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The charts show the performance characteristics of **Celeritek's CSS9132** broadband driver amplifier and **CMM2306** broadband performance amplifier versus two other amplifiers currently available.

In each case, the **Celeritek** MMICs meet or exceed the performance of the competing devices.

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		THASE MUISE	1 Idimonico	Ouricine provy	11100
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Model	(MHz)	SSB @10kHz Typ.	Typ.	Max.	\$ ea.
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Max. Current (mA) @ 8V DC. Notes: Tuning votage 1 to 16V required to cover freq. range. 1 to 20V for POS-1060 to -2000, Models POS-50 to -1025 have 3dB modulation bandwidth, 10kHz typ. Models POS-1060 to -2000 have 3dB modulation bandwidth, 10kHz typ. Operating temperature range: - 55°C to +85°C.



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Slot antennas are useful in applications where lowprofile or flush installations are required on a highdynamic aircraft. To construct low-cost, lightweight and small antennas for commercial aircraft applications, a printed cylindrical-slot antenna was developed using microstrip baluns.

- Chien H. Ho, Paul K. Shumaker, Keith B. Smith, Juhn W. Wang and Hua Y. Wang

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Antenna height, terrain, physical structures, environment effects and other factors make every base station a unique design challenge for system designers and planners. The proper selection and design of directional planar patch array antenna specifications in PCS 1900 base-station sites will allow for proper penetration of signal to cover these areas.

- Charles M. DiFronzo

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Antenna testing generally is predicated on using a standard gain antenna co-located with the antenna under test (AUT). However, at HF, VHF and UHF frequencies, standard-gain antennas are too large for colocation on the AUT's platform. A technique has been developed for using a log-periodic antenna as a standard-gain antenna when co-location with the AUT is not feasible.

- John R. Tighe, Sharon Bradley and Joe Granados

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Engineers have been wishing for a circuit simulator for the PC that performs all the functions of the simulators available for high-performance work stations. Their wishes have been granted.

- Ulrich L. Rohde

tutorial

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In RF engineering, moving power from one location to another involves the use of coaxial cables. A brief history, explanation and some design tricks are discussed.

- Jim Weir

76 Estimating radiated emissions for electronic products

Radiated emissions, discovered after the mechanical package has been defined, can delay product development. A method is offered for anticipating radiated emissions early in the design cycle by analyzing the proposed product package as an antenna.

- Peter Vizmuller

engineer's notebook

81 Feedback improves AGC amplifier harmonic performance

A technique is shown that reduces the generation of second-harmonic energy and that increases system performance.

- Chris Trask

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INFO/CARD 8

RF editorial

Spectrum fuels RF product boom

By Don Bishop Editorial Director

In what could be a replay of its sweeping reorganization of UHF-TV allocations in the 1970s, the FCC may free as much as 54 MHz of RF spectrum for telecommunications development. Once the matter of whether to auction the spectrum has been resolved, the commission may act to relocate 100 TV stations from channels 60-69, interspersing them among stations already on channels 2-59.

As you can imagine, such a plan raises political considerations of nightmarish proportions, and it could throw into turmoil the strategies of telecommunications service providers with business plans based on current spectrum allocations. Broadcasters hate to lose spectrum, and they carry political clout. Wireless communications carriers that have bid billions of dollars for a limited supply of spectrum may find the value of that resource undermined by an increase in supply.

Remember what grew out of the previous reallocation of channels 70-83 for telecommunications use: cellular, paging, specialized mobile radio (SMR), narrowband personal communications services (NPCS) and public safety radio networks, to name a few. The reallocation helped to fuel a boom in RF-based telecommunications products. Another frequency reallocation of this size would pay off for RF equipment designers in ways that can't even be imagined.

Miniaturization

Success for many electronic products depends on miniaturization. For some products, a smaller size means faster computing. For wireless communications products, smaller size often means greater consumer appeal. Oddly enough, miniaturization with some cellular telephones has reached the point where the size of the electronics no longer requires a case large enough to extend from the ear to the mouth. Some cellular phones use an extension to enlarge the product profile just to make it more similar to the familiar desktop telephone handset.

Even greater miniaturization for computer chips has been achieved by researchers at Bell Labs, where an electron beam has been used in place of ultraviolet light to create circuits separated by 0.08 microns. Most chips have circuits spaced at 0.35 microns, and it is said that using ultraviolet to imprint a circuit design onto silicon has a practical limit of 0.10 microns.

Spectrum wall chart

If you have had difficulty ordering the National Telecommunications Information Administration spectrum wall chart previously mentioned in this column, here is some more detailed information that may be helpful. The product name is "1996 Spectrum Wall Chart," stock No. 003-000-00652-2, \$3.25.

Orders can be placed by mail to U. S. Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, P.O. Box 371954, Pittsburgh, PA 15250-7954.

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Don Bishop, Editorial Director, 913-967-1741 Gregg V. Miller, Technical Editor Patricia Werner, Associate Editor Valerie J. Hermanson, Art Director Ernest Worthman, Contributing Editor

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RF letters

Letters should be addressed to Editor, RF Design, 5660 Greenwood Plaza Blvd., Suite 350, Englewood, CO 80111. Letters published may be edited for length or clarity.

Editor,

I am designing a narrowband FM receiver in the 930 MHz range for an interactive TV program guide in the United States. One of the topics I have been frustrated trying to learn about is co-channel rejection (sometimes termed capture ratio). Of all the IC vendors I have contacted (Philips, Harris. Anadigics, RF Micro Devices, Motorola and others), only GEC Plessey even mentions this particular parameter. This parameter is important for widearea paging, at least for nationwide paging.

Nationwide paging carriers in the United States divide the country into 5-100 regions, all on the same frequency. A region may have 100 transmitters, all of which operate in a simulcast mode and deliver the same datastream. Adjacent regions often overlap, and even if they carry the same datastream, there is no synchronization between regions. So an area of "simulcrash" is formed. The only way for a receiver to function in such an area is to have a good capture ratio, on the order of 1 dB. Motorola claims such performance. Nobody I have talked to has been able to explain how to achieve such a capture ratio figure. I know that demodulator linearity and IF strip AM rejection is important, but I don't know much more. Most integrated solutions I have analyzed have capture ratios of 5-7 dB, far from ideal!

I have studied theses on receiving the weaker of two co-channel signals, but these tend to lead to expensive, esoteric designs, and I am trying to design a consumer electronics product. Can you suggest where I might find information on what is required in terms of demodulator design, etc. to achieve such performance? I know it's not uncommon for broadcast FM stereo radio receivers to achieve around 1 dB capture ratio, but these are not narrow- band devices, and I think the techniques are somewhat different.

Klaus Renner, VideoGuide, 209 Burlington Road, Bedford, MA 01730, Tel. 617-276-8811; Fax 617-276-8878; Email klaus@vgi.com

Readers, please contact Mr. Renner directly if you have information.

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RF calendar

 August 19–21 Wireless Communications Conference— Boulder, CO. Information: Dr. Roger Marks, National Institute of Standards and Technology, 325 Broadway, MC 813.06, Boulder, CO 80303. Tel. 303-497-3037; Fax 303-497-7828; E-mail r.b.marks @ieee.org.
 19–23 IEEE International Symposium on Electromagnetic Compatibility— Santa Clara, CA. Information: Gherry Pettit, Intel. Tel. 503-696-2994; Fax 503-640-6411.

September 8–12 Electrical Overstress and Electrostatic Discharge Symposium—Orlando, FL. Information: ESD Association, 7902 Turin Road, Suite 4, Rome, NY 13440-2069. Tel. 315-339-6937; Fax 315-339-6793; Web site http://www.eosesd.org.

16–18 Connector and Interconnection Symposium and Trade Show—Boston. Information: Electronic Industries Association Components Group, 2500 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA 22201-3834. Tel. 703-907-7536; Fax 703-907-7501; Web site: http://www.eia.org.

16–20 Accelerated Reliability Technology Symposium—Denver. Information: Hobbs Engineering, 10218 Osceola Court, Westminster, CO 80030. Tel. 303-465-5988; Fax 303-469-4353; E-mail learn@hobbsengr.com.

17–20 Electromagnetic Compatibility (EMC '96 Roma)—Rome. Information: Prof. Mauro Feliziani, Department of Electrical Engineering, Univ. of Rome "La Sapienza," Via Eudossiana 18, 00184 Rome, Italy. Tel. +39 6 44585.809/ 44585.810; Fax +39 6 4883235/4825380; E-mail emc96rom@elettrica.ing.uniroma1.it.

19–20 Electromagnetic Compatibility: Planning for Compliance in the U.S., Europe and Japan—Phoenix. Information: Seminars Department, Underwriters Laboratories, 333 Pfingsten Road, Northbrook, IL 60062-2096. Tel. 847-272-8800 ext. 43481; Fax 847-509-6235; E-mail seminar@ul.com.

24–26 Electrical Manufacturing & Coil Winding EMCW '96—Chicago. Information: Electrical Manufacturing & Coil Winding '96, Dept. 77-5053, Chicago, IL 60678-5053. Tel. 708-260-9700 or 800-323-5155; Fax 708-260-0395.

- 25–26 Chesapeake Electronics Show—*Chantilly,* VA. Information: Bonnie Lasky, MACC, P.O. Box 513, Colmar, PA 18915. Tel. 215-822-6319; Fax 215-822-3332.
- 29-Oct. 2 Wireless Workshop—Sedona, AZ. Information: 100 S. Roosevelt Ave., Chandler, AZ 85226. Tel. 602-961-1382; Fax 602-961-4533.

October 1–4 Eighth Annual Digital Audio and Video Workshop—Philadelphia. Information: Lisa Fasold, Consumer Electronics Manufacturers Association, 2500 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA 22201-3834. Tel. 703-907-7669; Fax 703-907-7690; E-mail lfasold@eia.org.

> 2-3 NEPCON Exhibition and Conference— San Antonio. Information: Customer service, Tel. 800-467-5656; Web site http://nepcon.reedexpo.com.

- 7–10 Signal Processing Applications and Technology—Boston. Information: Megan Forrester c/o Miller Freeman, 600 Harrison St., San Francisco, CA 94107. Tel. 415-356-3391; Fax 415-905-2220; E-mail dsp@mfi.com.
- 7–11 Wireless Technology '96—Providence. Information: Dawn Averyt. Tel. 407-878-8200; Fax 407-879-7388; E-mail Expo96@aol.com.
- 8–10 Microwaves & RF Conference and Exhibition—London. Information: Beverley Lucan, Nexus Information Technology, Nexus House, Swanley, Kent, BR8 8HY, United Kingdom. Tel. +44-(0)1322-660070; Fax +44-(0)1322-661257.
- 21–23 *RF Design* Seminar Series—*Wakefield*, *M A.* Information: Intertec Presentations, 6300 S. Syracuse Way, Suite 650, Englewood, CO 80111. Tel. 303-220-0600; Fax 303-770-0253.
- 22-24 Wescon '96 Technical Conference Anaheim, CA. Information: Wescon, 8110 Airport Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90045. Tel. 800-877-2668 or 310-215-3976 ext. 251; Fax 310-641-5117; E-mail m.potthoff@ieee.org; Web site http://www.wescon.com.
- 29–30 Radio Solutions '96—Birmingham, UK. Information: LPRA Secretariat, Walker Mitchell Ltd., Brearley Hall, Luddenden Foot, Halifax HX2 6HS, United Kingdom. Tel. and fax +44 (0) 1422 88 69 50.
- 29-31 Signal Processing Applications and Technology—Santa Clara, CA. Information: DSP Associates, 49 River St., Waltham, MA 02154. Tel. 617-891-6000; Fax 617-899-4449; E-mail icspat@dspnet.com.

November 6-8 Plastics in Portable & Wireless Electronics—Phoenix. Information: Judy Wales, Donnelly. Tel. 520-321-7680; Fax 520-322-5635; E-mail judy@donnelly.ppp.theriver.com.

18-22 IEEE Global Telecommunications Conference—London. Information: Vikki Pollard, Globecom, RT 10/5a, BT Laboratories, Martlesham Heath, Ipswich, Suffolk, IP5 7RE, United Kingdom. Tel. +44 1473 644799; Fax +44 1473 647488; E-mail pollarv@btlip10.bt.co.uk.

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2-Channel				1. 1. 1.	Section 19		Const 1
	824 - 960	0.5	23	1.2:1	0.05	0.5	DS52-0001
	1510 - 1660	0.4	20	1.3:1	0.05	1	DS52-0004
	1700 - 1900	0.3	20	1.3:1	0.05	2	DS52-0005
	1850 - 1990	0.5	21	1.2:1	0.05	1	DS52-0002
	2200 - 2500	0.3	20	1.3:1	0.05	3	DS52-0003
4-Channel							
	824 - 960	1	23	1.2:1	0.30	2	DS54-0001
	1200 - 1660	1	23	1.2:1	0.30	2	DS54-0003
	1700 - 2000	1	23	1.4:1	0.30	3	DS54-0002
New	2200 - 2500	1	21	1.4:1	0.20	2	DS54-0004
6-Channel					LES PART		
	824 - 960	1.3	25	1.4:1	0.30	6	DS56-0001

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RF courses

- Training Program for Cellular, PCS Staff-Home-study course. Information: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Mobile & Portable Radio Research Group, 840 University City Blvd., Pointe West Commons, Suite 1, Blacksburg, VA 24061-0350. Tel. 540-231-2970; Fax 540-231-2968.
- Communications Tech Training-1996 schedule for Orland Park, IL, Sept. 3-5, Oct. 8-10, Nov. 5-7, Dec 3-5, Information: Andrew Corp., Dept. 355, P.O. Box 9000, San Fernando, CA 91341-9978. Tel. 800-255-1479 ext. 117.

George Washington University-Washington, DC. Wireless Infrastructure Network Engineering for Cellular, PCS, LE, and WPBX-Oct. 21-25. Information: George Washington University, Continuing Engineering Education, Academic Center, Room T-308, 801 22nd St. N.W., Washington, DC 20052. Tel. 202-994-6106 or 800-424-9773; Fax 202-872-0645; E-mail ceepinfo@ceep.vpaa.gwu.edu.

1996 CEI-Europe in Cambridge, United Kingdom

Wireless Digital Communications: Mobile, Cellular, Personal, Voice and Data Networks-Sept. 30-Oct. 4; Applied RF Techniques: Linear Circuits-Sept. 30-Oct. 4; Adaptive Synchronous Receiver Structures for Mobile Communications-Sept. 30-Oct. 4.

in Baveno, Italy-

Mobile and Wireless Personal Communications Networks -- Oct. 14-18; Modern Digital Modulation Techniques-Oct. 14-18; Modeling and Simulation of Communication Systems-Oct. 15-18; Speech and Channel Coding for Mobile Communication—Oct. 21–23; Digital Cellular and PCS Communications: The Radio Interface—Oct. 21-25; Spread-Spectrum and CDMA—Oct. 21-25. in Barcelona, Spain-

Mobile Cellular and PCS Telecommunications Systems-Nov. 11-13; RF Circuit Components-Nov. 18-21; Receivers and Transmitters-Nov. 18-22; Advanced Digital Receivers for Wireless Communications—Nov. 18–21; Cellular and Personal Communications Infrastructure-Nov. 20-22. Information: CEI-Europe, P.O. Box 910, S-612 25 Finspong, Sweden. Tel. 46 122 175 70; Fax 46 122 143 47; E-mail cei.europe@one.se.

DSP Without Tears-Aug. 26-28, Washington, DC; Sept. 30-Oct. 2, San Jose, CA. Information: Z Domain Technologies, 325 Pine Isle Court, Alpharetta, GA 30302. Tel. 800-967-5034 or 770-587-4812; Fax 770-518-8368; E-mail dsp@mindspring.com.

Celwave University-Marlboro, NJ. Modules offered include: Antenna Basics, Advanced Theory, Towertop Amplifiers, Bidirectional Amplifiers, Filters and Combiners. Information: Gail Magid, Celwave, 2 Ryan Road, Marlboro, NJ 07746-1899. Tel. Sales Engineering Dept. 800-235-9283.

Georgia Tech Continuing Education

Near-field Antenna Measurements and Microwave Holography-Sept. 10-13, Boulder, CO; Wireless Communication-Sept. 24-27, Atlanta, GA. Information: Dept. of Continuing Education, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332-0385. Tel. 404-894-2547; E-mail conted@gatech.edu; Web site http://www.conted.gatech.edu.

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Modern Terrestrial Radio Systems Engineering-Sept. 9-12; Cellular and Personal Communications Services (PCS): Systems Engineering and Perspective with Emphasis on CDMA Technology-Sept. 16-19; Wireless and Personal Communications Systems-Oct. 7-9; Wireless Digital Communications Systems: Specification, Test and Evaluation-Oct. 21-23; The Telecommunications Revolution and its Impact on Organizational Planning-Oct. 28-30. Information: OEI 14515 Barkwood Drive, Rockville, MD 20853. Fax 301-871-4942; E-mail info.oei@apl.jhu.edu.

August 1996

INIEO/CADD 34 for INICEDT

GSM and DCS-1800 C/I Testing

The GSM and DCS-1800 specifications require testing of receivers under multipath fading conditions. To comply with the specifications, there are several important performance issues that a multipath fading emulator must meet:

1. Twelve(12)-tap configurations. GSM Rec. 05.05 calls for various tests under multipath fading. To emulate different terrain environments, it is recommended that full 12-tap configurations are used for higher confidence and reduced test time.

For the multipath emulation on an interfering signal, a reduced configuration of 6 taps is used. For example, to perform adjacent channel interference tests, the fading emulator must provide two different channels with 6 taps on each channel.

Noise Com's MP2600-12 is well suited for this test scenario as it provides 12 taps on one channel, and by a single click on the mouse, the configuration is easily changed to 2channel, 6-tap configurations internally without any external hardware modifications.

