





Scientific Instruments - and -Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Spring 2025, 18, 2025 Oscillators Spring March 18, 2025 Fire PhD Students and Young Scientists

INRIM, Torino, Italy

Part 1: General

Part 2: Phase noise and oscillators

Part 3: The International System of Units SI

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Lecture 6 Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

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Contents

- Phase Noise
- Allan variances

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The Clock Signal

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The clock signal



Frequency, Hz	Angular frequency, rad/s	Relation	Context
ν	ω	$v = \omega/2\pi$	carrier
f	ω	$f = \omega/2\pi$	Fourier analysis, modulation

Often ω is used as a shorthand for $2\pi\nu$ or $2\pi f$ without saying, but the subscript is consistent







The clock signal



 $V_0 lpha_{
m pp}$

Cartesian coordinates

 V_0

$$v(t) = V_0 \cos \omega_0 t + n_c(t) \cos \omega_0 t - n_s(t) \sin \omega_0 t$$

Low noise approximation

$$\alpha(t) = \frac{n_c(t)}{V_0}$$
 and $\varphi(t) = \frac{n_s(t)}{V_0}$

τ^* is not the same " τ " of the Allan variance

A misleading representation

- The caption says instantaneous output voltage of an oscillator
- But the picture is a unrealistic representation of AM and PM noise
- The problem is that additive white noise is dominant
- Other, slower types of noise are our main concern
- The new version of the IEEE standard uses my figure ③ Goes after the review of modulations



Figure A.1—Instantaneous output voltage of an oscillator

Eye diagram

BPSK $v_{RF} = b_k \cos \omega t$, where $b_k = \pm 1$ is the k_{th} bit transmitted



Timing impacts on the Bit Error Rate (BER)

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Frequency domain



Signal with AM/PM noise

- In the absence of noise, the clock signal is a Dirac $\delta(v)$
- Noise broadens the spectrum
- The difference between AM and PM noise is hidden here

The line width does not say the true story

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- In the absence of noise, the clock signal is a Dirac $\delta(v)$
- Noise broadens the spectrum
- The difference between AM and PM noise is hidden here

The bath hub diagram



notice that the *frequency* affects the resolution

Planck time

Representations of the Clock Signal

 $v(t) = V_0[1 + \alpha(t)] \cos[2\pi v_0 t + \varphi(t)]$

Phasor – Fresnel vector



Notation

Power electronics

V is the RMS value
P = VI*

Microwaves

• V is the peak value

•
$$P = \frac{1}{2}VI^*$$

 $v(t) = V_0[1 + \alpha(t)] \cos[2\pi v_0 t + \varphi(t)]$

Freeze the $\omega_0 t$ oscillation, add an imaginary part

$$\mathbf{V} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}} [1 + \alpha(t)] [\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi]$$

Strictly, the phase representation applies to static α and φ . The extension to (slow) varying $\alpha(t)$ and $\varphi(t)$ is obvious

Modulation and sidebands



Phase modulation – Math

 $v(t) = e^{i(\omega_0 + m \sin \omega_m)t}$

Phase modulated signal, with modulation index m

$$e^{im\sin\theta} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} J_n(m) e^{in\theta}$$

The full frequency domain representation contains an infinite number of sidebands ruled by the Jacobi–Anger expansion

use

$$v(t) = e^{i\omega_0 t} + \frac{m}{2}e^{i(\omega_0 + \omega_m)t} - \frac{m}{2}e^{i(\omega_0 - \omega_m)t}$$

For small *m*, the expansion can be truncated to 3 terms, n = -1...+1Use the asymptotic expansion $J_0(m) \approx 1$, $J_{-1}(m) \approx -m/2$, $J_1(m) \approx m/2$,

Freeze ω_0 —> phase vector representation

$$V(t) = 1 + \frac{m}{2} \left[e^{i\omega_m t} - e^{-i\omega_m t} \right]$$
equivalent to

 $V(t) = 1 + im\sin(\omega_m t)$

 $\sin \theta = \frac{1}{2j} \left(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta} \right)$

A swinging phase θ is equivalent to a swinging frequency $\Delta f = (1/2\pi) (d\theta/dt)$

$$(\Delta f)(t) = m \frac{\omega_m}{2\pi} \cos(\omega_m t) = m f_m \cos(\omega_m t)$$

Analytic signal

Standard representation of signals in microwaves and optics

$$v(t) = V_0 \left[1 + \alpha(t)\right] \cos \left[\omega_0 t + \varphi(t)\right]$$
$$\overset{\circ}{\checkmark}$$
$$\dot{v}(t) = V_0 \left[1 + \alpha(t)\right] e^{i\omega_0 t} e^{i\varphi(t)}$$





Low-pass process / pre-envelope

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Often used in telecomm





Noise Spectra

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Power Spectral Density (PSD)

Definition of PSD

 $S(f) = \mathcal{F}\{\mathcal{C}(\tau)\}$

 $\mathcal{C}(\tau)$ is the autocovariance $\mathcal{F}\{\ \}$ is the Fourier Transform

Correct SI units

- dim $[\varphi(t)]$ = rad
- dim $[S_{\varphi}(f)] = \operatorname{rad}^2/\operatorname{Hz}$
- The decibel (dB) is non-SI accepted for use with SI units
- Log scale \rightarrow dBrad²/Hz

Thermal limit $S_{\varphi} = kT_{eq}/P_0$ Power P_0 , thermal energy kT_{eq} **Practical estimation**

$$S_{\varphi}(f) = \frac{2}{T} \langle \Phi_T(f) \Phi_T^*(f) \rangle_m$$

- Based on WK theorem
- Single-sided S(f), f > 0
- Fourier transform Φ_T of the digitized and truncated φ
- Average on *m* realizations

The quantity $\mathcal{L}(f)$

Why do we change symbol after changing the unit?

 $\mathcal{L}(f) = \frac{1}{2}S_{\varphi}(f)$ IEEE Std 1139

- Always in log scale using $10 \log_{10}(\mathcal{L})$
- Non-SI unit dBc/Hz
- Literally, "c" is a square angle, $c = 2 rad^2$

Obsolete definition of $\mathcal{L}(f)$



Always given in dBc/Hz using $10 \log_{10}(\mathcal{L})$ dBc means dB below the carrier

Experimentally incorrect

Instruments measure φ , not N/P_0

Unsuitable to low f or to large noise

At sufficiently low f, it happens that $10 \log_{10} \mathcal{L}(f) > 0 \text{ dB} \rightarrow$ Denominator nulls Incorrect way to assess PM noise $\mathcal{L} = N/P_0$

- Pure PM noise $S_{\varphi}(f) = 2N/P_0$
- Equal amount of AM and PM noise $S_{\varphi}(f) = N/P_0$
- Pure AM noise

 $S_{\varphi}(f)=0$

Misleading

- Intended to describe PM noise, but the definition does not match
- Non-SI unit dBc/Hz
- A lot of confusion comes from $\mathcal{L}(f)$

Additive phase and amplitude noise



Need new, clearer figures

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The polynomial law – or power law

Laurent polynomials -> generalized polynomials which include negative exponents



Amplitude noise

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- Not allowed to diverge
- Only white and flicker al low *f*
- Locally, $1/f^2$ in oscillators

What actual spectra look like



Quantities Associated to the Clock Signal

 $v(t) = V_0[1 + \alpha(t)] \cos[2\pi v_0 t + \varphi(t)]$

Phase time (fluctuation) $\mathbf{x}(t)$

 $v(t) = V_0[1 + \alpha(t)] \cos[2\pi v_0 t + \varphi(t)]$

- Allow $\varphi(t)$ to exceed $\pm \pi$, and count the no of turns
- The phase-time fluctuation associated to $\varphi(t)$ is

Definition: $\mathbf{x}(t) = \frac{\varphi(t)}{2\pi\nu_0}$

Jitter and wander

$$v(t) = V_0[1 + \alpha(t)] \cos[2\pi v_0 t + \varphi(t)]$$

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \frac{\varphi(t)}{2\pi\nu_0}$$

- ITU defines jitter as the variations in the significant instants of a clock or data signal, vs a "perfect" clock
- Jitter —> Usually fast phase changes f > a few tens of Hz
- Wander —> Usually slower phase changes (due to temperature, voltage, etc.)
- Designers first care about consistency of logic functions,
 - First, maximum timing error
 - Sometimes RMS value and probability distribution
- Time and Frequency community focuses on
 - PM noise spectra
 - Delay spectra
 - Two-sample variances (ADEV, TDEV, etc.)

Unlike x(t), the **jitter** includes telecom-oriented industrial standards

The frequency fluctuation $(\Delta \nu)(t)$

Freeze the random phase, and move the fluctuation to the frequency



The fractional-frequency fluctuation y(t)



Analogies

- The "error" of a wristwatch is usually expressed in seconds or minutes.
- The frequency of the internal oscillator (5 Hz for the balance wheel, and 215 Hz for the quartz) does not matter.
- In TF, the "time error" is denoted with x(t) [seconds]

- The fractional "error" of an instrument or of a standard is often expressed in percent (%) or in partsper-million (ppm).
- This way of expressing the "error" is independent of the value of the measured quantity
- In TF, the "fractional frequency error" is denoted with y(t) [dimensionless]

Physical quantities – Time domain



Physical quantities – Frequency domain



A Useful notation

boldface notation

 $\begin{aligned} & \textbf{total} = \text{nominal} + \text{fluctuation} \\ & \boldsymbol{\varphi}(t) = 2\pi\nu_0 t + \boldsymbol{\varphi}(t) & \text{phase} \\ & \boldsymbol{\nu}(t) = \nu_0 + (\Delta\nu)(t) & \text{frequency} \\ & \textbf{x}(t) = t + \textbf{x}(t) & \text{time} \\ & \textbf{y}(t) = 1 + \textbf{y}(t) & \text{fractional frequency} \end{aligned}$

• Frequency is multiplied by a rational number

Definition:
$$v_o = \frac{\mathcal{N}}{\mathcal{D}} v_i$$

- Phase and frequency are scaled up/down
- The normalized quantities x(t) and y(t) are independent of v, and preserved

Frequency synthesis

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Analogy to a gearwork



Maximum time fluctuation

- Convert phase noise PSD into time-fluctuation PSD
- Integrate over the suitable bandwidth
- Bandwidth:
 - lower limit is set by the "size" of the system
 - upper limit is set by the circuit bandwidth
The family of Allan variances

$$\sigma_{\mathsf{Y}}^{2}(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[\overline{\mathsf{y}}_{2} - \overline{\mathsf{y}}_{1}\right]^{2}\right\}$$

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Variance



Try yourself with y = at



- Take n samples spaced by T_0
- Experimental $\sigma^2 \propto T^2$, depends on n
- The expectation does not exist, unless we fix *T*

Path to the Allan variance



Notice that *y* is still an unspecified quantity

End of lecture 6







Lecture 7 Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

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Contents

- Counters (Π , Λ and Ω)
- Allan variances
- The measurement of phase noise

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Don't get confused by the factor 1/2

Experimental variance *y* is a generic variable

$$\sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \mu)^{2}$$

set n = 2, and expand

$$\sigma^2 = (y_2 - \mu)^2 + (y_2 - \mu)^2$$

boring, trivial algebra

$$= (y_2 - \frac{1}{2}[y_2 + y_1])^2 + (y_2 - \frac{1}{2}[y_2 + y_1])^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{4}(y_2^2 - 2y_2y_1 + y_1^2)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(y_2^2 - 2y_2y_1 + y_1^2)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(y_2^2 - 2y_2y_1 + y_1^2)^2$$

Two-sample variance	$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{2}(y_2 - y_1)^2$
------------------------	---------------------------------------

Formal definition of the Allan variance

let
$$\overline{y} = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + \tau} y(t) dt$$

Average fractional frequency fluctuation

lefinition
AVAR)
$$\sigma_{\mathsf{Y}}^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{1}{2}[\overline{\mathsf{y}}_2 - \overline{\mathsf{y}}_1]^2\right\}$$

same as the experimental variance with n = 2, the smallest possible

expands as

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{Y}}^{2}(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{1}{\tau}\int_{\tau}^{2\tau} \mathbf{y}(t) dt - \frac{1}{\tau}\int_{0}^{\tau} \mathbf{y}(t) dt\right]^{2}\right\}$$

Evaluating, replace the expectation with the average on *m* samples

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{Y}}^2(\tau) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} [\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{k+1} - \bar{\mathbf{y}}_k]^2$$

$$\sigma_{\mathsf{Y}}^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{\mathsf{x}_2 - 2\mathsf{x}_1 + \mathsf{x}_0}{\tau}\right]^2\right\}$$

Statistical interpretation

This is how we introduced the Allan variance

$$\sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \mu)^{2}$$

Use the smallest *n*, and take the expectation

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{Y}}^{2}(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{1}{2}[\overline{\mathbf{y}}_{2} - \overline{\mathbf{y}}_{1}]^{2}\right\}$$

Wavelet interpretation – What is a wavelet

A wavelet is a unit shock

Nonzero activity limited to
the
$$[-T/2, T/2]$$
 intervalZero averageEnergy equal one $\int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |w(t)|^2 dt = 1 - \epsilon$ $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w(t) dt = 0$ $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |w(t)|^2 dt = 1$

With continuous (power-type) signals, we use need the normalization

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Power equal one

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |w(t)|^2 dt = 1$$

D. B. Percival DB, A. T. Walden AT, Wavelet methods for time series analysis, Cambridge 2000, ISBN 0-521-64068-7

Wavelet interpretation

wavelet-like variance

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{V}}^2 = \mathbb{E}\left\{ \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathsf{y}(t) \, w_A(t;\tau) \, dt \right]^2 \right\}$$

$$w_A(t;\tau) = \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau} & \text{for } 0 < t < \tau \\ +\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau} & \text{for } \tau < t < 2\tau \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$



energy

$$E\{w_A\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |w_A(t;\tau)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{\tau}$$
 the Allan variance differs from a wavelet variance in the normalization on power, instead of on energy

Filter interpretation

The impulse response of the measurement (same as w_A) approximates a half-octave bandpass filter centered at $f\tau \simeq 0.45$

$$S_{\mathsf{Y}}(f) \longrightarrow [H(f)|^2 \longrightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dots df \longrightarrow \sigma_{\mathsf{Y}}^2(\tau)$$

$$\sigma_{\mathsf{Y}}^2(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S^I(f) |H_A(f;\tau)|^2 df$$

$$|H_A(f;\tau)|^2 = 2 \frac{\sin^2(\pi\tau f)}{(\pi\tau f)^2}$$



Derivation of the transfer function – Tools

Rectangular function



Shift operator



 $H_{\text{shift}}(f) = H(f) \times e^{i\theta}$

Split operator

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 $H_{\text{split}}(f) = H(f) \times i2\sin(\pi\tau f)$

Euler equation

$$\sin\theta = \frac{1}{2i} \left(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta} \right)$$

Type equation here.* Convolution operator

Transfer function $|H_A(f)|^2$



Allan variance
normalization

$$a = 1/\sqrt{2}$$
 $h_A(t)$
 $1/\sqrt{2\tau}$
 $H_A(f) = i\sqrt{2} \frac{\sin^2(\pi\tau f)}{\pi\tau f}$
 $H_A(f)|^2 = 2 \frac{\sin^4(\pi\tau f)}{(\pi\tau f)^2}$
 $\int_0^\infty |H_A(f)|^2 df = \frac{1}{2\tau}$

Transfer function $|H_{\Lambda}(f)|^2$



Transfer function $|H_M(f)|^2$



Weighted average



П (classical) counter



Λ Counter



Ω (linear-regression) counter

E. Rubiola & al, IEEE Transact. UFFC 63(7) pp.961–969, July 2016

Time stamping



 $\mathbf{x}(t) = t + \mathbf{x}(t)$ phase time $\mathbf{y}(t) = 1 + \mathbf{y}(t)$ fractional frequency

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \varphi(t)/2\pi\nu_0$$
 fluctuation
 $\mathbf{y}(t) = \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)$

y is estimated with a linear regression on the **x** series

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\sum_{i} \left(\mathbf{x}_{i} - \langle \mathbf{x} \rangle, t_{i} - \langle t \rangle \right)}{\sum_{i} \left(t_{i} - \langle t \rangle \right)^{2}}.$$

Linear regression on a sequence of time stamps provides accurate estimation of frequency and best rejection of white PM noise

A modern approach



Use the average or the expectation

- It's all about averaging
- Uniform —> AVAR
- Triangle —> MVAR constant term of the least-square fit of phase data
- Parabolic —> PVAR slope term of the least-square fit of phase data
- Other options are possible

Weighted Average

$$\overline{\mathbf{y}} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{y}(t) w(t) dt$$



Generalized Allan variance

Allan variance

$$\sigma_{\mathsf{Y}}^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\!\frac{1}{2} \left[\overline{\mathsf{Y}}_2 - \overline{\mathsf{Y}}_1\right]^2\!\right\}$$



Generalized Allan variance

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{Y}}^{2}(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [\mathbf{y}(t)w(t)]^{2} dt\right\}$$



Π Estimator —> Allan Variance

given a series of contiguous non-overlapped measures



the Allan variance is easily evaluated

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{1}{2} \left[\overline{y}_{k+1} - \overline{y}_k\right]^2\right\}$$

Modified Allan variance

definition

$$\mod \sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left(\frac{1}{\tau} \int_{(i+n)\tau_0}^{(i+2n)\tau_0} y(t) \, dt - \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{i\tau_0}^{(i+n)\tau_0} y(t) \, dt \right) \right]^2 \right\}$$
with $\tau = n\tau_0$.

wavelet-like va

$$\operatorname{mod} \sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \left[\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} y(t) \, w_M(t) \, dt \right]^2 \right\}$$

$$w_M = \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau^2}t & 0 < t < \tau\\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau^2}(2t-3) & \tau < t < 2\tau\\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\tau^2}(t-3) & 2\tau < t < 3\tau\\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$



energy

$$E\{w_M\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} w_M^2(t) \, dt = \frac{1}{2\tau}$$

 $E\{w_M\} = \frac{1}{2} E\{w_A\}$ compare the energy

this explains why the mod Allan variance is always lower than the Allan variance

Overlapped Λ estimator -> MVAR

by feeding a series of L-estimates of frequency in the formula of the Allan variance

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{1}{2} \left[\overline{y}_{k+1} - \overline{y}_k\right]^2\right\}$$

as they were P-estimates



one gets exactly the modified Allan variance!

$$\mod \sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left(\frac{1}{\tau} \int_{(i+n)\tau_0}^{(i+2n)\tau_0} y(t) \, dt - \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{i\tau_0}^{(i+n)\tau_0} y(t) \, dt \right) \right]^2 \right\}$$

with $\tau = n\tau_0$.

Non-overlapped Λ estimator —> TrVAR

by feeding a series of L-estimates of frequency in the formula of the Allan variance $\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[\overline{y}_{k+1} - \overline{y}_k\right]^2\right\}$

as they were P-estimates



one gets the triangular variance!

