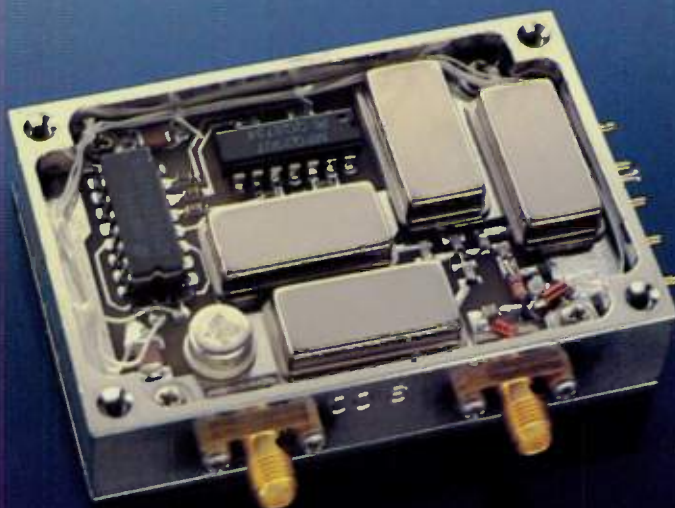


# RF design

engineering principles and practices

November 1990

*featured technology*  
**High Performance Design**



*official show issue*  
**RF Expo East**

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### featured technology

#### 39 Experiments with Primitive FET Mixers

This article discusses some pioneering work in Gallium Arsenide integrated circuit design. This work represents developments aimed at creating high performance, high frequency circuits with greater complexity and capability than currently available.

— Wes Hayward

#### 51 Dynamic Evaluation of High Speed, High Resolution D/A Converters

Data sheet specifications for D/A converters often reflect performance under conditions unlike those in the considered application. The author presents an advanced technique for determining the actual performance of high speed D/A converters.

— James Colotti

#### 67 Measurement of Analog-to-Digital Converter Settling Time with Equivalent Time Sampling

Analog-to-Digital converter settling time is an important specification in a variety of applications. This article presents a technique for measuring settling time in high speed ADCs.

— Thomas Hack

### emc corner

#### 79 Application of Shielded Cables

Shielded cables are critical to the proper operation of RF and microwave instruments. The proper usage of shielded cables to isolate instruments from interference is discussed in this article.

— Thomas Jerse

### design awards

#### 85 Log Fidelity Test Fixture

This design describes a method and an apparatus for testing the accuracy of logarithmic amplifiers. The paper includes practical design information that can be applied to many other circuits as well.

— James English

#### 93 New Products Featured at RF Expo East

#### 98 A Review of the Program BAND

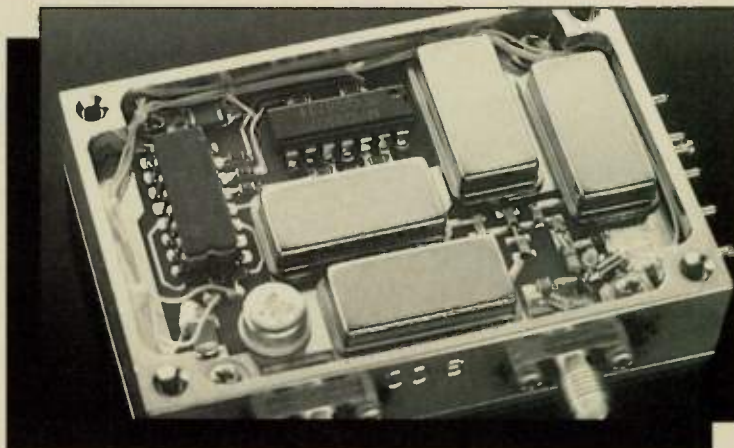
BAND, a program used to design LC bandpass filters, is discussed in this article. Examples are used to illustrate its usefulness.

— David Greene

#### 102 Broadband Impedance Matching by Polynomial Synthesis

This article describes the program MATCHD used to synthesize a polynomial equalizer reflection coefficient function directly from source and load S-parameters for the design of broadband matching networks.

— David Lang



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decades ahead

## RF editorial

# Trends in the Industry



Gary A. Breed  
Editor

Every once in a while, I notice a change in the emphasis of RF engineers' work. The questions you ask, the products you want to know about, the articles submitted for publication, papers for the RF Expos, and our monthly surveys all tell me what you are working on. It is fascinating to watch the "hot topics" change as engineers make the effort to learn about new technology, develop it, then move on to the next challenge.

Here are some of the things that a significant number of RF engineers are currently working on. I'll be asking about these applications at RF Expo East, since many of the papers to be presented in Orlando cover these topics:

**Part 15 Spread Spectrum.** Recent rule changes setting the standards for spread spectrum consumer and commercial products have generated a lot of activity. Wireless computer peripherals and wireless data transmission for networking and remote input devices seem to be the leading applications. Audio and video consumer products are being actively pursued, as well.

**Susceptibility Testing.** While not far into the implementation stage, engineers are getting up to speed in this area. The primary motivation is Europe 1992 and the proposed immunity requirements for electronic products. Another reason is simply a growing awareness of the problems that sensitive electronics face — partly because of the growing use of high-speed (broadband RF!) computing devices, and partly due to slowly growing pressure from the government, military, and consumer groups. One more active area involves safety considerations as electro-mechanical components are replaced with electronics in automotive and industrial equipment.

**Analog and Digital Signal Processing.** Included in this group are engineers working on the A/D and D/A conversion process for RF and IF applications, high performance radar, medical imaging, and ultra-wideband video, and advanced consumer products. Analog designers are looking closely at technology which only recently reached radio frequencies, such as monolithic analog switching and multiplexing, op amps, and active filters.

**Scientific Research.** Although I haven't completely determined the reasons, it is apparent that a lot of RF work is in research. Plasma generators, laser drivers, plus medical imaging and treatment are a significant part, but particle physics is the biggest. It seems that a number of institutions are building new modest-sized linear accelerators and cyclotrons, or upgrading existing facilities with superconducting magnetics and new RF accelerating sources. There are efforts to develop commercial markets for small particle accelerators.

**Broadband Data Networks.** Both coaxial and fiber optic networks are seeing lots of engineering work. Some time ago, this work shifted from "learning how it works" to developing operating systems, but the quantity of work is substantial. Applications include everything from hospital patient monitoring networks to replacing cable bundles in military aircraft. Advanced fiber optics and high-density office systems represent major efforts.

It will be interesting to see where some of these engineering efforts lead, and when they become well-understood, what new avenues will be opened for exploration. As new ideas develop, *RF Design* will be here to see that engineers have a place to share the results of their efforts.

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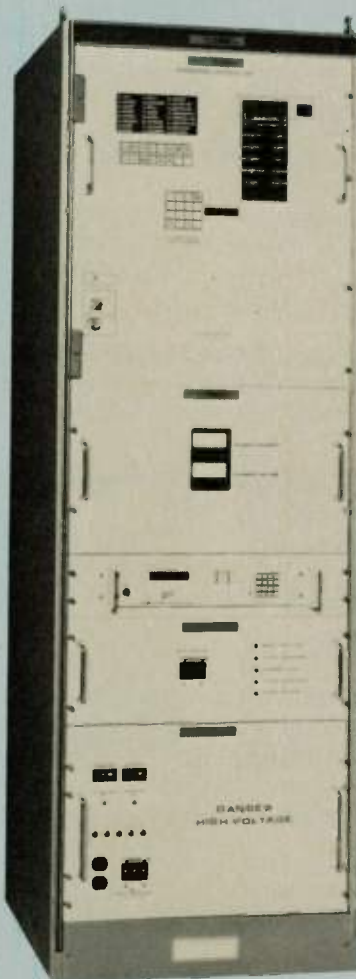
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- Minimum crest factor 5:1
- Flat response— $\pm 0.75$  dB
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The NC 1000 Series amplified noise modules are designed for applications that require injection of noise at high levels, and are available with a wide variety of options.

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- Noise output rise and fall times less than 1  $\mu$ S
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- Noise output variation with temperature less than 0.01 dB/° C
- Noise output with voltage less than 0.1 dB/%  $\Delta$  V
- Operating temperature -55 to +85° C
- Storage temperature -65 to +125° C
- Maximum input power +28 VDC at 20 mA

The NC 3000 Series are well suited for receiver testing, noise figure measurements, and any application requiring broad bandwidth, and fast switching time with coaxial connections.

## Calibrated millimeter-wave waveguide noise sources



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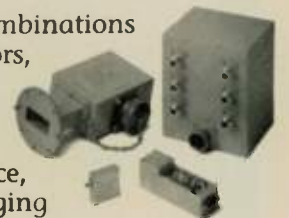
18 to 110 GHz

- Narrow or wideband performance with low or high output
- Noise output rise and fall times less than 1  $\mu$ S
- VSWR less than 1.35:1
- Noise output variation with temperature less than 0.01 dB/° C
- Noise output with voltage less than 0.1 dB/%  $\Delta$  V
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- Storage temperature -65 to +125° C
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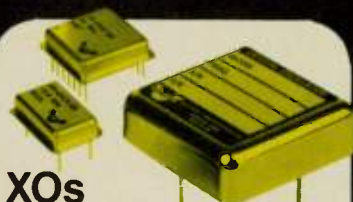
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- Instruments for NPR testing
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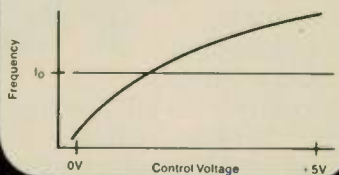
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S. Syracuse Way, Suite 650, Englewood, CO 80111. Tel: (303)  
220-0600; (800) 525-9154.

**27-28**

#### Technology 2000

DC Hilton Hotel, Washington, DC  
Information: Bill Schnirring or Joe Pramberger, NASA Tech  
Briefs' Editor at NASA Tech Briefs, 41 East 42nd St., Suite  
921, NY, NY 10017. Tel: (212) 490-3999.

**27-29**

#### Federal High Tech '91

Boston Park Plaza Hotel & Towers, Boston, MA  
Information: Federal High Tech '91, c/o E.H. Pechan &  
Associates, Inc., 5537 Hempstead Way, Springfield, VA 22151.  
Tel: (703) 941-4490.

### December

**4-6**

#### Twenty-Second Annual Precise Time and Time Interval Applications and Planning Meeting

Sheraton Premiere Hotel, Tysons Corner, VA  
Information: Paul F. Kuhnle, MS/298-100, Jet Propulsion  
Laboratory, 4800 Oak Grove Drive, Pasadena, CA 91109. Tel:  
(818) 354-2715.

**5-7**

#### Ultrasonics Symposium

Honolulu Hilton, Honolulu, HI  
Information: LRW Associates, 1218 Balfour Drive, Arnold, MD  
21012. Tel: (301) 647-1591.

**9-12**

#### 1990 IEEE International Electron Devices Meeting

San Francisco Hilton, San Francisco, CA  
Information: Melissa Widerkehr, IEDM, Suite 300, 655 15th  
Street, NW, Washington, DC 20005. Tel: (202) 347-5900. Fax:  
(202) 347-6109.

### January

**14-16**

#### 4th Annual International Superconductor Applications Convention

Red Lion Hotel, San Diego, CA  
Information: SCAA, 27692 Deputy Circle, Laguna Hills, CA  
92653. Tel: (800) 854-8263 or (714) 362-9701. Fax: (714)  
362-9803.

**15-17**

#### ATE & Instrumentation West

Disneyland Hotel, Anaheim, CA  
Information: Tel: (800) 223-7126 or (617) 232-3976.

**22-24**

#### Hyper 91, Microwave Technology Exhibition and Congress

Palais des Congres, Paris, France  
Information: B.I.R.P., 25 rue d'Astorg, 75008 Paris, France.  
Tel: 33-(1)-4742-2021. Fax: 33-(1)-4742-7568.

**28-31**

#### Communications Networks '91

Washington Convention Center, Washington, DC  
Information: Michael Sullivan. Tel: (508) 820-8268.





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- Operating temperature -55 to +85° C
- Storage temperature -65 to +175° C
- Temperature coefficient 0.01 dB/° C
- 50-ohm output impedance

### Custom noise subsystems

#### Special products for unique applications

- Custom combinations of connectors, operating voltages, electrical performance, and packaging
- Multiple outputs
- Instruments for NPR testing
- Switched noise sources

### Amplified noise modules

#### NC 1000 Series

DC to 2000 MHz

- High power—up to 13 dBm
- Minimum crest factor 5:1
- Flat response— $\pm 0.75$  dB
- Operating temperature -35 to +100° C
- Storage temperature -65 to +150° C

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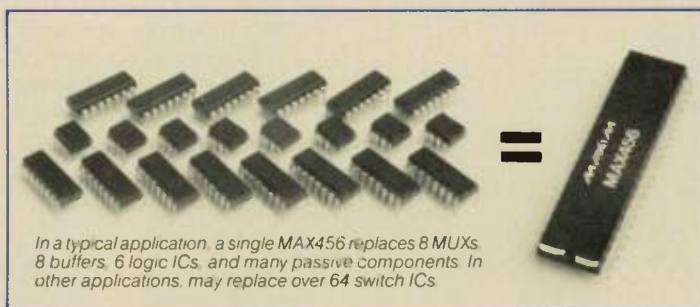
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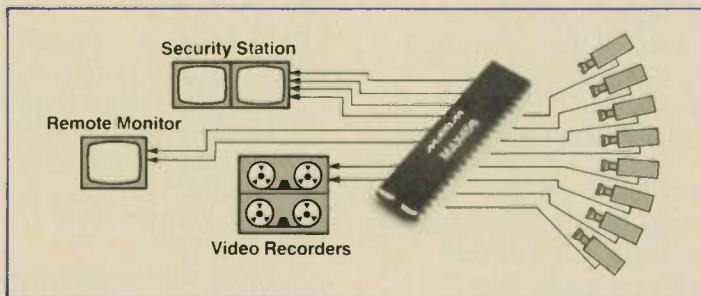


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INFO/CARD 10



Letters should be addressed to Editor, *RF Design*, 6300 S. Syracuse Way, Suite 650, Englewood, CO 80111.

## Transmission Line Matching Circuits

Editor:  
In reference to "Design of Transmission Line Matching Circuits" by Stanislaw Rosloniec, *RF Design*, February 1990 and Letter to the Editor from Wolfgang Wiebach, *RF Design*, September 1990, I would like to clarify what I believe is a misunderstanding in Mr. Wiebach's "correction" to the design formulas given by Mr. Rosloniec.

Having worked through the equations involving the impedance transformation of a load impedance by a transmission line, it was straightforward to verify that Mr. Rosloniec's equations 1 and 2 were indeed correct. Furthermore, it became evident how Mr. Wiebach came up with his incorrect "correction" to Mr. Rosloniec's equation 2 for the electrical length of the line.

Mr. Wiebach argues that the formula given by Mr. Rosloniec for the electrical length of the line is incorrect and goes on to give a numerical example to verify the correctness of the alternate formula. However, the confusion lies in the fact that the formula given by Mr. Rosloniec pertains to the complex conjugate match for  $Z_1$  (for maximum power transfer) whereas the "corrected" formula given by Mr. Wiebach pertains to an impedance match to  $Z_1$ , i.e., for a minimum reflection coefficient ( $S_{11} = 0$ ). In general, for complex load impedances, the maximum power transfer condition and the minimum reflection coefficient conditions are distinct.

John K. Daher  
Georgia Tech Research Institute  
Atlanta, GA

Editor:

In the September issue of *RF Design* magazine, I found a comment on my paper "Design of Transmission Line Matching Circuits." Hence, I would like to express my gratitude to Mr. Wolfgang Wiebach from Harry Diamond Laboratories for his interest in my paper. I am sorry to say, however, that his conclusion regarding equation 2 is untrue and therefore I am obliged to reject it. In my paper it is said unequivocally that  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  denote the impedances that are to be matched. In other words, the input impedance, see Figure 1, is  $Z_1^* = R_1 - jX_1$ . Consequently, in Wiebach's numeri-

cal example, the input impedance should be assumed  $(50 - j20)$  ohms instead of  $(50 + j20)$  ohms. Let us consider the following numerical example. For  $Z_1 = (50 - j20)$  ohms and  $Z_2 = (30 - j10)$  ohms (in this case the input impedance  $Z_1^* = (50 + j20)$  ohms) from equation 2 we obtain  $\theta = 1.4550$  radians. A similar result is obtained for the following data:  $Z_1 = (50 - j20)$  ohms,  $Z_2 = (30 - j10)$  ohms,  $Z_{0max} = 43.02$  ohms, if the computer program MN-2 (distributed by the *RF Design* Software Service) is used. The above examples confirm once more that equation 2 does not contain any errors, of course, if the notation shown in Figure 1 is used. Finally, I would like to stress again that the design formulas given in Przedpelski's (Reference 5) and my papers are correct. With best regards.

Stanislaw Rosloniec  
Institute of Radioelectronics  
Warsaw Technical University

Editor:

As many RF engineers, Wolfgang Wiebach had made the common mistake of using "impedance transformation" instead of "impedance matching." Both terms refer to changing one of the terminations by a cascade network to a new value. However, transformation means "changing  $Z_1$  to become equal to  $Z_2$ " while matching implies "changing  $Z_1$  to become the complex conjugate of  $Z_2$ ."

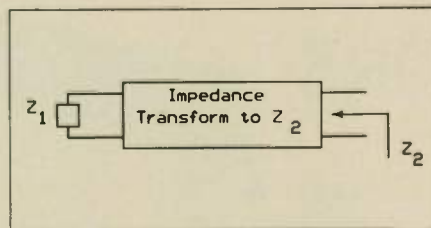


Figure 1. Impedance transform.

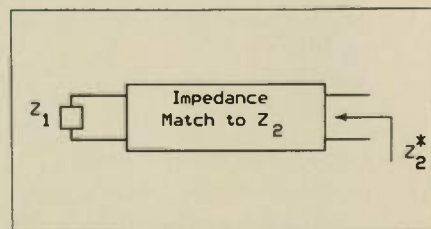


Figure 2. Impedance match.

If both terminations  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  are real,  $X_1 = X_2 = 0$ , then the two methods give the same results. When the terminations are

complex, confusing the two methods causes erroneous results.

To conclude, the expression for  $\theta$  was correct as published. Nevertheless, Mr. Wiebach was right about his second point. The proper length of the transmission line in Table 1 is 84 degrees (1.46 radian) instead of the 2.45 radian stated in the original article.

Les Besser  
Besser Associates  
Los Altos, CA

## "BAND" Program

Editor:

For those who have read the *RF Design* review of Philip Geffe's "BAND" Filter design software and are interested in reading Geffe's PRINTME file which is included on disk with "BAND", please note that I have Philip Geffe's permission to provide a free copy of his PRINTME file to anyone sending me a stamped self-addressed, business size envelope at the address given below. The "BAND" PRINTME file is equivalent to about four pages of text, and it may be of interest to those considering purchasing this software.

Edward E. Wetherhold  
1426 Catlyn Place  
Annapolis, MD 21401

## CAD Program Clarification

In Thomas Cefalo's article, "Microstrip CAD Program", October, 1990, Figure 4 was inadequately labeled. The figure is repeated below for clarification.

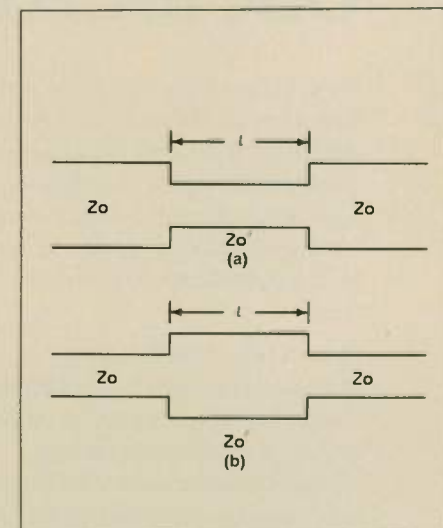


Figure 4. Microstrip inductor (a) and capacitor (b).

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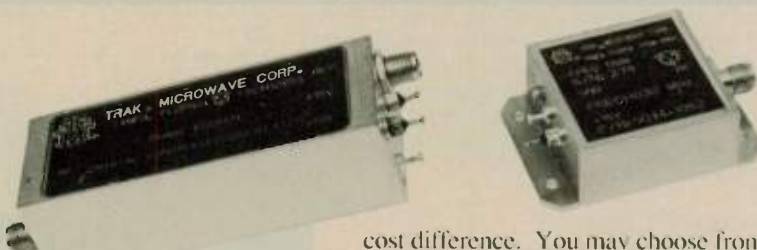
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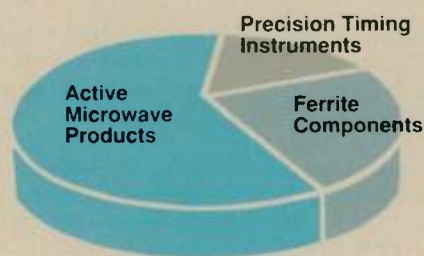
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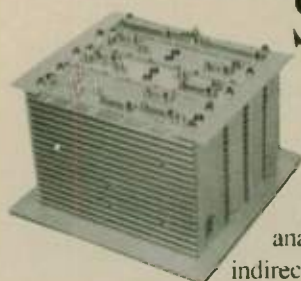


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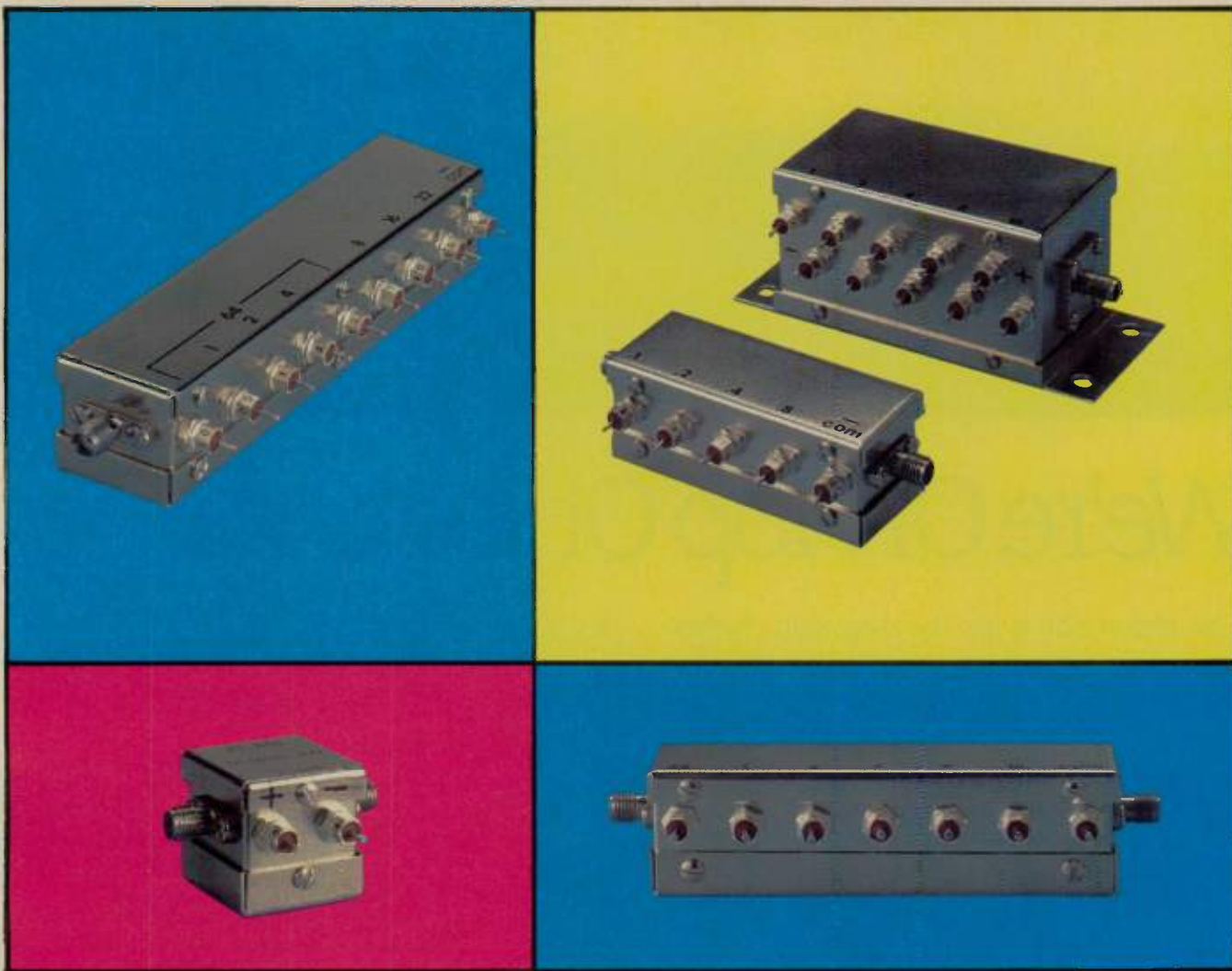
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AC3055	10-3000	10.5	10.0	3.5	4.5	18.0	31	5	56
AP2038	200-2000	10.7	10.0	3.6	4.5	23.0	36	15	150
AP2039	10-2000	10.7	10.0	5.0	5.5	24.5	38.5	15	175
AP2048	200-2000	9.0	8.0	4.8	5.5	23.0	39	15	150
AP2648	200-2600	7.5	6.5	5.5	6.0	23.0	37	15	150
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dent Peter McCloskey indicated that the figures were very encouraging and exporting is helping to sustain the industry's overall growth.

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QBH-118	3-100	16.3	0.4	0.8	13.0	11.0	1.9	2.1	35	35	27/38	25/35	15/21	22	\$80
QBH-120	5-500	14.5	0.6	1.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	2.3	26	26	14/18	13/17	15/11	11	\$95
QBH-841	5-100	19.0	0.5	0.7	4.5	3.0	1.5	1.8	35	34	17/24	16/22	15/11	11	\$85
QBH-838	50-500	15.0	0.6	1.0	1.0	0.0	1.5	1.8	25	24	14/18	13/17	15/9	9	\$95

Q-bit standard product TO-8 designs, like the amplifiers above, are also available in a flatpack with leads formed for surface-mounting as an option.

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**Inexpensive Frequency Calibration Service Available** — The NIST Automated Computer Time Service (ACTS), a dial-up service begun in 1988, can also act as an inexpensive frequency calibration service. NIST researchers have found that a frequency calibration accuracy of better than one part in a billion is readily available from a single long telephone call or from a sequence of short calls averaged over a few days. The system will work with modems at 300 bits/second or 1200 bits/second. Modems at 300 bits/seconds seem to offer better stability. Paper no. 44-90 describes the service and is available from Jo Emery, Div. 104, NIST, Boulder, CO 80303. The cost of hardware and software for ACTS is only about \$100. Access ACTS by dialing (303) 497-4774. Software can be obtained for \$36 from the Standard Reference Materials Program, Rm. 204, Bldg. 202, NIST, Gaithersburg, MD 20899. Tel: (301) 975-6776. Ask for Automated Computer Time Service, Rm. 8101.

**U.S.-Japan Program Exceeds Goals** — A joint U.S.-Japan cooperative R&D effort has recently achieved a significant accomplishment in fusion energy research at the Japan Atomic Energy Research Institute. The effort is being carried out by JAERI of Japan, Toshiba, General Atomics and Varian Associates. A prototype tetrode tube, set a world record for power generation by providing 1.7 megawatts of power for 5.4 second pulses at 131 MHz, exceeding the goal of 1.5 MW for five second pulses at 130 MHz established by the U.S. Department of Energy and JAERI. This goal was established to meet the next-generation requirements of their experimental fusion energy programs.



Development of the tube and the recently completed tests were sponsored by the U.S. DOE and JAERI. The tetrode, developed by Varian, offers enhanced anode dissipation which allows the tube to work in a much wider variation of load conditions, opening up a greater range of experimental possibilities.

#### **M/A-COM Division Established —**

The Solid State Products Division and the Passive Component Division of M/A-COM have been consolidated into the Control Components Division. Their 100,000 square foot facility has been renovated and now has three class 10 clean rooms. Some of the technologies now available are: CAD/CAM, Computer Integrated Manufacturing and Statistical Process Control in addition to the division's Total Quality Management program.

#### **Alford Manufacturing Acquired by Teleplex —**

The Alford Manufacturing Company has been acquired by Teleplex. Teleplex is currently supplying an adaptive FM broadcast antenna array to Broadcast Services. The antenna system will serve four full power FM stations at a time. Teleplex will continue to supply the Alford broadcast antenna systems, transmission line components, precision test equipment and other telecommunications products. Dr. Andrew Alford, the founder of Alford Manufacturing will remain as a consultant to the company.

#### **Advanced Absorber Incorporated into Arlon Microwave Materials —**

Bairnco Corporation, the parent company of Arlon and Advanced Absorber has announced the merger of two of its subsidiaries. Advanced Absorber manufactures broadband, carbon loaded film products, tuned frequency magnetic and dielectric absorbing materials, loaded honeycomb, radar absorbing structures and radomes. Arlon manufactures PTFE laminates for high-yield circuit production. All engineering, manufacturing, research and development, quality control and customer service functions will continue to operate from Advanced Absorber's facility. Marketing and sales will be handled through Arlon.

**Scientific-Atlanta SEDAT™ Technology to be Used for Satellite System Upgrade —** Scientific-Atlanta's new digital-audio satellite transmission technology has been chosen

by the ABC Radio Network to triple their channel capacity on the SATCOM F1R satellite and to send compact disk quality transmissions to its affiliates. Spectrum Efficient Digital Audio Technology (SEDAT) allows transmission of up to 80 CD-quality (20 kHz) channels per typical satellite transponder. It can also lower transmission costs by as much as 75 percent over analog sys-

tems. ABC Radio Network will convert its broadcast network to SEDAT-based hardware.

#### **EESof Announces Move —**

EESof recently announced their move to larger facilities. Their new address is: 5601 Lindero Canyon Road, Westlake Village, CA 91362-4020. Their phone and fax numbers remain the same.

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As low as 1 min

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INFO/CARD 17



**Watkins-Johnson Wins Subsystems Contract** — Watkins-Johnson recently announced they have been awarded a \$12.3 million contract by Hughes Aircraft Company, Missile Systems Group. The contract is for radio frequency processors and data-link receivers for the Advanced Medium-Range Air-to-Air Missile.

**Harris RF Delivers Command and Control Center** — Harris RF Communications has just completed construction and delivery of a Mobile Command Center for a Middle East customer. The center consists of a custom communications shelter on a four-wheel drive vehicle, with a companion generator trailer, providing a totally self-sufficient system. Data communications are controlled by Harris' Universal HF Modem, which provides data rates up to 2400 bps over HF channels under a variety of link conditions. The modem supports both frequency shift keying and time differential phase shift keying techniques, and can be used for full or half-duplex operation, with synchronous or asynchronous data terminals.

**ASM Software Changes Name** — ASM Software Inc., recently changed their name to Artwork Conversion Software Inc. to avoid confusion with software of the American Society for Metals. Their product line remains the same.

**Hughes Microwave Now Offering GaAs MMICs** — Gallium arsenide monolithic microwave integrated circuits are now being designed and fabricated for outside customers at Hughes Aircraft Company's new GaAs design center and foundry. While the Torrance facility has been producing MMICs for internal use for the past year, they are just now offering similar services to outside customers. It currently produces circuits for such applications as phased-array radar, automotive radar and mobile satellite communications. For more information, contact: Hughes Microwave Products Division, PO Box 2940, Torrance, CA 90509. Tel: (213) 517-6600.

**Hamilton Engineering Wins Shielding System Contract** — Bechtel National recently awarded a \$140,000 contract to Hamilton Engineering to assist them in designing, building and testing an electromagnetic (radio frequency) shielding system for a new Titan IV Mobile Service Tower at Cape Canav-

eral, FL. Hamilton will design the electromagnetic shielding seals for the tower's doors, some of which are 120 feet high. They will also devise methods of testing the entire structure for electromagnetic leakage.

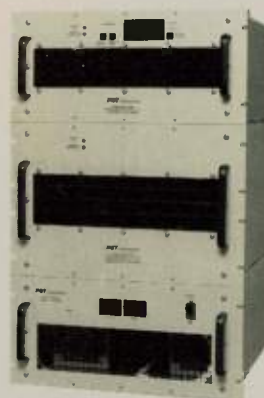
**M/A-COM Awarded Navy Subcontract** — M/A-COM Microwave Power Devices, Inc. has received a \$16.5 million contract from Raytheon's Equip-

ment Division, for a major portion of the solid state transmitter on the U.S. Navy Relocatable Over-the-Horizon Radar (ROTHR). ROTHR is a bistatic, ionosphere backscatter radar system that can track approaching naval and airborne threats. The system has all solid state transmitters and is more automated than other over-the-horizon systems making it suitable for siting in remote locations.

