LECTURE 160 – PHASE NOISE - II
(References [4,6,9])

LINEAR TIME INVARIANT MODELS OF VCO PHASE NOISE

**Amplifier Phase Noise (A Two-Port Approach)**

Consider the oscillator as an amplifier with feedback as shown.

Let us examine the phase noise added to an amplifier that has a noise factor of $F$ where

$$F = \frac{(S/N)_{in}}{(S/N)_{in}}$$

If the amplifier has a power gain of $G$, then

$$N_{out} = FGkT\Delta f \quad \text{and} \quad N_{in} = FkT\Delta f$$

The input phase noise in a 1 Hz bandwidth at a frequency of $f_o + f_m$ from the carrier is given by,

$$\theta_{rms1} = \frac{V_{N_{rms}}}{\sqrt{2}V_{S_{rms}}} = \sqrt{\frac{FkT}{2P_{s}}}$$

where

- $V_{N_{rms}}$ = the *rms* noise voltage at the input
- $V_{S_{rms}}$ = the *rms* signal voltage at the input
- $F$ = noise factor
- $P_{s}$ = input signal power

**Amplifier Phase Noise - Continued**

Since a correlated random phase deviation, $\theta_{rms2}$, exists at $f_o - f_m$, the total phase noise deviation becomes,

$$\theta_{rms} = \sqrt{\theta_{rms1}^2 + \theta_{rms2}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{FkT}{P_{s}}}$$

Now, the phase noise spectral density of the noise contributed by the amplifier, $N(j\omega)$, can be written as,

$$S_\theta(f_m) = \theta_{rms}^2 = \frac{FkT}{P_{s}}$$

In addition to the above thermal noise, we can include the flicker or 1/f noise. The phase noise spectral density is given as,

$$S_\theta(f_m) = \frac{FkT}{P_{s}} \left( 1 + \frac{f_c}{f} \right)$$
Linear Time Invariant Model for the Phase Noise of an Oscillator using a Resonator

\[ N(j\omega) = \text{phase noise contributed by the amplifier} \]

Solving for \( Y(j\omega) \):

\[
Y(j\omega) = \frac{1}{1 - H(j\omega)} N(j\omega) + \frac{1}{1 - H(j\omega)} X(j\omega)
\]

Let \( S_{\theta}(f_m) = \text{the output phase noise spectral density in (volts}^2/\text{Hz}) \) of the oscillator

\[ f_o = \text{oscillator frequency} \]

\[ f_m = \text{frequency deviation about } f_o \]

\[ S_{\theta}(f_m) = \text{phase noise spectral density of } N(j\omega) \]

\[
S_{\theta}(f_m) = \left| \frac{1}{1 - H(f_m)} \right|^2 S_{\theta}(f_m)
\]

Assume that \( H(j\omega) \) is a bandpass function.

\[
H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega Q}{(j\omega)^2 + \frac{j\omega}{Q} + \omega^2} = \frac{jf}{f_o Q} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{f}{f_o} + jQ}\left(\frac{f}{f_o}\right)^2 + jQ\frac{f}{f_o}
\]

Noise Transfer Function of a Resonator Oscillator - Continued

If \( f = f_o + f_m \), then

\[
H(f_m) = \frac{1}{1 + jQ\left(\frac{f_o}{f_o + f_m} - \frac{f_o}{f_o}\right)} = \frac{1}{1 - jQ\left(1 + \frac{f_m}{f_o} - 1\right) + jQ\frac{2f_m}{f_o}} \approx \frac{1}{1 - jQ\frac{2f_m}{f_o}}
\]

Substituting this expression in \( S_{\theta}(f_m) = \left| \frac{1}{1 - H(f_m)} \right|^2 S_{\theta}(f_m) \), gives

\[
S_{\theta}(f_m) = \left| \frac{1}{1 - H(f_m)} \right|^2 S_{\theta}(f_m) = \left| \frac{1}{1/H(f_m) - 1} \right|^2 S_{\theta}(f_m) = \left| 1 + jQ\frac{2f_m}{f_o} \right|^2 S_{\theta}(f_m)
\]

\[
S_{\theta}(f_m) \approx \left| \frac{1}{jQ\frac{2f_m}{f_o}} \right|^2 S_{\theta}(f_m) = \left| \frac{1}{4Q^2\frac{f_m}{f_o}} \right|^2 S_{\theta}(f_m)
\]

\[ \text{Leeson’s equation} \]

