

Scientific Instruments

— and —

Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

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Part 1: General

Part 2: Phase noise and oscillators

Part 3: The International System of Units SI

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Spring 2024
Updated March 22, 2024

Extended Version



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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

Learning material

E. Rubiola, F. Vernotte, The Companion of the Enrico's Chart for Phase Noise and Two-Sample Variances, IEEE Trans MTT, Early access, February 2023

<https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/10050257>

... and download the Enrico's Chart from <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4399218>

Otherwise, both are on <https://rubiola.org>

News
Enrico's Noise Chart - Enrico's Chart (Zenodo) - Companion article
Publications
• Books
• Open literature
• Journal articles
• Selected conferences
• Seminars & tutorials
EFTS
Open lectures
• Course #1 (3×7.5 H) 1: Instruments 2: Oscillators & noise 3: The new SI
• Course #2 (10 H) Scientific publication
Oscillator noise support material for my book (Cambridge, 2008-2014)
Affiliations
Links



[Back to Enrico's home page](#)

Publications

The Clock Signal

The clock signal

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



carrier
amplitude



fractional amplitude
fluctuation



carrier
frequency

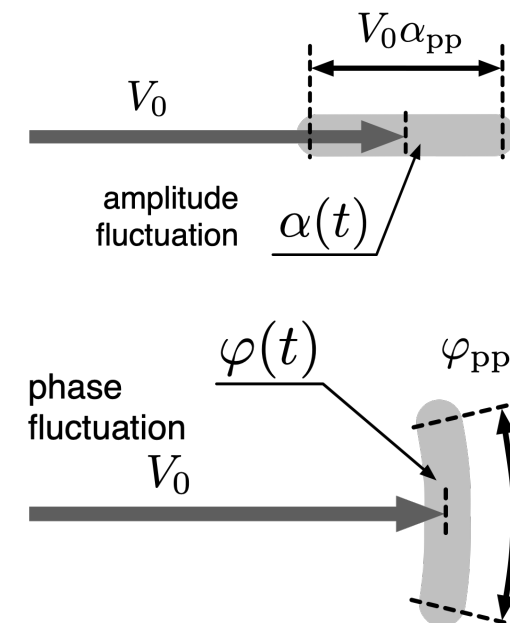
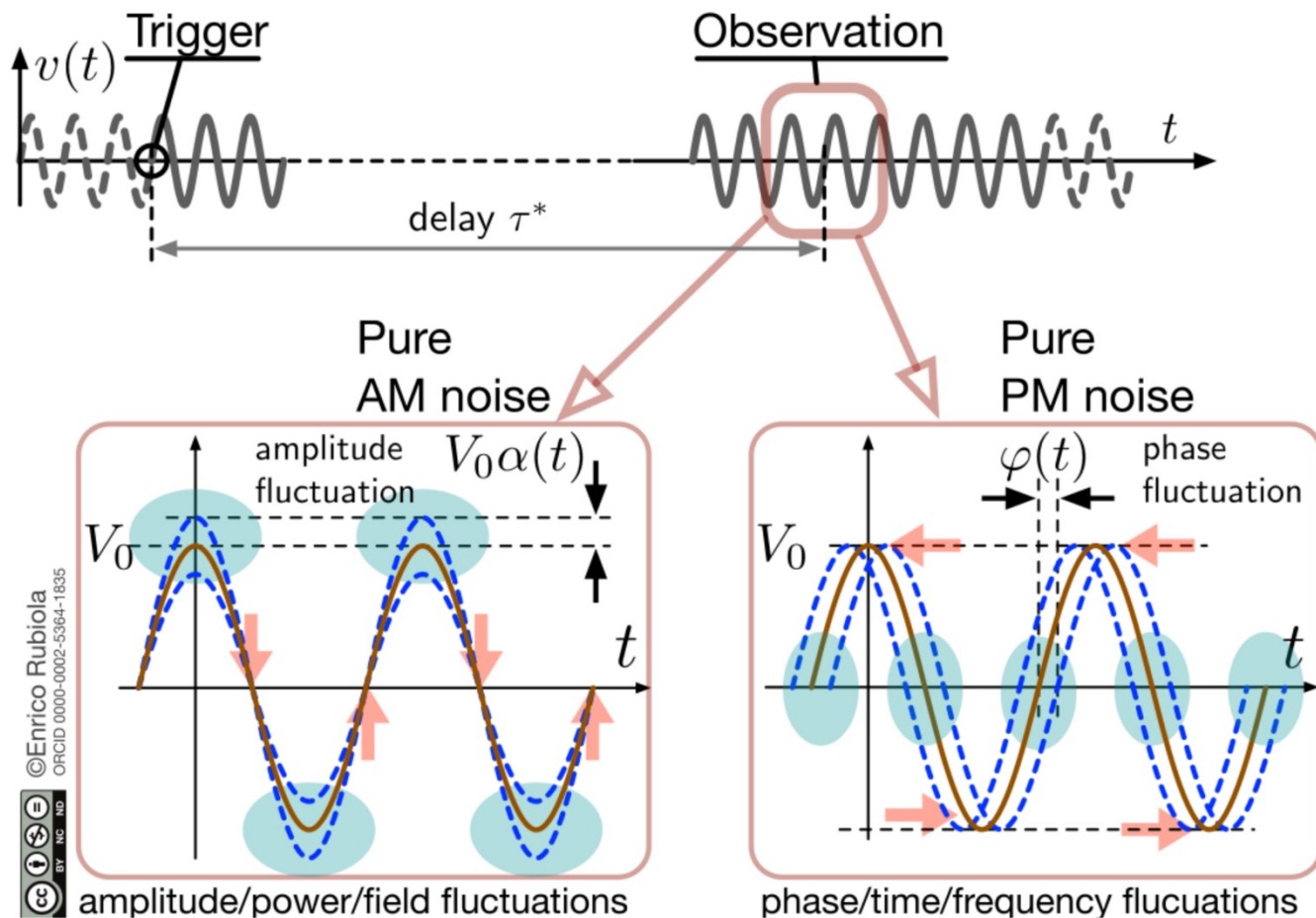


phase
fluctuation

(regular) frequency	angular frequency	relation	context
ν	ω	$\nu = \omega/2\pi$	carrier
f	ω	$f = \omega/2\pi$	Fourier analysis, or modulation
ω is used as a shorthand for either $2\pi\nu$ or $2\pi f$			

The clock signal

Observed with an ideal oscilloscope



polar coordinates

$$v(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos [\omega_0 t + \varphi(t)]$$

Cartesian coordinates

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

Low noise approximation

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

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

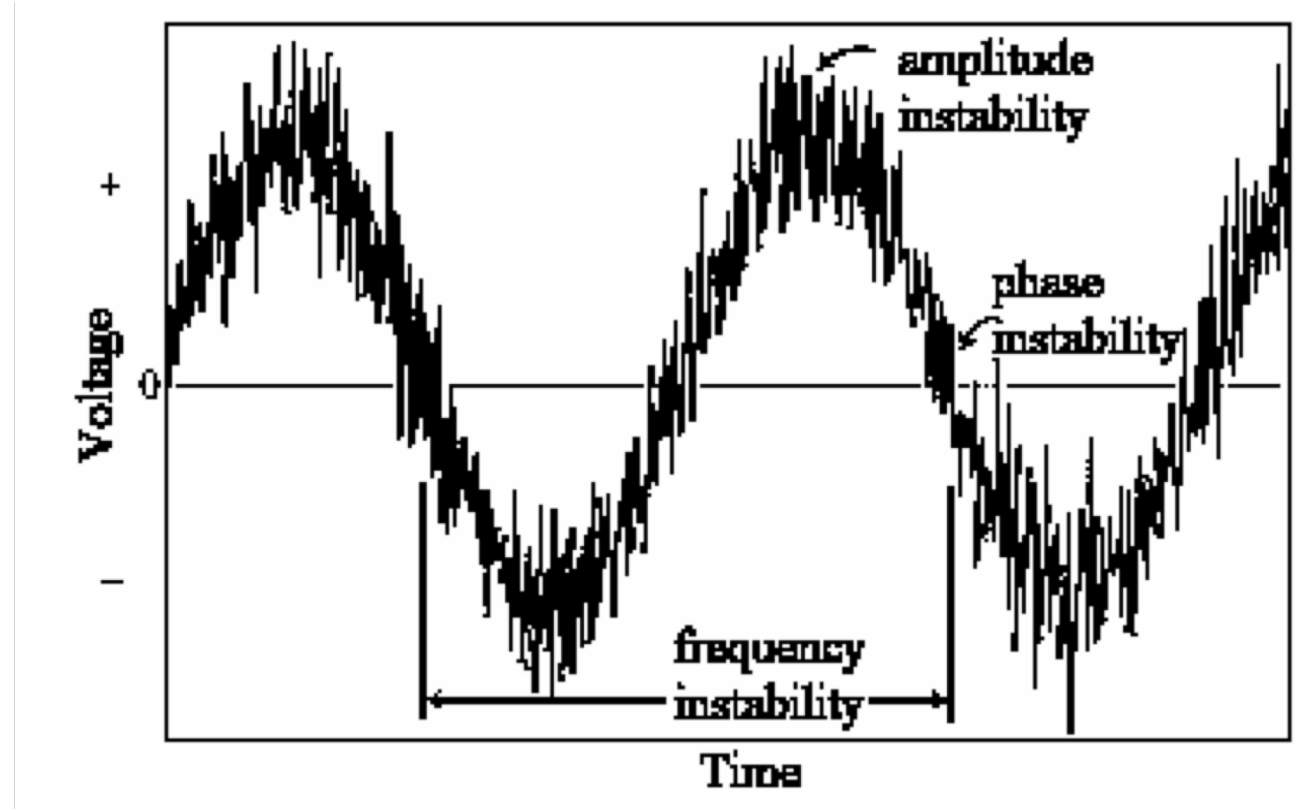
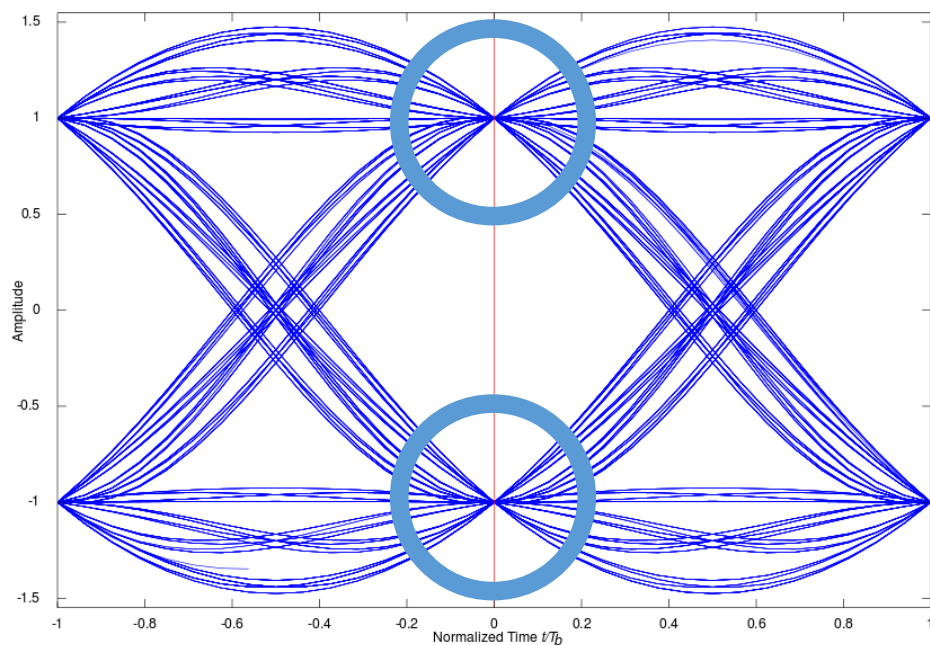


Figure A.1—Instantaneous output voltage of an oscillator

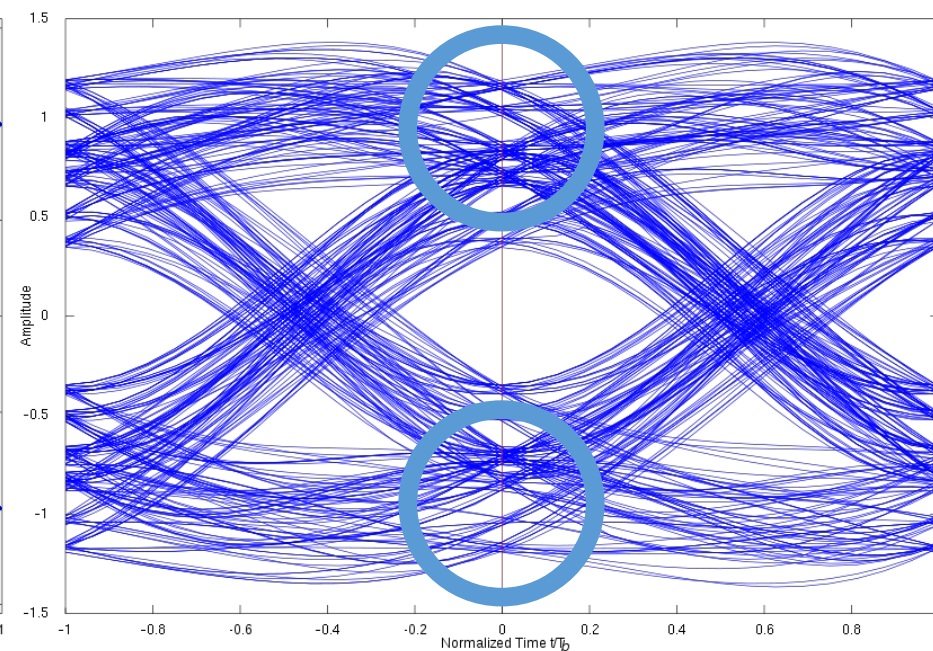
Eye diagram

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

Pure signal

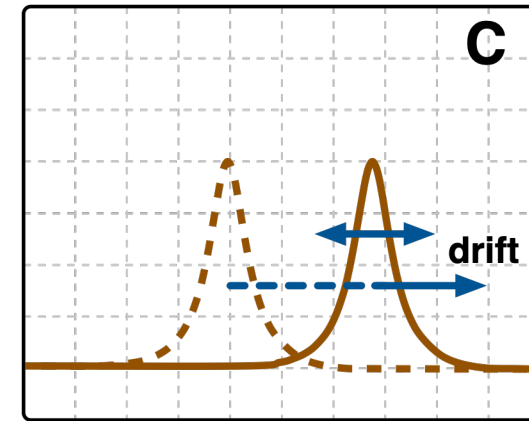
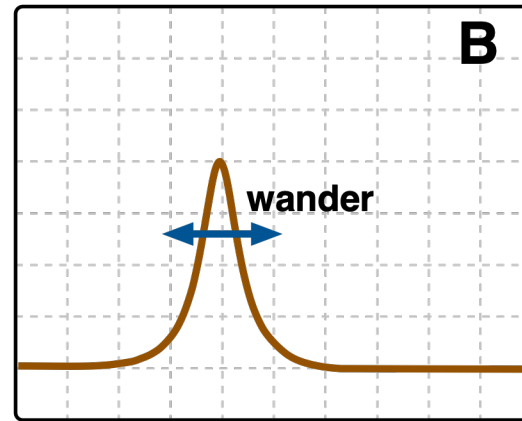
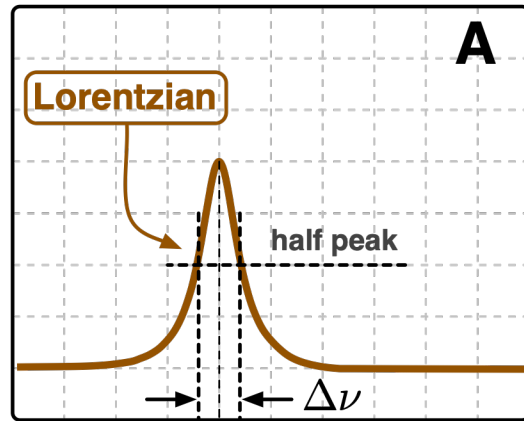


Signal corrupted by AM and PM noise

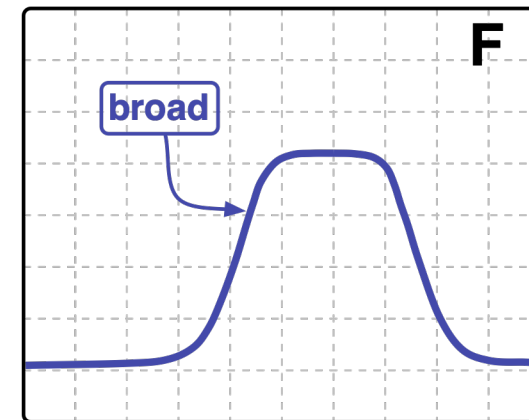
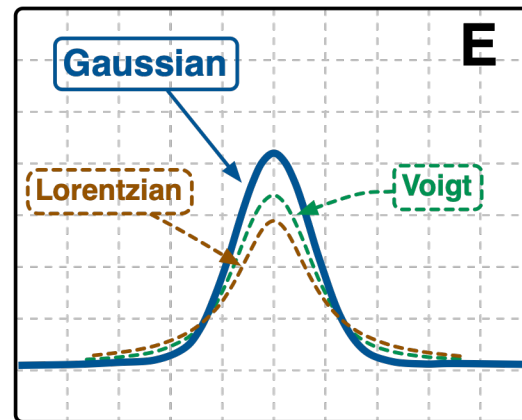
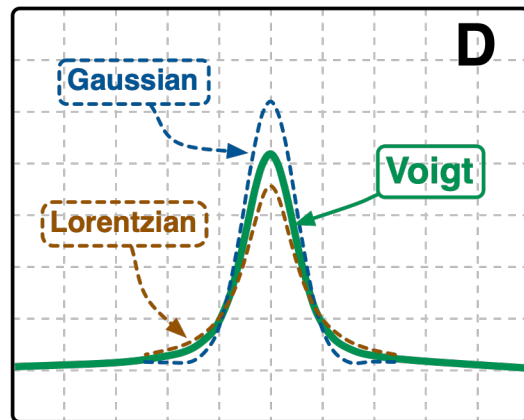


Timing impacts on the Bit Error Rate (BER)

The line width does not tell the true story

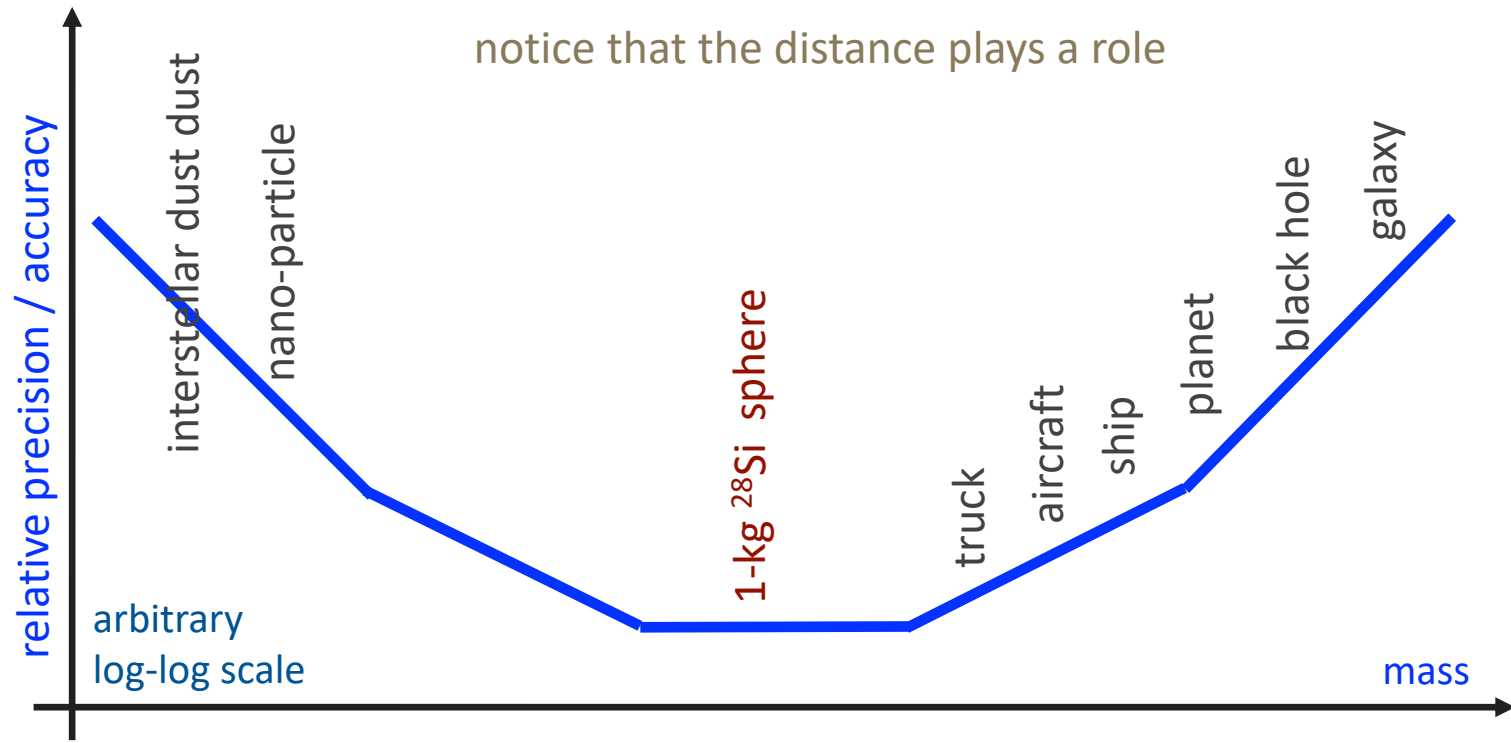


File Observed-spectra



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

The bath hub diagram



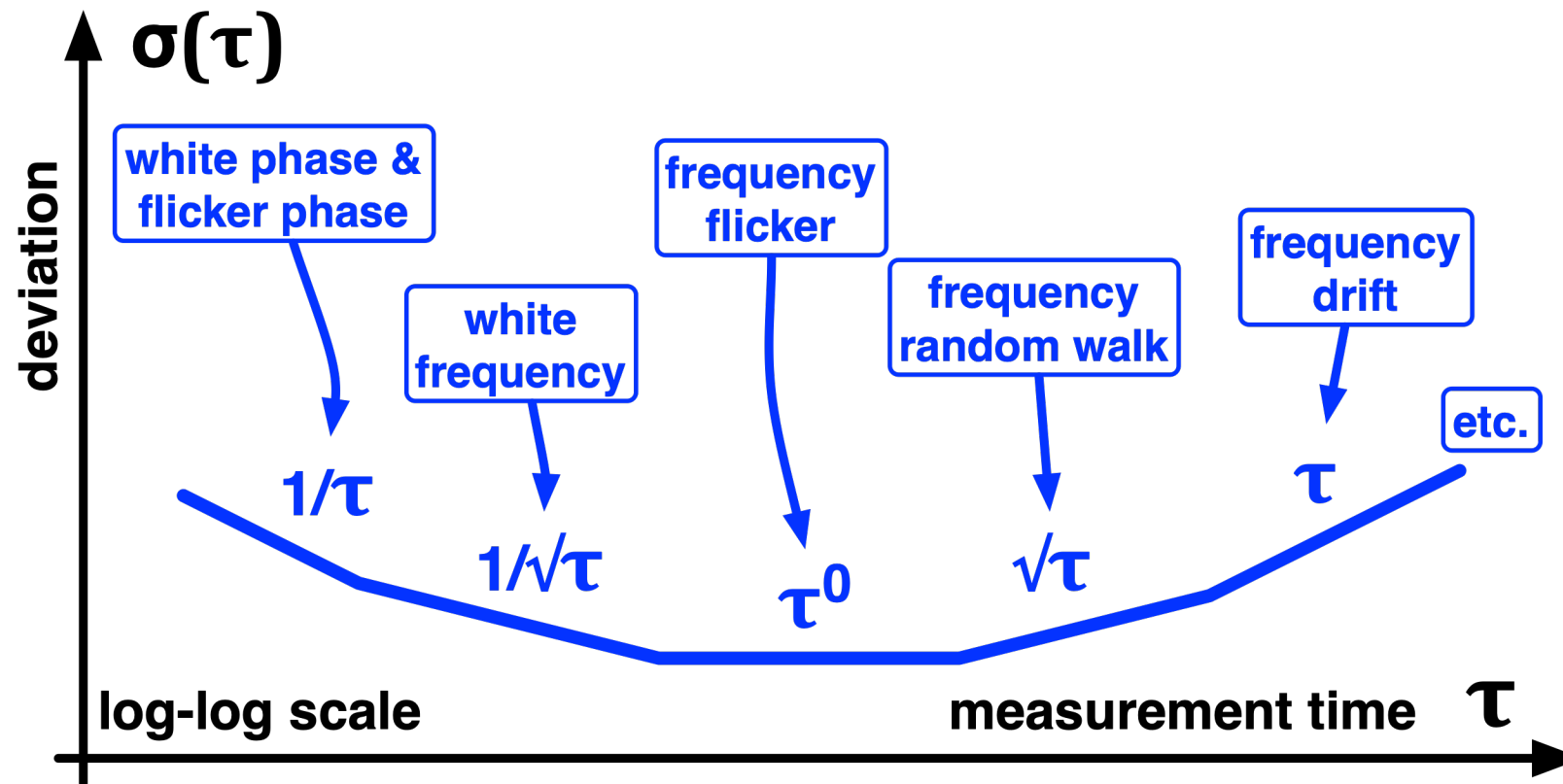
The same happens with *all physical quantities*, including time



notice that the *frequency* affects the resolution

The family of Allan variances

Precision is a function of the measurement time τ



The noise types will be explained later

Representations of the Clock Signal

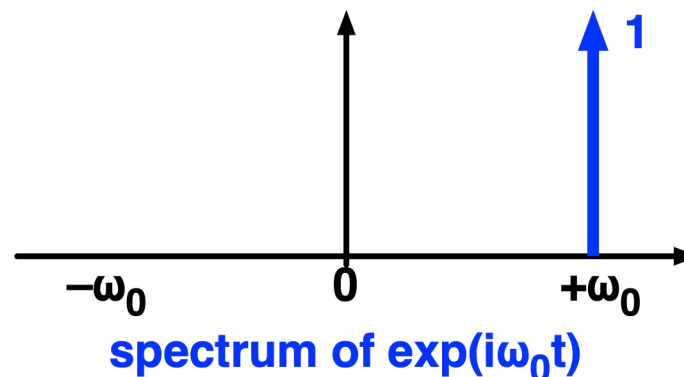
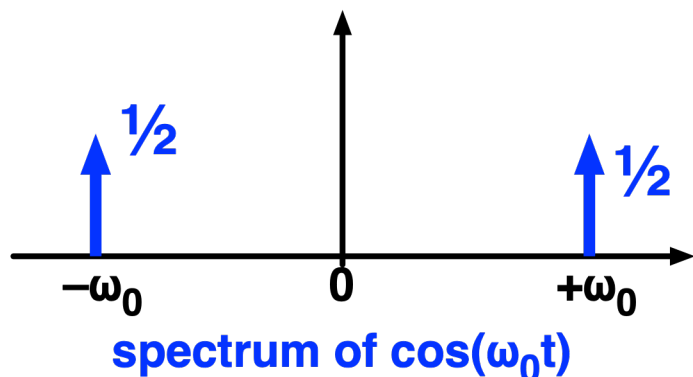
Analytic signal

Standard representation of signals in microwaves and optics

$$v(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos [\omega_0 t + \varphi(t)]$$



$$\hat{v}(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] e^{i\omega_0 t} e^{i\varphi(t)}$$



The analytic continuation

- Removes the negative frequencies
- Keeps the power

Low-pass process / pre-envelope

Often used in telecomm

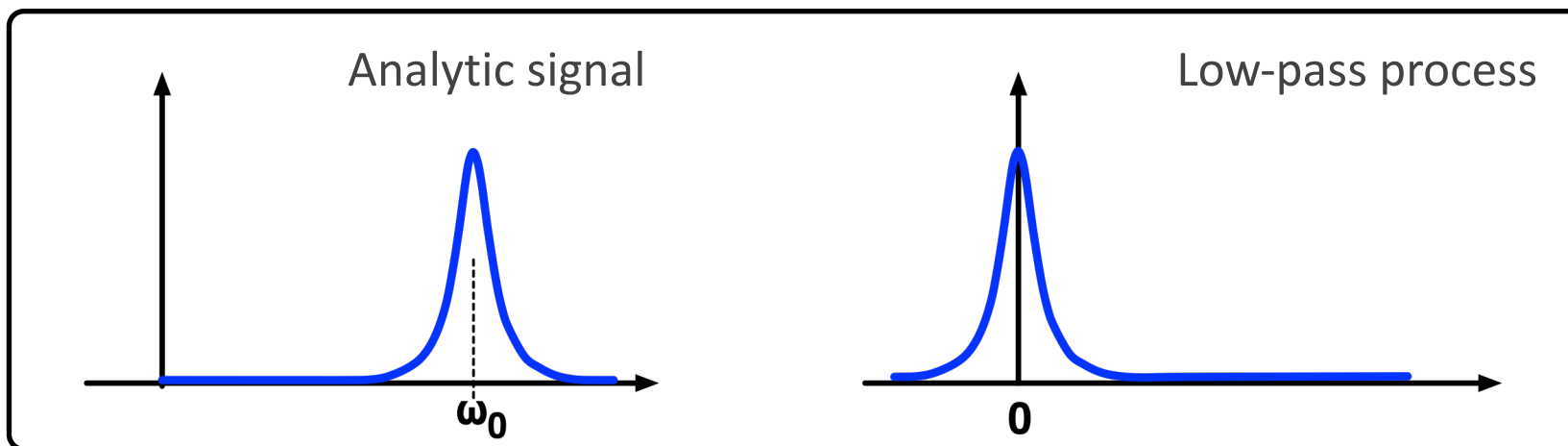
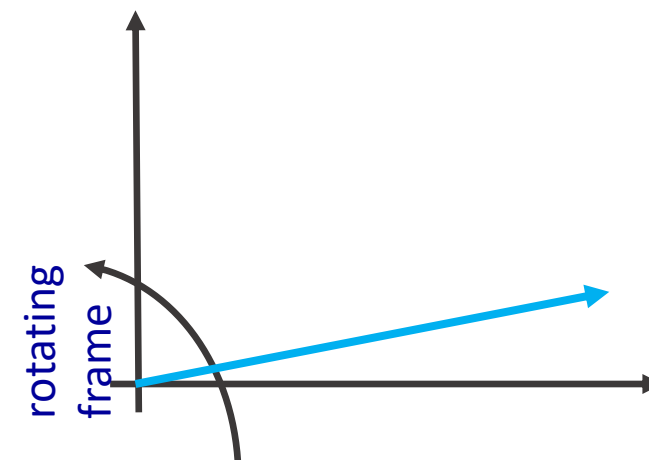
Real signal $v(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos [\omega_0 t + \varphi(t)]$

Analytic signal $\hat{v}(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] e^{i\omega_0 t} e^{i\varphi(t)}$

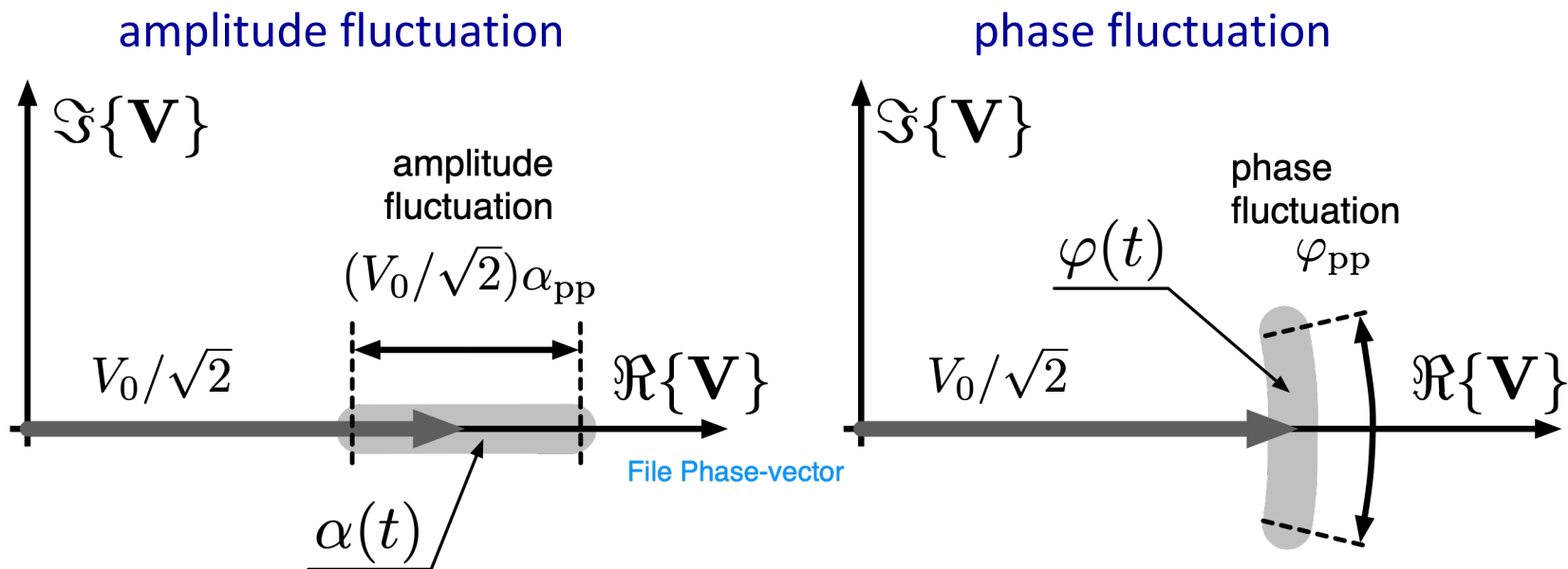
freeze the $e^{i\omega t}$ oscillation

Low-pass process
(pre-envelope)

$$\tilde{v}(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] e^{i\varphi(t)}$$



Phasor – Fresnel vector



Notation

Power electronics

- RMS value
- $P = VI^*$

Microwaves

- Peak value

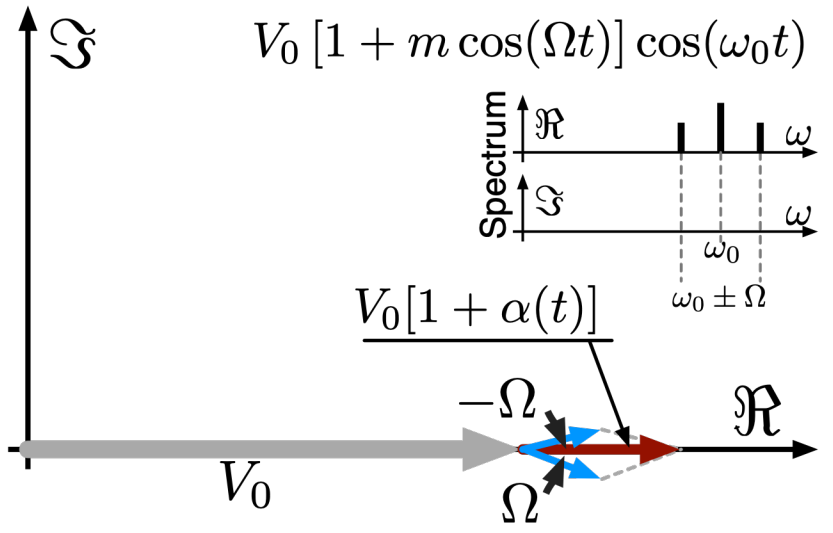
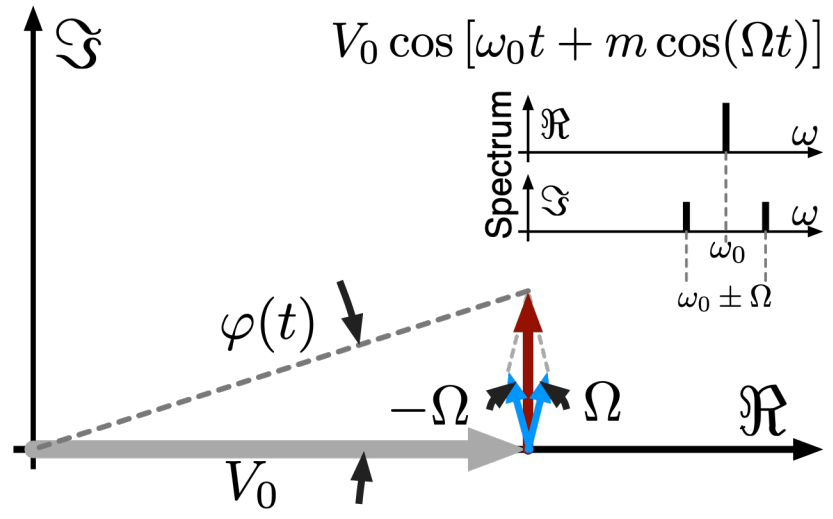
$$v(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos [\omega_0 t + \varphi(t)]$$

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

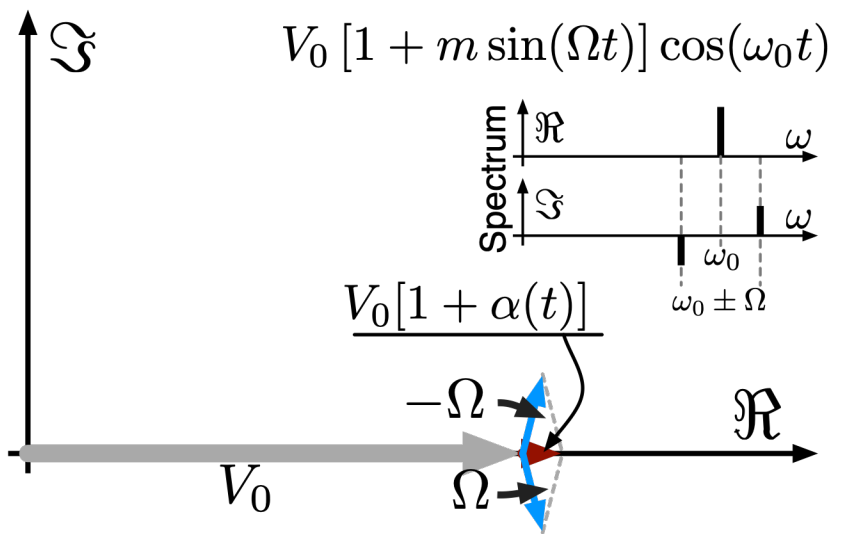
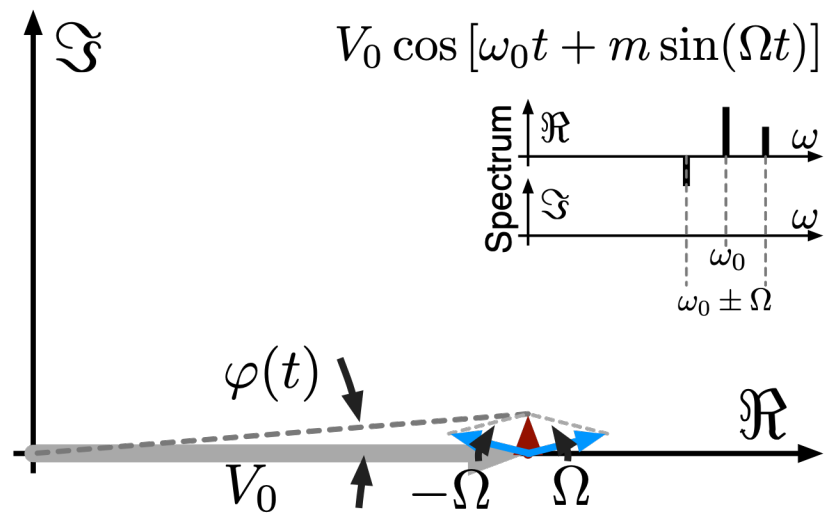
$$\mathbf{V} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}} [1 + \alpha] [\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi]$$

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



File Modulation-summary



Bandwidth

$$\Omega < \omega_0$$

random modulation
is no exception

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

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

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

Freeze $\omega_0 \rightarrow$ phase vector representation

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

equivalent to

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

use

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

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

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

Quantities Associated to the Clock Signal

Phase-time $x(t)$, and jitter

$$v(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos [2\pi\nu_0 t + \varphi(t)] \quad x(t) = \frac{\varphi(t)}{2\pi\nu_0}$$

- 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.)

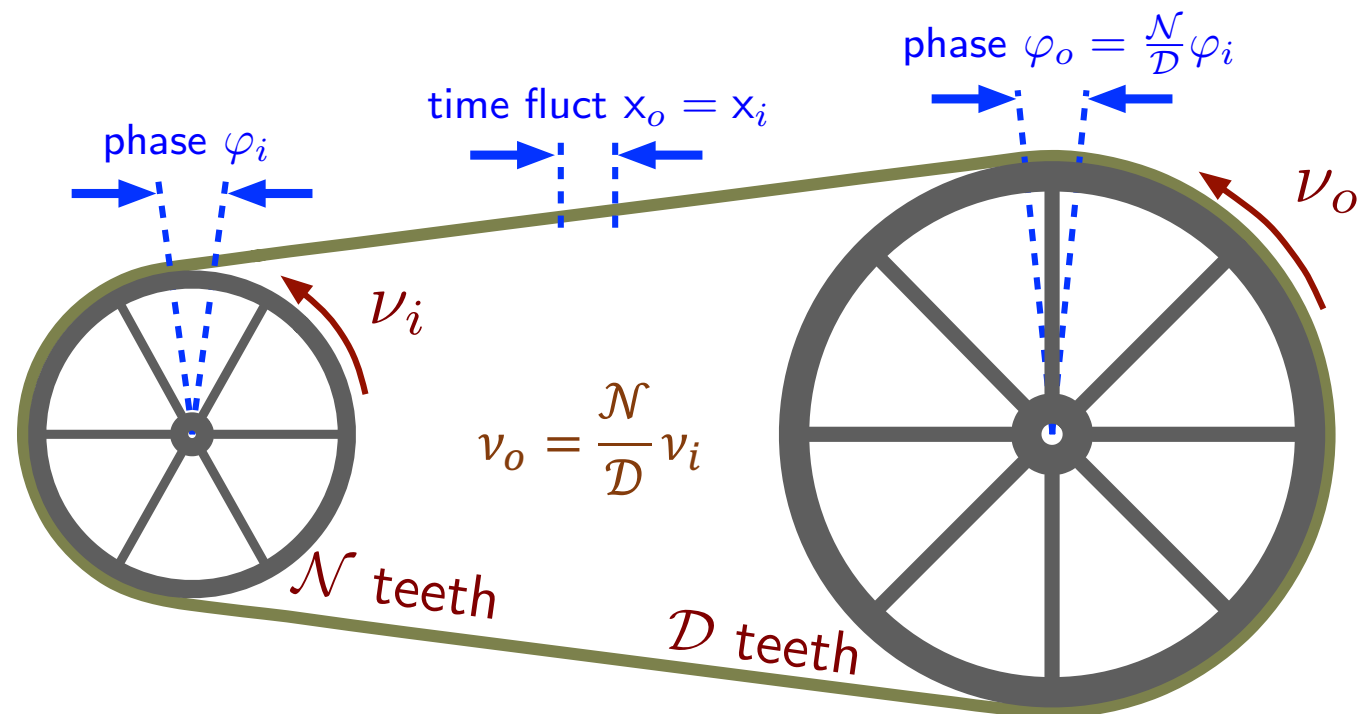
Unlike $x(t)$, the **jitter** includes telecom-oriented industrial standards

Phase time (fluctuation) $x(t)$

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

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

- In frequency synthesis, $x(t)$ is independent of ν
- a constant in noise-free synthesis (likewise, $y(t)$)



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

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

$$\varphi(t) = 2\pi \int [\nu(t) - \nu_0] dt$$

$$\varphi(t) = 2\pi \int (\Delta\nu)(t) dt$$

$$v(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos \left[2\pi\nu_0 t + 2\pi \int (\Delta\nu)(t) dt \right]$$

carrier
frequency

phase
fluctuation

The fractional-frequency fluctuation $y(t)$

$$y(t) = \frac{(\Delta\nu)(t)}{\nu_0}$$

$$\varphi(t) = 2\pi\nu_0 \int \frac{(\Delta\nu)(t)}{\nu_0} dt$$

$$v(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos \left[2\pi\nu_0 t + 2\pi\nu_0 \int y(t) dt \right]$$

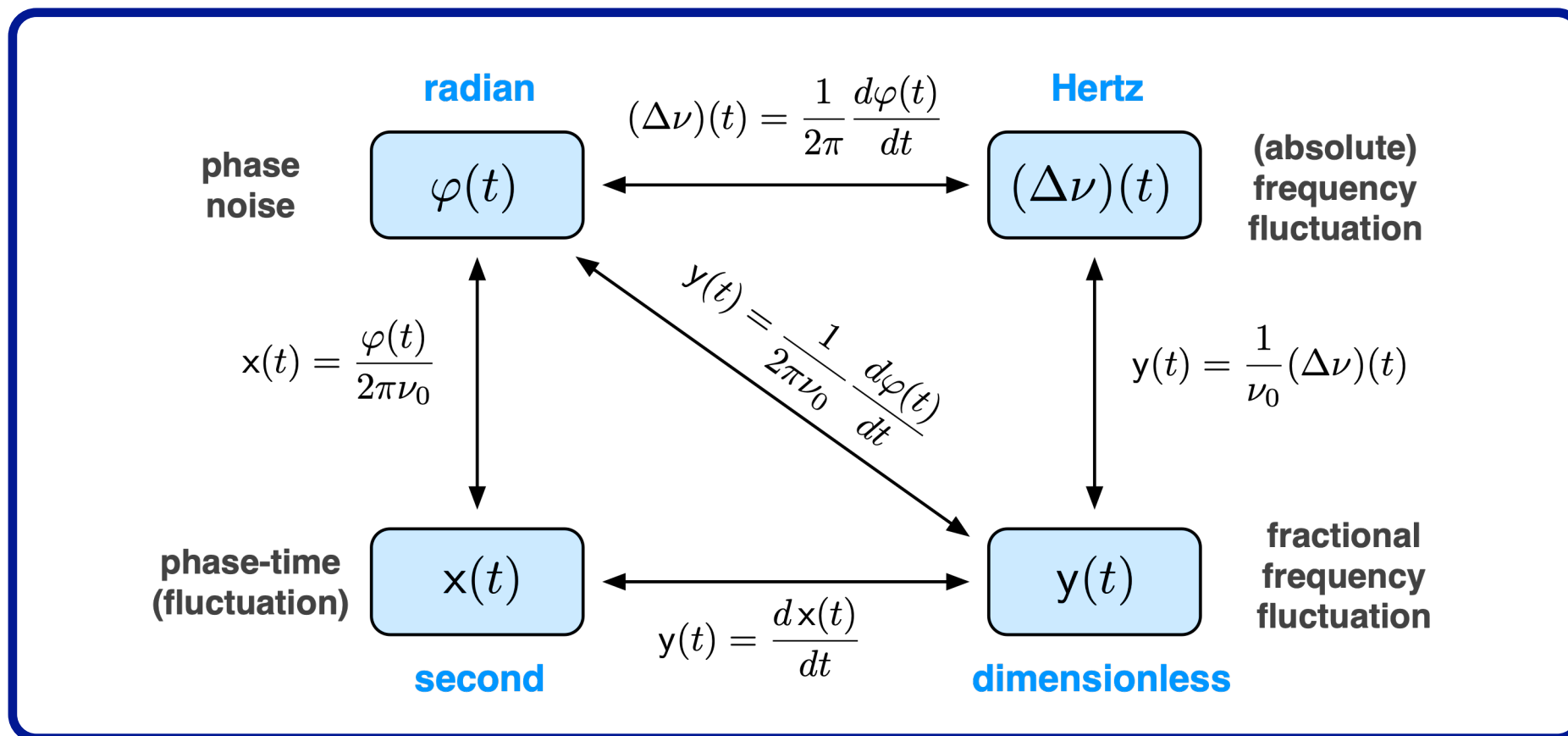
carrier
frequency

phase
fluctuation

Physical quantities

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

Allow $\varphi(t)$ to exceed $\pm\pi$ and count the number of turns, so that $\varphi(t)$ describes the clock fluctuation in full



Analogies

- The “error” of a wrist watch is usually expressed in seconds, if not in minutes.
- The frequency of the internal oscillator (5 Hz for the balance wheel, and 2^{15} 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 parts-per-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]

A Useful notation

boldface notation

total = nominal + fluctuation

$$\varphi(t) = 2\pi\nu_0 t + \varphi(t) \quad \text{phase}$$

$$\nu(t) = \nu_0 + (\Delta\nu)(t) \quad \text{frequency}$$

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = t + \mathbf{x}(t) \quad \text{time}$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = 1 + \mathbf{y}(t) \quad \text{fractional frequency}$$

Noise Spectra

$S_\varphi(f)$ and $\mathcal{L}(f)$

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

Match SI units

- $\varphi(t) \rightarrow \text{rad}$
- $S_\varphi(f) \rightarrow \text{rad}^2/\text{Hz}$
- Log scale $\rightarrow \text{dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$

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 $\mathcal{L}(f)$

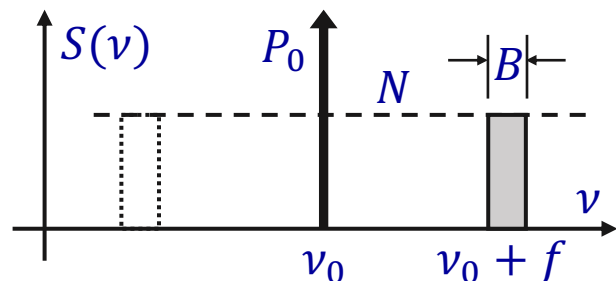
Why changing symbol after changing the unit?

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

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

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

$$\mathcal{L}(f) = \frac{\text{SSB power in 1 Hz BW}}{\text{carrier power}}$$



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
 $10 \log_{10} \mathcal{L}(f) > 0$ 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

$$S_\varphi(f) = N/P_0$$

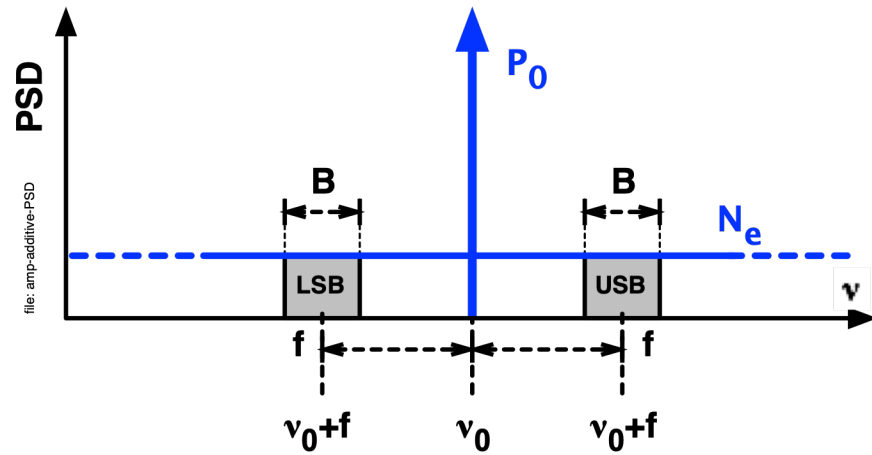
- Pure AM noise

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

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



Noise is equally split between AM and PM

PM (rms)

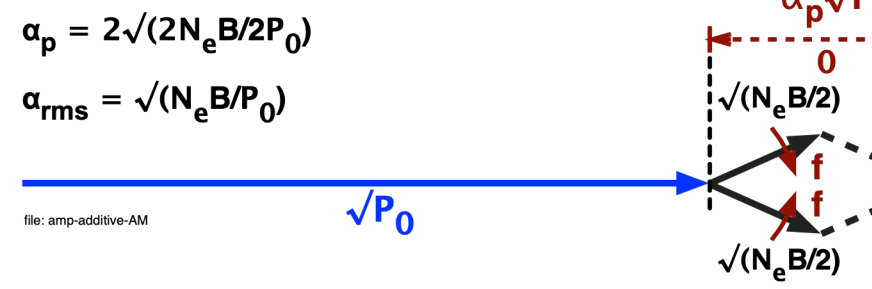
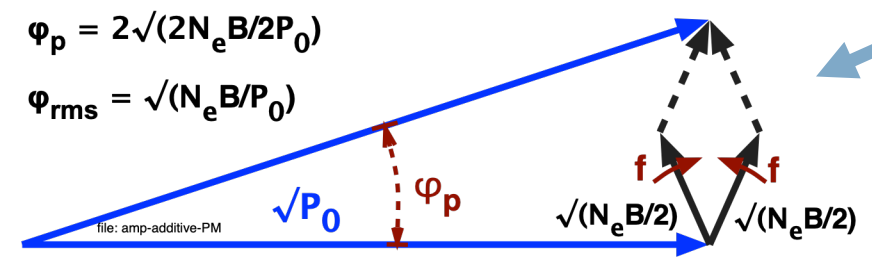
$$v_{usb}(t) = i\sqrt{N_e B/2} e^{i2\pi ft}$$

$$v_{lsb}(t) = -i\sqrt{N_e B/2} e^{-i2\pi ft}$$

AM (rms)

$$v_{usb}(t) = \sqrt{N_e B/2} e^{i2\pi ft}$$

$$v_{lsb}(t) = \sqrt{N_e B/2} e^{-i2\pi ft}$$



Normalize on B

$$S_\varphi(f) = \frac{N_e}{P_0}, \quad S_\alpha(f) = \frac{N_e}{P_0}$$

$$\varphi_p = 2\sqrt{(2N_e B/2P_0)}$$

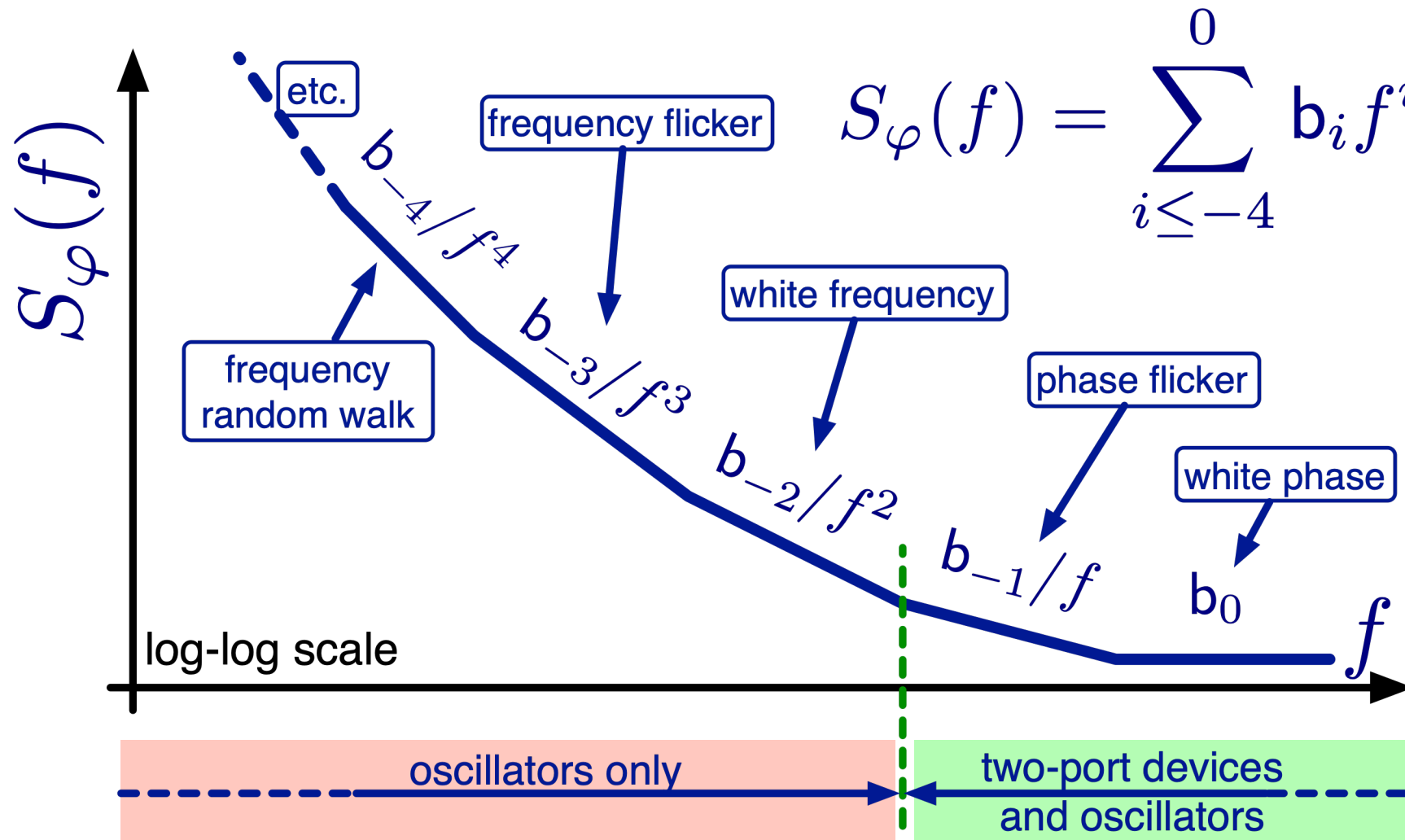
$$\varphi_{rms} = \sqrt{(N_e B/P_0)}$$

$$\alpha_p = 2\sqrt{(2N_e B/2P_0)}$$

$$\alpha_{rms} = \sqrt{(N_e B/P_0)}$$

The polynomial law – or power law

Laurent polynomials → generalized polynomials which include negative exponents



Amplitude noise

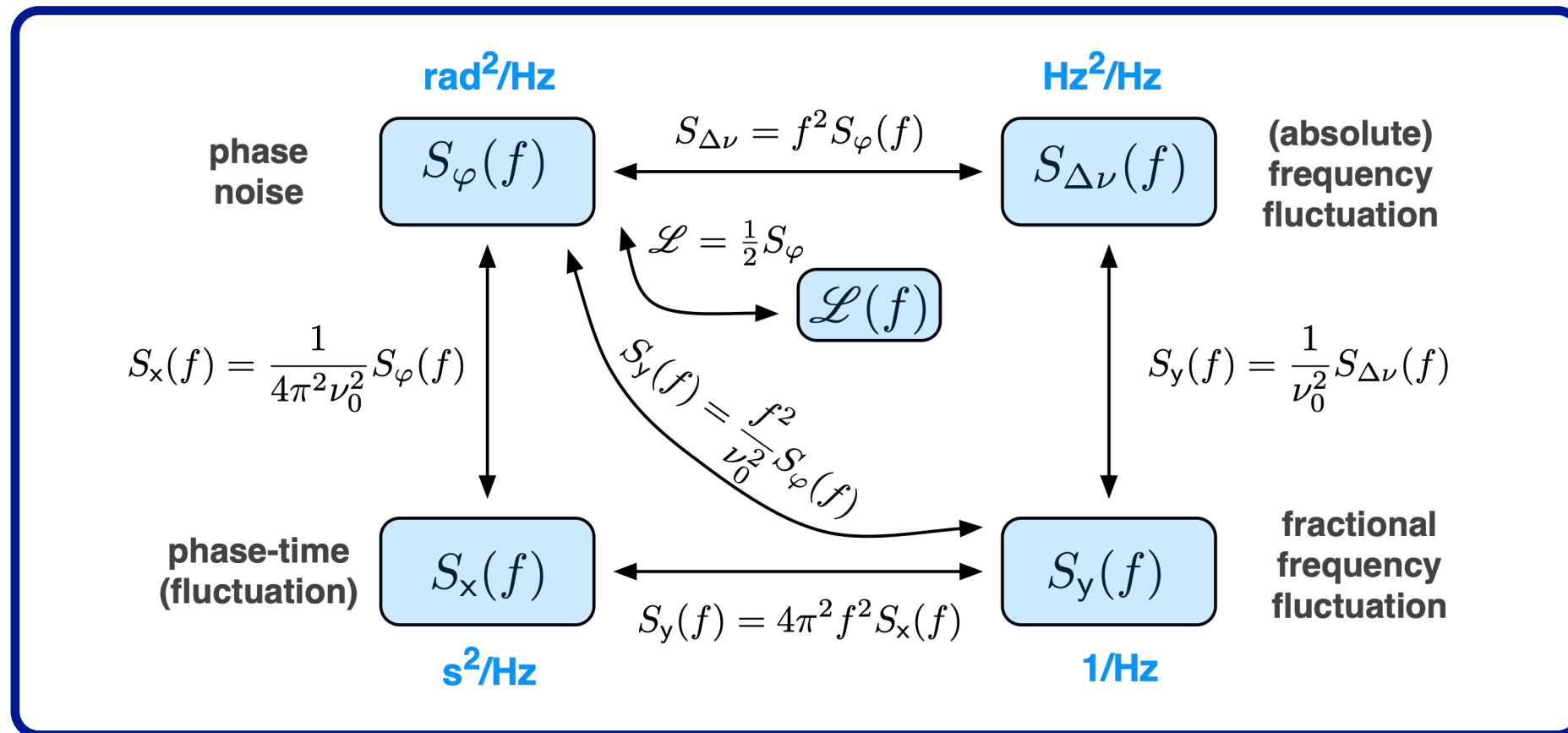
- Not allowed to diverge
- Only white and flicker at low f
- Locally, $1/f^2$ in oscillators

Physical quantities

Rules

$$\frac{d}{dt} \leftrightarrow i\omega$$

$$S_a(\omega) = \mathbb{E}\{A(\omega)A^*(\omega)\}$$



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

$$\sigma_{\bar{y}}^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} [\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1]^2 \right\}$$

Variance

Experimental

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

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$

May depend on n

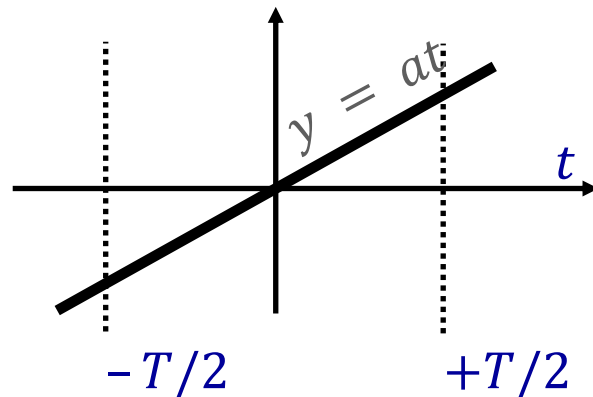
Mathematical

$$\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}\{(y_i - \mu)^2\}$$

$$\mu = \mathbb{E}\{y\}$$

Exists under conditions

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

Problem

The experimental variance

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

depends on n , and the expectation does not exist

$$\mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2 \right\} \nexists$$

??

Solution

Set $n = 2$

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

Fix the poor confidence by averaging on m realizations

$$\langle \sigma^2 \rangle_m = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_2 - y_1)^2$$

The average converges to the expectation

$$\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}\{(y_2 - \mu)^2\}$$

Notice that y is still an unspecified quantity

Don't get confused by the factor 1/2

Experimental
variance

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

set $n = 2$,
and expand

boring, trivial algebra

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= (y_2 - \mu)^2 + (y_1 - \mu)^2 \\ &= \left(y_2 - \frac{1}{2}[y_2 + y_1]\right)^2 + \left(y_1 - \frac{1}{2}[y_2 + y_1]\right)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(y_2^2 - 2y_2y_1 + y_1^2)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(y_2^2 - 2y_2y_1 + y_1^2)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(y_2^2 - 2y_2y_1 + y_1^2)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Two-sample
variance

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

Time-frequency uncertainty theorem

$$D_t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t^2 |x(t)|^2 dt$$

$$D_f = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^2 |X(f)|^2 df$$

$$D_t D_f \geq 1$$

Fast data acquisition
Plenty of data in a short experiment

Long run behavior of clocks
Few of data in a long experiment

$$T \gg \tau$$

$$T > \tau \quad \text{little margin}$$

Fourier analysis

Fancy variances

Highest τ for a given T
Available data stream $\rightarrow T$

PSD

AVAR

integration time τ
Misplaced slide, it should be shown later

Formal definition of the Allan variance

let

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

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

**definition
(AVAR)**

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} [\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1]^2 \right\}$$

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x_2 - 2x_1 + x_0}{\tau} \right]^2 \right\}$$

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

expands as

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{\tau} \int_{\tau}^{2\tau} y(t) dt - \frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^{\tau} y(t) dt \right]^2 \right\}$$

Evaluating, replace the expectation with the average on m samples

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

A modern approach

Definition

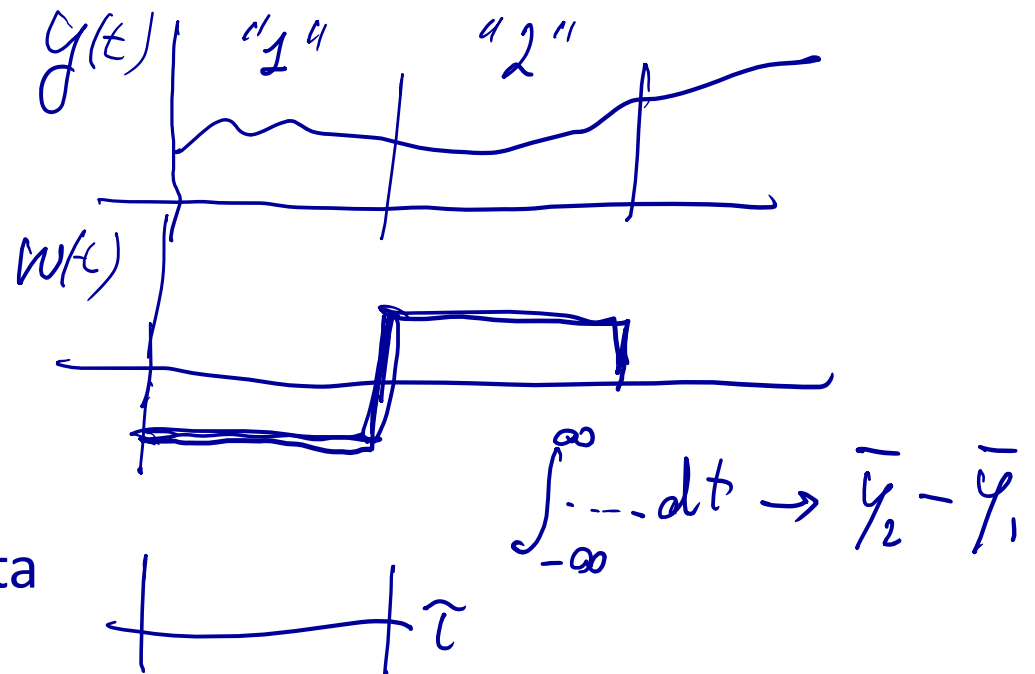
$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \frac{1}{2} [\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1]^2$$

Use the average or the expectation

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

Weighted Average

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



Lecture 7

Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

Enrico Rubiola

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INRiM, Torino, Italy

Contents

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

ORCID 0000-0002-5364-1835

home page <http://rubiola.org>

Weighted average

Bare mean

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^{\tau} y(t) dt$$

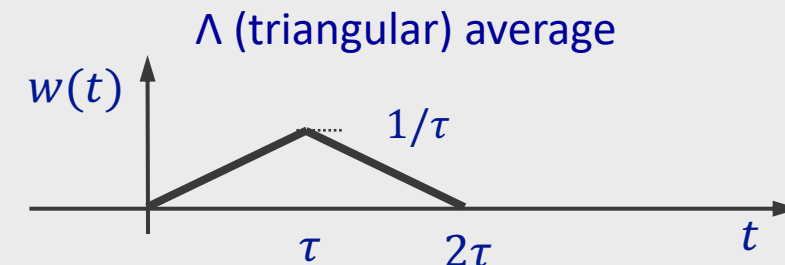
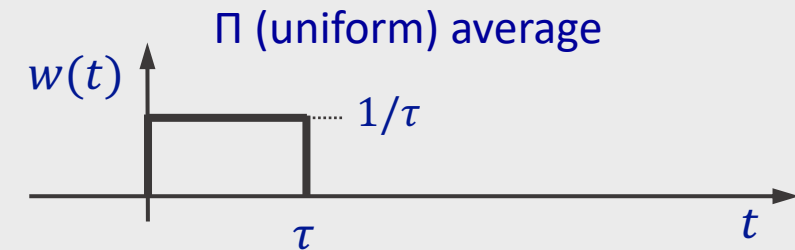
Use the average or the expectation

Weighted Average

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

Normalization $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w(t) dt = 1$

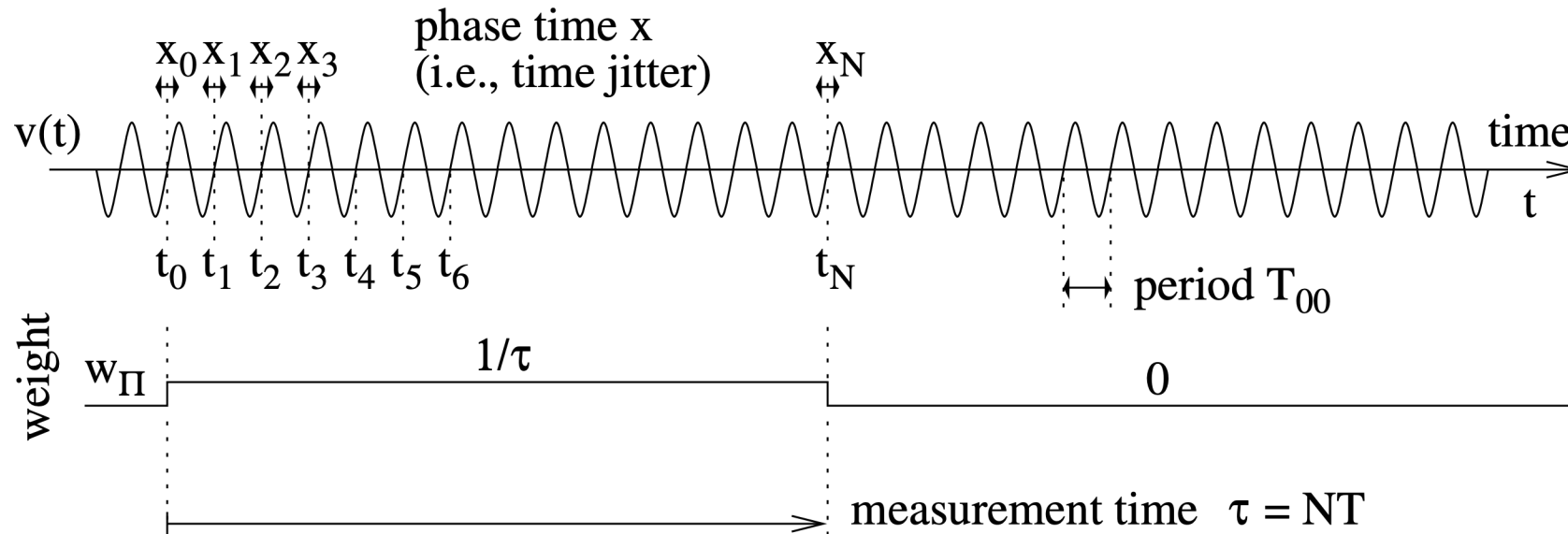
There are many options for the weight function $w(t)$



...etc.

Π (classical) counter

E. Rubiola, Fig.2



the measure is a scalar product

$$\mathbb{E}\{\nu\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \nu(t) w_\Pi(t) dt$$

Π estimator

$$w_\Pi(t) = \begin{cases} 1/\tau & 0 < t < \tau \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

weight

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} w_\Pi(t) dt = 1$$

normalization

variance

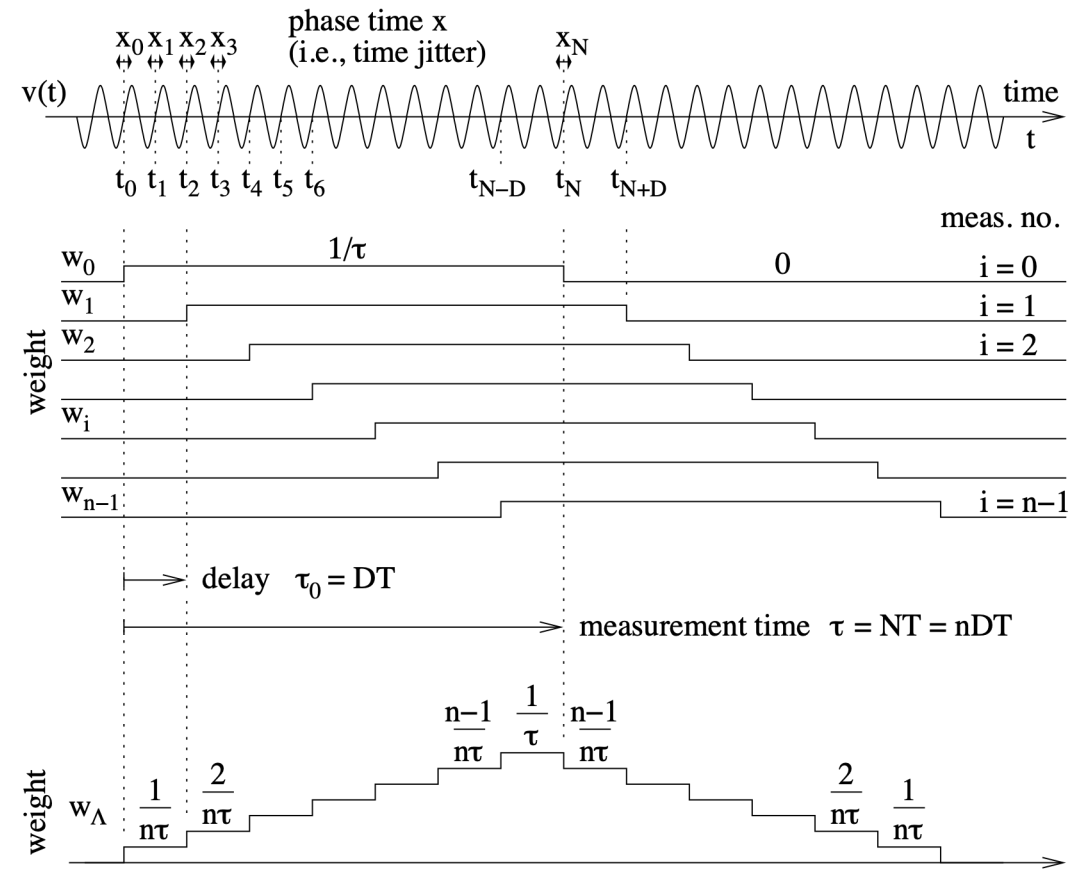
$$\sigma_y^2 = \frac{2\sigma_x^2}{\tau^2}$$

classical variance

Λ Counter

E. Rubiola, RSI 76(5) 054703, May 2005

E. Rubiola, Fig.3



$$\mathbb{E}\{\nu\} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \bar{\nu}_i \quad \bar{\nu}_i = N/\tau_i$$

Λ estimator

$$\mathbb{E}\{\nu\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \nu(t) w_\Lambda(t) dt$$

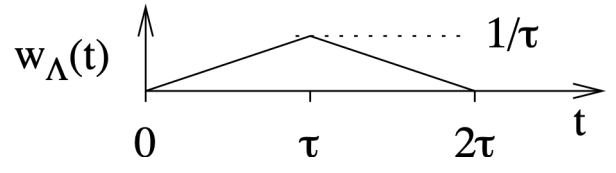
weight

$$w_\Lambda(t) = \begin{cases} t/\tau & 0 < t < \tau \\ 2 - t/\tau & \tau < t < 2\tau \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

normalization

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} w_\Lambda(t) dt = 1$$

limit to $\rightarrow 0$ of the weight function



white noise: the autocorrelation function is a narrow pulse, about the inverse of the bandwidth

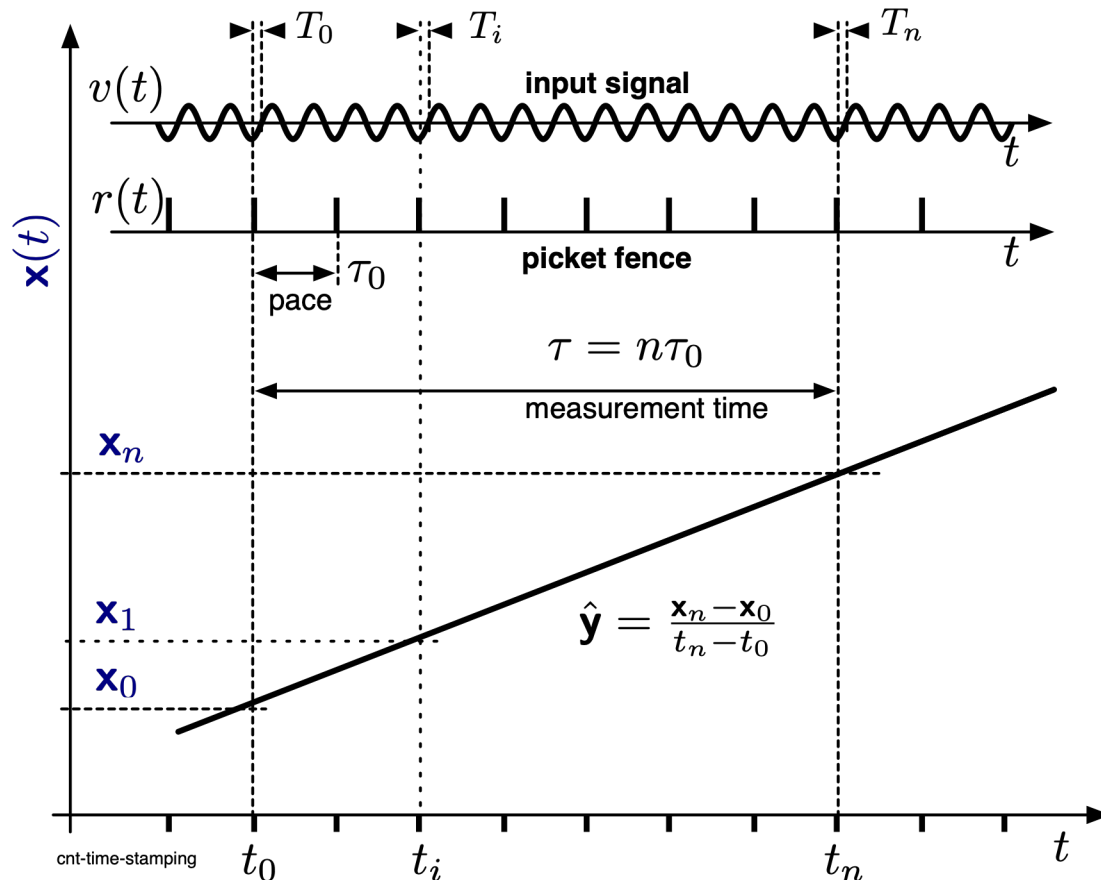
the variance is divided by n

$$\sigma_y^2 = \frac{1}{n} \frac{2\sigma_x^2}{\tau^2} \quad \text{classical variance}$$

Ω (linear-regression) counter

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

Time stamping



$$\mathbf{x}(t) = t + \mathbf{x}(t) \quad \text{phase time}$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = 1 + \mathbf{y}(t) \quad \text{fractional frequency}$$

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

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)$$

\mathbf{y} is estimated with a linear regression on the \mathbf{x} series

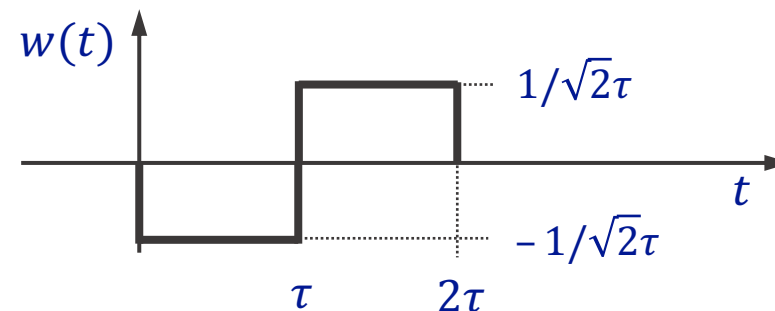
$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\sum_i (\mathbf{x}_i - \langle \mathbf{x} \rangle, t_i - \langle t \rangle)}{\sum_i (t_i - \langle t \rangle)^2}.$$

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

Generalized Allan variance

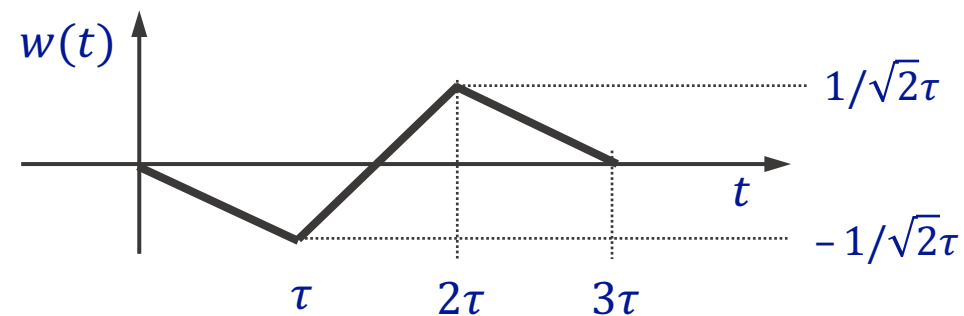
Allan variance

$$\sigma_Y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} [\bar{Y}_2 - \bar{Y}_1]^2 \right\}$$



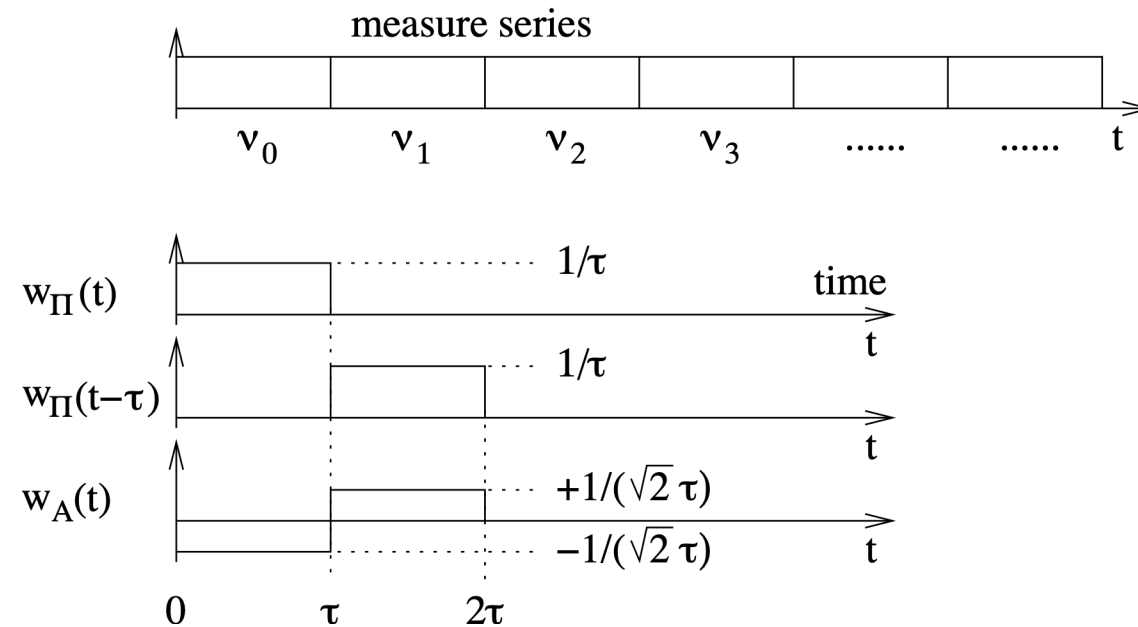
Generalized Allan variance

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



Π Estimator \rightarrow Allan Variance

given a series of contiguous non-overlapped measures



the Allan variance is easily evaluated

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

Modified Allan variance

definition

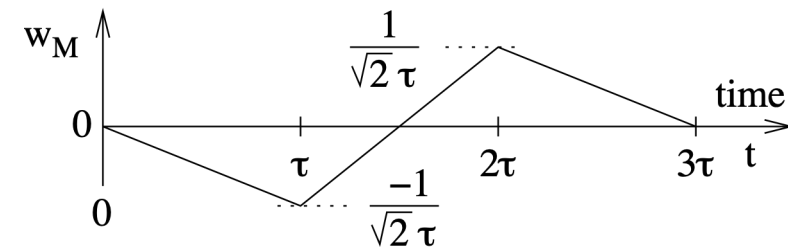
$$\text{mod } \sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left(\frac{1}{\tau} \int_{(i+n)\tau_0}^{(i+2n)\tau_0} y(t) dt - \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{i\tau_0}^{(i+n)\tau_0} y(t) dt \right) \right]^2 \right\}$$

with $\tau = n\tau_0$.

wavelet-like
variance

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

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



energy

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

compare the energy

$$E\{w_M\} = \frac{1}{2} E\{w_A\}$$

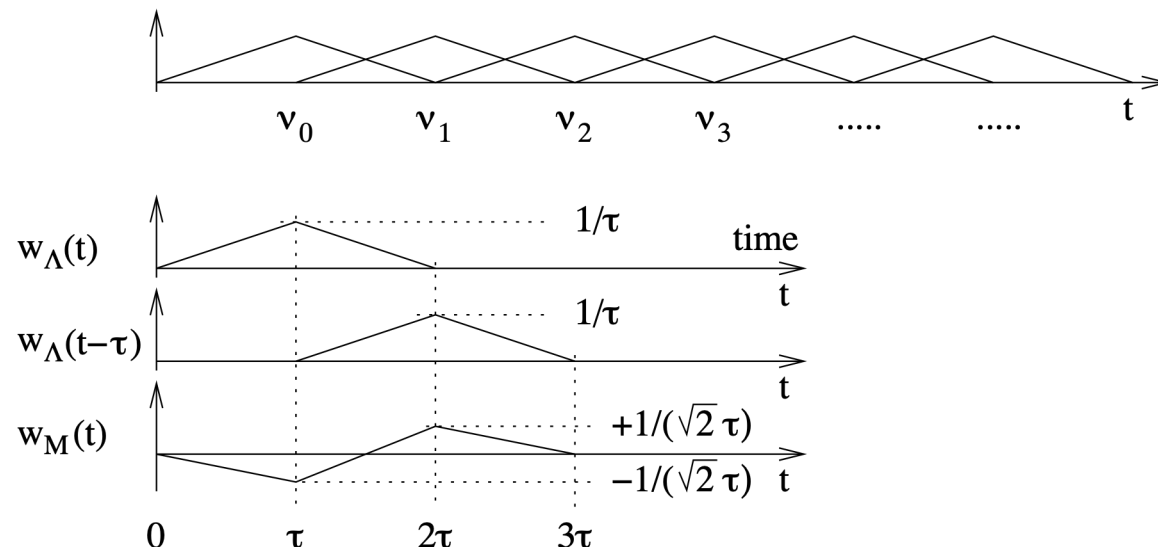
this explains why the mod Allan variance is always lower than the Allan variance

Overlapped Λ estimator \rightarrow MVAR

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

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

as they were P-estimates

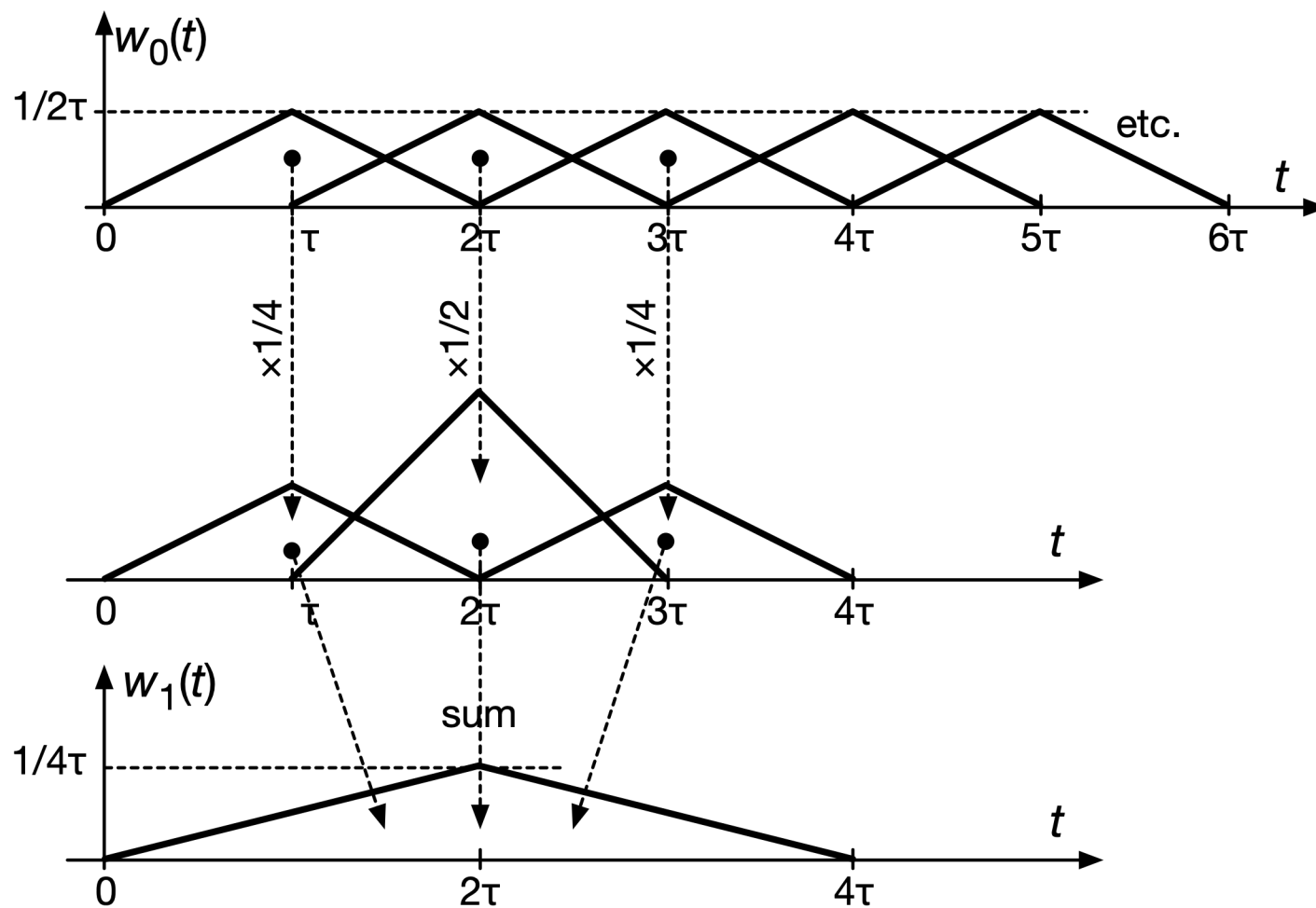


one gets exactly the modified Allan variance!

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

with $\tau = n\tau_0$.

MVAR by-2 decimation rule



Wavelet interpretation

A wavelet is a unit shock

Zero average

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w(t) dt = 0$$

Energy equal one

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |w(t)|^2 dt = 1$$

Nonzero activity limited to the $[-T/2, T/2]$ interval

$$\int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |w(t)|^2 dt = 1 - \epsilon$$

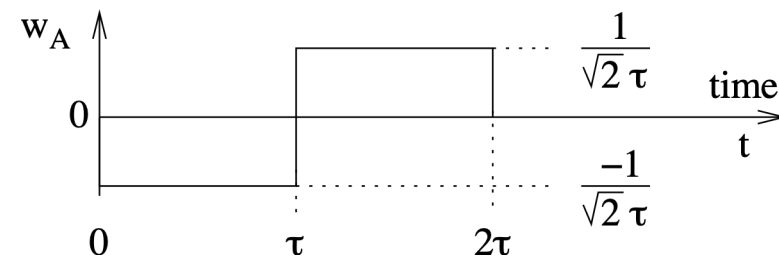
Wavelet interpretation

wavelet-like variance

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

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

weight (wavelet-like) function



energy

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

the Allan variance **differs** from a wavelet variance in the normalization on power, instead of on energy

Statistical interpretation

Follows immediately from the derivation / definition

the expectation

$$\mathbb{E} \left\{ \left[\bar{y} - \mathbb{E} \{ \bar{y} \} \right]^2 \right\}$$

does not exist

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left[\bar{y}_k - \mu \right]^2$$

depends on n

Use the smallest n , and take the expectation

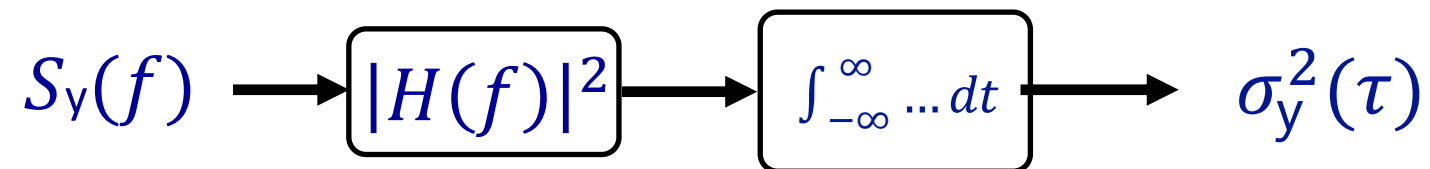
definition
(AVAR)

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1 \right]^2 \right\}$$

In practice, replace the expectation with the average

Filter interpretation

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



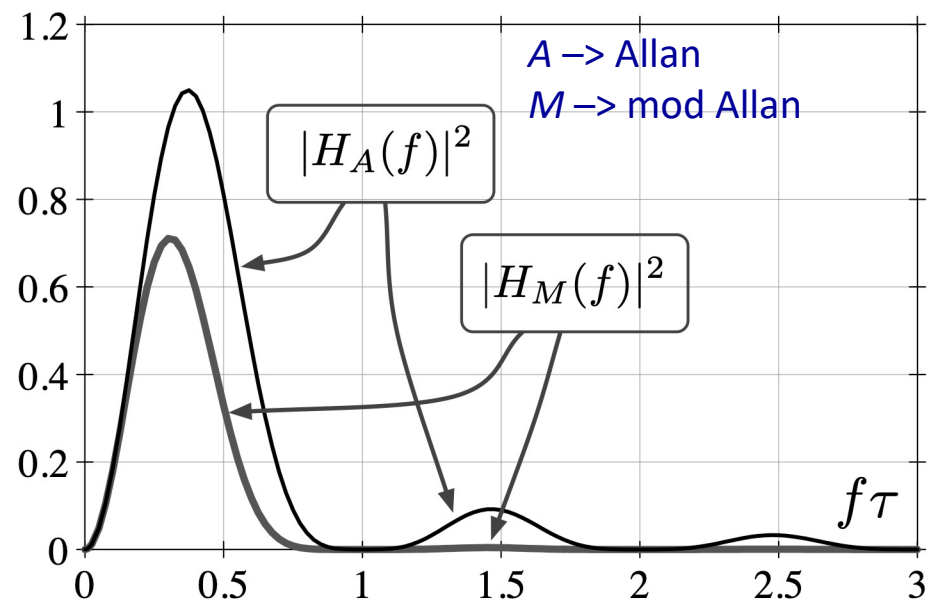
impulse response $h_A(t) = w_A(t)$

$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \int_0^{\infty} S^I(f) |H_A(f)|^2 df$$

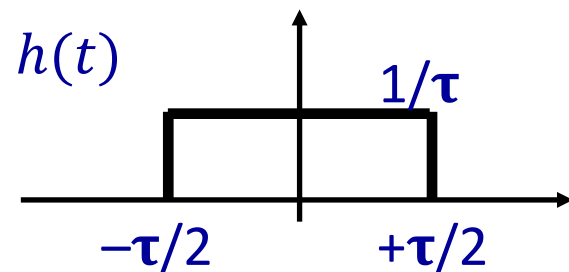
$$|H_A(f)|^2 = 2 \frac{\sin^4(\pi f\tau)}{(\pi f\tau)^2}$$

energy

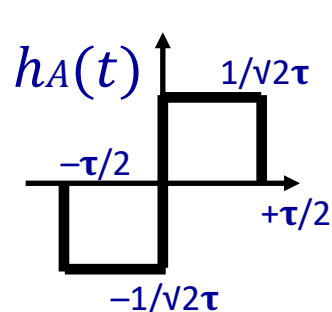
$$E\{h_A\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h_A^2(t) dt = \frac{1}{\tau}$$



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



$$H(f) = \frac{\sin(\pi\tau f)}{\pi\tau f}$$



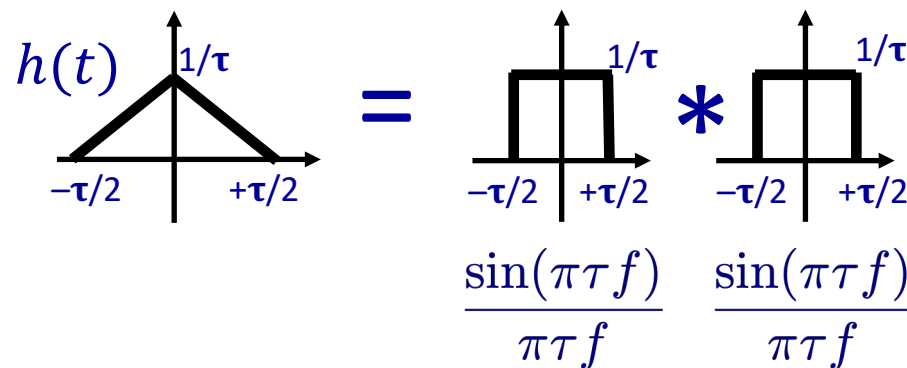
$$= \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Graph of } h(t) \\ \frac{\sin(\pi\tau f)}{\pi\tau f} \end{array} \right] * \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Graph of } \delta(t) \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{i} \sin(\pi\tau f) \end{array} \right]$$

$$|H_A(f)|^2 = 2 \frac{\sin^4(\pi\tau f)}{(\pi\tau f)^2}$$

$$H_A(f) = \frac{\sin(\pi\tau f)}{\pi\tau f} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{i} \sin(\pi\tau f) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{i} \frac{\sin^2(\pi\tau f)}{\pi\tau f}$$

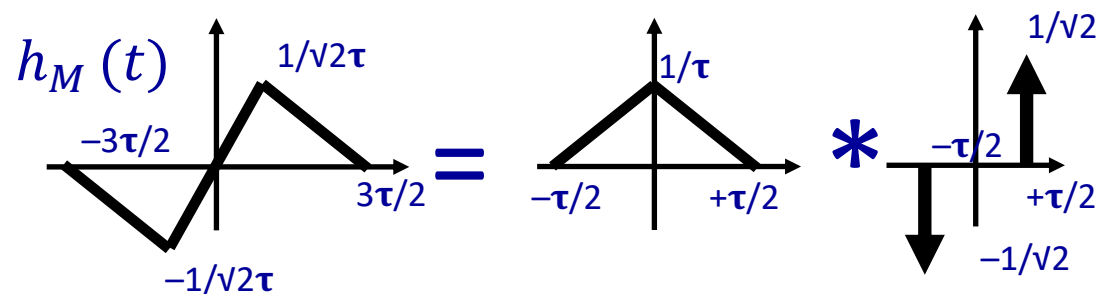
* Convolution operator

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



$$h(t) = \frac{\sin(\pi\tau f)}{\pi\tau f} * \frac{\sin(\pi\tau f)}{\pi\tau f}$$

$$H(f) = \frac{\sin^2(\pi\tau f)}{(\pi\tau f)^2}$$



$$h_M(t) = \frac{\sin^2(\pi\tau f)}{(\pi\tau f)^2} * \frac{\sqrt{2}}{i} \sin(\pi\tau f)$$

$$H_M(f) = \frac{\sin^2(\pi\tau f)}{(\pi\tau f)^2} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{i} \sin(\pi\tau f) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{i} \frac{\sin^3(\pi\tau f)}{(\pi\tau f)^2}$$

$$|H_M(f)|^2 = 2 \frac{\sin^6(\pi\tau f)}{(\pi\tau f)^4}$$

* Convolution operator

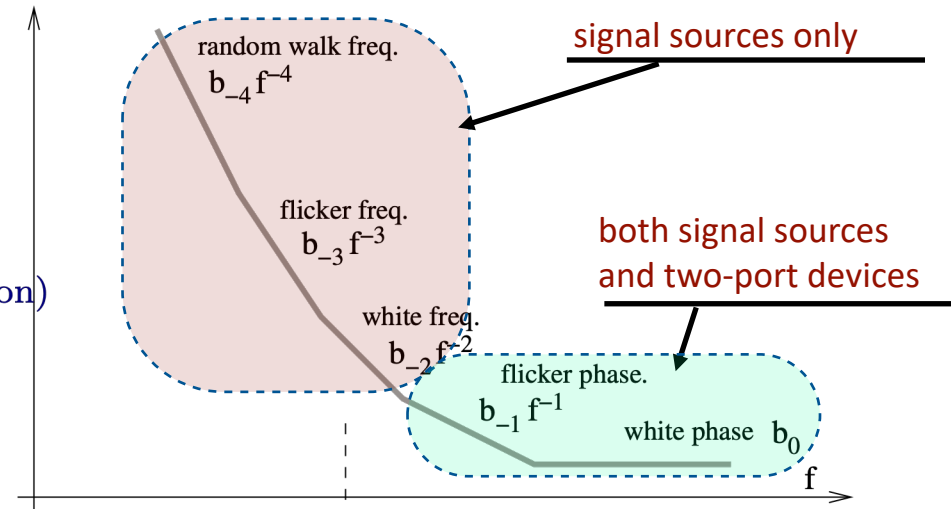
Phase noise to AVAR conversion

$$v(t) = V_p [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos [2\pi\nu_0 t + \varphi(t)] \quad S_\varphi(f)$$

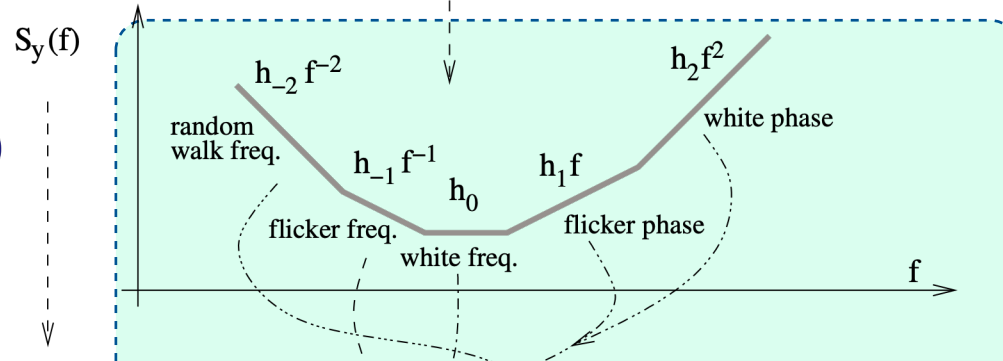
Phase noise

$$S_\varphi(f) = 2 \mathbb{E} \{ \Phi(f) \Phi^*(f) \}, \quad f > 0 \quad (\text{expectation})$$

$$S_\varphi(f) \approx \frac{2}{T} \langle \Phi(f) \Phi^*(f) \rangle_m, \quad f > 0 \quad (\text{average})$$



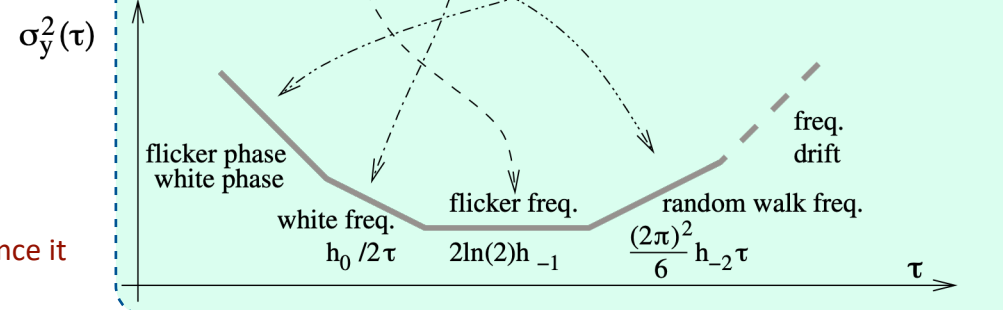
$$y(t) = \frac{\dot{\varphi}(t)}{2\pi\nu_0} \Rightarrow S_y(f) = \frac{f^2}{\nu_0^2} S_\varphi(f)$$



Allan variance
(two-sample wavelet-like variance)

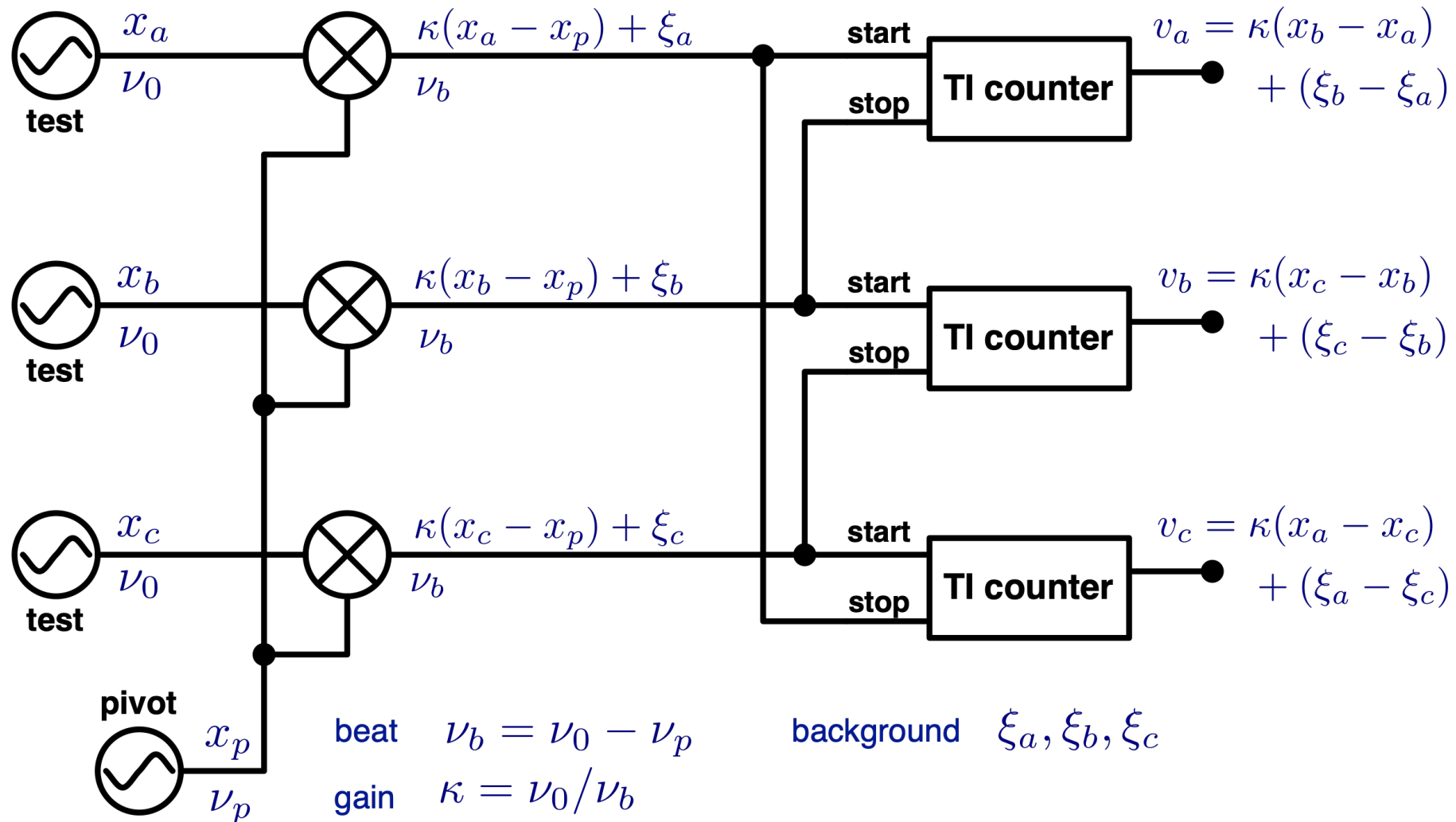
$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \mathbb{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} [\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1]^2 \right\}$$

approaches a half-octave bandpass filter (for white noise), hence it converges even with processes steeper than 1/f



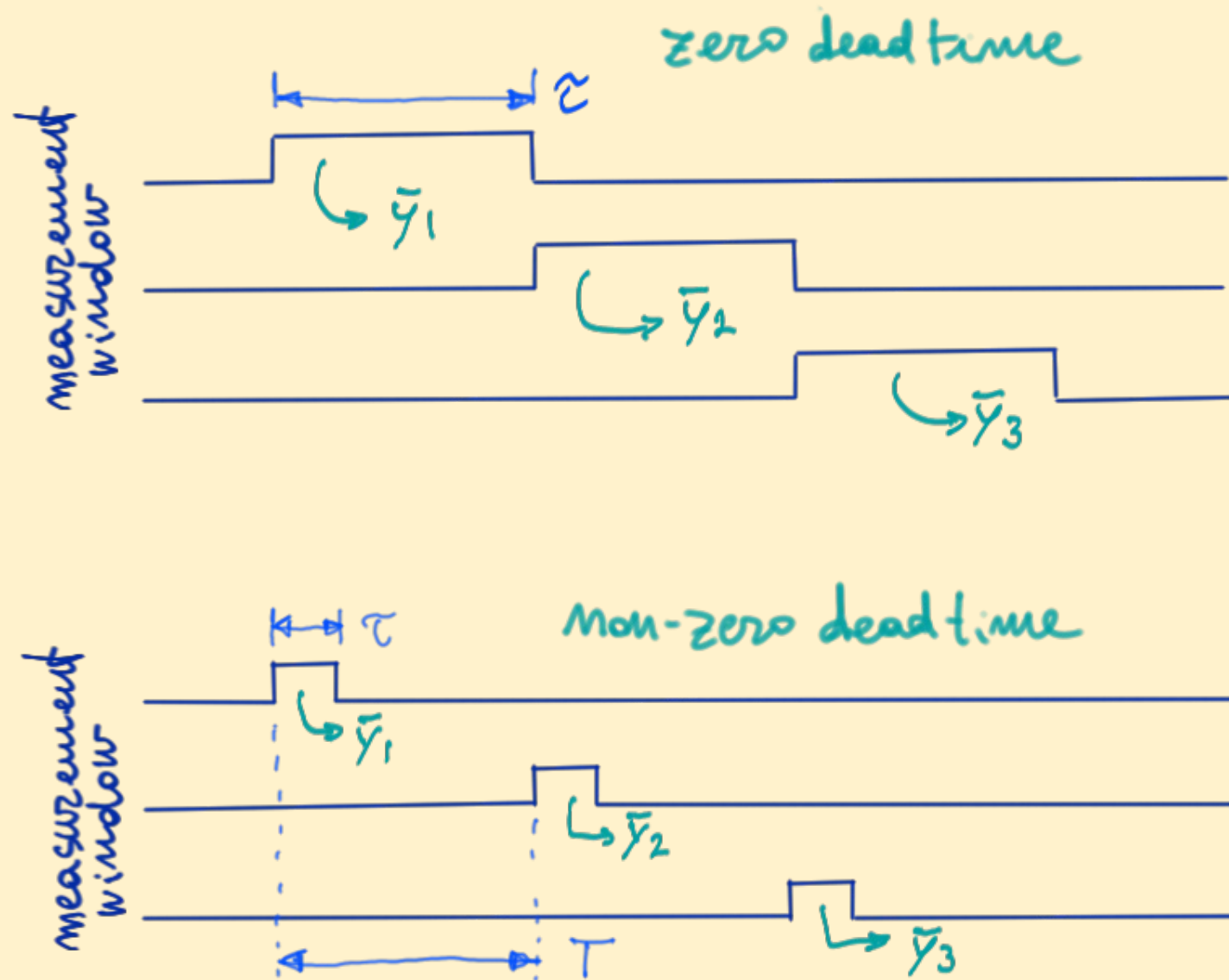
noise type	$S_y(f)$	AVAR $A_{\sigma_y^2}(\tau)$	MVAR $M_{\sigma_y^2}(\tau)$	HVAR $H_{\sigma_y^2}(\tau)$	PVAR $P_{\sigma_y^2}(\tau)$	TVAR $T_{\sigma_x^2}(\tau)$
Blue PM	$h_3 f^3$	$\frac{3f_H^2 h_3}{8\pi^2 \tau^2}$ $0.0380 f_H h_3 / \tau^2$	$\frac{10\gamma + \ln 48 + 10 \ln(\pi f_H \tau)}{16\pi^4} \frac{h_3}{\tau^4}$ $\frac{[10\gamma + \ln 48 + 10 \ln \pi]}{16\pi^4} = 0.0135$	$\frac{5f_H^2 h_3}{18\pi^2 \tau^2}$ $0.0281 f_H h_3 / \tau^2$	$\frac{9[\gamma + \ln(4\pi f_H \tau)]}{4\pi^4} \frac{h_3}{\tau^4}$ $\frac{9[\gamma + \ln(4\pi)]}{4\pi^4} = 0.0718$	$\frac{10\gamma + \ln 48 + 10 \ln(\pi f_H \tau)}{48\pi^4} \frac{h_3}{\tau^2}$ $\frac{10\gamma + \ln 48 + 10 \ln \pi}{48\pi^2} = 0.00451$
White PM	$h_2 f^2$	$\frac{3f_H h_2}{4\pi^2 \tau^2}$ $0.0760 f_H h_2 / \tau^2$	$\frac{3 h_2}{8\pi^2 \tau^3}$ $0.0380 h_2 / \tau^3$	$\frac{5f_H h_2}{9\pi^2 \tau^2}$ $0.0563 f_H h_2 / \tau^2$	$\frac{3 h_2}{2\pi^2 \tau^3}$ $0.152 h_2 / \tau^3$	$\frac{1 h_2}{8\pi^2 \tau}$ $0.0127 h_2 / \tau$
Flicker PM	$h_1 f$	$\frac{3\gamma - \ln 2 + 3 \ln(2\pi f_H \tau)}{4\pi^2} \frac{h_1}{\tau^2}$ $[3\gamma - \ln 2 + 3 \ln 2\pi] / 4\pi^2 = 0.166$	$\frac{(24 \ln 2 - 9 \ln 3)}{8\pi^2} \frac{h_1}{\tau^2}$ $0.0855 h_1 / \tau^2$	$\simeq \frac{5[\gamma + \ln(\sqrt[10]{48} \pi f_H \tau)]}{9\pi^2} \frac{h_1}{\tau^2}$ $5[\gamma + \ln(\sqrt[10]{48} \pi)] / 9\pi^2 = 0.119$	$\frac{3[\ln(16) - 1]}{2\pi^2} \frac{h_1}{\tau^2}$ $0.269 h_1 / \tau^2$	$\frac{(8 \ln 2 - 3 \ln 3)}{8\pi^2} h_1$ $0.0285 h_1$
White FM	h_0	$\frac{1 h_0}{2 \tau}$	$\frac{1 h_0}{4 \tau}$	$\frac{1 h_0}{3 \tau}$	$\frac{3 h_0}{5 \tau}$	$\frac{1}{12} h_0 \tau$
Flicker FM	$h_{-1} f^{-1}$	$2 \ln(2) h_{-1}$ $1.39 h_{-1}$	$\frac{27 \ln 3 - 32 \ln 2}{8} h_{-1}$ $0.935 h_{-1}$	$\frac{8 \ln 2 - 3 \ln 3}{3} h_{-1}$ $0.750 h_{-1}$	$\frac{2[7 - \ln(16)]}{5} h_{-1}$ $1.69 h_{-1}$	$\frac{27 \ln 3 - 32 \ln 2}{24} h_{-1} \tau^2$ $0.312 h_{-1} \tau^2$
Random walk FM	$h_{-2} f^{-2}$	$\frac{2\pi^2}{3} h_{-2} \tau$ $6.58 h_{-2} \tau$	$\frac{11\pi^2}{20} h_{-2} \tau$ $5.43 h_{-2} \tau$	$\frac{2\pi^2}{9} h_{-2} \tau$ $2.19 h_{-2} \tau$	$\frac{26\pi^2}{35} h_{-2} \tau$ $7.33 h_{-2} \tau$	$\frac{11\pi^2}{60} h_{-2} \tau^3$ $1.81 h_{-2} \tau^3$
Integrated flicker FM	$h_{-3} f^{-3}$	not convergent	not convergent	$\frac{\pi^2[27 \ln 3 - 32 \ln 2]}{9} h_{-3} \tau^2$ $8.205 h_{-3} \tau^2$	not convergent	not convergent
Integrated RW FM	$h_{-4} f^{-4}$	not convergent	not convergent	$\frac{44\pi^2}{90} h_{-4} \tau^3$ $4.825 h_{-4} \tau^3$	not convergent	not convergent
linear drift D_y		$\frac{1}{2} D_y^2 \tau^2$	$\frac{1}{2} D_y^2 \tau^2$	0	$\frac{1}{2} D_y^2 \tau^2$	$\frac{1}{6} D_y^2 \tau^4$
Spectral response $ H(\theta) ^2$, $\theta = \pi f \tau$		$\frac{2 \sin^4 \theta}{\theta^2}$	$\frac{2 \sin^6 \theta}{\theta^4}$	$\frac{16 \sin^6 \theta}{9 \theta^2}$	$\frac{9 [2 \sin^2 \theta - \theta \sin 2\theta]^2}{2 \theta^6}$	$\frac{\tau^2}{3} \frac{2 \sin^6 \theta}{\theta^4}$
$\gamma = 0.577$ 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 $\tau_0 =$ sampling interval.						$T_{\sigma_x^2}(\tau) = \frac{\tau^2}{3} M_{\sigma_y^2}(\tau)$

The Time-Domain Beat Method



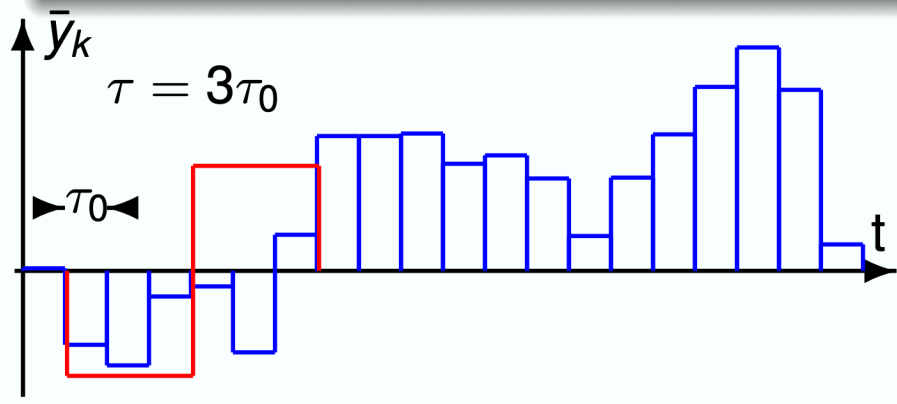
Some Facts About the Estimation

Dead time



Allan variance with or without overlapping

Allan variance with overlapping

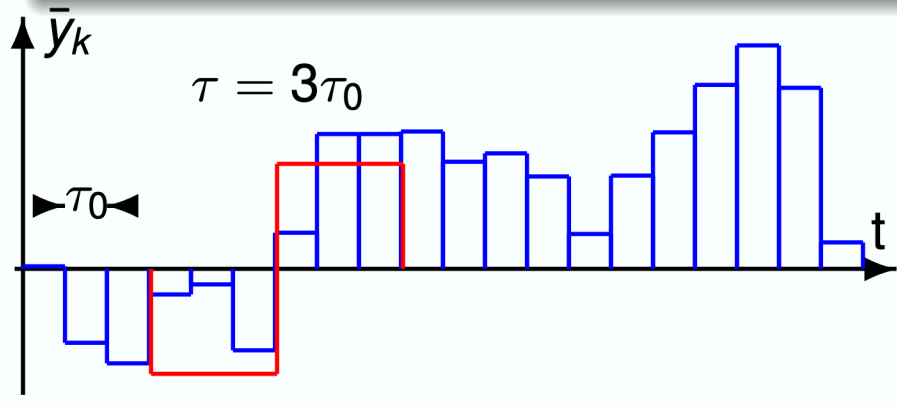


τ_0 -steps moving average

Benefits and drawbacks :

- lower dispersion
- more correlated estimates

Allan variance without overlapping



Shifted by τ -steps :

$$\tau = 3\tau_0 \Leftrightarrow \bar{Y}_1 = (\bar{y}_1 + \bar{y}_2 + \bar{y}_3)/3$$

Benefits and drawbacks :

- less correlated estimates
- higher dispersion

Courtesy of F. Vernotte

Chi-square and Rayleigh distribution

Allan variance: $\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \frac{1}{2} \langle (\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1)^2 \rangle$

Estimate: $\hat{\sigma}_y^2(\tau) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1)^2$

- $\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1$: Gaussian centered values
- $(\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1)^2$: χ_1^2 distribution
- $\frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1)^2$: χ_N^2 distribution

Allan deviation: $\sigma_y(\tau) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \langle (\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1)^2 \rangle}$

Estimate: $\hat{\sigma}_y(\tau) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1)^2} \Rightarrow \chi_N$ distributed (Rayleigh)

N is the Equivalent Degrees of Freedom (EDF)

Reminder about the Equivalent Degrees of Freedom

Meaning of the EDF

Mean(χ_ν^2) = ν and **Variance**(χ_ν^2) = 2ν

The EDF ν contains the information about the dispersion of the random variable χ_ν^2

Estimation of the EDF

$$\hat{\sigma}_y^2(\tau) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1)^2 \Rightarrow \chi_N^2 \text{ if } \{\bar{y}_1, \bar{y}_2, \dots\} \text{ uncorrelated!}$$

False:

- for low frequency noises (flicker and random walk FM)
- with overlapping variances

EDF estimation not included here.
 Read the Greenhall article

Algorithm for estimating the EDF

- **C. Greenhall and W. Riley, 2003**, “*Uncertainty of Stability Variances Based on Finite Differences*” (35th PTTI).
 Used in *Stable 32* as well as in *SigmaTheta*.

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 $\pi()$

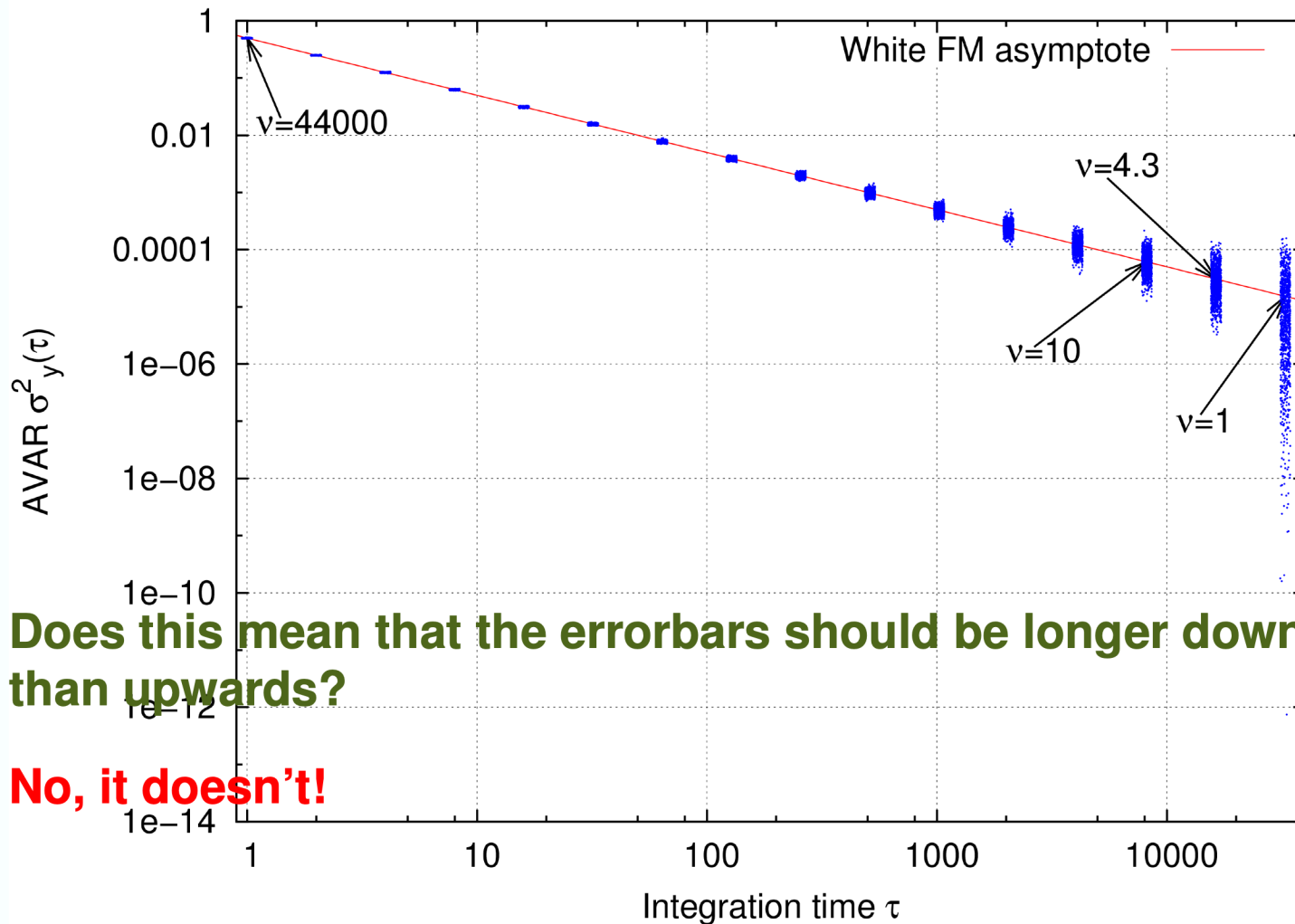
experimental ξ

unknown “true” θ

Highly specialized topic

Developped (among others) by
F. Vernotte, and E. Lantz

Dispersion of Allan variance estimates

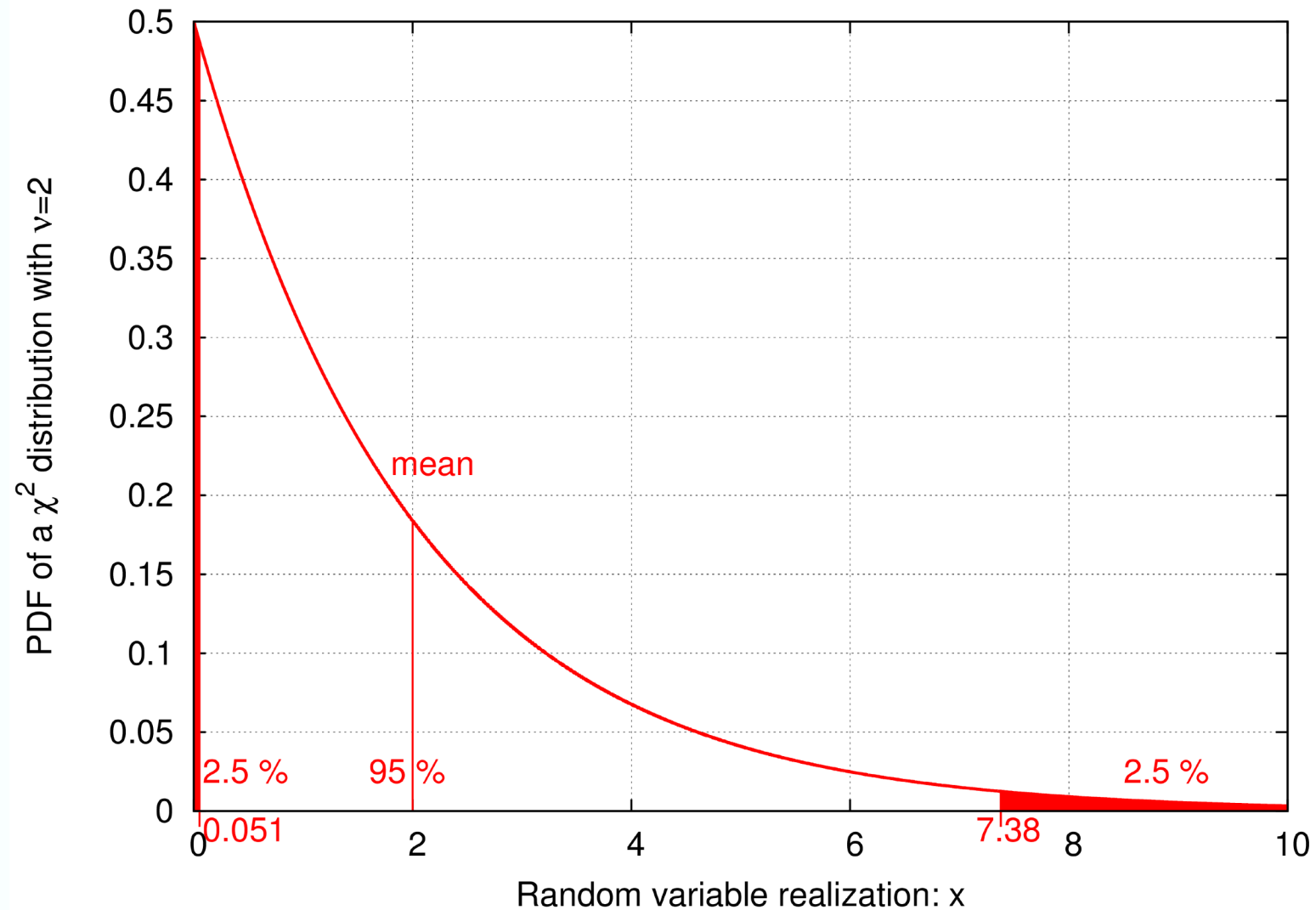


Does this mean that the errorbars should be longer downwards than upwards?

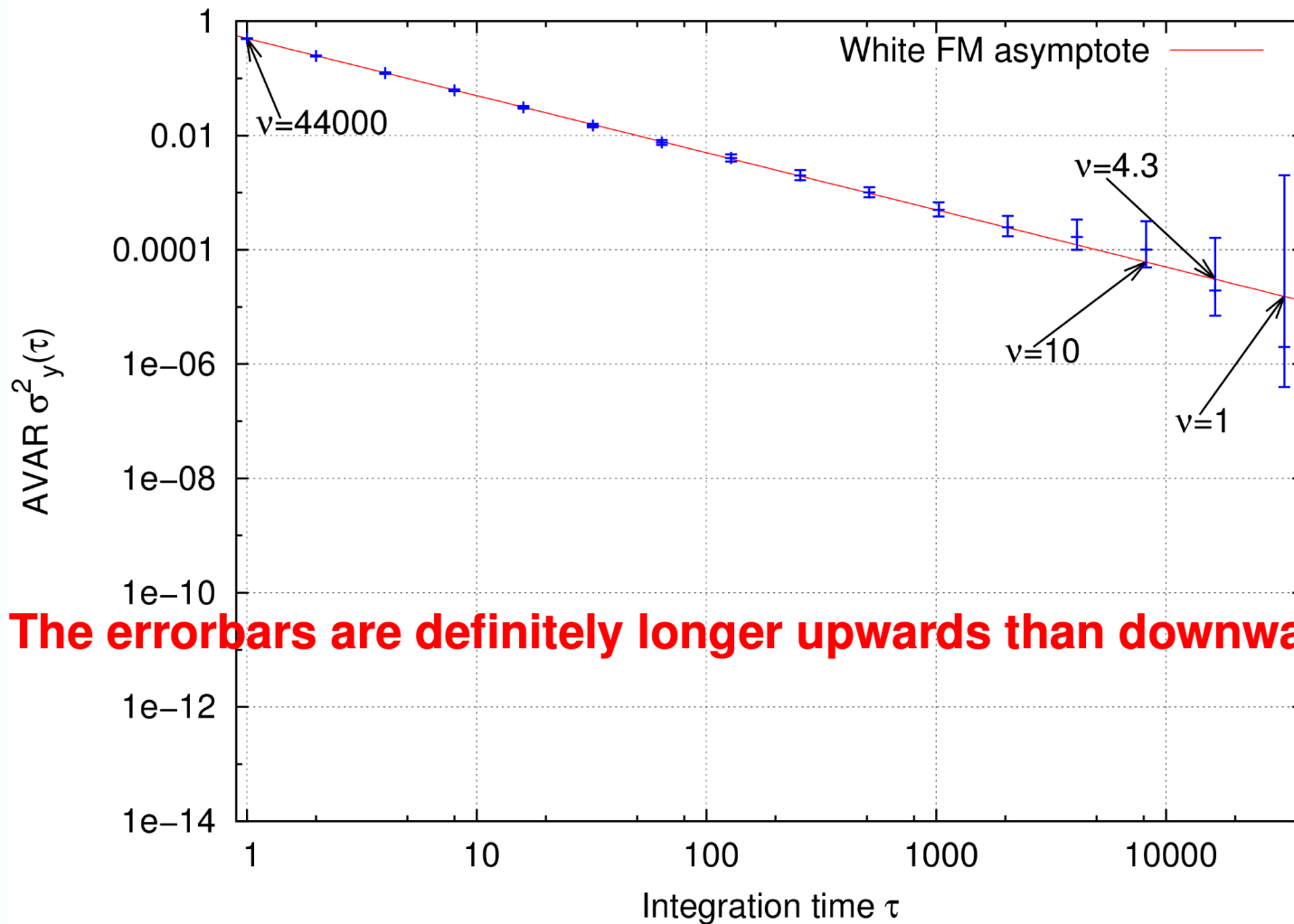
No, it doesn't!

Probability density function of a χ^2 distribution

Courtesy of F. Vernotte



Errorbars over Allan variance estimates



The errorbars are definitely longer upwards than downwards!

Courtesy of F. Vernotte

Other Variances

The most widely used variances

- **The Picinbono variance (Hadamard):**

$$\sigma_p^2(\tau) = \frac{1}{9} \left\langle (-\bar{y}_1 + 2\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_3)^2 \right\rangle.$$

$$|H_p(f)|^2 = \frac{16 \sin^6(\pi\tau f)}{9 (\pi\tau f)^2}.$$

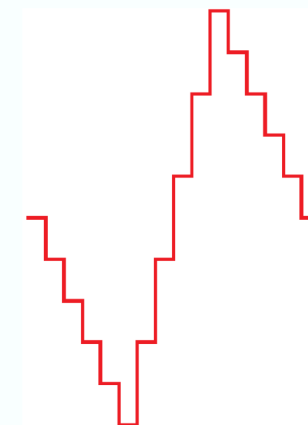
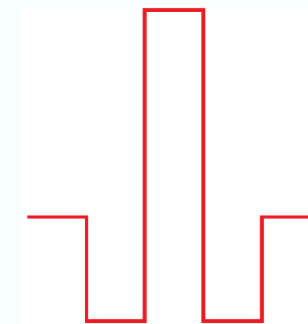
- **The modified Allan variance (MVAR):**

$$\text{Mod}\sigma_y^2(\tau) = \frac{1}{2} \left\langle \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{y}_{i+n} - \bar{y}_i \right)^2 \right\rangle$$

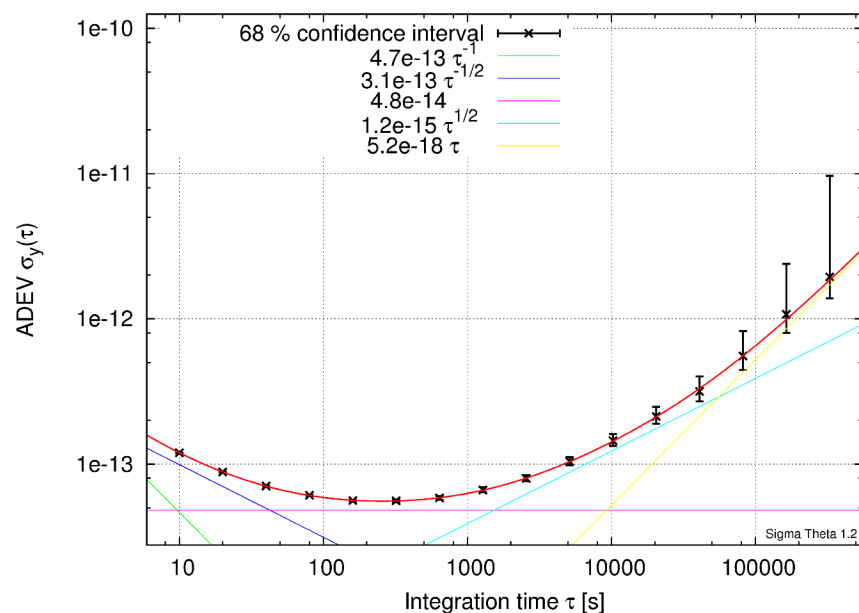
$$|H_M(f)|^2 = \frac{\sin^6(\pi\tau f)}{(\pi\tau f)^2 n^2 \sin^2(\pi\tau_0 f)}.$$

- **The time variance (TVAR):**

$$\sigma_x^2(\tau) = \frac{\tau^2}{3} \text{Mod}\sigma_y^2(\tau).$$



Increasing the number of edf: the Total variance



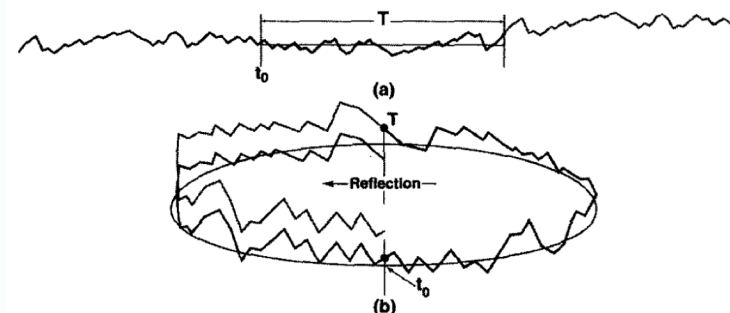
The longer the time duration,
the larger the uncertainty.

What about very long term stability ?

In order to improve estimates for
very long term, D. Howe developed:

- Total variance: *UFFC-47(5), 1102-1110 (2000)*
- Theo: *Metrologia 43, S322-S331 (2006)*

Main idea: circularizing the data
sequence



Statistics with Frequency Counters



Experimental Methods

for the measurement of phase noise and frequency stability

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INRiM, Torino, Italy

Outline

Saturated mixer

Correlation (dual-channel) measurements

Oscillator phase noise

Photonic techniques

~~Calibration methods~~

Bridge techniques

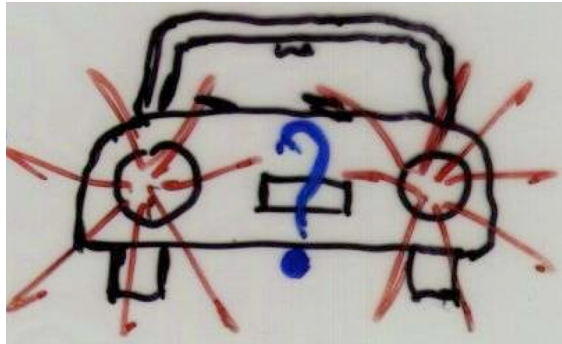
AM noise

~~Noise in systems~~

home page <http://rubiola.org>

Measurement – high signal-to-noise ratio

How can we measure a low random signal (noise sidebands) close to a strong dazzling carrier?



solution(s): suppress the carrier and measure the noise

convolution
(low-pass)

$$s(t) * h_{lp}(t)$$

distorsimeter,
audio-frequency instruments

time-domain
product

$$s(t) \times r(t - T/4)$$

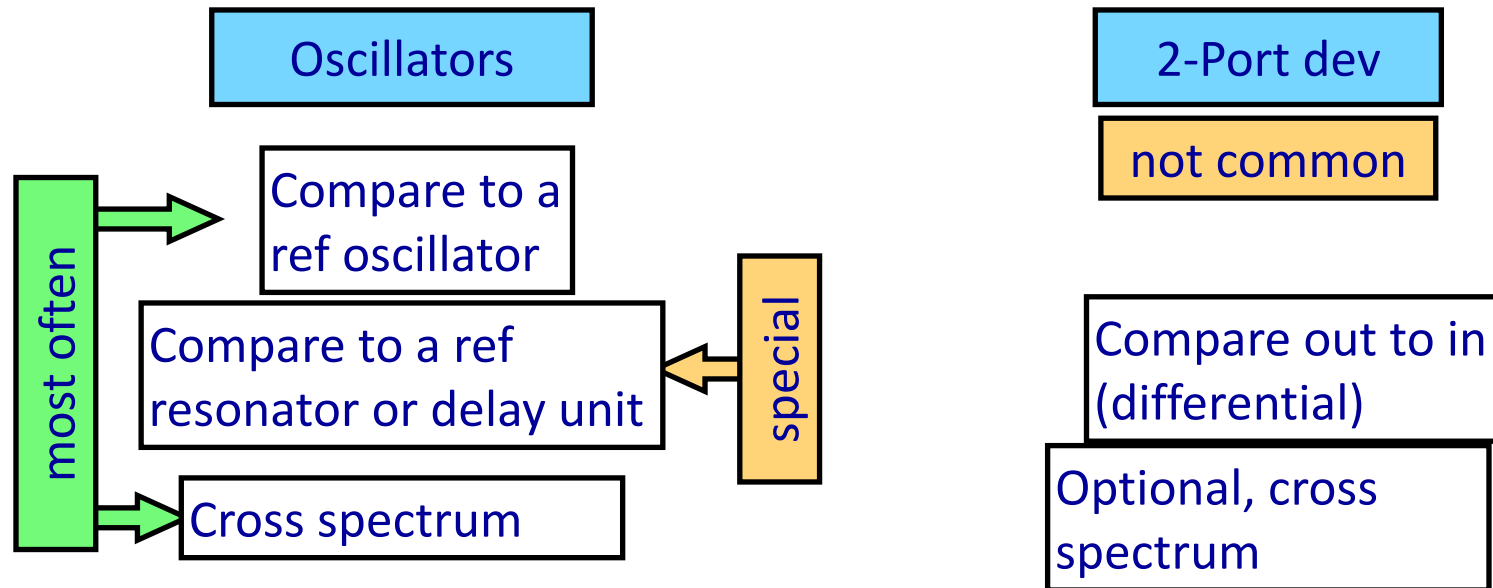
traditional instruments for phase-noise
measurement (saturated mixer)

vector
difference

$$s(t) - r(t)$$

bridge (interferometric) instruments

PM Noise measurement methods



Phase Detector

Saturated mixer

Bridge (interferometer)

Software Defined Radio (SDR)

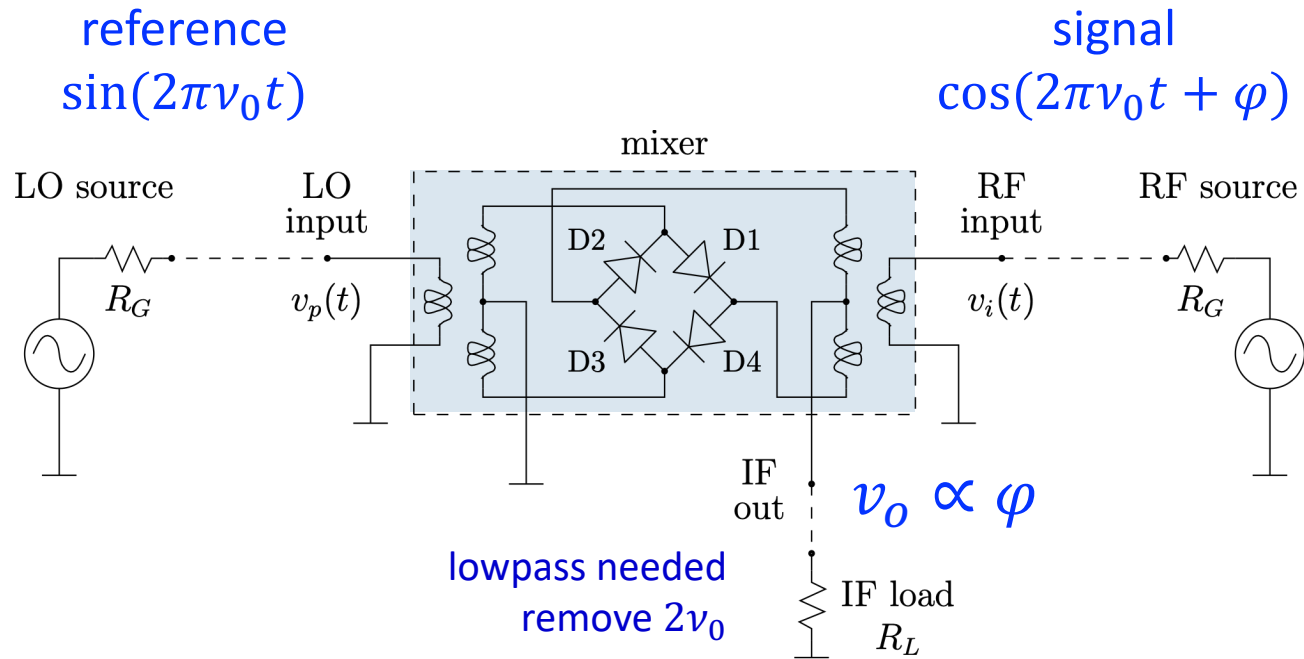
Direct analog-to-digital conversion

Saturated Mixer

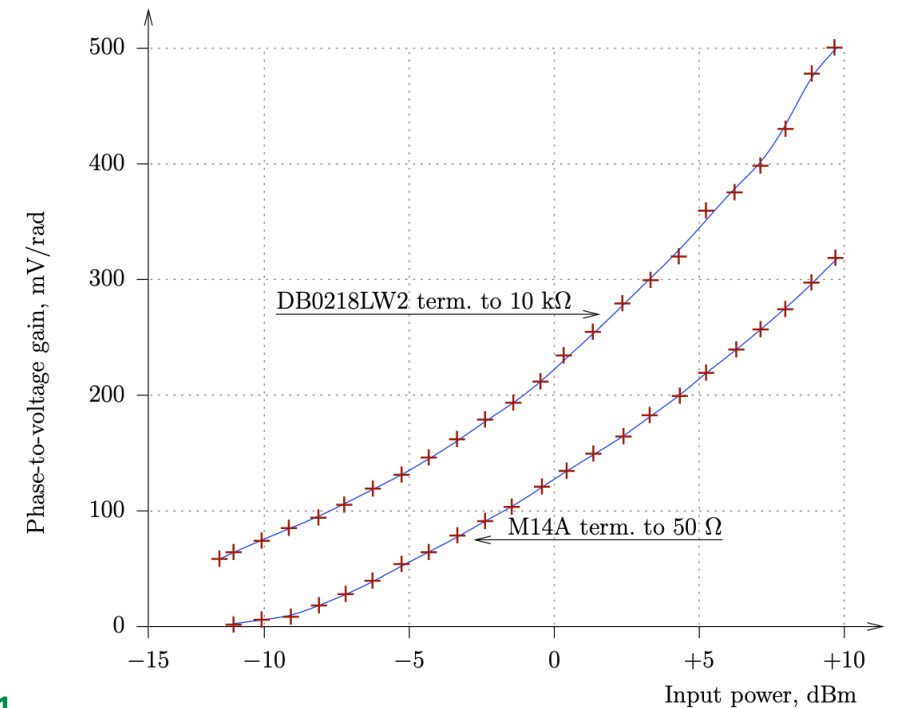
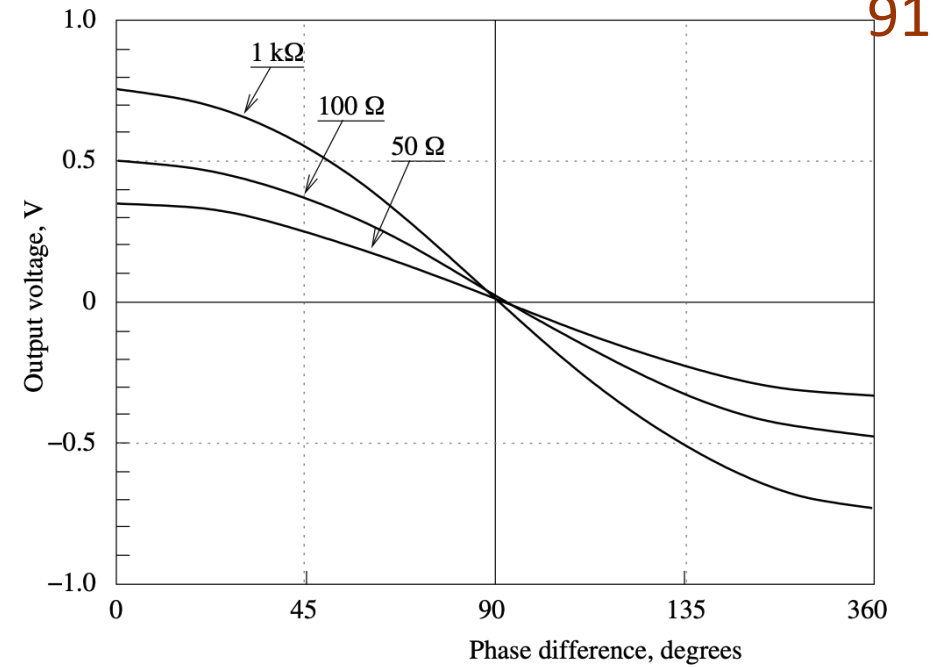
Double-balanced mixer

saturated at both inputs => phase-to-voltage detector

$$v_o(t) = k_\varphi \varphi(t)$$

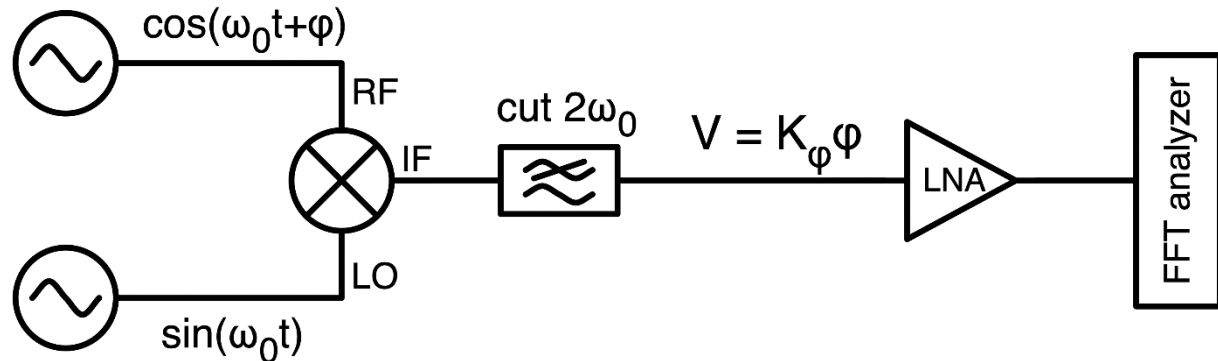


- LO and RF inputs are interchangeable
- Stronger signal \rightarrow LO (better isolation)

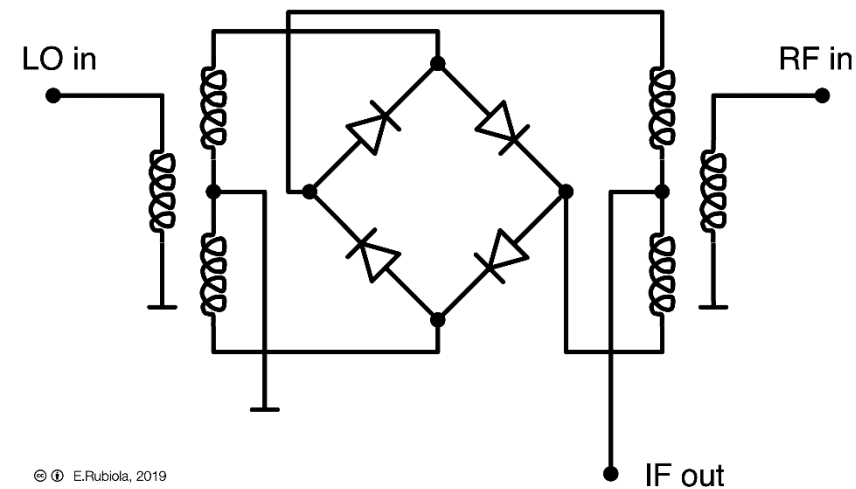


Double-balanced mixer

saturated multiplier
phase-to-voltage detector



© E. Rubiola, 2019



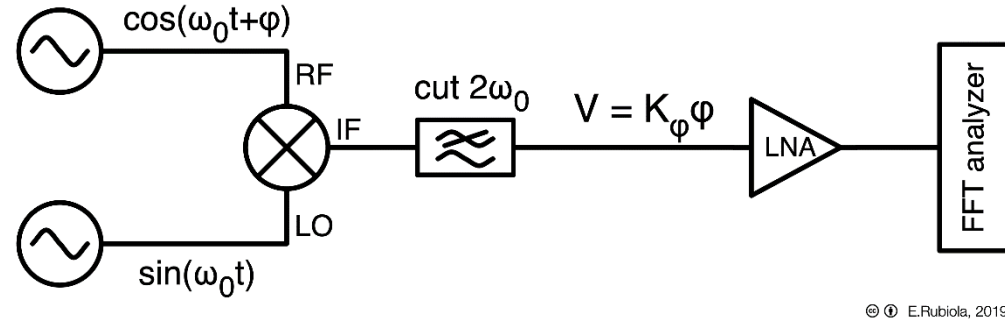
© E. Rubiola, 2019

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

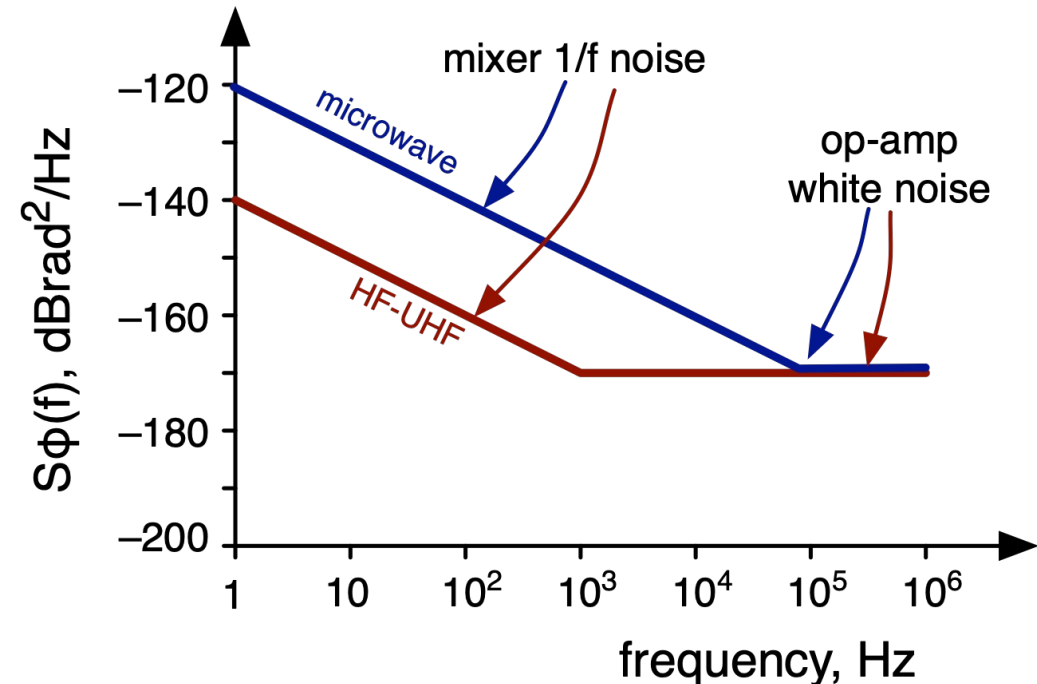
U. L. Rohde, E. Rubiola, J. C. Whitaker, *Microwave and Wireless Synthesizers*, Wiley 2021 (Chapter 2)

Double-balanced mixer

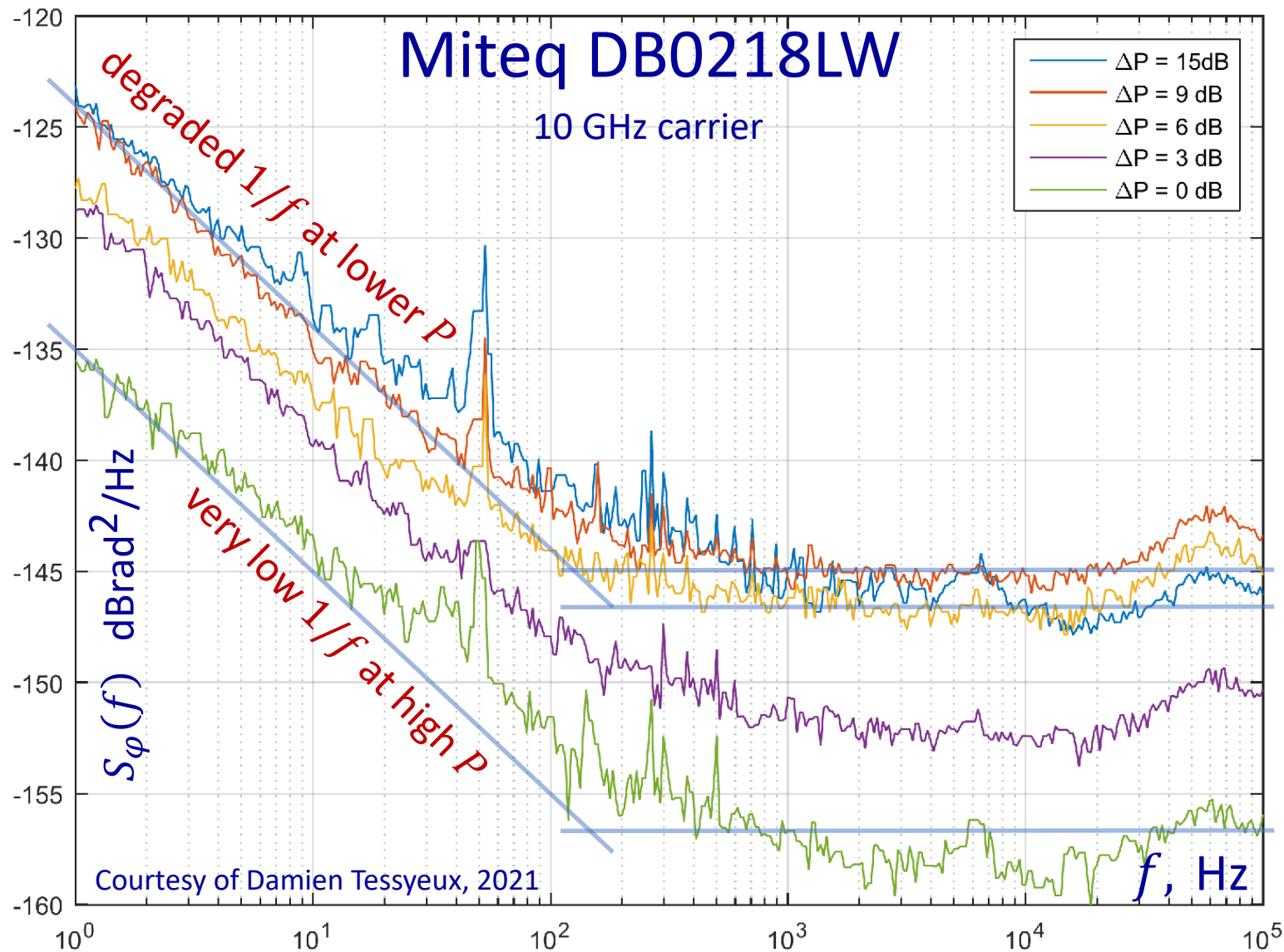
- Power
 - narrow range: ± 5 dB around $P_{\text{nom}} = 7 \dots 10$ dBm
 - $r(t)$ and $s(t)$ should have \approx same P
- Flicker noise
 - mixer internal diodes
 - typical $S_{\phi} = -140$ dBrad²/Hz at 1 Hz in average-good conditions
- Low gain
 - $k_{\phi} \approx 0.2 - 0.3$ V/rad typ, i.e., -10 to -14 dBV/rad
- White noise \Leftrightarrow operational amplifier
- Takes in noise \Leftrightarrow power-to-offset conversion
- High sensitivity to 50 Hz magnetic field



mixer background noise



Mixer's background noise – example



Nominal characteristics

- RF & LO 2–18 GHz
- LO 10 dBm (7–13 dBm)
- RF 1-dB compression +5 dBm
- IF 0–750 MHz (–3 dB)
- Typical loss 6.5 dB (LO 10 dBm)

poor white noise because of low k_φ at low P

white noise limited by the DC amplifier (better amplifiers are available)

The operational amplifier is misused

$$R_b = \sqrt{\frac{S_V}{S_I}}$$

$R_b =$ minimum noise input resistance.

OP-27	$\sqrt{S_V} = 3 \mu\text{V}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ $\sqrt{S_I} = 0.4 \text{ pA}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$	} $R_b = 7.5 \text{ k}\Omega$
LT 1028	$\sqrt{S_V} = 1.2 \mu\text{V}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ $\sqrt{S_I} = 2 \text{ pA}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$	
MIXER	$R_b = 500 \Omega$	

$R_b \approx 600 \Omega$
900 Ω

$$R_b = \sqrt{S_V/S_I}$$

OP 27

$$e_n = 3 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$$

$$i_n = 0.4 \text{ pA}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$$

$$R_b = 7.5 \text{ k}\Omega$$

$$(1.2 \times 10^{-21} \text{ W/Hz})$$

LT 1028

$$e_n = 0.85 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$$

$$i_n = 1 \text{ pA}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$$

$$R_b = 850 \Omega$$

$$(8.5 \times 10^{-22} \text{ W/Hz})$$

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

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

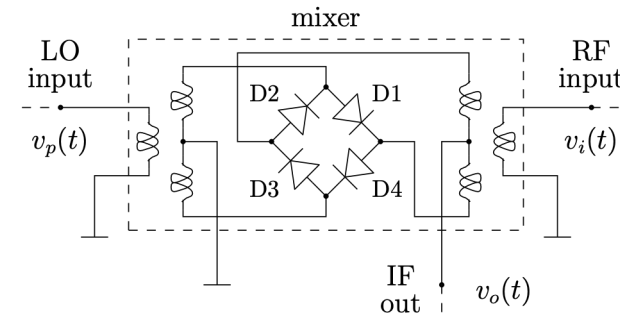
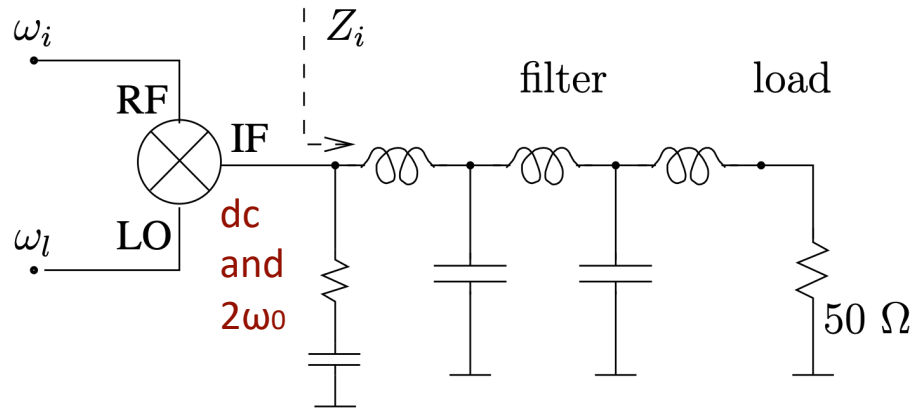
Warning: if only one arm of the power supply is disconnected, the LT1028 may deliver a current from the input (I killed a \$2k mixer in this way!)

