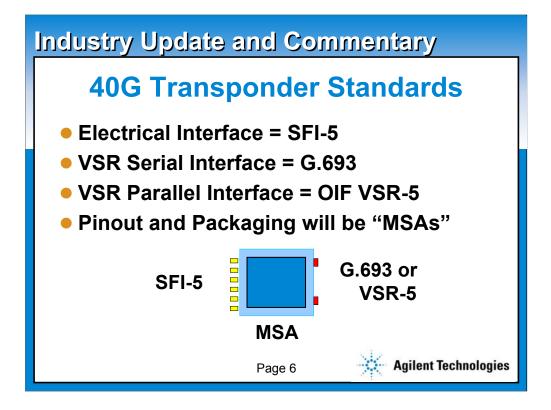


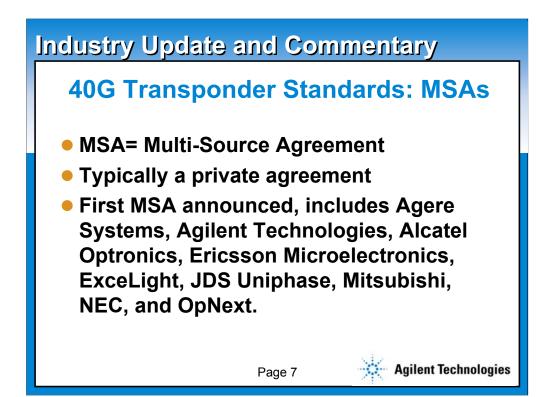
Industry Update and Commentary 40G Transponders VSR Interfaces, being between different vendors, require standards. This standardization allows "industry standard transponders" to be created Standardized transponders require: Standardized Electrical Interface specs Standardized Optical Interface specs

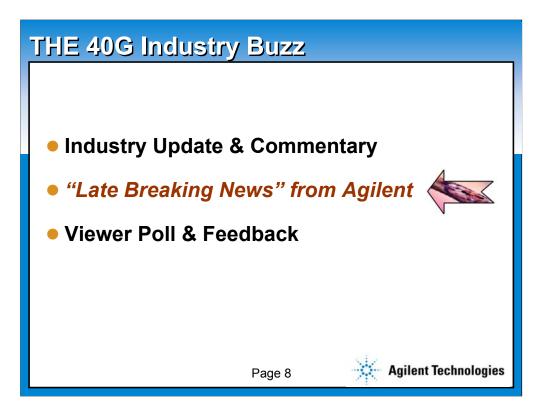
Standardized Packaging and Pinout

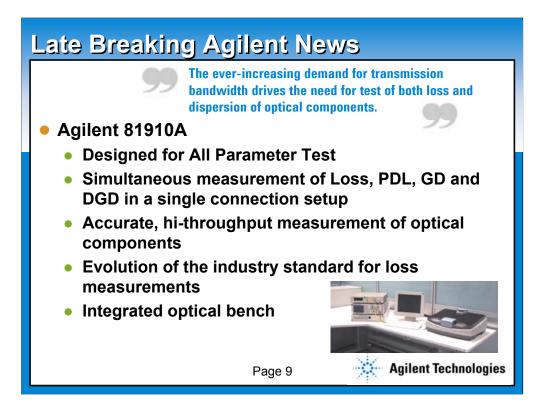


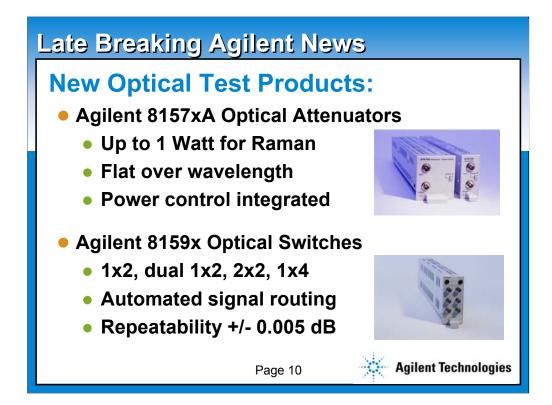
Agilent Technologies



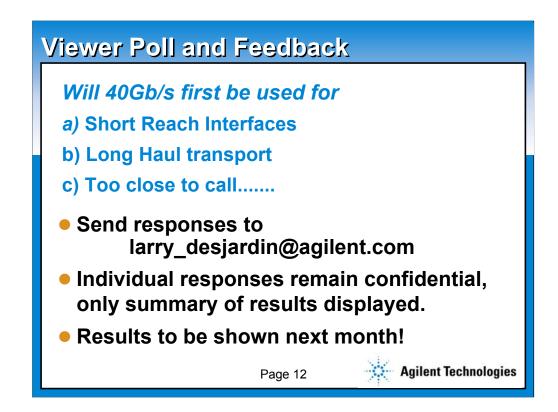














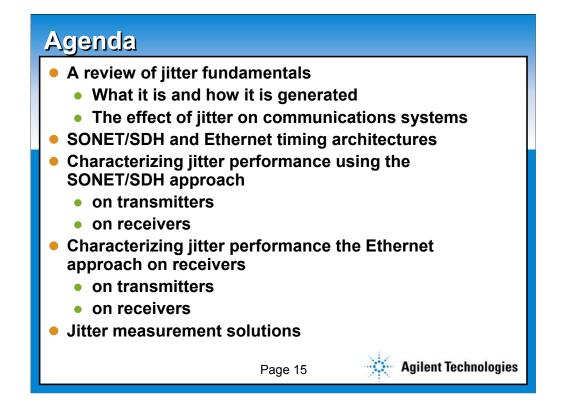


Characterizing Jitter On High-Speed Communications Signals

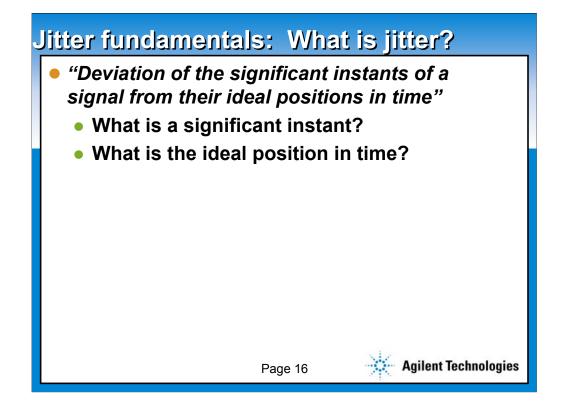
February 5, 2001

presented by:

Brian Scott



In today's discussion there will be some review of the basics of jitter and some of the key timing architectures before jumping into the main topic of discussion: making measurements



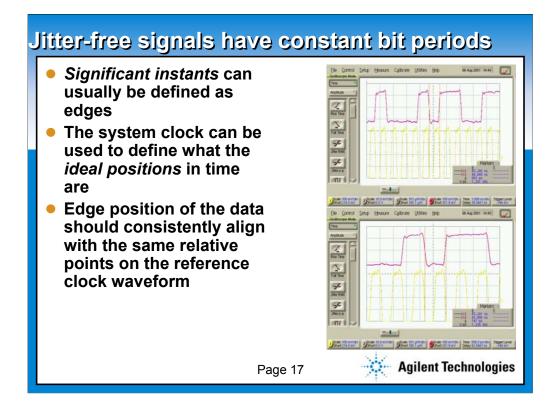
The typical one sentence description of jitter is:

"Deviation of the significant instants of a signal from their ideal positions in time".

