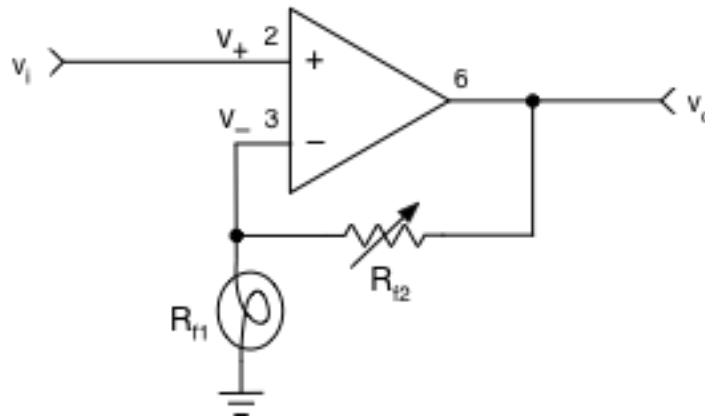


# Wien Bridge Oscillator

## Conventional analysis

Consider the amplifier shown below.



The potential at the noninverting input is equal to the input signal:

$$v_+ = v_i.$$

The potential at the inverting input is related to the output via a voltage-divider:

$$v_- = \frac{R_{f1}}{R_{f1} + R_{f2}} v_o.$$

Using the ideal op-amp assumption that  $v_+ = v_-$  leads to

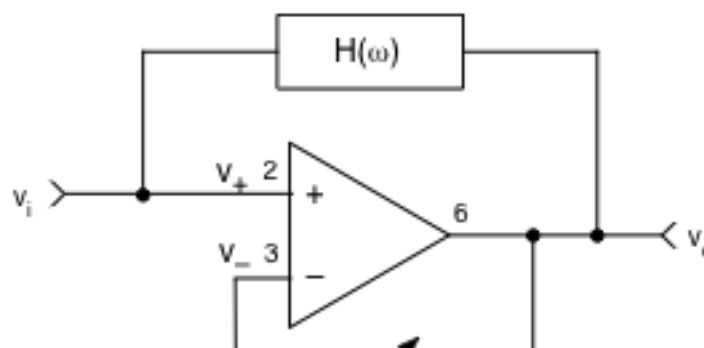
$$v_o = G v_i$$

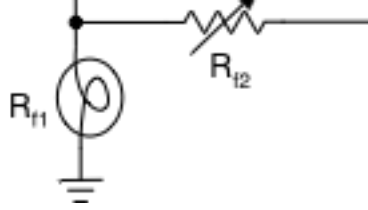
where

$$G \equiv 1 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f1}}.$$

This is the standard non-inverting amplifier configuration.

Now let's ask if we can sustain a finite output if, instead of an external input, we feed the output back to the input through a frequency-dependent network.





Using complex phasor notation such that  $v = \Re \hat{V} e^{j\omega t}$  (where  $\Re$  means "real part of") , we write

$$\hat{V}_i = H(\omega) \hat{V}_o.$$

We also had

$$\hat{V}_o = G(\omega) \hat{V}_i.$$

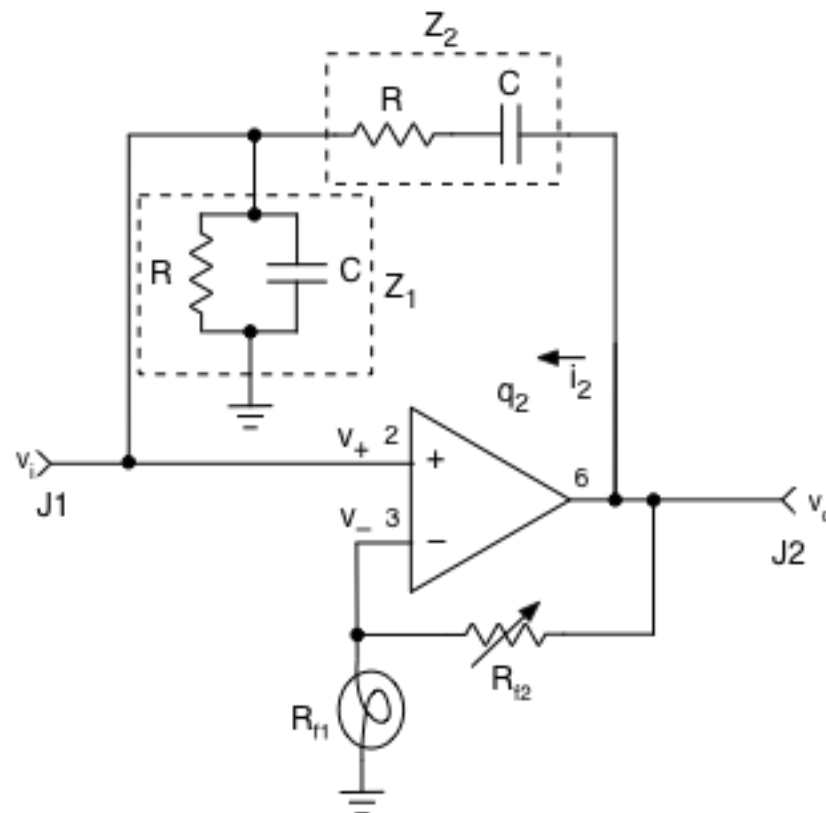
(Note: in the current case G actually does not have any frequency dependence. The notation is for purposes of generality.) Self-consistency requires