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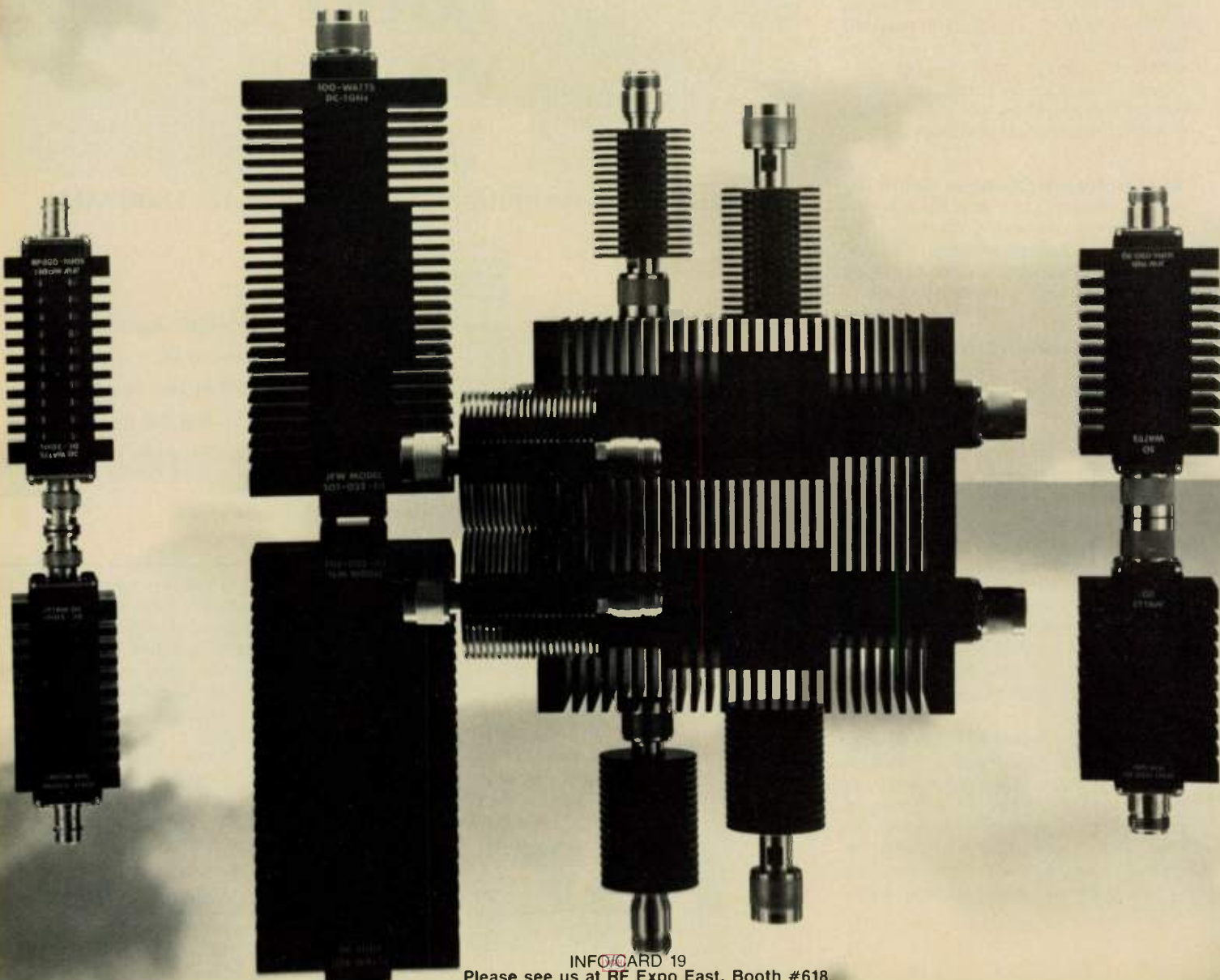
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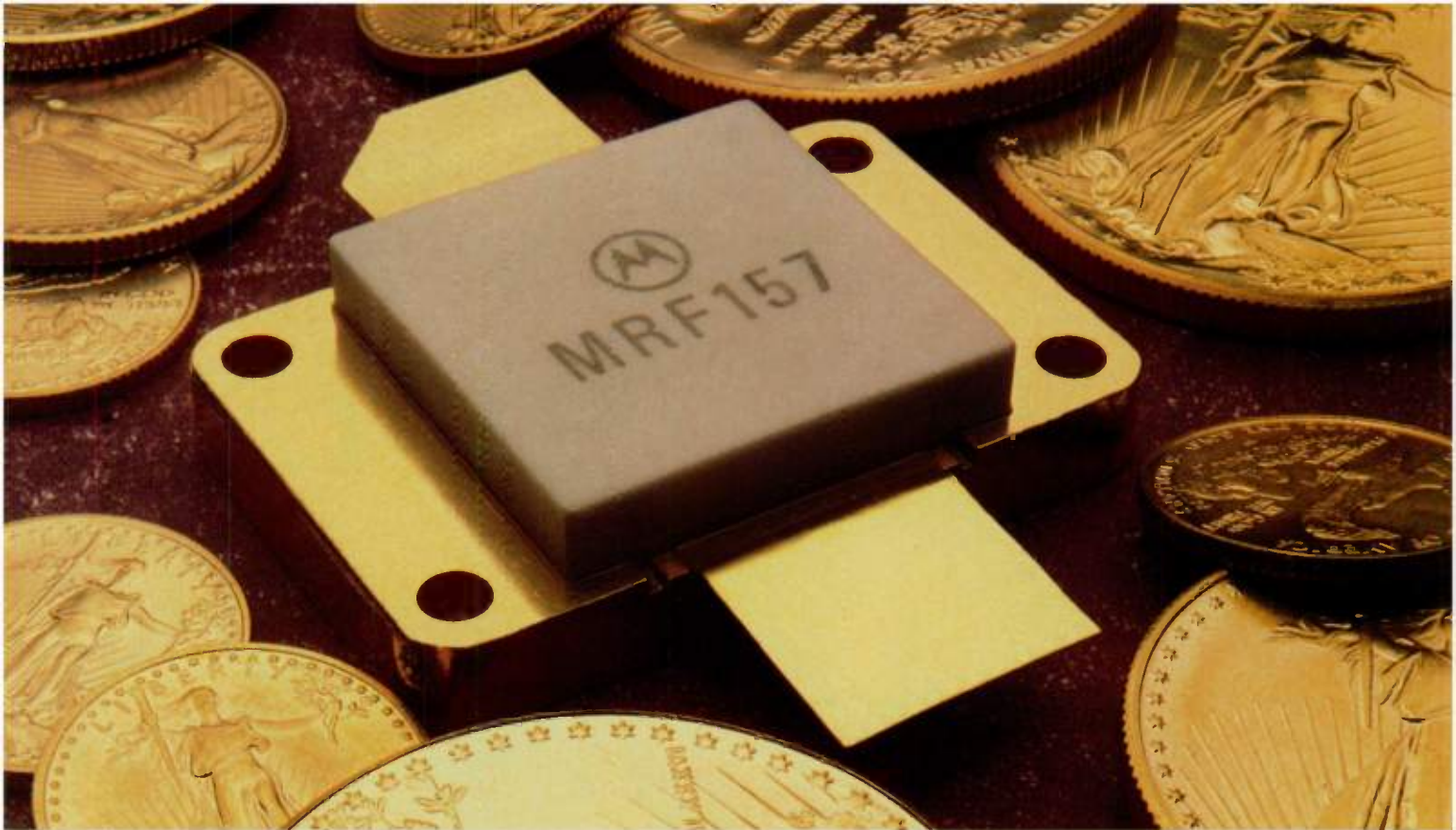
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Part #	Top Metal	P <sub>o</sub> Watts	Frequency MHz	Gain	V <sub>DD</sub> Volts
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MRF141G	Al	300	175	14	28
MRF151G	Al	300	175	16	50
MRF175GU	Al	150	400	12	28
MRF176GU	Al	150	400	14	50
MRF141	Al	150	175	10	28
MRF151	Al	150	175	13	50
MRF164W <sup>2</sup>	Al	20	400	17	28
MRF166C <sup>2</sup>	Al	20	400	17	28
MRF160R <sup>2</sup>	Al	4	400	20	28
MRF158R <sup>2</sup>	Al	2	400	20	28

<sup>1</sup> Currently being supplied as customer special. <sup>2</sup> To be introduced in Q1, 91.

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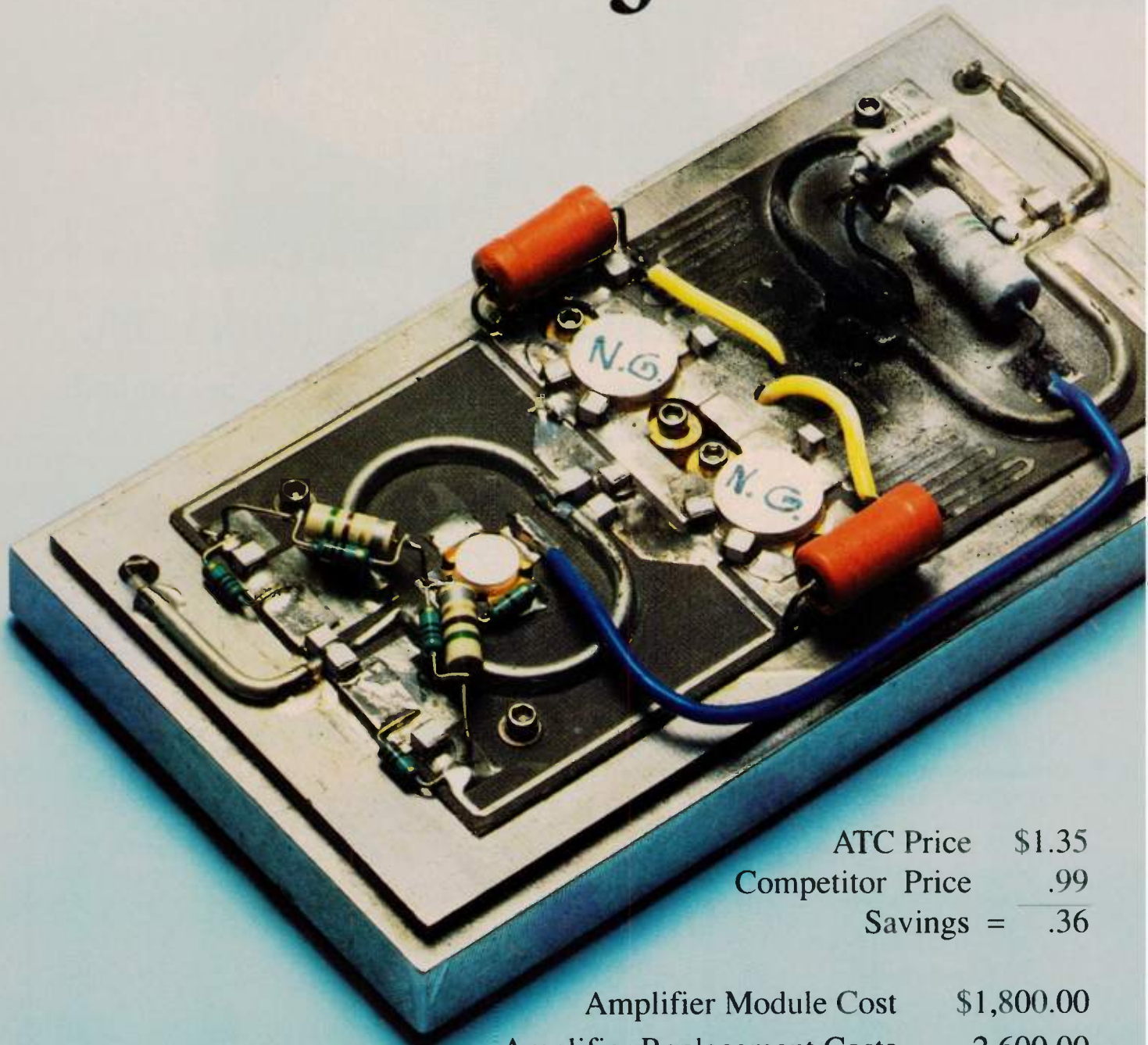
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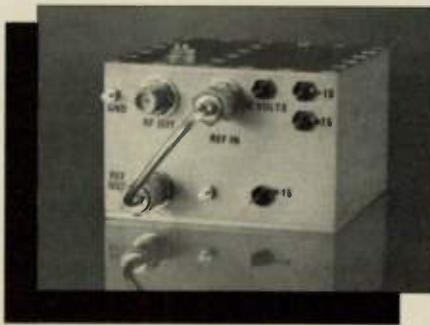
# Military Subsystems: A Waiting Game

By Liane Pomfret and Charles Howshar,  
Assistant Editors

**W**hile there has been a great deal of talk lately concerning the loss of funding for the military budget, the RF military subsystems industry has been largely unaffected. Subsystems have not suffered the same fate as major programs like the B-2 Bomber or the Strategic Defense Initiative. Andy Przedpelski, Vice President, Development at ARF Products observes, "Future contracts, -SDI, B-2, etc., will be cut because of the warming relations in Eastern Europe. The urgency for them has been reduced." However, since subsystem uses are more widespread, they are more resilient in the face of changes in the defense industry.

Military customers are realizing the advantages of integrating a multifunction assembly into a system. It saves them both time and money. Carl Schraufnagl, Vice President of Marketing for KDI/Triangle Electronics points out, "Customers are recognizing the benefits of subsystems versus individual components." "We do see the trend towards vertical integration as well as the need to reduce package size," he adds. There are some problems with this, however. "Systems houses are trying to do subsystem work themselves and those using SAW products are not always successful because they don't know the technology very well. They seem to be forcing the engineers to do subsystem integration without training them. This can be frustrating for customers trying to upgrade their systems," observes Maura Fox, Director of Marketing for Thomson-ICS.

Training has become necessary as more companies move from component design to subassembly design. Engineers and companies are learning that the better their training, the better the product and productivity. Henry Eisensohn, President of Sciteq believes that, "A year from now the average performance of our engineering community will be substantially improved, because the engineers comprising the lowest 40% will be gone." Companies are no longer looking for specialists; they're looking for engineers who are capable of designing a subsystem. "You need hybrid people for hybrid devices," remarks Peter Campbell, Avantek's Product Marketing Manager for Amps and Assemblies.



Some companies are feeling the pinch from the industry's slowdown. According to Tom Roberts, Senior Vice President/Marketing Director for TRAK Microwave, "The impact is already here. Because of delays in contracts, we're not getting the trickle down (subcontracts) that we used to. However, there will be a lot of upgrading of systems, so there is an alternative." David Chambers, Engineering Vice President at K&L Microwave points out, "We've been going month to month waiting for the crunch but it hasn't come. It's the hardest it's ever been to predict these things."

Despite a gloomy forecast from industry watchdogs, the military subsystems market is still showing some growth. Among several reasons for this is the fact that retrofitting or upgrading older systems is a constant necessity. Start-up costs for new systems are too high and, in a time of mandatory budget cuts, there is very little money to be found for new projects. According to Henry Eisensohn, "I think we're going to see upgrades to existing systems as opposed to new systems." Peter Campbell agrees, "It will be difficult for anyone to start new projects." Frank Perkins, Vice President of Marketing at RF Monolithics comments on the possible effects of a Mideast crisis, "If we were to have a military conflict in the Gulf, it could have an effect on the military market -all the way down to spare parts, and it could cause a dramatic increase in demand for subsystems."

The most active areas are in the communications and radar sectors. As the need for weapons subsystems decreases, the demand for information has been increasing; a trend that has surprised few people. Across the board

companies see communications, or in some cases C<sup>3</sup>I as the most promising area. "There's still a lot of need for communications," says Frank Sasselli, Engineering Manager at Microwave Modules and Devices. Dave Krautheimer, Director of Marketing at RHG concurs, "Some areas will get better — mostly in communications and ELINT."

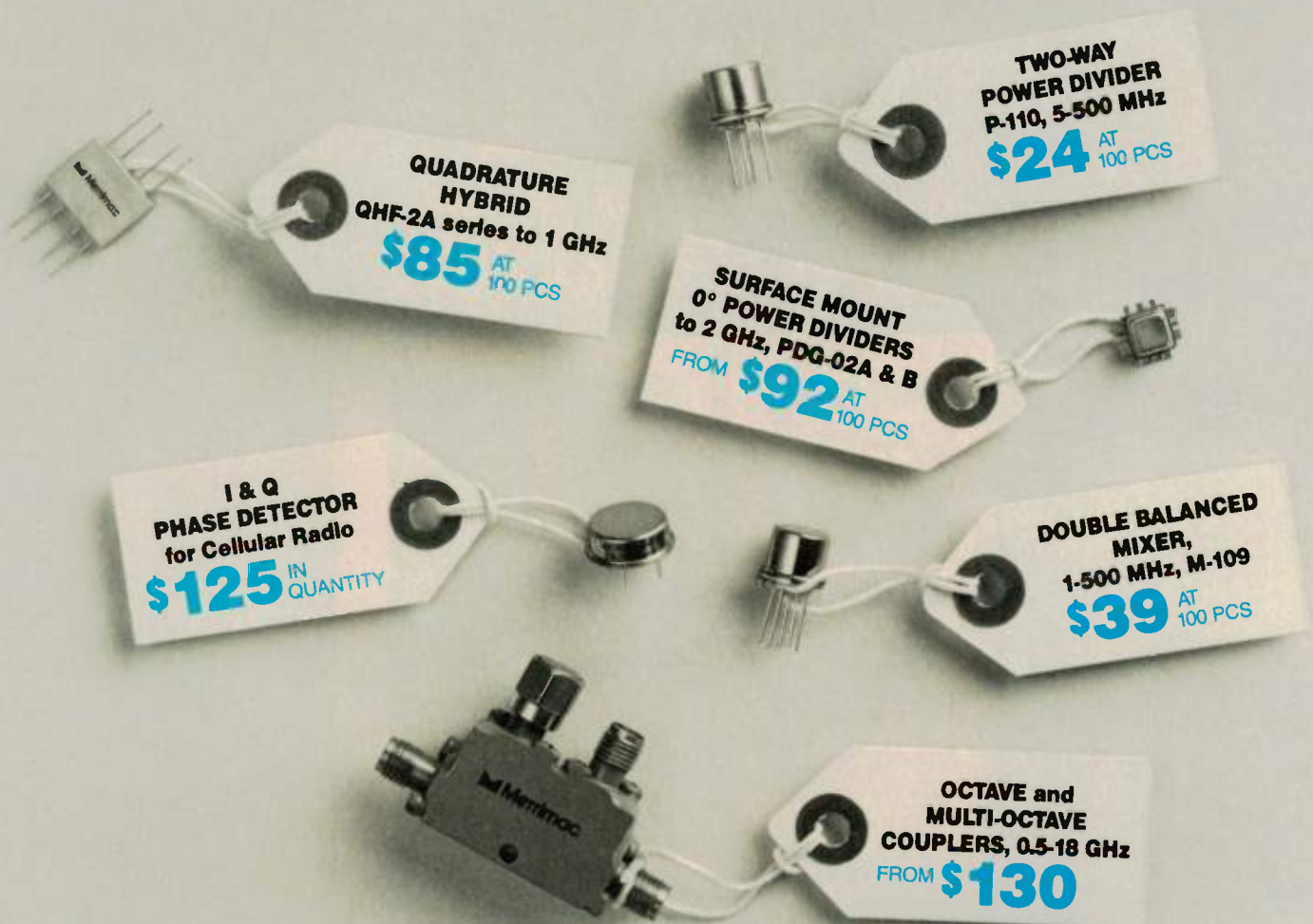
One advantage in the industry is size. Smaller seems to be better in these days of financial uncertainty. By all appearances, the smaller companies are doing better than their big brothers. Since their overhead is smaller, they are better able to adjust to changes in the market. P. Wahi, President of Antenna Research comments, "Smaller companies have been gearing down for the cuts, shifting their product line. Larger companies wanted to take a bigger risk. Now it's a difficult situation for them. If they don't get the contracts it will be a big deception for them." Gary Simonyan, President of Noise Com notes, "As a small company we're excited by what is happening. We're so busy, we can't keep up with the orders," — a promising sign for a company that has been in the military subsystems market for just over six months. Sandy Edberg, Division Sales Manager for the Microwave Product Division at Hughes Aircraft has seen the same trend, "We are working with a number of small businesses that indicate they are profitable in the first year of operation."

Despite these signs, companies are hedging their bets by moving into the commercial sector. "The long term solution to the RF industry is finding a commercial application for military products, so that the industry is not subject to the 5 to 7 year cycles of the defense industry," says P. Wahi. But there are difficulties in finding commercial applications for military subsystems in that the cost of a device is so high that commercial production is often unfeasible.

The number of unknown variables — the changing political climate of Europe, the Mideast crisis, the U.S. budget — makes it difficult to predict the future of the military subsystems market. There is no doubt that there are large changes on the horizon, but what they will lead to is still unknown.

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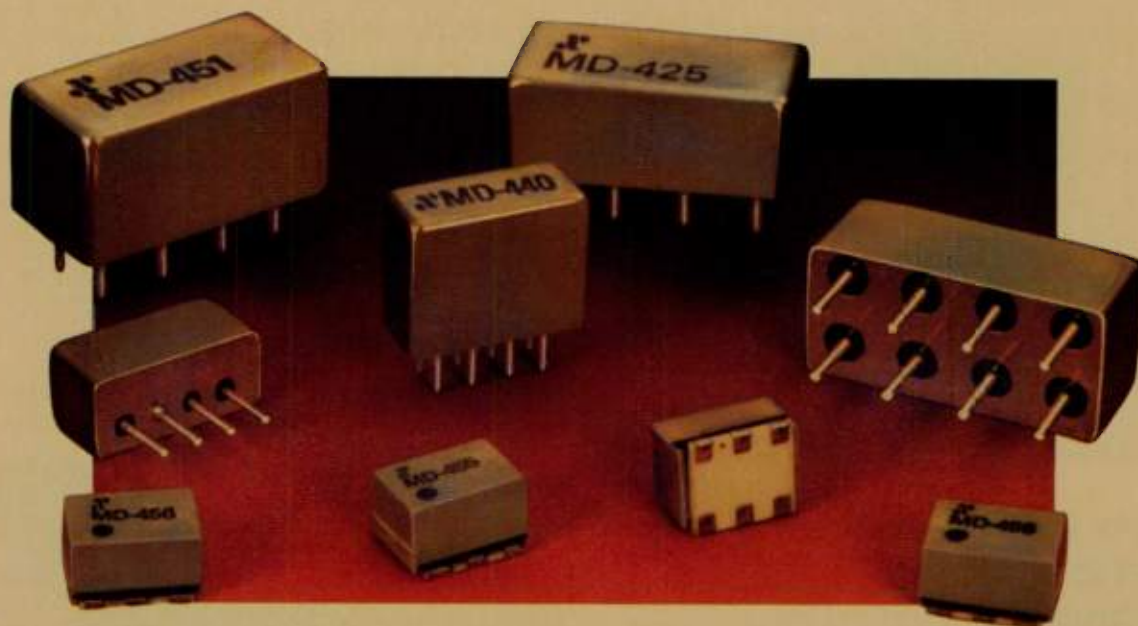


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MD-401	0.2-400	DC-400	6.0	50	45	0	+7
MD-428	1-400	DC-400	5.5	55	45	-1	+7
MD-410	0.5-500	DC-500	5.0	50	40	-2	+7
MD-413	0.5-500	DC-500	6.0	50	45	+9	+17
MD-411	0.6-500	DC-500	5.0	50	35	-2	+7
MD-426	1-500	DC-500	5.5	50	40	0	+7
MD-455	1-500	DC-500	7.0	50	45	+1	+7
MD-403	2-500	DC-500	6.5	50	45	+13	+17
MD-441	2.5-500	DC-500	6.0	60	45	+1	+7
MD-450	5-500	DC-500	6.5	45	45	+17	+23
MD-435	0.5-600	DC-600	5.5	55	45	+2	+7
MD-440	1-1000	DC-1000	5.5	45	40	-1	+7
MD-400	1-1000	DC-1000	6.5	50	45	+2	+7
MD-412	1-1000	0.5-500	5.0	40	30	-1	+7
MD-414	2-1000	DC-1000	6.5	45	35	+9	+17
MD-404	5-1000	DC-1000	6.5	48	45	+14	+17
MD-456	5-1000	DC-1000	7.0	40	35	+2	+7
MD-427	10-1000	5-500	5.5	50	40	+1	+7
MD-406	5-1200	DC-1200	7.5	45	40	+13	+17
MD-402	5-1250	DC-1250	6.5	45	40	+2	+7
MD-415	2-2000	0.5-500	7.0	45	35	+5	+10
MD-425	5-2000	10-600	8.0	45	35	+2	+7
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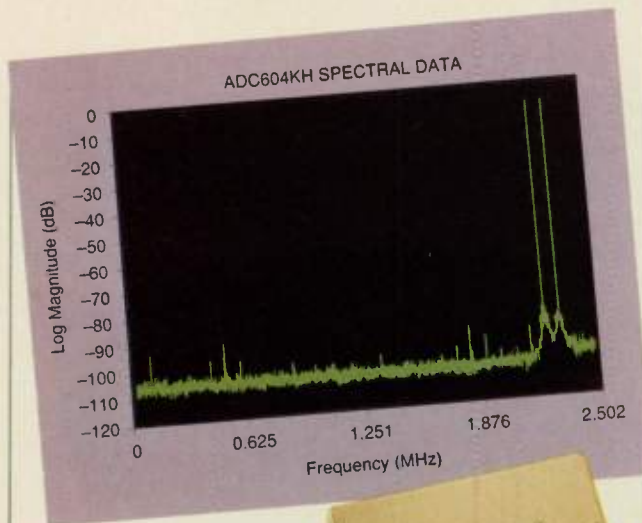
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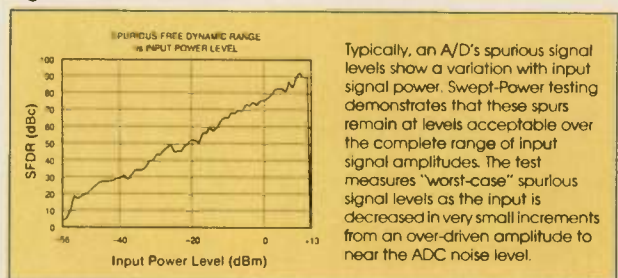
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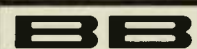
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Figure 1



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6	16	26	36	46	56	66	76	86	96	106	116	126	136	146	156	166	176	186	196	206	216	226
7	17	27	37	47	57	67	77	87	97	107	117	127	137	147	157	167	177	187	197	207	217	227
8	18	28	38	48	58	68	78	88	98	108	118	128	138	148	158	168	178	188	198	208	218	228
9	19	29	39	49	59	69	79	89	99	109	119	129	139	149	159	169	179	189	199	209	219	229
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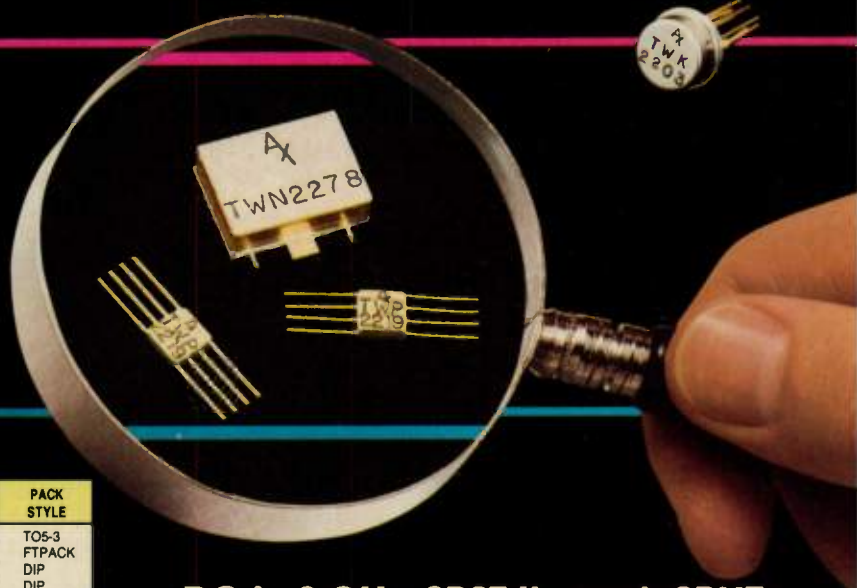
If unable to interview, please send resume to Walter D. McFall, Box-J-APS-(Box#)-4E, Employment and Placement, ARGONNE NATIONAL LABORATORY, 9700 South Cass Avenue, Argonne, IL 60439. Argonne is an equal opportunity/affirmative action employer. (Use your PC to learn more about ANL and other available opportunities. Dial (508) 263-3857 and key in the password ARGON.)



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TWK2203	SPDT	DC-3000	0.8	50	1.15	50	0/-5V	TO5-3
TWP2204	SPDT	DC-3000	0.8	50	1.15	50	0/-5V	FTPAC
TWD2205	SPDT	5-3000	1.2	55	1.2:1	50	TTL	DIP
TWD2206	SPDT	5-3000	1.2	55	1.2:1	50	CMOS	DIP
TWP2209	SPST	DC-3000	0.7	45	1.15:1	50	0/-5V	FTPAC
TWK2213	SPST	DC-3000	0.7	55	1.15:1	50	0/-5V	TO5-3
TWP2214	SPST	DC-3000	0.7	55	1.15:1	50	0/-5V	FTPAC
TWD2215	SPST	5-3000	1.0	60	1.2:1	50	TTL	DIP
TWD2216	SPST	5-3000	1.0	60	1.2:1	50	CMOS	DIP
TWD2217	SPDT	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	OPEN	TTL	DIP
TWD2218	SPDT	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	OPEN	CMOS	DIP
TWP2219	SPDT	DC-3000	0.5	40	1.15:1	OPEN	0/-5V	FTPAC
TWK2224	SPDT	DC-2000	0.6	40	1.15:1	OPEN	TTL	TO5-3
TWP2231	SPST	5-3000	1.0	55	1.2:1	50	TTL	FTPAC
TWP2232	SPST	5-3000	1.0	55	1.2:1	50	CMOS	FTPAC
TWP2233	SPDT	5-2000	1.0	50	1.2:1	50	TTL	FTPAC
TWP2234	SPDT	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	OPEN	TTL	FTPAC
TWP2238	SPDT	5-3000	0.9	50	1.2:1	OPEN	CMOS	FTPAC
TWD2241	SP3T	5-2000	1.0	60	1.2:1	50	TTL	DIP
TWD2242	SP3T	5-2000	1.0	60	1.2:1	OPEN	TTL	DIP
TWD2244	SP3T	5-2000	1.0	60	1.2:1	50	CMOS	DIP
TWD2245	SP3T	5-2000	1.0	60	1.2:1	OPEN	CMOS	DIP
TWP2247	SP3T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	50	TTL	FTPAC
TWP2248	SP3T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	OPEN	TTL	FTPAC
TWP2251	SP3T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	50	CMOS	FTPAC
SWP2252	SP3T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	OPEN	CMOS	FTPAC
TWD2254	SP4T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	50	TTL	DIP
TWD2255	SP4T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	OPEN	TTL	DIP
TWD2257	SP4T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	50	CMOS	DIP
TWD2258	SP4T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	OPEN	CMOS	DIP
TWP2261	SP4T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	50	TTL	FTPAC
TWP2262	SP4T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	OPEN	TTL	FTPAC
TWP2264	SP4T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	50	CMOS	FTPAC
TWP2265	SP4T	5-2000	1.0	55	1.2:1	OPEN	CMOS	FTPAC
TWN2278	SPST	5-3000	0.9	55	1.1:1	50	0/-5V	SURFMT

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# Amplifonix



# Experiments with Primitive FET Mixers

By Wes Hayward  
Microwave Division,  
TriQuint Semiconductor

*The Field-Effect Transistor has been used as a mixer since it first became available in discrete form. Both junction FETs and dual-gate MOSFETs are popular, usually as active mixers. Port-to-port isolation improves when balance is incorporated in the design. Although discrete FET mixers are common, integrated Gallium Arsenide circuits are also of interest, especially at microwave frequencies. Integration of multiple circuit functions on a single chip, including mixers, offers size and cost advantages in some receivers. Integration can also improve performance, usually through better transistor matching and reduced parasitic reactance.*

The fabrication of an integrated circuit is an ever-evolving process. It is never casual, especially when compared with the methods we use with discrete components. A typical turn-around time through processing is seldom less than six weeks. Clearly, the IC design process should incorporate all available design tools.

The most powerful available tool is computer simulation. However, mixers are considerably more complicated than linear amplifiers, making them more difficult to simulate. Not only is the mixer intrinsically nonlinear, but our interest is often dominated by deviations from the normal, nonlinear behavior. It is not enough to determine conversion gain. We also wish to predict the mixer performance with regard to gain compression, LO drive dependence, noise figure, and intermodulation distortion.

SPICE (1) is a major nonlinear design tool used at TriQuint. Programs using harmonic balance (2) are growing in acceptance. Both program types depend upon the availability of accurate device models (3).

While computer simulation methods

continue to grow, they do not replace experimental circuits. Early breadboards of FET mixers are built with off-the-shelf components. Testing often occurs at low frequency where measurements are less complicated and instrumentation is readily available. Detailed data is not as important as the understanding of circuit topology that comes from a primitive study.

In the next phase of breadboarding, traditional circuits offering promise are rebuilt with discrete versions of normally integrated components. FETs of various types and sizes, integrated resistors, capacitors, and inductors are built in unused corners of routine wafers. The wafers are then cut into small die, cataloged, and stored for later use. The chip components are attached to a package and interconnected with a wire

bonder. The resulting "IC" is used in circuit construction. The resulting circuit performance is usually less than that available from a monolithic IC, but useful information is still gained.

The final test of an idea occurs after fabricating and packaging a monolithic integrated circuit. We frequently build "Multiple Project Chips," which provide a convenient method to test several integrated ideas. The MPC also replenishes our supply of breadboarding components.

All of these methods have been used in our quest for improved mixers. This paper emphasizes breadboarding experiments. Some of the mixers presented are easily integrated.

A test fixture, shown in Figure 1, was assembled from available components. Crystal controlled HF oscillators are

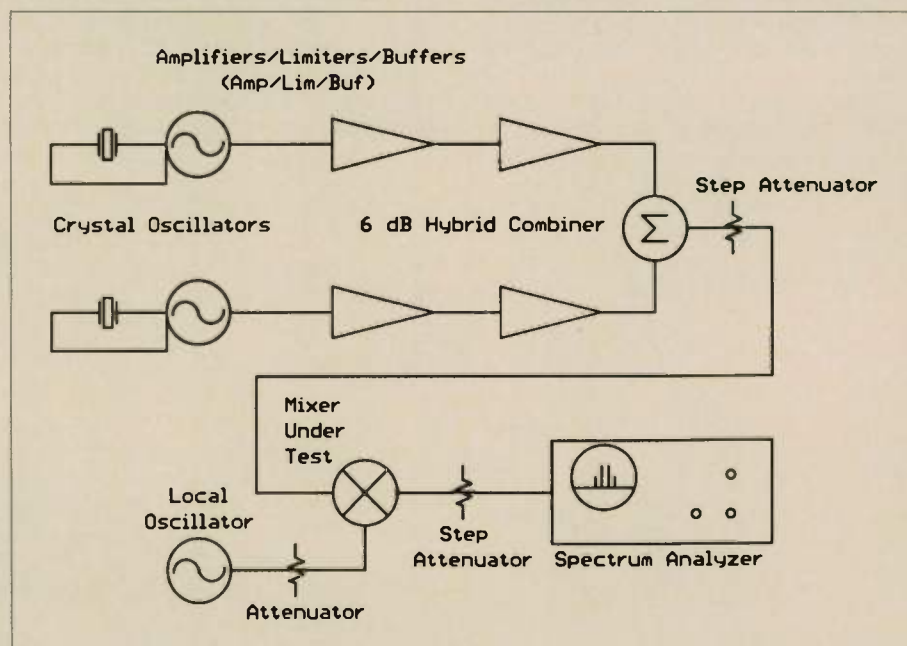


Figure 1. Test fixture.

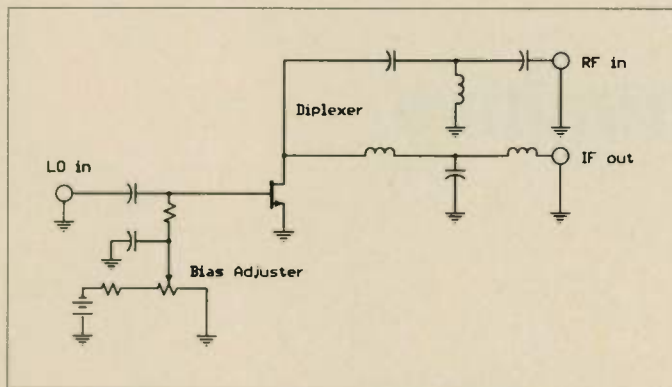


Figure 2. Mixer derived from Maas' X-band design.

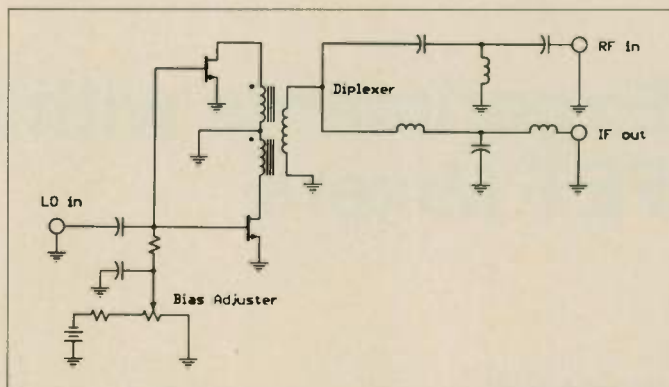


Figure 3. Single-balanced mixer with over 60 dB LO to IF isolation.

amplified, buffered, limited, and combined in a 6 dB hybrid combiner. The result is a two-tone source with an available output of +9 dBm per signal. Another source is a local oscillator with available output power up to +23 dBm. Numerous attenuators are available to control power levels. Mixer output is observed in a spectrum analyzer using commercially available high level diode ring mixers.

### Single FET Mixers

The most common FET mixers are the familiar active, unbalanced JFET or dual-gate MOSFET designs. These have been widely discussed in the receiver literature (4, 5, 6). The less familiar passive circuits also offer promise. Although apparent in the literature, they have not found the widespread application of the active mixers. This paper emphasizes our results with passive mixers.