You may duplicate the low-noise amplifier designed at the FEMTO-ST

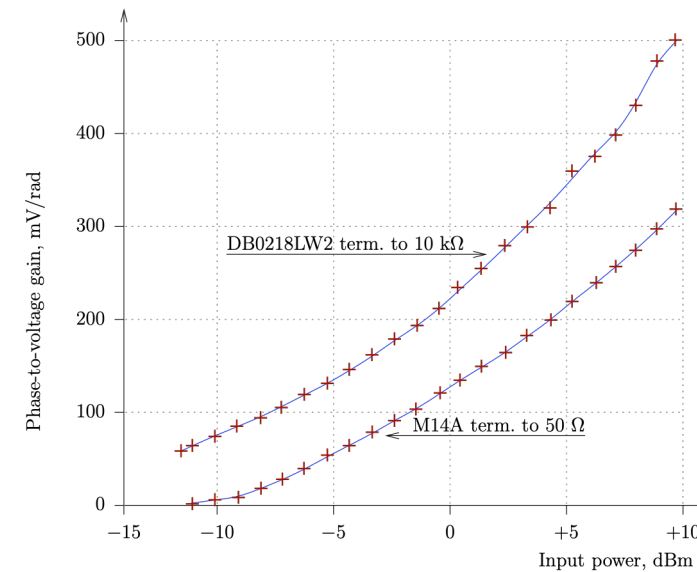
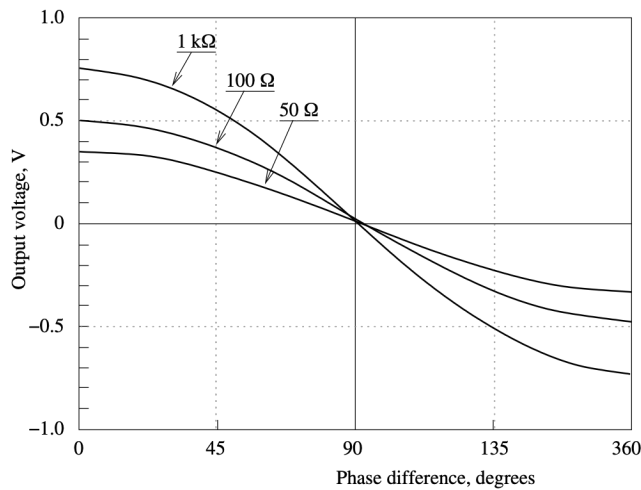
Rubiola, Lardet-Vieudrin, Rev. Scientific Instruments 75(5) pp. 1323-1326, May 2004

Practical issues

needs a capacitive-input filter to recirculate the $2\omega_0$ output signal

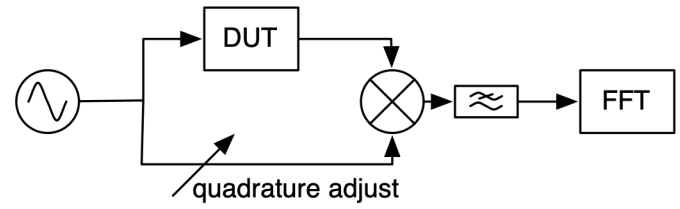


actual phase-to-voltage conversion

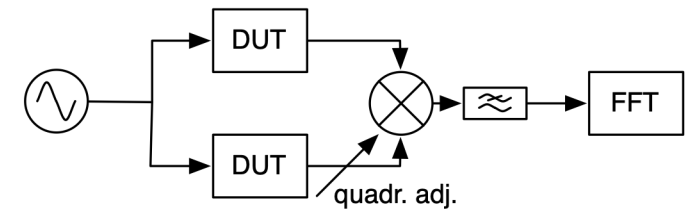


Useful schemes

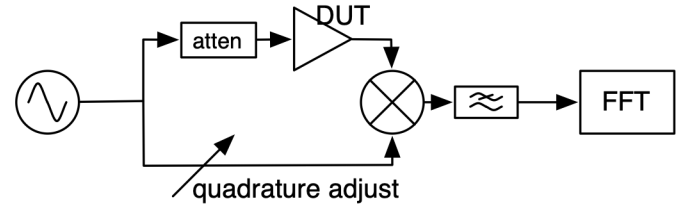
two-port device under test



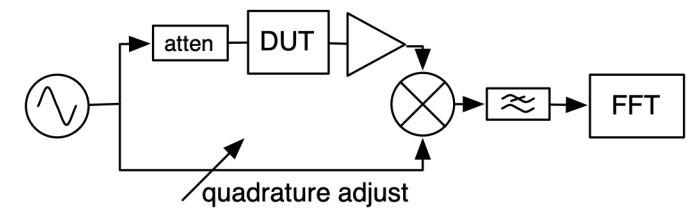
a pair of two-port devices
3 dB improved sensitivity



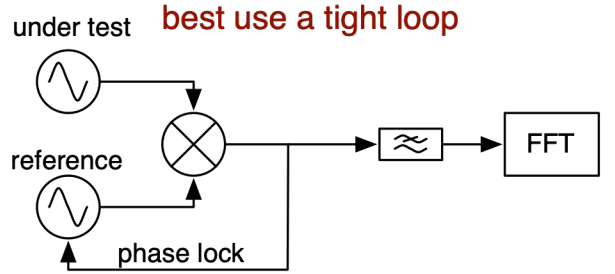
the measurement of an amplifier
needs an attenuator



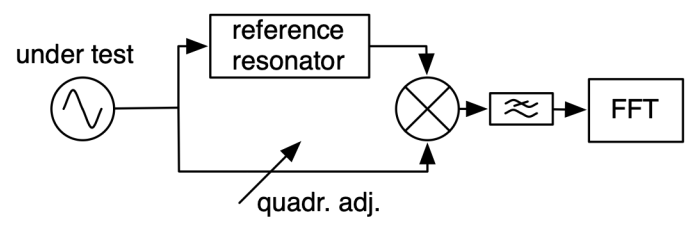
the measurement of a low-power DUT
needs an amplifier, which flickers



measure two oscillators
best use a tight loop



measure an oscillator vs. a resonator



Averaged spectra should be smooth

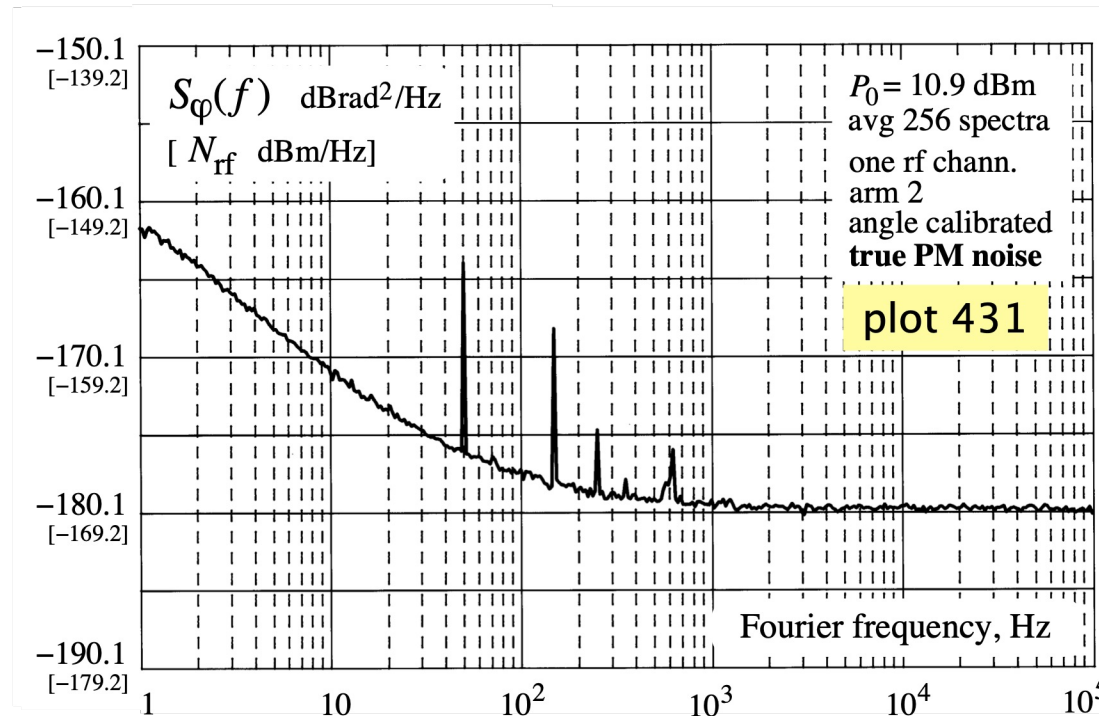


Fig.12(top), from E. Rubiola, V. Giordano, Rev. Sci. Instrum. 73(6) p.2445-2457, June 2002. ©AIP.

Rice representation

$$v(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(t) \cos(n\omega_0 t) - b_n(t) \sin(n\omega_0 t)$$

$$S_v(n\omega_0) = [a_n^2 + b_n^2] / \omega_0$$

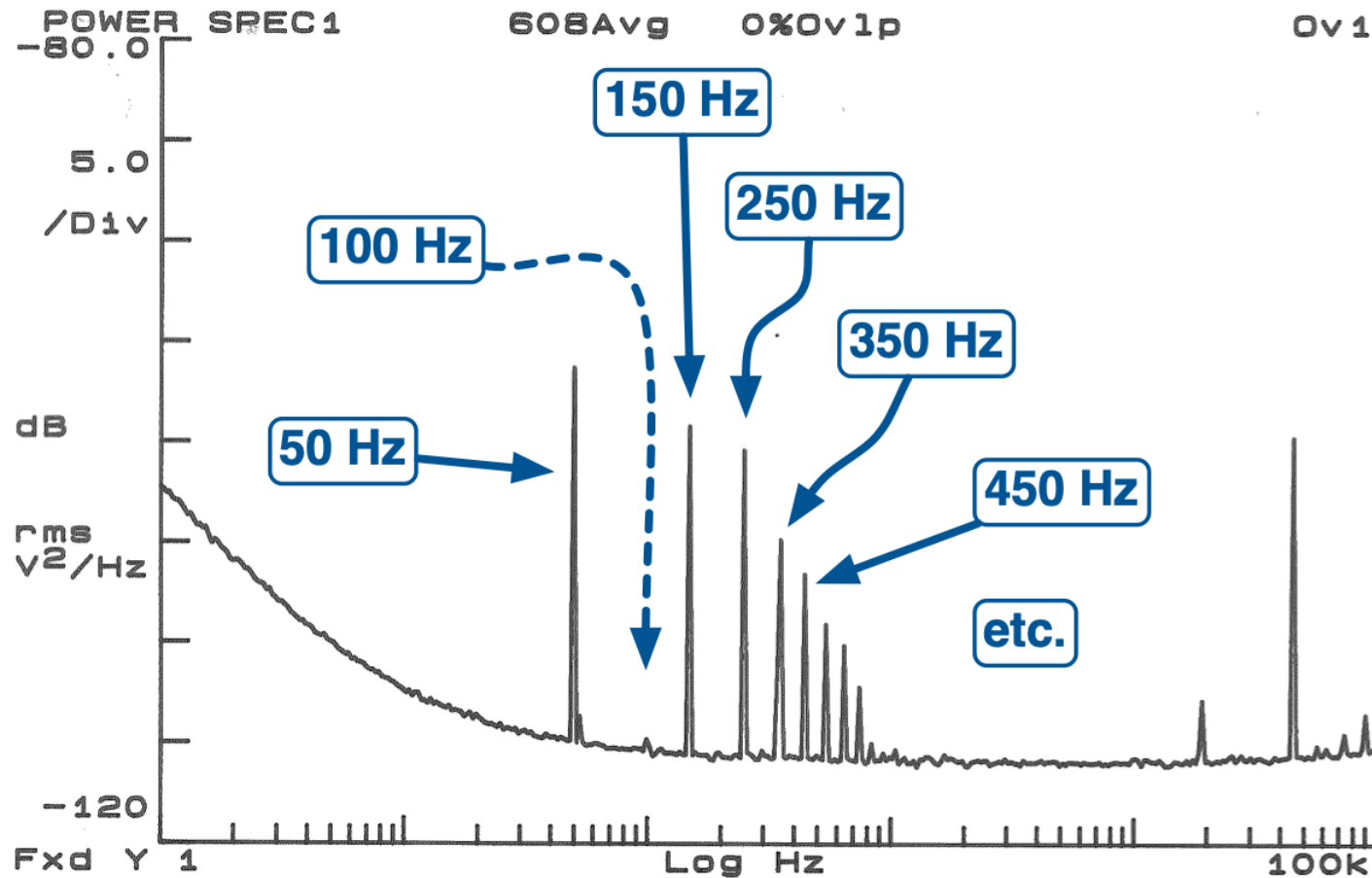
$a_n(t)$ and $b_n(t)$ contain the noise in the $\omega_0/2$ band centered at ω_0

stationary & ergodic process (means repeatable and reproducible): the statistics of all $a_n(t)$ and $b_n(t)$ is the same

average on m spectra: confidence of a point improves by $1/m^{1/2}$

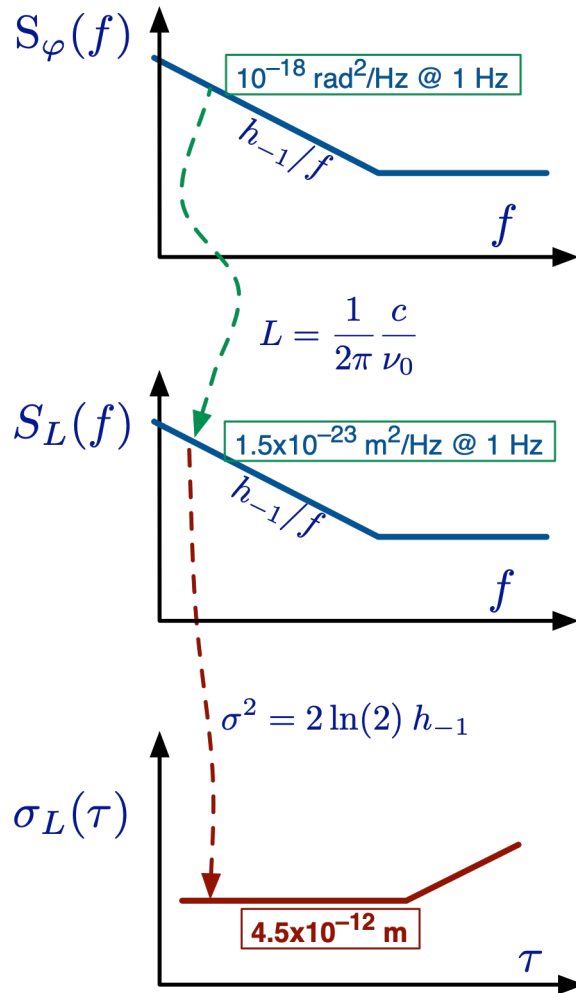
interchange ensemble with frequency: smoothness $1/m^{1/2}$

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 $\nu_0 = 10 \text{ GHz}$ is equivalent to $S_L = 1.46 \times 10^{-23} \text{ m}^2/\text{Hz}$ at $f = 1 \text{ Hz}$

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 $f = 1 \text{ Hz}$ off the 10 GHz carrier is equivalent to

$$\sigma^2 = 2 \times 10^{-23} \text{ m}^2 \rightarrow \sigma = 4.5 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}$$

for reference, the Bohr radius of the H atom is $a_0 = 0.529 \text{ nm}$

End of lecture ↴



Lecture 8

Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

Enrico Rubiola

CNRS FEMTO-ST Institute, Besancon, France

INRiM, Torino, Italy

Contents

-

ORCID 0000-0002-5364-1835

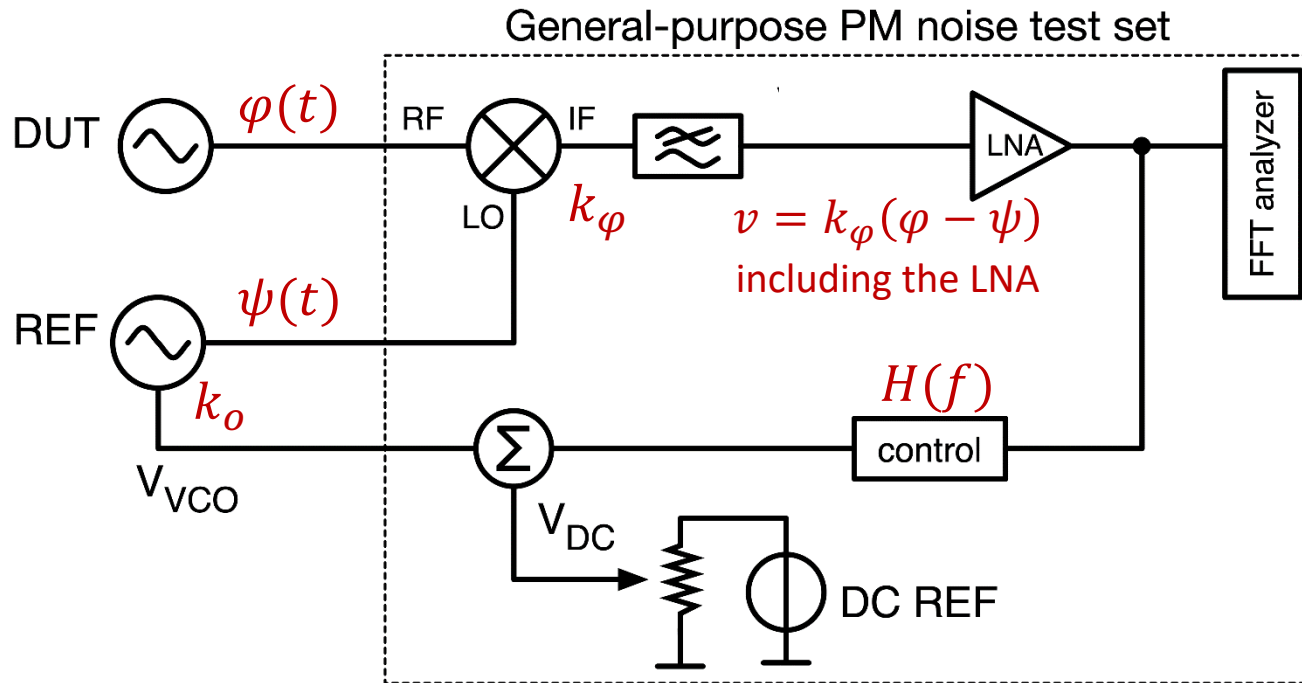
home page <http://rubiola.org>



Measurement of Oscillator Phase Noise

Phase Locked Loop (PLL)

The mixer requires signals in quadrature → phase locking



Use the PLL as a high-pass filter

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

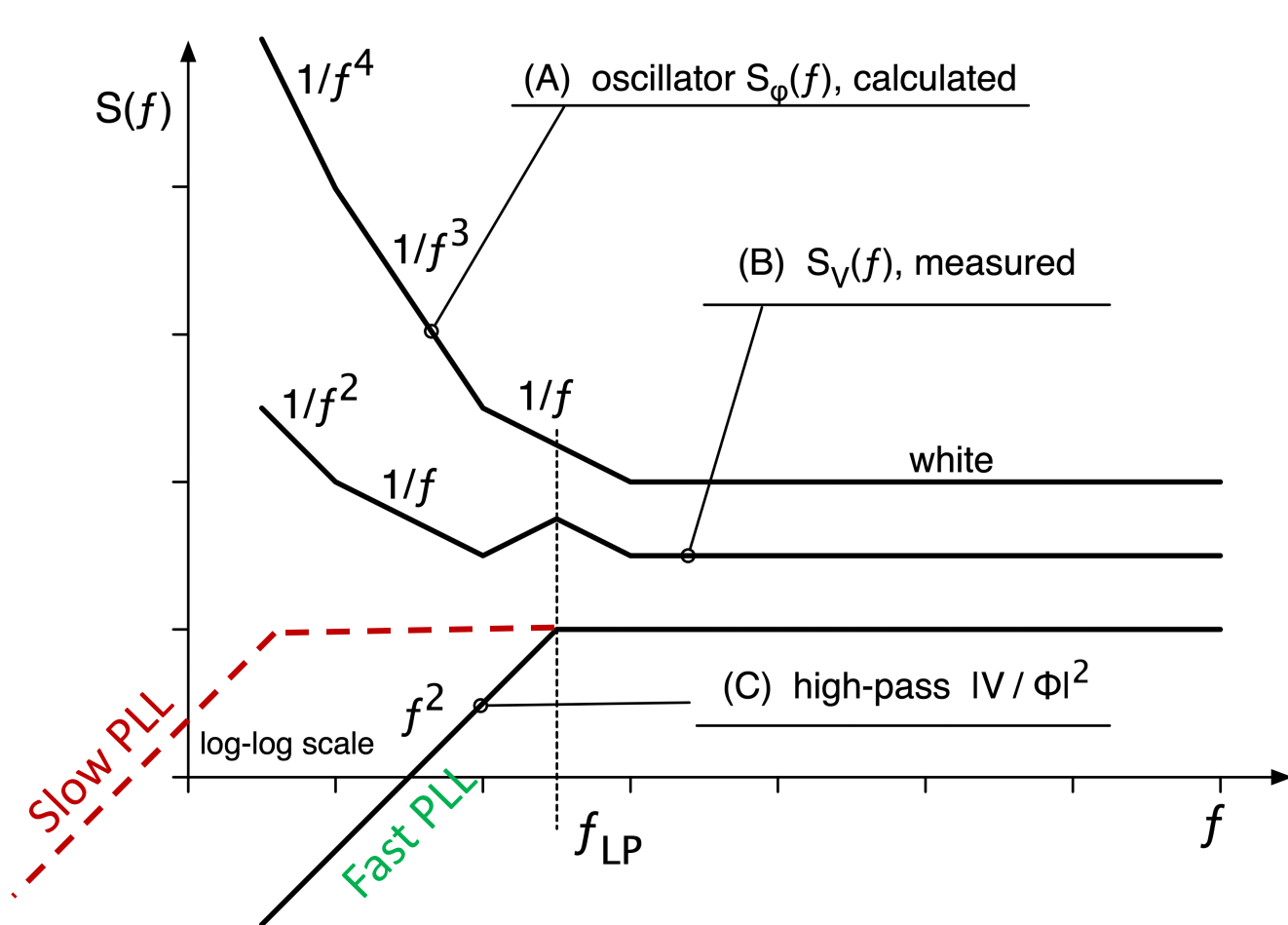
Measurement

- 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)

Phase tracking → low-pass filter

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

The virtues of a fast PLL



Slow PLL

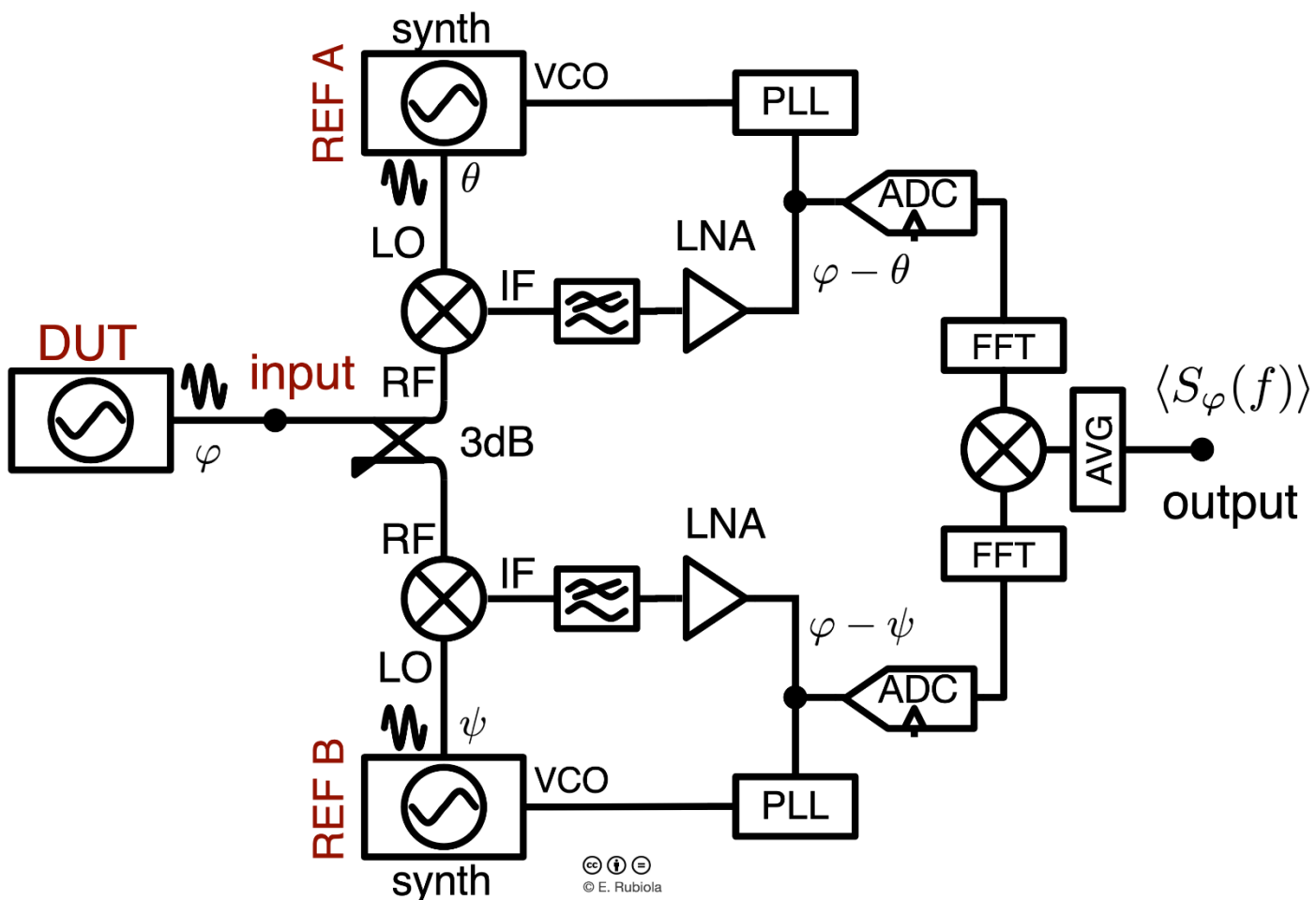
- Large swing at low f
- Large V_{FSR} of the FFT internal ADC
- High quantization noise
- Prone to injection locking

Fast PLL

- High-pass \rightarrow 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



- 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

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

Measurement of $S_{\varphi}(f)$ with a PLL

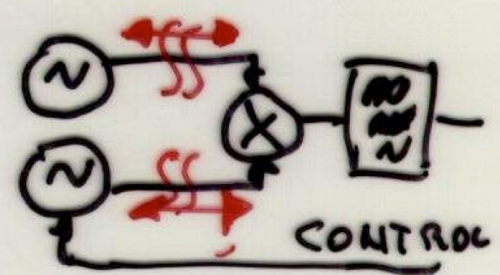
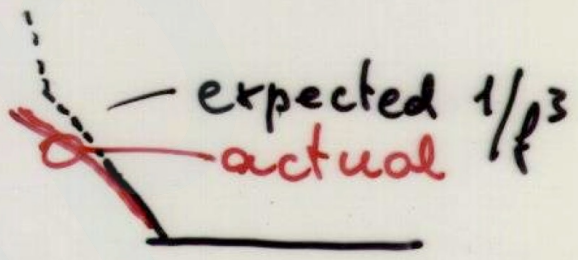
- Set the circuit for proper electrical operation
- power level
- lock condition (there is no beat note at the mixer out)
- zero dc error at the mixer output (a small V can be tolerated)
- Choose the appropriate time constant
- Measure the oscillator noise
- At end, measure the background noise

A PLL may not be what it seems

Parasitic locking or coupling of the oscillators may impair the result

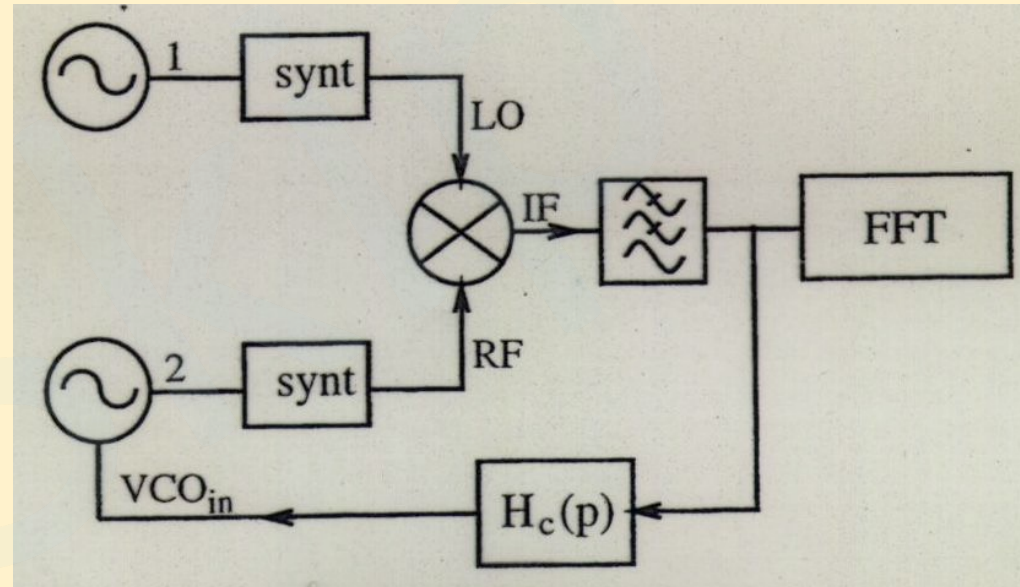
BAD SYMPTOMS:

- odd slope S_{ϕ}
- open-loop waveforms I_{Fout}
- results (S_{ϕ}) depend on the cable length



PLL – Two frequencies

The output frequency of the two oscillators is not the same.
A synthesizer (or two synth.) is necessary to match the frequencies

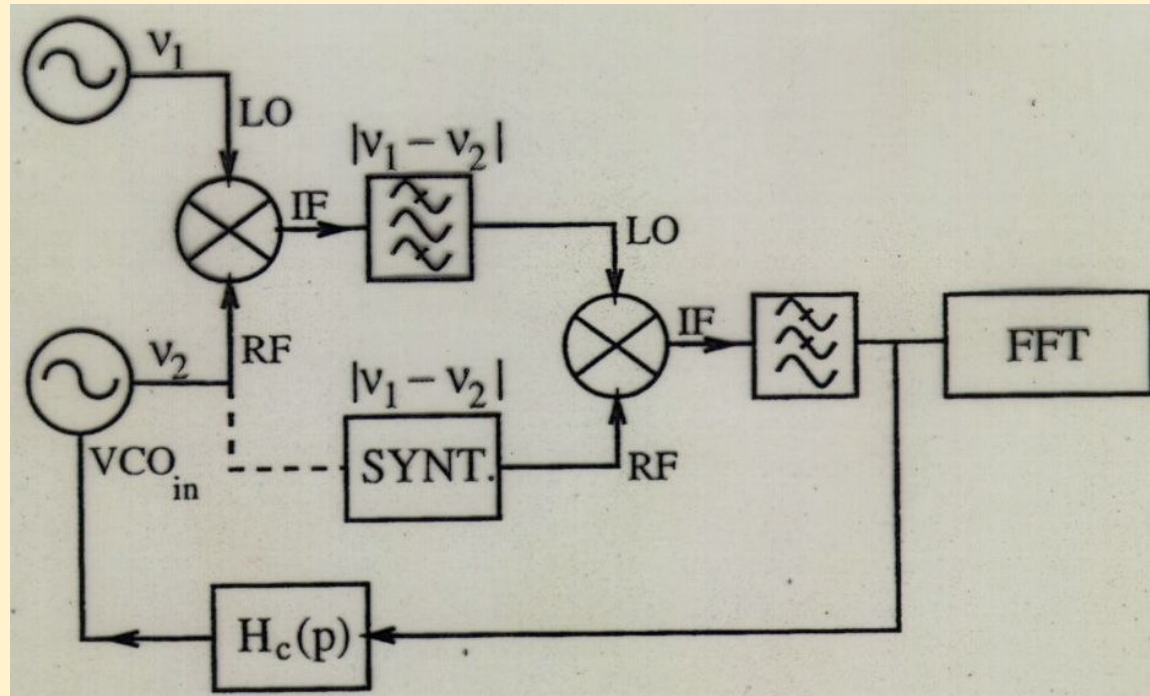


At low Fourier frequencies, the synthesizer noise is lower than the oscillator noise

At higher Fourier frequencies, the white and flicker of phase of the synthesizer may dominate

PLL – microwave oscillators

With low-noise microwave oscillators (like whispering gallery) the noise of a microwave synthesizer at the oscillator output can not be tolerated.

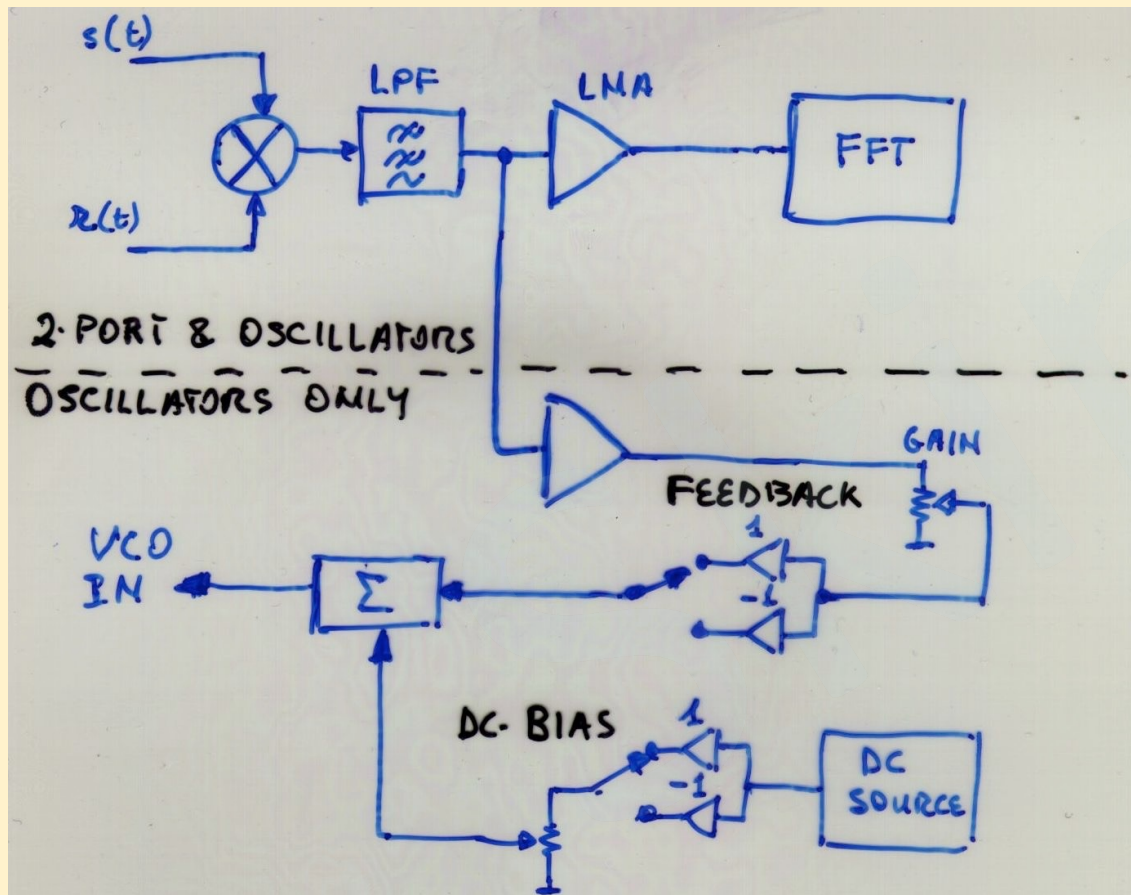


Due to the lower carrier frequency, the noise of a VHF synthesizer is lower than the noise of a microwave synthesizer.

This scheme is useful

- with narrow tuning-range oscillator, which can not work at the same freq.
- to prevent injection locking due to microwave leakage

Design your own instrument



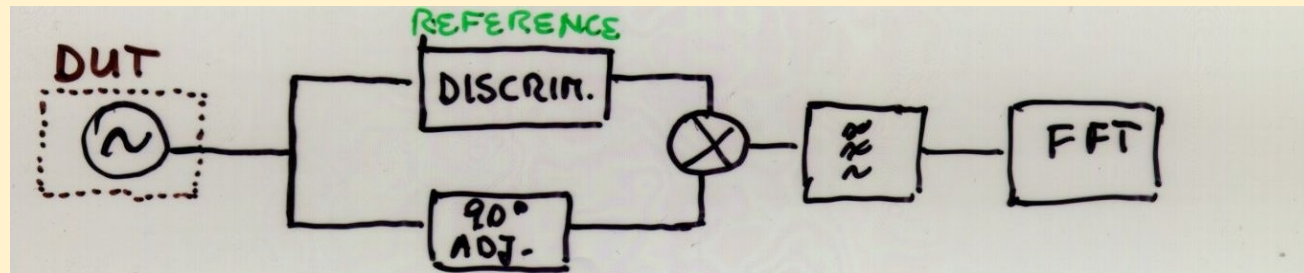
Standard commercial parts:

- double balanced mixer
- low-noise op-amp
- standard low-noise dc components in the feedback path
- commercial FFT analyzer

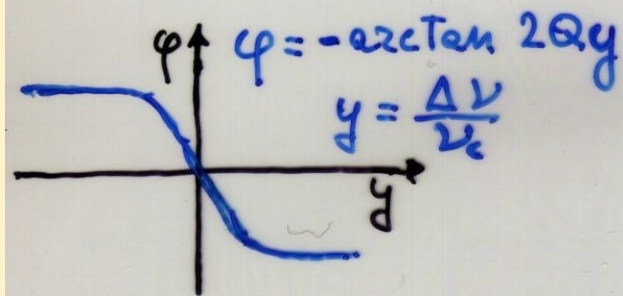
Afterwards, you will appreciate more the commercial instruments:

- Ergonomics and reliable implementation
- Instruction manual
- Computer interface and software

Frequency discriminator



RESONATOR



DELAY LINE τ

$$Q_{eq} = \pi \tau \nu_c$$

QUASI-STATIC
TRANSFORM.

$$f < \frac{\nu_c}{2Q_{DISCRIM.}}$$

\Rightarrow

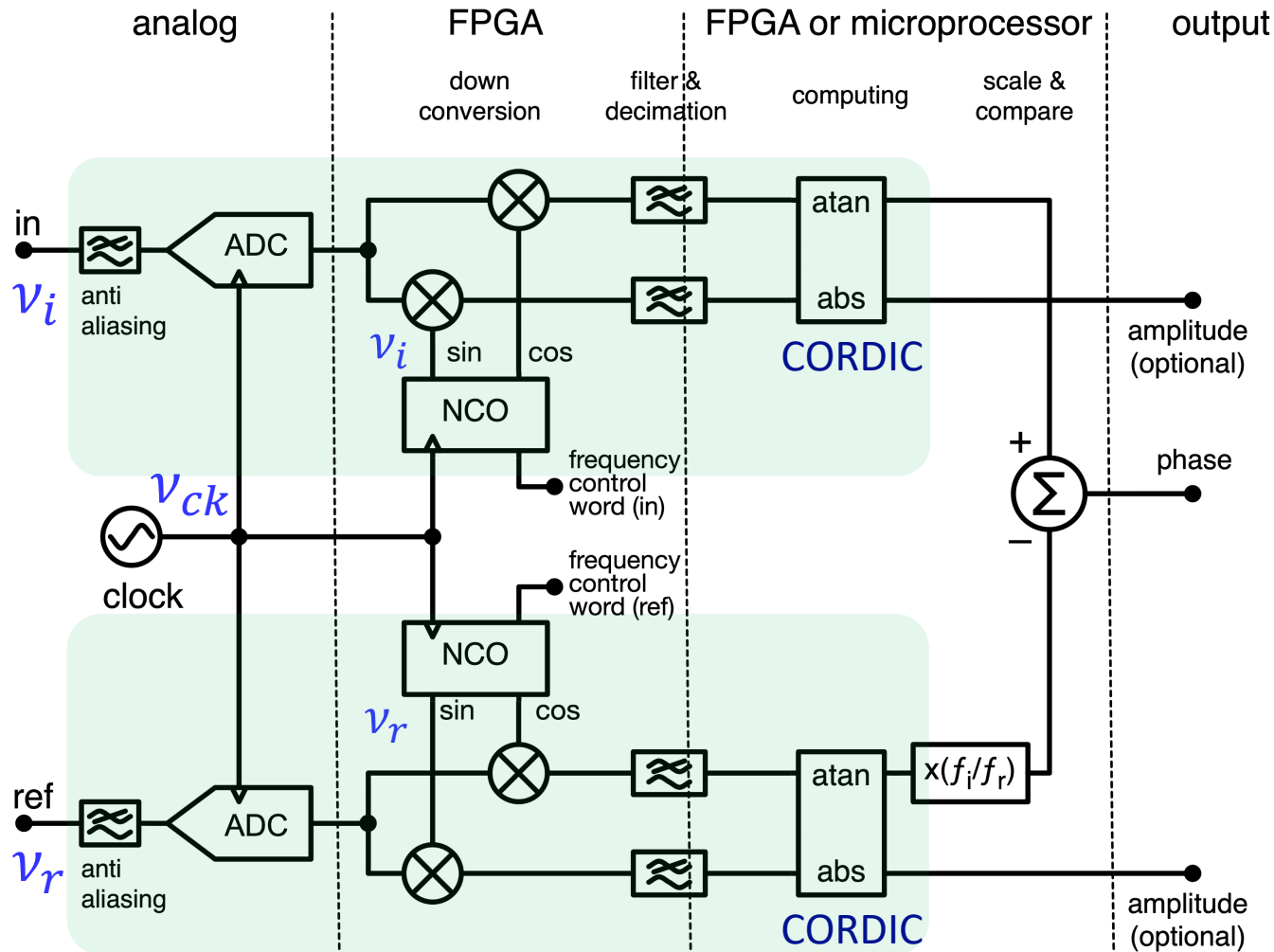
$$y_{osc} \rightarrow \varphi_{meas.}$$

$$S_{\varphi m} = 4Q^2 S_y$$

$$S_{\varphi m} = 4Q^2 \frac{f^2}{\nu_c^2} S_{\varphi_{osc}}$$

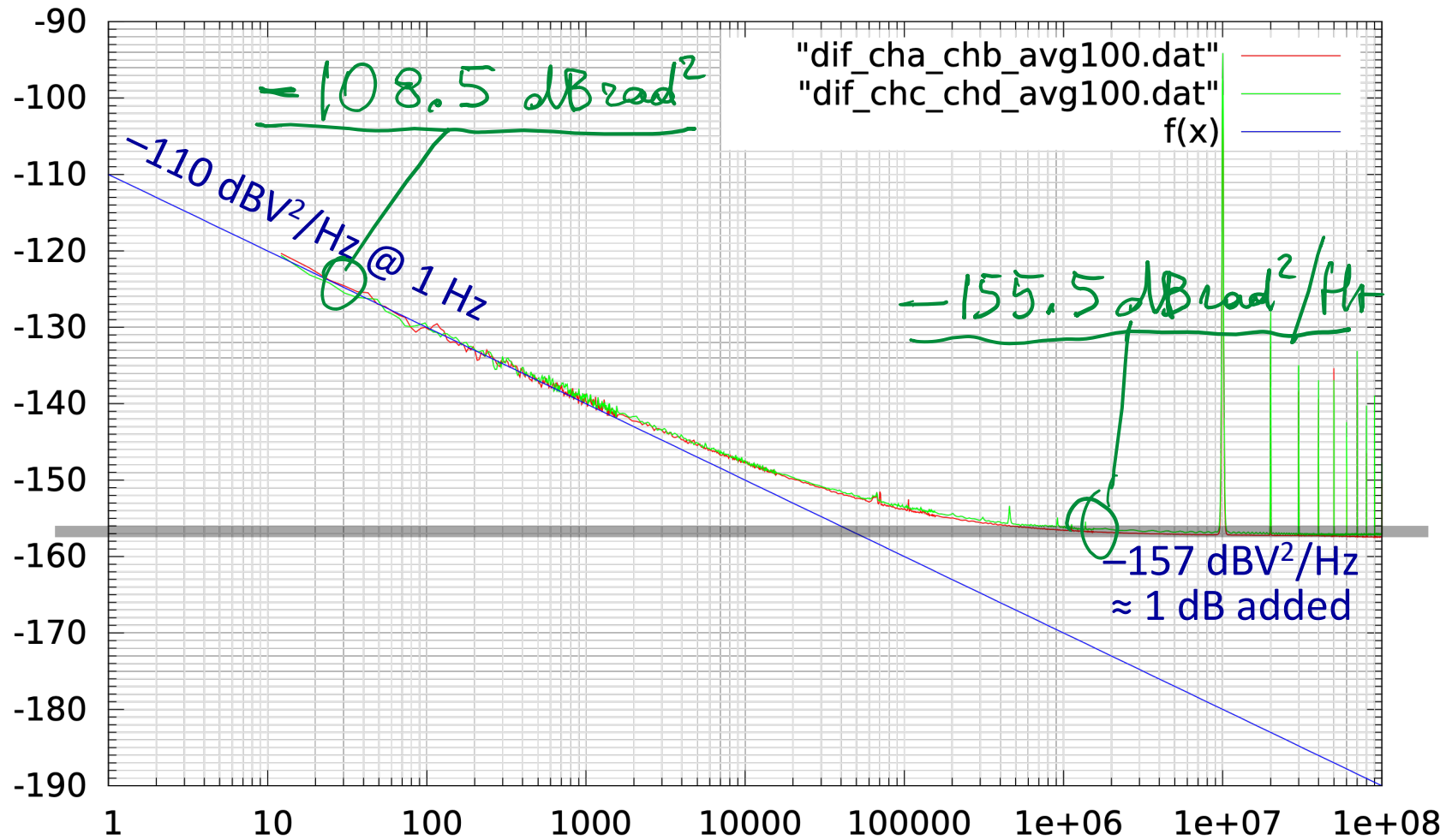
Digital Methods

Digital phase detector



- 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

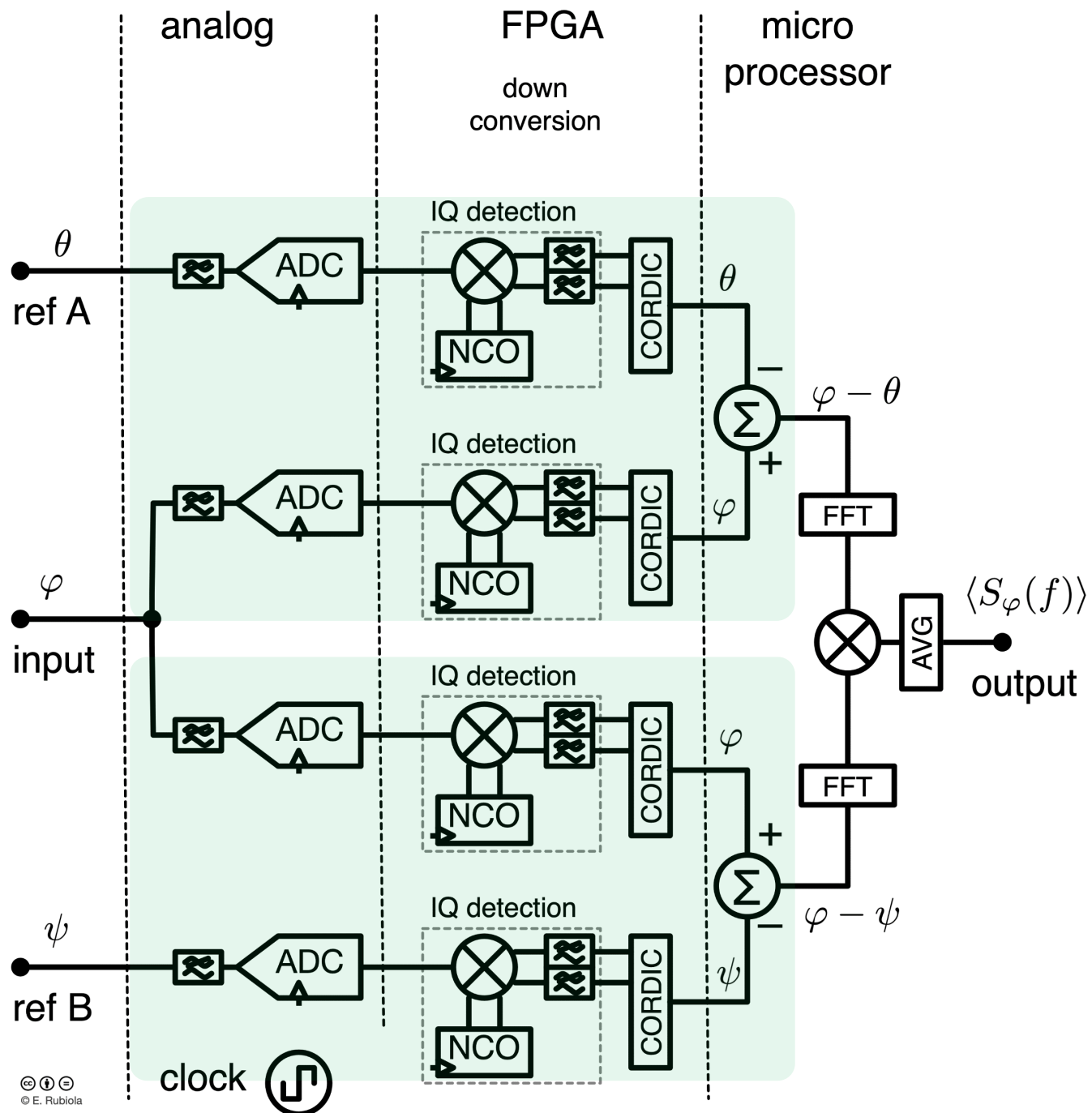
Background noise – Example AD9467 (Alazartech) ¹¹⁵



$$V_{\text{FSR}} = 2.5 V_{\text{pp}} \\ = 0.88 V_{\text{RMS}}$$

$$0.95 V_{\text{FSR}} \rightarrow 0.84 V_{\text{RMS}} \\ -1.5 \text{ dBV}$$

10 MHz, $V_{\text{pp}} \approx 0.95 V_{\text{FSR}}$

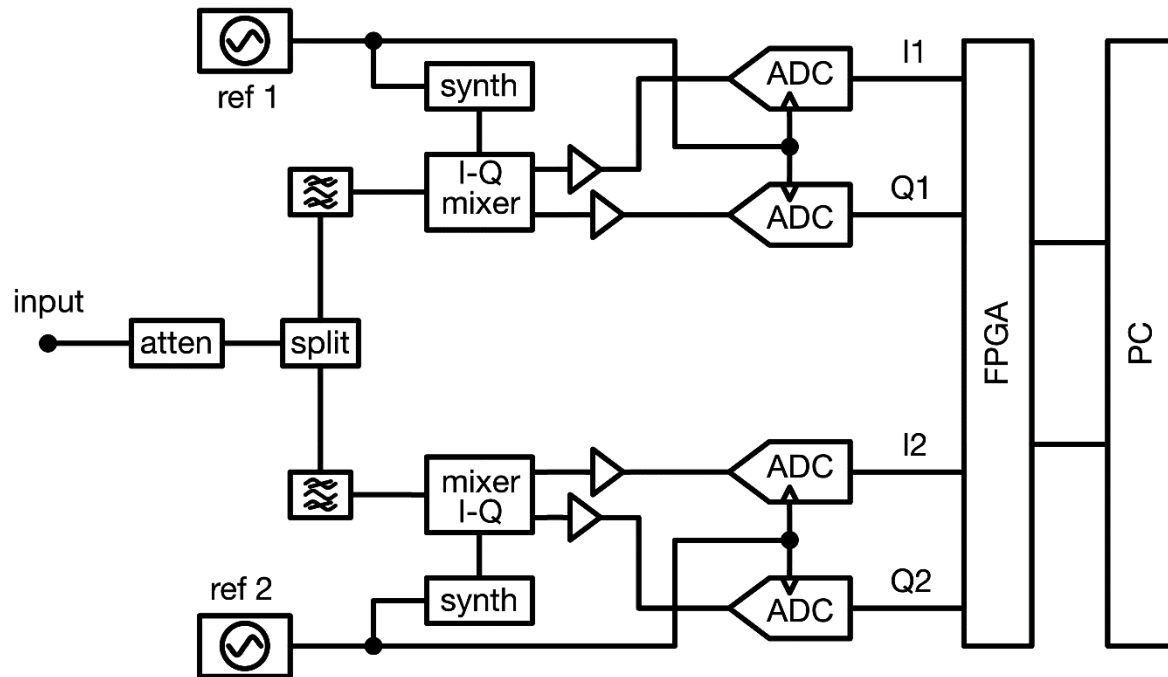


The fully-digital noise analyzer

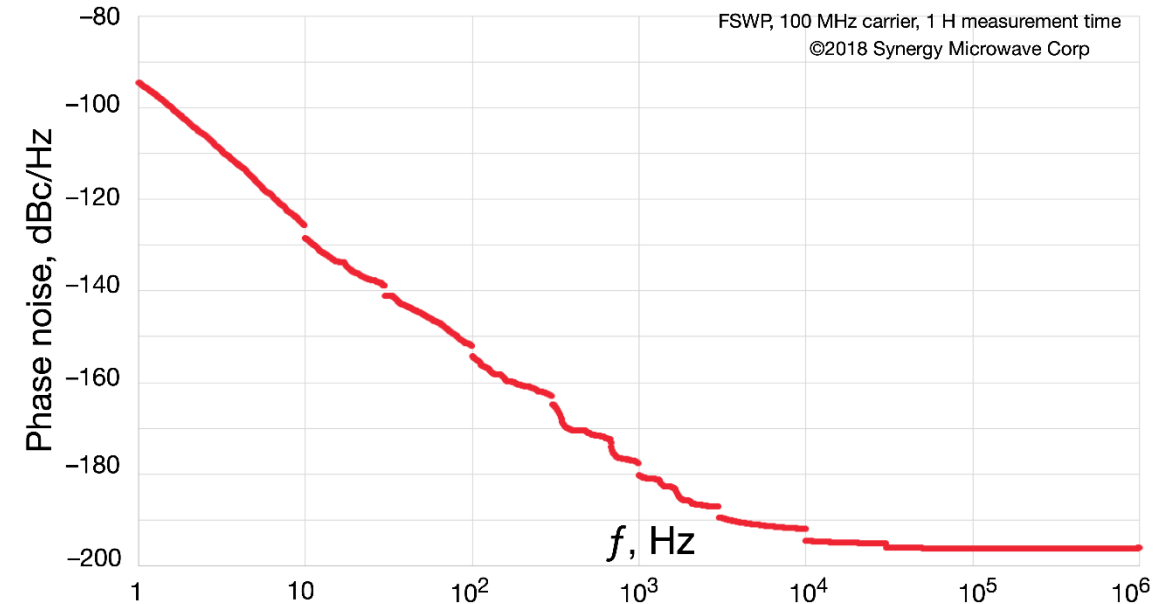
- 4 channels: DUT (2 ch.) and 1 or 2 external references
- Average cross spectrum \rightarrow rejection of the background
- 30-200 MHz max (order of)
- Related commercial instruments
 - Arcal / NoiseXT DNA
 - Microchip
 - PhaseStation 53100A (Miles Design & Jackson Labs)
 - 3120A (one ref input)
 - 5120A/5125A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

Rohde & Schwarz FSWP8, FSWP26, FSWP50

Architecture

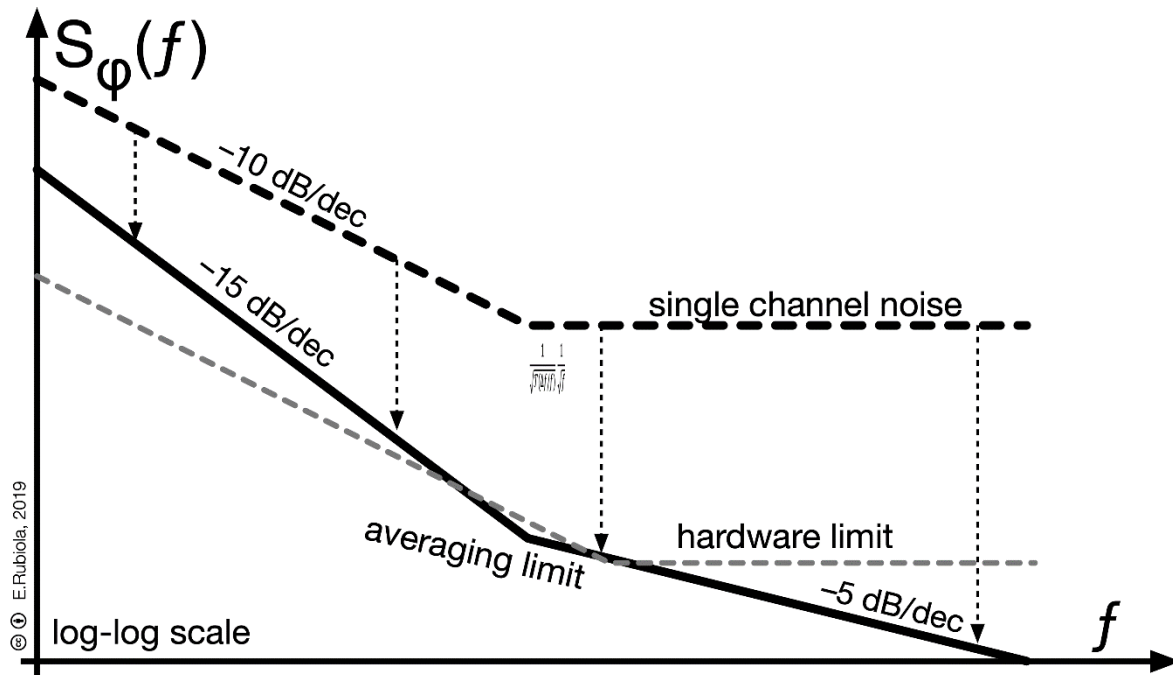


Background Noise at 100 MHz



- 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 $m \rightarrow$ higher noise rejection
- Constant fractional resolution $\mathcal{R} = \Delta f / f$
- μ bins/decade \rightarrow resolution

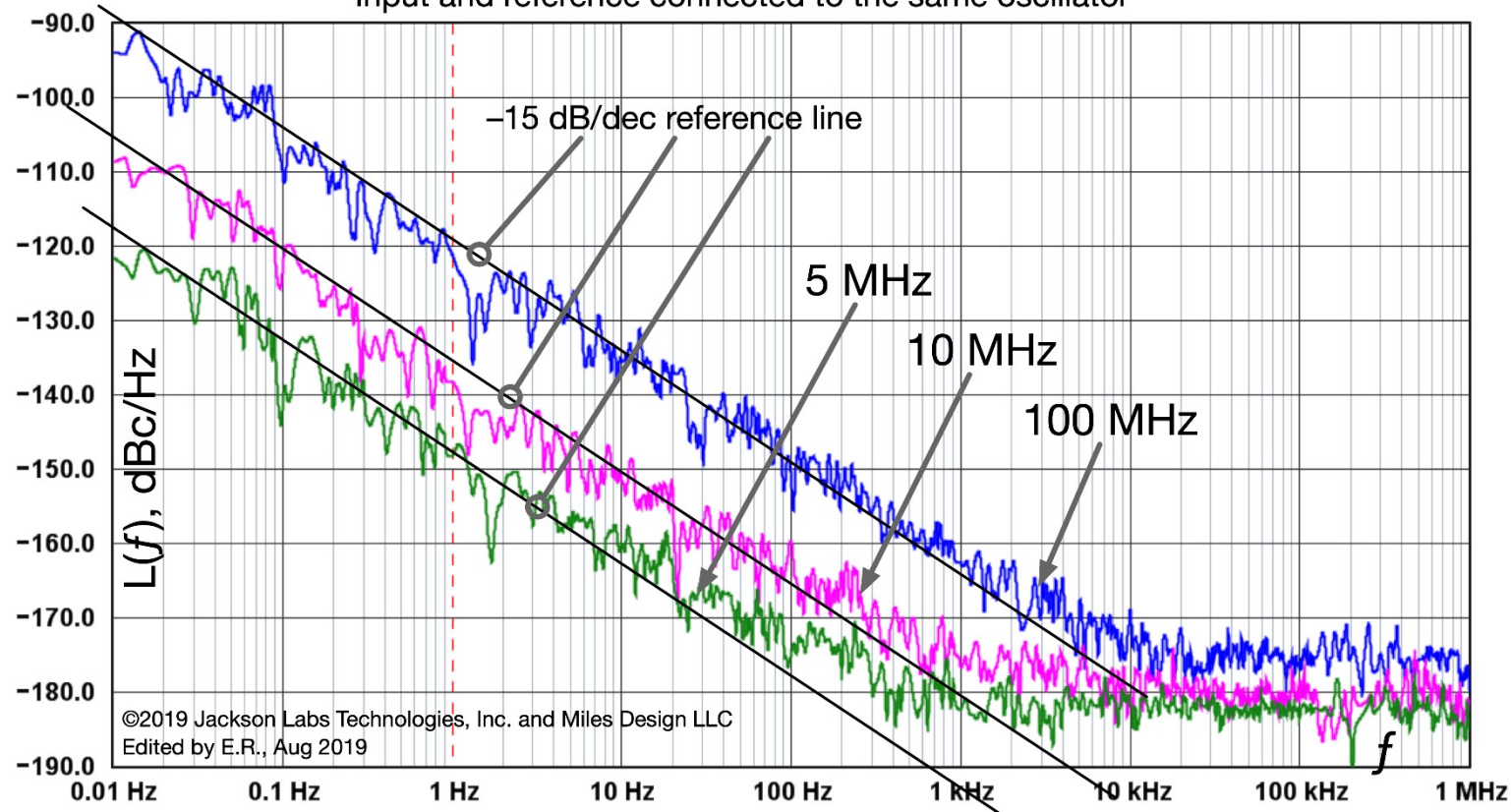
$$\mathcal{R} = e^{\ln(10)/\mu} - 1$$
- One FFT, time $T = 1/\Delta f = 1/\mathcal{R}f$
- Measurement time \mathcal{T}

$$m = \mathcal{T}/T = \mathcal{T}\mathcal{R}f$$
- Avg limit $S_{\phi BG} = S_{\phi 1ch}/\sqrt{m}$
- Result

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

Example – Background of the PhaseStation 53100A¹¹⁹

Background PM Noise of the PhaseStation 53100A
Input and reference connected to the same oscillator



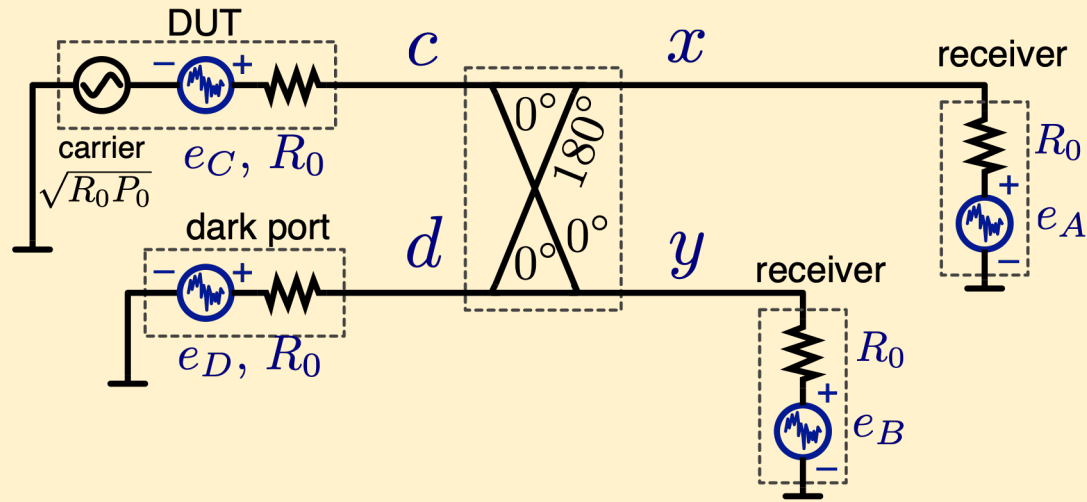
- Same oscillator connected to the 4 channels
- Constant \mathcal{R} approximated as bands where $\Delta f = C$
- Flicker $\rightarrow 1/f\sqrt{f}$, as predicted
- White limited by other phenomena

Trace	Input Freq	Input Amplitude	dBc/Hz at 1 Hz	Elapsed	Instrument
100 MHz residual floor	100.0 MHz	11 dBm	-121.1	58m 49s	PhaseStation 53100A
10 MHz residual floor	10.0 MHz	12 dBm	-138.2	33m 5s	PhaseStation 53100A
5 MHz residual floor	5.0 MHz	12 dBm	-148.2	8h	PhaseStation 53100A

Limitations of the Cross Spectrum Methods

Anti-correlated noise in power splitters

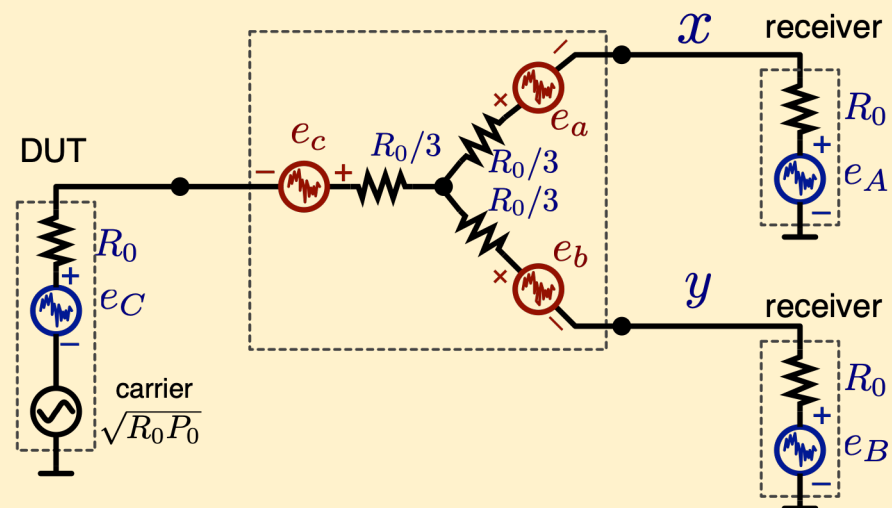
(Thermometry and Radiometry)



$$x = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} (e_C - e_D) + \frac{1}{2} e_A$$

$$y = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} (e_C + e_D) + \frac{1}{2} e_B$$

'e' = thermal emf, $\sqrt{4kTR}$

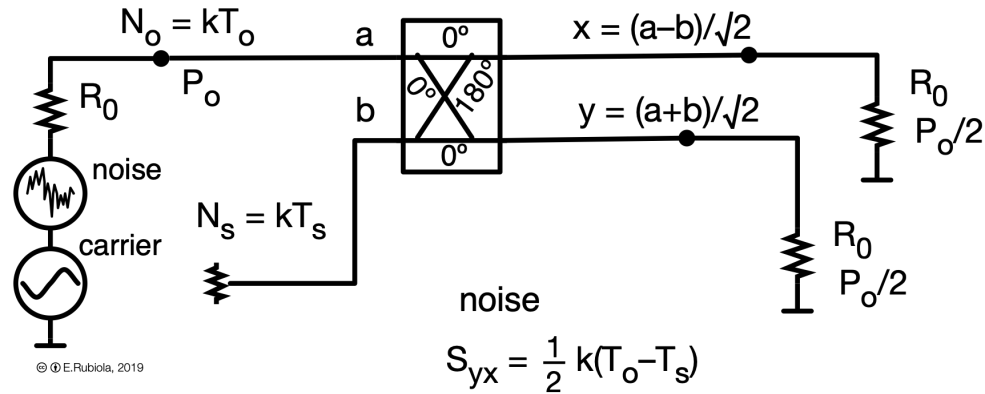


$$x = \frac{1}{2} e_A + \frac{1}{4} e_B + \frac{1}{4} e_C - \frac{1}{2} e_a + \frac{1}{4} e_b + \frac{1}{4} e_c$$

$$y = \frac{1}{4} e_A + \frac{1}{2} e_B + \frac{1}{4} e_C + \frac{1}{4} e_a - \frac{1}{2} e_b + \frac{1}{4} e_c$$

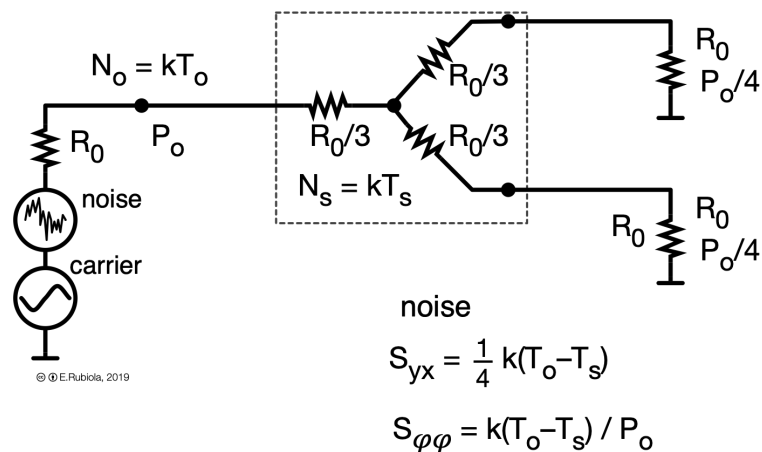
'e' = thermal emf, $\sqrt{4kT/R}$

Anti-correlated noise in power splitters



Most instruments

Keysight E5052B



3 dB (loss-free) power splitter

- Power $P_{out} = P_{osc}/2$
- Correlated noise $-k(T_{osc} - T_{split})/2$

6 dB (resistive) power splitter

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

Displayed noise

$$S_{\varphi} = \frac{k(T_{osc} - T_{split})}{P_{osc}}$$

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

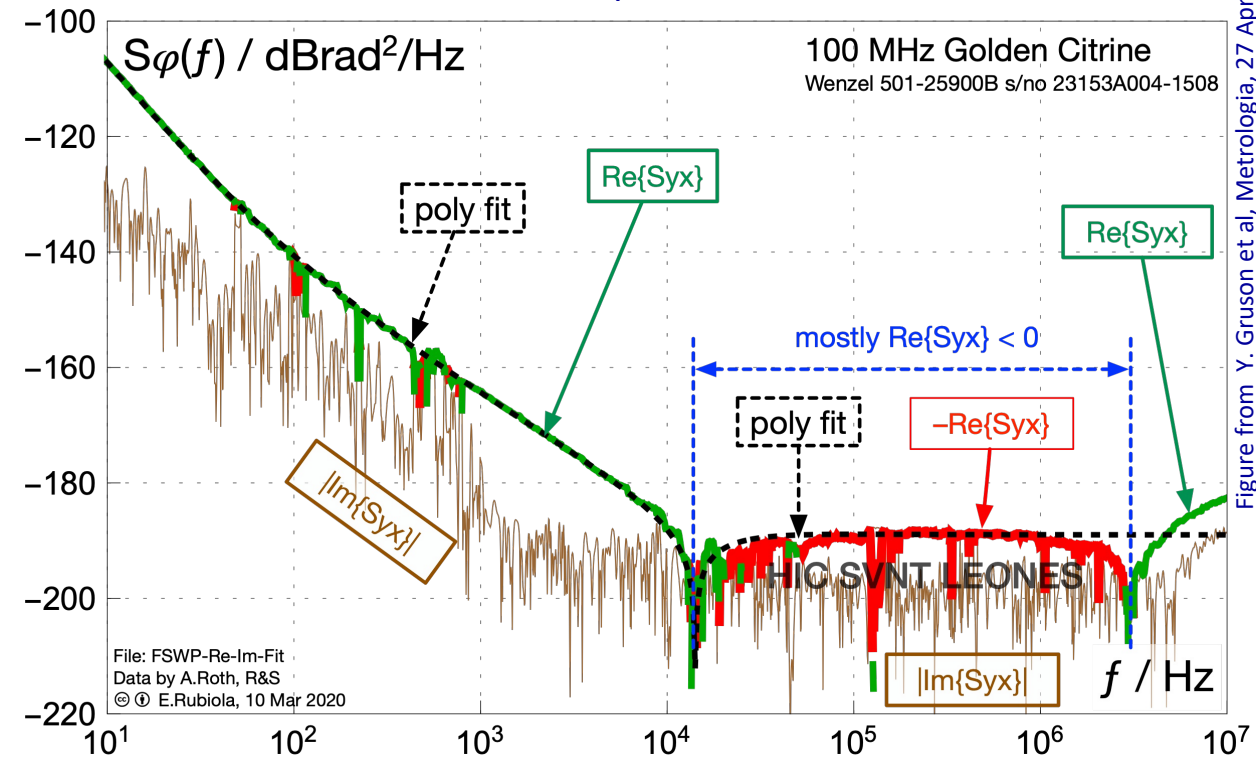
The best estimator is

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

- Fastest
- Unbiased
- Does not hide the anticorrelated artifacts

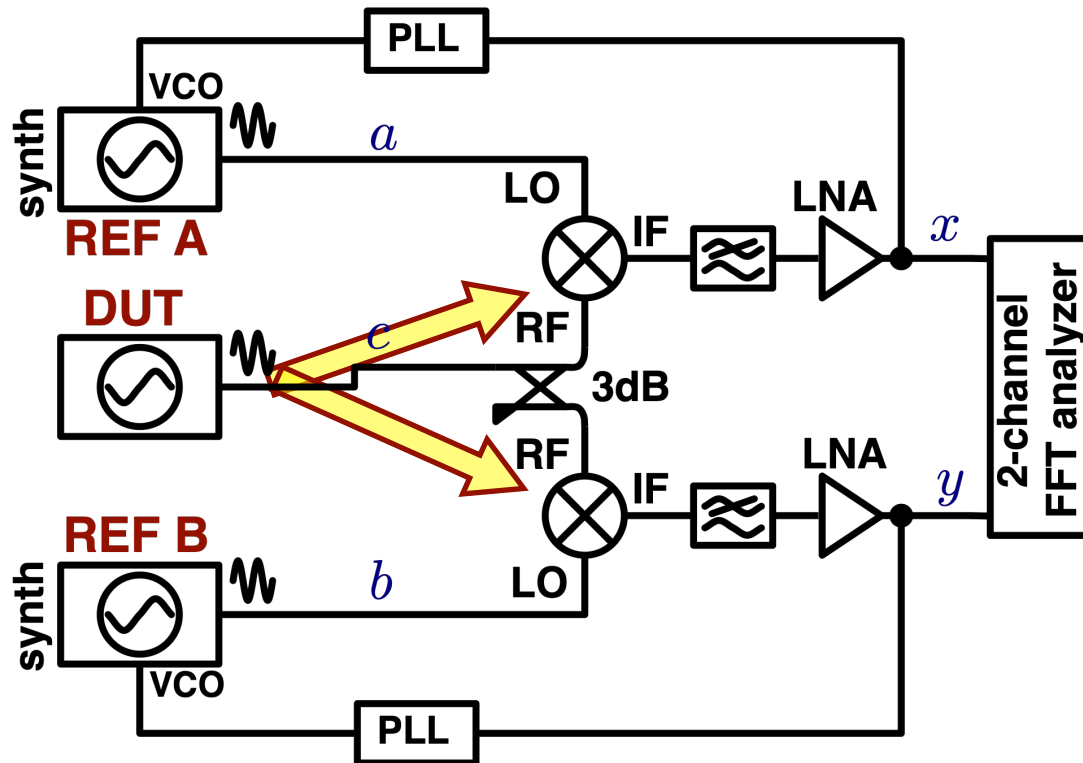
A weird example

FSWP hacked by A. Roth at the Rohde & Schwarz Research and Development Center in Munich, DE



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

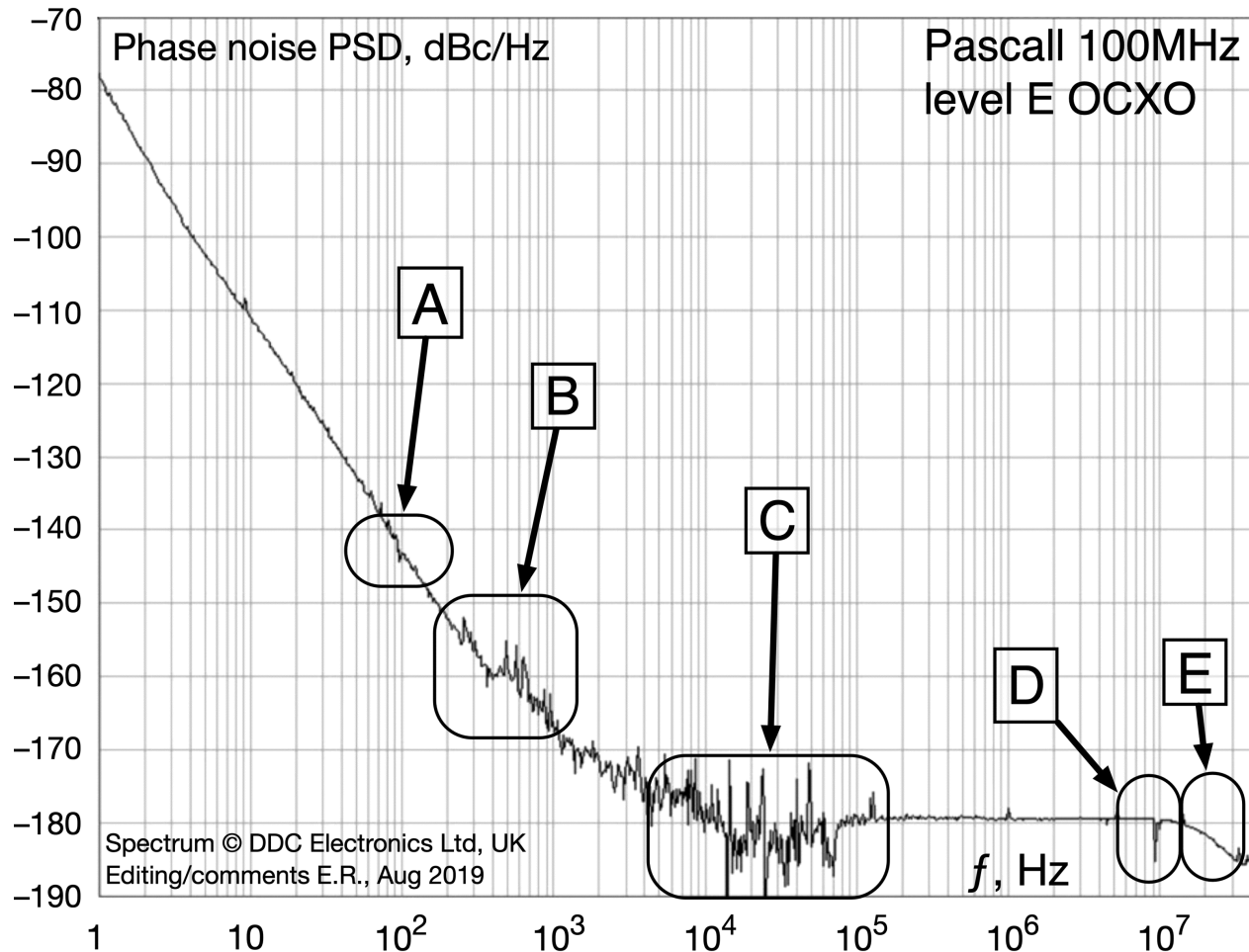
$$\Delta P \rightarrow \Delta V_{OS}$$

At the IF output, there is no difference between AM and PM

$$S_{\alpha}(f) \rightarrow S_v(f)$$

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

Common artifacts



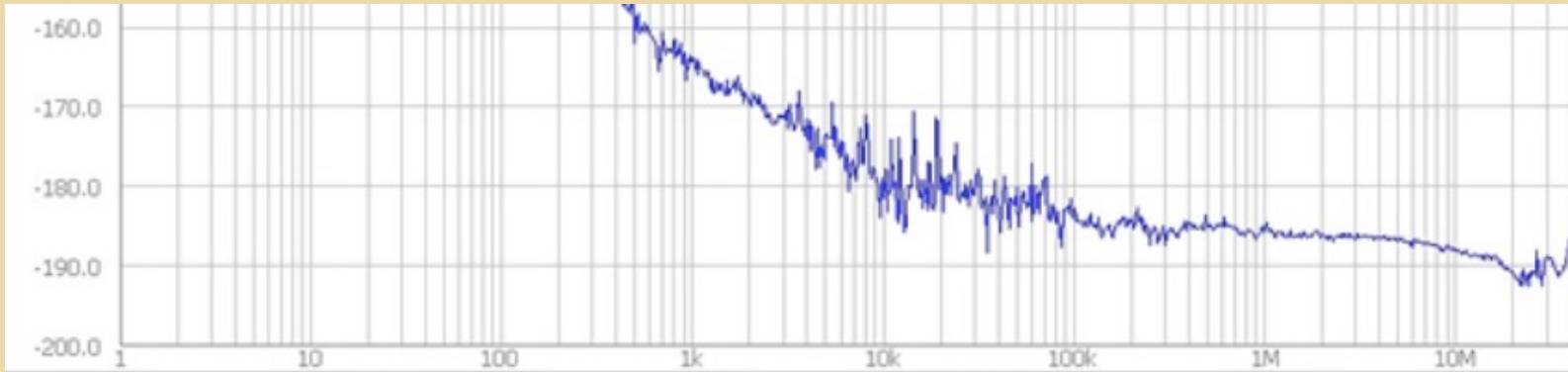
My best guesses

- 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 anti-correlated 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

Too good spectra found online

120 MHz OCXO
 $P_{\text{out}} = 13 \text{ dBm}$
It is unclear if the sample
has higher power



This is an excerpt of a figure, I don't remember where it comes from, apologize

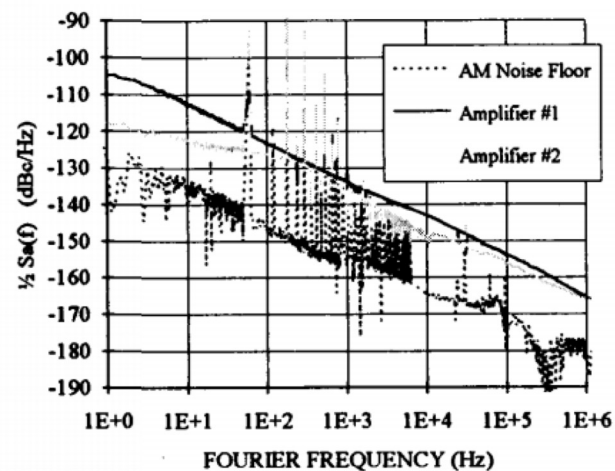
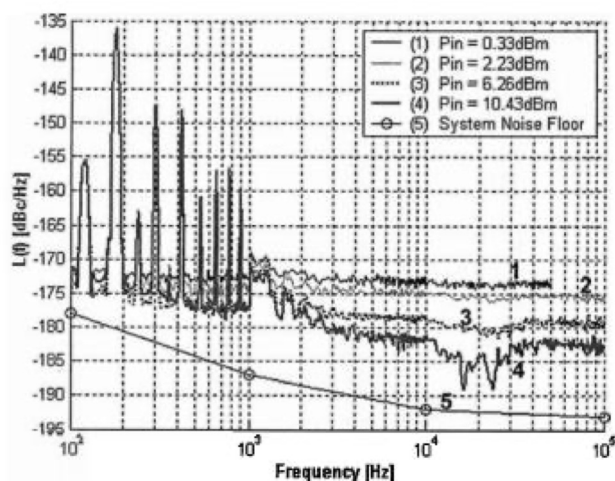
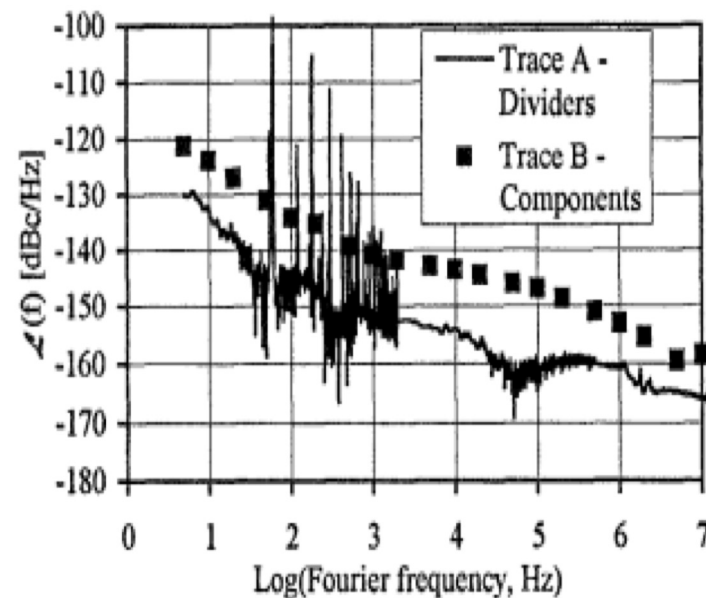
$$S_{\varphi}(f) = b_0 = \frac{kT}{P}$$

$$T = \frac{P}{k} b_0$$

-183 dBrad²/Hz & 20 mW → $T \approx 725 \text{ K}$
equivalent temperature at the oscillator output
Too low to be correct

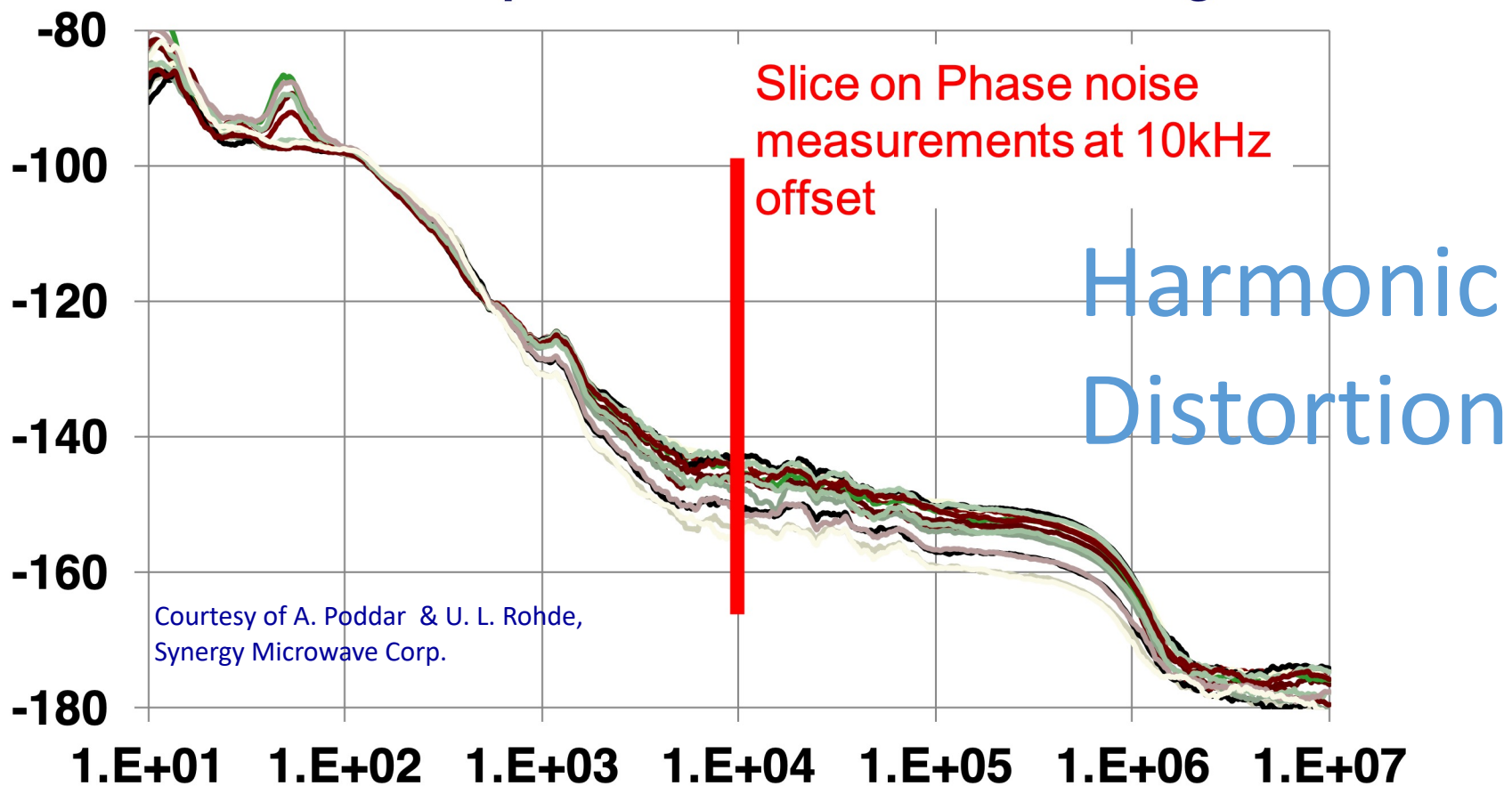
Evidence at other frequencies and measurements

Artifacts



Phase noise plot on SSA#1

Phase noise: 1GHz signal having a -6.9dBc
3rd harmonic phase shifted from 0 to 360 degrees

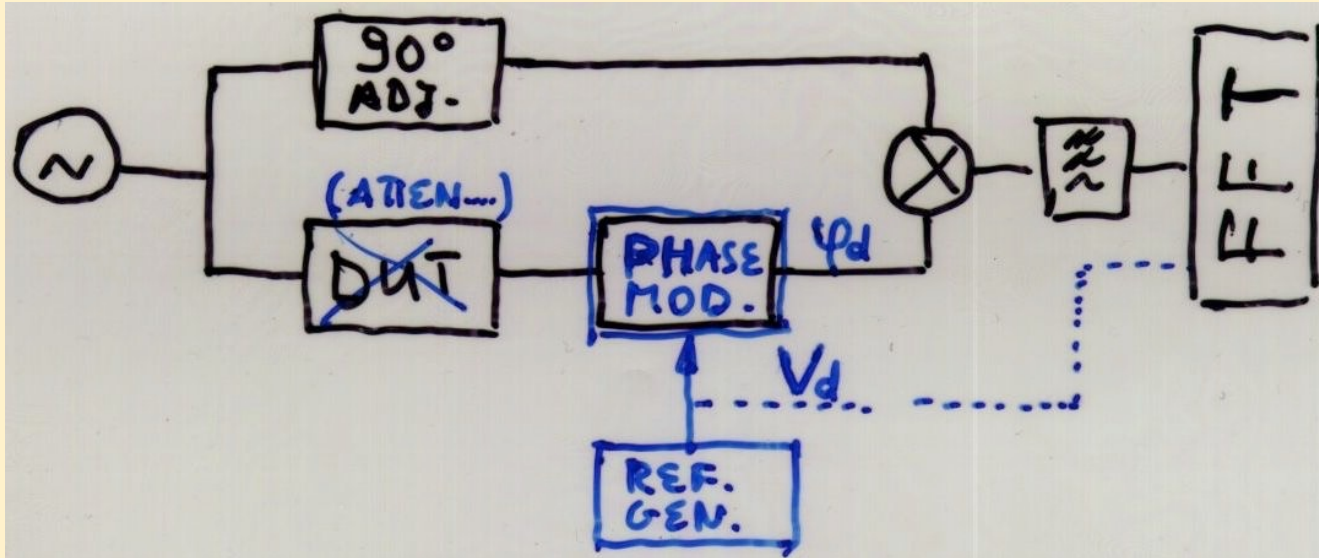


Courtesy of A. Poddar & U. L. Rohde,
Synergy Microwave Corp.

Summary — NIST scheme

- Problems arise when the DUT noise is really low
- Some are understood, others not
- Power splitter temperature → systematic error
- AM noise → unpredictable positive/negative error
- Distortion and impedance matching
-

Calibration – Measurement of k_φ



The reference signal can be:

a) a tone:

detect with the FFT,
with a dual-channel FFT, or
with a lock-in

tone:

$$k_\varphi = \frac{V_m}{k_m V_d}$$

white noise

$$k_\varphi^2 = \frac{S_{V_m}}{k_m^2 S_{V_d}}$$

b) random or pseudo random white noise

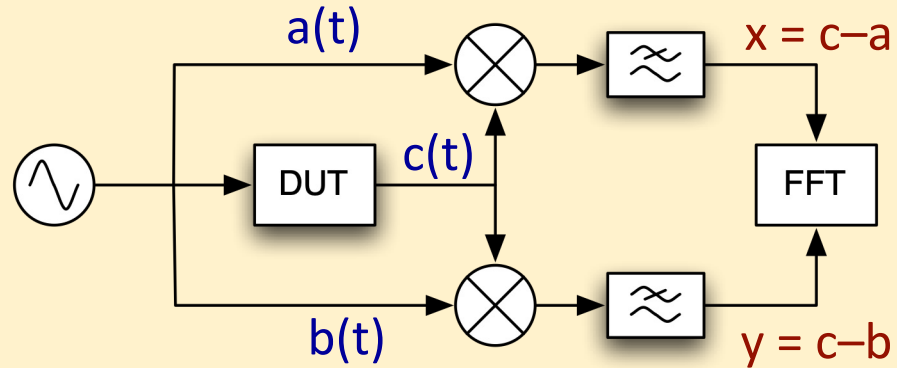
Some FFTs have a white noise output

Dual-channel FFTs calculate the transfer function $|H(f)|^2 = S_{V_m} / S_{V_d}$

Correlation measurements

Two separate mixers
measure the same DUT.
Only the DUT noise is common

$a(t), b(t) \rightarrow$ mixer noise
 $c(t) \rightarrow$ DUT noise



basics of correlation

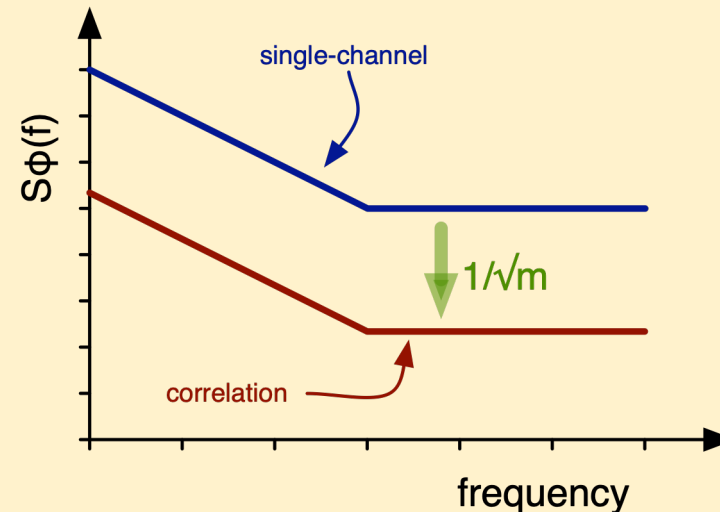
$$\begin{aligned}
 S_{yx}(f) &= \mathbb{E} \{ Y(f) X^*(f) \} \\
 &= \mathbb{E} \{ (C - A)(C - B)^* \} \\
 &= \mathbb{E} \{ CC^* - AC^* - CB^* + AB^* \} \\
 &= \mathbb{E} \{ CC^* \} \quad \quad \quad 0 \quad \quad 0 \quad \quad 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$S_{yx}(f) = S_{cc}(f)$$

in practice, average on m realizations

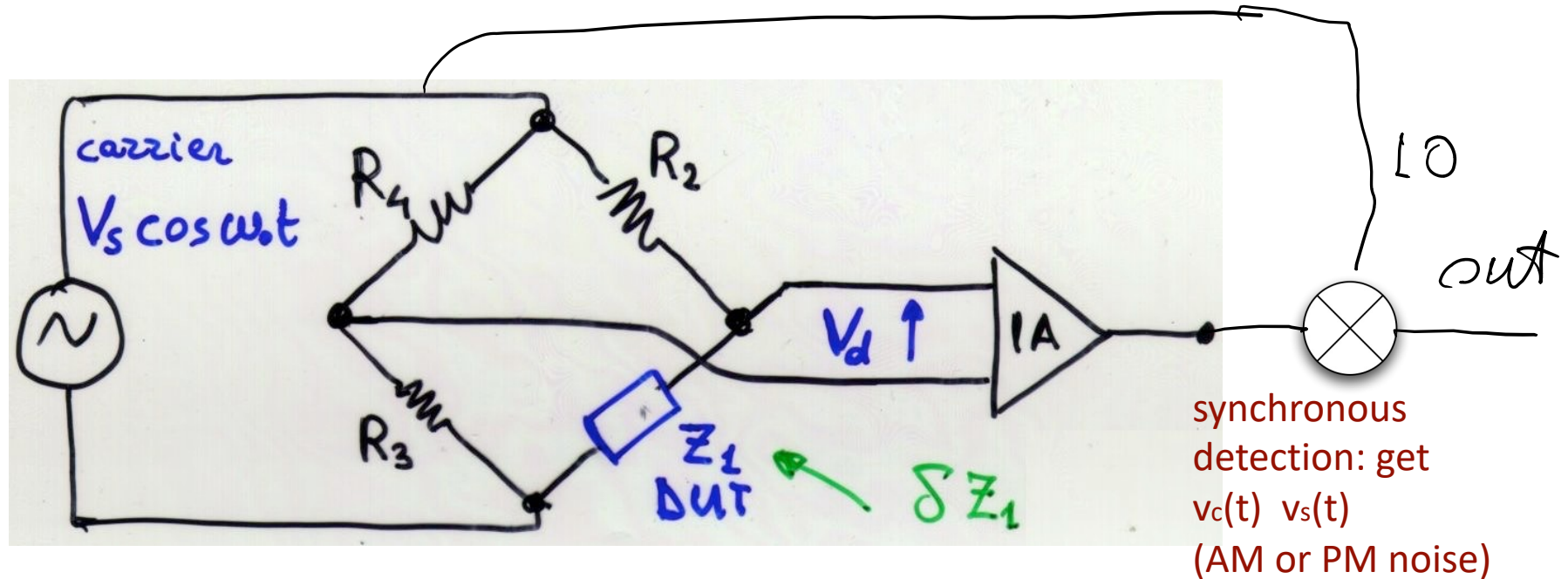
$$\begin{aligned}
 S_{yx}(f) &= \langle Y(f) X^*(f) \rangle_m \\
 &= \langle CC^* - AC^* - CB^* + AB^* \rangle_m \\
 &= \langle CC^* \rangle_m + O(1/m)
 \end{aligned}$$

0 as
 $1/\sqrt{m}$



Bridge Techniques

Wheatstone bridge



equilibrium: $V_d = 0 \rightarrow$ carrier suppression

static error $\delta Z_1 \rightarrow$ some residual carrier

real $\delta Z_1 \Rightarrow$ in-phase residual carrier $V_{re} \cos(\omega t)$

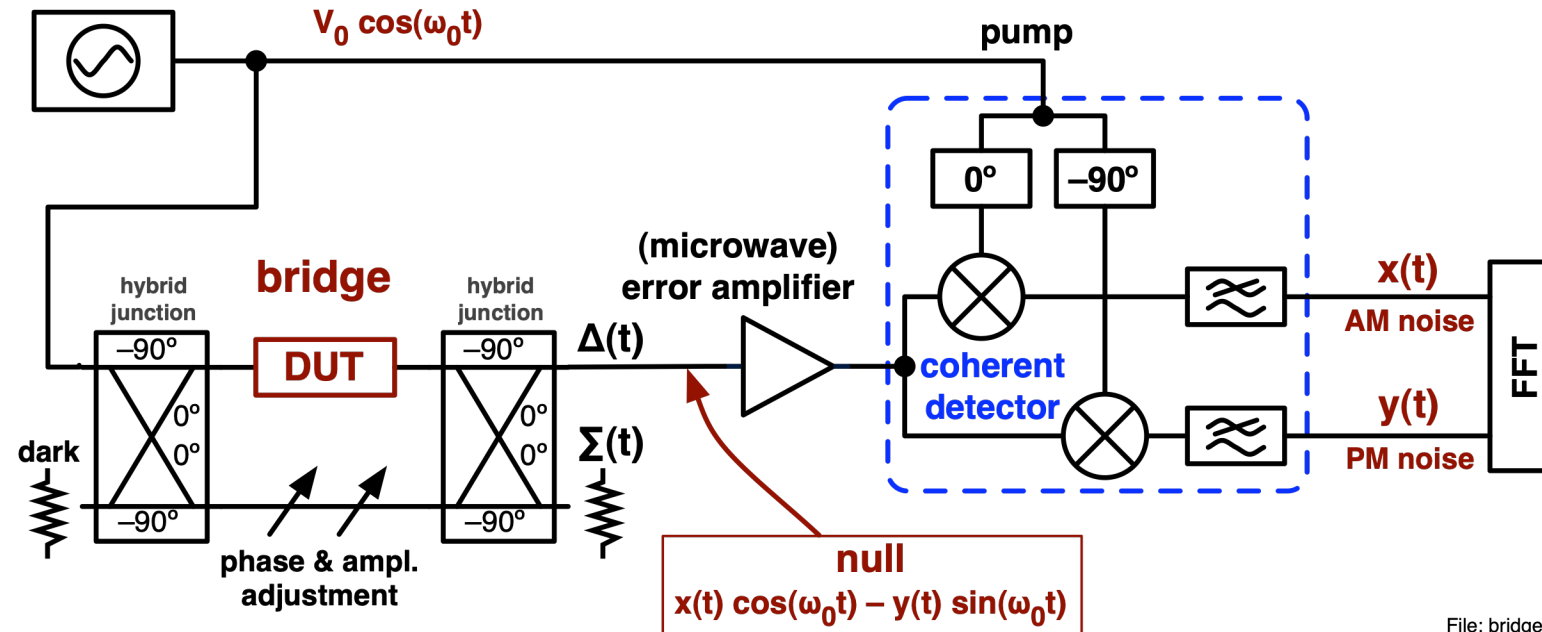
imaginary $\delta Z_1 \Rightarrow$ quadrature residual carrier $V_{im} \sin(\omega t)$

fluctuating error $\delta Z_1 \Rightarrow$ noise sidebands

real $\delta Z_1 \Rightarrow$ AM noise $v_c(t) \cos(\omega t)$

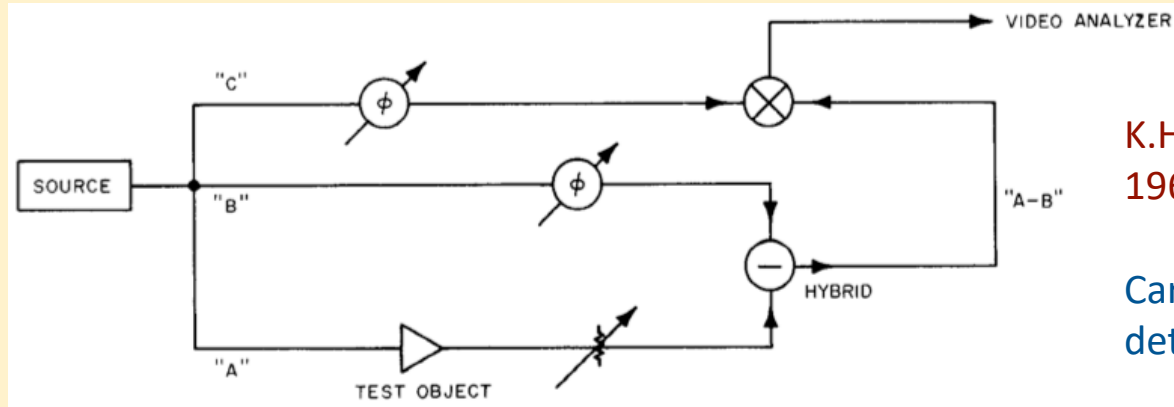
imaginary $\delta Z_1 \Rightarrow$ PM noise $-v_s(t) \sin(\omega t)$

Bridge AM-PM noise measurement



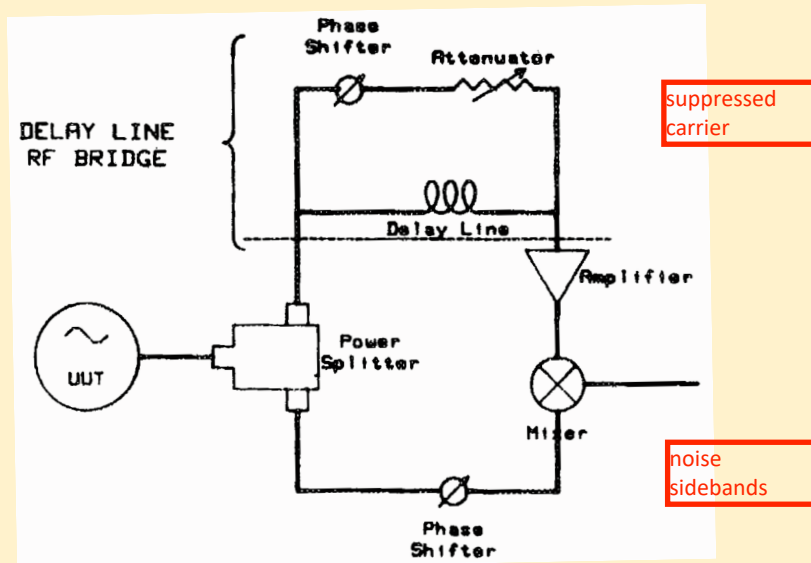
- Bridge => high rejection of the master-oscillator noise
- Amplification and synchronous detection of the noise sidebands
- No carrier => the amplifier can't flicker (no up-conversion of near-dc $1/f$)
- High microwave gain before detection => low background
- Low 50-60 Hz residuals because microwave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

Bridge – Early ideas



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

Carrier suppression and synchronous detection of the noise sidebands

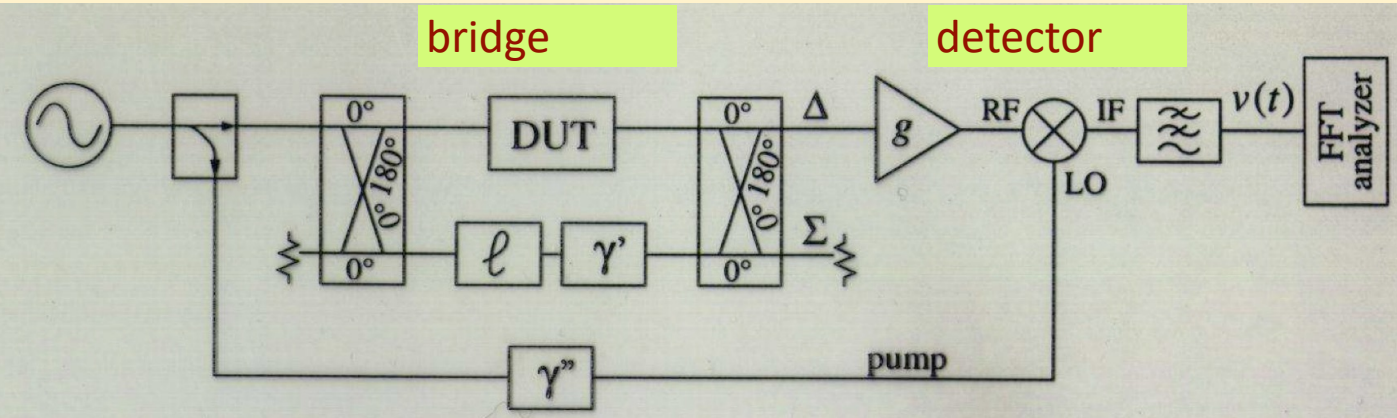


A.L. Lance & al., ISA Transact. 2(4) p.37-84 apr 1982

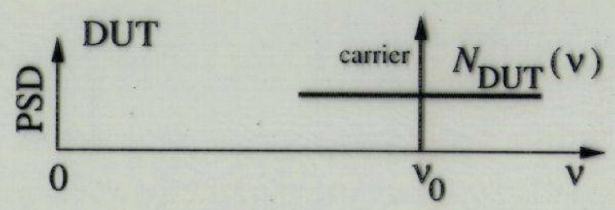
F. Labaar, Microwaves 21(3) p.65-69, mar 1982

Carrier suppression and amplification of the noise sidebands before synchronous detection

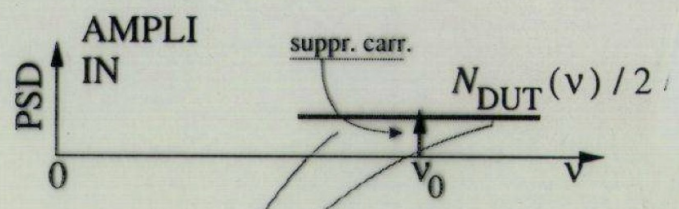
Bridge AM-PM noise measurement



and rejection of the master-oscillator noise



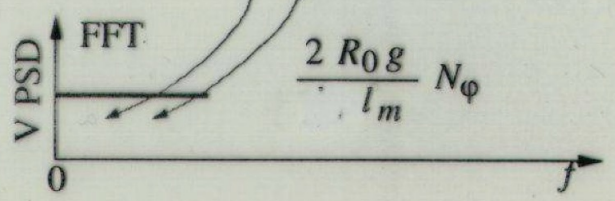
➔ **High carrier suppression:**
no carrier \Rightarrow the amplifier can't flicker



➔ **High gain:**

$$k_{\varphi} = \frac{v(t)}{\varphi(t)} = \sqrt{\frac{R_0 g P_0}{l_m}} - \text{dissip. losses}$$

yet, difficult for the measurement of oscillators

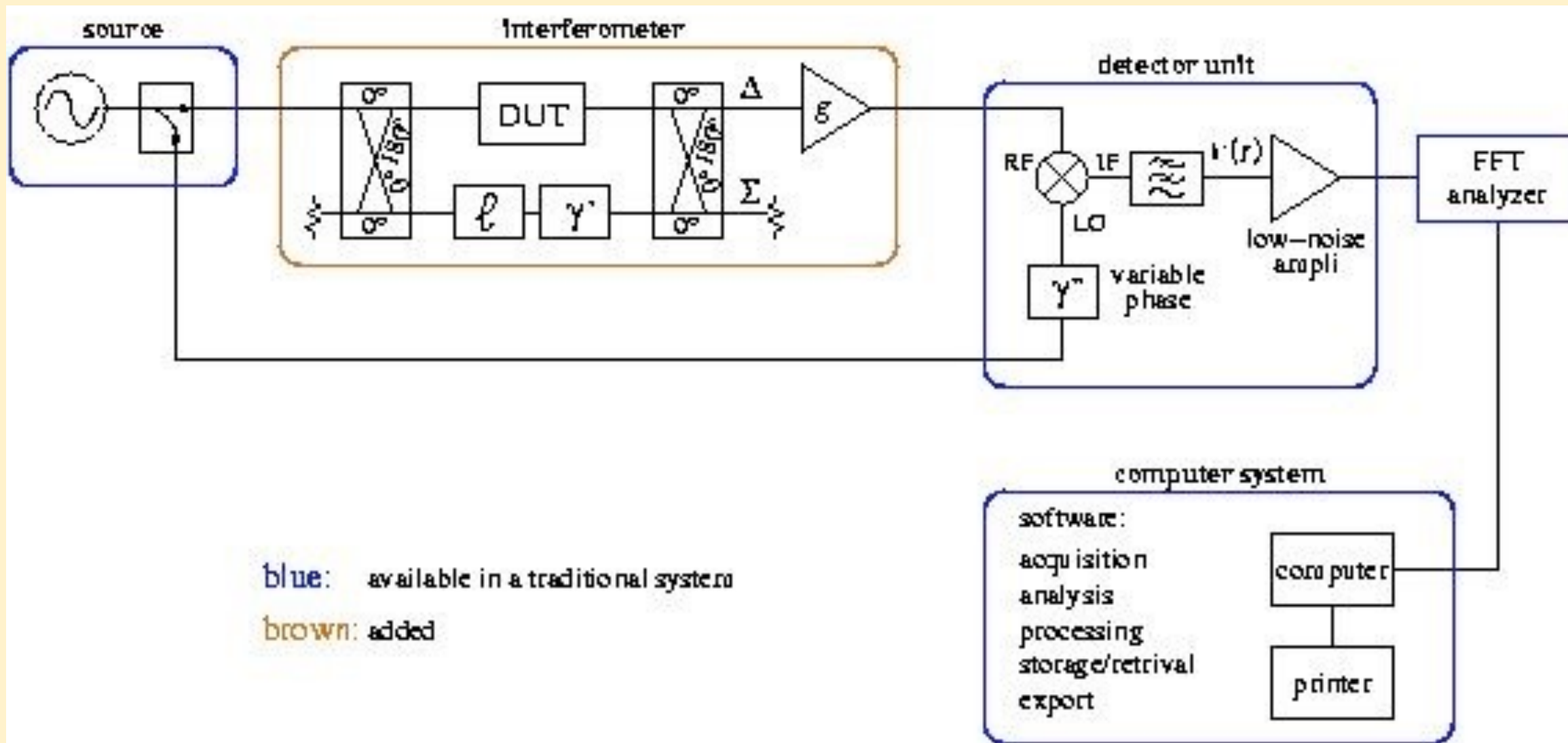


➔ **Low Noise Floor:**

$$S_{\varphi 0} = \frac{2 F k_B T_0}{P_0} + \text{dissip. losses}$$

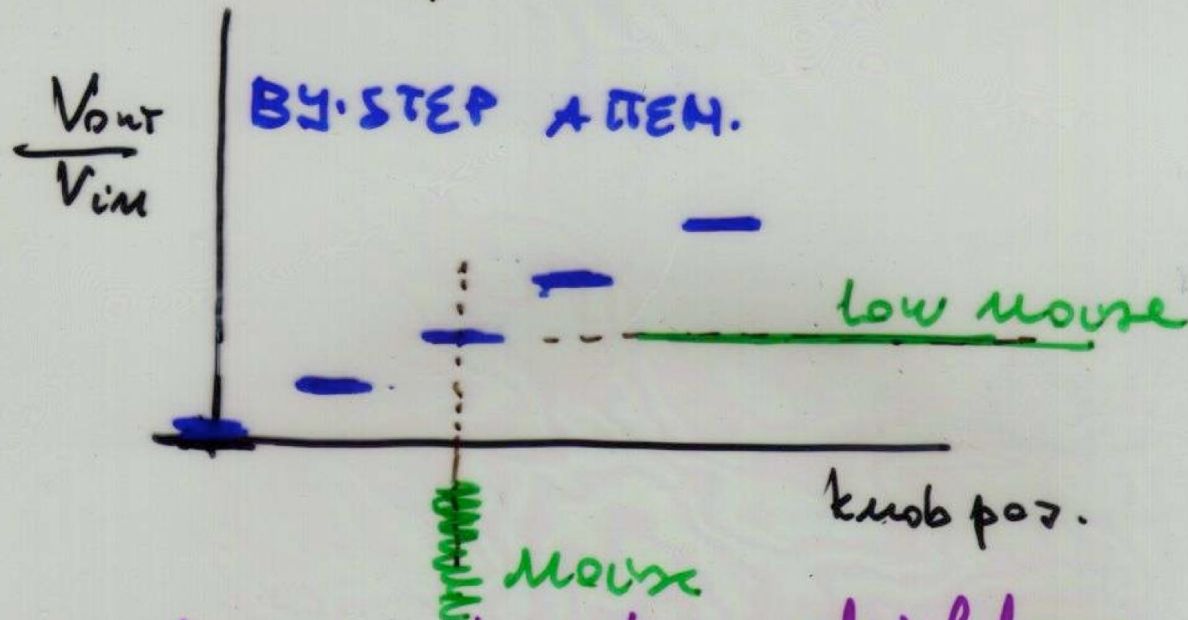
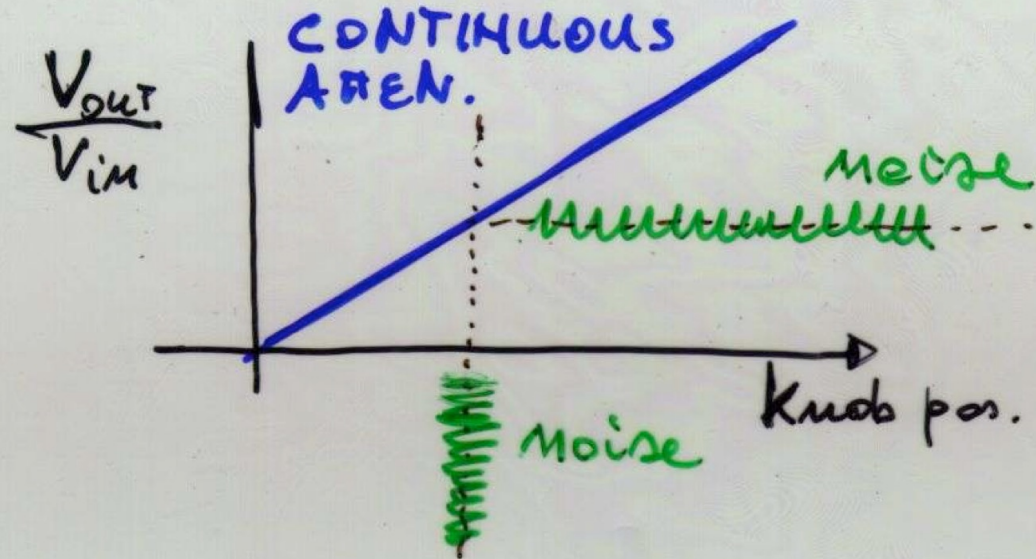
➔ High immunity to 50 Hz B-fields

Build on a commercial instrument



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

Origin of flicker in the bridge



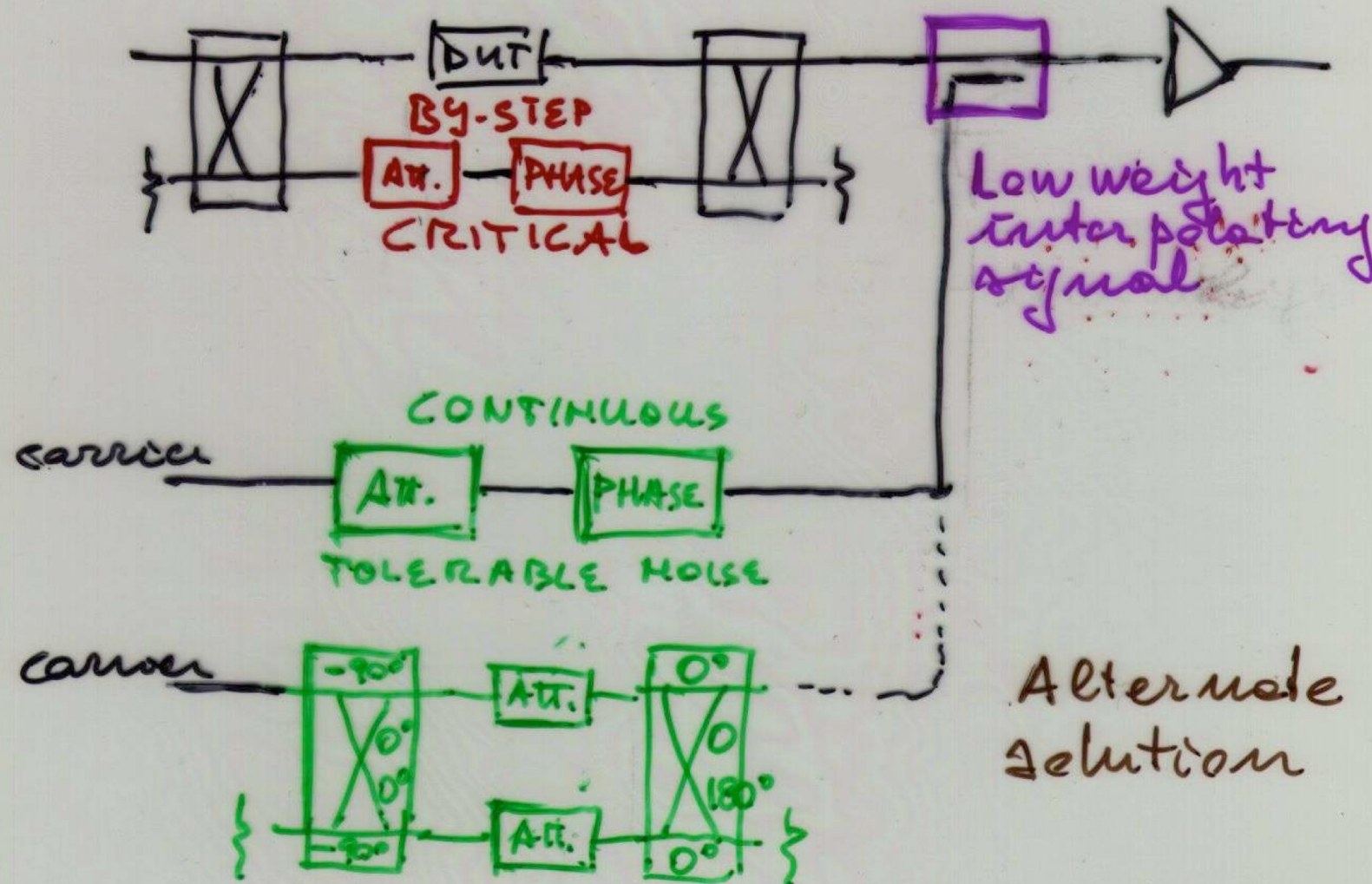
equi-potential contact.

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

Obvious extension to phase shifters

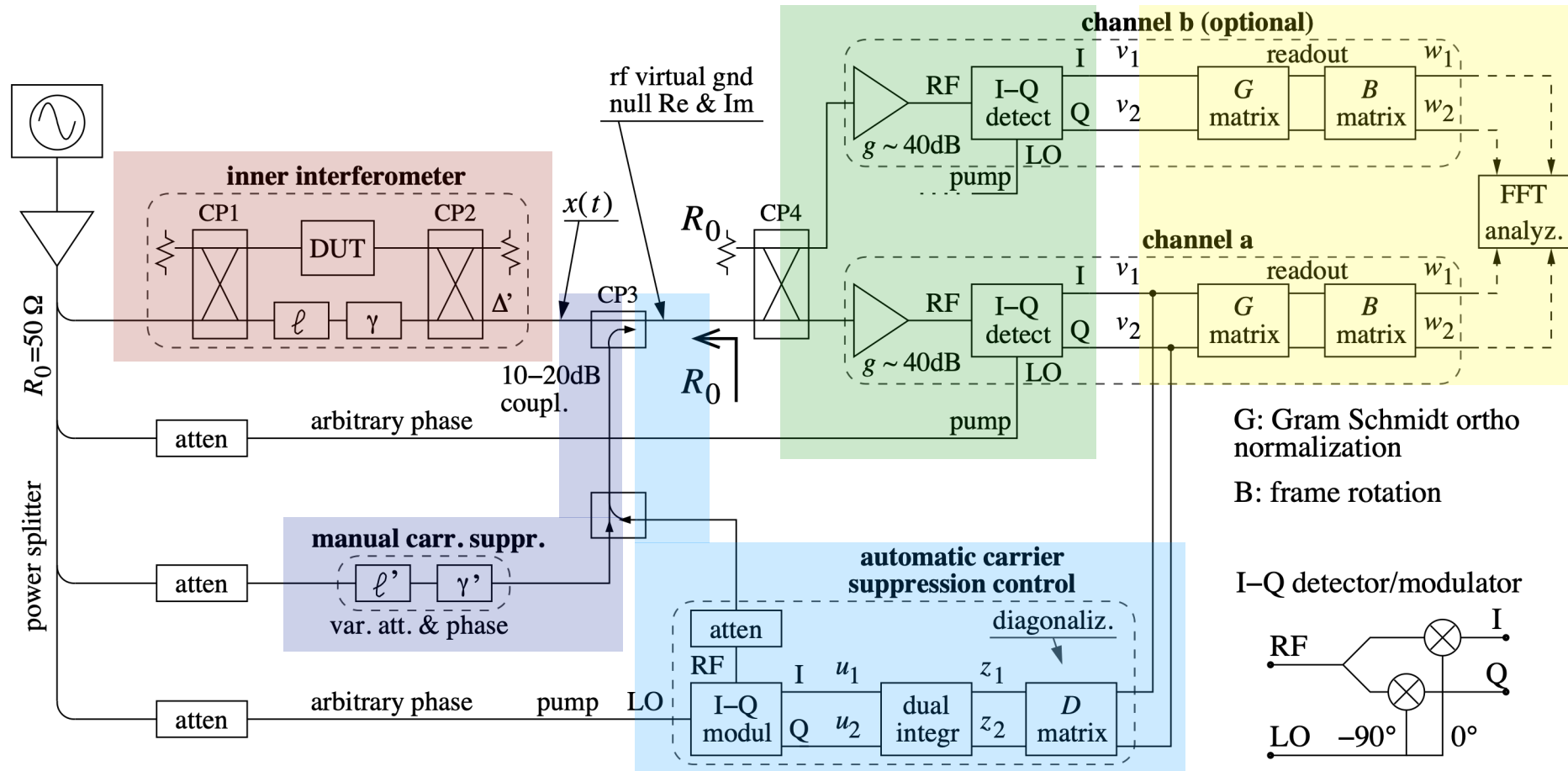
Coarse and fine adjustment

half step 0.05 dB \rightarrow carrier rejection
 45 dB max.

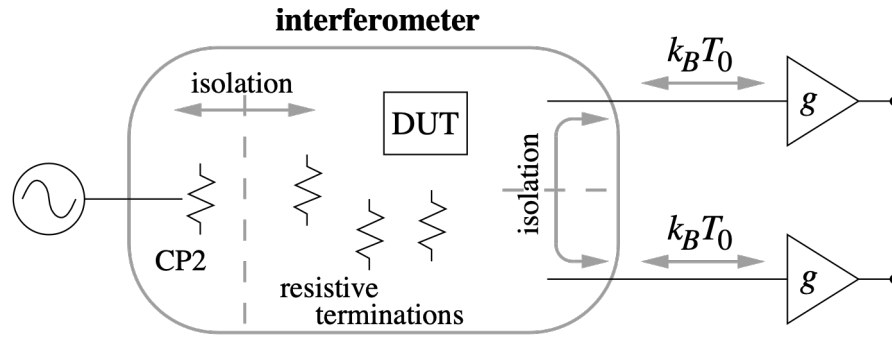


Combine all tricks in one machine

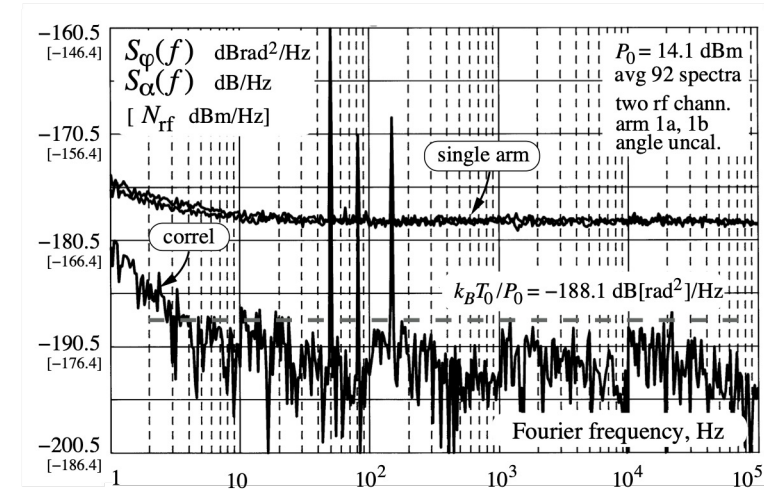
Flicker reduction, correlation, and closed-loop carrier suppression



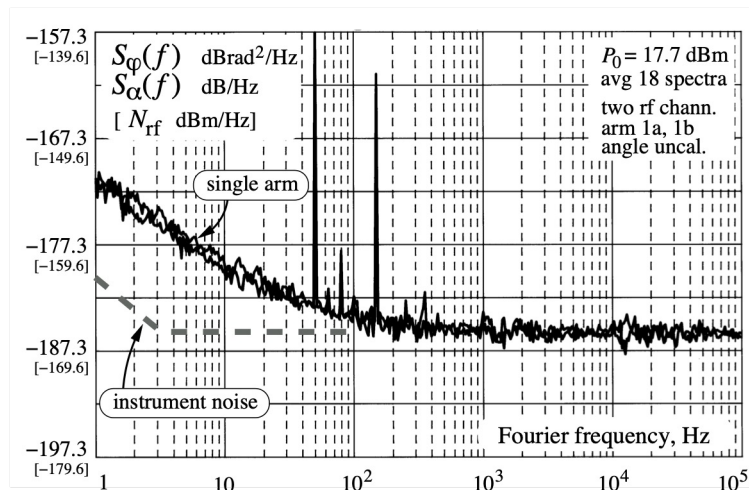
Example of results



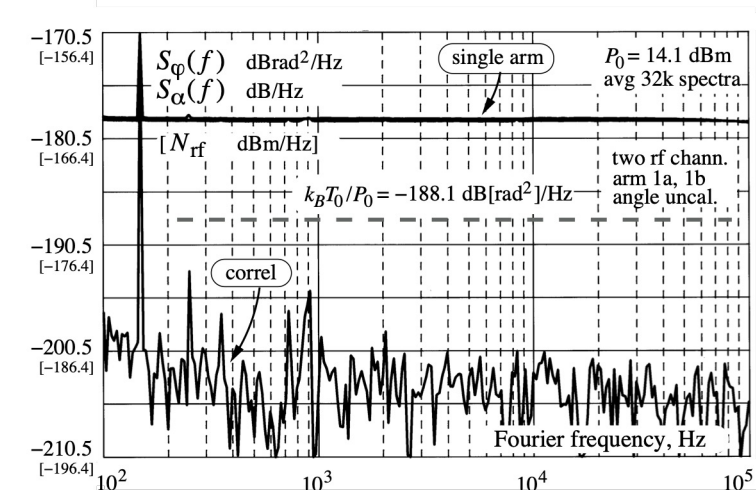
Correlation-and-averaging
rejects the thermal noise



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



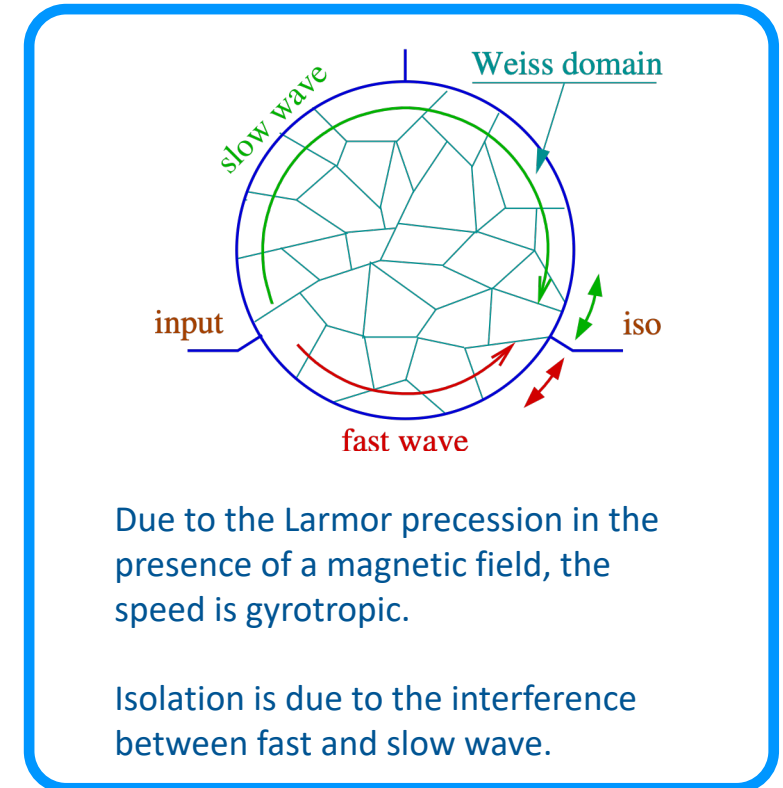
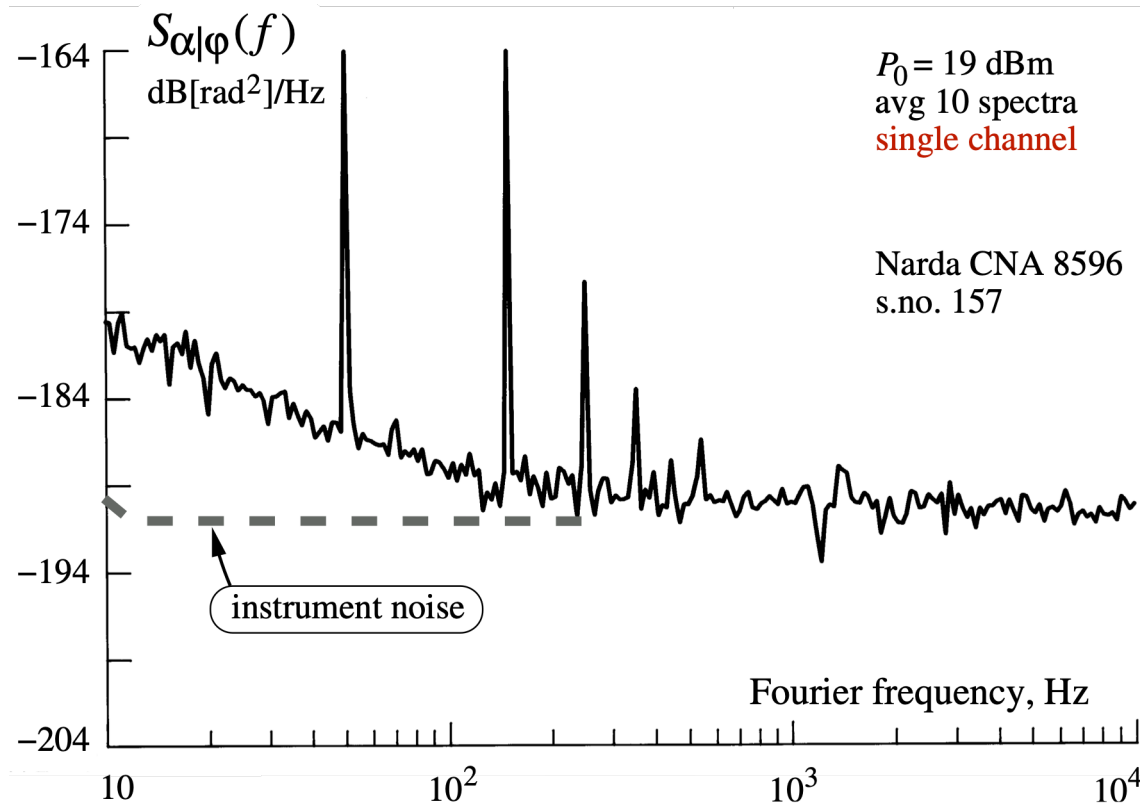
Noise of a pair of HH-109 hybrid
couplers measured at 100 MHz



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

Microwave circulator in reverse mode

(for the Pound Scheme)



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

$\pm 45^\circ$ detection

DUT noise without carrier

$$n_c(t) \cos \omega_0 t - n_s(t) \sin \omega_0 t$$

UP reference

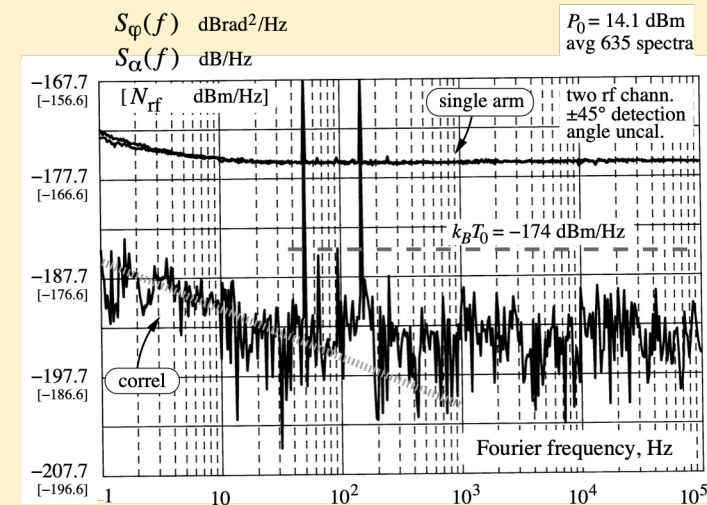
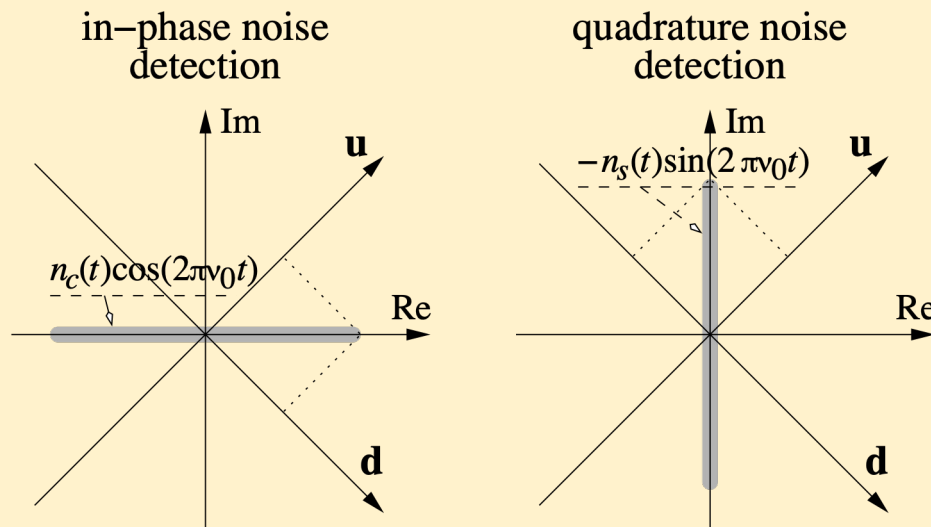
$$u(t) = V_P \cos(\omega_0 t - \pi/4)$$

DOWN reference

$$d(t) = V_P \cos(\omega_0 t + \pi/4)$$

cross spectral density

$$S_{ud}(f) = \frac{1}{2} \left[S_\alpha(f) - S_\varphi(f) \right]$$

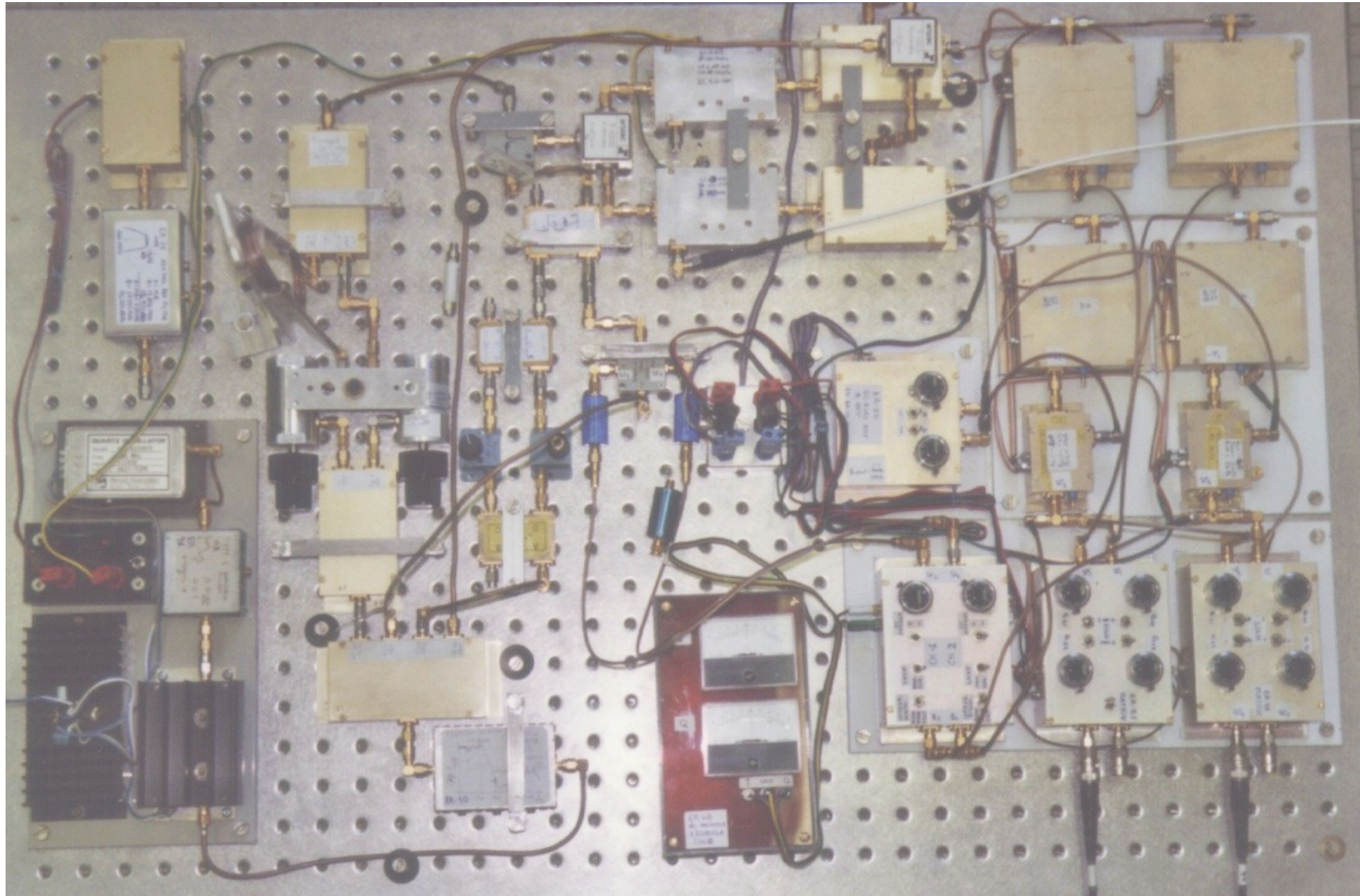


Residual noise, in the absence of the DUT

Smart and nerdy, yet of scarce practical usefulness

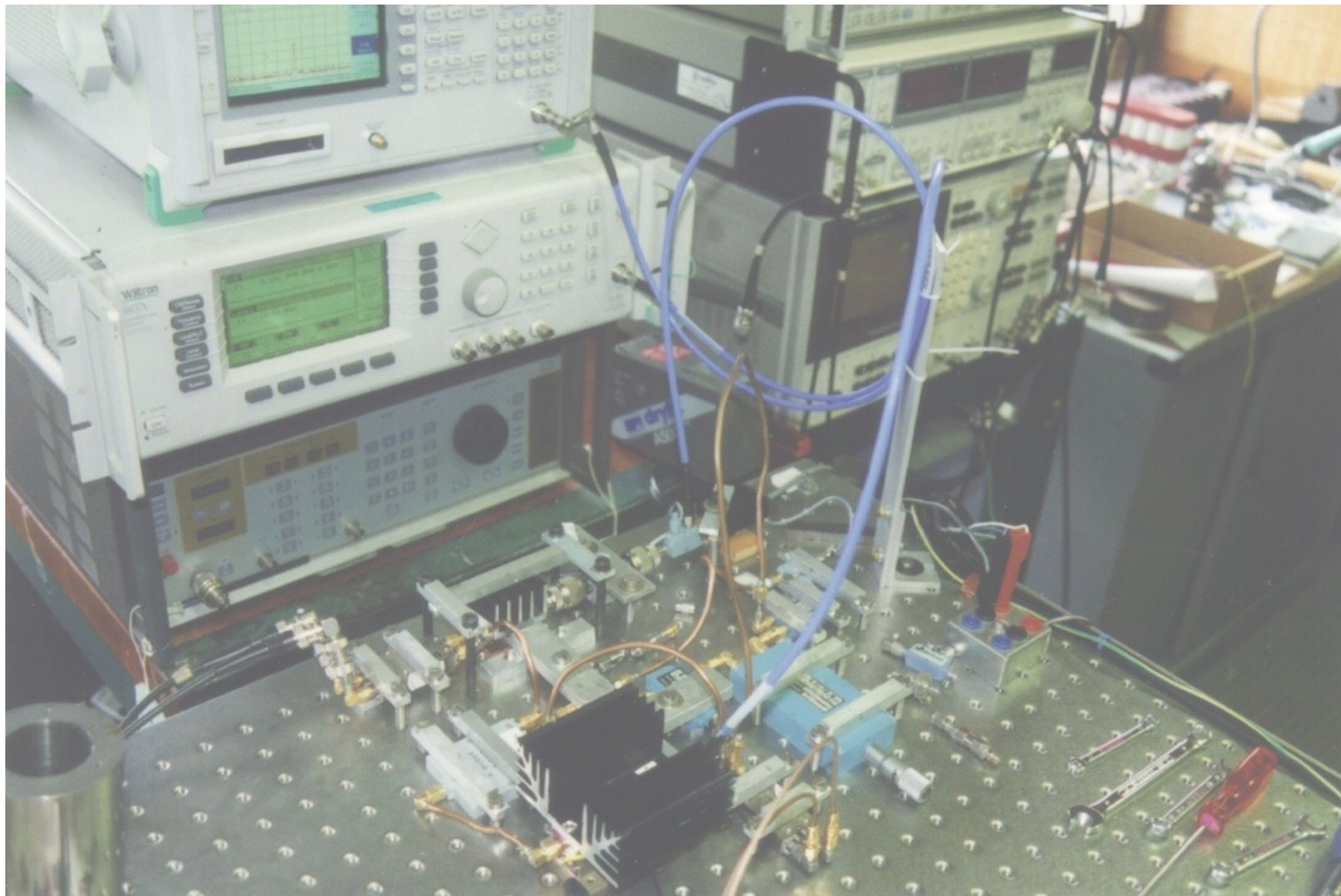
First used at 2 kHz to measure electromigration on metals (H. Stoll, MPI)

The complete machine (100 MHz)

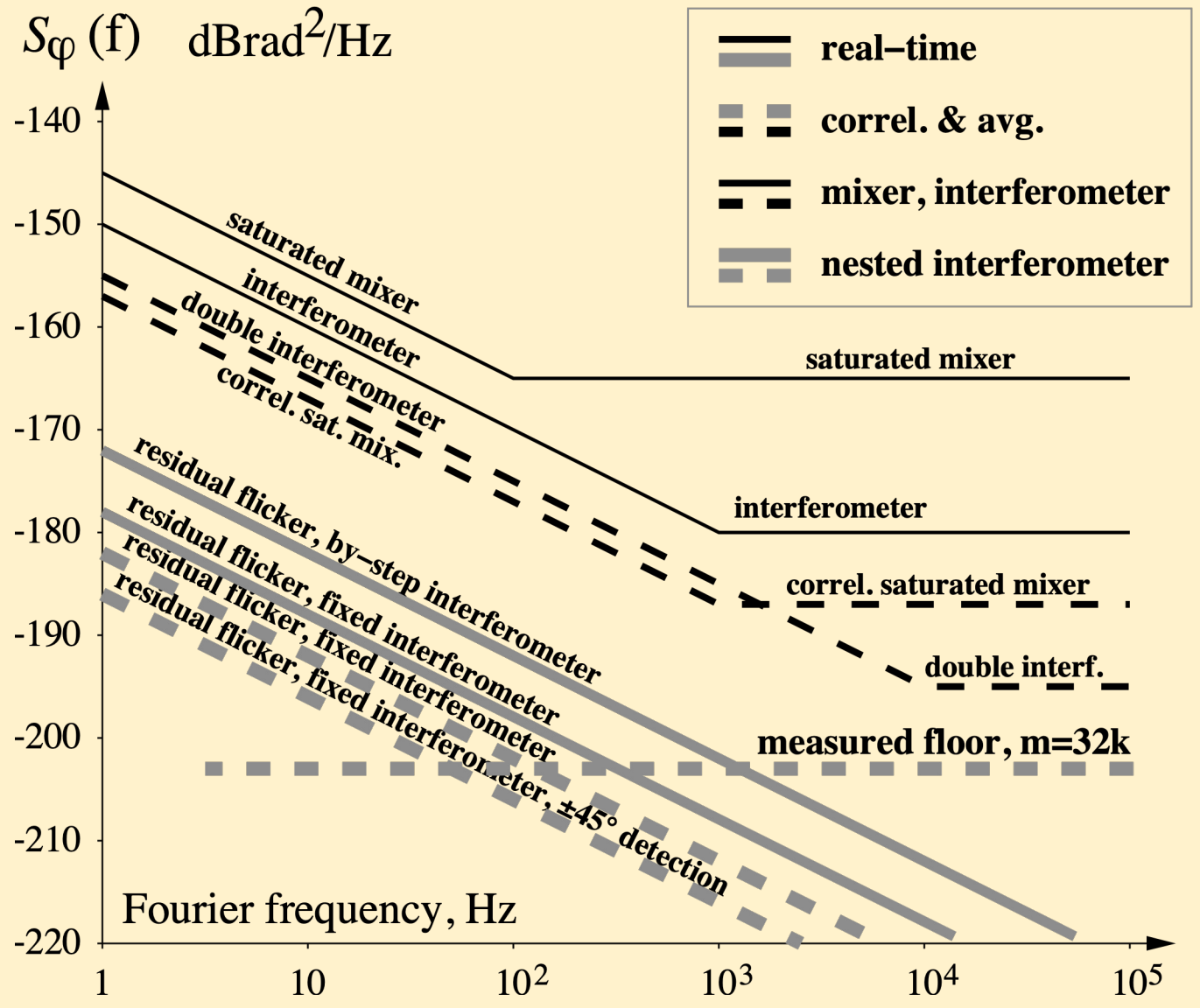


A 9 GHz experiment

(DC circuits not shown)



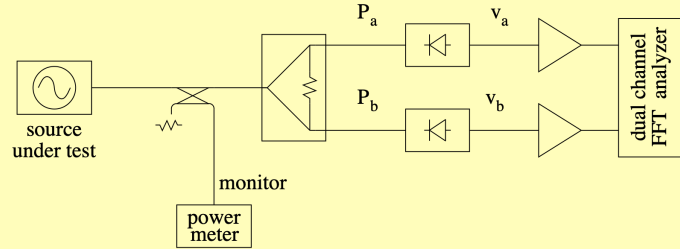
Background Noise



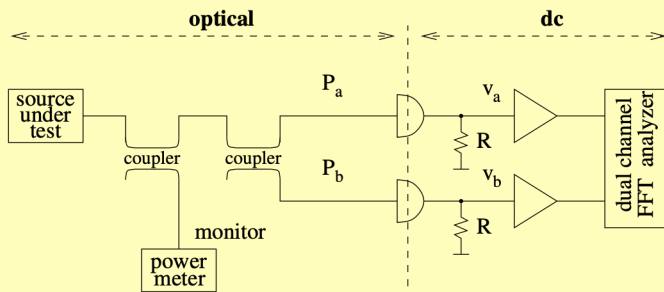
AM Noise

Amplitude noise & laser RIN

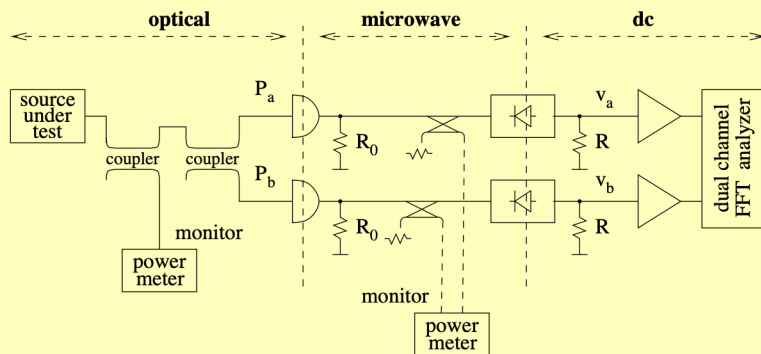
AM noise of RF/microwave sources



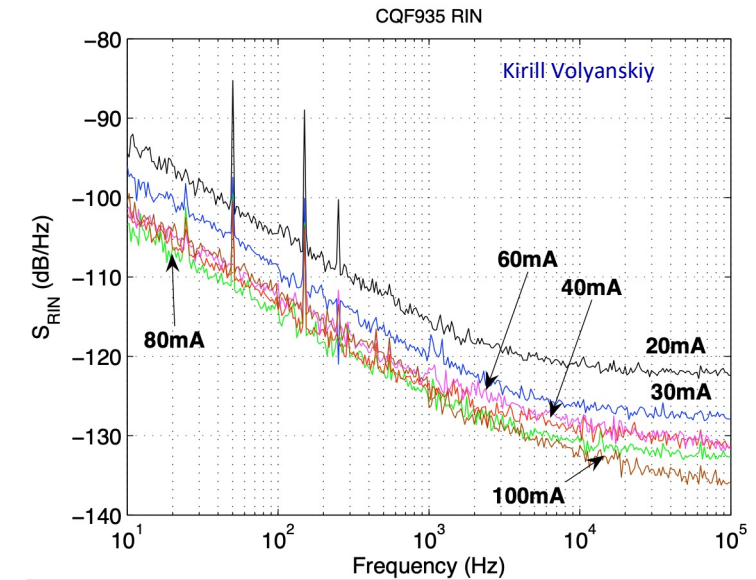
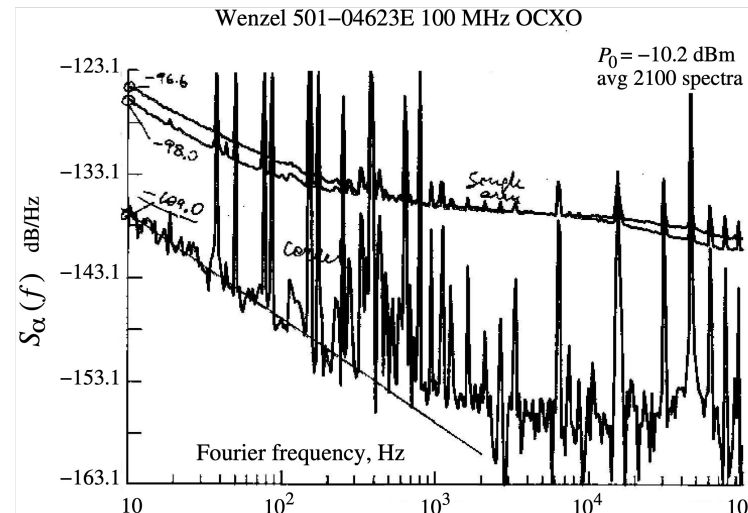
Laser RIN



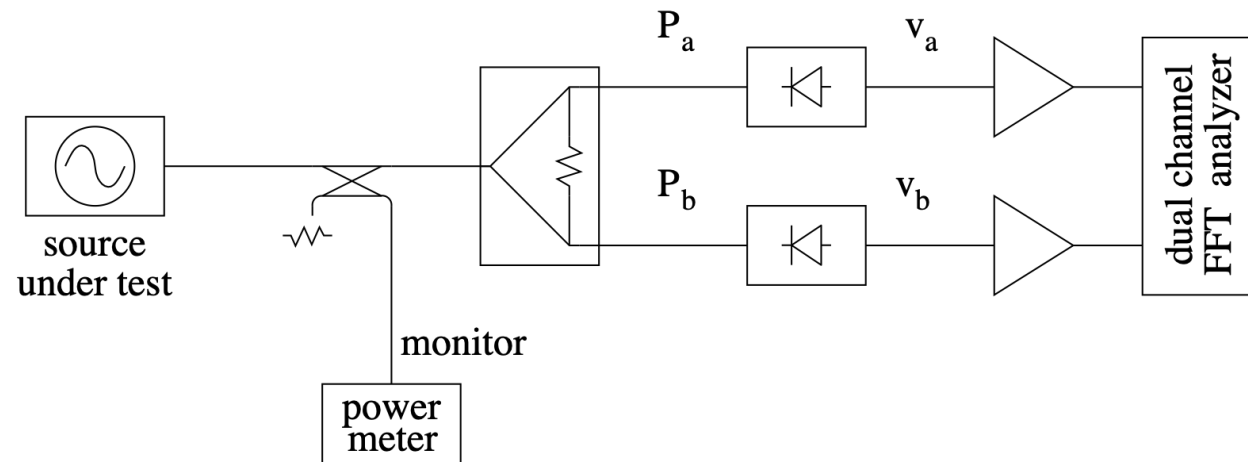
AM noise of photonic RF/microwave sources



- In PM noise measurements, one can validate the instrument by feeding the same signal into the phase detector
- In AM noise this is not possible without a lower-noise reference
- Provided the crosstalk was measured otherwise, correlation enables to validate the instrument



Cross-spectrum method

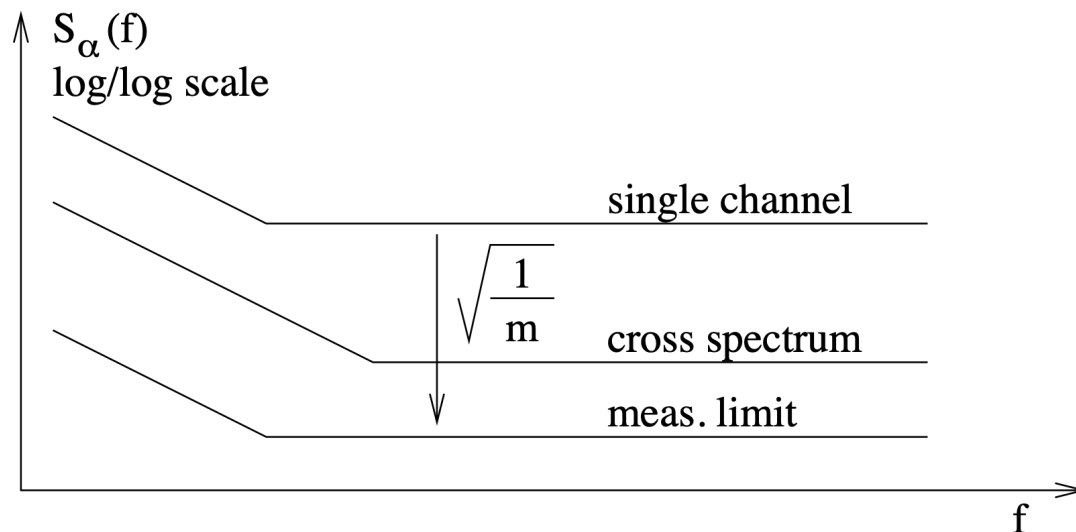


$$v_a(t) = 2k_a P_a \alpha(t) + \text{noise}$$

$$v_b(t) = 2k_b P_b \alpha(t) + \text{noise}$$

The cross spectrum $S_{ba}(f)$ rejects the single-channel noise because the two channels are independent.

