

Timing and Synchronization - I

BEAM INSTRUMENTATION
2-15 June 2018, Tuusula, Finland

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Lecture I&II Outline

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- **MOTIVATIONS** Lecture I
 - ✓ Why accelerators need synchronization, and at what precision level
- **DEFINITIONS AND BASICS**
 - ✓ Glossary: Synchronization, Master Oscillator, Drift vs. Jitter
 - ✓ Fourier and Laplace Transforms, Random processes, Phase noise in Oscillators
 - ✓ Phase detectors, Phase Locked Loops, Precision phase noise measurements
 - ✓ Electro-optical and fully optical phase detection Lecture II

- **SYNCHRONIZATION ARCHITECTURE AND PERFORMANCES**
 - ✓ Phase lock of synchronization clients (RF systems, Lasers, Diagnostics, ...)
 - ✓ Residual absolute and relative phase jitter
 - ✓ Reference distribution – actively stabilized links
- **BEAM ARRIVAL TIME FLUCTUATIONS**
 - ✓ Bunch arrival time measurement techniques
 - ✓ Expected bunch arrival time downstream magnetic compressors (an example)
 - ✓ Beam synchronization – general case

CONCLUSIONS AND REFERENCES

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GENERAL DEFINITION



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Every accelerator is built to produce some *specific physical process*.

One **necessary condition** for an efficient and stable machine operation is that **some events have to happen at the same time** (simultaneously for an observer in the laboratory frame) or in a **rigidly defined temporal sequence**, within a maximum allowed time error budget.

If the **simultaneity** or the time separation **of the events fluctuates** beyond the specifications, **the performances of the machine are spoiled**, and the quantity and quality of the accelerator products are compromised.

Clearly, the tolerances on the time fluctuations are different for different kind of accelerators. The **smaller the tolerances**, the **tighter the level of synchronization required**. In the last 2 decades a new generation of accelerator projects such as FEL radiation sources or plasma wave based boosters **has pushed the level of the synchronization specifications down to the fs scale**.

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synchronization of FLAT BEAM COLLIDERS



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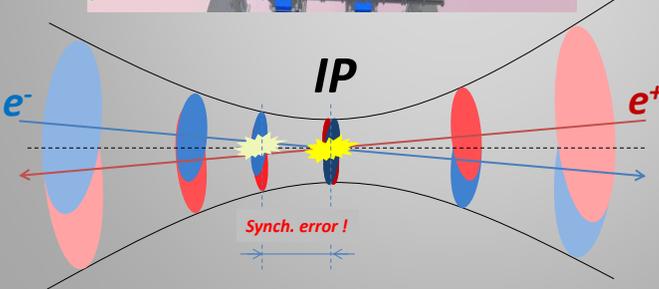
The Frascati ϕ -factory DAΦNE

Bunches of the 2 colliding beams need to **arrive** at the **Interaction Point** (max vertical focalization) at the same time.

Waist length $\approx \beta_y \approx \sigma_z$
(hourglass effect)

Synchronization requirement:

$$\Delta t \ll \sigma_{t \text{ bunch}} = \frac{1}{c} \cdot \sigma_z \text{ bunch}$$



CIRCULAR COLLIDERS:

$\sigma_z \approx 1 \text{ cm} \rightarrow \Delta t < 10 \text{ ps}$

LINEAR COLLIDER (ILC):

$\sigma_z < 1 \text{ mm} \rightarrow \Delta t < 1 \text{ ps}$

RF Stability spec

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synchronization of
SASE FELs



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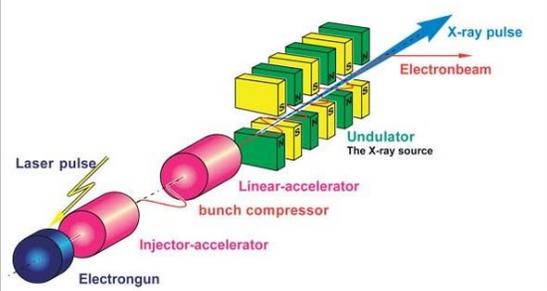
SPARC Test Facility
INFN Frascati Labs

Free Electro Laser machines had a crucial role in pushing the accelerator synchronization requirements and techniques to a new frontier in the last ≈15 years. The simplest FEL regime, the **SASE (Self-Amplified Spontaneous Emission)**, requires high-brightness bunches, being:

$$B \div \frac{I_{\text{bunch}}}{\epsilon_{\perp}}$$

Large peak currents I_{bunch} are typically obtained by **short laser pulses** illuminating a **photo-cathode** embedded in an RF Gun accelerating structure, and furtherly increased with **bunch compression** techniques.

Small transverse emittances ϵ_{\perp} can be obtained with **tight control** of the global machine WP, including amplitude and phase of the RF fields, magnetic focusing, laser arrival time, ...



Global Synchronization requirements: < 500 fs rms

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synchronization of
Seeded FELs

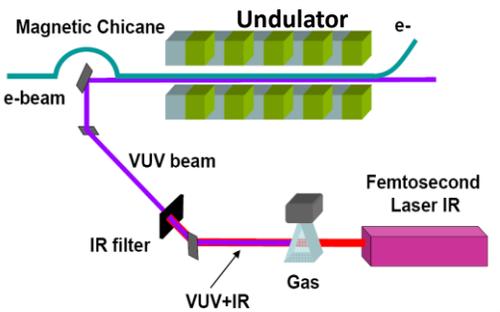


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In a simple SASE configuration the **micro-bunching process**, which is the base of the FEL radiation production, starts from **noise**. Characteristics such as radiation intensity and envelope profile can vary considerably from shot to shot.

A better control of the radiation properties resulting in more **uniform** and **reproducible** shot to shot pulse characteristics can be achieved in the **“seeded”** FEL configuration.

To “trigger” and guide the avalanche process generating the exponentially-growing radiation intensity, the **high brightness bunch** is made to interact with a **VUV** short and intense **pulse** obtained by HHG (High Harmonic Generation) in gas driven by an IR pulse generated by a dedicated high power laser system (typically TiSa). The presence of the external radiation since the beginning of the micro-bunching process inside the magnetic undulators seeds and drives the FEL radiation growth in a steady, repeatable configuration. The **electron bunch** and the **VUV pulse**, both **very short**, must constantly **overlap** in **space** and **time** shot to shot.



Synchronization requirements (e- bunch vs TiSa IR pulse): < 100 fs rms

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synchronization of
Pump-probe with FELs



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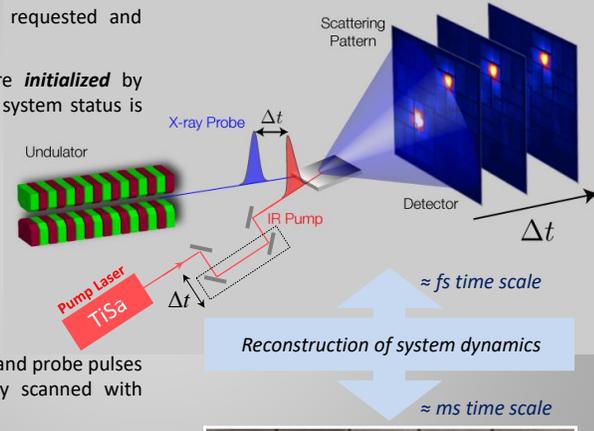
Pump-probe technique is widely requested and applied by user experimentalists.

