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Citation: Byungsub Kim, and V. Stojanovic. "A 4Gb/s/ch 356fJ/b 10mm equalized on-chip interconnect with nonlinear charge-injecting transmit filter and transimpedance receiver in 90nm CMOS." Solid-State Circuits Conference - Digest of Technical Papers, 2009. ISSCC 2009. IEEE International. 2009. 66-67,67a. ©2009 Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers.

As Published: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/ISSCC.2009.4977310>

Publisher: Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers

Persistent URL: <http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/59456>

Version: Final published version: final published article, as it appeared in a journal, conference proceedings, or other formally published context

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3.6 A 4Gb/s/ch 356fJ/b 10mm Equalized On-chip Interconnect with Nonlinear Charge-Injecting Transmit Filter and Transimpedance Receiver in 90nm CMOS

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This paper presents a transceiver for fast and energy-efficient global on-chip communication, consisting of a nonlinear charge-injecting (CI) 3-tap transmit filter (TX) and a sampling receiver (RX) with transimpedance pre-amplifier (TIA). Recently, pre-emphasis techniques [1-4] have demonstrated significantly better energy-efficiency than repeater interconnects. To further improve energy-efficiency over pre-emphasis techniques that require analog subtraction [3,5], our TX selects a pattern-dependent current to inject into the wire, performing feed-forward equalization (FFE) while mitigating the nonlinearity of the driver. This 3-tap charge-injecting (CI) FFE enables stronger equalization than the capacitively driven TX [1,2] or edge-detection pre-emphasis [4], achieving data-rate of 4Gb/s over a 1cm on-chip wire. The TIA at RX improves bandwidth, signal amplitude, and reduces bias power, breaking the trade-offs in conventional resistor termination [6], and mitigates equalized signal degradation due to impedance changes in dynamic current sensing [7].

Figure 3.6.1 depicts the overall link architecture with waveforms for single bit-flip pattern. Current sources at TX provide a small bias current for the TIA through signaling wires. The TX digitally computes and injects the FFE current (IT+ and IT-) into the wires. At RX, the received current (IR+ and IR-) is converted into a voltage (VS+ and VS-) by the TIA, and the slicers and DFE make a decision about the received bits.

The principle of CI FFE is shown in Fig. 3.6.2 through a conceptual comparison between the pull-down circuit of CI FFE and traditional analog FFE. For FFE coefficients $[w_0, w_1, w_2]$ where only w_1 is negative (typical on a lossy channel) there are only 4 distinct values of IT+ for each direction (inward/outward): I_0 , I_1 , I_2 , and $I_0+I_1+I_2$. Instead of having current sources with a size ratio of $w_0:w_1:w_2$, the current sources in CI FFE have a $I_0:I_1:I_2$ size ratio. Therefore, any value of IT+ can be created by *addition only*. This eliminates the current lost in analog FFE TX on subtraction. For example, when $D_0D_1D_2=011$, a CI FFE consumes only $I_2=w_0-w_1-w_2$ while an analog FFE consumes $I_0+I_1+I_2=|w_0|+|w_1|+|w_2|$ regardless of the pattern $D_0D_1D_2$. For random data, this reduces the power by half compared to analog FFE [3], with larger savings for lower activity rates.

Figure 3.6.3 shows a detailed block diagram of TX. To improve energy-efficiency, TX is designed in latch-based double-data-rate (DDR) style. TX has a weak driver design of accuracy and a strong driver designed for efficiency. Since I_0 is much smaller ($\sim 30\mu A$) and more sensitive than other current values, a differential current switch is used as the weak driver for accuracy. A strong driver injects large currents (I_1 , I_2 , and I_1+I_2) on data transitions by driving the eight 5b PMOS or NMOS digital-to-analog converters (DACs) (P_1 , P_2 , N_1 , N_2 for each terminal) rail-to-rail for most efficient charge delivery. Since DAC transistors are changing the region of operation as the output voltage swings from 0.5 to 0.9V (see Fig. 3.6.1), the DAC current and output impedance fluctuate. However, this nonlinearity is compensated by statically tuning each DAC segment (P_1 , P_2 , N_1 , N_2).