Figure 2 shows the first circuit examined. This topology is adapted from an

X-band design by Maas (7). The circuit offers benefits beyond the obvious simplicity. The FET functions as a shunt resistor with a value that varies at the local oscillator rate (8, 9). Both RF and IF energy appear at the FET drain terminal. A diplexer separates the RF and IF components.

Several different FETs were tried in this circuit, with results summarized in Table I. Conversion gain and intermodulation distortion (third-order input intercept) are similar to those of diode rings. The unexpected feature is the LO to IF and LO to RF suppression. Because the FET has no bias, there is no gain at the LO frequency. Hence, the LO is suppressed by 15 dB or more at the other ports.

Although not included in Table I, we have measured and simulated GaAs FETs in this circuit. A single 1x300 micron depletion mode FET shows an insertion loss of 6 to 8 dB. Performance depends on FET width and geometry. Measured results are consistent with

computer simulations.

### Balanced Mixers with Shunt FETs

The single ended design is extended with the addition of a second FET, shown in Figure 3. The LO signal is applied, in phase, to both FET gates. The two drain voltages are out-of-phase, forced by a trifilar ferrite transformer. A diplexer isolates the IF and RF ports. Some results are shown in Table II. This circuit is especially simple, requiring but one IF/RF transformer. Excellent LO to IF isolation (over 60 dB) and reasonable gain are available. The circuit is not suitable for conversion to baseband, however.

A wideband singly balanced mixer is shown in Figure 4 with results presented in Table III. This mixer requires differential LO drive, but no diplexer is needed. LO to IF suppression is similar to that of Figure 3. The mixer is suitable for direct conversion to baseband. Both circuits offer low IMD if the optimum devices and LO voltage are used.

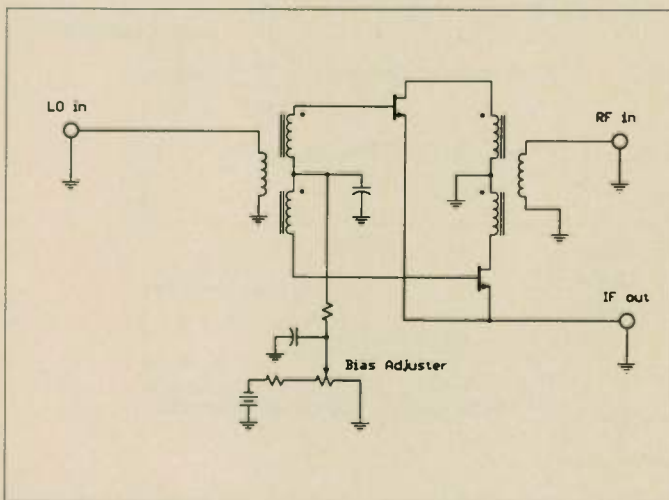


Figure 4. Wideband single-balanced mixer.

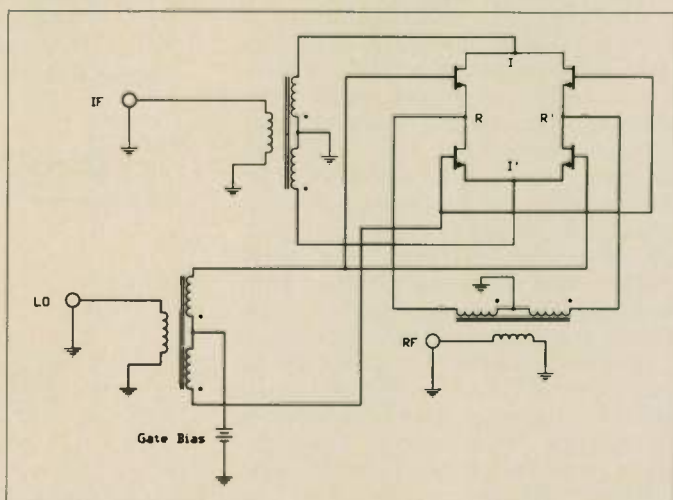


Figure 5. Oxner's FET ring mixer.



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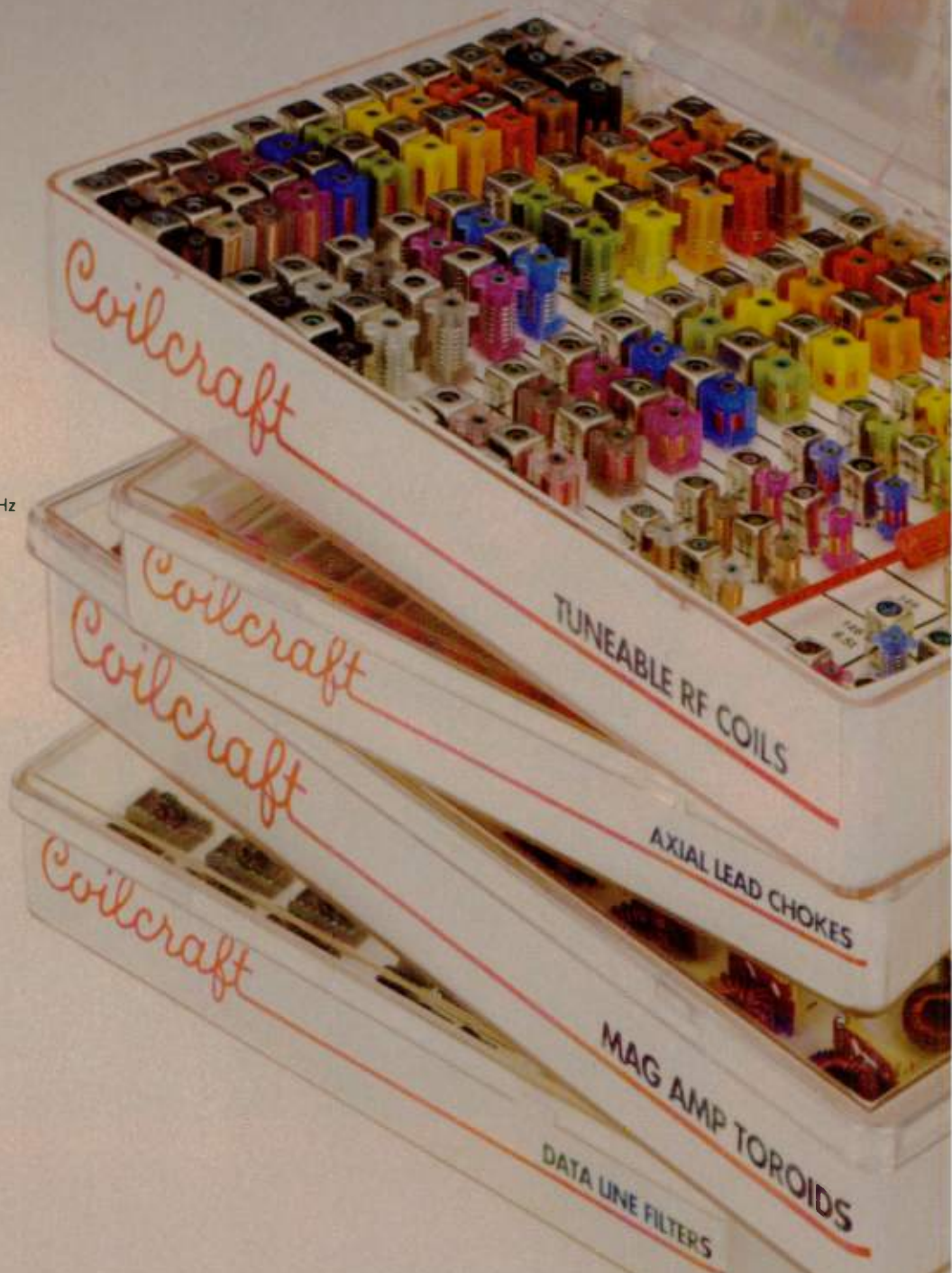
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## Axial Lead Power Chokes

Current: .03-4.3 amps  
Inductance: 3.9  $\mu$ H - 100 mH  
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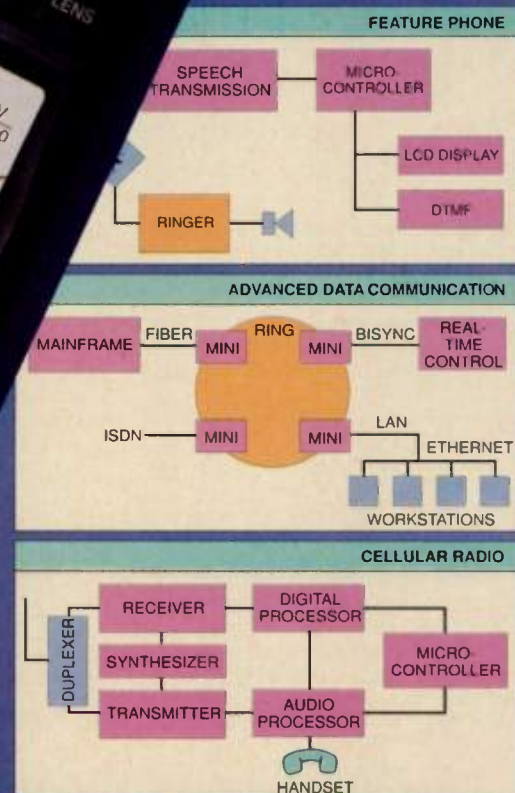
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FET Type	Gc, dB	P-LO-av dBm	IP3in dBm	Bias Volts	Note #
SD210DE	-10	+8	+15	+4.11	
VMP-4	-5.0	+8	+9	+1.77	
J310	-8.5	+8	+15.5	negative	(a)
TIS-88	-10	+8	+9	0	(b)
2N7000	-5.0	+8	+11	+1.92	
3N211	-12	+8	+12	0.1	
IRF-511	-9	+8	+8.5	+2.85	

(a) 2:1 turns ratio transformer used to increase gate LO voltage.  
(b) TIS-88 is similar to a 2N4416.

Table I. Single-Ended FET Mixers with Diplexer.

FET Type	Gc, dB	P-LO-av dBm	IP3in dBm	Bias Volts
SD210DE	-11	+8	+16	—
	—	+11	+21	—
	—	+17	+25.5	—
	—	+23	+31.5	—
J310	-8	+11	+21	negative
	-7	+17	+23	negative

Table II. Singly Balanced Narrowband FET Mixer with Diplexer.

FET Type	Gc, dB	P-LO-av dBm	IP3in dBm	Bias Volts	Note #
SD210	-9.5	+11	+17.5	—	
	-7.0	+23	+31.0	—	(a)
M, 1mm	-4.6	+8	+17	-1.54	
	-5.1	-2	+9	-1.54	
E, 1mm	-5.9	-5	+8	+0.58	

(a) Performance with SD211 essentially identical to SD210.

Table III. Singly Balanced Wideband FET Mixer.

FET Type	Gc, dB	P-LO-av dBm	IP3in dBm	Bias Volts	Note #
Si8901	-10	—	+31	Approx. +2	(a)
	-11	+11	+22	—	(b)
	-9.5	+17	+30	—	
	-9.5	+23	+34	—	
4X M-1mm	-6.0	-2	+13	-1.55	(c)
	-5.6	+2	+17.5	-1.57	
	-5.2	+4	+21	-1.54	
	-5.1	+8	+22.5	-1.53	
4X HA-0.3mm	-9.7	+7	+17.2	—	(d)

(a) Siliconix Ring operated with 2N3904 differential amplifier at LO port, 15 mA total current. 1:1 Current Balun at RF, DC coupled I-F.  
(b) Ring operated with 1:1:1 voltage balun at LO port. 1:1 Current balun at RF port, DC coupled I-F.  
(c) Monolithic Ring, 1 x 300 Micron HA FETS, 1:1:1 voltage balun at LO, 1:1 Current Balun at RF. DC Coupled I-F.

Table IV. FET Ring Mixer.

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$\pm 5\text{PPM}$ , $0^\circ\text{C}$ to $+50^\circ\text{C}$ $-20^\circ\text{C}$ to $+70^\circ\text{C}$ $-40^\circ\text{C}$ to $+85^\circ\text{C}$	ECL 10MHz to 32MHz
$\pm 10\text{PPM}$ , $-20^\circ\text{C}$ to $+70^\circ\text{C}$ $-40^\circ\text{C}$ to $+85^\circ\text{C}$ $-55^\circ\text{C}$ to $+105^\circ\text{C}$	SINE 10MHz to 32MHz

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Table III includes some GaAs FET data. The FETs had a channel width of 1 mm, larger than usually found in an integrated circuit. Two FET types were used. The first is an "M," a depletion mode device with a typical pinchoff of -2 volts. The other, the "E" FET, functions in the enhancement mode with a threshold of +0.15 volt. A third type from the same process is the "D" FET, a depletion mode device with a typical pinchoff voltage of -0.6 volt. Mixer performance with the D is intermediate between that obtained with the M and the E (10). The integral gate-source diodes of a MESFET limit the LO voltage. Silicon MOSFETs have no diodes at their gate. Hence, they will withstand higher gate voltage to produce higher 3rd order input intercepts. The low conversion loss, less than 5 dB, is characteristic of the GaAs FETs.

#### FET-Ring Mixers

Wideband port-to-port isolation is enhanced with doubly balanced mixers. A popular circuit is the FET ring mixer described by Oxner, shown in Figure 5 (11). This design features especially low intermodulation distortion, but is restricted to HF and VHF application. Transformers occur at all three ports, making this mixer difficult to integrate.

The traditional diode ring achieves double balance with only two transformers. This is also possible with FETs, shown in Figure 6. One corner of the ring is grounded with a single-ended IF signal extracted from the opposite corner. A voltage balun supplies the local oscillator to the gates while RF energy reaches the ring through a current balun. The transformer forms are vital to proper operation. Specifically, a voltage balun will not work at the RF port. Individual transformer windings are paralleled by a FET; the transistor will then short circuit the balun.

The RF balun in Figure 6 forces equal currents in the two windings, but allows arbitrary voltages at the R-R' port. The 1:1 current balun used is especially simple. A bifilar winding on a ferrite core is used at HF while a ferrite bead or sleeve over a twisted pair serves for higher frequencies. Pick a bead with a hole diameter large enough to accommodate the twisted pair, but no larger.

We studied the circuit of Figure 6 with the Siliconix Si8901 and with a variety of GaAs rings. Some of this data is presented in Table IV. The device of greatest interest is the 1 mm M-FET. The ring was built with discrete FETs from

the same processing run, with no other attempt at matching. The ring results are an extension of those of the singly-balanced mixers. Conversion loss under 6 dB occurred with the large width GaAs FETs. The third-order input intercept was +22 dBm. This performance was available with low LO power. Much larger input intercepts were available with the Si8901, but conversion loss was

higher. The dependance of intercept upon LO power is similar to that reported by Oxner.

#### An Integrated Ring

Figure 7 shows a partial schematic of an integrated ring mixer with on-chip active baluns. This circuit has been built with 100 micron enhancement mode GaAs FETs in the ring. The small FET

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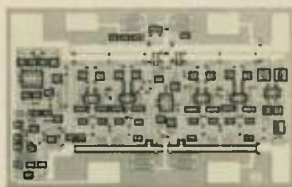
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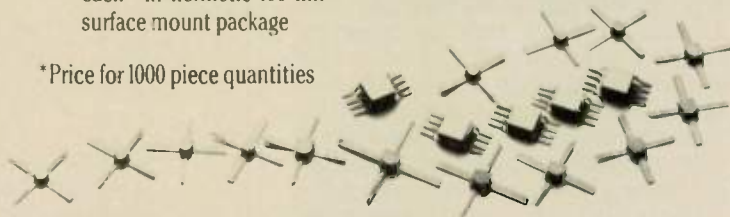
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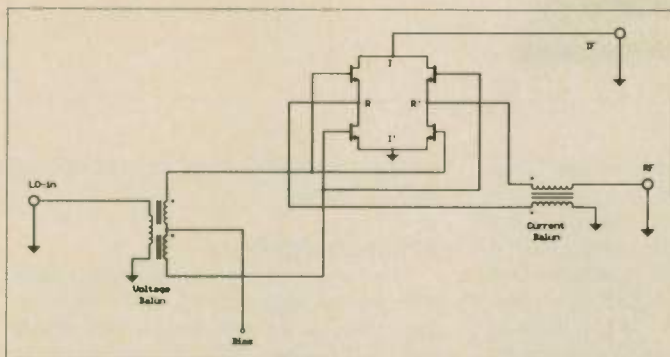


Figure 6. FET ring mixer with two transformers.

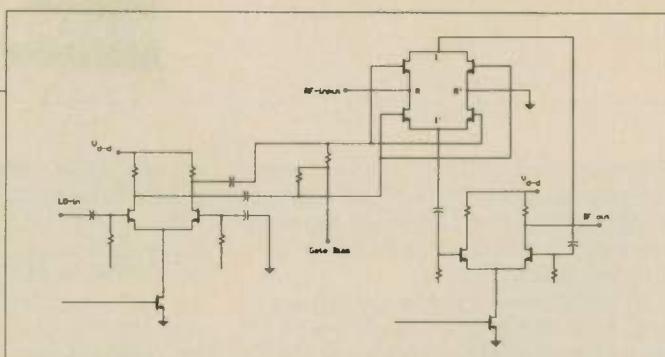


Figure 7. Partial schematic of an integrated ring mixer with on-chip active baluns.

width and active IF balun both compromise intermodulation distortion performance. However, local oscillator drive is less than that required by larger FETs. The enhancement mode FETs have low thresholds, further easing the LO drive problems. The active IF balun is a high impedance load for the ring. The high impedance makes it tempting to apply rings with small FETs when IMD is not critical. Unfortunately, noise figure could also suffer. The ring of small FETs has low available conversion gain.

Recall that "available power gain," rather than "power gain" or "transducer gain" is the important gain that affects noise figure (12). Available power gain is defined as the ratio of the power available from a network to the power available from the source. Hence, it is calculated by conjugately matching the network output while leaving the input unchanged. Available power gain of a nonlinear network is easily extracted from SPICE simulations. The active IF balun is replaced with a floating resistive load to speed calculations. A transient analysis is then performed. A LO sinusoid differentially drives the gates while another excites the RF port. The intermediate frequency component is filtered with a Fourier Transform (usually a part of SPICE) and the IF power delivered to the resistor is calculated. The process is repeated with a variety of load resistors to find a maximum. This value establishes the available power gain. With a 50 Ohm driving source impedance, the available power gain of the ring of 100 micron FETs was -14 dB. This improves to -10 dB with a higher driving impedance. Available power gain in a ring mixer improves with larger FETs, but the improved performance is accompanied by higher LO power requirements.

The simulations are confirmed with noise figure measurements. SPICE can also be used to evaluate the noise performance of the active baluns and other amplifiers. In spite of the noise problem, the mixer with small FETs (Figure 7) is still useful, offering LO to

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UPB585	0.5-2.5GHz	5V	26mA	4
UPB587	0.05-1GHz	2.2 to 3.5V	5.5mA	2, 4, 8



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IF suppression of 30 dB. Current consumption was only 10 mA from a single 5 volt supply. The LO power required was only -5 dBm and net down conversion gain was 8 dB.

All of the mixers presented require a fixed bias. The gate-source of the FETs are biased to be at pinchoff or threshold. The LO then causes low resistance on the positive half cycle, and a high value

on the other half. Most of the data presented was obtained at HF and low VHF. Some of the ring mixers were investigated at higher frequency. A ring of 1 mm M-FETs had relatively flat conversion gain up to 500 MHz. Insertion loss increased at 1 GHz, but could be regained with increased LO power, suggesting limitations in the balun. LO port tuning may also prove useful. The

smaller, monolithic rings functioned well up to 1.6 GHz.

## Acknowledgments

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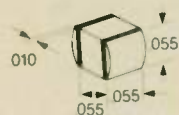
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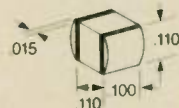
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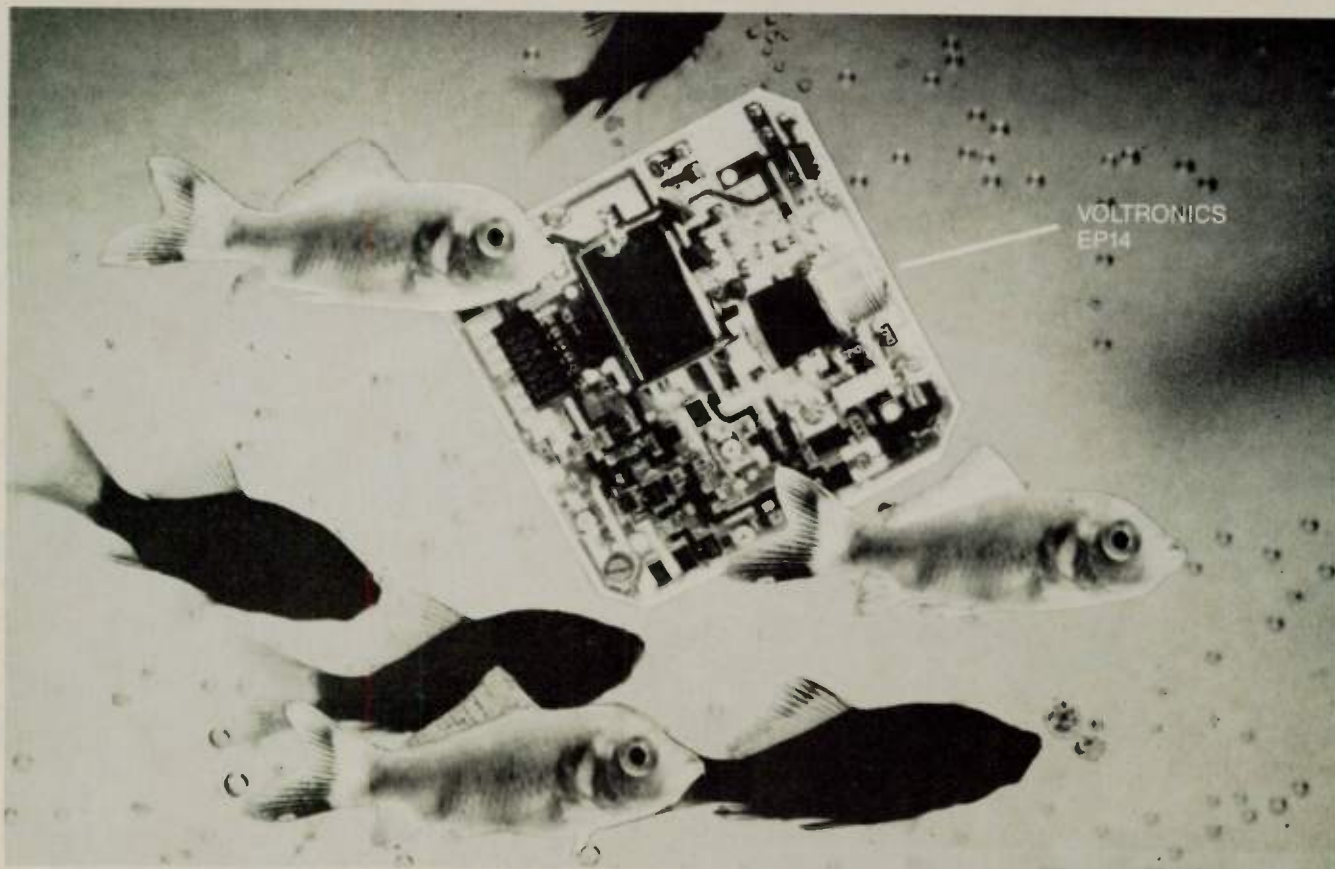


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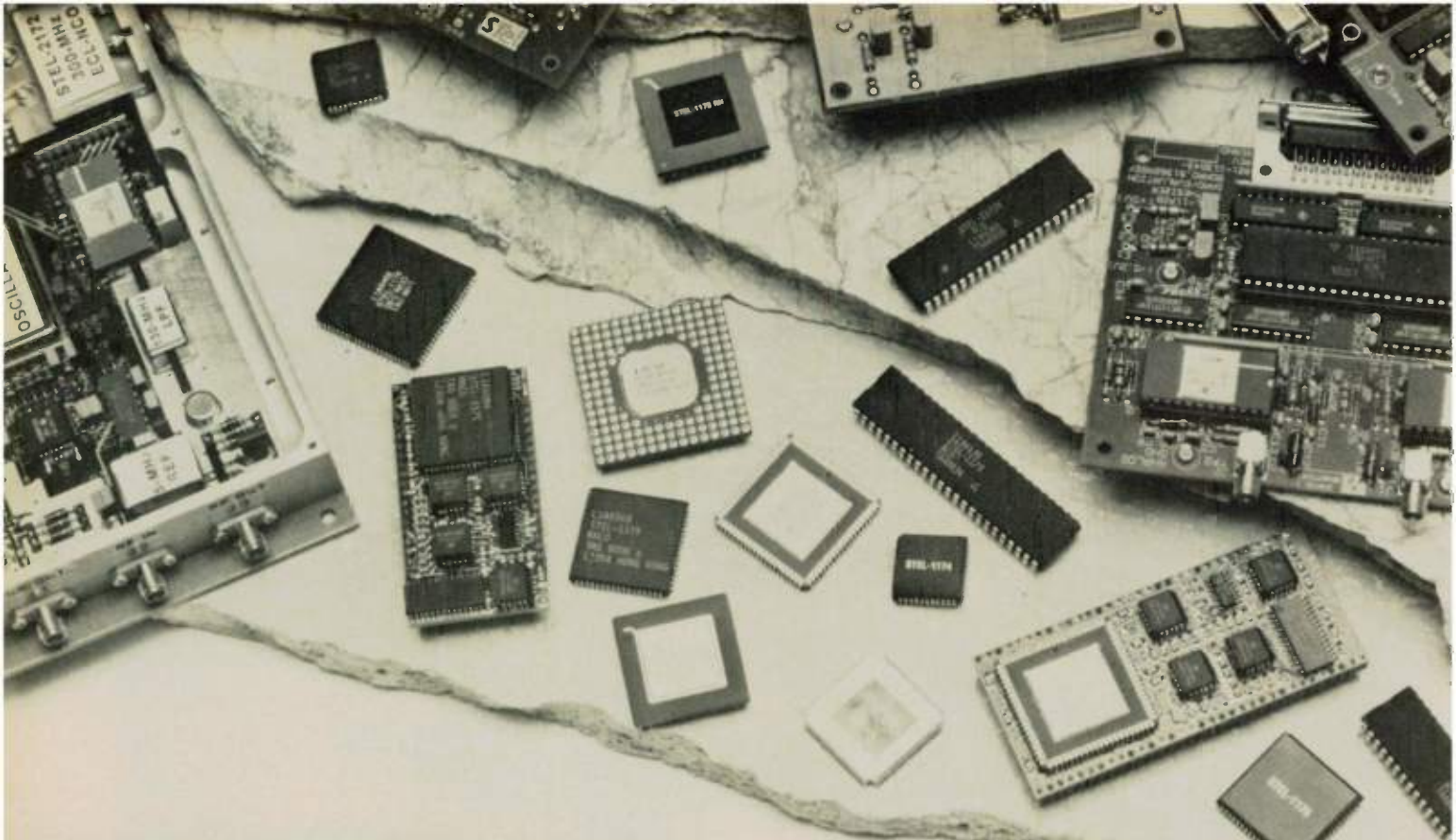


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## Dynamic Evaluation of High Speed, High Resolution D/A Converters

By James J. Colotti  
CSD/Telephonics

Practically speaking, the all-digital receiver will never exist. Yet, as digitally uncharted waters dwindle, many traditionally analog functions are being replaced by their digital counterparts — augmenting the performance of the remaining analog components and thus the overall system. One interface device that merges these two technologies is the high speed, high resolution digital-to-analog converter (DAC or D/A Converter). Two potential applications of DACs are shown in Figure 1. While DAC applications are not limited to receiver design, virtually all high speed/high resolution applications require careful evaluation of potential candidates to assure that the appropriate device is selected. Although most manufacturers provide a comprehensive set of characterization data, the device will often not be specified under the specific conditions called for in an application.

To alleviate this uncertainty, the D/A dynamic evaluation techniques outlined in this article were developed. Through a trio of tests: single tone, two tone, and noise power ratio (NPR), the performance of a potential D/A can be comprehensively analyzed. While this article will focus on RF applications, these tests are applicable to the dynamic characterization of most any DAC.

### The Test Set Up

As depicted in Figure 2, the DAC under evaluation receives digital inputs that are generated as follows: A TTL clock of the required sampling frequency,  $f_s$ , drives a counter chain which generates addresses for the high speed memory (EPROM or RAM). Contained in the memory is the look-up table of codes that generate the appropriate test tone or tones. The sampling frequency will often dictate the memory type that is employed. EPROMs can provide a convenient storage medium, however, they typically exhibit slower access times than RAMs. One drawback to

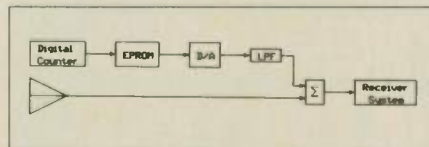


Figure 1a. A built-in test tone injection application for a high speed, high resolution DAC.

using RAMs however, is the continual need for the download hardware.

Wave generation software is used to create and download the look up table data to the memory devices. The software also loads in a reset command that will clear the counter chain, once the final data point is read. This allows the counter to continuously run from 0 to some maximum value,  $N-1$ . Data output from the memory is latched to minimize erroneous transitional data, and then presented to the D/A converter. This look-up table generation technique is preferred over other approaches by virtue of its ease of implementation and multi-tone generation capability.

The analog output of the DAC is presented to the spectrum analyzer where the frequency spectrum is monitored. Due to the high image frequencies contained in the D/A output, it is sometimes necessary to limit the bandwidth with a low pass filter depending on the test equipment limitations.

Each test of the trio is useful for examining various D/A performance parameters. For example, harmonic distortion (HD) and signal to quantization noise performance are readily accomplished with the single tone test. Since the resulting spectrum is relatively uncluttered, as compared to the other tests, the single tone analysis is also useful for characterizing other DAC parameters, such as power supply rejection and gain accuracy.

Harmonic distortion is characterized by products that occur at integer multiples of the fundamental frequency. Often, the second and third products of a DAC are most prominent.

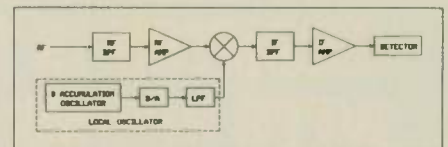


Figure 1b. A superheterodyne receiver with digitally generated local oscillator.

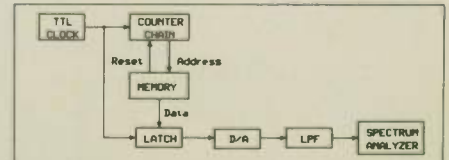


Figure 2. DAC test set up.

The two tone test is useful for examining intermodulation products, a non-linearity characterized by distortion products that occur at sums and differences of integer multiples of the two primary frequencies. Typically, the dominant IM products are among the second order components located at  $f_2 - f_1$  and  $f_1 + f_2$ , and the third order components located at  $2f_1 - f_2$  and  $2f_2 - f_1$ . Although this test can also be used for signal to noise ratio evaluation, it is limited to less than full scale testing due to saturation problems that would arise if the instantaneous amplitude of the combined signals exceeded the full scale limit. For example, if two equal amplitude tones are considered, the level of each must be at least 6.02 dB below the D/A full scale level to avoid saturation.

The NPR test, considered the most stringent of the three, is used to evaluate a converter's ability to replicate wide band signals such as those encountered in spread spectrum communication. This test entails generating a comb of uniformly spaced frequencies over a range dictated by the application. The comb is then characterized by a narrow notch that is usually located in the center of the frequency range.

Inside the notch, below the lower frequency limit, and above the upper frequency limit would appear the culmi-

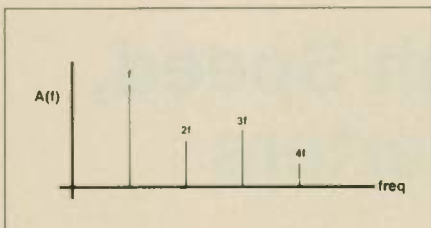


Figure 3. Harmonic distortion.

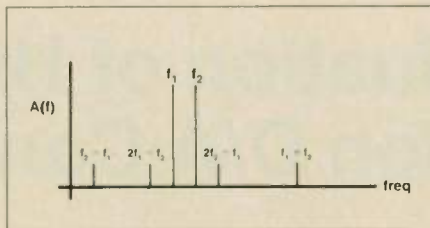


Figure 4. Intermodulation products.

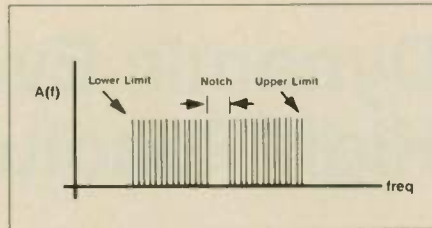


Figure 5. NPR signal.

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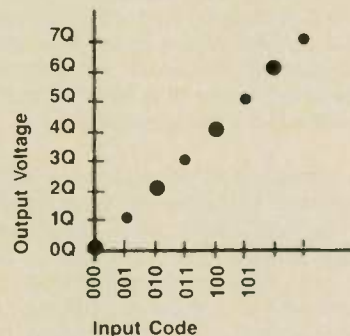
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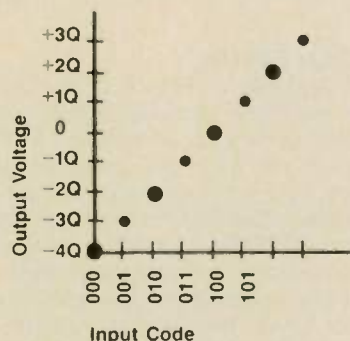
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nation of the nonlinear products generated by the converter. Often, the discrete products of these nonlinearities are so numerous that a wide band noise appearance is created — which is particularly noticeable in the notch. This test can be especially useful since manufacturers rarely evaluate the NPR performance of their devices.

