

# **Broadband Circuits for Optical Fiber Communication**

**Slides for a short course based on the book:**

**E. Sackinger, "Broadband Circuits for Optical  
Fiber Communication," John Wiley, 2005.**

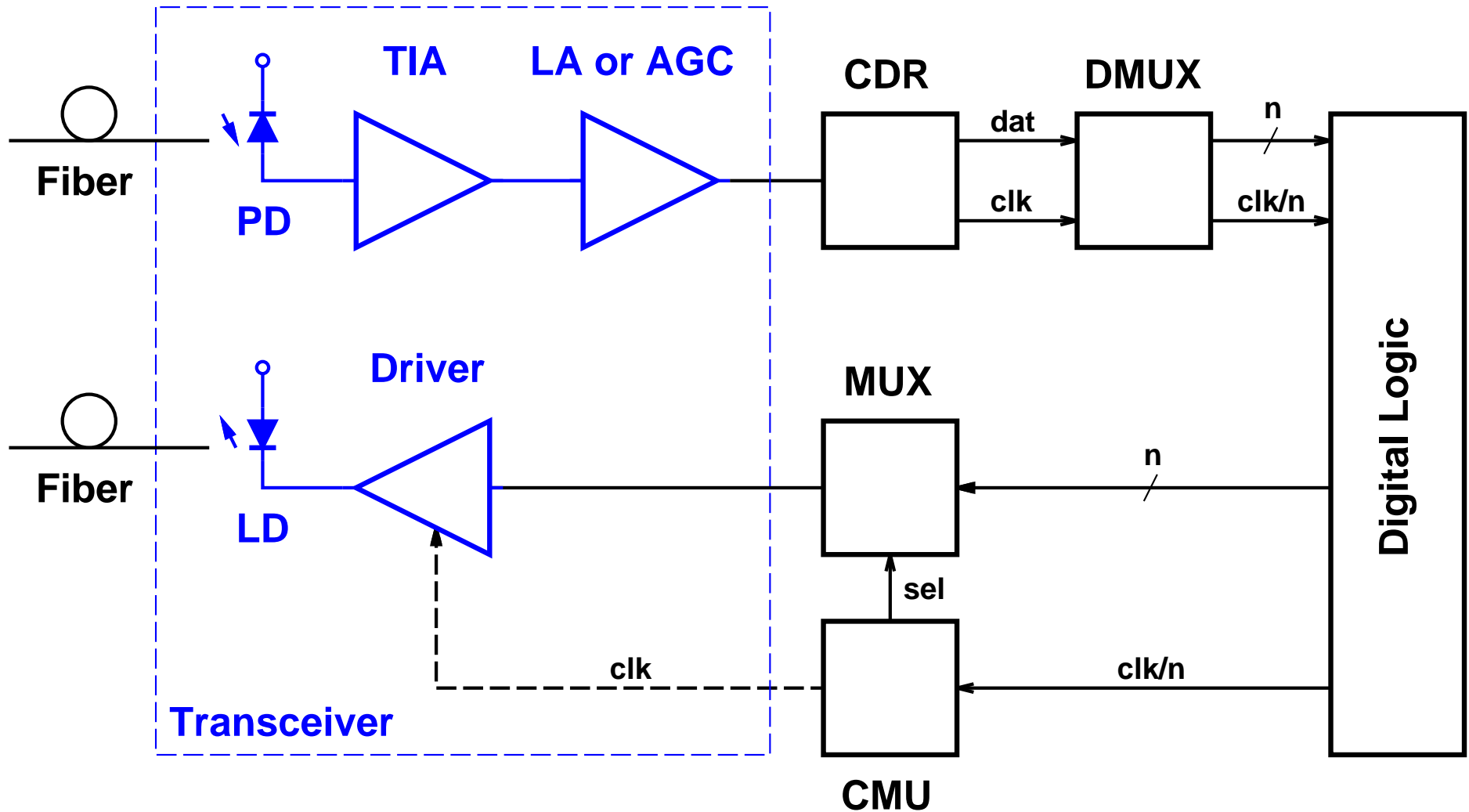
**ISBN: 0-471-71233-7**

# Overview

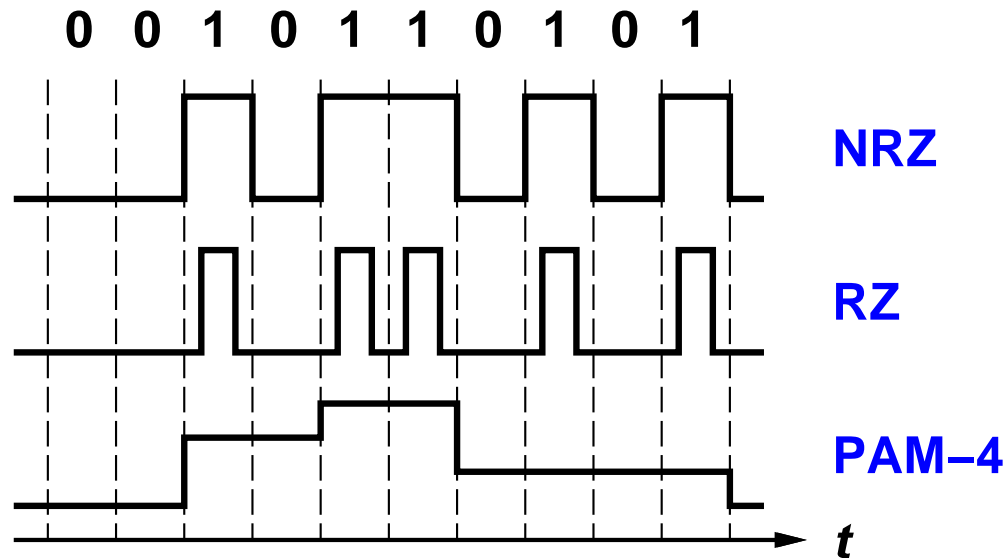
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- **Introduction**
- **Optical Fiber**
- **Photodetectors**
- **Receiver Fundamentals**
- **Transimpedance Amplifiers (TIA)**
- **Main Amplifiers:**
  - Limiting Amplifiers (LA)**
  - Automatic Gain Control (AGC) Amplifiers**
- **Lasers and Modulators**
- **Drivers:**
  - Laser Drivers**
  - Modulator Drivers**

# Optical Transceiver



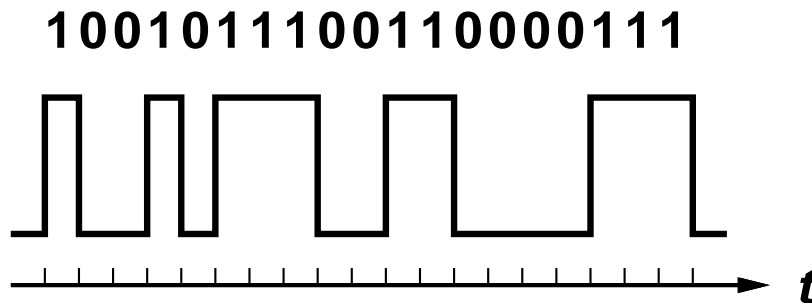
# Modulation Schemes



- **NRZ:** Most commonly used
- **RZ:** Less SNR, but more bandwidth required  
Used in high-speed long-distance transmission
- **PAM, QAM, AM-VSB, etc.**  
Less bandwidth, but more SNR required  
Used in CATV/HFC systems, etc.

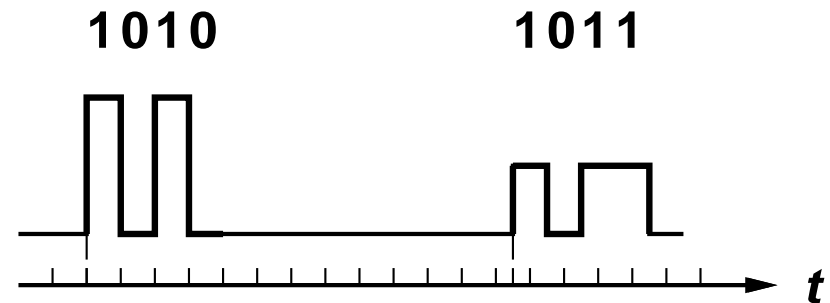
# Continuous Mode vs. Burst Mode

## Continuous mode:



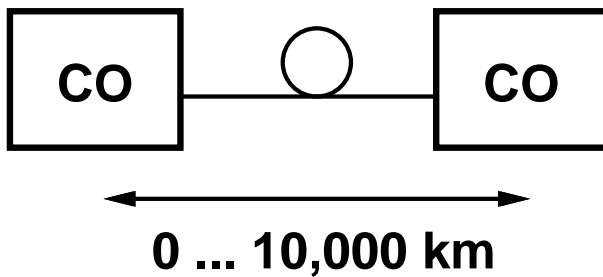
- DC balanced
  - Scrambling
  - 8B10B encoding
- Synchronous
- Used in  
SONET, SDH, GbE, 10-GbE, ...

## Burst mode:



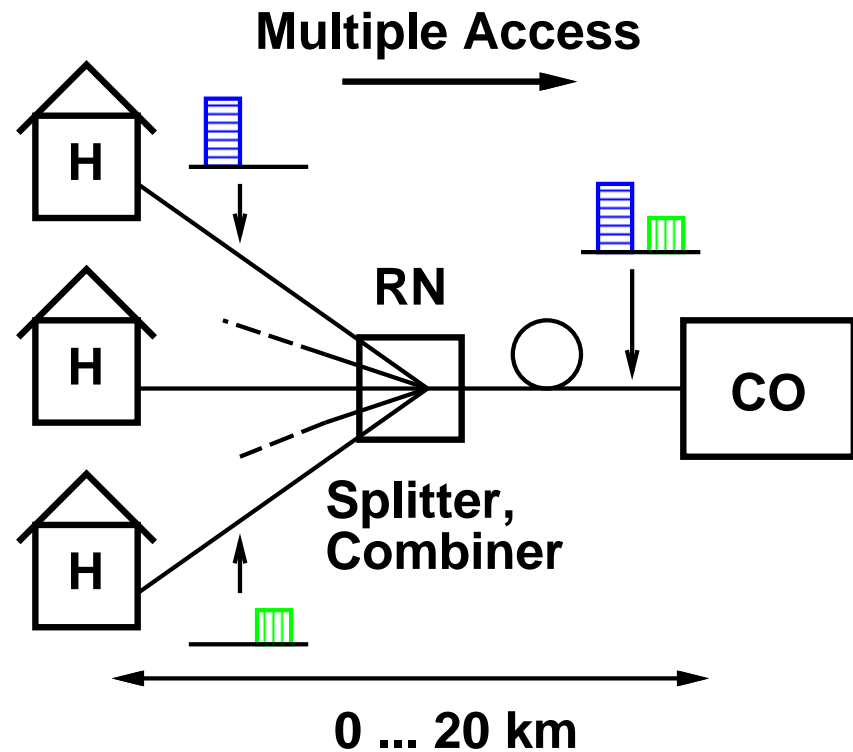
- Not DC balanced
  - Bursty
  - Large amplitude variations
- Asynchronous bursts
- Used in  
BPON, EPON, ...

# Backbone vs. Access Networks



## Backbone, Metro, LAN:

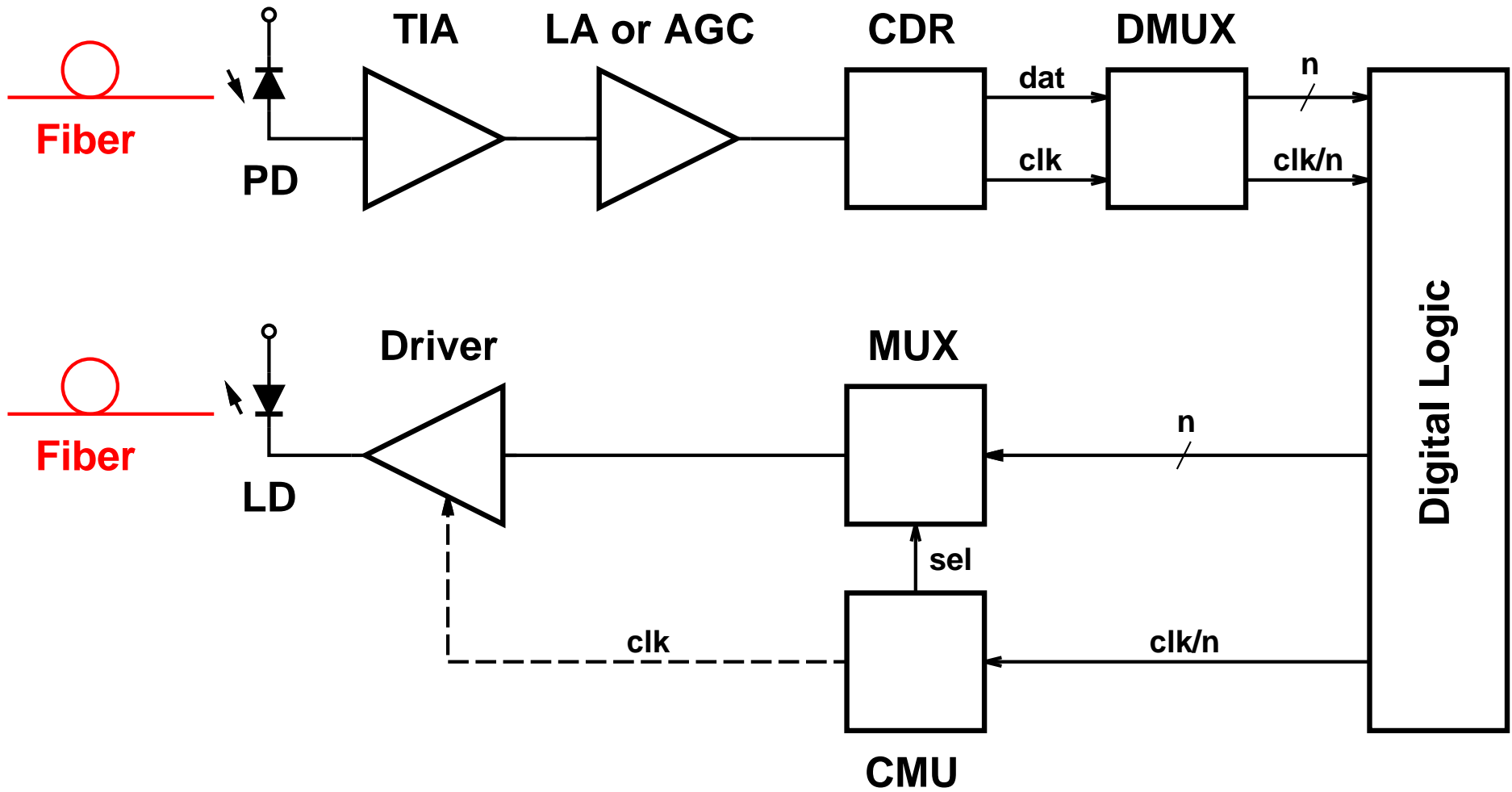
- Short to ultra-long reach
- High-speed (2.5 ... 40 Gb/s)
- Point-to-point
  - ➔ Continuous mode



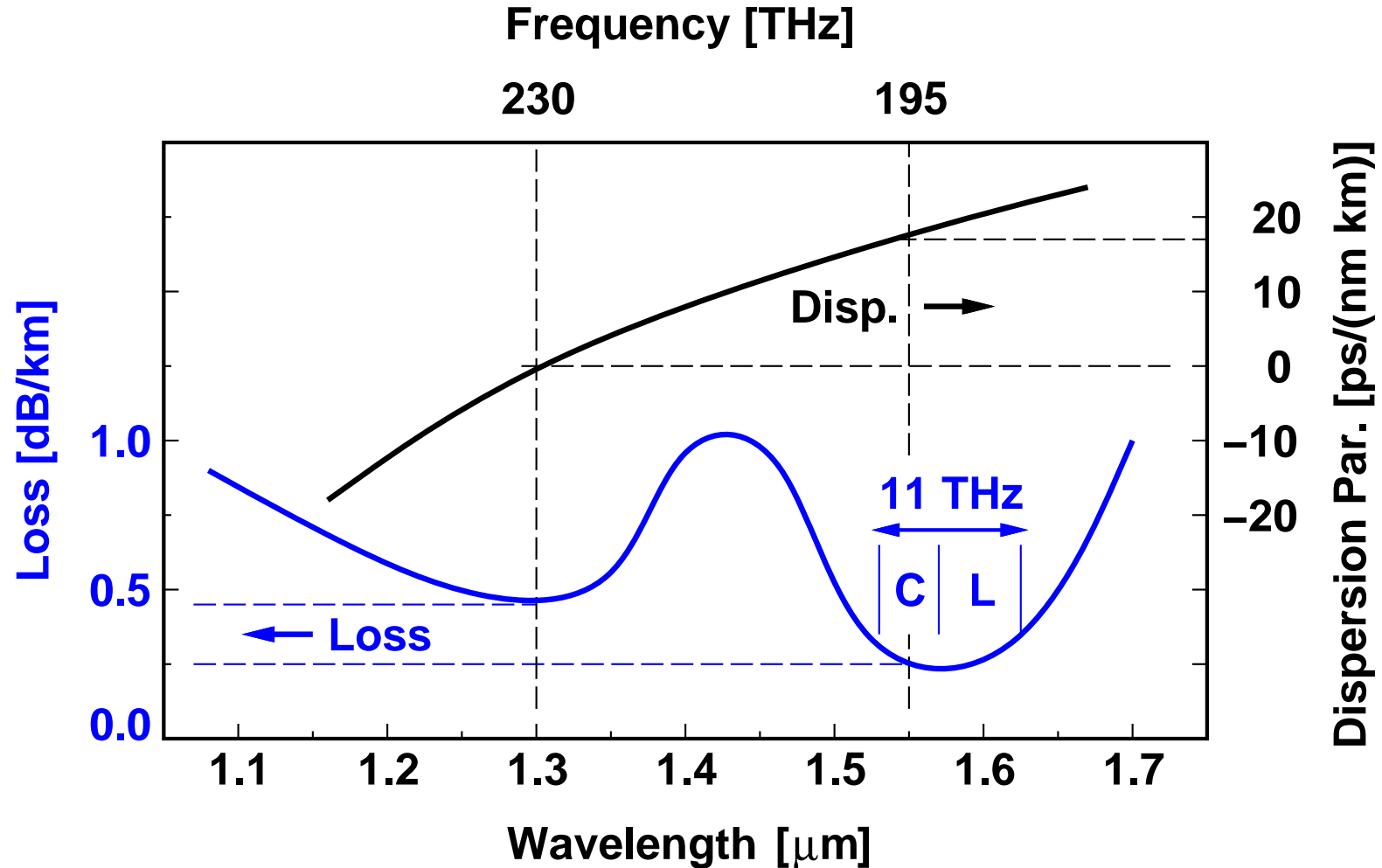
## Access (PON):

- Short distance
- Low-speed (50 Mb/s ... 1.25 Gb/s)
- Point-to-multipoint
  - ➔ Burst mode (upstream)
  - ➔ TDMA protocol

# Optical Fiber

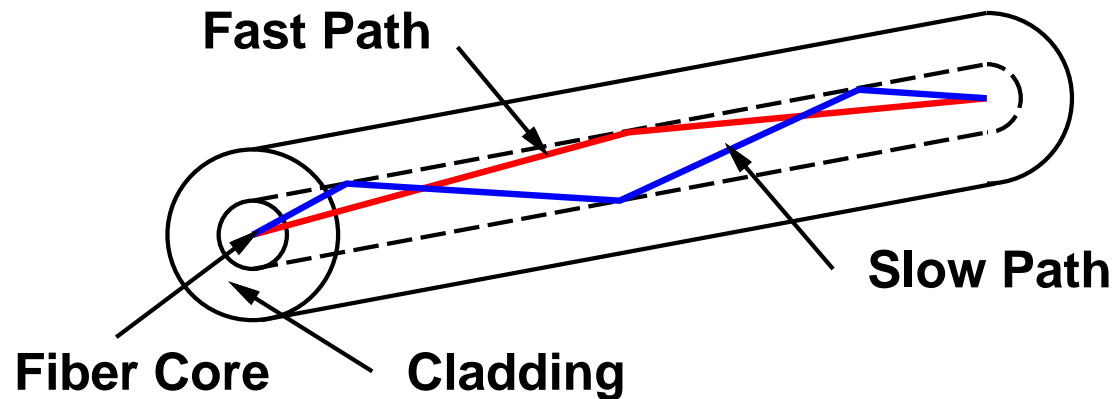


# Loss & Bandwidth



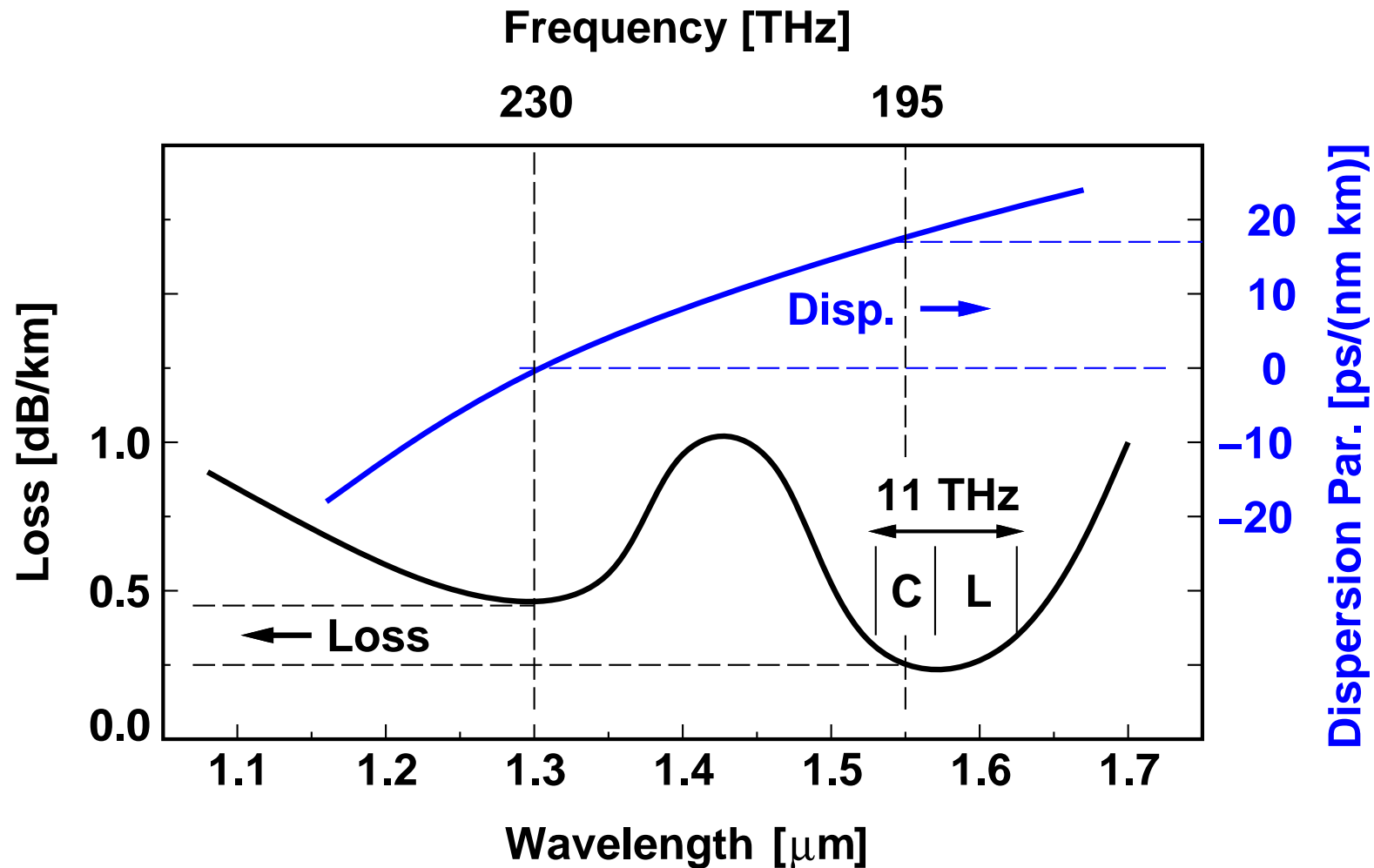
- Extremely low loss  
1000x ... 2000x better (in dBs!) than coax cable at 10 GHz!
- Extremely high bandwidth  
>10 THz in 1.55  $\mu\text{m}$  band (C + L) alone!

# Modal Dispersion



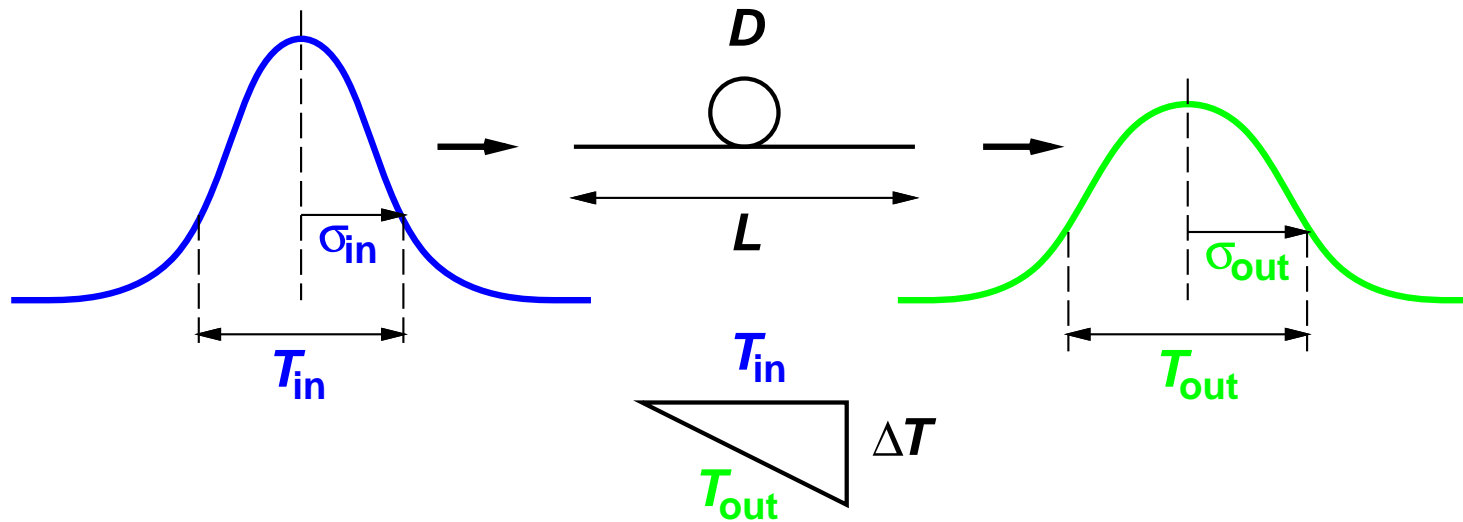
- **Multimode fiber (MMF):**
  - Fiber core = 50 ...100  $\mu\text{m}$
  - Easy alignment, cheaper systems (laser, connectors, ...)
  - Modal dispersion causes pulse distortions
    - Limit: 100 ... 300 m at 10 Gb/s
- **Single-mode fiber (SMF):**
  - Fiber core = 8 ...10  $\mu\text{m}$
  - No modal dispersion (only one pathway mode)

# Chromatic Dispersion



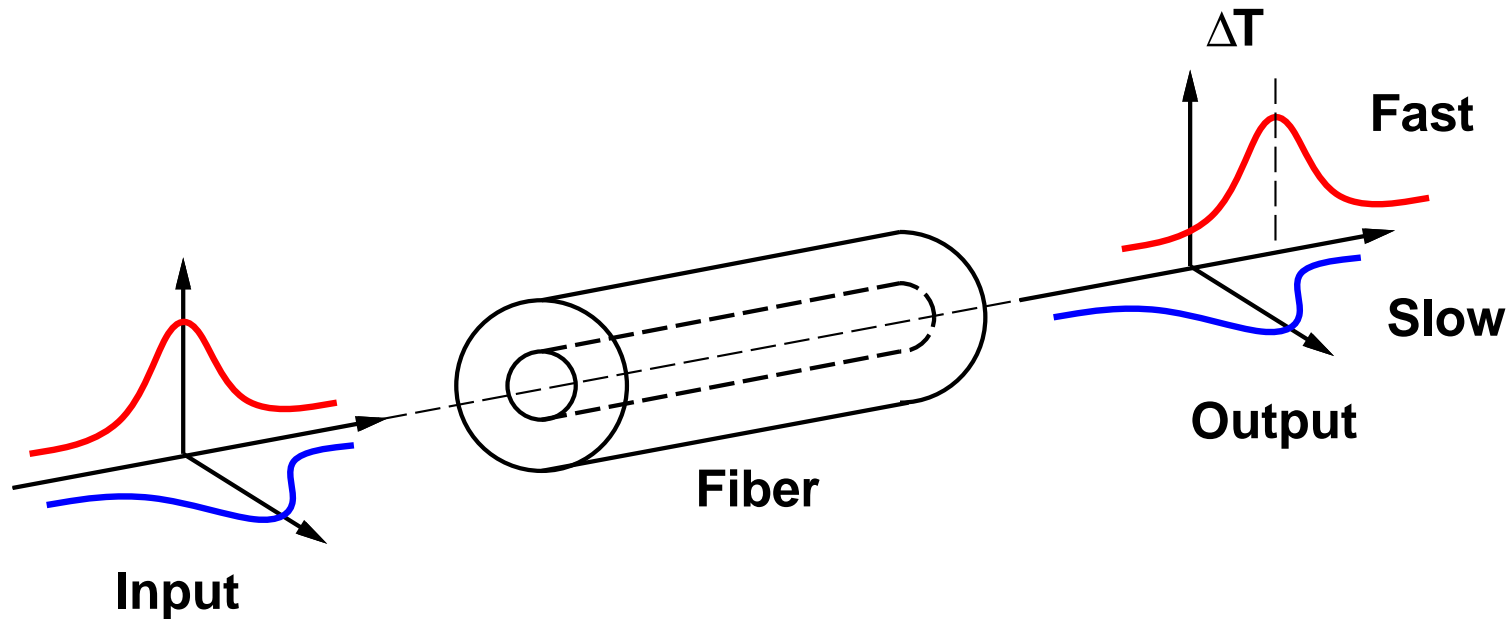
- **Standard SMF:**
  - Almost no chromatic dispersion at 1.3  $\mu\text{m}$
  - $D = 17 \text{ ps}/(\text{nm km})$  at 1.55  $\mu\text{m}$

# Pulse Spreading due to Chromatic Dispersion



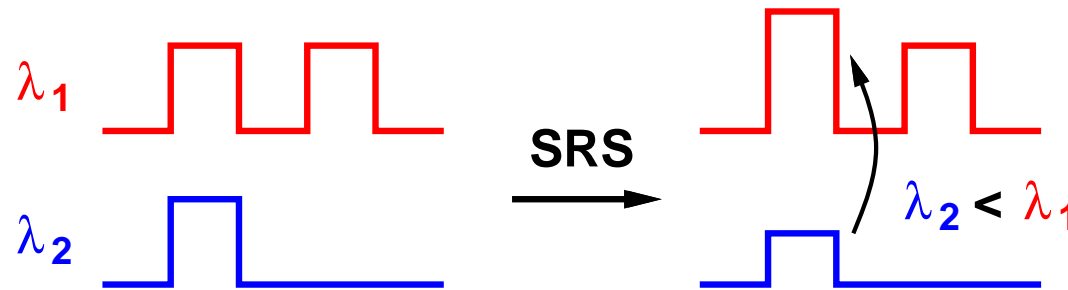
- $\Delta T = |D| L \Delta \lambda$
- Pulse spreading depends on
  - Chromatic dispersion parameter  $D$
  - Link length  $L$
  - Spectral linewidth of transmitter  $\Delta \lambda$
- Keep  $\Delta T < T_{in} / 2$

# Polarization-Mode Dispersion (PMD)



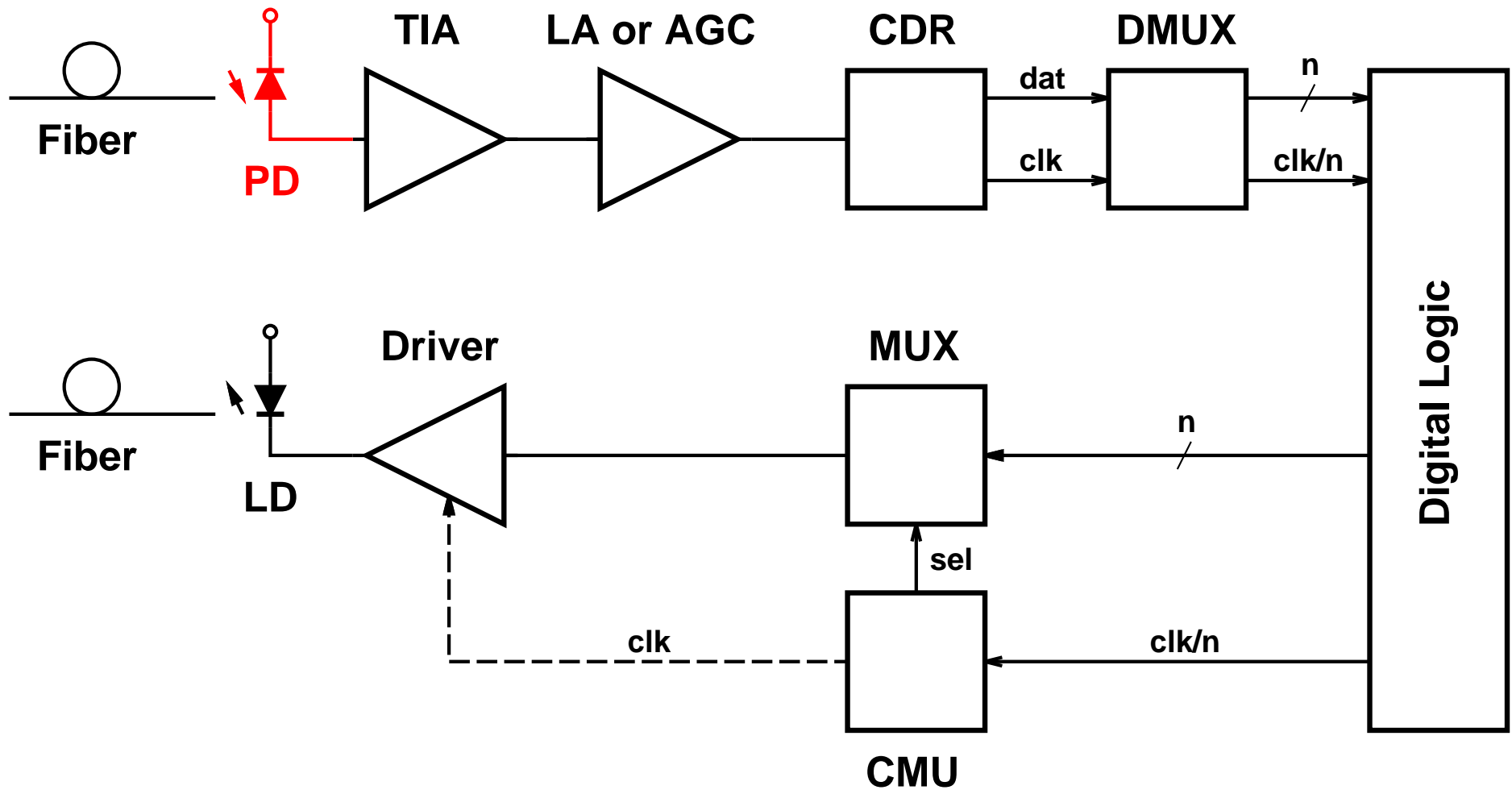
- The two principal polarization modes propagate at different speeds  
→ Pulse distortions
- Distortions are slowly varying with time
- Caused by slightly elliptic fiber core
  - Mostly a problem with older fiber

# Nonlinearities

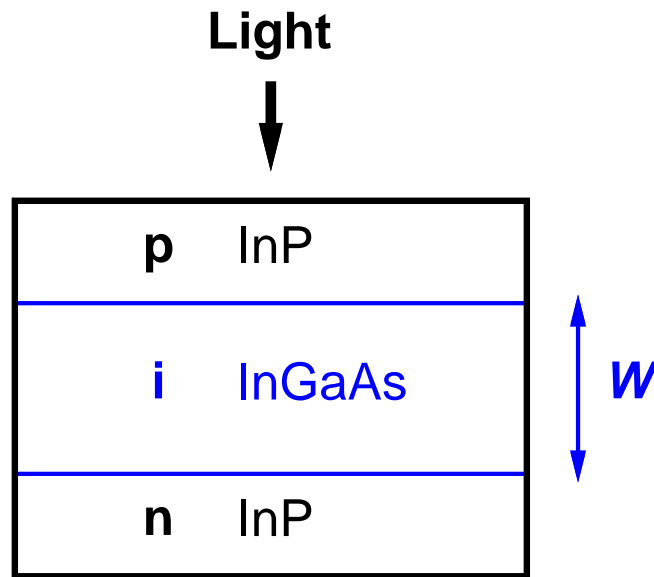


- **Nonlinear effects:**
  - Self-phase modulation (SPM)
  - Cross-phase modulation (CPM, XPM)
  - Four-wave mixing (FWM)
  - Stimulated Raman scattering (SRS)
  - Stimulated Brillouin scattering (SBS)
- **At high optical power levels:**
  - ➔ Pulse distortion, attenuation
- **In WDM (wavelength division multiplexing) systems:**
  - ➔ Crosstalk between channels (see illustration)

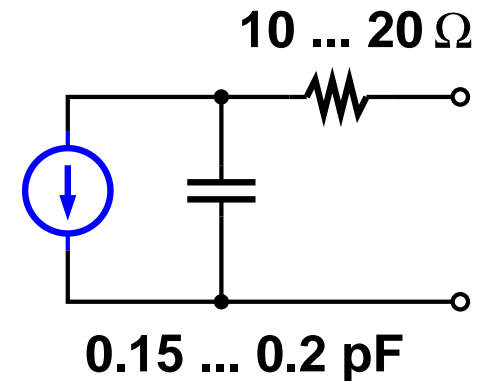
# Photodetectors



# p-i-n Photodetector

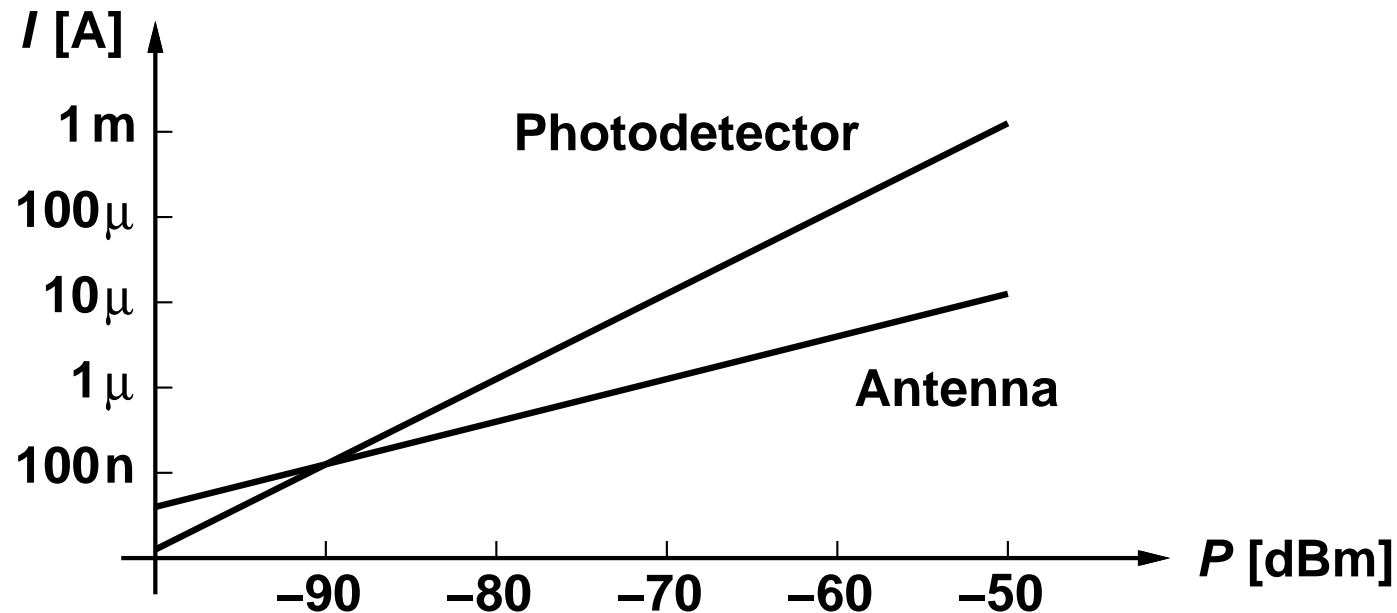


Model of 10-Gb/s p-i-n:



- InGaAs material absorbs photons at 1.0 ... 1.65  $\mu\text{m}$
- Photodiode reverse voltage of 5 ... 10 V required
- Responsivity:
  - $R = (\text{electrical current}) / (\text{optical power})$
  - $R = 0.6 \dots 0.9 \text{ A/W}$  for InGaAs p-i-n
- Trade-off:
  - **Large  $W$ :** high quantum efficiency (high responsivity)
  - **Small  $W$ :** high bandwidth

# Photodetector vs. Antenna



## Photodetector:

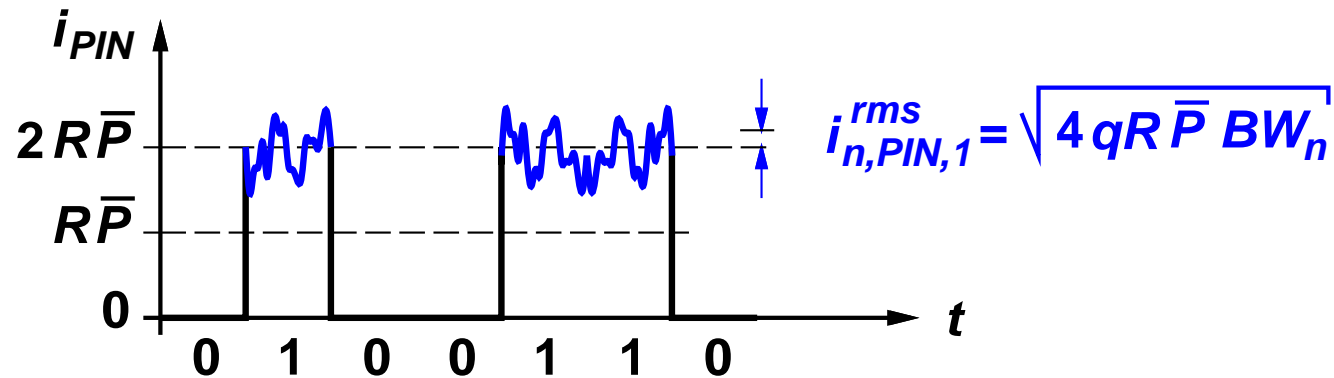
- Current  $\sim$  EM Power  
Double power (+ 3 dB)  
→ 2 x current (+ 6 dB)

## Antenna:

- Current  $\sim \sqrt{\text{EM Power}}$   
Double power (+ 3 dB)  
→ 1.41 x current (+ 3 dB)

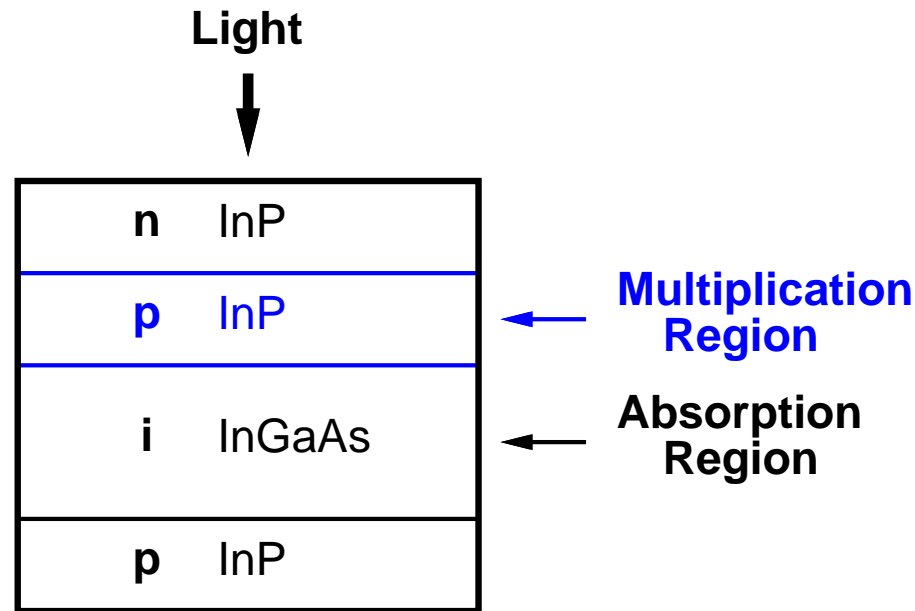
- Warning: It is easy to get confused with dBs when going from the optical to the electrical domain!