Let's deconstruct this statement to better understand it:

What is a significant instant?

What is the ideal position in time?



By examining the edges of a digital communications bit stream, we can better illustrate our definition.

Here is an oscilloscope display of a data stream with the system clock waveform, the lower display being a closeup view of the edges.

If the timing of this bit stream were jitter free, the period for all of the bits would always be precisely identical.

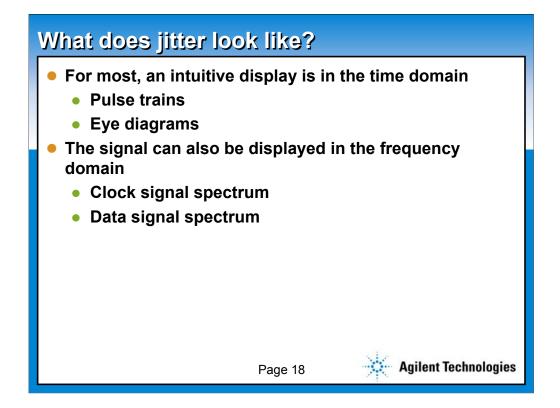
Thus the time between any two rising or two falling edges will always be a precise integer multiple of the nominal bit period.

Another way to look at this is to look at the data stream relative to an ideal clock source.

The time between a data edge and the closest clock edge should always be the same.

If the data signal is jitter free, then the 50% amplitude points on the data waveform should consistently align with points on the clock waveform.

However, if the bit period fluctuates for any reason, the bit stream will no longer be jitter free.



•To quantify jitter, it helps to display the signal in an understandable format.

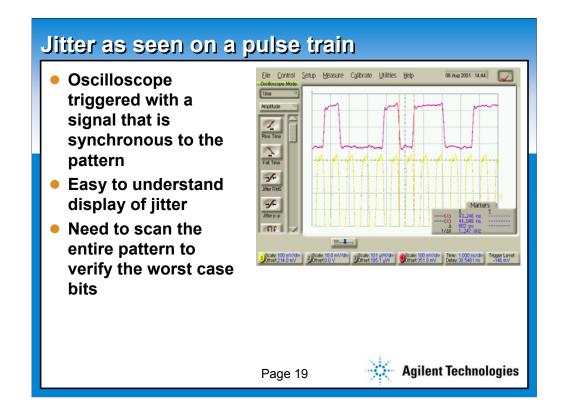
•Typically, the most intuitive representation of jitter is an "amplitude versus time" format.

•This is achieved with an oscilloscope with sufficient bandwidth for the signal being analyzed.

•Depending upon how the scope is triggered, the waveform is displayed as either the pulse train (which was shown on the last slide) or the eye diagram.

•There is also value in displaying the signal as a function of frequency.

•The spectrum of a signal and it's frequency components are displayed directly as either the clock or data signal spectrum



•When the oscilloscope is triggered with a signal that is synchronous to the pattern

(e.g. an edge that is generated once for every repetition of the pattern),

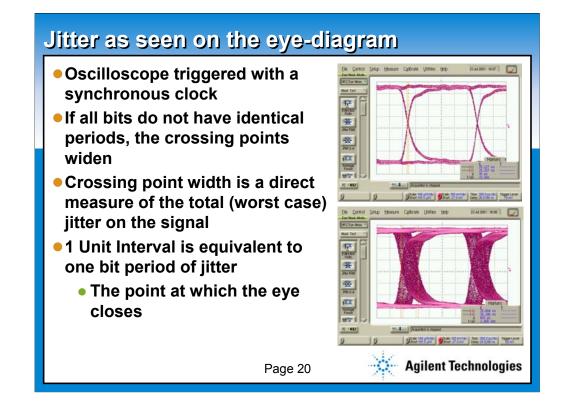
the pulse train will be displayed.

•As discussed earlier, it is easy to get a direct view of the timing variation of data pulses.

•However, the downside to displaying the signal as a pulse train, is that it is difficult to view more than a few pulses at a time.

•In most signals, the deviation of the pulses from the ideal can be impacted to a large extent by the data pattern.

•Thus, it can be difficult to determine the worst case jitter without scanning, or, sequentially "walking" through, the entire pattern



•An alternative to displaying the pulse train of the signal is to view it with an eye-diagram.

•This is a superposition of a multitude of samples throughout the entire data pattern.

•The eye diagram is achieved through triggering the oscilloscope with a synchronous clock (or divided clock).

•As the oscilloscope is in an infinite persistence mode, the eye diagram builds up and then is a good indication of the overall jitter performance.

•The width of the crossing point is a common location to quantify the jitter.

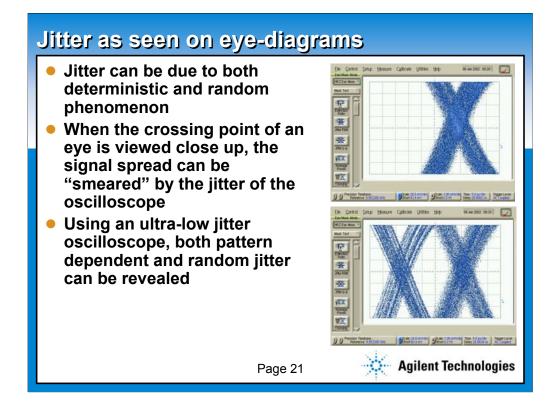
•In the lower eye diagram, the jitter is 0.25 unit intervals, where a unit interval is used to normalize the jitter to a bit period.

•One unit interval is equivalent to one bit period of jitter.

•(Note that any jitter on the trigger signal will affect the jitter measurement of the data.

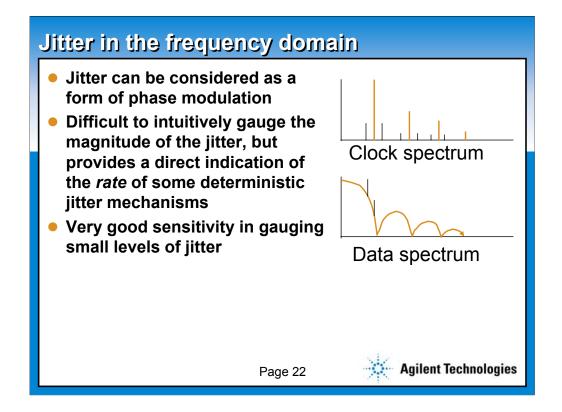
•Jitter that is common to both the data and the trigger signal can result in this jitter not being displayed on the eye diagram.

