

Design and implementation of an electro-optical backplane with pluggable in-plane connectors

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ABSTRACT

The design, implementation and characterisation of an electro-optical backplane and an active pluggable optical connector technology are presented. The connection architecture adopted allows line cards to mate and unmate from a passive electro-optical backplane with embedded polymeric waveguides. The active connectors incorporate photonics interfaces operating at 850 nm and a mechanism to passively align the interface to the embedded optical waveguides. A demonstration platform has been constructed to assess the viability of embedded electro-optical backplane technology in dense data storage systems. The electro-optical backplane is comprised of both copper layers and one polymeric optical layer, whereon waveguides have been patterned by a direct laser writing scheme. The optical waveguide design includes arrayed multimode waveguides with a pitch of 250 μm , multiple cascaded waveguide bends, non-orthogonal crossovers and in-plane connector interfaces. In addition, a novel passive alignment method has been employed to simplify high precision assembly of the optical receptacles on the backplane. The in-plane connector interface is based on a two lens free space coupling solution, which reduces susceptibility to contamination. The loss profiles of the complex optical waveguide layout has been characterised and successful transfer of 10.3 Gb/s data along multiple waveguides in the electro-optical backplane demonstrated.

Keywords: optical printed circuit boards, optical interconnect, waveguides, polymer, optical alignment, pluggable optical connector

1. INTRODUCTION

Emerging trends in the data storage industry are poised to severely impact the design of future data storage systems. The last decade has seen a dramatic increase in the volume of data being captured, processed, stored and manipulated as digital information. This information is generated from many sources, including critical business applications, email communications, the Internet and multimedia applications which have collectively fuelled an increase in demand for data storage capacity. However the increase in system bandwidth and density required to satisfy this demand would impose unmanageable cost and performance burdens on future data storage array technologies. In particular, the reduction in size of peripheral storage devices - such as hard disk drives - will cause the density of printed channels on the data storage backplane to go up, while the increase in data communication speeds will expose the system to some of the fundamental constraints incurred when higher frequency data is conveyed along electronic channels. Many of these constraints, which include crosstalk, dielectric loss, skin effect and electro-magnetic interference, can be mitigated to some degree, however at a mounting cost to the overall system design.

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It is proposed that the resulting performance bottleneck be substantially reduced by conveying high speed data optically instead of electronically. This requires that optical channels be incorporated into the system at the printed circuit board (PCB) level. While significant advances have been made in Japan¹ in embedding conventional optical fibres onto printed circuit boards, focus across Europe and North America over the past decade has been on the fabrication of transparent plastic channels (waveguides) directly onto the printed circuit board substrates. Berger², Dangel³, Van Steenberge³, Chappell⁴, Shibata⁵ and Doany⁷ have collectively demonstrated a wide range of waveguide fabrication techniques, however a number of challenges remain to be solved before this technology can reach its full commercial potential.

One crucial requirement is a reliable method of connecting peripheral devices to an optical printed circuit board in a pluggable manner. Recent advances in this field⁸ have shown how fibre-optic cables can be connected orthogonally to optical channels embedded in the circuit board. This approach however requires that right-angled mirrors be incorporated, which can be costly and difficult to implement on a commercial scale. To overcome this issue, we have developed a method of connecting to an optical printed circuit board, which not only precludes the need for embedded mirrors, but also intermediary fibre-optic cables. Xyratex has generated a broad patent portfolio in the field of optical printed circuit boards including passive and active optical connectors, precision alignment and assembly techniques, optical PCB fabrication and novel embedded waveguide structures.

In this paper we consider the design challenges inherent to a modern data storage system and the technologies required to implement an embedded optical architecture. To evaluate the viability of these technologies, we have developed and successfully demonstrated an electro-optical backplane connection system. We describe and characterise the key elements of the system including pluggable active optical connectors, a passive alignment and assembly method, the electro-optical backplane and the complex optical interconnect pattern fabricated thereon. Parallel optical data streams with a modulation rate of 10.3 Gb/s have been successfully conveyed across the backplane between all peripheral devices.

