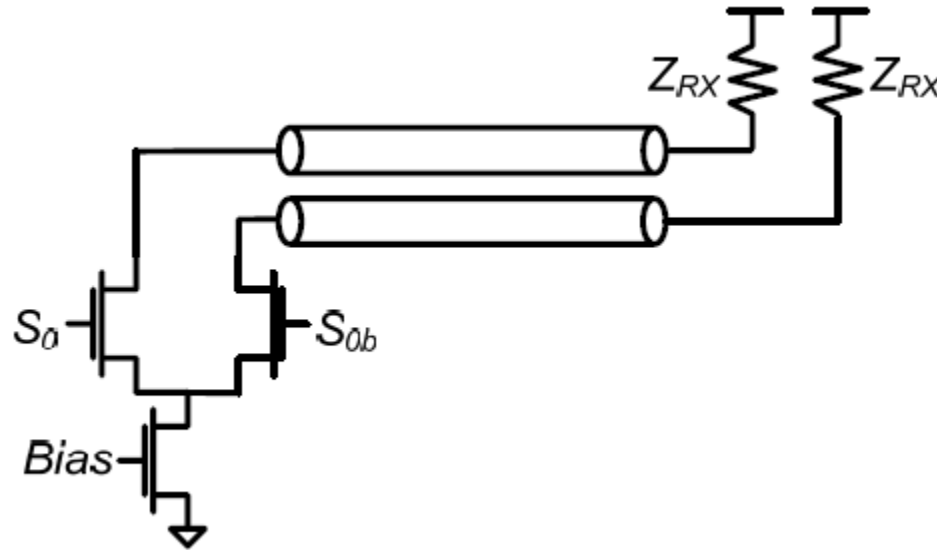
Why Low Swing Drivers?



- **Higher speed**
 - Devices switch faster.
 - Smaller devices and hence lower capacitance
- **Better linearity**
 - Driver transistor stays in a single region of operation when ON.
- **Lower power**
 - Power is proportional to swing e.g. $0.5C_L V^2 f$



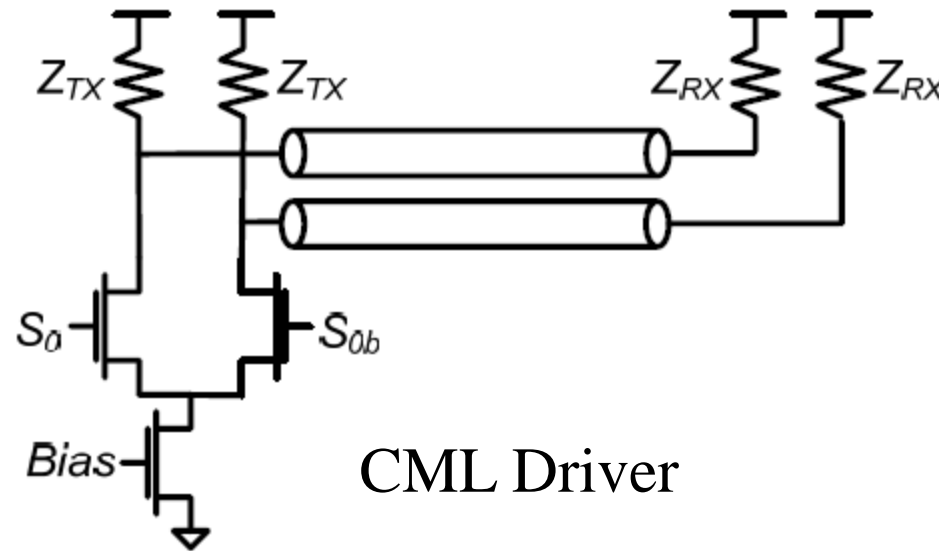
Low Swing Differential Drivers



- Differential pair steers the current into a differential I/O link.
- High output impedance can cause reflection problems on the source side.
- Pre-driver works hard
 - Currents need to be steered completely.

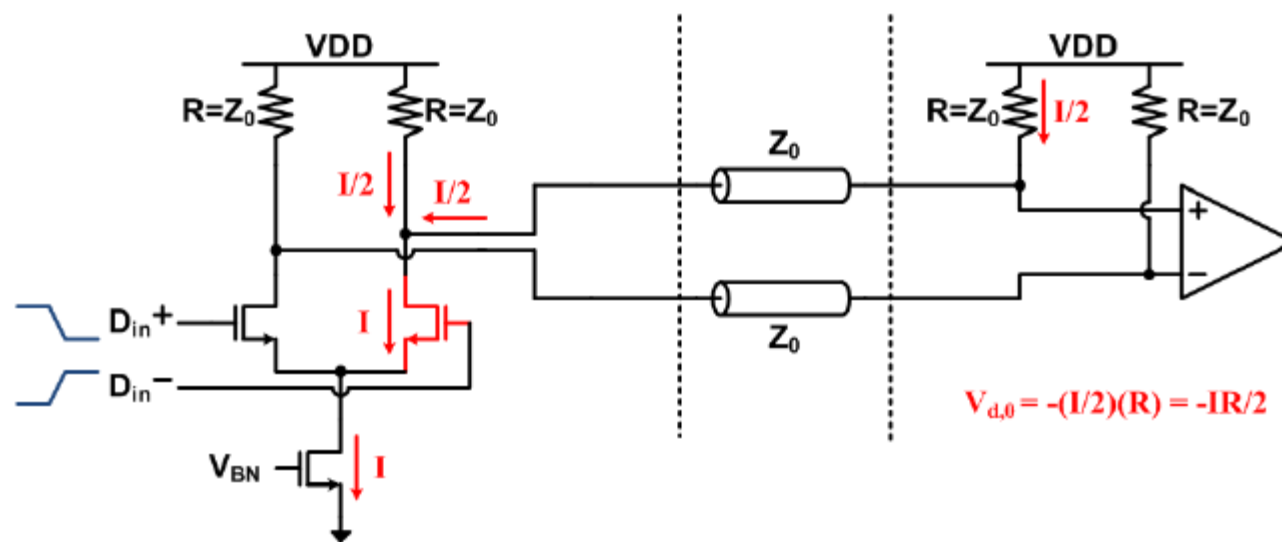


Terminated Low Swing Differential Drivers



- **Z_{TX} are actual termination resistors.**
 - Driver is based on current mode logic. [Mizuno JSSC Jun. 1996]
 - Triode PMOS could be used instead.
 - Additional power consumption
- **Doubly terminated differential signaling is popular among very high speed signaling.**

Current-Mode Logic (CML) Driver



- Used in most high-performance serial links.
- Low voltage operation relative to push-pull driver
 - High output common-mode keeps current source saturated.
- Can use DC or AC coupling
- Differential pp RX swing is $\pm IR/2$ with double termination