•This is most likely when the triggering clock is derived from the data



If the eye diagram is viewed on an oscilloscope that has very low intrinsic jitter, both the pattern dependent jitter, i.e., the deterministic jitter, and random jitter can be revealed, by viewing the crossing point close up.

Here, the upper crossing point is viewed on an oscilloscope with typical intrinsic jitter, which results in a smeared signal spread, whereas the crossing point on the lower display is viewed with an oscilloscope with ultra-low intrinsic jitter.



•Because jitter can be considered as a form of phase modulation, jitter can be viewed as a function of frequency, and therefore it is very easy to see if there are any systematic elements to the jitter.

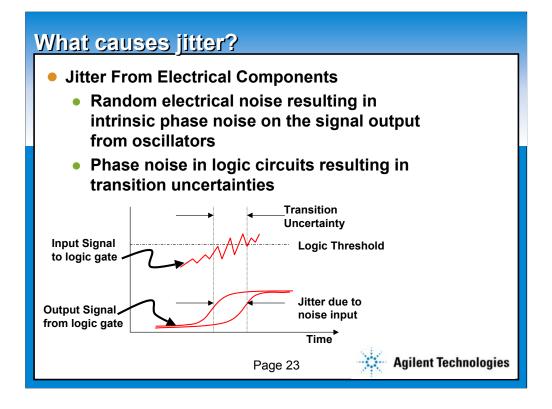
•While it is difficult to intuitively gauge the magnitude of the jitter, jitter in the frequency domain provides a direct indication of the *rate* of some deterministic jitter mechanisms

It is also has very good sensitivity in gauging small levels of jitter

For example, if a switching power supply were causing a clock frequency to deviate from ideal, modulation sidebands would be present and easily viewed in the frequency domain plot of the clock spectrum.

Modulation sidebands can also be seen on data signals, but in general the spectrum of the data signal is complex.

Tools for examining in the frequency domain include spectrum analyzers and phase noise systems

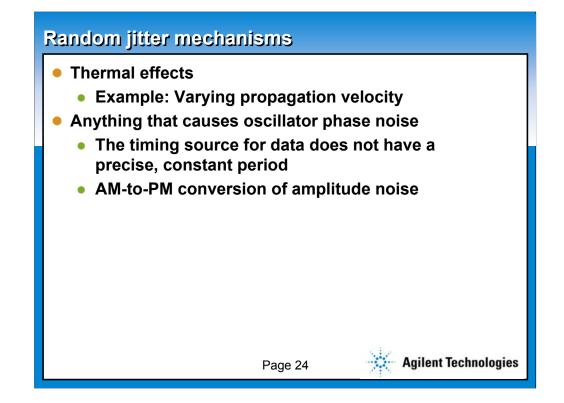


The causes of jitter are embedded within the components of the system.

Jitter From Electrical Components

Random electrical noise resulting in intrinsic phase noise on the signal output from oscillators

Phase noise in logic circuits resulting in transition uncertainties



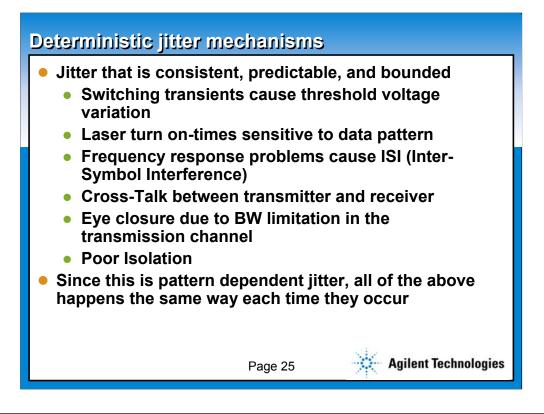
Phase Noise of Reference Clock,

Thermal effects

Example: Varying propagation velocity

Anything that causes oscillator phase noise

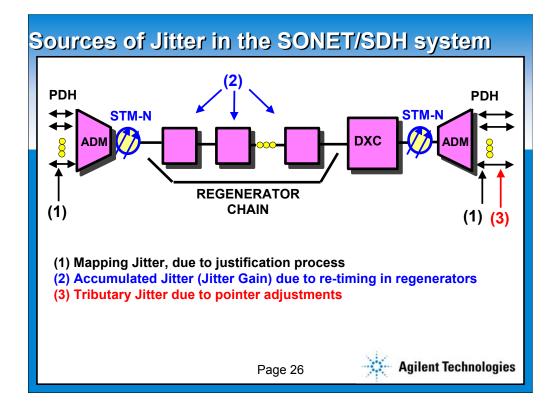
The timing source for data does not have a precise, constant period AM-to-PM conversion of amplitude noise



Switching transients cause threshold voltage variation (thus a shift in timing) Laser turn on-times sensitive to data pattern Frequency response problems cause ISI (Inter-Symbol Interference) Cross-Talk between transmitter and receiver Eye closure due to BW limitation in the transmission channel

Poor Isolation (leakage of a sinusoidal signals onto the clock, etc)

Since this is pattern dependent jitter, all of the above happens the same way each time they occur

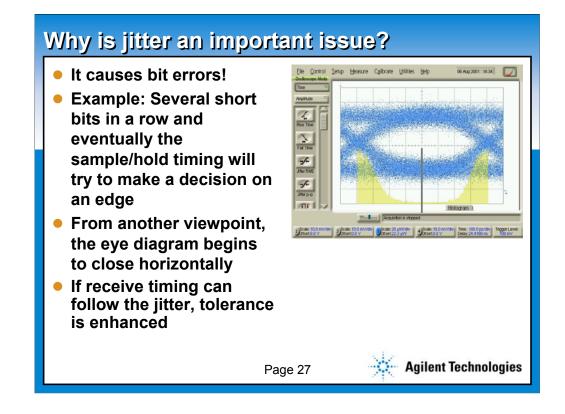


Pointer Jitter - Tributary Jitter due to pointer adjustments

De-mapping Jitter - Tributary Jitter due to demapping process

If timing sources S1 and S2 are precisely the same frequency, no pointer activity will occur.

If S1 and S2 are offset then pointer activity will occur at points 'P'



•Jitter is significant only because it is one of the major potential causes for data being received in error.

•For example, if a long string of bits are on the short side, eventually a receiver will be making a decision at the edge of the bit rather than the center (if the clock rate is held constant).

•This will result in errored bits.

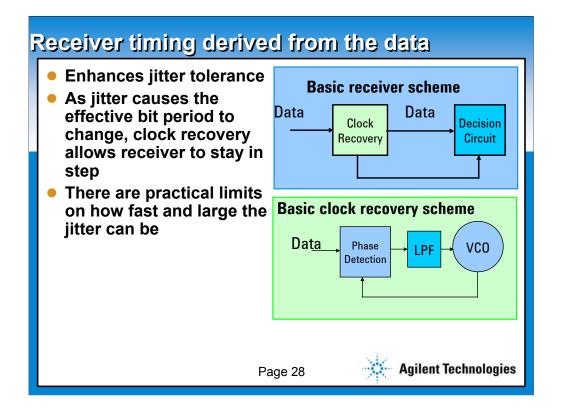
•Another perspective is to view the eye diagram.

