# A Radiation Tolerant 4.8 Gb/s Serializer for the Giga-Bit Transceiver

Ö. Çobanoğlu<sup>a</sup>, P. Moreira<sup>a</sup>, F. Faccio<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> CERN, PH-ESE-ME, 1211 Geneva 23, Switzerland

ozgur.cobanoglu@cern.ch

## Abstract

This paper describes the design of a full-custom 120:1 data serializer for the GigaBit Transceiver (GBT) which has been under development for the LHC upgrade (SLHC). The circuit operates at 4.8 Gb/s and is implemented in a commercial 130 nm CMOS technology. The serializer occupies an area of 0.6  $mm^2$  and its power consumption is 300 mW. The paper focuses on the techniques used to achieve radiation tolerance and on the simulation method used to estimate the sensitivity to single event transients.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

The GBT project aims at developing a radiation tolerant optical transceiver operating at 4.8 Gb/s within the framework of the LHC luminosity upgrade. Links implemented using the GBT will replace the three types of communication links currently in use, namely the timing, trigger and control (TTC) links, the data acquisition (DAQ) links and the slow control (SC) links, therefore providing a single solution for all the communication needs at the SLHC.

The GBT chip set will include a radiation tolerant serializer (SER) which converts 120-bit wide data words into a 4.8 Gb/s serial stream. Operating from a single 1.5 V supply, the circuit accepts CMOS-level data and control signals. The serializer outputs a differential signal with a worst-case simulated pattern-dependent jitter smaller than 6 ps at 4.8 Gb/s.

In the following section, the serializer architecture is detailed and a brief overview of its operation is provided. Section III deals with the circuit design of the major functional blocks. Section IV introduces the method used to estimate the performance of each circuit under radiation. Some relevant simulation results are also provided within this section. Finally, Section V summarizes the work.

### II. ARCHITECTURE

Fig. 1 shows the overall architecture of the serializer. It consists of a 120-bit input register, three 40-bit shift registers, a frequency synthesizer consisting of a phase-lock loop (PLL) with a feedback divider which is composed of two stages, one dividing by 3 and the other dividing by 40, thus a total division ratio of 120 and a 3:1 multiplexer shown as three switches.

The SER architecture is based on dividing the 120-bit frame into 3 40-bit words which are serialized at 1.6 Gb/s and then time division multiplexed to form the final 4.8 Gb/s serial bit stream. This architecture reduces the number of components operating at full speed.

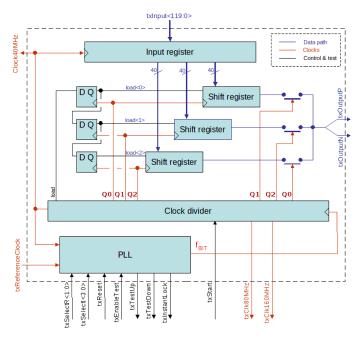


Figure 1: The architecture of the serializer.

A fully integrated programmable charge-pump phase-locked loop (CP-PLL) synthesizes a 4.8 GHz clock from the 40 MHz LHC clock reference. To optimize the output jitter, the values of the loop filter resistor and the charge-pump current are programmable with 2 and 4-bit resolution, ranging from 1.5 K $\Omega$  to 6.0 K $\Omega$  and from 1  $\mu$ A to 100  $\mu$ A, respectively.

The CP-PLL is designed to be tolerant to SETs by a combination of techniques: i) The voltage controlled oscillator (VCO) transistors are designed as triple-well devices for better isolation, to reduce the active volume where charge is collected and finally to promote a quick drift of charge due to the electrical field established by the bias voltages of the P and N wells. ii) Triple Modular Redundancy (TMR) is used in the feed-back divider of the PLL to mitigate the single event upsets (SEU). The design targets the temperature range of [-20  $C^o$ , 100  $C^o$ ] and operates at 1.5 V, tolerant to power supply variation of 10%.

Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 sketch the overall operation of the serializer as follows: at every rising edge of the master clock (Clock40MHz) the 120-bit frame is loaded into the input register. At every rising edge of load $\langle i \rangle$  signal, a 40-bit word is loaded into the respective 40-bit shift register.

