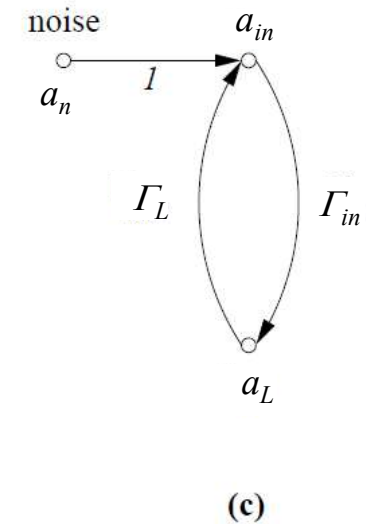
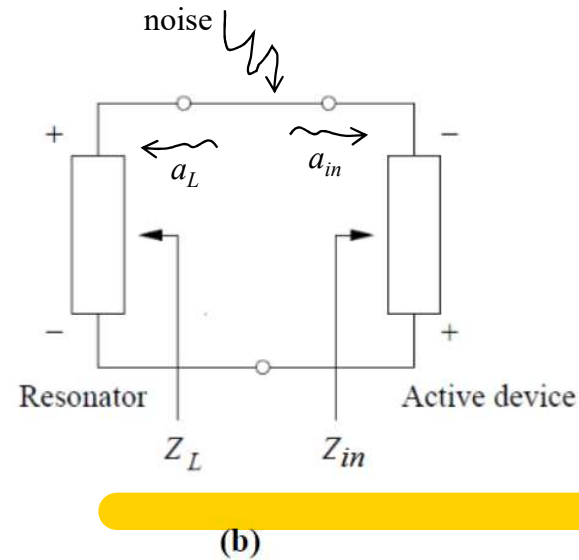
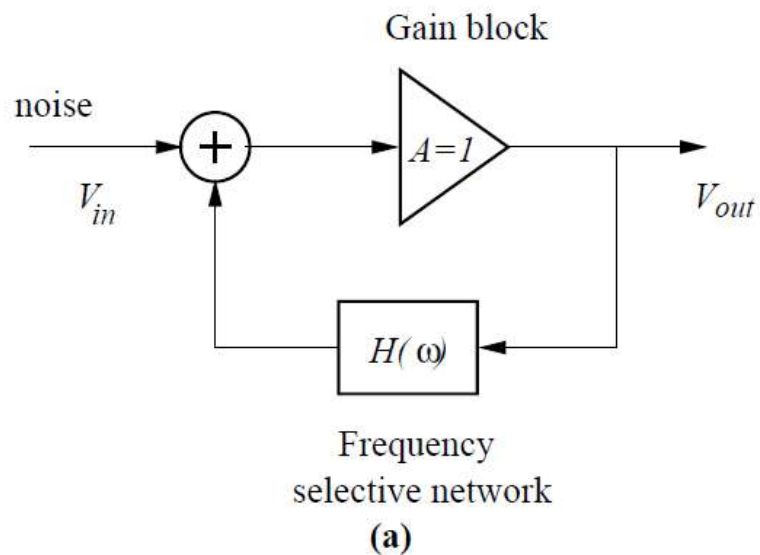


# Oscillators

# Oscillator Models

- Feedback oscillator system (a)
- Negative resistance oscillator (b)
- Equivalence of representation using S-parameters (c)



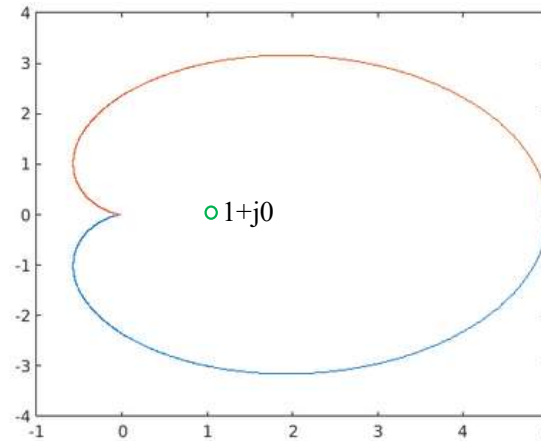
Note: the impedances shown are for the first harmonic (fundamental).

# Condition for Starting the Oscillations: Nyquist Test

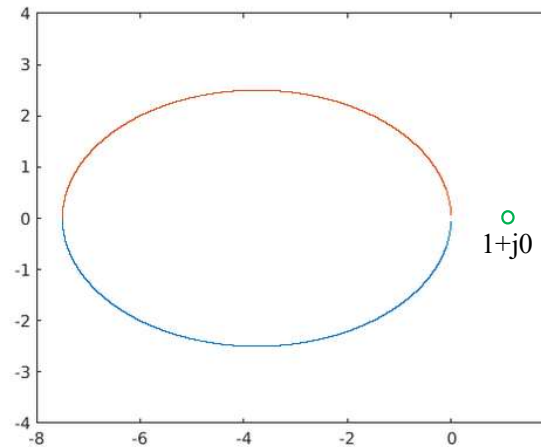
Consider the transfer functions:

$$\frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{A}{1-H(s)} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{a_L}{a_n} = \frac{\Gamma_{in}}{1-\Gamma_{in}\Gamma_L}$$

The number of encirclements of the point  $(1 + j0)$  should be non - zero. For example:



$$\Gamma_{in} \Gamma_L = \frac{90}{(s+3)(s+6)}$$



$$\Gamma_{in} \Gamma_L = \frac{10(s+3)}{(s+2)(s-2)}$$

# Operation Point: Barkhausen's Criteria

- The oscillation needs to sustain themselves in the absence of noise. This occurs for:

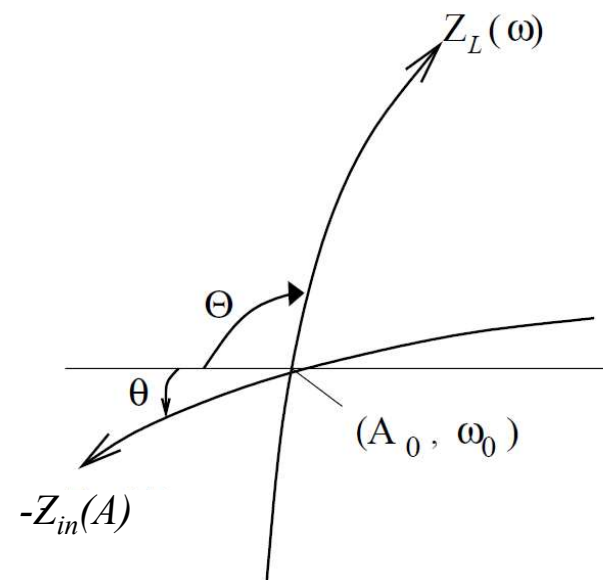
$$H(s = j\omega_0, A_0) = \Gamma_{in}(\omega_0, A) \Gamma_L(\omega_0) = 1$$

where  $A_0$  is the amplitude of oscillation and  $\omega_0$  the oscillation frequency in steady state.

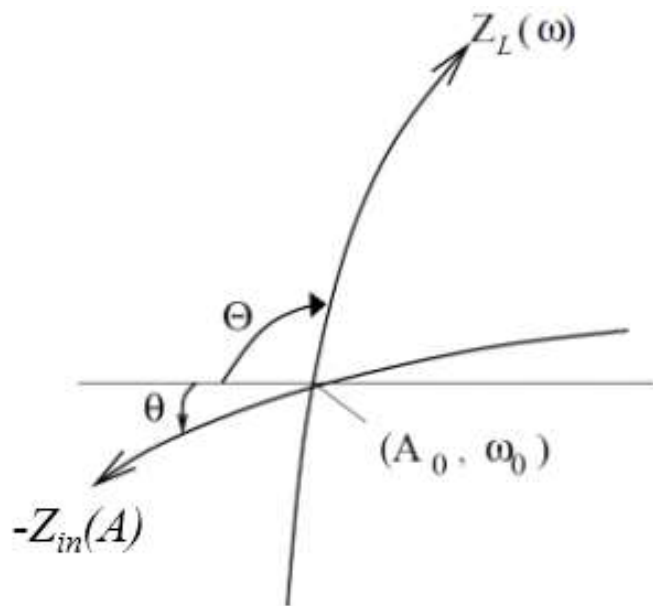
$$\Gamma_{in}(A_0, \omega_0) = \frac{1}{\Gamma_L(\omega_0)}$$

$$\Rightarrow Z_{in}(A_0, \omega_0) = -Z_L(\omega_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow Z_{in}(A_0, \omega_0) + Z_L(\omega_0) = 0$$



# Stability



An oscillator is stable if at the operating pt,

$$\frac{\partial R_{in}(A_0, \omega_0)}{\partial A} \frac{\partial X_L(\omega_0)}{\partial \omega} - \frac{\partial X_{in}(A_0, \omega_0)}{\partial A} \frac{\partial R_L(\omega_0)}{\partial \omega} > 0$$

Kurokawa condition of stability

• It can be shown that this translates to,

$$\pi > (\theta + \Theta) > 0 \text{ (prove it)}$$

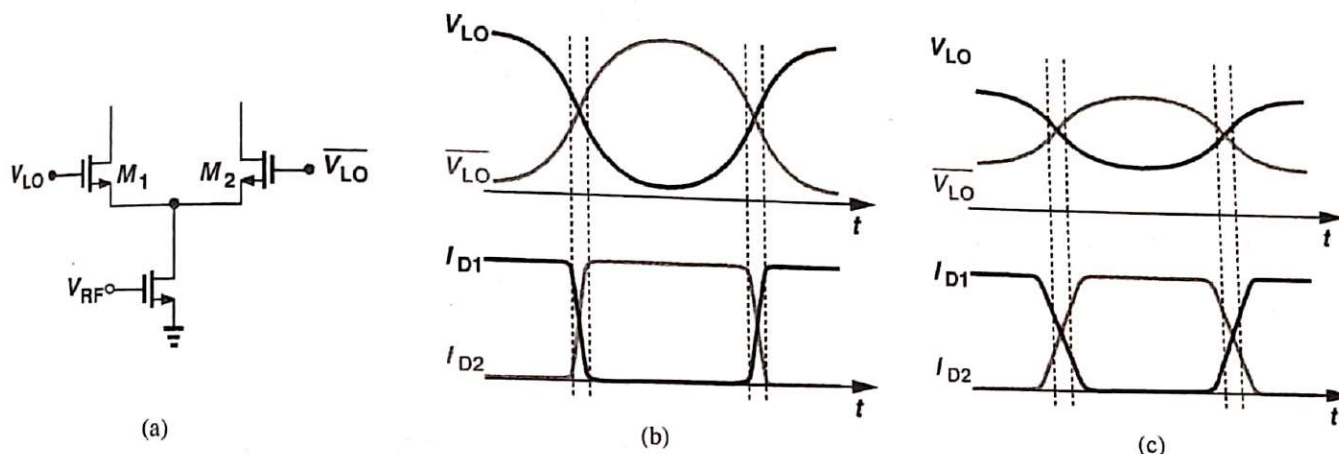
# Performance Parameters

## 1. Frequency Range

- e.g. GSM 935 – 960 MHz tuning range.
- Allowance for temperature variation and modeling inaccuracies.
- Quadrature topology or Injection pulling can necessitate higher frequency generation.