•As the jitter increases, eventually the eye will close horizontally.

•In the waveform display, histograms have been constructed (with the horizontal slice near the crossing point) to indicate the probability of edges existing at or near the sampling point, shown by the vertical line in the center of the eye.

•If the clock used for setting up the sample and hold in the detection process is derived from the data, the sampling point can then follow the jitter and allow the system to tolerate jitter.

•As was the case for triggering an oscilloscope with a derived clock, the clock recovery process is limited by the loop bandwidth of the clock recovery circuitry.



Most optical communications systems derive receiver timing from the data itself.

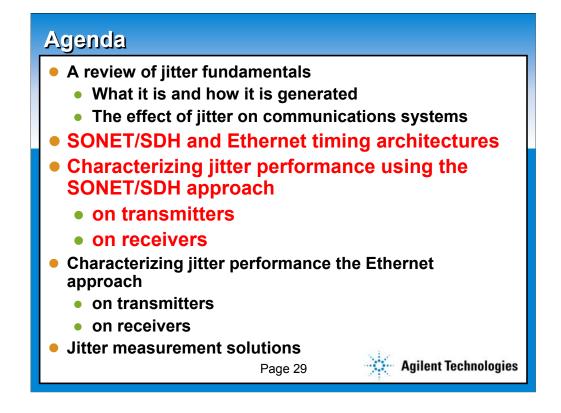
If the clock used to time the decision circuit were completely synchronous with the data, then any data on the jitter could be fully compensated for.

It would seem that a receiver with an infinite clock recovery loop bandwidth would be desirable.

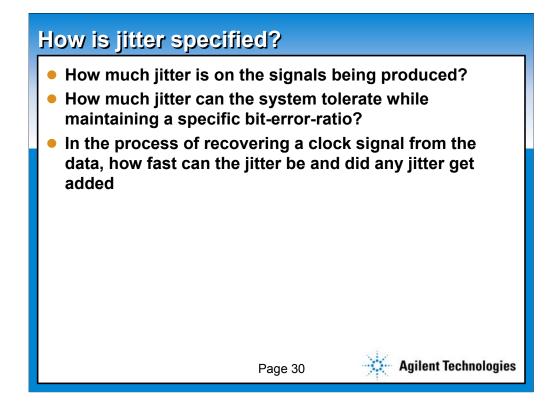
However, from a practical design point, the error signal is low-passfiltered (from a phase detector or virtually any other scheme that produces an error signal to drive a VCO).

Thus the bandwidth of the clock recovery scheme is limited.

Jitter that is faster than the response time cannot be tracked and will potentially lead to bit errors.



So far we have reviewed the basics of jitter. Now, we will turn to an explanation of the different timing architectures.

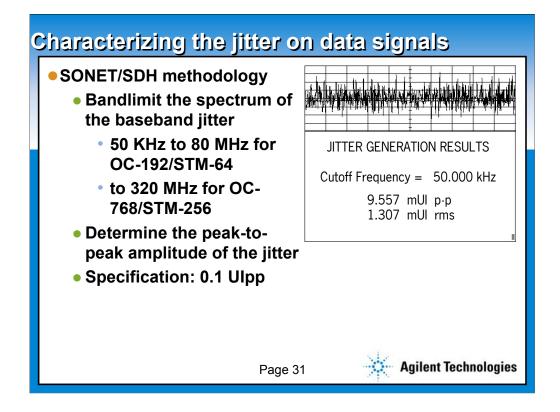


Specifications for jitter can be lumped into three main categories:

How much jitter is on the data,

How much jitter can be the system tolerate while maintaining a specific bit-error ratio,

and , in the clock recovery process, how fast can the jitter be on the signal, and was any jitter added.



•SONET/SDH systems are specified such that data signals cannot have more than 0.1 peak-to-peak unit intervals of jitter.

•This represents a 10% eye closure.

•It is important to note that the spectrum of the jitter is intentionally bandlimited when verifying compliance.

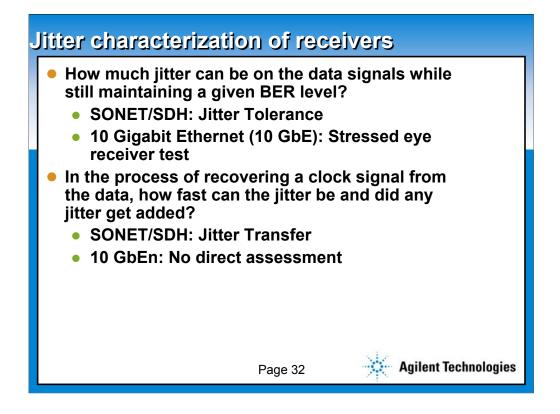
•Elements of the baseband jitter that are below 50 KHz and above 80 MHz for 10 g signals, and 80 KHz to 320 MHz for 40G signals (with other BW's for lower data rates) are excluded from the measurement.

•Thus measurement equipment must employ some method to reject these frequencies.

•The display shows the magnitude of the jitter versus time.

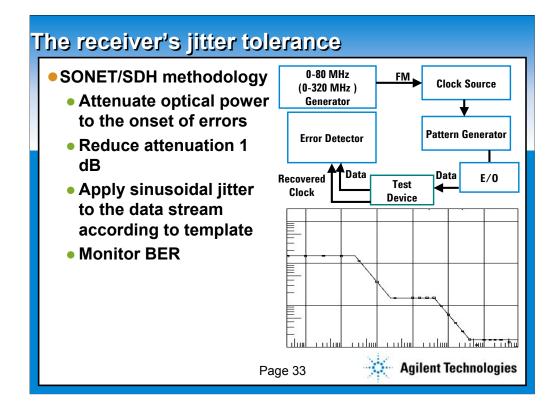
•The jitter signal has been extracted from the data.

•If the jitter is random, the waveform looks like noise.



The second aspect of jitter measurements involves characterizing how much jitter can be on a data signal and still allow a system to achieve an adequate BER. In SONET/SDH methodology this is called jitter tolerance. In 10 Gigabit Ethernet this is called the stressed eye receiver sensitivity. Both measurements essentially quantify the performance of receivers

In SONET/SDH, receiver jitter transfer is also characterized.