Since the PLL locks to the 40 MHz reference clock, it generates a bit clock ( $f_{BIT}$ ) with frequency equal to 120 times

40 MHz, that is, 4.8 GHz from which three non-overlapping clock phases ( $Q_0$ ,  $Q_1$ , and  $Q_2$ ) are obtained. As shown in Fig. 2, these three clock phases are used to clock three shift registers and to control the fast multiplexer in order to time division multiplex the three 1.6 Gb/s serial streams into a single 4.8 Gb/s serial stream.

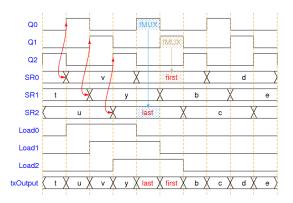


Figure 2: The timing diagram of the serializer operation.

### A. Radiation Issues

In deep sub-micron technologies, the performance of high speed circuits depend on many effects related to the layout to an extent which is much greater than that for older CMOS processes. Therefore in relatively-recent technologies, the layout work should be introduced in a very early stage since it has a large impact on the final performance. For accurate simulation, some of the loop parameters, which play important roles in the loop behavior such as the VCO gain, must be extracted from the actual layout implementation.

As reported in [8, 9] and [11], the charge-pump and the VCO are the most sensitive components of PLL circuits to SETs, and their design has to take into account the increased sensitivity of modern deep submicron technologies to SETs. In such technologies the integrated devices are located closer to each other, thus an ionizing particle can affect simultaneously several devices. Additionally the response of the parasitic devices to SETs can lead to charge collection exceeding that deposited by the ionizing particle. Examples are the PNPN parasitic structures in CMOS devices which can even lead to latch-up and the parasitic bipolar junction transistors which cause enhanced charge collection [3]. In this work, such conditions are addressed in the VCO differential delay cells and the fast multiplexer (fMUX) where triple-well transistors are used. The triple-well structure is expected to better isolate the devices from radiation-induced charge collection.

Considering the registers within the serializer, triple modular redundancy (TMR) scheme is used in the clock generator to increase SET immunity. This technique however limits the maximum frequency to values much lower than is otherwise achievable with this technology.

The techniques followed to minimize such penalties are summarized in the next section.

#### **III. CIRCUIT DESIGN**

The delay cell[7] chosen for the ring-oscillator is a standard differential-pair with symmetric loads as shown in Fig. 3. The low-pass filter (LPF) voltage, shown as bn in Fig 3, is used to control the differential pair tail current and thus to control the VCO oscillation frequency. The bias of the symmetrical loads is generated through the replica-bias circuit represented in Fig. 3-B.

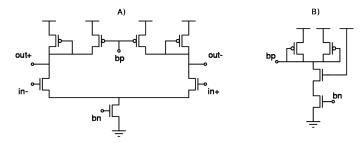


Figure 3: The differential delay cell (A) and its replica-bias (B).

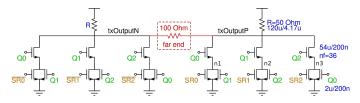


Figure 4: The fast-multiplexer with the history clearing scheme.

The fast multiplexer shown in Fig. 4, is implemented by an 8 input nMOS logic And-Or-Inverter (AOI) structure driven both by the clock phases  $Q_i$  and the pseudo-complementary shift register signals  $SR_i$ . The required clock phases  $Q_0$ ,  $Q_1$ , and  $Q_2$  are generated within the PLL clock divider. The clock phases  $Q_0$ ,  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  are non-overlapping so at any time only one of the fMUX branches is active.

A straightforward AOI multiplexer has the following drawbacks that the circuit presented in Fig. 4 addresses. Firstly, depending on the history of logic levels of  $SR_i$  inputs driving the branches which are disabled by logic-low  $Q_i$  signals, the output node experiences different amounts of charge sharing between the nodes  $n_1$  to  $n_3$  leading to different delays and thus patterndependent jitter. In order to solve this problem, relatively small transistors driven by the next  $Q_i$  phase are connected in parallel with those driven by  $SR_i$  to clear the effect of signal history. When a branch is selected by the corresponding  $Q_i$  phase, these small transistors ensure that the node in between the two transistors is pre-discharged to the ground so that all the transitions start with identical initial conditions. In this way, the patterndependent timing ambiguity is minimized.