## 2. O/P voltage swing

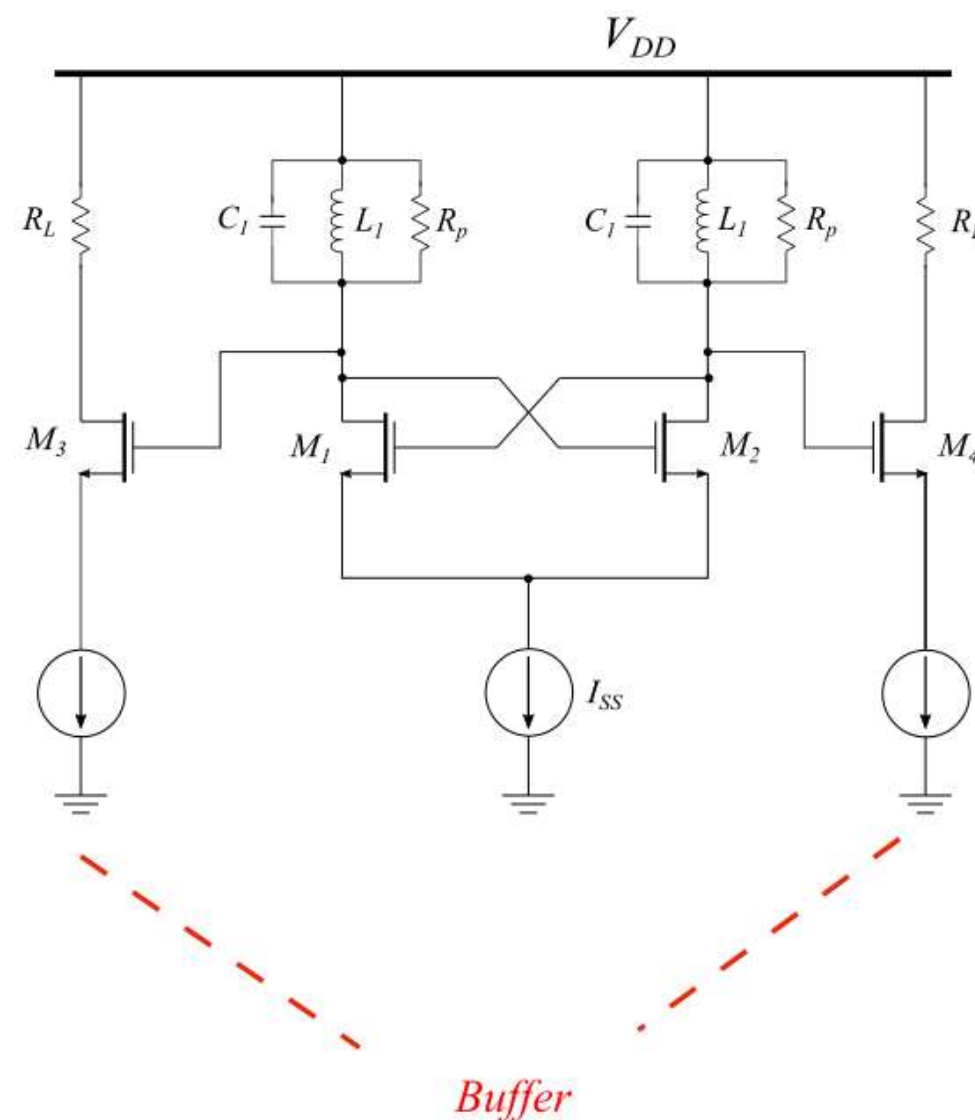
- Higher swing ensures sharp switching.
- Lower swing can amplify internal oscillator noise.
- For 1 V supply swing should be between 0.6 to 0.8 V<sub>pp</sub>.



# Performance Parameters

## 3. Load Pulling

- May need to supply to more than one load like frequency divider and mixer.
- Problem amplified in Tx where PA i/p/p capacitances can cause PA pulling.
- Usually a buffer stage is used to decouple oscillator from o/p loading.
- Buffers can also amplify o/p of oscillator thereby increasing voltage swing.



# Performance Parameters

4. **Power dissipation** – Often in conflict with phase noise and tuning range. Since tuning range depends on range of control voltage. For increasing control voltage supply voltage and hence power consumption needs to be increased.

Phase Noise is related to voltage swing → lower noise requires higher voltage swing and hence higher power consumption.

5. **Supply Sensitivity** – Supply variation is equivalent to flicker noise which affects oscillator frequency. Flicker noise cannot be easily removed by bypass capacitors.

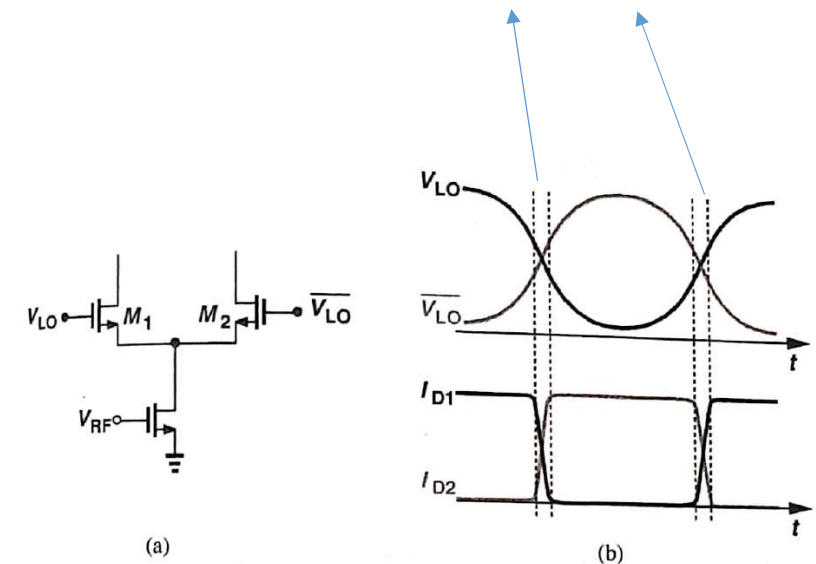


# Performance Parameters

## 6. Output Waveform

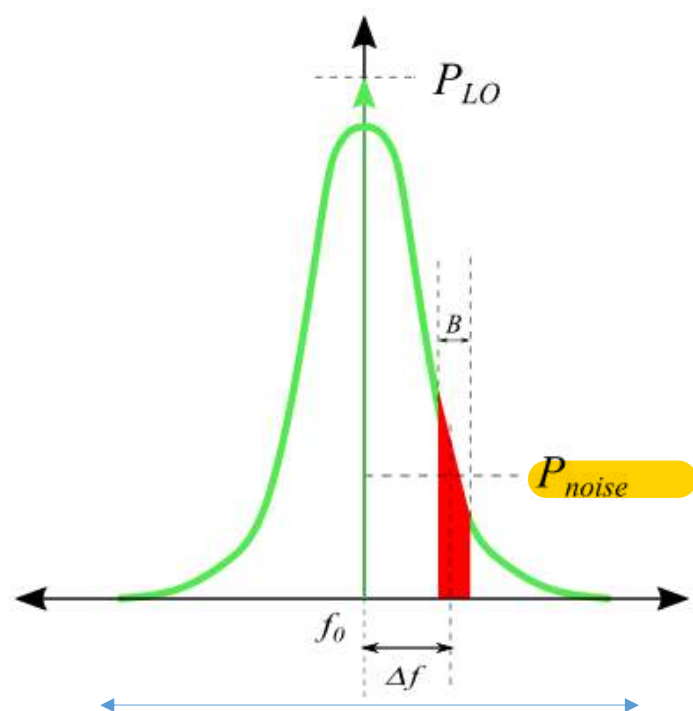
- Abrupt LO transitions reduce noise and increase conversion gain.
- Improve frequency divider performance.
- Differential signals with 50% duty cycle reduce second order non linear effects and also dc feedthrough.
- Pure square waves difficult to achieve due to harmonic suppression due to narrowband nature of oscillator tank and the o/p parasitics of buffer.
- Hence the next best approach is to increase O/P voltage swing (create large  $I_D$  changes in M1 and M2) by increasing  $V_{LO}$  swing or increasing size of M1 and M2.

Both M1 and M2 on. Only common mode gain provided.  
Also both M1 and M2 contribute to o/p noise.



# Performance Parameters

## 7. Phase Noise



Random change in frequency

Oscillator Output spectrum

$$\text{Say, } x_{LO}(t) = A_{LO} \cos \left[ \omega_c t + \underbrace{\varphi_n(t)}_{\substack{\text{change is random,} \\ \text{causes random} \\ \text{change in frequency}}} \right]$$

$$L_n(f_0 + \Delta f) \Big|_{\text{dBc/Hz}} = P_{noise} \Big|_{\text{dBm}} - B \Big|_{\text{dBHz}} - P_{LO} \Big|_{\text{dB}}$$

# Effect of LO Phase Noise On Receiver

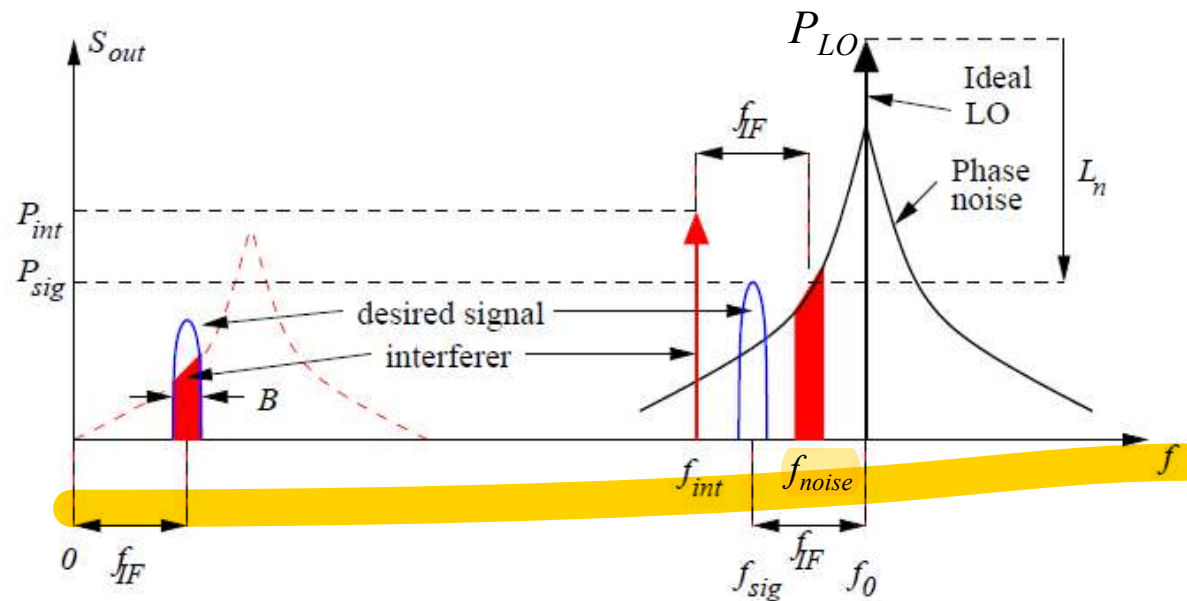
- Degradation (decrease) of SNR  $\rightarrow$  increase of BER
- Degradation of selectivity (in addition to IMD)
- For small bandwidth B the noise power is:

$$P_{noise} \approx P_{int} B P_{LO} L_n(f_{noise} = f_{int} + f_0 - f_{sig})$$

$$\text{We must have at worst: } SNR_{min} = \frac{P_{sig} \times P_{LO}}{P_{noise}} = \frac{P_{sig}}{B P_{int} L_n(\Delta f)}$$