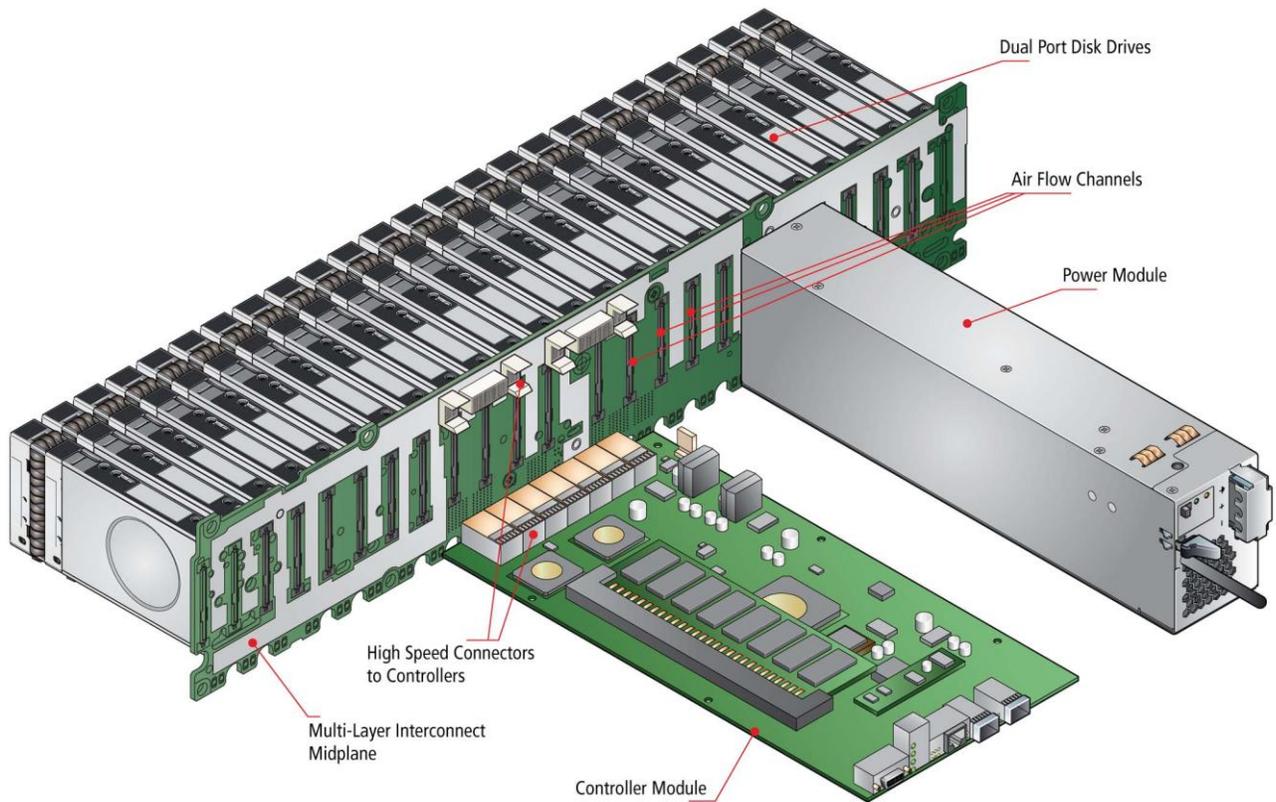


Figure 1: Modern data storage array with hard disk drives connected to one side of the backplane (or midplane) and controller boards and power supplies connected to the other

2. DESIGN CHALLENGES IN MODERN DATA STORAGE ARCHITECTURES

In a typical data storage system (see Figure 1), an array of hard disk drives are connected to one side of a passive backplane (or midplane) while controller modules (or storage bridge bays) and power supplies are connected to the other side. As shown, the backplane and its peripherals are connected in a mutually orthogonal geometry.

2.1 Data storage backplane topology

Due to the critical redundancy requirements in modern data storage systems, the interconnect topology essentially describes a dual star configuration, whereby each disk drive conveys a duplex data link across the backplane to each of two separate controller modules. Each duplex link in turn comprises a pair of transmission lines. A number of additional duplex links directly connect the controller modules to each other. The Storage Bridge Bay Specification⁹ allows for a maximum of 48 disk drives in an enclosure, each supporting two duplex links, with a further 17 duplex links between controller modules. The backplane of a 48 drive storage array would therefore have to accommodate 113 duplex links or 226 high speed transmission lines. The level of fault tolerance and scalability offered by these topologies is significant, however this forces increased complexity and cost into the backplane, particularly when interconnect protocols define serial data rates beyond 10 Gb/s.

2.2 Interconnect protocols in the data storage domain

Serial Attached SCSI (SAS) is the dominant protocol governing the interconnect on data storage backplanes and therefore the maximum speed with which data is conveyed to and from the storage system peripherals (hard drives, controller modules). The SAS roadmap¹⁰ currently defines a serial data rate of 6 Gb/s, which is projected to double to 12 Gb/s by 2012/2013 with the next protocol iteration, while the Fibre Channel protocol, which governs host connectivity in the wider storage network is expected to increase from 8 Gb/s today to 16 Gb/s by 2011¹¹.

2.3 Design and performance constraints

There are a number of factors, which will limit the operational bit rate of the high speed links on a commercial copper backplane. Dielectric absorption and Skin Effect are the key loss mechanisms on a copper trace, which cause an increase in signal attenuation with frequency, while electro-mechanical connectors introduce parasitic capacitance and inductance effects and vias can act as impedance stubs giving rise to partial reflections in the signal path. At signal data rates of 12 Gb/s, additional design measures will be imperative including the use of PCB substrates with lower dielectric loss tangents, electro-mechanical connectors, which impart lower skew on differential traces and enhanced via control techniques such as backdrilling. In order to mitigate rising crosstalk, copper channels will need to be moved further apart, however due to the areal constraints of the enclosure form factor more complex routing patterns will be required and the number of high speed layers in the backplane PCB increased. The available space on the backplane is further restricted by the need for milled access slots to allow sufficient air flow through the system.

Our ultimate aim will be to embed optical channels into the data storage backplane in order to overcome the critical communications bottleneck thereon and develop technologies enabling the peripheral devices to optically plug to and unplug from the backplane.

3. ELECTRO-OPTICAL BACKPLANE WITH POLYMERIC WAVEGUIDES

A passive electro-optical backplane was designed, which includes electrical layers devoted power distribution and low-speed bus communication and one polymeric optical interconnect layer to convey high speed serial data between peripheral connectors (see Figure 2).

