

**THE IMPACT OF DSP ON  
FUTURE GENERATION HDDS**

A SHORT COURSE

DEC. 1991

INSTITUTE FOR INFORMATION STORAGE  
TECHNOLOGY

**DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING**  
**IN DISC DRIVES**

**INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW**

GORDON HUGHES

*Seagate Technology*

December 1991

# DSP AND DISC DRIVE

## SUBSYSTEMS

- DIGITAL DATA STORAGE IS DSP

⇒ DIGITAL IN, DIGITAL OUT

- DRIVE EXTERNAL/INTERNAL INTERFACES ARE DIGITAL  
CONTROLLED BY DRIVE  $\mu$ PROCESSOR

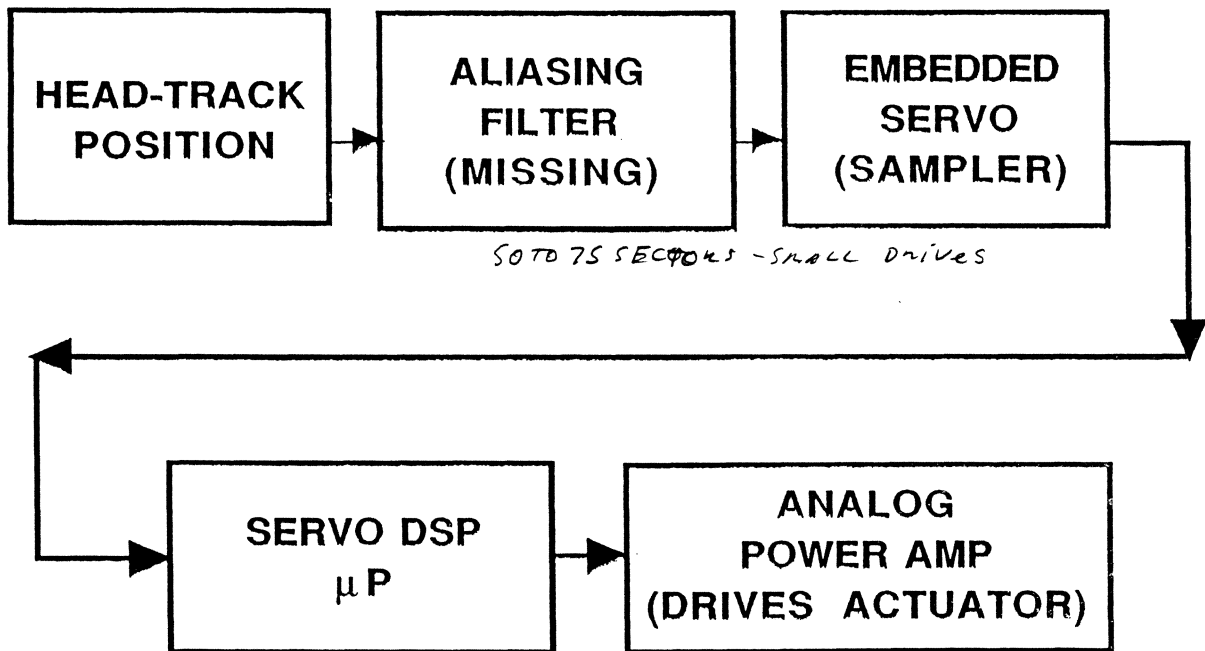
- EXCEPT THREE CLASSICALLY ANALOG  
INTERNAL SERVO SYSTEMS

⇒ HEAD SERVO TRACK SEEK AND POSITION HOLD

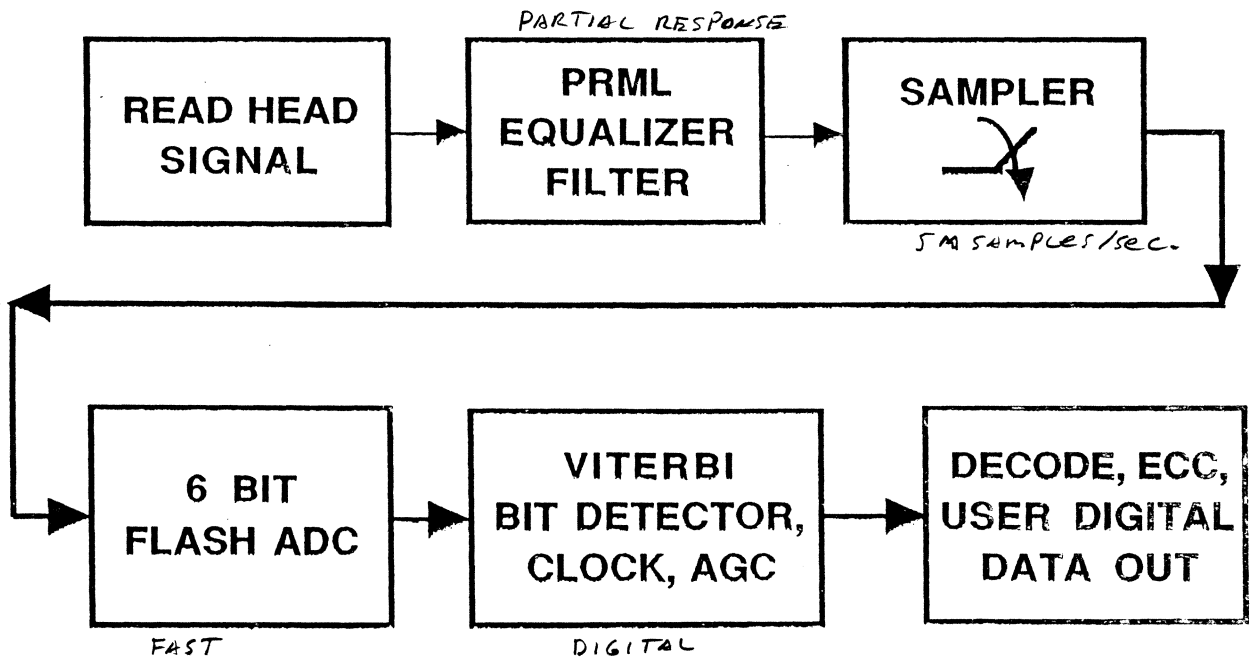
⇒ RECORDING (READ-WRITE) CHANNEL

⇒ DISC SPINDLE MOTOR SPEED SERVO

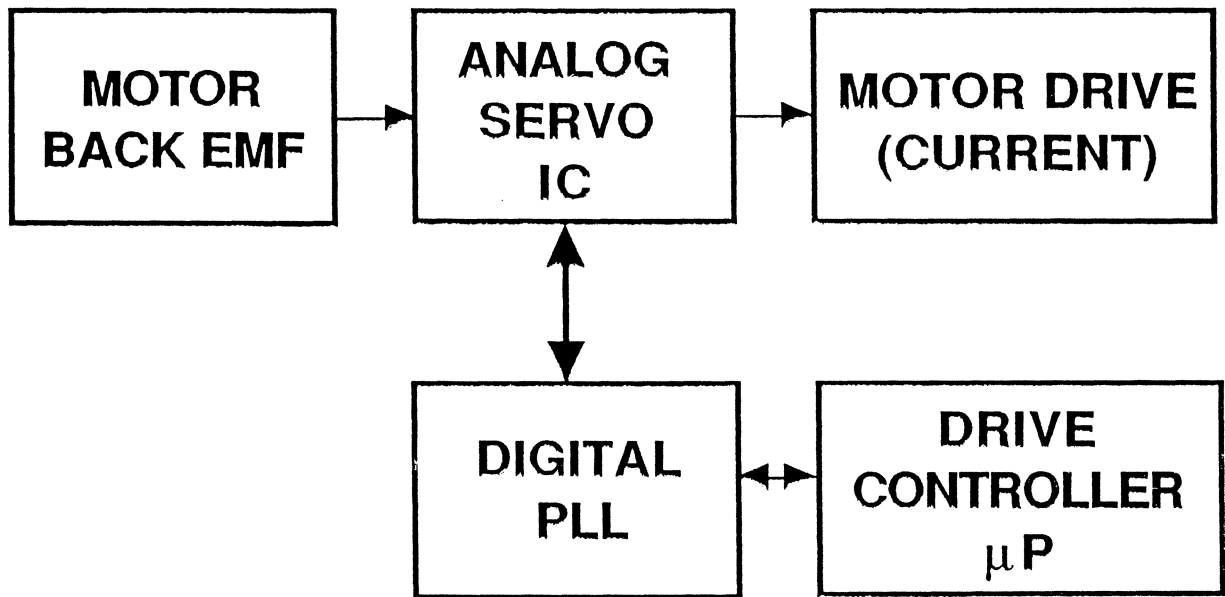
# DSP HEAD TRACKING SERVO



# DSP READ CHANNEL



# SPINDLE SPEED SERVO



# POTENTIAL DSP ADVANTAGES

- BETTER DRIVE PERFORMANCE SPECS,  
FROM TIGHTER WORST-CASE TOLERANCES TO  
COMPONENTS, TIME, AND TEMPERATURE.
- OR LESS STRINGENT COMPONENT TOLERANCES.
- MORE DRIVE I/O'S PER SECOND,  
FROM OFFLOADING SERVO CONTROL FUNCTIONS  
FROM DRIVE'S  $\mu$ PROCESSOR
- ADAPTIVE CONTROL ALGORITHMS,  
UTILIZING PERFORMANCE DATA,  
OVERLAPPED WITH DATA ACCESSING  
(NO OVERHEAD PENALTY)

# **DSP ADVANTAGES (con't)**

- **MANUFACTURABILITY:**

  - SELF CALIBRATION**

  - SELF TEST/DIAGNOSIS**

  - SELF TUNING FOR YIELD ENHANCEMENT**

- **DRIVE ERROR RECOVERY**

  - FROM OPERATING SHOCK,**

  - MIS-TRACKING,**

  - MIS-READ**

- **LOWER SERVO POWER CONSUMPTION,**

  - FROM OPTIMAL PLANT CONTROL MODELS**



# READ/WRITE CHANNELS

- **EXAMPLE: IBM'S DSP PRML CHANNELS**  
*MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD*

- **CONVENTIONAL CHANNEL DIGITALELEMENTS**

**USER DIGITAL DATA INPUT**

**COMPUTE AND APPEND ERROR CORRECTION CODE**

**ENCODE (END<sub>E</sub>AC)**

**(ANALOG WRITE-READ CHANNEL)**

**DECODE (END<sub>E</sub>AC)**

**DETECT AND CORRECT BURST ERRORS**

**USER DIGITAL DATA OUTPUT**

# **READ/WRITE CHANNELS (con't)**

## **CONVENTIONAL R/W CHANNEL ANALOGELEMENTS**

- **WRITE DRIVER**

**WRITE CURRENT**

**WRITE PRECOMPENSATION**

- **MAGNETIC RECORDING WRITE/READ PROCESS**

- **READ PREAMP**

- **READ EQUALIZATION AND NOISE FILTER**

**AGC CONTROL AND SETTING**

**BIT QUALIFIER (THRESHOLD LEVEL(S))**

**BIT TRANSITION DETECTOR**

**TIMING RECOVERY (PHASE LOCK LOOP)**

**DATA SEPARATION (TIMING SYNC)**

# R/W CHANNEL

## DSP POTENTIAL ADVANTAGES:

- CONVENTIONAL PEAK DETECTION CHANNELS  
FACE INABILITY TO GET NECESSARY 26 dB SNR,  
*100 MBITS / SQ IN*  
AT HIGH MBITS/IN<sup>2</sup> AREAL DENSITIES  
*.54 V/1/2 NOISE LEVEL IN HEADS IN R/W IC'S.*
- ...ESPECIALLY 65 mm AND SMALLER DRIVES
- *TELEPHONE* COMMUNICATIONS CHANNELS OPERATE AT 15-20 dB,  
USING HEAVY ERROR CORRECTION (10<sup>-4</sup> RAW BER)
- IBM'S SOLUTION IS DSP PRML,  
(PARTIAL RESPONSE MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD)
- PARTIAL RESPONSE EQUALIZATION  
ALLOWS BITS TO BE PACKED CLOSER TOGETHER,  
BY ALLOWING CONTROLLED INTERFERENCE.
- A PENALTY IS THAT EQUALIZATION MUST BE PRECISE  
=> USE DSP DIGITAL FILTER EQUALIZER  
*NEED 3% ACCURACY - TUNABLE TO COMPENSATE FOR HEAD/HEAD  
VARIATIONS.*

## R/W CHANNEL DSP ADVANTAGES (con't)

- A SAMPLED VITERBI BIT DETECTOR IS OPTIMAL  
=> A DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING METHOD  
*PEAK LOCATION NOT COHERENT*
- CLOCKING AND AGC CAN ALSO BE DONE IN THE DSP  
....(PR'S HIGH BIT DENSITY DESTROYS THE PEAKS USED FOR CONVENTIONAL CLOCKING)
- DSP READ CHANNEL RESULTS IN:
  - HIGHER BPI, BY USING PARTIAL RESPONSE.
  - HIGHER TPI, SINCE VITERBI ALLOWS LOWER PLAYBACK AMPLITUDES (NARROW TRACKS)
- => HIGHER AREAL DENSITY (MBITS/IN<sup>2</sup>)  
IBM IS SAYING 15-30% FOR FIRST GENERATION  
EVEN MORE LATER *150 MBITS/IN<sup>2</sup> DENSITY*

# HEAD/TRACK SERVOS

- SERVO INPUT: HEAD-TRACK POSITION:  
INTEGER TRACK NUMBER (GRAY CODE),  
PLUS FRACTIONAL TRACK ERROR
- SERVO OUTPUTS:  
ACCELERATION COMMAND (ACTUATOR CURRENT),  
SEEK COMPLETE, SEEK ERROR, HEAD OFF TRACK  
*IMBEDDED SERVO WALK - NO TRACK WHILE WRITING.*
- CONTINUOUS SERVO SIGNAL IN LARGER DRIVES
- SAMPLED SERVO COMMON IN SMALL DRIVES (3-5 KHZ)
- NOTE: SERVO SYSTEM SAMPLING OCCURS BEFORE ANY  
ANTI-ALIASING FILTER POSSIBLE.  
THIS CAN ALIAS HEAD FLEXURE 3-7 KHZ RESONANCE  
INTO SERVO PASSBAND.  
*HEAD/GIMBAL RESONANCE  
USE NOTCH FILTER + TIGHTLY  
CONTROLLED RESONANCE SPEC. OF HEAD*  
MEANS RESONANCE MUST BE HELD WITHIN LIMITS, *ASST.*  
MINIMUM RESONANCE SPEC NO LONGER ENOUGH.

# **PLANT MODEL ("OBSERVER")**

- **A POWERFUL CONCEPT FOR DSP**
- **CAN EFFECTIVELY ALLOW SAMPLED SERVO TO APPROACH SEEK/SETTLE PERFORMANCE OF A CONTINUOUS SERVO, WITHOUT THE WASTED DISC SURFACE OVERHEAD, AND MECH/THERMAL MISREGISTRY PENALTY.**
- **CAN REDUCE OFFTRACK DATA RISK CAUSED BY MECHANICAL SHOCK/VIBRATION**  
  
**(VALIDATE SERVO PES SAMPLES AGAINST OBSERVER PREDICTION)**

# DSP PLANT MODEL (con't)

- CONVENTIONAL LINEAR FREQUENCY DOMAIN ANALYSIS MODELS SECOND ORDER PLANT MECHANICAL SYSTEM, INCLUDING CRITICAL ARM-HEAD RESONANCES

- STATE VARIABLES ARE HEAD POSITION AND VELOCITY

- DSP TIME DOMAIN OBSERVER

PREDICTS PRESENT STATE.

MINIMIZES SERVO LAGS,

ALLOWS NONLINEAR ELEMENTS.

EXAMPLES:

ACTUATOR FORCE CONSTANT V.S. POSITION

HEAD-ARM SETTTLING TIME VARIATIONS

# **DSP PLANT MODEL (con't)**

- **SERVO ERROR MODELS ALLOW SELF CAL/ADAPTATION:**

- 1) **ACTUATOR FORCE CONSTANT,  
OVER TIME, TEMPERATURE, TRACK (NONLINEAR)  
DRIVE CURRENT SATURATION (NONLINEAR)**
- 2) **ACTUATOR BIAS FORCE OVER TRACK POSITION  
(FROM HEAD FLAT CABLE, WINDAGE) (LINEAR)**
- 3) **INDIVIDUAL HEAD THERMAL OFFSETS (LINEAR)**

- **REPETITIVE RUNOUT ELIMINATION POSSIBLE**

**LINEAR FEEDFORWARD CONTROL,  
BY RUNOUT-LEARNING DSP FILTER**

- **ADAPTIVE SEEK ALGORITHM:**

**MONITOR SEEK SETTLING TIME DURING DATA ACCESS  
TO MINIMIZE TOTAL SEEK TIME AND OFFTRACK**



# DISC SPINDLE SERVO

- **CONTROLS DISC SPIN MOTOR:**

**3-Ø BRUSHLESS PERMANENT MAGNET MOTOR,**

**HAS NO FEEDBACK SENSORS** *(SPACE LIMITATION IN SMALL DRIVES  
LIMITED TO 3600 RPM BY LIMITED MOTOR  
TORQUE + SV ONLY REQUIREMENT.)*

**(NO HALL SENSORS)**

- **EXAMPLE DRIVE SPINDLE SERVO:**

**RPM IS PERFECTLY FREQUENCY LOCKED,**

**USING DISC POSITION PHASE LOCK LOOP.**

**POSITION NOISE SIGMA  $\approx$  50 NSEC** *- ~ NO GAP AT END OF ROTATION.*

# **DISC SPINDLE SERVO (con't)**

## **CONVENTIONAL DIGITAL SERVO ELEMENTS:**

- **A DIGITAL PHASE LOCK LOOP**
- **USES WRITE CLOCK CRYSTAL AS POSITION REFERENCE**
- **USES INPUT FEEDBACK SIGNAL FROM MOTOR BACK EMF  
MEASURED OFF THE TWO UNDRIVEN PHASES:  
THE TIMES WHEN THE PHASE VOLTAGES ARE EQUAL.  
=> AN APERIODIC DIGITAL SAMPLED SIGNAL,**
- **GENERATES ANALOG COMMAND VOLTAGE  
TO COMMAND MOTOR ACCELERATION PUMP UP/DOWN**

# **DISC SPINDLE SERVO (con't)**

## **CONVENTIONAL ANALOG SERVO ELEMENTS**

- **START AND COMMUTATION LOGIC**
- **ANALOG FEEDBACK STABILIZATION LOOP**
- **INPUT IS DIGITAL PLL ACCELERATION COMMAND.**
- **OUTPUT IS SPINDLE MOTOR COIL CURRENT,  
FROM 3-Ø ANALOG POWER DRIVERS.**
- **INTERFACE TO DRIVE  $\mu$ P MINIMAL.  
POSITION PHASE ERROR CAN BE INTERROGATED.  
SPINDLE EXTERNAL SYNC SIGNAL (OPTIONAL)**
- **IS THIS AN ERSATZ DSP?  
...ITS SAMPLED, PARTLY DIGITAL  
...BUT SAMPLING TIMES ARE APERIODIC,**



# Discrete-time and Digital Signal Processing

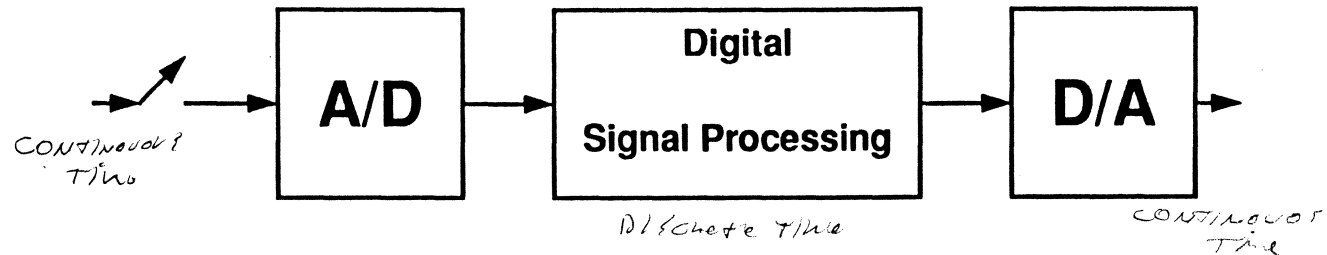
David G. Messerschmitt

**Discrete-time and digital signal processing are increasingly prevalent, due to many factors. Increasingly, analog signal processing is employed only at the very highest speeds where digital solutions are not available.**

## Objectives:

- **What are the differences and similarities between discrete-time and continuous-time? How do we convert between the two?**
- **What are the differences and similarities between digital and analog?**
- **What are the advantages and disadvantages of digital and discrete-time?**

# Typical Configuration



**Oversimplified!**

**Basic elements:**

- **Sampler to convert continuous-time to discrete-time**
- **Analog-to-digital converter to convert from analog to digital**
- **Signal processing implemented in the digital and discrete-time domain**
- **Digital-to-analog converter to convert from digital to analog**

**Also required are anti-aliasing and reconstruction low-pass filters**





# Comparison of Continuous- and Discrete-Time Signals

Different time variables:  $x(t)$  and  $x[n]$

Both can be periodic:

$$\bullet x(t + T) = x(t)$$

*Time*

$$\bullet x[n + N] = x[n]$$

*Samples*

Sinusoids exist (and are very important):

$$\bullet x(t) = \cos(\omega_0 t)$$

$$\bullet x[n] = \cos(\lambda_0 n)$$

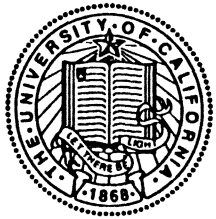
Continuous-time (but not discrete-time) sinusoids are always periodic:

$$\bullet \cos\left(\omega_0 \cdot \left(t + \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0}\right)\right) = \cos(\omega_0 \cdot t)$$

$$\bullet \cos(\lambda_0 \cdot (n + N)) = \cos(\lambda_0 \cdot n) \text{ for } \lambda_0 = \frac{2\pi}{N} \cdot k$$

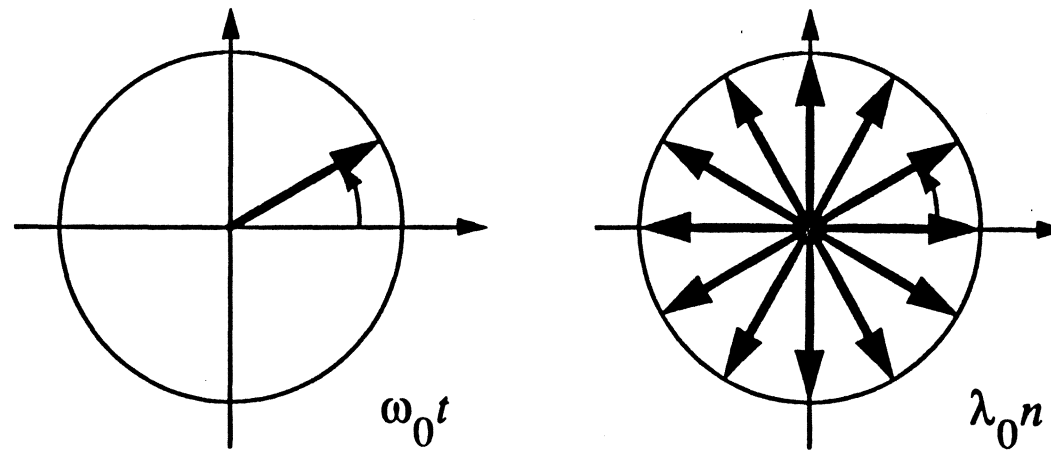
# Why Discrete-Time Sinusoids are Not Always Periodic

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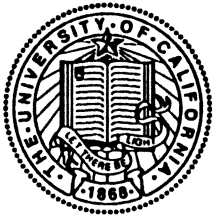


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Represent sinusoid as real part of complex exponential  $e^{j\omega_0 t}$  or  $e^{j\lambda_0 n}$ :



Discrete-time vector moves in discrete steps, only retraces the same points for specific values of  $\lambda_0$



## Discrete-Time Sinusoids Are Periodic in Frequency

When we increase the frequency by  $2\pi$ , a discrete-time sinusoid does not change:

$$\bullet \cos((\lambda_0 + 2\pi) \cdot n) = \cos(\lambda_0 \cdot n)$$

The interesting range of frequencies is an interval of length  $2\pi$

$$\bullet \lambda_0 \in [-\pi, \pi]$$

This is a form of frequency aliasing

For example, frequency  $\lambda_0 = 2\pi$  results in the same samples as frequency  $\lambda_0 = 0$  (d.c.)





## Some Examples of Frequency Aliasing

$$\cos(\omega_0 t) \xrightarrow{n \cdot T} \cos(\lambda_0 \cdot n)$$
$$\lambda_0 = \omega_0 \cdot T$$

Increasing  $\lambda_0$  by  $2\pi$  ( $\omega_0$  by  $\frac{2\pi}{T}$ ) results in the same samples!

Sampling is not reversible: many input continuous-time signals can result in the very same samples!

Normal response is to limit input frequencies to half the sampling

rate:  $|\omega_0| < \frac{\pi}{T}$

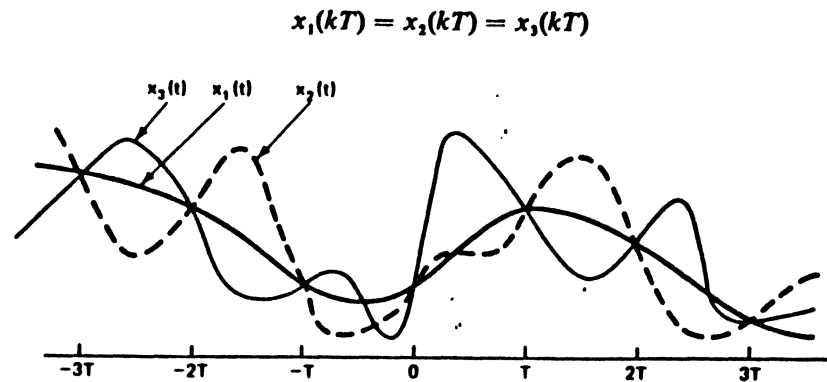
# Some Examples of Frequency Aliasing

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Several continuous-time waveforms have the same samples:



However, there is only one waveform bandlimited to  $\frac{\pi}{T}$  with that set of samples (the others all have higher frequency components)

LIMIT TO BW =  $\frac{1}{2}$  SAMPLE RATE.  
NYQUIST RATE =  $\frac{1}{2}$  SAMPLE RATE.

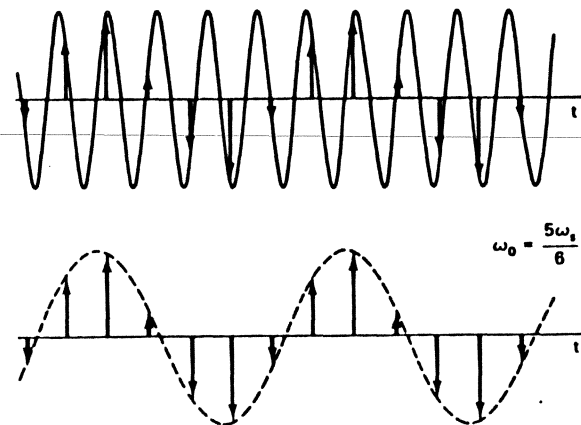
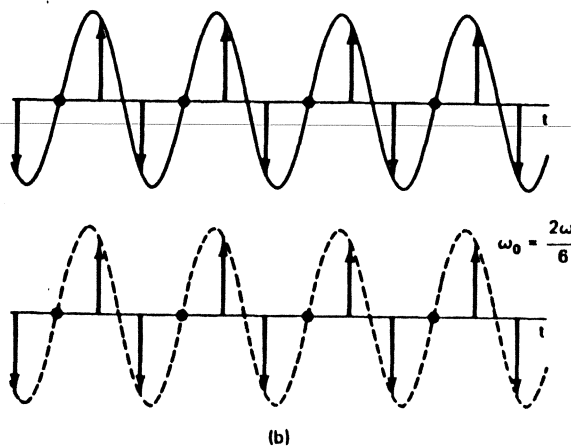
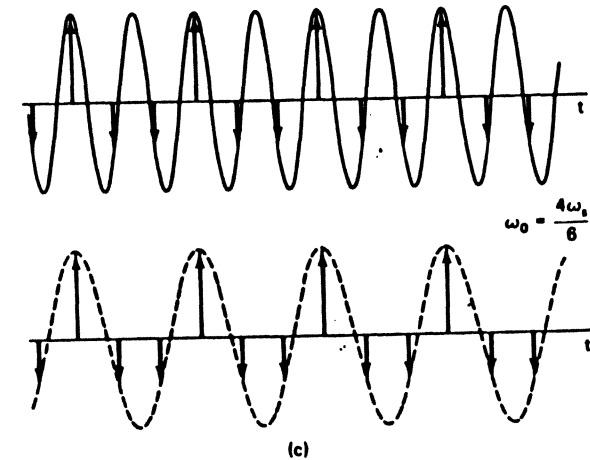
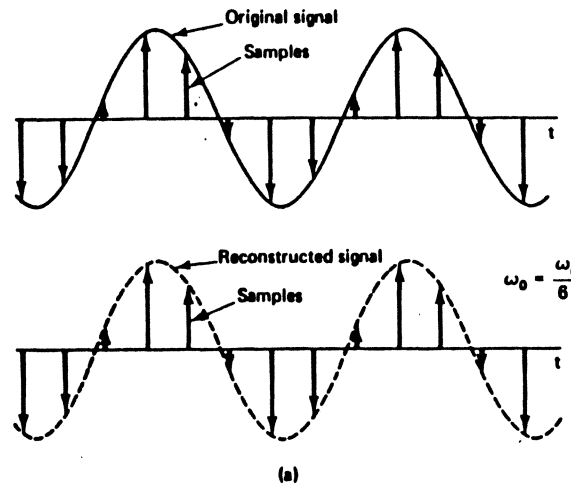
# Some Examples of Frequency Aliasing

*Need 3 samples / Period for correct Record*

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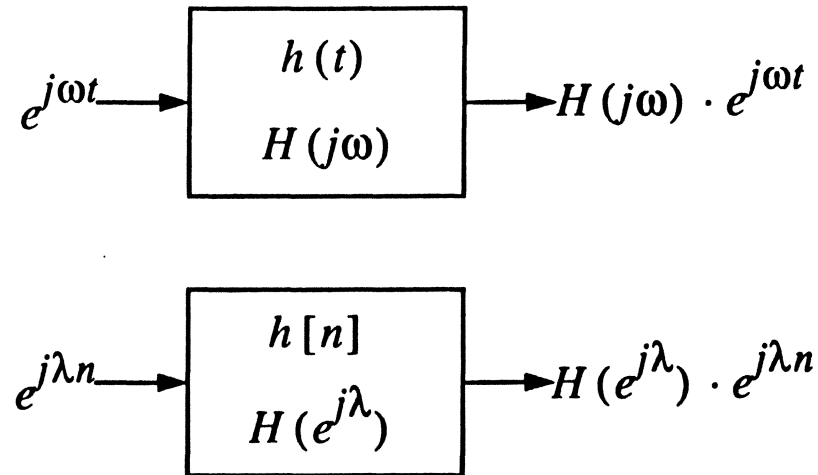
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## Digital Filters (LTI Systems)

*LINEAR TIME INVARIANT*



**These functions  $H(j\omega)$  and  $H(e^{j\lambda})$  are known as the frequency response,  $h(t)$  and  $h[n]$  are the impulse responses**

**Input complex exponentials of a given frequency result in output complex exponential at the same frequency**

**Equivalent effect on sinusoids is an amplitude and phase shift**

**$H(e^{j\lambda})$  is periodic in  $2\pi$ : Only range  $|\lambda| < \pi$  is of interest**



## Two Types of Implementable Digital Filters

### Finite impulse response (FIR):

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \cdot x[n-k]$$

$$H(e^{j\lambda}) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \cdot e^{-j\lambda k}$$

### Infinite impulse response (IIR):

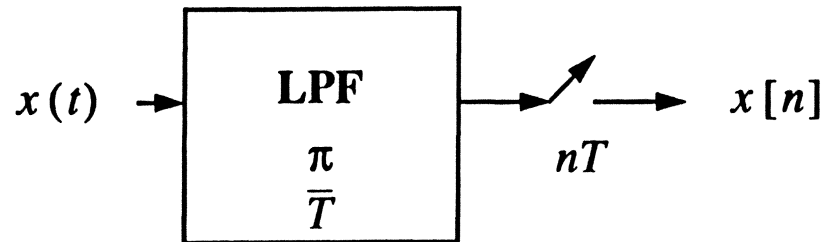
$$y[n] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \cdot x[n-k] - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \cdot y[n-k]$$

$$H(e^{j\lambda}) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k \cdot e^{-j\lambda k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k \cdot e^{-j\lambda k}}$$

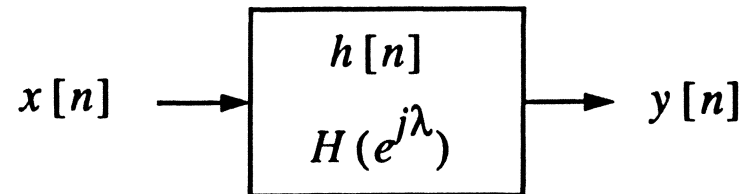


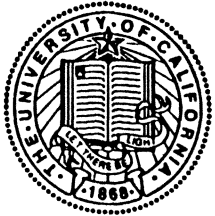
## Continuous-Time Filter Implemented in Discrete Time

Sample, preceded by anti-alias lowpass filter:



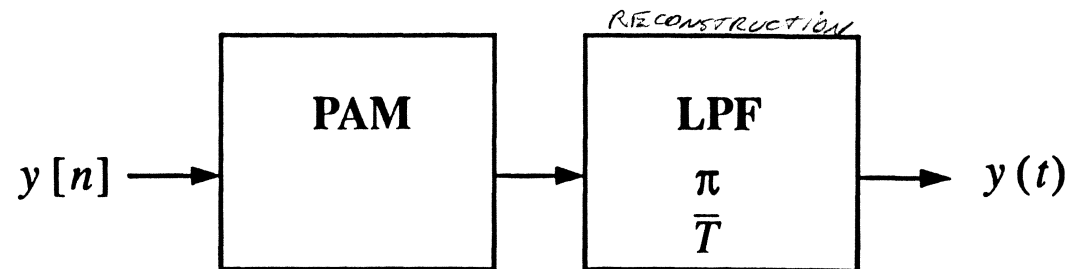
Discrete-time filter:





## Continuous-Time Filter Implemented in Discrete Time (Con't)

Reconstruct continuous-time signal:



*APPROXIMATE "D400P" CAN BE  
COMPLETED WITH EARL BOOTH  
METHOD WITHIN 4000.*

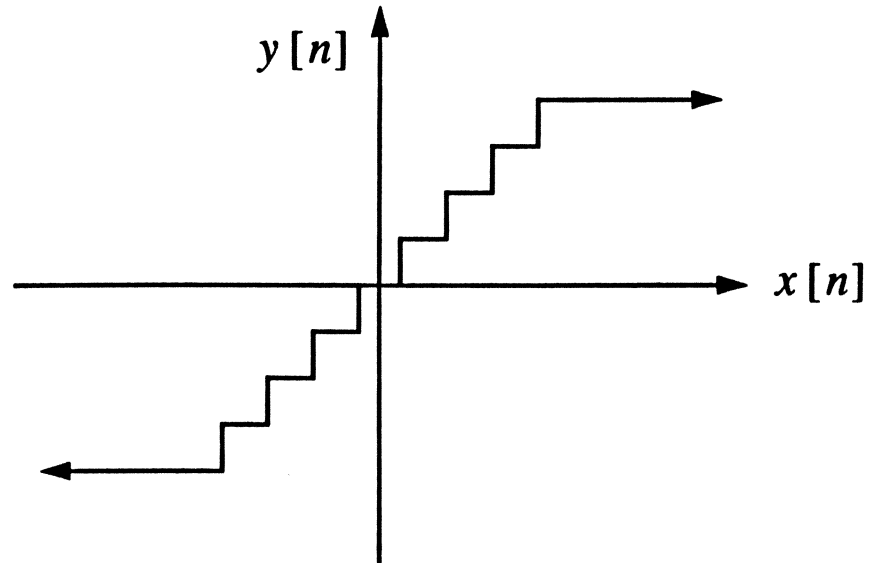
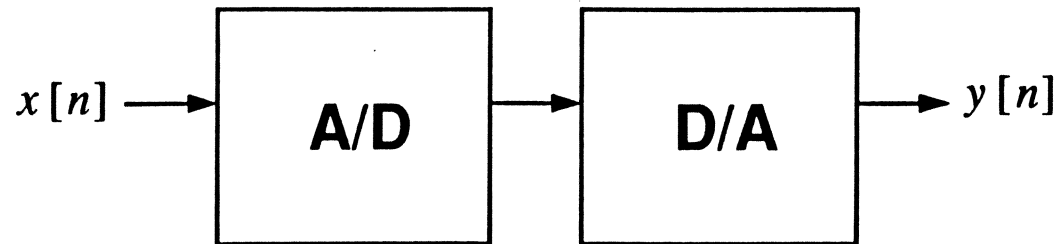
**Pulse-amplitude generator produces sequence of pulses  
amplitude-modulated by  $y[n]$**

**Lowpass filter reconstructs continuous-time signal by  
interpolation**

**Within the bandwidth  $\frac{\pi}{T}$ ,  $Y(j\omega) = H(e^{j\lambda T})$**



## Quantization Distortion

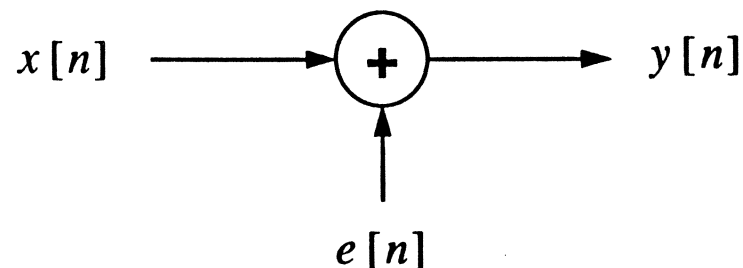


For  $K$  bit quantizer, there are  $2^K$  quantization intervals, with  
overload point at  $2^{K-1} \cdot \Delta$  with step-size  $\Delta$





## Quantization Distortion is Often Modeled as Additive White Noise



The successive samples of “quantization error” are approximately uncorrelated if the input signal is “random”

For step-size  $\Delta$ , the quantization error power is approximately

$\frac{\Delta^2}{12}$ , or easily related to  $K$  and the overload point

In contrast to thermal noise, quantization distortion goes away when the signal is absent!



## Effect of Quantization Error

### Added quantization noise at A/D converter: a price to be paid for A/D conversion

- Control by adjusting precision (number of bits)

### Roundoff errors in internal computations

- Control by adjusting precision of internal arithmetic, which is typically greater than input/output

### Overflow problems due to overload point of quantizer

- Limits dynamic range
- Scaling is big issue in fixed point arithmetic
- Floating point arithmetic increases the dynamic range dramatically

### Change in filter frequency response due to quantization of coefficients

- Coefficient quantization normally taken account of in filter design



## Some Advantages of Digital Systems

**Highest-density IC technologies (based on DRAMs) are primarily digital: poor or non-existent capacitors, etc.**

**Regenerative property of digital systems is extremely important in storage and transmission applications (avoids the “multiple generation problem” of analog)**

**Accuracy can be increased arbitrarily by increasing the precision of the arithmetic**

**Accuracy is forever: no component drift or temperature variations**

**Digital systems are deterministic: testing and fault detection are much easier**

**Design abstraction makes complexity easier to manage, reduces designer skill level required (analog designers difficult to find)**

- Programmable solutions

**Much more complex algorithms are feasible**

# Design Abstraction in Digital Systems

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<b>Program</b>
<b>Instruction Set</b>
<b>Architecture</b>
<b>Register</b>
<b>Logic Element</b>
<b>Circuit</b>
<b>Device</b>

**Typically designers are split into three semi-independent groups:  
logic/circuit/device, instruction set/architecture/register,  
programmers**

**Much higher complexity designs become feasible**



## Some Disadvantages of Digital Discrete-Time Systems

**In a continuous-time world, A/D/A conversion incurs an extra cost**

**Quantization error is incurred at the A/D converter and internal to the computations (although it can be controlled to whatever extent necessary)**

**Highest-speed systems must be implemented in analog**

- A/D converters and multipliers are typical bottlenecks
- Example: microwave RF

**Design effort expended in finite precision issues (quantization, dynamic range)**

**Synchronization is major issue, particularly as the signal propagation times increase in relation to the clock cycle**



## **Some Examples of DSP Commercial Applications**

**Digital compact disk**

**Compressed digital television (NTSC, HDTV)**

**Digital television receivers**

**Digital audio broadcast**

**Digital transmission and switching in telephony**

**Digital cellular telephone**

**Voiceband data modems**

**Compressed video conferencing**



## Digital Filters

December 14, 1991

Hemant K. Thapar

IBM Corporation  
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Telephone 284-0308



## TOPICS

- Why Consider Digital Filters
- Filter Design Problem
- Digital Filter Design Tools
- Digital Filter Design Methods
- Applications

# 1. WHY CONSIDER DIGITAL FILTERS

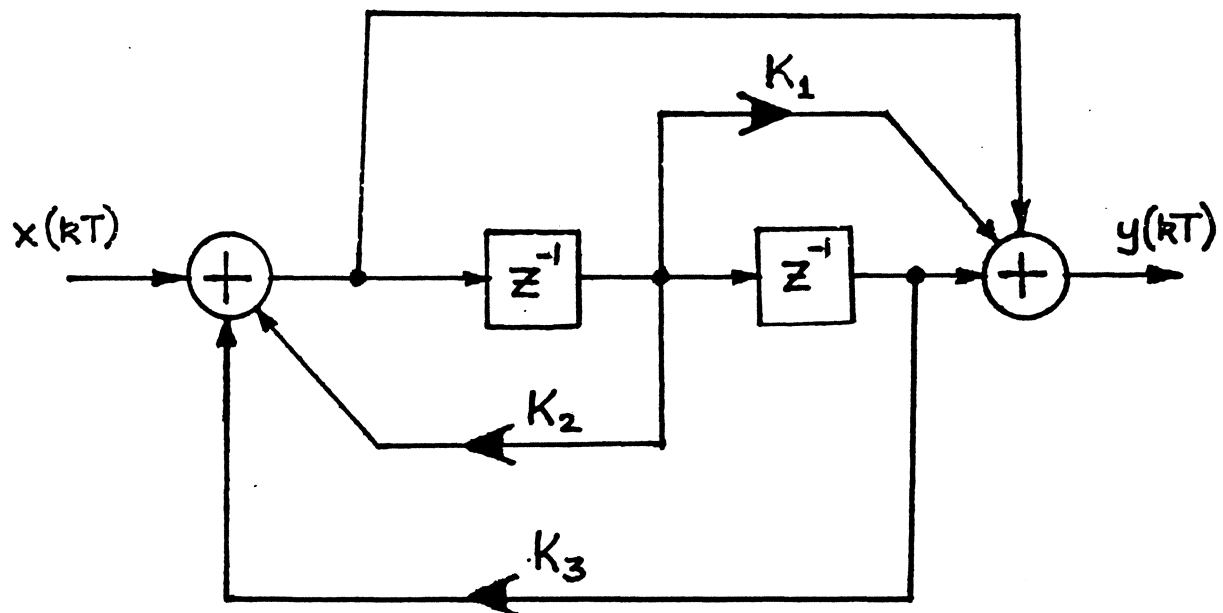
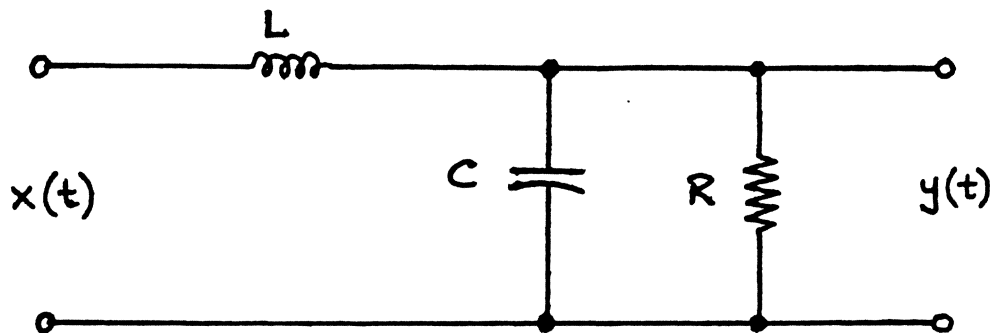
- Component tolerances (Accuracy)
- End-of-life component tolerances (Reproducibility)
- Implementation of Time-Varying Filters

    Presettable filters

    Adaptive filters

- Size
- Power Dissipation
- Control of transient response

## Analog and Digital Components

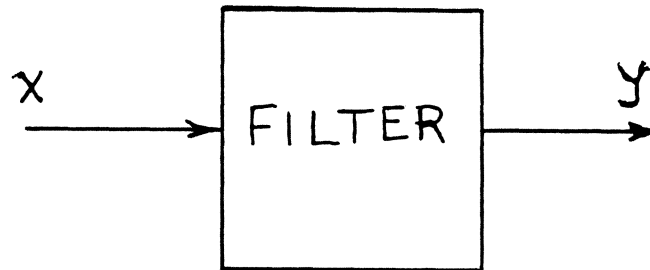


*A Second-order Bandpass Filter*

## TOPICS

- Why Consider Digital Filters
- Filter Design Problem
- Digital Filter Design Tools
- Digital Filter Design Methods
- Applications

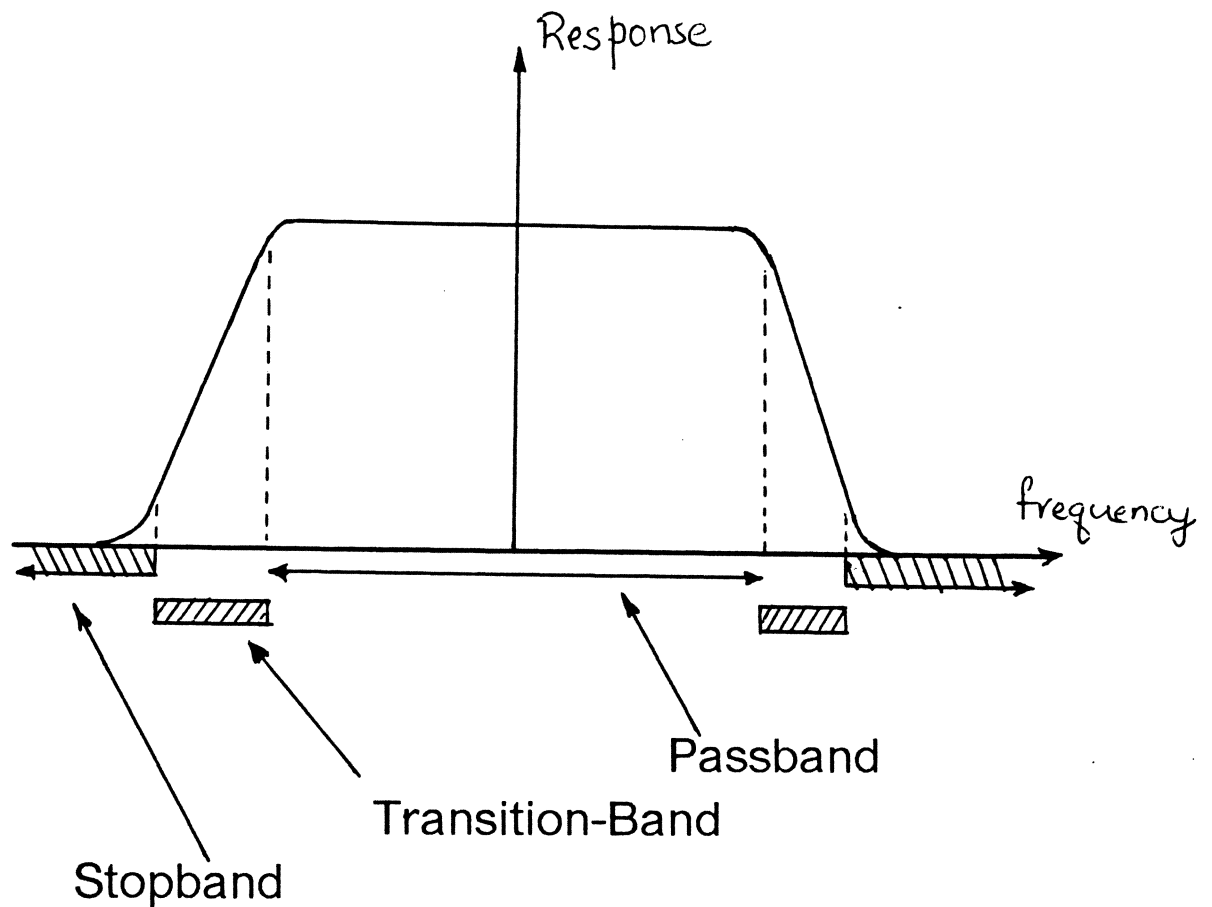
## 2. FILTER DESIGN PROBLEM



### Motivation

- Improve quality of the output signal:  
Remove noise, interference, and distortion.
- Process or extract information from the input:  
Estimation and prediction.

- Some notion of frequency discrimination is involved:



- Linkage between time-domain and frequency-domain behavior:

$$y(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} Y(\omega) d\omega$$

## Analog and Digital Frequencies

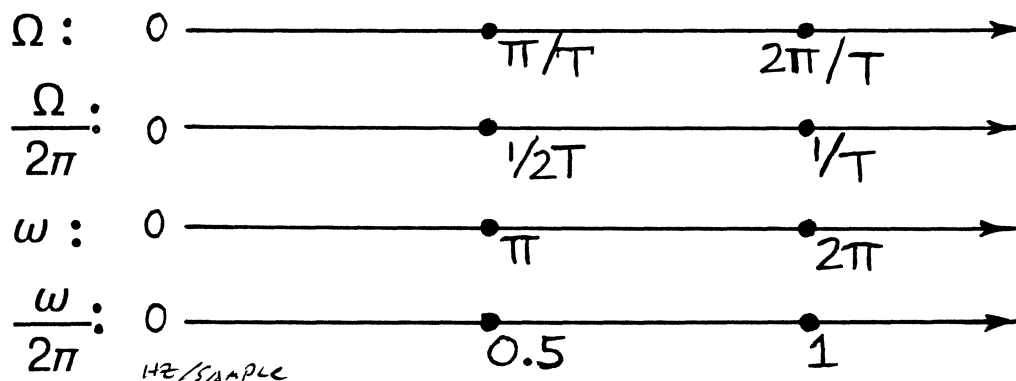
- Sampling of the analog signal

$$x_a(t) = A \cos(\Omega t + \theta)$$

produces

$$x(kT) = A \cos(\Omega kT + \theta) \triangleq A \cos(\omega k + \theta)$$

- $\Omega$  rad/sec  $\iff \omega = \Omega T$  rad/sample
- Relationship between analog and digital frequencies:



- When the Nyquist sampling theorem is satisfied, the digital frequency is always less than  $\pi$  radians; that is

$$\omega = \Omega T < \pi$$

## TOPICS

- Why Consider Digital Filters
- Filter Design Problem
- Digital Filter Design Tools
- Digital Filter Design Methods
- Applications



### 3. Filter Design Tools

- Restrict the allowed structures to:

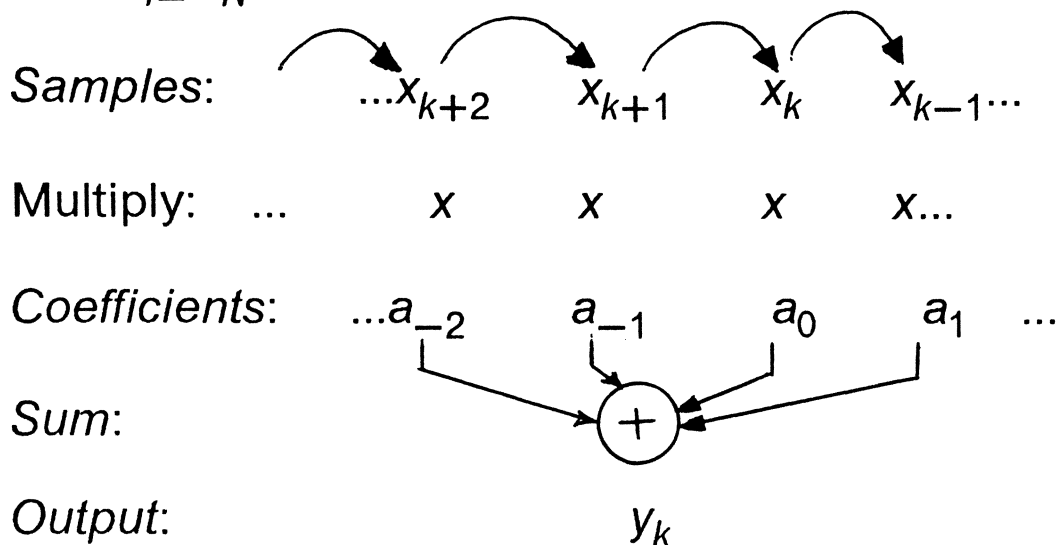
Non-Recursive Filters

Recursive Filters

#### Non-Recursive Filters

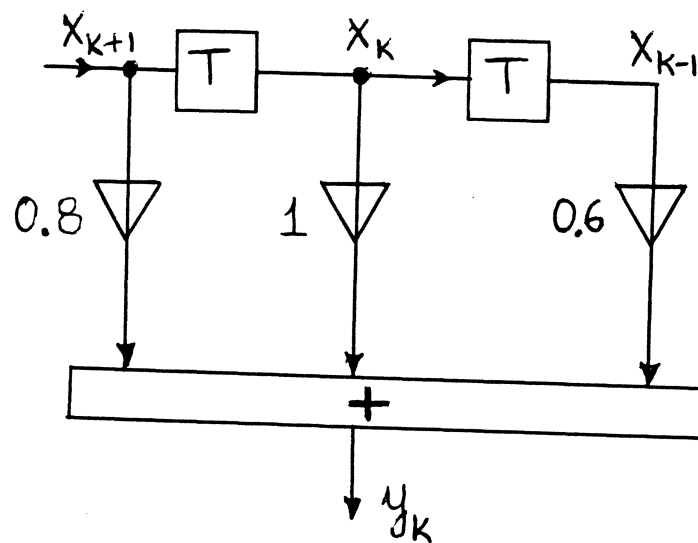
- Output is formed by linearly combining a sequence of inputs:

$$y_k = \sum_{i=-N}^N a_i x_{k-i}$$



Example:  $a_{-1} = 0.8$ ,  $a_0 = 1$ ,  $a_1 = 0.6$

$$\Rightarrow y_k = 0.8x_{k+1} + x_k + 0.6x_{k-1}$$



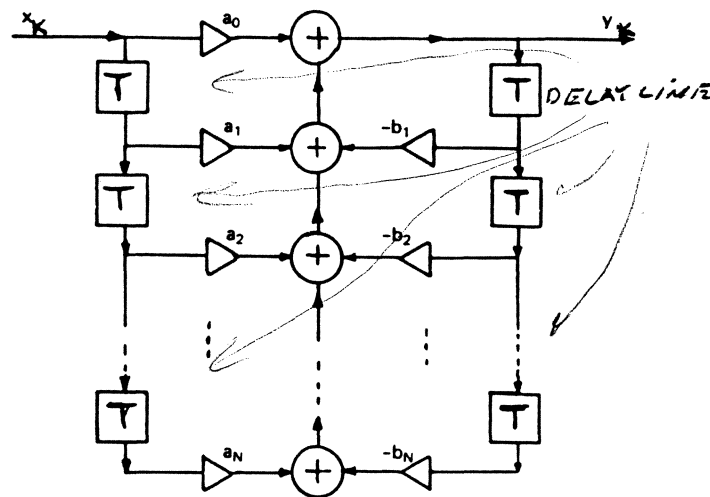
**Recursive Filters**

*UNSTABLE - SINUSOIDAL OUTPUT UNDESIRABLE*

- Output is formed by linearly combining sequences of inputs and previous outputs:

$$y_k = \sum_{i=0}^N a_i x_{k-i} + \sum_{l=1}^M b_l y_{k-l}$$

- Output at time k depends upon the previous outputs. Therefore, initial conditions must be known before the output due to the first input can be computed.



*CAN NOT BE OPTIMIZED.*

## Unit Pulse Response

- Response for a unit pulse input, defined as:

$$x_k = \begin{cases} 1, & k = 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Nonrecursive Filters:

*VERY STABLE, CAN BE OPTIMIZED*

$$h_k \triangleq y_k = \sum_{i=-N}^N a_i x_{k-i}$$

$$= a_k$$

- The unit pulse response is a finite sequence of  $(2N+1)$  terms. Such filters are, therefore, often referred to as FINITE IMPULSE RESPONSE (FIR) filters.

---

**Recursive Filters:**

$$h_k \triangleq y_k = \sum_{i=0}^N a_i x_{k-i} + \sum_{l=1}^M b_l y_{k-l}$$

- Even though there are a finite number of  $a_k$ s, the second term can continue to generate an output long after the first term is zero. Such filters are, therefore, often referred to as INFINITE IMPULSE RESPONSE (IIR) filters.

## Properties

- Homogeneity and Superposition:

$$\text{if } x_k \Rightarrow y_k \text{ and } s_k \Rightarrow r_k$$

$$\text{then } fx_k + gs_k \Rightarrow fy_k + gr_k$$

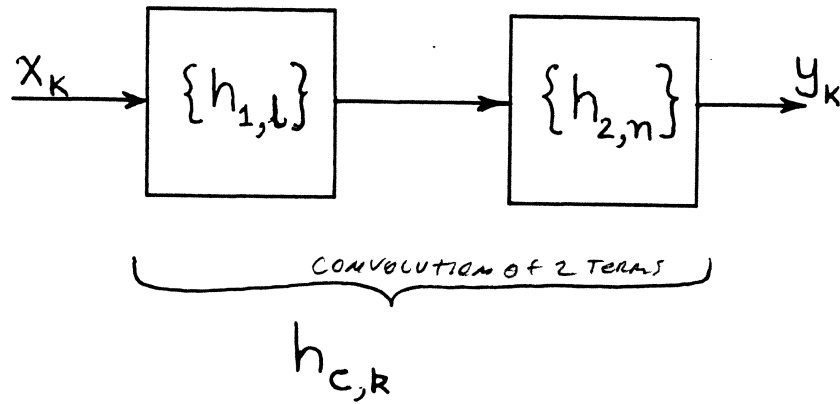
- Shift-invariance:

$$\text{if } x_k \Rightarrow y_k \text{ then } x_{k-l} \Rightarrow y_{k-l}$$

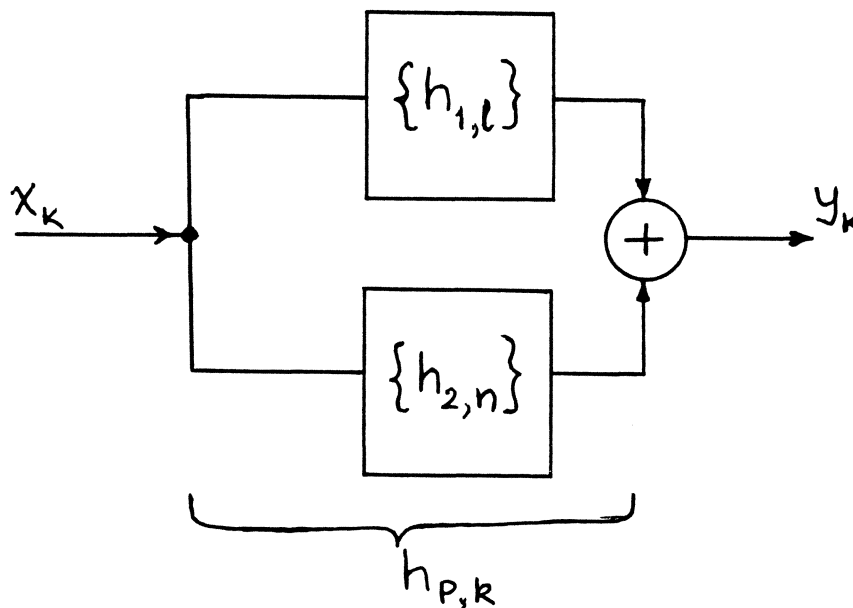
- Filters that admit homogeneity, superposition, and shift-invariance are referred to as linear, time-invariant (LTI) filters.
- Input-Output of such filters can be defined by the discrete-time convolution:

$$y_k = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} x_i h_{k-i}$$

## Structures

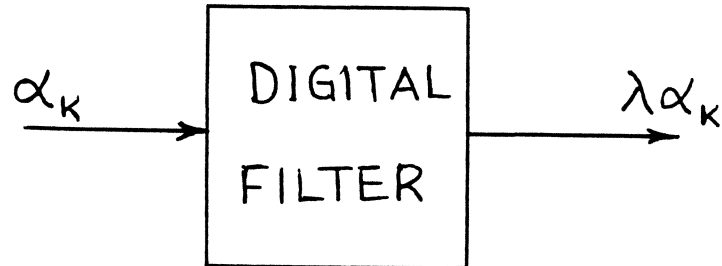


- Cascade: 
$$h_{c,k} = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} h_{1,l} h_{2,k-l}$$



- Parallel: 
$$h_{p,k} = h_{1,k} + h_{2,k}$$

## Eigenfunctions



- Def:  $\alpha_k$  is an eigenfunction of the digital filter iff the application of  $\alpha_k$  produces the scaled output  $\lambda\alpha_k$ .  $\lambda$  is referred to as the eigenvalue.

$$\lambda\alpha_k = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} h_a - \alpha_{k=i}$$



**Eigenfunction 1:**

$$a_k = \exp(j\omega k) = \cos(\omega k) + j \sin(\omega k)$$

produces an output

$$\exp(j\omega k) \left[ \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} h_l e^{-j\omega l} \right]$$

- $H(\omega) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} h_l e^{-j\omega l}$  is referred to as the frequency response of the digital filter. Note that  $h_l$  uniquely determines  $H(\omega)$ .
- $H(\omega)$  is, in general, complex, and may be written as

$$H(\omega) = |H(\omega)| e^{j\phi(\omega)}$$

Then, if the input is  $\cos \omega k$ , the output is given by  $|H(\omega)| \cos(\omega k + \phi)$ .

**Eigenfunction 2:**

$$\alpha_k = z^k$$

produces an output

$$z^k \left[ \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} h_l z^{-l} \right]$$

- $H(z) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} h_l z^{-l}$  is referred to as the transfer function of the digital filter. Note that  $h_l$  uniquely determines  $H(z)$ .

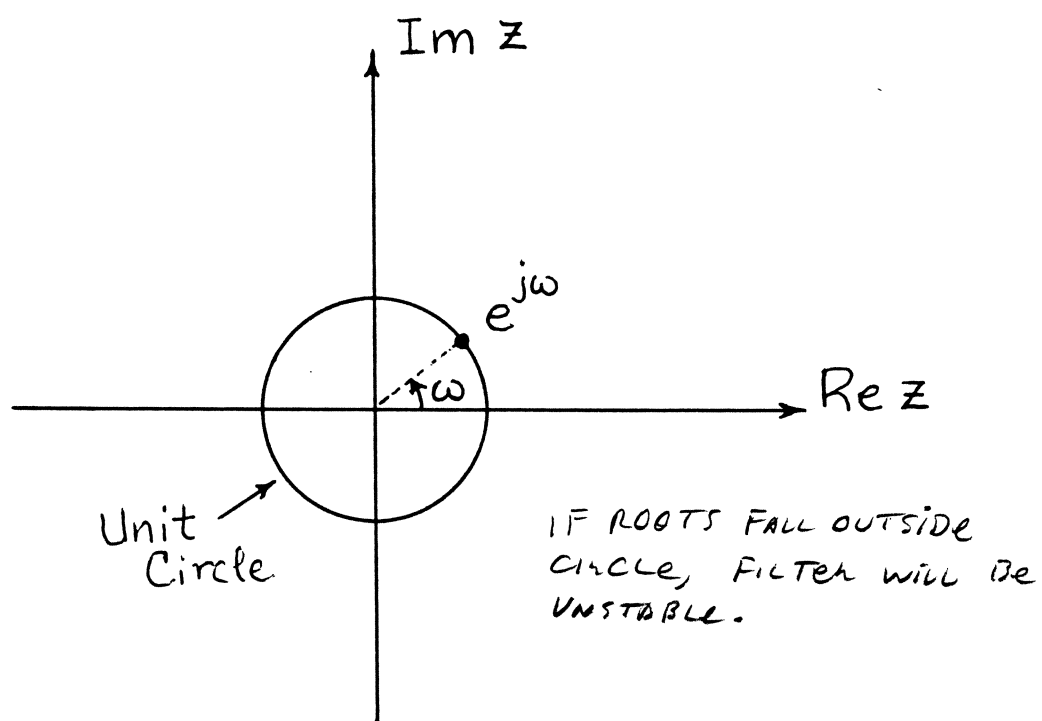
- $Y(z) = H(z)X(z)$

$$Y(z) = \dots + y_0 + y_1 z^{-1} + y_2 z^{-2} + y_3 z^{-3} + \dots$$

$$y(k) = \{ \dots y_0, y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots \}$$

## Z-transform and Frequency Response

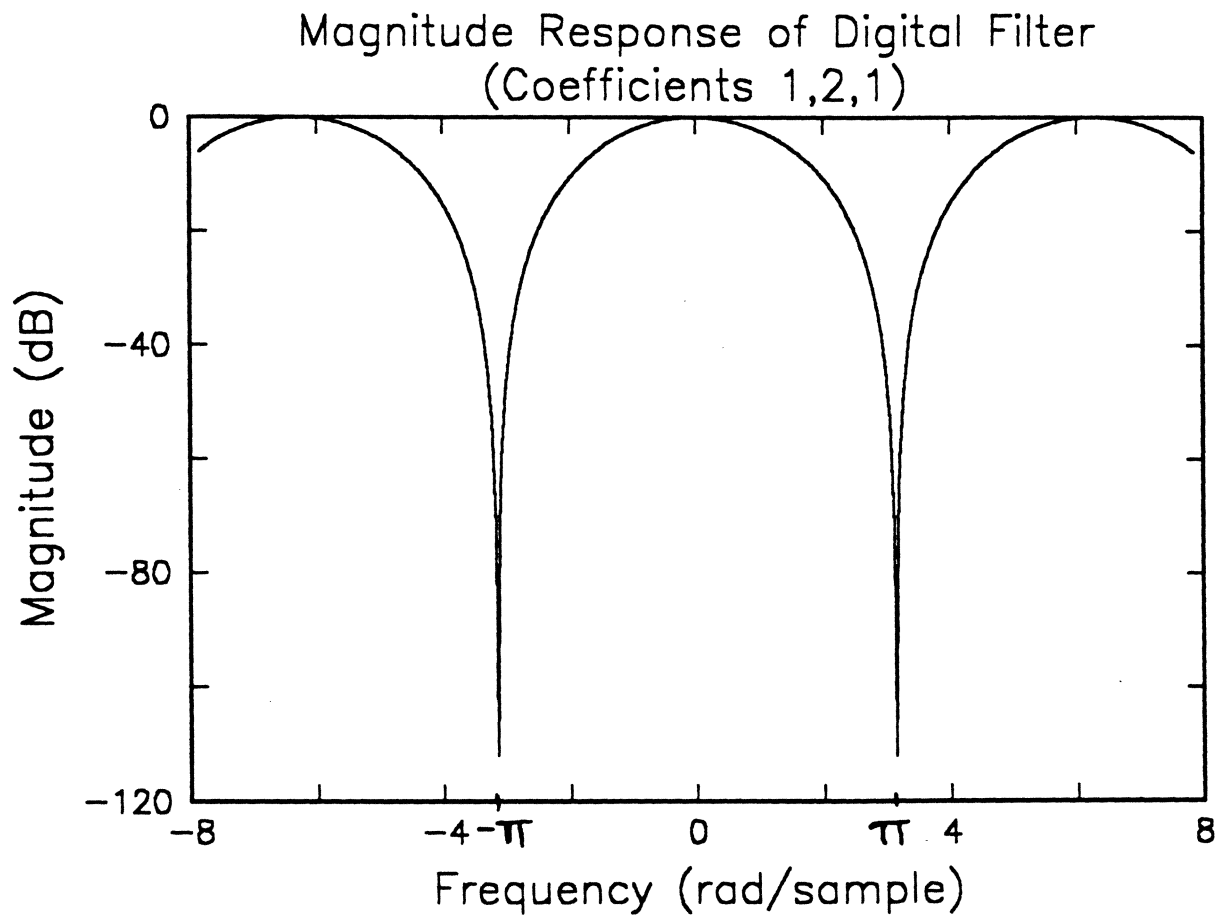
- $H(\omega) = H(z) \Big|_{z = \exp(-j\omega)} = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} h_l e^{-j\omega l}$
- Geometrical interpretation



- Frequency response for digital filters is periodic in  $2\pi$ .

## An Example

$$h_{-1} = 1, \quad h_0 = 2, \quad h_1 = 1$$



---

## Frequency Response of FIR and IIR Filters

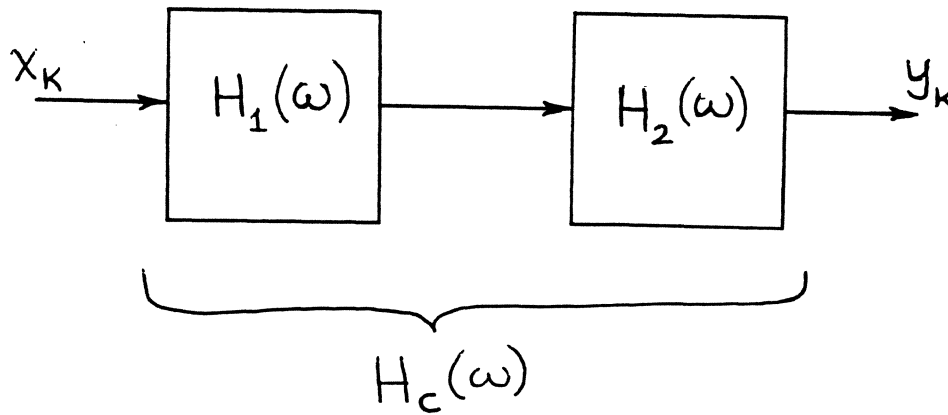
- FIR Filters

$$H(\omega) = \sum_{l=-N}^N a_l e^{-j\omega l}$$

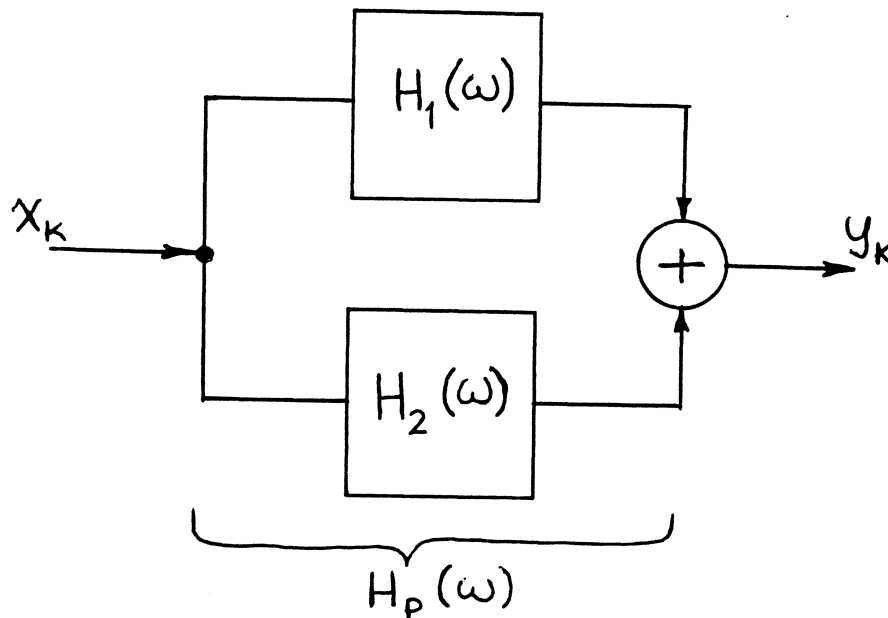
- Recursive Filters

$$H(\omega) = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^N a_i e^{-j\omega i}}{1 - \sum_{m=1}^M b_m e^{-j\omega m}}$$

## Cascade and Parallel Forms



- Cascade:  $H_c(\omega) = H_1(\omega)H_2(\omega)$



- Parallel:  $H_p(\omega) = H_1(\omega) + H_2(\omega)$

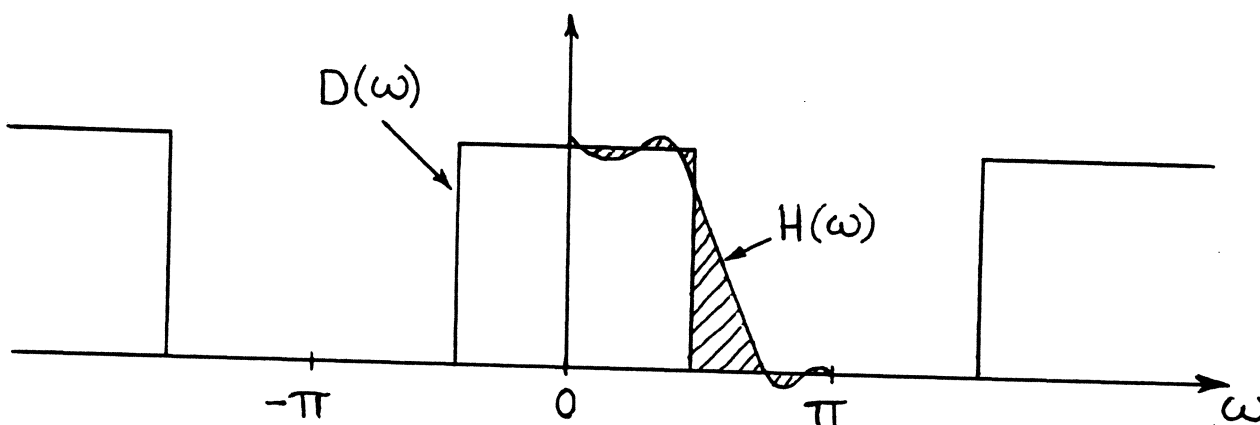
*COMPLEX NUMBERS - TAKE CARE IF CIRCUIT IS TO WORK.*

## TOPICS

- Why Consider Digital Filters
- Filter Design Problem
- Digital Filter Design Tools
- Digital Filter Design Methods
- Applications

## 4. Filter Design Methods

### Fourier Series



$$\text{Error: } E(\omega) = D(\omega) - H(\omega)$$

$$\text{Squared - error: } \varepsilon = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |E(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

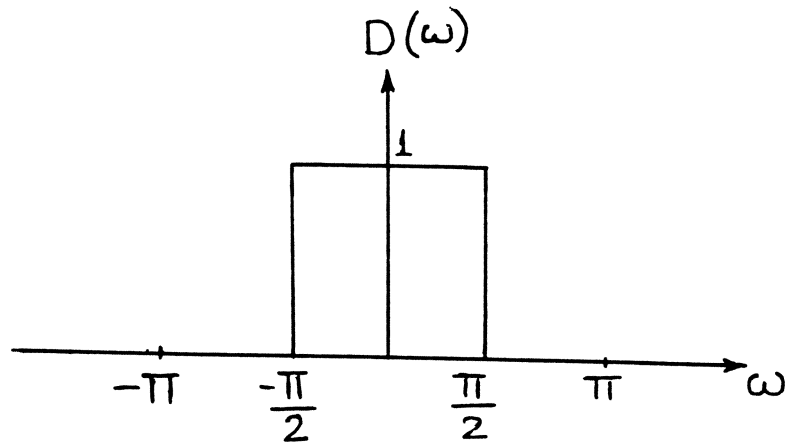
$$\min \varepsilon \Rightarrow h_k = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D(\omega) e^{j\omega k} d\omega$$



- The  $h_k$  sequence generates the smallest integral squared-error than any other response.
- Each  $h_k$  is computed independently; value of one term does not affect the other.
- Set  $a_k = h_k$ .
- Truncation error is given by:

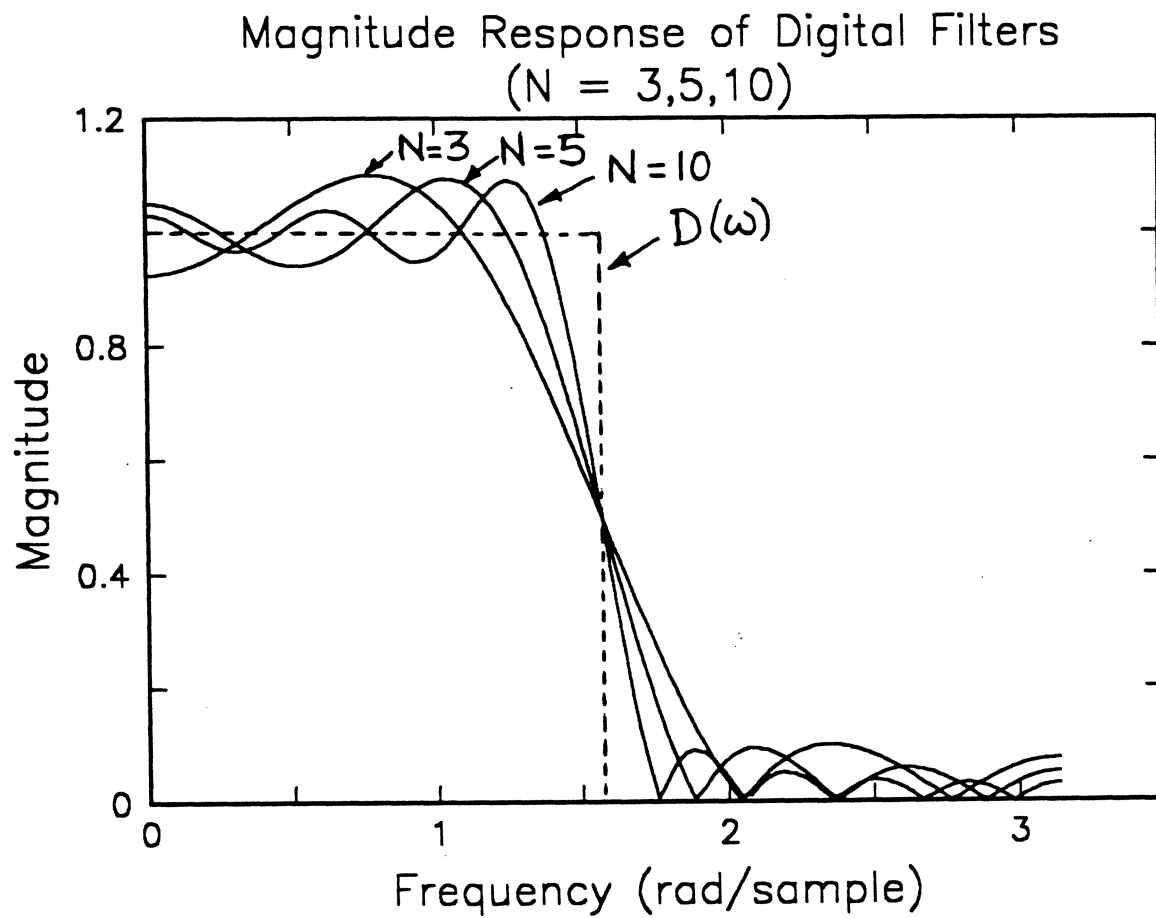
$$\epsilon_T = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |D(\omega)|^2 d\omega - 2\pi \sum_{i=-N}^N |a_i|^2$$

## An Example

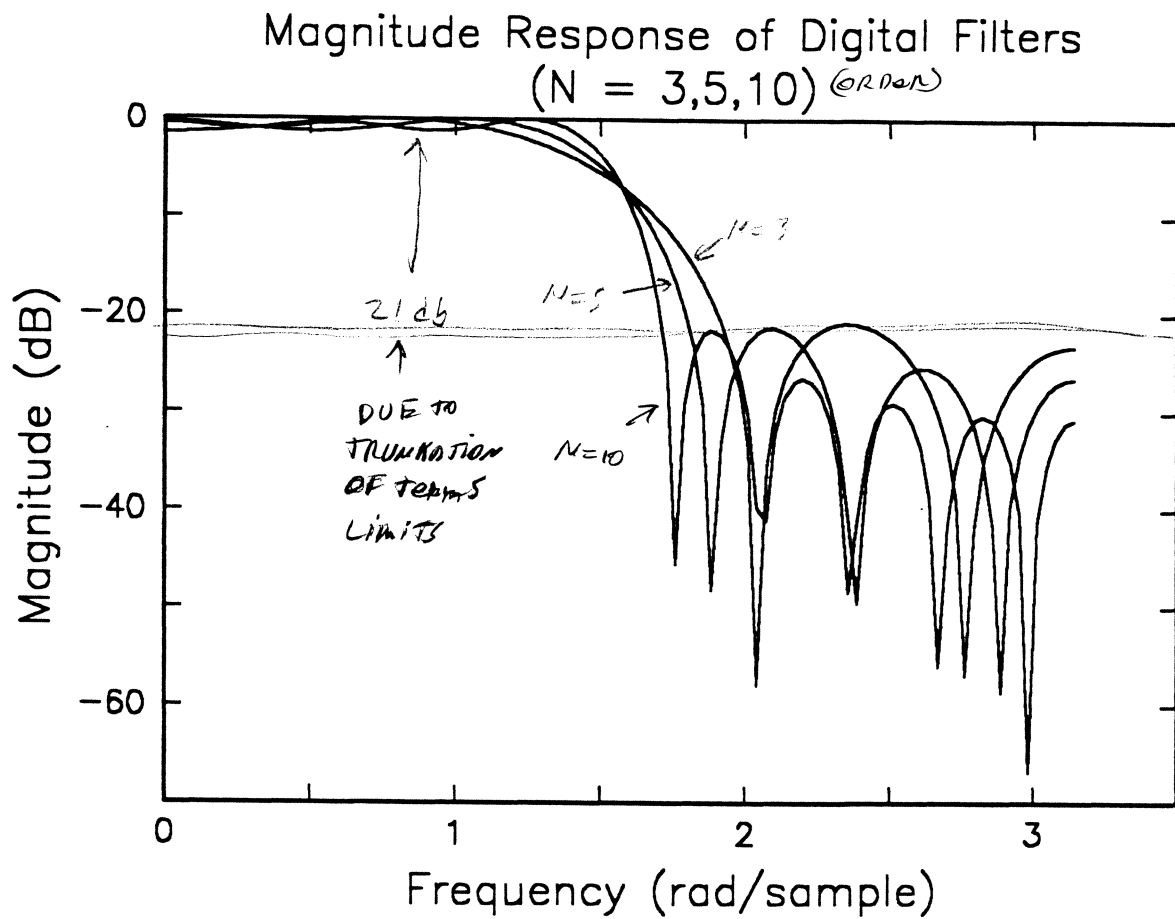


$$h_k = \frac{1}{\pi k} \sin\left(\frac{\pi k}{2}\right), \quad h_0 = 0.5$$

## Frequency Response as a function of N



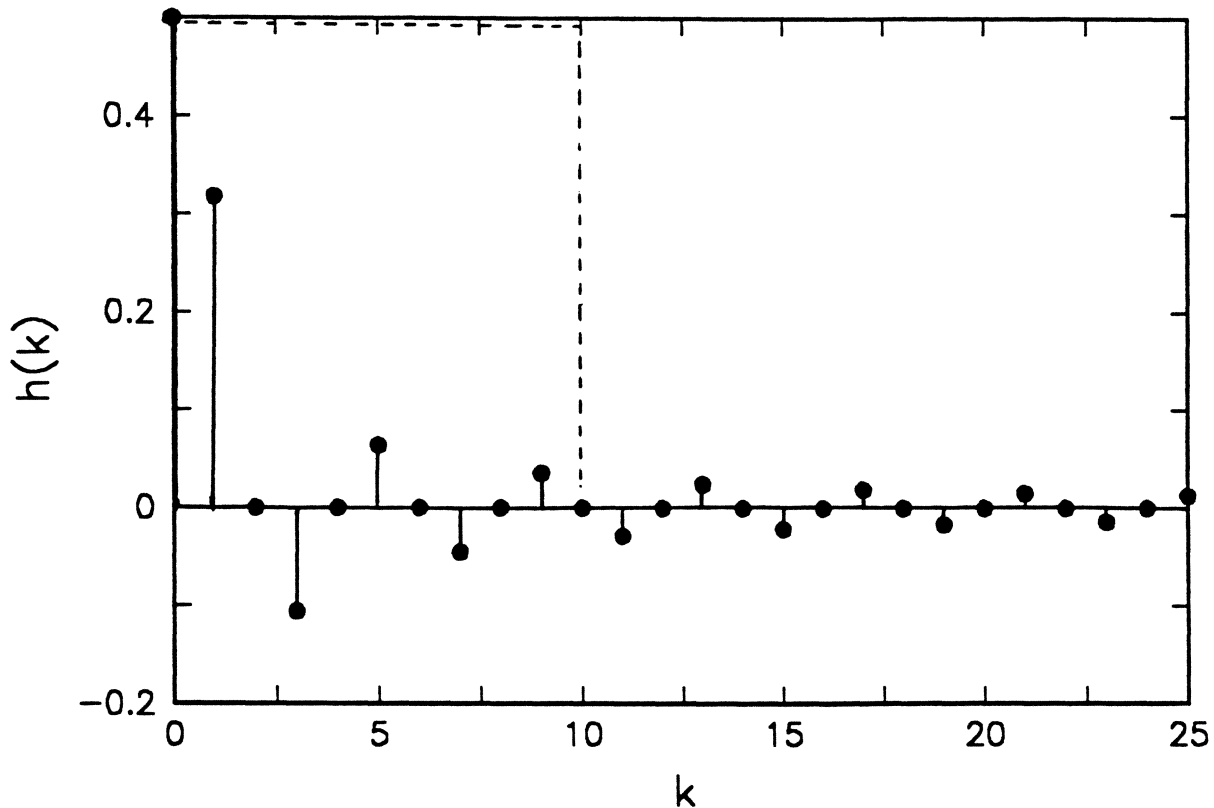
## Frequency Response as a function of N



## Windowing

- Rectangular Window

Low-pass Filter Coefficients based on the Fourier Series Method



- Other windowing functions are used to achieve more desirable control of passband ripple and/or stopband attenuation.