Giving the maximum allowable phase noise at  $f = \Delta f$  as,

$$L_n(\Delta f)|_{dBc} = P_{sig}|_{dBm} - P_{int}|_{dBm} - B|_{dBHz} - SNR_{min}|_{dB}$$



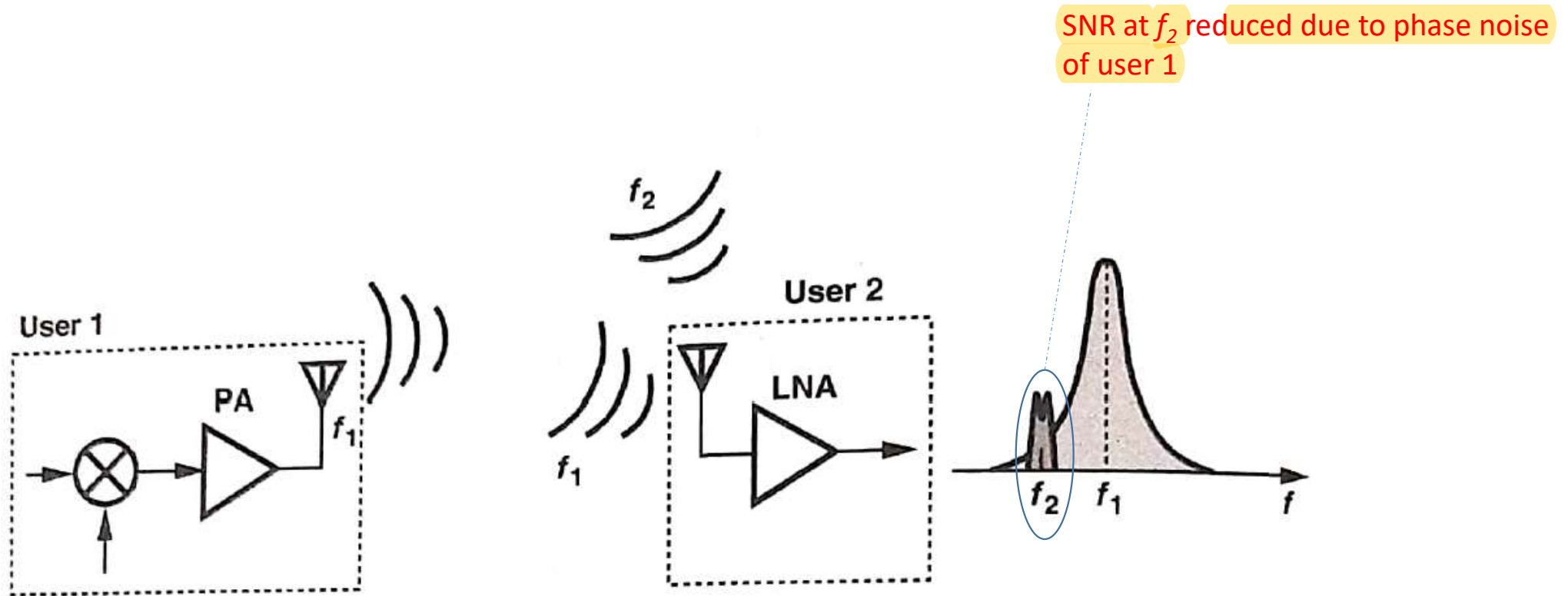
$$B|_{dBHz} = 10 * \log_{10}(B)$$

# GSM Example

<i>Frequency Offset <math>\Delta f</math> (MHz)</i>	<i>Interfering Signal Level (dBm)</i>	<i><math>L_n(\Delta f)</math> dBc/Hz</i>
3.0	-23	-138
1.6	-33	-128
0.6	-43	-118

The channel Bandwidth is 200 kHz. The carrier signal is -99 dBm. The required SNR<sub>min</sub> is 9 dB.

# Effect of LO Phase Noise On Transmitter



**Figure 8.52** Received noise due to phase noise of an unwanted signal.

# Effect of LO Phase Noise On Modulation and Demodulation

$$x_{QPSK}(t) = A \cos \left[ \omega_c t + (2k + 1) \frac{\pi}{4} + \underbrace{\varphi_n(t)}_{\text{From Phase Noise}} \right] \quad k = 0, \dots, 3$$

Overall phase is random

From Phase Noise

Amplitude remains same  
but phase is random.

If noise is very high then symbol  
will be detected falsely.

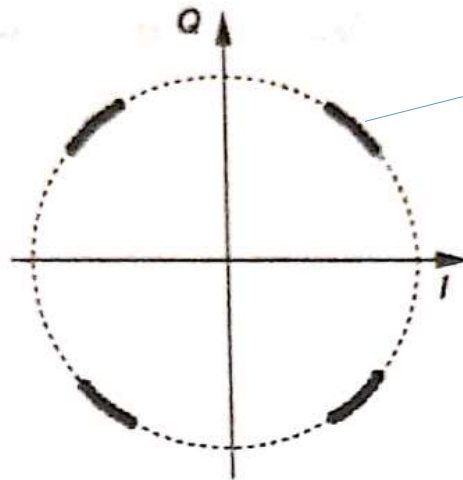
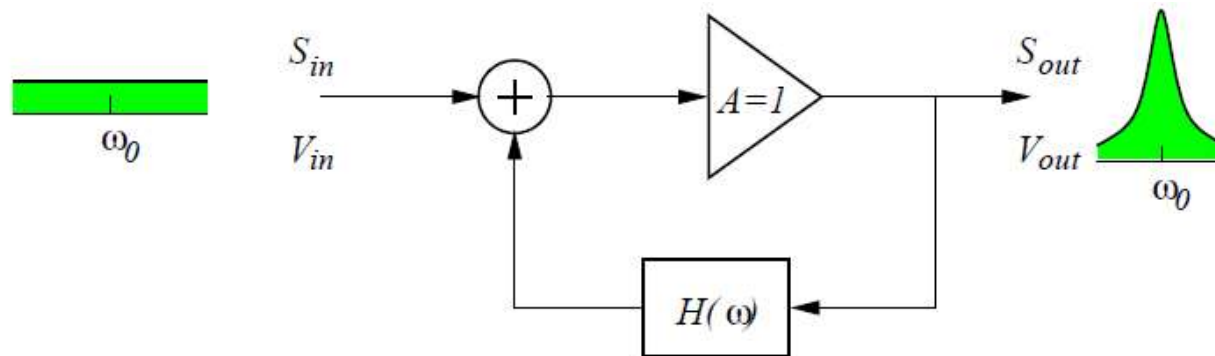


Figure 8.53 Corruption of a QPSK signal due to phase noise.

# Phase Noise Model



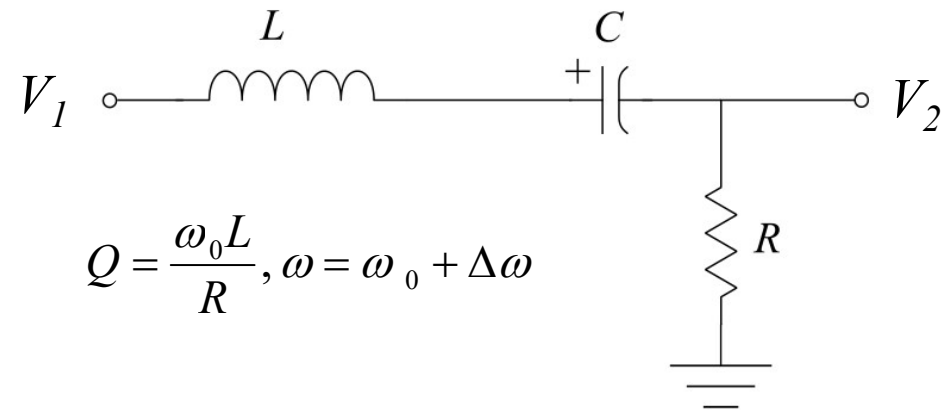
Transfer function of a parallel RLC resonator

$$H(\omega) = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{1}{1 + jQ \left( \frac{\omega}{\omega_0} - \frac{\omega_0}{\omega} \right)} \approx \frac{1}{1 + jQ \frac{2\Delta\omega}{\omega_0}}$$

For calculating the output oscillator PSD we need,

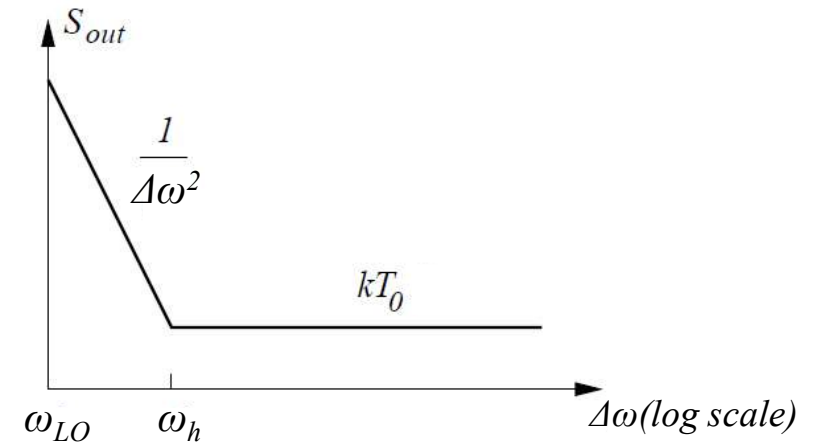
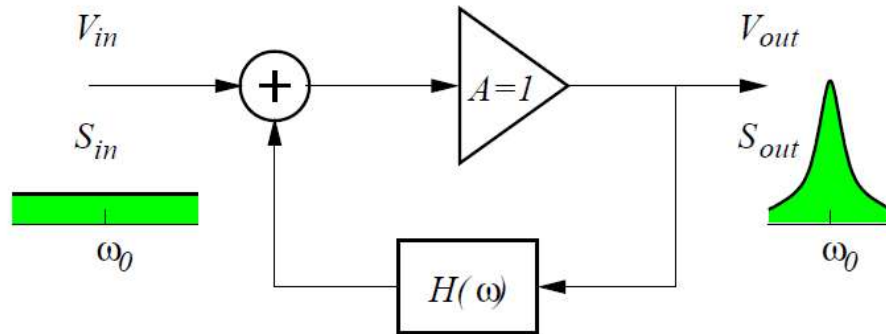
$$\frac{S_{out}(\omega)}{S_{in}(\omega)} = \left| \frac{1}{1 - H(\omega)} \right|^2 = 1 + \left( \frac{\omega_0}{2Q\Delta\omega} \right)^2 = 1 + \left( \frac{\omega_h}{\Delta\omega} \right)^2$$

where,  $\omega_h = \frac{\omega_0}{2Q}$



$$Q = \frac{\omega_0 L}{R}, \omega = \omega_0 + \Delta\omega$$

# Leeson's Model



$$S_{out} = S_{in} \left| 1 / (1 - H(\omega)) \right|^2 = S_{in} \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{\omega_0}{2Q\Delta\omega} \right)^2 \right] \rightarrow \text{o/p PSD}$$

$S_{in} = kT_0 F \rightarrow \text{i/p PSD}$ , where  $F$  is an empirical noise factor

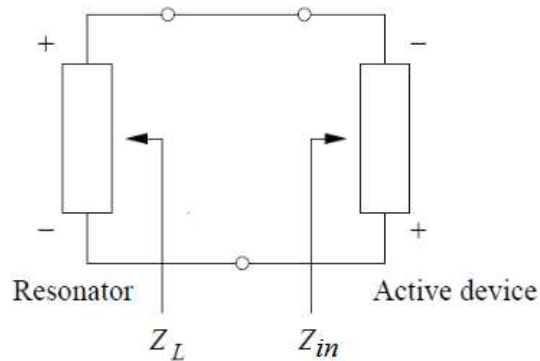
$$L(\Delta\omega) = 10 \log \left[ \frac{S_{out}}{P_{LO}} \right] = 10 \log \left\{ \frac{FkT_0}{P_{LO}} \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{\omega_0}{2Q\Delta\omega} \right)^2 \right] \right\}$$

where  $P_{LO}$  is the oscillator output power.

