
**PRINCIPLES
OF POWER
INTEGRITY FOR
PDN DESIGN—
SIMPLIFIED**

PRINCIPLES OF POWER INTEGRITY FOR PDN DESIGN— SIMPLIFIED

**ROBUST AND COST
EFFECTIVE DESIGN FOR
HIGH SPEED DIGITAL
PRODUCTS**

Larry D. Smith

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Larry would also like to dedicate this book to his father, who was his undergrad Professor of Electrical Engineering.

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The Focus of This Book

Power integrity is a confusing topic in the electronics industry—partly because it is not well-defined and can encompass a wide range of problems, each with their own set of root causes and solutions. There is universal agreement that the field of power integrity includes everything from the voltage regulator module (VRM) to the on-die core power rails and on-die capacitance.

Between the VRM and die are interconnects on the package and board, which often carry discrete capacitors with their associated mounting inductance. The power distribution network (PDN) refers to all interconnects (usually inductive), the intentional energy storage devices (usually capacitive), and loss mechanisms (damping) between the VRM and the on-die V_{dd}-V_{ss} power rails.

Power integrity is all about the quality of the power seen by the circuits on the die. What about noise created on the board power and ground planes by signals passing through cavities? Is this a signal integrity problem or a power integrity problem? Is the voltage noise generated by I/O switching currents and seen by the on-die V_{cc} and V_{ss} rails a power integrity or signal integrity problem? Current that comes in through the common package lead inductance, which is ultimately connected to the VRM, generates this noise, which is sometimes referred to as switching noise or ground bounce.

This gray area between signal and power integrity has a profound impact on solutions that are offered for “power integrity” problems. Adding decoupling capacitors on the board often provide a solution for reducing V_{dd} core noise but seldom improve the cavity noise induced by high bandwidth signals. In general,

board-level capacitors offer little or no improvement to return-plane bounce noise. In some cases, the parallel resonances they create can actually increase the cavity-to-signal cross talk.

The first step to solving a problem is to clearly identify the problem and then correctly identify its root cause. A well-defined problem is often only a few steps away from a solution. Efficient solutions to problems are developed based on the actual root cause.

This book focuses on the specific power integrity problems related to noise on the Vdd rail, which powers the on-die core logic and enables it to perform functions. The gates powered by the on-die Vdd rail switch signals that communicate to other gates on the same die, and do not necessarily travel off die as I/O. Transient current caused by core activity causes noise on the Vdd rail, which is sometimes referred to as “self-aggression.” The principles, analysis methods, and recommended best design practices to minimize this problem can also apply to other signal integrity, power integrity, and EMI problems; however, the focus in this book is on self-aggression of the Vdd rail.

Other Power Integrity or Signal Integrity Problems and Solutions

The term “power integrity” paints with too broad a brush to address all problems with general design recommendations. Instead, we need clear identification of the specific problem we are trying to solve, along with best design practices for each specific problem.

Some peripheral problems in a complete system design are sometimes categorized as power integrity:

- Noise on the Vcc-Vss rails from I/O switching, ground bounce, and switching noise: self-aggression by the Vcc rails
- Noise on the VRM output from its changing load impedance: self-aggression by the VRM
- Signal distortion as it travels through return path discontinuities: self-aggression by signals paths
- Noise from the power rails and VRM transferring onto and polluting the board-level PDN interconnects
- Cross talk between the voltage noise on the package and board-level PDN interconnects from all sources, coupling onto a Vdd rail
- Cross talk between the voltage noise on the package and board-level PDN interconnects from all sources, coupling to an I/O power rail

- Cross talk between the voltage noise on the package and board-level PDN interconnects and a signal which couples to the PDN

Each of these problems has a very different root cause and a different set of best design practices to reduce their impact. These topics are sometimes lumped under the signal integrity umbrella and sometimes the power integrity umbrella.

To avoid the possible confusion of assuming all power integrity problems are the same—and hence one set of solutions apply to all problems—engineers and designers should get in the habit of carefully articulating which problem is being addressed rather than using the general heading of power integrity or signal integrity.

A wealth of PDN design recommendations are offered in publications, at conferences, or by your favorite uncle. Blindly following any of them is dangerous. Unfortunately, many recommendations are either wrong or contradictory. This is partly because they are oriented toward only one of the specific problems listed above, but incorrectly generalized as the cure for all power integrity problems.

Be specific about the problem, the root cause, and the recommended best design practices.

Meeting the Challenge of Robust PDN Design

A poorly designed PDN can result in the product failing, usually at the worst possible time. PDN failures are difficult to diagnose because they are hard to reproduce. Sometimes they result from a very specific combination of microcode running a specific set of problems. This makes it difficult to “test in the quality” of a PDN. A robust PDN must be designed in.

Some PDNs may actually be robust with no additional considerations on the board other than a low impedance VRM. Other PDNs may require very specific combinations of capacitor values mounted in very specific positions, and then only run restricted microcode to be robust.

Every PDN is unique and has its own story. Each has its own combination of performance requirements, chip features, microcode, and design constraints on cost, performance, risk, and schedule. This makes it difficult to efficiently design a robust PDN by just following someone else’s best design principles. That’s where a solid design methodology plays an important role.

A common answer to many questions in any engineering field, including power integrity, is “...it depends.” The only way to answer “...it depends” questions is by clearly defining the problem and then putting in the numbers and performing analysis of the specific problem, the root cause, and the various solution options.