$$\hat{V}_i = G(\omega) H(\omega) \hat{V}_i.$$

This requires that the loop gain

$$G(\omega) H(\omega) = 1.$$

This is the Barkhausen condition for oscillation, which implies both that the magnitude of the loop gain is unity and that the phase shift is zero or a multiple of  $2\pi$  .



## Wien Bridge

Consider the resistance - capacitance network shown above.

$$\hat{V}_i = \frac{Z_1}{Z_1 + Z_2} \hat{V}_o.$$

$$\hat{V}_i = \frac{\frac{R}{1+j\omega RC}}{\frac{R}{1+j\omega RC} + (R - j\frac{1}{\omega C})} \hat{V}_o.$$

$$\hat{V}_i = \frac{1}{3 + j\left(\omega RC - \frac{1}{\omega RC}\right)} \hat{V}_o.$$

Thus

$$H(\omega) = \frac{1}{3 + j\left(\omega RC - \frac{1}{\omega RC}\right)}.$$

Remember that

$$\hat{V}_o = G\hat{V}_i$$

with G having the real value

$$G = 1 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f1}}$$

.

So the loop gain requirement

$$GH(\omega) = 1$$

becomes

$$\frac{G}{3 + j\left(\omega RC - \frac{1}{\omega RC}\right)} = 1.$$

This is true provided

$$G = 3.$$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{RC}.$$

These then are the conditions for oscillation with this network which is called the Wien bridge.

Note that the above conditions then require

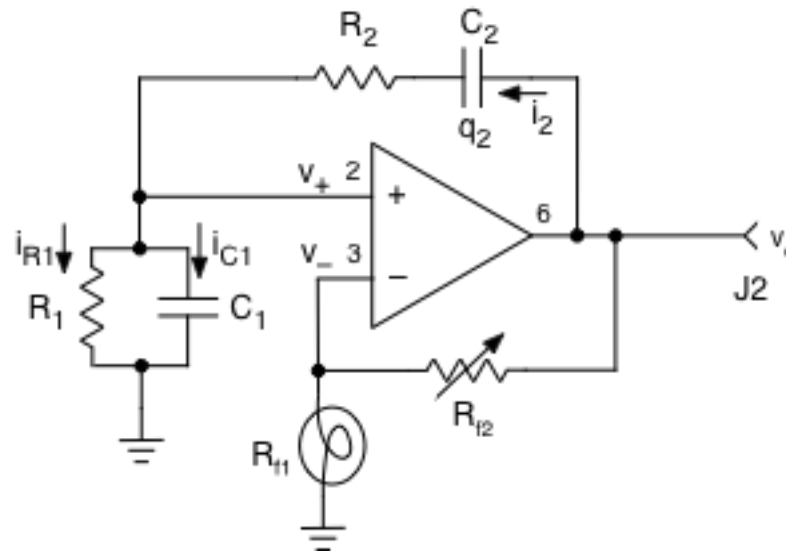
$$\frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f1}} = 2.$$

In the practical circuit, we will select resistor  $R_{f2}$  so that it can be varied until sufficient gain is reached to start oscillations. We consider  $R_{f2}$  to be the *bifurcation parameter* of the system.

# Time-Domain Analysis

The above criteria are useful in creating the oscillator design. However, insight into the oscillator dynamics - leading to an understanding of what controls the amplitude and shape of oscillation - requires a time-domain analysis.

Consider the same circuit, re-drawn below with currents and voltages indicated at various points in the circuit.



## Linear circuit analysis

We assume that all components have constant values. Later, the analysis will be generalized to allow the feedback resistor  $R_{f1}$  to increase with potential drop across the resistor due to self-heating, introducing nonlinearity into the system and thereby limiting the amplitude of oscillation.