Better phase noise characteristics are achieved with a high  $Q$  resonator.



# Basic LC Oscillator Topologies (Colpitt's and Clapp's)



At operating point,

$$R_S = -R_{IN} = \frac{g_m}{C_1 C_2 \omega^2}$$

$$X_L = j\omega_0 L = -X_{IN} = \frac{j}{\omega_0} \left( \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_1 \frac{C_1 C_2}{C_1 + C_2}}}$$

Condition of startup,

$$|R_{IN}| > R_S$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{g_m}{C_1 C_2 \omega^2} > R_S \text{ (which is usually satisfied at dc)}$$

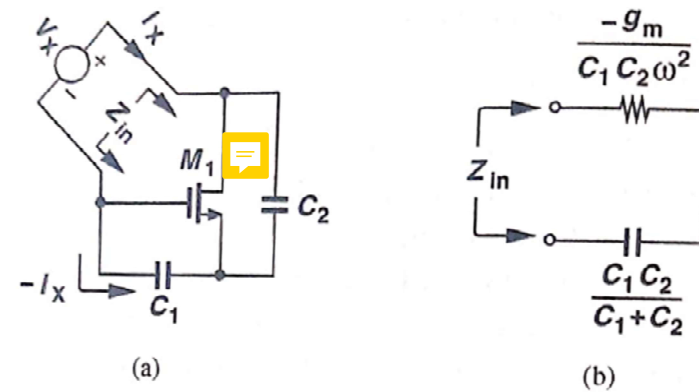


Figure 8.14 (a) Circuit providing negative resistance, (b) equivalent circuit.

$$i_d = g_m v_{gs}, v_{gs} = -I_X \times \frac{1}{sC_1}$$

$$I_{C1} = I_X, I_{C2} = I_X - i_d = I_X + \frac{g_m I_X}{sC_1}$$

$$V_X = I_X \left( 1 + \frac{g_m}{sC_1} \right) \times \frac{1}{sC_2} + I_X \times \frac{1}{sC_1}$$

$$\frac{V_X(j\omega)}{I_X(j\omega)} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{jC_1\omega} + \frac{1}{jC_2\omega}}_{X_{IN}} - \underbrace{\frac{g_m}{C_1 C_2 \omega^2}}_{R_{IN}}$$

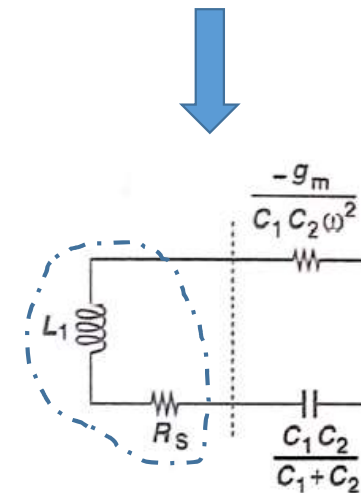


Figure 8.15 Connection of lossy inductor to negative-resistance circuit.

# Variants of 3 point oscillator

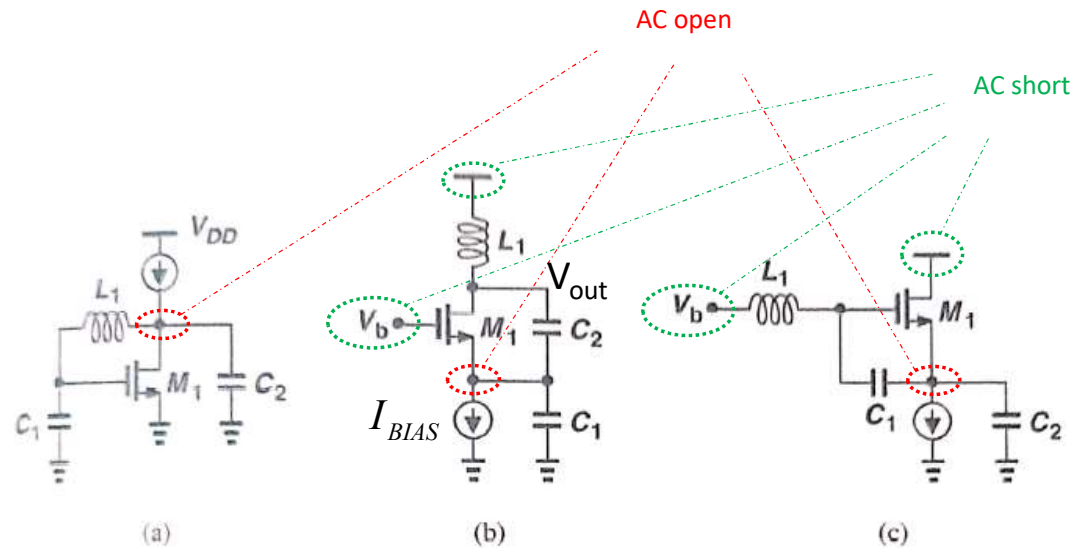
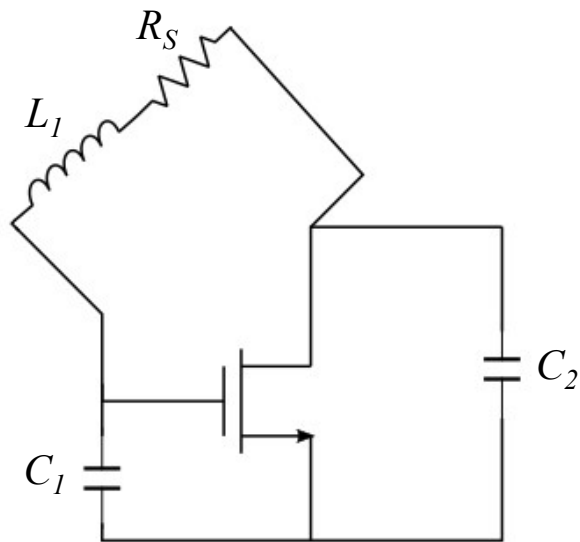


Figure 8.22 Variants of three-point oscillator, (a) with source grounded, (b) with gate grounded (Colpitts oscillator), (c) with drain grounded (Clapp oscillator).

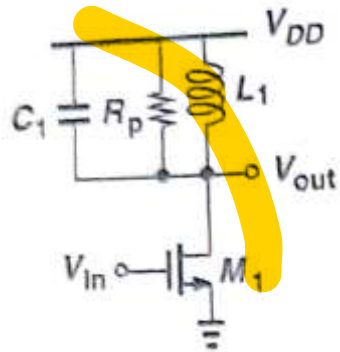
For Colpitt's oscillator,

$$V_{\text{tank}} \propto I_{\text{BIAS}} \\ \propto R_p$$

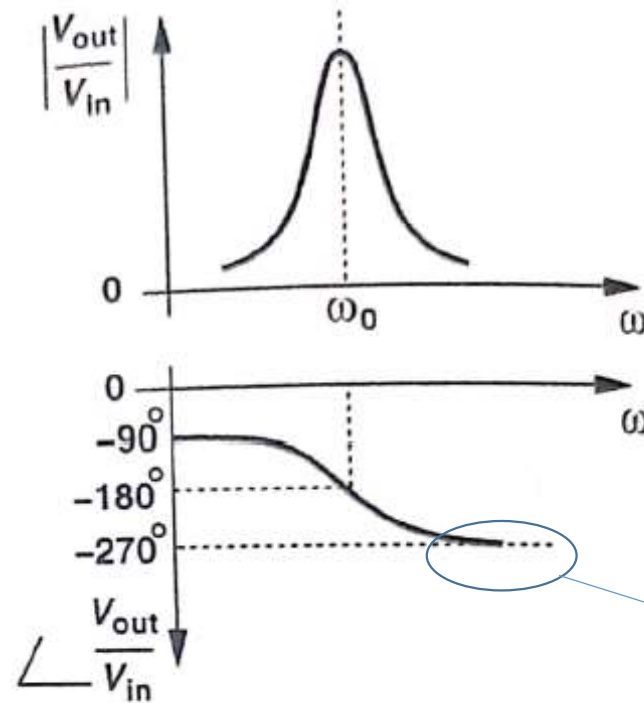
$$V_{\text{out}} = \frac{2}{\pi} I_{\text{BIAS}} R_p$$

where,  $R_p = (L_s \omega_0)^2 / R_s$ , is the equivalent shunt resistance of the inductor at  $\omega_0$ .

# Differential Negative Gm Oscillators



(a)



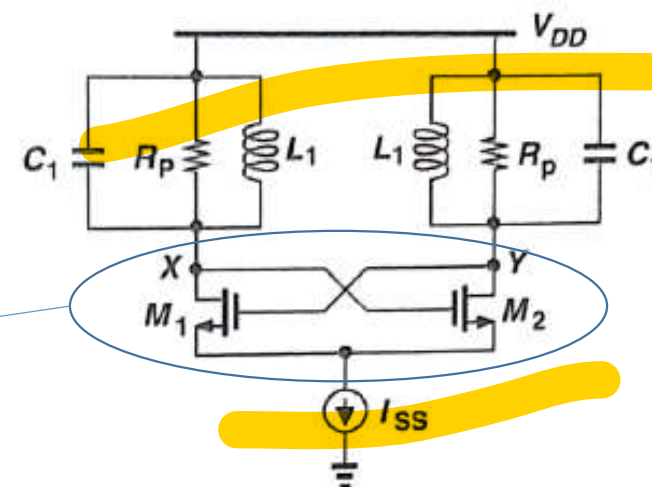
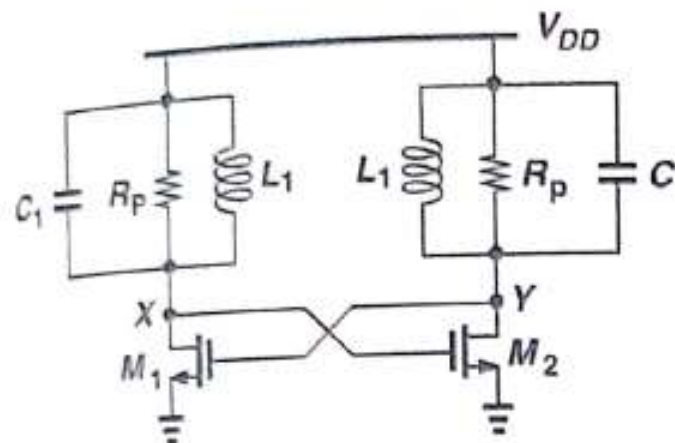
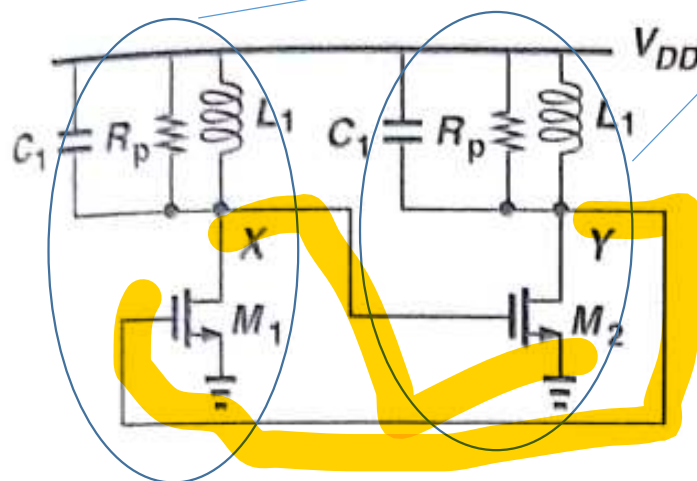
(b)

Figure 8.16 (a) Tuned amplifier, (b) frequency response.