The most efficient design process for the PDN (and most aspects of high-performance product design) so that there is a high probability of “getting it right the first time” is based on four elements:

- Start with the established best design practices.
- Understand the essential principles of how signals interact with interconnects—basically the principles of applied Maxwell’s Equations.
- Identify the common problems to avoid and their root causes.
- Leverage analysis tools to efficiently explore design space and find the appropriate cost-performance-risk-schedule tradeoffs for each specific product’s details and constraints.

The goal for many projects is to find an acceptable design that meets the performance objectives at acceptable cost, risk, and schedule.

This book is designed to be a handbook for the practicing power integrity engineer to establish a firm foundation in the principles of power integrity, identify the root cause of the common problems found in PDN design, follow the best design practices, and perform engineering trade-off analysis to balance cost, performance, schedule, and risk.

Who This Book Is Really For

As with all books in the Prentice Hall “Simplified” series, *Principles of Power Integrity for PDN Design—Simplified* minimizes the mathematical formalism to reveal the important engineering principles behind power integrity. If you are looking for detailed mathematical derivations and complicated numerical simulations, look elsewhere.

This is not to say that mathematical rigor is not important—every student of electrical engineering should have studied this in college. As a practicing engineer, being able to apply these principles to solve real problems is often more important than deriving every detail from Maxwell’s Equations.

This book is based on a specific design methodology for high-performance systems. The starting place is to use established best design principles.

Unfortunately, every design is custom, they each have their own story. They each have their own set of performance goals and cost, risk, and schedule constraints. This means you cannot blindly follow every design guideline, but must use your engineering judgement.

This does not mean grab your 3D full-wave simulator and simulate everything. This would be an incredibly inefficient process with no guarantee of successfully converging on an acceptable solution.

The basis of engineering judgement is understanding the essential principles—which are really applied Maxwell’s Equations—identifying the problems to avoid and their root cause, and leveraging analysis tools to efficiently explore design space to find an acceptable answer. This book is a guideline for applying this methodology to designing robust PDN systems.

As two experts in the signal and power integrity fields, with more than 70 years of engineering experience between us, we have distilled into this book what we consider to be the most important engineering principles upon which power integrity engineering is based.

Our experience is based on having personally worked on many designs, helping many engineers, and having to rescue many failed designs. We’ve seen the consequence of carrying around misconceptions based on a recommendation from the person you sat next to on your last airplane flight who has a nephew who once built a board that worked so must have done it correctly.

Engineers involved in the design process must become their own expert and not rely on what the last expert they talked to said about a product that has nothing to do with the one they are currently working on.

Enough mathematics is included to accelerate a practicing engineer up the learning curve to immediately perform trade-off analysis and identify what is important—and equally of value—what is not important.

Equations are used as a shorthand to clarify which terms are important and how they combine to influence the result. They are used to restate the principle with more detail. They are the first line of attack when “putting in the numbers.”

Where possible, we show examples of simple simulations to illustrate the analytical approximations. Where appropriate, measurements from test vehicles and real systems are introduced to provide an anchor to reality that these principles actually work, as long as they are applied with good engineering judgement.

If PDN design is in your future, you’ll find this book essential to your success.

Five Features That Make This Book Easy to Navigate

To engineer a more efficient process for using this book, we've incorporated five valuable features.

As with all books in the Prentice Hall Simplified series, we've tried hard to take the complexity of real-world problems and break them down to their simplest form to identify the essential principles and how they apply. Approximations are included as a way of quantifying the principles and applying them to specific problem examples. They are a first step to help calibrate our engineering judgement so we can make sense of simulation results.

Where possible, the results of an analysis are shown graphically in figures. The figures with their extended captions tell a story in parallel with the text and equations.

In each section, we've pulled out what we consider to be some of the most important conclusions or observations as TIPS. These reinforce the section's essences and make it easy when skimming the book to pick up or recall the highlights.

At the end of each chapter we've added "The Bottom Line" as a quick 10-point summary of the chapter's most important points. After reading the chapter, the 10 points should be obvious and expected.

Finally, the PDN resonance calculator spreadsheet used extensively in the last chapter is available on the book's companion web site at informit.com/title/9780132735551 and on the www.beTheSignal.com web site. Additional supplemental information on power integrity is available on these two web resource sites.

Outline for This Book

Principles of Power Integrity for PDN Design—Simplified is organized as a training manual for the power integrity engineer to learn the strategies, tactics, essential principles, and skills for successful PDN design.

Chapter 1, "Engineering the Power Delivery Network," provides a brief perspective on what the PDN is and why engineering a low impedance is so important. We introduce the idea of the impedance profile as an important design feature and indicator of PDN performance. We also introduce the most important figure of merit to describe the PDN design goal—the target impedance. Our goal is to engineer a PDN impedance profile below the target impedance with acceptable cost, risk, and meet performance and schedule targets.

Chapter 2, “Essential Principles of Impedance for PDN Design,” provides a thorough review of impedance, which is the fundamental basis of evaluating a robust PDN. In particular, the properties of series and parallel RLC circuits are reviewed. These circuits determine the fundamental features of the PDN impedance profile. Simulation of the impedance profile of a collection of components is introduced as an essential skill. We show how any free version of a SPICE simulator can be used as an impedance analyzer.

Chapter 3, “Measuring Low Impedance,” introduces measurement techniques for low impedance. Typical PDN target impedances range from $1\ \Omega$ to lower than $1\ \text{m}\Omega$. Special techniques are used to measure the very low impedance of components and the entire PDN ecology.