CML Power Consumption

$$P = I_b V_{TT}$$

$$V_{SW,diff} = I_b R_T$$

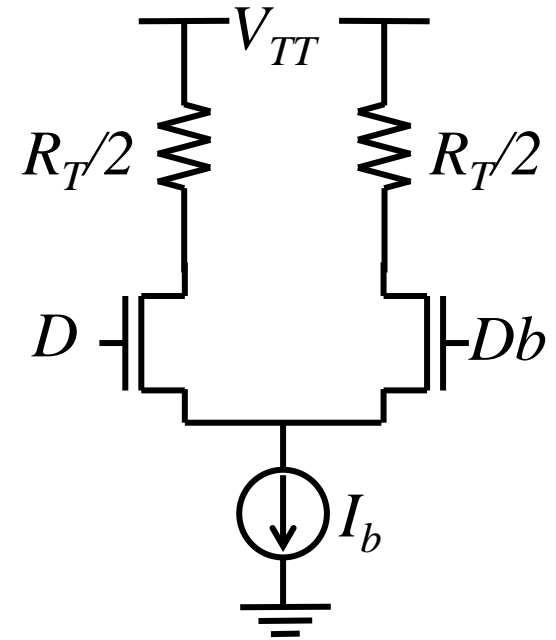
$$V_{SW,amp} = \frac{I_b R_T}{2}$$

$$I_b = \frac{2V_{SW,amp}}{R_T}$$

$$P = V_{SW,amp} V_{TT} \frac{2}{R_T}$$

$$V_{TT,min} = 2V_{DSAT} + V_{SW,amp}$$

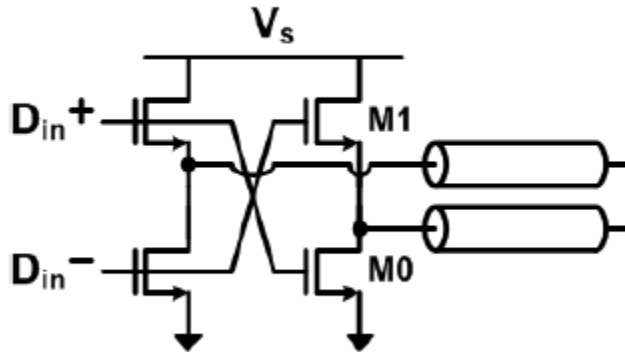
$$P_{min} = V_{SW,amp}^2 \left(1 + \frac{2V_{DSAT}}{V_{SW,amp}} \right) \frac{2}{R_T}$$



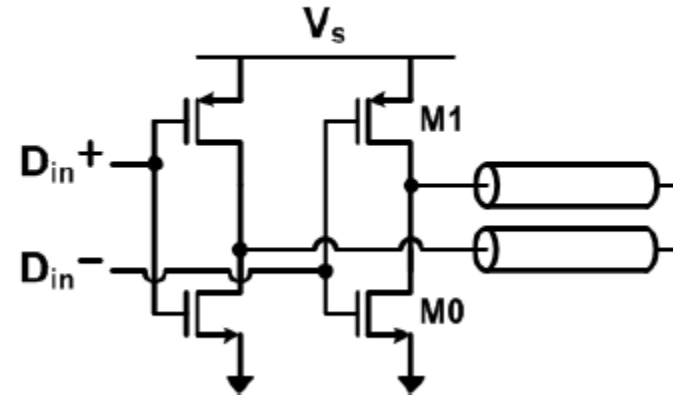
Lower Power Using Voltage-Mode Drivers

- Voltage-mode driver implementation depends on output swing requirements.
- For low-swing (<400-500mVpp), an all NMOS driver is suitable.
- For high-swing, CMOS driver is used.

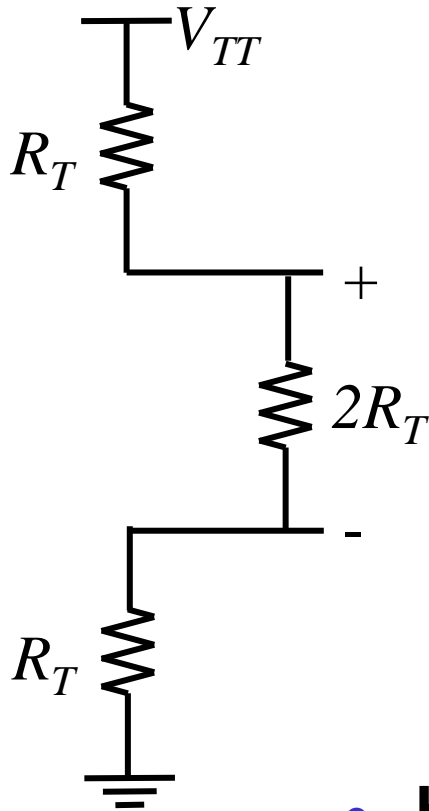
Low-Swing Voltage-Mode Driver



High-Swing Voltage-Mode Driver



VM Driver Power Consumption



$$V_{SW,amp} = \frac{V_{TT}}{2}$$

$$I_{V_{TT}} = \frac{V_{TT}}{4R_T}$$

$$P = V_{SW,amp} V_{TT} \frac{1}{2R_T} \quad \text{1/4 CML}$$

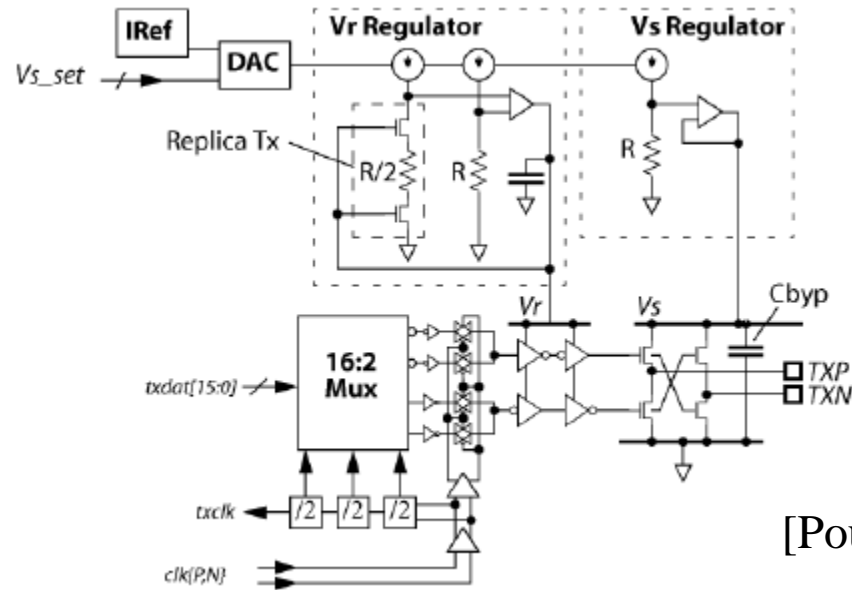
$$P = V_{SW,amp}^2 \frac{1}{R_T}$$

- **However**

- Termination is set by devices
- Impedance control loops are complicated
- Matching pull-up and pull-down is difficult.



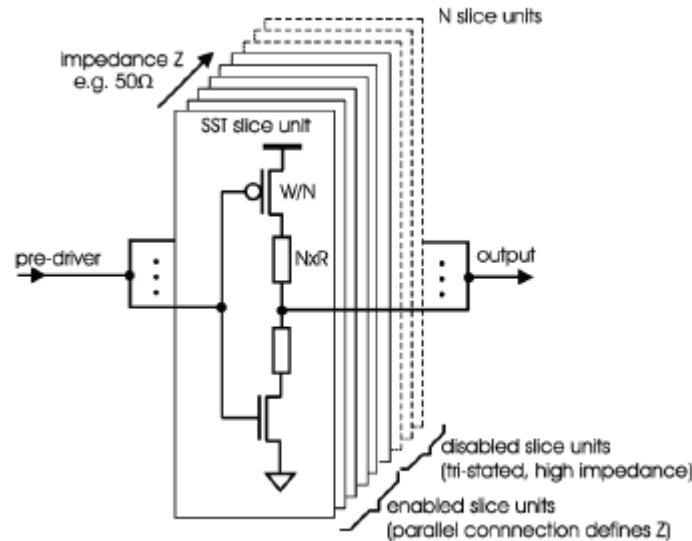
Low-Swing VM Driver Example



[Poulton JSSC Dec. 2007]

- A linear regulator sets the output stage supply, V_s .
- Termination is implemented by output NMOS transistors.
- To compensate for PVT and varying output swing levels, the pre-driver supply is adjusted with a feedback loop.
- The top and bottom output stage transistors need to be sized differently, as they see a different V_{DSAT} .