•The process for performing a SONET jitter tolerance test is described as follows:

•Attenuate optical power to the onset of errors

•Reduce attenuation 1 dB

•Apply sinusoidal jitter to the data stream according to the template

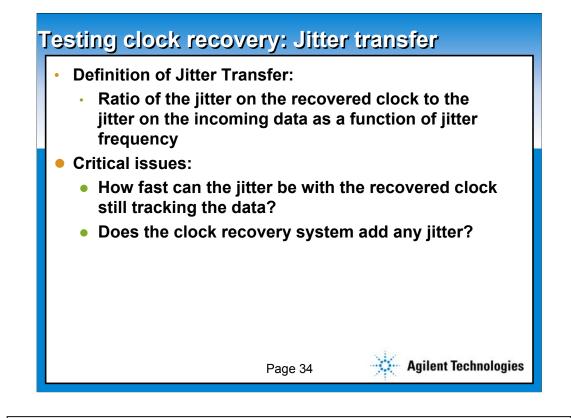
•Monitor the Bit Error Ratio

•The applied sinusoidal jitter is indicated in the template diagram.

•Note that jitter initially begins at a large amplitude (in excess of 1 unit interval or full eye closure) and a low frequency.

•As the jitter frequency is increased the jitter is reduced in amplitude.

•BER measurements are made at several points along the jitter template.

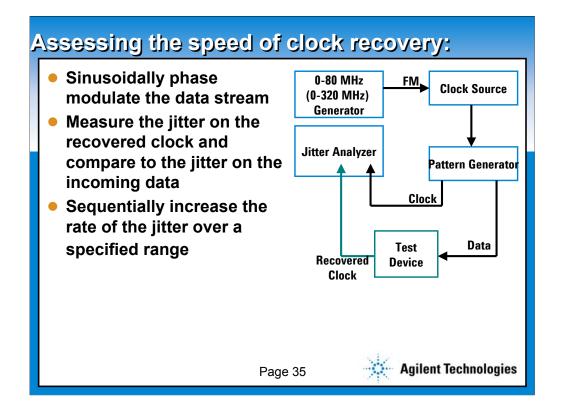


Jitter transfer is defined as the ratio of the jitter on the recovered clock to the jitter on the incoming data as a function of jitter frequency.

Jitter transfer is used to map out the frequency response of the clock recovery circuit.

There are two critical parameters to quantify:

How fast can the jitter be with the recovered clock still tracking the data? Does the clock recovery system add any jitter?

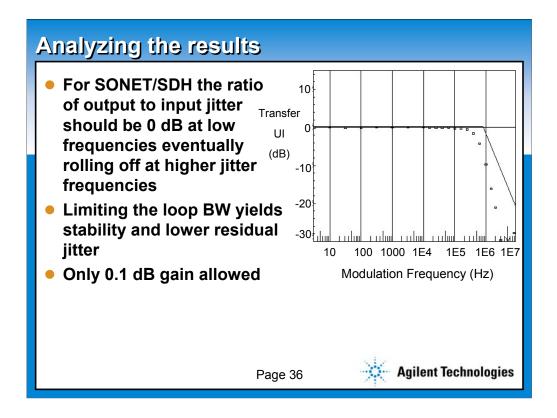


Through injecting sinusoidal jitter on the datastream, and monitoring the jitter on the recovered clock as the jitter frequency is incremented, the jitter transfer plot can be produced.

The equipment labeled "jitter analyzer' must be capable of precisely measuring the magnitude of the sinusoidal jitter on the signal propagating from the device under test.

In some cases, the test device produces a recovered clock signal.

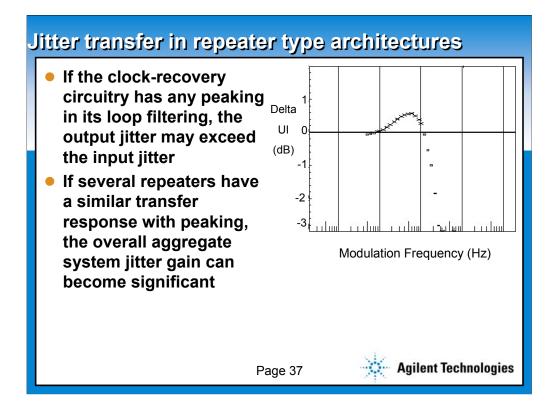
In other cases, the test device produces re-timed data.



The ideal jitter transfer response would have the jitter on the recovered clock or retimed data be identical in magnitude to the jitter on the incoming data.

As the jitter gets faster and faster a point is reached where the clock recovery circuit can no longer keep up with the jitter on the data.

This filtering is intentional, as infinite bandwidth clock recovery circuits are not available. Intentionally limiting the loop bandwidth yields a higher performance system in terms of stability and the residual jitter produced on the clock signal being generated



•However, designing in a low-pass filter has it's risks.

•There is the possibility that the filter response has some peaking.

•This can result in the recovered clock having larger jitter than the incoming data at the frequencies where the peaking occurs.

•In repeater type architectures timing for transmitters in SONET/SDH systems can be derived from the incoming datastream.

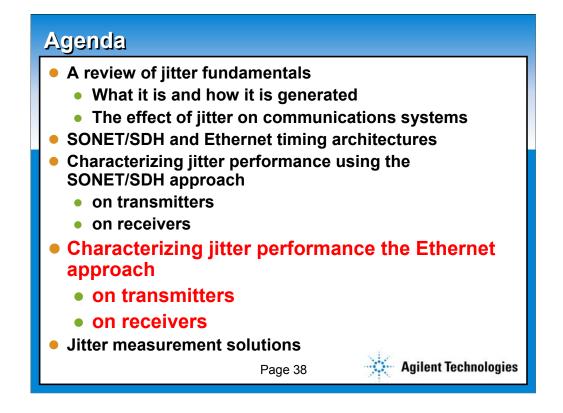
•If several repeaters are cascaded, each with a small amount of gain, the aggregate gain can become significant and lead to a substantial increase in jitter on the transmitted signal.

•This is the basis for the tight 0.1 dB jitter transfer specification.

•This is difficult to achieve and difficult to measure accurately.

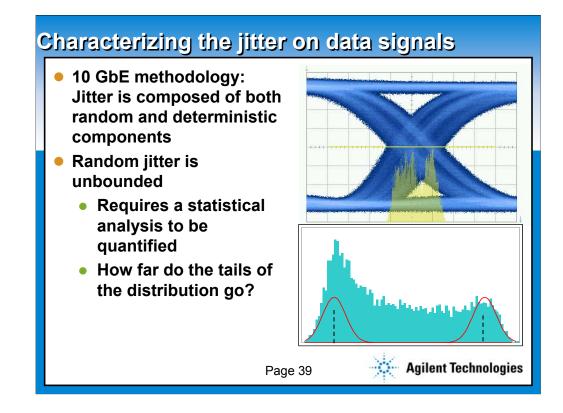
•The above measurement example shows a clock recovery circuit with significant peaking resulting in large jitter gain.

•While this is an important parameter for SONET/SDH systems, there is no specific jitter transfer specification or measurement in 10 Gigabit Ethernet.



We have looked at the the SONET/SDH approach to jitter measurement methodologies.

Now, we will turn to an explanation of the Ethernet approach.