### Signal at the non-inverting input

Let's first sum potential drops across the  $R_2 C_2$  branch.

$$v_+ + i_2 R_2 + \frac{1}{C_2} q_2 = v_o.$$

Differentiate this equation and use the fact that  $i_2 = dq_2/dt$ :

$$\frac{dv_+}{dt} + R_2 \frac{di_2}{dt} + \frac{1}{C_2} i_2 = \frac{dv_o}{dt}.$$

Now from Kirchoff's Law for the sum of currents into a junction, using the ideal op amp behavior that zero current flows into the non-inverting (+) input:

$$i_2 = i_{R1} + i_{C1}.$$

Thus

$$i_2 = \frac{1}{R_1} v_+ + C_1 \frac{dv_+}{dt}.$$

Inserting this into equ. [xx] we get:

$$\frac{dv_+}{dt} + R_2 \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{R_1} v_+ + C_1 \frac{dv_+}{dt} \right) + \frac{1}{C_2} \left( \frac{1}{R_1} v_+ + C_1 \frac{dv_+}{dt} \right) = \frac{dv_o}{dt}.$$

Collecting terms:

$$\left[ R_2 C_1 \frac{d^2}{dt^2} + \left( 1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} + \frac{C_1}{C_2} \right) \frac{d}{dt} + \frac{1}{R_1 C_2} \right] v_+ = \frac{dv_o}{dt}.$$

## Signal at the inverting input

At the inverting input we have

$$v_- = \frac{R_{f1}}{R_{f1} + R_{f2}} v_0.$$

$$v_- = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f1}}} v_0.$$

$$v_- = \frac{1}{G} v_0,$$

where the gain is given by

$$G \equiv 1 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f1}}.$$

## Combined results

Now use again use ideal op-amp behavior to require that

$$v_+ = v_-,$$

so that in the above differential equation we can substitute for  $v_+$  using

$$v_+ = v_- = \frac{1}{G} v_0.$$

Thus we re-write the original differential equation entirely in terms of  $v_0$  :

$$\left[ R_2 C_1 \frac{d^2}{dt^2} + \left( 1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} + \frac{C_1}{C_2} \right) \frac{d}{dt} + \frac{1}{R_1 C_2} \right] \frac{1}{G} v_0 = \frac{dv_o}{dt}.$$

Multiply through by  $G$  and re-arrange terms:

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} + \left( 1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} + \frac{C_1}{C_2} - G \right) \frac{1}{R_2 C_1} \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \frac{1}{(R_1 C_2)(R_2 C_1)} v_o = 0.$$

If we match resistors so that  $R_1 = R_2 \equiv R$  and capacitors so that  $C_1 = C_2 \equiv C$  then this simplifies to:

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} + (3 - G) \frac{1}{RC} \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \frac{1}{(RC)^2} v_o = 0.$$

## Solving the linear equation

Again, assuming that all of the coefficients are constant, we can insert a solution  $v_o = V_o e^{st}$  leads to the characteristic equation,

$$s^2 + (3 - G) \frac{1}{RC} s + \frac{1}{(RC)^2} = 0.$$

The solution is

$$s = \frac{(G - 3) \pm \sqrt{(G - 3)^2 - 4}}{2} \omega_0.$$

where  $\omega_0 \equiv 1/RC$ . The values are complex for  $1 < G < 5$  and the solution grows exponentially when  $G > 3$ . Of course, indefinite exponential growth is not possible; eventually the power supply limits are reached. However, if an introduction of nonlinearity causes the gain to diminish with growing amplitude the oscillations will saturate. In such a case we have a bifurcation to an oscillatory solution at  $G = 3$ . This occurs when

$$\frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f1}} = 2,$$

for which case

$$s = \pm j\omega_0.$$

Note that we can re-write the differential equation (flipping the middle term to conform better with the form of the Van der Pol equation - see below) as:

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - \left( \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f1}} - 2 \right) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

In [2]:

*# TO BE ADDED Code to calculate eigenvalues as a function of feedback resistor ratio*

## Amplitude-dependent gain

We will now model the feedback resistor  $R_{f1}$  as a lamp filament that heats up as the output  $v_o$  increases from zero. As the filament temperature  $T$  increases from a reference temperature  $T_0$ ,

$$R_{f1}(T) = R_{f10}[1 + \alpha(T - T_0)].$$

We need to model how the temperature of the lamp filament varies with power  $P$  dissipated within the filament, which in turn depends on the potential drop across the filament and temperature-dependent resistance of the filament.