The wave generation software mentioned earlier, also contains a fast fourier transform (FFT) algorithm that allows the look-up table data to be viewed in the frequency domain prior to downloading. This useful reference illustrates the performance of an ideal DAC of the desired resolution. Use of the FFT algorithm however, restricts the number



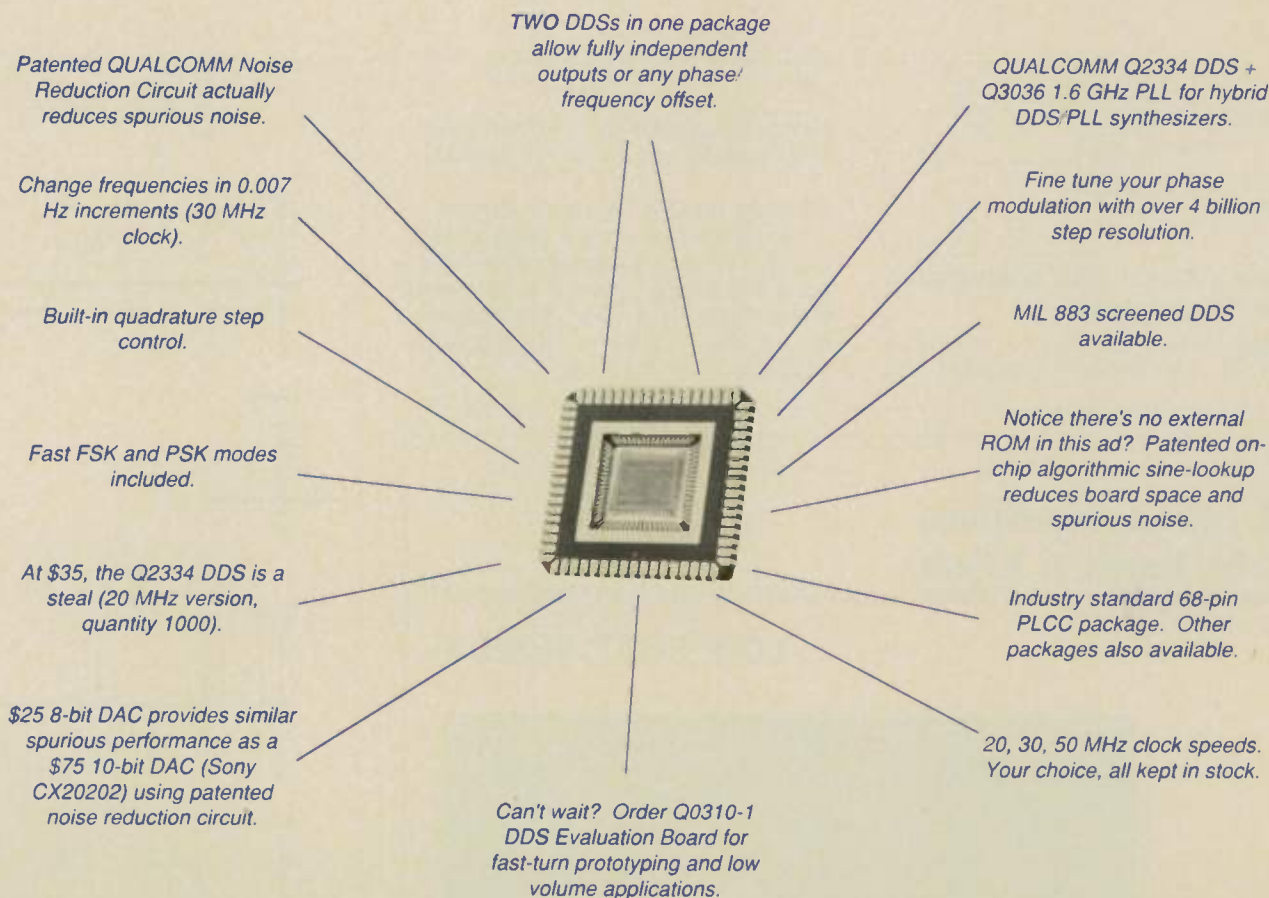
(a) Unipolar



(b) Bipolar

Figure 6. Ideal 3 Bit DAC transfer function.





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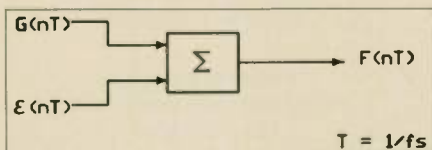


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**Figure 7. Ideal DAC quantization error representation.**

of data points to powers of 2, which can yield a cumbersome resolution fre-

quency (discussed in a following section) depending on the sampling rate.

### A Focus on D/A Dynamic Errors

The transfer function of an ideal DAC is characterized by a linear relationship, where the analog output is proportional to the digital input code. For example, the transfer function of an ideal 3 bit DAC is shown in Figure 6.

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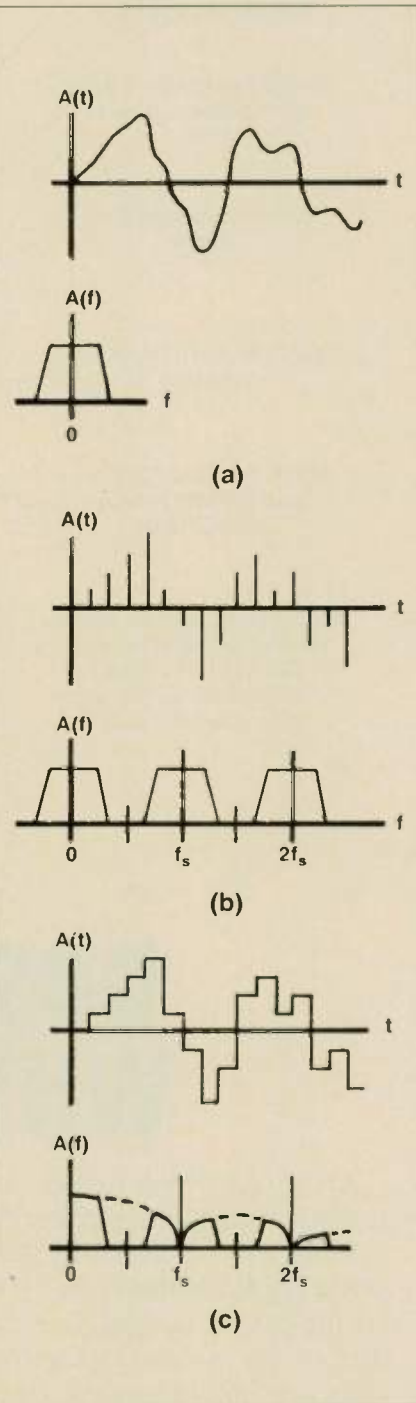
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**Figure 8. Time and frequency domain of a sampled signal a) original waveform, b) sampled representation, c) staircased representation.**

Q refers to the weight or value that corresponds to 1 least significant bit (LSB).

$$Q = \frac{V_{FS}}{2^N} \quad (1)$$



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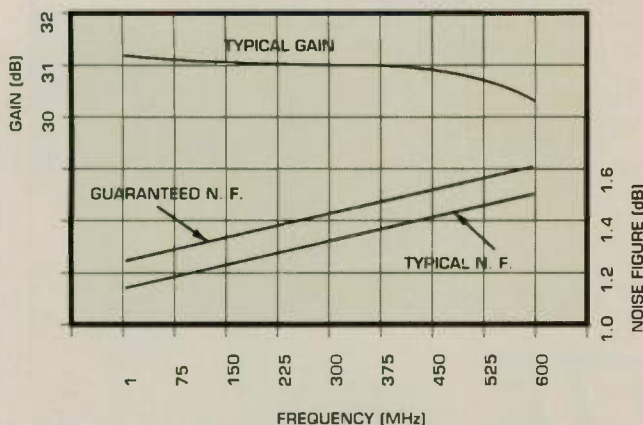
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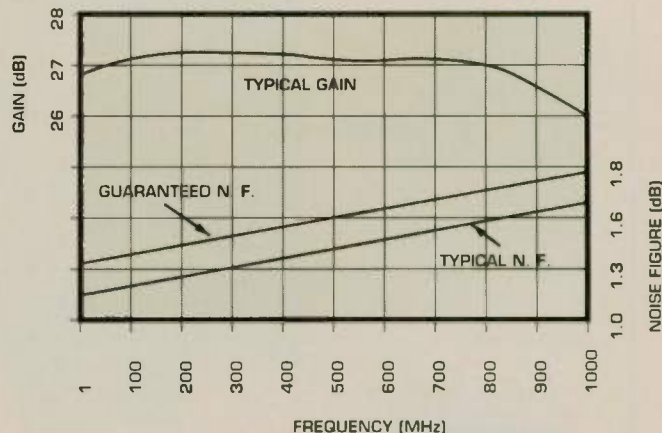
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				Low End	Mid Band	High End			
AU-1054	1-500	30	0.5	1.25	1.4	1.5	2:1	+8	55
AU-2A-0150	1-500	30	0.5	1.25	1.4	1.5	2:1	+8	55
AU-3A-0150	1-500	45	0.5	1.25	1.4	1.5	2:1	+10	67
AU-1149	10-180	15	0.5	4.5	5.5	6.5	2:1*	+18	75
AU-1291	.015-500	60	0.75	1.25	1.4	1.5	2:1	+8	90
AM-1300	.01-1000	25	0.75	1.4	1.6	1.8	2:1	+6	50
AM-1052	1-1000	26	0.75	1.4	1.6	1.8	2:1	+6	50
AM-2A-000110	1-1000	27	0.75	1.4	1.6	1.8	2:1	+8	50
AM-1299	1-1000	38	0.75	1.4	1.6	1.8	2:1	+9	75
AM-3A-000110	1-1000	37	0.75	1.4	1.6	1.8	2:1	+9	75

\* 75 ohm impedance level

**AU-1054 and AU-2A-0150**



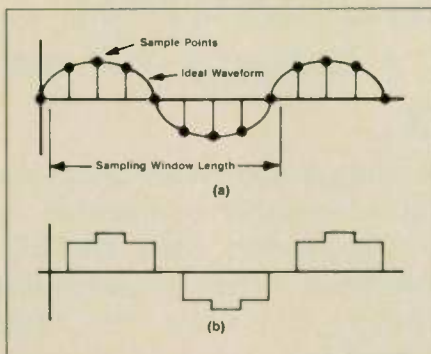
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**Figure 9. A limited number of DAC codes are exercised when the fundamental is a non-prime multiple of the resolution frequency a) sampled data points of the ideal waveform, b) DAC staircased output.**

Where:

$V_{FS}$  = Full scale peak-to-peak voltage  
 $N_b$  = Number of bits

Due to this finite resolution, even the ideal DAC would exhibit a fundamental quantization error of  $\pm Q/2$ . Higher DAC resolution (i.e. more bits) yields a smaller quantization error, allowing greater fidelity in the reconstruction of a desired

#### DAC Characteristic

Monotonicity  
 Differential Non Linearity  
 Integral Non Linearity  
 Glitch Impulse  
 Digital Feed-through  
 Power Supply Rejection  
 Settling Time  
 Slew Rate  
 Gain  
 Offset

#### Impact on AC Performance

Code Dependent Spurs  
 Increased Quantization Noise  
 IM and HD Distortion  
 Spurious  
 Spurious  
 Spurious  
 Spurious, also dictates maximum  $f_s$   
 IM and HD Distortion  
 Amplitude error  
 Usually none, if AC Coupled

**Table 1. DAC characteristics and their impact on AC performance.**

signal. Calculating the theoretical DAC noise produced by this quantization error, begins by modeling the DAC output,  $F(nT)$  as the sum of the exact sequence of sampled values  $G(nT)$  corrupted by an error component,  $\epsilon(nT)$ , which shifts the exact value to the nearest quantization level.

The maximum sine wave mean square value that can be generated before clipping is:

$$P_{Max} = \left[ \frac{Q(2^{N_b-1})}{\sqrt{2}} \right]^2 = 2^{2N_b-3} Q^2 \quad (2)$$

Based on the assumption that  $\epsilon$  is a uniformly distributed and uncorrelated random variable over the range of  $-Q/2$

$\leq \epsilon \leq +Q/2$ , its variance "power" is given by:

$$P_{\epsilon} = \frac{\left[ \frac{Q}{2} - \left( -\frac{Q}{2} \right) \right]^2}{12} = \frac{Q^2}{12} \quad (3)$$

The sought after DAC dynamic range (maximum sine level to quantization noise over the Nyquist bandwidth) is calculated by simply taking the ratio of the two powers:

$$DR = 10 \log_{10} \left[ \frac{2^{2N_b-3} Q^2}{\frac{Q^2}{12}} \right] \quad (4)$$

$$= 6.02 N_b + 1.76$$

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# Resolution Bandwidth Dynamic Range

100 kHz	96.3 dB
30 kHz	101.5 dB
10 kHz	106.3 dB

**Table 2. Theoretical dynamic range of a 12 bit DAC converting at 34 MHz, at three typical spectrum analyzer resolution bandwidths.**

Since the quantization noise is uniformly distributed over the Nyquist bandwidth, determination of the dynamic range in a smaller bandwidth,  $f_{bw}$ , is simply:

$$DR = 6.02 N_b + 1.76 + 10 \log_{10} \left[ \frac{f_s}{2f_{bw}} \right] \quad (5)$$

Ideally, reconstruction of an analog signal from its samples would be represented in the frequency domain as the convolution of the original analog signal spectrum and a train of impulse functions. The resulting spectrum, as depicted in Figure 8b, would consist of the original signal spectrum plus its images centered at integer multiples of the sampling frequency,  $f_s$ .

Since an impulse function would place unrealistic slew rate demands on a real world DAC, its output is instead characterized by a "staircase" function as depicted in Figure 8c. Although the resulting frequency spectrum of the staircased waveform also contains the

original spectrum and images, the envelope is attenuated by a sine x/x roll off:

$$\text{Atten} = 20 \log_{10} \left[ \frac{\sin \left( \frac{\pi f}{f_s} \right)}{\frac{\pi f}{f_s}} \right] \quad (6)$$

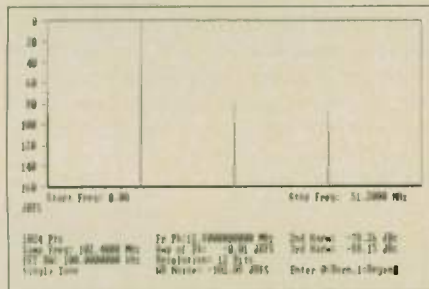
where  $f$  = Output frequency  
 $f_s$  = DAC sampling rate

Typically in DAC applications, only the spectrum from DC to the Nyquist Frequency ( $f_s/2$ ) would be of interest, thus the higher frequency images are filtered with an LPF. The sine x/x roll-off however, will attenuate a signal at the Nyquist limit by 3.92 dB as compared to frequencies at the low end of the spectrum. Demanding applications would digitally correct this problem by placing an inverse sine x/x filter before the DAC.

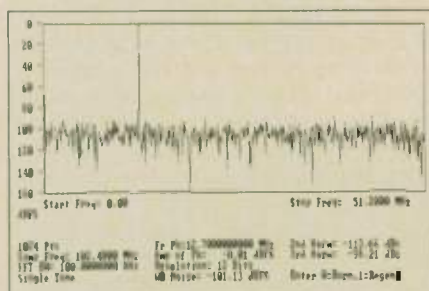
In addition to the fundamental considerations of quantization noise and sine x/x roll-off, DACs also exhibit other characteristics which must be carefully considered in high speed applications. Some of these characteristics and their associated impact on AC performance are listed in Table 1.

Monotonicity indicates whether or not the analog output will consistently increase with increasing input code. Only when the signal passes through the non-monotonic portion of the transfer function, will it be tainted. Depending on where this discontinuity exists the resulting spurs may be signal level (code) dependent. As an example, if a non-monotonic point existed at BFO (Hex code of a 12 bit converter), smaller signals that did not exercise this code are unaffected, while larger signals that pass through this point will be corrupted. Fortunately, monotonicity is virtually always guaranteed by DAC manufacturers over the applicable temperature range, and is not usually a consideration.

Differential non-linearity, usually expressed in LSB weights, refers to the incremental accuracy of the DAC transfer function. Since this parameter dictates an increase in spread of quantization error, the resulting noise floor increase is readily predictable. Integral non-linearity pertains to the overall deviation of the DAC transfer function. Often characterized as a "bowing" deviation, this type of error will create distortion products in the DAC output. Glitch impulse, sometimes referred to as glitch energy, is a measure of the



**Figure 10a. FFT spectrum of quantized noise-extreme case.**



**Figure 10b. FFT spectrum of quantized noise-even distribution.**

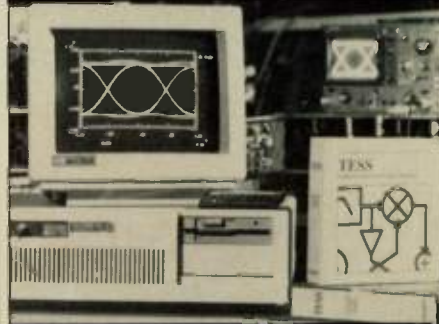
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glitch area that is created by switching transients between updates. Although it is sometimes possible to de-skew the most significant bits (MSBs) to reduce the glitch impulse area, the efficacy of this technique is very limited, usually to about a 40 or 50 percent reduction. If needed, a much more effective method in reducing glitch area is to employ a sample and hold amplifier (SHA) at the

DAC output. The SHA would maintain the proper analog level while the DAC is transitioning to the next value, buffering the output from the glitch activity. The DAC-02315 and DGL-02316 manufactured by Data Device Corporation is a good example of a DAC/SHA pair which is specifically intended for this purpose.

Digital feed-through pertains to the

isolation that exists between the digital signals and the analog output. This feed-through is most problematic in high speed applications where high slew rate logic often carries higher frequency ripple components. Since this parameter is very dependent on circuit layout and implementation, it is often unspecified by manufacturers. Latching the digital data will limit coupling of extraneous noise riding on the logic signals, but will do nothing to prevent logic edge coupling. Maximizing the distance between the digital and analog circuitry will minimize capacitive coupling, while minimizing loop areas of both the analog and digital circuitry will minimize inductive coupling. Unfortunately, even the most carefully executed layout will not reduce the stray coupling capacitance that exists between the chip boundaries of the DAC, which is typically on the order of 0.2 pF. Manufacturers usually limit this capacitance by placing the digital signal pins as far away as practical from the analog pins. One method of reducing the effect of this coupling capacitance is to incorporate a Faraday shield around the DAC package — this will be discussed in more detail in the test results section.

Power supply rejection ratio (PSRR), frequently specified only at DC, is expressed in terms of percent of full scale change for a DC percent change in power supply voltage. Although this is helpful for determining amplitude variation over a given supply voltage range, this DC specification will provide little information about high frequency rejection. In high speed applications, judicious use of the proper bypass capacitors and filter inductors will complement the PSRR to maintain the proper noise immunity. Providing a capacitor pair consisting of a 0.001 – 0.1  $\mu$ F ceramic and  $\sim$ 5  $\mu$ F tantalum on each supply pin helps stabilize the voltage over a wide frequency range. The capacitors can be augmented by series inductors to further cleanse the supply lines.

Settling time of a DAC is traditionally defined as the time from the digital input transition to the time the DAC output has settled to within a certain error band, usually  $\pm 1/2$  LSB. A portion of this delay may be attributed to a fixed "pipeline" delay due to latch and switch propagation times, during which the analog output is unchanged. Therefore, in AC applications DAC settling time may be redefined in terms of the output alone: i.e., as the time the output leaves a  $\pm 1/2$  LSB error band to the time the output



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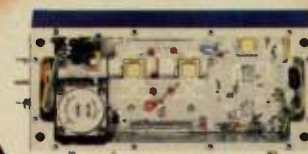
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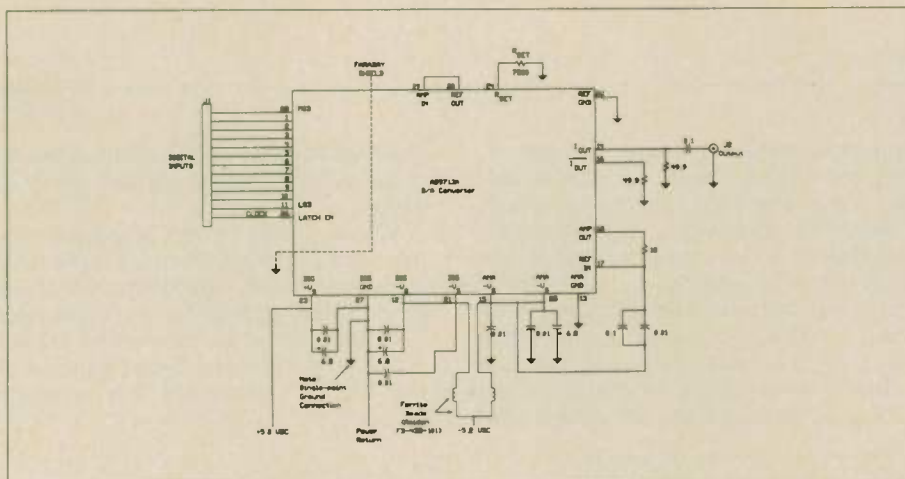


Figure 11. AD9713A test schematic.

settles to within a  $\pm 1/2$  LSB band. Ideally, a DAC should be chosen with a settling time that is much shorter than the sampling period.

The remaining DAC parameters: slew rate, gain and offset are relatively straightforward. DAC slew rate limitations are similar to that of other analog components, where the maximum output frequency is limited to:

$$f_{\max} = \frac{SR}{2\pi V_p} \quad (7)$$

where  $V_p$  = Maximum peak voltage level  
 $SR$  = Slew rate (V/S)

Gain error, often expressed as a percent of the full scale (FS) output, relates to the amplitude accuracy of the DAC

output. For example a 0.1 percent of FS gain error would dictate an amplitude error of less than 0.01 dB. Small gain errors are common, and are therefore not of significant concern in AC applications. Offset, which is also expressed as a percent of full scale output pertains to the resulting output level that would appear at the DAC output when it is instructed to output 0 volts. The offset is usually not significant, and is easily removed with AC coupling.

#### Test Considerations

Before discussing actual D/A test results, a few items should be addressed concerning the test parameters. The sampling window that contains the digital waveform must embody an integral number of cycles. Failure to

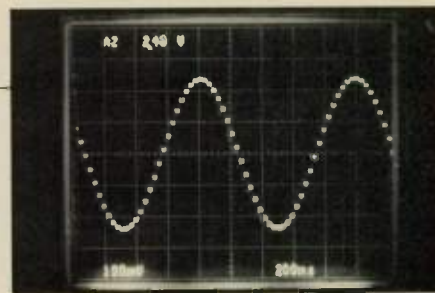


Figure 12a. Single tone test, time domain.

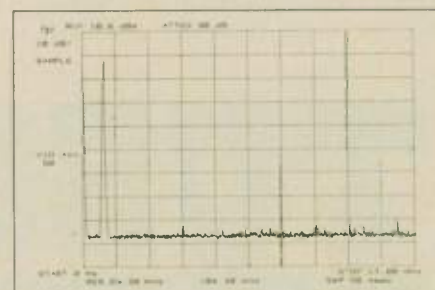


Figure 12b. Single tone test, frequency domain.

assure this will result in discontinuities when the transition from the end of the data period to the start of the new one occurs.

The frequency resolution is simply:

$$f_{\text{res}} = \frac{f_s}{N} \quad (8)$$

where:  $f_s$  = sampling frequency  
 $N$  = Length of the sampling window (number of points)

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Avoiding the discontinuity requires that the fundamental frequency be an integer multiple ( $m$ ) of the resolution frequency:

$$f_i = m f_{res} = m \frac{f_s}{N} \quad (9)$$

Other considerations should also be heeded. To maximize the number of DAC codes exercised, the sampling window length,  $N$ , should be as long as

practical while the integer multiple,  $m$ , chosen in the above equation should be odd and prime. The problems associated with choosing a small sampling window or a non-prime multiple can be visualized by examining the following example: consider a sampling frequency of  $f_s = 102.4$  MHz that generates a tone at  $f_i = 12.8$  MHz. Regardless of how large the sampling length is, under these conditions there will always exist

exactly 8 samples per cycle which would utilize a very limited number of DAC codes.

When viewed in the frequency domain, the quantization errors of the tone are concentrated at the harmonics of the fundamental as depicted in Figure 10a. This anomaly yields misleading results concerning the true HD performance of the DAC — a problem that is easily

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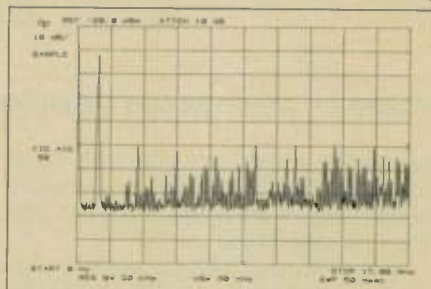
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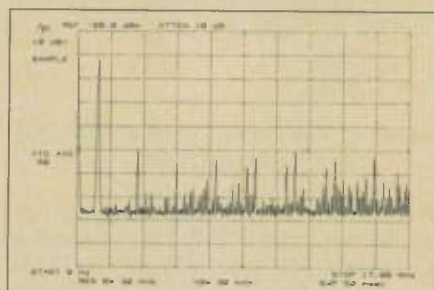
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**Figure 13a. -30 dB full scale test without Faraday shield.**



**Figure 13b. -30dB full scale test with Faraday shield.**

solved by allowing the largest length ( $N$ ) that is practical and by selecting the fundamental to be an odd and prime multiple on the resolution frequency. This would slightly offset subsequent cycles, maximizing the number of codes exercised — "spreading" the quantization error. Referring back to the example, by reselecting the fundamental to be 12.7 MHz (which is an odd and prime multiple of the resolution frequency of 0.1 MHz) the resulting frequency domain plot, Figure 10b, depicts an evenly distributed quantization noise floor.

An interesting consideration that arises during DAC evaluation is the performance limitations of the test equipment. Recall that the theoretical DAC dynamic range (defined as the full scale sine amplitude to the quantization noise floor ratio) is:

$$DR = 6.02 N_b + 1.76 + 10 \log \left( \frac{f_i}{2f_{bw}} \right) \quad (10)$$

where:  $N_b$  = converter resolution (num-



ber of Bits)

$f_s$  = Sampling frequency  
 $f_{bw}$  = Measurement bandwidth

Considering, for example, a 12 bit DAC converting at 34 MHz, the resulting theoretical dynamic ranges for some typical spectrum analyzer bandwidths are listed in Table 2.

Measuring instantaneous dynamic ranges of greater than 80 or 90 dB generally place formidable demands on a spectrum analyzer. Therefore, some tests encountered in the evaluation of a quality high speed, high resolution DAC, will be limited by the test equipment. Fortunately, techniques frequently exist to circumvent this problem — as will be discussed in the following section.

### Test Results

The AD9713A by Analog Devices was characterized at 34 MHz with the test trio to determine its suitability in various applications. The schematic of the DAC test circuit is shown in Figure 11. The unipolar current source DAC output is specified for a full scale level of 20.65 mA, with a set resistor of 7.5 kohms. Placing the 50 ohm resistor at the output creates a 50 ohm Thevenin 1.033 unipolar voltage source. This dictates an available power of -1.8 dBm into an AC coupled 50 ohm load. Applications requiring higher level outputs can be accommodated with a high speed transconductance amplifier, such as the AD9617.

The Faraday shield was constructed with 3 mil copper tape wrapped around the length of the IC package and connected to the board ground plane. Except where noted in the single tone case, the Faraday shield was used in all the following tests.

DAC characterization for a 1.01270 MHz local oscillator is accomplished with the single tone test. The time domain and frequency domain results are shown in Figures 12a and 12b respectively. Note that in the time domain, the duration of the switching transients between updates are substantially shorter than the update period. The staircased appearance is easily smoothed with an LPF. In examining the frequency domain, it is important to note that the observed noise floor is that of the spectrum analyzer which masks the quantization noise and all but the most ornery of DAC spurs. Being consistent with the data sheet specification, these spurs and HD products are observed to be at least 68 dBm down from the full

scale carrier. Note also that with the peak amplitude of -1.8 dBm, the theoretical quantization noise floor in the resolution bandwidth of 30 kHz will be 101.5 dB below the peak at -103.3 dBm, well below the analyzer's noise floor. Reducing the analyzer's internal attenuator from 30 to 20 dB will improve its effective noise figure, but will create misleading harmonic products as the front end of the spectrum analyzer will add distortion to the signal.

Digitally reducing the signal to -30 dBFS (below full scale) reduces the instantaneous dynamic range requirement of the spectrum analyzer, allowing for a more comprehensive observation of the DAC performance, as depicted in Figures 13a and 13b. However, depending on the application the digital level reduction may not be a valid test since the DAC spurious content will likely be signal level dependent. In such a case, it would be more meaningful to attenuate the fundamental in the analog domain with a notch filter, to reduce the analyzer instantaneous dynamic range requirement. However, careful implementation of the filter is required to assure that it does not generate distortion products that would create misleading test results.

The numerous spurs are caused by both capacitive coupling of the digital data to the analog circuitry and DAC nonlinearities. Although careful layout can limit the coupling problem, it can do little for the coupling that exists within the DAC itself, as discussed in a previous section. Use of the Faraday Shield can attenuate the effect of the coupling capacitance (as illustrated in a comparison of the Figures 13a and 13b), though its efficacy is limited since its proximity to the die is constrained by the package. Nevertheless, most of the spurs and harmonics are attenuated, some by as much as 8 dB. Ignoring the discrete spurs, Figure 13 reveals a noise floor of -96 dBm which again is limited by spectrum analyzer performance.

Although many manufacturers do specify harmonic distortion, the single tone HD test is useful in situations where data sheet test conditions do not parallel the specific application. Additional uses for this test include: verifying the DAC circuit configuration and characterization of other DAC parameters such as power supply rejection.

Frequently unspecified by a manufacturer, intermodulation distortion (IMD) is another important DAC parameter which is useful for example, in evaluating a

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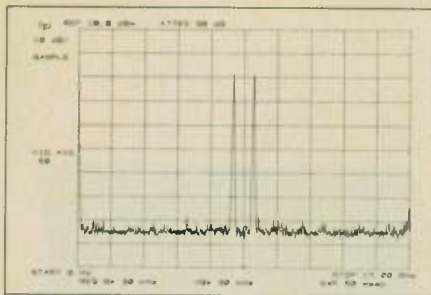


Figure 14. Two tone DAC performance.

DAC intended to inject a built-in-test (BIT) signal consisting of two tones. Figure 14 illustrates the DAC performance in generating a two tone signal at approximately 7.952 and 8.981 MHz. To avoid saturation, the amplitude of each signal is at  $-8$  dBm, slightly less than half the full scale amplitude of  $-1.8$  dBm.

Note that the largest of the IM components is the second order product at 16.933 MHz which is at  $-64$  dBm (56 dBc).

The final and most stringent test of the trio is the noise power ratio, which is especially useful in DAC characterization in wide band applications. In the following example, the NPR test was used to characterize potential DACs for

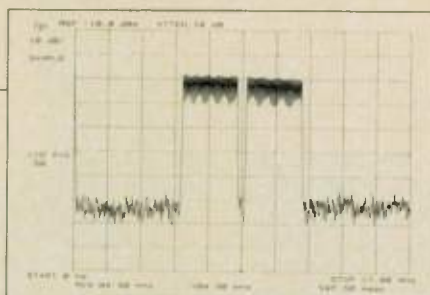


Figure 15a. NPR DAC performance DC to 17 MHz.

use in the IF output generation of a ground based satellite receiving system. Since the IF consisted of a PN modulated 6 MHz bandwidth carrier centered at 8.5 MHz, the NPR test was developed using a comb of frequencies ranging from approximately 5.5 to 11.5 MHz with a void from approximately 8.25 to 8.75 MHz. The discrete frequencies were spaced at four times the resolution frequency of 16.6 kHz, providing about 82 components. Randomizing the phases of each signal is necessary to minimize the peak-to-RMS voltage ratio, thus maximizing the number of DAC codes exercised.

Actual NPR performance of the AD9713A is depicted in Figure 15. Note the noise floor of  $-85$  dBm depicted in

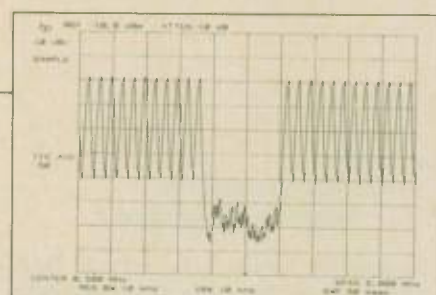


Figure 15b. NPR DAC performance, focus on notch.

Figure 15a, falls far short of the theoretical level of  $-103$  dBm. In actuality the noise floor is a culmination of the numerous HD and IMD products of each of the frequency components that make up the NPR test, as anticipated previously. The 2 MHz frequency span of Figure 15b details the notch spectrum. Note that the individual frequency components, spaced at 66.4 kHz, are easily resolved in this figure. Although the DAC performance is impressive, under these conditions it will only yield an instantaneous dynamic range equivalent to that of an ideal 9 Bit converter. Depending on the application requirements, this may not be a significant limitation since as the NPR signal is digitally attenuated, the noise floor decreases.

It is interesting to note the slight decline in signal amplitude at the higher NPR frequencies. This is not due to the frequency response of the physical part, but is rather a consequence of the sine x/x attenuation discussed earlier.

### Summary

Most manufacturers do an excellent job specifying DAC performance. Unfortunately, data sheet specifications often reflect operation under conditions unlike those called for in a specific application — or worse a desired parameter such as IM performance, may not be specified at all. Dynamic evaluation with the single tone, two tone and NPR tests will help define DAC uncertainties, providing an efficient means to characterize and evaluate DACs for a wide variety of applications. **RF**

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1. High Speed Design Seminar, Analog Devices, 1990.
2. Alen Oppenheim, *Digital Signal Processing*, Prentice-Hall, 1975.

### About the Author

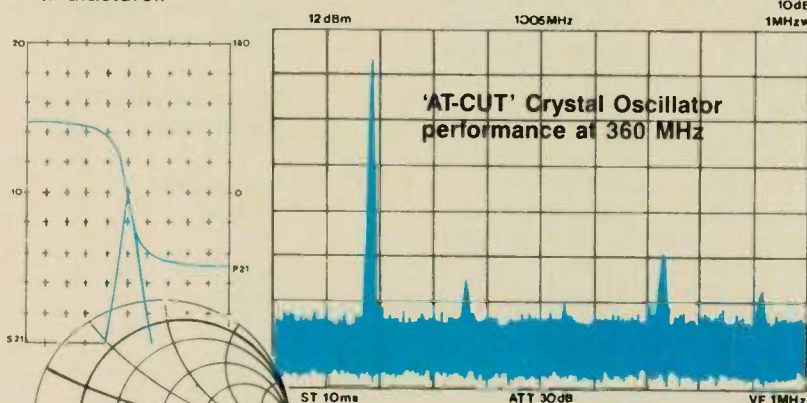
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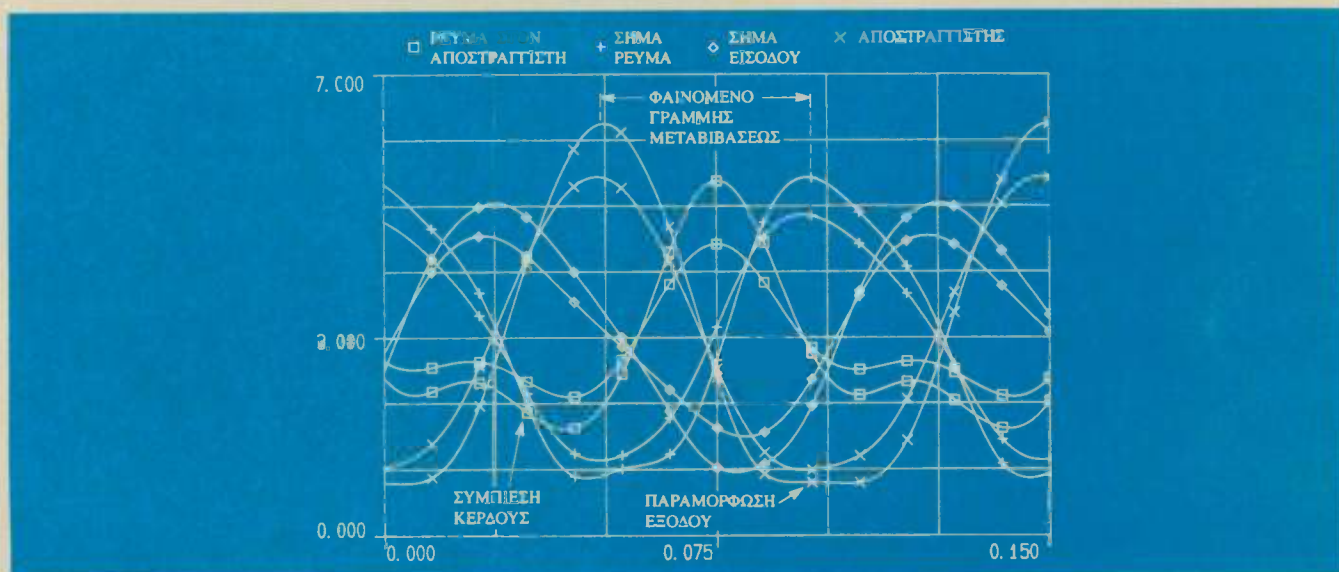
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# Measurement of Analog-to-Digital Converter Settling Time with Equivalent Time Sampling

By Thomas Hack  
Comlinear Corporation

Analog-to-Digital converter (ADC) settling time is an important specification in a variety of applications. In pulse applications the settling characteristic may set the resolution. In applications where a multiplexer (MUX) is used in front of an ADC, it allows the designer to calculate the channel-to-channel crosstalk, and optimize MUX/ADC timing. Systems where settling time may become an issue include time-domain reflectometers (optical and wire), medical-imaging equipment, infra-red and visible light video applications, as well as traditional IQ systems such as radar and ultrasound.