MVAR by-2 decimation rule



Spectra vs variances



noise type	$S_{y}(f)$	AVAR ${}^{A}\sigma_{y}^{2}(\tau)$	MVAR ${}^{M}\!\sigma_{y}^{2}(\tau)$	HVAR ${}^{H}\!\sigma_{y}^{2}(\tau)$	PVAR ${}^{P}\!\sigma_{y}^{2}(\tau)$	TVAR ${}^{T}\!\sigma_{x}^{2}(\tau)$
Blue PM	$h_3 f^3$	$\frac{3f_H^2}{8\pi^2}\frac{h_3}{\tau^2}$	$\frac{10\gamma + \ln 48 + 10\ln(\pi f_H \tau)}{16\pi^4} \frac{h_3}{\tau^4}$	$\frac{5f_{H}^{2}}{12\pi^{2}}\frac{h_{3}}{\tau^{2}}$	$\frac{9[\gamma + \ln(4\pi f_H \tau)]}{4\pi^4} \frac{h_3}{\tau^4}$	$\frac{10\gamma + \ln 48 + 10\ln(\pi f_H \tau)}{48\pi^4} \frac{h_3}{\tau^2}$
		$0.0380 \; f_H { m h}_3/ au^2$	$\frac{[10\gamma + \ln 48 + 10\ln \pi]}{16\pi^4} = 0.0135$	$0.0422~f_Hh_3/\tau^2$	$\frac{9[\gamma + \ln(4\pi)]}{4\pi^4} = 0.0718$	$\frac{10\gamma + \ln 48 + 10\ln \pi}{48\pi^2} = 0.00451$
White PM	$h_2 f^2$	$\frac{3f_H}{4\pi^2}\frac{h_2}{\tau^2}$	$\frac{3}{8\pi^2} \frac{h_2}{\tau^3}$	$\frac{5f_H}{6\pi^2} \frac{h_2}{\tau^2}$	$\frac{3}{2\pi^2}\frac{h_2}{\tau^3}$	$\frac{1}{8\pi^2} \frac{h_2}{\tau}$
		$0.0760 \; f_H h_2 / \tau^2$	$0.0380 \; h_2/ au^3$	$0.0844 \ f_H h_2 / \tau^2$	$0.152 \ h_2/ au^3$	$0.0127 \; h_2/ au$
Flicker PM	$h_1 f$	$\frac{3\gamma - \ln 2 + 3\ln(2\pi f_H \tau)}{4\pi^2} \frac{h_1}{\tau^2}$	$\frac{(24\ln 2 - 9\ln 3)}{8\pi^2} \frac{h_1}{\tau^2}$	$\simeq \frac{5[\gamma + \ln(\sqrt[10]{48} \pi f_H \tau)]}{6\pi^2} \frac{h_1}{\tau^2}$	$\frac{3\left[\ln(16) - 1\right]}{2\pi^2} \frac{h_1}{\tau^2}$	$\frac{(8\ln 2 - 3\ln 3)}{8\pi^2}h_1$
		$[3\gamma - \ln 2 + 3\ln 2\pi]/4\pi^2 = 0.166$	$0.0855 \text{ h}_1/ au^2$	$5[\gamma + \ln(\sqrt[10]{48}\pi)]/6\pi^2 = 0.178$	$0.269 \ h_1/ au^2$	0.0285 h ₁
White FM	h ₀	$\left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{2} \frac{h_0}{\tau} \end{array}\right)$	$\frac{1}{4} \frac{h_0}{\tau}$	$rac{1}{2} rac{h_0}{ au}$	$rac{3}{5} rac{h_0}{ au}$	$rac{1}{12}h_0 au$
Flicker FM	$h_{-1}f^{-1}$	$2\ln(2) h_{-1}$	$\frac{\frac{27\ln 3 - 32\ln 2}{8}}{8}h_{-1}$	$\frac{8\ln 2 - 3\ln 3}{2} h_{-1}$	$\frac{2[7-\ln(16)]}{5}\;h_{-1}$	$\frac{27\ln 3 - 32\ln 2}{24} h_{-1} \tau^2$
		1.39 h ₋₁	0.935 h ₋₁	$1.12 h_{-1}$	$1.69 h_{-1}$	$0.312 h_{-1} \tau^2$
Random walk FM	$h_{-2}f^{-2}$	$\left(\frac{2\pi^2}{3}h_{-2}\tau\right)$	$\frac{11\pi^2}{20}h_{-2}\tau$	$\frac{\pi^2}{3}h_{-2}\tau$	$\frac{26\pi^2}{35} h_{-2} \tau$	$\frac{11\pi^2}{60}h_{-2}\tau^3$
		$6.58 h_{-2}\tau$	$5.43 h_{-2} \tau$	$3.29 \ h_{-2} \tau$	$7.33 \ h_{-2} au$	$1.81 h_{-2} \tau^3$
Integrated flicker FM	$h_{-3}f^{-3}$	not convergent	not convergent	$\frac{\pi^2 [27 \ln 3 - 32 \ln 2]}{6} h_{-3} \tau^2$	not convergent	not convergent
				$12.3 h_{-3} \tau^2$		
Integrated RW FM	$h_{-4}f^{-4}$	not convergent	not convergent	$\frac{11\pi^4}{15}h_{-4}\tau^3\\71.4h_{-4}\tau^3$	not convergent	not convergent
linear dri	ft D _y	$\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{D}_{y}^2 \tau^2$	$\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{D}_{y}^2 \tau^2$	0	$\frac{1}{2}D_{y}^2\tau^2$	$\frac{1}{6}D_{y}^2\tau^4$
Spectral re $ H(\theta) ^2, \ \theta$	sponse = $\pi f \tau$	$\frac{2\sin^4\theta}{\theta^2}$	$\frac{2\sin^6\theta}{\theta^4}$	$\frac{8\sin^6\theta}{3\theta^2}$	$\frac{9\left[2\sin^2\theta - \theta\sin 2\theta\right]^2}{2\theta^6}$	$\frac{\tau^2}{3} \frac{2 \sin^6 \theta}{\theta^4}$
$\gamma = 0.577$ is the Euler Mascheroni constant. Formulae hold for $\tau \gg f_H/2$ where appropriate, f_H = bandwidth (sharp cutoff filter). MVAR, PVAR and TVAR require $\tau \gg \tau_0$, where τ_0 = sampling interval.						${}^{T}\!\sigma_{x}^{2}(\tau) = \frac{\tau^{2}}{3} {}^{M}\!\sigma_{y}^{2}(\tau)$

Time-frequency uncertainty theorem



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The Time-Domain Beat Method



Some Facts About the Estimation

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Bayesian statistics, or the inverse problem

- Simulation (direct problem)
 - Start from true value
 - Add noise
 - Gaussian distribution
- Experiment (inverse problem)
 - Start from experimental data
 - Estimate the measurand
 - χ^2 distribution

Bayes theorem $p(\theta|\xi) = \frac{\pi(\theta)p(\xi|\theta)}{\pi(\xi)}$ posterior PDF p()prior PDF $\pi()$ experimental ξ unknown "true" θ Highly specialized topic **Developped (among others) by** F. Vernotte, and E. Lantz

Introduction The Allan variance (AVAR) Other variances: the structure function approach Practical use of the Allan variance A statistical estimator as well as a spectral analysis tool Practical calculation of the Allan variance Allan variance versus Allan deviation Confidence interval over the Allan variance/deviation measures

Dispersion of Allan variance estimates



Introduction The Allan variance (AVAR) Other variances: the structure function approach Practical use of the Allan variance

Courtesy of F. Vernotte

A statistical estimator as well as a spectral analysis tool Practical calculation of the Allan variance Allan variance versus Allan deviation Confidence interval over the Allan variance/deviation measures

Probability density function of a χ_2 distribution



Introduction The Allan variance (AVAR) Other variances: the structure function approach Practical use of the Allan variance A statistical estimator as well as a spectral analysis tool Practical calculation of the Allan variance Allan variance versus Allan deviation Confidence interval over the Allan variance/deviation measures

Errorbars over Allan variance estimates



End of lecture 7






Lecture 8 Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

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The measurement of phase noise

- High SNR
 - Low noise
 - Strong carrier
- Two-port components
 - Bounded input-output delay
 - Bounded phase
 - Only white and flicker PM
- Oscillators
 - Unbounded time "error"
 - Unbounded phase
 - "Red" noise processes: white and flicker FM, random walk FM
 - Drift





Absolute measurement

Differential measurement









Measurement – high signal-to-noise ratio

High sensitivity, limited by the dynamic range

Measure a small signal (noise sidebands) close to a strong dazzling carrier



Suppress the carrier, and measure the small signal



 $v(t) = V_0 \cos \omega_0 t + n_c(t) \cos \omega_0 t - n_s(t) \sin \omega_0 t$

Convolution (notch filter) $v(t) * h_n(t)$

Time-domain product $v(t) \times r(t - T/4)$ $r = V_0 \cos \omega_0 t$ Audio distortion measurement

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Saturated mixer Digital instruments

Vector difference

v(t) - r(t) $r = V_0 \cos \omega_0 t$

bridge (interferometric) instruments Saturated Mixer

Double-balanced mixer

saturated at both inputs => phase-to-voltage detector $v_0(t) = k_\varphi \varphi(t)$



- LO and RF inputs are interchangeable
- Stronger signal -> LO (better isolation)

E. Rubiola, *Tutorial on the double-balanced mixer*, arXiv/physics/0608211

A practical issue

needs a capacitive-input filter to recirculate the 200 output signal



E. Rubiola, *Tutorial on the double-balanced mixer*, arXiv/physics/0608211,

Characteristics of a mixer



E. Rubiola, *Tutorial on the double-balanced mixer*, arXiv/physics/0608211

Noise and EMI



• Power

- narrow range: $\pm 5 \text{ dB}$ around $P_{\text{nom}} = 7 \dots 10 \text{ dBm}$
- r(t) and s(t) should have \approx same P
- Flicker noise
 - mixer internal diodes
 - typical $S_{\varphi} = -140 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$ at 1 Hz in average-good conditions
- Low gain
 - $k_{\varphi} \approx 0.2$ 0.3 V/rad typ, i.e., 10 to 14 dBV /rad
- White noise <=> operational amplifier
- Takes in noise <=> power-to-offset conversion
- High sensitivity to 50 Hz magnetic field

E. Rubiola, Tutorial on the double-balanced mixer, arXiv/physics/0608211, Aug 2006

Mixer's background noise – example



The operational amplifier is misused

$R_{b} = \sqrt{\frac{S_{v}}{S_{r}}}$	R _b = minierune noise input un stance.	2	$R_b = \sqrt{S_V/S_I}$	
OP-27	VSv = 3mV/VRs 2 Ro = 7.56	OP 27	LT 1028	
	VSc = 0.4 pA/VHA	$e_n = 3 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$	$e_n = 0.85 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$	
15 1028	15. = A A 11. U/VEL - 2 R. ~ 600	$i_n = 0.4 \text{ pA}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$	$i_n = 1 \text{ pA}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$	
	VISE = 2 BA/UFA	$R_b = 7.5 \text{ k}\Omega$	$R_b = 850 \ \Omega$	
	1 TOOR	$(1.2 \times 10^{-21} \text{ W/Hz})$	$(8.5 \times 10^{-22} \text{ W/Hz})$	
MIXRER	Ro = SQR			

OP27: $[3.2 \text{ nV/Hz}^{1/2}] / [0.2 \text{ V/rad}] = 16 \text{ nrad/Hz}^{1/2} (-156 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz})$ LT1028: $[1.2 \text{ nV/Hz}^{1/2}] / [0.2 \text{ V/rad}] = 2.4 \text{ nrad/Hz}^{1/2} (-164 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz})$

Warning: if only one arm of the power supply is disconnected, the LT1028 may delivers a current from the input (I killed a \$2k mixer in this way!)

You may duplicate the low-noise amplifier designed at the FEMTO-ST Rubiola, Lardet-Vieudrin, Rev. Scientific Instruments 75(5) pp. 1323-1326, May 2004 Measurement of Oscillator Phase Noise

Phase Locked Loop (PLL)

The mixer requires signals in quadrature -> phase locking



Phase tracking -> low-pass filter

$$\frac{S_{\varphi}(f)}{S_{\psi}(f)} = \frac{|k_0 k_{\varphi} H(f)|^2}{4\pi^2 f^2 + |k_0 k_{\varphi} H(f)|^2}$$

Use the PLL as a high-pass filter

$$\frac{S_{\nu}(f)}{S_{\varphi}(f)} = \frac{k_o^2 4\pi^2 f^2}{4\pi^2 f^2 + \left|k_0 k_{\varphi} H(f)\right|^2}$$

Measurement

- Assume $S_{\psi} \ll S_{\varphi}$ i.e., noise-free reference oscillator
- or -
- Compare two equal oscillators and divide the spectrum by 2 (take away 3 dB)

The virtues of a fast PLL



Slow PLL

- Large swing at low f
- Large V_{FSR} of the FFT internal ADC
- High quantization noise
- Prone to injection locking

Fast PLL

- High-pass -> lower swing at low f
- Lower quantization noise
- Feedback overrides injection locking

but you have to correct the spectrum for the PLL transfer function

The dual-channel scheme



- Double balanced mixer saturated at both inputs
- Inputs in quadrature
- Phase-to-voltage conversion 0.2-0.3 V/rad typ.

- Two statistically independent channels
- Average cross spectrum $S_{yx}(f) \rightarrow S_{\varphi}(f)$
- Single-channel noise rejected $\propto 1/\sqrt{m}$ (*m* is the no of avg), 5 dB per factor-10
- Prone to AM noise of the DUT via power to offset conversion in mixers (mitigated with saturated amplifiers)
- Related commercial instruments
 - Anapico
 - Berkeley Nucleonics Corp
 - Holzworth
 - Keysight
 - NoiseXT / Arcale
 - Wenzel Associates

Digital Methods

Digital phase detector



- ^{ut} Software Defined Radio methods
 - Technology: v_{ck} is not free
 - The clock cannot be used as the reference
 - Two channels are necessary, even if $v_i = v_r$
 - ADCs have poor background noise
 - Works with $v_i \neq v_r$ (interesting applications)
 - No problem at large angles, even multiple turns

Background noise – Example AD9467 (Alazartech)¹⁰⁷



 $V_{FSR} = 2.5 V_{PP}$ $= 0.88 V_{PMS}$

0.95VFSR 0.84 VENUS -1.5 dBV

10 MHz, Vpp ≈ 0.95 VFSR



The fully-digital noise analyzer

- 4 channels: DUT (2 ch.) and 1 or 2 external references
- Average cross spectrum -> rejection of the background
- 30-200 MHz max (order of)
- Related commercial instruments
 - Arcal / NoiseXT DNA
 - Microchip
 - PhaseStation 53100A (Miles Design & Jackson Labs)
 - 3120A (one ref input)
 - 5120A/5125A (discontinued)

Rohde & Schwarz FSWP8, FSWP26, FSWP50

Architecture

Background Noise at 100 MHz

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- 4 channels: DUT (2 ch.) and 2 internal references
- Average cross spectrum –> rejection of the background
- Down conversion from 8-50 GHz max to IF conversion
- Powerful, flexible, and expensive all-in-one instrument

Noise rejection in logarithmic resolution



Additional hardware limit applies (input power splitter, AM leakage, crosstalk, etc.)

- Wider RBW (resolution) at higher f
 - Shorter acquisition time T
 - Larger *m* -> higher noise rejection
- Constant fractional resolution $\mathcal{R} = \Delta f / f$

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- μ bins/decade -> resolution $\mathcal{R} = e^{\ln(10)/\mu} - 1$
- One FFT, time $T = 1/\Delta f = 1/\mathcal{R}f$
- Measurement time \mathcal{T} $m = \mathcal{T}/T = \mathcal{T}\mathcal{R}f$
- Avg limit $S_{\varphi BG} = S_{\varphi \ 1ch} / \sqrt{m}$
- Result

 $S_{\varphi BG}(f) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T\mathcal{R}f}} S_{\varphi 1ch}(f)$

Example – Background of the PhaseStation 53100A¹¹¹



- Same oscillator connected to the 4 channels
- Constant \mathcal{R} approximated as bands where $\Delta f = C$
- Flicker -> $1/f\sqrt{f}$, as predicted
- White limited by other phenomena

Figure: Courtesy of John Miles, Miles Design, comments are mine

Limitations of the Cross Spectrum Methods 112

Anti-correlated noise in power splitters



Keysight E5052B



- 3 dB (loss-free) power splitter
- Power $P_{out} = P_{osc}/2$
- Correlated noise $-k(T_{osc} T_{split})/2$

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6 dB (resistive) power splitter

- Power $P_{out} = P_{osc}/4$
- Correlated noise $-k(T_{osc} T_{split})/4$



Systematic error $\Delta S_{\varphi} = -kT_{split}/P_{osc} < 0$

A problem with the $|S_{yx}|$ estimator

Most instruments use the estimator $S_{\varphi}(f) = |S_{yx}(f)|$

- Biased
- Slow, because of noise in $\Im \{S_{yx}(f)\}$
- May hide the anticorrelated artifacts

The best estimator is

$$\widehat{S_{\varphi}(f)} = \Re\{S_{yx}(f)\}$$

- Fastest
- Unbiased
- Does not hide the anticorrelated artifacts

A weird example



Read the full article: Y. Gruson et al, Metrologia, 27 April 2020, DOI 10.1088/1681-7575/ab8d7b

The DUT AM noise is correlated



The mixer offset depends on P $\Delta P \rightarrow \Delta V_{OS}$ At the IF output, there is no difference between AM and PM $S_{\alpha}(f) \rightarrow S_{\nu}(f)$ 116

- Unpredictable amount and sign of the correlated term
- Mitigation
 - Saturated amplifiers at the RF inputs
 - But AM/PM conversion in the ampli

Common artifacts



Figure from U. L. Rohde, E. Rubiola, J. C. Whithaker, *Microwave and Wireless Synthesizers*, ISBN 978-1-119-66600-4, ©J.Wiley 2021 (adapted)

My best guesses

A. Discontinuity. A change in sampling frequency

- B. Bump, irregular/noisy plot.
 - Spectral leakage
 - Correlated effect
 - Insufficient averaging
- C. Hole, irregular/noisy plot.
 - An anti-correlated effect.
 - Signature is often seen in the Keysight E5052B
- D. Notch. Almost certainly, an anticorrelated spur
- E. Filter roll-off (not disturbing)

The 50 Hz and (odd) multiples spurs are not seen. Likely, they are just below the oscillator noise

Supplemental Matter

PM Noise measurement methods



Useful schemes



the measurement of an amplifier needs an attenuator



the measurement of a low-power DUT needs an amplifier, which flickers

 \approx

FFT

≁





measure an oscillator vs. a resonator



Averaged spectra should be smooth



Fig.12(top), from E. Rubiola, V. Giordano, Rev. Sci. Instrum. 73(6) p.2445-2457, June 2002. ©AIP.

stationary & ergodic process (means repeatable and reproducible): the statistics of all an(t) and bn(t) is the same

> average on m spectra: confidence of a point improves by $1/m^{1/2}$ interchange ensemble with frequency: smoothness $1/m^{1/2}$

Pollution from power grid



- More visible on components than on oscillators Not hidden by $1/f^2$ and $1/f^3$
- Preference for odd-order harmonics