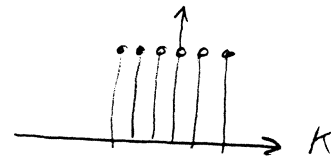
$$a_k = w_k h_k$$

$\uparrow$  WINDOW FUNCTION COEF.

## Commonly-used Windowing Functions

- Rectangular:

$$w(k) = 1$$



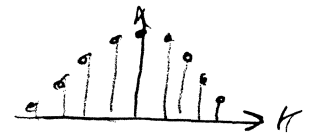
- Triangular:

$$w(k) = 1 - \frac{|k|}{M+1}, \quad M = 2N + 2$$



- Hann:

$$w(k) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \cos \frac{2\pi k}{M} \right), \quad M = 2N + 2$$



- Hamming:

$$w(k) = 0.54 + 0.46 \cos \frac{2\pi k}{M}, \quad M = 2N + 2$$

- Blackman:

$$w(k) = 0.42 + 0.5 \cos \frac{2\pi k}{M} + 0.08 \cos \frac{4\pi k}{M}, \quad M = 2N + 2$$

- Kaiser:

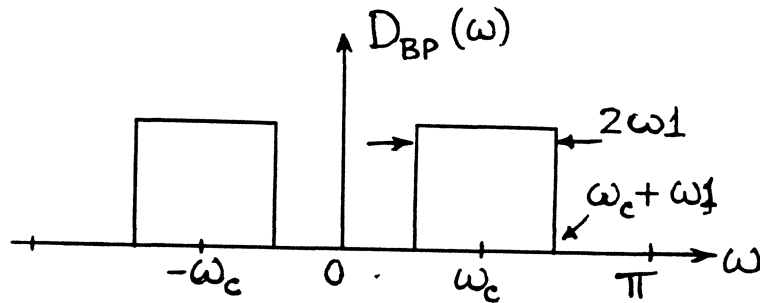
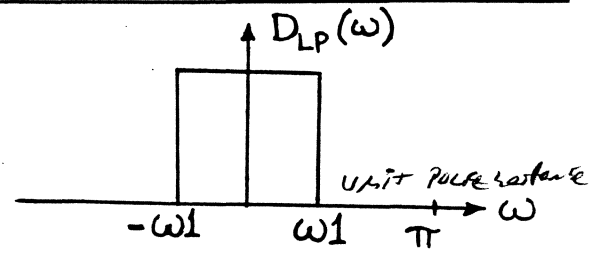
$$w(k) = \begin{cases} I_0 \left[ \beta \sqrt{1 - \left( \frac{k}{(2N+1)/2} \right)^2} \right] / I_0(\beta) & ; -N \leq k \leq N \\ 0 & , \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

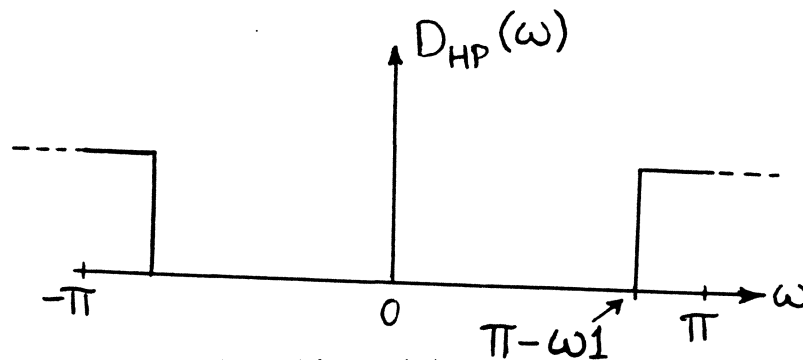
$$I_0(z) = 1 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{(z/2)^m}{m!} \right]$$

Filter Transformations

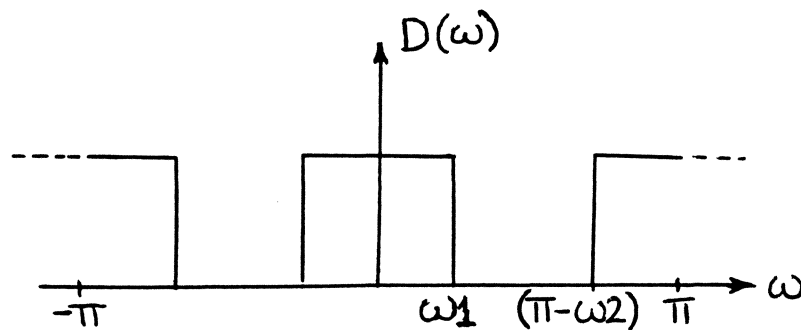
Low-pass  $h_{LP}(k)$



- Band-pass  $2h_{LP}(k) \cos(\omega_c k)$



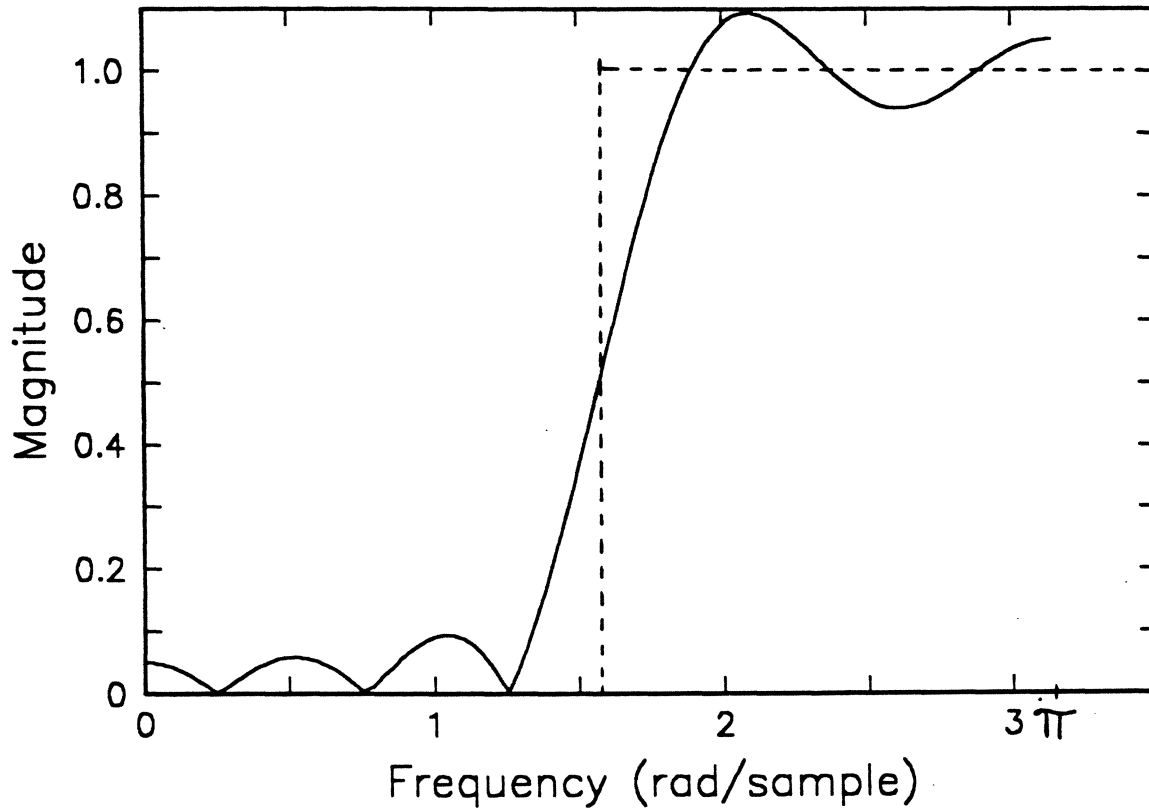
- High-pass  $(-1)^k h_{LP}(k)$



- Notch  $h_{LP, \omega_1}(k) + (-1)^k h_{LP, \pi - \omega_2}$

## An Example

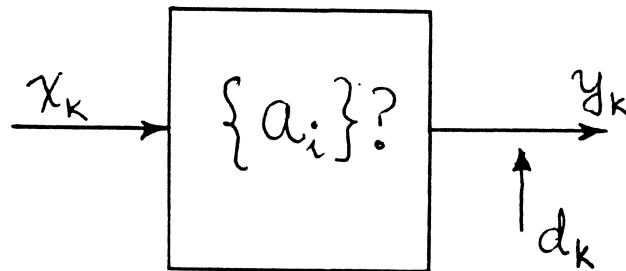
Magnitude Response of High-pass Digital Filter



Low-pass Coefficients: 0.064 1.6E-17 -0.11 -1.6E-17 0.32 0.5 0.32 -1.6E-17 -0.11 1.6E-17 0.064  
 High-pass Coefficients: -0.064 1.6E-17 0.11 -1.6E-17 -0.32 0.5 -0.32 -1.6E-17 0.11 1.6E-17 -0.064



## Time-Domain Design Method



- Input sequence,  $x_k$ , and the desired output sequence,  $d_k$  are known; the problem is to determine  $a_k$ .
- Define

$$\underline{a} = [ a_{-N} \ a_{-N+1} \ \dots \ a_N ]$$

$$\underline{d} = [ d_0 \ d_1 \ \dots \ d_p ], \quad p \geq 2N + 1$$

$$\underline{x} = [ x_{-N} \ x_{-N+1} \ \dots \ x_{p+N} ],$$

- Set-up  $p + 1$  equations of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{-N} & x_{-N+1} & \dots & x_N \\ x_{-N+1} & x_{-N+2} & \dots & x_{N+1} \\ \vdots & & & \\ x_{p-N} & x_{p-N+1} & \dots & x_{p+N} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{-N} \\ a_{-N+1} \\ \vdots \\ a_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d_0 \\ d_1 \\ d_2 \\ \vdots \\ d_p \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{\Delta} \underline{H} \quad \underline{a}^T \quad \underline{d}^T$$

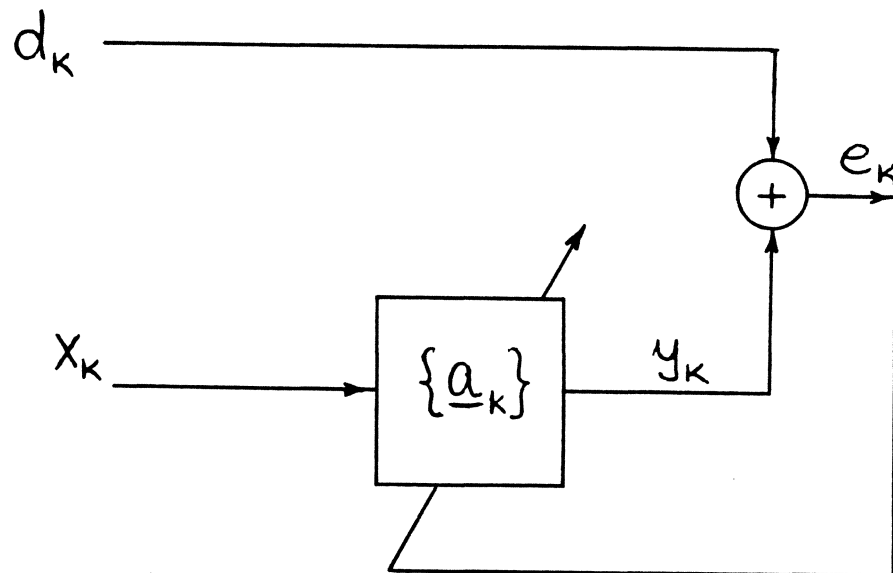
- Use least-squares solution to the over-determined system of equations to obtain

$$\underline{a}_{OPT}^T = (\underline{H}^T \underline{H})^{-1} \underline{H}^T \underline{d}^T$$

- The above equation is of the form

$$\underline{a}_{OPT} = \underline{\Phi}^{-1} \underline{\xi}$$

## Adaptive Filtering



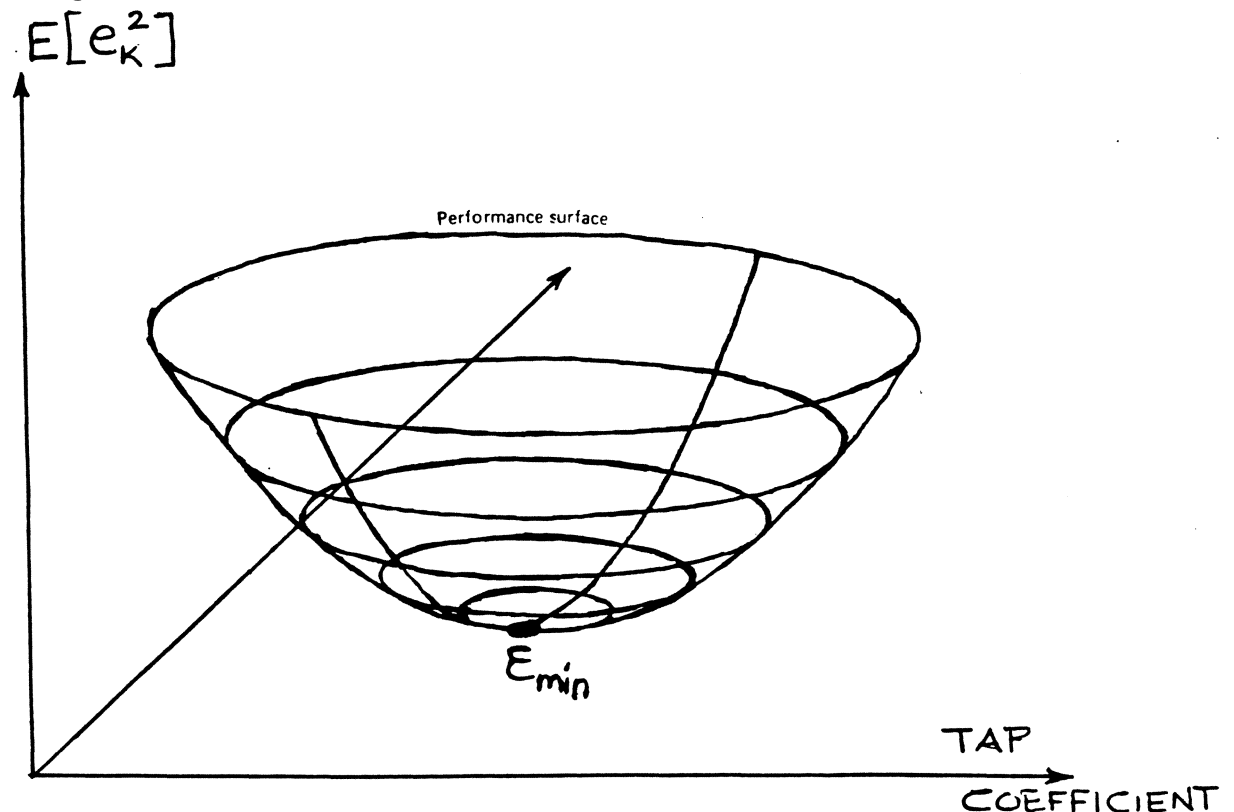
<u>Application</u>	<u>x</u>	<u>d</u>
System Identification	Known Data	Output Signal
Equalization	Distorted Signal	"Known" Data
Prediction	Past Input	Present Input

## Commonly-used Approach

- Minimize the mean-squared error between the desired output,  $d$ , and a linear combination of the input,  $x$ ; that, is:

$$E[e_k^2] = E[(d_k - y_k)^2] = E[(d_k - \sum_i a_i x_{k-i})^2]$$

- The above error criterion defines a convex surface for the mean-squared error as a function of the tap weights:



- The adaptive filter starts with an initial guess on the coefficients,  $\underline{a}_0$ , and progressively moves down the well using:

$$\underline{a}_k = \underline{a}_{k-1} - \beta \nabla_{\underline{a}_k} E[e_k^2]$$

- In practice, the gradient of the instantaneous squared-error is substituted for the mean squared-error, resulting in the following adaptive algorithm (most commonly referred to as the LMS algorithm):

$$\underline{a}_k = \underline{a}_{k-1} + 2\beta e_k \underline{x}_k$$

- The LMS algorithm is the most commonly-used algorithm in real-time adaptive filtering.

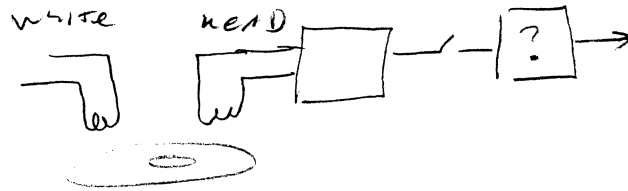
## TOPICS

- Why Consider Digital Filters
- Filter Design Problem
- Digital Filter Design Tools
- Digital Filter Design Methods
- Applications

## 5. Applications in Digital Storage

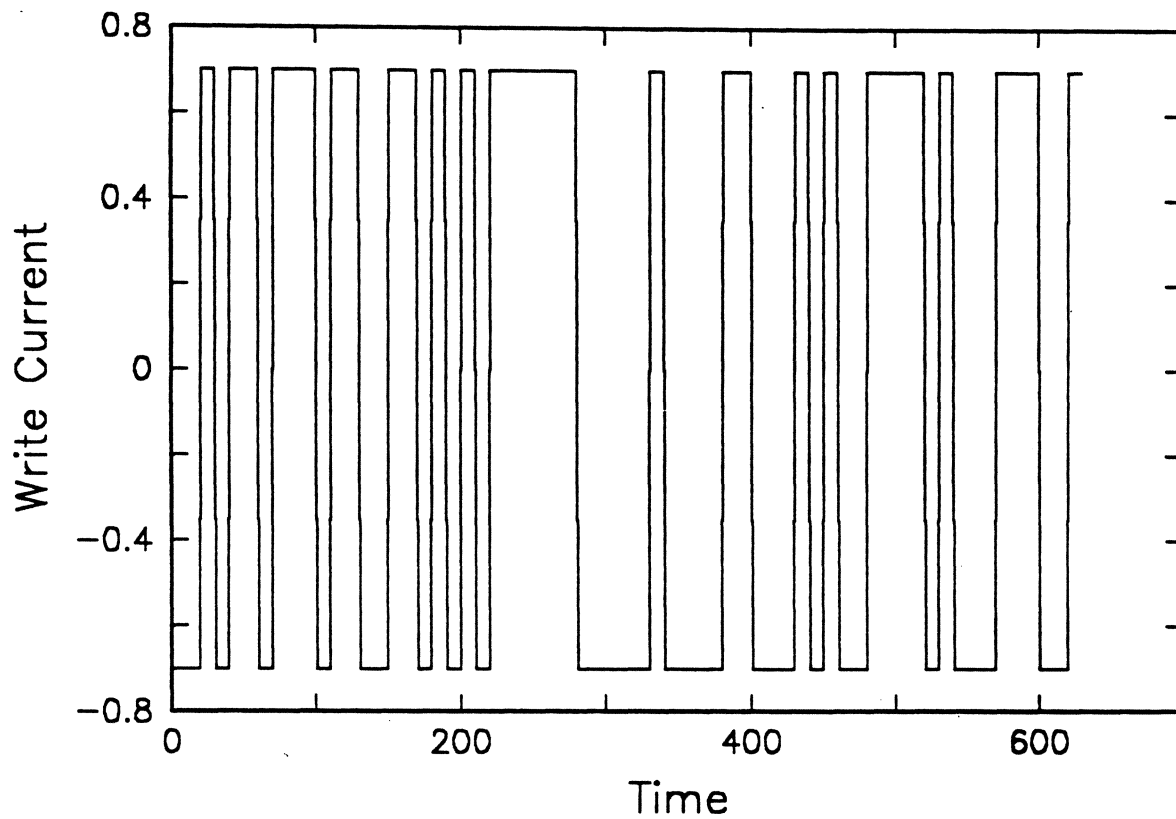
- Recording Channel Identification
- Equalization
- Timing and Gain Control
- Digital servo

## Recording Channel Identification



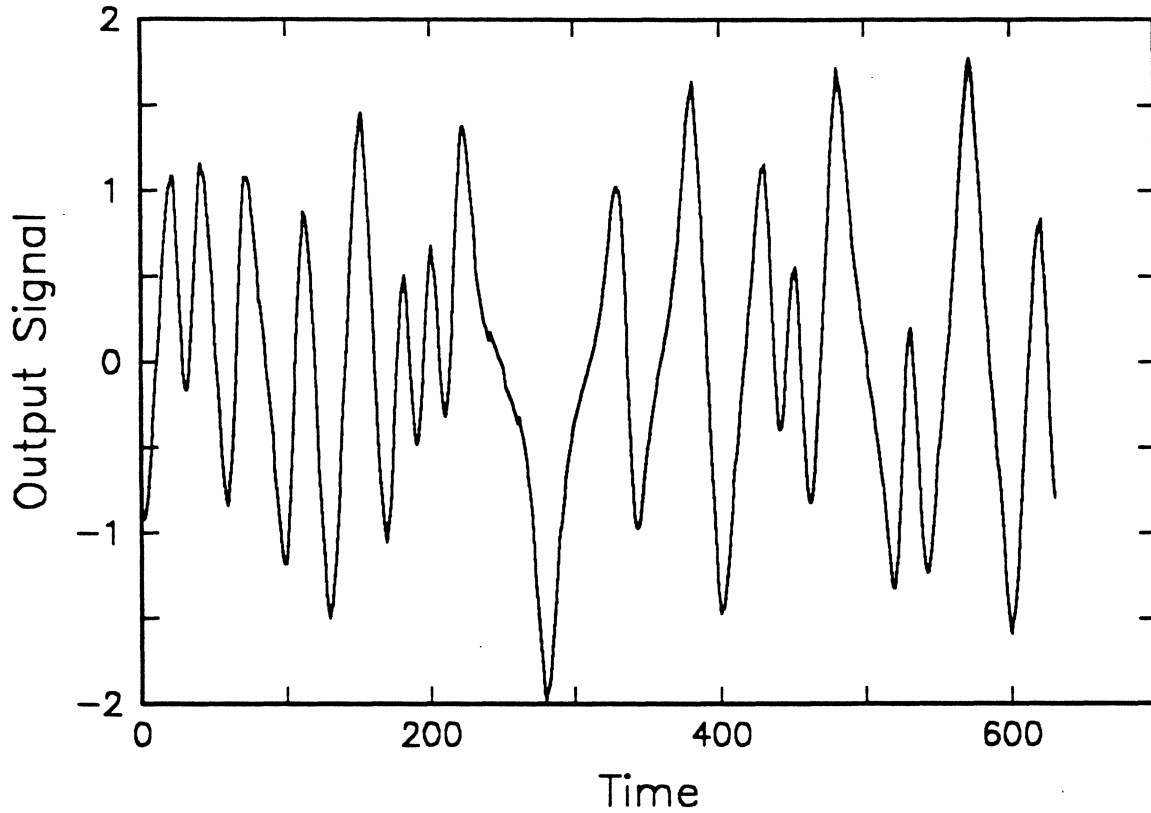
- Input Sequence

Write Current for a 63-bit PRBS Sequence

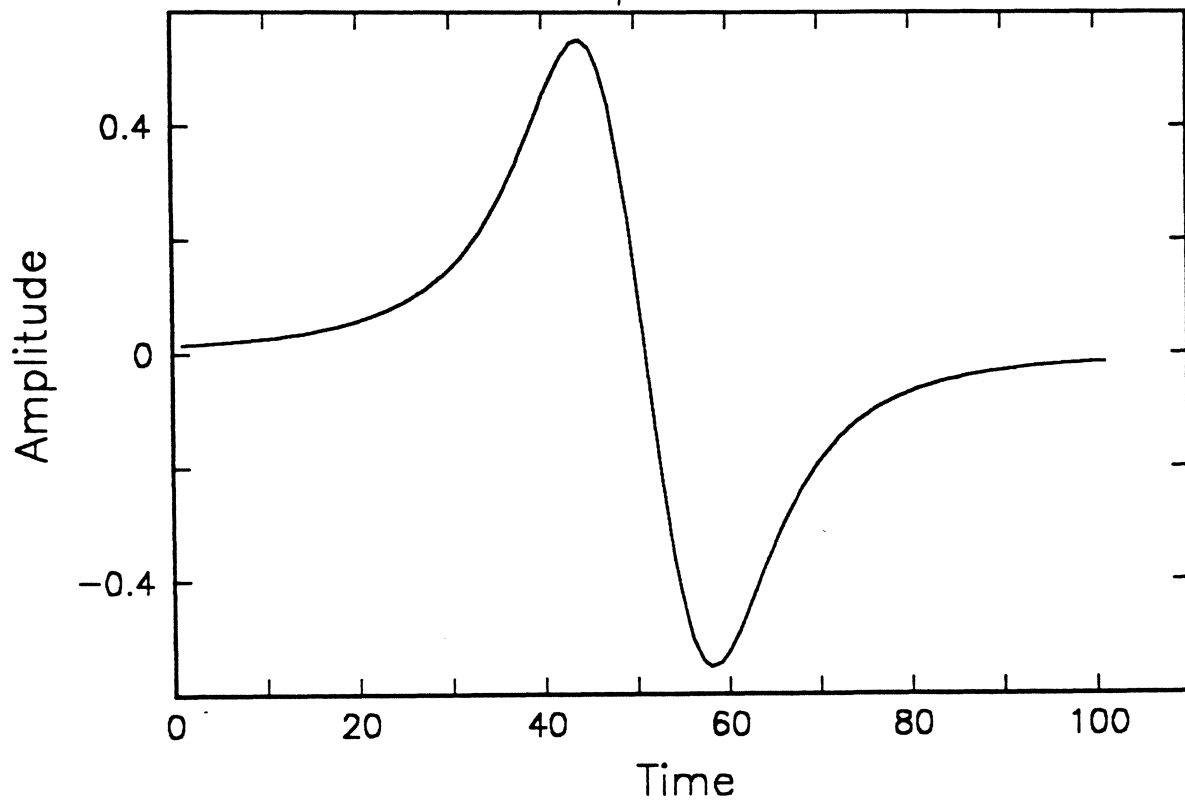




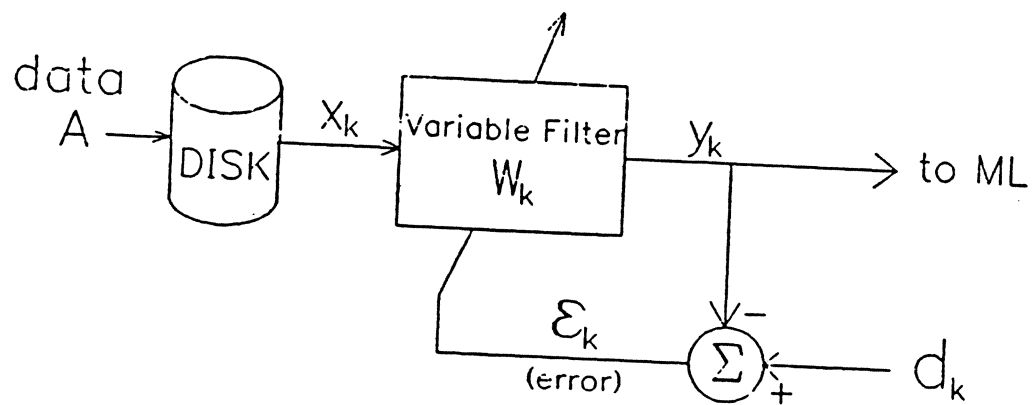
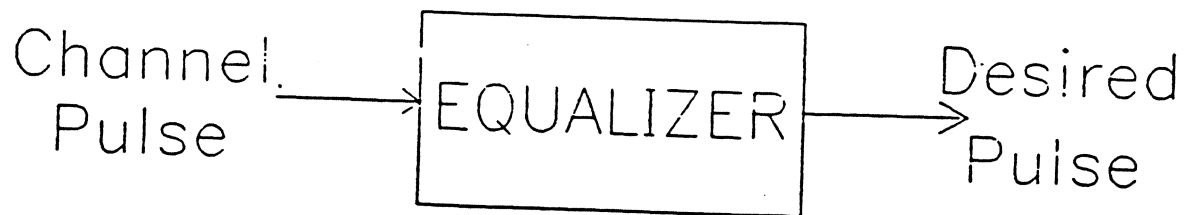
- Averaged Output Waveform



- Identified Pulse Response



## Equalization



## 6. SUMMARY

- Why consider digital filters:

Component tolerances (Accuracy)

End-of-life component tolerances (Reproducibility)

Implementation of Time-Varying Filters

Size

Power Dissipation

Control of transient response

Design abstraction

- Pitfalls in digital filter design:

Relationship between analog and digital frequencies

Direction of sample shifting

Aliasing

Finite precision and arithmetic

Step-size selection

# A/D AND D/A CONVERTERS IN HDD SYSTEMS:

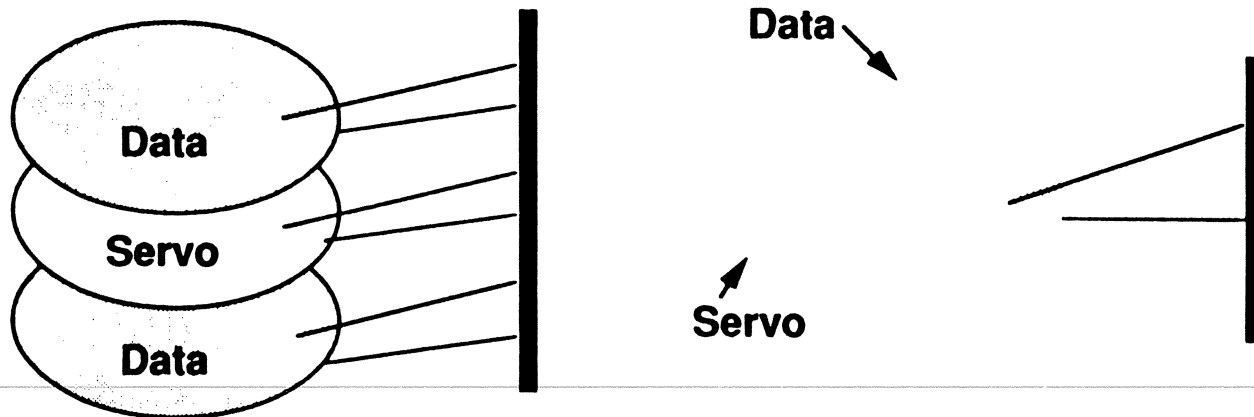
- Servo Channel Requirements/Solutions
  - High Capacity Drives
  - Small Size Drives
- Technology options for a possible read – channel architecture.

*BILL HUNT  
ANALOG DEVICES  
DEC '91.*

# 'DEDICATED V'S EMBEDDED SERVO'

Complete embedded servo front end for HDD

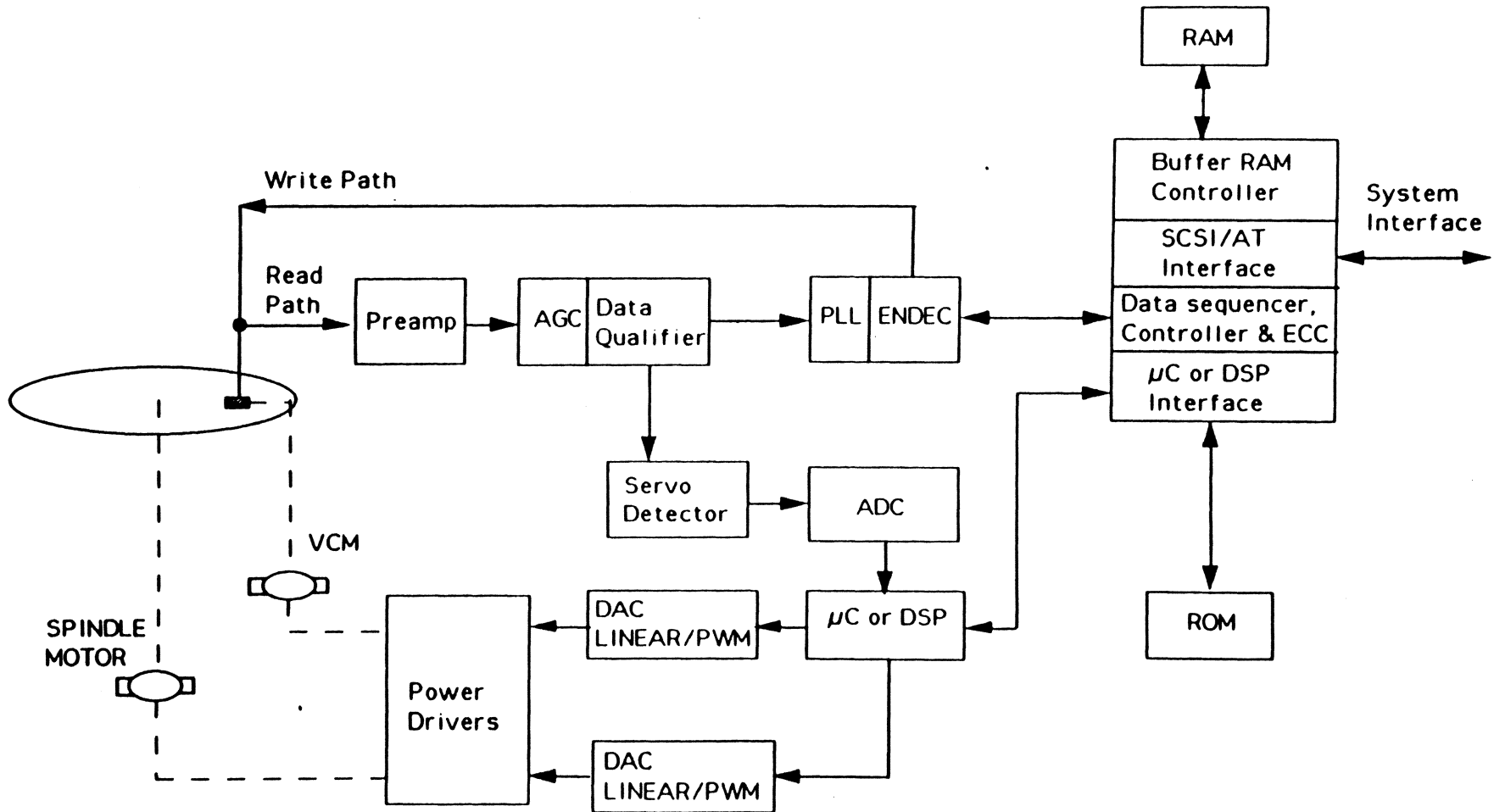
Trends in HDD servo electronics: a) New demodulator techniques  
ii) Embedded servo vs dedicated surface



- \* 3 platters => 6 surfaces  
use 5 for data, 1 for servo
- \* surfaces mechanically linked
- \* continuous position f/back

- \* 1 platter => 2 surfaces  
interleave data and servo
- \* no registration problems
- \* sampled position f/back

# GENERIC BLOCK DIAGRAM FOR CLASSICAL LARGE CAPACITY/SMALL SIZE HDD'S



# "CAPACITY"

— a possible classification

## **HIGH CAPACITY: > 300 MBYTE**

- Size 5 1/4" to 3 1/2 x 1"
- Capacity 300 Mb – > 1Gb
- Access time: 10 mSEC
- Transfer rate: > 15 MB/S
- Improved Reliability (ELF)/(MTTF)
- Reducing cost

## **SMALL SIZE < 100M BYTES**

- Size 3 1/2" to 2 1/2" to 1.8"
- Capacity 20 to 100 mb
- Low power
- "Zero" power in power down mode
- Lower supply voltage (smaller batteries) 3V
- Improved Reliability (ELF)/(MTTF)
- Reducing Cost

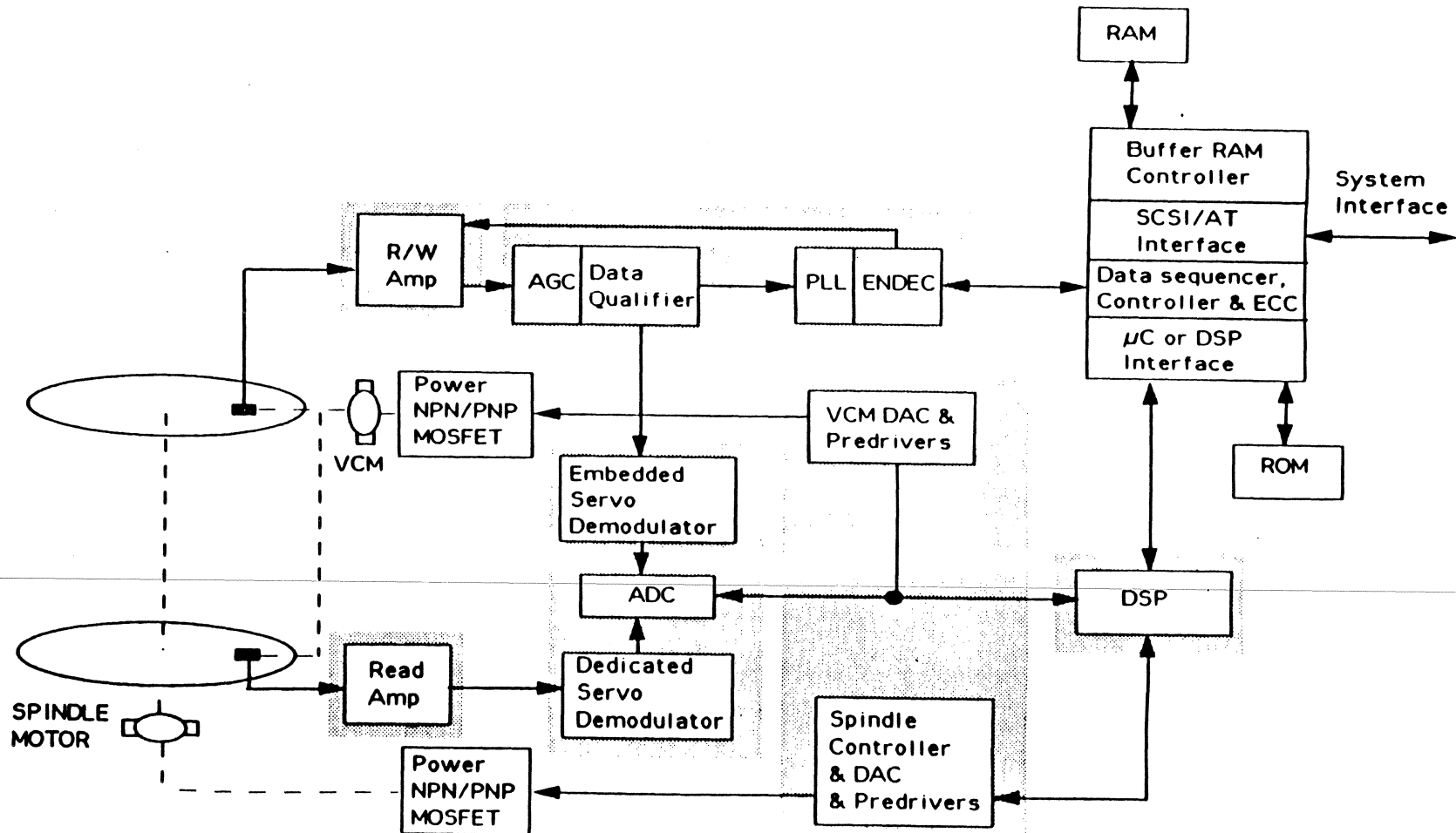
## **"LARGE" DRIVE:**

### **system requirements**

- Power control <sup>OF</sup> VCM/Spindle Motors
- For increasing capacity
  - An increase in T.P.I.
  - An increase in data transfer rate
- Dedicated/Hybrid servo.
- Reduced access time requires adaptive servo control.
- More measurement of system parameters required.
- More control of system parameters.
- Increased integration to reduce foot print.
- Reduced costs.



# 3.5" DRIVES – 'LARGE' CAPACITY



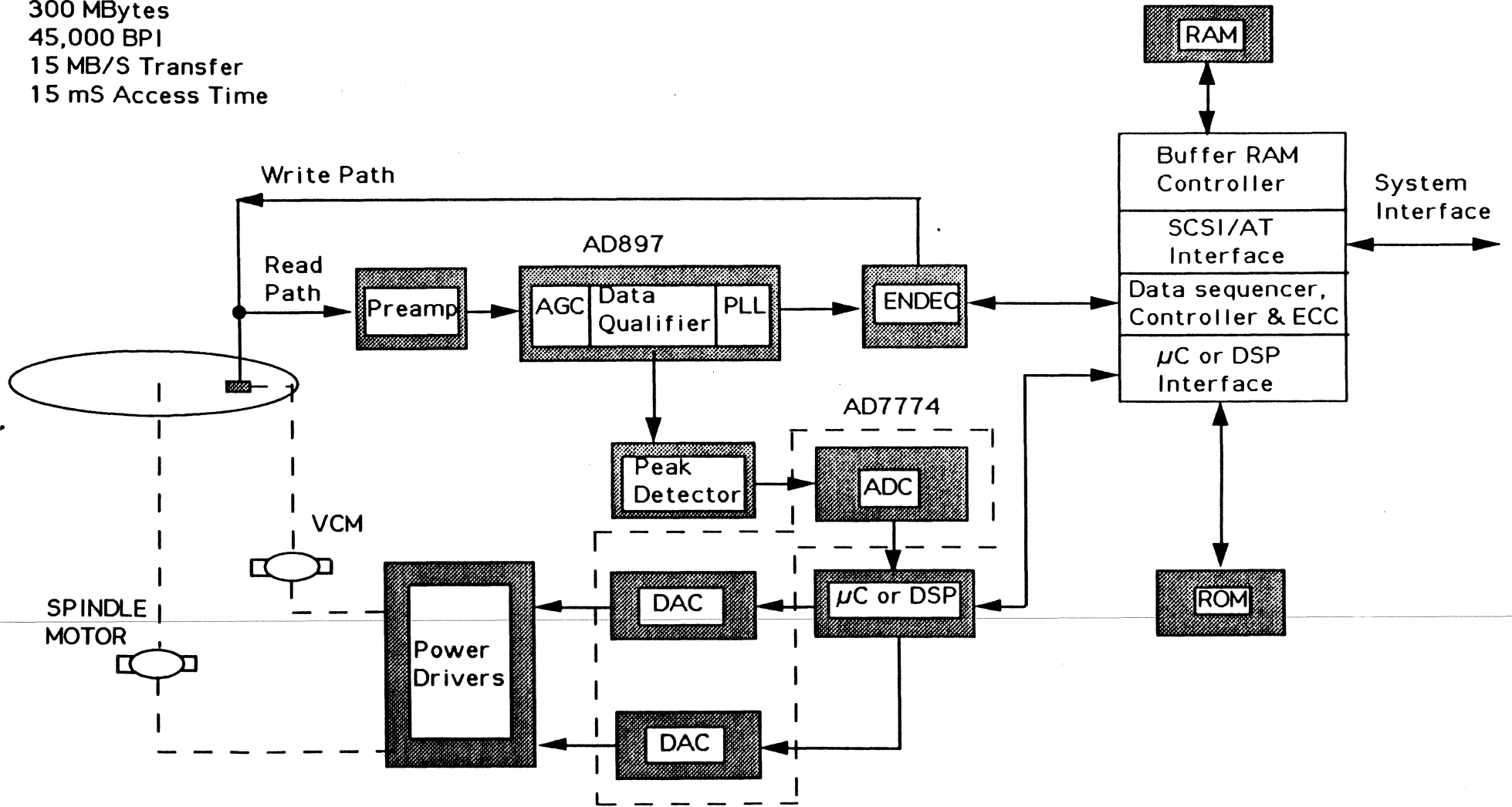
## 'LARGE' DRIVE: TECHNOLOGY REQUIREMENTS

- **+ 5V/+ 12v operation (+ 12 V to drive motors)  $\pm$  10%.**
- **Increased T.P.I.**
  - More resolution on VCM control (> 10 bits).
  - More resolution on position sensing (> 8 bits).
- **Maximise Channel S/N Ratio Use 'Bias' referenced signals.**
- **Dedicated/Hybrid servo control:**
- **Reduced Access Time**
  - Faster through – put through servo demod. channel.
  - Faster ADC conversion time. equivalent.
  - Faster processing uP/DSP.
  - Adaptive control bandwidth; AGC, rectifier discharge rate..
- **Fast interface speed for high speed uP's/DSP.**
- **Integration to give smaller foot print.**
  - Multiple small pin count SMD's (SOIC).
  - Single large pin count SMD's (PQFP).
- **Functional integration:**
  - Include power pre – drivers; loop control element; with VCM DAC.

10V to 13.2V

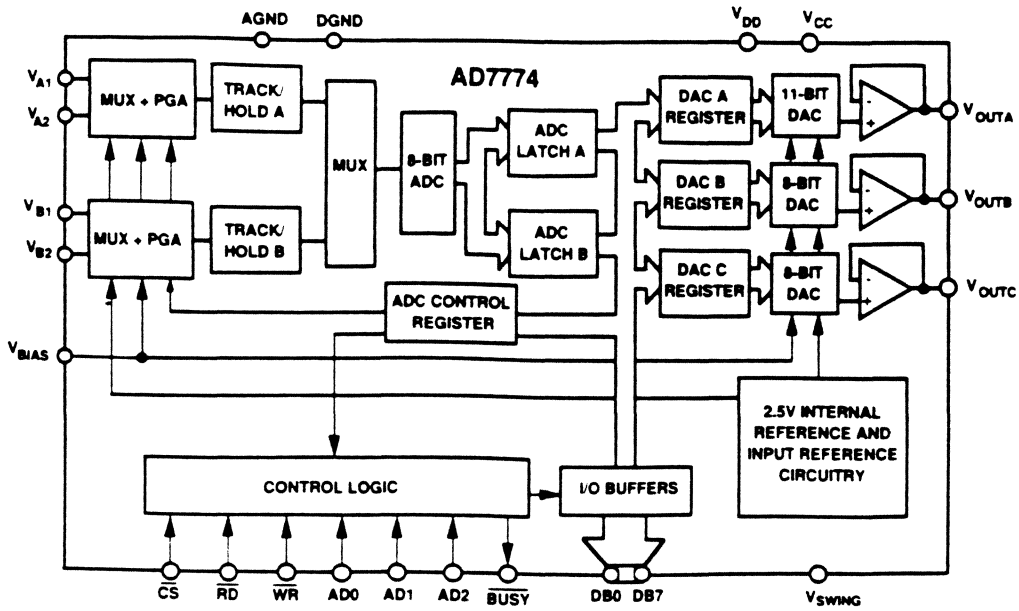
# Typical 3.5"/5.25" Medium/High Performance HDD

300 MBytes  
45,000 BPI  
15 MB/S Transfer  
15 mS Access Time



SLR

# AD7774 FUNCTIONAL BLOCK DIAGRAM



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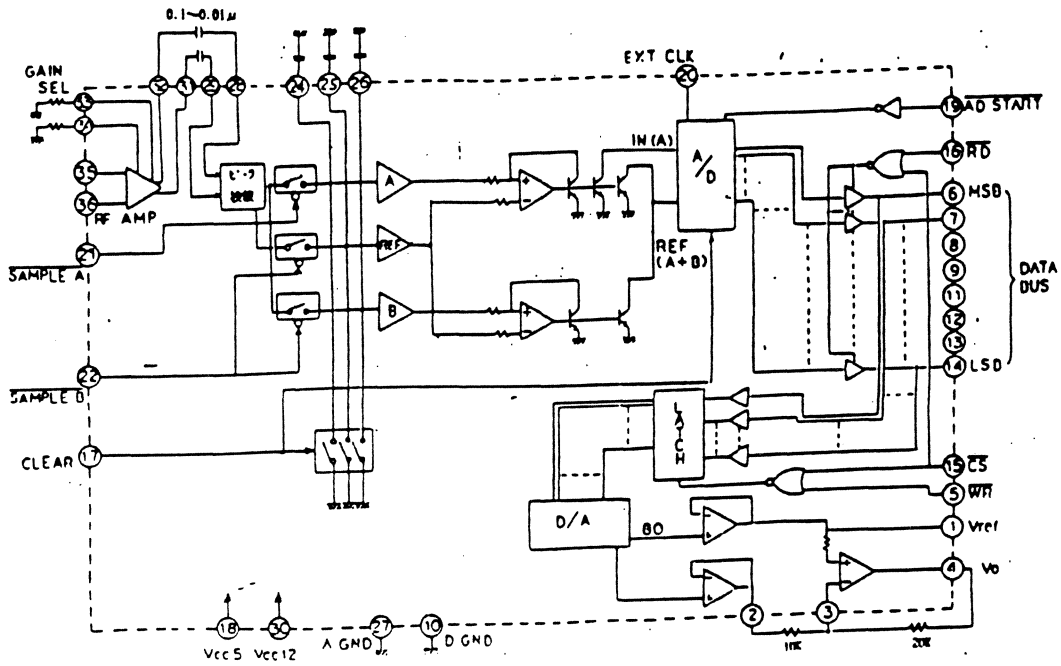
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WILLIAMS *et al.* FULLY INTEGRATED BiC/DMOS HEAD-ACTUATOR PIC

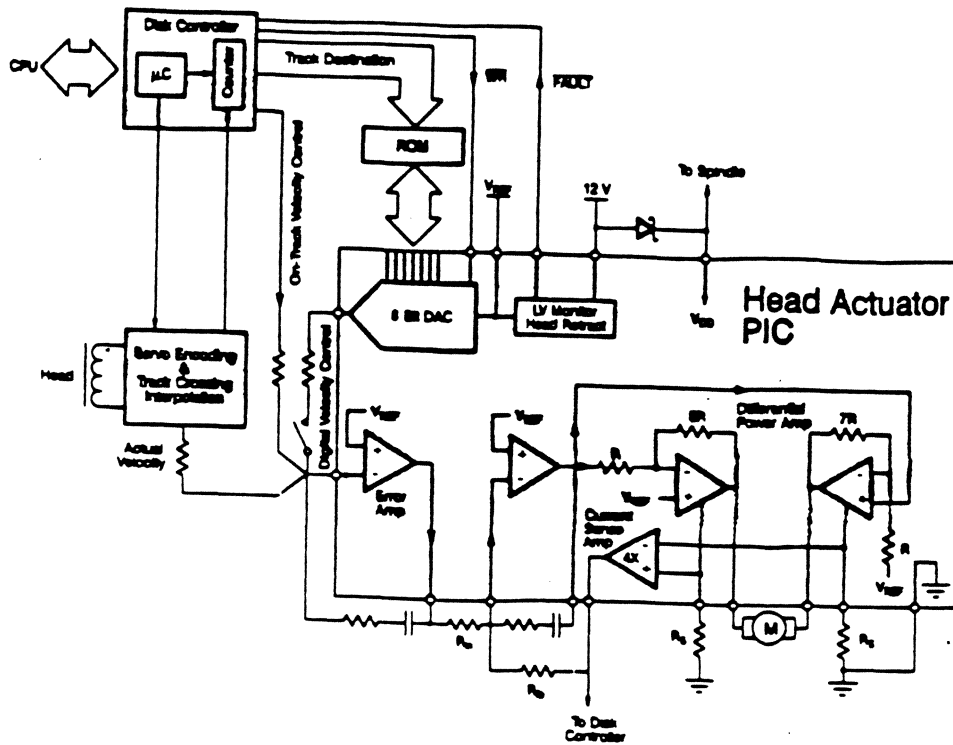


Fig. 1 HDD head-positioning servo system

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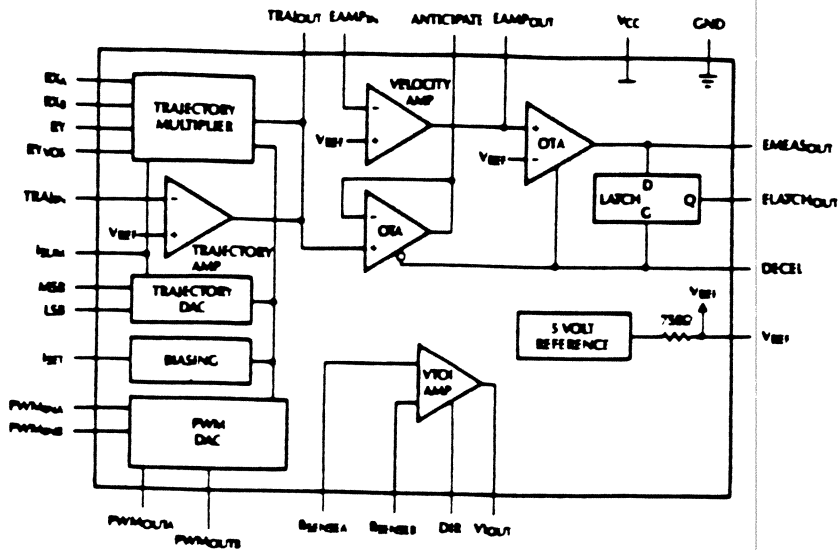
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# 'SMALL' SIZE

## SYSTEM REQUIREMENTS:

- Reducing size 3 1/4 to 2 1/2 to 1.8".
- For increasing capacity to 80 mb.
  - an increase in T.P.I.
  - an increase in data transfer rate.
- Single platter.
- Power save mode for portable PC's (Laptop/notebooks).
- Low volume battery.
- Low – Low cost.



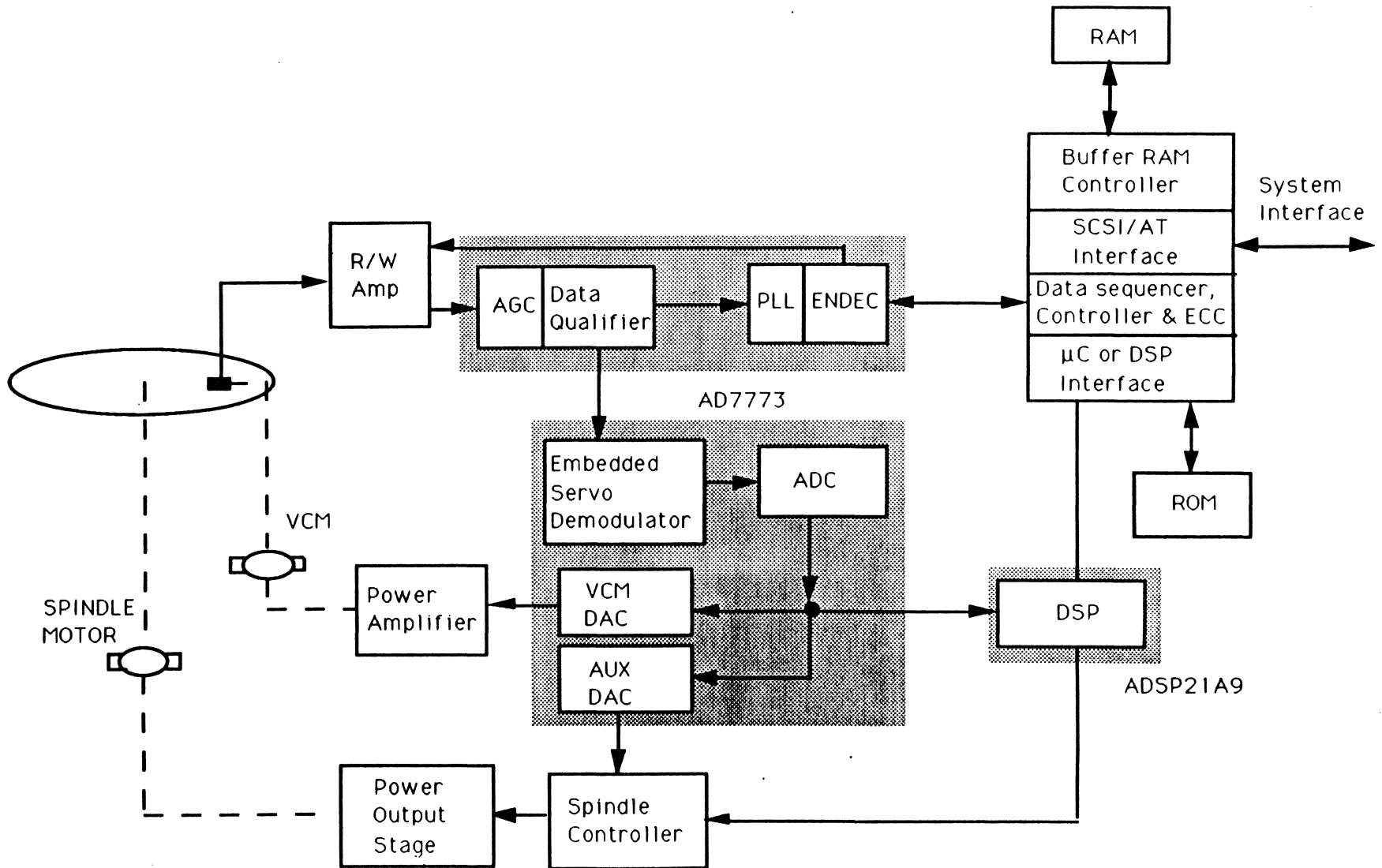
# 'SMALL' SIZE

## Technology Requirements:

- For reduced size to < 1.8"
  - Component height reduction
  - Foot print reduction
- Embedded servo technique – single platter.
- Increased capacity by BPI/TPI increase, requiring more bandwidth/resolution (> 10 bits).
- Power save requires power down mode to < 1% normal.
- Minimize normal power drain to maximize life of fixed size battery.
- 5V only operation reducing to  $3V \pm 10\%$ .
- Fast Interface speed for high speed uP's/DSP.
- Integration of additional functions.
  - Power drivers/devices and control circuits for VCM.
  - Servo demodulation spindle control functions.
- SMD packaging SOIC/PQFP for small foot print.
- TSOP/TPQFP for low (thin) packages.

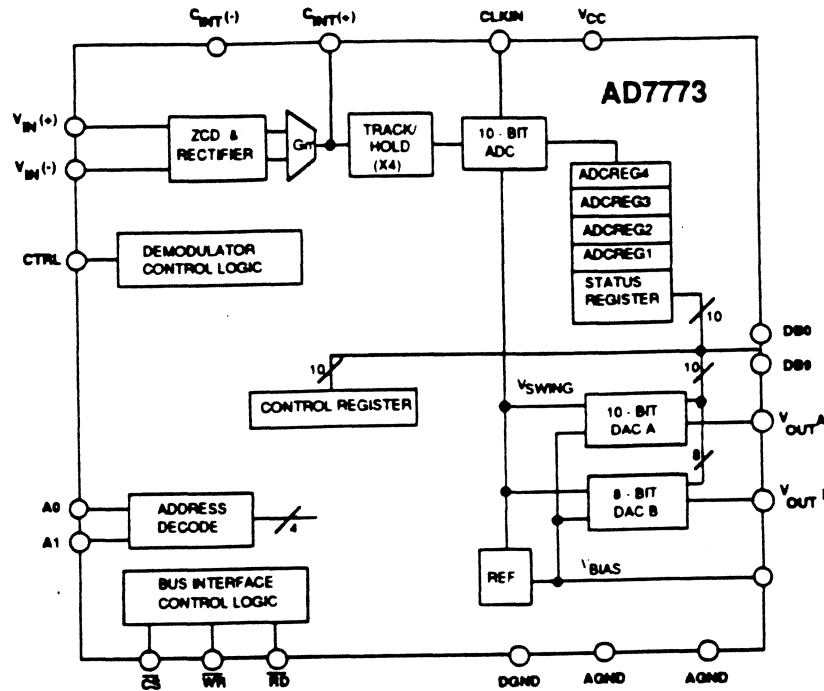
# Complete embedded servo front end for HDD

## Demodulator channel block diagram



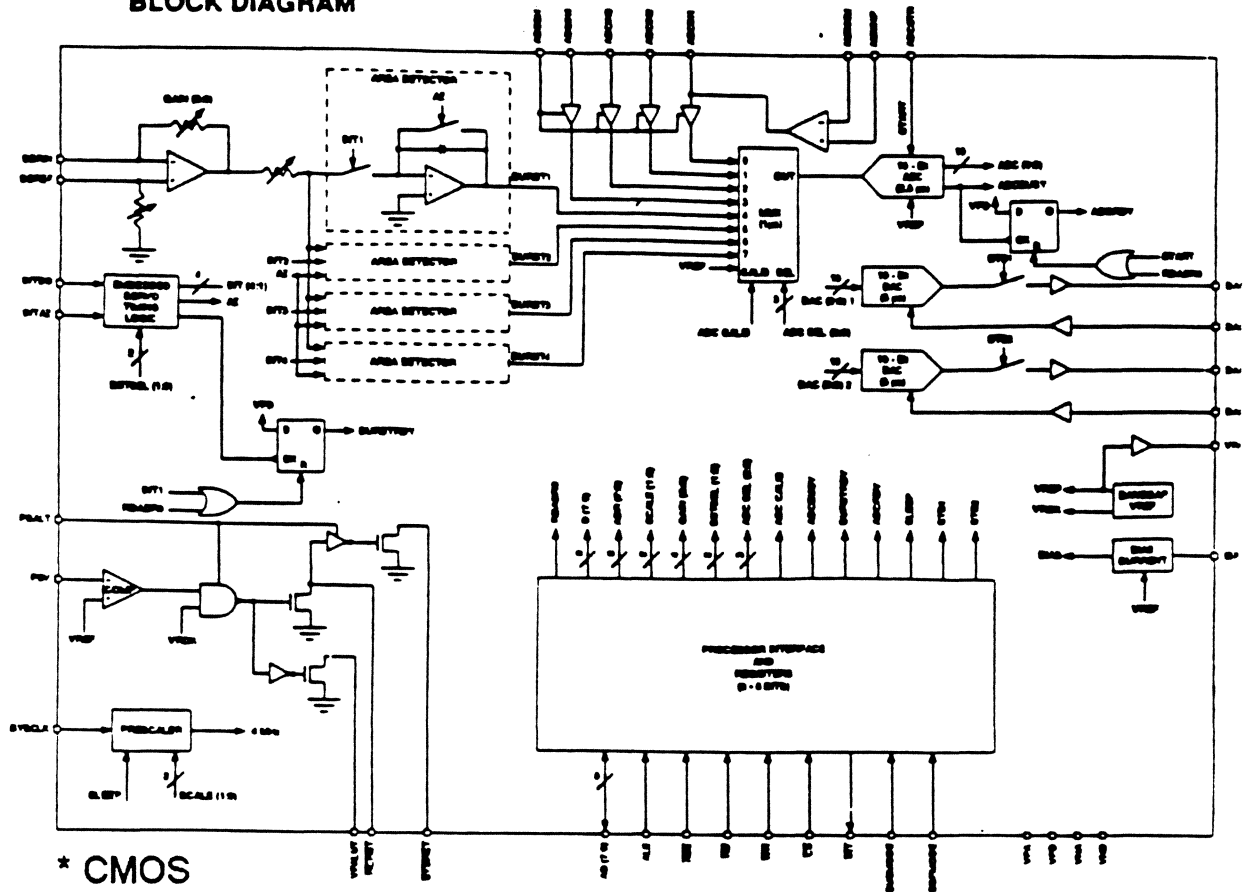
DEC '91 16-Nov-91

## Complete embedded servo front end for HDD



- Embedded Servo Demod.
- BICMOS Technology
- 10 Bit Resolution DAC (VCM) + ADC
- Area detect for increased noise immunity
- 'MOTEL' Interface
- 5V operation + 10%
- Power Down option
- On chip ref.
- Gated/Signal Sync'd mode (ZCD)
- Additional 8 bit DAC - for spindle control
- 5MHz signal input allowed
- 2.1 uSEC conversion time per acquired burst.
- Software control # of bursts, # cycles/burst.
- 28 SOIC /32 pin TSOP

# BLOCK DIAGRAM



\* CMOS

\* 5V + 5%

\* 8 CH 10 bit ADC 2.5  $\mu$ SEC.

\* Two 10 bit DAC's

\* Area Detection

\* PGA, software control

\* Gated control of integration

\* # bursts software control

\* Voltage fault detection

\* On chip ref.