2. Greater than 3 hours of nonrepetitive random fading. GSM 11.20 (base station test standard) specifies 10,200 seconds (~3 hours) of continuous test time under fading conditions. The Phase II specification for mobile station testing (GSM 11.10-1) calls for a minimum of about 3.300 seconds of test time. Therefore, during the entire test period, the fading statistics should not be repeated in order to provide true randomness. The MP2600-12 exceeds the above specifications by providing more than twenty-four (24) hours of non-repetitive fading.

3. Adjacent channel interference testing with C/l of -41 dB at 400 kHz offset. GSM 11.10 and 11.20 call for receiver testing with a very high level of interference from the adjacent channel. This exceeds the dynamic range of most fading emulators because the faded signal itself already has severe variations in the power level. The MP2600-12 is specially configured to accommodate the C/l testing by extending the dynamic range of the power level and also eliminating the noise floor problems of the interfering channel. 4. 20 MHz bandwidth for frequency hopping. Phase I of DCS-1800 (GSM 11.10 - DCS) requires wider than 20 MHz communications bandwidth for thorough testing. To achieve the specified frame erasure rate (FER) under the condition of co-channel interference with frequency hopping, an ideal frequency hopping is assumed. However, the combination of TU1.5 propagation conditions and frequency hopping with a bandwidth of 5 MHz (as required by the standard) results in a loss compared to ideal frequency hopping. This is due to the correlation of the FER among consecutive bursts. The preferred solution to eliminate the correlation effects at this low vehicle speed of 1.5 km/hr is to increase the bandwidth to 20 MHz. This allows sufficient decorrelation of consecutive bursts to perform proper testing.

The MP2600-12 provides 20 MHz of RF bandwidth that allows thorough testing as it was originally intended: co-channel interference with frequency hopping under slow vehicle speeds.



Figure 1. C/I test configuration with MP2600-12.



Wideband Multipath Fading Emulator (MP2600-12)

Multipath fading emulator for GSM and DCS-1800 C/I Testing

The MP2600-12 emulates wireless communication channels with up to 12 different reflected signal paths for wideband applications. For testing GSM and DCS-1800 receivers, the instrument is an ideal partner for providing realistic channel environments.

The instrument has pre-stored in its memory all the GSM and DCS-1800 specified test parameters. It also provides programmable output power, delay, attenuation, frequency shift (Doppler), and a choice of Rayleigh, Rician, log-normal, Nakagami, and Suzuki fading statistics for each path.

The MP2600-12 includes a builtin 486DX/33 computer and LCD display. A Windows-based graphical user interface simplifies setup and operation.



Ordering Information

Model Number	Frequency Range	Application
MP2600-12	300-2500 MHz	GSM, DCS-1800,
		PCS-1900

Options:

- Synthesized local oscillators
- Dual duplex interface
- 26 MHz RF bandwidth
- I/Q interface (DC to 13 MHz)
- High-power attenuator
- Lower or higher frequency ranges





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Policies set to change African telecommunications

The African Regional Telecommunications Conference (ARTC), convened by the International Telecommunications Union, resolved to continue to improve Africa's telecommunications and information infrastructure. In a fiveday conference, leaders of the ARTC adopted policies and strategies that would attempt to shift government responsibility away from ownership and management of public companies to a more regulatory and legal role. Other policies adopted would restructure the telecommunications network operators as autonomous corporations, involve the private sector in the management and implementation of national telecommunications, and introduce competition in a stable, regulated business.

Survey reports use trends for cellular in five nations

Motorola commissioned the Gallup Organization to conduct a survey examining cellular phone use in Canada, Great Britain, the United States, Hong Kong and Mexico. Hong Kong tops the list in daily use; 93 percent of cellular owners report using their cellular phone everyday. The lowest daily use was reported by Mexico (49%) and the United States (44%). Cellular phones appear to be more all-purpose communications tools in the United States than elsewhere. That is, U.S. cellular owners report using their telephones almost equally for business and personal reasons. In four out of the five countries surveyed, the top reason for using a cellular phones was to say that the user would be late. A higher percentage of owners in Mexico than in the other countries reported that a cellular phone allowed them to leave work on time because they can make calls on the way home.

Partnership forms American Industrial Microwave

A partnership between Manitou Systems of Danbury, CT, and Germanbased Muegg Electronics has resulted in the formation of American Industrial Microwave. The new company will expand the current line of products from Manitou by bringing German-developed microwave power supplies and components to the U.S. market. American Microwave Products will develop new products in the Danbury facility, as well as provide sales and service for the German-manufactured products.

Gorca group expands, acquires Fountain Group

The Gorca Group, headquartered in Cherry Hill, NJ, has acquired The Fountain Group, a consulting and engineering firm located in Washington, DC. The acquired company will be renamed Fountain Integrated Systems and will focus its initial marketing efforts on providing low-cost mobile communications and fleet asset management systems for trucking companies. Fountain Integrated Systems, which will be based in Cherry Hill, plans to open facilities in Washington, DC, later this year.

Contracts:

NASA awards contract-A Small Business Innovative Research (SBIR) contract for \$600,000 was awarded to Sicom by NASA. The contract is to help Sicom develop a high-speed digital data modem for two-way satellite communications. The design, fabrication and testing of two high-speed digital wideband modems will meet the needs of satellite and terrestrial network operators by providing integrated data, voice and video with bandwidth up to 155 Mbps. Projected uses for the modems will be in telecommunications, commercial TV, video conferencing and data networks.

Digital TV Agreement—Com-Stream and Matsushita Electric have agreed to develop and produce TV settop products to support the anticipated demand for digital TV. The set-top box acts as receiver and decoder of digital television satellite, cable and multichannel multipoint distribution system

Business Briefs

Proxim and Data General Enter Alliance—Proxim and Data General have formed an alliance in which Data General will integrate Proxim's RangeLAN2 as its 2.4 GHz wireless LAN technology of choice.

Motorola and Teleflex Alliance—Motorola's Oncore GPS technology and Teleflex's electronics packaging capabilities have combined to manufcture and market a GPS receiver and antenna integrated into a single package. The new product, for use in harsh environments, will output a serial data stream and a highly accurate one-pulse-per-second signal used in precision time and frequency devices in telecommunications, computer networking, and other timing applications. The weatherproof housing eliminates the need for expensive coaxial cable, and RF signal loss problems are eliminated.

Surge Components Opens Test Lab—A new, in-house test laboratory has been opened at the Surge facility in Deer Park, NY. The fully equipped and QA certified lab for the testing of Surge's line of discrete components brings most of Surge's testing needs to its own facility from off-shore. Ortel to Provide Countermeasure Photodiode Receivers—Sanders, a Lockheed Martin company, has selected Ortel to provide linear fiberoptic technology for a joint U.S. Navy and Air Force Integrated Defensive Electronic Countermeasures (IDECM) system. Ortel will provide Sanders with photodiode receivers for the wide-frequency fiberoptic towed decoy portion of the IDECM system. As many as 1,000 military aircraft will be fitted with this new self-protection system.

Based in Alhambra, CA, Ortel designs, manufactures and sells a broad range of RF signal transmission products worldwide for the broadband and wireless sectors of the communications industry as well as select government and defense applications.

Marconi Relocates to Fort Worth—Marconi Instruments relocated from Allendale, NJ, to the Alliance Development complex in Fort Worth, TX. The new facility is the headquarters for both Marconi Instruments, Inc. and for the newly formed Americas Region of Marconi Instruments Limited. The facility houses customer service, administration, sales and marketing and senior management.



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broadcast transmissions. The agreement combines Com-Stream's ability to design and produce video transmission systems with Matsushita's high-volume manufacturing capabilities. Manufacturing will begin in Matsushita's Wales facility this year and will be marketed under the Panasonic brand name.

Additionally, ComStream has been selected by Thomson Consumer Electronics as its exclusive supplier for front-end technologies for Thomson's Tele-TV systems' multichannel multipoint distribution system, designed to deliver as many as 100 television channels to an estimated 3 million homes beginning in late 1996.

Andrew to supply antenna and transmission line for highdefinition television (HDTV)-Capitol Broadcasting Company has selected Andrew to supply WRAL in Raleigh, NC, with a special version of the company's UHF-TV transmit antenna and transmission line. The new digital transmission system will provide viewers with high-definition picture quality with more than twice the resolution of the current analog standards. Cinematic-quality pictures and stereo sound with better frequency response than broadcast FM will be delivered over the air to home receivers.

Amtech expands Houston electronic toll and traffic management (ETTM)—Amtech has received a \$3.9 million contract for work on phases III and IV of the Greater Houston traffic management system. Amtech will provide additional equipment for Houston's high-tech system, which uses automatic vehicle identification (AVI) technology for traffic management. Reader stations located on toll roads and freeways in the metropolitan area read Harris County toll road authority electronic EZ tags supplied by Amtech, as well as compatible out-of-area Amtech tags, compatible American Trucking Association (ATA) tags for equipment and cargo tracking and traffic management systems tags issued to drivers who commute during peak travel periods. Vehicles equipped with ETTM tags relay travel-flow and travel-time information to traffic engineers, transportation officials and emergency-related agencies. Data gathered are transmitted to Houston TranStar, the traffic-control center for Houston and Harris County. The information is used to manage traffic flow and to respond more quickly to traffic incidents.

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RF industry insight **RF research rising on** tide of commercial activity

By Andy Kellett Contributing Editor

Market opportunities are abundant in wireless technology, and companies are looking for technical talent in both inhouse labs and in academia's labs to take advantage of those opportunities.

Ten years ago "wireless" research was concentrated in government microwave programs. Research into devices and systems below a few GHz was dormant. Today, the spectrum below a few GHz is the domain of hundreds of millions of dollars worth of research. Most of that money is coming from private companies.

Research areas

Where is radio research active? At the semiconductor device level, research is still primarily a commercial research endeavor because semiconductor manufacturing equipment is expensive. But there are a few universities with modern semiconductor research facilities (UCLA and UC Berkeley, specifically). Although semiconductor research is focused mostly on reducing geometries for digital circuits and on improving packaging technologies, advances in these areas eventually are felt in the RF arena. At the system level, RF research begins to spread out more. Both industry and academic labs are working to use new semiconductor devices in new system architectures-for instance, "software receivers" that use digital signal processors (DSPs) to perform many of a radio's traditionally analog functions.

Propagation studies are vital to every wireless service provider. Each one must determine how well its signal will reach its customers. Propagation studies in their own backyard is becoming a research niche that some universities are beginning to fill. More general propagation studies also are the focus of research. A lot of research is going on to determine how various modulation methods are affected by propagation. (There is a particularly large amount of research into the robustness of CDMA in real-world propagation conditions.)

Mobile computing probably is the most active area of RF system research. Sixty-three wireless computing projects, both commercial and academic, are listed on the University of Washington's Mobile and Wireless Computing index on the world wide web. Several vertical markets already use wireless data transmission-point-of-sale terminals, package tracking and inventory control—but dollars also are being poured into wireless computing in hopes that a "killer application" will emerge to bring wireless computing to a broad market. Many labs are working to help wireless computing reach that broad market.

"To make [the emergence of a broad mobile computing market] more likely, WINLAB is working to bridge the technology gaps between conventional computer communications and wireless communications," says Dr. David Goodman, director of the Wireless Information Network Laboratory (or WINLAB) at Rutgers. Several commercial and academic researchers are working on reducing power consumption in mobile computing devices, designing network architectures that are more tolerant to the noise and distortion in wireless channels, predicting system behavior and measuring system performance.

Industry in academia's labs

Most of the new research endeavors at universities are heavily sponsored by industry. WINLAB was formed in 1989 with money from the State of New Jersey. It quickly attracted financial support from seven companies and has steadily been adding sponsors since, says WINLAB's Goodman. The Mobile and Portable Radio Research Group (MPRG) at Virginia Tech has 16 affiliates, and the analog semiconductor device groups at UCLA and UC Berkeley are supported by several semiconductor companies. Other programs have similar support.

What does a dollar spent on research

at an academic lab get a company that it doesn't get it at the company's own in-house lab? "Cross-industry leverage," says Arnie Moore, director of wireless communications at Southwestern Bell Technology Resources, Moore says that several companies supporting research at a university lab can each save money if they all can use the university research results.

MPRG's director, Ted Rappaport, Ph.D. says companies fund research because they have both a shortage of manpower and a need to help shape the engineers they will be hiring. "Also, I think it's happening because companies are finding that academics, in particular students, are extremely motivated, and it makes good business sense," says Rappaport, "I'd say if you go to a highly motivated, highly driven [university] research lab, you can get three to five times the output per dollar, and maybe even more, compared to industry."

Rappaport admits that to get wireless research money from industry, researchers have to be aware of eventual end-uses, and that they may give up some research in pure, fundamental areas. "But I believe the academics and industry sponsors can strike a nice balance so that the faculty and students get the intellectual stimulation that they want, and the company receives students that are sensitive to the needs of industry," says Rappaport.

Dr. Lance Glasser, director of the Electronic Technology Office at the Defense Advanced Research Project Agency (DARPA), has spent time as a researcher in both industry and academia before joining DARPA in 1988. Glasser points out that, "If I look back a decade, there was very little RF work—long or short term—being done in academia, so in absolute terms, I think the amount of long-term work has gone up."

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	MGA-81563	Driver amp	100-6000	3	42	2.7	12	+27
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RF antenna **A novel GPS avionics slot antenna**

By Chien H. Ho, Paul K. Shumaker, Keith B. Smith, Juhn W. Wang and Hua Y. Wang Garmin Communication & Navigation



Figure 1. A good satellite geometry with a low GDOP number.



Figure 2. A poor satellite geometry with a high GDOP number.



Figure 3. Physical configuration of the conventional slotted-cylinder antenna.

The satellite communications networks evolution has advanced from design and development to actual working systems within the last decade. The construction of the NAVSTAR Global Positioning System (GPS) is one of the largest accomplishments in satellite communications. It provides accurate position information in three dimensions, the velocity of the GPS receiver and precise time signals traceable to coordinated universal time. GPS service is available continuously worldwide, and it can be used in any weather. No user fees are charged, nor are any anticipated. As a result, international civilian use of GPS receivers continues to grow.

position can be calculated in three A dimensions when the exact distance or range from three satellites is known. The range between a satellite and a user is calculated by using the propagation delay of the signal coming from the satellite. This time-of-arrival (TOA) ranging system differs from earlier satellite navigation systems, such as transit, which used doppler shift as the measuring domain. Based on the TOA theory, two important factors can limit the potential accuracy of a GPS receiver's position solutions. The first is the measurement error in pseudorange (PR), and the second is the satellite-to-user geometry.

The PR measurement is the raw range measurement before correcting for clock bias. The error in the receiver's PR measurement is called *user-equivalent* range error (UERE). The UERE is affected by the quality of the received satellite signals, and it varies among satellites and times. The UERE also varies among different user receivers.

The second accuracy-limiting factor of satellite-to-user geometry is called *geometric dilution of precision* (GDOP). GDOP is a geometric quantity that describes the relative positions of the user and selected satellites. The GDOP value, an amplification factor, multiplies the UEREs and increases the receiver's position, velocity and time (PVT) solution errors. High values of GDOP cause small range-measurement errors to become large position errors. The receiver must select satellites with low GDOP to improve the potential accuracy of the receiver's PVT calculations and to limit the amplification of UERE. Good GDOP has low numbers and indicates that the satellites exhibit good geometry relative to the user. The lowest GDOP number occurs when the selected satellites are spaced widely in the sky above the GPS receiver. Figure 1 shows a good satellite geometry with a low GDOP number. Poor GDOP, as shown in Figure 2, occurs when the selected satellites are close together or when they form a row or circle. It is possible to have such poor GDOP numbers (high numbers) that the receiver is unable to process a solution. The best possible satellite geometry for PVT solution requires one satellite to be directly overhead and three others equally spaced around the horizon. For this reason, the commercial GPS user equipment for aircraft networks requires an antenna that can provide a righthand circular polarization and a uniform pattern coverage over nearly the entire upper hemisphere.

The uniform amplitude response over a wide coverage region allows the receiver to maintain signal-lock to satellites with a useful signal-to-noise ratio. Because a high-speed aircraft constantly changes its look angle to satellites, the wide beamwidth coverage allows the receiver to track as many visible satellites as possible and to maintain the system's proper GDOP. An airborne terminal in a satellite-to-air communications link should have a mechanical configuration with no appreciable drag and that requires no elaborate structural modification to the aircraft. Slot antennas fit high-dynamic aircraft applications where low-profile or flush installations are required.

The slotted cylinder antenna first was introduced by Andrew Alford [1] in 1946. The physical structure of the slottedcylinder antenna proposed in [1] consists of a piece of slotted sheet metal bent into a cylinder. Alford described this type of vertical slotted cylinder as a resonant transmission line with a sufficient number of shunt loops. Figure 3 shows the physical configuration of the conventional slotted-cylinder antenna. As shown in Figure 3, the antenna is

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Figure 4. Radiation pattern of the conventional- slotted cylinder antenna.

formed by bending a piece of slotted sheet metal into a cylinder. Because of the sufficiently low impedance of the circumference path around the cylinder [2], most of the current flows in horizontal loops around the cylinder. The antenna radiates a horizontally polarized field with a nearly circular pattern in the horizontal plane. Figure 4 shows the radiation pattern of the slotted-cylinder antenna. At the cardinal points on the horizon, only the horizontally-polarized signal for the antenna is present. This type of vertical-slot antenna is suitable for broadcasting a horizontally-polarized wave with an omnidirectional or circular pattern in the horizontal plane.

