

# Lecture 2: Oscillators

Prof. Mohammed Hawa  
Electrical Engineering Department  
The University of Jordan

EE423: Communication Electronics

## ICs in Modern Phones & Devices

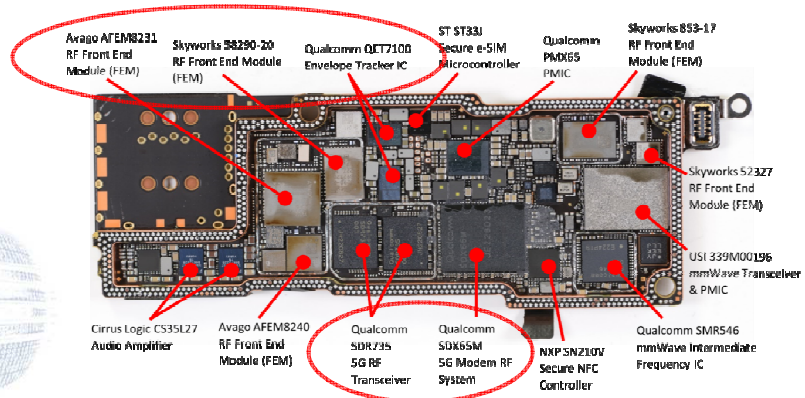
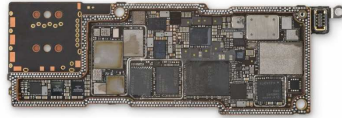


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# High-Density PCB

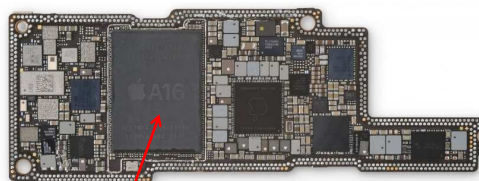


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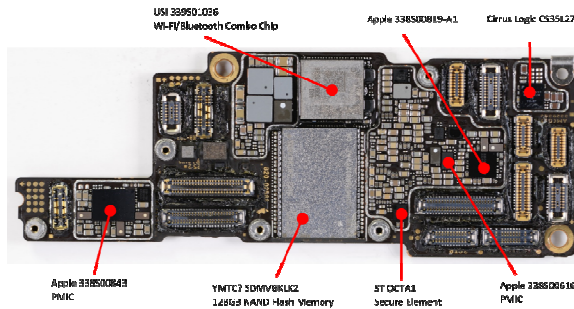
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# Printed Circuit Board (PCB)



Main Processor

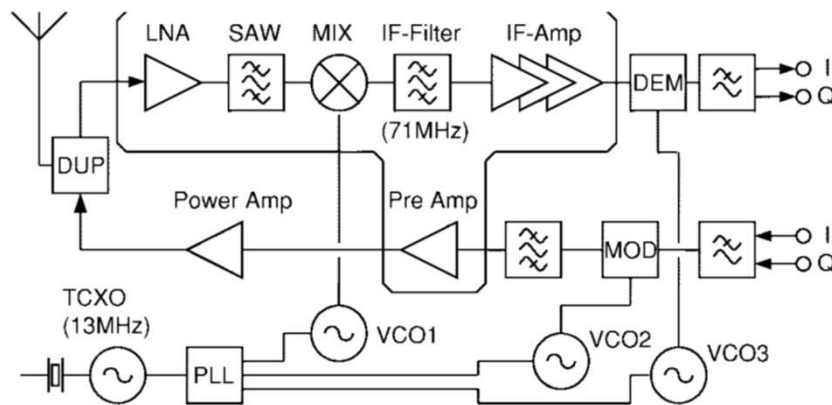


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# RF Solid State Modules



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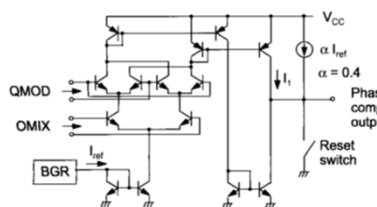


Fig. 8. Phase comparator.

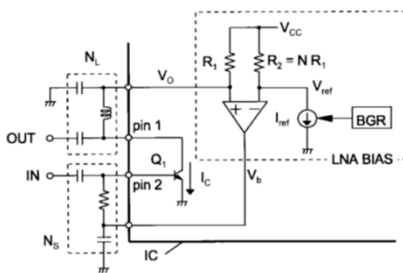


Fig. 9. LNA and active bias.

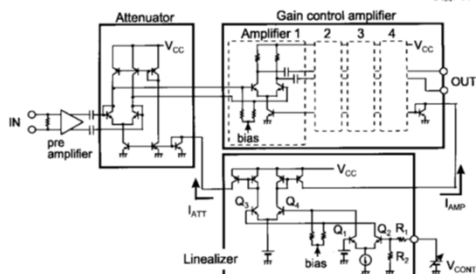
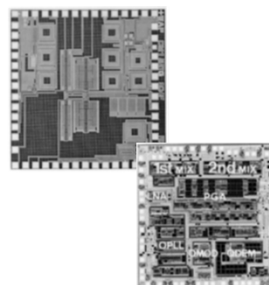


Fig. 10. PGA.



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## Oscillator

- An oscillator generates periodic signal (e.g., sinusoidal signal, square wave, sawtooth, etc).
- No input required (no external excitation), just a DC power supply (for biasing, energy).
- Sometimes oscillators are named based on output signal frequency:
  - *Low-frequency oscillator (LFO)* generate frequencies below 20 Hz, say to feed audio synthesizers.
  - *Audio oscillator* produces frequencies in the audio/music range, 20 Hz to 20 kHz.
  - *Radio Frequency (RF) oscillator* or *Microwave oscillator* produces signals in the range of 100 kHz and higher.



## Oscillator Classification

- **Linear** or **harmonic oscillator**: output is sinusoidal (or almost-sinusoidal) signal.
- Most common type in communication systems (produce carrier).
- Use amplifier (e.g., transistor or operational amplifier) with positive feedback through frequency-selective filter.
- **Nonlinear** or **relaxation oscillator**: output is non-sinusoidal periodic signal, (e.g., square, sawtooth, triangle wave, etc).
- Use energy-storage element (mainly capacitor, rarely inductor) plus a switching device (Latch, Schmitt trigger, etc) connected in feedback loop.
- Switching device charges/ discharges energy-storage element, (e.g., causing capacitor voltage to increase/decrease periodically).
- Square-waves used as digital clocks. Triangle or sawtooth waves are used as sweep signals (oscilloscopes, TV, etc), etc.