$$P = (i_{f1})^2 R_{f1}(T) = \left( \frac{v_o}{R_{f1}(T) + R_{f2}} \right)^2 R_{f1}(T) = \frac{R_{f1}(T)}{[R_{f1}(T) + R_{f2}]^2} v_o^2.$$

Suppose the filament has heat capacity  $C_{\text{fil}}$ . Let us assume that the heat transport away from the filament is proportional to the difference between the filament temperature  $T$  and the ambient temperature  $T_a$ :

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{transfer}} = \frac{1}{\mathfrak{R}}(T - T_a),$$

where  $\mathfrak{R}$  is the effective thermal resistance of the bulb. Even radiative transport is modeled this way near onset when the temperature difference is still modest relative to the initial absolute temperature (about 300K):

$$\epsilon\sigma(T^4 - T_a^4) = \epsilon\sigma[T_a + (T - T_a)]^4 - T_a^4 \approx 4\epsilon\sigma T_a^3(T - T_a).$$

(Here  $\epsilon$  is the emissivity of the filament and  $\sigma$  is the Stefan-Boltzman constant.)

So the heat balance equation is

$$C_f \frac{dT}{dt} = P - \dot{Q}_{\text{transfer}}.$$

Using above results:

$$C_f \frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{R_{f1}(T)}{[R_{f1}(T) + R_{f2}]^2} v_o^2 - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{R}}(T - T_a).$$

Inserting the temperature dependence of the resistance:

$$C_f \frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{R_{f10}[1 + \alpha(T - T_0)]}{\{R_{f10}[1 + \alpha(T - T_0)] + R_{f2}\}^2} v_o^2 - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{R}}(T - T_a).$$

Re-writing:

$$C_f \frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{1 + \alpha(T - T_0)}{\left[1 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} + \alpha(T - T_0)\right]^2} \frac{v_o^2}{R_{f10}} - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{R}}(T - T_a).$$

If we assume that the oscillation period is much shorter than the time to reach thermal equilibrium, we suppose that the system reaches a steady state that averages over the heating per cycle by the signal at a given amplitude. Then we say that

$$C_f \frac{dT}{dt} \approx 0.$$

This requires that

$$\frac{1 + \alpha(T - T_0)}{\left[1 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} + \alpha(T - T_0)\right]^2} \frac{v_o^2}{R_{f10}} - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{R}}(T - T_a) = 0.$$

As we will see, the temperature difference  $T - T_0 \sim v_o^2$ , so the equation above can be simplified to lowest order in  $v_o^2$ :

$$\frac{1}{\left[1 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}}\right]^2} \frac{v_o^2}{R_{f10}} - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{R}}(T - T_a) = 0.$$

We'll also assume that the ambient temperature and reference temperature for the filament are the same:  $T_a = T_0$ .

Then we have:

$$(T - T_0) \approx \frac{1}{\left[1 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}}\right]^2} \frac{\mathfrak{R}}{R_{f10}} v_o^2 \approx \frac{1}{9} \frac{\mathfrak{R}}{R_{f10}} v_o^2,$$

where we have used the critical value of the resistance ratio

$$\frac{R_{f2c}}{R_{f10}} = 2.$$

The dynamical equation including temperature dependence of the resistance  $R_{f1}$  is:

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - \left( \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}[1 + \alpha(T - T_0)]} - 2 \right) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

Assuming, at least near the onset of oscillations, that the self-heating is modest and thus the correction is small compared to 1:

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - \left( \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} [1 - \alpha(T - T_0)] - 2 \right) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o \approx 0.$$

Substituting for  $T - T_0$ :

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - \left( \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} \left[ 1 - \alpha \frac{1}{9} \frac{\mathfrak{R}}{R_{f10}} v_o^2 \right] - 2 \right) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - \left( \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} - 2 - \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} \frac{1}{9} \frac{\alpha \mathfrak{R}}{R_{f10}} v_o^2 \right) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - \left( \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} - 2 - \frac{2}{9} \frac{\alpha \mathfrak{R}}{R_{f10}} v_o^2 \right) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

where we used in the last term



$$\frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} \approx 2$$

near the onset of oscillations.