To make a low-cost, lightweight and small-sized antenna for commercial GPS aircraft applications, a printed cylindrical-slot antenna was developed using microstrip baluns. The design technique employs four 1/2-turn cylindrical slots etched in the ground plane of four 90° differential-fed microstrip lines. The phase quadrature among the microstrip feed lines excites a circularly-polarized wave. Experimental results show that the proposed cylindrical-slot antenna has a fairly good circular polarization, radiation pattern and front-to-back ratio and a wide beamwidth.

Quarterwave cylindrical slot antenna

The radiation properties of microstrip-fed slot antennas first were reported by Yashimura [3] in 1972. He measured the input impedances and radiation patterns for various geometries of microstrip-fed slot antennas. The physical structures of these slot antennas are fabricated by simple and conventional photoetching techniques and are considered suitable in microwave integrated circuit (MIC) and monolithic microwave integrated circuit (MMIC) transceivers. They also have the advantages of being able to produce bidirectional and unidirectional radiation patterns and of requiring simple feeding and matching techniques. Figure 5 shows the physical structure of the microstripfed slot antenna. The longer sides of the slot radiator are perpendicular to the microstrip feed line.

The microstrip conductor crosses the radiating slot and is short-circuited through the dielectric substrate. The slot radiator can be excited either from its center or at a distance from its center. The center-fed slot antenna requires a matching circuit to match the input impedance of the radiating slot to the 50 Ω microstrip feed line. Using the offset-fed slot configuration allows you to choose the position of microstrip feed line to provide an input match to the characteristic impedance of the line. The radiation resistance of the microstrip-fed slot antenna at an arbitrary offset position has been evaluated by Nakaoka et al and is given by [4] as the following:

$$R = \frac{\left[45\pi^{2} \int_{-\frac{L}{2D}}^{\frac{L}{2D}} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(p) \frac{e^{-jpx}}{e^{(|ph|)}} dp \left(\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{L}(x+D)\right) dx\right)\right]^{2}}{\left(\frac{L}{\lambda_{o}}\right)^{2} \left(1 - 0.374\left(\frac{L}{\lambda_{o}}\right)^{2} + 0.13\left(\frac{L}{\lambda_{o}}\right)^{4}\right)}$$
(1)
$$g(p) = \frac{\sin\left(\frac{pw_{m}}{2}\right)}{\frac{Pw_{m}}{2}} - \frac{\sin^{2}\left(\frac{pw_{m}}{4}\right) \sin\left(\frac{Pw_{m}}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{Pw_{m}}{4}\right)^{2}} - \frac{\sin^{2}\left(\frac{Pw_{m}}{4}\right)}{\left(\frac{Pw_{m}}{4}\right)^{2}}$$
(2)

where:

- L length of the slot = D
 - = distance between the center of the slot of width W_e << 10 and the center of the strip conductor of width W_m Fourier transform variable
- р

R measured on the microstrip plane

A number of authors [5,6] have thoroughly investigated impedance properties of slotline. The characteristics of slots on low-dielectric constant substrates, where slotlines have applications as antennas, were reported by Janaswamy and Schaubert [7] in 1986. Figure 6 shows the physical geometry of a wide slotline on a low-permittivity substrate. The empirical formulas for the normalized slot wavelength $\lambda' \lambda_o$ and slot characteristic impedance Z, are given as follows according to [7]:

 $0.006 \le \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\lambda_{\mathrm{o}}} \le 0.060$ (3)

$$2.22 \le \varepsilon_{\rm r} \le 3.8 \tag{4}$$

$$0.075 \le \frac{W}{\lambda_0} \le 1.0 \tag{5}$$



Figure 5. Microstrip line with displaced radiating slot.

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$$\frac{\lambda'}{\lambda_{o}} = 1.194 - 0.24 \ln \varepsilon_{r} - \frac{0.621 \varepsilon_{r}^{0.835} \left(\frac{w}{\lambda_{o}}\right)^{0.48}}{1.344 + \frac{w}{d}} - (6)$$

$$0.0617 \left[1.91 - \frac{\varepsilon_{r} + 2}{\varepsilon_{r}} \right] \ln \left(\frac{d}{\lambda_{o}}\right)$$

$$Z_{o} = 133 + 10.34 (\varepsilon_{r} - 1.8)^{2} + 2.87 \left[2.96 + (\varepsilon_{r} - 1.582)^{2} \right] \cdot \left[\left(\frac{w}{d} + 2.32\varepsilon_{r} - 0.56\right) \left((32.5 - 6.67\varepsilon_{r}) \left(100\frac{d}{\lambda_{0}}\right)^{2} - 1 \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} - (7)$$

$$\left(684.45\frac{d}{\lambda_{0}} \right) (\varepsilon_{r} + 1.35)^{2} + 13.23 \left[(\varepsilon_{r} - 1.772)\frac{w}{\lambda_{0}} \right]^{2}$$

Figure 7 shows the printed quarter-wavelength cylindrical slot antenna using microstrip baluns. Each of the slot radiators in Figure 7 is etched in the ground plane of the microstrip feedlines. The microstrip feedline crosses the slot radiator at a right angle and extends about $1/_4$ -wavelength beyond the slot. Unlike the slotted-cylinder antenna proposed in [1], each of the four vertical slots in Figure 7 is rolled by 1/2-turn around the cylindrical laminate. This resonant quadrifilar structure [8] provides the right-hand circular polarization and increases the radiation coverage in the horizontal plane. At the feedpoint, the center conductor of the microstrip line extends about 1/4-wavelength beyond the slot with an open circuit. This transition causes balanced currents to flow on both sides of the radiating slot and has less effect on the impedance transformation. Therefore, the input impedance of each slot radiator can be matched to a 50 Ω microstrip feed line by a minor adjustment of the length ratio between two short-circuited ends.

The 90° phase relationship between the four radiating slots can be achieved by using a microstrip feeding network. The



Figure 7. Physical configuration of the quarter-wavelength cylindrical-slot antenna.



Figure 6. Physical diagram of slotline.

choice of the feeding network can be either hybrid types, such as the branch line or ratrace coupler, or T-splitters of either matched or unmatched form. Feeds using hybrid couplers and matched T-splitters incorporate a fourth port with an absorbing load. Though these three types of feeding networks have good isolation between the output ports, using the add-on component reduces the basic simplicity of the printed construction. To reduce the complexity of fabrication and assembly, you should use an on-isolating in-line power splitter with an excess quarterwavelength line in one output arm to generate the required 90° phase differentials between the radiating slots. The approximate design requires:

$$\frac{1}{Z_{in}} = \frac{1}{Z_{slot1}} + \frac{1}{Z_{slot2}}$$
(8)

where Z_{in} , Z_{slot1} , and Z_{slot2} are the input impedance and slot output impedances, respectively.

Figures 8 and 9 show the measured frequency responses of return loss and the input impedance for a microstrip-fed cylindrical slot antenna. As shown in Figure 9, the antenna is resonant at 1.5754 GHz with an input impedance of $50.07 - j1.3 \Omega$. The return loss at the center frequency is greater than 30 dB, as shown in Figure 8. The bandwidth with 10 dB return loss is about 1.5% of the center frequency. The input impedance and return loss were measured at the input terminal of the microstrip feeding network by using an HP8719A vector network analyzer.



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Figure 8. Measured frequency response of return loss for a $^{1}/_{4^{-}}$ wavelength cylindrical-slot antenna.

Figure 9. Measured frequency response of input impedance for a 1/4-wavelength cylindrical-slot antenna.

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Figure 10 shows the radiation pattern of the printed quarter-wavelength cylindrical slot antenna. As shown in Figure 10, the half-power beamwidth is more than 120°, and the front-back ratio is more than 20 dB. These figures offer fairly good rejection of multipath signals reflected from the ground. The radiation pattern was measured with an HP8719A vector network analyzer with a calibrated, right-hand circularly-polarized, helical antenna.

Field tests for verifying the quarterwavelength cylindrical slot antenna were conducted with GPS receivers. Figure 11 shows the field test results of a quarter-wavelength cylindrical slot antenna with a GPS90 avionics receiver. The test was performed using a satellite geometry with a position dilution of precision (PDOP) of 69 feet. The receiver bar graph shows that satellites 1, 15, 20, 21 and 25, located within the axis angle of $\theta = 45^{\circ}$ have calibrated signal scales of 9, 9, 8, 8 and 9, which correspond to the receiver phase noise of 51 dB, 51 dB, 49 dB, 49 dB, and 51 dB, respectively. Satellites 5, 14 and 22, located outside the axis angle of $\theta = 45^{\circ}$ have calibrated signal scales of 6, 7 and 8, which correspond to the receiver phase noise of 45 dB, 47 dB and 49 dB, respectively According to the test results, the radiation pattern coverage of the quarter-wavelength cylindrical-slot antenna allows the GPS receiver to track satellites at extremely low elevation angles.

In addition to the electrical characteristics, the $1/_4$ -wavelength cylindrical slot antenna has favorable mechanical characteristics. Its cylindrical dimensions are about $1/_2$ " in diameter by $1-1/_2$ " long. The weight, including the supporting base and radome, is about 1 ounce.

Conclusion

The experimental results of the new microstrip-fed cylindrical slot antenna illustrate fairly good input impedancematching and front-to-back ratio, and a nearly hemispherical radiation pattern coverage. With its advantages of lowcost, light weight, compact size and ease of fabrication and assembly, the new printed cylindrical-slot antenna is suitable for commercial GPS aircraft applications .

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Figure 10. Measured radiation pattern of a quarter-wavelength cylindrical-slot antenna.



Figure 11. Field test results of a quarterwavelength cylindrical-slot antenna with a GPS90 avionics receiver.

About the Authors

Chien H. Ho received a B.S. in 1985 and an M.S. in 1987 from the Electrical Engineering Department of National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan. He received a Ph.D. in 1993 from Texas A&M University, College Station, TX. He is a development engineer for Garmin International, Olathe, KS. His research interests include uniplanar MIC components, low-noise receivers and microstrip antennas.

Paul K. Shumaker (member IEEE) received a B.S.E.E. in 1967 and an M.S.E.E. in 1968 from the University of Missouri at Columbia. He is with Garmin International, Olathe, KS where he has designed GPS antennas and receivers.

Keith B. Smith received an electronics technician diploma from DeVry in 1984. He worked as a lead technician at Bendix King on transponders for three-and-a-half years, then as a RF engineering technician at Aviation Systems on conventional and doppler VOR systems for three years. He is a senior engineering technician at Garmin international, Olathe, KS, working mostly with the research and development of GPS receivers and antenna systems.

Juhn W. Wang received a B.S.E.E. from Tankang University, Taipei, Taiwan, in 1993, and an M.S.E.E. from Polytechnic University, New York. He is a project engineer for Garmin International, Hsin Tien, Taiwan.

Hua Y. Wang received a diploma in electrical engineering from National Taipei Institute of Technology, Taipei, Taiwan, in 1991, and an M.S. in telecommunication from National Chiao Tung University, Hsin Tsu, Taiwan, in 1995. He is an electronics engineer for Garmin International, Hsin Tien, Taiwan.

The authors can be reached at Garmin International, 1200 E. 151st St., Olathe, KS 66062 or via voice mail 913-397-8200.



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RF antennas

Selecting vertical radiation patterns for directional base-station antennas

By Charles M. DiFronzo Huber+Suhner

The effect of physically or electrically tilting the vertical radiation pattern of a vertically polarized, planar, directional base-station antenna downward from the horizon (a 0° elevation angle) to some elevation angle below will alter the performance of a personal communications system (PCS) site. Base-station antenna pattern specifications will vary in a PCS cell site depending on the installation environment. Physical characteristics, such as topography and tower height, invariably differ for each base-station site. These variables make it nearly impossible to predict the radiation characteristics of the vertical and horizontal patterns, although one can estimate the propagation results based on a knowledge of antenna and communications theory. Antenna height from ground, physical structures (natural, man-made or both), and the vertical pattern shape have a large effect on the downtilt angle to be selected for a base-station antenna system. These characteristics must be se-



Figures 1 a,b. Principle plane radiation patterns of directional antennas. (a) Horizontal. (b) Vertical.

lected to minimize co-channel interference between adjacent cell sites and to minimize reflections and multipath depolarization caused by objects in and about the direction of the major lobe of antenna radiation for a sectorized planar antenna array.

The beamwidth vs. gain relation ship for antennas - A planar directional antenna has two distinct principal-plane radiation patterns that fully describe the effective power transmitted and received by the device. These planes are the horizontal and vertical radiation components with respect to earth. Figures 1a and 1b depict typical principal-plane patterns for planar-patch antennas and terms associated with these radiation characteristics. Both horizontal and vertical radiation pattern components are controlled by the geometry of the antenna elements. The area of the antenna elements' radiating aperture dictates the beam shape or resulting coverage. This in turn dictates the directivity or gain of a directional planar antenna array. The beamwidth of an antenna pattern is defined by the 3 dB or half-power point from the peak of the main beam. The field intensity at the half-power beam points is equal to 0.707 times the maximum field intensity of the antenna pattern. A directional antenna for a base station is specified and designed

gain by its (expressed in dBi or dBd) and 3 dB beamwidth in the direction of the main energy induced. In general, the wider the beamwidth of an antenna pattern, the lower the gain and the less the control of directivity. Designing these types of antennas merely

 Badome with Patch Mounted on Underside
 • SSFIP

 Inverted Radialing Patch
 - Strip

 Faam (or other dielectric media)
 - Slot

 - Foam
 - Inverted

 Ground Plane with Slot (aperture)
 Patch

 Micro-Strip Feed Line
 Micro-Strip Feed Line

Figure 2. Planar patch technology.

by maximizing the gain does not provide the best coverage reliability. Some form of pattern-shaping must be used in both the horizontal and vertical planes to optimize the antenna for the required coverage area. Pattern-shape design also reduces sector-to-sector antenna and site-to-site signal overlap,

which causes co-channel interference. The horizontal radiation pattern -The horizontal principle-plane pattern for a directional antenna for PCS basestation applications is ideal for a sectorized approach. Planar patch technology (Figure 2) provides horizontal beamwidths of 60° or 85°, depending on groundplane width. A sectorized base station approach enables a site to become omnidirectional in the horizontal direction. Directional antennas allow for interference reduction caused by overlapping coverage occurring from antennas within a base station, as well as from other base stations. This allows the site to cover an area with a distinct radius of field strength and minimal co-channel interference from sector to sector and from site to site. The horizontal beamwidth of an antenna is chosen by the system designers. The number of sectors dictates the horizontal beamwidths required. Typically a three- or four-sector approach is used in PCS base-station sites. Directional antennas with 85° and 60° horizontal beamwidths are installed in three-and four-sector sites, respectively.
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The horizontal pattern shape can be altered by tilting the antenna vertically. The directivity can be displaced in the horizontal direction by tilting a directional antenna downward. The freespace radiation characteristics of the antenna will be altered to some degree in an actual base-station installation. The antenna height, degree of downtilt and the environment surrounding the sectorized base station antenna will dictate the actual performance of the PCS site.

The vertical radiation pattern Adding patch elements in the vertical plane enables the design of phased planar-patch arrays having various vertical beamwidths and gains. Because of this, planar-patch technology is wellsuited to addressing the design needs of PCS site planners. Vertical patternshaping is key in providing sectorized coverage to a distinct area and the concentrated signal strength required by site and system designers. A general rule of thumb in selecting base-station antennas by the means of beamwidth is that the smaller the beamwidth, the more distinctly the field intensity will be concentrated to the main lobe. The series addition of like-phased patched elements increases gain and reduces beamwidth in the plane of the element addition. Continuous stacking of elements does not result in unlimited gain and narrowing in beamwidth. When designing these types of antennas, physical size and manufacturing methods also limit the gain and beamwidths that can be achieved. Typical gains and beamwidths that result from spacing planar patch elements a half-wavelength apart in the vertical direction can be seen in Figure 3. The values in

Figure 3 represent planar patch antenna arrays having one-to-12 halfwavelength elements spaced vertically by a half-wavelength center-to-center at 1,850 MHz. The larger the constant spacing from element-to-element, the narrower the vertical patterns. The opposite is true for tighter constant spacing of like-phased elements. As the patch elements approach one another, pattern symmetry and bandwidth are effected by mutual coupling of patches and feed-circuit geometry.

The vertical pattern of a directional antenna can be physically or electrically tilted downward or upward from a horizon reference point. Downtilting of a sectorized antenna is common in a PCS site environment. Mechanical tilting of a directional antenna is done by physically manipulating the antenna downward a set elevation angle in the vertical plane (Figure 4). In most cases, the antenna bracket allows the installer to make the adjustment. Electrical tilting of a vertical antenna pattern also is a means of directing coverage in a desired location. Electrical manipulation of the radiation is performed by feeding the arrayed antenna elements with different phases that steer the main lobe of radiation in the desired direction. As stated previously, the angle of tilt required for a site depends on antenna height, coverage distance desired, location of adjacent sites and the site location itself.

Downtilting results

Tilting an antenna downward effects the radiation patterns based on antenna height and the base-station environment. Both means of downtilting are ac-

NUMBER OF STACKED VERTICAL PLANAR PATCH ELEMENTS IN ARRAY	HORIZONTAL 3 dB BANDWIDTH (°)	VERTICAL 3 dB BANDWIDTH (°)	GAIN (dBi)
1	85	85	7.5
2	85	42	10.5
3	85	32	11.8
4	85	26	12.8
5	85	20	13.6
6	85	16	14.4
7	85	14	14.9
8	85	13	15.5
9	85	11	15.9
10	85	10	16.4
11	85	9	17.0
12	85	8	17.2

Figure 3. Typical beamwidth and gain of 1/2-wavelength spaced planar patch elements arrayed in the vertical axis

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tion changing as you increase the tiltangle of the antenna. This method also causes deformation of the horizontal pattern at the peak of the beam.