# Shot Noise



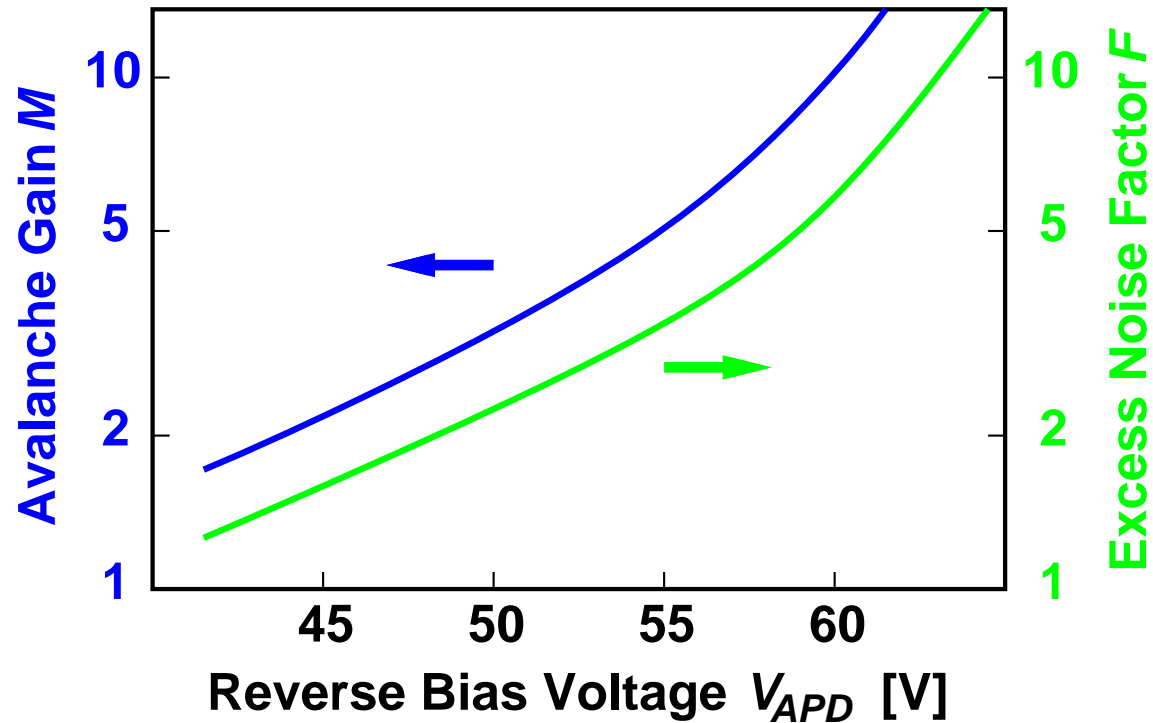
- Shot noise caused by short current pulses (electron/hole pairs)
- Shot noise is signal dependent:
  - Increase optical signal by +3 dB
    - Electrical signal: +6 dB
    - Electrical noise: +3 dB
    - Electrical SNR: +3 dB
- Shot noise on logical "ones," but not on "zeros" (ideally)

# Avalanche Photodetector (APD)



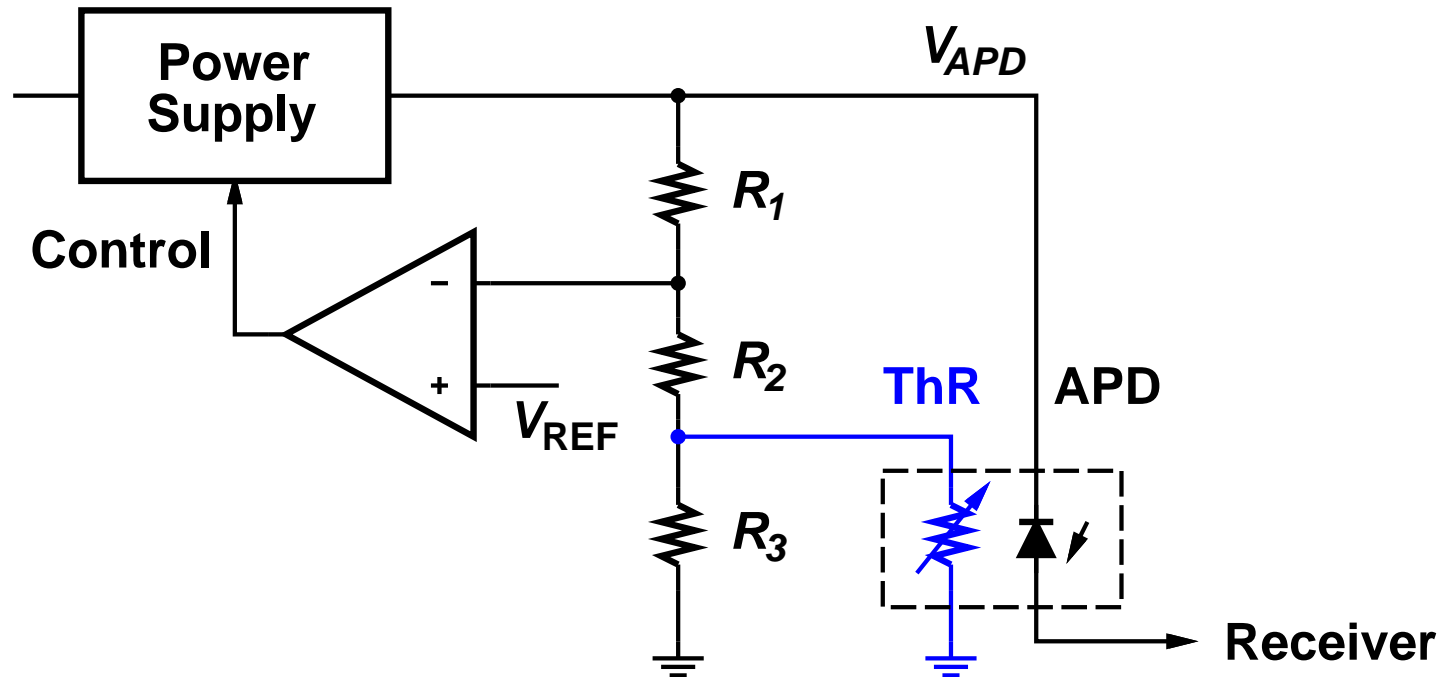
- High reverse voltage of 40 ... 60 V required
- Responsivity:
  - Depends on avalanche gain  $M$
  - $R_{APD} = 6 \dots 9 \text{ A/W}$  for  $M = 10$
- Noise:
  - More noise than just amplified shot noise:
    - Excess noise factor  $F$
- Slower than p-i-n detector

# Dependence on Reverse Voltage



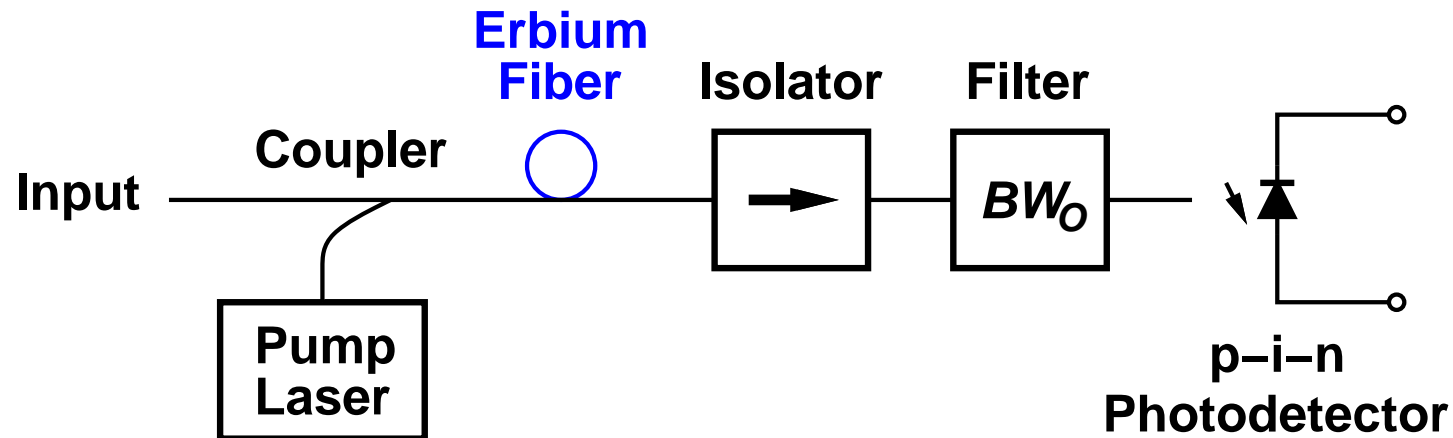
- Avalanche gain  $M$  increases with reverse voltage  
... and decreases with temperature
- Excess noise factor  $F$  increases with avalanche gain  
Nearly linear dependence,  $F(M)$ , for InGaAs
- Reverse bias controls trade-off: gain, noise, and speed

# APD Bias Circuit



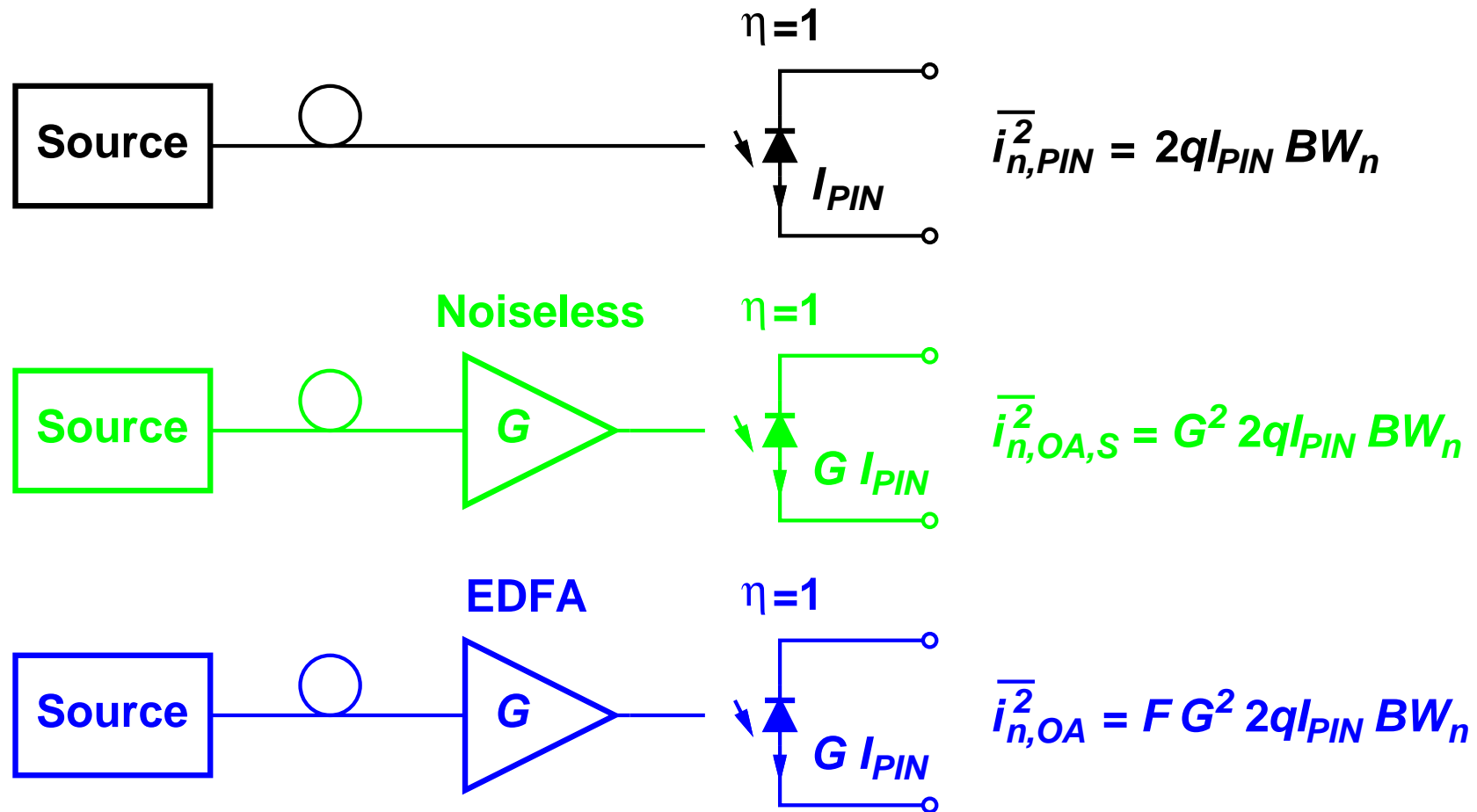
- Temperature compensated APD bias circuit
  - $TC = +0.2\% / ^\circ C$
- Thermistor (ThR) packaged with APD

# p-i-n Detector with Optical Preamplifier



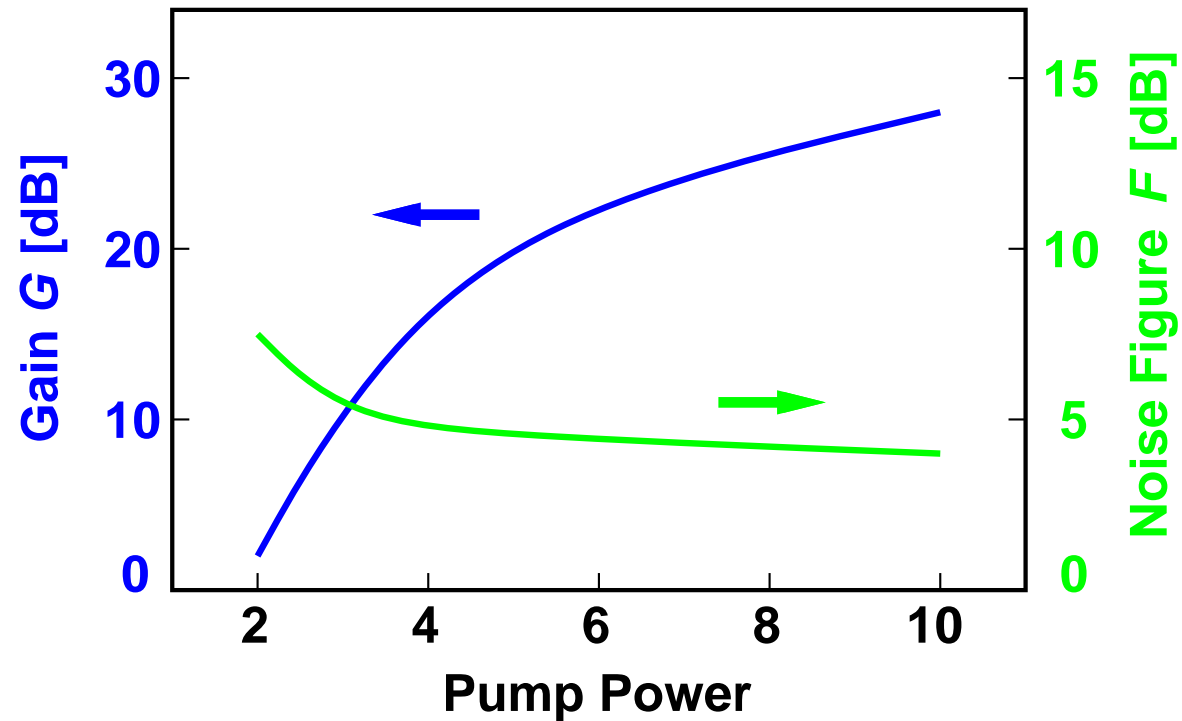
- Erbium doped fiber amplifier (EDFA) provides gain in 1.55- $\mu$ m band
- Responsivity:
  - Depends on optical amplifier (OA) gain  $G$
  - $R_{OA+pin} = 60 \dots 90 \text{ A/W}$  for  $G = 20 \text{ dB}$
- Noise:
  - Amplified spontaneous emission (ASE) noise
  - Reduce ASE noise with optical filter
  - Several (beat) noise components in electrical domain
  - Electrical noise is signal dependent, like shot noise

# Noise Figure of Optical Amplifier



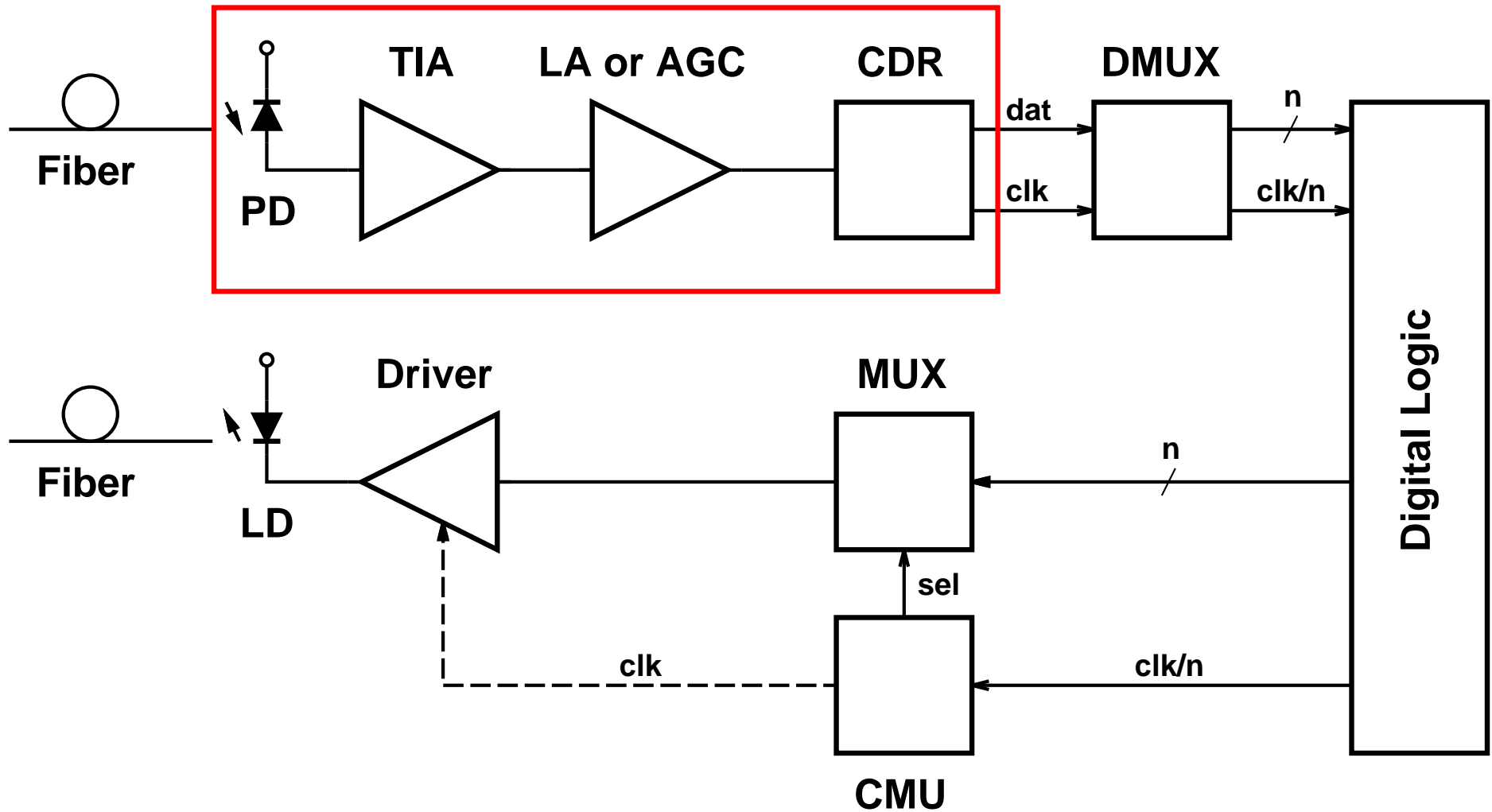
- Noise figure  $F = \frac{\text{total output noise power}}{\text{output noise power due to the source (shot noise)}}$
- Noise powers are measured in electrical domain with ideal p-i-n detectors
- Typical EDFA noise figure = 5 dB

# Dependence on Pump Power

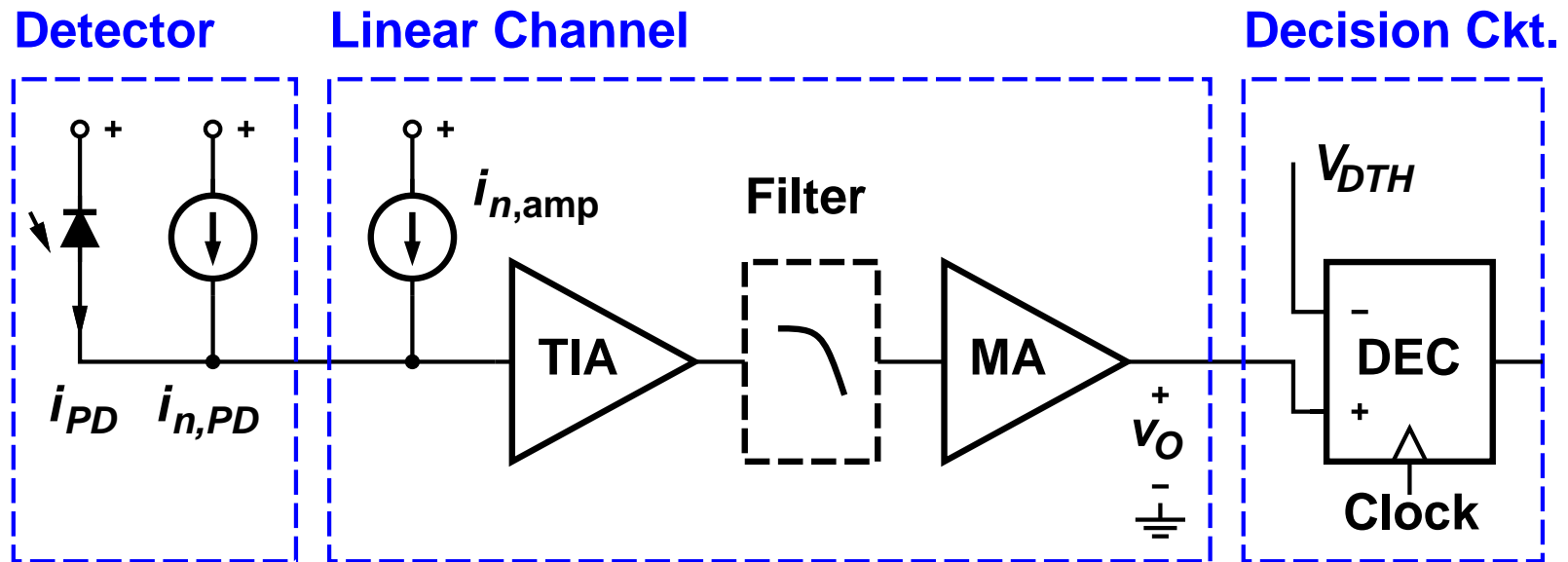


- Gain  $G$  increases with pump power
- Noise figure  $F$  decreases with pump power
- Theoretical limit  $F > 3$  dB

# Receiver Fundamentals



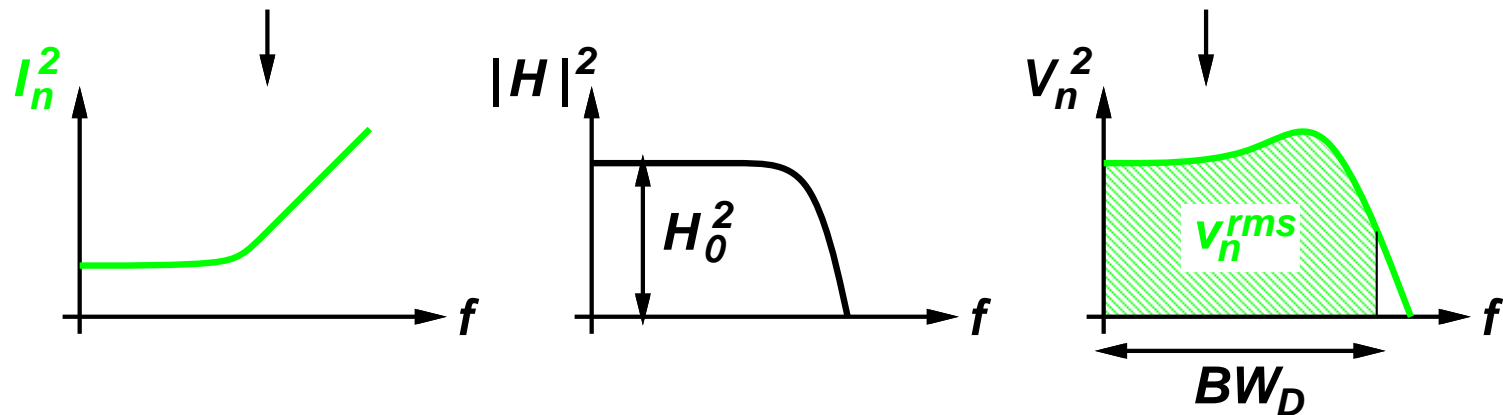
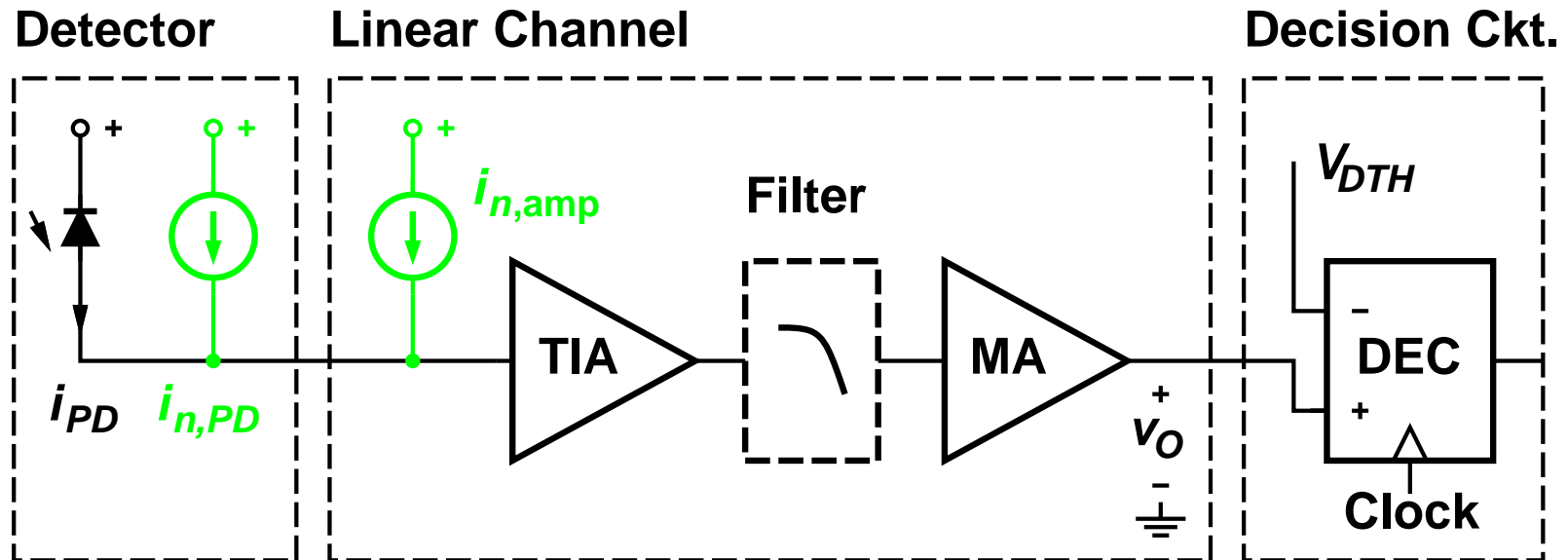
# Basic Receiver Model



- How does noise impact the bit-error rate?
- What is receiver sensitivity?
- What is a power penalty?
- What is the optimum receiver bandwidth?
- Extensions of the basic receiver model ...

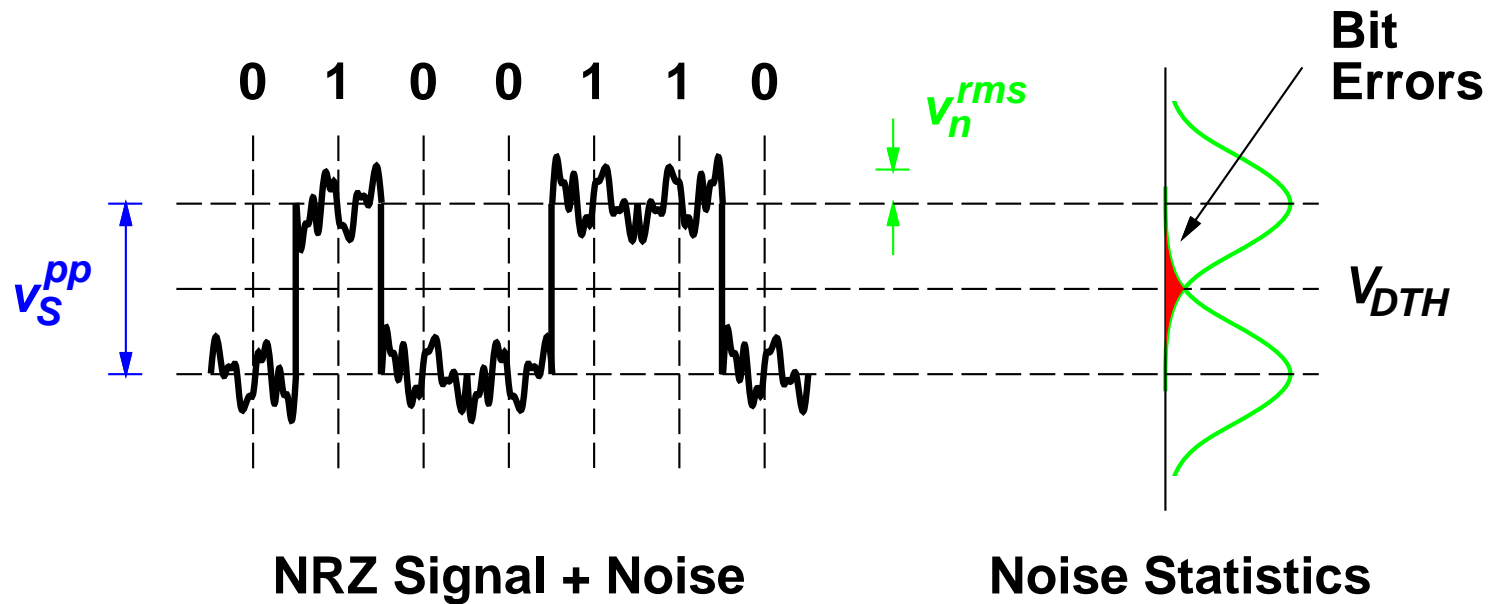
# Receiver Noise

- Calculation of output-referred rms noise:



# Receiver Noise & Bit-Error Rate

- Output voltage of linear channel:



$$BER = \int_Q^{\infty} \text{Gauss}(x) dx \quad \text{with} \quad Q = \frac{V_S^{pp}}{2 V_n^{rms}}$$

**Example:**  $BER = 10^{-12}$  for  $Q = 7.0$

# Input-Referred Quantities

- Define input-referred signal and noise:

$$i_S^{pp} = v_S^{pp} / H_0$$

$$i_n^{rms} = v_n^{rms} / H_0$$

- Calculate BER based on input-referred quantities:

$$BER = \int_Q^\infty \text{Gauss}(x) dx \quad \text{with} \quad Q = \frac{i_S^{pp}}{2 i_n^{rms}}$$

- Warning:

$$\overline{i_n^2} = \frac{1}{H_0^2} \int_{BW_D} |H(f)|^2 I_n^2(f) df \neq \int I_n^2(f) df$$

- Use Personick integrals to calculate input-referred rms noise from input noise spectrum!

# Receiver Sensitivity

- **Electrical sensitivity:**

Minimum peak-to-peak signal current  
necessary to achieve a specified bit-error rate:

$$i_{\text{sens}}^{pp} = 2 Q i_n^{rms}$$

- **Optical sensitivity:**

Minimum optical power, averaged over time,  
necessary to achieve a specified bit-error rate:

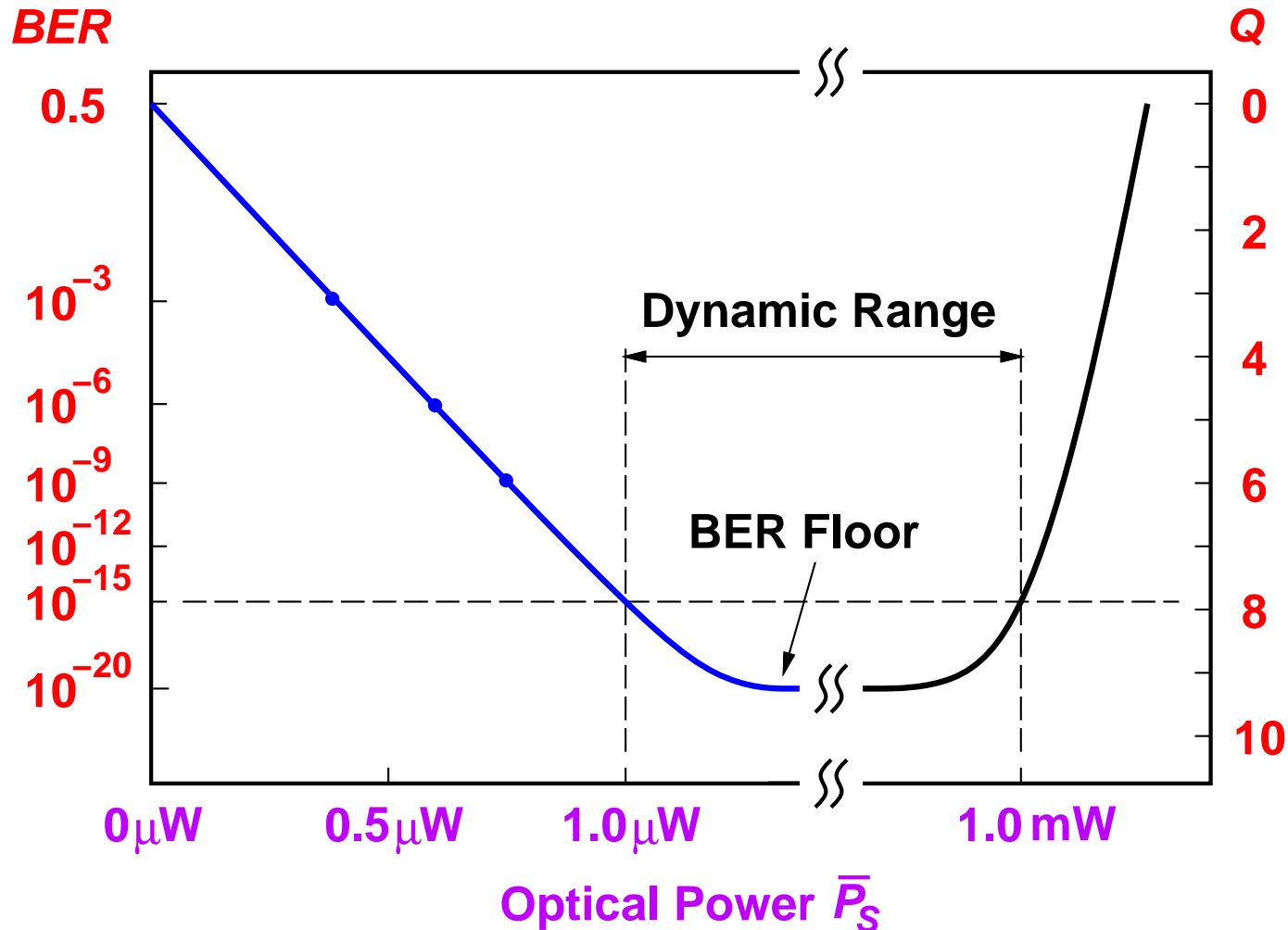
$$\bar{P}_{\text{sens}} = \frac{Q i_n^{rms}}{R}$$

$R$  = responsivity of photodetector [A/W]

- **Typical bit-error rates used to define sensitivity:**

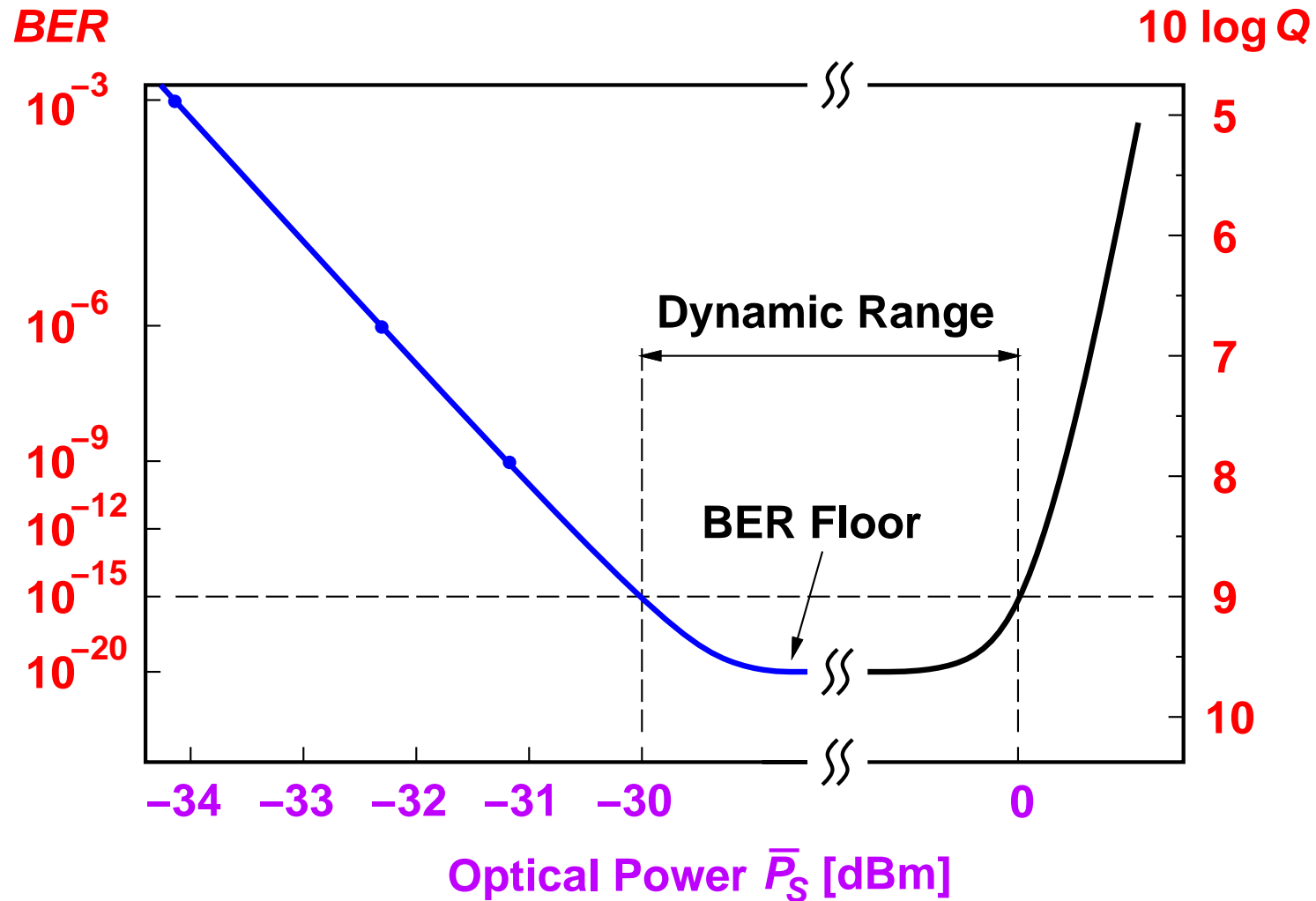
- BER =  $10^{-12}$      $Q = 7.0$     SONET OC-192 (10 Gb/s)
- BER =  $10^{-10}$      $Q = 6.4$     SONET OC-48 (2.5 Gb/s)

# BER Plot (lin-lin Scale)



- Linear relationship between  $Q$  and  $\bar{P}_S$  for low power values
  - Infer receiver noise from slope
  - Extrapolate to low BERs (beware of the BER floor)

# BER Plot (log-log Scale)



- Linear relationship between  $\log Q$  and  $\log \bar{P}_S$  for low power values
  - Logarithmic power scale in dBm
  - Extrapolate to low BERs (beware of the BER floor)

# Amplifier Noise and Detector Noise

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- **p-i-n Photodiode:**
  - p-i-n photodiode (shot) noise usually is negligible
  - Most of the receiver noise contributed by amplifier
    - ➔ **Amplifier noise (TIA) mostly determines sensitivity**
  - Equal amount of noise on ones and zeros
- **Avalanche photodiode (APD):**
  - Both amplifier noise and APD noise matters
    - ➔ **Amplifier noise (TIA) can be used to estimate sensitivity**
  - More noise on ones than zeros
  - Mostly used up to 2.5 Gb/s
- **Optical preamplifier followed by p-i-n photodiode:**
  - Noise of optical amplifier(s) often dominates receiver noise
  - More noise on ones than zeros
  - Mostly used for 10 Gb/s and above

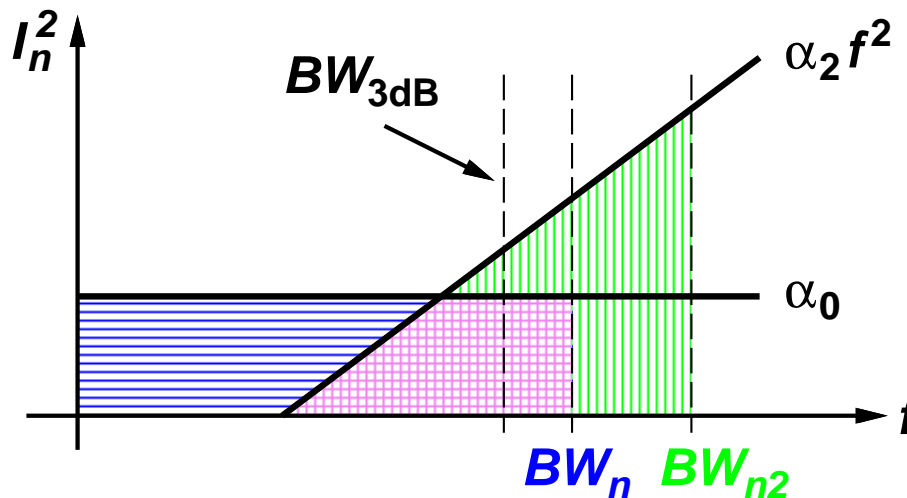
# Sensitivity Examples

	2.5 Gb/s	10 Gb/s
<b>Typical TIA noise, rms</b> <b>Input signal, peak-peak, for BER = <math>10^{-12}</math></b> <b>Sensitivity @ p-i-n (<math>R = 0.8 \text{ A/W}</math>)</b> <b>Estim. sensitivity @ APD (<math>R_{APD} = 8.0 \text{ A/W}</math>)</b>	<b>380 nA</b> <b>5.3 <math>\mu\text{A}</math></b>  <b>-24.8 dBm</b>  <b>-34.8 dBm</b>	<b>1.4 <math>\mu\text{A}</math></b> <b>19.7 <math>\mu\text{A}</math></b>  <b>-19.1 dBm</b>  <b>-29.1 dBm</b>
Typical sensitivity @ optical amplifier + p-i-n Theoretical maximum sensitivity (quantum limit)	-41.5 dBm  -53.6 dBm	-35.6 dBm  -47.6 dBm

**Note: 0.25 dB better sensitivity = 1 km more distance!**  
**(standard SMF at 1.55  $\mu\text{m}$ , no optical in-line amps)**

# Personick Integrals (1)

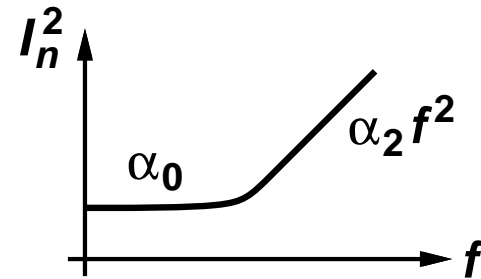
- Can we compute the input rms noise from the input noise spectrum?  
Yes, but we need to integrate the white and  $f^2$  parts separately and up to different frequencies!