Physical / chemical processes are **initialized** by ultra-short **laser pulses**, then the system status is **probed** by **FEL radiation**.

The dynamics of the process under study is captured and stored in a “snapshots” record.

Pump laser and FEL pulses need to be **synchronized** at level of the **time-resolution** required by the experiments (down to ≈ 10 fs).

The relative delay between pump and probe pulses needs to be finely and precisely scanned with proper time-resolution.



\approx fs time scale

Reconstruction of system dynamics

\approx ms time scale



Detail from Muybridge's Jumping, running broad jump (1887)

Synchronization requirements (FEL vs Pump Laser pulses):
 ≈ 10 fs rms

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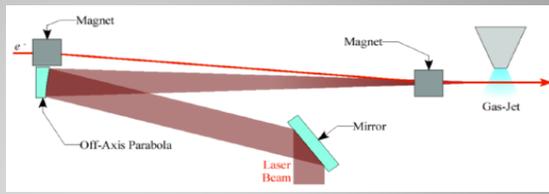
synchronization of
WLPA of injected bunches

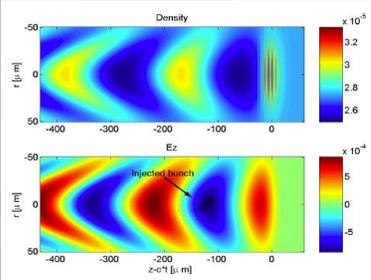


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Plasma acceleration is the new frontier in accelerator physics, to overcome the gradient limits of the RF technology in the way to compact, high energy machines.

Wakefield Laser-Plasma Acceleration (WLPA) is a technique using an extremely intense laser pulse on a gas jet to generate a plasma wave with large accelerating gradients (many GV/m).





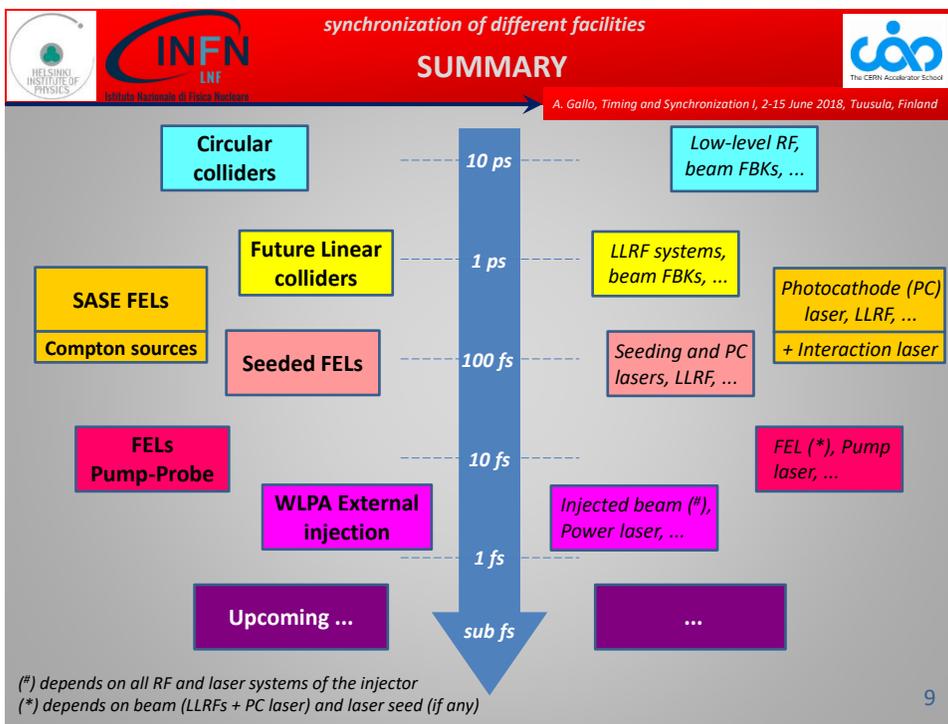
To produce good quality beams external bunches have to be injected in the plasma wave. The “accelerating buckets” in the plasma wave are typically few 100 μm long.

The injected bunches have to be very short to limit the energy spread after acceleration, and ideally need to be injected constantly in the same position of the plasma wave to avoid shot-to-shot energy fluctuations.

This requires synchronization at the level of a small fraction of the plasma wave period.

Synchronization requirements (external bunch vs laser pulse):
 < 10 fs rms

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SECTION I

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BASICS

Glossary:

- ***Synchronization***
- ***Master Oscillator***
- ***Drift vs. Jitter***



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GLOSSARY:
SYNCHRONIZATION

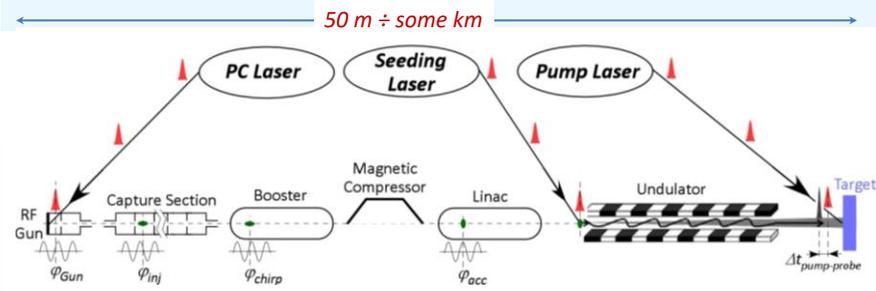


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Every accelerator is built to produce some **specific physical processes** (shots of bullet particles, nuclear and sub-nuclear reactions, synchrotron radiation, FEL radiation, Compton photons, ...).

It turns out that a **necessary condition** for an efficient and reproducible event production is the **relative temporal alignment** of **all the accelerator sub-systems** impacting the beam longitudinal phase-space and time-of-arrival (such as RF fields, PC laser system, ...), and of the **beam bunches** with **any other system they have to interact with** during and after the acceleration (such as RF fields, seeding lasers, pump lasers, interaction lasers, ...).

The **synchronization system** is the complex including all the **hardware**, the **feedback processes** and the **control algorithms** required to keep **time-aligned** the **beam bunches** and **all the machine critical sub-systems** within the facility specifications.



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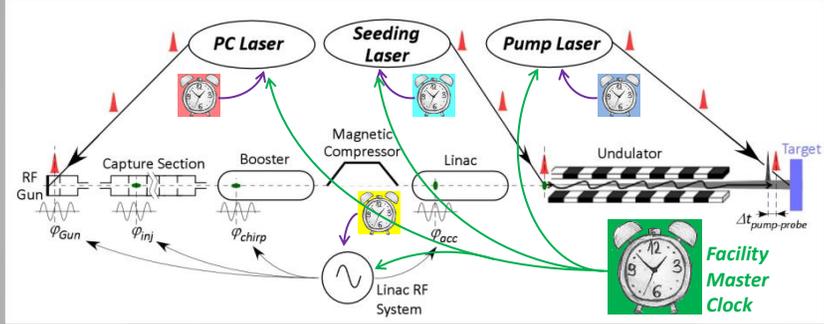
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GLOSSARY:
MASTER OSCILLATOR



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Naive approach: can each sub-system be synchronized to a local high-stability clock to have a good global synchronization of the whole facility ?