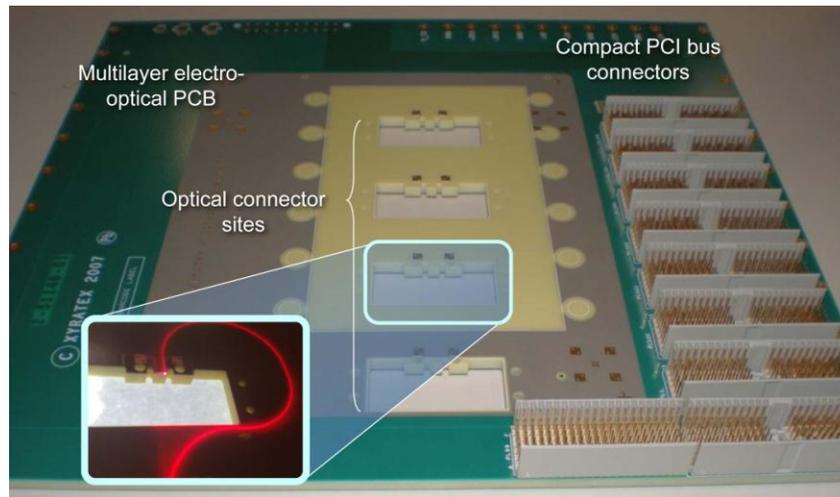


Figure 2: An electro-optical backplane and a waveguide illuminated with 635 nm light exiting one of the connector slots

3.1 Polymer optical waveguide layer

An optical interconnect layer was fabricated on the outer surface of the backplane PCB from a proprietary polymer exhibiting low optical absorption at a wavelength of 850 nm. The optical layer comprised a core, sandwiched between a lower and an upper cladding, whereby the polymer in the core layer had a slightly higher refractive index than that in the bounding cladding layers. Rectangular channels were patterned in the core layer with a cross-section of $70\ \mu\text{m} \times 70\ \mu\text{m}$ defining waveguides of a size suitable to meet the launch and capture tolerances on the optical transmit and receive elements. The refractive index of the core material $n_{\text{core}} = 1.56$, while that of the cladding $n_{\text{cladding}} = 1.524$, giving rise to step-index multimode waveguides with a core - cladding index difference of $\Delta n = 2.3\%$ and a numerical aperture (N.A.) of 0.33.

3.2 Optical interconnect design

The optical interconnect layer, designed by UCL, Xyratex and IBM Zurich was framed by a complex routing pattern (Figure 3), which included four quasi-rectangular optical engagement apertures, non-orthogonal crossovers and cascading bends. It was deemed important that the optical layout reflect the routing constraints that would be typically encountered in a real backplane design. The sizes of the engagement apertures were determined by the pluggable connector prototype, which will be described in the next section. The engagement apertures are interconnected by a point-to-point waveguide network, whereby each aperture maintains one bidirectional link (comprising two waveguides) to every other aperture, resulting in a total of 12 waveguides on the board. All waveguides, but two, have four cascaded 90° bends comprising a negative cascade followed by a positive cascade. A negative cascade occurs when one 90° bend is followed by another 90° bend, which curves in the opposite direction to the first bend, giving rise to an inflection point in the waveguide and a net waveguide angle change of 0° . A positive cascade occurs when one 90° bend is followed by another 90° bend, curving in the same direction as the first and thus giving rise to a net waveguide angle change of 180° . The decomposition of waveguides into right-angled bend segments in this fashion can be an aid to optical simulation. To minimise bend losses, a radius of curvature of 17mm was applied on all bends as this was the maximum permitted by the routing constraints on the board. A number of waveguides intersect in one or more positions along the waveguide. To accommodate space restrictions the crossing angles chosen range from 130° to 160° , which equate to a deviation from the optimum perpendicular crossing angle of 40° to 70° . Though the relatively large minimum bend radii required at this stage would place significant routing constraints on future optical printed circuit board layouts, these could be effectively mitigated by refinement of manufacturing techniques, further flexibility in crossing angles and in particular adoption of in-plane mirrored bends¹².

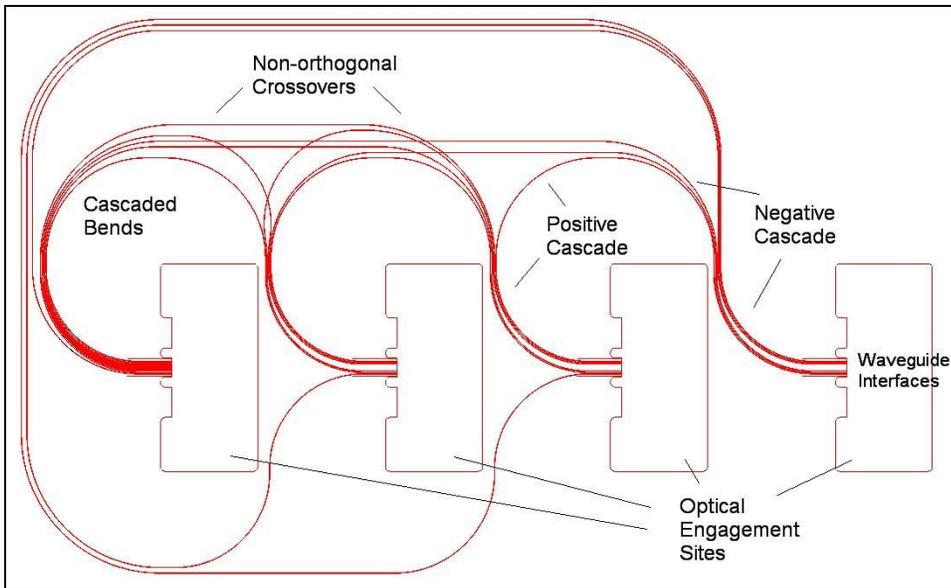


Figure 3: Optical waveguide layout including cascaded bends and non-orthogonal crossovers