Chapter 4, “Inductance and PDN Design,” covers the essence of inductance, what it is, how it is affected by physical design, and how to estimate the loop inductance from physical design features. Engineering low loop inductance in the PDN interconnects is an important way to reduce peak impedances. When inductance cannot be eliminated, it is important to know how much there is so that its impact can be evaluated.

Chapter 5, “Practical Multi-Layer Ceramic Chip Capacitor Integration,” reviews the properties of capacitors and how they behave individually and together. They are the primary component used to sculpt the impedance profile and manage the peaks. The five general tactics to reducing peak impedances from combinations of capacitors are introduced. In particular, the critical step of engineering low mounting inductance is introduced.

Chapter 6, “Properties of Planes and Capacitors,” introduces the properties of critically important power and ground planes in the PDN interconnect, and how the capacitors interact with the planes. The most important property of the planes—the spreading inductance—is explored in detail. In addition, we show that the plane cavity resonances are not important at all for the quality of power seen by die circuits.

Chapter 7, “Taming Signal Integrity Problems When Signals Change Return Planes,” explores another function of PDN interconnects: to provide a low impedance for the signal return currents. Switching noise, a form of ground bounce, is a problem that results in noise on the planes when signals pass through them. This is the realm of signal integrity and is separate and distinct from power integrity. Because the root cause of switching noise is different from PDN noise on the core Vdd rails, the solutions are very different. We are careful to distinguish this important signal integrity problem from power integrity.

Chapter 8, “The PDN Ecology,” addresses the most important PDN feature: the peak impedance created by the on-die capacitance and the package lead inductance, and what can be done at the board level to reduce this peak. We show how to leverage all the design principles introduced up to this point to overcome the limitations created by this peak.

Chapter 9, “Transient Currents and PDN Voltage Noise,” describes the features of the current drawn by CMOS circuitry, and how this current spectrum interacts with the PDN impedance profile. Three important transient current waveforms are introduced: a clock-edge impulse, a step transient current, and a repetitive square wave of current. These waveforms interact with different PDN features. Most importantly, we show how the three elements—impedance profile, transient current, and stimulated voltages—all interact. Knowing any two elements enables us to evaluate the third.

Chapter 10, “Putting It All Together: A Practical Approach to PDN Design,” brings together all the principles and processes to illustrate how to design the specific features in the PDN to meet the performance goals. In particular, a simple spreadsheet-based analysis technique is introduced, which dramatically speeds up the process of creating a first-pass design. We walk through a few design scenarios and show an example of the power of the principles introduced in this book. From measured data, PDN parameters are developed that match measured performance incredibly well.

Larry Smith and Eric Bogatin
January, 2017

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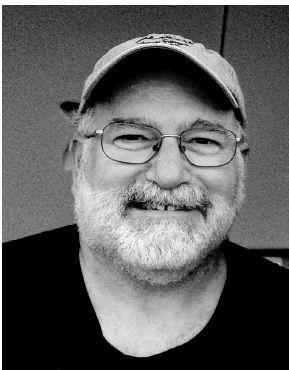
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Engineering the Power Delivery Network

1.1 What Is the Power Delivery Network (PDN) and Why Should I Care?

The power delivery network consists of all the interconnects in the power supply path from the voltage regulator modules (VRMs) to the circuits on the die. Generally, these include the power and ground planes in the boards, cables, connectors, and all the capacitors associated with the power supply. Figure 1.1 is an example of a typical computer board with multiple VRMs and paths delivering the power and ground to the pads of all the active devices.

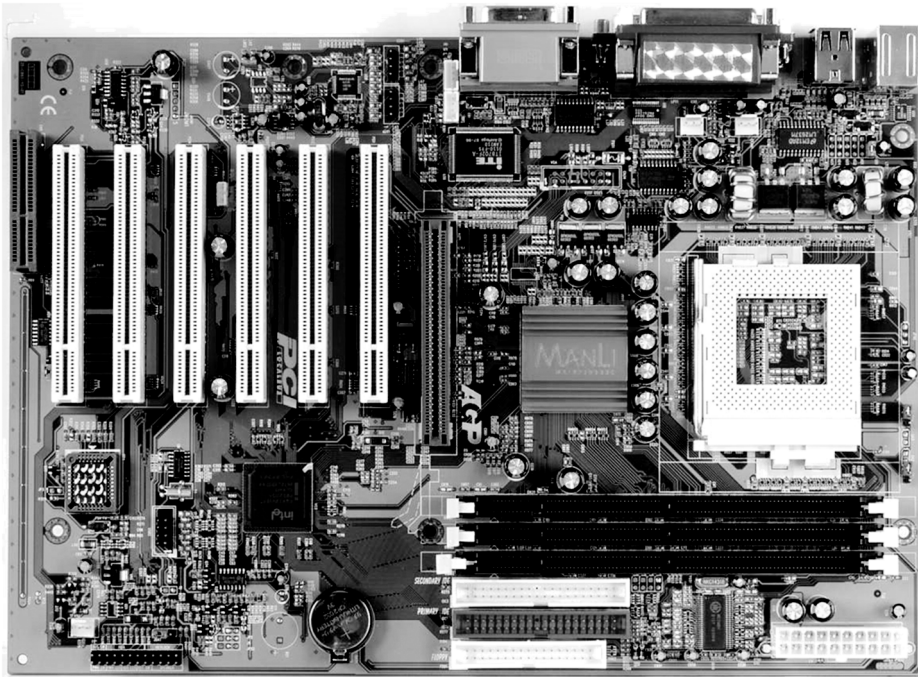


Figure 1.1 A typical computer motherboard with multiple VRMs and active devices. The PDN includes all the interconnects from the pads of the VRMs to the circuits on the die.

