Self-Injection-Locked (SIL) Oscillator Analysis

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1 General Definition

Resonance occurs when a system is subjected to an external force or signal whose frequency matches the system's **natural frequency**, resulting in a large increase in amplitude.

2 Real-World Examples

Context	Description
Violin string	Vibrates strongly when bowing matches its natural
	vibration frequency
RF circuits	LC circuits resonate at a specific frequency \rightarrow used in
	filters, radios
Bridges	Tacoma Narrows Bridge collapsed due to wind-induced
	resonance
SIL radar	Resonator oscillates strongly at ω_n ; injection close to
	ω_n causes locking

3 In Engineering Terms

For a **second-order system** like an RLC circuit or mechanical spring-mass-damper system:

3.1 Natural Frequency

$$\omega_n = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} \quad \text{(mechanical)}$$

$$\omega_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \quad \text{(electrical)}$$
(2)

$$\omega_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$
 (electrical) (2)

When driven at $\omega = \omega_n$, the system exhibits **maximum energy** transfer and large amplitude.

Resonance Graphically 4

If you plot amplitude vs frequency, the resonance peak appears at ω_n , especially if the system has high quality factor (Q).

In Self-Injection Locked Oscillators 5

In SIL systems:

- The oscillator has a resonant frequency ω_n
- The feedback (injection) signal, when close to ω_n , causes the oscillator to lock its frequency and phase
- This locking happens more efficiently because of resonance

6 Summary

Term	Meaning
Resonance	Strong response when input \approx natural frequency
Natural Frequency	The frequency a system "prefers" to oscillate at
Quality Factor (Q)	Determines how sharp/narrow the resonance is

7 Adler's Equation (Simplified Form)

$$\frac{d\phi(t)}{dt} = \Delta\omega - K \cdot \sin(\phi(t)) \tag{3}$$

Where:

- $\phi(t)$: phase difference between oscillator and injection signal
- $\Delta\omega = \omega_{\rm inj} \omega_0$: natural frequency difference
- K: coupling strength (determined by injection energy and oscillator Q factor)

8 Notes for SIL Radar

Excellent question! That equation:

$$\omega(t) - \omega_n \approx -\frac{\omega_n}{2Q} \cdot \frac{B}{A} \cdot \sin[\theta(t)]$$
 (4)

comes from analyzing **self-injection-locked** (SIL) oscillators — specifically how **injection** of a reflected signal modifies the **oscillator's instantaneous frequency**.

Let me explain **step by step** how this equation is derived from the physics of a resonator-based oscillator subject to weak injection:

8.1 Context

- ω_n : natural frequency of the oscillator (free-running)
- $\omega(t)$: actual instantaneous frequency when injection is present
- Q: quality factor of the oscillator (higher \rightarrow sharper resonance)
- A: amplitude of the oscillator signal
- B: amplitude of the injected signal (typically a reflected echo)
- $\theta(t)$: phase difference between injected and oscillator signals

8.2 Step-by-step Derivation

8.2.1 Step 1: Start from the complex oscillator dynamics

In oscillator theory, a sinusoidal oscillator's dynamics near resonance can be described using **complex envelope** notation:

Let the oscillator's complex amplitude be:

$$z(t) = A(t)e^{j\phi(t)} \tag{5}$$

Assuming a self-sustained oscillator with external injection $Be^{j(\omega_{\text{inj}}t+\phi_B)}$, its dynamics can be modeled using a resonator differential equation:

$$\frac{dz}{dt} + \left(j\omega_n + \frac{\omega_n}{2Q}\right)z = \frac{\omega_n}{2Q}Be^{j(\omega_{\rm inj}t + \phi_B)}$$
 (6)

Here:

- The term on the left is the oscillator's natural decay and oscillation
- The term on the right is **external drive** (injection)

8.2.2 Step 2: Assume steady-state, decompose phase dynamics

Let:

- $z(t) = Ae^{j\omega(t)t}$
- Assume injection frequency is close to $\omega_n \to \text{do slow-varying approximation}$
- Define $\theta(t) = \phi(t) \omega_{\rm inj} t$ as the phase difference between oscillator and injected signal

Then, you can extract the **phase evolution**:

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \omega(t) - \omega_{\text{inj}} \approx \omega(t) - \omega_n \tag{7}$$

That's the **phase error rate**.