The first side lobe off the main beam usually is observed to be -15 to -20 dB below the peak of energy associated with the vertical radiation characteristics of a direc-

tional antenna. The null, or lack of signal created by the antenna array in the vertical pattern, is fundamental in antenna theory. This null is found between the main lobe and the first side lobe (Figure 1). By physically downtilting the antenna in various increments, one will observe that the signal level of the first null changes as downtilt in-

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creases. The increased tilt will alter the level of signal that exists close to the base station, leaving holes in coverage near the site. Depending on the site installation, PCS operators and system planners will then have to place microcell antennas in this area for increased site coverage, thus increasing infrastructure cost to the PCS provider. Also, tilt angles greater than 15° drastically change the horizontal radiation patterns of a directional-site antenna. A notch in the pattern will be present at the peak of the main lobe in the horizontal plane. This condition could only occur with antennas placed more than 350 feet above ground level.

Electrically tilting antenna patterns is another method used to steer desired coverage to certain locations. This type of tilting, caused by phase-tapering the antenna elements, prevents the shape of the main lobe of radiation from being deformed at the coverage border. These antennas can be mounted flush to a surface, making the antenna blend into the background. Two types of installations that can use electronic downtilting include antennas mounted on walls and on the sides of buildings. Just as with mechanical tilting, some positive and negative aspects will be encountered when electronic tilting takes place. As stated previously, a site antenna mounted to a building facade with a designed electrical downtilt will operate as designed and will allow the antenna to be camouflaged or hidden. From the zoning and real estate acquisition standpoints, this is a plus. The drawback to electrical downtilting is that any changes in site optimization and terrain or environmental variation are extremely difficult to overcome without replacing antennas with others that have different electrically-phased downtilt. Also, electronically downtilting radiation patterns has an effect on the maximum efficiency or gain that can be achieved. The greater the angle of downtilt designed into the circuitry of an antenna, the greater the reduction of gain as compared to a mechanically-downtilted antenna with the same array factors.

Antenna height and downtilt

The actual height at which a site antenna is located will have an effect on the required vertical downtilt. Most early-stage cell-site design and planning is done with the assumption of a flat terrain. The choice of directional antenna specifications, such as gain or horizontal and vertical 3 dB beamwidths, will depend on the type of site. These site types can be segmented into



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three general categories: urban, suburban and rural. Most PCS base-station applications will require towers. monopoles and building-mounted installations with maximum heights around 250-300 feet. The desired cell coverage initially required in the PCS infrastructure will vary. Maximum distances of signal strength for a site will be approximately two to three miles in diameter for omnidirectional cells. Actual site-antenna performance depends on the effective height of the antenna. Differences in height change the signal level reception concurrent with the terrain contour and the locations of mobile handsets within the coverage area.

The vertical downtilt of a directional antenna in a PCS site will be dictated by the site location itself and by its physical surroundings. Antenna height, coverage distance and proximity coverage close to the site are taken into account when selecting tilt angles. The greater the height of a base-station tower or building, the greater the effective gain realized by the site antenna, thus producing greater distance coverage. The doubling of antenna height in flatterrain propagation studies yields an increase in gain of 6 dB. The increased height will also require greater downtilt angles and the probability of distortion to both principal-plane patterns. This could take place because of co-channel interference generated by adjacent sites. As was stated previously, most antenna heights for PCS installations will not exceed 300 feet. PCS installations less than 300 feet high will require downtilt angles of no more than 0° to -5° for maximum site performance.

The real world can be cruel to both the site and planner. Topographical and



Figure 5. A real world wireless communications environment.

man-made objects challenge system designers. Mountains, trees (with and without foliage), water, buildings, signs and existing towers are just some of the obstacles that are encountered in developing a wireless communications infrastructure. Reflections and diffraction of the radiated energy of an antenna occur when these phenomena are added to the transmission equation. (See Figure 5.) If located close to the base station, these structures will generate depolarization of the transmitted or received wave and will cause multipath effects. In the polarized sense of the antenna (usually vertically polarized antennas are used), the wider the beamwidth of an antenna pattern, the larger the chance for multipath or reflections. Predicting this phenomenon is difficult because a real reflection is not completely known until site testing is performed with actual site antennas on a building or tower.

Vertical beamwidths can be varied with the addition or subtraction of planar-patch antennas arrayed in the vertical plane. This control over the halfpower beamwidth allows PCS system designers to choose directional arrayed antennas having characteristics that fit into variable site plans that change with topographical and zoning conditions. To concentrate the base-station energy over a greater transmitting area, a high-gain antenna usually is chosen for a highway or rural site plan. The high gain will yield a more directive antenna pattern in the vertical plane, resulting in a narrow main lobe of energy.

A wide vertical beam is associated with antennas having low-to-mediumtype gains, usually from 7 to 15 dBi. These types of antennas are used pri-

> marily in suburban or urban environments where shorter distances of transmission are required and wider areas of concentrated energy are needed from the vertical radiation pattern of the site antenna. For PCS, multipath can be used to advantage in an urban environment. Dualpolarized (or circularly polarized) antennas can be used to receive the multipath signals that proliferate there.

> Antennas with extremely narrow vertical beamwidths yield high gain. In rural and suburban sites, energy must be concentrated in a distinct

direction and into a certain region of coverage. Directional antennas with gains of 15 to 18 dBi generally are preferred by system designers.

Conclusion

One easily can state that the design and optimization of PCS base stations is difficult. Directional antennas chosen for a site can be manipulated and designed to maximize coverage and to minimize co-channel interference. System designers use powerful propagation software to predict the performance of antennas selected for a site. Modeling and testing only can provide data that are not supported by real-life problems encountered when the base station is operational. Field optimization is required to achieve the best performance at a site. Each base station type or location provides unique propagation and transmission. Mechanical or electrical downtilting of an antenna can be predicted when certain characteristics are shown prior to actual operation, but terrain changes and physical anomalies may be encountered after installation.

The fact remains that direct path, flat-terrain transmission rarely is realized in a wireless communications system. Downtilting of antennas mitigates reflections that can be caused by certain topographical and man-made structures when antennas are placed high above ground (around 350 feet) and when narrow beamwidths are required. PCS base station locations and antenna mounting heights generally will be low in comparison to cellular base station standards. This fact provides site planners with the task of designing directional-site antennas with narrow vertical beamwidths and small downtilt angles. Both real estate value and directional antenna performance in PCS base-station applications have one thing in common: location, location, location. Every site has unique operational requirements and must be designed individually. RF

About the author

Charles M. DiFranzo is a regional sales engineer in the radio transmission products business group of Huber+Suhner. The planar patch technology featured in Figure 2 is a patented strip-slot-foam-inverted patch (SSFIP) that was designed by Huber+Suhner.

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RF antenna testing

Log-periodic antenna as a standard gain antenna

By John R. Tighe and Sharon Bradley, Synthesizers Ltd. and Joe Granados, New Mexico State University

The classic problem confronting HF, VHF and UHF antenna designers is the need for a standard-gain antenna, particularly one with reasonable size and weight. Narrow horizontal and vertical beamwidths, as well as flat, broad bandwidths, are preferred characteristics on any antenna test range. The ability to calibrate the standard rapidly, easily and repeatedly on the range, at any frequency and with a high degree of certainty, are additional desirable characteristics. Dipoles and monopoles above a large ground plane often are used as the standards (i.e., references) in the HF, VHF and UHF bands [1], and the standard-gain horn may be used where real estate is plentiful. The dipole, however, is a reference only at its tuned frequency. It suffers from multipath errors [2] unless it is used in a true freespace environment—which is not the case for an outdoor range. The vertical monopole is a viable reference at a single frequency (unless it is tunable), and it is large (30 to 60 foot ground planes). Either antenna is calibrated under the assumption that it meets theoretical values. In either case, measuring the artenna under test (AUT) over a broad frequency range requires a multiplicity of standard-gain dipoles, monopoles, a collection of large horn antennas or a combination. The log-periodic antenna, although used as a source, normally is not used as a reference antenna (standard gain), partially because it is easily damaged (changed). Additionally, its gain is published as relative to a dipole or is based on scaling, and the gain generally is published only for a few frequencies. By using two or more identical logperiodic antennas and the classic Friis formula [3], one can establish a valid and repeatable reference antenna in the field without resorting to comparisons to dipoles, monopoles or horns. This performance can be achieved at a multiplicity of frequencies without demounting the reference antenna or the AUT.

he log-periodic antenna, although large, is smaller and weighs less than a horn antenna. It has an equivalent beamwidth, a broader bandwidth and a relatively flat gain-vs.-frequency response. Stainless-steel versions are repairable, and they maintain their dimensions as well as the standard-gain horn does. All of these attributes are advantages. What remains is to establish the gain (on the range) accurately and at all the frequencies of interest. For the standard-gain horn, the classic method of establishing the gain is to use the Friis formula and to apply it to two-and preferably three or more-identically-made horn antennas in a free-space environment (anechoic chamber). A standard-gain horn then is sent to the outdoor range for mounting adjacent to or facing toward the rear of the AUT. The AUT then is compared to these standards, which are periodically returned for calibration. Applying the same technique daily to log-periodic antennas on the range is equally applicable, and it can, with the aid of a computer for data acquisition, achieve highly repeatable results.

The use of the Friis formula for establishing an antenna's gain is well-documented. One of the best examples is cited in reference [3] and originally was described in reference [10]:

$$Ps(max) = \frac{Ps(Gs)}{4\pi}$$
(1)

where:

Gs = effective gain of the source antenna

Ps = power delivered to the source antenna π = 3.1415

Ps(max) = max power transmitted per unit solid angle

$$\Pr = \frac{\Pr(Gs)Ar}{4\pi R^2}$$
(2)

where:

e antenna
$= (Gr \cdot \lambda^2)/4\pi$
intenna

Note that the antenna losses are combined in Gs and Gr, i.e., the effective gain is what is measured, not the directivity (lossless gain). Combining (1) and (2) gives:

$$\Pr = \frac{\Pr(Gs)Gr(\lambda^2)}{(4\pi R)^2}$$
(3)

$$Gs(Gr) = \left(\frac{Pr}{Ps}\right) \left(\frac{4\pi R}{\lambda}\right)^2$$
(4)

The Friis formula assumes that Gs = Gr = G (i.e., the antennas are identical). Hence;

$$\mathbf{G} = \left(\frac{4\pi\mathbf{R}}{\lambda}\right) \sqrt{\left(\frac{\mathbf{Pr}}{\mathbf{Ps}}\right)} \tag{5}$$

 $G(dBs) = 10 \log(g)$

$$= 10 \log \left[\left(\frac{4\pi R}{\lambda} \right) + \frac{1}{2} 10 \log \left(\frac{Pr}{Ps} \right) \right]$$

The second term contains S21 [S21 = 10 Log(Pr/Ps)], which is the familiar S-parameter for transmission loss. S21 is readily measured at these frequencies by vector network analyzers with suitable correction for the connecting cable losses. The space-loss term is computed for the measured range length, R.

The modern vector network analyzer step-sweeps the frequency band, which typically results in a large number of data points that are repeatable, because the frequency source is synthesized from a stable source [4]. The technique also lends itself to the time-domain method of reducing errors caused by multipathing [5].

The technique described here is not unique. It is applied routinely in antenna laboratories at microwave frequencies. With the aid of the modern network analyzer, the computer and statistical techniques, these laboratories measure small-aperture,

(6)



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standard-gain antennas. Outdoors, and in the HF, VHF and UHF ranges, the method presented here is the same. In both cases, suitable care must be exercised to ensure that the physical (multipath) environment is controlled or compensated for.

Technique

The first step in the technique is to use a vector network analyzer to characterize the cable losses vs. frequency from the analyzer to the source antenna input and the losses from the reference antenna's output back to the analyzer. Additionally, corrections can be made for the source and reference antenna losses caused by mismatch. As many as 12 terms of error correction can be applied, depending only on the analyzer used and the degree of error correction desired [6]. Because the antenna cable runs can be longer than 100 feet and because calibrating every day is not as feasible outdoors as it is in the lab, these results are stored on disk and checked periodically. Outdoors, depending on the weather, it may prove advisable to correct for temperature. Even mild climates have 30° day-to-day temperature differentials. Such differentials represent significant cable loss changes for long runs.

Next, the cables are reconnected to the antennas, and the antennas are aligned. The cable correction data is recalled from the disks and stored in the analyzer. Now the measured source antenna to reference antenna S21 is corrected by the analyzer for the cable losses, and the results are the transmission gain (including internal losses) of the antennas vs. frequency, i.e., S21 = 10Log(Pr/Ps) in (6).

Finally, the corrected S21 is extracted from the analyzer by the computer and inserted into equation (6) along with the range length R. The gain then is calculated as a function of frequency and can be plotted or tabulated as required. Additionally, the results can be retained (stored to disk) for statistical comparisons of the gains as a function of variety of characteristics, such as different but identically made antennas, time and weather, or for monitoring the repeatability of the range.

Modern network analyzers typically can provide as many as 1,601 frequency data points over the band of interest. By applying time-domain techniques, one also can correct for multipathing limited only by the antenna and cable systems dispersion, the range length and the multipath length [7]. Proper far-field separation and antenna heights above ground still are necessary [8]. The advantage in using this technique is that the effects of raising and lowering the antennas, or changing the separation (i.e., surveying the quiet zone), are observable in almost real time. Multipath, for example, is seen in the frequency domain as a periodic variation of the gain vs. frequency (ripple). If the environment is simple (uncluttered), as is usually the case for well-constructed elevated or ground-reflection ranges [9], then the period is singular and depends on the distance to the ground, and it can be accounted for or erased (time domain). Time-domain techniques are welldocumented [5,7].

Results

Figure 1 is a plot of the results of a test using the Friis formula (5), performed on a pair of identical, vertically polarized, log-periodic antennas. Not shown but readily available are the tabulated results from the same computerdriven program that lists the computed space loss, the range and the computed gain. This range had a height of 40 feet but it was cluttered. The ground-path frequency difference is noted in Figure 1

The frequency band shown in Figure 1 is from 50 to 550 MHz with 801 data points (frequency points) taken. Only 5(of those are shown (every 10 MHz) although all 801 are stored on disk for future use. For comparison, the man ufacturer of these antennas could pro vide data only at three frequency points in the same band. The manufacturer's results for these antennas are shown ir Figure 1. At each of these three frequen cies, the manufacturer provided data based on two techniques, the scaled to and the reference to a dipole methods which produced results that differ by as much as 2 dB.

The test methods for these techniques was not given. For the scaled-to method the gain may possibly be determined by comparison of the scaled-to antenna (usually scaled to a higher-frequency equivalent design antenna) to another antenna, possibly a standard-gain horn The manufacturer also did not specify the measurement environment (anechoic chamber, outdoor range or lab). As a consequence, the certainty of the data is not known. The manufacturer also provided results based upon referencing these antennas to dipoles. Those values also are noted in Figure 1. As previously pointed out, the usefulness of comparing antennas to dipoles at these frequencies in environments that cannot be made to behave like free space is extremely limited. A better method would have been to provide comparisons to monopoles above a large ground plane. But even that method has limitations [1] and certainly cannot be used for comparisons with horizontal polarizations.

Of the data shown, which is the real gain? The first questions that should be



Figure 1. Log periodic antenna, gain vs. frequency, two identical antenna method, comparison to dipole and scaling.



Figure 2. Log-periodic antenna, gain vs. frequency, two identical antenna method, same environment and same antenna pair.

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Figure 3. Standard dipole. Range = 32.5 and 41 ft.

asked are: Can we make a series of identical antennas and get identical results? Can we get the same results in the same environment for the same antenna pair? Figure 2 answers the latter question. These data were acquired using the same techniques as described for Figure 1 and used a program that was expanded to include some statistical comparisons. Also, the measurements were made on a different range (height = 9 ft.). The solid line represents the data taken on the day denoted, whereas the dotted line represents the average gain for 24 measurements on 24 days and on the same range for each day in a 6-month period. Figure 1 represents the same antenna pair but with measurements made on a different range more than one year earlier.

Repeatability is excellent on the same range (Figure 2) but not on different ranges. (Compare Figure 1 with Figure 2.) The first range (Figure 1) was deeper (height = 40 ft.) and cleaner, and gave the smoothest results vs. frequency. As the data indicate, the second range (9 ft.) was more cluttered. Real estate limitations prohibited construction of a proper ground reflection range [9]. Nevertheless, this measurement technique was invaluable in the construction and the location of diffraction fences. These results suggest the answer to the question of being able to produce identical antennas. The manufacturer of the antennas should provide similarly swept gain data, at least at one aspect angle $(0^{\circ} \text{ azimuth and } 0^{\circ} \text{ elevation})$, along with the normal typical pattern data for all antennas delivered. The manufacturer also should supply a description of the test range and the methods used. Although this information may not completely answer the question concerning which is the true gain, it would answer the "identical antenna" question. If the manufacturer does not supply the necessary information, the user can achieve the certainty required by the methods proposed here. This technique for establishing a standard gain is easily applied



Figure 4. Dipole antenna. Elevation angle = 6°.

in the HF, VHF and UHF bands using log-periodic antennas and can provide heretofore unavailable data.

The same basic technique is readily extended to an unknown antenna simply by connecting the reference antenna's cable to the unknown antenna and by using a similar computational technique. This is the comparison method [3,10]. From (4):

$$Gu = \left(\frac{1}{Gs}\right) \left(\frac{4\pi R}{\lambda}\right)^2 \frac{Pu}{Ps}$$
(7)

$$Gu(dB) = 2\left(10\log\left(\frac{4\pi R}{\lambda}\right)\right) -$$
(8)

$$10\log(Gs) + 10\log\left(\frac{Pu}{Ps}\right)$$

gain of the source + S21

where:

Gu = gain of the unknown antenna Pu = power delivered to the unknown antenna

The only unknown in this measurement is the new S21. Everything else is known, including the range, which also is measurable. Corrections for losses caused by mismatch and other errors are not included in the comparison method, but are corrected for in the measurement of S21 and the previously measured source (or reference) antenna gain. It is not necessary to use the reference antenna's cable as noted above. A separate AUT cable can be calibrated and used.