3.3 Electro-optical PCB fabrication process

The electro-optical backplane fabricated by Varioprint and IBM Zurich was built up of 10 copper layers and one polymeric layer. Preliminary lamination tests on the electrical layers showed significant thickness tolerances on the complete stack-up of the PCB. If the optical layer were to have been deposited directly onto the electrical PCB, these would have given rise to unacceptably large variations in waveguide height of $\pm 18\mu\text{m}$. To overcome this issue, it was decided that the optical layer be fabricated on a separate flexible substrate, which would later be laminated to the electrical PCB.

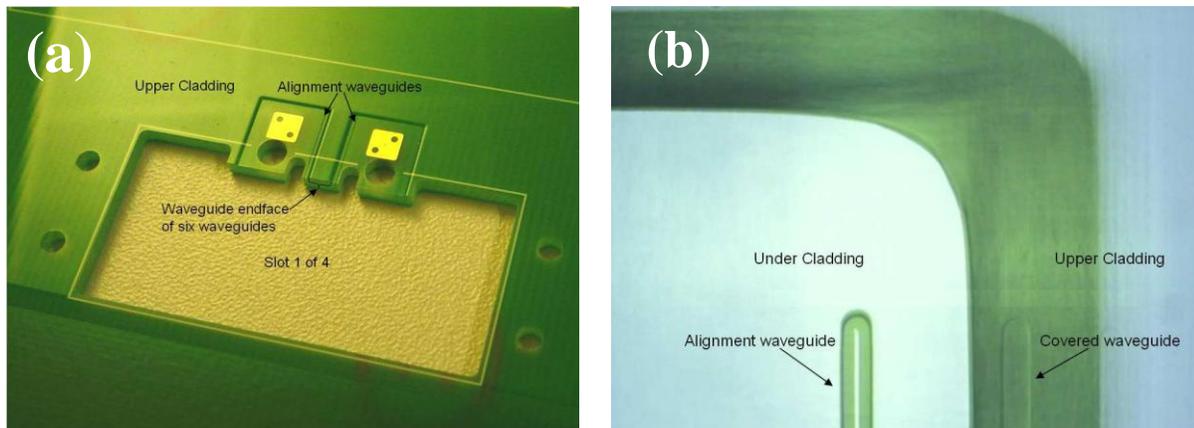


Figure 4: (a) Clearance areas in upper cladding layer to provide mechanical access for optical connector receptacle and waveguide end facet

(b) An exposed waveguide structure serves as a passive alignment feature for the assembly of the optical connector receptacle applied to cladding layer. A higher index liquid core polymer was then deposited onto the lower cladding layer and doctor-bladed to a thickness of $70\ \mu\text{m}$. The core features were patterned using a vectorial Laser Direct Imaging technique whereby an

ultraviolet laser was moved across the substrate to selectively cure those parts of the core layer which would form the waveguides. The upper cladding was deposited in a similar fashion to the lower cladding, however instead of a uniform cure, certain areas of the upper cladding were masked in order to provide mechanical access to registration features in the core layer as shown in Figures 4 (a) and (b). These registration features in turn allow passive assembly of the optical connector receptacle to the PCB according to a proprietary self-alignment technique¹³. Mechanical slots were milled into the polyimide backed optical layer and compliant pins assembled onto the electrical PCB in order to align both substrates together prior to a cold lamination process. Finally the optical engagement apertures were milled out along with the outline of the backplane, which was 262 mm long, 240 mm high and 4 mm thick.

3.4 Insertion loss measurements

The design of the optical interconnect was guided by prior research^{14, 15} into photolithographically fabricated waveguides comprised of Truemode® polymer¹⁶. The measurements conducted by UCL and Xyratex, provided a framework to extrapolate the attenuation on a waveguide exhibiting a variety of geometric characteristics including bends, crossings and interfaces. The waveguides in the optical interconnect layout were designed to exhibit an insertion loss of less than 12 dB. The following experimental setup was used to measure the insertion loss on 9 waveguides on the electro-optical backplane. A 10 metre length of step-index multimode optical fibre with a 50 µm core and $N.A._{fibre} = 0.2$, was connected to an 850 nm VCSEL source on one end, while the other end was aligned and butt-coupled to the waveguide core with a larger $N.A._{waveguide} = 0.33$. A number of 15 cm diameter winds in the fibre provided sufficient inter-mode coupling to ensure a uniform modal distribution pattern at the launch point into the waveguide. The optical power at the launch point was measured to be 0.00 ± 0.10 dBm. A silicon photodetector with an 8 mm aperture was aligned to the output of the waveguide to measure insertion loss, which included coupling losses at the fibre-waveguide interface, absorption by the propagation medium, transition losses due to modal mismatch between bend segments and losses incurred at crossing junctions. The launch fibre was mounted on a motorised translation stage with sub-micron step resolution, which was controlled to optimise light capture by the waveguide core. An index matching fluid ($n = 1.5694 \pm 0.0005$ at 589.3 nm) was also applied to the fibre-waveguide and waveguide-photodetector interfaces to reduce surface scattering and Fresnel back-reflections. Insertion loss measurements were made on 9 waveguides both with and without index matching fluid applied.