Figure 3.6.4 shows a state-transition diagram of output-voltage change and driver control of TX. Since injected current IT+ depends on the transmitted data pattern, TX output voltage VT+ is determined by two consecutive data bits. For example, if $D_0D_1D_2=011$ is being transmitted, the state (D_1D_2) changes from '11' to '01' (on a transition by D_0) by conducting $-I_2$ current via P_2 and N_2 segment. At the same time, the drain voltage of P_2 segment also changes from middle level to high level. Since each state transition has unique voltage-change profile and injected current value, assigning a DAC code for each transition compensates the nonlinear behavior. Except for the transitions

between '01' and '10,' coefficients are statically assigned since a single designated DAC segment drives each transition. With small accuracy cost, the transitions between '01' and '10' are done by turning on all strong-driver DACs and a weak driver, since the current errors of P_1/N_1 and P_2/N_2 when all segments are turned-on compared to other individual transitions cancel each other. A decoding block is implemented with small number of simple gates to control the DACs.

A TIA pre-amplifier is used in RX to combine the benefits of voltage-mode (VM) and current-mode (CM) signaling. In VM, as the termination impedance decreases, the received voltage decreases and static current increases, but the bandwidth also increases [6], while in CM, both the signal current and bandwidth increase. The TIA termination at RX provides small input impedance without large static current. The TIA has 860 Ω input impedance for high bandwidth (~ 350 MHz) and high current amplitude ($\sim 7.5\mu A$) at 2GHz, and the received current is converted into voltage V_{TIA} (~ 19 mV) by a 2.7k Ω TIA gain in simulation. The RX with TIA roughly doubles the received voltage at half the static current compared to VM signaling with direct 860 Ω termination. After the TIA, the received voltage is fed into a 1-tap loop-unrolled DDR DFE [8]. The DFE is designed based on threshold-controllable Strong-Arm slicers and latches to minimize power and area cost.

A test link over 1cm on-chip differential M8 wires (0.6 μm wide, 0.4 μm spaced) is implemented in 90nm 1.2V CMOS process. By sweeping threshold voltage and clock delay of RX slicers, the BER and signal probability distributions are measured *in situ* [8] at room temperature. Figure 3.6.5 shows the *in situ* measured eye diagram at 4Gb/s with 98mV vertical and 50% UI horizontal eye. A BER test showed no errors within the test-setup-limited window of $\sim 10^6$ bits. The large eye size indicates good supply-noise immunity. Without equalization, the eye is completely closed. Only 3b out of the possible 5b DACs are used when equalized, implying potential tuning cost reduction. Although the DFE is implemented in the receiver, it is not used at 4Gb/s since the FFE provides sufficient equalization. Figure 3.6.6 shows the energy breakdown and comparison with most recent related work [1]. The energy breakdown is extracted by multiplying the measured current with energy breakdown ratio from postlayout simulation. The total transceiver energy cost is 356fJ/b. The pre-driver energy of 85fJ/b could have been smaller (~ 30 fJ/b) since the pre-driver was oversized to handle higher data-rates. Since the DFE is not used, the DFE overhead of 30fJ/b is not included. The test-chip results show that this link design can operate about 2 \times faster at similar pitch for $\sim 30\%$ higher energy cost compared to [1]. The measured eye is larger than the eye at 1.75Gb/s reported in [1], increasing link robustness. Figure 3.6.7 is a die micrograph of the transceiver. The TX area is 1120 μm^2 and RX area is 640 μm^2 .

Acknowledgement.

We acknowledge the support of the Interconnect Focus Center, a Semiconductor Research Corporation Program and Trusted Foundry for chip fabrication, Intel Corporation and Center for Integrated Circuits and Systems at MIT.