\* Motel Interface

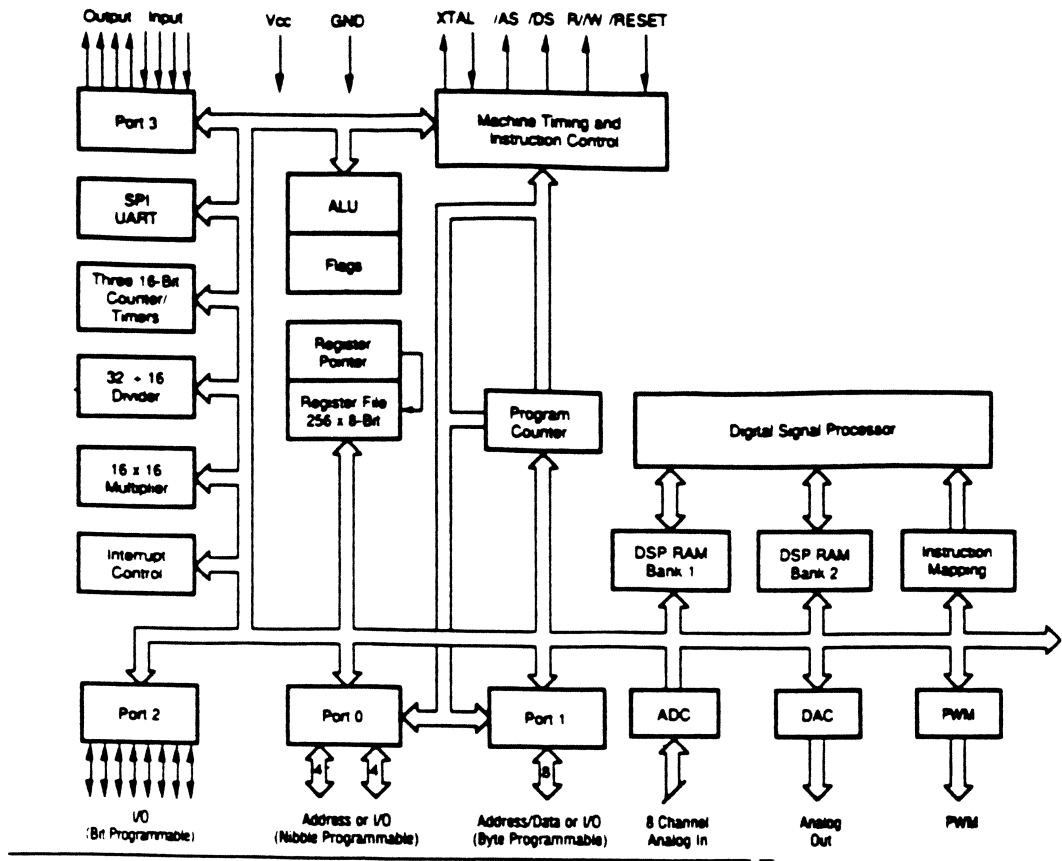
\* 44 SOIC

# SMALL DRIVE

## Further Integration : Options:

\* Merge A/D and D/A function with DSP/uP – (1)

\* Merge A/D & D/A function with  
– VCM Power Control  
– All Spindle Control Functions  
– Programmable servo timing control  
(Servo demod. merged with Read Channel – (2)




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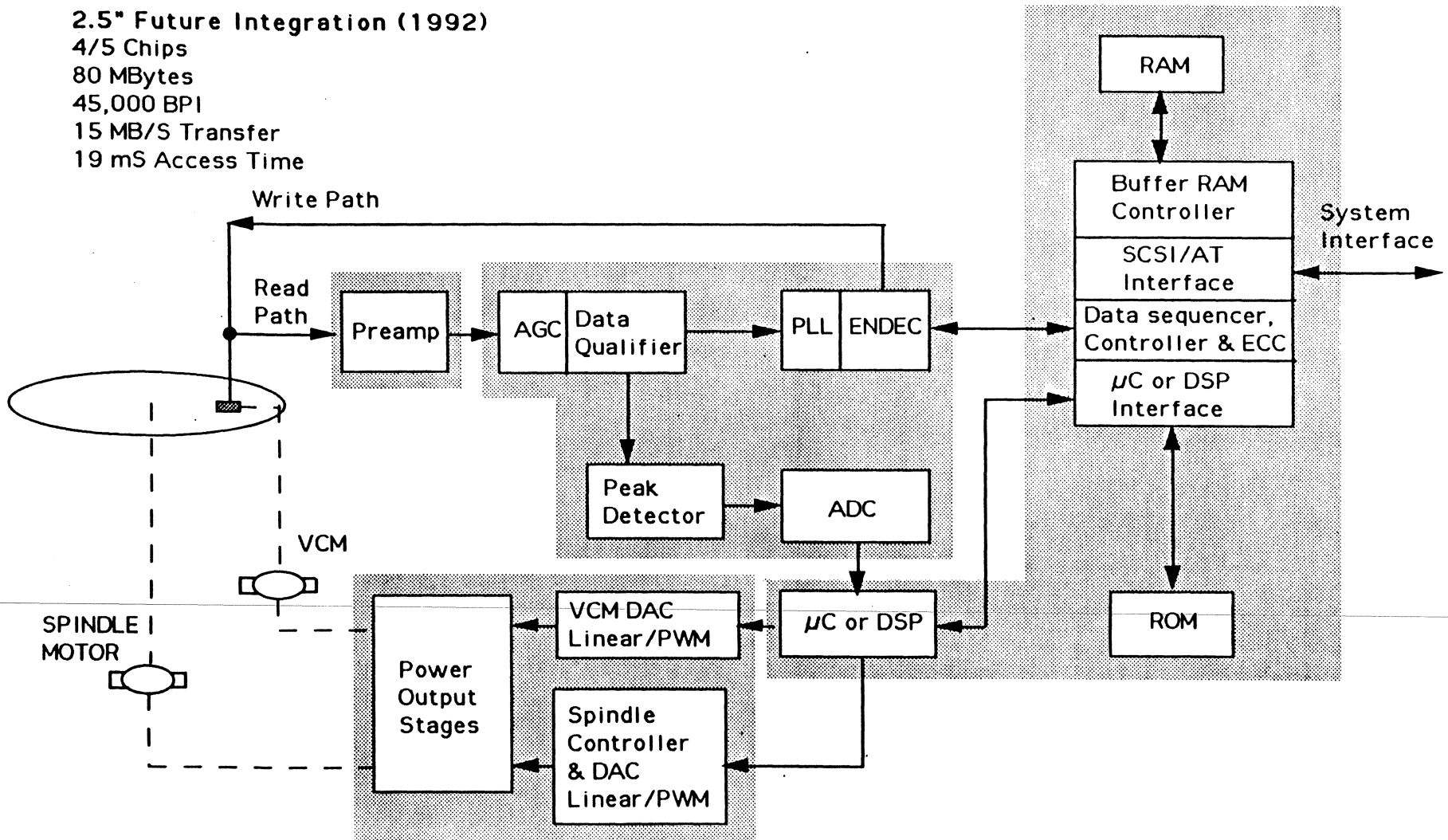
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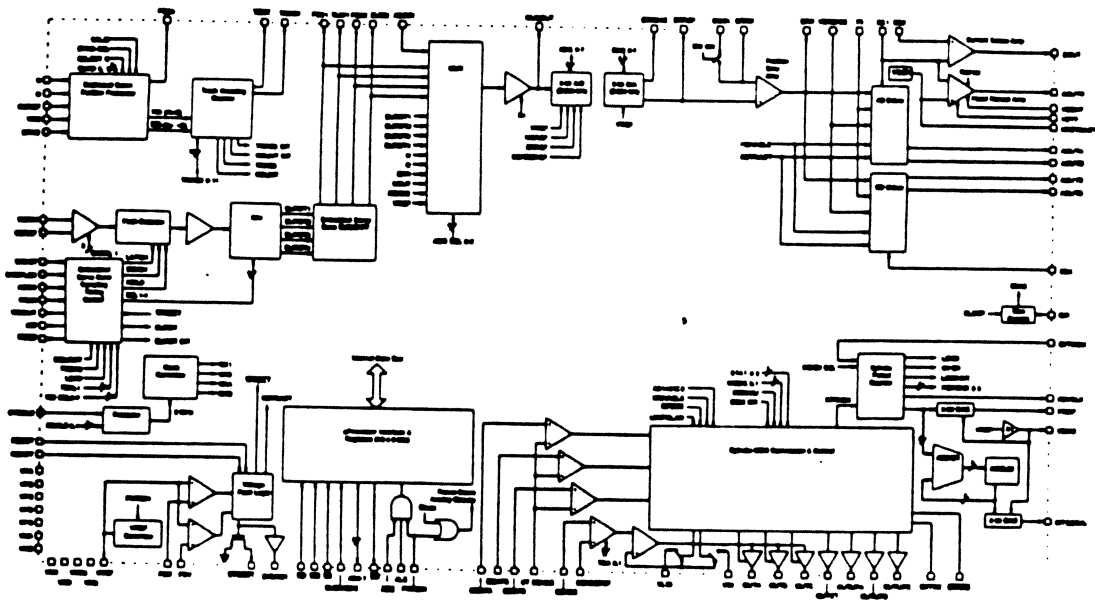


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### 2.5" Future Integration (1992)

4/5 Chips  
80 MBytes  
45,000 BPI  
15 MB/S Transfer  
19 mS Access Time





BLOCK DIAGRAM  
SBI 3294631

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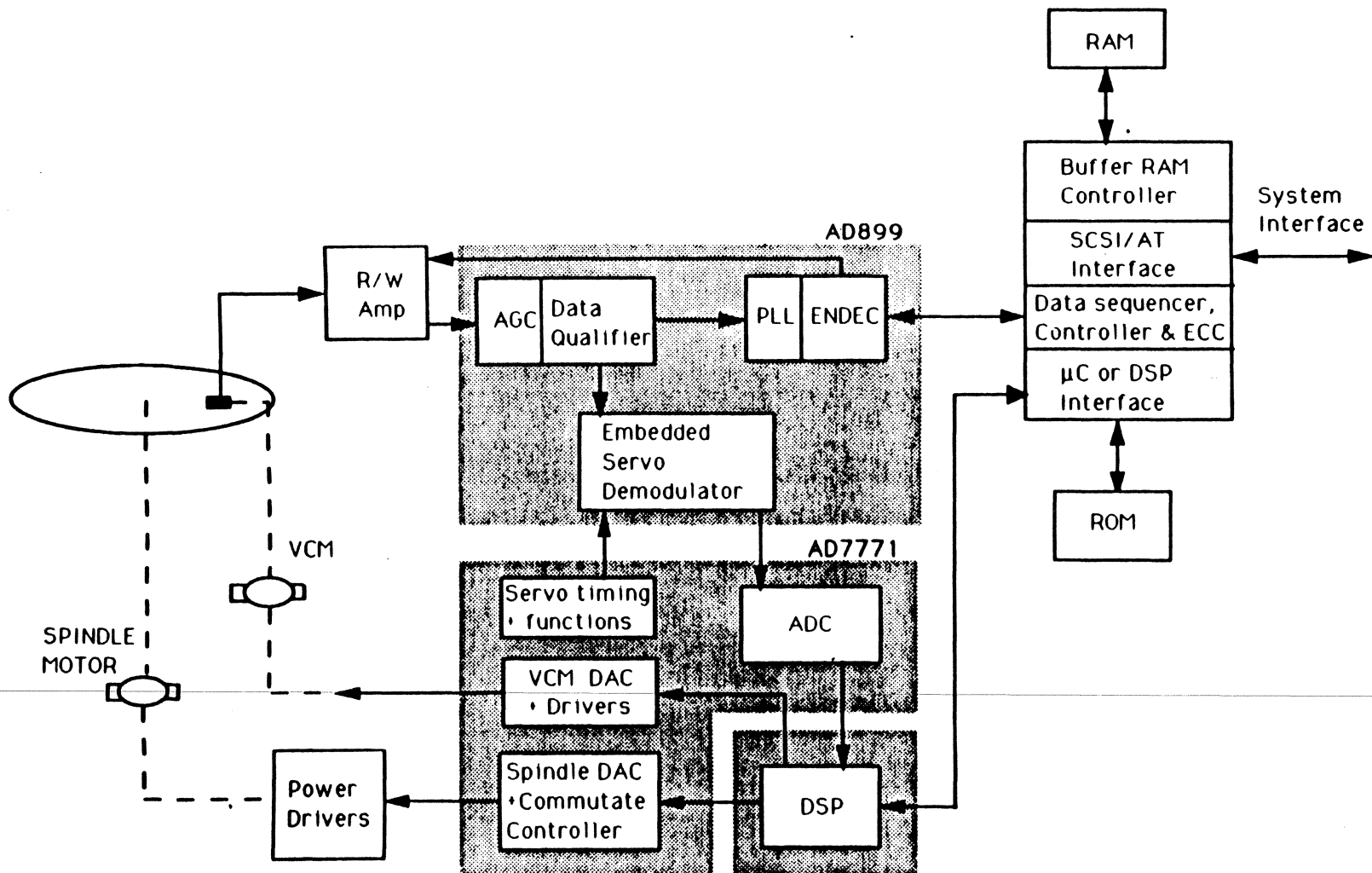
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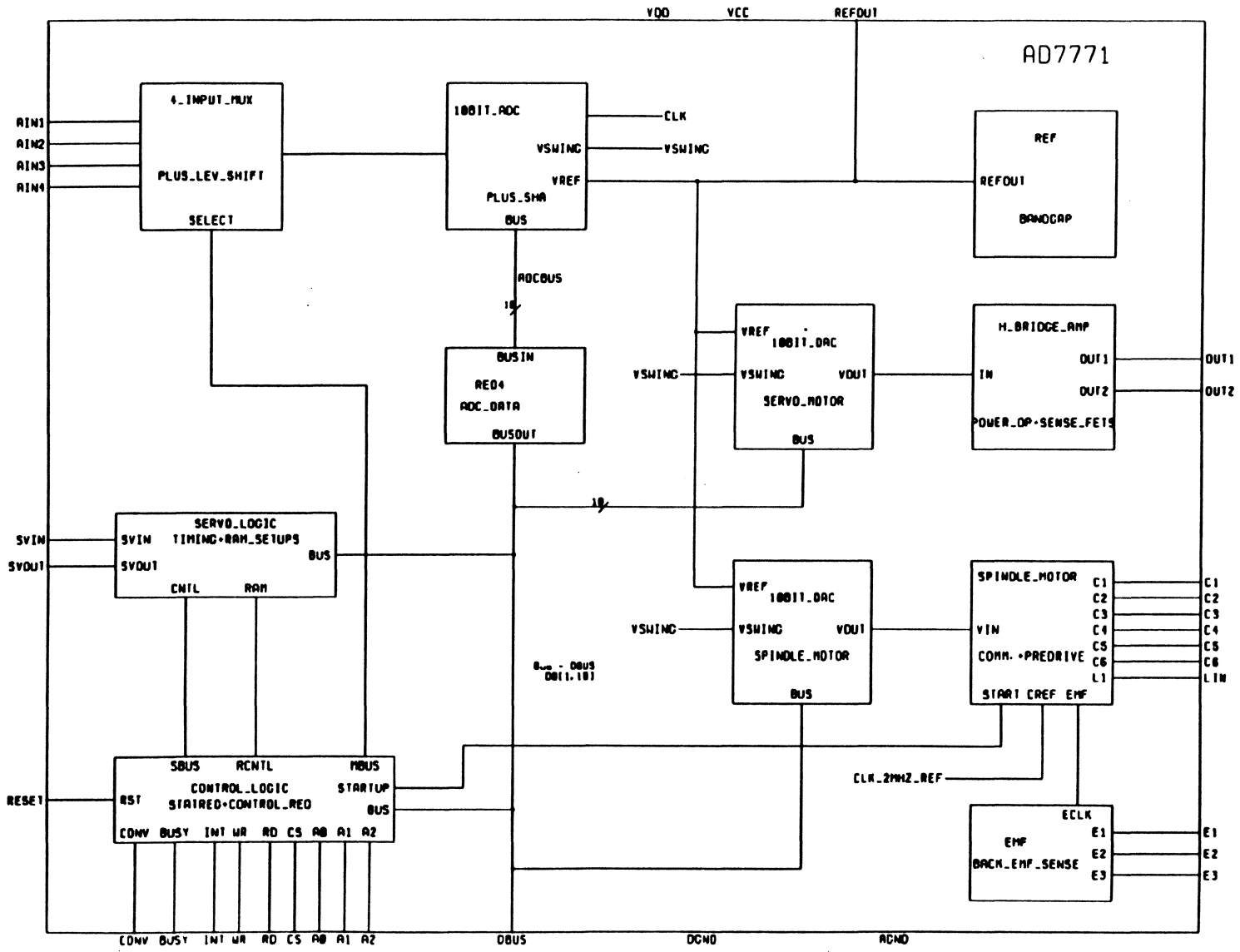
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# SMALL DRIVES

## **FUTURE:**

- 3V Operation
- Smaller motors
- Lower power drive < 250 mA (included on chip)
- CMOS
- Single chip embedded servo?
- Semiconductor Memories!!

# **ADC FOR PRML CHANNEL**

## **– TECHNOLOGY OPTIONS**

## **PROPOSED ADC SPECIFICATION**

<b>Resolution:</b>	<b>6 Bits</b>
<b>Accuracy:</b>	<b>Target 5.8 ENOB</b> <i>EFFECTIVE NUMBER OF BITS</i>
<b>Sampling Rate:</b>	<b>72 MSPS</b>
<b>Error Rate:</b>	<b>10 E - 10</b>
<b>Input Bandwidth:</b>	<b>5.8 ENOB to 25 MHZ</b> <b>5.0 ENOB to 50 MHZ (1.4 NyQuist)</b>
<b>Input Signal Range:</b>	<b>1.5 Vpp differential</b> <b>+/- 375 mV about 2.5V</b>
<b>Input Capacitance</b>	<b>5 PF Differential</b>

**Jitter**

< 40 PS

**PSRR**

< 30db at 30 MHZ

**Assumed Driving  
Impedance:**

100 ohms

**Power Supply:**

5V  $\pm$  10%

**Power Dissipation**

200 mW total

100 mW for comparators

**Temperature Range**

0° to 70° C Ambient

0° to 125° C Junction Temp.

**Package**

Surface Mount: (SOIC/PQFP)

## KEY COMPARATOR SPEC'S DEDUCED FROM ADC SPEC

- Error Rate (ER).
- Input signal bandwidth (B.W.).
- Power dissipation (per comparator) (P.D.).
- L.S.B. size/input signal range.

# COMPARATOR EVALUATION

- Bipolar, CMOS, BICMOS circuits studied.
- Relationships between technology/P.d/ER/BW established.



# BIPOLAR RESULTS:

- > 5 GHZ devices will meet 72 msp/s rate.
- Power dissipation is marginal.
- Dynamic range good.
- > 100 MHz input bandwidth possible.
- Good tolerance of temp/supply variations.
- Major problem with ECL to CMOS/TTL conversion.
- Can be extended to higher resolution.

# CMOS RESULTS:

- Technology  $\leq 1\mu$  meets 72 Msps rate.  
(No auto zero cycle).
- Power dissipation just O.K.
- Marginal on input bandwidth, sharp break – off.
- Concern on dynamic range, comparator offset.
- Solves the level shift problem.
- More sensitive to temp/supply variations than bipolar.

# BICMOS:

- Needs  $\leq 1\mu$  CMOS Technology.
- Needs good bipolar device  $\geq 5\text{GHz}$ .
- Meets power requirements.
- Input bandwidth to  $> 100\text{ MHz}$  possible.
- Dynamic range O.K., due to low offset.
- Good tolerance to supply/temp variations.
- Possible to increase resolutions.

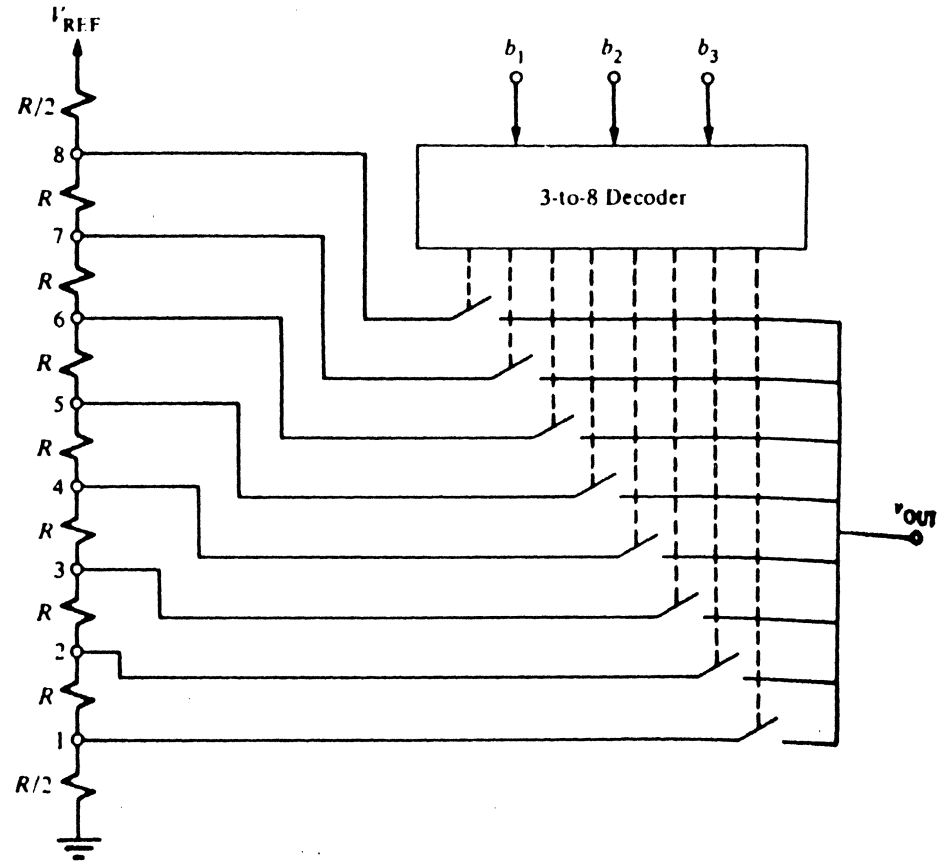
— **Best Choice for Target Spec.**

# DAC's FOR SMALL DRIVES OPERATING AT 3V.

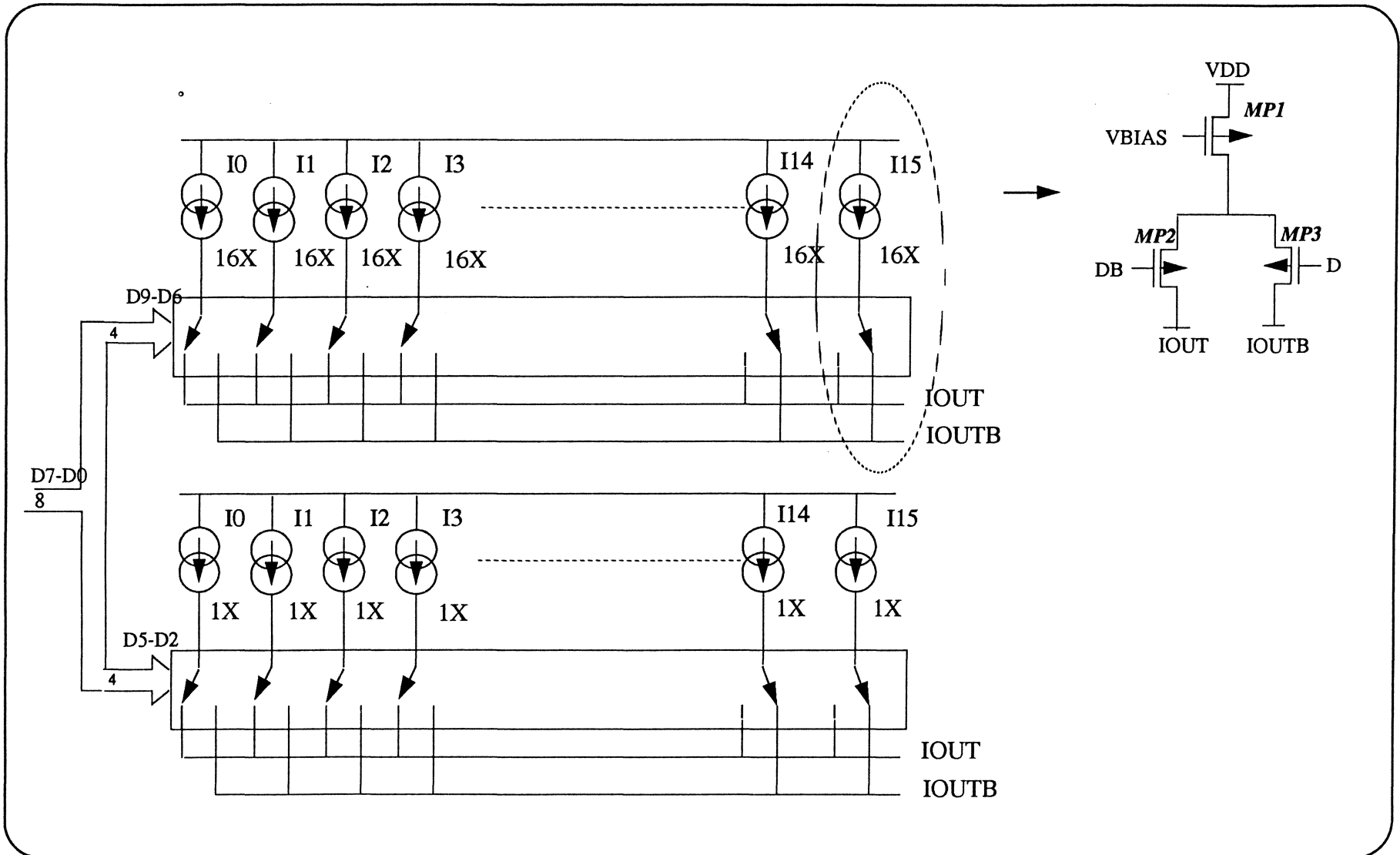
- What's the best architecture?
- Assume Fine Line CMOS technology:
  - (a) String Dac:
    - $2^N$  Switches (256/1024)
    - Poly Resistor string
    - Guaranteed monotonic to resolution
    - 7/8 bits accurate
    - Vout range; 0 to Vref
    - Static output
    - Needs high impedance load
    - Not very fast

7

### CMOS DIGITAL-ANALOG AND ANALOG-DIGITAL CONVERTERS



C



(b) – Current Source DAC  
(e.g. RAM DAC)

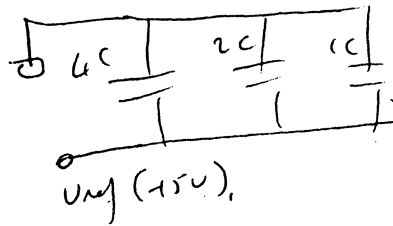
- Can be very fast
- Limited voltage output range (0 – 1.5V).
- 10 bits monotonicity possible
- 8/9 bits accurate
- Static output
- Could be calibrated.

(c) Switch Cap DAC

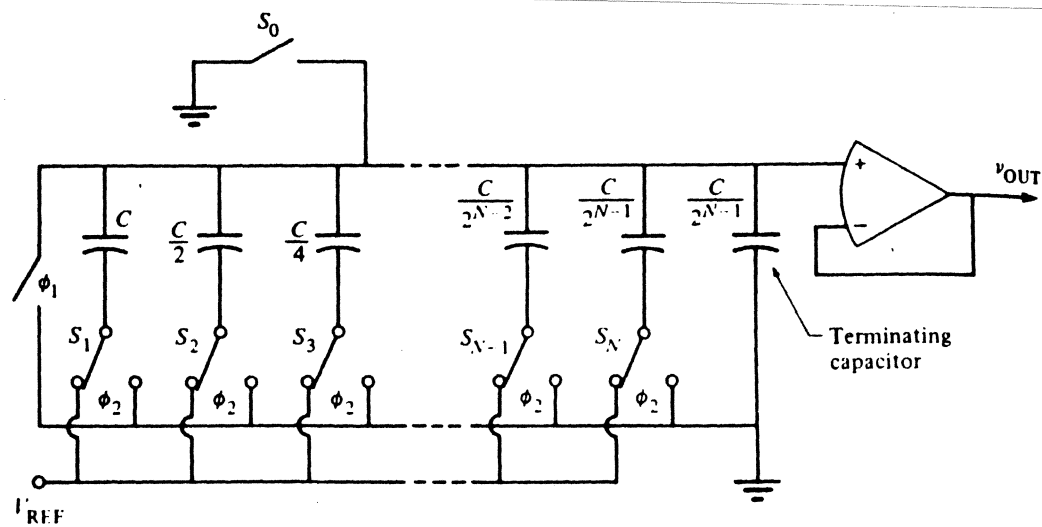
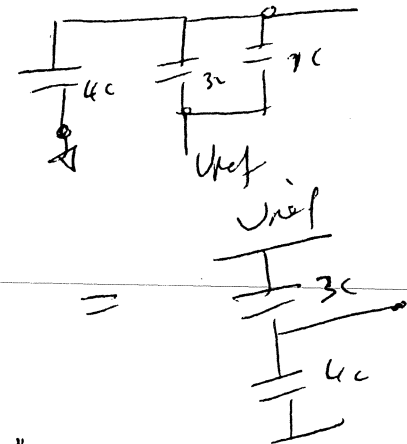
- C – 2C architecture or variations there of
- Dynamic output for fixed input code
- Needs post filtering
- Needs poly – poly caps. for 10 bits monotonicity
- Could be calibrated.



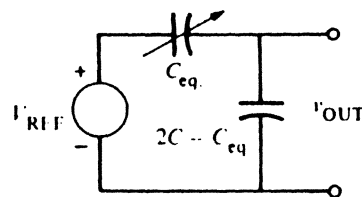
3 bit DAC



=>



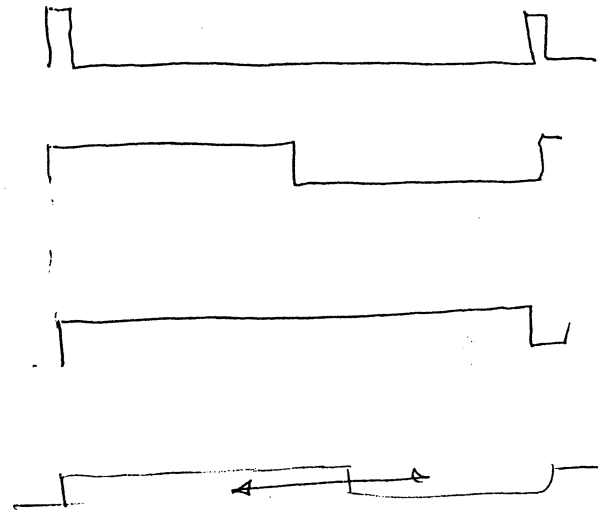
(a)



+

(d) P.W.M DAC

- 10 bits in 100uSEC possible
- Dynamic output
- Needs post filtering
- Small size.

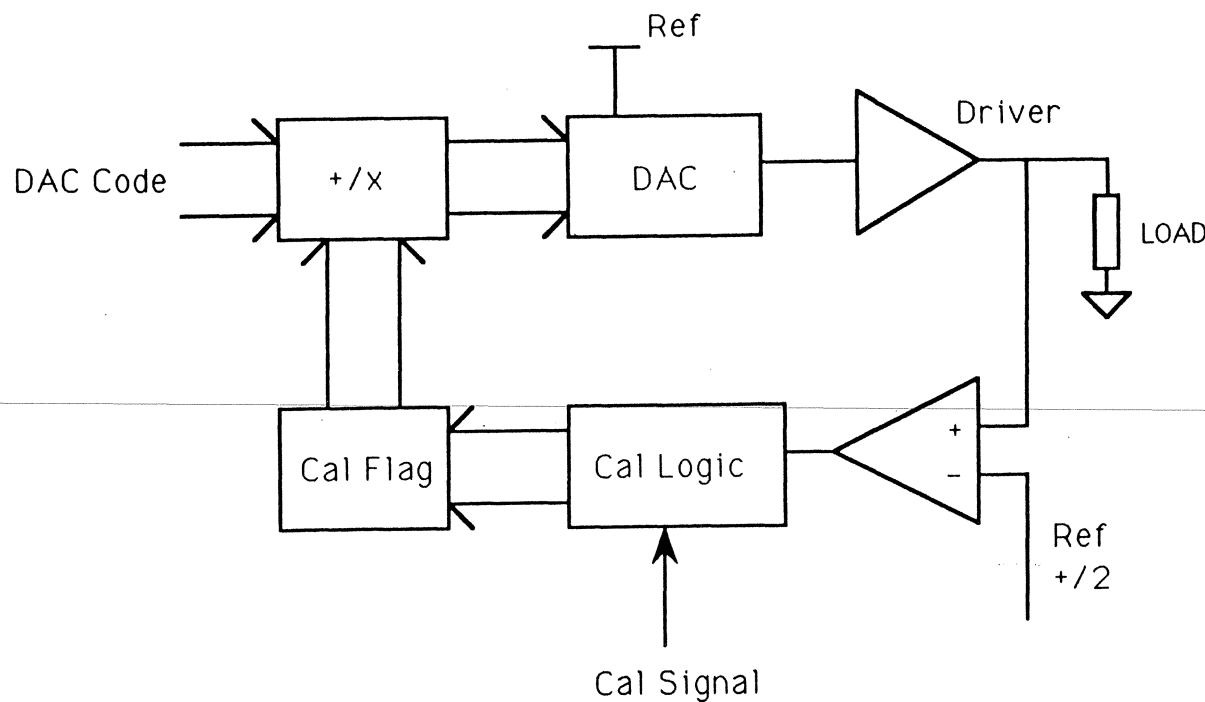


G

- Choice of architecture should consider complete function not just D/A function i.e. follow on amplifiers; power drivers etc..
- Adjustment required to zero – out accumulated offsets in the DAC/Driver chain.

- Use Calibration

But when can we calibrate??



I

## ADC'S for Small Drives operating at 3V

- What's the best architecture?
- Assume fine line CMOS Technology
- (a) SAR Technique:
  - Efficient in area
  - Low Power Consumption
  - Limited in conversion speed  
(1 uSEC at 8 bits, 3 uSEC at 10 bits)
  - Use string DAC/Switch Cap. DAC/ Current Source DAC.
  - Sampled data comparator design
  - 9 bits no missed codes possible
  - 7/8 bits accurate
  - Could be calibrated.

5

## SUCCESSIVE APPROXIMATION A/D CONVERTER ENCODER

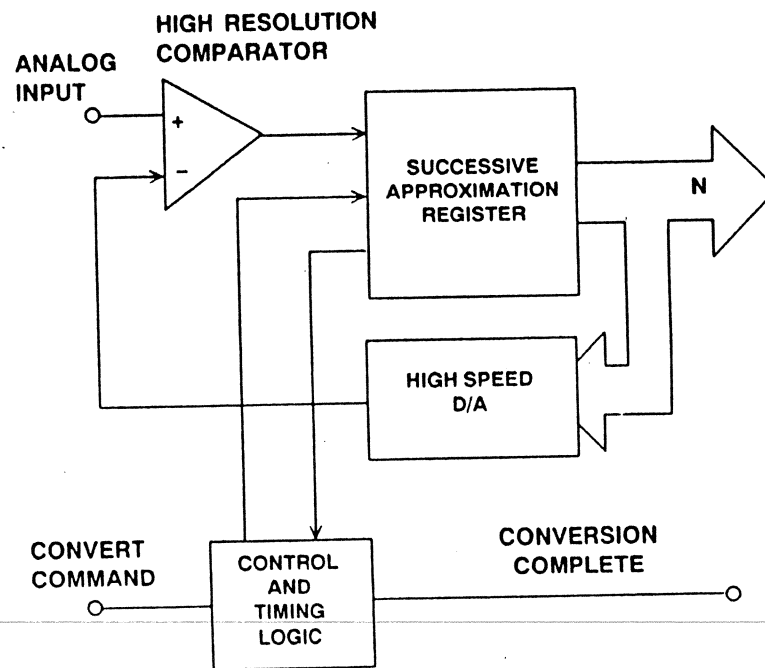
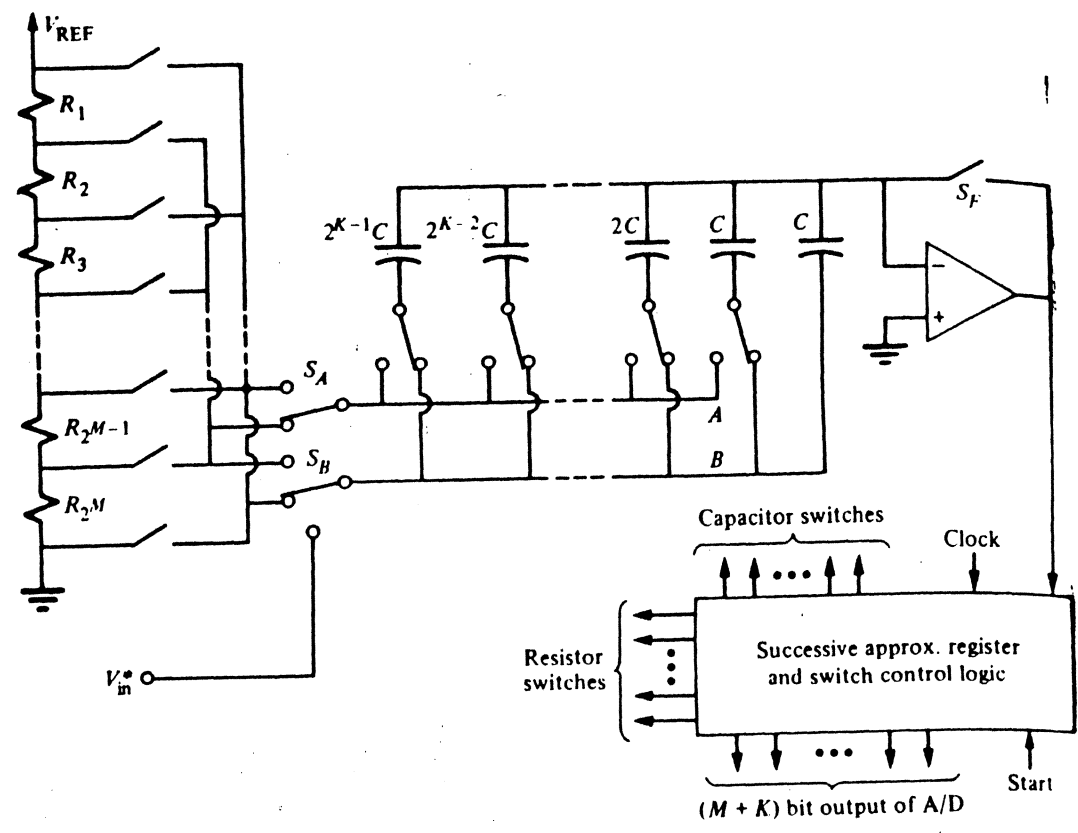
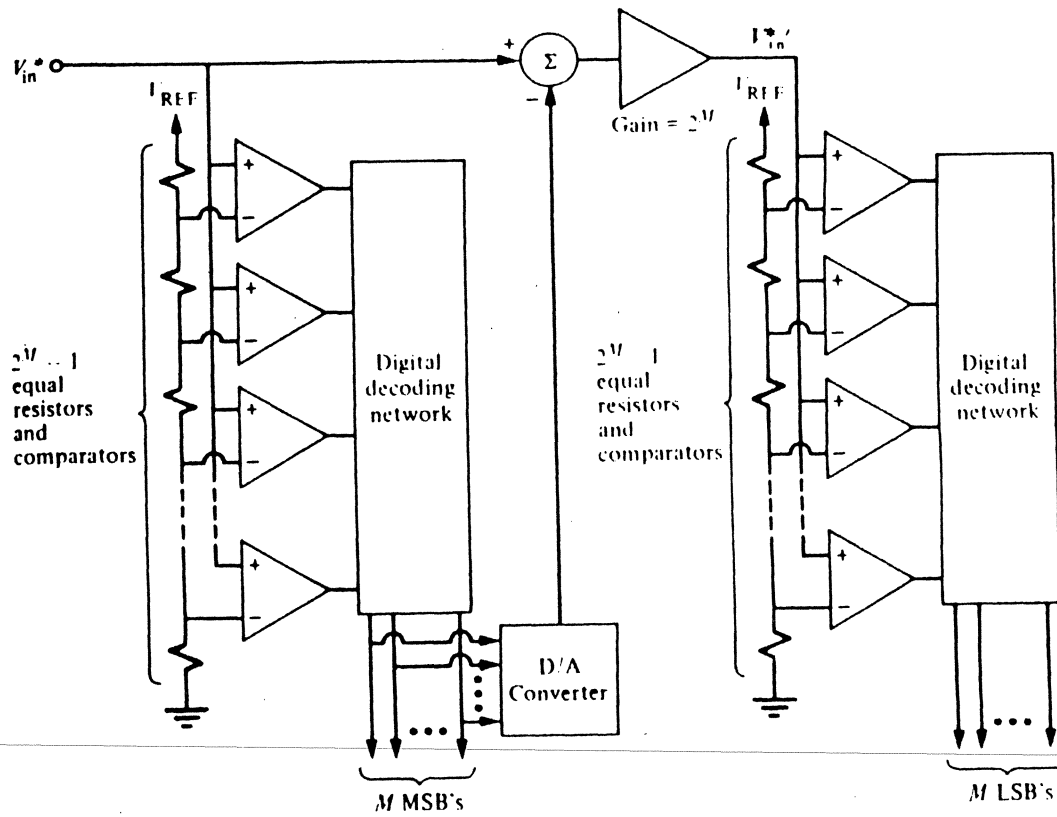


Figure 4.2

10.6.4. K





M.

(b) Flash – Flash technique:

- Achieves faster conversion time (200/400 nSEC).
- Greater power consumption
- Larger in area
- 8 bits (4 + 4)/10 bits (5 + 5) resolution
- 7/8 bits accurate
- Sensitive to noise.



N

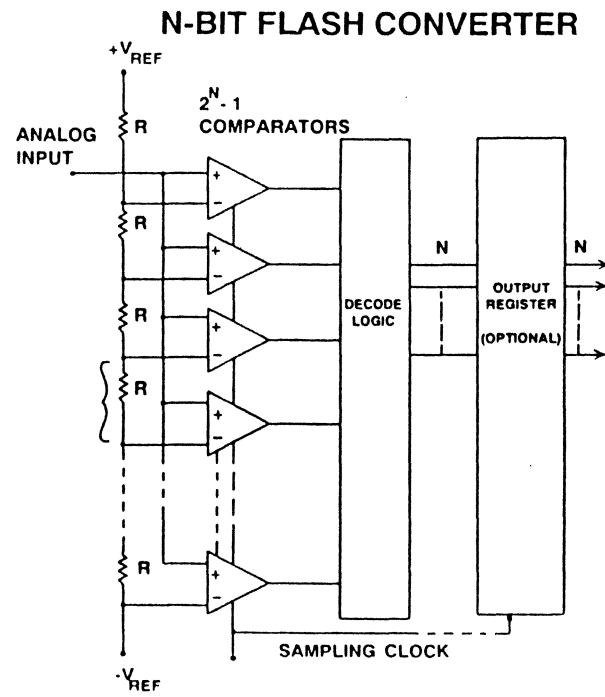
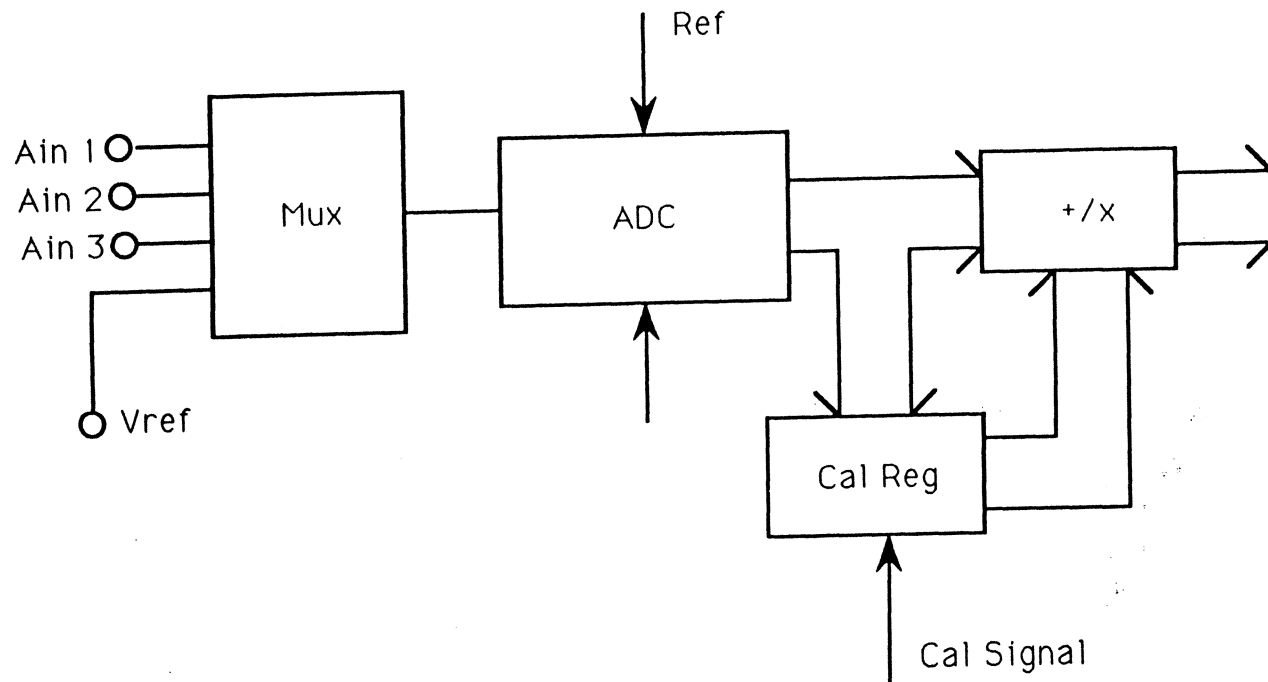


Figure 4.4

- Choice of architecture should consider complete function not just the A/D function, i.e. pre conditioning stages etc..
- With small signal span offsets become a problem.
  - Use calibration
  - when can we calibrate?



(c) Full Flash Technique:

- Very fast (50/100 nSEC)
- Power consumer
- large in area
- 8 bit resolution upper limit due to size
- Sensitive to noise

# MAGNETIC CHANNEL CHARACTERISTICS

EDGAR M. WILLIAMS  
*READ-RITE CORPORATION*

- Recorded Magnetization Patterns
- Zig-Zag Transitions in Thin Films
- Mathematical Approximations of Transitions
- Estimation of the Transition Parameter
- Write Field Gradient Limits on Transitions
- Writing at High Transition Densities
- Time-Domain Asymmetry and Overwrite
- Readback Pulses and Transition Shape
- Readback Pulse Shape and Head Geometry
- Pulse Interference and Amplitude Spectra
- Pulse Shape Influence on Complex Data Patterns
- Pulse Shape Influence on Peak Shift
- Head and Medium Noises
- Influence of Noise and Interference on Error Rate

OBSERVATION OF RECORDED MAGNETIZATION PATTERNS BY ELECTRON HOLOGRAPHY

K. Yoshida, T. Okuwaki, N. Osakabe, H. Tanabe  
 Y. Horiuchi, T. Matsuda, K. Shinagawa  
 A. Tonomura and H. Fujiwara.

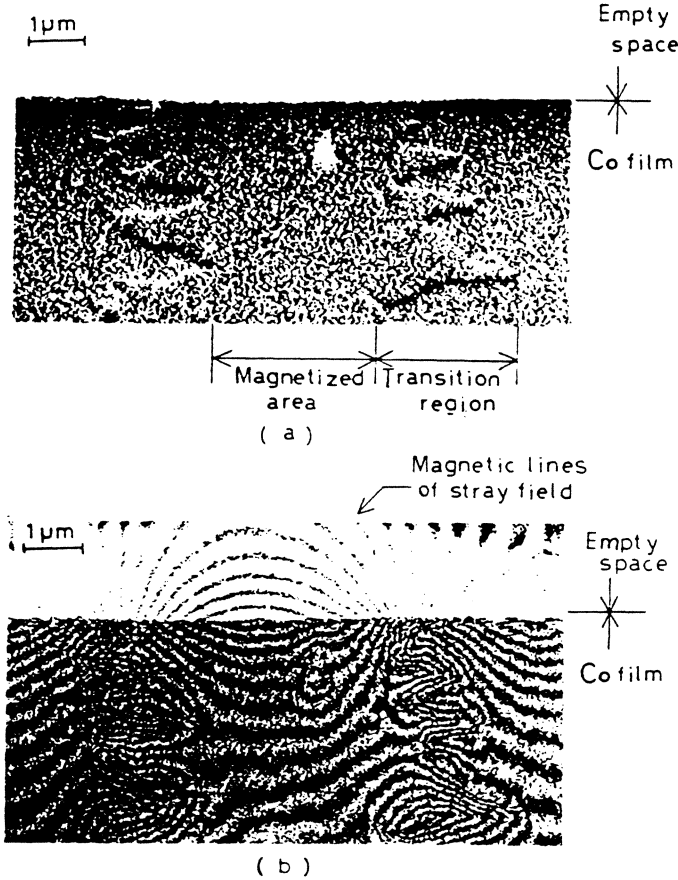


Fig. 5. Recorded magnetization pattern on a Co film (film thickness=45nm, coercivity=27kA/m, saturation induction=1.1T). A bit length is 5μm. (a) Lorentz micrograph. (b) Interference micrograph.

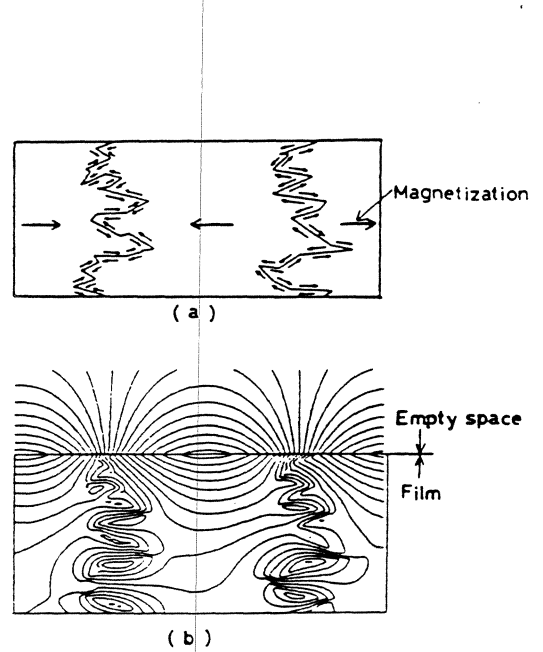
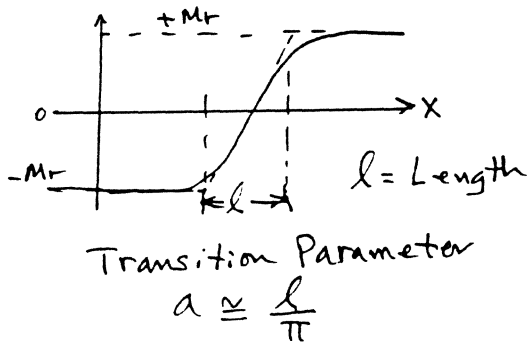


Fig. 6. Calculated interference image. (a) Presumed magnetization distribution. (b) Calculated interference image using the model of (a).

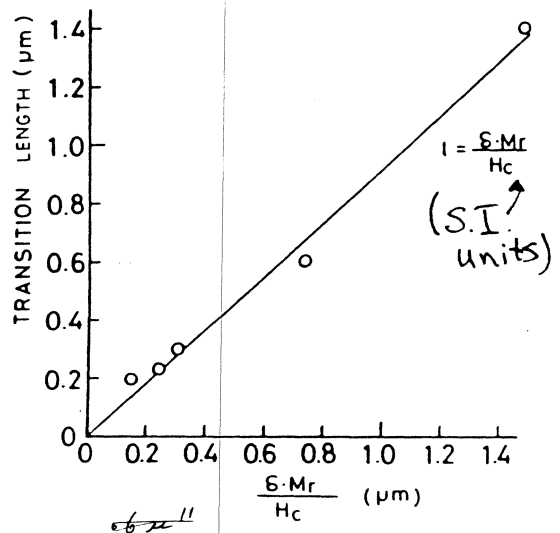


Fig. 7. Transition length as a function of  $5M_r/H_c$ .

Zigzag Transition Profiles, Noise, and Correlation Statistics

in Highly Oriented Longitudinal Film Media

by

T. C. Arnoldussen

H. C. Tong

International Business Machines Corporation  
 General Products Division  
 San Jose, California



Figure 1: Lorentz micrograph of 300 fr/mm track. Track direction is left to right.

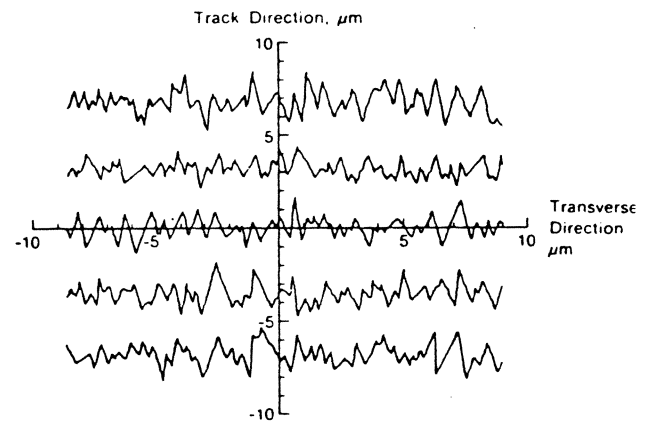


Figure 2: Digitized zigzags.

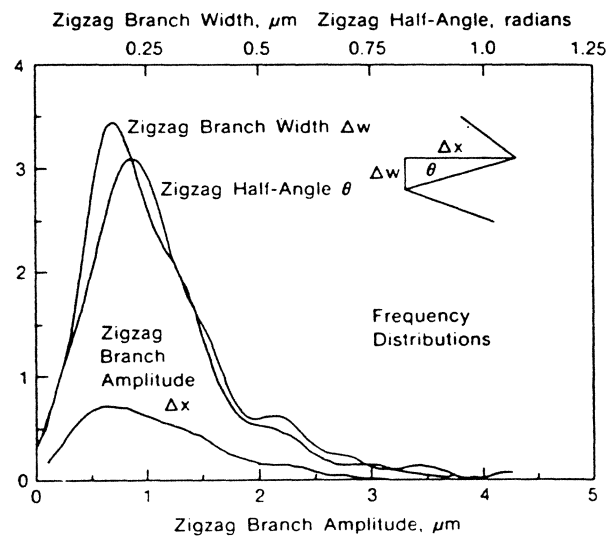


Figure 5: Zigzag dimensional distributions.

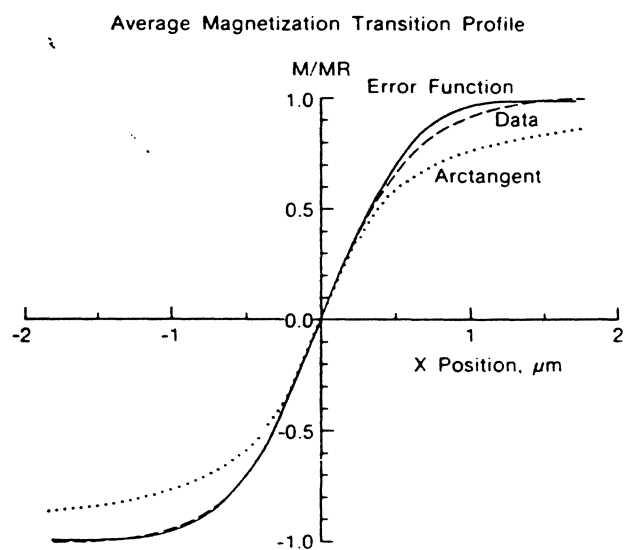
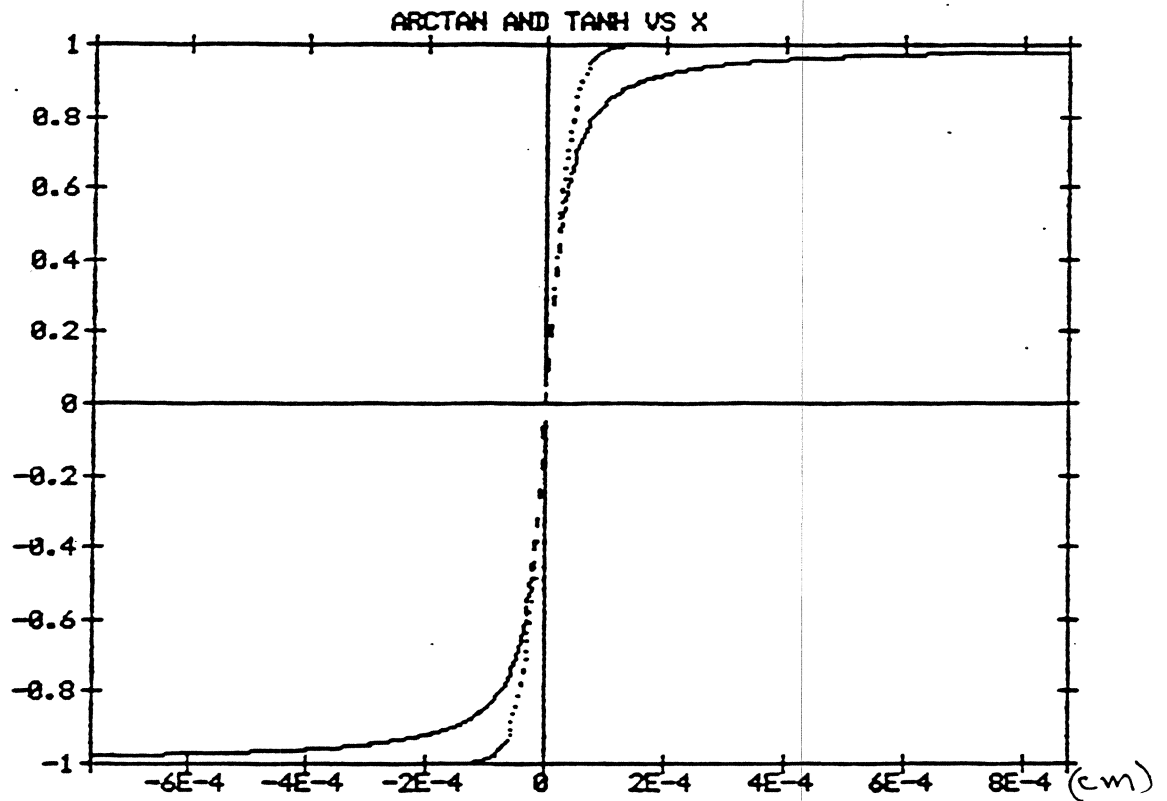


Figure 3: Composite magnetization transition profile.

ROSCAMP curve used to model

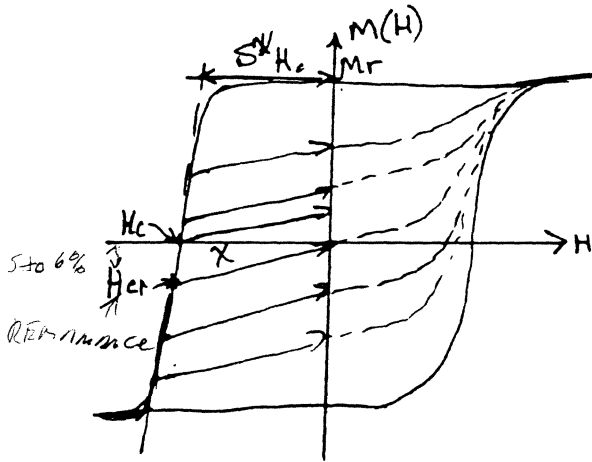


$$a = 0.253 \mu$$

$$\frac{2}{\pi} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) \quad \frac{1}{\pi} \quad \tanh\left(\frac{2x}{\pi a}\right)$$

# THE WRITTEN TRANSITION

Ref.: M.L. Williams & R.L. Comstock, PROC. A.I.P. Conf. on Magnetism & Magnetic Materials, 1971.



$$\left. \frac{dM}{dx} \right|_{x=0} = \frac{dM}{dH} \left( \left. \frac{dH_h}{dx} + \frac{dH_d}{dx} \right|_{H=H_{cr}} \right)$$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad M(x) = \frac{2M_r}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right)$$

$\textcircled{2}$  Demagnetizing Field Gradient

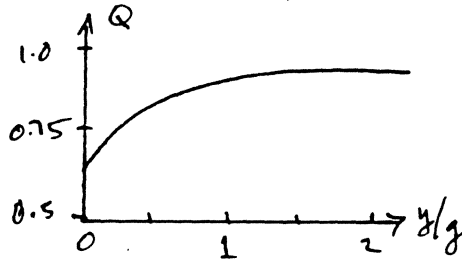
$$\left. \frac{dH_d}{dx} \right|_{H=H_{cr}} = - \frac{4M_r \delta}{a^2}$$

( $\delta$  = magnetic film thickness)

Intermediate Transition:

$$\frac{a_1}{r} = \frac{y(1-s^*)}{\pi Q} + \left\{ \left[ \frac{y(1-s^*)}{\pi Q} \right]^2 + (2M_r \delta / H_c) (2y / Qr) \right\}^{1/2}$$

$$r = 1 - \chi(1-s^*)H_c / M_r, \quad \chi = M_r / 4H_c$$



Assumes  $\left. \frac{dH_h}{dx} \right|$  is at maximum

$$\therefore \frac{dH_h}{dx} = Q \frac{H_c}{y r}$$

↑  
SPACING FROM GAP &

Final Transition:

$$a_2 = \frac{a_1}{2r} + \left[ \left( \frac{a_1}{2r} \right)^2 + 2\pi \chi \delta \frac{a_1}{r} \right]^{1/2}$$

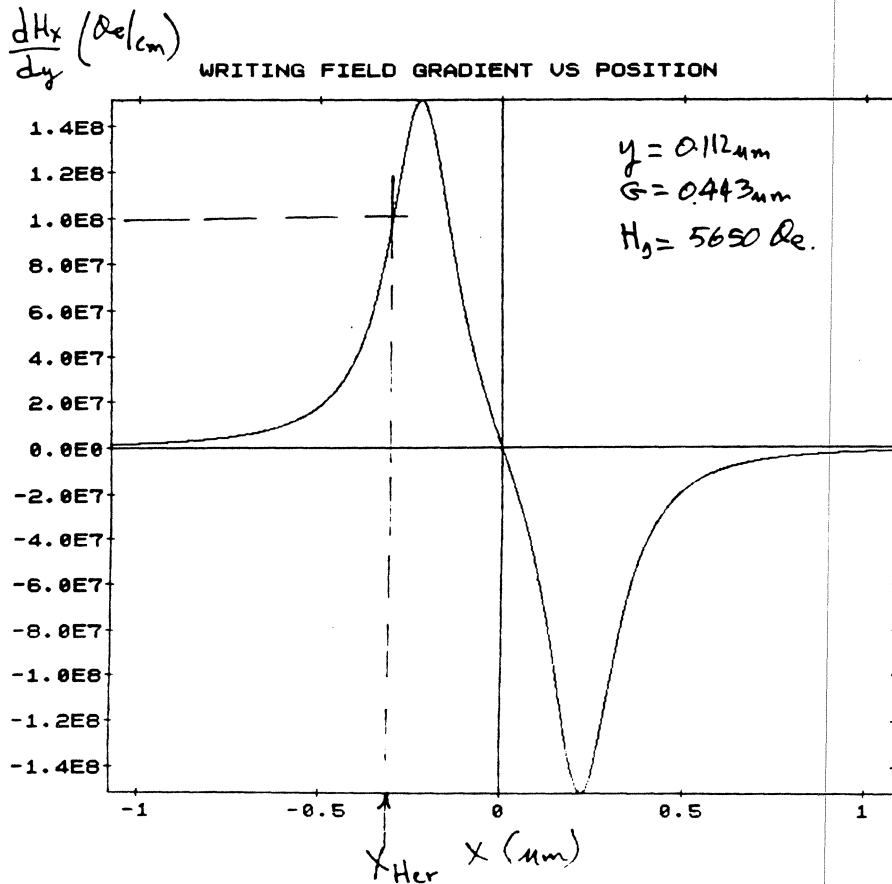
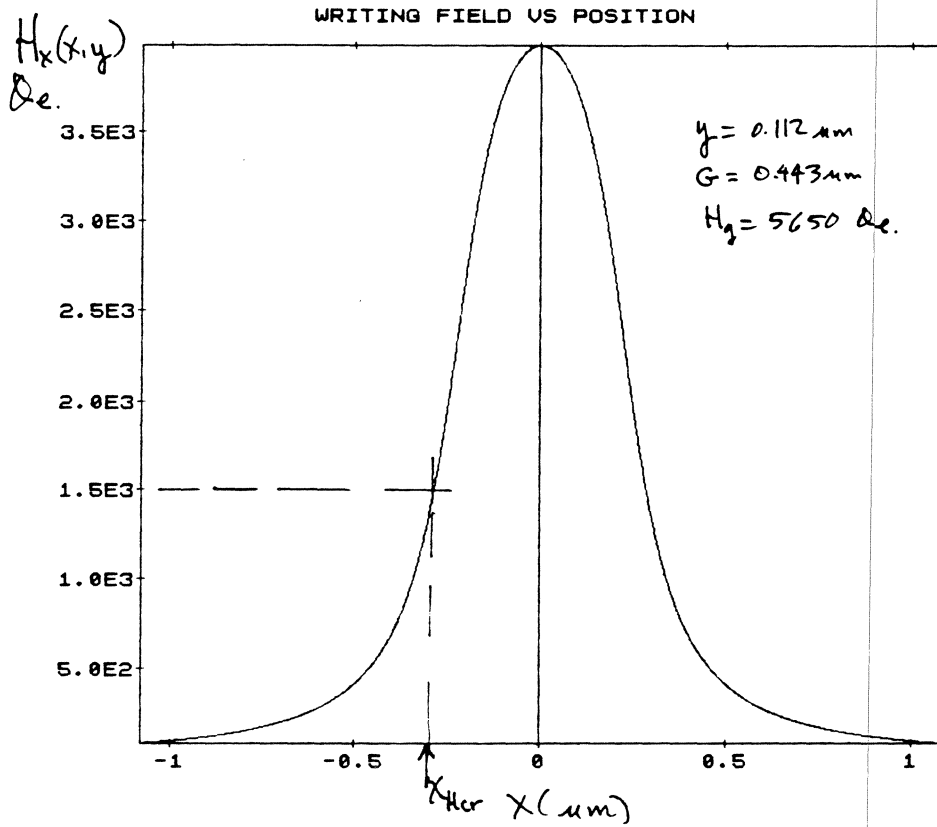
$a_2 > a_1$  (ie. transition broadens after leaving write field)

Head-Limited Transition:

$$a_h = \frac{H_c}{\left. \frac{dH_h}{dx} \right|} \quad (\text{at } H_x = H_{cr})$$

G. Williams  
12/7/91

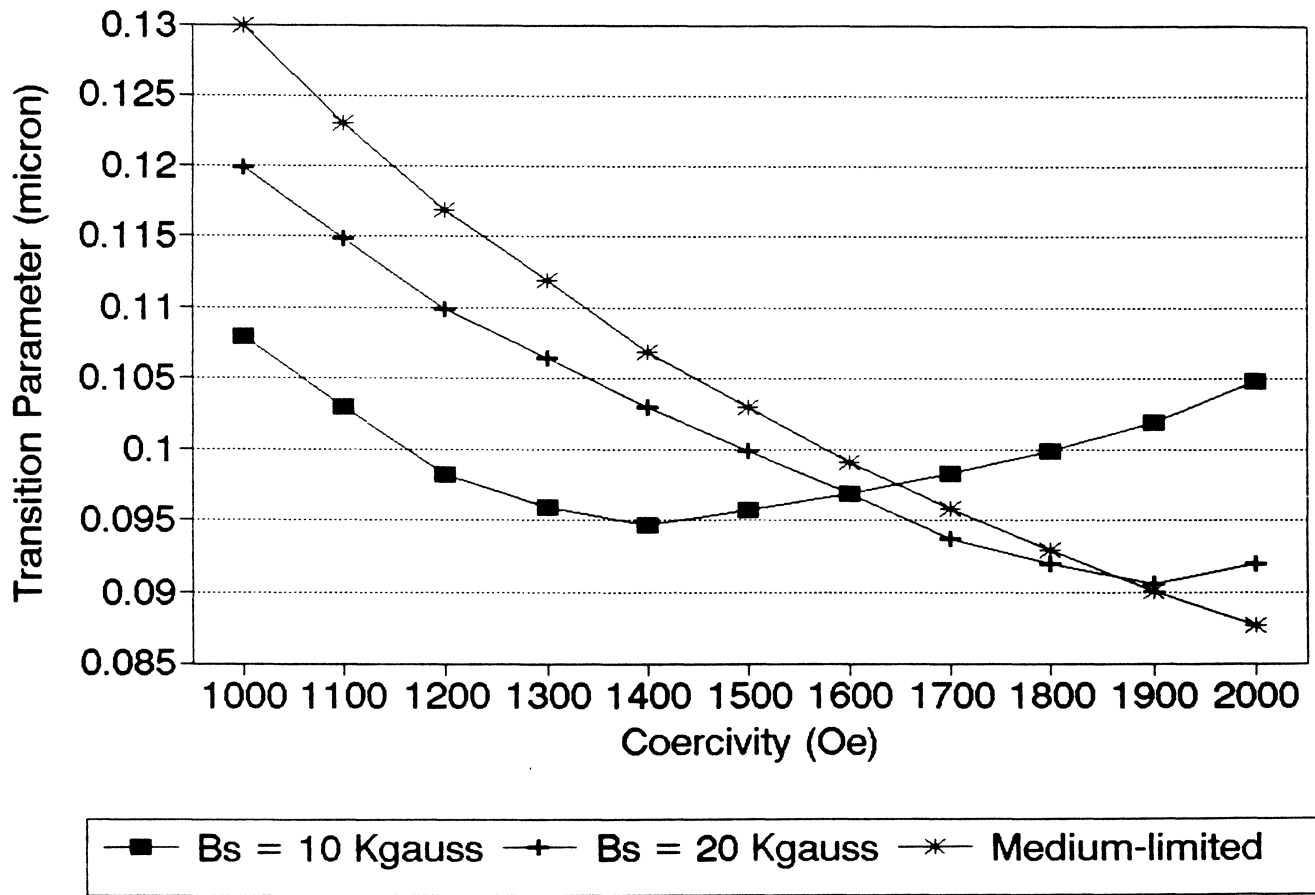




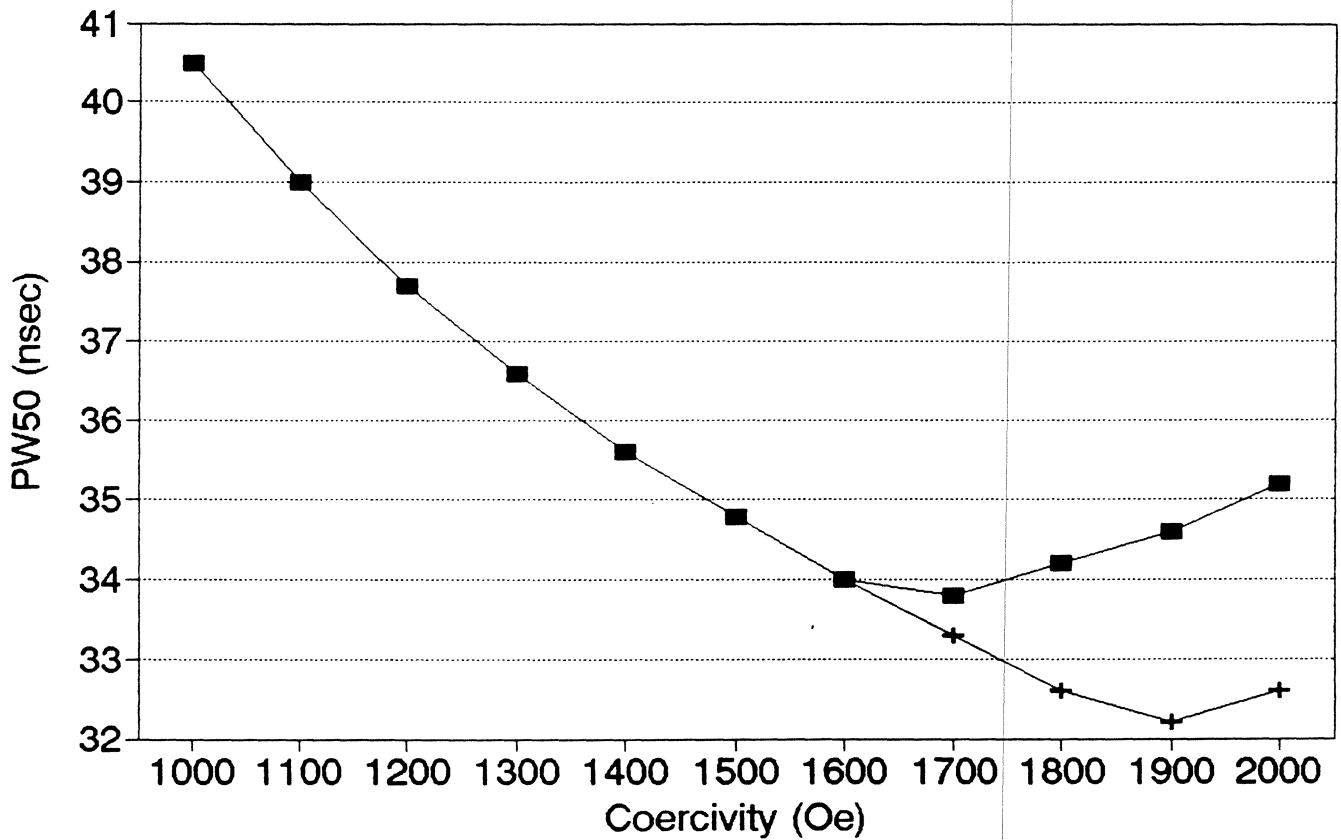
Ernst Williams  
12/7/91

# Transition Parameter vs Coercivity

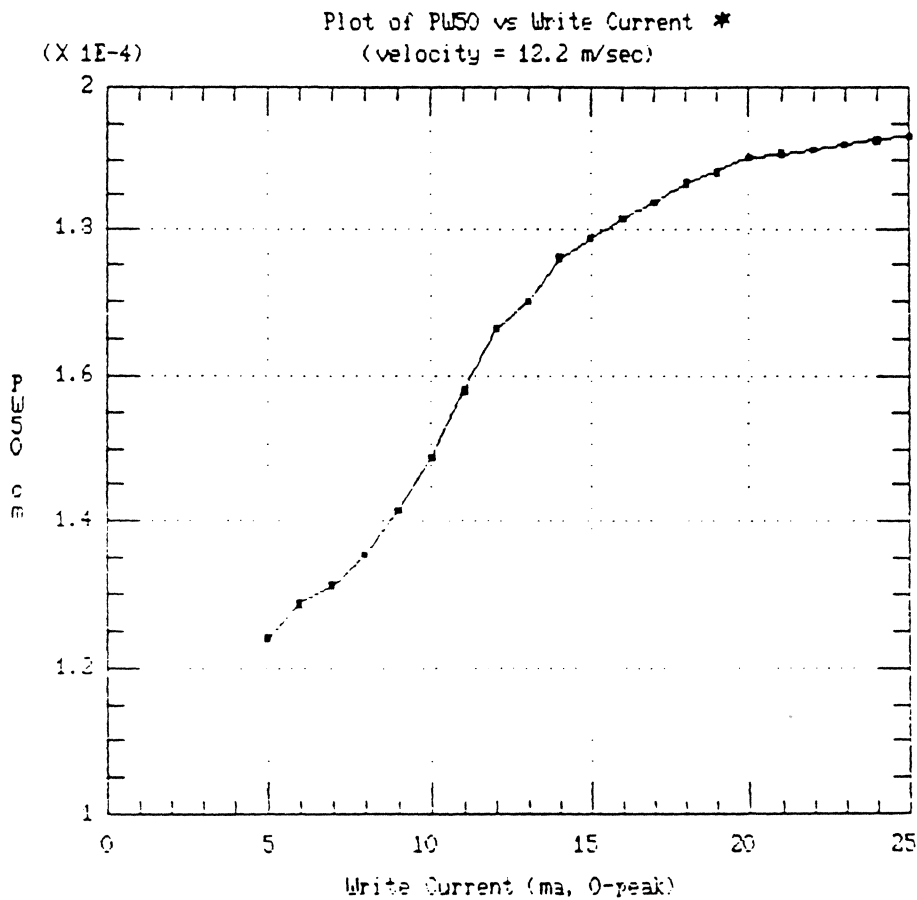
## Write Gradient and Medium-limited



# Pulse Width vs Coercivity



—■—  $B_s = 10$  Kgauss —+—  $B_s = 20$  Kgauss



Thin Film Head :  $PL/G/P2 \approx 3.2/0.5/3.2 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$  ; 32 turns

Thin Film Disk :  $M_r = 750 \text{ emul/cc}$  ;  $H_c = 1100 \text{ Oe}$  ;

$\delta = 650 \text{ \AA}$  ;  $S^* = 0.90$

Overcoat =  $350 \text{ \AA}$

Flu Height  $\approx 0.225 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$

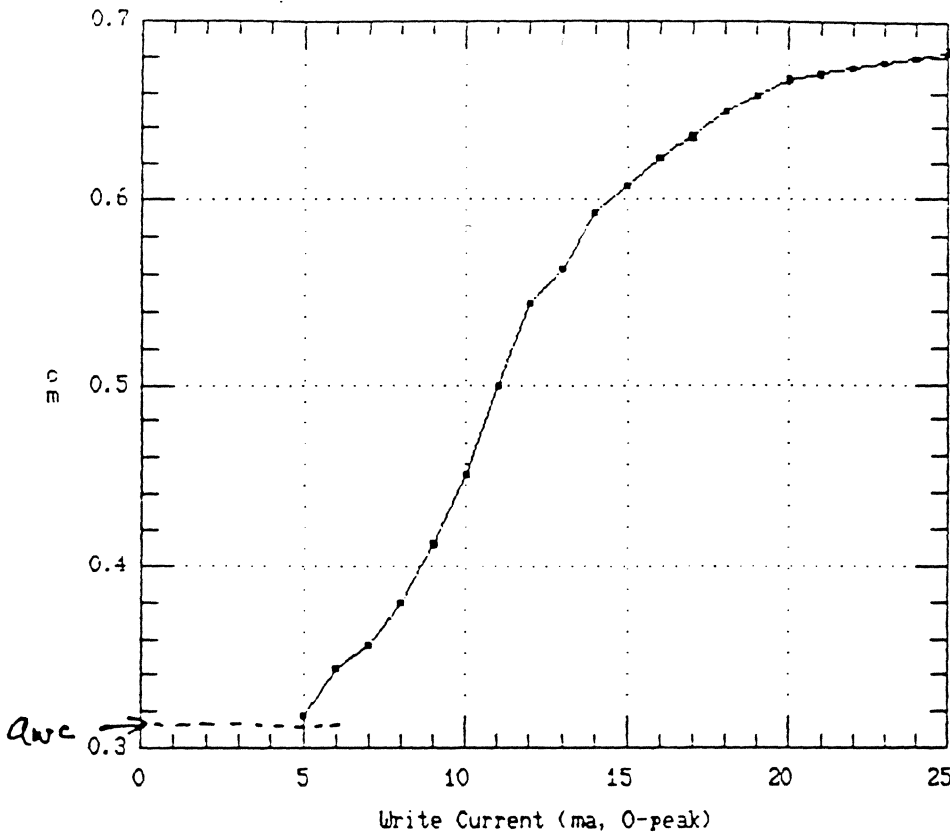
\* Head over-lapped: Throat  $\approx 1.53 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$   
to demonstrate  
gradient limitations

E.M. Williams  
Read-Rite Corp.

19/14

(X 1E-4)

Transition Parameter vs Write Current



Deconvolved Parameter:

$$a = \left[ \frac{pwso^2 - q^2}{4} \right]^{1/2} - d$$

$$d = \text{fly. ht.}$$

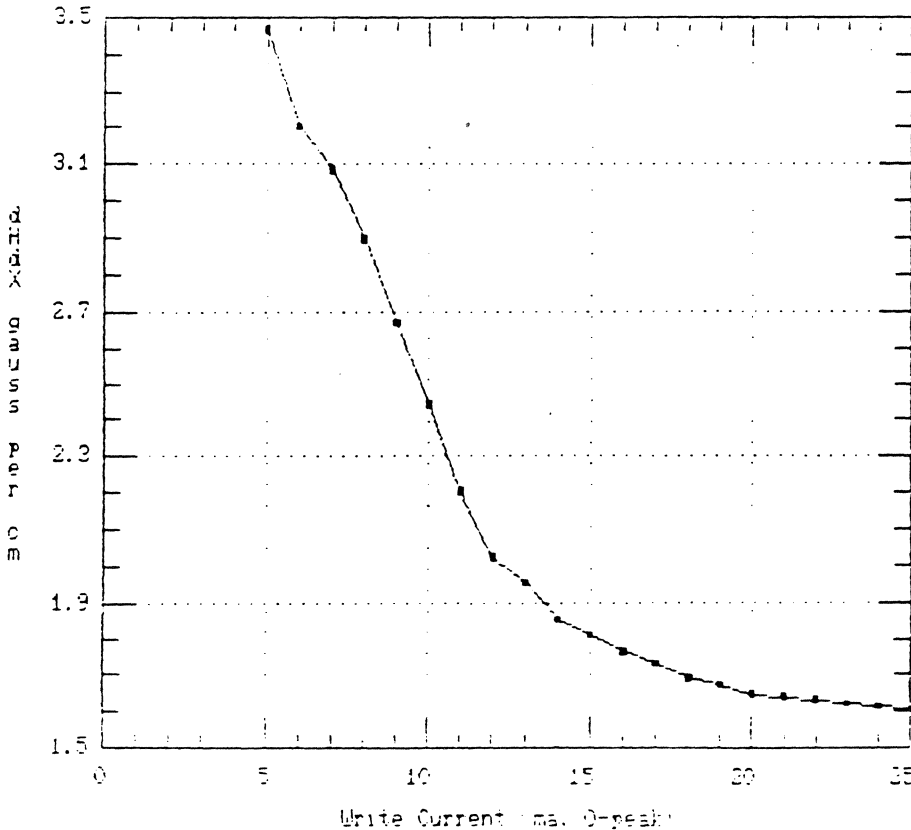
Medium-limited  
 transition parameter  
 (Williams-Ooms lock):

$$a_{wc} \approx 0.31 \mu\text{m}$$

Write Field Gradient vs Write Current

(X 1E7)

(dH/dx = Hc/a; Hc = 1100 Oe)



Gradient is computed from  
 experiment, under the  
 assumption that transition  
 parameter is limited by  
 head field gradient.

"a" is the deconvolved value

E.M. Williams

Read-Rite Corp.  
 20/24

## WRITING AT HIGH TRANSITION DENSITIES

- Partial erasure of previously written transitions (sometimes called "non-linear writing effects").
- Writing occurs near the trailing edge of the gap.
- Gap edge saturation exacerbates partial erasure effects (writing field spreads and write gradient decreases).
- Transition Density

$$\text{Density} = 1/(\text{T}_{\text{min}} \times \text{Velocity})$$

- Partial erasure of previous transition is likely if

$$\text{Density} \approx 2/G \quad (G = \text{gap length})$$

$$\text{or } \text{T}_{\text{min}} \approx G/(2 \times \text{Velocity})$$

- Simple Example:

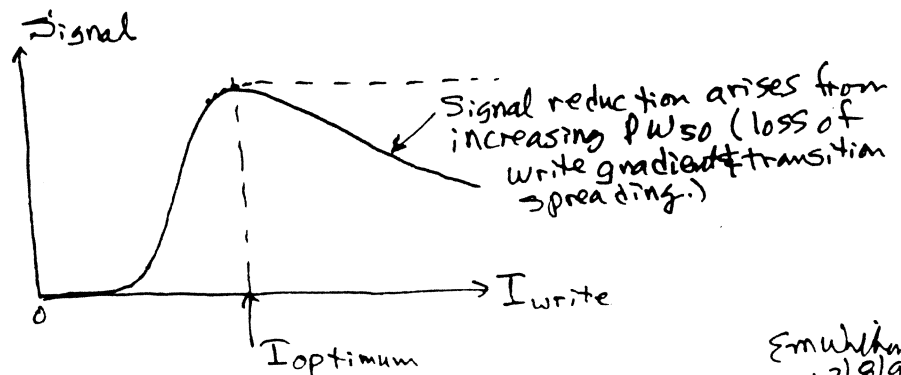
$$\text{Velocity} = 6 \text{ meters/sec (236 in/sec)}$$

$$G = 0.40 \mu\text{m}$$

For  $\text{T}_{\text{min}} \approx 33 \text{ nsec}$ , partial erasure may occur.