The measurement results are shown in Figure 5 along with the original calculated values and highlight the strong dependence of loss on end facet roughness.

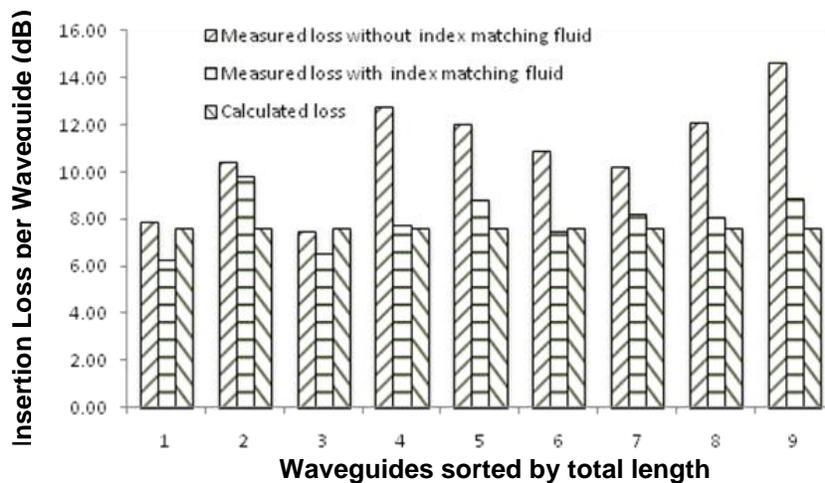


Figure 5: Projected and measured values for insertion loss on a group of 9 waveguides

4. ACTIVE OPTICAL BACKPLANE CONNECTOR

4.1 Optical backplane connection architecture

As the backplane and its peripherals are connected in a mutually orthogonal way, Xyratex developed an in-plane connection scheme whereby optical devices housed on the mating edge of the peripherals can be butt-coupled to optical channels embedded on the backplane (Figure 6a). According to this scheme the optical axis of the peripheral device is collinear with the embedded optical channels, thus eliminating the need for right-angled mirrors and minimising the number of boundaries incurring optical loss. We developed a prototype active pluggable connector to connect peripheral line cards to the optical layer embedded in the backplane. The connector comprised a parallel optical transceiver, connector housing and a pluggable engagement mechanism (Figure 6b).

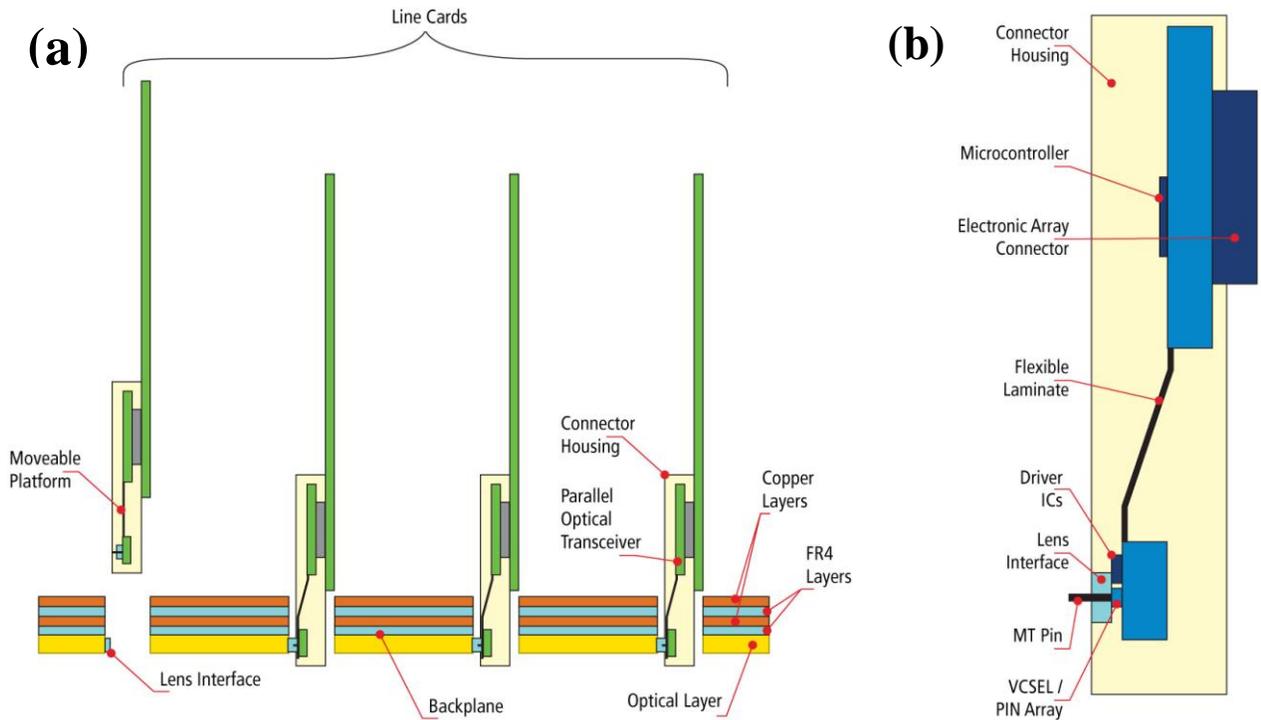


Figure 6: (a) Optical backplane connection scheme; active pluggable connectors housed on the edge of peripheral line cards engage with the embedded optical layer in the backplane PCB. (b) Active optical connector comprising a parallel optical transceiver, connector housing and engagement mechanism.