Likely, the signature of the odd symmetry of saturation in transformers iron

Mechanical stability



Any phase fluctuation can be converted into length fluctuation

$$L = \frac{\varphi}{2\pi} \frac{c}{\nu_0}$$

 $b_{-1} = -180 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$ and $v_0 = 10 \text{ GHz}$ is equivalent to $S_L = 1.46 \times 10^{-23} \text{ m}^2/\text{Hz}$ at f = 1 Hz

Any flicker spectrum h–1/f can be converted into a flat Allan variance

 $\sigma_L^2 = 2\ln(2) h_{-1}$

A residual flicker of $-180 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$ at f = 1 Hz off the 10 GHz carrier is equivalent to

 $\sigma^2 = 2x10-23 m^2 \longrightarrow \sigma = 4.5x10-12 m$

for reference, the Bohr radius of the H atom is ao = 0.529 nm

Bridge Techniques

Wheatstone bridge



equilibrium: Vd = 0 -> carrier suppression

static error δZ_1 -> some residual carrierreal δZ_1 => in-phase residual carrier Vre $\cos(\omega_0 t)$ imaginary δZ_1 => quadrature residual carrier Vim $sin(\omega_0 t)$

fluctuating error $\delta Z_1 =>$ noise sidebands real $\delta Z_1 =>$ AM noise v_c(t) cos(ω₀t) imaginary $\delta Z_1 =>$ PM noise $-v_s(t) sin(ω_0t)$

Bridge AM-PM noise measurement



- Bridge => high rejection of the master-oscillator noise
- Amplification and synchronous detection of the noise sidebands
- No carrier => the amplifier can't flicker (no up-conversion of near-dc 1/f)
- High microwave gain before detection => low background
- Low 50-60 Hz residuals because microwave circuits are insensitive to magnetic fields

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Bridge – Early ideas



K.H.Sann, IEEE MTT 16(9) p.761-766, sep 1968

Carrier suppression and synchronous detection of the noise sidebands



A.L. Lance & al., ISA Transact. 2(4) p.37-84 apr1982F. Labaar, Microwaves 21(3) p.65-69, mar 1982

Carrier suppression and amplification of the noise sidebands before synchronous detection

Bridge AM-PM noise measurement



Build on a commercial instrument



You will appreciate the computer interface and the software ready for use

Origin of flicker in the bridge



In the early time of electronics, flicker was called "contact noise"



Combine all tricks in one machine

Flicker reduction, correlation, and closed-loop carrier suppression



E. Rubiola, V. Giordano, Rev. Scientific Instruments 73(6) pp.2445-2457, June 2002

Example of results



Correlation-and-averaging rejects the thermal noise



Noise of a pair of HH-109 hybrid couplers measured at 100 MHz



Residual noise of the fixed-value bridge, in the absence of the DUT



Residual noise of the fixed-value bridge. Same as above, but larger m

Microwave circulator in reverse mode

(for the Pound Scheme)

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no post-processing is used to hide stray signals, like vibrations or the mains

±45° detection







Residual noise, in the absence of the DUT

Smart and nerdy, yet of scarce practical usefulness First used at 2 kHz to measure electromigration on metals (H. Stoll, MPI)

The complete machine (100 MHz)



A 9 GHz experiment

(DC circuits not shown)



Background Noise









AM-PM Noise in Electronic Devices

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Outline

Introduction White and flicker noise (Environment) Noise in amplifier networks Low-flicker amplifiers Experiments

home page http://rubiola.org

AM-PM Noise Types



≈Fig.1, R. Boudot, E. Rubiola Phase Noise in RF and Microwave Amplifiers, IEEE T UFFC 59(12) p.613-2628, Dec 2012

Additive vs Parametric Noise



parametric noise



Amplifier white and flicker PM noise



The corner frequency f_c , sometimes specified in data sheets is a misleading parameter because it depends on P_0

Phase Noise vs Power

- The 1/f phase noise b_{-1} is about independent of power
- The white noise bo scales as the inverse of the power
- The corner frequency is misleading because it depends on power



-100

dBrad ²/Hz

noise.

Phase

-120

-130

P=-50dBm

P=-60dBm

Fig. 2.9, E. Rubiola, Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in

 10^{2}

 10^{3}

Oscillators Cambridge 2008 ISBN 978-0521-88677-2

 10^{1}

P=-70dBm P=-80dBm Amplifier X-9.0-20H at 4.2 K

Data from IEEE UFFC 47(6):1273 (2000)

P=-80dBn

➡ P=-70dBn
➡ P=-60dBn

 10^{5}

✤ P=-50dBn

 10^{4}

R. Boudot, E. Rubiola Phase Noise in RF and Microwave Amplifiers, IEEE T UFFC 59(12) p.613-2628, Dec 2012 (Fig.6 a-f, rearranged)

Example – Microwave Amplifier

Courtesy of V. Giordano, FEMTO-ST Institute



Noise in Amplifier Networks

Still not like how this section is organized

White Noise in Cascaded Amplifiers

White noise is chiefly the noise of the first stage



$$\begin{split} N_e &= F_1 k T_0 + \frac{(F_2 - 1) k T_0}{A_1^2} + \frac{(F_3 - 1) k T_0}{A_2^2 A_1^2} + \dots & \text{Friis formulae} \\ F &= F_1 + \frac{(F_2 - 1)}{A_1^2} + \frac{(F_3 - 1)}{A_2^2 A_1^2} + \dots & \text{Friis formulae} \\ Noise is chiefly that of the 1st stage \\ \end{split}$$

$$b_0 = rac{FkT_0}{P_0}$$
 white phase noise

$$b_0 = \frac{F_1 k T_0}{P_0} + \frac{(F_2 - 1)k T_0}{A_1^2 P_0} + \frac{(F_3 - 1)k T_0}{A_2^2 A_1^2 P_0} + \dots$$
 Friis formula for phase noise

Parametric Noise in Cascaded Amplifiers

E. Rubiola, Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators, Cambridge 2008, ISBN 978-0521-88677-2



Flicker: the two amplifiers are independent $\mathbb{E}\{\alpha^2\} = \mathbb{E}\{\alpha_1^2\} + \mathbb{E}\{\alpha_2^2\} \qquad S_{\alpha} = S_{\alpha 1} + S_{\alpha 2}$ $\mathbb{E}\{\varphi^2\} = \mathbb{E}\{\varphi_1^2\} + \mathbb{E}\{\varphi_2^2\} \qquad S_{\alpha} = S_{\varphi 1} + S_{\varphi 2}$

Environment: a single process drives the two amplifiers $\alpha = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$ $\mathbb{E}\{\alpha^2\} = \mathbb{E}\{(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)^2\}$ $\varphi = \varphi_1 + \varphi_2$ $\mathbb{E}\{\varphi^2\} = \mathbb{E}\{(\varphi_1 + \varphi_2)^2\}$ Yet there can be a time constant, not necessarily the same for the two devices

Phase Noise in Cascaded Amplifiers



Flicker Noise in Parallel Amplifiers



Fig.2.16 from E. Rubiola, *Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators*, Cambridge 2008, ISBN 978-0521-88677-2



- The phase flicker coefficient b₋₁ is about independent of power
- The flicker of a branch is not increased by splitting the input power
- At the output,
 - the carrier adds up coherently
 - the phase noise adds up statistically
- Hence, the 1/f phase noise is reduced by a factor m
- Only the flicker noise can be reduced in this way

Parallel Amplifiers, Mathematics

$$\begin{split} u_{k}(t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} v_{i}(t) & \text{cell input} \\ v_{o}(t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \sum_{k=1}^{m} v_{k}(t) & \text{main output} \\ v_{k}(t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} V_{i} \Big\{ a_{1} + 2a_{2} \big[n'_{k}(t) + i n''_{k}(t) \big] \Big\} e^{i 2\pi \nu_{0} t} & \text{cell} \to \text{output} \\ \psi_{k}(t) &= 2 \frac{a_{2}}{a_{1}} n''_{k}(t) & \text{cell} \\ \varphi_{k}(t) &= \frac{1}{m} V_{i} 2a_{2} n''_{k}(t) e^{i 2\pi \nu_{0} t} \\ a_{1} V_{i} e^{i 2\pi \nu_{0} t} &= \frac{1}{m} 2 \frac{a_{2}}{a_{1}} n''_{k}(t) & \text{cell} \to \text{output} \\ S_{\varphi}(f) &= \sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{1}{m^{2}} 4 \frac{a_{2}^{2}}{a_{1}^{2}} S_{n''_{k}}(f) & \sum \text{cells} \to \text{output} \\ S_{\varphi}(f) &= \frac{1}{m} 4 \frac{a_{2}^{2}}{a_{1}^{2}} S_{n''}(f) & m \text{ equal cells} \to \text{output} \\ b_{-1} &= \frac{1}{m} \left[b_{-1} \right]_{\text{cell}} \end{split}$$

Phase Noise in Parallel Amplifiers

Connecting two amplifier in parallel, a 3 dB reduction of flicker is expected



R. Boudot, E. Rubiola Phase Noise in RF and Microwave Amplifiers, IEEE T UFFC 59(12) p.613-2628, Dec 2012 (Fig.8 a-b, rearranged)

Flicker Noise in Parallel Amplifiers



Fourier frequency, Hz

Fig.2.17 from E. Rubiola, *Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators*, Cambridge 2008, ISBN 978-0521-88677-2

Specification of low phase-noise amplifiers (AML web page)								
amplifier	parameters				phase noise vs. f , Hz			
	gain	F	bias	power	10^{2}	10^{3}	10^{4}	10^{5}
AML812PNA0901	10	6.0	100	9	-145.0	-150.0	-158.0	-159.0
AML812PNB0801	9	6.5	200	11	-147.5	-152.5	-160.5	-161.5
AML812PNC0801	8	6.5	400	13	-150.0	-155.0	-163.0	-164.0
AML812PND0801	8	6.5	800	15	-152.5	-157.5	-165.5	-166.5
unit	dB	dB	mA	dBm	$ m dBrad^2/Hz$			

Volume Law

The volume law results from a gedankenexperiment

- Flicker is of microscopic origin because it has Gaussian PDF
- (central limit theorem)
- Join the m branches of a parallel device forming a compound
- Phase flicker is proportional to the inverse size of the amplifier active region
- The phase flicker coefficient b_{-1} is about independent of power
- Splitting the signal into branches, at the output,
 - the carrier adds up coherently
 - the phase noise adds up statistically
- Hence, the 1/f phase noise is reduced by a factor m
- Only the flicker noise can be reduced in this way

$$b_{-1} = \frac{1}{m} \left[b_{-1} \right]_{\text{cell}}$$

Relevant examples

optical resonator (50 μ m²) × (π × 5.5 mm) ≈ 1×10⁻¹² m³ sapphire resonator $0.1 \times [\pi \times (5/2 \text{ cm})^2] \times (2.5 \text{ cm})$ $\approx 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3$

optical fiber (10 μ m²) × (2 km) ≈ 2×10⁻⁷ m³ 5 MHz quartz $0.3 \times [\pi \times (1 \text{ cm})^2] \times (0.1 \text{ mm})$ $\approx 1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3$

The Error Amplifier



- Use a Power Amplifier (PA) and an Error amplifier (EA)
- The carrier is suppressed (strongly rejected) at the EA input
- Delay matching is needed for wide suppression bandwidth
- Low 1/f sidebands at the EA output because there is no carrier
- $v_e(t)$ is proportional to the PA noise sidebands
- Use $v_e(t)$ for the real-time correction of the PA noise
- Feedback or feedforward correction schemes are possible

The Virtues of the Error Amplifier



Parametric Noise in Regenerative Amplifiers





Phase Noise of a Regenerative Amplifier

The RA replaces the two-stage sustaining amplifier in a Opto-Electronic oscillator



• A RA is set for the gain of two cascaded amplifiers

- As expected, the RA flicker is 3 dB higher than the two amplifiers
- Indirect measurement through the frequency flicker

Phase-type vs Time-type noise

Phase-type noise

- Phase noise $S_{\varphi}(f)$ is independent of ν_0
- Time fluctuation $S_x(f)$ scales as $1/\nu_0^2$

Example / typical case

• SNR in amplifiers —> white PM

$$S_{\varphi}(f) = \frac{FkT}{P_0}$$

Time-type noise

- Time fluctuation $S_x(f)$ is independent of v_0
- Phase noise $S_{\varphi}(\mathbf{f})$ scales as v_0^2

Examples / typical cases

• Vibrations on cables and optical fibers

 $S_{\mathsf{X}}(f) = C$

independent of P

Frequency Synthesis

The Egan Model – Modern View

for phase noise in frequency dividers



W.F. Egan, Modeling phase noise in frequency dividers, IEEE T UFFC 37(4), July 1990

End of lecture 8

Digital
Phase Noise in the Input Stage



Phase noise at the input of digital devices ²⁰⁸





phase-type (ϕ -type) noise $S_{\varphi}(f) = \frac{S_n(f)}{V_0^2}$ constant vs ν_0

Phase Noise Sampling



- Sampling occurs at the edges
 - (in some cases, only at rising or falling edges)
- Square wave signals need analog bandwidth at least $3 v_{max} \dots 4 v_{max}$
- Aliasing is around the corner

Aliasing of PM noise over-simplified

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• The Parseval Theorem states that

the total energy (or power) calculated in the time domain and in the frequency domain is the same

N'B' = N''B''

Ergodicity allows to

interchange time domain and statistical ensemble

...and PM noise scales up with the reciprocal of the carrier frequency

Aliasing and 1/f Noise



Aliasing of $1/f^2$, $1/f^3$, $1/f^4$... does not strike

Internal Delay Fluctuation

Time-type (x-type) noise



- The internal delay fluctuates by an amount x(t)
- This has nothing to do with threshold and frequency

Phase-type vs Time-type noise



Correlation Between AM and PM Noise



The need for this model comes from the physics of popular amplifiers

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- AM and PM fluctuations are correlated because originate from the same near-dc random process
- Bipolar transistor. The fluctuation of the carriers in the base region acts on the base thickness, thus on the gain, and on the capacitance of the reverse-biased base-collector junction.
- Field-effect transistor. The fluctuation of the carriers in the channel acts on the drain-source current, and also on the gate-channel capacitance because the distance between the `electrodes' is affected by the channel thickness.
- Laser amplifier. The fluctuation of the pump power acts on the density of the excited atoms, and in turn on gain, on maximum power, and on refraction index.

Flicker of Some Amplifiers

Amplifier	Frequency	Gain	$P_{1\mathrm{dB}}$	F	DC	b_{-1} (meas.)
	(GHz)	(dB)	(dBm)	(dB)	bias	$(dBrad^2/Hz)$
AML812PNB1901	8-12	22	17	7	$15\mathrm{V},425\mathrm{mA}$	-122
AML412L2001	4-12	20	10	2.5	$15\mathrm{V},100\mathrm{mA}$	-112.5
AML612L2201	6-12	22	10	2	$15\mathrm{V},100\mathrm{mA}$	-115.5
AML812PNB2401	8-12	24	26	7	$15\mathrm{V},1.1\mathrm{A}$	-119
AFS6	8-12	44	16	1.2	$15\mathrm{V},171\mathrm{mA}$	-105
JS2	8-12	17.5	13.5	1.3	$15\mathrm{V},92\mathrm{mA}$	-106
SiGe LPNT32	3.5	13	11	1	$2\mathrm{V},10\mathrm{mA}$	-130
Avantek UTC573	0.01 - 0.5	14.5	13	3.5	$15\mathrm{V},100\mathrm{mA}$	-141.5
Avantek UTO512	0.005 - 0.5	21	8	2.5	$15\mathrm{V},23\mathrm{mA}$	-137

Flicker Noise of Components

device	PM b-1	AM h-1	frequency	References and comments
Si bipolar HF-UHF amplifier	-135145		51000 MHz	(general experience)
SiGe HBT µwave amplifier	-120130		420 GHz	(general experience)
GaAs HBT µwave amplifier	-95110		310 GHz	(general experience)
Cr3+ maser amplifier (0.2 cm3)	≈ -160		11 GHz	G.J.Dick, private discussion
HF-UHF double-balanced mixer	-135150		51000 MHz	(general experience)
μwave double-balanced mixer	-110125		420 GHz	(general experience)
μwave circulator (iso port)	-170	-170	9.1 GHz	Rubiola & al, IEEE T.UFFC 51(8) 957-963 (2004)
μwave isolator (terminated circulator)	-150	-150	≈ 10 GHz	Woode & al, MST 9(9) 1593-9 (1998)
HF-UHF ferrite power splitter	-170	-170	100 MHz	Rubiola, Giordano, RSI 73(6) 2445-2457 (2002)
HF-UHF variab. attenuator (potentiometer)	-150		100 MHz	Rubiola, Giordano, RSI 70(1) 220-225 (1999)
HF-UHF by-step attenuator	-170	-170	100 MHz	Rubiola, Giordano, RSI 73(6) 2445-2457 (2002)
μwave variable attenuator (absorber)	-150		9.1 GHz	Rubiola, Giordano, RSI 70(1) 220-225 (1999)
μwave line stretcher	-150		100 MHz	Rubiola, Giordano, RSI 70(1) 220-225 (1999)
μwave power detector (Schottky)		-120	10 GHz	Grop, Rubiola, preliminary (in progress)
μwave photodetector	-120	-120	10 GHz	Rubiola & al, TMTT/JLT 54(2) 816-820 (2006)
2-4 km optical-fiber microwave link	<-110		10 GHz	Volyanskiy & al, JOSAB 25(12) 2140-2150 (2008)

Line Stretcher



Microwave line stretchers measured at 100 MHz (all devices are manufactured by Arra)

solid line: PM noise, dotted line: AM noise

Circulators in Isolation Mode



- Destructive interference takes place inside the circulator
- The instruments amplifies and detects the noise sidebands
- The test circuit simulates the insertion in the Pound frequency control

Circulators in Isolation Mode



UFFC 51(8) p.957-963, 2004 (Tab.I, ≠artwork)

			$ \qquad S_{lpha arphi}($	$(1 \mathrm{Hz})$	equivalent stability		
	factory and device type	ser.no.	dB[rac	$d^2]/Hz$	oscillator	mechanical	
			min.	max.	$\sigma_y(au),~ imes 10^{-15}$	$\sigma_l(au), \ imes 10^{-12} \ { m m}$	
	Aercomm J180-124	1320	-165.1	-162.6	22	36	
	Dorado 4 CCC 10-1 \star	101	-171.6	-168.0	12	19	
	Trak C80124/A	E001	-165.9	-160.3	28	47	
		E003	-165.7	-164.0	19	31	
	Narda CNA 8596	157	-170.3	-170.3	9	15	
		158	-170.3	-169.1	10	17	
	Sivers Lab 7041X ‡	625	-176.0	-164.0	n.a.	n.a.	
	residual instrum. noise		< 180			(4.9)	
* designed for cryogenic applications							
	‡waveguide isolator						

Circulators in Transmission Mode



The typical 1/f noise b_{-1} is of the order of -150 dB

RA Woode, EN Ivanov, ME Tobar, "Application of The Interferometric Noise Measurement Technique for the Study of Intrinsic Fluctuations in Microwave Isolators," Meas. Sci. Technol., vol. 9, no. 9, pp. 1593-9, 1998 (Fig.5)

There can be a 2-3 dB calibration error on this figure, see my annotations on the scanned article.