- Effective gap length increases when writing with excessive

write current.

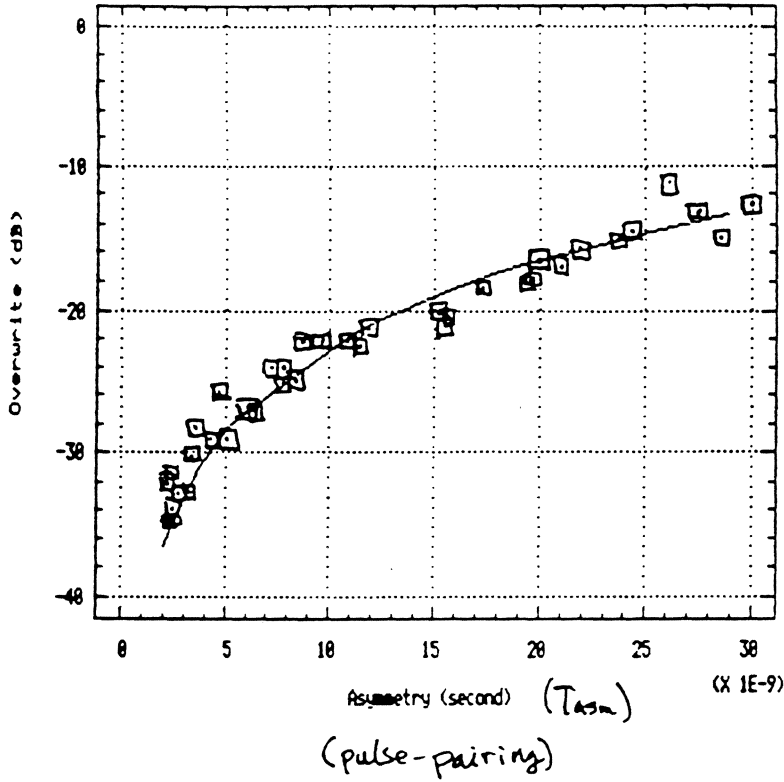


Em Williams  
12/8/91

# TIME-DOMAIN NATURE OF OVERWRITE

Overwrite vs Asymmetry (pulse-pairing)

P36 on 1200 Oe



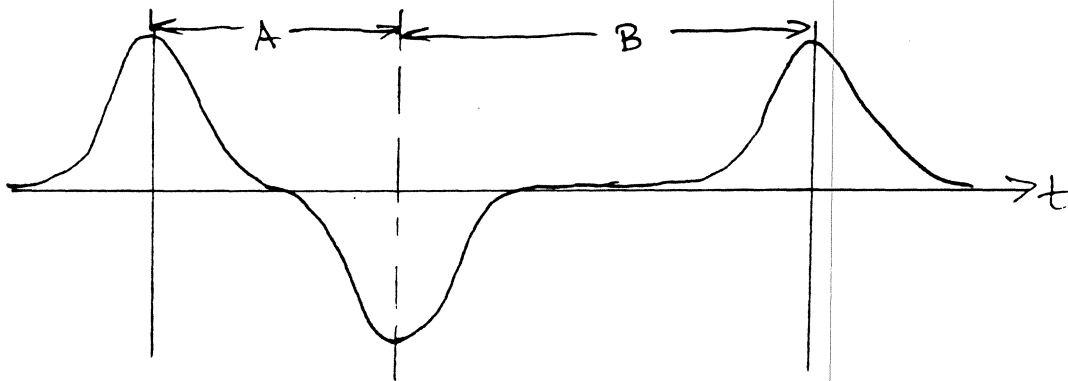
□ □ R&D Greek Experiments at Read-Rite

— Computed from  $OW = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\pi f \cdot R \cdot T_{asm}}{2} \right)$   
 $5 \text{ MHz}; T_0 = 4 \text{ ns}; H_c = 1200 \text{ Oe}$   
 $R = 0.95 (95\%); T_{asm} = 4 T_{wo}$

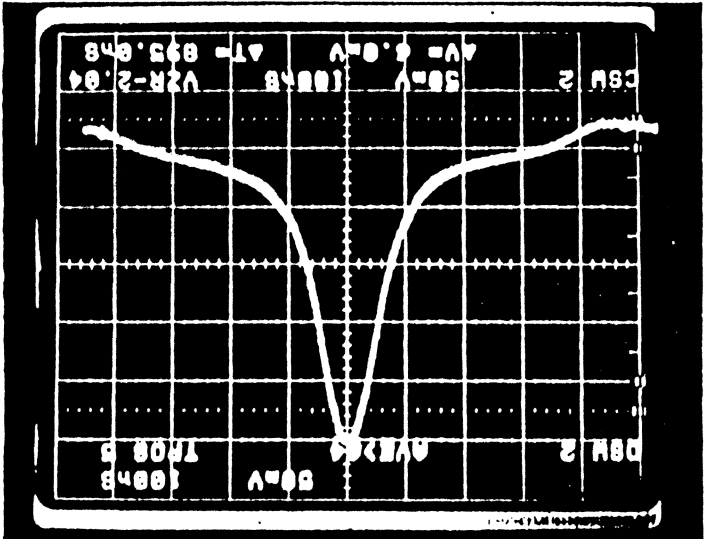
$$OW (dB) = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\pi f \cdot R \cdot T_{asm}}{2} \right)$$

E. Wilhelm  
 6/14/88  
 Read-Rite

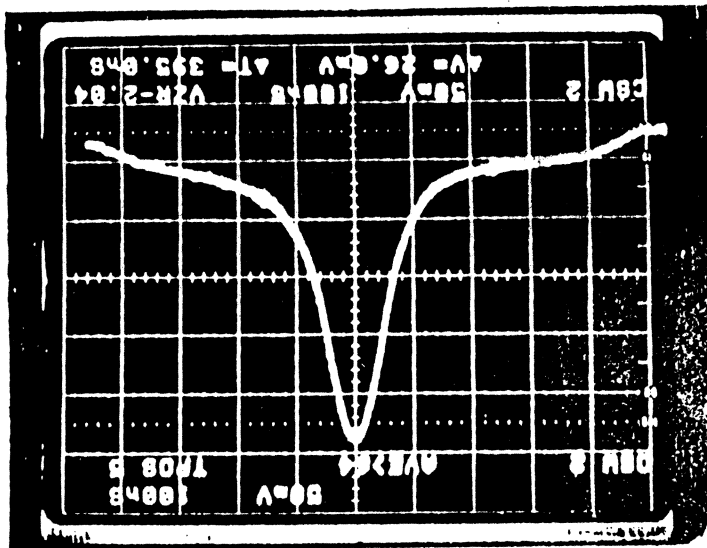
write-induced Phase-shift =  $T_{wo} = \frac{T_{asm}}{4}$



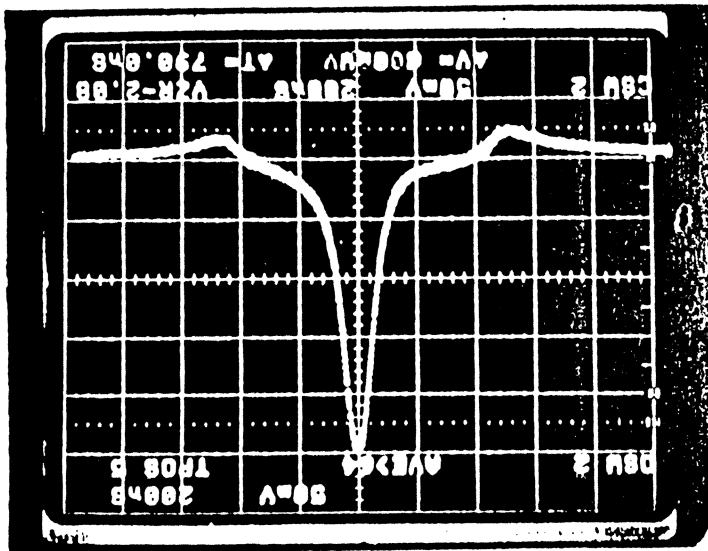
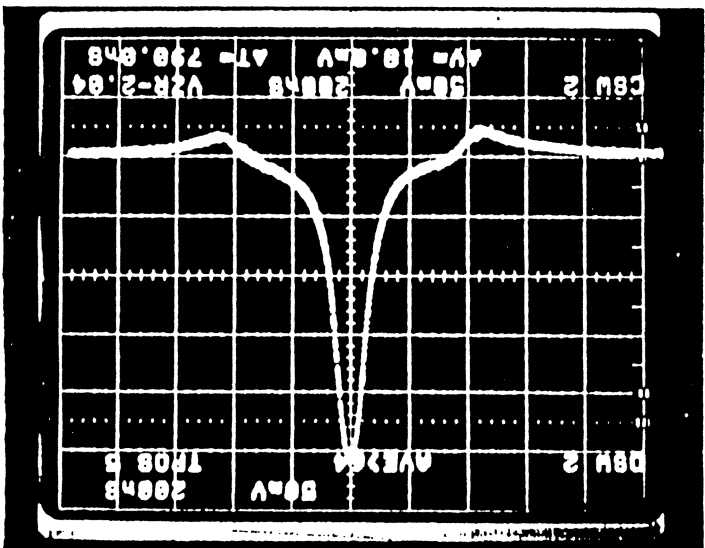
$T_{asm} \hat{=} B - A$



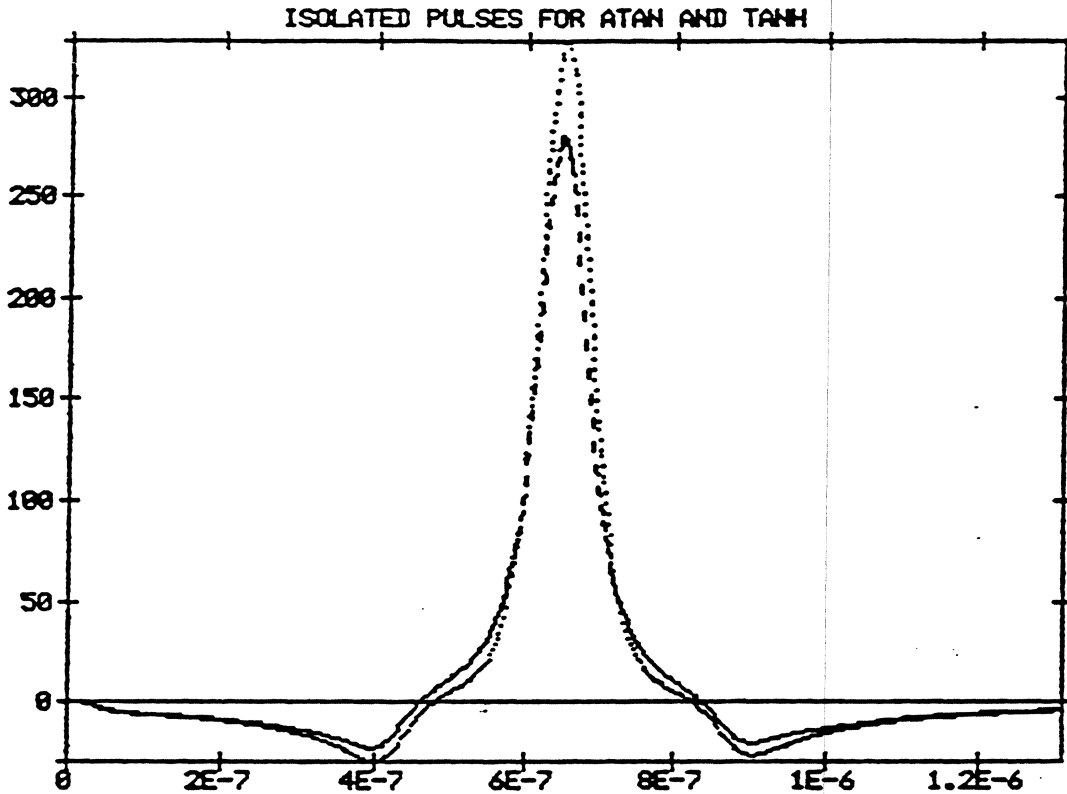
M38 ft 415984-369 on Darka 1100; 300 n/Sec  
Filter 2 (20MHz)



M38 ft 415403-137 on Darka 1100; 300 n/Sec  
Filter 2 (20MHz)







	$\frac{2}{\pi} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)$	$\tanh\left(\frac{2x}{\pi a}\right)$	TFH Experiment
PW50	1.02 $\mu\text{m}$	1.06 $\mu\text{m}$	1.03 $\mu\text{m}$
PW25	1.70	1.61	1.61
PW10	2.70	2.33	2.66
PW50/PW25	0.60	0.66	0.65
PW50/PW10	0.38	0.46	0.43

See also Noyan et al, IEEE Trans. Magn.,  
MAG-24, 1811-1813, Mar (1988).

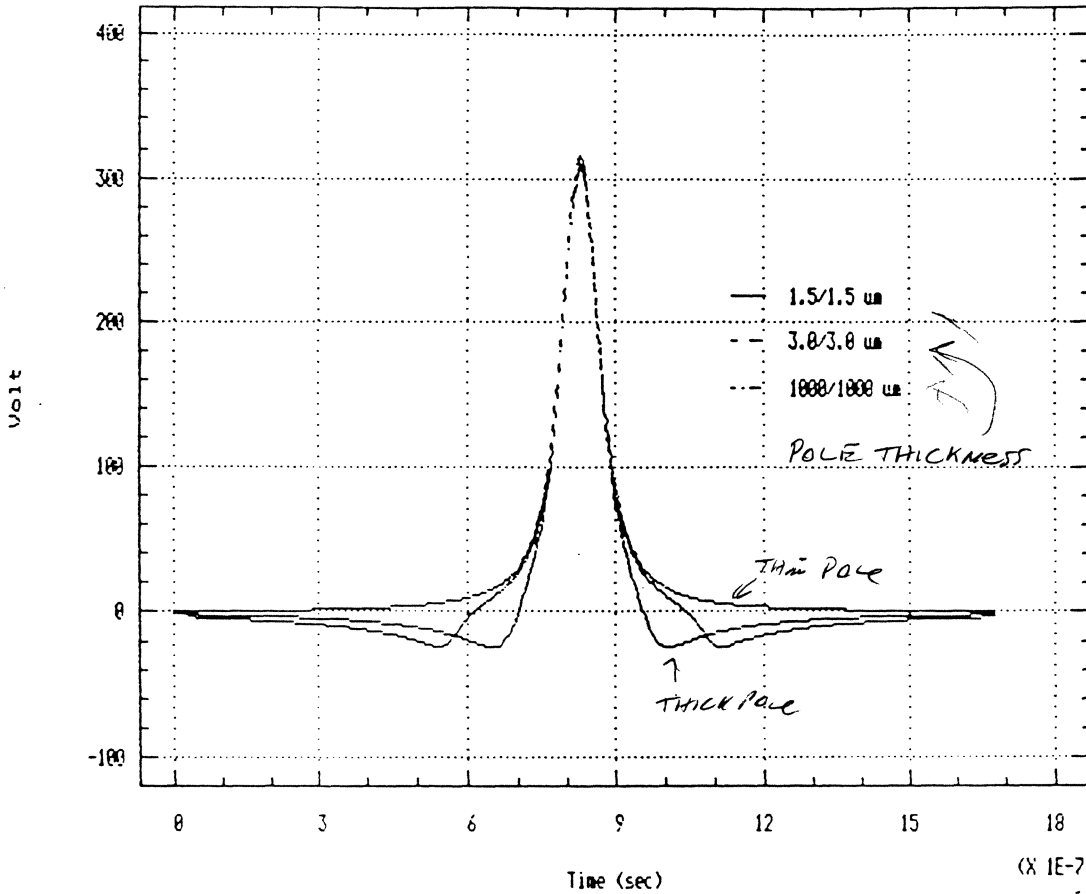
Middleton, B.K., IEEE Trans. Magn.,  
MAG-27, 3563-3569, Jul (1991).

EmWilliams  
12/7/91

# Isolated Pulses vs Time

F1/6/P2: TFH and Ferrite Geometries

(X 1E-6)



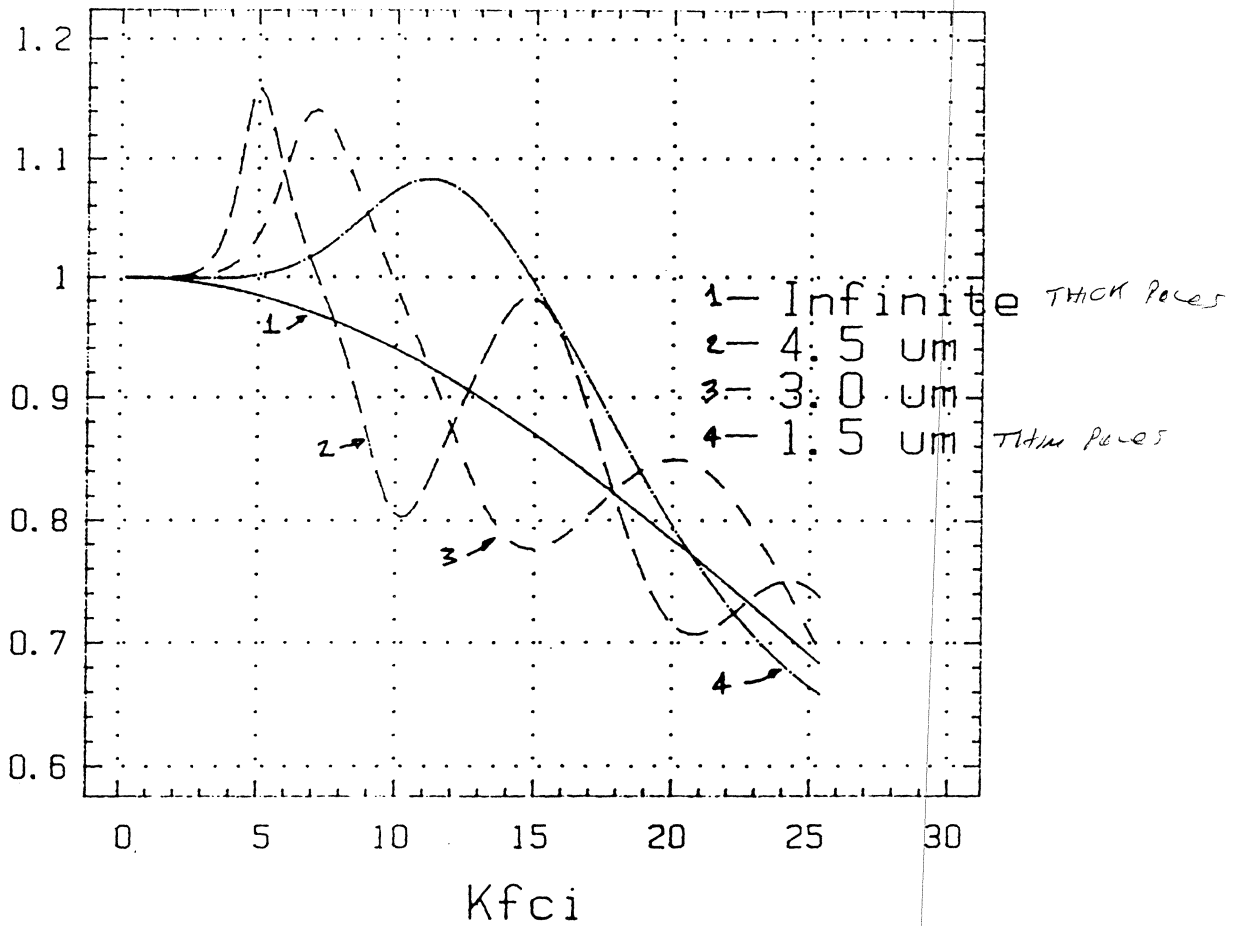
PW50 = 92 nsec

$V = 1200 \text{ cm/sec}$

USE HYPERBOLIC  
TANGENT FOR MODELING  
NOT ANCTANGENT-

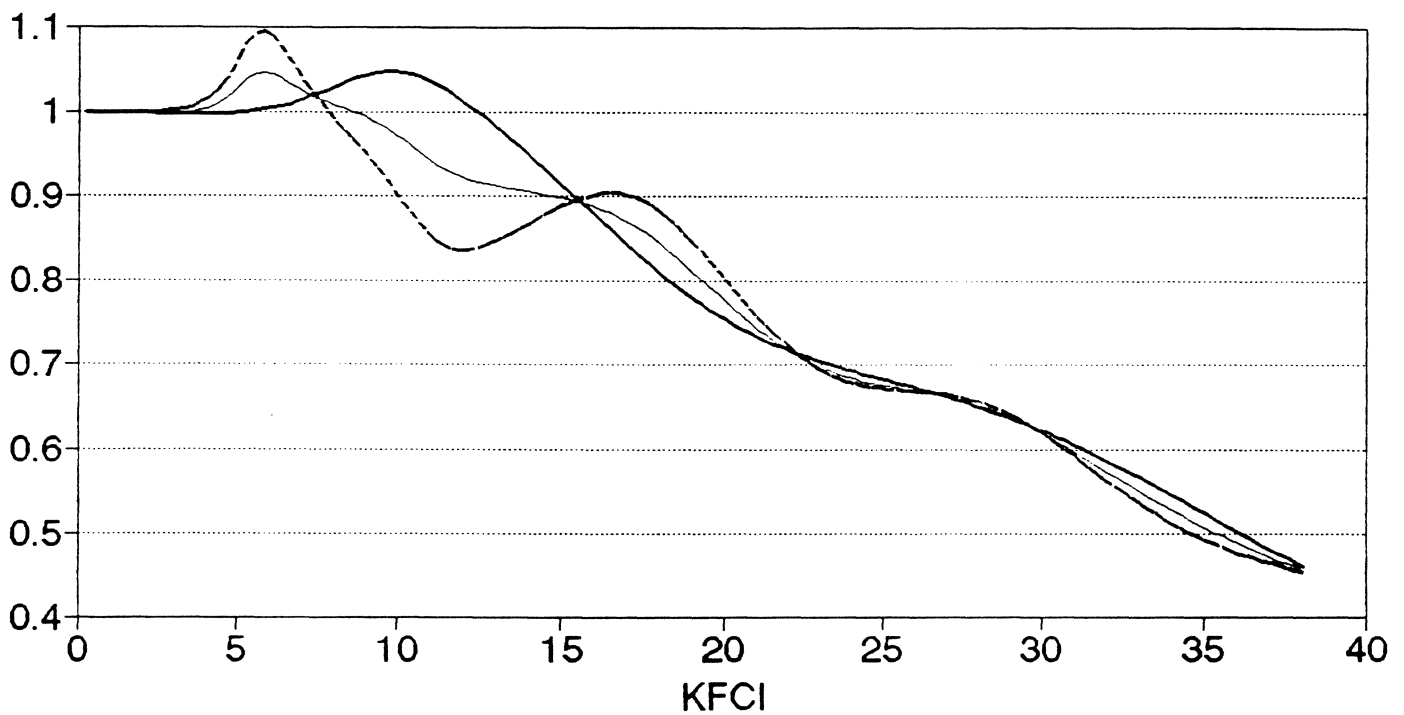
# Normalized Signal vs Linear Density

Poles: Inf.; 4.5; 3; 1.5  $\mu\text{m}$



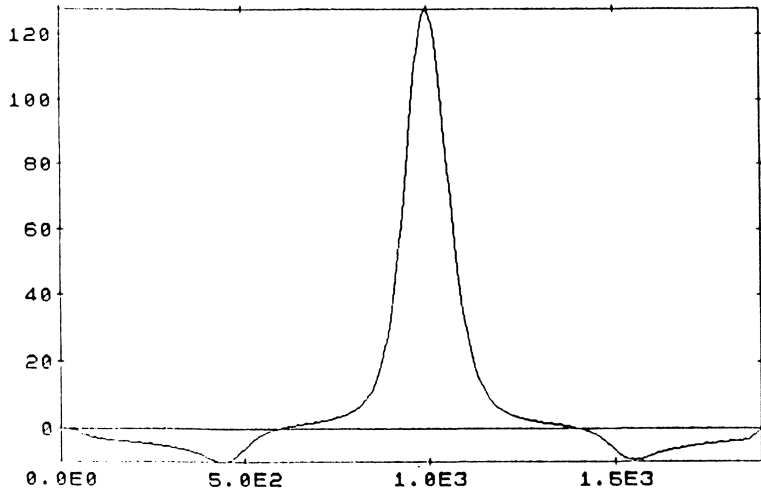
# Normalized Signal vs Density

(Thin, Thick, Asymmetric Poles)

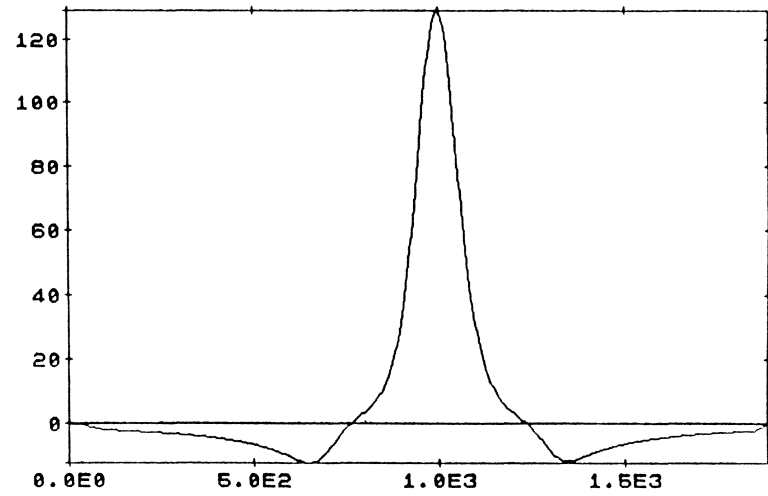


— P1/P2 = 2/2 micron    ..... P1/P2 = 4/4 micron    — P1/P2 = 2/4 micron

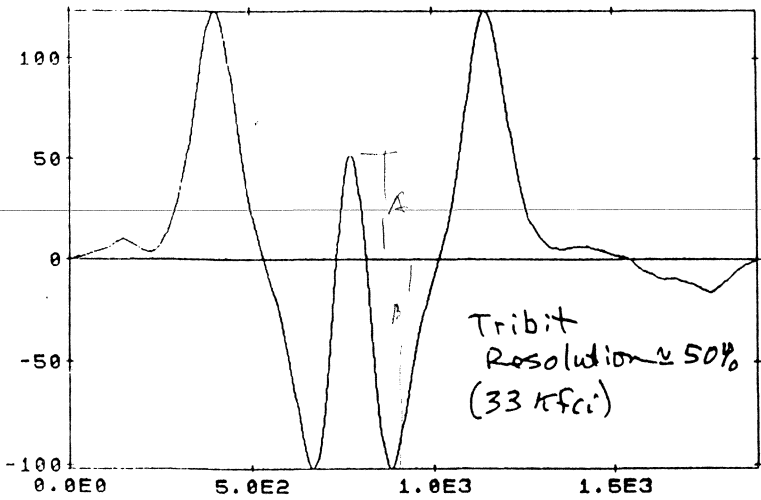
ISOLATED PULSE VS TIME: 3.6  $\mu$ m POLES



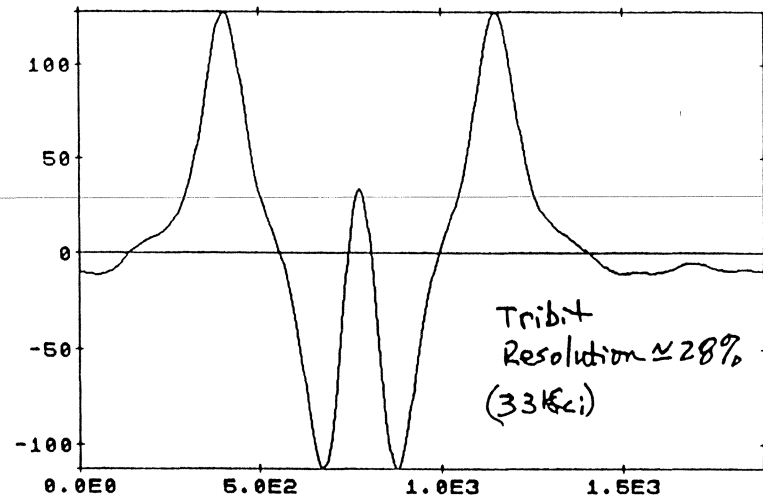
ISOLATED PULSE VS TIME: 2.0  $\mu$ m POLES



TRIBIT PATTERN: 3.6  $\mu$ m POLES



TRIBIT PATTERN: 2.0  $\mu$ m POLES



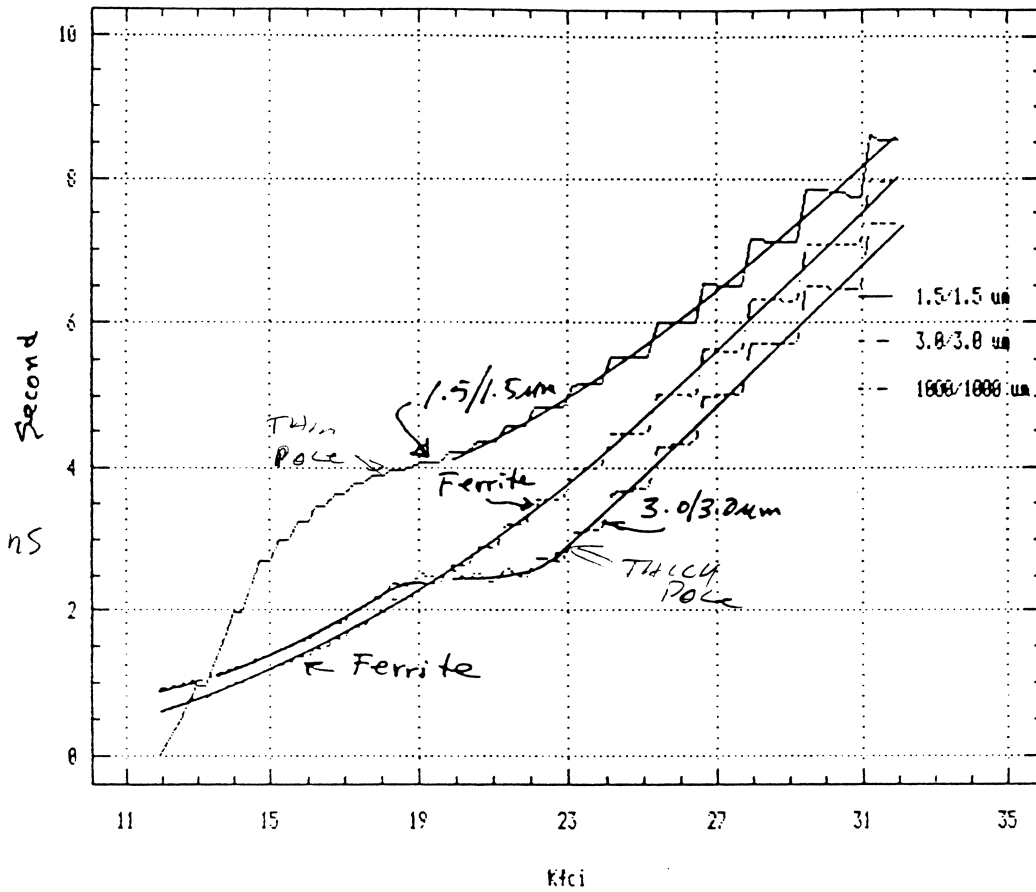
Em Williams

# Dibit Peakshift vs Linear Density

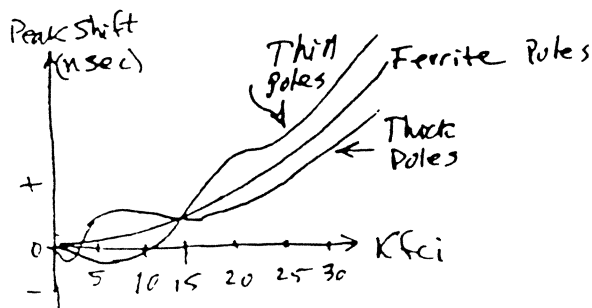
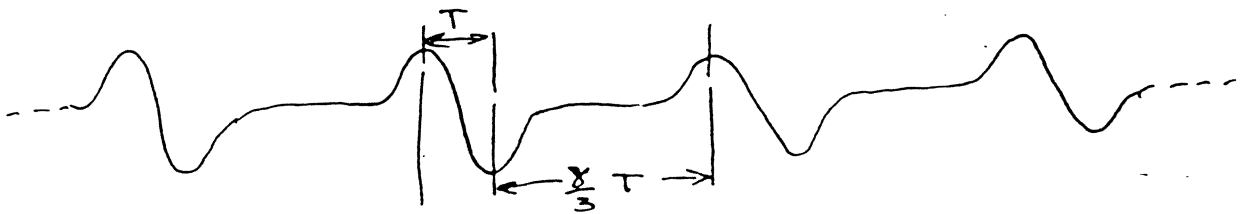
(8 IE-9)

F1/G-P2: TFH and Ferrite Pole Geometries

(2,7) RLL



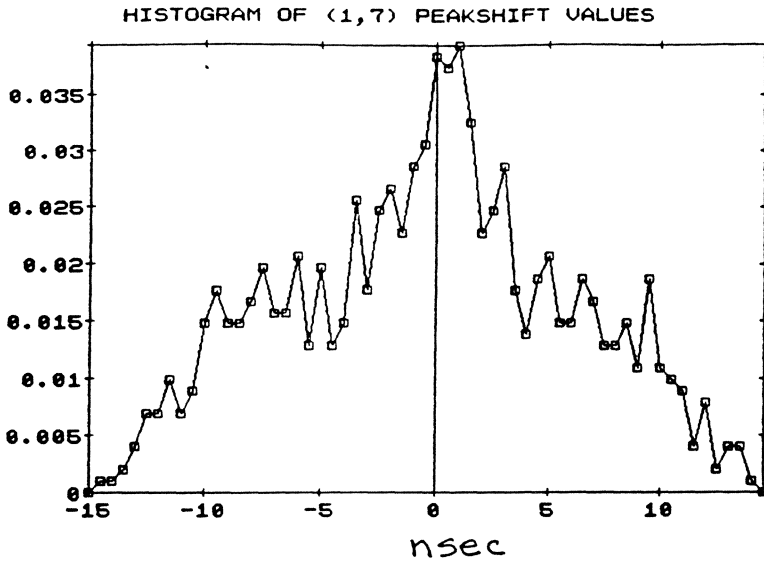
Velocity = 1200 cm/sec



EM Williams

Random VWA KLL with window

Window =  $\pm 27.8$  nsec (43.7 Kbps; 12 mb/sec)



P1|G|P2

3.5/0.40/3.5  $\mu$ m  
THICK POLE

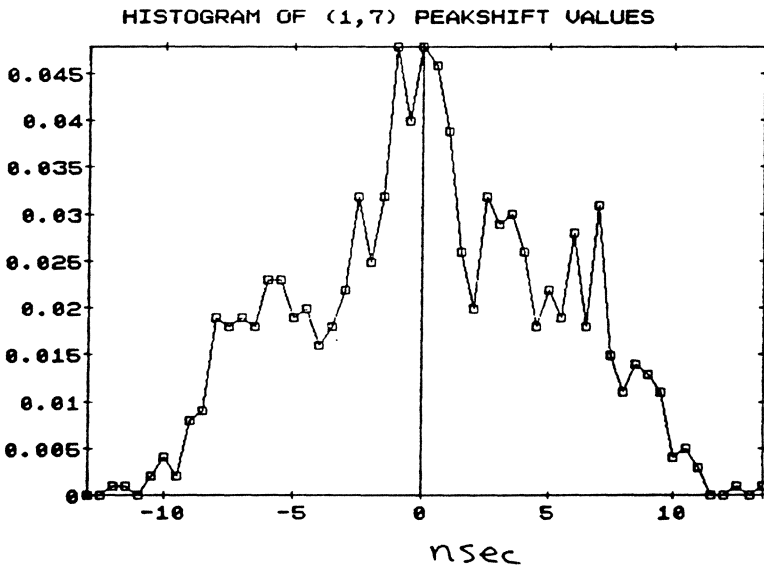
931 transitions

$\bar{x}$  = -0.41 nsec

$\sigma$  = 6.19 "

MAX = 14.8 "

MIN = -14.6 nsec



P1|G|P2

2.0/0.4/2.0  $\mu$ m  
THIN POLE

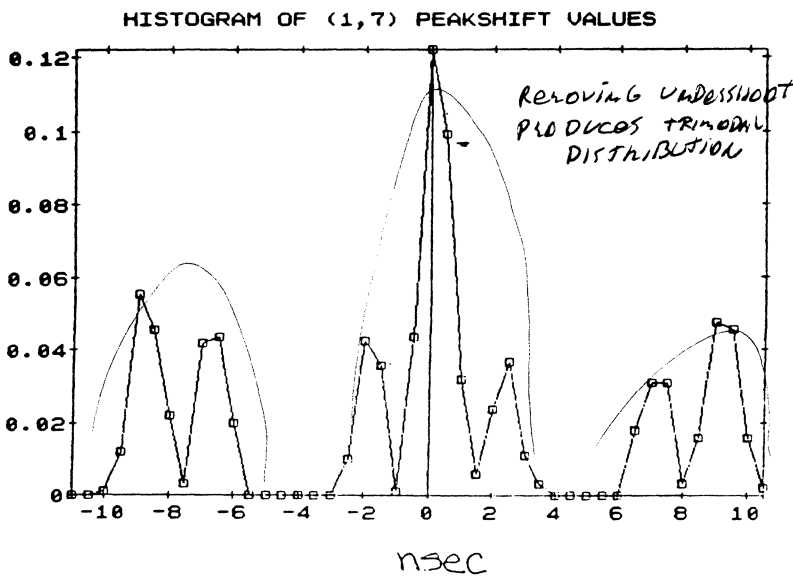
929 transitions

$\bar{x}$  = 0.102 nsec

$\sigma$  = 4.88 "

MAX = 13.3 "

MIN = -12.5 nsec



REMOVE UNDERSHOOT

P1|G|P2

$\infty$ /0.40/ $\infty$   $\mu$ m

927 transitions

$\bar{x}$  = -0.31 nsec

$\sigma$  = 5.82 "

MAX = 10.2 "

MIN = -10.0 nsec

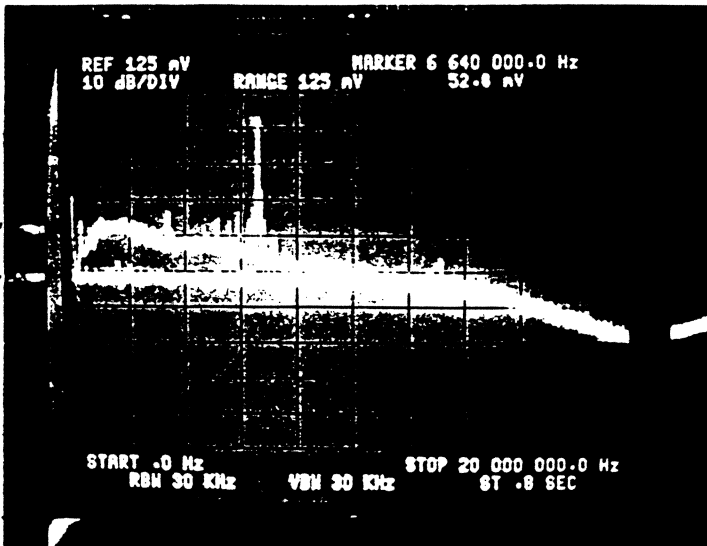
E. Williams

# Head, Preamp & Medium Noises

Disk "A" (Thin Film)

28 Kfci  
Signal  $\approx 190 \mu\text{v}$  (p-p)

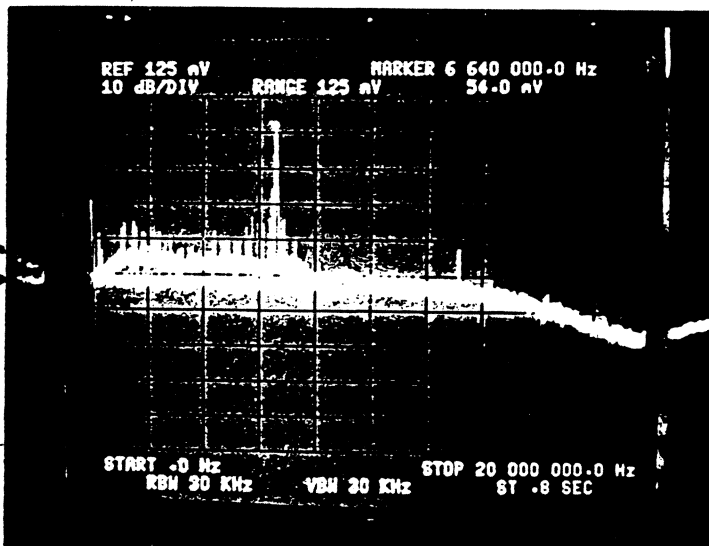
TRANSITION  
NOISE  
↓  
 $5.8 \frac{\text{nV}}{\sqrt{\text{Hz}}}$   
→  
 $1.1 \frac{\text{nV}}{\sqrt{\text{Hz}}}$   
→



Disk "B" (Thin Film)

28 Kfci  
Signal  $\approx 194 \mu\text{v}$  (p-p)

$2.5 \frac{\text{nV}}{\sqrt{\text{Hz}}}$   
→  
 $1.1 \frac{\text{nV}}{\sqrt{\text{Hz}}}$   
↑  
INTRINSIC



Head Noise Spectral Density  $N_h \approx 0.56 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$

Preamp " " " "  $N_p \approx 0.95 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$

$$\text{Head + Preamp} = [N_h^2 + N_p^2]^{1/2} \approx 1.1 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$$



## Noise in the Time Domain

$$E.R. = 1 - \text{erf}(z) = \text{erfc}(z),$$

$$\text{where } z = \text{SNR} \frac{T_W}{PW50}.$$

If  $T_{\text{asym}} = 0 \neq \text{ISI shift} = 0$ , then

$$T_W = T_{\text{WSNR}} = \frac{4.57 PW50}{\text{SNR}}.$$

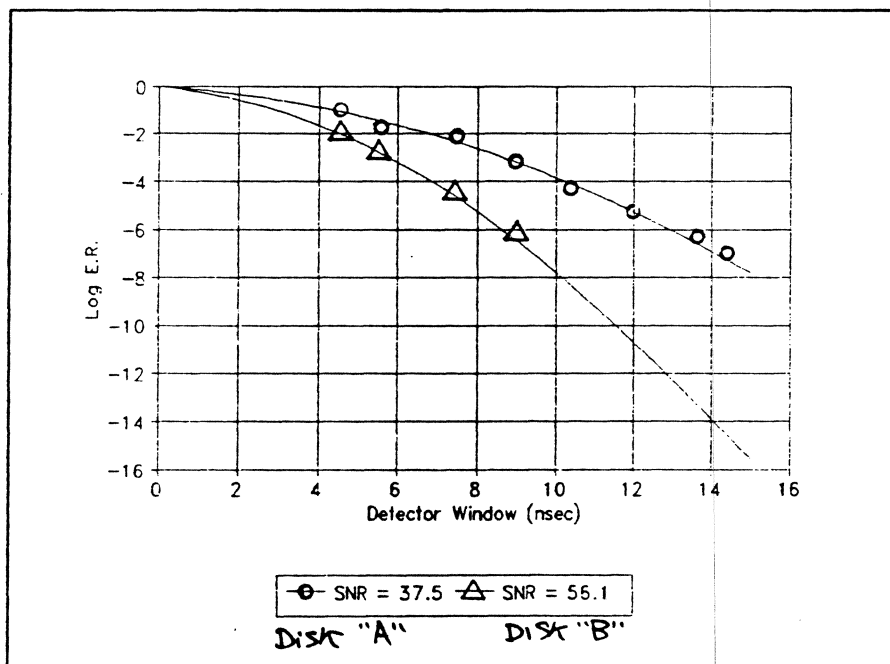
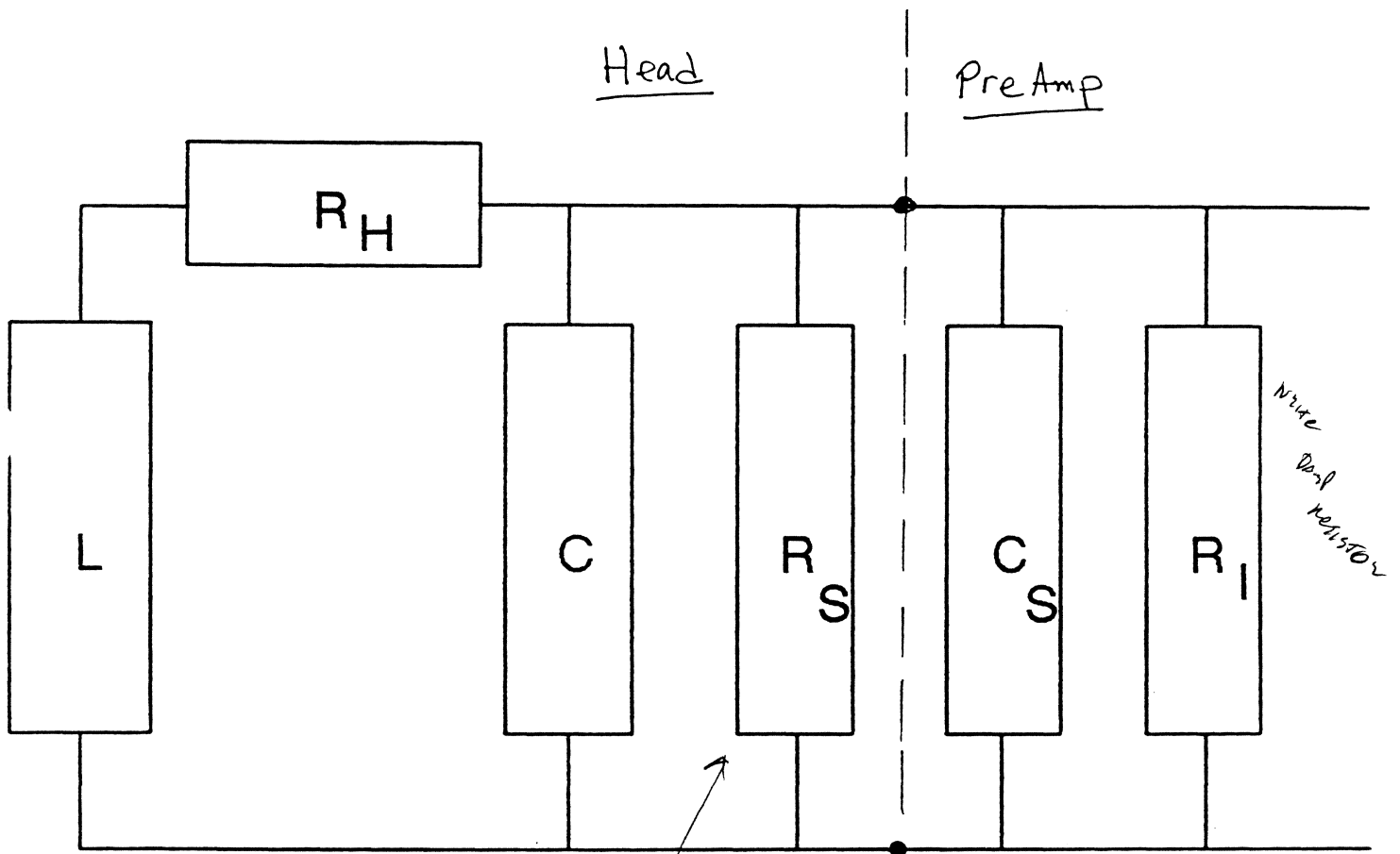


Figure 5:  $\text{Log}_{10}$  E.R. vs Detector Window Size



Head

Pre Amp

$R_H$

$L$

$C$

$R_S$

$C_S$

$R_I$

Wire Damp Resistor

INTRINSIC  
Damping  
Impedance

wire:

$20 \mu H / \text{cm}$  ~~length~~  
Len 6cm

$.8 \text{ PF} / \text{cm}$  of length

Ed Wilkins

Table 1: Electrical Properties of Inductive Heads

Head Type	$R_H(\Omega)$	$R_S(\Omega)$	L(nH)	C(pF)	$f_R(\text{MHz})$
TFH (30-turn)	31.0	292	475	5.2	101.3
TFH (42-turn)	45.0	417	<sup>0.825 nH</sup> 825	5.0	78.4
MIG (34-turn)	<sup>2.4 nH</sup> 4.4	2805	1580	5.0	56.8
Mini-Composite	6.0	3410	4200	5.2	33.9
Mini-Monolithic	6.0	5410	<sup>14 nH</sup> 14000	6.0	17.4

4 cm long wire

If a head is loaded by a preamplifier differential input resistance ( $R_I$ ) and input capacitance ( $C_S$ ), the real part of the total impedance is

$$Re[Z] = \frac{R_p}{D} [(R_H)(R_H + R_p) + (\omega L)^2], \quad (2)$$

where the terms  $R_p$  and  $D$  are defined by the relations

$$R_p = \frac{R_S R_I}{R_S + R_I} \quad (3)$$

$$D = [R_H + R_p - J(\omega^2)]^2 + [F\omega]^2 \quad (4)$$

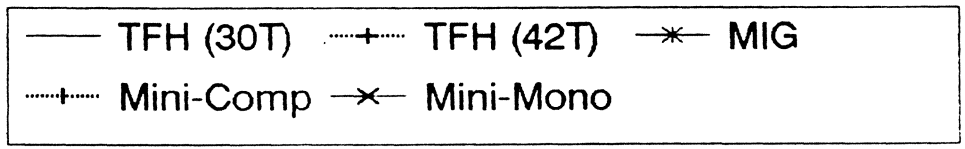
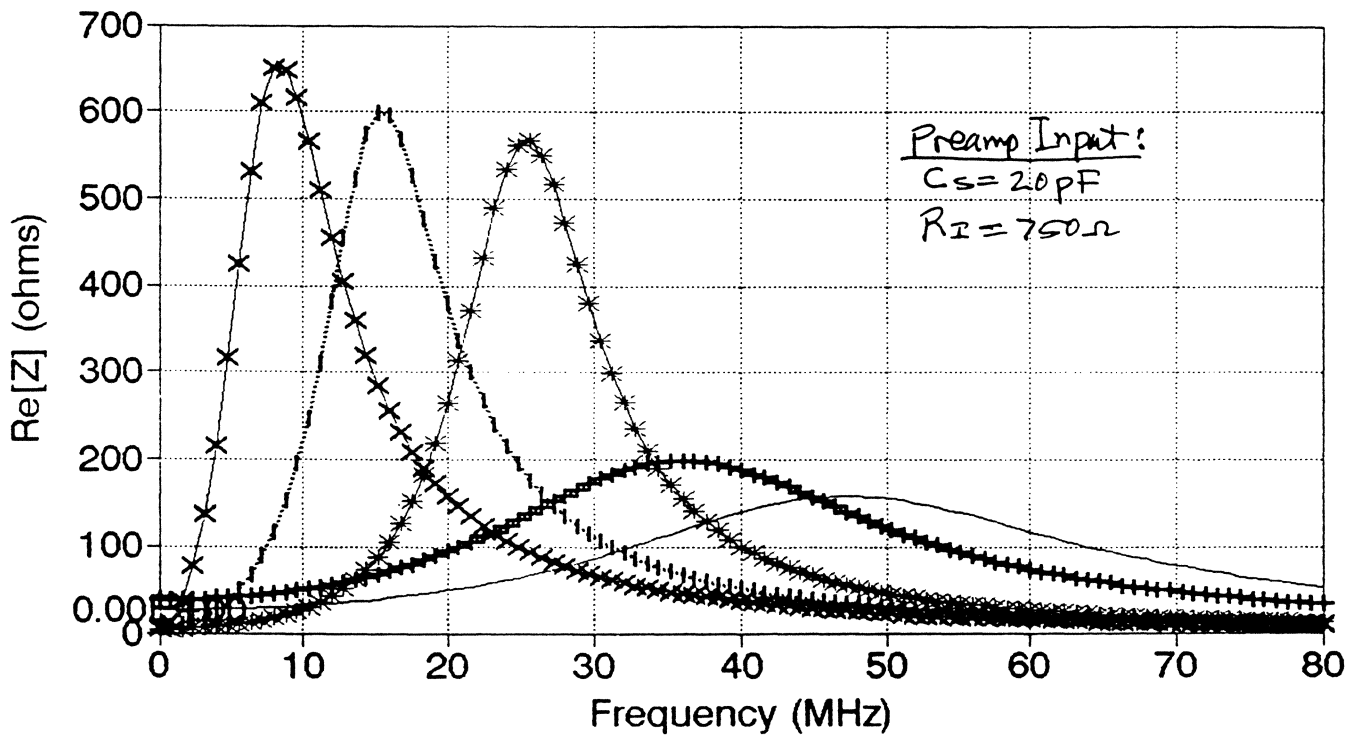
and  $F$  and  $J$  are given by

$$F = L + [R_H R_p (C + C_S)], \quad (5)$$

$$J = R_p L (C + C_S). \quad (6)$$

When a head is loaded by a preamp (assume  $R_I = 750\Omega$  and  $C_S = 20$  pF),  $Re[Z]$  changes substantially; Figure 2 is a plot for the heads in Table 1, and resonant frequencies are reduced by the input capacitance of the preamp.

# Noise Impedance of Heads



*Frank Williams*

## TIMING WINDOW and MARGIN BUDGET

$$\text{Error Rate} = \text{erfc}(z)$$

$$z \cong (\text{SNR}/\text{PW50})(T_w - T_p - T_{wo})$$

$T_p \cong 0$  for symmetric patterns (1111, 1010, etc.)

$T_{wo} \cong 0$  for any pattern written on same pattern

$$\text{erfc}(4.50) \cong 1\text{E-}10 \text{ Error Rate}$$

$$T_{w10} = (4.50 \text{ PW50}/\text{SNR}) + T_p + T_{wo}$$

$$= T_w\text{SNR} + T_p + T_{wo}$$

= Noise + Pattern + Write-induced Shifts

SNR is pk-pk signal to RMS noise ratio

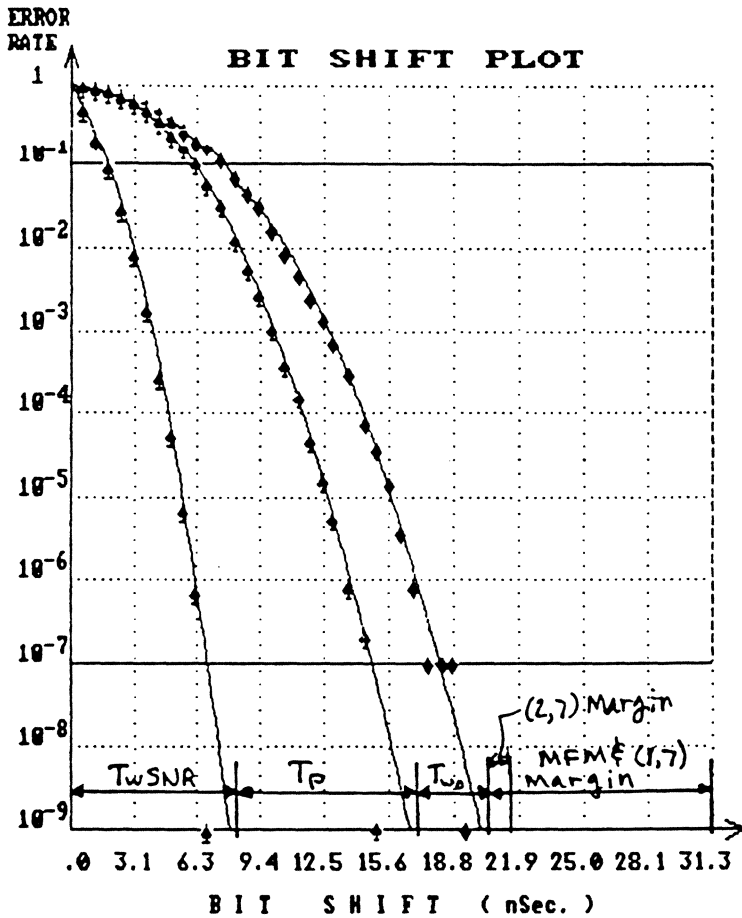
(NOTE:

$$4.50 \cong \frac{6.36134}{\sqrt{2}}$$

where 6.36134  
is the argument  
for the normal  
probability  
function)

FMW  
READ-RITE

# DETECTOR WINDOW (MARGIN) TESTING



**TRAK HD PTRN ZERO S THRS**

♦ 1145 0 B6D9 20.0 I 49.8	B6D9 on DC Erase
FILTER 1 15nA 125nS F	
♦ 1145 0 B6D9 16.6 I 49.8	B6D9 on B6D9
FILTER 1 15nA 125nS F	
♦ 1145 0 FFFF 7.8 I 49.8	FFFF on FFFF
FILTER 1 15nA 125nS F	

$T_{w10}$  = Timing window at  $10^{-10}$  B.E.R.  
=  $T_{wSNR} + T_p + T_w$

$T_{wSNR}$  = Noise-induced shift  
 $T_p$  = Pattern-induced "  
 $T_w$  = Write-induced "

---

♦ iri: .999669

ID: P38/K1200

11/21/88 08:52:50

$$\text{Error Rate} = \text{erfc}(z)$$

$$z \cong \frac{\text{SNR}}{P_{w50}} (T_w - T_p - T_w) \quad \text{where } \left( \text{SNR} : \frac{P-p}{r_{ms}} \right)$$

For E.R. =  $10^{-10}$ ;  $z_{10} \cong 4.50$

$$\therefore T_{w10} \cong \frac{4.50 P_{w50}}{\text{SNR}} + T_p + T_w = T_{wSNR} + T_p + T_w$$

$$\left( T_w \cong \frac{T_{asym}}{4} \right)$$



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Quantum Corporation**

**IIST  
December 1991**





# Outline

- 1. Review of Peak Detection***
- 2. Sampling Detection**
- 3. Gain and timing control**
- 4. Equalization**
- 5. Performance**



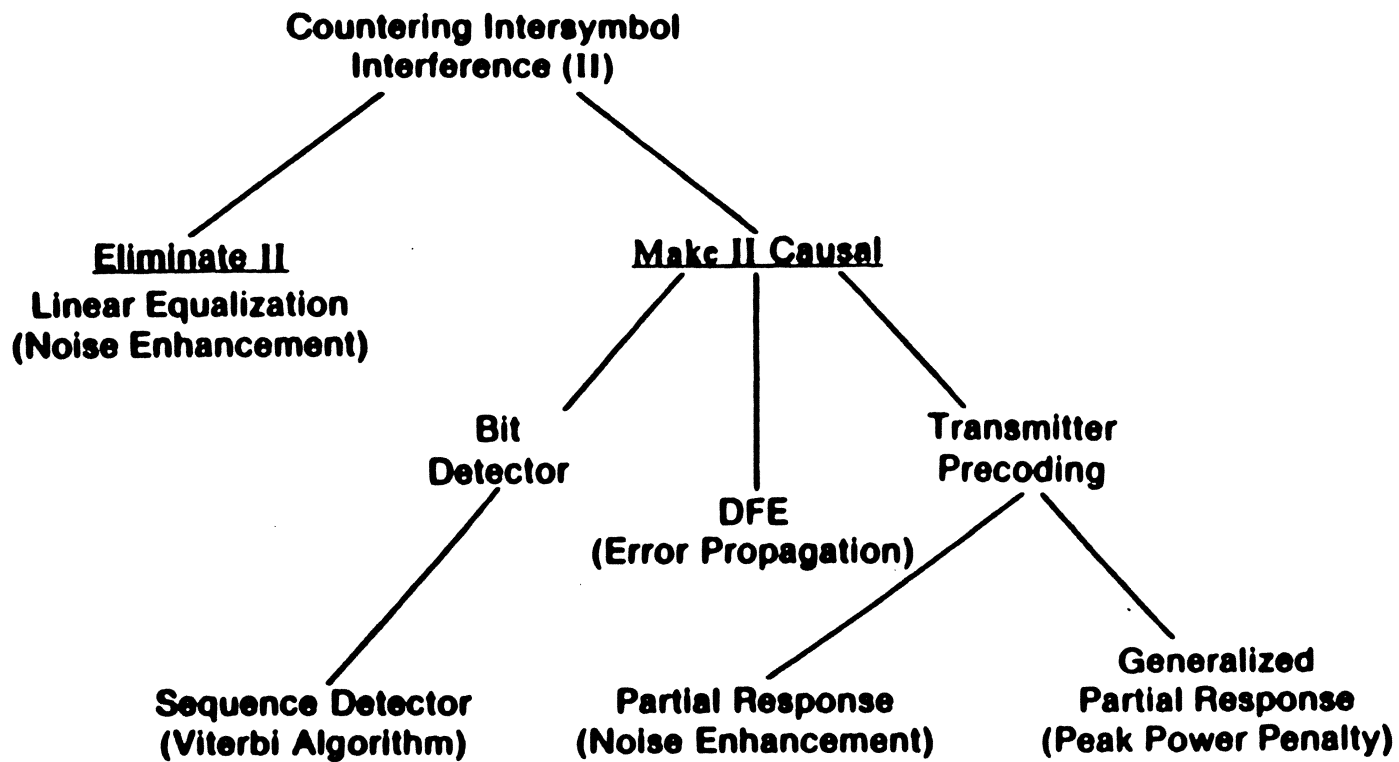
# Comparison of RLL (D,K) Constraints

<b>Data:</b>	1		1		0		0	
<b>FM:</b>	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
<b>MFM:</b>	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
<b>(2,7):</b>	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<b>(1,7):</b>	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

**FM → MFM → (2,7)** Same clock, reduced pulse crowding

**(1,7) vs (2,7)** Involves trade-offs



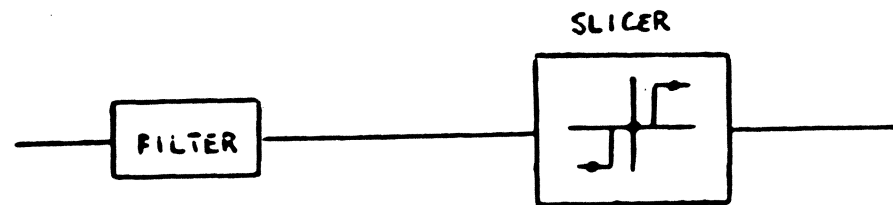
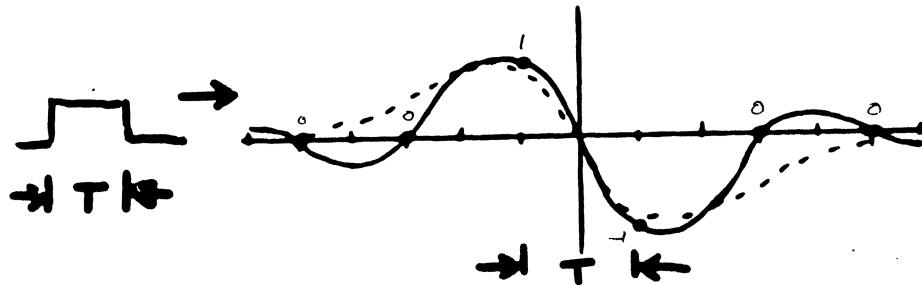


**Figure 1. Summary of available methods of countering intersymbol interference in sampling detectors.**



# Zero-Forcing Equalization

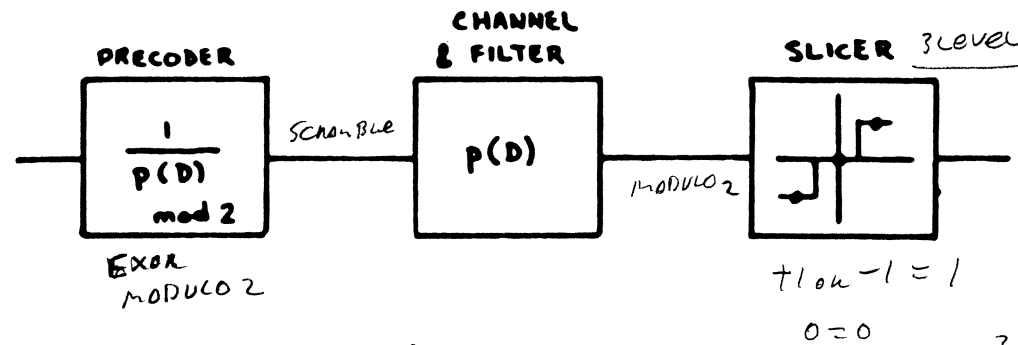
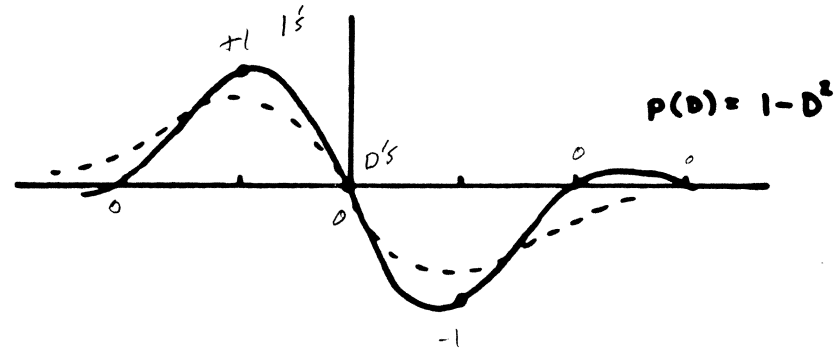
- Equalize NRZ bit response to:



- limited by noise enhancement

# Partial Response

- Equalize NRZ bit response to:



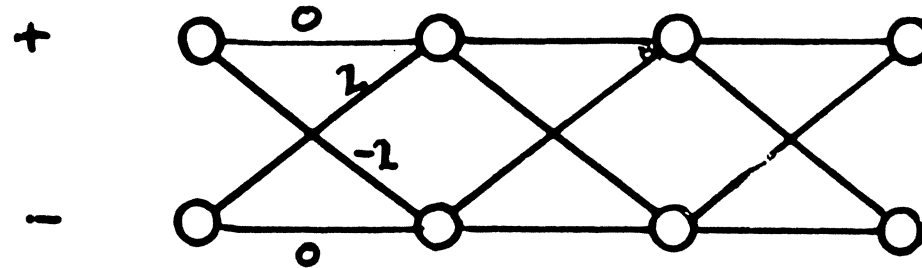
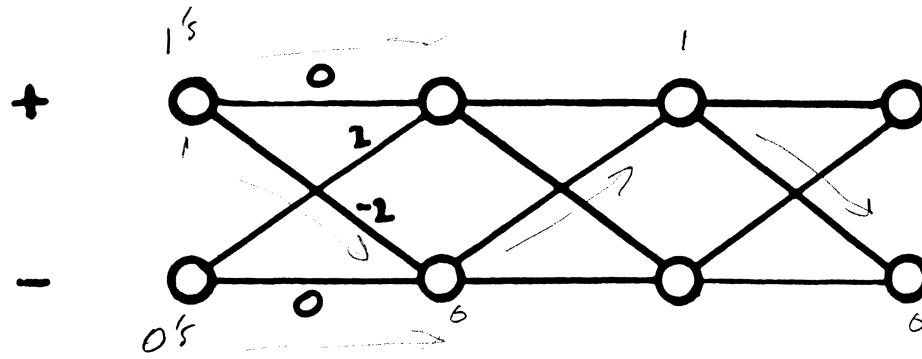
- no error propagation
- less noise enhancement than ZFE or Flat
- more noise enhancement than DFE

3db of noise immunity compared to Peak Detection Method. (Take as much noise)



# Trellis Diagram

1010



# The Recursive Algorithm

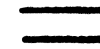
DIFF. SUM OF SQUARES USED:

$$DJ_n = \begin{cases} y_n + 1 & \text{if } +1 < (DJ_{n-2} - y_n) \\ DJ_{n-2} & \text{if } -1 < (DJ_{n-2} - y_n) < +1 \\ y_n - 1 & \text{if } (DJ_{n-2} - y_n) < -1 \end{cases}$$

POSITION

PREVIOUS SUM OF SQUARES

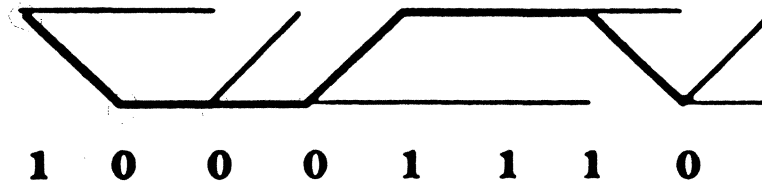
COMPARE



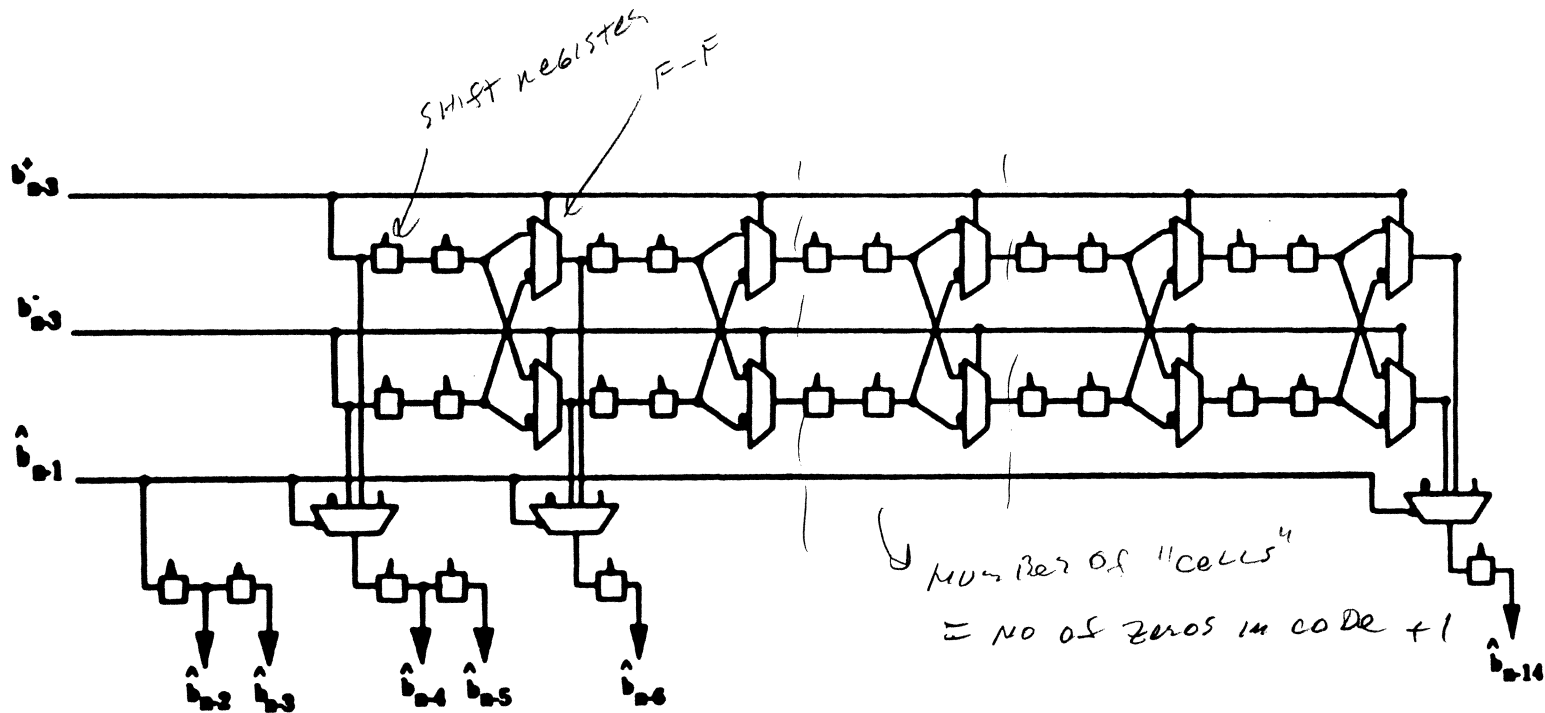
WHAT IS TRUE?

← ENTER TRUTH

Example:

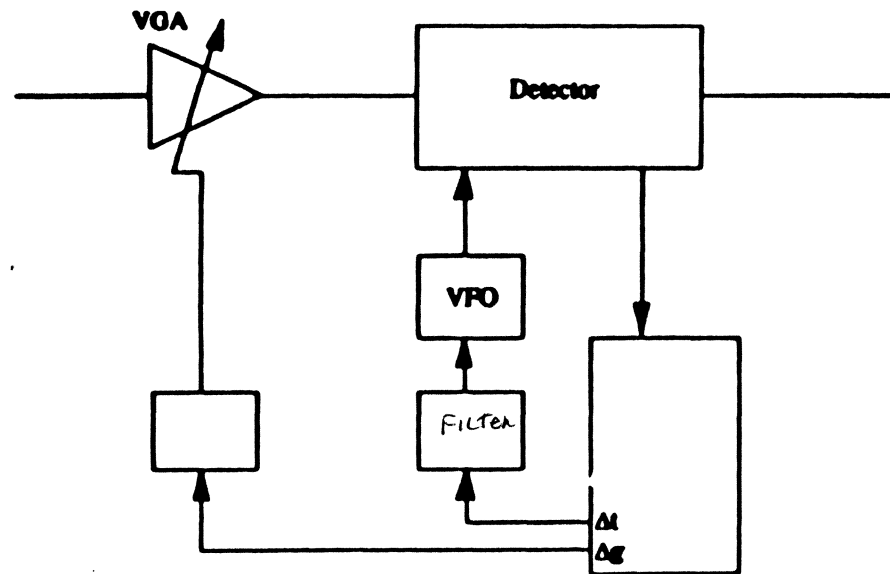


# Path Memory





# Timing and Gain Control

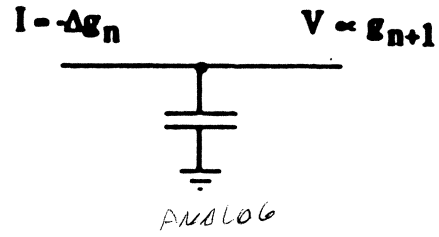


# Filtering the Error Signals

CHARGE COUPLED  
LOGIC IMPLEMENTATION!