4.2 Parallel optical transceiver

We developed a quad parallel optical transceiver circuit to accommodate the proprietary connection technique. The transceiver circuit comprised three sections: a base section, a bridge and a moveable optical platform. The circuit was constructed on a flexible laminate substrate, which was reinforced with rigid FR4 layers in the base section and optical platform leaving the intermediary bridge section flexible. The base section allowed for the electrical connection of the transceiver to the peripheral line card by means of a high speed array connector. Figure 7 (a) shows the transceiver circuit, while Figure 7 (b) shows the connector housing into which the transceiver was mounted.

A microcontroller provided a 2-wire control interface through which various parameters of the transceiver could be externally controlled or monitored including laser bias and modulation currents, receiver squelch, signal detect and IC temperature. The design allowed for multiple transceivers to operate as slave devices on a single 2-wire communications bus.

The moveable optical platform contained a quad vertical cavity surface emitting laser (VCSEL) driver and VCSEL array for optical conversion of electronic signals from the peripheral device (via the base section) and a quad transimpedance amplifier and PIN photodiode array for electronic conversion of optical signals received from the backplane waveguides. The VCSELs emitted at a wavelength of 850 nm with a full beam divergence of 25° giving rise to an N.A. of 0.21, roughly two thirds that of the backplane waveguides. The PIN photodiodes were responsive to the same wavelength and had a circular receive aperture of 70 μm diameter.

Each channel was capable of sustaining a data-rate of up to 10.7 Gb/s giving rise to an aggregate bandwidth of 86 Gb/s. The optical connection interface comprised a collimating 1x12 microlens array and a pair of mechanical registration pins, designed to be compliant with the MTP standard for parallel optical interfaces. This allowed stand-alone testing of both the transceiver and the backplane waveguides with an MTP fibre-optic patchcord. The flexible bridge allowed the optical platform to float relative to the peripheral device, thus ensuring that when coupled to the backplane, the optical connection remained relatively impervious to transient movements and vibrations in the system.

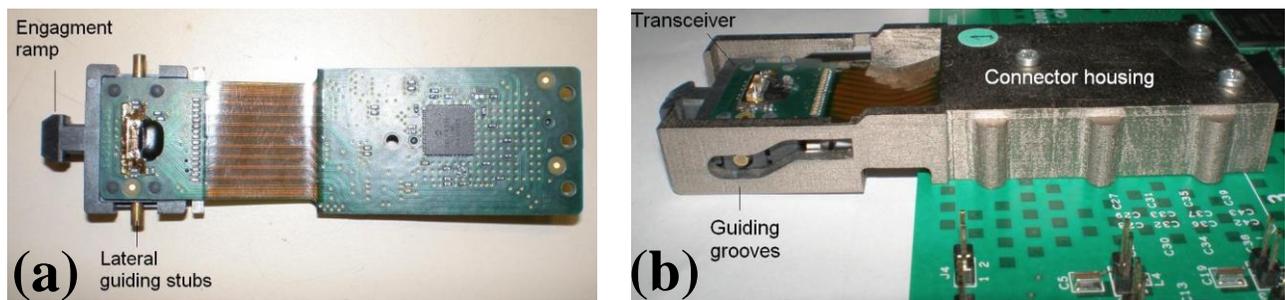


Figure 7: (a) Parallel optical transceiver circuit with lateral guiding stubs. (b) Connector housing with transceiver circuit incorporated

4.3 Backplane connector receptacle and dual lens coupling solution

The collimating lens array on the transceiver formed one half of a dual lens arrangement. The second lens array was housed in a high precision plastic receptacle, which was assembled over the waveguide interface on the backplane using the passive alignment structures described in section 3.3 (Figure 8a). When coupled, the transceiver lens array in combination with the backplane lens array served to image the VCSEL output into the backplane waveguide and the waveguide output into the photodiode aperture. The free space distance between the VCSELs, photodiodes, waveguides and their respective lens arrays was chosen to ensure that, at the point of interface between the two lenses, the optical beam was expanded to a width many times that of the source width, be the source VCSEL or waveguide. One crucial benefit of this arrangement was to make the connector far less susceptible to contamination as any stray contaminants that settle on the lens interface would block a smaller proportion of the expanded beam than they would a beam of similar size to the sources (Figure 8b). The backplane lens receptacle also includes two vertical stubs protruding from its top surface. These stubs serve to coarsely align a second larger receptacle to the waveguide interface, prior to it being bolted to the backplane.