## A. SEU Tolerance

Radiation tolerance of the feed-back divider is obtained by the TMR techniques. Due to the extra logic employed, these techniques limit limit the maximum achievable operating frequency. Circuits voting the inputs or outputs of D-FFs increase the logic propagation delays and cannot be used for high speed applications. Instead, a novel voted dynamic D-FF was designed which embeds the voter. Its schematic can be seen in Fig. 5.

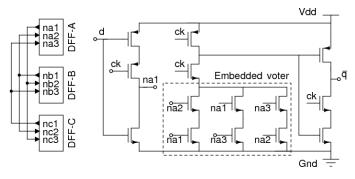


Figure 5: Improved TRM dynamic D-FF.

## **IV. SIMULATION RESULTS**

The PLL architecture adopted can be modeled by a secondorder type-II negative feed-back loop for which an analytic model can be found in [5] and [4]. Fig. 6 shows the possible operating points (circles) of the CP-PLL on the stability map which plots the normalized forward loop gain as a function of the normalized reference input. The overload and z-plane stability limits[4] are also shown. The desired operating points are located in the vicinity of 10 % of the overload limit which set in at lower values.

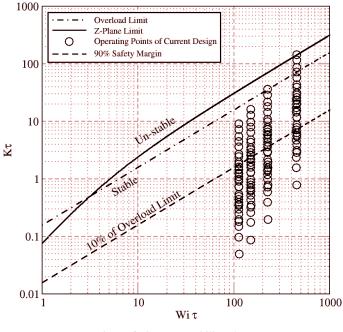


Figure 6: CP-PLL stability plot.

A practical issue in designing PLLs is the fact that not all the loop parameters can be arbitrarily chosen, requiring some building blocks to be laid out before the actual model based simulations can take place. As examples, the time constant of the loop filter or the charge-pump current can be freely chosen, however the designer cannot set arbitrarily the VCO gain since it very much depends on the circuit topology and the semiconductor process used. The VCO gain contributes to the forward gain of the control loop and is a very important parameter for the loop behavior. The VCO gain and its variations can be known only once the circuit is laid out and the parasitics are extracted. Only then the model based simulations mentioned above can be performed. It is thus necessary to start the PLL design with the implementation of the VCO down to the layout level before realistic model based simulations of the loop itself can be done. Circuit design in these cases is thus an iterative optimization process between the schematic and the layout levels.

#### A. Single-Event Transient Simulations

In the simulation results presented in this section, the charge released within the silicon by an ionizing particle is modeled as ideal rectangular current pulses[6] of different amplitudes with a fixed duration of 10 ps. Even though a double-exponent wave form with a relatively long tail better resembles the actual wave form, it must be extracted from process simulations to correspond to a real conditions. At the time of this writing, however, such process simulation results were not available. Consequently, the effects of the wave form of the injected pulse was not modeled and only that of the magnitude of the injected net charge was considered.

An incoming ionizing particle releases charge that is collected by the microelectronic devices nearby. Fig. 7 sketches how the ionizing particle passages are modeled as ideal current pulses applied to SET vulnerable nodes of the circuit under study. For the VCO differential cell shown in Fig. 7, the charge released is sensed by the drain and/or the source of the transistors causing an effective phase shift at the VCO signal. The simulation result of Fig. 8 shows the low-swing differential VCO signal and the corresponding large-swing single-ended output when an ionizing particle releases charge in the circuit at approximately t=300 ps instant from the beginning of the simulation. The injected charge is relatively small causing only a small phase shift, however in case the amount of charge released by the ionizing particle is large enough, the VCO can even cease oscillation for a while and then recover nominal operation. Such a condition is shown in Fig. 9.

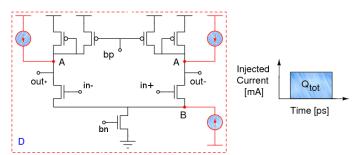


Figure 7: Differential delay cell (D) and the two vulnerable points to be affected by an ionizing particle passage, denoted as A and B.

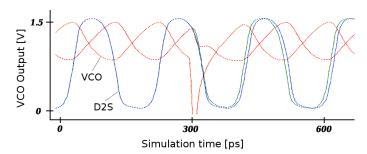


Figure 8: Moderate SET-induced disturbance: ionizing particle strike perturbs (0.1 pC) the VCO (small amplitude signals) and shifts (as 10 ps) the D2S phase from its nominal evolution (large amplitude non-perturbed signal and its shifted copy).