$H(f)$	$BW_n$	$BW_{n2}$
1st-order low pass	$1.57 BW_{3dB}$	$\infty$
2nd order (Q=0.50)	$1.22 BW_{3dB}$	$2.07 BW_{3dB}$
2nd order (Q=0.71)	$1.11 BW_{3dB}$	$1.49 BW_{3dB}$
brick wall	$1.00 BW_{3dB}$	$1.00 BW_{3dB}$

# Personick Integrals (2)

- Input noise spectrum:  $I_n^2(f) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_2 f^2$



- Calculate input rms noise:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \overline{i_n^2} &= \frac{1}{H_0^2} \int_{BW_D} |H(f)|^2 (\alpha_0 + \alpha_2 f^2) df \\
 &= \alpha_0 \underbrace{\frac{1}{H_0^2} \int_{BW_D} |H(f)|^2 df}_{BW_n} + \alpha_2/3 \underbrace{\frac{3}{H_0^2} \int_{BW_D} |H(f)|^2 f^2 df}_{BW_{n2}^3} \\
 &= \alpha_0 \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\text{White noise integrated up to } BW_n} + \alpha_2/3 \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{f^2 \text{ noise integrated up to } BW_{n2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

White noise integrated  
up to  $BW_n$

$f^2$  noise integrated  
up to  $BW_{n2}$

# Personick Integrals (3)

---

- Noise bandwidth and Personick integrals:
  - $BW_n$  is known as the "Noise Bandwidth"
  - $BW_n$  and  $BW_{n2}^3$  are related to the "Personick Integrals"  $I_2$  and  $I_3$  as follows:

$$I_2 = BW_n / B$$

$$I_3 = BW_{n2}^3 / (3B^3)$$

where  $B$  is the bit rate

# Power Penalty (1)

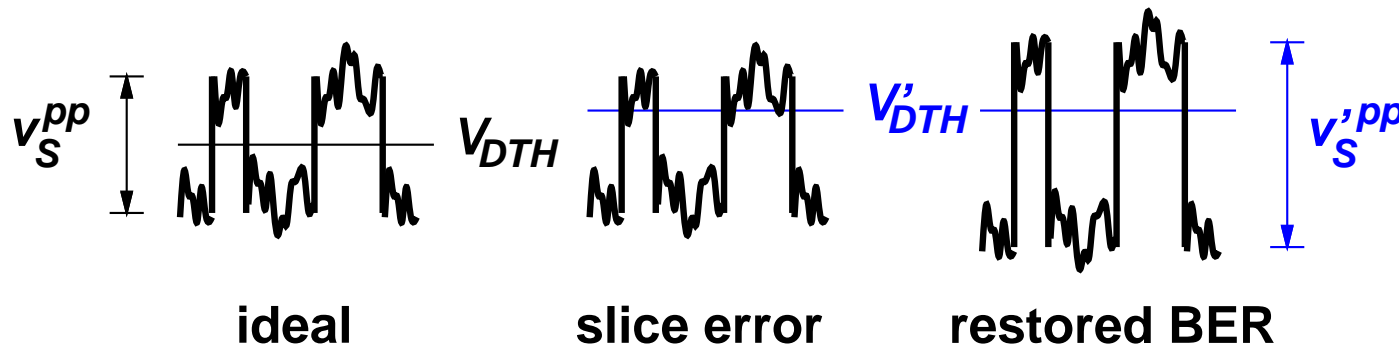
- Definition:

Additional optical power needed to overcome an impairment  
(i.e., obtain same BER as without impairment)

→ Useful tool to quantify impairments and derive specs

- Example:

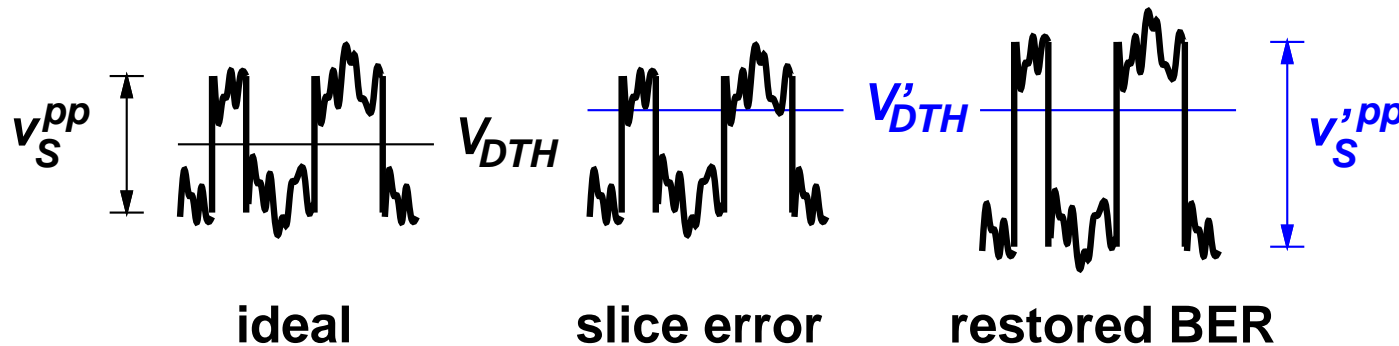
Impairment = error in decision threshold:



$$\text{Power Penalty} = PP = \frac{v'_S{}^{pp}}{v_S{}^{pp}}$$

## Power Penalty (2)

- Calculation of power penalty (p-i-n detector w/o OA):



$$v_S'^{pp} / 2 = v_S^{pp} / 2 + (V'_{DTH} - V_{DTH})$$

$$PP = 1 + 2 \frac{(V'_{DTH} - V_{DTH})}{v_S^{pp}} = 1 + 2 (\text{Slice Error})$$

→ For a 10% slice error, we get  $PP = 0.79$  dB

- Derivation of specs from power penalty:

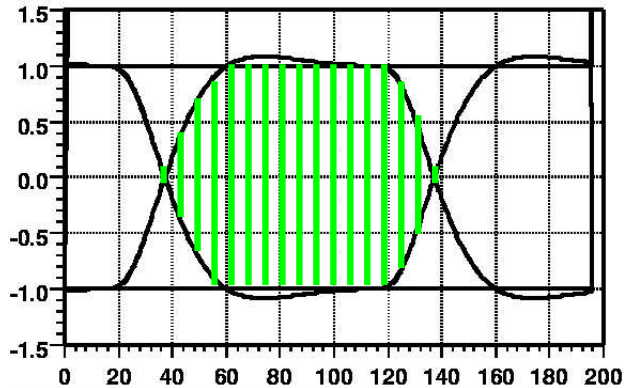
$$(\text{Slice Error}) = (PP - 1) / 2$$

→ For  $PP < 0.05$  dB, we need a slice error  $< 0.58\%$

# Receiver Bandwidth

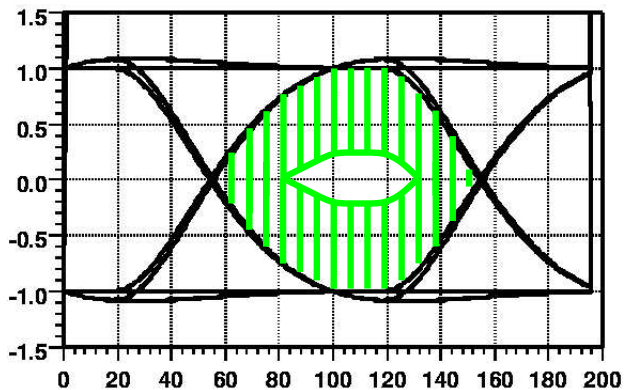
- What is the optimum receiver bandwidth?
  - High bandwidth:
    - Noise causes errors
  - Low bandwidth:
    - Intersymbol interference (ISI) causes errors
  - **Good trade-off:  $\text{bandwidth} = 2/3 \text{ bit rate}$  (for NRZ modulation)**
- Example (next slide):
  - Signal: 10-Gb/s NRZ
  - Noise: white (frequency independent)
  - Filter: second-order Butterworth response  
(maximally flat amplitude response)  
3-dB bandwidth @ 13.33, 6.67, and 3.33 GHz

# Receiver Bandwidth Examples



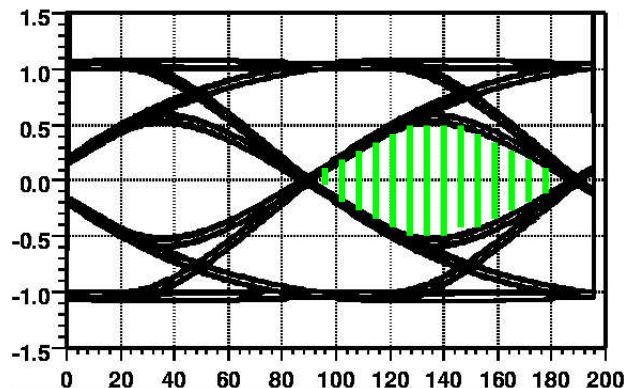
**Bandwidth =  $4/3$  bit rate**  
**( = 13.33 GHz @ 10 Gb/s )**

**Noise = 1.0 units**



**Bandwidth =  $2/3$  bit rate**  
**( = 6.67 GHz @ 10 Gb/s )**

**Noise = 0.71 units**



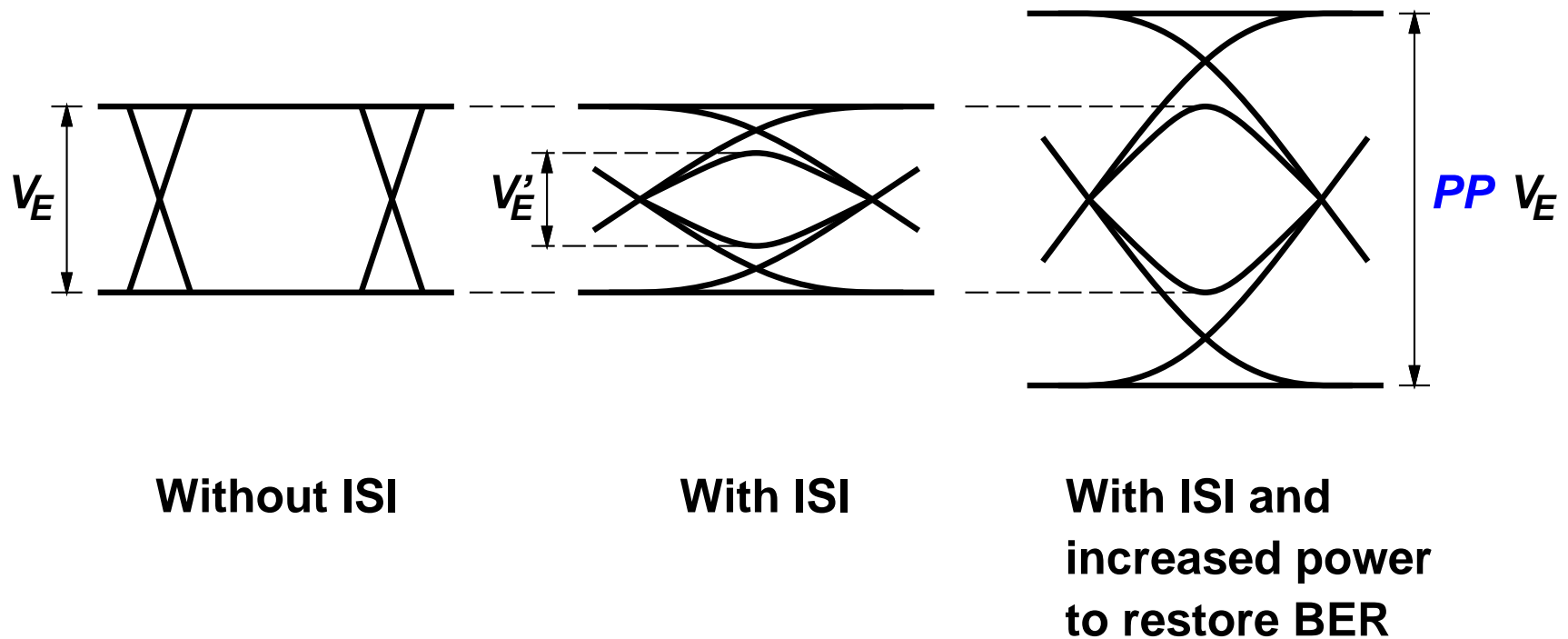
**Bandwidth =  $1/3$  bit rate**  
**( = 3.33 GHz @ 10 Gb/s )**

**Noise = 0.5 units**

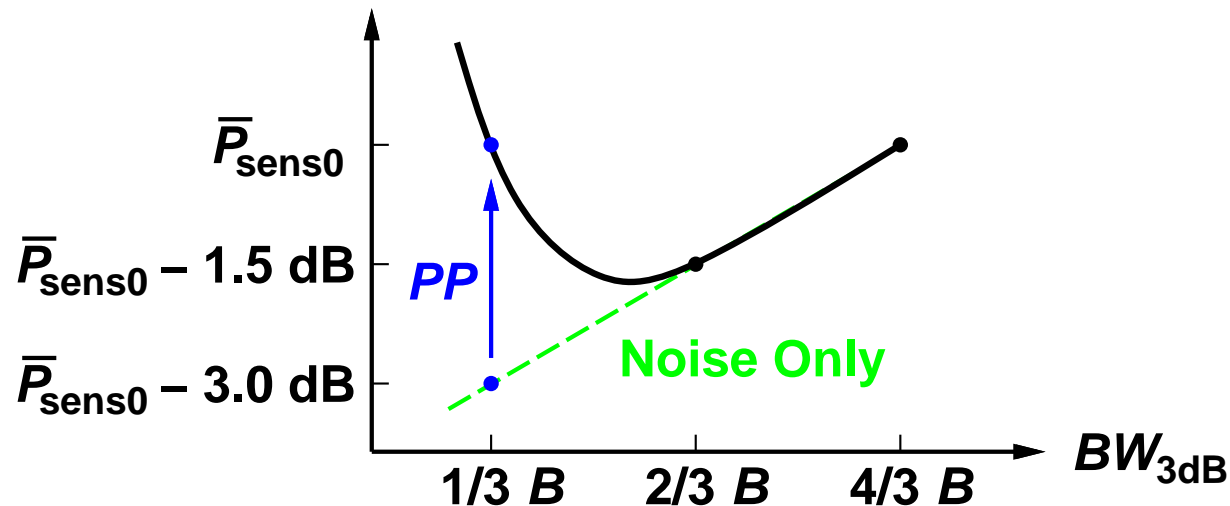


# Power Penalty due to ISI

- Power penalty ( $PP$ ) is the additional optical power needed to restore the BER in the presence of ISI:



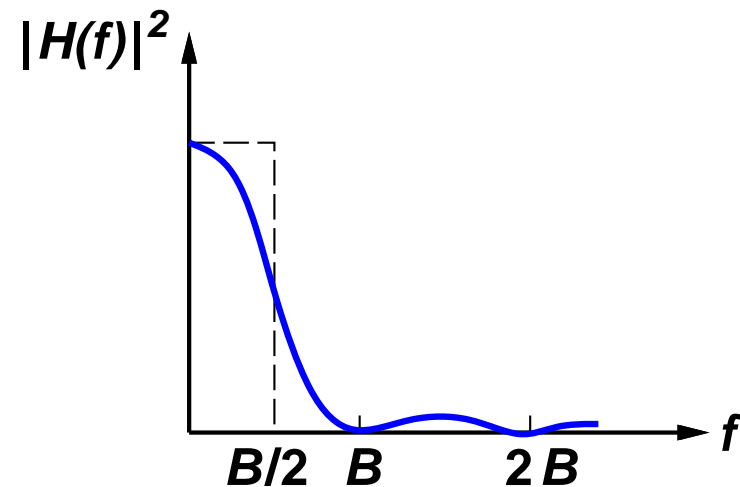
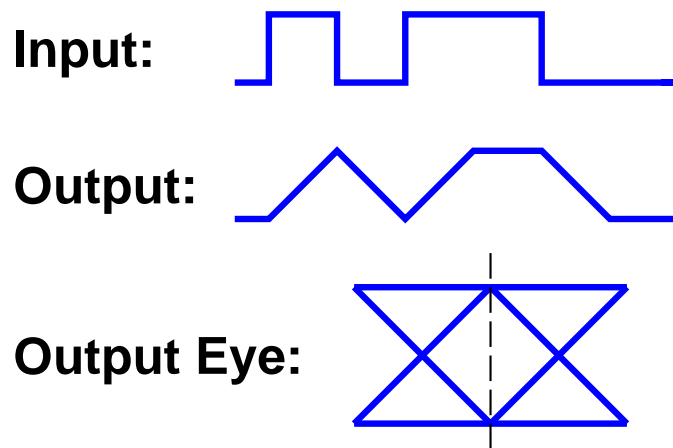
# Optimum Receiver Bandwidth



- Sensitivity degrades at high bandwidths due to noise
- Sensitivity degrades at low bandwidths due to ISI
- Optimum receiver bandwidth is about 2/3 of the bit rate

# Rectangular Receiver Response

- Rectangular filter is the optimum frequency response to receive undistorted NRZ pulses with white noise:



- 3-dB bandwidth is  $0.44 B$
- Noise bandwidth is  $0.50 B$
- Zero ISI when sampling at the center of the eye
- Implementation with "integrate & dump" circuit
- But in practice, pulses are distorted and noise is not white ...

# Bandwidth Allocation

- How do we choose the bandwidth for the TIA, MA, etc. ?

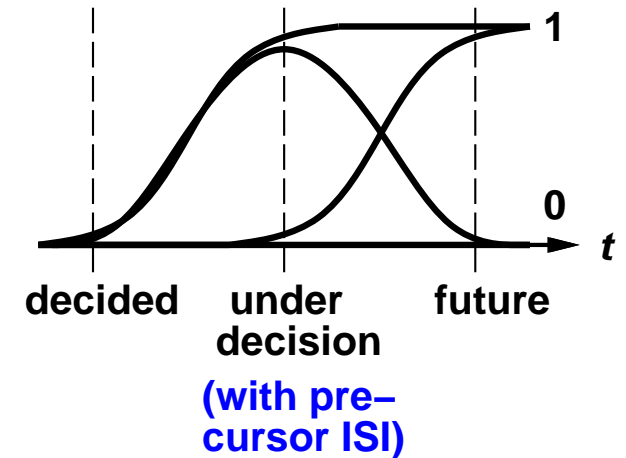
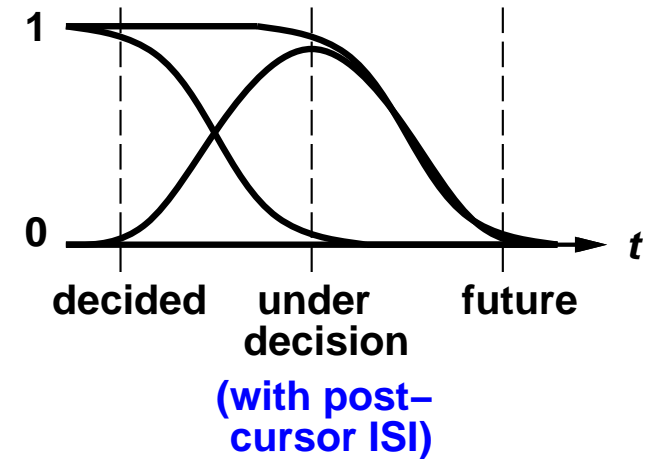
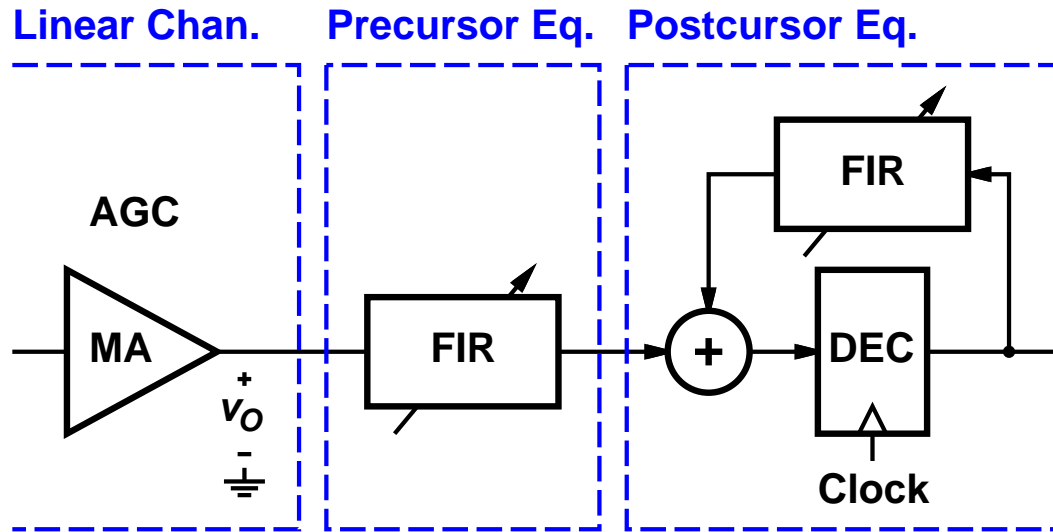
Goal: combined bandwidth =  $2/3 B$

$$1/BW^2 \approx 1/BW_1^2 + 1/BW_2^2 + 1/BW_3^2 + \dots$$

- Several strategies:

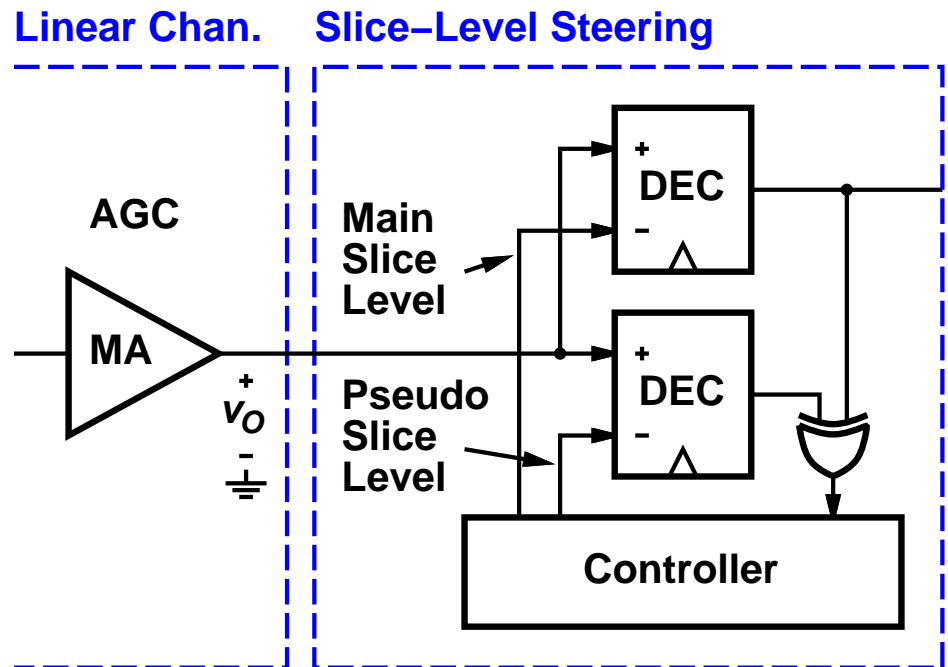
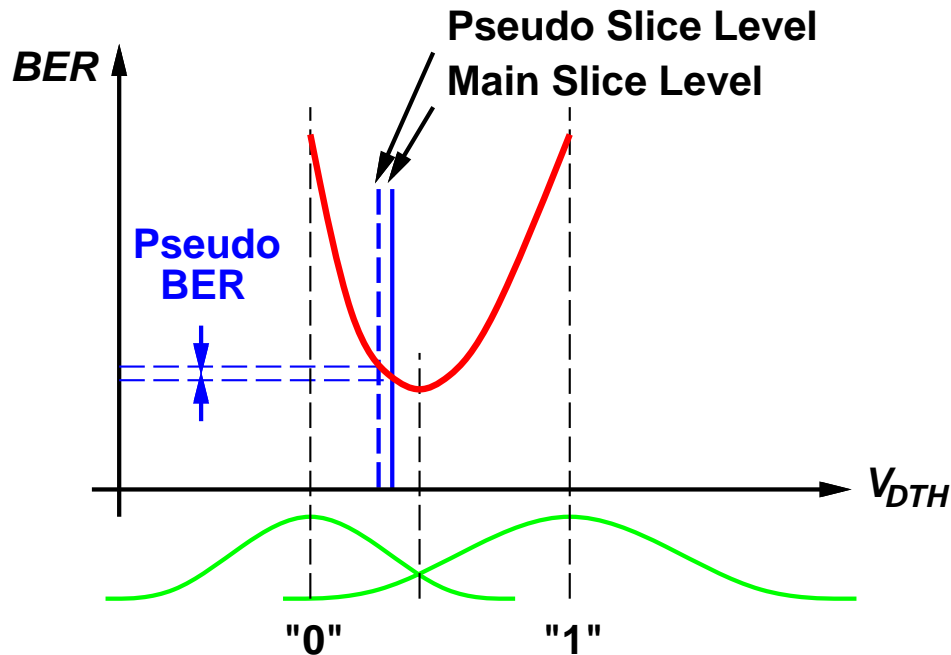
- Use precise filter with bandwidth  $2/3 B$   
Make all other components (det., TIA, MA, CDR) wideband ( $\gg 2/3 B$ )  
→ Good stability, controlled frequency response
- Make bandwidth of TIA equal  $2/3 B$   
Make all other components wideband ( $\gg 2/3 B$ )  
→ Permits low-noise TIA, saves filter
- Make bandwidth of all components about  $B$   
In combination the bandwidth will be about  $2/3 B$   
→ Used in high-speed receivers (10 Gb/s +)

# Adaptive Equalizer



- Cancel ISI due to fiber dispersion and receiver response
  - ➔ Adapt to changing pulse shapes
- Popular implementation:
  - Decision-feedback equalizer (DFE)
    - Precursor equalizer (linear FIR)
    - Postcursor equalizer (nonlinear)

# Decision Threshold Control



- Optimum decision threshold is not at halfway point for receivers with APD or OA + p-i-n (more noise on ones than zeros)
- Find optimum automatically with slice-level steering

# Forward Error Correction (FEC)

- Forward error correction improves BER

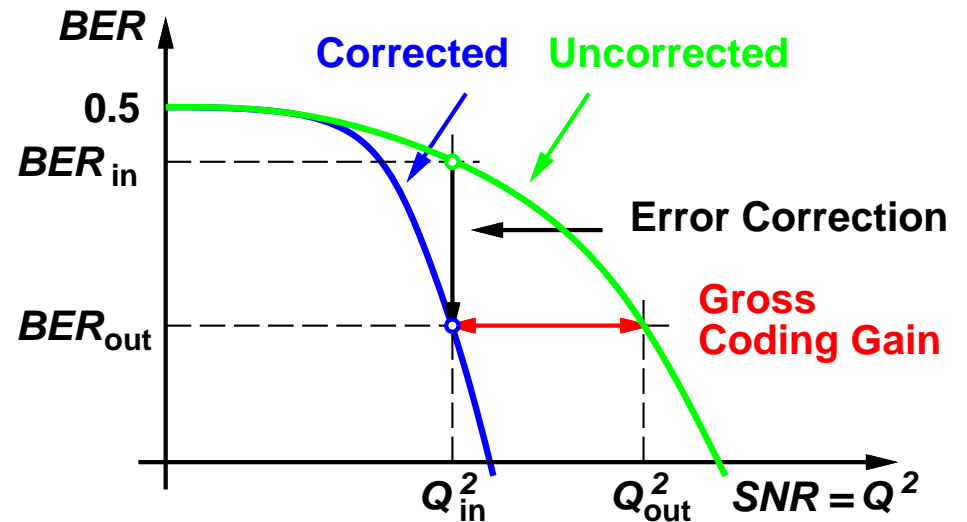
Example:

Input BER =  $10^{-4}$  (after CDR)

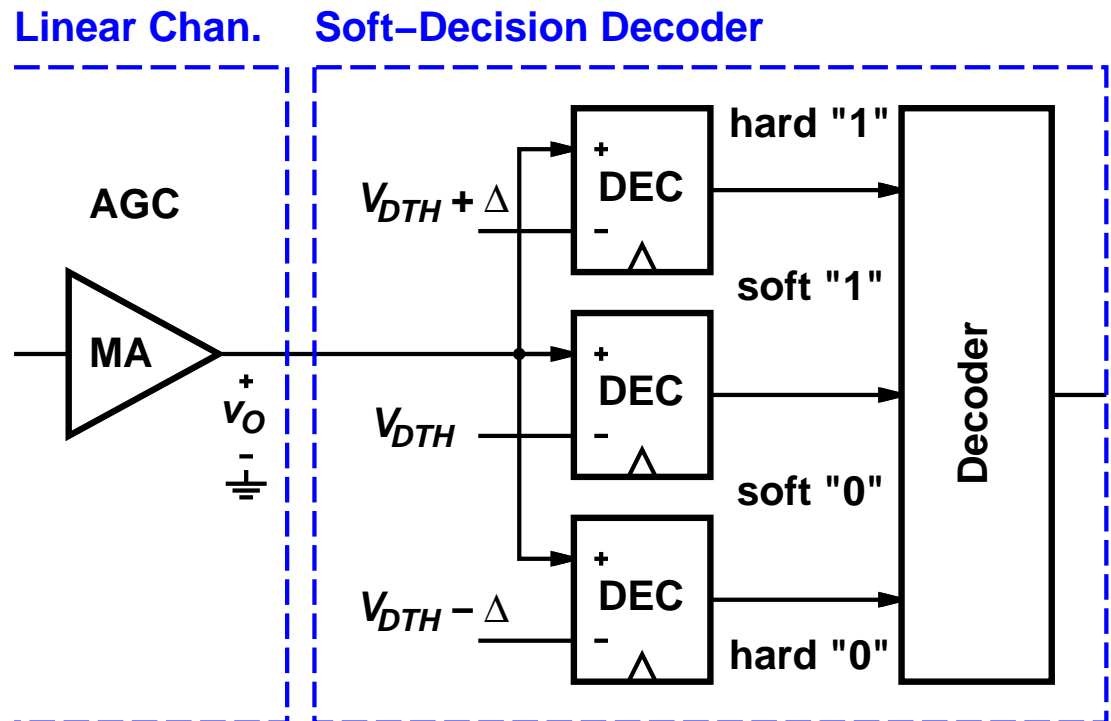
Output BER =  $10^{-12}$  (after decoder)

Bit-rate overhead = 7%

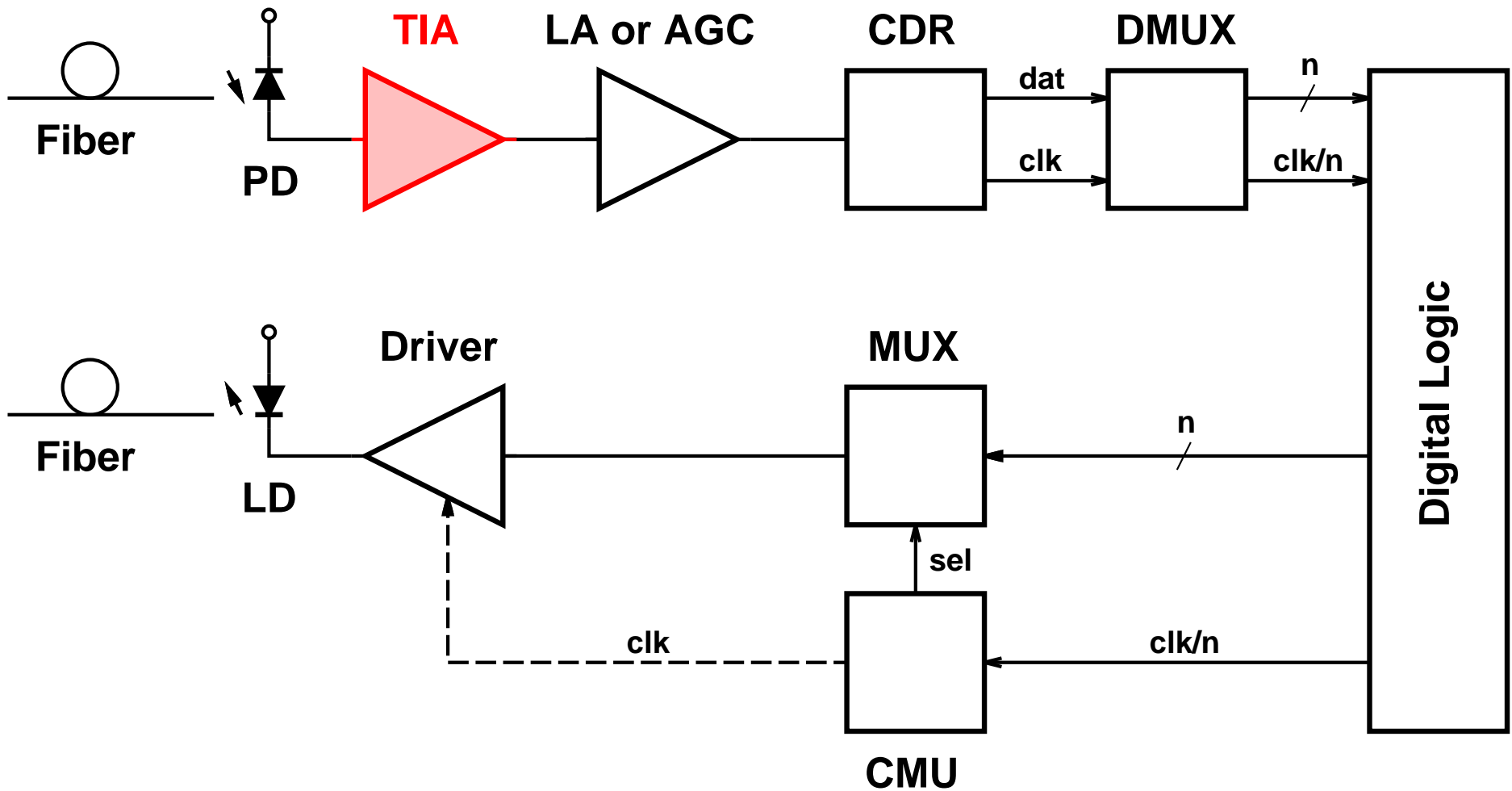
Gross coding gain = 5.5 dB



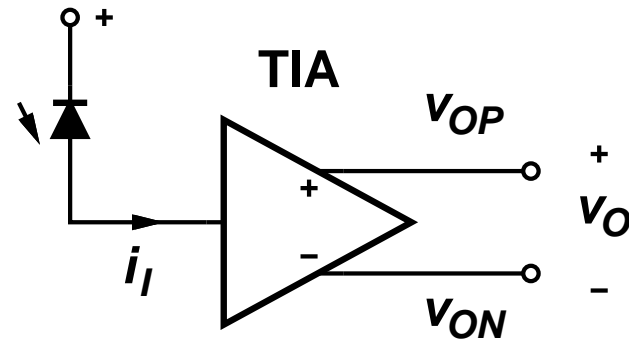
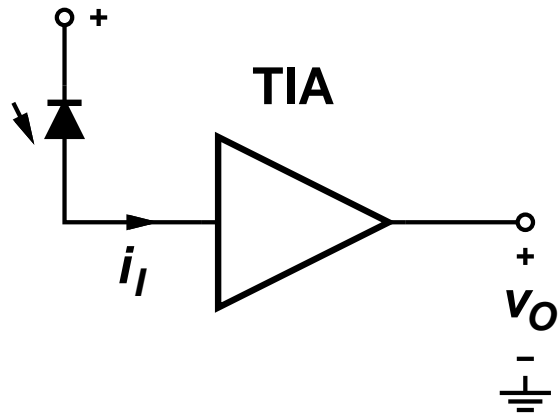
- Two types of decoder:
  - Hard-decision decoder: Binary slicer followed by decoder
  - Soft-decision decoder: Multilevel slicer followed by decoder (better performance)



# Transimpedance Amplifier (TIA)



# Transimpedance



- Transimpedance definition:

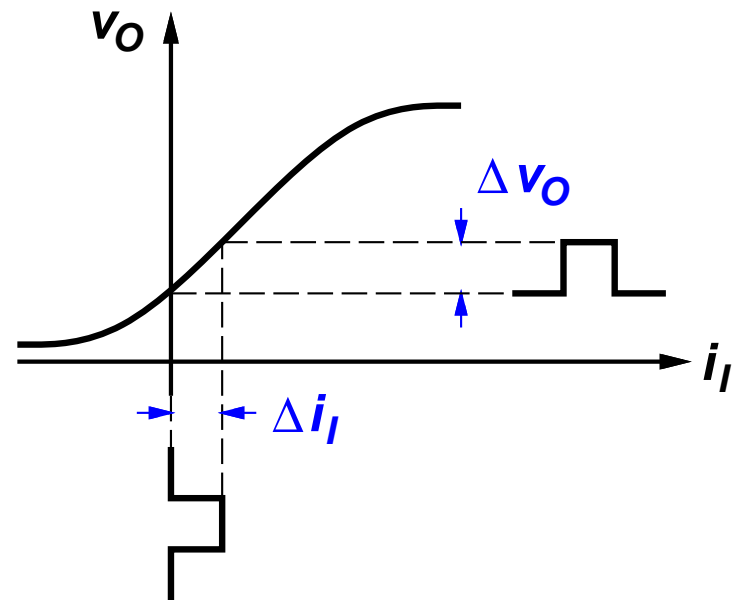
$$Z_T = \frac{\Delta v_O}{\Delta i_I} \quad [\Omega, \text{dB}\Omega]$$

- Typical values:

2.5 Gb/s: 2.0 k $\Omega$  ... 4.0 k $\Omega$

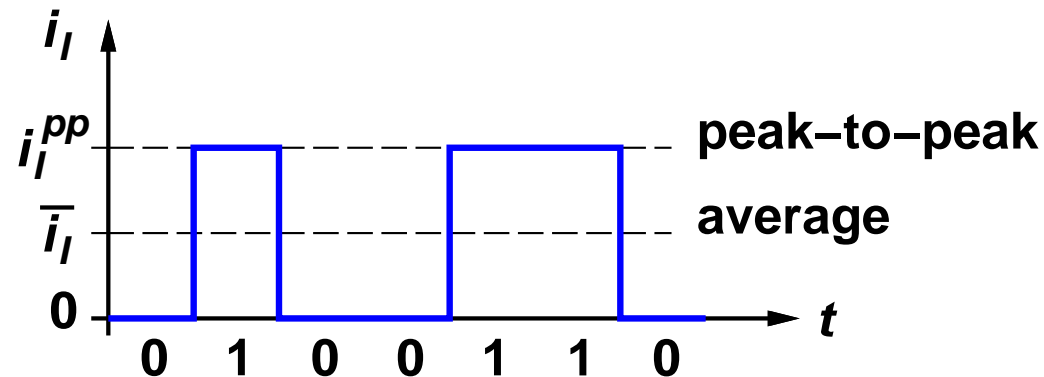
10 Gb/s: 500  $\Omega$  ... 2.0 k $\Omega$

- Generally, faster TIAs have lower transimpedance



# Input Overload Current

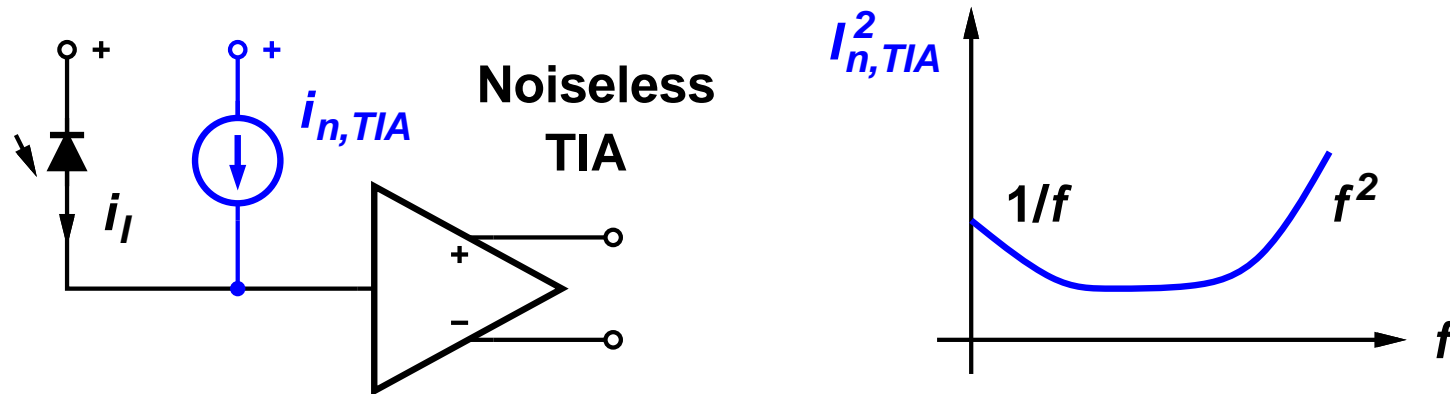
- TIA input signal:



- Input overload current:
  - Maximum peak-to-peak input current before pulse-width distortion and jitter degrade BER
  - Typical value: 1.5 ... 2.5 mA
- Maximum input current for linear operation:
  - Maximum peak-to-peak input current before nonlinear distortions become harmful
  - e.g., input current for 1-dB gain compression

# Input-Referred Noise Current

- Model TIA noise with equivalent noise current source at the input:



- Noise current depends on source impedance (PD capacitance)
- Input-referred noise current spectrum is not white
- Input-referred rms noise current is calculated by integrating the output noise and referring it back to the input (Personick integrals!)
- Typical values:
  - 2.5 Gb/s: 380 nA rms
  - 10 Gb/s: 1,400 nA rms
- Generally, faster TIAs are noisier

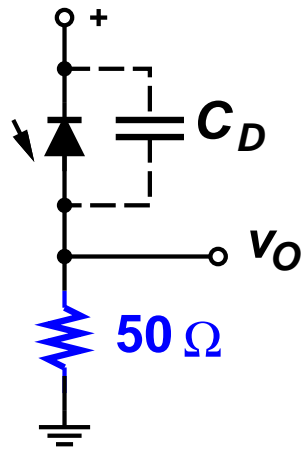
# Bandwidth & Group-Delay Variation

---

- Depends on bandwidth allocation strategy  
The TIA bandwidth is usually 0.6 ... 1.2 the bit rate
- Typical values:
  - 2.5 Gb/s:  $BW = 1.5 \dots 3 \text{ GHz}$
  - 10 Gb/s:  $BW = 6.0 \dots 12 \text{ GHz}$
- Group-delay variation (phase linearity) also causes distortions (ISI and jitter)
  - Limit group-delay variations over bandwidth to less than 0.1 unit interval (UI)
- Typical values:
  - 2.5 Gb/s:  $|\Delta\tau| < 40 \text{ ps}$
  - 10 Gb/s:  $|\Delta\tau| < 10 \text{ ps}$

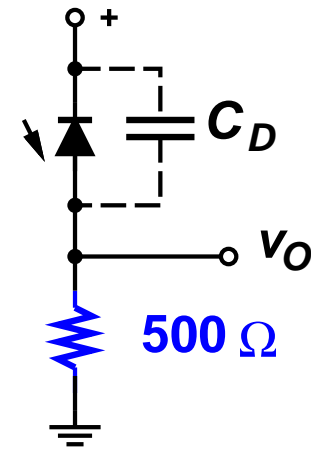
# Low- and High-Impedance Front-Ends

## Low-impedance front-end:



- Low transimpedance
- Fast
- Noisy
- High overload

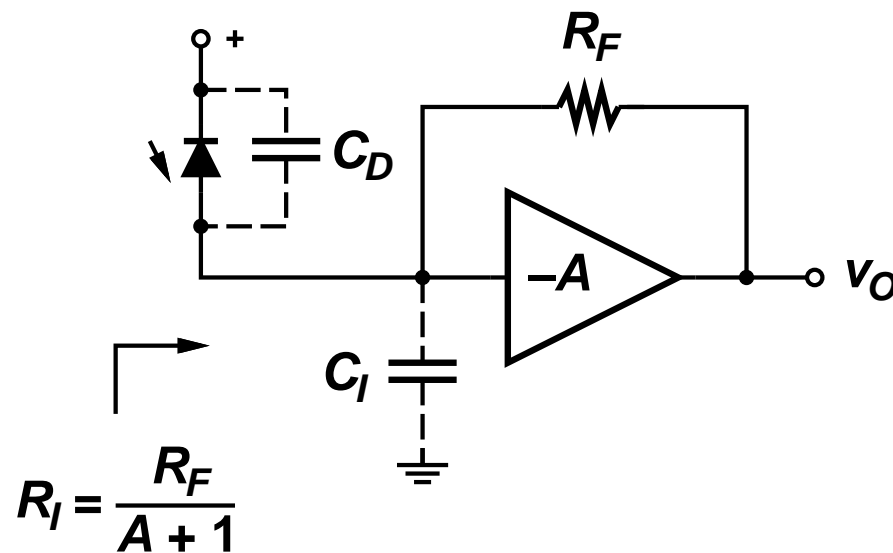
## High-impedance front-end:



- High transimpedance
- Slow
- Low noise
- Low overload

# Shunt Feedback TIA (1)

- Principle (single ended):



$$Z_T(s) = -R_T \frac{1}{(1 + sT)}$$

$$R_T = \frac{A}{A + 1} R_F$$

$$BW = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{A + 1}{R_F C_T}$$

with  $C_T = C_D + C_I$

- Assumptions for amplifier:
  - Bandwidth  $\rightarrow \infty$
  - Input resistance  $\rightarrow \infty$

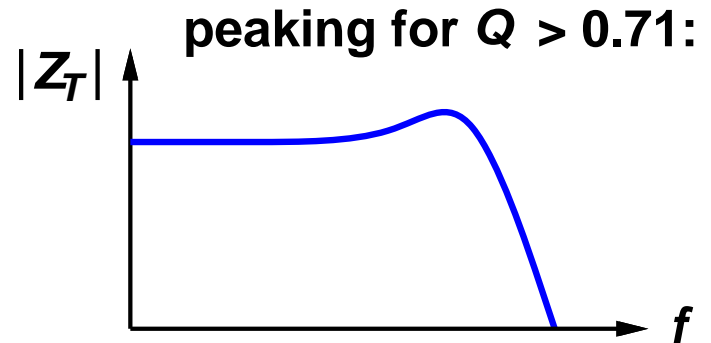
# Shunt Feedback TIA (2)

- Consider amplifier with one pole at  $f_A$ :

$$Z_T(s) = -R_T \frac{1}{(1 + sT/Q + s^2T^2)}$$

- For flat pass band ( $Q < 0.71$ ):

$$\text{Amplifier pole: } f_A > \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{2A}{R_F C_T}$$



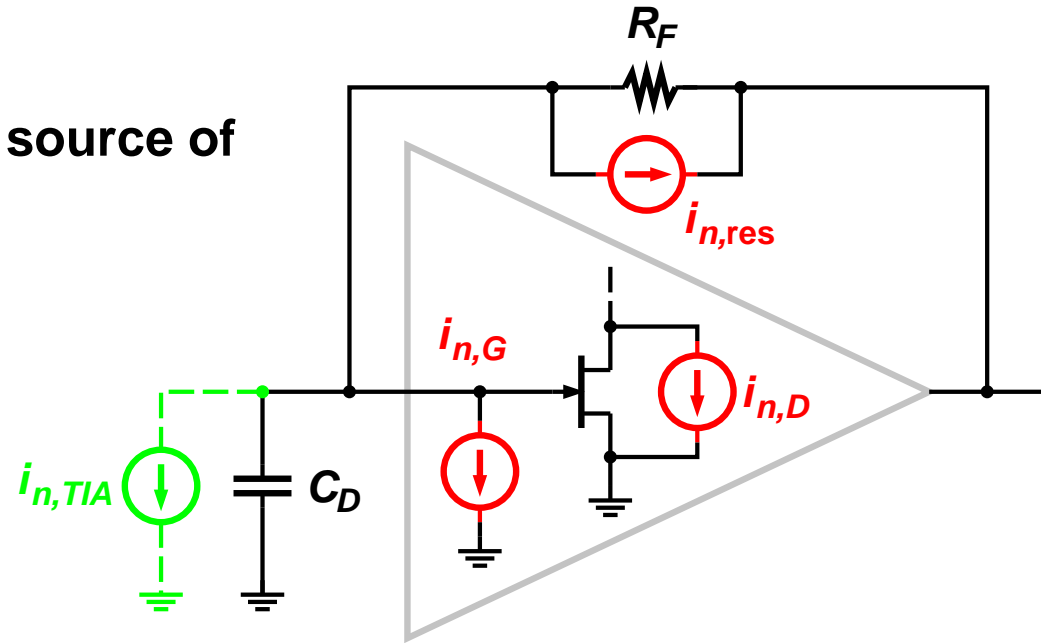
- TIA bandwidth:  $BW = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{\sqrt{2A(A+1)}}{R_F C_T}$  (for  $Q = 0.71$ )

- Transimpedance limit:

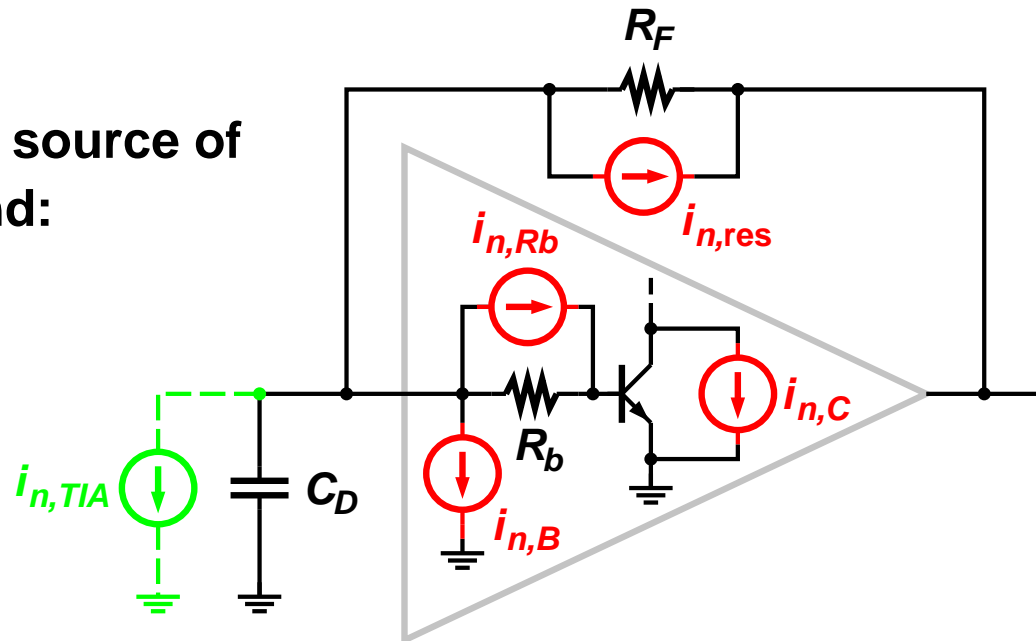
$$R_T < \frac{A f_A}{2\pi C_T BW^2}$$

# TIA Noise Optimization (1)

- Equivalent noise current source of TIA with FET front-end:

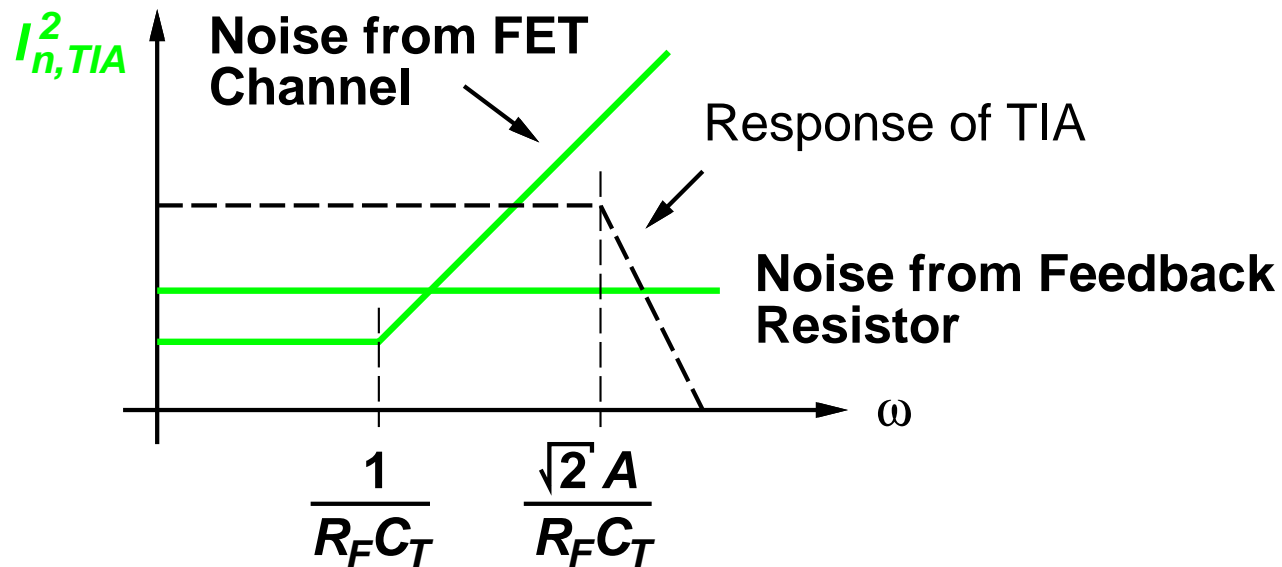


- Equivalent noise current source of TIA with bipolar front-end:



# TIA Noise Optimization (2)

- Input-referred noise current spectrum (FET front-end):



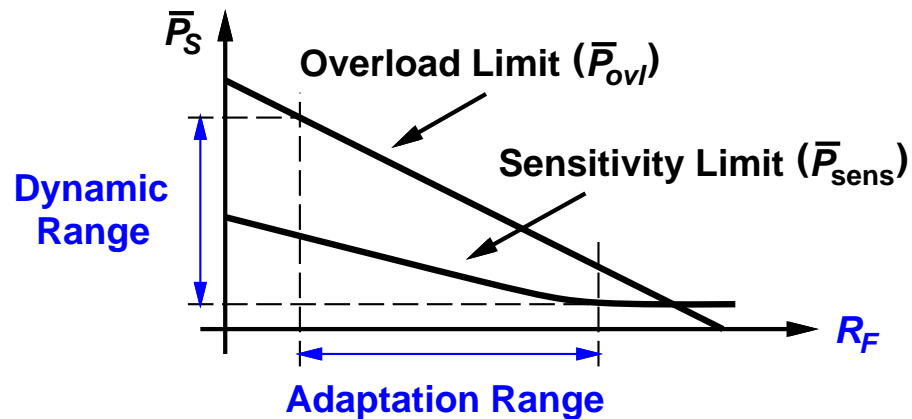
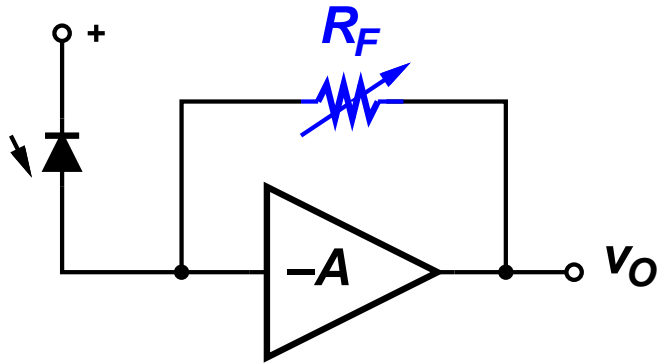
- White noise from feedback resistor and gate current
- $f^2$  noise from FET channel
- Some of the  $f^2$  noise is passed to the TIA output

# TIA Noise Optimization (3)

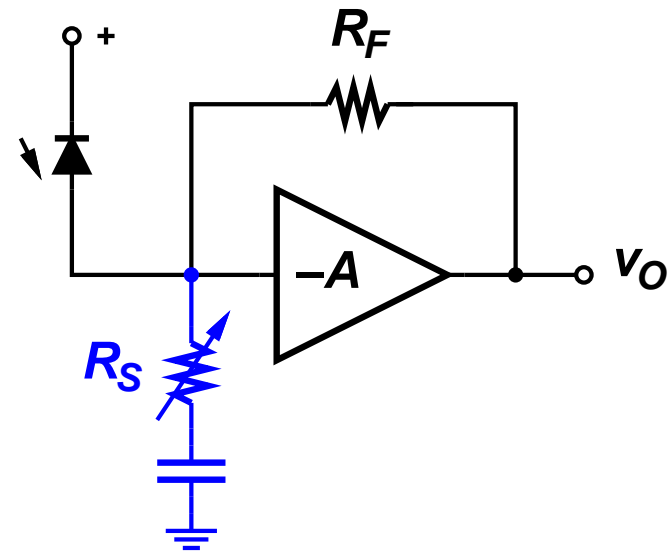
- TIA noise:  $\overline{i_{n,TIA}^2} = \frac{4kT}{R_F} BW_n + \dots$

FET front-end	Bipolar front-end
$2qI_G BW_n + \frac{8kT}{3} \frac{(2\pi C_T)^2}{g_m} \frac{BW_{n2}^3}{3} + \dots$ <p> <math>C_T = C_I + C_D</math>  <math>g_m = \omega_T C_I</math> </p> <p>↓</p> <p><b>smallest for:</b>  <math>C_I = C_D</math></p>	$\frac{2qI_C}{\beta} BW_n + 2qI_C \frac{(2\pi C_T)^2}{g_m^2} \frac{BW_{n2}^3}{3} + \dots$ <p>             ↓                      ↓              up with <math>I_C</math>          down with <math>I_C</math> </p> <p>↘                      ↙</p> <p><b>find optimum <math>I_C</math></b></p>

# Adaptive Transimpedance

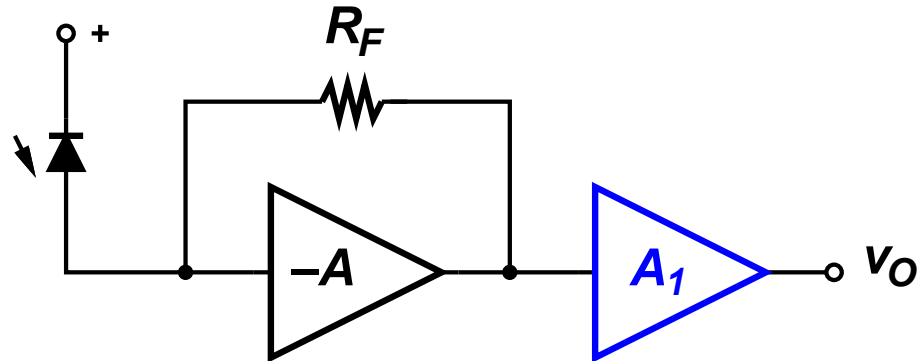


- **Variable feedback:**
  - ➔ Increase dynamic range
  - ➔ Watch stability & peaking!



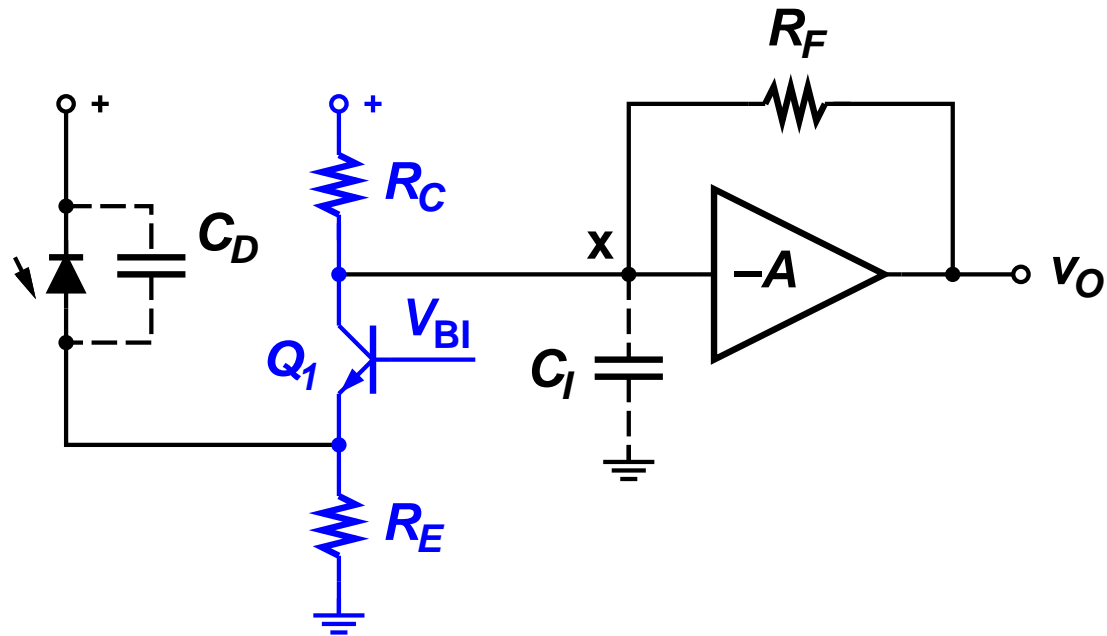
- **Variable input shunt:**
  - ➔ Increase dynamic range

# Post Amplifier



- **Post amplifier:**
  - ➔ **Boost transimpedance value**
  - ➔ **But make  $R_F$  as large as possible to keep noise low**

# Common-Base/Gate Input Stage

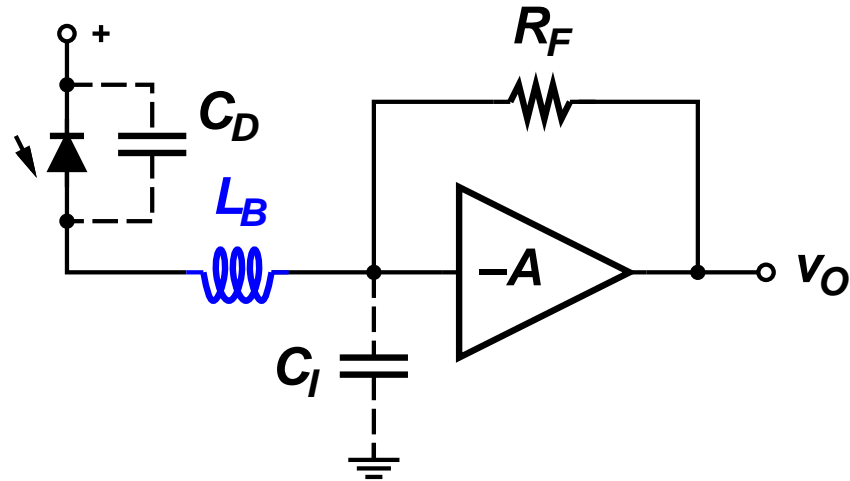


- Common-base (common-gate) input stage:
  - Photodiode capacitance has less impact on bandwidth
  - Less capacitance at node  $x$ 
    - Higher transimpedance (increase  $R_F$ )
    - Lower noise
  - But new noise sources:  $Q_1$ ,  $R_C$ ,  $R_E$
  - Higher power dissipation

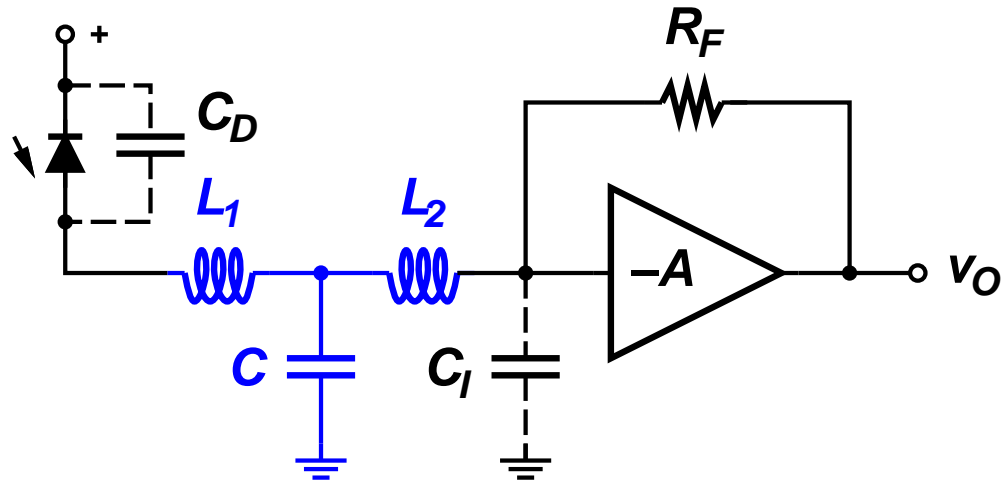
# Inductive Input Coupling

- **Series inductor:**

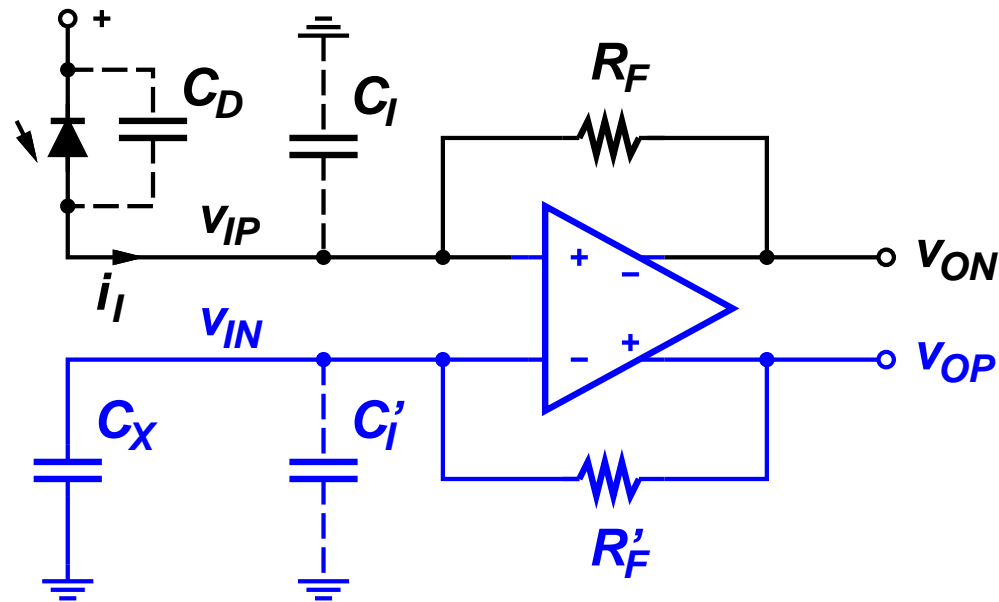
- ➔ Improve bandwidth and noise
- ➔ Use bond wire



- **L-C low-pass network:**

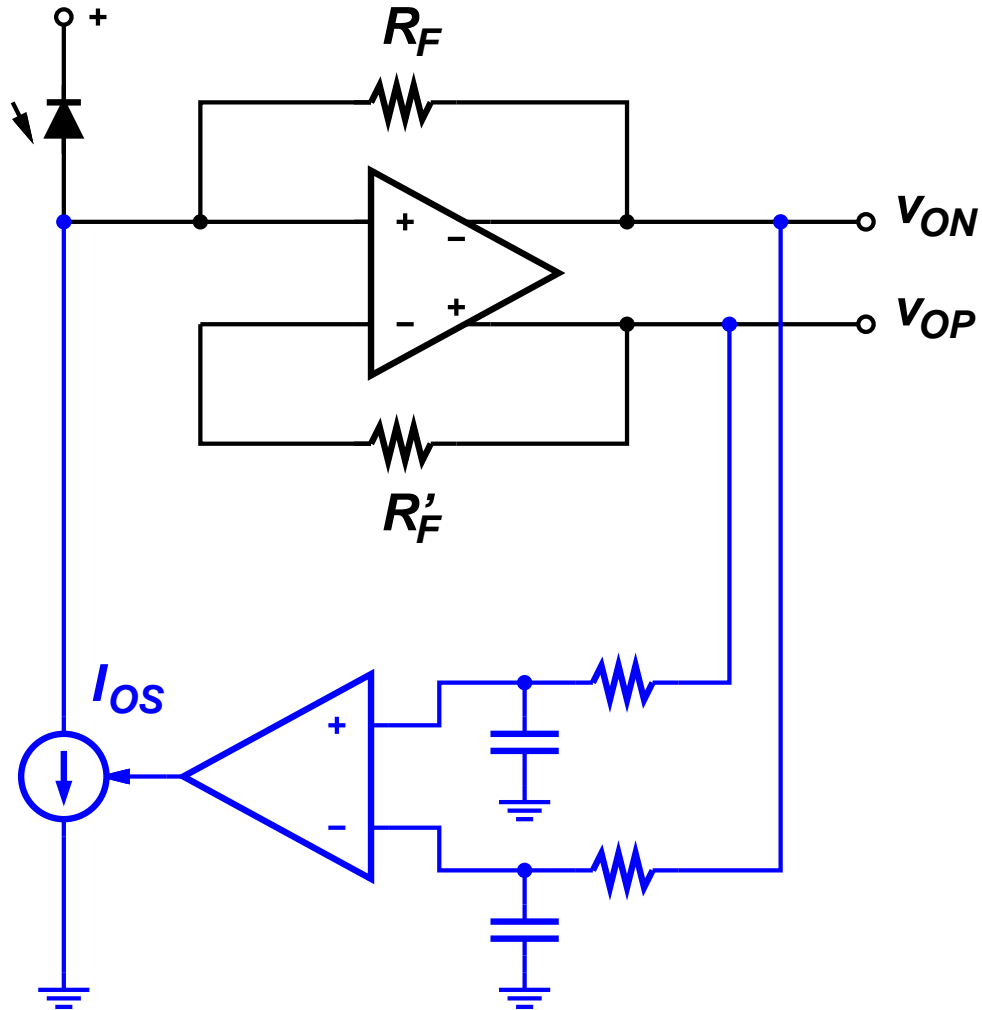


# Differential TIA



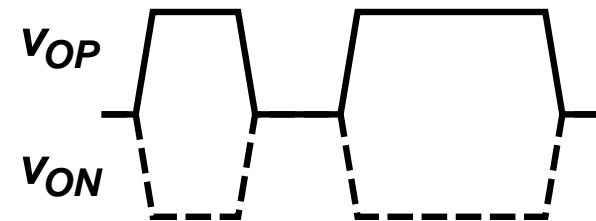
- $C_X = C_D$ :
  - Differential transimpedance =  $R_F$
  - Fully balanced circuit
- Large  $C_X$ :
  - Differential transimpedance =  $2 R_F$
  - Eliminate noise from  $R'_F$

# Offset Control



- Improve output dynamic range:

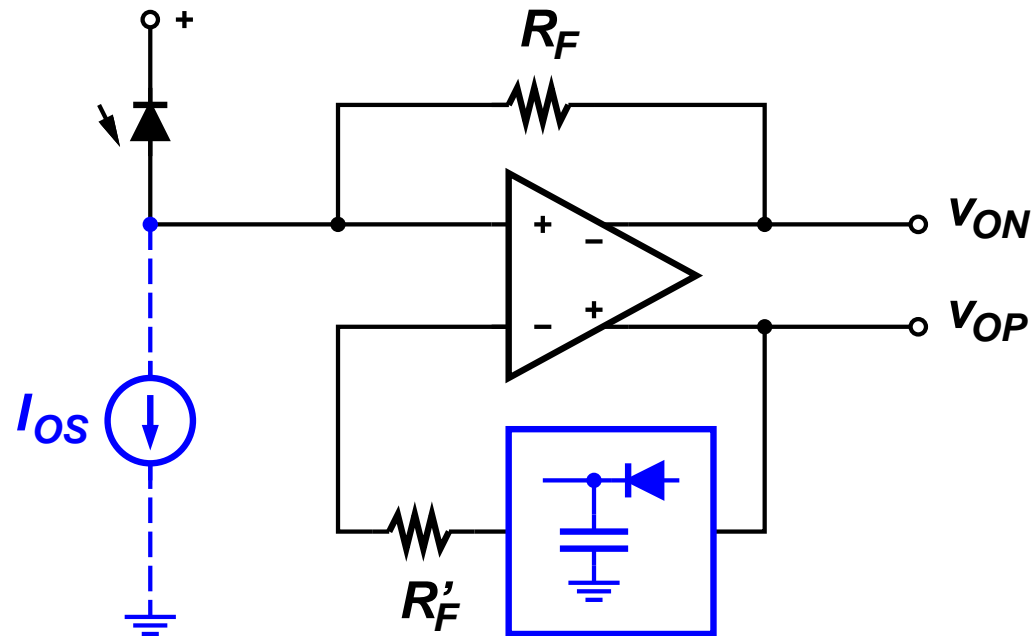
Without offset control:



With offset control:



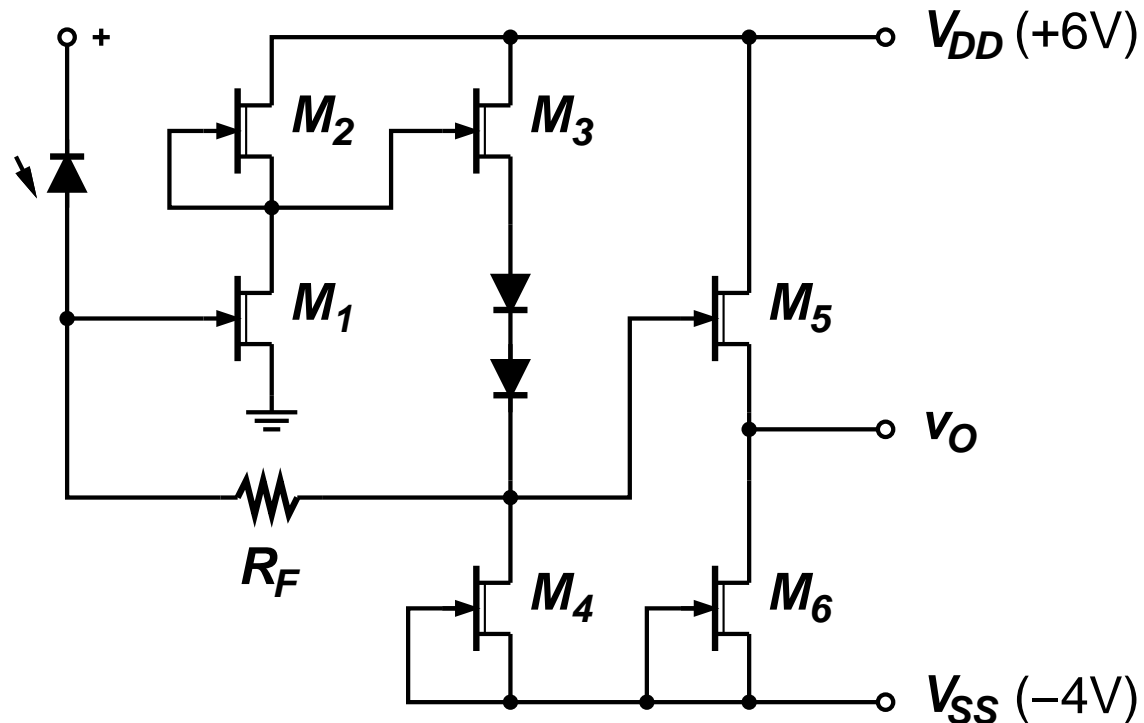
# Burst-Mode TIA



- Burst amplitude varies up to 30 dB in PON systems
  - ➔ Set decision threshold (offset) for each burst;  
reset peak-detector after burst
- Suppress "chatter" with small intentional offset

# MESFET, HFET Implementation

- Single-ended TIA:

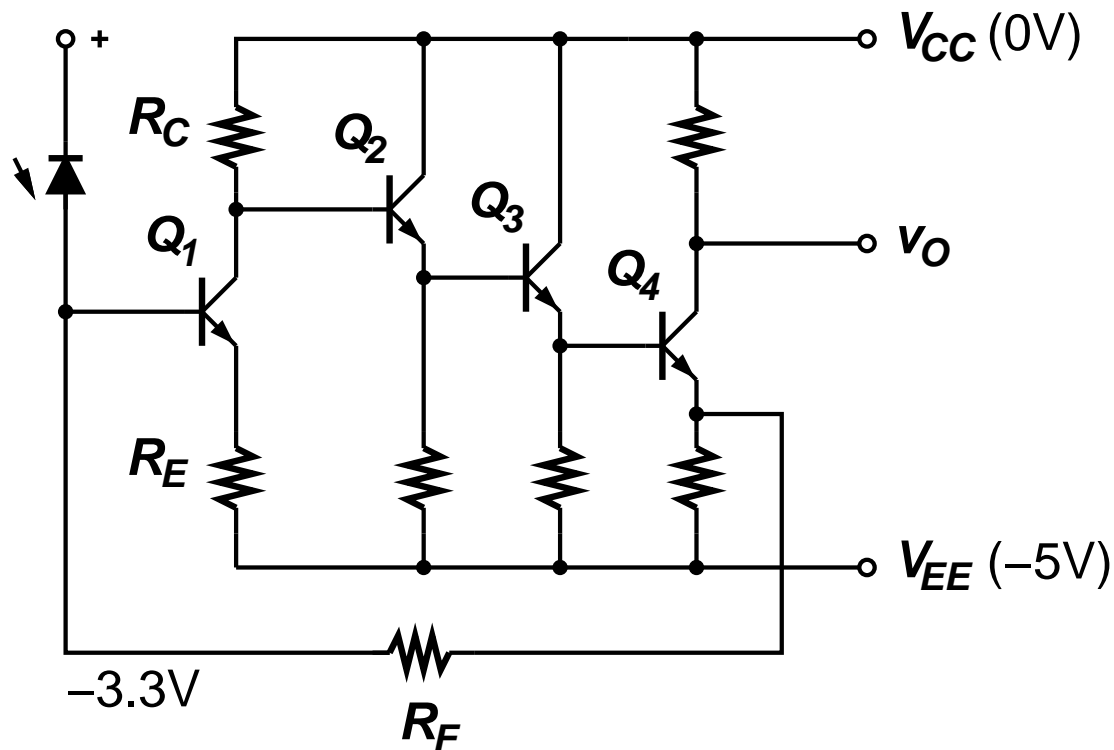


- Depletion-mode FETs (e.g. GaAs)

[O. Wada et al. 1985]

# BJT, HBT Implementation

- Single-ended TIA (core):



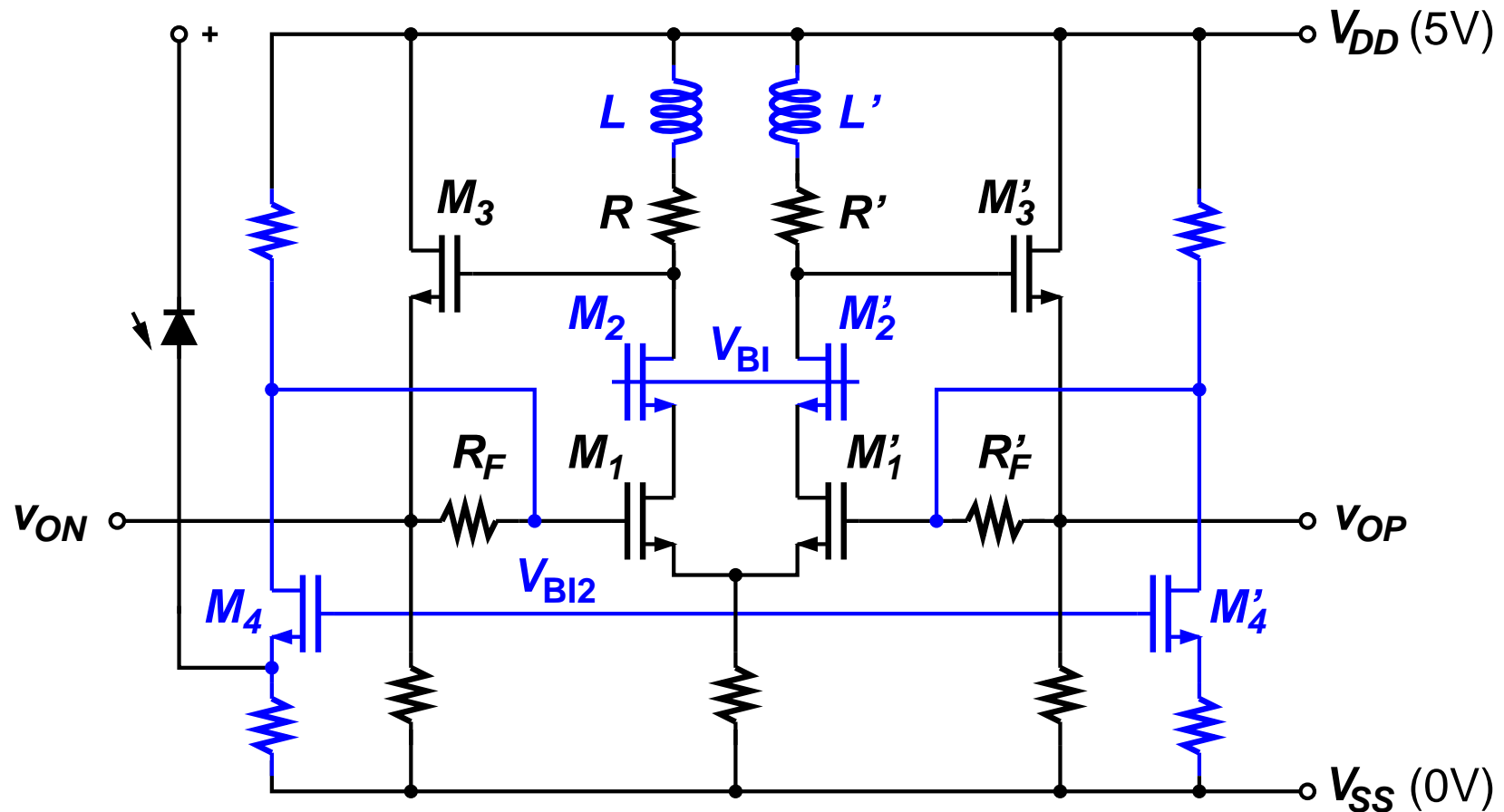
[H. Khorramabadi et al. 1995]





# CMOS Implementation (2)

- Differential TIA (core):

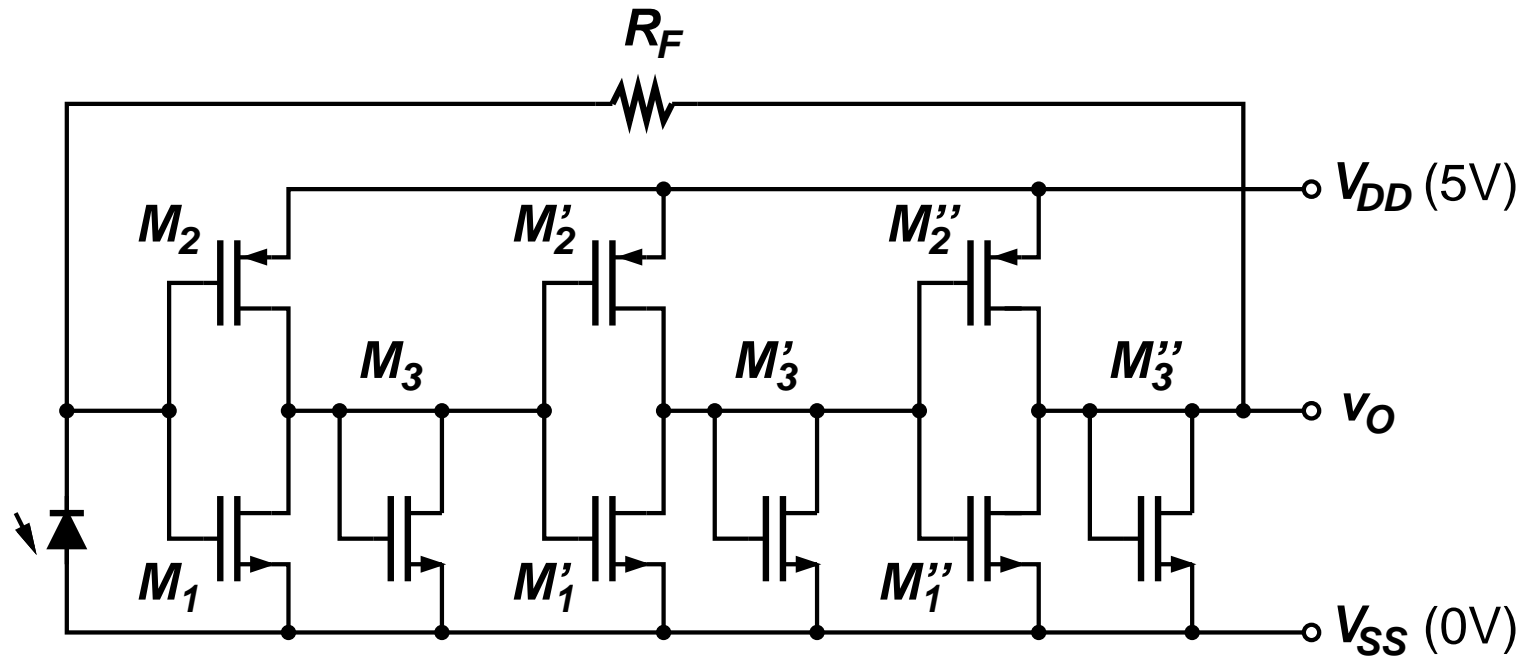


- Common-gate input stage
- Inductive loads (shunt peaking)
- Cascode transistors

[S. Mohan et al. 2000]

# CMOS Implementation (3)

- Single-ended TIA:



- Multistage feedback amplifier
- Gain determined by transistor geometry

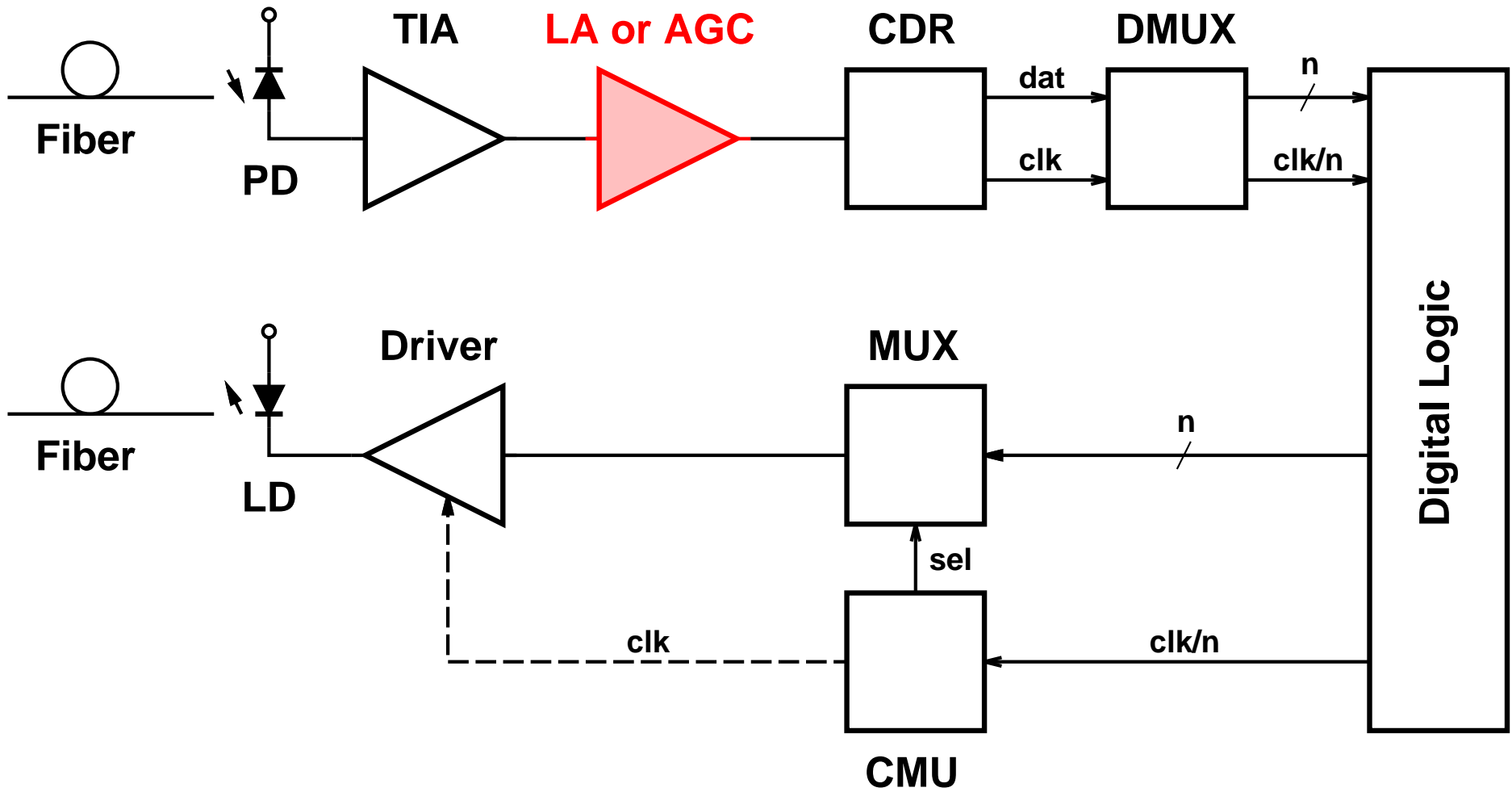
[M. Ingels et al. 1994]

# Research Directions

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- **Higher speed: 40 Gb/s and beyond**
  - Use heterostructure devices (HBTs and HFETs) based on compound semiconductors (SiGe, GaAs, InP)
- **Higher integration: OEIC**
  - Integrate TIA & InP photodetector for 1.3 ... 1.6- $\mu$ m receivers (monolithic or flip-chip)
  - Integrate TIA & photodetector in silicon for 0.8- $\mu$ m receivers
- **Lower cost:**
  - Use mainstream technology (CMOS, BiCMOS)
  - TIA as part of a CMOS "system on a chip"
- **Lower noise:**
  - Eliminate noise of resistor in shunt-feedback TIA (e.g., capacitive or optical feedback)

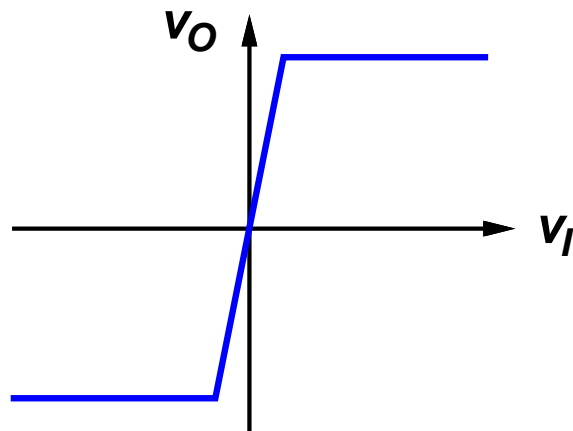
# Main Amplifiers (MA)



# Limiting vs. AGC Amplifiers

## Limiting amplifier

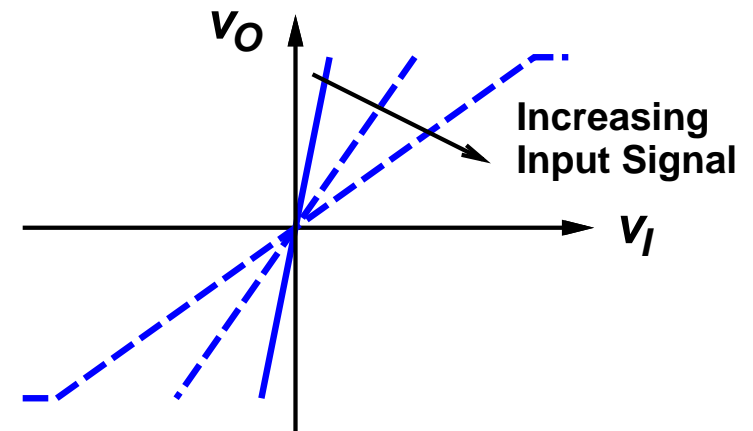
- **Nonlinear:**



- Drive decision circuit directly
- Easier to design
- Generally, lower power, lower noise, etc.