Known antenna examples

If we use this technique to measure the gain of a dipole antenna on an outside range, will we measure the theoretical 2.2 dE—or even 2.0 dB, assuming some losses? Or, will we see the gain vary dramatically as a function of range position changes? The position sensitivity should be larger than it would be for a log-periodic antenna, because the dipole has a 180° beamwidth. The solid curve in



Figure 5. Dipole antenna. Elevation angle = 18°.

Figure 3 is a measurement of a dipole mounted on a tripod in the same range position as the reference log-periodic antenna (40 feet above a clean ground and 10 feet above the edge of the test building). The dipole was set to frequency (170 MHz) and verified to be on frequency by measuring the return loss null. The solid curve and dotted curve differ in the length of the range only. The apparent peak is at 180 MHz (solic curve) and at 195 MHz (dotted curve) and the ripple in the dotted curve clearly indicates that multipathing apparently is affecting the results. The dipole was oriented in the horizontal plane for Figure 3, and because the earth is an excellent reflector for horizontal polarizations multipathing was the prime suspect. Ro tating the dipoles to the vertical positior (the dipoles' null pointed down) and sweeping the same frequency range (data not shown), in addition to changing height and range length, confirmed that the ripple was caused by multipath.

Let's assume that the manufacturer's data for the log-periodic antennas (see Figure 1), which was specified as based on comparison to a dipole, were acquired on a similar outdoor range. Then uncer tainties in using the dipole as a gain standard are evident from the results shown in Figure 3.

Figures 4 and 5 are measurements or the same dipole antenna mounted 5 fee above a mockup, which was configured with dimensions that represent the belly of a military aircraft. Swept gain data are presented at two elevation angles, 6° and 18°. Certainly the data show that the di pole cannot be used as a standard gain in this environment by arbitrarily assuming its gain to be 2.2 dB. Clearly, a narrower beam antenna, such as the log-periodic, is required. It should be mounted such tha the range-path environments are the same for the source-to-reference path and the source-to-AUT path.

Unknown antenna

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two identical antennas including lowgain types, fixed probes, and cellular phone antennas. The most difficult aspect of measuring these antennas is to be able to make the measurement of Ps and Pr without the measuring equipment becoming part of the antennas environment. A more straightforward example will be given next.

Figure 6 is an example of using the identical log-periodic antennas as the standard gain and of measuring an unknown antenna on an equivalent range path. The source antenna and the reference antenna are identical. The first step is to point the source antenna at the ref-



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Figure 6. Gain vs. frequency for four closelyspaced, phase-arrayed, vertically polarized antennas. Elevation angle = 18°.

erence antenna along the source-toreference antenna path to establish gain. This gain datum is stored in a reference antenna file which usually includes the data for many calibration runs as well as the average gain. Figure 2 was a typical example. The source then is rotated to point at the AUT along an identical path. Corrections for cable losses and mismatch losses as previously discussed also are applied.

Figure 6 is a typical measurement of four closely spaced, phased-arrayed, vertical monopoles, which are designed to provide omnidirectional coverage in the horizontal plane. The dotted line curve in Figure 6 is the gain vs. frequency for this antenna (the antenna under test) at 0° azimuth and 0° elevation. Also in this figure, the solid line represents the data at 0° azimuth and 18° elevation.

A logical extension of this single aspect (0° elevation) measurement is to acquire data automatically at each of the desired angular positions over the net angular range using computer-driven antenna positioners. Plotting the patterns either in rectilinear or polar format is the next simple step. The older technique is to use a separate receiver to acquire the AUT's signal and to plot the pattern results continuously over the angular range required. Switching to another receiver leads to additional errors caused by nonlinearities in the new receiver.

The technique used here was to use the same vector network analyzer to acquire the pattern data as that which was used to acquire the gain-vs.-frequency data. Pattern results are not the important subject of this methodology, but stability and repeatability of the results are. Figure 1 and 2 illustrate the excellent stability and repeatability achievable using these techniques.

Conclusion

Applying the Friis formula is quite often overlooked as the method of choice



RF and Wireless Engineering Part I: Fundamental Concepts

Monday, October 21, 1996 - 8:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.

The first day reviews fundamental ideas and terms that are important in all RF and wireless systems. Concepts such as gain, bandwidth, noise figure, dynamic range, resonance and Q are presented. Practical components are discussed and models for them are developed. Fundamentals of electromagnetic theory are reviewed, transmission lines are discussed. The Smith chart is developed from transmission line theory and its use in RF design is introduced.

TI-2

M-1

RF and Wireless Engineering Part II: Fundamentals of Amplifier Design

Track One: Engineering Fundamentals (Instructional Level: Introductory)

Tuesday, October 22, 1996 - 8:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.

The second day begins by designing lumped element and distribution impedance transformation networks using the Smith chart. Next, the course presents a unique approach to impedance matching network design that facilitates the design of T-, PI- and L-networks for specified phase shift or Q. The same procedure is extended to design resistive attenuators and balanced networks. Active device models are then introduced and important concepts such as power gain, noise figure and stability are reviewed. The theory, physical meaning and measurement of S-parameters are presented, then graphical and analytical techniques for amplifier design using S-parameters are developed. The fundamentals of computer-aided analysis and optim zation are then summarized.



RF and Wireless Engineering Part III: Amplifier Design

Wednesday, October 23, 1996 — 8:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.

The third day uses all the theory and techniques developed during the first two days to design several representative RF amplifiers. In addition to the basic RF design, practical topics such as bias network design, out-of-band stability, decoupling network design, the effect of microstrip discontinuities and the use of RF design software are presented.

Instructors: Dr. Robert Feeney and Dr. David Hertling, Georgia Institute of Technology

These professors bring both academic substance and practical design experience to the classroom. CEUs are available from the Continuing Education department at Georgia Tech.





Practical High-Frequency Filter Design

Monday, October 21, 1996 — 8:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.

HF Filter Design is a detailed review of L-C, printed and machined filter design and specification. Basic terminology and principles are discussed, followed by design procedures. Element models and unloaded Q are studied. These concepts are then applied to case studies which match various filter types to real-world applications.

Some of the topics considered are elliptic filters, determining the required order, component realizability, insertion loss, coupled resonator bandpass, ceramic resonators, filter match, controlled phase filters, group-delay equalization, bandpass symmetry, the zigzag bandpass, printed filters and required tolerances. Nearly all important transfer approximations and filter topologies are reviewed.



Oscillator Design Principles

Tuesday, October 22, 1996 - 8:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.

A unified approach to oscillator design is presented which describes how to create high-performance oscillators using any type of resonator and any type of active device. Oscillators are demystified and fully understood so that design is no longer based on copying or modifying existing units. A complete understanding provides for known oscillation margins and design optimization for state-of-the-art performance. Both negative-resistance and open-loop Bode response design techniques are described. Gain margin, matching, starting, limiting, output level and harmonics are discussed. The theory is then applied to several practical oscillator circuits using L-C, SAW, transmission line and quartz crystal resonators with bipolar, FET and MMIC devices. Broadband tuning VCOs, general purpose and low-noise. high-stability oscillators are covered.

Instructor: Randy Rhea, Eagleware

Randy Rhea is the Founder and President of Eagleware Corporation. His design experience includes filters, oscillators, synthesizers, transmitters, receivers, antennas, satellites and data and video systems, cable television and wireless security systems. He has held engineering positions at Boeing, Goodyear Aerospace and Scientific Atlanta and has given tutorials at RF Expo since 1987. Mr. Rhea is the author of numerous technical papers and two books; <u>Oscillator Design and Computer Simulation and HF Filter Design and Computer Simulation</u>.

Track Three: Advanced Applications (Instructional Level: Intermediate to Advanced)



Digital Modulation and Spread Spectrum for Wireless Communications

Monday, October 21, 1996 - 8:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.

This advanced class covers the essential topic of digital communications for wireless applications. The course begins with principles and system architectures for complex I-Q, QPSK, PI/4 DQPSK, FQPSK and other modulation schemes. Standards for specific cellular and PCS systems are introduced. A theoretical analysis of spectral and power efficiency follows, including adjacent channel interference, linear/nonlinear amplification and BER performance. Advanced modulation techniques such as 16-QAM, trellis coding and multi-level FM are presented. A section on spread spectrum covers pseudo-noise sequences, correlation, direct-sequence, CDMA and slow frequency-hopping (TDMA) principles. The near-far problem and operation in mobile environments are discussed. The course assumes substantial experience in RF design.

Instructor: Dr. Kamilo Feher, UC Davis, DIGCOM, INC.

Dr. Kamilo Feher is a professor at the University of California, Davis, and Director of DIGCOM, INC. consulting group. He has authored five books on digital communications.



RF Power Transistors and Amplifiers: Principles and Practical Applications Tuesday, October 22, 1996 — 8:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.

RF power amplifier design is rarely taught in the depth provided by this course. Topics include the unique characteristics of RF power transistors compared to small-signal transistors, performance characteristics of bipolar and field-effect transistors (FETs), and the choice of devices and amplifier configurations. The principle and techniques of practical amplifier design include wideband impedance matching, frequency compensation, negative feedback and guidelines for amplifier construction. The course assumes substantial RF design experience, and knowledge of small-signal amplifier design.

Instructor: Norman Dye, Motorola

The instructor for this course is Norman Dye, engineering consultant with extensive experience in Motorola's power transistor division. Along with Heige Granberg, he recently authored the book, <u>Radio Frequency Transistors</u>.



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Wednesday, October 23, 1996 — 8:00 a.m. - 4:00 p.m.

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The afternoon session begins with a quick review of the principles covered previously, with additional notes on how radio waves travel from one point to another. Then, modern wireless communications systems are described, including remote control systems, cordless telephones, the cellular phone system and satellite systems. Finally, the newest areas of communications: Personal Communications Services (PCS), wireless local-area networks (WLAN), automatic toll collection and RF identification (RFID) tags are described.

Instructor: Gary Breed, President Noble Publishing Former Editor of *RF Design* magazine

Gary Breed is the former Editor of *RF Design* magazine. Mr. Breed has been a tinkerer and hobbyist since the age of 9, and an enthusiastic supporter of radio communications of all kinds.



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for establishing the gain of the reference antenna on a low-frequency (HF, VHF and UHF), outdoor antenna test range. At low frequencies where horn-type standard-gain antennas are expensive, large, unwieldy and band-limited, the log-periodic can be used with excellent results. Because co-location of the reference antenna and the AUT generally is not feasible, equality of the environment for the two paths is a prime requirement. Characterization of the two paths is feasible if sufficient data can be acquired, stored and checked for repeatability. Using the Friis formula, the computer and statistical comparison of the data sets provides the tester with the tools necessary to ascertain the requisite measurement repeatability. RF

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About the authors

John R. Tighe received a B.A. in physics in 1959 from the University of California, Riverside. He is a consulting engineer and he owns Synthesizers Ltd. Tel. 805-524-6970.

Sharon Bradley received a B.S.E.E.T. in 1979 from Cal Poly Pomona. Tel. 909-737-7299.

Joe Granados received a B.S.E.E. in 1979 from New Mexico State University and an M.S.E.E. in 1987 from San Diego State University. He is a manager at the physical science laboratory at New Mexico State University. Tel. 505-522-9309. ment Fundamentals for Vector Network Analyzers," *Microwave Journal*, March 1989.

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RF cover story

A circuit simulator for microwave and wireless applications

By Ulrich L. Rohde Compact Software

In past years, high-performance linear and non-linear circuit simulators have been offered on either big computers or high-performance work stations. Their cousins, simulators for use on personal computers (PCs), typically were a subset of the more sophisticated simulator. The PC versions were limited by the DOS operating system and its memory management. Since the introduction of Windows 95 and NT, the difference between high-performance work stations and high-performance PCs, such as Pentium-Pro-based machines, have diminished. By taking advantage of the higher performance of the new PCs and by incorporating a vast number of technologies - such as those developed from small business innovative research (SBIR) projects, developments from the microwave and millimeter wave monolithic integrated circuit (MIMIC) program and current work on the microwave and analog front end technology (MAFET) program - a simulator has been given some extraordinary capabilities.

The linear part of the simulator has lumped and distributed elements. The calculations of the distributed elements are based not on curve fits or lookup tables, but on electromagnetic principles. The big advantage is that the validity of the models goes far beyond the boundaries of look-up tables and curve fits, with only a small loss in speed. If new materials are developed with an ε that ranges from 2 to more than 200, and if the impedance range drops as low as 10 Ω , then previously published model equations would not cover this operating range. For more complicated structures, items such as microstrip transformers are offered.

For modeling active devices, not only are the conventional diodes, bipolar and various GaAs models incorporated, but also physics-based models that are direct derivatives of some SBIR projects.



The requirements of designing highperformance receiver front ends for wireless applications are not that different fromdesigning such circuits in microwave and millimeter-wave ranges. Some high-performance circuits only work well at frequencies from a few hundred megahertz to a few gigahertz. Oscillators with a low phase noise are a goodexample.

Low-noise preamplifiers are critical stages that require a simultaneous match of input and output impedances at the operating point for a low noise figure. They also require good intermodulation distortion (IMD) performance. To complicate matters even more for the users, device manufacturers frequently provide incomplete noise data.

In designing preamplifiers, even at lower frequencies, the trend is moving from bipolar transistors toward gallium-arsenide (GaAs) field-effect transistor (FETs), in part because one can fully integrate all the pieces together on one integrated circuit. The "workaround" approach to use when measured noise data are unavailable is to calculate the data from the intrinsic voltages and currents as shown in [1]. This method (with the equivalent also developed for bipolar transistors) is valFigure 1. The x-band monolithic GaAs low noise amplifier, model EG 8021, courtesy of Tony Pavio of Texas Instruments, see [1]. This low-noise circuit was used to validate the simulator's unique modeling capability. The numbers close to the boxes refer to the electrical length and degrees of the transmission lines relative to the cut-off frequency.

idated to an upper-frequency limit at which measured and predicted S-parameters still exhibit a good match. This validation does not include flicker noise contributions. The

modes, however, has a provision to enter measured values for the flicker noise behavior so it can be incorporated for the simulator. This type of noise analysis, which covers frequencies from a few hundred megahertz to the millimeter range. sometimes is the only method available to conduct a feasibility study using new transistors that are not yet fully characterized. Figure 1 shows the schematic and the layout of a low-noise, GaAs FETbased, 10 GHz amplifier. Its noise and gain performance is shown in Figure 2. Specifically, this analysis capability has been necessary for the low-noise application. The intrinsic noise modes takes into



Figure 2. Measured and predicted gain of matching and noise figure of the EG 8021 low-noise amplifier shown in Figure 1.

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Figure 3. Multiple coupled transmission lines used for modeling coupling effects.



Figure 4. A 1:1 and a 4:1 microstrip-based transformer with center tap. Its calculations are done based on electromagnetic principles.

consideration the noise correlation. This feature is more accurate than other empirical and analytical models. This noise model also is applicable for bipolar transistors and is based on an enhanced model [2]. Its details are published in [3].

Because MMICs typically have highdensity packaging problems, one has to look at the effect of coupling. For this purpose, a multiple coupled line element has been developed as shown in Figure 3, which can handle as many as 10 lines of arbitrary line spacing and arbitrary line widths. This model uses a proprietary, full-wave, spectral domain-based algorithm. It also can be used to design filters with many elements. An interesting spin-off is a printed transformer based on microstrip technology. It can be used for feedback amplifiers and other applications. An extension of this transformer would be a 3-port transformer such as a 4-to-1 transformer with a center tap. The simulation program uses similar electromagnetic (EM)-type models that have been extensively tested in critical frequency ranges from a few hundred megahertz to 96 GHz. Figure 4 shows both transformers.

With respect to filters, a dielectric resonator with microstrip coupling has been developed. It can be implemented as both a bandpass structure and as a bandstop structure, as seen in Figures 5 and 6. These useful structures can form the basis of a dielectric resonator oscil-

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PROGRAMMED TEST SOURCES, INC. 9 Beaver Brook Road, Littleton, MA 01460 Tel: 508 486-3008 Fax: 508 486-4495 lator. A typical listing of such a circuit in linear operation is shown in Table 1 (located on page 85).



Figure 5. Dielectric resonator and microstrips coupling bandpass and bandstop structure. One transmission line.



Figure 6. Dielectric resonator and microstrips coupling bandstop structure. Two transmission lines.

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In moving toward non-linear operation, the balance calculation capabilities of this simulator offer an advantage. Non-linear calculation has been implemented in SPICE in the past, but this harmonic balance simulator with a dynamic range as large as 180 dB offers superior performance both in dynamic range and computation speed.

Non-linear analysis

The key prerequisite in obtaining good results of non-linear calculations is the availability of good device parameter information for non-linear models where quality counts — rather than quantity. To fully characterize a bipolar transistor or FET, it takes as long as two days to model a transistor over its validity range to cover DC to microwave, and modeling does not stop just at RF. There are several applications for the use of non-linear simulation in amplifiers. Figures of merits such as 1 dB compression point, incermodulation distortion and poweradded efficiency are important. A similar topic is the non-linear calculation of mixers, and last, but not least, phase noise and output power of oscillators.

As far as non-linear models are concerned, the following are implemented.