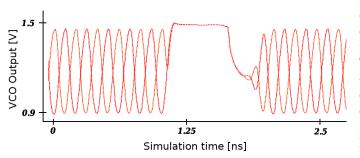


Figure 9: Due to excessive charge deposition (50 pC) by ionizing particles, the VCO oscillation can be temporarily interrupted.

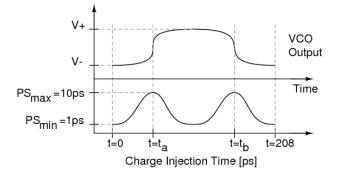


Figure 10: The effect of the ionizing particle's arrival instant on the amount of delay it causes.

The phase shift induced on the VCO signal by the ionizing particle does not only depend on the magnitude of the charge deposited but also on the instant the charge is collected by the circuit in relation to the VCO cycle. It is possible to find the worst-case sensitivity to the collection of charge via simulation by sweeping the "arrival time" of the ionizing radiation.

Fig. 10 sketches conceptually a simulation result where the output of the differential ring-oscillator is plotted at the top and the delay caused by 0.1 pC of charge injected is plotted as a function of the arrival instant at the bottom. The injection instant is swept over a single VCO cycle. Simulations show that there are two time intervals where the sensitivity is the highest: these correspond to the periods where the VCO output changes at a faster rate. The instants marked as  $t_a$  and  $t_b$  correspond to the maximum phase shift  $(PS_{max})$  and the sensitivity is 100

s/C or is equivalently  $1.6 \times 10^{-17} s/e^-$ . The SET performance of the VCO is evaluated based on these worst-case time instants.

The worst-case phase error as a function of injected charge is plotted in Fig. 11. The design criteria used for the 4.8 GHz VCO was that a 30 mA current pulse with 10 ps width, corresponding to 0.3 pC of charge release, injected/sank to/from the nodes A and/or B of Fig. 7 should cause a maximum phase shift of approximately 20 ps. Intuitively considering closed loop PLL operation, the amount of timing error per reference clock cycle that the ionizing particles generate should not be bigger than the amount of correction that the loop can perform. This limits the maximum phase error and prevents bursts of errors that otherwise will lead to a significant increase in serializer bit-error rate (BER). This is an issue specific to the design of radiation tolerant PLLs. To achieve such a robustness, we adopted the solution of keeping the current flowing through the transistors just large enough so that the charge released by an ionizing particle does not significantly affect the circuit biasing and oscillation cycle. To accommodate the higher currents while keeping a specific oscillation frequency, transistor widths have to be increased accordingly. This helps achieving tolerance to SETs due to the increased circuit capacitances. The disadvantage of the technique is the increased power consumption of the VCO which might have to be biased with currents several times higher than those that would be normally required to achieve low phase noise operation at the given operating frequency. Running the VCO at high currents does not however impair its phase noise performance.

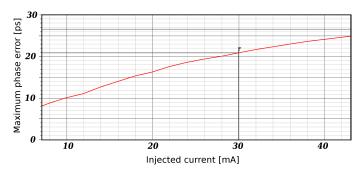


Figure 11: The worst-case phase error versus the injected current.

The phase shifts considered so far occurs only once an ionizing particle releases charge within the VCO delay cell. However if the charge is deposited at the charge-pump node connected to the filter, the voltage difference it causes on the VCO control signal modulates the VCO frequency. The VCO frequency difference will integrate over 120 VCO cycles until the phasefrequency detector (PFD) generates the next correction signal. In order to minimize this effect, a large filter capacitance must be employed. In the serializer PLL, segmented nMOS transistors in accumulation mode were used with a total capacitance of 300 pF. The LPF itself occupies a total area of less then 400x200  $\mu m^2$ .