•Enterprise transmission standards have a different approach to characterizing the jitter.

•Jitter is due to both random and deterministic mechanisms.

•In that there are random elements to the jitter, the jitter is then theoretically unbounded.

•That is, if one were willing to wait long enough, the jitter magnitude could reach any value.

•In that jitter is considered to be a source of bit errors, and a 10 Gigabit Ethernet system is expected to operate at an error performance level of better than 1E-12, it would be important to characterize the probability that the jitter will consume a significant portion of the horizontal eye opening margin.

•Thus a simple "peak-to-peak" assessment of the jitter magnitude is considered inappropriate.

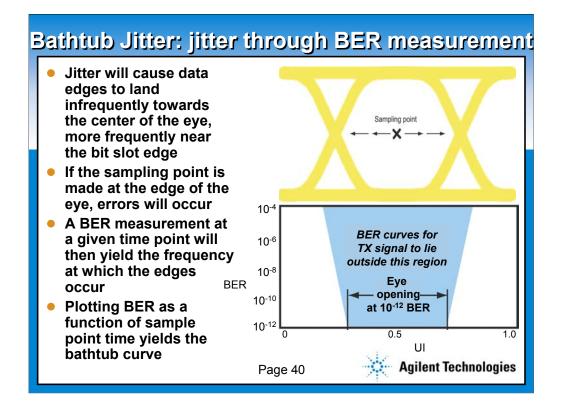
•The above graphs show the jitter histogram of the crossing point of a transmitter eye-diagram and a typical model of the jitter.

•The random jitter results in the tails of the histogram and should be equivalent on either side.

•The deterministic jitter components cause the spread between the fitted gaussian curves.

•Thus it is possible to extract both the random and deterministic components of jitter from the histogram.

•It is difficult to derive the random "tails" to a 10 E-12 precision.



•The 10 Gigabit Ethernet approach to measuring something that is unbounded is through a bit-error-ratio measurement, specifically through a "bathtub plot".

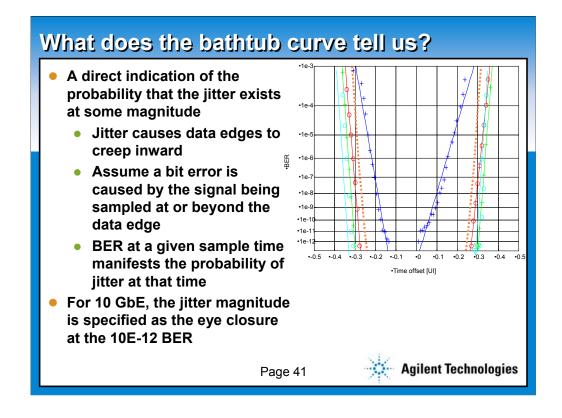
•Consider that data jitter will result in the signal edges moving toward the center of the eye diagram.

•The extreme excursions will occur less frequently than the minor excursions.

•If the transmit signal is fed to an error detector and the sampling point is optimized in both time and amplitude, the error rate should be well below 10E-12 (as close to zero as can be measured).

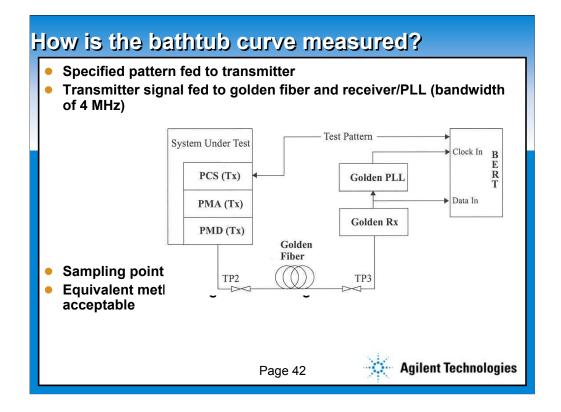
•As the sampling point is adjusted in time towards either of the edges of the eye, eventually a measurable BER will be reached.

•As the sampling point is continually moved into the edges of the eye, the BER will get worse and worse.



Plotting the BER as a function of the location of the sampling point time will yield the bathtub curve. The bathtub curve is then a direct indication of the probability of any magnitude of jitter up to full eye closure.

IEEE 802.3ae sets the allowable jitter magnitude at the 10E-12 BER level. Thus the "eye" must have a specified opening at this BER.



Creating the bathtub curve for IEEE 802.3ae compliance goes beyond simply making a BER measurement while moving the sampling point in time.

Consider that the signal being measured is from an optical transmitter.

Error detectors are built to measure electrical signals.

Thus an optical receiver is required.

For consistency, the modulation frequency response of the receiver is specified.

The error detector needs a clock signal to time the sampling.

As discussed earlier, clock signals that have the same jitter as the signal being measured can eliminate the jitter seen on an oscilloscope.

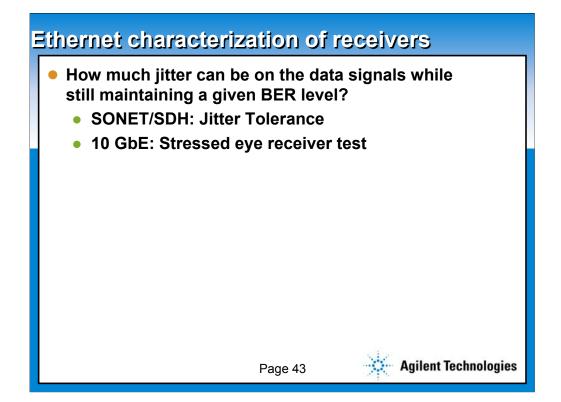
When a clock is derived from the data and used with an error detector, the effects of jitter can also be masked.

A specific loop bandwidth clock recovery scheme is used for the bathtub jitter measurement.

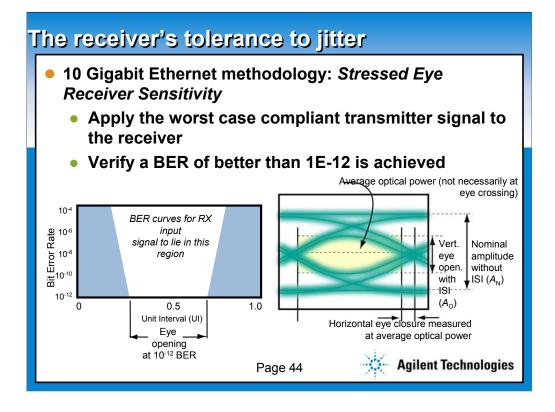
The bandwidth must be less than 4 MHz.

Thus jitter on the transmitter under test that is at frequencies of 4 MHz or less is "tracked" by the error detector and does not affect the bathtub curve.