VHF Passive Devices

two by-step attenuators

two ferrite hybrid junctions



Figs from E. Rubiola, V. Giordano, RSI 73(6) p.2445-2457, 2002

Environmental Effects in RF Amplifiers



It is experimentally observed that the temperature fluctuations cause a spectrum $S_{\alpha}(f)$ or $S_{\varphi}(f)$ of the $1/f^5$ type

Yet, at lower frequencies the spectrum folds back to 1/f

Low-Flicker RF Amplifiers

Still not like how this section is organized

Conversion (Transposed-Gain) Amplifiers



 VHF amplifiers and µwave mixers flicker significantly less than GaAs µwave amplifiers

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- Lower flicker is achieved by down-converting to VHF, amplifying, and up-converting back to µwaves
- Can even work close to DC
- For best rejection of the oscillator phase noise, the delay τ compensates for the amplifier group delay
- Made obsolete by the SiGe parallel amplifiers (still useful in higher bands?)

J.K.A. Everard and M.A. Page-Jones, "Ultra Low Noise Microwave Oscillators with Low Residual Flicker Noise", IEEE International Microwave Symposium, Orlando, Florida, 16–20 May 1995, pp. 693–696

Feedforward Amplifier

- Attenuation and left-hand delay are set for the input signal to be nulled at the input of the Error Amplifier
- The EA amplifies the distortion and the noise of the Power Amplifier
- PA distortion and noise are subtracted by feedforward subtraction of the EA error signal
- •At virtually zero input power, the EA cannot distort and flicker
- For wide-band operation true delay matching is necessary
- Cannot be used in the compression region, otherwise the input-signal nulling does not work
- Originally intended to reduce the distortion of high peak-to-average power ratio of telecom amplifiers. Linear loads (cables and antennas) never push the FFA to the compression region
- •For oscillator operation
 - •Phase matching is sufficient, instead of true delay matching because of the narrow band
 - •Saturation must be ensured by an external circuit



Baseband-Feedback Amplifier



Fig.2.14 from E. Rubiola, *Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators*, Cambridge 2008, ISBN 978-0521-88677-2

- The detector measures the phase $\varphi_2 \varphi_1$ across the main amplifier plus phase modulator
- The control stabilizes $\varphi_2 \varphi_1 = C$ (constant), virtual ground
- The correction of AM noise is also possible in a similar way

Baseband-Feedback Amplifier



- The detector measures the phase $\varphi_2 \varphi_1$ across the main amplifier plus phase modulator
- The control stabilizes $\varphi_2 \varphi_1 = C$ (constant), virtual ground
- Practical implementation with a bridge noisemeasurement system
- Notice the use of an error amplifier

Environment



Environmental Effects



A time constant can be present

• Temperature

- EM interference
 - RF leakage (additive)
 - 50-60 Hz magnetic fields
 - electric fields
- power supply
- acoustic
- radiation

It is experimentally observed that the temperature fluctuations cause a spectrum $S_{\alpha}(f)$ or $S_{\varphi}(f)$ of the $1/f^5$ type

Yet, at lower frequencies the spectrum folds back to 1/f

Missing items

Random Walk and Drift

- RF amplifier
- µw amplifier
- SiGe amplifier
- RF mixer mixer
- $Cr^{3+} \mu w$ maser amplifier
- µw mixer
- circulator
- RF variable attenuator (potentiometer)
- RF by-step attenuator
- µw variable attenuator (graphite attenuator)
- variable phase shifter (line stretcher)
- RF ferrite power splitter
- photodetector
- microwave power detector

Radiation

- Permanent damage (memory)
- Noise in coaxial cables
- thermal noise (loss)
- acoustical noise
- piezoelectricity
- electret effect
- EM noise (leakage)

Noise in coaxial cables



- thermal noise (loss)
- acoustical noise
 - piezoelectricity
 - electret effect
- EM noise (leakage)







Phase Noise and Jitter in Digital Electronics

Enrico Rubiola

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INRiM, Torino, Italy

Outline

Basics FPGAs — Mechanisms / Examples / Facts ADCs — Basics / Examples DDSs — Basics / Advanced / Examples Dividers — Π and Λ / Microwave

home page http://rubiola.org

Acknowledgments

This tutorial gathers a wealth of material developed by

Claudio Calosso, INRIM, Torino, Italy

The Go Digital Team @ FEMTO-ST, Besancon, France chiefly but not only, Pierre-Yves "PYB" Bourgeois, A. Carolina Cardenas Olaya, Jean-Michel Friedt, Gwenhael "Gwen" Goavec-Merou, Yannick Gruson

...and by myself

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Caveat Only a fraction of this can be taught at a 1–2 H session

1 – Basics

Phase Time x(t)

- Let's allow $\varphi(t)$ to exceed $\pm \pi$, and count the no of turns
- This is easily seen by scaling ω down (up) to $\omega ~=~ 1$ rad/s using a noise-free gear work
- The phase-time fluctuation associated to $\varphi(t)$ is

 $x(t) = \varphi(t) / \omega_0$

• x(t) is a normalized quantity, independent of ω_0 .



The Polynomial Law

 $v(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos [2\pi\nu_0 t + \varphi(t)]$



Phase-time PSD $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}(t) &= \frac{\varphi(t)}{2\pi\nu_0} \\ S_{\mathbf{x}}(f) &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{k}_i f^i \end{aligned}$ $i \leq -4$

Fractional Frequency PSD $\mathbf{y}(t) = \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \frac{\dot{\varphi}(t)}{2\pi\nu_0}$ $S_{\mathbf{y}}(f) = \sum_{i \le -2}^{2} \mathbf{h}_i f^i$

2 – FPGAs

Noise Mechanisms Examples Additional Facts

FPGA Interconnection Structure



Device dependent blocks Input/Output RAM PLL NCO ...etc.

- Delay & jitter
- General routing through switch points
- Delay & jitter rather uniform in a block
 - Large spread over the interconnect matrix
- Dedicated clock lines managed separately
 - Low and predictable delay & jitter

Output Time Fluctuation

- Output can be synchronized to the clock
- Time fluctuation cannot be smaller than
 - External clock signal Clock input stage out internal Clock distribution Q D data • Output stage I/O buf ck in clock distribution

Cyclone III Clock Buffer



Flicker

Claudio Calosso wrote (June 26, 2020) Attila ha legato il ginoco loop che genera in automatico la soglia. Se ti ricordi, il controllo aggiustava la tensione di soglia in mod

del 50%. Se la soglia fluttua, allora il DC cambia, il controllo se ne

accorge e va compensare la variazione della soglia e, di fatto, va a ridurre il rumore residuo del distributore, come dimostrato dal grafico per frequenze inferiori al ginocchio per 12, 6 e 3 MHz. Mi aspetto che, aumentando la banda del controllo, il grafico

econdo me è una cosa carina, un trucco da tenere presente

avere un duty cycle all'uscita

applicazioni dove domina il rumore della soglia.

- High $v_0 \rightarrow x$ -type: S_{φ} scales as $v_0()$
- Low $\nu_0 \rightarrow \varphi$ -type: constant S_{φ} (but bumps 0.1–10 Hz)

White

• Aliasing at high f and low v_0

Cyclone III Output Buffer



MAX 3000 CPLD [300 nm] (1)





- Flicker region -> Negligible aliasing
- The Π divider is still not well explained
- The Λ divider exhibits low 1/f and low white noise
Additional Facts Related to Phase and Noise

Volume Law

Input Chatter

Internal PLL

Thermal Effects

•••••

The Volume Law

Experiment



- The 1/f coefficient b–1 is independent of power
- The flicker of a branch does not increase at P/2
- At the output,
 - the carrier adds up coherently
 - the phase noise adds up statistically
- With m branches, the 1/f PM noise is reduced by 1/m
- White noise cannot be reduced in this way

Gedankenexperiment

- Flicker is of microscopic origin because it has Gaussian PDF
- Join the m branches into a compound
- 1/f noise is proportional to 1/V, the volume of the active region

The Volume Law!

All devices used as ÷10 Λ divider at 100 MHz input (30 MHz with Cyclone and Cyclone II, and results are scaled up as x-type noise) The Λ divider reduces aliasing (white), thus makes 1/f noise more visible



Input Chatter



With high-speed devices, chatter can occur at rather high frequencies

Chatter occurs when the RMS Slew Rate of noise exceeds the slew rate of the pure signal

Pure signal

$$v(t) = V_0 \cos(2\pi\nu_0 t)$$

 $\mathrm{SR} = 2\pi\nu_0 V_0$

$$\langle \mathrm{SR}^2 \rangle = 4\pi^2 \int_0^B f^2 S_V(f) \, df$$

$$= \frac{4\pi^2}{3} \sigma_V^2 B^2 \quad (\mathrm{rms})$$

Wide band noise

Chatter threshold

$$\nu_0^2 = \frac{1}{3} \, \frac{S_v B^3}{V_0^2}$$

Example

- V₀ = 100 mV peak
- 10 nV/vHz noise
- 650 MHz max -> 2 GHz noise BW
- Chatter threshold **v** = 5.2 MHz

Simulation of Chatter



Conditions $v_0 = 1 Hz$, $V_0 = 1 V_{peak}$ $v < v_0^2 > = 10 mV rms$ noise Noise BW increases in powers of 2 De-normalize for your needs

Input Chatter – Example





Vo = 100 mV (200 mVpp)vo = 4.7 MHz

Asymmetry shows up Explanation takes a detailed electrical model, which we have not

Cyclone III Internal PLL

A.C. Cárdenas Olaya & al, IEEE Transact. UFFC 66(2) pp.412-416, Feb 2019



Cyclone III Internal PLL

PLL used as a buffer



x-type -> analog noise in the phase detector



- LC oscillator, 0.6–1.3 GHz, Q≈10
- Optional ÷2 always present
- We set D = 1 (for lowest noise)
- QUARTUS app chooses C and N

Crossover between phi-type and x-type at 20 MHz

Cyclone III Internal PLL

PLL used as a frequency multiplier





10 MHz input, N x 10 MHz out

- 1/f phase noise is dominant
- Scales as N² -> analog noise in the phase detector
- ADEV 1.5x10⁻¹² @ 1 s, fн = 500 Hz

-115 dB + 20 log10(v0), v0 in MHz

Thermal Effects

- Principle
 - FPGA dissipation change ΔP by acting on frequency
 - Energy E = CV2 dissipated by the gate capacitor in one cycle
- Conditions
 - Cyclone III used as a clock buffer
 - Environment temperature fluctuations are filtered out with a small blanket (necessary)
 - Two separate measurements (phase meter and counter) -> trusted result

Outcomes

- 1. Thermal transient, due to the change of the FPGA dissipation
- 2. Slow thermal drift, due to the environment
- 3. Overall effect of ΔP



3 – ADCs

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Transition Noise Measurement



The differential clock jitter introduces additional noise due to the asymmetry between AM and PM

At 10 MHz input, the effect of ≈100 fs jitter does not show up

Background Noise



Compared to a Commercial Instrument

- this is done only to make sure that there is no calibration mistake -



4 - DDSs

Basics Advanced Experiments

Basic DDS Scheme





replace $\theta \rightarrow \phi$

AD9912, a Fast DDS

48 bit accumulator, 14 bit DAC, 1 GHz clock



State-Variable Truncation





- Technology -> q max
- Why p > q
- Slow pseudorandom beat, 3d 6h 11m 15s @ 1 GHz, 48 bit



Spurs: Torosyan A, Wilson AN jr, Proc 2005 IFCS p.50-58

Truncation Generates Spurs



The power of spurs comes at expenses of white noise – yet not as one-to-one

Distortion and Aliasing



Sampling $f_s = 20$ MHz Nyquist $f_N = 10$ MHz Output $f_a = 7$ MHz

3.3 V: Lower PM Noise than 1.8 V

Probably related to the cell size and to the dynamic range



E. Rubiola, Mar 2007 (adapted from the Analog Devices data sheets)

Experimental Method (PM Noise)

- Pseudorandom noise, slow beat (days)
- •The probability that two accumulators are in phase is ≈ 0
- •Two separate DDS driven by the same clock have a random and constant delay
- •The delay de-correlates the two realizations, which makes the phase measurement possible



PM Noise vs Output Frequency





Flicker is in fair agreement White is made low by spurs

	Basic formula for white noise $b_0=rac{4}{3}\;rac{1}{2^{2n} u_s}\;\mathrm{rad}^2/\mathrm{Hz}$					
١	who	meas, dB	math, dB	clock, MHz		
S	specs	-159	-155.8	300		
١	/G	-158	-155.0	250		
(CC 00	-162.5	-153.6	180		





High-Frequency DDSs



Measured by C. Calosso, INRIM

High-Frequency DDSs



AD 9912 PM Noise



- At 50 MHz and 10/12.5 MHz we get ≈15 dB lower flicker than the data-sheet spectrum
- •Experimental conditions unclear in the data sheets

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5 — Dividers

Π and Λ DividersMicrowave Dividers

Aliasing in Π Divider

Regular synchronous divider

The Greek letter Π recalls the square wave $\Pi \Pi \Pi \Pi$



- The gearbox scales $S\phi$ down by $1/D^2$
- The divider takes 1 edge out of D
 - Raw decimation without low-pass filter
 - Aliasing increases Sq by D
- Overall, $S\phi$ scales down by 1/D



Results – Test on Aliasing



White region

- Aliasing in the front-end -> +4 dB
- 1/D law and 1/D2 law

Flicker region

- Negligible aliasing
- 1/D2 law (-20 dB)

The Λ Divider – Little/No Aliasing

New divider architecture

Series of Greek letters AAAAA recalls the triangular wave



- Gearbox and aliasing -> 1/D law
- Add D independent realizations shifted by 1/2 input clock,
- reduce the phase noise by 1/D,
- ... and get back the 1/D2 law



The names Π and Λ derive from the shape of the weight functions in our article on frequency counters E. Rubiola, On the measurement of frequency ... with high-resolution counters, RSI 76 054703, 2005

Phase Noise of Π and Λ Dividers



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The A Divider Versus the DDS



Noise of the Λ divider and two DDSs

noise	Λ div.	AD9854	AD9912	
bo	-165	-160	≈ –163	
b –1	-130.5	-121.5	–129 (inferred)	
b -2	—	—	– <mark>132</mark> plot not shown	
b –3	_	-134	(seen at lower v₀)	



Quantization Noise

Roundoff Error in Digital Computation, Signal Processing, Control, and Communications

> Bernard Widrow István Kollár

Suggested Reading

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Bernard Widrow, Istvan Kollar *Quantization Noise* Cambridge 2008 ISBN 978-0-511-40990-5

- Chapter 15: Roundoff noise in FIR digital filters and in FFT calculations
- Appendix G: Quantization of a sinusoidal input

CAMERIDGE

Suggested Reading

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ANALOG-DIGITAL CONVERSION

Walt Kester

Editor



Walt Kester (editor) *Analog-Digital Conversion* Analog Devices 2004 ISBN 0-916550-27-3

Marcel J.M. Pelgrom

Analog-to-Digital Conversion

D Springer



Suggested Reading

Marcel J. M. Pelgrom *Analog-to-Digital Conversion* Springer 2010 ISBN 978-90-481-8888-8


Suggested Reading

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Bar-Giora Goldberg Digital Frequency Synthesis Demystified Newnes 1999 ISBN 978-1-878707-47-5

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- C. E. Calosso, F. Vernotte, V. Giordano, C. Fluhr, B. Dubois, E. Rubiola Frequency Stability Measurement of Cryogenic Sapphire Oscillators with a Multichannel Tracking DDS and the Two-Sample Covariance, IEEE Transact. UFFC vol.66 no.3 p.616-623, March 2019.
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Lecture 9 Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

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Contents

• The Leeson Effect

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The Leeson Effect

Enrico Rubiola CNRS FEMTO-ST Institute, Besancon, France INRiM, Torino, Italy hell Leeson effect foot

Outline

The Leeson effect in a nutshell Heuristic explanation of the Leeson effect Resonator theory Formal proof for the Leeson effect The Leeson effect in delay-line oscillators AM-PM noise coupling Oscillator hacking Acknowledgement and conclusions

home page http://rubiola.org

The Reference Book for this Lecture

CAMBRIDGE

振荡器的相位噪声与 频率稳定度

Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators

〔意〕 Enrico Rubiola 著

THE CAMBRIDGE RF AND MICROWAVE ENGINEERING SERIES



Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators

Contents

Forewords (L. Maleki, D. B. Leeson)

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- Phase noise and frequency stability
- Phase noise in semiconductors & amplifiers
- Heuristic approach to the Leeson effect
- Phase noise and feedback theory
- Noise in delay-line oscillators and lasers
- Oscillator hacking
- Appendix

Cambridge University Press, 2008-2012, ISBN 978-0-521-88677-2, 978-0-521-15328-7, 978-1-139-23940-0

Simplified Chinese, 2014, ISBN 978-7-03-041231-7

The Leeson effect in a nutshell

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David B. Leeson, Proc. IEEE 54(2) p.329, Feb 1966 E. Rubiola, Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators, Cambridge 2008, 2012



Heuristic Explanation of the Leeson Effect 291

General oscillator model



- RLC resonator
- Piezoelectric quartz resonator
- Microwave cavity
- Microwave dielectric resonator
- Fabry-Pérot resonator
- Optomechanic resonator
- Optical fiber
- etc.