Best optical clocks $\rightarrow \Delta\omega/\omega \approx 10^{-18} \rightarrow \Delta T/T \approx 10^{-18} \rightarrow T \approx 10 \text{ fs}/10^{-18} \approx \mathbf{3 \text{ hours !!!}}$

It is impossible to preserve a tight phase relation over long time scales even with the state-of-the-art technology.

All sub-systems need to be **continuously re-synchronized** by a **common master clock** that has to be distributed to the all "clients" spread over the facility with a **"star"** network architecture.

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GLOSSARY:
MASTER OSCILLATOR

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Once the local oscillators have been locked to the reference, they can be shifted in time by means of delay lines of various types – translation stages with mirrors for lasers, trombone-lines or electrical phase shifters for RF signals. This allows setting, correcting, optimizing and changing the working point of the facility synchronization.

Delay lines can be placed either downstream the oscillators or on the reference signal on its path to the client oscillator. The function accomplished is exactly the same.

For simplicity, in most of the following sketches the presence of the delay lines will be omitted.

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GLOSSARY:
MASTER OSCILLATOR

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The **Master Oscillator** of a facility based on particle accelerators is typically a **good(*)**, **low phase noise** μ -wave generator acting as timing reference for the machine sub-systems. It is often indicated as the **RMO (RF Master Oscillator)**.

The timing reference signal can be distributed straightforwardly as a pure sine-wave voltage through coaxial cables, or through optical-fiber links after being **encoded in the repetition rate of a pulsed (mode-locked) laser** (or sometimes in the amplitude modulation of a CW laser).

Optical fibers provide **less signal attenuation** and **larger bandwidths**, so optical technology is definitely preferred for synchronization reference distribution, at least for large facilities.

(*) the role of the phase purity of the reference will be discussed later

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GLOSSARY:
OPTICAL MASTER OSCILLATOR



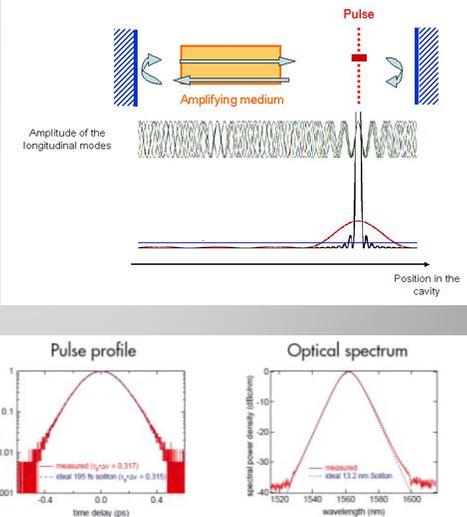
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Optical: mode-locked lasers

A **mode-locked laser** consists in an **optical cavity** hosting an active (amplifying) medium capable of sustaining a **large number of longitudinal modes** with frequencies $\nu_k = k\nu_0 = kc/L$ within the bandwidth of the active medium, being L the cavity round trip length and k integer. If the modes are forced to **oscillate in phase** and the medium emission BW is wide enough, a **very short pulse** (≈ 100 fs) travels forth and back in the cavity and a sample is coupled out through a leaking mirror.

Origami

Lasers specifications	Origami-05	Origami-08	Origami-10	Origami-15
Center wavelength	513 - 535 nm	765 - 785 nm	1023 - 1070 nm	1530 - 1566 nm
Pulse Duration	<100 - 230 fs	<60 - 200 fs	<70 - 400 fs	<60 - 500 fs
Avg. output power (up to)	100 mW	30 mW	250 mW	120 mW
Pulse energy (up to)	1.2 nJ	0.7 nJ	5 nJ	2 nJ
Peak power (up to)	10 kW	4.5 kW	30 kW	15 kW
Pulse repetition rate	20 MHz - 1.3 GHz			
Spectral bandwidth	transform-limited $(\Delta\nu \cdot \Delta t)_{min} \rightarrow 1/\pi$			
Beam quality	$M^2 < 1.1$, TEM ₀₀			
PER	> 23 dB			
Amplitude noise (24 h)	< 0.2% rms, < 0.5% pk-pk			
Center wavelength drift	< 0.1 nm pk-pk			
Laser output	collimated free space (Bar output optional)			



<http://www.onefive.com/ds/Datasheet%20Origami%20LP.pdf>

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GLOSSARY:
JITTER vs. DRIFT



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The synchronization error of a client with respect to the reference is identified as **jitter** or **drift** depending on the **time scale** of the involved phenomena.

Jitter = fast variations, caused by inherent residual lack of coherency between oscillators, even if they are locked at the best;

Drift = slow variations, mainly caused by modifications of the environment conditions, such as temperature (primarily) but also humidity, materials and components aging, ...

The boundary between the 2 categories is somehow arbitrary. For instance, synchronization errors due to mechanical vibrations can be classified in either category:

Acoustic waves → Jitter

Infrasounds → Drift

For pulsed accelerators, where the beam is produced in the form of a sequence of bunch trains with a certain repetition rate (10 Hz ÷ 120 Hz typically), the **rep. rate value** itself can be taken as a reasonable definition of the **boundary** between **jitters** and **drifts**.

In this respect, **drifts** are phenomena significantly **slower** than **rep. rate** and will produced effects on the beam that can be **monitored** and **corrected** pulse-to-pulse.

On the contrary, **jitters** are **faster** than **rep. rate** and will result in a pulse-to-pulse **chaotic scatter** of the beam characteristics that has to be minimized but that **can not** be actively **corrected**.

Drift → Nasty

Jitter → Killer

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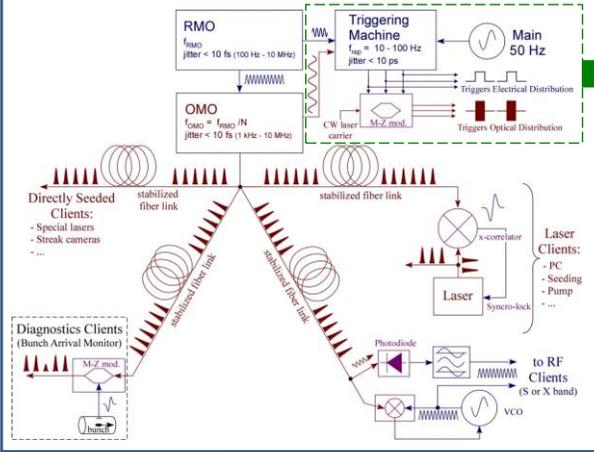
GLOSSARY:
SYNCHRONIZATION SYSTEMS



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Tasks of a Synchronization system:

- ✓ Generate and transport the reference signal to any client local position with constant delay and minimal drifts;
- ✓ Lock the client (laser, RF, ...) fundamental frequency to the reference with minimal residual jitter;
- ✓ Monitor clients and beam, and apply delay corrections to compensate residual (out-of-loop) drifts.



Triggers

Digital signals still in the Timing business but the required precision is orders of magnitude less demanding.

Not covered in this lecture (but nevertheless an important aspect of machine operation).