Max phase shift of 270 degree, Not sufficient to meet Barkhausen criteria

# Differential Negative $G_m$ Oscillators

Each stage provides 180 degree phase shift



Less affected  
by  
 $V_T$  variation  
when  $I_{SS}$  is present

Voltage swing  $V_{XY} \cong (4/\pi) I_{SS} R_p$

(See e.g. 8.11 in razavi new edition)

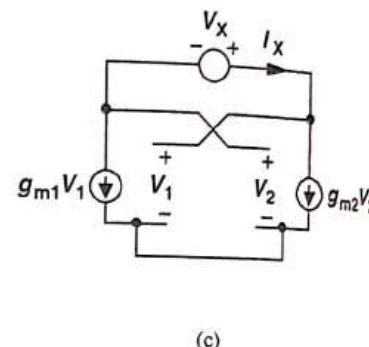
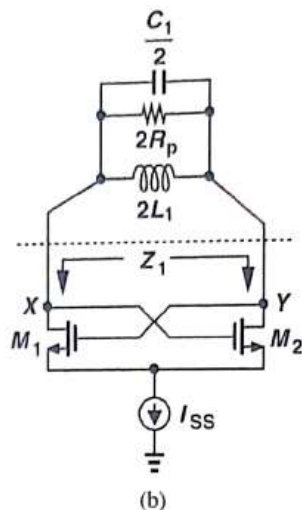
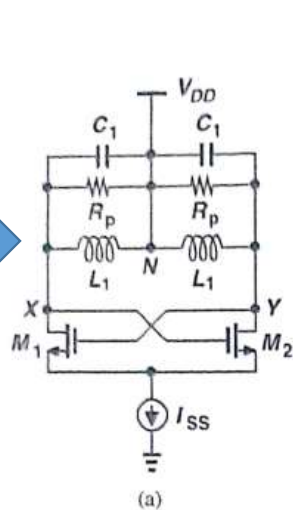
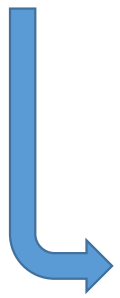
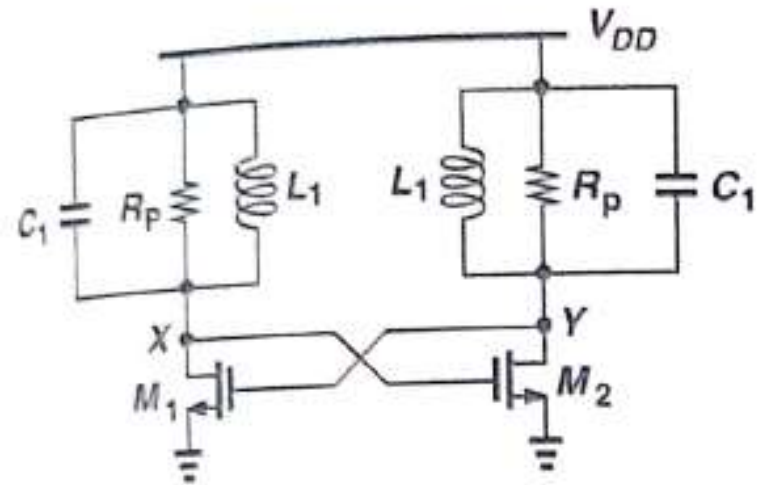


Figure 8.21 (a) Redrawing of cross-coupled oscillator, (b) load tanks merged, (c) equivalent circuit of cross-coupled pair.

$$I_X = -g_{m1}V_1 = g_{m2}V_2$$

$$\frac{V_X}{I_X} = \frac{V_1 - V_2}{I_X} = \frac{-I_X / g_{m1} - I_X / g_{m2}}{I_X}$$

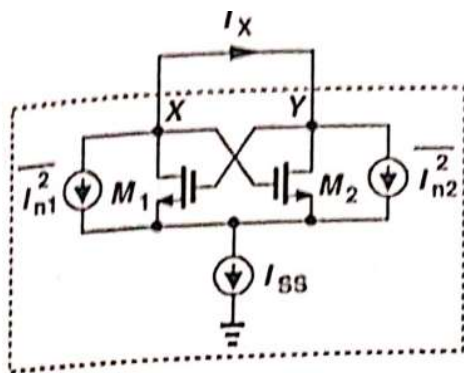
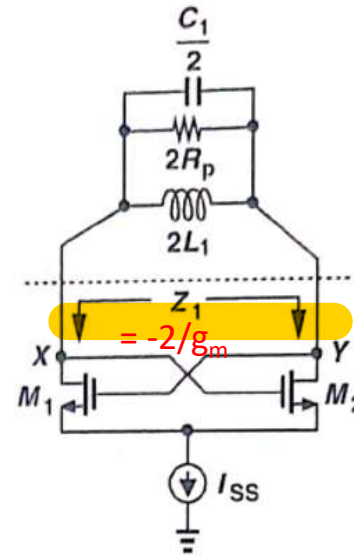
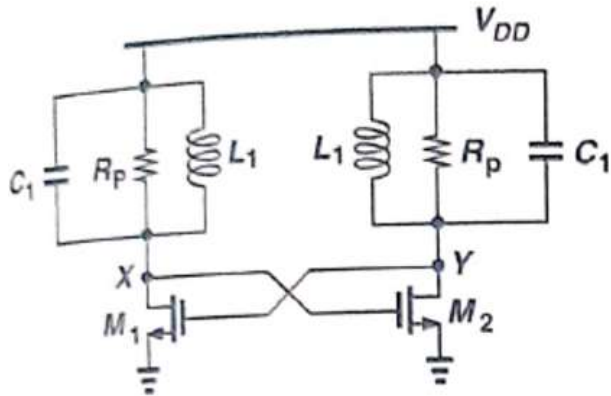
$$= -\left(\frac{1}{g_{m1}} + \frac{1}{g_{m2}}\right) = -\frac{2}{g_m}$$

At steady state,

$$2R_p = \frac{2}{g_m} \Rightarrow R_p = \frac{1}{g_m}$$

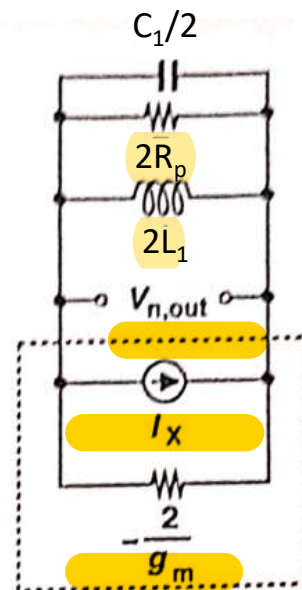
$$\Rightarrow R_p g_m = 1$$

# Phase Noise of differential oscillator



(a)

With MOSFET noise sources



(b)

Norton  
Equivalent

Say net conductance  $G = 1/2R_p - g_m/2 = 0$

Hence net resistance  $R = 1/G = \infty$

$$I_X = \frac{I_{n1} - I_{n2}}{2}, \overline{I_{n1}^2} = \begin{cases} 2kT\gamma g_m & (\text{for homodyne}) \\ kT\gamma g_m & (\text{for heterodyne}) \end{cases}$$

Hence total noise current psd in one branch,

$$= \overline{I_X^2} + \frac{4kT}{2R_p}$$

$$\text{Total noise voltage psd, } \overline{V_{n,out}^2} = \left( \frac{\overline{I_{n1}^2}}{2} + \frac{2kT}{R_p} \right) |Z_{\text{tank}}|^2$$

$$= \left( \frac{\overline{I_{n1}^2}}{2} + \frac{2kT}{R_p} \right) \frac{L_1^2 \omega^2}{(1 - L_1 C_1 \omega^2)^2} \quad (\text{Taking } R = \infty)$$

$$= \left( \frac{\overline{I_{n1}^2}}{2} + \frac{2kT}{R_p} \right) \frac{L_1^2 \omega^2}{\left(1 - \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_0^2}\right)^2} \approx \left( \frac{\overline{I_{n1}^2}}{2} + \frac{2kT}{R_p} \right) \frac{1}{4C_1^2 \Delta \omega^2}$$

where,  $\omega = \omega_0 + \Delta \omega$  and  $\omega_0 \gg \Delta \omega$

LO power

$$= \left[ \frac{4}{\pi} (I_{SS} R_p) \right]^2 / 2$$

Hence, Phase noise

$$L(\Delta \omega) = \frac{\overline{V_{n,out}^2}}{\text{LO power}} = \frac{\left( \frac{\overline{I_{n1}^2}}{2} + \frac{2kT}{R_p} \right) \frac{1}{4C_1^2 \Delta \omega^2}}{\left[ \frac{4}{\pi} (I_{SS} R_p) \right]^2 / 2}$$

$$= \frac{\pi^2}{32} \left( \frac{\overline{I_{n1}^2}}{2} + \frac{2kT}{R_p} \right) \frac{1}{I_{SS}^2 R_p^2 C_1^2 \Delta \omega^2},$$

$R_p = Q L_1 \omega_0$  (parallel tank)

$$\text{Hence, } L(\Delta \omega) = \frac{\pi^2}{32} \left( \frac{\overline{I_{n1}^2}}{2} + \frac{2kT}{R_p} \right) \frac{1}{I_{SS}^2 Q^2 \Delta \omega^2}$$

- $L(\Delta\omega)$  is inversely proportional to  $I_{ss}^2$  (which is proportional to voltage swing).
- $L(\Delta\omega)$  is inversely proportional to  $\Delta\omega^2$  (the offset frequency).
- $L(\Delta\omega)$  is inversely proportional to  $Q^2$ .



# Voltage controlled oscillator

- Range of  $C_{var}$  depends on channel length.
- Lesser the value of  $L$  higher should be the range.
- However overlap capacitance ( $C_{ox}$ ) limits the range.
- Need to increase  $L$  for optimum  $C_{var}$  variation.
- Increasing  $L$  decreases the  $Q$  of the varactor.