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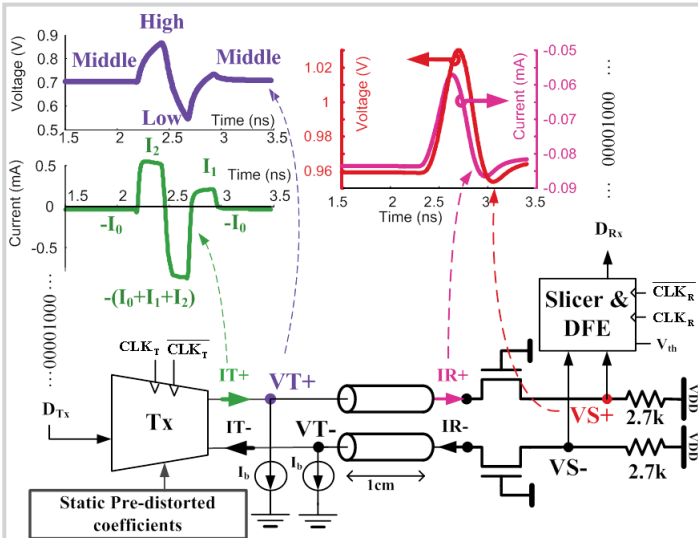


Figure 3.6.1: Overall link architecture with waveforms when '0001000' pattern is transmitted.

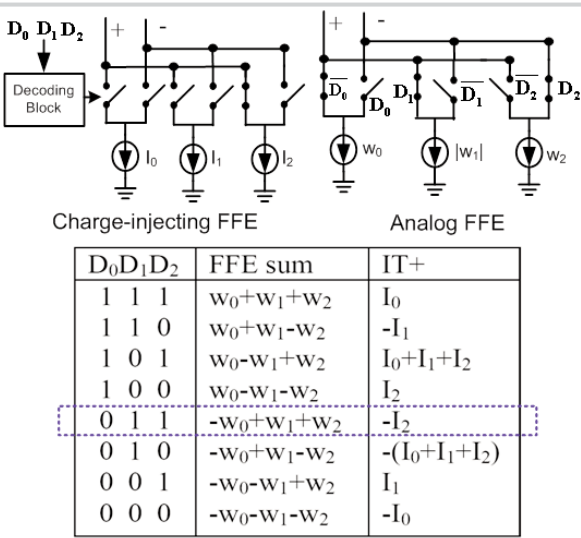


Figure 3.6.2: Conceptual comparison between the pull-down circuits of charge injection FFE and analog subtraction FFE when D₀D₁D₂='100'.

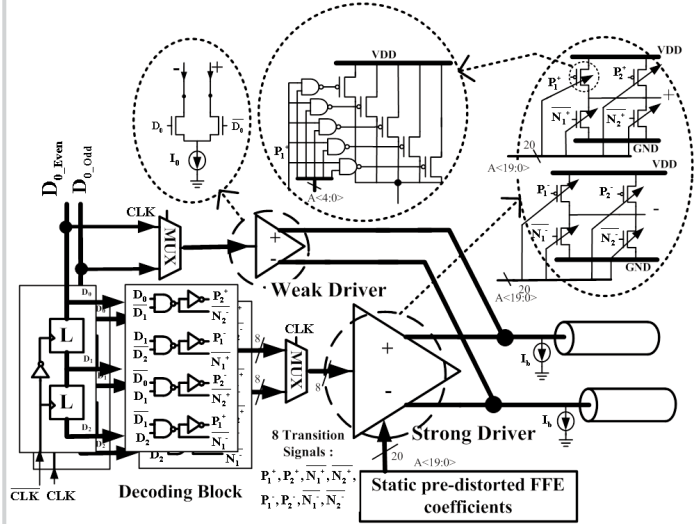


Figure 3.6.3: Block diagram of TX.