Comments:

- The further away \( f_m \) is from \( f_o \), the smaller the phase noise.
- The larger the open-loop \( Q \), the smaller the phase noise.
Phase Noise of an Ideal LC Oscillator (Two-Terminal Approach)

In general, an LC oscillator can be modeled as,

\[ V - \frac{1}{RC} L + \text{Energy Restorer} \]

Fig. 3.4-26

The energy stored is,

\[ E_{\text{stored}} = \frac{1}{2} CV_{\text{peak}}^2 \]

Assuming a sinusoidal signal, the mean square carrier voltage is,

\[ \overline{V_{\text{sig}}^2} = \frac{E_{\text{stored}}}{C} \]

The total mean square noise is,

\[ \overline{V_n^2} = 4kTR \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{Z(f)^2}{R} df = 4kTR \left( \frac{1}{4RC} \right) = \frac{kT}{C} \]

where \(|Z(f)/R|\) is the bandwidth of the resonator.

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Phase Noise of an Ideal LC Oscillator (Two-Terminal Approach) - Continued

The “noise-to-signal” ratio is given as,

\[ \frac{N}{S} = \frac{\overline{V_n^2}}{\overline{V_{\text{sig}}^2}} = \frac{kT}{E_{\text{stored}}} \]

which confirms that one needs to maximize the signal level to reduce the noise-to-carrier ratio.

Power consumption and \(Q\) can be brought into the relationship via the definition of \(Q\),

\[ Q = \frac{\text{Energy stored}}{\text{Energy dissipated per cycle}} = \frac{\omega E_{\text{stored}}}{P_{\text{diss}}} \]

Therefore,

\[ \frac{N}{S} = \frac{\omega kT}{Q P_{\text{diss}}} \]

These relationships are reasonably valid for real oscillators and encourage the use of large values of \(Q\) to achieve low phase noise (which is not the total picture).
Phase Noise of an Ideal LC Oscillator (Two-Terminal Approach) - Continued

Assume that the only source of noise is the thermal (white) noise of the resistor. Therefore, the noise can be represented by a current source in parallel with the LC tank with a mean-square spectral density of,

\[ \frac{\overline{i_n^2}}{\Delta f} = 4kTG \]

The noise voltage is more useful and is found by multiplying the noise current times the tank impedance. However, if the energy restoring circuit perfectly cancels the positive resistance, we have an ideal \( LC \) impedance at resonance. For relatively small deviations from resonance, \( \Delta \omega \), we have,

\[ Z(\omega_o+\Delta \omega) = j\frac{\omega_oL}{2\omega_o} \]

A more useful form is achieved using the expression for the unloaded \( Q \) of the \( LC \) tank.

\[ Q = \frac{R}{\omega_oL} = \frac{1}{\omega_oGL} \quad \rightarrow \quad |Z(\omega_o+\Delta \omega)| = \frac{1}{G} \frac{\omega_o}{2Q\Delta \omega} \]

The spectral density of the mean-square noise voltage can be expressed as,

\[ \frac{\overline{v_n^2}}{\Delta f} = \frac{\overline{i_n^2}}{\Delta f} |Z|^2 = 4kTR \left( \frac{\omega_o}{2Q\Delta \omega} \right)^2 \quad \rightarrow \quad 1/f^2 \text{ behavior} \]

In the ideal model, the thermal noise affects both amplitude and phase which is represented by the previous expression. When in equilibrium, these two noise contributions are equal.

In an amplitude limited system, the limiting mechanism removes the amplitude noise so that the spectral density of the mean-square noise voltage for an \( LC \) tank with an amplitude limiting mechanism is equal to half of the previous result,

\[ \frac{\overline{v_n^2}}{\Delta f} = \frac{\overline{i_n^2}}{\Delta f} |Z|^2 = 2kTR \left( \frac{\omega_o}{2Q\Delta \omega} \right)^2 \]

Normalizing the voltage noise by the rms signal voltage \( (P_s = V_s^2/R) \), gives the single-sideband noise spectral density as,

\[ \mathcal{L}(\Delta \omega) = 10 \log \left[ \frac{2kT}{P_s} \left( \frac{\omega_o}{2Q\Delta \omega} \right)^2 \right] \]