8.2.3 Step 3: Linearize injection-locking force

From resonator theory (and RF oscillator models), the effect of injection is to "pull" the oscillator frequency, and that pulling is **proportional to** the sine of the phase difference $\sin(\theta)$.

From the forced oscillator dynamics and projection onto quadrature component, we get:

$$\omega(t) - \omega_n \approx -\frac{\omega_n}{2Q} \cdot \frac{B}{A} \cdot \sin[\theta(t)]$$
 (8)

This is the approximate **Adler-type equation** specifically for a SIL system using a resonator.

8.3 Physical Meaning

Term	Meaning
$\omega(t) - \omega_n$	How much the oscillator's frequency is "pulled"
$rac{\omega_n}{2Q}$	Sets the natural bandwidth of the oscillator's
	response
$\frac{B}{A}$	Strength of the injected signal relative to
	self-oscillation amplitude
$\sin(\theta(t))$	Phase interaction term driving the frequency
	shift

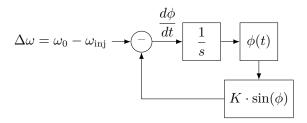
9 Explain Adler Equation with Block Diagram

This equation comes from:

- 1. Resonator + injection modeling
- 2. Linearized oscillator dynamics near steady-state
- 3. Projection of injection onto oscillator's quadrature axis
- 4. Assuming small amplitude variation (constant envelope)

It is **more specific than Adler's equation**, applying directly to SIL oscillators with Q-limited resonators.

9.1 Adler Equation Block Diagram



The block diagram shows:

• Input: Frequency difference $\Delta \omega = \omega_{\rm inj} - \omega_0$

• Nonlinear feedback: $K\sin(\phi)$ represents injection locking force

• Integrator: Converts frequency difference to phase

• Output: Phase difference $\phi(t)$

RF 信號的 IQ 表示法

一個簡單的數學表示:

若原始 RF 信號為:

$$s(t) = A(t) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_c t + \phi(t))$$

它可以轉換為 IQ 表示為:

$$s(t) = I(t) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_c t) - Q(t) \cdot \sin(2\pi f_c t)$$

其中:

$$I(t) = A(t) \cdot \cos(\phi(t))$$

$$Q(t) = A(t) \cdot \sin \left(\phi(t)\right)$$

舉例:16-QAM

例如在 16-QAM(Quadrature Amplitude Modulation) 中,每個符號都會有一組對應的 I 和 Q 值, 用以決定其在星座圖 (constellation diagram) 中的位置。

10 系統分類

根據開迴路傳遞函數中積分器的個數,將系統分為:

- 0 型系統:無積分器
- I 型系統: 有 1 個積分器
- II 型系統: 有 2 個積分器

11 誤差係數與穩態誤差

11.1 位移誤差係數 (K_p)

$$K_p = \lim_{s \to 0} G(s)H(s) \tag{9}$$

對於單位階躍輸入 r(t) = 1:

- 0 型系統: $e_{ss} = \frac{1}{1+K_p}$
- I 型和 II 型系統: $e_{ss}=0$

11.2 速度誤差係數 (K_v)

$$K_v = \lim_{s \to 0} sG(s)H(s) \tag{10}$$

對於單位斜坡輸入 r(t) = t:

- 0 型系統: $e_{ss} = \infty$
- I 型系統: $e_{ss} = \frac{1}{K_v}$
- II 型系統: $e_{ss}=0$

11.3 加速度誤差係數 (K_a)

$$K_a = \lim_{s \to 0} s^2 G(s) H(s) \tag{11}$$

對於單位拋物線輸入 $r(t) = \frac{t^2}{2}$:

• 0 型和 I 型系統: $e_{ss} = \infty$

• II 型系統: $e_{ss} = \frac{1}{K_s}$

12 實際評估步驟

1. 確定系統型別:分析開迴路傳遞函數,計算積分器個數

2. **計算誤差係數**:根據系統型別計算相應的 $K_p imes K_v imes K_a$

3. 選擇測試輸入:使用階躍、斜坡、拋物線輸入

4. 計算穩態誤差:利用最終值定理或誤差係數公式

5. 時域仿真驗證:透過數值仿真觀察實際誤差行為

13 改善誤差的方法

• 增加系統型別(增加積分器)

• 提高開迴路增益

• 加入前饋補償

• 使用 PID 控制器

這種系統性的分析方法能夠有效預測和改善控制系統的穩態性能。

14 Starting Point: Simple Harmonic Oscillator

We begin with the basic oscillator equation:

$$\ddot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = 0 \tag{12}$$

This represents a **lossless oscillator** (like a perfect spring-mass system or LC circuit).