## Automatic gain control amplifier

- **Linear:**

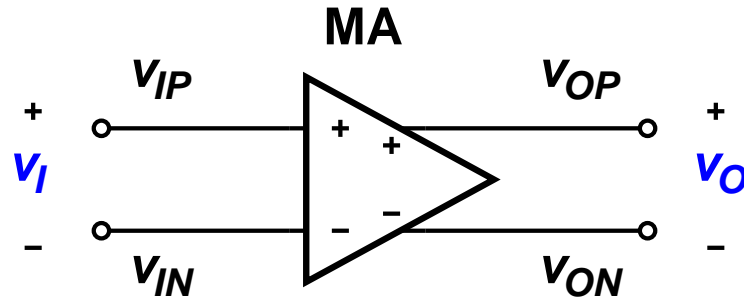


- Signal processing on output signal possible:
  - Equalization
  - Slice-level steering
  - Soft-decision decoding

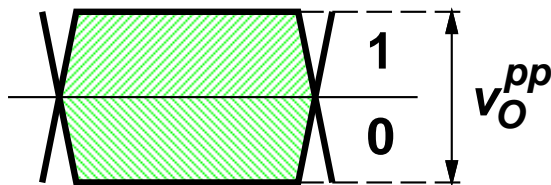
# Voltage Gain

- Gain definition:

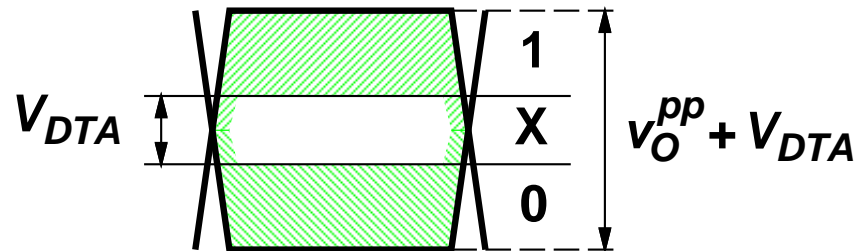
$$A = \frac{\Delta v_O}{\Delta v_I}$$



- Needed gain is given by minimum signal from TIA and minimum signal required by the decision circuit (DEC)
- Output signal:



Ideal DEC



Real DEC

- Typical value: 30 ... 40 dB

# Bandwidth & Group-Delay Variation

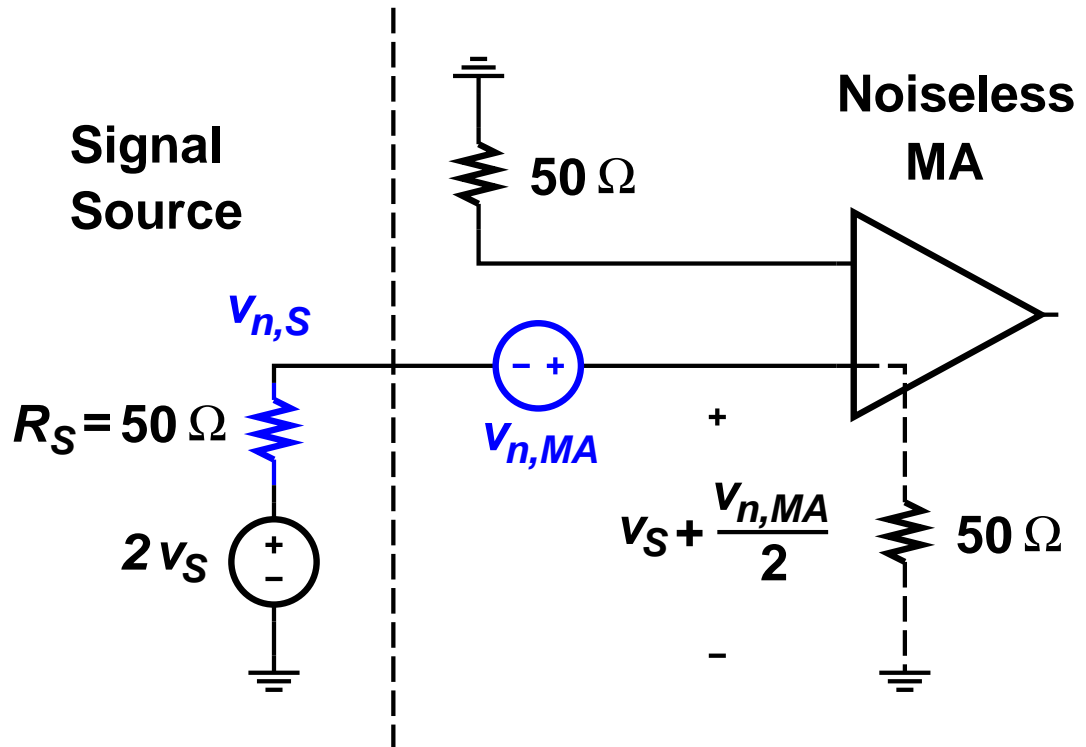
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- Make MA bandwidth larger than receiver bandwidth  
→ Keep ISI contributed by MA small
- Typical values:
  - 2.5 Gb/s:  $BW = 2.5 \dots 3 \text{ GHz}$
  - 10 Gb/s:  $BW = 10 \dots 12 \text{ GHz}$
- Group-delay variation (phase linearity) also causes distortions (ISI and jitter)  
→ Limit group-delay variations over bandwidth to less than 0.1 UI
- Typical values:
  - 2.5 Gb/s:  $|\Delta\tau| < 40 \text{ ps}$
  - 10 Gb/s:  $|\Delta\tau| < 10 \text{ ps}$

# Noise Figure

- Noise figure definition (single ended):

$$F = \frac{\overline{v_{n,MA}^2}}{\overline{v_{n,S}^2}}$$



- MA adds noise to the total receiver noise and thus reduces the receiver sensitivity  
→ Choose  $F$  such that power penalty  $< 0.05$  dB
- Typical values:    2.5 Gb/s:  $F < 17$  dB  
                             10 Gb/s:  $F < 13$  dB

# Input Dynamic Range & Sensitivity

- **Sensitivity:**

- Minimum peak-to-peak input voltage signal necessary to achieve a specified bit-error rate:

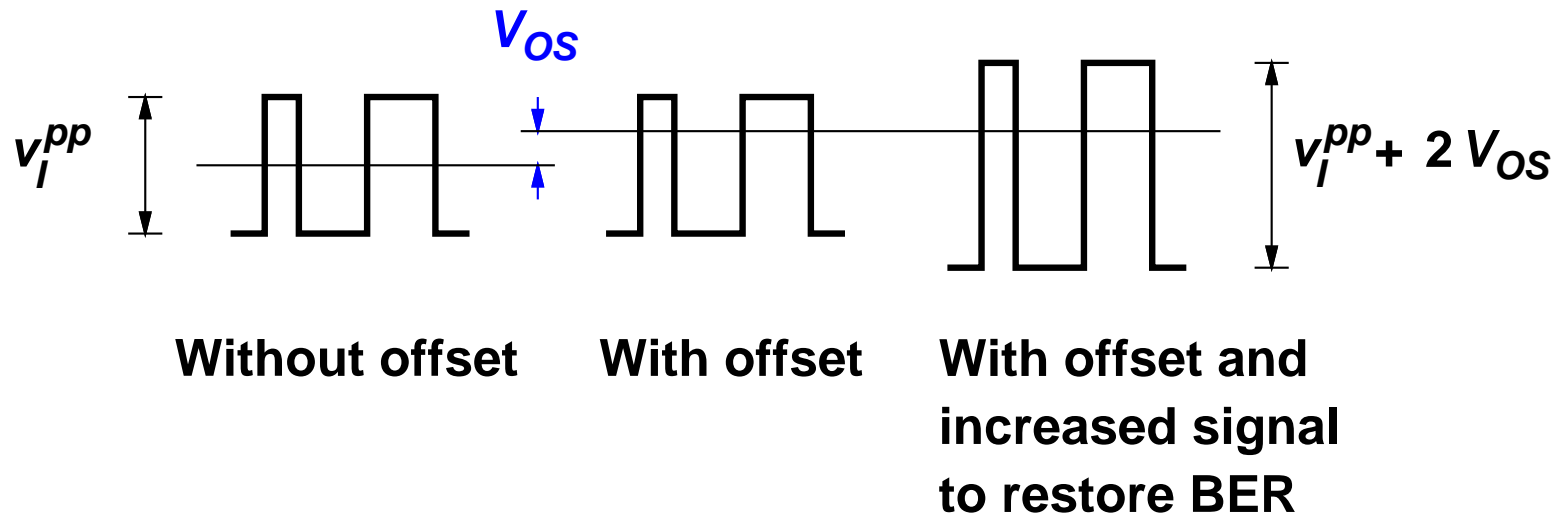
$$V_{\text{sens}}^{pp} = Q V_{n,MA}^{rms}$$

- Typical value: 2 mV<sub>pp</sub>

- **Input dynamic range:**

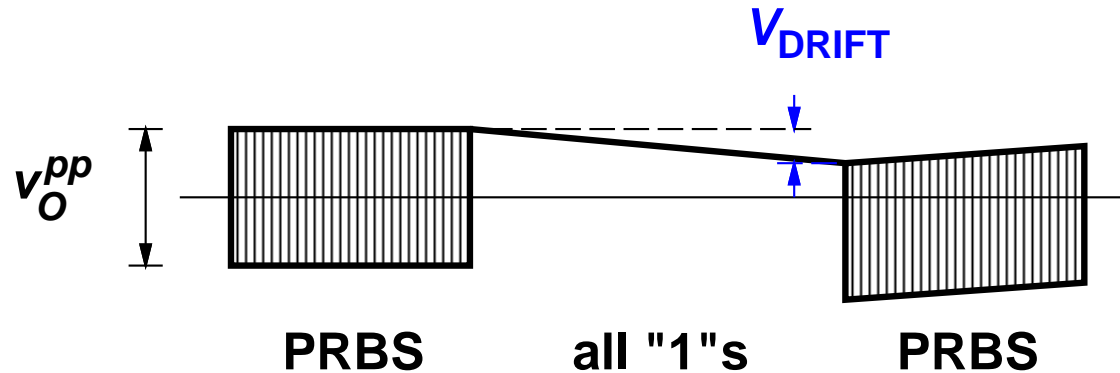
- Low end = sensitivity
- High end @ AGC amplifier = maximum signal before nonlinear distortions become harmful (e.g., 1-dB gain compr.)  
@ LA = maximum signal before pulse-width distortion and jitter degrade BER
- Typical value: 2 mV<sub>pp</sub> ... 2 V<sub>pp</sub>

# Input Offset Voltage



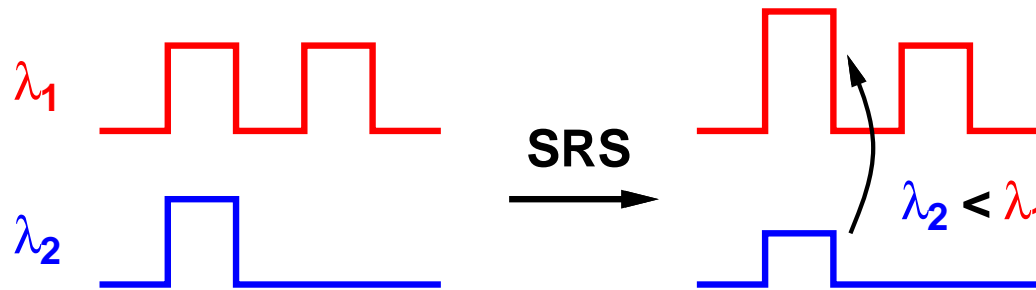
- In the presence of an offset voltage, nonoptimal slicing requires a larger input signal to meet a given BER  
Thus, the receiver sensitivity is reduced  
→ Limit offset voltage such that power penalty  $< 0.05\text{dB}$
- Typical value:  $V_{os} < 0.1\text{ mV}$

# Low-Frequency Cutoff



- For long strings of zeros or ones, the output signal drifts (if  $f_{LF} > 0$  Hz) resulting in nonoptimal slicing (like offset)
  - Choose  $f_{LF}$  such that power penalty  $< 0.05$  dB for 72 consecutive ones or zeros (SONET)
- Typical values (CID = 72, PP  $< 0.05$  dB):
  - 2.5 Gb/s:  $f_{LF} < 60$  kHz
  - 10 Gb/s:  $f_{LF} < 260$  kHz(in practice, often lower)

# AM-to-PM Conversion

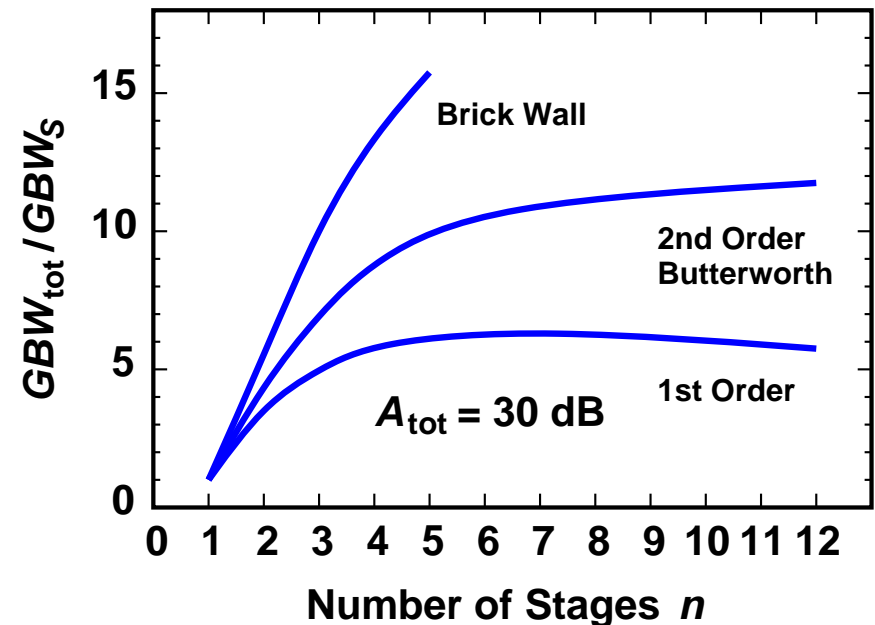
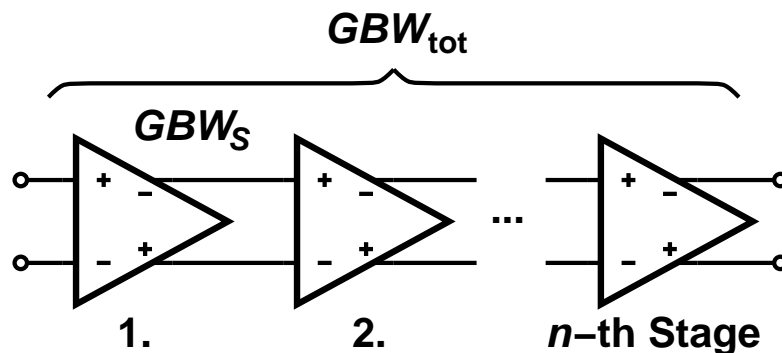


- The received signal may contain amplitude variations, e.g., due to stimulated Raman scattering (SRS) in a WDM system
- The main amplifier (in particular an LA) may convert these variations (AM) into jitter (PM)
  - ➔ Limit delay variation over dynamic range to less than 0.1 UI
- Typical values:
  - 2.5 Gb/s:  $|\Delta\tau| < 40$  ps
  - 10 Gb/s:  $|\Delta\tau| < 10$  ps

# Multistage Amplifier

- The gain–bandwidth product ( $GBW$ ) required for the MA is often much higher than the  $f_T$  of the technology!
- Typical values:  
2.5 Gb/s:  $GBW = 100$  GHz  
10 Gb/s:  $GBW = 400$  GHz

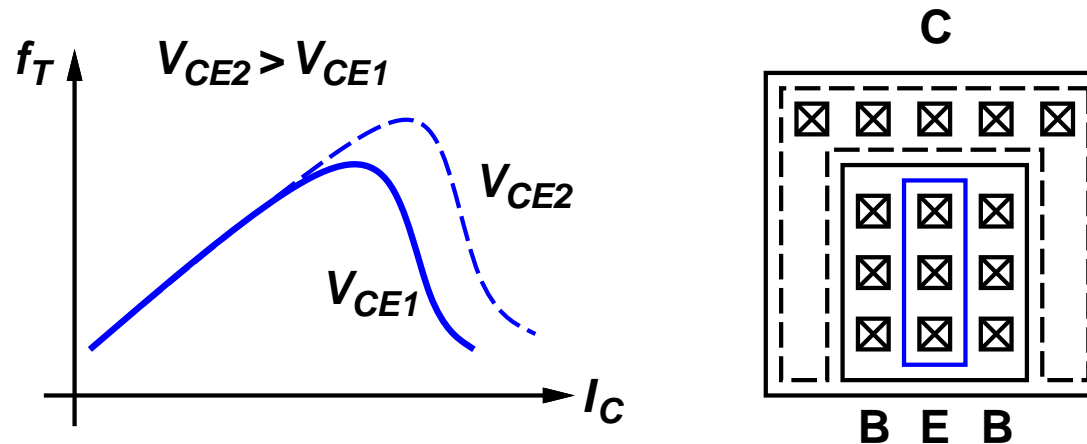
→ Use multistage amplifier:



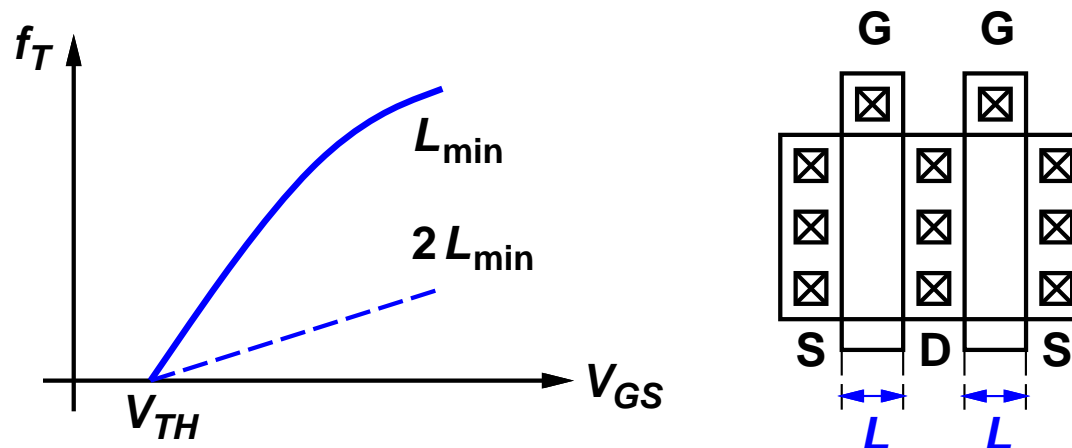
# Broadband Stages (1)

- Use fast transistors ( $f_T$ ,  $f_{\max}$ )

→ BJT: optimize emitter area; use large collector–emitter voltage

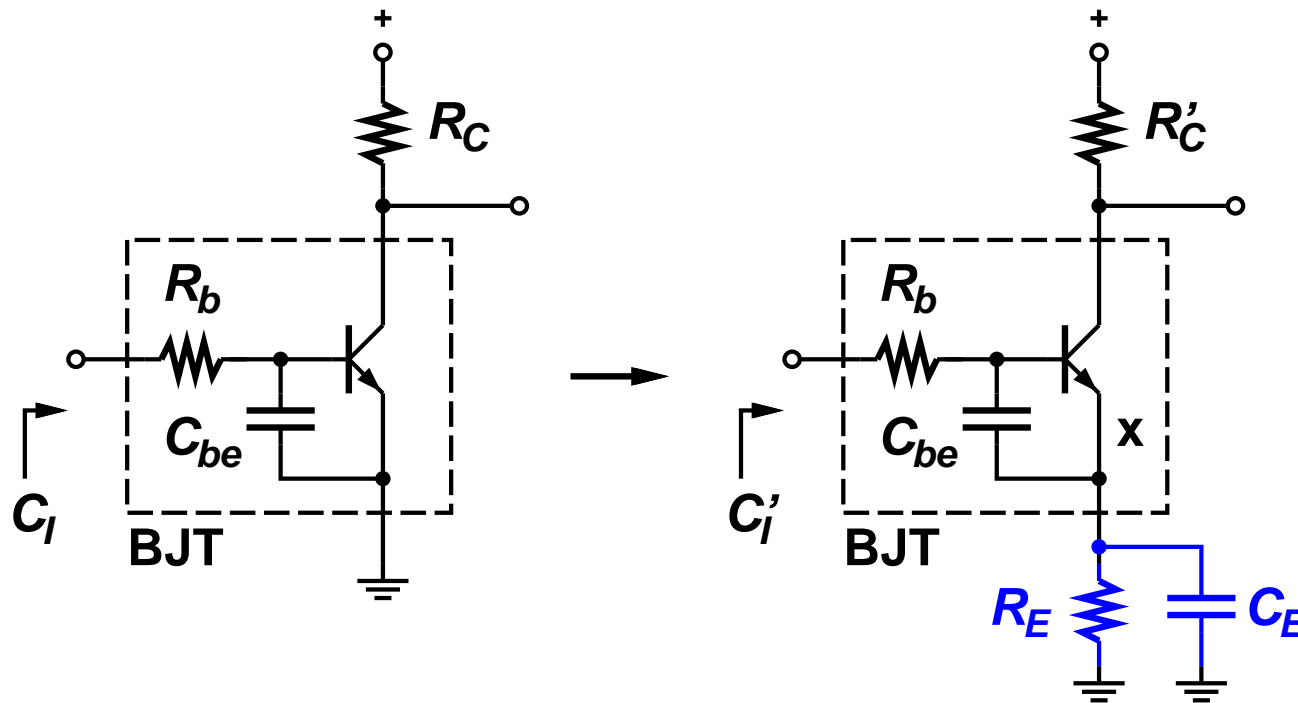


→ MOS: use minimum gate length; use large gate–source voltage



## Broadband Stages (2)

- Use emitter degeneration (series feedback)
  - Speeds up input pole of BJTs

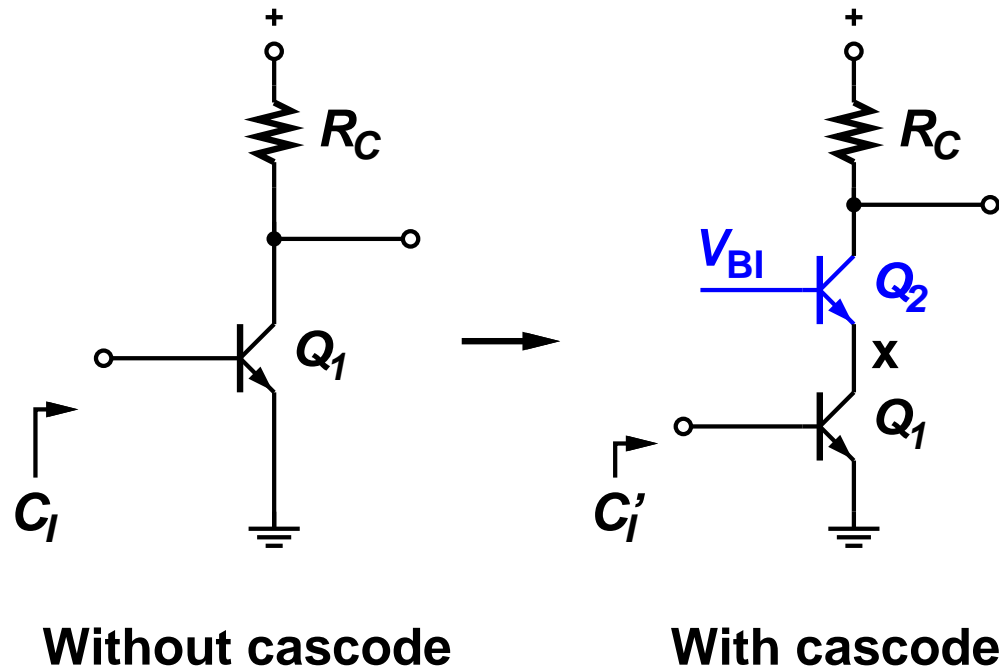


$$R_b C_{be} \rightarrow \frac{R_b C_{be}}{g_m R_E + 1}$$

# Broadband Stages (3)

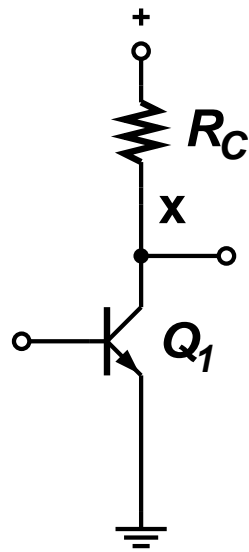
- **Cascode**

- **Suppress Miller capacitance**
- **Improve isolation from output to input**

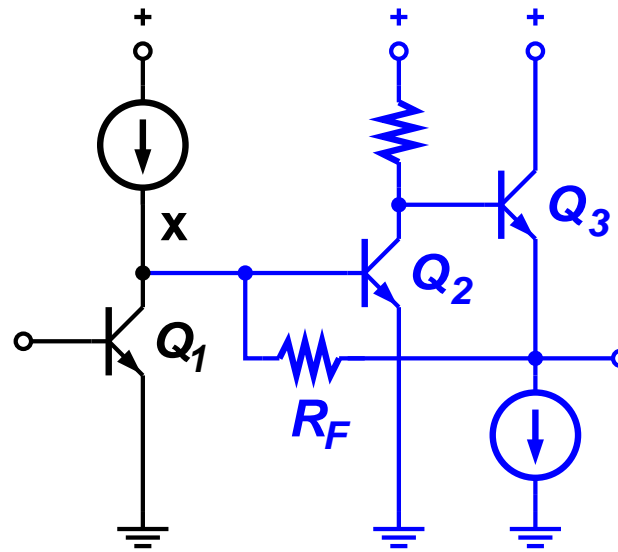


# Broadband Stages (4)

- Transimpedance load (Cherry–Hooper load)
  - Suppress capacitance at node x
  - Suppress Miller capacitance



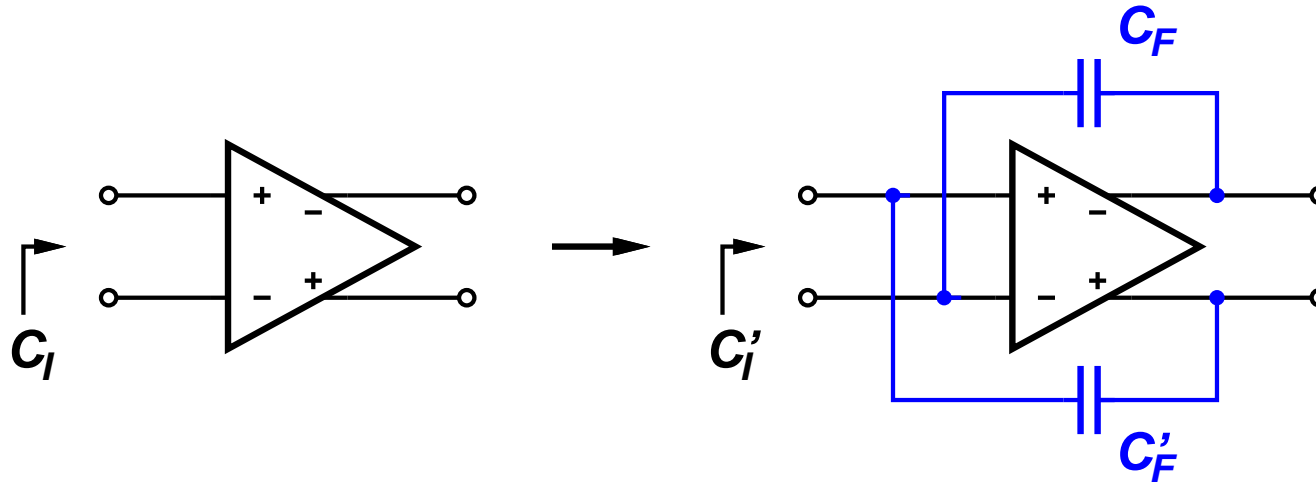
Resistive load



TIA load

# Broadband Stages (5)

- **Negative Miller capacitance**
  - **Cancel Miller capacitance (neutralization)**
  - **Reduce input capacitance**



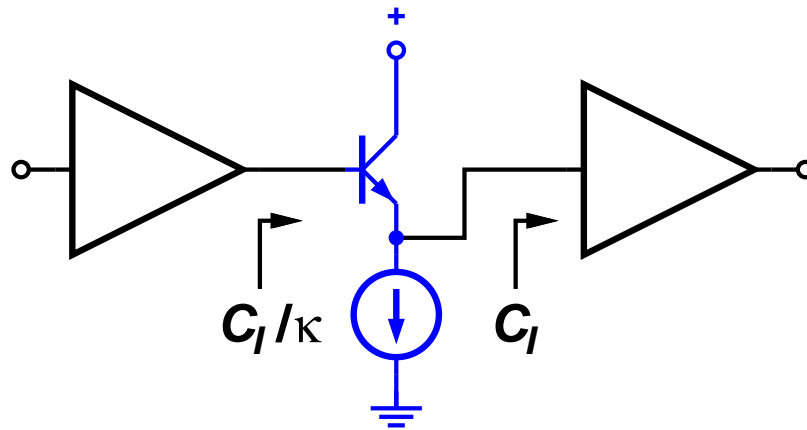
$$C'_I = C_I + (-|A| + 1) C_F$$

- **Alternative: invert regular (positive) capacitance with negative impedance converter (NIC)**

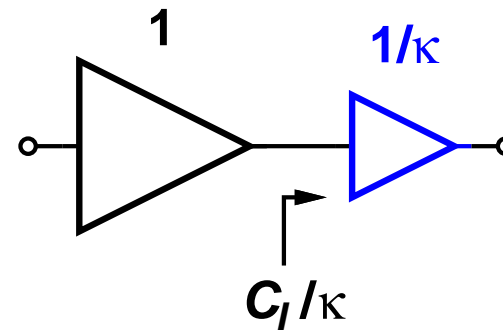
# Broadband Stages (6)

- Buffering or inverse scaling
  - Reduce capacitive loading by next stage
  - Buffer: shift DC level to boost  $V_{CE}$  of next stage

Buffering:



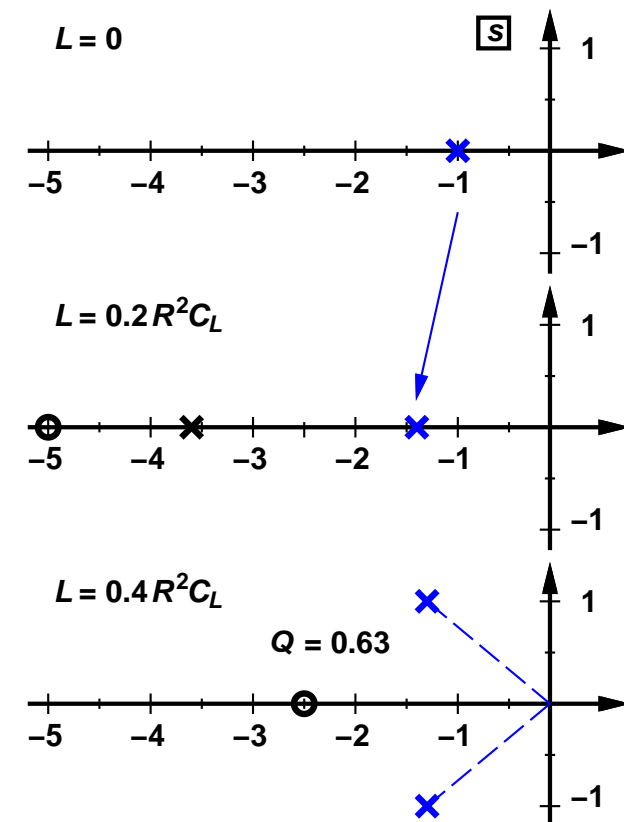
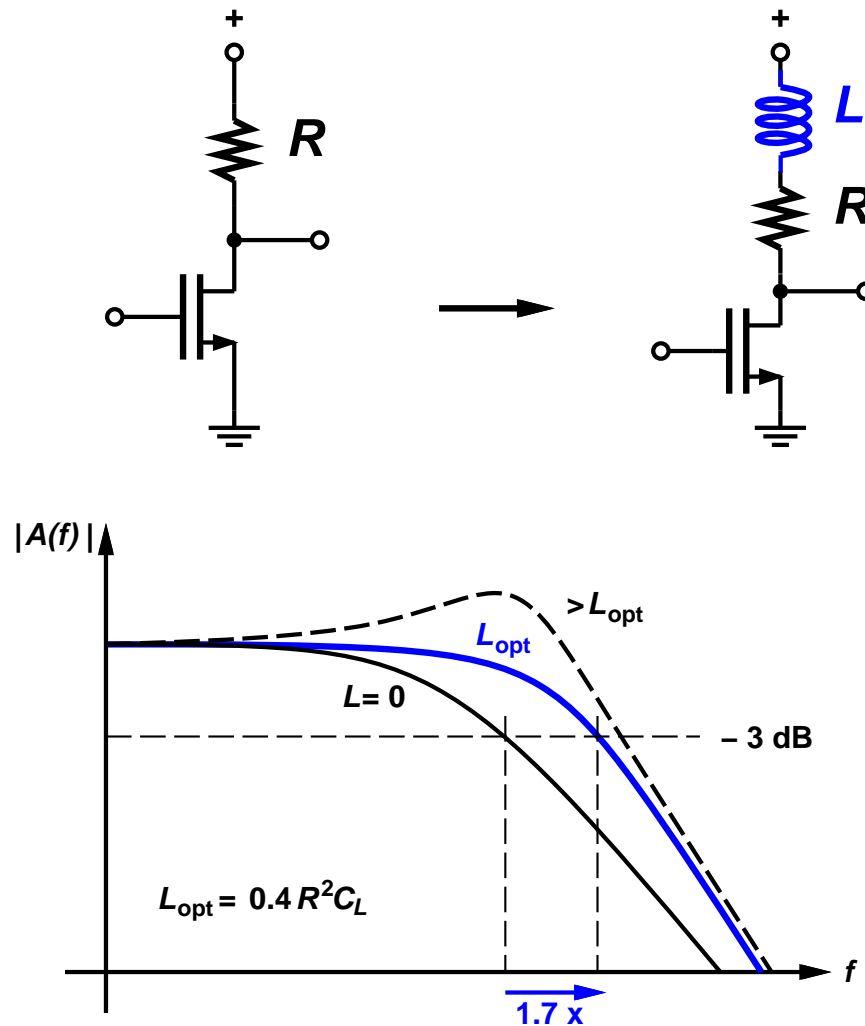
Inverse scaling:



$$C_I' = C_I / \kappa$$

# Broadband Stages (7)

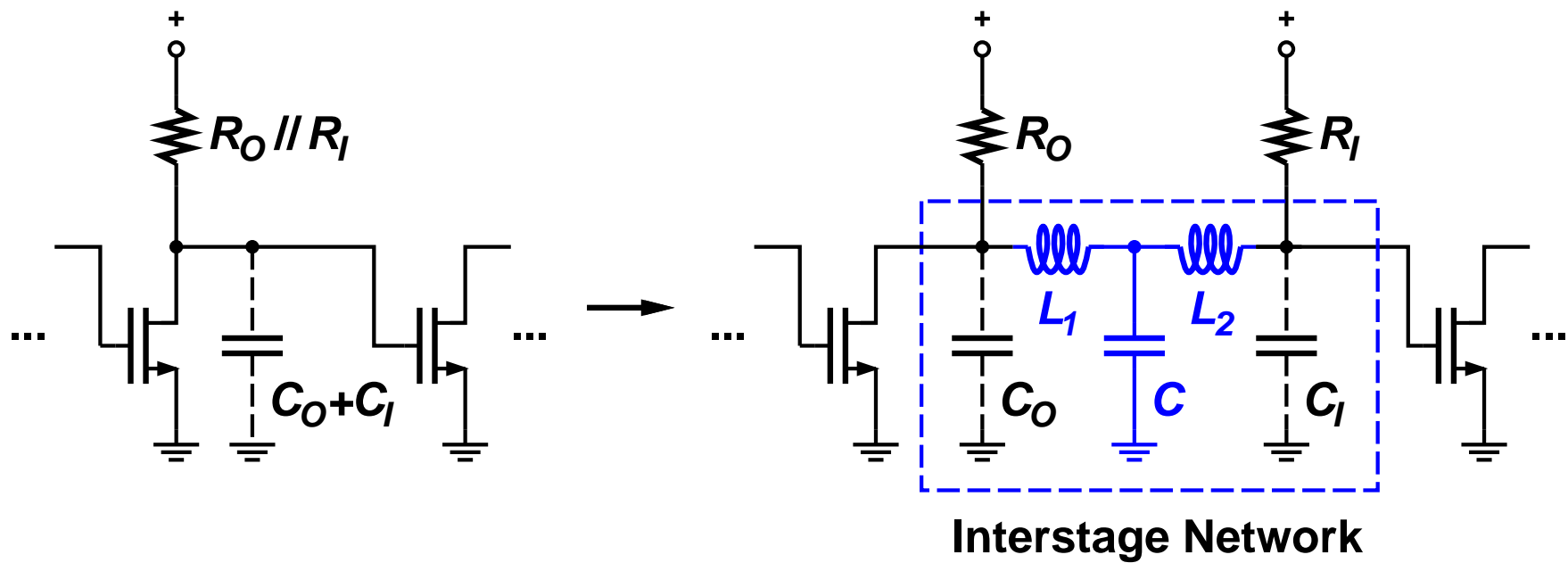
- Shunt peaking (inductive load)
  - Tune out load capacitance with inductor(s)



# Broadband Stages (8)

- Inductive interstage network

➔ Absorb input/output capacitances into coupling network



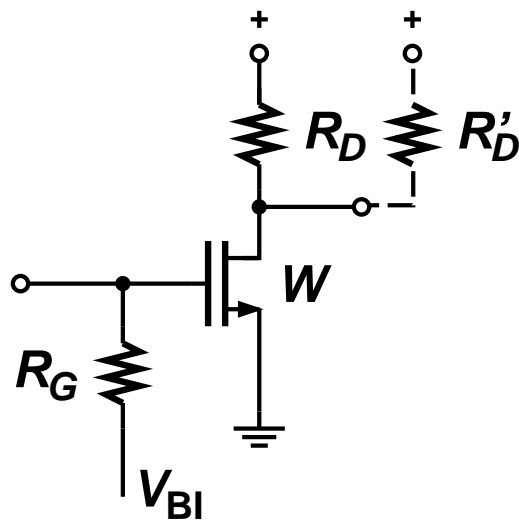
- Examples:

- Series peaking
- T-coil network

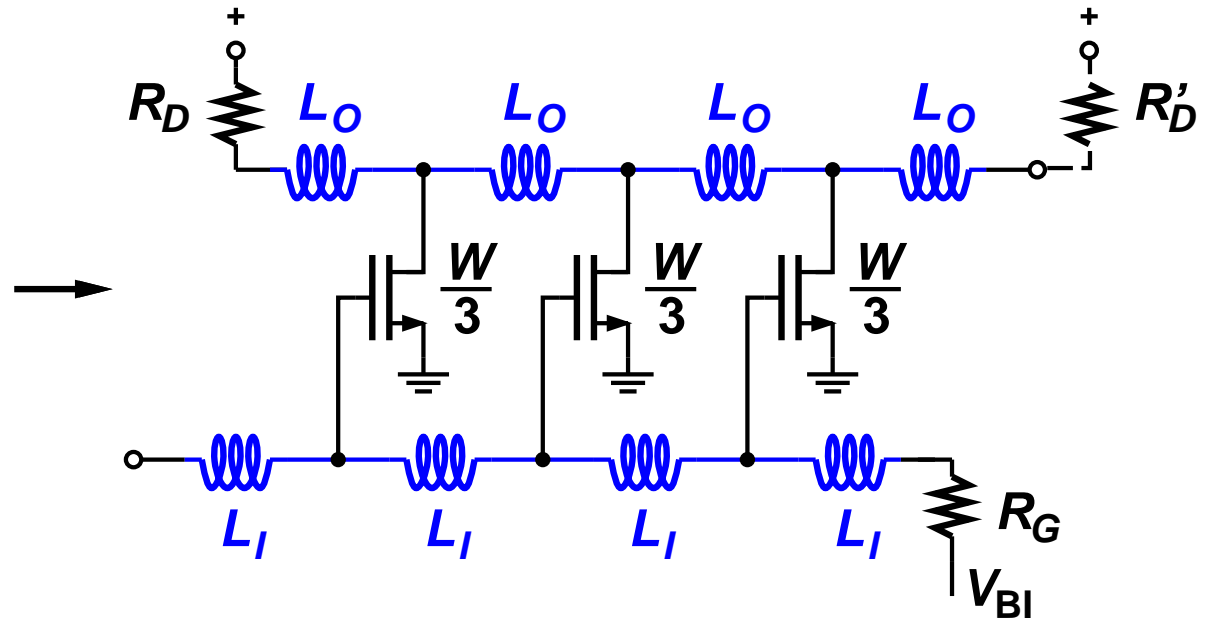
# Broadband Stages (9)

- Distributed amplifier

➔ Absorb input/output capacitances into artificial transmission lines

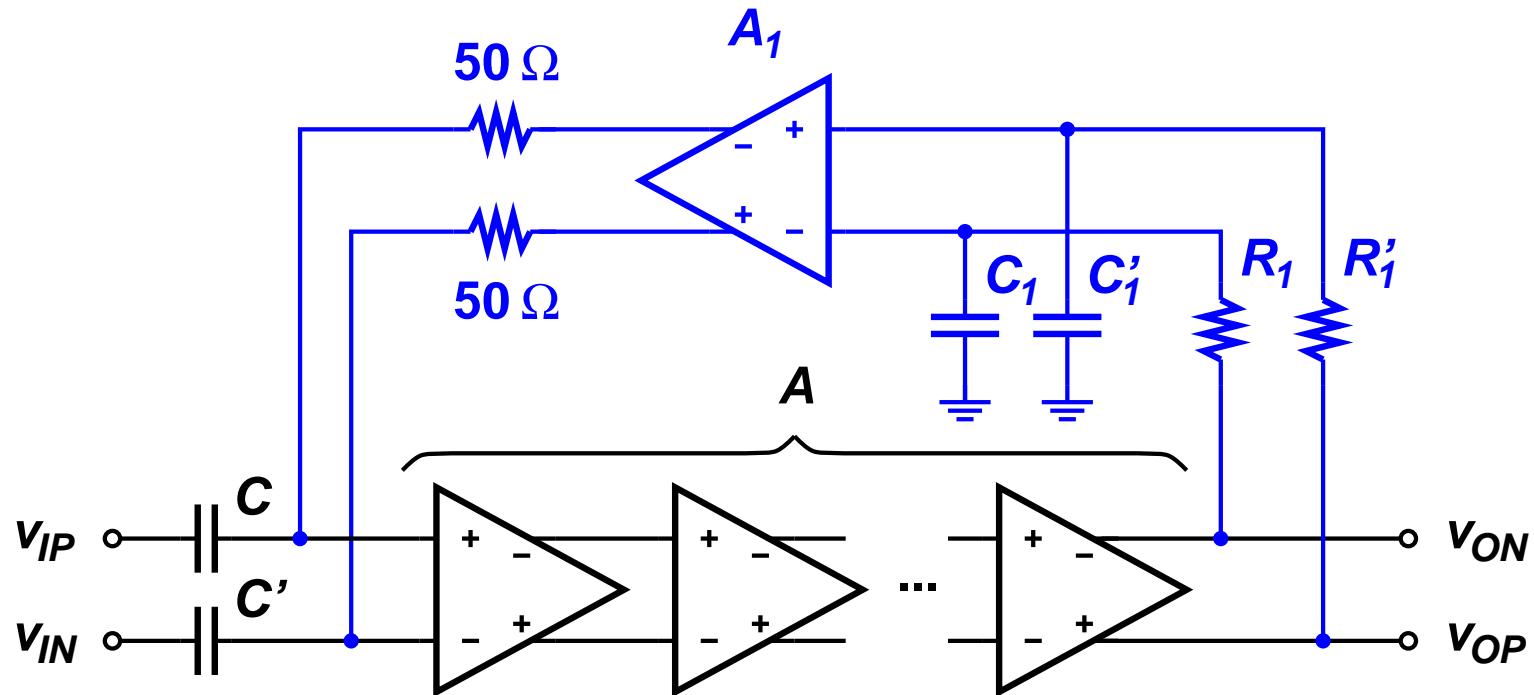


Lumped amplifier



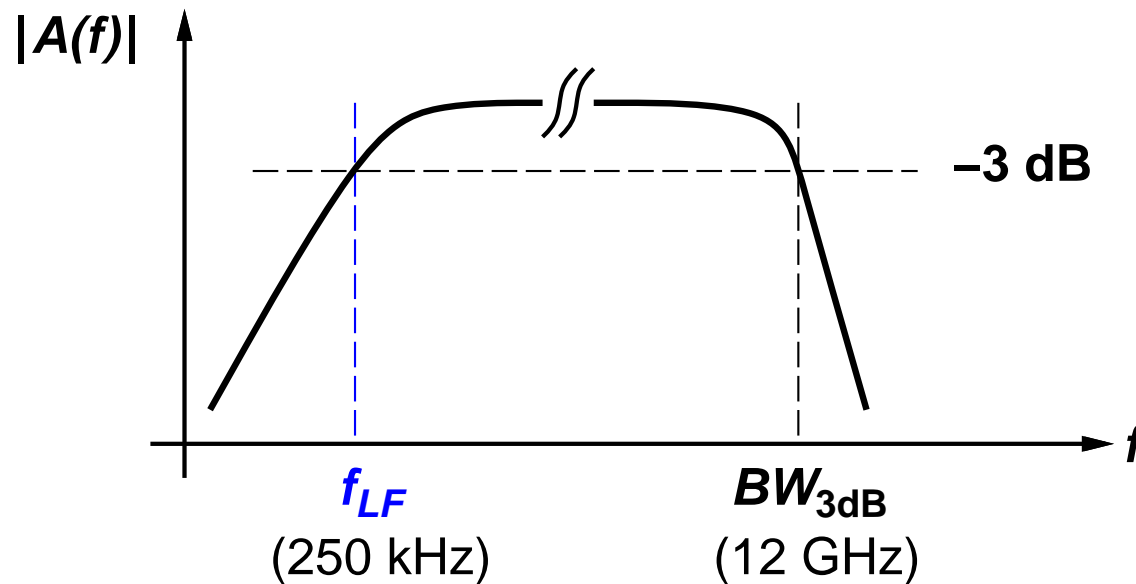
Distributed amplifier

# Offset Compensation (1)



- Reduces offset of main amplifier:  $V_{Os} \rightarrow \frac{V_{Os}}{AA_1 + 1}$
- For BJT amplifiers, usually  $A_1 = 1$  (buffer only)
- For MOS amplifiers, additional loop gain is needed to compensate the larger offset

## Offset Compensation (2)



- Offset compensation also suppresses low frequencies!