Barkhausen condition

$$A\beta = 1$$
 at ν_0

(phase matching)

The Barkhausen condition in practice





 $A\beta = 1$ (complex) A constant vs ω $\beta(\omega)$ is the sharp resonance

- $\arg(\beta)$ sets the oscillation frequency
- saturation fixes $|A\beta| = 1$

$$\arg(\beta) = \arctan Q \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0} - \frac{\omega_0}{\omega}\right)$$
$$\simeq -2Q \frac{\omega - \omega_0}{\omega_0}$$

close to the resonance

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Tuning an oscillator



closed loop function $H(v) = A\beta(v)e^{j\psi}$ A(v) = constPhase matching

 $\arg(\beta) + \psi = 0$





Heuristic derivation of the Leeson effect









A Method to Sove Phase Noise Problems



Linear Time-Invariant System

Impulse response and frequency response

in the amplitude-phase space

Linear Time-Invariant (LTI) systems



impulse response

response to the generic signal vi(t)

$$H(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

$$H(s) = \int_0^\infty h(t) \, e^{-st} \, dt$$

H(s), $s = \sigma + j\omega$, is the analytic continuation of $H(\omega)$ for causal system, where h(t) = 0 for t < 0

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Time domain

 ω_n

$$\ddot{x} + \frac{\omega_n}{Q}\dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = \frac{\omega_n}{Q}\dot{v}(t)$$

shorthand: $f = \omega/2\pi$



natural frequency quality factor Qrelaxation time au $\tau = \frac{2Q}{\omega_n}$ free-decay pseudofrequency ω_p $\omega_p = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - 1/4Q^2}$



Figures are from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

The resonator



Figures are from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency

$$\beta(s) = \frac{\omega_n}{Q} \frac{s}{s^2 + \frac{\omega_n}{Q} + \omega_n^2}$$
applace $\beta(s) = X(s)/V(s)$, $s = \sigma + j\omega$



σ

Resonator – Frequency domain



Laplace-transform patterns

Fundamental theorem of complex algebra: F(s) is completely determined by its roots



Impulse response of the resonator



Can't figure out a $\delta(t)$ of phase or amplitude? Use Heaviside (step) u(t) and differentiate



Response to a phase step κ

A phase step is equivalent to switching a sinusoid off at t = 0, and switching a shifted sinusoid on at t = 0



Figures are from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

Impulse response, $\omega_0 = \omega_n$

$$\begin{split} v_i(t) &= \underbrace{\cos(\omega_0 t) \,\mathfrak{u}(-t)}_{\text{switched off at } t = 0} + \underbrace{\cos(\omega_0 t + \kappa) \,\mathfrak{u}(t)}_{\text{switched on at } t = 0} & \text{phase step } \kappa \text{ at } t = 0 \\ v_o(t) &= \cos(\omega_p t) \, e^{-t/\tau} + \cos(\omega_p t + \kappa) \left[1 - e^{-t/\tau}\right] & t > 0 & \text{output} \\ v_o(t) &= \cos(\omega_p t) - \kappa \sin(\omega_p t) \left[1 - e^{-t/\tau}\right] & \kappa \to 0 & \text{linearize} \\ v_o(t) &= \cos(\omega_0 t) - \kappa \sin(\omega_0 t) \left[1 - e^{-t/\tau}\right] & \omega_p \to \omega_0 & \text{high } Q \\ \mathbf{V_o}(t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left\{ 1 + j\kappa \left[1 - e^{-t/\tau}\right] \right\} & \text{slow-varying phase vector} \\ \arctan\left(\frac{\Im\{\mathbf{V_o}(t)\}}{\Re\{\mathbf{V_o}(t)\}}\right) \simeq \kappa \left[1 - e^{-t/\tau}\right] & \text{phasor angle} \\ \text{delete } \kappa \text{ and differentiate} \\ b(t) &= \frac{1}{\tau} e^{-s\tau} & \leftrightarrow & \mathbf{B}(s) = \frac{1/\tau}{s + 1/\tau} \end{split}$$

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Detuned resonator

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{amplitude} & \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \varphi \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{\alpha\alpha} & b_{\alpha\varphi} \\ b_{\varphi\alpha} & b_{\varphi\varphi} \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon \\ \psi \end{bmatrix} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{A} \\ \Phi \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} B_{\alpha\alpha} & B_{\alpha\varphi} \\ B_{\varphi\alpha} & B_{\varphi\varphi} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{E} \\ \Psi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$egin{aligned} \Omega &= \omega_0 - \omega_n & ext{detuning} \ eta_0 &= |eta(j\omega_0)| & ext{modulus} \ heta &= rg(eta(j\omega_0)) & ext{phase} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} v_i(t) &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{\beta_0} \cos(\omega_0 t - \theta) \,\mathfrak{u}(-t)}_{\text{switched off at } t = 0} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{\beta_0} \cos(\omega_0 t - \theta + \kappa) \,\mathfrak{u}(t)}_{\text{switched on at } t = 0} & \text{phase step } \kappa \text{ at } t = 0 \end{aligned}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\beta_0} \cos(\omega_0 t - \theta) \,\mathfrak{u}(-t) + \frac{1}{\beta_0} \left[\cos(\omega_0 t - \theta) \cos \kappa - \sin(\omega_0 t - \theta) \sin \kappa \right] \mathfrak{u}(t)$$
$$\simeq \frac{1}{\beta_0} \cos(\omega_0 t - \theta) \,\mathfrak{u}(-t) + \frac{1}{\beta_0} \left[\cos(\omega_0 t - \theta) - \kappa \sin(\omega_0 t - \theta) \right] \mathfrak{u}(t) \quad \kappa \ll 1. \end{aligned}$$

Details

Probe signal, $t \leq 0$

$$v_i(t) = \frac{1}{\beta_0} \cos(\omega_0 t - \theta)$$

where β_0 and θ are chosen for

$$x_o(t) = \cos(\omega_0 t)$$

in stationary conditions

Baseline, $t \le 0$ $x_{bl}(t) = \cos(\omega_0 t)$ **Differential equation**

Characteristic equation

Solutions of the char. eq.

with

$$\dot{x} + \frac{\omega_n}{Q}\dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = \frac{\omega_n}{Q}\dot{v}$$

$$s^2 + \frac{\omega_n}{Q}s + \omega_n^2 = 0$$

$$s = \sigma_p \pm i\omega_p$$

$$\sigma_p = -\frac{\omega_n}{2Q} \quad \omega_p = \frac{\omega_n}{2Q} \sqrt{4Q^2 - 1} \quad \tau = -\frac{1}{\sigma_p} = \frac{2Q}{\omega_n}$$

General solution of the DE $x(t) = \mathcal{A}\cos(\omega_p t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} + \mathcal{B}\sin(\omega_p t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} + \mathcal{C}\cos(\omega_0 t) + \mathcal{D}\sin(\omega_0 t)$ The coefficients $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D}$ are set by the BCs at t = 0 and $t = \infty$

Alternate form of the general solution, make ω_0 explicit using $\omega_p = \omega_0 - \Omega$

$$x(t) = \left[\mathcal{C} + \mathcal{A}\cos(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} - \mathcal{B}\sin(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}\right]\cos(\omega_0 t) + \left[\mathcal{D} + \mathcal{A}\sin(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} + \mathcal{B}\cos(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}\right]\sin(\omega_0 t)$$

Define $\Omega = \omega_0 - \omega_p$, where ω_0 is the frequency of the force, and replace $\omega_p = \omega_0 - \Omega$ $\cos(\omega_p t) = \cos(\Omega t) \cos(\omega_0 t) + \sin(\Omega t) \sin(\omega_0 t)$ $\sin(\omega_p t) = -\sin(\Omega t) \cos(\omega_0 t) + \cos(\Omega t) \sin(\omega_0 t)$

Switch-off transient, $t \ge 0$

 $x_{\text{off}}(t) = \cos(\omega_p t) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} = \cos(\Omega t) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \cos(\omega_0 t) + \sin(\Omega t) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \sin(\omega_0 t)$

Phase response

$\begin{aligned} x_{\rm on}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{C} + \mathcal{A}\cos(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} - \mathcal{B}\sin(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \end{bmatrix}\cos(\omega_0 t) + \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{D} + \mathcal{A}\sin(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} + \mathcal{B}\cos(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \end{bmatrix}\sin(\omega_0 t) \\ \text{BC} & t \to \infty \Rightarrow e^{-t/\tau} \to 0 & \mathcal{C} = 1, \ \mathcal{D} = -\kappa \\ t \to 0 \Rightarrow e^{-t/\tau} \to 1 & \mathcal{C} + \mathcal{A} = 0 \Rightarrow \mathcal{A} = -1 \\ \mathcal{D} + \mathcal{B} = 0 \Rightarrow \mathcal{B} = \kappa \end{aligned}$ $x_{\rm on}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \cos(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} - \kappa\sin(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \end{bmatrix}\cos(\omega_0 t) + \begin{bmatrix} -\kappa + \kappa\cos(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} - \sin(\Omega t)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \end{bmatrix}\sin(\omega_0 t) \end{aligned}$

Switch-on transient

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Add switch-off and switch-on transients $x_{\text{off}}(t) + x_{\text{on}}(t) = \left[1 - \kappa \sin(\Omega t) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}\right] \cos(\omega_0 t) - \kappa \left[1 - \cos(\Omega t) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}\right] \sin(\omega_0 t)$





SW-ON Cos(Wot)

Amplitude response

<u>- 1+κ</u>



Switch-on transient

Add switch-off and switch-on transients $x_{\text{off}}(t) + x_{\text{on}}(t) = \left[(1 + \kappa) - \kappa \cos(\Omega t) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \right] \cos(\omega_0 t) - \kappa \sin(\Omega t) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \sin(\omega_0 t)$



$$x_u(t) = \frac{1}{\kappa} [x_{\text{off}}(t) + x_{\text{on}}(t) - x_{\text{bl}}(t)]$$

$$x_u(t) = \left[1 - \cos(\Omega t) e^{-t/\tau} \cos(\omega_0 t) - \sin(\Omega t) e^{-t/\tau} \sin(\omega_0 t)\right]$$





SW-ON

cos(Wot)

sim (wot)

Impulse response of the detuned resonator ³⁰⁹

Time domain

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varphi \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\tau} \cos(\Omega t) + \Omega \sin(\Omega t) & -\Omega \cos(\Omega t) - \frac{1}{\tau} \sin(\Omega t) \\ \Omega \cos(\Omega t) - \frac{1}{\tau} \sin(\Omega t) & \frac{1}{\tau} \cos(\Omega t) + \Omega \sin(\Omega t) \end{bmatrix} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \begin{bmatrix} \psi \\ \epsilon \end{bmatrix}$$

Laplace Transforms

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Phi \\ A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\tau} \frac{s + \frac{1}{\tau} + \tau \Omega^2}{s^2 + \frac{1}{\tau^2} + \frac{2s}{\tau} + \Omega^2} & -\Omega \frac{s}{s^2 + \frac{1}{\tau^2} + \frac{2s}{\tau} + \Omega^2} \\ \Omega \frac{s}{s^2 + \frac{1}{\tau^2} + \frac{2s}{\tau} + \Omega^2} & \frac{1}{\tau} \frac{s + \frac{1}{\tau} + \tau \Omega^2}{s^2 + \frac{1}{\tau^2} + \frac{2s}{\tau} + \Omega^2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Psi \\ E \end{bmatrix}$$

Resonator step and impulse response





A in one of the coupling terms may be wrong, double check 310

Frequency response



Formal Proof for the Leeson Effect

Low-pass representation of AM-PM noise

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E. Rubiola, Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators, Cambridge 2008–2012

E. Rubiola & R. Brendel, arXiv:1004.5539v1, [physics.ins-det]

The amplifier

 $[1+\alpha(t)] \cos[\omega_0 t+\phi(t)]$ real amplifier noise gain AM compression **ψ(t) η(t)** RF, μwaves resonator or optics β - "copies" the input phase to the out low-pass equivalent – adds phase noise PM AM $\alpha_{u}(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_{u}(s)$ $\psi(t) \leftrightarrow \Psi(s)$ $\phi(t) \leftrightarrow \Phi(s)$ **ε(t)** $\alpha_v(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_v(s)$ (Mhr) gain fluctuat. saturation low-pass $\eta(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{N}(s)$ $b(t) \leftrightarrow B(s)$ low-pass b(t) ↔ B(s) extension of the LE to AM noise Leeson Effect

Effect of feedback

Oscillator transfer function (RF)



Figures are from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency © Cambridge University Press stability in oscillators,

The Leeson effect







Oscillator with detuned resonator



Gain saturation



Gain compression is necessary for the oscillation amplitude to be stable

Low-pass model for amplitude (1)



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Low-pass model for amplitude (2)



Startup – Analysis and simulation


Gain fluctuations



Gain compression is necessary for the oscillation amplitude to be stable

Gain fluctuations – Output is u(t)

 $\dot{\alpha}$

 \dot{lpha}_u



$$lpha_u(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_u(s) \quad ext{and} \quad \eta(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{N}(s)$$
 $\mathrm{H}_u(s) = rac{\mathcal{A}_u(s)}{\mathcal{N}(s)} \quad ext{definition}$

$$\mathbf{H}_u(s) = \frac{1/\tau}{s+\gamma/\tau} \,\, \mathrm{result}$$

$$\dot{u}=rac{1}{ au}(A-1)u$$
 non-linear equation $A=1-\gamma(u-1)+\eta$ $\dot{u}+rac{\gamma}{ au}(u-1)u=rac{\eta}{ au}$ linearization

$$+rac{\tau}{\tau}(u-1)u=rac{\tau}{\tau}u$$
 line
 u α_u 1 1 for u

$$+ \, rac{\gamma}{ au} lpha_u = rac{1}{ au} \eta$$
 linearized equation

$$\left(s + \frac{\gamma}{\tau}\right) \mathcal{A}_u(s) = \frac{1}{\tau} \mathcal{N}(s)$$
 Laplace transform



Gain fluctuations – Output is v(t)



$$\begin{pmatrix} s + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} \end{pmatrix} \mathcal{A}_{u}(s) = \frac{1}{\tau} \mathcal{N}(s)$$
 starting equation

$$\mathcal{A}_{u}(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_{v}(s) - \mathcal{N}(s)}{1 - \gamma}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} s + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} \end{pmatrix} \mathcal{A}_{v}(s) = \left(s + \frac{1}{\tau}\right) \mathcal{N}(s)$$

$$H(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_{v}(s)}{\mathcal{N}(s)}$$
 definition

$$H(s) = \frac{s + 1/\tau}{s + \gamma/\tau}$$
 result

$$v = Au$$

$$A = -\gamma(u - 1) + 1 + \eta$$

$$v = [-\gamma(u - 1) + 1 + \eta] u$$

$$v = [-\gamma\alpha_u + 1 + \eta] [1 + \alpha_u]$$

$$\chi + \alpha_v = \chi + \eta - \gamma\alpha_u + \alpha_u - \gamma_u \eta - \gamma \alpha_u^2$$

$$\alpha_v = (1 - \gamma)\alpha_u + \eta$$

$$\alpha_u = \frac{\alpha_v - \eta}{1 - \gamma}$$
linearization
for low noise

boring algebra relates α_v to α_u



Noise – Output is u(t)

 $\mathrm{H}_u(s) = rac{s+1/ au}{s+\gamma/ au}$ result





Noise – Output is u(t)



$$\dot{\alpha}_{u} + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} \alpha_{u} = \dot{\epsilon} + \frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon \qquad \begin{array}{linearized\\equation\end{array}}$$
$$\overset{\text{linearized}\\equation\end{array}$$
$$\frac{1}{1 - \gamma} \left(\dot{\alpha}_{v} + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} \alpha_{v} \right) = \dot{\epsilon} + \frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon$$
$$\frac{1}{1 - \gamma} \left(s + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} \right) \mathcal{A}_{v}(s) = \left(s + \frac{1}{\tau} \right) \mathcal{E}(s) \qquad \begin{array}{l}\text{Laplace}\\\text{transform}\end{array}$$

 τ

boring algebra relates
$$\alpha'$$
 to α
 $v = Au$
 $A = 1 - \gamma(u - 1)$
 $v = [1 - \gamma(u - 1)] u$
 $1 + \alpha_v = [1 - \gamma\alpha_u] [1 + \alpha_u]$
 $\chi + \alpha_v = \chi + \alpha_u - \gamma\alpha_u - \gamma\alpha_u^2$ linearization
 $\alpha_v = (1 - \gamma)\alpha_u$
 $\alpha_u = \frac{\alpha_v}{1 - \gamma}$

$$\mathbf{H}(s) = rac{\mathcal{A}_v(s)}{\mathcal{E}(s)}$$
 definition

 τ

$$\mathbf{H}(s) = (1-\gamma) \; \frac{s+1/\tau}{s+\gamma/\tau} \; \; \text{result} \;$$



Parametric noise & AM-PM noise coupling





Noise transfer function, and spectra



Notice that the AM-PM coupling can increase or decrease the PM noise

In a real oscillator, flicker noise shows up below some 10 kHz In the flicker region, all plots are multiplied by 1/f 328

Oscillator Hacking

Still not able to hack the Rohde oscillator

Amplifier white and flicker PM noise



The corner frequency f_c , sometimes specified in data sheets is a misleading parameter because it depends on P_0

Ciao microwave amplifier



Parametric noise in amplifiers tends to be independent of ν_0

Oscillator noise – Real sustaining amplifier



The sustaining-amplifier noise is $S_{\varphi}(f) = b_0 + b_{-1}/f$ (white and flicker)

The output buffer



Cascading two amplifiers, flicker noise adds as $S_{\varphi(f)} = [S_{\varphi}(f)]_1 + [S_{\varphi}(f)]_2$





The fluctuation of the resonator

- The oscillator tracks the resonator natural frequency, hence its fluctuations
- Phase-to frequency conversion $f^0 \rightarrow 1/f^2$, $1/f \rightarrow 1/f^3$, etc.

• The resonator bandwidth does not apply to the natural-frequency fluctuation. (Tip: an oscillator can be frequency modulated at a rate $\gg f_L$)





Analysis of Commercial Oscillators

The purpose of this section is to help to understand the oscillator inside from the phase noise spectra, plus some technical information. I have chosen some commercial oscillators as an example.

The conclusions about each oscillator represent only my understanding, based on experience and on the data sheets published on the manufacturer web site.

You should be aware that this process of interpretation is not free from errors. My conclusions were not submitted to manufacturers before writing, for their comments could not be included.



Example – DRO100, Synergy Microwave Corp.



- 1. White PM: $b_0 = 10^{-17}$
- Use $b_0 = FkT/P_0$
- Guess F = 1.25 (1 dB)
- Find $P_0 = 520 \, \mu W$

2. White FM: $b_{-2} = 1.41 \times 10^{-4}$

• From $b_{-2}/f^2 = b_0$ find $f_L = 3.75$ MHz

Use
$$f_L = v_0/2Q$$

• Find Q = 1330

3. Flicker PM: $b_{-3} = 14.1$

- From $b_{-3}/f^3 = b_{-2}/f^2$ find $f_c = 100 \text{ kHz}$
- Use $S_{\varphi}/S_{\psi} = (f_L/f)^2$ at $f \ll f_L$
- Find $b_{-1} = 10^{-12}$ sustaining amplifier 1/f

Example – Rakon HSO 14, 5 MHz OCXO



Figure from U. L. Rohde, E. Rubiola, J. C. Whithaker, *Microwave and Wireless Synthesizers*, ISBN 978-1-119-66600-4, ©J.Wiley 2021 (adapted)

- 1. White PM: $b_0 = 1.6 \times 10^{-16}$
- Use $b_0 = FkT/P_0$
- Guess F = 1.25 (1 dB)
- Find $P_0 = 33 \mu W$

2. Flicker PM: $b_{-1} = 8 \times 10^{-15}$

• Guess
$$[b_{-1}]_{SA} \approx (1/4)[b_{-1}]_{osc}$$

• Find $[b_{-1}]_{SA} = 2 \times 10^{-15}$ 1/f of the sustaining amplifier

3. Flicker FM: $b_{-3} = 6.3 \times 10^{-14}$

• Guess $Q = 2 \times 10^6$, premium 5 MHz xtal

• Use
$$S_{\varphi}/S_{\psi} = (f_L/f)^2$$
 at $f \ll f_L$

• The expected Leeson effect is $[b_{-3}]_{LE} = 2.5 \times 10^{-15} \ll [b_{-3}]_{osc}$

• Use
$$S_{V}(f) = (f^2/\nu_0^2)S_{\varphi}(f)$$

- Find $h_{-1} = 2.52 \times 10^{-27}$
- Flicker floor: use $\sigma_y^2 = 2 \ln(2) h_{-1}$
- Find $\sigma_y^2 = 3.5 \times 10^{-27}$ AVAR $\sigma_y = 5.9 \times 10^{-14}$ ADEV

Miteq D210B, 10 GHz DRO





Reminder: from the table

$$\sigma_{V}^{2}(\tau) = h_{0}/2\tau + 2 \ln(2) h_{-1}$$

 $h_{0} = b_{-2}/\nu_{0}^{2}$
 $b_{-1} = b_{-3}/\nu_{0}^{2}$
 $b_{0} = \frac{FkT_{0}}{P_{0}}$

- $kT_0 = 4 \times 10^{-21}$ W/Hz (-174 dBm/Hz)
- floor -146 dBrad2/Hz, guess F = 1.25 (1 dB) => $P_0 = 2 \mu W$ (-27 dBm)

•
$$f_L = 4.3 \text{ MHz},$$

 $f_L = v_0/2Q \implies Q = 1160$

• $f_c = 70 \text{ kHz}, \text{ b}_{-1}/f = b_0$ =>b_1 = 1.8×10⁻¹⁰ (-98 dBrad2/Hz) [sust.ampli]

•
$$h_0 = 7.9 \times 10^{-22}$$
 and
 $h_{-1} = 5 \times 10^{-17}$
 $= \sigma_y = 2 \times 10^{-11} / \sqrt{\tau} + 8.3 \times 10^{-9}$

Poseidon* Scientific Instruments – Shoebox 10 GHz sapphire whispering-gallery oscillator (1)



 $f_L = v_0/2Q = 2.6 \text{ kHz}$ => $Q = 1.8 \times 10^6$

This incompatible with the resonator technology. Typical Q of a sapphire whispering gallery resonator:

2×10⁵ @ 295K (room temp), 3×10⁷ @ 77K (liquid N), 4×10⁹ @ 4K (liquid He).