## Oscillator Implementations

- Harmonic oscillator implementations:
  - Armstrong oscillator
  - Hartley oscillator
  - Colpitts oscillator\*
  - Clapp oscillator\*
  - Pierce oscillator\*
  - Phase-shift oscillator
  - Wien-Bridge oscillator ... *and many more*
- Relaxation oscillator implementations:
  - Multivibrator (e.g., the popular NE555 timer IC)
  - Ring oscillator
  - Comparator-based oscillator
  - Schmitt trigger oscillator ... *and many more*

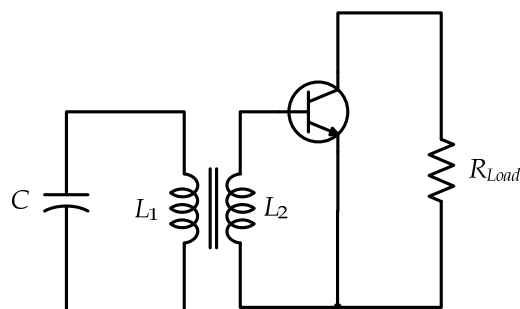


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## Armstrong Oscillator



$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{L_1 C}}$$

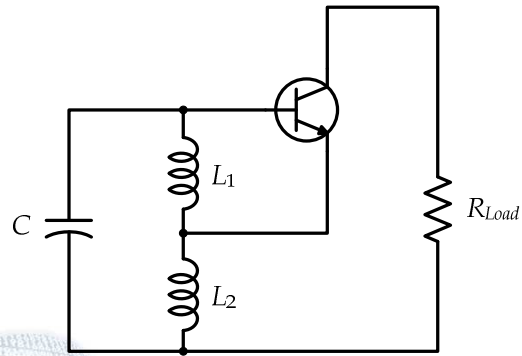


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## Hartley Oscillator



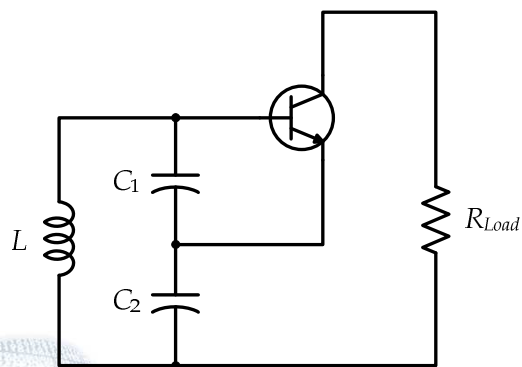
$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{(L_1 + L_2) C}}$$

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## Colpitts Oscillator



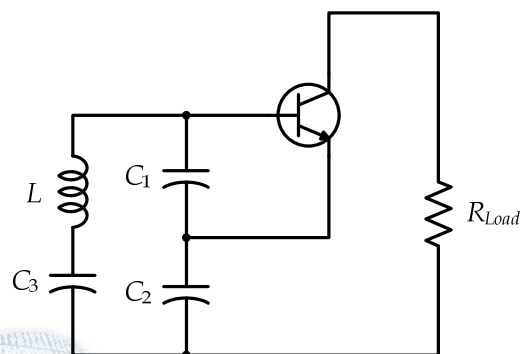
$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{L\left(\frac{C_1 C_2}{C_1 + C_2}\right)}}$$

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## Clapp Oscillator



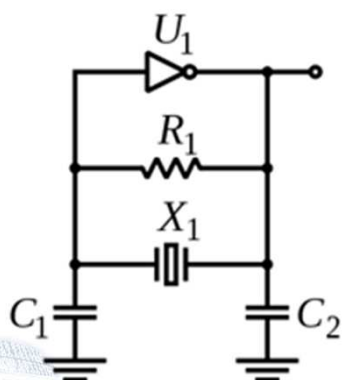
$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{L} \left( \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_3} \right)}$$

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## Pierce Oscillator



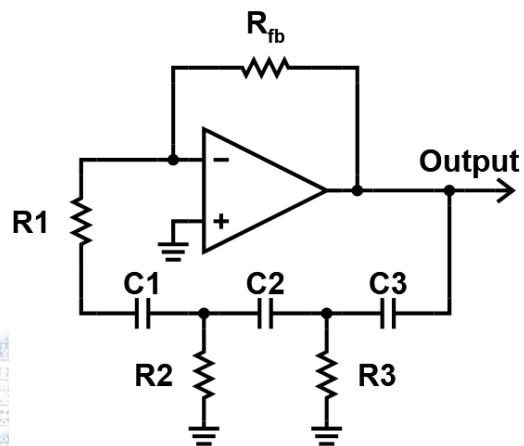
$$f_{res} = \text{Crystal Frequency}$$

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## Phase-Shift Oscillator



$$R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R$$

$$C_1 = C_2 = C_3 = C$$

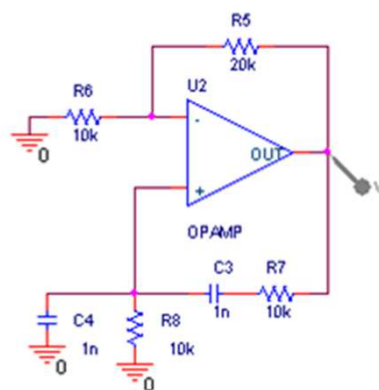
$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi RC\sqrt{6}}$$

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## Wien-Bridge Oscillator



$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi R_7 C_3} = \frac{1}{2\pi R_8 C_4}$$

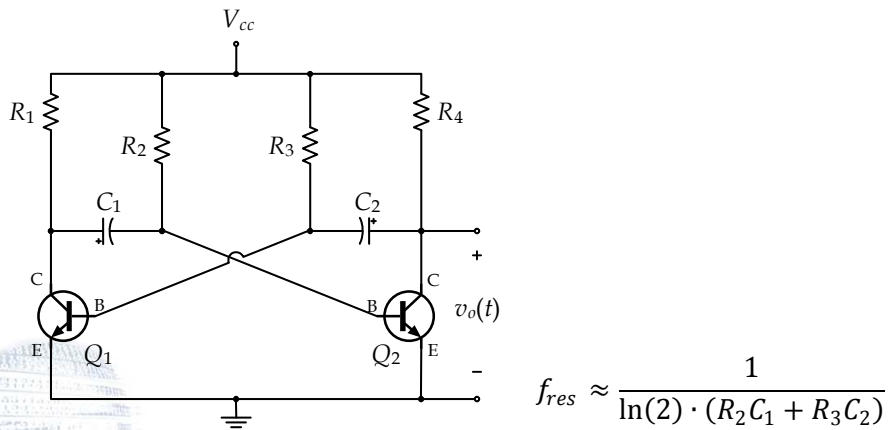
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## Astable Multivibrator

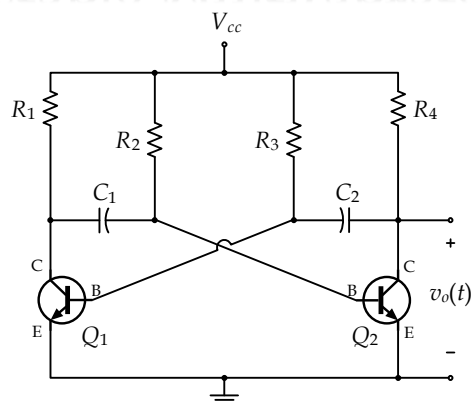


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## Astable Multivibrator



Capacitors repeatedly charge (output voltage increases to  $\approx V_{cc}$ ) then discharge (output voltage drops to  $\approx 0.2 V$ ), resulting in periodic signal at  $v_o(t)$ .