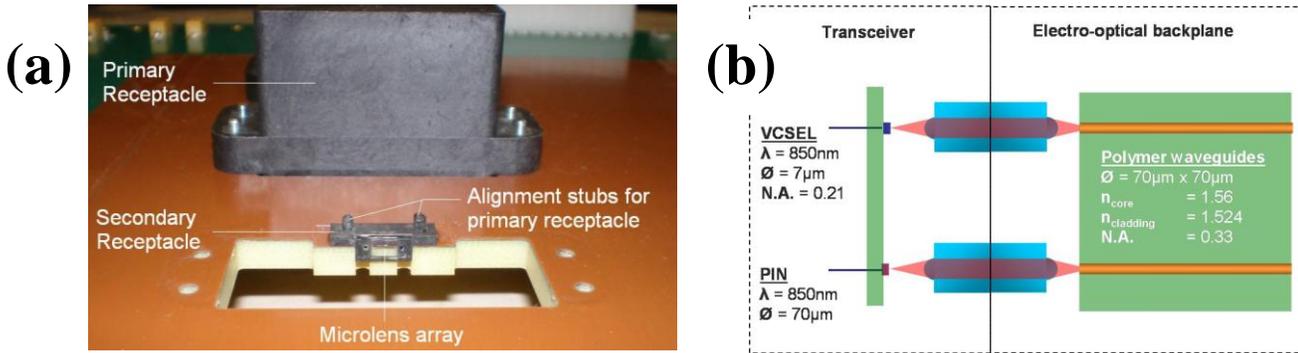


Figure 8: (a) Primary and secondary receptacles assembled onto electro-optical backplane. (b) Dual lens coupling interface between transceiver and electro-optical backplane

4.4 Pluggable connector mechanism

As shown in Figure 7 (a) and (b), the transceiver circuit was assembled into a connector housing wherein two lateral guiding stubs fixed to the optical platform were slotted into compliant grooves in the housing. This enabled the controlled movement of the optical platform relative to the housing as required during the two-stage pluggable connection process, which is described as follows:

As the peripheral line card is first inserted into the backplane, the front end of the connector housing is funneled into the larger backplane receptacle and the transceiver lens array moved into position under the backplane lens array housed in the smaller receptacle (Figure 9a).

As the connector is then pushed further into the larger backplane receptacle, the lateral guiding stubs on the optical platform are forced along the grooves in the connector housing, which are angled such as to move the transceiver lens array towards the backplane lens array. The MTP pins on the optical platform then engage with the MTP compliant slots in the lens receptacle aligning both lens arrays to each other with a high degree of precision (Figure 9b).

When the peripheral line card is extracted, the connection process is reversed.

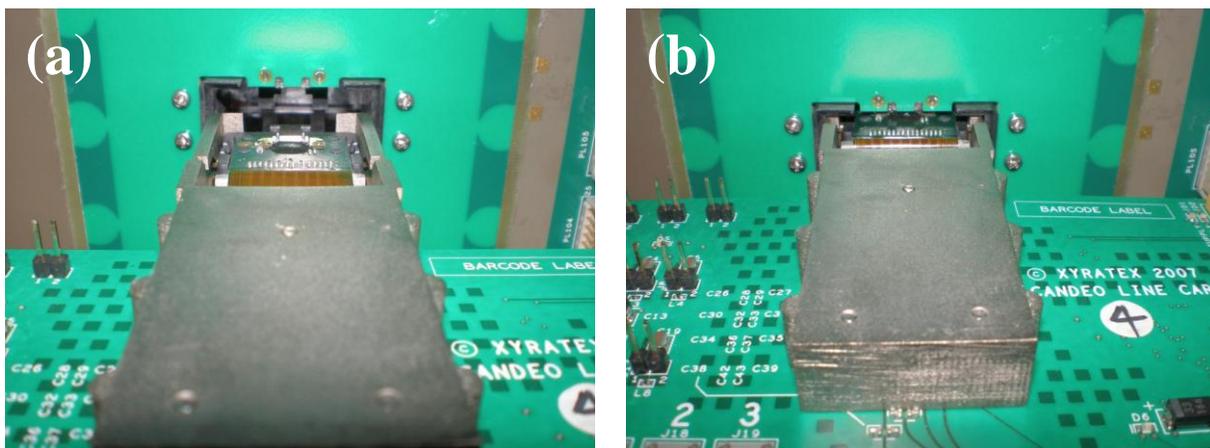


Figure 9: (a) First stage of optical backplane connection process: connector housing is slotted into larger backplane receptacle and coarsely aligned with backplane lens array. (b) Second stage: optical platform lens array is butt-coupled to backplane lens array.

5. DEMONSTRATION PLATFORM

To evaluate the viability of these technologies, Xyratex constructed a demonstration platform, which comprised a 10 U (445 mm) high Compact PCI chassis with a single board computer, an electro-optical backplane and 4 peripheral test cards, each housing a pluggable optical connector.

5.1 Peripheral test boards

The peripheral test cards were designed to relay external test data to each other across the backplane via the pluggable connectors. Each test card included a reconfigurable crosspoint switch to map test data from 4 commercial XFP ports on the front end to the connector housed on the backplane end. The switch also supported multicasting, whereby test data on any of its inputs could be copied to multiple outputs. This way one external test stream could be mapped to all 4 VCSEL transmitters in the connector simultaneously allowing it be characterised while fully stressed.