## V. SUMMARY

The BER performance of high-speed links depends strongly on the jitter characteristics of the serializer and deserializer circuits. For the serializer, jitter in the transmitted signal has two main origins: random jitter generated by the VCO phase noise and the tracking behavior of the clock multiplying PLL, pattern dependent jitter essentially due to bandwidth limitations, and clock skew in the parallel-to-serial conversion circuits. For serializer circuits operating under radiation, ionizing particles can contribute significantly to the increase of the BER[13]. This can take the form of single or bursts of errors. Single errors can happen for example when one of the bits of the serializer shift registers suffers a single event upset. However circuits like the VCO and the PLL loop-filter when disturbed can lead to bursts of errors adversely affecting the BER which can even lead to losses of link synchronization which will result in relatively large dead times in the data transmission system. It is thus particularly important to minimize the effects of SETs on these last two circuits since they keep a "long term" memory of the disturbing event. For the VCO, in the best case, a SET will appear as a phase jump that will stay uncorrected until the PLL action restores the steady state conditions. In the case of loop-filter, any disturbance will be integrated resulting in large phase errors which again need to be compensated by the PLL. Since in serializer PLLs the loop bandwidth is typically several orders of magnitude lower than the VCO oscillation frequency, the loop action alone is not fast enough to fully compensate for the effects of SETs. It is thus important to use SET robust circuits in the PLL. This paper described the approach adopted to achieve this goal. In particular, the design criteria and simulation method used to design a SET robust VCO were detailed. There it was shown that for SEU tolerance, running the VCO with relatively high currents is an advantage. Although low-power consumption is always desirable, our study shows that ring oscillators can only be made low power at the cost of high sensitivity to SETs.

Another critical component in a PLL working under radiation is the feedback counter. Any upset in this circuit might appear to the PLL as large phase shift resulting on a long settling time or even in a full locking cycle. In any case, such an event will almost certainly desynchronize the receiver PLL resulting in a long dead time. To avoid such behavior the clock divider must use a triple modular redundancy architecture. However, due to the high speed operation of the counter, it became evident that the common scheme of using a flip-flop preceded by a majority voter would not allow to design a high yield circuit for the specified range of process, temperature and voltage variations. To overcome this obstacle a new dynamic flip-flop with embedded voter was developed and is used in the ASIC for the digital circuits that operate at the highest clock frequencies.

Also with the aim of achieving high yield, the parallel-toserial converter uses three shift registers operation at 1/3 of the bit clock frequency. The full data rate serial stream is obtained by time division multiplexing those three serial steams using a single fast multiplexer. This multiplexer uses a special architecture to minimize pattern dependent jitter and it is described in detail in the paper. A serializer/de-serializer ASIC that contains the serializer described in this work was designed in a commercial 130 nm CMOS technology. Fig. 12 shows the serializer layout.

R	
SR1 SR0	
[0][0][0] [0][2]	L L

Figure 12: Layout of the serializer occupying  $0.6 mm^2$  of die area.

#### REFERENCES

- A.I. Chumakov, *et al.*, Elsevier Radiation Measurements 30 (1999) 547-552
- [2] G. Anelli, *et al.*, IEEE transactions on nuclear science, 2002, Vol. 49, No 4
- [3] G. Bruguier *et al.*, IEEE transactions on nuclear science, Vol. 44, 522-532, April 1996
- [4] F. M. Gardner, IEEE journal of solid-state circuits, Vol. com. 28, no. 11, 1980
- [5] F. M. Gardner, Phaselocking Techniques, John Wiley and Sons, 2005
- [6] H. H. Chung *et al.*, IEEE transactions on nuclear science, Vol. 53, no. 6, 2006
- [7] J. G. Maneatis, IEEE journal of solid-state circuits, Vol. 31, issue 11, November 1996, page(s):1723-1732
- [8] T. D. Loveless *et al.*, IEEE transactions on nuclear science, Vol. 53, no. 6, 2006
- [9] T. D. Loveless *et al.*, IEEE transactions on nuclear science, Vol. 54, no. 6, 2007
- [10] W. Chen *et al.*, IEEE transactions on nuclear science, Vol. 50, no. 6, 2003
- [11] Y. Boulghassoul *et al.*, IEEE transactions on nuclear science, Vol. 52, no. 6, 2005
- [12] Z. Cao *et al.*, IEEE journal of solid-state circuits, Vol. 43, no. 9, 2008
- [13] T. Toifl, P. Moreira and A. Marchioro, Proceeding of the Sixth Workshop on Electronics for LHC Experiments, Cracow, Poland, 11-15 Sept. 2000, pp.226-30