High-Swing VM Driver Example

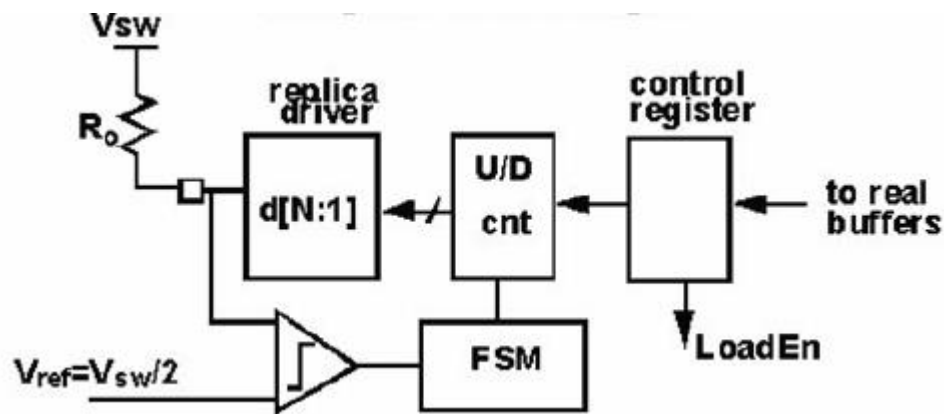
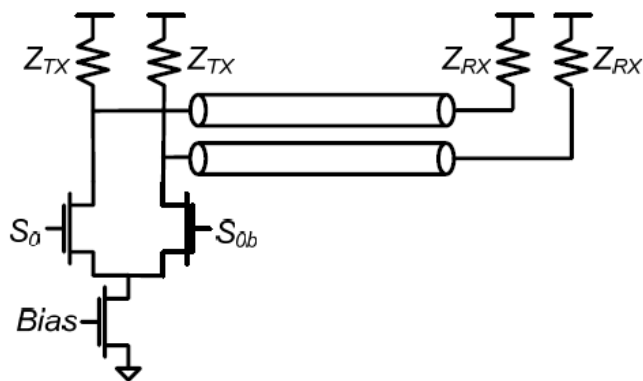


[Kossel JSSC Dec. 2008]

- **High-swing voltage-mode driver termination is implemented with a combination of output driver transistors and series resistors.**
- **To meet termination resistance levels ($50\ \Omega$), large output transistors are required.**
 - Degrades potential power savings.



TX Swing Control



- **Uncertainty in R_{TERM} and I_B can degrade output swing**
 - In low-swing drivers, this could be a big problem.
- **Extend R_{TERM} control to control the swing too.**
- **Control is done in two steps**
 - Impedance control
 - I-control by adaptively changing bias current.
- **Typically, a replica driver is used.**

TX Slew-Rate Control

- **Output transition times should be controlled.**
 - Too Slow
 - Limits maximum data rate
 - Too fast
 - Can excite resonant circuits, resulting in ISI due to ringing
 - Cause excessive cross-talk because of large di/dt
- **Slew rate control reduces reflections and cross-talk.**
- **Controlling pre-driver is an effective means of controlling driver output slew-rate.**



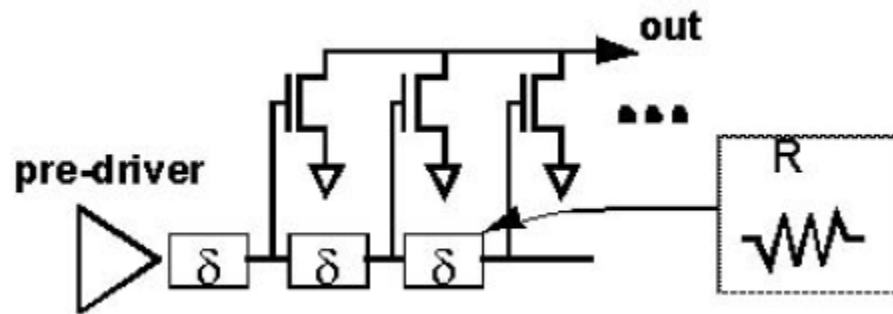
Slew-Rate Control Implementation

- **Idea**

- Break the driver into segments.
- Turn on each segment sequentially.

- **Delay element**

- Transistor-based doesn't track PVT changes well.
- Use poly resistor that is relatively constant.
- Use a timing element to sequentially time the switching.

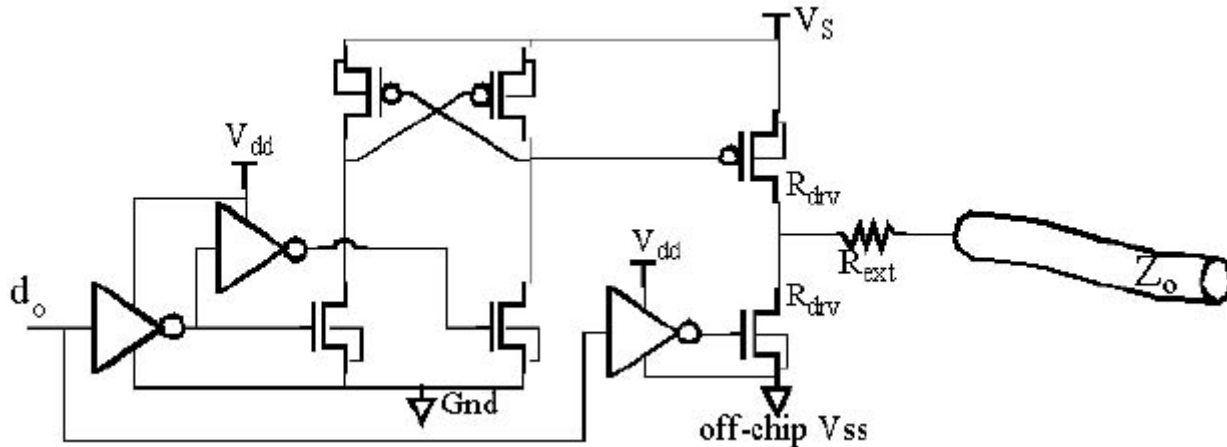


Pre-Drivers

- **Pre-drivers are needed for**
 - Capacitance driving
 - Level shifting
 - Timing control
 - Transient waveform improvement
 - Up and down impedance matching
- **A pre-driver is similar to the driver but with much lower current.**