## Scaled equation

The model equation is

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - \left( \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} - 2 - \frac{2}{9} \frac{\alpha \Re}{R_{f10}} v_o^2 \right) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

Let's define

$$\epsilon \equiv \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} - 2$$

$$\delta \equiv \frac{2}{9} \frac{\alpha \Re}{R_{f10}}$$

The equation is then written as:

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - (\epsilon - \delta v_o^2) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

Rescale time  $\tilde{t} \equiv \omega_0 t$  and rescale voltage so that  $\tilde{v} = \sqrt{\delta} v_o$ . Then the equation becomes:

$$\frac{d^2 \tilde{v}}{d\tilde{t}^2} - (\epsilon - \tilde{v}^2) \frac{d\tilde{v}}{d\tilde{t}} + \tilde{v} = 0.$$

This allows a lot of different experimental conidtions to be captured into a single computation of  $\tilde{v}(\tilde{t})$ . The actual solution is found as:

$$v_o(t) = \frac{1}{\delta^2} \tilde{v}(\omega_o t).$$

--

## Integrating the dynamical system

The second-order differential equation is equivalent to the following pair of first-order differential equation. (We'll drop the tilde notation for now, assuming that these are the scaled equations.)

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = w.$$

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = (\epsilon - v^2)w - v.$$

In [41]:

```
% matplotlib inline
# Code to numerically integrate the actual dynamical system
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from scipy import integrate
import math
#
# define the dynamical system to be used by the numerical integrator
def dynsys(xx,tt,epsilon,gamma):
    ff1 = xx[1]
    ff2 = (epsilon-xx[0]**2)*xx[1]-xx[0]
    # print(ff1,ff2)
    return [ff1,ff2]
#
R = 6800. # ohms
C = 0.01E-6 # farads
print('R= ',R,' ohms    C= ',C,' farads')
omega0 = 1/(R*C)
f =omega0/(2*math.pi)
print('Frequency {0:6.1f} Hz {1:6.1f} radians/s'.format(f,omega0)) # (obtained 1591.5 Hz)
#
Rf10 = 54. # ohms - Radio Shack 12V 25mA mini lamp part number 272-1141
alpha = 0.0045 # K^(-1) tungsten - http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/Tables/tungsten.html
rho = 5.6E-8 # ohm-m tungsten - same reference as above
T0 = 20. # celsius
Ta = 20. # celsius
# filament characteristics
Rfil = (2500-293)/(12*0.025) # K/W assume 12volt 25mA lamp reaches 2500K
print('Thermal resistance {0:6.1f} K/W'.format(Rfil)) # obtained value 7357 K/W
L = 2.0E-2 # filament length in m (a guess after using magnifier to inspect filament)