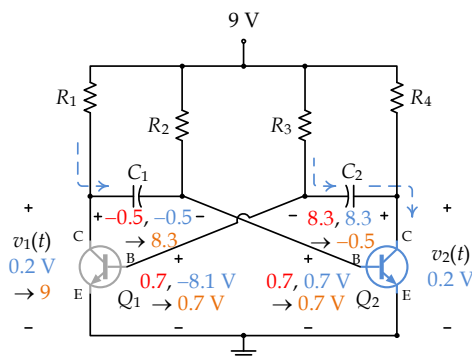
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## Q2 ON & Q1 OFF

- Q2 just turned ON because its  $V_{be}$  just built up to 0.7 V.
- Earlier C2 charged to 8.3 V (depending on how long it was charging through R4).
- Q1 now has  $V_{be} = -8.3 + 0.2 = -8.1$  V, so Q1 switches OFF.
- Q1 is now open circuit,  $I_c = 0$ .
- C1 charges through R1 (small), so its voltage builds to 8.3 V.
- C2 right plate is connected to  $V_{ce(sat)} \approx 0.2$  V, hence C2 discharges through Q2, or we can say C2 charges slowly through R3 (big) to  $-0.5$  V.
- Throughput  $v_2(t) \approx 0.2$  V.



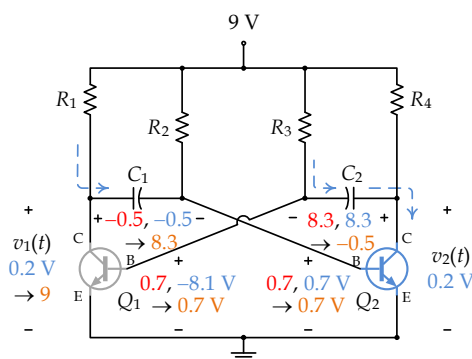
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## Q2 ON & Q1 OFF

- Notice  $v_1(t)$  increases (relatively fast) from 0.2 V to about 9 V (not immediate, but fast enough).
- $V_{be}$  for Q1 builds up slowly from  $-8.1$  V to  $V_{be} = -(-0.5) + 0.2 = 0.7$  V
- Once 0.7 V is reached, Q1 switches ON.



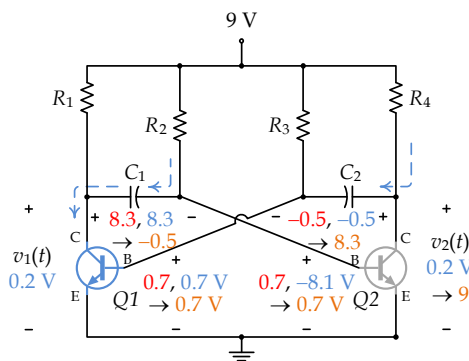
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# Q1 ON & Q2 OFF

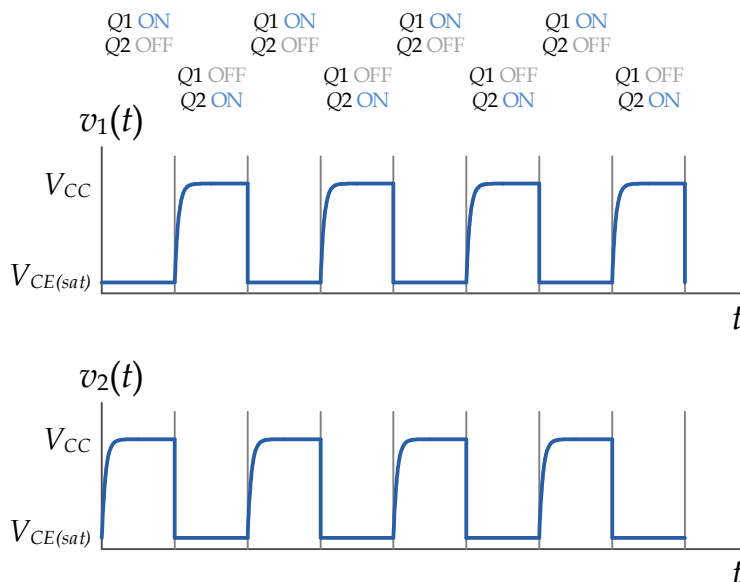
- Q1 just turned ON.
- Earlier C1 charged to 8.3 V.
- Q2 now has  $V_{be} = -8.3 + 0.2 = -8.1$  V, so Q2 switches OFF.
- Q2 is now open circuit,  $I_c = 0$ .
- C2 charges through R4 (small), so its voltage builds to 8.3 V.
- C1 right plate is connected to  $V_{ce(sat)} \approx 0.2$  V, hence C1 discharges through Q1, or we can say C1 charges slowly through R2 (big) to  $-0.5$  V.
- Throughput  $v_1(t) \approx 0.2$  V, but  $v_2(t)$  increases from 0.2 V to about 9 V.



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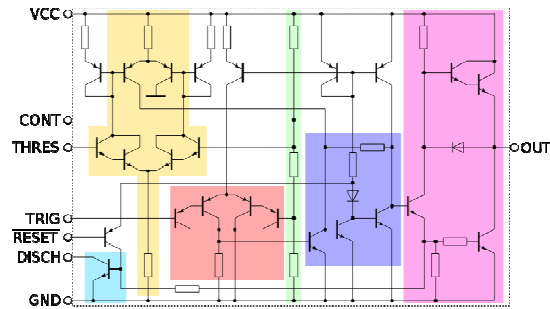
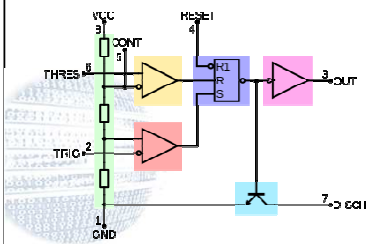
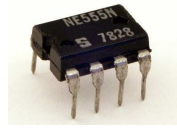
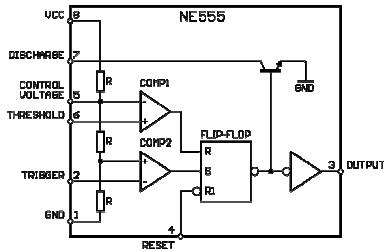


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# Multivibrator (NE555)

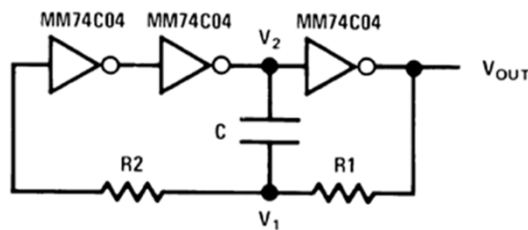


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# Ring Oscillator



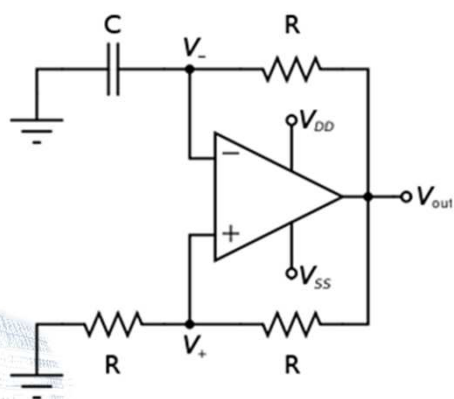
$$f \approx \frac{1}{2 R_1 C \left( \frac{0.405 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} + 0.693 \right)}$$

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## Comparator-based Oscillator