Unfortunately, settling time has been difficult if not impossible to measure in high-speed ADCs. Flash converters invariably use a sampled-comparator topology and comparators determine the settling time. Most subranging converters include a track and hold amplifier whose output may or may not be observed without degrading performance. Either way, the signal may not be available in an analog form at a point in the ADC converter signal path where settling time is established or it may be corrupted by the measuring process. This means that in many situations the only way settling time could be deduced is from the digital samples that the ADC produces. But if the analog-to-digital converter performs well at its maximum sample rate, its settling time should be expected to be less than 1 clock period—and this isn't good enough when other parts in the system (such as MUXs) also contribute to total settling time.

Fortunately, if a highly repetitive test signal is used, equivalent-time sampling can be used. Figure 1 illustrates this approach. A Hewlett-Packard 3326 two channel synthesizer supplies a clock to the ADC under test and a square wave

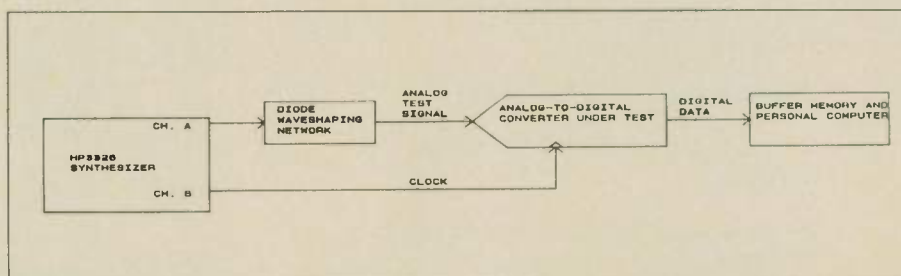


Figure 1. Analog-to-digital converter settling time test setup.

analog test signal. A diode waveshaping network removes any anomalies from the test signal before it enters the ADC. Settling time will be measured to approximately 1 part in 8000 in a 12 bit ADC. The analog-to-digital converter samples the test signal at a clock frequency slightly lower than the analog test signal frequency producing a series of digital words that are placed in memory on board a personal computer. The data is then displayed and printed for analysis purposes.

If the analog test signal is repeatable from one cycle to the next, one sample on a large number of cycles is taken and one or more cycles of the ADC's response to the test signal is reconstructed with very high apparent sampling frequency (Figure 2). For best results a low phase-noise synthesizer (such as the HP 3326) should generate the clock and analog test signal and the clock and the test signal should be derived from the same reference oscillator (by phase locking or other means). Without further signal processing tricks, settling time to 1/2 LSB can be observed (this assumes reasonable analog-to-digital converter signal to noise ratio and synthesizer noise performance).

A Comlinear CLC925 12 Bit, 10 MSPS ADC is used as an example. Starting with a 5 MHz test signal—this gives 100

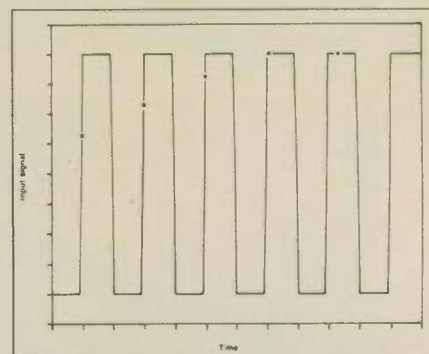


Figure 2. Sequential equivalent time sampling. Asterisks denote actual sample points.

ns for the low state and 100 ns for the high state. Since this converter has a 200 ns minimum clock period, this is a suitable choice.

It is assumed that 4096 samples will be taken to represent 1 cycle of this waveform. This works out to a real time increment of:

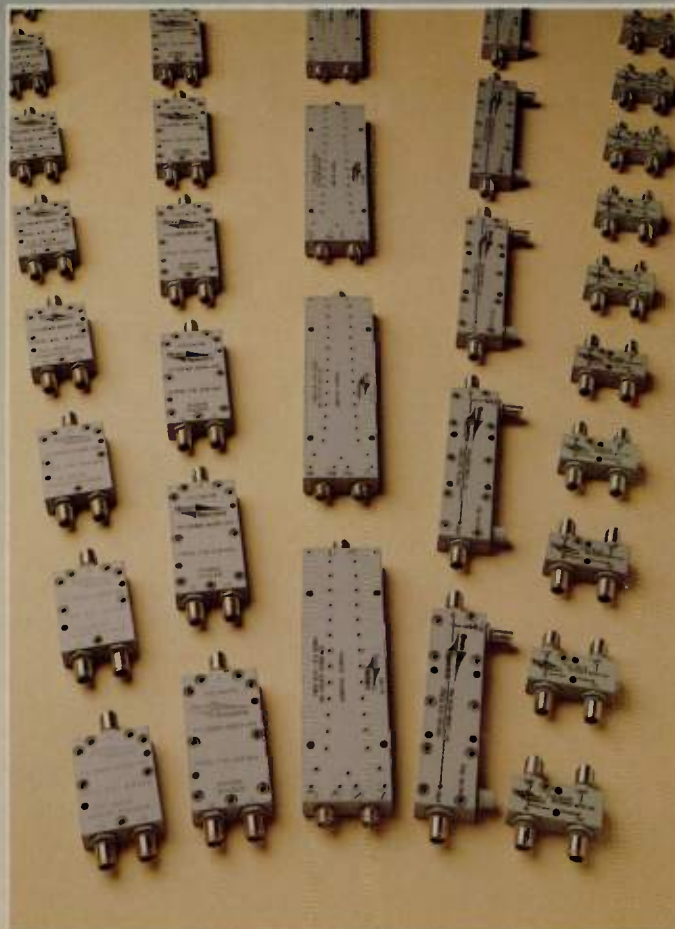
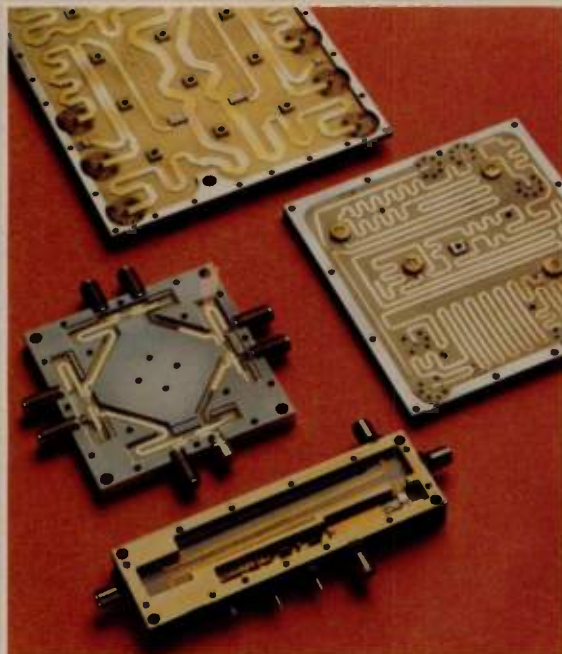
$$t = (200 \times 10^{-9}) / 4096 = 48.83 \text{ ps between consecutive samples.}$$

Using 50 picoseconds as an apparent sampling time interval will give slightly more than 1 cycle of the analog test signal in the 4096 sample record.

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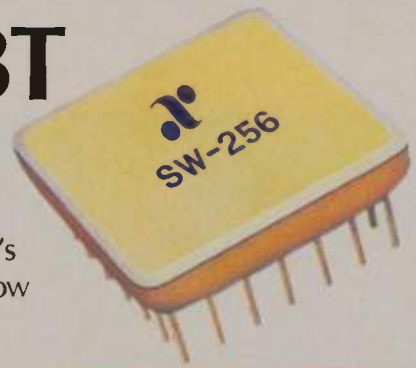
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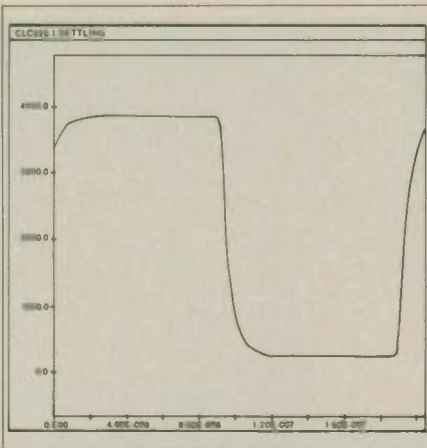


Figure 3a. CLC925 analog-to-digital converter settling time.

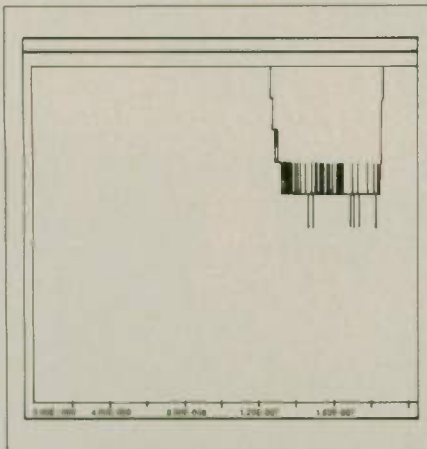


Figure 3b. CLC925 settling-expanded view.

To make the clock period 50 picoseconds longer than the analog test signal period:

$$\text{clock period} = 1/(5 \text{ MHz}) + 50 \text{ ps} = 200.05 \text{ ns.}$$

The clock frequency then is:

$$\text{clock frequency} = 1/(200.05 \text{ ns}) = 4,998,750.312 \text{ Hz}$$

The clock frequency can also be twice this value and every other ADC sample used to reconstruct the waveform. This allows the analog-to-digital converter settling time to be measured near the CLC925's maximum clock frequency. In practice, the settling time numbers are indisguisable.

Figure 3a shows the signal that was acquired through the converter. Figure 3b is the same waveform expanded so that only codes 235 and 246 are depicted on the vertical axis. The spikes

in Figure 3b are one quantization level high. They occur in any ADC as it settles and are due to the analog signal being very close to a transition. As the converter settles to a point approximately midway between two transitions, the spiking is greatly reduced. Measured settling time is approximately 50 nanoseconds. This number includes not only the settling time of the analog-to-digital converter but also the settling time of the synthesizer and waveshaping circuit. As a result, the settling time is actually somewhat less.

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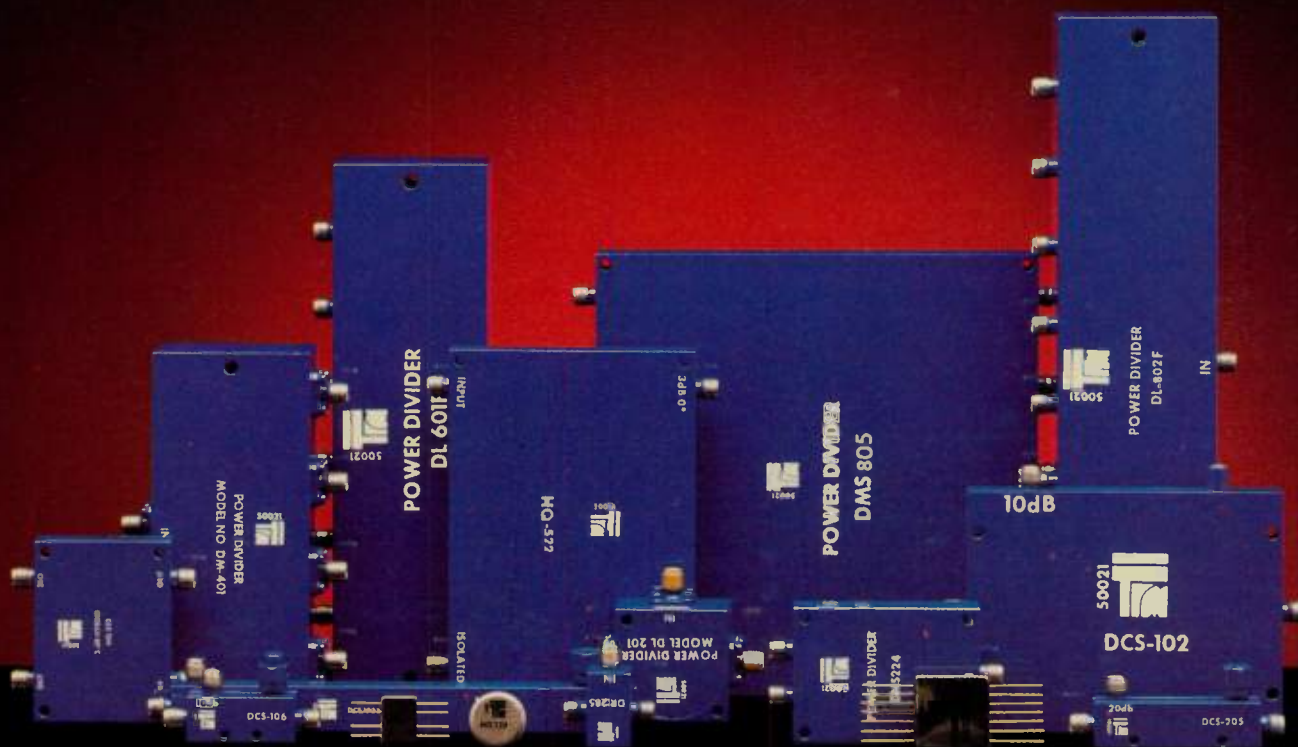
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Thomas Hack is an Applications Engineer with the Data Conversion Group of Comlinear Corporation. He received his BSEE from Cooper Union, his MSEE from Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, and his MBA from the University of Colorado. He can be reached at (303) 226-0500 and his address is 4800 Wheaton Drive, Fort Collins, CO 80525.

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DMS 347	6-18.5	1.00	15	2.00:1	1.70:1	0.50	5	5	3
DMS 421	2-18	1.75	20	1.50:1	1.50:1	0.50	8	30	2
DMS 447	6-18.5	1.25	15	1.60:1	1.60:1	0.30	8	30	1



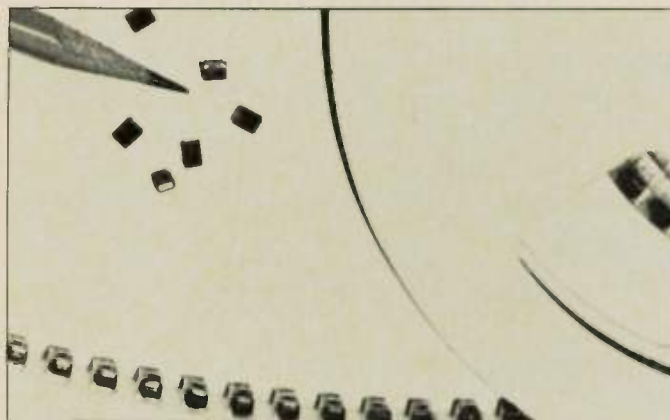


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J. W. Miller Division has produced new surface mount inductors from 0.1  $\mu\text{H}$  through 1000  $\mu\text{H}$ . Current ratings from 740 mA/0.1  $\mu\text{H}$  through 30 mA/1000  $\mu\text{H}$  are available for operation over the -20 to +85 degrees Celsius temperature range. The units are for use over the 2.5 to 250 MHz frequency range. Packaged in bulk, 500-piece reels or on tapes, the inductors measure 3.2 mm long by 2.5 mm wide by 1.3 mm high. Minimum Q is 30 for inductors less than 1  $\mu\text{H}$  or greater than 100  $\mu\text{H}$  and 40 for inductors

between those two values. Precise dimensions and excellent flow soldering terminal strength facilitate automated production. These inductors have internally welded connections and are resistant to solvents per MIL 202 E. Their solderability is per MIL STD 202 Method 208, and they are resistant to a soldering temperature of 250 degrees Celsius for 10 seconds. Tinned copper is used for the terminals and the core is ferrite.

J. W. Miller Division  
INFO/CARD #200



## Frequency Counter/Finder

The Model UTC 8030 universal counter-timer is a benchtop frequency counter and portable frequency finder from Optoelectronics. It makes direct and prescaled frequency, period, and time interval measurements, and calculates and displays frequency ratios. An external jack is provided for lab reference clocks more accurate than the instrument's  $\pm 1$  PPM. Display resolution is 1 Hz in 600 MHz. As a frequency finder for use in the



field, UTC 8030 features a 10 Hz to 2400 MHz operating range and sensitivity better than 1 mV up to 500 MHz, and better than 10 mV at 2400 MHz. The unit features a 16-segment LCD signal strength bargraph, with each segment representing 3 dB. The UTC 8030 is priced at \$579 each, and optional  $\pm 0.1$  PPM time base is \$125; NiCad battery pack is \$75; LCD backlight is \$40.

Optoelectronics, Incorporated  
INFO/CARD #199

## Ferrite EMI Attenuators Evaluation Kit

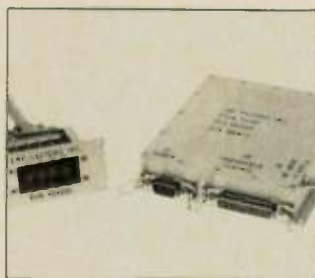
Chomerics, Inc. is offering a CHO-SORB<sup>®</sup> EMI Attenuators Evaluation Kit for design and test engineers. The kit contains 15 ferrite configurations including cylindrical and split cylindrical for round cables, and split rectangular for flat ribbon cables. Both plastic and metal clamps are included in the kit to facilitate installation for split configurations. Chomerics CHO-SORB attenuators are made of a specially formulated ferrite material of nickel zinc/iron oxide, and reduce EMI in cabling applications. Typical properties of CHO-SORB material are initial permeability of 850, with a maximum of 5000, and volume resistivity of  $10^5$  ohm-cm. They are used on computers, printers, keyboards, radio and television receivers and other high frequency devices.

Chomerics, Incorporated  
INFO/CARD #198



## Frequency Synthesizer

The Series 400 Frequency Synthesizer from EMF Systems has a frequency range of 1200 to 2400 MHz with options up to 10 GHz and a bandwidth up to 500

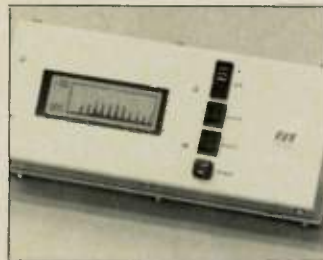


MHz. Its step size is 1 MHz with other step sizes available, and an output power of +13 dBm minimum. The Series 400 has a switching speed of 1ms for a 1MHz step size. Phase noise is -85 dBc at 10 kHz, -105 dBc at 100 kHz, and -125 dBc at 1 MHz. Harmonics are -15 dBc maximum and discrete spurious signals are -60 dBc. The Series 400's operating temperature range is -20 to +70 degrees Celsius and MIL environments are optional. Options include external reference frequencies of 1 MHz or 10 MHz, TTL level external reference input, internal reference, output power to +20 dBm, thumbwheel switch and cable assembly, and AFC. The synthesizer is 4.2" x 4.8" x 1.5" plus a mounting flange.

EMF Systems, Incorporated  
INFO/CARD #197

## Spectrum Display Unit

Microdyne has introduced the CSD-SDU Spectrum Display Unit. The portable unit is designed for use in satellite earth station installations, alignments, and system check out. The CSD-SDU operates in the L band (950 - 1459 MHz) and displays the spectrum on an LCD graphics screen. The unit can be used for both C and Ku band dish alignment, and for L band network setup and maintenance. It also provides three display modes: bar graph mode that displays 24 vertical bars which correspond to the dBm levels for each C band transponder; spectrum mode (5 MHz steps); and oversample mode that removes the level fluctuation due to vertical sync modulation in the bar graph mode. The CSD-SDU has a self-contained, rechargeable battery pack good for three



hours of continuous operation or two hours when powering an LNB. An internal, low-battery indicator monitors the rechargeable power supply.

Microdyne Corporation  
INFO/CARD #196



## VCXO/ECL Oscillators

Connor-Winfield has developed four crystal oscillators for use with fiber optics transmission lines. The 51.840 MHz CMOS VCXO (HV54/64-160) and the 155.520 MHz ECL (EO1-453/463) are available with  $\pm 20$  PPM center frequency stability over the temperature ranges of  $-40$  to  $+85$  and  $0$  to  $+70$  degrees Celsius. The EO1-453/463 also features dual complimentary outputs. The HV54/64-160 models run \$87.95 each, and the EO1-453/463 models run \$82.70 each, in ten piece quantities.

Connor-Winfield Corporation  
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## Low Noise Frequency Synthesizers

The PTS Model 0 in the  $\times 10$  series covers the 10 kHz to 10 MHz frequency band with 1 Hz resolution. Performance specifications include  $-35$  dBc harmonic distortion,  $-60$  dBc spurious outputs, and  $-132$  dBc SSB phase noise at 1 kHz offset. The 160R-type OEM synthesizer covers the 0.1 to 160 MHz range with various DDS options for phase-continuous switching available.

Programmed Test Sources, Incorporated  
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## Miniature Wideband Current Probe

Model 711 Miniature Wideband Current Probe from American Laser Systems has a bandwidth of 8 kHz to 100 MHz and a risetime of less than 3.5 ns. It adds only 0.2 ohms shunted by 4  $\mu$ H to the circuit being measured. The price is \$85 for 1 to 9 down to \$53 for 75 to 100 pieces.

American Laser Systems, Incorporated  
INFO/CARD #193

## Broadband Noise Generator

Noise Com has released the NC 8110, a noise generator that delivers 1 W of white Gaussian noise from 2 to 500 MHz. It contains a precision noise source capable of delivering a broadband signal as well as an amplifier with excellent amplitude flatness. Several options

are available including 10 dB and 110 dB attenuators calibrated in 1 dB steps.

Noise Com  
INFO/CARD #192

## S-Band LNA

An S-Band LNA has been released by California Amplifier with an input frequency from 2.1 to 2.7 GHz, a noise figure of 1.5 dB at 23 degrees Celsius, and output power of +10 dB minimum at 1 dB compression. Part C308872 is the high gain unit (25 dB), and part C30947 is the low gain unit (20 dB). The price per unit is \$60.

California Amplifier  
INFO/CARD #191

## Bandpass Filters

Model 9000 Series DRF Filters from have tunable frequency ranges of 20 - 40 MHz, 40 - 80 MHz, 80 - 160 MHz, 160 - 320 MHz, and 320 - 520 MHz. They have a bandwidth of 4 to 10 percent and VSWR of 2:1 maximum.

Interad Ltd.  
INFO/CARD #190

## GPS Marine Antenna

The Model AN-712 is a low loss, commercial GPS antenna that provides hemispherical coverage at the L1 operating frequency. Gain is 0 dBic minimum at zenith,  $-3$  dBic nominal at the horizon, and  $-10$  dBic minimum at 15 degrees below the horizon.

Antenna and Microwave Div. of Adams-Russell  
INFO/CARD #189

## Fiber Optic Link

Lite Link™ is a fiber optic system for land mobile and other communications released by Decibel. A DBFST11P-G Optical Transmitter converts a 850-890 MHz analog signal to 1300 nm light and transmits it over a single mode optical fiber to a Decibel 50, 100, or 150 watt tower top Optical Receiver/Power Amplifier which converts the light back to RF and amplifies it for radiation by the antenna.

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## RF products *continued*

maximum delay time of 200 ns without cascading. The range of eight lines with delay times from 10 ns to 200 ns can be further programmed by users in units of 2, 4, 8, 16, and 32 ns.

**RF Technology, Incorporated**  
INFO/CARD #187

### Class A 500 Watt HF Transmitter

Harris RF Communications has introduced a new Class A 500 Watt HF transmitter, designed for use in environments where multiple transmitters and receivers are collocated. The RF-1135 provides 500 watts of RF output power over a bandwidth of 2 to 30 MHz in 10 Hz increments.

**RF Communications Group  
Harris Corporation**  
INFO/CARD #186

### Miniature Frequency Synthesizers

A family of low cost miniature frequency synthesizers covering frequencies from 200 to 1600 MHz with bandwidths up to an octave has been released by Pulsar Microwave. Phase noise at 1 kHz offset is greater than -78 dBc and -95 dBc minimum at 100 kHz offset.

**Pulsar Microwave Corporation**  
INFO/CARD #185

### Miniature Switches

Model #CT33S6C internally terminated SPDT features 1.4:1 maximum VSWR, insertion loss of 0.4 dB maximum, and 60 dB minimum isolation from DC to 12 GHz, and Model #HS-35S50-1T features 1.2:1 maximum VSWR, insertion loss of 0.2 dB maximum, and minimum isolation of 80 dB.

**Teledyne Microwave**  
INFO/CARD #184

### Dual Receiver

Watkins-Johnson has introduced the WJ-8700, a compact dual VLF/HF receiver designed to monitor or search the 5 kHz to 32 MHz frequency range. AM, FM, CW, and SSB demodulation modes are available. Numerous options are available, including: 21.4 MHz signal monitor output, IEEE-488 or RS-232 remote interface bus, and independent sideband.

**Watkins-Johnson Company**  
INFO/CARD #183

### Cellular Panel Base Station Antenna

Six cellular panel antennas with adjustable beamwidths have been introduced by Antenna Specialists. The antenna Series ASPD990J has been designed for the 824 to 896 MHz cellular band and offers a horizontal beamwidth that may be set to 60, 90, or 110 degrees without radome removal. Gain ranges from 10.5 to 12.5 dB and VSWR is 1.5:1 maximum.

**Antenna Specialist Company**  
INFO/CARD #182

### 20 dB Coupler

Sage Laboratories has released the Model FC4545-3 20 dB  $\pm$  1 dB coupler. This unit operates over the 1810-1830 MHz range, has an insertion loss of less than 0.25 dB, VSWR of 1.15:1, and greater than 40 dB of isolation. The coupler is designed for airborne applications and weighs 1.1 ounces.

**Sage Laboratories, Incorporated**  
INFO/CARD #181

### Surface Mount Filter Packages

IMpac™ Surface Mount Filter Packages feature Mil-spec lumped element miniature filter technology. The packages contain miniature low-, band-, and high-pass designs in a variety of transfer functions. The filters have isolation of 70 dB, impedance of 50 ohms, and a frequency range of DC to 5000 MHz.

**Integrated Microwave**  
INFO/CARD #180

### Mica Capacitors

A family of subminiature precision RF capacitors is now available from Cornell Dubilier Electronics. The units work up to 1 GHz and are available in 191 standard ratings with tolerances down to  $\pm 0.5$  pF or  $\pm 0.5$  percent.

**Cornell Dubilier Electronics**  
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### 450 MHz DAC

Plessey Semiconductors is now offering a 450 MHz, 8-bit DAC. The SP98608 has settling times of 2.2 ns,  $\pm 1/2$  LSB. The unit is capable of driving doubly terminated 50 ohm lines. Pricing is \$49.95 in quantities of 1000 and is available now.



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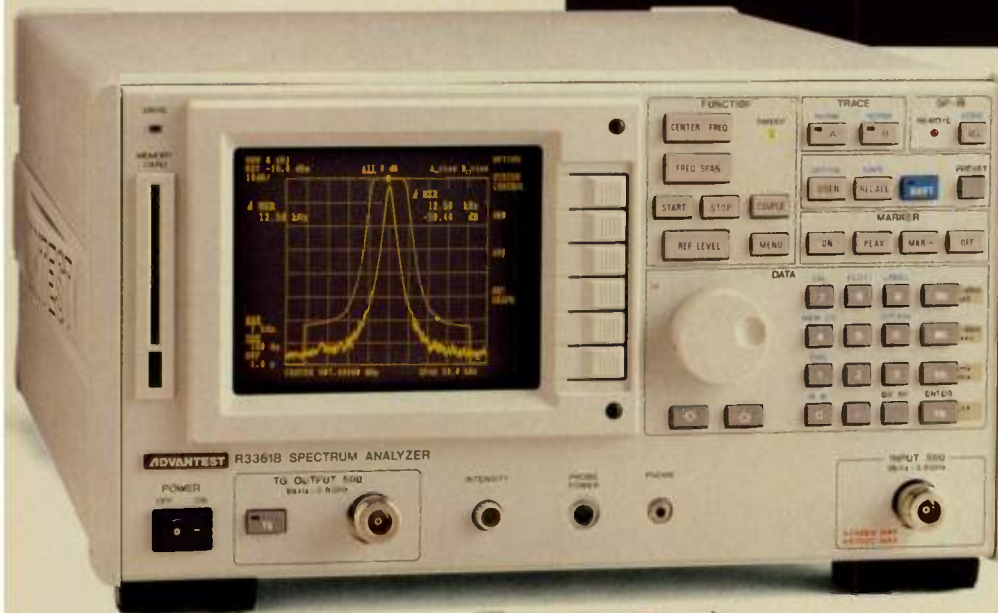
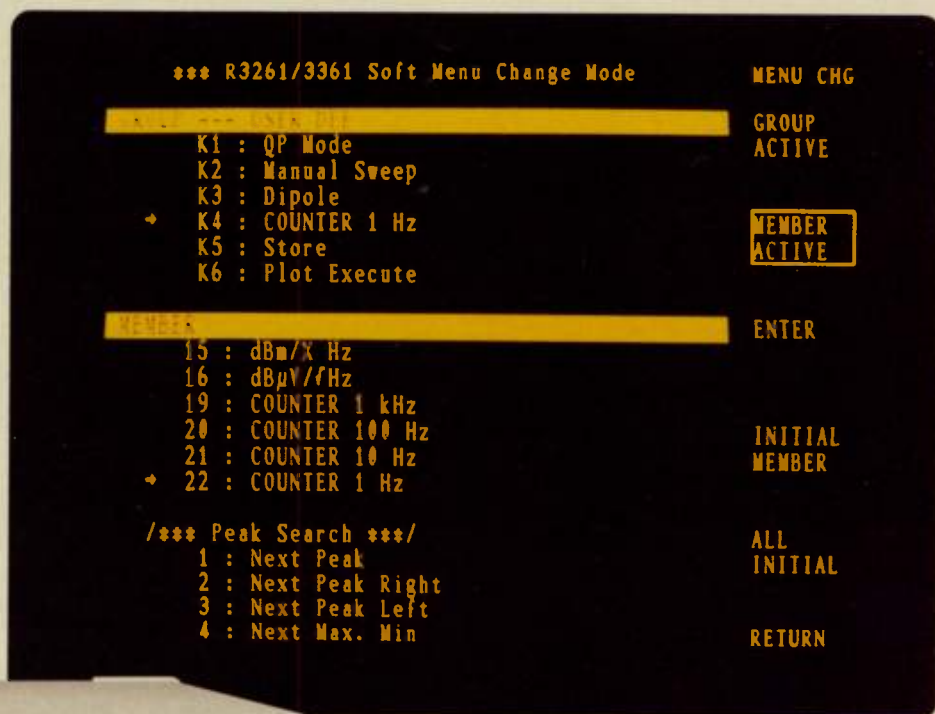


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**Plessey Semiconductors**  
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## Wideband Limiters

Model LCPM-8-160/50-M features very low AM to PM conversion over the 2-200 MHz range, and model LCPM-8-30/15 is a wideband limiter with a bandpass filter to meet a user-specified bandwidth in the 2-200 MHz range. It also features a power amplifier at the output capable of delivering up to +20 dBm.

**Miteq**  
INFO/CARD #177

## Manual SP2T Switch

Loral Microwave-Wavecom has introduced the Model 020-EM2-A4S-6CO, a manual SP2T RF coaxial switch that operates from DC to 26.5 GHz. The switch has VSWR of 1.6:1 or less, insertion loss of 0.6 dB or less, and isolation of 50 dB minimum. It meets MIL-S-3928 and MIL-E-5400.

**Loral Microwave-Wavecom**  
INFO/CARD #176

## Surface Mount Clock Oscillators

Toyocom has released surface mount clock oscillators in the frequency range from 1.5 to 32 MHz. They are offered in a plastic 4 pin SOJ package and models compatible with TTL logic or high speed CMOS are available. Current pricing is \$2.70 in 1000 piece lots.

**Toyocom**  
INFO/CARD #175

## 8-Channel Switched Filter Bank

The 8-channel switched filter bank from K&L Microwave, covers the 20 MHz to 1020 MHz frequency range and has channel bandwidths that range from 30 to 60 percent. Isolation is 70 dB from DC to 1300 MHz, insertion loss is 5 dB maximum, and VSWR over the 3 dB channel bandwidths is 1.7:1.

**K&L Microwave**  
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### Disk RFD-1089: October 1990

"Microstrip CAD Program" by Thomas Cefalo of MITRE Corp. Computes microstrip impedance, delay, inductance, capacitance, and other factors. (BASIC, compiled)

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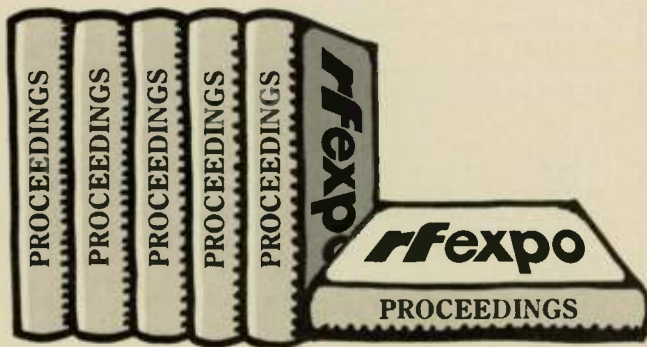
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# Application of Shielded Cables

By Thomas A. Jerse  
Hewlett-Packard Signal Analysis Division

Shielded cables play an important role in the design of RF and microwave equipment. One need only look through a cable manufacturer's catalog to gain an appreciation of the many different types of shielded cables available. This article explores the differences in shielding characteristics among shield types. But no matter how good its theoretical shielding, a cable is only as good as the way in which it is grounded. Thus, the implications of cable grounding on the shielding effectiveness of a cable will also be discussed.

Conductors are shielded for two basic reasons: to prevent the coupling to other electronic circuits of the signal carried by the conductor and to protect against the coupling of external electric and magnetic fields to the conductor. In most applications, the cable shield also provides a return path for the current flowing in the conductor. In this way, a shielded cable serves as transmission line, providing a path with a well-controlled characteristic impedance for the propagation of the signal from one circuit to another.

A properly grounded cable shield forms a barrier against both electric and magnetic fields. A grounded shield ideally provides a low-impedance, low-potential surface for terminating the flux lines of an electric field. Good magnetic-field shielding is obtained when both the signal current and all its return current flow inside the cable.

When a cable drives a balanced load, as in Figure 1a, all the signal current,  $I_1$ , must return in the cable shield as  $I_s$ . Because the current loop is contained inside the cable, a minimum amount of magnetic field is radiated. But balanced loads are often costly to implement in practice. As a result, most loads are unbalanced as in Figure 1b; the source and the load are both connected to a ground system, in this example, a chassis. This situation presents the signal current flowing through the load with two possible return paths. The current can flow back down the cable shield as  $I_s$ , or it can flow along the chassis as  $I_g$ . The cable provides the best magnetic shielding when all the signal current flowing through the load

returns along the shield; i.e.,  $I_1 = I_s$ . The chassis path is much less desirable because the magnetic flux produced by the return current is unshielded.