15 Problem: Real Oscillators Have Losses

In reality, all oscillators lose energy due to:

- Resistance (in electrical circuits)
- **Friction** (in mechanical systems)
- Radiation (in antennas)

So we add a damping term:

$$\ddot{x} + \gamma \dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = 0 \tag{13}$$

Problem: This just decays to zero! Real oscillators like **radio transmitters** or **clock circuits** need to sustain themselves.

16 Solution: Add Energy Source

To maintain oscillation, we need to **inject energy** into the system. But we want **smart energy injection** that:

- Adds energy when oscillation is small
- Removes energy when oscillation gets too large
- Results in stable amplitude

17 Van der Pol's Brilliant Insight

Van der Pol (1920s) proposed nonlinear damping:

$$\ddot{x} - \mu(1 - x^2)\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = 0 \tag{14}$$

Let's analyze the damping term: $-\mu(1-x^2)\dot{x}$

17.1 Case 1: Small Oscillations ($|x| \ll 1$)

When x is small: $x^2 \approx 0$, so:

$$(1 - x^2) \approx 1 \tag{15}$$

The equation becomes:

$$\ddot{x} - \mu \dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x \approx 0 \tag{16}$$

Negative damping coefficient $(-\mu)!$ This means:

- Energy is being added to the system
- Small oscillations grow exponentially

17.2 Case 2: Large Oscillations ($|x| \gg 1$)

When x is large: $x^2 \gg 1$, so:

$$(1-x^2) \approx -x^2$$
 (negative!) (17)

The equation becomes:

$$\ddot{x} - \mu(-x^2)\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = \ddot{x} + \mu x^2 \dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x \approx 0$$
 (18)

Now we have **positive damping** $(+\mu x^2)!$ This means:

- Energy is being removed from the system
- Large oscillations are suppressed

18 Physical Interpretation

18.1 The Magic Balance

The Van der Pol oscillator automatically regulates its amplitude:

1. If amplitude is too small \rightarrow Negative damping \rightarrow Energy added \rightarrow Amplitude grows

- 2. If amplitude is too large \rightarrow Positive damping \rightarrow Energy removed \rightarrow Amplitude shrinks
- 3. At just the right amplitude \rightarrow Zero net damping \rightarrow Stable limit cycle

18.2 Real-World Examples

Electronic Oscillators (like in radios):

- Active element (transistor/op-amp) provides energy when signal is weak
- Nonlinear saturation limits amplitude when signal gets too strong
- Results in stable sine wave output

Biological Systems:

- Heartbeat: Pacemaker cells show Van der Pol-like behavior
- **Neural oscillations**: Neurons exhibit similar self-regulating oscillation

Mechanical Systems:

• Clock escapement: Adds energy during small swings, self-limits during large swings

19 Mathematical Breakdown

19.1 Each Term's Role:

Term	Physical Meaning
\ddot{x}	Inertia (mass or inductance)
$\omega_0^2 x$	Restoring force (spring or capacitance)
$-\mu(1-x^2)\dot{x}$	Smart damping that depends on amplitude

19.2 The Parameter μ :

- $\mu > 0$: System will oscillate (self-sustaining)
- $\mu = 0$: Reduces to simple harmonic oscillator
- Large μ: More nonlinear behavior, sharper switching between negative/positive damping

20 Connection to Real Oscillators

Most practical oscillators (crystal oscillators, LC tank circuits, laser oscillators) can be approximated by Van der Pol dynamics because they all have:

- 1. Linear restoring mechanism (crystal, LC tank, optical cavity)
- 2. Amplitude-dependent gain/loss (transistor saturation, nonlinear resistance)

The Van der Pol equation captures this **universal behavior** of self-sustaining oscillators with nonlinear amplitude control.