- BIP Gummel-poon bipolar transistor model
- BIP Hetero-junction bipolar transistor (R. Anholt) model
- DIOD Non-linear diode models Microwave diode models PIN diode model Enhanced SPICE diode model Diode noise modeling
- FET GaAs MESFET and HEMT models Chalmers (Angelov) intrinsic model Curtice-ettenberg cubic intrinsic model Curtice quadratic intrinsic model IAF (Berroth) intrinsic model Materka-kacprzak intrinsic model

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JFET - Junction FET model

Many users find that commercial vendors provide parameters only for some of these models. On the other



Figure 7. A GaAs FET-based shunt mixer courtesy of Wes Hayward of TriQuint.

hand, the simulator offers a set of parameter extraction tools to generate these model parameters in-house. The network program controls both the network analyzer and the DC-IV curve tracer. The set of data generated from this then will be used by the scout program to generate the actual model of choice.

The first and probably simplest analysis case is the evaluation of a

mixer. In the analysis, the passive mixer with switching type of FETs is the most problematic. This has to do with the validity of the model and model selectors in this region. Figure 7 shows a typical GaAs FET mixer as shown in ICs for modern cellular telephones. This circuit can be analyzed both in the SPICE environment and by harmonic balance simulators. The simulator's graphic display capabilities give detailed insight in the mixer activities, as shown in Figures 8 and 9. Figure 10 shows the harmonic balance calculation of the os cillator analysis, including the phase noise calculation for a 760 MHz voltage controlled oscillator (VCO) for a hand held radio. The cost of using such a computer-aided design (CAD) tool is de termined by its purchase price as well as the investment of time needed to learn how best to use the tool. Thus, it is very important to have the ability for future growth in the non-linear area. Future



Figure 8. The output power of the mixer as a function of drive-level for a single-gate mixer.





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Figure 9. The power spectrum of the same single-gate mixer.



Figure 10. Harmonic balance and phase-noise calculation of the oscillator analysis (done in conjunction with Motorola).

growth means that as the frequency range for wireless communication products moves higher, the non-linear simulator models is accurate enough to provide useful models with high-output powers and large signal noise performance. This capability is best shown by using such high frequencies as 39 GHz for non-linear applications. Figure 11 shows the layout of a 40 GHz push-pull oscillator that had been developed and



Figure 11. Layout of a push-pull 40 GHz VCO developed by General Electric under the joint MIMIC contract.

validated using the simulator. The layout is based on the simulator's ability to analyze and optimize phase noise of any arbitrary topology of oscillators ranging from high-Q crystal oscillators to the millimeter-wave application of MMIC VCOs.

Typical wireless application

Although the design of a wireless system has many critical stages, the oscillator has a significant effect on signal quality. A good example that combines



Figure 12. The picture of a ceramic resonatorbased 800 MHz VCO for base stations developed with Siemens-AG, Munich, Germany.

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Figure 13a. The measured phase noise of the oscillator in Figure 12.



Figure 13b. The predicted phase noise of the oscillator in Figure 12.



able transistors and varactors. The software has the ability to optimize the phase noise for a given topology and semiconductor. By simultaneously varying the positive and negative feedback and the DC operating point, one can obtain the best possible performance.

Conclusion

The PC-based simulation program, which is the result of many years of research and contribution from various research projects, can handle the needs of modern CAD tools from audio frequen-



Table 1. The listing of a 4 GHz dielectric resonator oscillator at DRO model.



Figure 14. SImplified circuit diagram of the oscillator shown in Figure 12.

cies to millimeter wave, as well as linear, electromagnetic and non-linear modes. This combination makes the program extremely powerful for wireless applications that involve proximity effects (coupling, layout dependent and distributed elements) and large-signal-dependent performance of diodes and transistors, both bipolar and FETs.

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About the author

Ulrich L. Rohde is president and owner of Compact Software, a privately held corporation in Paterson, NJ. He is a partner of Rohde & Schwarz, Munich, West Germany, a multinational company specializing in advanced test and radio communications systems. Having studied electrical engineering and radio communications at the universities of Munich and Darmstadt, Germany, he holds a Ph.D. in electrical engineering and an Sc.D. (honorary) in radio communications. Dr. Rohde has published more than 60 scientific papers in professional journals, as well as four books.

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RF tutorial **Coaxial cables**

By Jim Weir RST Engineering

Much engineering effort is expended in transferring power from one point to another. Whether the power is measured in gigawatts (transferring Boulder Dam power to the residents of the Los Angeles basin) or picowatts (transferring cosmic signals from the feedhorn of the Aricebo deep-space radio telescope to the sensitive receiver input), the problem is fundamentally the same — move power from one point to another with as little loss as is reasonably possible.

If we look at only the RF portion of the problem, then we can limit the scope of power transfer to a reasonably small number of methods and power levels.

Background

Moving RF power around in the days before silicon generally meant piping signals around a radio chassis between vacuum tubes with ordinary hookup wire. When it came to connecting a radio to an antenna, the usual choice was parallel-wire feedline or *ladder line* (Figure 1). Amateur radio operators used to spend a lot of time drilling popsicle sticks and feeding No. 22 bare wire through the holes to make 300 Ω ladder line so they could elevate that invertedvee antenna a little higher.

Of course, ladder line left a bit to be desired, from an RF point of view. First, to make ladder line match the intrinsic 72 Ω impedance of a dipole, the spacing between the wires should be roughly the diameter of the wire itself. Hand-drilling popsicle sticks with holes that close together and keeping the bare wires from touching during a windstorm when the ladder line was a couple of hundred feet long wasn't easy. Most operators used 300 Ω (six times wire diameter for spacing), and then



Figure 1. Ladder line.

wound 4:1 transformers to couple the 72 Ω antenna to the 300 Ω line.

Corrosion often resulted from the wires being exposed to the elements. Because RF energy travels on the surface of a conductor (skin effect), openwire transmission line subject to corrosion suffers from rapidly increasing attenuation vs time.

There were also squirrels. It turned out that squirrels love to play on the ladder line. And every time a kilowatt pulse of power fried one of them, it also fried the output tube.

One day, a British engineer got the idea of enclosing the ladder lead in a metal tube to keep the squirrels out, and coaxial cable was born.

Definition

Coaxial cable (coax) is a wire inside of another hollow wire—the two wires being separated by an insulator. This is a broad definition, so let's itemize what we are *not* going to talk about. Stripline coax is a rectangular wire surrounded by another rectangular wire separated by printed circuit (pc)board material. Multiconductor coax is several wires inside the hollow wire, with each wire separated from the others by insulation.

We are going to talk about gardenvariety coax (Figure 2)—a single center conductor, surrounded by an insulator, covered by a hollow conductor. This type of coax is used to connect your TV set, to show your ham antenna and to make lab cables.

The center conductor is called ... the center conductor. The insulator is usually given the name dielectric. The outer conductor is called the *shield*, or more commonly the *braid*. In almost all cases, the braid is covered with another layer of insulator, called the *sheath* or *jacket*, for protection from the elements.

Characteristic impedance

Straight round wire has an intrinsic inductance. For a No. 22 wire, this inductance is about 10 nH per inch. If you surround this wire with a dielectric and then another conductor (as in coax cable) there is capacitance between the two conductors. The characteristic im-



Figure 2. A coaxial cable.

pedance of the cable is the square root of the inductance of the center conductor divided by the capacitance of the center conductor to the braid, or in mathematical form:

$$Z_{o} = \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$$
(1)

Let's presume that a coax cable is made from a No. 22 wire as its center conductor, and that the capacitance of an inch of cable measures 4 pF. The square root of 10 nH divided by 4 pF equals 50, so the coax cable has a characteristic impedance of 50 Ω .

Instead of making an electrical measurement, a mechanical measurement can be used to find the characteristic impedance of the coax. If we call the outside diameter of the center conductor d, and if we call the inside diameter of the braid D, and if the insulation between them has a dielectric constant of ε , then the characteristic impedance of the cable is given by:

$$Z_{o} = \left(\frac{138}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}\right) \log_{10}\left(\frac{D}{d}\right)$$
(2)

Once again, to give a practical example, assume that the center conductor is still No. 22 wire with an outer diameter of 0.025'', or about 25 mils. The insulator is polyethylene with a dielectric constant of about 2.25. The braid or shell has an inner diameter of 0.15''. The numerator 138 divided by the square root of 2.25 equals 92. Log base 10 of .15 divided by .025 equals 0.77. Multiplying 92×0.77 equals 71.5 Ω . You could say that the coax was 70 Ω cable or 72 Ω cable, and either one would be accepted as correct.

The error most laymen make is to take a piece of coax, put an ohmmeter on it, and declare it to be no good because it measures infinity. It is going to measure infinity because the coax cable


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RA-1	DC-8000	11.6	13.0	7.0	26	1.80
RA-1SM	DC-8000	1 1.0	13.0	7.0	26	1.85
RA-2	DC-6000	14.9	14.0	6.0	27	1.95
RA-2SM	DC-6000	13.1	13.0	6.0	27	2.00
RA-3	DC-3000	20.2	11.0	45	23	2.10
RA-3SM	DC-3000	19.4	11.0	45	23	2.15
RA-4	DC-4000	13.9	▲19.1	5.2	▲36	4. 15
RA-4SM	DC-4000	13.9	▲19.1	5.2	▲36	4.20
RA-5	DC-4000	19.0	▲19.5	4.0	▲36	4 15
RA-5SM	DC-4000	19.0	▲19.4	4.0	▲36	4 20

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is nothing more than a couple of wires separated by an insulator—a whole bunch of series inductors and shunt capacitors. What is important to remember is that characteristic impedance and DC resistance have little, if anything, to do with one another.

Wither impedance

So far we've mentioned the 50 and 70 Ω varieties of coax without saying why one impedance or the other is used. The fact of the matter is that there is no one best impedance for a system. If powerhandling capacity is your goal, then the math shows that 30 Ω is the optimum impedance cable and system to work within. If voltage breakdown is important, the curve of voltage breakdown vs. cable impedance peaks rather broadly at about the 60 Ω point. If minimum cable loss is paramount, the curve of attenuation vs. impedance goes through a minimum at about 73 Ω , rising steeply below that value and slowly above (Figure 3).

So how did the RF world settle on 50 Ω ? Remember the squirrels? When the first coax was being designed, the copper water pipes that could be bought off the shelf when assembled in air-coax form had a characteristic impedance of 50 Ω . Thus, today's modern RF impedance standard of 50 Ω was derived from the British plumbing standards of the 1930s. One might ponder this with a certain amount of irony.

Most cables today are either 50 Ω (RF communications) or 70 Ω (cable TV) impedance. Some specialized industries also use 93 Ω and 125 Ω .

Practical coax construction

There are two main categories of coax — flexible and semirigid. Flexible coax is used with a TV antenna—you can bend it around corners, thread it through walls and tie it in knots. It is limber. Semirigid cable can be bent once (and sometimes only with heavy tools), but bend it twice and it breaks. Flexible coax is easy to work with, but it has a slightly higher loss and more leakage of the signal from the center conductor past the shield. Semirigid is more difficult to work with, but it has slightly lower loss and almost indetectable leakage.

Flexible cable can have a center conductor made of either a solid wire or twisted strands of wire, but the most flexible coax has a stranded center conductor. The stranded center conductor generally has slightly higher loss.



Figure 3. Cable performance goals vs. characteristic impedance.

Semirigid coax always uses a solid center conductor.

The center conductor can be either bare copper (low-cost but prone to corrosion), stranded, tinned copper (mediumcost), or silvered copper (high-cost but low-loss).

The dielectric material can be either air or plastic. Although air-line is used in some special applications and certainly has the lowest loss of any of the dielectrics, most engineers use plastics as coax insulation. Plastic is generally limited to one of two varieties-polyethylene for low-cost, and Teflon for lowloss. One way to get the good low-loss qualities of air and the mechanical strength of plastic is to foam the plastic, or inject it with air while it is still molten. This way, 95% of the dielectric can be low-loss air and 95% of the strength can be the air-filled plastic cells. Almost all semirigid coax uses solid Teflon as the dielectric.

The outer shield or braid can be a true braid of fine wire for flexible coax or solid copper pipe for semirigid. Solid copper pipe, of course, is leak-proof. However, braided flexible coax is generally given a value for the percentage of shielding. This is an optical percentage, so a coax rated as a 90% shield will have 10% of the dielectric exposed to the outside world. Of course, this amount of shielding may be fine at relatively low frequencies, but as the frequency increases, so will the amount of the signal leaked out of the coax.

There are three ways to increase the shielding percentage. One is with a finer weave of the braid—more and smaller wires woven into the braid. Another is by putting a second braid over the top—in essence braiding the braid. A third way, foil shielding, uses a thin metal aluminum foil as the braid, and a drain wire running between the foil and the dielectric to act as a contact to the foil. This method creates a 100% shield for flexible cable.

Tricks

1. The first trick is simply the slowing of an electromagnetic wave when it is forced from air into some other dielectric. For example, if a wave is forced down a coaxial cable using a dielectric with a dielectric constant E, the wave is slowed up in proportion to the reciprocal of the square root of the dielectric constant.

In particular, an electromagnetic wave has a wavelength in free air of approximately 11,805/f, where the wavelength is in inches and f is the frequency in megahertz. For example, a frequency of 125 MHz has a corresponding wavelength of 94.5 inches. However, in coaxial cable, this wavelength is reduced by a factor of the square root of 2.25 (the dielectric constant of polyethylene), and the wavelength is then shortened to about 62.9". This reciprocal of the square root of the dielectric constant is sometimes given the name velocity factor, and in the case of polyethylene, it is 0.66 (a dimensionless constant).

2. The trick most of us learn to use is to make a trap for an interfering signal from a quarter-wavelength of coax. Neglecting the second-order effects of cable loss, the impedance looking into a length of coaxial cable that is open on the other end is given by:

$$Z_{\rm in} = \frac{Z_{\rm o}}{\tan(\Theta)} \tag{3}$$

where Z_0 is the characteristic impedance of the line and θ is the electrical length of the line in degrees. With a quarterwave line, the length is 90 electrical degrees, and the tangent of 90° is infinity. The impedance looking into that open-ended quarterwave line is therefore exceedingly small (a dead short) at that one exact frequency.

So, to return to our original example of 125 MHz, let's say that a receiver has an interfering signal at 132 Mhz. If a Tfitting is placed into the coax line between the antenna and the receiver, and then an open coax line stub a quarter wavelength long at 132 MHz is attached to that fitting, then the interfering signal at 132 MHz will be shorted out. But the desired 125 MHz and the signal should make it through nicely (Figure 4).

So how do we calculate this quarterwave open stub? In air, a quarter wavelength would be (11,805/132)/4 or about 22.5 long. However, in coax, the dielectric foreshortening factor (or velocity factor) must be considered, so the quarter-wavelength would be (22.5)(0.66) or 14.9 inches long.

How about a tuning tool? Obtain a pair of wirecutters and an S-meter (or RSSI output) of the receiver, a signal generator tuned to the offending frequency piped down the line, and you are ready to tweak it onto frequency. Start a couple of megahertz low and come up. If you cut it off twice too short, it will still be too short.

One little refinement may be made. You can "fool" the coax into thinking it is longer than it really is by putting a small value trimmer capacitor across the open end of the coax. (All you are actually doing is putting a few more Ls and Cs at the end of the coax and tricking the circuit into thinking it is coax instead of lumped elements.) At any rate, you now have a tunable filter instead of the cut-and-try method above.

3. There are times when you need to split a power source into two equal parts. Say, for example, that you are testing your new oscillator design and you want to measure frequency and power simultaneously. Once again, the quarterwave coaxial cable comes to the rescue. It seems that with a 50 Ω system, and with two quarterwave 70 Ω cables connected to the power source, and a 100 Ω carbon (not wirewound or inductive construction) resistor connected across the two outputs, we have what is called a Wilkenson splitter, in which outputs are isolated from one another. You can short one output, open it, put any reactance across it you wish, and it will not affect the other output to a measurable degree. Not only that, but this phenomenon continues over almost an octave of bandwidth before the isolation and equal split begin to deteriorate. You can run your power meter and your frequency counter independently of one another and not worry about one mea-



Figure 4. An example system.

surement affecting the other (Figure 5).

Conclusion

There are many additional ways to use coaxial cable that I didn't mention: quarterwave transformers; loop baluns; hybrid transformers; emergency dog leashes; and more. However, this article has conveyed some of the most important information on the basics of coaxial cables and their uses for RF design. The minimum of mathematical formulas was intentional. Many times, simple concepts get lost behind a smokescreen of unintelligible hieroglyphics, and the student is lost. This article attempted to explain coaxial cables in a language the competent layman could understand. RF

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About the author

Jim Weir is the founder and engineer for RST Engineering, a small California company dedicated to keeping the spirit of "kit building" alive and well in the aviation electronics field. His hobbies include flight instruction, competitive cooking, slow-pitch softball and beermaking. He can be reached at jim@rst-engr.com, but he would prefer to answer readers' technical questions on the Internet newsgroup sci.electronics.basic.



Figure 5. Trick 3.