The proportion of current flowing in the two paths depends on the relative impedances presented by the chassis and the cable shield. At low frequencies, the current divides according to the resistance presented by each path. The chassis generally presents significantly less resistance than the cable shield so that the bulk of the low-frequency current returns through the chassis.

At high frequencies, most of the return current flows in the cable shield because magnetic-field coupling between the inner conductor and the shield makes this the path of least inductance (1). Consider the simplified model of Figure 2 where a source drives a load through a shielded cable. The cable shield is represented by the series combination of its inductance,  $L_s$ , and its resistance,  $R_s$ . The concentric geometry of the cable prescribes strong magnetic field coupling between the inner conductor and the shield. Because every magnetic-flux line produced by current flowing in the shield encircles both the shield and the inner conductor, the mutual inductance,  $M$ , between the shield conductor and the center conductor equals the self-inductance of the shield,  $L_s$ .

The relationship between  $I_1$  and  $I_s$  can be determined by setting the sum of the voltage drops around the shield loop equal to zero.

$$I_s(R_s + j\omega L_s) - I_1 j\omega M = 0 \quad (1)$$

After rearranging the terms and observing that  $L_s = M$ , the relationship between load and shield current can be written

$$\frac{I_1}{I_s} = \frac{j\omega L_s}{R_s + j\omega L_s} \quad (2)$$

This transfer function, plotted in Figure 3, asymptotically approaches unity at high frequencies. Here, the cable supplies the most effective magnetic shielding. The breakpoint of this high-pass function is given by

$$\omega_c = \frac{R_s}{L_s} \quad (3)$$

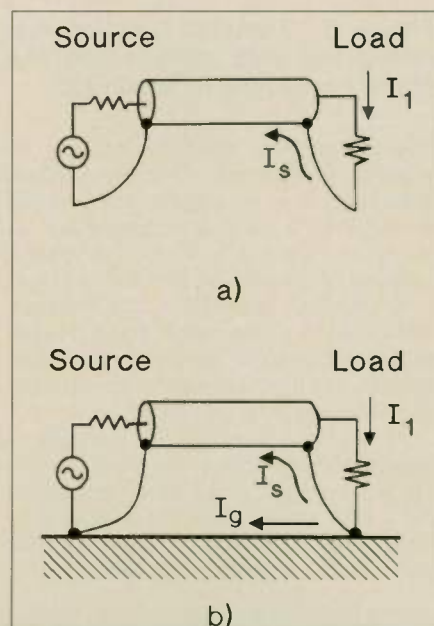


Figure 1. a) Balanced load circuit, b) Unbalanced load circuit - this gives the returning current two paths to the source.

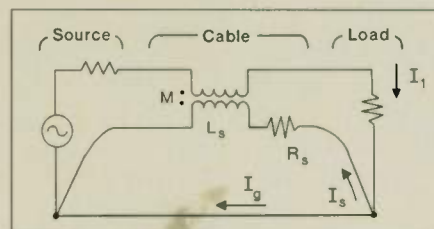


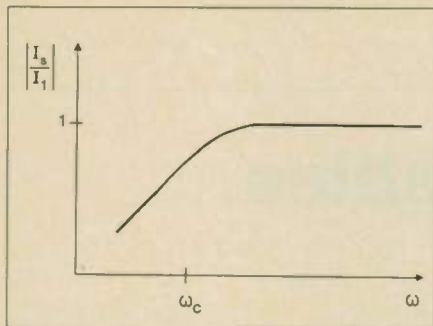
Figure 2. Equivalent circuit to evaluate current flow in a shielded cable.

and is known as the shield cutoff frequency. This parameter depends on the physical characteristics of the cable and varies among cable types from a few hundred hertz to a few kilohertz. Because the shield cutoff frequency represents the 3-dB point where only 70.7 percent of the signal current returns in the shield, a general rule-of-thumb is that  $5\omega_c$  marks the lower limit of good magnetic shielding.

## Cable Transfer Impedance

The ability of a shielded cable to protect its circuit against external inter-





**Figure 3. Transfer function between the load current and the current returning in the shield.**

ference can be characterized by its transfer impedance. Transfer impedance is a useful measure of the isolation provided by a cable shield because, as shown in Figure 4, it relates the voltage induced on the inside of a cable shield to a current flowing on the outside. Because the voltage drop along a cable is proportional to its length, transfer impedance measurements are ordinarily normalized to a unit length.

At high frequencies, the skin effect separates the differential-mode return current flowing on the inner surface of the cable shield from the interference current flowing on the outer surface. The skin effect describes the tendency of

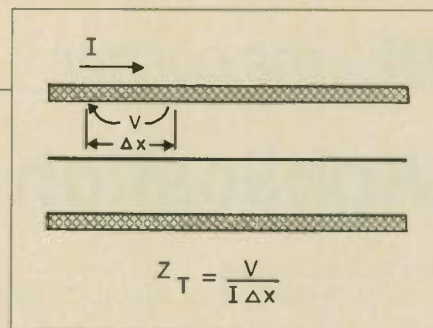
high-frequency current to flow on the surface of conductors. This phenomenon is quantified by a skin depth, which represents the distance below a conductor surface where the current density falls to 1/e of the surface current. Skin depth depends on frequency and the material properties of the conductor according to

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega \mu \sigma}} \quad (4)$$

where  $\omega$  is the frequency of the current,  $\mu$  is the permeability of the conductor ( $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$  H/m for non-magnetic material), and  $\sigma$  is the conductivity of the conductor.

One would expect cable transfer impedance to decrease with frequency as the skin depth becomes shallower. The transfer impedance of a rigid or semi-rigid cable that uses a solid, tubular shield has this characteristic and takes the form

$$Z_T = R_0 \frac{(1 + j) \frac{t}{\delta}}{\sinh \left[ (1 + j) \frac{t}{\delta} \right]} \quad (5)$$



**Figure 4. The concept of transfer impedance in a shielded cable.**

where  $t$  is the shield thickness.  $R_0$  represents the DC resistance of the cable shield and depends on the shield parameters as

$$R_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi a t} \quad (6)$$

with the outer radius of the cable shield denoted by  $a$ . The variation with frequency of the transfer impedance, plotted in Figure 5, shows that there is virtually no communication between currents flowing on the inside and the outside of a solid shield at high frequencies. The transfer impedance of a solid shield, given in equation 5, is also described as a diffusion impedance,  $Z_d$ ,

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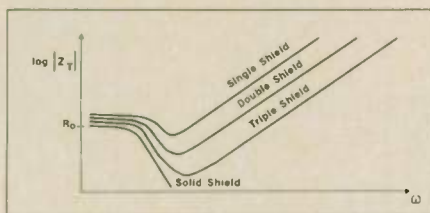
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**Figure 5. Typical effect of shield type on transfer impedance.**

because it represents the ability of the signal to propagate directly through a metal shield.

Flexible cables find the widest use because they are more convenient than semi-rigid cables. A flexible shield is formed by weaving together a number of groups of fine wires. Woven shields exhibit a regular pattern of rhombic apertures which serve as pathways for field coupling through the shield. In most high-frequency applications, magnetic field coupling dominates so that the transfer impedance of a flexible cable is usually expressed as

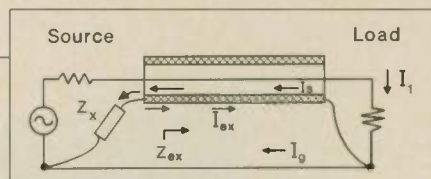
$$Z_T = Z_d + j\omega M_{12} \quad (7)$$

where  $M_{12}$  represents the mutual inductance between the outside of the shield and the inner conductor.  $M_{12}$  depends

on the physical parameters of the cable shield, such as the number and size of the wires used in the weave, the angle of the weave, and so on (2). The diffusion impedance,  $Z_d$ , is proportional to the DC resistance of the woven shield and diminishes with frequency in accordance with equation 5.

Equation 7 reveals that, at lower frequencies, the principal mechanism for leakage through the cable shield is diffusion. At higher frequencies, the dominance of the reactive term indicates the greater efficiency of magnetic coupling through the rhombic apertures in the shield.

The shielding effectiveness of a cable can be improved by laying a second woven shield over the first. A second layer typically lowers the resistance,  $R_0$ , and hence the diffusion impedance, by about a factor of two. This change translates to approximately a 6-dB improvement in shielding effectiveness at low frequencies. The real benefit of a second shield accrues at high frequencies because the extra layer significantly reduces the mutual inductance by covering a large percentage of the rhombic



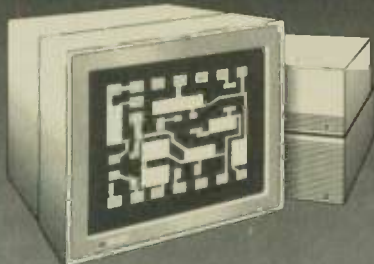
**Figure 6. Excitation of common-mode current flow,  $I_{ex}$ , by poor shield grounding.**

apertures in the weave. The increase in high-frequency shielding effectiveness due to the second shield can exceed 40 dB. Adding a third shield layer further improves the shielding effectiveness of a cable. Figure 5 illustrates typical differences in the transfer impedance among cable types.

### Cable Grounding

In practice, the effectiveness of a shielded cable is often determined by the way it is grounded. Inductance or resistance in the leads between the end of the cable shield and the load or the signal source driving the cable can increase the emissions radiated from it. The circuit in Figure 6 represents a poor ground at the source end of the cable with the impedance  $Z_x$ . Above the shield cutoff frequency, nearly all the load

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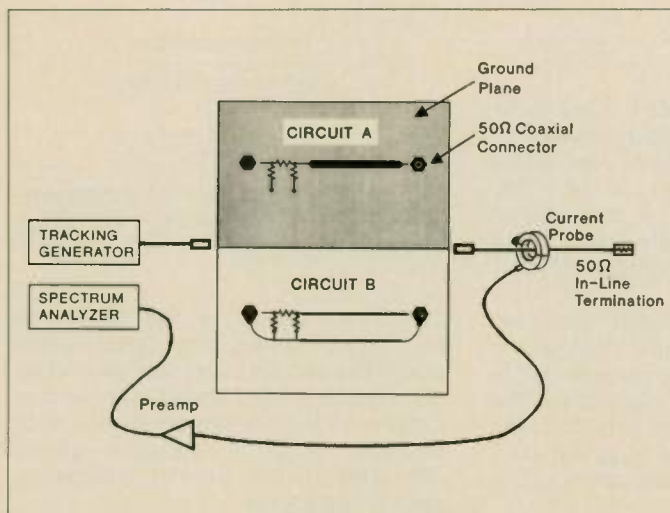
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AT-50-10	50 (1.5W)	DC-1.5GHz	10.00	19.00	21.00	19.00				
AT-50-5	50 (1.5W)	DC-1.5GHz	9.00	18.00	20.00	18.00				
AT-50-2	50 (1.5W)	DC-1.5GHz	8.00	17.00	19.00	17.00				
AT-50-1	50 (1.5W)	DC-1.5GHz	7.00	16.00	18.00	16.00				
AT-50-0.5	50 (1.5W)	DC-1.5GHz	6.00	15.00	17.00	15.00				
AT-50-0.2	50 (1.5W)	DC-1.5GHz	5.00	14.00	16.00	14.00				
AT-50-0.1	50 (1.5W)	DC-1.5GHz	4.00	13.00	15.00	13.00				
AT-75-15	75 (0.5W)	DC-1.5GHz	17.00	26.00	45.00	19.00				
Detector, Mixer, Zero Bias Schottky										
DS-15-15	50, 75	0.1-4.0GHz	84.00			84.00				
DM-51	50	0.1-4.0GHz				84.00				
Resistive Impedance Transformers, Minimum Loss Ratio										
RT-50-15	50 to 75	DC-1.5GHz	17.00	26.00	45.00	17.00				
RT-50-10	50 to 75	DC-1.5GHz	17.00	26.00	45.00	17.00				
RT-50-5	50 to 75	DC-1.5GHz	17.00	26.00	45.00	17.00				
Terminations										
CT-50-15	50 (1.5W)	DC-4.0GHz	11.00	19.00	19.00	17.00				9.00
CT-50-10	50 (1.5W)	DC-4.0GHz	10.00	18.00	18.00	16.00				
CT-50-5	50 (1.5W)	DC-4.0GHz	9.00	17.00	17.00	15.00				
CT-50-2	50 (1.5W)	DC-4.0GHz	8.00	16.00	16.00	14.00				
CT-50-1	50 (1.5W)	DC-4.0GHz	7.00	15.00	15.00	13.00				
CT-50-0.5	50 (1.5W)	DC-4.0GHz	6.00	14.00	14.00	12.00				
CT-50-0.2	50 (1.5W)	DC-4.0GHz	5.00	13.00	13.00	11.00				
CT-50-0.1	50 (1.5W)	DC-4.0GHz	4.00	12.00	12.00	10.00				
Matched Terminations, 1.0:1 to 8:1, Open Circuit, Short Circuit										
MT-51	50	DC-1.5GHz	45.00		45.00	45.00				
MT-75	75	DC-1.5GHz			45.00					
Fixed Ratio Terminations, 1:1 to 10:1										
FT-51	50	DC-1.5GHz	17.00	26.00	19.00	17.00				
FT-75	75	DC-1.5GHz	17.00	26.00	45.00	17.00				
FT-100	100	DC-1.5GHz	17.00	26.00	45.00	17.00				
Directional Couplers, 3dB										
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LD-R30	0.3W	DC-500MHz	17.00	26.00	19.00	17.00				
LD-R50	0.5W	DC-500MHz	17.00	26.00	19.00	17.00				
LD-R100	1.0W	DC-500MHz	17.00	26.00	19.00	17.00				
Fixed Attenuators, 2, 3, 4, 5, 10 and 20 dB, $\pi$ -phase value										
AT-50-15T-3	50	DC-1.5GHz	16.00	1.00 80	30.00	54.00				
AT-50-15T-5	50	DC-1.5GHz	64.00	0.00 80	82.00	74.00				
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DC-5-50	50	DC-2.0GHz								
DC-7-5-47.5	75	DC-2.0GHz	84.00	84.00		84.00				
Double-Balanced Mixers										
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DM-5000C	50	2-5000MHz								94.00
HF Post, 1.8 Amp, and 1/16 Amp, 1/32										
PL-50	50	DC-1.5GHz	17.00	26.00	45.00	17.00				
PL-75	75	DC-1.5GHz	17.00	26.00		17.00				





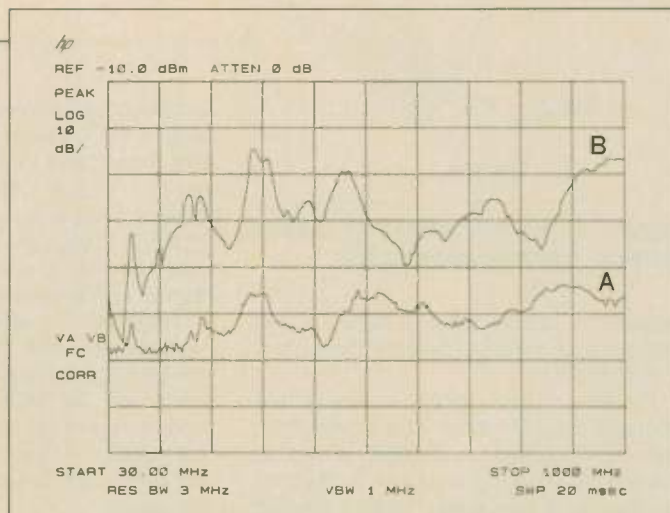
**Figure 7. Experiment demonstrating the benefit of maintaining the proper characteristic-impedance in the circuitry driving a cable.**

current would return in the shield of a well-grounded cable. However, the grounding impedance,  $Z_x$ , makes it less attractive for the return current to flow down the cable shield as  $I_s$  and more attractive for the current to return in the ground system as  $I_g$ .

At high frequencies, where the skin

depth is somewhat shallower than the thickness of the shield,  $Z_x$  causes common-mode current to flow along the outside of the cable. Above the shield cutoff frequency, the skin effect forces the return current to flow on the inner surface of the shield because that surface has the strongest coupling to the

center conductor. When the return current reaches the source end of the cable, it has two possible paths to return to its source: it can flow through  $Z_x$  back to the source; or, it can flow along the outside of the cable shield as  $I_{ex}$ . The latter path represents an unshielded common-mode current flow which ex-



**Figure 8. Qualitative comparison of common-mode current produced by the two different cable grounding schemes shown in Figure 7.**

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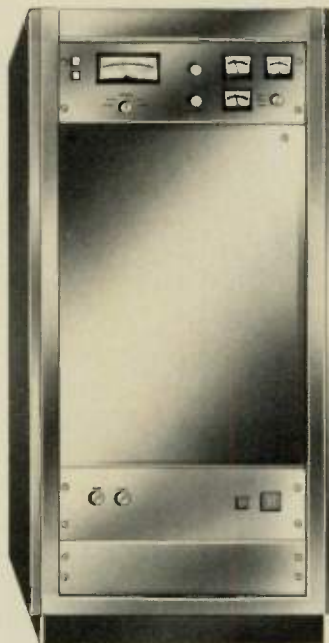
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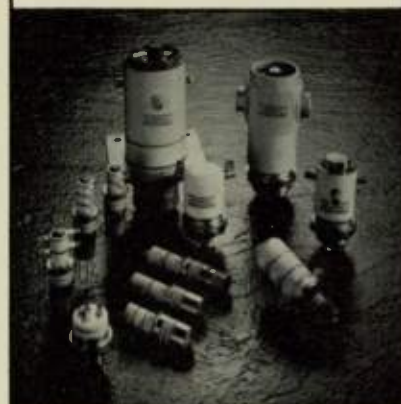
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cites radiated emissions from the cable. Let  $Z_{ex}$  represent the impedance looking down the outside of the cable. The current divider formed between  $Z_x$  and  $Z_{ex}$  governs the proportion of return current that flows as common-mode current.

$$I_{ex} = I_s \frac{Z_x}{Z_x + Z_{ex}} \quad (8)$$

The skin effect physically separates the currents flowing on the inner and outer surfaces of the cable shield. Thus, at high frequencies a cable shield actually serves as two conductors.

The best way to curtail  $I_{ex}$  is to ground the cable well; that is, to minimize  $Z_x$ . The other design option involves increasing the external cable impedance,  $Z_{ex}$ , often implemented by wrapping the cable around a ferrite toroidal core so that the common-mode current encounters a lossy inductance.

The relationship between cable grounding and common-mode current flow can be demonstrated by the experiment diagramed in Figure 7. A printed-circuit board contains two different structures.

In circuit A, a trace above a ground plane forms a microstrip transmission line with a characteristic impedance of 50 ohms. Circuit B does not have a ground plane; the circuit is formed by two parallel traces creating a high-impedance transmission line. Each circuit includes a 6-dB pad to provide a good input match. A spectrum analyzer combined with a tracking generator was used to evaluate the relative emissions from each circuit. The tracking generator drove the circuit input, while a terminated 50 ohm cable was connected to the output. A wide-band current probe connected to the spectrum analyzer through a preamplifier sensed the common-mode current flowing through the cable. The results illustrated in Figure 8 show that the relatively inductive impedance of the open wire line in circuit B causes a significant increase in common-mode current. The radiated emissions from the cable would be as much as 30-dB higher at some frequencies.

### Summary

Shielded cables are most effective when the load current returns entirely

in the cable. Above about five times the shield cutoff frequency, mutual coupling between the center and outer conductor of a shielded cable causes most of the return current to flow in the shield. However, poor cable grounding can cause common-mode current flow on the outside of the cable shield. Maintaining a matched characteristic impedance from the cable connector back to the source of current can effectively minimize the radiated emissions from a cable. **RF**

### References

1. H.W. Ott, *Noise Reduction Techniques in Electronic Systems*, 2nd ed., John Wiley, New York, 1988, pp. 42-52.
2. E.F. Vance, *Coupling to Shielded Cables*, John Wiley, New York, 1978.

### About the Author

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## Log Fidelity Test Fixture

By James D. English  
ABC Circuit Design

The log fidelity test fixture is used to observe the transfer function error of a logarithmic amplifier in real time. The technique used is based on the principle that when an exponential waveform is operated upon by the logarithmic function, the result is a linear function. In this specific case, the exponential signal is a function of time, therefore, the generated function is also linear with time. Since accurate linear functions of time are easily generated, the output of the device under test is then subtracted from the generated linear function. The result is the transfer error.

The following set of goals were used to design the test fixture:

- The unit would allow a test range of 100 dB to correspond with 10 divisions across on a typical display device. This will allow a horizontal sensitivity of 10 dB per division.
- The unit would produce at least 0 dBm into 50 ohms.
- The RF output impedance would be 50 ohms with a broadband match.
- The unit would operate on +5 volts.
- The output error sensitivity would be 0.2V/dB.
- The output sweep would be 2V full scale or 0.2V/10dB of display range.

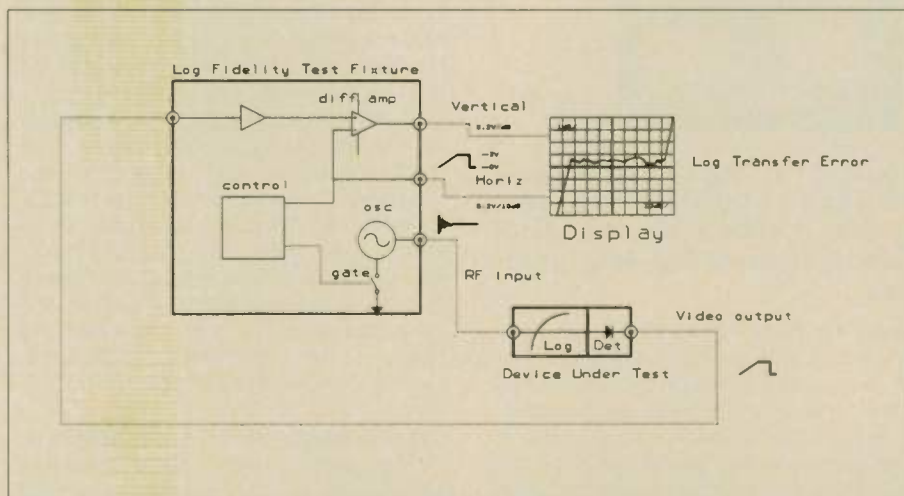


Figure 1. Block diagram of log fidelity test fixture.

- A log video input range of 0.5 volts full scale to 5 volts full scale of either polarity would be accommodated.

### Circuit Operation

The fixture is intended to be used with an external oscilloscope display as shown in the block diagram in Figure 1. The sweep output is fed into the horizontal input and the scale factor is set for 0.2V/division. The video output is di-

rected to the display vertical input. The scale factor is set to 0.2V/division. This arrangement will allow 1 dB/division vertical error over a 100 dB logging range.

Operation of the fixture requires that the video output of the logarithmic amplifier under test be connected to the video input connector on the front panel. The position of the polarity switch may have to be changed depending on the

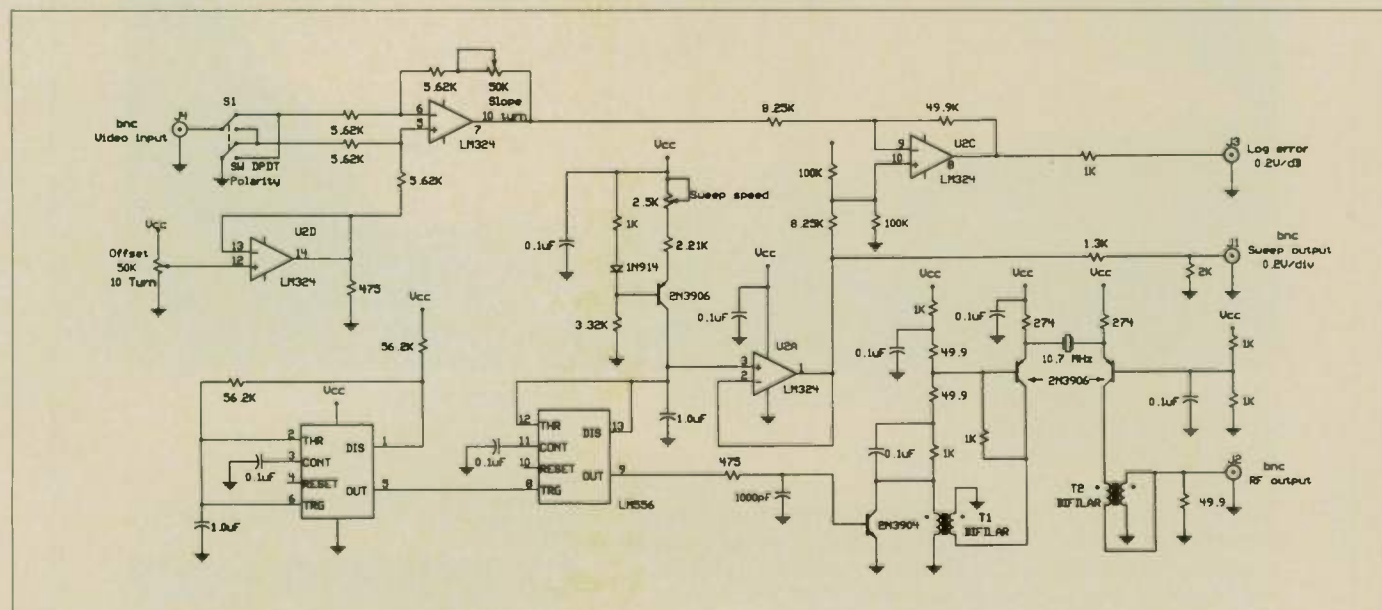
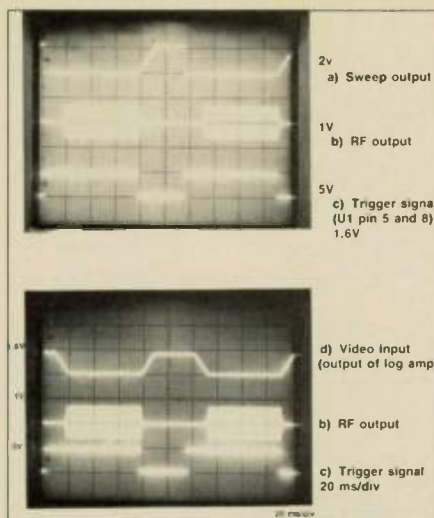


Figure 2. Logarithmic amplifier test fixture.



**Figure 3. a) Sweep b) Decaying RF signal c) Control signal used to gate oscillator on and off d) Video output of log amp under test.**

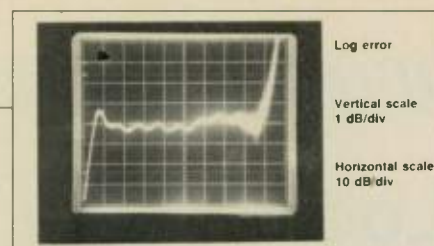
sensitivity of the video. The input common mode range is about 4 volts. The RF output of the fixture is then routed to the input of the logarithmic amplifier. It may be convenient to place a set of step attenuators in series (such as the HP355C&D) to limit the maximum signal available to the logarithmic amplifier

under test. Also, this may be necessary to match up the dynamic window of the log amp under test.

RF log amplifiers are generally of the bandpass type. That is, they work at an intermediate frequency. The exponential device is a resonator with a specific and well controlled loaded  $Q$ , ( $Q_L$ ). The  $Q_L$  of the circuit is defined as the ratio of the energy stored to the energy lost per half cycle scaled by  $\pi$  (1). To charge the resonator with energy, the circuit is allowed to oscillate with the resonator as the frequency control device. The oscillation loop is then broken but the resonator  $Q_L$  is maintained. The resonator will then start to lose  $2\pi/Q_L$  of its energy per cycle. Or  $10\log(1+2\pi/Q_L)$  dB per cycle. When the oscillation loop is broken, a linear ramp is started, the difference between this ramp and the output of the logarithmic amplifier is then displayed as the transfer error.

#### Crystal Resonator Considerations

The quartz crystal is not an ideal one port device. In-harmonic modes (crystal spurs) can cause problems when de-

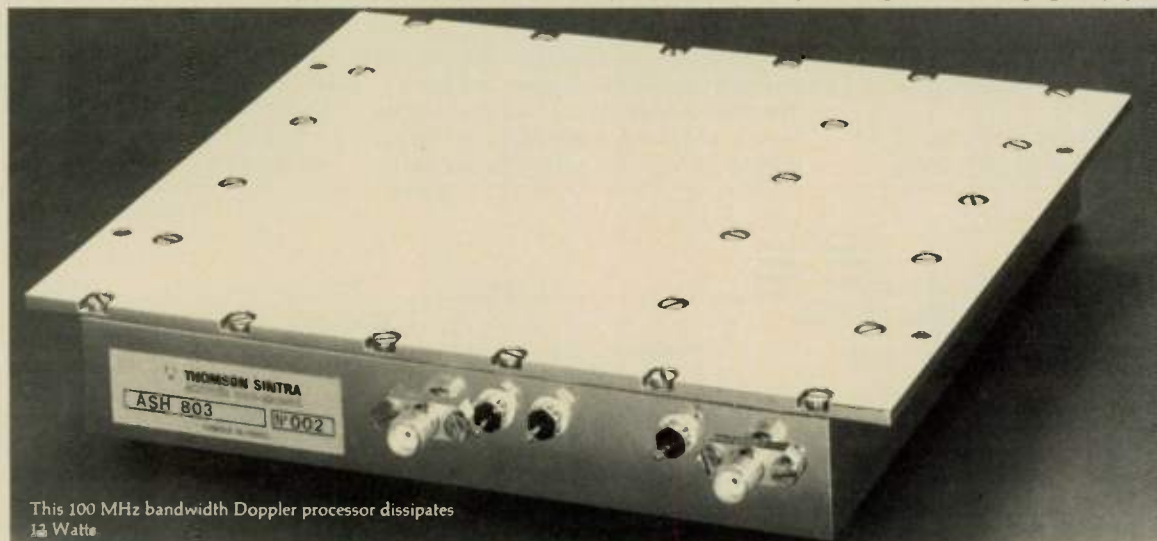


**Figure 4. Log error.**

signing circuits to test log amps. The problem comes about when resonant responses other than the main mode are excited. This is a problem because spurious modes generally have a much higher loaded  $Q$  than the main mode. This causes the decay rate for the spurious modes to be less than that of the main mode. Even if the spurious mode is 30 dB below the main mode at the beginning of the decay, it can actually be greater than the main mode before it reaches the -100 dBc point. This will show up as an error in the log transfer function. Therefore, the proper crystal must be specified for the job.

Another crystal consideration is the resistance change with drive level. This is a common problem with quartz resonators used in low phase noise oscillators and narrow band filters. As the power in the resonator is increased or decreased, a change will be observed

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in the series resistance. Obviously, this effect is very undesirable. This phenomena is often nonlinear and not repeatable. It is possible to build some very good crystals and some very bad ones. This phenomena can be caused by contamination in the fabrication process. For this test fixture, a very good crystal must be chosen.

The resonator that loses a quantity of energy every cycle can be used to test log amps. The dual to this is the use of a log amp to determine the amount of excess gain or negative resistance in an oscillator. As an oscillator turns on,

the percentage of the energy gained per cycle by the total resonator energy will remain constant until limiting occurs. The parameters of the resonator and load must be known a priori. The slope of the log of the turn on waveform will yield a value for Q for the circuit. This value will be negative as the total  $R_s$  must be negative for the oscillator to start. After the  $R_s$  is calculated, the resistance of the source and load are subtracted to yield the net negative resistance of the oscillator. The excess gain is the ratio of the total positive resonator and load resistance by the

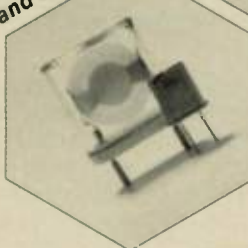
total negative resistance.

### Circuit Description and Design Considerations

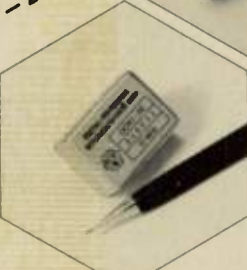
**Oscillator.** The RF oscillator (Figure 2) has a PNP transistor (Q4) connected as a negative resistance amplifier. The collector of the transistor is fed into the bifilar wound transformer (T1), which inverts the phase of the current by 180 degrees. The output is then fed into the base through a voltage divider to control the amount of positive feedback. By controlling the amount of feedback, the negative impedance presented by the

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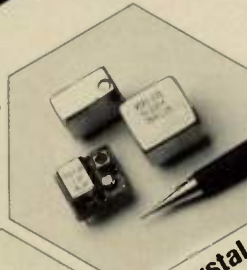
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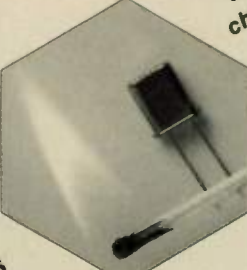
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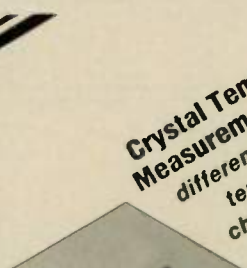
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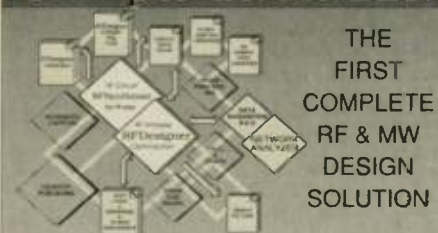
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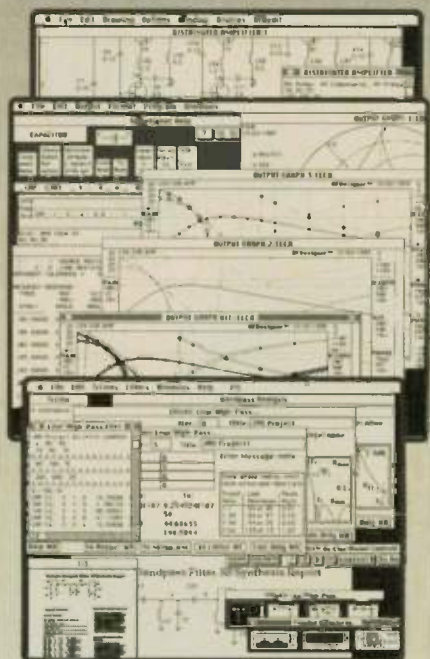
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emitter can be adjusted to the proper value. The resonator for the oscillator is the crystal. The equivalent series resistance ( $R_s$ ) of the crystal was measured to be 10.3 ohms. The resonator is embedded between the negative resistance port of Q4 and the emitter of Q3, a common base stage. The common base stage has a net input resistance of 4.9 ohms at 10.7 MHz. Therefore, to sustain oscillation, Q4 needs to present at least a negative resistance of -15.2 ohms. Actually this value needs to be somewhat more negative than that or the oscillator will take a long time to come to value. It may seem funny, but the useful output of the oscillator circuit is when it is shut off! The NPN transistor, Q2, is used to shunt the transformer T1. This effectively removes the positive feedback without upsetting the DC bias of the oscillator transistor. When the negative resistance is removed, the impedance looking into Q4 is about 3.5 ohms. This causes a total loop impedance of 18.7 ohms. At the moment the negative resistance is removed, there is potential energy in the resonator that must be dissipated by the loop resistance. This energy will be dissipated at the rate of  $(2\pi)/Q_L$  per cycle or  $10\log(1 + 2 \times \pi/Q_L)$  dB per cycle. The loaded Q ( $Q_L$ ) of the circuit is given by:

$$Q_L = 2\pi \times F_s \times L_m / (Re_1 + R_s + Re_2)$$

Where:  $F_s$  is the series resonant frequency of the crystal resonator.