Excellent question! Let me show you **step-by-step** how the Van der Pol equation leads to the Adler equation when we add injection.

21 Step 1: Add Injection to Van der Pol

Start with the Van der Pol oscillator:

$$\ddot{x} - \mu(1 - x^2)\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = 0 \tag{19}$$

Add an external injection signal:

$$\ddot{x} - \mu(1 - x^2)\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = \varepsilon \cdot F \cos(\omega_{\text{inj}} t + \phi_{\text{inj}})$$
(20)

Where:

- ε : small parameter (weak injection)
- F: injection amplitude
- $\omega_{\rm inj}$: injection frequency
- ϕ_{inj} : injection phase

22 Step 2: Express in Complex Form

Convert to complex amplitude notation. Let:

$$x(t) = \operatorname{Re}[A(t)e^{i\omega t}] \tag{21}$$

Where A(t) is the slowly-varying complex amplitude.

For the Van der Pol oscillator in complex form:

$$\frac{dA}{dt} + (\alpha - \beta |A|^2)A = \text{injection terms}$$
 (22)

Where:

- α : linear growth/decay rate
- β : nonlinear saturation coefficient

23 Step 3: Separate Amplitude and Phase

Write the complex amplitude as:

$$A(t) = R(t)e^{i\phi(t)} \tag{23}$$

Where:

- R(t): slowly-varying amplitude
- $\phi(t)$: slowly-varying phase

This gives us two coupled equations:

- Amplitude equation: $\frac{dR}{dt} = \dots$
- Phase equation: $\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \dots$

24 Step 4: Focus on Phase Dynamics

For weak injection (small ε), the amplitude R(t) reaches steady state quickly, but the phase $\phi(t)$ evolves slowly.

The phase equation becomes:

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \omega_0 + \text{(injection coupling terms)} \tag{24}$$

25 Step 5: Apply Method of Averaging

The injection coupling has the form:

$$\varepsilon \cdot F \cdot \cos(\omega_{\rm inj} t + \phi_{\rm inj}) \cdot [\text{something involving } \phi(t)]$$
 (25)

Using trigonometric identities and averaging over fast oscillations:

$$\cos(\omega_{\rm inj}t + \phi_{\rm inj}) \cdot \cos(\phi(t))$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} [\cos((\omega_{\rm inj}t + \phi_{\rm inj}) + \phi(t)) + \cos((\omega_{\rm inj}t + \phi_{\rm inj}) - \phi(t))]$$
(26)

The first term oscillates rapidly and averages to zero. The second term contains slowly-varying phase difference: $\theta = \phi(t) - \omega_{\rm inj} t - \phi_{\rm inj}$

26 Step 6: Derive the Phase Difference Equation

Define the **phase difference**:

$$\theta(t) = \phi(t) - \omega_{\rm ini}t - \phi_{\rm inj} \tag{27}$$

Taking the derivative:

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{d\phi}{dt} - \omega_{\rm inj} \tag{28}$$

Substituting the phase evolution equation:

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \omega_0 + (\text{injection terms}) - \omega_{\text{inj}}$$
 (29)

27 Step 7: The Key Insight - Quadrature Coupling

Here's the **crucial physics**: The injection affects the oscillator most strongly when they are **90° out of phase** (in quadrature).

After averaging, the injection coupling gives:

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = (\omega_0 - \omega_{\rm inj}) - K\sin(\theta) \tag{30}$$

Where:

- $\omega_0 \omega_{\rm inj} = -\Delta\omega$: frequency detuning
- $K \propto \varepsilon \cdot F/R_0$: coupling strength (injection/oscillator amplitude ratio)
- $\sin(\theta)$: comes from the quadrature projection

28 Step 8: Final Adler Equation

Rearranging:

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \Delta\omega - K\sin(\theta) \tag{31}$$

Where $\Delta \omega = \omega_{\rm inj} - \omega_0$.