A = rho*L/Rf10 # filament cross-sectional area
V = L*A # filament volume
rhomass = 19.25E3 # Kg/m^3 density of tungsten
m = rhomass*V*1000 # g mass of filament
print('Filament mass {0:6.3e} grams'.format(m)) # obtained 7.99E-6 g
specifichat = 0.134 # J/gK tungsten
Cfil = specifichat*m # J/K heat capacity of filament
print('Heat capacity {0:6.3e} J/K'.format(Cfil)) # obtained value 1.07E-6 J/K
tauthermal = Cfil*Rfil # s filament time constant
print('Thermal time constant {0:6.3e} seconds'.format(tauthermal)) # obtained value 0.84 s
#
delta = alpha*Rfil/Rf10 # volts^(-2)
print('Nonlinear parameter delta = {0:6.4f} volt^-2'.format(delta)) # obtained 0.613 volt^-2
print('Voltage scale = {0:6.3f} volt'.format(1/math.sqrt(delta))) # obtained 0.613 volt
#
#Rf2 = 113.4 # ohms
#Rf2 = 108.6 # ohms
#epsilon = Rf2/Rf10-2.
```

```

#
# Initial conditions
v_0 = 0.01
w_0 = 0.0
#
epsilon = 0.1 # specify epsilon directly
print('epsilon = ',epsilon)
timestep = 0.01
timerange = 200
Nstep = int(timerange/timestep)
a_tt = np.arange(0,timerange,timestep) # time array
# See https://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy-0.18.1/reference/generated/scipy.integrate.odeint.html
# Also https://nathantypanski.com/blog/2014-08-23-ode-solver-py.html
gamma = 0.
a_sol = integrate.odeint(dynsys,[v_0,w_0],a_tt,args=(epsilon,gamma))
vv = a_sol[0:Nstep,0]
plt.plot(a_tt,vv)
plt.xlabel('$\omega_0 t$')
plt.ylabel('$\sqrt{\delta}v$')
#plt.annotate('eps = {0:4.2f}'.format(epsilon),xy=(5,0.75))
plt.show()
#
# Now compute and plot epsilon dependence of final amplitude
# along with theoretical value 2*sqrt(epsilon)
timestep = 0.01
timerange = 500 # need a longer time range for smaller epsilon
Nstep = int(timerange/timestep)
a_tt = np.arange(0,timerange,timestep) # time array
a_eps = []
a_vmax = []
a_thval = []
epsilon = 0.
for i in range(0,50):
    epsilon = epsilon + 0.01
    a_eps = np.append(a_eps,epsilon)
    a_sol = integrate.odeint(dynsys,[v_0,w_0],a_tt,args=(epsilon,gamma))
    vv = a_sol[0:Nstep,0]
    vmax = np.amax(vv)
    a_vmax = np.append(a_vmax,vmax)
    thval = 2*math.sqrt(epsilon)
    a_thval = np.append(a_thval,thval)
    print('epsilon={0:0.4f},vmax={1:3.4f},thval={2:3.4f}'.format(epsilon,vmax,thval))
plt.plot(a_eps,a_vmax,'ro',a_eps,a_thval,'k')
plt.xlabel('epsilon')
plt.ylabel('vmax & theor. value')
plt.show()
#print(vv)

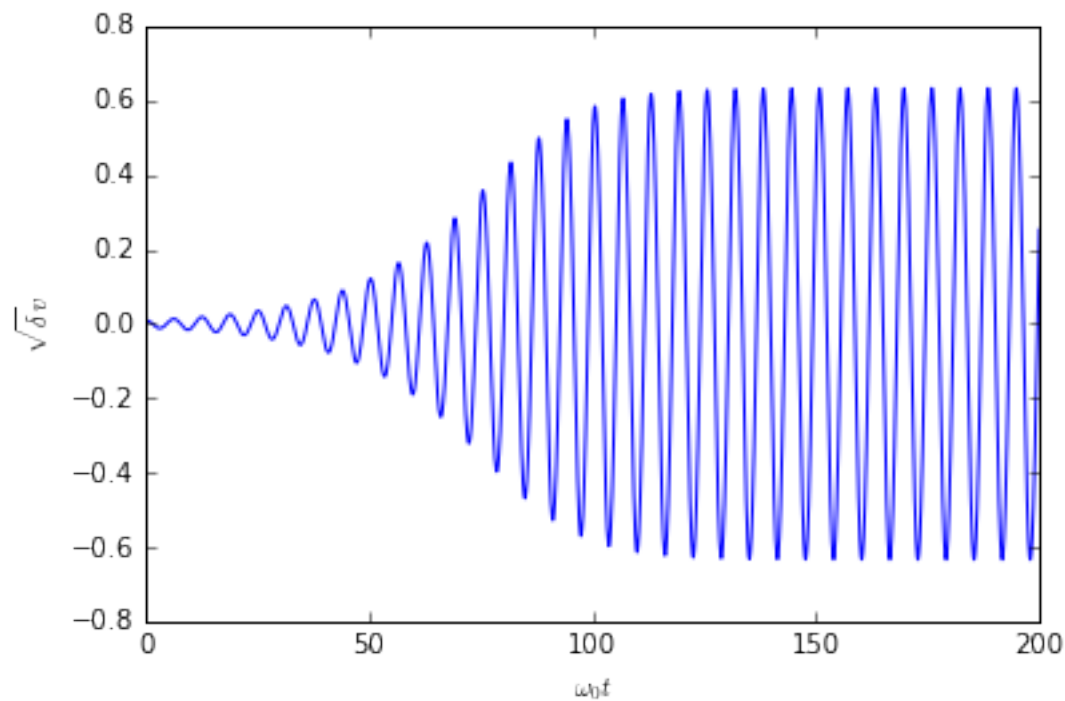
```

```

R= 6800.0 ohms C= 1e-08 farads
Frequency 2340.5 Hz 14705.9 radians/s
Thermal resistance 7356.7 K/W
Filament mass 7.985e-06 grams
Heat capacity 1.070e-06 J/K