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SECTION II



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BASICS

- **Fourier and Laplace Transforms**
- **Random Processes**
- **Phase Noise in Oscillators**



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BASICS:

Fourier and Laplace Transforms



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Transforms summary

Transforms	Fourier - \mathcal{F}	Laplace - \mathcal{L}
Definition	$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$	$X(s) = \int_0^{+\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt$
Inverse transform	$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$	$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma-j\infty}^{\gamma+j\infty} X(s) e^{st} ds$
Transformability conditions	$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) ^2 dt \neq \infty$	$x(t) = 0$ if $t < 0$; $x(t) \cdot e^{-\sigma t} \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow +\infty} 0$
Linearity	$\mathcal{F}[a x(t) + b y(t)] = aX(\omega) + bY(\omega)$	$\mathcal{L}[a x(t) + b y(t)] = aX(s) + bY(s)$
Convolution product	$(x * y)(t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t + \tau) \cdot y(\tau) d\tau$ $\mathcal{F}[(x * y)(t)] = X^*(\omega) \cdot Y(\omega)$	$(x * y)(t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_0^t x(t + \tau) \cdot y(\tau) d\tau$ $\mathcal{L}[(x * y)(t)] = X^*(s) \cdot Y(s)$
Derivative	$\mathcal{F}\left[\frac{dx}{dt}\right] = j\omega \cdot X(\omega)$	$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{dx}{dt}\right] = s \cdot X(s)$
Delay	$\mathcal{F}[x(t - \tau)] = X(\omega)e^{-j\omega\tau}$	$\mathcal{L}[x(t - \tau)] = X(s)e^{-s\tau}$

→ $x_{rms} = 0$



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BASICS:

Random Processes

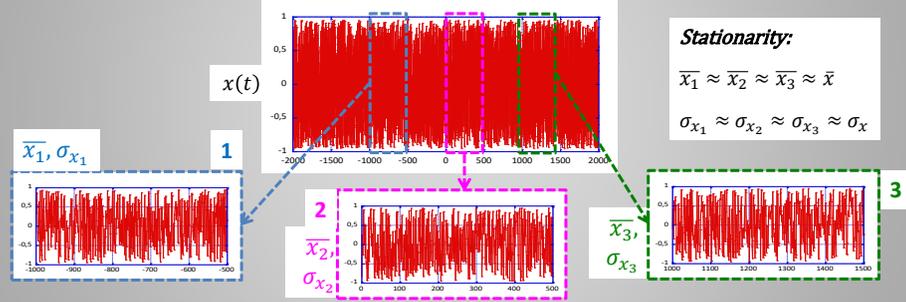


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Random process summary

Let's consider a random variable $x(t)$ representing a physical observable quantity.

- Stationary process: statistical properties invariant for a t' time shift $x(t) \rightarrow x(t + t')$



Stationarity:

$$\bar{x}_1 \approx \bar{x}_2 \approx \bar{x}_3 \approx \bar{x}$$

$$\sigma_{x_1} \approx \sigma_{x_2} \approx \sigma_{x_3} \approx \sigma_x$$

- Ergodic process: statistical properties can be estimated by a single process realization
- Uncorrelation: if $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ are 2 random variables completely uncorrelated (statistically independent), then:

$$\sigma_{x+y}^2 = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 \quad \text{with} \quad \sigma_x^2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \overline{x^2} - \bar{x}^2$$

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BASICS:
Random Processes



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Noise power spectrum:

Since $x_{rms} \neq 0$, a real random variable $x(t)$ is in general **not directly Fourier transformable**. However, if we observe $x(t)$ only for a **finite time ΔT** we may truncate the function outside the interval $[-\Delta T/2, \Delta T/2]$ and remove any possible limitation in the function transformability. The truncated function $x_{\Delta T}(t)$ is defined as:

$$x_{\Delta T}(t) = \begin{cases} x(t) & -\Delta T/2 \leq t \leq \Delta T/2 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Let $X_{\Delta T}(f)$ be the Fourier transform of the truncated function $x_{\Delta T}(t)$. It might be demonstrated that the rms value of the random variable can be computed on the base of the Fourier transform $X_{\Delta T}(f)$ according to:

$$x_{rms}^2 = \int_0^{+\infty} S_x(f) df \quad \text{with} \quad S_x(f) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lim_{\Delta T \rightarrow \infty} 2 \cdot \frac{|X_{\Delta T}(f)|^2}{\Delta T}$$

The function $S_x(f)$ is called "**power spectrum**" or "**power spectral density**" of the random variable $x(t)$. The time duration of the variable observation ΔT sets the minimum frequency $f_{min} \approx 1/\Delta T$ containing meaningful information in the spectrum of $x_{\Delta T}(t)$.

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BASICS:
LTI Transfer Functions



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Fourier and Laplace transforms are used to compute the response of **Linear Time Invariant (LTI)** systems:

time domain

$\delta(t) \rightarrow$
 $v_{in}(t) \rightarrow$

LTI system

$\rightarrow h(t)$
 $\rightarrow v_{in}(t) * h(t)$

Green's function

Fourier transform

$e^{j\omega t} \rightarrow$
 $V_{in}(j\omega) \rightarrow$

LTI system

$\rightarrow H(j\omega)e^{j\omega t}$
 $\rightarrow V_{in}(j\omega) \cdot H(j\omega)$

Laplace transform

$e^{st} \rightarrow$
 $V_{in}(s) \rightarrow$

LTI system

$\rightarrow H(s)e^{st}$
 $\rightarrow V_{in}(s) \cdot H(s)$

Noise power spectra

$S_{in}(\omega)$

LTI system

$|H(j\omega)|^2 \cdot S_{in}(\omega)$

LTI system Transfer functions



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BASICS:

Phase Noise in Oscillators

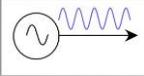
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The most important task of a Synchronization system is to **lock firmly the phase** of each **client** to the **reference oscillator** in order to minimize the residual jitter. The clients are basically **VCOs** (**Voltage Controlled Oscillators**), i.e. **local oscillators** (electrical for RF systems, optical for laser systems) whose fundamental frequency can be changed by applying a voltage to a control port.

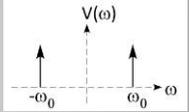
Before discussing the lock schematics and performances, it is worth introducing some **basic concepts** on **phase noise in real oscillators**.

Ideal oscillator

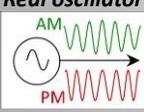


$V(t) = V_0 \cdot \cos(\omega_0 t + \varphi_0)$

Ideal Spectrum

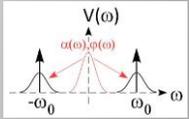


Real oscillator



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

Real Spectrum



In real oscillators the amplitude and phase will always fluctuate in time by a certain amount because of the unavoidable presence of noise. However, by common sense, a well behaving real oscillator has to satisfy the following conditions:

$$|\alpha(t)| \ll 1; \quad \left| \frac{d\varphi}{dt} \right| \ll \omega_0$$

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BASICS:

Phase Noise in Oscillators

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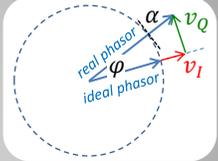


A real oscillator signal can be also represented in **Cartesian Coordinates** $(\alpha, \varphi) \rightarrow (v_I, v_Q)$:

$V(t) = V_0 \cdot \cos(\omega_0 t) + v_I(t) \cdot \cos(\omega_0 t) - v_Q(t) \cdot \sin(\omega_0 t)$

if $v_I(t), v_Q(t) \ll V_0$ $\alpha(t) = v_I(t)/V_0, \quad \varphi(t) = v_Q(t)/V_0 \ll 1$

Cartesian representation only holds for small PM depth



Real oscillator outputs are **amplitude (AM)** and **phase (PM) modulated** carrier signals. In general it turns out that **close to the carrier** frequency the contribution of the **PM noise** to the signal spectrum **dominates** the contribution of the **AM noise**. For this reason the lecture is mainly focused on phase noise. However, amplitude noise in RF systems directly reflects in energy modulation of the bunches, that may cause bunch arrival time jitter when beam travels through dispersive and bended paths (i.e. when $R_{56} \neq 0$ as in magnetic chicanes – see the magnetic compressor example in the next lecture).