The purpose of the PDN is to

- Distribute low-noise DC voltage and power to the active devices doing all the work.
- Provide a low-noise return path for all the signals.
- Mitigate electromagnetic interference (EMI) problems without contributing to radiated emissions.

In this book, we focus on the first role of the PDN: to distribute a DC voltage and power to all the active devices requiring power and to keep the noise below an acceptable level. Unsuccessful noise control on the PDN will contribute to contraction of the eye of any signal. The amplitude of the eye in the vertical direction collapses from voltage noise. The time of the signal crossing a reference spreads out in the horizontal direction creating jitter and reduction of the eye opening. Internal core circuits might suffer setup and hold-time errors, leading to functional failures.

TIP The consequence of not correctly designing the PDN is increased bit error ratios from enhanced vertical noise and jitter on both I/O circuits and internal-to-the-chip circuits. Excessive horizontal noise in core circuits might lead to setup and hold-time violations.

Depending on the circuit of the switching gates, the PDN noise will add to the signal coming from the transmitter (TX). This can also appear as noise on the voltage reference at the receiver (RX). In both cases, the PDN noise will reduce the noise margin available from other sources.

Figure 1.2 shows an example of the measured voltage noise between the core power and ground (V_{dd} and V_{ss}) rails on a microprocessor die at three different on-die locations and two different voltage rails. In this example, the voltage noise is 125 mV. In many circuits, a large fraction of this voltage noise will appear superimposed on the signal at the RX.

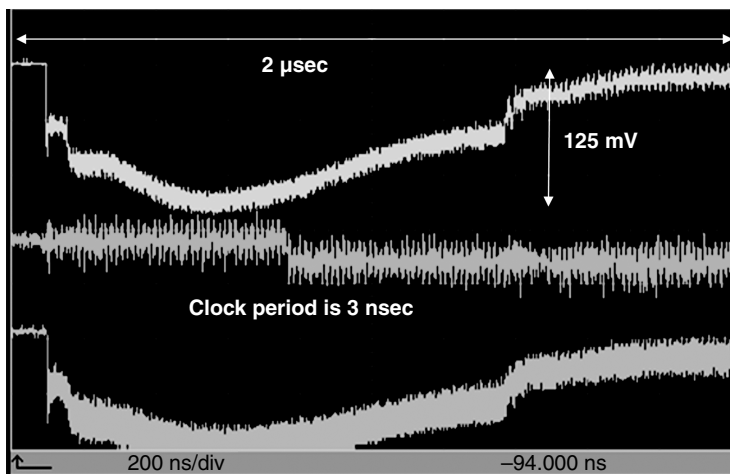


Figure 1.2 Example of the noise between the V_{dd} and V_{ss} rails in a microprocessor running at 300 MHz clock, measured at three different locations. More than 125 mV of noise is present.

Even if this noise by itself is not enough to cause a bit failure, it will contribute to eye closure, and with the other noise sources might result in a failure.

Voltage noise on the power rails of the chips also affects timing. The propagation delay, the time from which an input voltage transition propagates

through the sequence of gates contributing to an output voltage transition, depends on the instantaneous voltage level between the In CMOS technology, the higher the drain-to-source voltage, the larger the electric fields in the channels and the shorter the propagation delay. Likewise, the lower the Vdd to Vss voltage, the longer the propagation delay.

This means that voltage noise on the Vdd to Vss rails on die directly contributes to timing variations in the output signals called jitter. A higher voltage on the Vdd rail “pulls in” a clock edge, whereas a lower rail voltage “pushes out” a clock edge. Figure 1.3 is an example of the measured jitter induced on a high-end FPGA test chip from voltage noise on the PDN.