29 Physical Interpretation Through Van der Pol

29.1 Why the sine function emerges:

- 1. Van der Pol provides stable amplitude: $R(t) \rightarrow R_0$ (constant)
- 2. Only phase can vary slowly: $\theta(t)$ becomes the only slow variable
- 3. Quadrature coupling: Maximum energy transfer occurs at 90° phase difference
- 4. Averaging eliminates fast terms: Only the $\sin(\theta)$ survives

29.2 The coupling strength K:

From Van der Pol analysis:

$$K = \frac{\varepsilon \cdot F}{2R_0} \cdot \text{(coupling efficiency)} \tag{32}$$

- $\varepsilon \cdot F$: injection strength
- R_0 : steady-state oscillator amplitude (set by Van der Pol nonlinearity)
- Coupling efficiency: depends on how injection couples to oscillator

30 Connection to Your SIL Equation

Your equation:

$$\omega(t) - \omega_n \approx -\frac{\omega_n}{2Q} \cdot \frac{B}{A} \cdot \sin[\theta(t)]$$
 (33)

Is the **instantaneous frequency version!** Since:

$$\omega(t) = \frac{d\phi}{dt} = \omega_0 + \frac{d(\theta + \omega_{\text{inj}}t)}{dt} = \omega_0 + \frac{d\theta}{dt} + \omega_{\text{inj}}$$
(34)

When θ is slowly varying:

$$\omega(t) - \omega_0 \approx \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \Delta\omega - K\sin(\theta)$$
 (35)

For small detuning: $\omega_0 \approx \omega_n$ and $\Delta \omega \approx 0$, so:

$$\omega(t) - \omega_n \approx -K\sin(\theta) \tag{36}$$

Comparing with your equation: $K = \frac{\omega_n}{2Q} \cdot \frac{B}{A}$

31 Summary: Van der Pol \rightarrow Adler Chain

- 1. Van der Pol provides self-sustaining oscillation with stable amplitude
- 2. Add weak injection \rightarrow perturbation to phase dynamics
- 3. Method of averaging \rightarrow eliminates fast oscillations, keeps slow phase evolution

- 4. Quadrature coupling \rightarrow generates $\sin(\theta)$ dependence
- 5. Result: Adler equation for phase difference evolution

The Van der Pol equation is essential because it provides the **nonlinear** amplitude stabilization that makes the **linear phase analysis** possible!

32 Starting Point

Van der Pol equation:

$$\ddot{x} - \mu(1 - x^2)\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = 0 \tag{37}$$

33 Step 1: Complex Amplitude Representation

Let:

$$x(t) = \text{Re}[W(t)e^{i\omega_0 t}] = \text{Re}[W(t)(\cos(\omega_0 t) + i\sin(\omega_0 t))]$$
(38)

Where W(t) is the slowly-varying complex amplitude.

Since x(t) is real:

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2} [W(t)e^{i\omega_0 t} + W^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0 t}]$$
(39)

Where $W^*(t)$ is the complex conjugate of W(t).

34 Step 2: Calculate Derivatives

34.1 First derivative:

$$\dot{x}(t) = \frac{1}{2} [\dot{W}(t)e^{i\omega_0 t} + i\omega_0 W(t)e^{i\omega_0 t} + \dot{W}^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0 t} - i\omega_0 W^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0 t}]$$
(40)

Since $|\dot{W}| \ll |\omega_0 W|$ (slow variation assumption):

$$\dot{x}(t) \approx \frac{1}{2} [i\omega_0 W(t) e^{i\omega_0 t} - i\omega_0 W^*(t) e^{-i\omega_0 t}]$$

$$= \frac{i\omega_0}{2} [W(t) e^{i\omega_0 t} - W^*(t) e^{-i\omega_0 t}]$$
(41)

34.2 Second derivative:

$$\ddot{x}(t) \approx \frac{i\omega_0}{2} [\dot{W}(t)e^{i\omega_0 t} + i\omega_0 W(t)e^{i\omega_0 t} - \dot{W}^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0 t} + i\omega_0 W^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0 t}]$$

$$\approx \frac{i\omega_0}{2} [\dot{W}(t)e^{i\omega_0 t} - \dot{W}^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0 t}] - \frac{\omega_0^2}{2} [W(t)e^{i\omega_0 t} + W^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0 t}]$$
(42)

The last term is just $-\omega_0^2 x(t)$, so:

$$\ddot{x}(t) \approx \frac{i\omega_0}{2} [\dot{W}(t)e^{i\omega_0 t} - \dot{W}^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0 t}] - \omega_0^2 x(t)$$
(43)