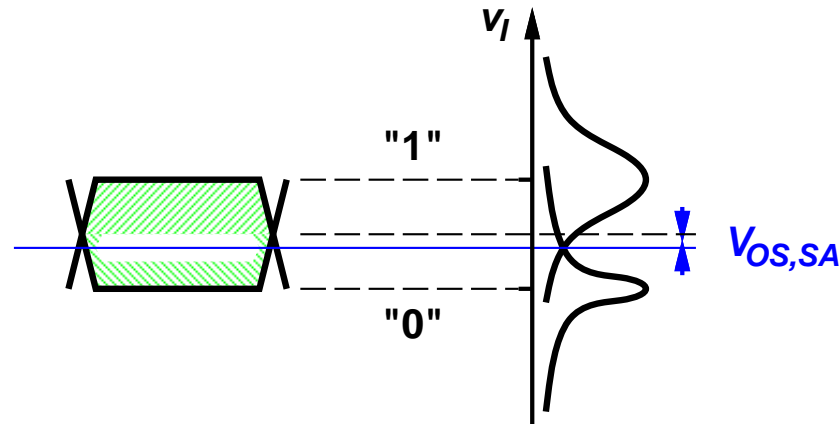
→ Low-frequency cutoff:

$$f_{LF} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{A A_1 / 2 + 1}{R_1 C_1}$$

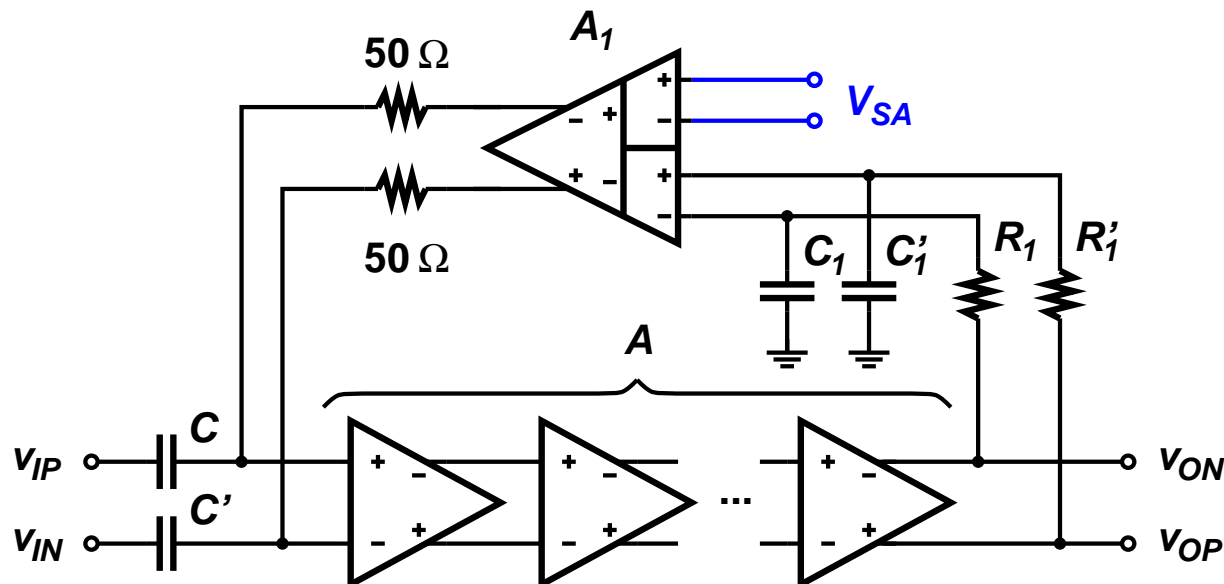
→ Very small loop bandwidth required (e.g., 1 kHz)

# Slice-Level Adjustment

- Receiver with APD or optical preamplifier produces more noise on ones than zeros:

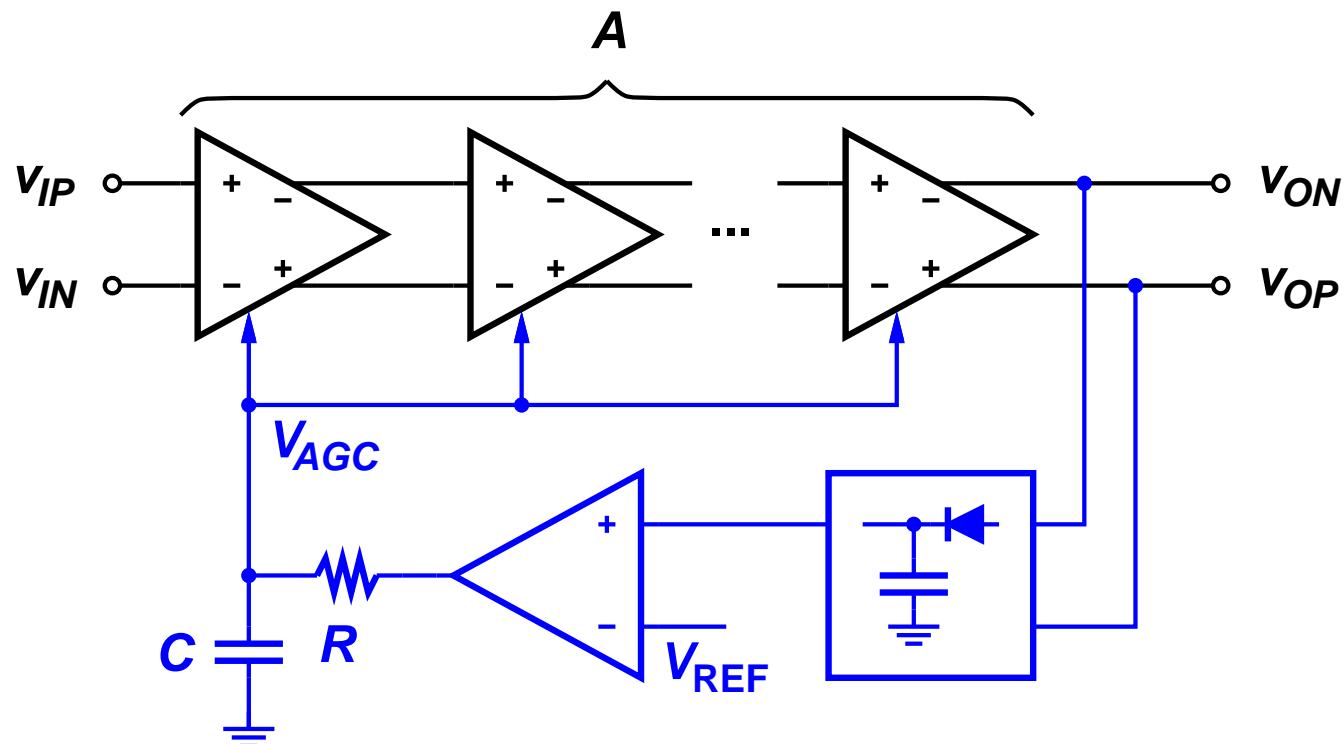


→ Introduce controlled amount of offset in MA to optimize slice level



# Automatic Gain Control (AGC)

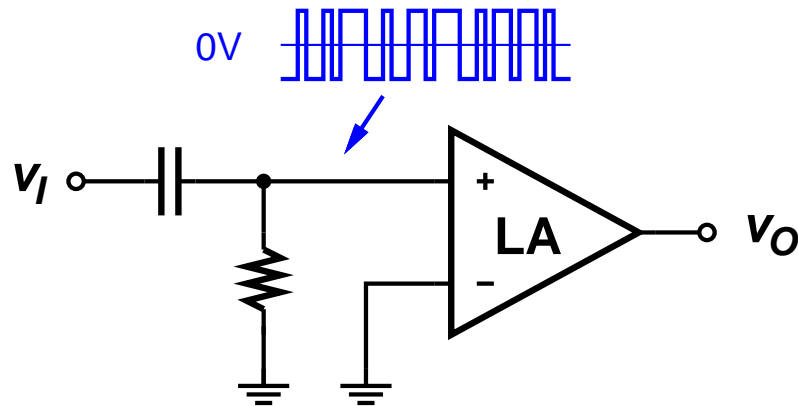
- The AGC amplifier consist of:
  - Variable gain amplifier (VGA)
  - Automatic gain control (AGC) loop:
    - ➔ Amplitude detector
    - ➔ Op amp
    - ➔ Low-pass filter



# Burst-Mode Amplifier (1)

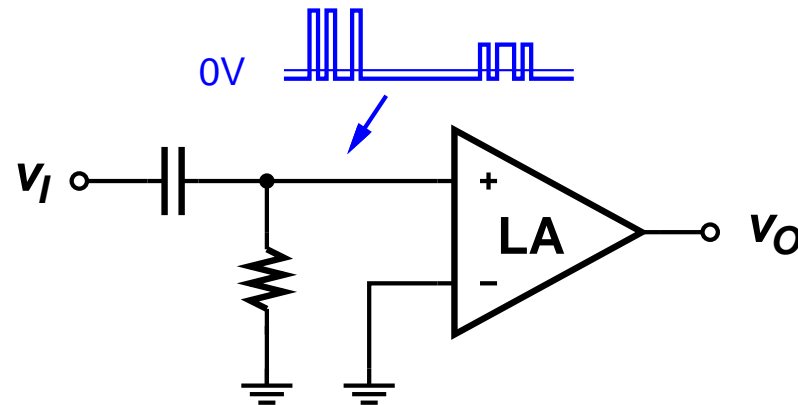
- **Continuous mode:**

- DC balanced
  - Average = 0.5
- e.g., SONET



- **Burst mode:**

- Not DC balanced
  - Average  $\ll 0.5$ , time dependent
- e.g., BPON, EPON

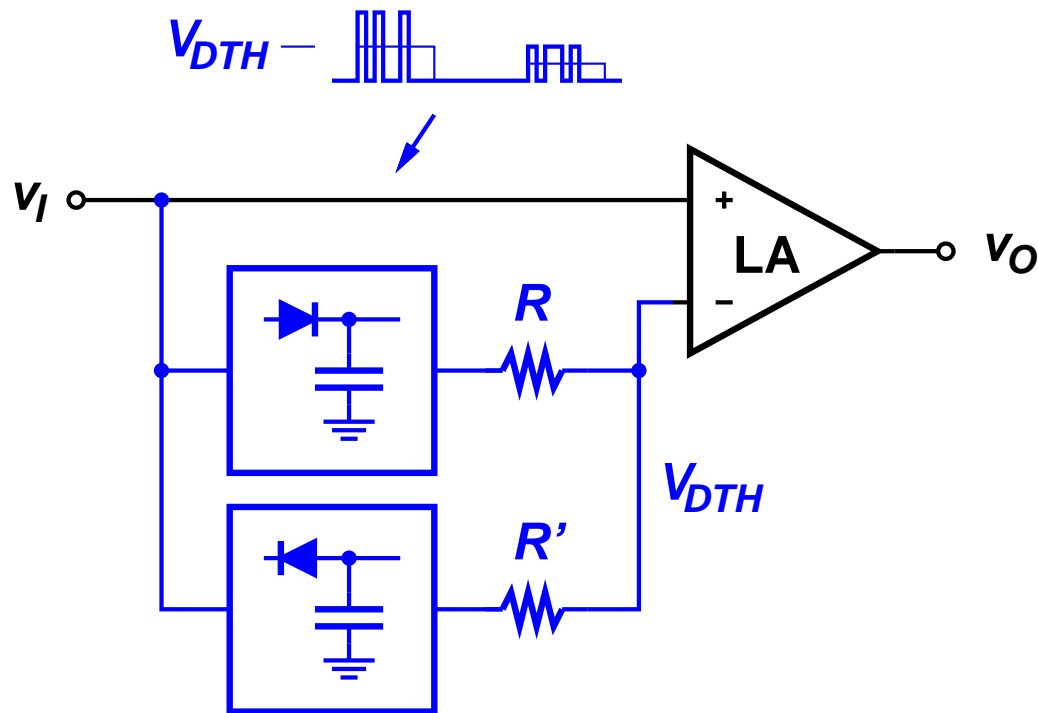


**Bad slicing!**

- Bit errors
- Pulse-width distortions

## Burst-Mode Amplifier (2)

- Burst-mode limiting amplifier:

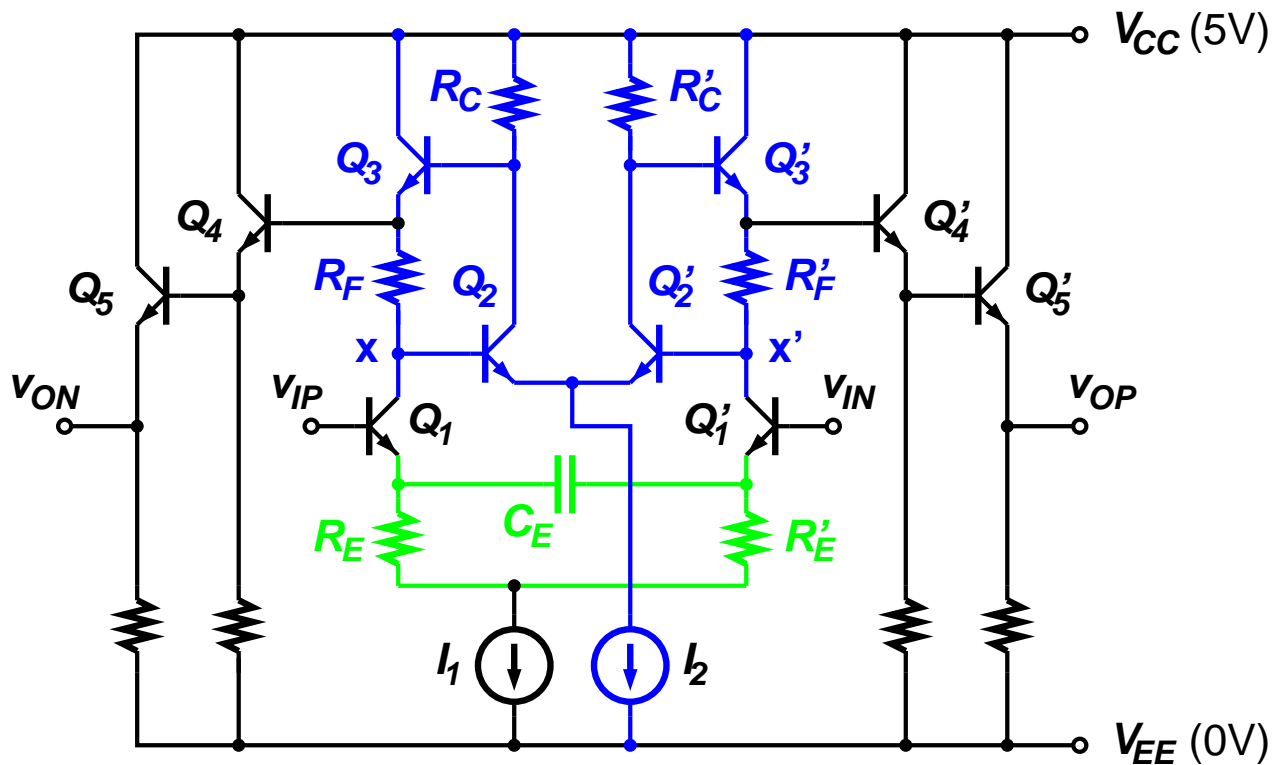


- Determine slice level  $V_{DTH}$  for each burst;  
reset peak detectors after burst



# BJT, HBT Implementation (1)

- "Cherry-Hooper" LA stage:



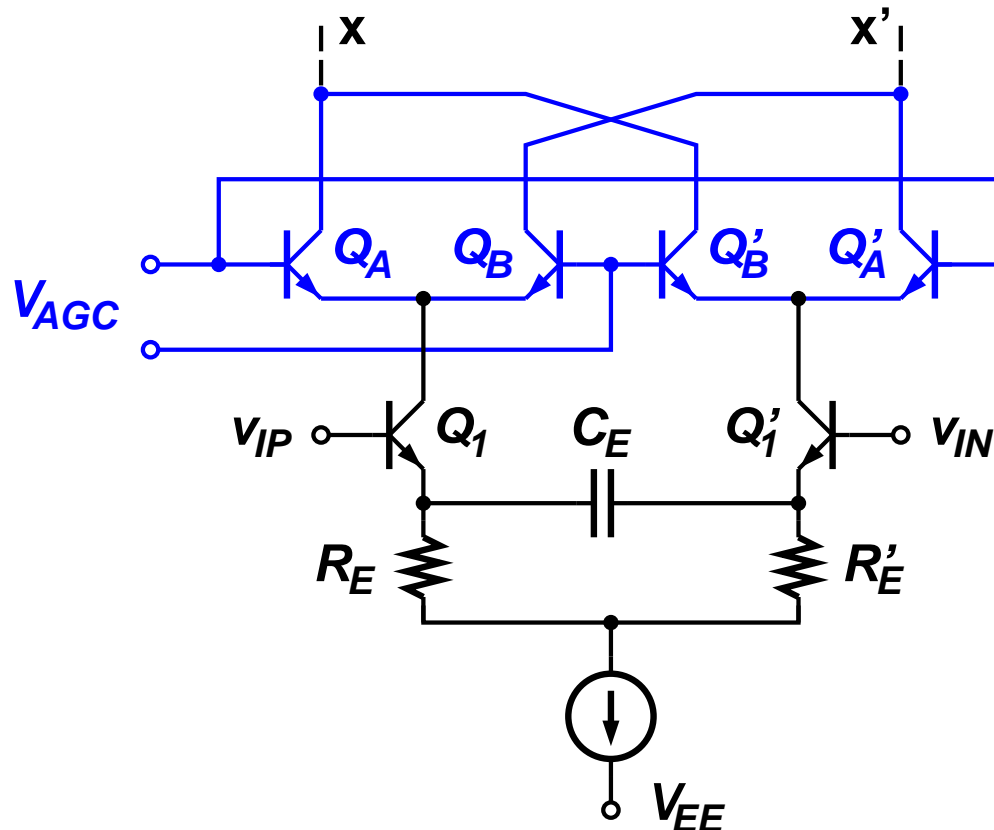
- Gain =  $R_F/R_E$
- **Series feedback:  $R_E$** 
  - Reduce input cap.
  - Speed up input pole
- **Shunt feedback:  $R_F$** 
  - Suppress cap. at x, x'
  - Suppress Miller effect
- Emitter followers
  - Buffer outputs
  - Increase  $V_{CE1}$

[T. Masuda et al. 2000]  
[E. Cherry et al. 1963]

# BJT, HBT Implementation (2)

- **VGA stage:**

Load and buffers as in  
Cherry-Hooper stage



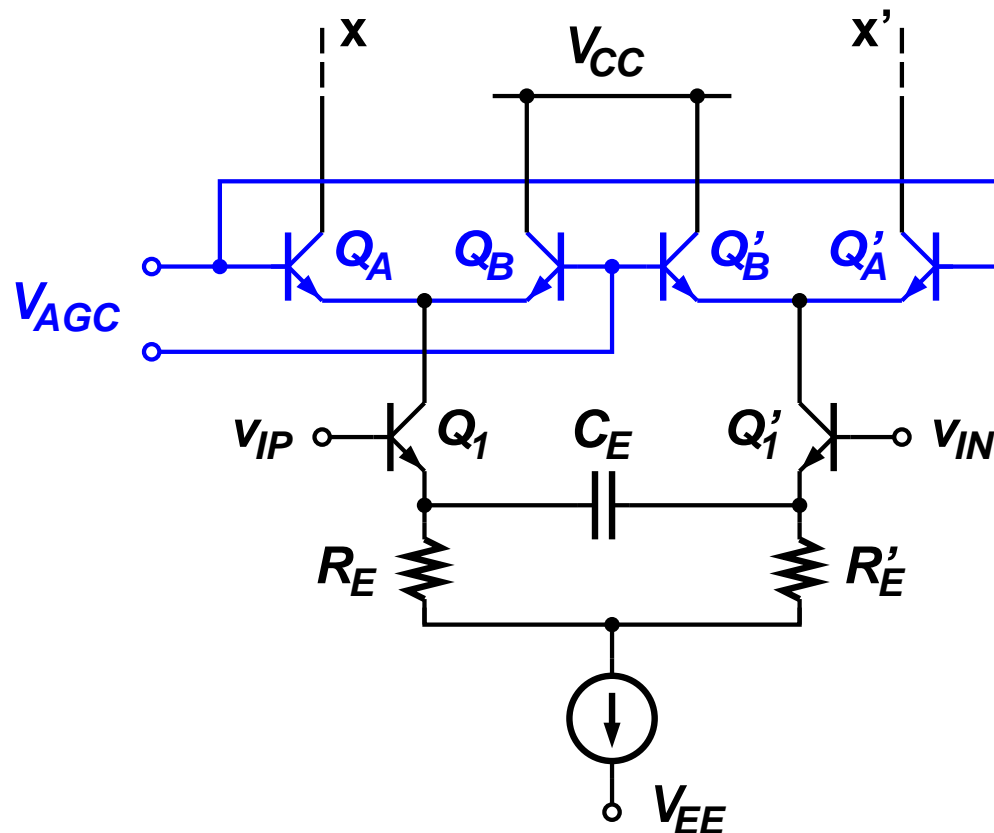
- Reduce gain by adding inverted signal current
- "Gilbert cell"
- 4-Quadrant multiplier:  
gain = 0 for  $V_{AGC} = 0$   
→ Avoid signal inversion

[M. Moller et al. 1994]

# BJT, HBT Implementation (3)

- **VGA stage:**

**Load and buffers as in  
Cherry-Hooper stage**



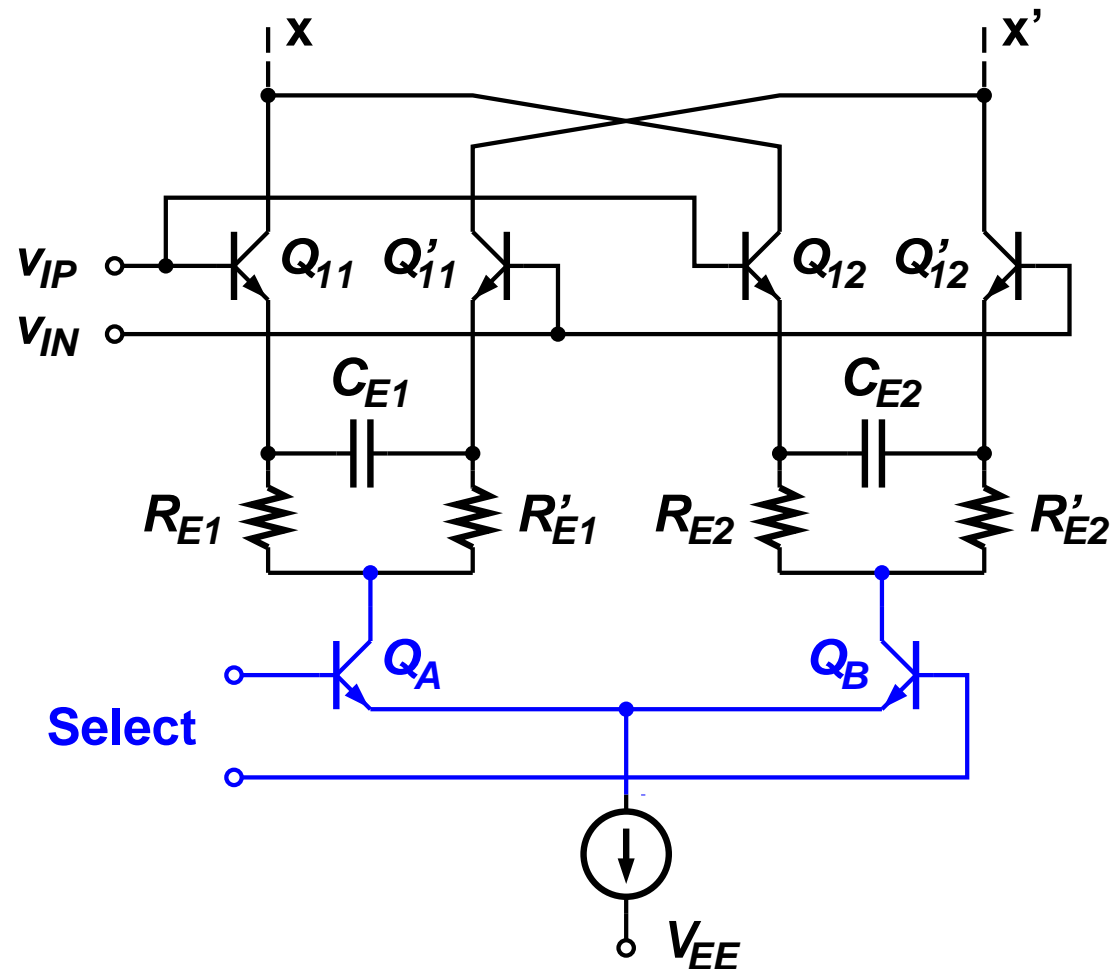
- Reduce gain by dumping some of the signal current
- 2-Quadrant multiplier
- Requires bias stabilization

[M. Soda et al. 1994]

# BJT, HBT Implementation (4)

- PGA stage:

Load and buffers as in  
Cherry-Hooper stage



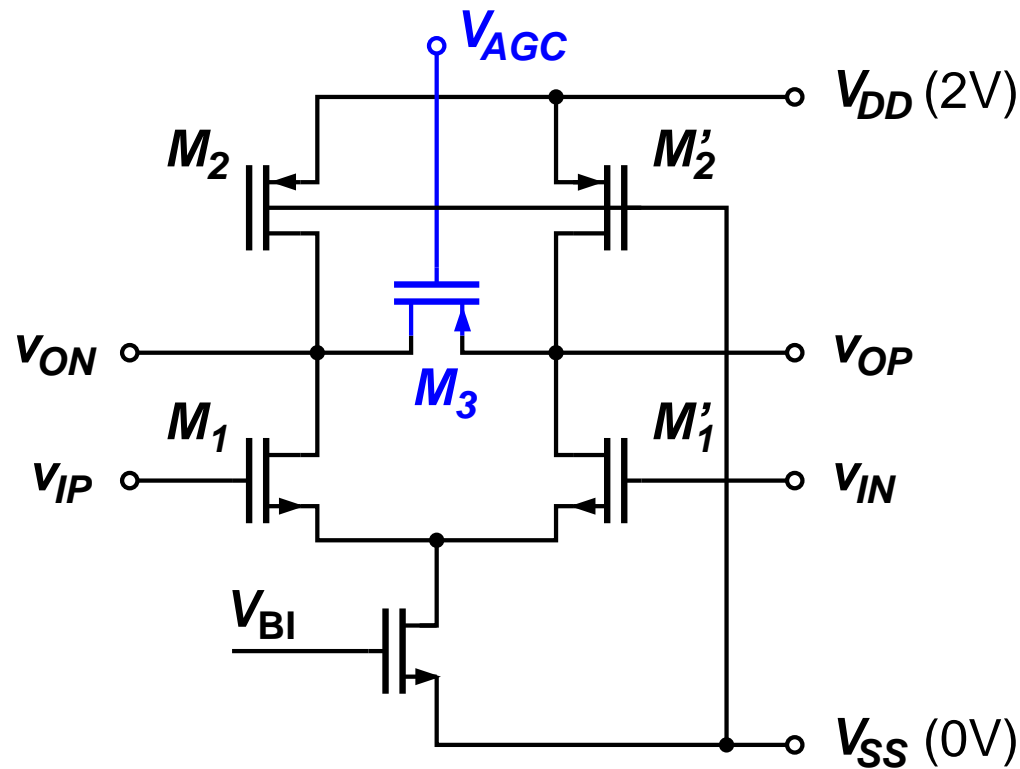
- Enable one of two differential pairs

- Select gain:  
 $R_F/R_{E1}$  or  $R_F/R_{E2}$

[Y. Greshishchev et al. 2000]

# CMOS Implementation (1)

- Low-voltage VGA stage:



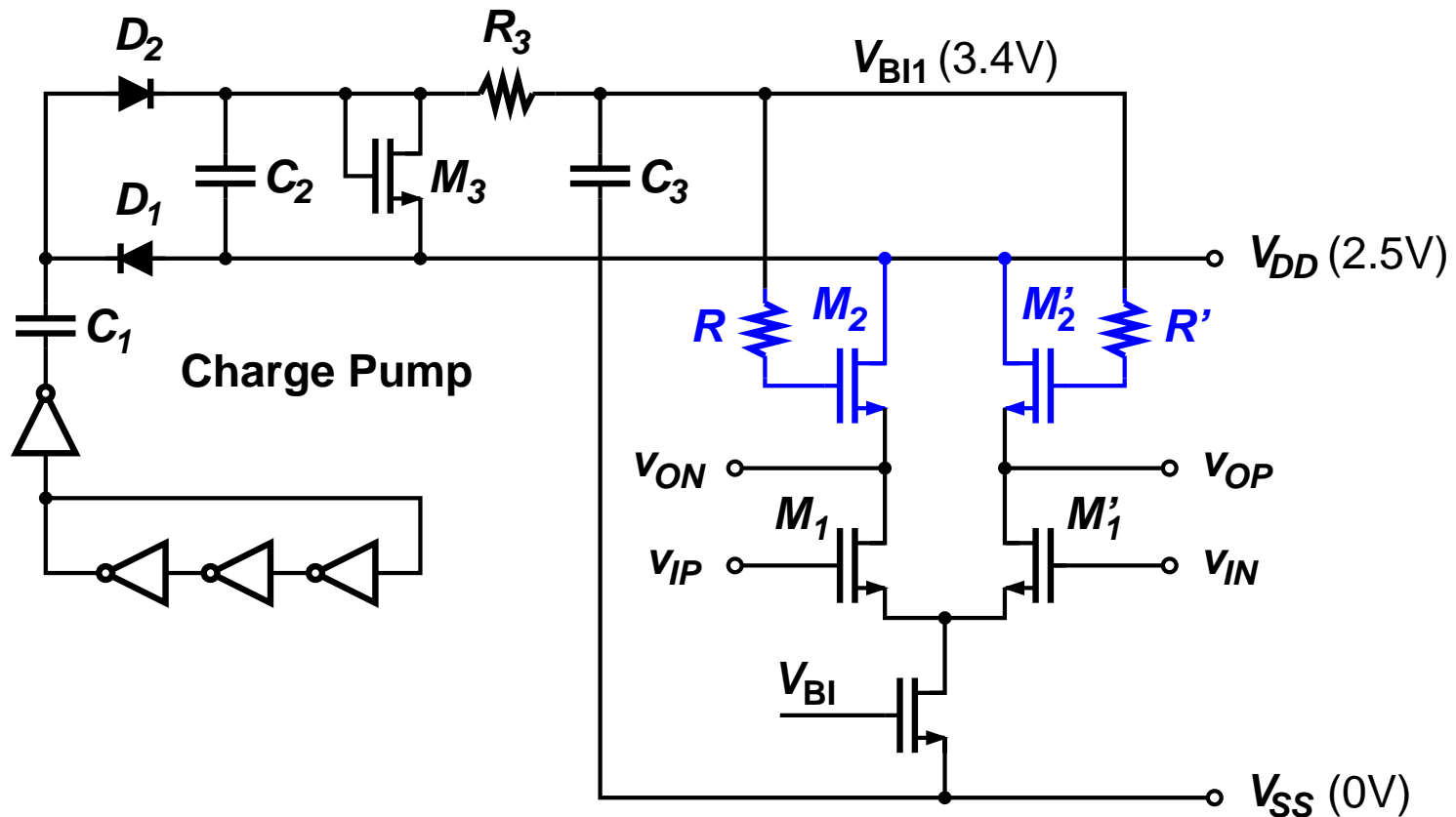
- Variable (differential) p-MOS load  
→ Gain control (AGC)

[A. Tanabe et al. 1998]



# CMOS Implementation (3)

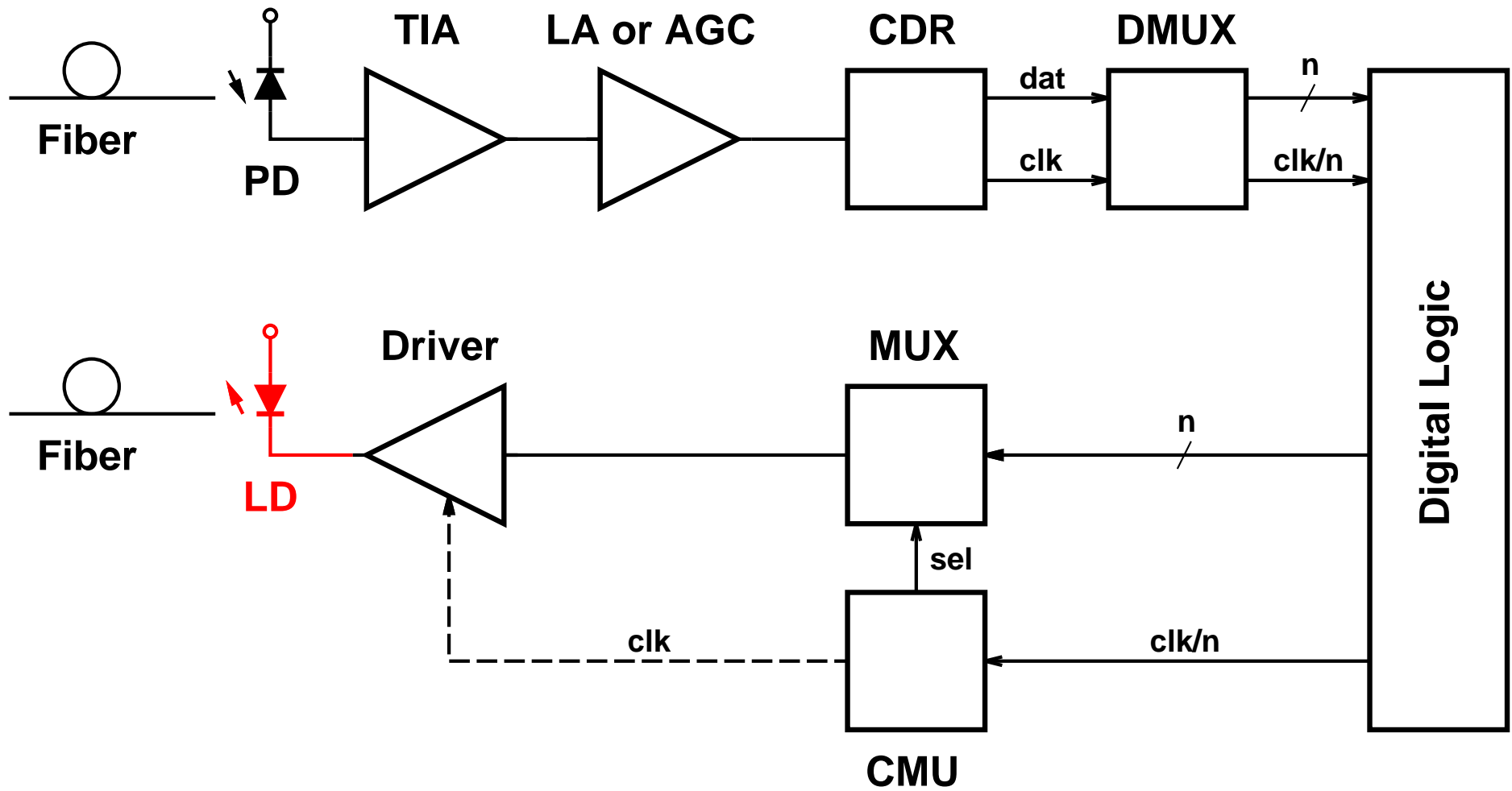
- LA stage:



- Active inductor loads ( $M_2, R$ )  $\rightarrow$  extended bandwidth
- High gate bias voltage ( $V_{BI1}$ )  $\rightarrow$  extended headroom
- Stable gain:  $(W_1/W_2)^{1/2}$

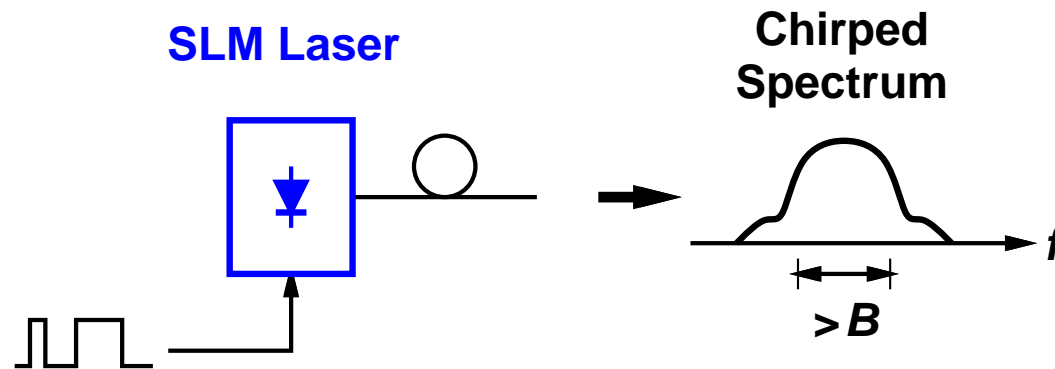
[E. Sackinger et al. 2000]

# Lasers & Modulators



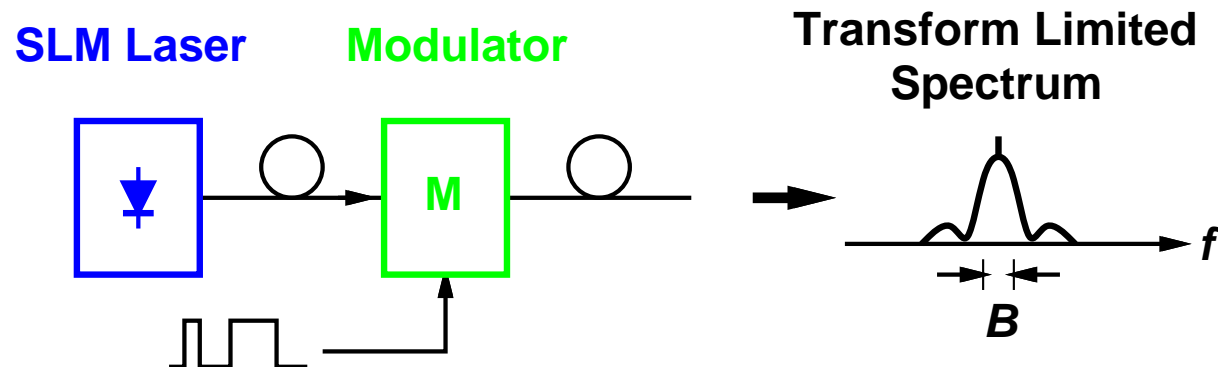
# Direct vs. External Modulation

- Direct modulation:



- Linewidth limited by chirp (or laser modes)
- Strong dispersion at 1.55  $\mu\text{m}$ ; used mostly at 1.3  $\mu\text{m}$

- External modulation:

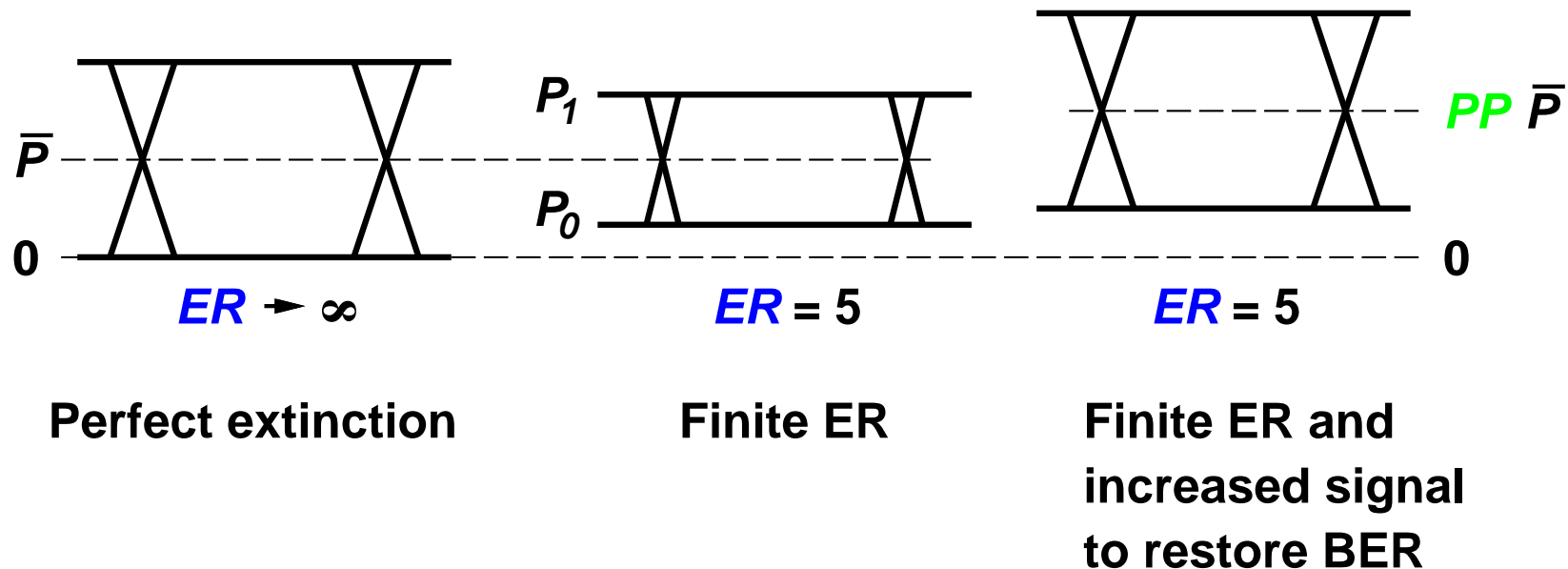


- Linewidth limited by baseband signal ( $BW \approx B$ )
- Used at 1.55  $\mu\text{m}$  for long distance communication

# Extinction Ratio

- Extinction ratio definition:

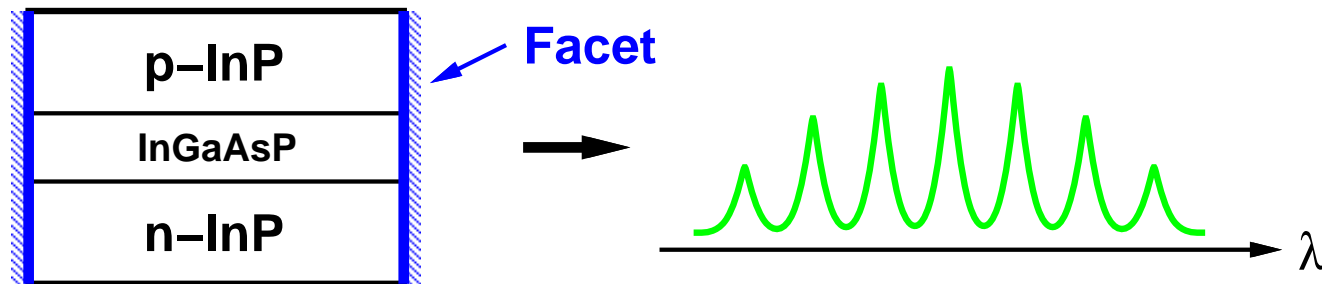
$$ER = \frac{P_1}{P_0}$$



- Finite extinction ratio causes power penalty ( $PP$ )
- Typical ER values:
  - Direct modulation: 9 ... 14 dB
  - External modulation: 11 ... 17 dB

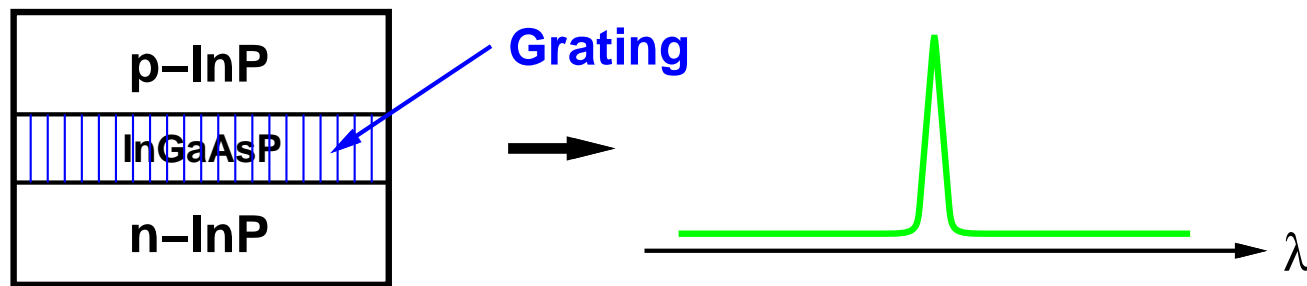
# Laser Types

- **Fabry–Perot (FP) laser:**



→ **Multiple–longitudinal mode (MLM); wide linewidth**

- **Distributed–feedback (DFB) laser:**



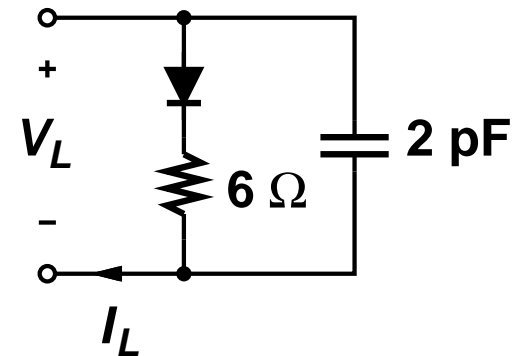
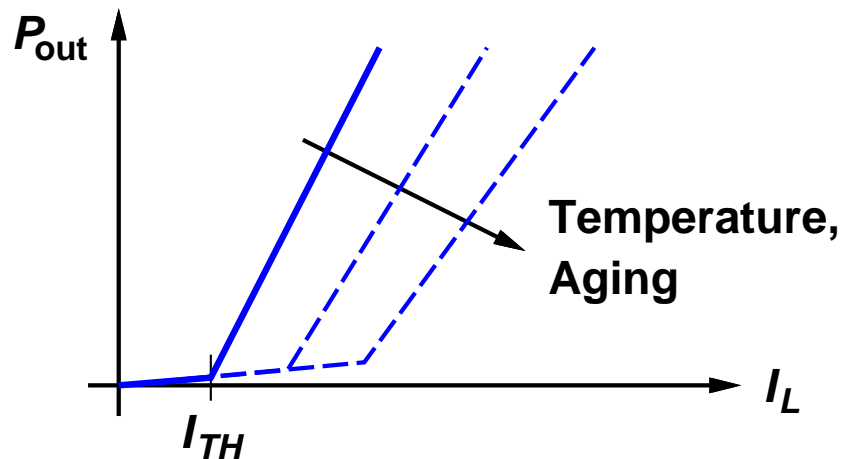
→ **Single–longitudinal mode (SLM); narrow linewidth**

- **Vertical–cavity surface–emitting laser (VCSEL):**

→ **Single–longitudinal mode; fairly narrow linewidth**

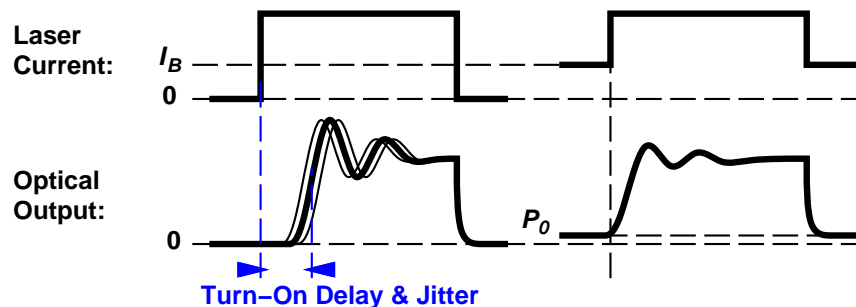
# Laser Characteristics

- Optical output power vs. laser current:



→ Automatic power control (APC) is required

- Turn-on delay, jitter, and extinction ratio:

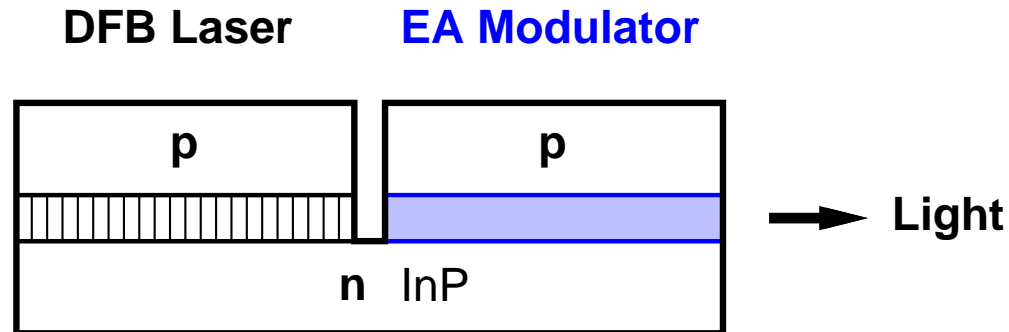


→ Use bias current  $I_B = I_{TH}$  to reduce turn-on delay and jitter

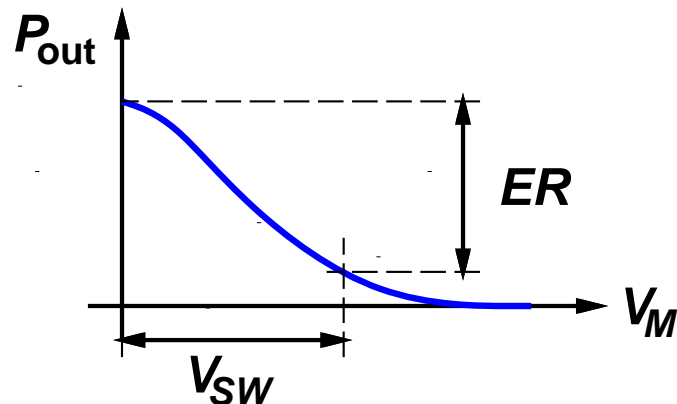
→ But bias current also reduces the extinction ratio!