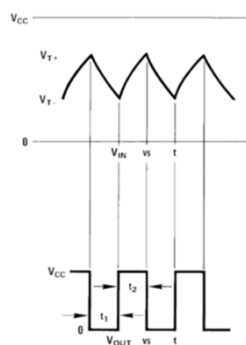
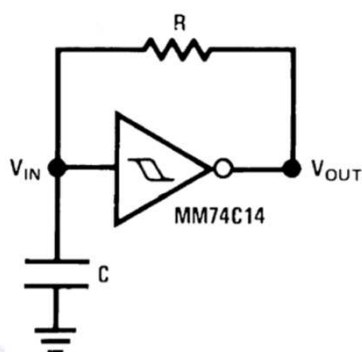
$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2 \ln(3) RC}$$

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## Schmitt Trigger Oscillator



$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{RC \ln \left[ \left( \frac{V_{cc} - V_{T-}}{V_{cc} - V_{T+}} \right) \left( \frac{V_{T+}}{V_{T-}} \right) \right]} \approx \frac{1}{1.7 RC}$$

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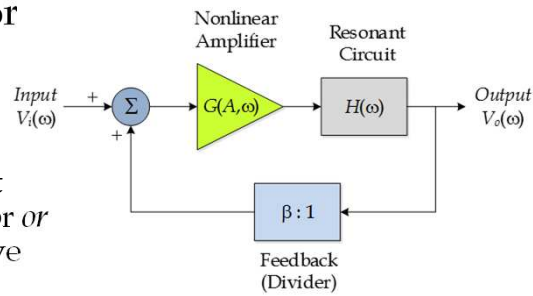
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# Building Harmonic Oscillator

- A typical oscillator consists of three components:

- Amplifier
- LC tank (resonant circuit *or* resonator *or* frequency-selective filter)
- Positive feedback

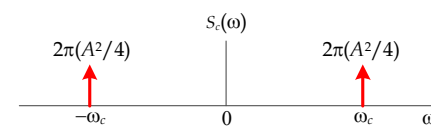
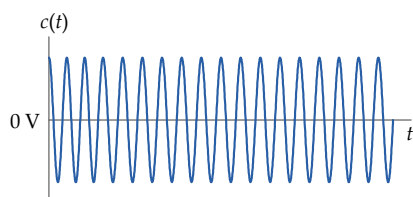
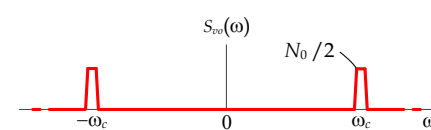
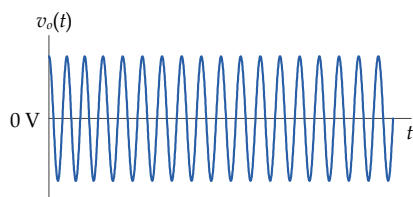
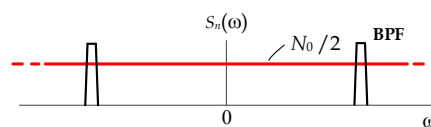
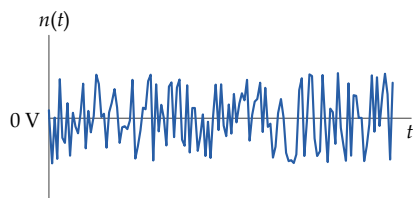


- The frequency of the oscillator is controlled by the LC tank (resonant circuit).

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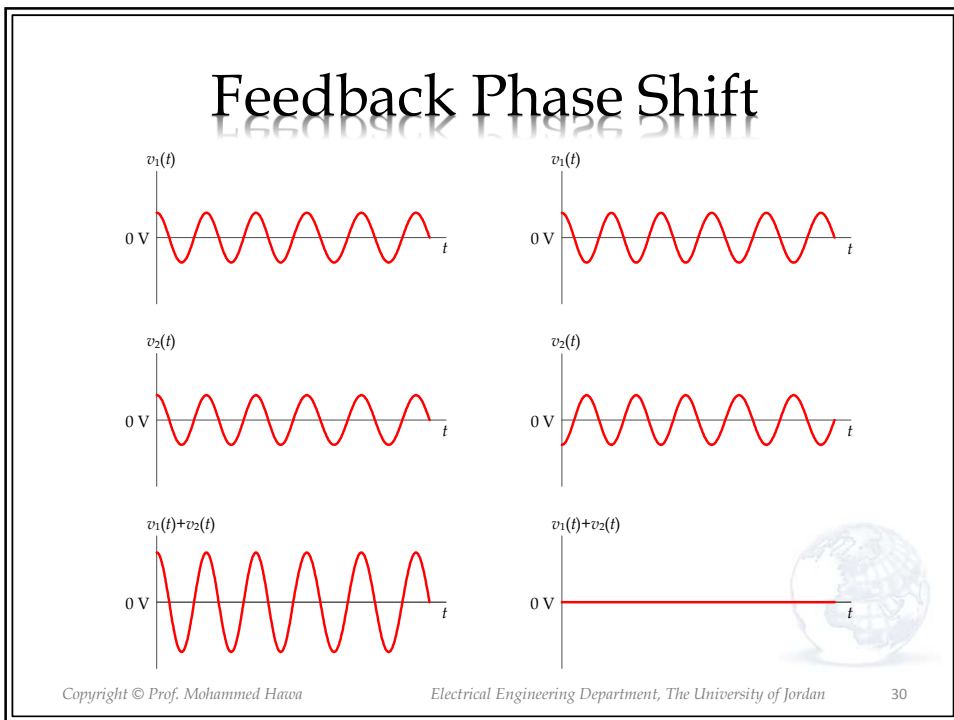
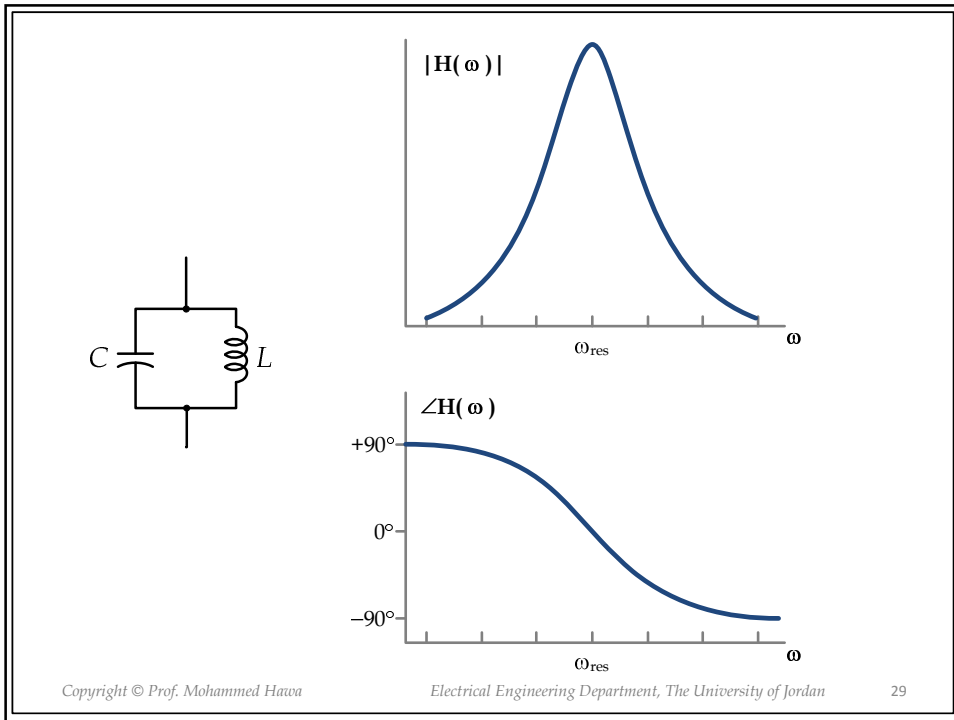
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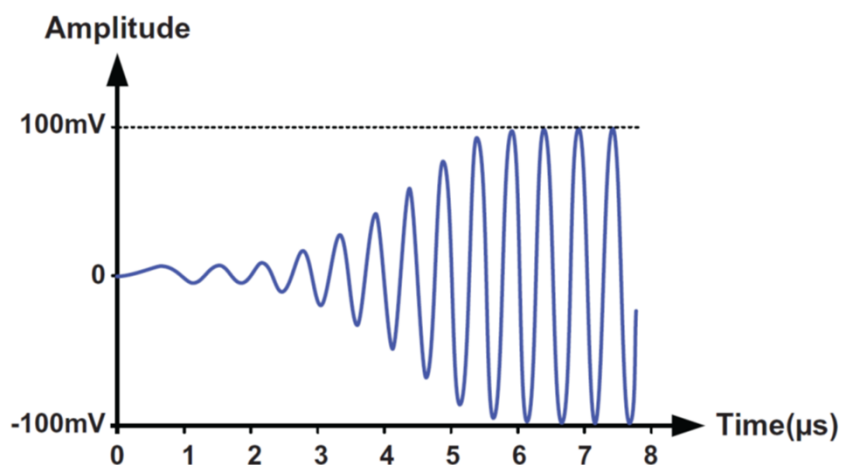
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## Oscillation Build Up: *Transient*