The implication here is that transmitter jitter at 4 MHz and lower is not



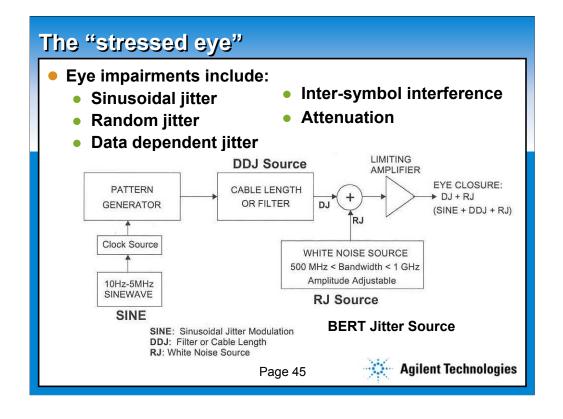
The second aspect of jitter measurements involves characterizing how much jitter can be on a data signal and still allow a system to achieve an adequate BER. We already explained the SONET/SDH methodology of jitter tolerance. Now we will discuss the 10 Gigabit Ethernet approach: this is called the stressed eye receiver sensitivity.



The 10 Gigabit Ethernet methodology for receiver jitter tolerance is significantly more elaborate than the SONET/SDH test, and effectively measures more than just tolerance to jitter.

The intent is to verify that a receiver is capable of operating at a BER of better than 1E-12 when presented with the worst case allowable signal.

Thus in addition to having jitter as bad as the worst case transmitter (discussed earlier in the jitter bathtub test), other impairments to the eye are also included.



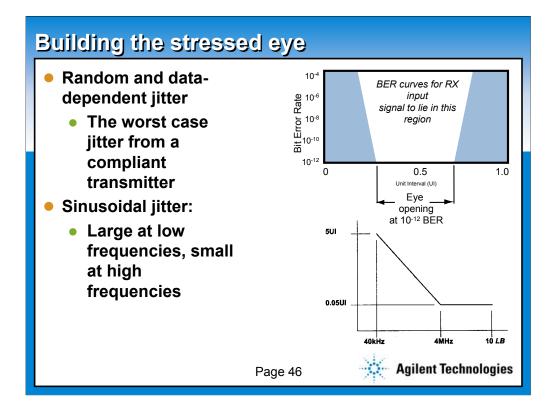
•The stressed eye impairments include

•The main elements of jitter are composed of random and data dependent contributions.

•Since real-world jitter is not just sinusoidal, then the receiver should be stressed with random and data dependent impairments.

•In addition, intersymbol interference and attenuation are used to degrade the signal.

•Sinusoidal jitter is used to verify operation of the receiver PLL.



As mentioned, the "real-world" jitter is composed of what the worst case expected jitter would be from a compliant transmitter.

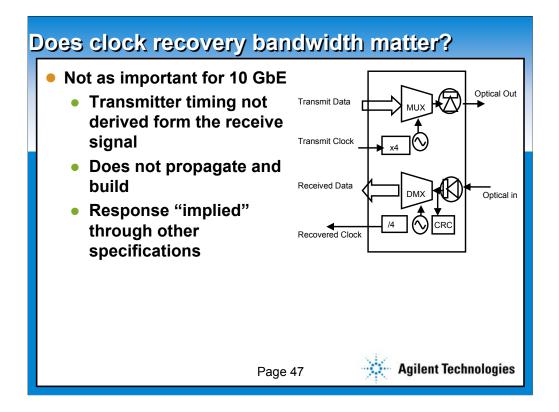
Thus the template for the jitter presented to the receiver is the complement of the template for allowable transmitter jitter.

The test system must exceed the maximum allowable transmitter jitter.

The random and deterministic jitter levels are given, but no specific methodology is given on what is used to generate these signals.

Some have created random jitter through noise injection and datadependent jitter through specific lengths of coaxial cable preceding the test system transmitter.

Similar to SONET/SDH, sinusoidal jitter is injected according to a template that begins at large levels and low frequencies and to low levels and high frequencies.

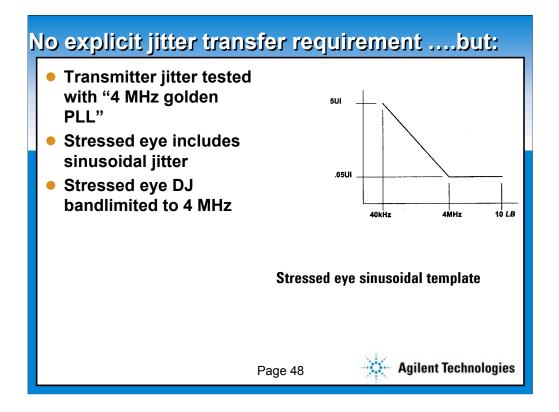


In 10 Gigabit Ethernet, transmitter timing is not derived from incoming data streams.

Thus jitter does not propagate from node to node, and does not have the opportunity to grow if receiver clock recovery has peaking in its transfer function.

Thus the clock recovery bandwidth is not directly quantified through a jitter transfer measurement.

However, there are elements in other tests that may result in compliance failures if the receiver has an inadequate jitter transfer function

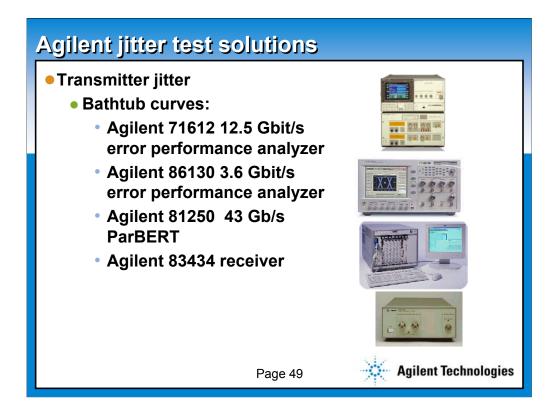


The general performance of the PLL is "exercised" through the sinusoidal jitter element of the stressed eye receiver test signal.

Significant low frequency sinusoidal jitter is injected onto the signal.

If the receiver jitter transfer corner frequency is too low, it will not be able to track the jitter and bit errors are likely to occur.

An extremely wide transfer function is difficult to produce, and is susceptible to producing a large amount of jitter on it's own, also reducing the overall tolerance to jitter.



There are a variety of solutions available from Agilent for testing jitter.

Some solutions are ideal for SONET/SDH testing, while others are more appropriate for testing according to IEEE 802.3ae 10 Gigabit Ethernet.

Any instrument capable of performing a BER measurement can be used to create a bathtub curve, as long as the sampling point can be adjusted in time.

There are three such instruments from Agilent:

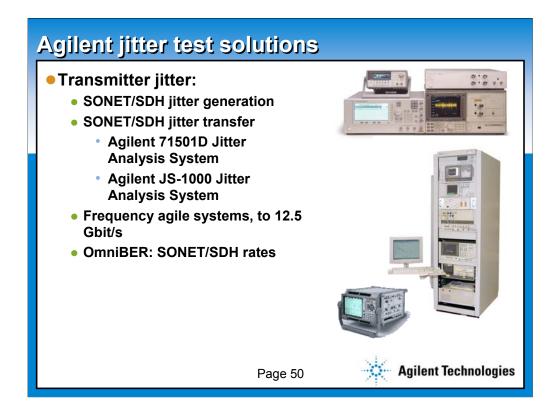
the 71612C 12.5 Gb/s

The 86130 3.6 Gb/s error performance analyzers

And the 43 Gb/s ParBERT

For 10 GbEn transmitter test, the BERT should be clocked with a trigger derived from the data with a loop bandwidth of 4 MHz or less.