We developed a graphical user interface (GUI) for the operating system on the single board computer to provide selective user access to each peripheral line card connected to the backplane. The GUI allows the user to configure the XFP and crosspoint switch parameters on each line card, in addition to giving full control over the parallel optical transceiver.

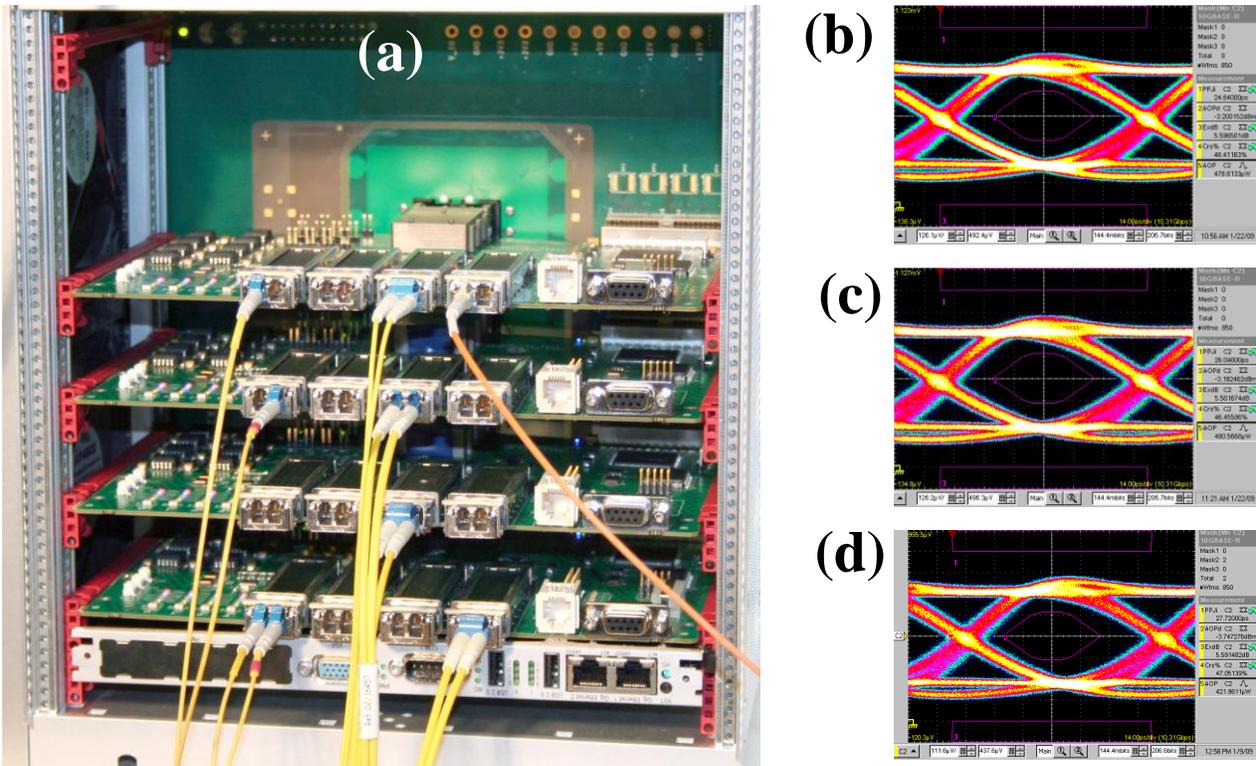


Figure 10: (a) Demonstration platform comprising a Compact-PCI chassis with single board computer and a hybrid electro-optical backplane.

(b) Eye diagram measured at 10.3 Gb/s on waveguide between first and second connector slots

(c) Eye diagram measured at 10.3 Gb/s between first and third connector slots

(d) Eye diagram measured at 10.3 Gb/s between first and fourth connector slots

5.2 High speed data transmission measurement

An external 10 Gb Ethernet LAN traffic source was arranged to convey a 10.3 Gb/s test data stream along a fibre-optic cable to one of the commercial XFP devices on the front end of a peripheral test card in the demonstration platform. The XFP device converted the optical data stream to a serial electronic data stream on the test card, which was then mapped by the crosspoint switch to one of the VCSEL transmitters in the connector attached to that card and reconverted into an optical data stream. As the connector was optically engaged to the backplane, the optical data stream was launched into a waveguide and conveyed to the receive element of another connector on a different test card in the chassis. The data was then converted to a serial electronic data stream, mapped to an XFP port on that test card and reconverted to an optical data stream on the output of the XFP device. Finally a fibre-optic cable connected the XFP output port to a communications signal analyser where the test data was characterised.

In total 9 waveguides were tested as described and 10.3 Gb/s test data has been successfully conveyed between all test cards and their prototype connectors with an acceptable level of signal recovery. Figures 10 (b), (c) and (d) show the eye diagrams of 3 typical waveguides of different lengths. The peak to peak jitter was consistently measured to be around 26 ps.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The burgeoning demand for faster and more compact data storage systems is fuelling the need for embedded optical interconnect solutions. To this end we have developed and successfully demonstrated an active optical interconnect solution which will allow peripheral devices to plug into and unplug from an electro-optical backplane. Our results have been promising and show that a complex optical interconnect pattern of polymer waveguides could be used to effectively convey high speed optical data across a densely populated board with a rack size of at least 6U.

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