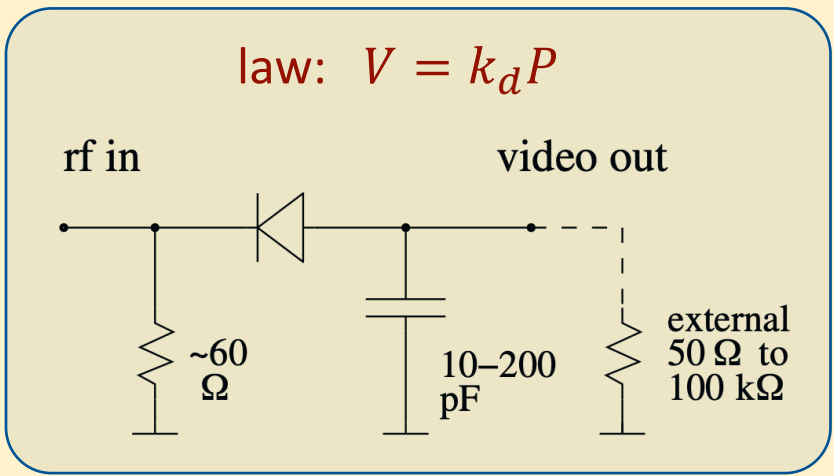
$$S_{ba}(f) = \frac{1}{4k_a k_b P_a P_b} S_\alpha(f)$$



- Averaging on m spectra, the single-channel noise is rejected $\propto 1/\sqrt{m}$
- A cross-spectrum higher than the averaging limit validates the measure
- The knowledge of the single-channel noise is not necessary

Tunnel and Schottky power detectors

law: $V = k_d P$



parameter	Schottky	tunnel
input bandwidth	up to 4 decades 10 MHz to 20 GHz	1-3 octaves up to 40 GHz
VSVR max.	1.5:1	3.5:1
max. input power (spec.)	-15 dBm	-15 dBm
absolute max. input power	20 dBm or more	20 dBm
output resistance	1-10 kΩ	50-200 Ω
output capacitance	20-200 pF	10-50 pF
gain	300 V/W	1000 V/W
cryogenic temperature	no	yes
electrically fragile	no	yes

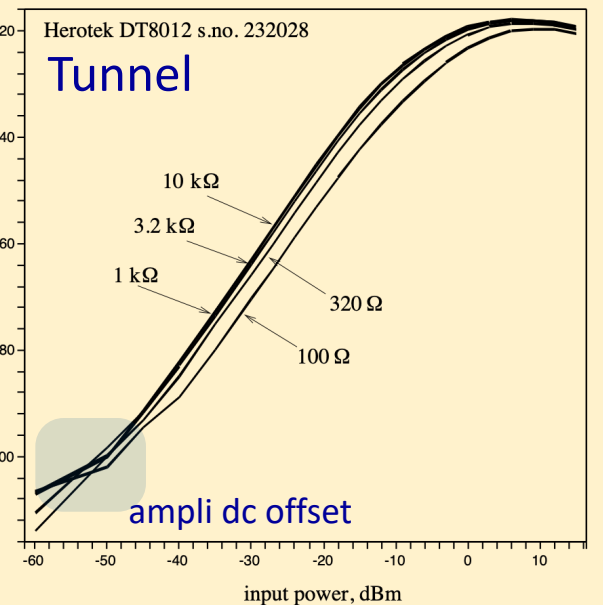
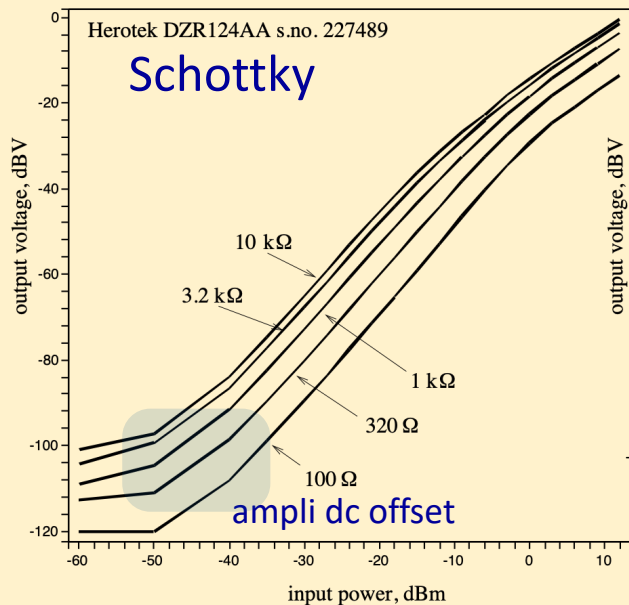
The "tunnel" diode is a backward diode (no negative resistance region)

Measured k_d

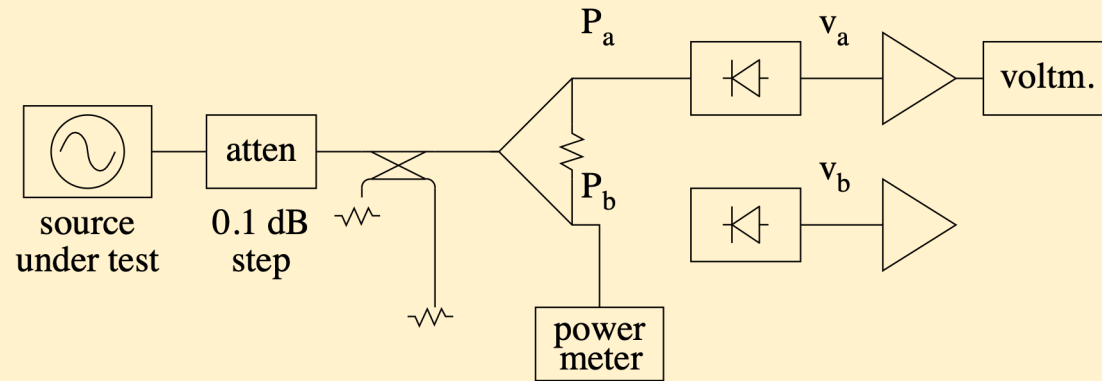
load resistance, Ω	detector gain, A^{-1}	
	DZR124AA (Schottky)	DT8012 (tunnel)
1×10^2	35	292
3.2×10^2	98	505
1×10^3	217	652
3.2×10^3	374	724
1×10^4	494	750

conditions: power -50 to -20 dBm

Best SNR at -20 to -15 dBm



Calibration



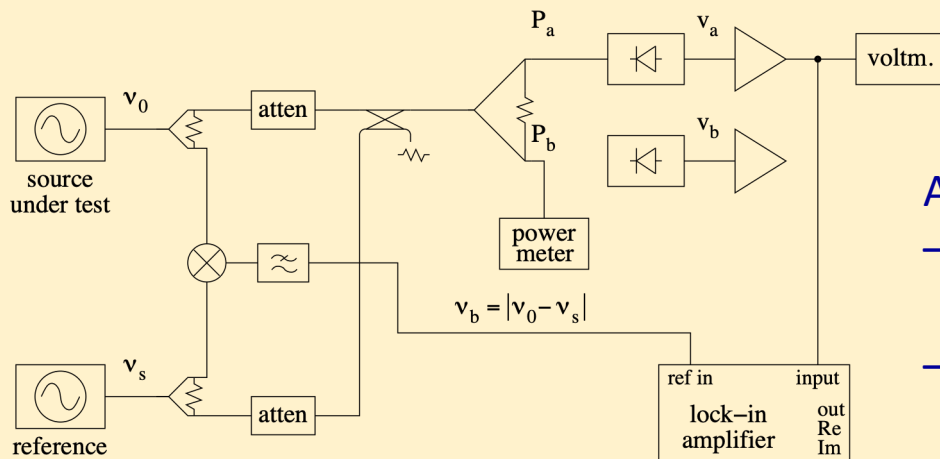
Set a reference $\Delta P_a/P_a$ (0.1 dB) with a by-step attenuator
 Measure ΔV_a at the output

$$k_a P_a = \frac{\Delta v_a}{\Delta P/P_a}$$

Repeat interchanging the channels

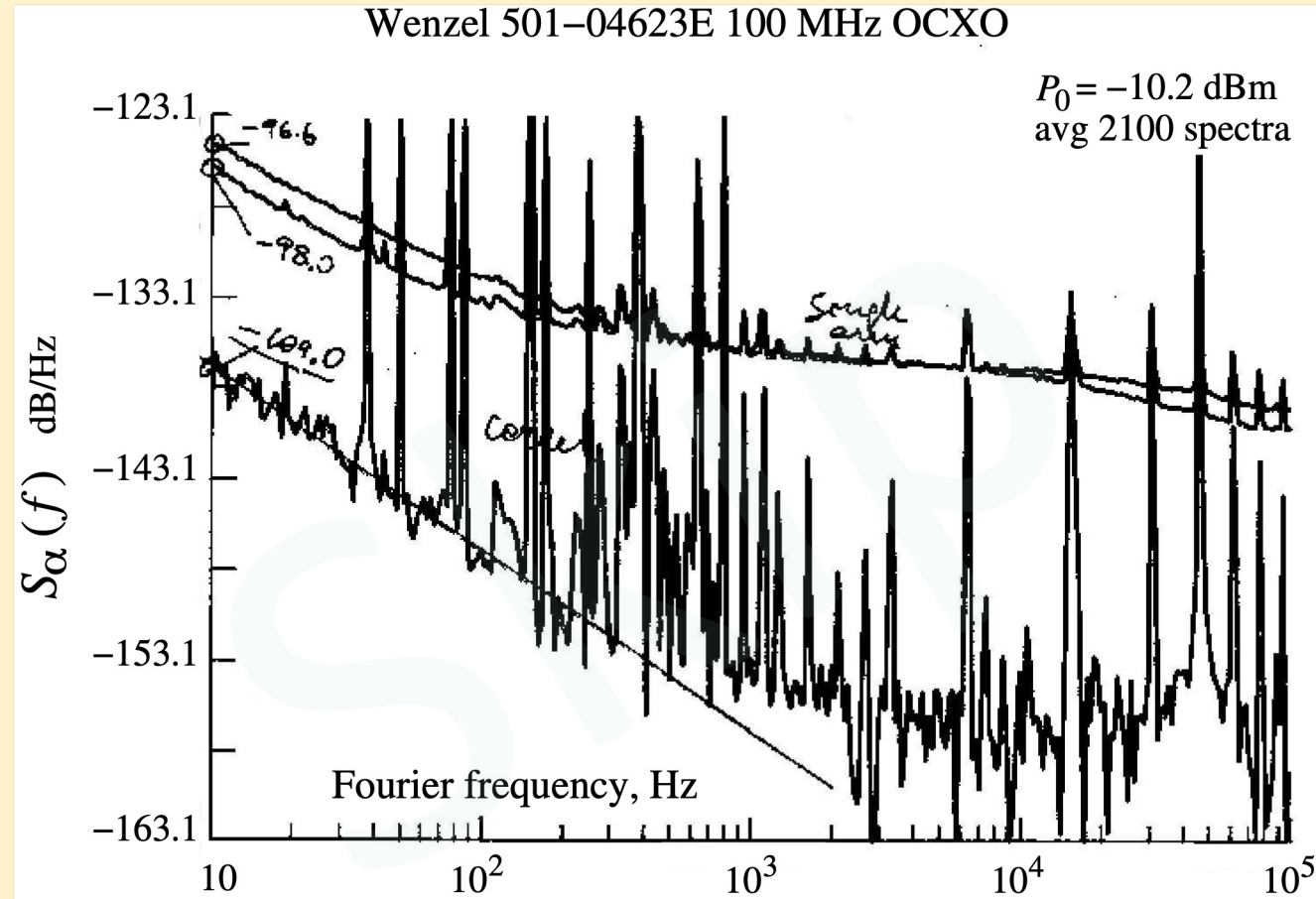
Note that only the kP product is needed because

$$S_{ba}(f) = \frac{1}{4k_a k_b P_a P_b} S_\alpha(f)$$



- Alternate (and complex) calibration method.
- It exploits the sensitivity and the accuracy of a lock-in amplifier.
 - As before, it requires a reference power-ratio

Example of AM noise spectrum



flicker: $h_{-1} = 1.5 \times 10^{-13} \text{ Hz}^{-1} (-128.2 \text{ dB}) \Rightarrow \sigma_\alpha = 4.6 \times 10^{-7}$

Single-arm $1/f$ noise is that of the dc amplifier
(the amplifier is still not optimized)

AM noise of some sources

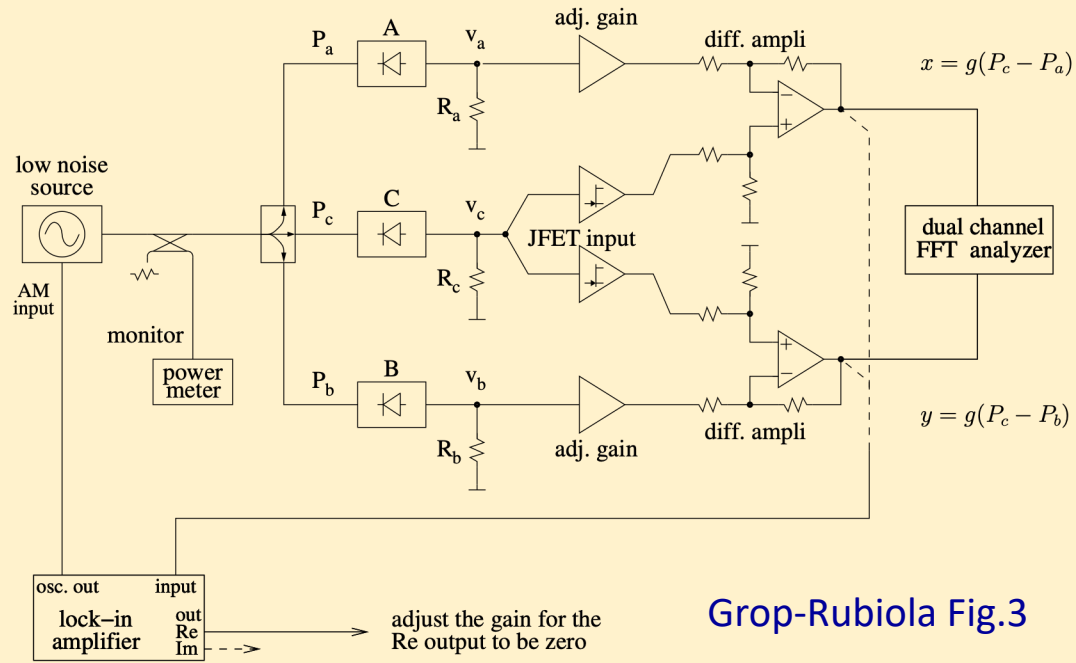
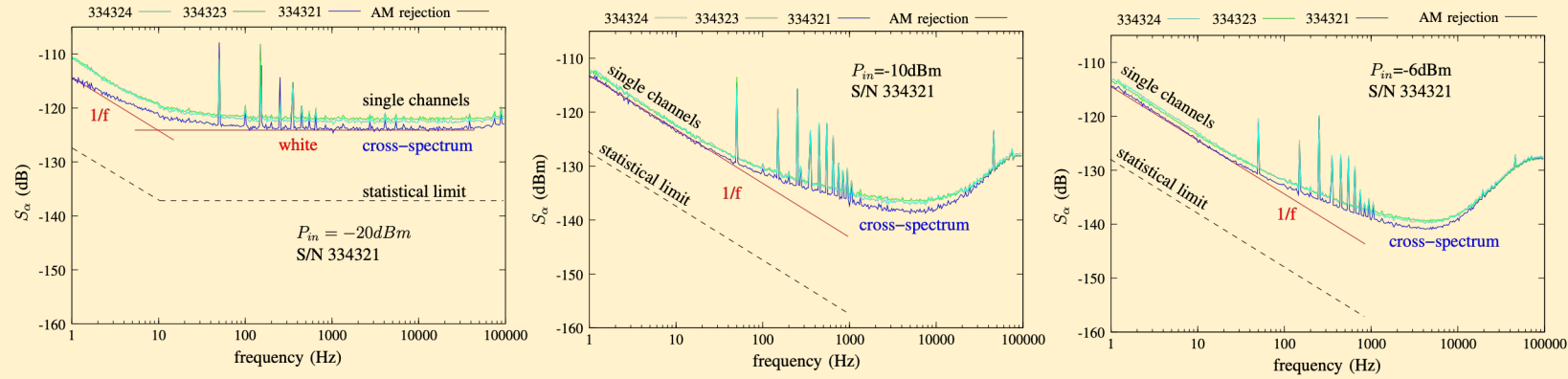
source	h_{-1} (flicker)	$(\sigma_\alpha)_{\text{floor}}$
Anritsu MG3690A synthesizer (10 GHz)	2.5×10^{-11} -106.0 dB	5.9×10^{-6}
Marconi synthesizer (5 GHz)	1.1×10^{-12} -119.6 dB	1.2×10^{-6}
Macom PLX 32-18 0.1 → 9.9 GHz multipl.	1.0×10^{-12} -120.0 dB	1.2×10^{-6}
Omega DRV9R192-105F 9.2 GHz DRO	8.1×10^{-11} -100.9 dB	1.1×10^{-5}
Narda DBP-0812N733 amplifier (9.9 GHz)	2.9×10^{-11} -105.4 dB	6.3×10^{-6}
HP 8662A no. 1 synthesizer (100 MHz)	6.8×10^{-13} -121.7 dB	9.7×10^{-7}
HP 8662A no. 2 synthesizer (100 MHz)	1.3×10^{-12} -118.8 dB	1.4×10^{-6}
Fluke 6160B synthesizer	1.5×10^{-12} -118.3 dB	1.5×10^{-6}
Racal Dana 9087B synthesizer (100 MHz)	8.4×10^{-12} -110.8 dB	3.4×10^{-6}
Wenzel 500-02789D 100 MHz OCXO	4.7×10^{-12} -113.3 dB	2.6×10^{-6}
Wenzel 501-04623E no. 1 100 MHz OCXO	2.0×10^{-13} -127.1 dB	5.2×10^{-7}
Wenzel 501-04623E no. 2 100 MHz OCXO	1.5×10^{-13} -128.2 dB	4.6×10^{-7}

worst

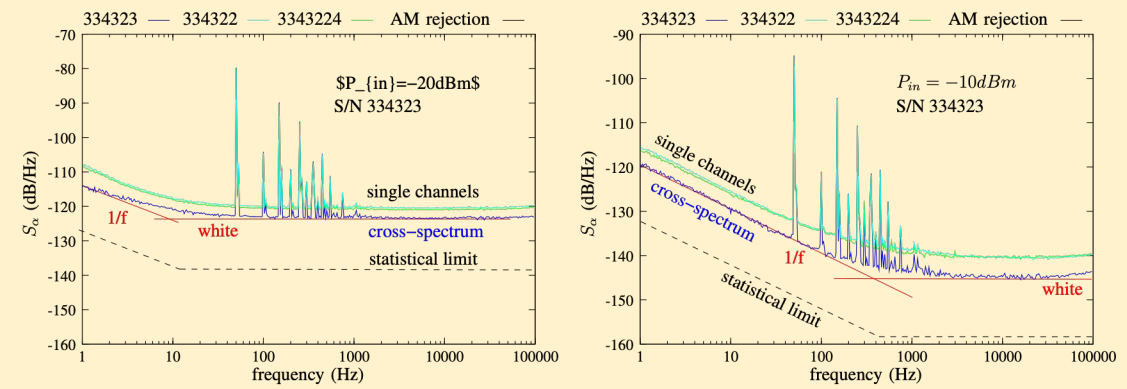
best

Flicker in microwave power detectors

S. Grop, E. Rubiola, Flicker Noise of Microwave Power Detectors, Proc. IFCS-EFTF joint conf. p.40-43, 2009



Grop-Rubiola Fig.3



Grop-Rubiola Fig.8 a-e

Preliminary results

Observed $h_{-1} \approx -150$ dB, similar to the b_{-1} of other diodes (mixer and microwave photodetector)

Characterization of zero-bias microwave diode power detectors at cryogenic temperature

Vincent Giordano,^{1,a)} Christophe Fluhr,¹ Benoît Dubois,² and Enrico Rubiola^{1,b)}

¹*Time and Frequency Department, CNRS FEMTO-ST Institute (UMR 6174), 26 Chemin de l'Épitaphe, 25030 Besançon, France*

²*FEMTO Engineering, 32 Avenue de l'Observatoire 25000 Besançon, France*

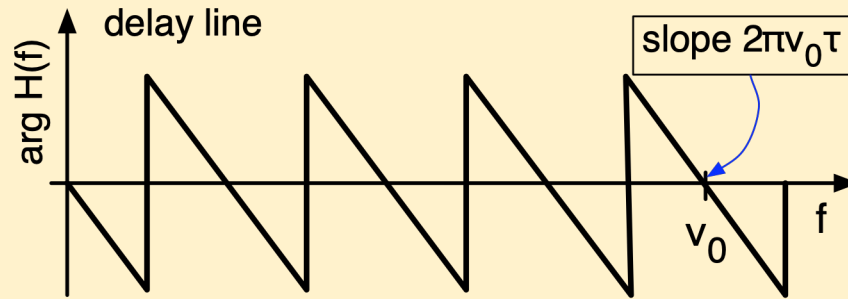
(Received 5 April 2016; accepted 19 July 2016; published online 23 August 2016)

We present the characterization of commercial tunnel diode low-level microwave power detectors at room and cryogenic temperatures. The sensitivity as well as the output voltage noise of the tunnel diodes is measured as functions of the applied microwave power. We highlight strong variations of the diode characteristics when the applied microwave power is higher than a few microwatts. For a diode operating at 4 K, the differential gain increases from 1000 V/W to about 4500 V/W when the power passes from -30 dBm to -20 dBm. The diode white noise floor is equivalent to a Noise Equivalent Power of $0.8 \text{ pW}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ and $8 \text{ pW}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ at 4 K and 300 K, respectively. Its flicker noise is equivalent to a relative amplitude noise power spectral density $S_{\alpha}(1 \text{ Hz}) = -120 \text{ dB/Hz}$ at 4 K. Flicker noise is 10 dB higher at room temperature. *Published by AIP Publishing.* [<http://dx.doi.org/10.1063/1.4960087>]

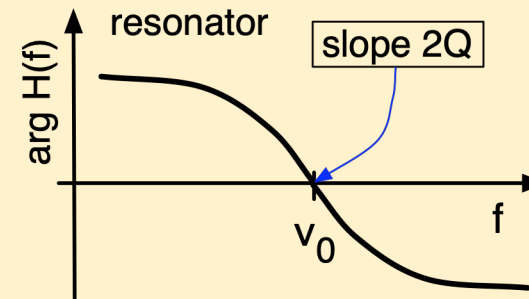
Photonic Techniques

The delay-Line as a discriminator

The delay line turns a frequency into a phase



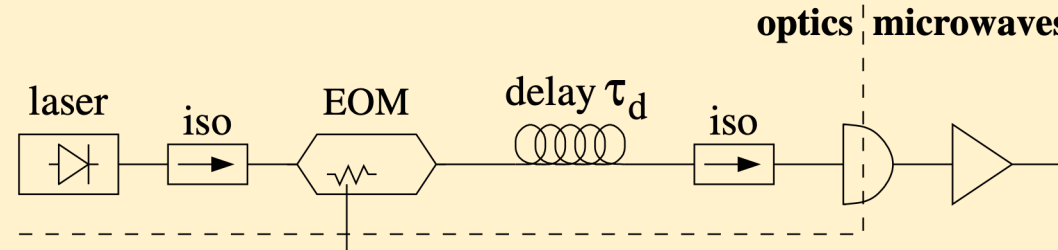
comparing the slope:



$$Q_{eq} = \pi\nu_0\tau$$

- Works at any frequency $\nu = n/\tau$, integer τ (the resonator does not)
- S_φ measurement of an oscillator
- Dual-channel S_φ measurement of an oscillator
- Stabilization of an oscillator
- Opto-electronic oscillator
- Coax cable: 50 dB attenuation limits to
 - 950 ns @ 1 GHz ($Q=3000$) - RG213
 - 300 ns @ 10 GHz ($Q=11500$) - RG402
- Optical fiber:
 - max delay is not limited by the attenuation
 - 1-100 μ s delay is possible ($Q=10^5-10^7$ @ 31 GHz)

Opto-electronic delay line



intensity modulation

$$P(t) = \bar{P}(1 + m \cos \omega_{\mu} t)$$

photocurrent

$$i(t) = \frac{q\eta}{h\nu} \bar{P}(1 + m \cos \omega_{\mu} t) \quad \text{shot noise}$$

$$N_s = 2 \frac{q^2 \eta}{h\nu} \bar{P} R_0$$

microwave power

$$\bar{P}_{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} m^2 R_0 \left(\frac{q\eta}{h\nu} \right)^2 \bar{P}^2 \quad \text{thermal noise}$$

$$N_t = F k T_0$$

total white noise

$$S_{\varphi 0} = \frac{2}{m^2} \left[\overset{\text{shot}}{2 \frac{h\nu_{\lambda}}{\eta} \frac{1}{\bar{P}}} + \overset{\text{thermal}}{\frac{F k T_0}{R_0} \left(\frac{h\nu_{\lambda}}{q\eta} \right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{\bar{P}} \right)^2} \right]$$

flicker phase noise

- amplifier GaAs: $b_{-1} \approx -100$ to -110 dBrad²/Hz, SiGe: $b_{-1} \approx -120$ dBrad²/Hz
- photodetector $b_{-1} \approx -120$ dBrad²/Hz [Rubiola & al. MTT/JLT 54(2), feb. 2006
- (mixer $b_{-1} \approx -120$ dBrad²/Hz)
- the phase flicker coefficient b_{-1} is about independent of power
- in a cascade, $(b_{-1})_{\text{tot}}$ adds up, regardless of the device order

optical-fiber phase noise? still an experimental parameter

White noise

intensity modulation

$$P(t) = \bar{P}(1 + m \cos \omega_{\mu} t)$$

photocurrent

$$i(t) = \frac{q\eta}{h\nu} \bar{P}(1 + m \cos \omega_{\mu} t)$$

microwave power

$$\bar{P}_{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} m^2 R_0 \left(\frac{q\eta}{h\nu} \right)^2 P^2$$

shot noise

$$N_s = 2 \frac{q^2 \eta}{h\nu} \bar{P} R_0$$

thermal noise

$$N_t = FkT_0$$

total white noise
(one detector)

$$S_{\varphi 0} = \frac{2}{m^2} \left[\overset{\text{shot}}{2 \frac{h\nu_{\lambda}}{\eta} \frac{1}{\bar{P}}} + \overset{\text{thermal}}{\frac{FkT_0}{R_0} \left(\frac{h\nu_{\lambda}}{q\eta} \right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{\bar{P}} \right)^2} \right]$$

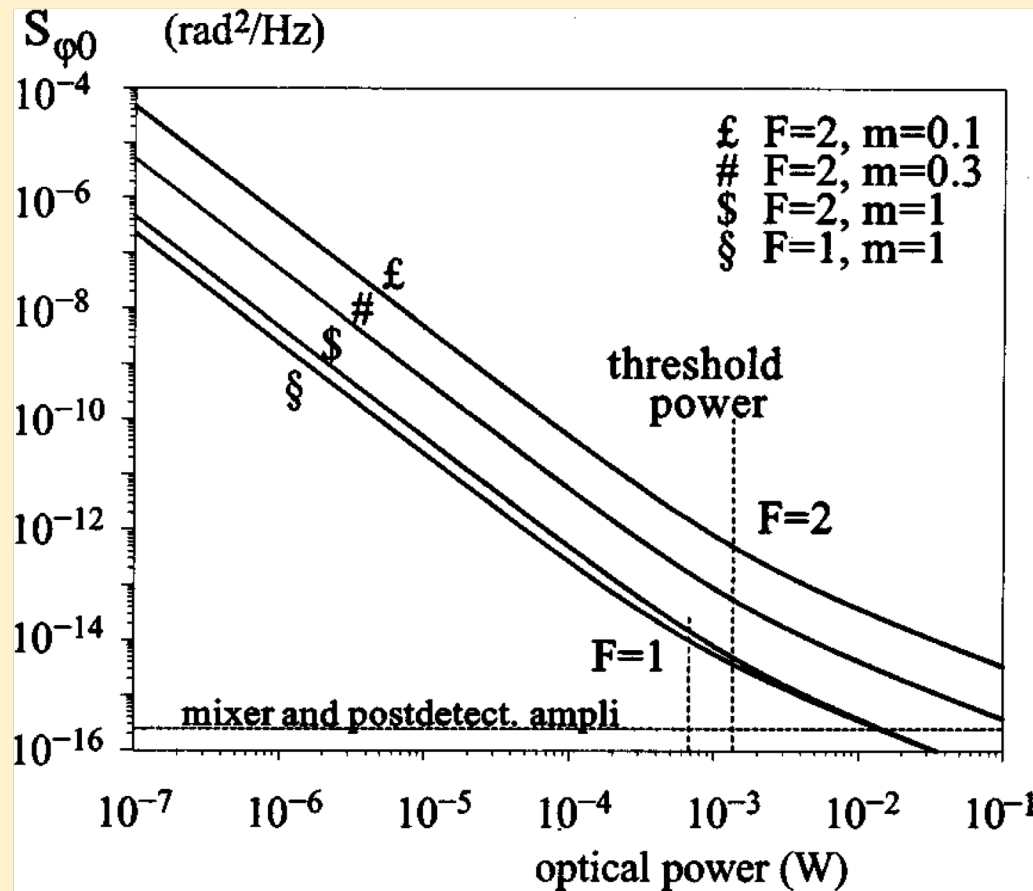
total white noise
(P/2 each detector)

$$S_{\varphi 0} = \frac{16}{m^2} \left[\frac{h\nu_{\lambda}}{\eta} \frac{1}{\bar{P}} + \frac{FkT_0}{R_0} \left(\frac{h\nu_{\lambda}}{q\eta} \right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{\bar{P}} \right)^2 \right]$$

Threshold power

$$S_{\varphi 0} = \frac{16}{m^2} \left[\frac{h\nu_{\lambda}}{\eta} \frac{1}{\bar{P}} + \frac{FkT_0}{R_0} \left(\frac{h\nu_{\lambda}}{q\eta} \right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{\bar{P}} \right)^2 \right]$$

holds for two detectors



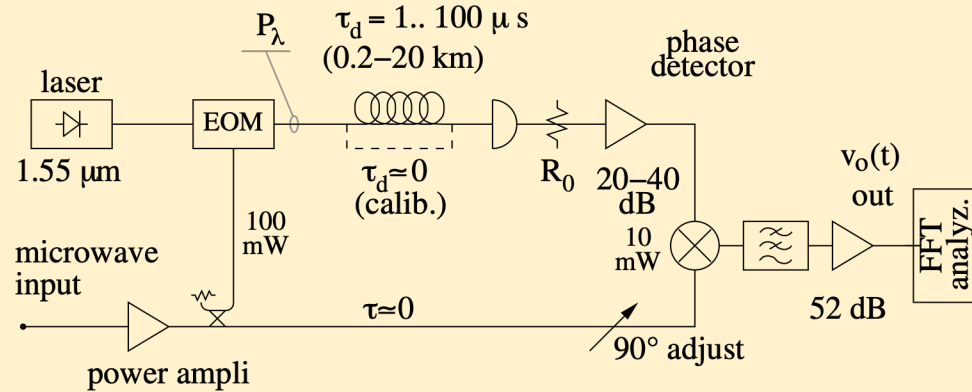
threshold power

$$P_{\lambda,t} = \frac{FkT_0}{R_0} \frac{h\nu_{\lambda}}{q^2\eta}$$

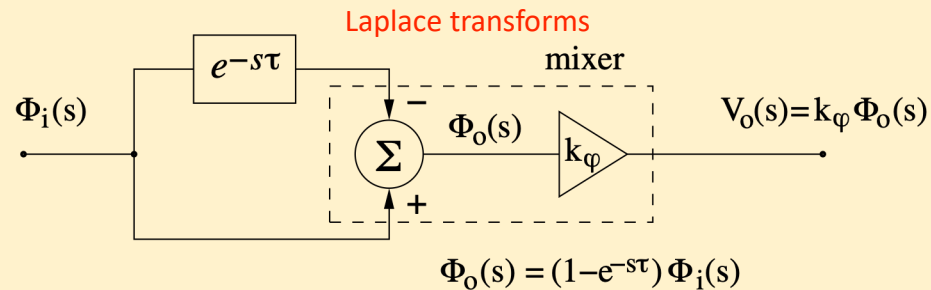
new high-power
 photodetectors 5-10 mW

Opto-electronic discriminator

Rubiola & al., JOSAB 22(5) p.987–997 (2005) --- Volyanskiy & al., JOSAB 25(12) p.2140–2150 (2008)



The short arm can be a microwave cable or a photonic channel



Laplace transforms

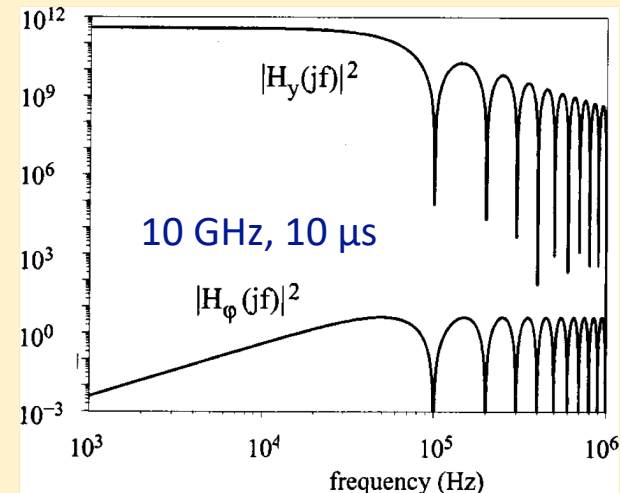
$$\Phi(s) = H_\varphi(s)\Phi_i(s)$$

$$|H_\varphi(f)|^2 = 4 \sin^2(\pi f\tau)$$

$$S_y(f) = |H_y(f)|^2 S_{\varphi i}(f)$$

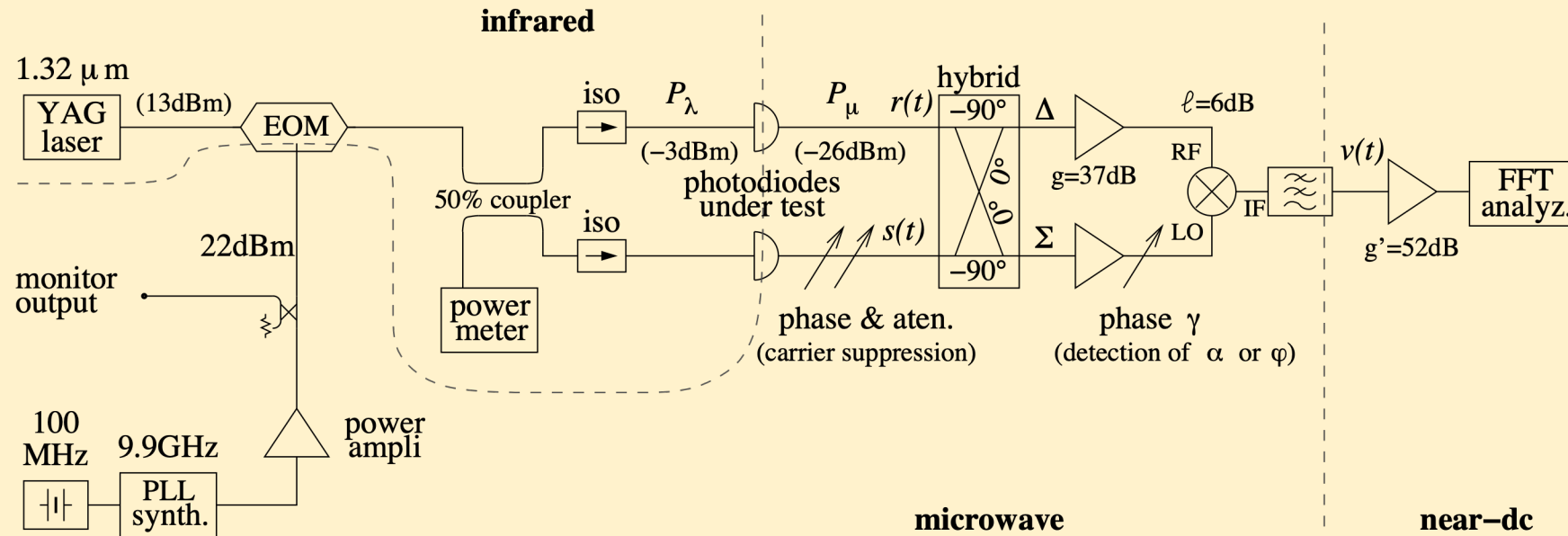
$$|H_y(f)|^2 = \frac{4\nu_0^2}{f^2} \sin^2(\pi f\tau)$$

- delay → frequency-to-phase conversion
- works at any frequency
- long delay (microseconds) is necessary for high sensitivity
- the delay line must be an optical fiber
 fiber: attenuation 0.2 dB/km, thermal coeff. $6.8 \cdot 10^{-6}/\text{K}$
 cable: attenuation 0.8 dB/m, thermal coeff. $\sim 10^{-3}/\text{K}$



Photodetector $1/f$ noise (1)

Rubiola, Salik, Yu, Maleki, IEEE T MTT 54(2) p.816-820, Feb 2006



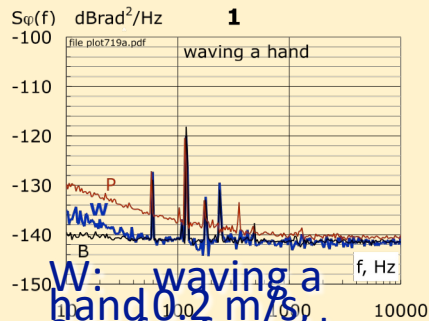
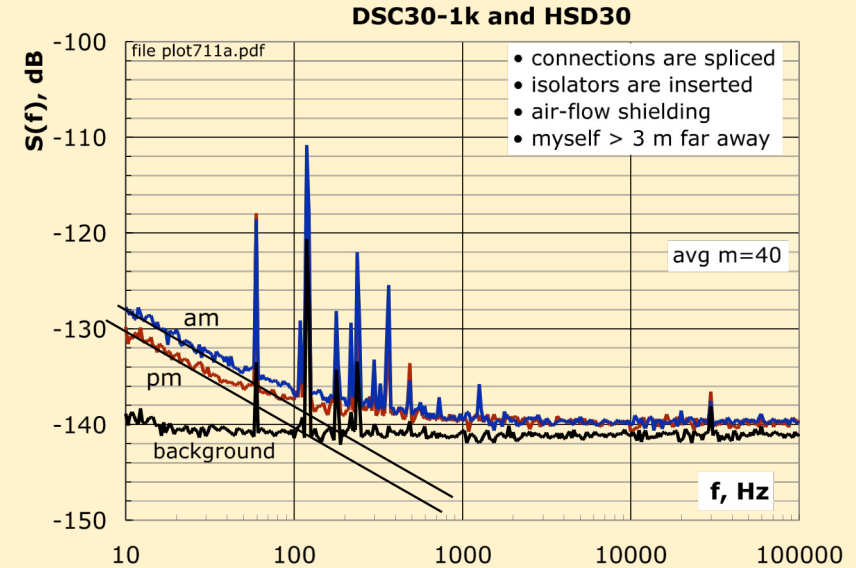
photodiode	S_α (1 Hz)		S_φ (1 Hz)	
	estimate	uncertainty	estimate	uncertainty
HSD30	-122.7	-7.1 +3.4	-127.6	-8.6 +3.6
DSC30-1K	-119.8	-3.1 +2.4	-120.8	-1.8 +1.7
QDMH3	-114.3	-1.5 +1.4	-120.2	-1.7 +1.6
unit	dB/Hz	dB	dBrad ² /Hz	dB

The noise of the Σ amplifier is not detected [Electron. Lett. 39 19 p. 1389 (2003)]

Photodetector 1/f Noise (2)

Rubiola, Salik, Yu, Maleki, MTT 54(2) p.816-820, Feb 2006

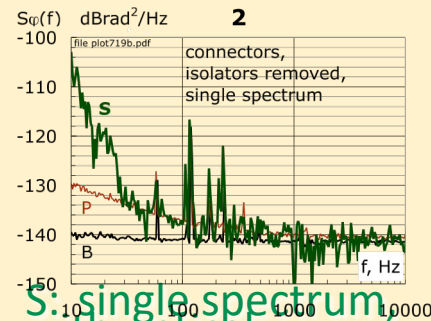
- The photodetectors we measured are similar in AM and PM 1/f noise
- The 1/f noise is about -120 dB[rad²]/Hz
- Other effects are easily mistaken for the photodetector 1/f noise
- Environment and packaging deserve attention in order to take the full benefit from the low noise of the junction



W: waving a hand 0.2 m/s, 3 m far from the system

B: background noise

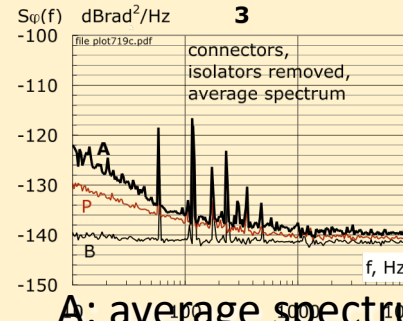
P: photodiode noise



S: single spectrum, with optical connectors and no isolators

B: background noise

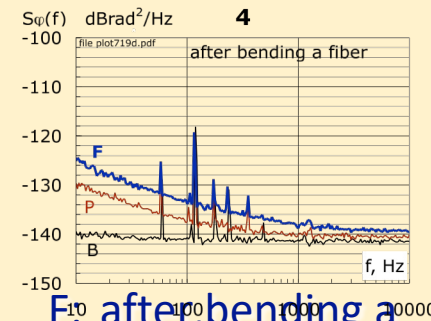
P: photodiode noise



A: average spectrum, with optical connectors and no isolators

B: background noise

P: photodiode noise

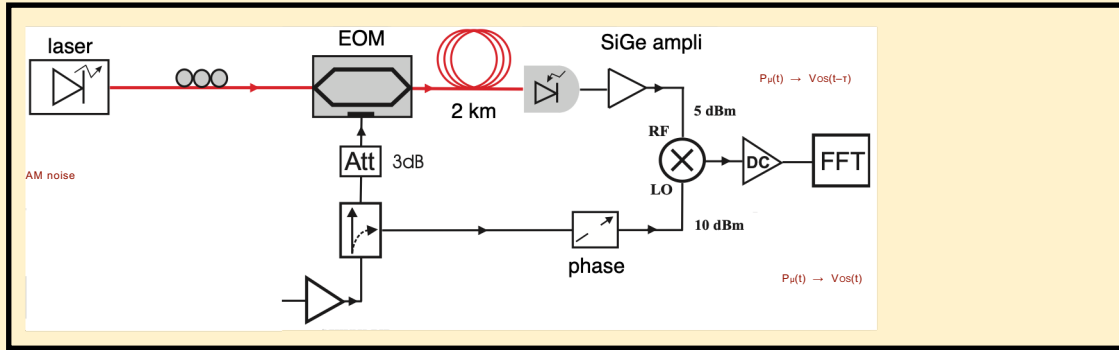


F: after bending a fiber, 1/f noise can increase unpredictably

B: background noise

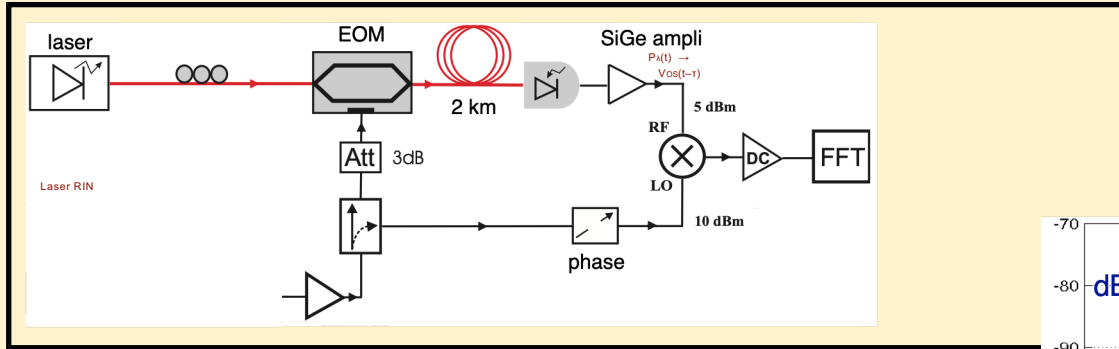
P: photodiode noise

The effect of AM noise and RIN



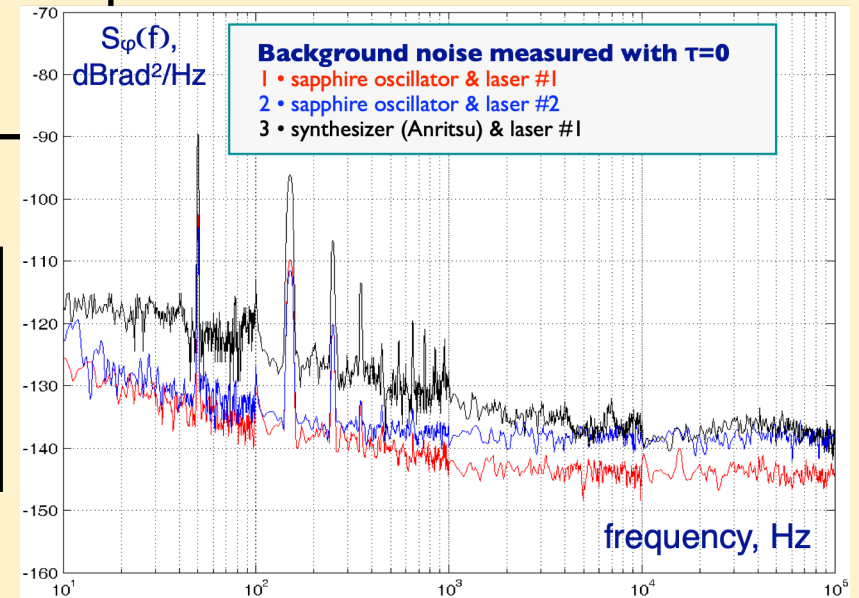
The AM noise turns into Vos fluctuation, which may limit the sensitivity

The delay de-correlates the AM noise. Thus there is no null of sensitivity



The laser RIN turns into Vos fluctuation, which may limit the sensitivity

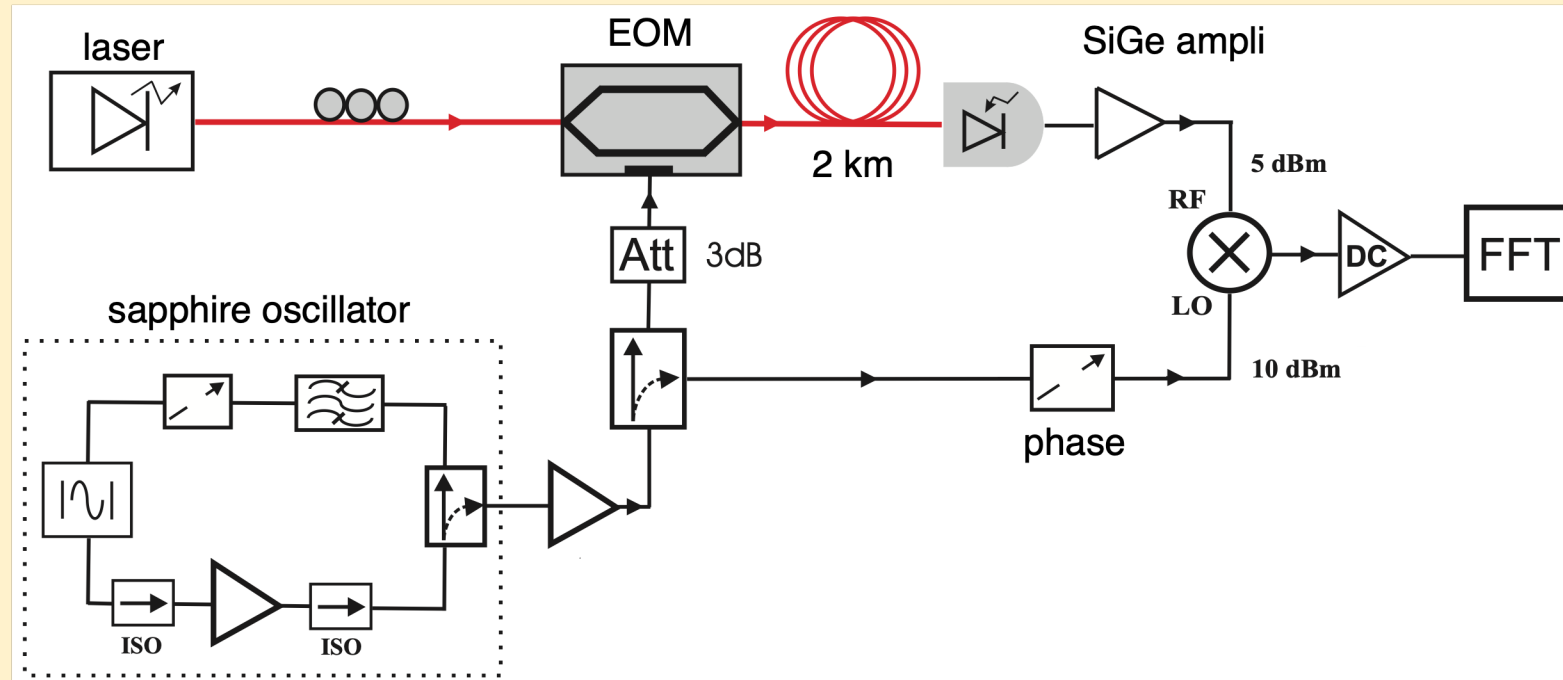
Instrument background measured at zero-length fiber
 Lowest AM noise and Lowest RIN give the lowest background noise



Volyanskiy & al., JOSAB (in press).
 Also arXiv:0807.3494v1 [physics.optics] July 2008.

Single-channel instrument

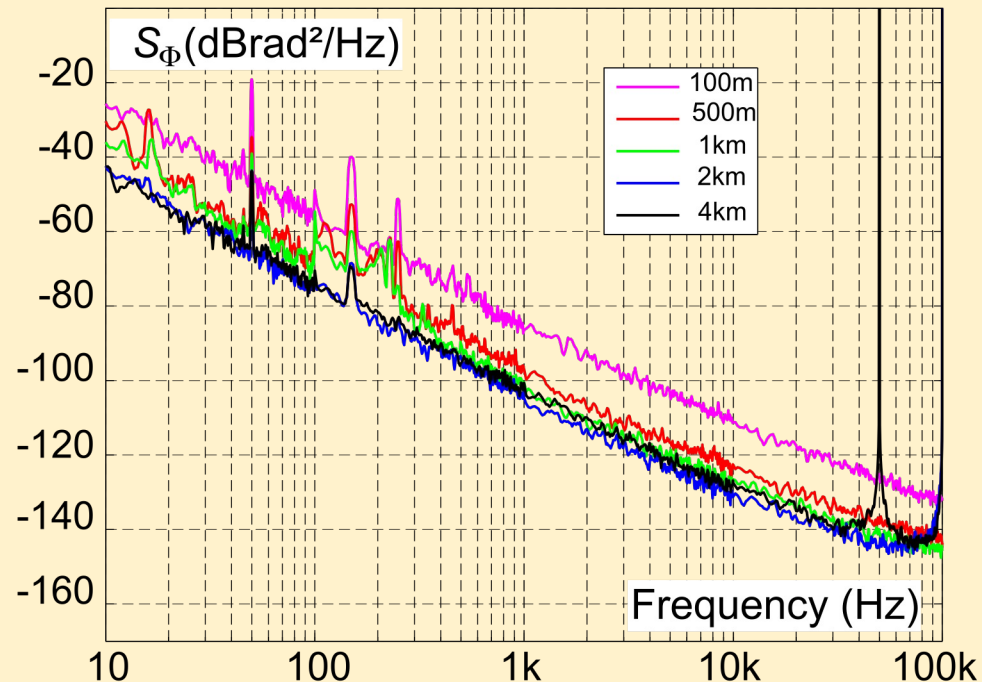
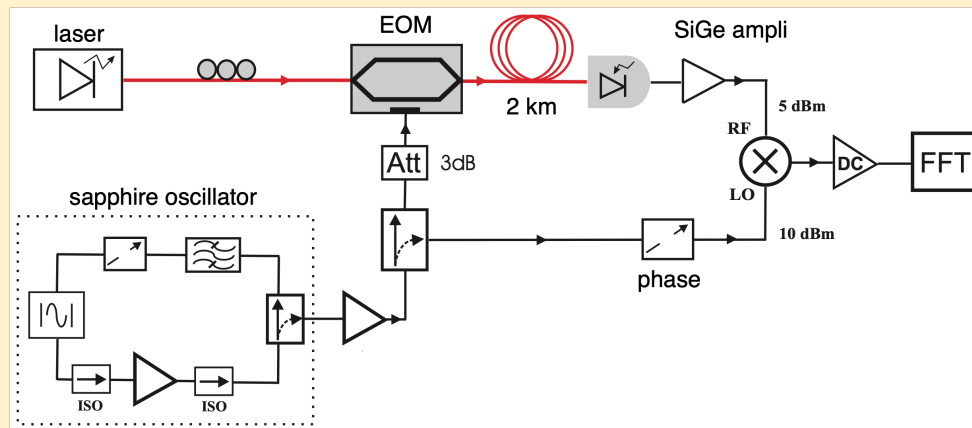
Volyanskiy & al., JOSAB 25(12) 2140-2150, Dec.2008. Also arXiv:0807.3494v1 [physics.optics] July 2008.



- The laser RIN can limit the instrument sensitivity
- In some cases, the AM noise of the oscillator under test turns into a serious problem (got in trouble with an Anritsu synthesizer)

Measurement of a sapphire oscillator

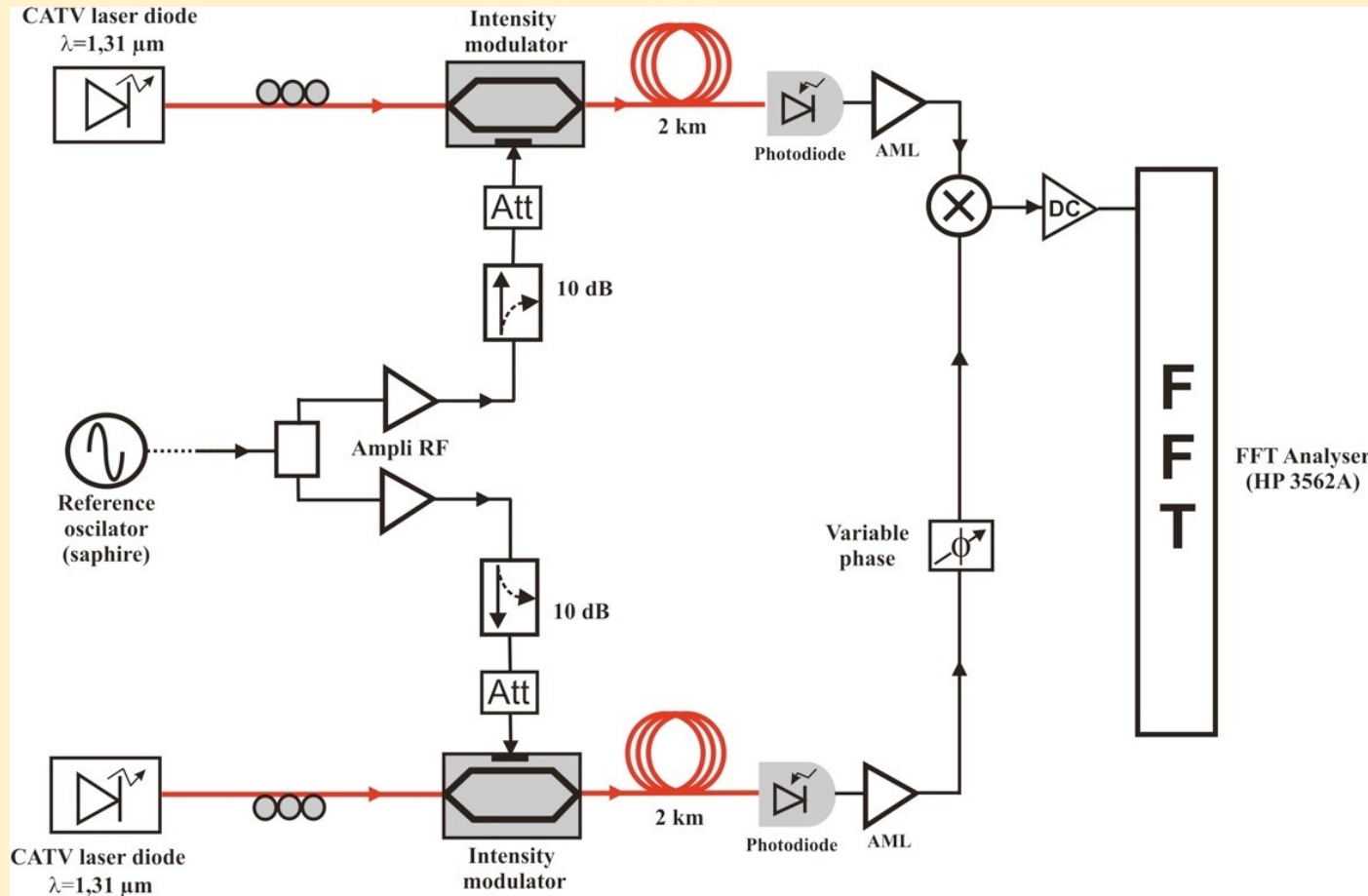
Volyanskiy & al., JOSAB 25(12) 2140-2150, Dec.2008. Also arXiv:0807.3494v1 [physics.optics] July 2008.



- The instrument noise scales as $1/\tau$, yet the blue and black plots overlap
magenta, red, green \Rightarrow instrument noise
blue, black \Rightarrow noise of the sapphire oscillator under test
- The $1/f^3$ phase noise (frequency flicker) outperforms the 10 GHz sapphire oscillator (the lowest-noise microwave oscillator)
- Low AM noise of the oscillator under test is necessary

Measurement of the optical-fiber noise

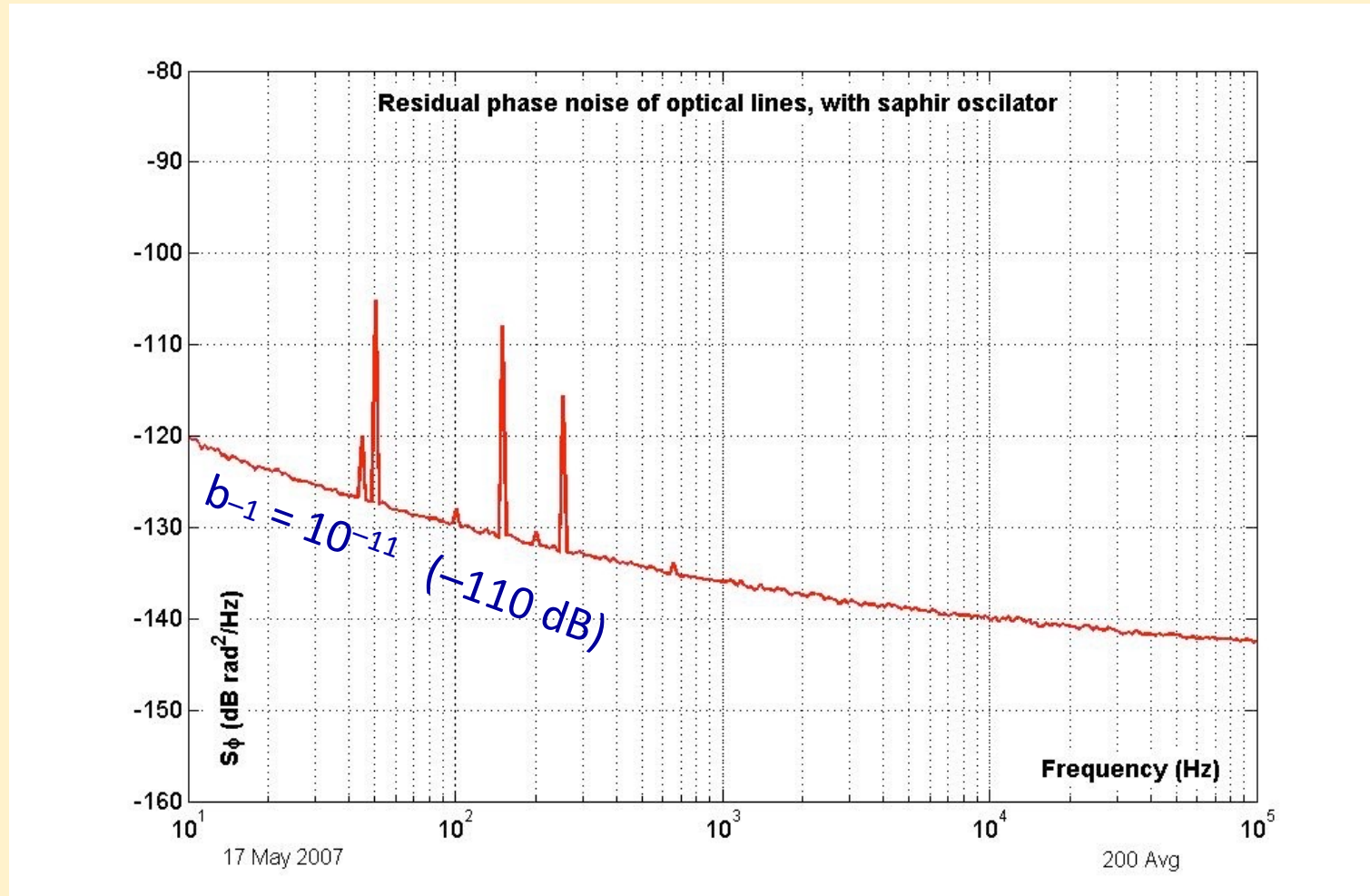
Volynskiy & al., JOSAB 25(12) 2140-2150, Dec.2008. Also arXiv:0807.3494v1 [physics.optics] July 2008.



- matching the delays, the oscillator phase noise cancels
- this scheme gives the total noise $2 \times (\text{ampli} + \text{fiber} + \text{photodiode} + \text{ampli}) + \text{mixer}$ thus it enables only to assess an upper bound of the fiber noise

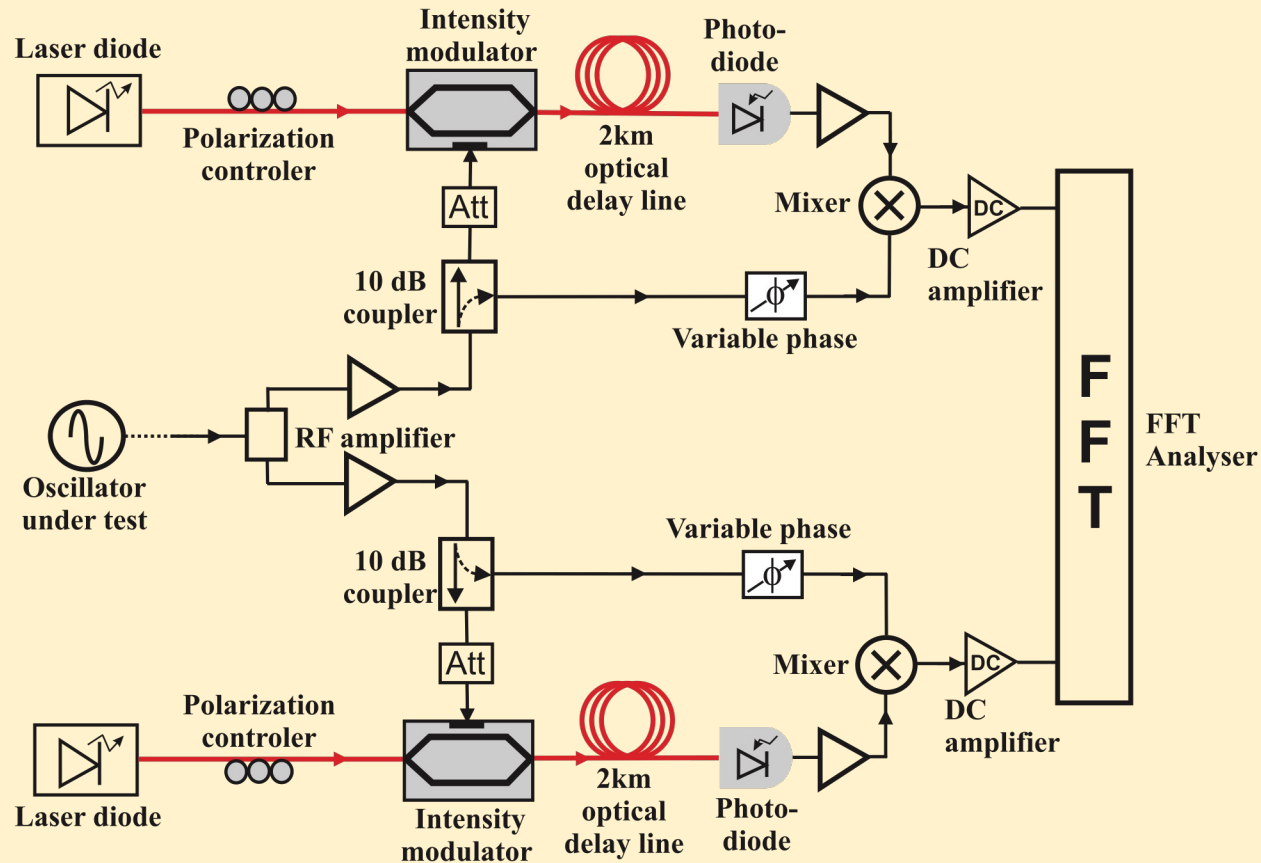
Measurement of the Optical-Fiber Noise

Volyanskiy & al., JOSAB 25(12) 2140-2150, Dec.2008. Also arXiv:0807.3494v1 [physics.optics] July 2008.



Dual-channel (correlation) measurement

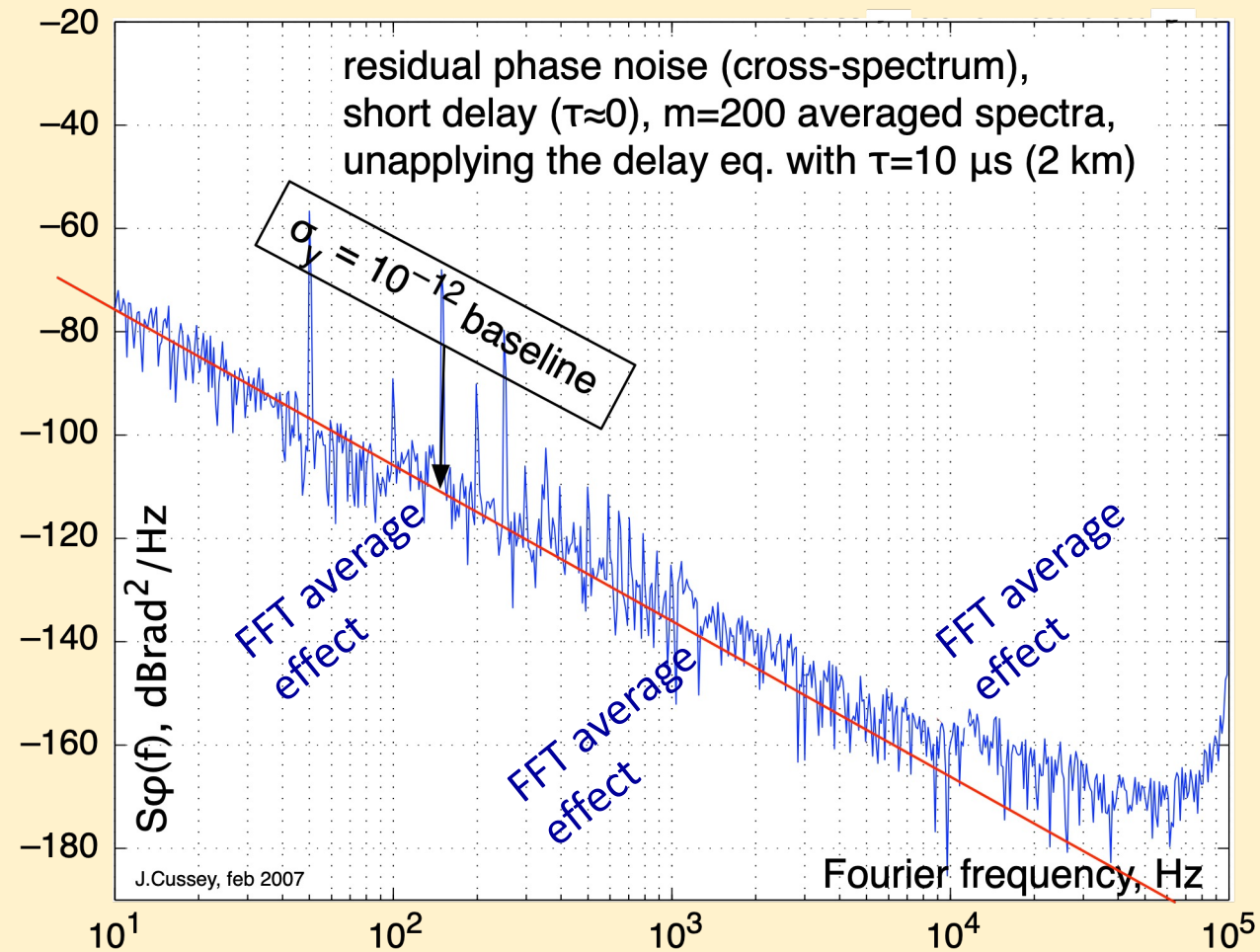
Volyanskiy & al, JOSA B and arXiv:0807.3494v1 [physics.optics] July 2008



Improvements

- Understanding flicker (photodetectors and amplifiers)
- SiGe technology provides lower 1/f phase noise
- CATV laser diodes exhibit lower AM/FM noise
- Low V_{π} EOMs show higher stability because of the lower RF power
- Optical fiber sub-mK temperature controlled

Dual-channel (correlation) measurement



Physical phenomena in optical fibers

Birefringence. Common optical fibers are made of amorphous Ge-doped silica, for an ideal fiber is not expected to be birefringent. Nonetheless, actual fibers show birefringent behavior due to a variety of reasons, namely: core ellipticity, internal defects and forces, external forces (bending, twisting, tension, kinks), external electric and magnetic fields. The overall effect is that light propagates through the fiber core in a non-degenerate, orthogonal pair of axes at different speed. Polarization effects are strongly reduced in polarization maintaining (PM) fibers. In this case, the cladding structure stresses the core in order to increase the difference in refraction index between the two modes.

Polarization mode dispersion (PMD). This effect rises from the random birefringence of the optical fiber. The optical pulse can choose many different paths, for it broadens into a bell-like shape bounded by the propagation times determined by the highest and the lowest refraction index. Polarization vanishes exponentially along the light path. It is to be understood that PMD results from the vector sum over multiple forward paths, for it yields a well-shaped dispersion pattern.

Bragg scattering. In the presence of monochromatic light (usually X-rays), the periodic structure of a crystal turns the randomness of scattering into an interference pattern. This is a weak phenomenon at micron wavelengths because the inter-atom distance is of the order of 0.3--0.5 nm. Bragg scattering is not present in amorphous materials.

Brillouin scattering. In solids, the photon-atom collision involves the emission or the absorption of an acoustic phonon, hence the scattered photons have a wavelength slightly different from incoming photons. An exotic form of Brillouin scattering has been reported in optical fibers, due to a transverse mechanical resonance in the cladding, which stresses the core and originates a noise bump on the region of 200--400 MHz.

Raman scattering. This phenomenon is similar to Rayleigh scattering, but it involves the optical branch of phonons.

Rayleigh scattering. This is random scattering due to molecules in a disordered medium, by which light loses direction and polarization. A small fraction of the light intensity is thereby back-scattered one or more times, for it reaches the fiber end after a stochastic to-and-fro path, which originates phase noise. In SM fibers at 1.55 μm it contributes 0.15 dB/km to the optical loss.

Kerr effect. This effect states that an electric field changes the refraction index. So, the electric field of light modulates the refraction index, which originates the 2nd-order nonlinearity.

Discontinuities. Discontinuities cause the wave to be reflected and/or to change polarization. As the pulse can be split into a pulse train depending on wavelength, this effect can turn into noise.

Group delay dispersion (GVD). There exist dispersion-shifted fibers, that have a minimum GVD at 1550 nm. GVD compensators are also available.

PMD-Kerr compensation. In principle, it is possible that PMD and Kerr effect null one another. This requires to launch the appropriate power into each polarization mode, for two power controllers are needed. Of course, this is incompatible with PM fibers.

Which is the most important effect? In the community of optical communications, PMD is considered the most significant effect. Yet, this is related to the fact that excessive PMD increases the error rate and destroys the eye pattern of a channel. In the case of the photonic oscillator, the signal is a pure sinusoid, with no symbol randomness.



AM-PM Noise in Electronic Devices

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Outline

Introduction

White and flicker noise

(Environment)

Noise in amplifier networks

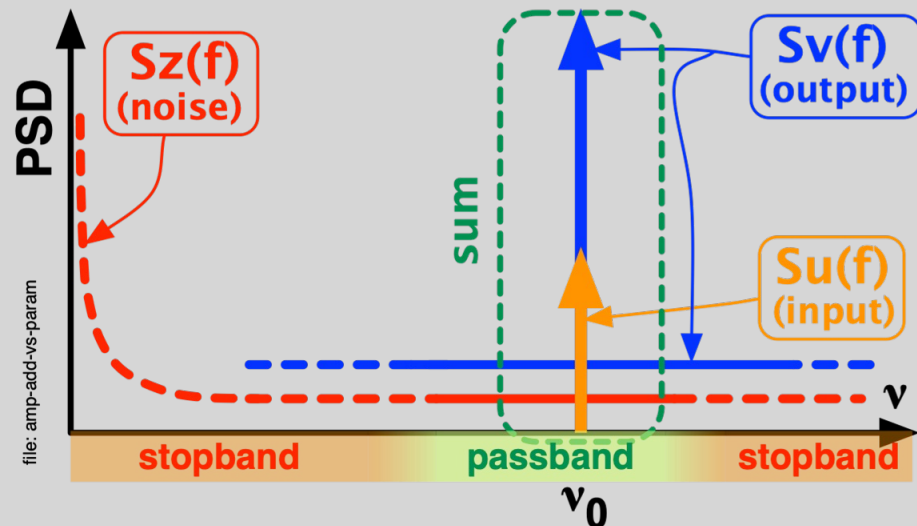
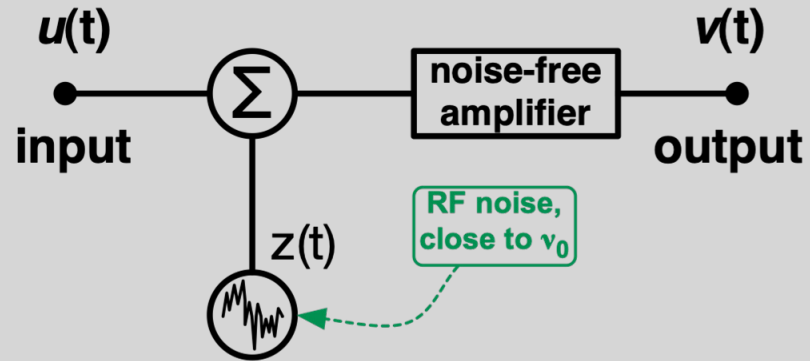
Low-flicker amplifiers

Experiments

home page <http://rubiola.org>

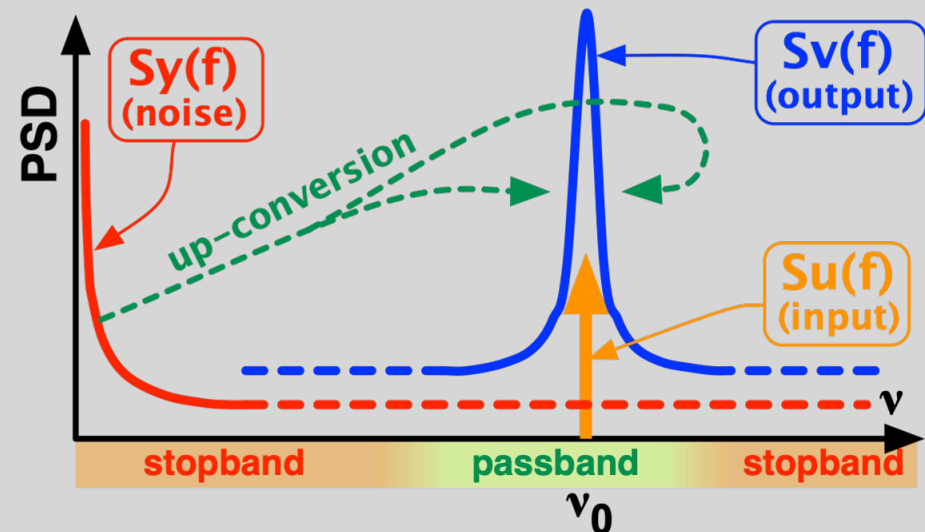
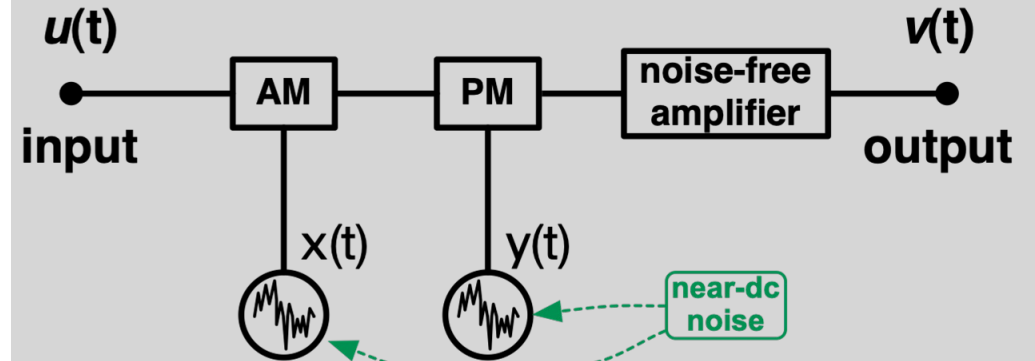
Additive vs Parametric Noise

additive noise



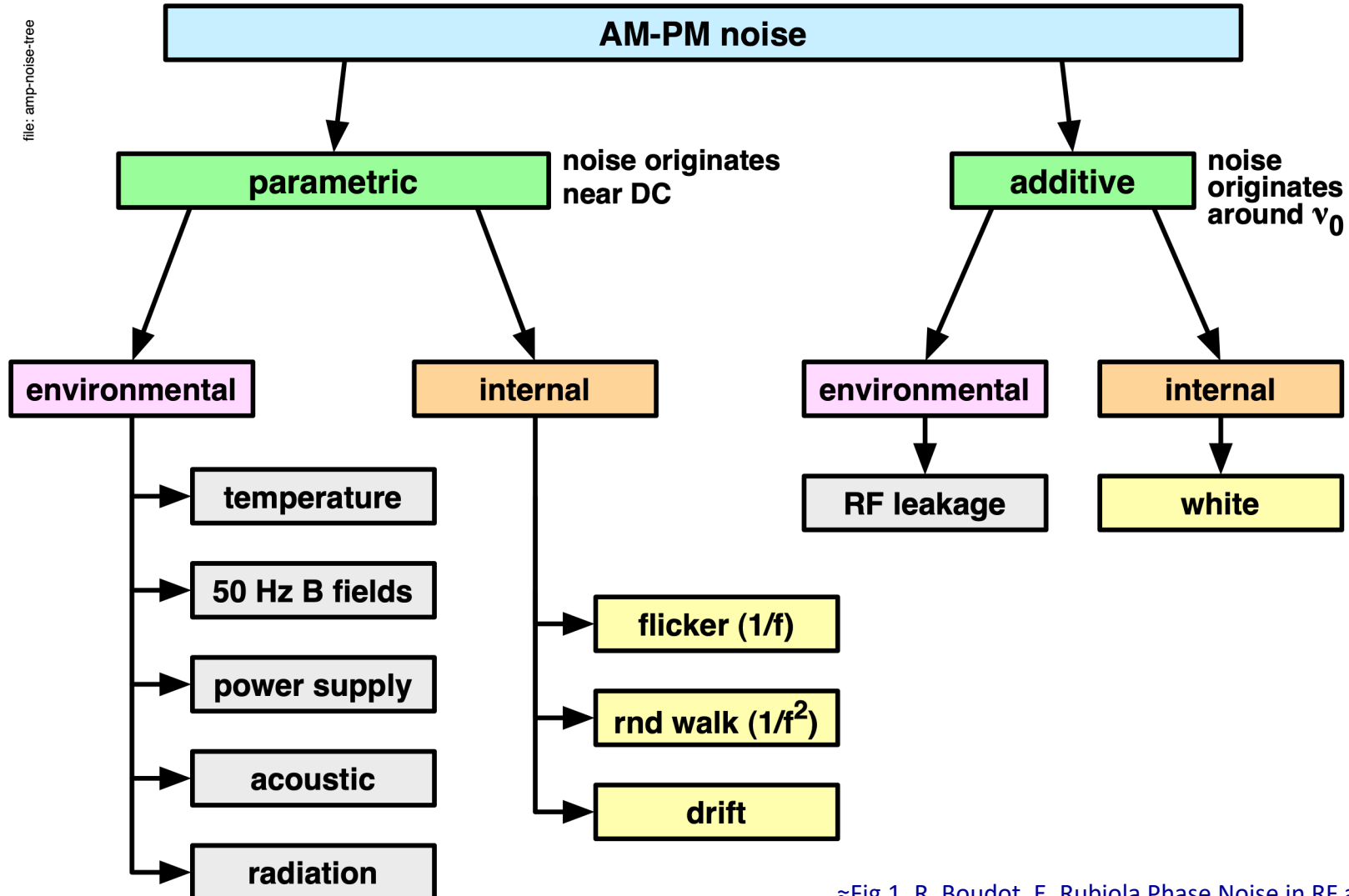
the noise sidebands are independent of the carrier

parametric noise

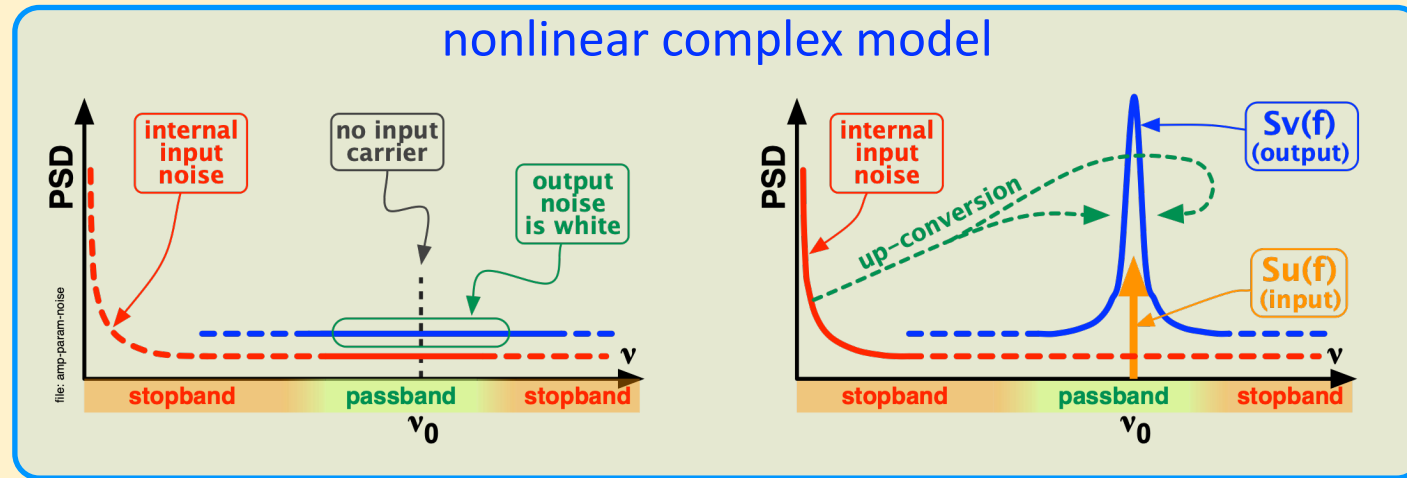


the noise sidebands are proportional to the carrier

AM-PM Noise Types



Amplifier Flicker Noise



$$v_i(t) = V_i e^{i\omega_0 t} + n'(t) + n''(t)$$

carrier near-dc noise

the parametric nature of $1/f$ noise is hidden in n' and n''

$$v_o(t) = a_1 v_i(t) + a_2 v_i^2(t) + \dots$$

non-linear (parametric) amplifier

substitute
(careful, this hides the down-conversion)

expand and select the ω_0 terms

$$v_o(t) = V_i \left\{ a_1 + 2a_2 [n'(t) + n''(t)] \right\} e^{i\omega_0 t}$$

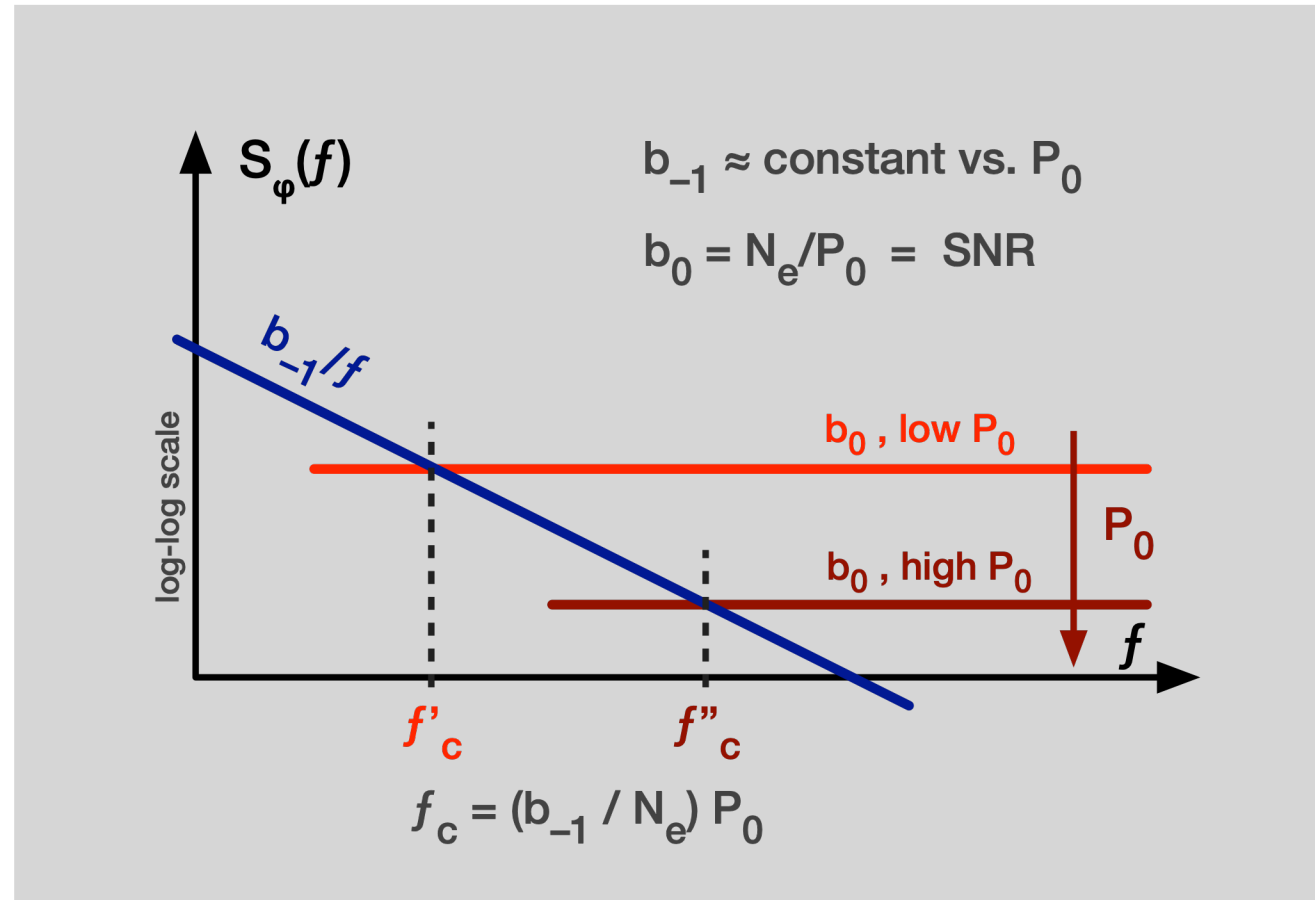
The noise sidebands are proportional to the input carrier

get AM and PM noise

$$\alpha(t) = 2 \frac{a_2}{a_1} n'(t) \quad \varphi(t) = 2 \frac{a_2}{a_1} n''(t)$$

The AM and the PM noise are independent of V_i thus of power

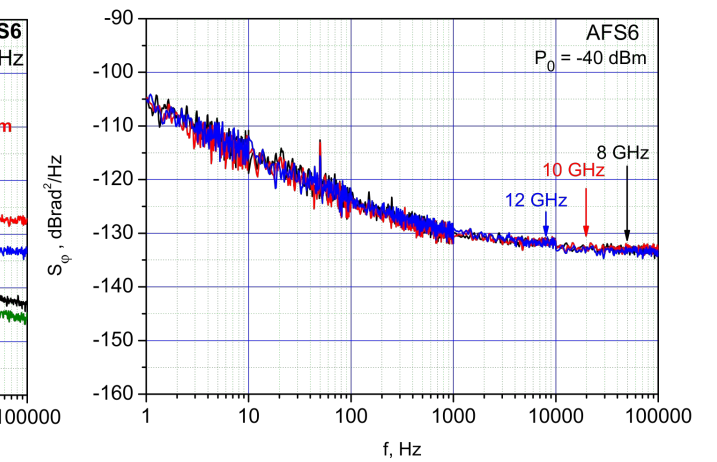
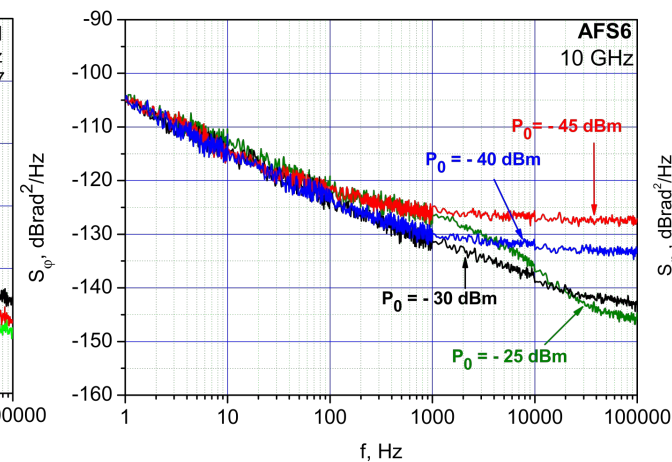
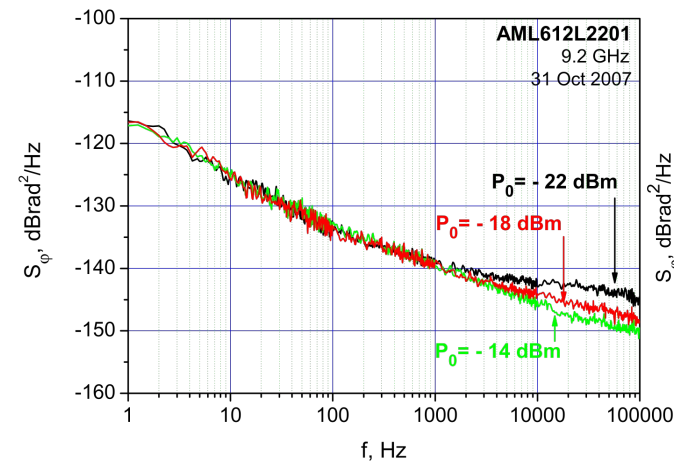
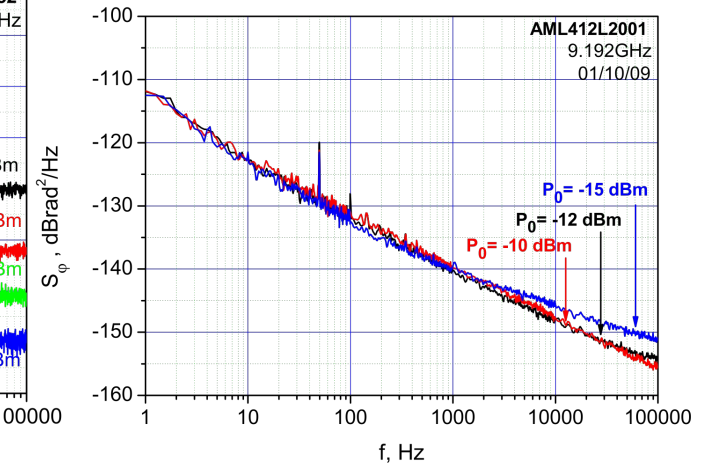
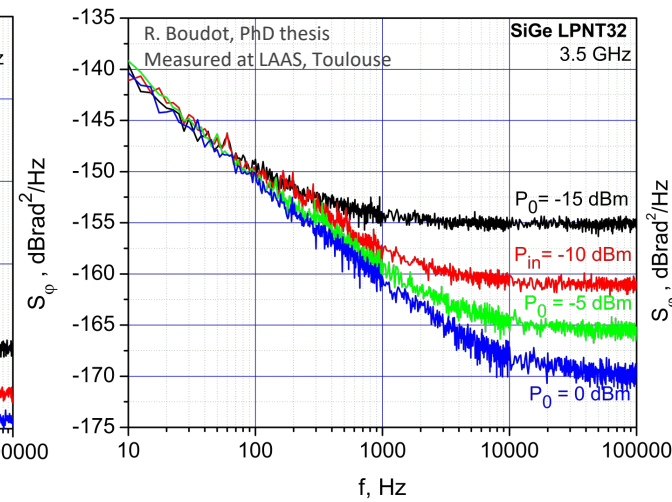
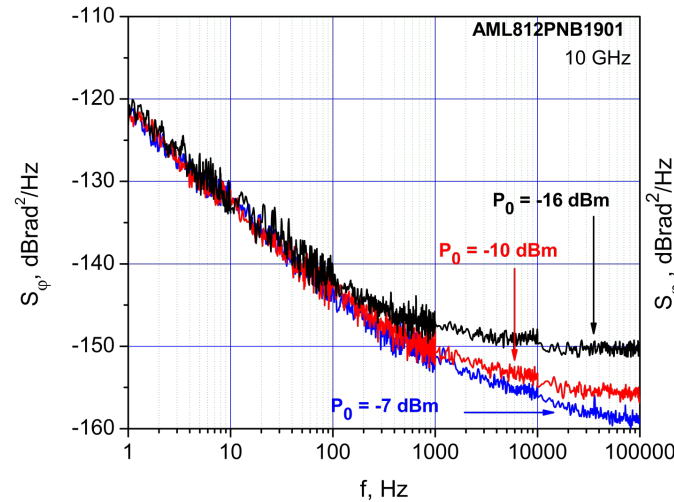
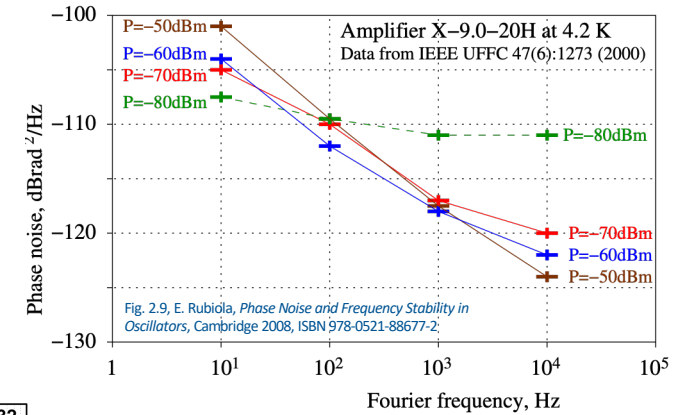
Combining White and Flicker Noise



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

Phase Noise vs Power

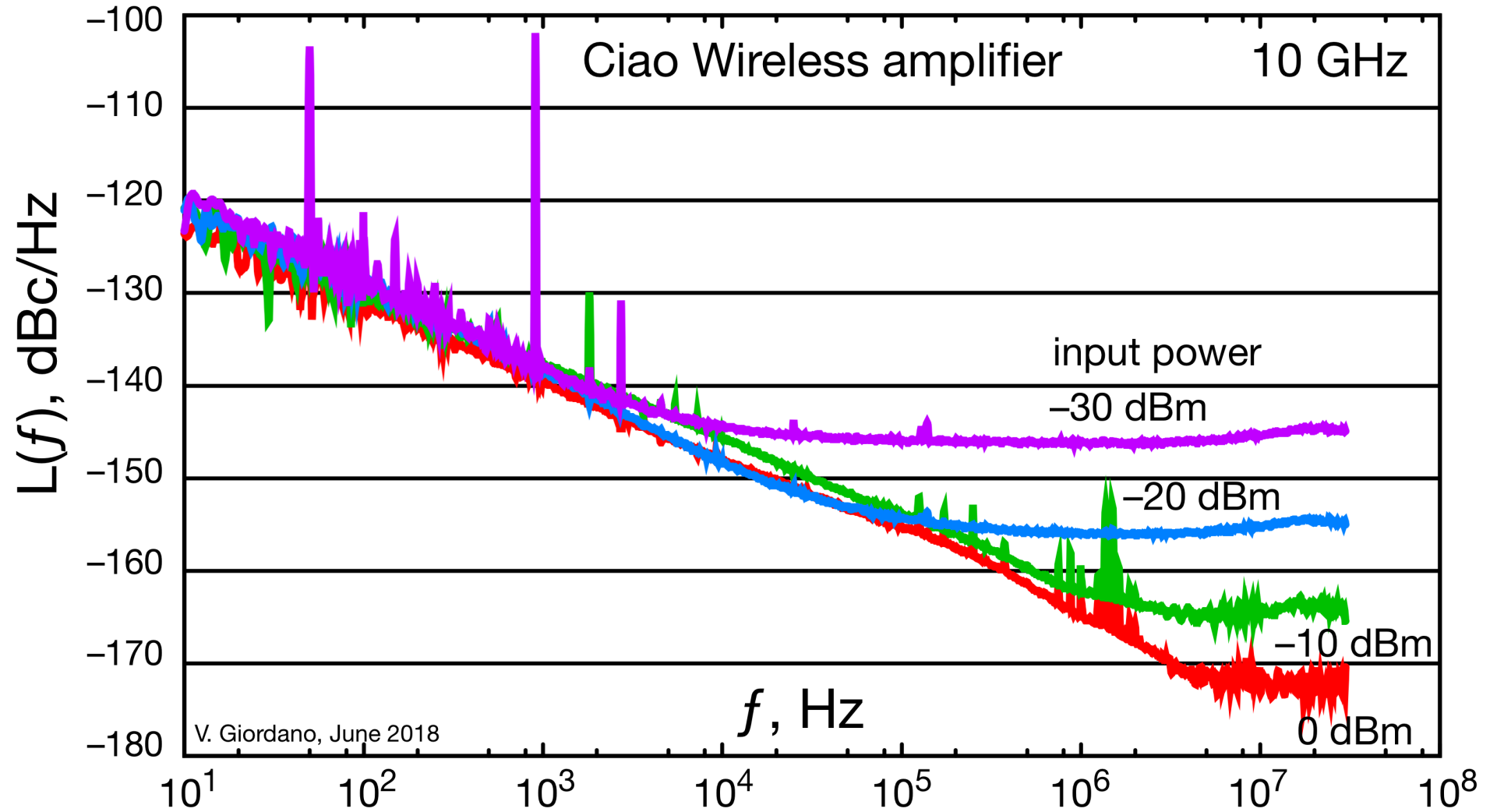
- The $1/f$ phase noise b_{-1} is about independent of power
- The white noise b_0 scales as the inverse of the power
- The corner frequency is misleading because it depends on power



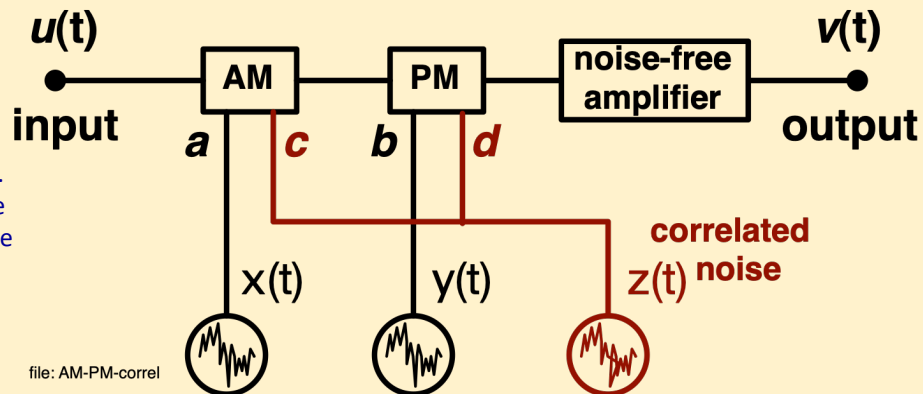
R. Boudot, E. Rubiola *Phase Noise in RF and Microwave Amplifiers*, IEEE T UFFC 59(12) p.613-2628, Dec 2012 (Fig.6 a-f, rearranged)

Example – Microwave Amplifier

Courtesy of V. Giordano,
FEMTO-ST Institute



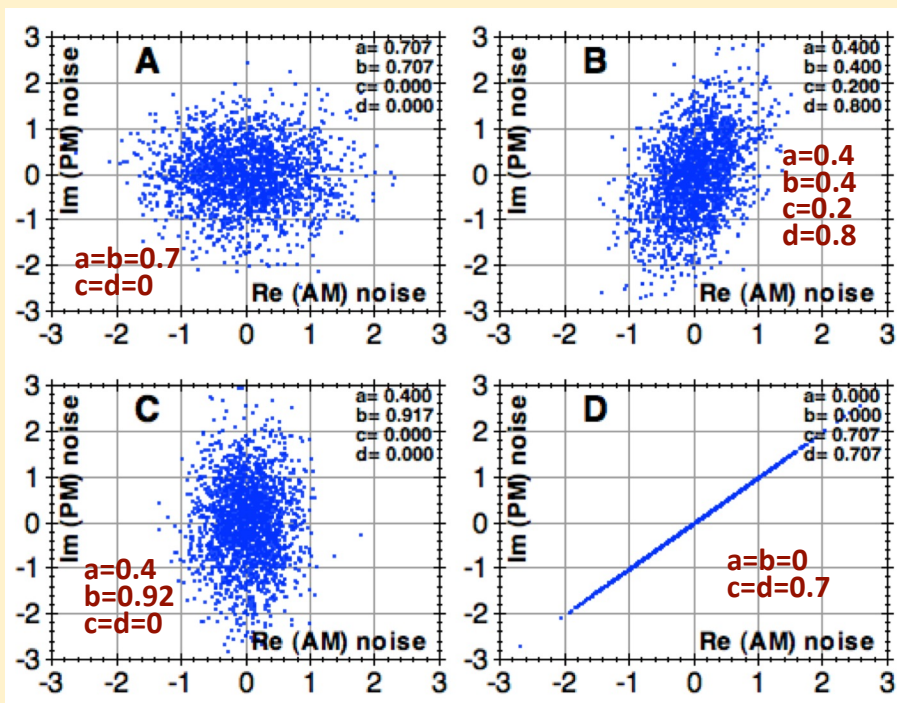
Correlation Between AM and PM Noise



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

- 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.

file: AM-PM-correl



$$a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 = 1$$

Fig.11, R. Boudot, E. Rubiola Phase Noise in RF and Microwave Amplifiers, IEEE T UFFC 59(12) p.613-2628, Dec 2012

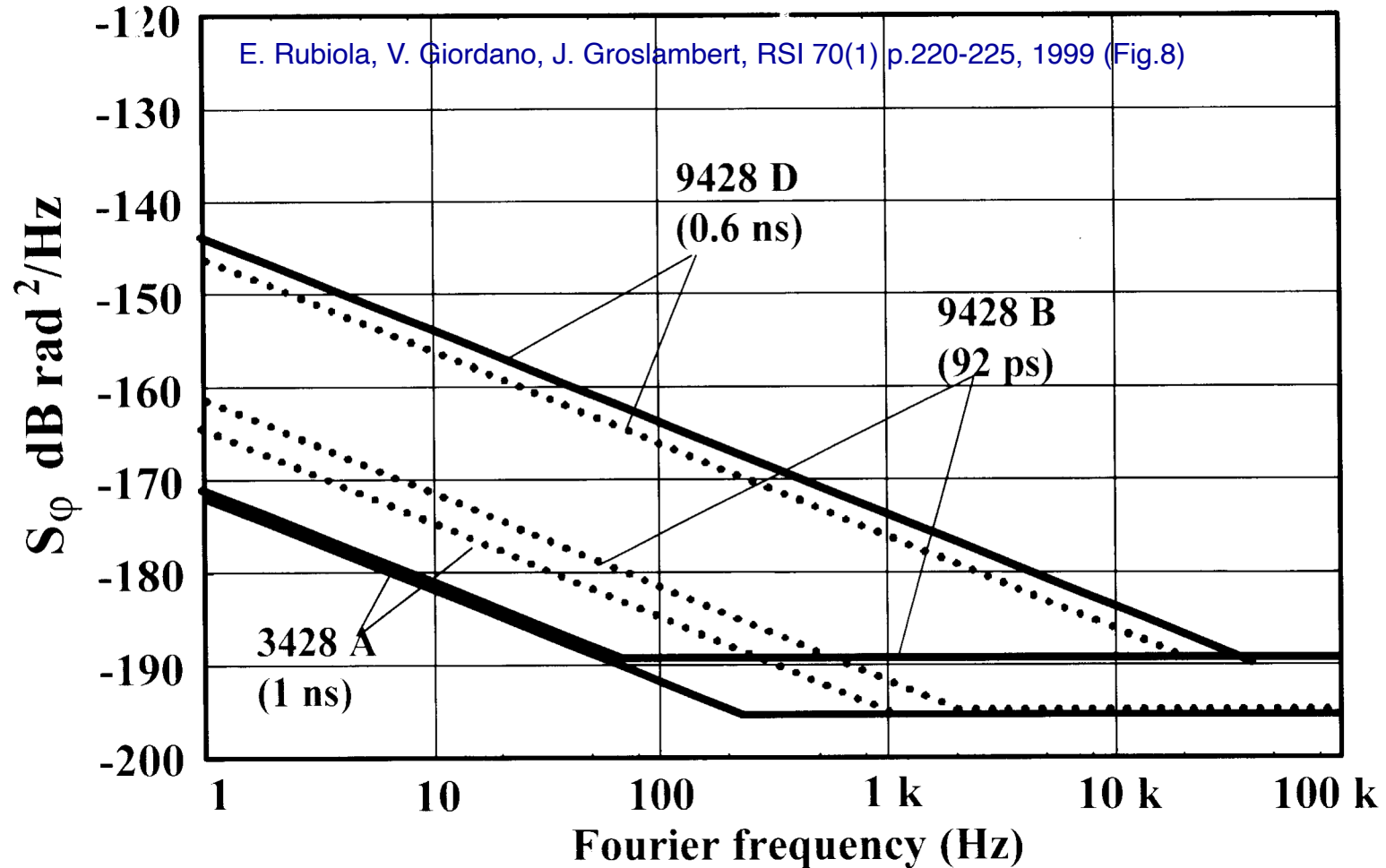
Flicker of Some Amplifiers

Amplifier	Frequency (GHz)	Gain (dB)	P_1 dB (dBm)	F (dB)	DC bias	b_{-1} (meas.) (dBrad ² /Hz)
AML812PNB1901	8 – 12	22	17	7	15 V, 425 mA	–122
AML412L2001	4 – 12	20	10	2.5	15 V, 100 mA	–112.5
AML612L2201	6 – 12	22	10	2	15 V, 100 mA	–115.5
AML812PNB2401	8 – 12	24	26	7	15 V, 1.1A	–119
AFS6	8 – 12	44	16	1.2	15 V, 171 mA	–105
JS2	8 – 12	17.5	13.5	1.3	15 V, 92 mA	–106
SiGe LPNT32	3.5	13	11	1	2 V, 10 mA	–130
Avantek UTC573	0.01 – 0.5	14.5	13	3.5	15 V, 100 mA	–141.5
Avantek UTO512	0.005–0.5	21	8	2.5	15 V, 23 mA	–137

Flicker Noise of Components

device	PM b_{-1}	AM h_{-1}	frequency	References and comments
Si bipolar HF-UHF amplifier	-135 ... -145		5...1000 MHz	(general experience)
SiGe HBT μ wave amplifier	-120 ... -130		4...20 GHz	(general experience)
GaAs HBT μ wave amplifier	-95 ... -110		3...10 GHz	(general experience)
Cr ³⁺ maser amplifier (0.2 cm ³)	\approx -160		11 GHz	G.J.Dick, private discussion
HF-UHF double-balanced mixer	-135 ... -150		5...1000 MHz	(general experience)
μ wave double-balanced mixer	-110 ... -125		4...20 GHz	(general experience)
μ wave circulator (iso port)	-170	-170	9.1 GHz	Rubiola & al, IEEE T.UFFC 51(8) 957-963 (2004)
μ wave isolator (terminated circulator)	-150	-150	\approx 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)
μ wave variable attenuator (absorber)	-150		9.1 GHz	Rubiola, Giordano, RSI 70(1) 220-225 (1999)
μ wave line stretcher	-150		100 MHz	Rubiola, Giordano, RSI 70(1) 220-225 (1999)
μ wave power detector (Schottky)	----	-120	10 GHz	Grop, Rubiola, preliminary (in progress)
μ wave 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)

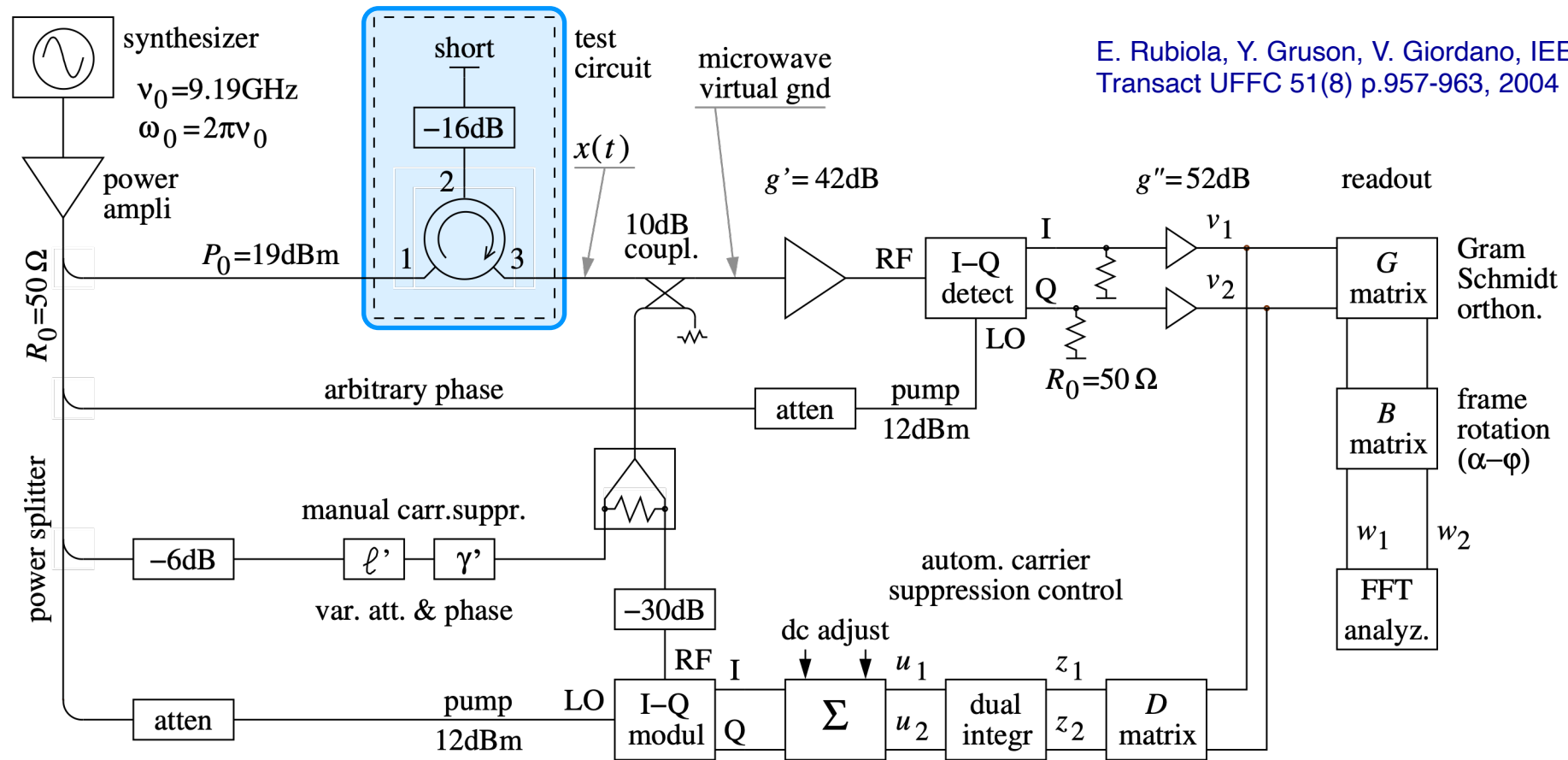
Line Stretcher



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

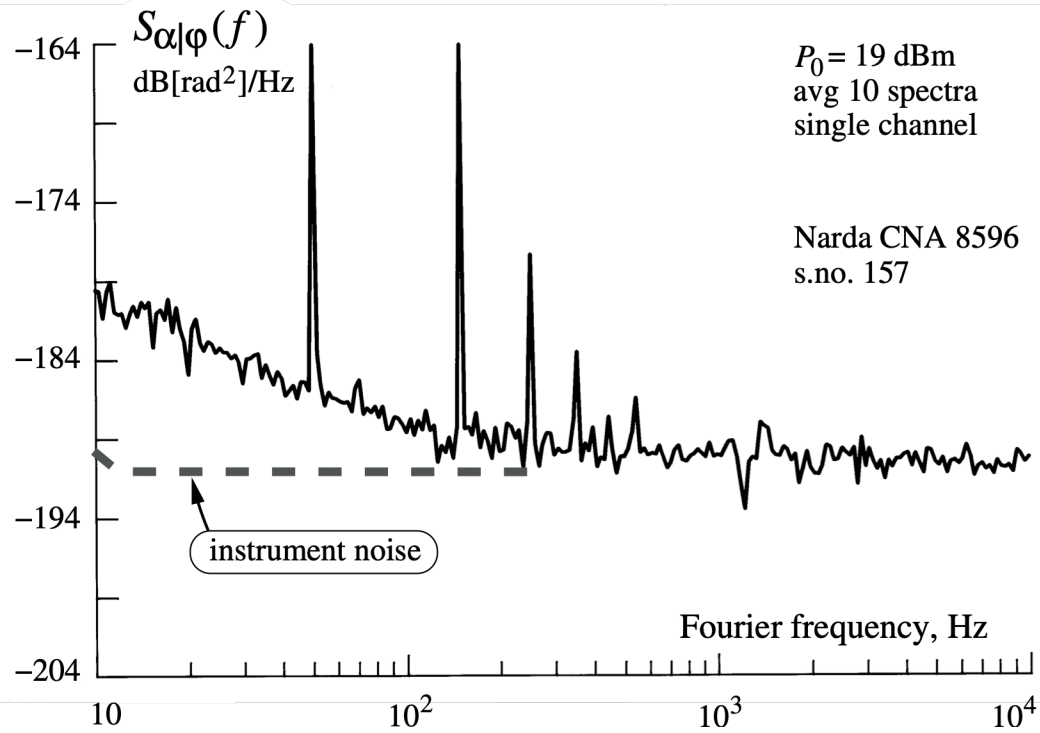
solid line: PM noise,
 dotted line: AM noise

Circulators in Isolation Mode



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

Circulators in Isolation Mode



E. Rubiola, Y. Gruson, V. Giordano, IEEE
 Transact UFFC 51(8) p.957-963, 2004 (Fig.4)

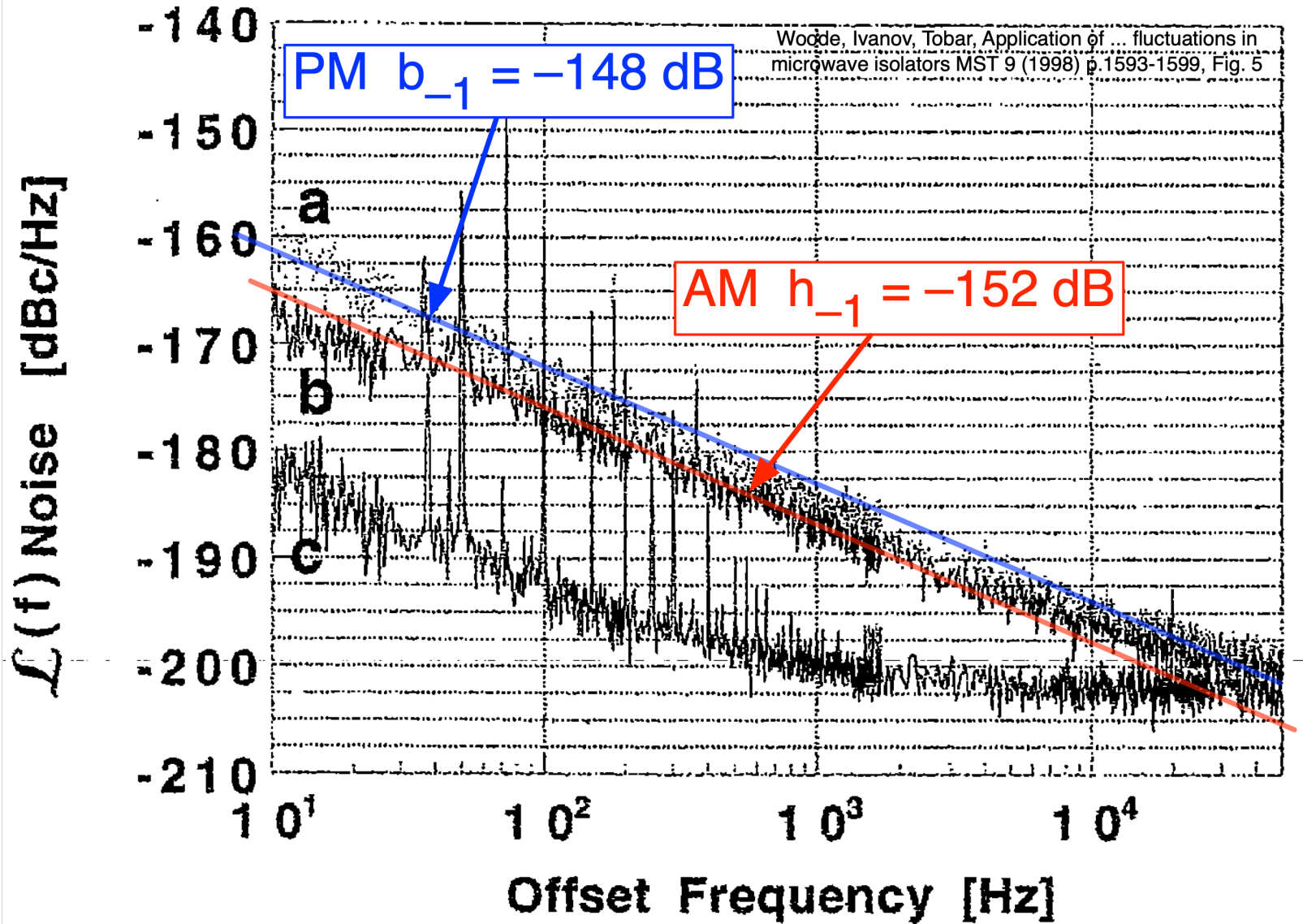
E. Rubiola, Y. Gruson, V. Giordano, IEEE Transact
 UFFC 51(8) p.957-963, 2004 (Tab.I, artwork)

factory and device type	ser. no.	$S_{\alpha \varphi}(1 \text{ Hz})$ dB[rad ²]/Hz		equivalent stability	
		min.	max.	oscillator $\sigma_y(\tau), \times 10^{-15}$	mechanical $\sigma_l(\tau), \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}$
Aercomm J180-124	1320	-165.1	-162.6	22	36
Dorado 4CCC 10-1 *	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



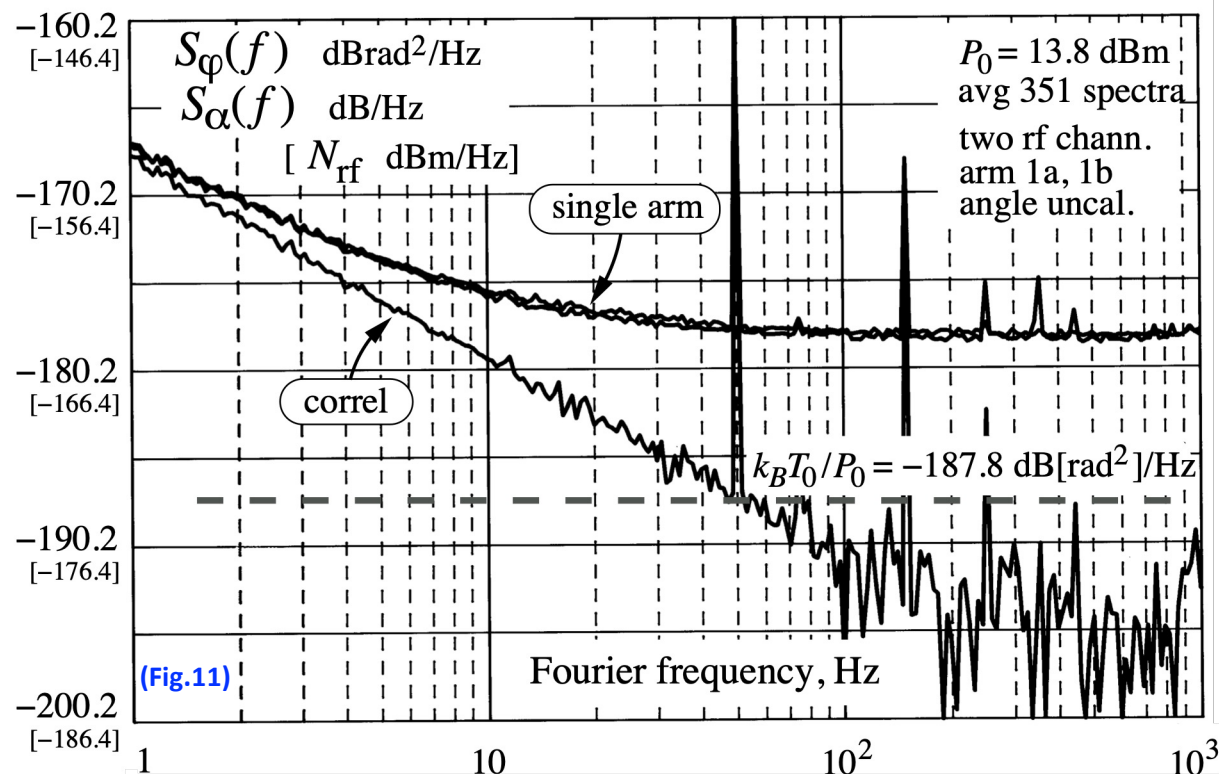
The typical $1/f$ noise b_{-1} is of the order of -150 dB

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)

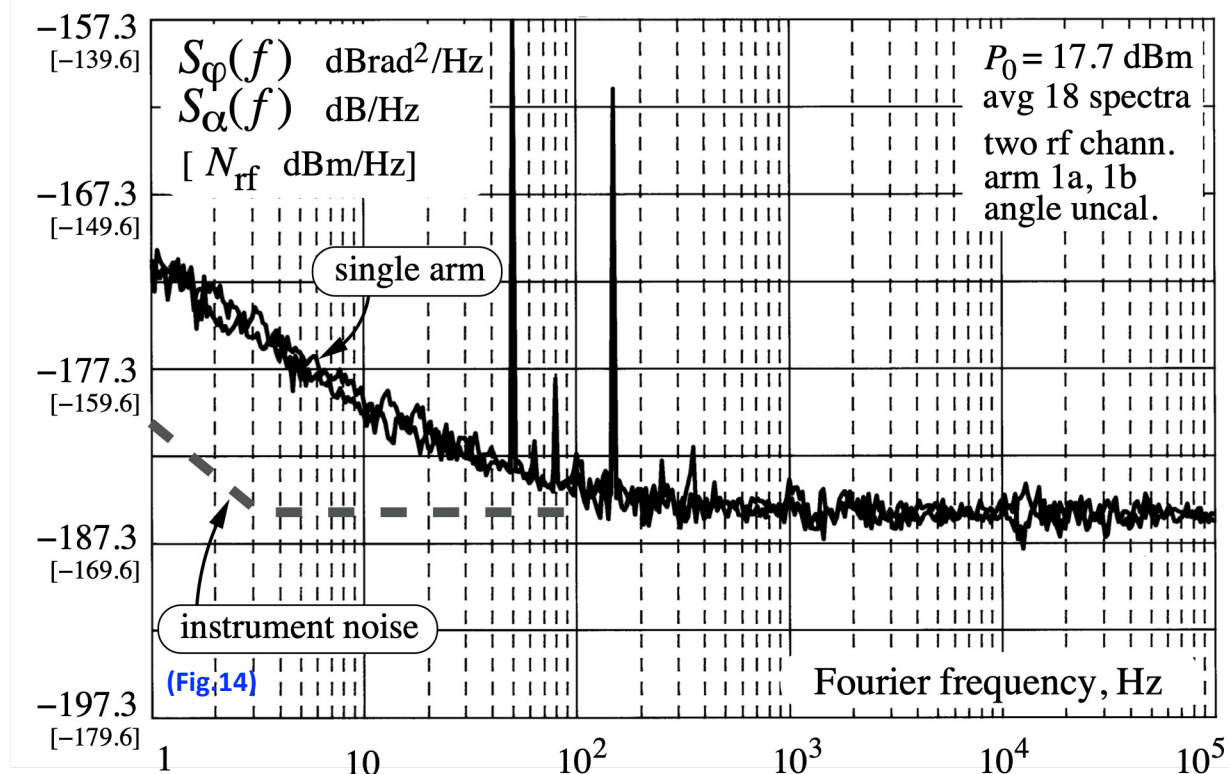
There can be a 2-3 dB calibration error on this figure, see my annotations on the scanned article.

VHF Passive Devices

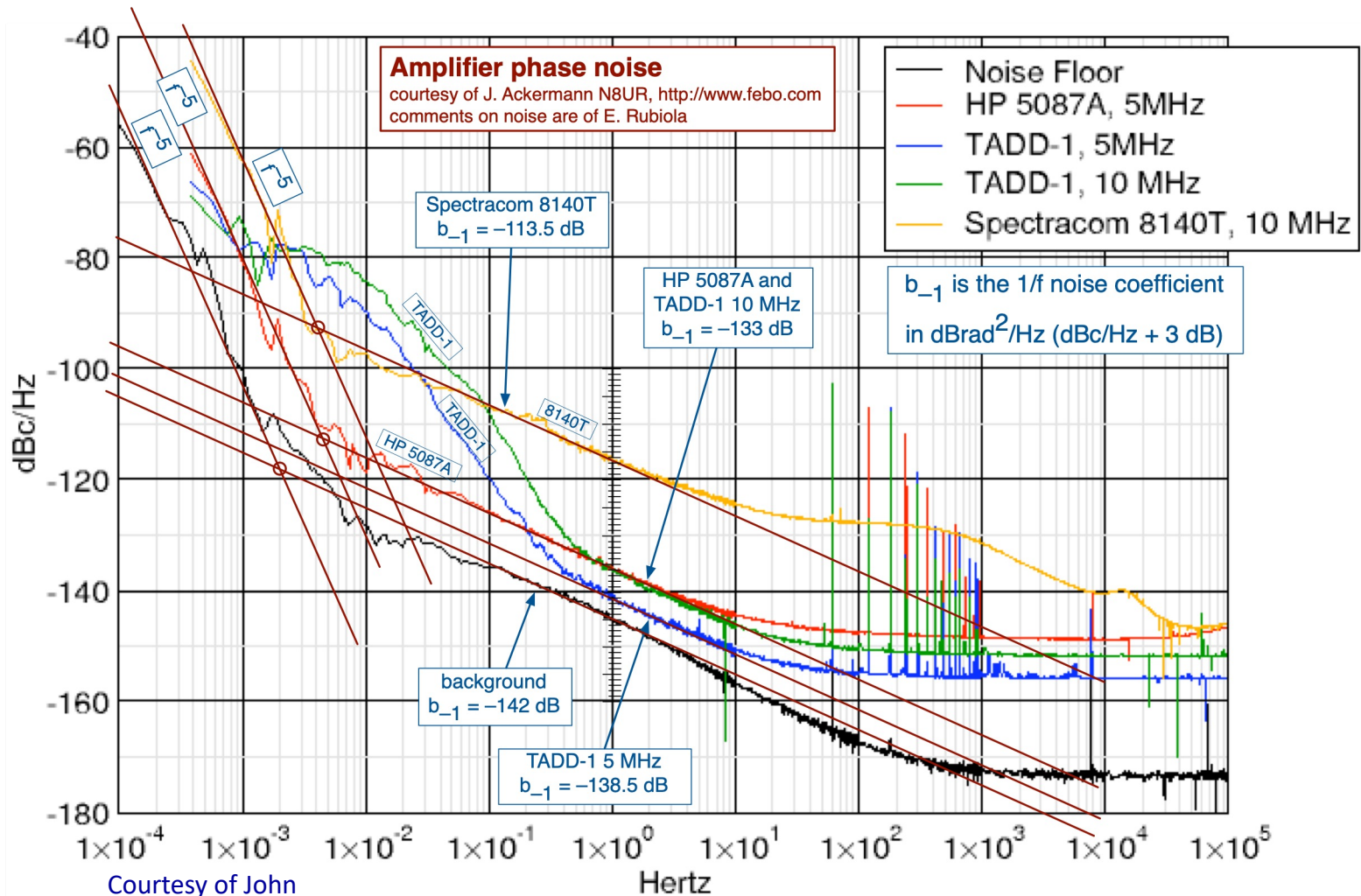
two by-step attenuators



two ferrite hybrid junctions



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 $1/f$

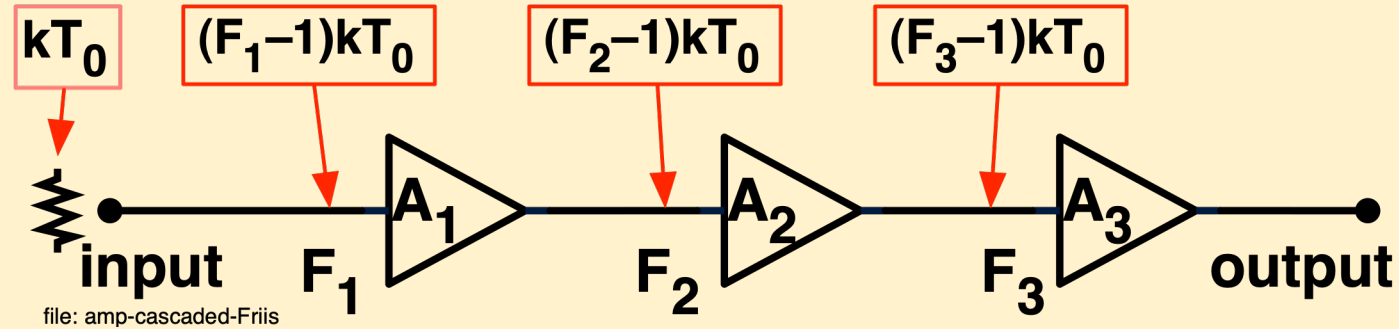
Courtesy of John
Ackermann, N8UR

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



$$N_e = F_1 kT_0 + \frac{(F_2 - 1)kT_0}{A_1^2} + \frac{(F_3 - 1)kT_0}{A_2^2 A_1^2} + \dots$$

Friis formulae

H. T. Friis, Proc. IRE 32

p.419-422, jul 1944

Noise is chiefly that of the 1st stage

$$F = F_1 + \frac{(F_2 - 1)}{A_1^2} + \frac{(F_3 - 1)}{A_2^2 A_1^2} + \dots$$

$$b_0 = \frac{F k T_0}{P_0} \quad \text{white phase noise}$$

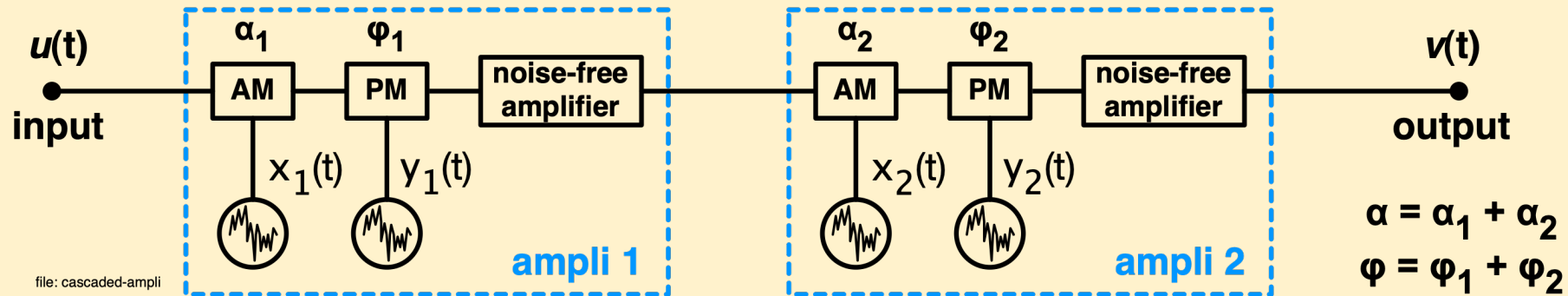
$$b_0 = \frac{F_1 k T_0}{P_0} + \frac{(F_2 - 1)k T_0}{A_1^2 P_0} + \frac{(F_3 - 1)k T_0}{A_2^2 A_1^2 P_0} + \dots$$

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

$$\mathbb{E}\{\alpha^2\} = \mathbb{E}\{\alpha_1^2\} + \mathbb{E}\{\alpha_2^2\}$$

$$S_\alpha = S_{\alpha_1} + S_{\alpha_2}$$

$$\mathbb{E}\{\varphi^2\} = \mathbb{E}\{\varphi_1^2\} + \mathbb{E}\{\varphi_2^2\}$$

$$S_\alpha = S_{\varphi_1} + S_{\varphi_2}$$

Environment: a single process drives the two amplifiers

$$\alpha = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$\mathbb{E}\{\alpha^2\} = \mathbb{E}\{(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)^2\}$$

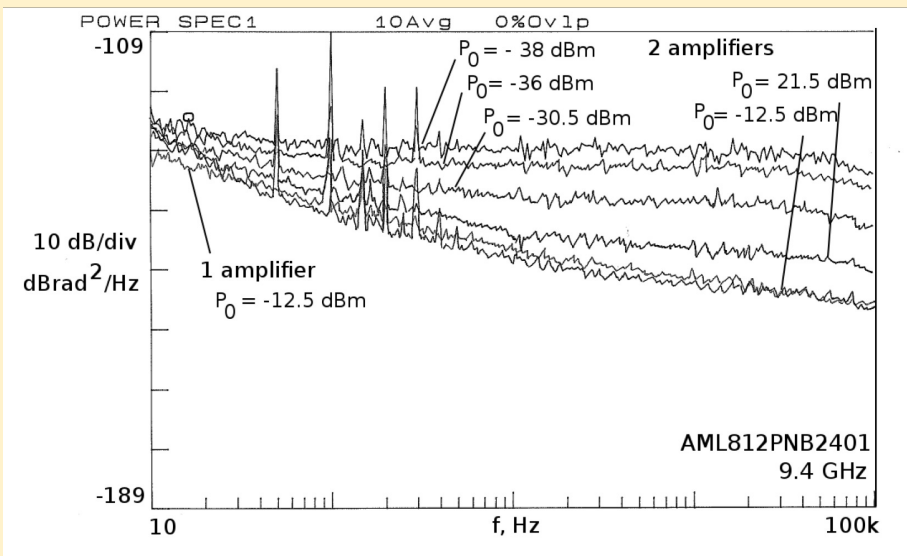
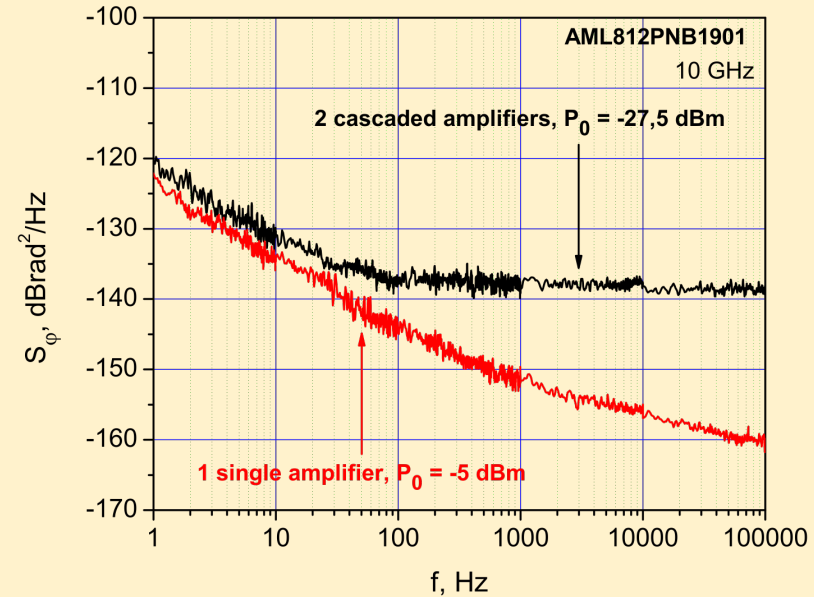
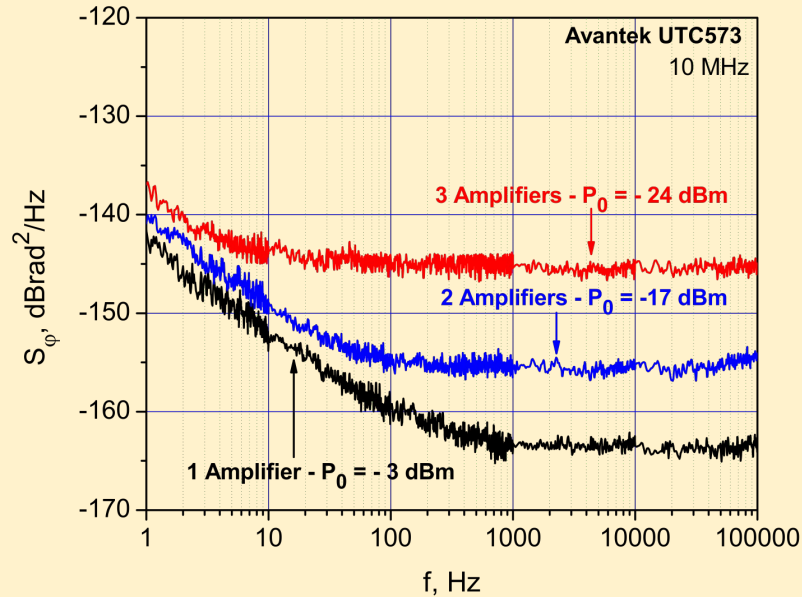
$$\varphi = \varphi_1 + \varphi_2$$

$$\mathbb{E}\{\varphi^2\} = \mathbb{E}\{(\varphi_1 + \varphi_2)^2\}$$

Yet there can be a time constant, not necessarily the same for the two devices

Phase Noise in Cascaded Amplifiers

R. Boudot, E. Rubiola Phase Noise in RF and Microwave Amplifiers, IEEE T UFFC 59(12) p.613-2628, Dec 2012 (Fig.7 a-c, rearranged)



The expected flicker of a cascade increases by:

3 dB, with 2 amplifiers

4.8 dB, with 3 amplifiers

White noise is limited by the (small) input power

Flicker Noise in Parallel Amplifiers

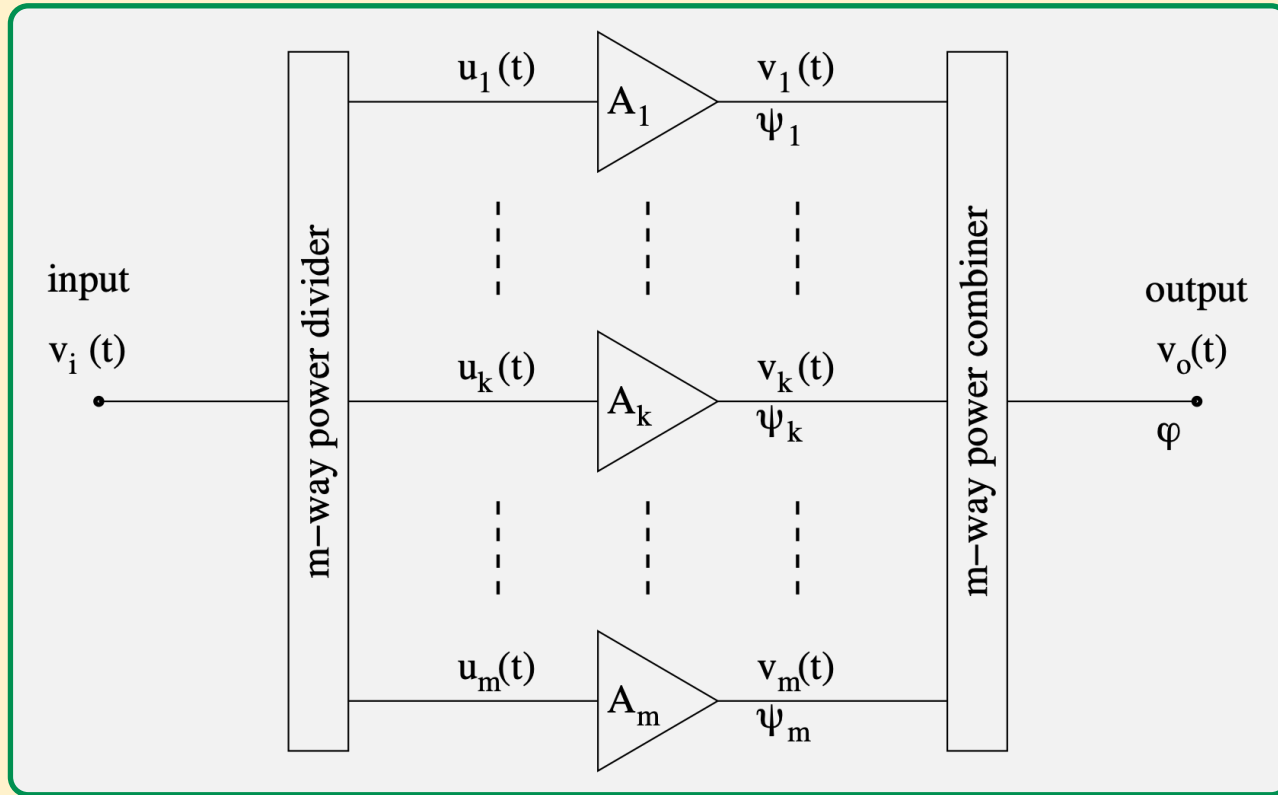


Fig.2.16 from E. Rubiola, *Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators*, Cambridge 2008, ISBN 978-0521-88677-2

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

- 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

$$u_k(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} v_i(t) \quad \text{cell input}$$

$$v_o(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \sum_{k=1}^m v_k(t) \quad \text{main output}$$

$$v_k(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} V_i \left\{ a_1 + 2a_2 [n'_k(t) + in''_k(t)] \right\} e^{i2\pi\nu_0 t} \quad \text{cell} \rightarrow \text{output}$$

$$\psi_k(t) = 2 \frac{a_2}{a_1} n''_k(t) \quad \text{cell}$$

$$\varphi_k(t) = \frac{\frac{1}{m} V_i 2a_2 n''_k(t) e^{i2\pi\nu_0 t}}{a_1 V_i e^{i2\pi\nu_0 t}} = \frac{1}{m} 2 \frac{a_2}{a_1} n''_k(t) \quad \text{cell} \rightarrow \text{output}$$

$$S_\varphi(f) = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{m^2} 4 \frac{a_2^2}{a_1^2} S_{n''_k}(f) \quad \sum \text{ cells} \rightarrow \text{output}$$

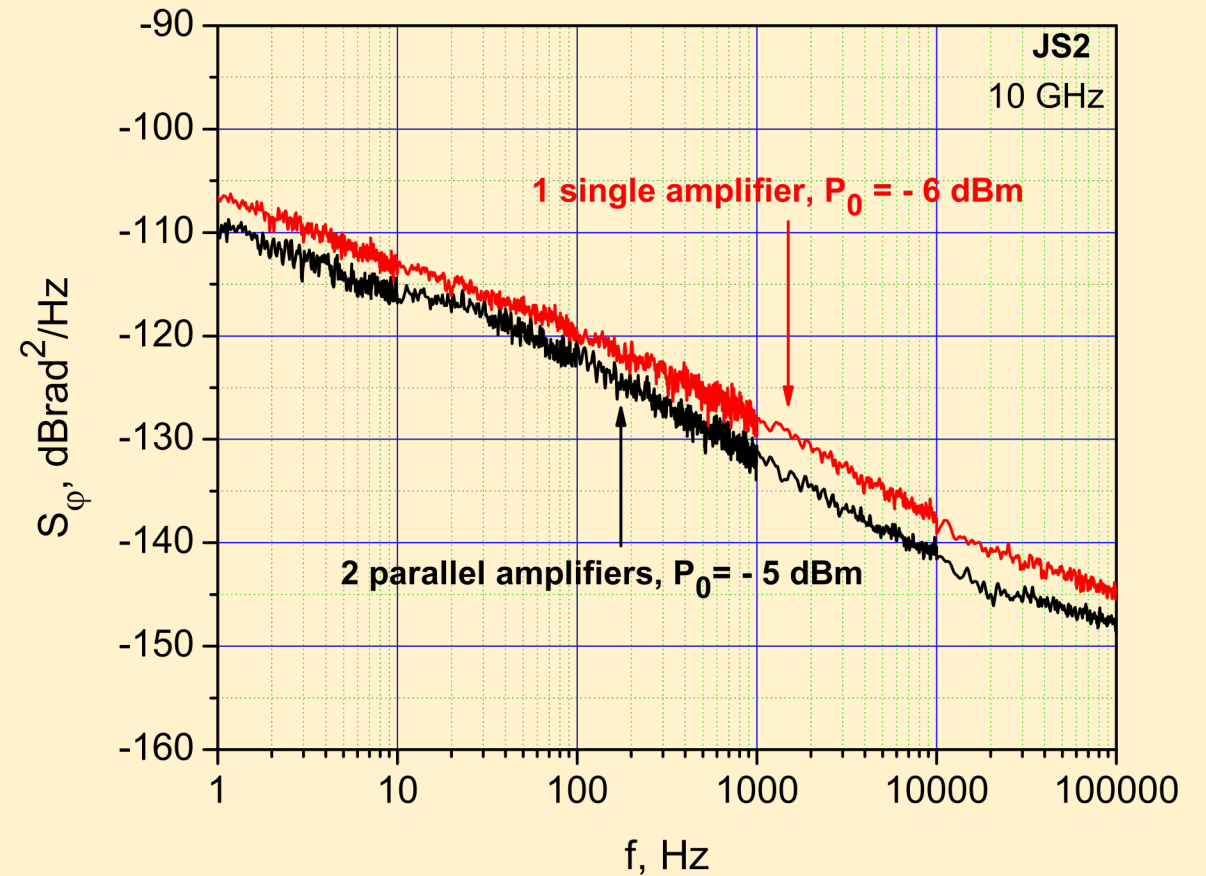
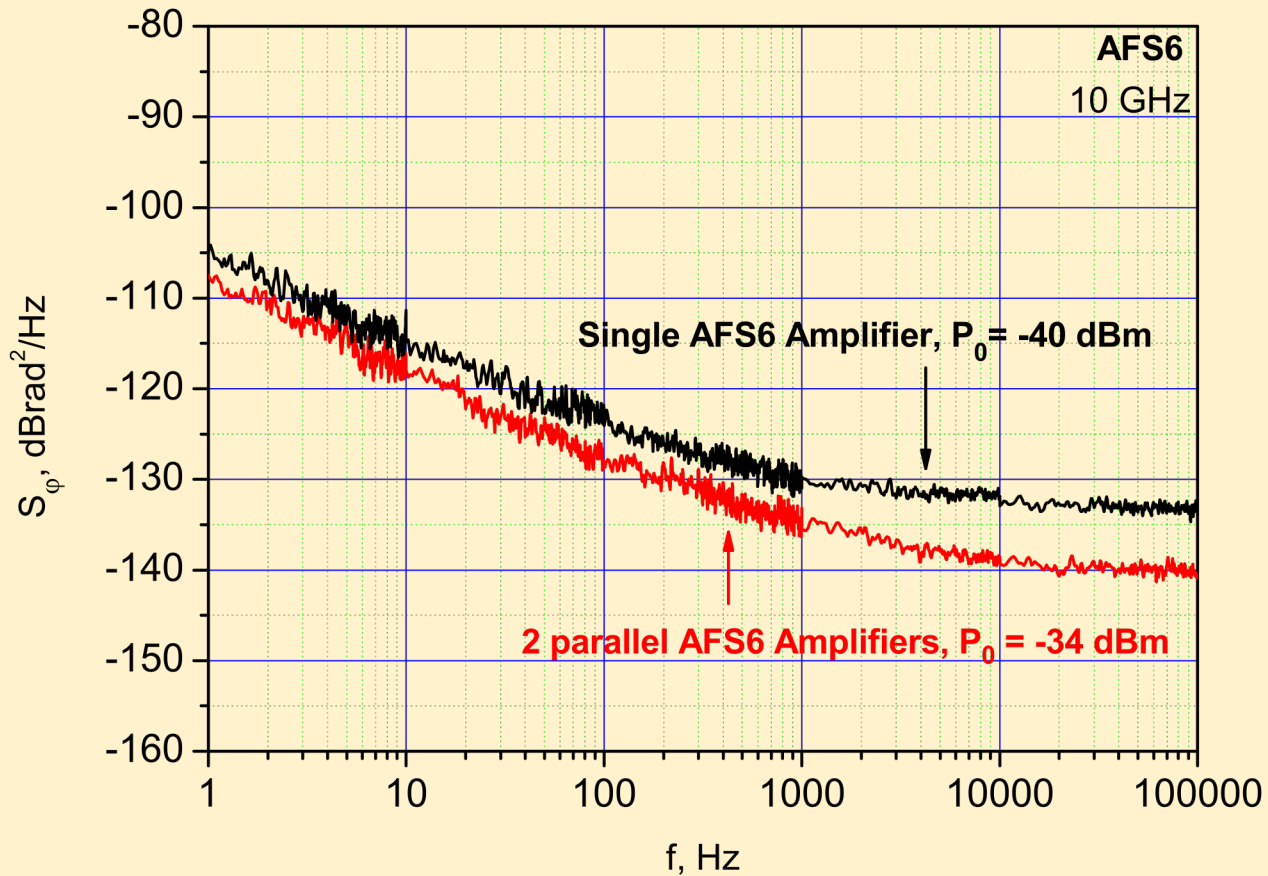
$$S_\varphi(f) = \frac{1}{m} 4 \frac{a_2^2}{a_1^2} S_{n''}(f)$$

$$S_\varphi(f) = \frac{1}{m} S_\psi(f) \quad m \text{ equal cells} \rightarrow \text{output}$$

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

Phase Noise in Parallel Amplifiers

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



Flicker Noise in Parallel Amplifiers

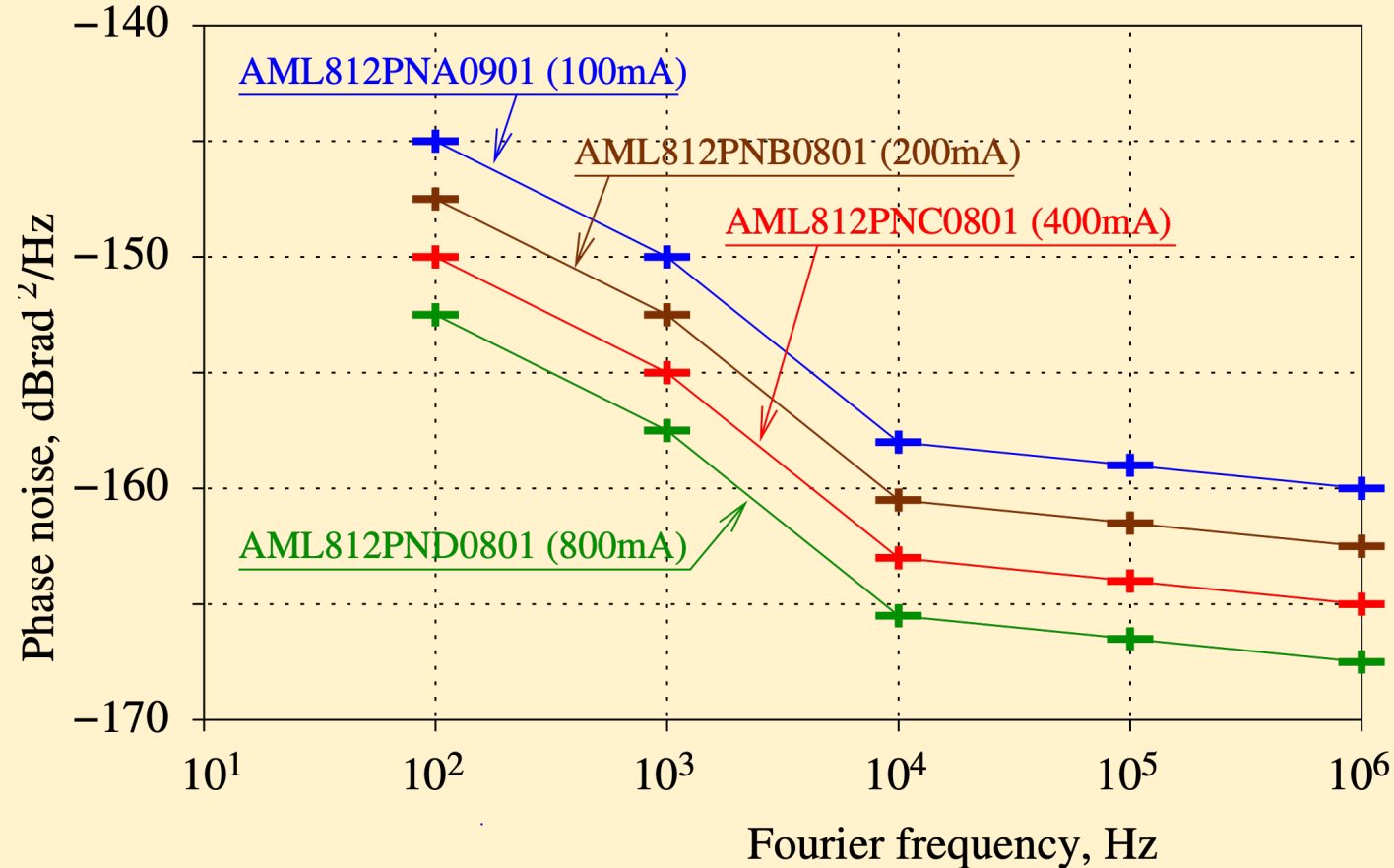


Fig.2.17 from E. Rubiola, *Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators*, Cambridge 2008, ISBN 978-0521-88677-2

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	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

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

Relevant examples

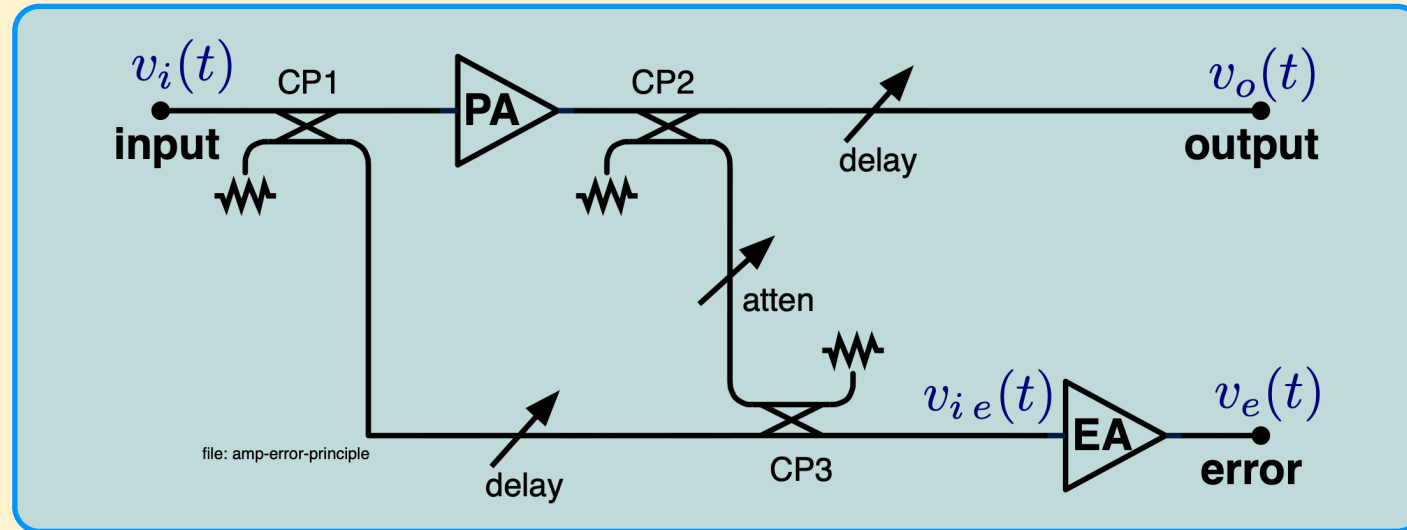
optical resonator
 $(50 \mu\text{m}^2) \times (\pi \times 5.5 \text{ mm})$
 $\approx 1 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}^3$

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
 $(10 \mu\text{m}^2) \times (2 \text{ km})$
 $\approx 2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^3$

5 MHz quartz
 $0.3 \times [\pi \times (1 \text{ cm})^2] \times (0.1 \text{ mm})$
 $\approx 1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3$

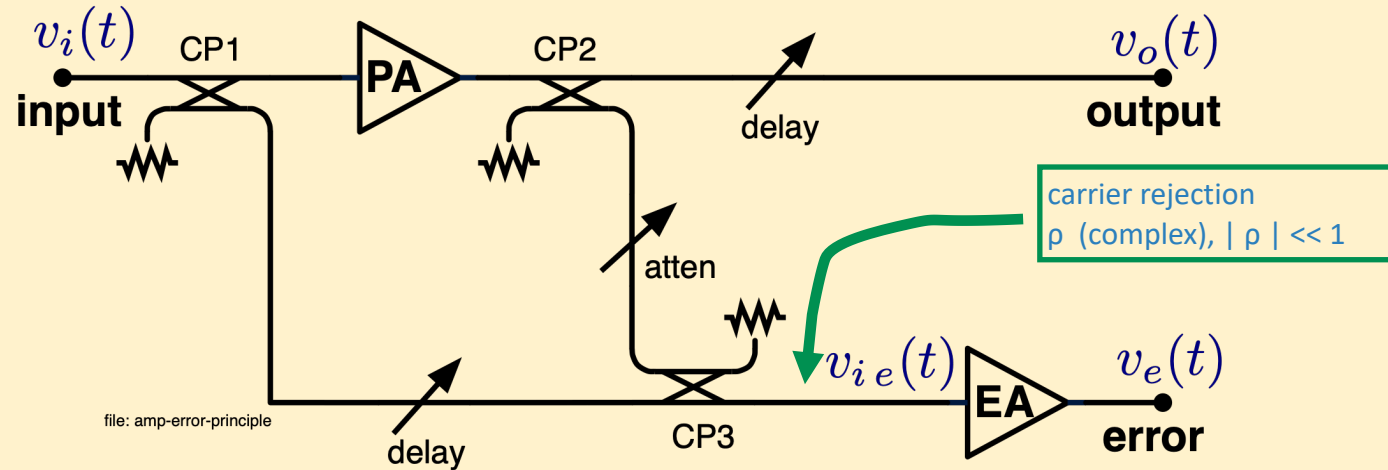
The Error Amplifier



- 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

Assume 3-dB loss-free couplers



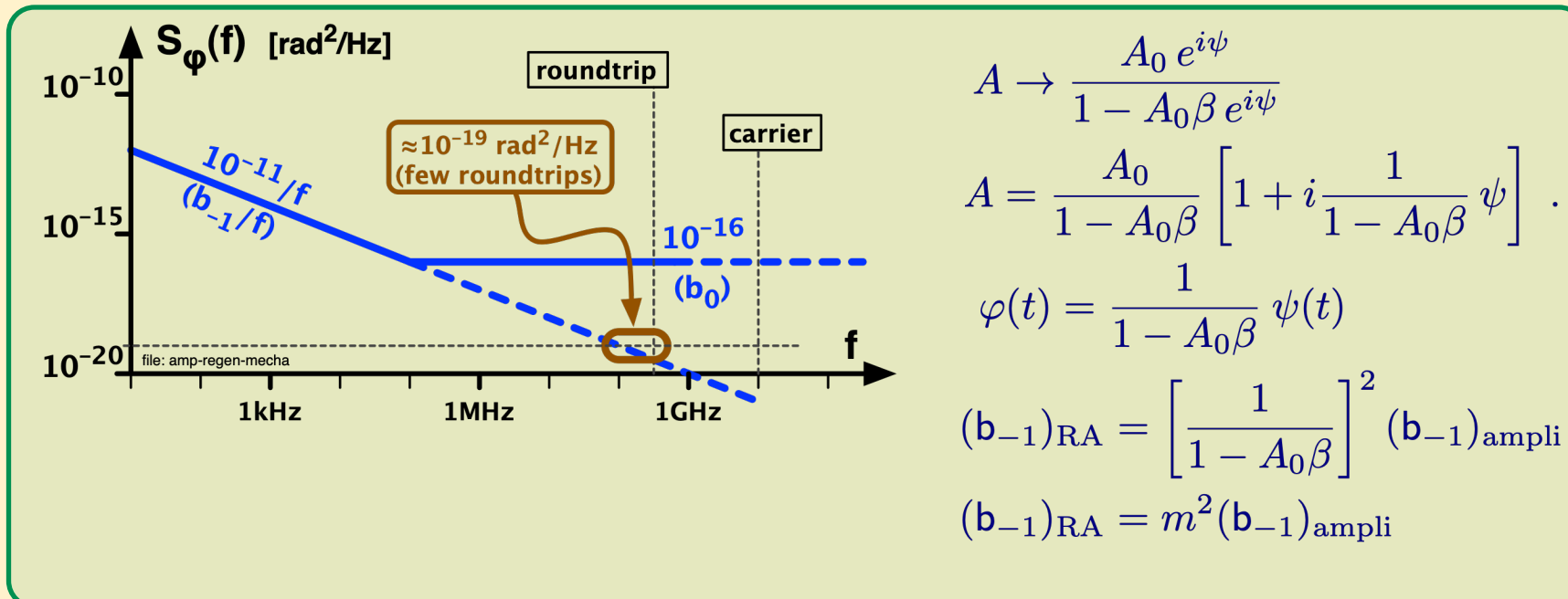
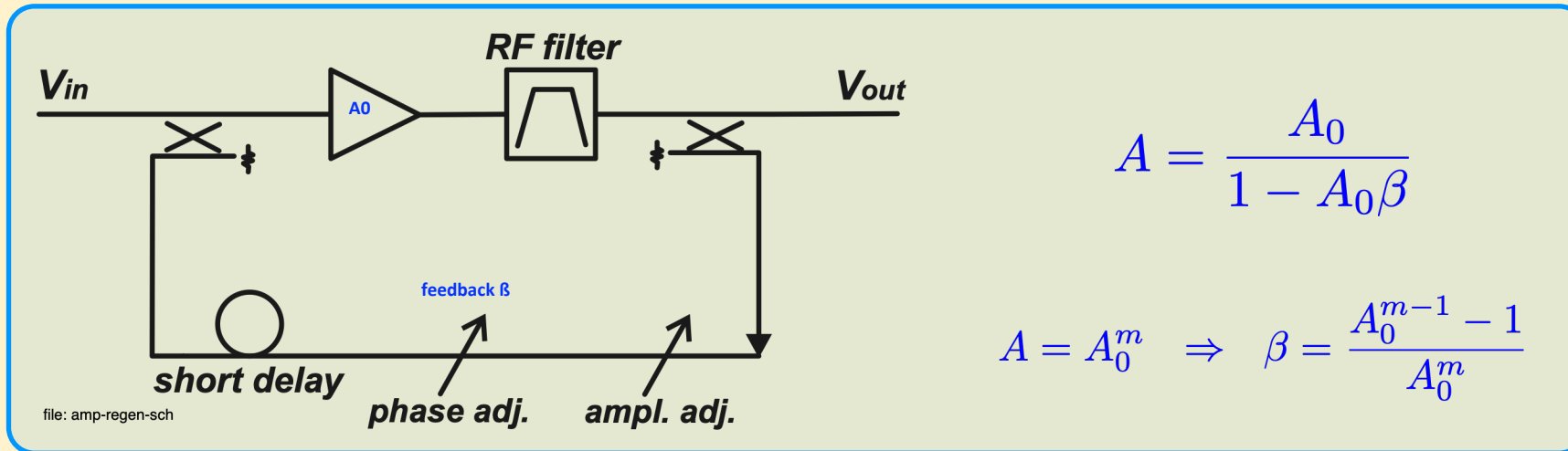
$$(v_{ie})_{PA} = \frac{1}{2} V_i \left\{ a_1 + a_2 [n'(t) + in''(t)] \right\}_{PA} e^{i\omega_0 t} \left(\frac{1}{a_1} \right)_{PA} \quad \text{PA contrib}$$

$$(v_{ie})_{in} = -\frac{1}{2} V_i e^{i\omega_0 t} (1 - \rho) \quad \text{carrier}$$

$$v_{ie} = \frac{1}{2} V_i e^{i\omega_0 t} \rho + \frac{1}{2} V_i \left\{ 2 \frac{a_2}{a_1} [n'(t) + in''(t)] \right\}_{PA} e^{i\omega_0 t} \quad \text{EA input}$$

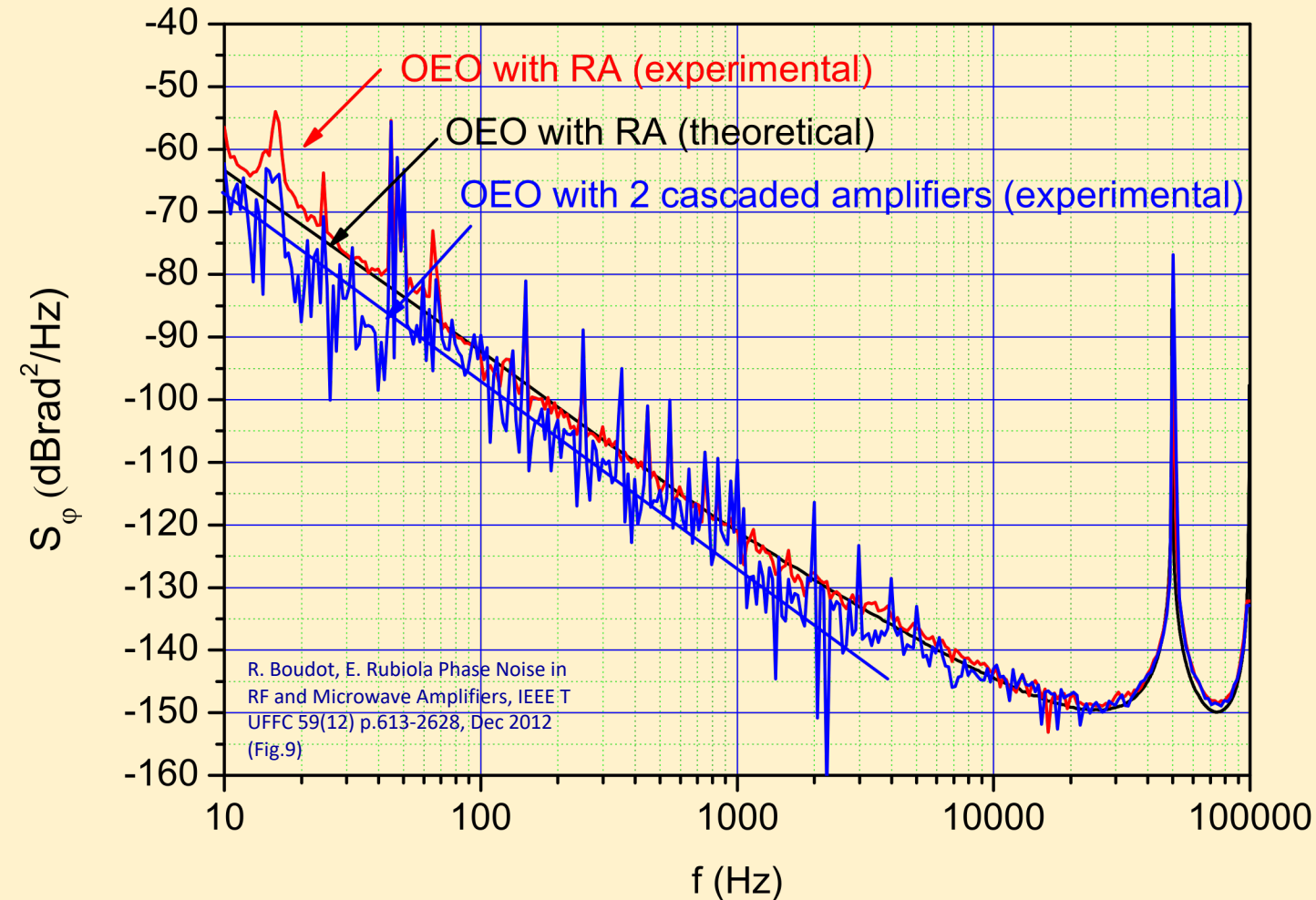
$$v_e = \frac{1}{2} V_i \left[\underbrace{\rho \{a_1\}}_{\text{rejected carrier}} + \underbrace{\left\{ 2a_2 [n'(t) + in''(t)] \right\}_{PA}}_{\text{PA noise sidebands (useful signal)}} + \underbrace{\rho \left\{ 2a_2 [n'(t) + in''(t)] \right\}_{EA}}_{\text{rejected EA noise sidebands}} \right] e^{i\omega_0 t} \quad \text{error}$$

Parametric Noise in Regenerative Amplifiers



Phase Noise of a Regenerative Amplifier

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

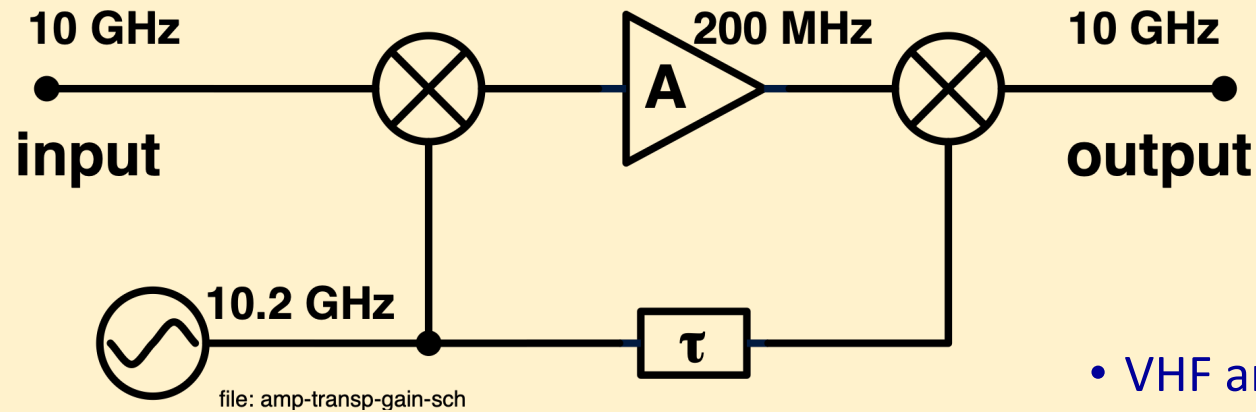


- A RA is set for the gain of two cascaded amplifiers
- As expected, the RA flicker is 3 dB higher than the two amplifiers
- Indirect measurement through the frequency flicker

Low-Flicker RF Amplifiers

Still not like how this section is organized

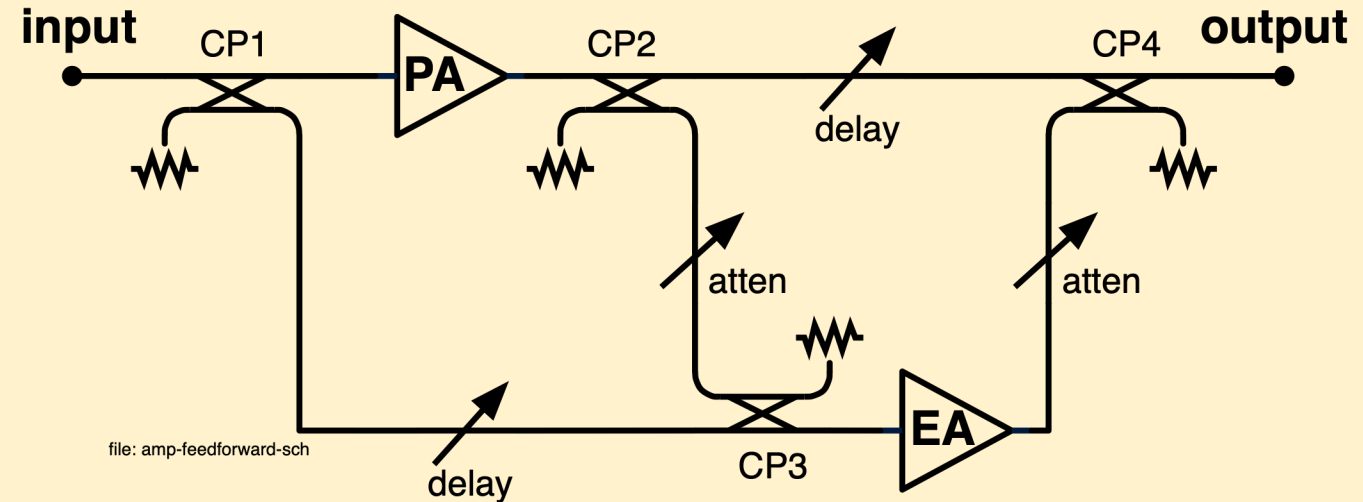
Conversion (Transposed-Gain) Amplifiers



- VHF amplifiers and μ wave mixers flicker significantly less than GaAs μ wave amplifiers
- Lower flicker is achieved by down-converting to VHF, amplifying, and up-converting back to μ waves
- 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?)