```

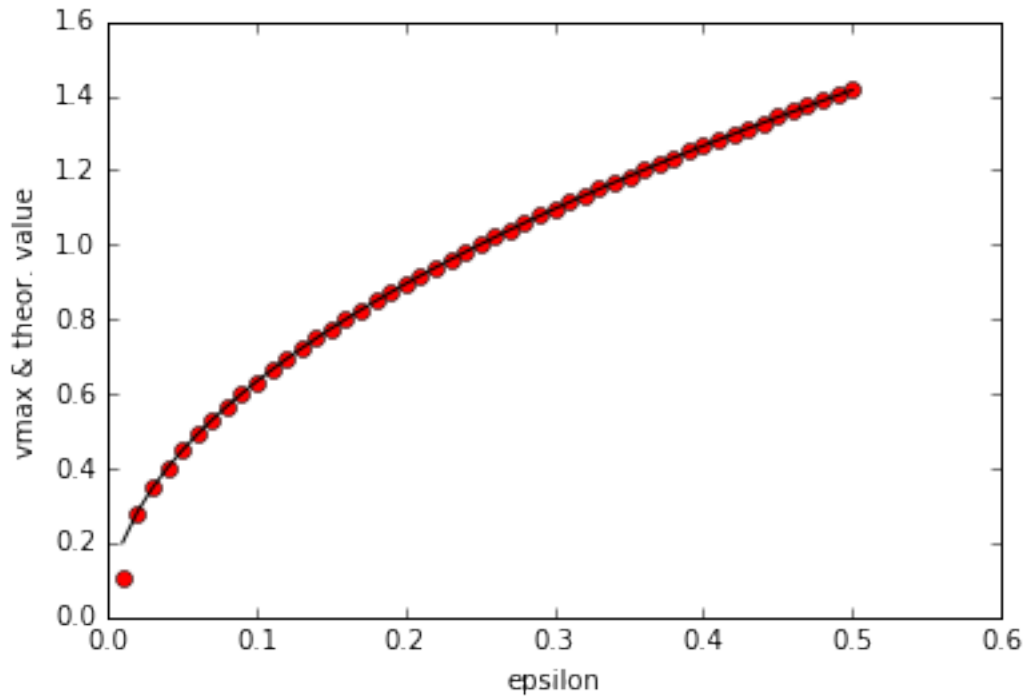
Thermal time constant 7.872e-03 seconds  
Nonlinear parameter delta = 0.6131 volt^-2  
Voltage scale = 1.277 volt  
epsilon = 0.1



epsilon=0.0100,vmax=0.1027,thval=0.2000  
epsilon=0.0200,vmax=0.2775,thval=0.2828  
epsilon=0.0300,vmax=0.3463,thval=0.3464  
epsilon=0.0400,vmax=0.4000,thval=0.4000  
epsilon=0.0500,vmax=0.4472,thval=0.4472  
epsilon=0.0600,vmax=0.4899,thval=0.4899  
epsilon=0.0700,vmax=0.5292,thval=0.5292  
epsilon=0.0800,vmax=0.5657,thval=0.5657  
epsilon=0.0900,vmax=0.6000,thval=0.6000  
epsilon=0.1000,vmax=0.6325,thval=0.6325  
epsilon=0.1100,vmax=0.6634,thval=0.6633  
epsilon=0.1200,vmax=0.6929,thval=0.6928  
epsilon=0.1300,vmax=0.7212,thval=0.7211  
epsilon=0.1400,vmax=0.7484,thval=0.7483  
epsilon=0.1500,vmax=0.7747,thval=0.7746  
epsilon=0.1600,vmax=0.8001,thval=0.8000  
epsilon=0.1700,vmax=0.8247,thval=0.8246  
epsilon=0.1800,vmax=0.8487,thval=0.8485  
epsilon=0.1900,vmax=0.8719,thval=0.8718  
epsilon=0.2000,vmax=0.8946,thval=0.8944  
epsilon=0.2100,vmax=0.9167,thval=0.9165  
epsilon=0.2200,vmax=0.9383,thval=0.9381  
epsilon=0.2300,vmax=0.9594,thval=0.9592  
epsilon=0.2400,vmax=0.9801,thval=0.9798  
epsilon=0.2500,vmax=1.0003,thval=1.0000  
epsilon=0.2600,vmax=1.0202,thval=1.0198  
epsilon=0.2700,vmax=1.0396,thval=1.0392  
epsilon=0.2800,vmax=1.0587,thval=1.0583  
epsilon=0.2900,vmax=1.0775,thval=1.0770  
epsilon=0.3000,vmax=1.0960,thval=1.0954  
epsilon=0.3100,vmax=1.1141,thval=1.1136  
epsilon=0.3200,vmax=1.1320,thval=1.1314  
epsilon=0.3300,vmax=1.1496,thval=1.1489