Let's consider a real oscillator and neglect the AM component:

$$V(t) = V_0 \cdot \cos[\omega_0 t + \varphi(t)] = V_0 \cdot \cos[\omega_0(t + \tau(t))] \quad \text{with} \quad \tau(t) \equiv \varphi(t)/\omega_0$$

The statistical properties of $\varphi(t)$ and $\tau(t)$ qualify the oscillator, primarily the values of the standard deviations σ_φ and σ_τ (or equivalently φ_{rms} and τ_{rms} since we may assume a zero average value). As for every noise phenomena they can be computed through the **phase noise power spectral density** $S_\varphi(f)$ of the random variable $\varphi(t)$.

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BASICS:

Phase Noise in Oscillators



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Again, for practical reasons, we are only interested in observations of the random variable $\varphi(t)$ for a finite time ΔT . So we may truncate the function outside the interval $[-\Delta T/2, \Delta T/2]$ to recover the function transformability.

$$\varphi_{\Delta T}(t) = \begin{cases} \varphi(t) & -\Delta T/2 \leq t \leq \Delta T/2 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Let $\Phi_{\Delta T}(f)$ be the Fourier transform of the truncated function $\varphi_{\Delta T}(t)$. We have:

$$(\varphi_{rms}^2)_{\Delta T} = \int_{f_{min}}^{+\infty} S_{\varphi}(f) df \quad \text{with } S_{\varphi}(f) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 2 \frac{|\Phi_{\Delta T}(f)|^2}{\Delta T}$$

$S_{\varphi}(f)$ is the **phase noise power spectral density**, whose dimensions are rad^2/Hz .

Again, the time duration of the variable observation ΔT sets the minimum frequency $f_{min} \approx 1/\Delta T$ containing meaningful information on the spectrum $\Phi_{\Delta T}(f)$ of the phase noise $\varphi_{\Delta T}(t)$.

IMPORTANT: we might still write

$$\varphi_{rms}^2 = \lim_{\Delta T \rightarrow \infty} (\varphi_{rms}^2)_{\Delta T} = \int_0^{+\infty} \left(2 \cdot \lim_{\Delta T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\Phi_{\Delta T}(f)|^2}{\Delta T} \right) df = \int_0^{+\infty} S_{\varphi}(f) df$$

but we must be aware that in this case φ_{rms} is **likely to diverge**. This is physically possible since the **power** in the carrier does only **depend on amplitude** and **not on phase**. In these cases the rms value can better be specified for a given observation time ΔT or equivalently for a given frequency range of integration $[f_1, f_2]$.

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BASICS:

Phase Noise in Oscillators



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We have:

$$\varphi_{rms}^2 \Big|_{\Delta T} = 2 \cdot \int_{f_{min}}^{+\infty} \mathcal{L}(f) df \quad \text{with } \mathcal{L}(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{|\Phi_{\Delta T}(f)|^2}{\Delta T} & f \geq 0 \\ 0 & f < 0 \end{cases}$$

The function $\mathcal{L}(f)$ is defined as the “Single Sideband Power Spectral Density” and is called “script-L”

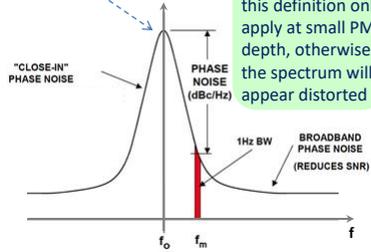
$$\mathcal{L}(f) = \frac{\text{power in 1 Hz phase modulation single sideband}}{\text{total signal power}} = \frac{1}{2} S_{\varphi}(f) \leftarrow \text{IEEE standard 1139 - 1999}$$

Linear scale $\rightarrow \mathcal{L}(f)$ units $\equiv \text{Hz}^{-1}$ or rad^2/Hz

Log scale $\rightarrow 10 \cdot \text{Log}[\mathcal{L}(f)]$ units $\equiv \text{dBc}/\text{Hz}$

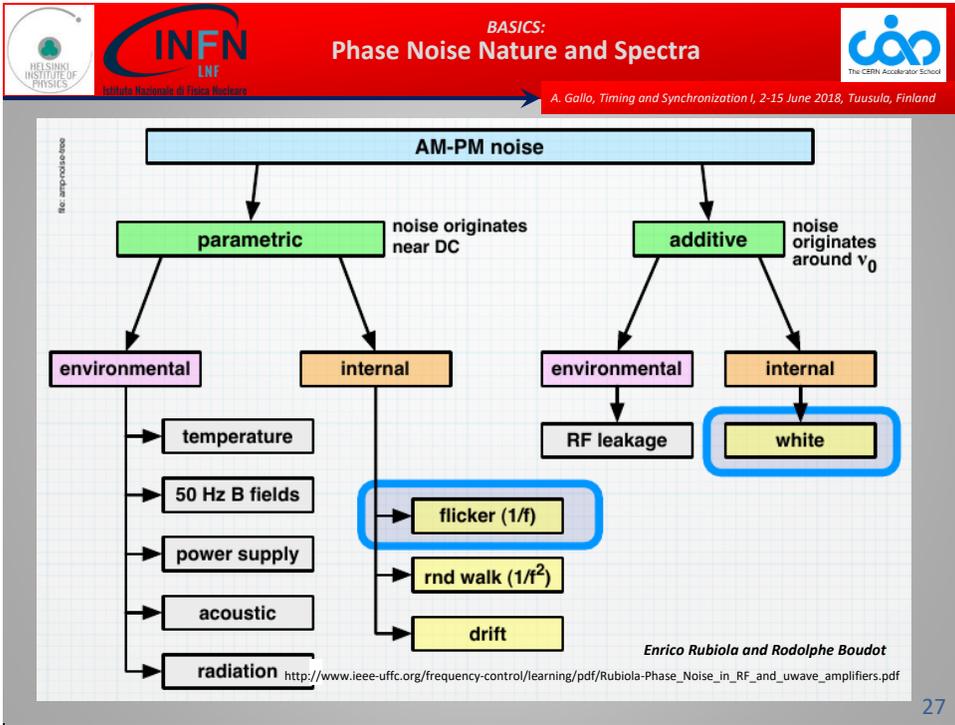
CONCLUSIONS:

- ✓ Phase (and time) jitters can be computed from the spectrum of $\varphi(t)$ through the $\mathcal{L}(f)$ - or $S_{\varphi}(f)$ - function;
- ✓ Computed values depend on the integration range, i.e. on the duration ΔT of the observation. Criteria are needed for a proper choice (we will see ...).