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 feed-forward 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

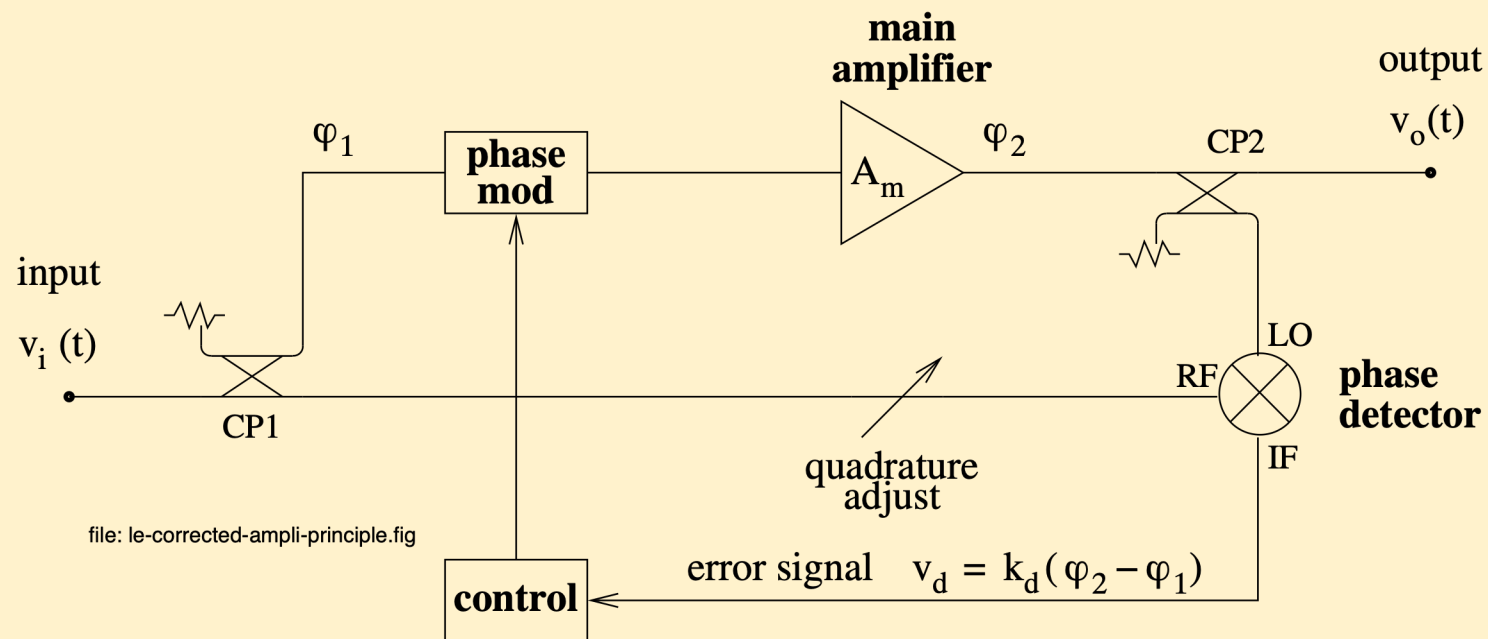
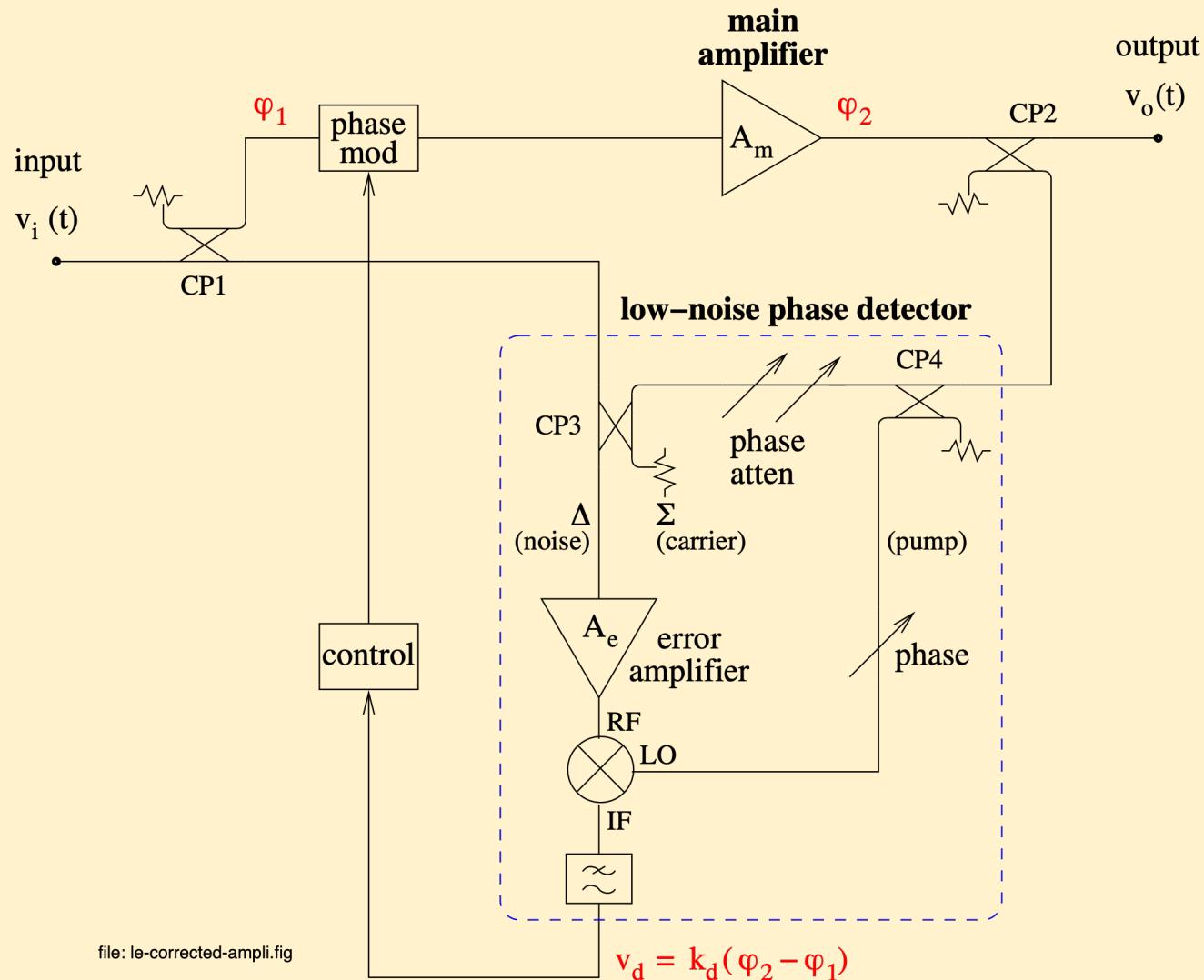


Fig.2.14 from E. Rubiola, *Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators*, Cambridge 2008, ISBN 978-0521-88677-2

- 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



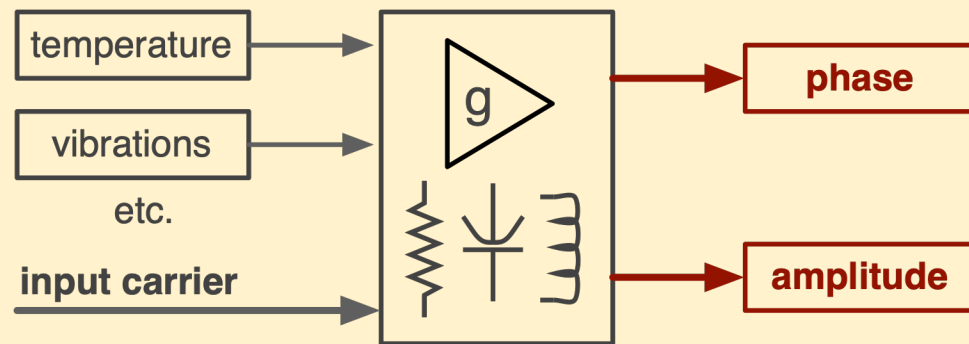
- The detector measures the phase $\varphi_2 - \varphi_1$ across the main amplifier plus phase modulator
- The control stabilizes $\varphi_2 - \varphi_1 = C$ (constant), virtual ground
- Practical implementation with a bridge noise-measurement system
- Notice the use of an error amplifier

Experiments

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 $1/f$

Random Walk and Drift



- RF amplifier
- μw amplifier
- SiGe amplifier
- RF mixer mixer
- Cr^{3+} μw 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)

Consider skipping

Noise in coaxial cables



Skip this, too tough

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

Phase Noise and Jitter in Digital Electronics

Enrico Rubiola

CNRS FEMTO-ST Institute, Besancon, France

INRiM, Torino, Italy

Outline

Basics

FPGAs — Mechanisms / Examples / Facts

ADCs — Basics / Examples

DDSs — Basics / Advanced / Examples

Dividers — Π and Λ / Microwave

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

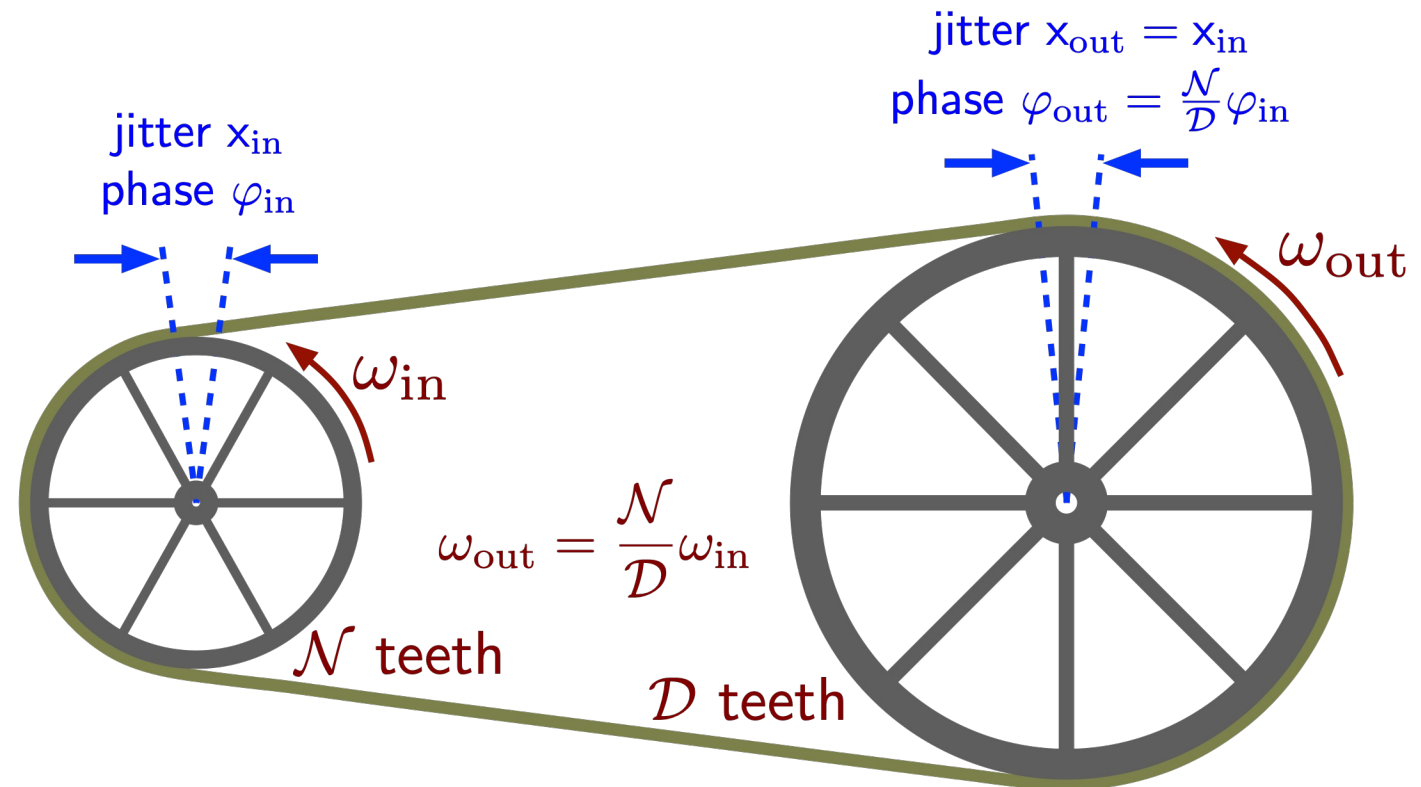
1 – Basics

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

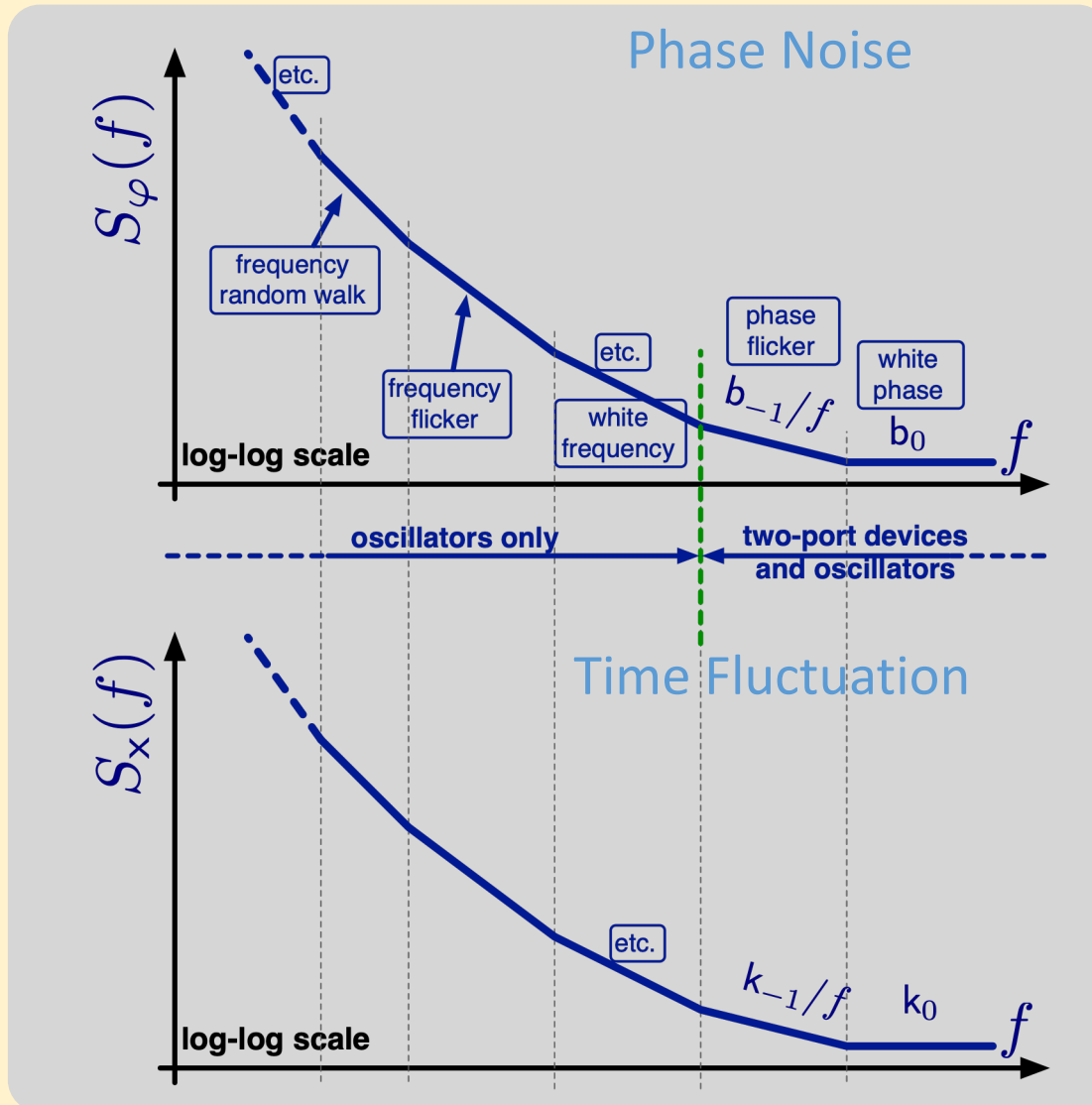
$$x(t) = \varphi(t) / \omega_0$$

- $x(t)$ 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 Noise PSD₀

$$S_\varphi(f) = \sum_{i \leq -4} b_i f^i$$

Phase-time PSD

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

$$S_x(f) = \sum_{i \leq -4} k_i f^i$$

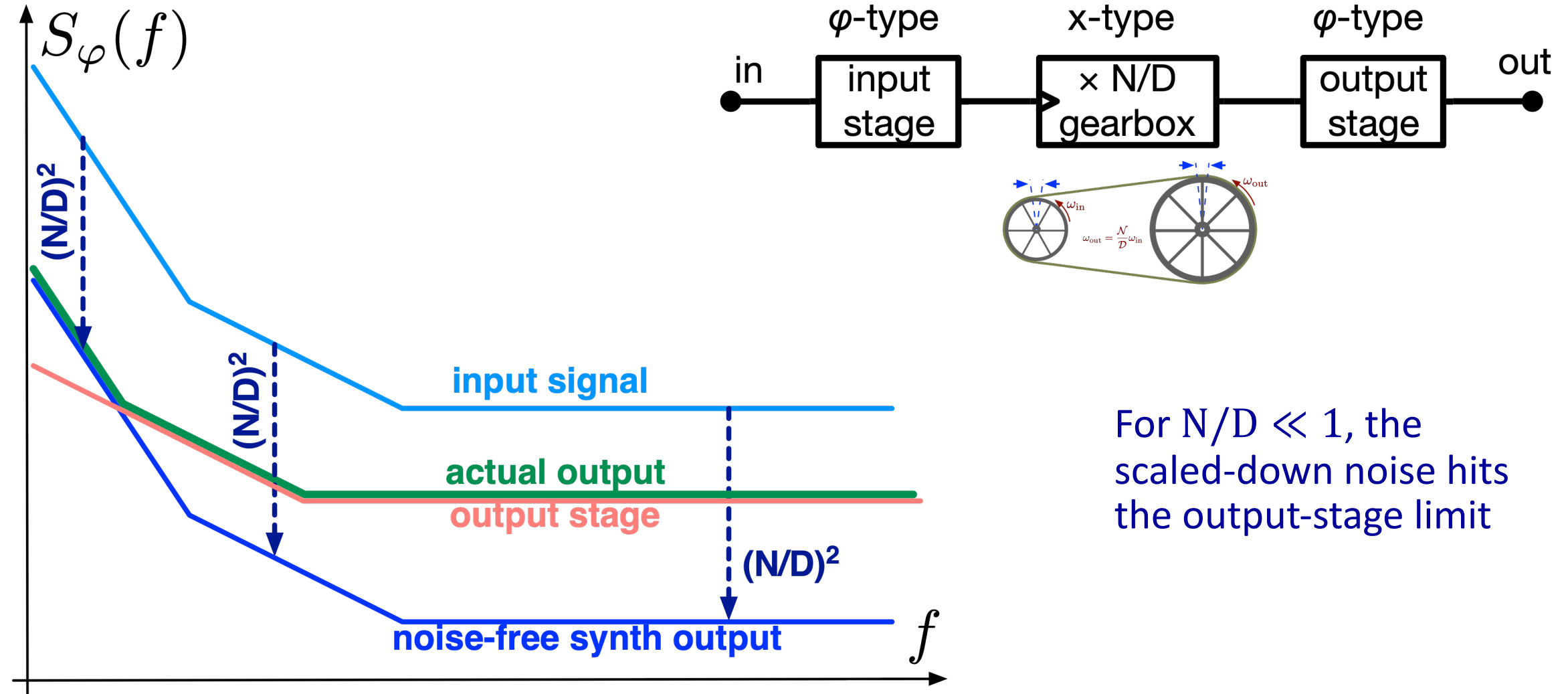
Fractional Frequency PSD

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

$$S_y(f) = \sum_{i \leq -2} h_i f^i$$

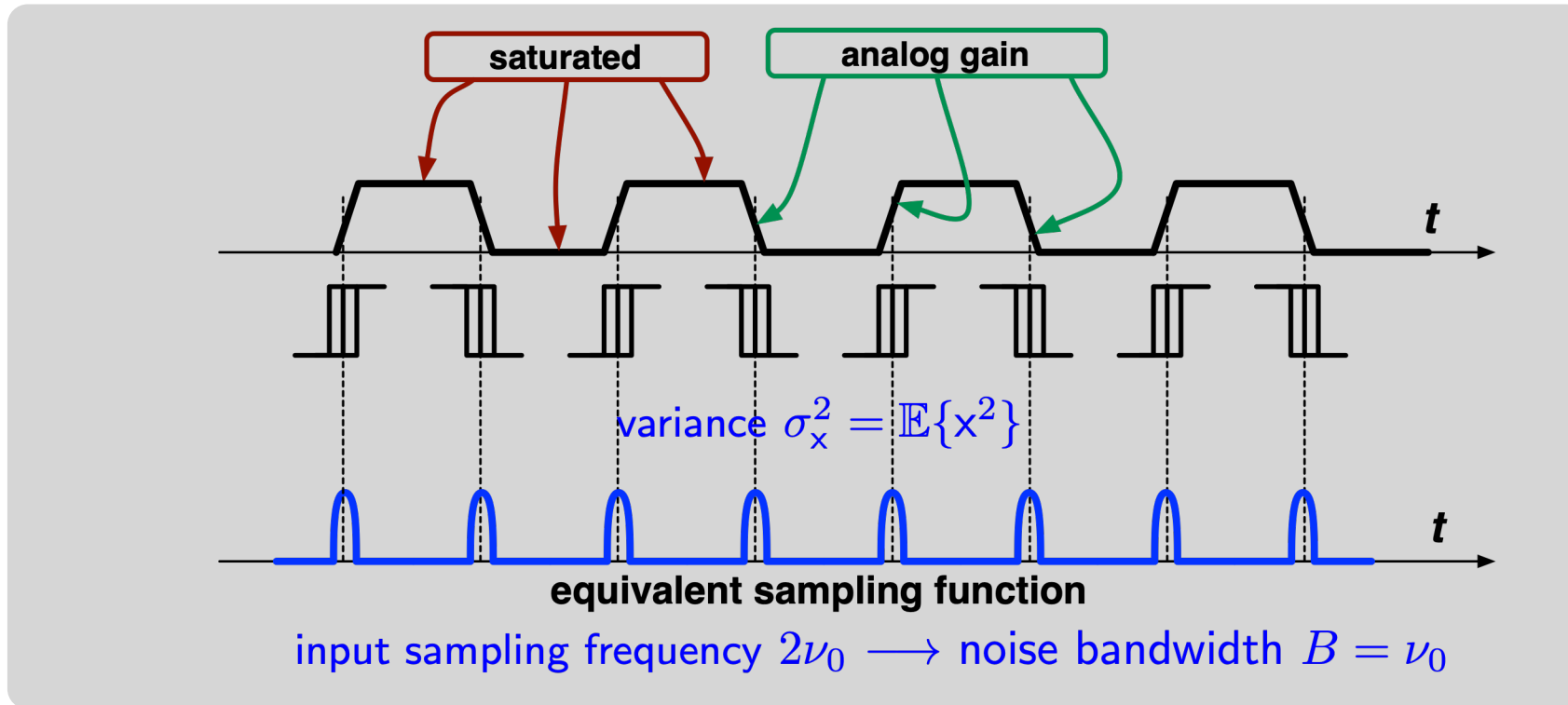
The Egan Model – Modern View

for phase noise in frequency dividers



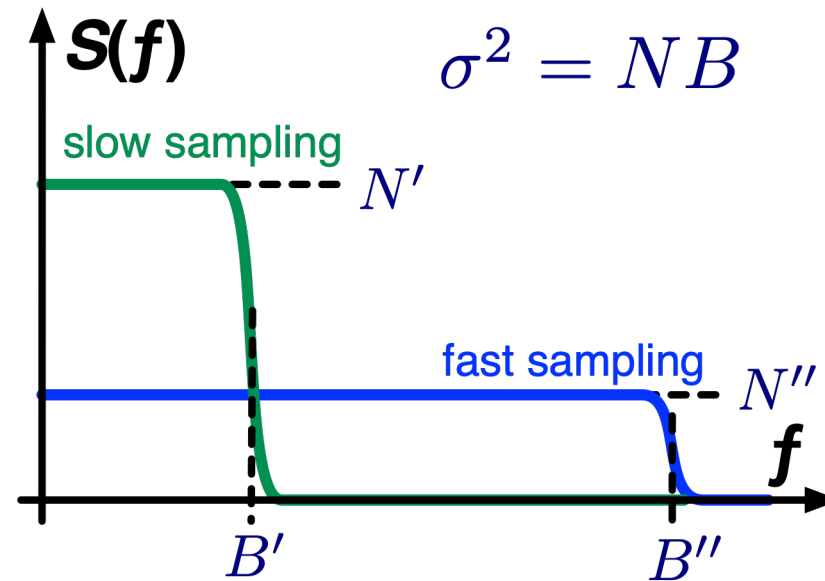
For $N/D \ll 1$, the scaled-down noise hits the output-stage limit

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 $3 \nu_{\max} \dots 4 \nu_{\max}$
- Aliasing is around the corner

Aliasing Over-Simplified



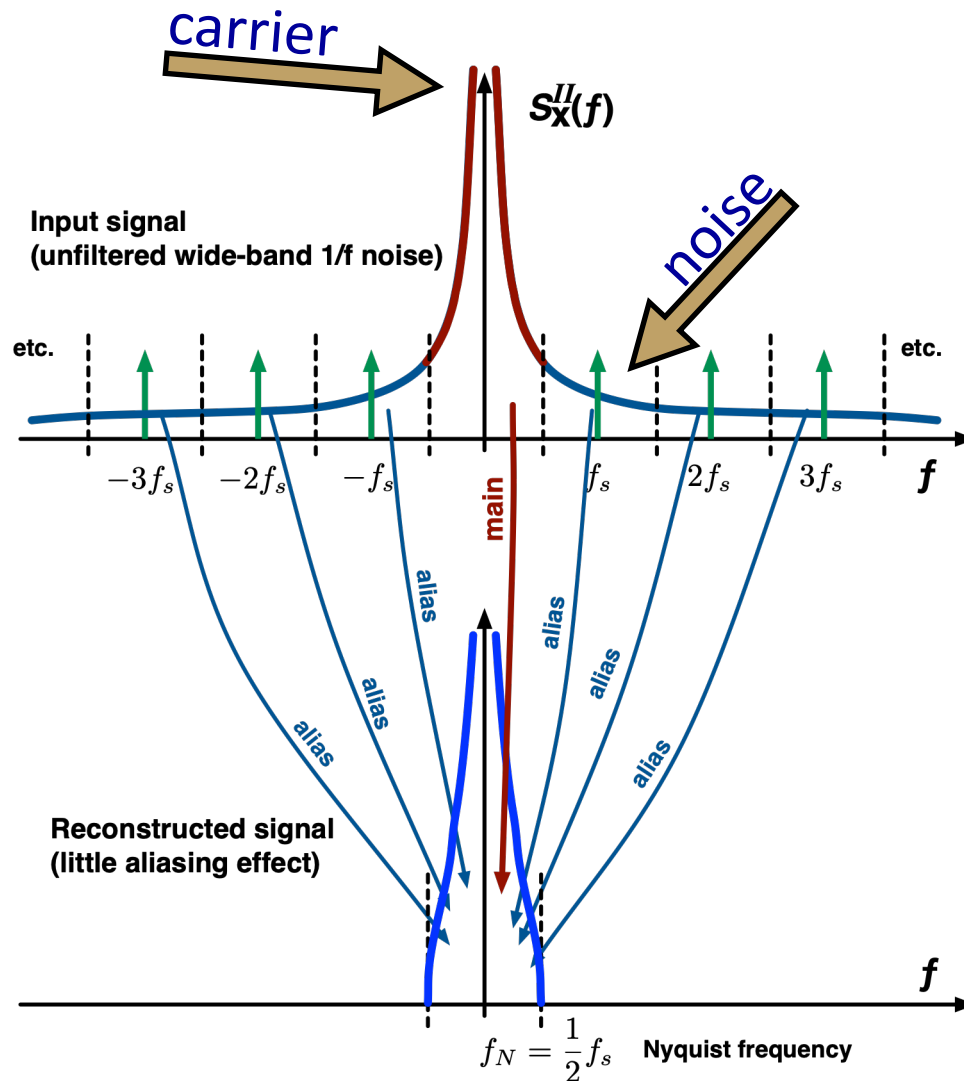
- The Parseval Theorem states that the total energy (or power) calculated in the time domain and in the frequency domain is the same

$$N' B' = N'' B''$$

- 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



Low power in the high-f aliases

Little or no effect on the noise spectrum

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

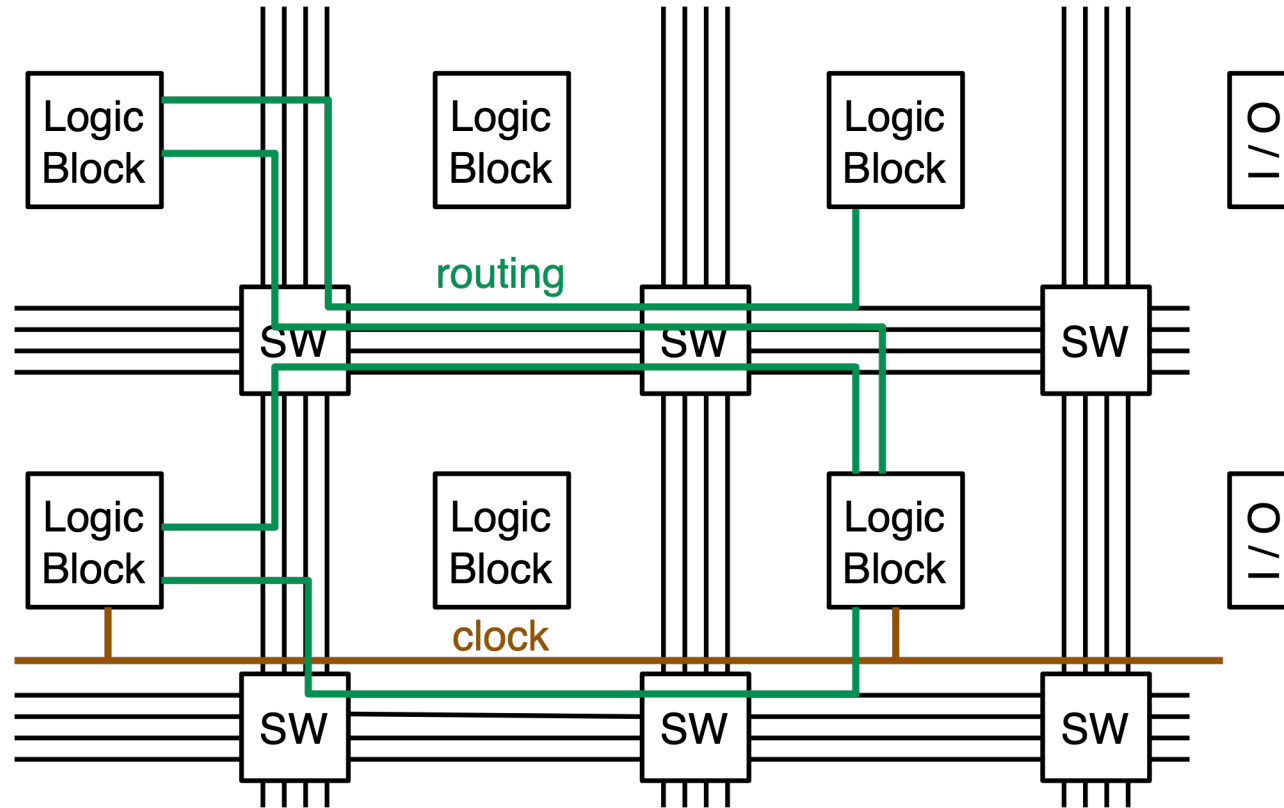
2 – FPGAs

Noise Mechanisms

Examples

Additional Facts

FPGA Interconnection Structure



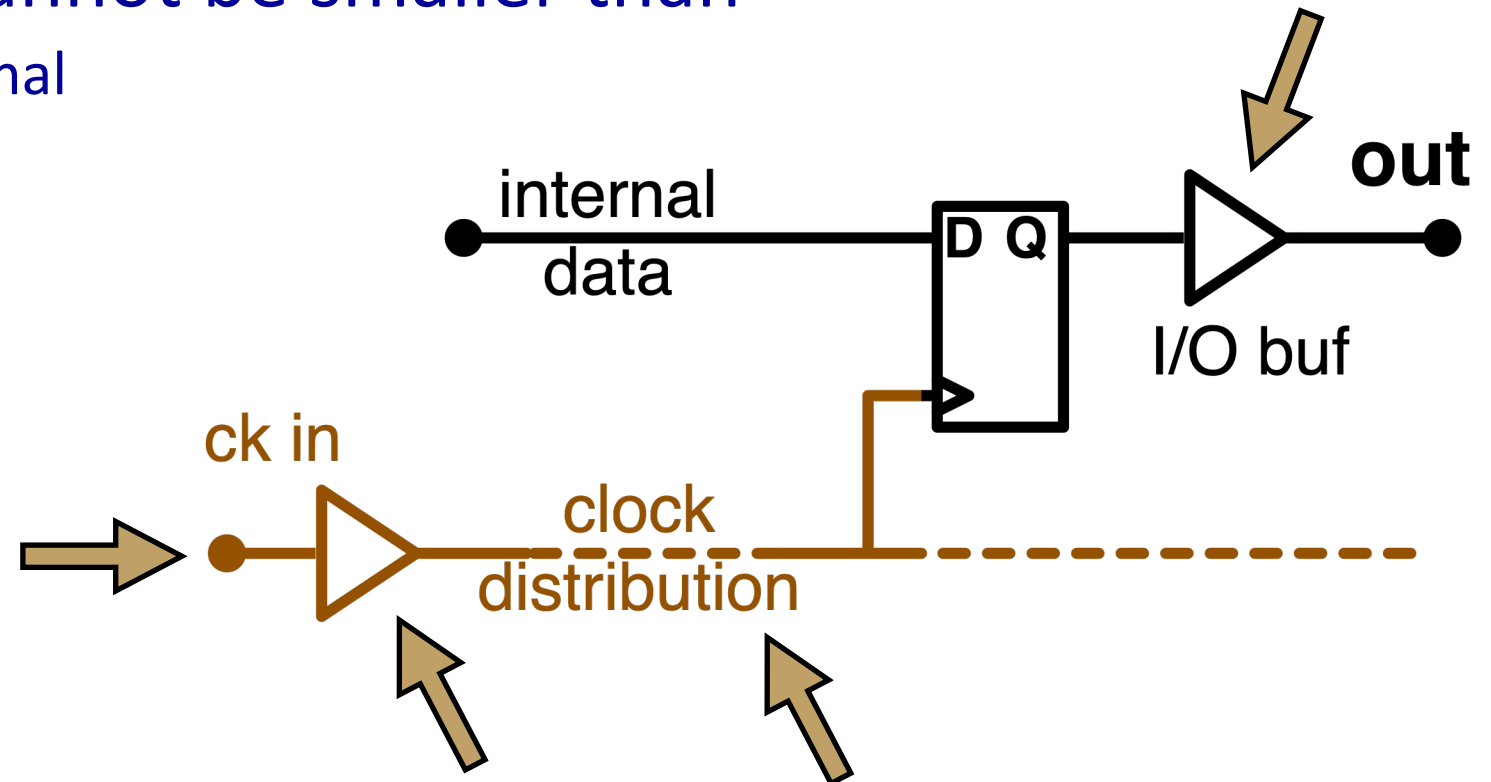
Device dependent blocks

- 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
 - Clock distribution
 - Output stage



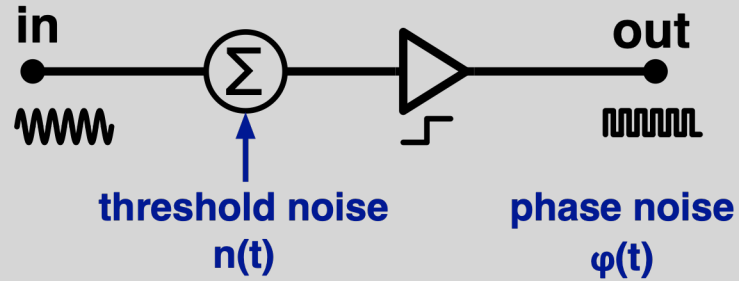
Two Types of Noise Mechanism

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

$$S_x(f) = \frac{1}{4\pi^2\nu_0^2} S_\varphi(f)$$

- Time-type noise
- Time fluctuation $S_x(f)$ is independent of ν_0
- Phase noise $S_\varphi(f)$ scales as ν_0^2

Phase Noise in the Input Stage

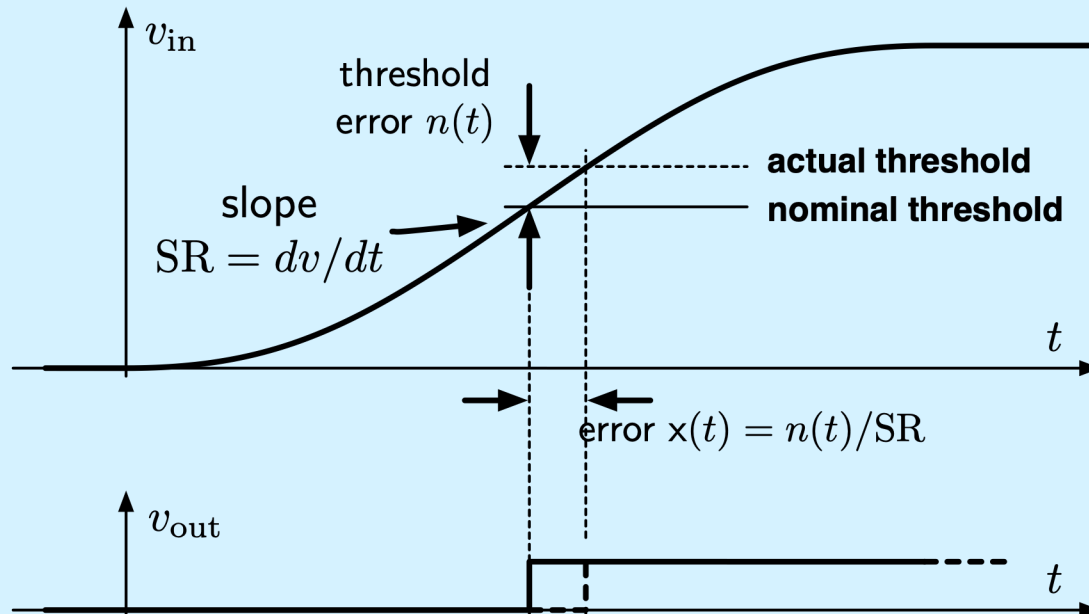


Sinusoid of peak amplitude V_0 results in phase-type noise

$$S_{\varphi}(f) = \frac{S_n(f)}{V_0^2}$$

constant vs ν_0

Threshold fluctuation



mechanism

$$x(t) = \frac{n(t)}{(SR)(t)}$$

$$\varphi(t) = \frac{2\pi\nu_0 n(t)}{(SR)(t)}$$

Phase Noise in the Input Stage

Sinusoidal signal

$$v(t) = V_0 [1 + \alpha(t)] \cos [2\pi\nu_0 t + \varphi(t)] \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{SR} = 2\pi\nu_0 V_0$$

$$x(t) = \frac{n(t)}{\text{SR}} \quad \longrightarrow \quad x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi\nu_0} \frac{n(t)}{V_0}$$

$$\varphi(t) = \frac{2\pi\nu_0 n(t)}{\text{SR}} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \varphi(t) = \frac{n(t)}{V_0}$$

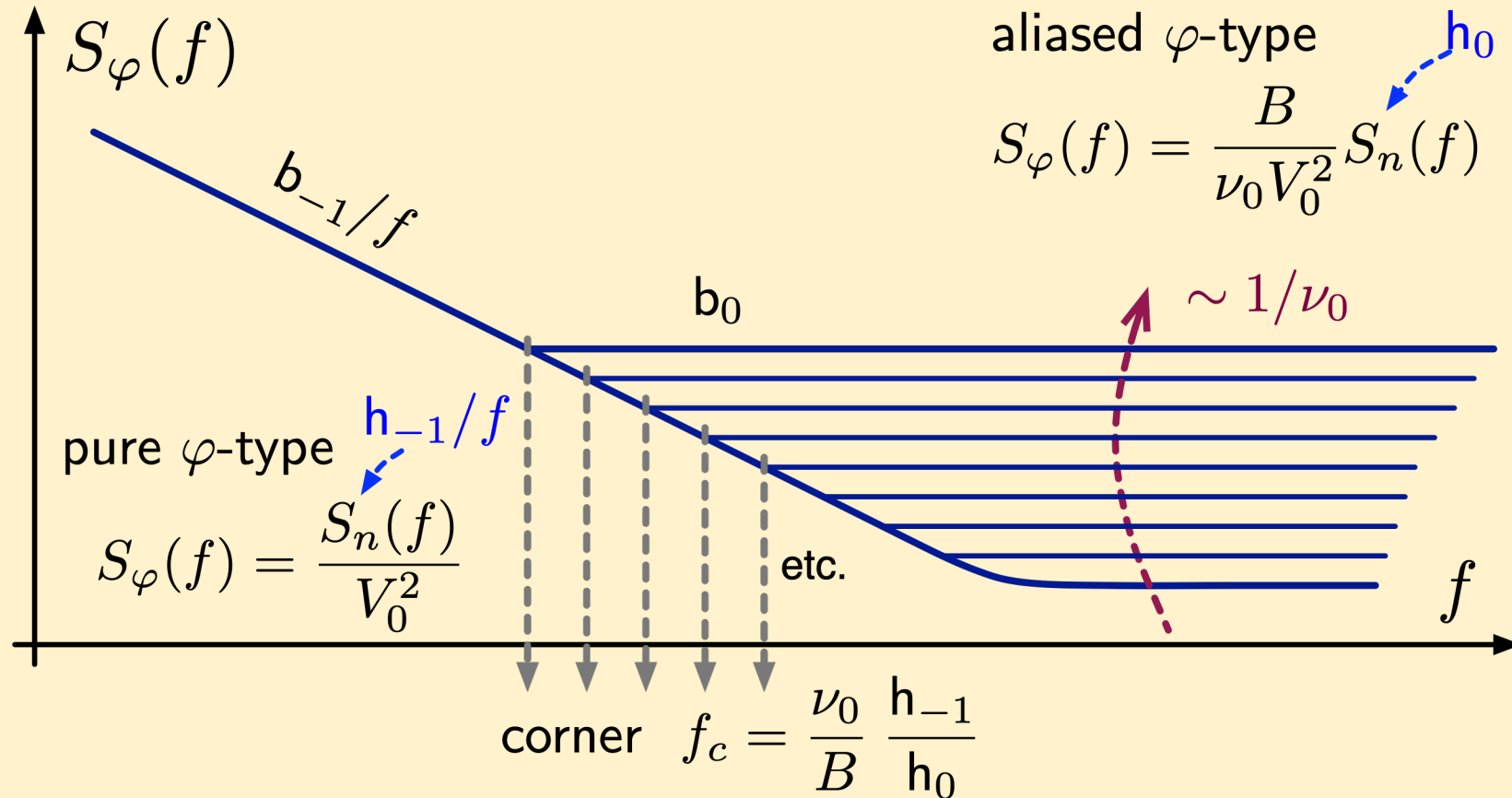
phase-type
(φ -type)
noise

$$S_\varphi(f) = \frac{S_n(f)}{V_0^2}$$

constant vs ν_0

Phase-Type (φ -type) PM Noise

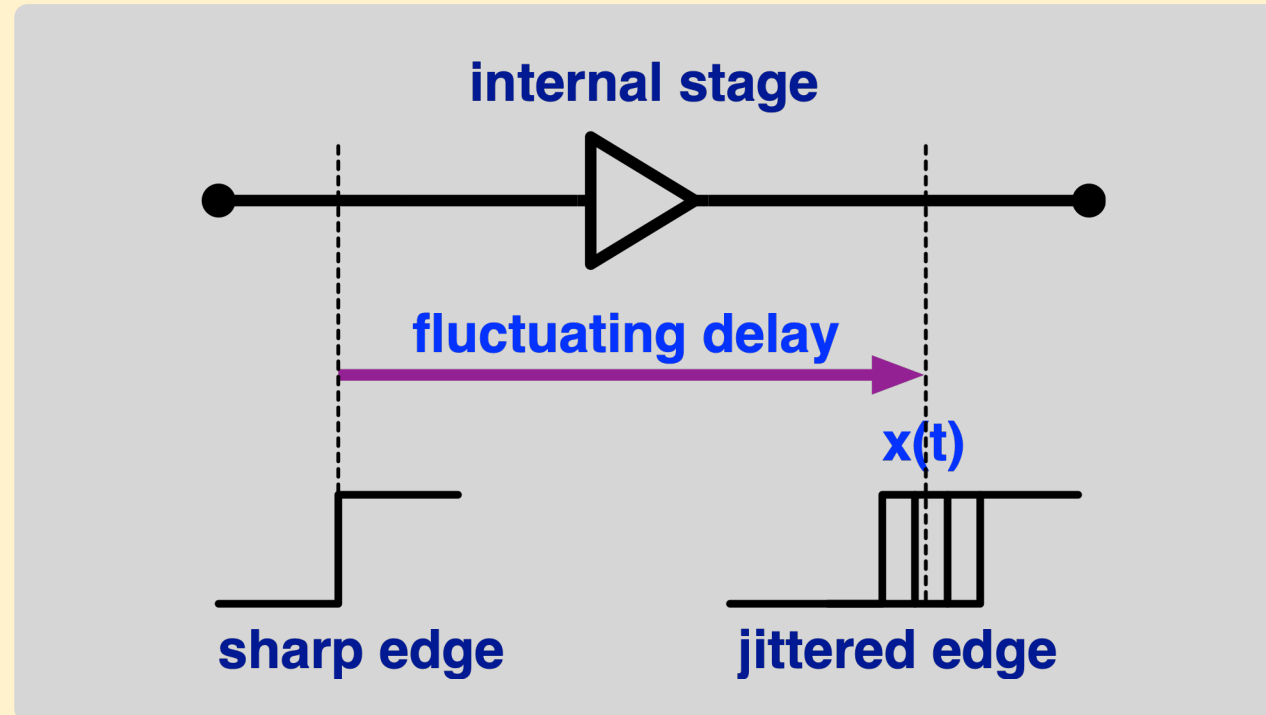
Aliasing strikes hard on white noise, yet little/not on flicker



Polynomial law $S_n(f) = \sum h_i f^i$ [do not mistake with $S_v(f)$]

Internal Delay Fluctuation

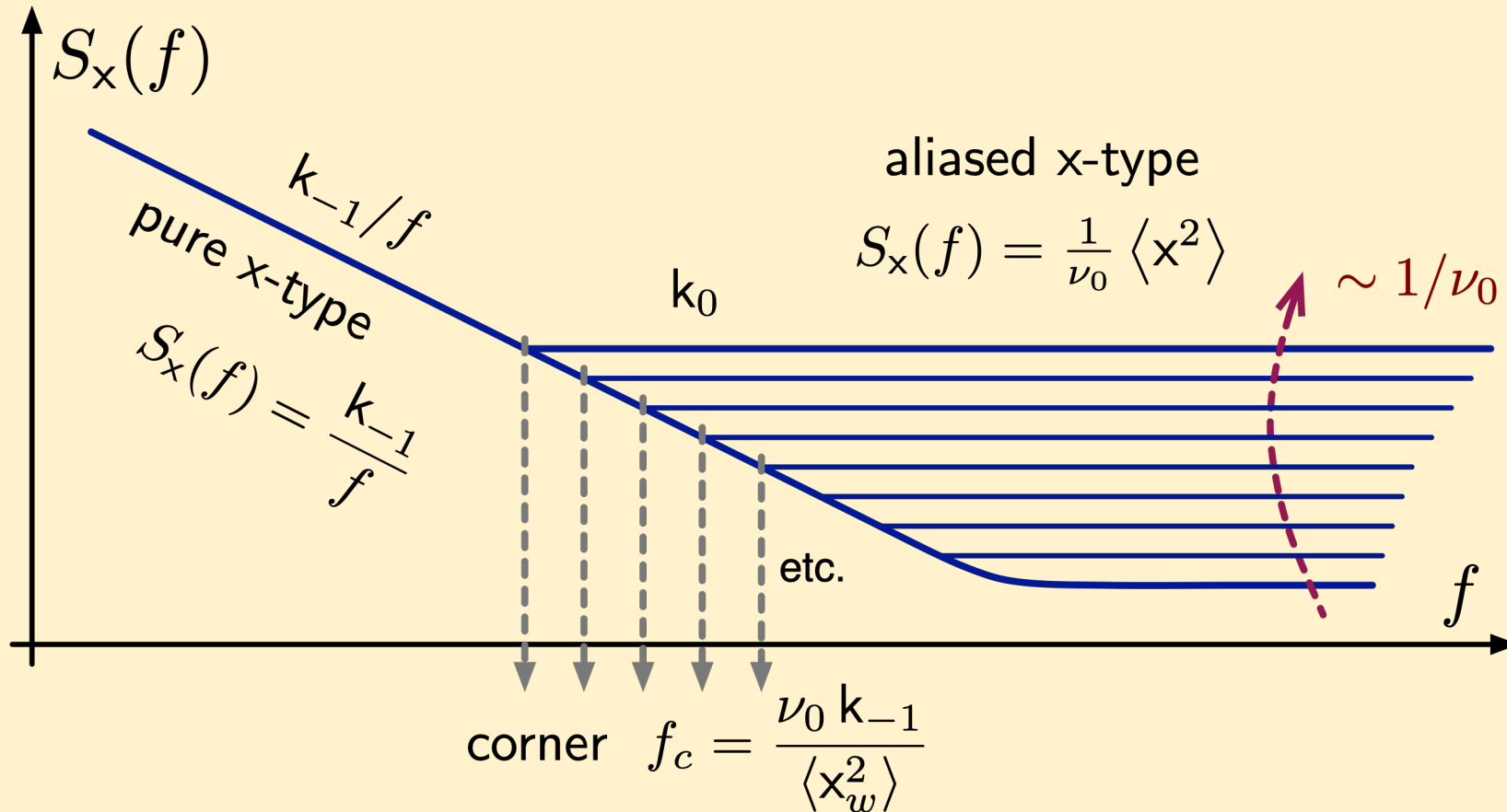
Time-type (x-type) noise



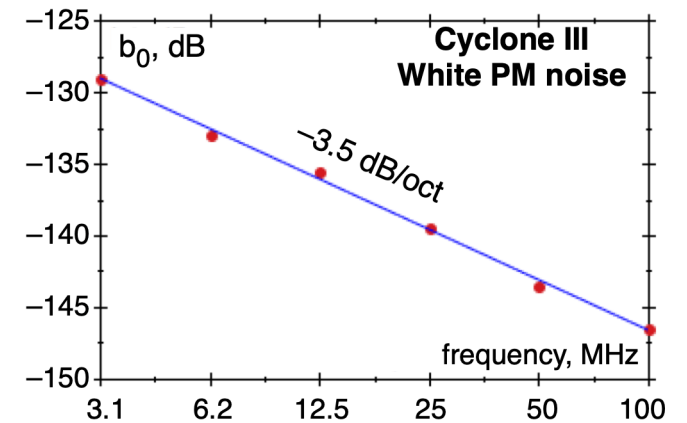
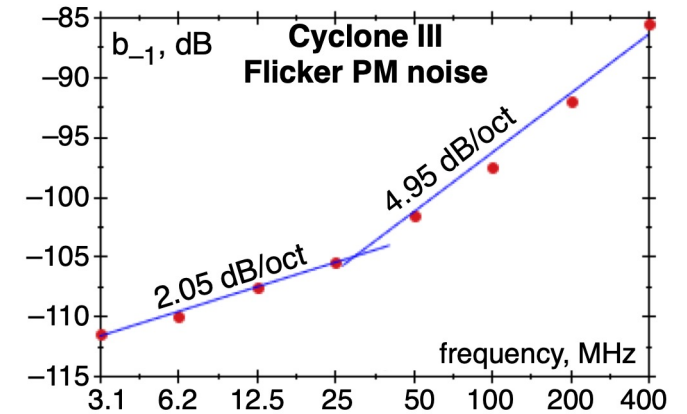
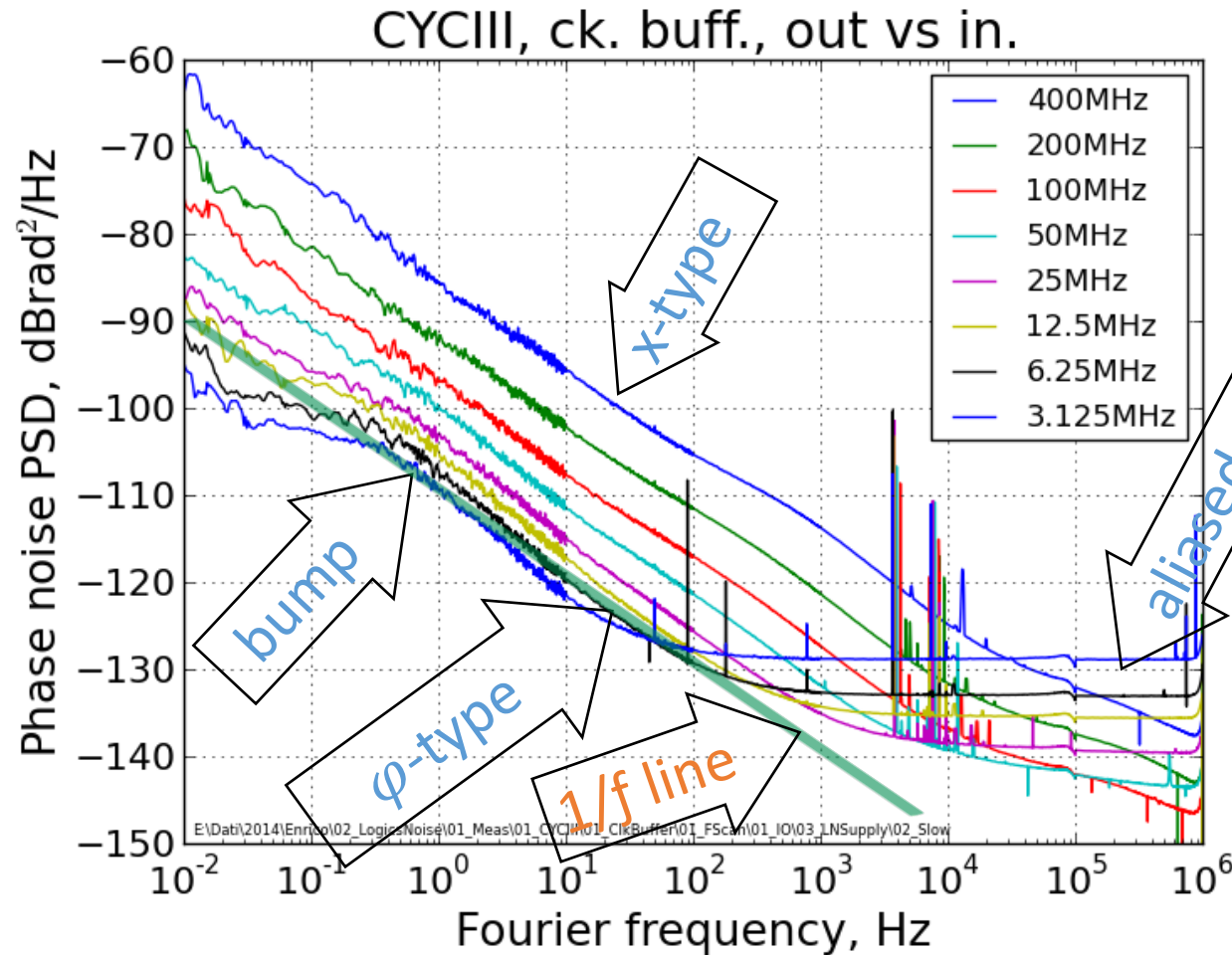
- The internal delay fluctuates by an amount $x(t)$
- This has nothing to do with threshold and frequency

Time-Type (x-type) Fluctuation

Remember that white noise is subject to aliasing, flicker is not



Cyclone III Clock Buffer



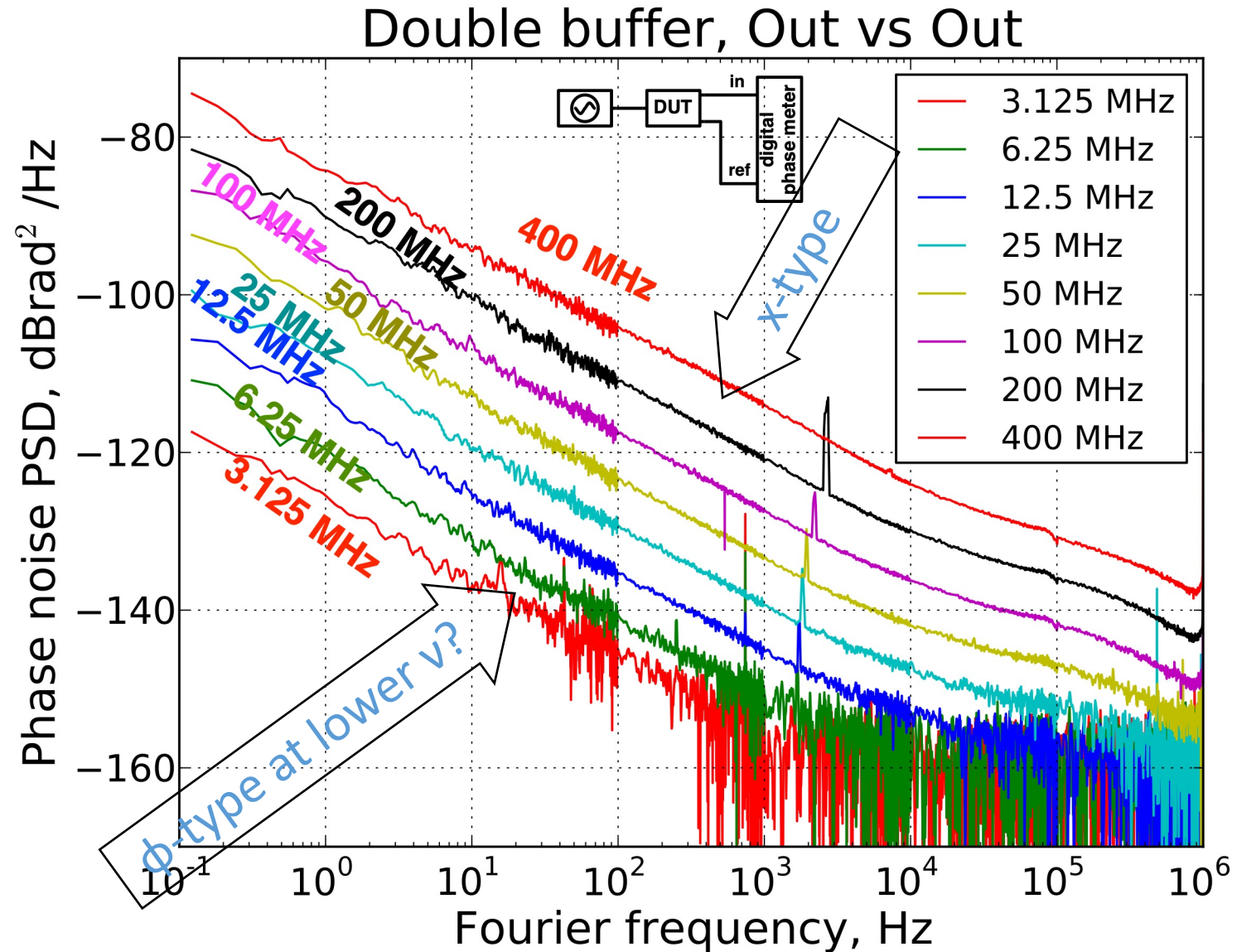
Flicker

- High $\nu_0 \rightarrow$ x-type: S_ϕ scales as $\nu_0()$
- Low $\nu_0 \rightarrow$ ϕ -type: constant S_ϕ (but bumps 0.1–10 Hz)

White

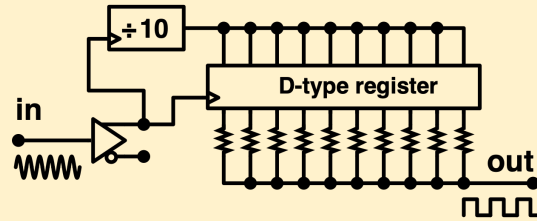
- Aliasing at high f and low ν_0

Cyclone III Output Buffer

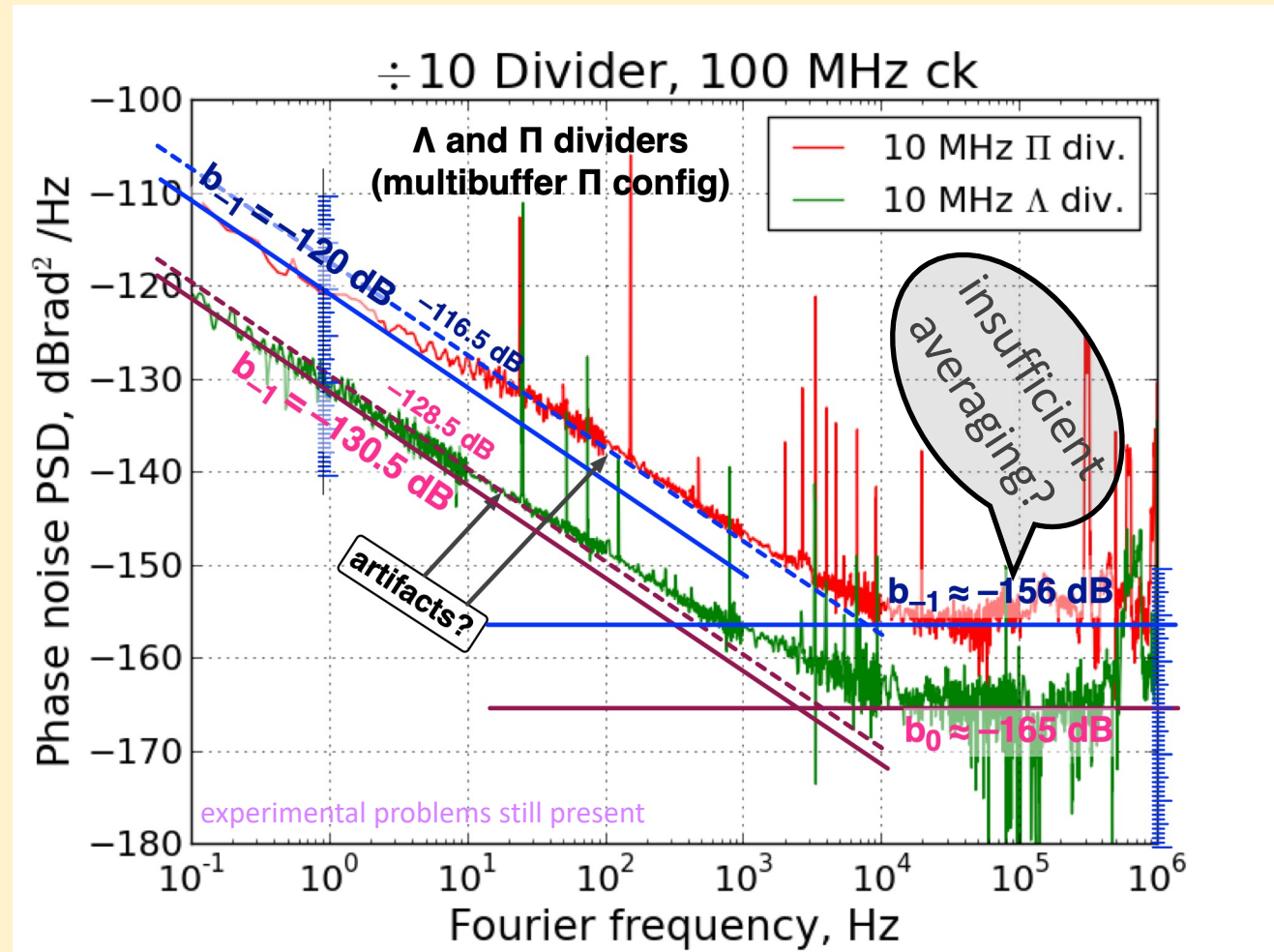
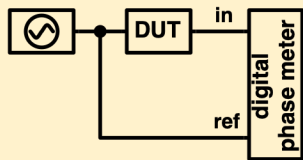
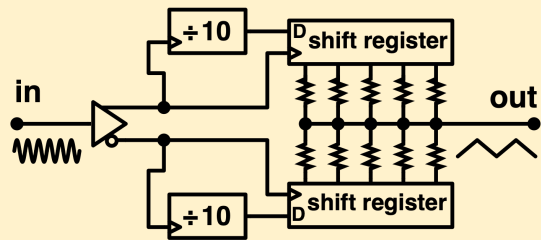


MAX 3000 CPLD [300 nm] (1)

Π divider



Λ divider



- 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

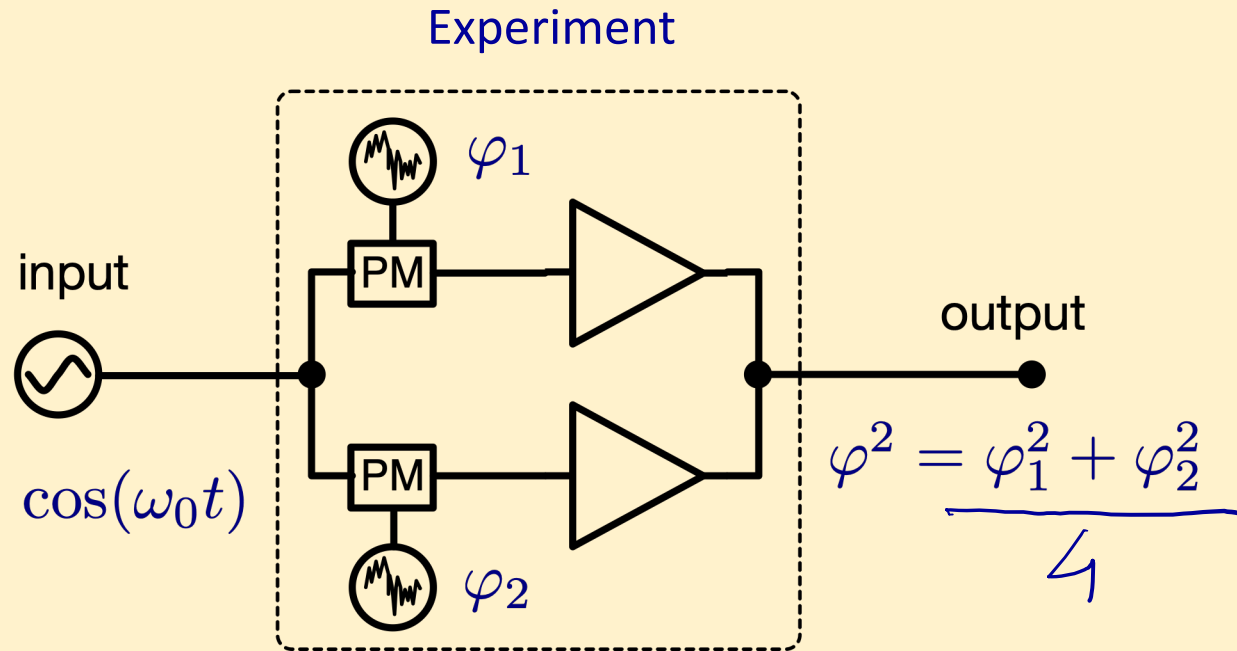
Input Chatter

Internal PLL

Thermal Effects

.....

The Volume Law



- 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

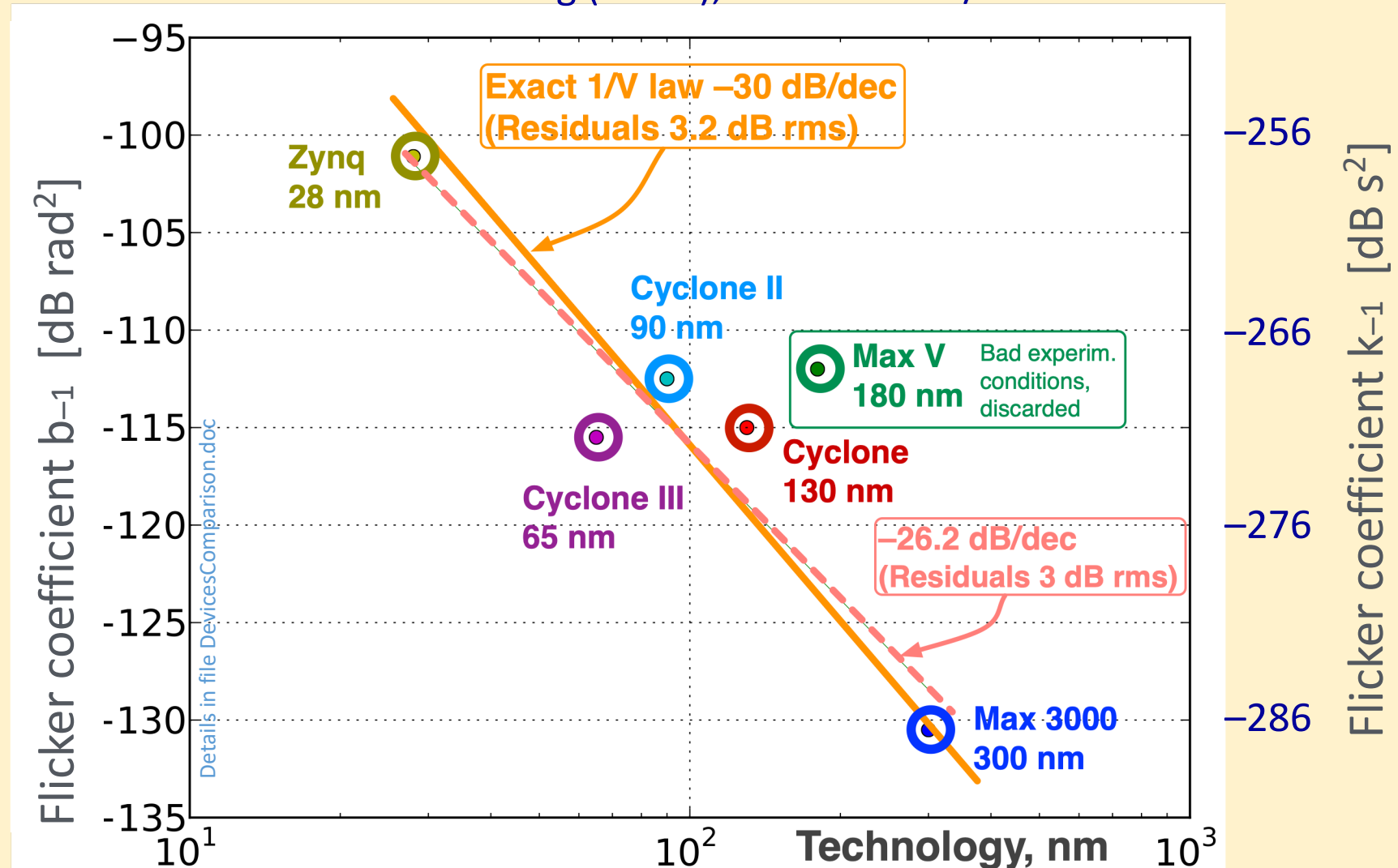
- Flicker is of microscopic origin because it has Gaussian PDF
- Join the m branches into a compound
- $1/f$ noise is proportional to $1/V$, the volume of the active region

The Volume Law!

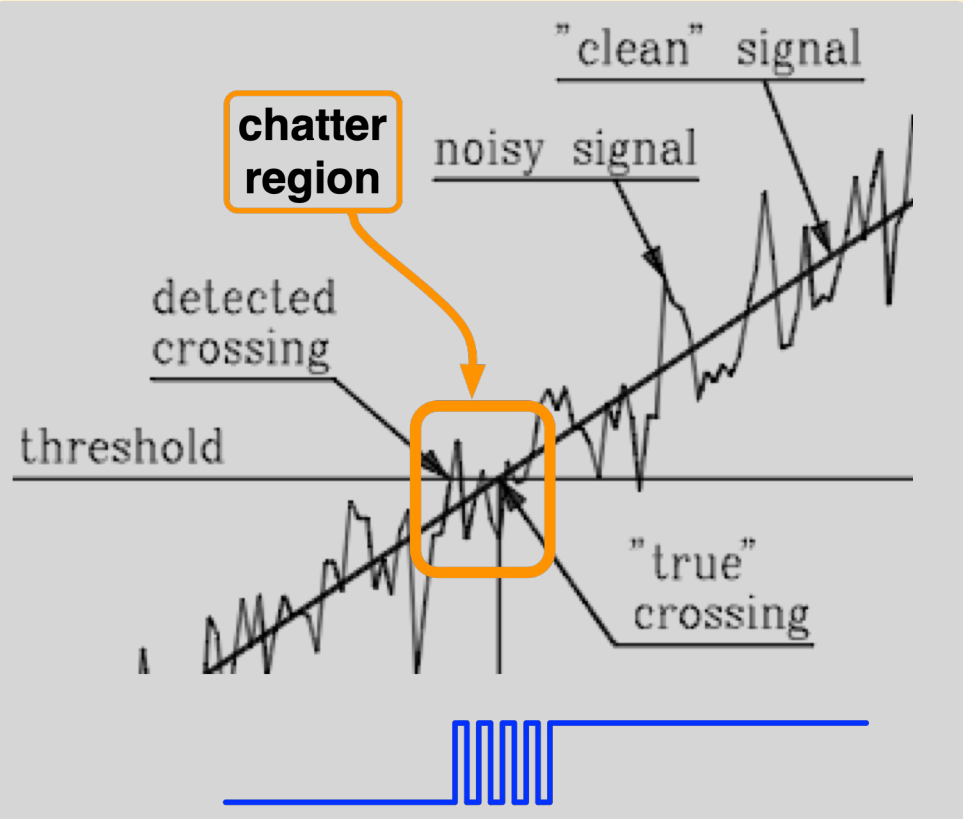
All devices used as $\div 10$ Λ divider at 100 MHz input

(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

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

$$SR = 2\pi\nu_0 V_0$$

Wide band noise

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

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

Chatter threshold

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

Example

- $V_0 = 100$ mV peak
- 10 nV/√Hz noise
- 650 MHz max → 2 GHz noise BW
- Chatter threshold $\nu = 5.2$ MHz

Simulation of Chatter

Conditions

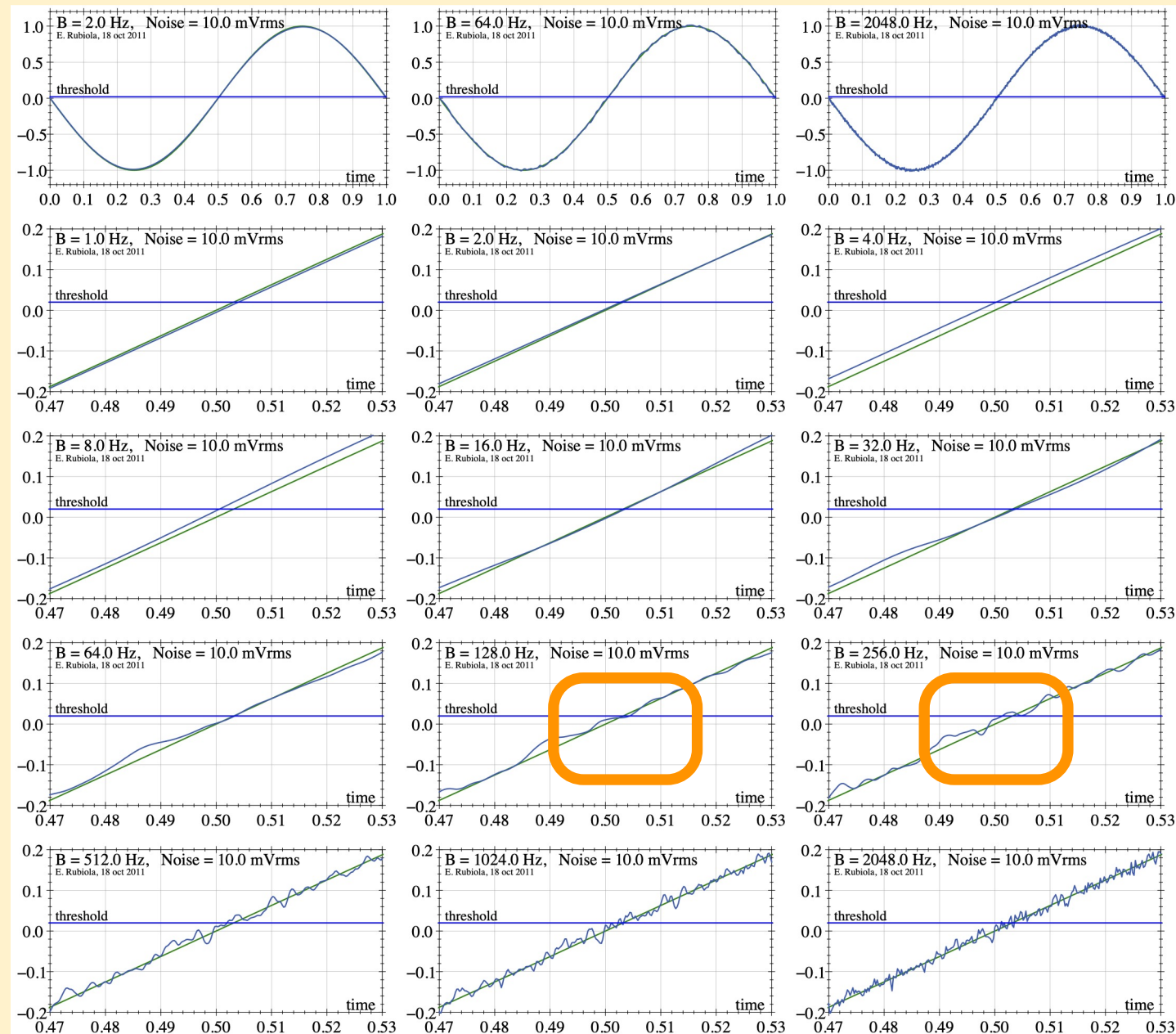
$$v_0 = 1 \text{ Hz,}$$

$$V_0 = 1 \text{ V}_{\text{peak}}$$

$$\sqrt{\langle v_0^2 \rangle} = 10 \text{ mV rms noise}$$

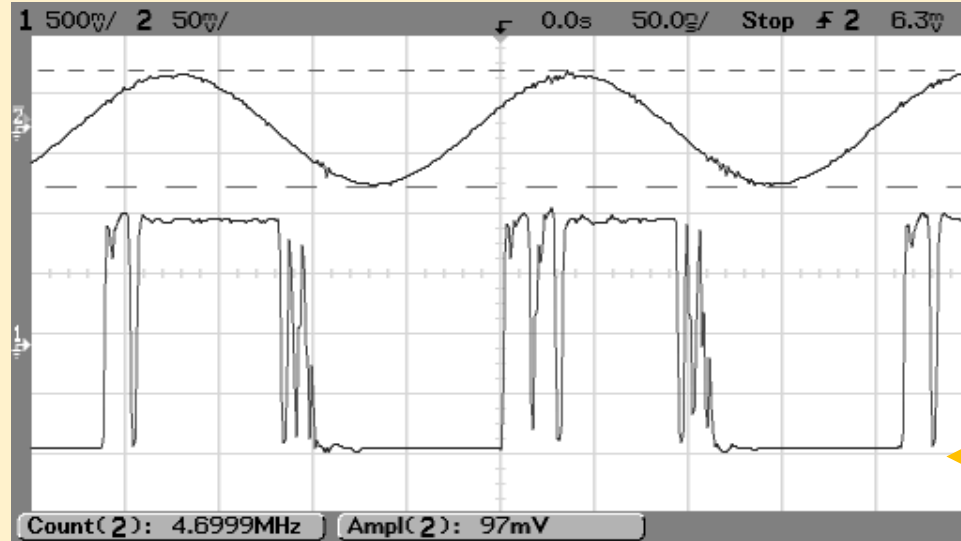
Noise BW increases in powers of 2

De-normalize for your needs

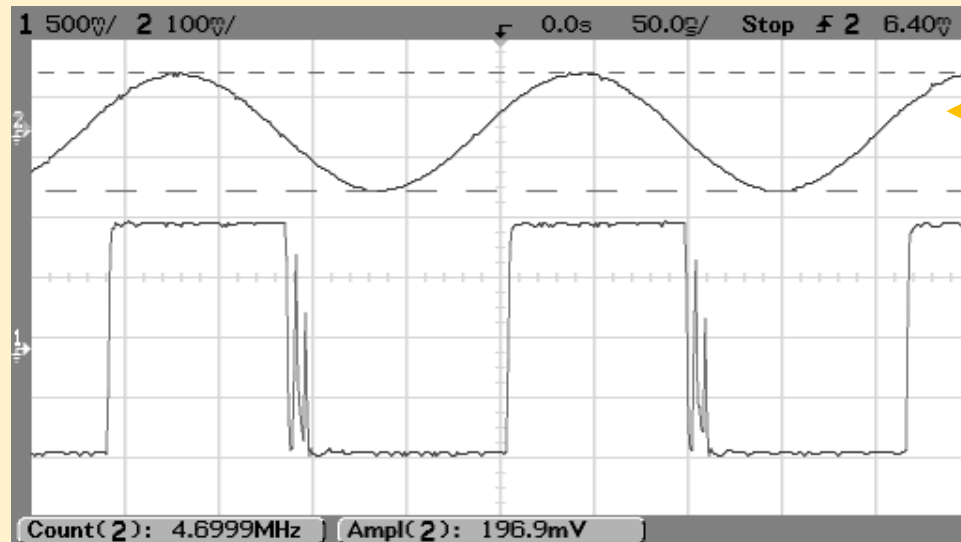


Input Chatter – Example

Good agreement with theory



← $V_0 = 50 \text{ mV}$ (100 mV_{pp})
 $\nu_0 = 4.7 \text{ MHz}$



← $V_0 = 100 \text{ mV}$ (200 mV_{pp})
 $\nu_0 = 4.7 \text{ MHz}$

Experiment

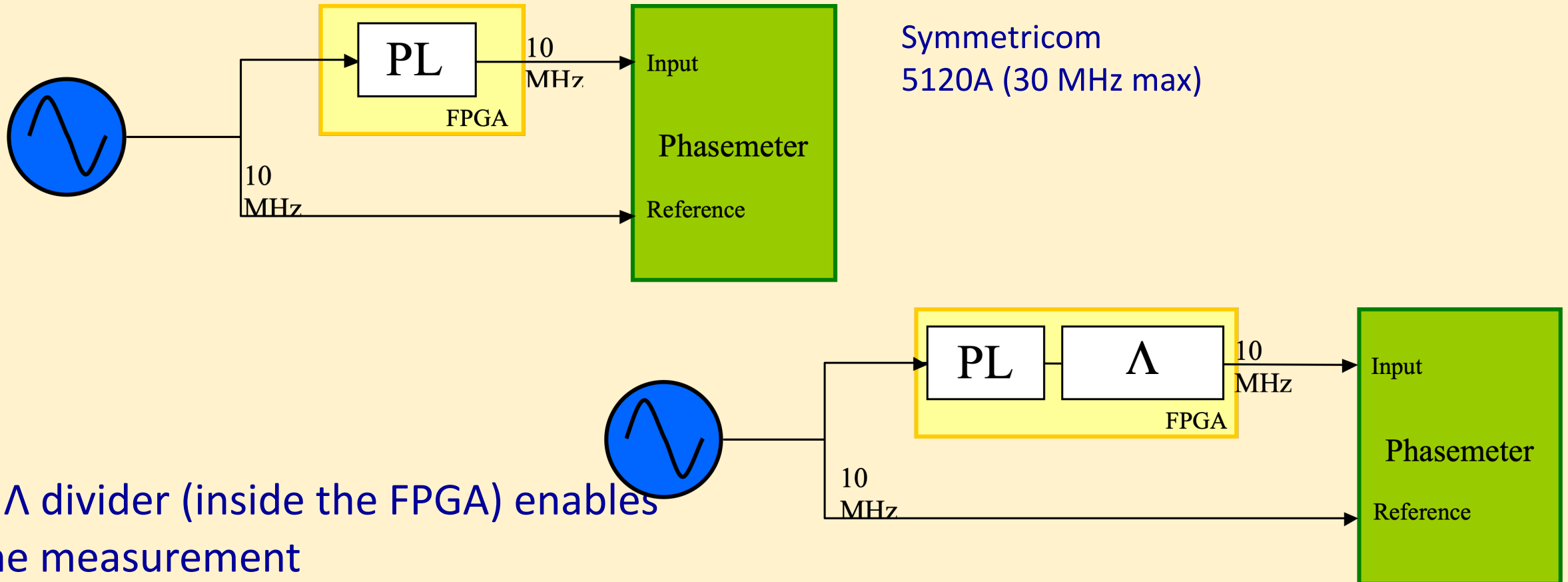
- Cyclone III FPGA
- Estimated noise $10 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$
- Estimated BW 2 GHz

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

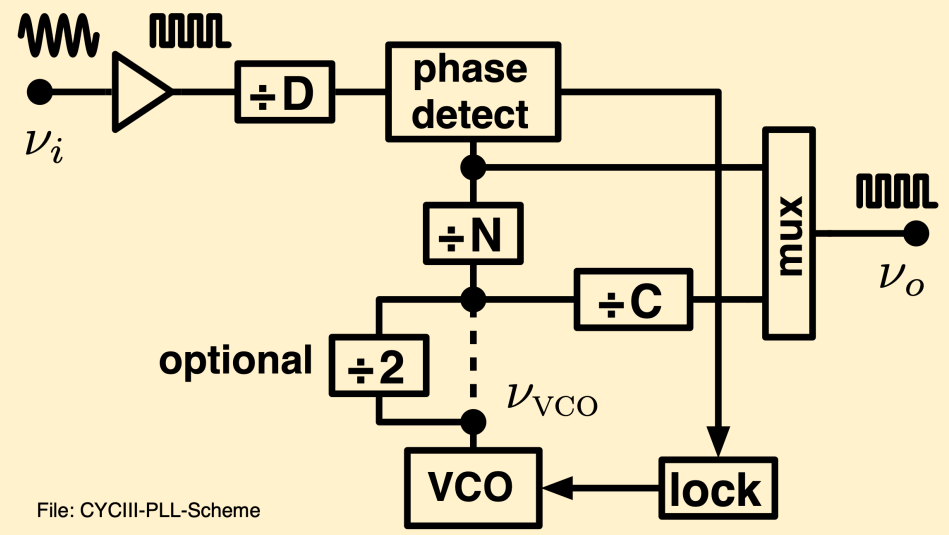
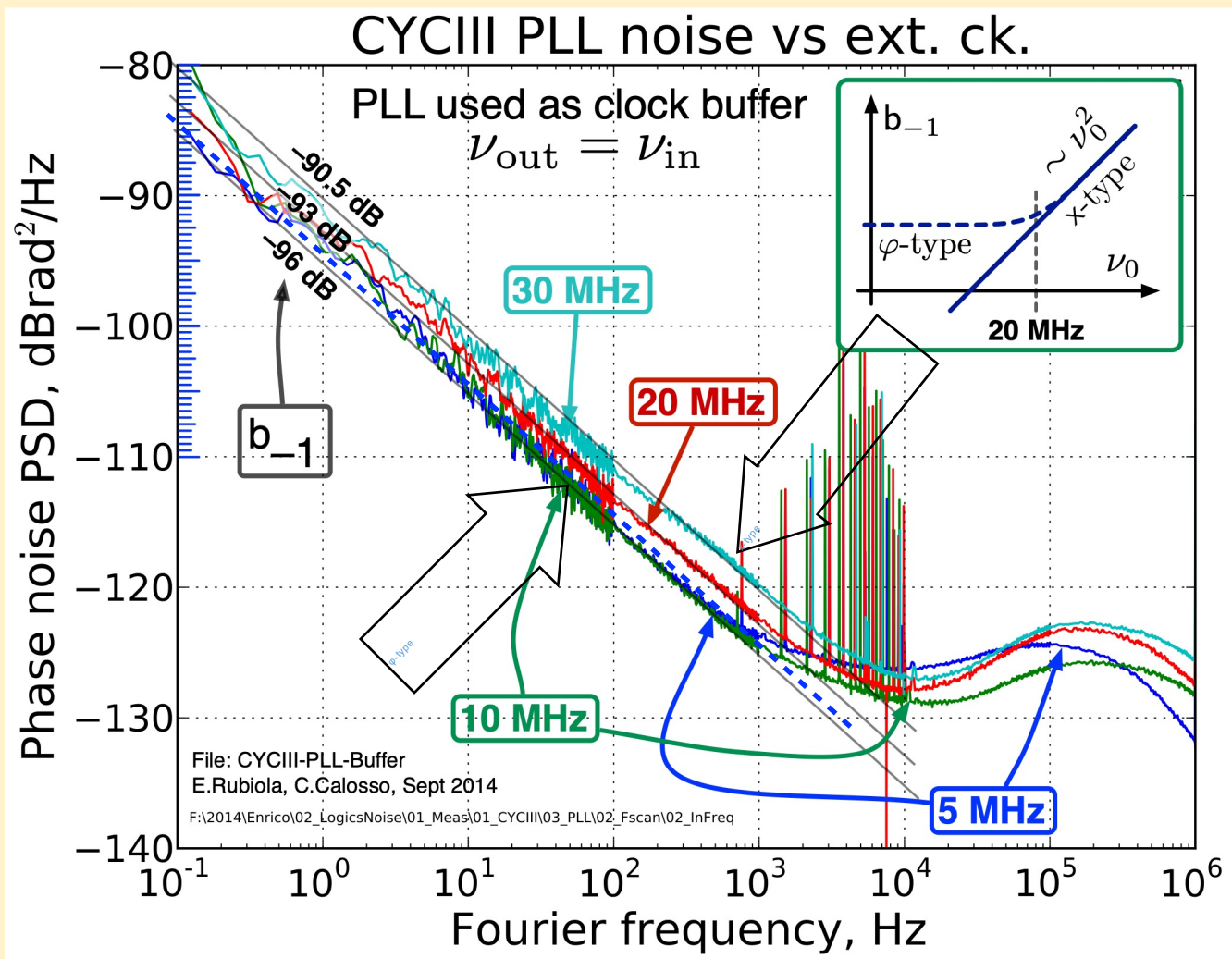


A Λ divider (inside the FPGA) enables
the measurement

The divider noise is low enough
A trick to work at low frequency

Cyclone III Internal PLL

PLL used as a buffer



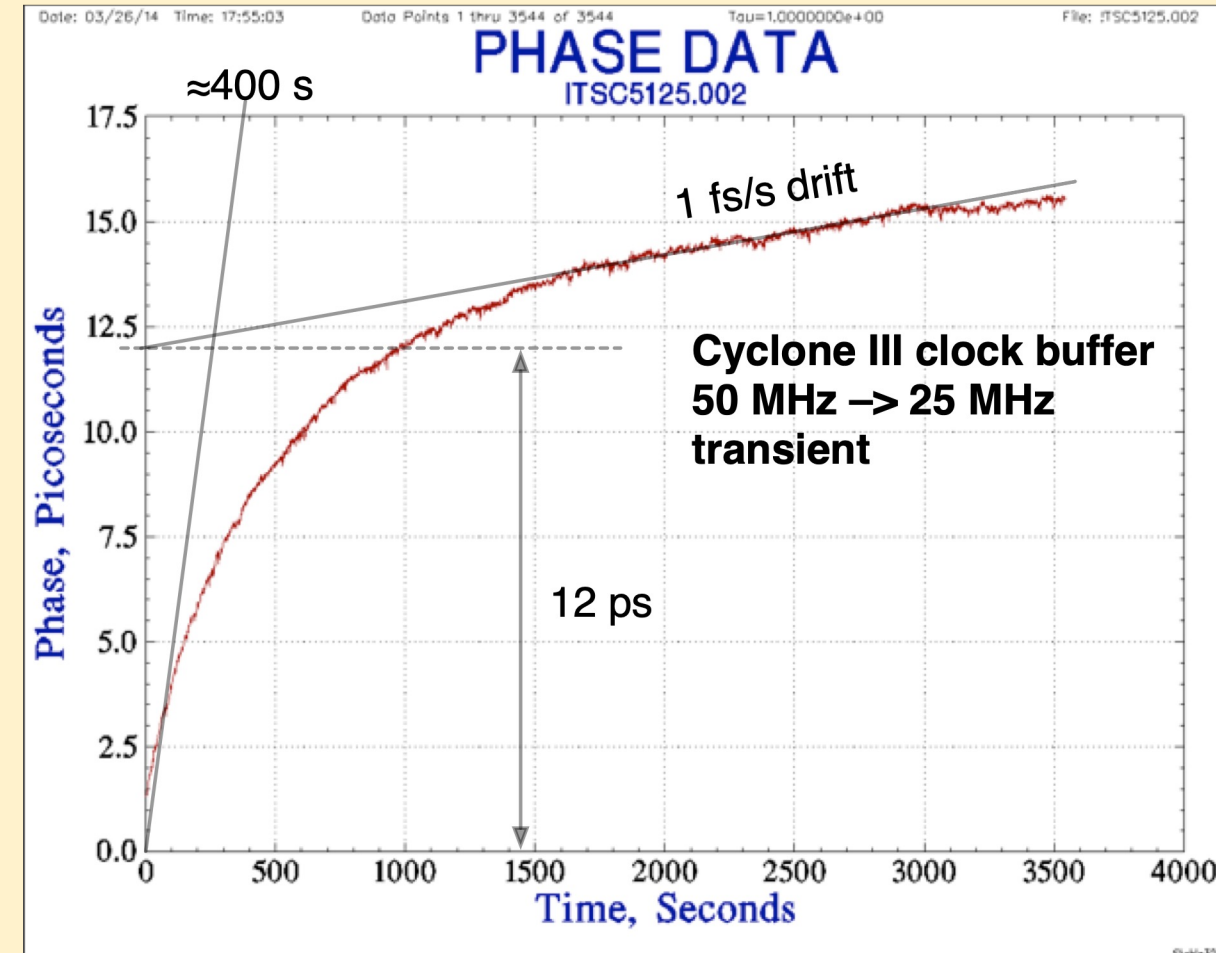
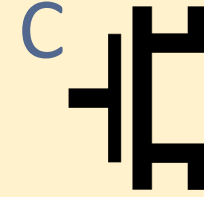
- LC oscillator, 0.6–1.3 GHz, $Q \approx 10$
- Optional $\div 2$ always present
- We set $D = 1$ (for lowest noise)
- QUARTUS app chooses C and N

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

x-type → analog noise in the phase detector

Thermal Effects

- Principle
 - FPGA dissipation change ΔP by acting on frequency
 - Energy $E = CV^2$ 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) \rightarrow trusted result

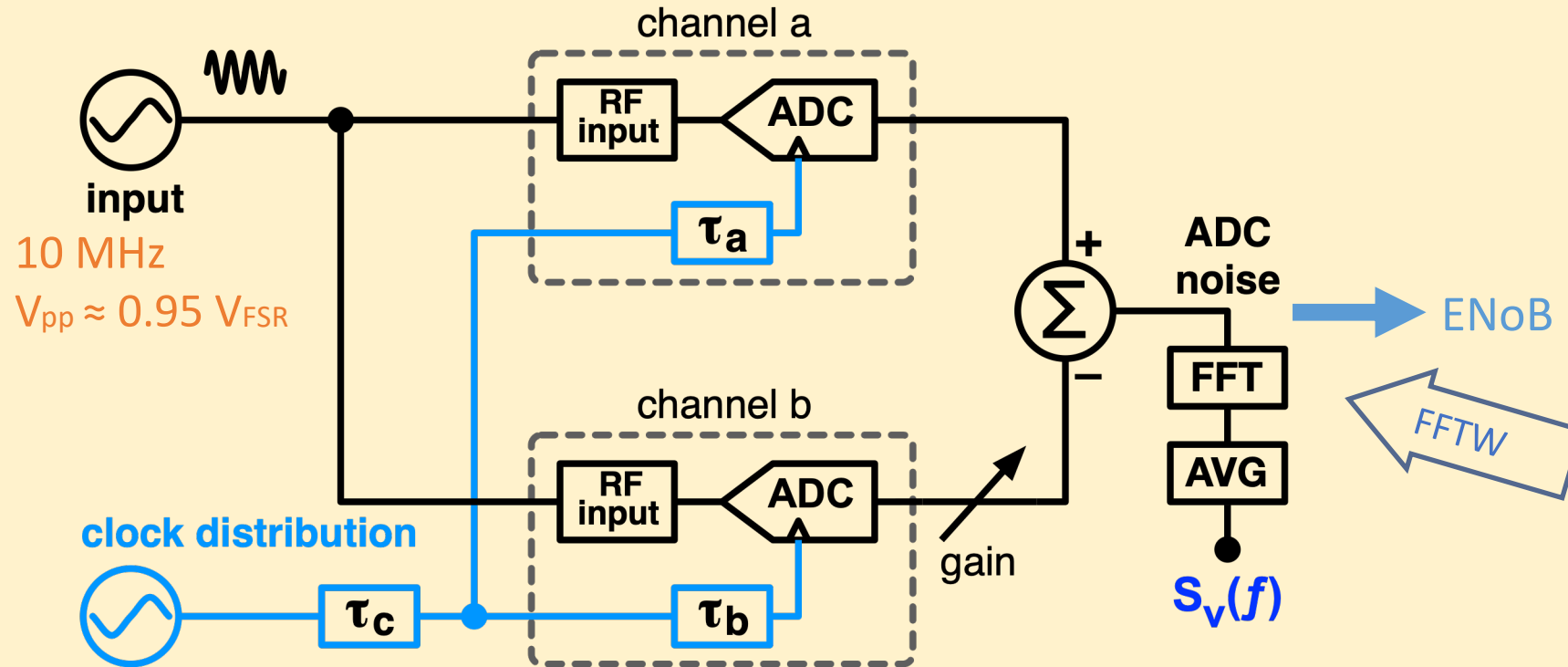


Outcomes

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

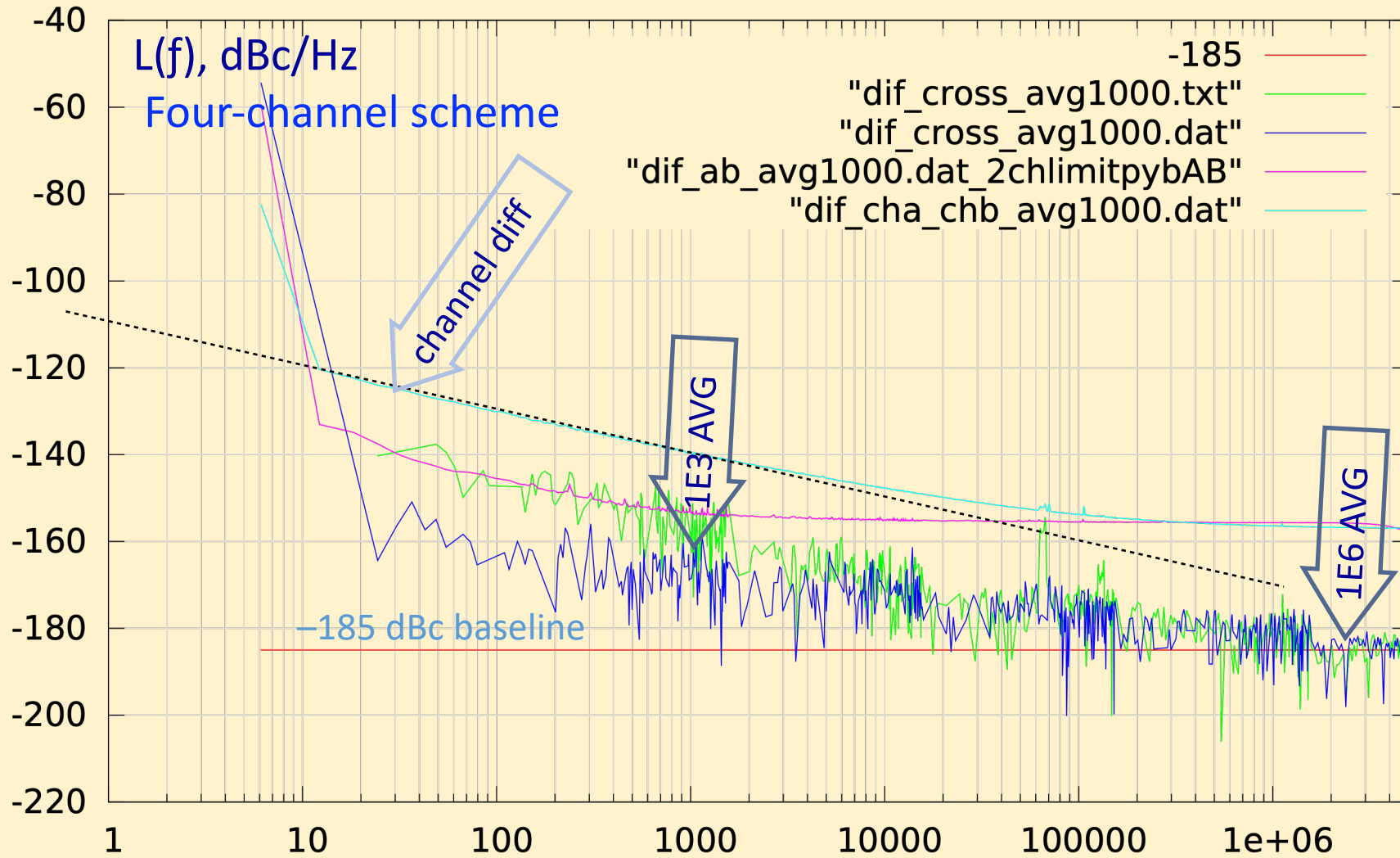
Transition Noise Measurement



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

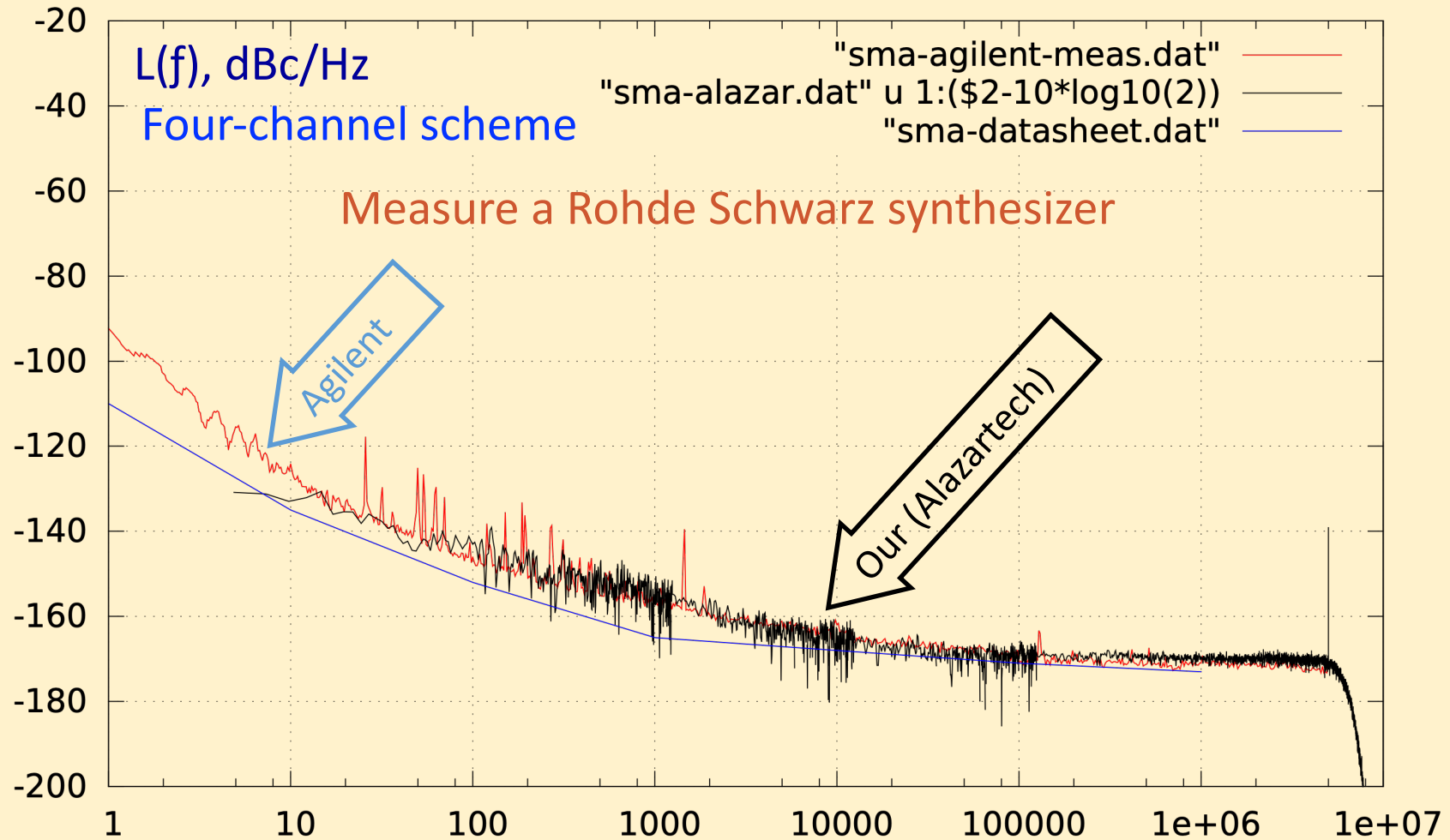
At 10 MHz input, the effect of ≈ 100 fs jitter does not show up

Background Noise



Compared to a Commercial Instrument

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



4 – DDSs

Basics

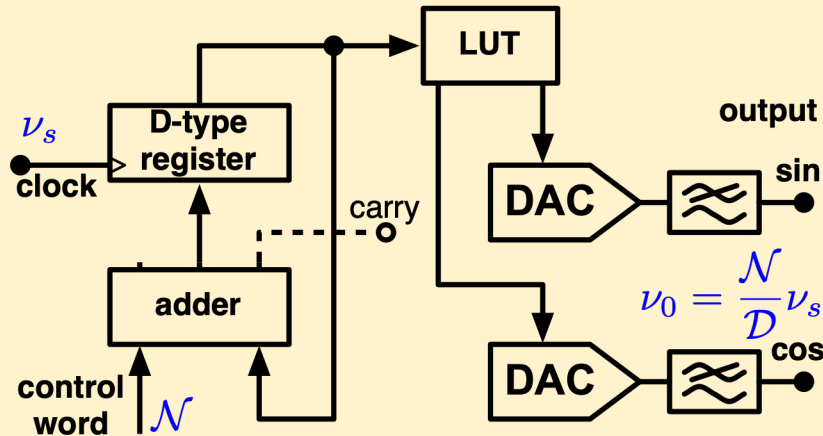
Advanced

Experiments

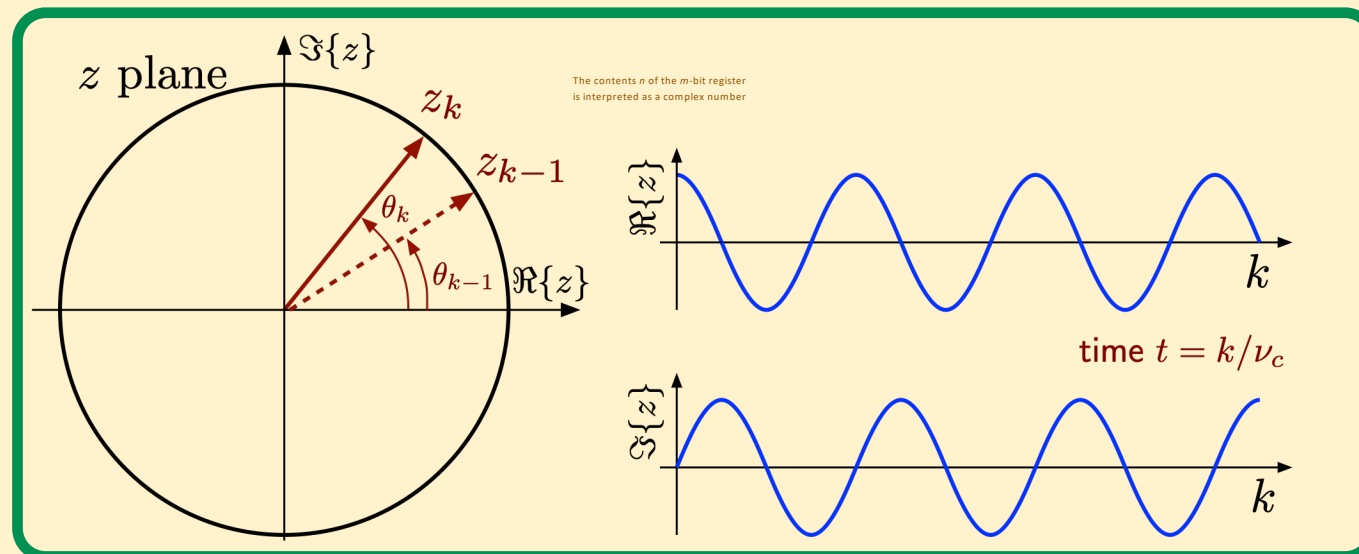
Basic DDS Scheme

replace $\theta \rightarrow \phi$

integer: $n_k = (n_{k-1} + \mathcal{N}) \bmod \mathcal{D}$
 complex: $z_k = z_{k-1} \exp(j\eta)$
 phase: $\theta_k = (\theta_{k-1} + \eta) \bmod 2\pi$

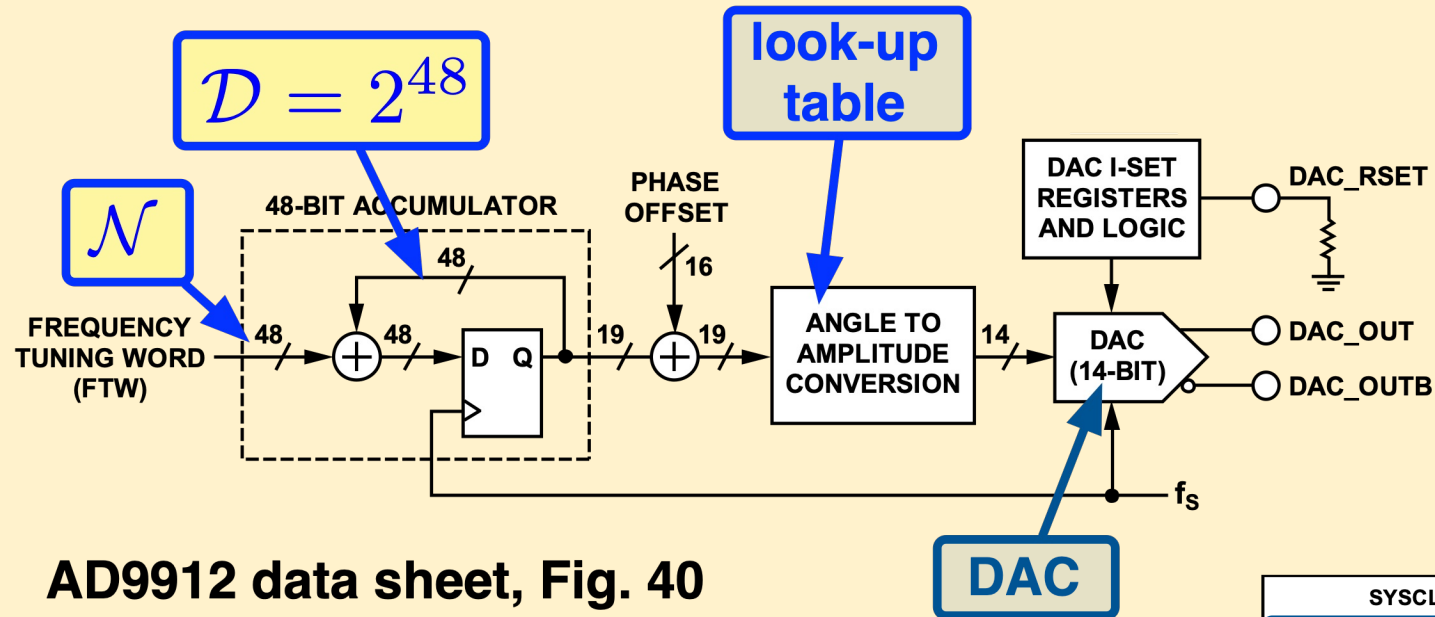


quantity	digital	analog
state variable	n	$\theta = 2\pi \frac{n}{\mathcal{D}}$
assoc. complex		$z = e^{j\theta}$
modulo	$\mathcal{D} = 2^m$	2π
increment	\mathcal{N}	$\eta = 2\pi \frac{\mathcal{N}}{\mathcal{D}}$
time	$k, 0, 1, 2, \dots$	$t = k/\nu_s$
clock freq. ν_s	output freq. $\nu_0 = \frac{\mathcal{N}}{\mathcal{D}} \nu_s$	

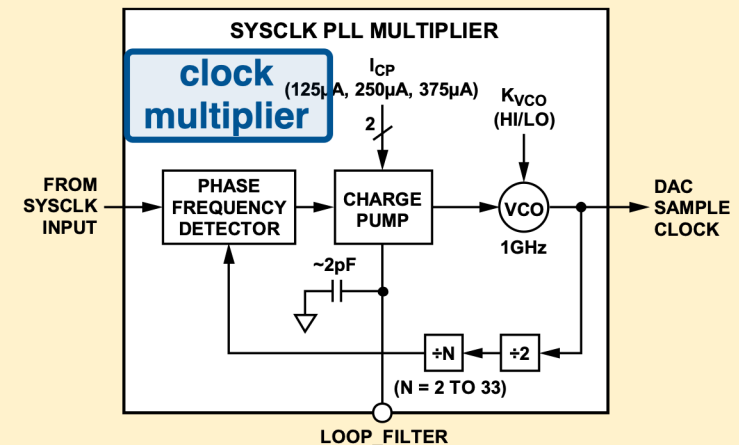


AD9912, a Fast DDS

48 bit accumulator, 14 bit DAC, 1 GHz clock



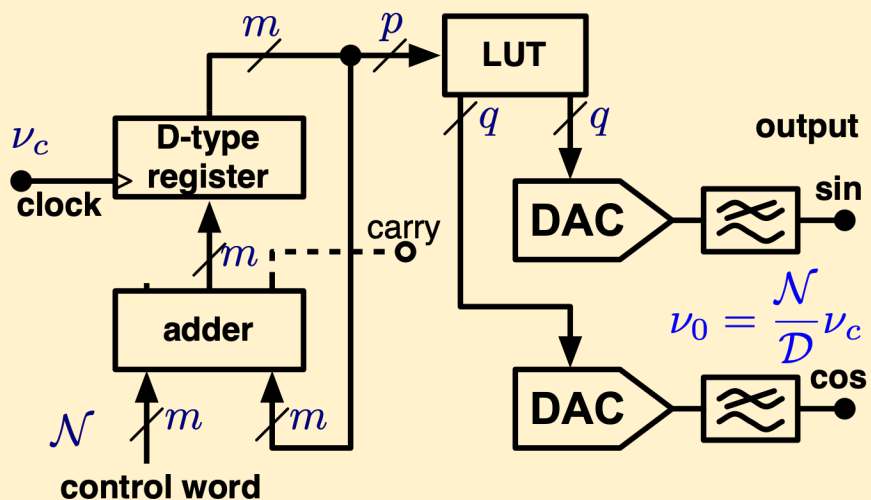
AD9912 data sheet, Fig. 40



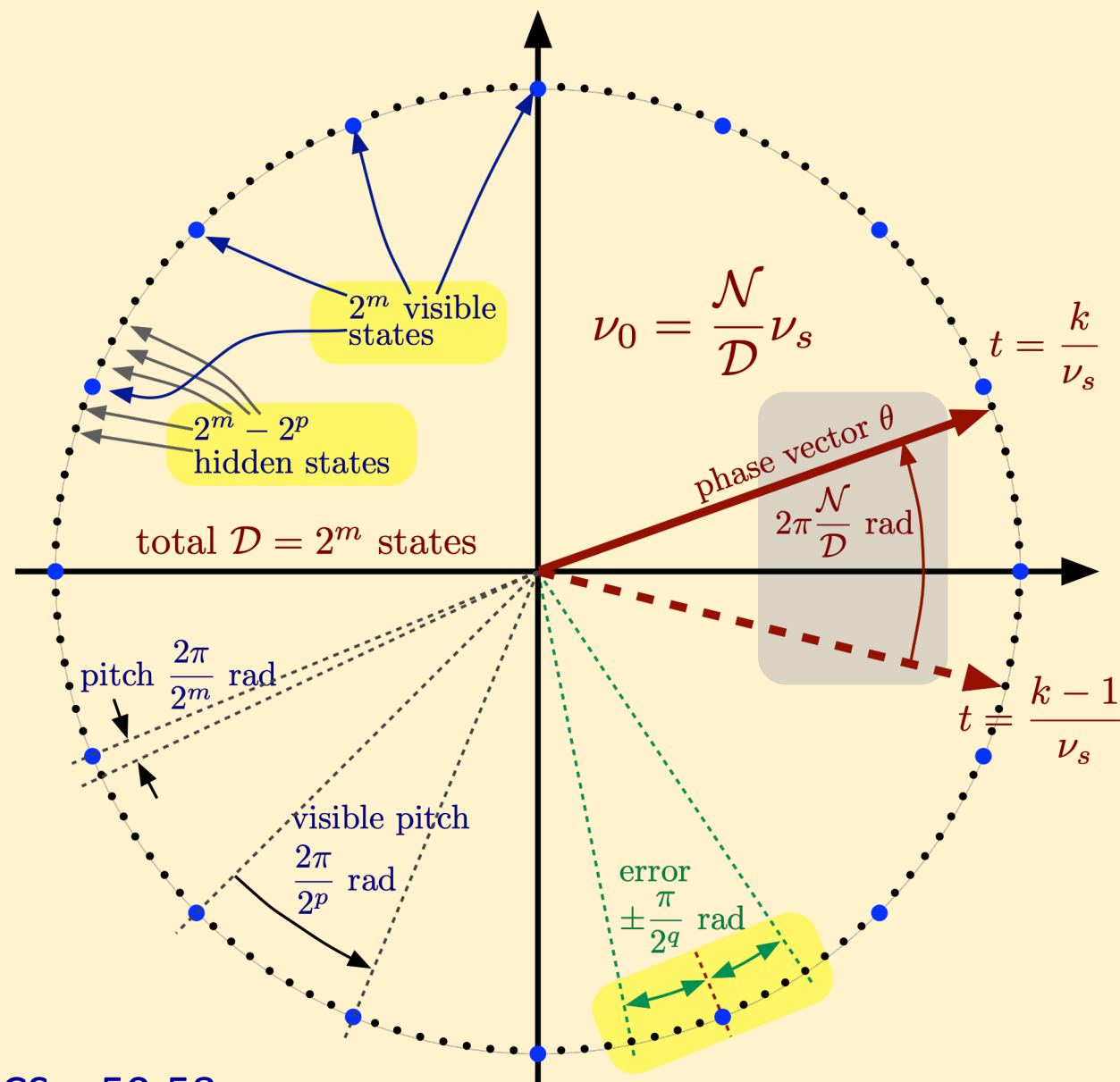
AD9912 data sheet, Fig. 45

State-Variable Truncation

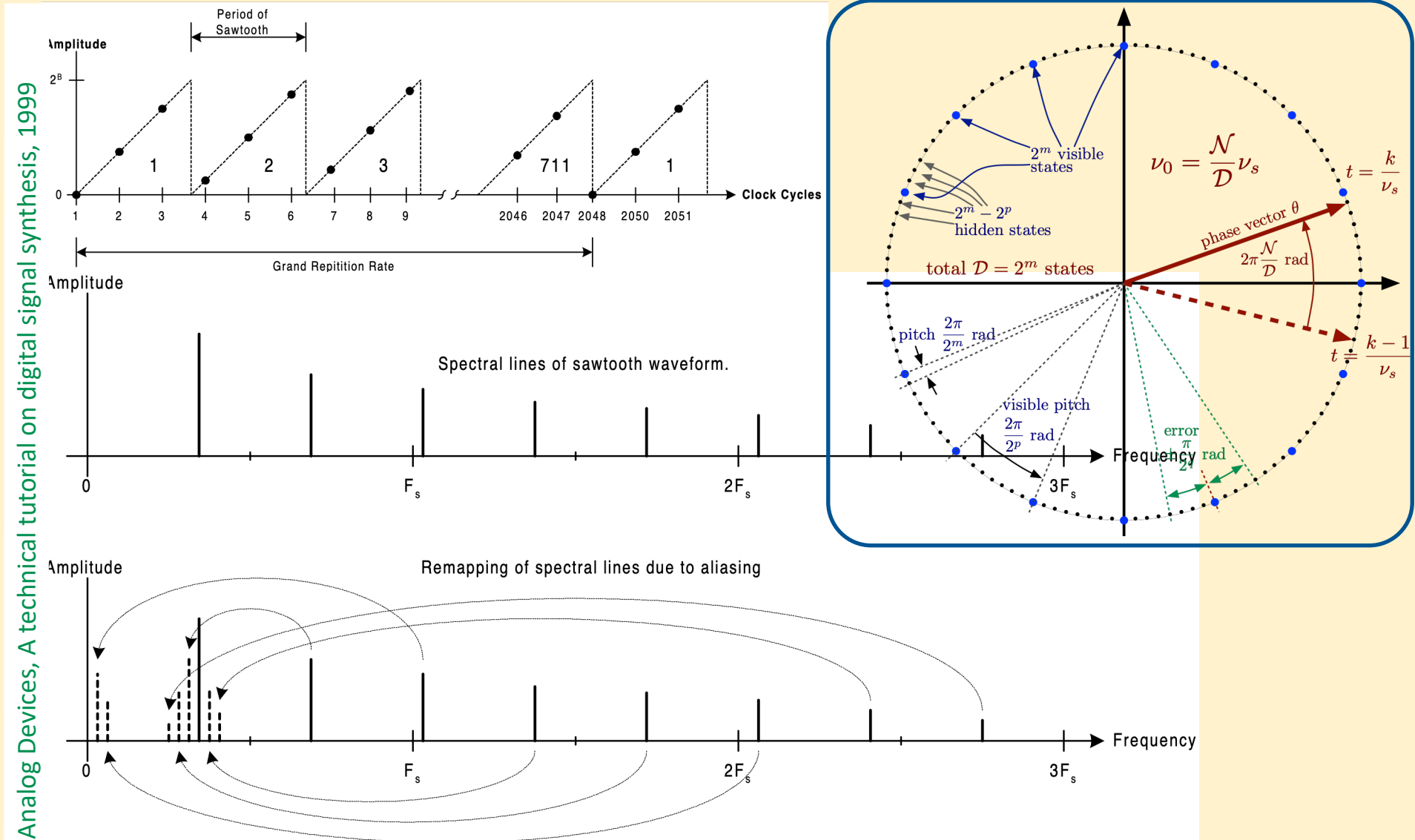
$$n_k = (n_{k-1} + \mathcal{N}) \bmod \mathcal{D}, \quad \mathcal{D} = 2^m$$



- Only quantization shows up with full m-bit conversion
- Technology \rightarrow q max
- Why $p > q$
- Slow pseudorandom beat, 3d 6h 11m 15s @ 1 GHz, 48 bit

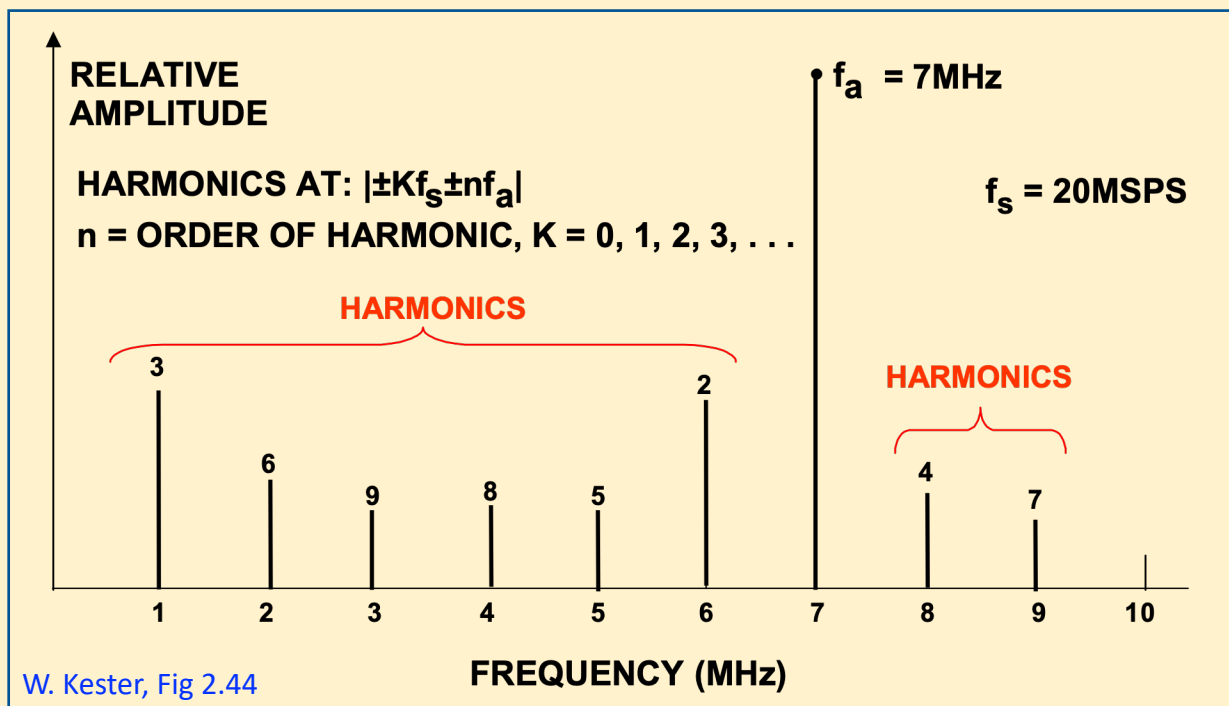


Truncation Generates Spurs



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

Distortion and Aliasing



Sampling $f_s = 20 \text{ MHz}$
 Nyquist $f_N = 10 \text{ MHz}$
 Output $f_a = 7 \text{ MHz}$

- 2nd. $2 \times 7 = 14$, mirror to 10 $\rightarrow 6$
- 3rd. $3 \times 7 = 21$, take away 20 $\rightarrow 1$
- 4th. $4 \times 7 = 28$, take away 20 $\rightarrow 8$
- 5th. $5 \times 7 = 35$, take away 20 $\rightarrow 15$, mirror to 10 $\rightarrow 5$
- 6th. $6 \times 7 = 42$, take away 40 $\rightarrow 2$
- 7th. $7 \times 7 = 49$, take away 40 $\rightarrow 9$
- 8th. $8 \times 7 = 56$, take away 40 $\rightarrow 16$, mirror to 10 $\rightarrow 4$
- 9th. $9 \times 7 = 63$, take away 60 $\rightarrow 3$

3.3 V: Lower PM Noise than 1.8 V

Probably related to the cell size and to the dynamic range

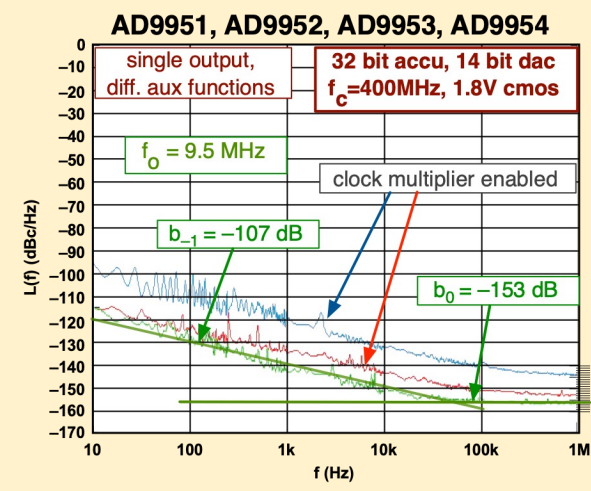
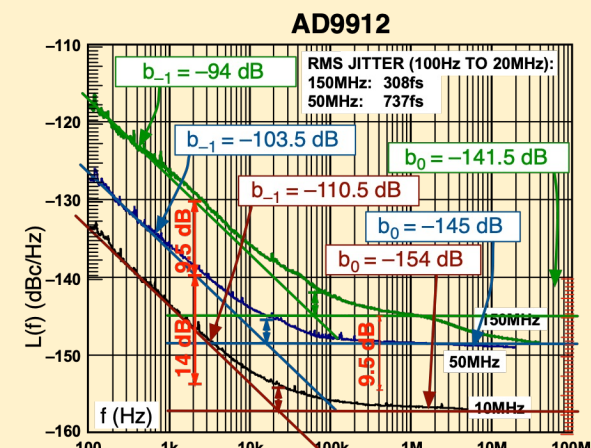
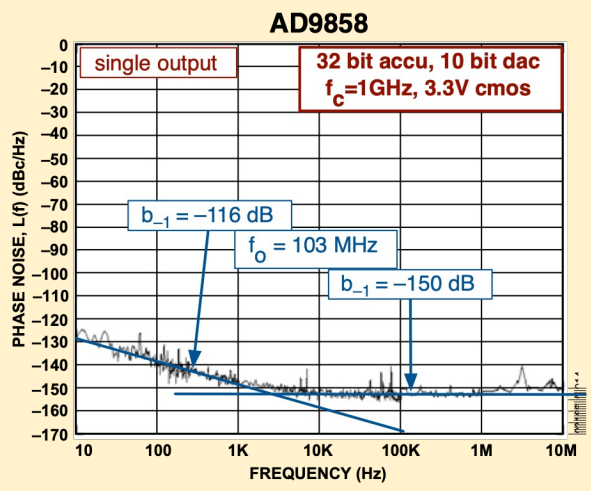
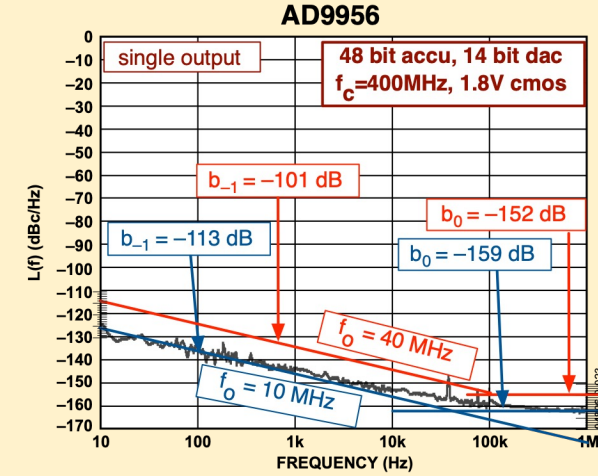
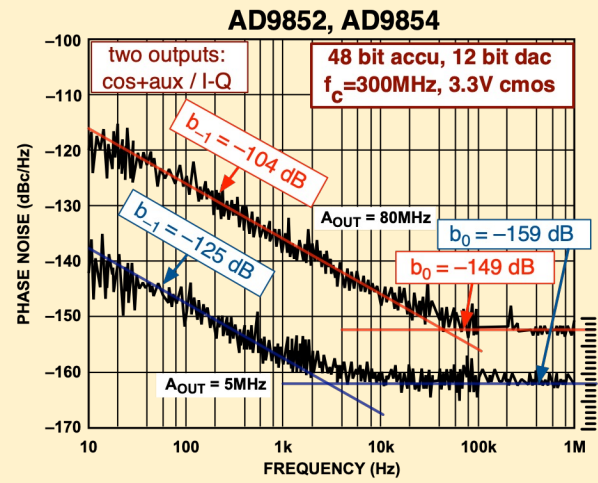
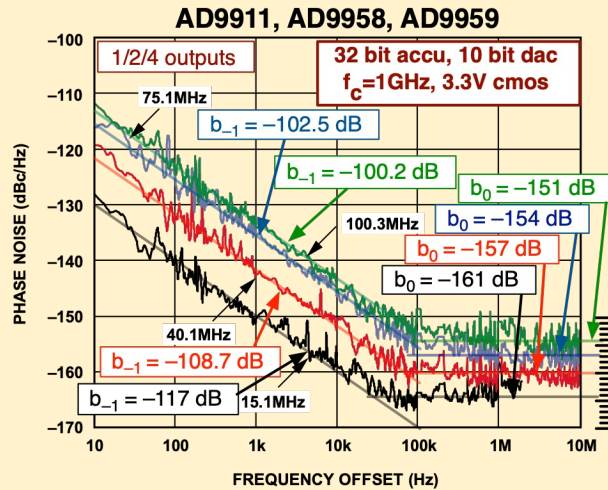


Figure 16. Absolute Phase Noise Using CMOS Driver at 3.3 V, SYSCLK = 1 GHz Wenzel Oscillator (SYSCLK PLL Bypassed) DDS Run at 200 MSPS for 10 MHz

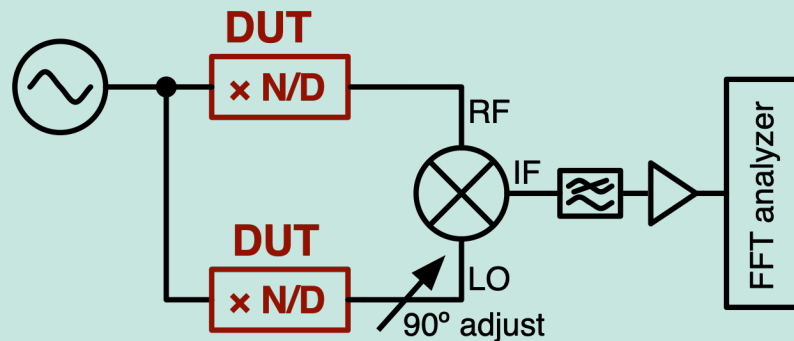
E. Rubiola, Mar 2007 (adapted from the Analog Devices data sheets)

Plots originally used to extract the noise parameters

Experimental Method (PM Noise)

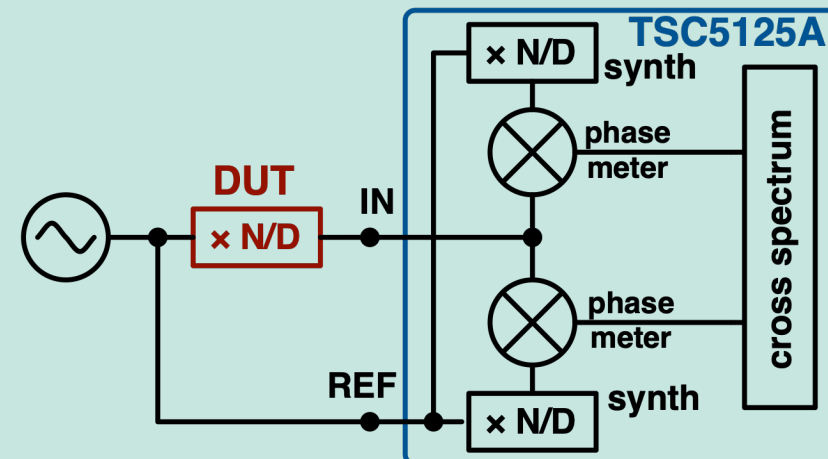
- Pseudorandom noise, slow beat (days)
- The probability that two accumulators are in phase is ≈ 0
- Two separate DDS driven by the same clock have a random and constant delay
- The delay de-correlates the two realizations, which makes the phase measurement possible

Single channel

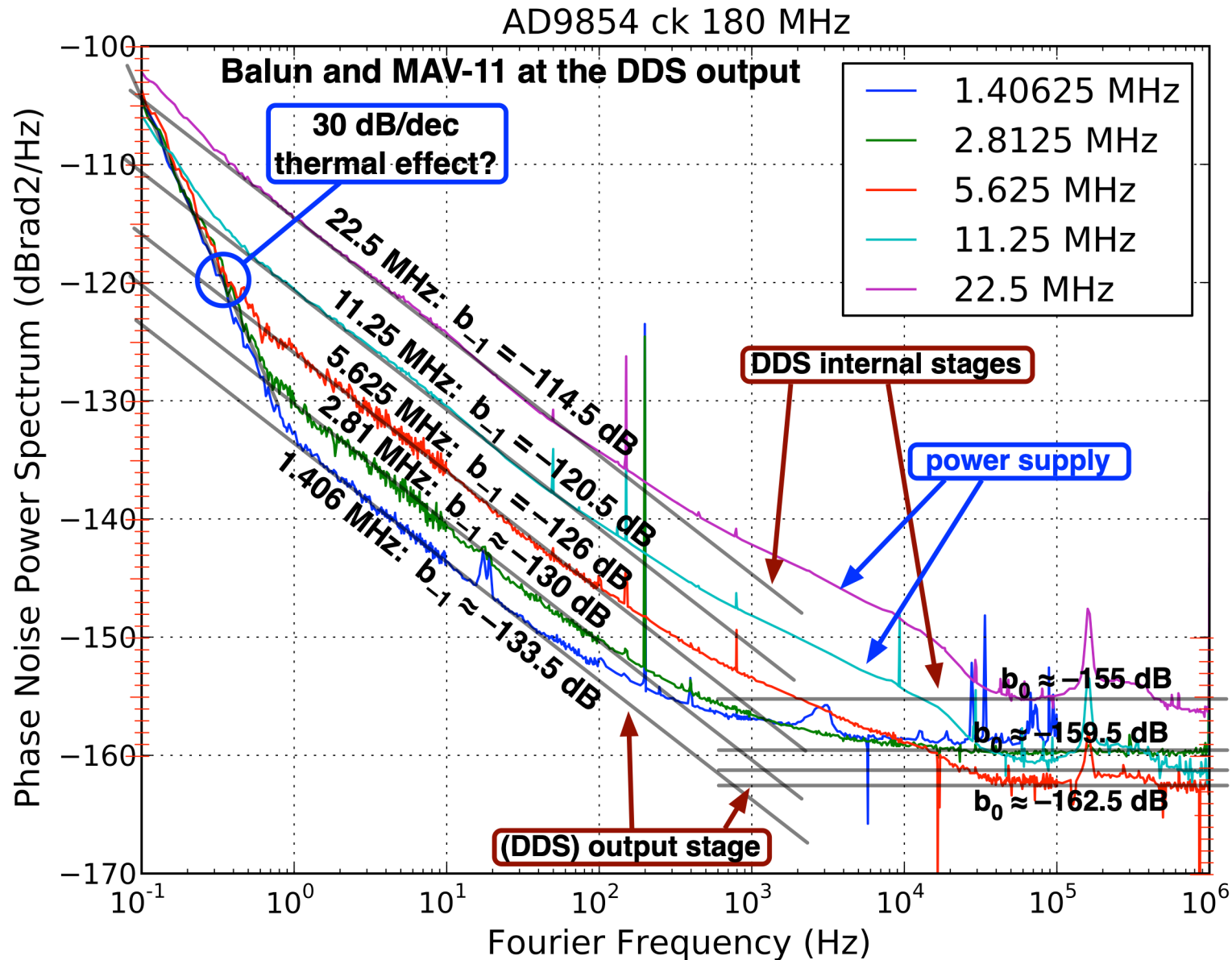


Dual channel

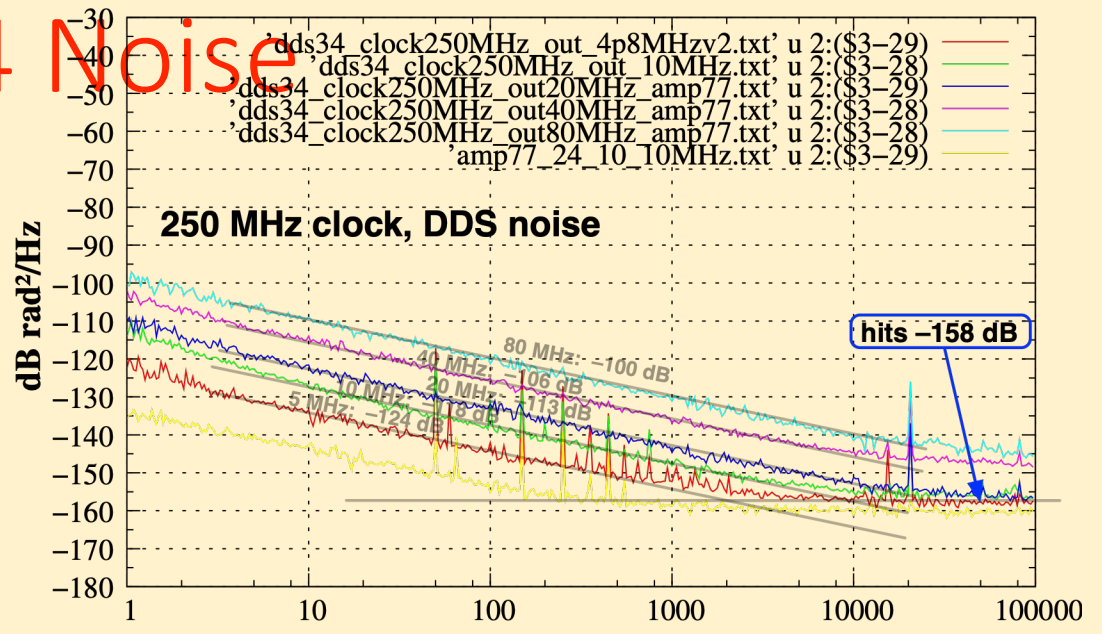
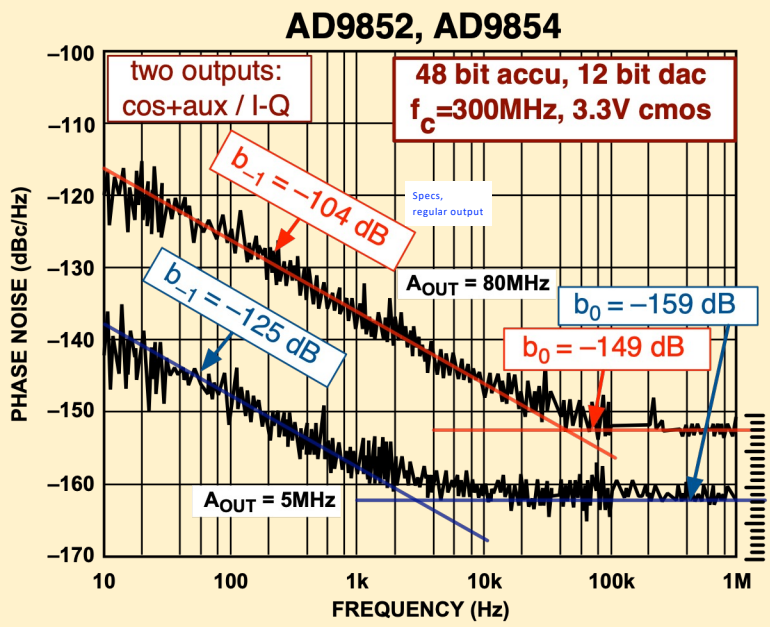
kind of virtual mixer, after (sub)sampling & direct ADC



PM Noise vs Output Frequency



AD9854 Noise

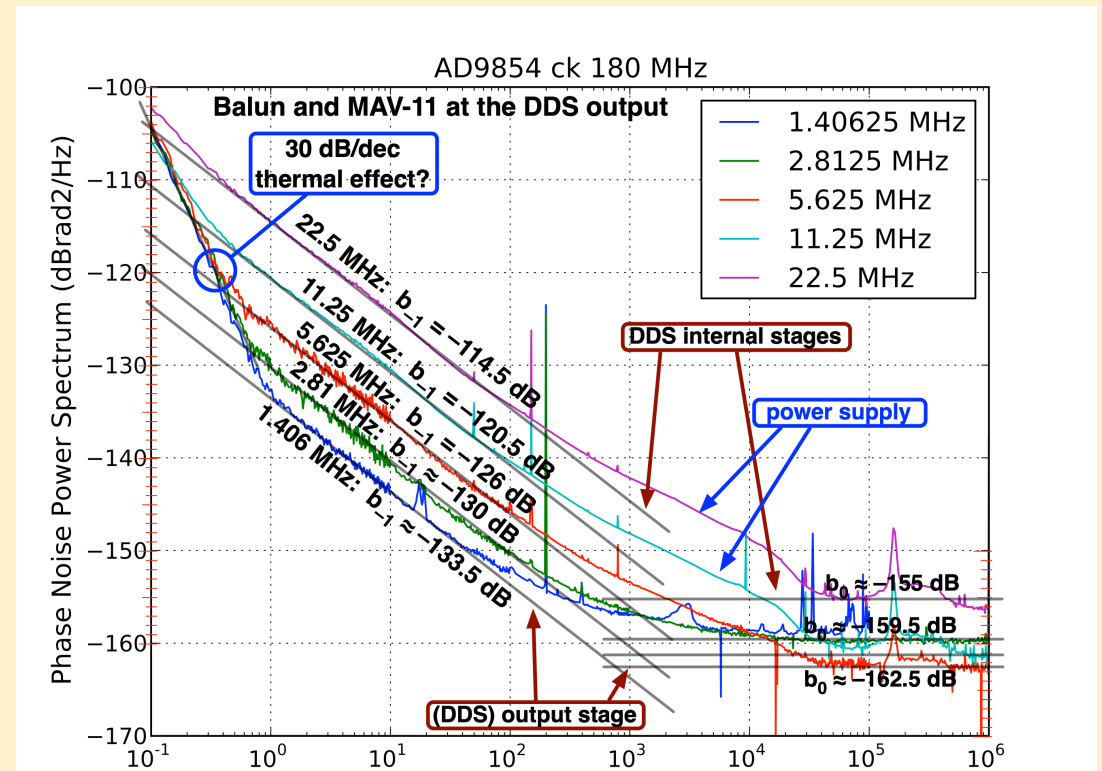


Flicker is in fair agreement
White is made low by spurs

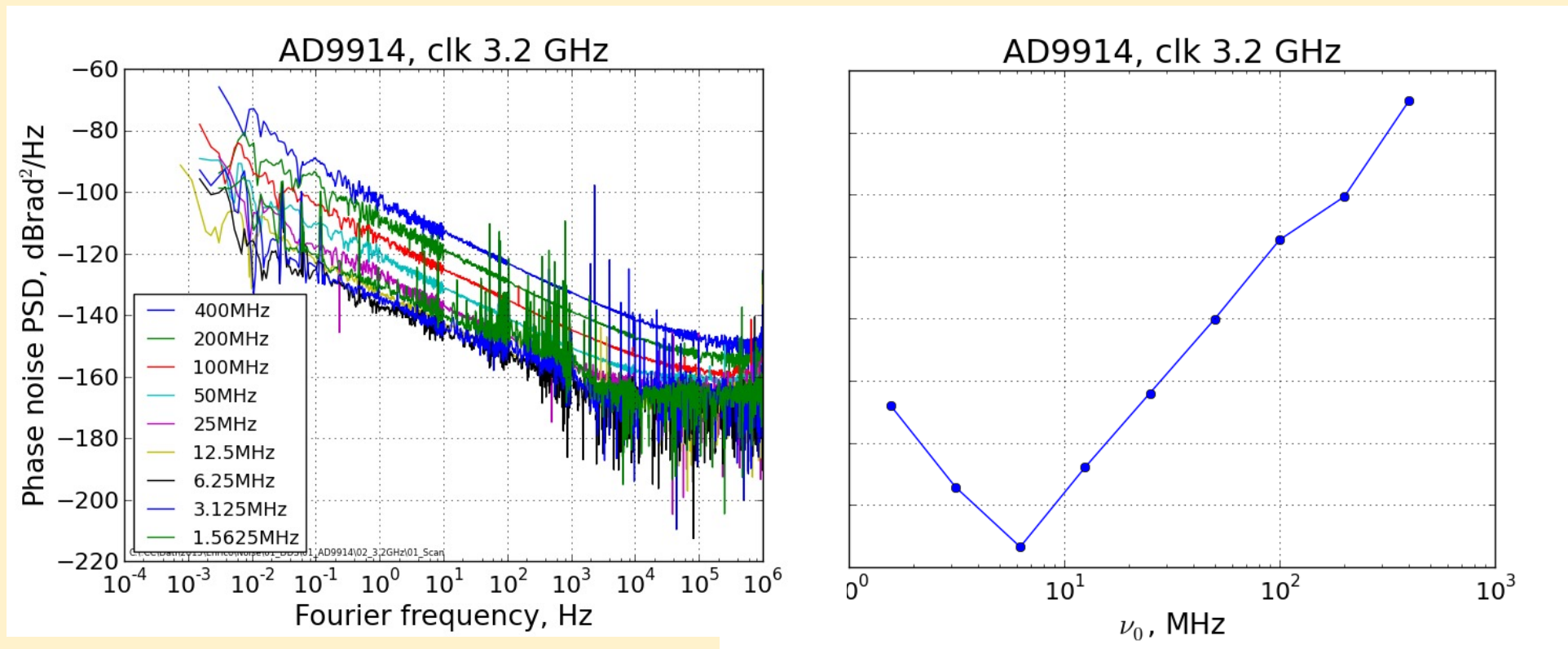
Basic formula for white noise

$$b_0 = \frac{4}{3} \frac{1}{2^{2n} \nu_s} \text{ rad}^2/\text{Hz}$$

who	meas, dB	math, dB	clock, MHz
specs	-159	-155.8	300
YG	-158	-155.0	250
CC	-162.5	-153.6	180



High-Frequency DDSs

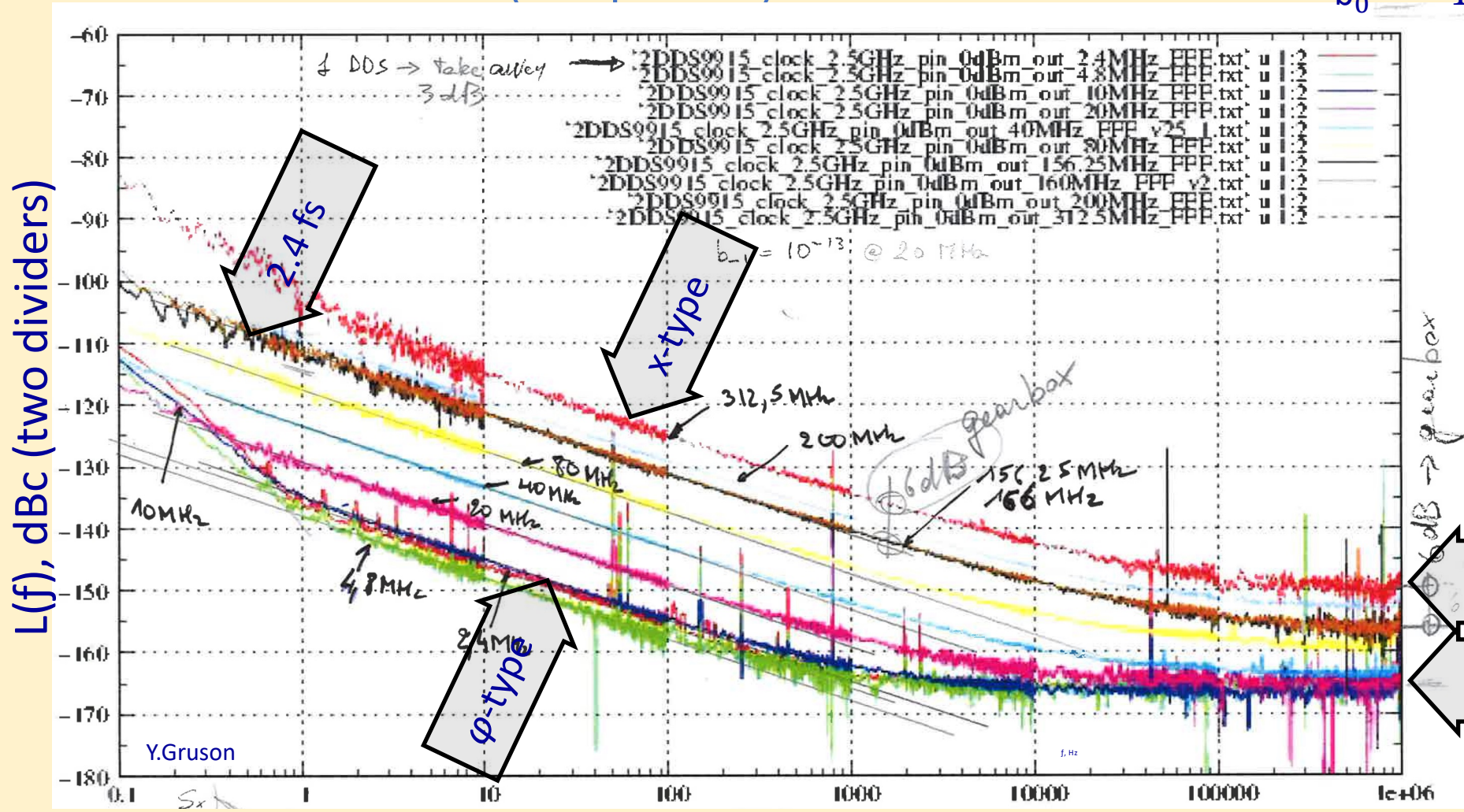


Measured by C. Calosso, INRIM

High-Frequency DDSs

AD9915 12 bit, 2.5 GHz
64 bit accumulator (135 pHz res)

ENOB = 12
 $v_{ck} = 5 \text{ GHz}$
 $b_0 = -165 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$



AD 9912 PM Noise

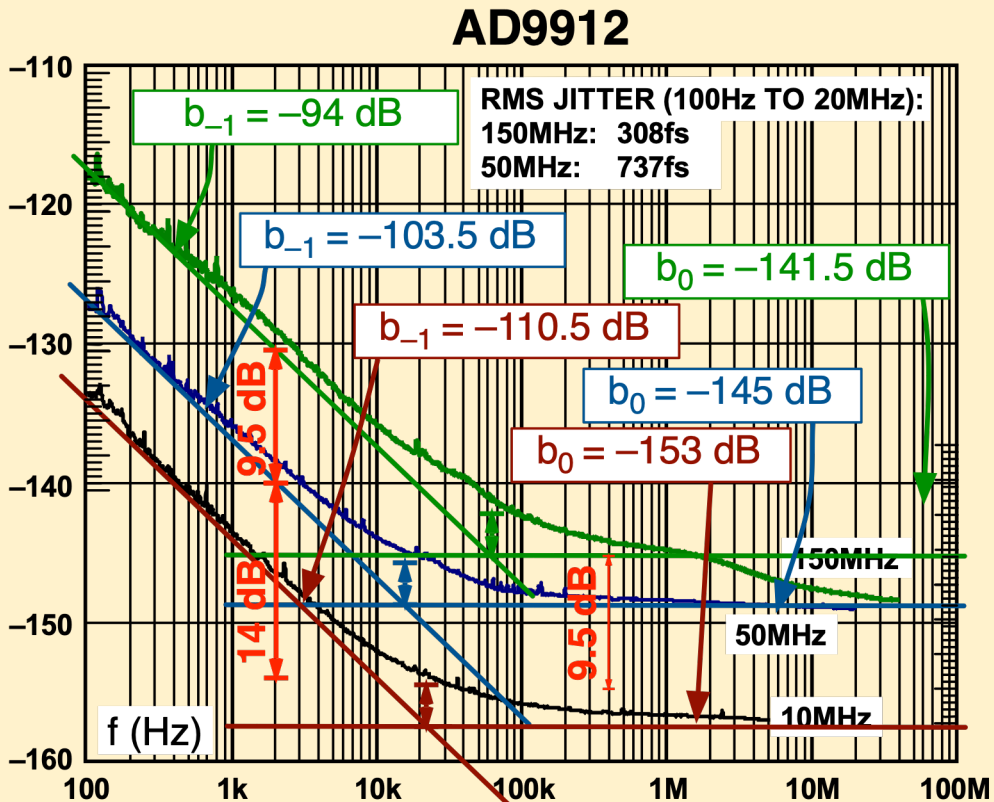
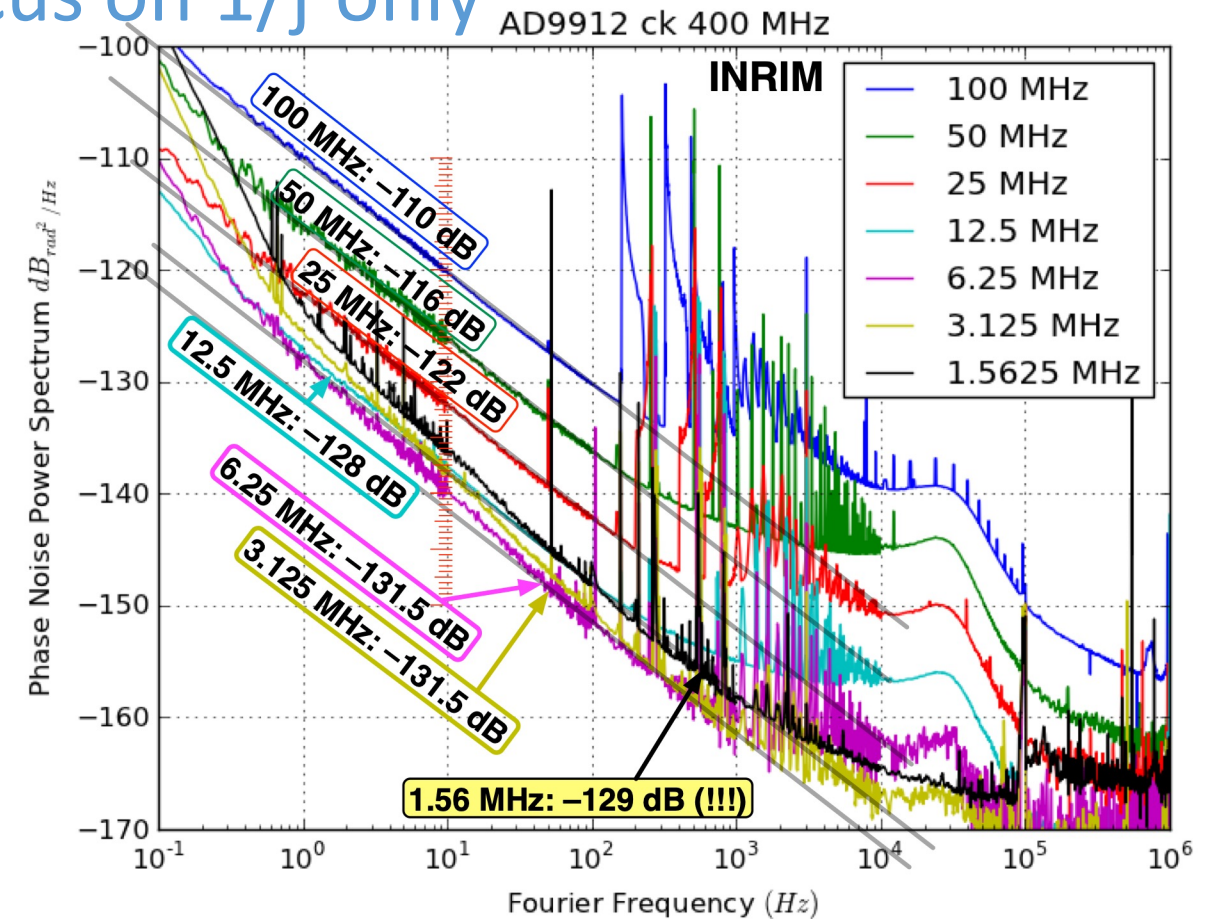


Figure 16. Absolute Phase Noise Using CMOS Driver at 3.3 V, SYSCLK = 1 GHz Wenzel Oscillator (SYSCLK PLL Bypassed) DDS Run at 200 MSPS for 10 MHz

Focus on 1/f only



- 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

5 — Dividers

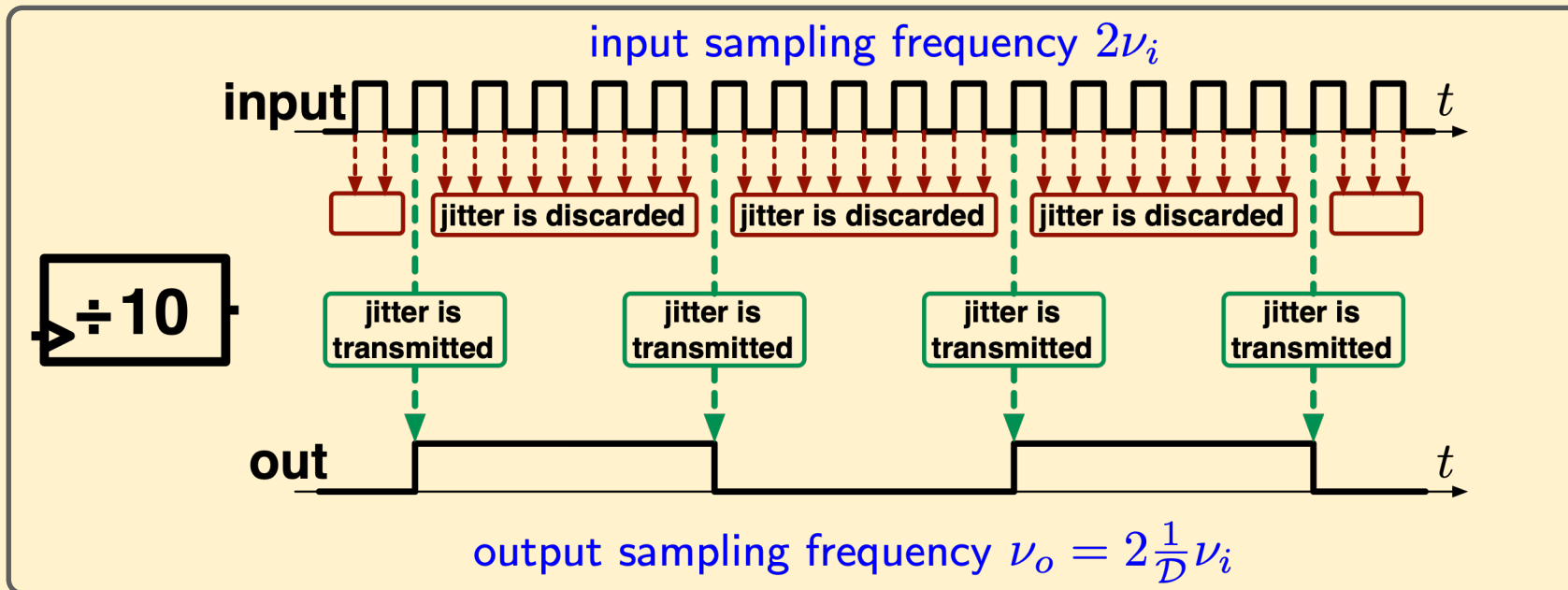
Π and Λ Dividers

Microwave Dividers

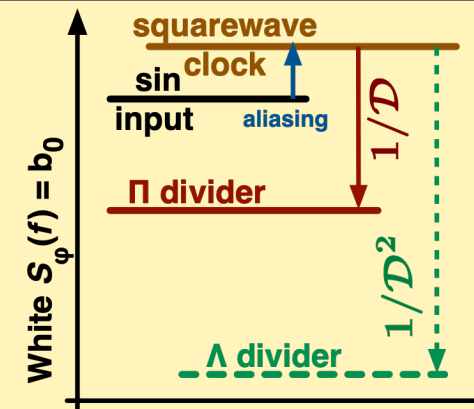
Aliasing in Π Divider

Regular synchronous divider

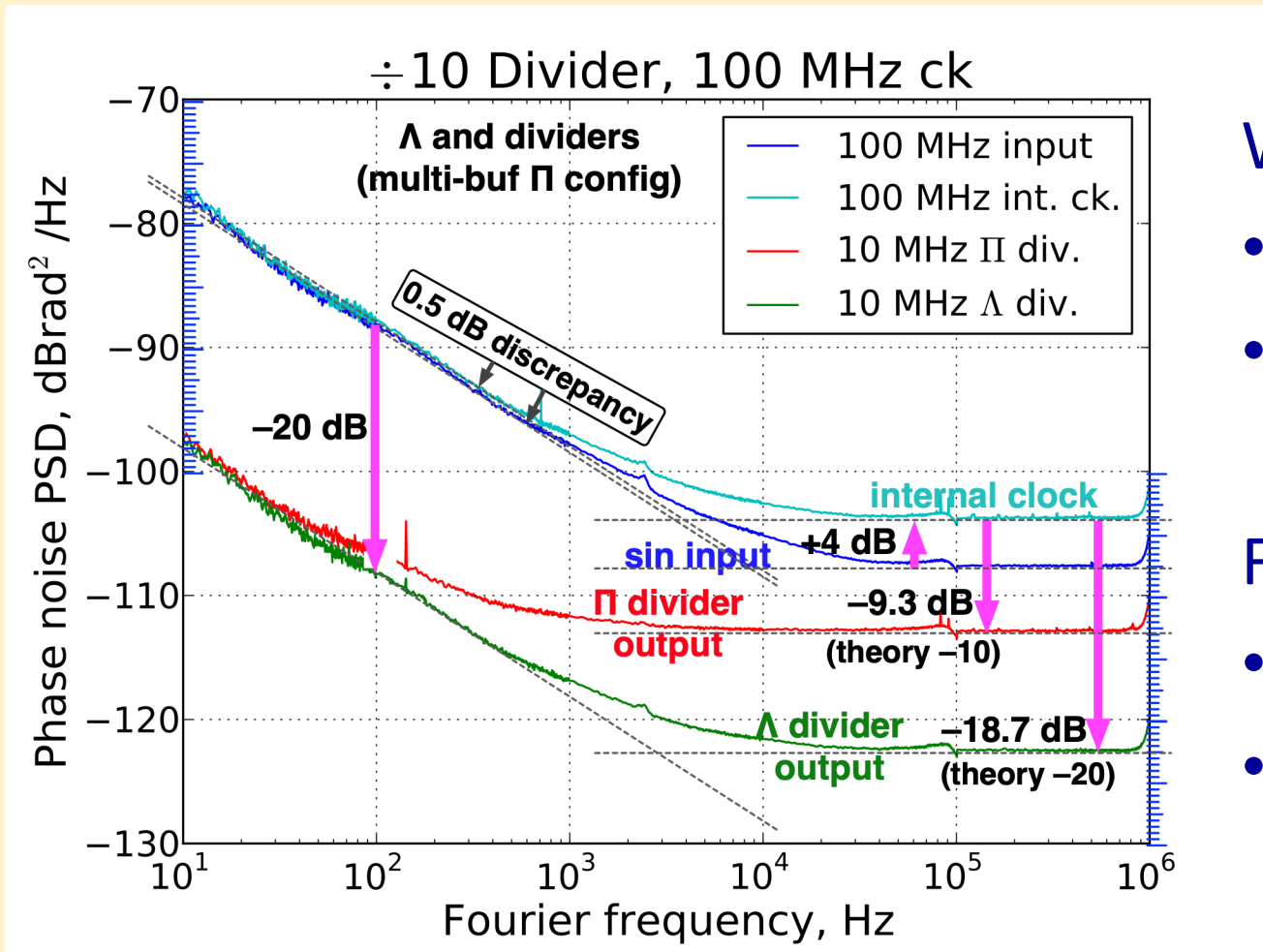
The Greek letter Π recalls the square wave $\square \square \square \square$



- 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 $S\phi$ 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

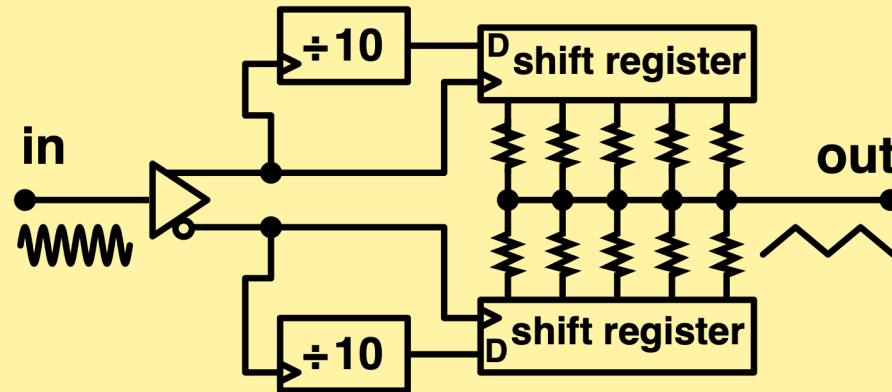
Flicker region

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

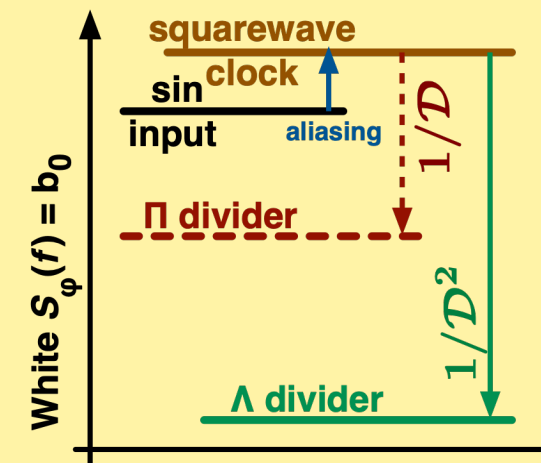
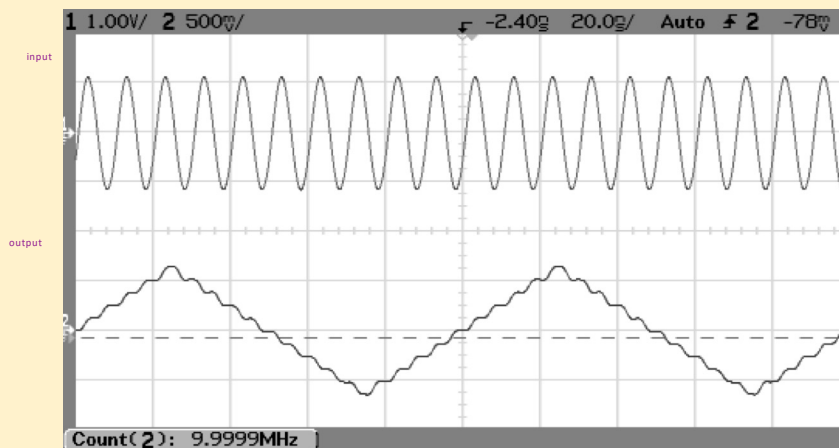
The Λ Divider – Little/No Aliasing

New divider architecture

Series of Greek letters $\Lambda\Lambda\Lambda$ recalls the triangular wave



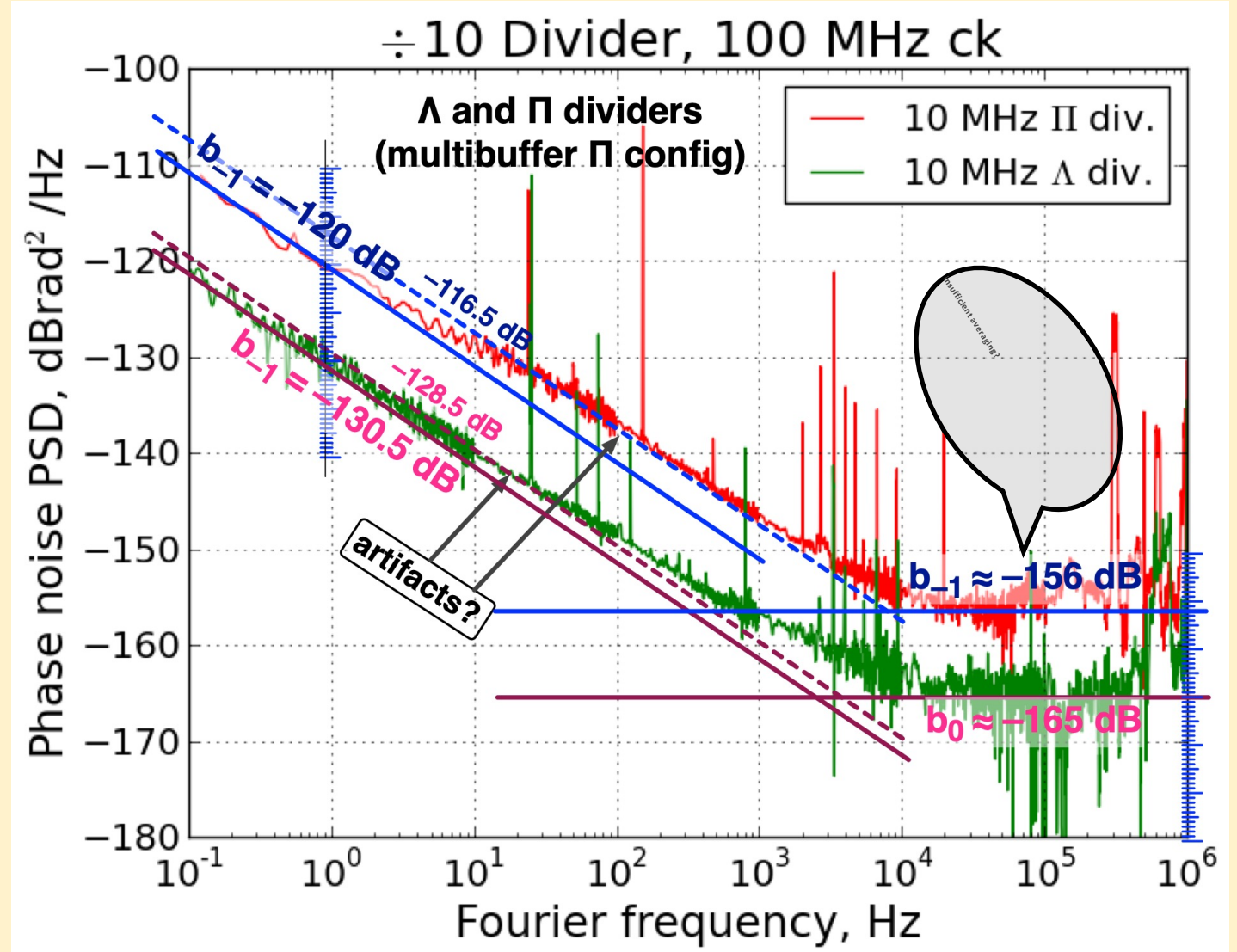
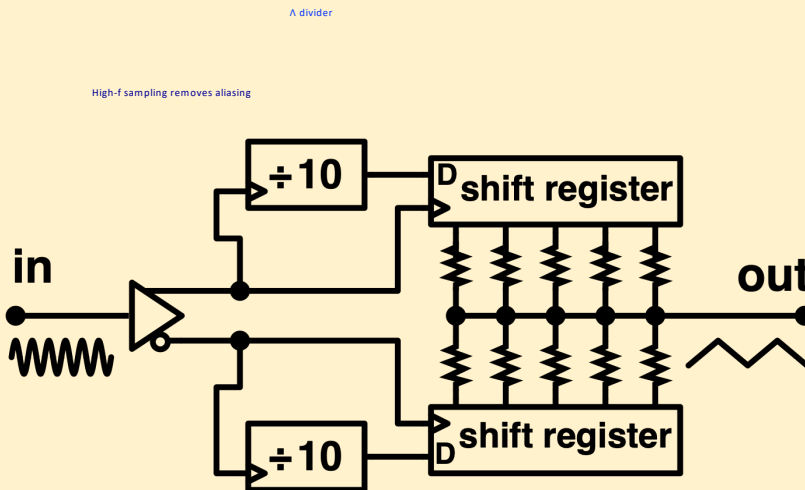
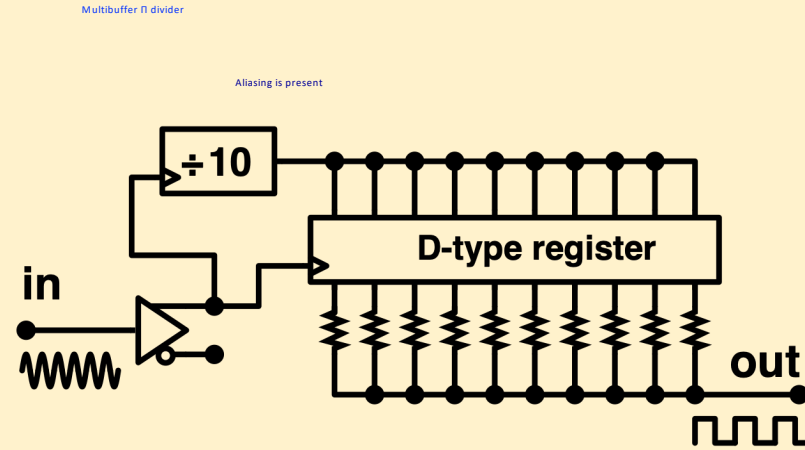
- Gearbox and aliasing $\rightarrow 1/D$ law
- Add D independent realizations shifted by $1/2$ input clock,
- reduce the phase noise by $1/D$,
- ... and get back the $1/D^2$ law