epsilon=0.3300,vmax=1.1496,thval=1.1489  
 epsilon=0.3400,vmax=1.1669,thval=1.1662  
 epsilon=0.3500,vmax=1.1840,thval=1.1832  
 epsilon=0.3600,vmax=1.2008,thval=1.2000  
 epsilon=0.3700,vmax=1.2174,thval=1.2166  
 epsilon=0.3800,vmax=1.2338,thval=1.2329  
 epsilon=0.3900,vmax=1.2500,thval=1.2490  
 epsilon=0.4000,vmax=1.2659,thval=1.2649  
 epsilon=0.4100,vmax=1.2817,thval=1.2806  
 epsilon=0.4200,vmax=1.2973,thval=1.2961  
 epsilon=0.4300,vmax=1.3127,thval=1.3115  
 epsilon=0.4400,vmax=1.3279,thval=1.3266  
 epsilon=0.4500,vmax=1.3430,thval=1.3416  
 epsilon=0.4600,vmax=1.3579,thval=1.3565  
 epsilon=0.4700,vmax=1.3726,thval=1.3711  
 epsilon=0.4800,vmax=1.3872,thval=1.3856  
 epsilon=0.4900,vmax=1.4017,thval=1.4000

epsilon=0.5000,vmax=1.4160,thval=1.4142



## Alternate rescaling to obtain the van der Pol equation

In order to connect with some of the literature, it is useful to see a different scaling that depends on  $\epsilon$ . This leads to the famous van der Pol equation. Unfortunately, the bifurcation behavior is masked because the scaling becomes singular at  $\epsilon = 0$ .

Starting with the fully dimensioned equation:

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - \left( \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} - 2 - \frac{2}{9} \frac{\alpha \Re}{R_{f10}} v_o^2 \right) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

Again define  $\epsilon \equiv \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} - 2$  and  $\delta \equiv \frac{2}{9} \frac{\alpha \Re}{R_{f10}}$ .

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - (\epsilon - \delta v_o^2) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

Provided that  $\epsilon \neq 0$  we can write:

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - \epsilon (1 - \frac{\delta}{\epsilon} v_o^2) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

Rescale time  $t \tilde{\equiv} \omega_0 t$  and  $v \tilde{=} \sqrt{\frac{\delta}{\epsilon}} v_o$ . Then the equation becomes:

$$\frac{d^2 v \tilde{}}{dt \tilde{}} - \epsilon (1 - v \tilde{^2}) \frac{dv \tilde{}}{dt \tilde{}} + v \tilde{=} 0.$$

This is the standard form of the van der Pol equation. Notice, however, that the scale factor  $\sqrt{\frac{\delta}{\epsilon}}$  becomes singular at  $\epsilon = 0$  at the same point that the actual output voltage amplitude is just about to rise from a value of zero.

## Numerical integration of the full dynamical system

The actual dynamical system with a self-heating feedback resistor consists of equations for the time derivatives of the variables  $v \equiv v_o$ ,  $w \equiv \frac{dv}{dt}$ , and  $T$ . We can return to this more "fundamental" form of the model and explore the effect of the dynamics of heat transfer, reflected by the thermal time constant.

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = w.$$

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \left( \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10} [1 + \alpha (T - T_0)]} - 2 \right) \omega_0 w - \omega_0^2 v.$$

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{C}_f} \frac{1 + \alpha (T - T_0)}{\left[ 1 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} + \alpha (T - T_0) \right]^2} \frac{v^2}{R_{f10}} - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{R} \mathbf{C}_f} (T - T_a).$$

Note that this admits a steady state solution for all values of the "control parameter"  $R_{f2}$  :

$$v = 0, w = \frac{dv}{dt} = 0, \text{ and } T = T_a.$$

Thus when an oscillation appears, it is a new solution that is said to "bifurcate" from the steady-state solution.

In [ ]:

```
# TO BE ADDED: rescaling and code to integrate the above system of three equations.
```

## Method of Averaging

NOTE: THIS PART IS STILL IN PREPARATION AND SHOULD BE IGNORED FOR NOW. EVENTUALLY IT WILL LEAD TO THE PREDICTION THAT THE SCALED AMPLITUDE GROWS LIKE  $2\sqrt{\epsilon}$ .

We will return to the single nonlinear equation in  $v_o$ .

$$\frac{d^2 v_o}{dt^2} - (\epsilon - \delta v_o^2) \omega_0 \frac{dv_o}{dt} + \omega_0^2 v_o = 0.$$

where

$$\epsilon \equiv \frac{R_{f2}}{R_{f10}} - 2.$$

$$\delta \equiv \frac{2}{9} \frac{\alpha \Re}{R_{f10}}.$$

We are going to assume that the the solution will evolve from the simple sinsoidal solution when the nonlinear term is turned on  $\delta > 0$ .

$$v_o(t) = A(t) \cos[\omega_0 t + \phi(t)].$$

$$\frac{dv_o(t)}{dt} = -\omega_0 A(t) \sin[\omega_0 t + \phi(t)].$$

Our goal is to find equations for the amplitude function  $A(t)$  and the phase function  $\phi(t)$ .

*To be continued...*