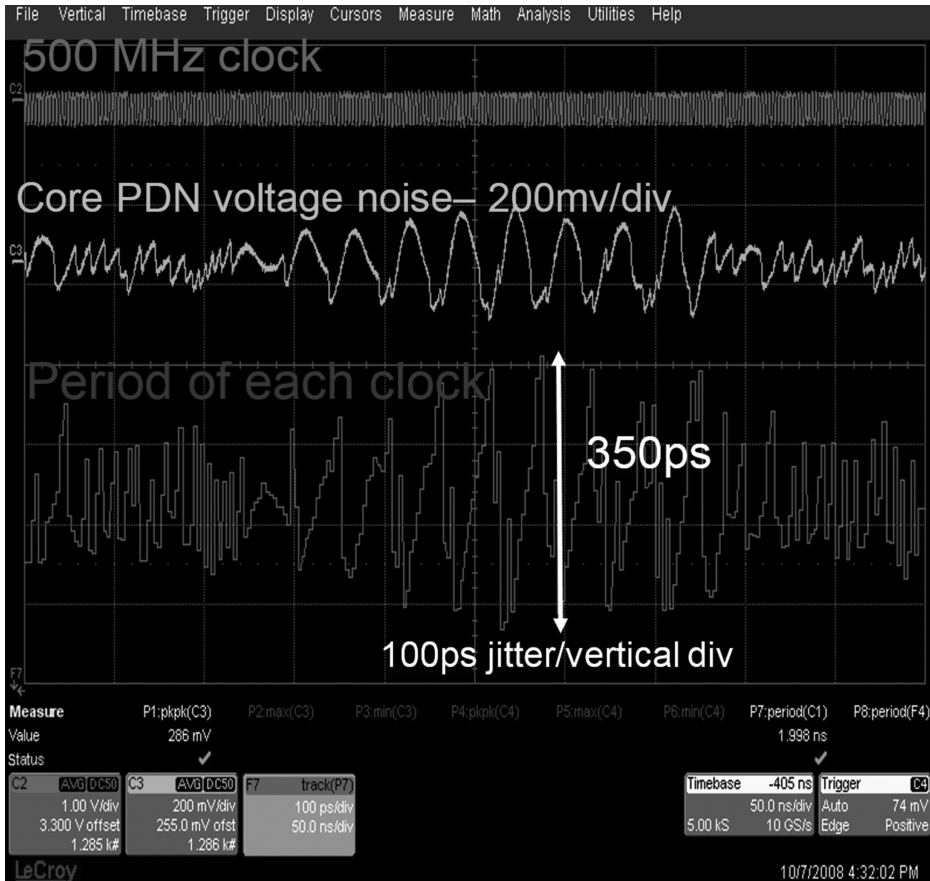


Figure 1.3 Measured jitter on a clock signal in the presence of Vdd to Vss voltage noise.

In this example, a clock distribution net shares the V_{dd} rail with a number of other gates. These gates were switching with a pseudo-random bit sequence (PRBS), drawing large currents from the PDN and generating large transient voltage noise. This voltage noise, as applied to the clock distribution network gates, caused timing variations in the clock signal. The period jitter measurement, the period of time from one clock edge to the next clock edge, appears as the period of each clock. This measurement demonstrates the direct correlation between the voltage noise on the die and the jitter on the clock.

In this example, the sensitivity of the jitter from PDN noise is about 1 ps of jitter per mV of voltage noise. A 100 mV peak-to-peak PDN noise would contribute to 100 ps peak-to-peak jitter. In a 2 GHz clocked system, the period is only 500 psec. The jitter from the PDN noise alone would consume the entire timing budget.

TIP In this example, the jitter sensitivity to PDN noise is about 1 ps/mV. This is a rough estimate of the sensitivity to expect in many devices.

1.2 Engineering the PDN

To meet both voltage noise and the timing budgets, the voltage noise on the PDN must be kept below some specified value. Depending on the system details, this voltage noise limit is roughly about $\pm 5\%$ of the supply voltage. In typical CMOS-based digital systems with single-ended signals, the total noise margin for the receiver is about 15% of the signal swing. Unless there is a compelling reason not to do so, we usually partition this budget equally between the three dominant sources of noise: reflection noise, crosstalk, and PDN noise. This is the origin of the typical specification being 5% PDN noise allowed.

In some applications, such as analog-to-digital converters (ADCs) or phase locked loops (PLLs), performance is very sensitive to voltage noise and the PDN noise must be kept below 1%. The voltage noise must be kept below the limits from DC all the way up to the bandwidth of the signals, which might be as high as 5 GHz to 10 GHz.

As with all signal integrity problems, the first step in eliminating them is to identify the root cause. At low frequency, the voltage noise across the PDN is usually due to the voltage noise from the VRM and so the first step in PDN design is selecting a VRM with low enough voltage noise under a suitable load current.

However, even with the world's most stable VRM, voltage noise still exists on the pads of the die. This arises from the voltage drop across the impedance of the entire PDN from transient power currents through the gates on the die. Between the pads of the VRM and the pads on the die are all the interconnects associated with the PDN. We refer to this entire network as the *PDN ecology*.

TIP The PDN ecology is the entire series of interconnects from the pads on the die to the pads of the VRM. These all interact to create the impedance profile applied to the die and influence PDN noise.

As applied to the pads of the die, these interconnects contribute to an impedance profile. Figure 1.4 shows a typical example.

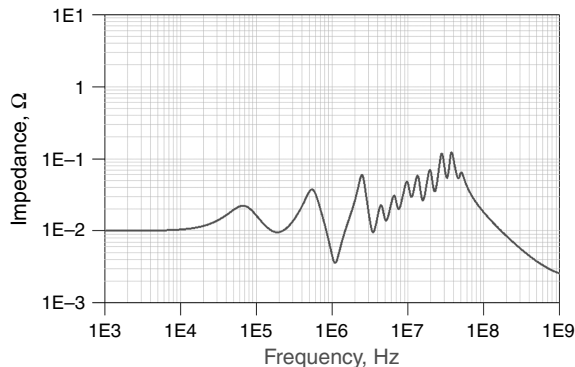


Figure 1.4 Example of an impedance profile of the entire PDN ecology, as applied to the pads of the die.

Any transient currents through this impedance profile generates voltage noise on the pads of the chip, independent of the VRM stability.

For example, Figure 1.5 shows the transient current spectrum drawn by the core power rail for a device when executing a specific microcode. Superimposed on the current spectrum is the impedance profile through which this current flows. The combination of the current amplitude and impedance at each frequency generates a voltage noise spectrum. This noise spectrum, when viewed in the time domain, results in a transient voltage noise.