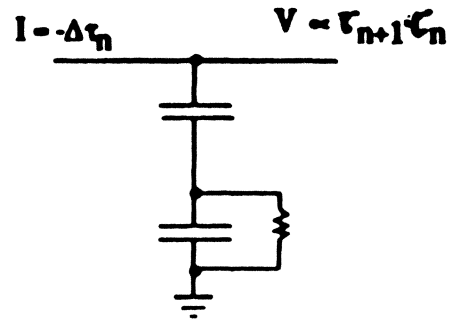
$$e_{n+1} = e_n - \gamma \Delta e_n$$

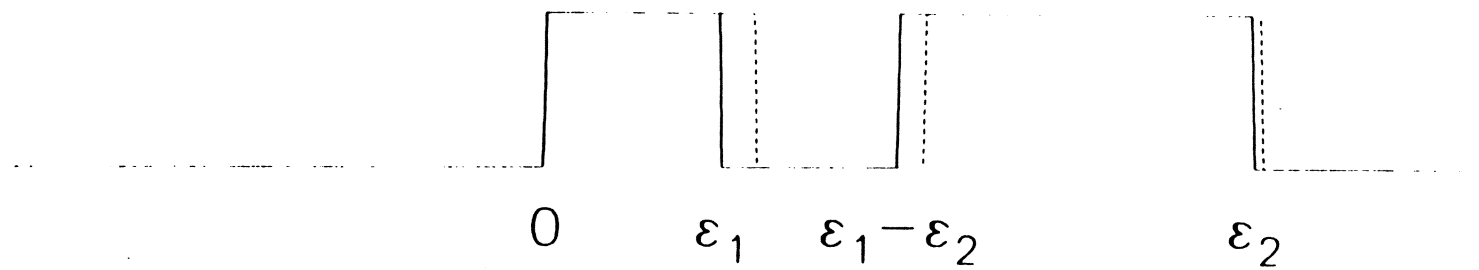
DIGITAL



$$\Delta T_{n+1} = \Delta T_n + \zeta \Delta \tau_n$$

$$\tau_{n+1} = \tau_n - \beta \Delta \tau_n - \Delta T_n$$



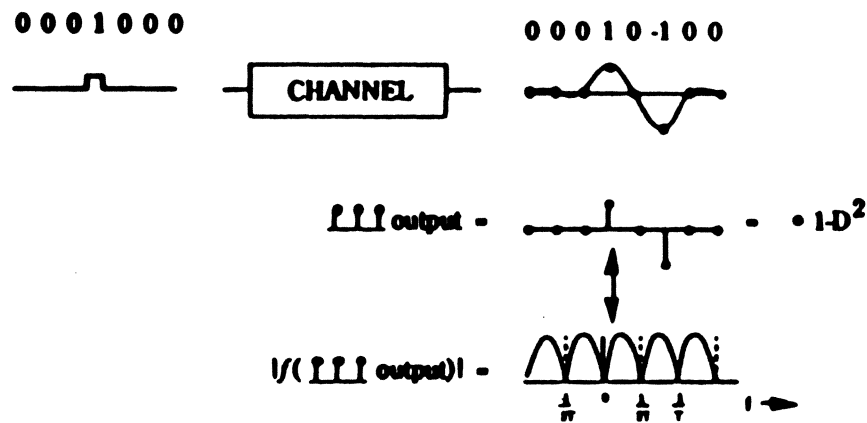


Nominal write current

Precompensated write current



# Class IV (Modified Duobinary)

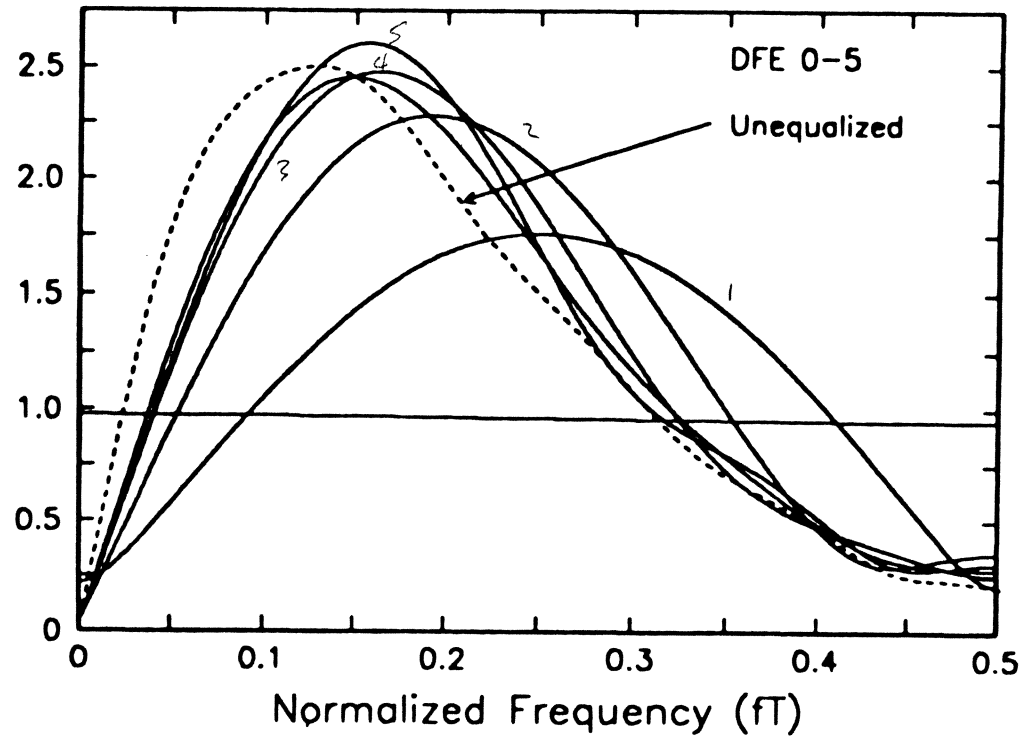


$$\begin{aligned}
 f(1 - D^2) &= 1 - e^{-i\omega 2T} \\
 &= e^{-i\omega T} 2i \sin \omega T \\
 &= e^{-i2\pi f T} 2i \sin 2\pi f T
 \end{aligned}$$

↑  
DELAY FUNCTION

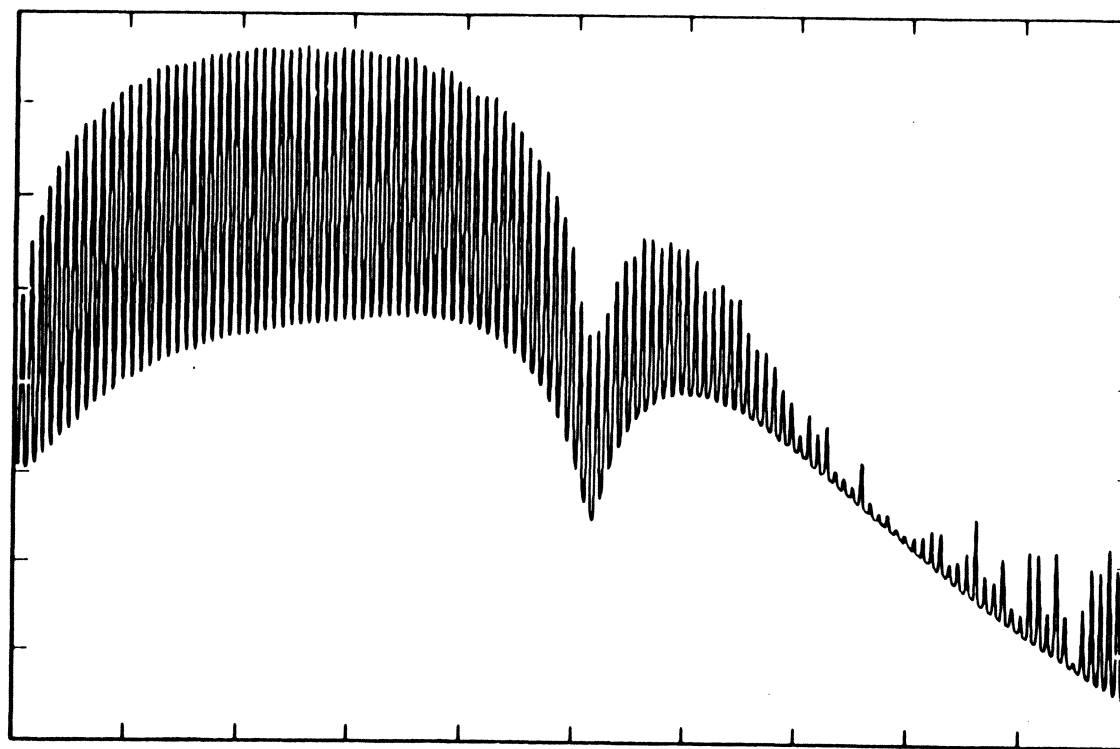
3-level output:  $y_n = -2, 0, 2$





HOWELL D E0UPRBS3 January 24, 1990 at 17:48:16 by GDFTRN (V-88.322)

Relative Spectral Density (dB)



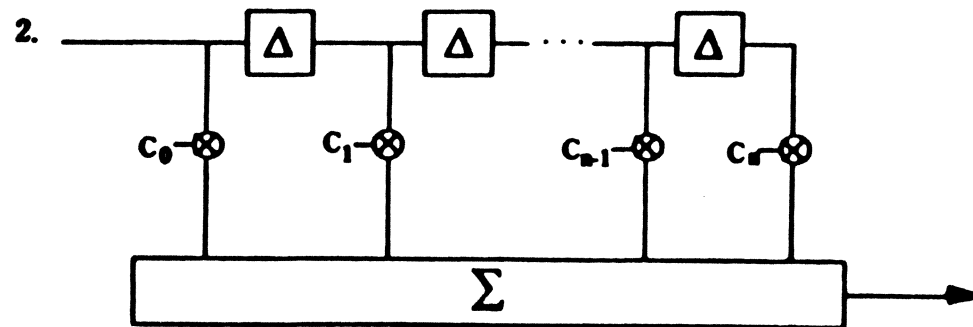
Normalized Frequency ( $f/f_0$ )



# Implementation

## 1. R-L-C Network

$$H(\omega) = \left. \frac{N(z)}{d(z)} = \frac{\pi(z-z_j)}{\pi(z-P_j)} \right|_{z=i\omega}$$



$$H(\omega) = f\left(\sum_k c_k \delta(t-k\Delta)\right)$$

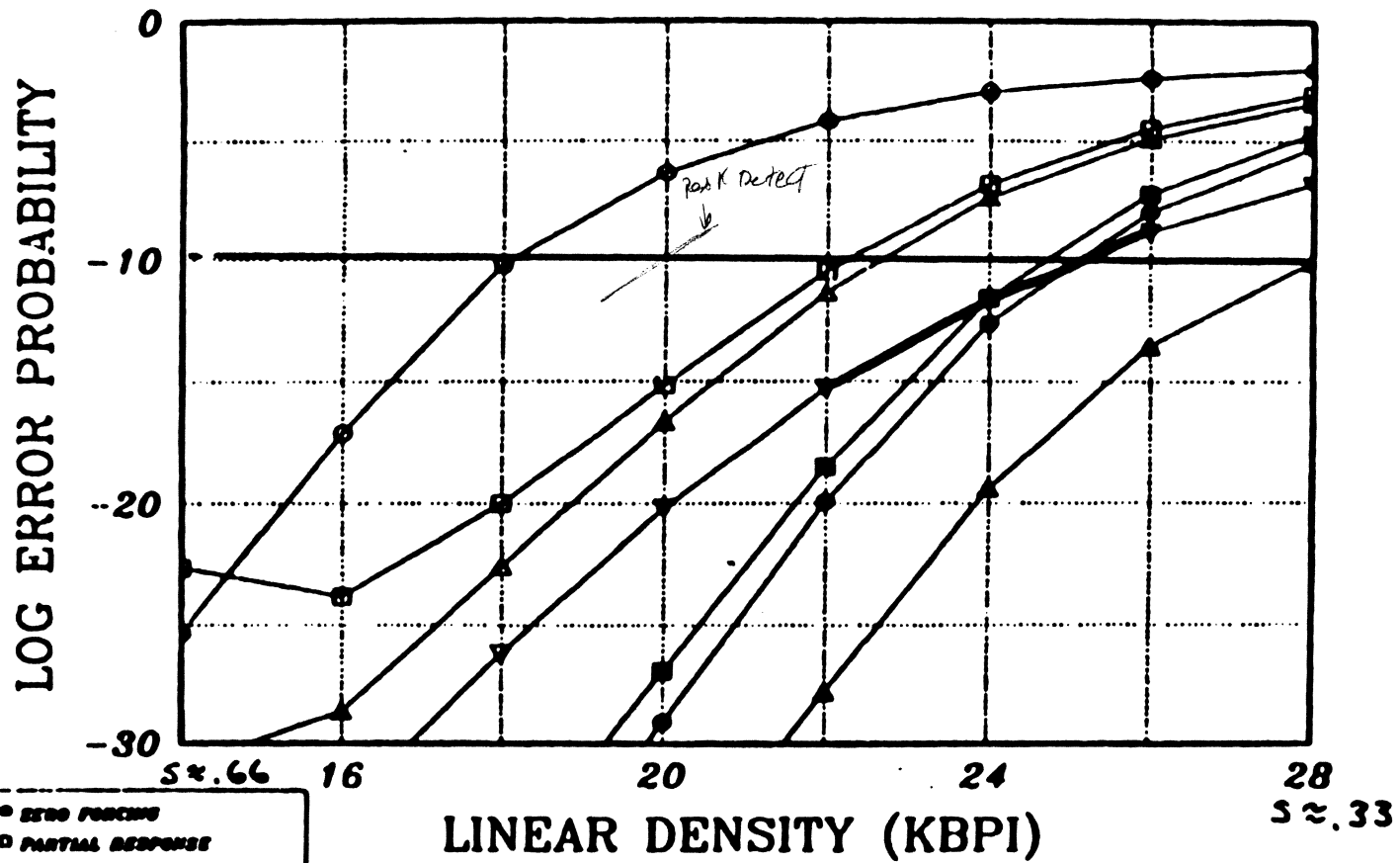


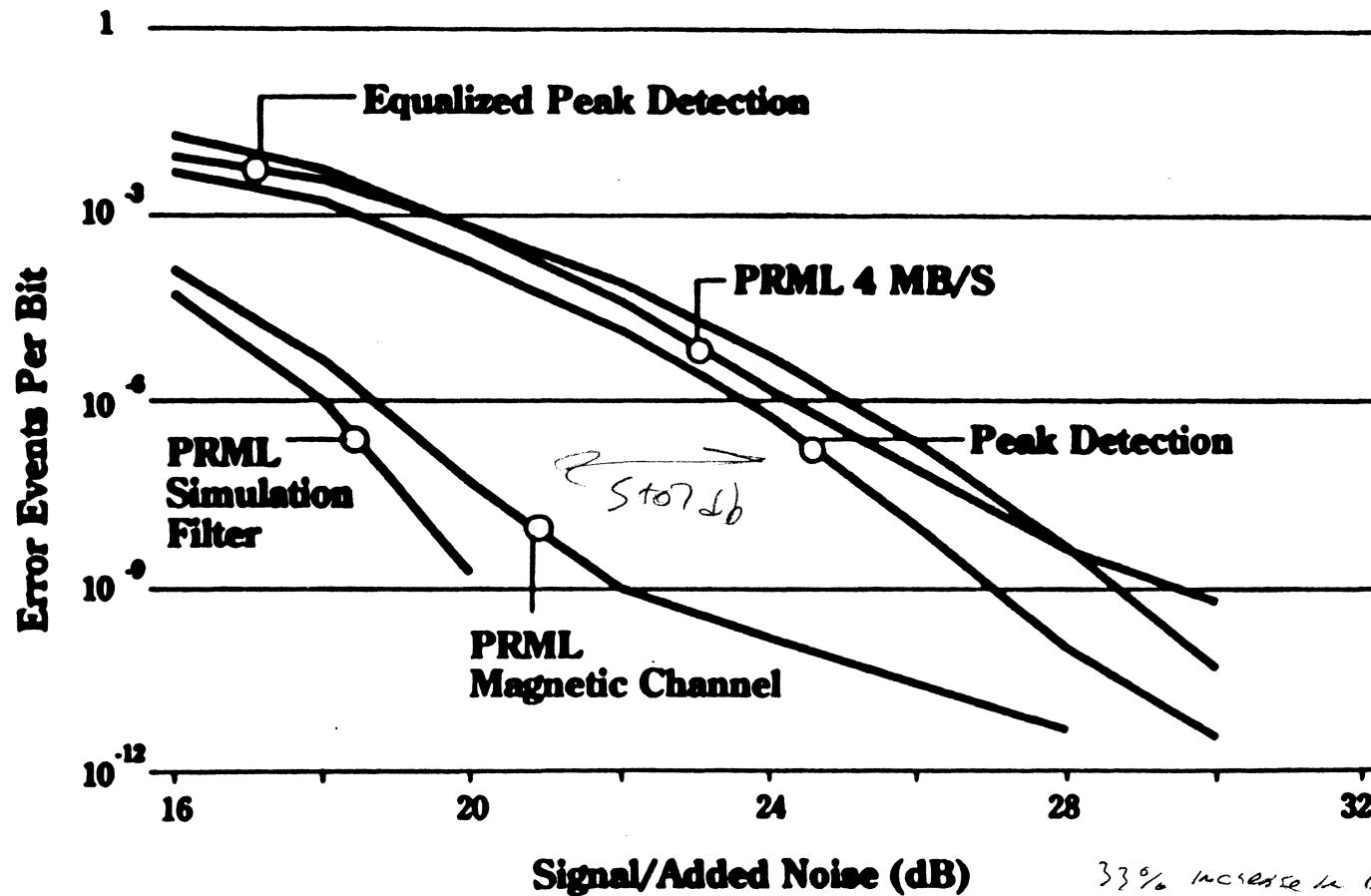
Figure 3. Log-probability of error versus linear density for several detectors. On-track design, head running on-track.

*NOT PRACTICAL DUE TO CIRCUIT COMPLEXITY*





# Model Results On-Track



33% increase in density  
at same error rate.



# Conclusions

**Best alternatives are PRML and DFE**

**Compared with the best peak detector, they offer:**

- **25 - 40% linear density improvement at the same error rate and noise level or...**
- **5 - 7 dB more noise tolerance at the same linear density and error rate or...**
- **Several orders of magnitude improvement in on-track error rate at given linear density and noise.**



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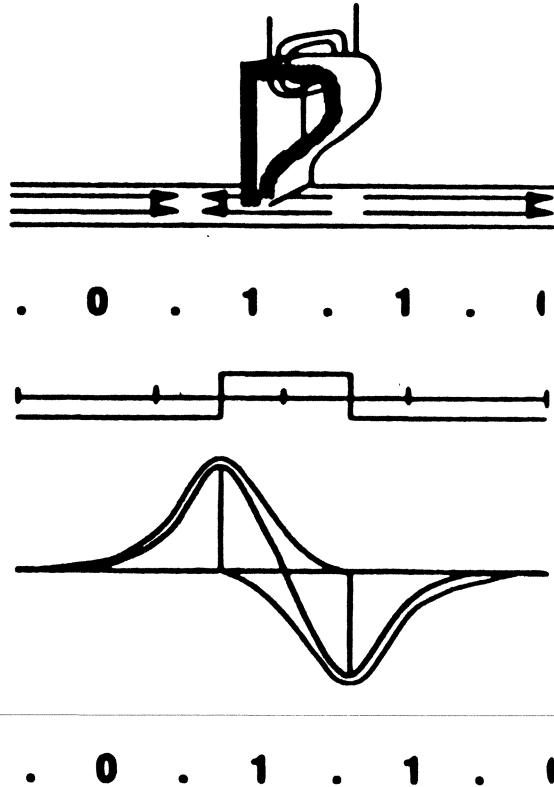


# Outline

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# Digital Magnetic Recording Channel



## Causes of bit detection errors

- Random noise
- Pulse crowding (1's close together)
- Loss of clock synchronization (1's far apart)

# Comparison of RLL (D,K) Constraints

<b>Data:</b>	1		1		0		0	
<b>FM:</b>	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
<b>MFM:</b>	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
<b>(2,7):</b>	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<b>(1,7):</b>	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

**FM → MFM → (2,7)** Same clock, reduced pulse crowding

**(1,7) vs (2,7)** Involves trade-offs

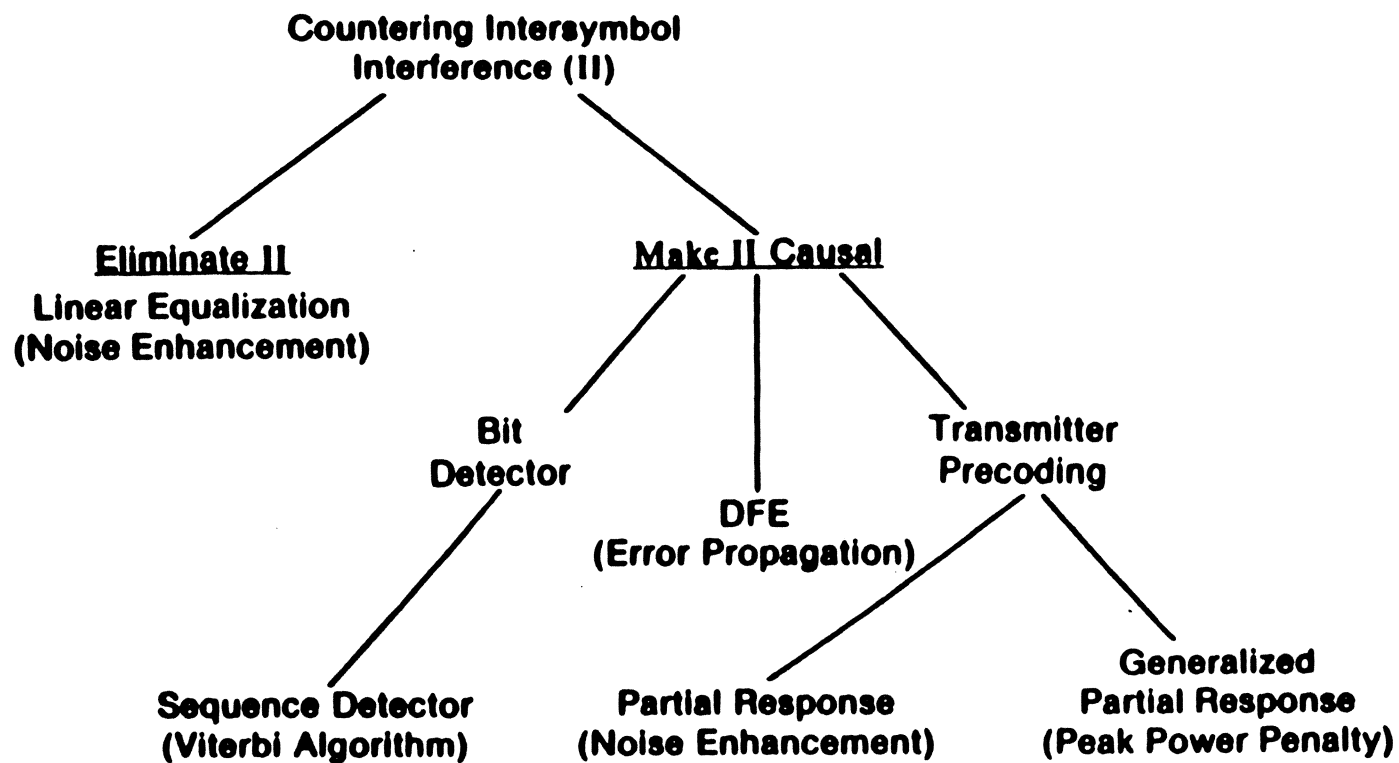


# Outline

1. Review of Peak Detection
2. *Sampling Detection*
3. Gain and timing control
4. Equalization
5. Performance





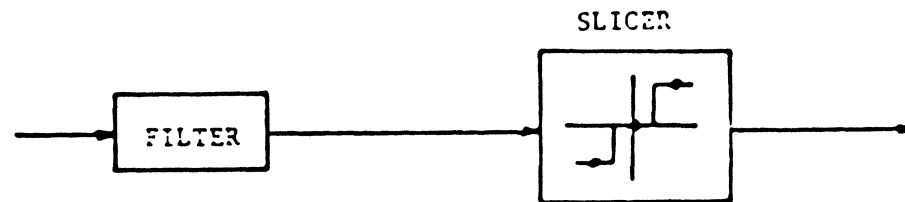
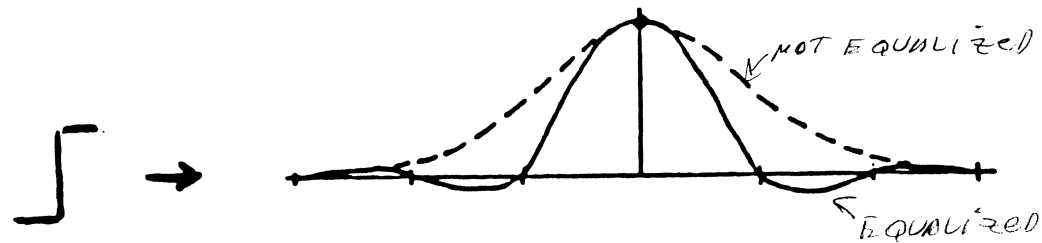


**Figure 1. Summary of available methods of countering intersymbol interference in sampling detectors.**



# Zero-Forcing Equalization

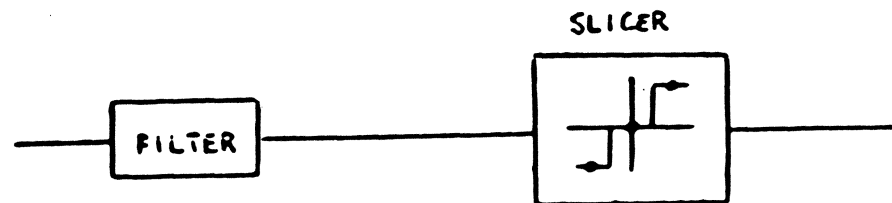
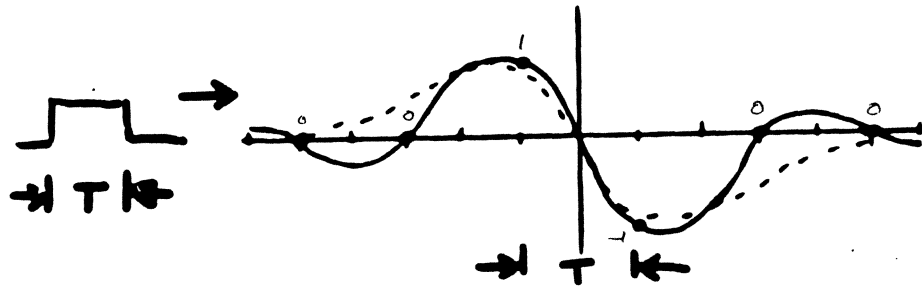
- Equalize step response to:



- limited by noise enhancement

# Zero-Forcing Equalization

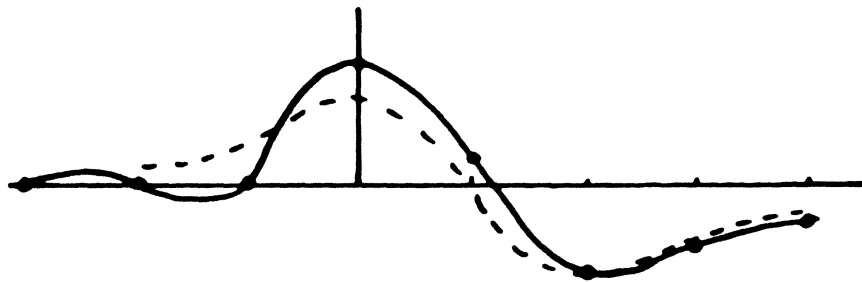
- Equalize NRZ bit response to:



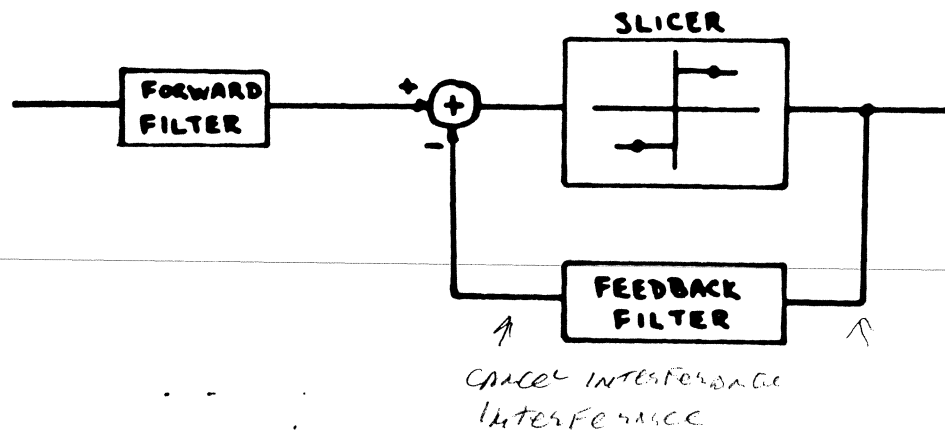
- limited by noise enhancement

# Decision Feedback Equalization

- Equalize NRZ bit response to: Better SNR



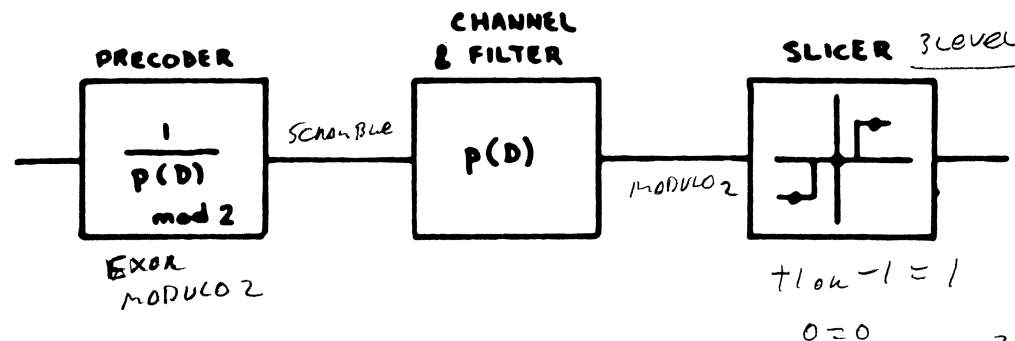
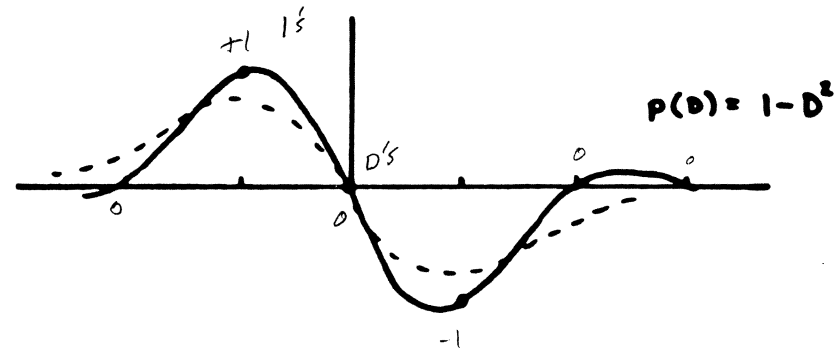
PRODUCES MUCH LESS  
ERRORS; LENGTH OF  
ERRORS LONGER



- subject to error propagation

# Partial Response

- Equalize NRZ bit response to:

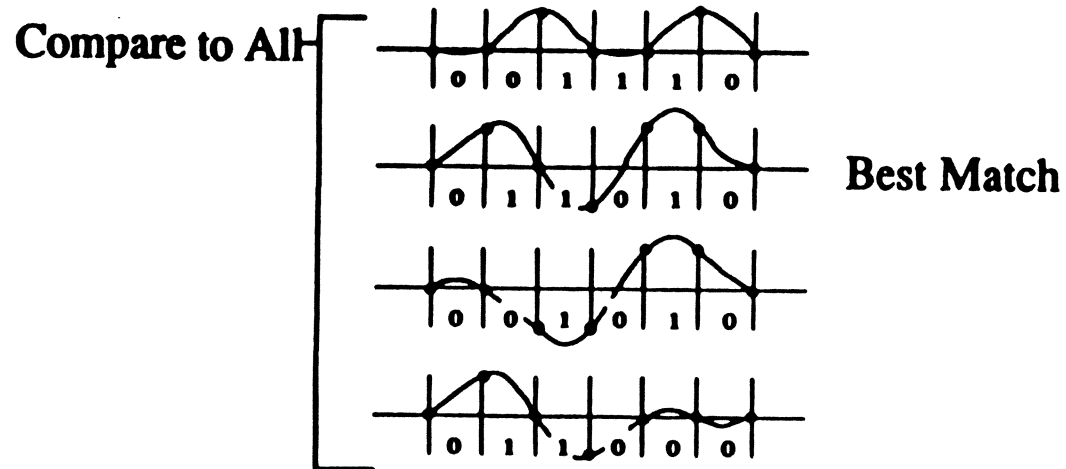


- no error propagation
- less noise enhancement than ZFE or Flat
- more noise enhancement than DFE

3db of noise immunity compared to peak detector method. (take driven noise)



# Maximum Likelihood Sequence Detector



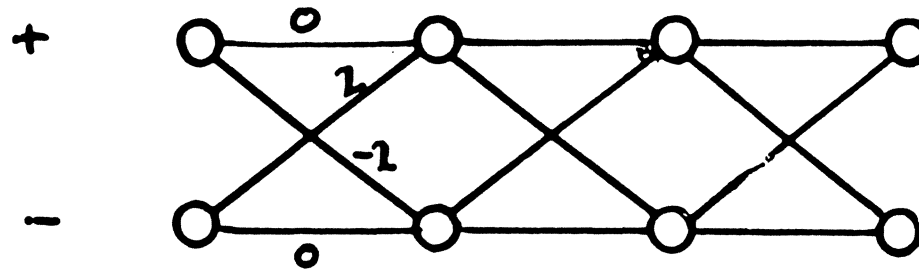
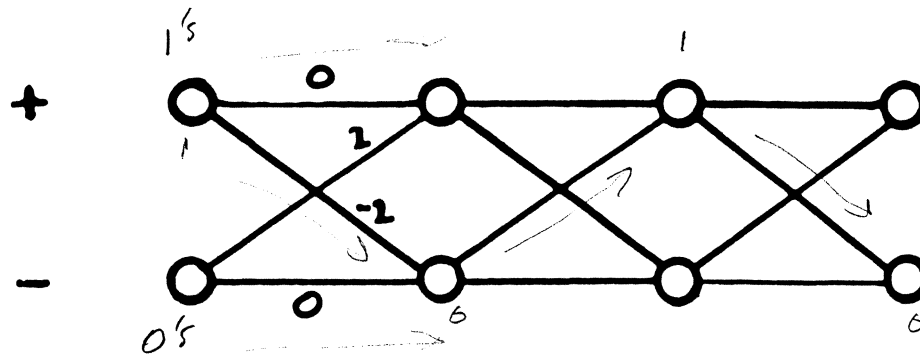
Most likely information sequence:

... 0 1 1 0 1 0 ...



# Trellis Diagram

1010



# Viterbi Algorithm Path Metrics

$y_n$  = input sample, subtract ideal sample value  
square

Accumulating SUM of SQUARES

$$J_n(+1) = \min \{J_{n-2}(+1) + (y_n - 0)^2, J_{n-2}(-1) + (y_n - 2)^2\}$$

$$J_n(-1) = \min \{J_{n-2}(+1) + (y_n + 2)^2, J_{n-2}(-1) + (y_n - 0)^2\}$$





# The Recursive Algorithm

DIFF. SUM OF SQUARES USED:

*Decision*

*PREVIOUS SUM OF SQUARES*

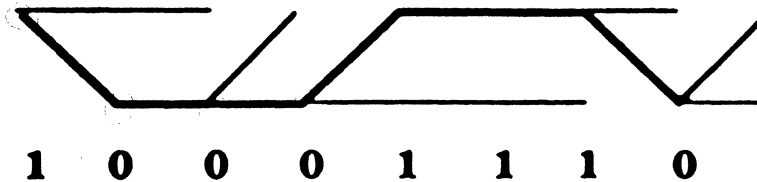
*COMPARE*

$$DJ_n = \begin{cases} y_n + 1 & \text{if } +1 < (DJ_{n-2} - y_n) \\ DJ_{n-2} & \text{if } -1 < (DJ_{n-2} - y_n) < +1 \\ y_n - 1 & \text{if } (DJ_{n-2} - y_n) < -1 \end{cases}$$

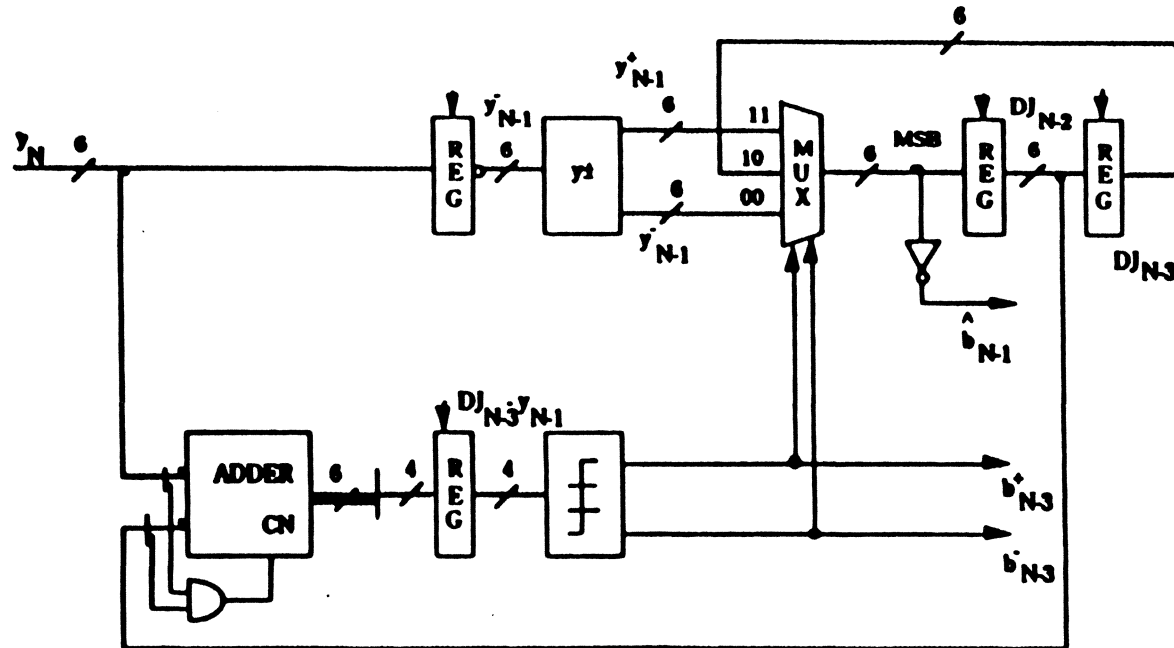
$\begin{matrix} \triangleright \\ \equiv \\ \triangleleft \end{matrix}$  } WHAT IS TRUE?

$\swarrow$  ENTER TRUTH

**Example:**

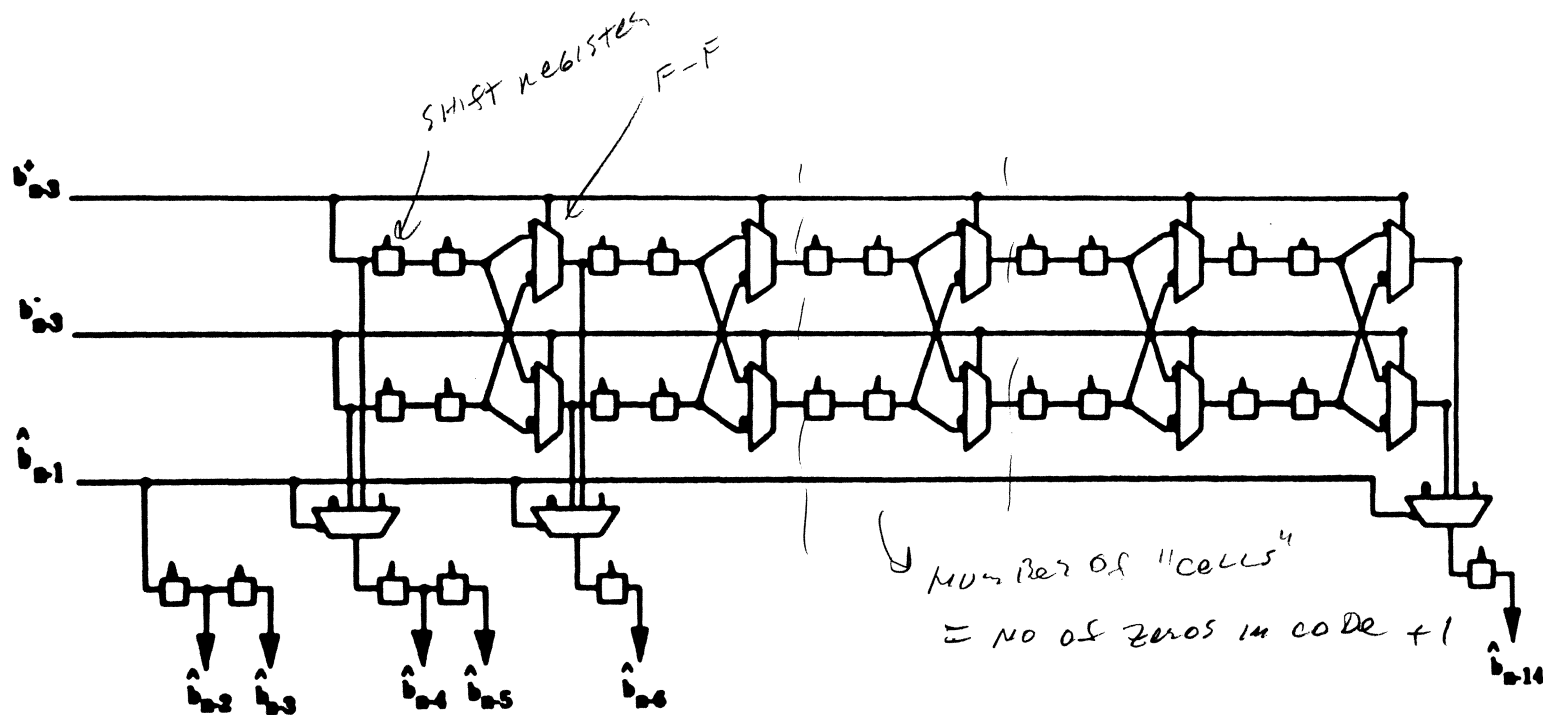


# Viterbi Detector Metric Calculation



Two's complement representation is used.  
Most significant bit (MSB) is at the top or left.

# Path Memory

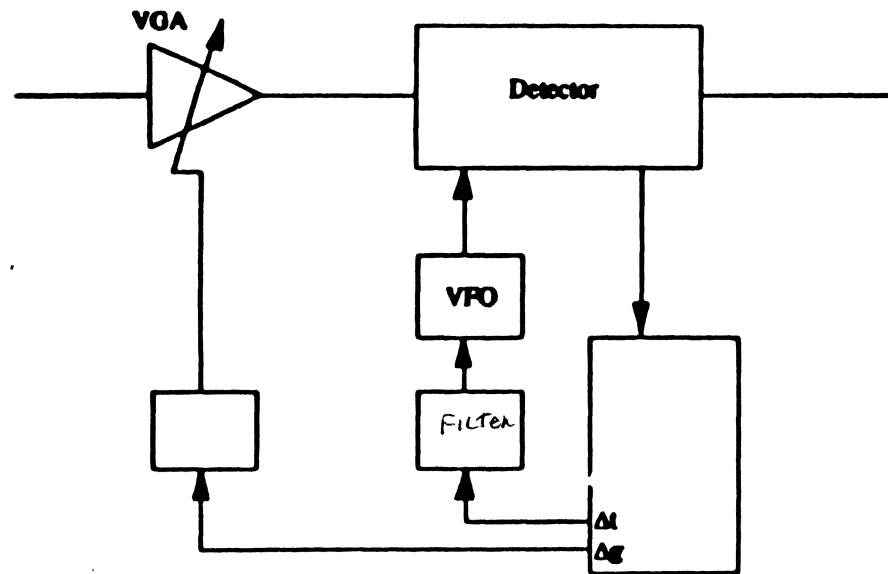


# Outline

- 1. Review of Peak Detection**
- 2. Sampling Detection**
- 3. *Timing and gain control***
- 4. Equalization**
- 5. Performance**



# Timing and Gain Control

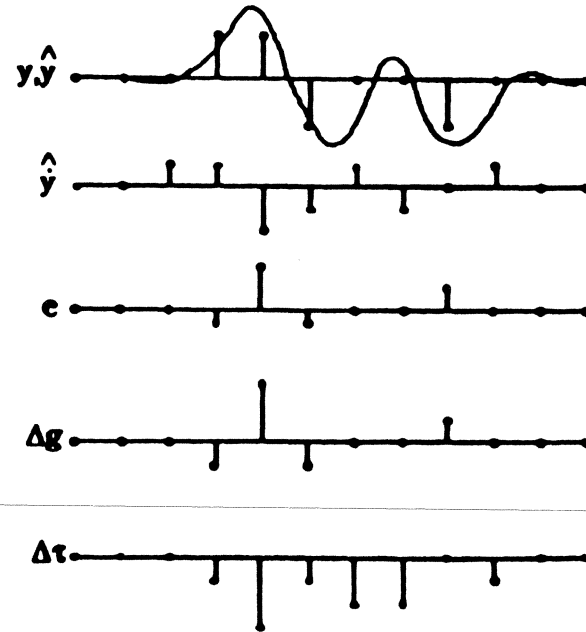


# Timing and Gain Control for PRML

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{y}_n &= \hat{a}_n - \hat{a}_{n-2} \\ \hat{y}_n &= \hat{y}_{n+1} - \hat{y}_{n-1} \\ e_n &= y_n - \hat{y}_n \\ \Delta e_n &= e_n \hat{y}_n \\ \Delta \tau_n &= e_n \hat{y}_n \end{aligned}$$

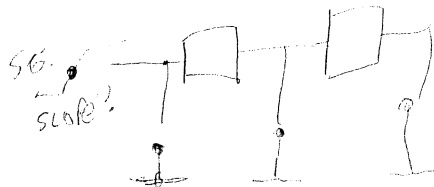
$$\begin{aligned} \Delta T_{n+1} &= \Delta T_n + \tau \Delta \tau_n \\ \tau_{n+1} &= \tau_n - \beta \Delta \tau_n - \Delta T_n \\ \varepsilon_{n+1} &= \varepsilon_n - \gamma \Delta e_n \end{aligned}$$

Example:



Sample values are constant

Peak defines 2 DELAY Lines

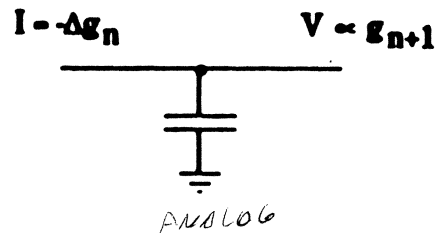


# Filtering the Error Signals

CHARGE COUPLED  
LOGIC implementation!

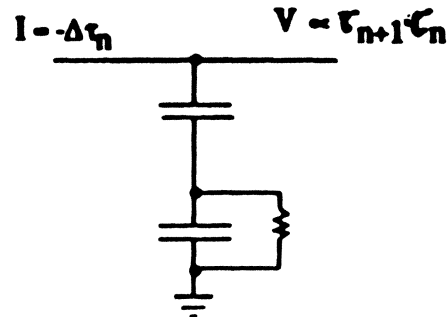
$$e_{n+1} = e_n - \gamma \Delta e_n$$

DIGITAL



$$\Delta T_{n+1} = \Delta T_n + \zeta \Delta \tau_n$$

$$\tau_{n+1} = \tau_n - \beta \Delta \tau_n - \Delta T_n$$

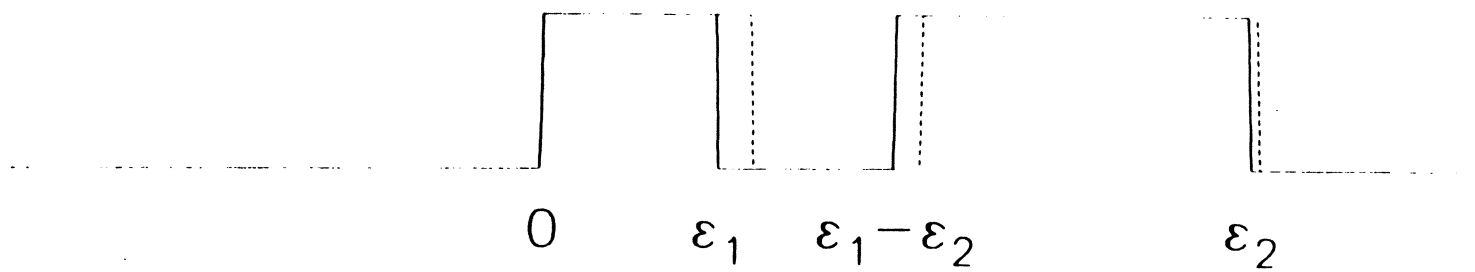


# Outline

1. Review of Peak Detection
2. Sampling detection
3. Gain and timing control
4. *Equalization*
5. Performance





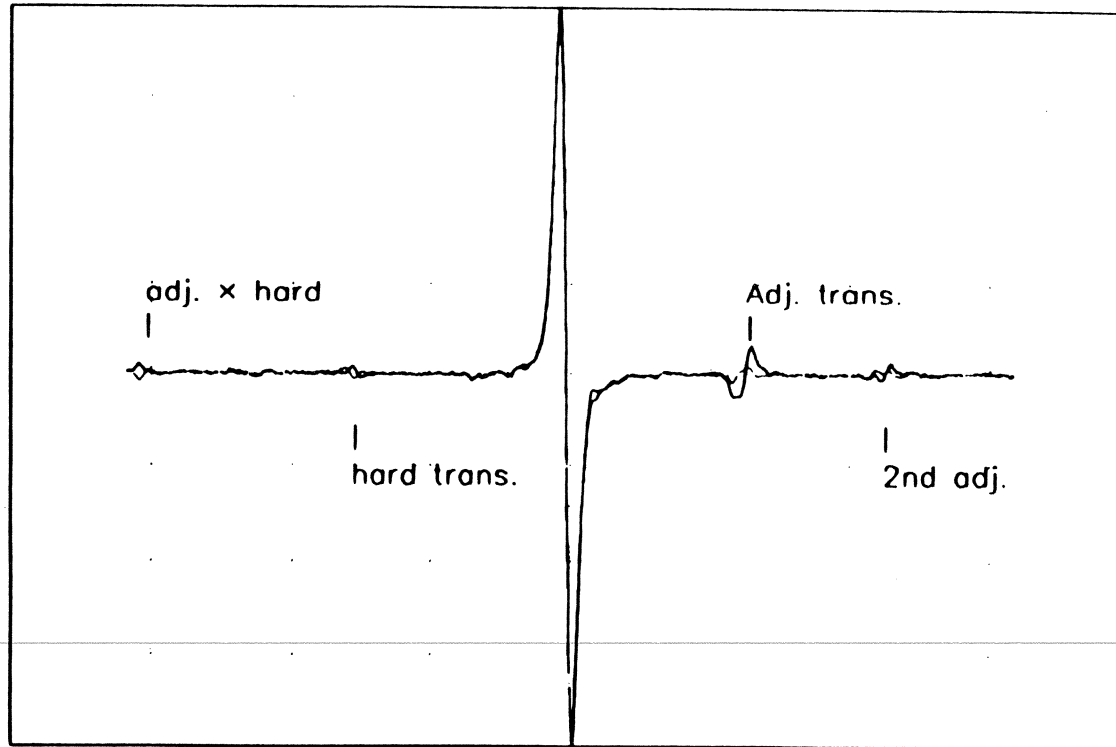


- Nominal write current

Precompensated write current

HOWELL D EC126327 May 7, 1990 at 16:08:15 by GDFUGT (V-90.033)

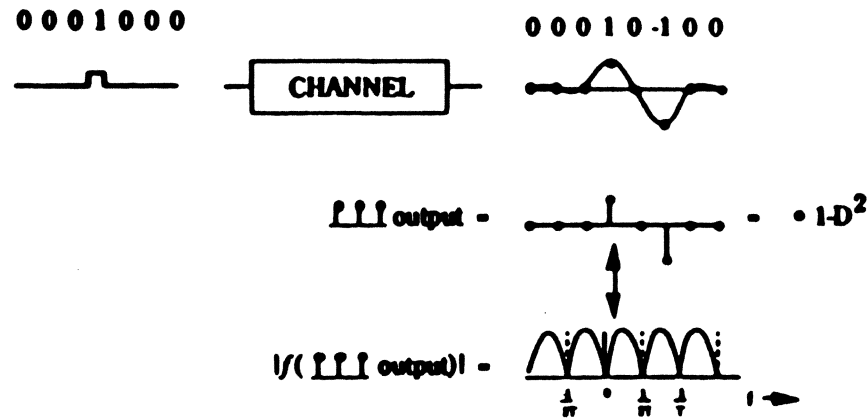
Corrected Data Rescans



Time (bit periods)



# Class IV (Modified Duobinary)



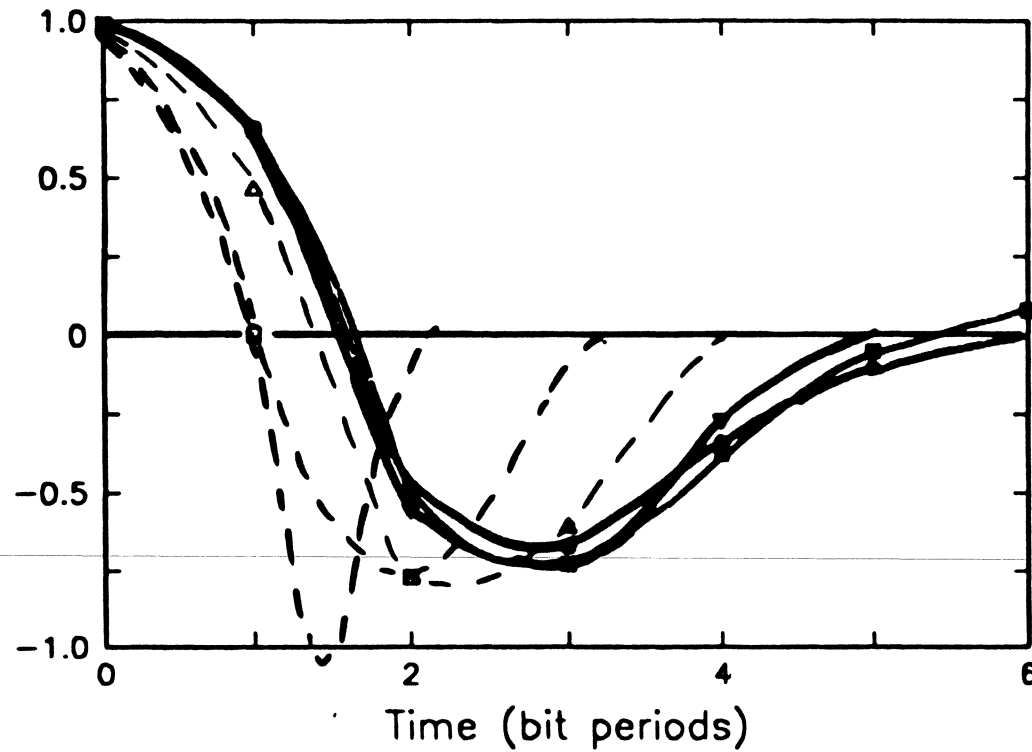
$$\begin{aligned}
 f(1 \cdot 1-D^2) &= 1e^{i\omega 2T} \\
 &= e^{i\omega T} 2i \sin \omega T \\
 &= e^{-i2\pi f T} 2i \sin 2\pi f T \\
 &\quad \uparrow \\
 &\text{DELAY FUNCTION}
 \end{aligned}$$

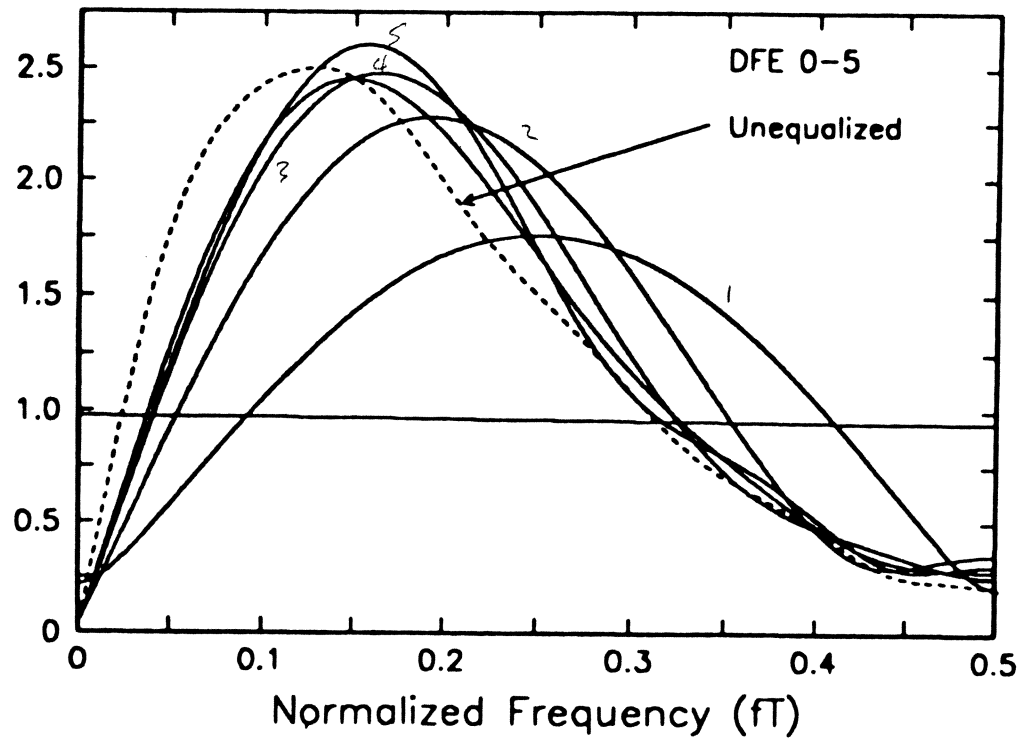
3-level output:  $y_n = -2, 0, 2$



# Sampled NRZ BIT Responses

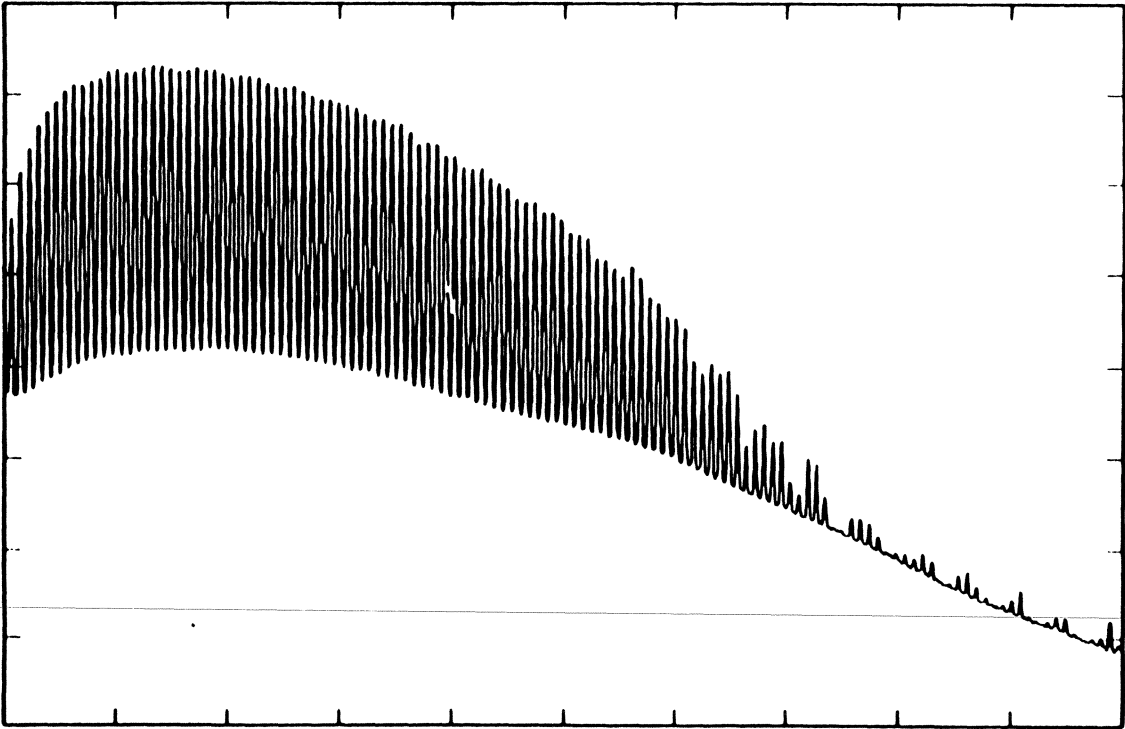
## 1 - 6 Feedback Taps





HOWELL D UNEPRBS3 January 24, 1990 at 17:48:00 by GDFTRN (V-88.322)

Relative Spectral Density (dB)

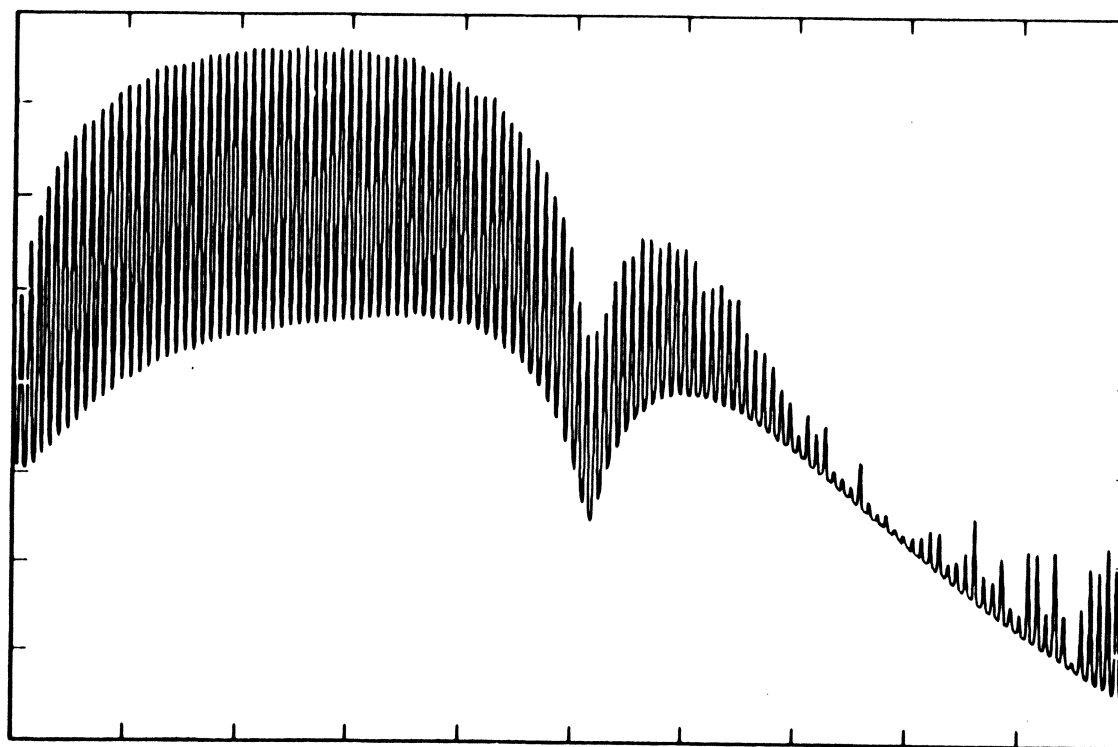


Normalized Frequency ( $f/f_c$ )



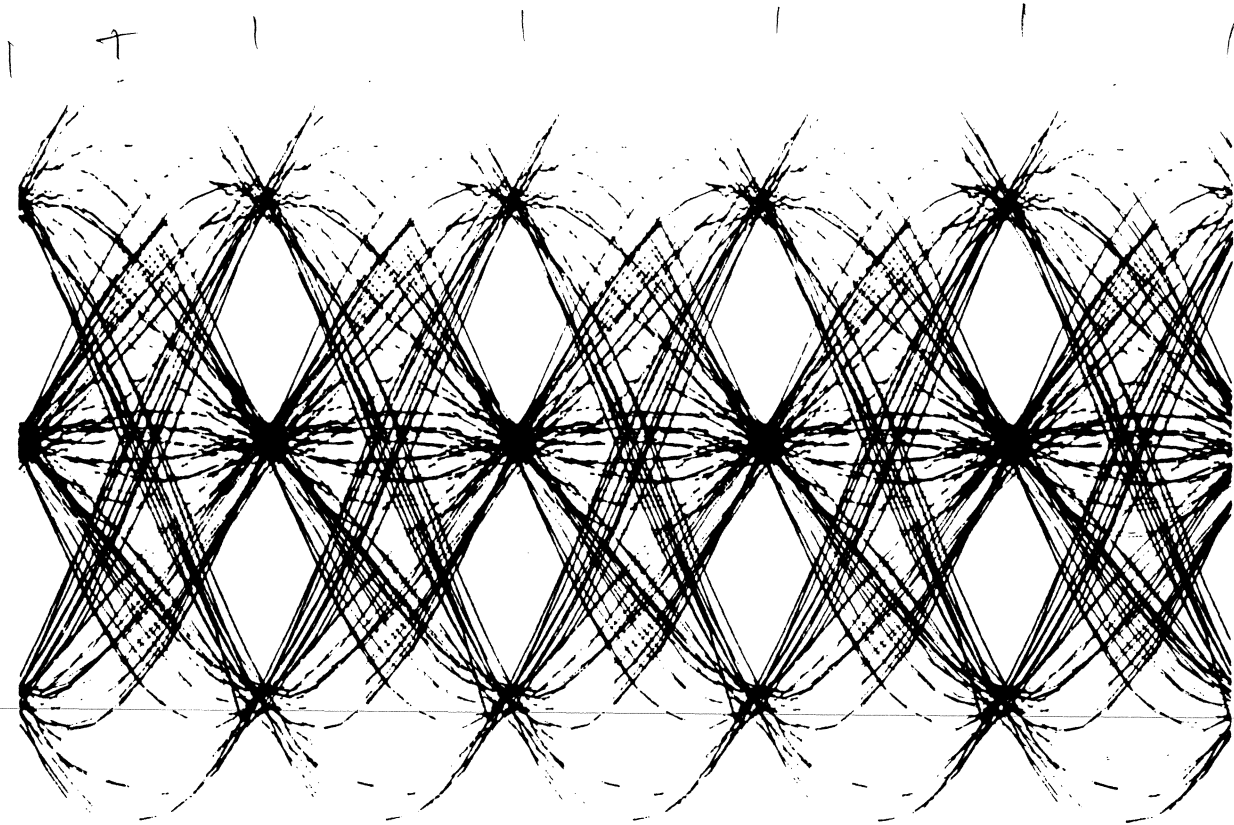
HOWELL D E0UPRBS3 January 24, 1990 at 17:48:16 by GDFTRN (V-88.322)

Relative Spectral Density (dB)



Normalized Frequency ( $f/f_c$ )





5T

6001) Equalizer network  
to wide band IMP.

IIST 12/91

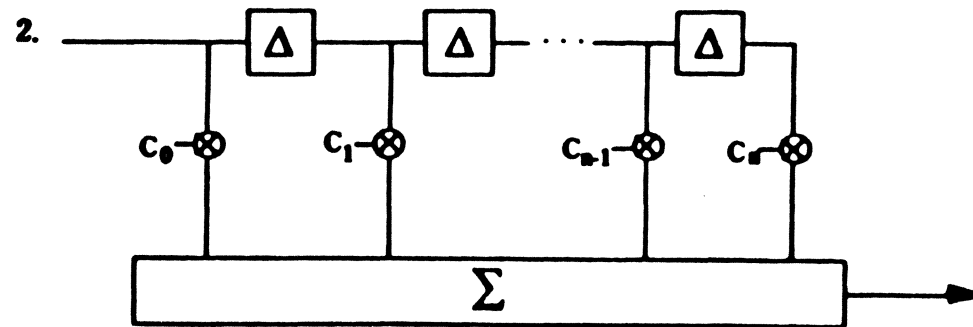




# Implementation

## 1. R-L-C Network

$$H(\omega) = \frac{N(z)}{d(z)} = \frac{\pi(z-z_j)}{\pi(z-p_j)} \Big|_{z=i\omega}$$

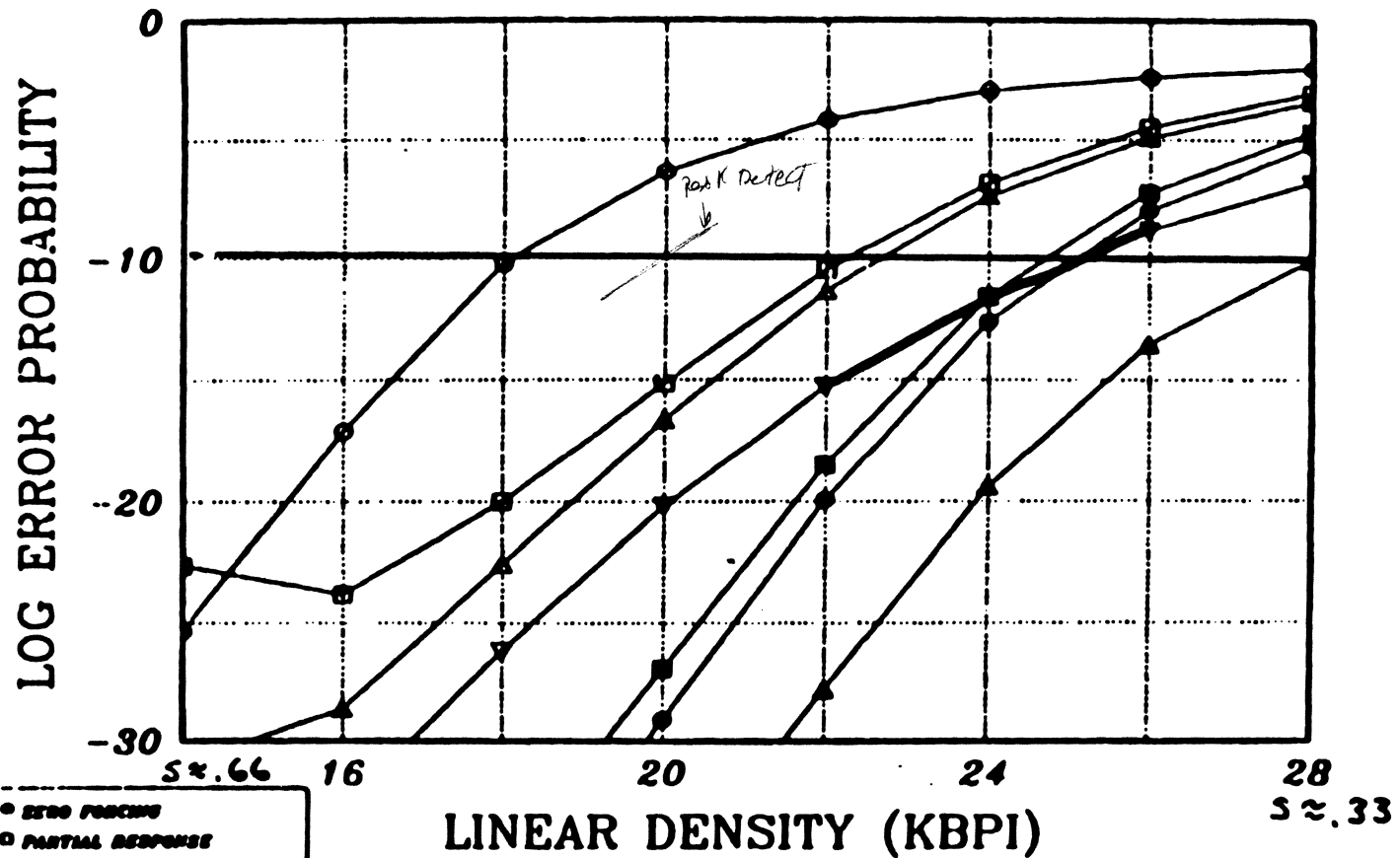


$$H(\omega) = \sum_k c_k \delta(t-k\Delta)$$

# Outline

- 1. Review of Peak Detection**
- 2. Sampling Detection**
- 3. Gain and timing control**
- 4. Equalization**
- 5. *Performance***





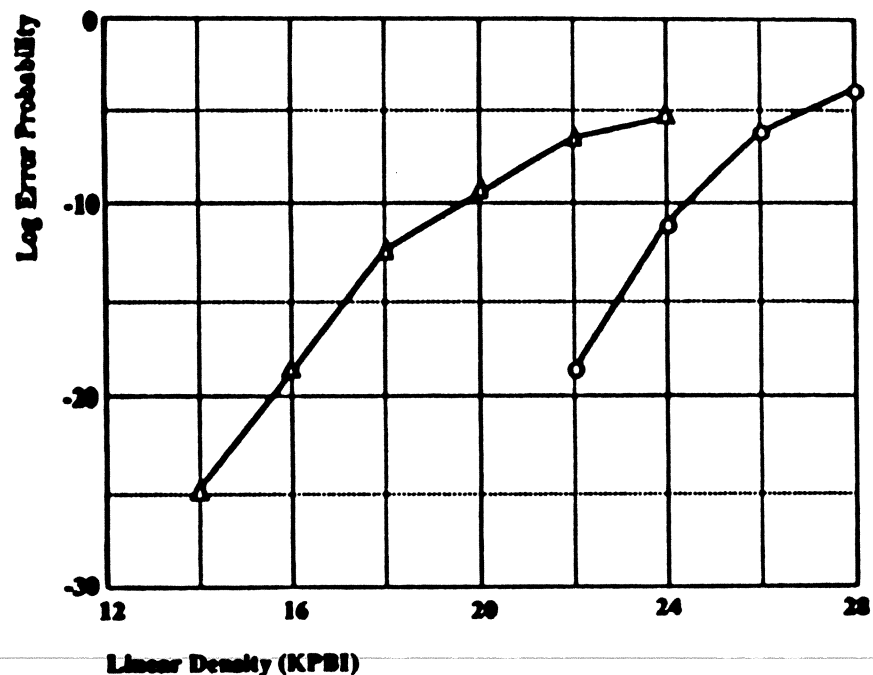
- ZERO FORCING
- PARTIAL RESPONSE
- ▲ DFE WITH ONE TAP
- ▼ DFE WITH 2 TAPS
- P.S. PLUS VITERBI
- ⊗ ONE TAP DFE PLUS VITERBI
- ⊕ 2 TAPS DFE PLUS VITERBI

Figure 3. Log-probability of error versus linear density for several detectors. On-track design, head running on-track.

NOT PRACTICAL DUE TO CIRCUIT COMPLEXITY



# Performance of Channel Alternatives

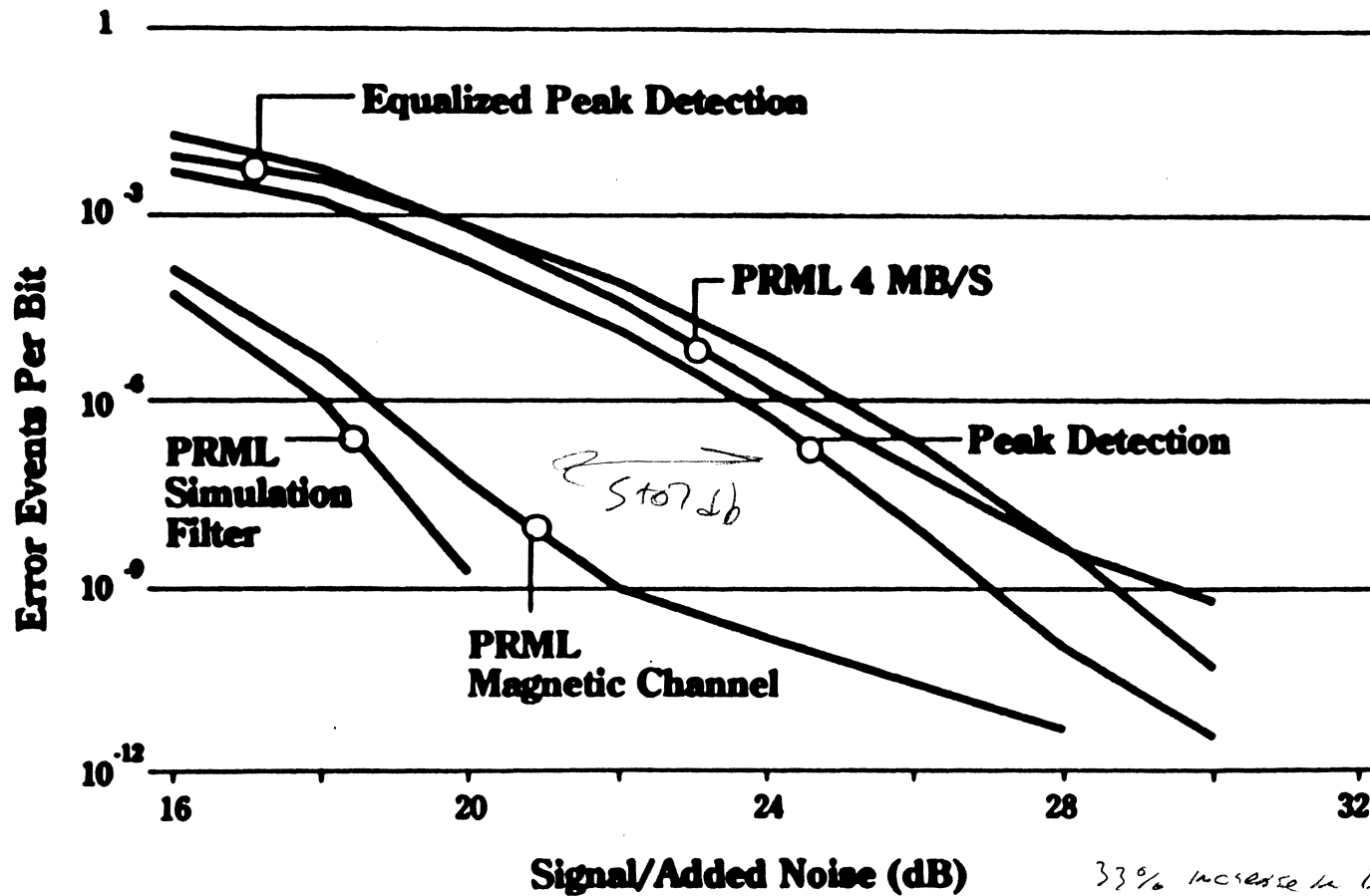


▲ (1,7) Code Equalized

○ P. R. Max. Likelihood



# Model Results On-Track



33% increase in density  
at same error rate.



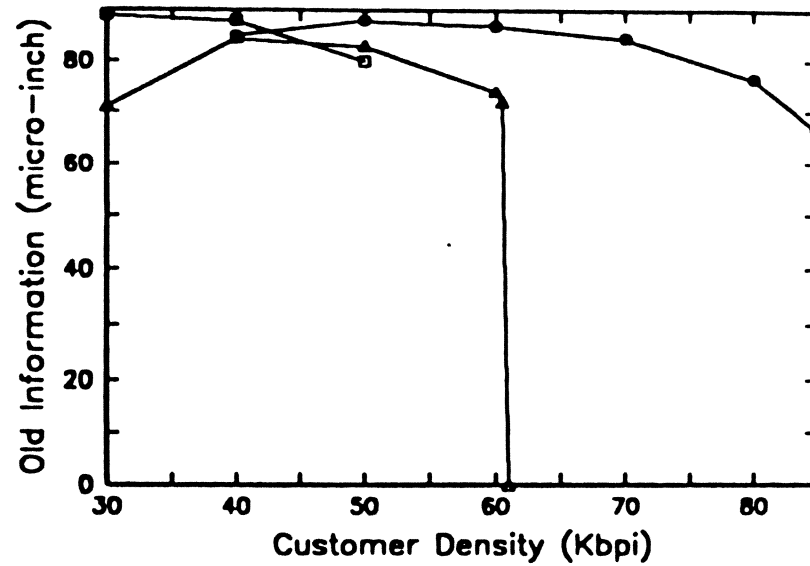


Figure 35. Old information versus linear density on MR head film disk.  $\circ$  = PRML,  $\square$  = (1,7) peak detection without equalization,  $\triangle$  = (1,7) peak detection with equalization.