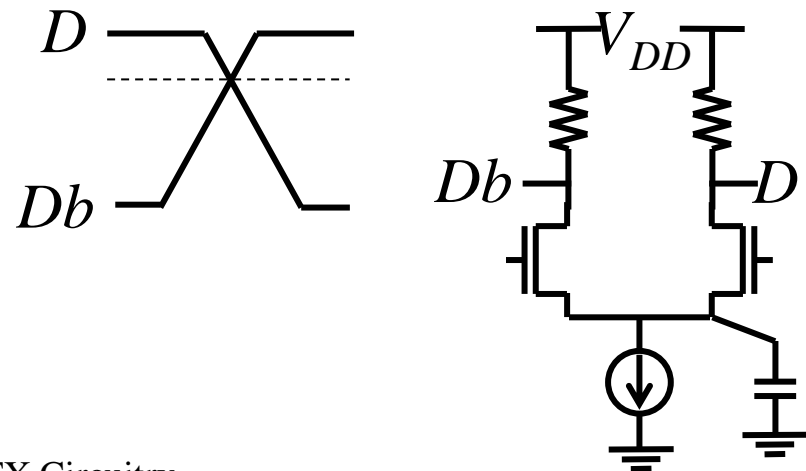
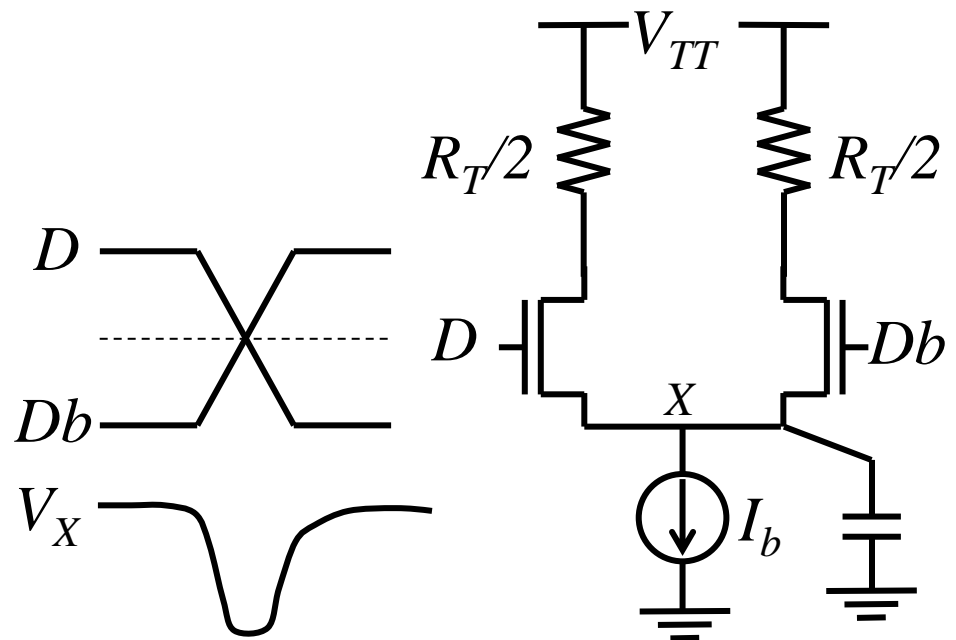
Pre-Driver Level Shifting



- If swing $V_s > V_{dd}$, the pre-driver needs to level shift the output
 - If not, the PMOS will not shut off completely when needed.
- Level shifting can be achieved by a “pump” circuit.
- Reliability issues
 - Cross-coupled PMOS devices need to have their wells tied to external voltage.

Pre-Drivers for CML

- Ideal waveforms for the CML driver will cause big drops on the tail current voltage and current.
- This affects overall performance.
- Skewed inverters can be used as pre-drivers.
- CML pre-drivers can be used as well to have a smaller input swing.
 - Low current



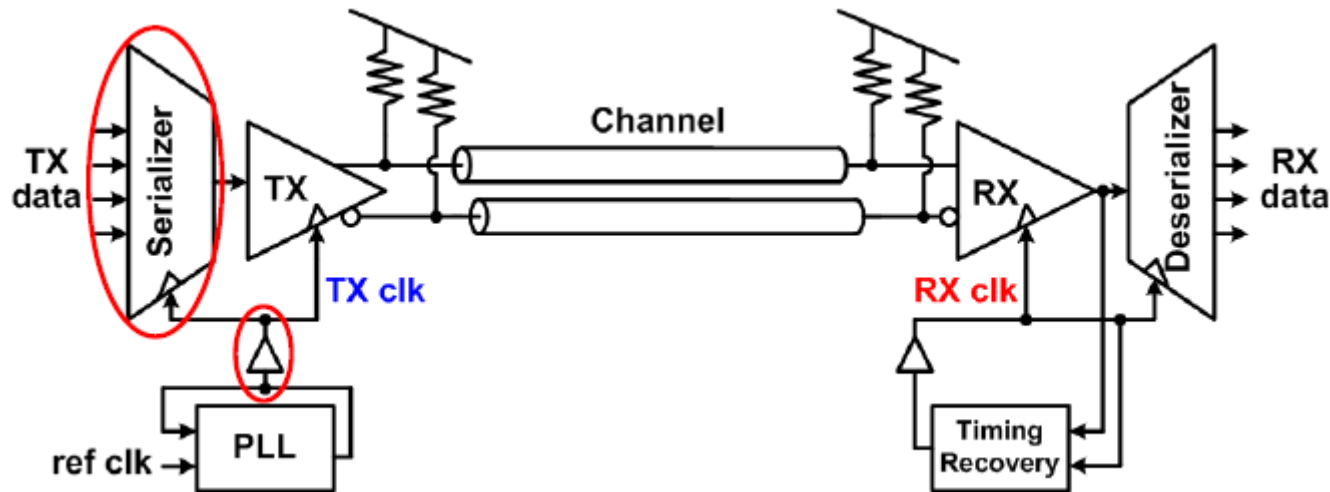
Outline

- **Signaling Basics**
 - Single-ended vs. differential
 - Voltage-mode vs. current-mode
- **Termination Circuits**
 - On-Chip vs. off-chip
 - AC vs. DC coupled
 - Active vs. passive
- **TX Driver Circuits**
 - Large swing drivers
 - Small swing drivers
 - Pre-drivers
- **Multiplexing**
 - Multiplexing depth
 - Multiplexing circuits