In addition, d \sim 6 dB does not fit the power-law.

The interpretation shown is wrong, and the Leeson frequency is somewhere else

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The spectrum is © Poseidon. The figure is from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

Poseidon* Scientific Instruments – Shoebox 10 GHz sapphire whispering-gallery oscillator (2)



The spectrum is © Poseidon. The figure is from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

The 1/f noise of the output buffer is higher than that of the sustaining amplifier (a complex amplifier with interferometric noise reduction / or a Pound control)

In this case both 1/f and $1/f^2$ are present

white noise $-169 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$, guess F = 5dB (interferometer) $=> P_0 = 0 \text{ dBm}$ buffer flicker $-120 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$ @ 1 Hz => good microwave amplifier

 $f_L = v_0/2Q = 25 \text{ kHz} \implies Q = 2 \times 10^5$ (quite reasonable)

 $f_c = 850 \text{ Hz} \Rightarrow$ flicker of the interferometric amplifier -139 dBrad²/Hz @ 1 Hz 340

Poseidon* Scientific Instruments 10 GHz dielectric resonator oscillator (DRO)



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Example – Oscilloquartz 8600 (wrong)



The spectrum is © Oscilloquartz. The figure is from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press



ANALYSIS

- 1 − floor $S_{\phi 0} = -155 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$, guess F = 1 dB \rightarrow P₀ = -18 dBm
- 2 ampli flicker $S_{\phi} = -132 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$ @ 1 Hz \rightarrow good RF amplifier
- $3 \text{merit factor } Q = v_0/2f_L = 5 \cdot 10^6/5 = 10^6$ (seems too low)
- 4 take away some flicker for the output buffer:
 - * flicker in the oscillator core is lower than -132 dBrad²/Hz @ 1 Hz

* fL is higher than 2.5 Hz

* the resonator Q is lower than 10⁶

This is inconsistent with the resonator technology (expect $Q > 10^6$). The true Leeson frequency is lower than the frequency labeled as fL

The 1/f³ noise is attributed to the fluctuation of the quartz resonant frequency

Example – Oscilloquartz 8600 (trusted)

 $S_{\phi}(f) dBrad^2/Hz$





 $F = 1 \text{ dB } \& b_0 \implies P_0 = -18 \text{ dBm}$ $(b_{-3})_{\text{osc}} \implies \sigma_{\text{V}} = 1.5 \times 10^{-13}, Q = 5.6 \times 10^5 \text{ (too low)}$

Guess $Q \stackrel{?}{=} 1.8 \times 10^{6}$ => $\sigma_{V} = 4.6 \times 10^{-14}$ Leeson (too low value!)

The spectrum is © Oscilloquartz. The figure is from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

Whispering gallery oscillator, liquid-N₂ temperature³⁴⁴



Example – Oscilloquartz 8607



Example – CMAC Pharao

 $S_{\phi}(f) dBrad^2/Hz$



F = 1 dB $b_0 \Rightarrow P_0 = -20.5 \text{ dBm}$ $(b_{-3})_{\text{osc}} \Rightarrow \sigma_{\text{V}} = 5.9 \times 10^{-14}$ $Q = 8.4 \times 10^5$ (too low)

Guess $Q \stackrel{?}{=} 2 \times 106$ $\Rightarrow \sigma_{V} = 2.5 \times 10^{-14}$ Leeson (too low value!)

The spectrum is © Rakon The figure is from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

Example – FEMTO-ST prototype



F = 1 dB $b_0 \implies P_0 = -26 \text{ dBm}$ $(b_{-3})_{\text{osc}} \implies \sigma_{\text{V}} = 1.7 \times 10^{-13}$ $Q = 5.4 \times 10^5 \text{ (too low)}$

Guess $Q \stackrel{?}{=} 1.15 \times 106$ $\Rightarrow \sigma_{y} = 8.1 \times 10^{-14}$ Leeson (too low value!)

Example – Agilent/Keysight 10811



F = 1 dB $b_0 \implies P_0 = -11 \text{ dBm}$ $(b_{-3})_{\text{osc}} \implies \sigma_{\text{V}} \equiv 8.3 \times 10^{-13}$ $Q = 7 \times 10^5 \text{ (too low)}$

Guess $Q \stackrel{?}{=} 7 \times 105$ $\Rightarrow \sigma_{y} = 1.2 \times 10^{-13}$ Leeson (too low value!)

Caveat – this oscillator may use the carrier extraction from the quartz. If so, our estimation of P_0 is wrong

The spectrum is © Agilent. The figure is from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

Example – Agilent (Keysight) prototype



The spectrum is © IEEE. The figure is from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

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Interpretation of $S_{\varphi}(f)$ [1]

Only quartz-crystal oscillators

flicker

 $b_0 f^0$

≈ 6dB

 $b_{-1}f^{-1}$



File: 602a-xtal-interpretation

Figures are from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

2–3 buffer stages => the sustaining amplifier contributes $\leq 25\%$ of the total 1/f noise

low noise	noisy				

Sanity check:

- power P_0 at amplifier input
- Allan deviation $\sigma_{\rm V}$ (floor)

Interpretation of $S_{\varphi}(f)$ [2]

Only quartz-crystal oscillators



Technology suggests a quality factor Q_t

In all xtal oscillators we find $Q_t \gg Q_s$

File: 602b-xtal-interpretation

Figures are from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

E. Rubiola – Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators Cambridge University Press 2008 – ISBN 978-0-521-88677-2

Example – Wenzel 501-04623



Figures are from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

Data are from the manufacturer web site. Interpretation and mistakes are of the author. $F=1dB b_0 \Rightarrow P_0=0 dBm$

 $(b_{-3})_{osc} \implies \sigma_y=5.3x10^{-12} \text{ Q}=1.4x10^4$ $Q \stackrel{?}{=} 8x10^4 \implies \sigma_y=9.3x10^{-13}$ (Leeson)

Estimating (b₋₁)_{ampli} is difficult because there is no visible 1/f region

Quartz-oscillator summary

Oscillator	$ u_0$	$(b_{-3})_{ m tot}$	$(b_{-1})_{ m tot}$	$(b_{-1})_{\mathrm{amp}}$	f_L'	f_L''	Q_s	Q_t	f_L	$(b_{-3})_{ m L}$	R	Note
Oscilloquar 8600	$^{ m tz}~_{5}$	-124.0	-131.0	-137.0	2.24	4.5	$5.6 imes 10^5$	1.8×10^{6}	1.4	-134.1	10.1	(1)
Oscilloquar 8607	$^{ m tz}~5$	-128.5	-132.5	-138.5	1.6	3.2	$7.9{ imes}10^5$	$2{ imes}10^6$	1.25	-136.5	8.1	(1)
Rakon Pharao	5	-132.0	-135.5	-141.1	1.5	3	8.4×10^{5}	$2{ imes}10^6$	1.25	-139.6	7.6	(2)
FEMTO-ST LD prot.	Г ₁₀	-116.6	-130.0	-136.0	4.7	9.3	5.4×10^{5}	1.15×10^{6}	4.3	-123.2	6.6	(3)
Agilent 10811	10	-103.0	-131.0	-137.0	25	50	1×10^{5}	$7{ imes}10^5$	7.1	-119.9	16.9	(4)
$\operatorname{Agilent}$ prototype	10	-102.0	-126.0	-132.0	16	32	$1.6{ imes}10^5$	$7{ imes}10^5$	7.1	-114.9	12.9	(5)
Wenzel 501-04623	100	-67.0	-132?	-138?	1800	3500	1.4×10^{4}	8×10^4	625	-79.1	15.1	(6)
unit	MHz	$dB \\ rad^2/Hz$	$dB \\ rad^2/Hz$	$dB \\ rad^2/Hz$	Hz	Hz	(none)	(none)	Hz	$dB \\ rad^2/Hz$	dB	

Notes

(1) Data are from specifications, full options about low noise and high stability.

(2) Measured by Rakon on a sample. Rakon confirmed that $2 \times 10^6 < Q < 2.2 \times 10^6$ in actual conditions.

(3) LD cut, built and measured in our laboratory, yet by a different team. Q_t is known.

(4) Measured by Hewlett Packard (now Agilent) on a sample.

(5) Implements a bridge scheme for the degeneration of the amplifier noise. Same resonator of the Agilent 10811.

(6) Data are from specifications.

$$R = \left. \frac{(\sigma_y)_{\text{oscill}}}{(\sigma_y)_{\text{Leeson}}} \right|_{\text{floor}} = \sqrt{\frac{(b_{-3})_{\text{tot}}}{(b_{-3})_L}} = \frac{Q_t}{Q_s} = \frac{f_L''}{f_L}$$

The Rohde Oscillator

The Rohde-Colpitts oscillator



Fig. 1 from U. L. Rohde, Crystal oscillator provides low noise, Electronic Design Oct 11, 1975 p.11, 14 • Off resonance, either $X_L \gg R_S$ or $X_C \gg R_S$

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- The motional resistance R_S is not coupled to the output
- No thermal noise from R_S to the output
- The quartz also filters out
 harmonics and spurs

R_s

С

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The Rohde oscillator

The weird 100 MHz OCXOs

- Neg-R oscillator, where the resonator also filters the out
- The AC current I_R is transferred from SA to OUT
- At $f > v_0/2Q$, the thermal noise of R_S is not coupled
- Magic bias minimizes the buffer noise
- C_{CB} and stray L_{base} originates feedback. Noise is more than just thermal noise

How to get low floor — and the troubles that go with


The sub-thermal oscillator



- Low white noise achieved with a quartz filter
- $f < f_c$: carrier (and red noise) coupled to out
- $f > f_c$: the filter is open circuit
 - buffer noise and thermal noise of the motional *R* are not coupled to output
 - Equivalent temperature $T_{eq} < T_{room}$
 - No violation of physics principles!
- Reverse engineering from noise is still unclear
- Actual noise may depend on what is connected at the output
- Odd behavior of commercial phase-noise analyzers

The Delay-Line Oscillator



Motivations



- Potential for very-low phase noise in the 100 Hz 1 MHz range
- Invented at JPL, X. S. Yao & L. Maleki, JOSAB 13(8) 1725–1735, Aug 1996
- Early attempt of noise modeling, S. Römisch & al., IEEE T UFFC 47(5) 1159–1165, Sep 2000
- PM-noise analysis, E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, Cambridge 2008 [Chapter 5]
- Since, little progress in the analysis of noise at system level
- Nobody reported on the consequences of AM noise

Low-pass representation of AM-PM noise

E. Rubiola, Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators, Cambridge 2008–2012

E. Rubiola & R. Brendel, <u>arXiv:1004.5539v1</u>, [physics.ins-det]

The amplifier

- "copies" the input phase to the out
- adds phase noise



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Delay-line oscillator – Operation

model output $V_0(s)$ Barkhausen condition for oscillation: $A\beta = 1$ noise - ′- → (∑) $V_i(s)$ $V'_{0}(s)$ free initial conditions, noise, or locking signal true oscillator output delay $\beta(s) = e^{-s\tau_d}$ in practice, delay + selector delay selector $\beta_d(s) = e^{-s\tau_d}$ $\beta_{f}(s)$

General feedback theory $H(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{1}{1 - A\beta(s)}$

Delay-line oscillator $H(s) = \frac{1}{1 - Ae^{-s\tau_d}}$

Location of the roots

$$s_l = \frac{1}{\tau_d} \ln(A) + j \frac{2\pi}{\tau_d} l$$
 integer $l \in (-\infty, \infty)$



2

f * tau

0

0

The Leeson effect in the delay-line oscillator ³⁶²



This figure is from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press



transfer function |H|²



Gain fluctuations – Output is u(t)



The low-pass has only 2nd order effect on AM

Linearize for low noise and use the Laplace transform $\alpha_u(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_u(s) \text{ and } \eta(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{N}(s)$ $\mathrm{H}(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_u(s)}{\mathcal{N}(s)}$ definition

$$\mathbf{H}(s) = \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \gamma)e^{-s\tau}}$$

$$u = A(t- au) \, u(t- au)^{ ext{ non-lineal equation}} \, {f 1}_{A\,=\,1-\gamma(u-1)\,+\,\eta}$$

use u=
$$\alpha$$
+1, expand and linearize for low noise

$$\alpha(t) = (1 - \gamma)\alpha(t - \tau) - \gamma \alpha^2(t - \tau) \quad \mathbf{0}$$

$$+ \eta(t - \tau) + \eta(t - \tau)\alpha(t - \tau) \quad \mathbf{0}$$

linearized equation
$$lpha(t) = (1-\gamma)lpha(t- au) + \eta(t- au)$$

Laplace transform

$$\mathcal{A}_u(s) = \left[1 - (1 - \gamma)e^{-s\tau}\right] = \mathcal{N}(s)$$



Gain fluctuations – Output is v(t)



The low-pass has only 2nd order effect on AM

boring algebra relates
$$\alpha_v$$
 to α_u
 $v = Au$
 $A = -\gamma(u-1) + 1 + \eta$
 $v = [-\gamma(u-1) + 1 + \eta] u$ use $u=\alpha+1$
 $v = [-\gamma\alpha_u + 1 + \eta] [1 + \alpha_u]$
 $X + \alpha_v = X + \eta - \gamma\alpha_u + \alpha_u - \alpha_z \eta - \gamma \alpha_u^2$
 $\alpha_v = (1 - \gamma)\alpha_u + \eta$ linearization
 $\alpha_u = \frac{\alpha_v - \eta}{1 - \gamma}$ for low noise

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{A}_{u}(s) \left[1 - (1 - \gamma)e^{-\imath\omega\tau} \right] &= \mathcal{N}(s) \\ \uparrow \\ \mathcal{A}_{u}(s) &= \frac{\mathcal{A}_{v}(s) - \mathcal{N}(s)}{1 - \gamma} & \text{starting equation} \\ \left[1 + (1 - \gamma)(1 - e^{-s\tau}) \right] \mathcal{A}_{v}(s) &= \left[1 - (1 - \gamma)e^{-s\tau} \right] \mathcal{N}(s) \\ \mathrm{H}(s) &= \frac{\mathcal{A}_{v}(s)}{\mathcal{N}(s)} & \text{definition} \\ \mathrm{H}(s) &= \frac{1 + (1 - \gamma)(1 - e^{-s\tau})}{1 - (1 - \gamma)e^{-s\tau}} & \text{result} \end{split}$$



Т.

Theoretical prediction of AM & PM spectra

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Y.K. Chembo, K. Volyanskiy, L. Larger, E. Rubiola, P. Colet, & al., IEEE J. Quant. Electron. 45(2) p.178-186, Feb 2009



- Prediction is based on the stochastic diffusion (Langevin) theory
- However complex, the Langevin theory provides an independent check



Delay-line oscillator – Measured noise



- 1.310 nm DFB CATV laser
- Photodetector DSC 402 responsivity R = 371 V/W
- RF filter $\nu_0 = 10~{\rm GHz}, Q = 125$
- RF amplifier AML812PNB1901 (gain +22dB)

expected phase noise $b_{-3} \approx 6.3 \times 10^{-4}$ (-32 dB)

NIST Opto-Electronic Oscillator – Simulation



NIST opto-electronic oscillator



NIST opto-electronic oscillator



Opto-electronic oscillator



Courtesy of OEwaves (handwritten notes are mine).

Obsolete product? The specifications are no longer available from the OEwaevs web site

Opto-electronic oscillator



OEwaves, lowest phase noise (2)



```
b_{-3} \approx -53 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz} @ 10 \text{ GHz} =>
```

 $\sigma_{y} = 2.6 \times 10^{-13}$

The peak at 5.7 kHz is disappeared. Did they use a shorter fiber?

The high slope is now disappeared, probably filtered by the system

OEwaves compact OEO

OEwaves Compact OEO, (2007)



 $b_{-3} = -25 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$ @ 10 GHz => $\sigma_y = 6.6 \times 10^{-12}$

the bump at 580 kHz makes me think about a 340 m fiber

How did they remove the spurious?