Interpretation:

- Phase noise improves as \( Q \) increases (the \( LC \) tank’s impedance falls off as \( 1/Q\Delta \omega \)).
- Phase noise improves as the carrier power increases (thermal noise stays constant).
Phase Noise of an Ideal LC Oscillator (Two-Terminal Approach) - Continued

Results of simplifying assumptions:

- Although real spectra possess a $1/f^2$ region, the magnitudes are larger than that predicted above.
- There are other noise sources besides the tank loss (i.e., the energy restorer).
- The measured spectra will eventually flatten out for large frequency offsets (this is due to noise such as the output buffers or even the limitation of the measurement equipment itself).
- There is almost always a $1/(\Delta\omega)^3$ region at small offsets.

A Modification to the Single-Sideband Phase Noise (Leeson)

A modification to the single-sideband phase noise by Leeson is as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}(\Delta\omega) = 10 \log \left( \frac{1}{2} S_{\theta}(f_m) \right) = 10 \log \left[ \frac{FkT}{P_s} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{4Q^2} \left( \frac{f_o}{f_m} \right)^2 \right) \left( 1 + \frac{f_c}{f_m} \right) \right]$$

The modifications are:

1. To include a factor, $F$, to account for the increased noise in the $1/(\Delta\omega)^2$ region.
2. Include a 1 inside the brackets to include the flattening out of the spectra.
3. Include a multiplicative term to provide a $1/(\Delta\omega)^3$ region at small offset frequencies.

Typical result:

$$\mathcal{L}(\Delta\omega) \text{ dBc/Hz}$$

- $1/\Delta f^3$ (Slope = -30dB/decade)
- $1/\Delta f^2$ (Slope = -20dB/decade)
- $10\log \left( \frac{2FkT}{P_{sig}} \right)$

Fig. 3.4-23
LINEAR TIME VARYING NOISE MODEL FOR VCO PHASE NOISE

Linear Time Varying Noise Model

In reality, most oscillators are time varying systems and the previous time-invariant analysis needs to be modified to account for time variance. (Linearity is still a reasonable assumption, however.)

How are oscillators time varying?

Consider the LC oscillator shown excited by a current pulse:

Assume that the oscillator is oscillating with some constant amplitude. The following shows the impulse response of the oscillator at two different times and demonstrates time variance.

Impulse Sensitivity Function

The impulse response completely characterizes the oscillator since linearity still remains a good assumption. Therefore, let us find the single-sideband phase noise using the impulse response approach.

The impulse response for a step change in the phase may be written as,

\[ h_\phi(t, \tau) = \frac{\Gamma(\omega_0 \tau)}{q_{\text{max}}} u(t-\tau) \]

where \( u(t) \) is a unit step function and \( \Gamma(x) \) is called the impulse sensitivity function (ISF) and \( q_{\text{max}} \) is the maximum charge displacement across the capacitor.

ISF is a dimensionless, frequency and amplitude independent function periodic in \( 2\pi \). It encodes information about the sensitivity of the oscillator to an impulse injected at phase \( \omega_0 \tau \).

The following are some examples of the ISF:
**Excess Phase using the ISF**

Once the ISF has been determined (many means are possible but simulation is probably the best), we may compute the excess phase through the use of the superposition integral:

\[
\phi(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} \phi_{\omega}(t, \tau) i(\tau) d\tau = \frac{1}{q_{\max}} \int_{-\infty}^{t} \Gamma(\omega_\circ \tau) i(\tau) d\tau
\]

Illustration of this computation:

![Fig. 3.4-28](image)

This process involves the modulation of the normalized input noise current injected into the node of interest by a periodic function (ISF), followed by an ideal integration and a nonlinear phase modulation that converts phase to voltage.

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**Excess Phase using the ISF – Continued**

To put the above equation in a more practical form, note that the ISF is periodic and therefore can be represented by a Fourier series as,

\[
\Gamma(\omega_\circ \tau) = c_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \cos(n \omega_\circ \tau + \theta_n)
\]

where the coefficients, \(c_n\), are real and \(\theta_n\) is the phase of the \(n\)-th harmonic of the ISF.