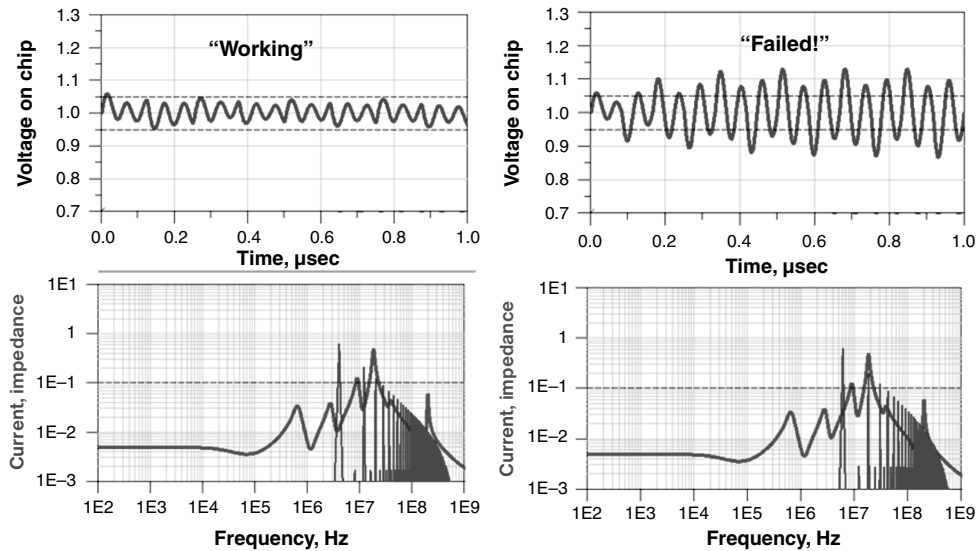


Figure 1.5 *Left Side:* PDN impedance profile and transient current spectrum result in acceptable voltage noise. *Right Side:* Slight change in current spectrum gives unacceptable voltage noise.

The left side of Figure 1.5 shows the transient current spectrum, PDN impedance profile, and resulting voltage noise on the power rail. This combination of current spectral peaks and impedance peaks results in acceptable noise. On the right is the same impedance profile, but with slightly different microcode algorithm driving the same gates at a slightly different frequency. A current spectral peak ended up overlapping a larger impedance peak and generating a rail voltage noise above the acceptable limit.

The actual voltage noise generated by the transient current through the impedance profile depends on the overlap of the current frequency components and the peaks in the impedance profile. If the voltage noise is below a specified level, PDN induced errors will not occur. If the microcode changes resulting current amplitude peaks and frequency component changes, their overlap with impedance peaks might create more voltage noise and product failure.

TIP The noise on the PDN depends as much on the impedance profile applied to the die as the spectrum of the transient current through the die. Microcode details and gate utilization have a strong impact on the PDN noise generated.

1.3 “Working” or “Robust” PDN Design

The variability in performance due to the specific microcode driving the switching of on-die gates makes testing a product for adequate PDN design difficult. A product might work just fine at boot up, or when running a specific software test suite if the combination of current spectral peaks and impedance peaks results in less than the specified transient noise. The product design may “pass” this test and be stamped as “working.”

However, if another software suite were to run that drives more gates and causes them to switch at a different dominant loop frequency, which coincidentally overlaps a peak in the PDN impedance profile, larger instantaneous voltage drops might result and the same product could fail.

Although having the product boot up, run a test suite and apparently work is encouraging, it does not guarantee “robust” operation. Products often “work” in evaluation but have field failures when driven by a broad range of customer software.

A robust PDN design means that any software code may run and generate the maximum transient current at any arbitrary frequency with any time domain signature. The resulting worst-case voltage generated by this current through the impedance profile is always less than an amount that would cause a failure.

The combination of the worst-case transient current and the voltage noise specification work together to set a limit for the maximum allowable PDN impedance such that the voltage noise will never exceed the specification.

This maximum allowable PDN impedance with guaranteed performance is referred to as the *target impedance* in PDN design, and we derive it with [1]

$$Z_{\text{target}} = \frac{\Delta V_{\text{noise}}}{I_{\text{max-transient}}} \quad (1.1)$$

where

Z_{target} = the maximum allowable PDN impedance at any frequency

ΔV_{noise} = the maximum specified voltage rail noise to meet performance requirements

$I_{\text{max-transient}}$ = the worst-case transient current under any possible operation

For example, if the noise spec is set as ± 50 mV and the worst-case transient current is 1 A, the target impedance is

$$Z_{\text{target}} = \frac{\Delta V_{\text{noise}}}{I_{\text{max-transient}}} = \frac{0.05\text{V}}{1\text{A}} = 50\text{ m}\Omega \quad (1.2)$$

If either ΔV_{noise} or $I_{\text{max-transient}}$ is a function of frequency, then Z_{target} is a function of frequency.

In principle, the combination of the entire spectral distribution of currents and the entire impedance profile is what creates the worst-case peak voltage noise. Unfortunately, this can only be determined with a transient simulation including the details of the transient current waveform and the impedance profile of the entire PDN. In practice, the target impedance is a useful approximation as a figure of merit to help focus the design of the PDN on a good starting place.

TIP The target impedance is a useful figure of merit for the PDN. It is a good approximation of a design goal for a robust PDN design. The final evaluation of robust PDN design would come from a transient simulation of the entire PDN and the transient current waveforms.

A fully robust PDN is defined by this target impedance. If the impedance of the entire PDN ecology, as applied to the pads of the die, is below the target impedance at all frequencies, the maximum worst-case rail collapse noise generated by the transient current flowing through the PDN impedance will not exceed the noise spec except in a very rare rogue wave situation. Figure 1.6 shows an example of the impedance profile below the target impedance of 50 m Ω at all frequencies and an example of the resulting rail voltage noise with a high current load.