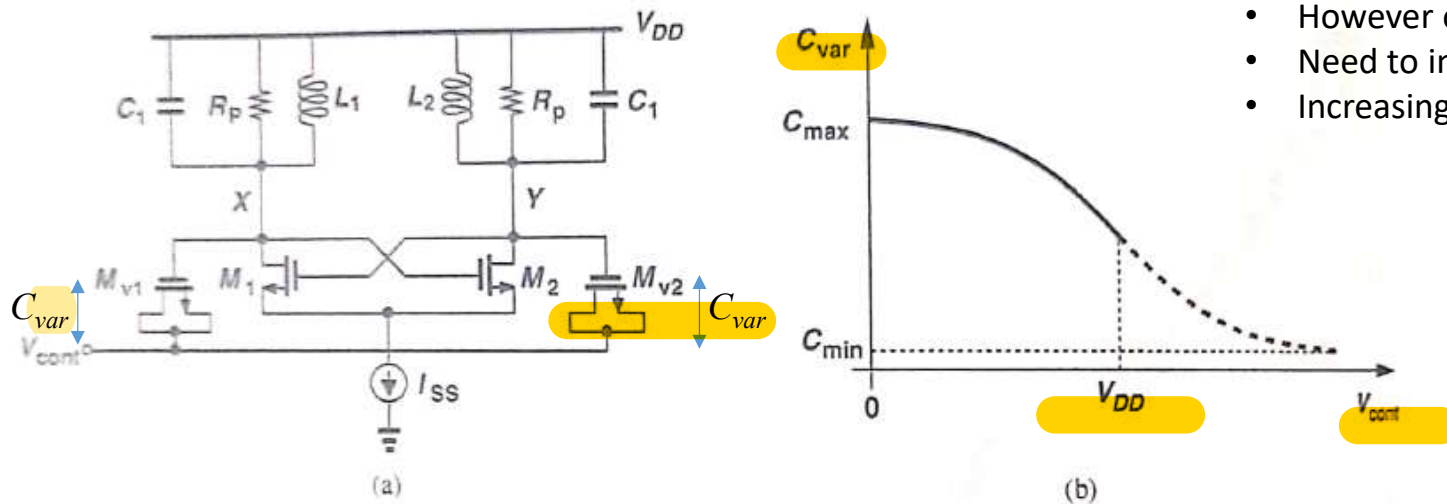


Figure 8.25 (a) VCO using MOS varactors, (b) range of varactor capacitance used in (a).

$$\omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_1(C_1 + C_{var})}}$$

constant

$$\omega_{out} = \omega_0 + K_{VCO} V_{cont}$$

Ideal characteristics

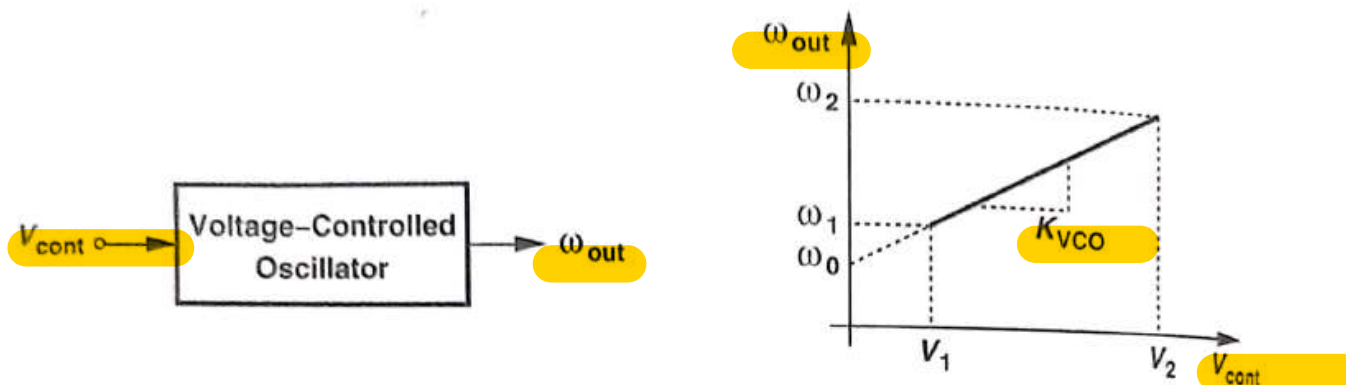
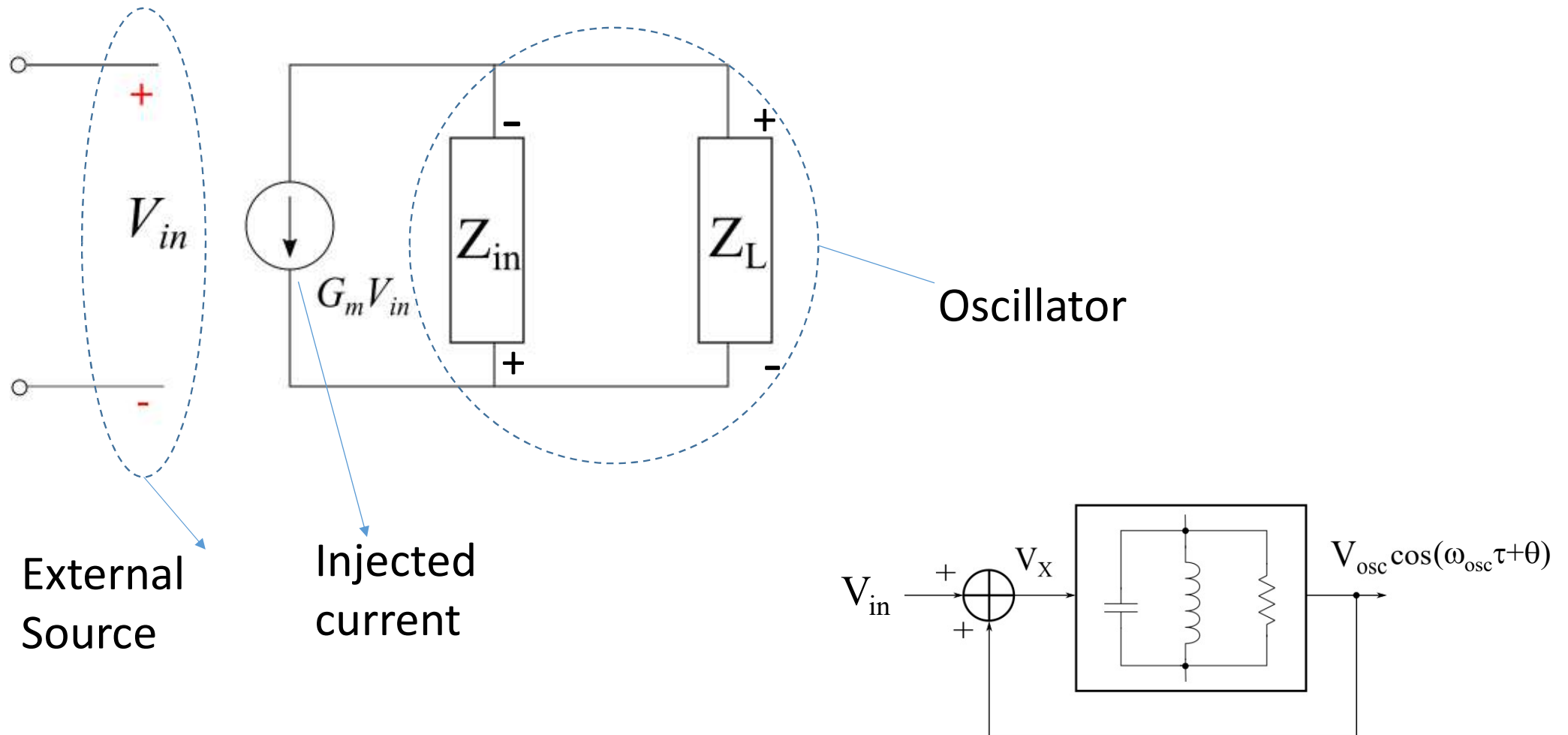


Figure 8.24 VCO characteristic.

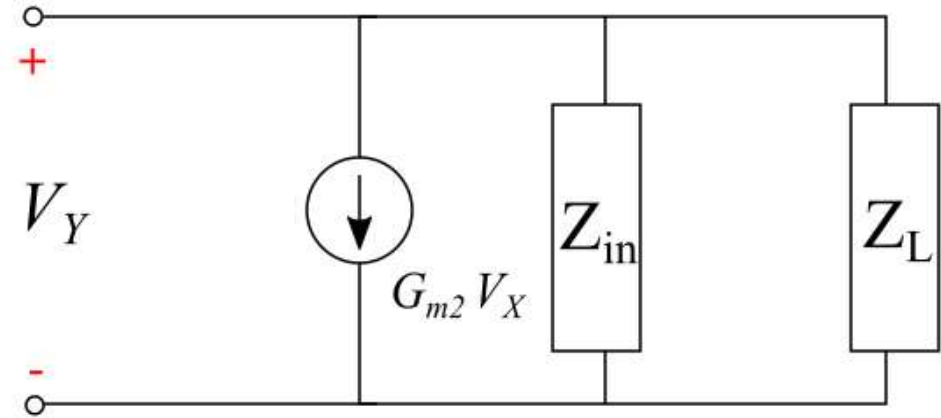
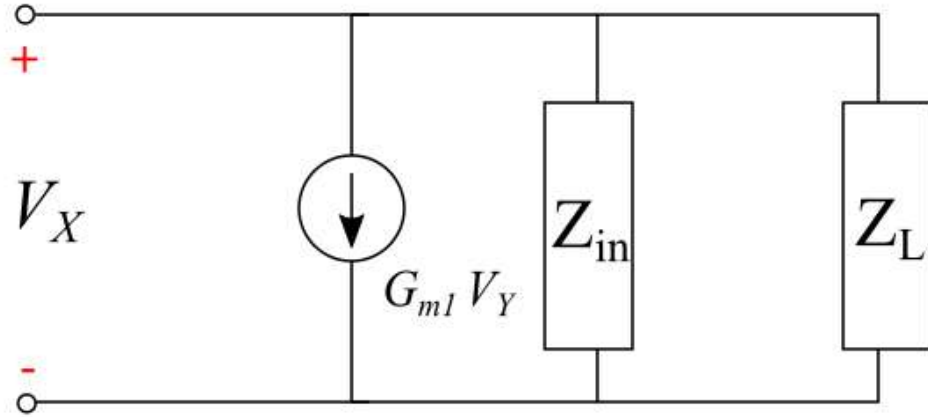
# Advantages of Differential topology

- Less affected by power supply variations due to symmetry.
- Higher voltage swing
- Less affected by  $V_T$  and temperature variations