In the following, we shall assume that the noise components are uncorrelated so their relative phase is unimportant and \(\theta_n\) can be ignored. If the series converges rapidly, then the ISF is well-approximated by only the first few terms.

Substituting the Fourier expansion of the ISF into the previous work gives the excess phase as,

\[
\phi(t) = \frac{1}{q_{\max}} \left[ c_0 \int_{-\infty}^{t} i(\tau) d\tau + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \int_{-\infty}^{t} i(\tau) \cos(n \omega_\circ \tau) d\tau \right]
\]
Excess Phase using the ISF – Continued

Illustration of the ISF decomposition:

The block diagram contains elements that are analogous to those of a superheterodyne receiver. The normalized noise current is analogous to a broadband “RF” signal whose Fourier components undergo simultaneous down-conversion by a “local oscillator” at all harmonics of the oscillation frequency.

Sidebands of Excess Phase

The previous analogy can be used to show that the excess phase noise has two equal sidebands at ±Δω even though injection occurs near some integer multiple of ω₀.

Consider a sinusoidal current that is injected at a frequency Δω, where Δω << ω₀.

\[ i(t) = I_n \cos(Δωt) \]

Substitute this expression into the previous expression for \( φ(t) \) with \( n = 0 \), gives the following

\[ φ(t) = \frac{I_0c_0}{q_{\max}} \int_{-∞}^{t} \cos(Δωt) dτ \]

\[ = \frac{I_0c_0 \sin(Δωt)}{q_{\max}Δω} \]

where there is a negligible contribution to the integral by terms other than \( n = 0 \).

Therefore, the spectrum of \( φ(t) \) consists of two equal sidebands at Δω even though the injection occurred near ω = 0.
Sidebands of Excess Phase - Continued

Consider a sinusoidal current that is injected at a frequency which is close to the oscillation frequency,

\[ i(t) = I_1 \cos [(\omega_o + \Delta \omega)t] \]

where \(\Delta \omega \ll \omega_o\).

Substitute this expression into the previous expression for \(\phi(t)\) gives the following

\[
\phi(t) \approx \frac{I_1 c_1 \sin(\Delta \omega t)}{2q_{\text{max}} \Delta \omega}
\]

where there is a negligible contribution to the integral by terms other than \(n=1\).

Again, the spectrum of \(\phi(t)\) consists of two equal sidebands at \(\Delta \omega\) even though the injection occurred near \(\omega_o\).

\[ S_\phi(\omega) = \frac{2q_{\text{max}} \Delta \omega}{\pi c_1} \]

Integration

\[ i(\omega) \]

\[ \omega_o - \Delta \omega \]

\[ \omega_o + \Delta \omega \]

\[ \pi c_1 \]

\[ \pi c_2 \]

\[ \pi c_3 \]

\[ -3\omega_o \]

\[ -2\omega_o \]

\[ -\omega_o \]

\[ +\omega_o \]

\[ +2\omega_o \]

\[ +3\omega_o \]

\[ \text{Fig. 3.4-31} \]

Sidebands of Excess Phase - Continued

In general, consider a sinusoidal current that is injected at a frequency near an integer \(n\) of the oscillation frequency,

\[ i(t) = I_n \cos [n\omega_o + \Delta \omega]t \]

where \(\Delta \omega \ll \omega_o\).

Substitute this expression into the previous expression for \(\phi(t)\) gives the following

\[
\phi(t) \approx \frac{I_n c_n \sin(\Delta \omega t)}{2q_{\text{max}} \Delta \omega}
\]

where there is a negligible contribution to the integral by terms other than \(n\).

Therefore, the spectrum of \(\phi(t)\) consists of two equal sidebands at \(\Delta \omega\) even though the injection occurred near some integer multiple of \(\omega_o\).
**Single-Sideband Noise using the LTV Model**

How is the excess phase noise linked to spectrum of the output voltage of the oscillator?

Consider the following equation,

\[ v_{out}(t) = \cos(\omega_o t + \phi(t)) \]

which acts like a phase-to-voltage converter.

Expanding \( v_{out}(t) \) gives,

\[ v_{out}(t) = \cos(\omega_o t)\cos[\phi(t)] - \sin(\omega_o t)\sin[\phi(t)] = \cos(\omega_o t) - \phi(t)\sin(\omega_o t) \]

for small values of \( \phi(t) \).