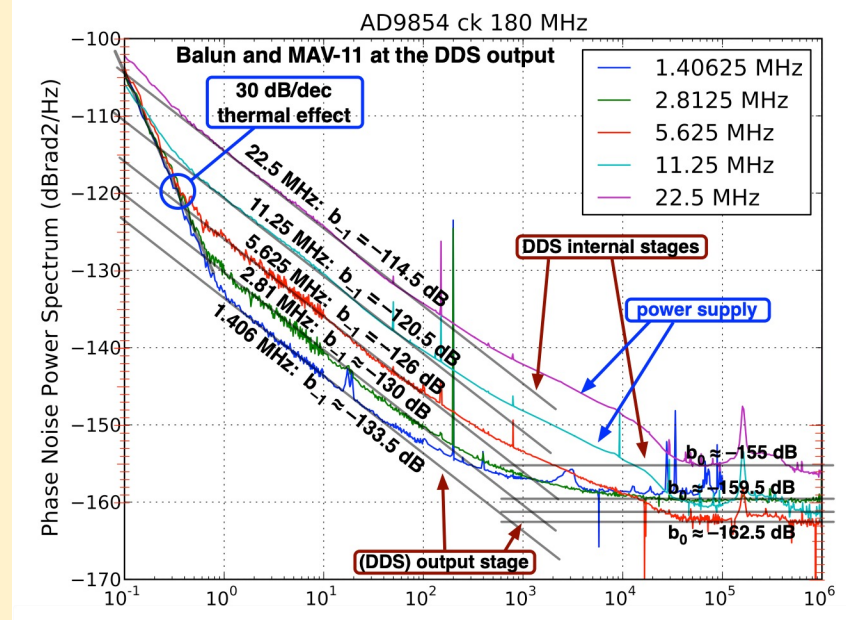
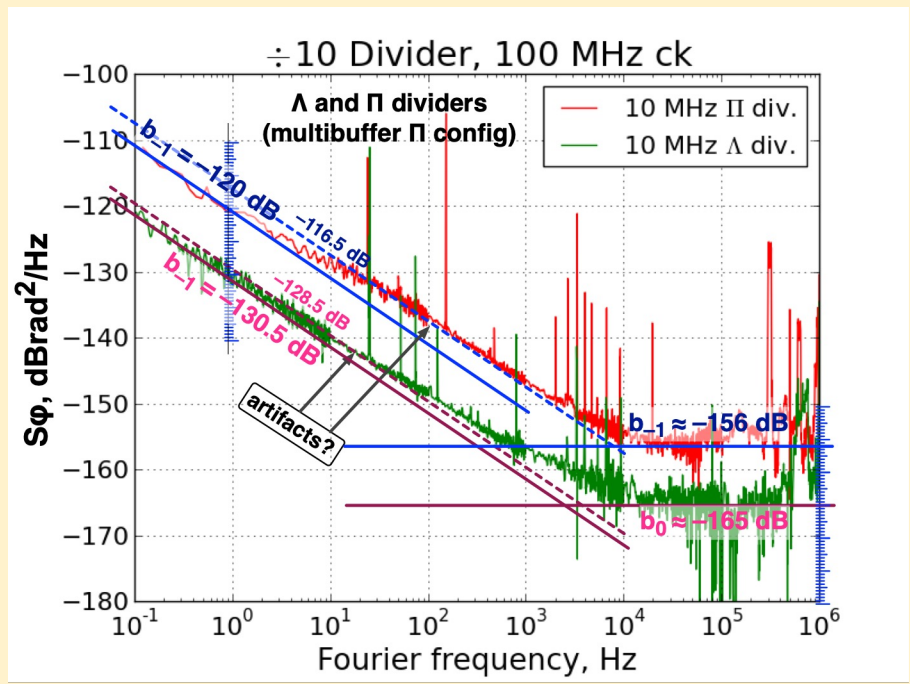
The names Π and Λ derive from the shape of the weight functions in our article on frequency counters

E. Rubiola, On the measurement of frequency ... with high-resolution counters, RSI 76 054703, 2005

Phase Noise of Π and Λ Dividers

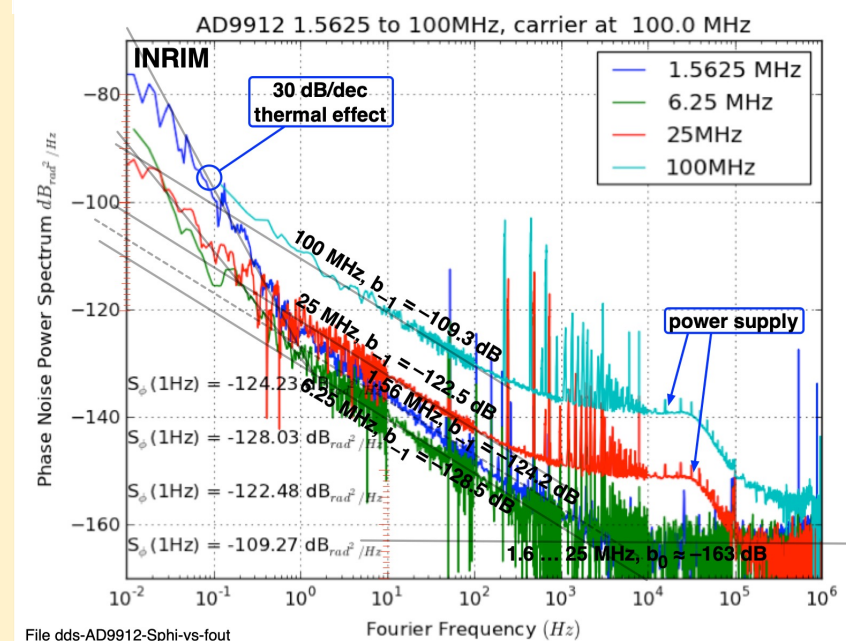


The Λ Divider Versus the DDS



Noise of the Λ divider and two DDSs

noise	Λ div.	AD9854	AD9912
b_0	-165	-160	≈ -163
b_{-1}	-130.5	-121.5	-129 (inferred)
b_{-2}	—	—	-132 plot not shown
b_{-3}	—	-134	(seen at lower ν_0)



Suggested Reading

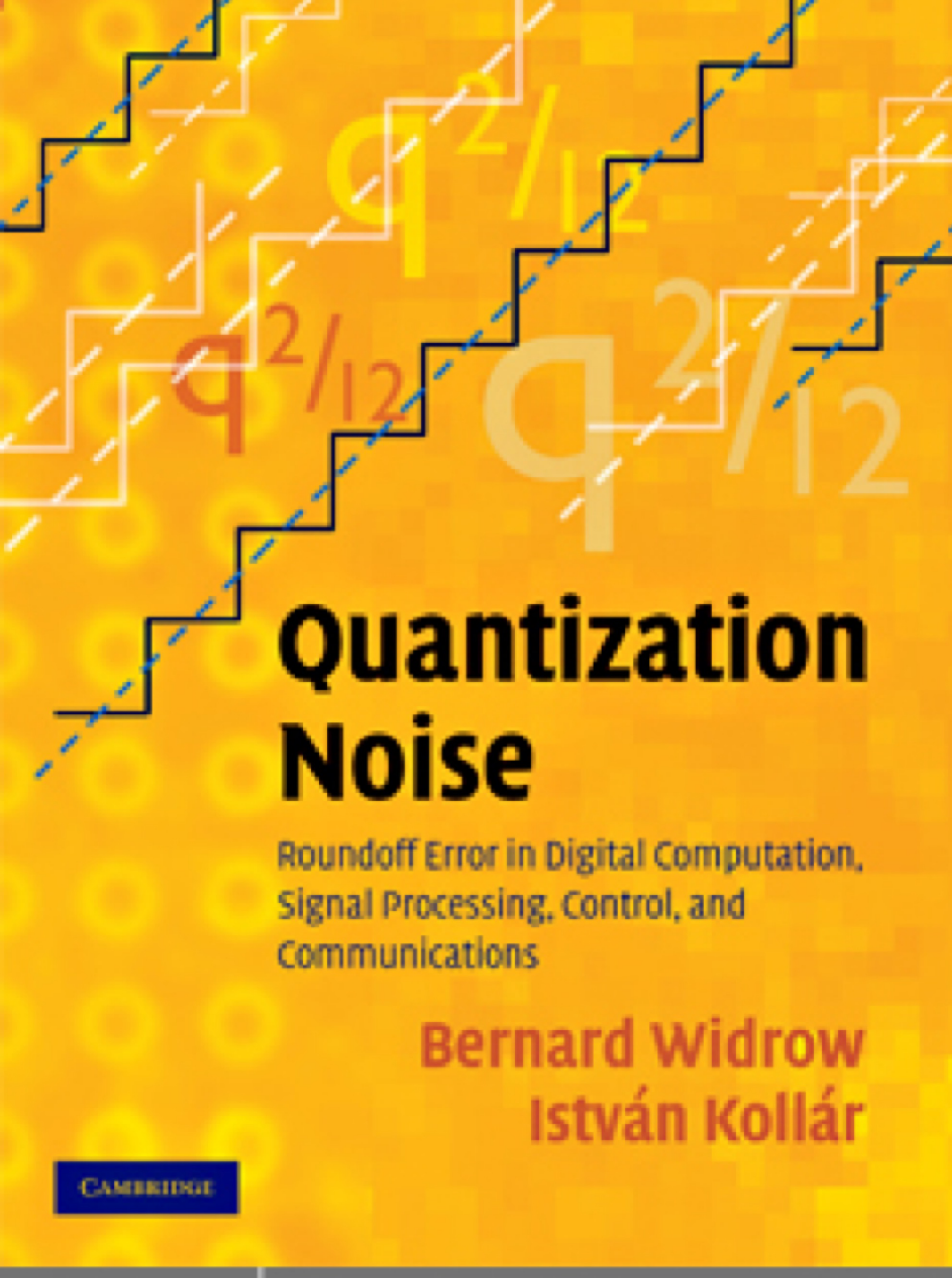
Bernard Widrow,
Istvan Kollar

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



Suggested Reading

ANALOG-DIGITAL CONVERSION

Walt Kester

Editor



Walt Kester (editor)

Analog-Digital Conversion

Analog Devices 2004

ISBN 0-916550-27-3

Suggested Reading

Marcel J.M. Pelgrom

Analog-to-Digital Conversion

Extra
Materials
extras.springer.com

 Springer

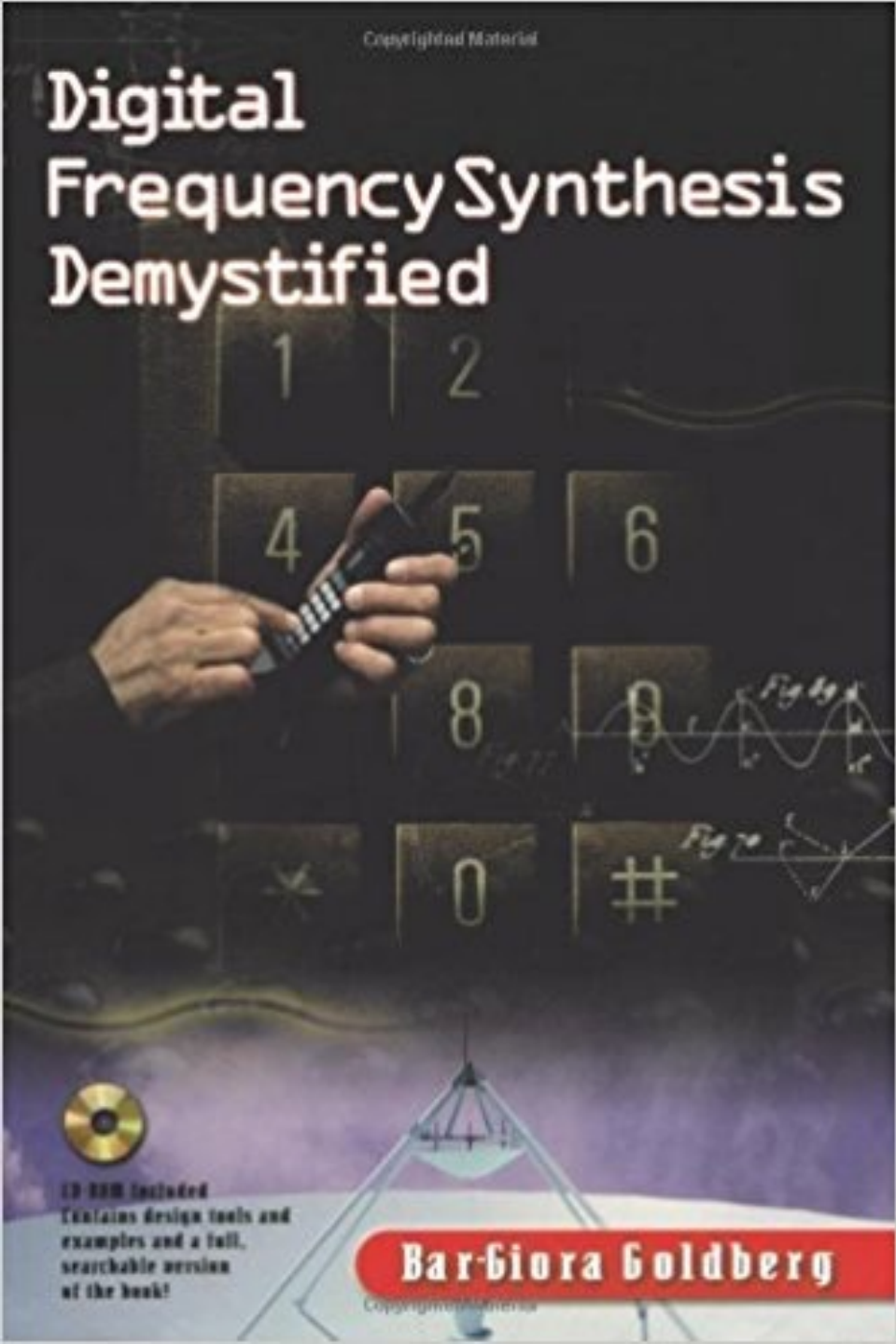
Marcel J. M. Pelgrom

Analog-to-Digital Conversion

Springer 2010

ISBN 978-90-481-8888-8

Suggested Reading



Bar-Giora Goldberg

*Digital Frequency Synthesis
Demystified*

Newnes 1999

ISBN 978-1-878707-47-5

Our Articles

- C. E. Calosso, A. C. Cárdenas Olaya E. Rubiola, Phase-Noise and Amplitude-Noise Measurement of DACs and DDSs, IEEE Transact UFFC vol.67 no.2 p.431-439 February 2020
- A. C. Cárdenas Olaya, C. E. Calosso, J.-M. Friedt, S. Micalizio, E. Rubiola, “Phase Noise and Frequency Stability of the Red-Pitaya Internal PLL,” IEEE Transact. UFFC vol.66 no.2 p.412-416, Feb 2019
- 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.
- A. C. Cardenas-Olaya, E. Rubiola, J.-M. Friedt, P.-Y. Bourgeois, M. Ortolano, S. Micalizio, and C. E. Calosso Noise characterization of analog to digital converters for amplitude and phase noise measurements, Rev. Scientific Instruments 88, 065108, June 2017.
- C. E. Calosso, Y. Gruson, E. Rubiola, “Phase noise and amplitude noise in DDS,” Proc IFCS p.777-782, May 2012
- C. E. Calosso, E. Rubiola, “The Sampling Theorem in Pi and Lambda Digital Frequency Dividers,” Proc IEEE IFCS p.960-962, 2013
- A. C. Cardenas Olaya, E. Rubiola, J.-M. Freidt, P.-Y. Bourgeois, M. Ortolano, S. Micalizio, C. E. Calosso, “Noise characterization of analog to digital converters for amplitude and phase noise measurements,” Rev Sci Instrum 88, 065108, June 2017

End of lecture 8

Lecture 9

Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

Enrico Rubiola

CNRS FEMTO-ST Institute, Besancon, France

INRiM, Torino, Italy

Contents

- The Leeson Effect

The Leeson Effect

Enrico Rubiola

CNRS FEMTO-ST Institute, Besancon, France
INRiM, Torino, Italy

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

The original is in a
separate file



Lecture 9

Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

Enrico Rubiola

CNRS FEMTO-ST Institute, Besancon, France

INRiM, Torino, Italy

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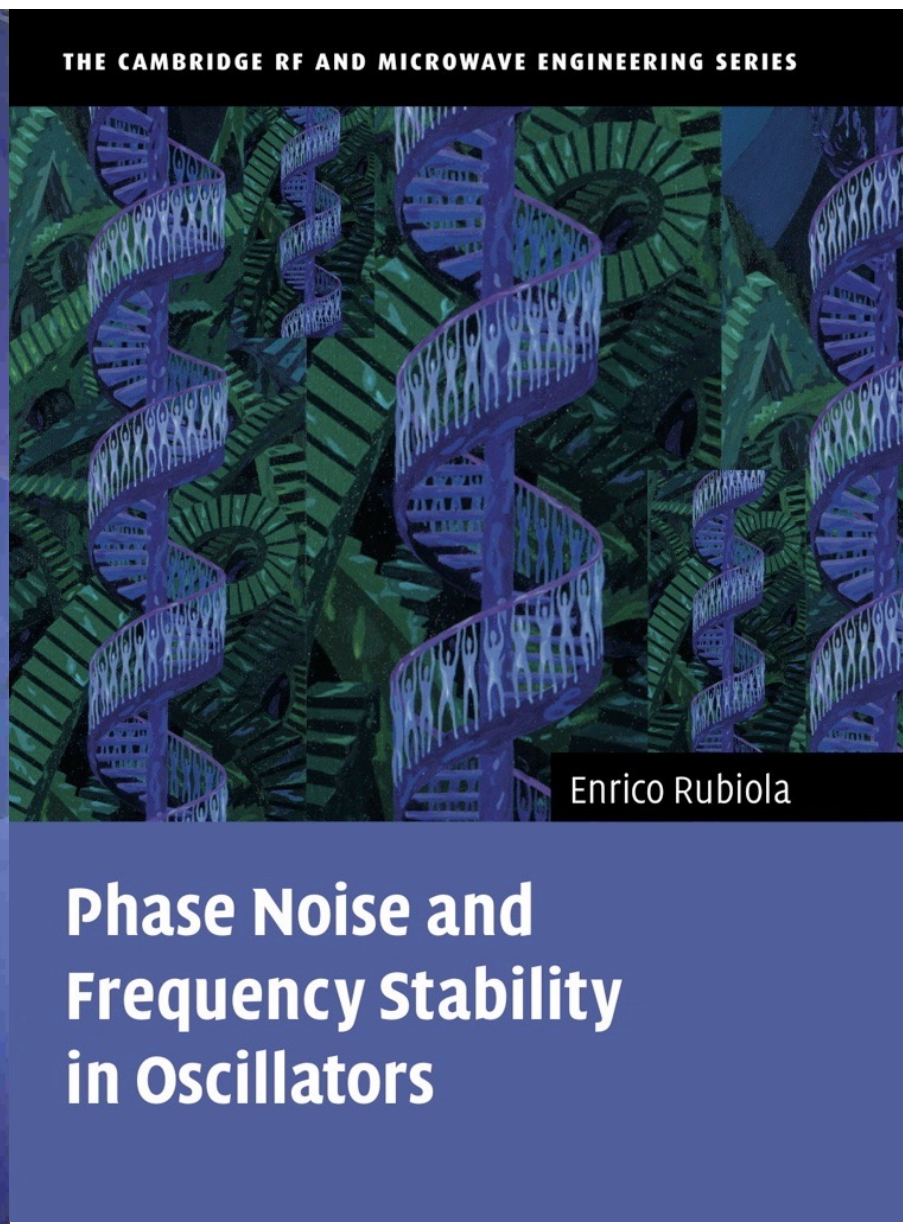
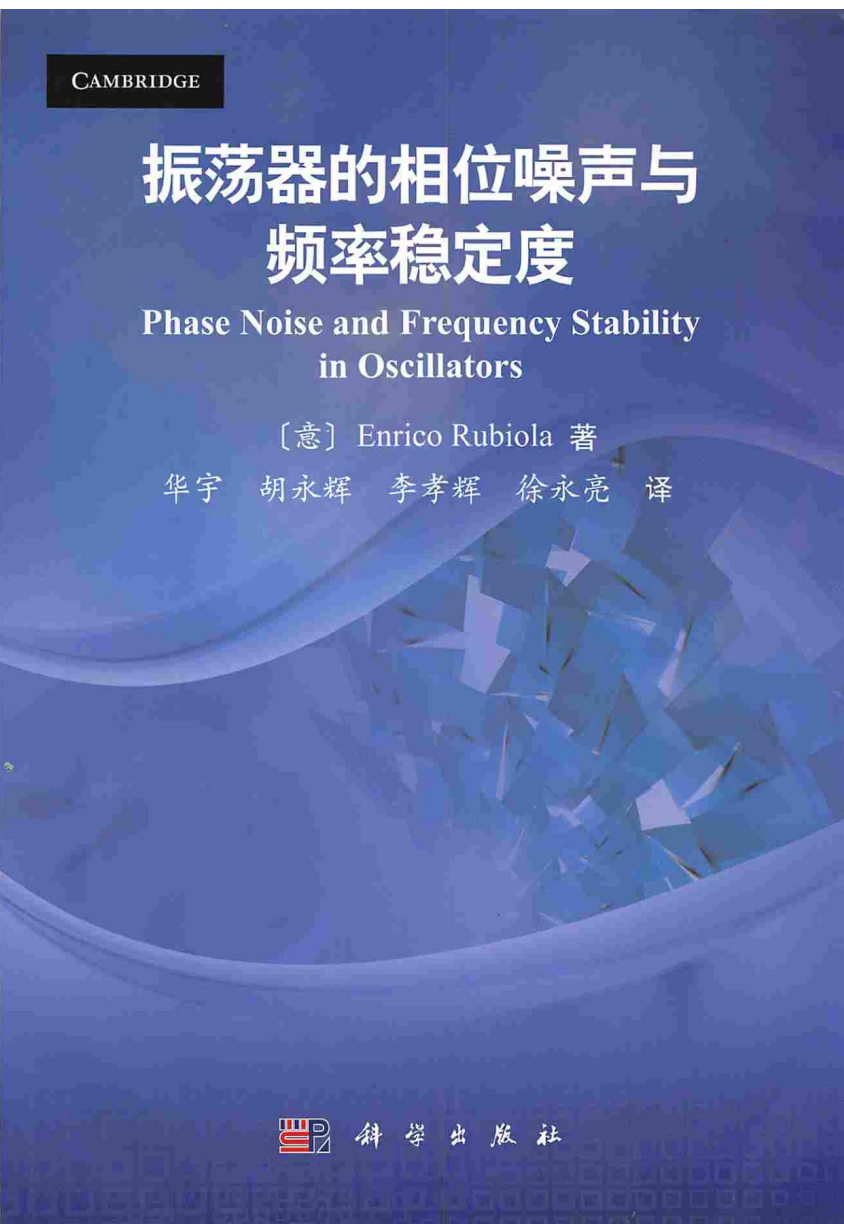
- The Leeson Effect

ORCID 0000-0002-5364-1835

home page <http://rubiola.org>



The Reference Book for this Lecture



Contents

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

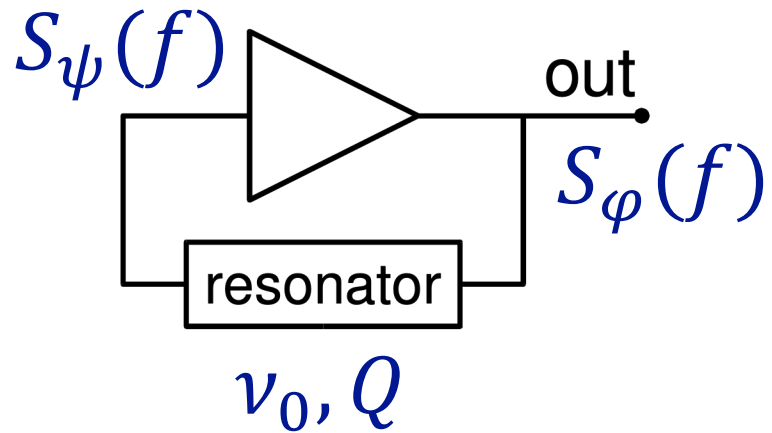
Cambridge University Press, 2008-2012,
ISBN 978-0-521-88677-2, 978-0-521-15328-7,
978-1-139-23940-0

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

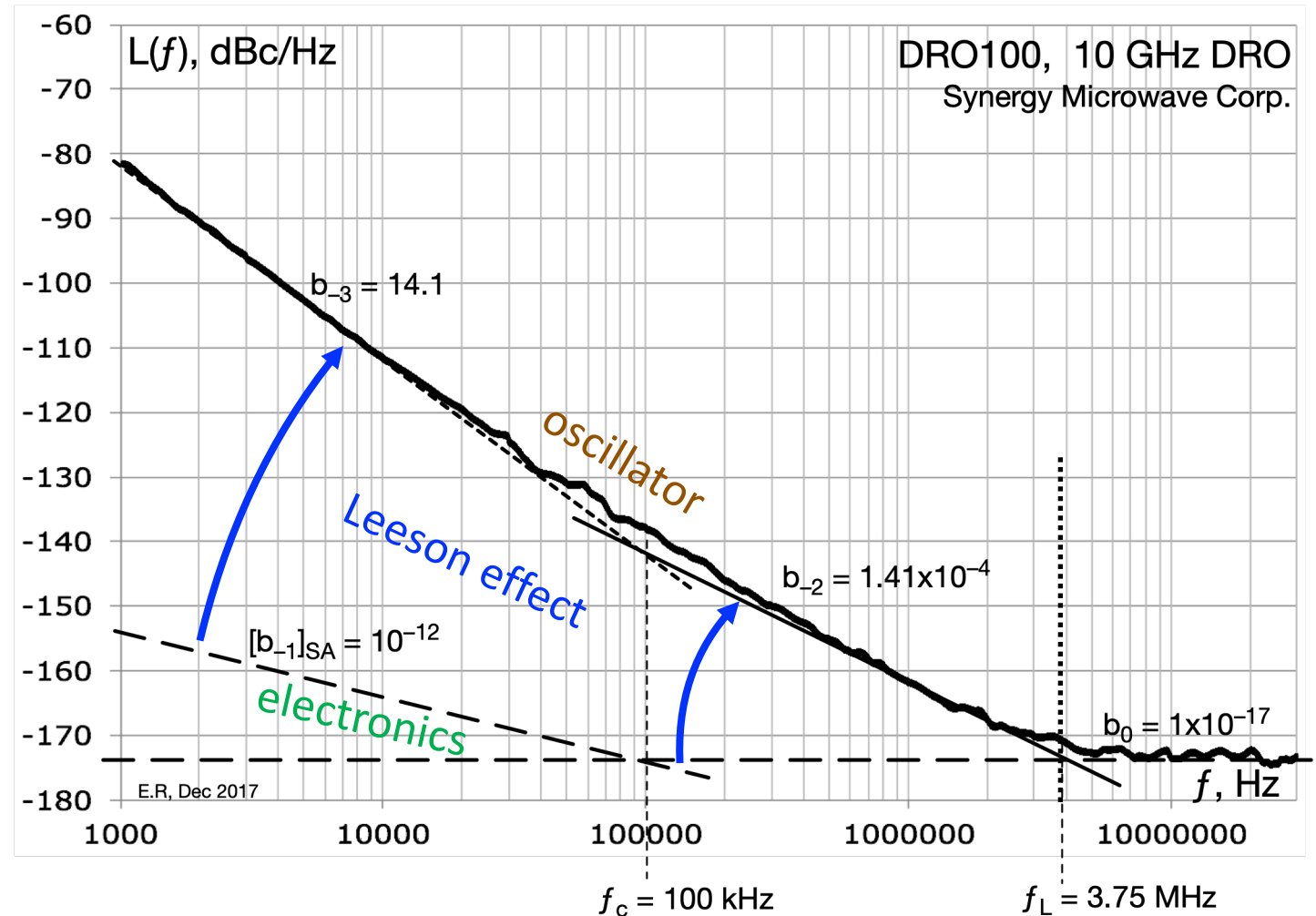
The Leeson effect in a nutshell

David B. Leeson, Proc. IEEE 54(2) p.329, Feb 1966

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

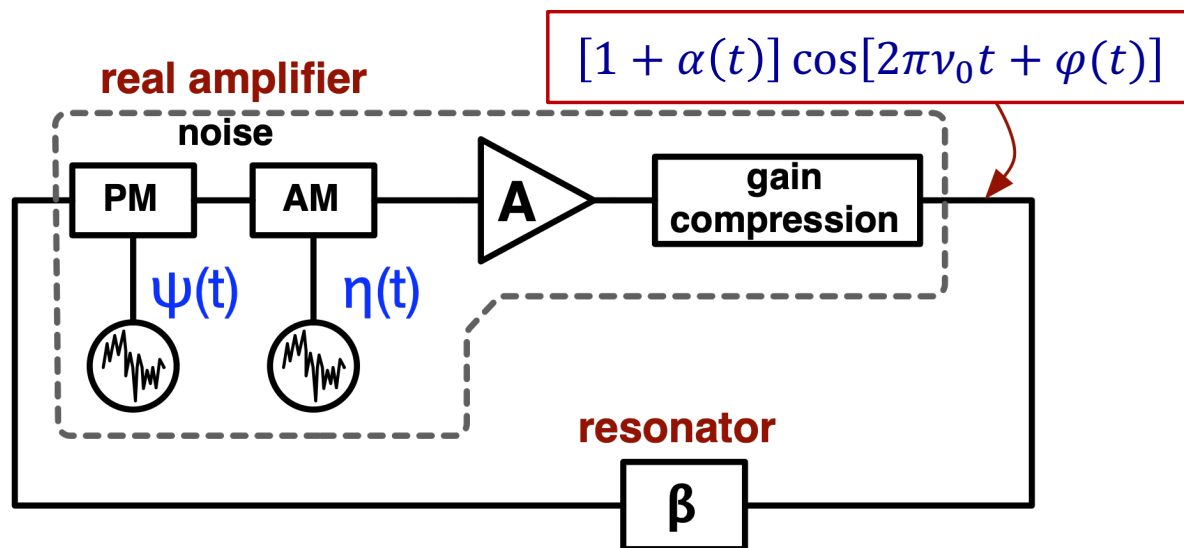


$$S_{\varphi}(f) = \left[1 + \frac{1}{f^2} \left(\frac{\nu_0}{2Q} \right)^2 \right] S_{\psi}(f)$$



Heuristic Explanation of the Leeson Effect

General oscillator model



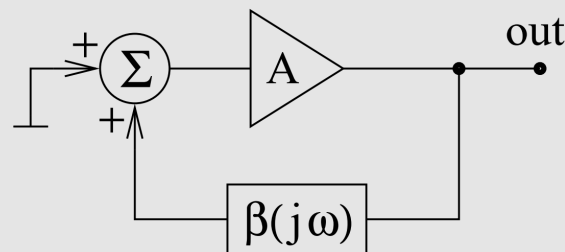
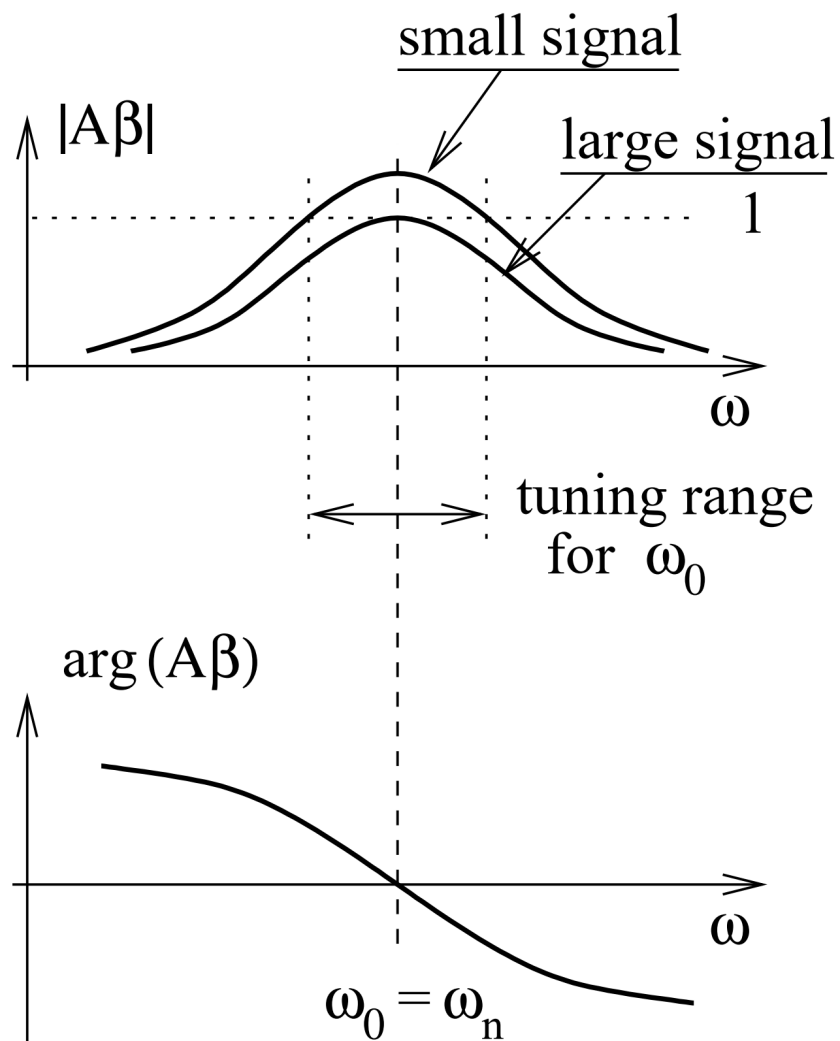
- RLC resonator
- Piezoelectric quartz resonator
- Microwave cavity
- Microwave dielectric resonator
- Fabry-Pérot resonator
- Optomechanic resonator
- Optical fiber
- etc.

Barkhausen condition

$$A\beta = 1 \quad \text{at } \nu_0$$

(phase matching)

The Barkhausen condition in practice



$$A\beta = 1 \text{ (complex)}$$

A constant vs ω

$\beta(\omega)$ is the sharp resonance

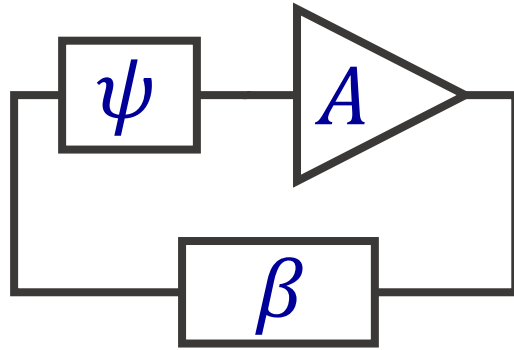
- $\arg(\beta)$ sets the oscillation frequency
- saturation fixes $|A\beta| = 1$

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

$$\approx -2Q \frac{\omega - \omega_0}{\omega_0}$$

close to the resonance

Tuning an oscillator



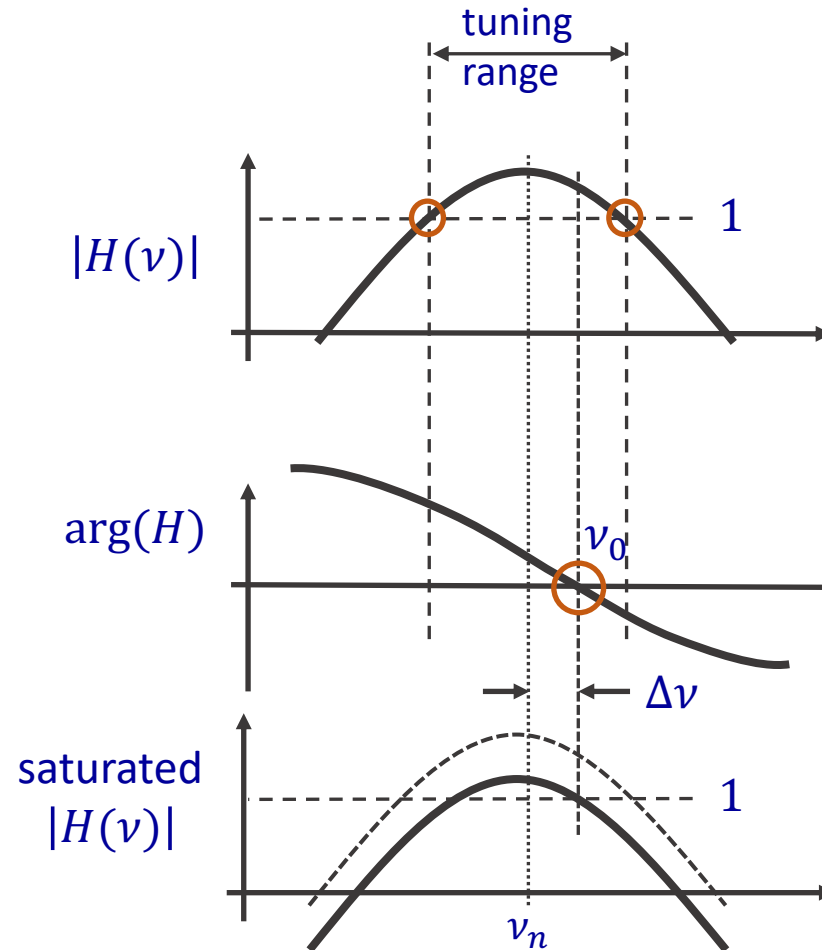
closed loop function

$$H(\nu) = A\beta(\nu)e^{j\psi}$$

$$A(\nu) = \text{const}$$

Phase matching

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



add a phase ψ

Small ψ approximation

$$\psi = 2Q \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0}$$

Tuning

$$\frac{\Delta\nu}{\omega_n} = \frac{\psi}{2Q}$$

Heuristic derivation of the Leeson effect

fast fluctuation: no phase feedback

static phase

out φ

$\varphi(t) = \psi(t)$
 $S_\varphi(f) = S_\psi(f)$

slow fluctuations: $\psi \rightarrow \Delta\nu$ conversion

$\arg(A\beta)$

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

$-\psi$

natural frequency ω_n

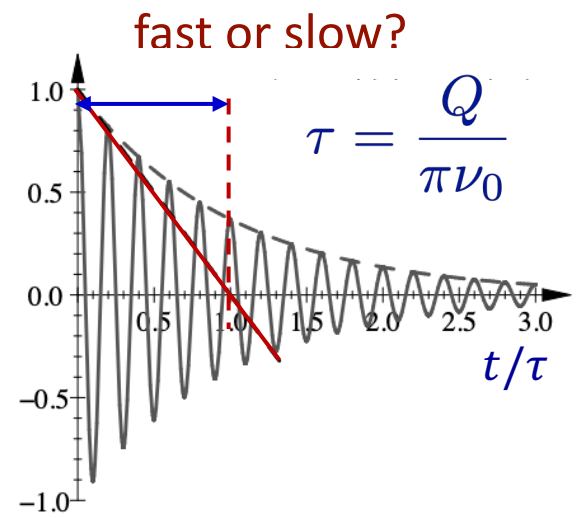
oscillation $\omega_0 = \omega_n + \Delta\omega$

$\Delta\nu = \frac{\nu_0}{2Q} \psi$ static

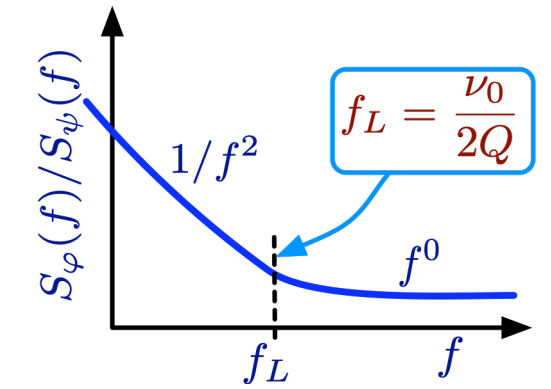
$S_{\Delta\nu}(f) = \left(\frac{\nu_0}{2Q}\right)^2 S_\psi(f)$

integral

$S_\varphi(f) = \frac{1}{f^2} \left(\frac{\nu_0}{2Q}\right)^2 S_\psi(f)$

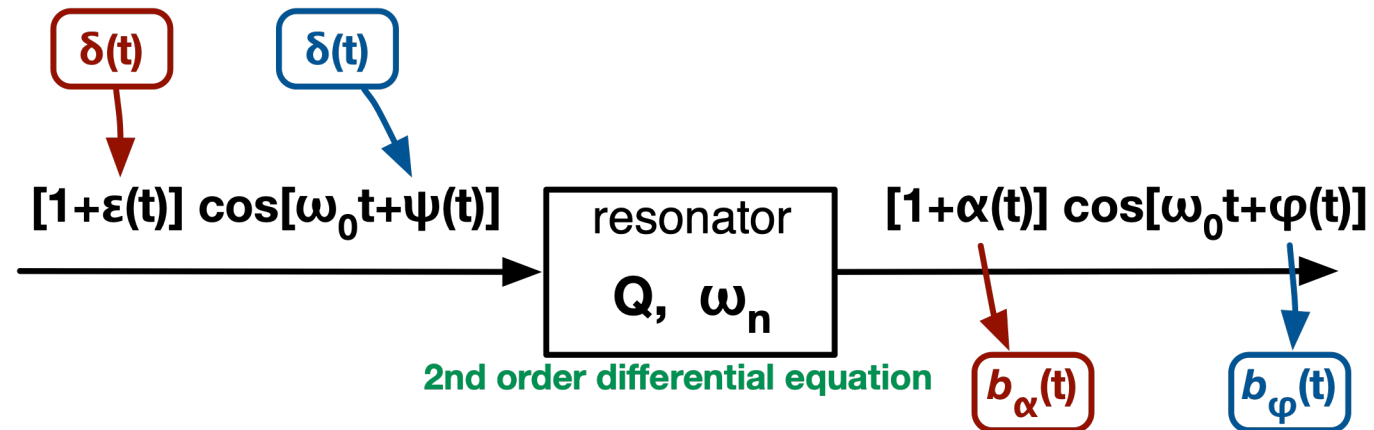


Exact result

$$S_\varphi(f) = \left[1 + \frac{1}{f^2} \left(\frac{\nu_0}{2Q}\right)^2 \right] S_\psi(f)$$


A Method to Solve Phase Noise Problems

Resonator Theory



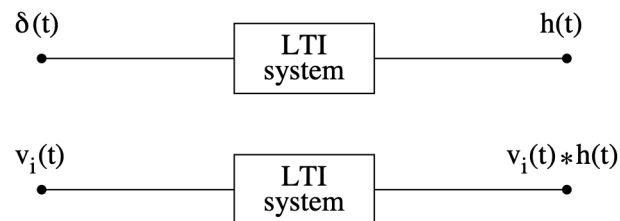
Linear Time-Invariant System

Impulse response and frequency response

in the amplitude-phase space

Linear Time-Invariant (LTI) systems

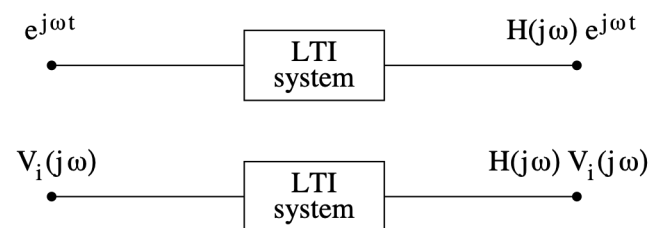
time domain



impulse response

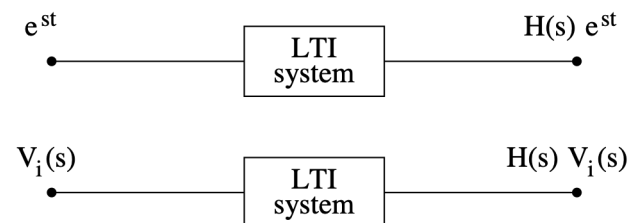
response to the generic signal $v_i(t)$

Fourier transform



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

Laplace transform



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

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

Noise spectra



Time domain

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

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

ω_n natural frequency

Q quality factor

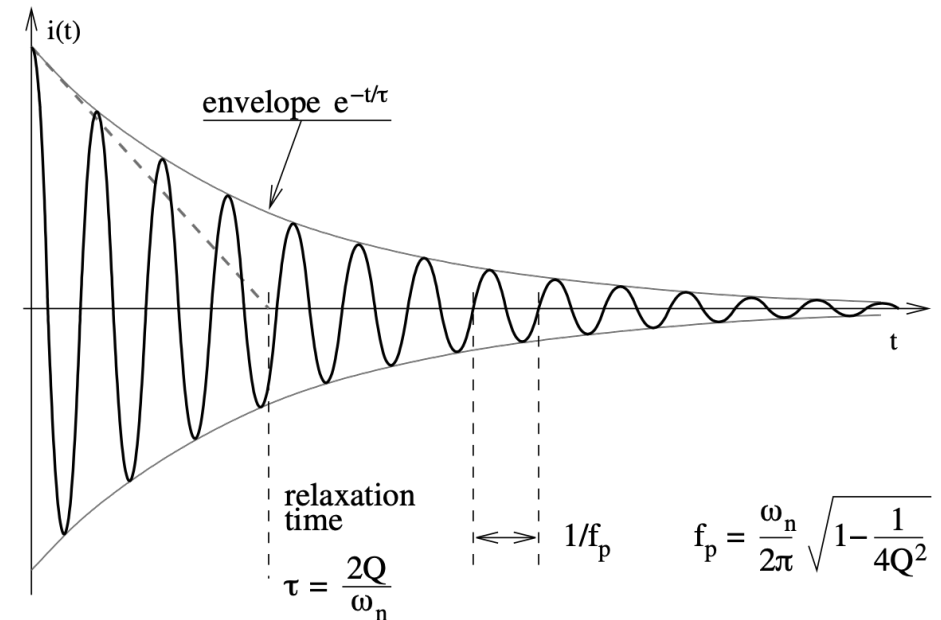
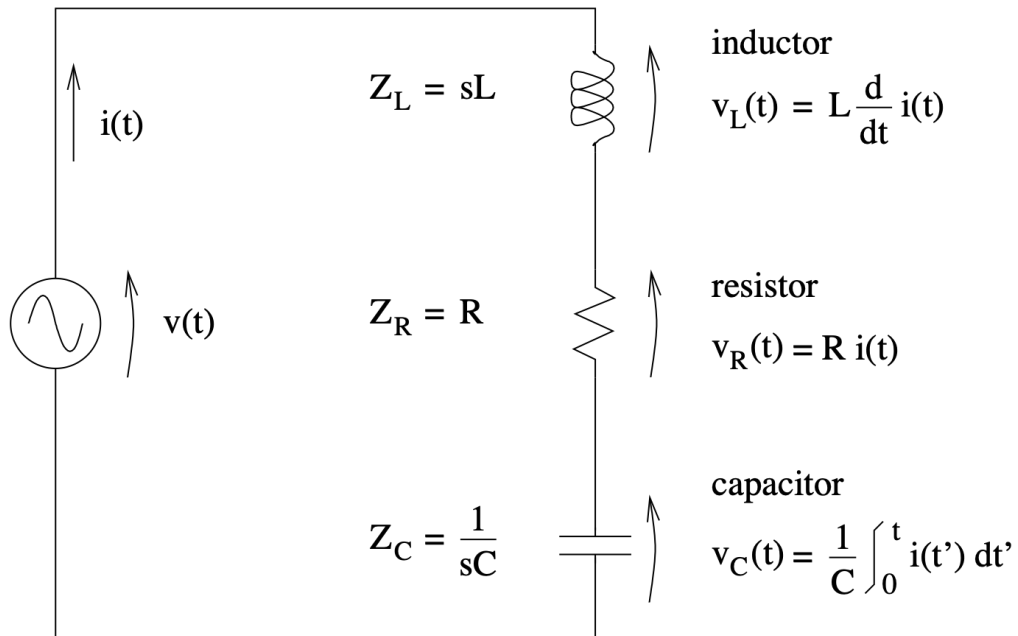
τ relaxation time

$$\tau = \frac{2Q}{\omega_n}$$

ω_p free-decay pseudofrequency

$$\omega_p = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - 1/4Q^2}$$

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



Resonator – Frequency domain

$$\beta(s) = \frac{\omega_n}{Q} \frac{s}{s^2 + \frac{\omega_n}{Q}s + \omega_n^2} \quad s = \sigma + j\omega$$

$$\chi = \frac{\omega}{\omega_n} - \frac{\omega_n}{\omega}$$

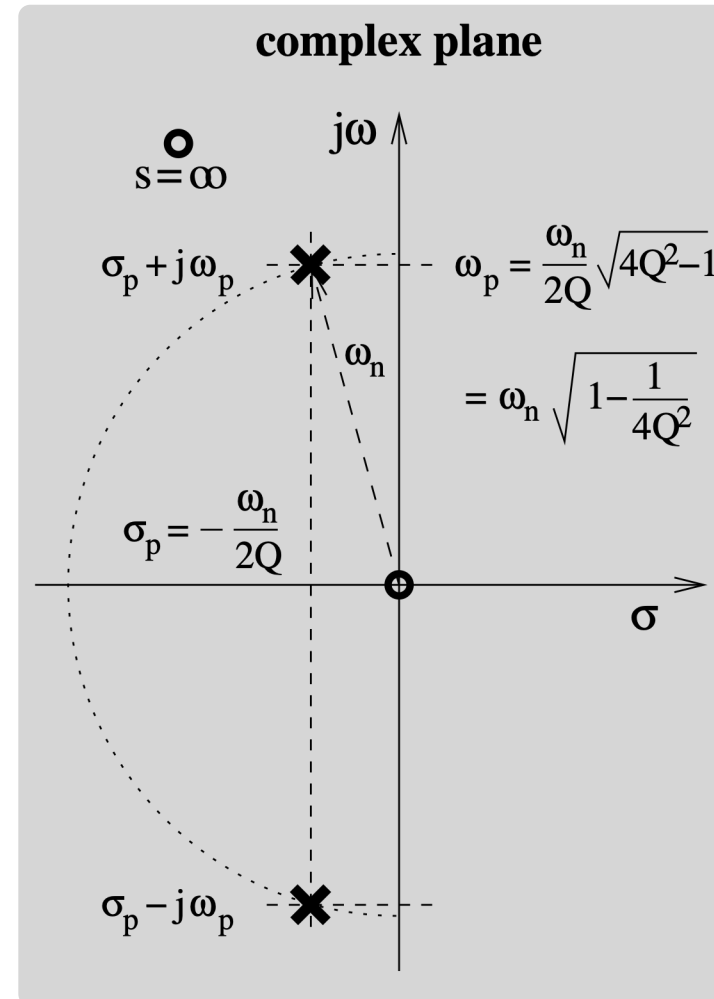
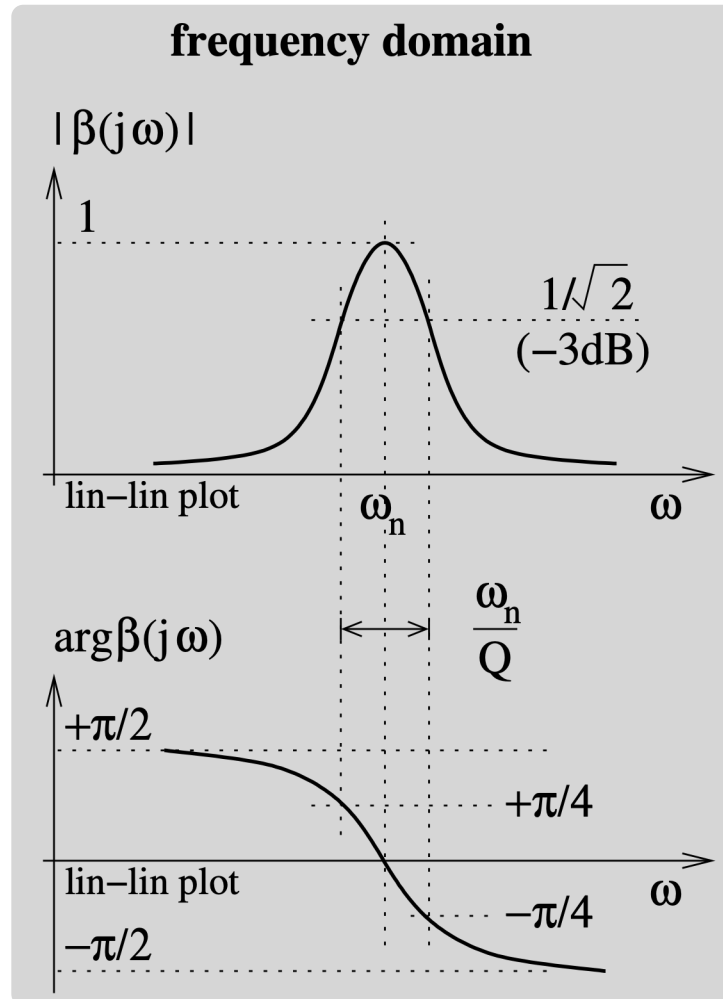
$$\beta = \frac{1}{1 + jQ\chi}$$

$$\Re\{\beta\} = \frac{1}{1 + Q^2\chi^2}$$

$$\Im\{\beta\} = \frac{-Q\chi}{1 + Q^2\chi^2}$$

$$|\beta|^2 = \frac{1}{1 + Q^2\chi^2}$$

$$\arg(\beta) = -\arctan(Q\chi)$$



The resonator

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

ω_n natural frequency

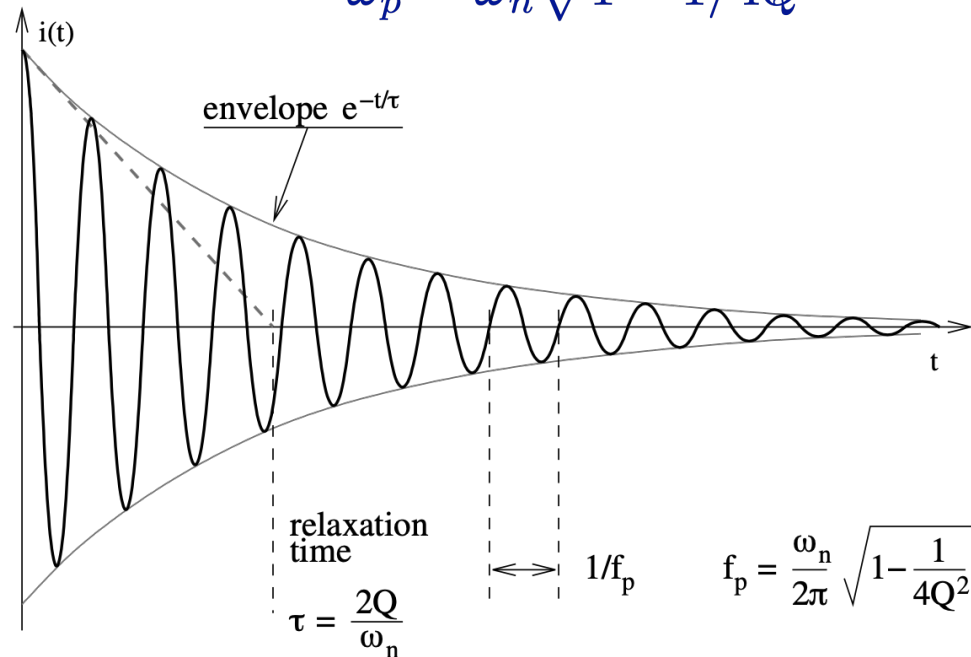
Q quality factor

τ relaxation time

$$\tau = \frac{2Q}{\omega_n}$$

ω_p free-decay pseudofrequency

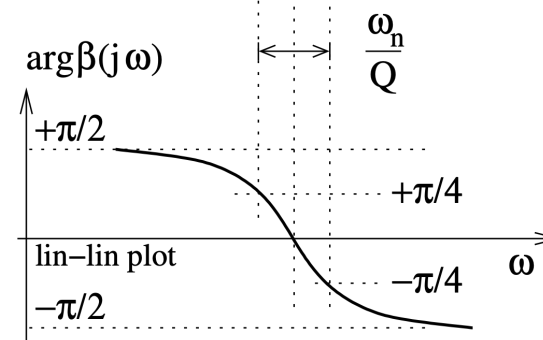
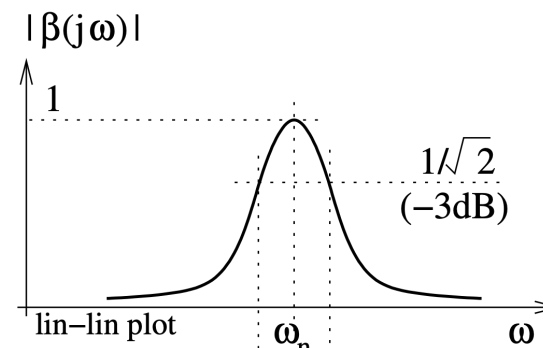
$$\omega_p = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - 1/4Q^2}$$



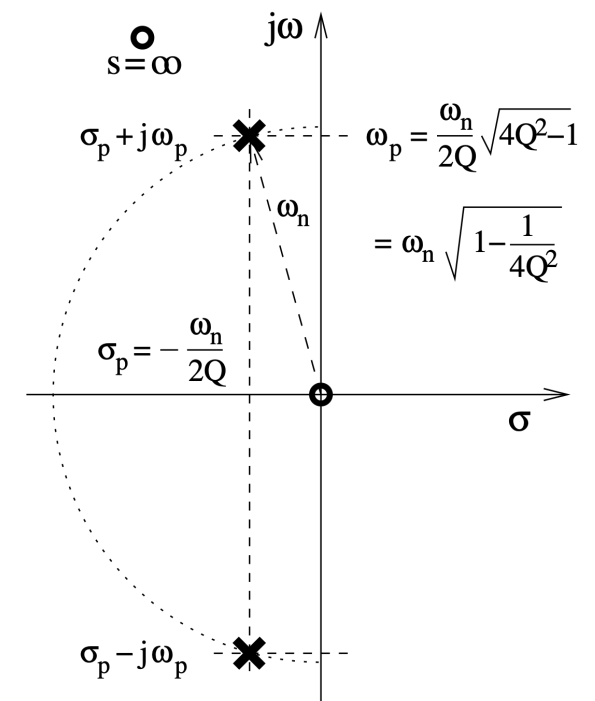
$$\beta(s) = \frac{\omega_n}{Q} \frac{s}{s^2 + \frac{\omega_n}{Q}s + \omega_n^2}$$

Laplace $\beta(s) = X(s)/V(s)$, $s = \sigma + j\omega$

frequency domain

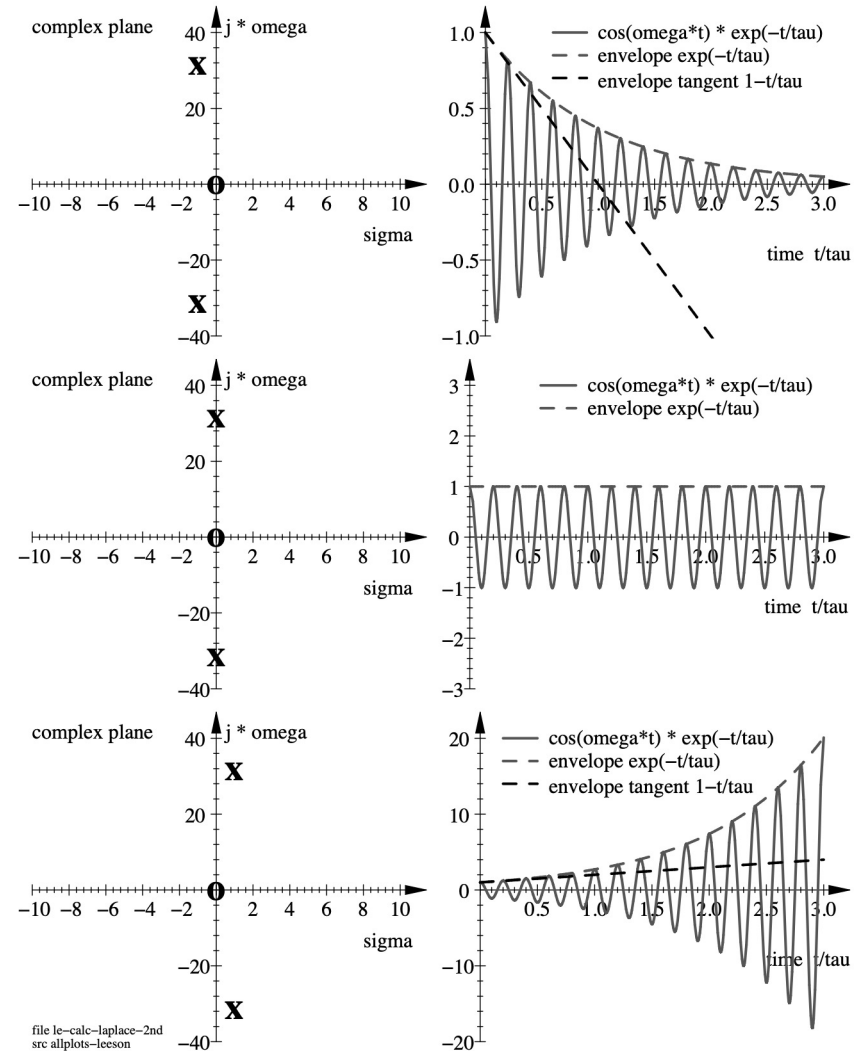
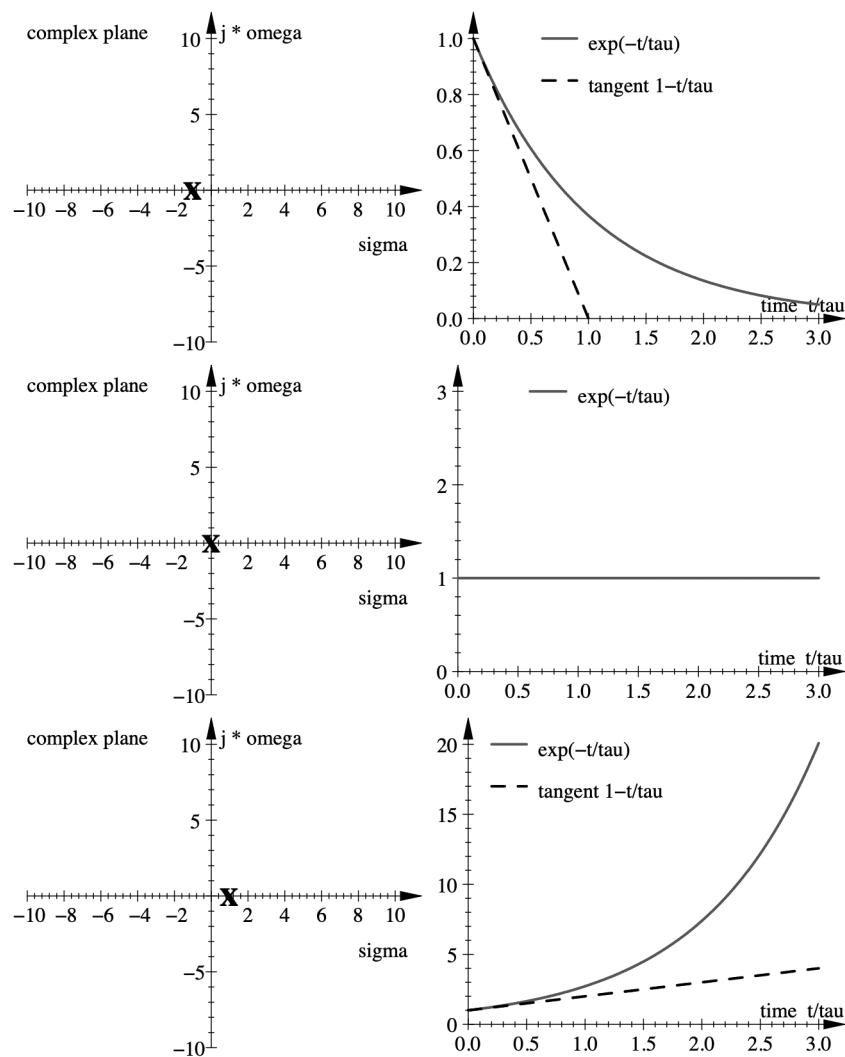


complex plane

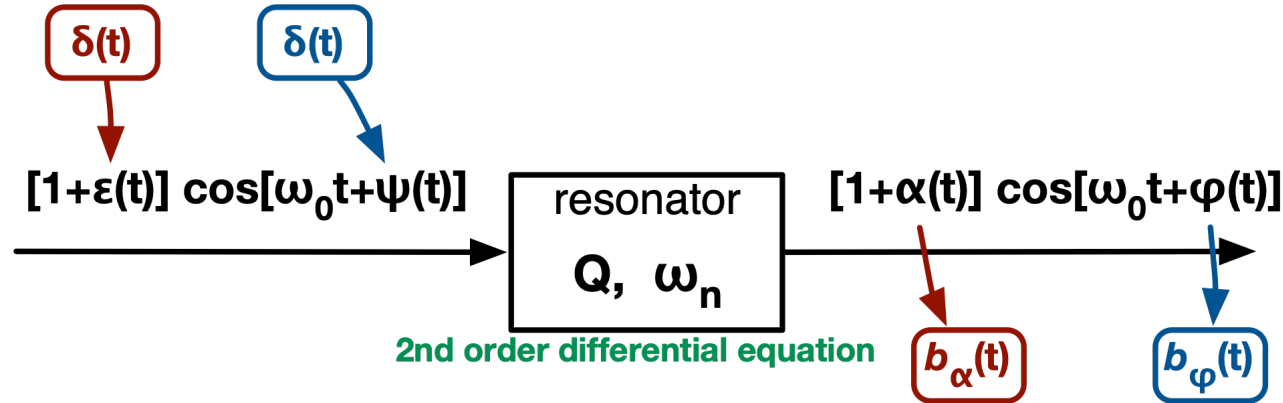


Laplace-transform patterns

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

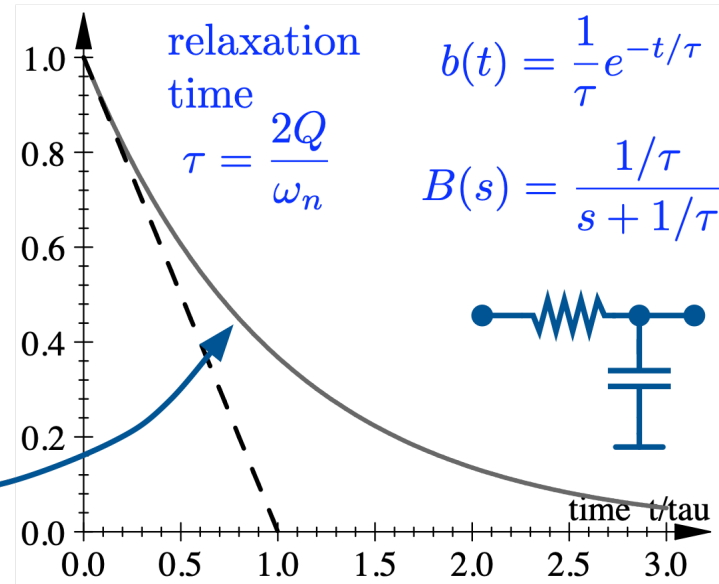
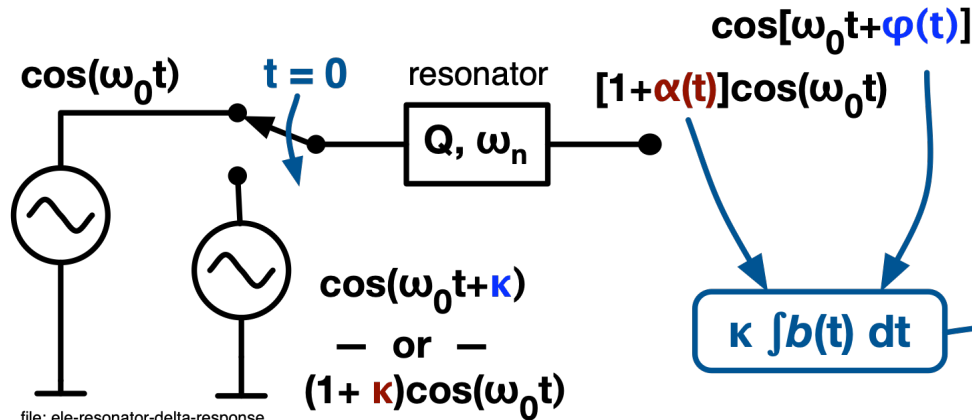


Impulse response of the resonator



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

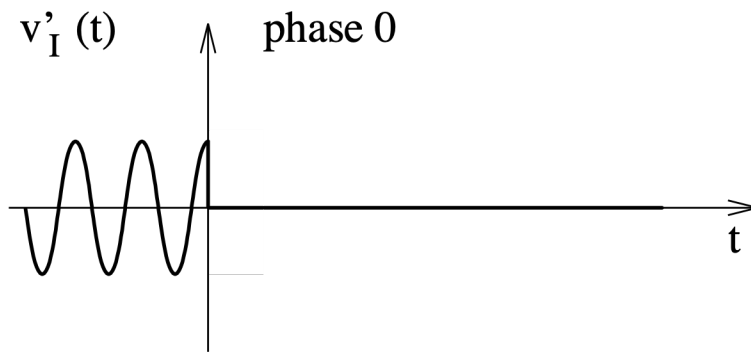
set a small phase or amplitude step κ at $t=0$, and linearize for $\kappa \rightarrow 0$



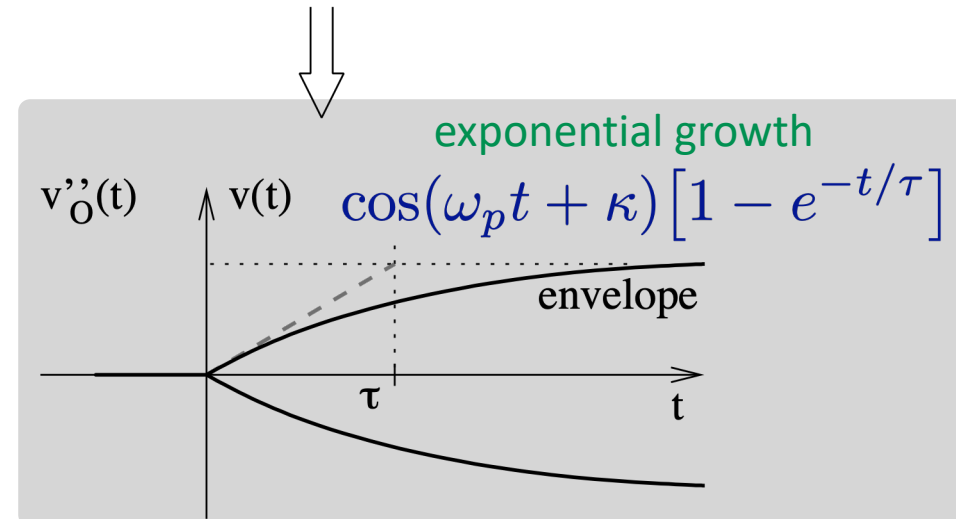
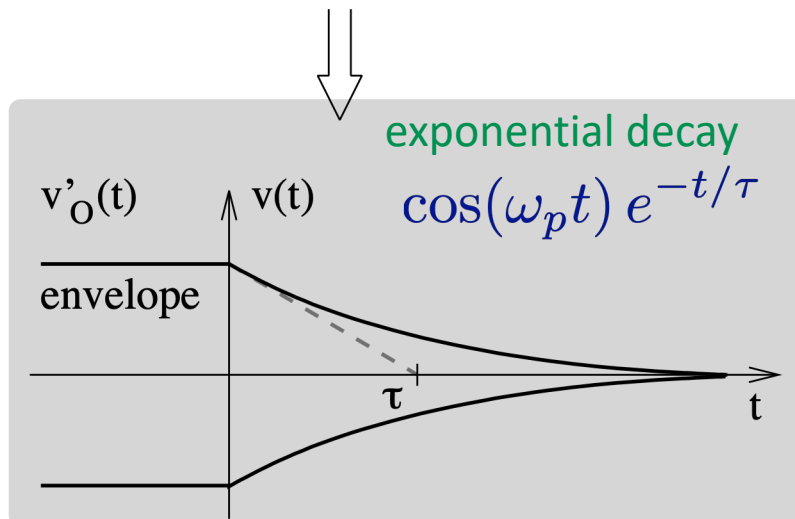
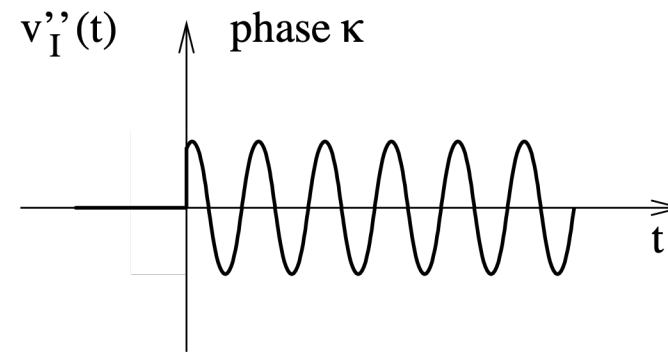
Response to a phase step κ

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

switched off at $t = 0$



switched on at $t = 0$



Impulse response, $\omega_0 = \omega_n$

$$v_i(t) = \underbrace{\cos(\omega_0 t) u(-t)}_{\text{switched off at } t = 0} + \underbrace{\cos(\omega_0 t + \kappa) u(t)}_{\text{switched on at } t = 0} \quad \text{phase step } \kappa \text{ at } t = 0$$

$$v_o(t) = \cos(\omega_p t) e^{-t/\tau} + \cos(\omega_p t + \kappa) [1 - e^{-t/\tau}] \quad t > 0 \quad \text{output}$$

$$v_o(t) = \cos(\omega_p t) - \kappa \sin(\omega_p t) [1 - e^{-t/\tau}] \quad \kappa \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{linearize}$$

$$v_o(t) = \cos(\omega_0 t) - \kappa \sin(\omega_0 t) [1 - e^{-t/\tau}] \quad \omega_p \rightarrow \omega_0 \quad \text{high } Q$$

$$\mathbf{V}_o(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left\{ 1 + j\kappa [1 - e^{-t/\tau}] \right\} \quad \text{slow-varying phase vector}$$

$$\arctan \left(\frac{\Im\{\mathbf{V}_o(t)\}}{\Re\{\mathbf{V}_o(t)\}} \right) \simeq \kappa [1 - e^{-t/\tau}] \quad \text{phasor angle}$$

delete κ and differentiate

impulse response

$$b(t) = \frac{1}{\tau} e^{-s\tau} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad B(s) = \frac{1/\tau}{s + 1/\tau}$$

Detuned resonator

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

$$\begin{array}{ll} \Omega = \omega_0 - \omega_n & \text{detuning} \\ \beta_0 = |\beta(j\omega_0)| & \text{modulus} \\ \theta = \arg(\beta(j\omega_0)) & \text{phase} \end{array}$$

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

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, $t \leq 0$

$$x_{bl}(t) = \cos(\omega_0 t)$$

Differential equation

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

Characteristic equation

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

Solutions of the char. eq.

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

with

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

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 $\omega_p = \omega_0 - \Omega$

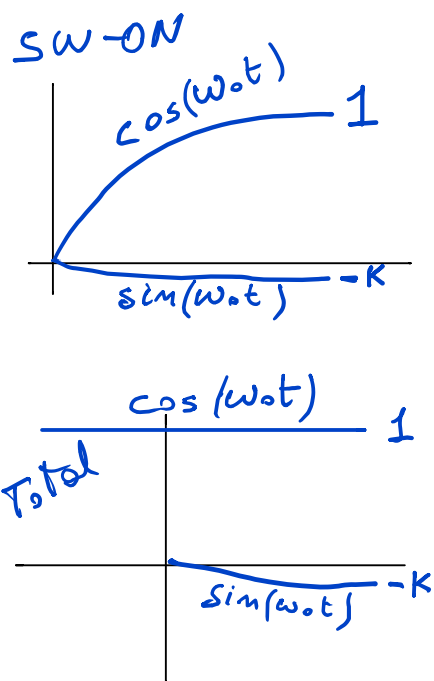
$$\cos(\omega_p t) = \cos(\Omega t) \cos(\omega_0 t) + \sin(\Omega t) \sin(\omega_0 t)$$

$$\sin(\omega_p t) = -\sin(\Omega t) \cos(\omega_0 t) + \cos(\Omega t) \sin(\omega_0 t)$$

Switch-off transient, $t \geq 0$

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

Phase response



Switch-on transient

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{BC} \quad t \rightarrow \infty &\Rightarrow e^{-t/\tau} \rightarrow 0 & \mathcal{C} &= 1, \quad \mathcal{D} = -\kappa \\ t \rightarrow 0 &\Rightarrow e^{-t/\tau} \rightarrow 1 & \mathcal{C} + \mathcal{A} &= 0 \Rightarrow \mathcal{A} = -1 \\ & & \mathcal{D} + \mathcal{B} &= 0 \Rightarrow \mathcal{B} = \kappa \end{aligned}$$

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

Add switch-off and switch-on transients

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

Get the effect of the step by subtracting the pre-switch steady state, and deleting κ

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

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

Step response

$$\varphi_u = 1 - \cos(\Omega t) e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$\alpha_u = -\sin(\Omega t) e^{-t/\tau}$$

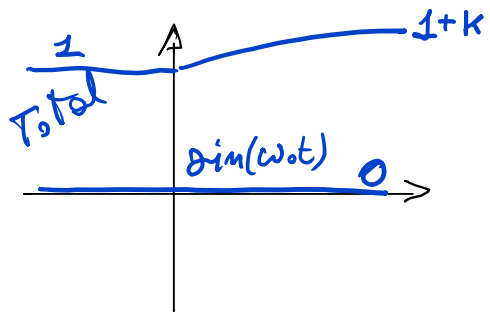
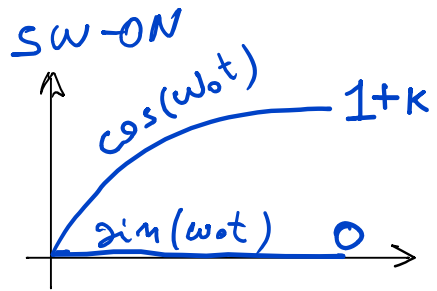
differentiate

Impulse response

$$\varphi_\delta = \left[\frac{1}{\tau} \cos(\Omega t) + \Omega \sin(\Omega t) \right] e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$\alpha_\delta = \left[-\Omega \cos(\Omega t) + \frac{1}{\tau} \sin(\Omega t) \right] e^{-t/\tau}$$

Amplitude response



Switch-on transient

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

BC $t \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow e^{-t/\tau} \rightarrow 0$

$$C = 1 + \kappa, \quad D = 0$$

$t \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow e^{-t/\tau} \rightarrow 1$

$$C + \mathcal{A} = 0 \Rightarrow \mathcal{A} = -(1 + \kappa)$$

$$D + \mathcal{B} = 0 \Rightarrow \mathcal{B} = 0$$

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

Add switch-off and switch-on transients

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

Get the effect of the step by subtracting the pre-switch steady state, and deleting κ

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

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

Step response

$$\varphi_u = \sin(\Omega t) e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$\alpha_u = 1 - \cos(\Omega t) e^{-t/\tau}$$

differentiate

Impulse response

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

$$\alpha_\delta = \left[\frac{1}{\tau} \cos(\Omega t) + \Omega \sin(\Omega t) \right] e^{-t/\tau}$$

Impulse response of the detuned resonator 315

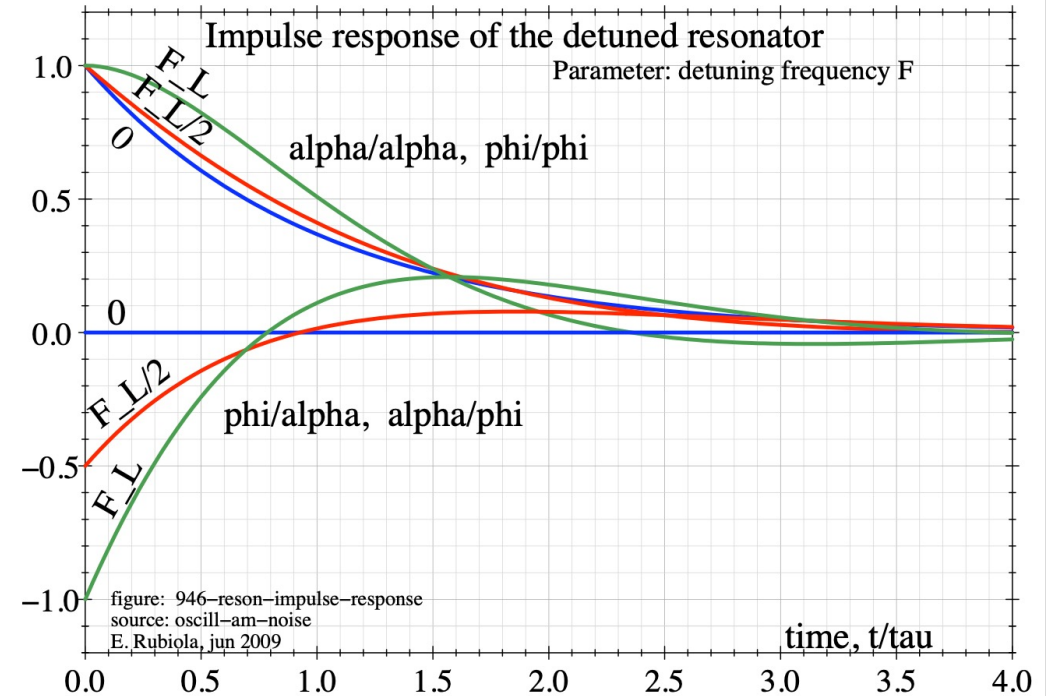
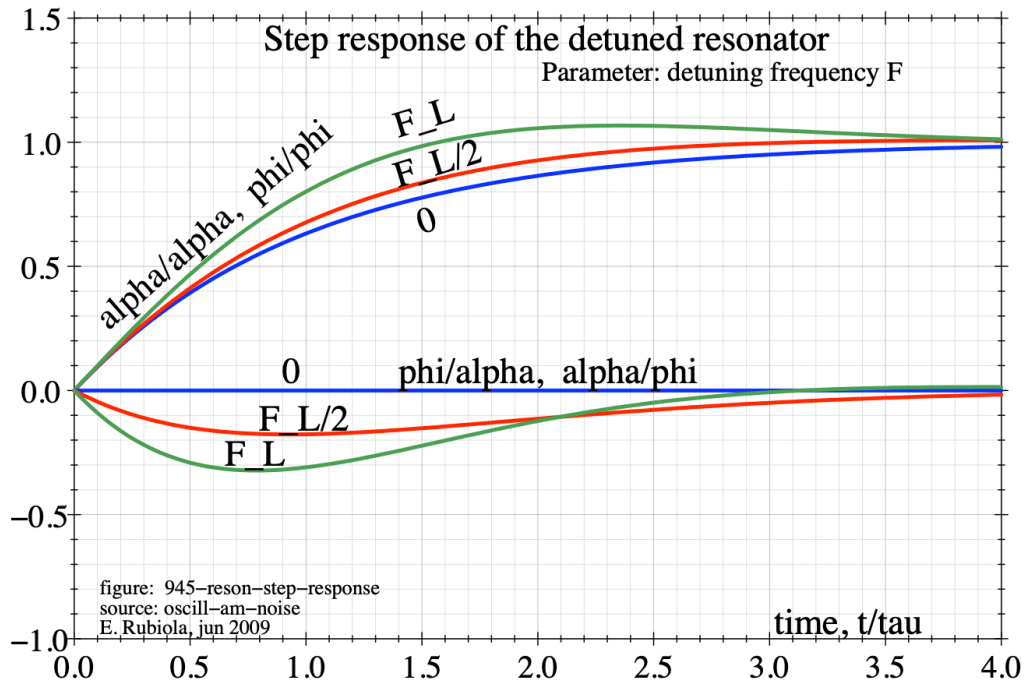
Time domain

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

Laplace Transforms

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

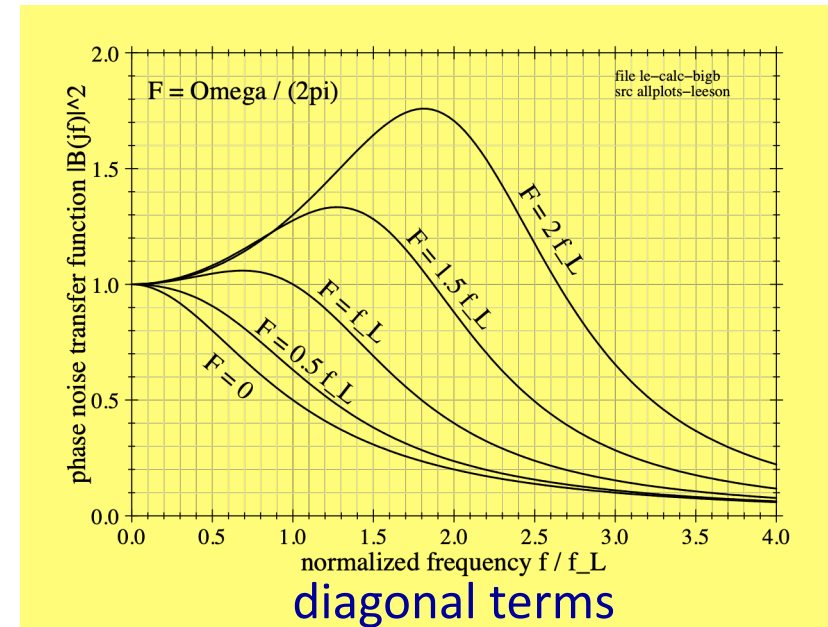
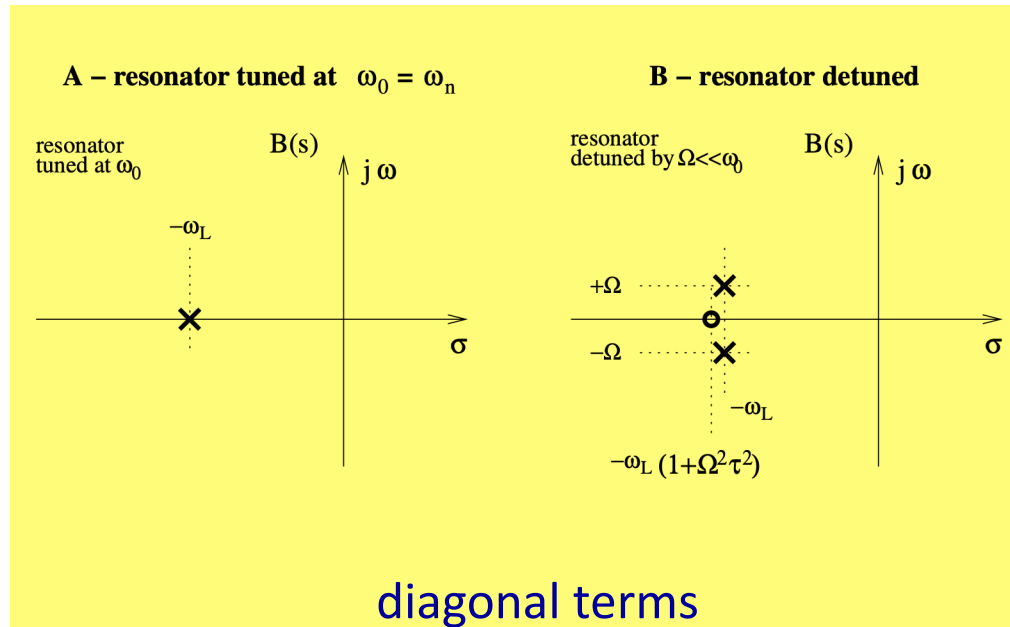
Resonator step and impulse response



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

Frequency response

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



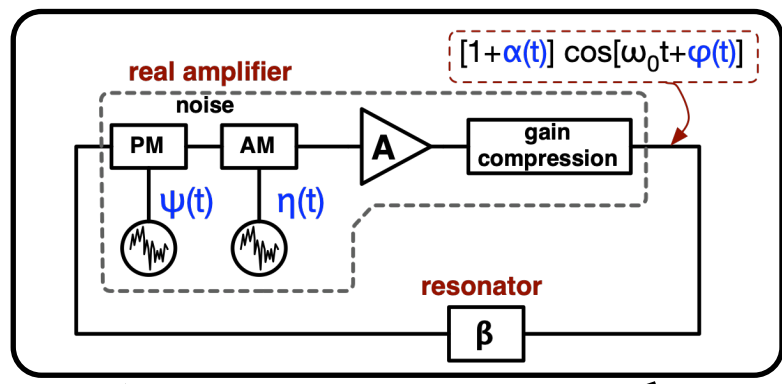
$$\begin{bmatrix} \Phi \\ A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\tau} \frac{s + \frac{1}{\tau} + \tau\Omega^2}{s^2 + \frac{1}{\tau^2} + \frac{2s}{\tau} + \Omega^2} & -\Omega \frac{s}{s^2 + \frac{1}{\tau^2} + \frac{2s}{\tau} + \Omega^2} \\ \frac{s}{s^2 + \frac{1}{\tau^2} + \frac{2s}{\tau} + \Omega^2}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

Formal Proof for the Leeson Effect

Low-pass representation of AM-PM noise

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

E. Rubiola & R. Brendel, [arXiv:1004.5539v1](https://arxiv.org/abs/1004.5539v1), [physics.ins-det]

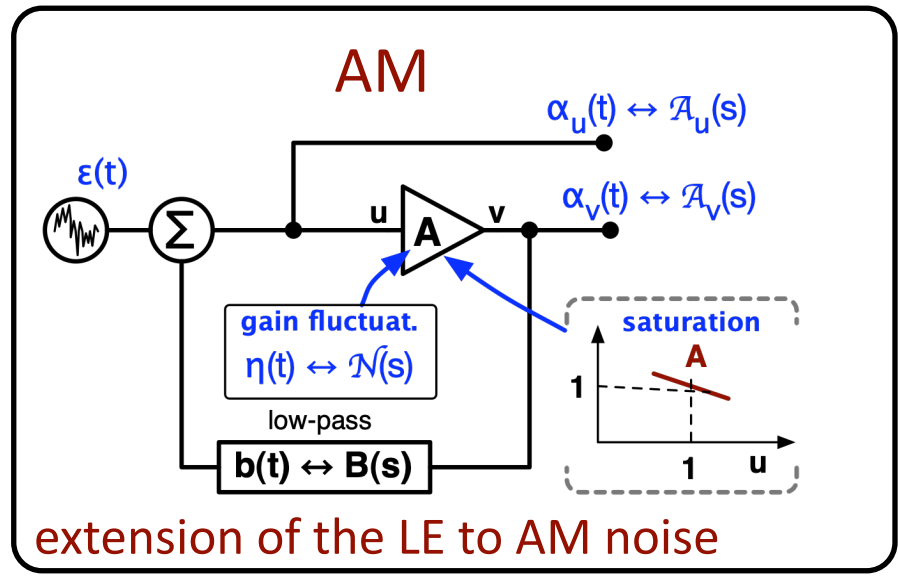
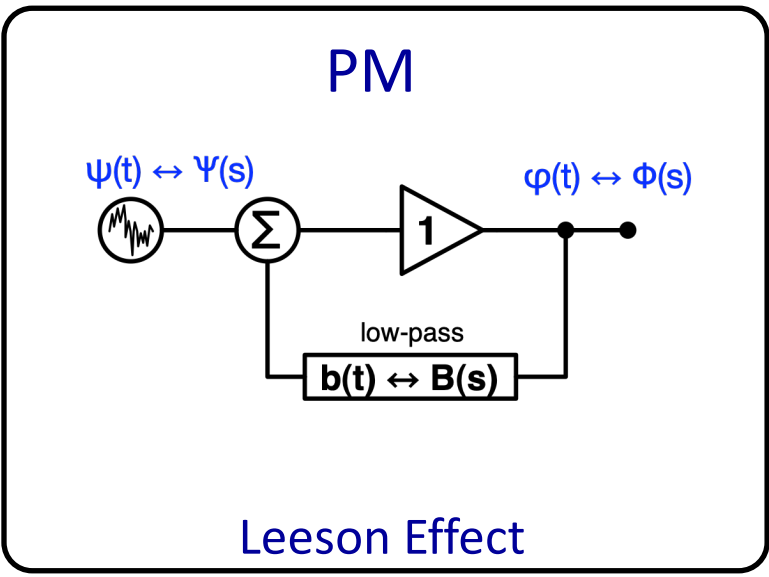


RF, μ waves or optics

The amplifier

- “copies” the input phase to the out
- adds phase noise

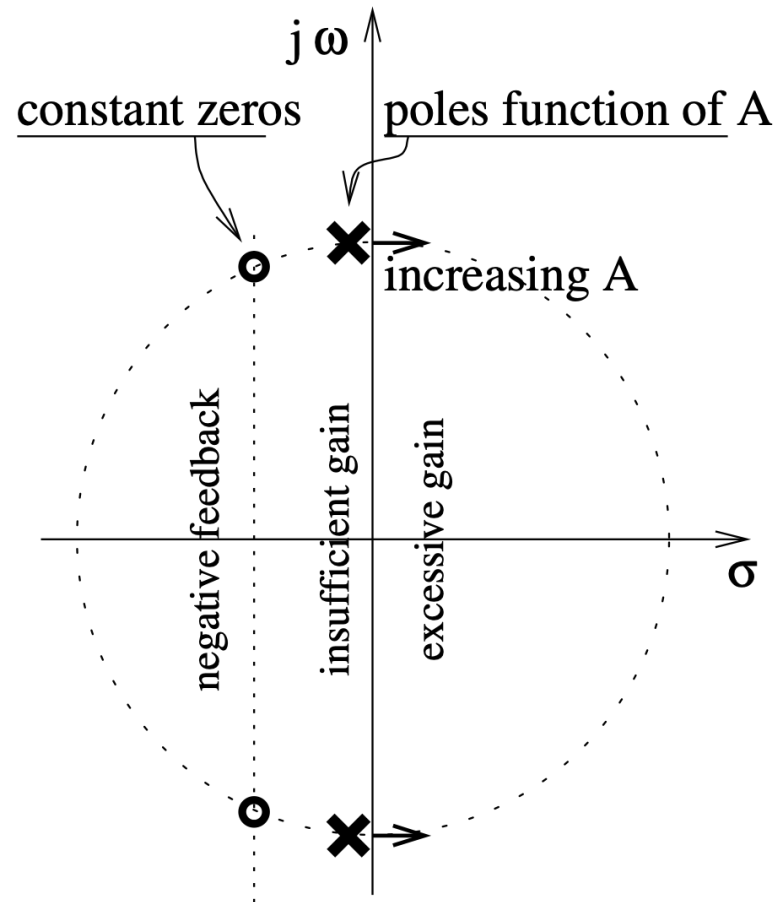
low-pass equivalent



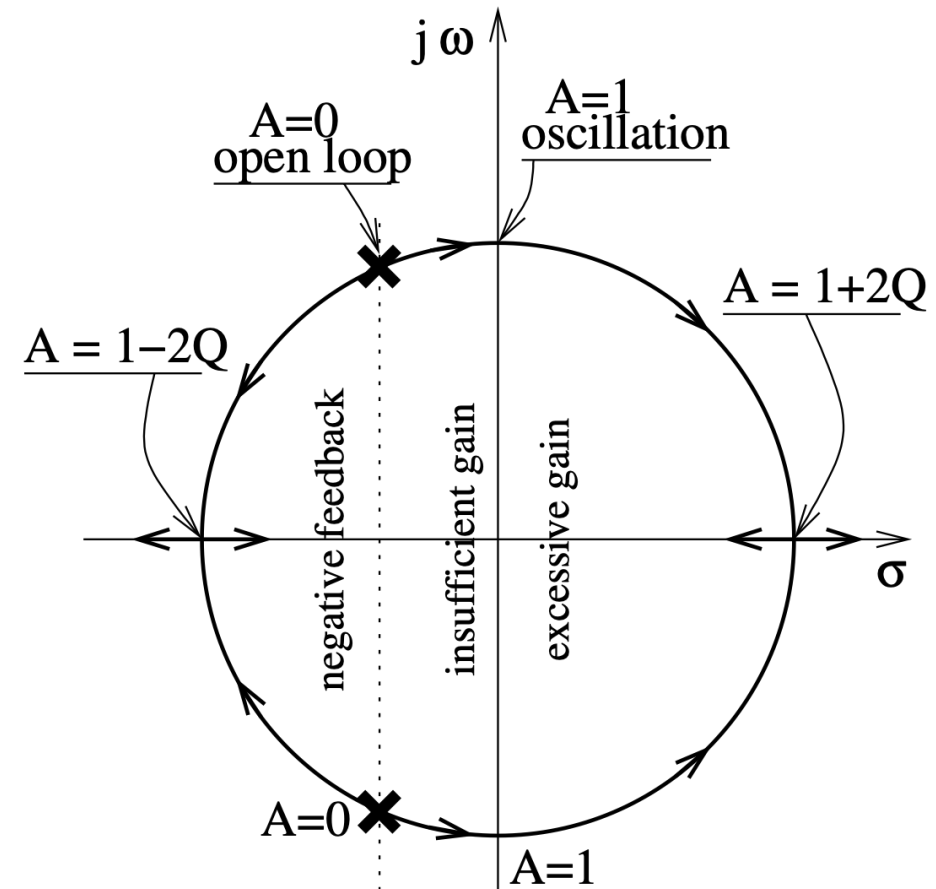
Effect of feedback

Oscillator transfer function (RF)

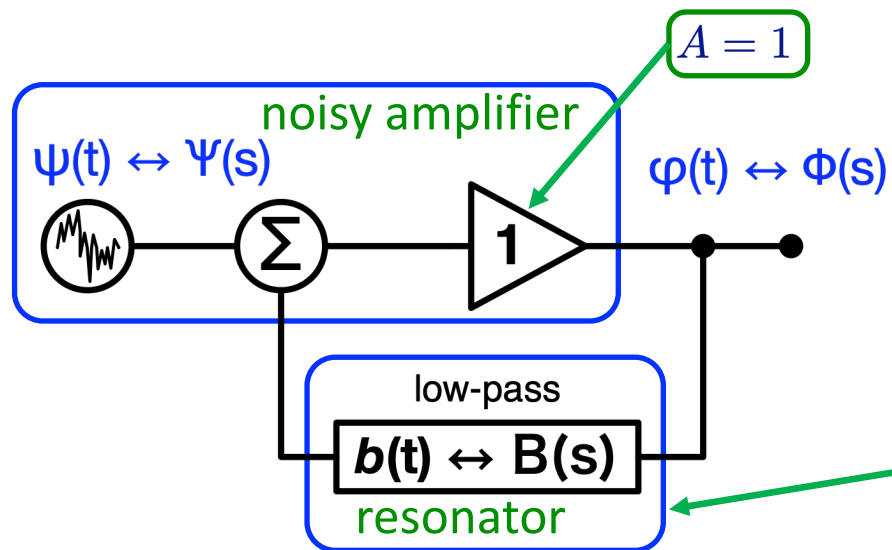
A – Oscillator transfer function $H(s)$



B – Detail of the denominator of $H(s)$



The Leeson effect



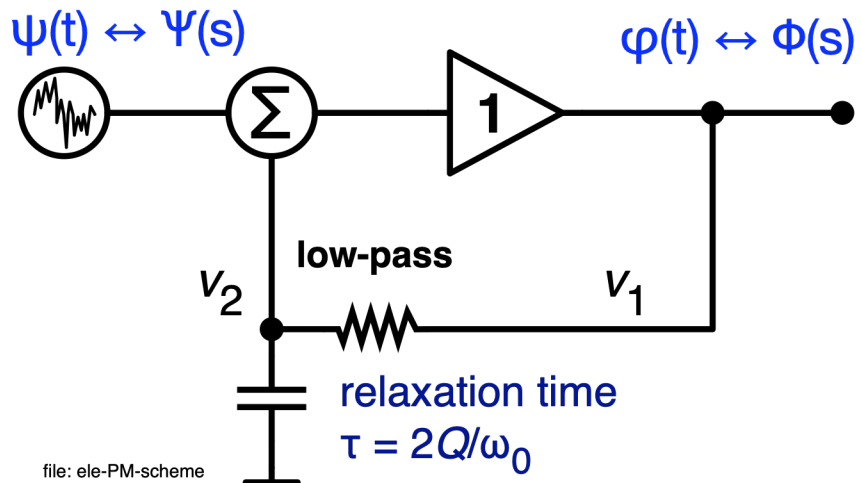
phase-noise transfer function

$$H(s) = \frac{\Phi(s)}{\Psi(s)} \quad \text{definition}$$

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{1 - B(s)} \quad \text{general feedback theory}$$

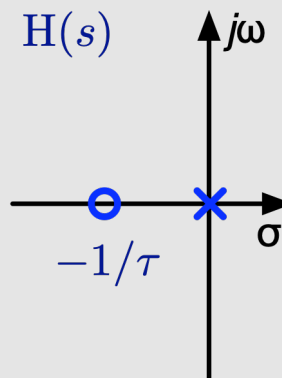
$$H(s) = \frac{1 + s\tau}{s\tau} \quad \text{Leeson effect}$$

$$B(s) = \frac{1/\tau}{s + 1/\tau}$$

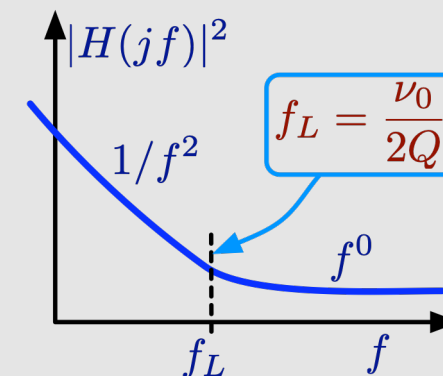


file: ele-PM-scheme

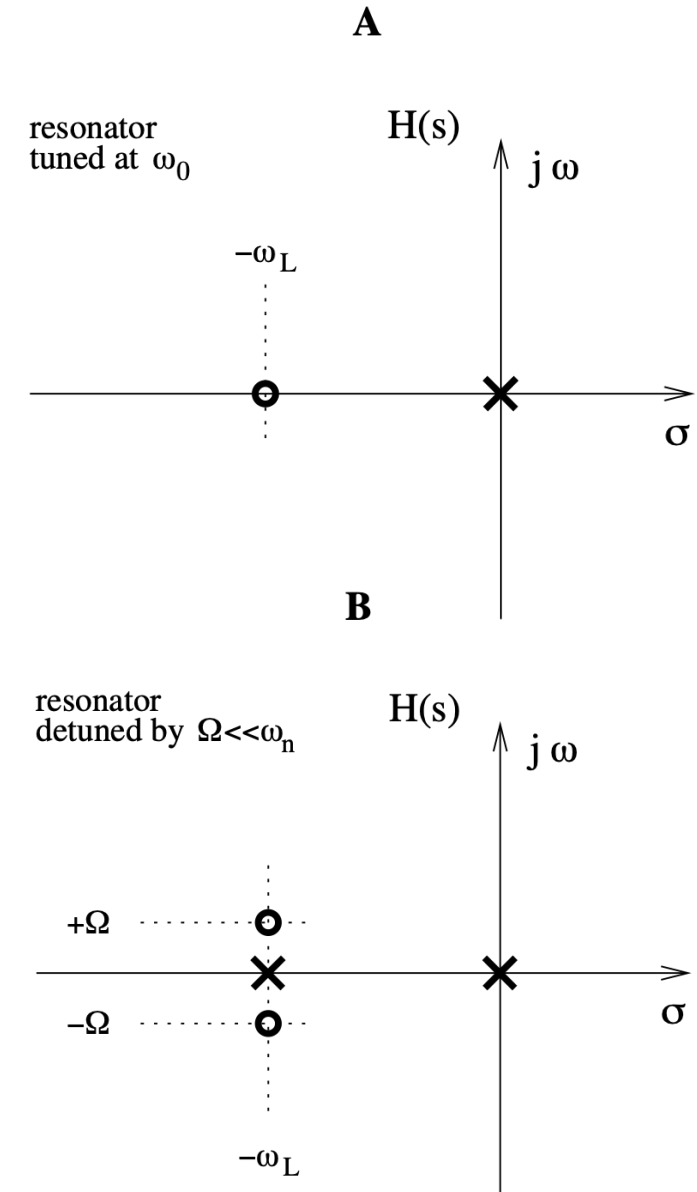
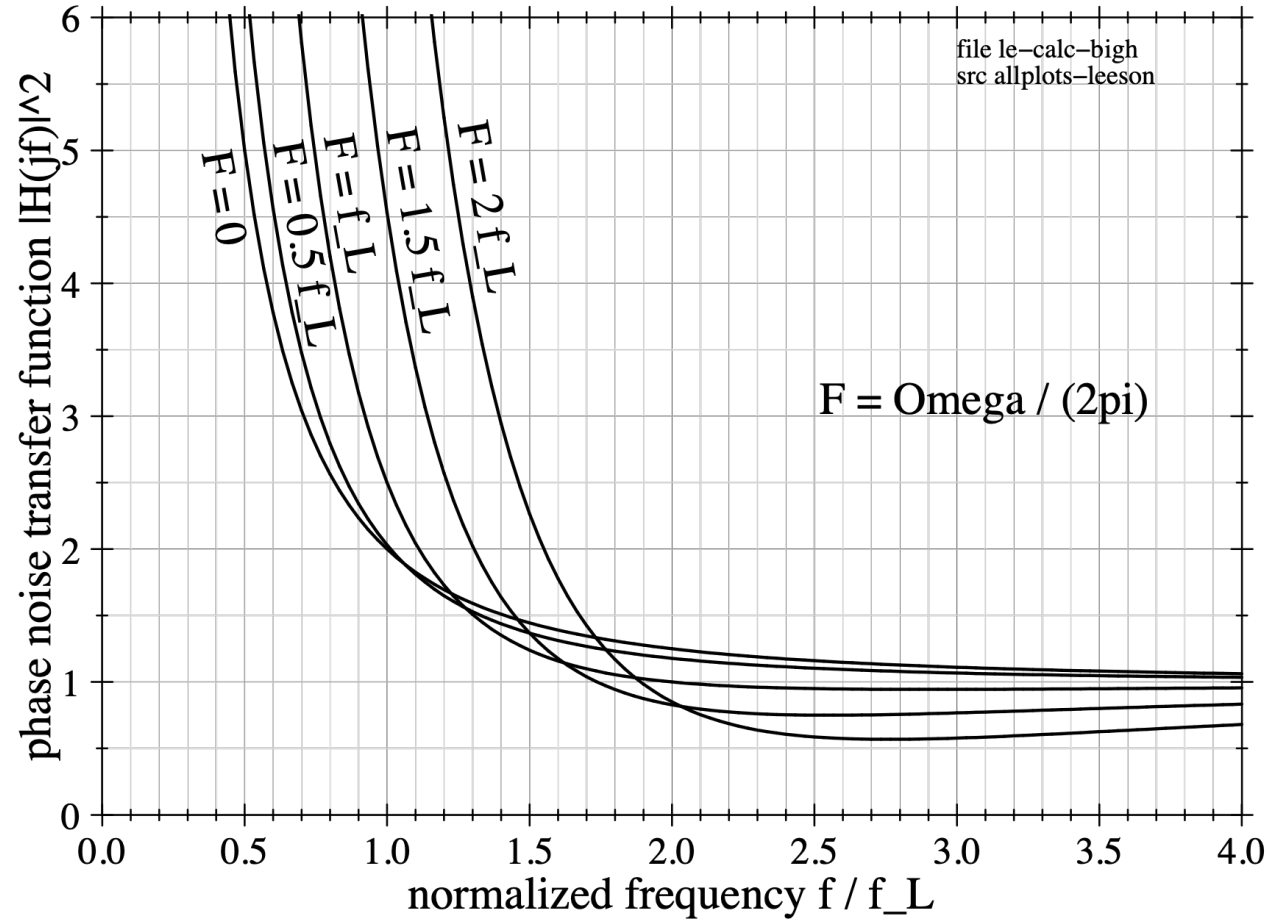
complex plane



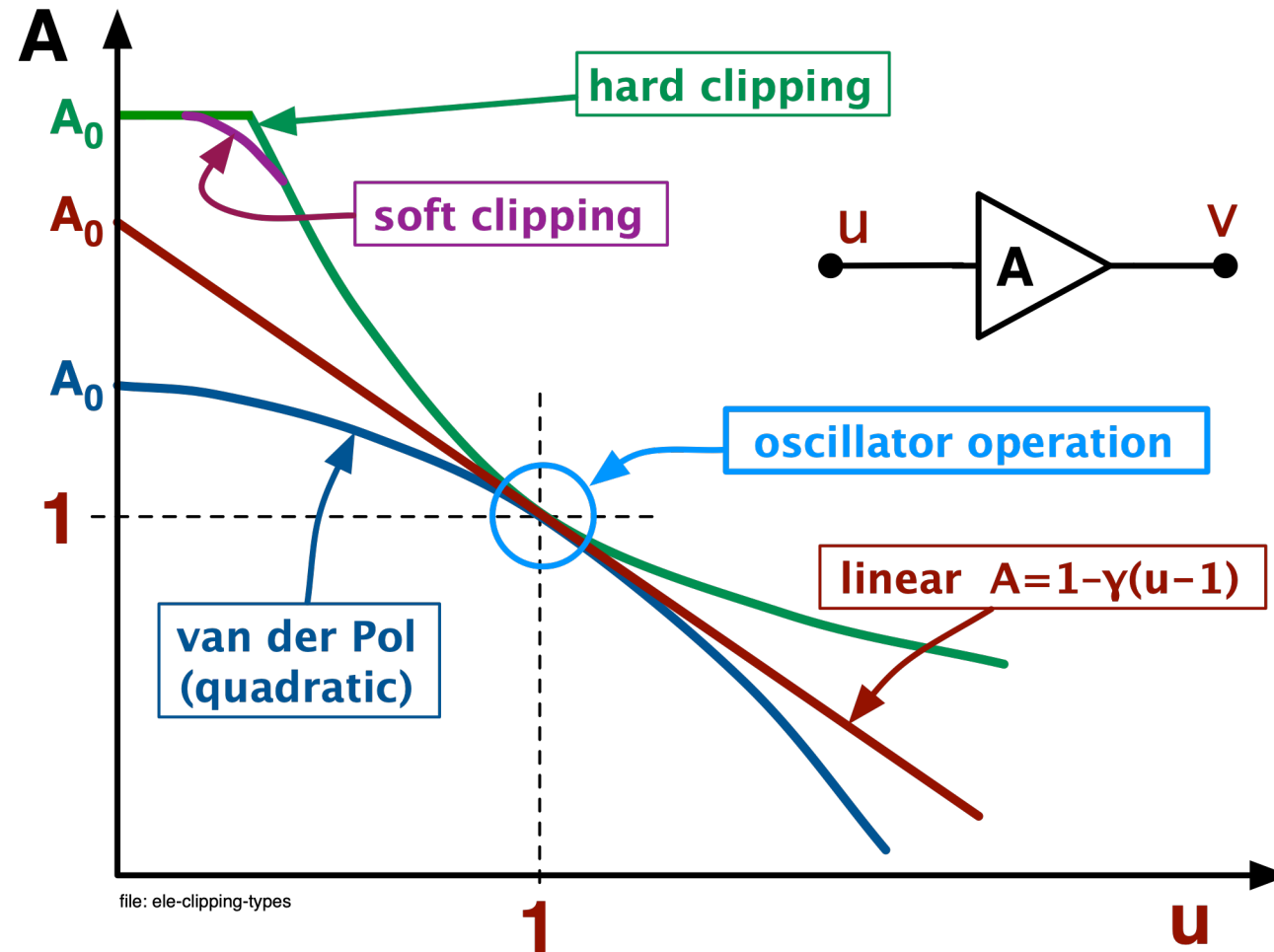
transfer function



Oscillator with detuned resonator

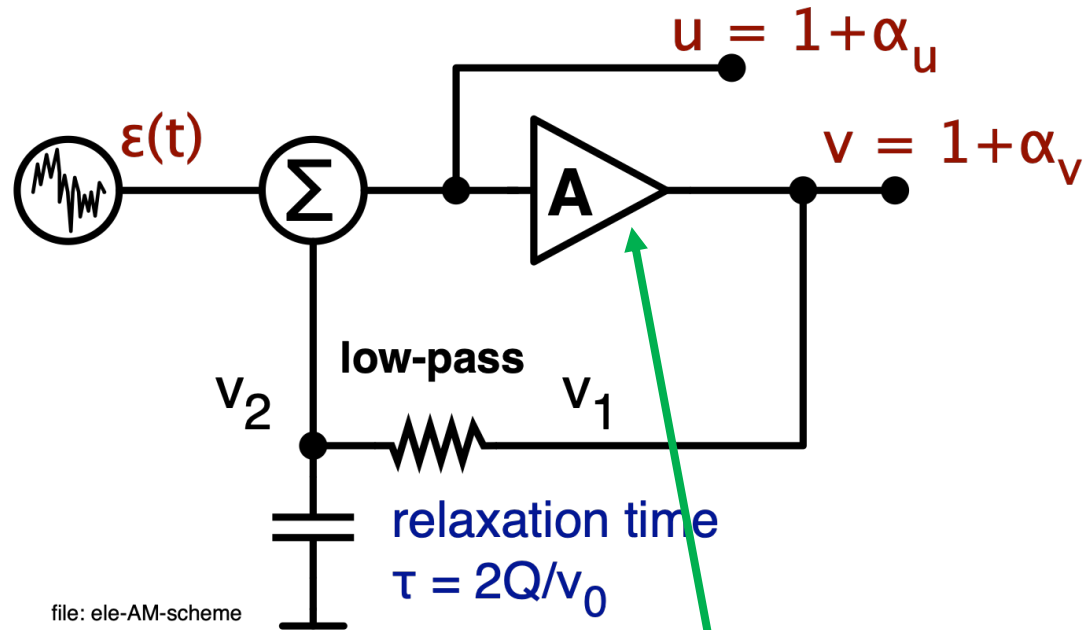


Gain saturation



Gain compression is necessary for the oscillation amplitude to be stable

Low-pass model for amplitude (1)



simple feedback theory

$$u = \epsilon + v_2$$

$$v_2 = \frac{1}{\tau} \int (v_1 - v_2) dt$$

$$v_2 = u - \epsilon$$

$$v_1 = v = Au$$

$$u = \epsilon + \frac{1}{\tau} \int (A - 1)u + \epsilon dt$$

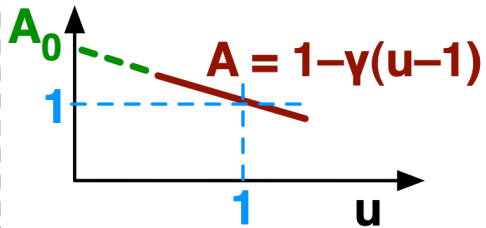
differential equation

$$\dot{u} - \frac{1}{\tau} (A - 1) u = \frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon + \dot{\epsilon}$$

Gain compression is necessary for the oscillation amplitude to be stable

Low-pass model for amplitude (2)

Gain compression

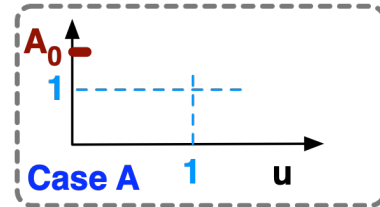


homogeneous
differential
equation

$$\dot{u} - \frac{1}{\tau} (A - 1) u = 0$$

Three asymptotic cases

At low RF amplitude, let the gain be an arbitrary value denoted with A_0



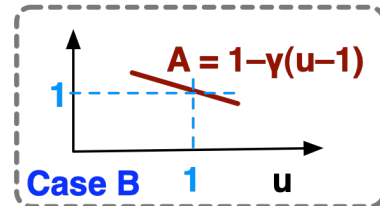
Startup: $u \rightarrow 0, A \rightarrow A_0 > 1$

$$\dot{u} - \frac{1}{\tau} (A_0 - 1) u = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$u = C_1 e^{(A_0 - 1) t / \tau}$$

rising exponential

For small fluctuation of the stationary RF amplitude, the gain varies linearly with V



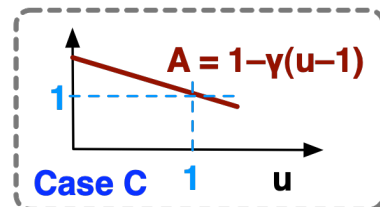
Regime: $u \rightarrow 1, A = 1 - \gamma (u - 1)$

$$\dot{u} + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} (u - 1) u = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$u = C_2 e^{-\gamma t / \tau}$$

restoring time constant $\tau_r = \tau / \gamma$

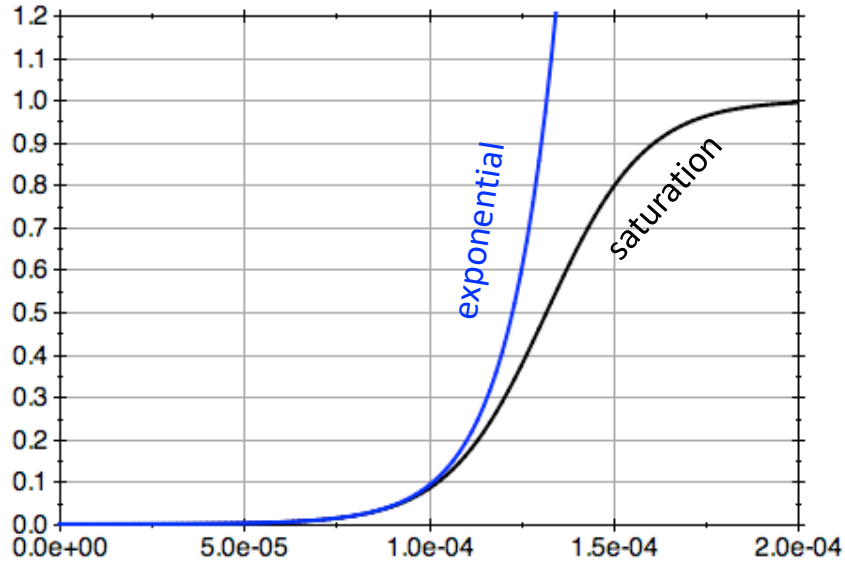
Simplification: the gain varies linearly with V in all the input range



Linear gain: $A = 1 - \gamma (u - 1)$

$$u = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{u(0)} - 1\right) e^{-\gamma t / \tau} + 1}$$

Startup – Analysis and simulation



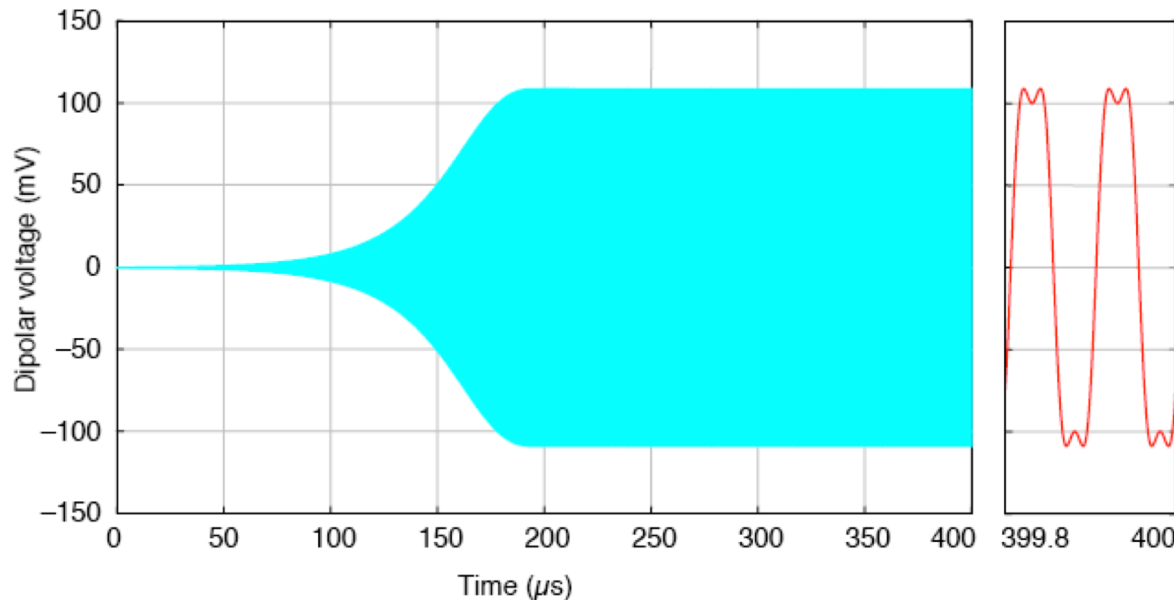
analytical solution,
 $A = 1 - \gamma(u - 1)$

10 MHz oscillator

$L = 1 \text{ mH}$

$R = 25 \Omega$

$Q \approx 503$



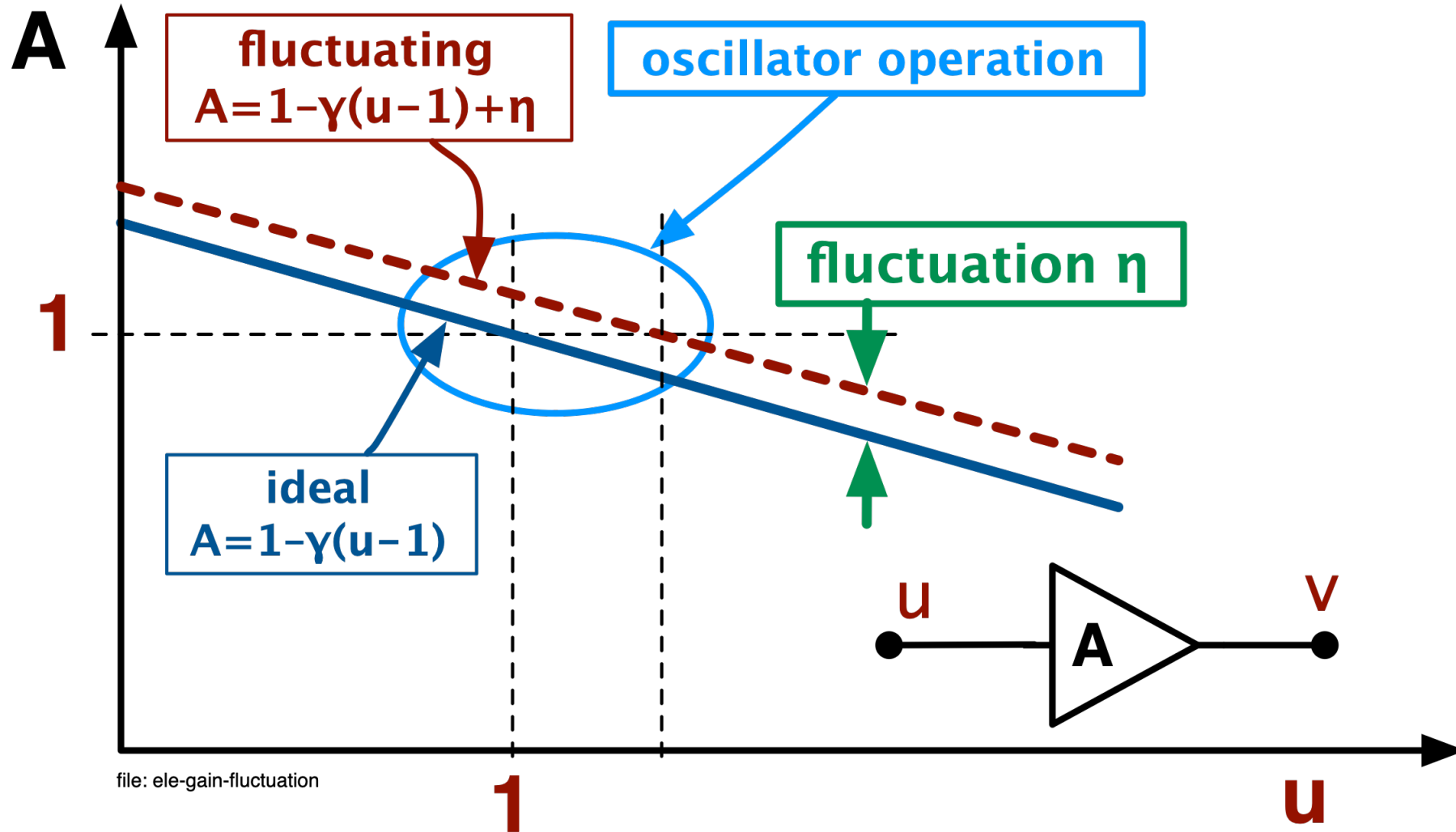
van der Pol oscillator
 simulated by Rémi Brendel

Rising exponential.

We find the same time constant $-\tau/\gamma$

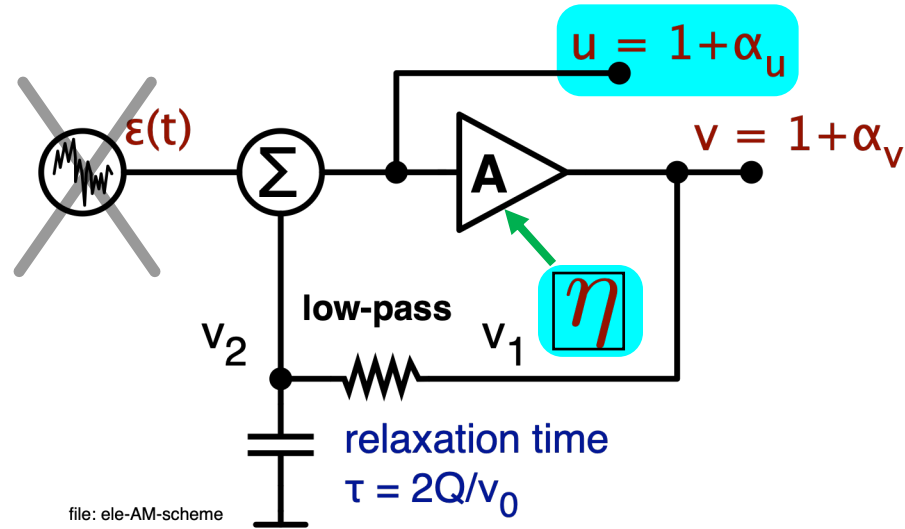
See also Fig.15 of Addouche, Brendel et al., IEEE T UFFC 50(5), May 2003.

Gain fluctuations



Gain compression is necessary for the oscillation amplitude to be stable

Gain fluctuations – Output is $u(t)$



$$\dot{u} = \frac{1}{\tau}(A - 1)u \quad \text{non-linear equation}$$

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

$$\dot{u} + \frac{\gamma}{\tau}(u - 1)u = \frac{\eta}{\tau}u \quad \text{linearization for low noise}$$

$\dot{\alpha}_u$ α_u 1 1

$$\dot{\alpha}_u + \frac{\gamma}{\tau}\alpha_u = \frac{1}{\tau}\eta \quad \text{linearized equation}$$

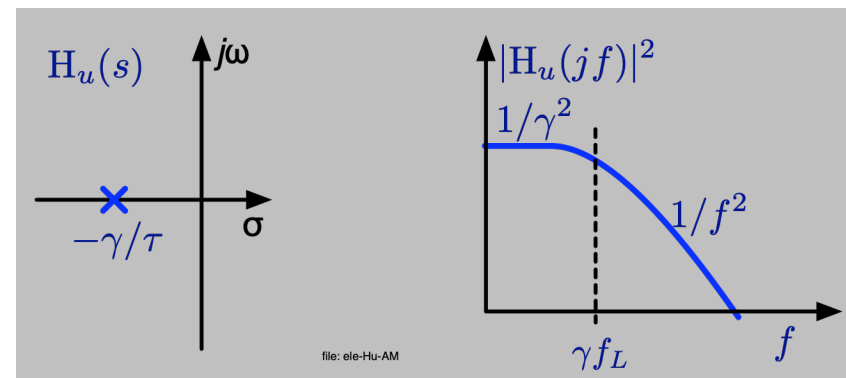
$$\left(s + \frac{\gamma}{\tau}\right) \mathcal{A}_u(s) = \frac{1}{\tau} \mathcal{N}(s) \quad \text{Laplace transform}$$

Linearize for low noise and use the Laplace transforms

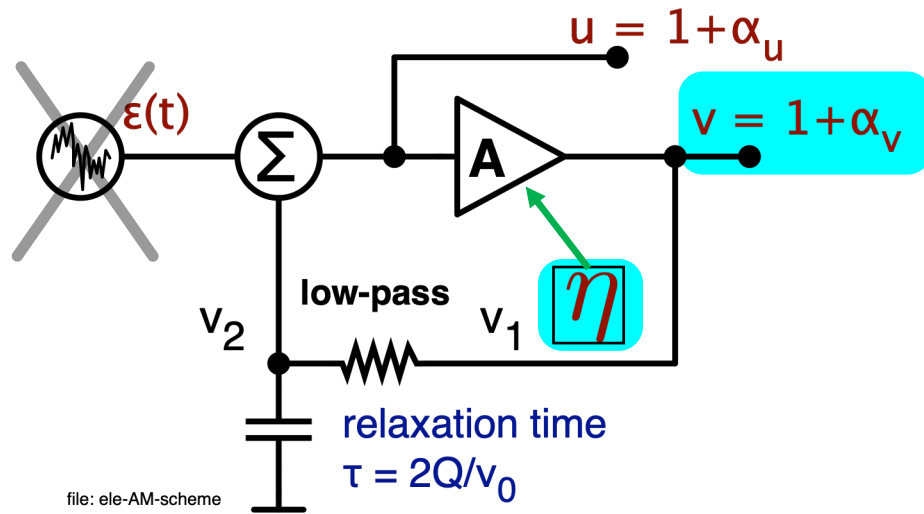
$$\alpha_u(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_u(s) \quad \text{and} \quad \eta(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{N}(s)$$

$$H_u(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_u(s)}{\mathcal{N}(s)} \quad \text{definition}$$

$$H_u(s) = \frac{1/\tau}{s + \gamma/\tau} \quad \text{result}$$



Gain fluctuations – Output is $v(t)$



$$\left(s + \frac{\gamma}{\tau}\right) \mathcal{A}_u(s) = \frac{1}{\tau} \mathcal{N}(s) \quad \text{starting equation}$$

$$\mathcal{A}_u(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_v(s) - \mathcal{N}(s)}{1 - \gamma}$$

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

$$H(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_v(s)}{\mathcal{N}(s)} \quad \text{definition}$$

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

boring algebra relates α_v to α_u

$$v = Au$$

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

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

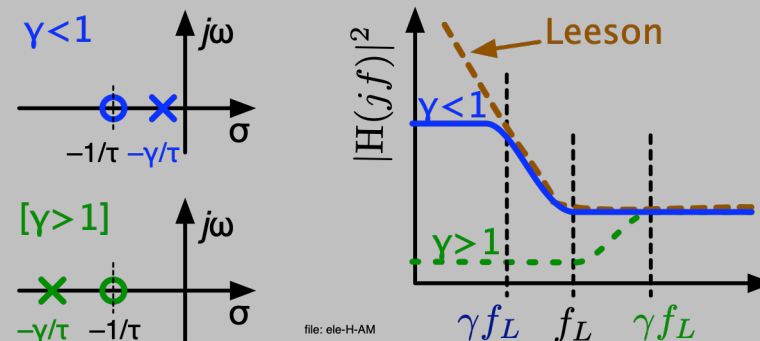
$$v = [-\gamma\alpha_u + 1 + \eta] [1 + \alpha_u]$$

$$1 + \alpha_v = 1 + \eta - \gamma\alpha_u + \alpha_u - \alpha_u\eta - \gamma\alpha_u^2$$

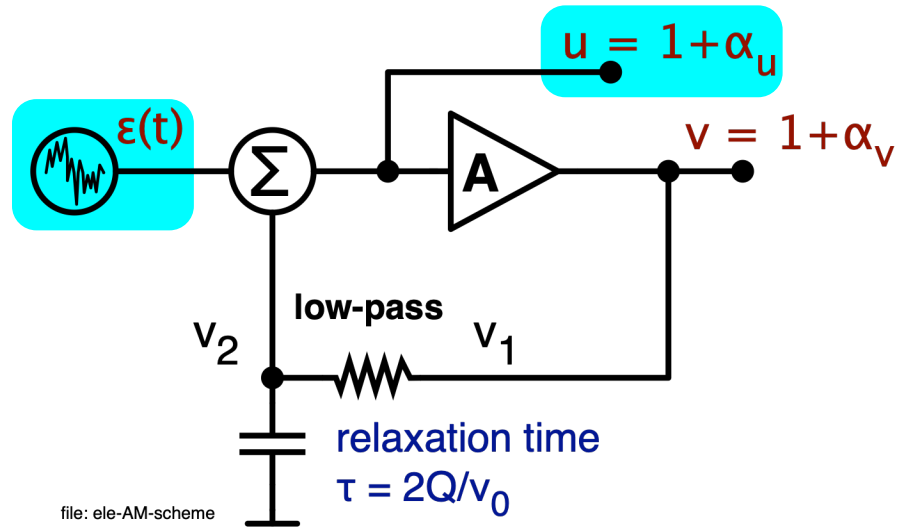
$$\alpha_v = (1 - \gamma)\alpha_u + \eta$$

$$\alpha_u = \frac{\alpha_v - \eta}{1 - \gamma}$$

linearization
for low noise



Noise – Output is $u(t)$



$$\dot{u} = \frac{1}{\tau} (A - 1)u + \dot{\epsilon} + \frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon \quad \text{non-linear equation}$$

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

$$\dot{u} + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} (u - 1)u = \dot{\epsilon} + \frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon \quad \text{linearization for low noise}$$

$\dot{\alpha}_u \quad \alpha_u \quad 1$

$$\dot{\alpha}_u + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} \alpha_u = \dot{\epsilon} + \frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon \quad \text{linearized equation}$$

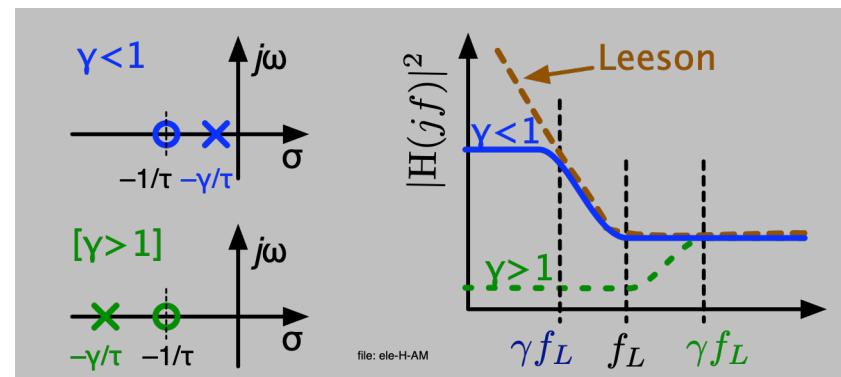
$$\left(s + \frac{\gamma}{\tau}\right) \mathcal{A}_u(s) = \left(s + \frac{1}{\tau}\right) \mathcal{E}(s) \quad \text{Laplace transform}$$

Linearize for low noise and use the Laplace transforms

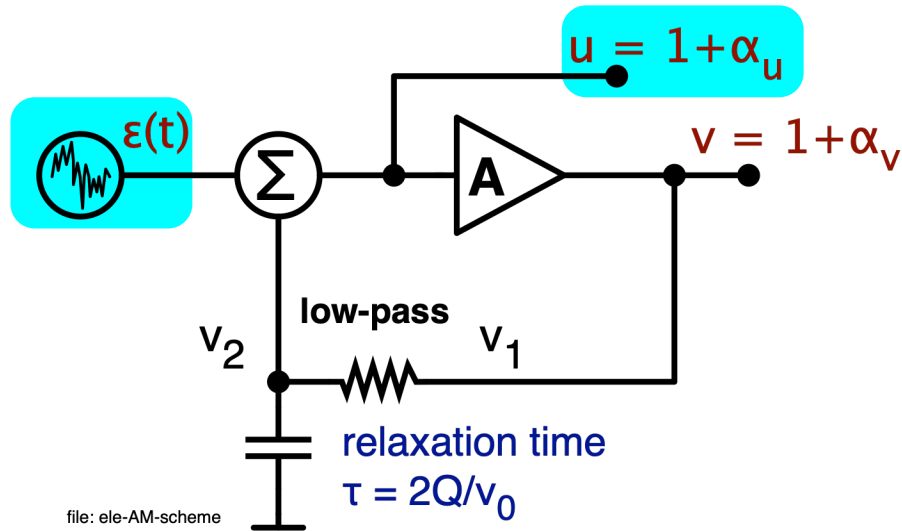
$$\alpha_u(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_u(s) \quad \text{and} \quad \epsilon(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{E}(s)$$

$$H_u(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_u(s)}{\mathcal{E}(s)} \quad \text{definition}$$

$$H_u(s) = \frac{s + 1/\tau}{s + \gamma/\tau} \quad \text{result}$$



Noise – Output is $u(t)$



$$\dot{\alpha}_u + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} \alpha_u = \dot{\epsilon} + \frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon$$

linearized equation

$$\alpha_u = \alpha_v / (1 - \gamma)$$

$$\frac{1}{1 - \gamma} \left(\dot{\alpha}_v + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} \alpha_v \right) = \dot{\epsilon} + \frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon$$

$$\frac{1}{1 - \gamma} \left(s + \frac{\gamma}{\tau} \right) \mathcal{A}_v(s) = \left(s + \frac{1}{\tau} \right) \mathcal{E}(s) \quad \text{Laplace transform}$$

$$H(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_v(s)}{\mathcal{E}(s)} \quad \text{definition}$$

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

boring algebra relates α' to α

$$v = Au$$

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

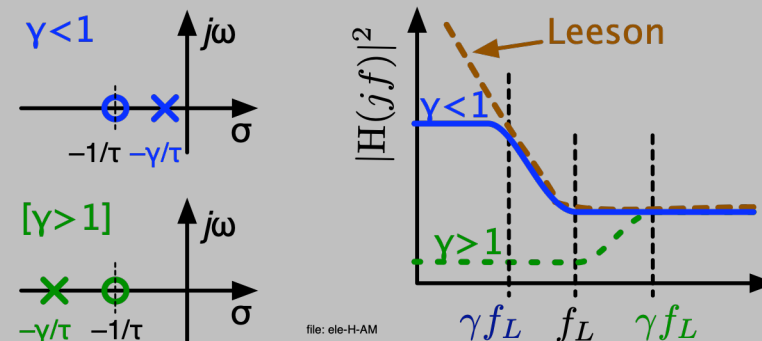
$$v = [1 - \gamma(u - 1)] u$$

$$1 + \alpha_v = [1 - \gamma\alpha_u] [1 + \alpha_u]$$

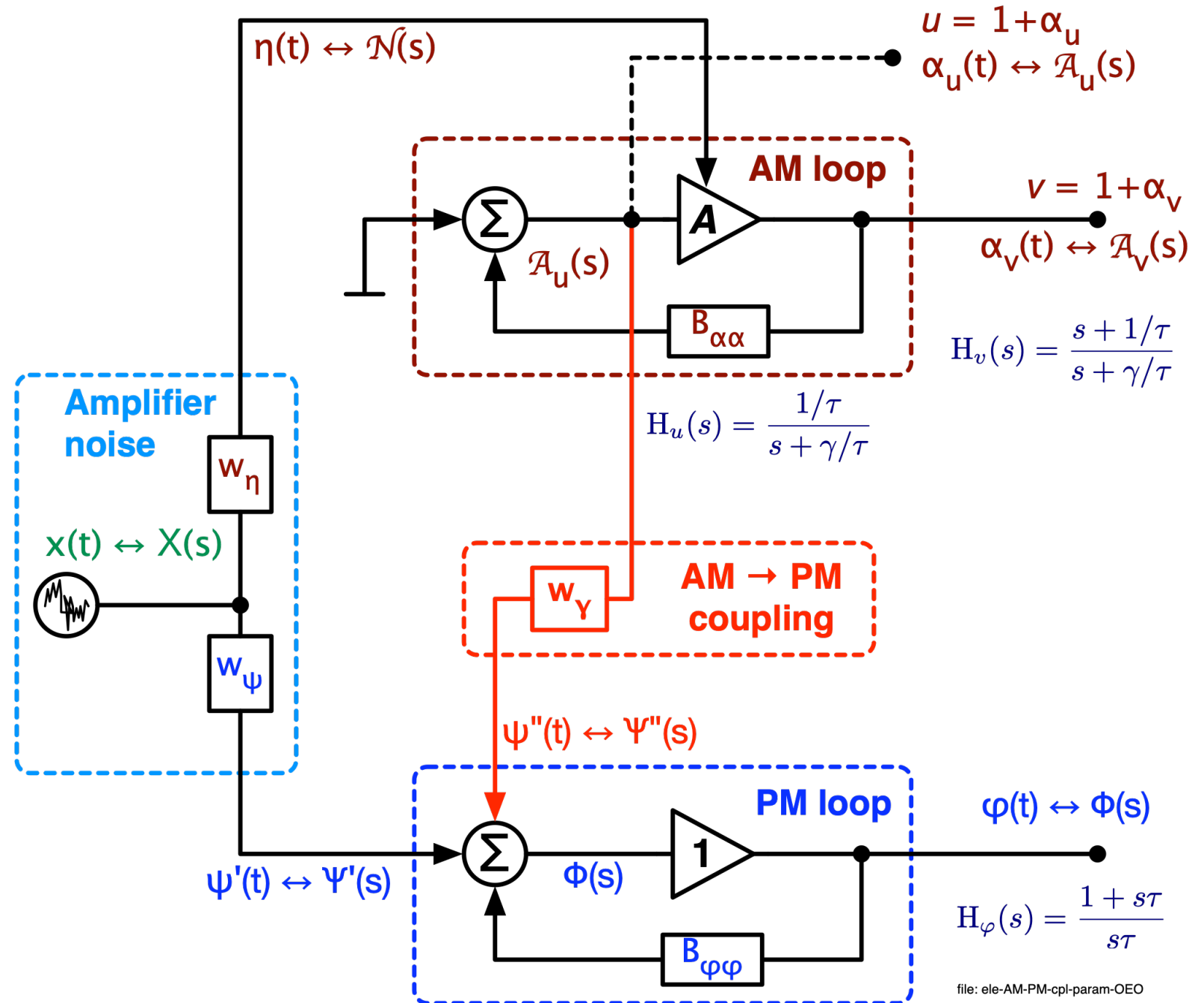
$$1 + \alpha_v = 1 + \alpha_u - \gamma\alpha_u - \gamma\alpha_u^2 \quad \text{linearization for low noise}$$

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

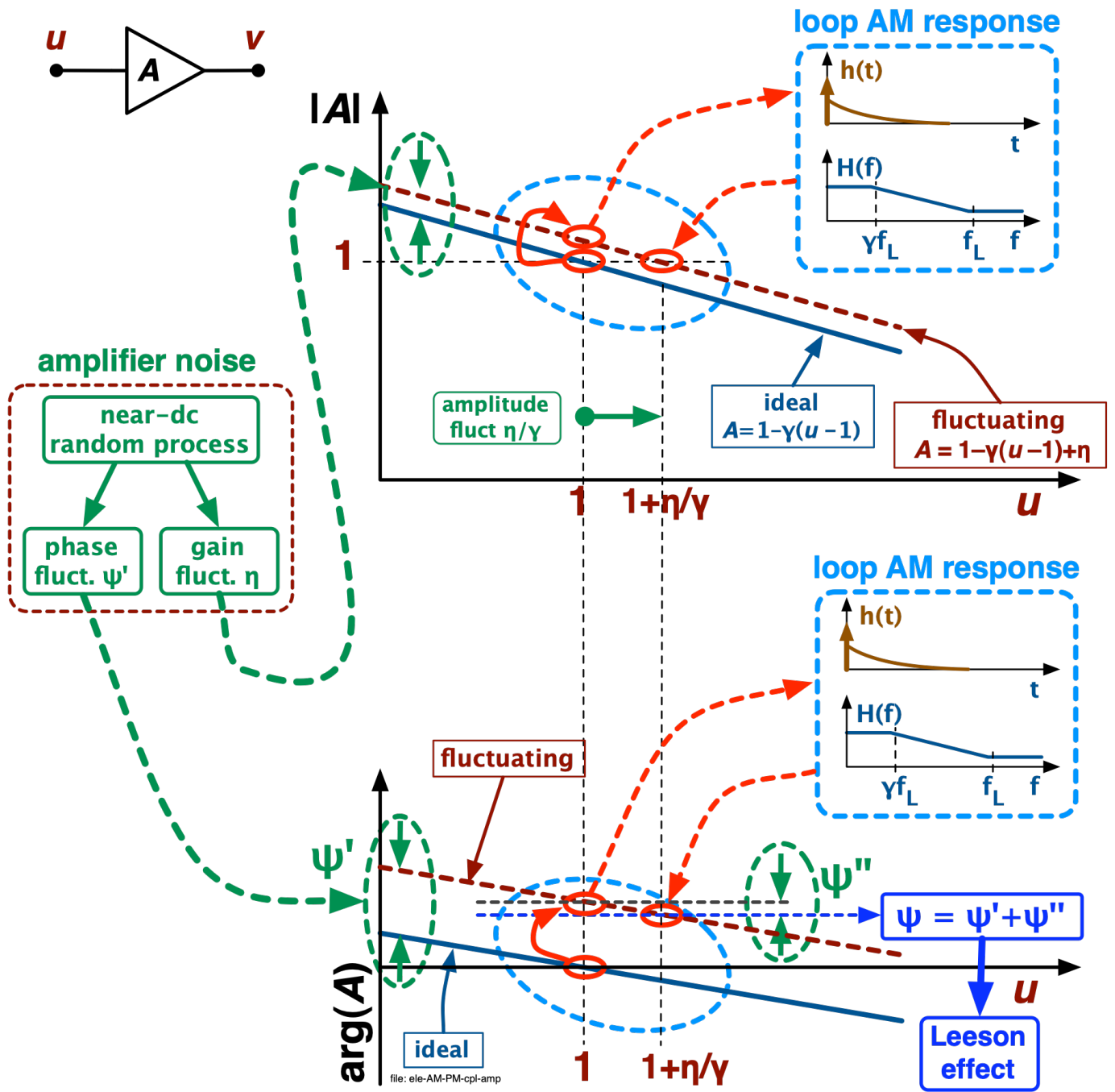
$$\alpha_u = \frac{\alpha_v}{1 - \gamma}$$



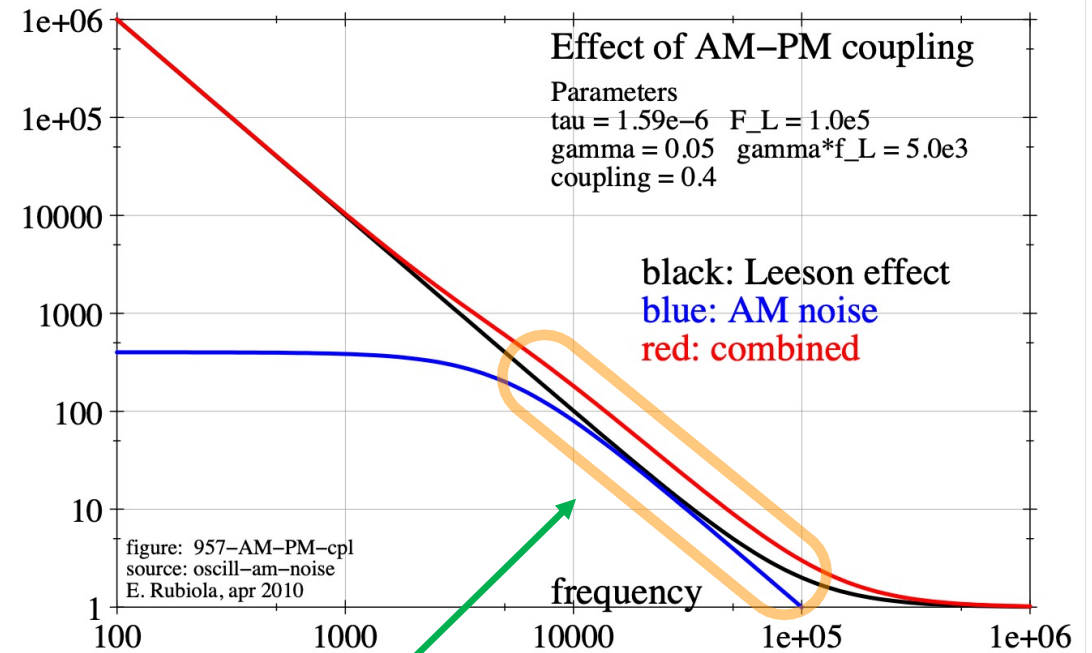
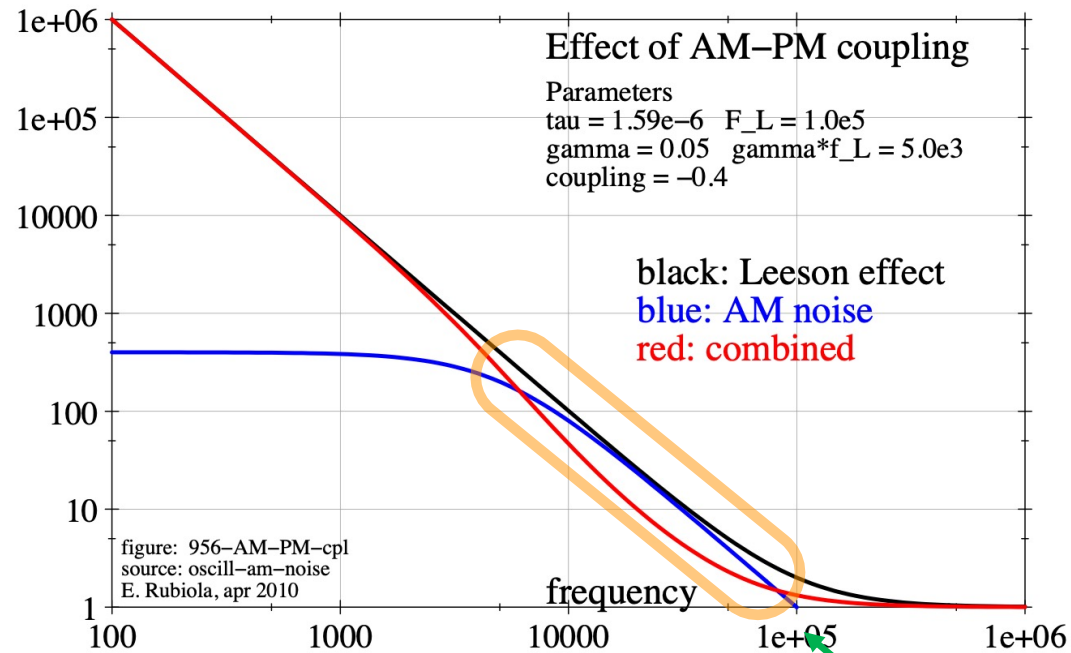
Parametric noise & AM-PM noise coupling



Effect of AM-PM noise coupling



Noise transfer function, and spectra



AM-PM coupling shows up here

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

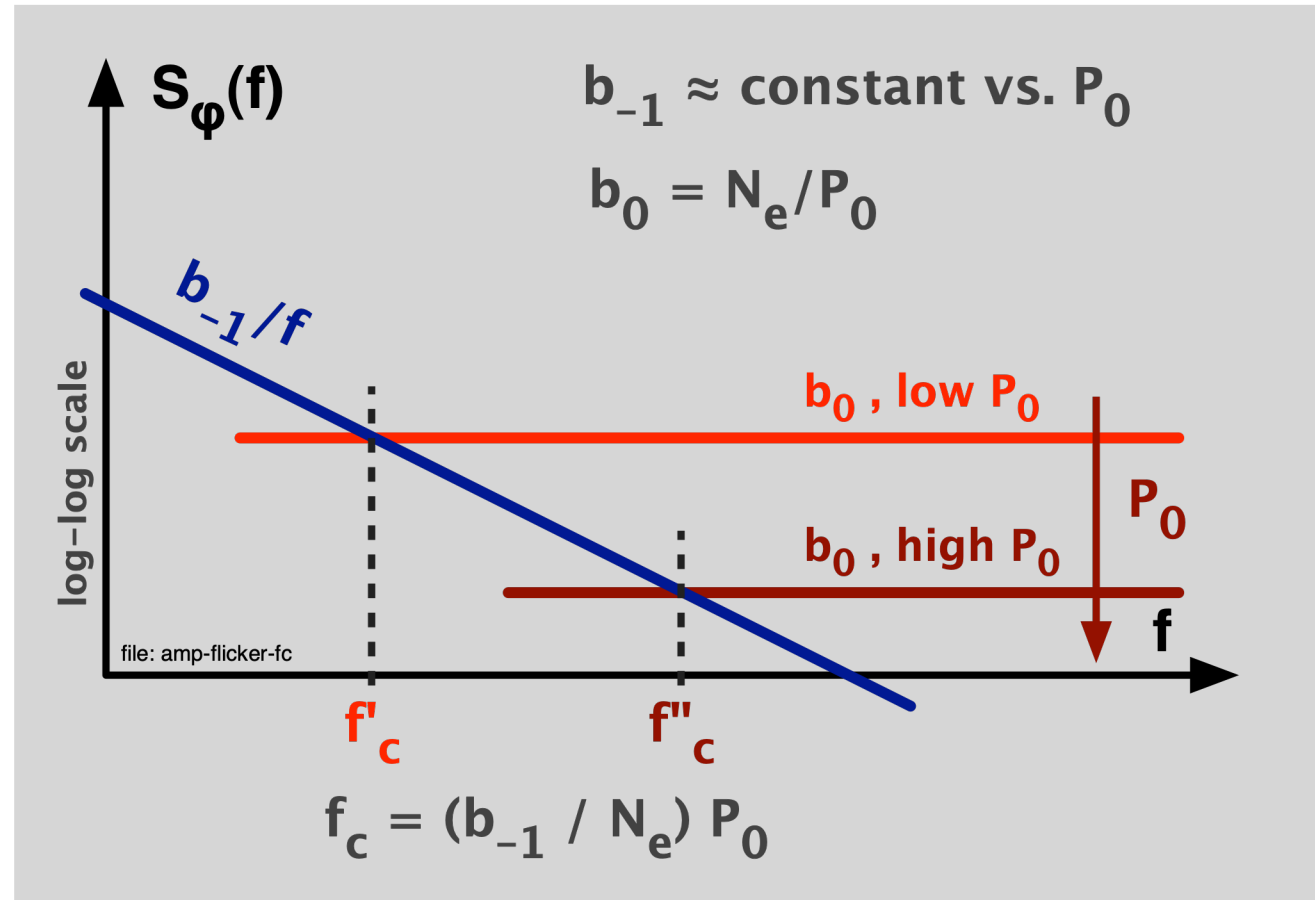
In a real oscillator, flicker noise shows up below some 10 kHz

In the flicker region, all plots are multiplied by $1/f$

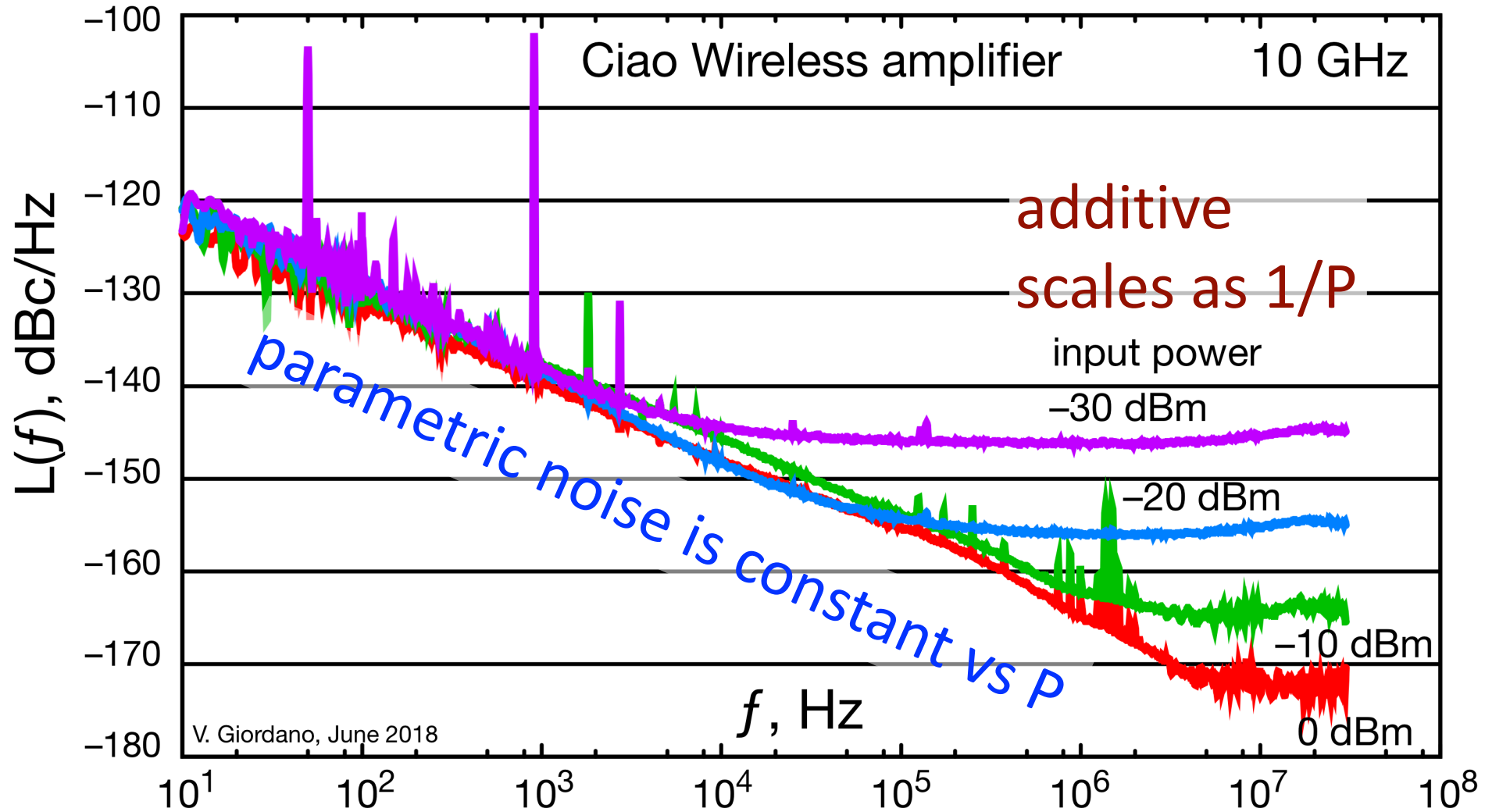
Oscillator Hacking

Still not able to hack the Rohde oscillator

Amplifier white and flicker noise

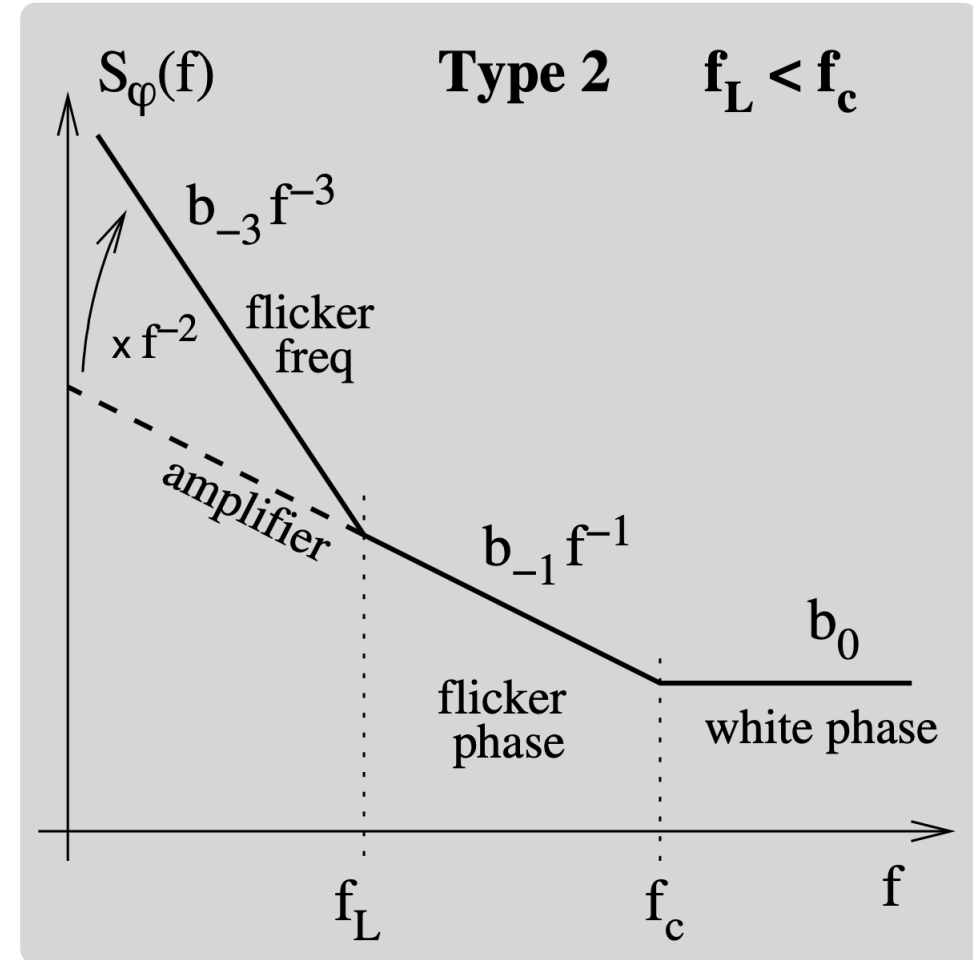
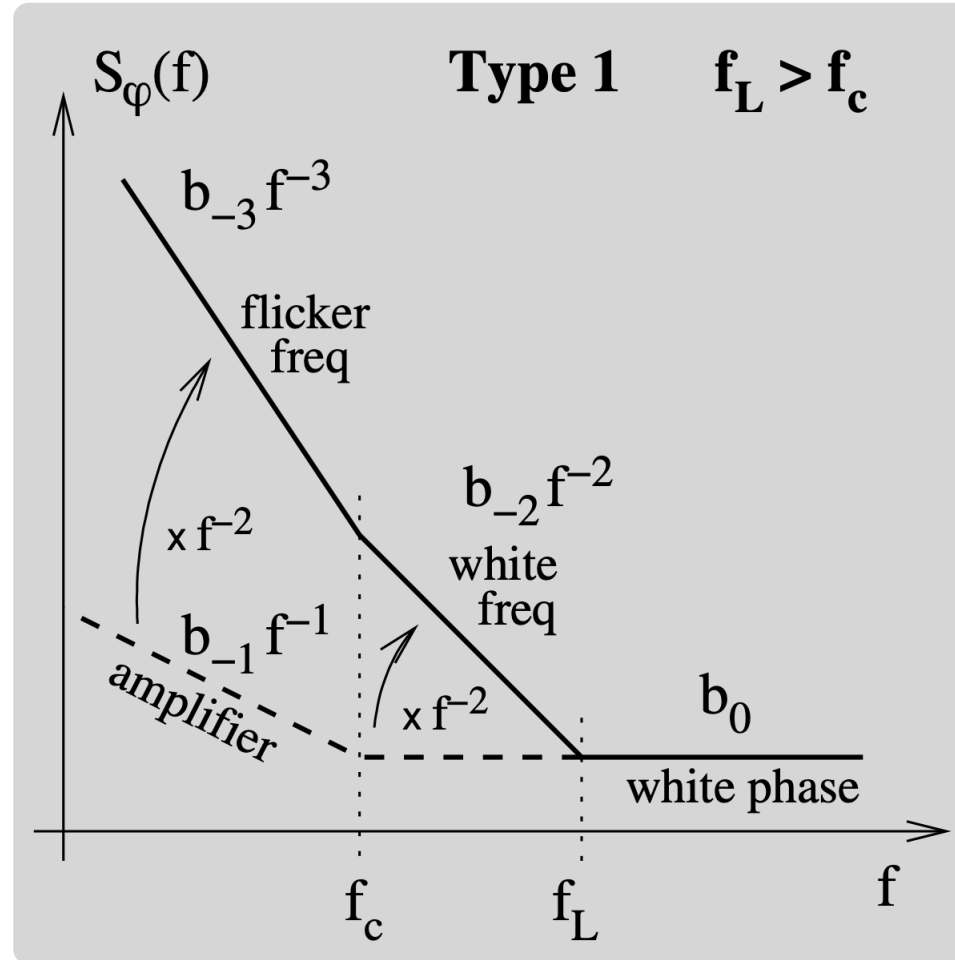


The corner frequency f_c , sometimes specified in data sheets is a misleading parameter because it depends on P_0



Parametric noise in amplifiers tends to be independent of ν_0

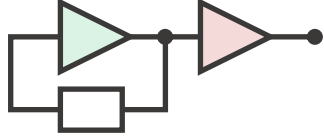
Oscillator noise – Real sustaining amplifier



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

The effect of the output buffer

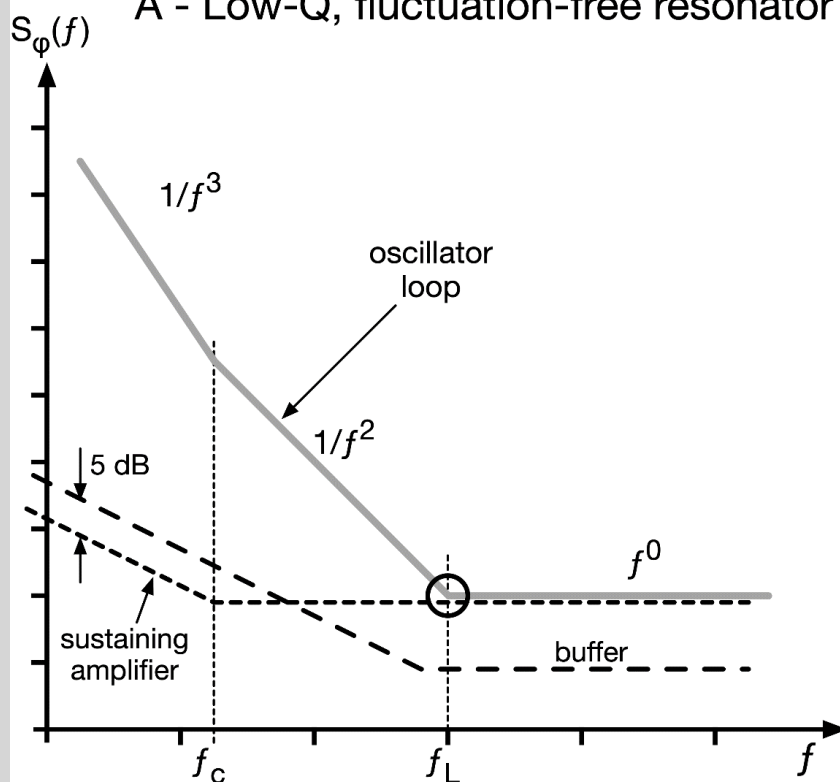
low noise noisy



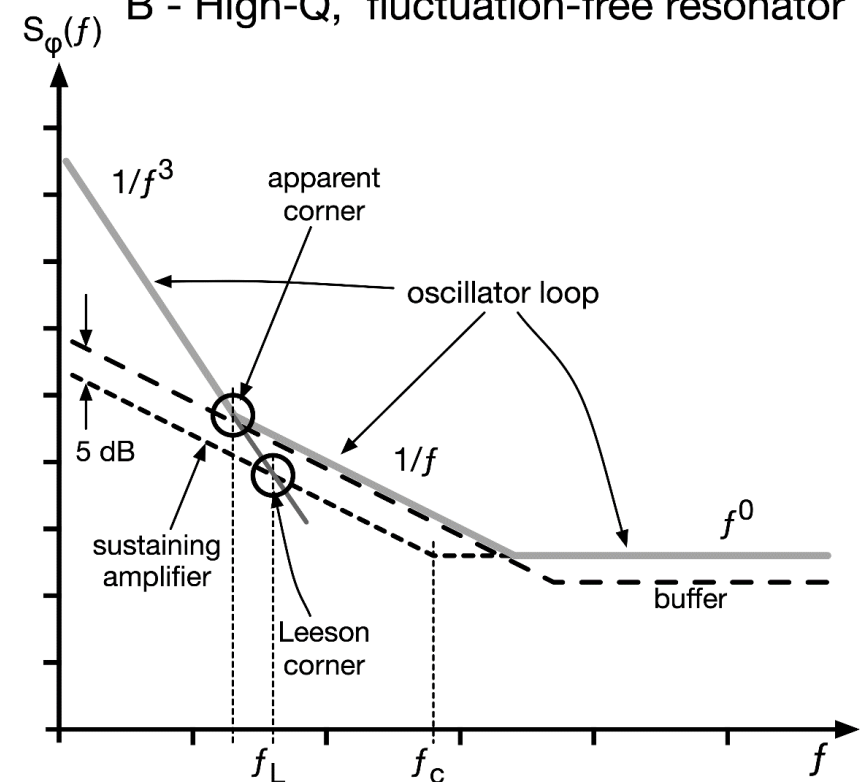
Cascading two amplifiers,
flicker noise adds as

$$S_{\varphi}(f) = [S_{\varphi}(f)]_1 + [S_{\varphi}(f)]_2$$

A - Low-Q, fluctuation-free resonator

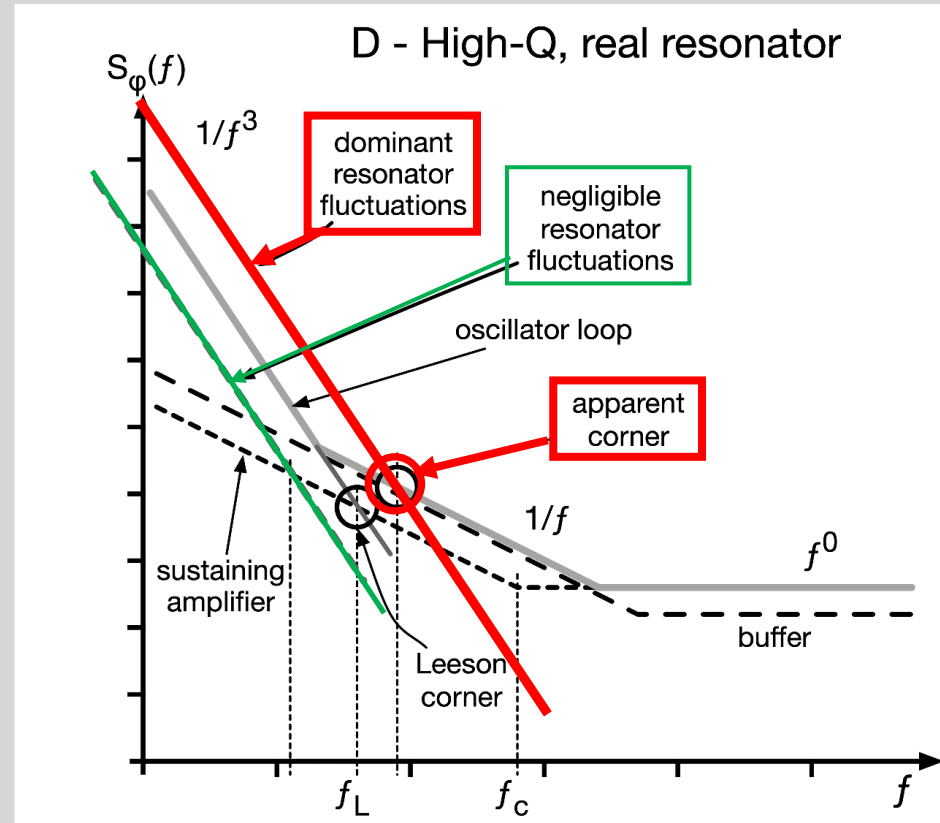
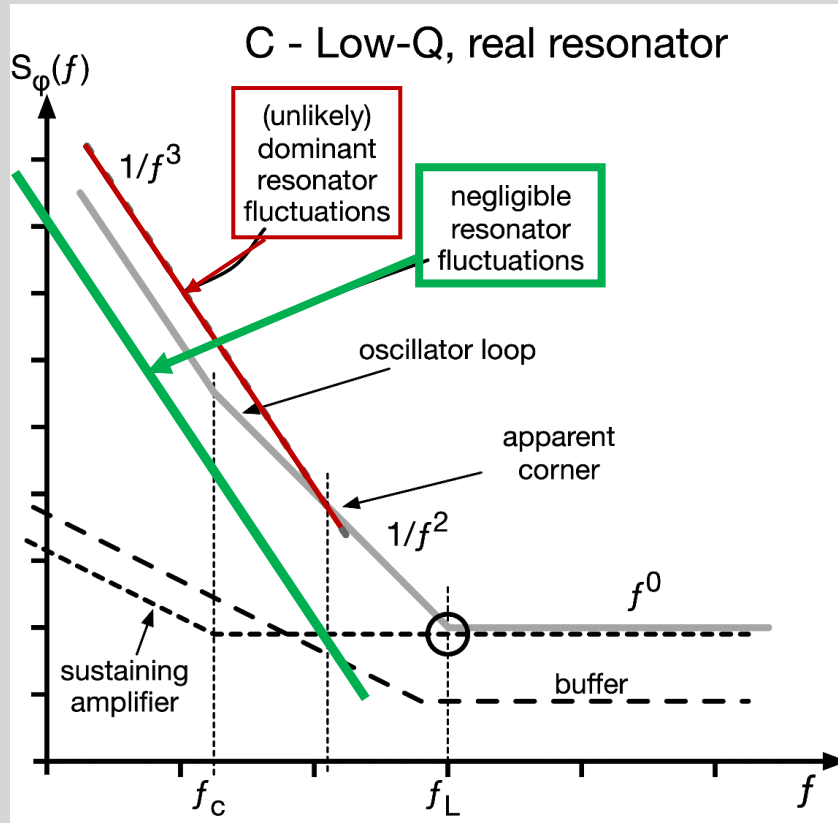


B - High-Q, fluctuation-free resonator



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 $\gg f_L$)

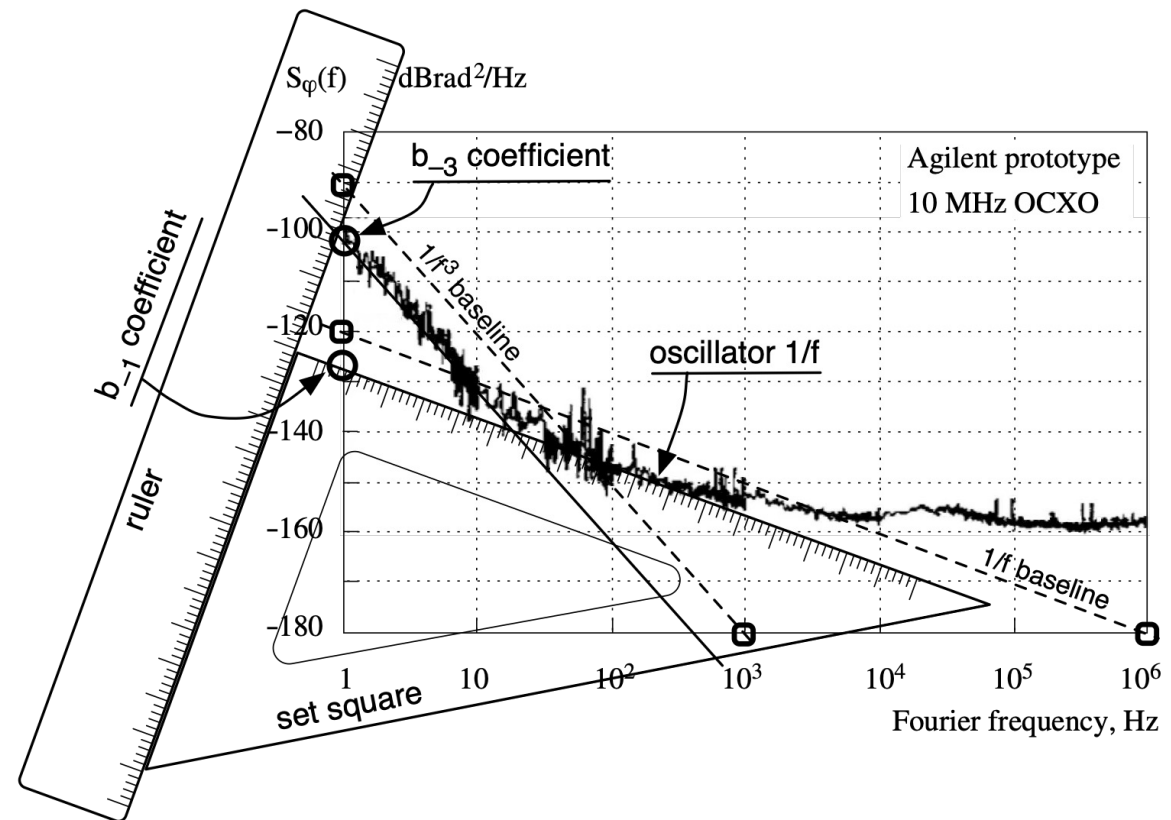


Analysis of Commercial Oscillators

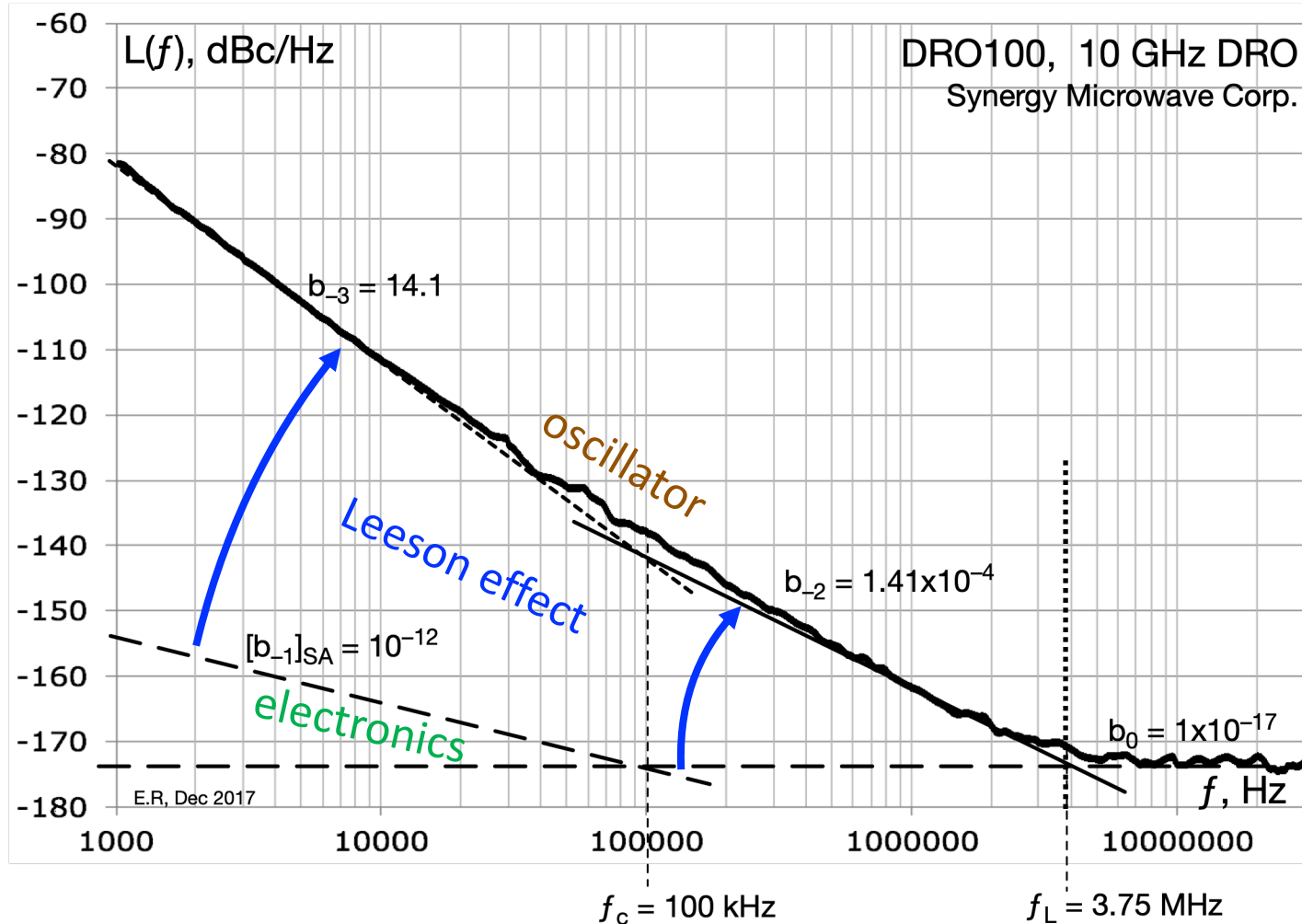
The purpose of this section is to help to understand the oscillator inside from the phase noise spectra, plus some technical information. I have chosen some commercial oscillators as an example.