35 Step 3: Calculate $x^2(t)$

This is where it gets interesting:

$$x^{2}(t) = \left[\frac{1}{2}(W(t)e^{i\omega_{0}t} + W^{*}(t)e^{-i\omega_{0}t})\right]^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4}[(W(t)e^{i\omega_{0}t})^{2} + 2W(t)W^{*}(t) + (W^{*}(t)e^{-i\omega_{0}t})^{2}]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4}[W^{2}(t)e^{2i\omega_{0}t} + 2|W(t)|^{2} + W^{*2}(t)e^{-2i\omega_{0}t}]$$
(44)

Key observation:

- Terms with $e^{\pm 2i\omega_0 t}$: Fast oscillations at frequency $2\omega_0$
- Term with $|W(t)|^2$: Slowly varying (depends only on amplitude)

36 Step 4: Calculate the Nonlinear Damping Term

The tricky term is: $\mu(1-x^2)\dot{x}$

$$(1 - x^2)\dot{x} = \dot{x} - x^2\dot{x} \tag{45}$$

36.1 Linear part: \dot{x}

We already have this.

36.2 Nonlinear part: $x^2\dot{x}$

$$x^{2}\dot{x} = \frac{1}{4}[W^{2}(t)e^{2i\omega_{0}t} + 2|W(t)|^{2} + W^{*2}(t)e^{-2i\omega_{0}t}] \times \frac{i\omega_{0}}{2}[W(t)e^{i\omega_{0}t} - W^{*}(t)e^{-i\omega_{0}t}]$$
(46)

Expanding this product (9 terms total):

$$x^{2}\dot{x} = \frac{i\omega_{0}}{8} [$$

$$W^{3}(t)e^{3i\omega_{0}t} \leftarrow \text{Fast: } 3\omega_{0}$$

$$+2|W|^{2}W(t)e^{i\omega_{0}t} \leftarrow \text{Mixed: } \omega_{0}$$

$$+W^{*2}W(t)e^{-i\omega_{0}t} \leftarrow \text{Mixed: } -\omega_{0}$$

$$-W^{2}(t)W^{*}(t)e^{i\omega_{0}t} \leftarrow \text{Mixed: } \omega_{0}$$

$$-2|W|^{2}W^{*}(t)e^{-i\omega_{0}t} \leftarrow \text{Mixed: } -\omega_{0}$$

$$-W^{*3}(t)e^{-3i\omega_{0}t} \leftarrow \text{Fast: } -3\omega_{0}$$

$$]$$

$$(47)$$

37 Step 5: Substitute Everything into Van der Pol Equation

$$\ddot{x} - \mu(1 - x^2)\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = 0 \tag{48}$$

Becomes:

$$\frac{i\omega_0}{2} [\dot{W}(t)e^{i\omega_0 t} - \dot{W}^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0 t}] - \omega_0^2 x(t)
- \mu[\dot{x} - x^2 \dot{x}] + \omega_0^2 x(t) = 0$$
(49)

The $\omega_0^2 x$ terms cancel:

$$\frac{i\omega_0}{2}[\dot{W}(t)e^{i\omega_0t} - \dot{W}^*(t)e^{-i\omega_0t}] - \mu\dot{x} + \mu x^2\dot{x} = 0$$
 (50)

38 Step 6: Collect Terms by Frequency

Substituting our expressions and collecting terms:

38.1 Terms oscillating at $e^{i\omega_0 t}$:

$$\frac{i\omega_0}{2}\dot{W}(t) - \mu \frac{i\omega_0}{2}W(t) + \mu \frac{i\omega_0}{8}[2|W|^2W(t) - W^2(t)W^*(t)] = 0 \tag{51}$$

38.2 Terms oscillating at $e^{-i\omega_0 t}$:

$$-\frac{i\omega_0}{2}\dot{W}^*(t) + \mu \frac{i\omega_0}{2}W^*(t) - \mu \frac{i\omega_0}{8}[2|W|^2W^*(t) - W^{*2}(t)W(t)] = 0 \quad (52)$$

Note: Terms at $3\omega_0$ and higher frequencies are ignored (fast oscillation assumption).