# Injection Locking in oscillators



# Quadrature LC oscillator



$$G_{m2} V_X \frac{Z_L Z_{in}}{Z_L + Z_{in}} = V_Y \quad (1)$$

$$G_{m1} V_Y \frac{Z_L Z_{in}}{Z_L + Z_{in}} = V_X \quad (2)$$

Equating (1) and (2) we get,

$$\left(G_{m2}V_X^2 - G_{m1}V_Y^2\right)\frac{Z_L Z_{in}}{Z_L + Z_{in}} = 0$$

Since  $Z_L \parallel Z_{in}$  cannot be zero,

$$G_{m2}V_X^2 = G_{m1}V_Y^2$$

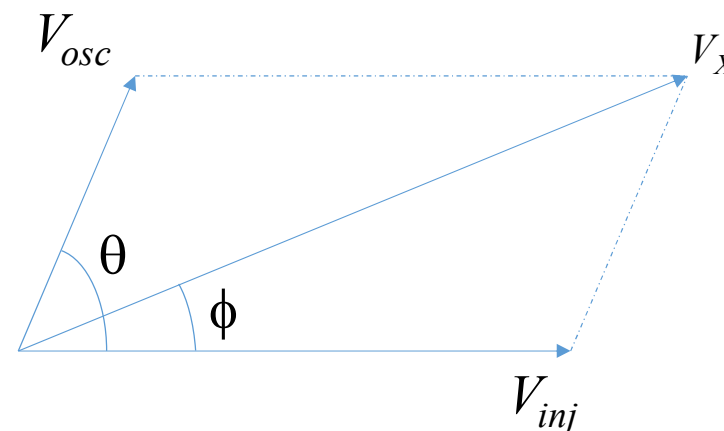
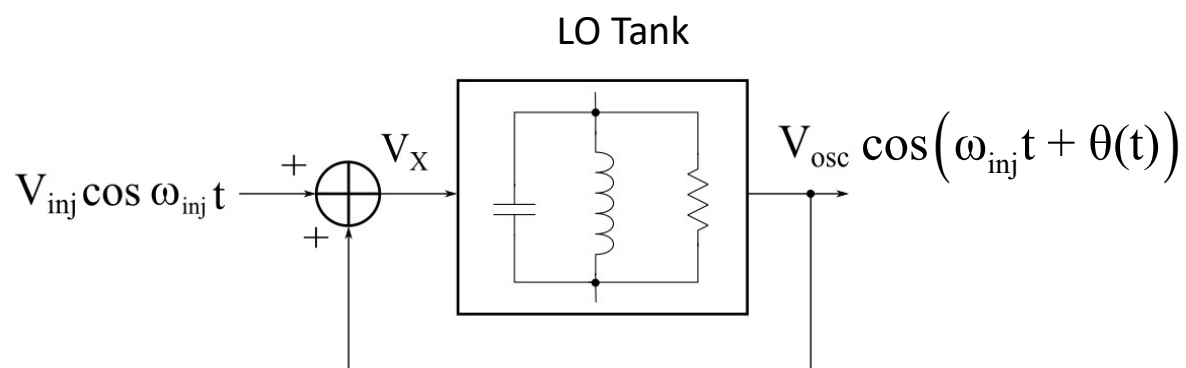
If  $G_{m1} = G_{m2}$

$\Rightarrow V_X = \pm V_Y$  i.e. a oscillator with  $180^\circ$  phase shift .

If  $G_{m1} = -G_{m2}$

$\Rightarrow V_X = \pm j V_Y$  i.e. a quadrature oscillator

# Injection Pulling (Discussed earlier in Transmitter Architectures)



$\frac{d\theta(t)}{dt}$  is a measure of the injection pulling.

If  $\phi$  is small, ( $|V_{inj}| \gg |V_{osc}|$ ),  $V_X$  will follow  $V_{inj}$  even if  $\frac{d\theta}{dt}$  is small.

Conversely if  $\phi$  is near  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , ( $|V_{inj}| \ll |V_{osc}|$ ),  $V_X$  will not follow  $V_{inj}$  even if  $\frac{d\theta}{dt}$  is large.

# In Phase coupling ( $V_A = -V_C$ )

$Z_A$  and  $Z_B$  are resonators

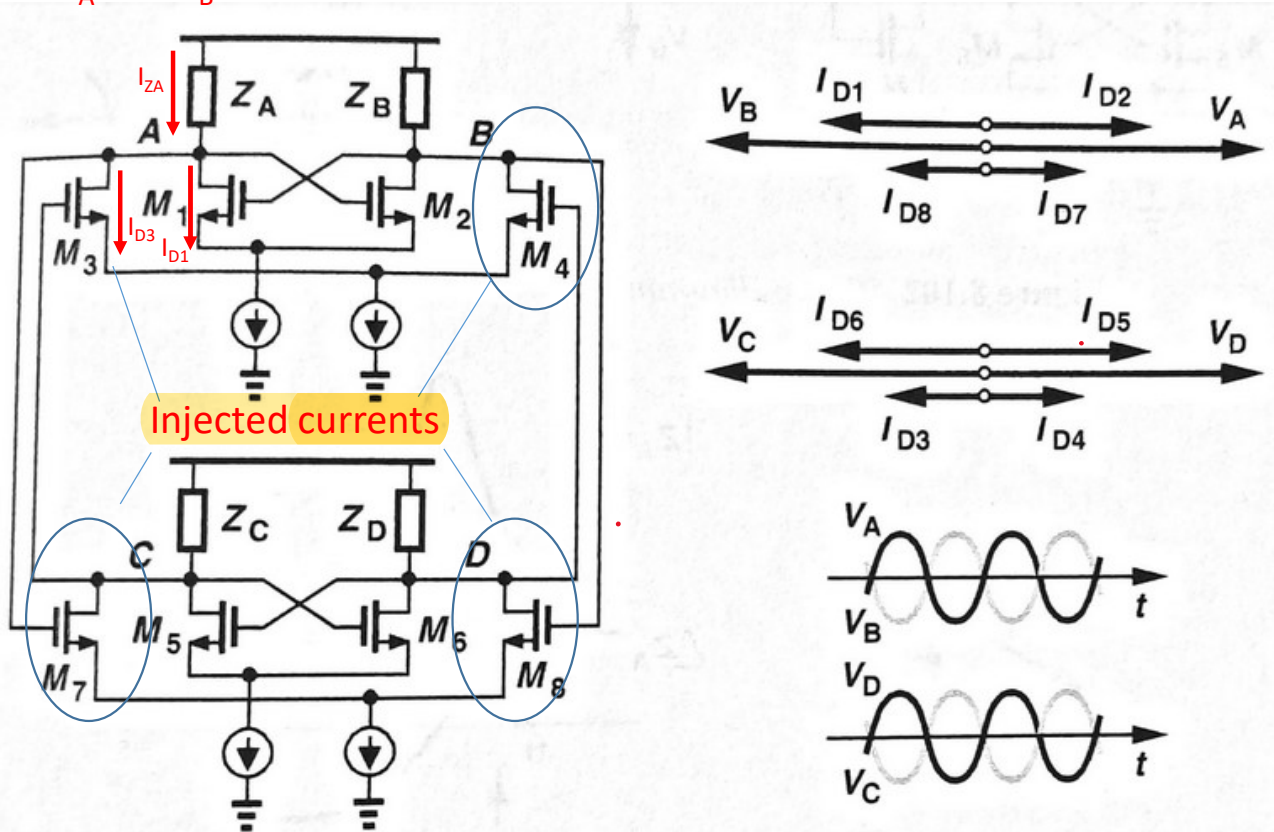


Figure 8.101 Phasor diagrams for in-phase coupling.

$$V_A = -I_{ZA} Z_A$$



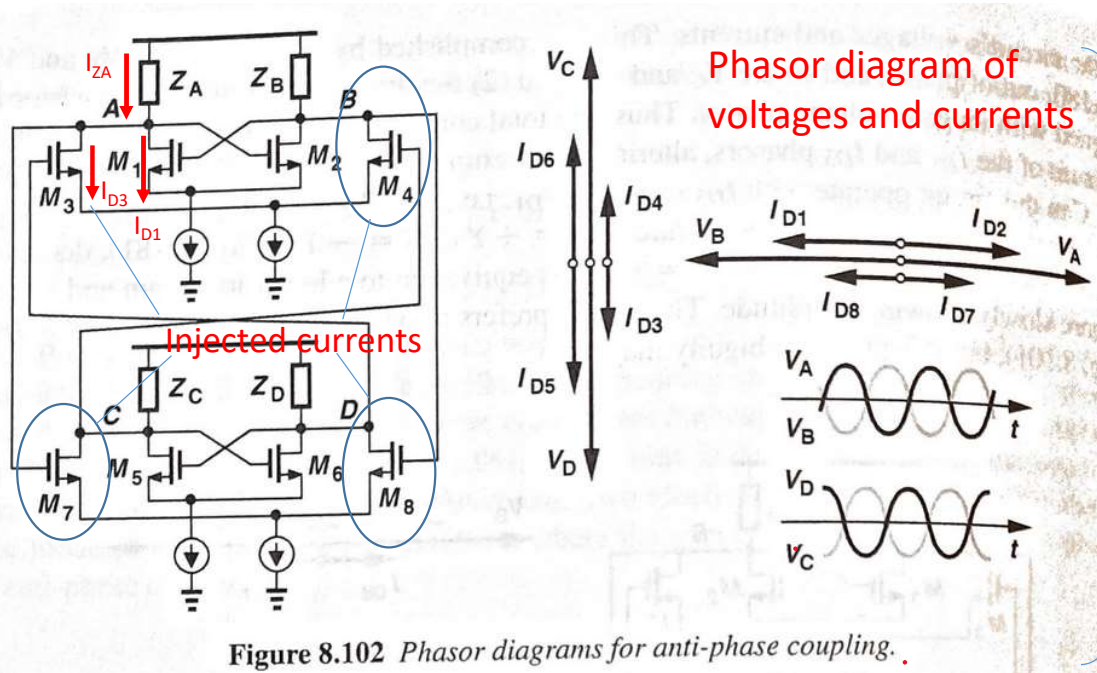
$$I_{ZA} = |I_{ZA}| \exp(j\pi), Z_A = |Z_A| \exp(0)$$

$$\text{Hence, } V_A = -I_{ZA} Z_A = |I_{ZA}| |Z_A|,$$

Thus  $V_A$  can have phase = 0,

# Cross Coupling ( $V_C = j V_A$ )

$Z_A$  and  $Z_B$  are resonators



Currents in transistors will be along the direction of voltages

$$\Delta\omega = \omega_{osc1} - \omega_0 = \frac{\omega_0}{2Q_{\text{tank}}} \tan^{-1} \frac{I_{D3}}{I_{D1}}$$

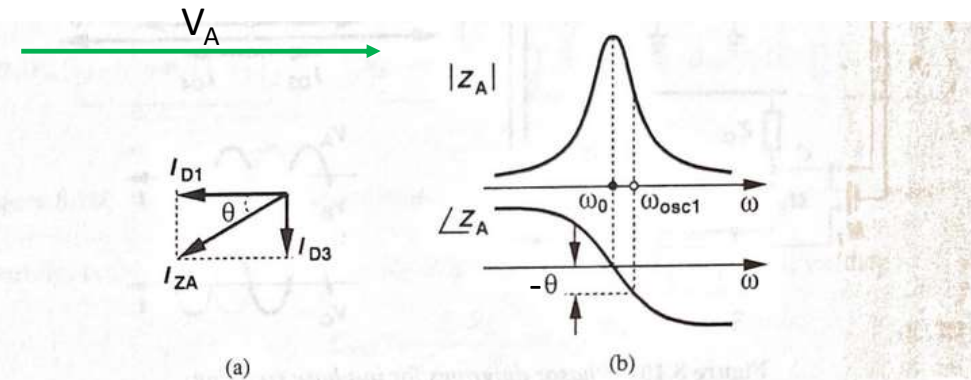


Figure 8.103 (a) Vector summation of core and coupling currents, (b) resulting departure from resonance.