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	NUMBER	(GHZ)	(Min.±)	(±ab, max.)	(as.win.)	(op'max')	(max.)	(NUIR.)	
	MC	DDERATE TO	OCTAV	E BAND LOV	NOISE A	MPLIFIERS			
	AMF-2F-002020-08-10P	0_2=2	30	1.5	0.8	+10	2.0:1	150	
	AMF-2F-002005-05-10P	0.25-0.5	30	0.5	0.5	+10	2.0:1	150	
	AMF-2F-003010-05-10P	0.3-1	30	1.5	0.5	+10	2.0:1	150	
	AMF-3F-005010-05-10P	0.5-1	35	1.0	0.5	+10	2.0:1	150	
	AMF-3F-010020-04-10P	1-2	35	1.0	0.4	+10	2.0:1	150	
	AMF-3F-020040-05-10P	2-4	33	1.0	0.45	+10	2.0:1	125	
	AMF-3F-040080-08-10P	4-8	28	1.0	0.8	+10	2.0:1	120	
	AMF-4F-040100-14-10P	4-10	30	1.5	1.4	+10	2.0:1	150	
	AMF-4F-040120-15-10P	4-12	30	1.5	.5	+10	2.0.1	150	
	AMF-4F-060120-12-10P	6-12	32	1.5	.2	+10	2.0.1	150	
	AMF-4F-060180-20-10P	6-18	30	1.5	2	+10	2.0.1	150	
	AMF-4F-080120-10-10P	8-12	32	1.0	1 4	+10	2.0.1	150	
	AMF-4F-080160-14-10P	0-10	30	1.0	1.4	+10	2.0.1	150	
	AMF-4F-080180-15-10P	0-10	30	1.5	1.5	+10	2.0.1	150	
	AME 4E 120190 14 100	10-20	20	1.0	1.4	+10	2.0.1	150	
	ANE 4E 190265 25.10D	12-10	26	2.0	2.5	+10	2 0.1	150	
	AME-2E-001010-07-10P	0.1_1	30	1.0	0.7	+10	2.0:1	175	
	AME-3E-001040-10-10P	01-40	35	1.5	1	+10	2.0:1	250	
	AME-3E-006007-04-10P	0.6-0.7	40	0.5	0.35	+10	1.5:1	150	
	AME-3E-007008-04-10P	0.7-0.8	40	0.5	0 35	+10	1.5:1	150	1
	AME-3E-008010-04-10P	0.8-1	40	0.5	0 35	+10	1.5:1	150	
	AMF-3F-012016-04-10P	1.2-1.6	40	0.5	0 35	+10	1.5:1	150	
	AMF-3F-015025-06-10P	1.5-2.5	35	0.8	0.6	+10	1.7:1	150	
	AMF-3F-022024-04-10P	2.2-2.4	40	0.5	0 35	+10	1.25/1.5	150	
	AMF-3F-023027-04-10P	2.3-2.7	33	0.5	0 35	+10	1.25/1.5	125	
	AMF-3F-027030-04-10P	2.7-3	33	0.5	0 35	+10	1.25/1.5	125	
	AMF-3F-030035-04-10P	3-3.5	33	0.5	0 35	+10	1.25/1.5	125	
	AMF-3F-034042-04-10P	3.4-4.2	33	0.5	0.4	+10	1.25/1.5	125	
	AMF-3F-043048-05-10P	4.3-4.8	33	0.5	0.5	+10	1.25/1.5	125	
	AMF-3F-044051-05-10P	4.4-5.1	32	0.5	0.5	+10	1.25/1.5	125	
	AMF-3F-054059-06-10P	5.4-5.9	32	0.5	0.6	+10	1.25/1.5	125	
	AMF-3F-058065-06-10P	5.8-6.5	32	0.5	0.6	+10	1.25/1.5	125	
	AMF-3F-064072-06-10P	6.4-7.2	30	0.5	0.6	+10	1.5:1	125	
	AMF-3F-072078-07-10P	7.25-7.75	30	0.5	0 65	+10	1.5:1	125	
	AMF-3F-079084-08-10P	7.9-8.4	28	0.5	0.8	+10	1.5:1	125	
	AMF-3F-085096-09-10P	8.5-9.6	28	0.5	0.9	+10	1.5:1	125	
	AMF-4F-090110-10-10P	9-11	32	0.8	1	+10	1.7:1	150	
	AMF-4F-100150-14-10P	10-15	30	1.0	1.4	+10	1.7.1	150	
	AMF-4F-10912/-10-10P	10.9-12.7	30	0.5	12	+10	1.5.1	150	
	AMF-4F-140145-13-10P	14-14.5	30	0.5	1.3	+10	1.5.1	150	
	AME 45 170175 15 10P	14.4-15.3	30	0.5	1.5	+10	1.5.1	150	
	ANTE 4E 175220 20 100	175 22	27	0.5	2	+10	2 0.1	150	
	ANE 45 177107-15 100	17.3-22	28	1.0	15	+10	2 0.1	150	1.1
	AME /E 120200-15 10P	18_20	20	1.0	1.5	+10	2 0.1	180	
	AME-4F-100200-10-10P	18-22	27	1.0	19	+10	2.0.1	180	
	AME_AE_210240_20-10-10P	21-24	26	15	2	+10	2.0:1	180	1
1	Ann 41-210240 20-101	21 27	20	1.0	-				/

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MODERATI			E BAND ME		WER AMPL	FIERS	(moning)	
AME-4E-005010-40-33P	0.5-1	40	15	4	+33	2.0.1	1400	
AMF-4F-005020-40-33P	0.5-2	40	2.0	4	+33	2.0:1	1400	
AMF-4F-010020-40-33P	1-2	40	1.5	4	+33	2.0:1	1400	
AMF-4B-020040-50-33P	2-4	32	2.0	5	+33	2.0:1	1700	
AMF-7B-020080-100-33P	2-8	30	2.0	10	+33	2.0:1	3200	
AMF-6B-040080-60-33P	4-8	38	2.0	6	+33	2.0:1	2200	
AMF-78-080124-70-33P	8-12.4	40	2.0	1	+33	2.0:1	2200	
AME-78-080180-70-29P	8-18	30	2.0	7	+29	2.0/2.3	2800	
AMF-7B-120180-70-30P	12-18	30	2.0	7	+30	2.0:1	2800	
AMF-7B-180265-95-23P	18-26.5	25	2.0	9.5	+23	2.0/2.3	1000	
	MODEF	RATE BA	ND POWER		ERS			
AMF-4B-012014-40-37P	1.2-1.4	45	1.0	4	+37	2.0:1	3000	
AMF-4B-016017-40-37P	1.6-1.7	45	1.0	4	+37	2.0:1	3000	
AMF-4B-037042-50-37P	3.7-4.2	40	1.0	5	+37	2.0:1	3000	
AMF-5B-044050-50-37P	4.4-5	40	1.0	5	+37	2.0:1	3500	
AMF-5B-049051-50-37P	4.9-5.1	40	1.0	5	+37	2.0:1	3500	
AMF-5B-053059-50-37P	5.3-5.9	40	1.0	5	+3/	2.0:1	3500	
AIVIF-5B-059064-50-37P	0.9-0.4 6.4-7.2	35	1.0	5	+37	2.0.1	3500	
AME-5B-071079-60-37P	71-79	30	1.0	6	+37	2.0:1	4000	
AME-5B-077085-60-37P	7.7-8.5	30	1.0	6	+37	2.0:1	4000	
AMF-6B-085096-60-37P	8.5-9.6	35	1.0	6	+37	2.0:1	4500	8
AMF-6B-095105-70-37P	9.5-10.5	35	1.5	7	+37	2.0:1	4500	
AMF-6B-107117-70-37P	10.7-11.7	30	1.5	7	+37	2.0:1	4500	
AMF-6B-117127-70-37P	11.7-12.7	30	1.5	7	+37	2.0:1	4500	
AMF-6B-127132-70-37P	12.7-13.2	30	1.5	/	+3/	2.0:1	4500	
AME 70 145150 00 270	14-14.0	30	1.0	0	+37	2.0.1	4800	
AME-7B-180240-80-24P	18-24	25	20	8	+24	2 0/2 3	1100	
AMF-7B-275300-120-20P	27.5-30	25	1.5	12	+20	2.0/2.3	1500	
LOW	NOISE AMP	LIFIER	S FOR CRYC	DGENIC A	PPLICATION	IS		
AME-3E-017034-10K=CBY0	1.7-4	30	1.0	10 K	-5	2.0:1	+3V@25	2
AMF-3F-040060-20K CRY0	4-6	30	1.0	20 K		2.0:1	+3\@50	1
AMF-3F-095105-30K-CRY0	9.5-10.5	25	1.0	30 K		2.0:1	+3V@75	
AMF-3F-080180-75K-CRY0	8=18	18	1.0	75 K	-5	2.0:1	+3V@75	
LOW N	OISE AMPL	IFIERS.	WITH LIMIT	ER PROTI		JTS		
AMF-3F-002005-07 L	0 25-0 5	40	1.0	0.7	+10	2.0:1	200	- 10
AMF-3F-005010-06	0.5-1	40	1.0	0.6	+10	2.0:1	200	
AMF-3F-010020-05-L	1-2	38	1.0	0.5	+10	2.0:1	200	
AMF-2F-020040-06-L	2-4	35	1.0	0.6	+10	2.0:1	100	
AIVIT-31-040080-12-L	4-8 8-12	32	1.0	1.2	+10	2.0.1	125	3
AME-4F-120180-20-1	12 18	30	1.0	2.0	+10	2.0:1	125	
SAT	ELLITE CO	MMUN	CATION BA	ND WAVE	GUIDE LNAS	5		
AMEW-75-340420-30	34-42	60	0.5	30 K	+10	1 25/1 5	200	
AMFW-7S-725775-50	7.25-7.75	60	0.5	50 K	+10	1.25/1.5	150	
AMFW-6S-109127-65	10.95-12.75	50	1.0	65 K	+10	1.25/1.5	150	/
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RF emc Estimating radiated emissions from electronic products

By Peter Vizmuller RHR Laboratories

Because the usual strategy of testing a prototype unit followed by implementing design changes is carried out after the mechanical package has been defined, the discovery of radiated emissions can seriously delay product development. Mechanical redesign at such a late stage is costly and time-consuming. A better strategy is to anticipate radiated emissions early in the design cycle and to analyze the proposed product package as if it were an antenna.

Experienced design engineers and managers are familiar with the challenge of controlling radiated emissions, especially in products destined for the international market. Product designers typically rely on the past experience of testing and design iteration. Although experience is valuable, it does not necessarily guarantee success. The three biggest stumbling blocks to faster product development may be meeting the radiated emissions specifications; designing power amplifiers (PAs); and developing software. Other steps in product development effort, such as circuit design, circuit-board layout and system design, have become much easier because of the availability of many excellent computer simulation and optimization tools. However, because of the complexity of the physical processes involved, software for predicting radiated emissions and highpower PA stability has been slow in coming.

Increasing computing power and the availability of advanced symbolic math-

ematical software are making it possible to estimate radiated emissions. A two-step approach relies on obtaining the magnitude of exposed RF currents, and then using antenna theory to estimate the electric field strength at a certain distance from those currents. Design experience still is required for the first step of estimating currents exposed to free space, and computer simulation is required for the second step-reducing the complex antenna equations into usable numbers. This two-step technique for predicting radiated emissions analyzes three common radiating structures using a commercially available software program.

A certain frame of mind is required to tackle radiated emissions. We typically are not trained to think of circuit boards, connectors, wires or boxes as antennas. We do not commonly ask the question, "What is the directivity of our product?" at design review meetings. We need to expect and to anticipate radiation caused by the overall packaging, accessories and cable routing. Highly accurate prediction of radiated emissions seldom is required for two reasons. First, when you start looking at radiation, you will discover that you are more likely to be 30 dB out of specification than 3 dB out of specification, and even the most basic simulation of radiated emissions can be of great value in highlighting problem areas. Second, radiated emissions are highly variable when measured; radiation is simply a physical characteristic that usually is not repeatable. Therefore, designers



Figure 1. Every exposed circuit-board trace is a potential radiator.



Figure 2. Bypassed external DC line. For worstcase circuit analysis, assume Z = 0, i.e., line is resonant, and bypass capacitor is ineffective.

typically aim for 10 to 15 dB of margin on the desired specification, and fivedigit accuracy on the calculated numbers is unnecessary.

Estimating exposed RF currents

By classifying the generation of radiating currents into four categories, the estimation of such currents is not intrinsically difficult.

1. All currents flowing on unshielded, exposed circuit boards are radiating currents. There is a common misconception that a matched microstrip line does not radiate. This is not true. Any AC current will radiate at some level if exposed to free space. Conventional circuit analysis can be used to obtain the frequencies and amplitudes of currents flowing in circuit-board traces. Another misconception is that once currents flow into ground, they can be neglected. This is not true. Ground currents will radiate, if allowed to flow on the outside surfaces of a shield. Consider ground as a low-inductance return path. If the return ground path is far from the forward signal trace, both will radiate most effectively (Figure 1).

2. RF currents are conducted to exterior wires and connectors from internal circuit boards. Conventional circuit analysis can effectively predict RF currents flowing on DC or audio leads, provided that parasitic components, such as capacitor equivalent series resistance (ESR), series inductance and inductor capacitance are modeled accurately (Figure 2).

3. Multiple-ground return pathways

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exist. If the ground plane under a microstrip line is continuous, the return current flowing through it will tend to reduce radiation because of the signal trace. This occurs because the two currents are of equal amplitude, they flow in opposite directions, and they are located close to each other. Return current flowing through multiple pathways has two detrimental effects on radiation. First, the signal-trace current no longer is equal in amplitude to the immediately adjacent ground current, and it will radiate. Second, large ground loops will themselves be good radiators. The problem of multiple ground pathways is easier to solve than toanalyze. Nevertheless, low-cost transverse electromagnetic (TEM) field simulators can be used to simulate transmission lines with multiple ground returns and to obtain currents on all relevant surfaces (Figure 3).

4. Radiating currents can flow on components and miscellaneous structures. Even with all connections buried on inner layers of a multilayer board, radiation can occur because of currents flowing in coils, component and IC leads, fuses, crystal cases and light-emitting diodes (LEDs). Currents can also flow on the outside braid of a coaxial cable, most likely when the electrical length of the cable is a multiple of a half-wavelength.

Digital circuits must be included in this search for radiating currents. In fact, digital circuits frequently are laid out with less regard to grounding than RF circuits. Estimation of radiating currents can benefit from a healthy dose of Murphy's law. Assume that all digital signals are perfect square waves with amplitude of their Fourier components decreasing at 6 dB per octave. Assume that all structures (especially wires) are resonant, and that ungasketed seams in metal covers allow some current to leak to the outside.

The physical arrangement of radiating currents has great influence on the efficiency of radiation. Figure 4 shows the possible current flow arrangements, their calculated E-field values and 3D radiation patterns.

RF currents flowing on exposed wires and connectors also can be measured directly by means of close-field probes, current probes, or by measuring the voltage drop across a known in-line impedance using a vector voltmeter. Those measured currents then can be used as inputs to estimate the magnitude of the far-field radiation without having to measure the equipment at a radiation site.



Basic antenna theory

The formula for the far-field radiation pattern of a short dipole has been known for a long time and is part of every college course on antennas [1].

$$E = \frac{30I\beta}{r} e^{j(\omega t - \beta r)} \sin(\theta)$$
 (1)

where:

- E = electric field in V/m
- I = current in amperes
- $\beta = 2\pi/\lambda$
- $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{distance in meters}$

$$\omega$$
 = radian frequency = $2\pi f$

 θ = spherical coordinate azimuth angle in radians

The composite radiation of a collection of current elements is the vector sum of all the instantaneous individual contributions. Despite the conceptual simplicity of this radiation model, the actual mathematical formulas are surprisingly complicated. The simple formula shown in equation (1) only applies





Figure 4. Radiation pattern and peak electric field at 300 MHz and a distance of 3 meters as a function of current flow pattern. The 0.1 mA current elements are 0.05 λ long and 0.01 λ apart. Total length = 0.25 λ .

in the special case of a current element of zero phase located at the origin and pointing in the z-direction. The formula for the far electric field of a short current dipole not at the origin, of any phase and orientation in space, can be obtained by expressing each current element by its three x-, y- and z-components, and by calculating the E_{θ} and E_{α} spherical coordinate components of the electric field due to each of the x-, y- and z-components of current. The overall electric field is then the complex sum (i.e., including effects of phase angles) of all the contributions. This general dipole formula has more than a dozen terms and has been programmed into the product. The mathematical and user interface is provided by Theorist, a symbolic mathematical environment. The product is actually a Theorist Notebook, which means that all the power of Theorist can be applied to view the formulas, generate new plots, change units or include user formulas for additional calculations.

Once the electric field at a certain location is available, the power density and magnetic field are calculated as:

$$S = \frac{E^2}{2\eta}$$
(2)

H

$$=\frac{E}{n}$$
 (3)

where:

- S = time-averaged power density in W/m2
- E = peak (not rms) electric field amplitude in V/m
- $\eta = \text{ impedance of free space,} 376.73\Omega$
- H = peak magnetic field amplitude in A/m

The product generates 3D plots of the overall E-field radiation pattern, which can be rotated in real time to find the peaks. Conventional 2D polar and rectangular plots of electric field, magnetic field and power density at the desired distance and frequency also are provided as functions of elevation and azimuth angles.

Example 1: Current carrying trace, or interconnect cable — Let's examine an isolated current element 0.1λ long at 600 MHz and determine the maximum allowed current for an electric field specification of 500μ V/m at a distance of 3 meters (Figure 5). The radiation pattern is doughnut-shaped, with max-



Figure 5. Peak electric field strength radiated from 0.1 λ long current element flowing in the z-direction at 600 MHz and a distance of 3 meters.

imum radiation perpendicular to the current element. Peak electric field amplitude of 500 μ V/m at a distance of 3 meters results from a peak current flow of 0.08 mA, or 80 μ A. Now we can appreciate the difficulty of meeting the radiated specifications. Current as low as 80 μ A produces measurable radiation; 80 μ A corresponds to about -35 dBm on a 50 Ω line.

Example 2: Microstrip line — A certain length $L = 0.1\lambda$ of microstrip line lies along the y-axis, carries peak current of 10 mA at 300 MHz and is separated from an infinite ground plane by spacing h = 1.5 mm. As a first approximation, we will neglect the trace width and the dielectric constant of the substrate. If the ground plane is perfectly conducting and infinite in extent, we





Figure 6. Microstrip trace along the y-axis, and its image representation.

Figure 7. Radiation pattern and E-field plot for microstrip line 0.1 λ long at 300 MHz.

can model the microstrip line by a current and its image, separated by 2h from each other (Figures 6 and 7). The maximum radiation occurs in the positive z-direction, perpendicular to the trace, and there is a null in the $\theta = \pi/2$ plane, i.e., the xy plane containing the microstrip line.