Attention:
this definition only apply at small PM depth, otherwise the spectrum will appear distorted

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BASICS: Phase Noise Nature and Spectra

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Close-in phase noise: $S_{\varphi}(f) = \sum \frac{b_{-k}}{f^k} \quad k = 0,1,2,3, \dots$

$S_{FM}(f) \xrightarrow{\text{For L transforms}} S_{PM}(f) = S_{FM}(f)/f^2$

	Type	Origin	$S_{\varphi}(f)$
f^0	White	Thermal noise of resistors	$F \cdot kT/P_0$
	Shot	Current quantization	$2q\bar{i}R/P_0$
f^{-1}	Flicker	Flicking PM	b_{-1}/f
f^{-2}	White FM	Thermal FM noise	$b_0^{FM} \cdot \frac{1}{f^2}$
	Random walk	Brownian motion	b_{-2}/f^2
f^{-3}	Flicker FM	Flicking FM	$\frac{b_{-1}^{FM}}{f} \cdot \frac{1}{f^2}$
f^{-4}	Random walk FM	Brownian motion \rightarrow FM	$\frac{b_{-2}^{FM}}{f^2} \cdot \frac{1}{f^2}$
f^{-n}	...	high orders ...	

Typical SSB PSD shape with noise sources

Corner frequency

$F \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} SNR_{in}/SNR_{out}$

$[b_{-k}] = \text{rad}^2 \text{Hz}^{k-1}$

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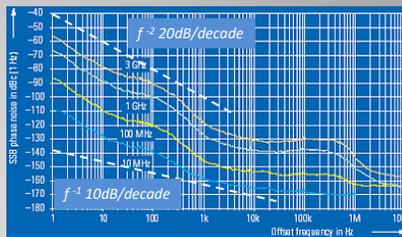
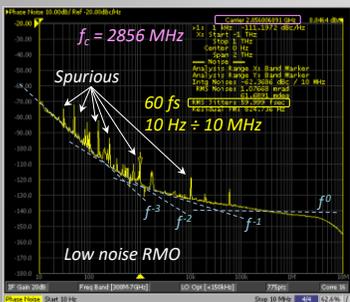
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Time jitter can be computed according to:

$$\sigma_t^2 = \frac{\sigma_\phi^2}{\omega_c^2} = \frac{1}{\omega_c^2} \int_{f_{min}}^{+\infty} S_\phi(f) df$$

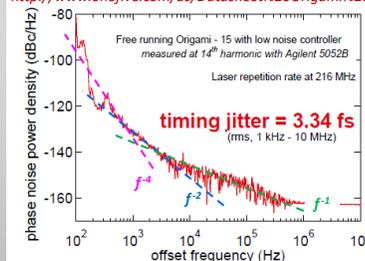
same time jitter $\rightarrow S_\phi(f) \div \omega_c^2$

Phase noise spectral densities of different oscillators have to be compared at same carrier frequency ω_c or scaled as ω_c^{-2} before comparison.



Commercial frequency synthesizer

<http://www.onefive.com/ds/Datasheet%20Origami%20LP.pdf>



OMO – Mode-locked laser – $f = 3024 \text{ MHz}$

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BASICS

- *Phase Detectors*
- *Phase Locked Loops*
- *Precision phase noise measurements*



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BASICS:
Phase Detectors – RF signals

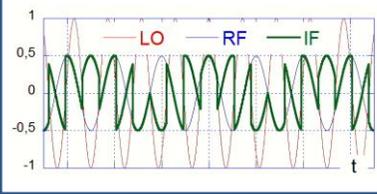
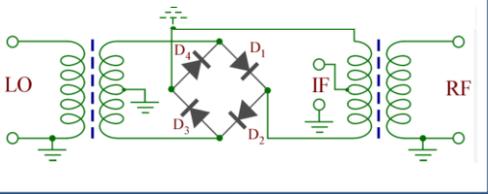


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Phase detection on RF signals

The **Double Balanced Mixer** is the **most diffused RF device** for frequency translation (up/down conversion) and detection of the relative phase between 2 RF signals (LO and RF ports). The LO voltage is differentially applied to a diode bridge switching on/off alternatively the D₁-D₂ and D₃-D₄ pairs, so that the voltage at IF is:

$$V_{IF}(t) = V_{RF}(t) \cdot \text{sgn}[V_{LO}(t)]$$

$$V_{RF}(t) = V_{RF} \cdot \cos(\omega_{RF}t); \quad V_{LO}(t) = V_{LO} \cdot \cos(\omega_{LO}t)$$

$$V_{RF} \ll V_{LO}$$

$$V_{IF}(t) = V_{RF} \cos(\omega_{RF}t) \cdot \text{sgn}[\cos(\omega_{LO}t)] = V_{RF} \cos(\omega_{RF}t) \cdot \sum_{n=\text{odds}} \frac{4}{n\pi} \cos(n\omega_{LO}t) =$$

$$= \frac{2}{\pi} V_{RF} [\cos((\omega_{LO} - \omega_{RF})t) + \cos((\omega_{LO} + \omega_{RF})t) + \text{intermod products}]$$

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BASICS:
Phase Detectors – RF signals

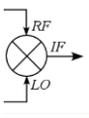


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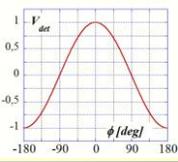
Phase detection on RF signals

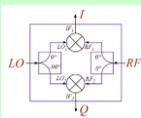
If $f_{LO} = f_{RF}$ the IF signal has a DC component given by: $V_{IF}|_{DC} = \langle V_{IF}(t) \rangle = k_{CL} A_{RF} \cos \varphi$

$A_{RF} \cos(\omega t + \varphi)$
 $A_{LO} \cos(\omega t)$



$V_{det} = V_{IF} = V(\varphi) + \text{high harm.}$
 $A_{RF} \ll A_{LO} \Rightarrow V_{det}(\varphi) = k_{CL} A_{RF} \cos \varphi$





$$\begin{cases} V_I = k_{CL} A_{RF} \cos(\varphi) + \text{high harmonics} \\ V_Q = k_{CL} A_{RF} \sin(\varphi) + \text{high harmonics} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} A_{RF} \div \sqrt{V_I^2 + V_Q^2} \\ \varphi = \arctan(V_Q/V_I) + \frac{\pi}{2} [1 - \text{sgn}(V_I)] \end{cases}$$

$$\left. \frac{dV_{det}}{d\varphi} \right|_{\varphi=\pm\pi/2} = \mp k_{CL} A_{RF} \approx \begin{matrix} 5 \div 10 \text{ mV/Deg} \\ \text{CL}=6\text{dB} \\ A_{RF}=1\text{V} \end{matrix} \approx \begin{matrix} 15 \div 30 \text{ mV/ps} \\ f_c=10\text{GHz} \end{matrix}$$

- ✓ Passive
- ✓ Cheap, Robust
- ✓ Wideband

- ✓ Sensitivity proportional to level, AM → PM not fully rejected
- ✓ Noise figure $F \approx CL$
- ✓ Good sensitivity but lower wrt optical devices

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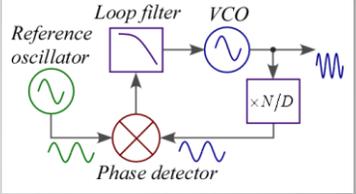
BASICS:
Phase Locked Loops



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PLLs are a very **general subject** in RF electronics, used **to synchronize oscillators** to a **common reference** or to **extract the carrier** from a **modulated signal** (FM tuning). In our context PLLs are used to **phase-lock the clients** of the synchronization system **to the master clock** (RMO or OMO). The building blocks are:

- A VCO, whose frequency range includes $(D/N) f_{ref}$;
- A phase detector, to compare the scaled VCO phase to the reference;
- A loop filter, which sets the lock bandwidth;
- A prescalers or synthesizer (N/D frequency multiplier, N and D integers) if different frequencies are required.