Courtesy of OEwaves, notes are mine

Optical-Fiber 10 GHz oscillator



Kiryll Volyanskiy, jan 2008

- use positive feedback with a short cable (3-5 ns) in the feedback path to implement the mode selector filter
- the positive feedback also increase the amplifier gain (AML SiGe parallel amplifiers exhibits lowest flicker, but low have gain 22 dB)
- use the 2-km (10 μs) path to eliminate the 50-kHz noise peak due to the 4-km (20 μs)
- the microwave power is changed by adjusting the laser power
- high noise figure, due to the two power splitters/combiners

Regenerative optical-fiber 10 GHz oscillator ³⁷⁶

freq. random walk $b_{-4} = 0.2 \text{ rad}^2/\text{Hz}$ $h_{-2} = 2 \times 10^{-21}$ $\sigma_y(\tau) = 1.15 \times 10^{-10} \text{ V}\tau$

frequency flicker $b_{-3} = 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ rad}^2/\text{Hz}$ $h_{-1} = 2.5 \times 10^{-23}$ $\sigma_y(\tau) = 5.9 \times 10^{-11}$

11 dBm white freq. $b_{-2} = 2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ rad}^2/\text{Hz}$ $h_0 = 2 \times 10^{-21}$ $\sigma_y(\tau) = 1 \times 10^{-13}/\text{V}\tau$

9 dBm white freq. $b_{-2} = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ rad}^2/\text{Hz}$ $h_0 = 5 \times 10^{-26}$ $\sigma_y(\tau) = 1.6 \times 10^{-13}/\sqrt{\tau}$

8 dBm white freq. $b_{-2} = 8.9 \times 10^{-6} \text{ rad}^2/\text{Hz}$ $h_0 = 8.9 \times 10^{-26}$ $\sigma_y(\tau) = 2.1 \times 10^{-13}/\sqrt{\tau}$

The white f noise follows exactly the quadratic law of the detector



Regenerative optical-fiber 10 GHz oscillator ³⁷⁷

 $P_{\rm rf}$ is given, thus $V_0 = \sqrt{2RP}$ V_{π} is estimated (4.5 V at 10 GHz) Use

$$m = 2J_1 \left(\frac{\pi V_0}{V_{\pi}}\right)$$

Get

P, dBm	V_p, \vee	$\pi V_0/V_\pi$	m
11	1.122	0.86	0.783
9	0.891	0.683	0.644
8	0.794	0.6.09	0.581

The oscillator phase noise minima are 6 dB lower than bo=N/Po (white noise) m = 0.725 (Prf=11 dBm) $(S_{\varphi})_{\min} = -142$ dB F = 10 dB (incl. couplers) $\eta = 0.6$ $\nu_l = 194$ THz



$$(S_{\varphi})_{\min} = \frac{8}{m^2} \left\{ \frac{Fk_B T_0}{R_0} \left[\frac{h\nu_l}{q\eta} \right]^2 \frac{1}{\overline{P}_l^2} + 2 \frac{h\nu_l}{\eta} \frac{1}{\overline{P}_l} \right\}$$

Feeding the available data in the model we get $P_0 = 6.4 \,\mu\text{W}$ (RF, -22 dBm) $P_l \approx 0.71 \,\text{mW}$ (optical)

There is room for engineering

Noise transfer function – Simulation



Notice that the AM-PM coupling can increase or decrease the PM noise

In a real oscillator, flicker noise shows up below some 10 kHz In the flicker region, all plots are multiplied by 1/f

OEwaves OEO phase noise



Things May Not Be That Simple





K. Volyanskiy et al, arXiv:0809.4132 [physics.optics], 2008, Fig.3 Also K. Volyanskiy PhD thesis p.51, Fig.3.12(a), 2009





Noise spectra



Unfortunately, the awareness of this model come after the end of the experiments

Noise spectra



The figure is © NASA, comments are mine



FREQUENCY OFFSET, Hz

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Conclusions

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to Lute Maleki and to John Dick for numerous discussions during my visits at the NASA JPL, which are the first seed of my approach to the oscillator noise

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- prof. Theodor W. Hänsch and dr. Thomas Udem, MPQ, München

This material would never have existed without continuous discussions, help and support of Vincent Giordano, FEMTO-ST, over >20 years

This presentation is based on

E.Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, Cambridge 2008,

and on the complementary material

E. Rubiola, R. Brendel, A generalization of the Leeson effect, arXiv:1004.5539 [physics.ins-det]

home page <u>http://rubiola.org</u>

Dave and Enrico at the end of a tutorial

IEEE Frequency Control Symposium, S. Francisco, Ca, 1–5 May 2011



Photo by Barbara Leeson, Dave's wife

Summary of relevant points

- The Leeson effect consists in a phase-to-frequency conversion
- fully explained as a phase (noise) integration
- takes place below $f_L = v_0/2Q$
- The step response provides analytical solutions and physical inside. (Same formalism introduced by Oliver. Heaviside in network theory)
- Buffer noise and resonator instability add to the Leeson effect
- Amplifier phase noise
- white noise: S_{ϕ} scales down as the carrier power P_0
- flicker noise: S_{ϕ} is independent of PO
- Numerous oscillator spectra can be interpreted successfully
- The amplitude-noise response is similar to phase noise, but gain compression provides stabilization at low frequencies
- The theory indicates that amplitude-phase coupling results in a deviation from the polynomial law
- Unified AM/PM noise that applies to resonator-oscillators and to delay-line oscillators, including
 optical oscillators

home page http://rubiola.org

End of lecture 9







Lecture 10 Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

Enrico Rubiola

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Joan Anton A Contents

• The Pound Drever Hall frequency control

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The Pound-Drever-Hall Last update, 2024 March 19, 2024 Frequency Control

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Basic mechanism Key ideas Control loop **Resonators stability** Optimization Alternate schemes Microwave resonators **Optical resonators Fundamental physics**

Outline



Robert Vivian Pound, 1919-2010 Photo Harvard University https://news.harvard.edu/gazette/story/2012/10/robert-vivian-pound/



Ronald William P. Drever, 1931-2017 Photo CC-BY-SA 4.0 IDDrever https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ronald_Drever_Glasgow_2007.jpg



John Lewis "Jan" Hall, 1934-Photo CC-BY-SA 3.0 Markus Pössel https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John L. Hall#/media/File:John L. Hall in Lindau.jpg

home page http://rubiola.org

In a nutshell



Frequency stabilization to a passive resonator

- The resonator is not suitable to build an oscillator
- Cryogenics, vacuum,
- Etc.

Points of interest

- Power (intensity) detector available from RF to optics
- Compensation of the critical path
- Null measurement of the frequency error
- Use frequency modulation to get out of the flicker region
- One-port resonator: lowest dissipation and narrowest linewidth

Basic Mechanism

Featured article

Eric D. Black, An introduction to Pound–Drever–Hall laser frequency stabilization, Am J Phys 69(1) January 2001, DOI <u>10.1119/1.1286663</u> (paywall)

Also available as Technical Note LIGO-T980045-00-D 4/16/98 (free access)

Overview



Points of interest

- Power (intensity) detector is available from RF to optics
- Compensation of the critical path
 - Resonator is large / complex / difficult to access
- Null measurement of the frequency error
- Frequency modulation -> get out of the flicker region
- One-port resonator -> lowest dissipation -> narrowest linewidth
- Multimode resonators -> simple mode selection
Phase modulation, physics





Phase modulation, math



small *m*

$$\simeq V_0 e^{i\omega t} \left[J_0(m) + J_{-1}(m) e^{-i\Omega t} - J_1(m) e^{-i\Omega t} \right]$$
$$= V_0 \left[J_0(m) e^{i\omega t} - J_1(m) e^{i(\omega - \Omega)t} \right]$$
$$\simeq V_0 \left[1 + \frac{m}{2} \left(-e^{-i\Omega t} + e^{i\Omega t} \right) \right]$$

small
$$m \simeq V_0 \left[1 + \frac{m}{2} \left(-e^{-i\Omega t} + e^{i\Omega t} \right) \right]$$

Carrier power
 $P_c = J_0^2(m)P_0 \simeq P_0$
Sideband power
 $P_s = J_1^2(m)P_0 \simeq \frac{m^2}{4}P_0$







Jacobi-Angers expansion $e^{im\cos\phi} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} i^n J_n(m) e^{in\phi} \qquad \text{Symmetry, } z \in \mathbb{R}$ $e^{im\sin\phi} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} J_n(m) e^{in\phi} \qquad J_n(z) = \begin{cases} -J_n(z) & \text{odd } n \\ J_n(z) & \text{even } n \end{cases}$

Small *m* $J_0(m) \simeq 1 - m^2/2$ $J_1(m) \simeq m/2$

The reflection-mode resonator



Featured textbook

D. M. Pozar, *Microwave Engineering* 4th ed, Wiley 2012, ISBN <u>978-0-470-63155-3</u> Chapter 6 – Microwave Resonators Notice that the formalism is suitable to optics

Reflection coefficient Γ





 $\Gamma \simeq \frac{g-1}{g+1} - i \frac{4Q_0 g}{(g+1)^2} \frac{\Delta v}{v_n}$ resistance frequency error mismatch (odd function)

Off-resonance $\Gamma \simeq -1$

Electrical model

Definition $\Gamma = V^{-}/V^{+}$ incident V⁺
resonator
reflected V⁻

Featured reading: D. M. Pozar, Microwave Engineering, 4th ed, Wiley 2012 (Ch.6: Microwave resonators)

Start from
$$\Gamma = \frac{g - 1 - iQ_0 \chi}{g + 1 + iQ_0 \chi}$$

use $\chi \approx \frac{2\Delta v}{v_n}$ $\Gamma = \frac{g - 1 - i2Q_0 \Delta v / v_n}{g + 1 + i2Q_0 \Delta v / v_n}$
collect $g + 1$ $\Gamma = \frac{g - 1 - i2Q_0 \frac{\Delta v}{v_n}}{(g + 1)\left(1 + i\frac{2Q_0}{g + 1}\frac{\Delta v}{v_n}\right)}$
use $\frac{1}{1+\epsilon} \approx 1 - \epsilon$ $\Gamma = \frac{\left[g - 1 - i2Q_0 \frac{\Delta v}{v_n}\right]\left[1 - \frac{i2Q_0}{g + 1}\frac{\Delta v}{v_n}\right]}{g + 1}$
split \Re and \Im

$$\Gamma = \frac{\left\{g - 1 - \frac{4Q_0^2}{g+1} \left(\frac{\Delta \nu}{\nu_n}\right)^2\right\} - i2Q_0 \left\{1 + \frac{g-1}{g+1}\right\} \frac{\Delta \nu}{\nu_n}}{g+1}$$

remove the main fraction

$$\Gamma = \left\{ \frac{g-1}{g+1} + \frac{4Q_0^2}{(g+1)^2} \left(\frac{\Delta\nu}{\nu_n}\right)^2 \right\} - i \frac{2Q_0g}{(g+1)^2} \frac{\Delta\nu}{\nu_n}$$

drop $(\Delta \nu / \nu_n)^2$

$$\Gamma = \frac{g-1}{g+1} - i \frac{4Q_0 g}{(g+1)^2} \frac{\Delta \nu}{\nu_n}$$

Approximation of Γ for small $Q\Delta\nu/\nu_n$

Approximations for Γ



The reflected signal – Physics

the input signal is phase-modulated



The reflected signal – Math

the input signal is phase-modulated

$$V^{+} = V_{0} \begin{bmatrix} -J_{1}(m)e^{i(\omega-\Omega)t} \\ \text{LSB} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} J_{0}(m)e^{i\omega t} \\ \text{carrier} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} J_{1}(m)e^{i(\omega+\Omega)t} \\ \text{USB} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$Use \ \Gamma(\omega \pm \Omega) = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad \Gamma \simeq \frac{g-1}{g+1} - i\frac{4Q_{0}g}{(g+1)^{2}}\frac{\Delta v}{v_{n}}$$

Power detector



Power detector



$$P = \frac{|V_0|^2}{2R_0} \left\{ J_1^2(m) + \frac{1}{2} J_0^2(m) \left[\frac{g-1}{g+1} \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2} J_0^2(m) \left[\frac{4Q_0}{g+1} \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_n} \right]^2 \right\} + \frac{|V_0|^2}{2R_0} J_1^2(m) \cos(2\Omega t) + \frac{|V_0|^2}{2R_0} 2J_0(m) J_1(m) \frac{4Q_0}{g+1} \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_n} \sin(\Omega t) + \frac{dQ_0}{diagnostic} \exp(-\frac{Q_0}{2R_0} \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_n} \sin(\Omega t))$$

The lock-in amplifier



 $v_e \propto v_0 - v_n$

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The lock-in amplifier



Summary

The frequency discriminant *D* is proportional to

- Oscillator power P_0
- Modulation index m
- Resonator's Q_0/ω_n
- Power-detector gain k_d [V/W]
- RF gain at the detector output (not shown)
- Gain of the lock-in amplifier (not accounted for in equations)

...And affected by the coupling coefficient g



Key Ideas

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Use a power detector

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- Power detectors are available in the widest frequency range
 - Sub-audio to UV, and more
 - Including the THz band
- The power detector has quadratic response to voltage or to electric field

Even vs Odd Function

- The detector provides a signal proportional to the power (intensity)
 - Even function at ω_0
 - Unmodulated signal not suitable to feedback control
- The modulation mechanism provides a signal proportional to the imaginary part
 - Odd function at ω_0
 - Great for feedback control



The 10⁻⁶ golden rule

The oscillator tracks the resonator, and follows its fluctuations The oscillator contributes too

- It is generally agreed that a microwave frequency control loop can lock within 10⁻⁶ of the bandwidth
 - Cs standard: $10^{-6} \times (100 \text{ Hz} / 9.2 \text{ GHz}) \approx 10^{-14} \text{ stability}$
 - Cryogenic sapphire: $10^{-6} \times (10 \text{ Hz} / 10 \text{ GHz}) \approx 10^{-15} \text{ stability}$
- In optics, the 10⁻⁶ rule yields still unachieved stability
 - Optical FP: $10^{-6} \times (10 \text{ kHz}/200 \text{ THz}) \approx 5 \times 10^{-19} \text{ stability}$
- The resonator fluctuation is not a part of the control, and accounted for separately



Modulation and flicker



Get out of the flicker and drift region !!!

The virtues of the AC null measurement



Absolute measurements rely on the "brute force" of instrument accuracy



Differential measurements rely on the difference of two nearly equal quantities, something like q₂-q₁. However similar, this is not our case!



Null measurements rely on the measurement of a quantity as close as possible to zero – ideally zero.



The Pound scheme detects

- Null of $\Im(\Gamma(\omega))$
- AC regime, after down-converting to Ω



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Insensitive to the critical path



A length fluctuation does not affect

- The phase and amplitude relations between carrier and sidebands
- In turn, the measurement of $\Delta \omega$

(No longer true in the presence of dispersion)

The mechanism is the same of radio emission

The virtues of the one-port resonator





• Electrical

- Smaller dissipation than the two-port resonator
- Hence higher Q
- Simpler, related to
 - Vacuum
 - Cryogenic environment
 - Resonator far from the oscillator

The Control Loop

Featured book

K.J. Åström, R.M. Murray, Feedback Systems, Princeton 2008

Caveat: however outstanding, this book does not focus on TF applications

Sweep the oscillator frequency



Sweep the oscillator frequency



Courtesy of Alexandre Didier, FEMTO-ST Institute

Stability of the control loop



- The control loop must be stable
 - |AB| < 1 at the critical frequency where $arg(AB) = \pi$
 - In practice, $\geq \pi/4$ phase margin is needed
- Higher dc gain provides higher accuracy

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Transfer function



- Quasi-static operation at $\omega < \omega_{L}$ (resonator half-width)
 - Oscillator frequency-noise detection (as discussed)
- At $\omega > \omega_L$, the resonator reflects the noise sidebands
 - Oscillator phase-noise detection at $\omega \leq \omega \leq \Omega$ (integrator)
 - The internal lock-in filter rolls off at $\omega > \omega_c$
 - The lock-in amplifier stops working at $\omega\approx\Omega$ and beyond



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- Start from Ω (or ω_c) and go leftwards
- Set phase margin $\approx \pi/4$ (45°)
- Design the transfer function

Fractional-order servo loop



- Resonator –20 dB/decade
 –> 90^o phase lag
- Half integrator 10 dB/decade -> 45^o phase lag
- 45º phase margin (to 180º), independent of gain

Delay of the Acousto-Optic Modulator



 The delay limits the maximum speed of the control

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Resonator Stability

The oscillator stability cannot be better than that of the resonator Beware of temperature, flicker and drift

Temperature compensation



- Most solids (room temperature)
 - dielectric permittivity
 e has coefficient of 5–100 ppm/K
 - length has coefficient of 5–25 ppm/K
- Temperature stability < 10–100 μK challenging / impossible
- A turning point is mandatory for high stability

Thermal compensation – Examples





Sapphire Cr3+ impurities @ 6K (V.Giordano / M.Tobar) Also, rutile/sapphire compound @ 80 K (V.Giordano)

Natural – Refraction index Savchenkov & al, JOSAB 24(12), 2007 6 n_o-1.37191 176 °C A. Savchenkov et al, JOSAB 24(12), December 2007 10⁵Δn(T) 2 74 °C n_e-1.38341 -2 120 160 200 0 40 80 Temperature (C)

MgF2 whispering gallery (A. Savchenkov)

Natural – Thermal expansion



Also

• Piezoelectric quartz

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• Zerodur and ULE

Semiconductor-grade Si @ 124 K (PTB) & @ 17 K

In some fortunate cases, the origin of 1/f frequency noise is known



Camp J, Thermal-noise limit in the frequency stabilization of lasers with rigid cavities, PRL 93(25) 250602, Dec 2004 Kemery A, Figure from: Numata K,

Featured article: T. Kessler, T. Legero, U. Sterr, Thermal noise in optical cavities revisited, JOSA-B 29(1), 2012

1/f noise and the FD theorem



A single theory explains

- Heath capacity
- Elasticity
- Thermal expansion
- ... and fluctuations

Fluctuation Dissipation



1/f noise and structural damping



Thermal 1/f noise

$$\dot{x} + 25\omega_{m}\dot{x} + \omega_{m}^{2}x = 0 \qquad \text{general}$$

$$\dot{z} + \frac{H}{m}\dot{z} + \frac{K}{m}x = 0 \qquad (\text{mechanics})$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{25} \qquad \text{general}$$

$$\tau = \frac{2Q}{\omega_{m}} = \frac{1}{5\omega_{m}} \qquad \text{reloxation}$$

$$time$$


Thermal 1/f from structural dissipation



Dissipation in solids is structural (hysteresis)

There is no viscous dissipation

Structural dissipation nanoscale, instantaneous

Dissipated energy $E = \int F dx$

Small vibrations The hysteresis cycle keeps the aspect ratio $E \propto \chi_0^2$ lost energy in a cycle

Thermal equilibrium

$$P = kT$$
 in 1 Hz BW
 $P \propto kTx_0^2$

 $x_0^2 \propto 1/f \longrightarrow$ flicker

A weird exercise

Dissipation in quartz resonators comes from phonon-phonon interaction – Let's look at what it would happen if it was about breaking bonds –

High-stability 5 MHz quartz resonator

- Active volume 10^{-8} m³ (1 cm² × 100 μ m)
- Mass of 25 mg (≈2.5 kg/dm³)
- N ≈ 7.5×10¹⁷ atoms (quartz ²⁸Si ¹⁶O₂ -> ⟨A⟩=20)
- Drift D = 10⁻¹⁵ / s (i.e., 10⁻¹⁰/day, or 10⁻⁶ in 30 years)
- $P = 10 \mu W RF power$
- Melting point 1670 °C (1943 K) kT = 2.68x10⁻²⁰ J = 167 meV

The number of bonds of energy E broken in 1 s by structural damping is n = P/ETaking $E = 2.7 \times 10^{-20} J$ (167 meV) $n \approx 3.7 \times 10^{14}$ bonds / s $n/f \approx 3.7 \times 10^{14} / 5 \times 10^{6} = 7.5 \times 10^{6}$ bonds/cycle If the bonds are not repaired, the crystal is "atomized" after $T = N/n \approx 2 \times 10^3 s$ (34 M)

Optimization

Setting up a Pound control is decently simple Optimization is disappointingly complex

In situ testing: the ringdown method



Ringdown method



Cavity ringdown

- works only with high Q cavities
- makes the measurement possible even if frequency is not stable enough for other methods
- wavelength sweep -> beat sweep vs decay
- the exponential decay time is τ (amplitude, not intensity!)

time, microseconds

J. Poirson, F. Bretenaker, M. Vallet, and A. Le Floch, J. Opt. Soc. Am. B 11, 2811 (1997).



$$\Gamma \simeq \frac{g-1}{g+1} - i \frac{4Q_0 g}{(g+1)^2} \frac{\Delta \nu}{\nu_n}$$

- Maximum gain. Immediately seen on $\Im{\{\Gamma\}}$
- Lowest "useless" power in the quadratic detector. Immediately seen on $\Re{\Gamma}$
- The frequency error due to residual AM vanishes Some math – not shown

Detector responsivity



- The error signal comes from the 2*ac* + 2*bc* terms
- Highest sensitivity just below the corner

E. Rubiola, *The Measurement of AM noise of Oscillators*, arXiv:physics/0512082 [physics.ins-det]. Fig. 5. Also S.Grop, E.Rubiola, Proc.2009 IFCS Fig.1 (≠artwork)

$$(a + b + c)^{2} = a^{2} + b^{2} + c^{2} + 2ab + 2ac + 2bc$$

$$2\Omega \qquad \Omega$$

Identify the detector's optimum power



 $(a + b + c)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + 2ab + 2ac + 2bc$

Maximum power in the resonator

- Dissipated P -> Thermal instability (obvious)
- Traveling *P* –> Instability
 - Electrooptic effect: electric field affects the dielectric constant
 - Radiation-pressure Chang & al., ...radiation pressure effect..., PRL 79(11) 1997
- Difficult to lock (ω_n runaway)
 - Control instability and failure
- "Maximum *P*" applies to the carrier, not to sidebands
 - The carrier gets in the resonator, the sidebands are reflected
- Look carefully at the resonator physics
 - Loss and dissipation are not the same thing

Modulation index

- The sidebands are reflected
- High modulation index -> high sideband power
 - Higher gain without increasing P inside the resonator
- Effect of higher-order sidebands ($\pm 2\Omega, \pm 3\Omega$, etc.)
 - Not documented though conceptually simple
- DSB modulation, instead of true PM
 - A pair of sidebands is simpler than true PM
 - Modulator 1/f noise?