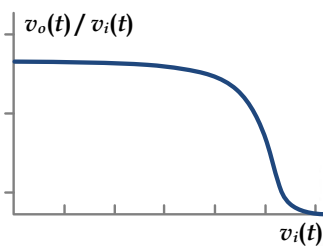
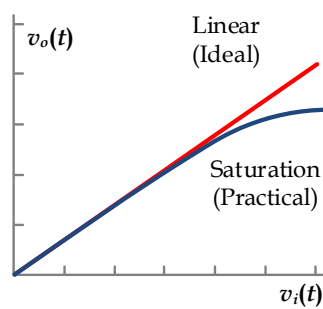


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## Non-linear Amplifier



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## Available Active Elements

- **Triode or Vacuum Tube or Thermionic Valve**
- Frequency  $\sim 4$  GHz
- Old hardware



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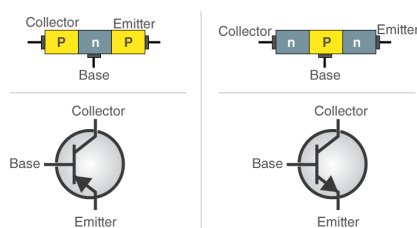
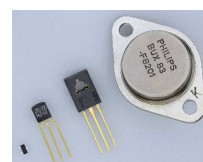


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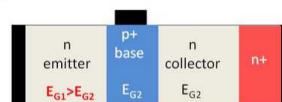
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## Transistors

- **Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)**
- Frequency  $\sim 20$  GHz
- **Heterojunction Bipolar Transistor (HBT)**
- HBT is BJT that uses differing semiconductor materials for emitter and base to build a heterojunction
- Frequency  $\sim 100$  GHz



Wide gap Emitter HBT



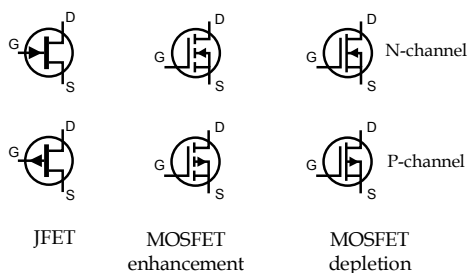
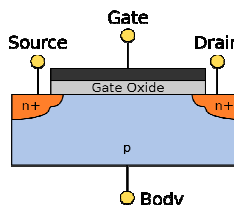
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# Field-Effect Transistor (FET)

- **Junction-gate FET (JFET)**
- **Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor FET (MOSFET)**
- Frequency ~30 GHz
- **Metal-Epitaxy-Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistor (MESFET)**
- Similar to JFET but with Schottky (metal-semiconductor) junction instead of p-n junction for gate.
- Frequency ~50 GHz



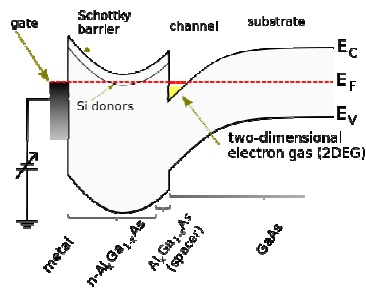
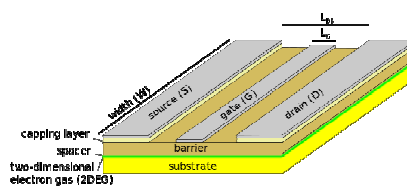
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# Transistors

- **High-Electron-Mobility Transistor (HEMT)**
- Similar to FET incorporating a junction between two materials with different band gaps (i.e. a heterojunction)
- Frequency ~600 GHz



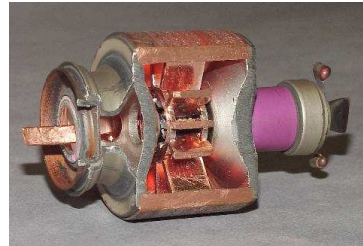
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## Cavity Magnetron

- **Cavity magnetron** is high-power vacuum tube used in microwave ovens and in linear particle accelerators.
- Generates microwaves using the interaction of a stream of electrons with a magnetic field, while moving past a series of cavity resonators (small, open cavities in a metal block).
- Frequency  $\sim 100$  GHz



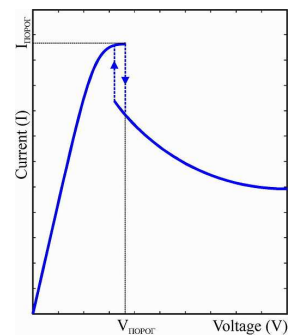
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## Gunn Diode

- **Gunn diode** consists of heavily N-doped on each terminal, with thin layer of lightly N-doped material between them.
- Based on "Gunn effect" and provides negative resistance when biased properly.
- Used for oscillators in radar speed guns, microwave relay data link transmitters, etc.
- Frequency  $\sim 200$  GHz.