# Electroabsorption Modulator (EAM)

- Can be integrated with laser on same substrate (EML):

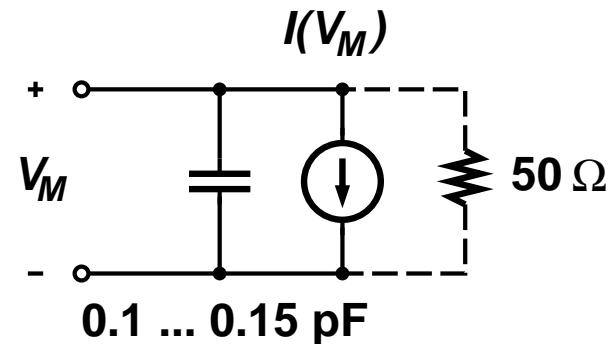


- Switching curve and electrical equivalent circuit:



$$V_{SW} = 1.5 \dots 4 \text{ V}$$

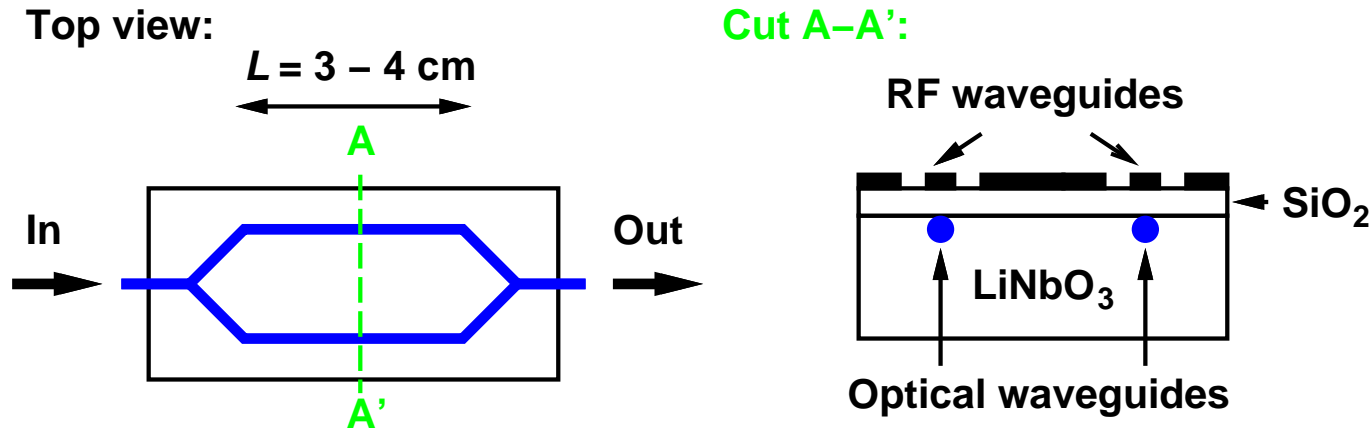
$$ER = 11 \dots 13 \text{ dB}$$



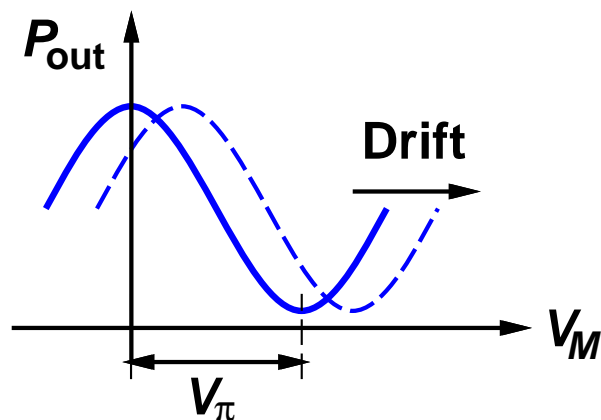
- Reverse biased diode
  - Capacitive load
  - Nonlinear photocurrent
- Often parallel matching resistor

# Mach-Zehnder Modulator (MZM)

- Typically based on lithium niobate (lithium-niobate modulator):

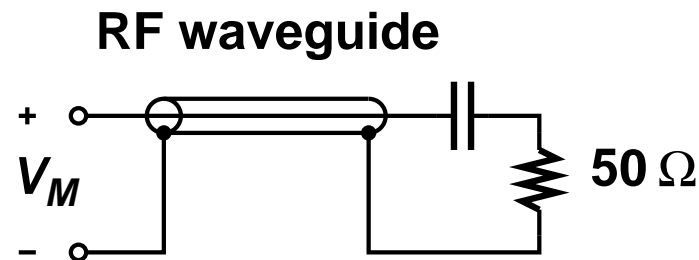


- Switching curve and electrical equivalent circuit:



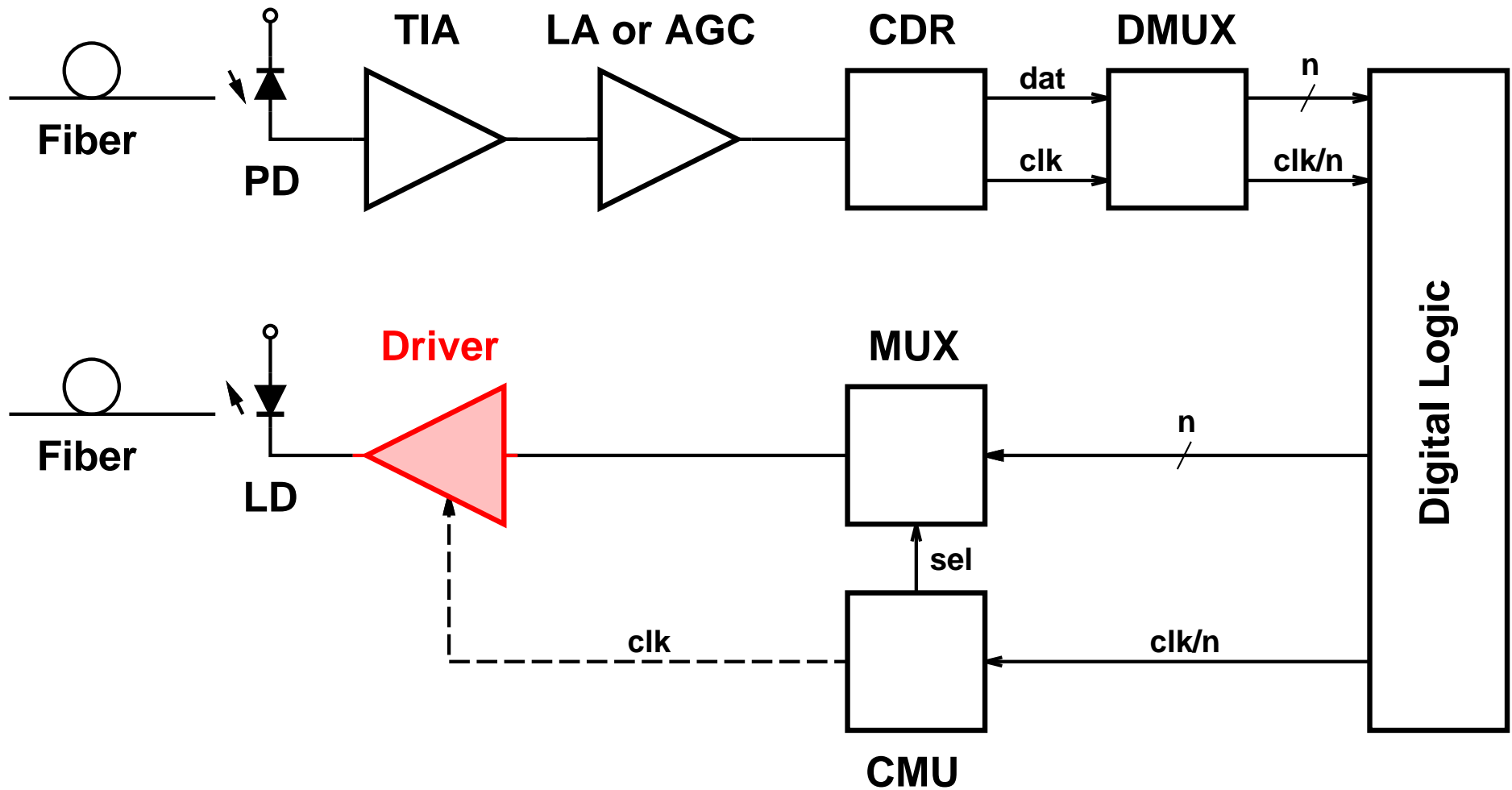
$$V_{\pi} = 4 \dots 6 \text{ V}$$

$$ER = 15 \dots 17 \text{ dB}$$

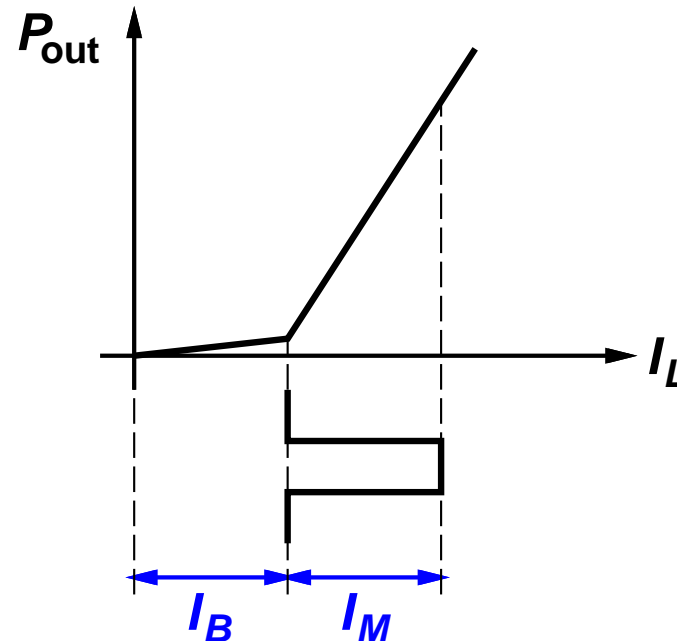


- Terminated transmission line
- Single- and dual-drive versions

# Laser and Modulator Drivers

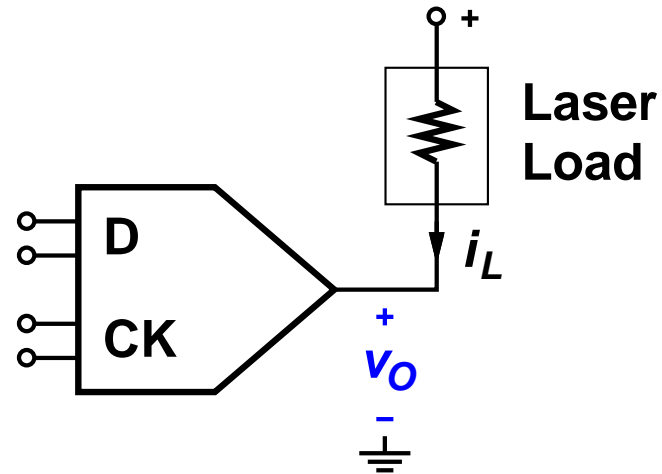


# Modulation and Bias Current Range (Laser Drivers)



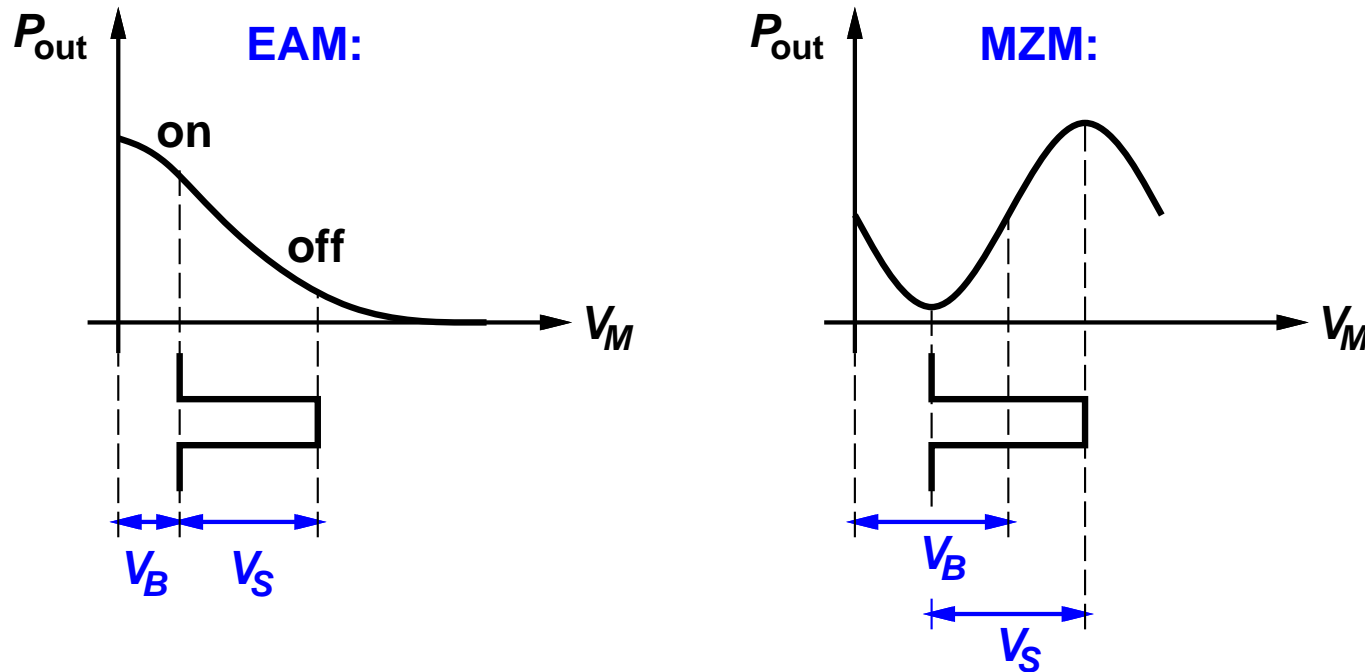
- Choose modulation and bias current range large enough to reach desired laser power under worst-case conditions (high temperature, end of life, etc.)
- Typical values (for drivers of uncooled lasers):
  - Modulation current range: 10 ... 100 mA
  - Bias current range: 0 ... 100 mA

# Output Voltage Range (Laser Drivers)



- Permissible output voltage range = compliance voltage
- Make minimum voltage small to minimize supply voltage requirements (especially for DC-coupled loads)
- Make maximum voltage large to permit pull-up inductor(s) and AC coupling (output swings above the supply voltage)
- Typical values:
  - Minimum voltage: 1.4 ... 2.0 V
  - Maximum voltage: supply voltage

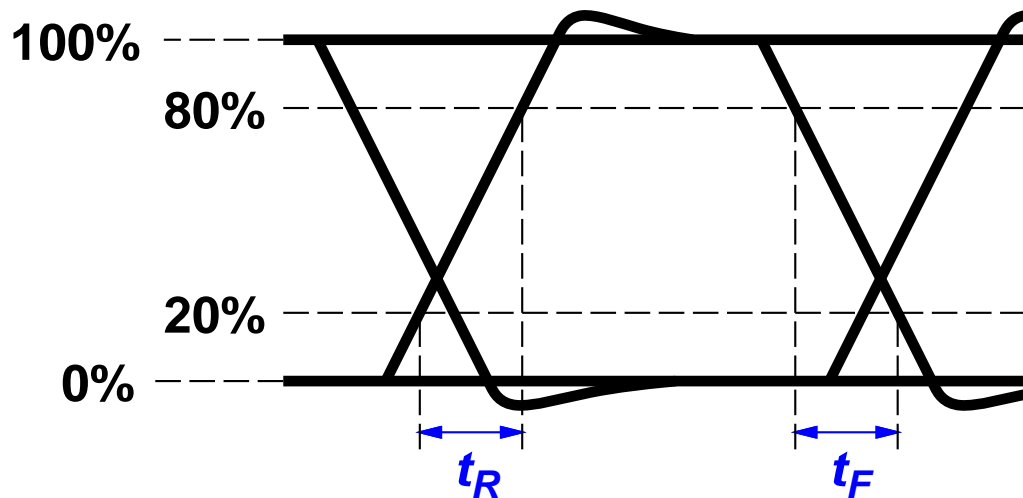
# Modulation and Bias Voltage Range (Mod. Drivers)



- Choose modulation and bias voltage range large enough to cover the worst-case conditions
- Typical values for modulation voltage (voltage swing) range:
  - EAM driver: 0.2 ... 3 V
  - MZM driver: 0.5 ... 5 V
- Typical values for bias voltage (DC offset voltage) range:
  - EAM driver: 0 ... 1 V (chirp control)
  - MZM driver: 0 ... 10 V (drift compensation)

# Rise and Fall Times

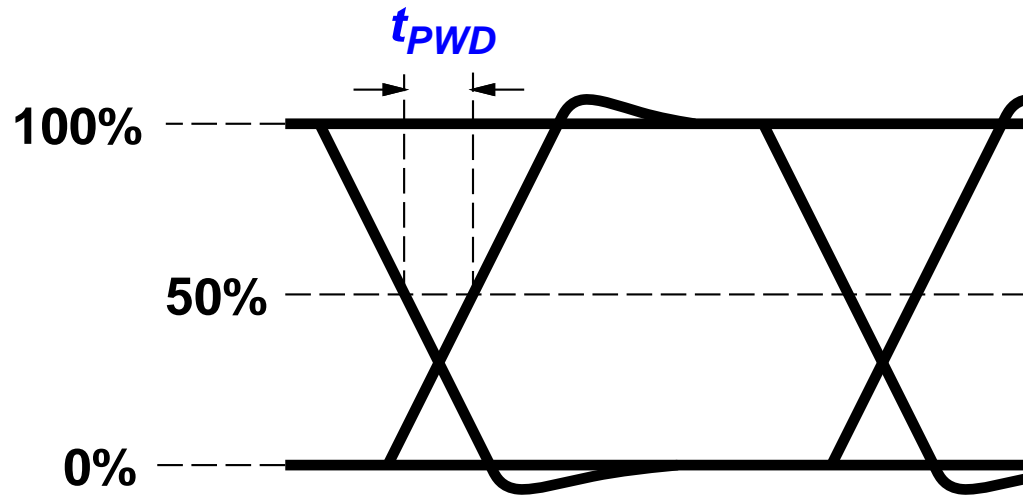
- Time for signal to move from the 20% to the 80% level (sometimes 10% to 90%) and vice versa:



- For laser drivers, fast rise time increases chirp!
- Typical values:
  - 2.5 Gb/s:  $t_{R,F} < 100$  ps (0.25 UI)
  - 10 Gb/s:  $t_{R,F} < 40$  ps (0.40 UI)

# Pulse-Width Distortion

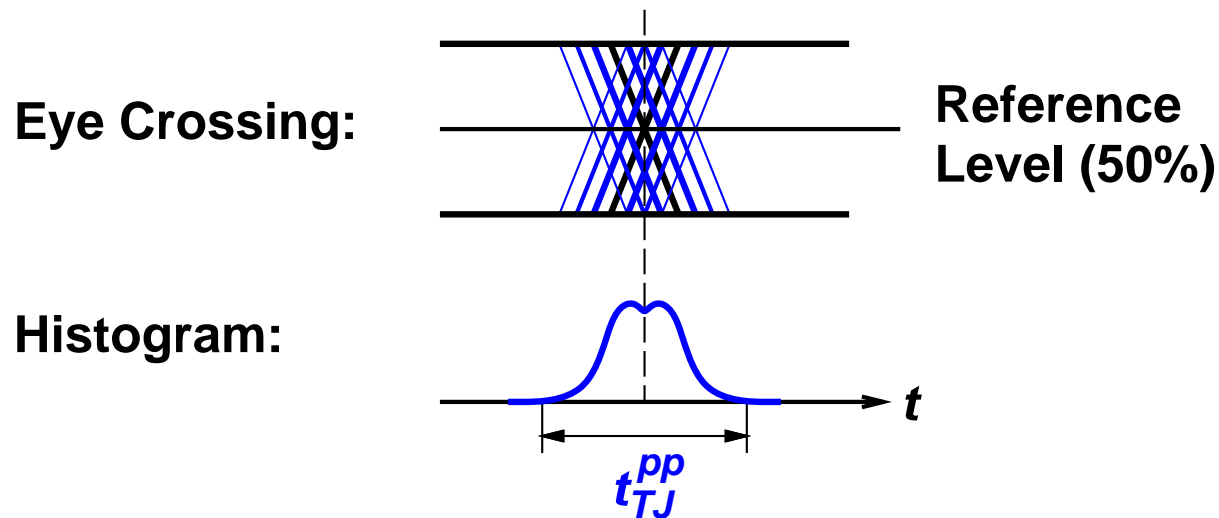
- Observe crossing point in the eye diagram:



- Laser/modulator drivers often feature a PWD adjustment  
→ Pulse-width control circuit
- Typical values < 0.05 UI (electrical, w/o PWD adjust):
  - 2.5 Gb/s:  $t_{PWD} < 20$  ps
  - 10 Gb/s:  $t_{PWD} < 5$  ps

# Jitter Generation

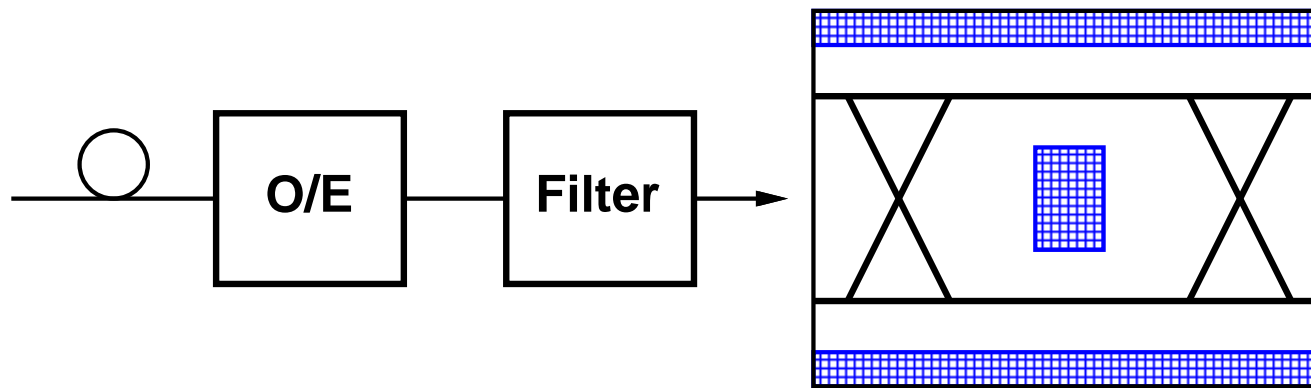
- Histogram of 50% crossing points:



- Jitter types: deterministic (DJ), random (RJ), total (TJ), ...
- Jitter amount: histogram, peak-to-peak (pp), root-mean-square (rms), ...
- Jitter bandwidth: wideband, narrowband
- Typical values < 0.1 UI peak-peak (SONET requirements):
  - 2.5 Gb/s:  $t_{TJ}^{pp} < 40 \text{ ps}$  @  $BW = 12 \text{ kHz to } 20 \text{ MHz}$
  - 10 Gb/s:  $t_{TJ}^{pp} < 10 \text{ ps}$  @  $BW = 50 \text{ kHz to } 80 \text{ MHz}$

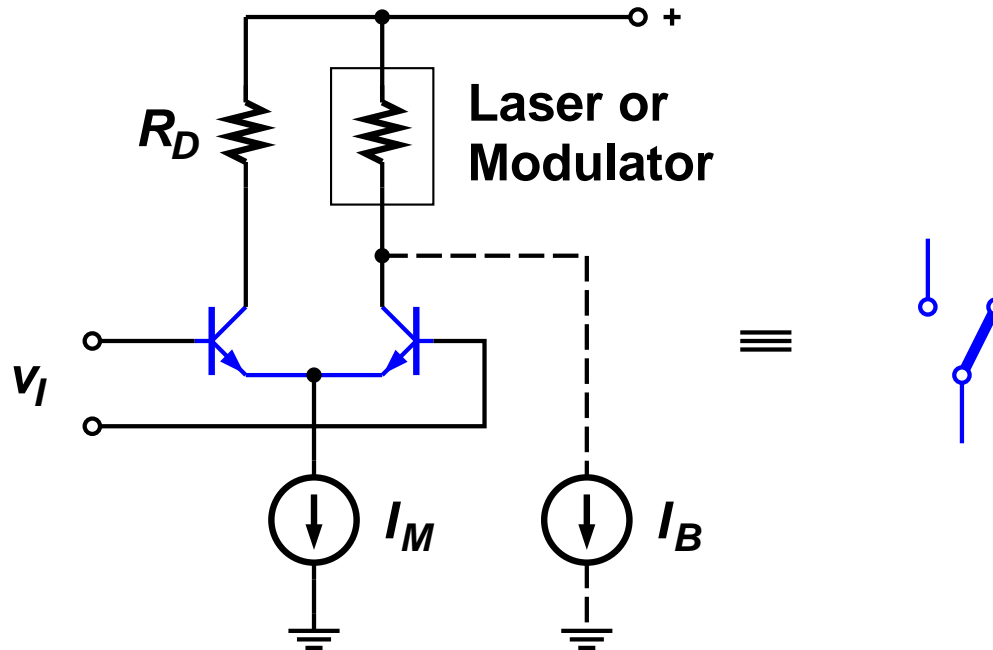
# Eye-Diagram Mask Test

- Compare filtered optical eye against mask:



- The filter simulates the receiver response:  
4th-order Bessel-Thompson response with  $BW = 0.75B$   
(SONET reference receiver)
- Signal must stay outside of the blue areas
- Mask test checks rise/fall time, PWD, jitter, ISI, ringing, noise, ...

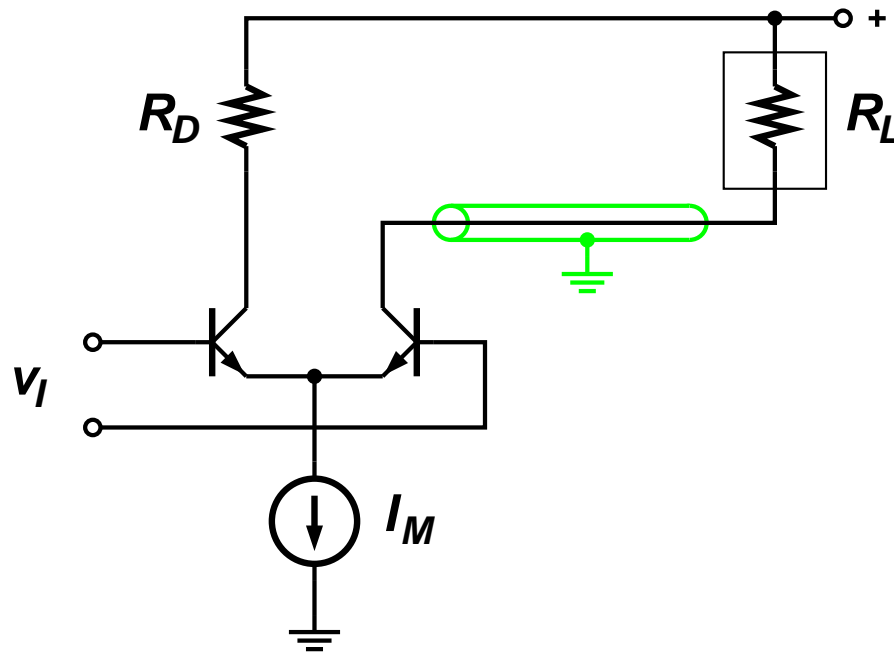
# Current-Steering Output Stage



- **Differential inputs:**
  - ➔ Avoids pulse-width distortions
  - ➔ Insensitive to supply noise
- **Constant power supply current:**
  - ➔ Minimizes power supply noise
  - ➔ But increased power dissipation
- **Control modulation current (or voltage) with tail current source  $I_M$**
- **Add bias current source,  $I_B$ , if bias current (or voltage) is required**

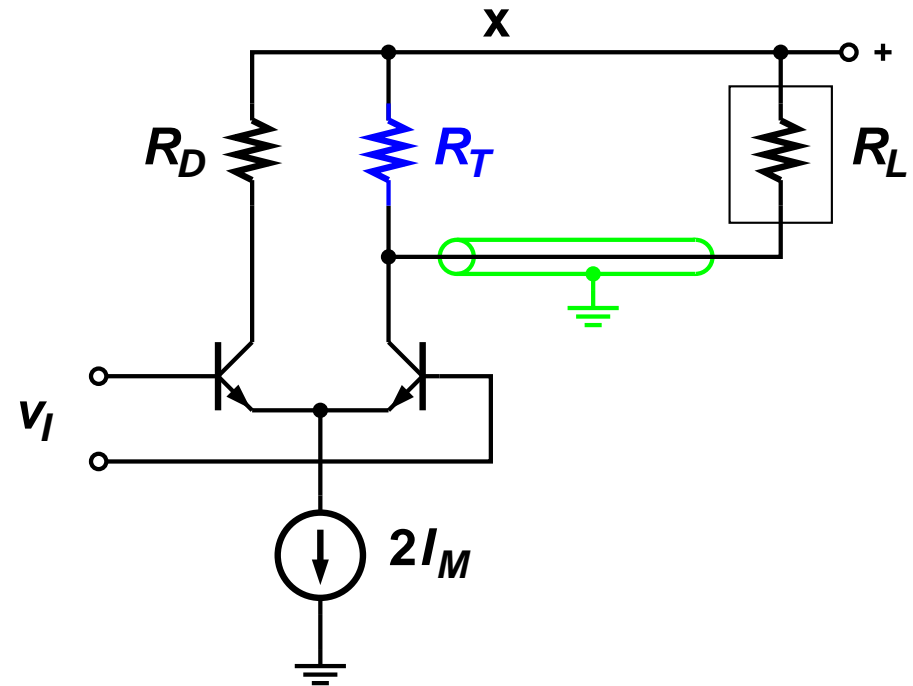
# Transmission Line & Termination

- For high-speed drivers use transmission line to connect laser/modulator:



## Without back termination

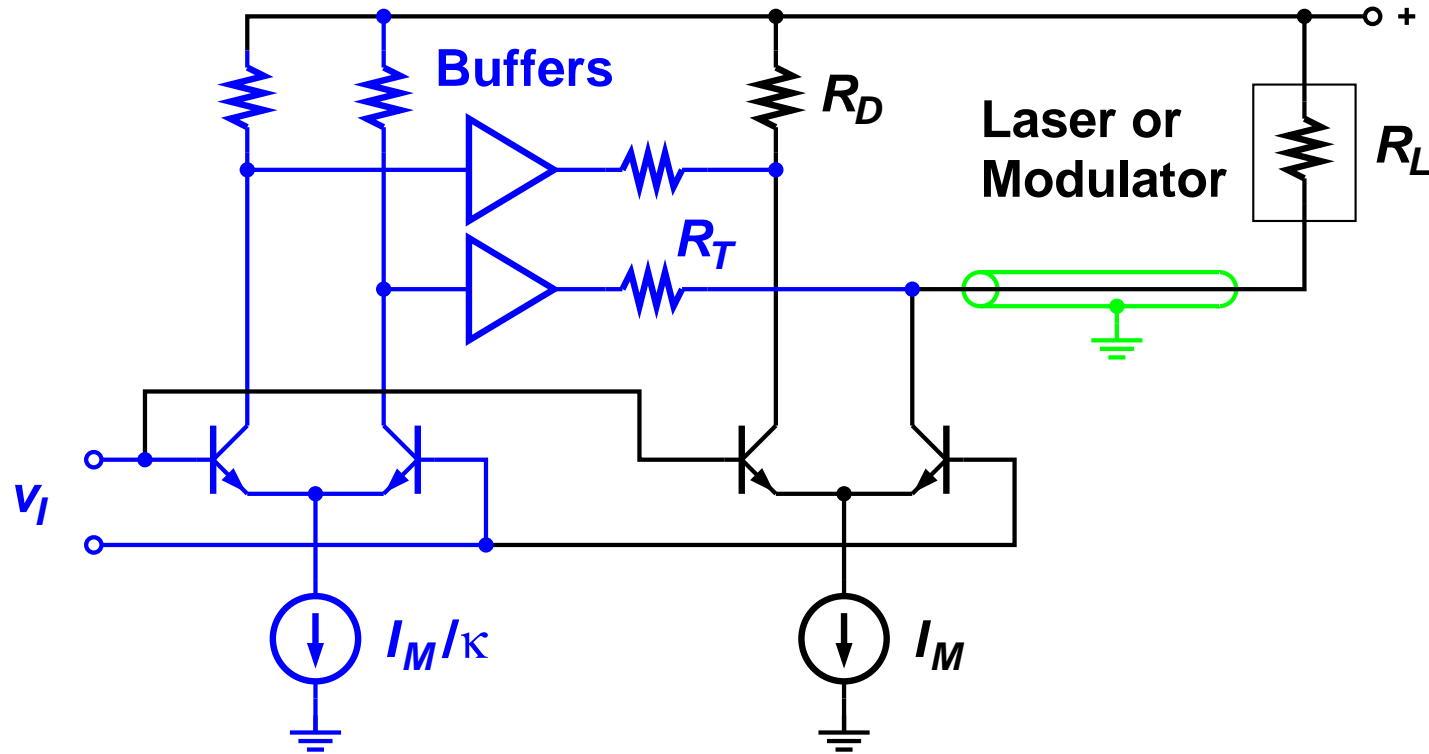
- Reflections cannot be absorbed
- Double reflections
- Jitter and ER degradation
- Use only if load matching is good



## With back termination

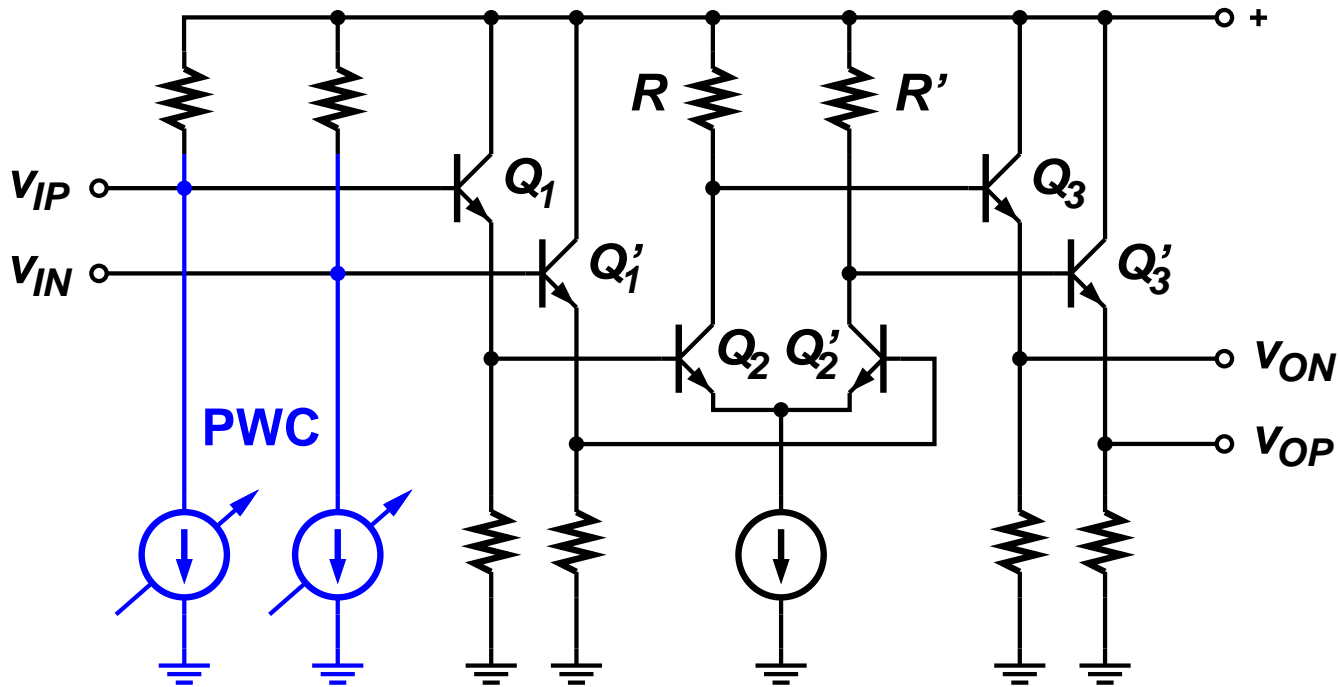
- Absorb reflections
- Clean signal at load
- Power dissipation doubled!
- Use if load matching is bad

# Active Back Termination



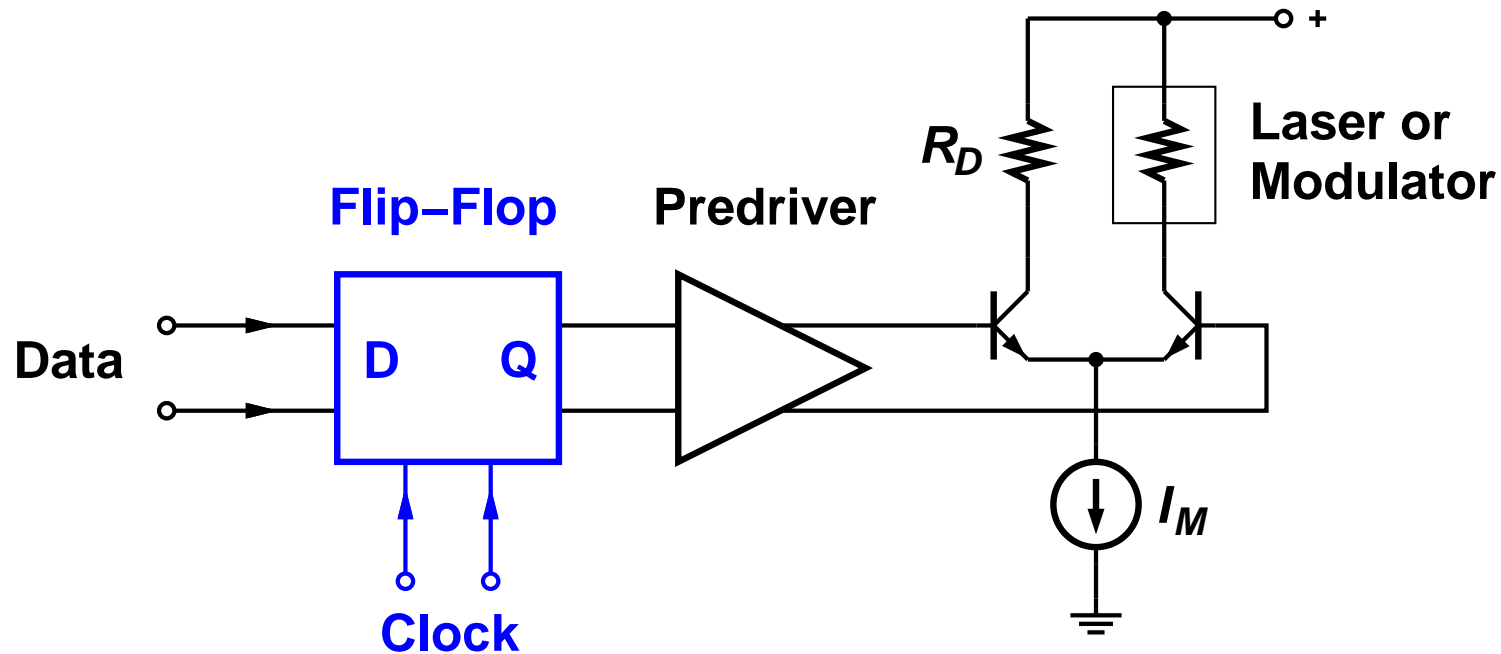
- Back termination resistor connected to clean signal from replica
  - ➔ Normally no voltage across termination resistor (only when reflections occur)
  - ➔ Low power

## Predriver & Pulse-Width Control



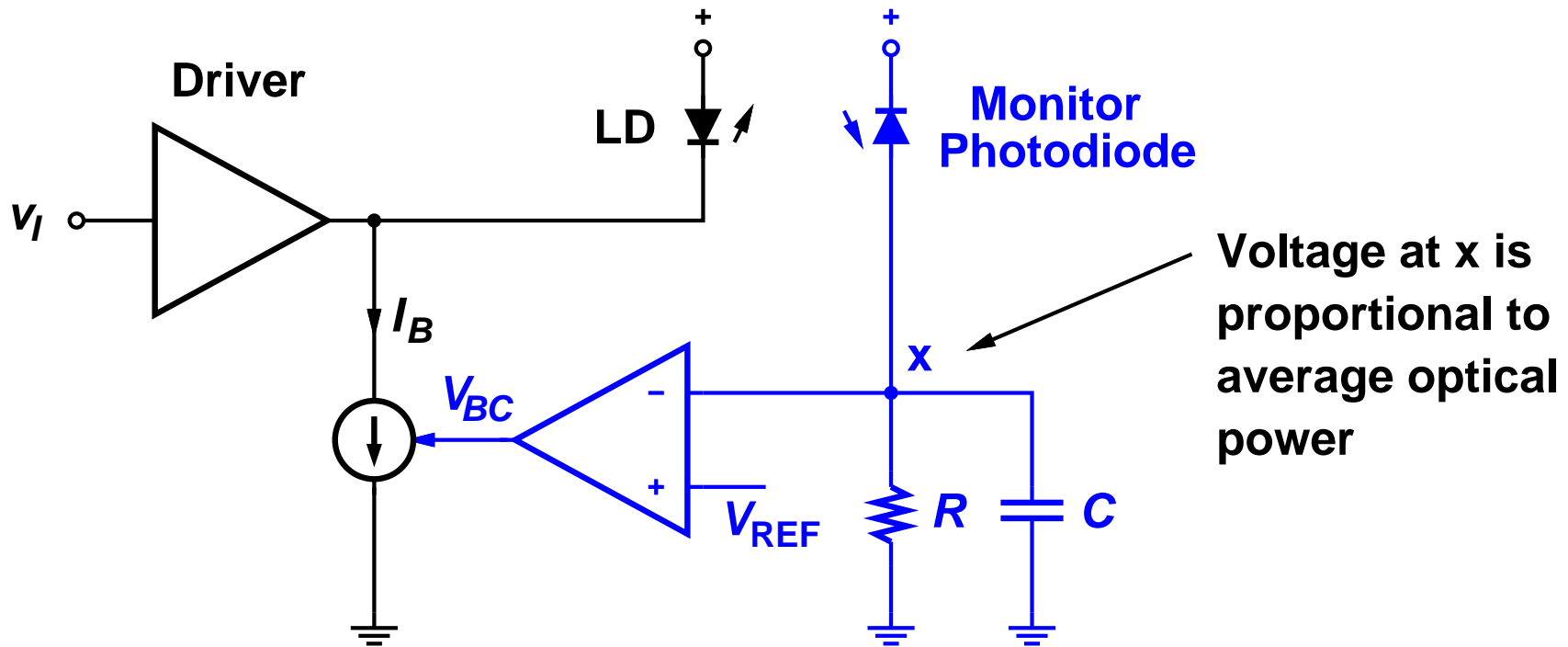
- **Predriver needed to drive large current–steering transistors and to provide sufficient swing at their inputs**
- **Compensate pulse–width distortions due to laser, modulator, ...**
  - ➔ **Introduce offset voltage at input of predriver for pulse–width control (PWC)**

# Data Retiming



- Eliminate pulse-width distortion and jitter from input data
- But clock jitter contributes directly to output jitter of transmitter!
  - ➔ Low-jitter clock is required

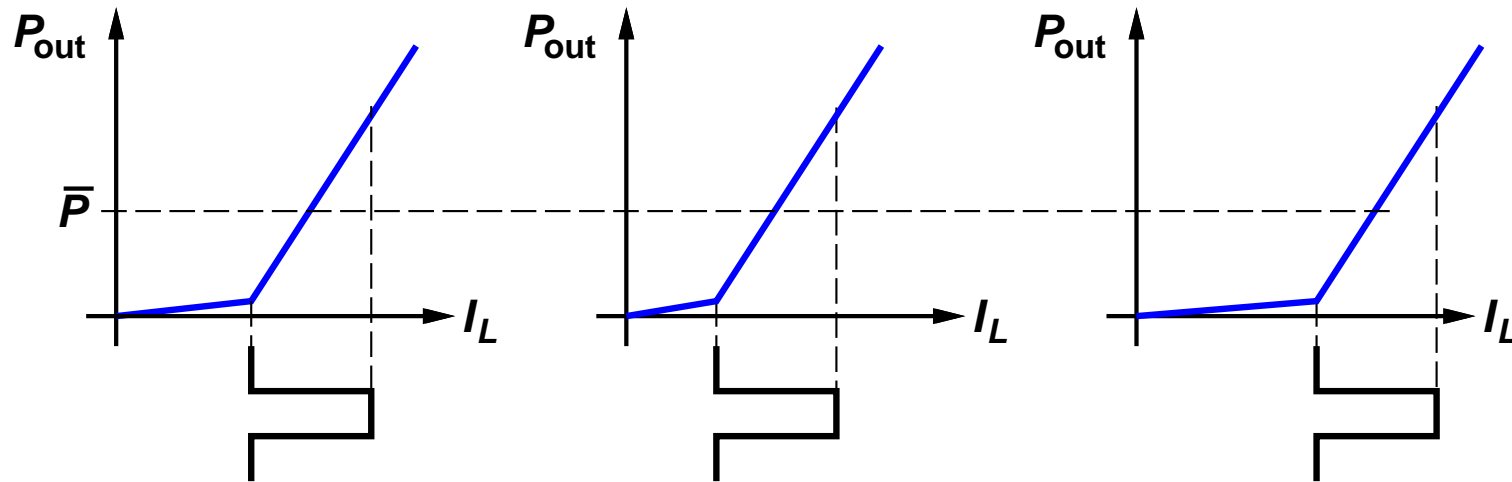
# Automatic Power Control (Lasers)