TIP The target impedance is the most important metric when evaluating PDN performance. The farther the PDN impedance is above the target impedance, the greater the risk of a failure.

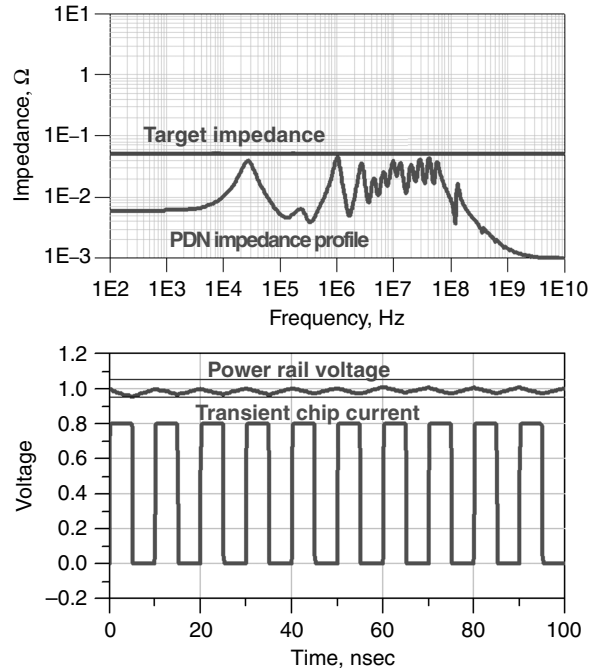


Figure 1.6 *Top:* The impedance profile of the PDN ecology engineered to be below the target impedance from DC up to a very high bandwidth. *Bottom:* The resulting Vdd rail noise under large transient current load showing the noise is always below the 5% spec limit. The square wave trace is the transient current as driven by a clock. It is plotted on a relative scale.

In practice, the maximum, worst-case transient current through the die will not be flat at all frequencies. The maximum current amplitude generally drops off at the high-frequency end, related to how quickly the maximum number of switching gates can be turned on. The precise details depend on the chip architecture, the number of bits in the pipeline, and the nature of the microcode. The effective rise time could be from the rise time of the clock edge to 100 clock cycles.

For example, if the clock frequency is 2 GHz, with a 0.5 ns clock period, and the maximum number of switching gates requires 20 cycles to build up, the shortest rise time for the turn on of the worst-case transient current would be $0.5 \text{ ns} \times 20 \text{ cycles} = 10 \text{ ns}$. The amplitude of the maximum transient current frequency components will begin to roll off above about $0.35/10 \text{ ns} = 35 \text{ MHz}$.

Above 35 MHz, the worst-case transient current spectrum would drop off at -20 dB/decade and the resulting target impedance would increase with frequency. The target impedance, in this example, assuming a 50 mV rail voltage noise spec and worst-case current amplitude of 1 A, is shown in Figure 1.7.

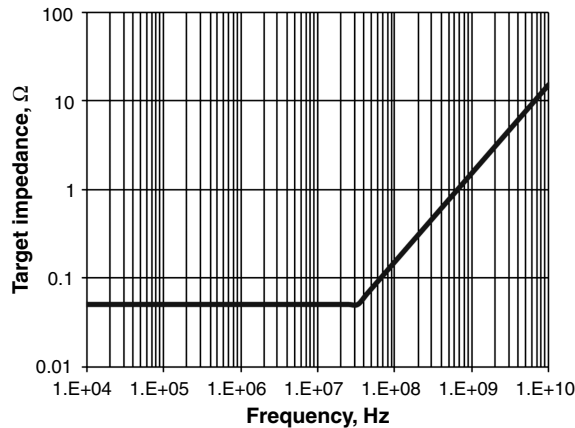


Figure 1.7 Target impedance when the transient current turns on in 20 clock cycles to a maximum of 1 A.

The consequence of this behavior is that the target impedance spec is relaxed at higher frequency. Estimating where this knee frequency begins is often difficult unless we know the details of the transient current and worst-case microcode.

This analysis points out that, in practice, accurately calculating the transient currents and the precise requirements for the target impedance of the PDN is extremely difficult. One must always apply engineering judgment in translating the information available into the requirements for a cost-effective design.

The process to engineer the PDN is to

- Establish a best guess for the target impedance based on what is known about the functioning and applications of the chips.
- Make engineering decisions to try to meet this impedance profile where possible.
- Balance the trade-offs between the cost of implementing the PDN impedance compared to the target impedance, and the risk of a field failure.

A rough measure of the risk of a failure of circuits to run at rated performance is the ratio of the actual PDN impedance to the target impedance, termed the *PDN ratio*:

$$\text{PDN ratio} = \frac{\text{Actual PDN Impedance}}{\text{Target Impedance}} \quad (1.3)$$

A ratio of less than 1 indicates low risk of a PDN-related failure. As this ratio increases, the risk increases as well. From practical experience, a ratio of 2 might still offer an acceptable risk, but a ratio of 10 will almost surely result in unacceptable risk. Even though many microcodes run at rated performance, some are likely to stimulate the PDN resonance and generate product stability issues.

Generally, achieving a lower impedance PDN, and consequently a lower risk ratio, costs more either due to more components required, tighter assembly design rules impacting yield, more layers in the board or package, increased area for die capacitance, or the use of more expensive materials. The balance between cost and risk is often a question of how much risk you are comfortable with. By paying more for added design margin, you can always “buy insurance” and reduce the risk. This is the fundamental trade-off in PDN design.