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 $P_0 = 520 \mu\text{W}$

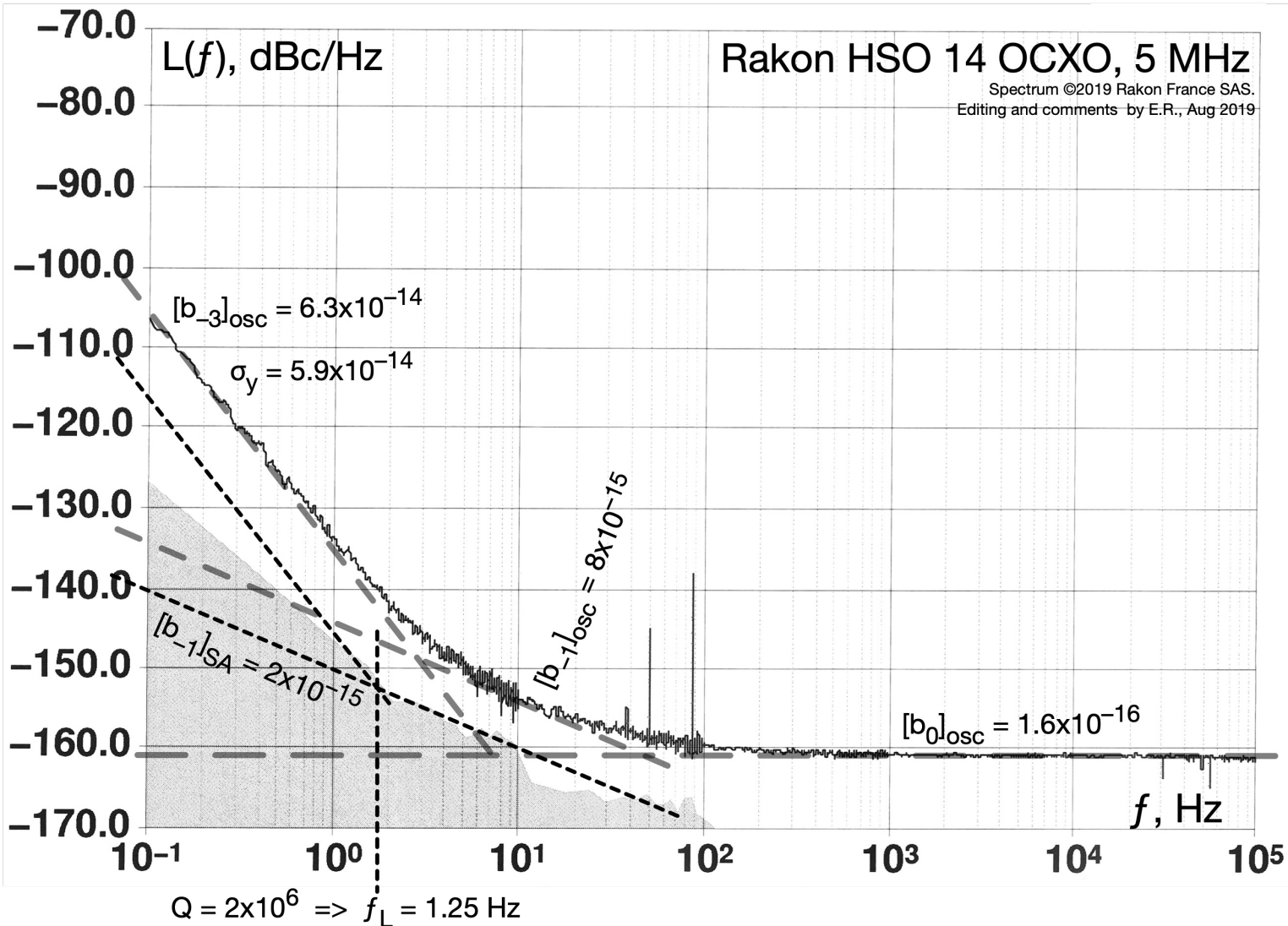
2. White FM: $b_{-2} = 1.41 \times 10^{-4}$

- From $b_{-2}/f^2 = b_0$ find $f_L = 3.75$ MHz
- Use $f_L = \nu_0/2Q$
- Find $Q = 1330$

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

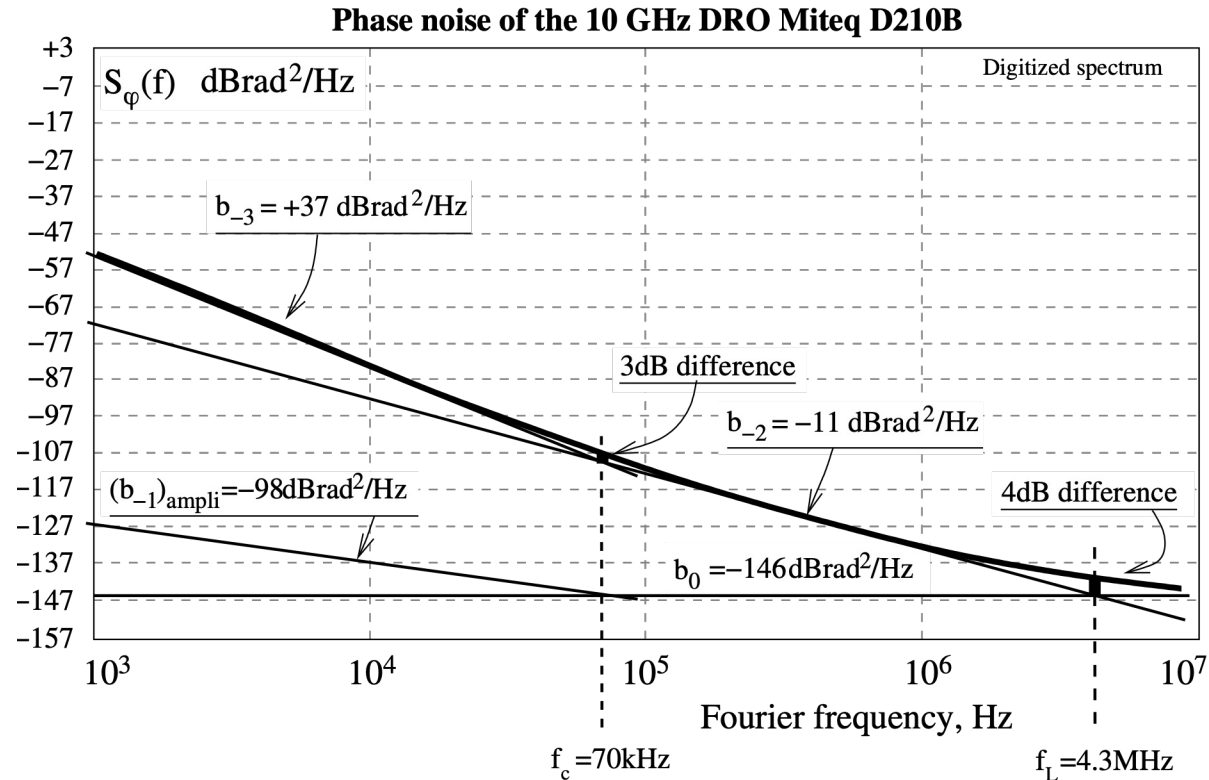
- From $b_{-3}/f^3 = b_{-2}/f^2$ find $f_c = 100$ kHz
- Use $S_\phi/S_\psi = (f_L/f)^2$ at $f \ll f_L$
- Find $b_{-1} = 10^{-12}$ sustaining amplifier $1/f$

Example – Rakon HSO 14, 5 MHz OCXO



- White PM: $b_0 = 1.6 \times 10^{-16}$
 - Use $b_0 = FkT/P_0$
 - Guess $F = 1.25$ (1 dB)
 - Find $P_0 = 33 \mu\text{W}$
- 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
- Flicker FM: $b_{-3} = 6.3 \times 10^{-14}$
 - Guess $Q = 2 \times 10^6$, premium 5 MHz xtal
 - Use $S_\phi/S_\psi = (f_L/f)^2$ at $f \ll f_L$
 - The expected Leeson effect is $[b_{-3}]_{LE} = 2.5 \times 10^{-15} \ll [b_{-3}]_{osc}$
 - Use $S_y(f) = (f^2/v_0^2)S_\phi(f)$
 - 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



- $kT_0 = 4 \times 10^{-21}$ W/Hz (-174 dBm/Hz)
- floor -146 dBrad²/Hz,
guess $F = 1.25$ (1 dB)
 $\Rightarrow P_0 = 2 \mu\text{W}$ (-27 dBm)
- $f_L = 4.3$ MHz,
 $f_L = \nu_0/2Q \Rightarrow Q = 1160$
- $f_c = 70$ kHz, $b_{-1}/f = b_0$
 $\Rightarrow b_{-1} = 1.8 \times 10^{-10}$ (-98 dBrad²/Hz)
[sust.ampli]
- $h_0 = 7.9 \times 10^{-22}$ and
 $h_{-1} = 5 \times 10^{-17}$
 $\Rightarrow \sigma_y = 2 \times 10^{-11} / \sqrt{\tau} + 8.3 \times 10^{-9}$

Reminder: from the table

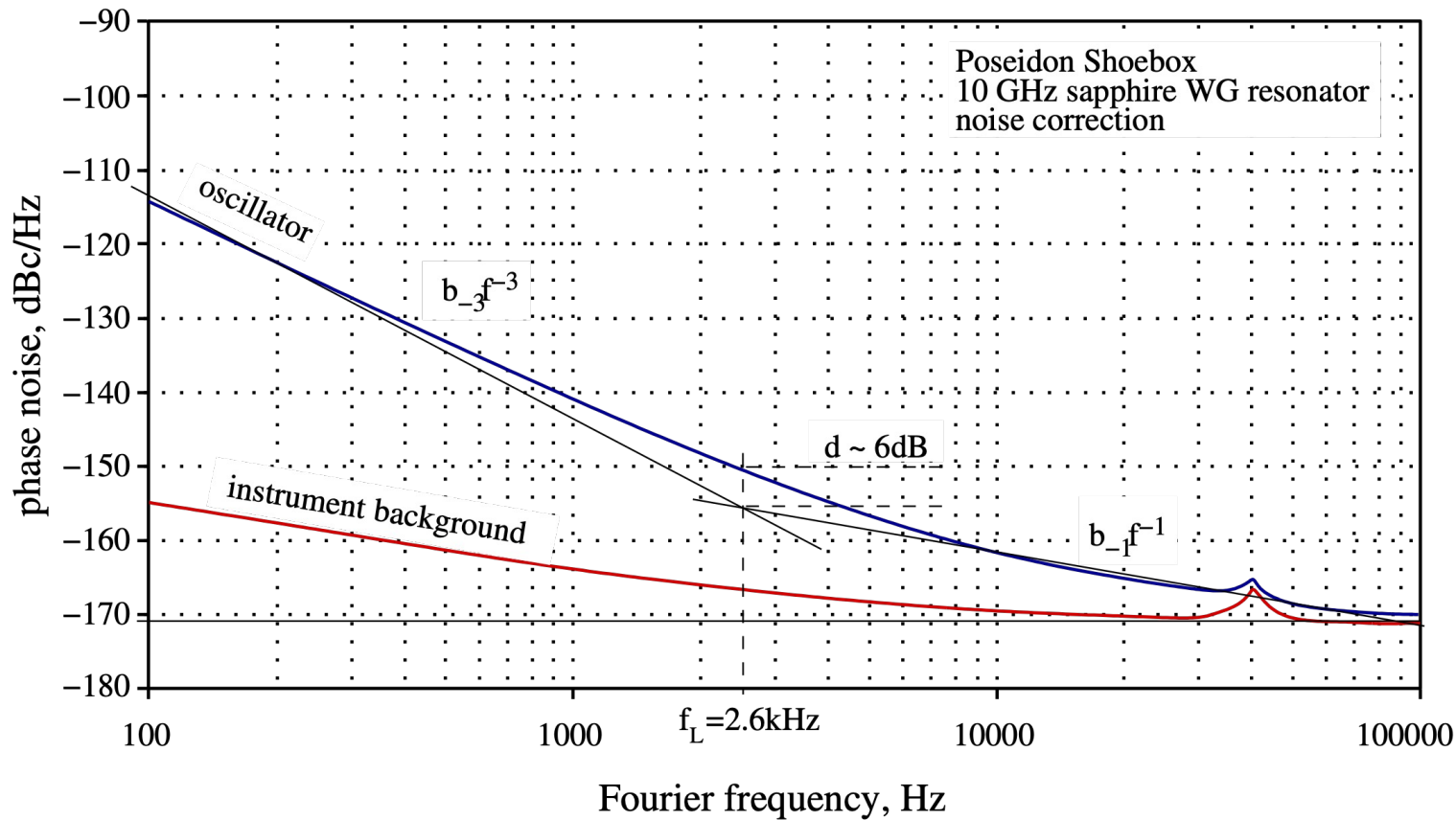
$$\sigma_y^2(\tau) = h_0/2\tau + 2 \ln(2) h_{-1}$$

$$h_0 = b_{-2}/\nu_0^2$$

$$h_{-1} = b_{-3}/\nu_0^2$$

$$b_0 = \frac{FkT_0}{P_0}$$

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



$$f_L = \nu_0 / 2Q = 2.6 \text{ kHz}$$

$$\Rightarrow Q = 1.8 \times 10^6$$

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

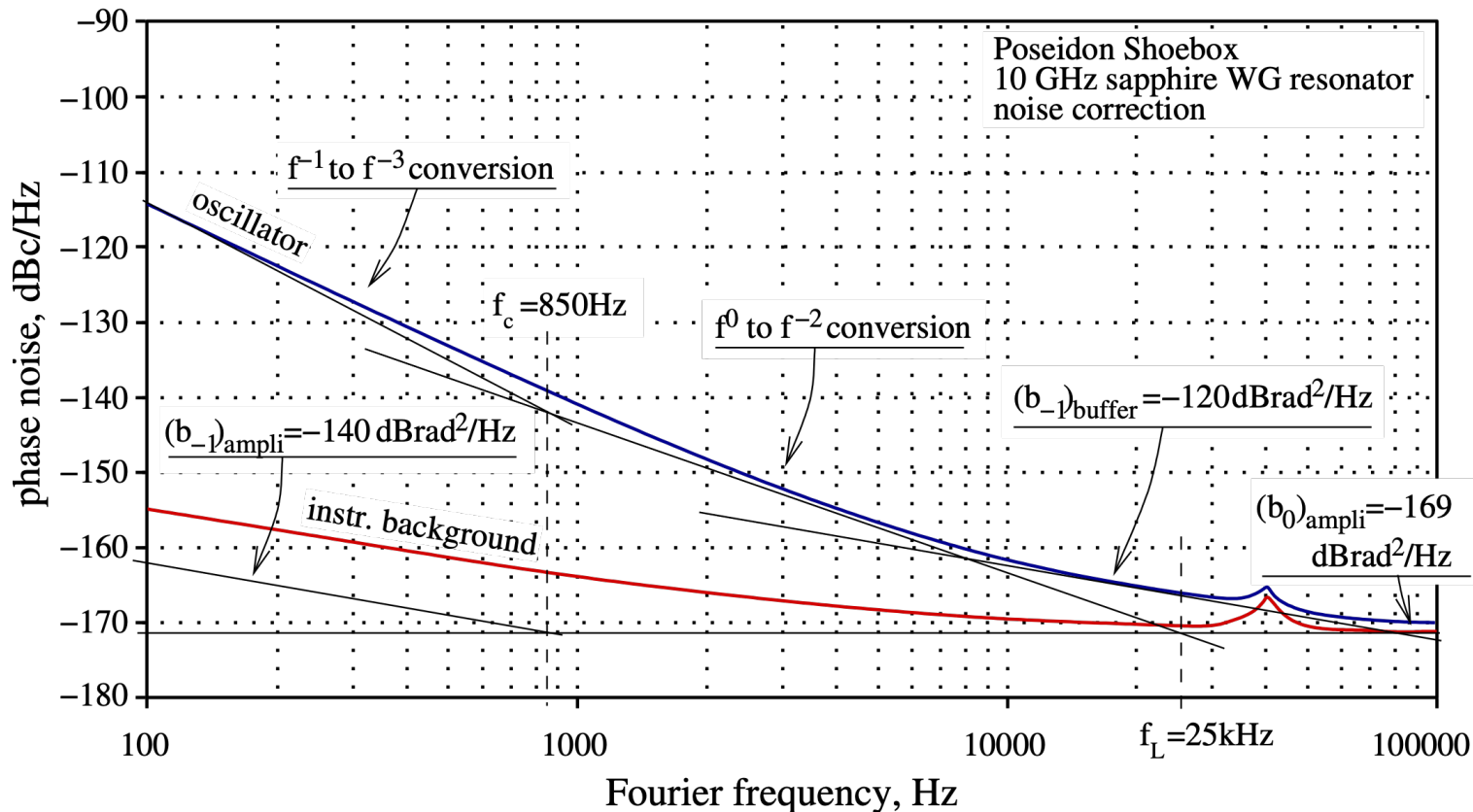
2×10^5 @ 295K (room temp), 3×10^7 @ 77K (liquid N), 4×10^9 @ 4K (liquid He).

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

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

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

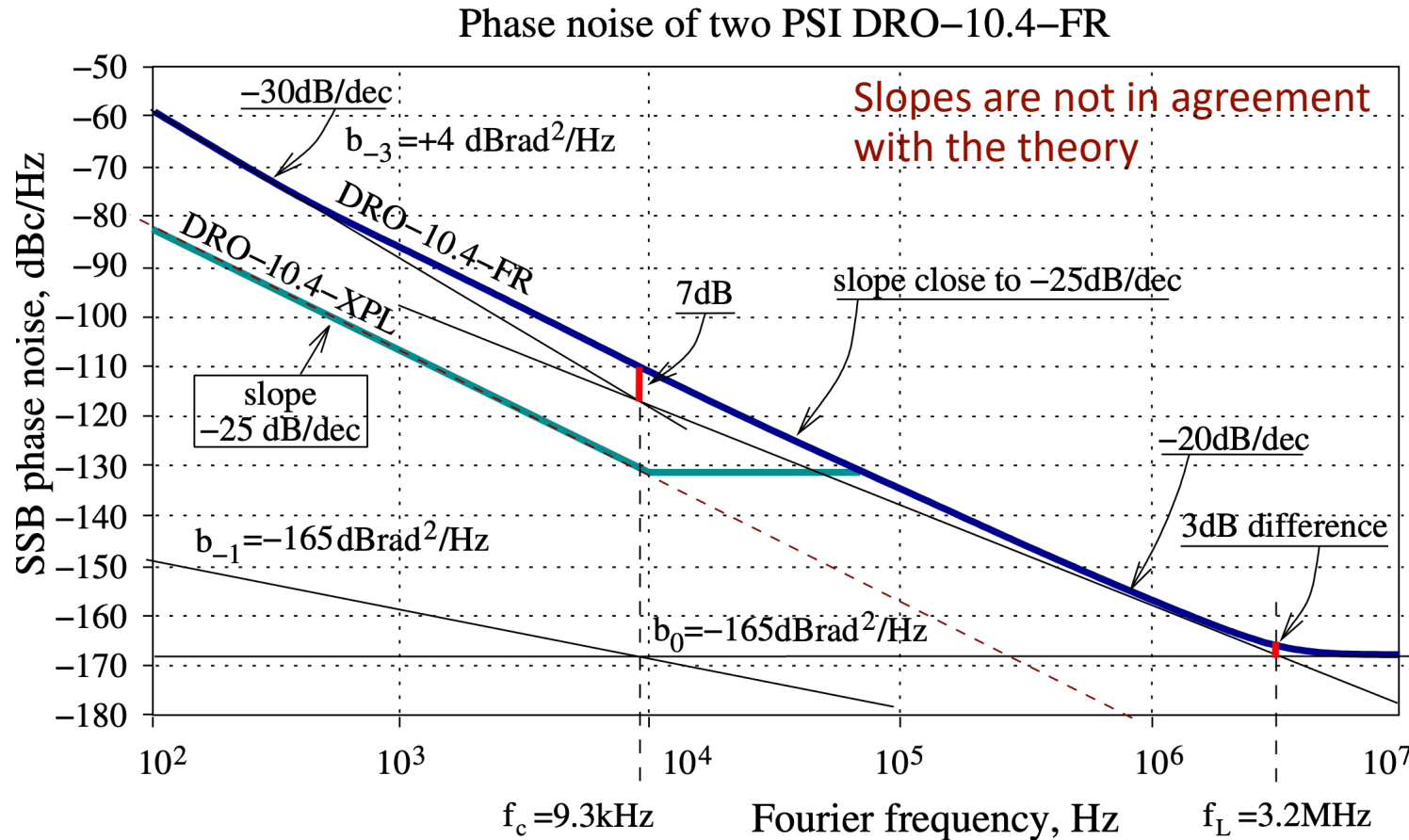
$f_L = v_0/2Q = 25 \text{ kHz} \Rightarrow Q = 2 \times 10^5$
(quite reasonable)

$f_c = 850 \text{ Hz} \Rightarrow$ flicker of the interferometric amplifier
 $-139 \text{ dB rad}^2/\text{Hz}$ @ 1 Hz

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

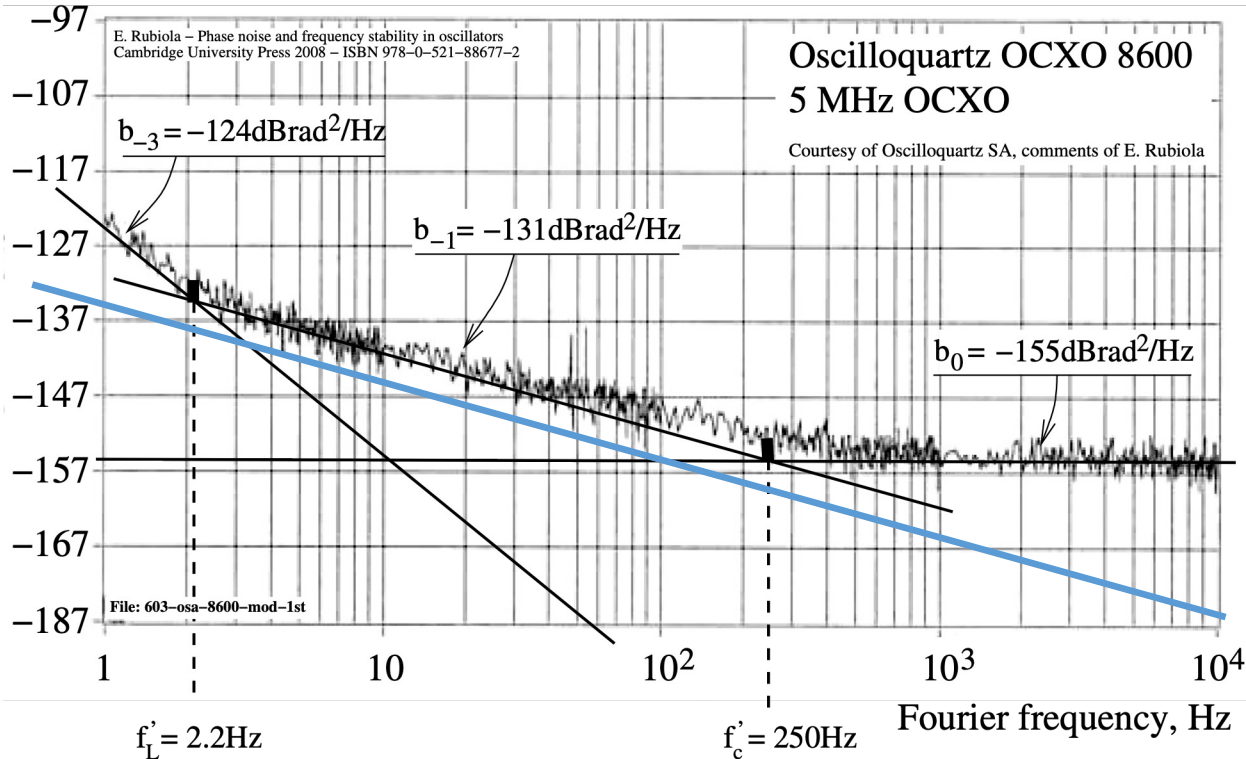
Poseidon* Scientific Instruments

10 GHz dielectric resonator oscillator (DRO)

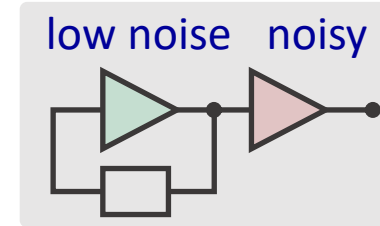


- floor $-165 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$, guess $F = 1.25$ (1 dB)
 $\Rightarrow P_0 = 160 \mu\text{W}$ (-8 dBm)
- $f_L = 3.2 \text{ MHz}$,
 $f_L = \nu_0/2Q \Rightarrow Q = 625$
- $f_c = 9.3 \text{ kHz}$,
 $b_{-1}/f = b_0$
 \Rightarrow sustaining amplifier
 $b_{-1} = 2.9 \times 10^{-13}$ ($-125 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$)
 (too low value)

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

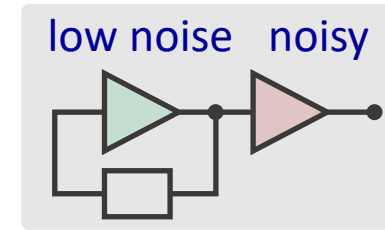
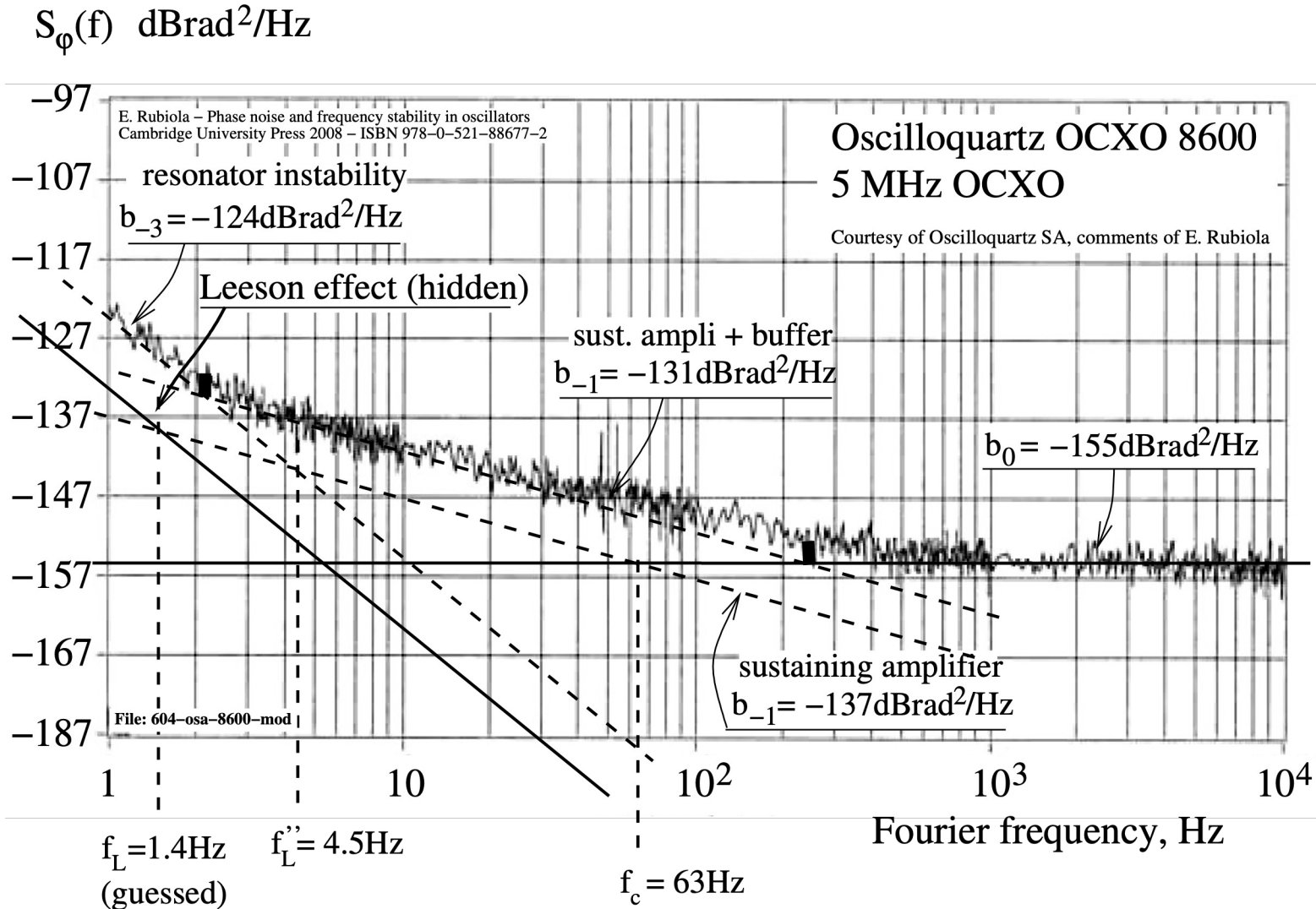
- 1 – floor $S_{\phi 0} = -155 \text{ dBc}/\text{Hz}$, guess $F = 1 \text{ dB}$ → $P_0 = -18 \text{ dBm}$
- 2 – ampli flicker $S_{\phi} = -132 \text{ dBc}/\text{Hz} @ 1 \text{ Hz}$ → good RF amplifier
- 3 – merit factor $Q = \nu_0/2f_L = 5 \cdot 10^6/5 = 10^6$ (seems too low)
- 4 – take away some flicker for the output buffer:
 - * flicker in the oscillator core is lower than $-132 \text{ dBc}/\text{Hz} @ 1 \text{ Hz}$
 - * f_L is higher than 2.5 Hz
 - * the resonator Q is lower than 10^6

This is inconsistent with the resonator technology (expect $Q > 10^6$).

The true Leeson frequency is lower than the frequency labeled as f_L

The $1/f^3$ noise is attributed to the fluctuation of the quartz resonant frequency

Example – Oscilloquartz 8600 (trusted)



$$F = 1 \text{ dB} \ \& \ b_0 \Rightarrow P_0 = -18 \text{ dBm}$$

$$(b_{-3})_{\text{osc}} \Rightarrow \sigma_y = 1.5 \times 10^{-13}, Q = 5.6 \times 10^5 \text{ (too low)}$$

Guess

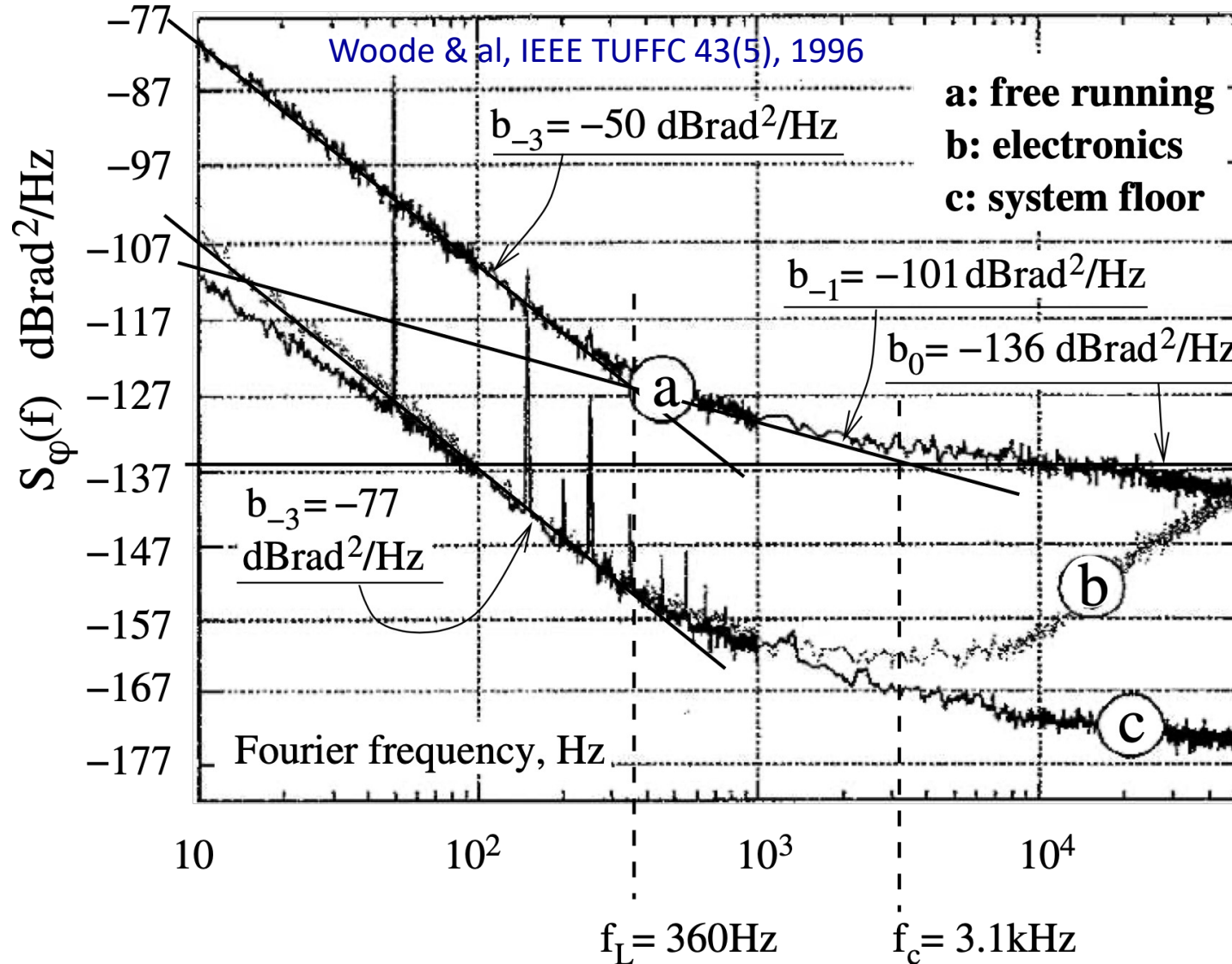
$$Q \stackrel{?}{=} 1.8 \times 10^6$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_y = 4.6 \times 10^{-14} \text{ Leeson}$$

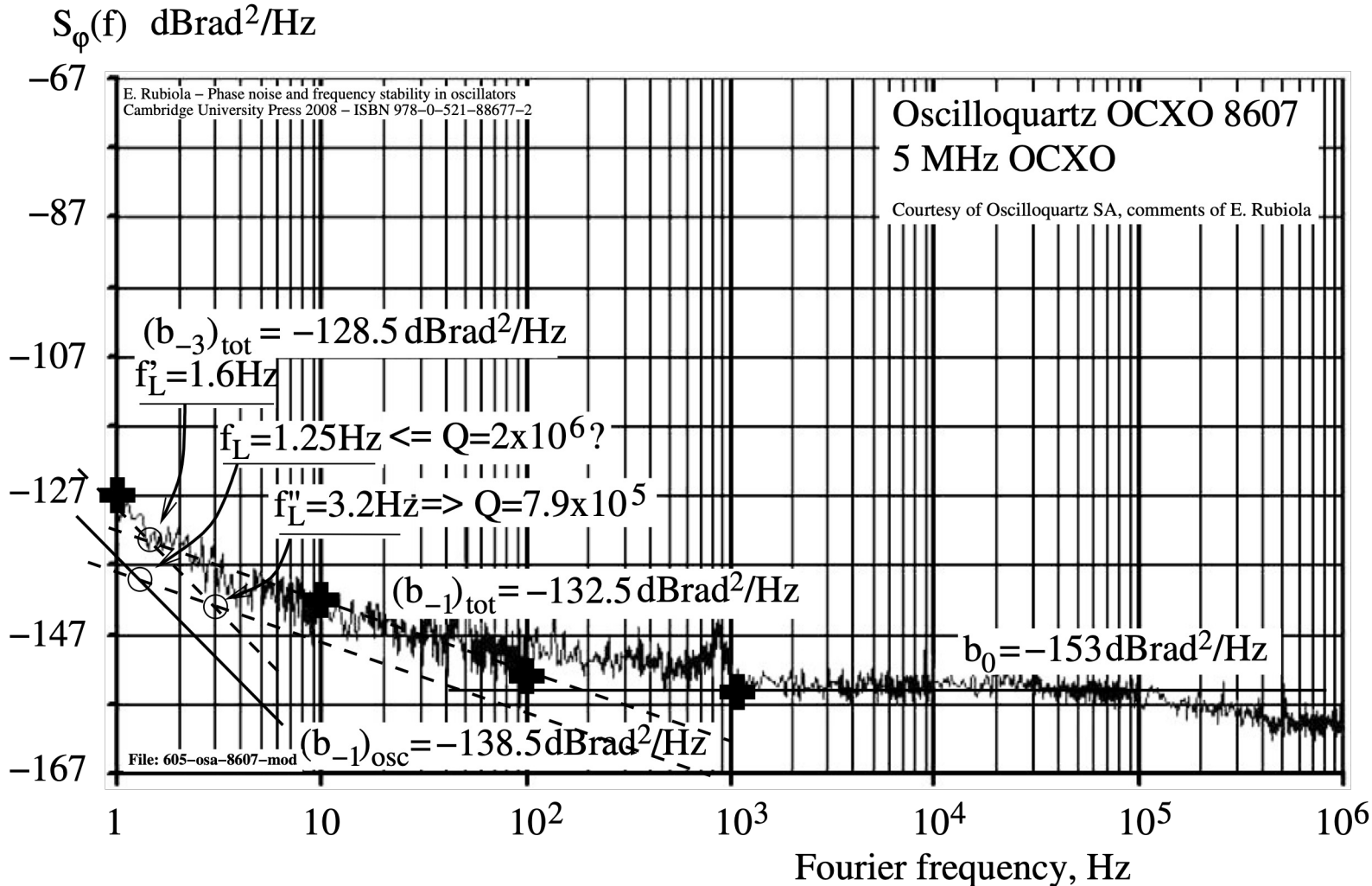
(too low value!)

Whispering gallery oscillator, liquid-N₂ temperature 352

Prototype of 9 GHz whispering gallery oscillator (liquid-N, 77 K)



Example – Oscilloquartz 8607



$$F = 1 \text{ dB}$$

$$b_0 \Rightarrow P_0 = -20 \text{ dBm}$$

$$(b_{-3})_{\text{osc}} \Rightarrow \sigma_y = 8.8 \times 10^{-14}$$

$$Q = 7.8 \times 10^5 \quad (\text{too low})$$

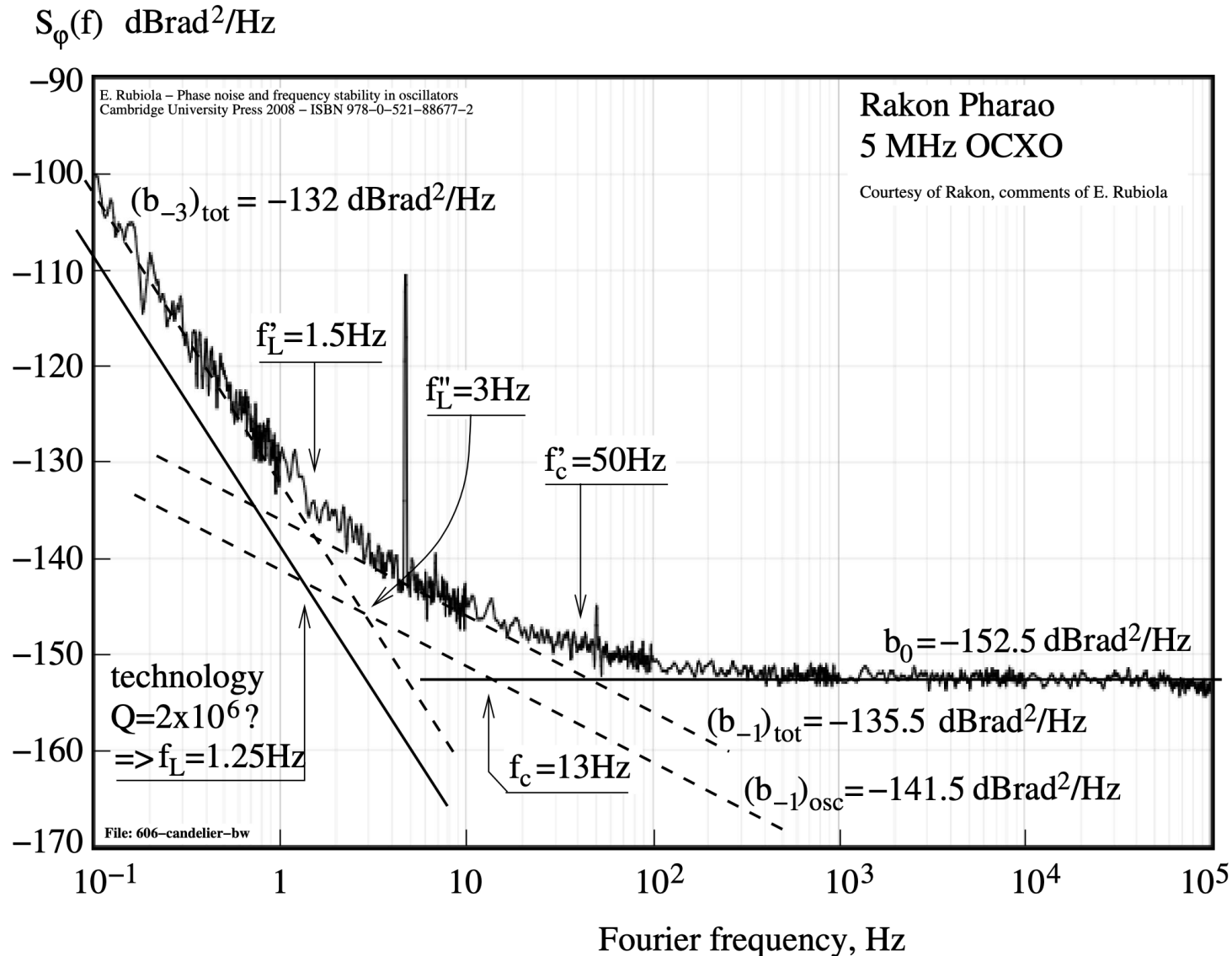
Guess

$$Q \stackrel{?}{=} 2 \times 10^6$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_y = 3.5 \times 10^{-14} \quad \text{Leeson}$$

(too low value!)

Example – CMAc Pharao



$$F = 1 \text{ dB}$$

$$b_0 \Rightarrow P_0 = -20.5 \text{ dBm}$$

$$(b_{-3})_{\text{osc}} \Rightarrow \sigma_y = 5.9 \times 10^{-14}$$

$$Q = 8.4 \times 10^5 \text{ (too low)}$$

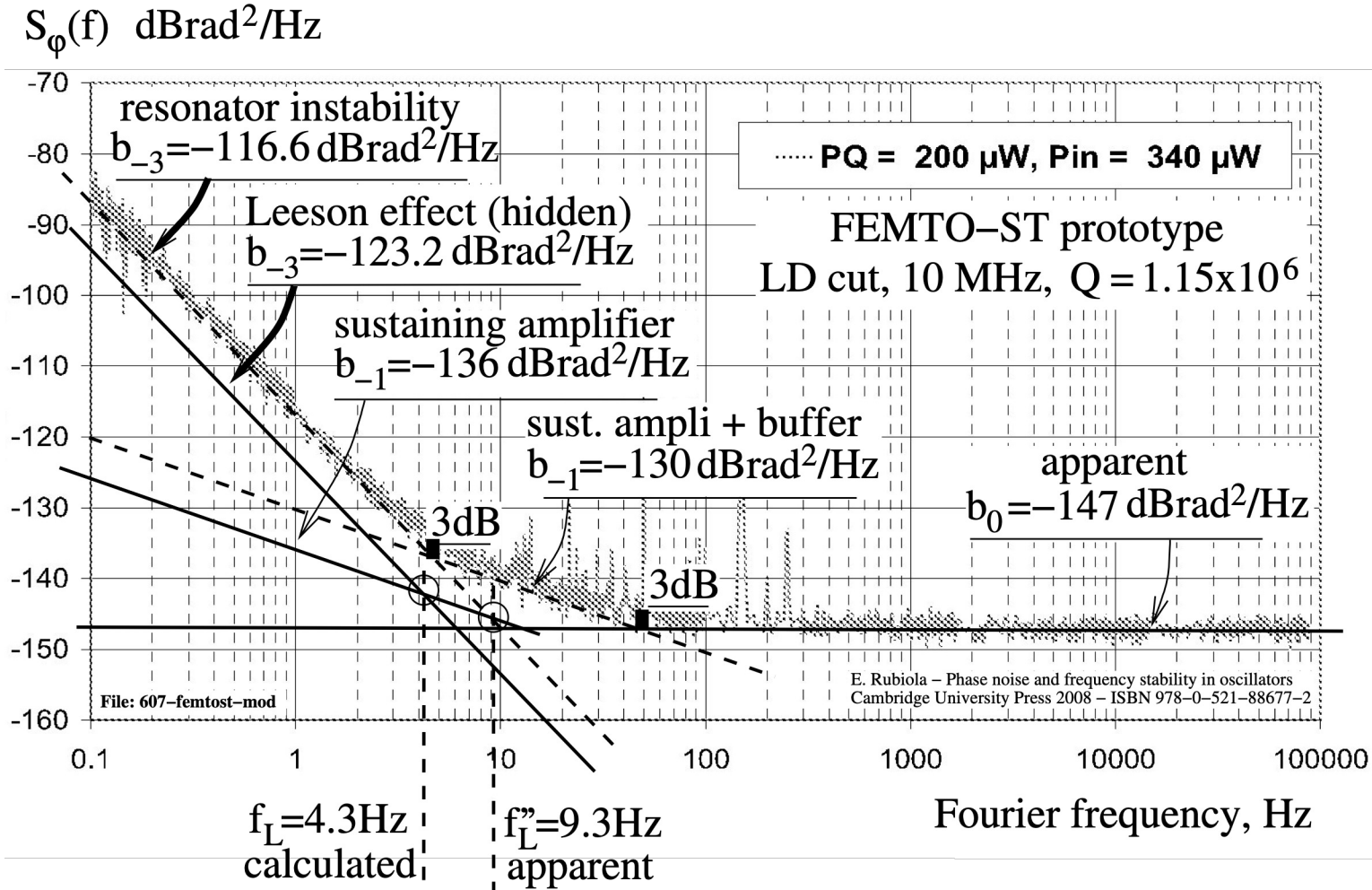
Guess

$$Q \stackrel{?}{=} 2 \times 10^6$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_y = 2.5 \times 10^{-14} \text{ Leeson}$$

(too low value!)

Example – FEMTO-ST prototype



$$F = 1 \text{ dB}$$

$$b_0 \Rightarrow P_0 = -26 \text{ dBm}$$

$$(b_{-3})_{\text{osc}} \Rightarrow \sigma_y = 1.7 \times 10^{-13}$$

$$Q = 5.4 \times 10^5 \quad (\text{too low})$$

Guess

$$Q \stackrel{?}{=} 1.15 \times 10^6$$

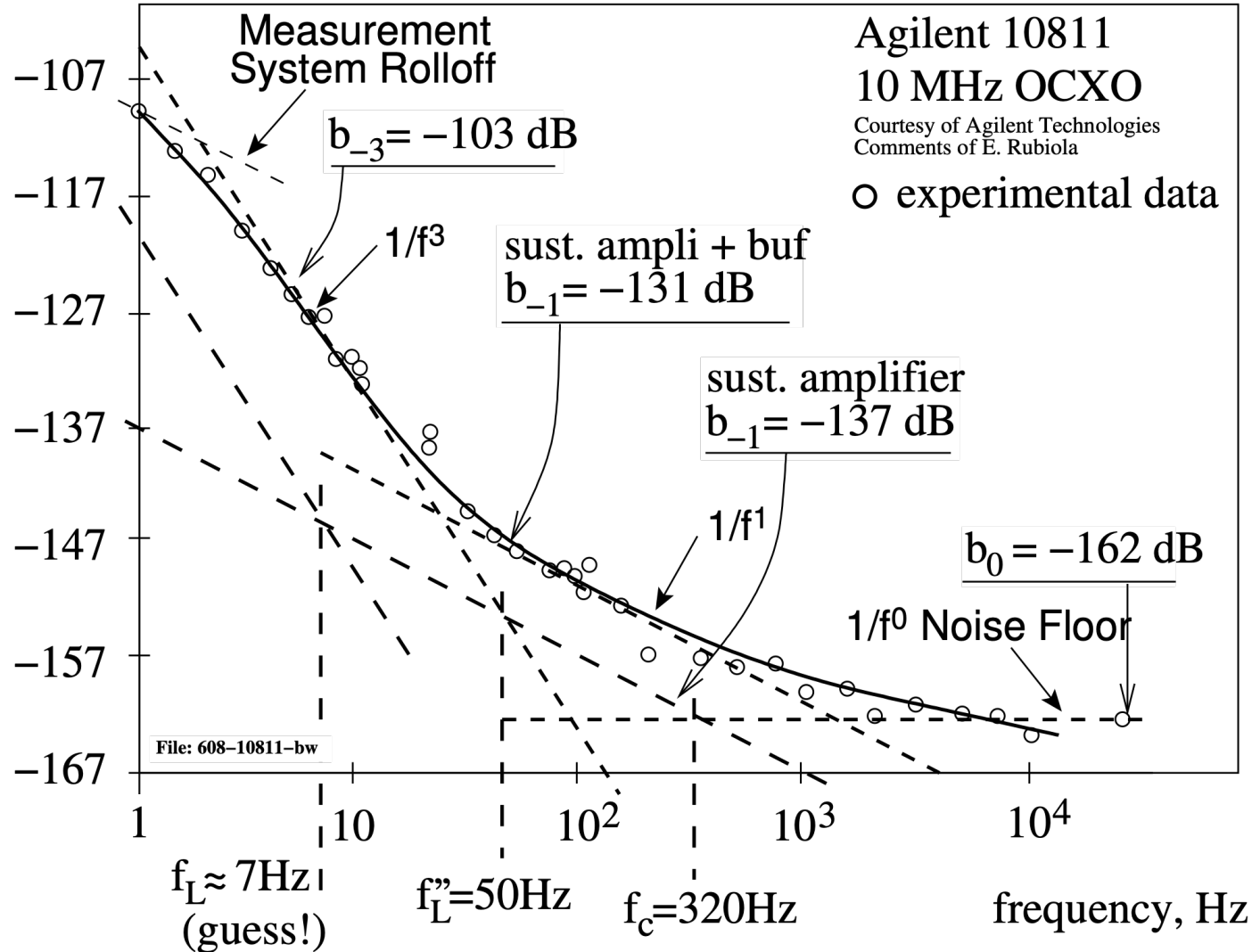
$$\Rightarrow \sigma_y = 8.1 \times 10^{-14} \quad \text{Leeson}$$

(too low value!)

Example – Agilent/Keysight 10811

$S_{\phi}(f)$ dBrad²/Hz

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



$$F = 1 \text{ dB}$$

$$b_0 \Rightarrow P_0 = -11 \text{ dBm}$$

$$(b_{-3})_{\text{osc}} \Rightarrow \sigma_y = 8.3 \times 10^{-13}$$

$$Q = 7 \times 10^5 \text{ (too low)}$$

Guess

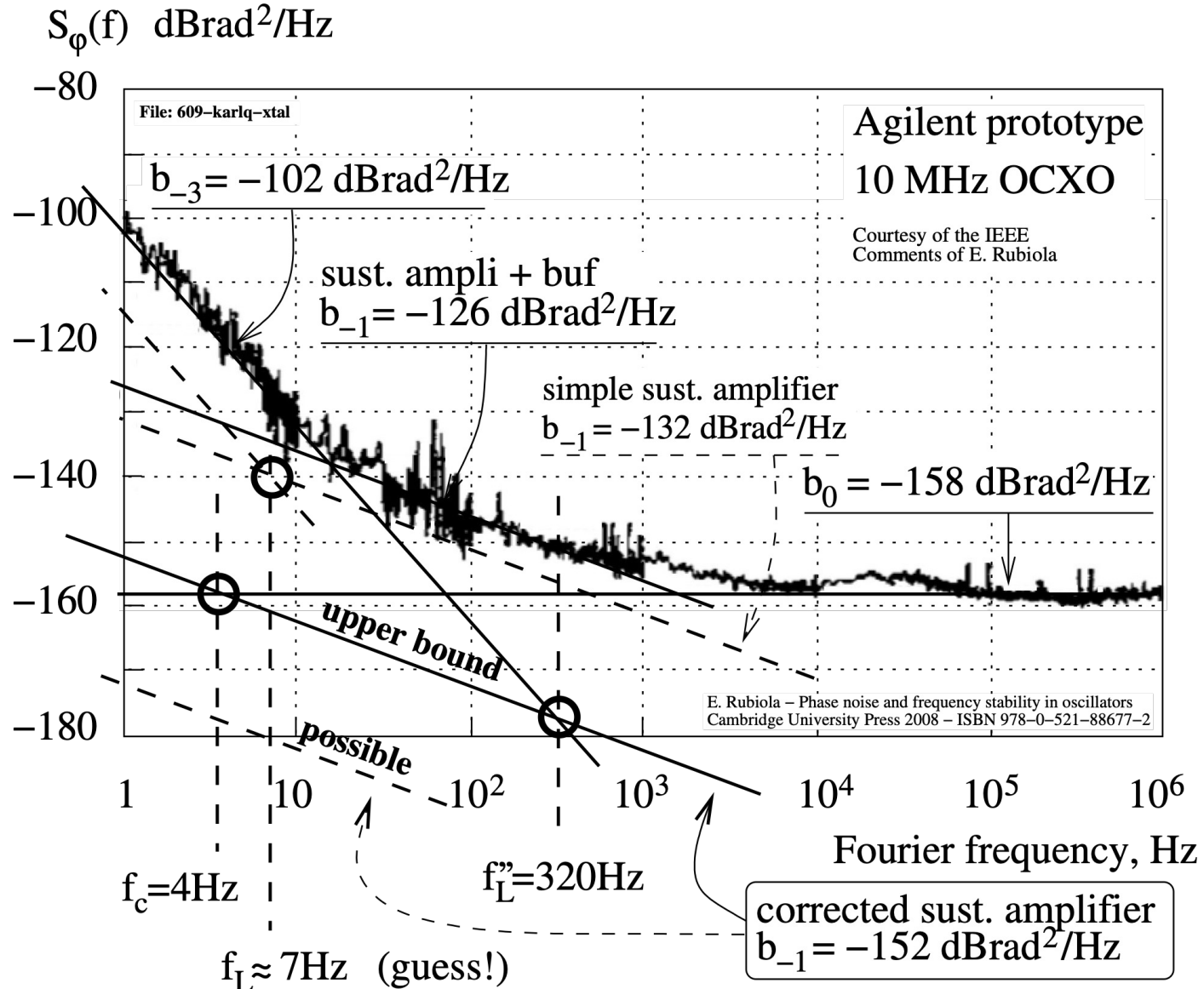
$$Q \stackrel{?}{=} 7 \times 10^5$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_y = 1.2 \times 10^{-13} \text{ Leeson}$$

(too low value!)

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

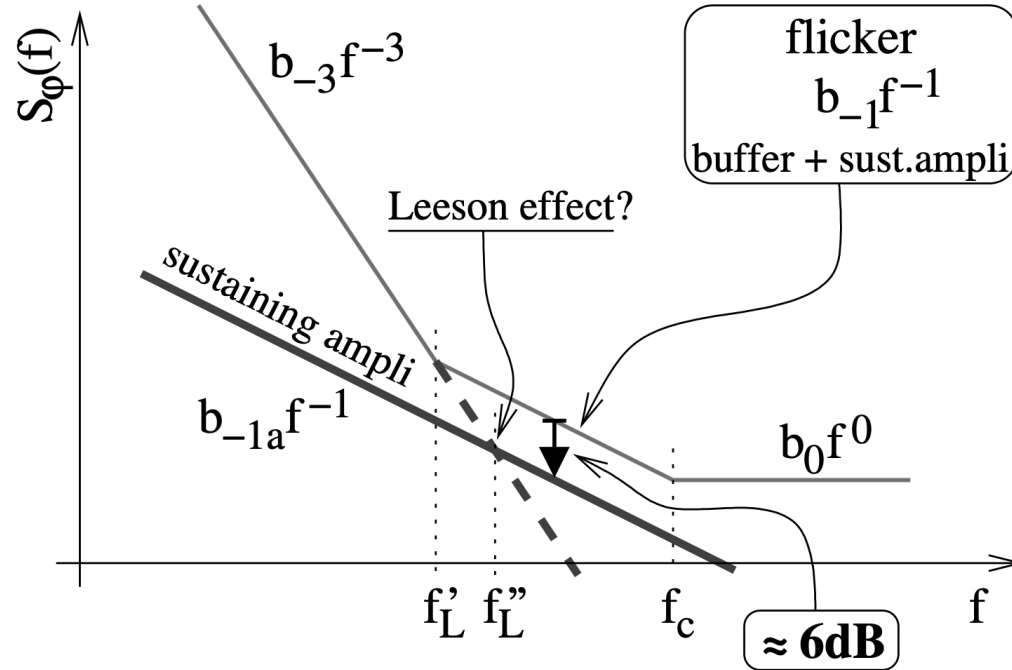
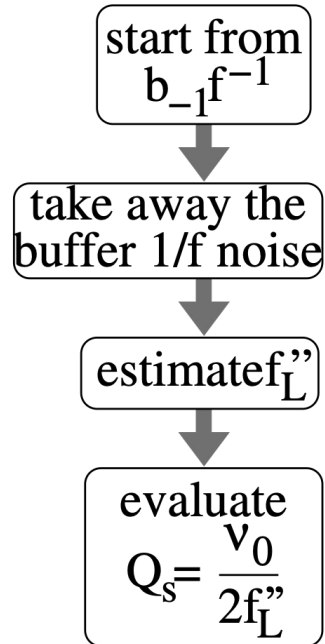
Example – Agilent (Keysight) prototype



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

Only quartz-crystal oscillators

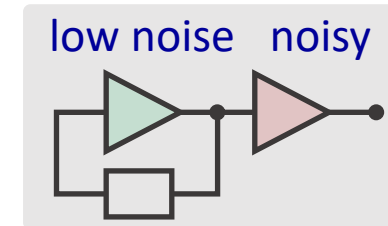
E. Rubiola – Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators
Cambridge University Press 2008 – ISBN 978-0-521-88677-2



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 $\lesssim 25\%$ of the total 1/f noise



Sanity check:

- power P_0 at amplifier input
- Allan deviation σ_y (floor)

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

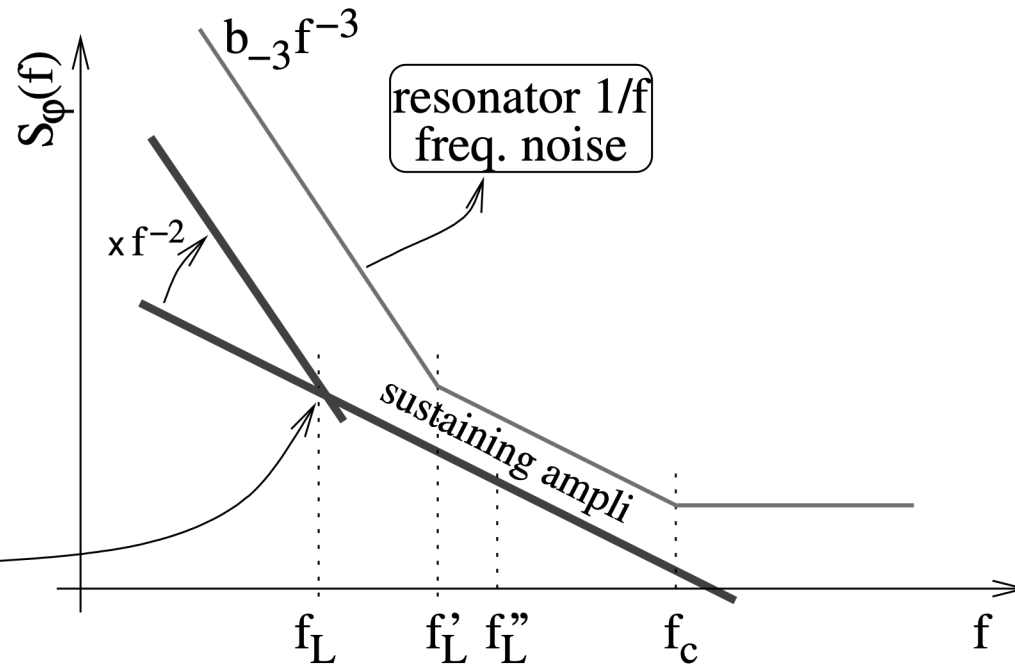
Only quartz-crystal oscillators

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

technology $\Rightarrow Q_t$

$$f_L = \frac{v_0}{2Q_t}$$

the Leeson effect
is hidden



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

Quartz-oscillator summary

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

Oscillator	ν_0	$(b_{-3})_{\text{tot}}$	$(b_{-1})_{\text{tot}}$	$(b_{-1})_{\text{amp}}$	f'_L	f''_L	Q_s	Q_t	f_L	$(b_{-3})_L$	R	Note
Oscilloquartz 8600	5	-124.0	-131.0	-137.0	2.24	4.5	5.6×10^5	1.8×10^6	1.4	-134.1	10.1	(1)
Oscilloquartz 8607	5	-128.5	-132.5	-138.5	1.6	3.2	7.9×10^5	2×10^6	1.25	-136.5	8.1	(1)
Rakon Pharao	5	-132.0	-135.5	-141.1	1.5	3	8.4×10^5	2×10^6	1.25	-139.6	7.6	(2)
FEMTO-ST LD prot.	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	7×10^5	7.1	-119.9	16.9	(4)
Agilent prototype	10	-102.0	-126.0	-132.0	16	32	1.6×10^5	7×10^5	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.

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

The Rohde Oscillator

The Rohde-Colpitts oscillator

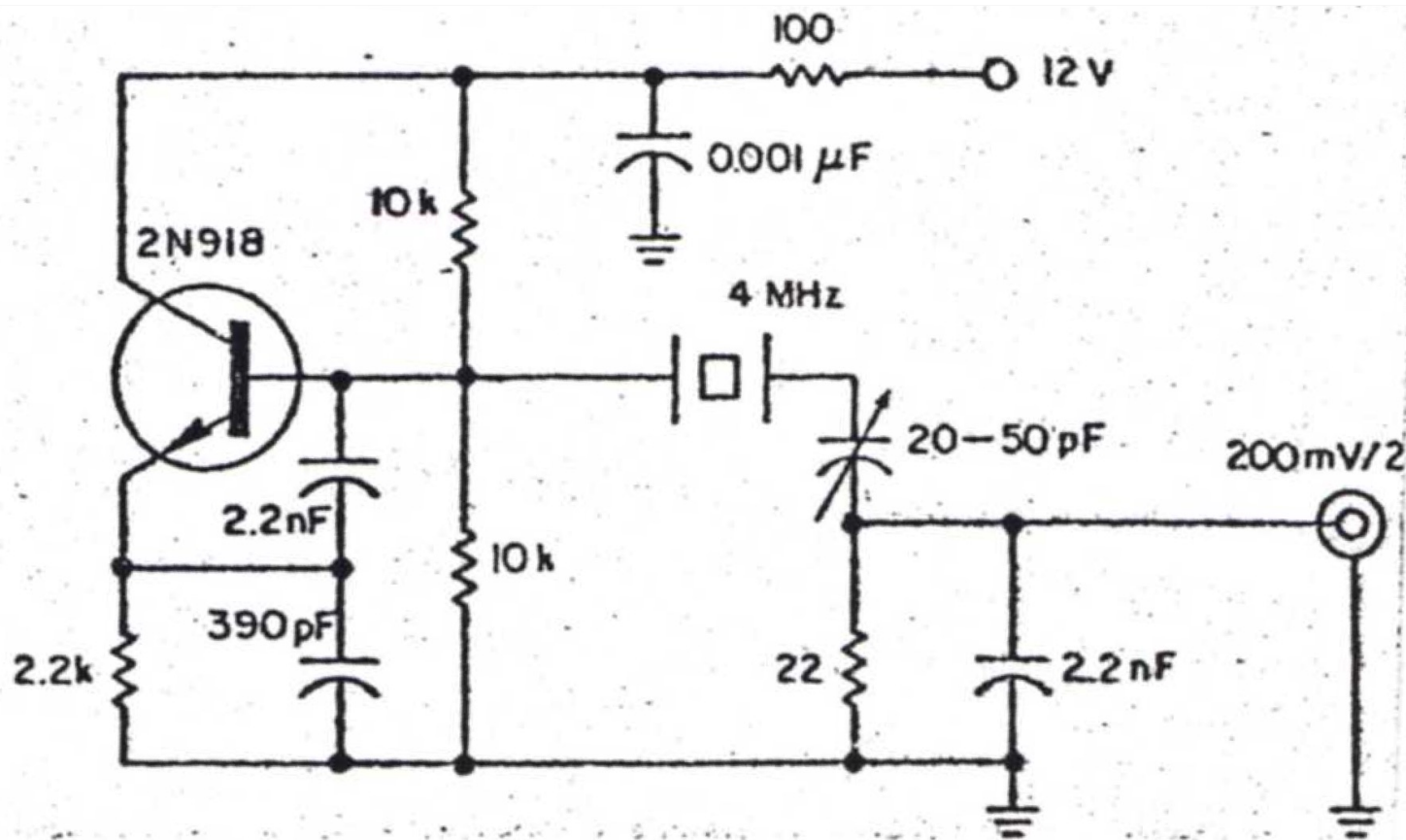
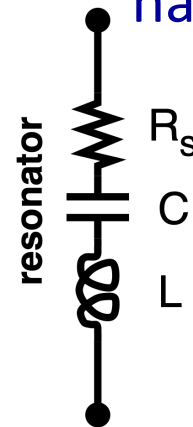


Fig. 1 from U. L. Rohde,
Crystal oscillator provides low noise,
Electronic Design Oct 11, 1975 p.11, 14

- Off resonance, either $X_L \gg R_S$ or $X_C \gg R_S$
- 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

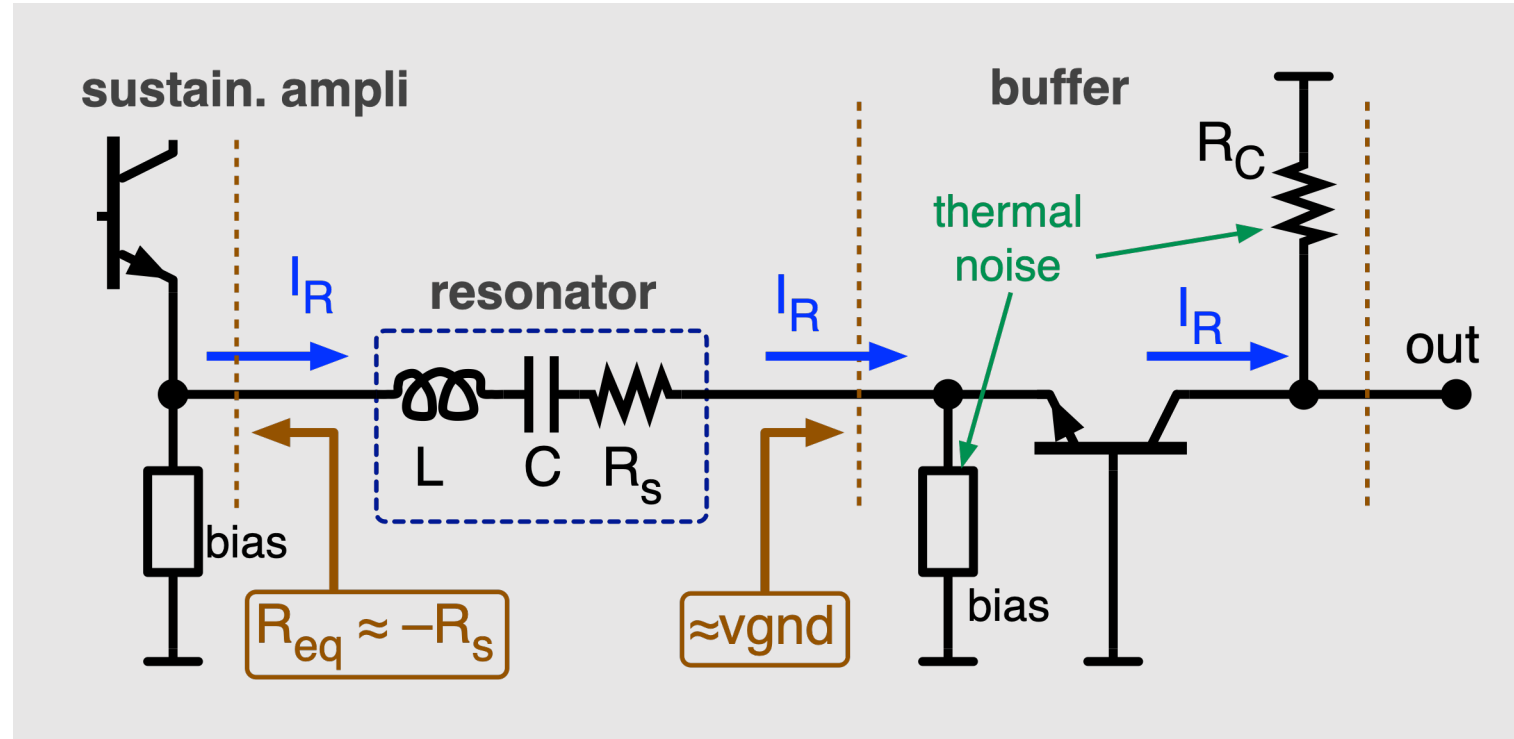


The Rohde oscillator

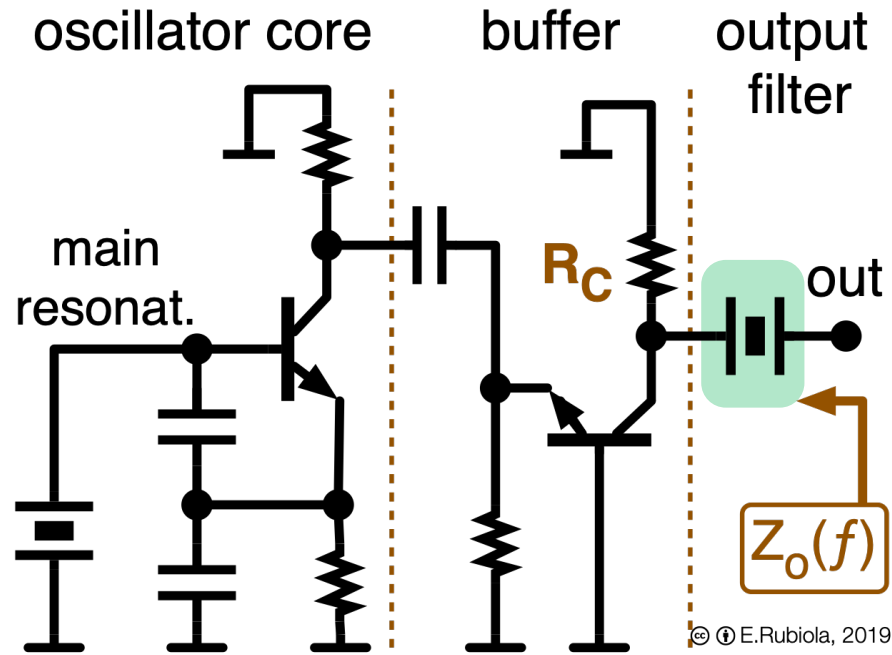
The weird 100 MHz OCXOs

- Neg-R oscillator, where the resonator also filters the out
- The AC current I_R is transferred from SA to OUT
- At $f > \nu_0/2Q$, 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

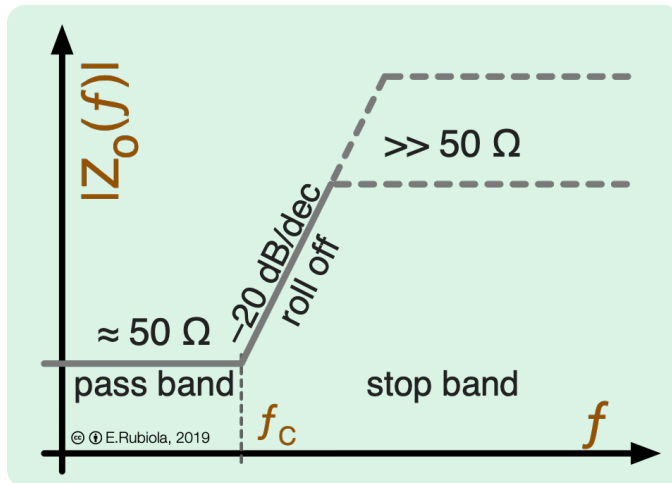
How to get low floor — and the troubles that go with



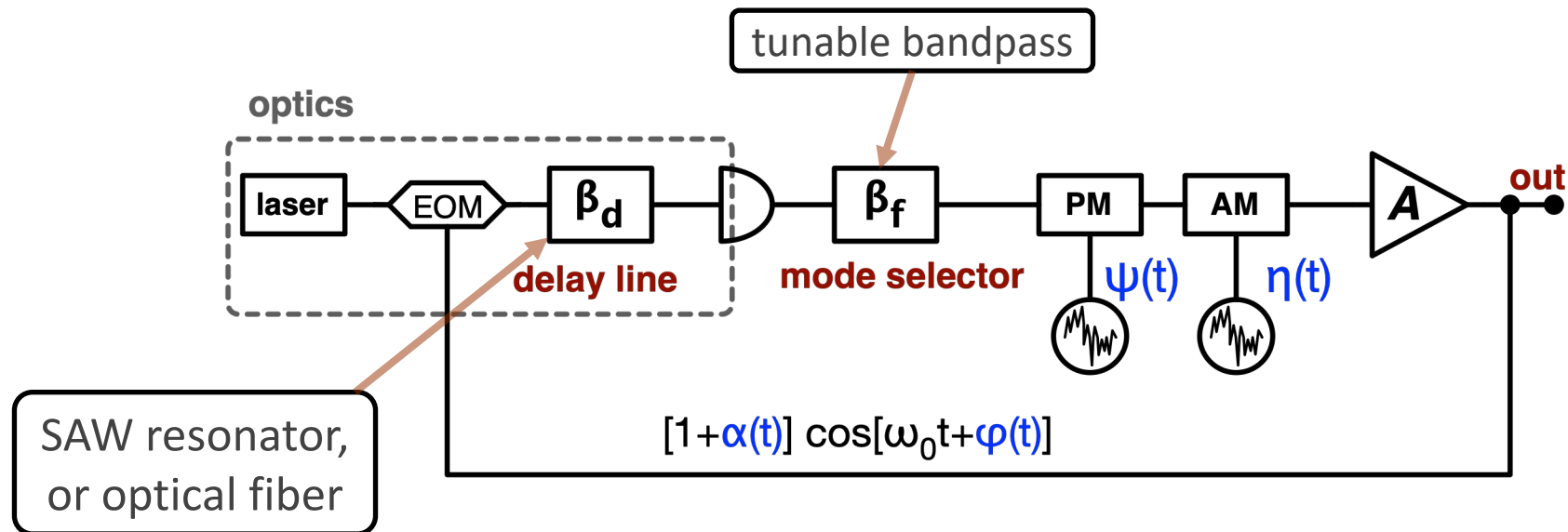
The sub-thermal oscillator



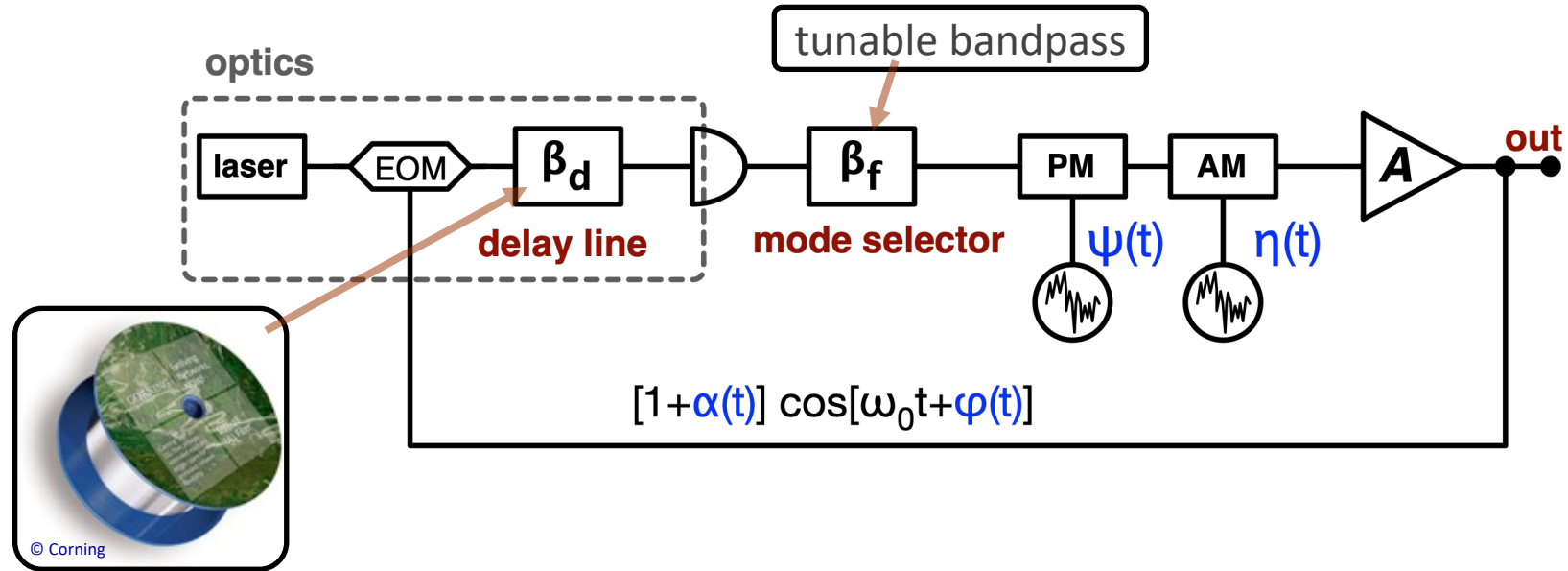
- Low white noise achieved with a quartz filter
- $f < f_c$: carrier (and red noise) coupled to out
- $f > f_c$: the filter is open circuit
 - buffer noise and thermal noise of the motional R are not coupled to output
 - Equivalent temperature $T_{eq} < T_{room}$
 - No violation of physics principles!
- 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



Leeson Effect in the Delay-Line Oscillator



Motivations

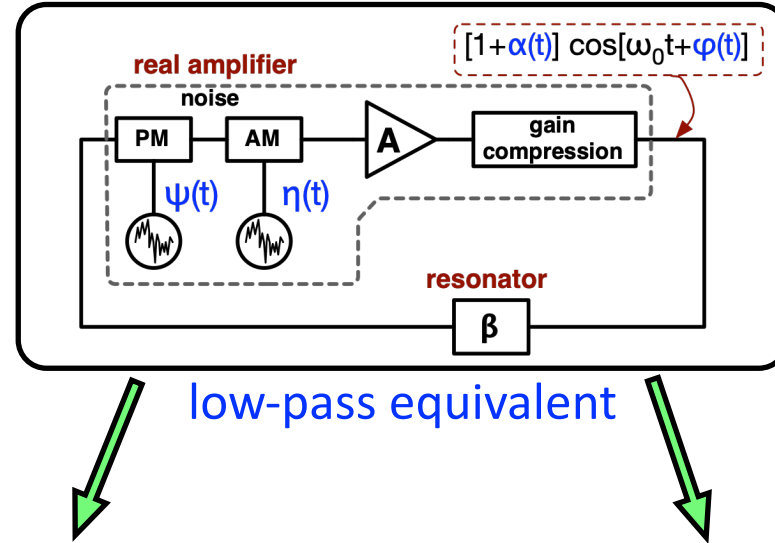


- Potential for very-low phase noise in the 100 Hz – 1 MHz range
- Invented at JPL, X. S. Yao & L. Maleki, JOSAB 13(8) 1725–1735, Aug 1996
- Early attempt of noise modeling, S. Römisch & al., IEEE T UFFC 47(5) 1159–1165, Sep 2000
- PM-noise analysis, E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, Cambridge 2008 [Chapter 5]
- Since, no 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, [arXiv:1004.5539v1](https://arxiv.org/abs/1004.5539v1), [physics.ins-det]



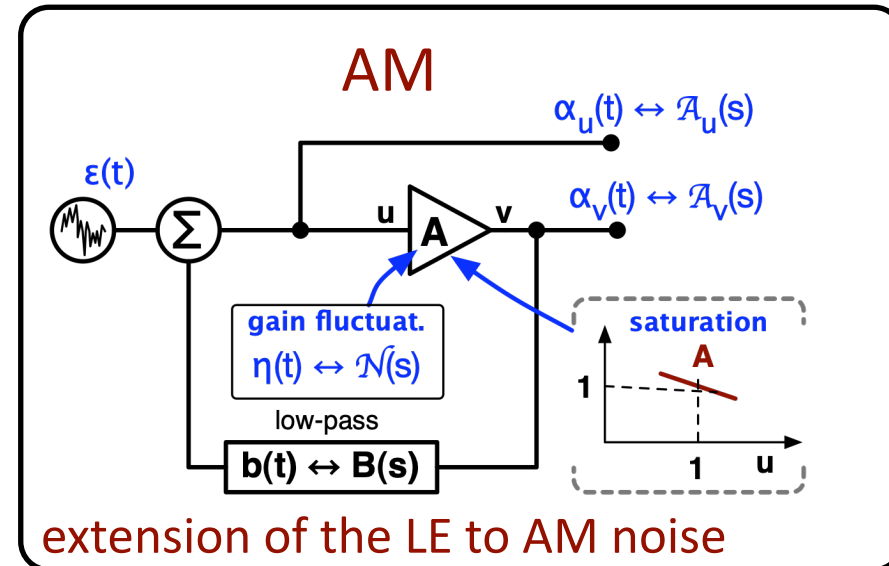
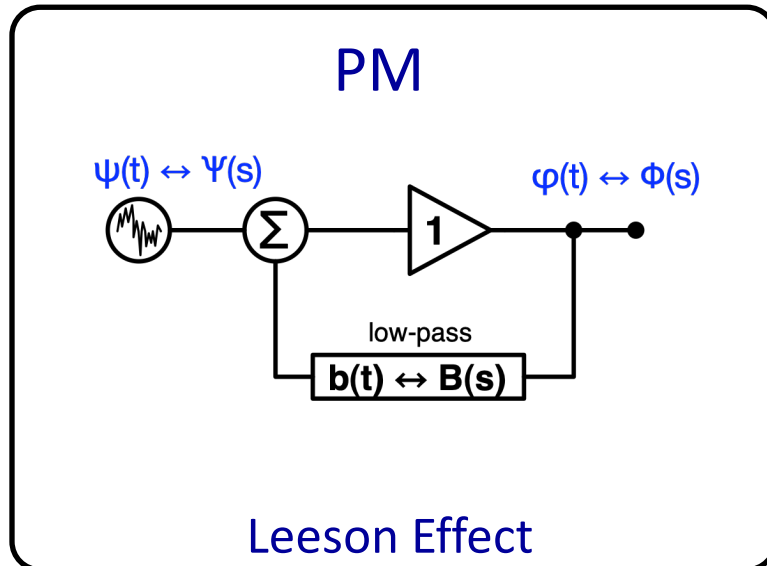
RF, μ waves or optics

The amplifier

- “copies” the input phase to the out
- adds phase noise

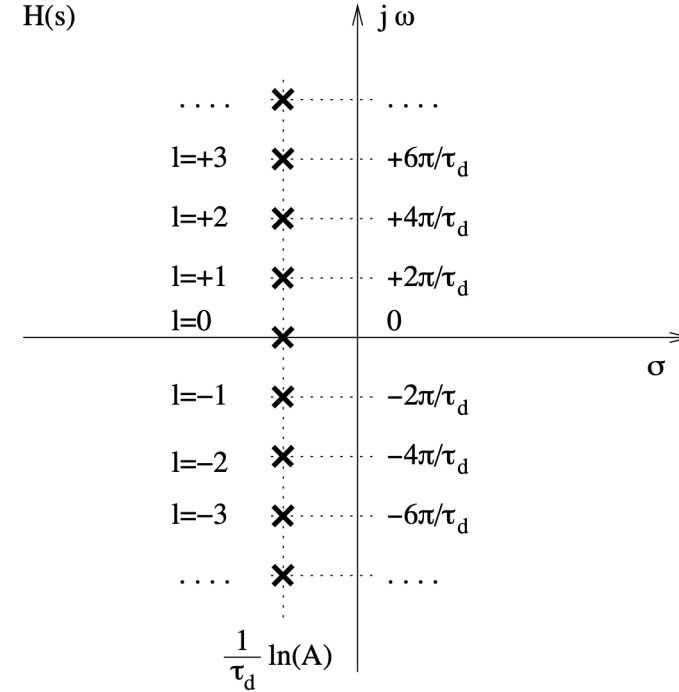
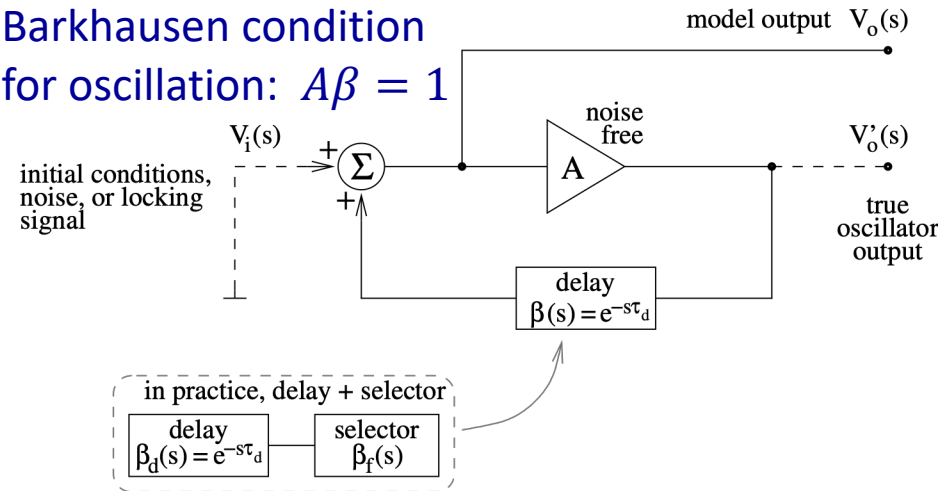
The amplifier

- compresses the amplitude
- adds amplitude noise



Delay-line oscillator – Operation

Barkhausen condition
for oscillation: $A\beta = 1$



General feedback theory

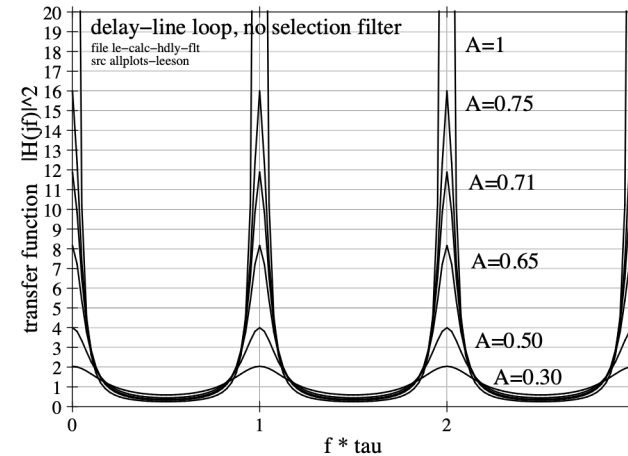
$$H(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{1}{1 - A\beta(s)}$$

Delay-line oscillator

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

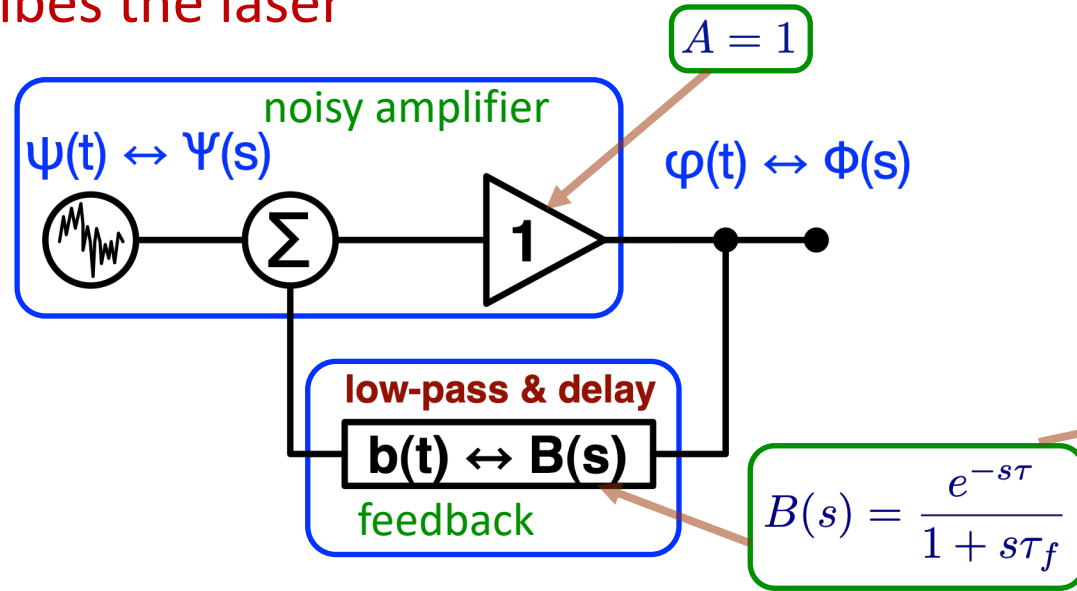
Location of the roots

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



The Leeson effect in the delay-line oscillator

Also describes the laser



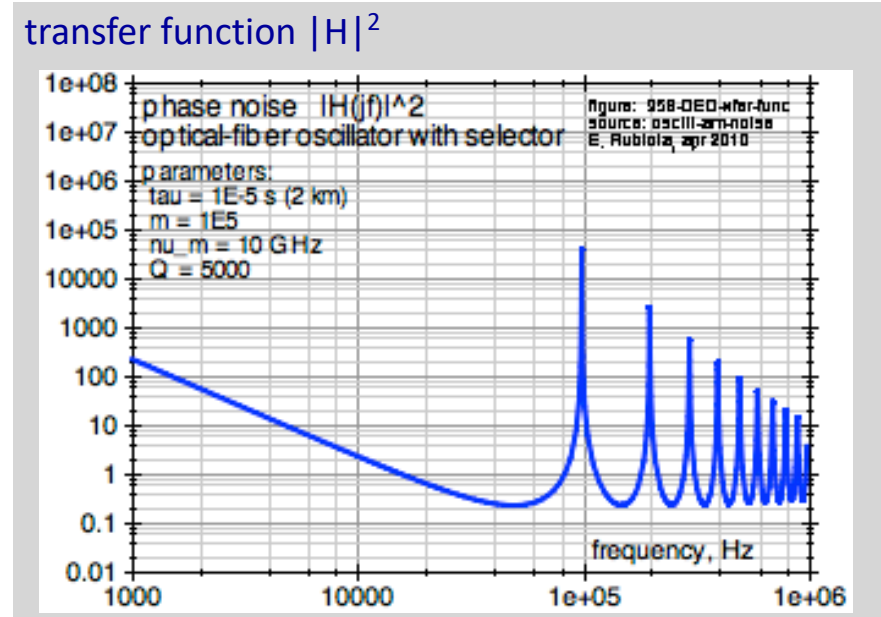
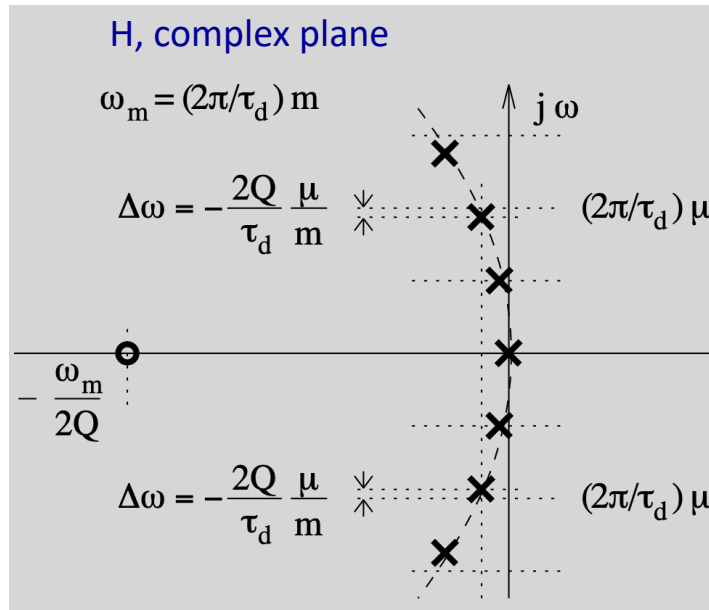
phase-noise transfer function

$$H(s) = \frac{\Phi(s)}{\Psi(s)} \quad \text{definition}$$

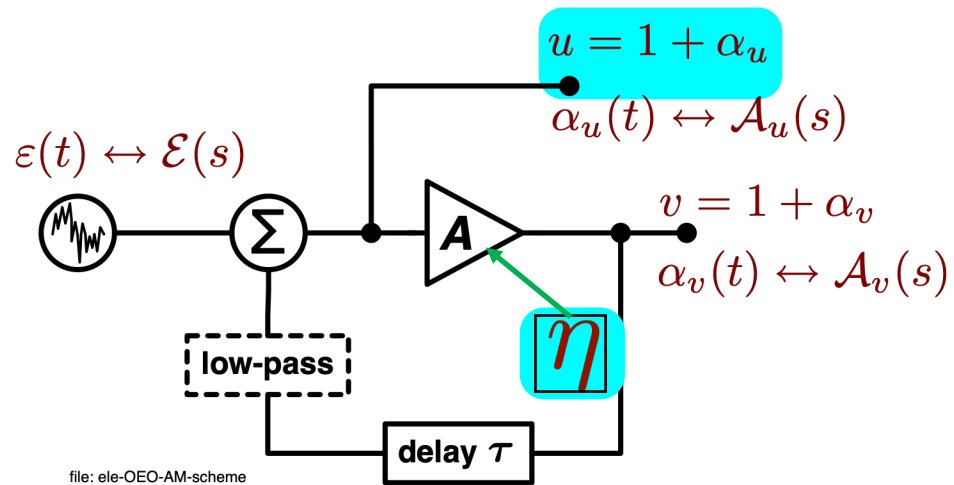
$$H(s) = \frac{1}{1 + AB(s)} \quad \text{general feedback theory}$$

$$H(s) = \frac{1 + s\tau_f}{1 + s\tau_f - e^{-s\tau}} \quad \text{Leeson effect}$$

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



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

$$\alpha_u(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_u(s) \quad \text{and} \quad \eta(t) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{N}(s)$$

$$H(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_u(s)}{\mathcal{N}(s)} \quad \text{definition}$$

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

$$u = A(t - \tau) u(t - \tau) \quad \text{non-linear equation}$$

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

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

$$\alpha(t) = (1 - \gamma)\alpha(t - \tau) - \gamma\alpha^2(t - \tau) \rightarrow 0$$

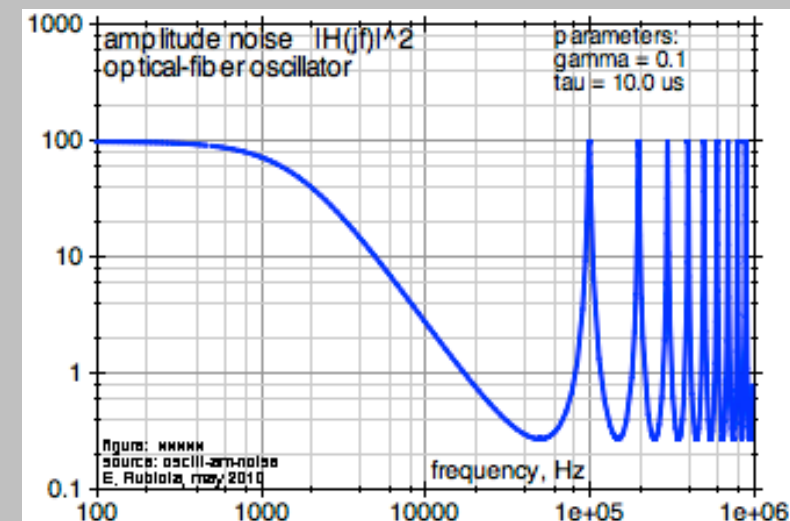
$$+ \eta(t - \tau) + \eta(t - \tau)\alpha(t - \tau) \rightarrow 0$$

linearized equation

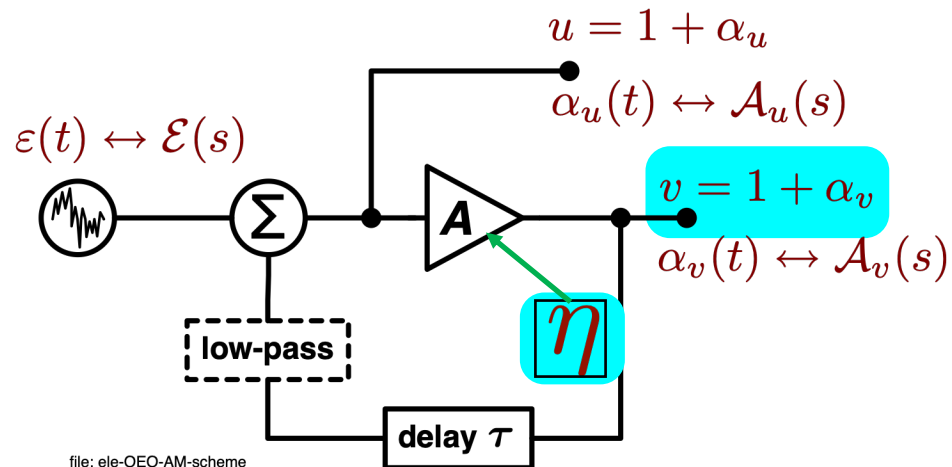
$$\alpha(t) = (1 - \gamma)\alpha(t - \tau) + \eta(t - \tau)$$

Laplace transform

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



Gain fluctuations – Output is $v(t)$



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

boring algebra relates α_v to α_u

$$v = Au$$

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

$$v = [-\gamma(u - 1) + 1 + \eta] u \quad \text{use } u = \alpha + 1$$

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

$$1 + \alpha_v = 1 + \eta - \gamma\alpha_u + \alpha_u - \alpha_u\eta - \gamma\alpha_u^2$$

$$\alpha_v = (1 - \gamma)\alpha_u + \eta \quad \text{linearization for low noise}$$

$$\alpha_u = \frac{\alpha_v - \eta}{1 - \gamma}$$

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

starting equation

$$\mathcal{A}_u(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_v(s) - \mathcal{N}(s)}{1 - \gamma}$$

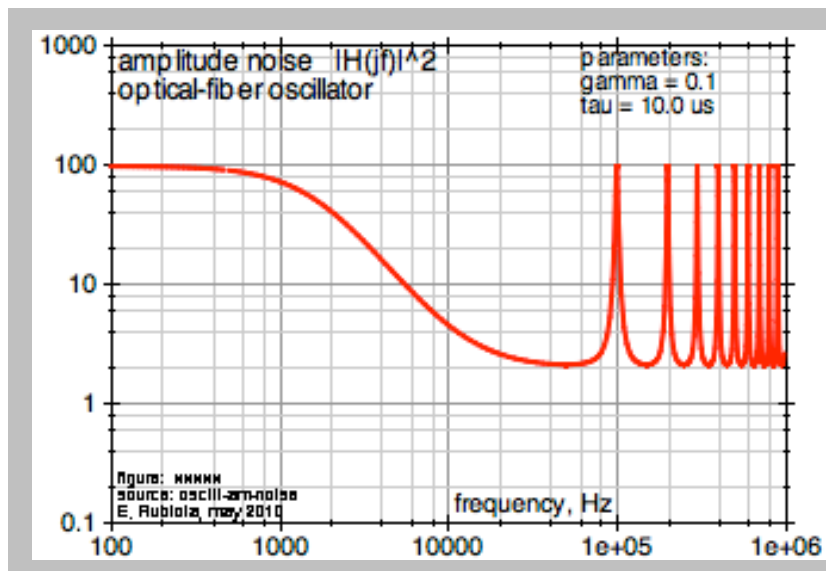
$$[1 + (1 - \gamma)(1 - e^{-s\tau})] \mathcal{A}_v(s) = [1 - (1 - \gamma)e^{-s\tau}] \mathcal{N}(s)$$

$$H(s) = \frac{\mathcal{A}_v(s)}{\mathcal{N}(s)}$$

definition

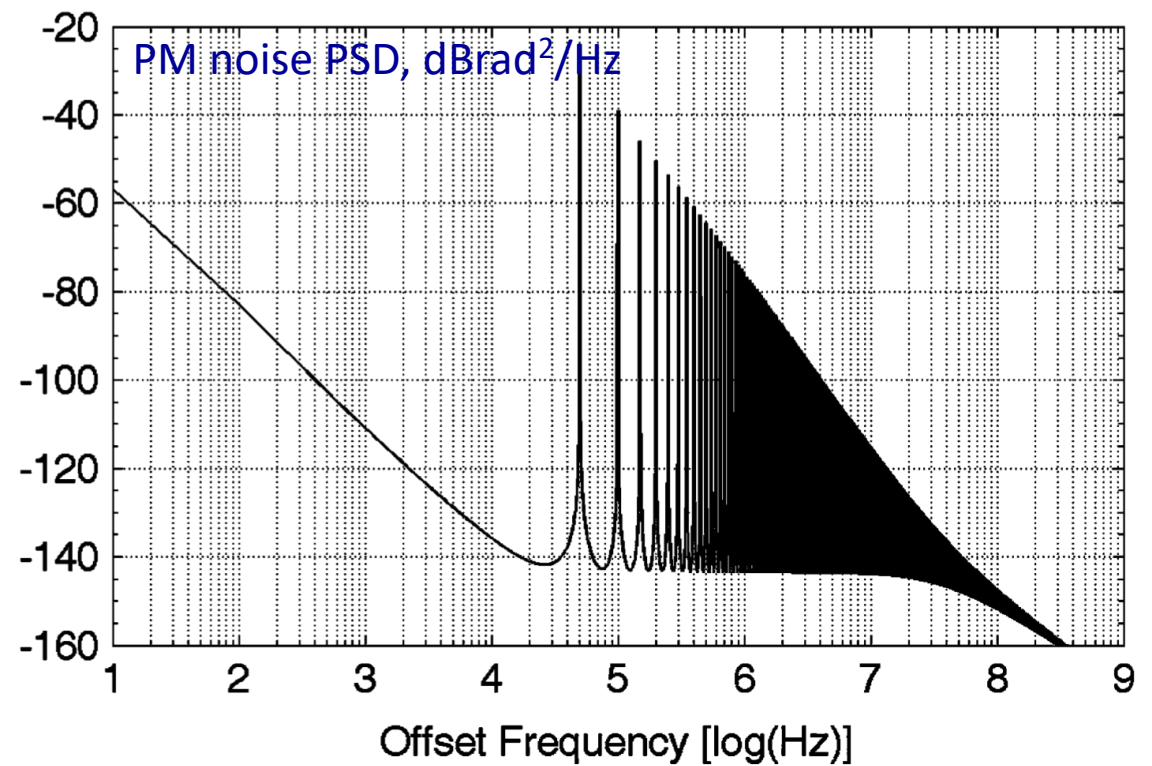
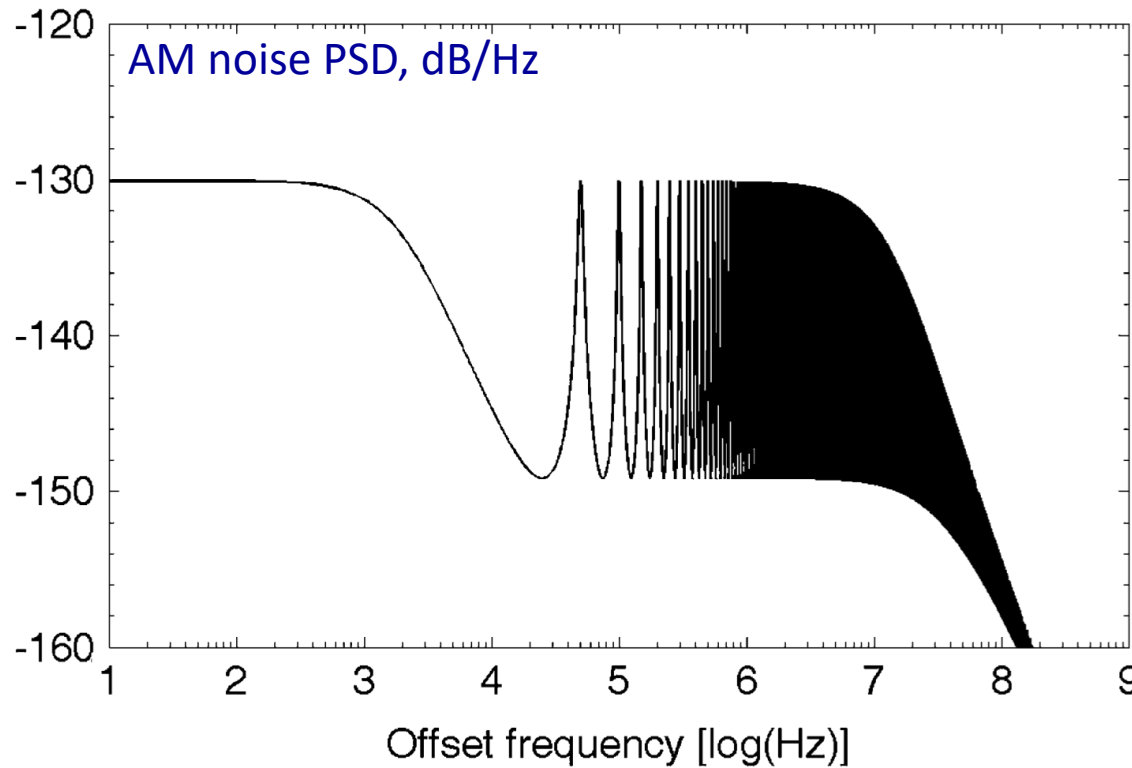
$$H(s) = \frac{1 + (1 - \gamma)(1 - e^{-s\tau})}{1 - (1 - \gamma)e^{-s\tau}}$$

result



Theoretical prediction of AM & PM spectra

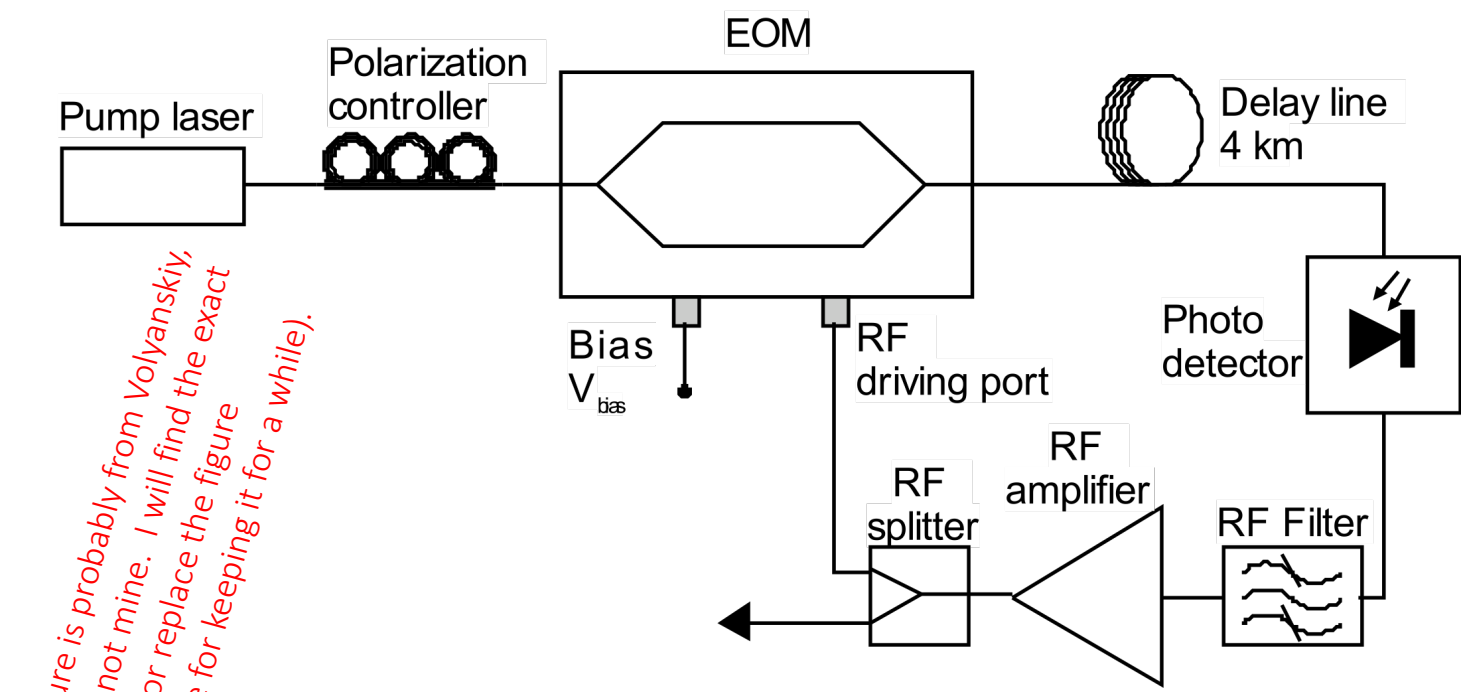
Y.K. Chembo, K. Volyanskiy, L. Larger, E. Rubiola, P. Colet, & al., IEEE J. Quant. Electron. 45(2) p.178-186, Feb 2009



Figures are © IEEE

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

Delay-line oscillator



The figure is probably from Volyanskiy, for sure not mine. I will find the exact citation, or replace the figure (apologize for keeping it for a while).

E. Rubiola, *Phase Noise and Frequency Stability in Oscillators*, Cambridge 2008, ISBN13 9780521886772

$$Q_{eq} = \pi \nu_0 \tau$$

$$L = 4 \text{ km}$$

$$Q_{eq} = 6.3 \times 10^5$$

$$f_L = \frac{\nu_0}{2Q}$$

$$f_L = \frac{1}{4\pi^2 \tau^2}$$

$$f_L = 8 \text{ kHz}$$

$$S_\phi(f) \simeq \frac{f_L^2}{f^2} S_\psi(f) \quad \text{for } f \ll f_L \quad \text{Leeson formula}$$

$$b_{-3} = 6.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ (-32 dB)}$$

$$h_{-1} = b_{-3} / \nu_0^2$$

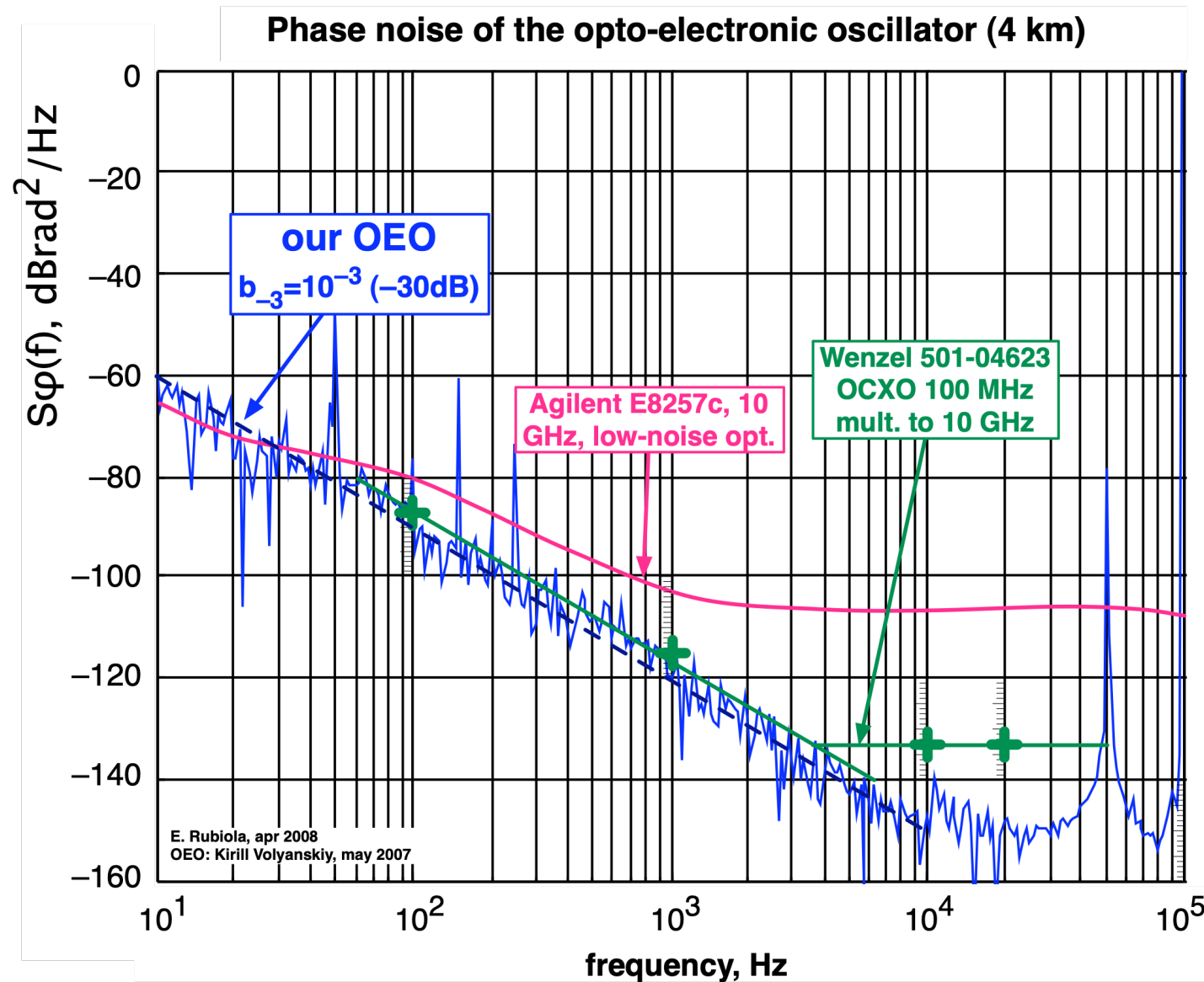
$$6.3 \times 10^{-24}$$

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

$$808 \times 10^{-24}$$

$$\sigma_y \simeq 2.9 \times 10^{-12} \quad \text{Allan deviation}$$

Delay-line oscillator – Measured noise

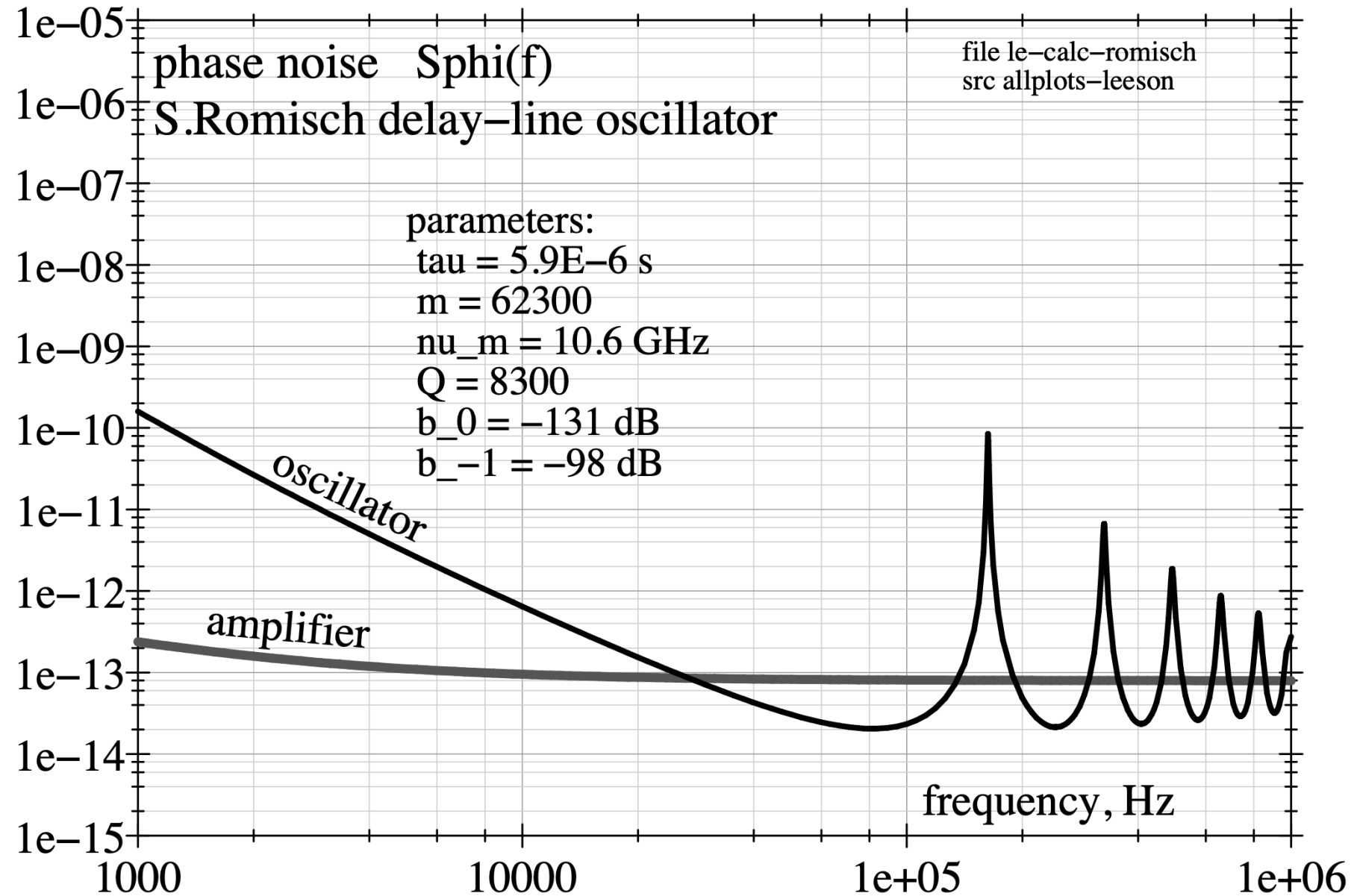


- 1.310 nm DFB CATV laser
- Photodetector DSC 402
responsivity $R = 371$ V/W
- RF filter $\nu_0 = 10$ GHz, $Q = 125$
- RF amplifier AML812PNB1901
(gain +22dB)

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

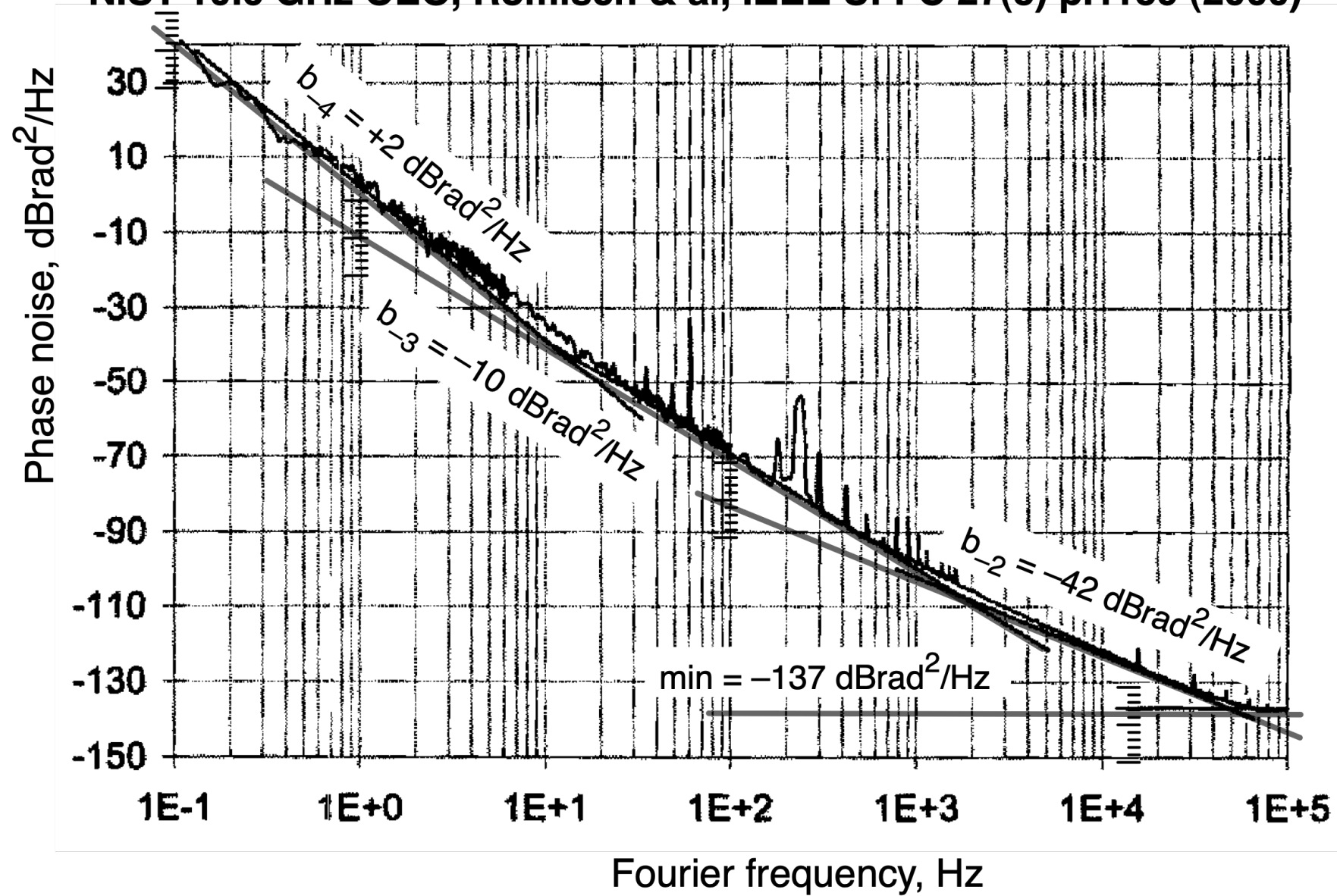
NIST Opto-Electronic Oscillator – Simulation

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



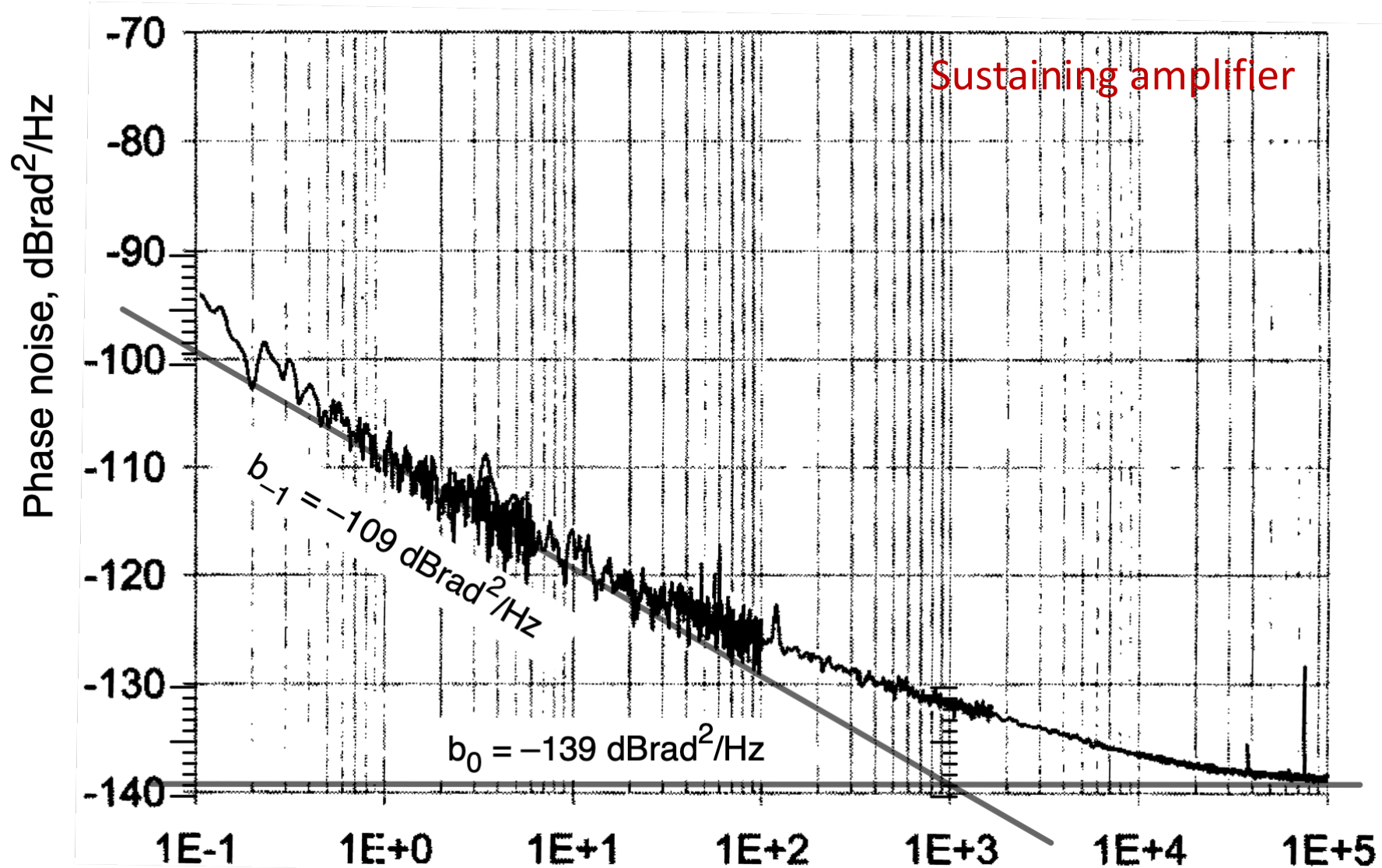
NIST opto-electronic oscillator

NIST 10.6 GHz OEO, Römisch & al, IEEE UFFC 27(5) p.1159 (2000)



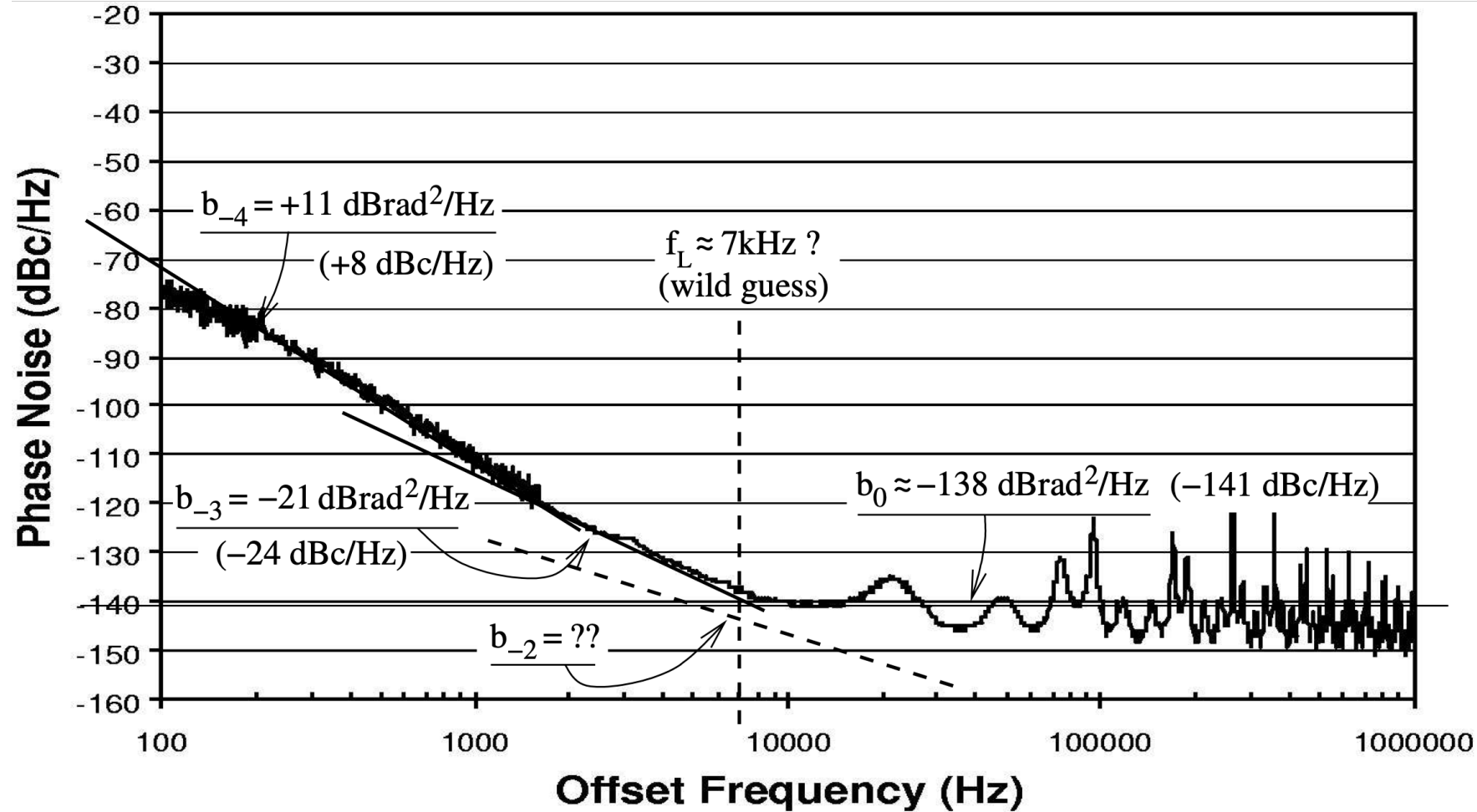
NIST opto-electronic oscillator

OEO amplifier, Römisch & al, IEEE UFFC 27(5) p.1159 (2000)



Opto-electronic oscillator

OEwaves Tidalwave photonic oscillator (10 GHz)



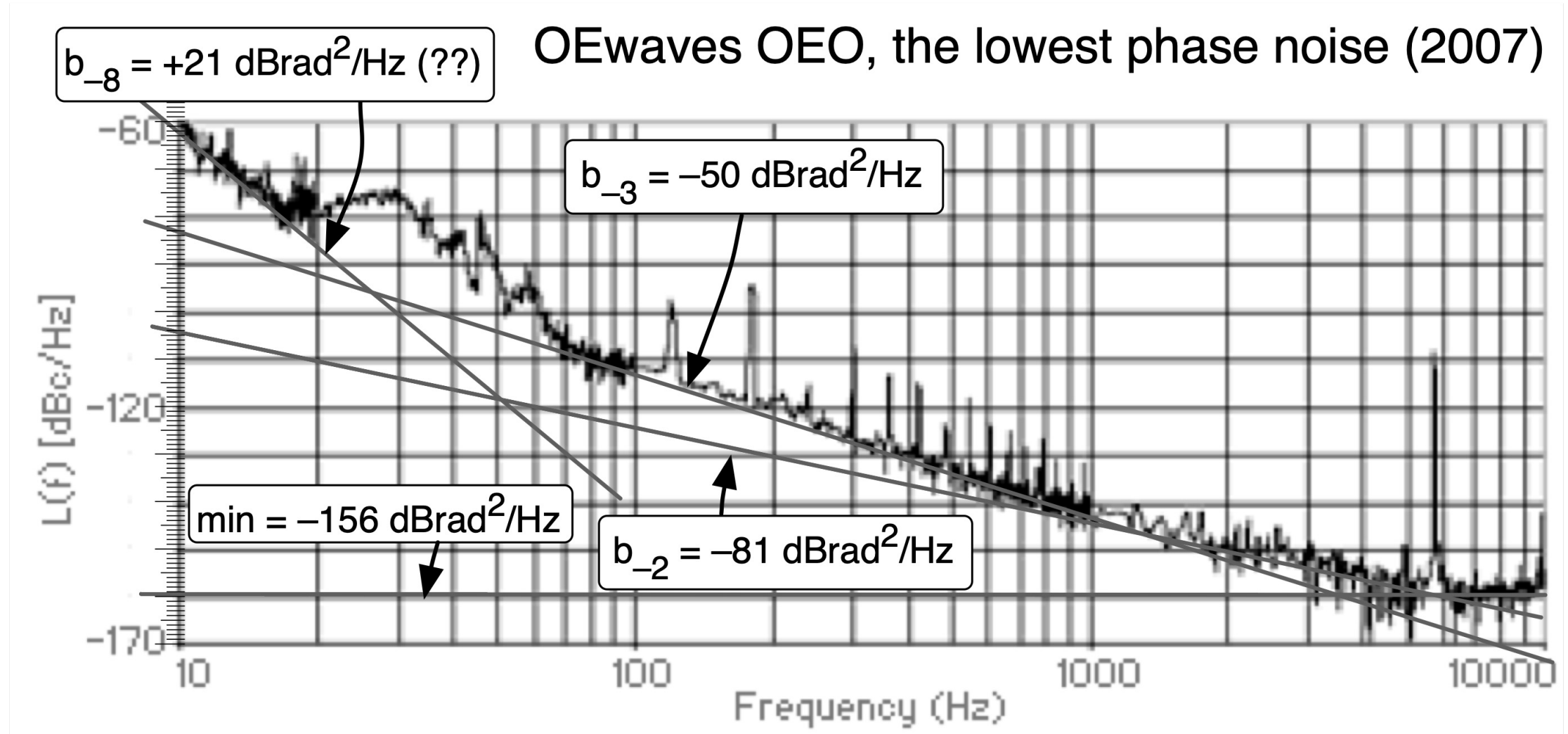
$$Q = \pi \nu_0 \tau$$

$$\tau = \frac{Q}{\pi \nu_0} \approx 16 \mu\text{s}$$

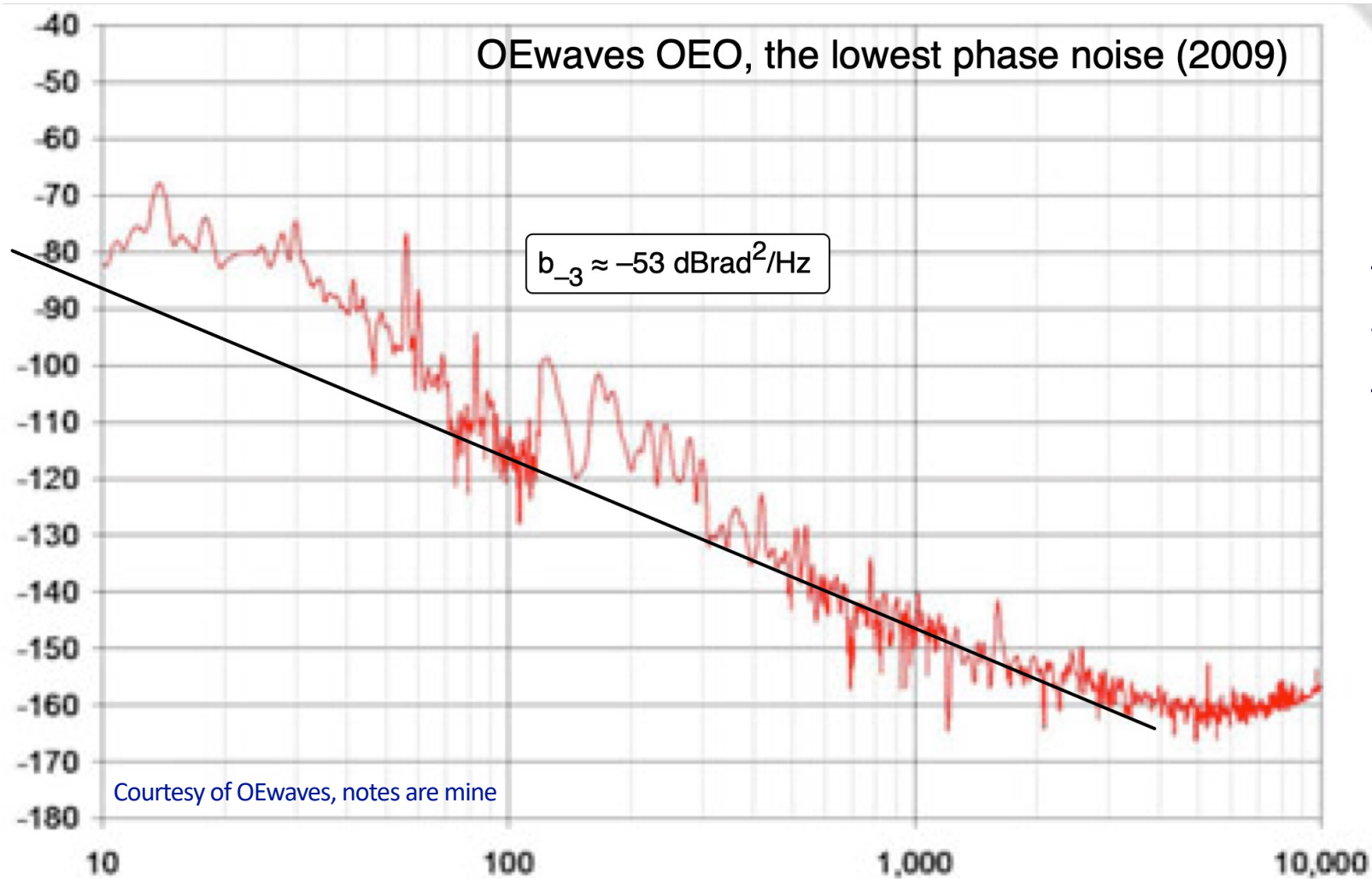
Courtesy of OEwaves (handwritten notes are mine).

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

Opto-electronic oscillator



OEwaves, lowest phase noise (2)



$b_{-3} \approx -53 \text{ dB/Hz @ } 10 \text{ GHz} \Rightarrow$

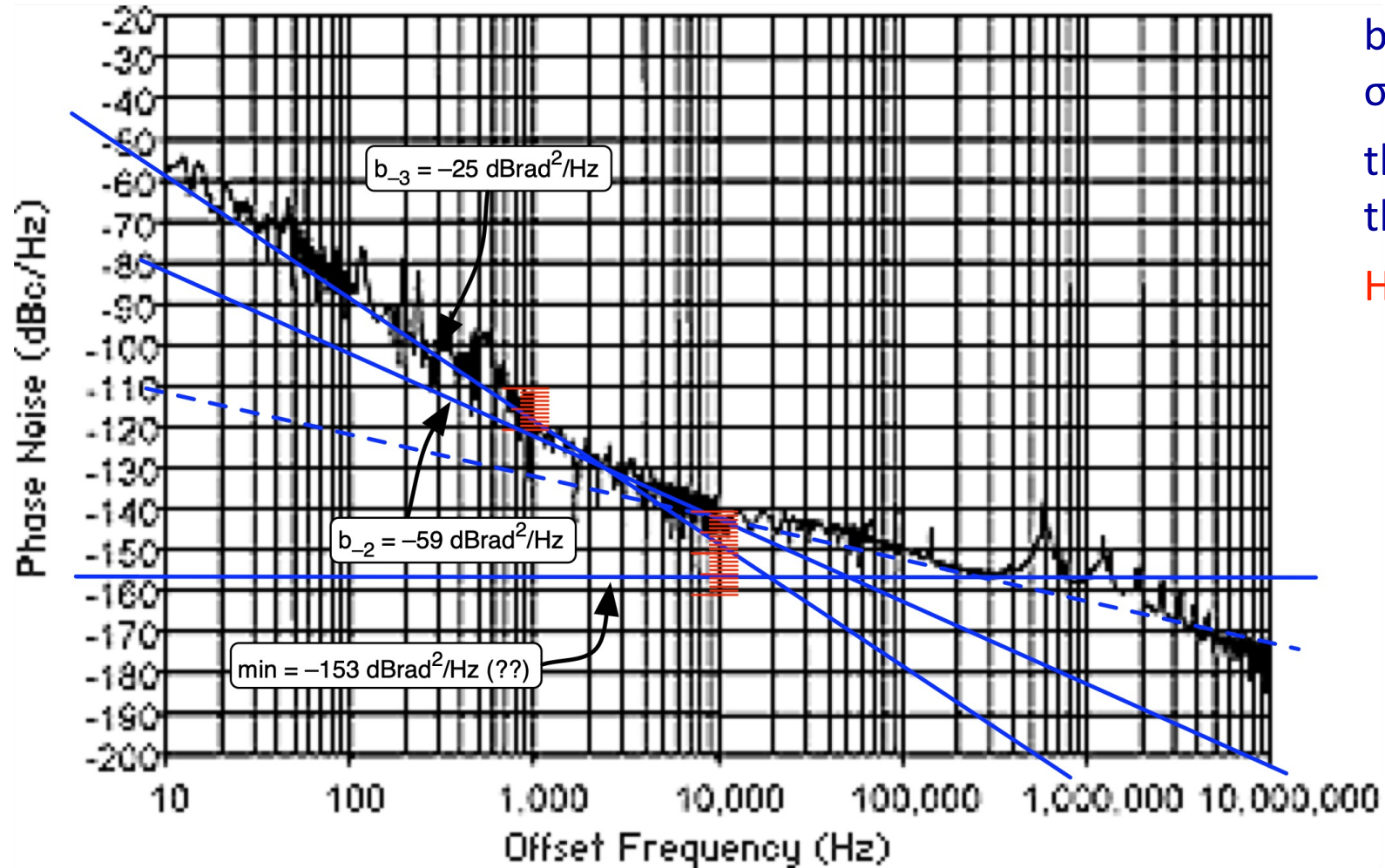
$$\sigma_y = 2.6 \times 10^{-13}$$

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)



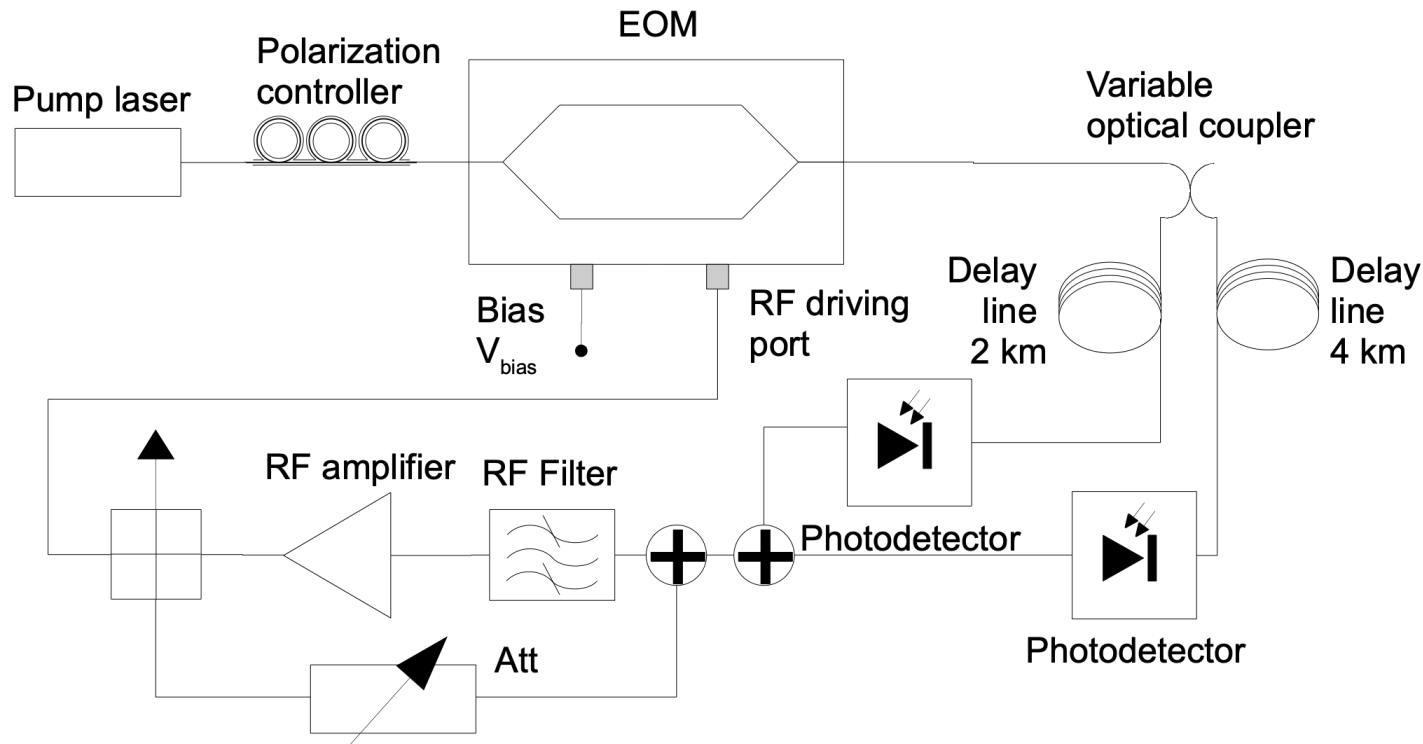
$b_{-3} = -25 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz} @ 10 \text{ GHz} \Rightarrow$
 $\sigma_y = 6.6 \times 10^{-12}$

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

How did they remove the spurious?