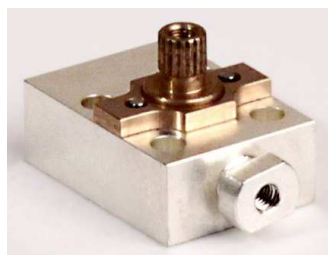
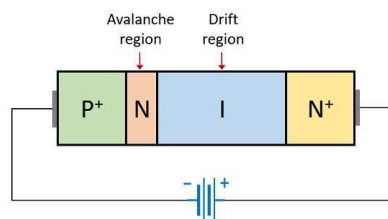
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## IMPATT Diode

- **IMPATT** (Impact Ionization Avalanche Transit-Time) diode is high-power semiconductor diode.
- Provides negative resistance for oscillators at microwave frequencies.
- Frequency  $\sim 350$  GHz

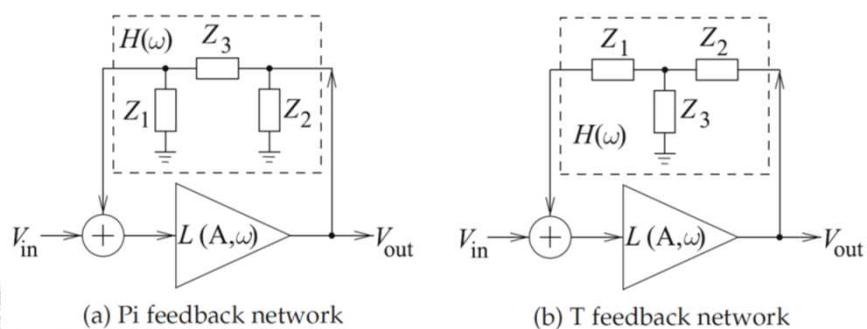


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## Pi-type or T-type Feedback Circuits



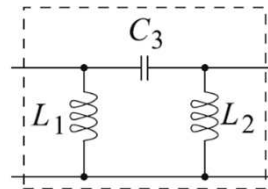
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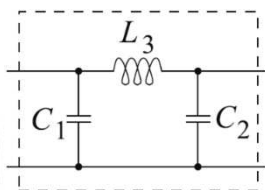
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## Main Pi-type Networks

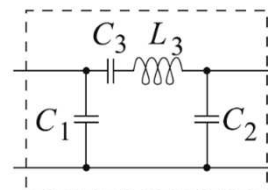
- Main Pi-type networks that are well-suited to amplitude saturation characteristics of FET and BJT active devices, resulting in stable oscillation.



(c) Hartley



(d) Colpitts



(e) Clapp

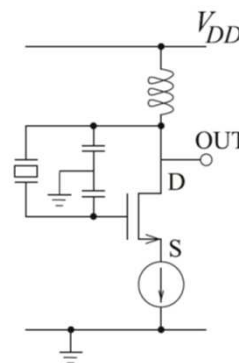
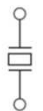
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## FET Crystal Oscillator

- FET crystal oscillator as a Clapp oscillator
- Piezoelectric crystal equivalent circuit is series RLC.

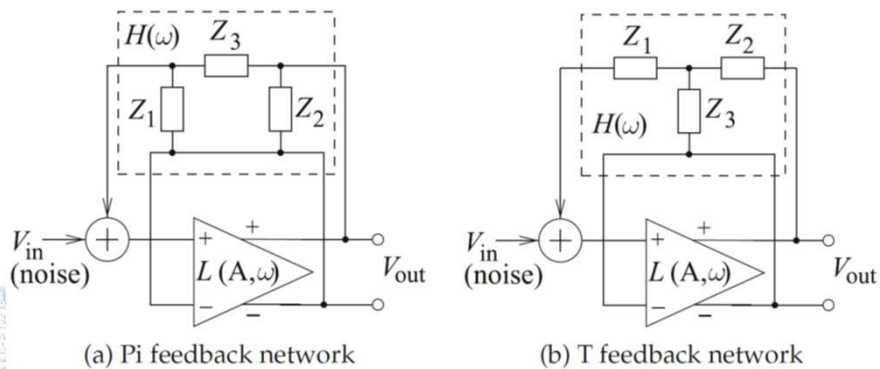


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## Feedback for Differential Amplifier

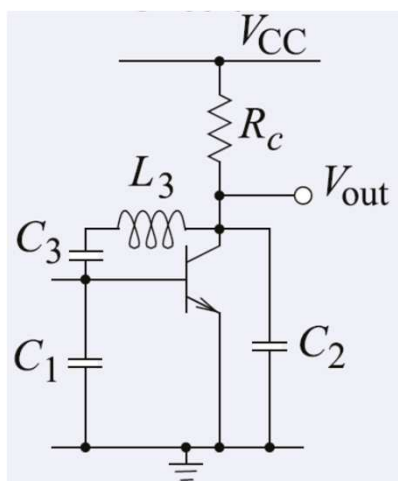
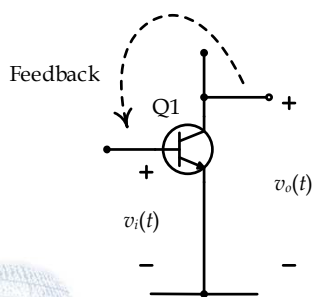


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## Common-Emitter BJT Clapp



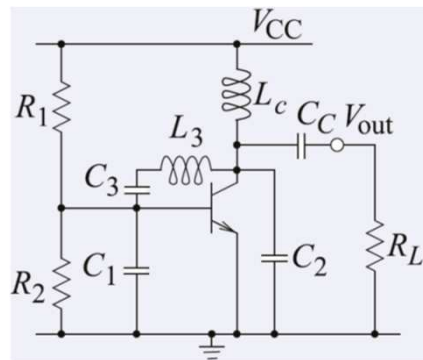
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## BJT Clapp Oscillator

- Parasitic base-emitter capacitance can be absorbed into  $C_1$ .
- Parasitic collector-emitter capacitance can be absorbed into  $C_2$ .
- Parasitic collector-base capacitance cannot be absorbed (so extra care that  $C_{cb}$  does not result in instability).

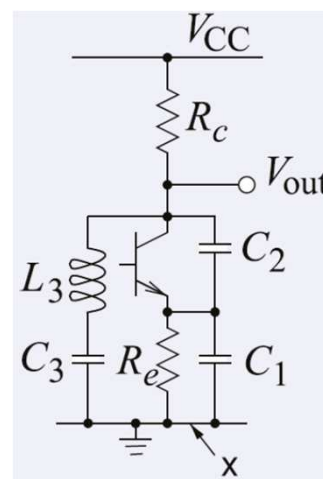
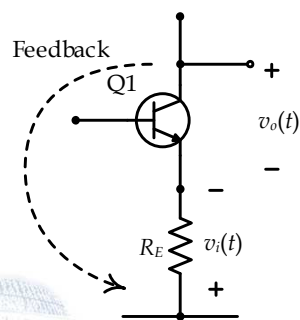


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## Clapp Other Configuration



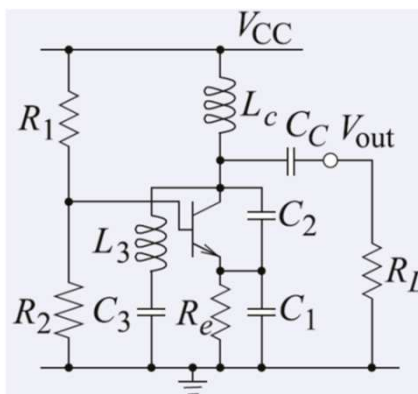
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## Clapp Oscillator

- Avoid delivering power to  $R_c$  and only deliver it to load  $R_L$  using a choke inductor  $L_c$  (energy storage, not consumption)
- Choke is small resistance (almost short circuit) in DC, so applies bias.
- Choke is large resistance (open circuit at RF), directs voltage to  $R_L$  and allows large output voltage swing.
- $C_c$  is large coupling capacitor blocks DC, but has small impedance at RF.