TIP An important metric of risk in PDN design is the PDN ratio, which is the ratio of the peak impedance to the target impedance. A PDN ratio of 2 or lower is a low risk whereas a PDN ratio of 10 or more is a high risk.

In consumer applications, often strongly cost driven, engineering for a higher risk ratio with a lower cost design might be a better balance. However, in avionic systems, for example, paying extra for a risk ratio less than 1 might be the cost-effective solution. Different applications have a different balance between cost and risk ratio.

1.4 Sculpting the PDN Impedance Profile

The goal in PDN design is to engineer an acceptable impedance profile from DC to the highest frequency component of any power rail currents. All the elements of the PDN should be engineered together to sculpt the

impedance profile of the entire ecology. Although many elements interact, assigning some features of the PDN impedance profile to specific features in the PDN design is possible.

Figure 1.8 shows a simplified schematic of the entire PDN ecology. This includes the on-die capacitance, the possibility of on-package capacitors, the package lead inductance, the circuit board vias, the power and ground planes in the circuit board, decoupling capacitor, bulk capacitors, and VRM.

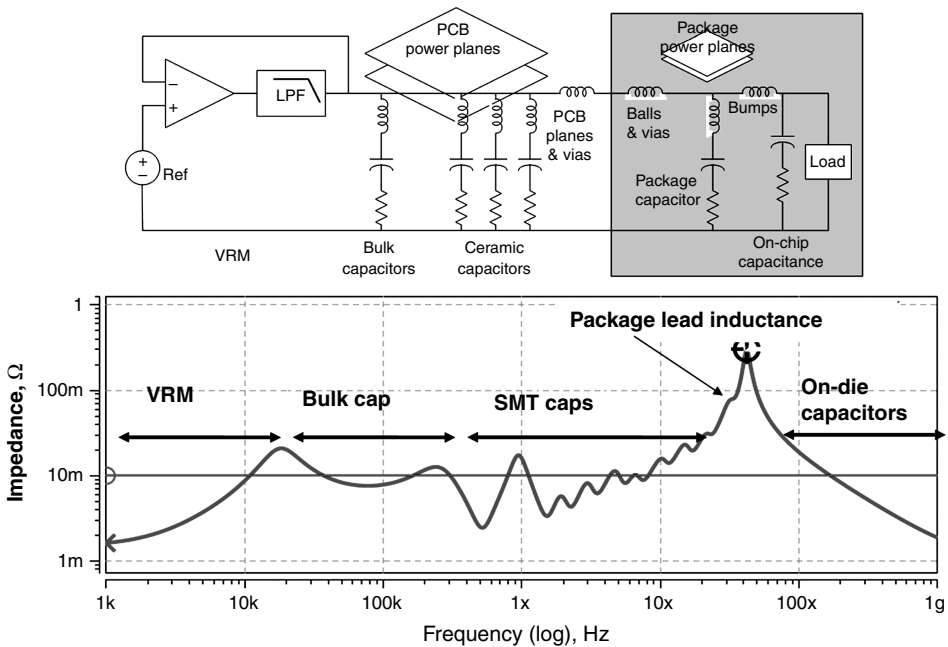


Figure 1.8 *Top:* Simplified schematic of the PDN ecology showing the major elements. *Bottom:* Resulting impedance profile identifying how specific design features contribute to specific impedance features. On the horizontal scale “x” is MHz.

Isolating functions of some PDN elements enables us to optimize parts of the PDN independent of the others, as long as we always pay attention to the interfaces where the impedance of one element interacts with the impedance of another. This is why so much of PDN design is about the interfaces between the parts.

In the journey ahead, we explore each of these elements that make up the PDN and how they interact to result in a robust and cost-effective PDN design. Ultimately, the power integrity engineer is responsible for finding an acceptable balance between cost, risk, performance, and schedule. The more we know about the details of the specific PDN elements, the more quickly we can reach an acceptable solution.

1.5 The Bottom Line

1. The PDN consists of all the interconnects from the pads on the die to the VRM and all of the components in between.
2. The purpose of the PDN is to provide a clean, low-noise voltage and ground supply to the devices and a low impedance return path for signals, and to mitigate EMC problems.
3. The typical noise spec on the PDN of 5% tolerance is based on an allocation of 1/3 the noise budget to each of the main sources of noise: reflection noise, cross talk, and PDN.
4. Voltage noise on the PDN is a result of transient power currents passing through the impedance of the PDN. The amount of noise is due to the combination of the impedance profile and the transient current spectrum.
5. Noise on the PDN can contribute to jitter. A typical value of the sensitivity is 1 psec/mV of noise. This number varies depending on the chip design and device technology node.
6. The impedance profile, as applied to the chip pads, is the most important metric for the quality and performance of the PDN. This is from DC to the highest frequency components of the switching signals.
7. The target impedance is a measure of the maximum impedance, which will keep the worst-case voltage noise below the acceptable spec.
8. The PDN ratio is the ratio of the actual PDN peak impedance to the target impedance. It is a good metric of risk. A PDN ratio greater than 10 is a high-risk design.
9. Sculpting the impedance profile requires optimizing both the individual elements of the PDN and their interactions. The entire PDN ecology must be optimized to reduce the peak values.
10. If you care about PDN design, this book is for you.

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