Optical-Fiber 10 GHz oscillator

383



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 μ s) path to eliminate the 50-kHz noise peak due to the 4-km (20 μ s)
- 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

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

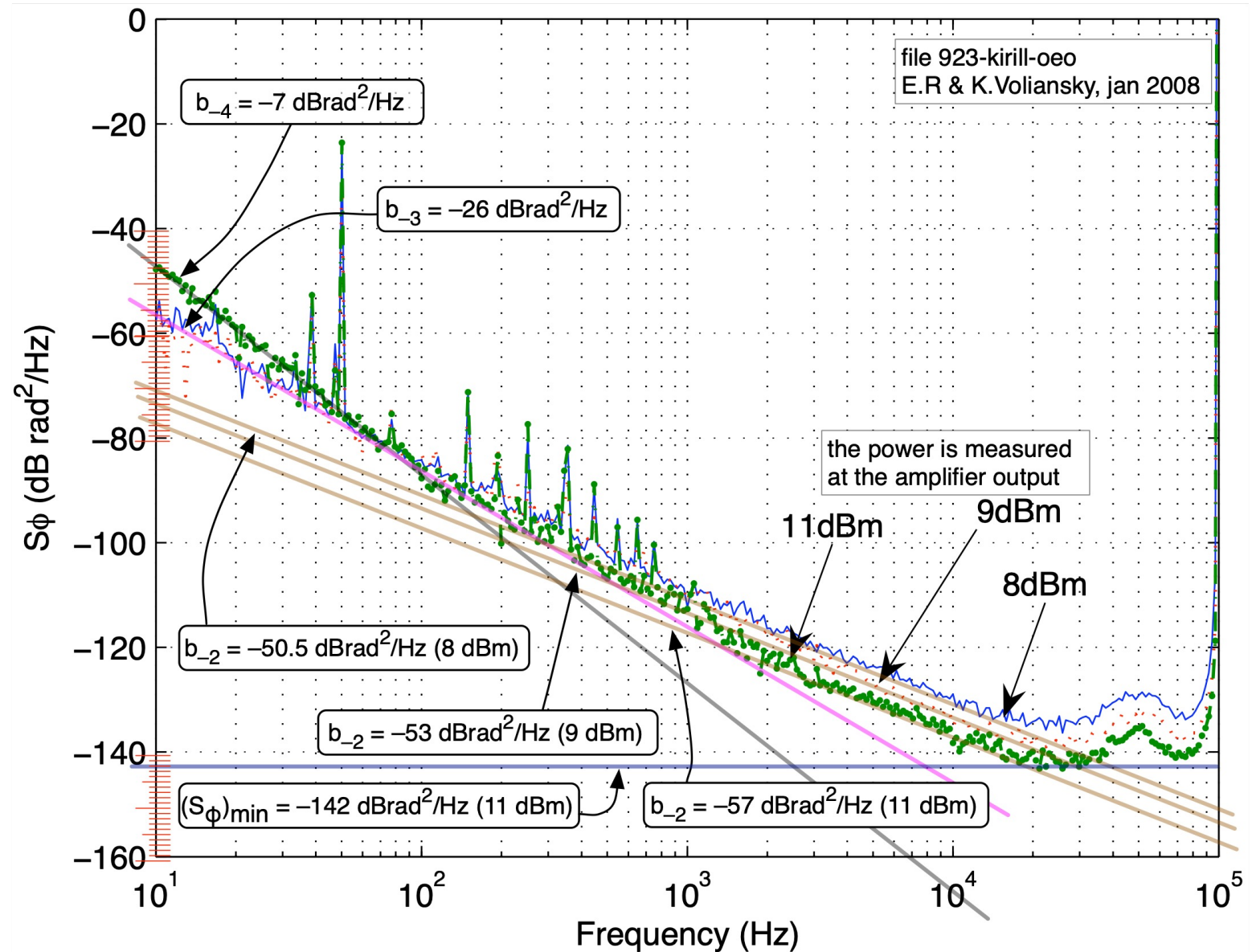
frequency flicker
 $b_{-3} = 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ rad}^2/\text{Hz}$
 $h_{-1} = 2.5 \times 10^{-23}$
 $\sigma_y(\tau) = 5.9 \times 10^{-11}$

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

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

P_{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 , V	$\pi V_0/V_\pi$	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 $b_0=N/P_0$ (white noise)

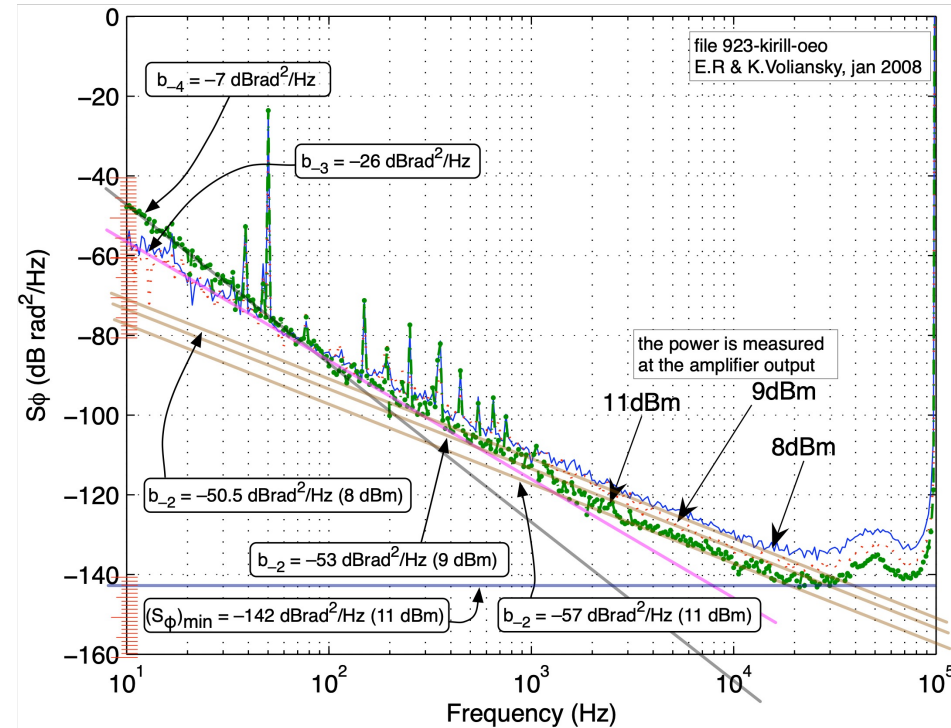
$m = 0.725$ ($P_{\text{rf}}=11$ dBm)

$(S_\varphi)_{\text{min}} = -142$ dB

$F = 10$ dB (incl. couplers)

$\eta = 0.6$

$\nu_l = 194$ THz



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

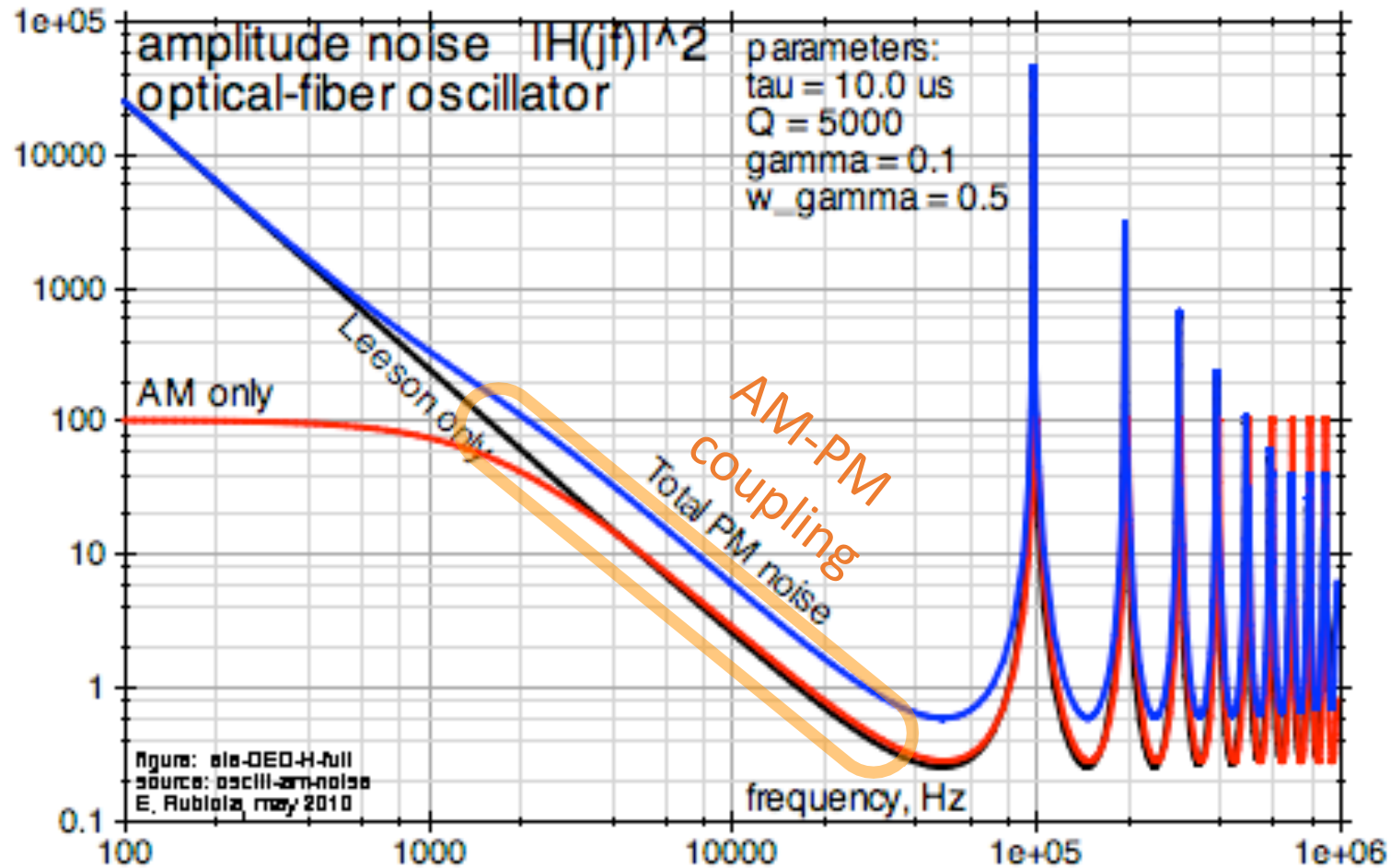
Feeding the available data in the model we get

$P_0 = 6.4 \mu\text{W}$ (RF, -22 dBm)

$P_l \approx 0.71$ mW (optical)

There is room for engineering

Noise transfer function – Simulation

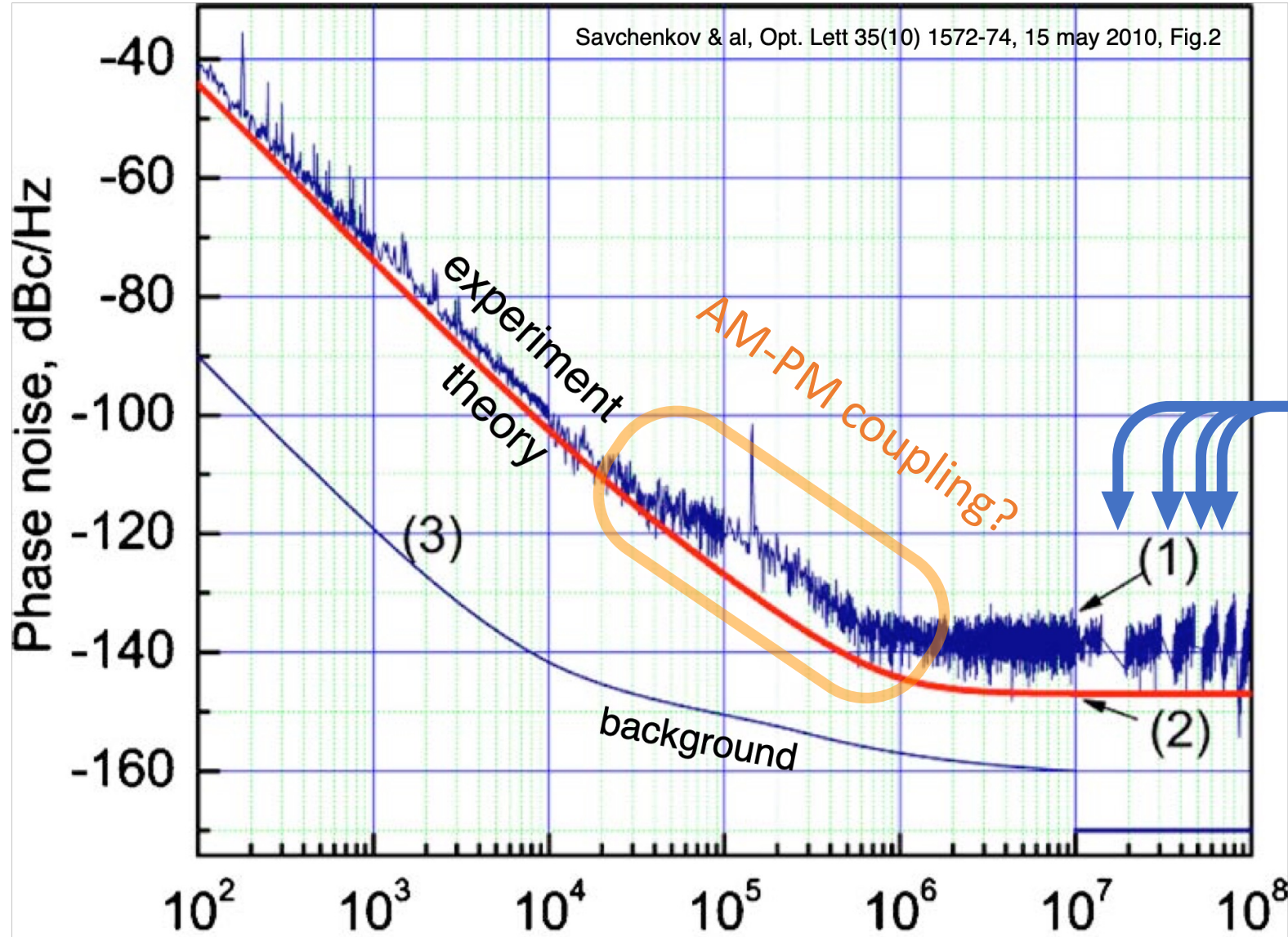


Notice that the AM-PM coupling can increase or decrease the PM noise

In a real oscillator, flicker noise shows up below some 10 kHz

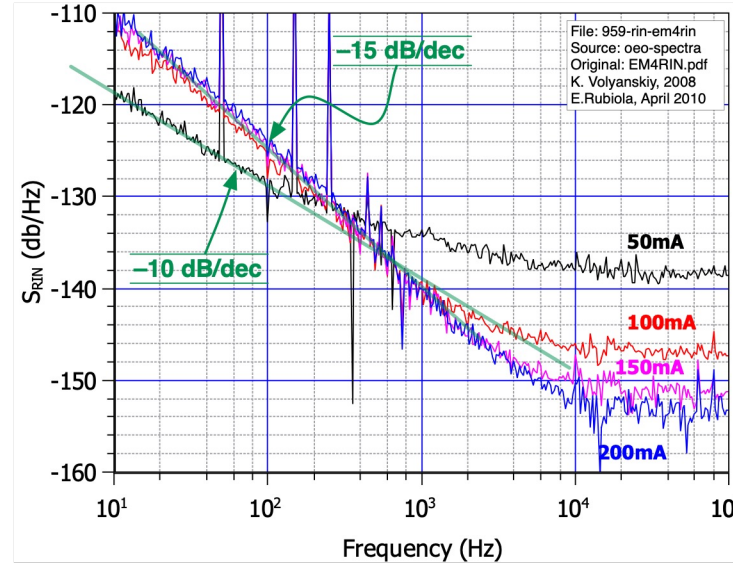
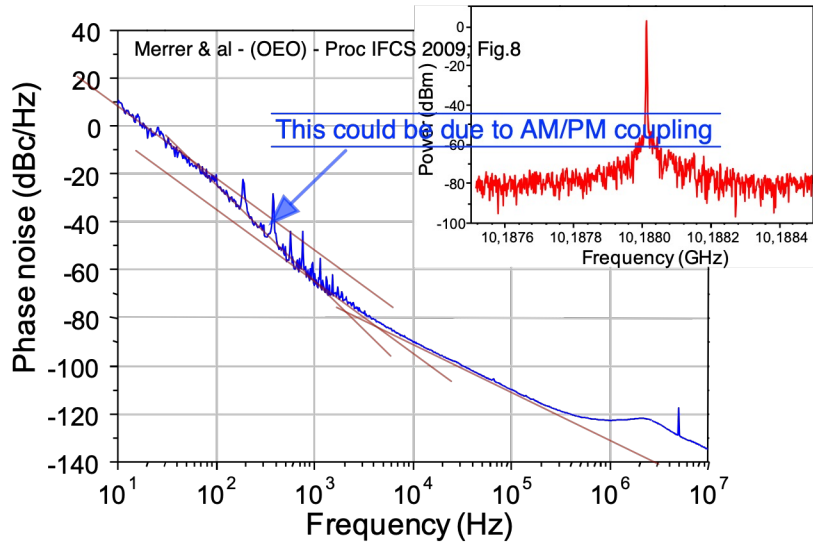
In the flicker region, all plots are multiplied by $1/f$

OEwaves OEO phase noise

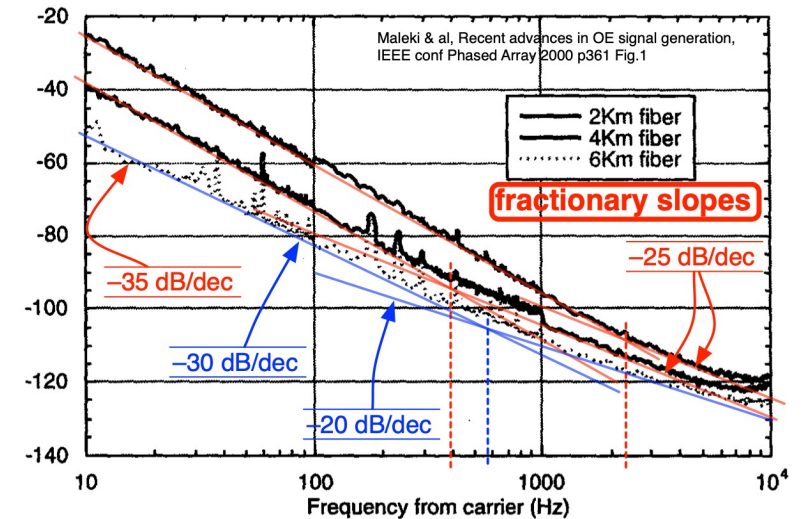
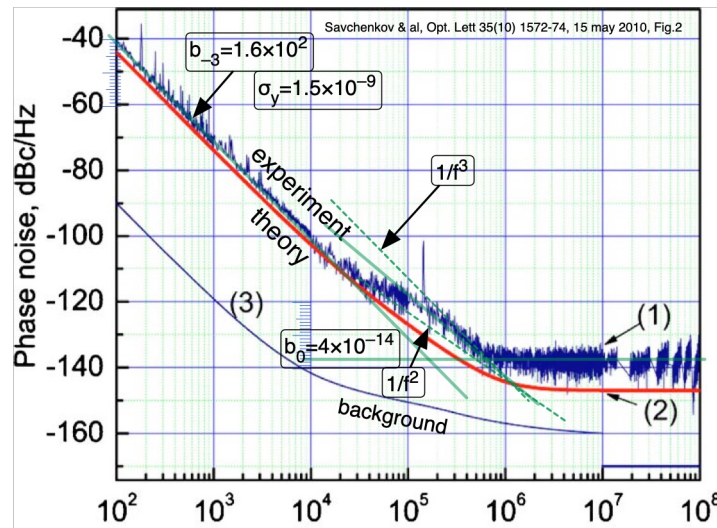


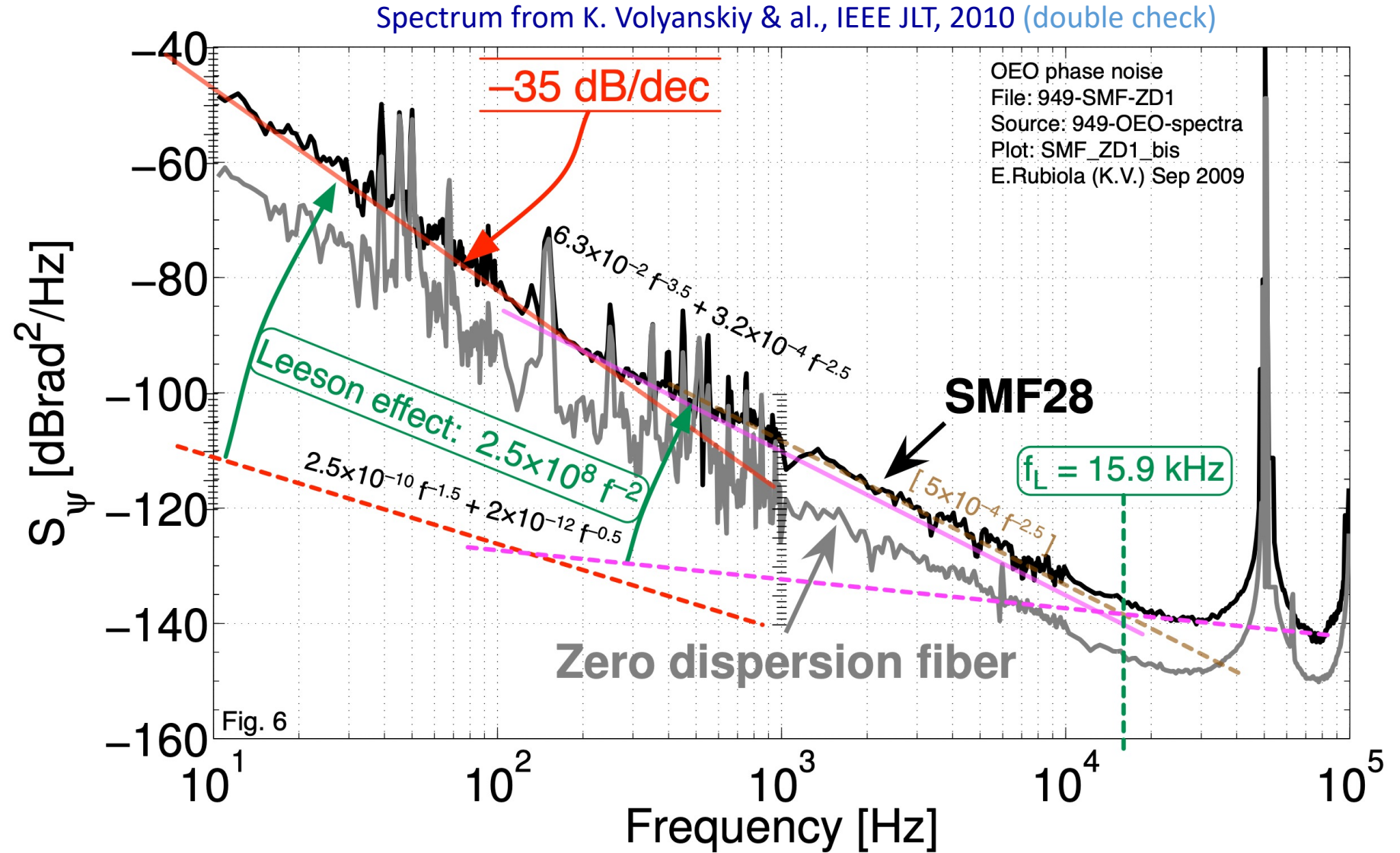
Likely, suppressed data at the noise resonances

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

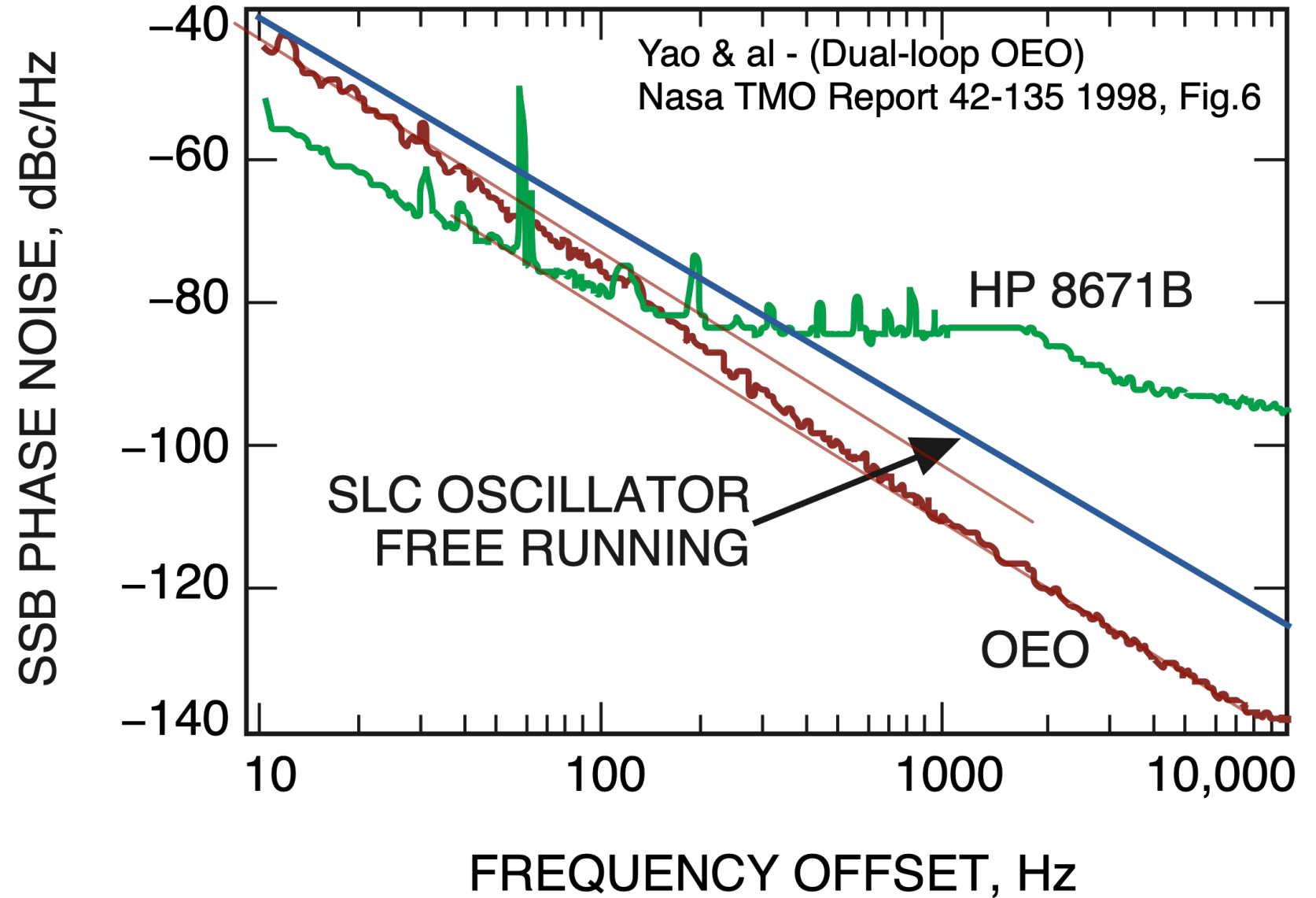




Unfortunately, the awareness of this model come after the end of the experiments

Noise spectra

X.S.Yao & al., NASA TMO Report 42-135 (1998), Fig. 6
The figure is © NASA, comments are mine



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

I am indebted to a number of colleagues and friends for invitations and stimulating discussions

- dr. Tim Berenc, ANL, Argonne
- dr. Holger Schlarb, DESY, Hambourg
- 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 \[physics.ins-det\]](https://arxiv.org/abs/1004.5539)

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 $f_L = \nu_0/2Q$
- The step response provides analytical solutions and physical insight. (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 P_0
- 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

End of lecture 9

Lecture 10

Scientific Instruments & Oscillators

Lectures for PhD Students and Young Scientists

Enrico Rubiola

CNRS FEMTO-ST Institute, Besancon, France

INRiM, Torino, Italy

Spring 2024

Contents

- The Pound Drever Hall frequency control

The Pound-Drever-Hall Frequency Control

Enrico Rubiola

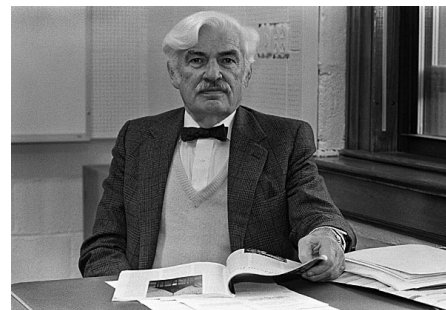
CNRS FEMTO-ST Institute, Besancon, France

INRiM, Torino, Italy

The original is in a
separate file

Outline

- Basic mechanism
- Key ideas
- Control loop
- Resonators stability
- Optimization
- Applications
- Alternate schemes



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 IDrever
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

Basic Mechanism

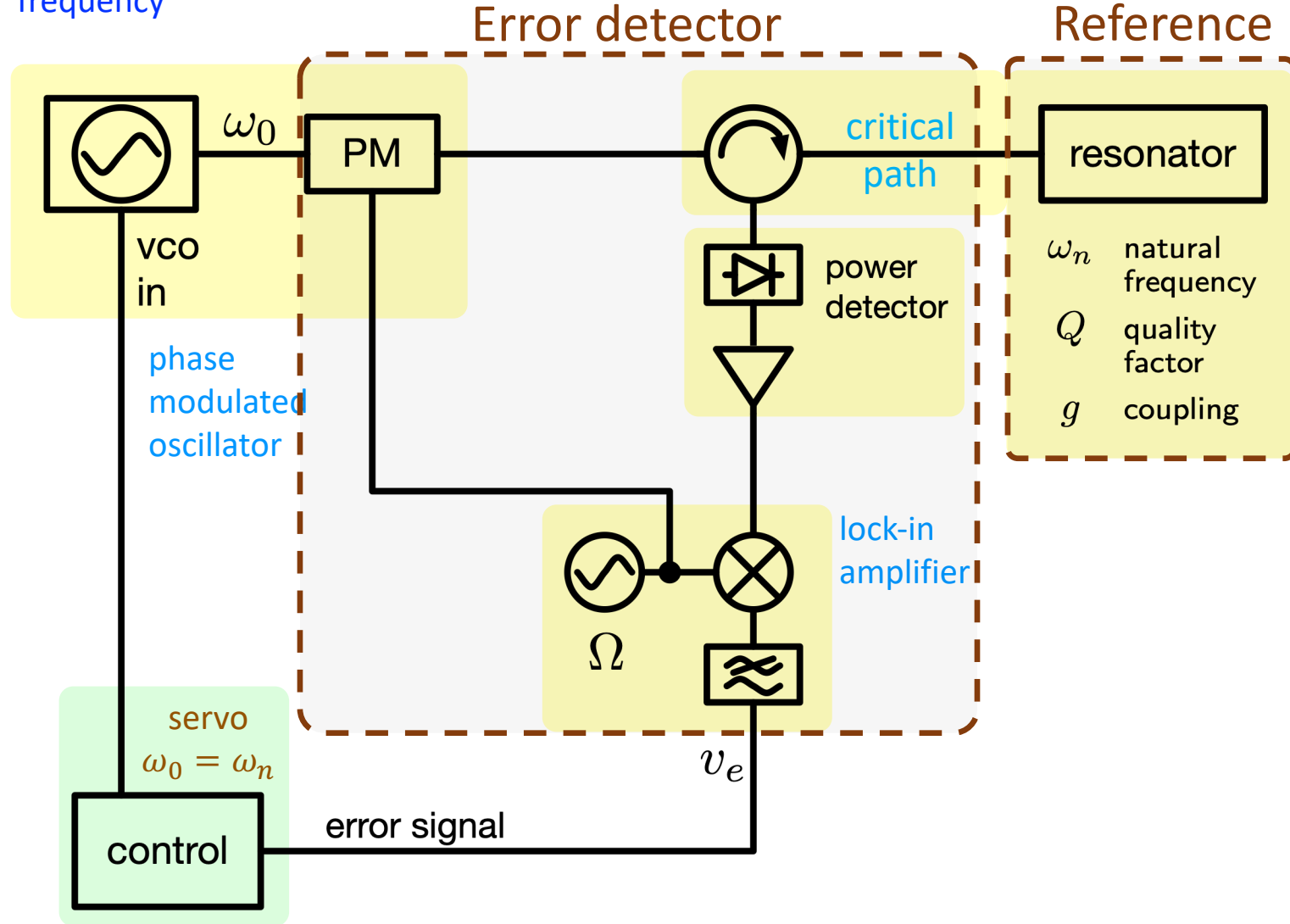
Featured article

Eric D. Black, An introduction to Pound–Drever–Hall laser frequency stabilization, Am J Phys 69(1) January 2001, DOI [10.1119/1.1286663](https://doi.org/10.1119/1.1286663) (paywall)

Also available as Technical Note [LIGO-T980045-00-D 4/16/98](https://www.ligo.caltech.edu/publications/LIGO-T980045-00-D%204/16/98) (free access)

Overview

ω_0 = oscillation frequency



Error signal proportional to frequency error

$$v_e = D(\omega_0 - \omega_n)$$

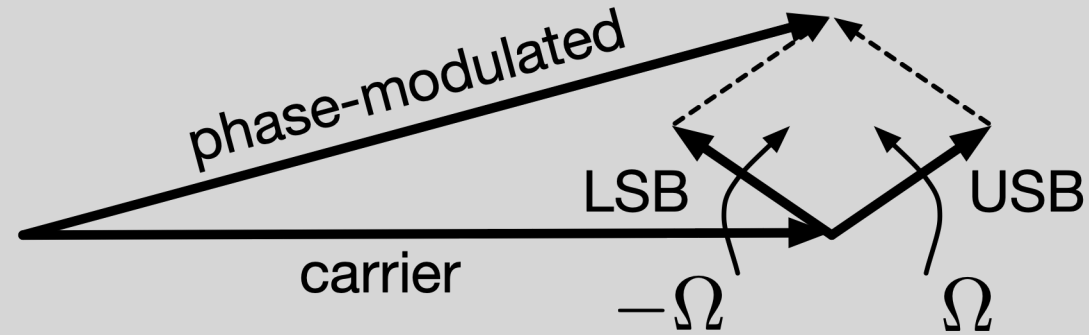
Points of interest

- 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 \rightarrow get out of the flicker region
- One-port resonator \rightarrow lowest dissipation \rightarrow narrowest linewidth
- Multimode resonators \rightarrow simple mode selection

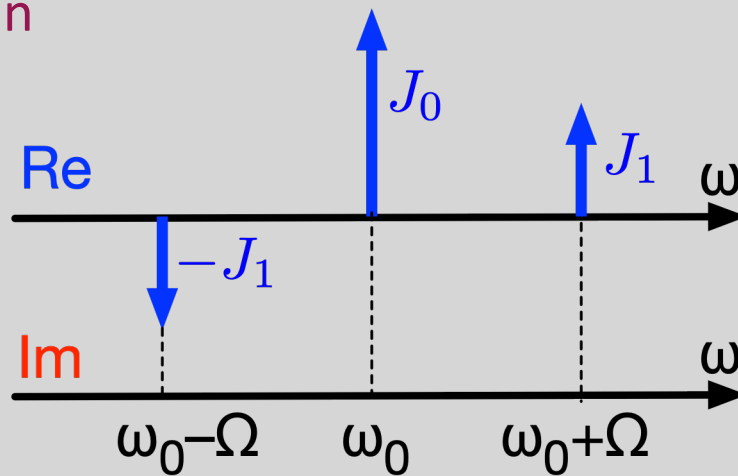
Phase modulation, physics

Phasor diagram

$$v(t) = V_p \cos[\omega t - m \sin(\Omega t)]$$



Frequency domain
(small m)



Bessel functions $J_n(m)$

Phase modulation, math

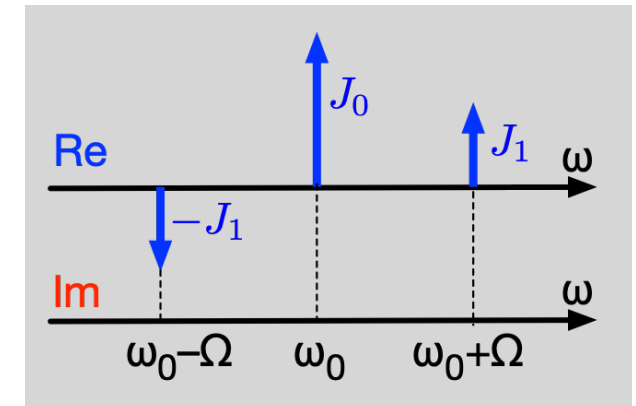
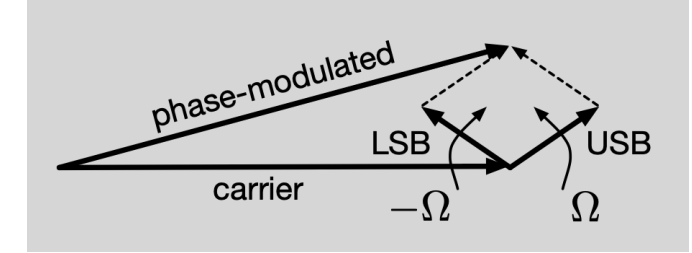
$$V = V_0 e^{i\omega t} e^{im \sin \Omega t}$$

$$= V_0 e^{i\omega t} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} J_n(m) e^{in\Omega t}$$

small m $\approx V_0 e^{i\omega t} [J_0(m) + J_{-1}(m) e^{-i\Omega t} - J_1(m) e^{-i\Omega t}]$

$$= V_0 [J_0(m) e^{i\omega t} - J_1(m) e^{i(\omega-\Omega)t}]$$

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



Carrier power

$$P_c = J_0^2(m) P_0 \approx P_0$$

Sideband power

$$P_s = J_1^2(m) P_0 \approx \frac{m^2}{4} P_0$$

Jacobi-Angers expansion

$$e^{im \cos \phi} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} i^n J_n(m) e^{in\phi}$$

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

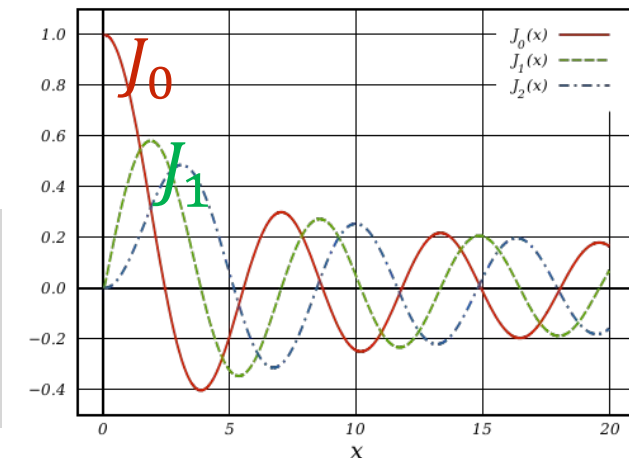
Symmetry, $z \in \mathbb{R}$

$$J_n(z) = \begin{cases} -J_n(z) & \text{odd } n \\ J_n(z) & \text{even } n \end{cases}$$

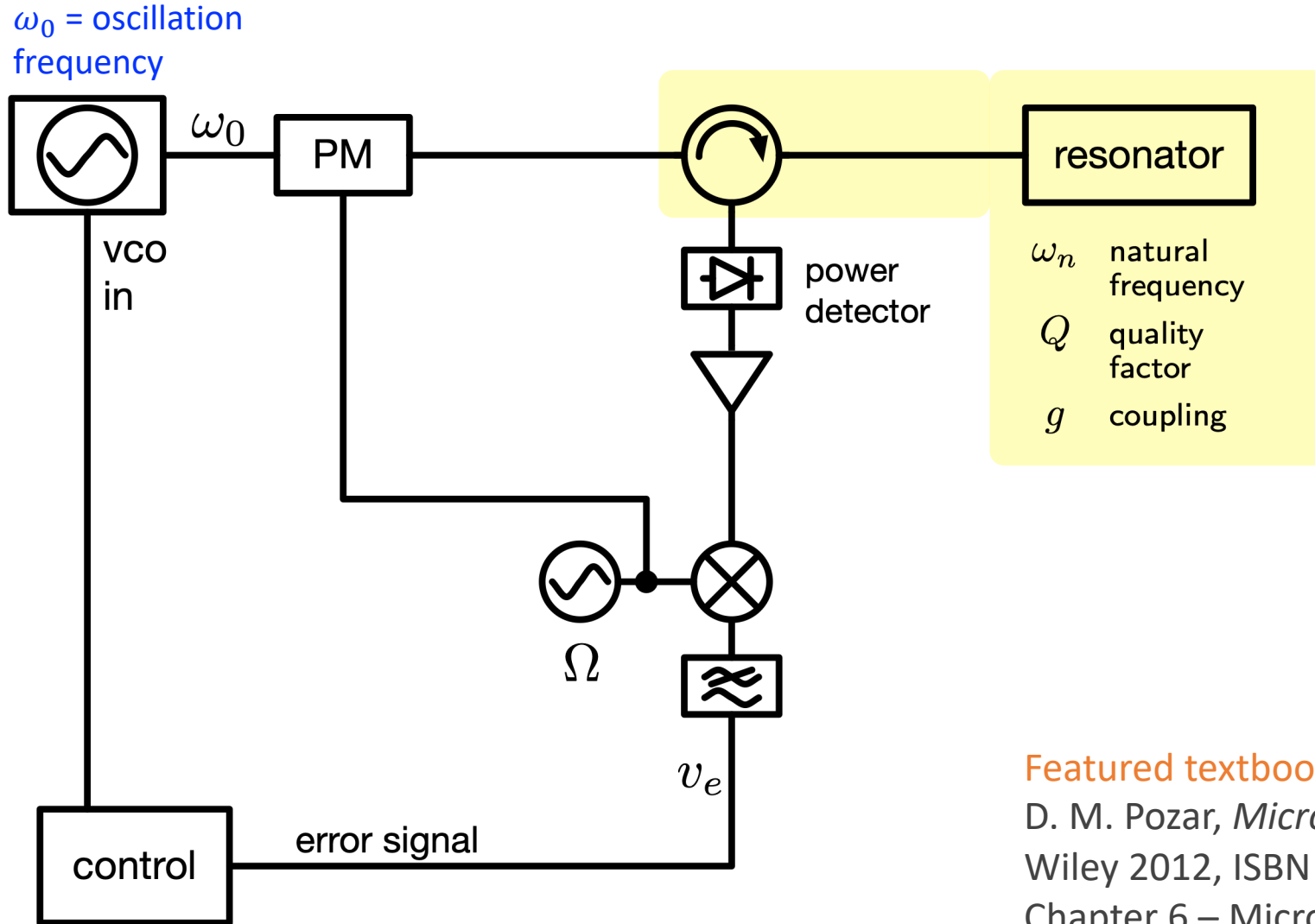
Small m

$$J_0(m) \approx 1 - m^2/2$$

$$J_1(m) \approx m/2$$



The reflection-mode resonator



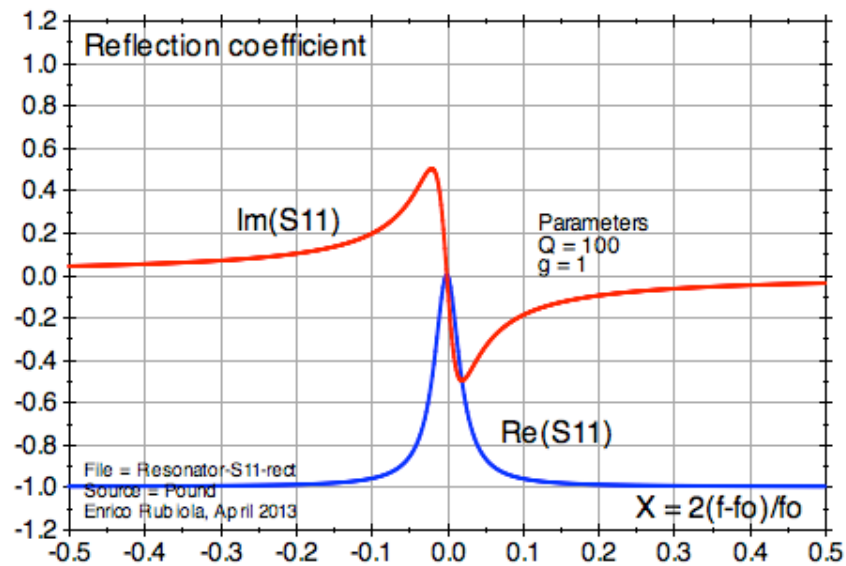
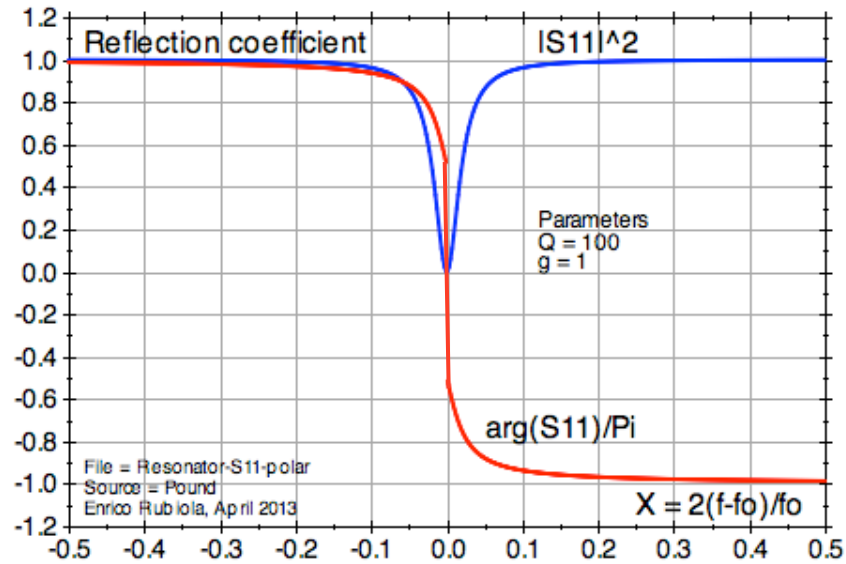
Featured textbook

D. M. Pozar, *Microwave Engineering* 4th ed,
Wiley 2012, ISBN [978-0-470-63155-3](https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470631553)

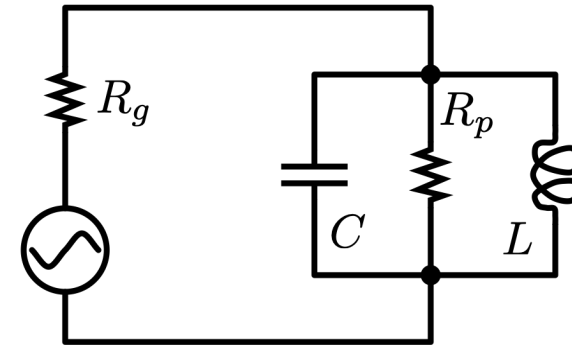
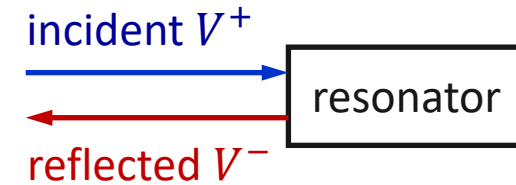
Chapter 6 – Microwave Resonators

Notice that the formalism is suitable to optics

Reflection coefficient Γ



$$\Gamma = V^- / V^+$$



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

Proof omitted

$Q_0 =$ unloaded "Q"

$g = R_p/R_g$ coupling

$\chi = \frac{\omega}{\omega_n} - \frac{\omega_n}{\omega}$ detuning

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

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

use $\chi \simeq \frac{2\Delta\nu}{\nu_n}$

$$\Gamma = \frac{g-1-i2Q_0\Delta\nu/\nu_n}{g+1+i2Q_0\Delta\nu/\nu_n}$$

collect $g+1$

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

use $\frac{1}{1+\epsilon} \simeq 1-\epsilon$

$$\Gamma = \frac{\left[g-1-i2Q_0\frac{\Delta\nu}{\nu_n}\right]\left[1-\frac{i2Q_0}{g+1}\frac{\Delta\nu}{\nu_n}\right]}{g+1}$$

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

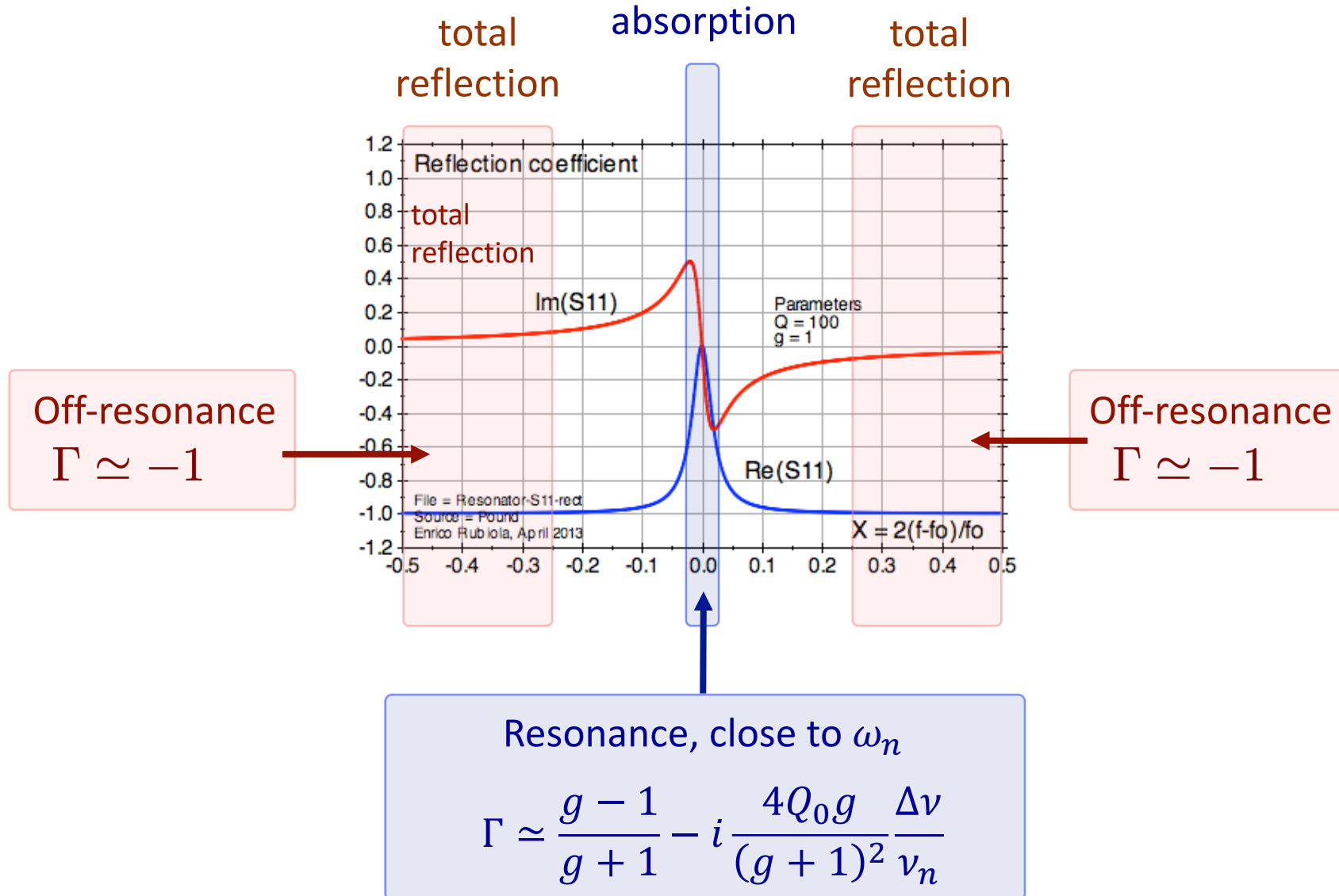
$$\Gamma = \frac{g-1}{g+1}-i\frac{4Q_0g}{(g+1)^2}\frac{\Delta\nu}{\nu_n}$$

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

↓
resistance
mismatch

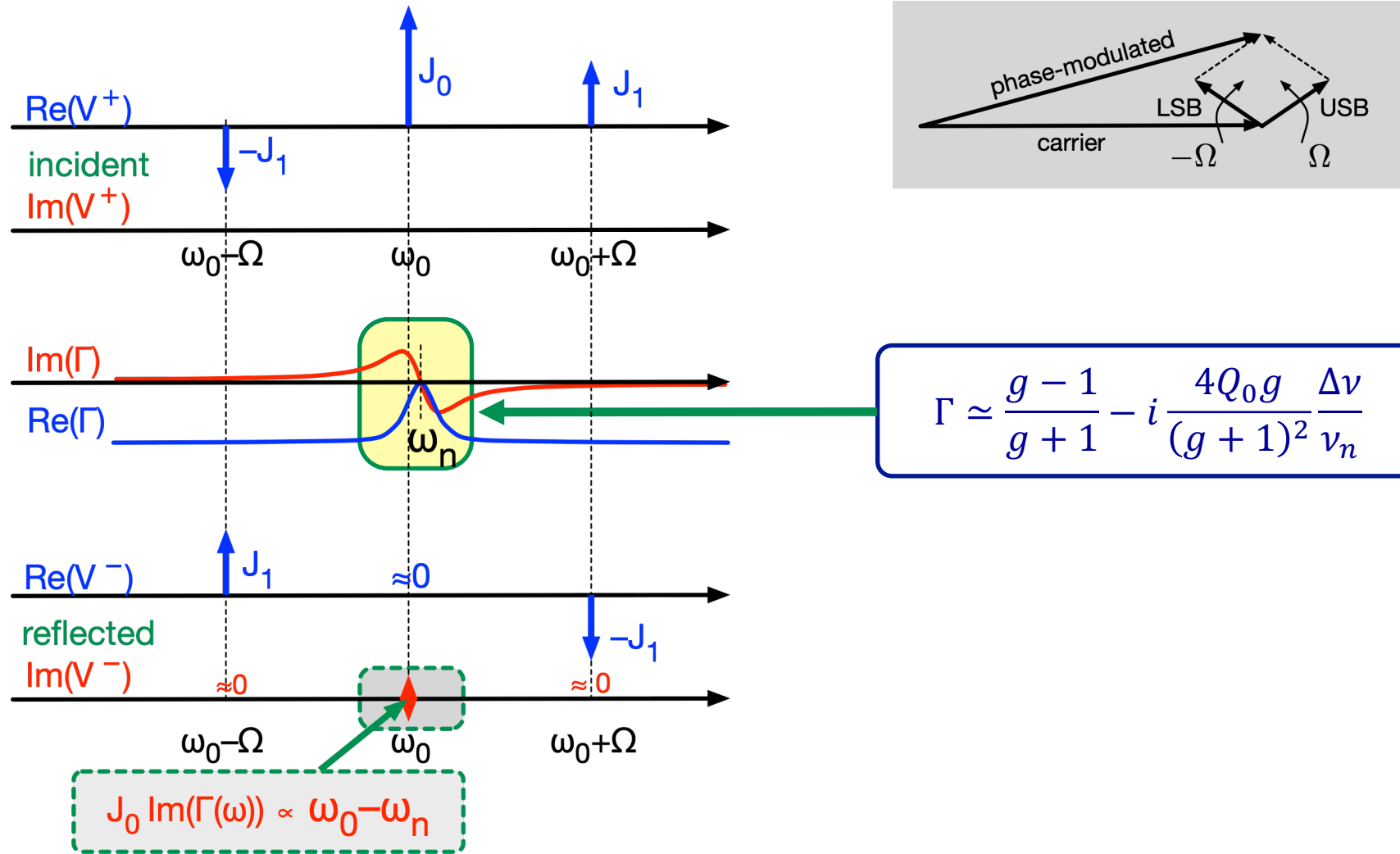
↓
frequency error
odd function

Approximations for Γ



The reflected signal – Physics

the input signal is phase-modulated



The reflected signal – Math

the input signal is phase-modulated

Incident wave

$$V^+ = V_0 \left[\underbrace{-J_1(m)e^{i(\omega-\Omega)t}}_{\text{LSB}} + \underbrace{J_0(m)e^{i\omega t}}_{\text{carrier}} + \underbrace{J_1(m)e^{i(\omega+\Omega)t}}_{\text{USB}} \right]$$

use $\Gamma(\omega \pm \Omega) \simeq -1$ and $\Gamma(\omega) \simeq \frac{g-1}{g+1} - i \frac{4Q_0}{g+1} \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_n}$

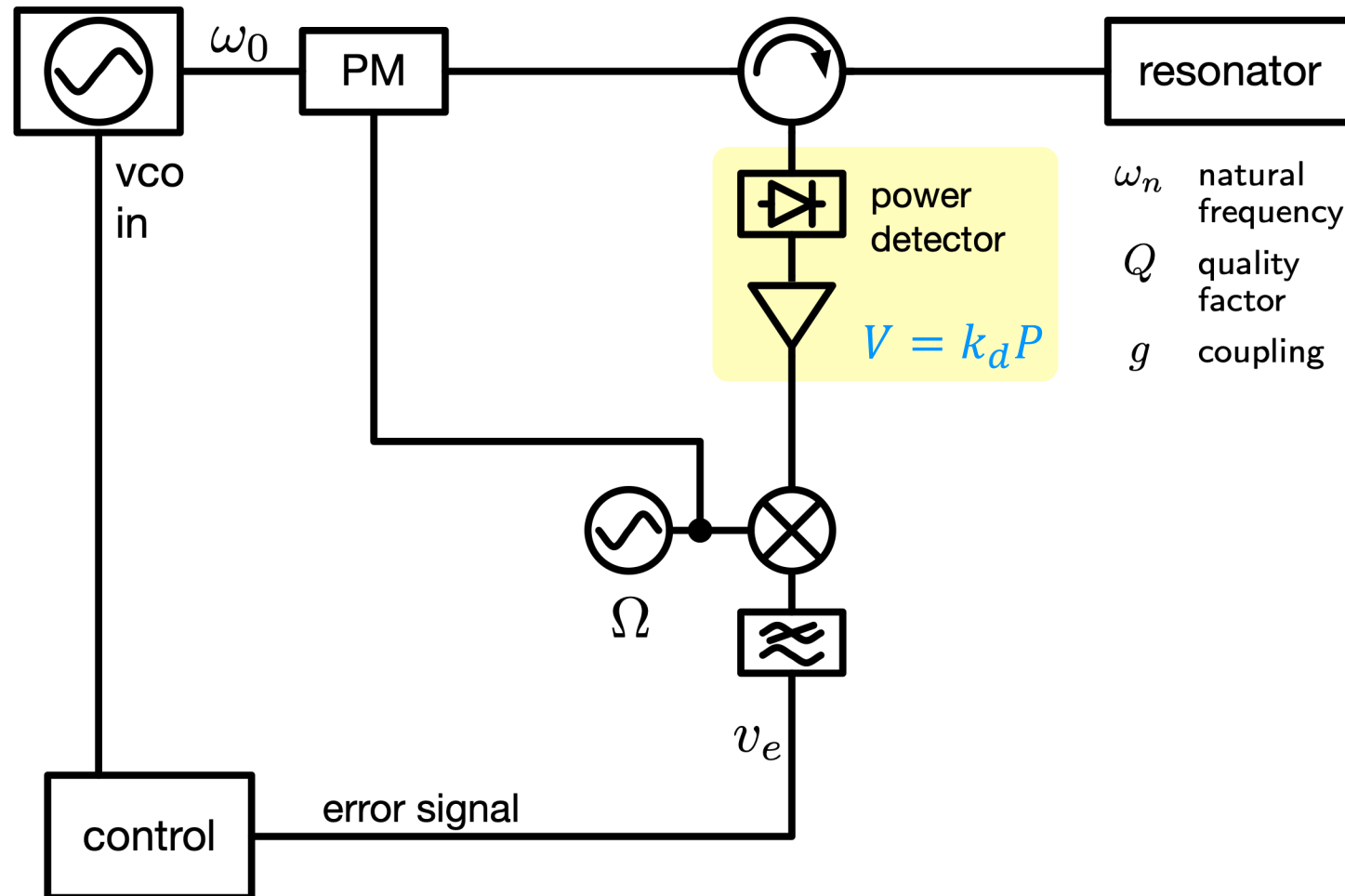
Reflected wave

$$V^- = V_0 \left\{ \underbrace{J_1(m)e^{i(\omega-\Omega)t}}_{\text{LSB}} + \underbrace{J_0(m) \left[\frac{g-1}{g+1} - i \frac{4Q_0}{g+1} \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_n} \right] e^{i\omega t}}_{\text{carrier}} - \underbrace{J_1(m)e^{i(\omega+\Omega)t}}_{\text{USB}} \right\}$$

impedance mismatch

frequency error, $\propto (\omega - \omega_n)$

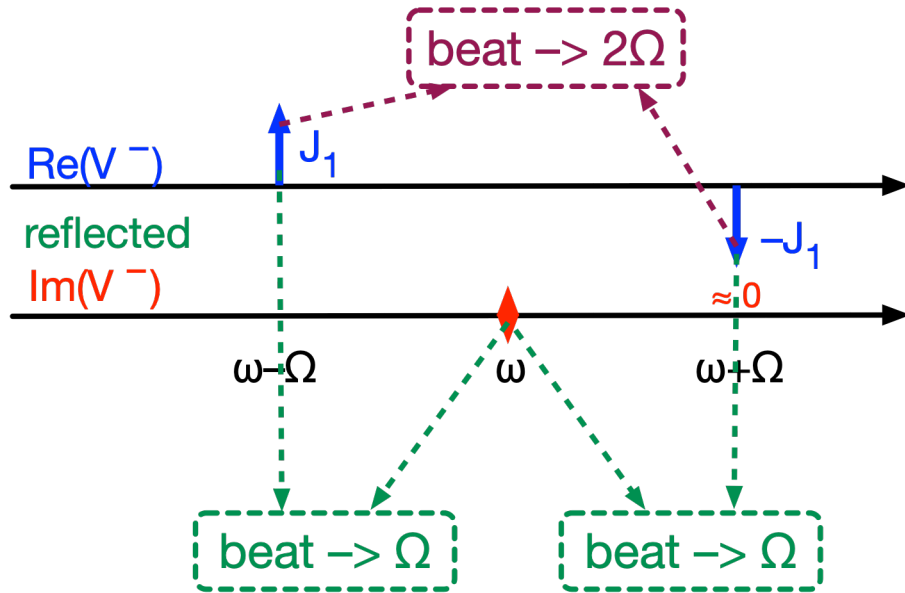
Power detector



$$\text{Power } P = \frac{1}{2} \Re\{VI^*\} = P \frac{1}{2R_0} \Re\{VV^*\}$$

V and I are peak values

Power detector



$$P = \frac{1}{2R_0} \Re\{VV^*\}$$

$$(a + b + c)^2 =$$

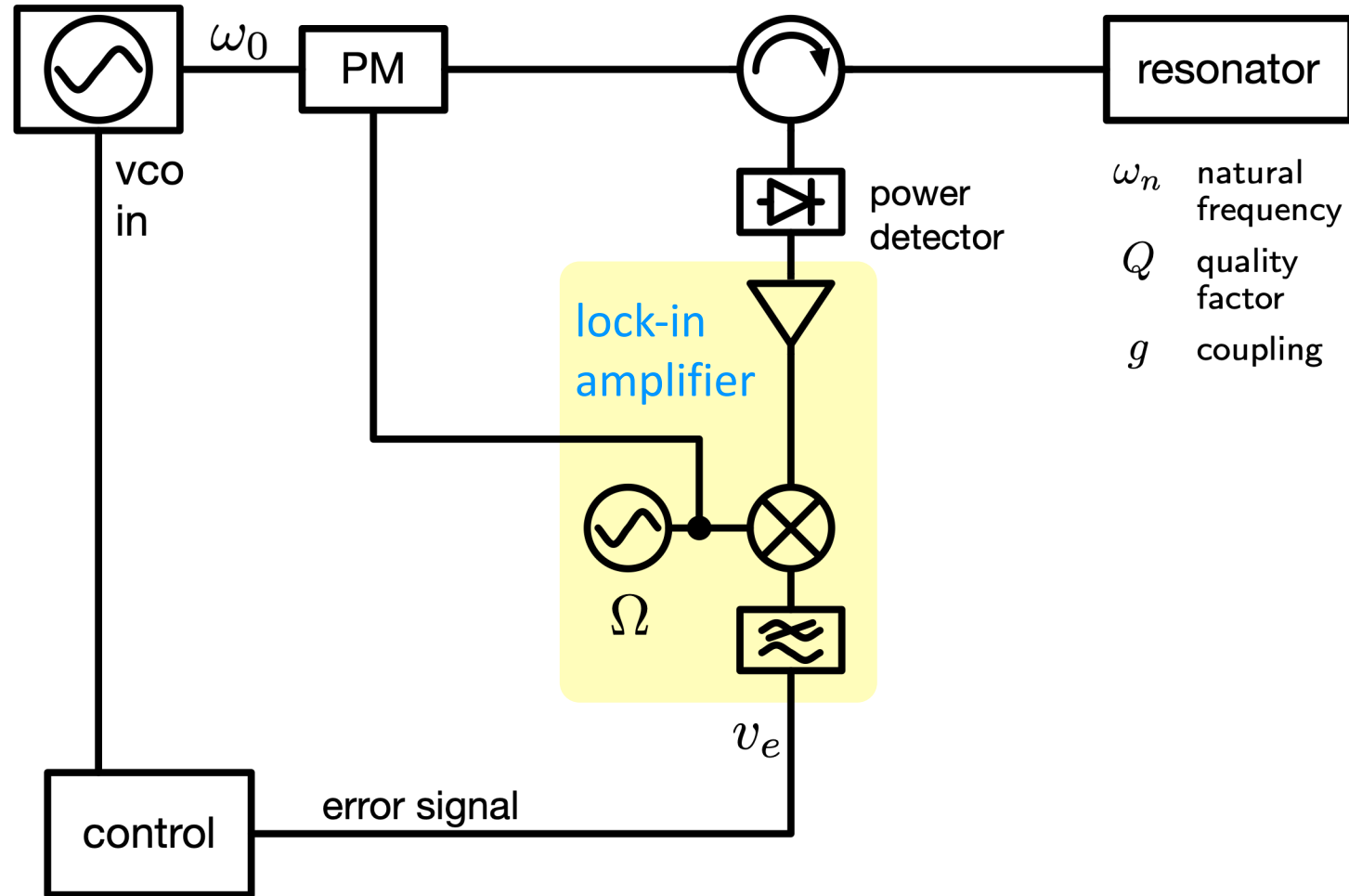
$$\frac{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}{\text{DC}} + \frac{2ab}{2\Omega} + \frac{2ac + 2bc}{\Omega}$$

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

$$-\frac{|V_0|^2}{2R_0} J_1^2(m) \cos(2\Omega t) + \frac{|V_0|^2}{2R_0} 2J_0(m)J_1(m) \frac{4Q_0}{g+1} \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_n} \sin(2\Omega t)$$

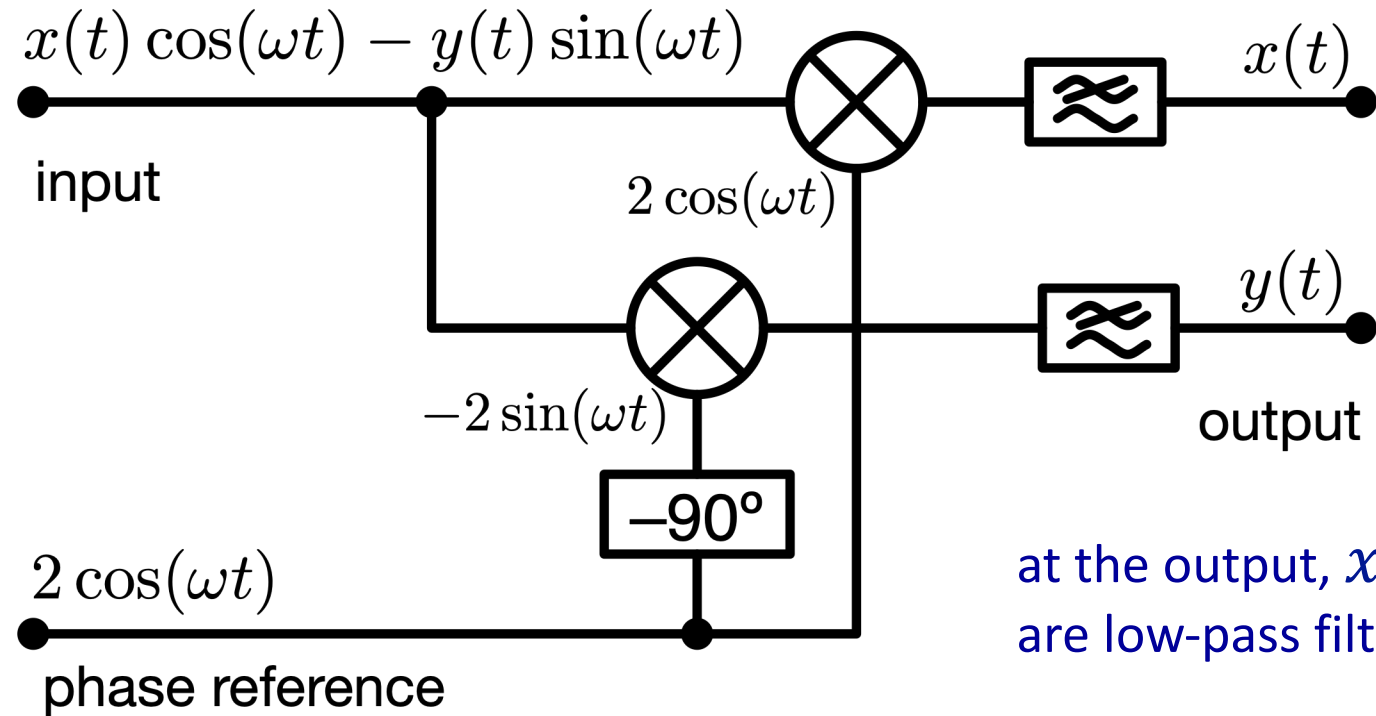
diagnostic
error signal

The lock-in amplifier



$$v_e \propto v_0 - v_n$$

The lock-in amplifier



error $\longrightarrow v_e = \frac{|V_0|^2}{2R_0} 2J_0(m)J_1(m) \frac{4Q_0}{g+1} \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_n}$

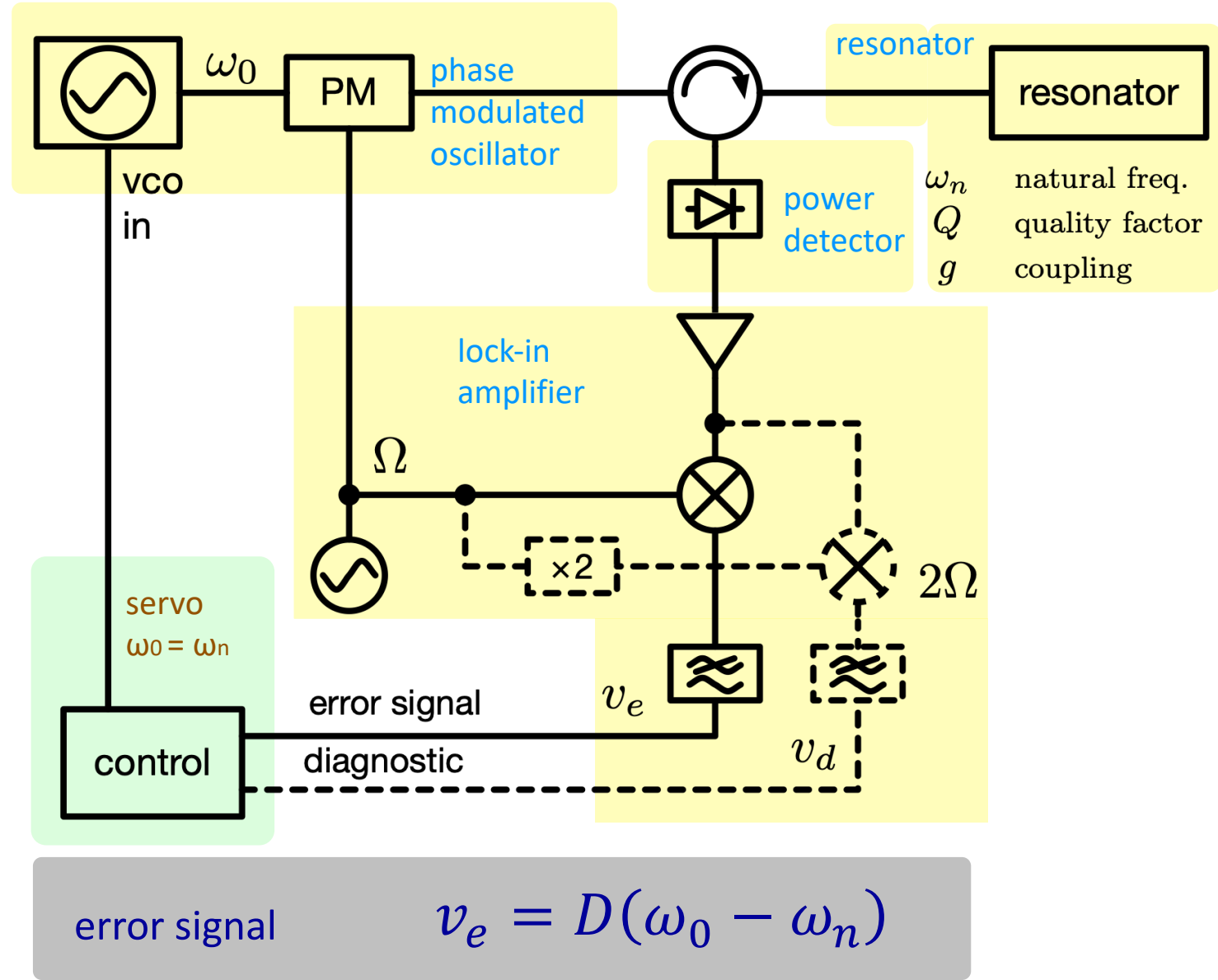
diagnostic $\longrightarrow v_d = -\frac{|V_0|^2}{2R_0} J_1^2(m)$

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

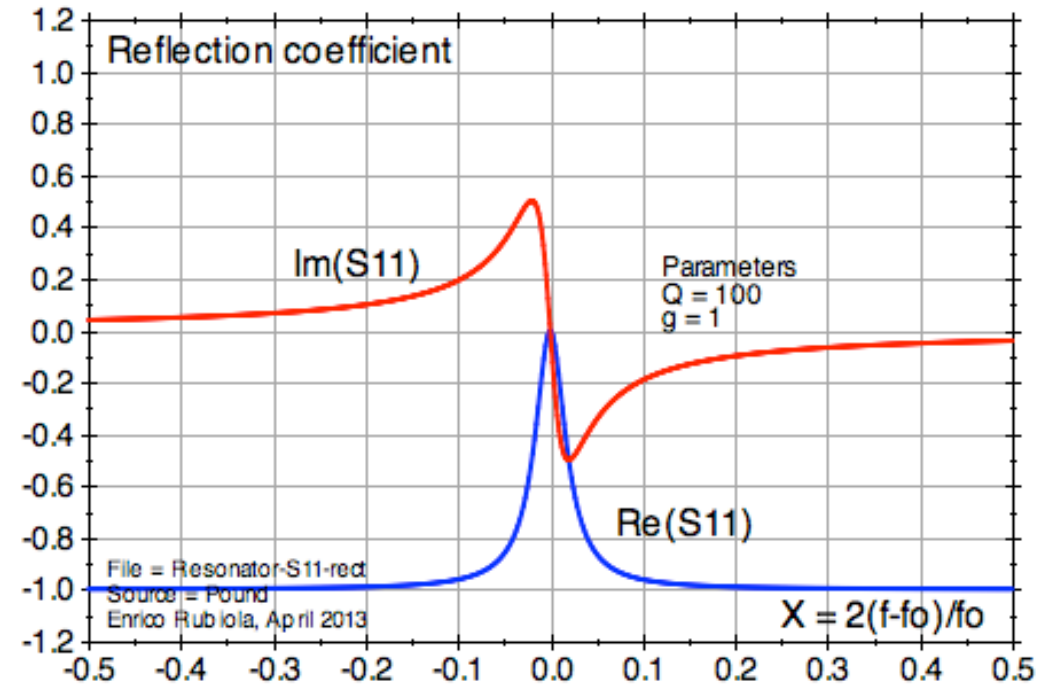
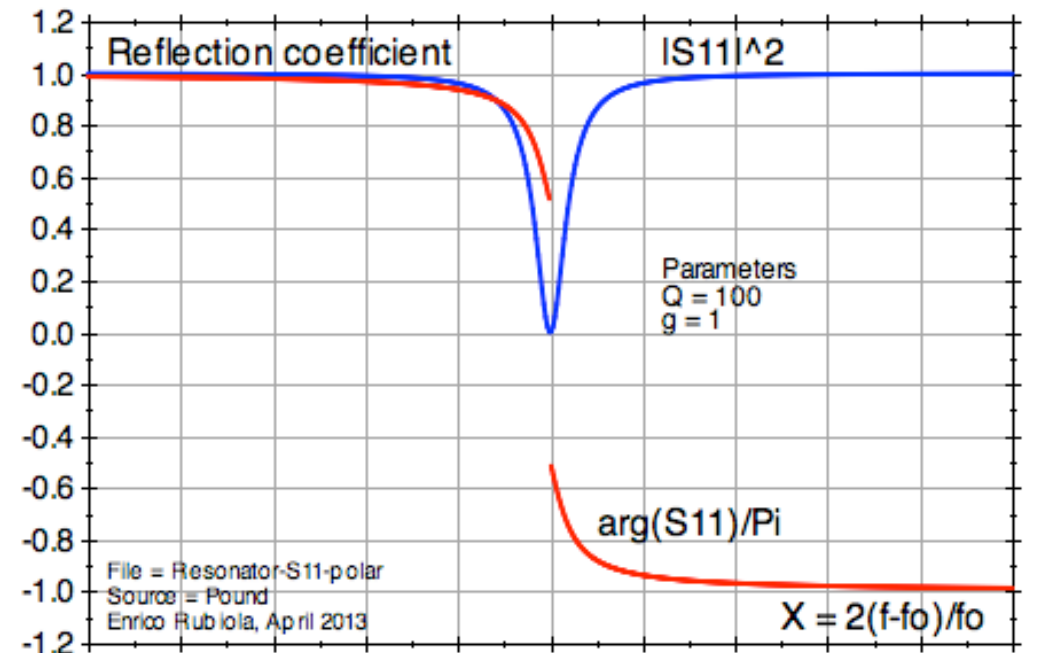
Use a power detector

- 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

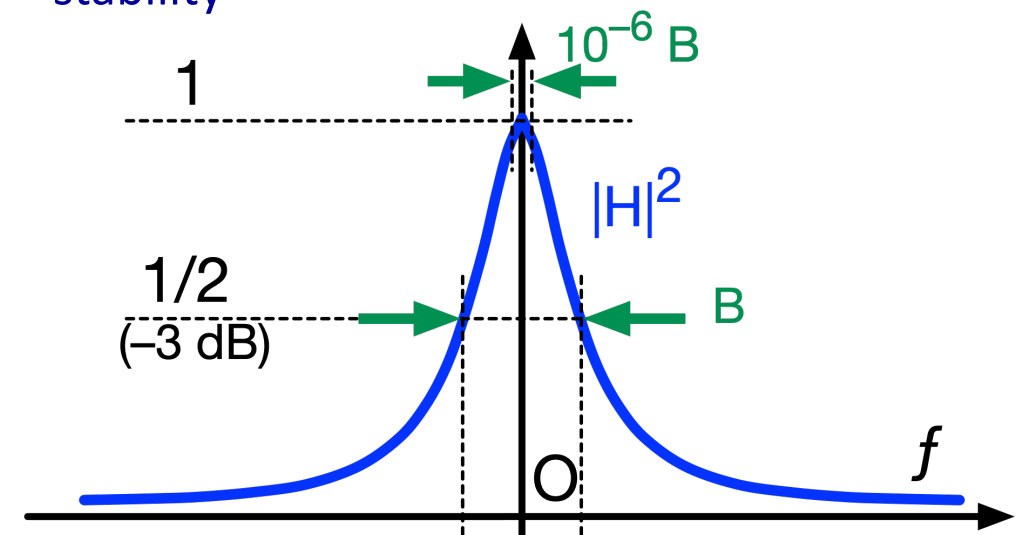
- The modulation mechanism provides a signal proportional to the imaginary part
 - Odd function at ω_0
 - Great for feedback control



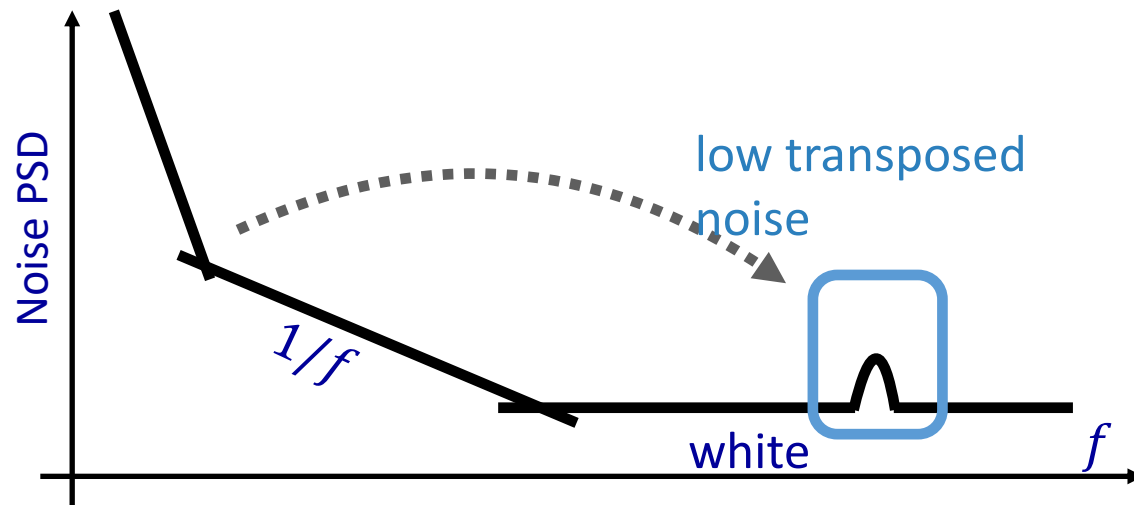
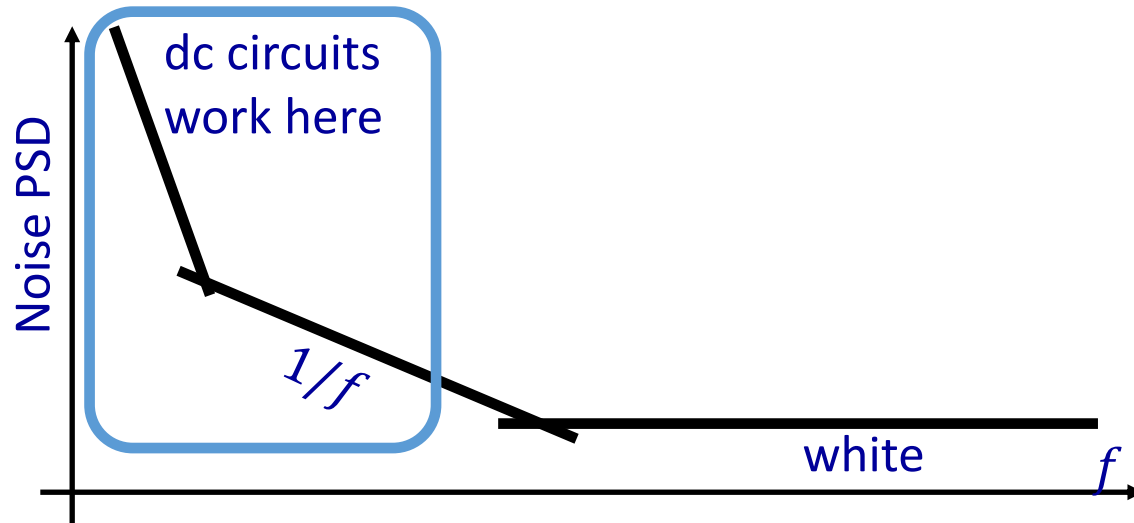
The 10^{-6} golden rule

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: $10^{-6} \times (100 \text{ Hz} / 9.2 \text{ GHz}) \approx 10^{-14}$ stability
 - Cryogenic sapphire: $10^{-6} \times (10 \text{ Hz} / 10 \text{ GHz}) \approx 10^{-15}$ stability
- In optics, the 10^{-6} rule yields still unachieved stability
 - Optical FP: $10^{-6} \times (10 \text{ kHz} / 200 \text{ THz}) \approx 5 \times 10^{-19}$ 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 $q_2 - q_1$. However similar, this is not our case!

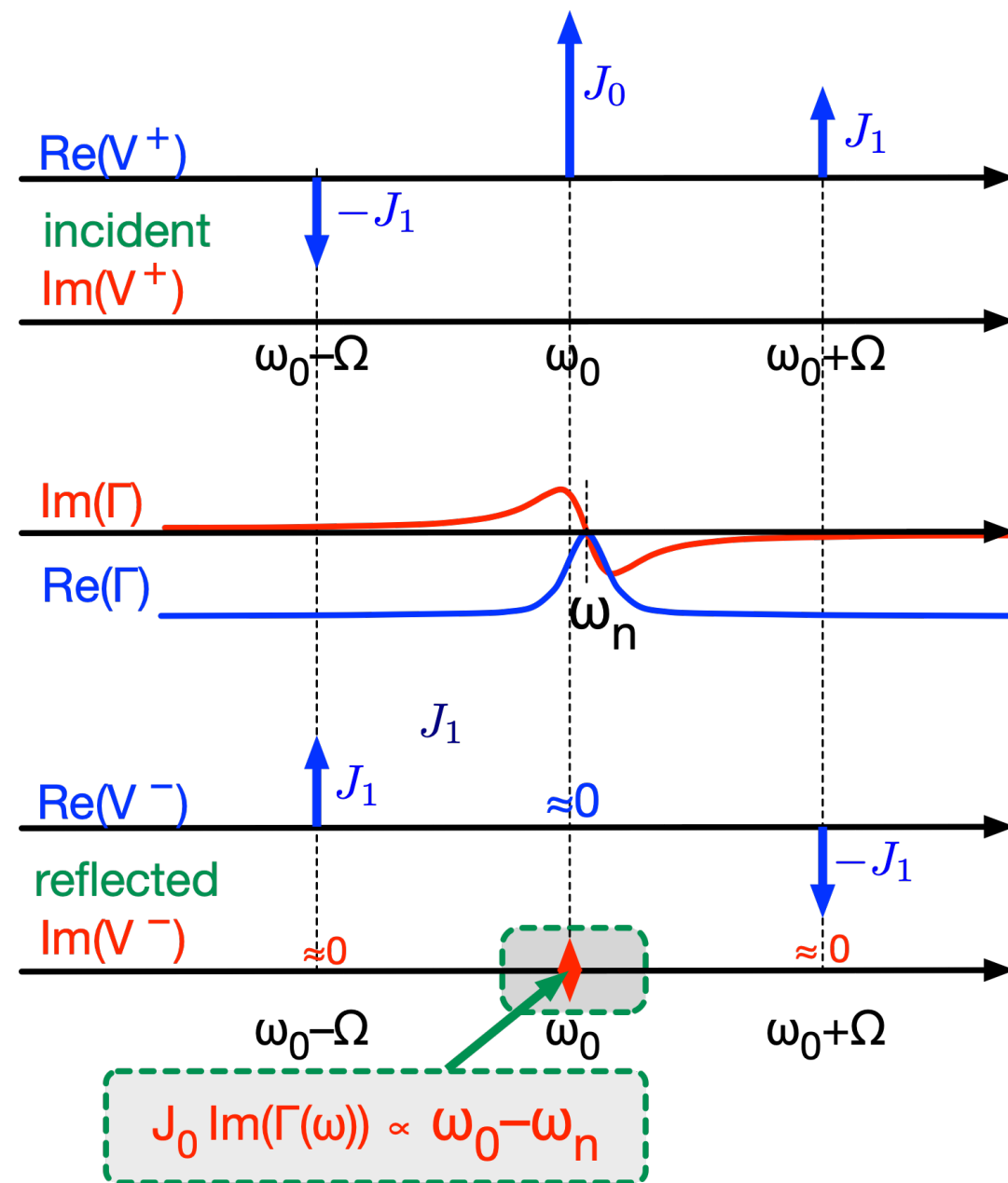


Null measurements rely on the measurement of a quantity as close as possible to zero – ideally zero.

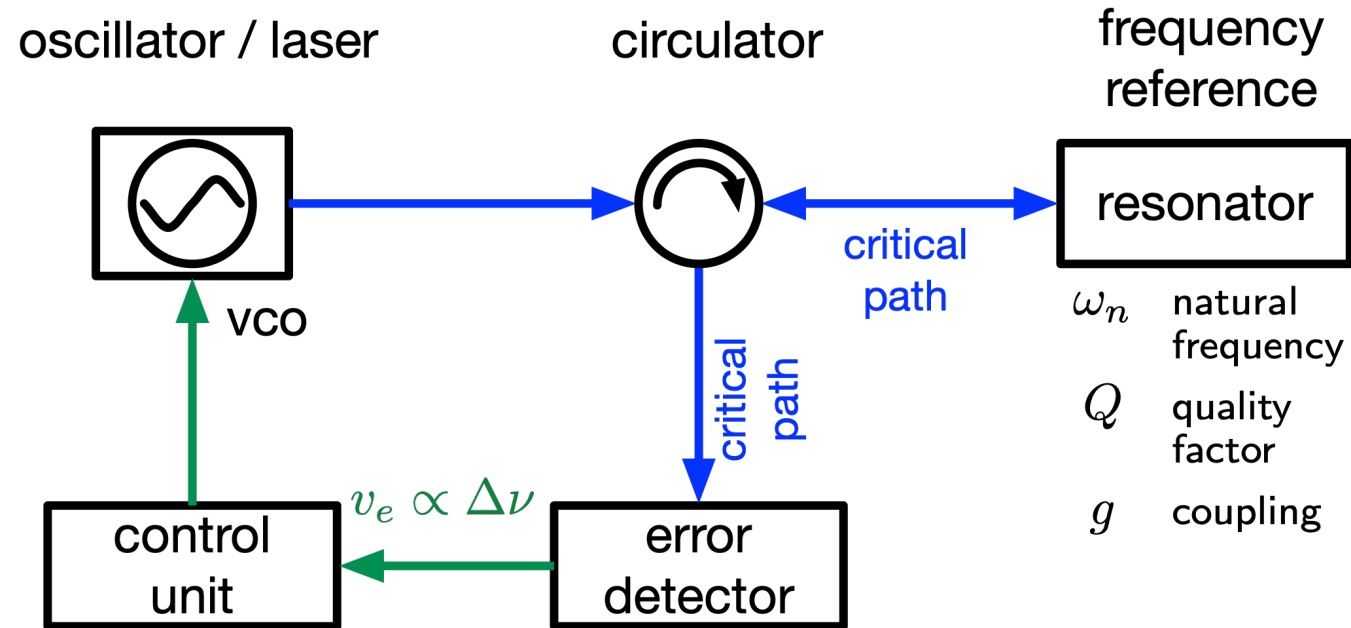


The Pound scheme detects

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



In insensitive to the critical path



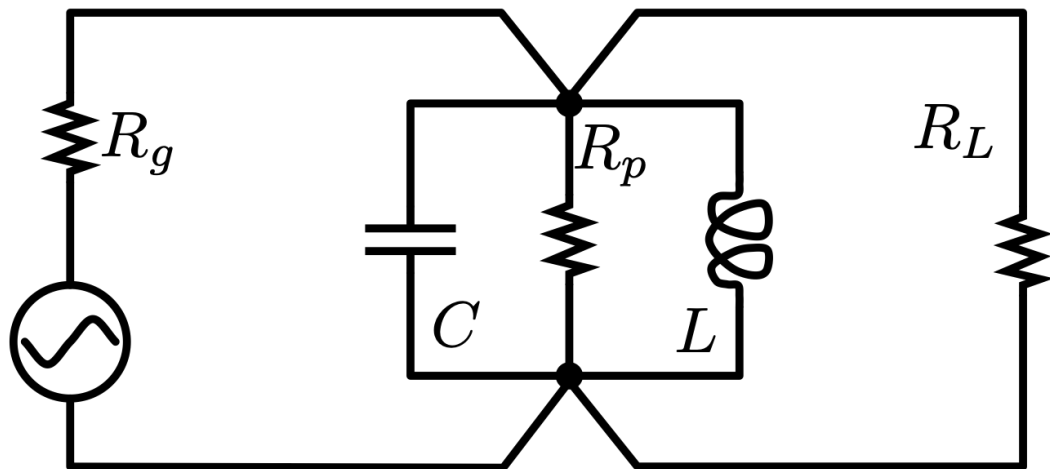
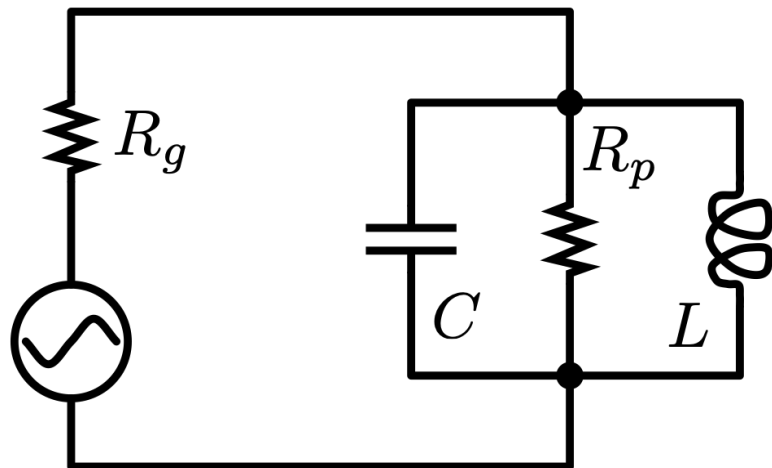
A length fluctuation does not affect

- 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

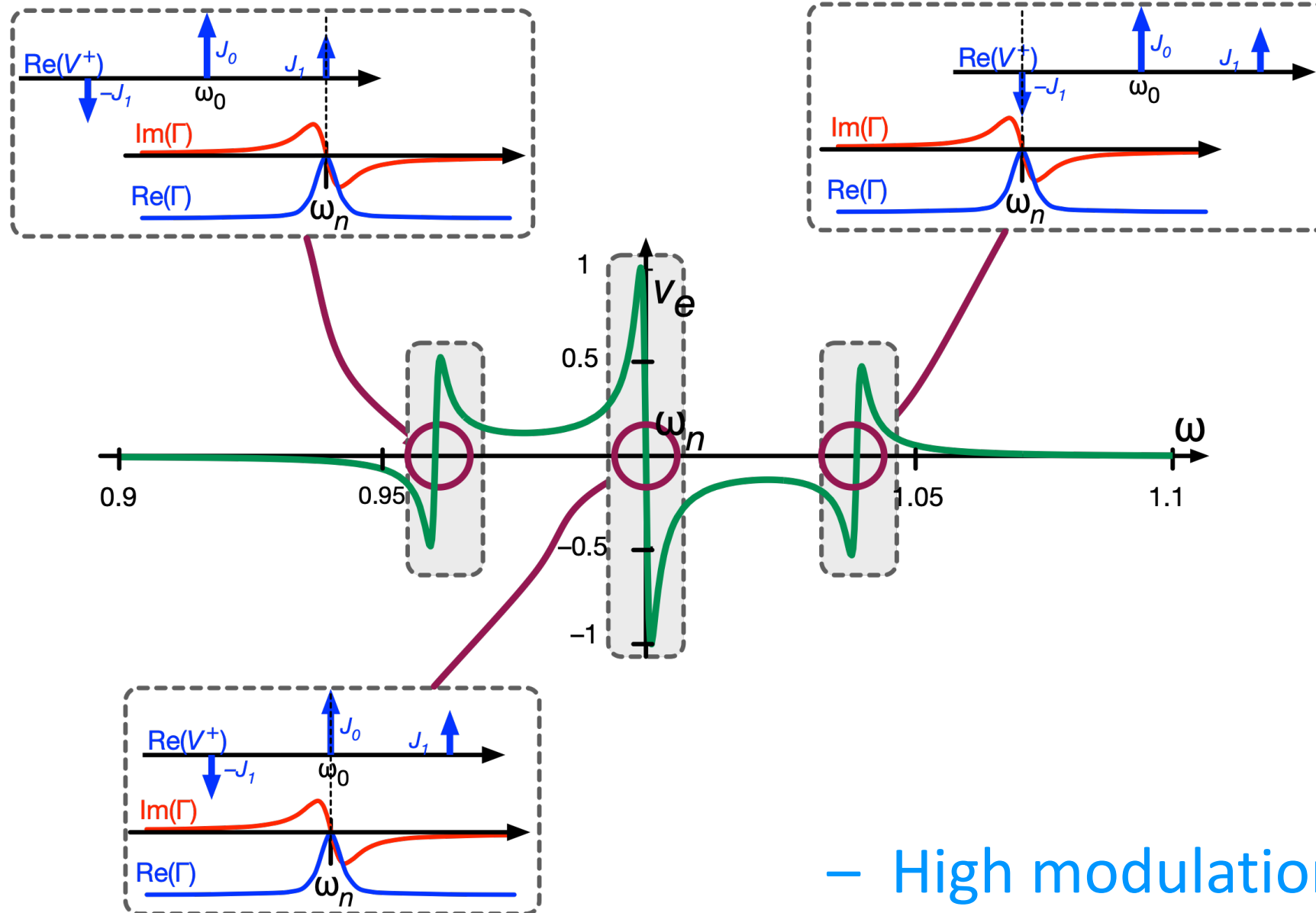
Control Loop

Featured book

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

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

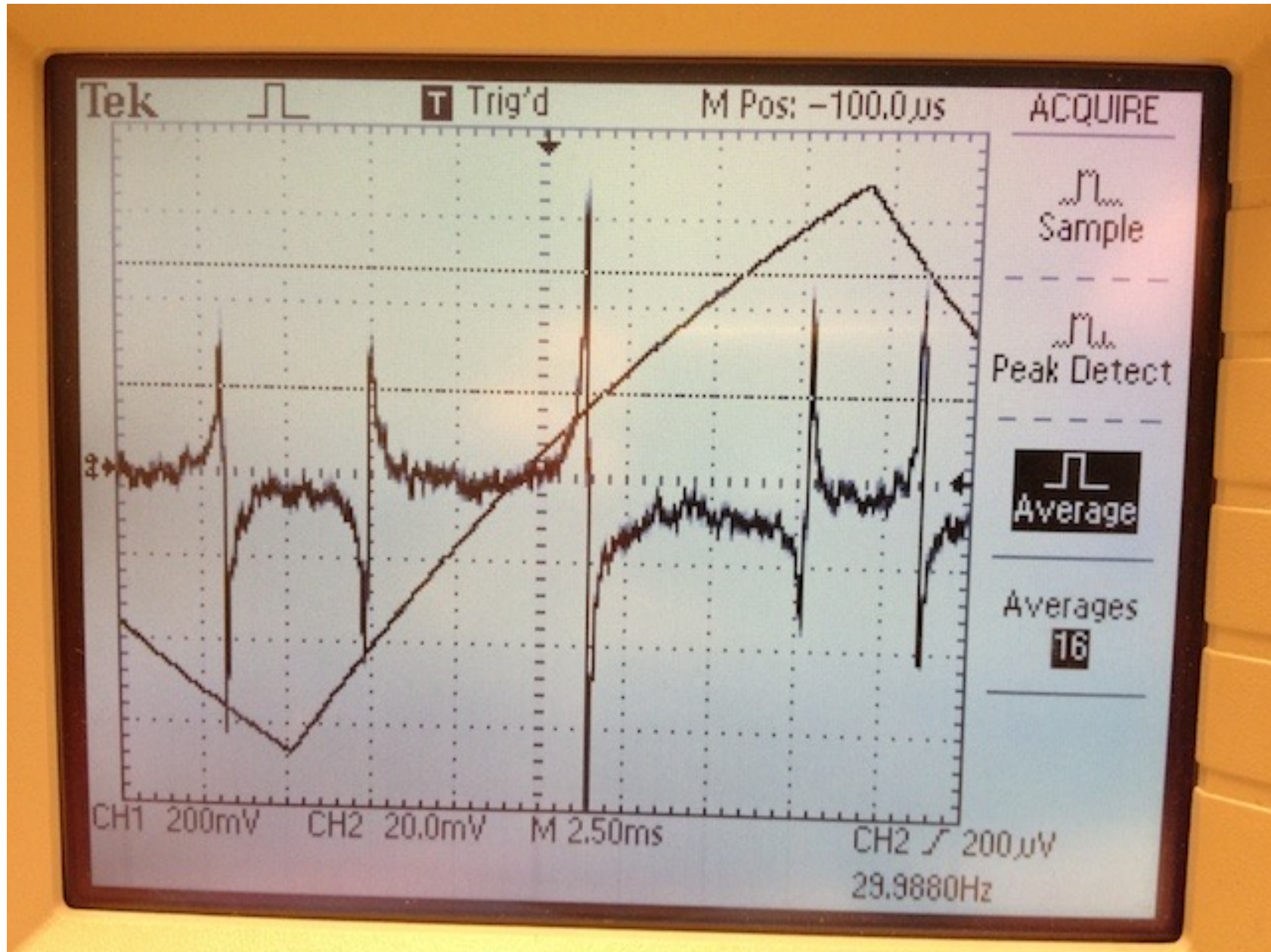
Sweep the oscillator frequency



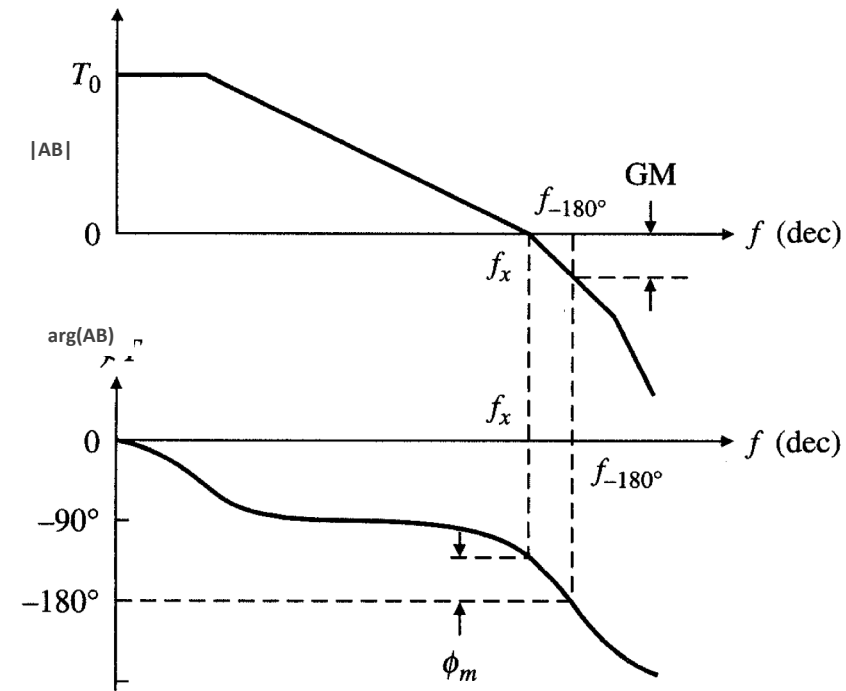
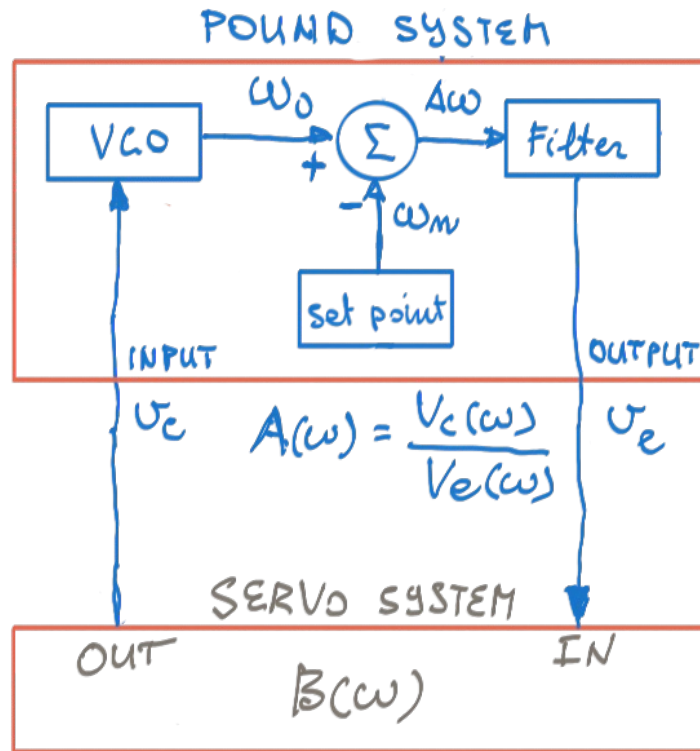
– High modulation frequency –

Sweep the oscillator frequency

Courtesy of Alexandre Didier, FEMTO-ST Institute



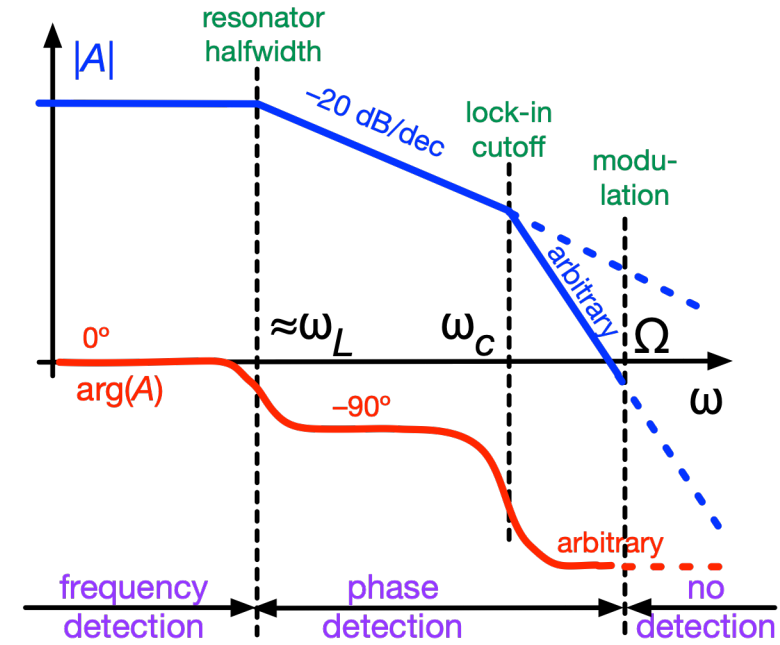
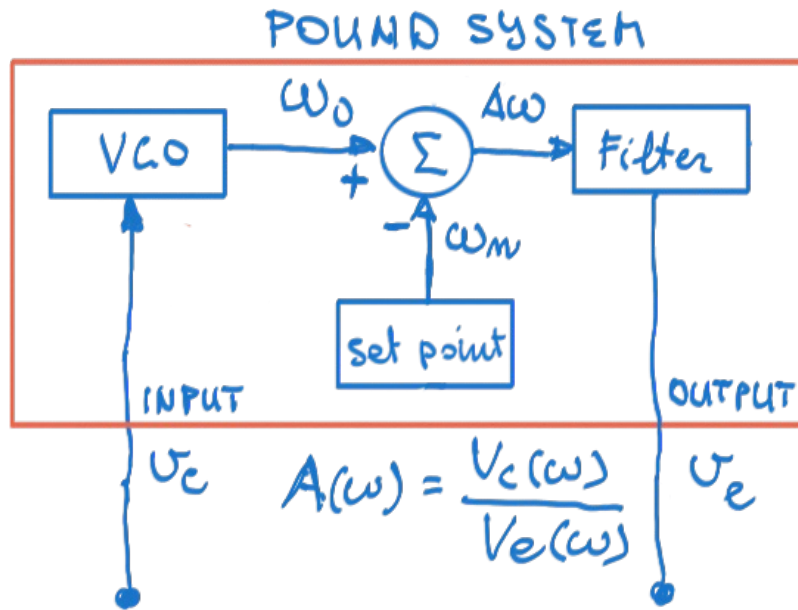
Control loop



Franco S, Design with operational amplifier and analog integrated circuits 2ed, McGraw Hill 1998 – Fig.8.1.

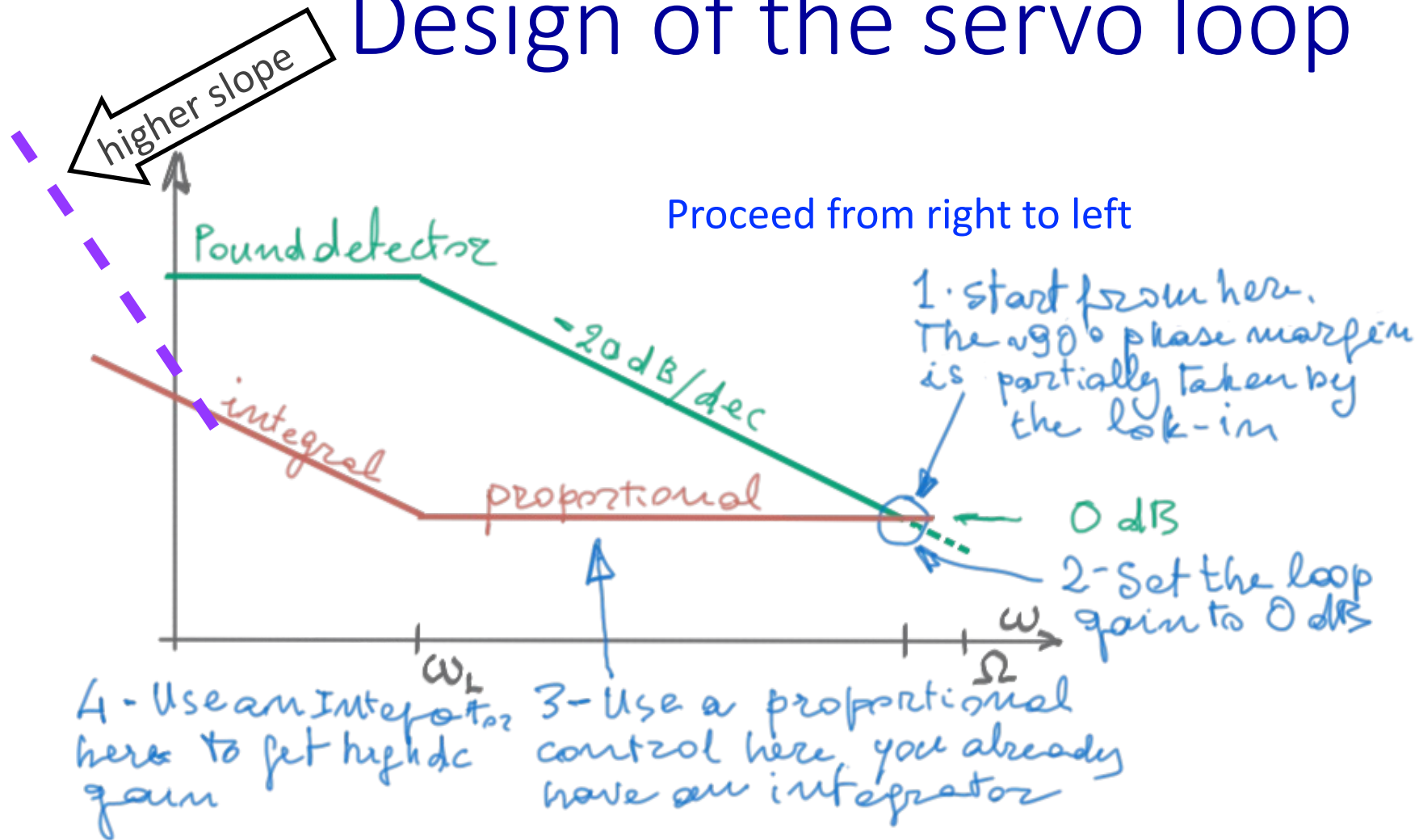
- The control loop must be stable
 - $|AB| < 1$ at the critical frequency where $\arg(AB) = \pi$
 - In practice, $\geq \pi/4$ (45°) phase margin is needed
- Higher dc gain provides higher accuracy

Transfer function



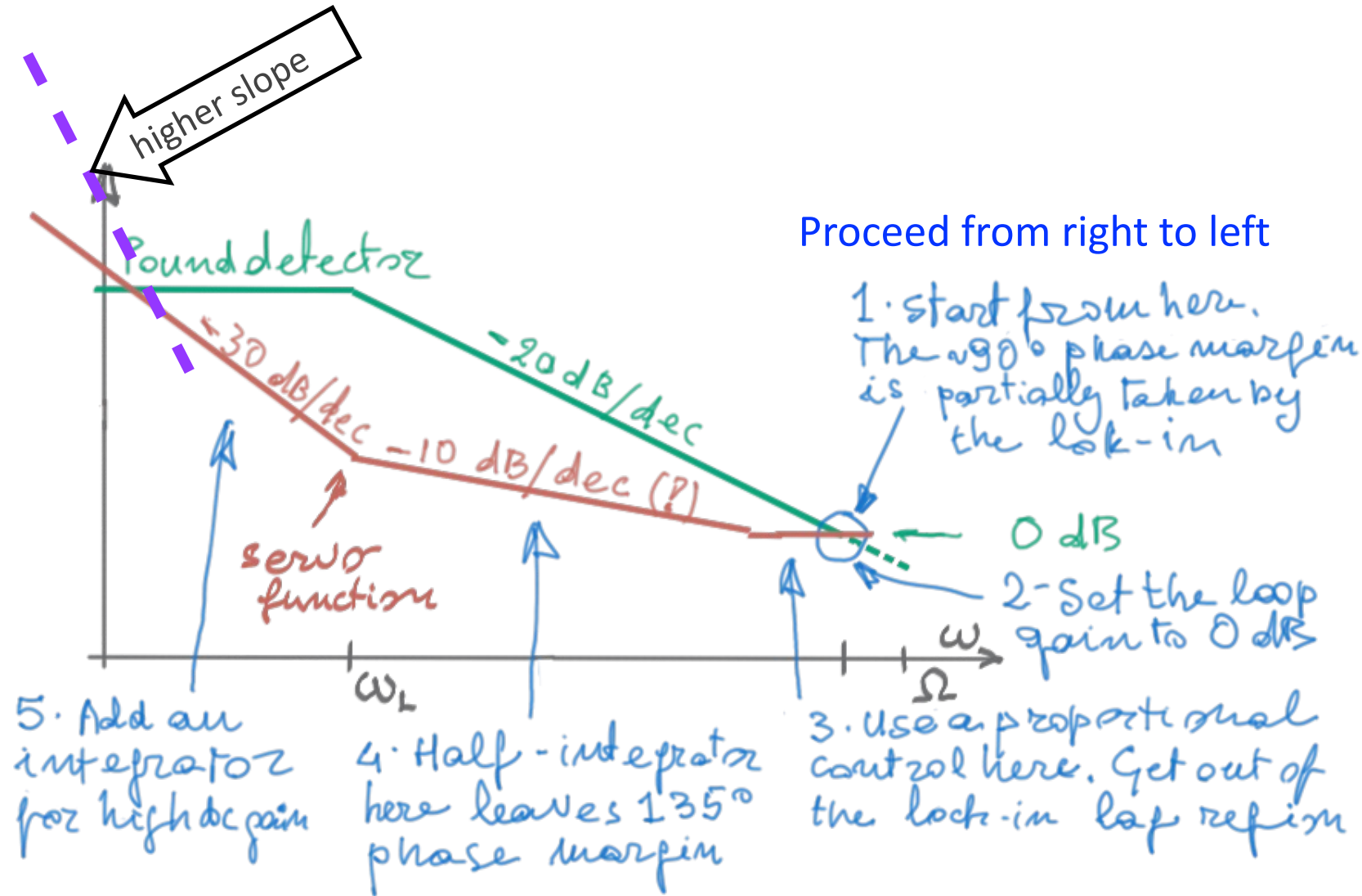
- Quasi-static operation at $\omega < \omega_L$ (resonator half-width)
 - Oscillator frequency-noise detection (as discussed)
- At $\omega > \omega_L$, the resonator reflects the noise sidebands
 - Oscillator phase-noise detection at $\omega_L < \omega < \Omega$ (integrator)
 - The internal lock-in filter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

Design of the servo loop



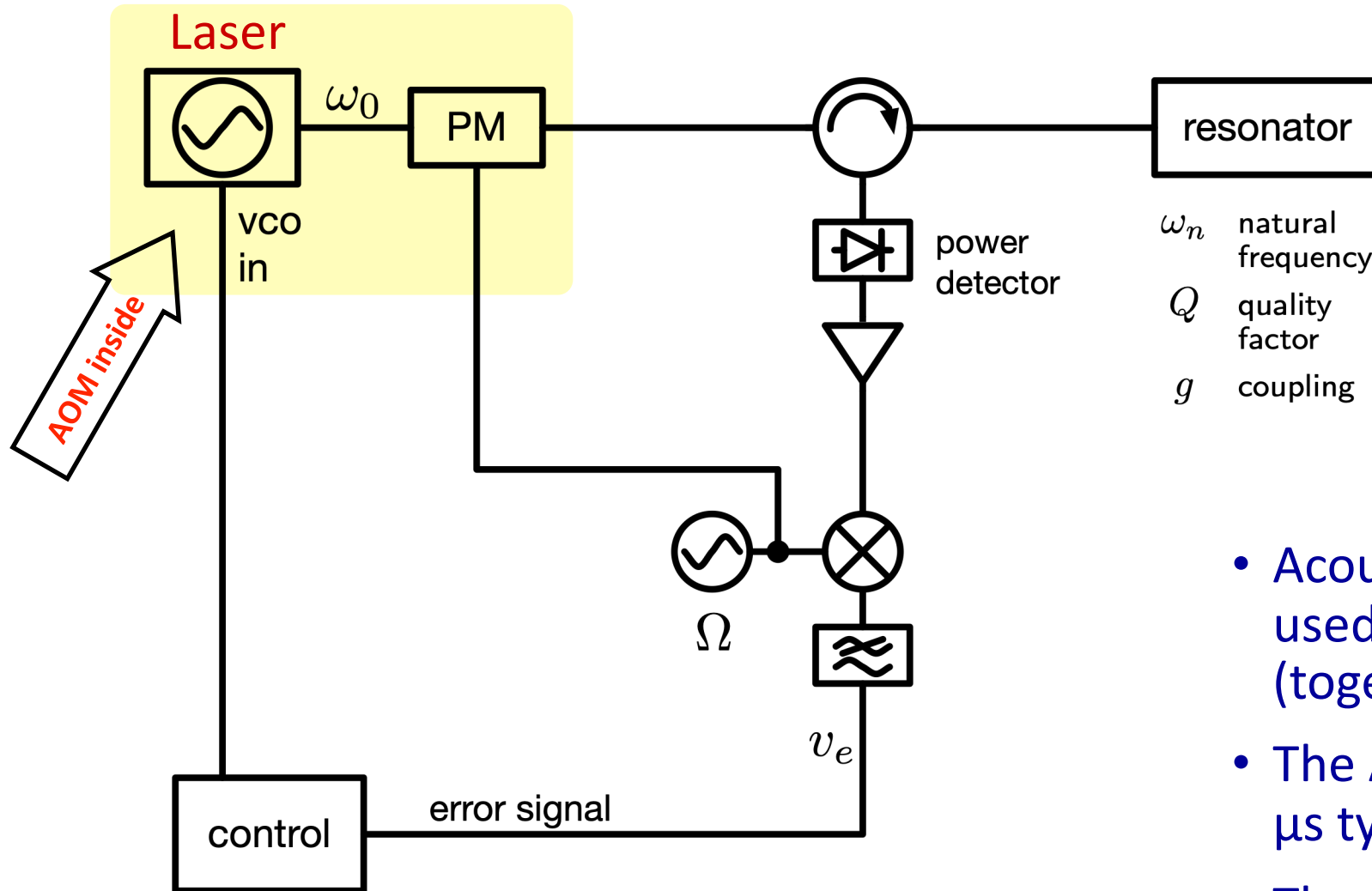
- Start from Ω (or ω_c) and go leftwards
- Set phase margin $\approx \pi/4$ (45°)
- Design the transfer function

Fractional-order servo loop



- Resonator -20 dB/decade $\rightarrow 90^\circ$ phase lag
- Half integrator 10 dB/decade $\rightarrow 45^\circ$ phase lag
- 45° phase margin (to 180°), independent of gain

Delay of the Acousto-Optic Modulator



ω_n natural frequency
 Q quality factor
 g coupling

— Warning —

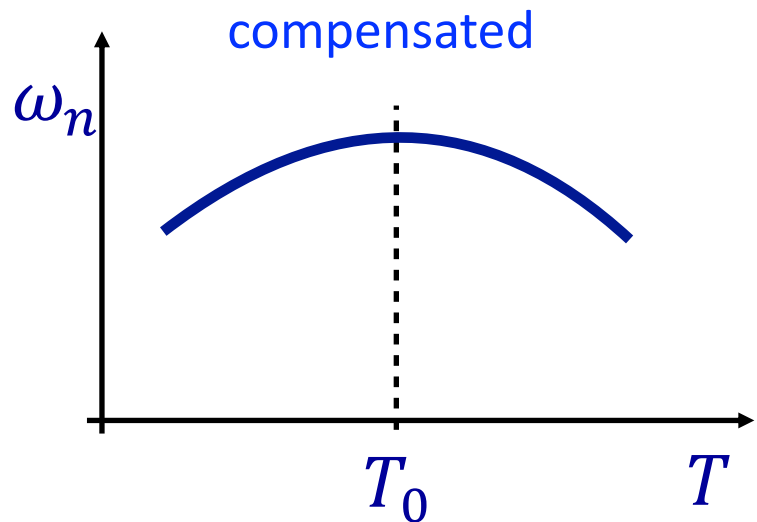
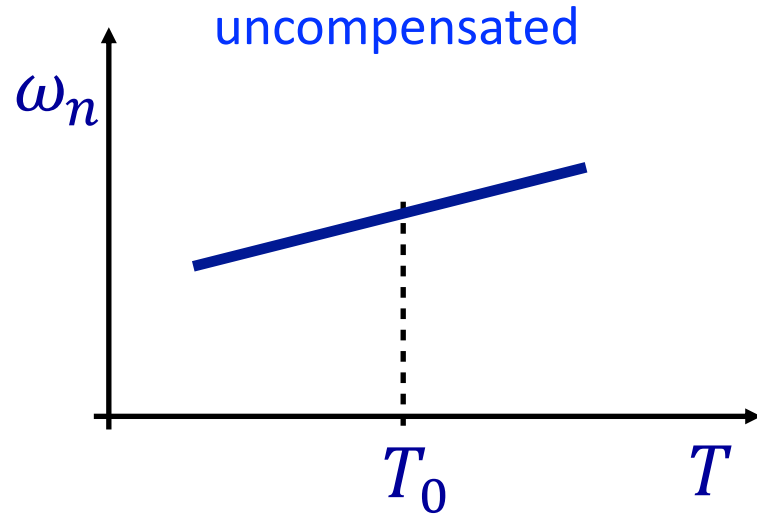
- Acousto-optic modulators are often used to control the laser frequency (together with piezo modulators)
- The AOM introduces a **delay** – a few μs typical
- The delay limits the maximum speed of the control

Resonator Stability

The oscillator stability cannot be better than that of the resonator

Beware of temperature, flicker and drift

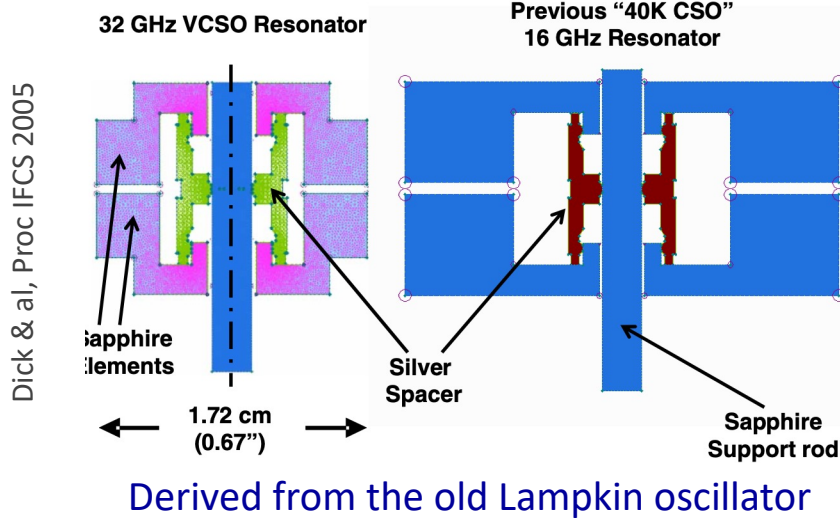
Temperature compensation



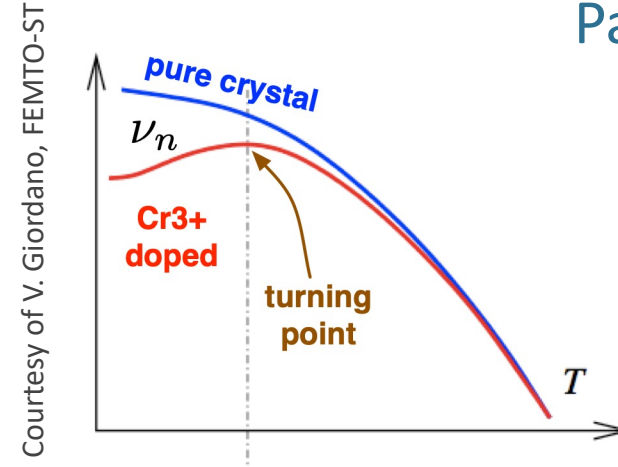
- Most solids (room temperature)
 - dielectric permittivity ϵ has coefficient of 5–100 ppm/K
 - length has coefficient of 5–25 ppm/K
- Temperature stability < 10–100 μK challenging / impossible
- A turning point is mandatory for high stability

Thermal compensation – Examples

Thermo-mechanical

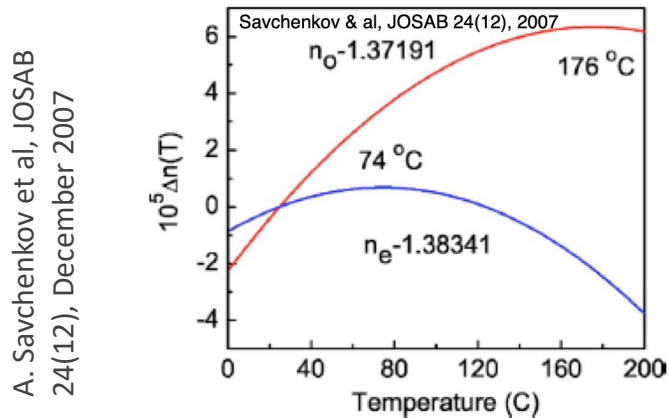


Paramagnetic



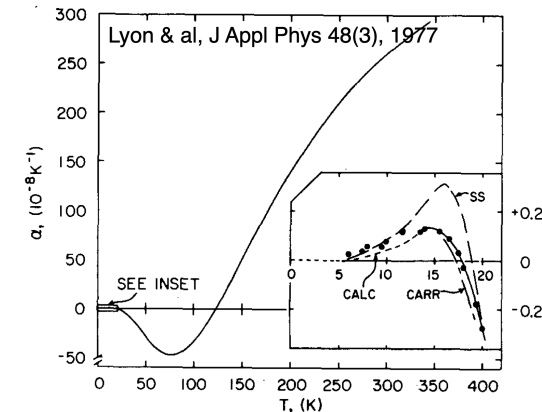
Sapphire Cr3+ impurities @ 6K (V.Giordano / M.Tobar)
 Also rutile/sapphire compound @ 80 K (V.Giordano)

Natural – Refraction index



MgF2 whispering gallery (A. Savchenkov)

Natural – Thermal expansion



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

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

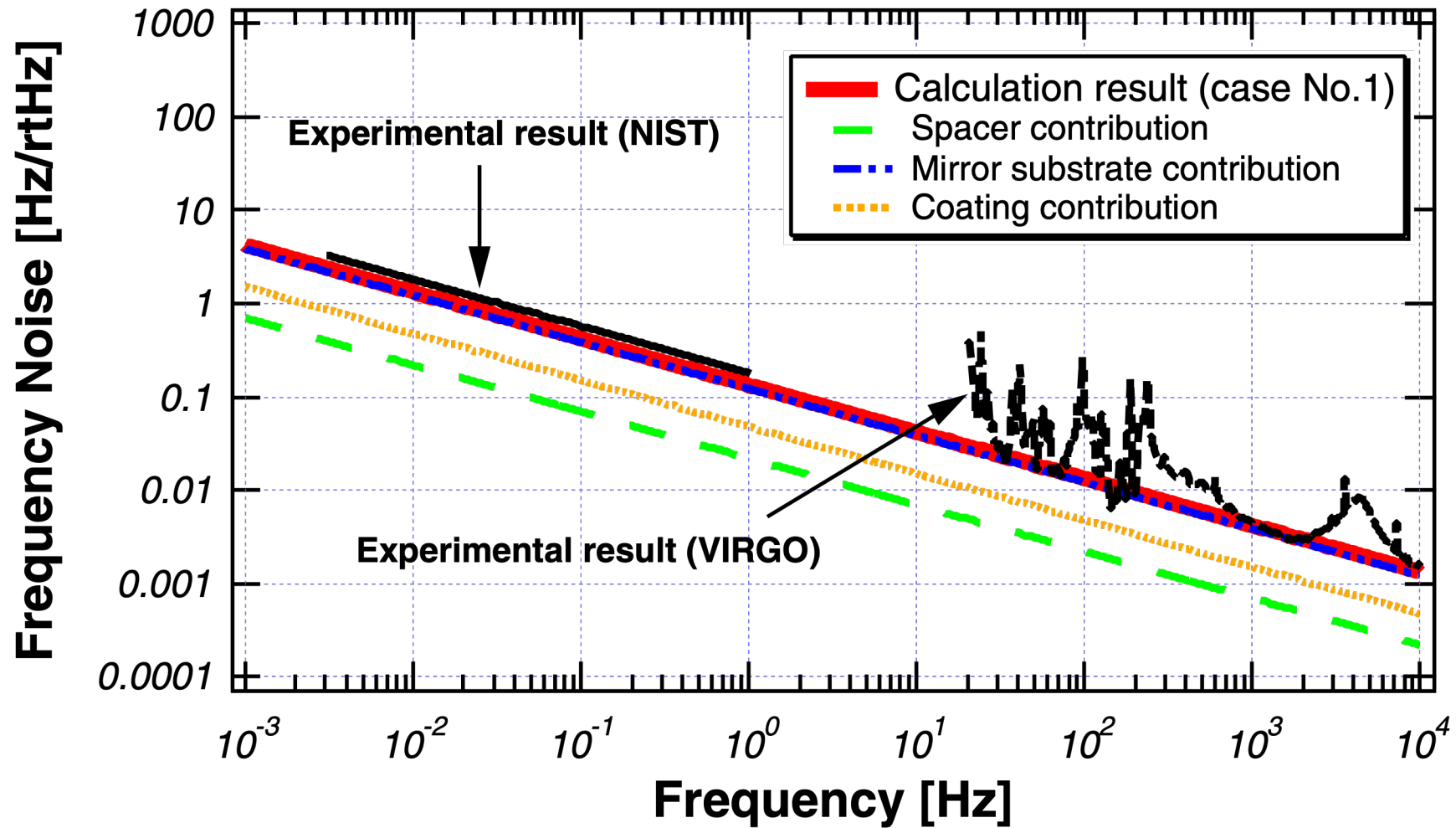
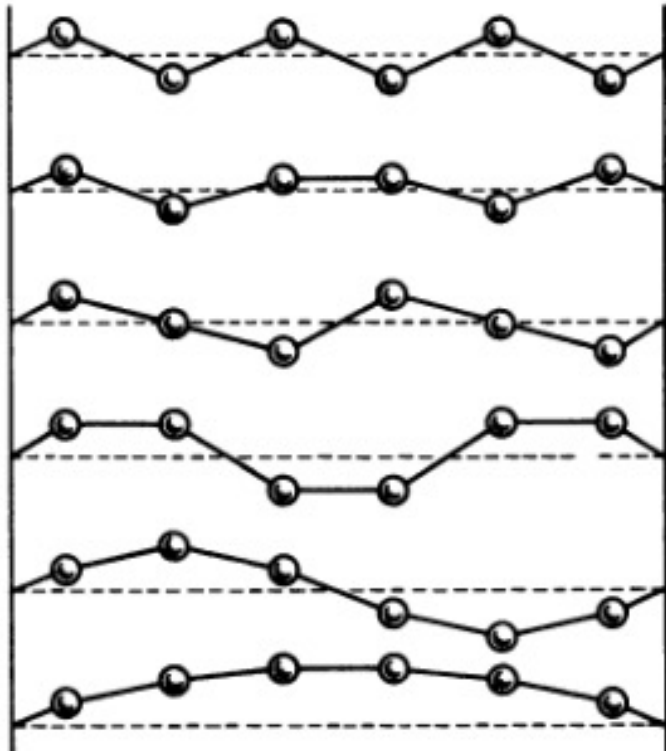


Figure from: Numata K, Kemery A, Camp J, Thermal-noise limit in the frequency stabilization of lasers with rigid cavities, PRL 93(25) 250602, Dec 2004

$1/f$ noise and the FD theorem

Debye-Einstein theory for heat capacity

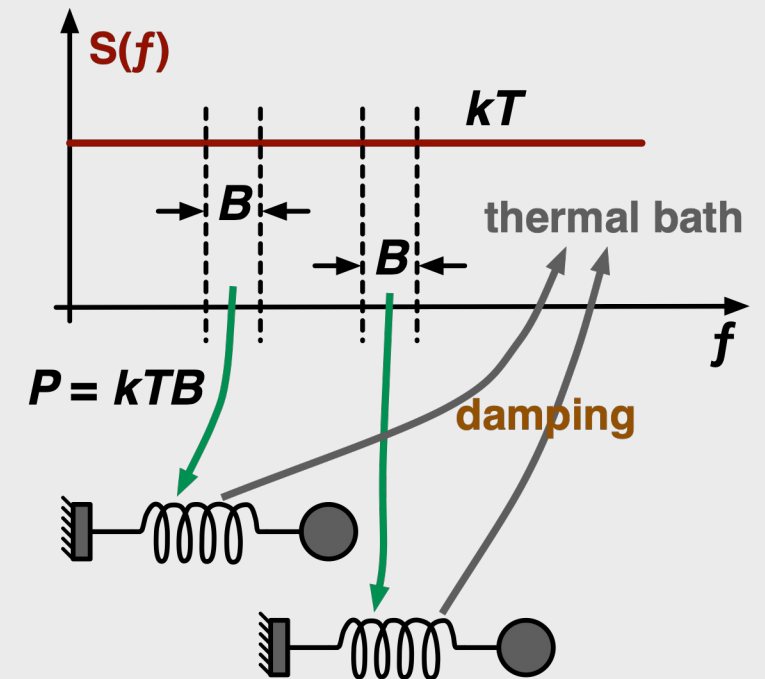
A. Holden A, The nature of solids, Dover 1965



A single theory explains

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

Fluctuation Dissipation



Thermal equilibrium applies to all parts of spectrum

$1/f$ noise and structural damping

$$\ddot{x} + 2\zeta\omega_n\dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = 0 \quad \text{homogeneous}$$

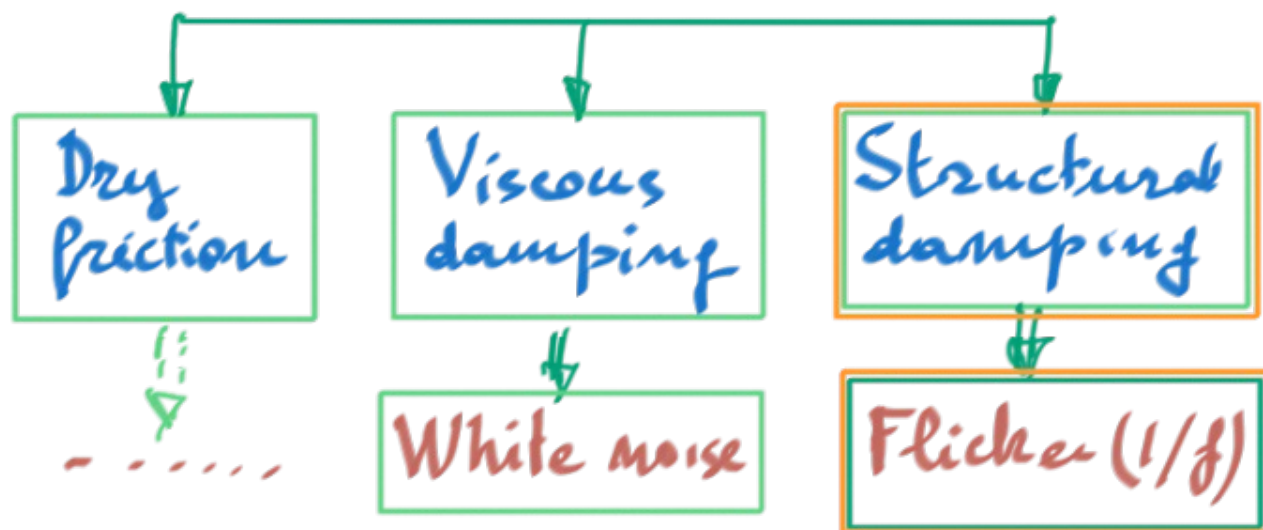
dry friction
 $F = -c \operatorname{sgn}(\dot{x})$

viscous
 $F = -H\dot{x}$

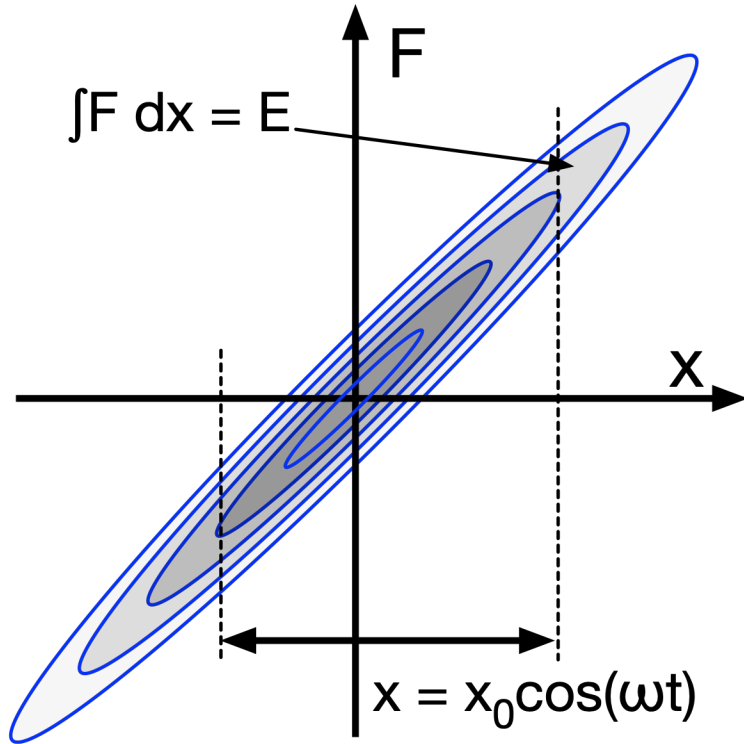
Structural dissipation
 \approx in-phase with x

Thermal $1/f$ noise

$\ddot{x} + 2\zeta\omega_m \dot{x} + \omega_m^2 x = 0$		general
$\ddot{x} + \frac{H}{m} \dot{x} + \frac{K}{m} x = 0$		(mechanics)
$Q = \frac{1}{2\zeta}$	quality factor	$\tau = \frac{2Q}{\omega_m} = \frac{1}{\zeta\omega_m}$
		relaxation 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

$E \propto x_0^2$ lost energy in a cycle

Thermal equilibrium

$P = kT$ in 1 Hz BW

$P \propto kT x_0^2$

$x_0^2 \propto 1/f \rightarrow$ 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} m^3 ($1 \text{ cm}^2 \times 100 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$)
- Mass of 25 mg ($\approx 2.5 \text{ kg/dm}^3$)
- $N \approx 7.5 \times 10^{17}$ atoms
(quartz $^{28}\text{Si}^{16}\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \langle A \rangle = 20$)
- Drift $D = 10^{-15} / \text{s}$ (i.e., $10^{-10}/\text{day}$, or 10^{-6} in 30 years)
- $P = 10 \text{ }\mu\text{W}$ RF power
- Melting point $1670 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (1943 K)
 $kT = 2.68 \times 10^{-20} \text{ J} = 167 \text{ meV}$

The number of bonds of energy E broken in 1 s by structural damping is

$$n = P/E$$

Taking $E = 2.7 \times 10^{-20} \text{ J}$ (167 meV)

$$n \approx 3.7 \times 10^{14} \text{ bonds / s}$$

$$n/f \approx 3.7 \times 10^{14} / 5 \times 10^6 = 7.5 \times 10^6 \text{ bonds/cycle}$$

If the bonds are not repaired, the crystal is “atomized” after

$$T = N/n \approx 2 \times 10^3 \text{ s} \quad (34 \text{ M})$$

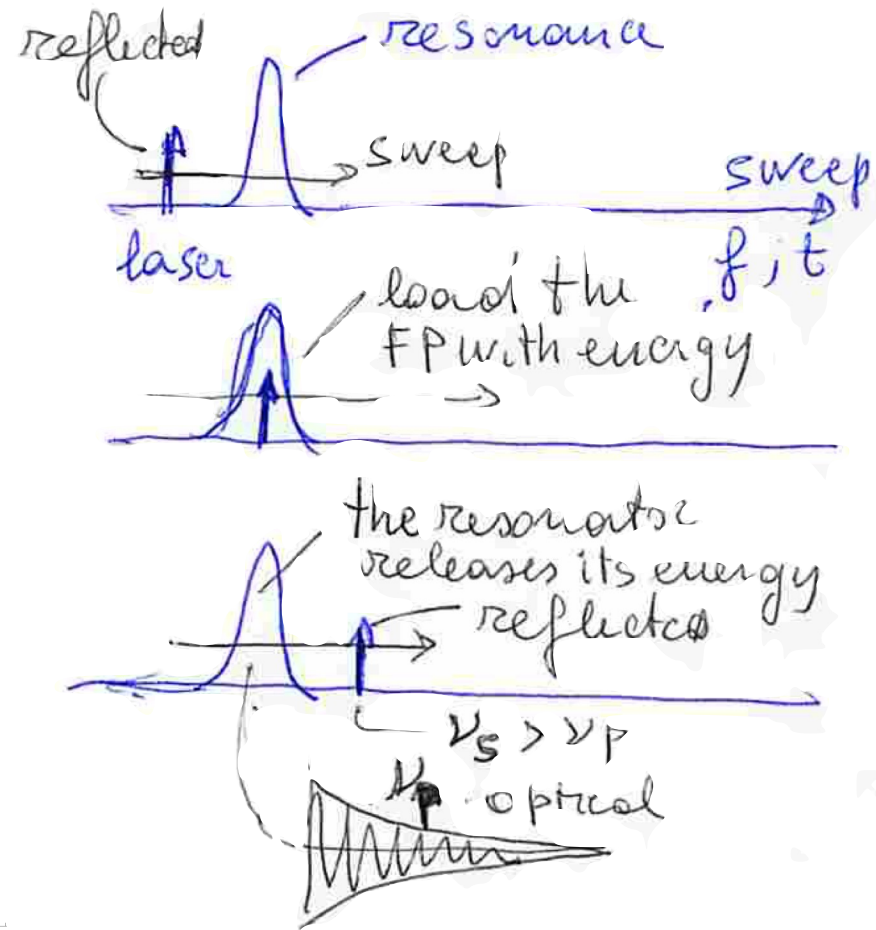
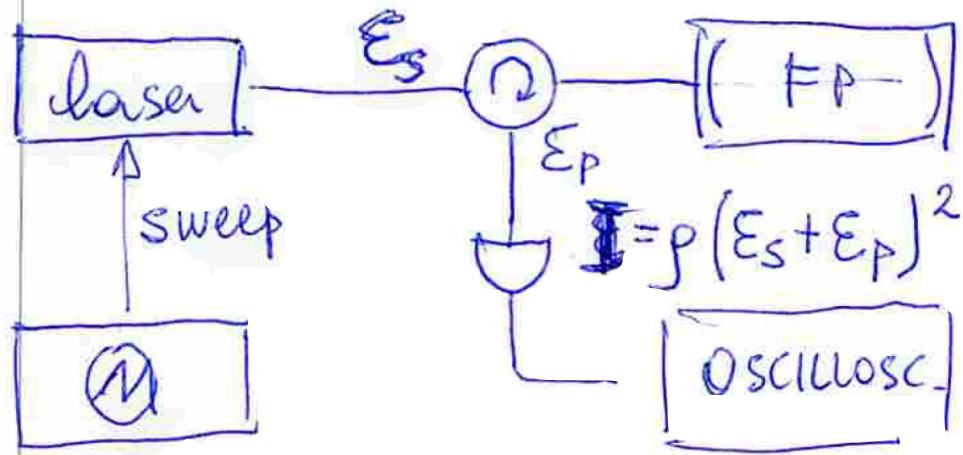
Optimization Issues

Setting up a Pound control is decently simple

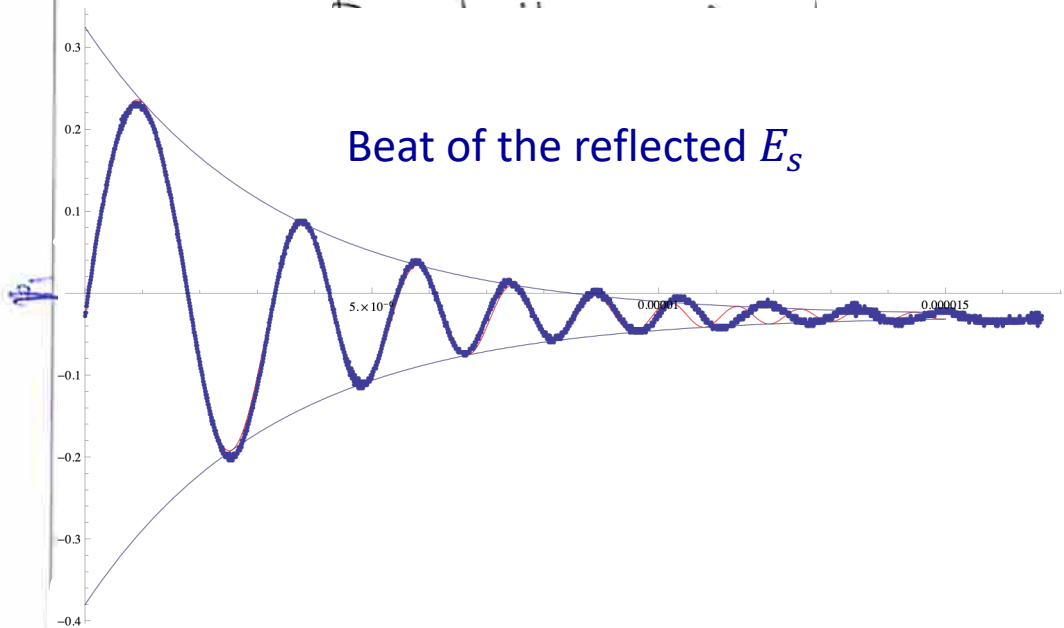
Optimization is disappointingly complex

In situ testing: the ringdown method

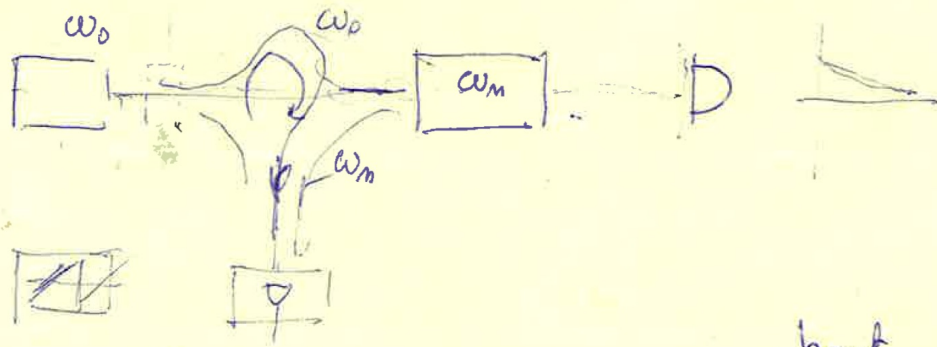
Purpose: measure Q (or finesse)



Beat of the reflected E_s

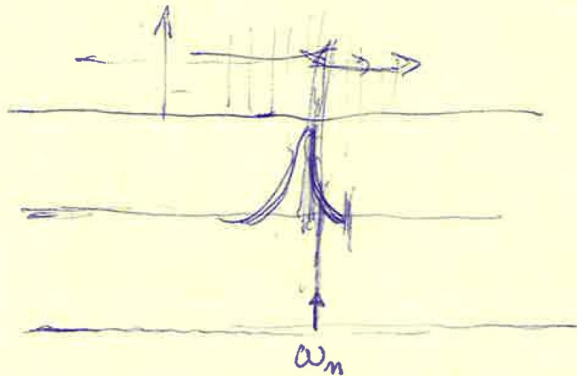


Ringdown method



$$\omega_0 = \omega_{\infty} + at$$

$$\epsilon = \exp i(\omega_{\infty} + at)t$$



beat

$$\omega = \omega_{\infty} + at - \omega_m$$

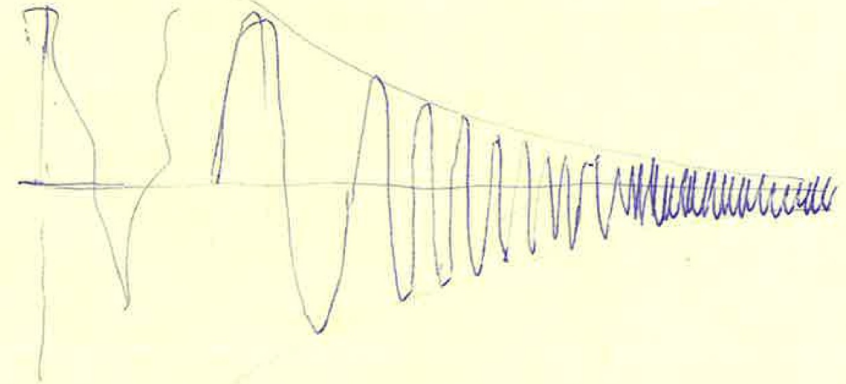
$$I = I_{\text{beat}} e^{-t/\tau}$$

AC ringdown
beat ringdown

- + pump \rightarrow gain
- + forward config.
- + one port
- + offset-free, drift free

DC
ringdown

- + can switch the light off

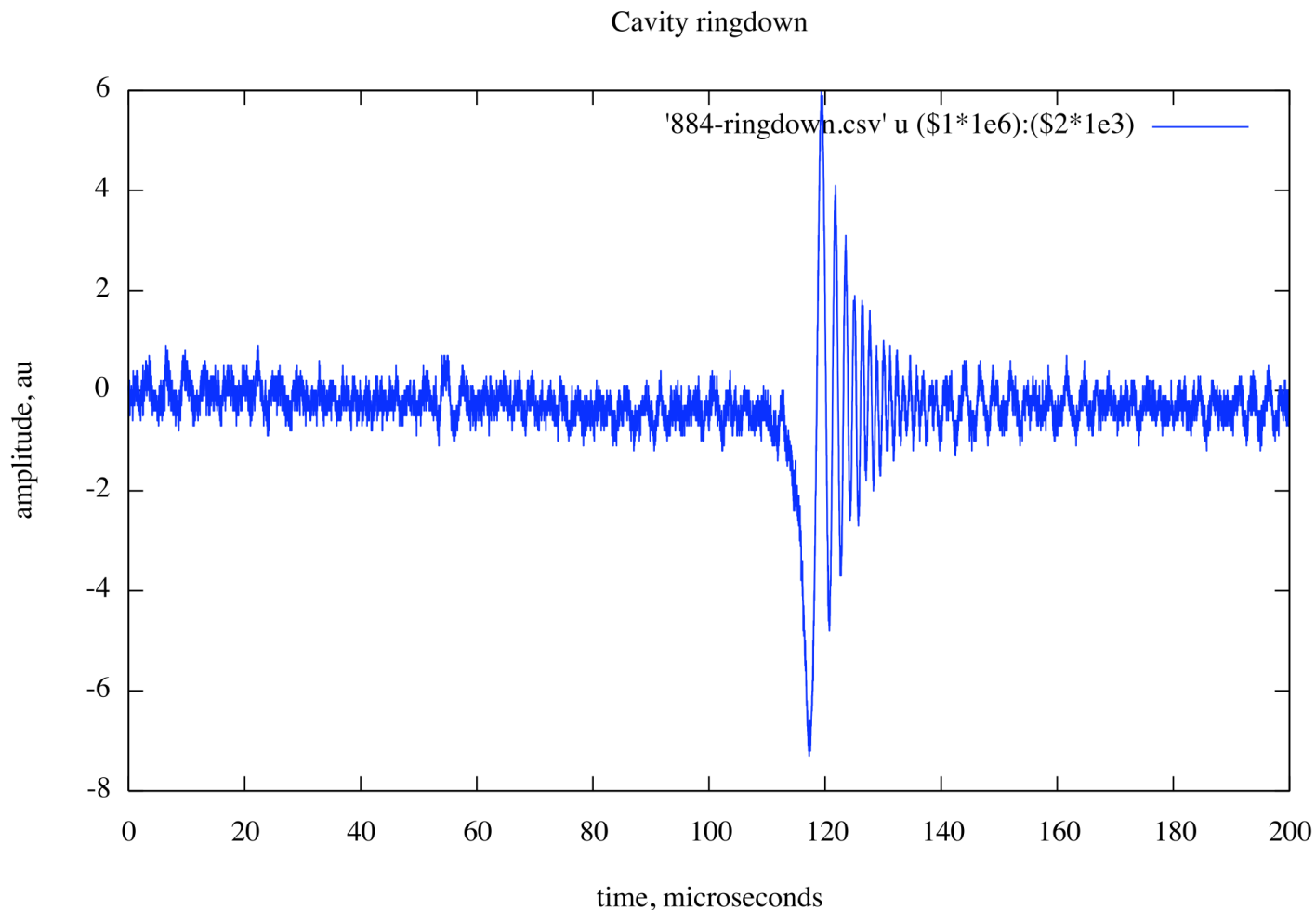


$$\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \exp[i(\omega_{\infty} + at)t] + \epsilon_m \exp[i\omega_m t] \cdot \exp(-t/\tau)$$

$$I = \epsilon^2 \neq h_{\text{ep}}$$

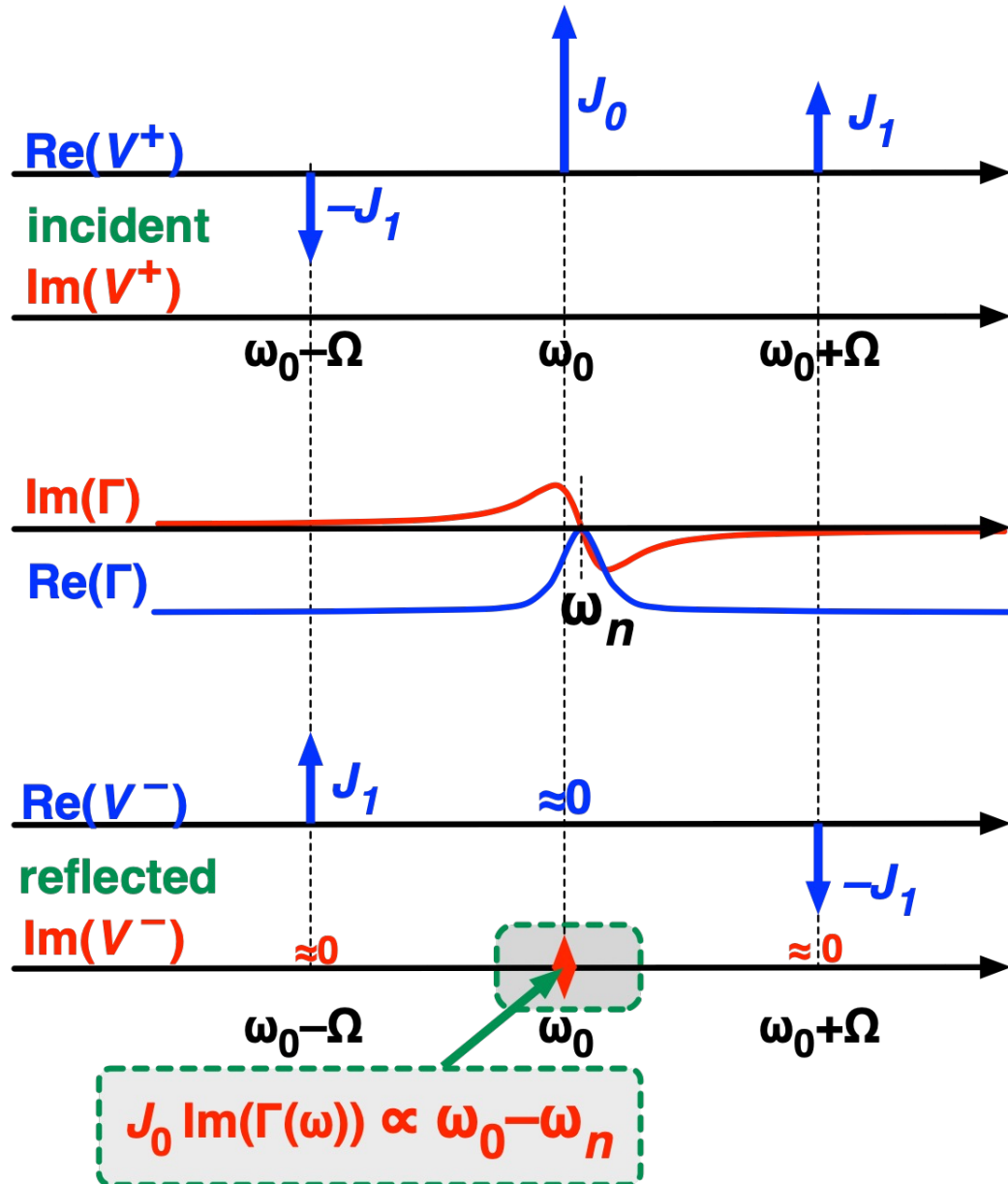
$$= \epsilon_0 \epsilon_m$$

Ringdown method



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

Critical coupling ($g = 1$)

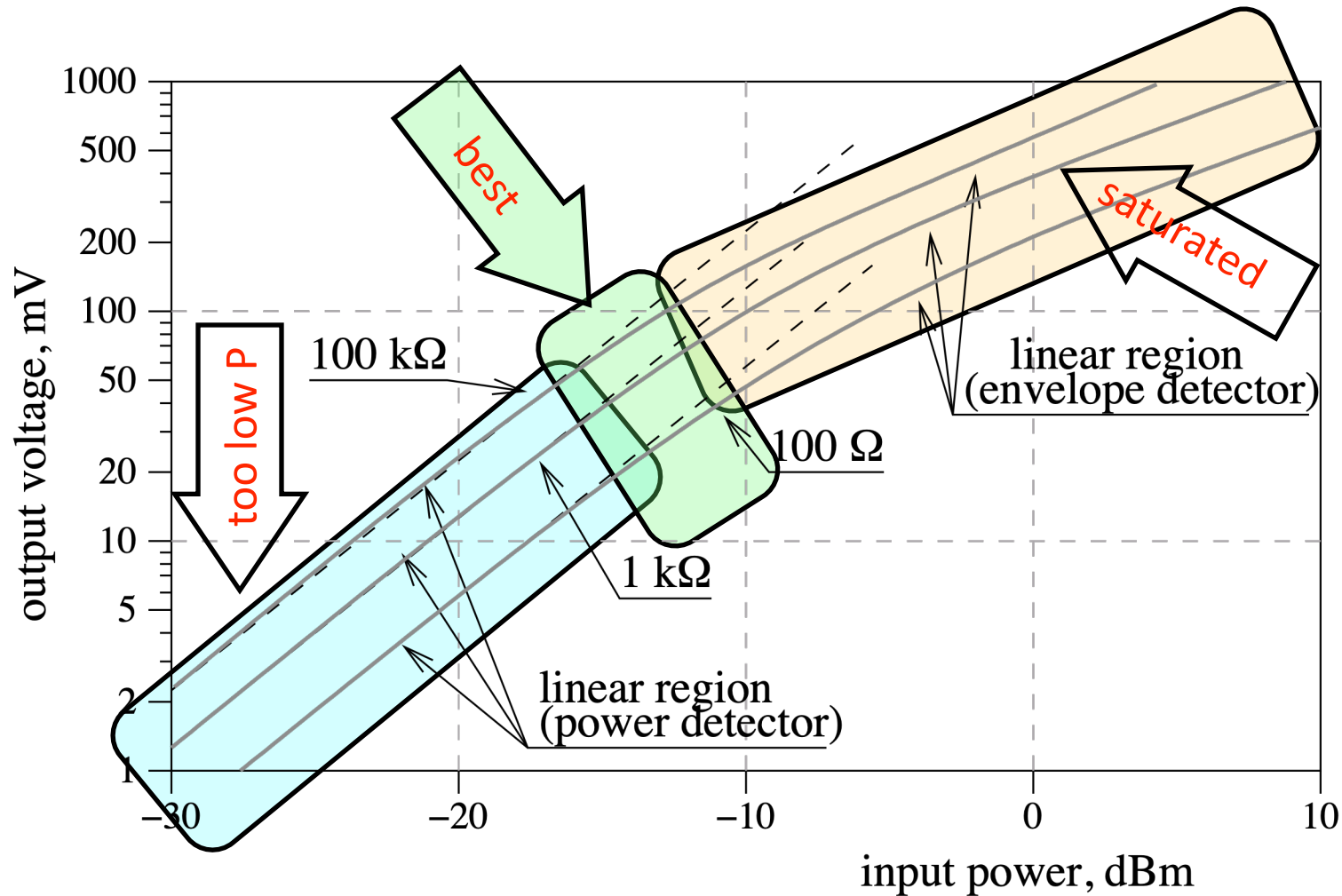


$$\Gamma \simeq \frac{g - 1}{g + 1} - i \frac{4Q_0 g}{(g + 1)^2} \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_n}$$

close to ω_n

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

Detector responsivity

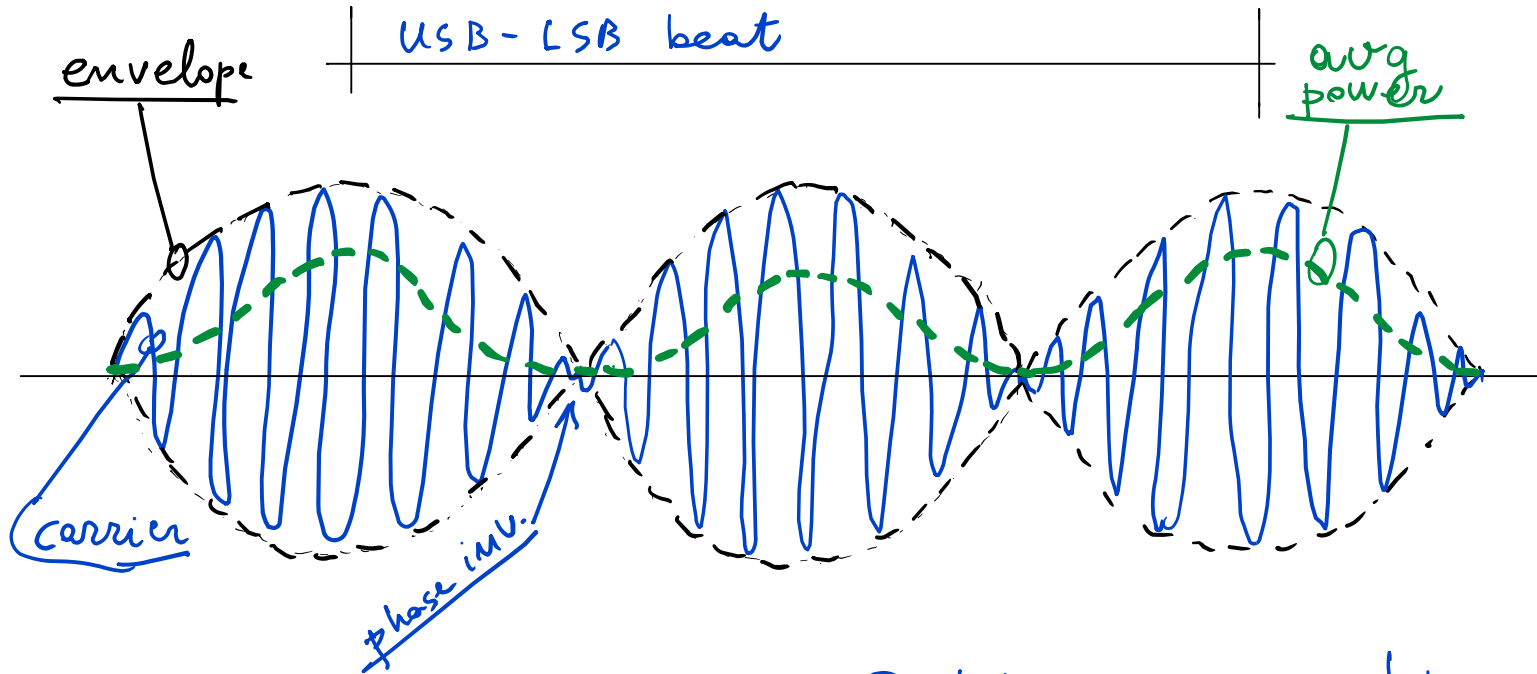


- The error signal comes from the $2ac + 2bc$ terms
- Highest sensitivity just below the corner

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)

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

Identify the detector's optimum power



optics

$\bar{P} \rightarrow$ photon flux
& saturation

μ Waves/RF

$\nu \rightarrow$ saturation

Optimum working point:
maximize the 2Ω beat note

$$(a + b + c)^2 = \underbrace{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}_{\text{dc and } 2\omega_0} + \underbrace{2ab}_{\Omega} + \underbrace{2ac + 2bc}_{2\Omega}$$

Maximum power in the resonator

- Dissipated P \rightarrow Thermal instability (obvious)
- Traveling P \rightarrow Instability
 - Electrooptic effect: 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 \rightarrow 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, $\Omega \gg B/2\pi$, $B = \text{resonator bandwidth}$

Why to choose the largest possible Ω

- Larger control bandwidth
 - Higher dc gain \rightarrow higher stability

Why not to choose the largest possible Ω

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

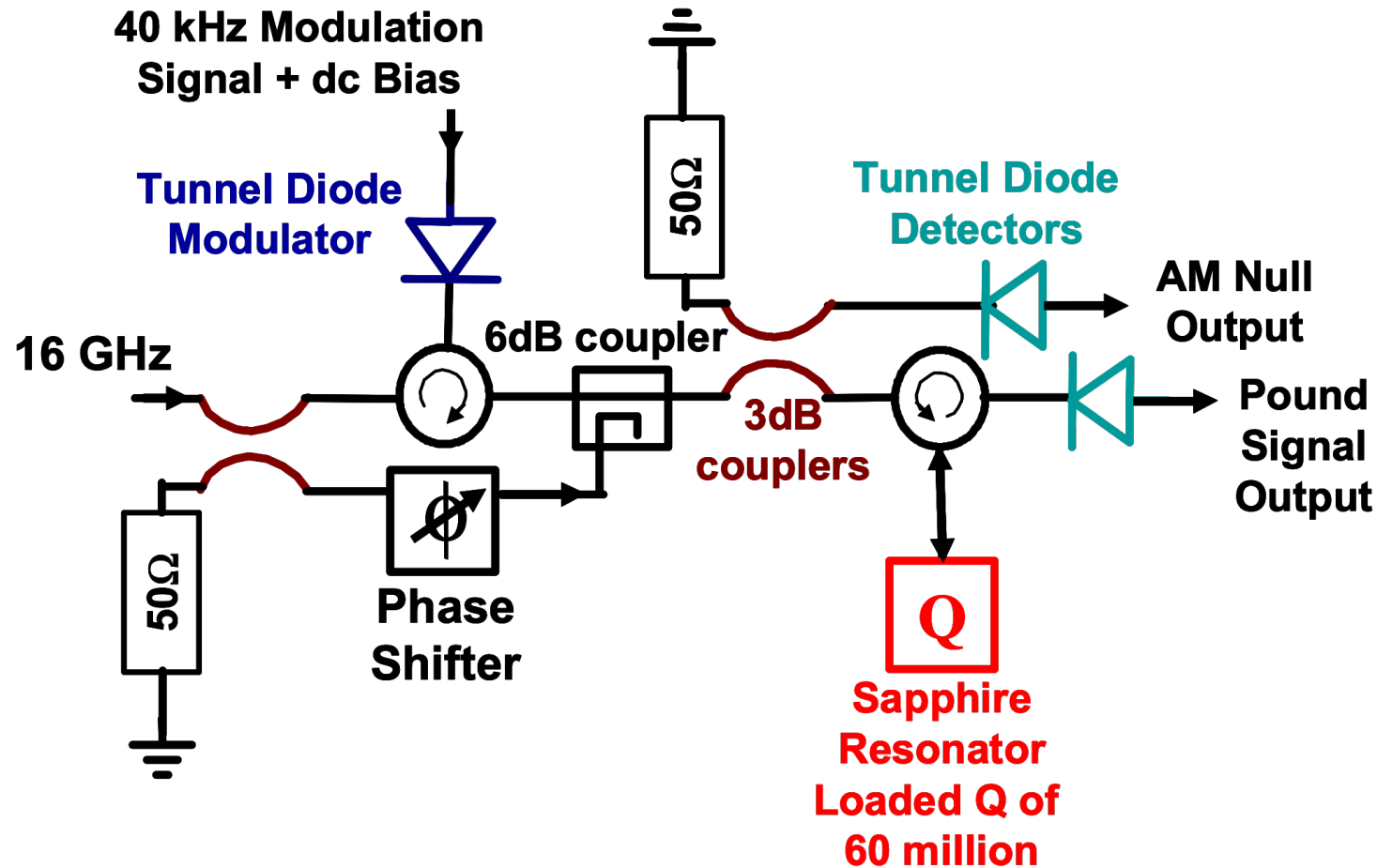
My experience – at Femto-ST

- 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 Ω
 - 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 \rightarrow 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

Figure from R. Basu, R. Wang, G. J. Dick, Novel design of an all-cryogenic RF Pound circuit, Proc IEEE IFCS 2005

Filter the detector output

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

$$- \frac{|V_0|^2}{2R_0} J_1^2(m) \cos(2\Omega t) + \frac{|V_0|^2}{2R_0} 2J_0(m)J_1(m) \frac{4Q_0}{g+1} \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_n} \sin(2\Omega t)$$

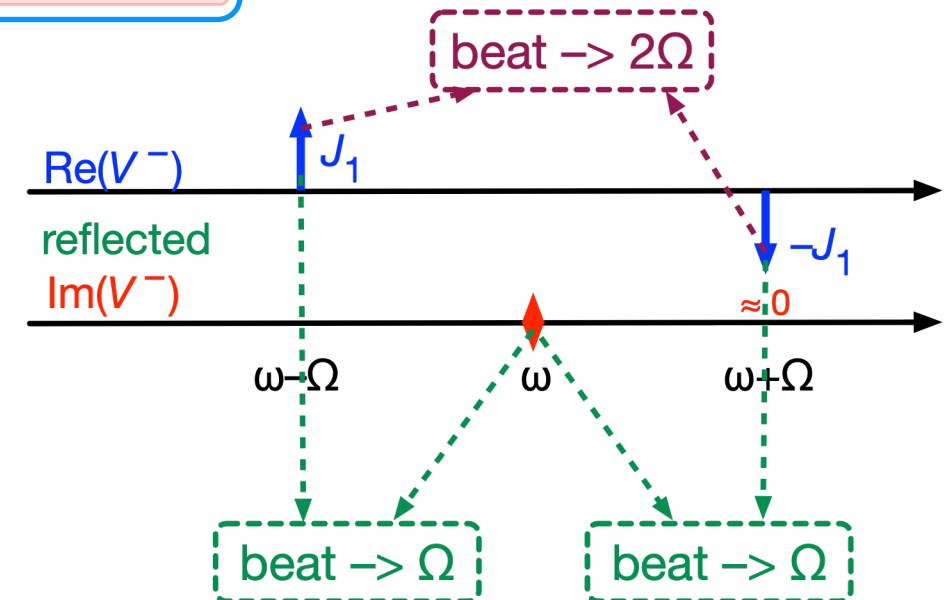
diagnostic

error signal

Large, 2Ω

Small, Ω

Separating the Ω and 2Ω signals with passive filter helps in getting clean, simple and effective electronics

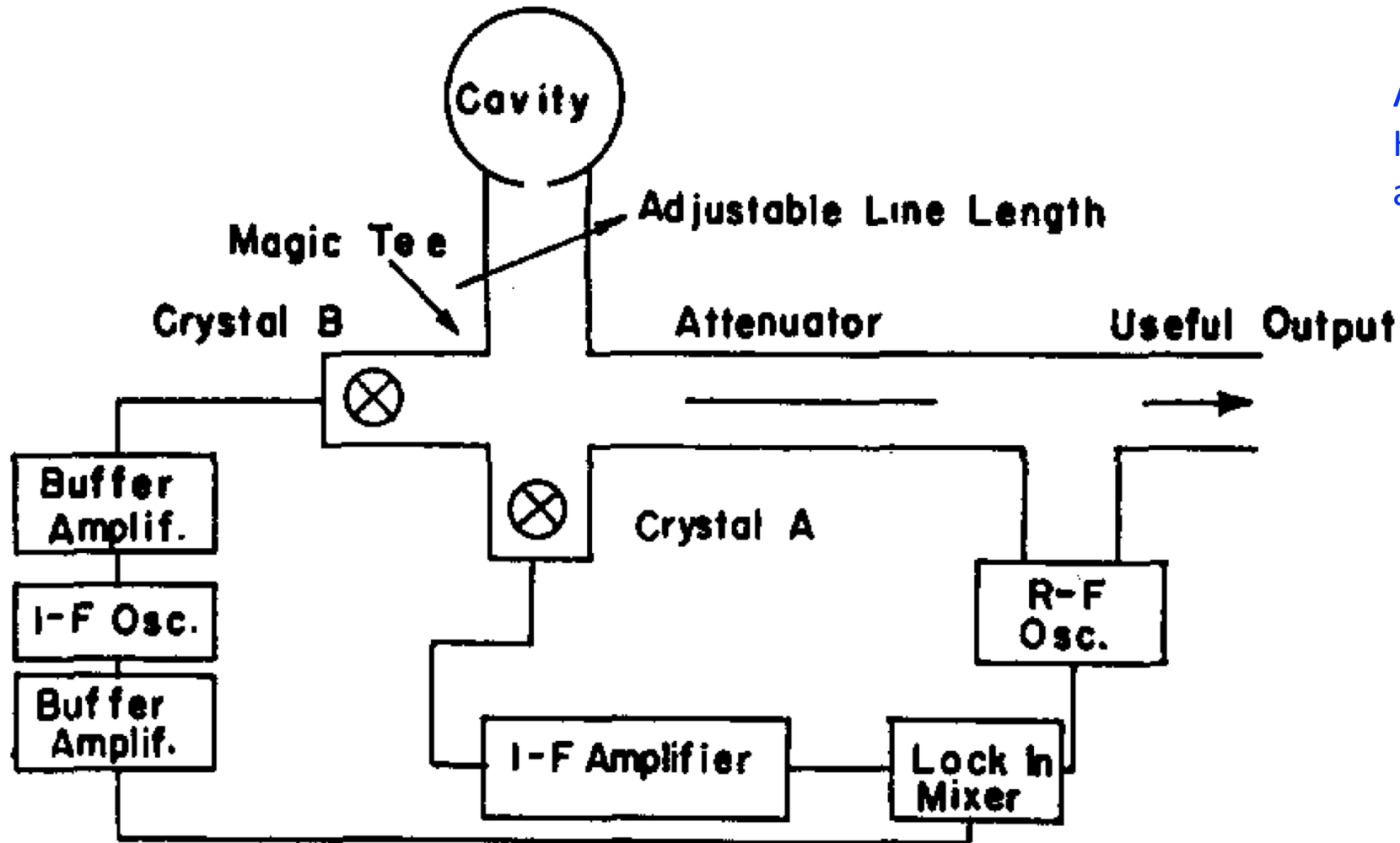


More optimization issues

- Given the laser power → best modulation index (Eric Black)
- Detector saturation power → best modulation scheme
- Resonator max power → best modulation
- Quadrature modulation (μ waves) – 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