Substituting the value of \( \phi(t) \) from the previous slide gives

\[ v_{out}(t) = \cos(\omega_o t) - \frac{I_n c_n \sin(\Delta\omega t)}{2q_{\text{max}} \Delta\omega} \sin(\omega_o t) \]

Therefore, the single-sideband power relative to the carrier is given as,

\[ P_{dBc}(\Delta\omega) = \left( \frac{\frac{I_n c_n}{4q_{\text{max}} \Delta\omega}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n^2} \right) \]

for white noise†.

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**Conversion of Noise to Phase Fluctuations and Phase-Noise Sidebands**

The previous expressions for \( P_{dBc}(\Delta\omega) \) imply both an upward and downward conversion of phase noise onto the noise near the carrier as illustrated below.

Components of the noise near integer multiples of the carrier frequency all fold into noise near the carrier itself.
**Single-Sideband Phase Noise of the LTV Model**

The total single-sideband phase noise spectral density due to one noise source at an offset frequency of $\Delta \omega$ is given by the sum of the powers in the previous figure and is

$$L(\Delta \omega) = 10 \log \left( \frac{\frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f}}{4 q_{\text{max}}^2 \Delta \omega^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n^2 \right)$$

According to Parseval’s relation,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Gamma(x)|^2 dx = 2 \Gamma_{\text{rms}}^2$$

where $\Gamma_{\text{rms}}$ is the rms value of $\Gamma(x)$.

Therefore,

$$L(\Delta \omega) = 10 \log \left( \frac{\Gamma_{\text{rms}}^2}{q_{\text{max}}^2} \frac{i_n^2 / \Delta f}{2 \Delta \omega^2} \right)$$

This equation is rigorous equation for the $1/f^2$ region and no empirical curve-fitting parameters are needed.

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**Single-Sideband Phase Noise of the LTV Model – Continued**

The close-in phase noise can be modeled by assuming the current noise behaves as follows in the $1/f$ region,

$$i_{\text{n,1/f}}^2 = \frac{\omega_{1/f}}{\Delta \omega}$$

Using the previous results for white noise, we obtain the following,

$$L(\Delta \omega) = 10 \log \left( \frac{\frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f}}{8 q_{\text{max}}^2 \Delta \omega^2} \frac{c_0^2 \omega_{1/f}}{\Delta \omega} \right)$$

which describes the behavior in the $1/f^3$ region.

Equating the above to the single-sideband phase noise in the $1/f^2$ region gives,

$$\Delta \omega_{1/f} = \omega_{1/f} \frac{c_0^2}{4 \Gamma_{\text{rms}}^2} = \omega_{1/f} \left( \frac{\Gamma_{\text{dc}}}{\Gamma_{\text{rms}}^2} \right)^2$$

where $\Gamma_{\text{dc}}$ is the dc value of $\Gamma$.

Note that the $1 f^3$ is not necessarily the same as the $1/f$ circuit noise corner and is generally lower.
Summary
So what does all this mean?
To reduce the phase noise in PLLs due to VCO’s:
1.) Make the tank $Q$ or resonator $Q$ as large as possible.
2.) Maximize the signal power.
3.) Minimize the ISF.
4.) Force the energy restoring circuit to function when the ISF is at a minimum and to deliver its energy in the shortest possible time.
5.) The best oscillators will possess symmetry which leads to small $\Gamma_{dc}$ for minimum upconversion of 1/f noise.

**PHASE NOISE IN LC OSCILLATORS**

**LC Oscillator Example using the LTV Theory – Colpitts Oscillator**

Note that $i_d$ only flows during a short interval coincident with minimum ISF.

\[
v = \frac{g_m Z v'}{Z + \frac{1}{sC_1} + \frac{1}{sC_2}} \quad \text{where} \quad Z = \frac{sRL}{R + sL}
\]
Colpitts LC Oscillator Example – Continued

\[ LG = \frac{V'}{v} = \frac{g_m \left( sRL \right)}{R + sL + \frac{1}{sC_1} + \frac{1}{sC_2}} = \frac{g_m RL}{sC_2} \]

\[ = \frac{s^2RL + sL \left( \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} \right) + \left( R + R \right) \left( \frac{1}{sC_1} + \frac{1}{sC_2} \right)}{s^2 + s \left( \frac{1}{RC_1} + \frac{1}{RC_2} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{LC_1} + \frac{1}{LC_2} \right)} \]

\[ = \frac{jw}{C_2} \]

\[ \omega_{osc} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC_1} + \frac{1}{LC_2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{g_m}{C_2} = 1 \]

It can be shown by the LTV theory that the best phase noise occurs when \( C_2 \) is approximately 4 to 5 times \( C_1 \).