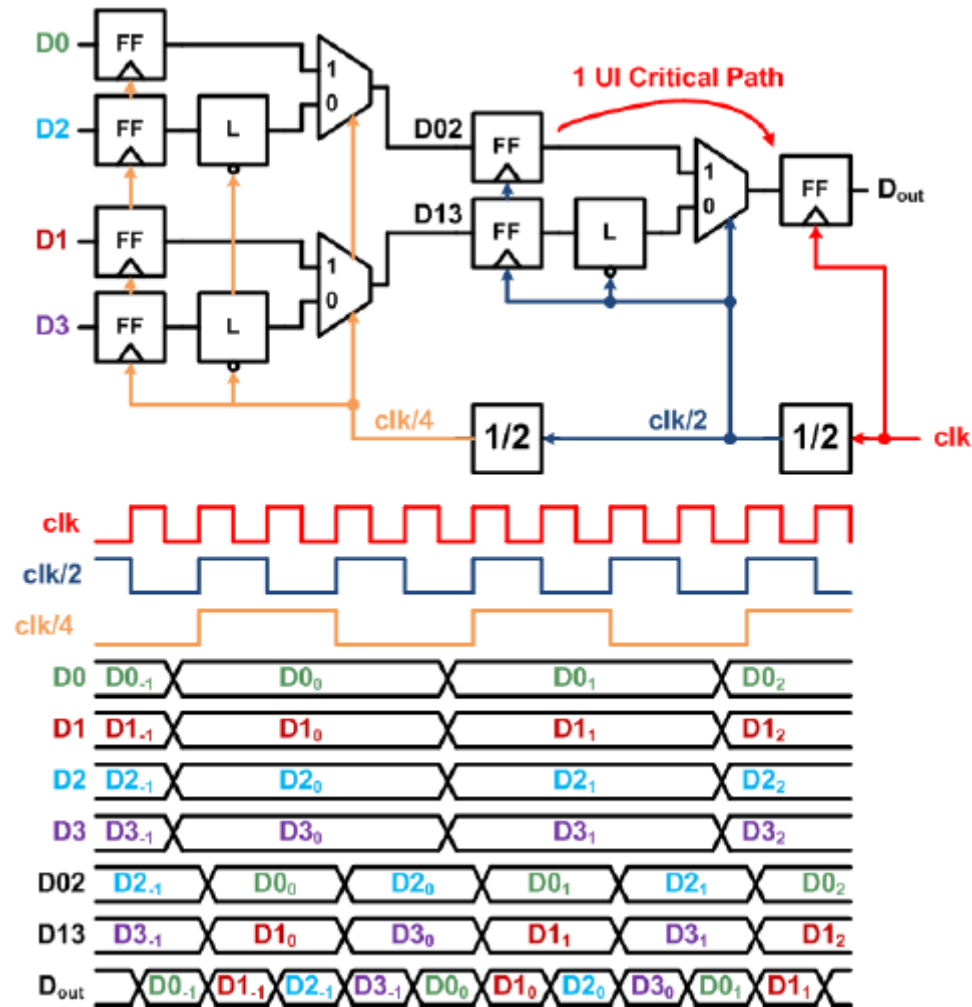
TX Circuit Speed Limitations

- High-speed links can be limited by both the channel and the circuits.
- Clock generation and distribution is key circuit bandwidth bottleneck.
- Multiplexing circuitry also limits maximum data rate.



Full-Rate Multiplexing

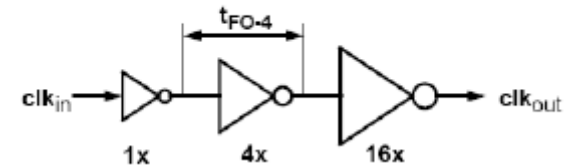
- Tree-mux architecture with cascaded 2:1 stages is often used.
- Full-rate architecture relaxes clock duty-cycle, but limits max data rate.
 - Needs to generate and distribute high-speed clock.
 - Needs to design high-speed flip-flop.
- CML logic is sometimes used in last stages.
 - Minimize CML to save power.



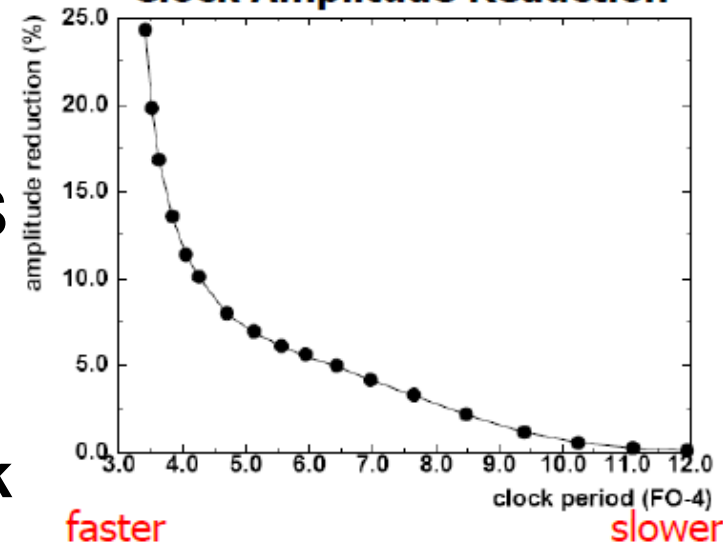
Clock Distribution Speed Limitations

- Max clock frequency that can be efficiently distributed is limited by clock buffers ability to propagate narrow pulses.
- CMOS buffers are limited to a min clock period near $8FO4$ inverter delays.
 - About 4GHz in typical 90nm CMOS
 - Full-rate architecture limited to this data rate in Gb/s.
- Need a faster clock, use faster clock buffers.
 - CML
 - CML w/ inductive peaking

t_{FO4} in 90nm $\sim 30ps$



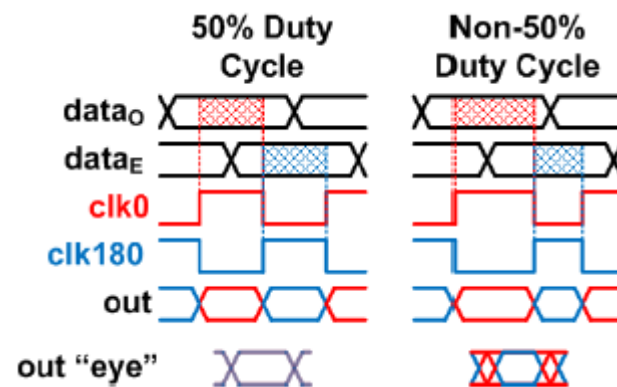
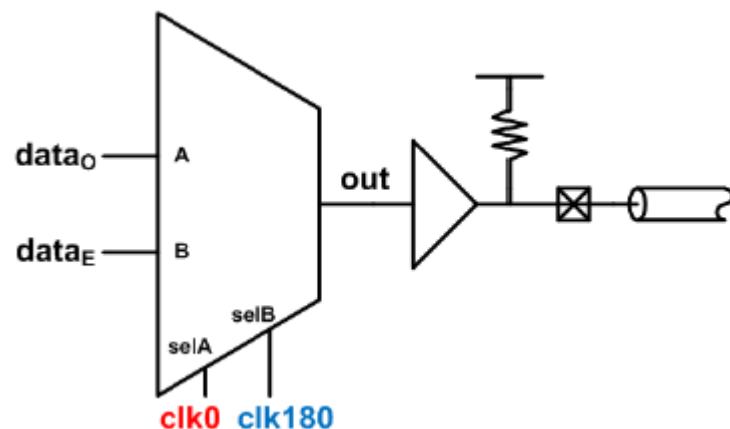
Clock Amplitude Reduction*



*C.-K. Yang, "Design of High-Speed Serial Links in CMOS," 1998.