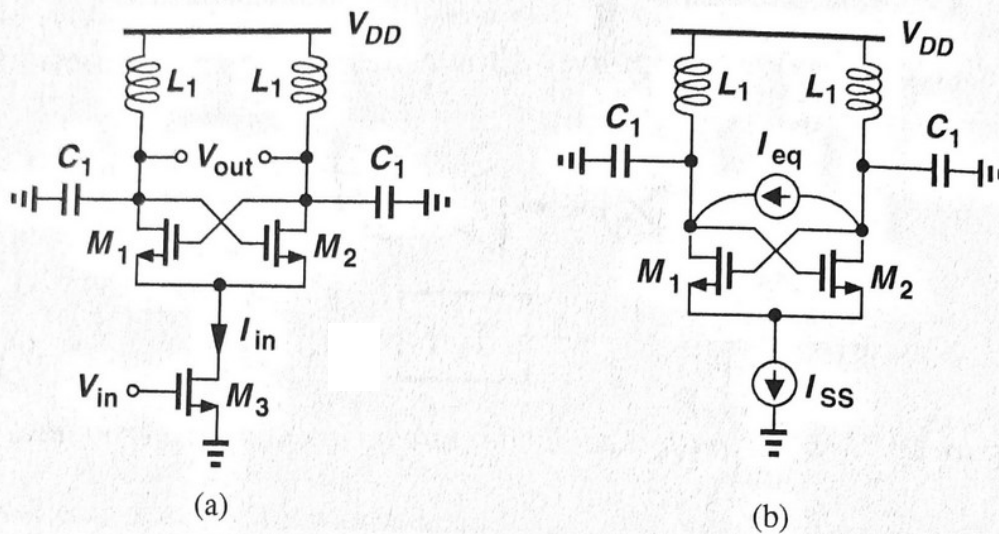
$$V_A = -I_{ZA} Z_A \quad I_{ZA} = |I_{ZA}| \exp(j(\pi + \theta)), Z_A = |Z_A| \exp(-j\theta)$$

$$\text{Hence, } V_A = -I_{ZA} Z_A = |I_{ZA}| |Z_A| \angle \theta$$

Thus  $V_A$  can have phase = 0, even though  $I_{D1}$  and  $I_{D3}$  are normal to each other.



# Injection based frequency division



**Figure 10.74** (a) Example of injection-locked divider, (b) equivalent view.

O/P frequencies over which lock can be achieved,

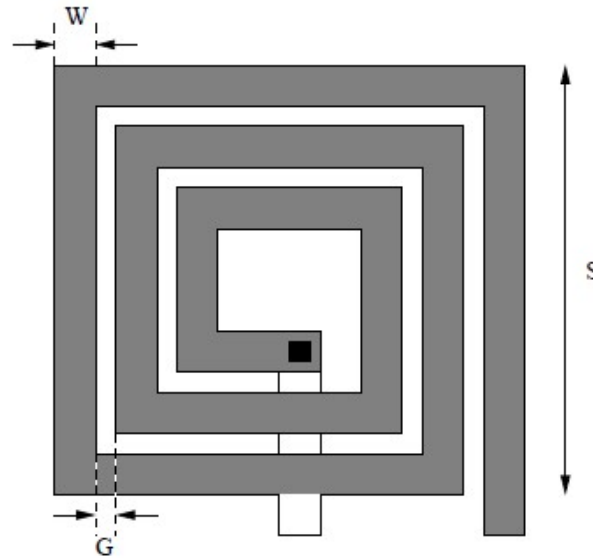
$$\Delta\omega_{out} = \frac{\omega_0}{2Q_{\text{tank}}} \tan^{-1} \frac{2\Delta I_{in}}{\pi I_{osc}}$$

$$\omega_{osc} = \omega_0 \pm \Delta\omega_{out}$$

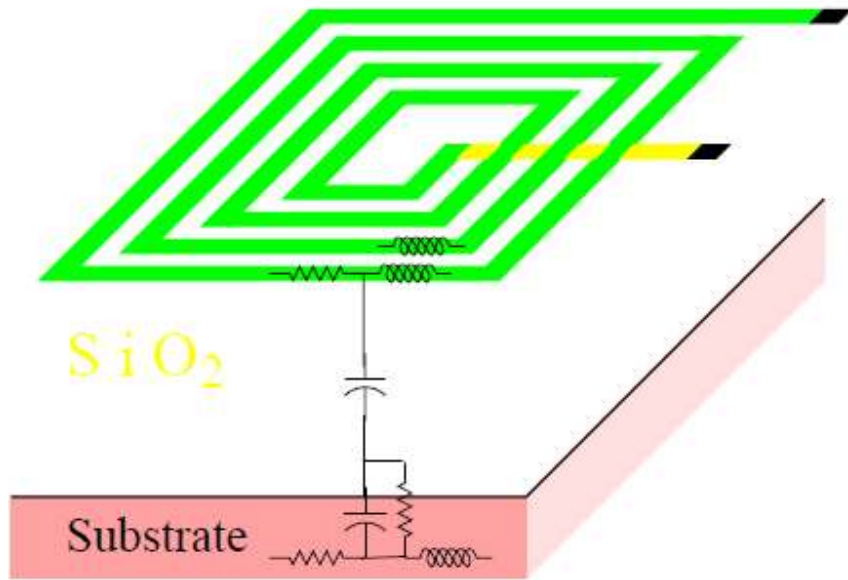
By adjusting  $\Delta I_{in}$  the required  $\omega_{osc}$  can be achieved.

# Monolithic Inductors

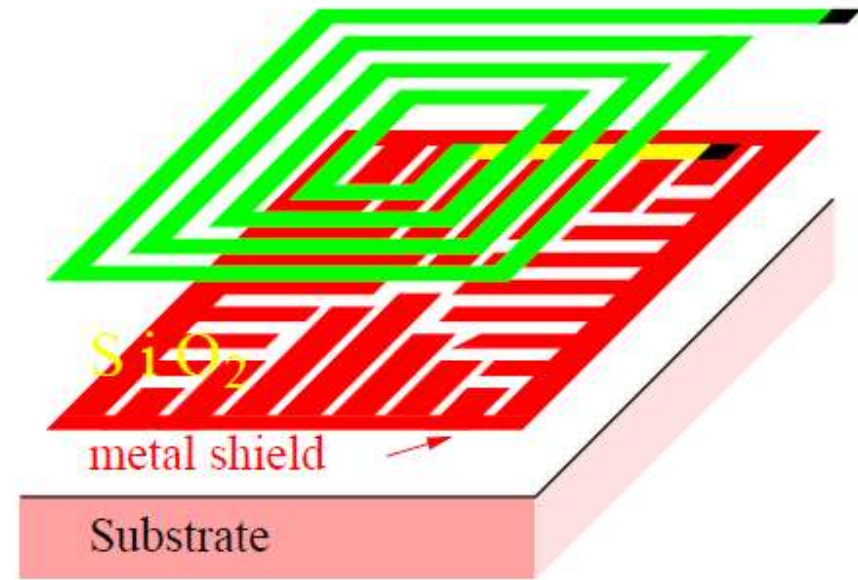
- Empirical formula for spiral inductor  $L \approx 1.3 \times 10^{-7} \frac{A_m^{5/3}}{A_{tot}^{1/6} W^{1.75} (W + G)^{1/4}}$   
where  $A_m$  is the metal area,  $A_{tot} \approx S^2$  is the inductor area,  $W$  the line width,  $G$  the line spacing. Formula is accurate from 5 to 50 nH.
- Image currents in a lossy substrate decrease the inductor  $Q$  (eddy currents).



# Shielded and Not Shielded Inductors



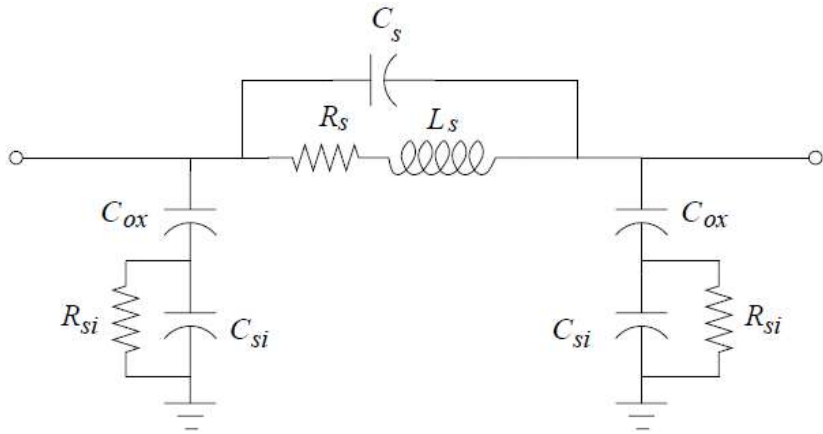
(a) Not shielded



(b) Shielded

- The shield suppresses the substrate loss and noise coupling. A patterned shield reduces the image current.

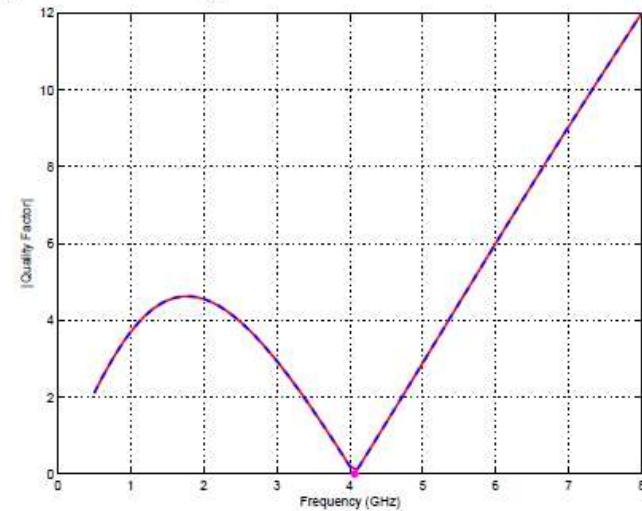
# Electrical Model for Non-Shielded Inductors



$$Q = -\frac{\text{Im}[y_{11}]}{\text{Re}[y_{11}]} = \frac{\omega L_s}{R_s} \times \text{Substrate Loss Factor} \times \text{Self-resonance Factor}$$

$$= \frac{\omega L_s}{R_s} \times \frac{R_p}{R_p + R_s \left[ \left( \frac{\omega L_s}{R_s} \right)^2 + 1 \right]} \times \left[ 1 - \frac{R_s^2 (C_s + C_p)}{L_s} - \omega^2 L_s (C_s + C_p) \right]$$

using  $R_p = \frac{1}{\omega^2 C^2 R_{si}} + \frac{R_{si} (C_{ox} + C_{si})^2}{C_{ox}^2}$   $C_p = C_{ox} \frac{1 + \omega^2 (C_{ox} + C_{si}) C_{si} R_{si}^2}{1 + \omega^2 (C_{ox} + C_{si})^2 R_{si}^2}$



# Effective Inductance

$$L_{eff} = \frac{\text{Im} \left[ \frac{1}{y_{11}} \right]}{2\pi f}$$