# Conclusions

**Best alternatives are PRML and DFE**

**Compared with the best peak detector, they offer:**

- **25 - 40% linear density improvement at the same error rate and noise level or...**
- **5 - 7 dB more noise tolerance at the same linear density and error rate or...**
- **Several orders of magnitude improvement in on-track error rate at given linear density and noise.**







CODING  
FOR  
PARTIAL-RESPONSE CHANNELS

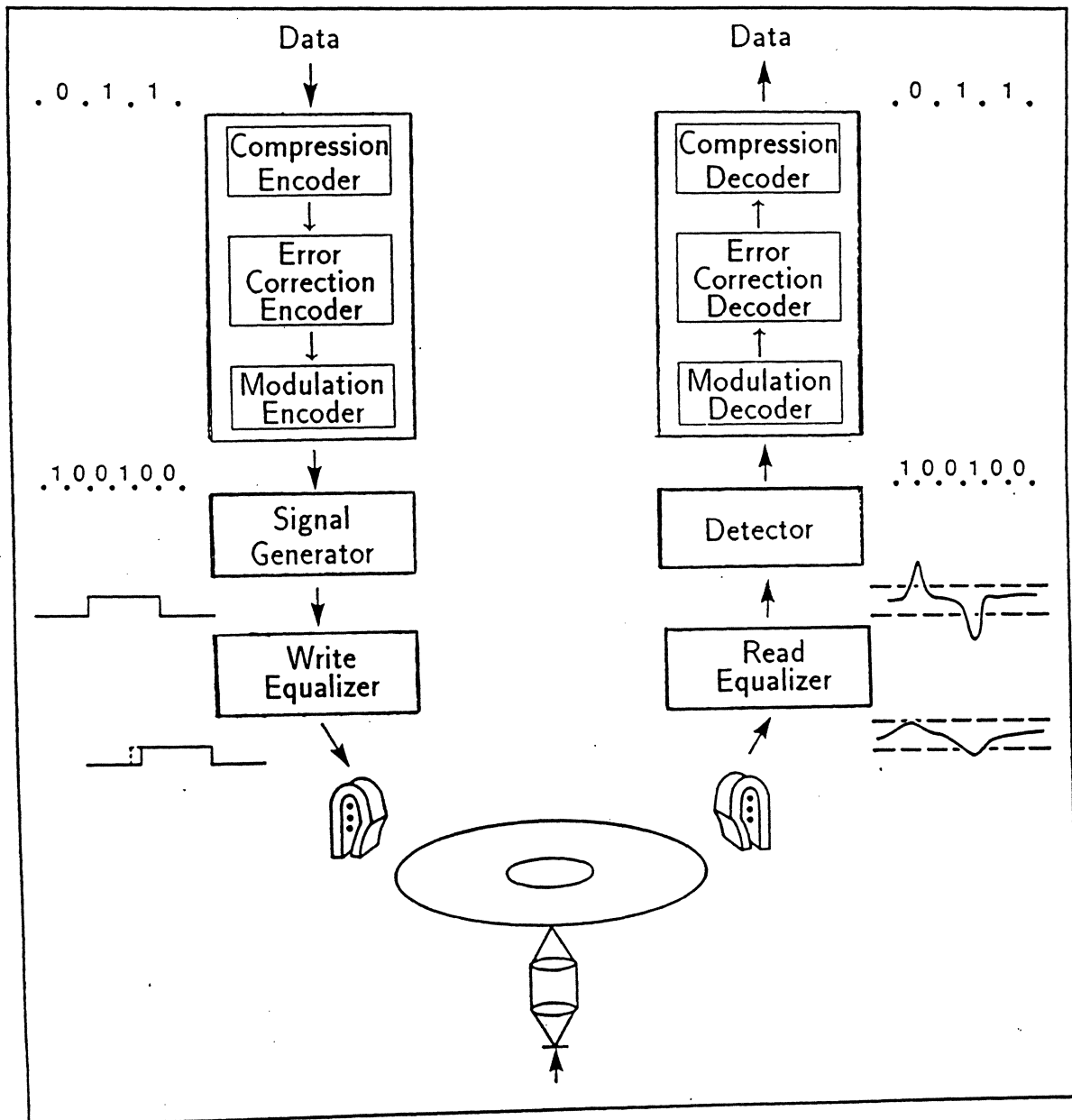
PAUL H. SIEGEL

IBM RESEARCH DIVISION  
ALMADEN RESEARCH CENTER  
SAN JOSE, CALIFORNIA

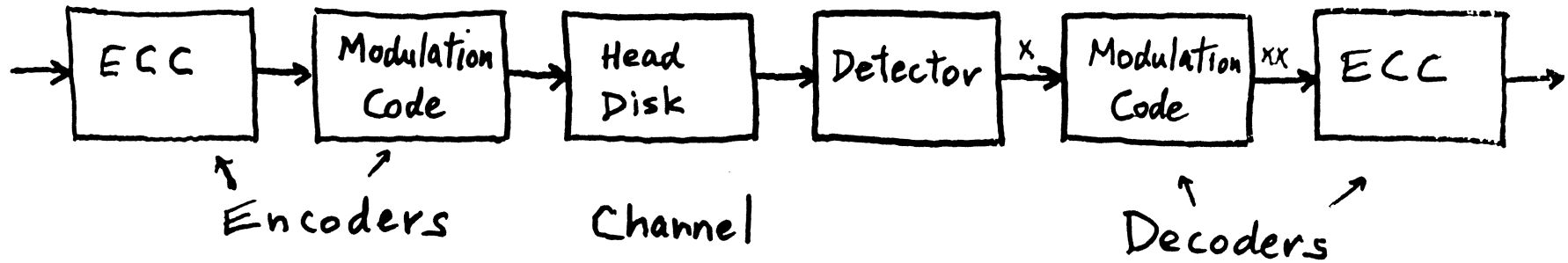
# OUTLINE

- Digital recording channel
- Constrained codes for PRML
- Trellis codes for PRML

# DIGITAL DATA RECORDING (SCHEMATIC)



# CONFIGURATION OF CODES



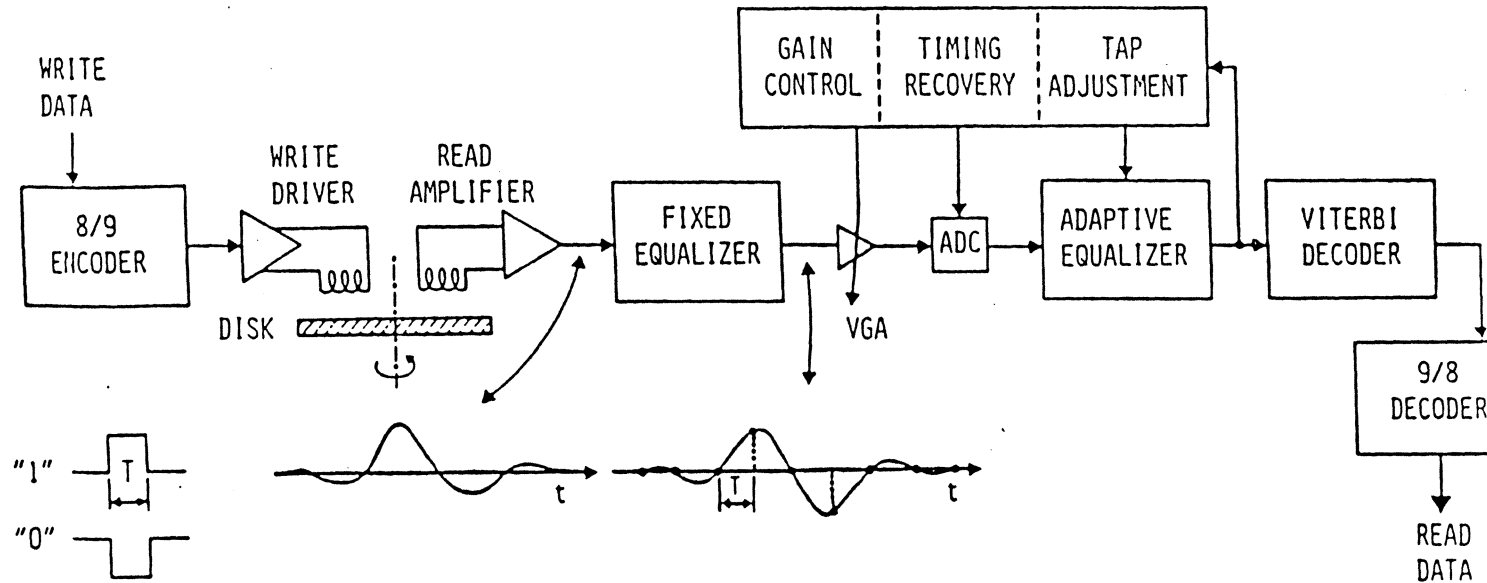
## Modulation Code

Matches recording signal characteristics to channel bandwidth, detection method, read/write electronics, timing and tracking servo requirements

## Error Correction Code

Detects and corrects data detection errors

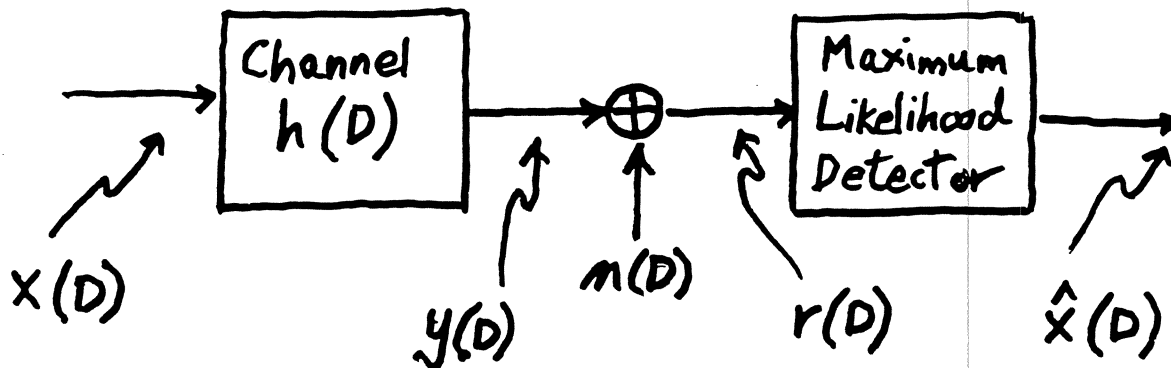
# PRML Channel



PRML: PARTIAL-RESPONSE CLASS-IV SIGNALING  
with MAXIMUM-LIKELIHOOD SEQUENCE DETECTION

- 30% linear density advantage over (2,7) peak detection

# DIGITAL RECORDING CHANNEL



- Binary channel input

$$x(D) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x_j D^j ; x_j \in \{0, 1\}$$

- Channel linear filter model

$$h(D) = \sum_{j=0}^N h_j D^j ; \{h_j\}_0^N = \text{impulse response}$$

$$y(D) = x(D) h(D)$$

- Additive, i.i.d. Gaussian noise

$$m(D) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} m_j D^j ; m_j \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

# PARTIAL-RESPONSE FILTER MODEL FOR RECORDING CHANNELS

- Magnetic recording

- Transfer polynomial

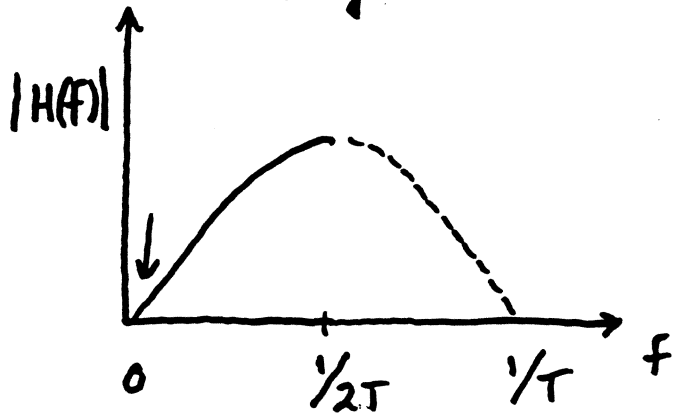
•  $h(D) = 1 - D$

$(y_n = x_n - x_{n-1})$

"Dicode"

- Transfer function

$H(f) = j2T \sin \pi f T$

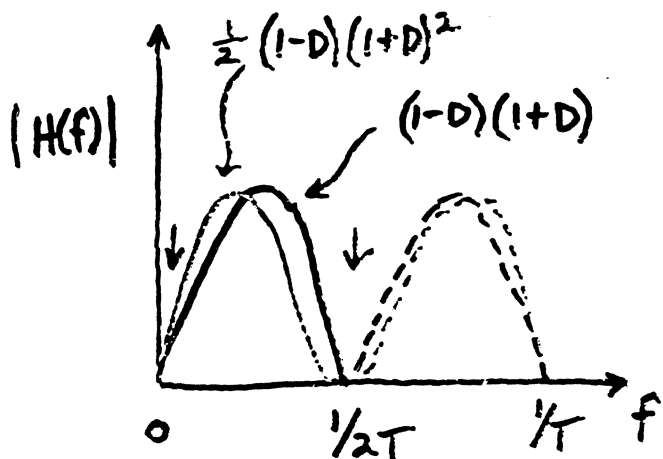


•  $h(D) = \begin{cases} (1-D)(1+D) \\ (1-D)(1+D)^2 \end{cases}$

$H(f) = \begin{cases} j2T \sin 2\pi f T \\ j4T \cos \pi f T \sin 2\pi f T \end{cases}$

$y_n = \begin{cases} x_n - x_{n-2} \\ x_n + x_{n-1} - x_{n-2} - x_{n-3} \end{cases}$

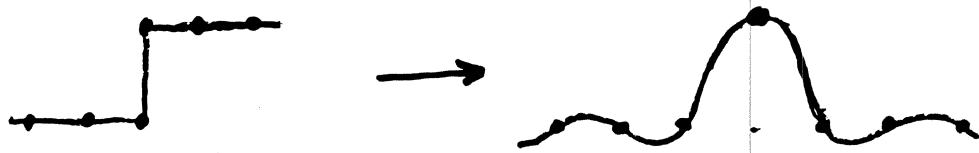
$\begin{cases} \text{"PR4"} \\ \text{"EPR4"} \end{cases}$



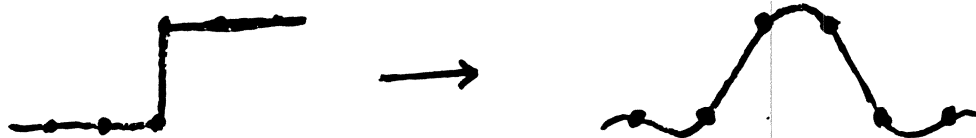
# PR MODELS (cont.)

- Magnetic recording - step responses

- Dicode:  $h(D) = 1 - D$



- PR4:  $h(D) = (1 - D)(1 + D) = 1 - D^2$



- EPR4:  $h(D) = (1 - D)(1 + D)^2 = 1 + D - D^2 - D^3$





# PR FILTER MODELS (cont.)

- Optical recording

- Transfer polynomial

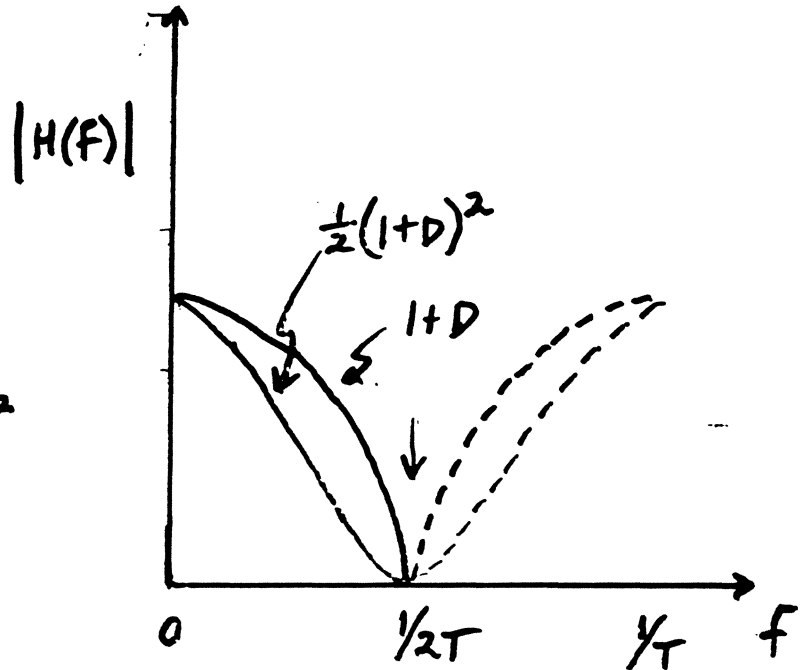
$$h(D) = \begin{cases} 1 + D \\ (1 + D)^2 \end{cases}$$

- Transfer function

$$H(f) = \begin{cases} 2T \cos \pi f T \\ 4T \cos^2 \pi f T \end{cases}$$

$$y_n = \begin{cases} x_n + x_{n-1} \\ x_n + 2x_{n-1} + x_{n-2} \end{cases}$$

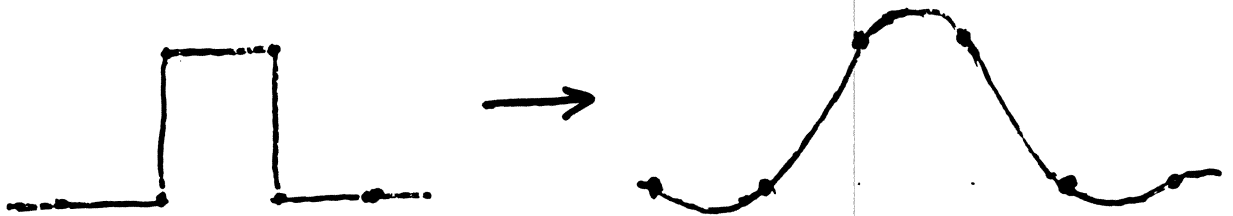
$\begin{cases} \text{" PR 1" } \\ \text{" PR 2" } \end{cases}$



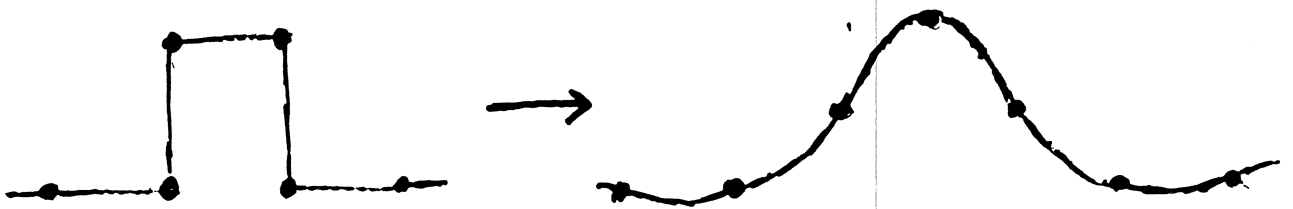
# PR MODELS (cont.)

- Optical recording - pulse responses

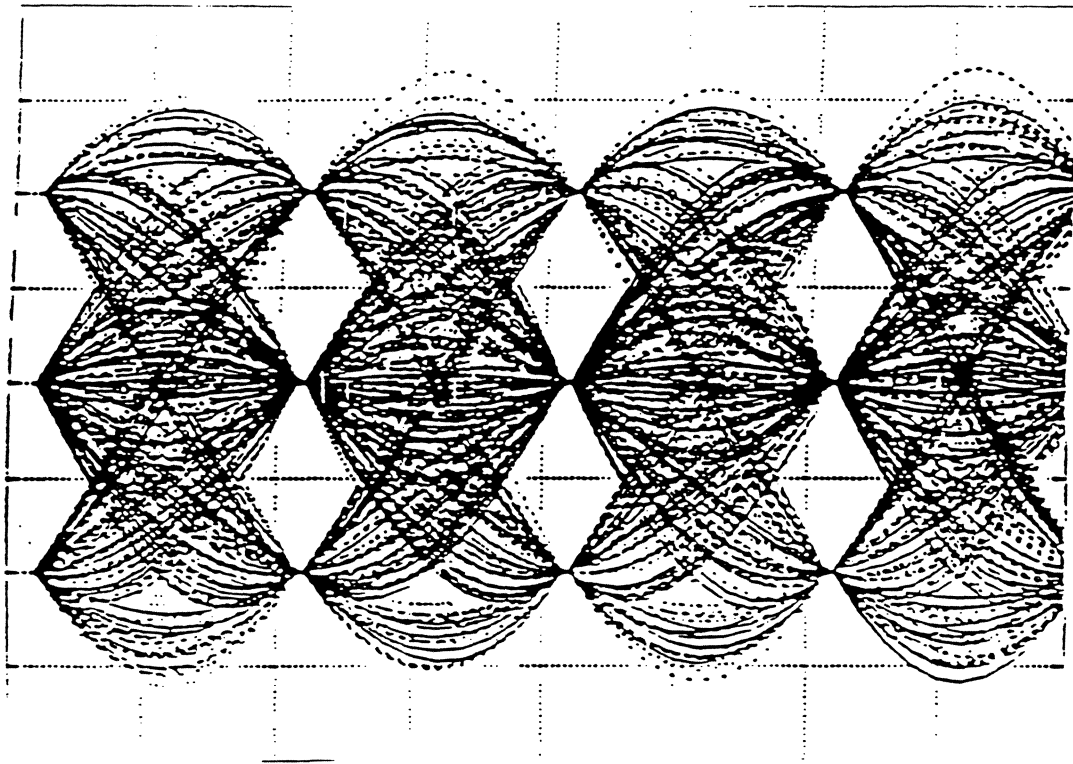
- PR 1 (duobinary):  $h(D) = 1+D$



- PR 2 :  $h(D) = (1+D)^2$

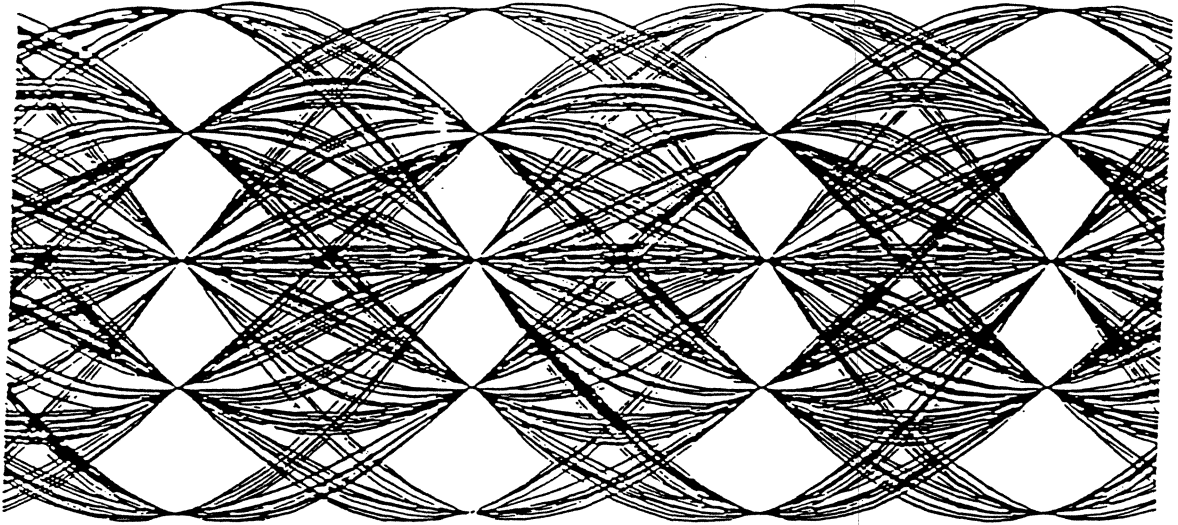


# EYE DIAGRAM FOR PR4



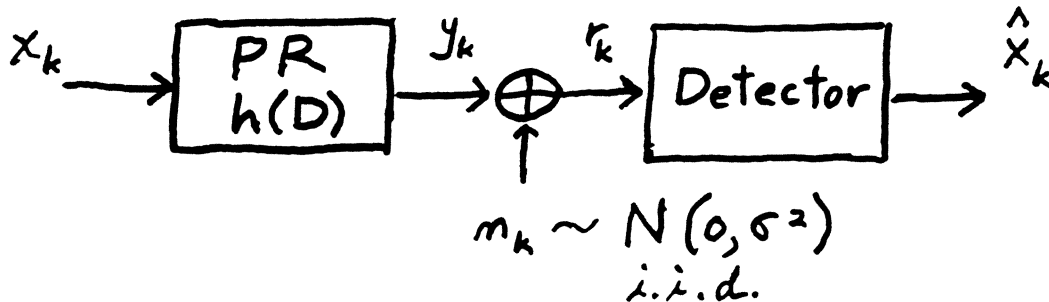
- 3 nominal sample values

# EYE DIAGRAM FOR EPR4



- 5 nominal sample values

# DETECTION



Received samples:

$$r_k = y_k + m_k$$

- Maximum Likelihood (ML) detector

$$\max_{\underline{x}} p(\underline{r} | \underline{x})$$



likelihood function

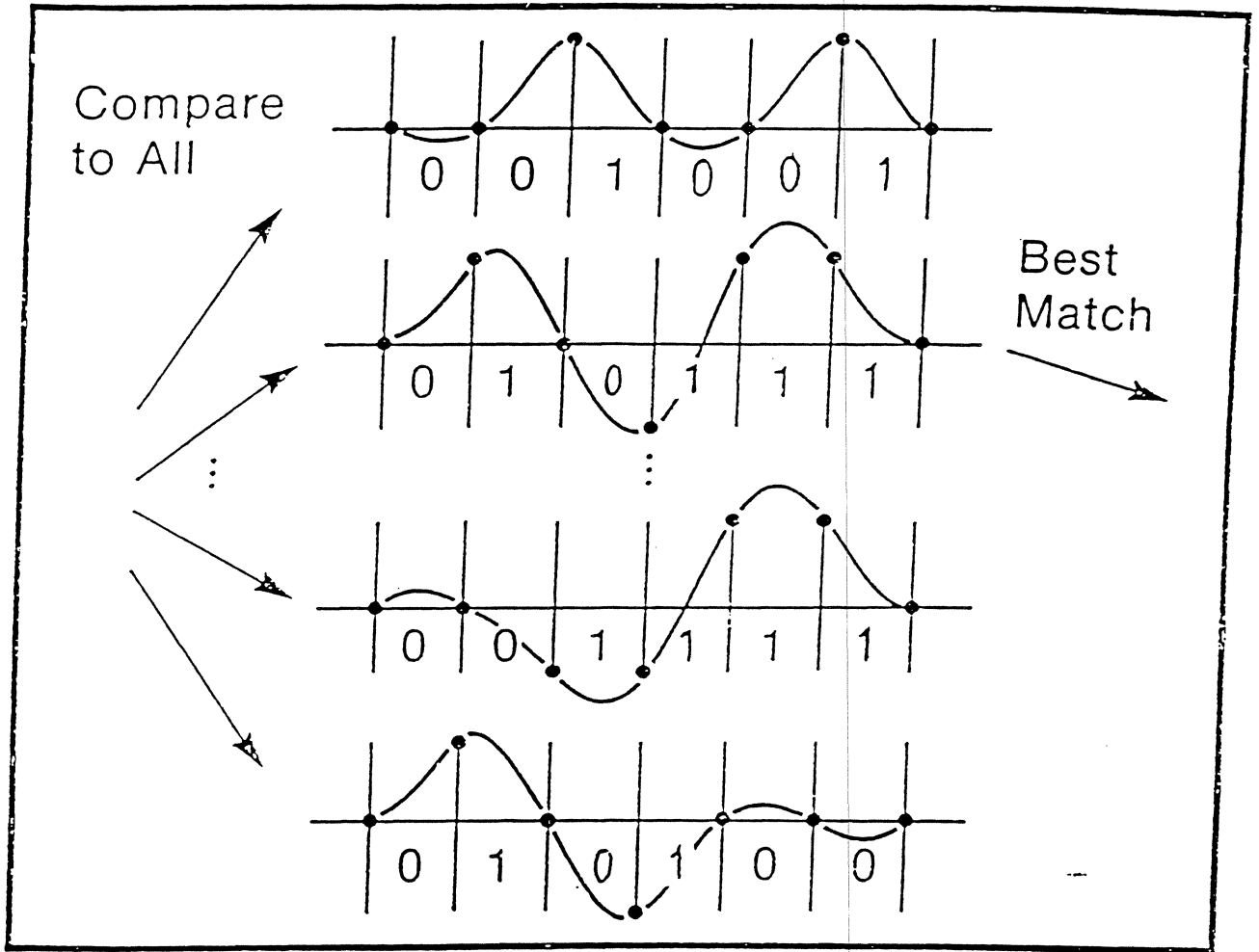
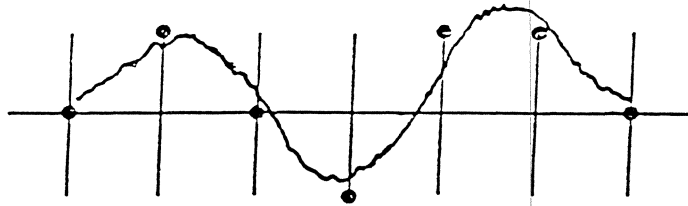
ML is optimal detector

- ML  $\iff$  Minimum-Distance decoding

$$\max_{\underline{x}} p(\underline{r} | \underline{x}) \iff \min_{\underline{x}} \sum_k (r_k - y_k)^2$$

# MAXIMUM-LIKELIHOOD DETECTION (SCHEMATIC)

Received Signal:

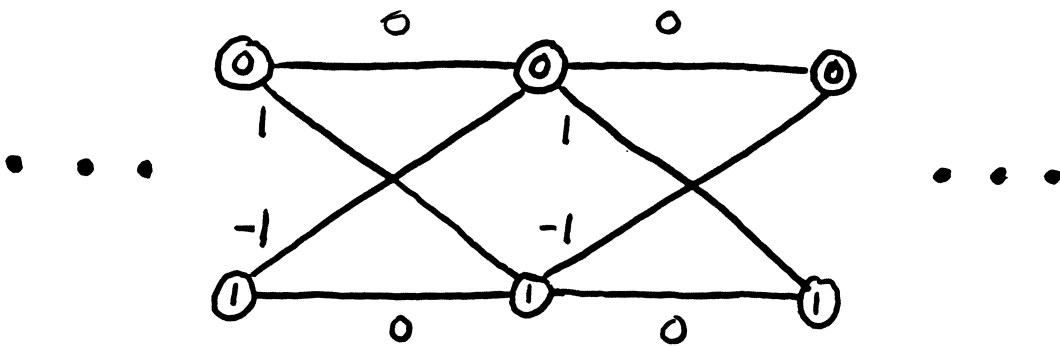


Most likely information sequence:

... 0 1 0 1 1 1 ...

# THE VITERBI ALGORITHM (VA)

- Recursive solution of ML detection (dynamic programming)
- Trellis representation of PR channel (Forney)



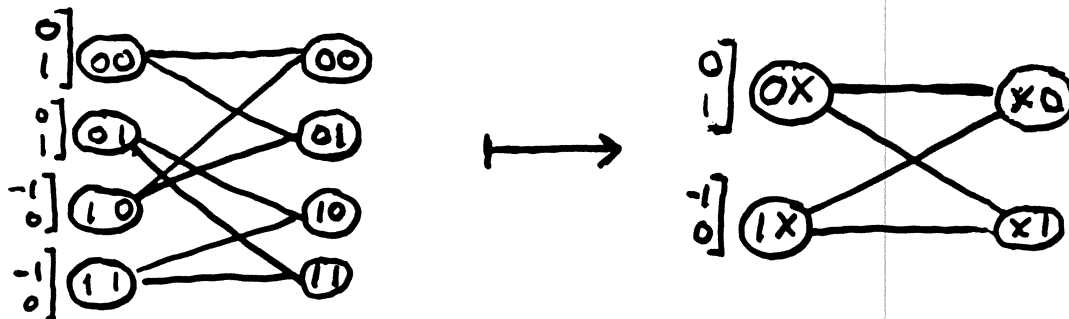
"Dicode" channel:  $h(D) = 1 - D$

- Trellis-based architecture

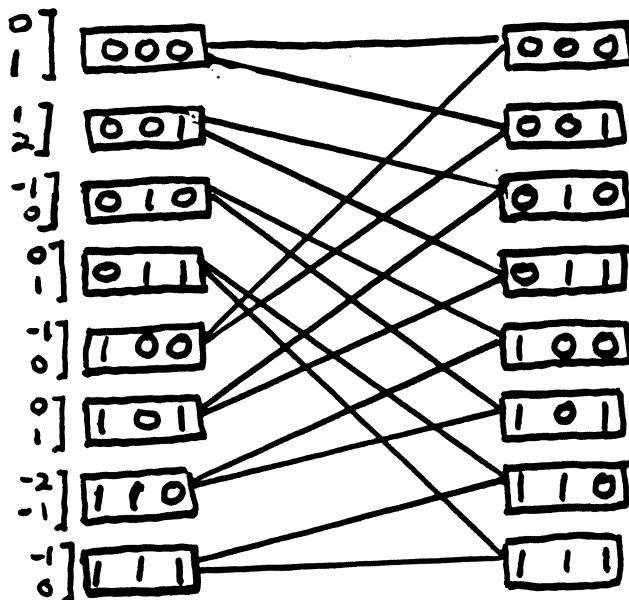
Trellis state  $\longrightarrow$  Add-Compare-Select processor  
(ACS)

# PR TRELLISES

- PR4 (interleaved diicode)



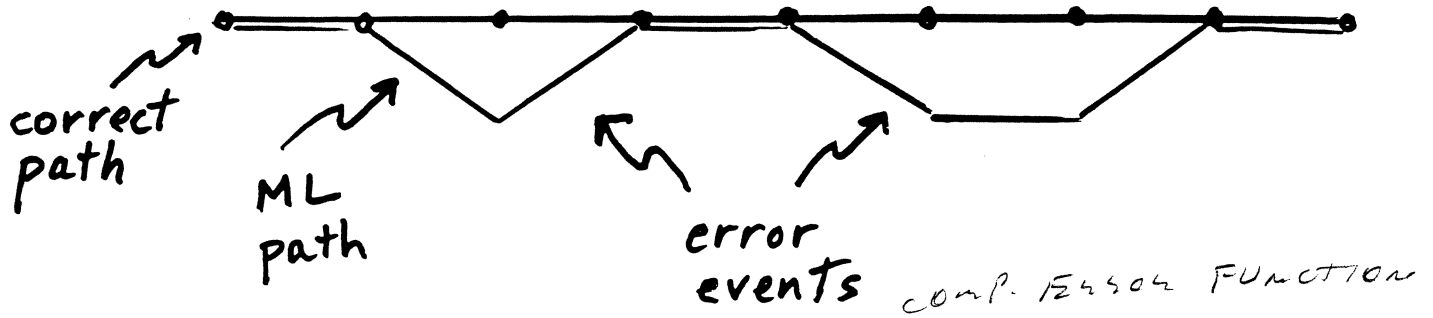
- EPR4



Improved PR model  $\Rightarrow$  larger detector complexity



# VA PERFORMANCE



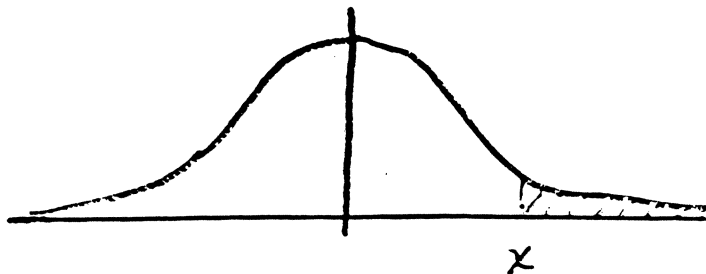
$$P_e \approx N Q\left(\frac{d_{\text{free}}}{2\sigma}\right)$$

where  $N$  = "error coefficient"

$d_{\text{free}}^2$  = minimum distance between any two trellis sequences differing by 1 error event

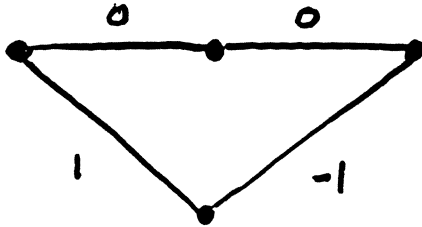
and

$$Q(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_x^{\infty} e^{-\frac{s^2}{2}} ds$$



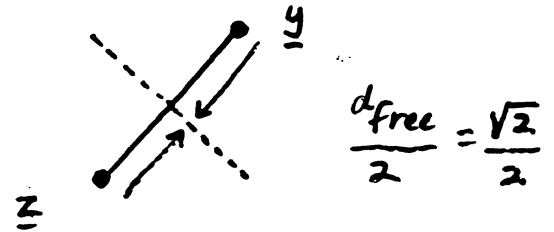
# VA PERFORMANCE EXAMPLE

- $h(D) = (1-D)$



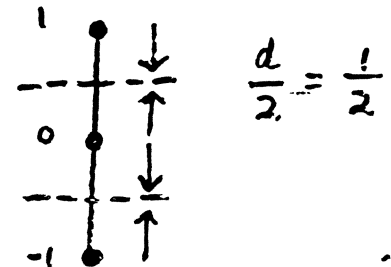
$$\frac{d_{\text{free}}^2 = 2}{N = 2}$$

$$P_e^{\text{VA}} \approx 2 Q\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2\sigma}\right)$$



- Compare to threshold detection (TD)

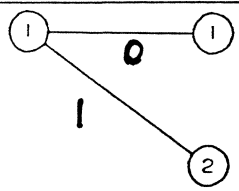
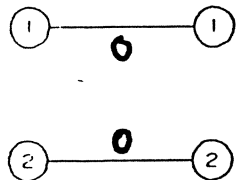
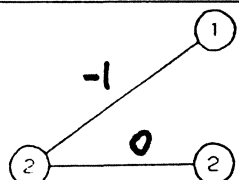
$$P_e^{\text{TD}} \approx \frac{3}{2} Q\left(\frac{1}{2\sigma}\right)$$



- VA is 3 dB better than TD

# VITERBI ALGORITHM

- Difference-metric formulation

Extension	Condition	Update
	$DM_k \leq 2y_{k+1} - 1$	$DM_{k+1} = 2y_{k+1} - 1$
	$2y_{k+1} - 1 < DM_k < 2y_{k+1} + 1$	$DM_{k+1} = DM_k$
	$2y_{k+1} + 1 \leq DM_k$	$DM_{k+1} = 2y_{k+1} + 1$

(0, G/I)

CONSTRAINED CODES

FOR

PRML

## PRECODING CONVENTIONS (peak detection)

- NRZI:  $\left( \frac{1}{1 \oplus 0} \right)$

0  $\longrightarrow$  no transition

1  $\longrightarrow$   $\pm$  transition

- $(d, k)$  constraints

$d \leq \# \text{ consecutive } 0\text{'s} \leq k$

$d$  reduces intersymbol-interference

$k$  provides timing/gain information

- $(1, 7)$  example

1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 ...

## PRECODING CONVENTIONS (PRML)

- Interleaved NRZI (INRZI):  $\frac{1}{1 \oplus D^2}$

0  $\rightarrow$  0 sample

1  $\rightarrow$   $\pm 1$  sample

- (0, G/I) constraints

$d = 0$  (no ISI problem)

G = Global k constraint

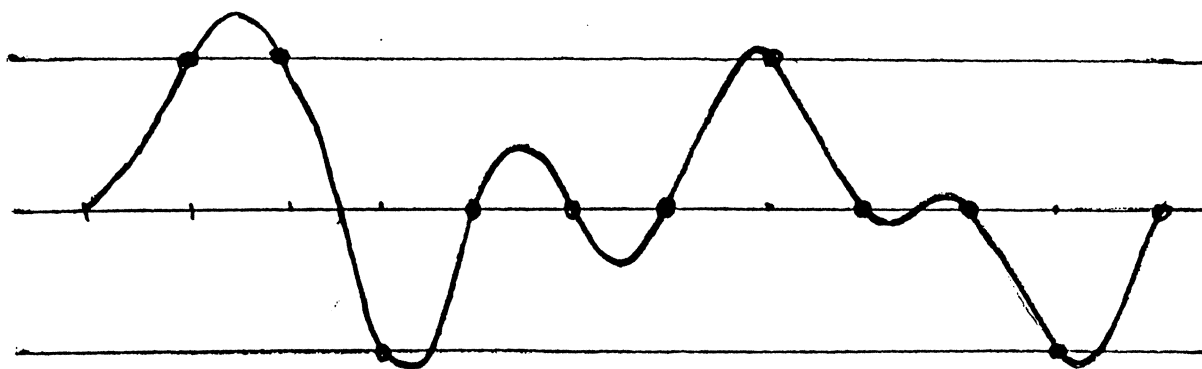
(timing/gain)

I = Interleaved k constraint

(Viterbi path memory)

$$(0, G/I) = (0, 4/4)$$

0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0

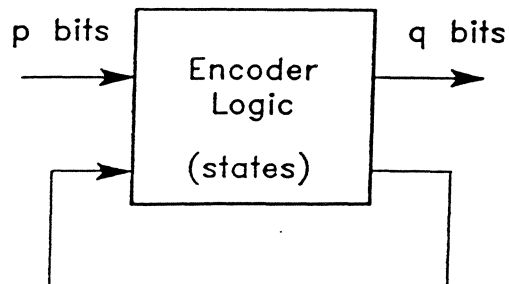


0 + + - 0 0 0 + 0 0 - 0

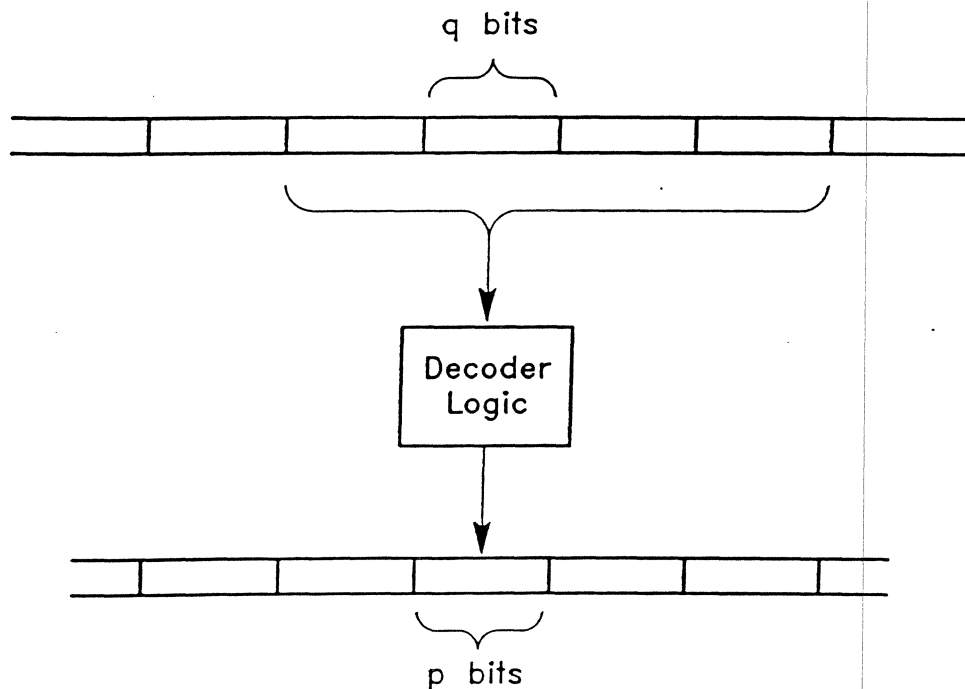
0 + + - 0 0 0 + 0 - 0

# SLIDING-BLOCK CODES

- Finite-state encoder



- Sliding-block decoder



- Practical code construction methods



## Sliding-Block (0,G/I) Codes

(0,G/I)	Capacity	Rate	Efficiency ( % )	Encoder States	Decoder Window
(0,4/4)*	0.961	8/9	92.4	1	1
(0,4/3)	0.939	8/9	94.6	3	1
(0,3/6)*	0.944	8/9	94.1	1	1
(0,3/5)	0.941	8/9	94.4	2	1
(0,3/4)	0.934	8/9	95.1	3	2
(0,3/3)	0.915	8/9	97.0	4	2

\* 9 for # of BITS

\* Originally found by J. Eggenberger

$$(0, G/I) = (0, 4/4)$$

- Optimal list of 279 9-bit words  
(in decimal)

73	116	183	225	268	310	361	402	438	479
75	117	185	227	269	311	363	403	439	481
76	118	186	228	270	313	364	406	441	483
77	119	187	229	271	314	365	407	442	484
78	121	188	230	281	315	366	409	443	485
79	122	189	231	282	316	367	410	444	486
89	123	190	233	283	317	369	411	445	487
90	124	191	235	284	318	370	412	446	489
91	125	195	236	285	319	371	413	447	491
92	126	198	237	286	329	372	414	451	492
93	127	199	238	287	331	373	415	454	493
94	146	201	239	289	332	374	417	455	494
95	147	203	241	291	333	375	419	457	495
97	150	204	242	292	334	377	420	459	497
99	151	205	243	293	335	378	421	460	498
100	153	206	244	294	345	379	422	461	499
101	154	207	245	295	346	380	423	462	500
102	155	210	246	297	347	381	425	463	501
103	156	211	247	299	348	382	427	466	502
105	157	214	249	300	349	383	428	467	503
107	158	215	250	301	350	390	429	470	505
108	159	217	251	302	351	391	430	471	506
109	177	218	252	303	353	393	431	473	507
110	178	219	253	305	355	395	433	474	508
111	179	220	254	306	356	396	434	475	509
113	180	221	255	307	357	397	435	476	510
114	181	222	265	308	358	398	436	477	511
115	182	223	267	309	359	399	437	478	

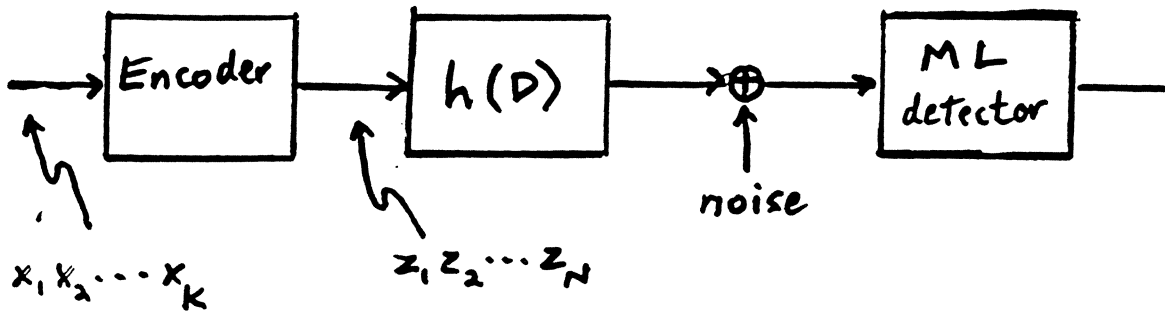
$G=4$  :  $\leq 2$  0's at beginning/end  
 $\leq 4$  consecutive 0's inside

$I=4$  :  $\leq 2$  0's at beginning/end  
 in each interleave  
 $\leq 4$  consecutive 0's inside  
 in each interleave

# TRELLIS-CODED PRML

- Objectives and tradeoffs
- Example - Interleaved Biphasic
- Design techniques
  - Precoded convolutional codes
  - Matched-spectral-null codes

# TRELLIS CODING



Binary symbols  $\Rightarrow N > K$

- Why use coding?
  - Reduce  $P_e$
  - Tolerate larger  $\sigma$
  - off-track capability
  - areal density
  - component yield
  - fly height relaxation
- Coding approach
  - Increase  $d_{free}$  with structured redundancy (trellis)
  - Enhance ML detector
- Costs
  - Code rate loss
  - Code/detector complexity

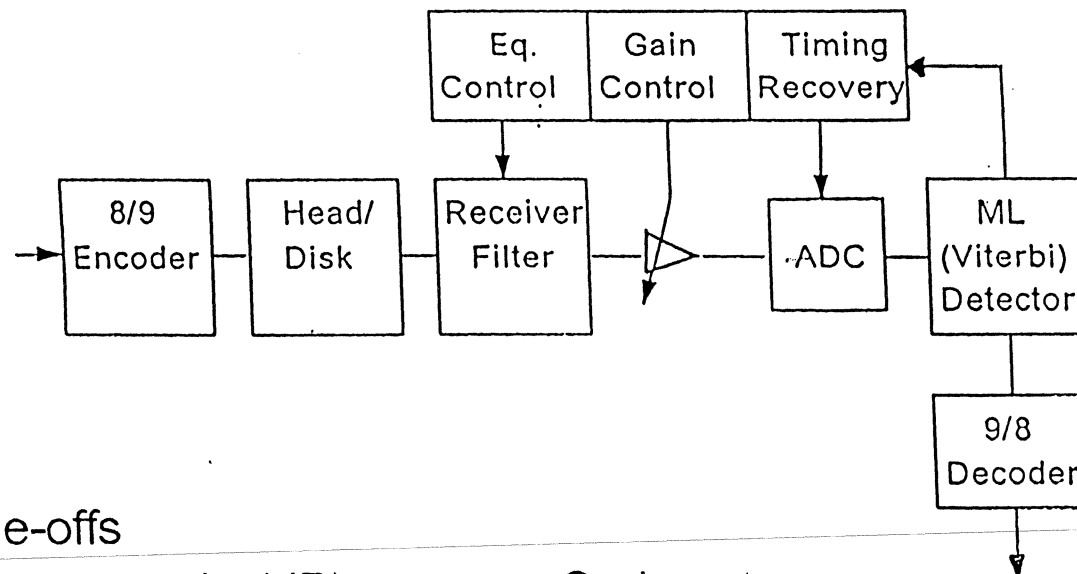
# TRELLIS - CODED MODULATION

## HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

- Shannon (1948): Use structured waveforms for efficient utilization of signal power and limited channel bandwidth.
- Elias, Massey, Viterbi, Forney, et al. (1960's): Convolutional codes for binary, memoryless channel
- Ungerboeck (1981): Trellis-coded modulation (TCM) for multi-level, memoryless channel.
- Wolf-Ungerboeck (1986): TCM for binary, partial-response channels  $h(D) = 1 \pm D^N$  using convolutional codes.  
[Also, Calderbank-Heegard-Lee (1986)]
- Karabed-Siegel (1988): New TCM for binary, PR channels
  - Convolutional codes + inner codes
  - Matched-Spectral-Null codes
- TCM for multi-level, PR channels ...

## Trellis Code Design Problem

- Replace selected digital blocks in PRML channel



- Trade-offs

Coding gain (dB)

vs

Code rate

Encoder/decoder complexity

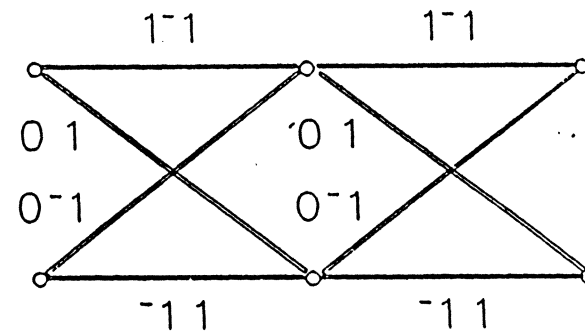
Viterbi detector complexity

# Trellis Code Example

- Interleaved Biphase (IB) Code

Rate: 1/2 (2:4)

Encoder:  $xy \rightarrow xy\bar{x}\bar{y}$

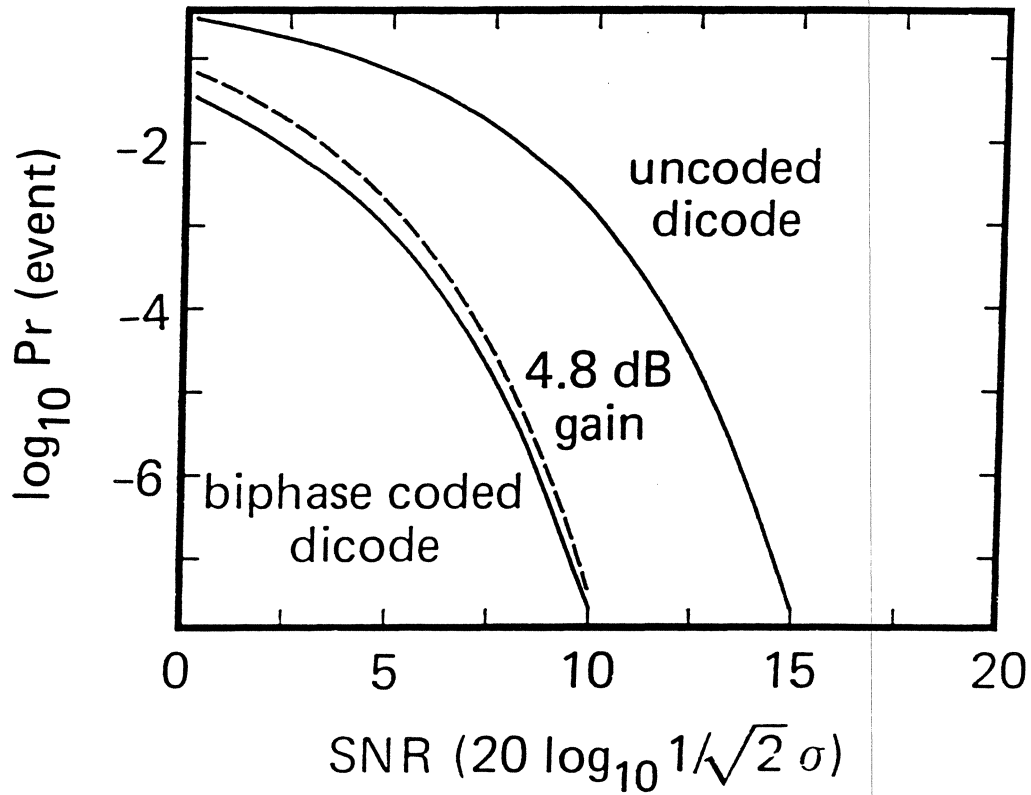


- Coding gain 4.8 dB

$$d_{\text{free}}^2 = 6 \quad \left( 10 \log_{10} \frac{6}{2} = 4.8 \right)$$

- Complexity  $4 \left( \frac{\# \text{ edges}}{\text{stage}} \right)$

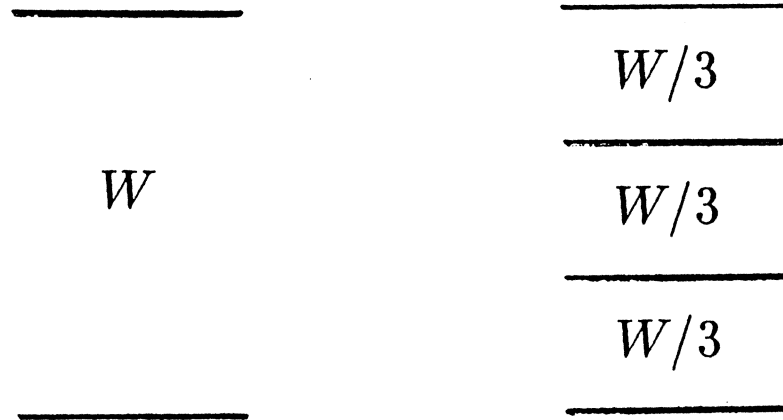
# IB/DICODE PERFORMANCE (simulated)



- Additive white gaussian noise  
 $n_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

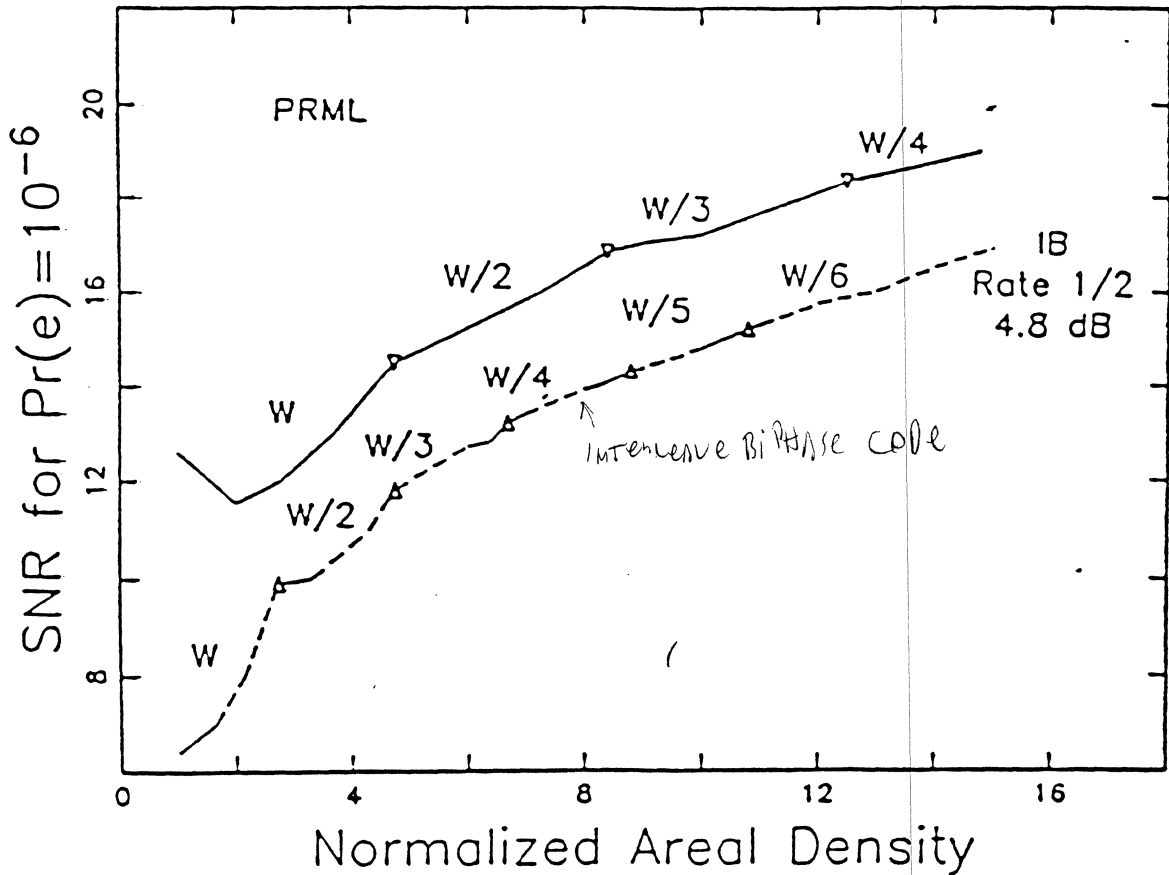


## Increasing Areal Density



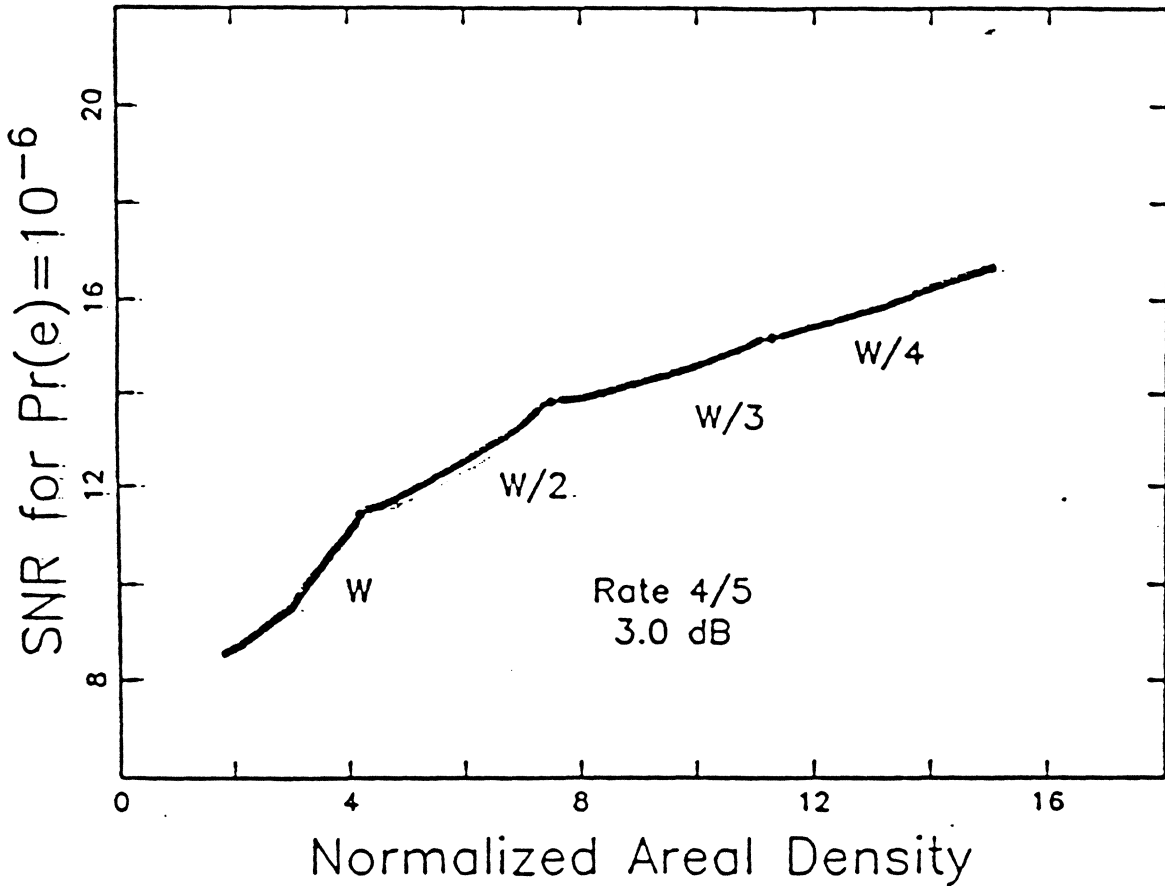
- Reduce trackwidth by 3: costs 4.8 dB
- Rate 1/2 IB code: gains 4.8 dB
- Net areal density: 1.7 (70% increase)  
 $3 \times (1/2) \times (9/8) \simeq 1.7$
- Same  $P_e$

# TRACK CUTTING



- IB areal density gains  $> 70\%$
- Low rate  $\Rightarrow$  very narrow tracks

# TRACK CUTTING (cont.)



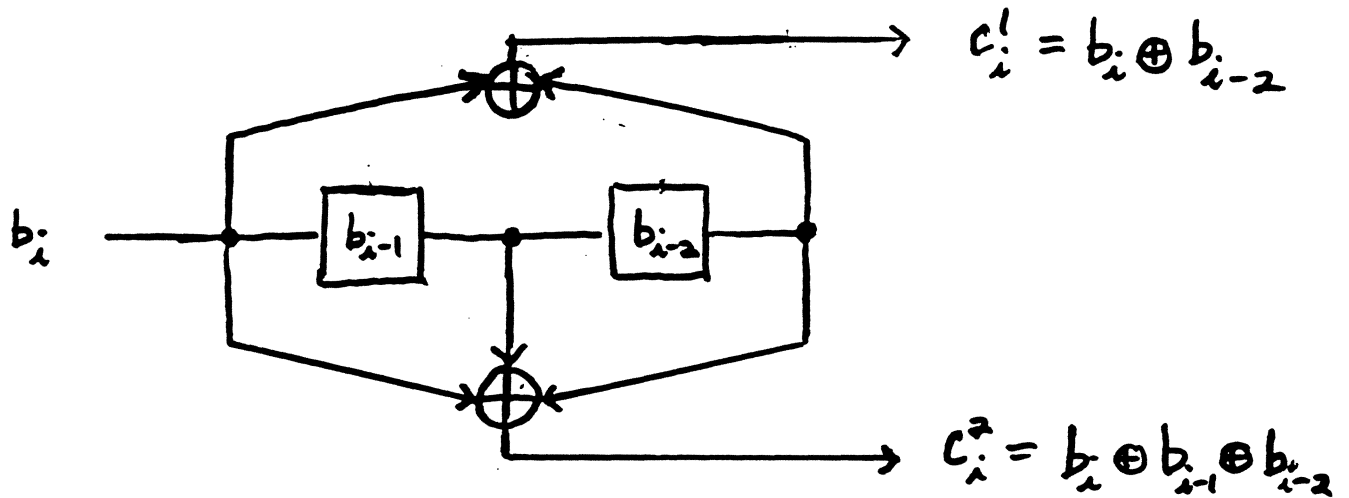
- Rate 4/5, gain 3 dB
  - Same density gains
  - Wider tracks

## WOLF-UNGERBDECK CODES

- Use known binary convolutional codes (designed for memoryless channel)
- Neutralize PR channel memory via precoding
- Add coset sequence to limit runs of zero samples

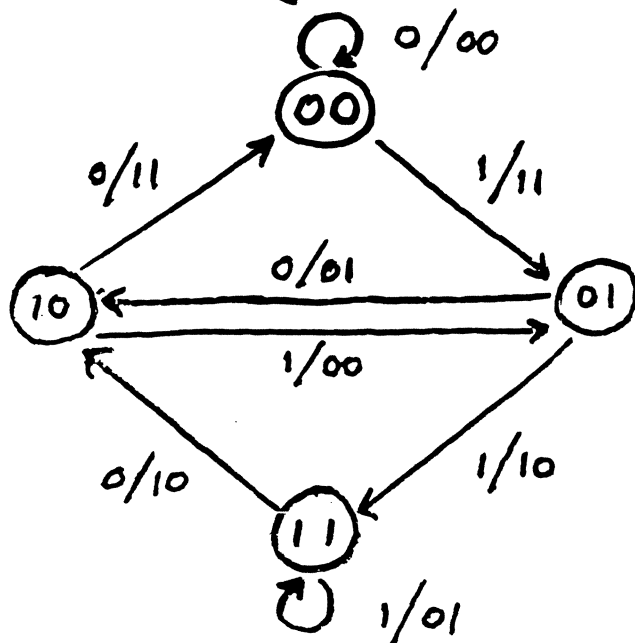
# CONVOLUTIONAL CODES

- Linear Feed-Forward Shift Register Encoder



$$\left. \begin{matrix} 0,0,0,0,0,0, \\ 0,0,1,0,0,0, \end{matrix} \right\} d^H=1 \longrightarrow d^H=5 \left\{ \begin{matrix} 00,00,00,00,00,00, \\ 00,00,11,01,11,00, \end{matrix} \right.$$

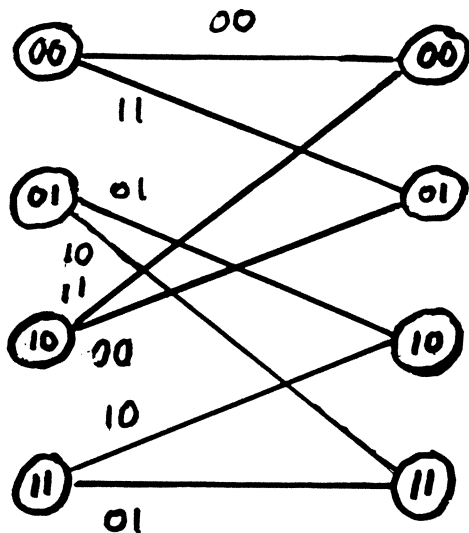
- State-diagram representation



$$d_{free}^H = 5$$

# DECODING CONVOLUTIONAL CODES

- Trellis representation



- ML decoding via VA
- Optimal codes

Maximize  $d_{\text{free}}^H$   
 for given rate  $R = \frac{K}{N}$   
 and complexity  $M$  (total encoder memory)

# OPTIMAL CODE TABLES

- Best codes found by computer search
- Examples [ref. Lin-Costello]

Rate  $\frac{1}{2}$       M      States ( $2^M$ )       $d_{\text{free}}^H$

2      4      5

\* 6      64      10

Rate  $\frac{2}{3}$

4      16      5

10      1024      10

Rate  $\frac{3}{4}$

5      32      5

6      64      6

Rate  $\frac{4}{5}$

from [Daut, et. al.]

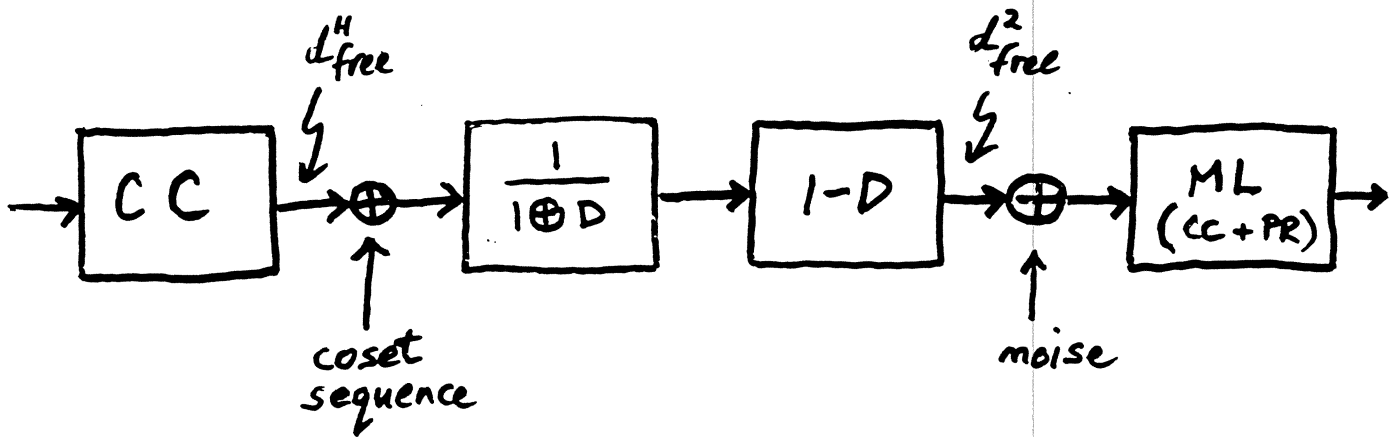
3      8      3

# CONVOLUTIONAL CODES

FOR

$$PR \quad h(D) = (1 \pm D^N)$$

- PR channel memory can destroy good  $d_{free}^H$  at channel input
- Solution (w-u): Use precoder to neutralize channel memory



- Precoder effect:

$$\begin{array}{l} 0 \longrightarrow 0 \\ 1 \longrightarrow \pm 1 \end{array}$$

$$d_{free}^2 \geq \begin{cases} d_{free}^H & \text{if } d_{free}^H \text{ is even} \\ d_{free}^H + 1 & \text{if } d_{free}^H \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

[see also C-H-L § Hole]



# PRECODED PR (cont.)

- Coset sequence limits maximum run of zero outputs (timing/gain)
- ML decoder trellis has  $2^{M+1}$  states (usually - not always, e.g. see \* in table)
- Gains smaller than in memoryless channel (for given rate and decoder complexity)

"Full response"

$$R = \frac{3}{4}, M = 6, d_{free}^H = 6$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{C.G.} &= 10 \log_{10} \frac{d_{free}^H}{1} \\ &= 7.8 \text{ dB} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{A.C.G.} &= \text{C.G.} + 10 \log_{10} R \\ &= 6.5 \text{ dB} \end{aligned}$$

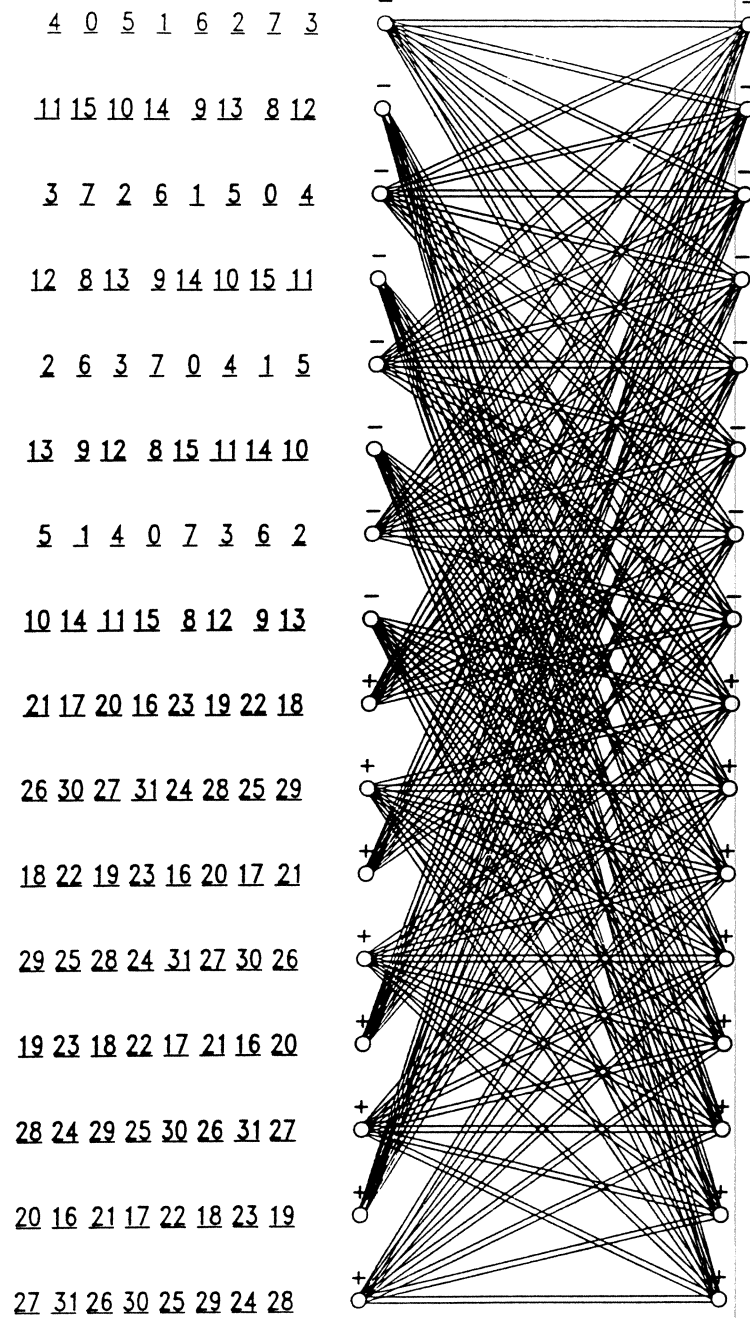
PR ( $1 \pm D$ )

$$R = \frac{3}{4}, M+1 = 6, d_{free}^2 = 6$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{C.G.} &= 10 \log_{10} \frac{d_{free}^2}{2} \\ &= 4.8 \text{ dB} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{A.C.G.} &= \text{C.G.} - 10 \log_{10} R \\ &= 3.5 \text{ dB} \end{aligned}$$

# W-U CODE EXAMPLE (for 1-D channel)



- Rate  $4/5$ , gain 3 dB
- $(O, G/I) = (0, 44/22)$  when interleaved

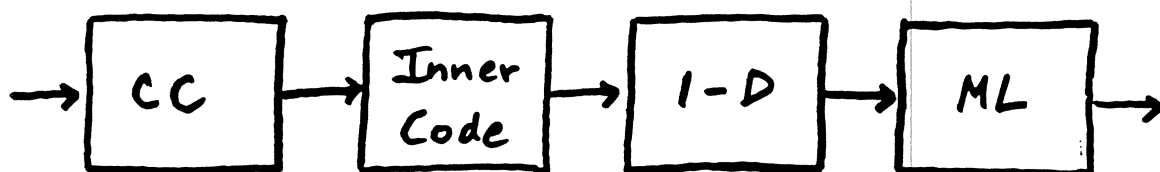
# W-U CODE EXAMPLE (cont.)

- Detector edge labels

- to -	+ to -	- to +	+ to +
<u>0</u> { 10 $\bar{1}$ 00 1 $\bar{1}$ 01 $\bar{1}$	<u>16</u> { 00 $\bar{1}$ 00 0 $\bar{1}$ 01 $\bar{1}$	<u>8</u> { 00100 010 $\bar{1}$ 1	<u>24</u> { $\bar{1}$ 0100 $\bar{1}$ 10 $\bar{1}$ 1
<u>1</u> { 1 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 0 1000 $\bar{1}$	<u>17</u> { 0 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 0 0000 $\bar{1}$	<u>9</u> { 01 $\bar{1}$ 10 00001	<u>25</u> { $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 10 $\bar{1}$ 0001
<u>2</u> { 01 $\bar{1}$ 00 0001 $\bar{1}$	<u>18</u> { $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 00 $\bar{1}$ 001 $\bar{1}$	<u>10</u> { 1 $\bar{1}$ 100 100 $\bar{1}$ 1	<u>26</u> { 0 $\bar{1}$ 100 000 $\bar{1}$ 1
<u>3</u> { 001 $\bar{1}$ 0 0100 $\bar{1}$	<u>19</u> { $\bar{1}$ 01 $\bar{1}$ 0 $\bar{1}$ 100 $\bar{1}$	<u>11</u> { 10 $\bar{1}$ 10 1 $\bar{1}$ 001	<u>27</u> { 00 $\bar{1}$ 10 0 $\bar{1}$ 001
<u>4</u> { 0010 $\bar{1}$ 010 $\bar{1}$ 0	<u>20</u> { $\bar{1}$ 010 $\bar{1}$ $\bar{1}$ 10 $\bar{1}$ 0	<u>12</u> { 10 $\bar{1}$ 01 1 $\bar{1}$ 010	<u>28</u> { 00 $\bar{1}$ 01 0 $\bar{1}$ 010
<u>5</u> { 01 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 00000	<u>21</u> { $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ $\bar{1}$ 0000	<u>13</u> { 1 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 1 10000	<u>29</u> { 0 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 1 00000
<u>6</u> { 1 $\bar{1}$ 10 $\bar{1}$ 100 $\bar{1}$ 0	<u>22</u> { 0 $\bar{1}$ 10 $\bar{1}$ 000 $\bar{1}$ 0	<u>14</u> { 01 $\bar{1}$ 01 00010	<u>30</u> { $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 01 $\bar{1}$ 0010
<u>7</u> { 10 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 000	<u>23</u> { 00 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 0 $\bar{1}$ 000	<u>15</u> { 001 $\bar{1}$ 1 01000	<u>31</u> { $\bar{1}$ 01 $\bar{1}$ 1 $\bar{1}$ 1000

# INNER CODES

- Use simple inner code to exploit channel memory (Karabed-Siegel, Imminck)



<u>Rate</u>	<u>Inner Code</u>	<u>Zero Runlength</u>
(W-U) $R=1$	$\frac{1}{1 \oplus D}$	CC dependent
( <u>IC1</u> ) $R = \frac{1}{2}$	$x \mapsto x\bar{x}$ (biphase)	1
( <u>IC2</u> ) $R = \frac{2}{3}$	$xy \mapsto xy\bar{y}$	2

- IC1 and IC2 give robust coding gain.