An Optimum Low-Phase Noise LC Oscillator

The Colpitts LC oscillator suffers from the fact the tank voltage cannot exceed power supply. The Clapp LC oscillator, shown previously, avoids this problem with a tapped resonator. A common implementation of the Clapp oscillator is the differential version shown.\(^1\)\(^2\)\(^3\)

This circuit uses an automatic amplitude control circuit to force the value of loop gain needed to provide contant oscillation amplitude.

Impulse sensitivity function modeling was used to optimize the noise performance. The optimum tapping ratio \((1+C_2/C_1)\) was found to be 4.5.

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Symmetrical LC Oscillator
This configuration exploits importance in the LTV theory of symmetry.

- Select the relative widths of the PMOS and NMOS to minimize the dc value of the ISF which will minimize the upconversion of 1/f noise.
- The bridge arrangement of transistors allows for greater signal swings.
- 0.25µm CMOS gives –121dBc/Hz at 600kHz offset at 1.8 GHz dissipating 6mW†

Finding the ISF
1.) Direct Method
   Apply an impulse to the oscillator and measure the steady state perturbation. Repeat the application of the impulse throughout the entire cycle of the oscillator

Caution: The impulse amplitude must be small enough to insure the assumption of linearity is valid. One can check by increasing or decreasing the impulse amplitude and see if the response scales linearly.

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Finding the ISF – Continued

2.) Steady-State Method.
Simulate the oscillator limit cycle upon the application of a small perturbation. The phase shift is given by the change in time to transverse the new limit cycle.

Does not take into account the AM-to-PM conversion that occurs in the oscillator.

Amplitude Noise (versus Phase Noise)

The close-in sideband are dominated by the phase noise whereas the far out sidebands are more affected by amplitude noise.

Unlike phase noise, amplitude noise will decay with time because of the amplitude restoring mechanisms present in all oscillators. The excess amplitude may decay slowly as in the case of a harmonic oscillator or quickly as in the case of a ring oscillator.

If the current impulse that causes an instantaneous voltage change on the capacitor is a white noise source with a power spectral density of \( \frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f} \), then the single sideband noise can be found as,

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{amplitude}}(\Delta \omega) = \frac{\Lambda(\omega_0 \tau)}{q_{\text{max}}^2} \left( \frac{\Delta \omega}{\Delta \omega_0} \right) \left( \frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f} \right)
\]

where \( \Lambda(\omega_0 t) \) is a periodic function that determines the sensitivity of each point of the waveform to an impulse and is called the amplitude impulse sensitivity function.
**Amplitude Noise – Continued**

The amplitude and phase noise and total output sideband power for the overdamped exponentially decaying amplitude response is shown below.

![Amplitude Noise Diagram](image)

**JITTER AND PHASE NOISE IN RING OSCILLATORS**

**Ring Oscillators**

Problems:
1. The Q is low (energy stored in the capacitor is discharged every cycle)
2. The energy is stored at the rising/falling edges rather than at voltage maximums

However, the ring oscillator achieves better phase noise in a mixed signal environment.

Five-stage inverter-chain ring oscillator with a current impulse injected:

![Ring Oscillator Diagram](image)

Effect of impulses injected during the transition and during the peak.
Impulse Sensitivity Function for Single-Ended Ring Oscillators

Approximate waveform and ISF for a single-ended ring oscillator:

\[ \Gamma_{\text{rms}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2}{3\eta^3}} \frac{1}{N^{1.5}} \]

RMS values of the ISFs for various single-ended ring oscillators versus no. of stages:
Phase Noise and Jitter of the Single-Ended Ring Oscillator

We should not conclude from the previous result that the phase noise will decrease with the number of stages.