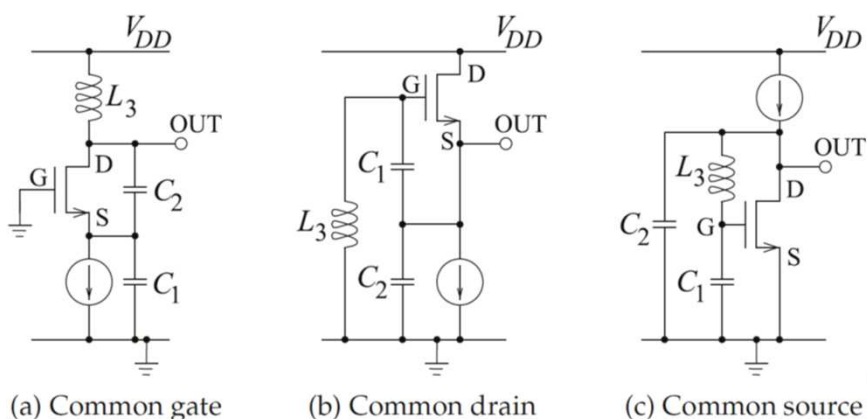


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## Colpitts FET Oscillators



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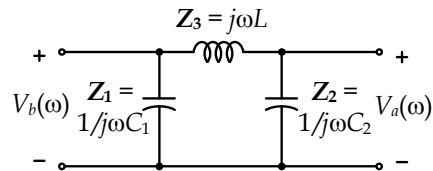
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## Colpitts Resonant Frequency

- Assume amplifier input impedance is high (open circuit).
- Assume amplifier output impedance and load are also high (open circuit).
- Apply nodal analysis.



$$\frac{V_b(\omega)}{Z_1(\omega)} + \frac{V_b(\omega) - V_a(\omega)}{Z_3(\omega)} = 0$$

$$\frac{V_a(\omega)}{Z_2(\omega)} + \frac{V_a(\omega) - V_b(\omega)}{Z_3(\omega)} = 0$$

$$\frac{V_b(\omega)}{Z_1(\omega)} + \frac{V_b(\omega) - V_a(\omega)}{Z_3(\omega)} = 0$$

$$\frac{V_a(\omega)}{Z_2(\omega)} + \frac{V_a(\omega) - V_b(\omega)}{Z_3(\omega)} = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \left(\frac{1}{Z_1} + \frac{1}{Z_3}\right) & -\frac{1}{Z_3} \\ -\frac{1}{Z_3} & \left(\frac{1}{Z_2} + \frac{1}{Z_3}\right) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_b \\ V_a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det = \left(\frac{1}{Z_1} + \frac{1}{Z_3}\right) \left(\frac{1}{Z_2} + \frac{1}{Z_3}\right) - \frac{1}{Z_3} \frac{1}{Z_3}$$

## Solution

A valid solution is possible if *determinant* of matrix is 0

$$\left(\frac{1}{Z_1} + \frac{1}{Z_3}\right)\left(\frac{1}{Z_2} + \frac{1}{Z_3}\right) - \frac{1}{Z_3} \frac{1}{Z_3} = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{Z_1 Z_2} + \frac{1}{Z_1 Z_3} + \frac{1}{Z_2 Z_3} + \frac{1}{Z_3^2} - \frac{1}{Z_3^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{Z_1 Z_2} + \frac{1}{Z_1 Z_3} + \frac{1}{Z_2 Z_3} = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{j\omega C_1} \times \frac{1}{j\omega C_2} + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1} j\omega L + \frac{1}{j\omega C_2} j\omega L = 0$$



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## Resonant Frequency

$$\frac{1}{j\omega C_1} \times \frac{1}{j\omega C_2} + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1} j\omega L + \frac{1}{j\omega C_2} j\omega L = 0$$

$$-\omega^2 C_1 C_2 + \frac{C_1}{L} + \frac{C_2}{L} = 0$$

$$\omega^2 C_1 C_2 = \frac{C_1 + C_2}{L}$$

$$\omega_{res} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{L} \left( \frac{C_1 + C_2}{C_1 C_2} \right)}$$



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# Oscillator Design & Analysis

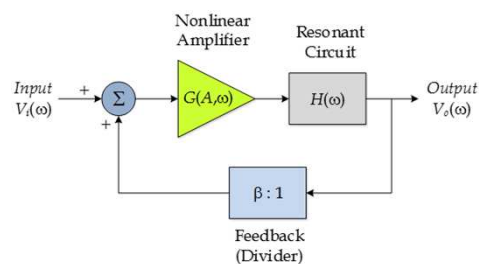
- **Approach #1: Positive Feedback**
  - Main theory in textbooks and references.
  - Uses circuit analysis and control theory.
  - View oscillator as two-port amplifier (active element) with positive feedback through a linear frequency-selective filter.
- **Approach #2: Negative Resistance/Conductance**
  - Used by several microwave oscillator designers.
  - Sometimes named reflection oscillator configuration.
  - View oscillator as two circuits: one-port (two terminal) negative resistance (or conductance) device (i.e., active device) connected to a one-port resonator network (i.e., tank circuit).

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## Approach #1: Positive Feedback



$$V_o(\omega) = G(A, \omega)H(\omega)V_i(\omega) + G(A, \omega)H(\omega)V_o(\omega)\beta$$

$$V_o(\omega)(1 - G(A, \omega)H(\omega)\beta) = G(A, \omega)H(\omega)V_i(\omega)$$

$$V_o(\omega) = \frac{G(A, \omega)H(\omega)}{1 - G(A, \omega)H(\omega)\beta} V_i(\omega)$$

$$\frac{V_o(\omega)}{V_i(\omega)} = \frac{G(A, \omega)H(\omega)}{1 - \beta G(A, \omega)H(\omega)} = \frac{G(A)H(\omega)}{1 - \beta G(A)H(\omega)}$$

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## Oscillation Criterion

- Amplifier transfer function depends on input amplitude  $A$ , with value greater than 1.
- Transfer characteristics of filter depend on frequency  $\omega$ .
- Input noise (very small  $\approx 0$ ) exists when supply is powered ON.
- Oscillations build up when

$$\beta G(A)H(\omega) = 1$$

- Known as **Barkhausen criterion**.
- Oscillations build up at resonant frequency  $f_{res}$  of LC tank.
- As oscillation amplitude builds,  $G(A)$  compresses until denominator is finite but close to zero (oscillations stabilize).

## Note

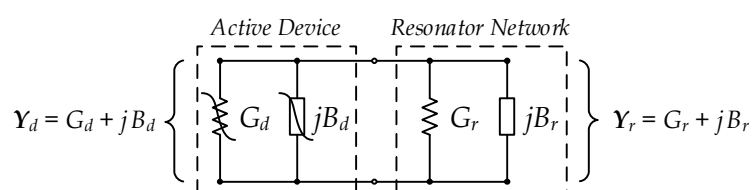
- Barkhausen criterion is a necessary criterion for oscillation, but not sufficient. It does not indicate whether a system is unstable.
- Nyquist criterion is the necessary and sufficient criterion for oscillation in feedback oscillators.
- **Stable oscillation** require careful design. Unstable oscillator generates chaotic signal (rapid amplitude & frequency variations).