$Re_1$  is the real part of the impedance looking into the negative resistance stage, Q4, when it is shut off.

$Re_2$  is the real part of the impedance looking into the common base stage, Q3.

$R_s$  is the equivalent series resistance of the crystal.

$L_m$  is the equivalent motional inductance of the crystal.

$$Q_L = 2\pi \times 10.7 \times 10^6 \times 9.36 \times 10^{-3} / (3.5 + 10.3 + 4.9) = 33651$$

$$\text{dB loss per cycle} = 10 \times \log(1 + 2 \times \pi/Q_L)$$

$$= 10 \times \log(1 + 2 \times \pi/33651)$$

$$= 810 \times 10^{-6} \text{ dB/cycle}$$

The limit mechanism in the oscillator is the current standing in the Q4 transistor. The equilibrium point will be where the negative resistance of the oscillator is equal to the 15.2 ohms of the crystal in series with the common base stage

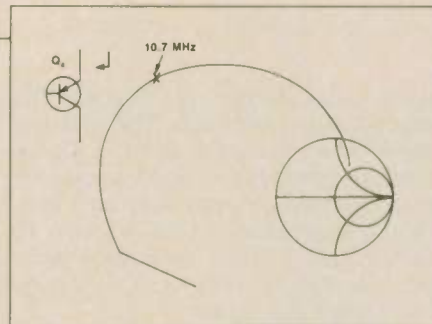


Figure 5. Simulated  $Re_1$ , negative R.

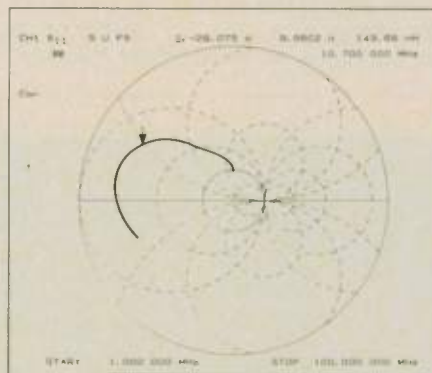


Figure 6. Measured  $Re_1$ , negative R stage (turned on).

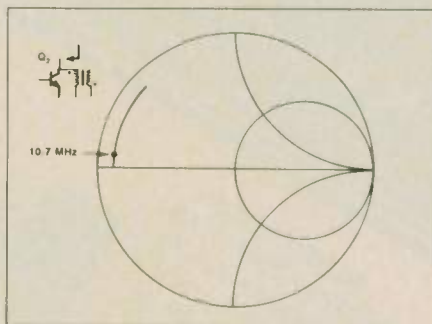


Figure 7. Simulated RF switch "on" impedance.

emitter. When the transistor switch is opened, the negative resistance is presented to the crystal. The net loop resistance is very negative. The thermal noise of the loop resistance will cause an oscillation to build up at the resonant frequency of the crystal. As the power in Q4 increases, the negative resistance at the emitter will decrease until the equilibrium point of -15.2 ohms is reached.

Circuit simulation tools have been around for some time. However, the use of Spice as an RF design tool has some very serious limitations. One of these is the inability to model a circuit that uses a resonator with a very large disparity in the values of the energy storage elements. The motional elements of a



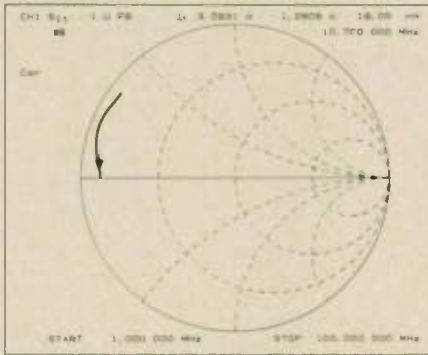


Figure 8. Measured RF switch (turned on).

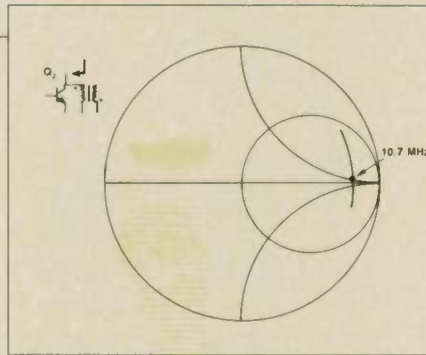


Figure 9. Simulated RF switch "off" value.

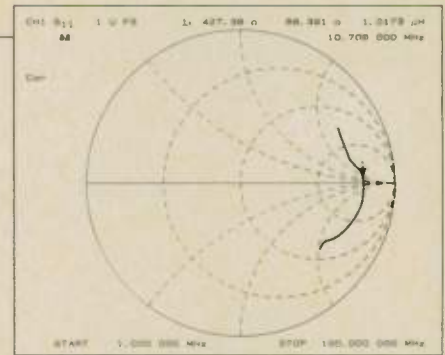


Figure 10. Measured RF switch (turned off).

quartz crystal are an example. Still, even with these limitations, it is useful to use Spice as an analysis tool to help design the negative resistance stage. In this situation, the negative resistance model for Spice was arranged such that the scattering parameters for the one port could be extracted (3). In this way, the results could be correlated with real network analyzer measurements directly.

The goal was to design a negative resistance oscillator that met the following criteria:

- The oscillator was to use a single 5 V supply.
- It was to include a gate to switch the oscillator on and off rapidly.
- The act of switching the oscillator on or off was not to upset the bias or cause a glitch in the output waveform.
- It was to use standard, garden variety components.
- When switched off, the resonator must be able to release the stored energy to the output load in a well controlled load impedance.
- The limit mechanism must be abrupt and well defined.
- The oscillator was to be cheap, easy to build, and easily duplicated by others skilled in the art.

After experimenting with several oscillator topologies, the idea for a negative resistance type came about. In this arrangement, the resonator is external. By using a negative resistance circuit, all the design goals were met. The circuit essentially contains two feedback mechanisms, one negative and one positive. The negative feedback was added for two reasons. First, when the positive feedback is removed, then the negative feedback will force a lower output impedance. The second reason was to help dampen any spurious oscillations that may occur near the  $F_c$  of the device. The bifilar wound transformer reverses the sense of the collector current thus causing the feedback to be positive. This forces the base current to be 180

degrees out of phase with the collector. The current is shunted by the 49.9 ohm resistor that will bring the amount of positive down to an acceptable level (too much is almost worse than not enough). In this manner, the amount of positive and negative feedback can be accurately and independently controlled. When the oscillator is in the switched off state, the bifilar wound transformer is shunted by Q2, which is used as an RF switch. This has the effect of removing enough positive feedback such that the emitter resistance is positive (around 3.5 ohms).

**Multivibrator.** The repetition rate, at which the RF oscillator is gated off and the sweep is started, is controlled by the multivibrator consisting of U3A. The discharge time allowed is about one third of the charge time. The reciprocal of the sum of the charge and discharge times is the overall repetition rate. The discharge time is such that the oscillator has plenty of time to lose its energy. The total energy lost during the discharge time is described below. These are the design equations for the 555/556 timers (2).

$$\text{rep rate} = (1.49)/((R_a + 2R_b) \times C)$$

$$\text{Since } R_a = R_b$$

$$\text{rep rate} = (1.49)/(3 \times 56.2 \times 10^3 \times 10^{-6})$$

$$= 8.83 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\text{Discharge time} = 1/(\text{rep rate} \times 3) = 1/(8.83 \times 3)$$

$$= 37.75 \text{ ms}$$

$$\text{total decay (dB)} = \text{discharge time} \times \text{dB loss per cycle} \times F_s$$

The dB loss per cycle has been previously shown to be  $810 \times 10^{-6}$  dB per cycle.

$$\text{Therefore, the total decay (dB)} = 37.75 \times 10^{-3} \times 810 \times 10^{-6} \times 10.7 \times 10^6$$

$$\text{total decay (dB)} = 328 \text{ dB}$$

Since the steady state oscillator amplitude is about 0 dBm, the final decay amplitude would be  $-328$  dBm, way below the thermal noise of the circuit.

**Ramp Generator.** The sweep ramp is generated by the current source Q1 charging the capacitor C3. When the ramp reaches  $2/3 V_{cc}$  and the trigger input signal goes high, the timer U3B will discharge C3. The control of the timer is done by the multivibrator U3A.

The total sweep time required can be calculated from the loaded Q of the resonator and the desired test range.

The test range specified by the design goal is to be 100 dB. Therefore, the sweep time is the test range in dB divided by the time it takes the oscillator circuit to decay by 100 dB. Thus, the following equation is derived:

$$\text{Sweep time} = (\text{Test range})/(\text{dB loss per cycle} \times F_s)$$

$$= 100/(810 \times 10^{-6} \times 10.7 \times 10^6) = 11.5 \text{ ms}$$

**Sweep and Display Amplifier.** The opamp (U2A) is used to buffer the sweep for use of the display amplifier and the difference amplifier.

The amount of charge current needed is calculated from the sweep time requirement.

$$i = C \times dv/dt$$

Since  $dv/dt$  is time invariant, the equation can be solved directly.

$$i = 10^{-6} \times 3.333/11.5 \times 10^{-3} = 289 \mu\text{A}$$

Since there is 1 volt between the emitter of Q1 and  $V_{cc}$ , the required resistor is  $1\text{V}/289 \mu\text{A}$  or 3.45 kohms. This is the 2.21 kohm resistor in series with the 2.5 kohms potentiometer adjusted to its mid-range.

**Video Scaling Amplifier.** The video input voltages from the various logarith-

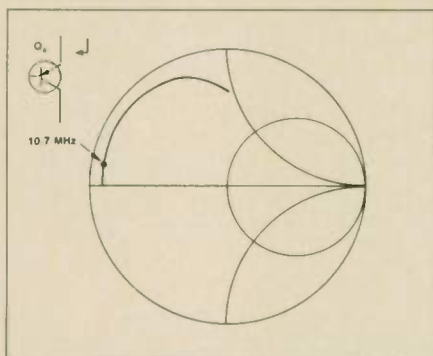


Figure 11. Simulated negative  $R$  stage switch off.

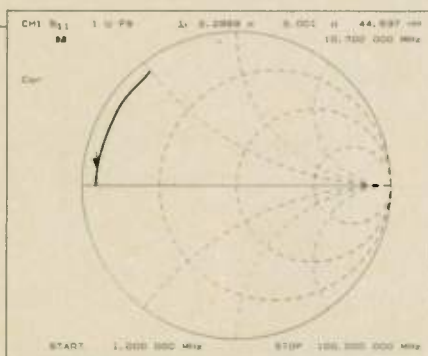


Figure 12. Measured  $Re_1$  negative  $R$  (shut off).

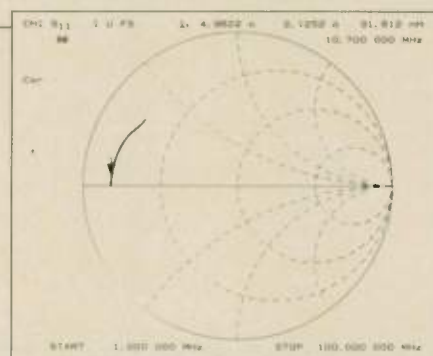


Figure 13. Measured  $Re_2$  common base stage.

mic amplifiers can vary from unit to unit in amplitude, offset and polarity. Therefore, it was a design goal to accommodate a 10:1 input amplitude change, a 5 volt offset range, and both polarities. The scaling and offset is done by U2B. Sw1 is the polarity switch.

**Difference Amplifier.** The difference between the scaled video input and the sweep is done by U2C. The gain required is equal to the sweep range in volts divided by the test range in dB. This is 33.3 mV per dB. The design goal

is to display an error of 0.2V/dB, therefore, the gain of the difference amplifier should be 0.2V/dB divided by 33.3 mV/dB or, in this case, a gain of 6.

### Performance

The one port  $S_{11}$  measurements made with Spice predicted that the output impedance real part of the negative resistance stage would be -21 ohms (Figure 5). The measured negative resistance was -29 ohms (Figure 6). The discrepancy is in the model used for the

transformer T1 and the active device Q4. Good agreement was found for the measured RF switch and transformer for both the on and off states (Figures 7, 8, 9 and 10). The predicted value for the negative resistance amplifier in the off state agreed nicely with the measured results (Figure 11 and 12). Lastly, the impedance looking into the common base output stage (Figure 13) came very close to the 4.9 ohms predicted.

Figure 3c depicts the control signal that is used to gate the oscillator on and

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off. In Figure 3b, the decaying RF signal is shown. The sweep is shown in Figure 3a. Notice how the sweep starts at the moment that the oscillator starts to decay. The video output of the log amplifier under test is shown in Figure 3d. The video output of the particular log amp under test is inverted. Notice how the log amp output continues to rise long after the decaying RF signal appears to be gone. This is because the log amp under test has about 80 dB of dynamic range while the linear display of the RF has only about 25 dB of range. Also notice that when the control signal gates the oscillator on (Figure 3c) that it takes about 8 ms to observe the output on the log amp (Figure 3d). This is because when the oscillator is switched on, the noise floor is several tens of dB below that of the minimum signal that the log amp can display.

Figure 4 shows the difference between the internally generated ramp and the output of the log amp. This is the desired final output. The vertical scale is 1 dB per division and the horizontal scale is 10 dB per division. In this example, no provisions were made for

retrace blanking. If this is desired, then the trigger signal in Figure 3c could be used.

### Performance Enhancements

This fixture is intended to demonstrate an alternative for testing logarithmic amplifiers. It is not intended to be the last word on the subject. Several performance enhancements are possible. Temperature stabilization of the oscillator could be done by using current sources in the emitters that are proportional to absolute temperature (PTAT). This would stabilize the temperature dependent load impedance. The possibility exists to provide an absolute calibration through a feedback circuit that will adjust the sweep rate to compensate for variations in decay rate during the non-decay time. An embedded controller could be added to keep track of these additional functions. The addition of a fast programmable synthesizer with a heterodyne scheme would allow the system to work over a range of frequencies. This would allow three dimensional log error plots to be displayed.

Often times the success of a project can be measured in how many experiments per unit time can be done. One is more likely to make an experimental change in a circuit if the performance can be immediately evaluated. This testing apparatus is intended to provide the incentive to make such changes to a circuit as their effect is shown immediately. **RF**

### References

1. Simon Ramo and John R. Whinnery, *Fields and Waves in Modern Radio*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956.
2. *Signetics Linear Data Manual*, Volume 2, 1987 Signetics Corporation.
3. Thomas B. Mills, "S Parameters in Spice," *RF Design*, p. 45, June 1989.

### About the Author

James English is a private consultant specializing in analog and RF circuit design. He may be reached at ABC Circuit Design, 19705 SW Johnson, Aloha, OR 97006. Tel: (503) 642-3803.

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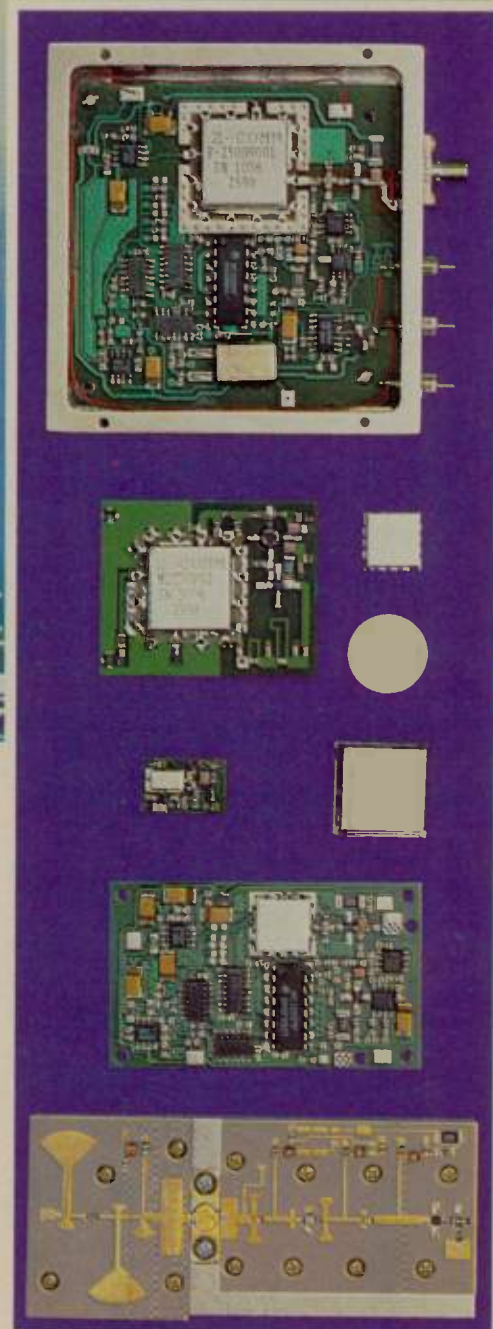
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### Microwave IC Libraries

EEsof's SMART libraries combine an electrical simulation model for MMIC circuit elements with the corresponding element's physical layout model, linking simulation and layout. SMART libraries work with EEsof's Touchstone<sup>®</sup> and Libra<sup>®</sup> circuit simulators.

EEsof, Inc.  
INFO/CARD #151

### Variable Voltage Switching Power Supplies

Component Distributors has released a line of three and four output variable voltage switching power supplies manufactured by Zenith. Also available are switching power supplies with five and six outputs.

Component Distributors, Inc.  
INFO/CARD #150

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## Multi-layer Adjustable Chip Capacitor Kit

American Technical Ceramics is offering a design kit for STA-TUNE™ Multilayer Adjustable Chip Capacitors. The kit contains 22 values ranging from 1 to 68 pF, with adjustment ranges of 0.15 pF to 3 pF. The kit (ST2001) is priced at \$199.95. American Technical Ceramics Corporation INFO/CARD #149

## 140 MHz SAW Filters

Sawtek has announced a new line of 31 standard SAW filters at a center frequency of 140 MHz in addition to its line of 70 MHz devices. Bandwidths range from 0.25 MHz to 80.0 MHz. Sawtek Inc. INFO/CARD #148

## Circuit Simulation

SuperStar Professional Extension is a high speed real-time circuit simulation, tuning and optimization package. The professional extension version includes Monte Carlo statistical analysis and microwave models. Eagleware Corporation INFO/CARD #147

## High-Frequency Digital Clock

The HC1253 is a high-frequency digital clock for computer graphics by RF Monolithics. This clock operates at 262.074 MHz. Small quantity pricing for the HC1253 is \$150 each. RF Monolithics INFO/CARD #146

## Surface Mount Trimmer Capacitors

Sprague-Goodman Electronics has announced the addition of gull-wing leaded models to their line of Surftrim<sup>®</sup> surface mounting ceramic dielectric trimmer capacitors. Seven capacitance ranges (from 1.7-3.0 pF to 13.0-50 pF) are available. Sprague-Goodman Electronics, Inc. INFO/CARD #145

## Two-way Power Divider

Model #SDL 260 is a two-way power divider which operates over the 1 MHz - 600 MHz frequency range. Max insertion loss is 0.6 dB, and VSWR (output) is 1.4:1. TRM Incorporated INFO/CARD #144

## High Power Amplifier

Part number P1020-43-PS is a 20 Watt, class A, linear power amplifier covering the 1000 to 2000 MHz range. Specifications for the unit include output power at 1 dBc of 43 dBm minimum and VSWR of 1.5:1 typical. Trontech INFO/CARD #143

## Miniature Low Noise Ultra-Stable Crystal Oscillator

Type CO-705SL2 provides aging of  $5 \times 10^{-10}$  per day and  $1 \times 10^{-7}$  per year. Temperature stability is  $\pm 1 \times 10^{-9}$  over the 0 to +50 degree Celsius range. Phase noise is -130 dBc/Hz at 10 Hz. Vectron Laboratories, Inc. INFO/CARD #142

## Ceramic EMI Filters

Ceramic Devices is offering a line of monolithic ceramic EMI filters in both solder-in and screw-in configurations. These filters come in C, L, Pi, and T circuits with up to 10,000 pF of capacitance at 50 VDC. Ceramic Devices INFO/CARD #141

## Feed-Through Capacitors and Pi-Filter Arrays

Stetco now manufactures a wide assortment of ceramic feed-through capacitor and Pi-filter arrays which are used in a variety of RFI suppression applications. Stetco Incorporated INFO/CARD #140

## Programmable Attenuator

Trilithic has released a programmable attenuator that covers the DC to 1 GHz range for 50 ohm loads and the DC to 650 MHz range for 75 ohm loads. It has insertion loss as low as 0.15 dB per cell and accuracy as good as  $\pm 0.1$  dB. Prices start at \$138 each. Trilithic Incorporated INFO/CARD #139

## Linear Voltage Variable Attenuator

The QBH-723 is a hybrid linear voltage variable attenuator in a 5-pin, TO-8 package. The unit operates over a frequency range of 20 to 500 MHz with a typical VSWR of 1.5:1 on the input and output ports and a linear range (dB/V) of at least 11.0 dB. Q-bit Corporation INFO/CARD #138

## Circuit Optimizer Upgrade

Nedrud Data Systems has released DragonWave 2.0, a graphical design and optimizing software package for RF circuits on Macintosh computers. Black box data can be entered in Y- and Z-parameters as well as S-parameters. Nedrud Data Systems INFO/CARD #137

## Direct Digital Synthesizer

Sciteq Electronics has introduced the DDS-1, a multi-mode DDS on one square inch, with digital phase and amplitude control. The waveform dissipates 1.5 watts and fits a standard 84-pin chip carrier. Sciteq Electronics, Inc. INFO/CARD #136

## 750 Watt Amplifier

Model 750HB is a broadband amplifier that delivers a minimum of 750 watts CS through a bandwidth of 400 to 1000 MHz. Minimum gain is 59 dB, flatness is  $\pm 1.5$  dB at 1 mW input, input and output impedance is 50 ohms, and VSWR is 2.0:1. Amplifier Research INFO/CARD #135

## Low Cost Modulation Meter

The Boonton Model 8220 Modulation meter has a carrier range of 10 MHz to 1.3 GHz and a level meter from -27 to +19 dBm with 0.01 dB resolution. The Model 8220 is priced at \$5,995. Boonton Electronics Corporation INFO/CARD #134

## Miniature Diplexers

TTE has just released a line of miniature diplexers that cover the frequency range of 20 kHz to 100 MHz. The lowpass frequency cased is  $2'' \times 5.75'' \times 0.75''$  while the packages for units above 100 kHz is  $2'' \times 4.75'' \times 0.5''$ . TTE Incorporated INFO/CARD #133

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INFO/CARD 78

## 100 MHz Digital Storage Oscilloscope

The Tek 221A, a 100 MHz analog and digital storage oscilloscope from Tektronix, achieves a 100 megasamples/second sampling rate simultaneously on each of two channels. It is priced at \$3995 and is available immediately.

**Tektronix**  
INFO/CARD #132

## Prototyping Card for VXIbus

Model 7065 allows RF and microwave instruments and subsystems to be designed into the VXIbus format. The card features an enclosure which ensures an EMI sealed environment while providing efficient heat dissipation. Prices begin at \$2495.

**Racal Dana Instruments, Inc.**  
INFO/CARD #131

## Microwave Laser Photo Plotter

The model N524000-MLPP system plots a mask from an AutoCAD drawing file in less than one-half hour, with no post processing. It accommodates up to a 6" x 6" substrate size and plots a 0.001" line and space.

**Newport Electro-Optics Systems, Inc.**  
INFO/CARD #130

## Ultrafast GaAs MMIC Switch

Anzac's newest GaAs MMIC switch (SW-256) works in the 5-1000 MHz frequency range and switches in 50 nsec typically. It consumes 2.2 mA of DC power typically, and isolation is 35 dB minimum from 5-1000 MHz and 50 dB minimum from 5-500 MHz. The SW-256 is priced at \$129.95.

**M/A-COM, Anzac Division**  
INFO/CARD #129

## Four Channel Simultaneous Sampling ADC

The AD7874, a monolithic four-channel simultaneous sampling ADC from Analog Devices, has 71 dB minimum SNR at 29 ksp/s. Maximum peak spurious noise, intermodu-

lation distortion, and total harmonic distortion are each 80 dB. Prices begin at \$28 in 100s.

**Analog Devices**  
INFO/CARD #128

## Bulk Injection Current Probes

Models 95236-1, 95252-1, and 95235-1 are designed for EMC and EMP testing. Model 95252-1 operates over the frequency range from 400 to 1000 MHz; Model 95236-1 operates over the 0.01 to 100 MHz range; and Model 95235-1 operates over the 10 to 450 MHz range.

**Eaton Corporation**  
INFO/CARD #127

## Coaxial Assemblies

W. L. Gore & Associates has introduced the CX Series GORE-TEX<sup>®</sup> RF coaxial cable assemblies for low-frequency applications to 1000 MHz. These assemblies are 30 percent lighter than RG type cables and have VSWR of 1.2:1.

**W. L. Gore & Associates, Inc.**  
INFO/CARD #126

## 800 MHz Si MMIC Amplifier

Avantek is now offering an advanced silicon bipolar low noise, high gain amplifier with a 3 dB bandwidth of DC to 800 MHz. The INA-02184 and INA-02186 amplifiers offer 31 dB gain, 2 dB noise figure, and +11 dBm output power at 1 dB compression.

**Avantek, Inc.**  
INFO/CARD #125

## Spectral Linewidth Analyzer

The MS9602A is an optical linewidth analyzer from Anritsu that measures the spectral width of light sources operating in the 1.3 and 1.55  $\mu$ m bands. The analyzer has resolution of 20 kHz. Linewidth measurement range is 20 kHz to 100 MHz for heterodyne measurements and 1 to 500 MHz for homodyne measurements. It costs \$45,090.

**Anritsu America, Inc.**  
INFO/CARD #124

## Phased Coded Correlators

Thomson-CSF has developed a full range of phased coded correlators for satellite communications and group and airborne radars. The CP603 in particular has a digital signal centered at 120 MHz, and insertion loss is lower than 25 dB.

**Thomson-ICS Corporation**  
INFO/CARD #123

## Acrian Equivalent Resistors and Attenuators

Florida RF Labs introduces a new line of Acrian equivalent resistors, terminations, attenuators. These new components meet or exceed Acrian power ratings while maintaining low VSWR and capacitance.

**Florida RF Labs, Inc.**  
INFO/CARD #122

## NMR Amplifier

The NMR-300L/50M produces 300 watts of pulse power over the frequency range of 5-220 MHz, reducing to 150 watts up to 250 MHz, and 50 watts from 200-600 MHz. It is available for \$12,500.

**ENI**  
INFO/CARD #121

## Industrial RF Power Supply

ETO has introduced the PG-5DW, a fully automatic, water cooled 5 kW industrial RF power supply/amplifier for excitation of CO<sub>2</sub> lasers and other plasma applications. It operates on any factory set frequencies between 10 and 90 MHz.

**Ehrhorn Technological Operations, Inc.**  
INFO/CARD #120

## MMIC LED Driver

The UPC1684 MMIC LED Driver from NEC has high speed current switching—to 300 Mb/s NRZ, 1.4 nsec fall time, and 1.0 nsec rise time. It accepts standard ECL level inputs and is available in a hermetically sealed package or in chip form.

**California Eastern Laboratories, Inc.**  
INFO/CARD #119

## Dielectric Filters

Toko America has introduced 2-pole and 3-pole dielectric bandpass filters for spread spectrum applications. These filters feature a passband from 902-928 MHz. Insertion loss is 1.8 dB max and VSWR is 2.0 max.

**Toko America, Inc.**  
INFO/CARD #118

## MIC Hybrid Amplifiers

JCA Technology has released a MIC hybrid 20-22 GHz amplifier line. The amplifiers can be manufactured to military specifications with gain levels from 15 dB to 40 dB and output power is +10 dBm at 1 dB compression.

**JCA Technology**  
INFO/CARD #117

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## Shielding Integrity Monitor

Lindgren RF Enclosures has released a self-testing automatic RF integrity tester for permanent installation, with fiber optic control and status lines, and an optional search loop antenna for RF leakage source location.

Lindgren RF Enclosures  
INFO/CARD #116

## Clock Oscillator with Tri-State Capability

The CXO-63GAU clock oscillator from CTS is available up to 110 MHz and offers CMOS/TTL compatible output with tri-state capability. Symmetry is 48 percent/52 percent typical (at 50 percent level).

Frequency Control Division  
CTS Corporation  
INFO/CARD #115

## Wideband Variable Gain Amplifier

The NE5209 wide band variable gain amplifier from Signetics has a gain bandwidth out to 1.5 GHz and a linear gain control range that allows precise AM modulation. It can be used to simplify automatic gain control applications.

Philips Components—Signetics  
INFO/CARD #114

## RF Series Attenuators

This series of attenuators from Compac Development has attenuation at or above 80 dB out to 20 GHz. The attenuators are available off the shelf or can be customized to client specifications.

Compac Development Corporation  
INFO/CARD #113

## Miniature 200 Watt Amplifier

LCF Enterprises has released a miniature 200 Watt amplifier featuring 55 percent efficiency over the 150-250 MHz frequency band. Compressed gain is 37 dB with variable control. The package size is 4.84" x 2" x 1" without a heat sink.

LCF Enterprises  
INFO/CARD #112

## Low Cost Switches

Micronetics Electronics Division has introduced low cost SP1T and SP2T switches for commercial applications. Typical isolation is 50 dB with insertion loss of 0.75 dB up to 4 GHz. Prices are \$49 and \$69 in quantities.

Micronetics, Inc.  
INFO/CARD #111

## Spectrum Analyzers

The R3261/R3361 Series of synthesized spectrum analyzers offer frequency ranges of 9 kHz to 2.6 GHz and 9 kHz to 3.6 GHz, depending on the model. The analyzers have a display dynamic range of 120 dB and an overall accuracy level of 1 dB.

Advantest America, Inc.  
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INFO/CARD 80

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1. Office use, left over, unaccounted, spoiled after printing	1,416	1,750
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## A Review of the Program BAND

By David C. Greene  
Philips Consumer Electronics

This review is presented for the information of our readers, and does not imply an endorsement of this product by RF Design. If you would like to see more independent reviews of RF software or hardware products in the future, write us and let us know.

**B**AND is a low-cost computer program for the design of LC bandpass filters, written for IBM PC or MS-DOS compatible personal computers. BAND accomplishes the bandpass filter design by performing a lowpass to bandpass transformation. Reviewing this transfor-

mation, recall that a bandpass filter with center frequency  $f_0$ , lower 3 dB frequency  $f_1$ , and upper 3 dB frequency  $f_2$  is obtained from the lowpass prototype filter by the transformation

$$S = \frac{1}{a} \left( \frac{s}{f_0} + \frac{f_0}{s} \right) \quad (1)$$

where

$$a = \frac{f_2 - f_1}{f_0} \quad (2)$$

is the relative bandwidth. The normalized frequency is then

$$\Omega = \frac{1}{a} \left( \frac{f}{f_0} - \frac{f_0}{f} \right) \quad (3)$$

and as a consequence of this transformation,  $f_0$  is the geometric mean of  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ .

$$f_0 = \sqrt{f_1 \times f_2} \quad (4)$$

From these equations it is clear that a frequency ratio in the LP case corresponds to a bandwidth ratio in the BP case, thus relating the shape factors of the LP and BP attenuation responses.

Figure 1. First data input screen for BAND.

Figure 2. Second data input screen for BAND.



Figure 3. This screen appears when calculations are complete.

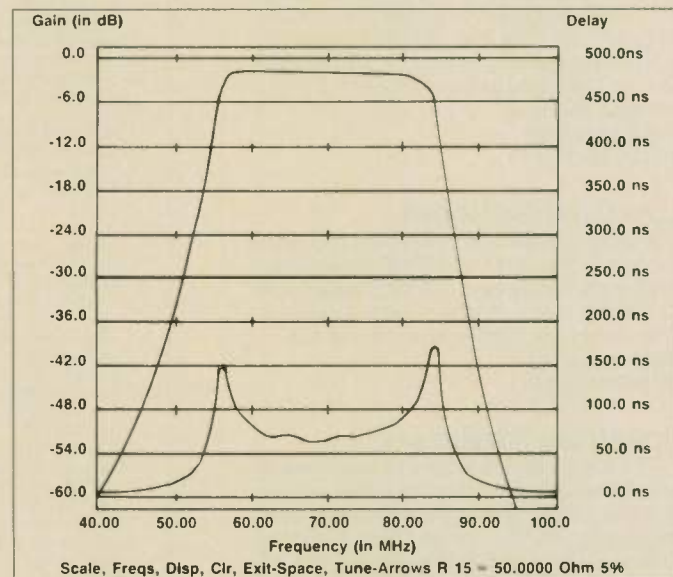


Figure 4. Results analyzed by Spice and graphed.



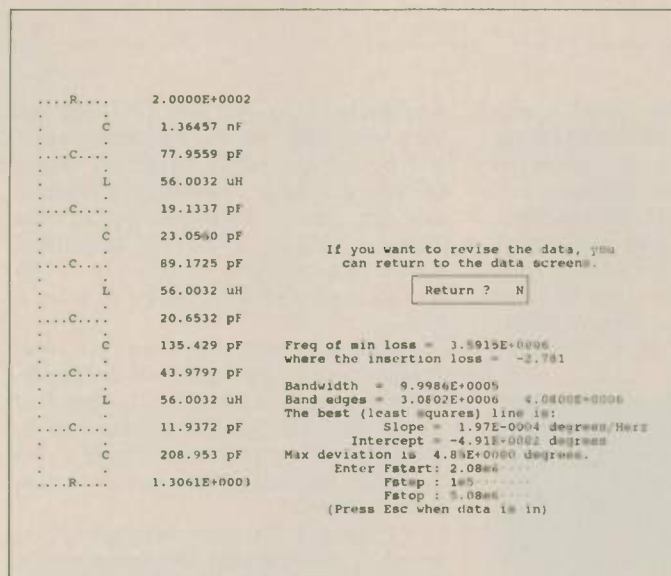


Figure 5. Generated output.

The frequencies  $f_a$  and  $f_b$  correspond to the LP frequencies  $\Omega_a$  and  $\Omega_b$ , respectively and are related to  $f_0$  by

$$f_0 = \sqrt{f_a - f_b} \quad (5)$$

forming the bandwidth

$$B = f_b - f_a \quad (6)$$

then the following is true

$$|\Omega_a| = \Omega_b = \frac{f_b - f_a}{f_2 - f_1} \quad (7)$$

then

$$f_b = f_0 \left( \sqrt{1 + \left( \frac{B}{2 \times f_0} \right)^2} + \frac{B}{2 \times f_0} \right) \quad (8)$$

and

$$f_a = f_0 \left( \sqrt{1 + \left( \frac{B}{2 \times f_0} \right)^2} - \frac{B}{2 \times f_0} \right) \quad (9)$$

The BP element values are obtained by replacing each LP inductor  $L_n$  with a series LC combination resonating at  $f_0$ , with the inductor value  $L_n/(\omega_2 - \omega_1)$  and the capacitor value  $a/(L_n \times \omega_0)$ . Each LP capacitor  $C_n$  is replaced by a parallel LC combination resonating at  $f_0$ , with the inductor value of  $a/(C_n \times \omega_0)$  and the capacitor value of  $C_n/(\omega_2 - \omega_1)$ . For more information see Reference 1.

The lowpass filter prototypes available are, 1) Butterworth, 2) Chebyshev, 3) Constant K, 4) Bessel. These lowpass prototypes are of the all-pole type, placing all poles at infinite frequency, thus they contain no finite loss poles in the stopband. This means that BAND can not handle elliptic bandpass filter

designs. For the design cases where the above mentioned approximation types are adequate then BAND can quickly perform the necessary design equations.