Assuming $V_{TN} = |V_{TP}|$, the maximum total channel current noise from the inverter is

$$\frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f} = \left( \frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f} \right)_N = \left( \frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f} \right)_p = 4kT\gamma\mu_{eff}C_{ox} \frac{W_{eff}}{L} \Delta V$$

where

- $\Delta V = \text{the gate overdrive in the middle of the transition} = 0.5V_{DD} - V_T$
- $\gamma = 2/3$ for long channel devices in saturation and 1.5 to 2 for shorter channel devices in saturation
- $\mu_{eff} = \frac{\mu_n W_n + \mu_p W_p}{W_n + W_p}$
- $W_{eff} = W_n + W_p$

Phase Noise and Jitter for Single-Ended Ring Oscillators - Continued

Assumptions –

Thermal noise sources of the different devices are uncorrelated.

The waveform (hence the ISF) of all the nodes are the same except for a phase shift.

The resulting phase noise and jitter is given as,

$$L\{\Delta \omega\} \approx \frac{8}{3\eta} \frac{kT}{P} \frac{V_{DD}}{V_{char}} \frac{\omega_o^2}{\Delta \omega^2}$$

$$\sigma_\tau = \frac{8}{3\eta} \sqrt{\frac{kT}{P} \frac{V_{DD}}{V_{char}}} \sqrt{\tau}$$

where

- $V_{char} = \frac{(V_{DD}/2) - V_T}{\gamma}$
- $P = 2\eta N V_{DD} q_{max} f_o$
- $f_o = \frac{1}{N t_D} = \frac{1}{\eta N (t_r + t_f)} = \frac{\mu_{eff} W_{eff} C_{ox} \Delta V^2}{8\eta N L q_{max}}$

Note that $L\{\Delta \omega\}$ and $\sigma_\tau$ are independent of $N$. Why?

The increase in the number of stages adds more noise and counters the decrease in the ISF with $N$. 
Phase Noise and Jitter of a Differential Ring Oscillator

Consider the following differential MOS ring oscillator with a resistive load.

Total power dissipation:
\[ P = NI_{tail}V_{DD} \]

The frequency of oscillation:
\[ f_o = \frac{1}{Nt_D} = \frac{1}{2\eta Nt_r} \approx \frac{I_{tail}}{2\eta Nq_{max}} \]

Characteristics of phase noise in differential ring oscillators:
1.) Tail current noise in the vicinity of \( f_o \) does not affect the phase noise.
2.) Tail current noise influences the phase noise at low frequencies and at even multiples of \( f_o \).
3.) Tail current at low frequencies can be reduced by exploiting symmetry.
4.) Tail current at even multiples of \( f_o \), can be reduced by harmonic traps.

Therefore, the total current noise on each single-ended node is
\[
\frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f} = \left( \frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f} \right)_N + \left( \frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f} \right)_{Load} = 4kT I_{tail} \left( \frac{1}{V_{char}} + \frac{1}{R_L I_{tail}} \right)
\]

\[ V_{char} = V_{GS} - V_T \quad \text{for long channel and} \quad V_{char} = \frac{E_c L}{\gamma} \quad \text{for short channels} \]
**Jitter Noise of a Differential Ring Oscillator**

Assuming as before that the jitter noise due to all $2N$ noise sources is $2N$ times the values of the individual jitter noise sources gives,

$$\sigma_{\tau} \approx \sqrt{2N} \frac{I_{rms}}{q_{max}} \frac{1}{\omega_o} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f}} \sqrt{\tau}$$

$$= \sqrt{2N} \left( \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2}{3\eta^3 N}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \left( \frac{2\eta N q_{max}}{2\pi I_{tail}} \right) \right) \sqrt{2kT I_{tail}} \left( \frac{1}{V_{char}} + \frac{1}{R_L I_{tail}} \right) \sqrt{\tau}$$

$$\sigma_{\tau} \approx \sqrt{\frac{4}{3\eta N}} \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{I_{tail}} \left( \frac{1}{V_{char}} + \frac{1}{R_L I_{tail}} \right)} \sqrt{\tau}$$

Replacing the first $I_{tail}$ in terms of $P$ gives,

$$\sigma_{\tau} \approx \sqrt{\frac{8}{3\eta}} \sqrt{\frac{kTP}{P} \left( \frac{1}{V_{char}} + \frac{1}{R_L I_{tail}} \right)} \sqrt{\tau}$$

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**Comparison of the Single-Ended and Differential Ring Oscillator Noise**

Note, that both $L\{\Delta \omega\}$ and $\sigma_{\tau}$ for the differential ring oscillator will increase with $N$.