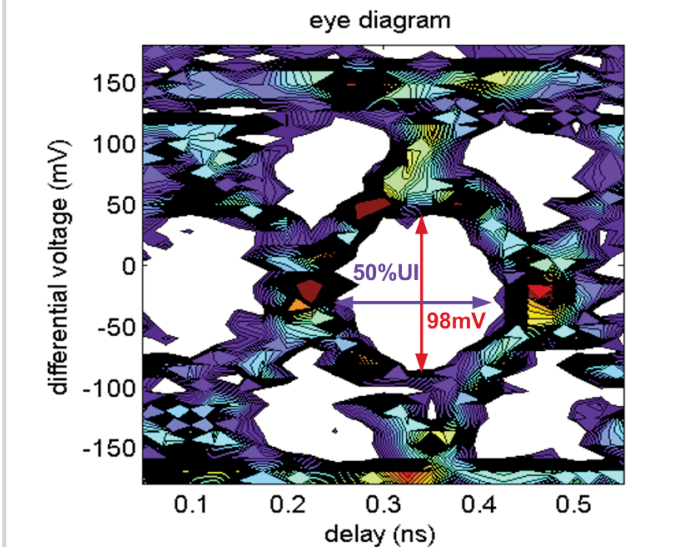


Figure 3.6.5: Measured eye diagram with FFE and without DFE equalization.

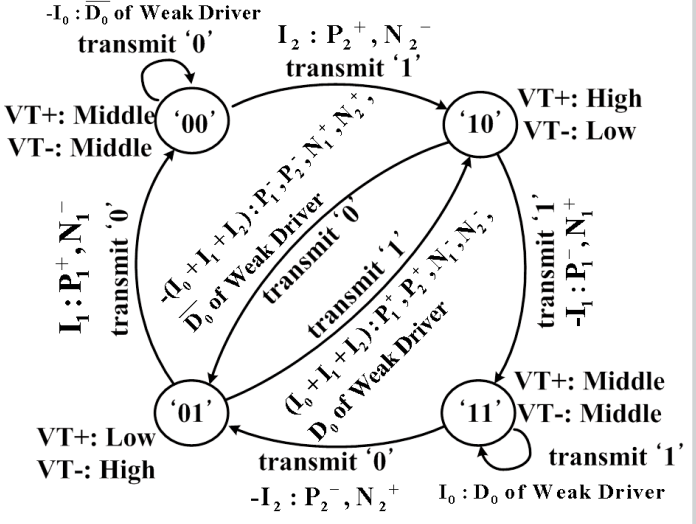


Figure 3.6.4: State transition diagram for TX control - 'D₁D₂' state with 'D₀' transition.

	This work	[1]
Data rate	4Gb/s	2Gb/s
Data rate density	2Gb/s/μm	1.1628Gb/s/μm
Channel length	1cm	1cm
Vertical Eye	98mV	N/A
Horizontal Eye	50%UI@ (4Gb/s) measured on-chip	44%UI @ (1.75Gb/s) after 50Ohm buffer
Measured Energy Cost (fJ/b) at room temperature	total 356	280
	Tx	
	total	277
	Strong driver	51
	Weak driver + TIA bias	48
	Decoder	24
	Clock	67
	Pre-driver	87
	Rx	
	total	79
	Slicer/Latch	30
	Clock	49
Technology	90nm	90nm

Figure 3.6.6: Comparison with recent work.

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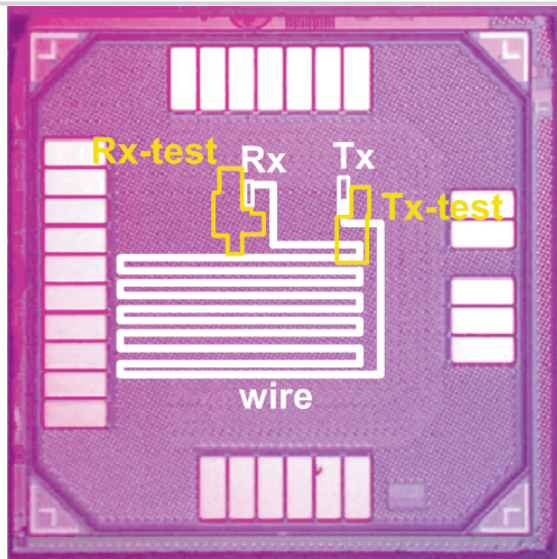


Figure 3.6.7: Micrograph of 1x1mm² die.