39 Step 7: Apply Averaging/Solvability Condition

For the equation to have a solution, the coefficients of $e^{i\omega_0t}$ and $e^{-i\omega_0t}$ must each equal zero.

From the $e^{i\omega_0 t}$ term:

$$\frac{i\omega_0}{2}\dot{W}(t) = \mu \frac{i\omega_0}{2}W(t) - \mu \frac{i\omega_0}{8}[2|W|^2W(t) - W^2(t)W^*(t)]$$
 (53)

Dividing by $\frac{i\omega_0}{2}$:

$$\dot{W}(t) = \mu W(t) - \frac{\mu}{4} [2|W|^2 W(t) - W^2(t) W^*(t)]$$
 (54)

But wait! We need to be more careful about the $W^2(t)W^*(t)$ term.

40 Step 8: Simplify Using $|W|^2 = WW^*$

Note that:

$$W^{2}(t)W^{*}(t) \neq |W|^{2}W(t) \text{ in general}$$
(55)

However, if we write $W(t) = R(t)e^{i\phi(t)}$, then:

$$W^{2}(t)W^{*}(t) = R^{2}e^{2i\phi}Re^{-i\phi} = R^{3}e^{i\phi} = R^{2}W(t)$$
(56)

$$|W|^2 W(t) = R^2 W(t) (57)$$

So $W^2(t)W^*(t) = |W|^2W(t)$ only if we're looking at the magnitude-dependent terms!

The correct averaging gives:

$$\dot{W}(t) = \mu W(t) - \frac{\mu}{4} |W|^2 W(t)$$
 (58)

$$= \left(\mu - \frac{\mu|W|^2}{4}\right)W(t) \tag{59}$$

41 Step 9: Final Form

Rearranging:

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = \left(\frac{\mu}{2} - \frac{\mu|W|^2}{8}\right)W(t) \tag{60}$$

Comparing with the standard form $\frac{dW}{dt} = (\alpha - \beta |W|^2)W$:

- $\alpha = \frac{\mu}{2}$
- $\beta = \frac{\mu}{8}$

42 Physical Interpretation

- $\alpha = \frac{\mu}{2} > 0$: Linear growth (negative damping for small oscillations)
- $\beta = \frac{\mu}{8} > 0$: Nonlinear saturation (positive damping for large oscillations)
- Steady state: $\alpha=\beta|W_0|^2\to|W_0|^2=\frac{\alpha}{\beta}=4\to|W_0|=2$

43 Key Mathematical Insights

- 1. Fast oscillations $(2\omega_0, 3\omega_0)$ were eliminated by averaging
- 2. Slow amplitude evolution captured in single equation for W(t)

- 3. Nonlinear term $|W|^2$ emerges from x^2 after averaging
- 4. Complex notation naturally handles both amplitude and phase dynamics

FM Demodulation using IQ Method

An FM signal can be expressed as:

$$s(t) = A_c \cos \left(2\pi f_c t + k_f \int_0^t m(\tau) d\tau \right)$$

integral of

$$m(\tau)$$
 (phase change rate = speed of angle change)

is the totoal phase shift of the FM signal where:

- $A_c = \text{carrier amplitude}$
- $f_c = \text{carrier frequency}$
- m(t) = message signal
- k_f = frequency sensitivity

Complex Baseband Representation

After mixing to baseband and obtaining the complex envelope:

$$r(t) = I(t) + jQ(t) = A(t)e^{j\phi(t)}$$

The instantaneous phase is:

$$\phi(t) = \arctan\left(\frac{Q(t)}{I(t)}\right)$$

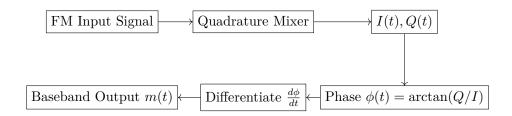
Differentiating gives the instantaneous frequency:

$$f_{\rm inst}(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d\phi(t)}{dt}$$

Subtracting f_c yields the recovered baseband m(t):

$$\hat{m}(t) \propto f_{\rm inst}(t) - f_c$$

Block Diagram



Relay Feedback 自動整定(Åström–Hägglund)