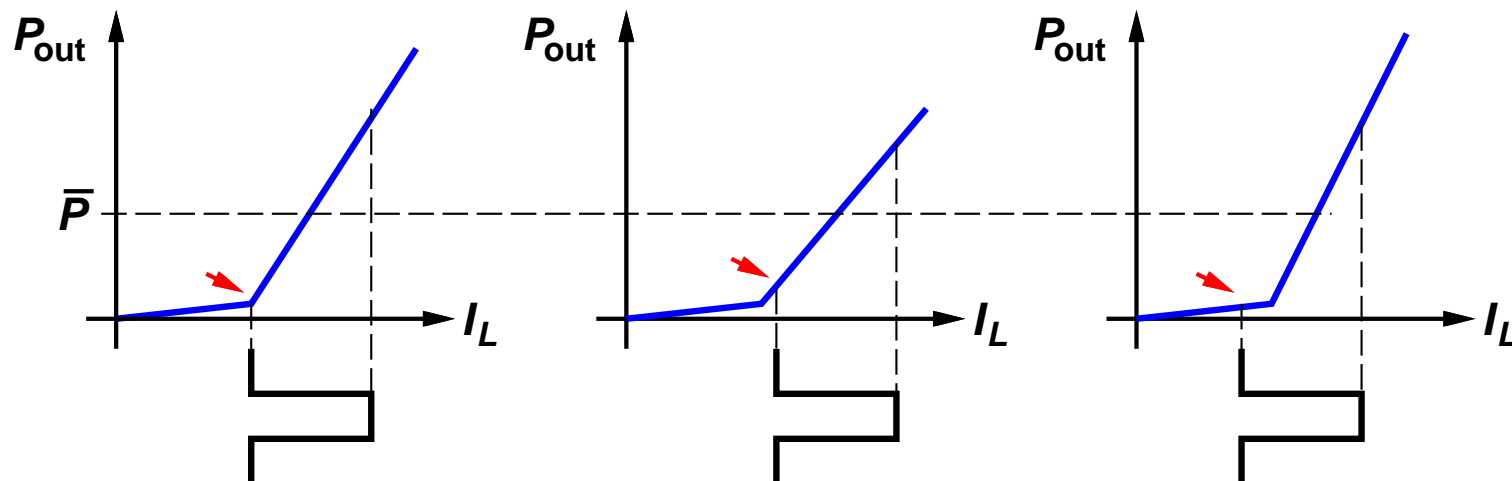
- Monitor photodiode measures the optical output power; automatic power control (APC) controls the laser current
  - Average output power is measured
    - Constant mark density required
  - Only bias current is adjusted
    - Laser's slope efficiency must be stable
- } Continuous-mode single-loop APC

# Automatic Power Control (Lasers)

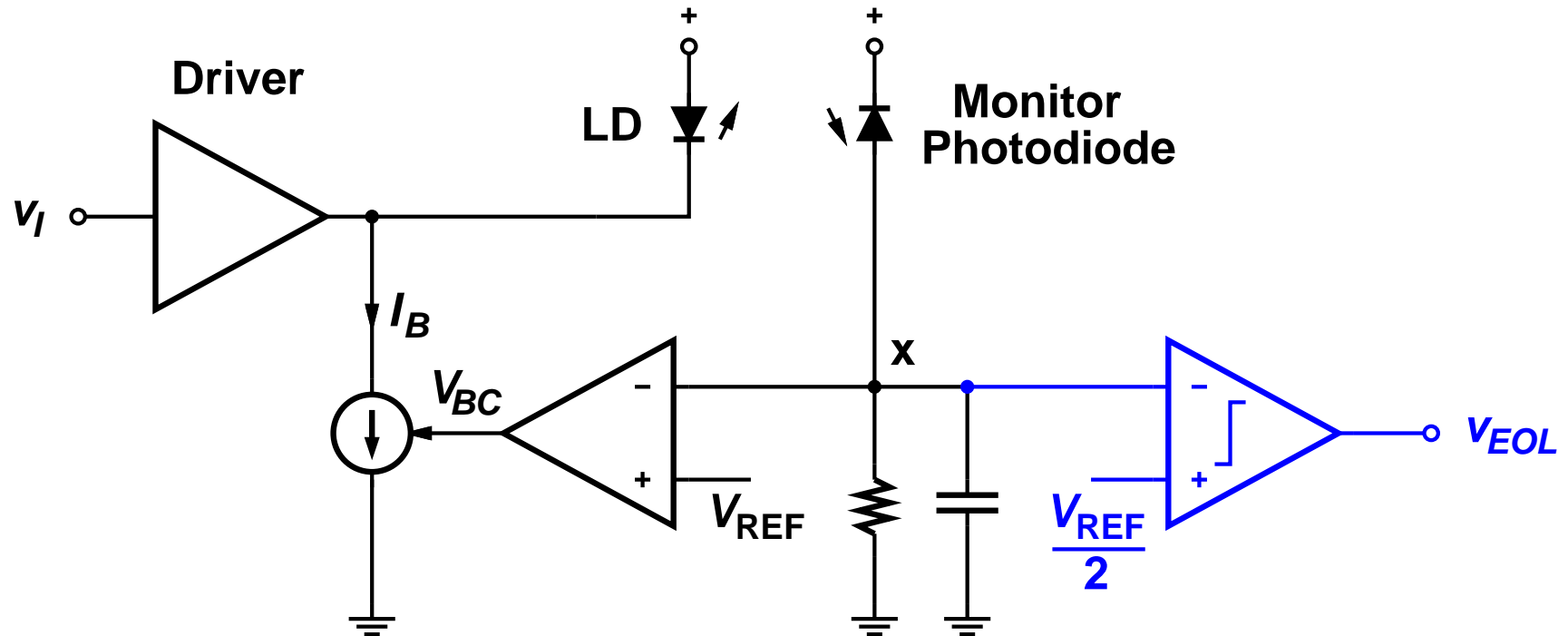
- Laser threshold-current variations with single-loop APC:



- Laser slope-efficiency variations with single-loop APC:

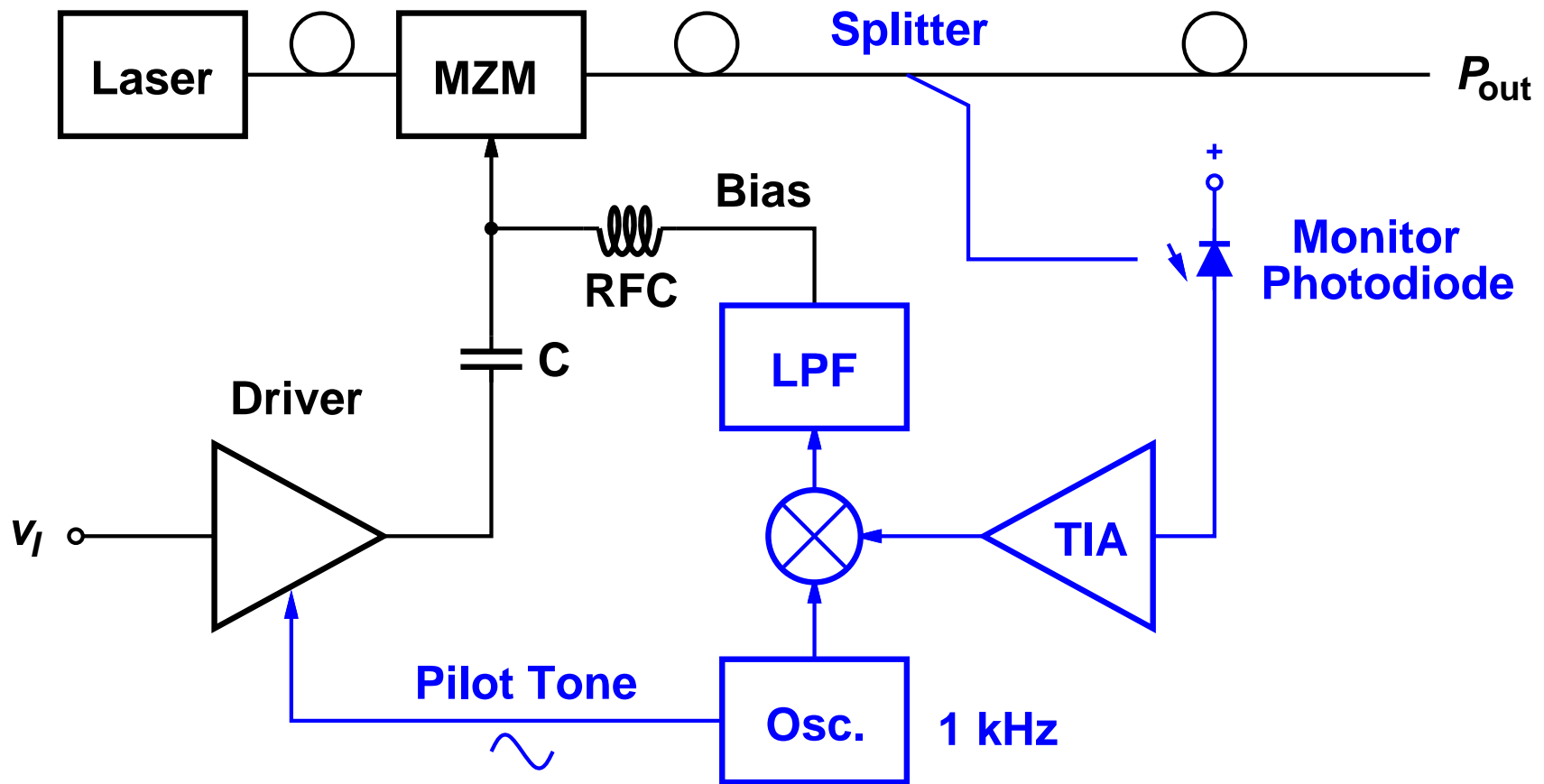


# End-of-Life Detection (Lasers)



- **Laser life:** 1 ... 10 years (high temperature)  
10 ... 100 years (cooled to room temperature)
- **Automatic end-of-life (EOL) detection**
  - ➔ Detect when APC fails
  - ➔ Simple extension to APC circuit

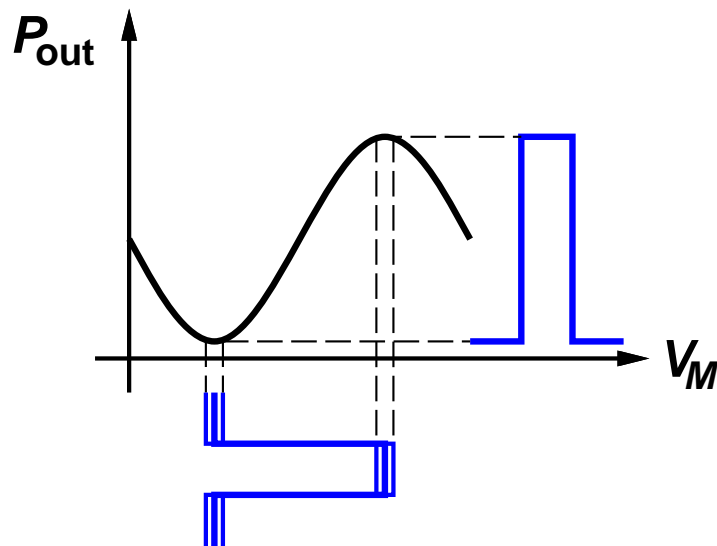
# Automatic Bias Control (MZ Modulators)



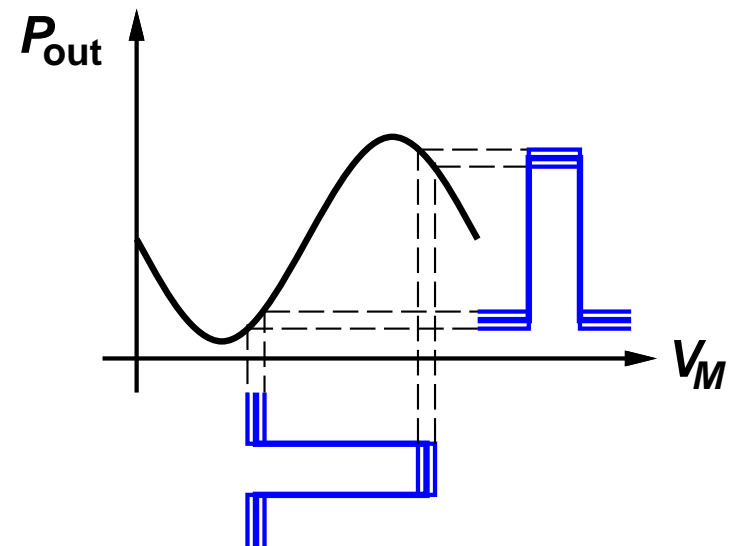
- Mach-Zehnder modulators drift with time and temperature  
→ Automatic bias control (ABC)

# Automatic Bias Control (MZ Modulators)

**Correct bias:**



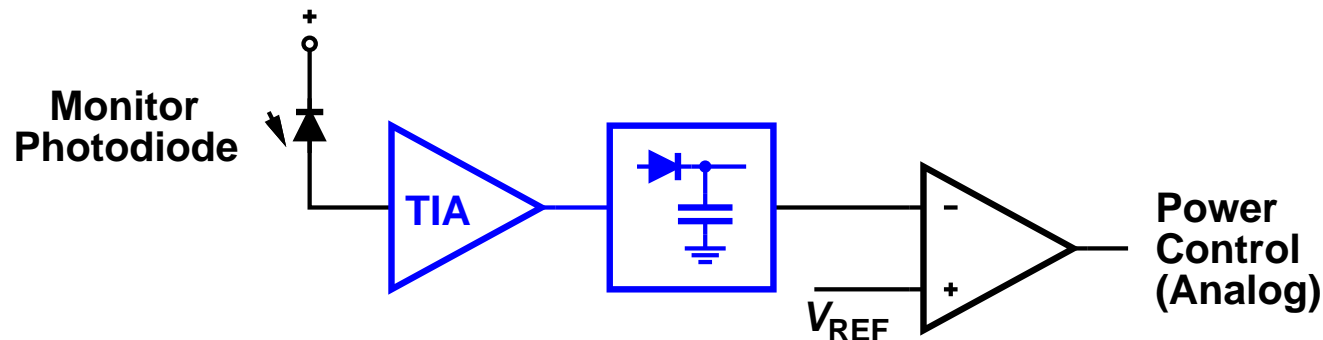
**Incorrect bias:**



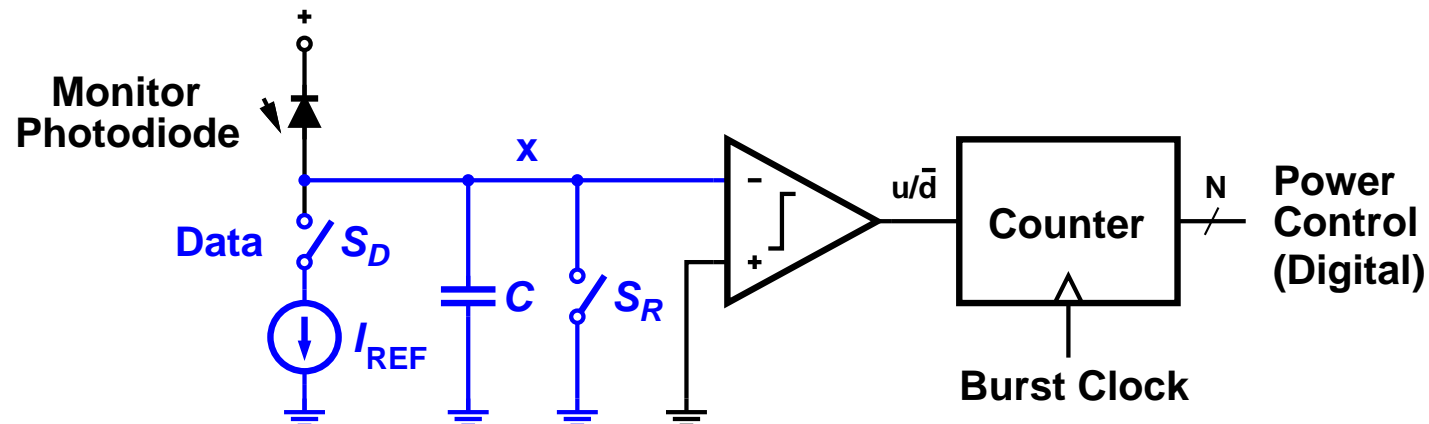
- **Modulate driver output voltage with small pilot tone:**
  - ➔ Tone is suppressed, if bias correct
  - ➔ Tone appears in optical output, if bias incorrect
  - ➔ Phase of tone indicates direction of bias correction needed

# Burst-Mode Laser Driver

- High interburst extinction ratio required (>30 dB)
  - Turn bias current off in between bursts or no bias current at all
- Special APC required (signal not DC balanced)
  - Burst-mode APC based on peak detection:

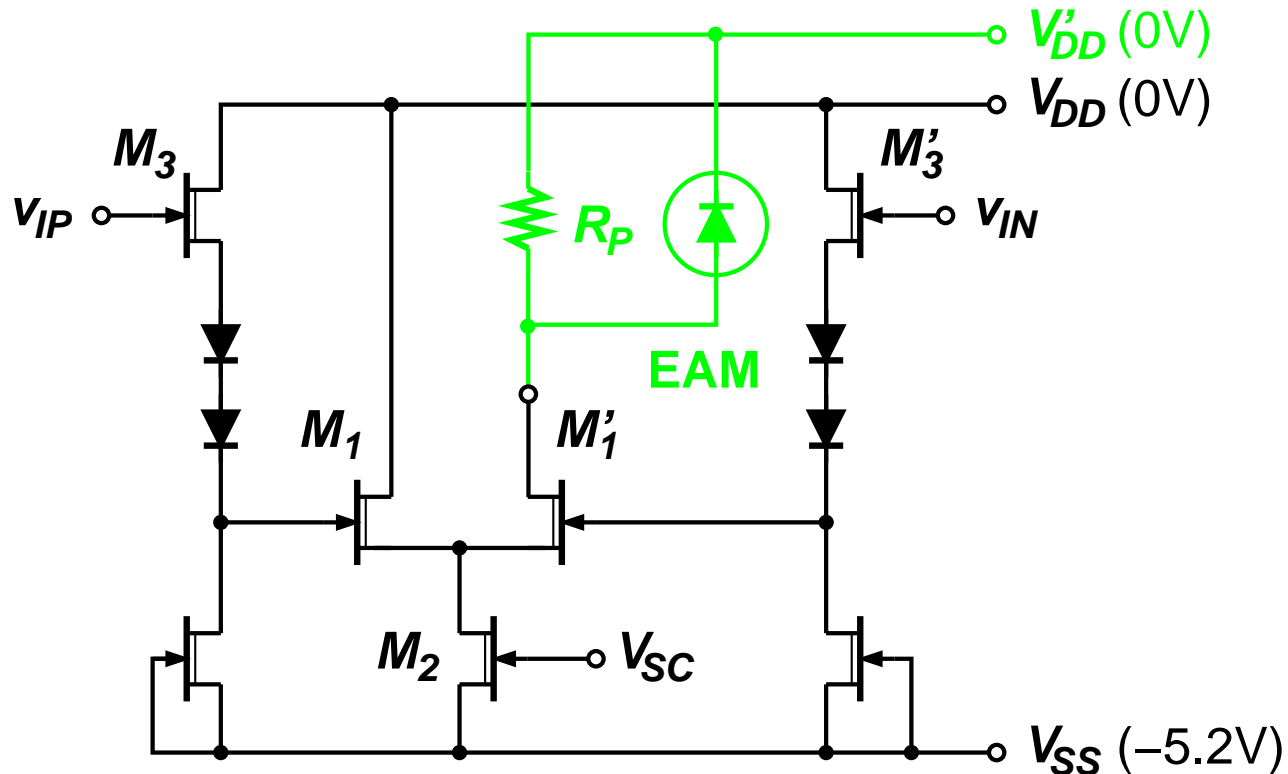


- Burst-mode APC based on integrate & dump:



# MESFET, HFET Implementation (1)

- EAM-driver output stage:

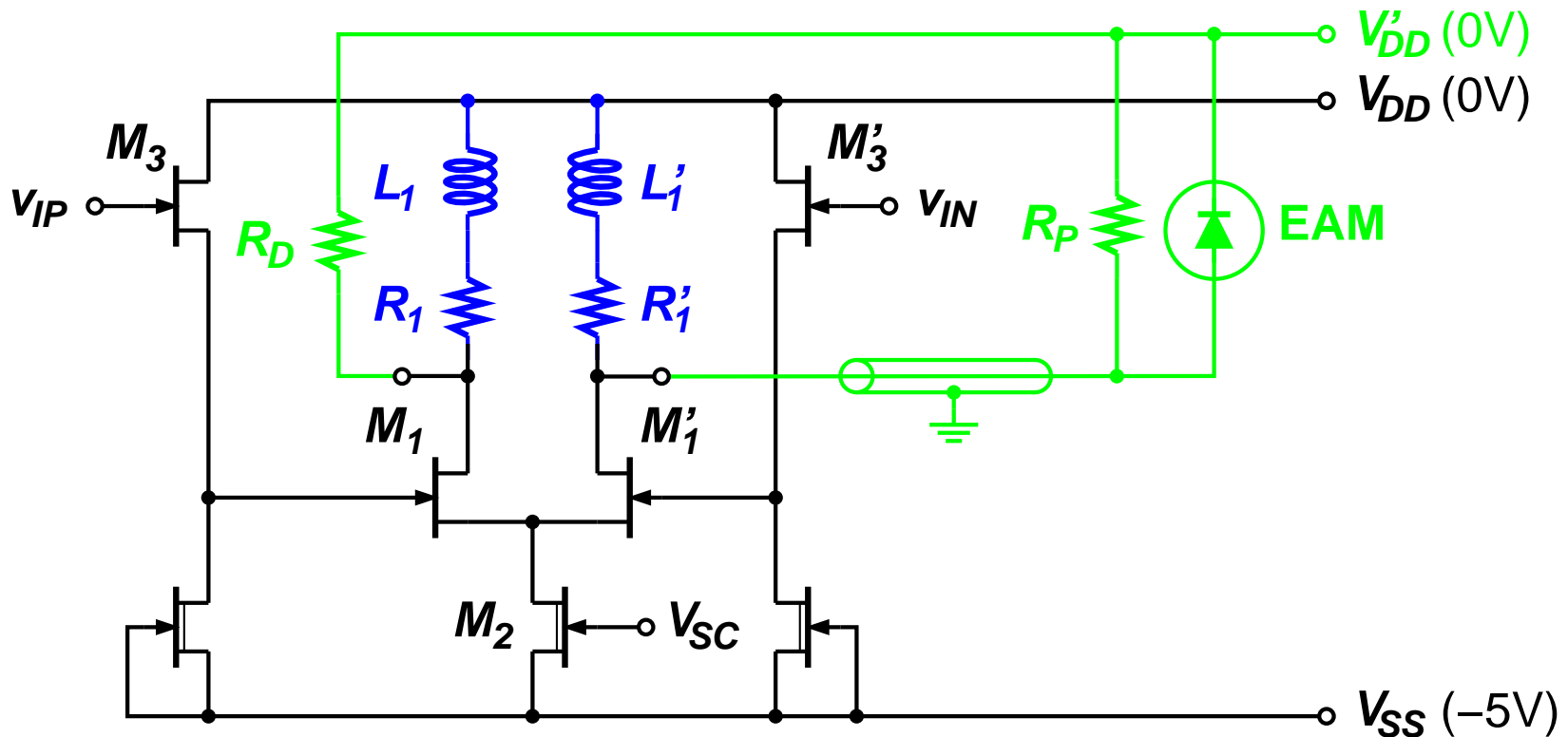


- Open-drain output (no back termination when used with TL)
- $V_{SC}$  controls output-voltage swing

[Y. Suzuki et al. 1992]

# MESFET, HFET Implementation (2)

- EAM-driver (laser-driver) output stage:

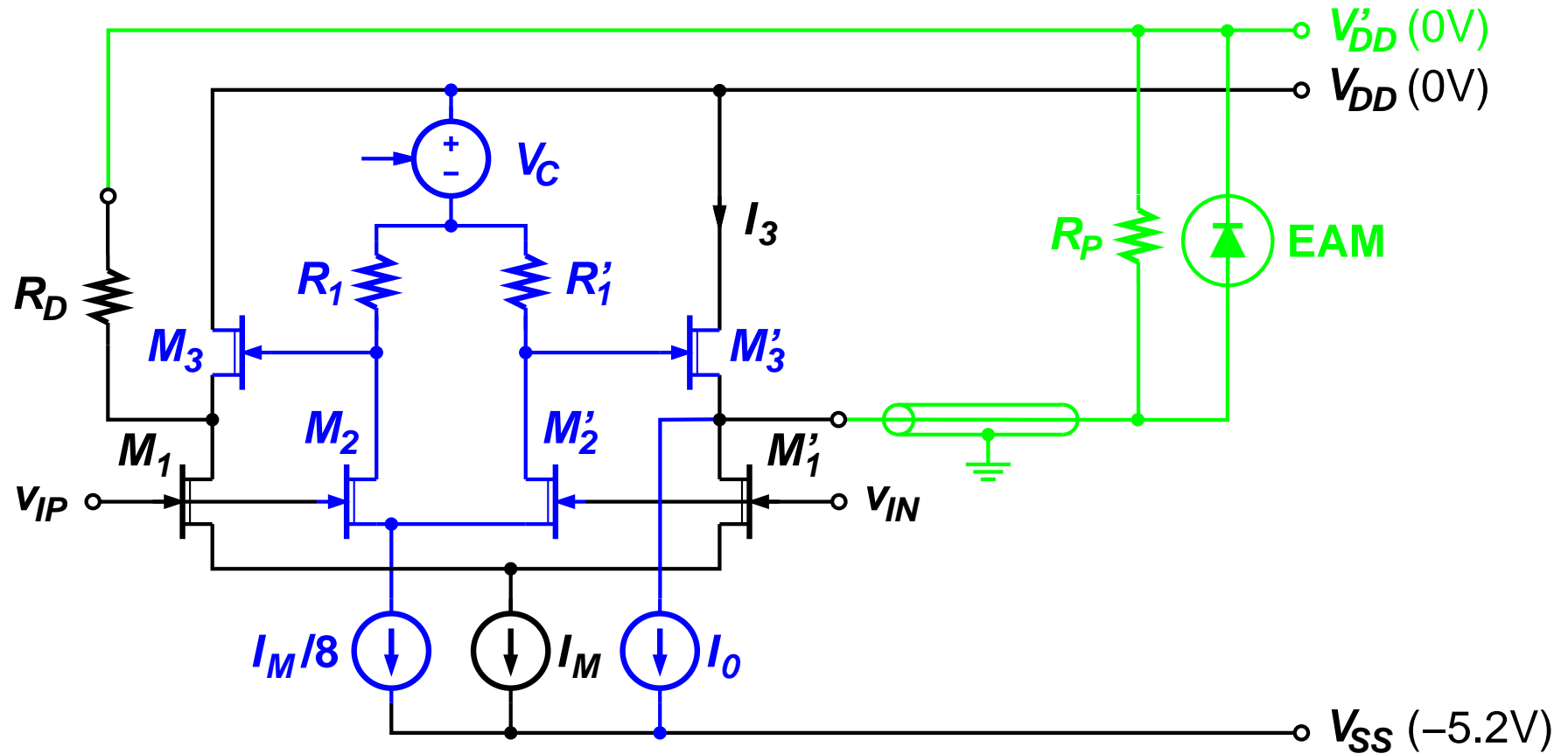


- Passive back termination for transmission line  
→ Avoid double reflections, but increased power dissipation
- Peaking inductors

[Z. Lao et al. 1998]

# MESFET, HFET Implementation (3)

- EAM-driver (laser-driver) output stage:

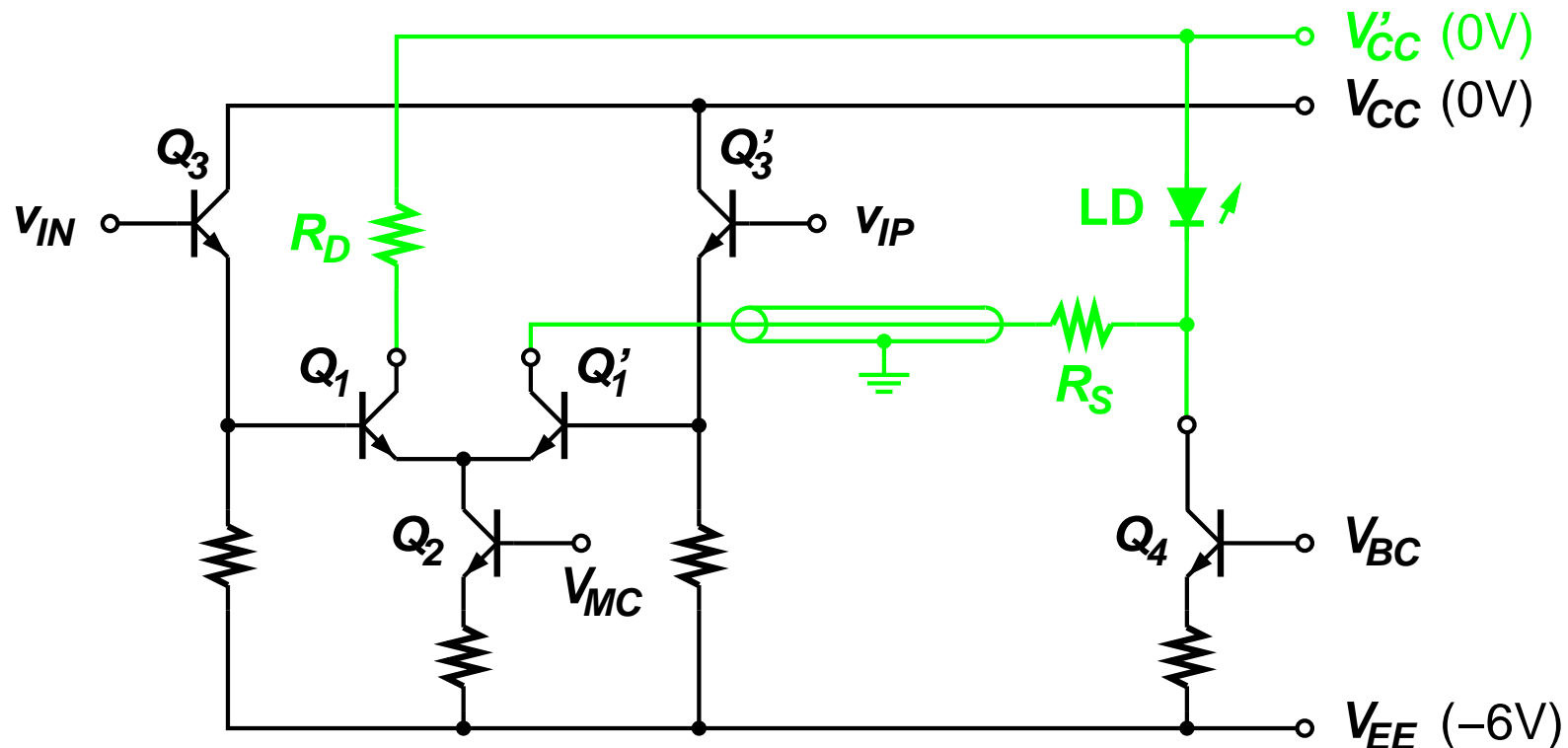


- Active back termination for transmission line  
→ Lower power dissipation than passive back termination
- $1/g_{m3}$  matches transmission line impedance

[H. Ransijn et al. 2001]

# BJT, HBT Implementation (1)

- Laser-driver output stage:



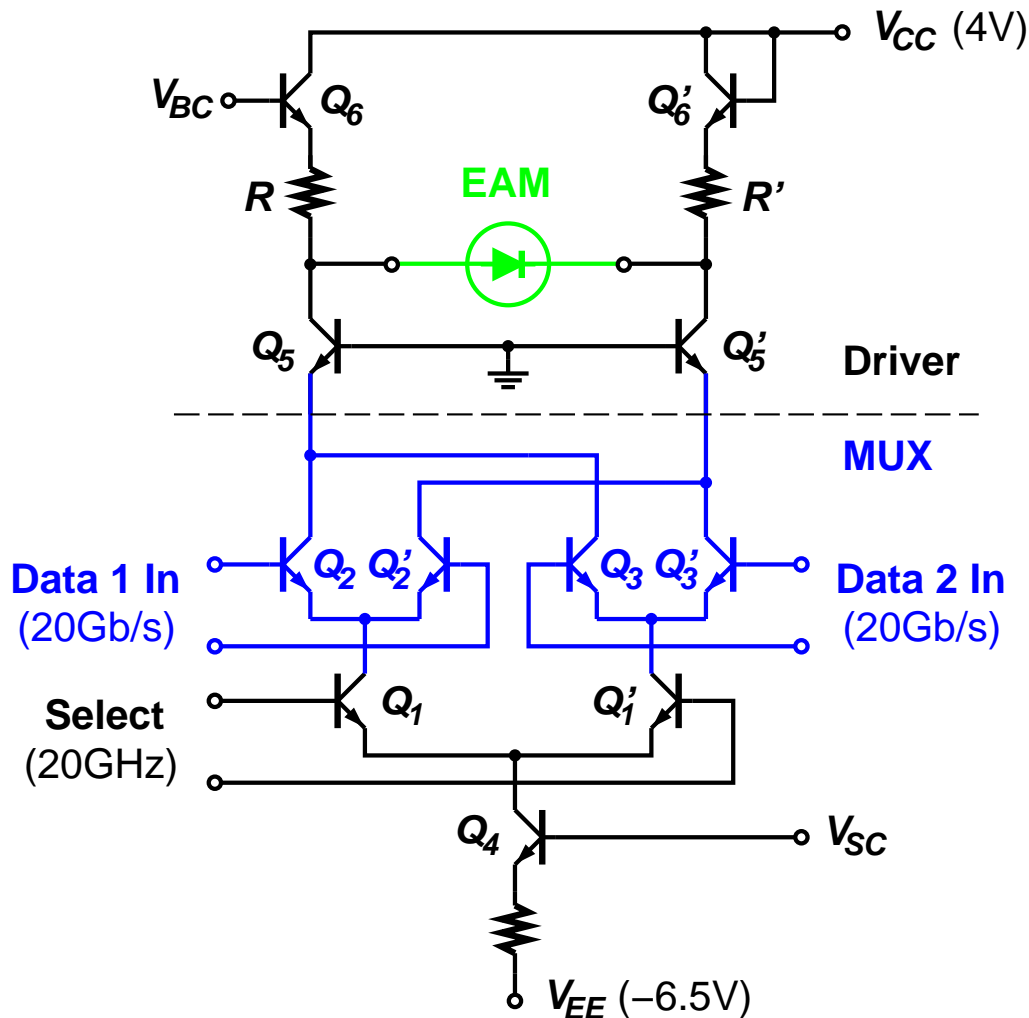
- Open-collector output (no back termination for TL)
- $V_{MC}$  controls modulation current
- $V_{BC}$  controls bias current

[H. Rein 1988]



# BJT, HBT Implementation (3)

- EAM driver with built-in MUX:

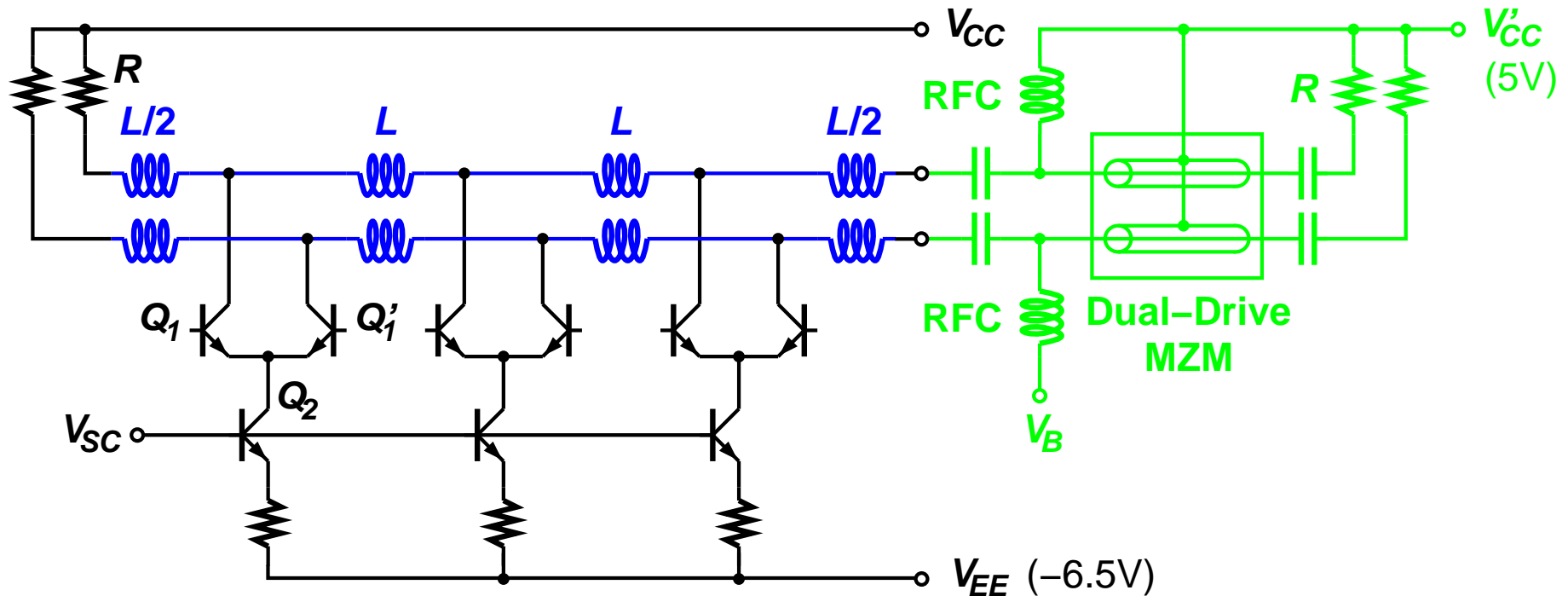


- Combine MUX and output stage of driver (power MUX)
- Differential drive  
→ Relaxes output swing, but symmetric EAM needed
- $V_{SC}$  controls voltage swing
- $V_{BC}$  controls bias voltage

[M. Moller et al. 1998]

# BJT, HBT Implementation (4)

- MZM-driver output stage:

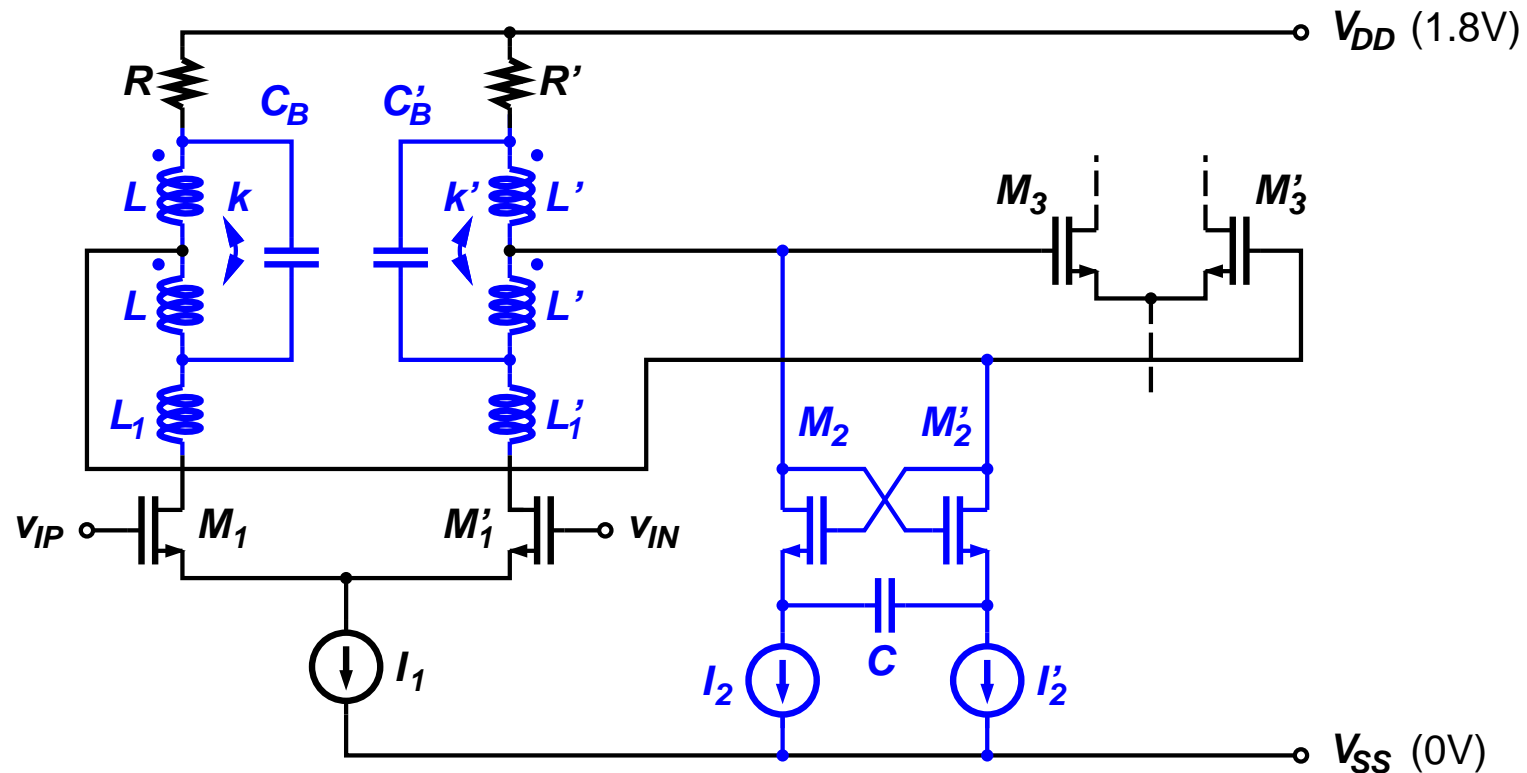


- Distributed output stage (input TL and EFs not shown)
- $V_{SC}$  controls voltage swing; use to inject pilot tone for ABC
- $V_B$  MZM bias voltage

[T. Wong et al. 1996]

# CMOS Implementation (1)

- Predriver for laser/modulator driver:

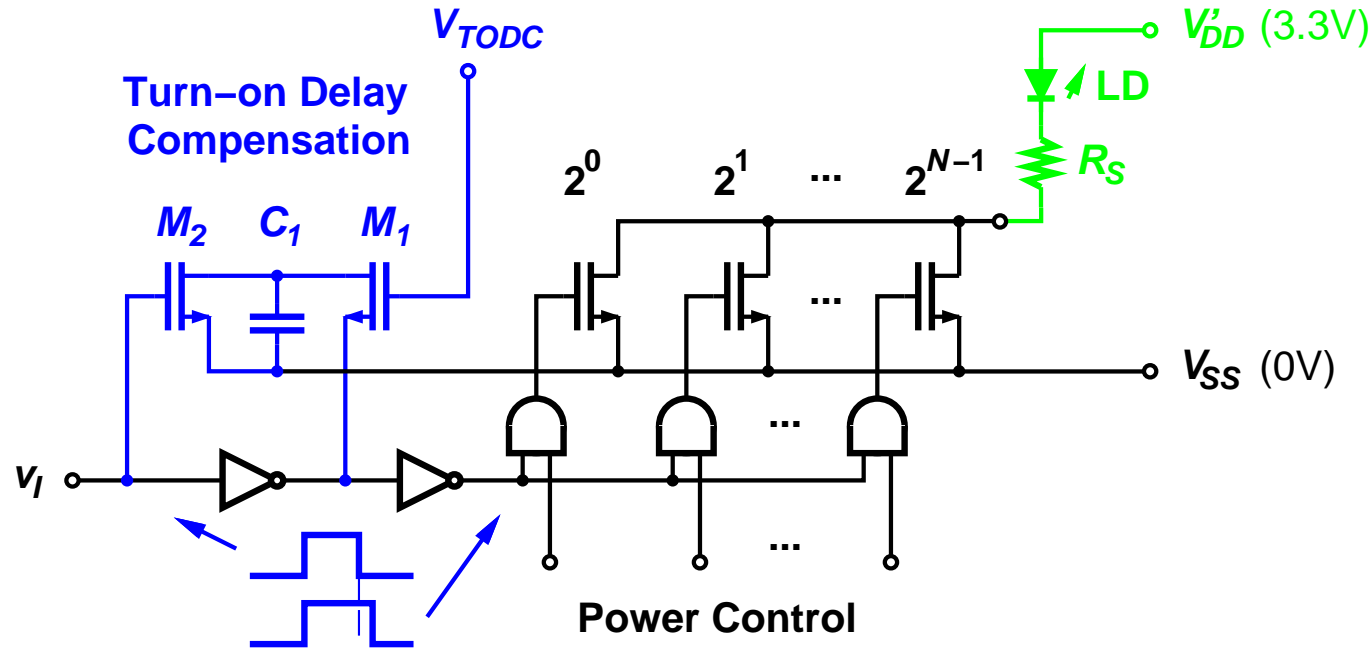


- T-coil networks to drive output stage
- Negative impedance converter (NIC) to cancel capacitance

[S. Galal et al. 2003]

# CMOS Implementation (2)

- Low-power burst-mode laser driver (155 Mb/s):



- No bias current; use turn-on delay compensation  
→ High extinction ratio, low power consumption
- Current switching instead of current steering  
→ Low power consumption
- Digital power control

[E. Sackinger et al. 2000]

# Research Directions

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- **Higher speed: 40 Gb/s and beyond**
  - Use heterostructure devices (HBTs and HFETs) based on compound semiconductors (SiGe, GaAs, InP)
- **Higher integration: OEIC**
  - Integrate driver & laser on same InP substrate (monolithic)
  - Integrate driver & laser using flip-chip technology
- **Lower power:**
  - Use low supply voltage
  - Avoid TL and matching resistors by copackaging driver & laser
- **Lower cost:**
  - Use mainstream technology (CMOS, BiCMOS)
  - Driver as part of a CMOS "system on a chip"