## Design Considerations

- **Stability:** changes of frequency with changes in temperature or changes in component values (tolerances)
- **Signal purity:** avoid extra harmonics (i.e., distortion).
- **Power consumption:** affects battery life for phones or portable devices.
- **Phase noise** produced by the oscillator: undesirable to amplify noise.
- Theory based on two-port with feedback helps in the above design calculations.



## Approach #2: Negative Conductance



- Active device  $d$  assumed to be negative admittance  $Y_d$  (generates power).
- Resonator network  $r$  is in parallel (shunt) with device, its admittance is positive  $Y_r$  (consumes power).
- Conductance  $G$  is counterpart of Resistance  $R$  (S or  $\Omega$ )
- Susceptance  $B$  is counterpart of Reactance  $X$  (S or  $\Omega$ )
- Impedance  $Z = R + jX = 1/Y = 1/(G + jB)$

## Kurokawa Condition

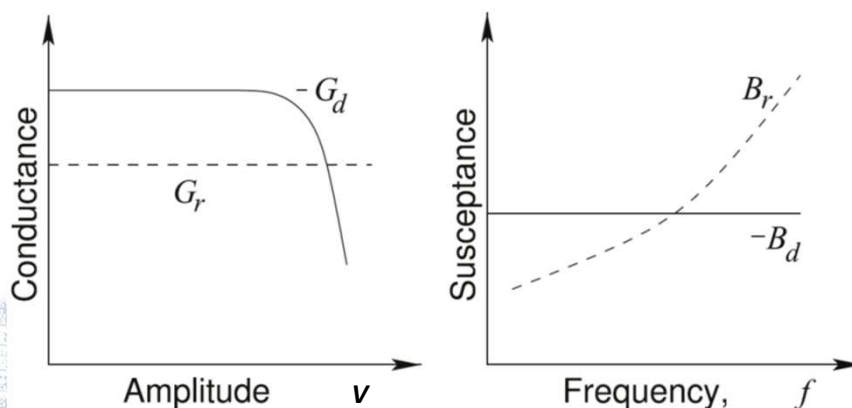
- Kurokawa condition for stable (single-frequency) oscillation requires

$$\left( \frac{\partial G_d}{\partial V} \frac{\partial B_r}{\partial \omega} - \frac{\partial B_d}{\partial V} \frac{\partial G_r}{\partial \omega} \right) \Big|_{V=V_0, \omega=\omega_0} > 0$$

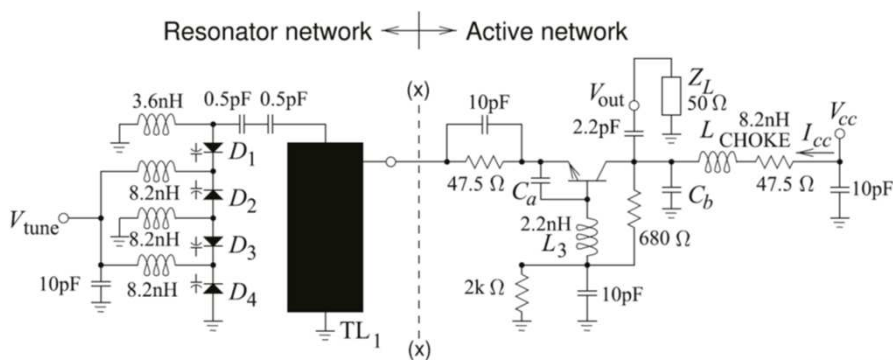
- $V_0$  is oscillation amplitude at the interface of active and resonator networks,  $\omega_0$  is oscillation frequency.
- For fixed-frequency oscillator, resonator network is linear so  $G_r$  and  $B_r$  are independent of amplitude.
- $G_r$  can be designed to be independent of frequency. However,  $B_r$  varies with frequency.
- With careful design, active device  $G_d$  can be frequency independent and  $B_d$  can be amplitude independent.
- This gives  $\left( \frac{\partial G_d}{\partial V} \frac{\partial B_r}{\partial \omega} \right) \Big|_{V=V_0, \omega=\omega_0} > 0$



## Example



# Microwave C-band VCO (4.5 to 5.3 GHz) with TL

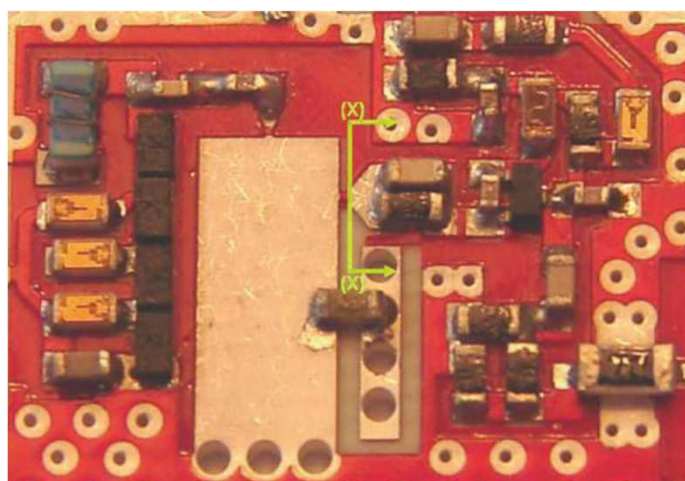


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# PCB Implementation

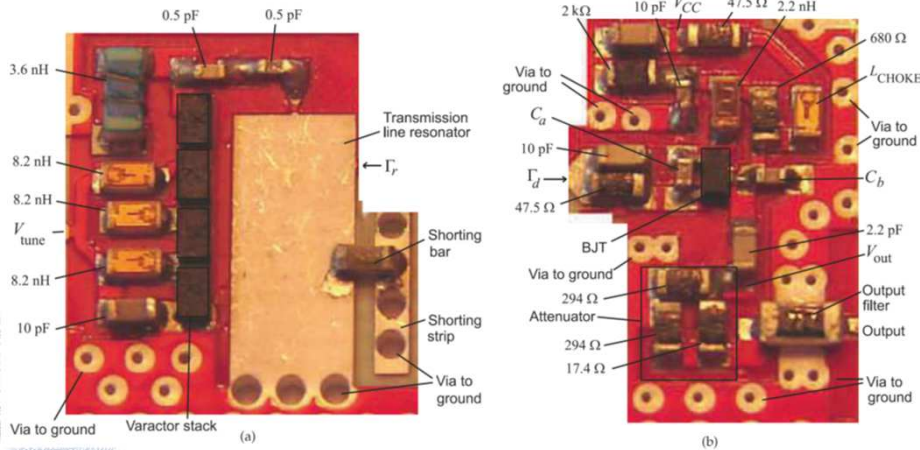
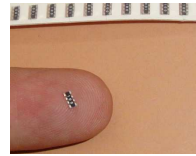


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# Resonator / Active Device



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