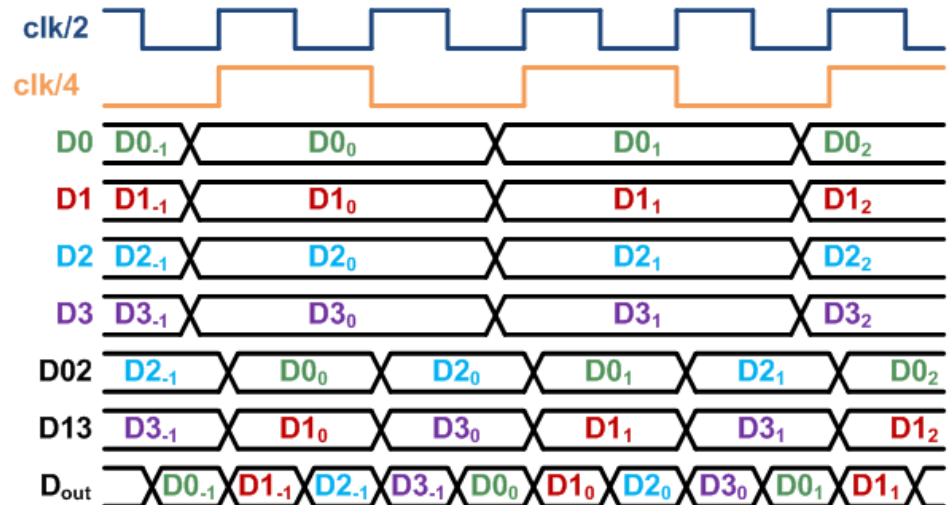
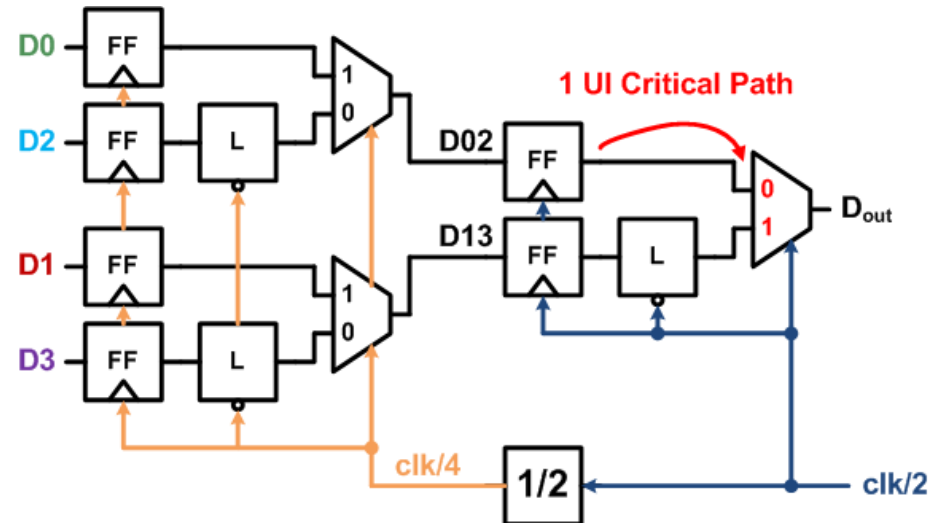
Multiplexing Techniques – 1/2 Rate

- Full-rate architecture is limited by maximum clock frequency to $8FO4 T_b$.
- To increase data rates eliminate final retiming and use multiple phases of a slower clock to mux data.
- Half-rate architecture uses 2 clock phases separated by 180° to mux data.
 - Allows for $4FO4 T_b$
 - 180° phase spacing (duty cycle) critical for uniform output eye

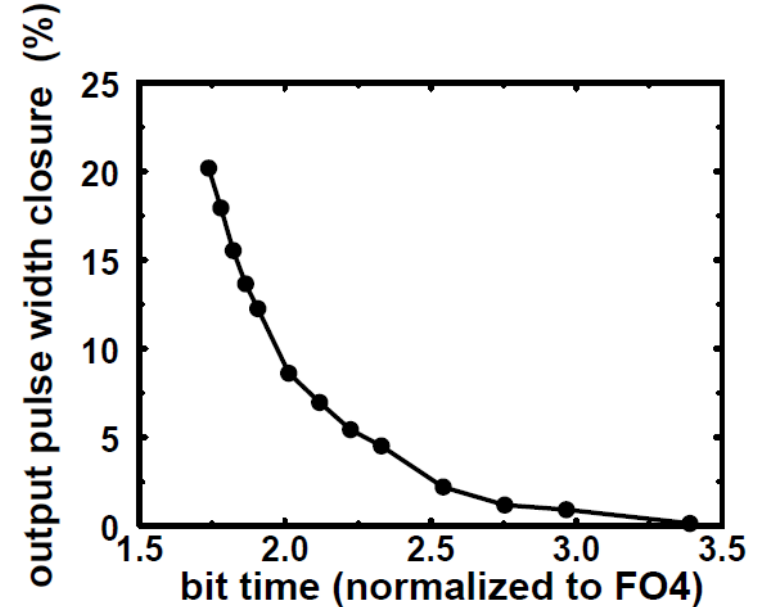
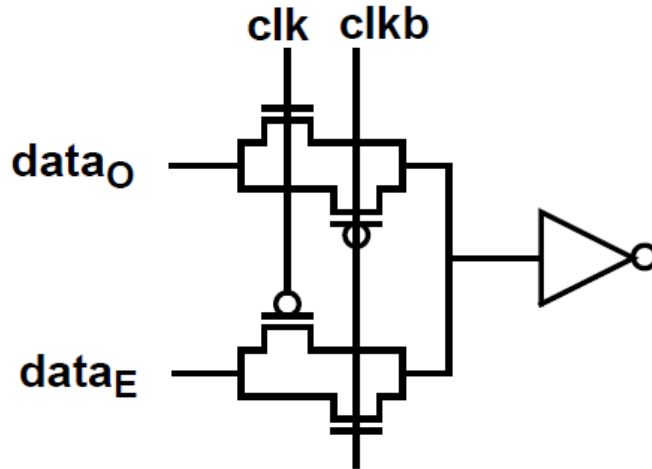


Half-Rate Multiplexing Timing Waveforms

- Half-rate architecture eliminates high-speed clock and flip-flop.
- Output eye is sensitive to clock duty cycle.
- Critical path no longer has flip-flop setup time.



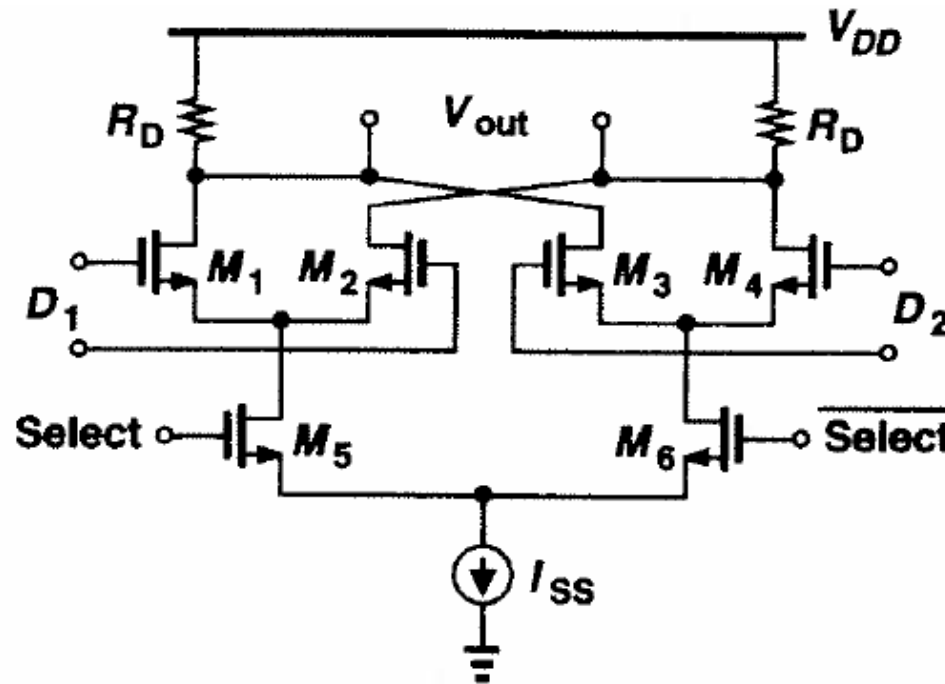
2:1 CMOS Multiplexer



- 2:1 CMOS mux is able to propagate a minimum pulse near $2FO4$ Tb.
- However, with a $\frac{1}{2}$ -rate architecture it is still limited by clock distribution to $4FO4$ Tb.
 - 8Gb/s in typical 90nm