The Agilent 83434 lightwave receiver can convert the transmitter signal into the electrical domain and has a 4 MHz loop bandwidth to provide the appropriate clock signal to the BERT.



•For SONET/SDH characterization of transmitter jitter, an error detector is not required.

•Rather the jitter is measured directly by some form of a jitter receiver.

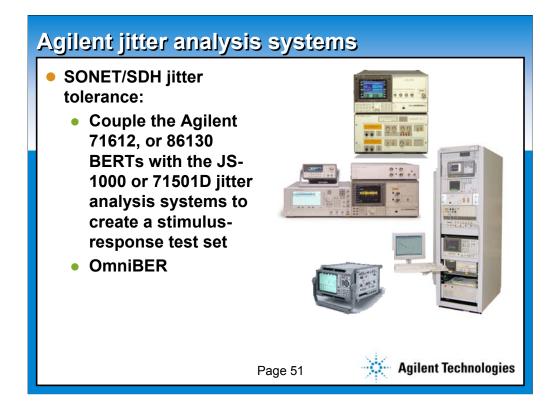
•Two jitter analysis systems are available from Agilent including the 71501D and JS-1000.

•The 71501D is based upon a high-speed sampling system that digitizes the waveform.

•Signal processing algorithms are then used to extract the jitter from the test signal.

•The JS-1000 system is based upon a phase-noise system that characterizes the deviation of a signal from its ideal frequency.

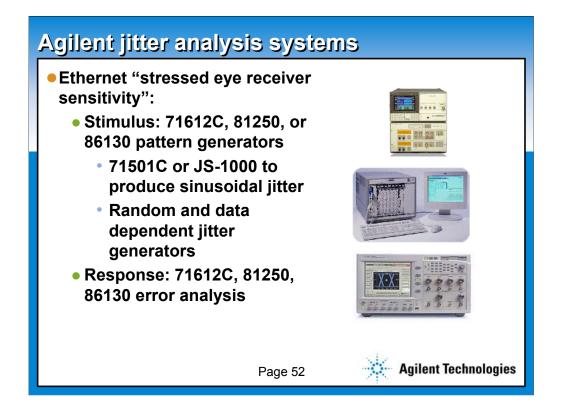
•The OmniBER is a dedicated compliance test system for SONET/SDH systems that has jitter detectors designed for specific SONET/SDH line rates.



SONET SDH jitter tolerance test requires a source of sinusoidal jitter and a method to assess bit-error-ratio.

Thus combining the previously mentioned jitter analysis systems (which produce the jitter stimulus) and an error analysis system allows the testing of BER in the presence of jitter.

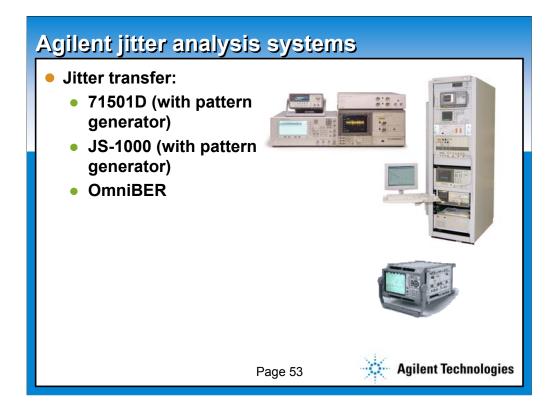
The OmniBER is self-contained.



A pattern generator is required for 10 GbEn receiver test.

The data stream must also be jittered sinusoidally (71501D or E5500) as well as with Random and data dependent jitter.

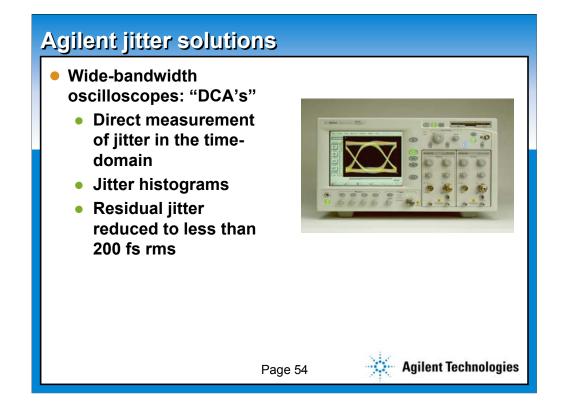
The receiver response is measured with an error detector.



Jitter transfer requires sinusoidal jitter and a jitter receiver.

The jitter measurement capability must be very precise to assess jitter transfer capability within the tight 0.1 dB SONET/SDH specifications.

A pattern generator capable of sinusoidal modulation (similar to jitter tolerance testing) is required in addition to the direct jitter measurement capability.



Digital Communications Analyzers are wide-bandwidth oscilloscopes with built-in communications analysis.

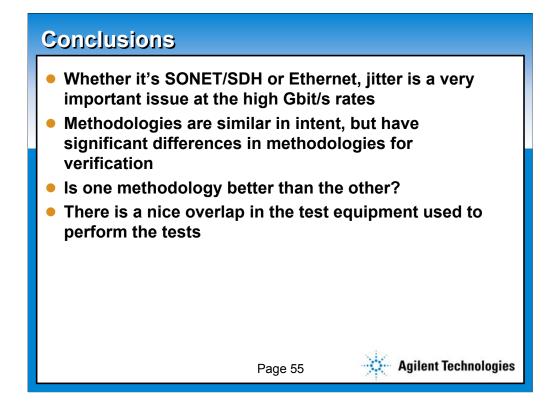
Eye diagrams and pulse trains can be analyzed for timing stability.

Recent hardware breakthroughs have provided almost an order of magnitude improvement in the residual jitter of the instrument itself.

This allows the true jitter performance of test devices to be easily seen.

(Previous instrument performance could mask the capability of high-performance, low jitter components).

DCA's do not provide any direct assessment of the rate of jitter signals, but can be used to determine the magnitude and nature of the jitter present on a signal (clock or data).



•Jitter is one of the more difficult issues for equipment and component manufacturers and designers to deal with.

•We have examined how jitter is defined, the causes of jitter, and how it is measured.

•From a broad viewpoint, both SONET/SDH and enterprise methodologies such as 10 GbE, Fibrechannel or infiniband are trying to solve similar problems.

•However, the methodologies and reasons for verification have some distinct differences.

•It is difficult to determine if one methodology is better than another.

•The bottom line is whether functioning communication systems can be produced from both approaches.

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