## INNER CODES (cont.)

- Gains from IC1 and IC2  
(for any convolutional code)

IC1:

$$d_{\text{free}}^2 \geq 4 d_{\text{free}}^H + 4$$

$$R_{\text{cc/ic}} = \frac{1}{2} R_{\text{cc}}$$

IC2:

$$d_{\text{free}}^2 \geq 2 d_{\text{free}}^H$$

$$R_{\text{cc/ic}} = \frac{2}{3} R_{\text{cc}}$$

- Example using IC2

$$R_{\text{cc}} = \frac{3}{4}, M=3, d_{\text{free}}^H = 5 \Rightarrow$$

Compare to

$$R_{\text{cc/ic}} = \frac{3}{6}, \text{states} = 16, d_{\text{free}}^2 = 10$$

W-U:  $R = \frac{1}{2}, \text{states} = 64, d_{\text{free}}^2 = 10$

# MATCHED-SPECTRAL-NULL CODES

- Code design method based on general theorem

Significant coding gain results if:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{null frequencies} \\ \text{in code power} \\ \text{spectrum} \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{null frequencies} \\ \text{in channel frequency} \\ \text{response} \end{array} \right\}$$

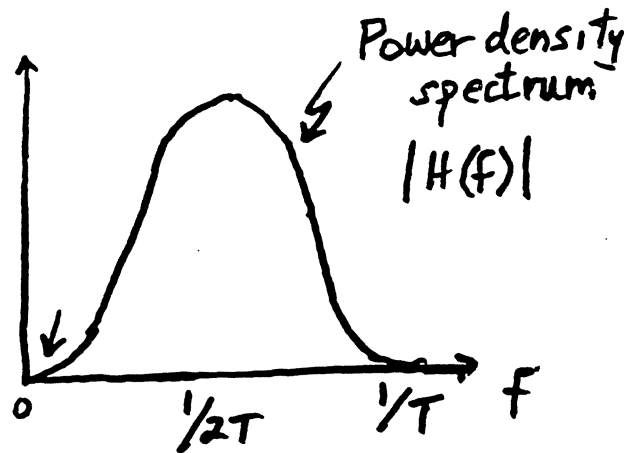
- Sliding-block code design
- Reduced-complexity detector trellis

# MSN EXAMPLES

- Biphase code

$$h(D) = 1 - D$$

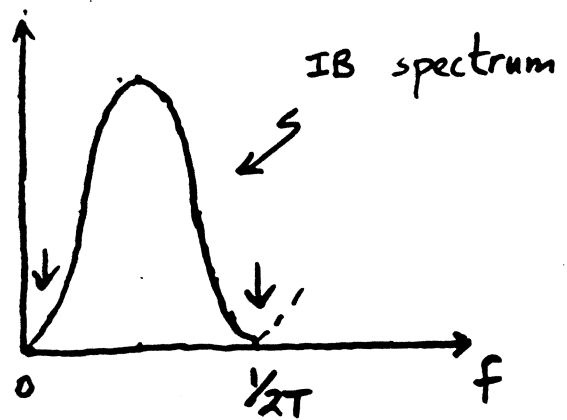
$$C.G. = \underline{4.8 \text{ dB}}$$



- Interleaved Biphase

$$h(D) = \begin{cases} (1-D)(1+D) & (\text{PR4}) \\ (1-D)(1+D)^2 & (\text{EPR4}) \end{cases}$$

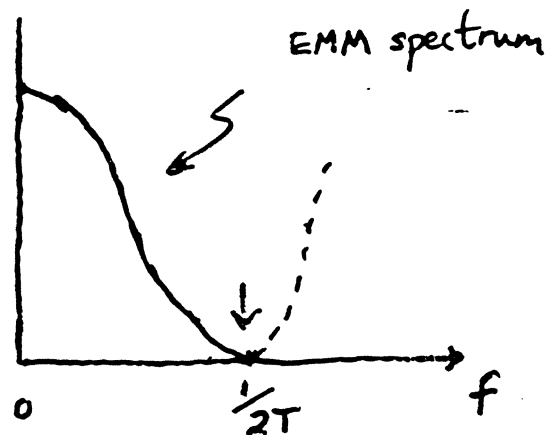
$$C.G. = \underline{4.8 \text{ dB}}$$



- Even Mark Modulation

$$h(D) = \begin{cases} 1+D & (\text{PR1}) \\ (1+D)^2 & (\text{PR2}) \end{cases}$$

$$C.G. = \begin{cases} 3 \text{ dB} \\ 4 \text{ dB} \end{cases}$$

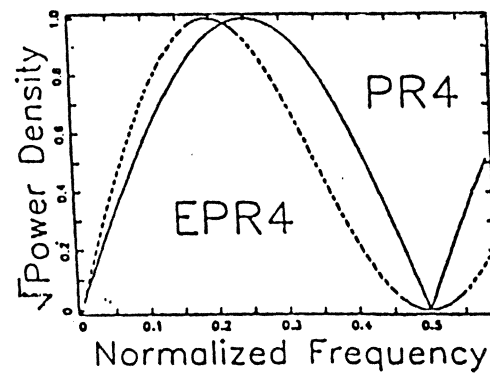
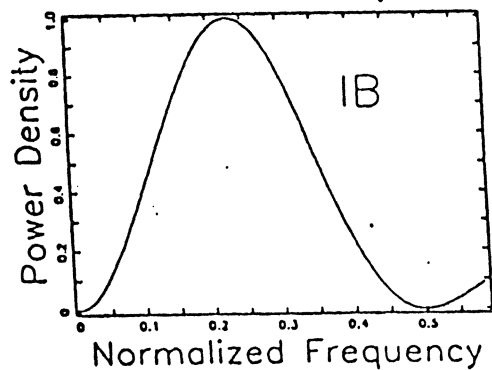


# Matched Spectral Null Codes (cont.)

- Magnetic recording partial-responses

Interleaved  
Biphase

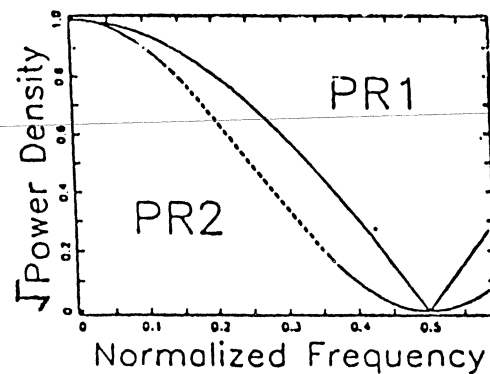
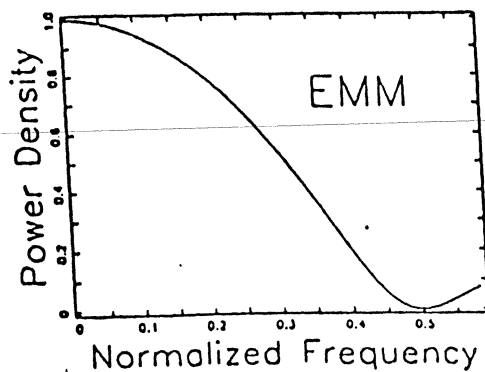
PR4: 4.8 dB  
EPR4: 4.8 dB



- Optical recording partial-responses

EMM

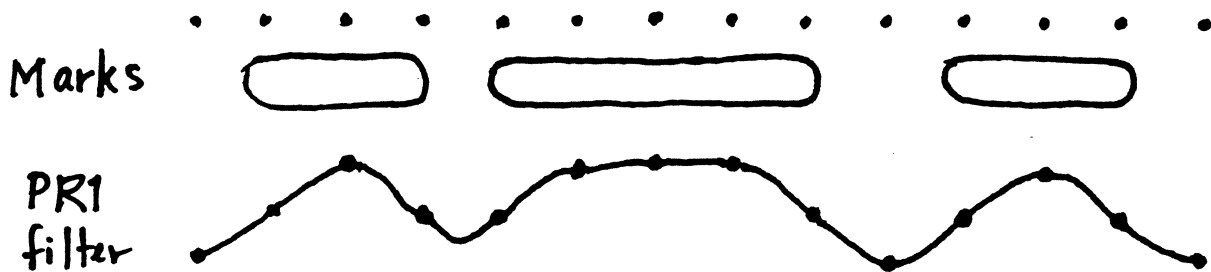
PR1: 3 dB  
PR2: 4 dB



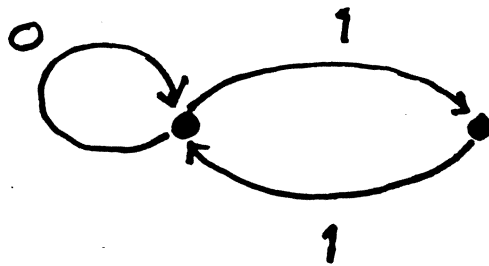


# EVEN - MARK - MODULATION (EMM)

- Asymmetric RLL constraint for optical recording
- Marks must be even in length



- EMM constraint diagram



$$C = \log_2 \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$$

$$\approx .69$$

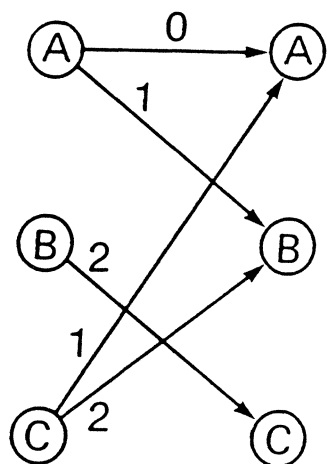
- Rate  $2/3$  code possible

# EMM CODE

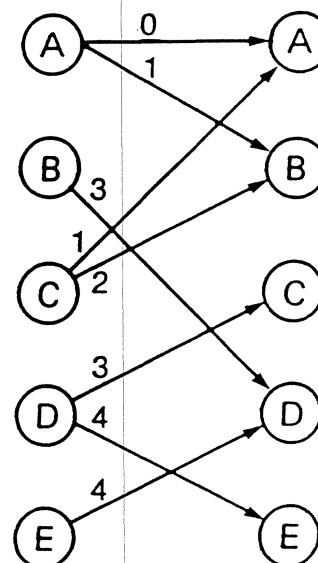
Data $b_1/b_2$ State $s_1s_2s_3$	00	01	10	11
000	011/000	011/001	110/000	110/001
001	001/100	001/101	110/010	011/110
010	000/000	000/011	111/100	111/101
011	001/100	001/101	111/100	111/101
100	100/000	100/001	101/100	101/101
101	111/000	111/001	100/010	111/111
110	000/000	000/001	111/100	111/101
111	000/000	000/001	111/100	000/010

Rate 2:3  
encoder

Table entries = "codeword/next state"

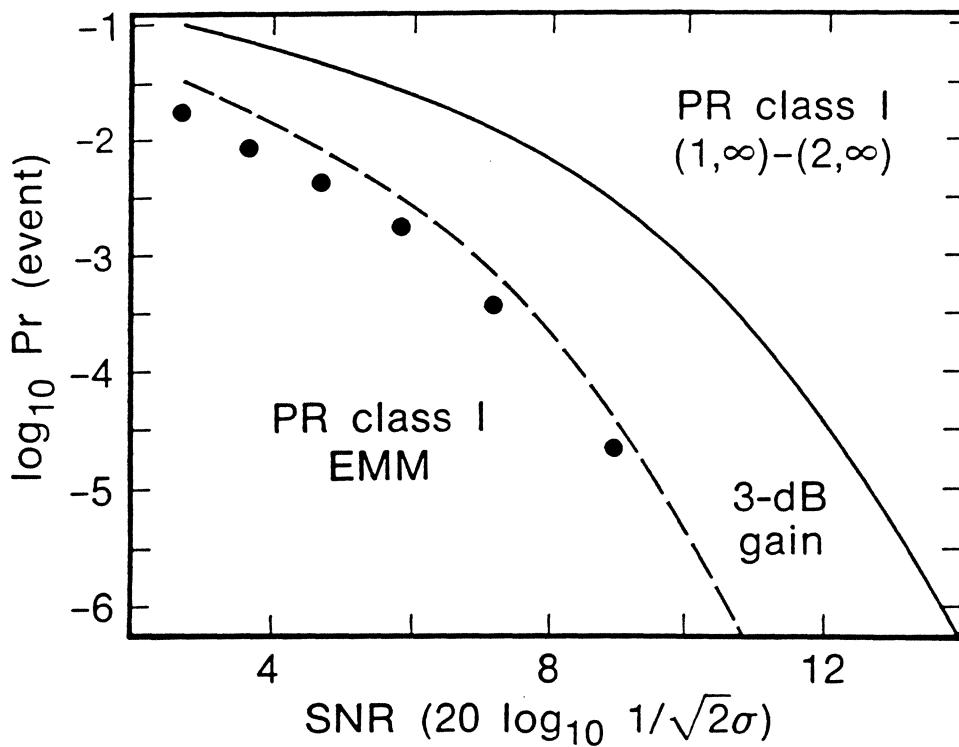


Detector trellis  
EMM/PR1



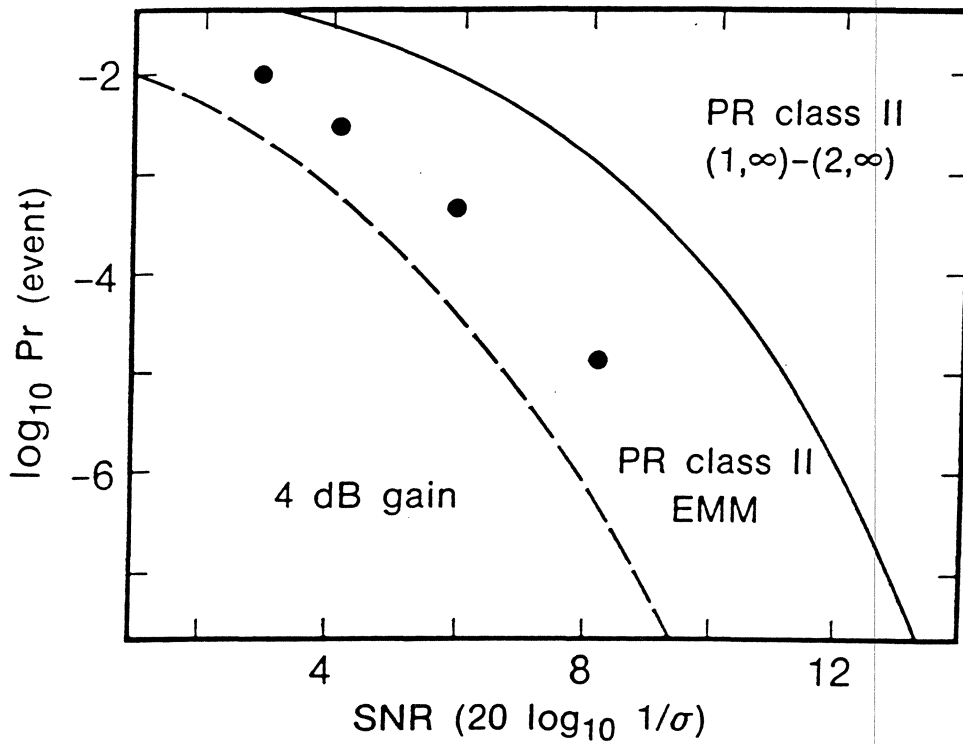
Detector trellis  
EMM/PR2

# EMM/PR1 PERFORMANCE (simulated)



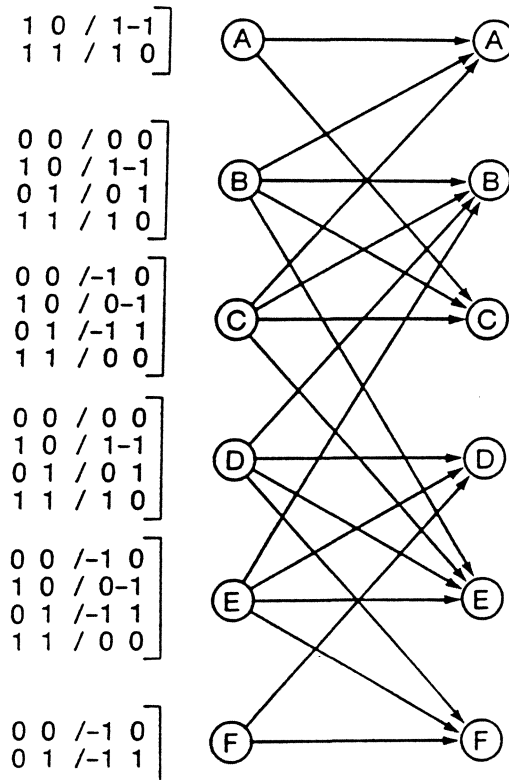
- Additive white gaussian noise  
 $n_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

# EMM/PR2 PERFORMANCE (simulated)



- Additive white gaussian noise  
 $n_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

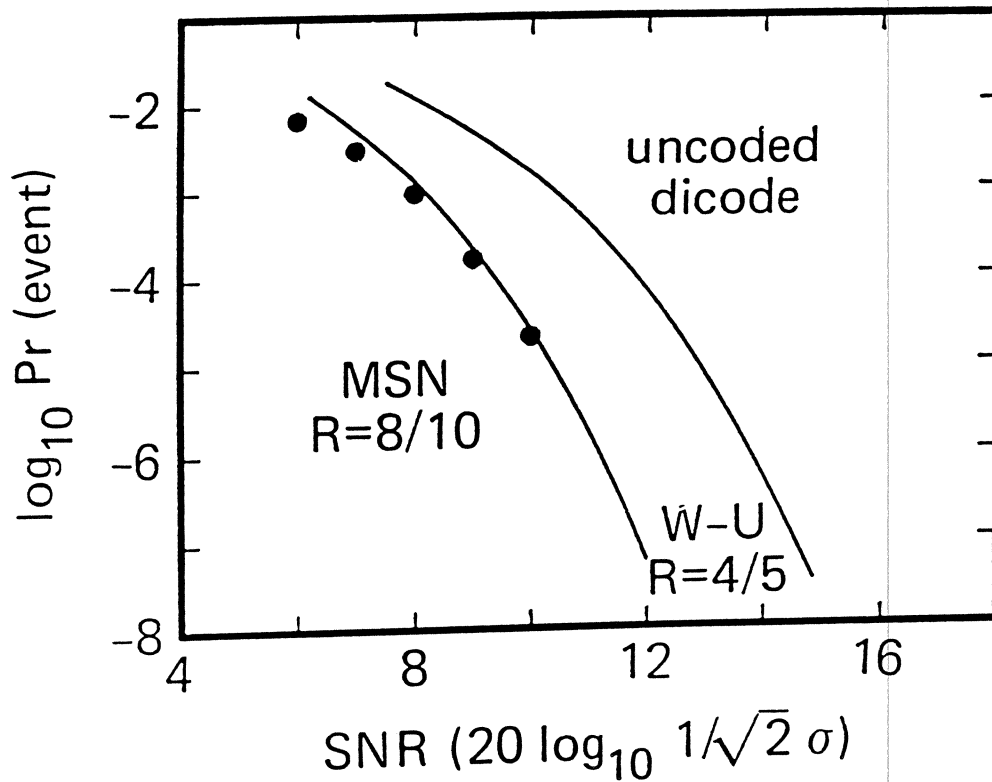
# MSN CODE EXAMPLE (for 1-D)



4/5

- Rate 8/10, gain 3dB
- $(O, G/I) = (0, 10/5)$  when interleaved
- Reduced complexity trellis
- 2-state encoder, block decoder

# TRELLIS CODE PERFORMANCE (simulation)



- Confirms 3dB coding gain with AWGN

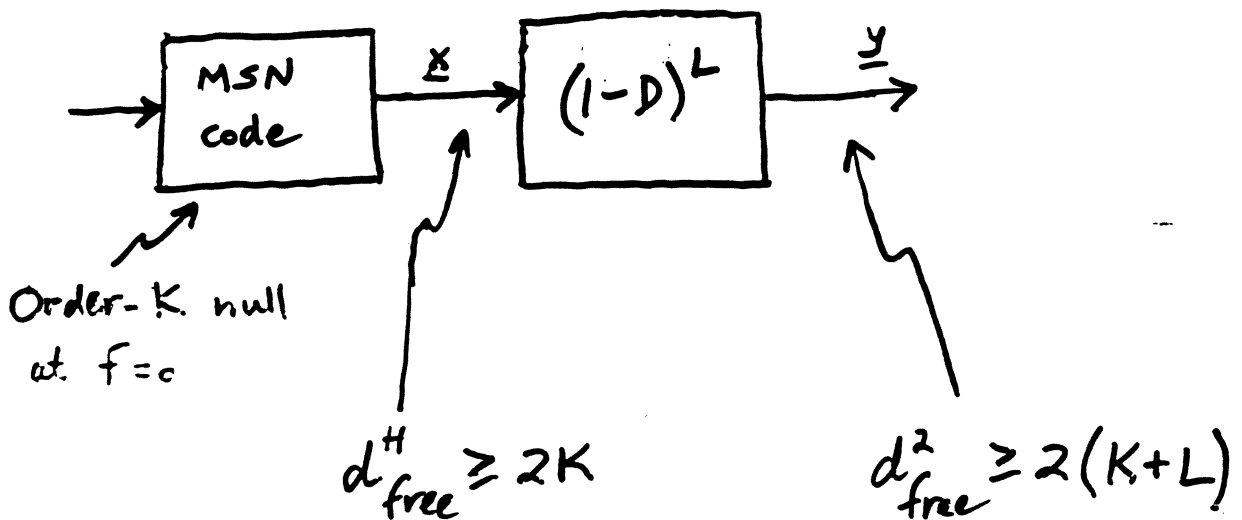
# MSN CODING GAIN

- Order- $K$  null at  $f = \frac{k}{mT}$

$$S(f) = S^{(1)}(f) = \dots = S^{(2K-1)}(f) = 0$$

↖  
power spectrum

- Theorem (sketch for  $f=0$ , binary code)

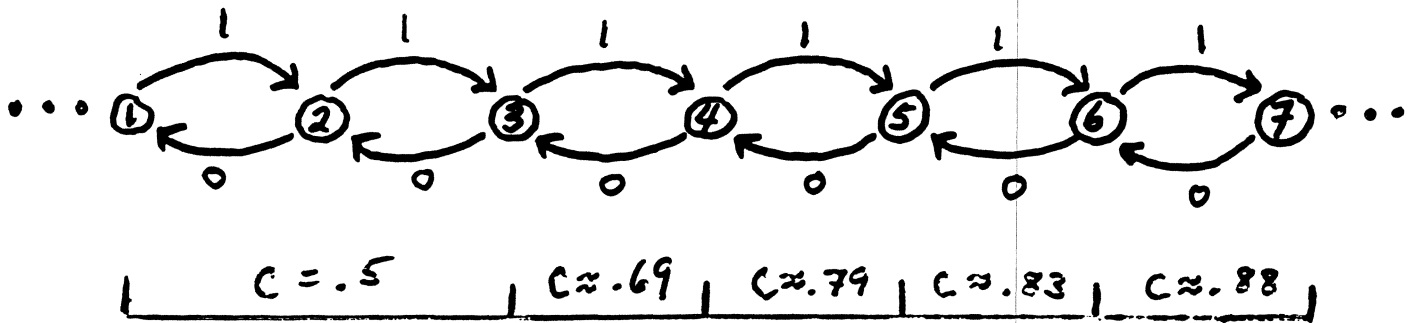


- Generalizes to multi level codes

# MSN CODE DESIGN

- "Canonical diagram" representation of sequences with order- $K$  null(s).

$$f=0, K=1 \Rightarrow G'_0$$

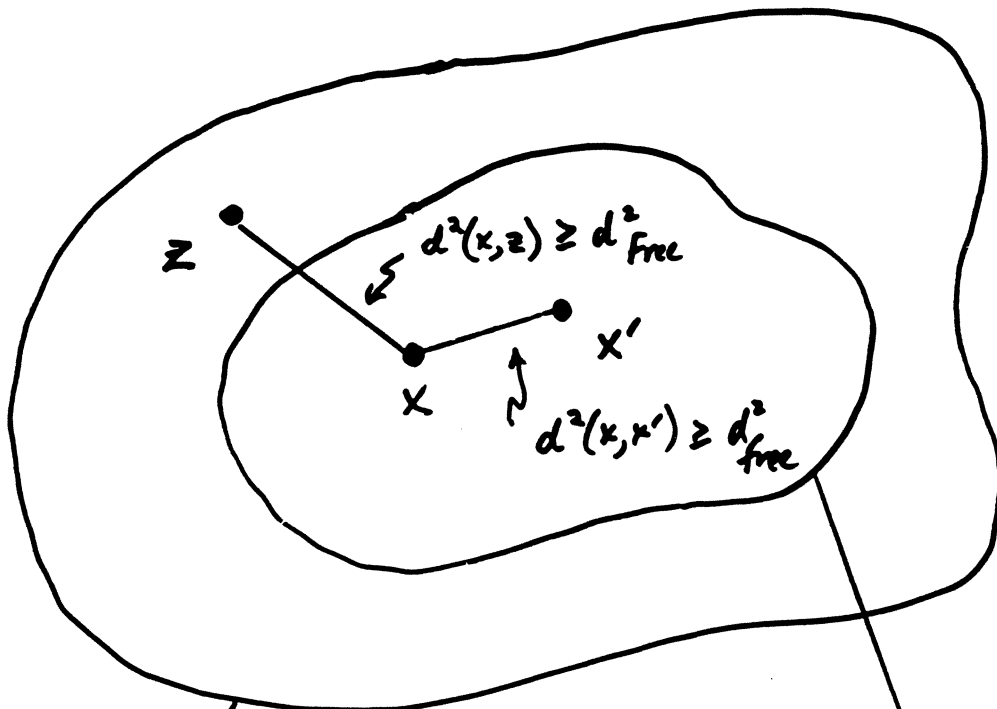


- Sliding block code construction
  - Choose desired rate  $R$
  - Pick subdiagram  $S \subseteq G'_0$  with  $R < C_S$
  - Apply sliding block code algorithm  
[A-C-H, K-M]



# REDUCED COMPLEXITY MSN DETECTOR TRELLIS

- Detector trellis derived from spectral null constraint, not from actual encoder.



spectral null sequences  
6 states  
20 edges  
2 symbols/edge

MSN code sequences  
4 states  
1024 edges  
10 symbols/edge

# VLSI DESIGN

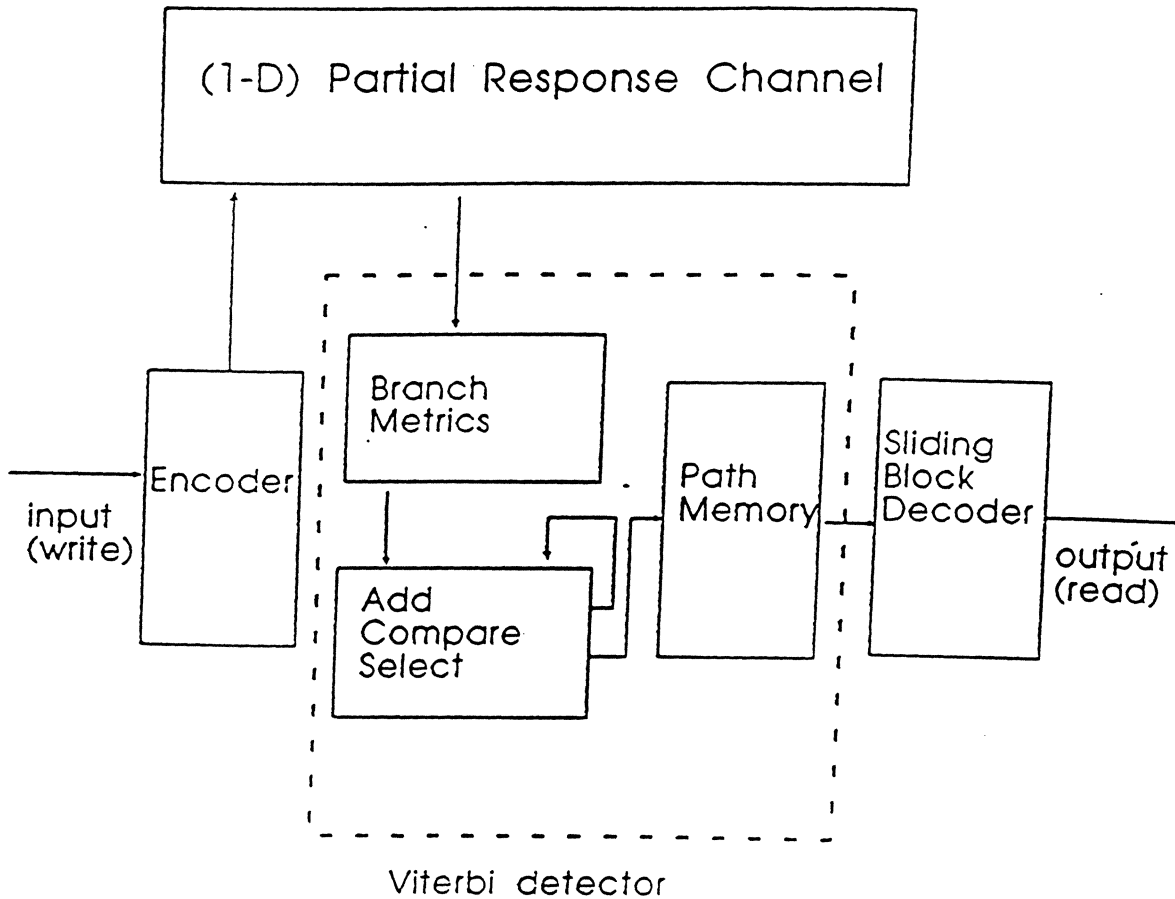
FOR

RATE 8/10 MSN CODE

- ARCHITECTURE
- LAYOUT
- FUNCTIONAL EVALUATION

(Chip designer: Prof. C. B. Shung)

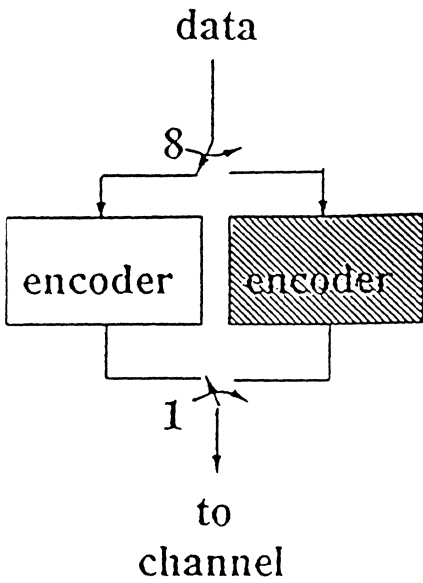
# CHIP BLOCK DIAGRAM



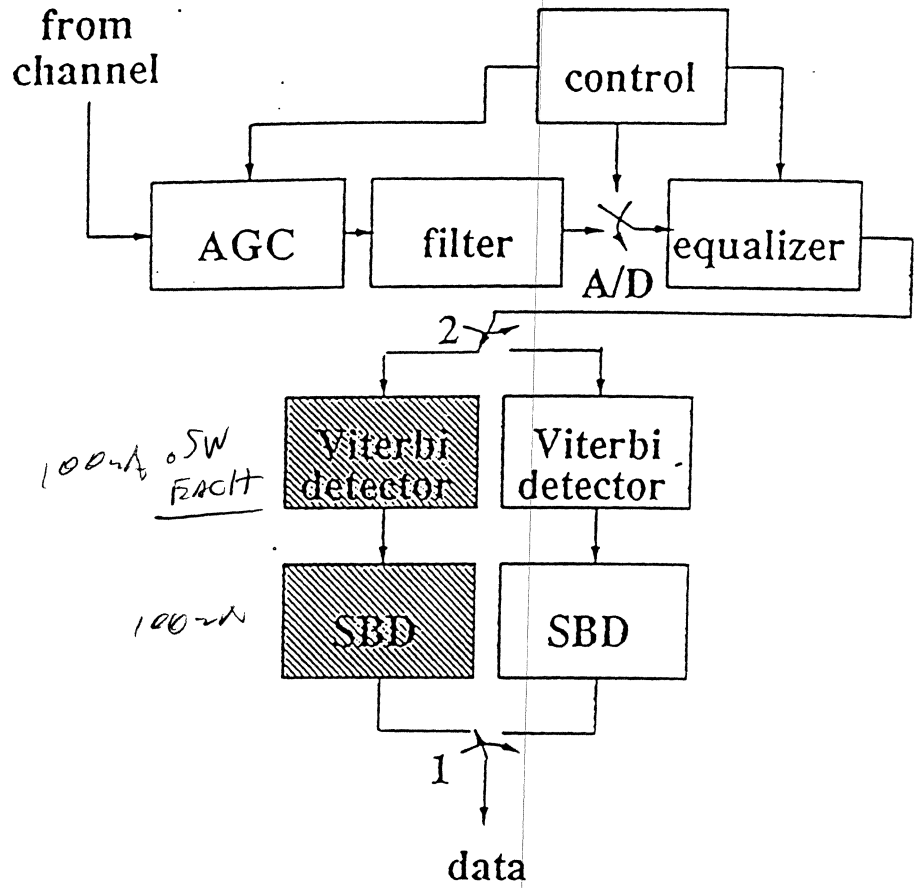
- Main architectural features
  - Modulo metric normalization
  - Pipelined ACS architecture

# CHIP APPLICATION TO PRML

Write Channel

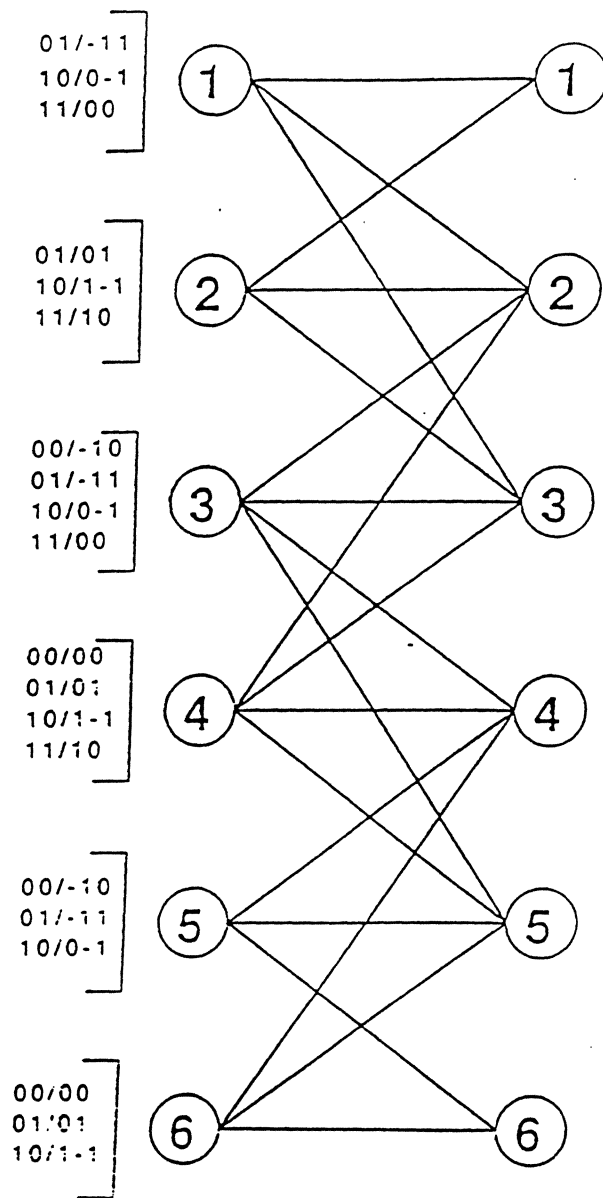


Read Channel



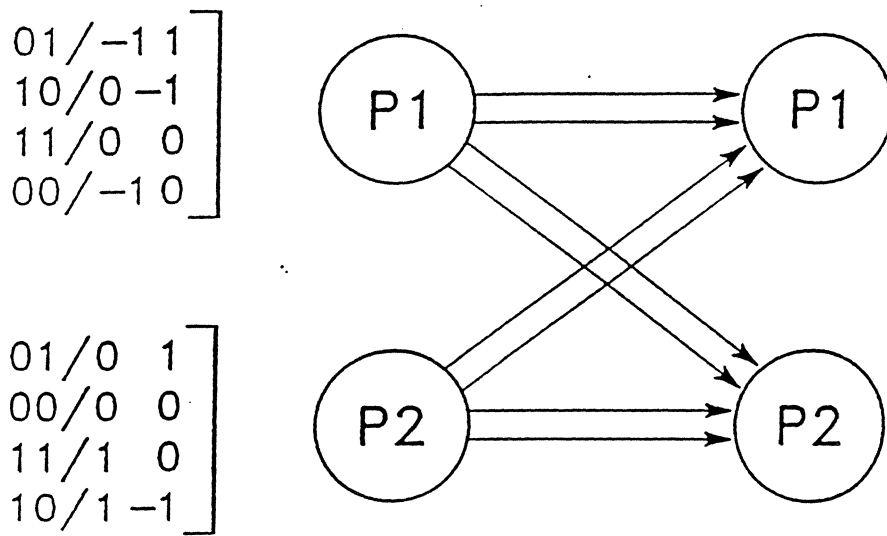
- 2 chips interleaved for PR4

# MSN TRELLIS IN CHIP



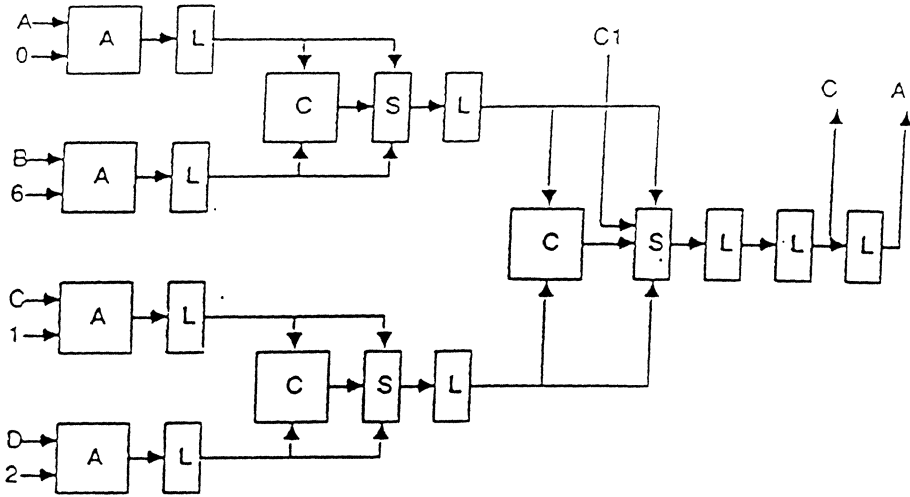
- Variation on trellis shown earlier

# TRELLIS EMULATION VIA PIPELINING

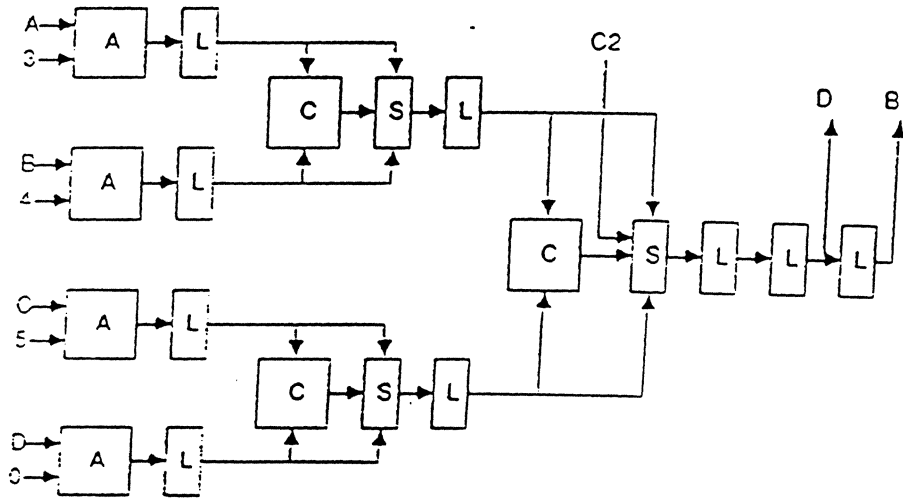


- 2-state trellis that emulates 6-state MSN trellis.

# PIPELINED ACS CIRCUIT



ACS1



ACS2

## • Legend

A = adder

C = comparator

S = selector

L = latch

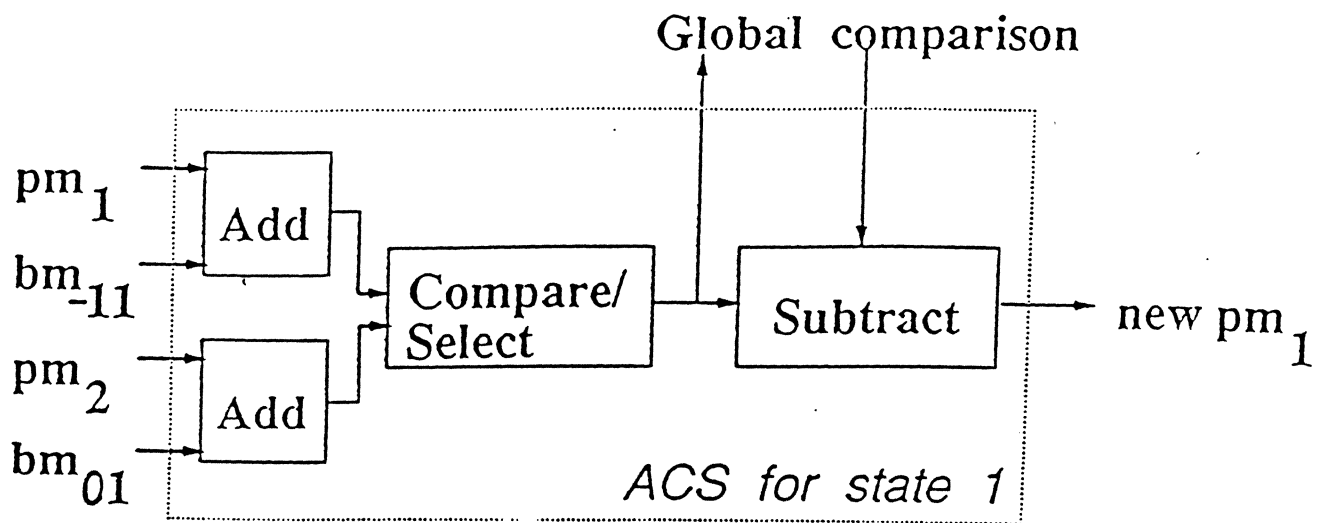
# PIPELINED STATE SCHEDULE

ACS Schedule

Stage T+1	Stage T	Stage T-1	
7 5 3 1	7 5 3 1	7 5 3 1	← P1
6 4 2 8	6 4 2 8	6 4 2 8	← P2

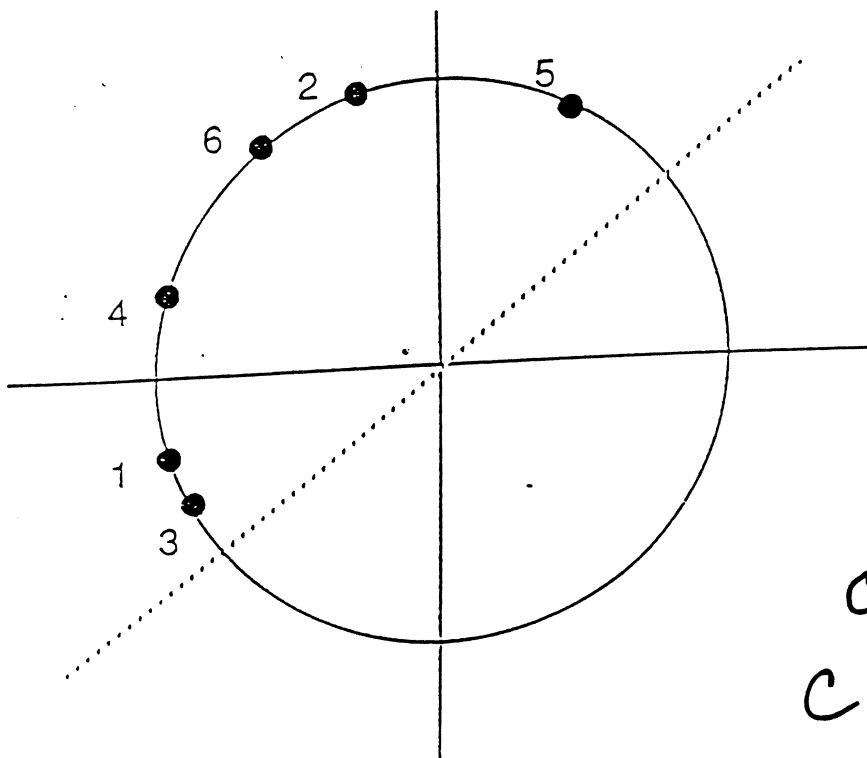


# METRIC RENORMALIZATION (CONVENTIONAL APPROACH)



# MODULO NORMALIZATION

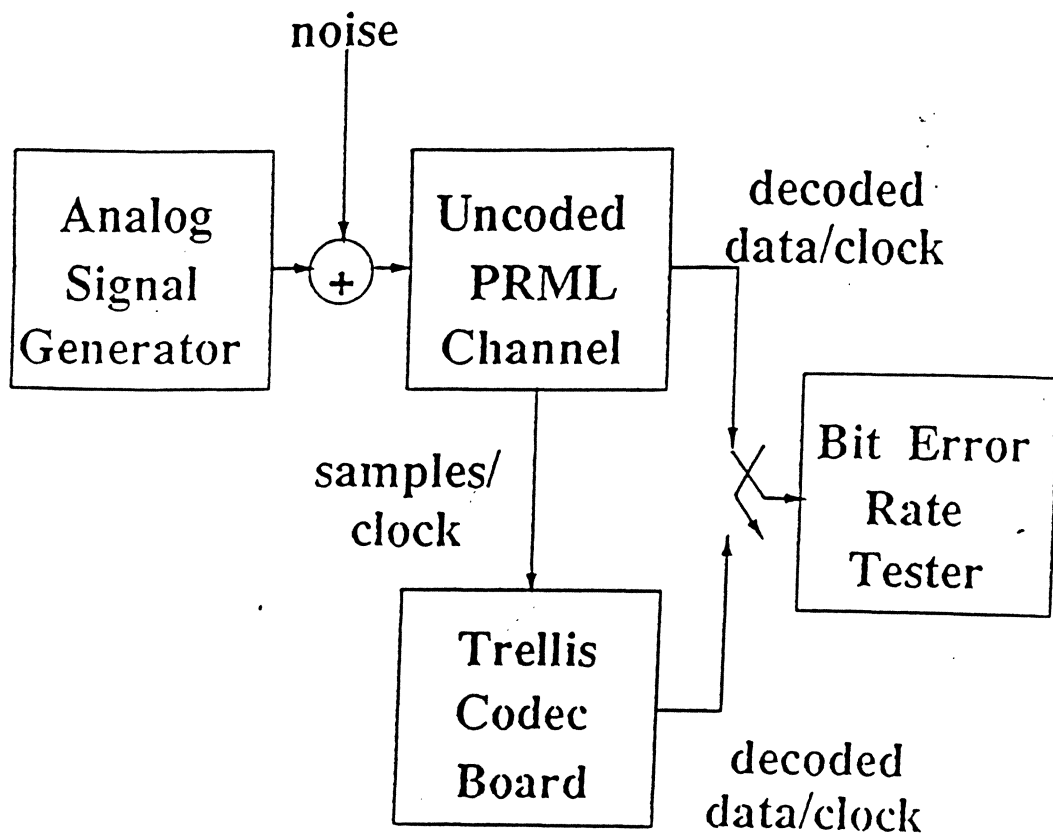
- Two's-complement arithmetic
- Uses bound  $\Delta$  on path metric differences



Circumference  
 $C = 2\Delta$

- Local and regular
- Compatible with pipelined ACS architecture

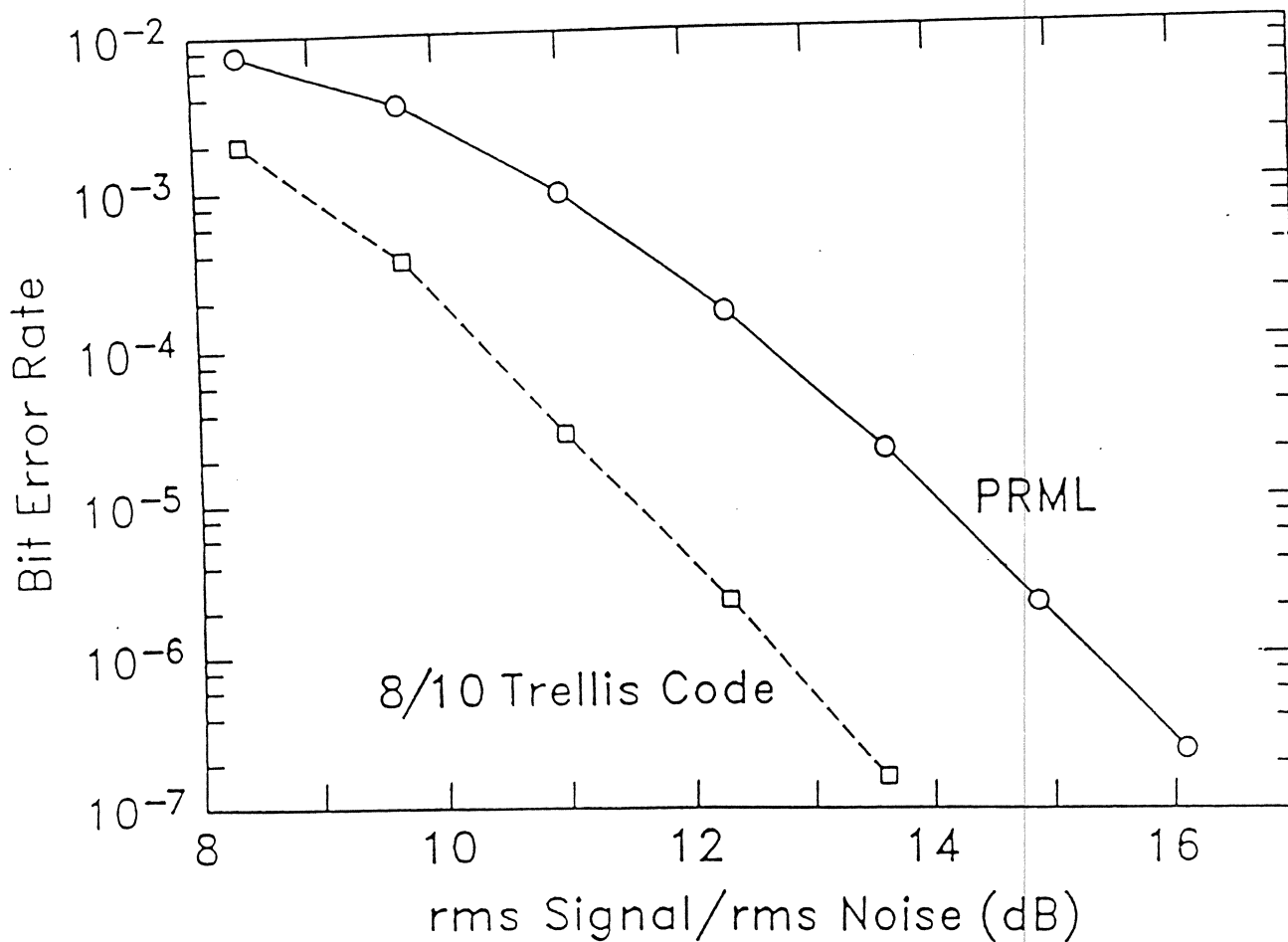
# PERFORMANCE EVALUATION (experimental set-up)



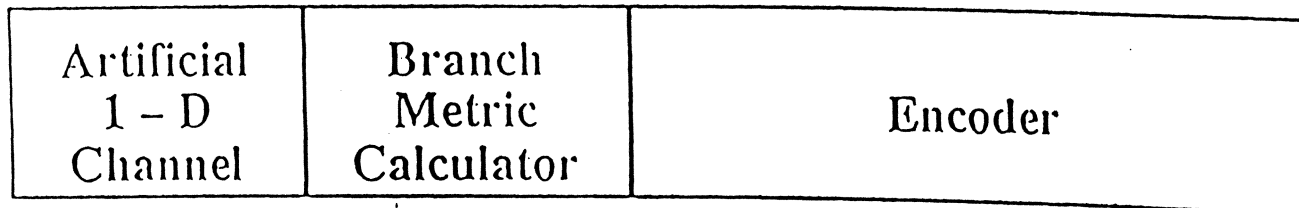
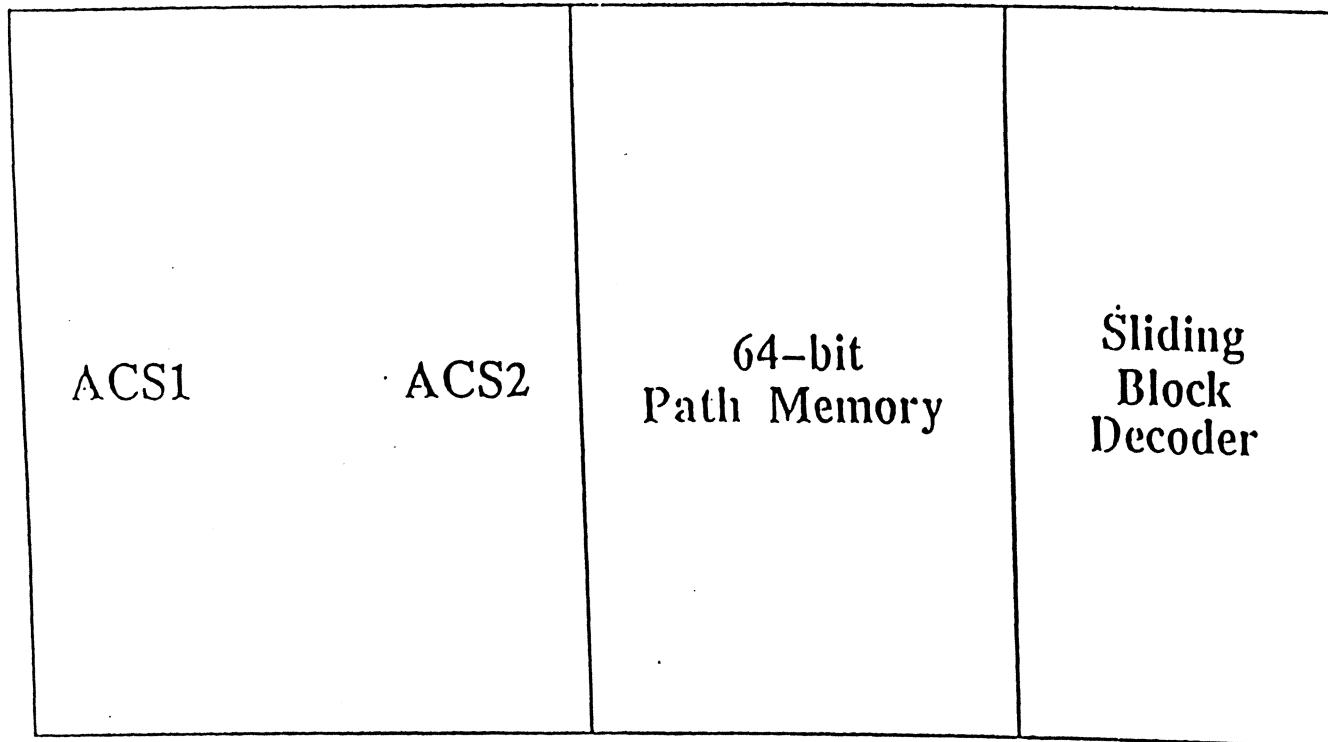
5  $W = 5 \times 2.500 \mu\text{s}$

# MEASURED BENCH-TEST RESULTS

- MSN-coded PR vs. PRML
- Synthesized PR waveforms
- Injected AWGN

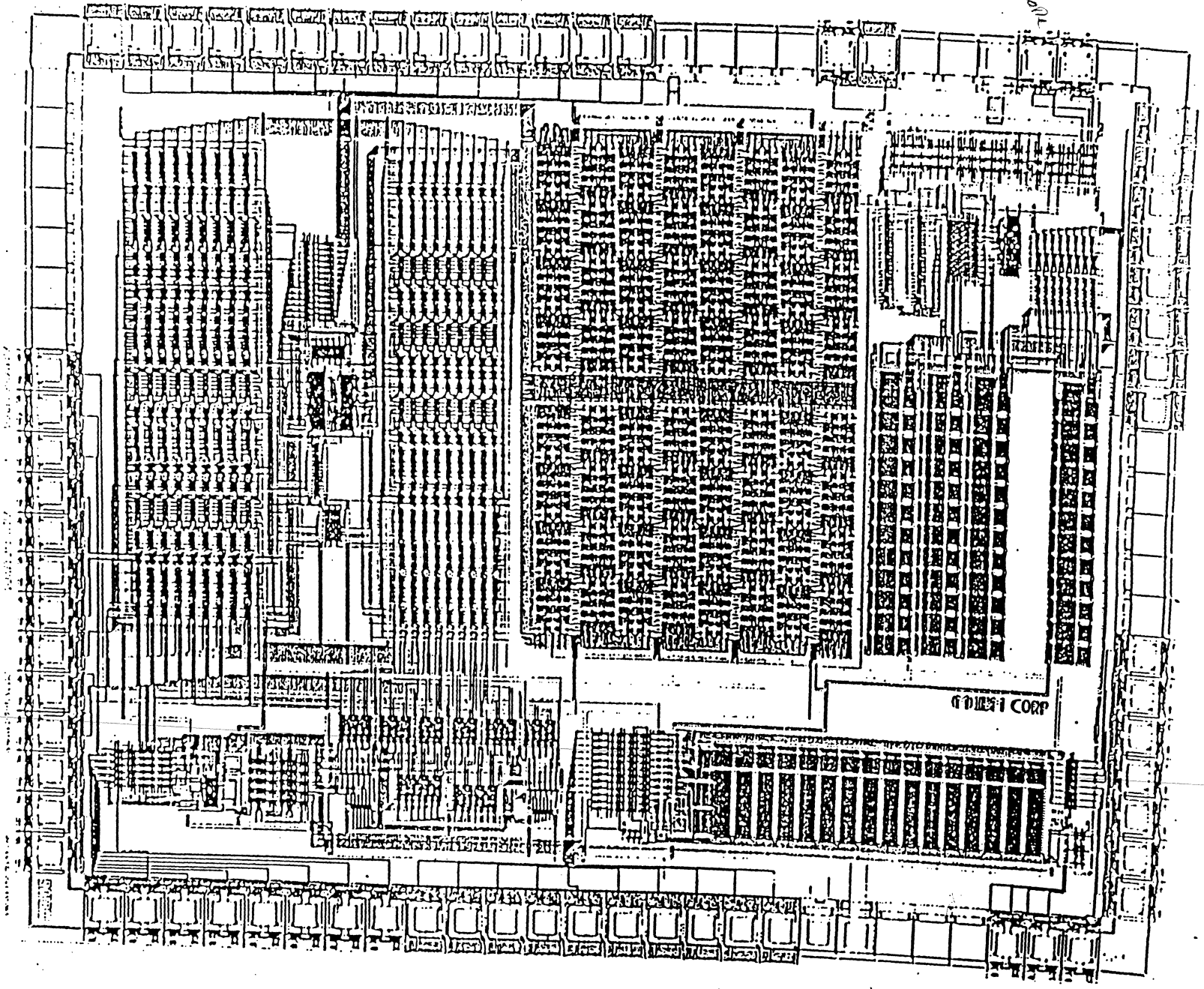


# TRELLIS CODE CHIP FLOORPLAN



Trellis

Excell



TRELLIS CHIP MICROGRAPH

DAC 000

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**CHARACTERIZATION OF DISK DRIVE COMPONENTS  
USING DSP TECHNIQUE**

**AVTAR SINGH  
CAMBRIAN SYSTEMS, INC.**

## CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION
2. PARAMETRIC TESTING
3. TOTAL TIMING ERROR
4. PHASE MARGIN CIRCUIT  
DESIGN & ANALYSIS
5. SAMPLE VS PHASE MARGIN  
TESTING
6. DSP BASED TESTER

## 1 . INTRODUCTION

- Analog Signal Process ( ASP ) based ATE
  - Head tester
    - Parametric tester
    - Phase margin tester
    - Time interval analyzer
  - Disk Certifier
    - MP, EP, MOD tester
    - Window margin tester
  - Glide tester
  - Flying height tester
    - Digital
      - Average flying height measurement
      - Dynamic flying height measurement
    - Analog
  - et el
- Digital Signal Process ( DSP ) based ATE

## 2. PARAMETRIC TESTING

### (A) TRACK AVERAGE AMPLITUDE

- ANALOG SIGNAL PROCESSING CAN PROVIDE AVERAGE TAA.

### DSP APPROACH CAN PROVIDE

- AVERAGE TAA
- POSITIVE / NEGATIVE MODULATION
- CONTRIBUTION DUE TO MISREGISTRATION OF READ HEAD
- CONTRIBUTION DUE TO SPINDLE JITTER, AXIAL & RADIAL NON-REPEATABLE RUN OUT.

### (B) O/W MEASUREMENT

- ASP TECHNIQUE USES BAND PASS FILTER OR SPECTRUM ANALYZER.

### DSP APPROACH CAN PROVIDE

- DSP USE FFT ANALYSIS
- CONTRIBUTION DUE TO SPINDLE JITTER & RUN OUT
- CONTRIBUTION DUE TO MISREGISTRATION OF READ HEAD.

20MBIT/sec TESTER CLOCK RATE  
NEED MORE MEMORY IN DSP TEST  
SYSTEM THAN ANALOG METHOD.

## (C) NOISE MEASUREMENT

### HEAD NOISE

- JOHNSON THERMAL NOISE
- BARKHAUSEN NOISE
- MAGNETIC DOMAIN INSTABILITY
  - AMPLITUDE MEASUREMENT
  - PULSE WIDTH MEASUREMENT *PW 25*
  - HEAD BIAS TECHNIQUE *Bias current  $\leq 3\%$  of  $I_w$*

### MEDIA NOISE

- SA TECHNIQUE
- TRUE-RMS VOLTMETER TECHNIQUE
- REVERSE DC ERASE TECHNIQUE
- MEDIA EDGE NOISE

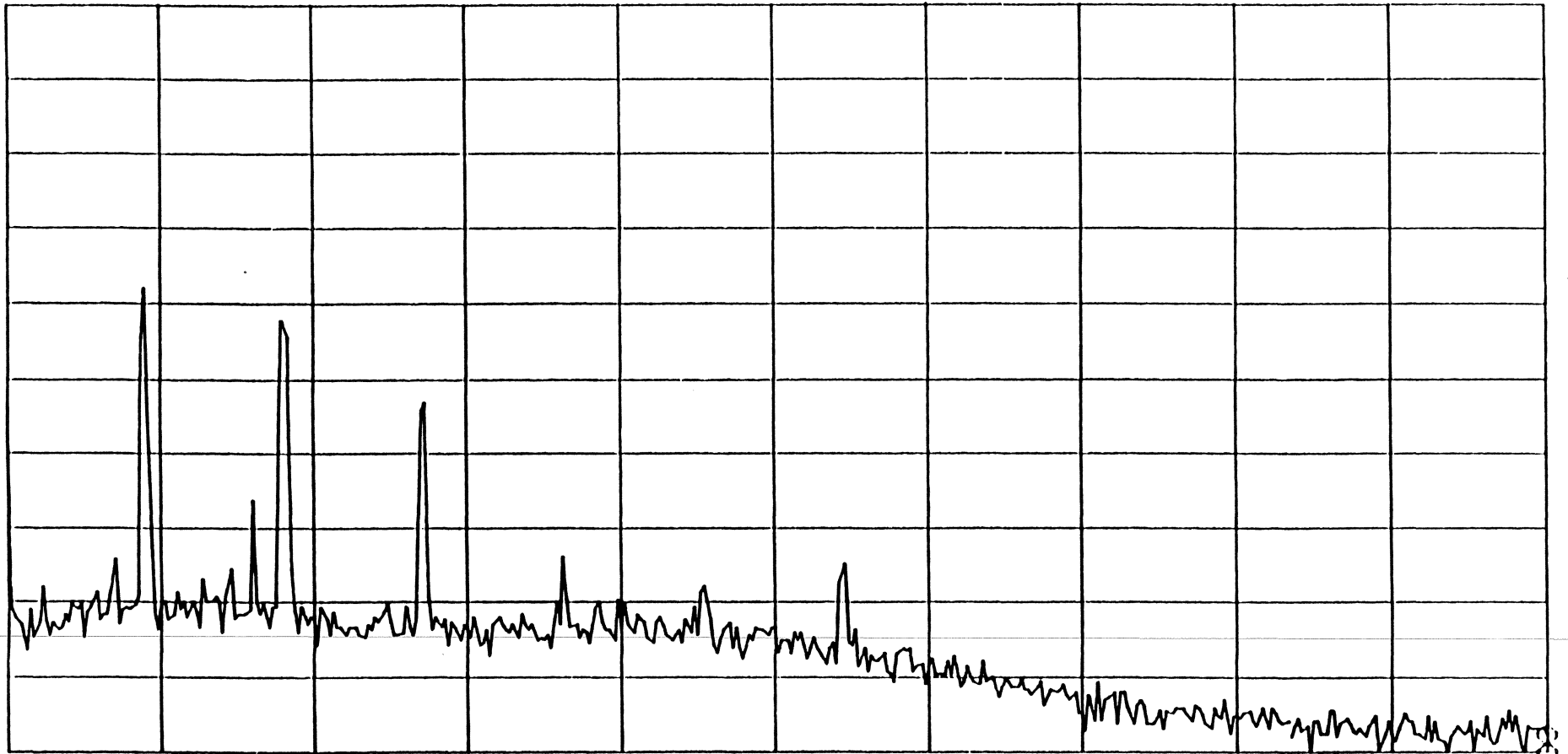
*UNSTABLE head  $\approx 2\%$*   
*↑*  
*How fast ADC*  
*NOISE.*

## (D) WAVE SHAPE ANALYSIS

- PULSE WIDTH
- UNDERSHOOT
- ASYMMETRY
- SPECTRUM
- RISE / FALL TIMING
- NON-LINEAR RESPONSE

SPECTRUM

A: REF      B: REF      ○ MKR      20 000 000.000 Hz  
40.00      0.000      MAG      -57.6924      dBm  
[ dBm ] [      ]      MAG



DIV      DIV      START      0.001 Hz  
10.00      10.00      STOP      20 000 000.000 Hz  
RBW: 30 KHZ ST: 5.57 sec RANGE: R= 0, T= 20dBm  
REF= 4.00000E+01

Fig. 1. TRANSITION NOISE OF MEDIUM.



### 3 . TOTAL TIMING ERROR

- I . HEAD / MEDIA / PREAMP NOISE
- II. INTER SYMBOL INTERFERENCE
- III. PEAK SHIFT DUE TO HARD TRANSITION EFFECT
- IV INTER TRACK INTERFERENCE
- V NON-LINEAR DISTORTION

I. HEAD / MEDIA / PREAMP  
NOISE

Peak Shift based on SNR

Simple approximation

$$T_e = [ T_s/4.2 ] \sqrt{ - \log_{10} ( 4.2 * P_e ) / SNR }$$

where

$$10^{-22} < P_e < 10^{-3}$$

$T_s$  = Time period for highest frequency

$T_e$  = timing error

$P_e$  = error probability per bit

SNR = signal to noise ratio (rms to rms)

*Let us take SNR = 30*

*5 MHz Freq*

$$T_e \approx 4.8 \mu s$$

G.H.Hughes & R.K.Schmidt, " On noise in digital recording", IEEE Trans Mag, Vol. MAG-12, No.6 pp 752.

PHASE MARGIN PLOT  
02/15/90 17:13  
Serial#: unknown

Rad 1e HF Path Xtrap Apex Zero

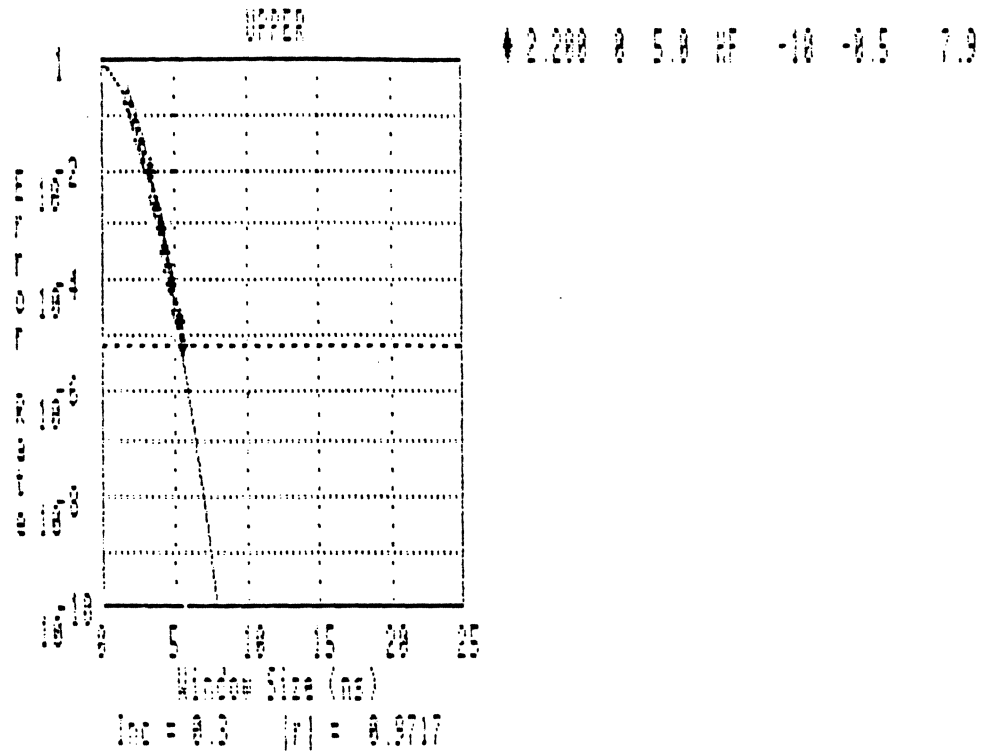


Fig 3 : Phase margin plot for (1,1) MFM pattern.

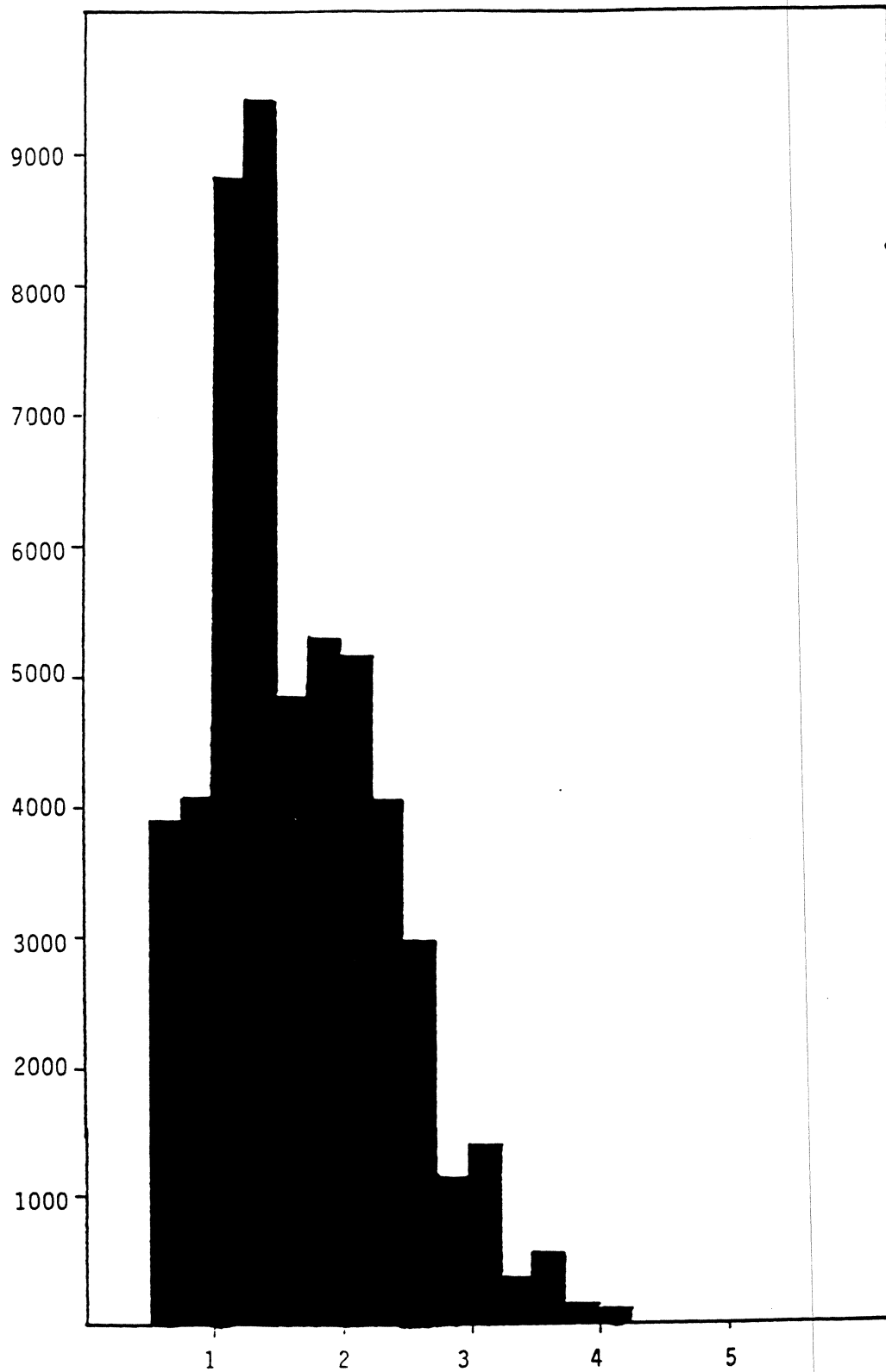


Fig 4 : Peak shift distribution for (1,1) MFM pattern.



## II . INTERSYMBOL INTERFERENCE

### TFH PEAK SHIFT CALCULATIONS

$$V(K) = \frac{2 V W Mr}{2} \cdot \frac{1 - e^{-Kt}}{Kt} \cdot \frac{e^{-K(d+a)}}{1} \cdot G(K) \dots (1)$$

$$K = \frac{2 f}{v} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$G(K) = \frac{\text{SIN}(gK)}{gK} - \frac{1}{2(1+C)} \left\{ \frac{A}{A-jK(g+p1)} + \frac{BC}{B-jK(g+p1)} \right\} e^{jK(g+p1)}$$

$$- \frac{1}{2(1+C)} \left\{ \frac{A}{A-jK(g+p2)} + \frac{BC}{B-jK(g+p2)} \right\} e^{jK(g+p2)} \dots \dots (3)$$

$$a = \left( \frac{a1}{2r} - \frac{t}{4} \right) + \left\{ \left( \frac{a1}{2r} - \frac{t}{4} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{t}{2} + 2t \frac{Mr}{4Hc} \right)^2 \right\}^{1/2} \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

$$V(X) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} V(nK) \cdot \left\{ \text{SIN}\left(n \cdot \frac{2\pi}{T} \cdot x\right) - \text{SIN}\left(n \cdot \frac{2\pi}{T} \cdot (x+T1)\right) \right.$$

$$\left. - \text{SIN}\left(n \cdot \frac{2\pi}{T} \cdot (x+T2)\right) \right\} \cdot \left\{ (1 - \text{COS}(n\pi)) \cdot (i)^{n-1} \right\} \dots \dots (5)$$

Where T = time period for isolated pulse

T1 = time period between positive peaks.

T2 = time period between positive and negative peak.

A.Singh & P.G.Bischoff, " Optimization of thin film heads for Resolution, Peak shift and overwrite", IEEE Trans Mag, Vol. MAG-21, No.5 pp 1572.

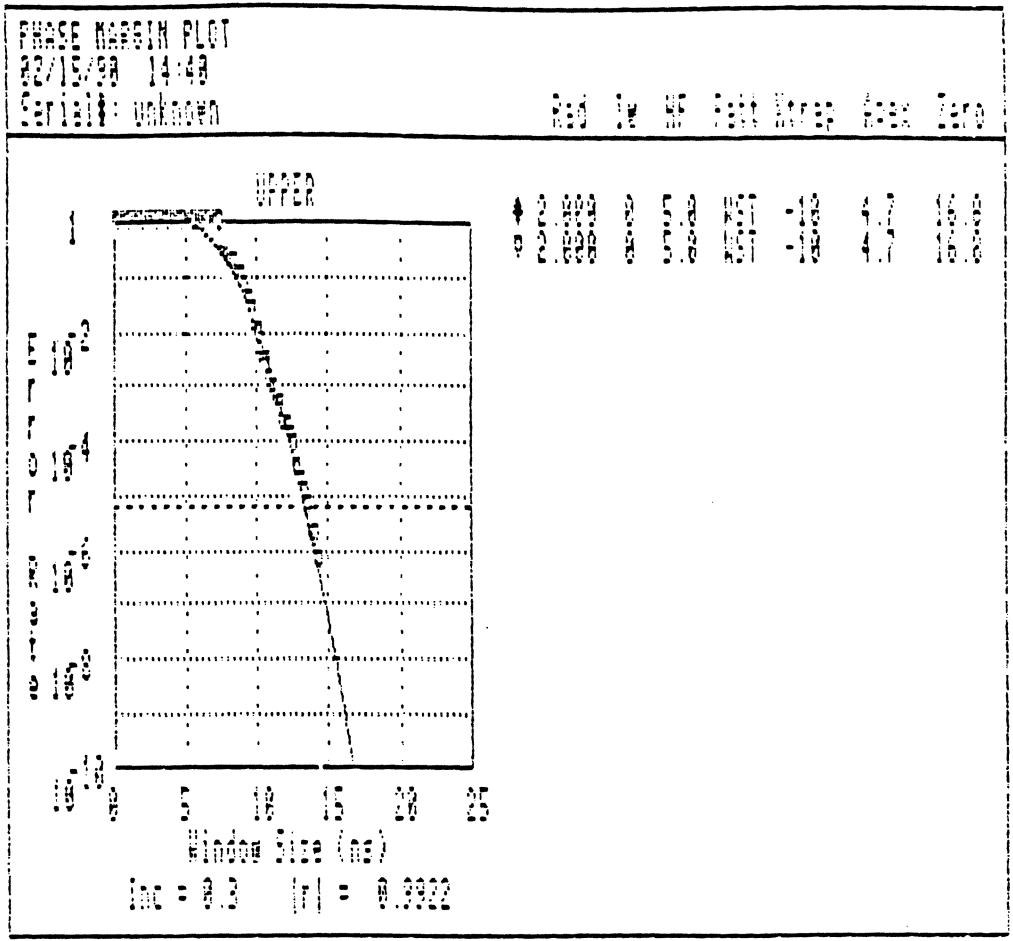


Fig 6: Phase margin plot for (1,3) MFM pattern.