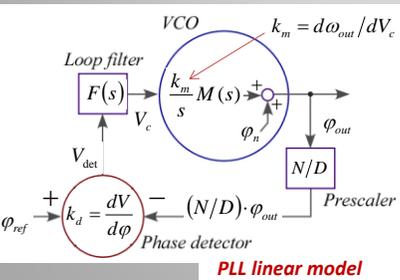


PLL transfer function

$$\phi_{out}(s) = \frac{D}{N} \frac{H(s)}{1+H(s)} \phi_{ref}(s) + \frac{1}{1+H(s)} \phi_n(s)$$

with $H(s) = \frac{N}{D} \frac{k_d k_m}{s} F(s) M(s)$

$\frac{N}{D}$ freq-to-phase conversion
 $\frac{k_d k_m}{s}$ loop filter
VCO mod. bandwidth



PLL linear model

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BASICS:
Phase Locked Loops



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The **output phase spectrum** is **locked** to the **reference** if $|H(j\omega)| \gg 1$, while it returns similar to the **free run VCO** if $|H(j\omega)| < 1$.

Loop filters provide **PLL stability**, tailoring the frequency response, and **set loop gain** and **cut-off frequency**. Loop filter optimization can **improve a lot the PLL performances!**

A flat loop filter $F(s) = F_0$ reflects in a pure integrator loop transfer function thanks to a dc ($f = 0$) pole provided by the frequency-to-phase conversion operated by the VCO + phase detector cascade.

Although this configuration already provides an extremely high (namely infinite) dc loop gain, a residual dc phase error $\Delta\phi_e = \phi_{out} - \phi_{ref}$ is necessary to drive the VCO to the reference oscillator frequency ω_{ref} according to:

$$\Delta\phi_e \approx -\omega_{ref} / (k_d k_m F_0)$$

This result, that can be deduced by the PLL working principle, can be also rigorously demonstrated as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \omega_{ref}(t) = \omega_{ref} \cdot 1(t) \\ \phi_{ref}(t) = \omega_{ref} \cdot t \cdot 1(t) \end{cases}$$

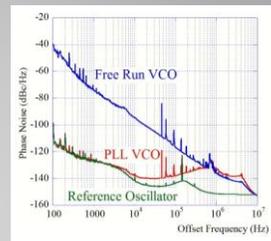
$\xrightarrow{L \text{ transf.}}$

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{\omega}_{ref}(s) = \omega_{ref} / s \\ \tilde{\phi}_{ref}(s) = \omega_{ref} / s^2 \end{cases}$$

$$\tilde{\Delta\phi}_e(s) = \tilde{\phi}_{out}(s) - \tilde{\phi}_{ref}(s) = -\frac{1}{1+H(s)} \tilde{\phi}_{ref}(s) = -\frac{s}{s + k_d k_m F_0} \cdot \frac{\omega_{ref}}{s^2}$$

Limit theorem for the Laplace transform: $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \Delta\phi_e(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \cdot \tilde{\Delta\phi}_e(s) = -\omega_{ref} / (k_d k_m F_0)$

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BASICS:
Phase Locked Loops



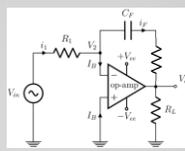
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Non-zero PLL phase offset is in general unwanted. It can result in:

- ✓ phase variations following the VCO characteristics drifts
- ✓ AM-to-PM mixing because of the off-quadrate signals at the phase detector inputs.

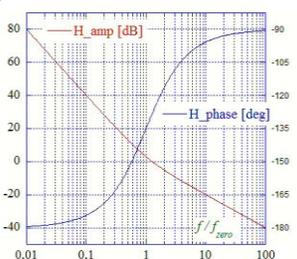
Residual phase offset can be compressed to zero by adding one (or more) dc pole ($s = 0$) and one (or more) compensating zero at a certain $s = \omega_z$ in the loop filter transfer function.

$$F(s) = \frac{\omega_0}{s} (1 - s/\omega_z)$$

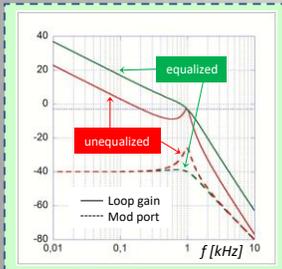


Circuit diagram showing a voltage divider with a resistor R_1 and a parallel combination of a capacitor C_F and a resistor R_F . The input is V_{in} and the output is V_o . The node between R_1 and the parallel branch is V_2 . The current through R_1 is I_1 , through R_F is I_F , and through R_L is I_L . The op-amp is configured as a voltage follower.

Bode plot of the PLL loop gain



A Bode plot showing the magnitude H_{amp} [dB] and phase H_{phase} [deg] versus normalized frequency f/f_{zero} . The magnitude plot has a slope of -40 dB/decade. The phase plot starts at -180 degrees and crosses 0 degrees at the zero frequency.

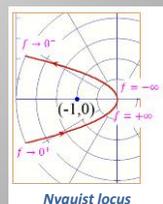


The plot shows two magnitude curves: a solid line for 'equalized' and a dashed line for 'unequaled'. The equalized curve has a higher gain at higher frequencies. The x-axis is frequency f [kHz] on a log scale from 0.01 to 10. The y-axis is gain in dB from -80 to 40.

Loop filters properly designed can also improve the PLL performances by enlarging the PLL BW through equalization of the frequency response of the VCO modulation port.

Equalization of the VCO modulation port frequency response allows increasing the loop gain.

A very steep frequency response can be obtained (slope = 40 dB/decade) in stable conditions (see Nyquist plot).



The Nyquist plot shows the complex plane with the point (-1, 0). The locus starts at the origin and goes to infinity. Points are marked for $f \rightarrow 0^-$, $f \rightarrow 0^+$, $f \rightarrow +\infty$, and $f \rightarrow -\infty$.

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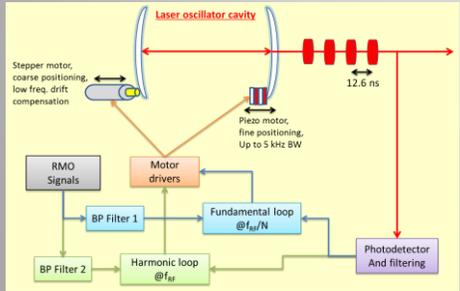
BASICS: Phase Locked Loops for Client Synchronization



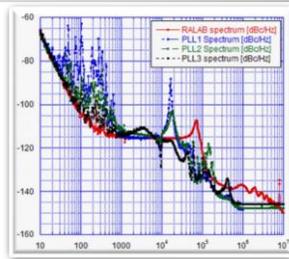
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What is **peculiar** in PLLs for clients of a **stabilization system** of a Particle Accelerator facility ?