Modulation frequency

Lower bound for Ω

- Total reflection at $\omega_n \pm \Omega$ is necessary
 - Thus, $\Omega \gg B/2\pi$, B = resonator bandwidth

Why to choose the largest possible $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$

- Larger control bandwidth
 - Higher dc gain -> higher stability

Why not to choose the largest possible Ω

- Avoid dispersion (PM -> AM conversion)
- Technical issues / Design issues

My experience – at Femto-ST

- 95–99 kHz for the sapphire oscillators (10 GHz, B=10 Hz)
- 22 MHz for the optical FP (193 THz, $B \approx 30$ kHz)

Residual amplitude modulation (RAM)

- Residual AM yields a detected signal at the modulation frequency $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$
 - Generally poorer operation
 - Frequency error $\rightarrow \omega 0 \neq \omega n$ at the null point
 - Frequency fluctuation if the AM fluctuates
- Dispersion results in PM -> AM conversion
 - Breaks the non-distortion condition

Removing the residual AM



- Additional detector enables nulling the AM in closed loop
- The power detector is reversible
- Reversed, is used as a variable stub

Filter the detector output



More optimization issues

- Given the laser power -> best modulation index (Eric Black)
- Detector saturation power -> best modulation scheme
- Resonator max power -> best modulation
- Quadrature modulation (µwaves) does it really make sense?

Alternate Schemes

The original Pound scheme



All the key ideas are here However technology, electrical symbols, and writing style are quite different

R. V. Pound, Rev Sci Instruments 17(11) p. 490–505, Nov. 1946

The Pound-Drever-Hall scheme

The Pound scheme ported to optics



Figure from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

R.P.V. Drever, J.L. Hall & al., Appl. Phys. Lett. 31(2) p.97–105, June 1983

The Pound-Galani oscillator



• Great VCO for cheap

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- Easier to control
- Two-port resonator
 - More complex
 - Lower Q

Z. Galani & al, Analysis and design of a singleresonator GaAs FET oscillator with noise degeneration, IEEE-T-MTT 39(5), May 1991

Pound-Galani transfer function



- FD region -> full performance
- PD region
 - Flat frequency response, not for free
 - Poor response of the frequency-error detection
 - Higher noise

The Pound-Sulzer oscillator



P. Sulzer, Proc. IRE 43(6) p.701-707, June 1955

Resonators and Oscillators

Microwaves

Whispering gallery resonator



Temperature compensation







Temperature compensation

paramagnetic impurities: Fe3+ Cr3+, Mo3+, Ti3+



 $T_0 \sim 6 \mathrm{K}$

CSOs exhibit ultimate stability



ELISA, before going to Argentina



2-inch sapphire monocrystal







ULISS



ADEV measurement ELISA/ULISS



The Flory-Taber Bragg resonator







- Measured Q = 6.5×105 at 9 GHz, and 4.5×105 at 13.2 GHz
- Oscillator stability and noise not reported (yet)
- Project dropped

Figures / Featured article: Flory CA, Taber RC, IEEE T UFFC 44(2), March 1997

The Bale-Everard aperiodic Bragg resonator ⁴⁶²



- 6-plates 10 GHz resonator
 - Q > 3×105 (simulated)
 - $Q \approx 2 \times 105$ (measured)
- Oscillator stability and noise not reported yet

Suitable to Pound lock



Featured articles / Figures from:

S. Bale, J. K. A. Everard, High Q X-band distributed Bragg resonator utilising an aperiodic alumina plate arrangement, Proc IFCS-EFTF 2009 J. K. A. Everard, Proc. IFCS-EFTF 2015

Small superconducting Resonator

Superconducting resonator (NPL, UK) Nb on Al2O3, 300x300 μ m2. 7.5 GHz, Q = 5E4,



Lindstrom, Oxborrow & al, Rev Sci Instrum 82, 104706 (2011)

Resonators and Oscillators

Optics

Stabilization of the FS comb

- The FS comb enables frequency synthesis from RF to optics
 - Major breakthrough
 - 2005 Nobel prize, Roy J. Glauber, John L. Hall, Theodor W. Hänsch
- Stability and noise
 - Low noise in the sub-millisecond region
 - Drift and walk
 - Need stabilization
- Common practice
 - CW laser stabilized to a FP etalon
 - PDH control of course
 - Compare/stabilize the FS comb to the CW laser

Featured book

FEMTOSECOND OPTICAL FREQUENCY COMB TECHNOLOGY

PRINCIPLE, OPERATION AND APPLICATION

Jun Ye and Steven T. Cundiff

Deringer

Fabry Pérot cavity



• Smart design of the spacer provides

- Low sensitivity to acceleration
- Temperature compensation
 - ULE and Zerodur
 - Many materials (Si, Ge, ...) have natural turning point
- High Q is possible, ≥ 1010 (≈10 kHz optical bandwidth)

March 15, 2007 / Vol. 32, No. 6 / OPTICS LETTERS [671

The JILA bicone spacer

Compact, thermal-noise-limited optical cavity for diode laser stabilization at 1×10^{-15}

A. D. Ludlow, X. Huang,* M. Notcutt, T. Zanon-Willette, S. M. Foreman, M. M. Boyd, S. Blatt, and J. Ye

JILA, National Institute of Standards and Technology, and University of Colorado Department of Physics, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado 80309-0440, USA

Received October 30, 2006; accepted November 25, 2006; posted December 20, 2006 (Doc. ID 76598); published February 15, 2007

We demonstrate phase and frequency stabilization of a diode laser at the thermal noise limit of a passive optical cavity. The system is compact and exploits a cavity design that reduces vibration sensitivity. The subhertz laser is characterized by comparison with a second independent system with similar fractional frequency stability $(1 \times 10^{-15} \text{ at } 1 \text{ s})$. The laser is further characterized by resolving a 2 Hz wide, ultranarrow optical clock transition in ultracold strontium. © 2007 Optical Society of America *OCIS codes:* 140.2020, 030.1640, 300.6320.



Field-test of a robust, portable, frequency-stable laser

David R. Leibrandt,* Michael J. Thorpe, James C. Bergquist, and Till Rosenband National Institute of Standards and Technology, 325 Broadway Street, Boulder, Colorado 80305, USA *david.leibrandt@nist.gov

Abstract: We operate a frequency-stable laser in a non-laboratory environment where the test platform is a passenger vehicle. We measure the acceleration experienced by the laser and actively correct for it to achieve a system acceleration sensitivity of $\Delta f/f = 11(2) \times 10^{-12}/g$, $6(2) \times 10^{-12}/g$, and $4(1) \times 10^{-12}/g$ for accelerations in three orthogonal directions at 1 Hz. The acceleration spectrum and laser performance are evaluated with the vehicle both stationary and moving. The laser linewidth in the stationary vehicle with engine idling is 1.7(1) Hz.

The NIST spherical spacer


The improved NIST spherical spacer

PHYSICAL REVIEW A 87, 023829 (2013)

Cavity-stabilized laser with acceleration sensitivity below 10^{-12} g⁻¹

David R. Leibrandt,^{*} James C. Bergquist, and Till Rosenband National Institute of Standards and Technology, 325 Broadway Street, Boulder, Colorado 80305, USA (Received 31 December 2012; published 21 February 2013)

We characterize the frequency sensitivity of a cavity-stabilized laser to inertial forces and temperature fluctuations, and perform real-time feedforward to correct for these sources of noise. We measure the sensitivity of the cavity to linear accelerations, rotational accelerations, and rotational velocities by rotating it about three axes with accelerometers and gyroscopes positioned around the cavity. The worst-direction linear acceleration sensitivity of the cavity is $2(1) \times 10^{-11}$ g⁻¹ measured over 0–50 Hz, which is reduced by a factor of 50 to below 10^{-12} g⁻¹ for low-frequency accelerations by real-time feedforward corrections of all of the aforementioned inertial forces. A similar idea is demonstrated in which laser frequency drift due to temperature fluctuations is reduced by a factor of 70 via real-time feedforward from a temperature sensor located on the outer wall of the cavity vacuum chamber.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevA.87.023829

PACS number(s): 42.62.Eh, 42.60.Da, 46.40.-f, 07.07.Tw



The NPL horizontal cavity

PHYSICAL REVIEW A 75, 011801(R) (2007)

Vibration insensitive optical cavity

S. A. Webster, M. Oxborrow, and P. Gill National Physical Laboratory, Hampton Road, Teddington, Middlesex, TW11 0LW, United Kingdom (Received 31 October 2006; published 9 January 2007)

An optical cavity is designed and implemented that is insensitive to vibration in all directions. The cavity is mounted with its optical axis in the horizontal plane. A minimum response of 0.1 (3.7) kHz/ms^{-2} is achieved for low-frequency vertical (horizontal) vibrations.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevA.75.011801

PACS number(s): 42.60.Da, 07.60.Ly, 06.30.Ft



PHYSICAL REVIEW A 77, 033847 (2008)

Thermal-noise-limited optical cavity

S. A. Webster,¹ M. Oxborrow,¹ S. Pugla,² J. Millo,³ and P. Gill¹ ¹National Physical Laboratory, Hampton Road, Teddington, Middlesex, TW11 0LW, United Kingdom ²Blackett Laboratory, Imperial College London, South Kensington Campus, London, SW7 2BZ, United Kingdom ³SYRTE, Observatoire de Paris, 61, Avenue de l'Observatoire, 75014, Paris, France (Received 31 October 2007; published 27 March 2008)

A pair of optical cavities are designed and set up so as to be insensitive to both temperature fluctuations and mechanical vibrations. With the influence of these perturbations removed, a fundamental limit to the frequency stability of the optical cavity is revealed. The stability of a laser locked to the cavity reaches a floor $<2 \times 10^{-15}$ for averaging times in the range 0.5–100 s. This limit is attributed to Brownian motion of the mirror substrates and coatings.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevA.77.033847 PACS number(s): 42.60.Da, 07.60.Ly, 07.10.Fq, 06.30.Ft

heatsink



The NPL small cubic cavity

Force-insensitive optical cavity

Stephen Webster* and Patrick Gill

National Physical Laboratory, Hampton Road, Teddington, Middlesex, TW11 0LW, UK *Corresponding author: stephen.webster@npl.co.uk

Received June 20, 2011; revised August 11, 2011; accepted August 11, 2011; posted August 12, 2011 (Doc. ID 149376); published September 9, 2011

We describe a rigidly mounted optical cavity that is insensitive to inertial forces acting in any direction and to the compressive force used to constrain it. The design is based on a cubic geometry with four supports placed symmetrically about the optical axis in a tetrahedral configuration. To measure the inertial force sensitivity, a laser is locked to the cavity while it is inverted about three orthogonal axes. The maximum acceleration sensitivity is $2.5 \times 10^{-11}/g$ (where $g = 9.81 \,\mathrm{ms}^{-2}$), the lowest passive sensitivity to be reported for an optical cavity. © 2011 Optical Society of America

OCIS codes: 140.4780, 140.3425, 120.3940, 120.6085.





PHYSICAL REVIEW A 79, 053829 (2009)

The SYRTE horizontal cavity

Ultrastable lasers based on vibration insensitive cavities

J. Millo, D. V. Magalhães, C. Mandache, Y. Le Coq, E. M. L. English,^{*} P. G. Westergaard, J. Lodewyck, S. Bize, P. Lemonde, and G. Santarelli *LNE-SYRTE, Observatoire de Paris, CNRS, UPMC, 61 Avenue de l'Observatoire, 75014 Paris, France* (Received 5 February 2009; published 18 May 2009)

We present two ultrastable lasers based on two vibration insensitive cavity designs, one with vertical optical axis geometry, the other horizontal. Ultrastable cavities are constructed with fused silica mirror substrates, shown to decrease the thermal noise limit, in order to improve the frequency stability over previous designs. Vibration sensitivity components measured are equal to or better than 1.5×10^{-11} /m s⁻² for each spatial direction, which shows significant improvement over previous studies. We have tested the very low dependence on the position of the cavity support points, in order to establish that our designs eliminate the need for fine tuning to achieve extremely low vibration sensitivity. Relative frequency measurements show that at least one of the stabilized lasers has a stability better than 5.6×10^{-16} at 1 s, which is the best result obtained for this length of cavity.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevA.79.053829

PACS number(s): 42.60.Da, 07.60.Ly, 42.62.Fi



The PTB transportable laser

Demonstration of a Transportable 1 Hz-Linewidth Laser Stefan Vogt, Christian Lisdat, Thomas Legero, Uwe Sterr, Ingo Ernsting, Alexander Nevsky, Stephan Schiller





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APPLIED PHYSICS B: LASERS AND OPTICS Volume 104, Number 4, 741-745, DOI: 10.1007/s00340-011-4652-7

Natural Si has zero expansion at 17 K and 124 K ⁴⁷⁴

Figure from: K. G Lyon & al, JAP 48(3) p.865, 1977



T = 124 K -> T. Kessler & al., PTB / QUEST -Proc. 2011 IFCS

> K. G. Lyon & al, Linear thermal expansion measurements on silicon from 6 to 340 K - J Appl. Phys 48(3) p.865, 1977

Swenson CA - Recommended values for the thermal expansivity of Silicon from 0 to 1000 K - JPCRD 12(2), 1983

Christian Hagemann

The PTB 124-K Si cavity

TABLE II. Parameters for optical resonators.

Thermal conductivity

Specific heat

Mechanical loss

Parameter	Value
21-cm cavity	
Cavity length	0.212 m
Spacer radius	0.04 m
Radius of central bore	5 mm
ROC of mirror	2 m
Beam radius on mirror	482 μm
Cavity temperature	124 K
Cavity finesse	3.6×10^{5}
Laser wavelength	1542 nm
6-cm cavity	
Cavity length	0.06 m
ROC of mirror	1 m
Beam radius on mirror	294 µm
Cavity temperature	4 or 16 K
Cavity finesse	2.9×10^{5}
Laser wavelength	1542 nm
Single-crystal silicon	
Young's modulus	188 GPa [65]
Poisson ratio	0.26 [65]
Density	2331 kg/m^3 [66]

Experimental setup



Silicon cavity is thermally isolated by two gold-plated copper shields.





Table II from J. Yu et al, Excess Noise and Photoinduced Effects in Highly Reflective Crystalline Mirrror Coatings, Phys Rev X 13(4) 2023

600 W/mK [67]

330 J/kg K [68]

 0.83×10^{-8} [69]

PB



Spherical FP etalon

Implemented at FEMTO-ST Institute, using a kit from Stable Lasers Sistem, Boulder, CO, USA





Phase noise –104 dBc/Hz, state of the art

Frequency instability limited by the lab temperature fluctuations

Operational, $\sigma_{y}(\tau) \approx 2 \times 10^{-15}$

A. Didier, J. Millo, S. Grop, B. Dubois, E. Bigler, E. Rubiola, C. Lacroûte, Y. Kersalé, Ultralow phase noise all-optical microwave generation setup based on commercial devices, Applied Optics 54(12) pp.3682-3686, April 2015.

Compact FP etalon

Original project at FEMTO-ST Institute







Target $\sigma_{y}(\tau) \approx 2 \times 10^{-15}$





Low vibrations cryocooler: displacement less than 40 nm

Temperature instability less than 100 μK

Silicon FP etalon

Original project at FEMTO-ST Institute



Sensitivity to vibrations less than $4x10^{-12}$ /m.s⁻²

 Cavity

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Target $\sigma_{\rm y}(\tau) \approx 3 \times 10^{-17}$

Fundamental Physics

VIRGO – Gravitational waves





September 14, 2015 twin LIGO interferometers, Livingston, LA, Hanford, WA





- Large Michelson interferometers detect the space-time fluctuations
- PDH control is used to lock ultra-stable lasers to the interferometer

https://www.virgo-gw.eu/

https://www.ego-gw.it

Lorentz invariance

PHYSICAL REVIEW D 80, 105011 (2009)

Rotating optical cavity experiment testing Lorentz invariance at the 10^{-17} level

S. Herrmann,^{1,2} A. Senger,¹ K. Möhle,¹ M. Nagel,¹ E. V. Kovalchuk,¹ and A. Peters¹ ¹Institut für Physik, Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Hausvogteiplatz 5-7, 10117 Berlin ²ZARM, Universität Bremen, Am Fallturm 1, 28359 Bremen (Received 10 August 2009; published 12 November 2009)

We present an improved laboratory test of Lorentz invariance in electrodynamics by testing the isotropy of the speed of light. Our measurement compares the resonance frequencies of two orthogonal optical resonators that are implemented in a single block of fused silica and are rotated continuously on a precision air bearing turntable. An analysis of data recorded over the course of one year sets a limit on an anisotropy of the speed of light of $\Delta c/c \sim 1 \times 10^{-17}$. This constitutes the most accurate laboratory test of the isotropy of c to date and allows to constrain parameters of a Lorentz violating extension of the standard model of particle physics down to a level of 10^{-17} .





End of lecture 10