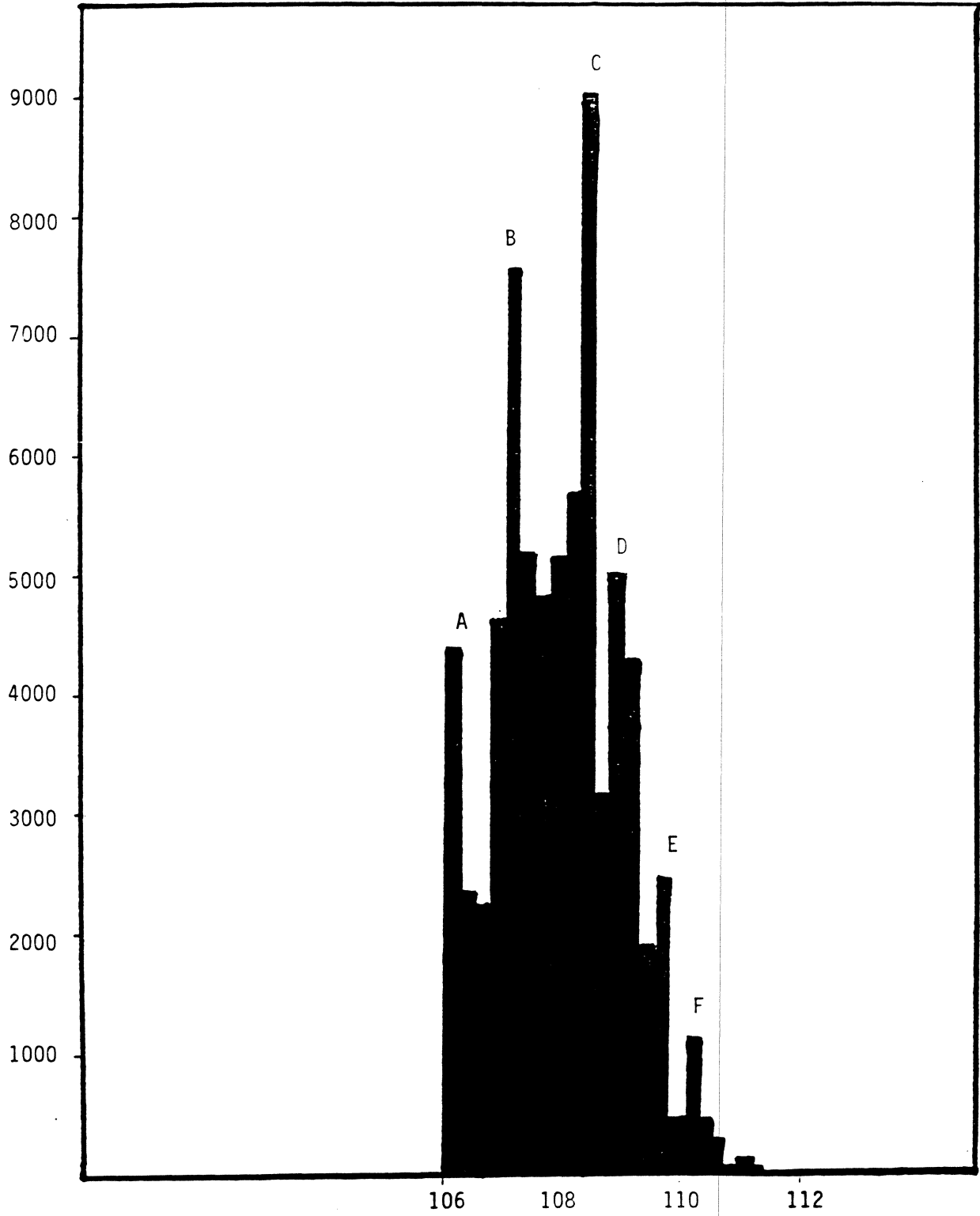


Fig 7: Peak shift distribution for (1,3) MFM pattern.



### III - PEAK SHIFT DUE TO HARD TRANSITION EFFECT

$$\frac{P[2 \cdot f_D - f_B]}{P[f_D]} = 2 \cdot [2 \cdot f_D - f_B] \cdot \left[ \frac{E[2 \cdot f_D - f_B]}{E[f_D]} \right] t$$

Where  $P(f)$  denotes the intensity of a spectral peak at frequency  $f$ .

$E(f)$  denotes the amplitude of the Fourier Transform of the the easy transition waveform at frequency  $f$  and  $t$  is the hard transition peak shift in time.

$$t = 0 \mu s \left[ \frac{500}{2f_0 - f_B} \right]$$

overwrite

C. Tsang, Y. Tang, "An experimental study of hard transition peakshifts through the overwrite spectra.", IEEE Trans. Magn., MAG-24, 6 (1988).

## PEAK SHIFT DUE TO HARD TRANSITION EFFECT

Algorithm:

1. Write low frequency  $C_w$  fb.
2. Then write high frequency  $f_d$ .
3. Measure spectral peaks

Overwrite parameter OWP =

$$OWP = \frac{P[2 \cdot f_D - f_B]}{P[f_D]}$$

4. Measure spectral ratio RO

$$RO = \frac{E[2 \cdot f_D - f_B]}{E[f_D]}$$
$$= \frac{f_D}{[2 \cdot f_D - f_B]} \cdot \frac{V[2 \cdot f_D - f_B]}{V[f_D]}$$

5. Normalize OWP to remove effect of head disk resolution

$$OWQ = \frac{OWP}{RO}$$

6. Hard transition peak shift  $t$

$$t = OWQ \cdot \left[ \frac{500}{[2 \cdot f_D - f_B]} \right]$$

where  $t$  is in nanoseconds &  $f_D$  and  $f_B$  are in MHz.

C. Tsang, Y. Tang, "An experimental study of hard transition peakshifts through the overwrite spectra.", IEEE Trans. Magn., MAG-24, 6 (1988).

#### IV INTERTRACK INTERFERENCE

- ITI IS ONE OF THE MAIN CAUSES OF TIMING ERROR.
- ITI CONTRIBUTION TO TIMING ERROR IS EMBEDDED IN THE PHASE MARGIN PLOT.
- DSP TECHNIQUE CAN BE USED TO MEASURE TRACK MISREGISTRATION.
- TECHNIQUE CAN BE FURTHER MODIFIED TO PROVIDE TIMING ERROR DUE TO INTERTRACK INTERFERENCE.

T.J.Chainer et al, " A technique for the measurement of track misregistration in disk file," paper presented at MMM- Intermag Conf. Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, 1991.

#### 4. PHASE MARGIN CIRCUIT DESIGN & ANALYSIS

##### (A) FILTER DESIGN

- NOISE MINIMIZATION
- PRESERVE WAVE SHAPE
- CONSTANT GROUP DELAY
- LINEAR PHASE
- CORRECT ERRORS INTRODUCED BY THE NON-IDEAL PHASE CHARACTERISTICS OF INPUT READ HEAD
- PROGRAMMABLE TRACKING FILTER  
( ONLY IF SNR BETTER THAN 60 DB)

##### DSP TO ANALYZE NON-IDEAL PHASE CHARACTERISTICS

- HIGH SPEED ADC
- DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING  
-FFT, CONVOLUTION etc
- DIGITAL FILTER DESIGN FOR ANALYSIS

## (B) DIFFERENTIATOR DESIGN

THE DIFFERENTIATOR OUTPUT CHANGES STATE WHEN THE INPUT PULSE CHANGES DIRECTION. NORMALLY THIS WILL BE AT THE PEAKS. BUT THE DIFFERENTIATOR CAN ALSO RESPOND TO NOISE NEAR THE BASELINE UNLESS THRESHOLD OR GATING CIRCUIT IS IMPLEMENTED.

( AMPLITUDE COMPARATOR CIRCUIT, ENABLING THE DIGITIZING COMPARATOR CAN BE USED AS GATING CIRCUIT. )

### TYPES OF DIFFERENTIATOR

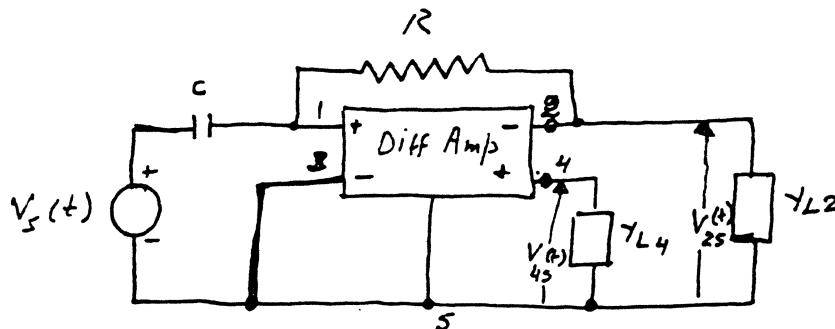
#### 1. RC DIFFERENTIATOR

- SIMPLE
- PHASE DISTORTION
- SNR DEGRADATION

#### 2. GL DIFFERENTIATOR

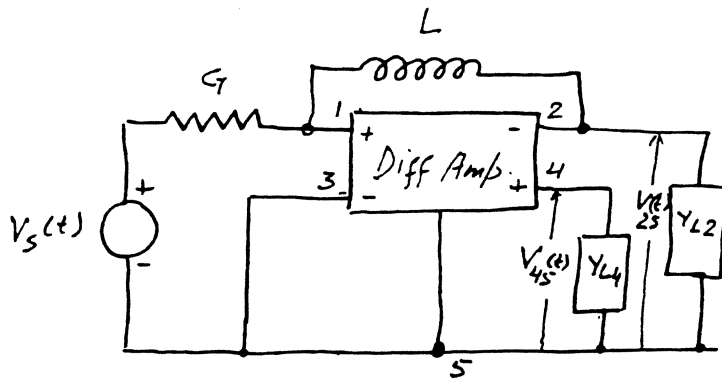
- SNR DEGRADATION

#### 3. DELAY LINE DEFFERENTIATOR



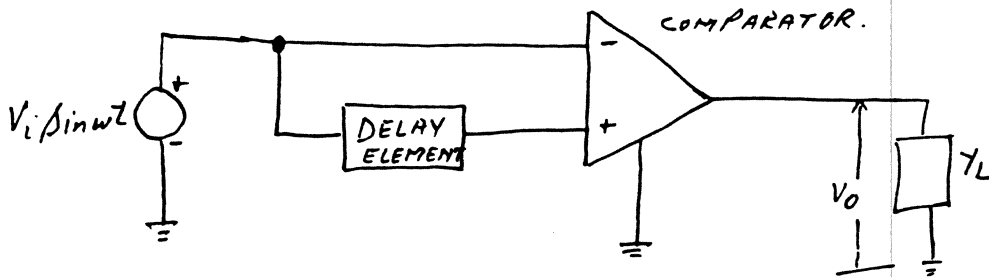
$$V_{25}(t) = -V_{45}(t) = -RC \frac{dV_s(t)}{dt}$$

Fig B-1 RC Differentiator.



$$V_{25}(t) = -V_{45}(t) = -LG \frac{dV_s(t)}{dt}$$

Fig 13-2 GL Differentiator.



$$V_o = K \cos \omega(t - \frac{t_d}{2})$$

Fig 13-3 DELAY LINE Differentiator.

## DELAY LINE DIFFERENTIATOR

$$V_o = A \cdot V_i \cdot \sin(\omega \cdot (t + t_d)) - A \cdot V_i \cdot \sin(\omega \cdot t)$$

$$V_o = 2 \cdot A \cdot V_i \cdot \sin\left[\omega \cdot \frac{t_d}{2}\right] \cdot \cos\left[\omega \cdot \left[t - \frac{t_d}{2}\right]\right]$$

$$V_o = K \cdot \cos\left[\omega \cdot \left[t - \frac{t_d}{2}\right]\right]$$

$$\text{Where } K = 2 \cdot A \cdot V_i \cdot \sin\left[\omega \cdot \frac{t_d}{2}\right]$$

K will have the peak value when

$$\omega = \frac{\pi}{t_d}$$

or

$$f = \frac{0.5}{t_d}$$

Where  $V_i$  = input voltage

$V_o$  = output voltage

A = Gain

$t_d$  = delay

f = cut off frequency of the differentiator

Code = (2, 7) HF = 5Mhz				
Ptrn = FF Delay Line = 60nS				
Tap	#1	#2	#3	#4
Run #1	8.8	6.9	5.8	5.8
Run #2	8.6	7.0	5.8	5.8
Run #3	6.8	7.0	6.0	5.8
Run #4	6.6	6.9	6.0	5.9
Delay (nS)	18.0	30.0	48.0	60.0
Average	8.7	7.0	5.9	5.8
Stdev	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Code = (2, 7) HF = 5Mhz				
Ptrn = FF Delay Line = 100nS				
Tap	#1	#2	#3	#4
Run #1	7.1	6.6	5.2	5.5
Run #2	7.3	6.7	5.3	5.3
Run #3	7.3	6.8	5.3	5.5
Run #4	7.3	6.6	5.4	5.3
Delay (nS)	30.0	50.0	80.0	100.0
Average	7.3	6.7	5.3	5.4
Stdev	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Ptrn = (2,7) Delay Line = 60nS				
Tap	#1	#2	#3	#4
Run #1	11.6	11.6	13.1	14.8
Run #2	11.8	11.9	13.1	14.9
Run #3	12.0	11.7	13.2	15.0
Run #4	11.9	11.6	13.3	14.9
Delay (nS)	18.0	30.0	48.0	60.0
Average	11.8	11.7	13.2	14.9
Stdev	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1

Ptrn = (2,7) Delay Line = 100nS				
Tap	#1	#2	#3	#4
Run #1	11.9	13.8		
Run #2	11.9	13.9		
Run #3	12.2	14.2		
Run #4	12.4	14.1		
Delay (nS)	30.0	50.0	80.0	100.0
Average	12.1	14.0	####	####
Stdev	0.2	0.2	####	####

Ptrn = FF	
Delay (nS)	
18	8.7
30	7.1
48	5.9
50	6.7
60	5.8
80	5.3
100	5.4

$\Delta p.s$   
 3.1  
 4.8  
 7.3  
 7.3  
 9.1

Ptrn = (2,7)	
Delay (nS)	
18	11.8
30	11.9
48	13.2
50	14.0
60	14.9
80	
100	



PHASE MARGIN PLOT

11:30:89 15:28

Serial#: unknown

2.100 20 5.0

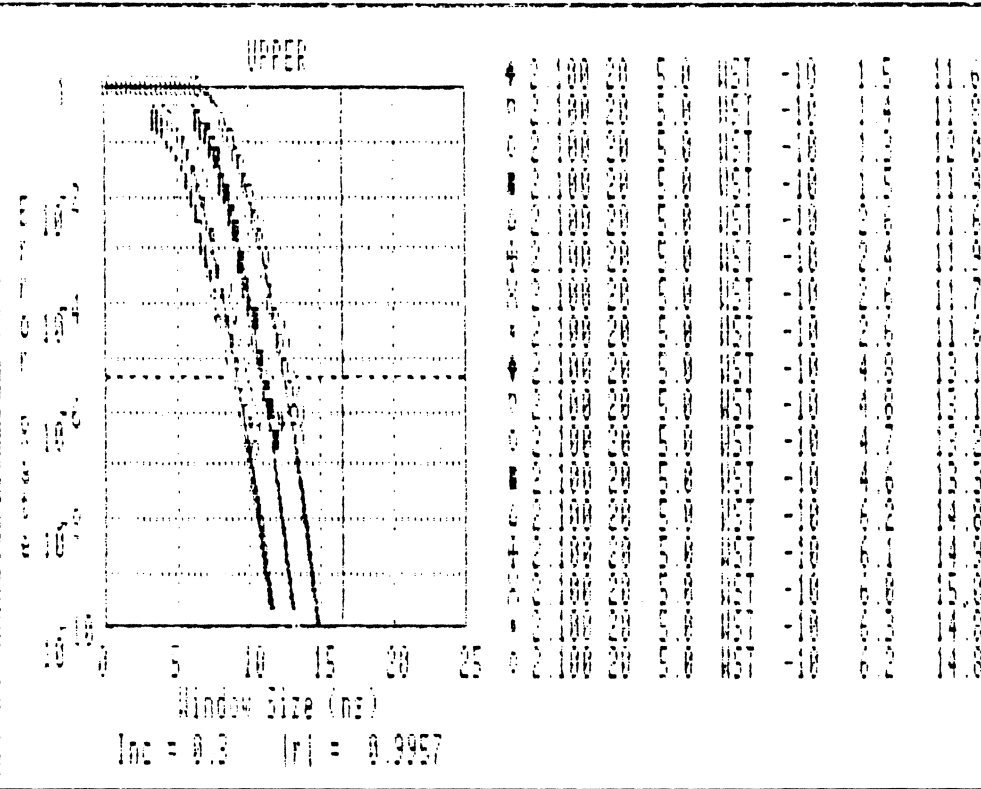
Iteration: 4

Rad 10 HF 6.3 14.6

Fast Wtrap Apex Zero

DELAY LINE = 60ns

PM: FICFIC = 15MHz



TAP #1

TAP #2

TAP #3

TAP #4

## (C) PHASE LOCK LOOP DESIGN

### DESIGN PARAMETERS

#### 1. VCO Gain ( $K_o$ )

For MC1648 at VCO center frequency 128 MHz

$$\begin{aligned} K_o &= 16 \text{ MHz / Volt} \\ &= 2\pi * 16E6 \text{ Rad / Sec / V} \end{aligned}$$

#### 2. Phase Detector Gain ( $K_d$ )

For MC12040 Phase Detector

$$K_d = 1/2\pi * A * (V_{oh} - V_{ol}) \text{ Volts / Rad}$$

where A = Signal attenuation

$$V_{oh} = -1.8 \text{ V}$$

$$V_{ol} = -0.9 \text{ V}$$

**PROGRAMMABLE GAIN CONTROL IS MOST SUITABLE FOR TEST EQUIPMENT.**

#### 3. Loop Gain ( $K$ )

$$K = K_o * K_d / N \quad / \text{ Sec}$$

where N is frequency division ratio.

#### 4. PLL Bandwidth ( $BW$ ) & Damping Factor ( $\xi$ )

For linear continuous second order system

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Bandwidth } BW &= f_o = 2\xi f \\ &= 2\xi W_n / 2 \end{aligned}$$

where

$f_o$  = Open loop unity gain cross over frequency.

$f_n$  = Close loop Natural frequency

$\xi$  = Closed loop Damping Factor

- Notes:
1. Normally high frequency operation is more critical and difficult to optimize. Optimize the system for high and verify at low frequency.
  2. For Test equipment design low PLL jitter or noise is more important rather than quick response. Hence Damping Factor should be fairly large approx equal to 3.
  3. Good approximation for BW = 50 KHz

## 5. PLL Transfer Function

$$G(S) = K * F(S) / S$$

where F(S) = Transfer function of  
loop filter.

1 / S = VCO act as integrator

Normally pole frequency should be much higher than BW or  $f_0$ . Loop filter can be active or passive, but **IT IS BETTER TO HAVE SELECTABLE LOOP FILTERS.**

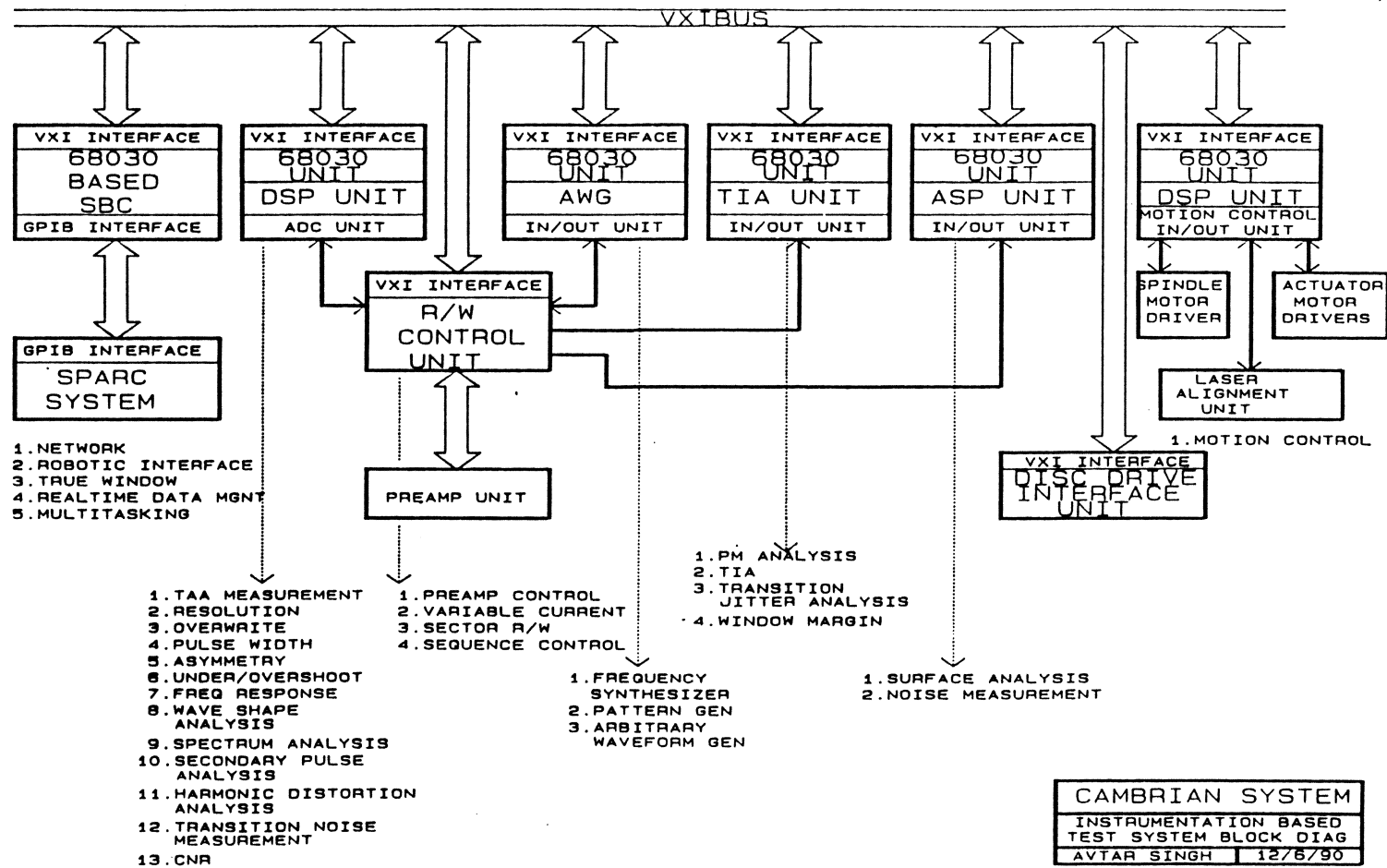
## 6. FREQUENCY CONTROL LOOP

Contribution of VCO jitter to PLL noise is more than any other components. A pretune DAC is used to tune the VCO to the required frequency with enough resolution for PLL to acquire lock easily. To reduce the VCO phase noise one or more frequency control loops can be placed around the VCO.

## 5. SAMPLE VS PHASE MARGIN TESTING

- Sample Margin Test Technique ( SMTT ) is logical extension to DSP technique.
- High speed ADC with DSP processor will supplement SMTT.
- SMTT with DSP can produce
  - Bar Graph
  - Gaussian curve
- SMTT more suitable for higher frequency and easier to implement.

# INSTRUMENTATION BASED TEST SYSTEM



# **ELECTRONIC FUNCTION INTEGRATION**

**Steve Dines**

**Cirrus Logic**

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## **AGENDA**

- **Integration environment**
- **Why does DSP impact Integration**
- **Packaging & Test Issues**
- **Integration Scenarios**

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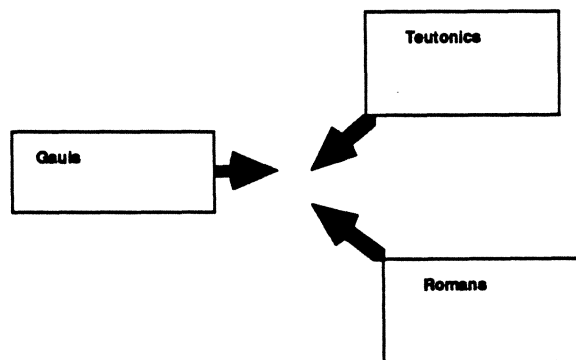
## INTEGRATION ENVIRONMENT

- *Everybody claims to be able to integrate everything*

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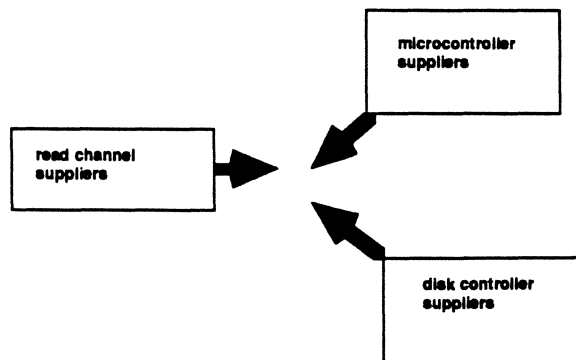
## EUROPE 100 B.C.



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## DISK ELECTRONICS SUPPLIERS TODAY



- Buyer beware!

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## WHY DOES DSP IMPACT INTEGRATION?

- Channel
- Servo
- Flexibility
- Power management
- Pin-out

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## SYNCHRONOUS CHANNELS AND INTEGRATION

- highly tuned analog --> analog front end  
+ digital algorithms => CMOS
- Force to CMOS paves the way for  
integration with other logic elements
- Scalability of digital vs analog
- Flexibility gains ensure customer value  
added

*Diploas  
to  
CMOS 50%  
to  
100%  
reduction  
of  
power*

*DSP to*

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## SYNCHRONOUS CHANNEL INTEGRATION BENEFITS

- Space reduction
- Power deduction
- Pin-out reduction

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## DIGITAL SERVO AND INTEGRATION

- Servo becomes logic element plus analog periphery (A to D and D to A)
- Easier to Integrate

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## DIGITAL SERVO INTEGRATION BENEFITS

- Integrated servo is an areal capacity argument  
Integrated header - avoid repeating track info in data fields and servo fields  
5% benefit (linear only)
- Eases pseudo-sector mark generation
- More integrated power management
- Servo is becoming more hardware path - fits better with data channel
- Totally concurrent servo processing
  - no interdependence between micro and servo engine
- Preserves commodity micro benefits
- Removes major complexity from ASIC

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## OPTIMIZED SERVO PROCESSING

- Servo engine targeted at magnetic disk head control
- Key hardware modules added
- Reduces code
  - space
  - time
  - engineering effort
- Overkill avoidance - eg sub 100ns multiplies not needed for typical sample rates

BST 80 12/16/91 11/



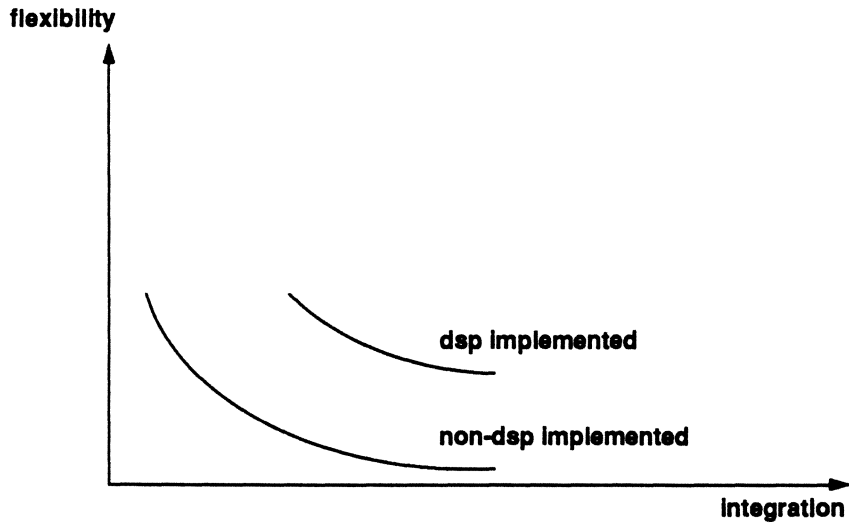
## FLEXIBILITY

- How do electronics suppliers ensure customer flexibility in the face of ever increasing integration
- Synchronous channels provide digital flexibility
- Digitally based servo allows user to implement his servo approach

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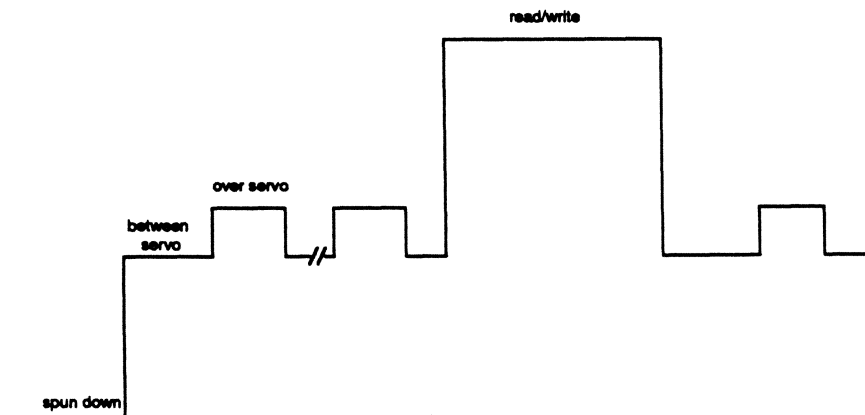
## DSP IMPROVES FLEXIBILITY



BST SD 12/16/01 13/



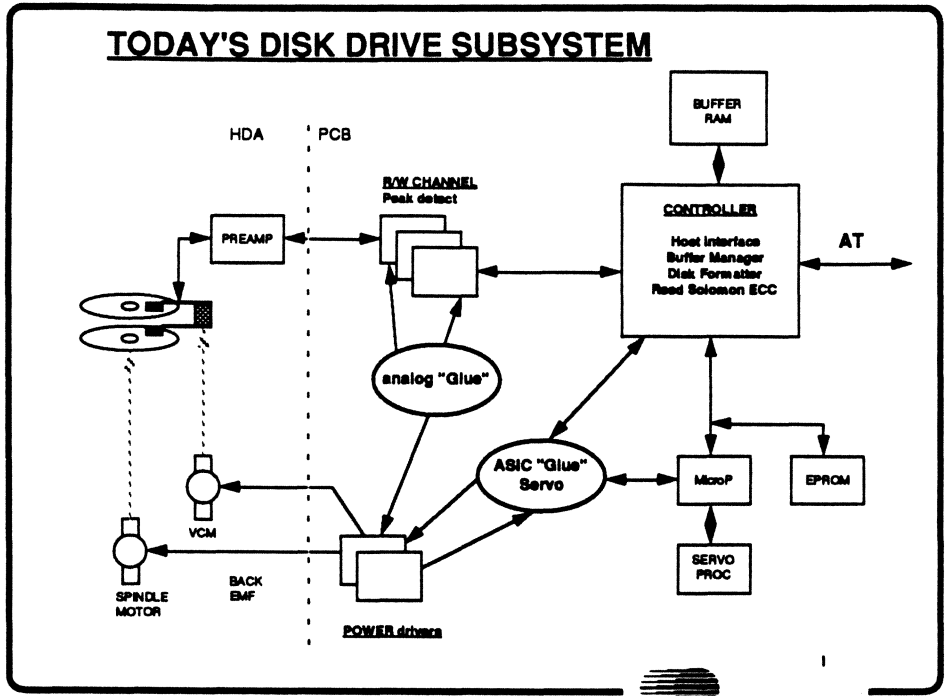
## DSP IMPROVES POWER MANAGEMENT



BST SD 12/16/01 14/

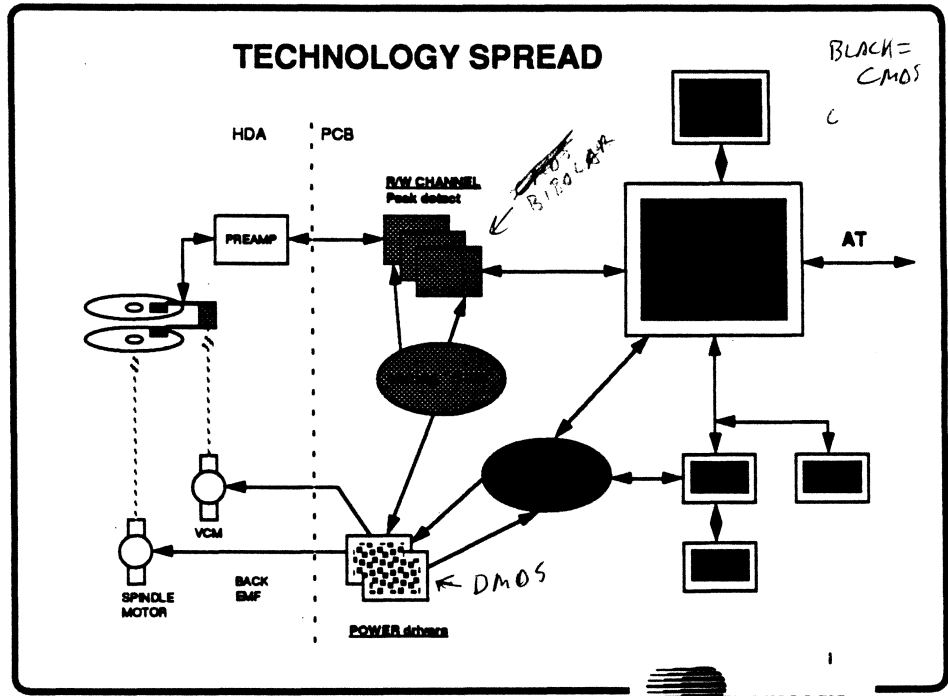


# TODAY'S DISK DRIVE SUBSYSTEM



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# TECHNOLOGY SPREAD



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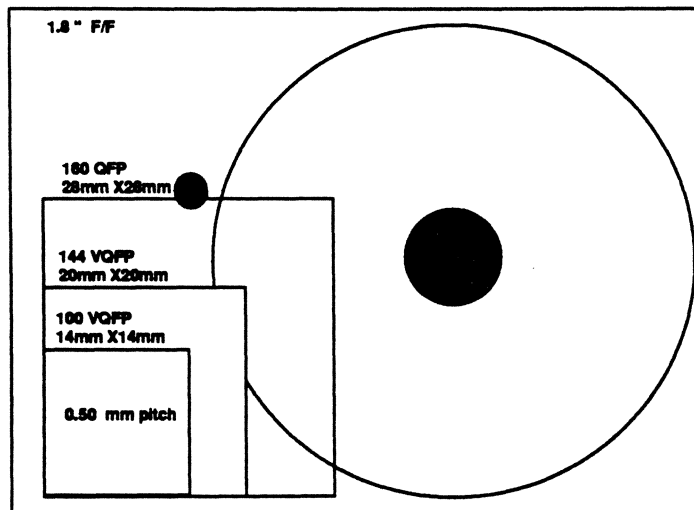
## PACKAGING & TEST ISSUES

- Integration should match packaging
- Relationship to form factor
- Die considerations

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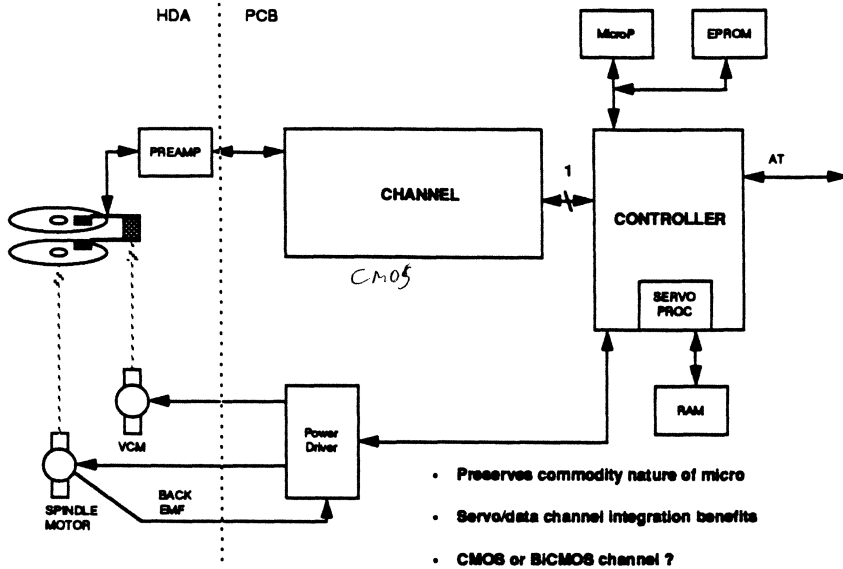
## 1.8" AND QFP



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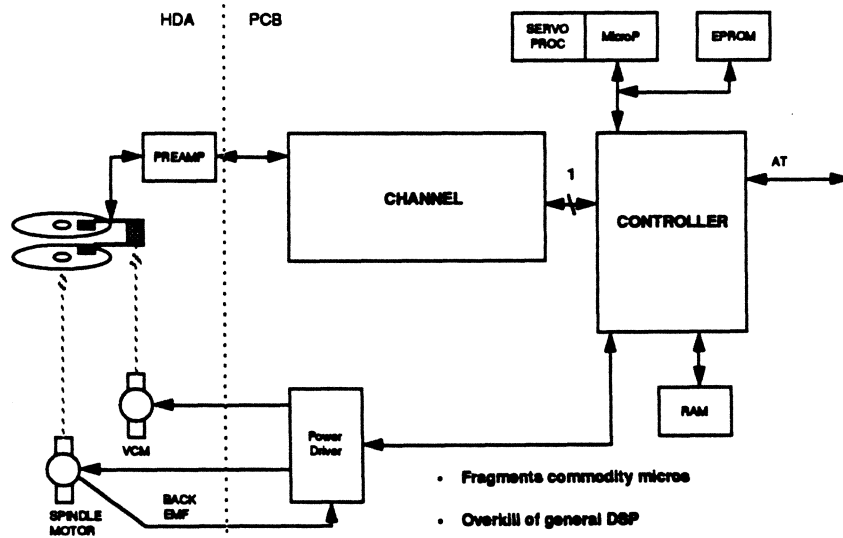
## INTEGRATION SCENARIO #1



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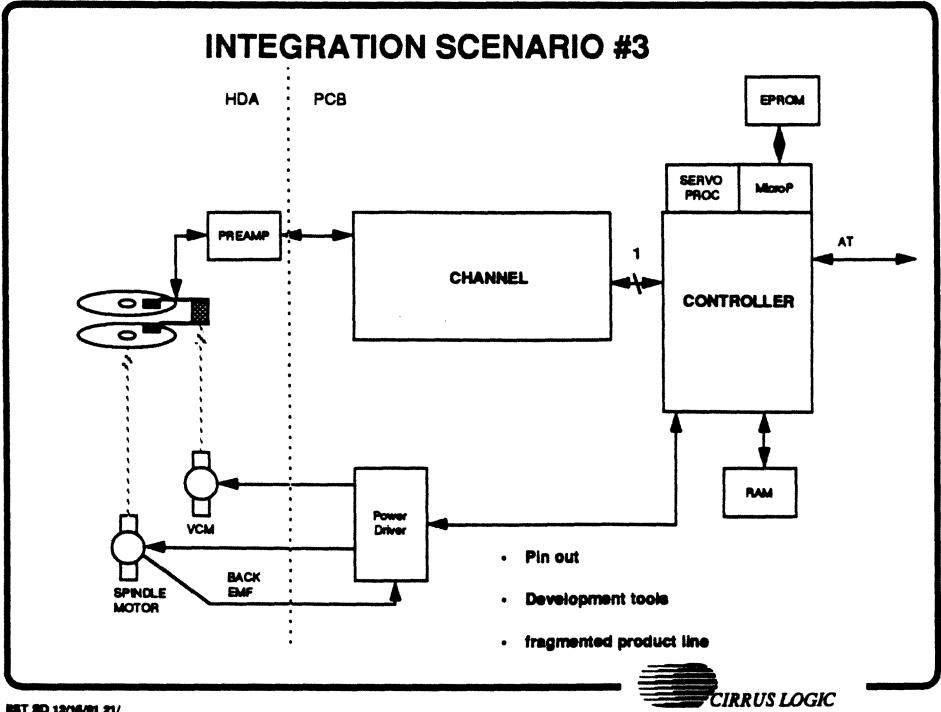


## INTEGRATION SCENARIO #2

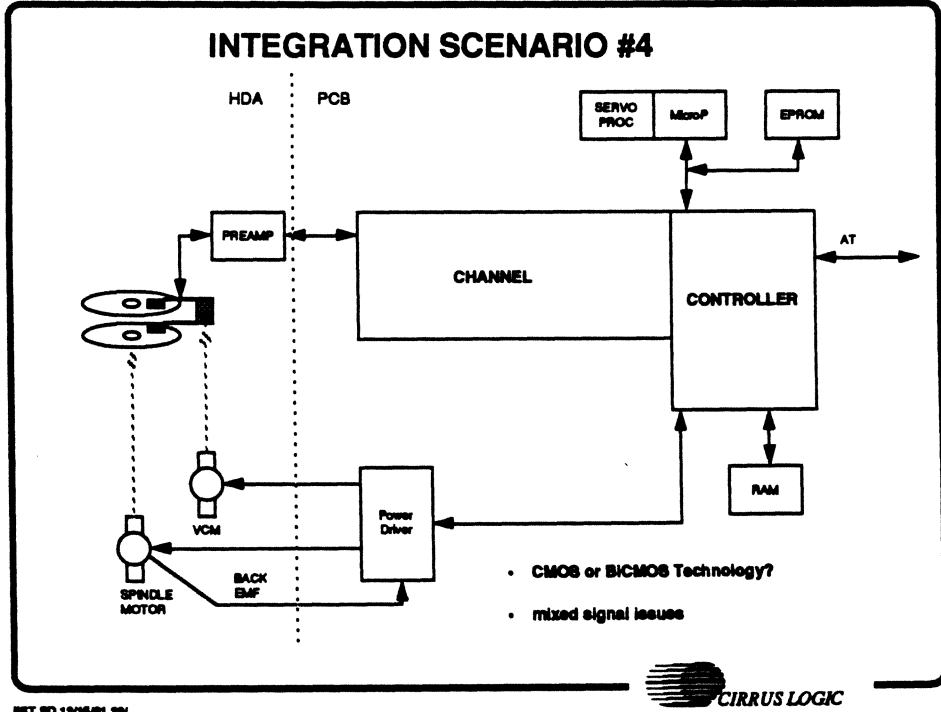


IST 9D 12/16/91 20/



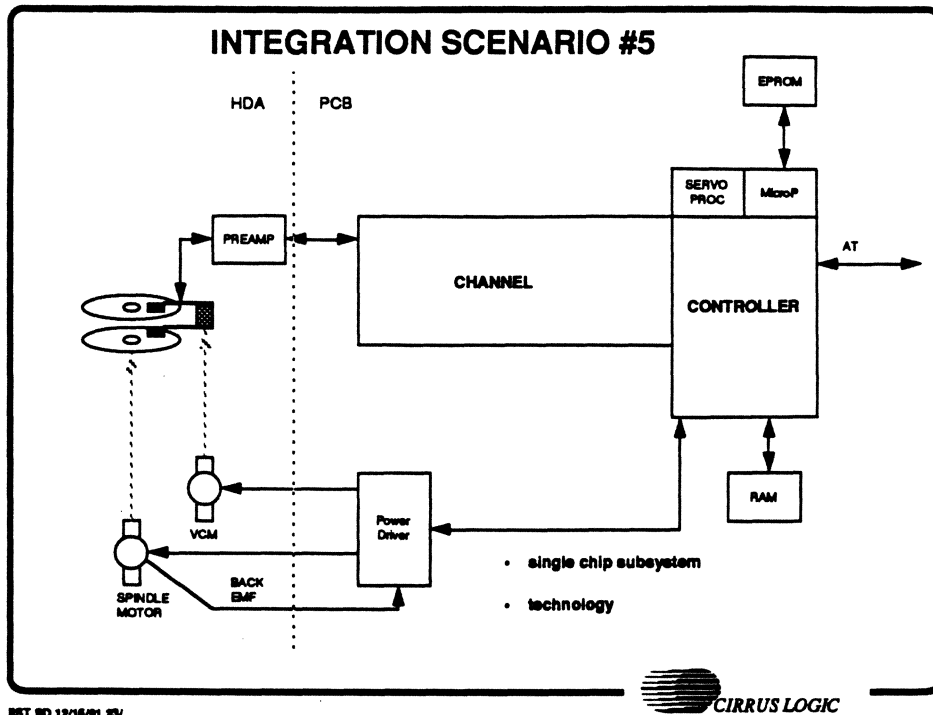


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### SUMMARY

- **Buyer must beware**
- **Most cost efficient vehicle for transistor delivery**
- **Understand your commodity benefits**
- **Exploit the digital drive!**

CIRRUS LOGIC

NET 80 12/16/91 26/

# DRIVE SELF TESTING AND DIAGNOSTICS

Jonathan D. Coker

for IIST's "The Impact of DSP on Future Generation HDDs"  
December 17-19, 1991

IBM Storage Systems Products Division, Rochester, MN

Req with 5.25" DSP Drive

3.50" DSP Drive - JUST ANNOUNCED

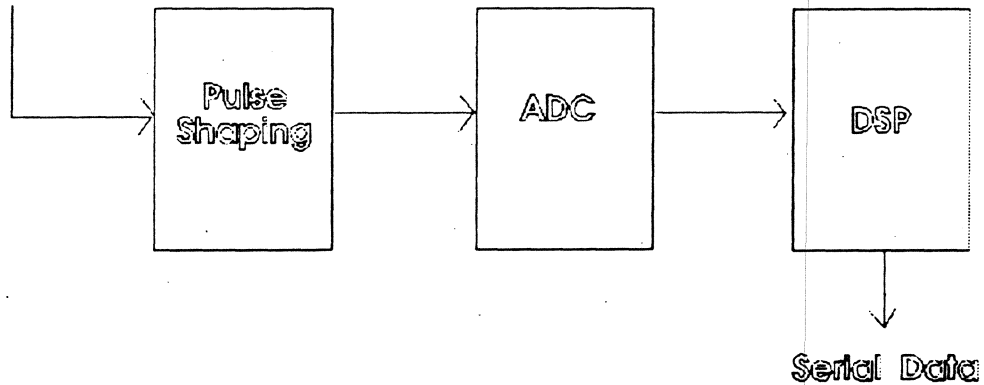
## Overview

---

- PRML channel primer
- Error rate performance estimation
- Flying height change detection
- Disk surface analysis

## Signal Flow in a PRML Channel

Head Signal



## Partial Response IV Conventions

---

$$y_k = a_k - a_{k-2} \text{ - adjacent cells}$$

$$a_k \in \{\pm 1\} \text{ - adjacent cells}$$

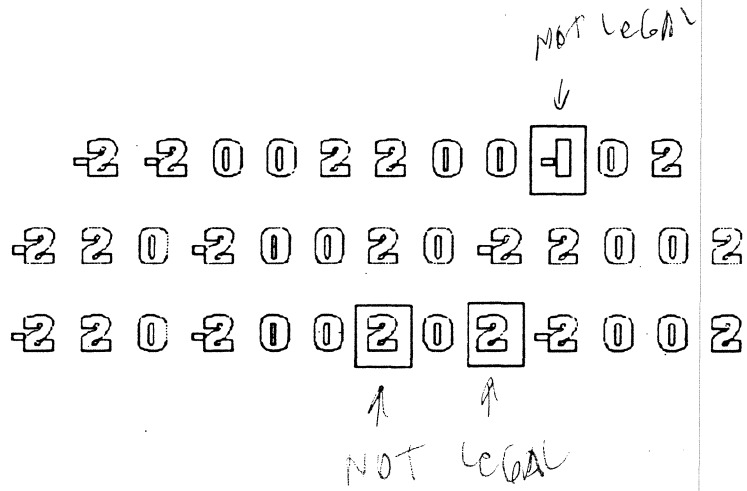
$$\Rightarrow y_k \in \{0, \pm 2\}$$

## Partial Response IV Tidbits

---

- Interleaves are independent
- Output '2's must alternate polarity within an interleave

## Output Sequence Examples

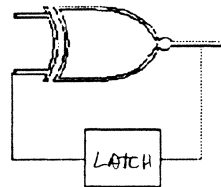


## Precoding

### Peak Detection:

Input

... 01001000101 ...



Output

... 10001111001 ...

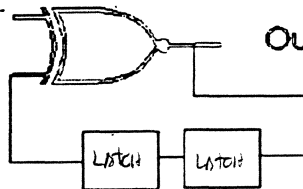
OR

... 0110000110 ...

### Partial Response IV:

Input

... 01001000101 ...

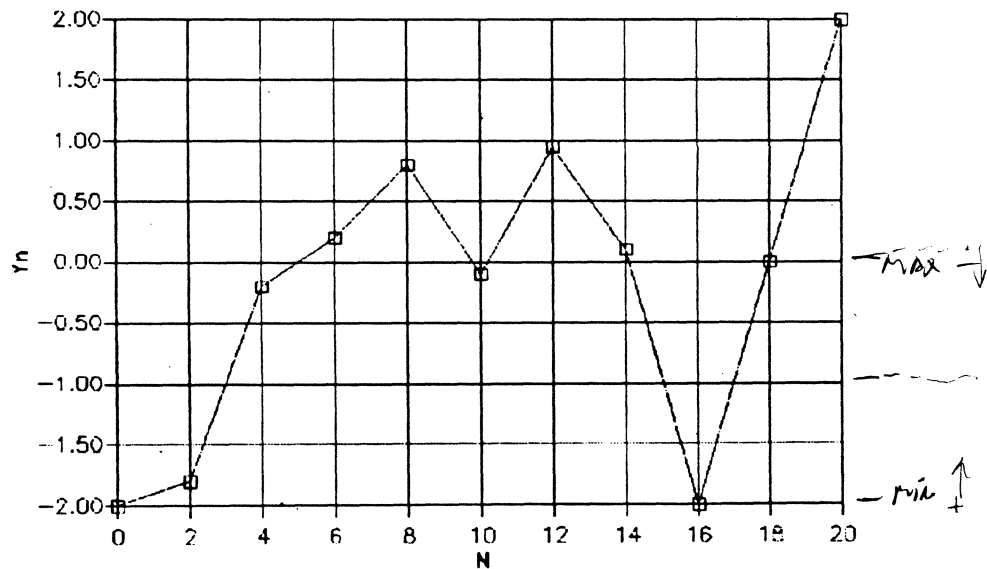


Output

... 01011111011 ...

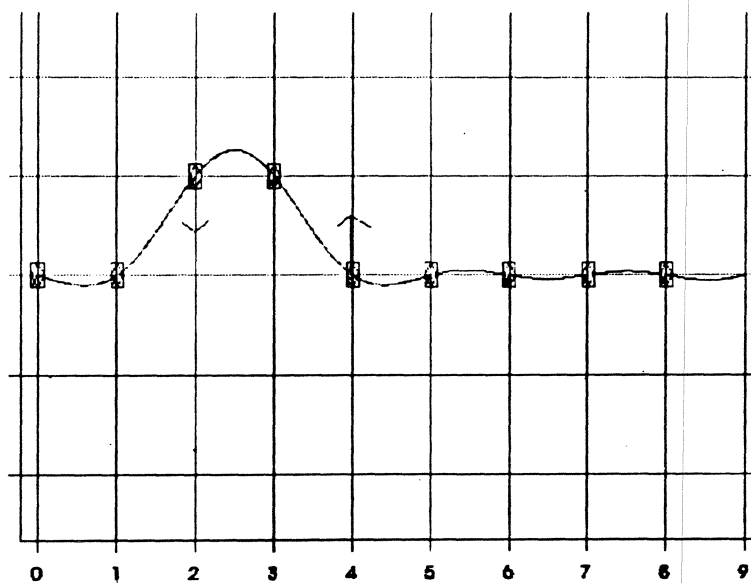
*Precoding guarantees a non-zero  
output iff the input is 1.*

*Noisy Readback Sequence*



*With PR-IV, Viterbi detection consists  
of a minimum/maximum finder  
with a polarity latch.*

*PRML Error - Example 1*

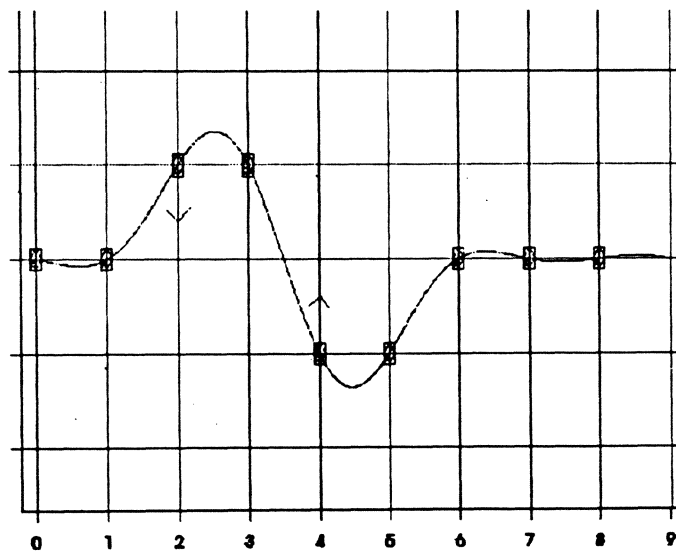


0 0 +1 +1 -1 -1 -1 -1

Condition for error: EX 1

$$n_1 + n_2 > 2$$

PRML Error - Example 2





Condition for error: EX2

$$n_1 + n_2 > 2$$

### Error Rate Performance Estimation

---

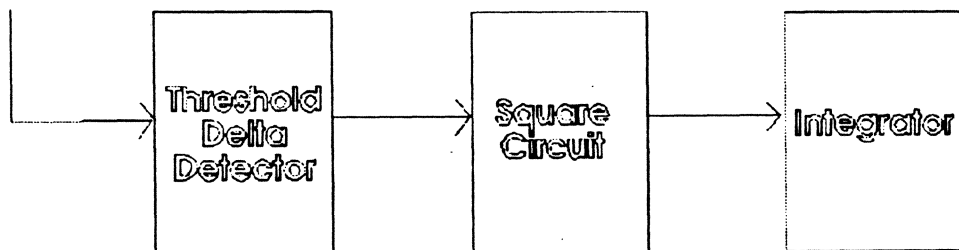
- Error rate performance may be estimated by measurement of noise statistics in fraction of time necessary for a true error rate test
- Simplest case assumption of white Gaussian noise allows compact implementation

## Possible Uses

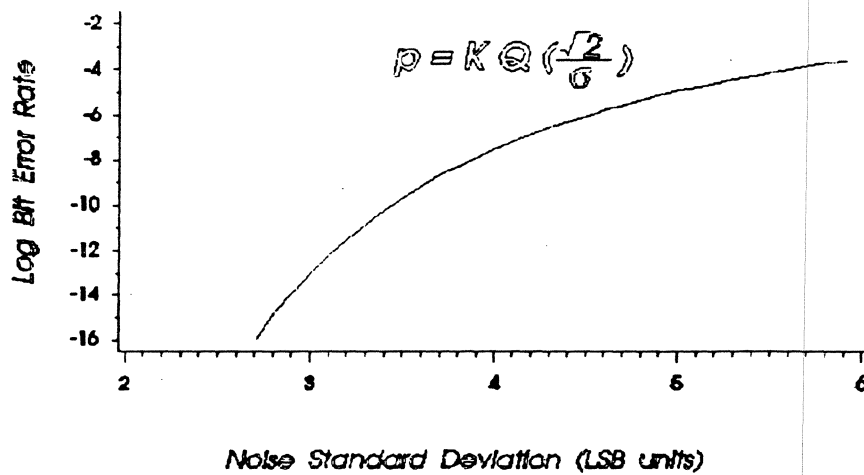
- quick performance indicators during the manufacture of the drive
- early detection of error rate changes in the field
- field diagnostics

## Mean-Square-Error Circuit

Filtered Samples



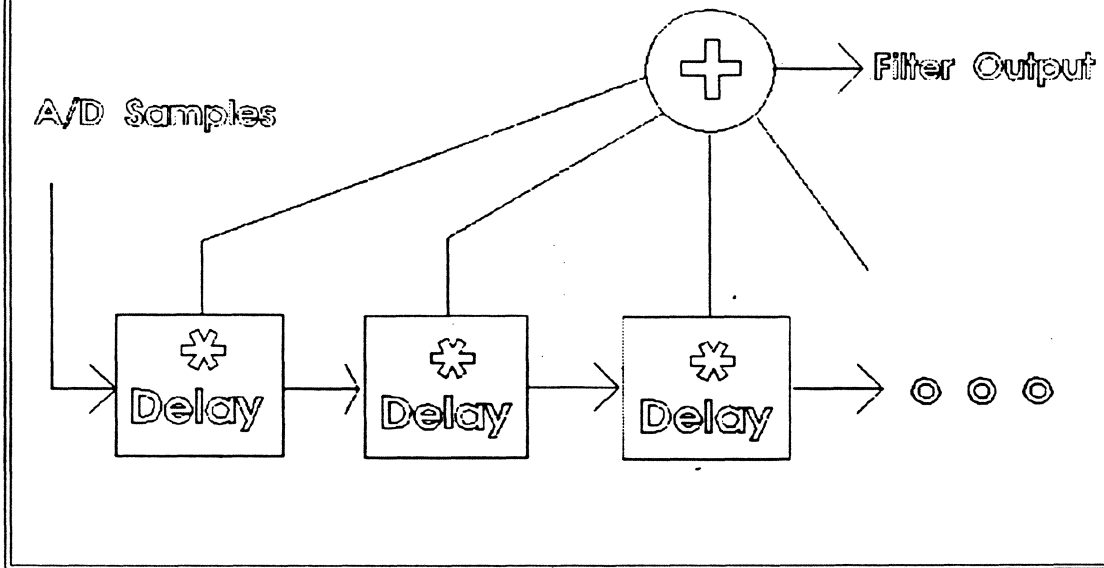
## *Error Probability with WGN*



*WGN is typically a bad presumption.*

*Equalization typically introduces significant  
noise correlation effects.*

## Correlation Effects in a Digital Tap Delay Line



PRML "cares" about the following quantities:

$$Y(n) - Y(n+2)$$

$$Y(n) - Y(n+4)$$

$$Y(n) - Y(n+6)$$

...

## Noise Multipliers

---

These quantities are zero-mean Gaussian variables whose standard deviations are related to the input by the following factors:

$$M^2(n) = \left( \sum t^2 \Phi - \sum t \Phi t \Phi + n \right)$$

*Noise multipliers are functions of time spacing.*

## Noise Multipliers - Example

---

$$\sum t^2 \Phi = 1.2^2$$

$$M(2) = 1.3$$

$$M(4) = 1.5$$

$$M(6) = 1.3$$

$$M(8) = 1.2$$

$$M(10) = 1.2$$

...

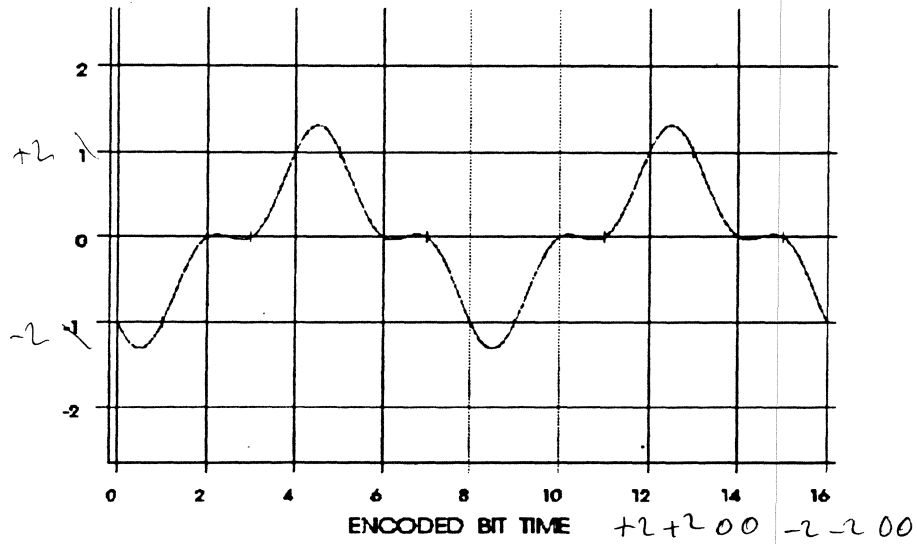
*When noise correlation is significant,  
the overall error rate can be dominated  
by a single most-likely error length.*

### *Flying Height Change Measurement*

---

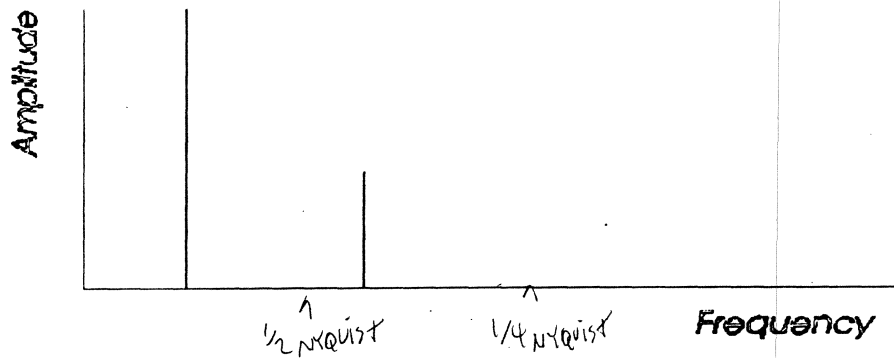
- *Technique uses frequency response changes to detect flying height differences*
- *Frequency response changes described by the Wallace equation*

## Test Pattern

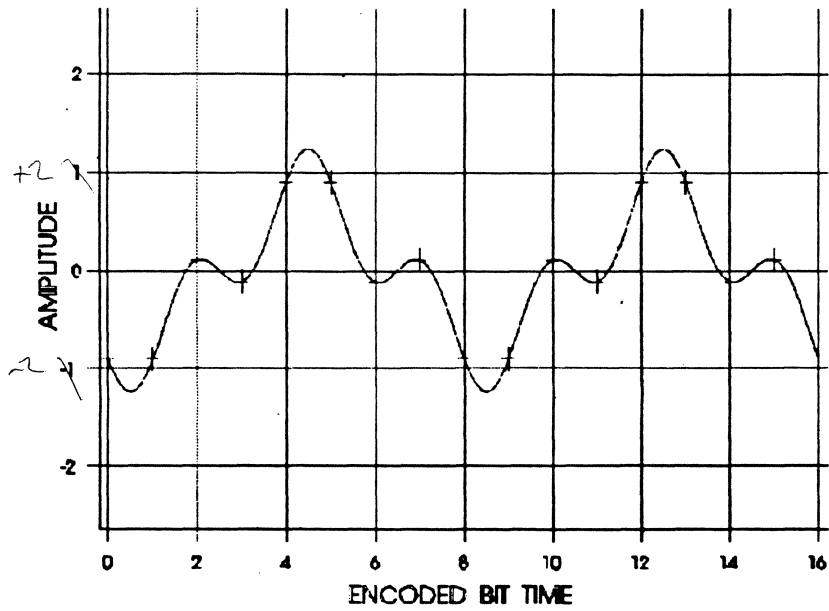


## Description of Test Pattern

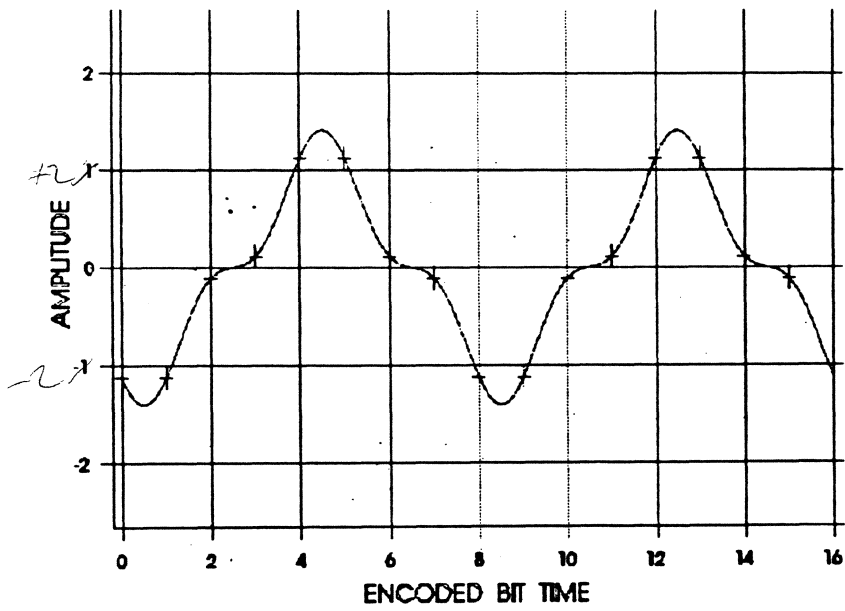
$$f(t) = (1 + \sqrt{2}) \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}t\right) + \cos\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}t\right)$$



*Effect of Lower Separation Loss*



*Effect of Higher Separation Loss*





## Wallace Equation Application

---

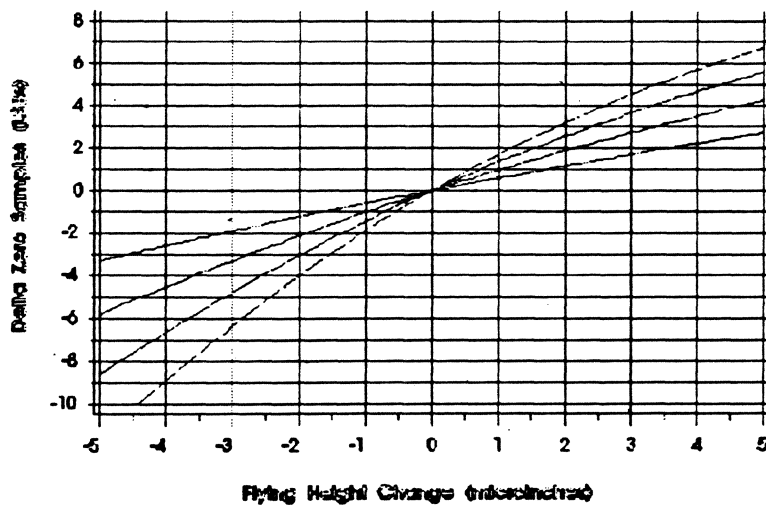
$$f(t) = (1 + \sqrt{2}) e^{-k\frac{\pi}{4}} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}t\right) + e^{-3k\frac{\pi}{4}} \cos\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}t\right)$$

$$f(-0.5) + f(0.5) = 4$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta(k) = \frac{2(1 - e^{-k\frac{\pi}{2}})}{\cot\left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right) + \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right) e^{-k\frac{\pi}{2}}}$$

## Delta versus Separation for Various Linear Densities

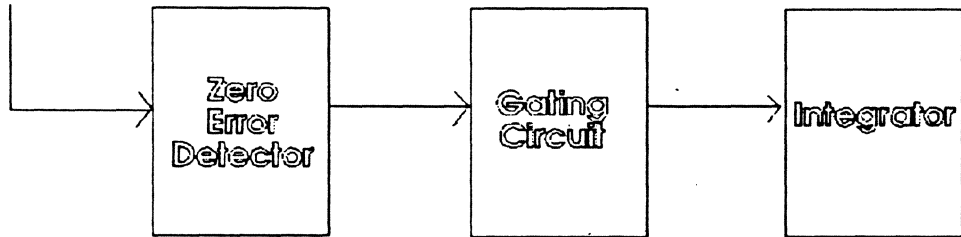
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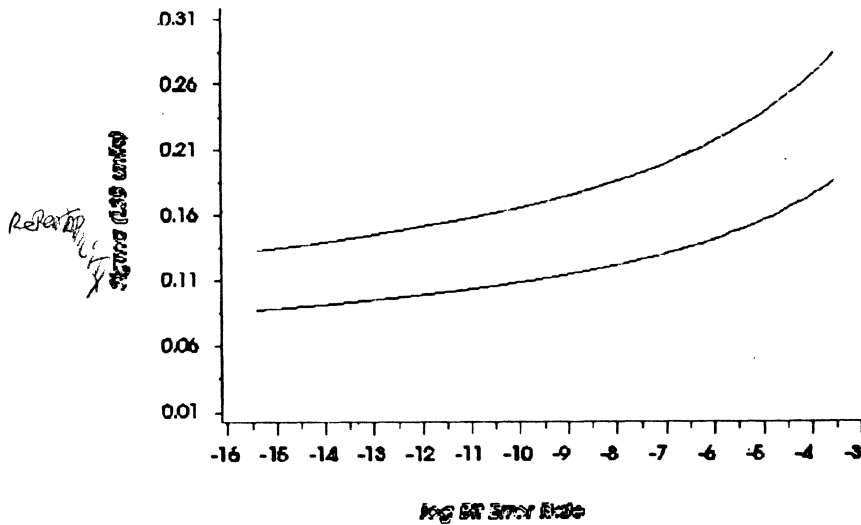
KBP    ——— 30    ——— 60    ——— 70    - - - 90

# Fly Height Change Detector Circuit

A/D Samples



## Measurement Error Analysis



TYPE    ——— LONG    ——— SHORT

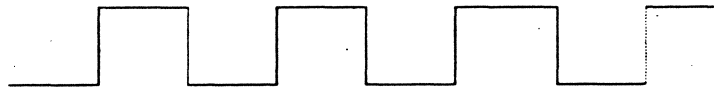
## Disk Surface Analysis

==> Purpose: to mark and deallocate magnetic imperfections on the disk surface

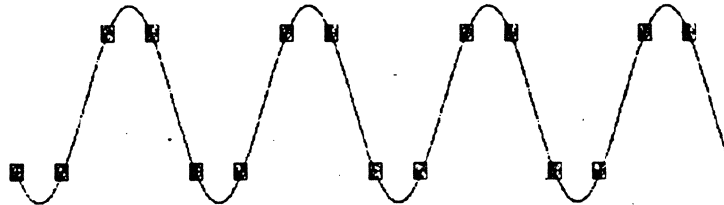
==> typically performed during the manufacture of the drive

### *Surface Analysis Test Pattern*

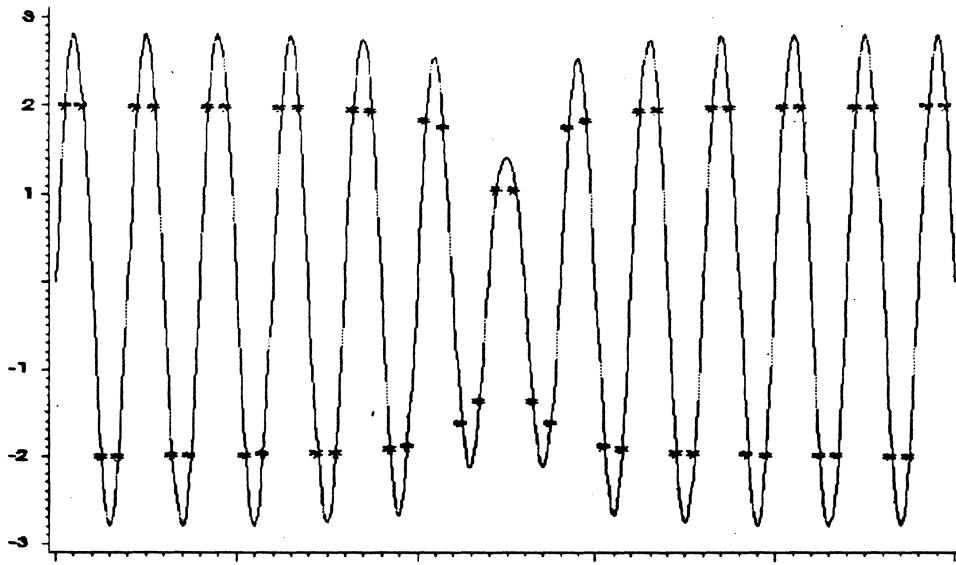
$a_k$  : -1, -1, +1, +1, ...



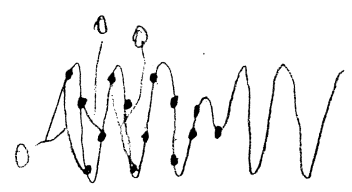
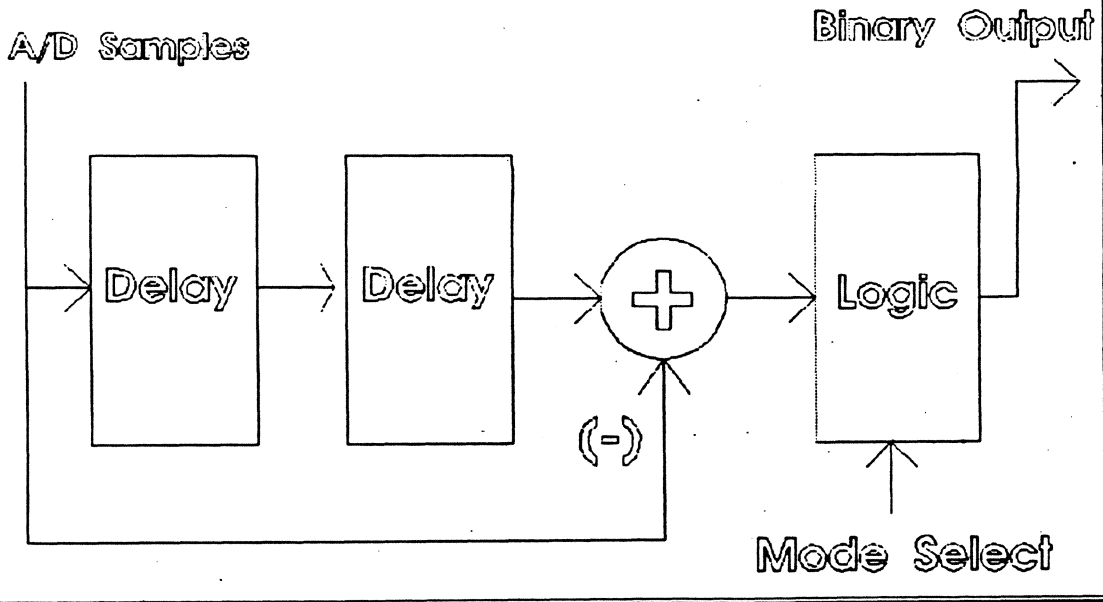
$y_k$  : -2, -2, +2, +2, ...



## Missing Bit Defect Example

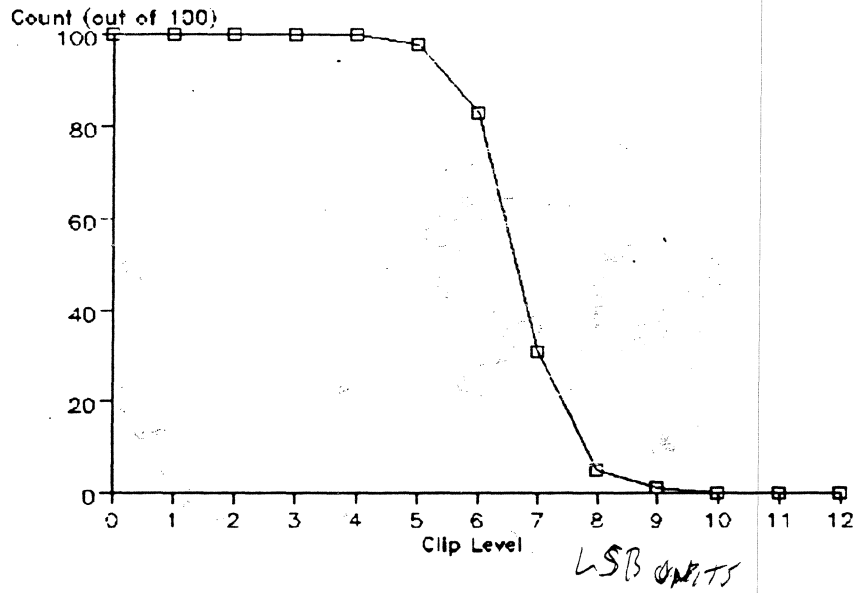


## Defect Detection Circuit

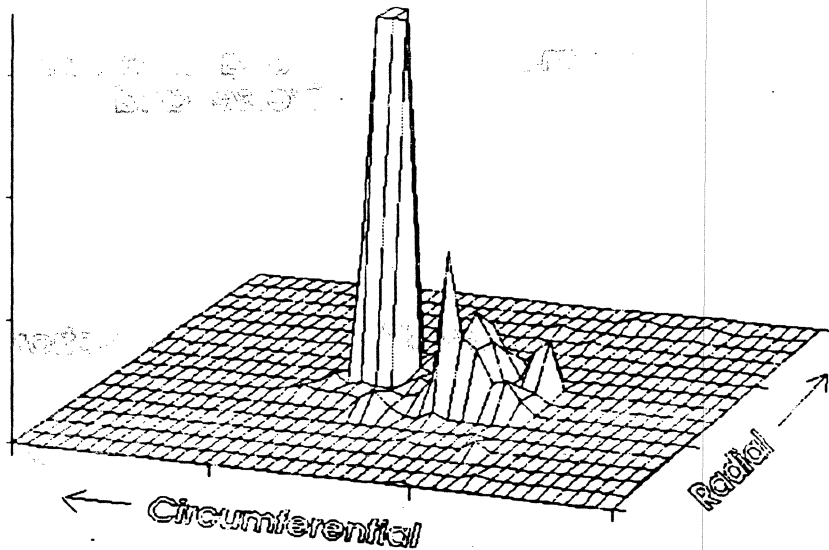


↑  
 will report a long error  
 as two short errors  
 separated by space equal  
 to error length.

# Test Distribution Function

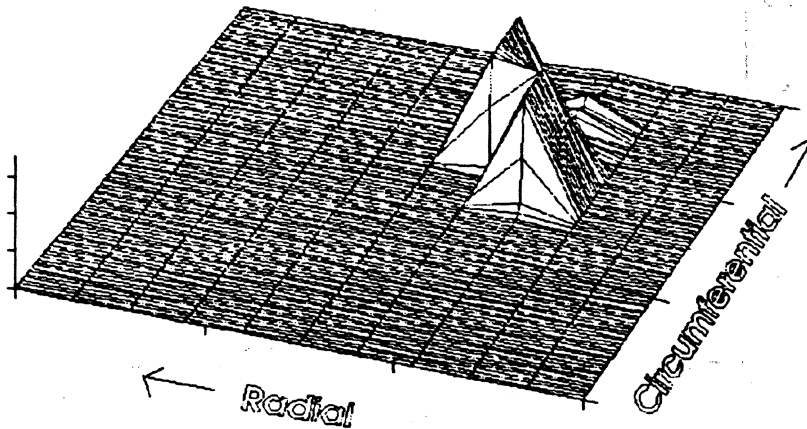


# Void Defect Contour



## Scratch Defect Contour

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## Summary

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Incremental modifications to a standard PRML channel provide diverse and powerful applications:

- Disk surface analysis
- Flying height change detection
- Error rate performance estimation