The best way to illustrate the program is to design a bandpass filter using BAND. In the first example, a 70 MHz

bandpass filter with 3 dB corner frequencies of 56 MHz and 84 MHz is specified. By using the Chebyshev approximation with a passband ripple of .4 dB and choosing a 7th order lowpass prototype it is possible to obtain over 30 dB of stopband suppression at 50 MHz and 90 MHz. Such a filter could be used for

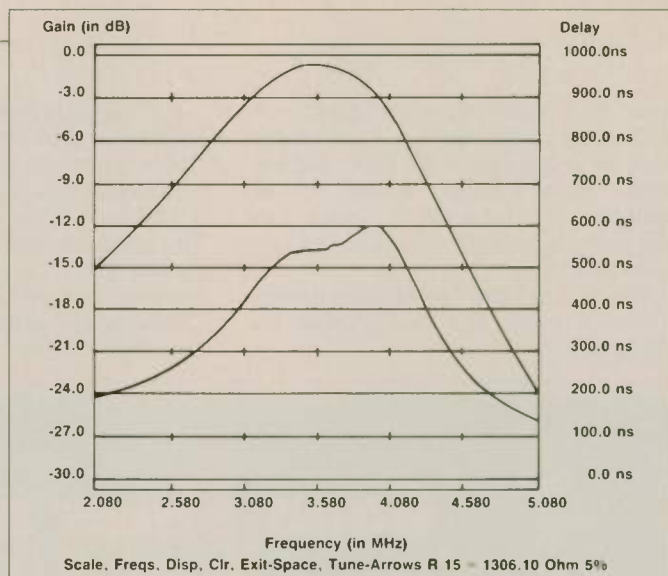


Figure 6. Graphical output of analyzed network.

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the IF of a TVRO receiver. The choice of lowpass prototype type and order must be made based on either experience, tables such as Zverev (2), or computer programs (3, 4), since this program contains no provisions for calculation of order.

The data is input to BAND by means of two screens. The first appears as shown in Figure 1.

We have entered the lower corner frequency of 56 MHz, the upper corner frequency of 84 MHz, and chosen the Chebyshev type lowpass prototype with a passband ripple of 0.40 dB specified. This program uses a lookup table for the Bessel LP prototype normalized  $g(n)$  values, for the Butterworth and Chebyshev LP prototype, the  $g(n)$  values are calculated using Dr. H. J. Orchard's

equations (3, 4). Another LP prototype very rarely seen anymore is the constant K type design that is based on image parameter design, based on transmission line theory, discovered by Dr. Otto Zobel in 1923 (2). BAND will accommodate LP prototypes of order 1 to 20 except Bessel which must be of order 2 to 11.

Continuing with our example, the bottom C type configuration is chosen and the reference frequency is specified as the one of minimum loss. By moving on to the next screen (see Figure 2) we can enter the rest of the necessary data for this design.

In Figure 2 we have elected not to check phase linearity, and specified the band edges as the 3 dB attenuation points. The coil Q is set to 100, the capacitor Q is set to 1000, and a source resistance of 50 ohms is specified.

BAND uses an iterative algorithm to accurately set the specified band edges at the specified attenuation, (usually 3 dB). The BP network is calculated and the frequencies of the specified band edges are determined by a nodal analysis program. If these frequencies are in error then a corrected network is calculated and again analyzed. This process continues until agreement within some tolerance, (0.1 percent), is obtained. Thus BAND automatically sets the band edges to the specified frequencies using the lossy coils and capacitors, with this loss being specified by component Q.

End caps and automatic finish are selected with a coil value of 0.22  $\mu$ H. By specifying these options the program will use Norton's transformations to set the coil values equal. The improper selection of configuration and values at this point can result in negative component values being generated using Norton's transformations (2).

When this screen is left, the calculations to generate the LC network start. A "working" message fills the screen while the program runs, and can be quite annoying. The time it takes for these calculations depends on the complexity of the filter and the computer's speed. Machines equipped with a math co-processor will be much faster, but typically calculations only take from 2 to 20 seconds.

If you answer NO to the prompt then the screen shown in Figure 3 is displayed, giving the frequency of minimum loss, insertion loss, bandwidth, and band edge frequencies. The prompt for F start, F step, and F stop allows these values to be entered and, once entered,

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when the Esc key is pressed a frequency analysis will be performed. The LC network designed and shown in Figure 3 was analyzed using Spice and these results graphed. This graph is shown in Figure 4 and shows good agreement with this program. Please note that this program contains no provisions for graphics output or graphing of data.

To conclude, a second design example is presented; a Bessel linear phase bandpass filter with a passband of 3.08 MHz to 4.08 MHz, such as might be used to take chroma off of a composite video NTSC television signal. The Bessel lowpass prototype of order 3 is chosen and the bottom C configuration is chosen with end caps and auto finish with a coil value of 56  $\mu$ H. Figure 5 shows the output obtained and Figure 6 shows the graphical output of this network analyzed using Spice. Note that for this network the terminations are unequal, this is common with this type of filter and some care must be exercised to prevent negative elements from appearing in the design. Also note the group delay distortion which results from the distortion of phase encountered in the LP to BP transformation.

There are many other possible configurations, but these two examples should provide an indication of the operation and performance of the program. The price of BAND is \$99 post paid and may be obtained by contacting Phil Geffe's FILTERWARE, 503 Williamsburg Road, Cincinnati, OH 45215. Interested readers can also circle Info/Card #110. **RF**

#### References

1. Herman J. Blinichoff & Anatol I. Zverev, *Filtering in the Time and Frequency Domains*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1976.
2. Anatol I. Zverev, *Handbook of Filter Synthesis*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, NY, 1967.
3. David C. Greene, "A Design Program for Butterworth Lowpass Filters," *RF Design*, March, 1989.
4. David C. Greene, "Chebyshev Lowpass Filter Design", *1990 RF Design Directory*, Fall 1989 P. 70.

#### About the Author

David Greene is a Project Engineer in the Advanced Development Engineering group at Philips Consumer Electronics, One Philips Drive, P.O. Box 14810, Knoxville, TN 37914-1810.

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# Broadband Impedance Matching By Polynomial Synthesis

By David R. Lang  
Consultant

When used to design broadband matching networks, standard CAD programs such as Touchstone<sup>®</sup> can find optimum component values only if the assumed network topology is approximately correct. However, the choice of a suitable matching network (equalizer) topology may not be obvious when the source and load impedances to be matched are defined by measured or model-derived S-parameters that represent networks more complex than the simple RL or RC terminations assumed by analytic matching theory.

The program MATCHD, described here, operates under MS-DOS, and is loosely based on a procedure outlined by Yarman (1) for generating a polynomial equalizer reflection coefficient function directly from source and load S-parameters. One or more topologically unique equalizer networks, all exhibiting the same response, can then be synthesized from this function.

MATCHD accomplishes this synthesis as follows. First, an optimum equalizer response is obtained by minimizing one of two selected error functions over the optimization frequency band. The first function simply minimizes the average equalizer insertion loss; the second minimizes the difference between the equalizer loss and a desired frequency-gain profile, and can be used to incorporate gain slope compensation into the interstage networks of cascade amplifiers. The computed equalizer loss vs. frequency is then displayed in a numeric or graphic format. Finally, a driving point impedance function is generated from the optimized reflection coefficient function, and from this the network components of the equalizer(s) are extracted, using elementary pole removal operations.

When using MATCHD, the complex source and load are each defined only by S-parameter files. The source and load data file frequency bands must, of course, overlap, but MATCHD provides linear interpolation in case the data frequencies do not match. The format

of these S-parameter files is not restrictive, and Touchstone-compatible data files can be read directly.

## Theory

MATCHD will always realize the equalizer as a minimum reactance, lumped element ladder network. Transmission zeros at other than DC or infinity are not included in the response, since the improvement in gain is generally small and for practical matching circuits the consequent circuit complexity is rarely justified.

The S-parameters of a passive, lossless and reciprocal two port can be represented as ratios of polynomials (2) as follows:

$$S_{11} = \frac{h(s)}{g(s)} \quad (1)$$

$$S_{21} = S_{12} = \frac{s^P}{g(s)} \quad (2)$$

$$S_{22} = \frac{-(-1)^P h(-s)}{g(s)} \quad (3)$$

where

$$h(s) = A_N s + A_{N-1} s^{N-1} + \dots + A_1 s + A_0 \quad (4)$$

$$\text{and } (s = j\omega) \quad (5)$$

$$g(s) = B_N s + B_{N-1} s^{N-1} + \dots + B_1 s + B_0$$

All of the coefficients A(\*) and B(\*) are real, and the reference impedance for both ports equals 1.0 ohm.

For lumped element realizations of the 2-port, N is the total number of reactances, and P is the number of DC transmission zeros (shunt inductors or series capacitors). The S-parameter matrix is thus defined independently of the specific component sequence of subsequently realized equalizers.

To minimize computation time, equations 1-3 can be further simplified to the following sequence:

$$\text{ang}(S_{11}) = \text{ang}(h(s)) - \text{ang}(g(s)) \quad (6)$$

$$\quad (7)$$

$$\text{ang}(S_{21}) = \text{ang}(S_{12}) = (90 \times P) - \text{ang}(g(s)) \quad (8)$$

$$\quad (8)$$

$$\text{ang}(S_{22}) = -(180 - 2 \times \text{ang}(S_{21})) - \text{ang}(S_{11})$$

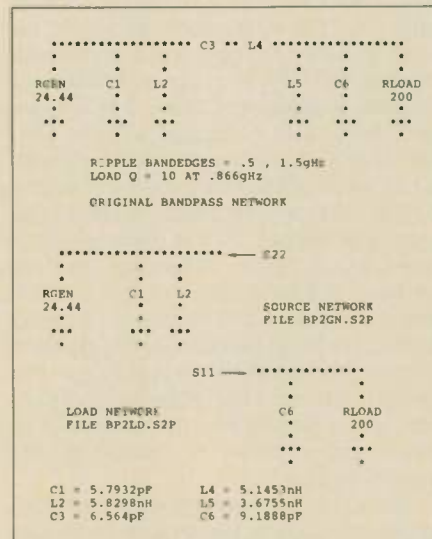


Figure 1. 0.5-1.5 GHz bandpass equalizer example.

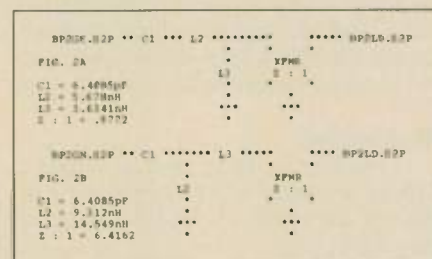


Figure 2. MATCHD equalizers for the 0.5-1.5 GHz bandpass example.

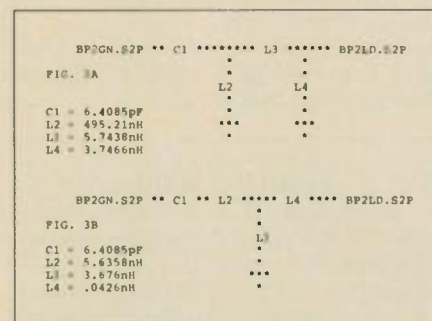


Figure 3. Bandpass example equalizers using Norton transformers.



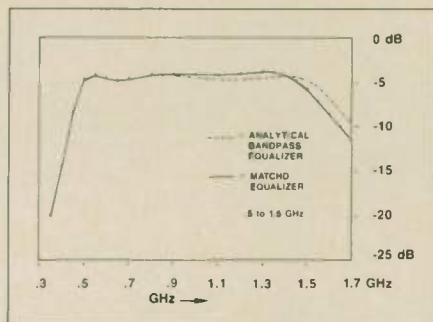


Figure 4. MATCHD broadband response versus original bandpass network response.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mag}(S_{12}) &= \text{mag}(S_{21}) = \text{mag} \frac{s^P}{g(s)} \\ \text{mag}(S_{22}) &= \text{mag}(S_{11}) = \text{mag} \frac{h(s)}{g(s)} \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

The transducer gain (loss)  $G_t$  of the equalizer is:

$$G_T = \frac{|S_{21}|^2(1 - |\Gamma_S|^2)(1 - |\Gamma_L|^2)}{|(1 - \Gamma_S S_{11})(1 - \Gamma_L S_{22}) - \Gamma_S \Gamma_L S_{12} S_{21}|^2} \quad (11)$$

where  $\Gamma_S$  and  $\Gamma_L$  are the reflection coefficients of the source and load terminations, respectively, and  $G_t \leq 1.0$  since the equalizer is passive. Now define

$$H(\omega) = h(-s) \times h(s) \quad (12)$$

$$= C_{2N} \omega^{2N} + C_{2N-2} \omega^{2N-2} + \dots + C_0$$

$$G(\omega) = g(-s) \times g(s) \quad (13)$$

$$= D_{2N} \omega^{2N} + D_{2N-2} \omega^{2N-2} + \dots + D_0$$

The coefficients  $C_m$  and  $D_m$  are then related as follows:

pure lowpass (LP):  $P = 0$

pure highpass (HP):  $P = N$

in all cases:  $N \geq P \geq 0$

$$D_m = C_m + 1 \quad \text{for } m = 2P \quad (14)$$

$$D_m = C_m \quad \text{for } m \neq 2P \quad (15)$$

The polynomials  $h(s)$  and  $g(s)$  are thus indirectly related by their respective squared-magnitudes  $H(\omega)$  and  $G(\omega)$ . During optimization,  $H(\omega)$  and  $G(\omega)$  are directly generated from the best estimated  $h(s)$ . The roots of  $g(s)$ , and subsequently  $g(s)$ , are created from the left hand plane (LHP) roots of  $G(\omega)$  to ensure the realizability of the equalizer response.

The subroutine used to extract the complex roots of  $G(\omega)$  is a modified version of the general polynomial root extraction algorithm of Moore (3, 4). The MATCHD version is faster, but is limited to extracting roots of real-coefficient polynomials of real variables (even powers of  $j\omega$ ).

If the pure HP or LP response is chosen, one can also choose to include

or omit an ideal transformer in the design. If the transformer is omitted, the overall design is simpler but the performance (the bandpass gain) may in some cases suffer since the optimization loses a degree of freedom. In this case the additional constraint is:

$$\text{LP case: } h_0 = 0 \quad (16)$$

$$\text{HP case: } h_N = 0 \quad (17)$$

When  $N > P > 0$ , a transformer is always included. As shown in the example below, a Norton transformer can generally be realized to replace the ideal transformer. The addition of the extra component in the Norton transformer does not change the effective number of  $N$  or  $P$  and does not alter the original equalizer response.

### Optimization Detail

This part describes how the program finds an optimum equalizer response. The only information required by the program prior to optimization is supplied by the user in steps (a) and (b) below. The error-minimizing instruction loop comprises steps (c) to (j).

a) user specifies:  $N$ ,  $P$ , the optimization frequency bandedges, number of frequency steps, the data file names, the decision to use an ideal transformer or not, and the goal: maximum flat gain or loss curve matching. In MATCHD the number of elements is arbitrarily limited to  $1 \leq N \leq 6$ , which should be more than sufficient for most matching requirements.

b) create an initial choice of the coefficients of  $h(s)$ . This choice can be user-defined if desired, but is normally executed entirely within MATCHD.

c) generate  $H(\omega)$  from  $h(s)$

d) generate  $G(\omega)$  from  $H(\omega)$  using rules 14 and 15

e) find the roots of  $G(\omega)$

f) switch the Re and Im components of the root pairs (e)

g) generate  $g(s)$  from the LHP roots of (f)

h) compute the equalizer S-parameters using equations 6-10.

i) compute the transducer gain  $G_t$  over the normalized optimization band. In this step, each frequency in the original optimization band is scaled so that the normalized geometric mean frequency equals 1.0 radian.

j1) for maximizing the gain over the defined band, the error function is:

$$E_1 = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M (1 - G_t(k))^2 \quad (18)$$

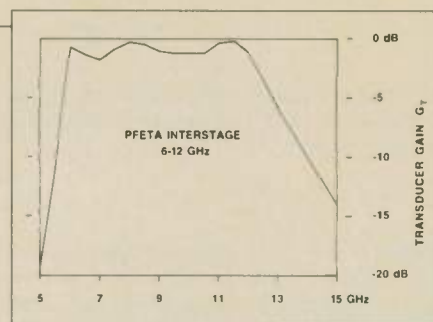


Figure 5. Response of Ku-band interstage example, (file PFETA.S2P).

j2) for forcing the response to fit (if possible) the user-defined gain profile values  $T_d(k)$ , the mean square error function is:

$$E_2 = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M (10 \times \log(G_t(k)) - T_d(k))^2 \quad (19)$$

for  $k=1$  to  $M$  optimization frequency steps.

Steps (c)-(j) are repeated using a new set of coefficients for  $h(s)$ , until successive changes in the error function are smaller than 1 percent of the error function. The new  $h(s)$  coefficients  $A(*)$  are generated using the nonlinear optimization procedure described below.

The circuit response outside of the optimization bandwidth does not contribute directly to the error functions  $E_1$  or  $E_2$ . Normally, when the gain over the optimization band is maximized using  $E_1$ , the out-of-band gain will also be minimized. When the generator and load impedances exhibit complex behavior over a wide optimization bandwidth, and the specified  $N$  is large, more than one choice of  $A(*)$  will yield a local gain maximum. Under these conditions the coefficients near an optimum point may be strongly interdependent, i.e. if we change an "optimum" coefficient,  $A(j)$ , we might be able to find new  $A(k \neq j)$  so that the average gain is nearly unchanged. In this case, gradient optimization methods may require an excessive number of iterations to find a solution.

MATCHD uses Nelder-Mead simplex function minimization (3) which is a direct search method and does not utilize gradients. The simplex is a set of  $N+1$  points in  $N$ -space, each representing a different  $h(s)$ . During optimization the simplex migrates through  $N$ -space, its average radius gradually shrinking onto the  $h(s)$  which yields the smallest  $E_1$  or  $E_2$ .

### Component Extraction

After convergence is achieved, the



normalized generator end driving point impedance of the equalizer is obtained directly from

$$Z_{rlc} = \frac{h(s) + g(s)}{g(s) - h(s)} \quad (20)$$

When  $N > P > 0$ , several networks can be realized directly from this driving point impedance using elementary pole removal operations; the number depends on the class of response originally chosen. The component values are then denormalized back to the original S-parameter reference impedance (usually 50 ohms) and bandcenter frequency before being displayed.

### Program Operation

A detailed description of commands for the MATCHD program is included on the program disc in a README.EXE file, and will not be duplicated here.

MATCHD was created for use on AT-compatible (286/386) personal computers, and is provided in a TurboBasic compiled version directly executable under DOS versions 2.0 to 3.3, and also in the original uncompiled version. The compiled version (MATCHD.EXE) file size is 91K, and an EGA, CGA, or VGA display is required. When a (287) coprocessor is used, solution of an  $N=3$  network will require about 60 seconds.

MATCHD always assumes that the specified data files are for 2-ports (.S2P), although it uses only  $S_{22}$  of the generator file and  $S_{11}$  of the load file for the optimization. The data must be in a Touchstone or equivalent format (i.e. the frequency and the four S-parameters comprise 9 numbers per line). The DOS text editor EDLIN can also be used to create and edit these data files.

Most of the program's execution time is spent finding the complex roots of  $G(\omega)$  after a new set of  $h(s)$  coefficients is chosen. The computation of the gain or error function is much faster, thus the overall execution time is practically independent of the number of sample frequencies within the optimization bandwidth.

Several simple examples will demonstrate the use of the program. For comparison purposes, we first design a six element bandpass matching network using Green's classic analytical method (6). By this approach, the resistance and bandcenter "Q" of a parallel RC load are specified, along with the desired ripple bandedge frequencies (0.5 and 1.5 GHz); these directly determine the ripple magnitude and generator resistance from the Fano limits (6). This

response is optimum in the restricted sense that the maximum value of pass-band attenuation is minimized. The resulting final bandpass network is shown in Figure 1.

Next, the bandpass network is trisectioned as shown and the reflection coefficient looking into each from the interior side is computed over 0.3 - 2.0 GHz and stored in two separate S-parameter files. MATCHD is then used to design an equalizer for these two source and load networks, using an  $N=3$ ,  $P=2$  response to maximize the gain over 0.5 to 1.5 GHz in 100 MHz steps.

The resulting two equalizers are shown in Figure 2a and 2b. The element values of Figure 2a are close to those of the original network. We can also realize two Norton transformer solutions, as shown in Figure 3a and 3b. The broadband response of all four MATCHD circuits is identical, and is plotted along with the original bandpass network response in Figure 4.

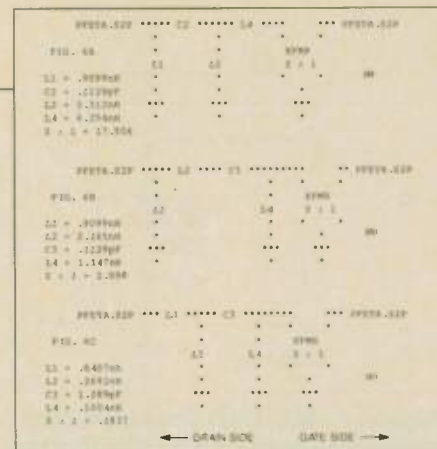
As a final example, we create interstage matching networks between two identical small signal, Ku-band packaged GaAs FETs. The data sheet for this device listed the S-parameters in 1 GHz steps from 1 to 18 GHz (file PFETA.S2P). Again, we arbitrarily choose to maximize the flat gain over 6 to 12 GHz in 500 MHz steps, using an  $N=4$ ,  $P=3$  response. The final response is shown in Figure 5. The equalizer configurations (not including the Norton transformers) which all yield this response are detailed in Figures 6a, 6b and 6c.

In contrast to numerous other CAD broadband matching procedures, MATCHD does not require the source and load port S-parameter data to be classified or modeled using equivalent lumped or distributed networks. It optimizes a transfer function rather than physical component values, consequently one or more topologically distinct matching networks are realizable from a single optimized transducer gain response.

Techniques for converting the final lumped element equalizer to its distributed or transmission line equivalent were not discussed; this topic is covered in detail in (6).

Several examples of optimized equalizer were shown. For the same terminating impedances, both the gain response and the element values of a MATCHD equalizer were close to those of an analytically optimum equalizer.

*This program is available on disk from*





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paratively low computational costs. It is available for the Sun, Apollo, HP, Sony, and DEC families of workstations, and supports UNIX, MSDOS, ULTRIX, and VMS operating systems. S-MINIMOS5 is priced at \$25,000.

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## Active Filter Design Update

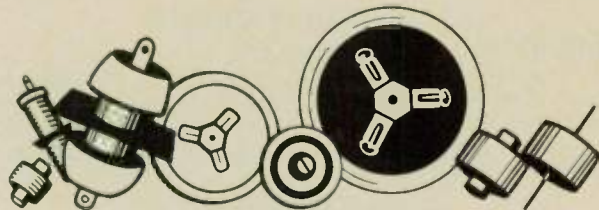
RLM Research has introduced an updated version of AFDPLUS. The program now has expanded file conversion support for simulation programs. The transfer function feature now allows the user to add, subtract, cascade, or divide filters to simulate more complex systems. The upgraded version of AFDPLUS is priced at \$850 and the upgrade for older version is priced at \$175.

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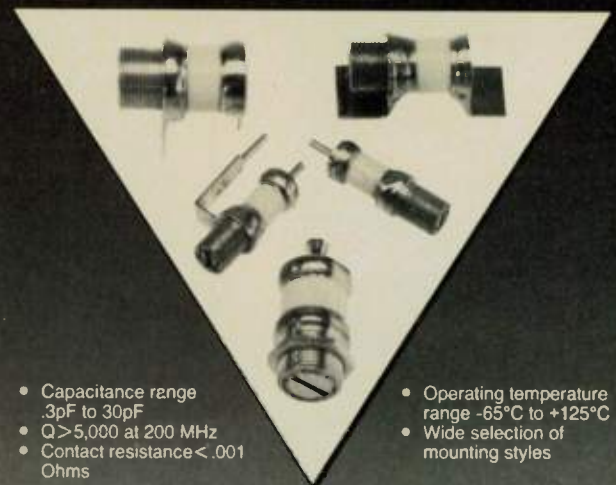
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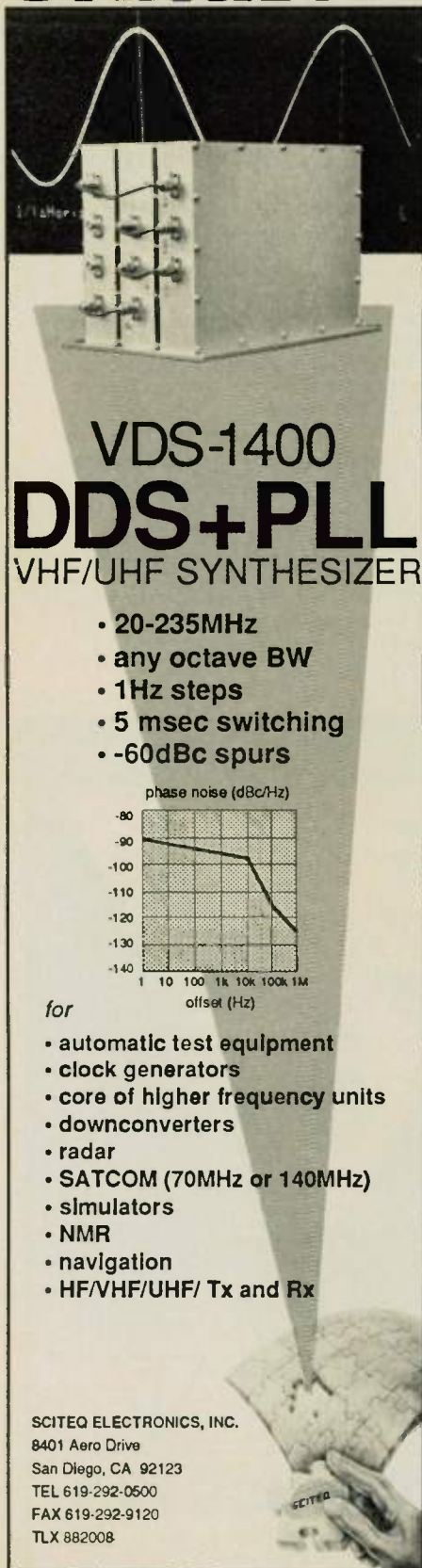
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Rohde & Schwarz has released a catalog covering their traditional electronic test equipment along with two new signal generators with extended high frequency range to 4.32 GHz, a 1 Hz to 260 kHz synthesized oscillator, and the Model FSB spectrum analyzer with an upper frequency limit of 5.2 GHz and an inherent noise level less than -145 dBm.

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### Broadcast Tower Protection

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### SMART Analog™ ICs

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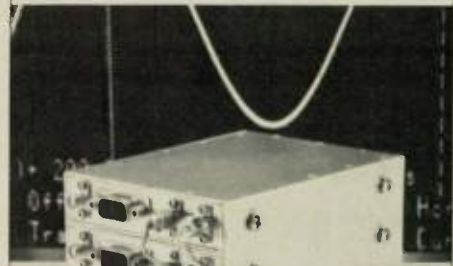
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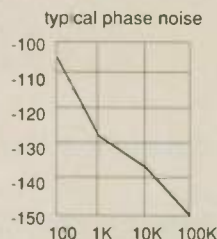
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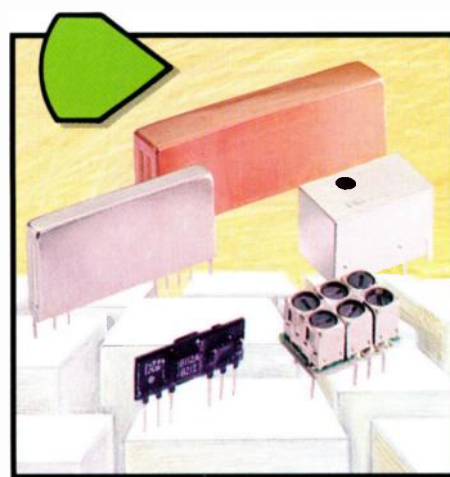
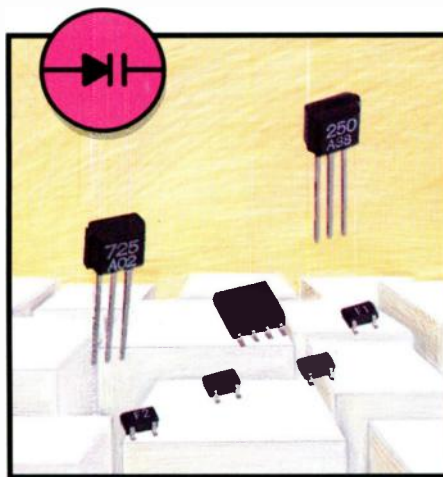
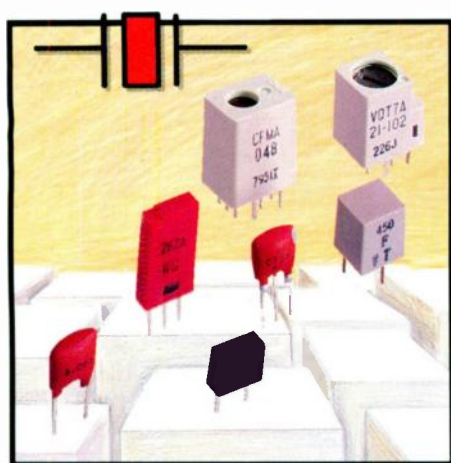
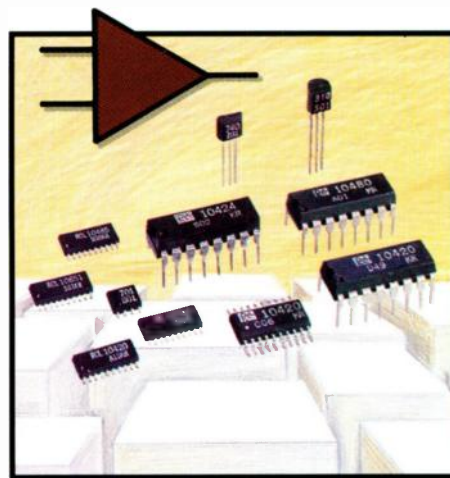
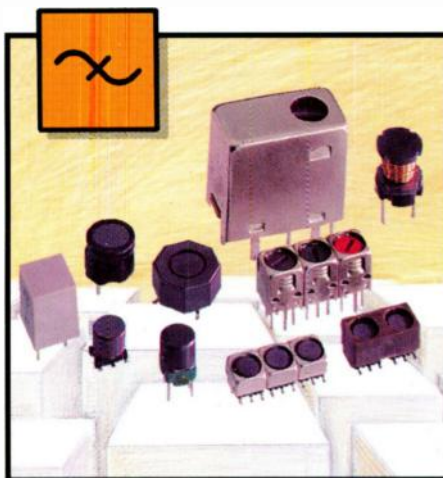
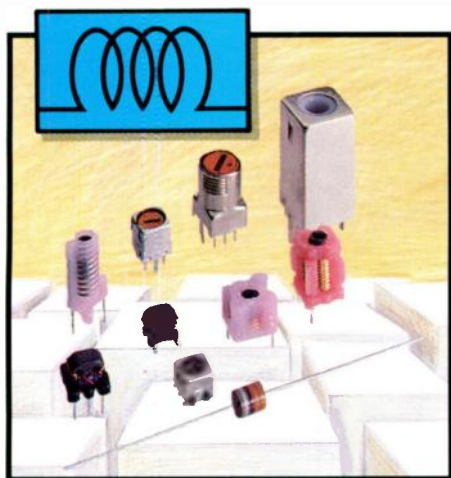
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
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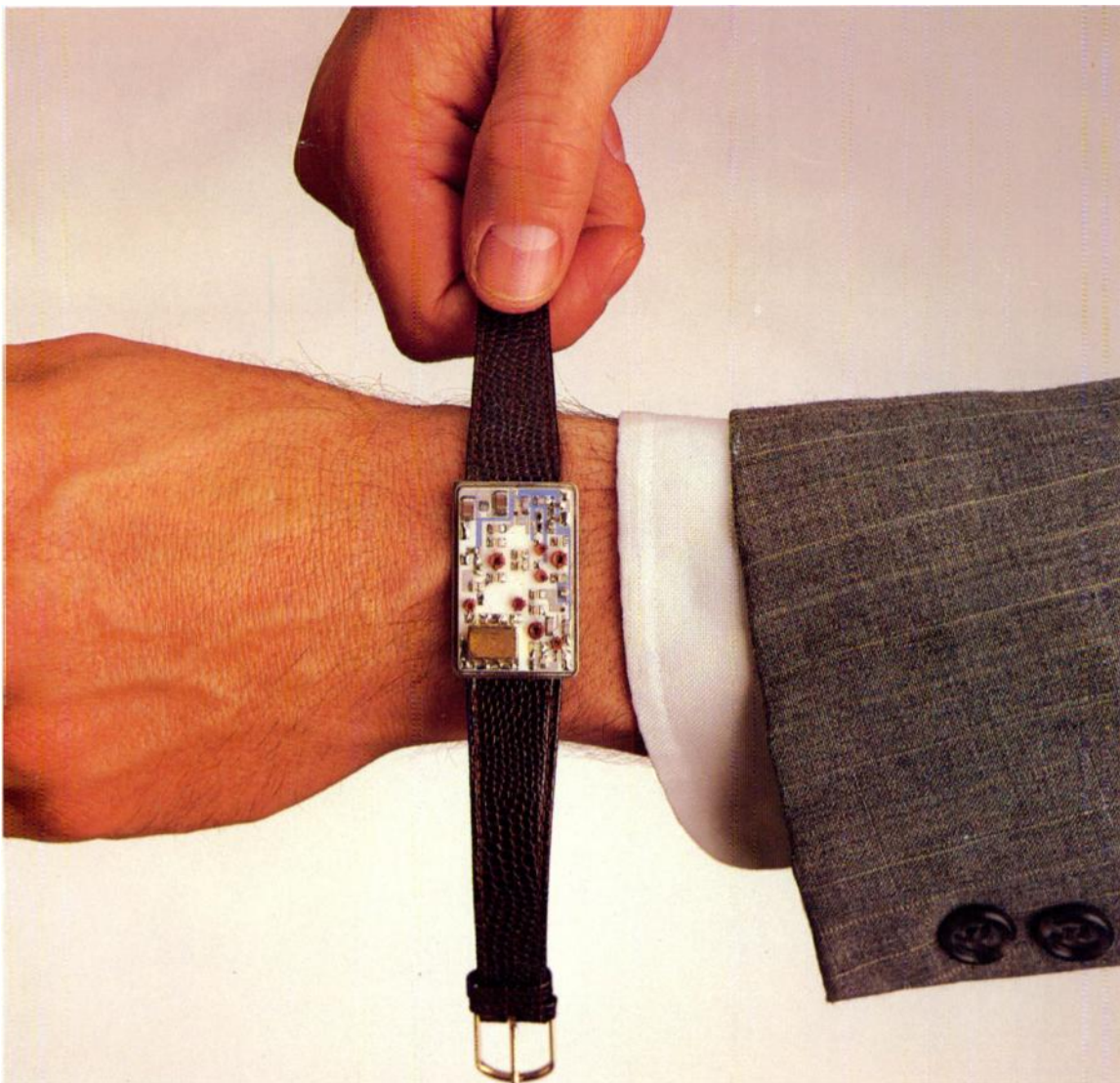
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