The Pound-Drever-Hall scheme

The Pound scheme ported to optics

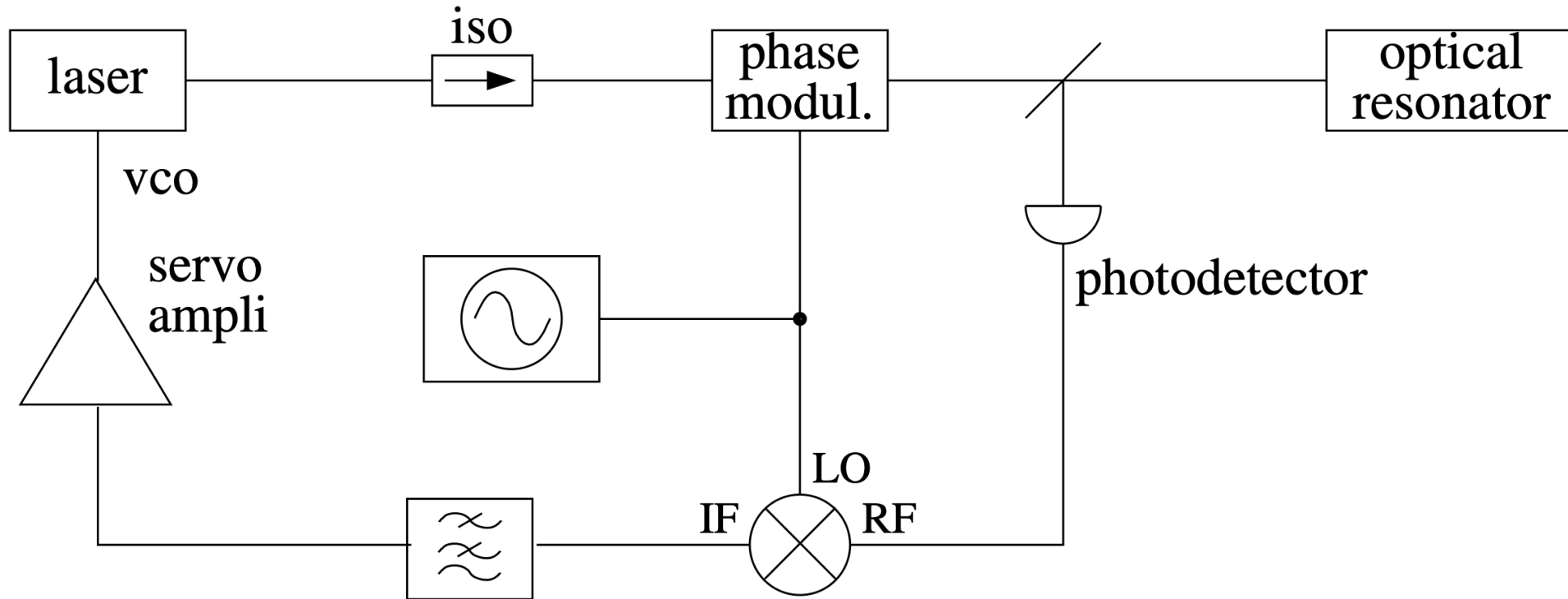


Figure from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

The Pound-Galani oscillator

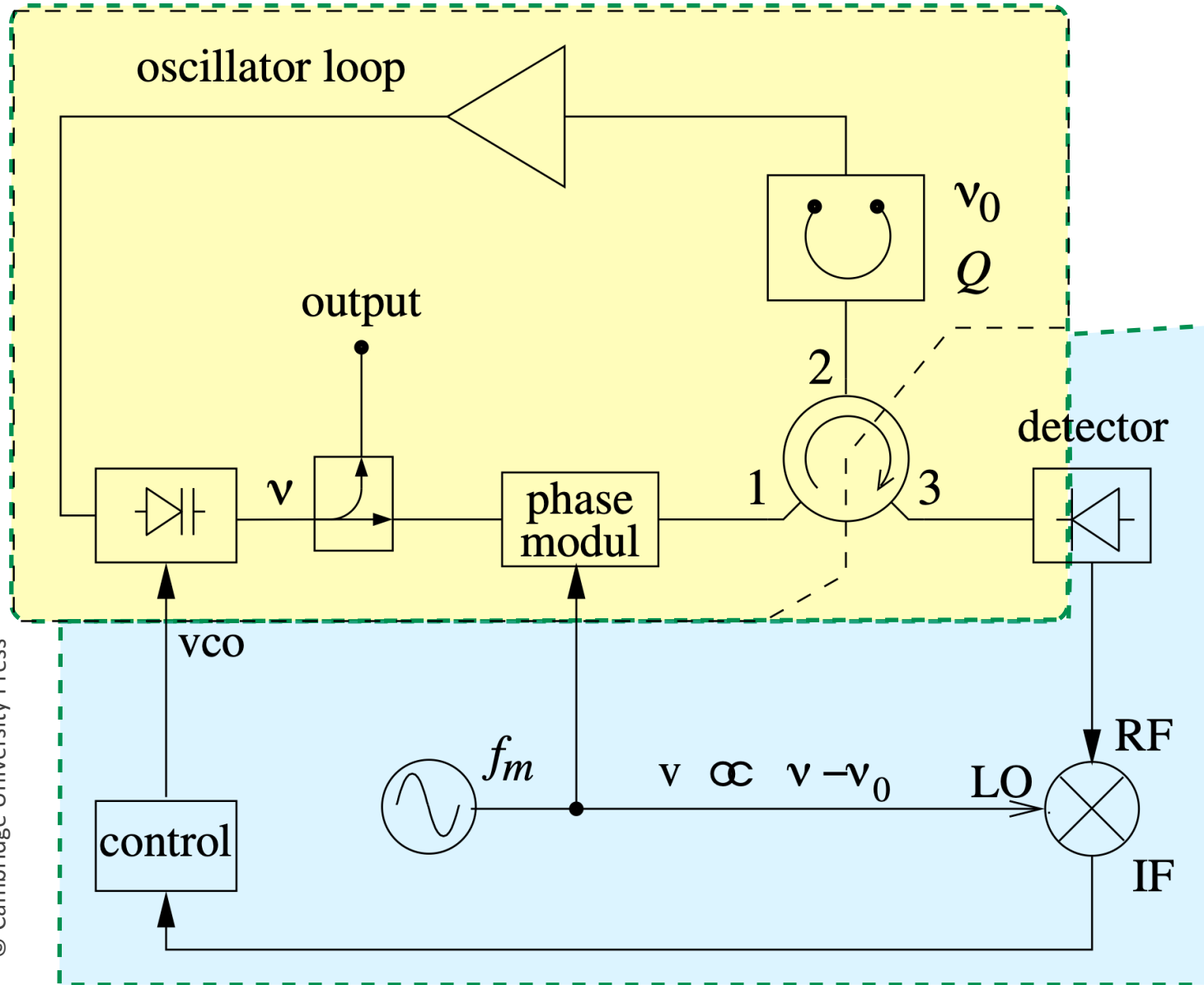
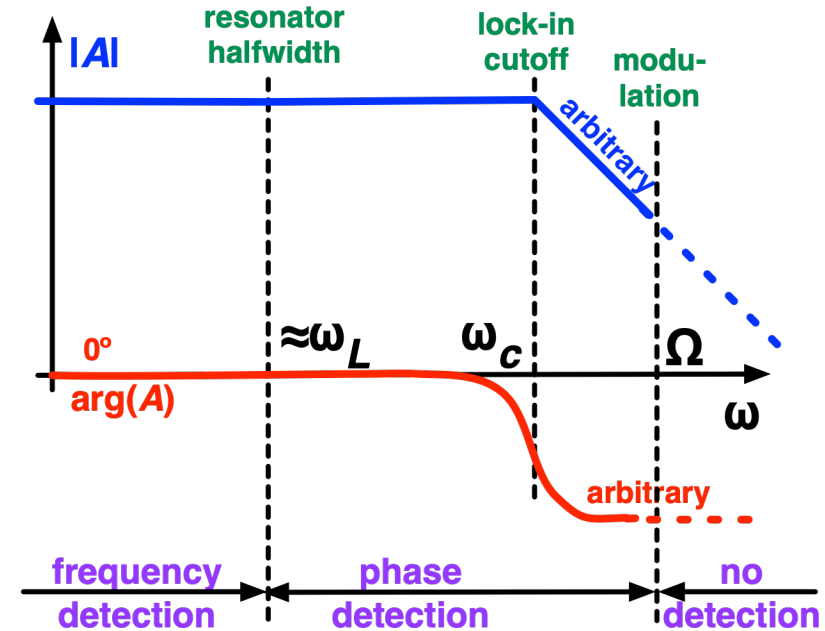
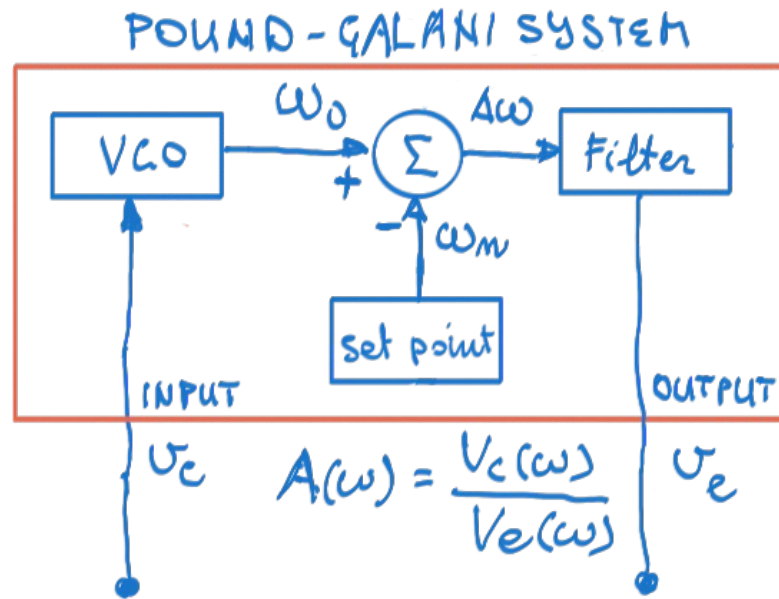


Figure from E. Rubiola, Phase noise and frequency stability in oscillators, © Cambridge University Press

- Great VCO for cheap
- Easier to control
- Two-port resonator
 - More complex
 - Lower Q

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

Pound-Galani transfer function

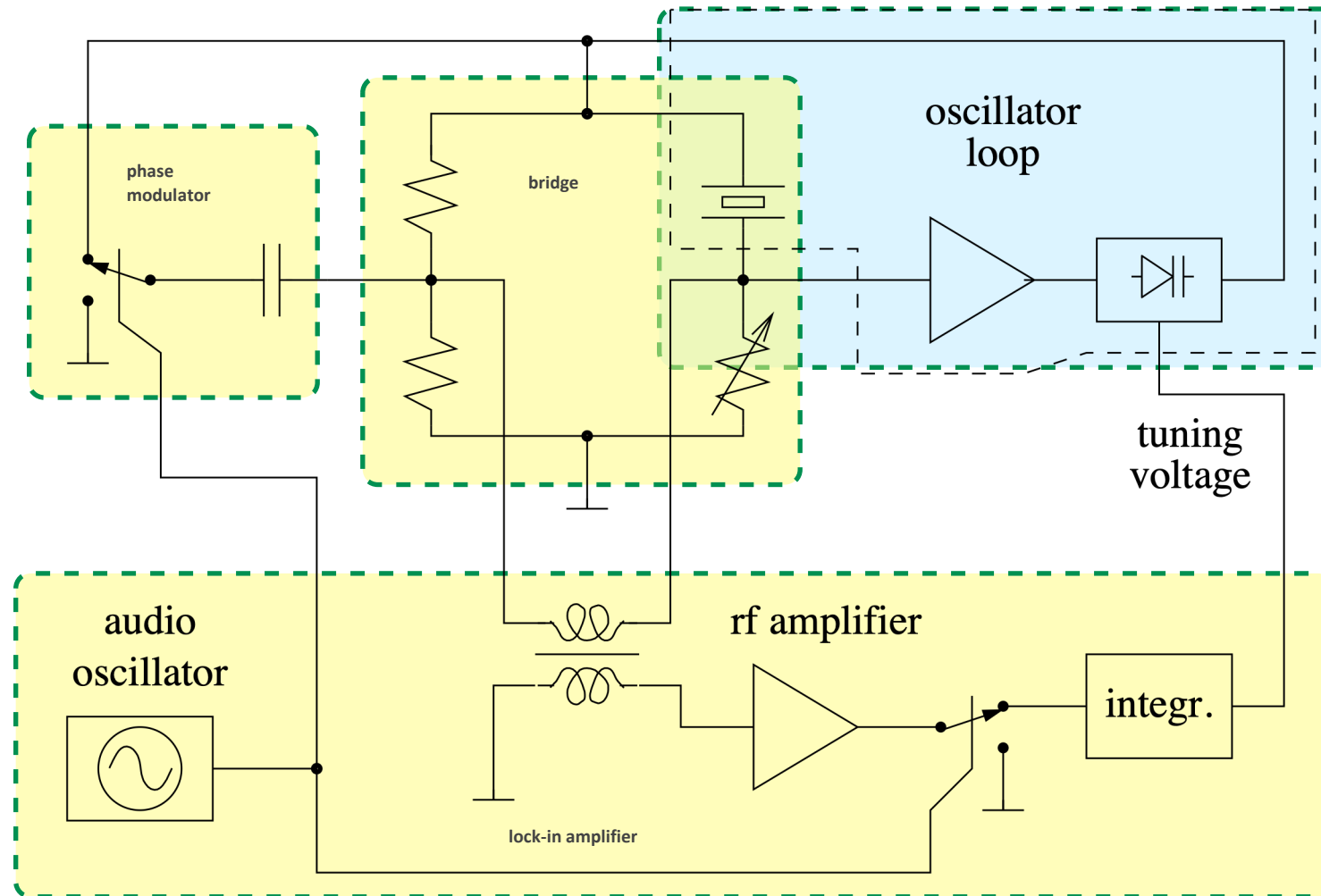


- FD region → full performance
- PD region
 - Flat frequency response, not for free
 - Poor response of the frequency-error detection
 - Higher noise



The Pound-Sulzer oscillator

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



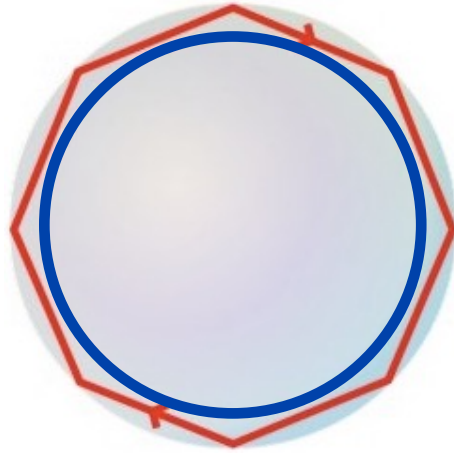
Resonators and Oscillators

Microwaves

Whispering gallery resonator

Geometrical optics interpretation

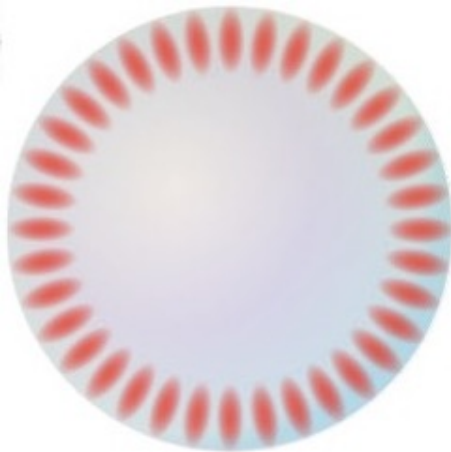
Full reflection



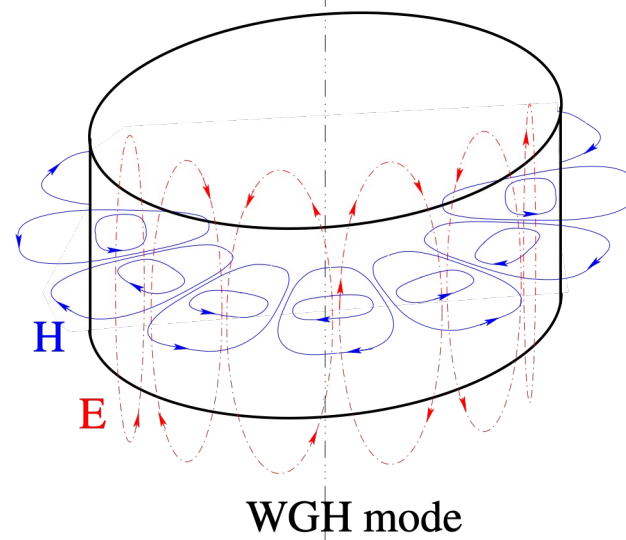
Energy trapped inside the dielectric

All figures of this page are courtesy of V. Giordano, FEMTO-ST

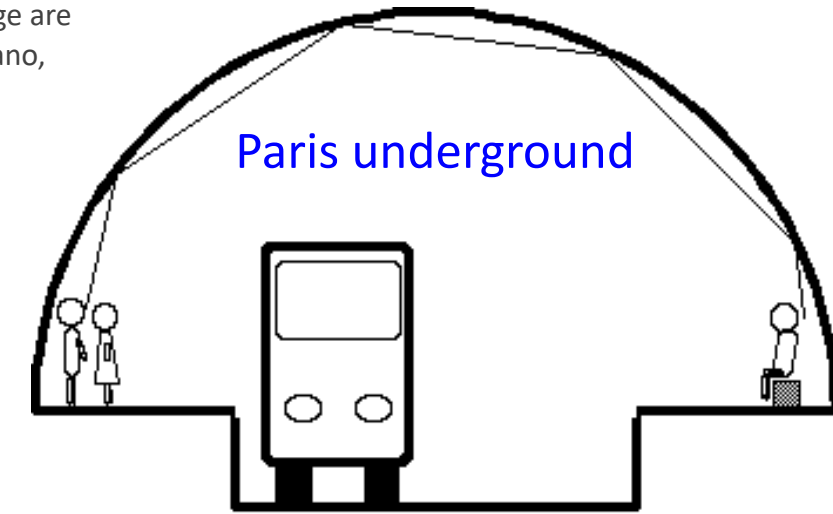
Energy



Electromagnetic field



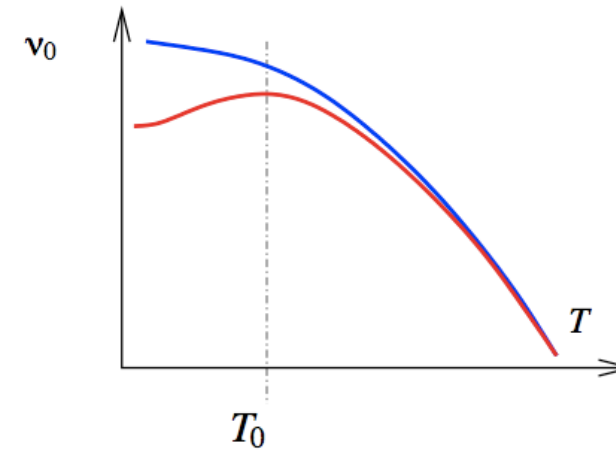
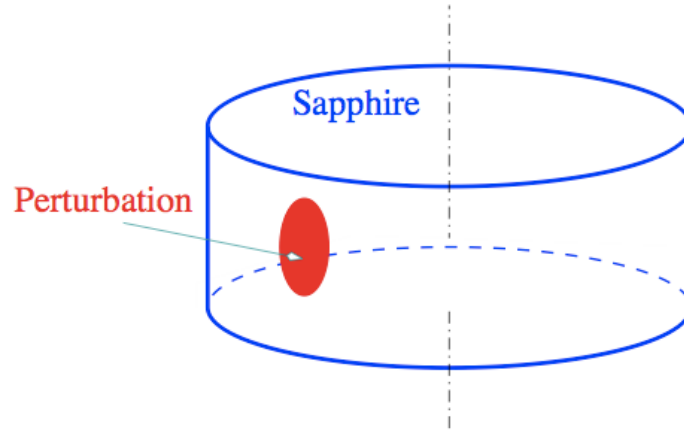
$$Q_0 \sim \frac{1}{\text{tg}\delta} \rightarrow \sim 10^9 @ 4\text{K}$$



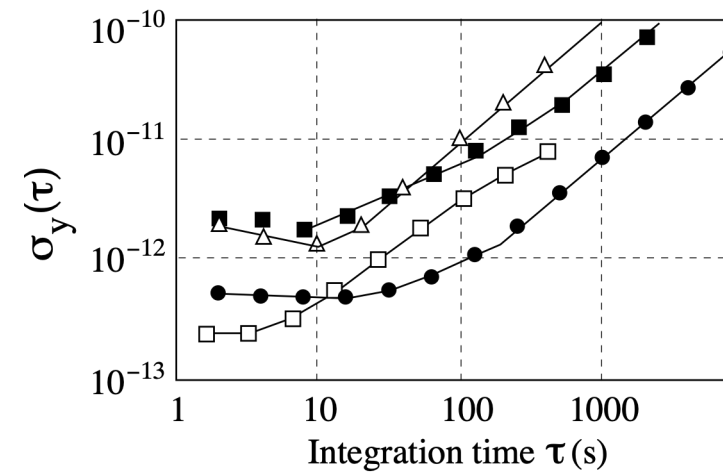
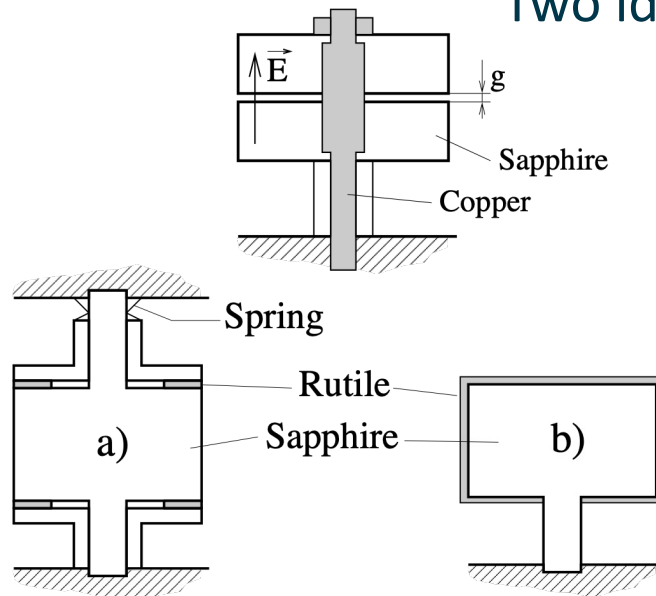
Temperature compensation

All figures of this pages are courtesy of
V. Giordano, FEMTO-ST

Compensation exploits impurities, ≈ 6 K

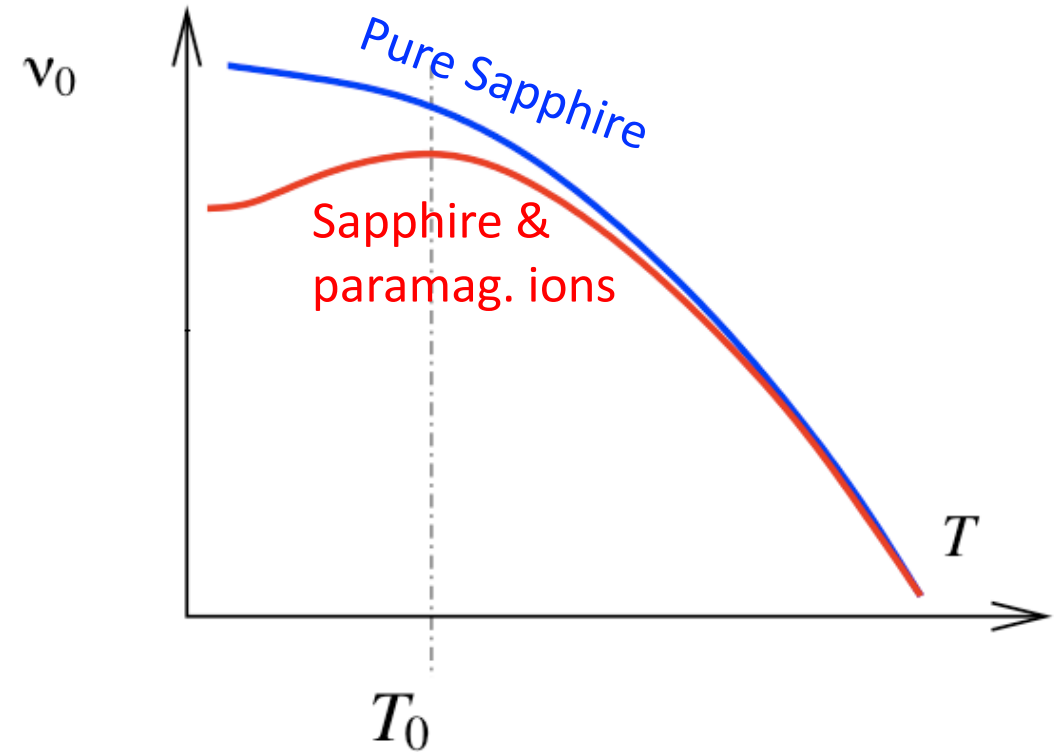
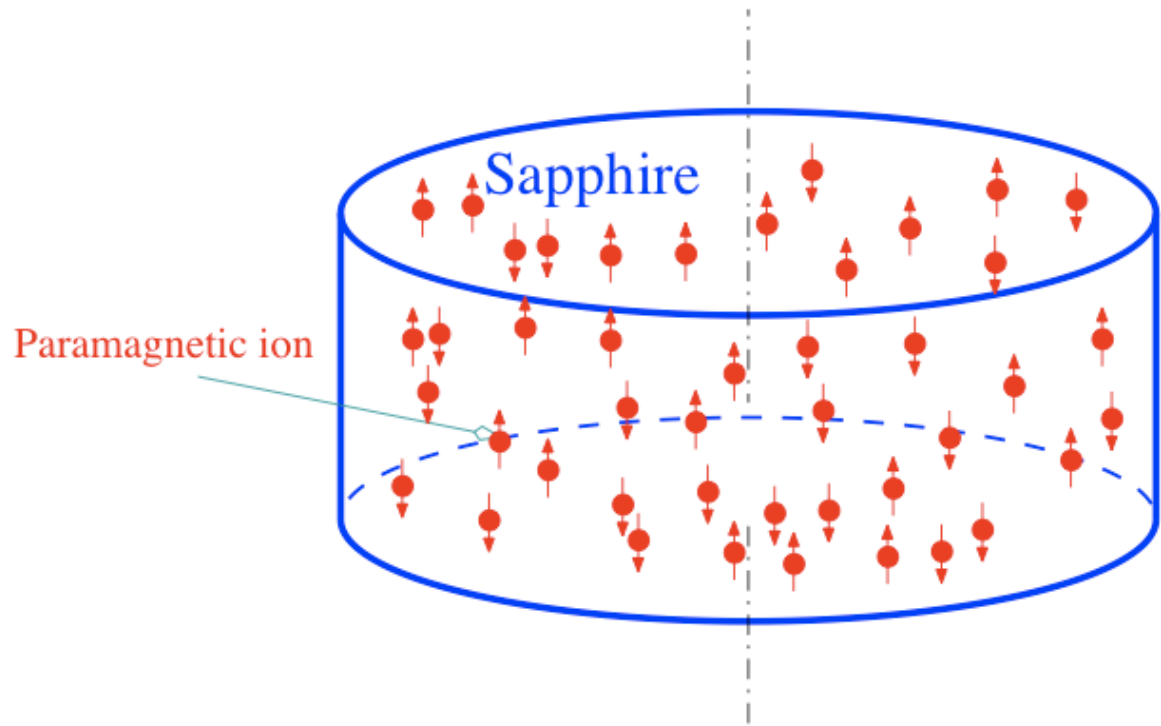


Two ideas tested above 30K



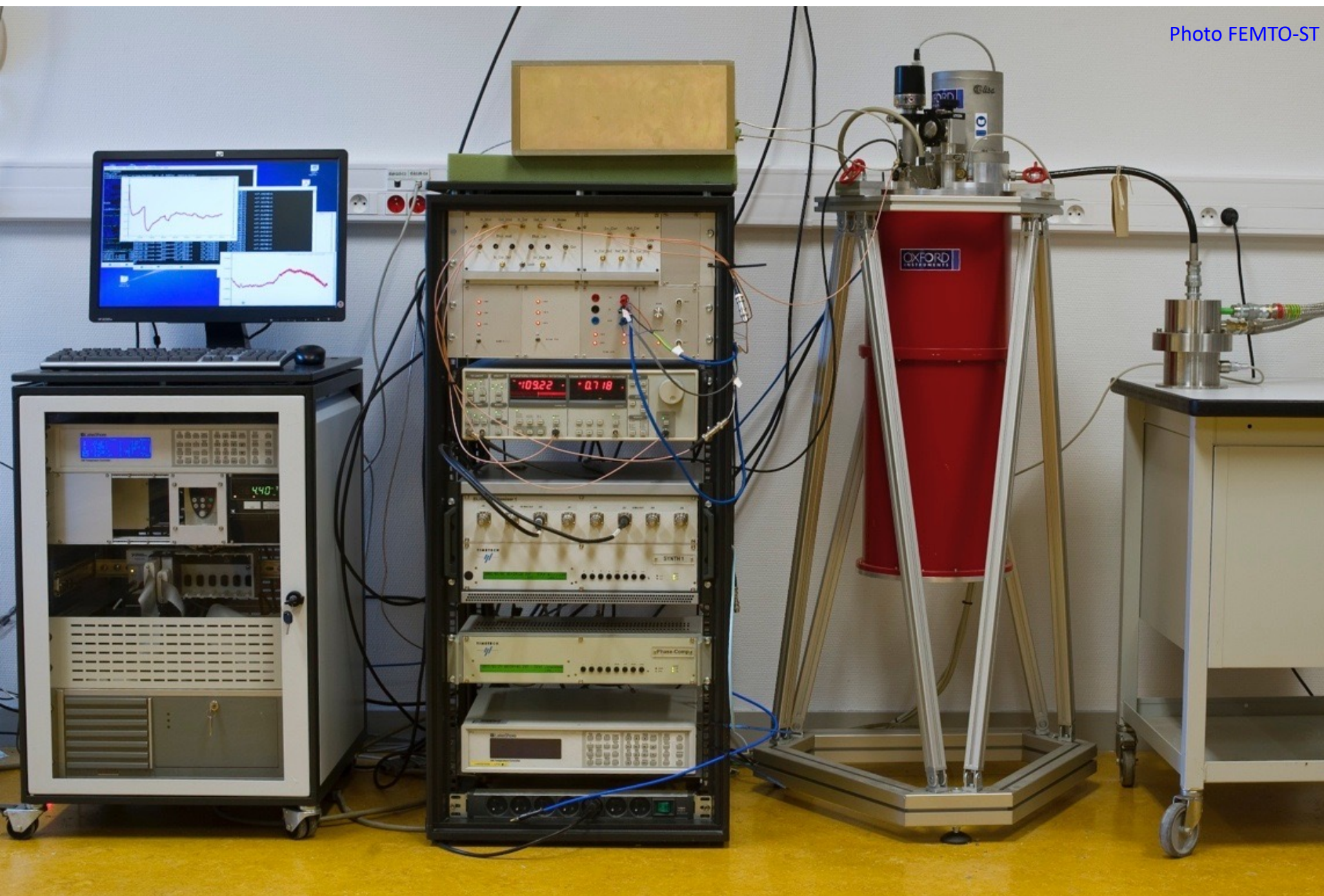
Temperature compensation

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



$$T_0 \sim 6 \text{ K}$$

ELISA, before going to Argentina



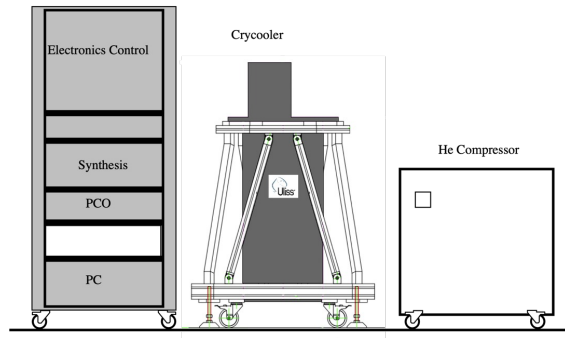
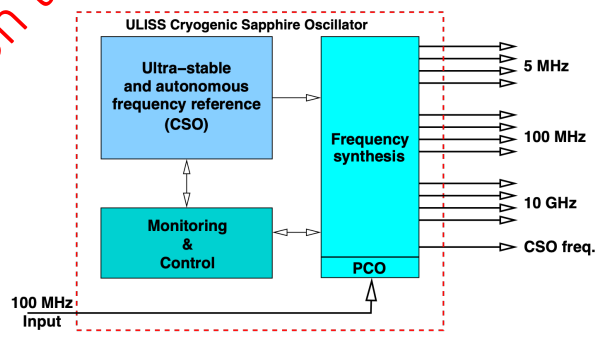
2-inch sapphire monocrystal

Photo V. Giordano

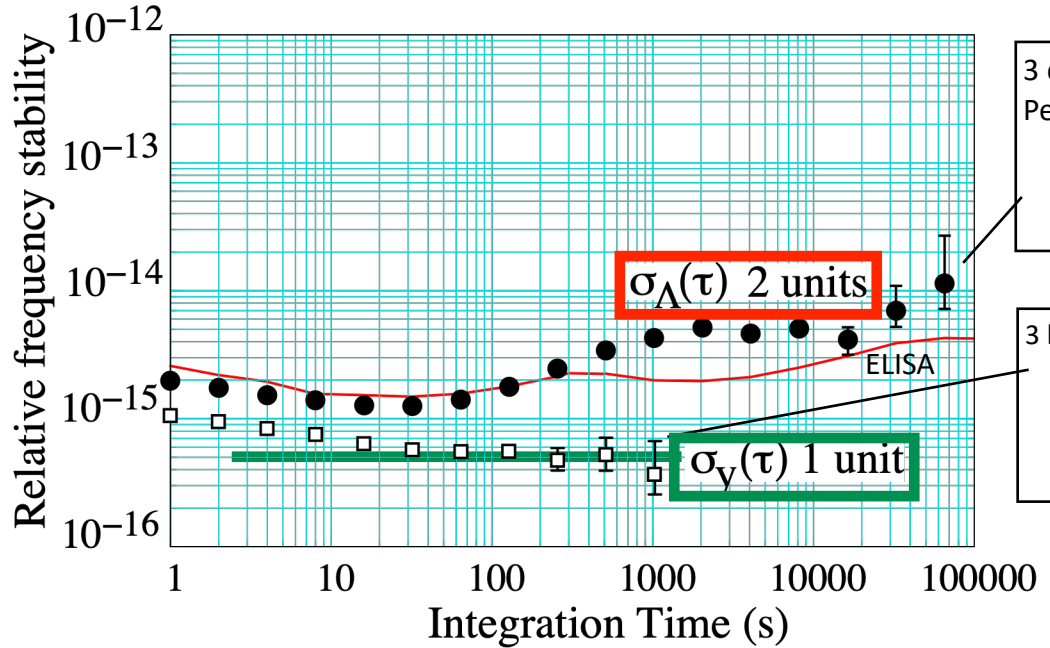


ULISS

Double check on the Figures



ADEV measurement ELISA/ULISS



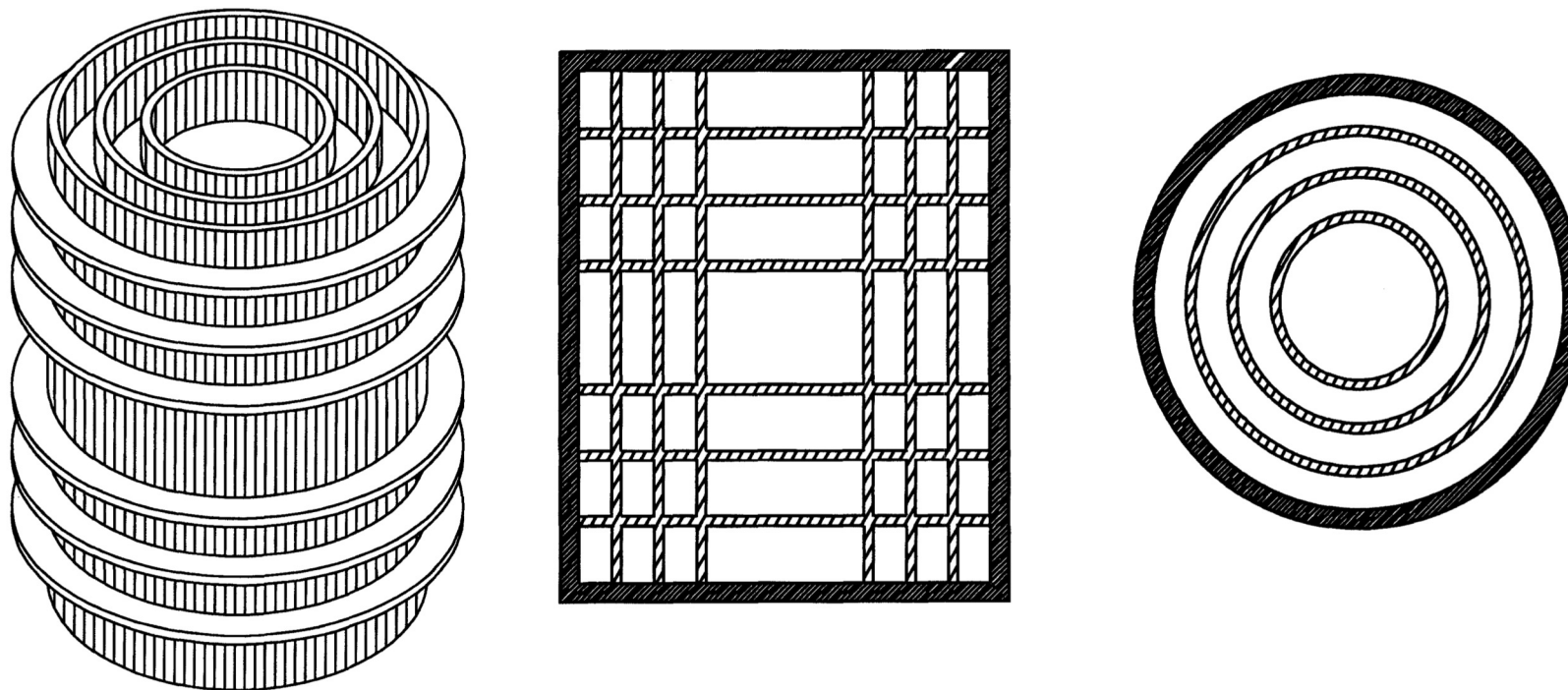
3 days measurement without post-processing
 Perturbed environment:

- Technical university (ENSMM), ≥ 800 students
- Air conditioning still not operational during measurements

3 hours extracted from the entire data set

- Quiet environment, nighttime
- Take away 3dB for two equal units
- Λ -counter compensated: for flicker: $\sigma_{\Lambda}(\tau) \approx 1.3 \times \sigma_Y(\tau)$
- flicker floor: 4×10^{-16} $10 \text{ s} < \tau < 1,000 \text{ s}$

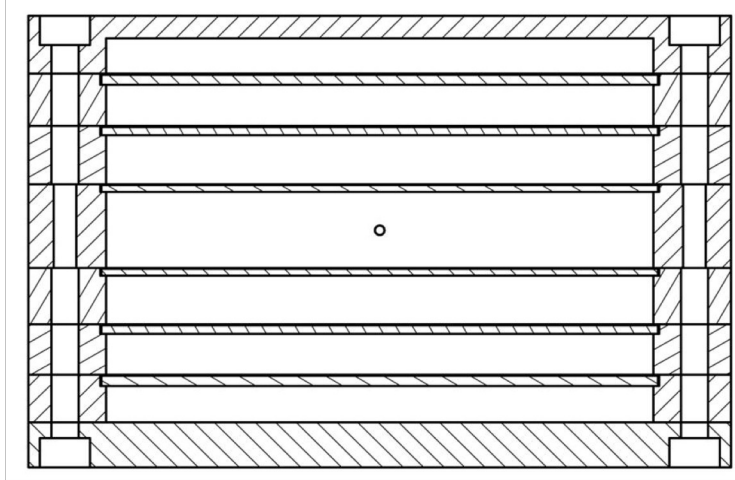
The Flory-Taber Bragg resonator



- Measured $Q = 6.5 \times 10^5$ at 9 GHz, and 4.5×10^5 at 13.2 GHz
- Oscillator stability and noise not reported (yet)
- Project dropped

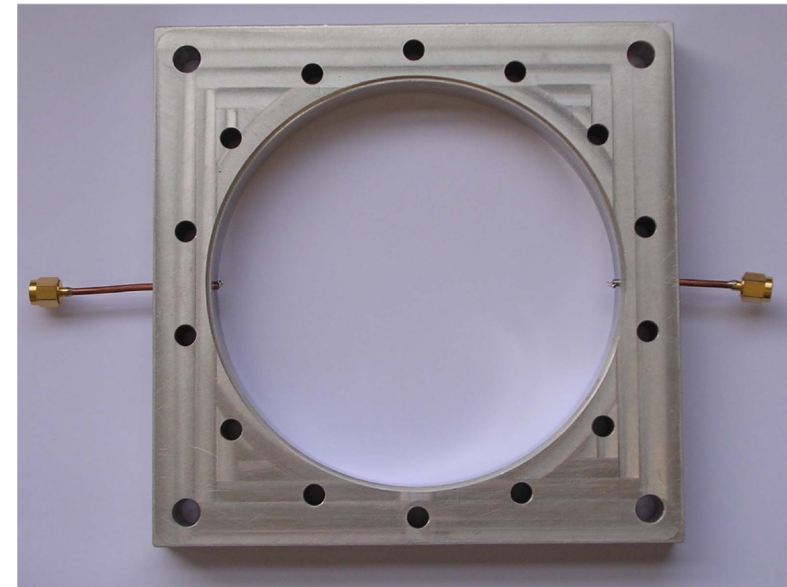
The Bale-Everard aperiodic Bragg resonator

469



Suitable to Pound lock

- 6-plates 10 GHz resonator
 - $Q > 3 \times 10^5$ (simulated)
 - $Q \approx 2 \times 10^5$ (measured)
- Oscillator stability and noise not reported yet



Featured articles / Figures from:

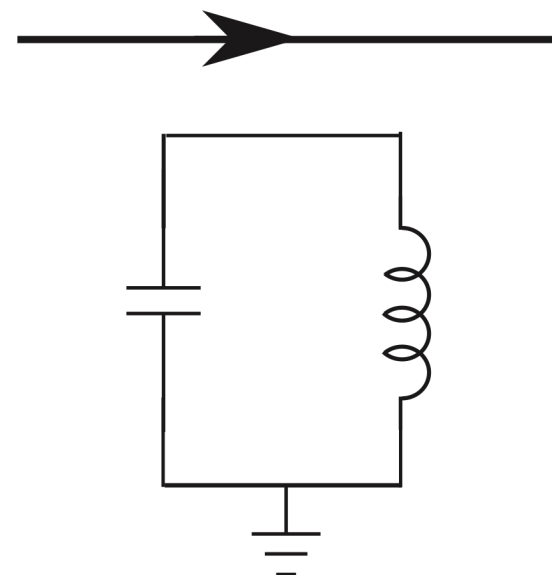
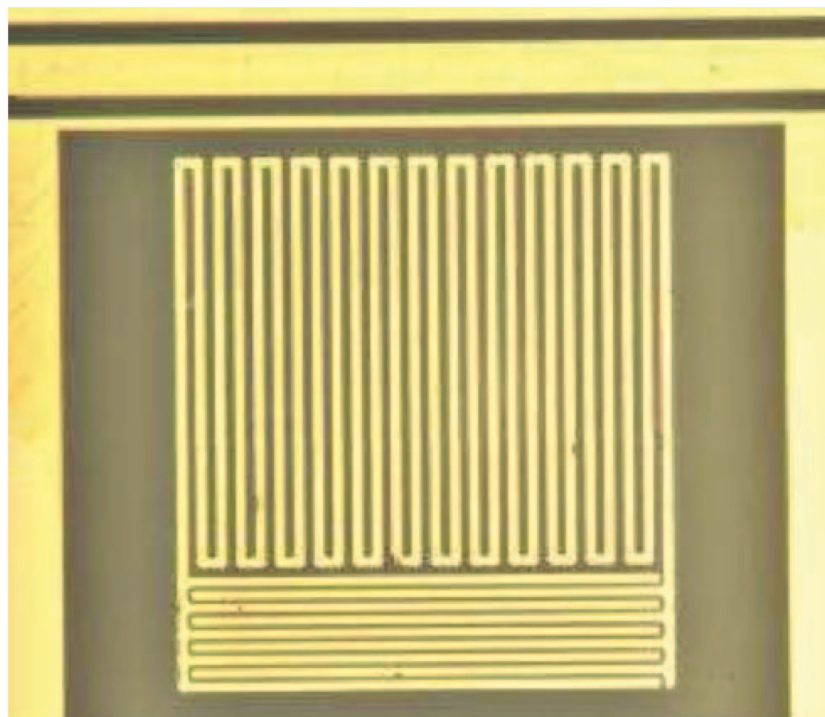
S. Bale, J. K. A. Everard, High Q X-band distributed Bragg resonator utilising an aperiodic alumina plate arrangement, Proc IFCS-EFTF 2009

J. K. A. Everard, Proc. IFCS-EFTF 2015

Small superconducting Resonator

Superconducting resonator (NPL, UK)

Nb on Al₂O₃, 300x300 μm^2 . 7.5 GHz, $Q = 5\text{E}4$,



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

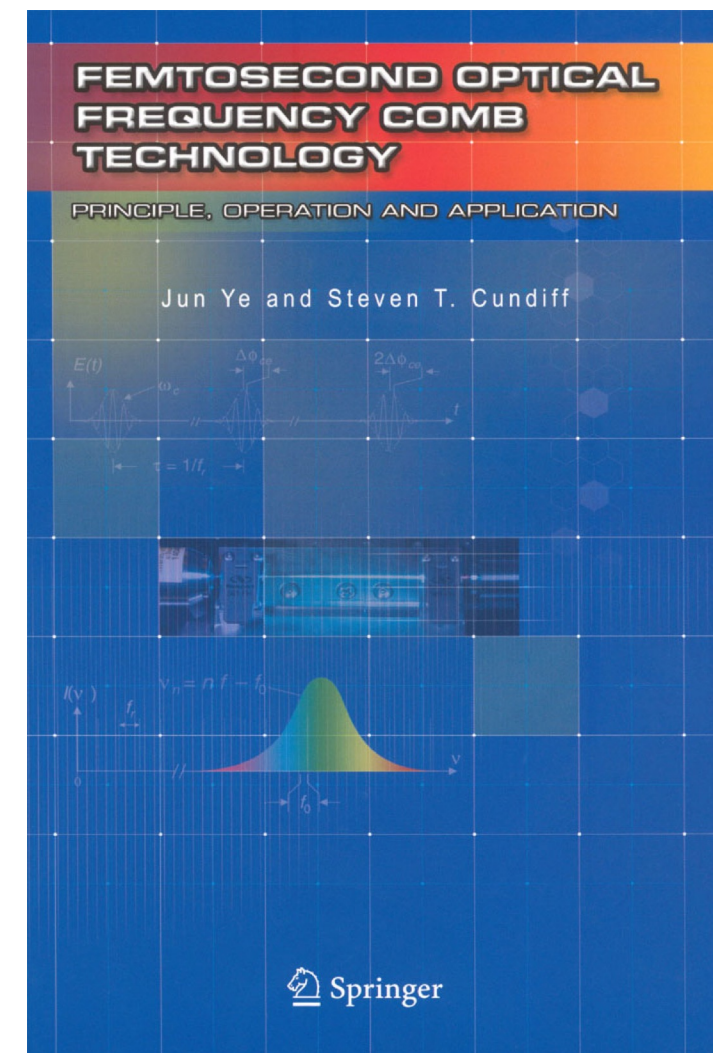
Resonators and Oscillators

Optics

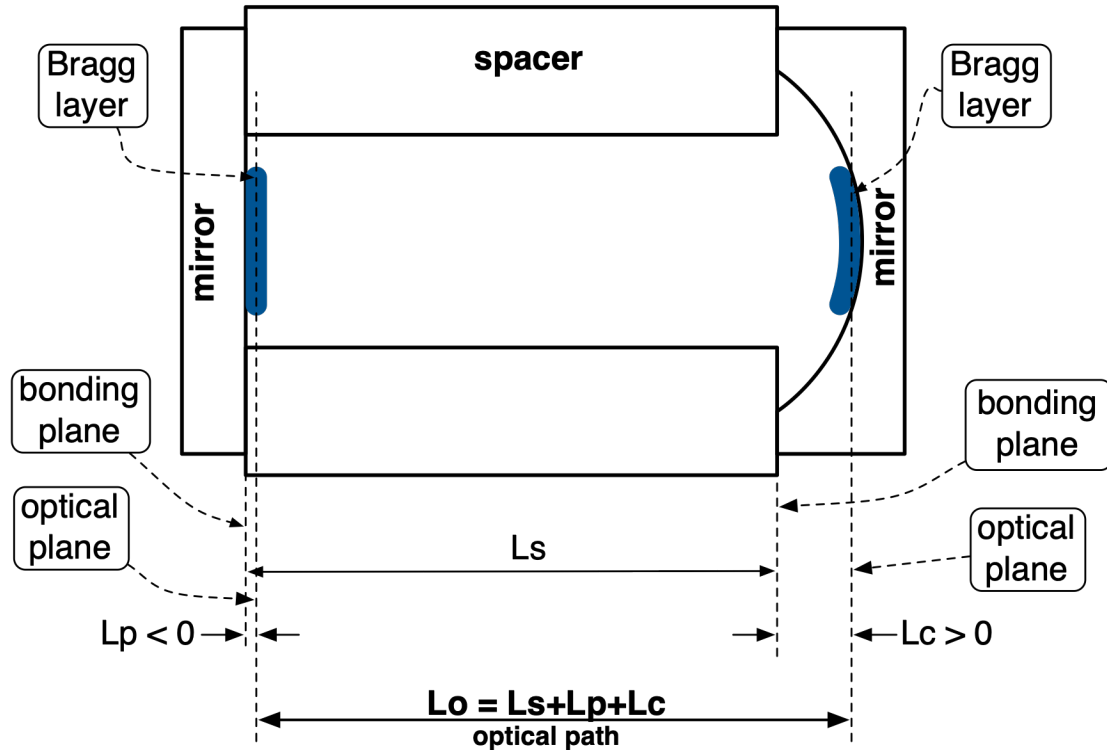
Stabilization of the FS comb

- 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

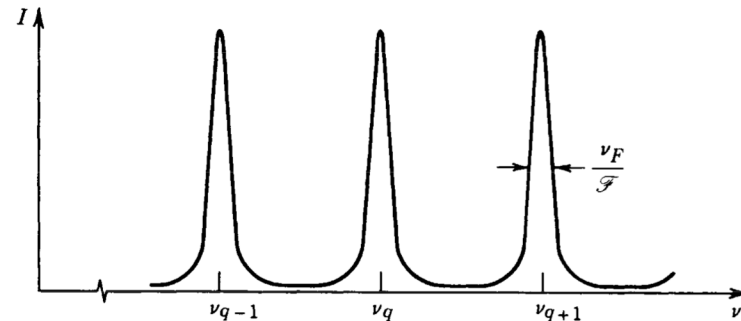


Fabry P erot cavity



- 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, $\geq 10^{10}$ (≈ 10 kHz optical bandwidth)

Optical transmission



The JILA bicone spacer

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

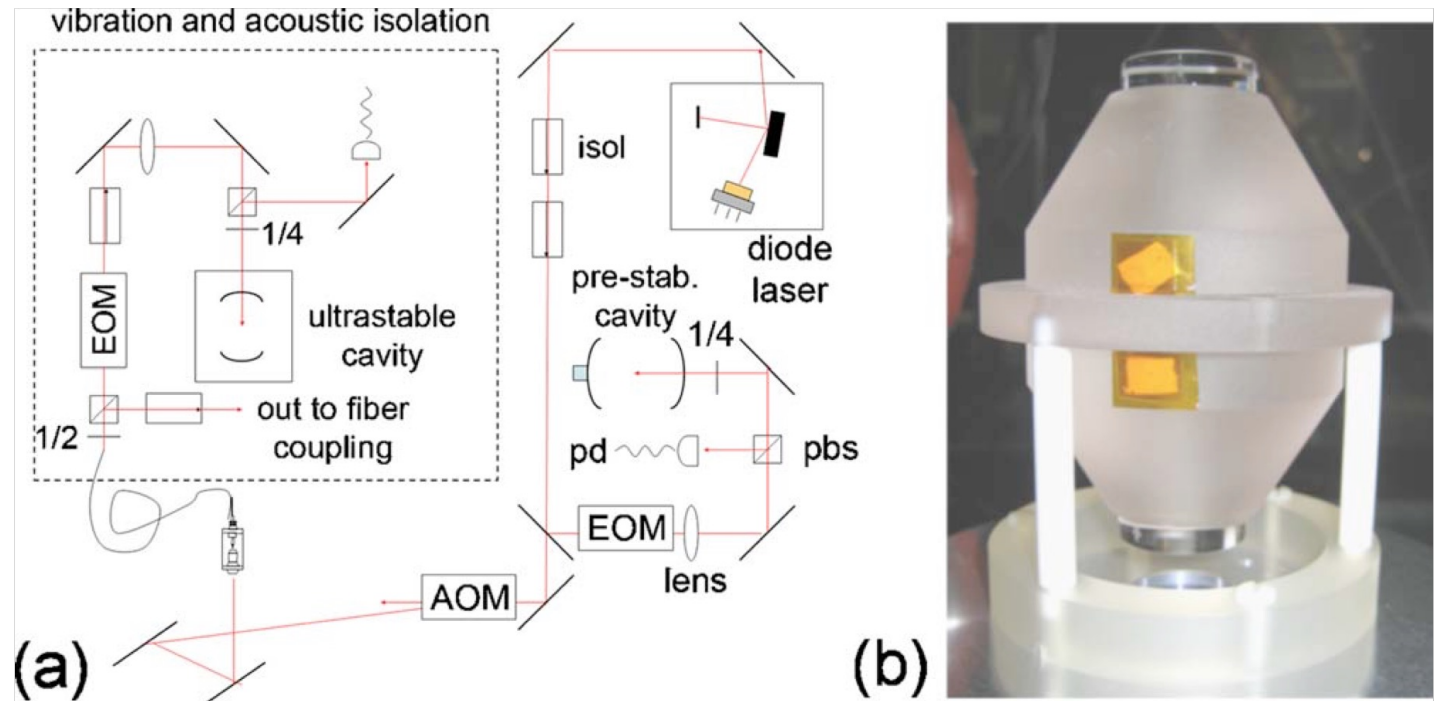
A. D. Ludlow, X. Huang,* M. Notcutt, T. Zanon-Willette, S. M. Foreman, M. M. Boyd, S. Blatt, and J. Ye

*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 (1×10^{-15} at 1 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

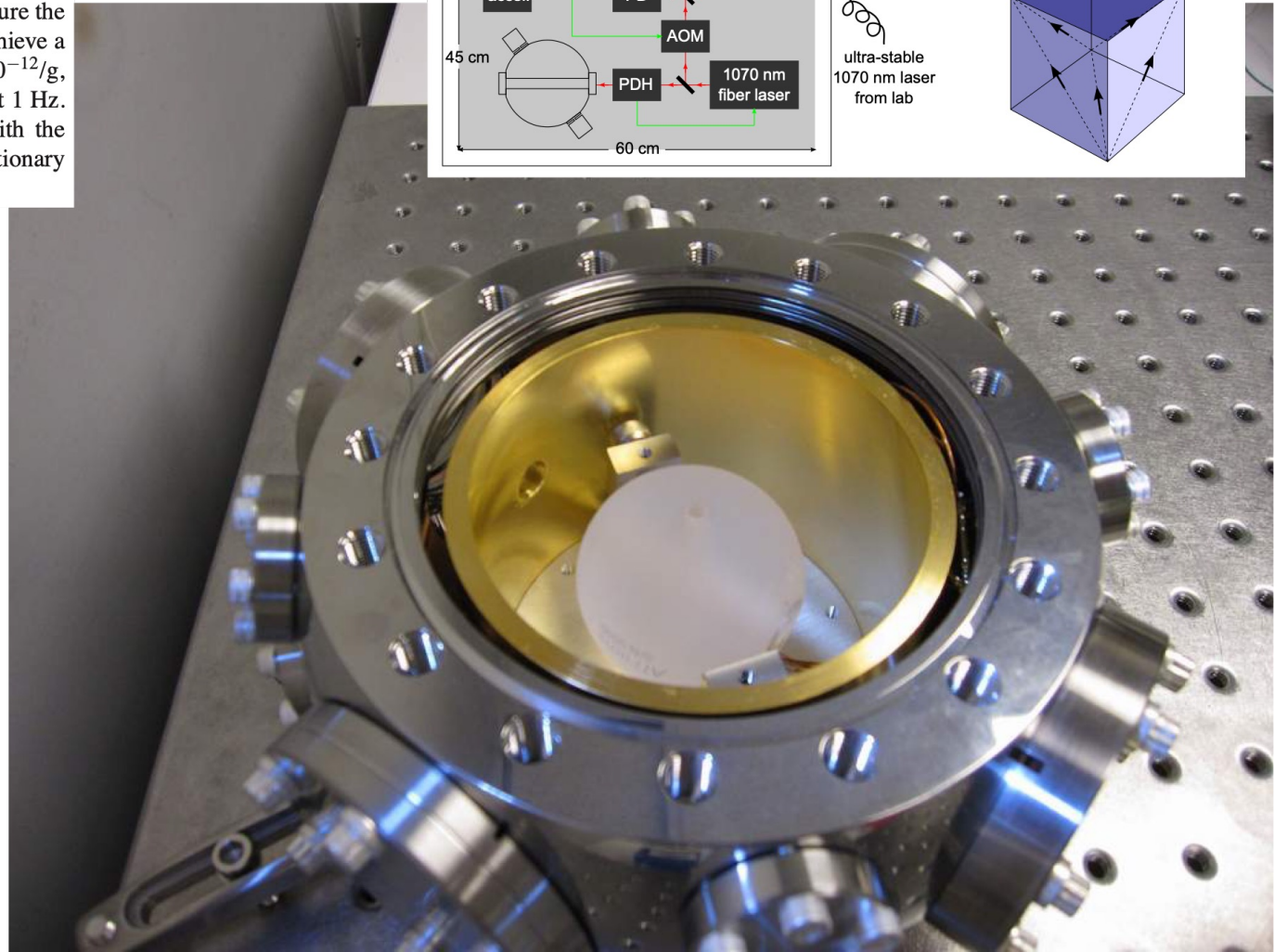
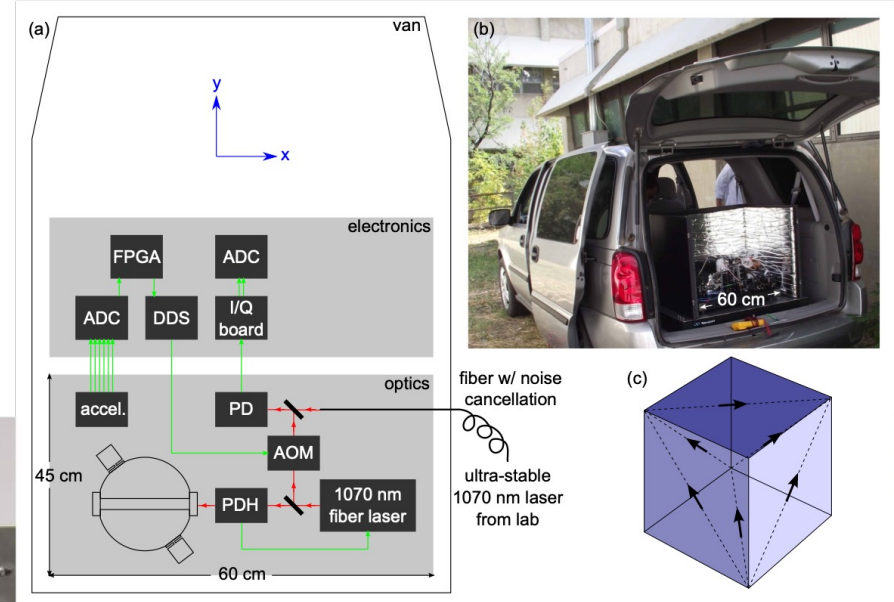
David R. Leibrandt,* Michael J. Thorpe, James C. Bergquist, and Till Rosenband

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

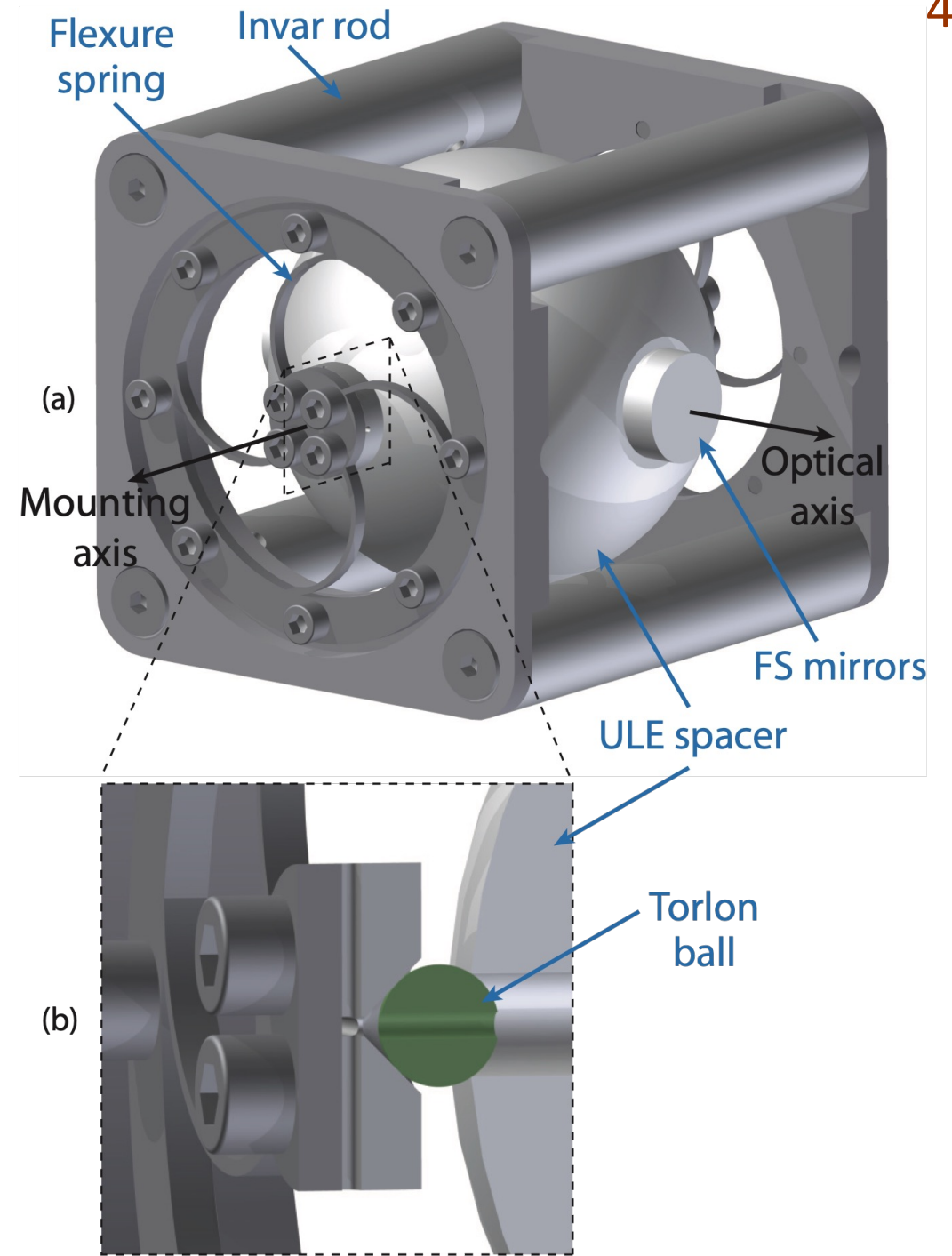
National Institute of Standards and Technology, 325 Broadway Street, Boulder, Colorado 80305, USA

(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 $2(1) \times 10^{-11} \text{ g}^{-1}$ 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](https://doi.org/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

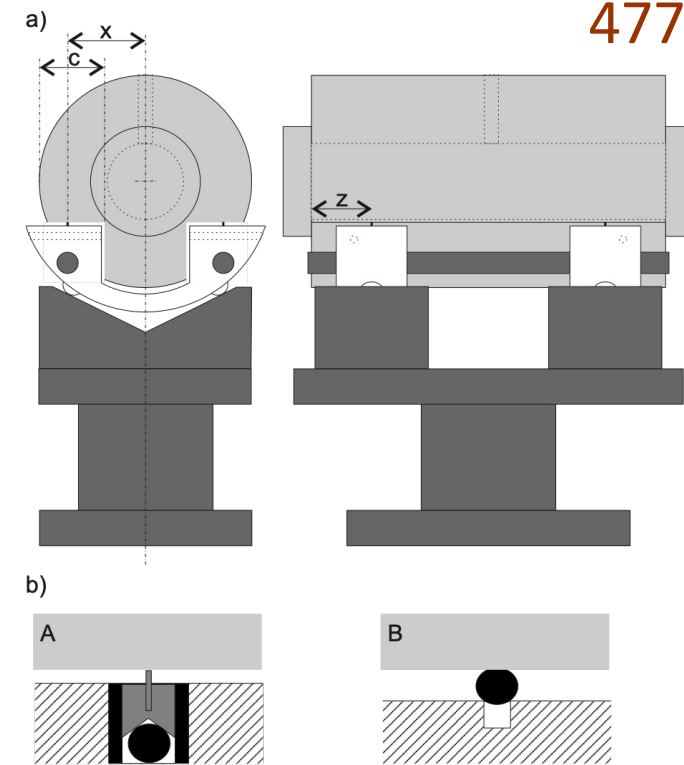
National Physical Laboratory, Hampton Road, Teddington, Middlesex, TW11 0LW, United Kingdom

(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](https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevA.75.011801)

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



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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

¹*National Physical Laboratory, Hampton Road, Teddington, Middlesex, TW11 0LW, United Kingdom*

²*Blackett Laboratory, Imperial College London, South Kensington Campus, London, SW7 2BZ, United Kingdom*

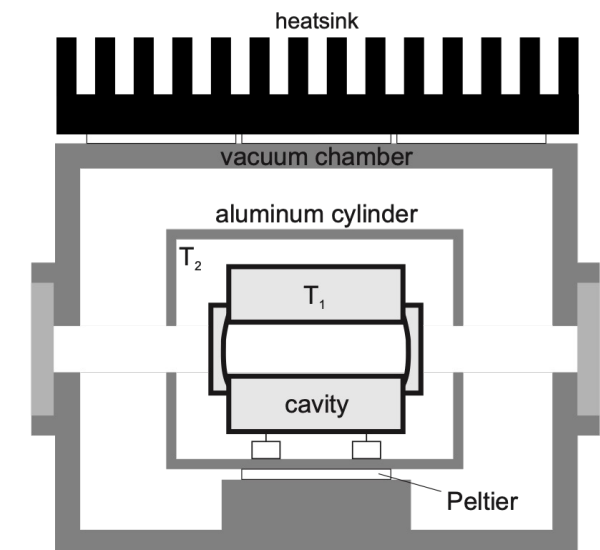
³*SYRTE, Observatoire de Paris, 61, Avenue de l'Observatoire, 75014, Paris, France*

(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](https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevA.77.033847)

PACS number(s): 42.60.Da, 07.60.Ly, 07.10.Fq, 06.30.Ft



Force-insensitive optical cavity

The NPL small cubic cavity

Stephen Webster* and Patrick Gill

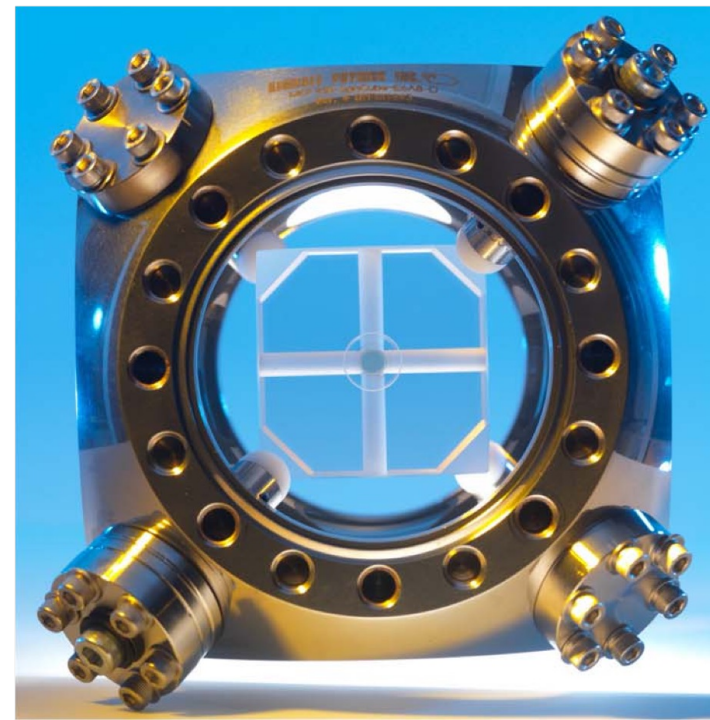
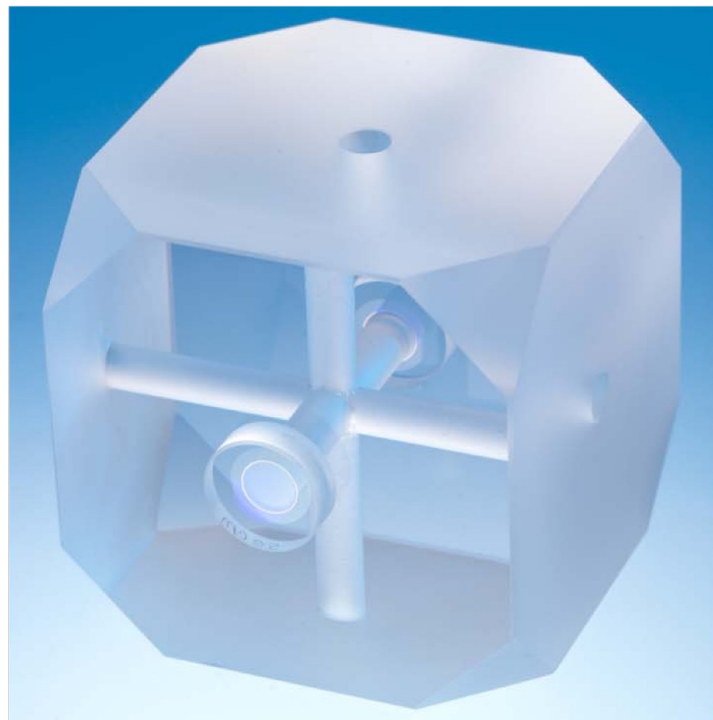
National Physical Laboratory, Hampton Road, Teddington, Middlesex, TW11 0LW, UK

*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 $g = 9.81 \text{ ms}^{-2}$), 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.



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

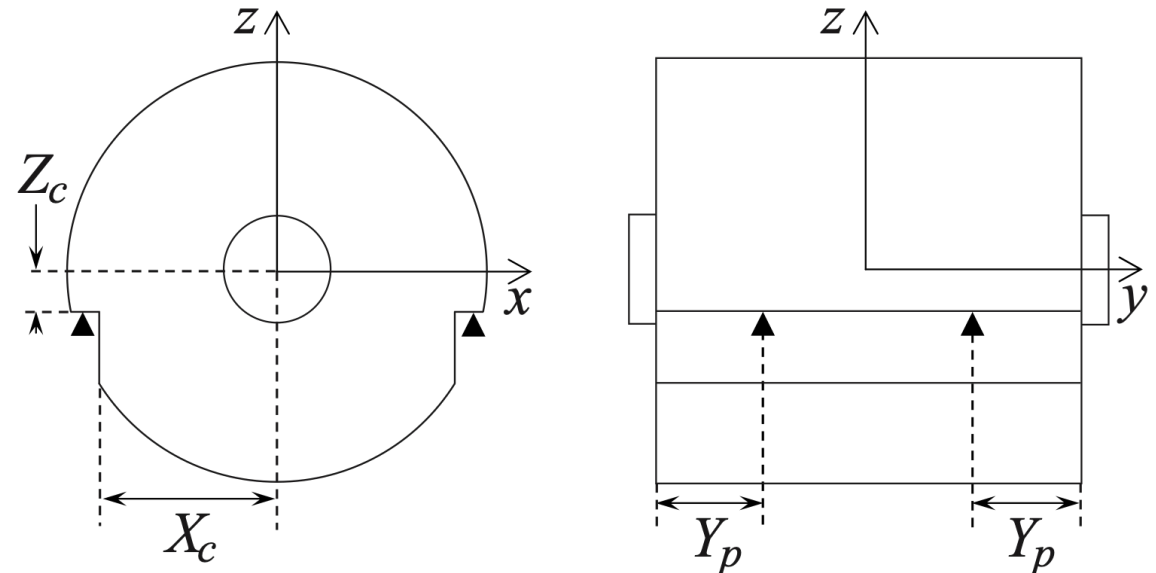
LNE-SYRTE, Observatoire de Paris, CNRS, UPMC, 61 Avenue de l'Observatoire, 75014 Paris, France

(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 $1.5 \times 10^{-11}/\text{m s}^{-2}$ 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.

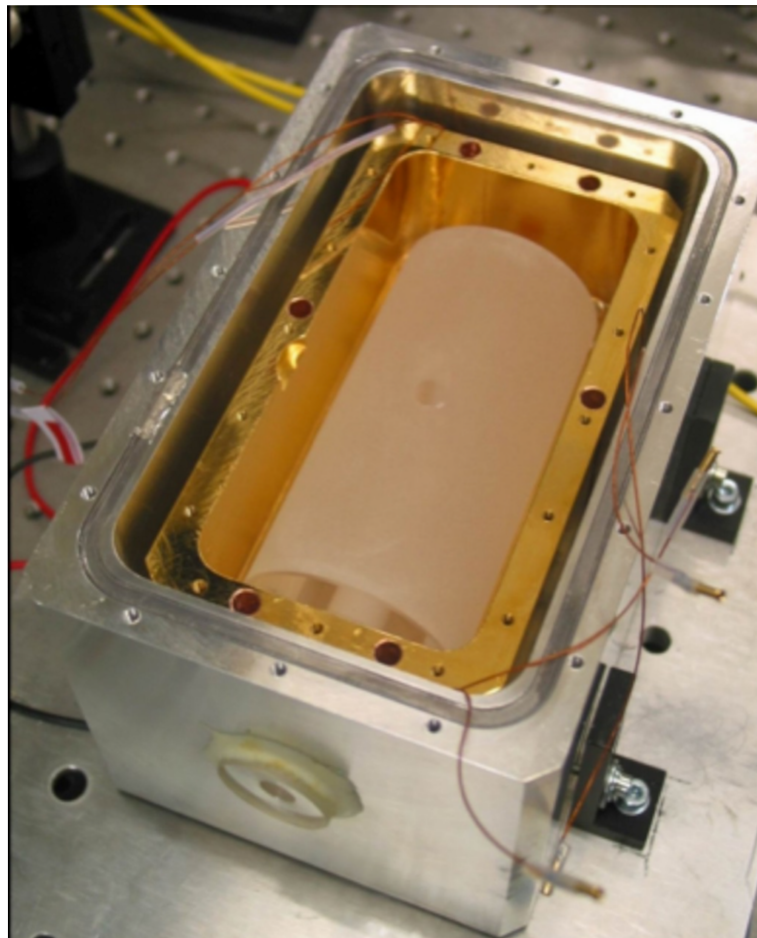
DOI: [10.1103/PhysRevA.79.053829](https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevA.79.053829)

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



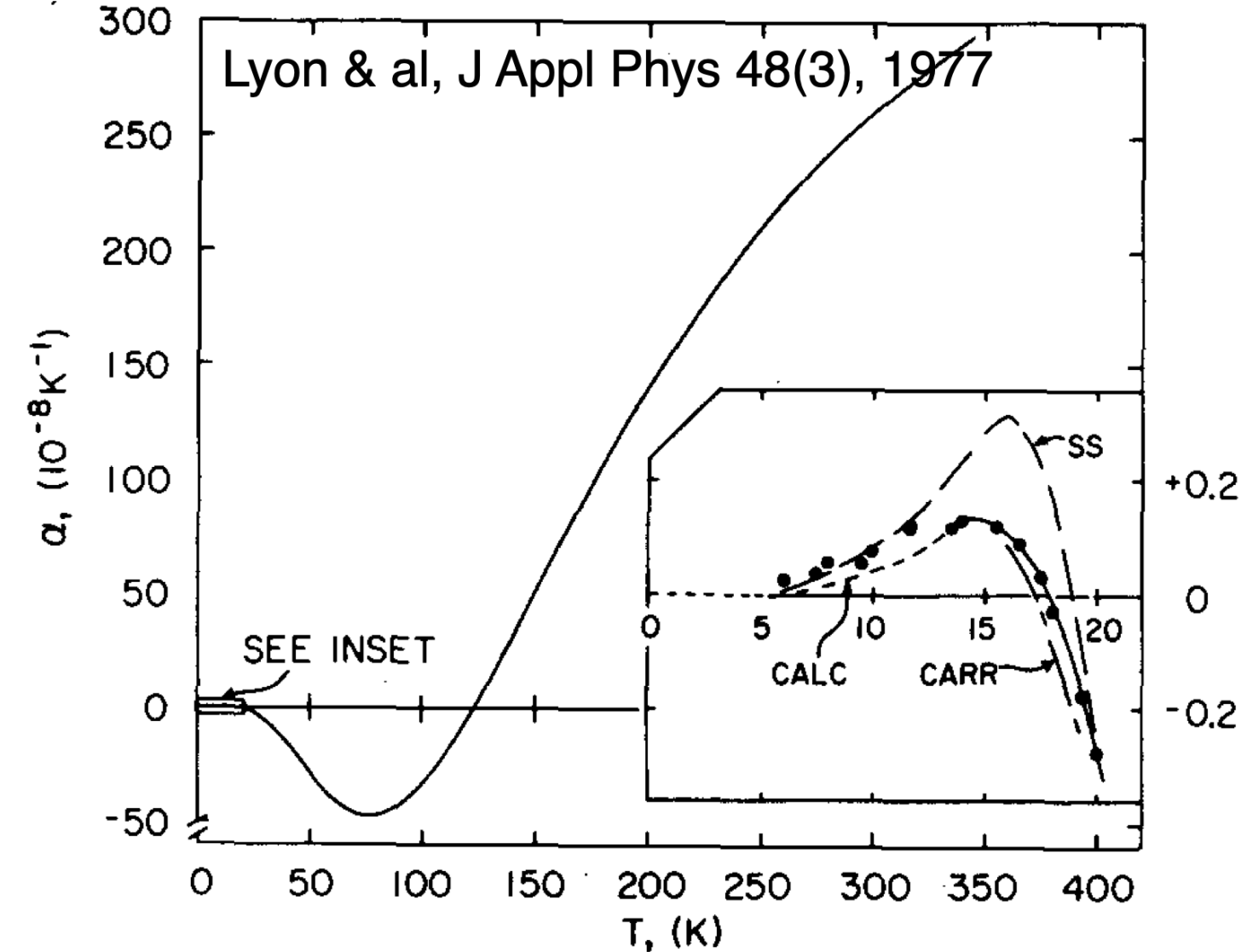
The PTB transportable laser

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



Natural Si has zero expansion at 17 K and 124 K

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



$T = 124 \text{ K} \rightarrow$ 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

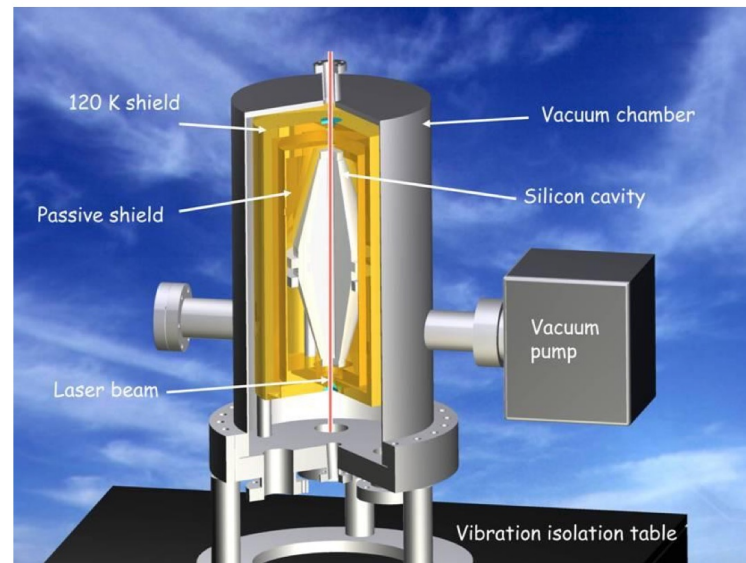
Swenson CA - Recommended values for the
thermal expansivity of Silicon from 0 to 1000 K -
JPCRD 12(2), 1983

The PTB 124-K Si cavity

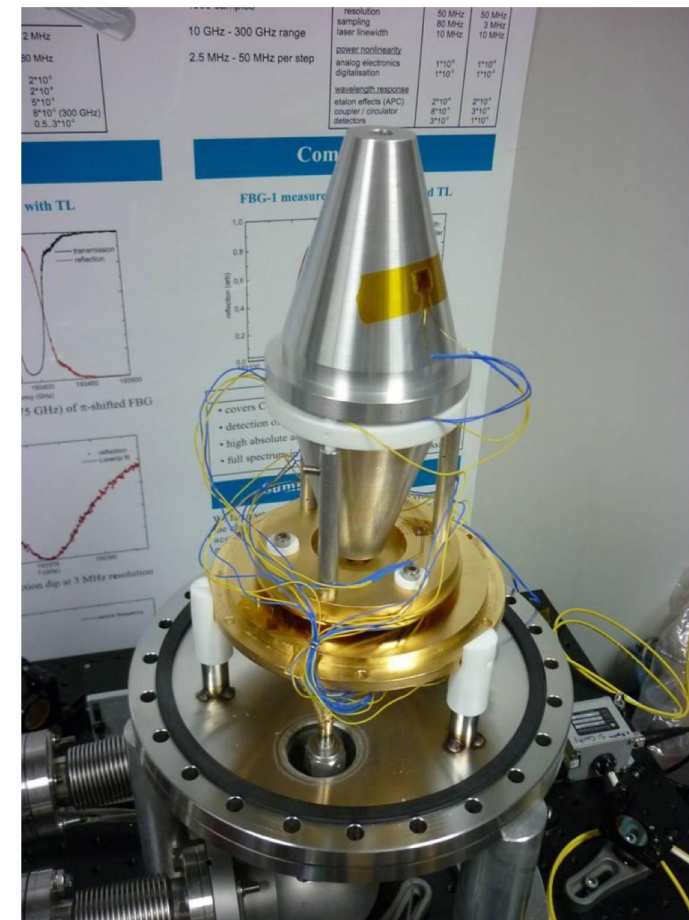
TABLE II. Parameters for optical resonators.

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]
Thermal conductivity	600 W/m K [67]
Specific heat	330 J/kg K [68]
Mechanical loss	0.83×10^{-8} [69]

Experimental setup

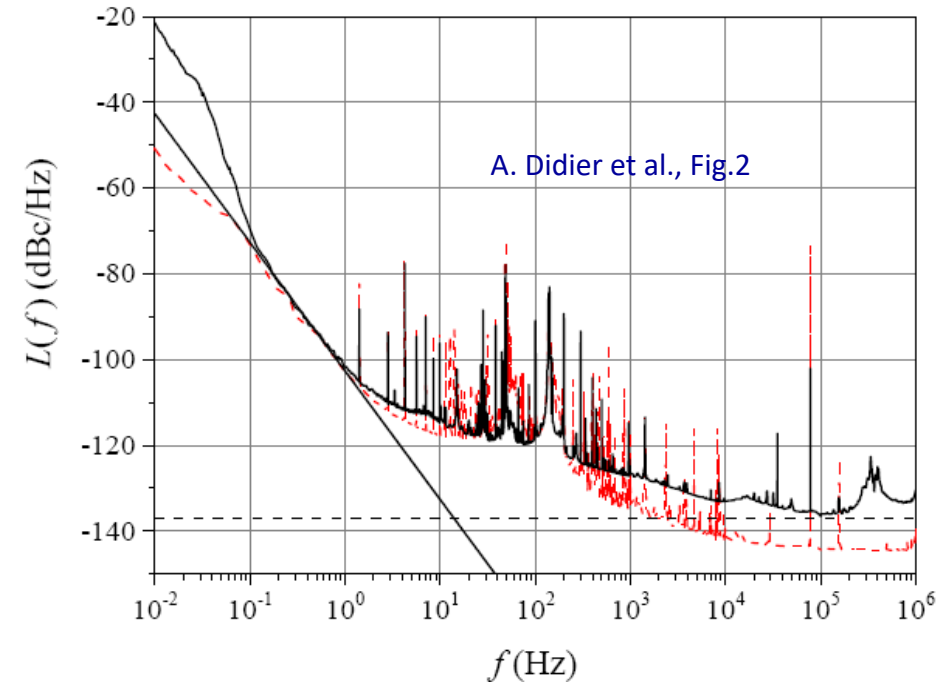
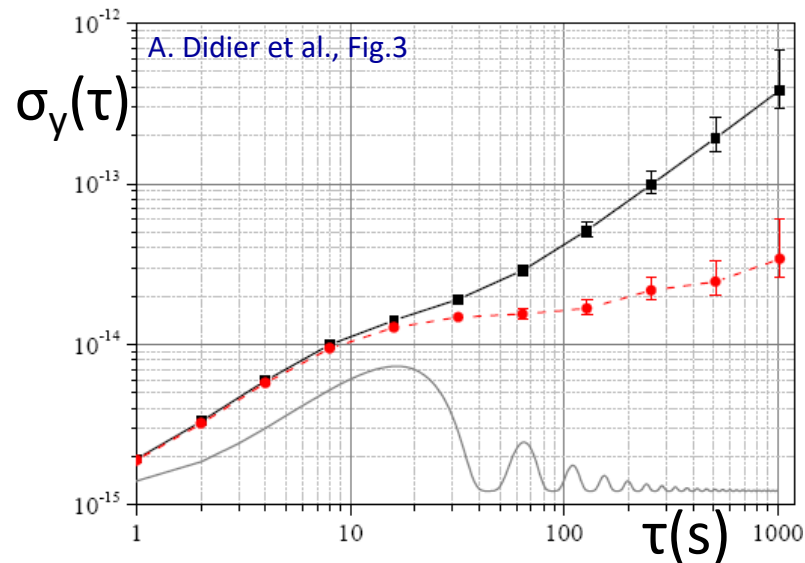
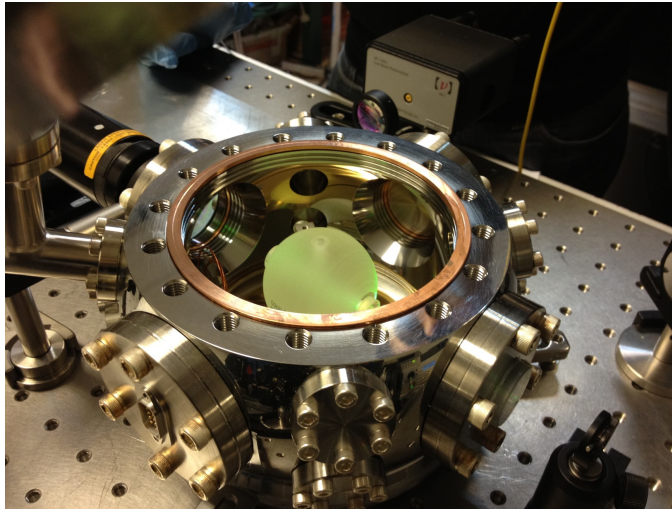


Silicon cavity is thermally isolated by two gold-plated copper shields.



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

A. Didier et al., Photo from the authors



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

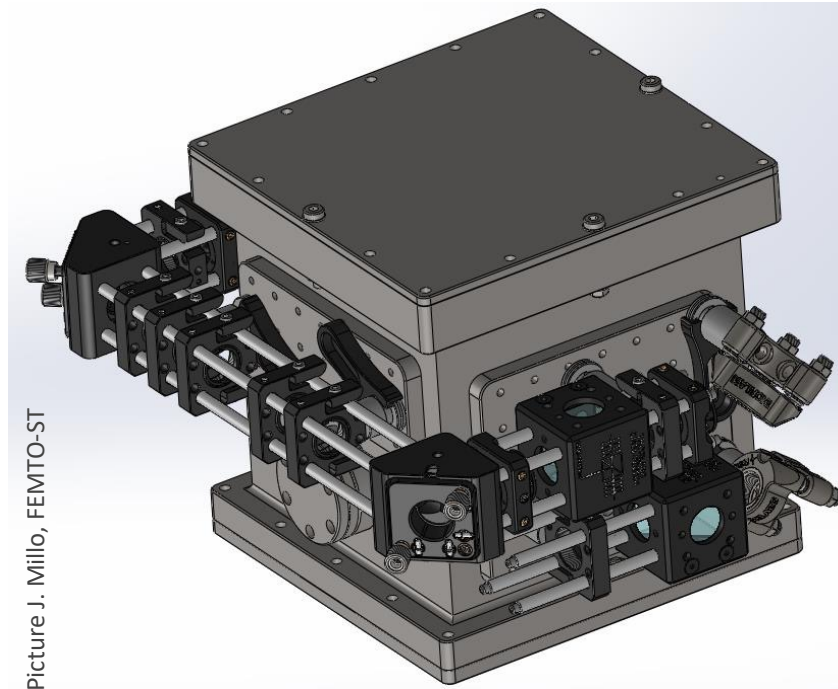
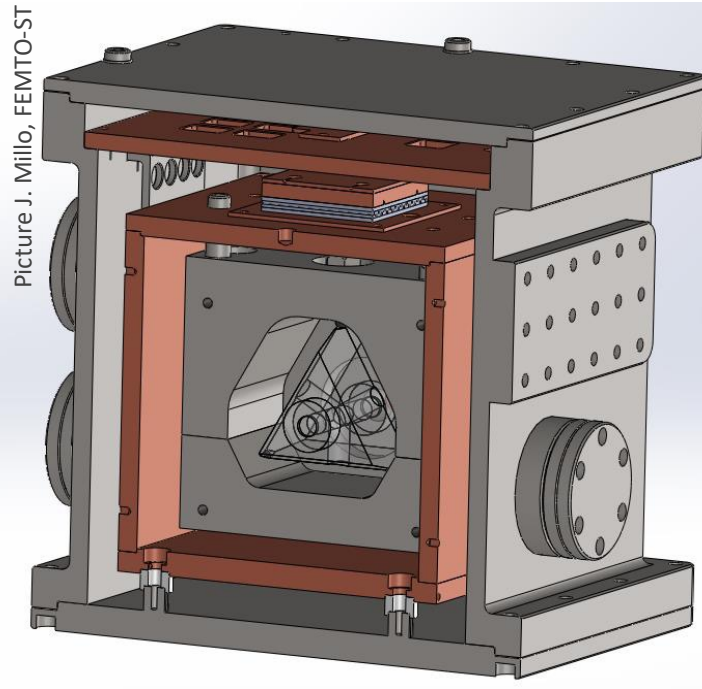
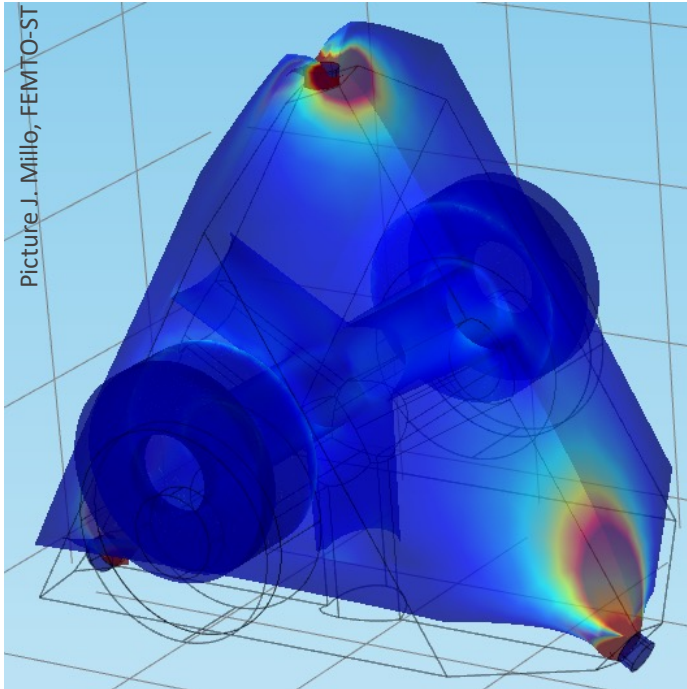
Frequency instability limited by the lab temperature fluctuations

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, Ultra-low phase noise all-optical microwave generation setup based on commercial devices, Applied Optics 54(12) pp.3682-3686, April 2015.

Compact FP etalon

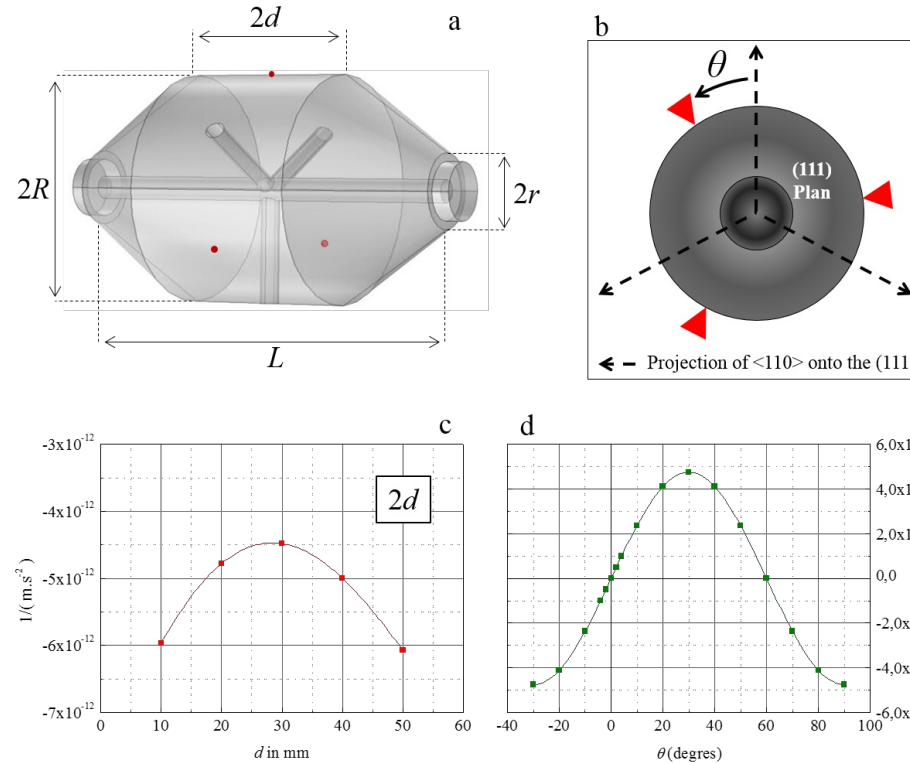
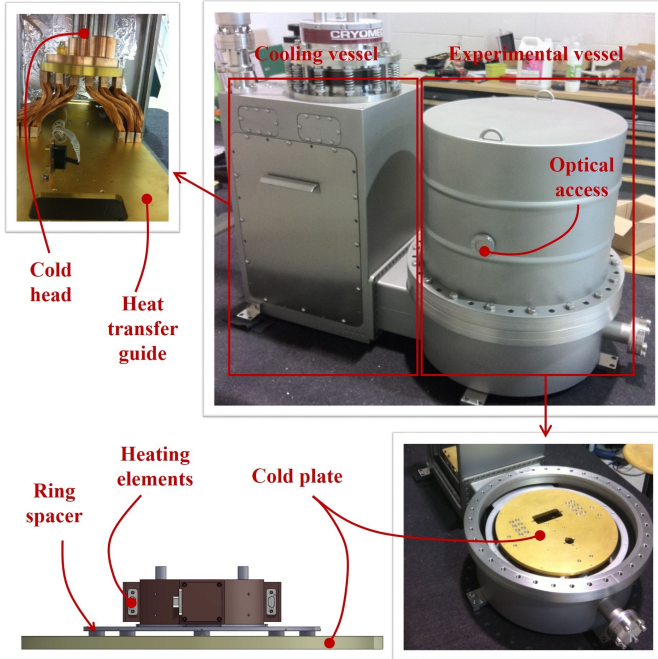
Original project at FEMTO-ST Institute



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

Silicon FP Etalon

Original project at FEMTO-ST Institute



Low vibrations cryocooler:
displacement less than 40 nm
Temperature instability less
than 100 μK

Sensitivity to vibrations
less than $4 \times 10^{-12} / \text{m.s}^{-2}$



Target $\sigma_y(\tau) \approx 3 \times 10^{-17}$

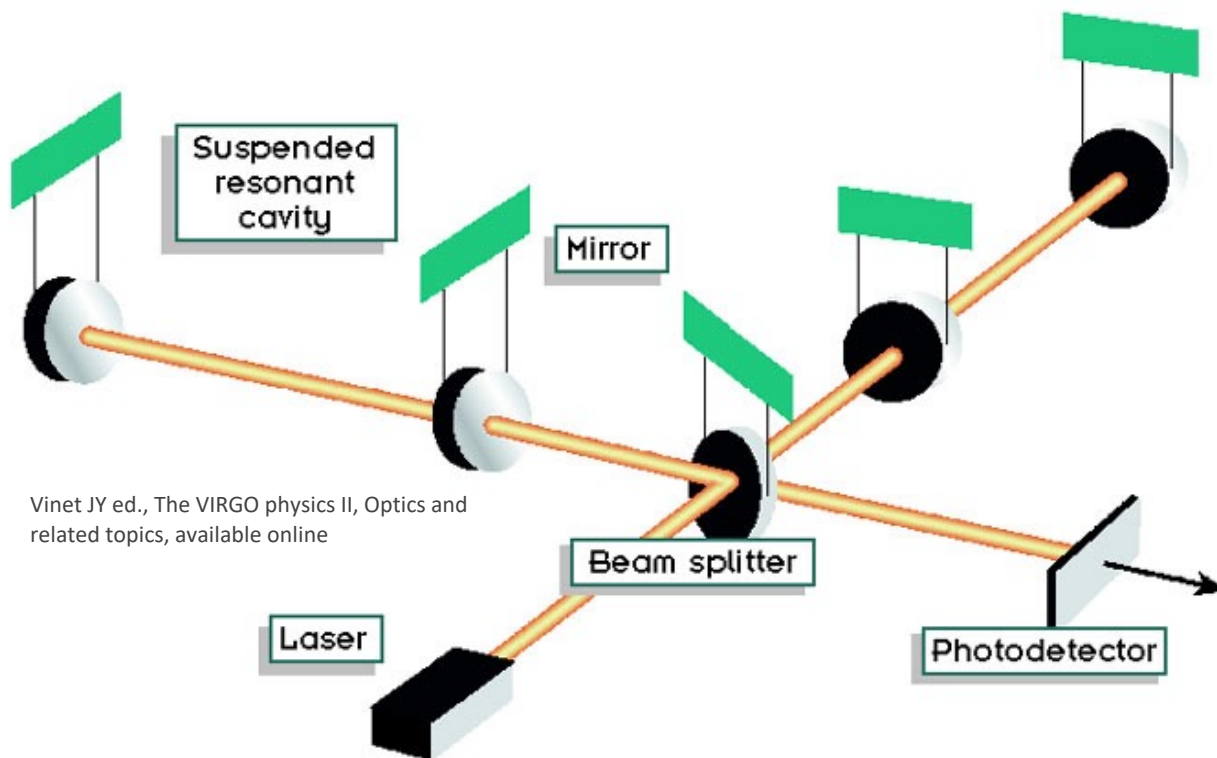
Fundamental Physics

VIRGO – Gravitational waves

Duplicated



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

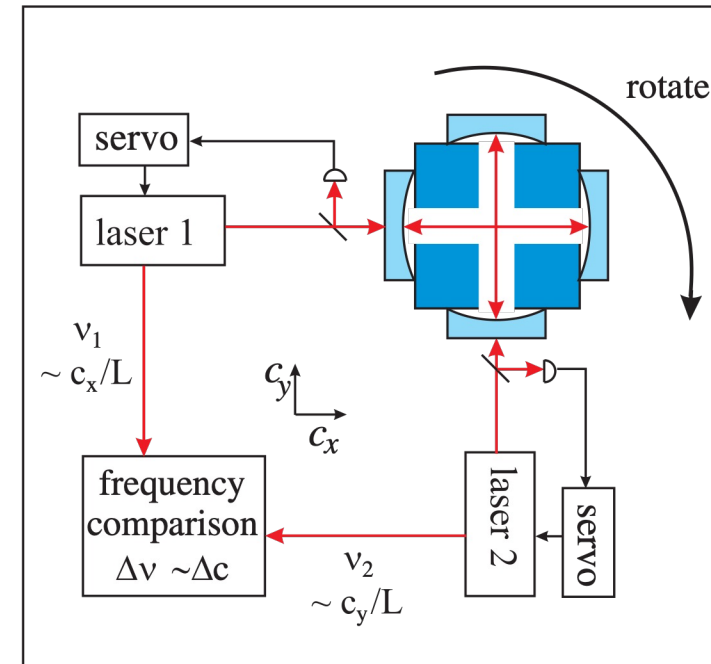
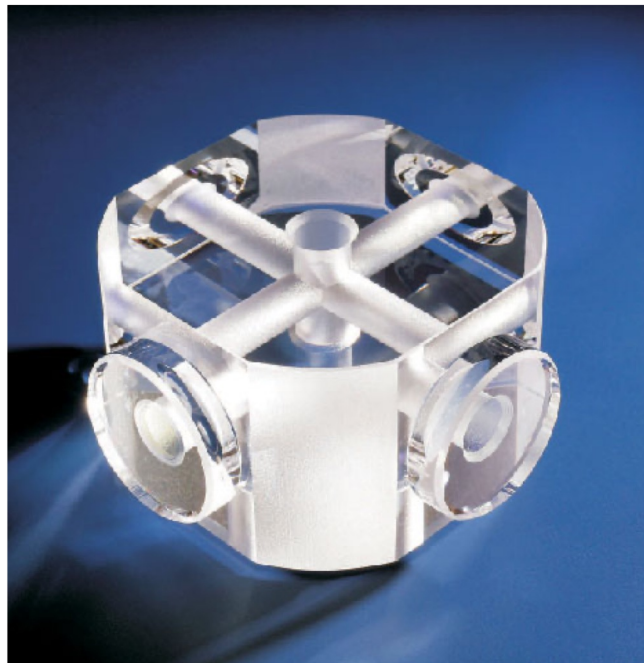
S. Herrmann,^{1,2} A. Senger,¹ K. Möhle,¹ M. Nagel,¹ E. V. Kovalchuk,¹ and A. Peters¹

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} .



Small Crystalline Optical Resonators

Optical materials

	MgF ₂	CaF ₂	Fused silica	Quartz
Transparency range	0.12 to 8.5 μm	0.2 to 9 μm	0.18 to 2.5 μm	0.19 to 2.9 μm
Refractive index @ 1550 nm	$n_o = 1.37$ $n_e = 1.38$	$n = 1.42$	$n = 1.44$	$n_o = 1.54$ $n_e = 1.53$
Hardness (Mohs)	6	4	6-7	7
Crystal Class	Tetragonal	Cubic	Non crystalline	Hexagonal
H ₂ O pollution	Good	Good	Bad	Bad
Mechanical shock	Good	Bad	Good	good

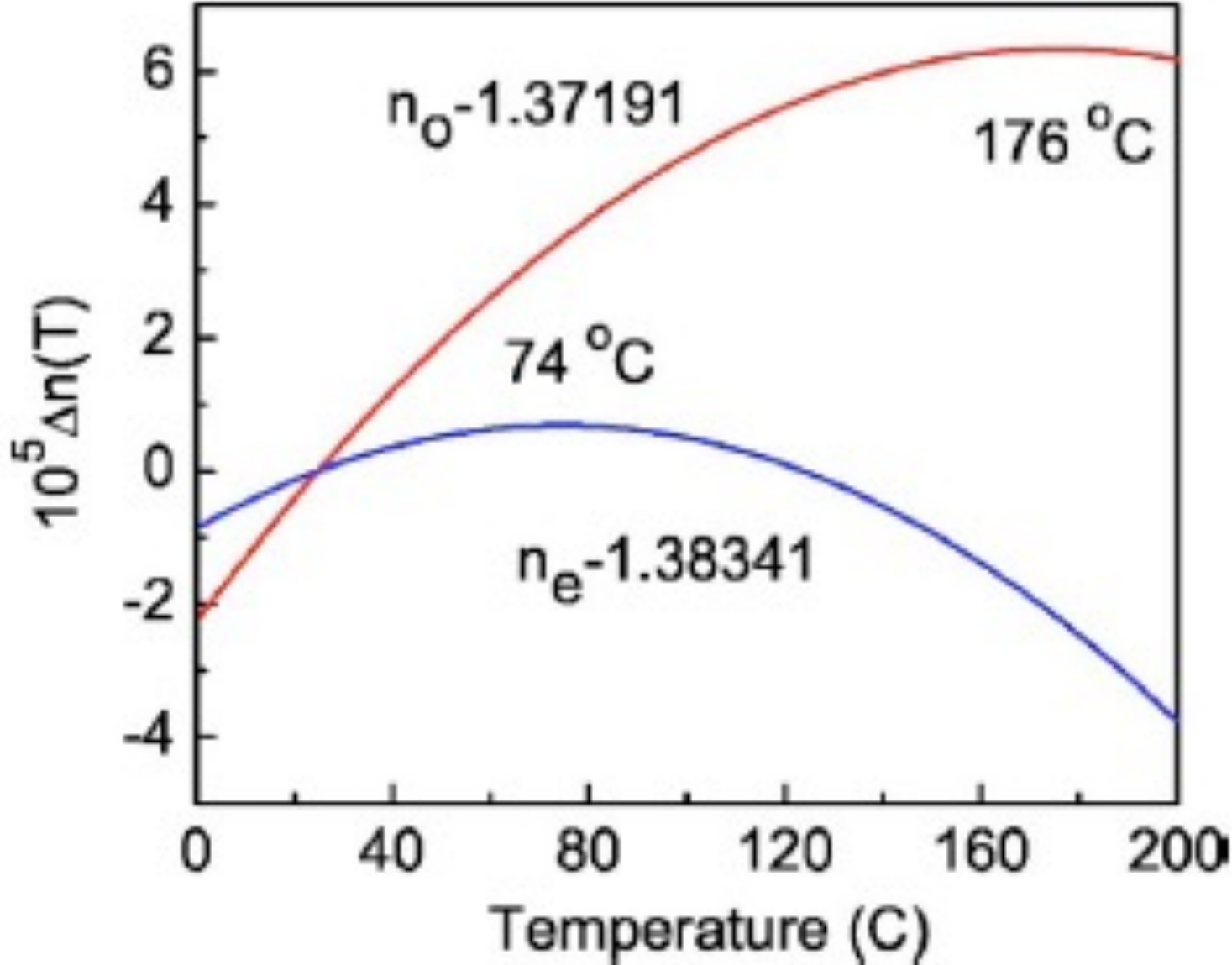
Q = 6×10^{10} demonstrated with CaF₂ disk

I. S. Grudin, V. S. Ilchenko, and L. Maleki, Phys. Rev. A 74, 063806(9) (2006).

Whispering-gallery-mode resonators as frequency references. II. Stabilization

J. Opt. Soc. Am. B/Vol. 24, No. 12/December 2007

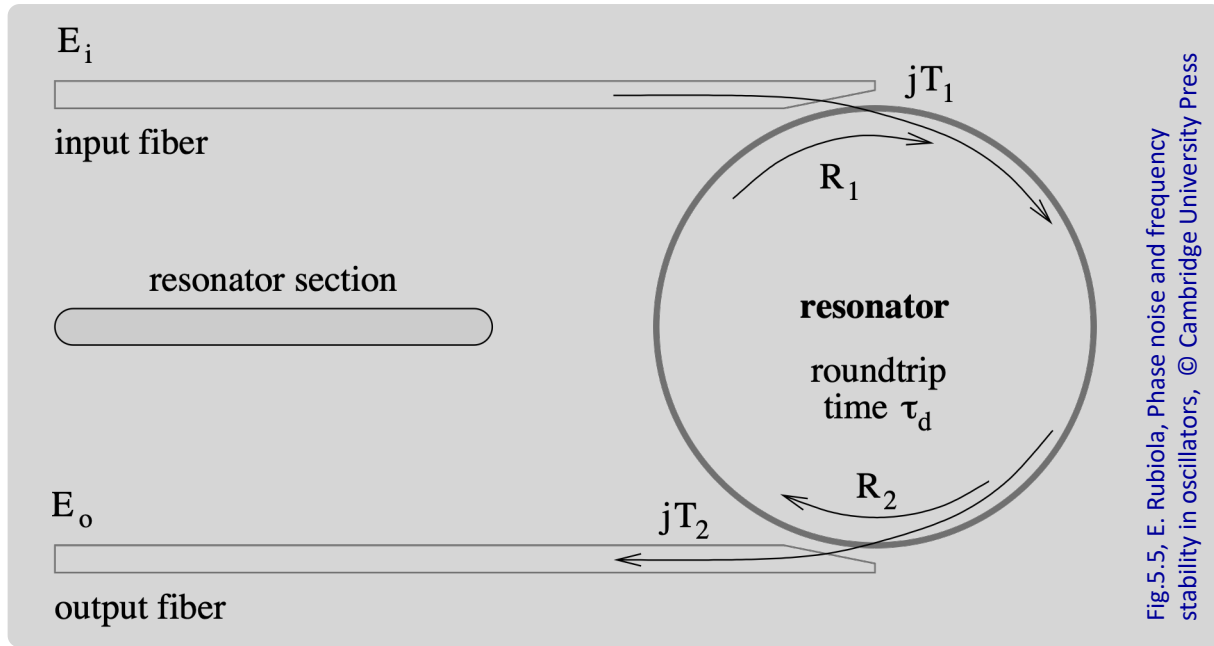
Anatoliy A. Savchenkov, Andrey B. Matsko,* Vladimir S. Ilchenko, Nan Yu, and Lute Maleki



MgF₂ turning point ⁴⁹¹

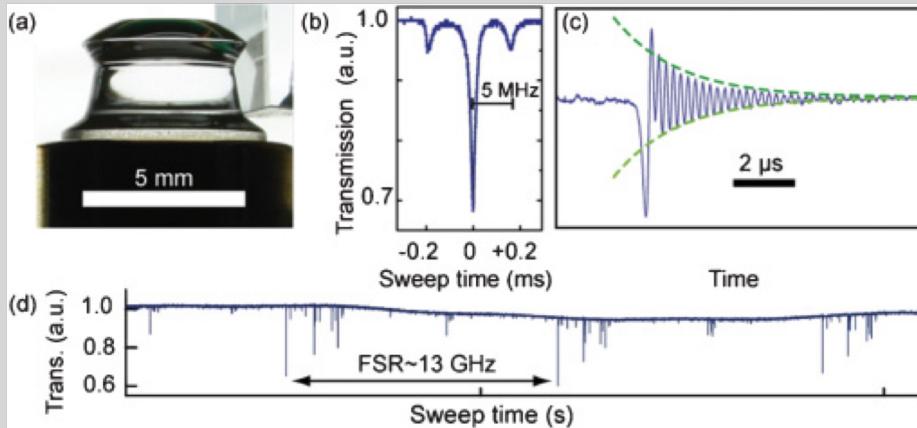
relevant to Pound-Drever-Hall stabilization

Optical whispering gallery

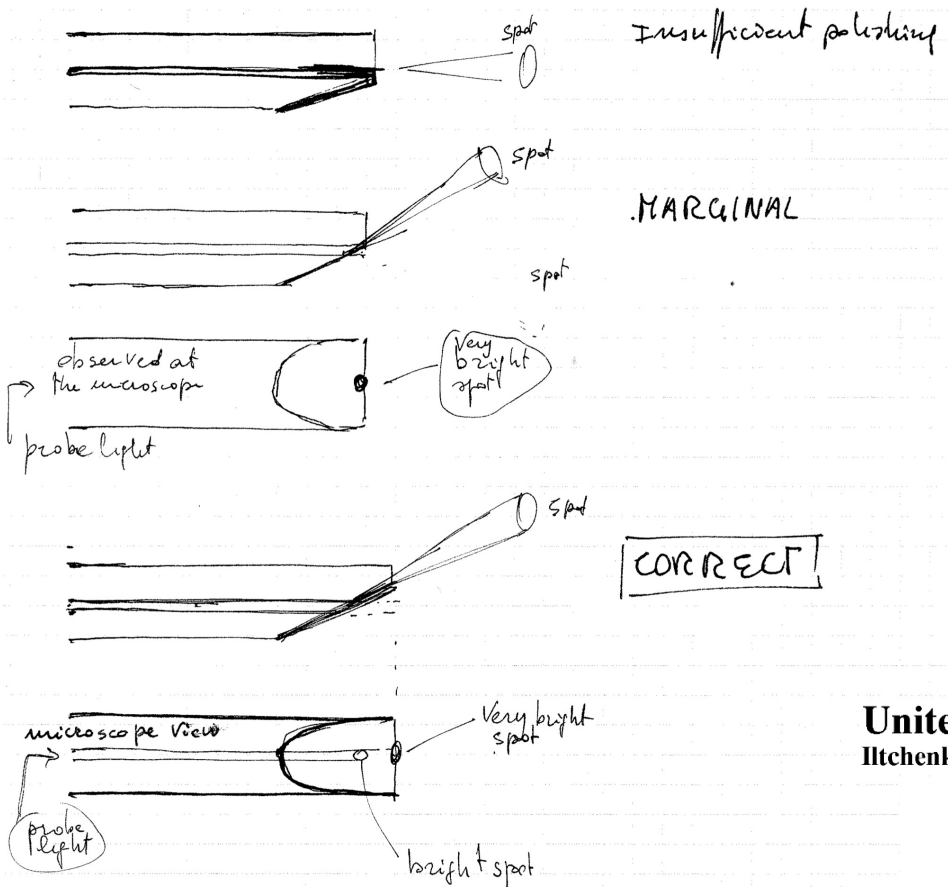


- Pioneering work by Braginsky (Moscow)
- Made popular by Maleki and Ilchenko (JPL/OEwaves)
- Similar to a Fabry Perot
- $Q = 10^9 \dots 10^{11}$ has been reported
- Poor power handling
- Temperature compensation is challenging

Alnis & al., PRA 4, 011804(R) (2011)



Prism-shaped fiber coupler



Invented by Vlad Ilchenko & coworkers
 Hand making this coupler is amazingly simple

Sticking the fiber with thermoplastic glue on a microscope glass slide is an efficient way to sand and polish the fiber with the appropriate angle, without breaking

United States Patent
 Ilchenko

(10) Patent No.: US 6,798,947 B2
 (45) Date of Patent: Sep. 28, 2004

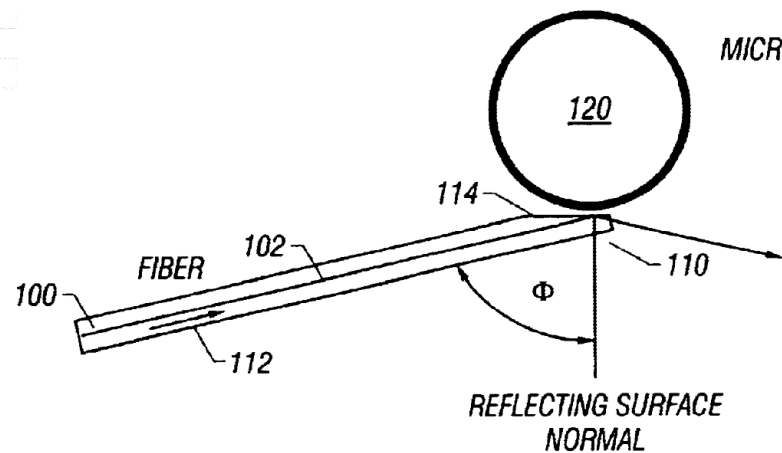


Photo from the Vlad Ilchenko's LinkedIn public profile

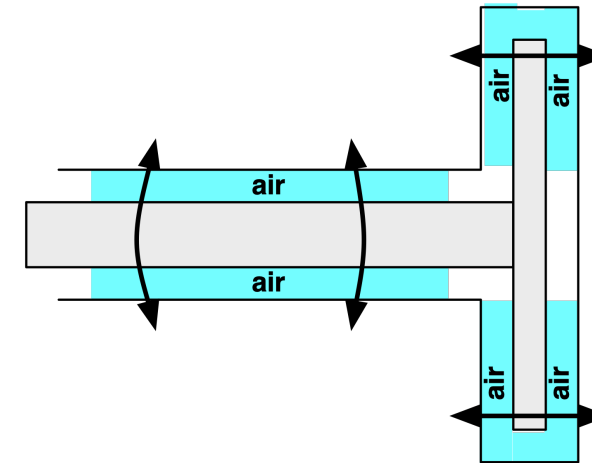
Dedicated lathe

Brushless motor

Air-bearing to guarantee low vibrations

Small eccentricity error (200 nm)

Precision collet to position the resonator holder



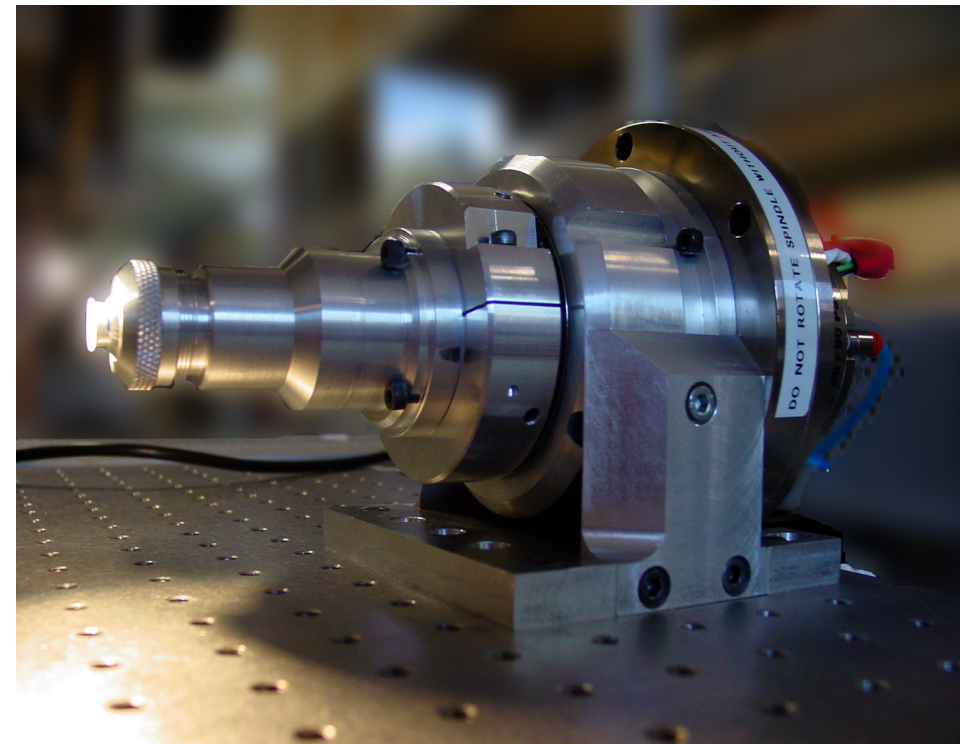
Derives from hard-disk test equipment

Can you figure out what a hard disk is?

3.5" & 7200 rpm => ~ 200 km/h

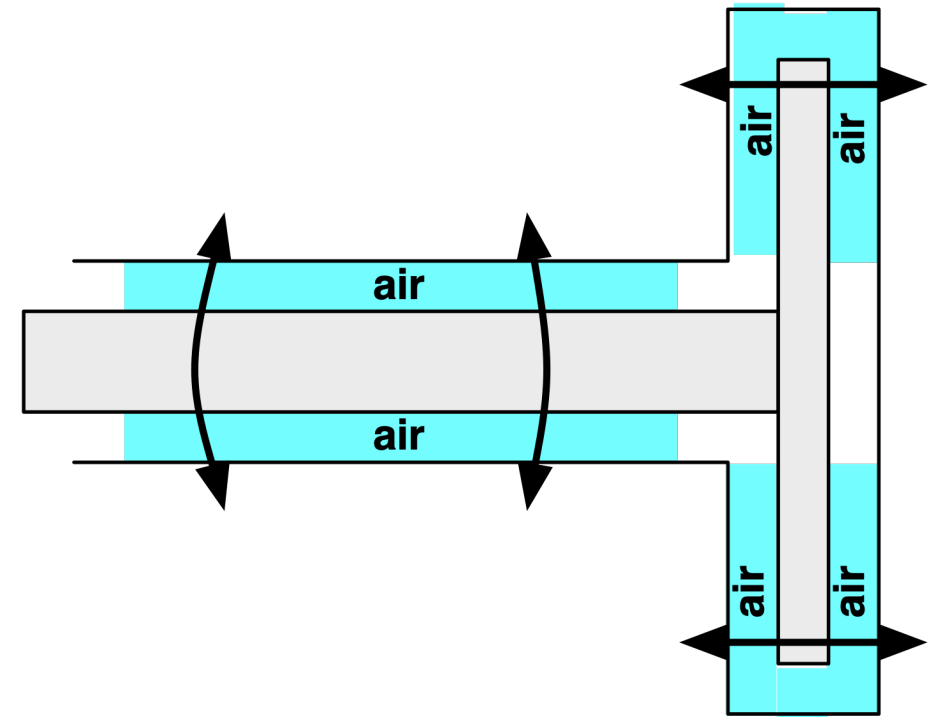
1 (μm)² bit area, 50 nm head-disk distance

Good air bearings available from the technology of progressive lenses for glasses



Small resonators

- Technology: dedicated lathe
- an air-spindle motor for lowest vibration (from a hard-disk test equipment)
- btw, can you figure out what a hard disk is?
- 3.5" & 7200 rpm => ~ 200 km/h
- 1 (μm)² bit area, 50 nm head–disk distance
- Surface metrology: ready
- A few resonator already made
- quartz, 7 ° Mohs (technology training, not for serious oscillators)
- CaF₂ 4 ° Mohs, too soft for serious precision machining
- MgF₂ (~6 ° Mohs) harder than CaF₂, more suitable to machining
- Achieved Q=3x10⁸ with MgF₂ resonator (still low, but it goes with tapered-fiber coupling)
- Achieved stable coupling with tapered fiber (H. Tavernier)
- Let us dream
- diamond: probably chemical purity may be a problem (insufficient transparency)
- sapphire: think more about it (we can learn a lot from the microwave technology)
- MgF₂ seems to have a turning point of the thermorefractive index
- 74 °C, extraordinary wave
- 176 °C, ordinary wave



Resonator preforming and polishing

Stick a 6 mm MgF₂ optical window on a metal holder (0.5 - 1 mm thick)

Correct for the centering error by grinding with several diamond grains size (40 - 20 μm)

Create two 20° bevels to get a thin edge (about 30 μm , depending on crystal splinters)

Several polishing powders in decreasing grains size (diamond, colloidal silica, cerium oxide, alumina) diluted in distilled water (6 μm to 30 nm)

Polishing baize used as powder holder

Rotation speed depends on grain size



*Figures/photos: FEMTO-ST Institute
(project canceled)*



Surface roughness & Newton rings

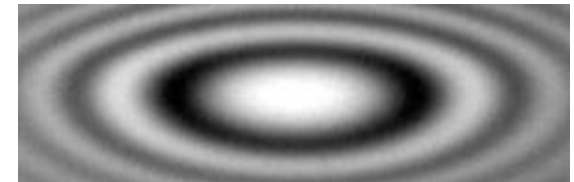
White light phase-shifting microscope
with 1 nm of resolution.
(FEMTO-ST instrument, based on the idea of phase-contrast
microscope)

Interference fringes as contour curves.
Smooth contour curves indicates
roughness less than 20 nm.

200 nm surface roughness



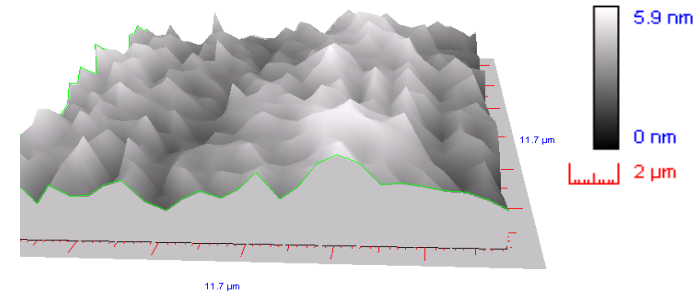
< 20 nm surface roughness



Figures/photos: FEMTO-ST Institute
(project canceled)

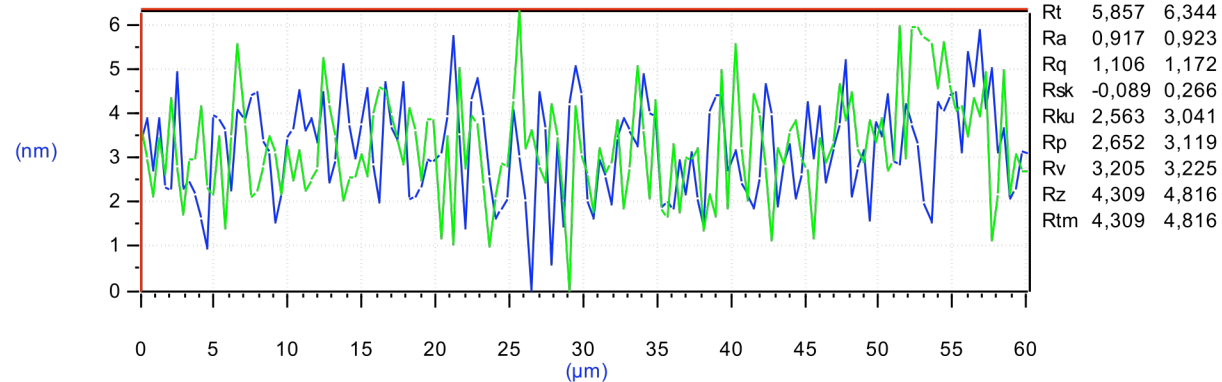
Surface roughness

White light phase-shifting microscope with piezo control, after scan and image processing



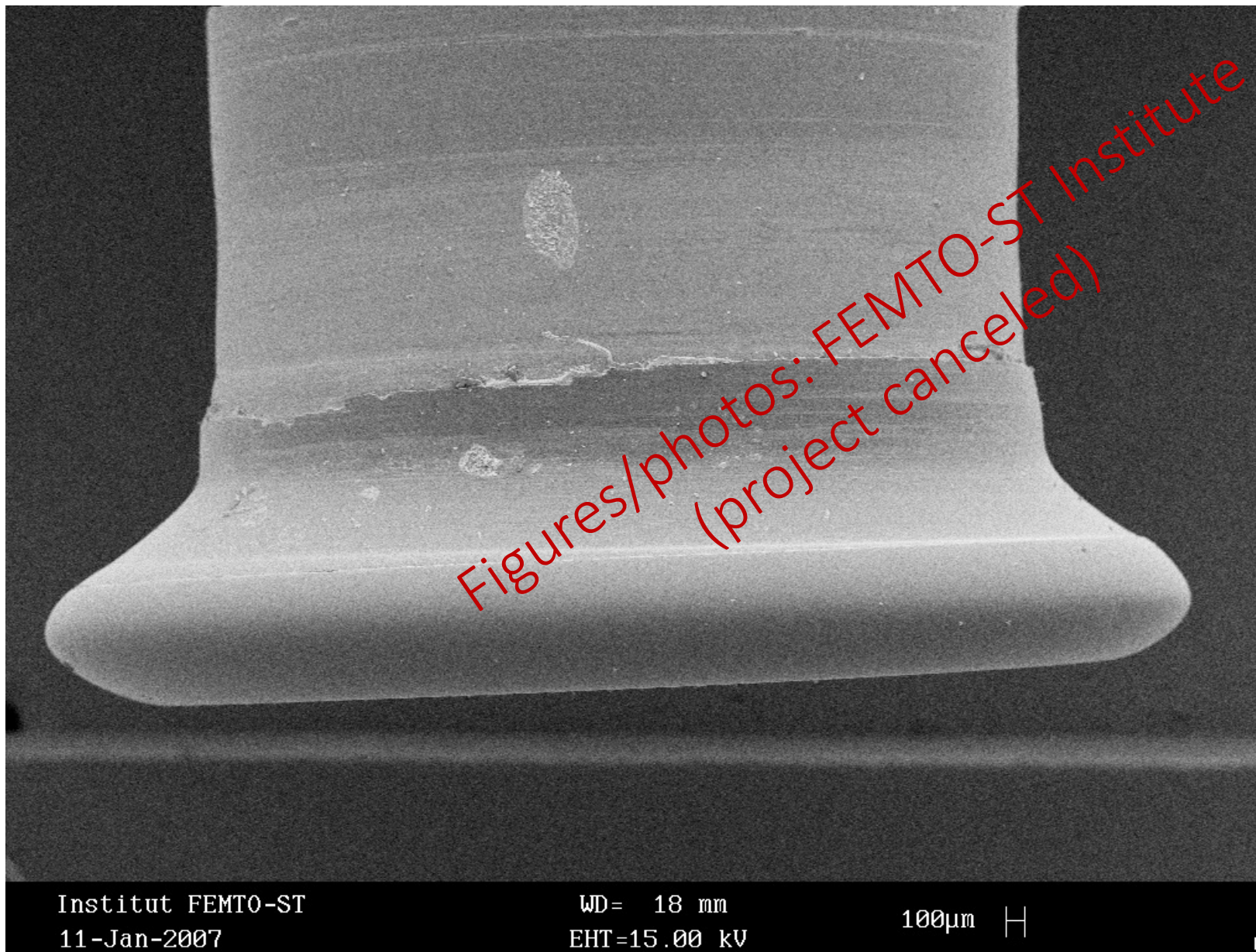
3D surface of the disk

Roughness: 6 nm peak-to-peak, 0.92 nm rms.



Figures/photos: FEMTO-ST Institute
(project canceled)

Small quartz resonator



Taper coupling

Tapered SMF28 fiber glued on the holder.
Manufactured by LASEO (Lannion, FR)
For lowest stress, holder geometry and alloy match the thermal expansion of glass.
Waist <math>< 3 \mu\text{m}</math>.
3-axis nano-positioning with 20 nm resolution.



Fiber glued on the holder



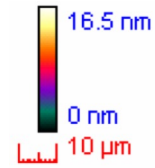
Nano-positioning system

Advantages vs. prism-shaped fiber:
+ higher modal selectivity
+ clean mechanical design
+ one coupler serves as in/out

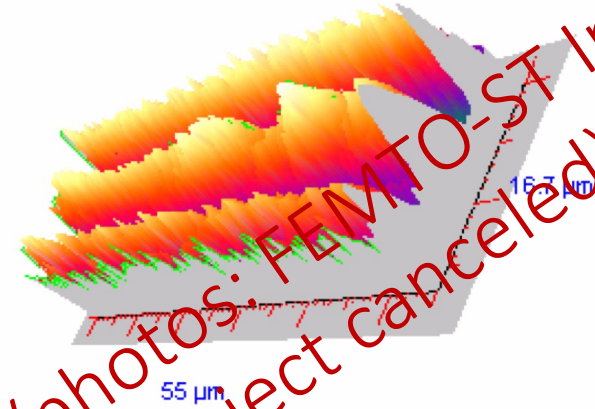
Figures/photos: FEMTO-ST Institute
(project canceled)

Disk resonator – Surface characterization

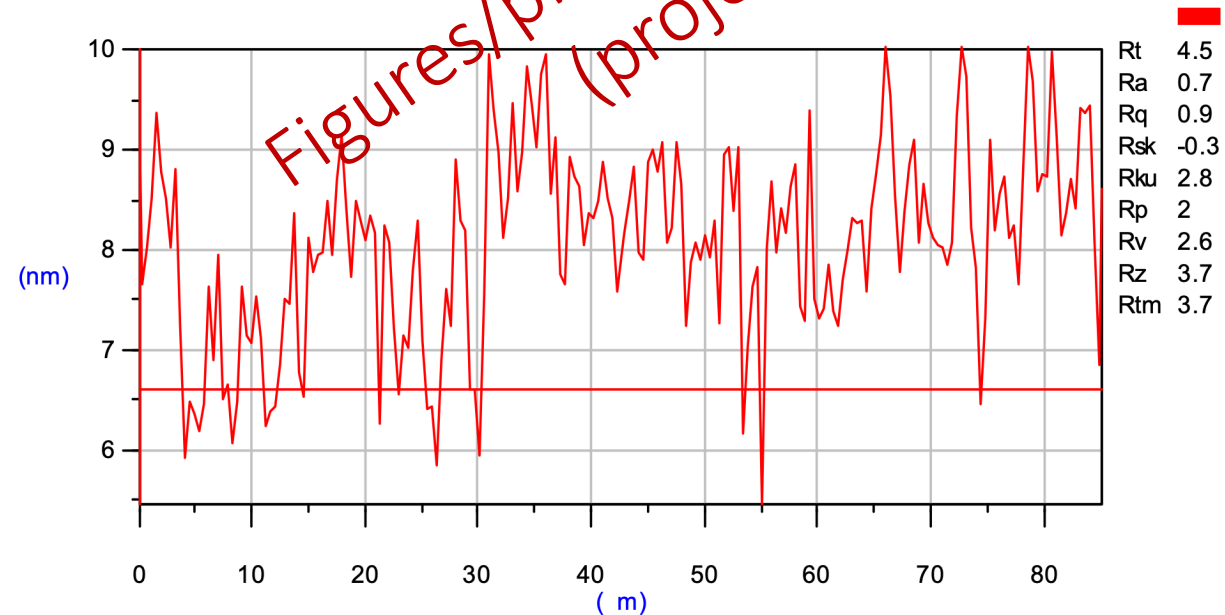
disk
surface



Ondelette Batwings - Redressement

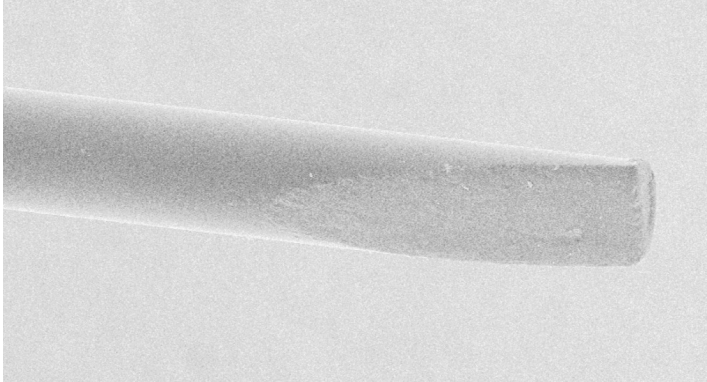


surface
rugosity



Coupling: prism-shaped optical fiber

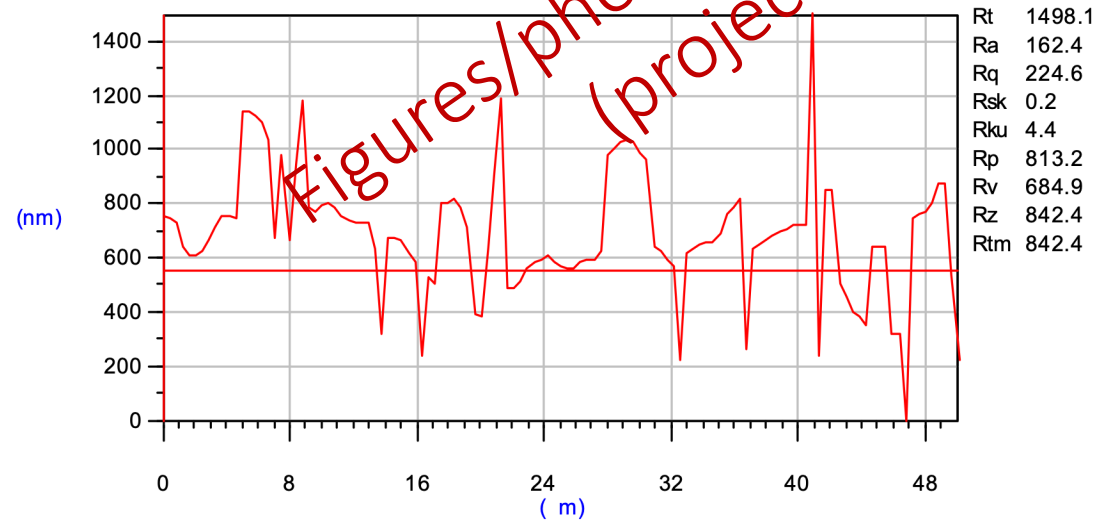
electron-beam microscope photo



precision saw



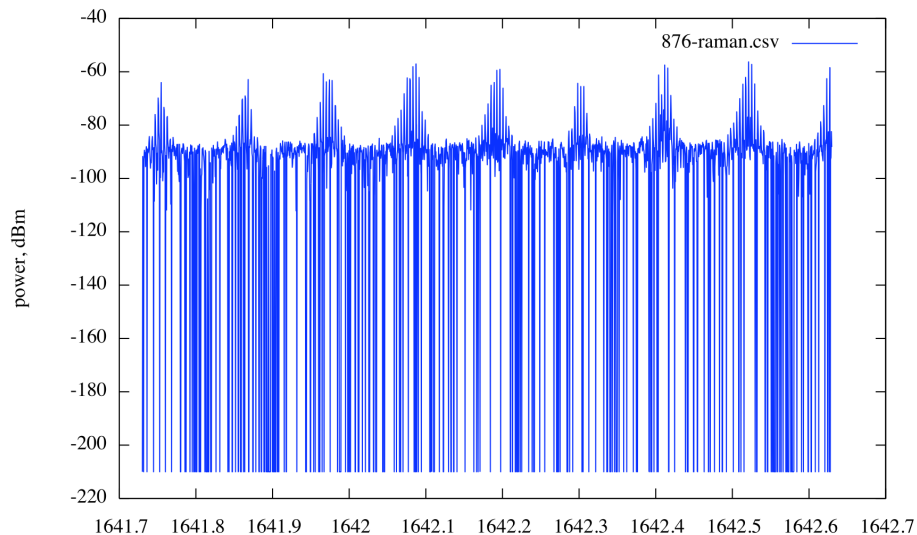
surface rugosity



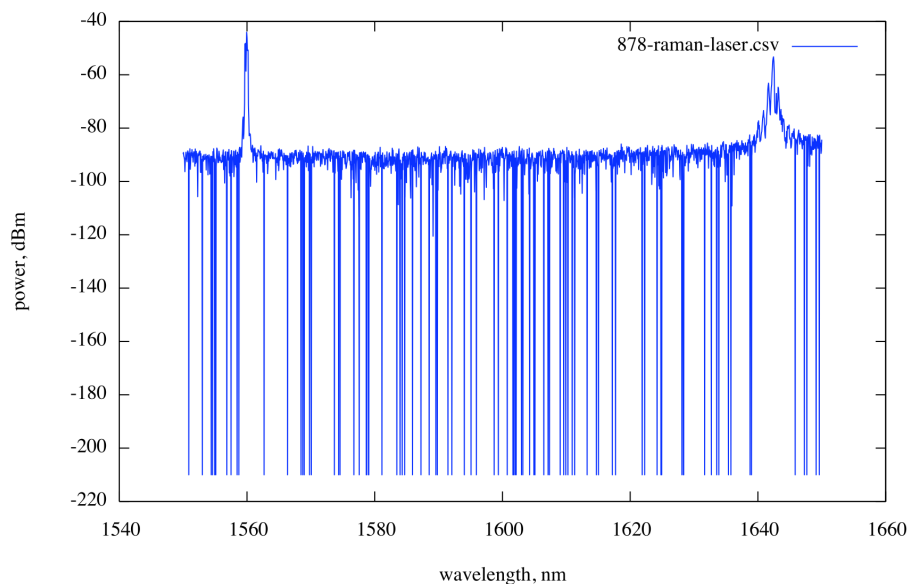
Let technologists have fun with their weird equipment
I don't think that the fiber machining is that critical (also experience)

Raman oscillations

Raman oscillations



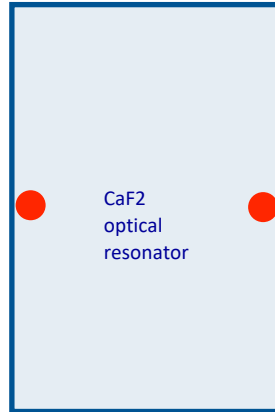
Raman oscillations



- The Raman amplification is a quantum phenomenon of nonlinear origin that involves optical phonons.
- Raman amplification in a high-Q cavity yields oscillation.
- Oscillation threshold $\sim 1/Q^2$ (Anrey Matsko said)
- For reference with $Q \approx 5 \times 10^9$, the maximum optical power is of $20 \mu\text{W}$
- In CaF₂ pumped at $1.56 \mu\text{m}$, Raman oscillation occurs at $1.64 \mu\text{m}$
- Due to the large linewidth, the Raman oscillation appears as a bunch of (noisy) spectral lines spaced by the FSR (12 GHz, or 100 pm for 5.5 mm diam)
- Raman phonons modulate the optical properties of the crystal, which induces noise at the pump frequency ($1.56 \mu\text{m}$)

Thermal effects on frequency

5.5x8 mm²



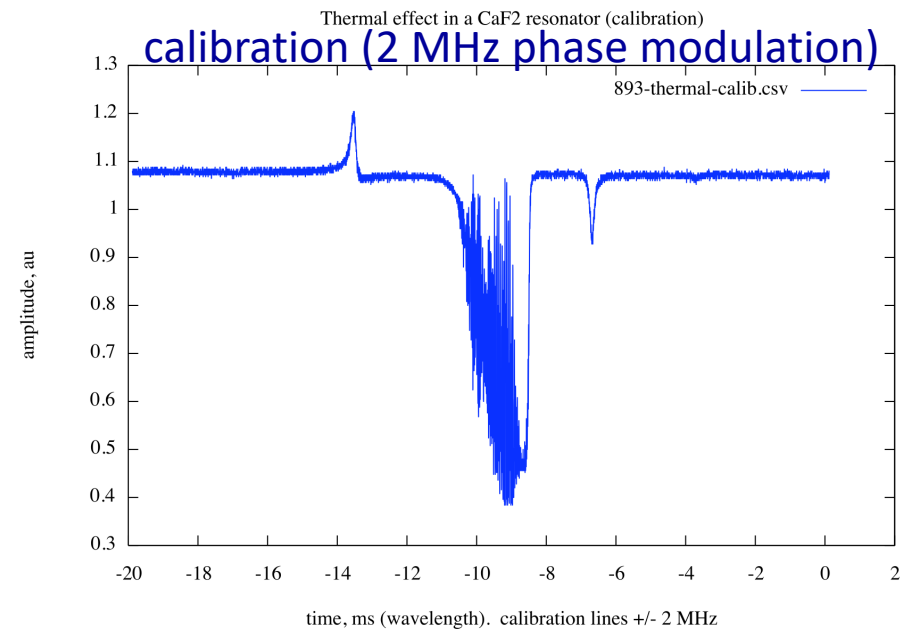
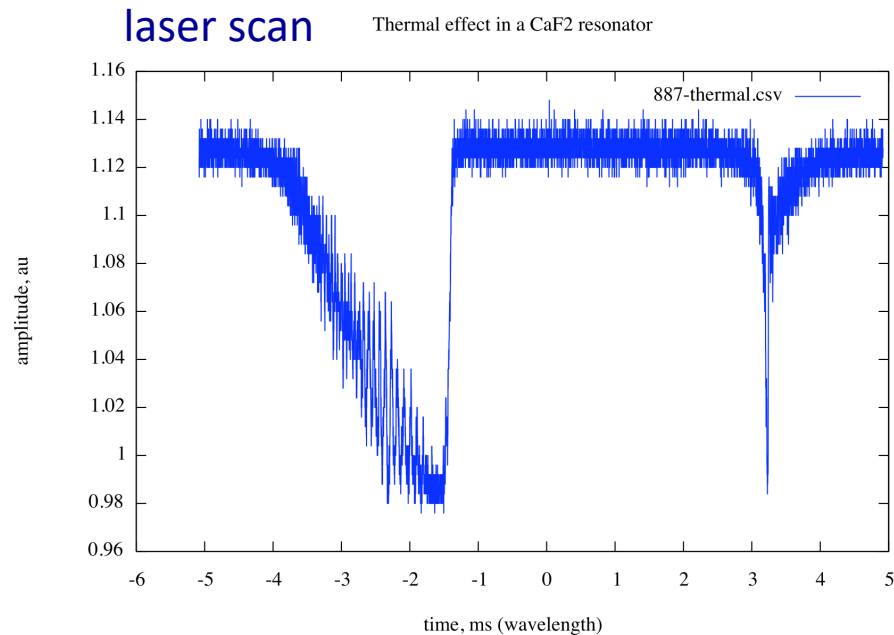
1.56 μm wavelength (192 THz)

$Q=5 \times 10^9 \rightarrow \text{BW}=40 \text{ kHz}$

300 μW power shifts the resonant frequency by 1.2 MHz
(6×10^{-9}), i.e., 37.5 x BW

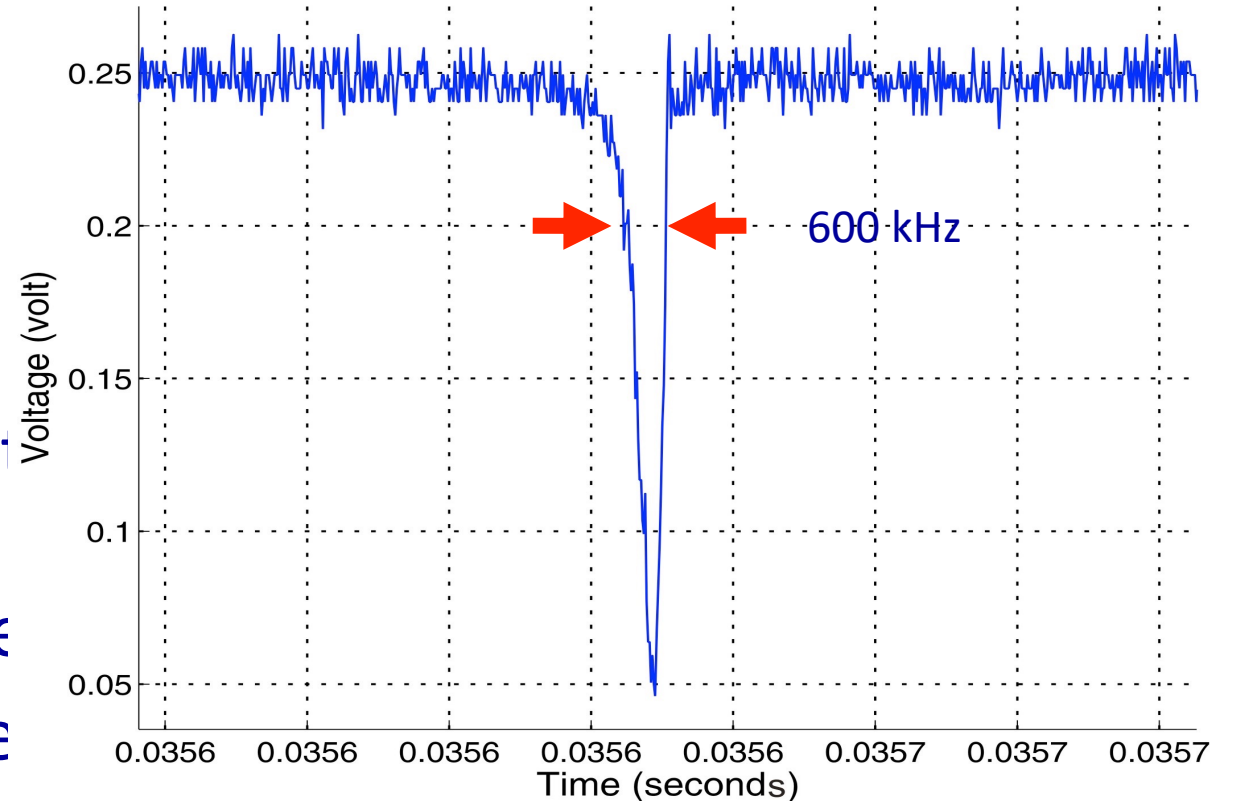
Time scale about 60 μs

[$Q = 6 \times 10^{10}$ demonstrated with CaF2 (I. Grudinin)]



Thermal effect on frequency (MgF₂)

- Asymmetric shape.
- Positive TC (λ) of the
- resonance.
- Triangle sweep.
- First half of resonance shape: energy region.
- The resonance tracks the carrier
- Second half: heating decrease
- The resonance steps back



Low-power oscillator operation

Assume:

$$\lambda = 1560 \text{ nm}$$

$$\rho = 0.8 \text{ A/W}$$

$$R = 50 \text{ Ohm}$$

$$(P\lambda)_{\text{peak}} = 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ W} \quad (20 \text{ } \mu\text{W})$$

Shot noise (m=1)

$$I_{RMS} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \rho \bar{P}_\lambda$$

$$S_I = 2q\bar{I} = 2q \rho \bar{P}_\lambda$$

$$SNR = \frac{1}{4} \frac{\rho \bar{P}_\lambda}{q}$$

Thermal noise (m=1)

$$I_{RMS} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \rho \bar{P}_\lambda$$

$$S_I = \frac{4kT}{R} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{4FkT}{R}$$

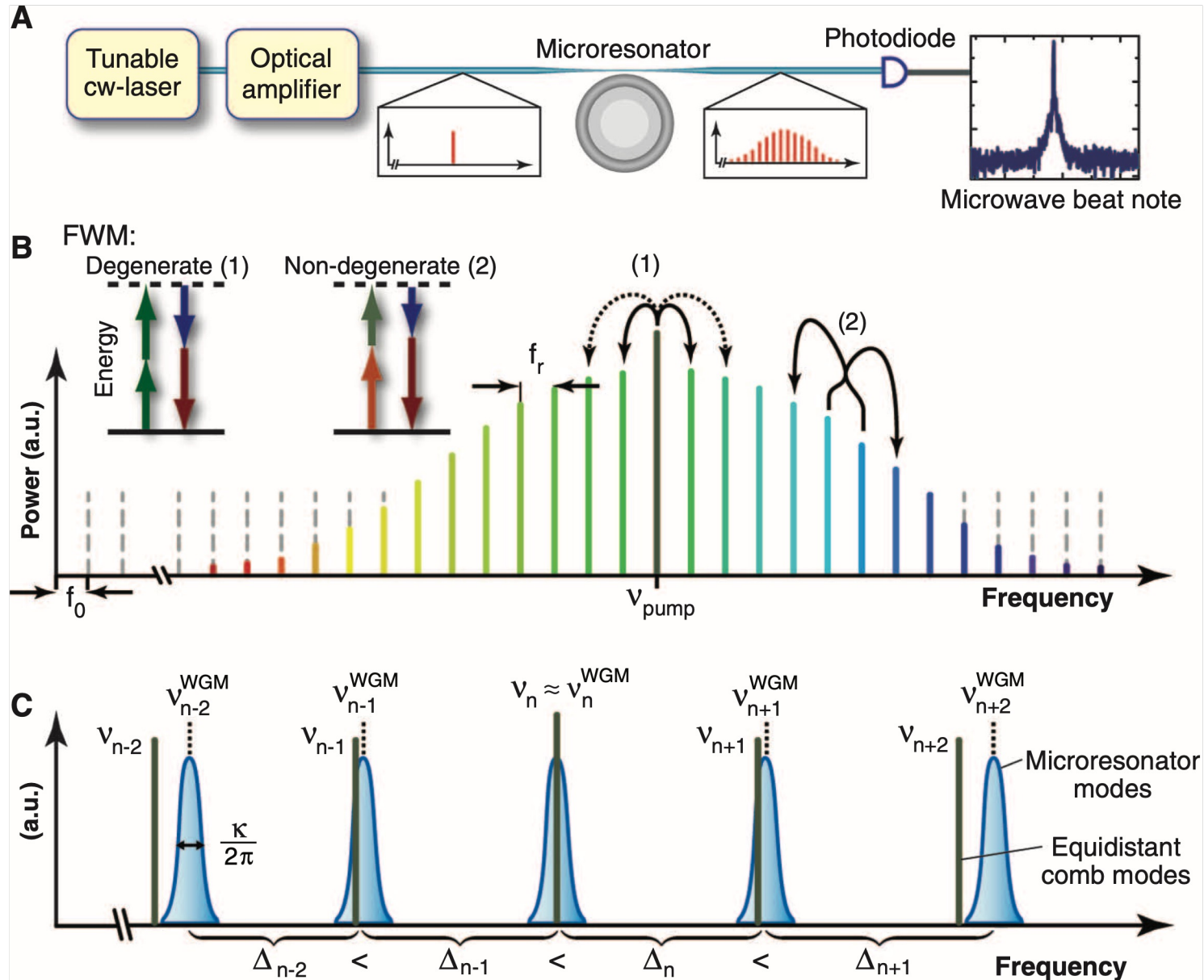
$$SNR = \frac{1}{8} \frac{\rho^2 \bar{P}_\lambda^2 R}{kT}$$

In practice, $-131 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$

In practice, $-110 \text{ dBrad}^2/\text{Hz}$
with $F=0 \text{ dB}$ (!!!)

- Thermal noise is dominant: below threshold, $SNR \sim 1/P^2$
- Thermal noise can be reduced (10 dB or more?) using VGND amplifiers
- What about flicker of photodetectors with integrated VGND amplifier?
- Dramatic impact on the (phase) noise floor

Extreme nonlinearity



T.J.Kippenberg, R.Holzwarth,
S.A.Diddams, Microresonator-based
optical frequency combs, *Science*
332:555, Apr.2011

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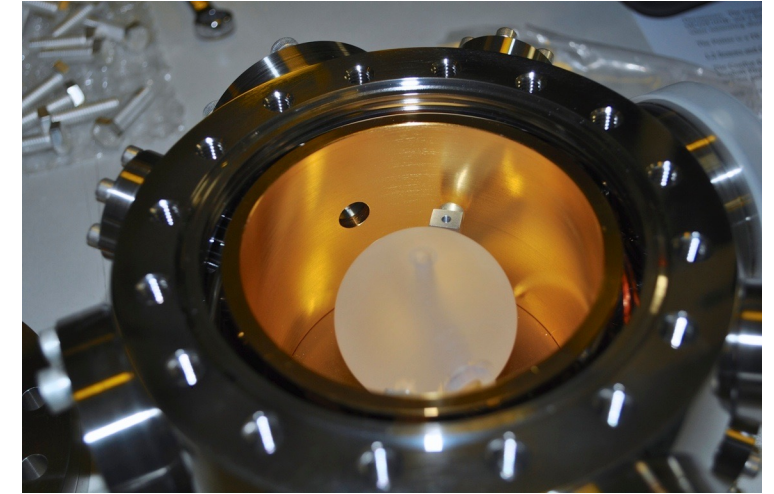
Accuracy and Noise

- Bahoura M, Clairon A - Ultimate linewidth reduction of a semiconductor laser frequency-stabilized to a Fabry-Perot Interferometer - IEEE TUFFC 50(11), November 2003
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- Black ED, An introduction to Pound–Drever–Hall laser frequency stabilization, Am J Phys 69(1) January 2001

Immunity to Cable Length

- Modulation is not affected by a delay
 - In telecommunication, (amplitude stretch and) delay is called “non-distortion condition”
 - Radio communications provide evidence
- Enables high stability with the resonator in vacuum, in cryogenic environment, or far from the oscillator

optical FP in vacuum

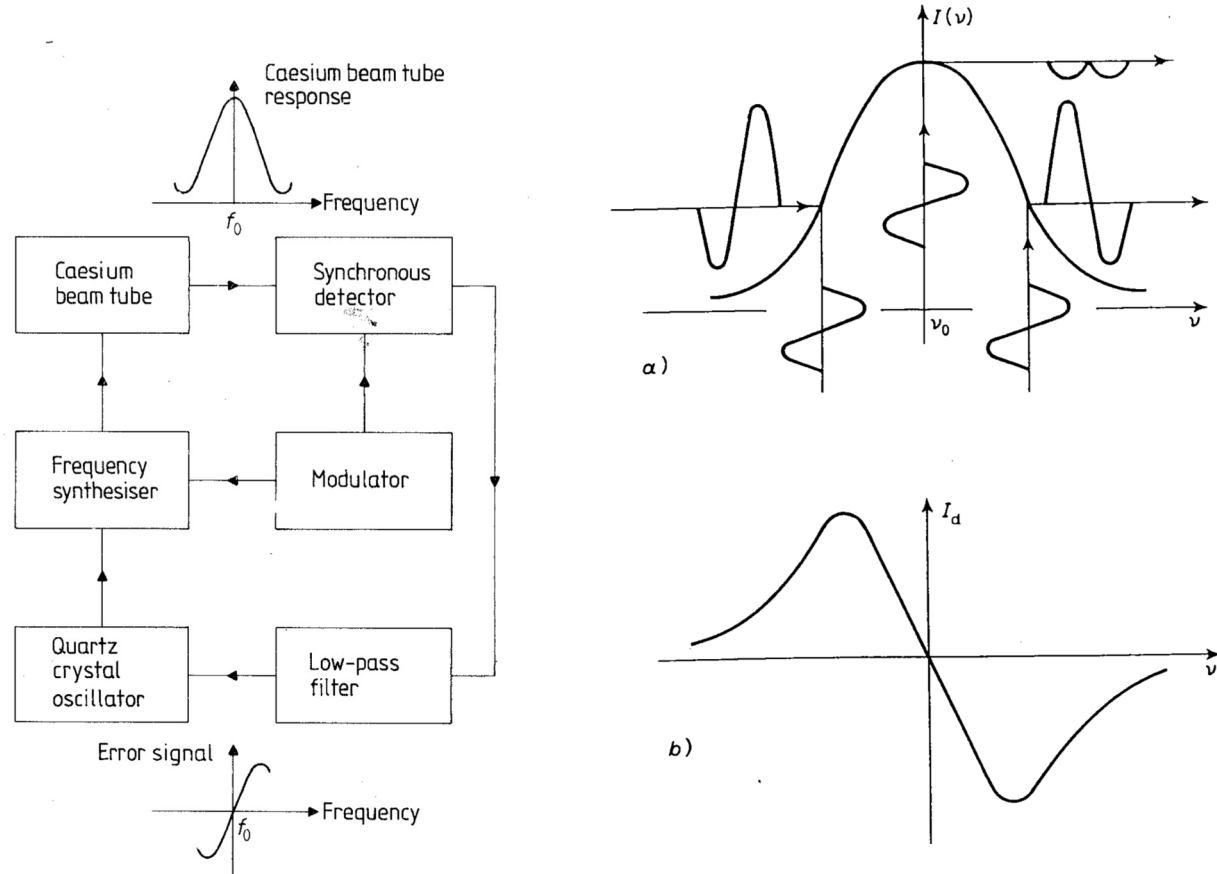


cryogenic microwave sapphire



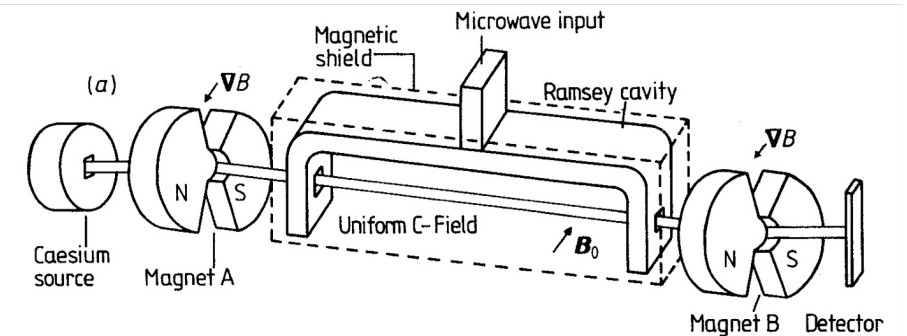
Atomic Frequency Standards!

Totally different physics – Similarity with the detection process



Vanier J, Audoin C, The quantum physics of atomic frequency standards v2, Adam Hilger 1989 – p.617

Vanier J, Audoin C, The quantum physics of atomic frequency standards v2, Adam Hilger 1989 – p.614



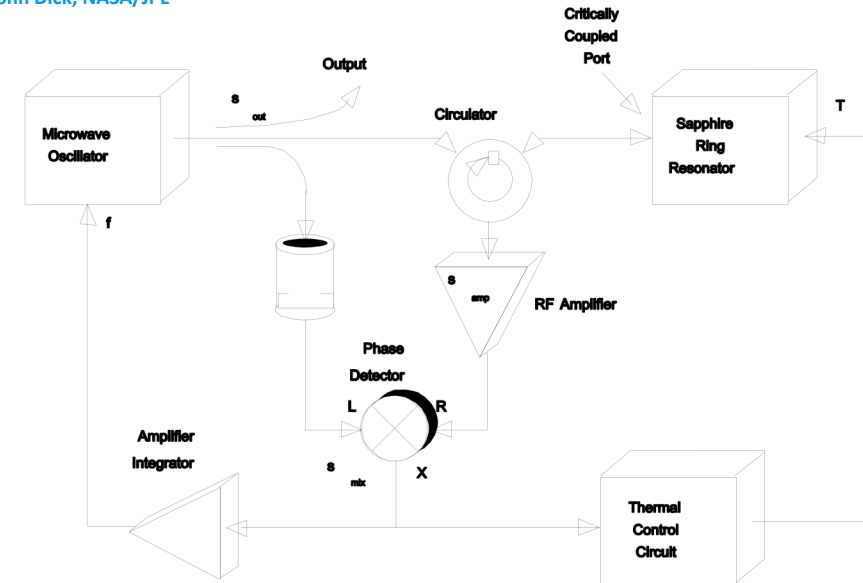
Ferro-Milone A, Giacomo P, Metrology and fundamental constants, North Holland 1980 – p.192 0-444-85467-3

Pound vs Interferometer

Carrier suppression techniques now make possible a dramatic reduction in flicker noise. This has complemented the high Q of sapphire to allow unprecedented oscillator performance.

- Passive sources already make possible very low phase noise.
- Flicker noise in passive mixers is 20 to 30 dB lower than for microwave amplifiers required by an active oscillator.

John Dick, NASA/JPL



Block Diagram - Sapphire Phase Stabilizer (SPS)

However, the interferometer works in dc, it cannot get out of the flicker region

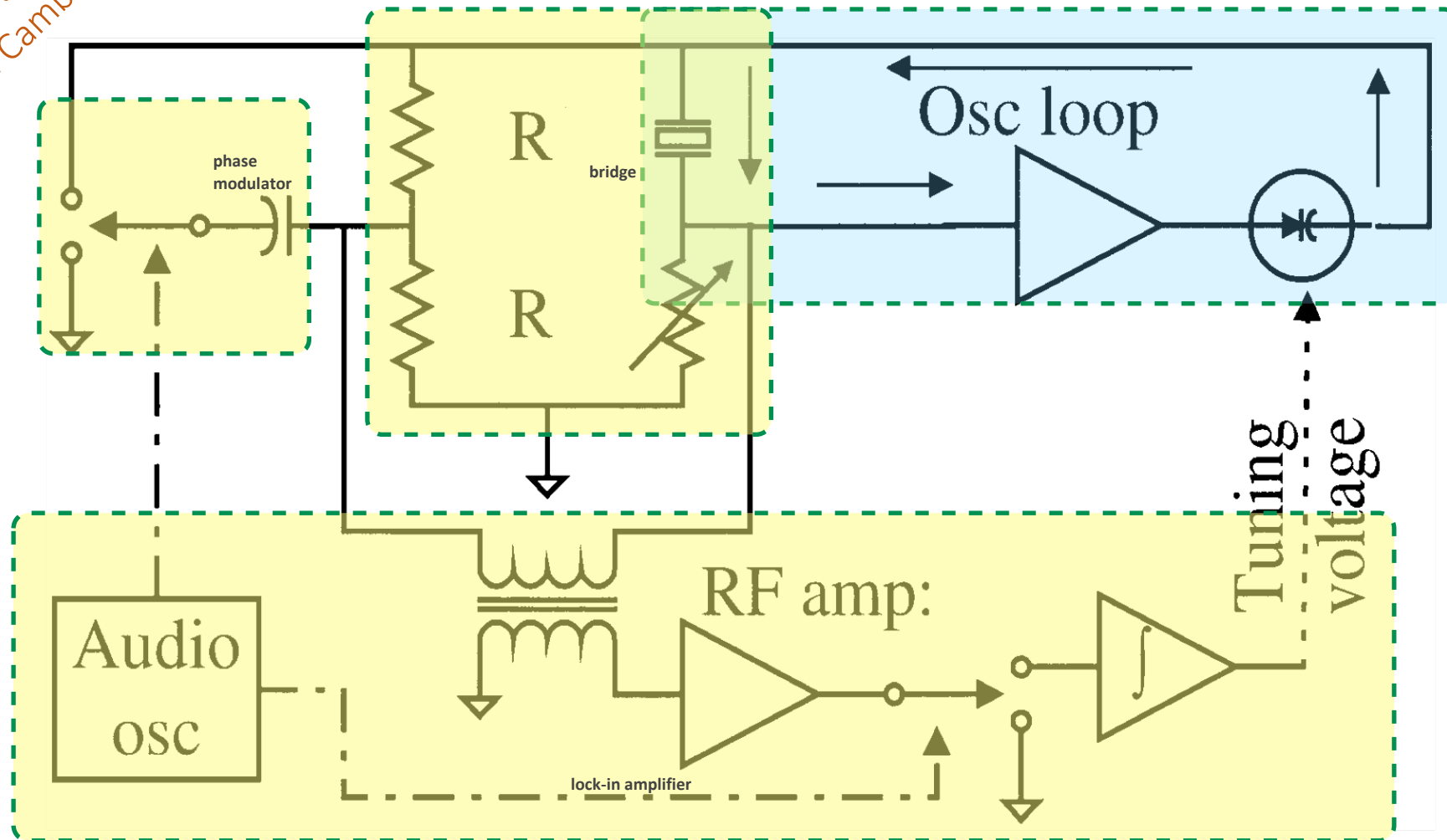
Unused Material

Duplicated

The Pound-Sulzer oscillator

I already have a slide like this, with the picture taken from the Cambridge book

Figure from P. Sulzer, Proc. IRE 43(6), June 1955



P. Sulzer, "High stability bridge balancing oscillator,"
Proc. IRE 43(6), pp. 701–707, June 1955.

End of lecture 10