2:1 CML Multiplexer

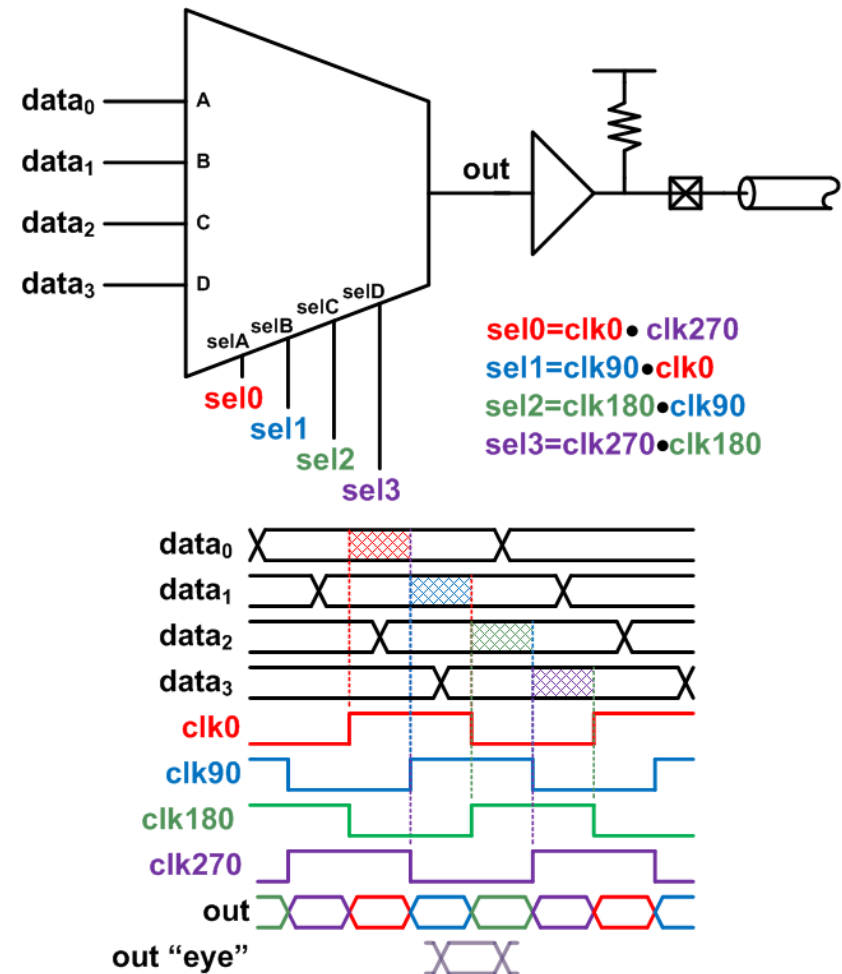


- CML mux can achieve higher speeds due to reduced self-loading factor.
 - Cost is higher power consumption that is independent of data rate (static current).



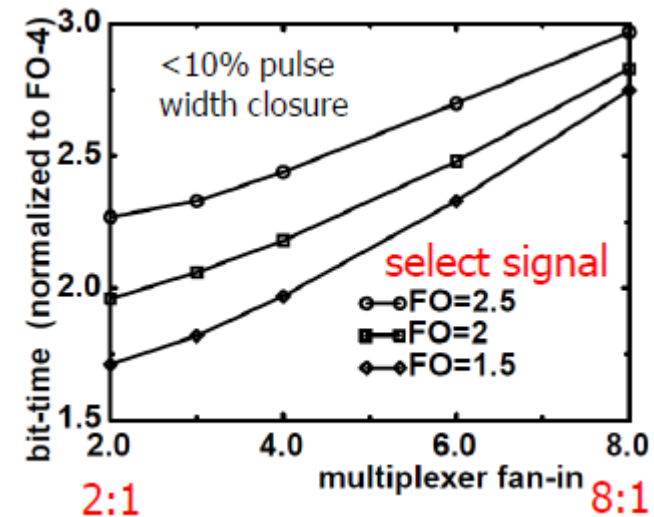
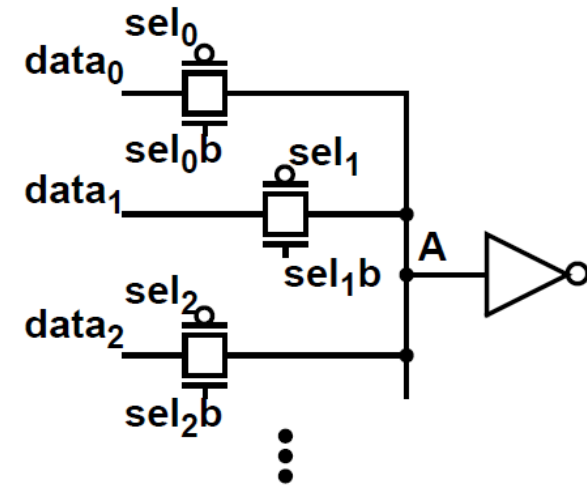
Increasing Multiplexing Factor – 1/4 Rate

- Increase multiplexing factor to allow for lower frequency clock distribution.
- 1/4-rate architecture
 - 4-phase clock distribution spaced at 90° allows for 2FO4 Tb.
 - 90° phase spacing and duty cycle critical for uniform output eye.