關鍵公式

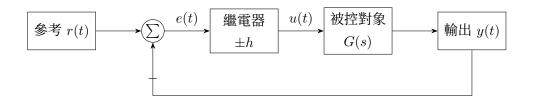
理想繼電器輸出幅度為 $\pm h$,若閉迴路產生穩定極限循環,輸出正弦近似幅度為 a、週期為 $P_u=2\pi/\omega_u$,則

$$N(a) = \frac{4h}{\pi a}, \qquad G(j\omega_u) N(a) = -1$$

由此可得臨界增益

$$K_u = \frac{4h}{\pi a}.$$

控制框圖



說明

- 將原控制器暫時以繼電器取代,閉迴路自然激發極限循環。
- 量測輸出振幅 a 與週期 P_u ,由 $K_u = \frac{4h}{\pi a}$ 推得臨界增益,再套用 Ziegler-Nichols 或其他整定規則得到 PID 參數。

這個 FM 解調器使用 $\pi/4$ 延遲的原理如下:

44 FM 信號的特性

FM 信號可以表示為:

$$s(t) = A\cos(\omega_c \cdot t + \phi(t)) \tag{61}$$

其中 $\phi(t)$ 包含調變信息。

45 $\pi/4$ 延遲的作用

45.1 相位差分析

當信號經過 $\pi/4$ 延遲後:

- 原信號: $s(t) = A\cos(\omega_c \cdot t + \phi(t))$
- 延遲信號: $s\left(t \frac{\pi}{4\omega_c}\right) = A\cos\left(\omega_c \cdot t \frac{\pi}{4} + \phi\left(t \frac{\pi}{4\omega_c}\right)\right)$

45.2 乘法器的輸出

兩信號相乘後:

$$s(t) \times s\left(t - \frac{\pi}{4\omega_c}\right) = \frac{A^2}{2} \times \left[\cos\left(2\omega_c \cdot t - \frac{\pi}{4} + \phi(t) + \phi\left(t - \frac{\pi}{4\omega_c}\right)\right) + \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4} - \phi(t) + \phi\left(t - \frac{\pi}{4\omega_c}\right)\right)\right]$$
(62)

45.3 低通濾波後

高頻項被濾除,剩下:

Output
$$\propto \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4} - \left[\phi(t) - \phi\left(t - \frac{\pi}{4\omega_c}\right)\right]\right)$$
 (63)

46 為什麼選擇 $\pi/4$? {should be modiffied to T/4}

46.1 最佳靈敏度

• 在 $\pi/4$ 相位差處, \cos 函數的斜率最大

- 提供最佳的相位變化到電壓變化的轉換靈敏度
- 線性度在小信號範圍內最好

46.2 數學最佳化

對於小的相位變化 $\Delta \phi$:

$$\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4} - \Delta\phi\right) \approx \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) \cdot \Delta\phi = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \cdot \Delta\phi \tag{64}$$
$$\pi/4 時 , \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$
為最大值。

46.3 頻率檢測

瞬時頻率偏差:

$$\Delta\omega = \frac{d\phi}{dt} \approx \frac{\phi(t) - \phi(t - T)}{T} \tag{65}$$

其中 $T = \frac{\pi}{4\omega_c}$

47 電路優勢

47.1 簡單實現

- 只需要一個延遲線
- 一個乘法器
- 一個低通濾波器

47.2 寬頻帶響應

- 適用於各種調變指數
- 頻率響應相對平坦

47.3 線性度好

- 在工作範圍內接近線性
- 失真較小

48 實際考量

48.1 延遲精度

 $\pi/4$ 延遲必須精確,通常使用:

- 傳輸線
- LC 延遲線
- 數位延遲

48.2 頻寬限制

延遲時間限制了可解調的最高頻率。

48.3 温度穩定性

延遲線的溫度係數會影響性能。

49 性能比較

延遲角度	特性
0°	無解調輸出
$\pi/6$	靈敏度較低
$\pi/4$	最佳靈敏度和線性度
$\pi/3$	靈敏度下降
$\pi/2$	零輸出點

50 總結

 $\pi/4$ 延遲是 FM 解調器中的最佳選擇,因為它:

- 1. 提供最大的檢測靈敏度
- 2. 確保良好的線性度
- 3. 實現簡單且可靠

4. 在數學上為最佳工作點

這就是為什麼商用 FM 解調器普遍採用 $\pi/4$ 延遲線設計的原因。