- ✓ Both the reference and client oscillators can be either RF VCOs or laser cavities. Phase detectors are chosen consequently;
- ✓ Laser oscillators behave as VCOs by trimming the cavity length through a piezo controlled mirror.
 - Limited modulation bandwidth (\approx few kHz typical);
 - Limited dynamic range ($\Delta f/f \approx 10^{-6}$), overcome by adding motorized translational stages to enlarge the mirror positioning range;
 - At frequencies beyond PLL bandwidth ($f > 1$ kHz) mode-locked lasers exhibit excellent low-phase noise spectrum.



The diagram shows a control loop for a laser oscillator cavity. It includes a laser oscillator cavity, a photodetector and filtering block, a harmonic loop @ f_{RF} , a fundamental loop @ f_{RF}/N , motor drivers, and RMO signals. A stepper motor handles coarse positioning and low-frequency drift compensation, while a piezo motor handles fine positioning up to 5 kHz BW. A 12.6 ns delay is indicated in the feedback path.



SSB phase noise of a locked OMO for different loop filters. The plot shows phase noise in dBc/Hz versus frequency in Hz on a log-log scale. Four curves are shown: RALAB spectrum (dBc/Hz), PLL1 spectrum (dBc/Hz), PLL2 spectrum (dBc/Hz), and PLL3 spectrum (dBc/Hz).

RMO
 $\sigma_i \approx 85$ fs
10 Hz – 10 MHz

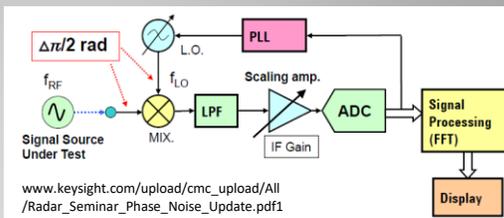
Laser:
PLL flat
 $\sigma_i \approx 230$ fs
PLL + 1 s=0 pole
 $\sigma_i \approx 85$ fs
PLL + 2 s=0 poles
 $\sigma_i \approx 70$ fs

SSB phase noise of a locked OMO for different loop filters

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Phase noise of RF sources can be measured in various ways. The most commonly used technique is the **PLL with Reference Source**. The phase of the **signal source under test** is measured **with respect to** a tunable reference **Local Oscillator** which is locked to the source. The **baseband signal** used to drive the PLL is also acquired and processed to extract the **relative phase error** information.

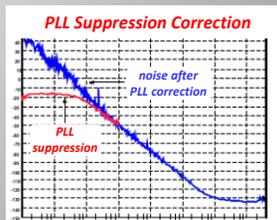


www.keysight.com/upload/cmc_upload/All/Radar_Seminar_Phase_Noise_Update.pdf1

$$\Delta\varphi_{meas}(t) = \varphi_{SUT}(t) - \varphi_{LO}(t) \quad \rightarrow \quad S_{\varphi_{meas}}(\omega) = S_{\varphi_{SUT}}(\omega) + S_{\varphi_{LO}}(\omega)$$

Clearly, the measurements includes a **contribution from the reference source** that is possible to **neglect** only when it is at least **15÷20 dB lower** than the signal. Only sources **significantly worse (i.e. more noisy) than reference** can be accurately characterized.

Since the PLL suppresses noise for frequencies within the closed loop bandwidth, measured data need also to be corrected on the base of the PLL characteristics to provide accurate results.



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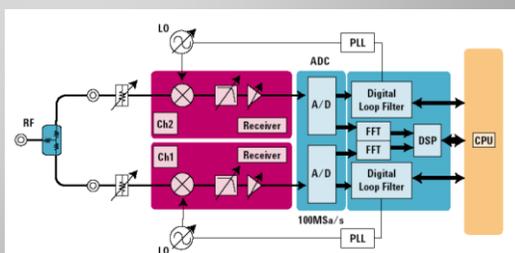
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Signal Source Analyzers SSA are dedicated instruments integrating an optimized set-up for precise phase noise measurements based on PLL with reference source technique.

To overcome the limitation coming from the reference contribution to the measurements, **two low noise LO oscillators** are locked to the DUT signal.



The phase noise of the source under test is measured in parallel along two independent channels. The acquired data are Fourier transformed and **cross-correlated to reduce the contribution of the references** to the measurement.



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BASICS:
Precision PN Measurements

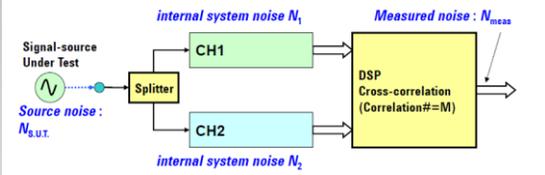


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The SUT phase noise $\varphi_{SUT}(t)$ measured simultaneously wrt the 2 LOs gives:

$$\Delta\varphi_{1,2}(t) = \varphi_{SUT}(t) - \varphi_{LO_{1,2}}(t)$$

$$\Delta\Phi_{1,2}(f) = \Phi_{SUT}(f) - \Phi_{LO_{1,2}}(f)$$



The cross correlation function $r(\tau)$ of $\Delta\varphi_1(t)$ and $\Delta\varphi_2(t)$, and its Fourier transform $R(f)$ are:

$$r(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \Delta\varphi_1(t) \cdot \Delta\varphi_2(t + \tau) dt$$

$$R(f) = \Delta\Phi_1^*(f) \cdot \Delta\Phi_2(f)$$

$$R(f) = |\Phi_{SUT}(f)|^2 - [\Phi_{SUT}^*(f) \cdot \Phi_{LO_2}(f) + \Phi_{SUT}(f) \cdot \Phi_{LO_1}^*(f)] + \Phi_{LO_1}^*(f) \cdot \Phi_{LO_2}(f)$$

after M averages ("correlations")

$$S_{\varphi_{meas}}(f) = S_{\varphi_{SUT}}(f) + \left[\sqrt{S_{\varphi_{LO_1}}(f)} + \sqrt{S_{\varphi_{LO_2}}(f)} \right] \sqrt{\frac{S_{\varphi_{SUT}}(f)}{M}} + \sqrt{\frac{S_{\varphi_{LO_1}}(f)S_{\varphi_{LO_2}}(f)}{M}}$$

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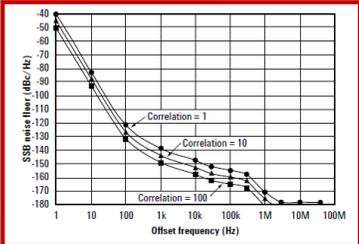
BASICS:
Precision PN Measurements



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After M averages the magnitude of the uncorrelated contributions to the measurement (including the cross product of the phase noises of the 2 reference sources) is expected to **decrease** by a **factor \sqrt{M}** . Measurement accuracy at level of the phase noise of the reference sources or even lower is achieved. Sources of quality **comparable with references or even better** can be accurately characterized. The only limit is the **measurement time** duration which **increases** with the **number of correlations**.

Random phases of uncorrelated contribution
magnitude $\div \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}}$ after M averages (correlations)





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THANKS!
IT CONTINUES ...