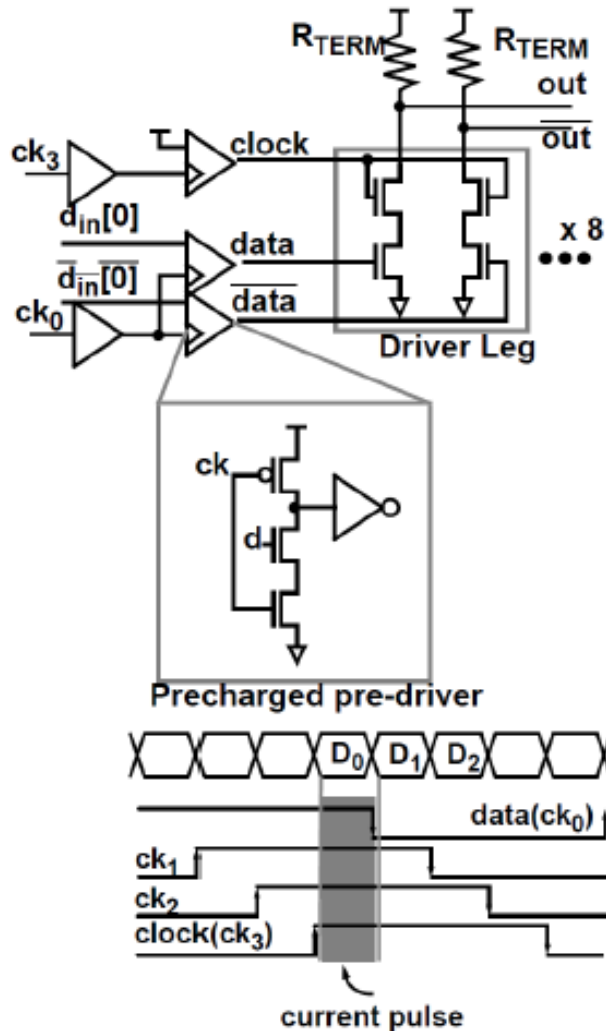


Mux Speed vs. Fan-in

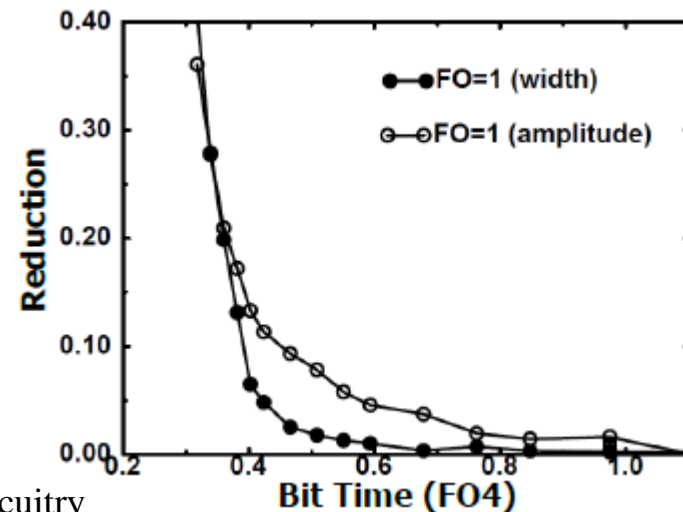
- Higher fan-in muxes run slower due to increased cap at mux node.
- 1/4-rate architecture
 - 4:1 CMOS mux can potentially achieve 2FO4 Tb with low fanout.
 - An aggressive CMOS-style design has potential for 16Gb/s in typical 90nm CMOS
- 1/8-rate architecture
 - 8-phase clock distribution spaced at 45° allows for 1FO4 Tb
 - No way a CMOS mux can achieve this!!



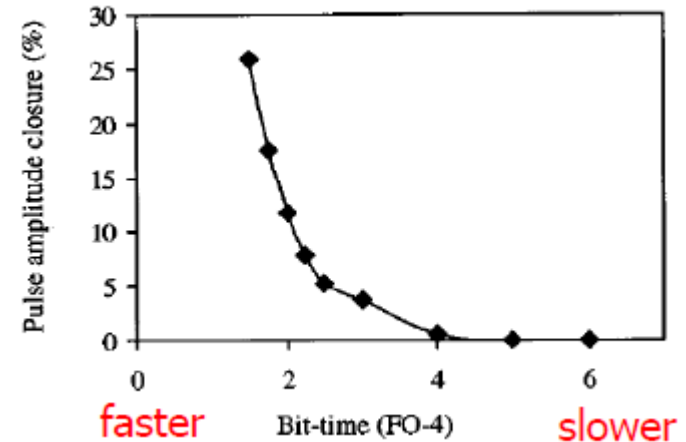
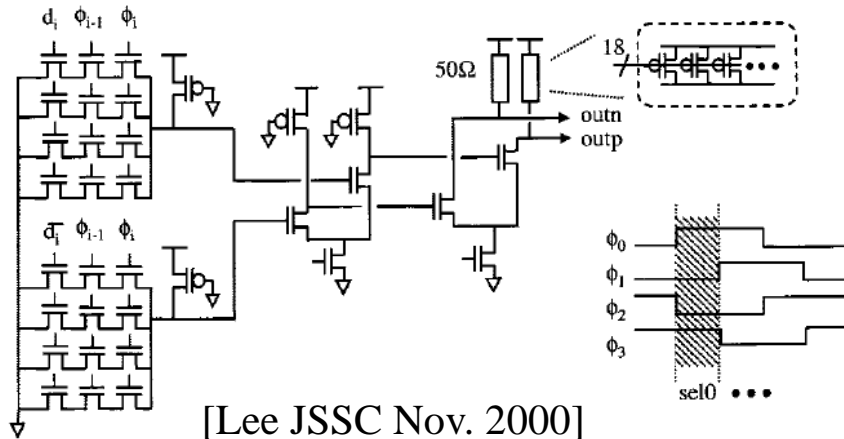
Current-Mode Output-Multiplexed



- 8:1 current-mode mux directly at output pad.
- Makes sense if output time constant smaller than on-chip time constant.
- Very sensitive to clock phase spacing.
- Yang achieved 6Gb/s in 0.35 μ m CMOS.
- Equivalent to 33Gb/s in 90nm CMOS (now channel (not circuit) limited)

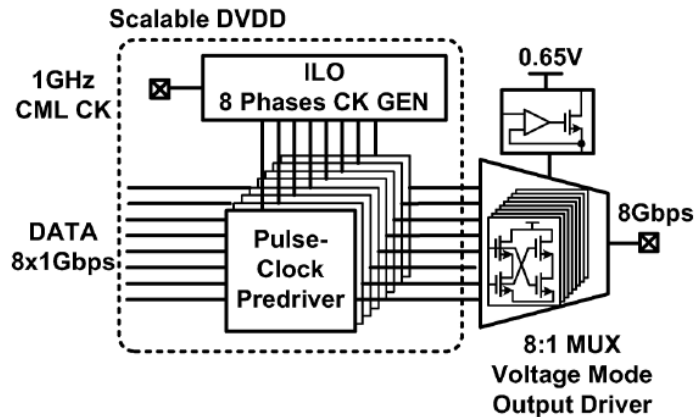


Current-Mode Input-Multiplexed

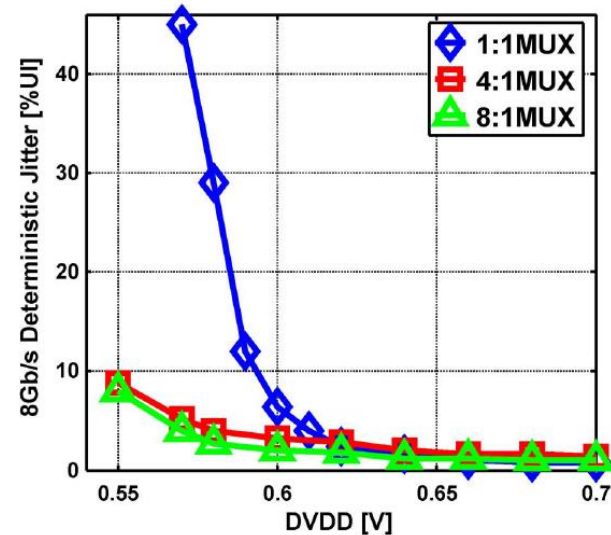


- **Reduces output capacitance relative to output-multiplexed driver**
 - Easier to implement TX equalization
- **Not sensitive to output stage current mismatches**
- **Reduces power due to each mux stage not having to be sized to deliver full output current**

Voltage-Mode Output-Multiplexed



[Song, JSSC May 2013]



- 8:1 voltage-mode mux directly at output pad.
- Makes sense if output time constant smaller than on-chip time constant.
- Allowed running from lower supply with lower jitter performance.
- Song achieved 6.4Gb/s in 65nm CMOS with only 0.3 pJ/bit excluding clocking power.