Why? The answer is in the way the two oscillators dissipate power.

**Differential Ring Oscillator:**

The dc current from the supply is independent of the number and slope of the transition.

**Single-Ended Ring Oscillator:**

This oscillator dissipate power mainly on a per transition basis and therefore have better phase noise for a given power dissipation.

However, a differential topology may still be preferred in an IC implementation because of the lower sensitivity to substrate and supply noise, as well as lower noise injection into other circuits on the chip.
**Optimum Number of Stages for Ring Oscillators**

Single-ended ring oscillators:
What is the optimum number of stages for an inverter (single-ended) ring oscillator for best jitter and phase noise for a given frequency, $f_o$, and power, $P$?

Observations:
1.) The phase noise and jitter in the $1/f^2$ region are not strong functions of $N$.
2.) If the symmetry criteria is not well satisfied and/or the process has a large $1/f$ noise, then a larger $N$ will reduce the jitter.

Result:
The number of stages for an inverter ring oscillator depends on $1/f$ noise, the maximum frequency of oscillation, and the influence of external noise sources such as supply and substrate which may not scale with $N$.

Differential ring oscillators:
Jitter and phase noise will increase with increasing $N$. Therefore, if the $1/f$ noise corner is not large and/or proper symmetry measures have been taken, then the minimum number of stage gives the best results ($N = 3$ or 4).

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**Ring Oscillators with Correlated Noise Sources**

Noise analysis of ring oscillators:
1.) Assume that all noise sources are strongly correlated (i.e. substrate noise and power supply noise).
2.) If all noise sources in the inverters are the same, then

$$\phi(t) = \frac{1}{q_{\text{max}}} \int_{-\infty}^{t} \left[ \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \Gamma \left( \frac{\omega_o \tau + \frac{2\pi n}{N}}{\tau} \right) \right] d\tau$$

However, the term $\left[ \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \Gamma \left( \frac{\omega_o \tau + 2\pi n}{N} \right) \right]$ is zero except at dc and multiplies of $N\omega_o$.

$$\therefore \phi(t) = \frac{N}{q_{\text{max}}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} c(nN) \int_{-\infty}^{t} \int_i(\tau) \cos(nN \omega_o \tau) d\tau$$
Phase Noise of Ring Oscillators – Continued

The previous expression implies that for fully correlated sources, only noise in the vicinity of integer multiples of \( N\omega_o \) affects the phase noise. Therefore, every effort should be made to maximize the correlations of noise arising from the substrate and supply perturbations.

Example of a 5-stage ring oscillator with correlated noise sources:

Phasors for the noise contributions from each source:

Minimizing the Correlated Noise of Ring Oscillators

Methods of minimizing the phase noise in ring oscillators:

1.) Make the stages identical.
2.) The physical orientation of all stages should be the same.
3.) Layout the stages close together.
4.) Interconnect wires between stages should be the same length and shape.
5.) A common supply line should feed all inverter stages.
6.) The loading of each stage should be identical – use dummy stages.
7.) Use the largest number of stages consistent with the oscillator.
8.) If the low frequency portion of the substrate and supply noise dominates, exploit symmetry to minimize \( \Gamma_d \).
SUMMARY

- Phase noise and jitter are key parameters in characterizing the spectral purity of periodic waveforms
- Two important phase noise models are the LTI and LTV models
- To reduce the phase noise in LC oscillators:
  1.) Make the tank $Q$ or resonator $Q$ as large as possible.
  2.) Maximize the signal power.
  3.) Minimize the ISF.
  4.) Force the energy restoring circuit to function when the ISF is at a minimum and to deliver its energy in the shortest possible time.
  5.) The best oscillators will possess symmetry which leads to small $\Gamma_{dc}$ for minimum upconversion of $1/f$ noise.
- To reduce the phase and jitter noise in ring oscillators
  1.) The inverter ring oscillator does not depend strongly upon $N$ so reduction of noise depends more on the noise sources than the number of stages.
  2.) Use differential ring oscillators to minimize substrate and supply noise.
  3.) If the noise sources are correlated, use matching to reduce the noise.