The electric field magnitude reaches 1.2 mV/m at its maximum, which certainly is not negligible, and in fact may violate some regulatory requirements. Thus, a microstrip line will radiate if exposed to free space. Radiation from microstrip lines will be greatly enhanced if the ground plane underneath is not continuous. Thin circuit boards will radiate less because the main and image currents flowing in opposite directions are closer to each other.

Example 3: Radiation from edge of

circuit board — Four through-hole vias connecting top and bottom ground planes each carry 1 mA of ground current. The circuit-board edge is not plated, and the board will be sandwiched between top and bottom covers. The edge of the board with the four via holes is to be analyzed for potential radiation at 300 and 600 MHz (Figures 8 and 9). The calculated results are surprising. This structure is a fairly good radiator with peak radiation straight out of the board edge slot. The radiated pattern is similar to that of Figure 5. The electric field is near 400 µV/m at 300 MHz and grows with frequency to 750 µV/m at 600 MHz.

Densely placed ground holes are no guarantee against radiation, if those vias carry current near the edge of the board. Using multiple rows of vias helps



Figure 8. Row of plated-through vias at the edge of a circuit board at 600 MHz.



Figure 9. Polar and rectangular plots of peak electric fields in the vertical plane radiated by four ground vias at the edge of a circuit board.

to move the ground current away from the edge of the board. The two ground planes (one on top, and another on bottom of the board) then form a waveguide-beyond-cutoff structure, which further attenuates the energy reaching the open edge of the circuit board.

Conclusion

The ability to estimate radiated emissions early in the design cycle has great practical and educational value. Alternate packaging, bypassing and interconnect schemes can be evaluated at a much lower cost than measuring prototypes at a radiation site. The radiated emission modeling software shifts the design focus from measuring prototypes to accounting for exposed currents because of inadequate bypassing or poor layout practices.

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About the Author

Peter Vizmuller earned his M.S.E.E. from the University of Toronto in 1981. He designed highperformance RF circuits and systems as a staff engineer at Motorola. Since the publication of his reference book, RF Design Guide: Systems, Circuits, and Equations, he has become a consultant developing software models for designing reliable communication systems and for predicting radiated emissions. Tel. 905-884-2392. The software described in this article, "REM (radiate emissions modeling) Software," is available from RHR Laboratories, http://iypn.com/rhrlaboratories. The author can be reached at 104673.3110@compuserve.com.

ENGINEER'S Notebook

Feedback improves AGC amplifier harmonic performance

By Christopher Trask ATG Design Services

A mong the building blocks that system designers encounter, the automatic gain control (AGC) amplifier is right alongside mixers when it comes to intermodulation and harmonic generation. Both blocks are essential to the design of a radio system, be it a receiver or transmitter.

For AGC amplifiers, there are two general forms: positive intrinsic negative (PIN) diodes and variable transconductance amplifiers. The latter form has been with us for decades. The earlier vacuum tube technology focused on variable- μ pentodes such as the 6AU6 and 6BA6. In these devices, the distortion predominantly was caused by the non-linearity of the transconductance curve along the load line.

Latter-day transistor technology introduced another vehicle for distortion, this being the exponential transfer characteristics of the diode (in the case of diode mixers) and the base-emitter junction of the transistors used as either amplifiers or mixers. When used as variable transconductance amplifiers, this non-linearity is additional to the non-linear transfer characteristics of the device, and the distortion is far greater than with the earlier vacuum tube models.

By using a matched pair of transistors in a push-pull (or differential) configuration, we realize certain advantages [1]:

1. Even harmonics and even-order combination frequencies cancel at the output.

2. No fundamental frequency energy appears at the power source, thus minimizing the need for bypassing. 3. Common-mode signals, such as power supply noise, are balanced out by the output transformer.

All of these advantages depend on the assumption that both transistors are perfectly matched, and that both the input and output transformers are perfectly constructed, which is rarely the case. A remedy for real-world (i.e., lessthan-perfect) implementations appears in literature pertaining to vacuum tube balanced amplifiers [2, 3]. The explanation is quite simple: Regardless of its construction, the center point of the output transformer is a summation node that has voltages relating to the imbalance of the two sides of the amplifier (in terms of odd-order content) as well as the sum of even-order signals (common-mode noise and even-order harmonics). By applying these voltages



Figure 1. The CA3028A used as the test circuit.

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*LP-300	DC-270	410-550	550-1200
*LP-450 *LP-550	DC-400 DC-520	580-750	750-1800
*LP-600	DC-680	840-1120	1120-2000
*LP-750 *LP-800	DC-700 DC-720	1000-1300	1300-2000
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frequency

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LP-5	DC-5	8-10	10-200	*LP-300
LP-10.7	DC-11	19-24	24-200	*LP-450
LP-21.4	DC-22	32-41	41-200	*LP-550
LP-30	DC-32	47-61	61-200	*LP-600
LP-50	DC-48	70-90	90-200	*LP-750
LP-70	DC-60	90-117	117-300	*LP-800
LP-90	DC-81	121-157	157-400	*LP-850
LP-100	DC-98	146-189	189-400	*LP-1000
LP-150	DC-140	210-300	300-600	*LP-1200
Il models prid	ced atv. 1-9 (Sea	a.), Conn. Typ	e P = 11.45. E	3 = 32.95, $S = 34.95$
Exceptions	: *LP-1.9 P = 1	3.95, B = 34.9	5, *LP-2.5 P	= 14.95, B = 35.95
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No.	loss < 1.2dB	>10dB	>20dB	X	X	X	X	X			
	DC-23 DC-65 DC-94 DC-120 DC-180 DC-280 DC-560 DC-850	78-117 234-312 312-416 400-534 600-801 934-1246 1866-2490 3740-5000	117 312 416 534 801 1246 2490 5000	1.3:1 1.3:1 1.3:1 1.25:1 1.25:1 1.3:1 1.3:1	2.3:1 2.4:1 1.1:1 1.9:1 2.2:1 2.2:1 2.2:1 2.9:1	0.70 0.35 0.30 0.40 0.20 0.15 0.09	4.0 1.4 1.1 1.3 0.6 0.4 0.2	5.00 1.90 1.50 1.60 0.80 0.55 0.28 0.15			

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	Stopt	lz	Passband, MHz	Pass-		Stopl	band Hz	Passband, MHz	Pass-
Nodel No.	loss > 40dB	> 20dB	loss < 1dB	band Typ.	Model No.	loss >40dB	> 20dB	loss < 1dB	band Typ.
HP-25 HP-50 HP-100 HP-150 HP-200 HP-250 HP-250 HP-300	DC-13 DC-20 DC-40 DC-70 DC-70 DC-70 DC-90 DC-100 DC-145	13-19 20-26 40-55 70-95 70-105 90-116 100-150 145-190	27.5-200 41-200 90-400 133-600 160-800 185-800 225-1200 †290-1200	1.7:1 1.5:1 1.5:1 1.8:1 1.5:1 1.6:1 1.3:1 1.7:1	*HP-400 *HP-500 *HP-600 *HP-700 *HP-800 *HP-900 *HP-1000	DC-210 DC-280 DC-350 DC-400 DC-445 DC-520 DC-550	210-290 280-365 350-440 400-520 445-570 520-660 550-720	395-1600 500-1600 600-1600 700-1800 780-2000 910-2100 1000-2200	1.7:1 1.9:1 2.0:1 1.6:1 2.1:1 1.8:1 1.9:1

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Constant Impedance, 21 4 to 70MHz

Center Passband Stopband VSWF Model Freq. MHz loss 1:3:1 Model Ioss > 20dB Total Ba No. MHz < 1dB at MHz MHz thF2 1dB at MHz MHz MHz thF2 12.1 18-25 1.3.8 150 DC-22	1.41	4		10 10	TOMINZ		
*IF-21.4 21.4 18-25 1.3 & 150 DC-22	Model No.			Center Freq. MHz	nter Passband xq. MHz loss -tz < 1dB	Stopband loss > 20dB at MHz	VSWR 1:3:1 Total Banc MHz
★IF-30 30.0 20-35 1.9 & 210 Dc-35 ★IF-40 42.0 35-49 2.6 & 300 Dc-44 ↓ HF-50 50.0 41-58 3.1 & 350 Dc-44 ↓ HF-70 50.0 58-82 4.4 & 490 Dc-55	IF-21.4 IF-30 IF-40 IF-50 IF-60 IF-70)))	21.4 30.0 42.0 50.0 60.0 70.0	.4 18-25 .0 25-35 .0 35-49 .0 41-58 .0 50-70 .0 58-82	1.3 & 150 1.9 & 210 2.6 & 300 3.1 & 350 3.8 & 400 4.4 & 490	DC-220 DC-330 DC-400 DC-440 DC-500 DC-550

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F 200 Rev Orig



in a feedback path as an error signal, the imbalance of the amplifier can be corrected, thus enhancing the overall performance. This serves to greatly reduce even-ordered harmonics, but it has only a slight effect on odd-ordered nonlinearity products, such as intermodulation distortion.

For a test circuit, I chose the venerable CA3028A [4] because of my familiarity with this device for more than 25 years. Referring to Figure 1, the CA3028A contains the differential pair Q1-Q2, as well as the source transistor Q3. Biasing resistors R3, R4 and R5 also are part of this device. Controlling the collector current of Q1 and Q2 by way of potentiometer R6 provides for the variable gain settings. Trans-formers T1 and T2 are identical (but not perfectly) and consist of a primary winding of two turns and a secondary of six bifalar turns of No. 34 magnet wire in a Fair-Rite 2843-002-402 balun core [5, 6]. I chose the transformers rather than tuned matching circuits to render

the amplifier suitable for wideband operation as well as to reduce the overall cost. The decoupling choke L1 is the only component added to this circuit above what normally would be required for an AGC amplifier of this configuration.

Capacitor C4 is the feedback path for the error signal. Q2 then amplifies this signal, thus providing some current loop gain. When the test is conducted, this capacitor is disconnected at the T2 end and is connected to ground for the purpose of measuring the "without feedback" performance.

Table 1 is a tabulation of the test data taken for this amplifier with -18 dBm of input power at 8.00 MHz. The first column is the applied control voltage measured at the wiper of potentiometer R6. The column labeled P1 is the signal output power, and the columns P2, P3, etc. are the output powers of the respective harmonics. Note that the power of the even-ordered harmonics P2 and P4 is significantly reduced when the feed-

AGC AMPLIFIER TEST DATA

Differential AGC Amplifier Transistors: Harris CA3028A Array Vcc = 12.0 V 25 April 1996

Frequency: 8.00 MHz Input Power: –18.0 dBm

Control		Witho	out Fee	dback			With I	eedba	ick	
Voltage	<u>P1</u>	P2	P3	P4	P5	<u>P1</u>	P2	P3	P4	P5
12.000	10	-54	-8	62	-20	10	-54	-8	<-64	-20
8.634	8	-34	-7	-60	-19	8	-56	-7	-59	-19
7.524	6	-32	-8	-60	-19	6	-58	-8	-61	-19
6.653	4	-32	-10	-55	-20	4	-59	-10	-61	-20
5.768	2	-32	-12	-51	-21	2	-60	-12	-62	-21
5.061	0	-32	-13	-49	-23	0	-61	-13	<-63	-23
4.519	-2	-32	-15	-48	-24	-2	-62	-15	<-63	-24
4.077	-4	-33	-18	-47	-26	-4	-62	-18	<-63	-26
3.809	-6	-33	-19	-47	-28	6	-62	-19	<-63	-28
3.550	-8	-34	-21	-48	-30	8	<-63	-21	<-63	-30
3.272	-10	-36	-23	-48	-31	-10	<-63	-23	<-63	-31
3.050	-12	-37	-25	-49	-33	-12	<-63	-25	<-63	-33
2.873	-14	-38	-28	-50	-35	-14	<-63	-28	<-63	-35
2.727	-16	-39	-29	-52	-37	-16	<-63	-29	<-63	-37
2.649	-18	-40	-30	-53	-38	-18	<-63	-30	<-63	-38
2.540	-20	-42	-33	-54	-40	-20	<-63	-33	<-63	-40
2.452	-22	-43	-35	-56	-42	-22	<-63	-35	<-63	-42
2.367	-24	-46	-37	-58	-44	-24	<-63	-37	<-63	-44
2.303	-26	-48	-39	-59	-46	-26	<-63	-39	<-63	-46
2.234	-28	-50	-41	-60	-49	-28	<-63	-41	<-63	-49
2.199	-30	-52	-42	-61	-50	-30	<-63	-42	<-63	-50

back is applied, while the signal and the odd-ordered harmonics P3 and P5 are negligibly affected, as we would expect from the earlier discussion.

Conclusion

The performance of a variabletransconductance AGC amplifier can be greatly improved with little increase in circuit complexity or cost. By reducing the generation of second harmonic energy in transmitter and signal source systems, the difficulty and complexity of removing these unwanted signals with subsequent filtering is avoided. We also reduce costs and improve system performance.

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About the author

Chris Trask is an independent designer of analog, RF and microwave circuitry, and is the author of ALMOND, which is PC-compatible RF design software. He received B.S.E.E. and M.S.E.E. degrees from Pennsylvania State University in 1973 and 1979, respectively, taking time in between to fly C-130 transports for the U.S. Air Force. He may be reached at P.O. Box 25240, Tempe, AZ 85285-5240 or via E-mail at ctrask@primenet.com

RF products

RF sub-micron bipolar transistor for PCS CDMA base stations

Motorola's MRF20060 RF sub-micron linear bipolar transistor is designed for use in personal communications system (PCS) code-division multiple access (CDMA) base station equipment at frequencies from 1.8 to 2.0 GHz. The RF power broadband NPN bipolar device operates at an output power of 60 watts with a power gain of 9 dB (minimum), an efficiency of 33% (minimum) and an intermodulation distortion of -30 dBc (maximum), and it offers guaranteed two-tone performance at 2.0 GHz, 26 V. The MRF20060 represents the first product to ship from COM1, a new advanced communications fabrication facility. The transistor is priced at \$200.26 in low volumes.

Motorola Semiconductor INFO/CARD #153



Multilayer chip inductor

The LL1005, a new series of multilayer chip inductors from Toko America, has a 0402 footprint (1.0mm \times 0.5mm) and a profile of 0.5mm. These inductors are ideal for handheld wireless communications equipment, in particular 1.9 GHz PCS devices that require ever shrinking form factors. The LL1005 series is available in



17 inductance values ranging from 1.0 to 27 nH. They feature a laminated ceramic material allowing self-resonant frequencies over 6 GHz, initial tolerances of 10% and 20% at an operating temperature between -40°C to 100°C. They have typical Qs of more than 80 at 1.9 GHz. The LL1005 series is packaged on tape and reel in 10,000-piece quantities. **Toko America INFO/CARD #154**

Surface-mount miniature TCXO

The ES6200 is a series of sinewave surface-mount



temperature-controlled crystal oscillators (TCXOs) that can maintain a frequency stability of ±1.0 ppm from -10°C to 60°C. The high degree of frequency stability is ideal for advanced communications applications that include wireless, global positioning system (GPS), pagers, RF, microwave and Personal Computer Memory Card International Association (PCMCIA) cards. Ecliptek's ES6200 series features a low-profile package (3.9 mm) that offers a practical solution to volume requirements with size constraints. Options include 3V or 5V versions and stability from ± 1.0 to ± 3.0 ppm. **Ecliptek INFO/CARD #155**

Digital IC test system

HP's 660 MHz compact model is the fastest digital IC production test system currently available for testing emerging new devices used in Rambus and telecommunications applications. The 660 MHz model features the highest throughput and accuracy available with a 20% smaller footprint than typical automated test equipment (ATE) systems. The model provides accuracy of ±50ps and up to 256 I/O channels. The model comes with the HP SmarTest pro-



duction test environment that allows push-button transformation of single device tests into a highthroughput test program. Price varies according to configuration but is approximately \$8,650 per pin. Hewlett-Packard INFO/CARD #156

Electrically connect circuit boards

T-Tech's through-hole dispensing module allows engineers the opportunity to make double-sided prototype circuit boards without the need for caustic chemicals or plating tanks. The module



uses a copper-filled material called Quick Connect to give users the ability to electrically connect the top and bottom layers of prototype circuit boards. The material is dispensed into the holes drilled by Quick Circuit. It is then oven cured, achieving conductivity through holes or vias. The module can be combined with Quick Circuit models 7000 or 5000, and is retrofittable for most existing Quick Circuit systems. The theoretical resistance is 0.05 Ω per square, and median resistance for many boards is better than 0.05Ω per hole. **T**-Tech

INFO/CARD #157

DISCRETE COMPONENTS

3–50 pF trimmers offer three height options

The CTZ3 series from AVX provides designers of wireless communications systems with several new options in variable capacitors. The CTZ3 series surface-mount chip trimmers measure 4.5×3.2 mm with three profile height options (1.8, 1.5 and 0.6 mm). They are available in capacitance values ranging from 3 to 50 pF and feature a high stability version with a ±1% setting drift. Typical pricing ranges from 39 to 45 cents in 1,000-piece quantities. **AVX**

INFO/CARD #158

Crystal fits small spaces thanks to 3.5 mm profile

The HC49/S low profile AT cut quartz crystal from Bomar is less than $1/_3$ the height of the standard HC49/U. Ideally suited for applications where space is a problem, the HC49/S is available in frequencies from 2.5 to 60 MHz. Equivalent resistance values range from 40 to 300 Ω depending upon frequency. The 3.5 mm high crystals are available on tape or reel in either through-hole or surface-mount configurations.

Bomar Crystal INFO/CARD #159

Crystals boast reliability despite shock, vibration

M-Tron's PT series crystals are designed to operate reliably and hold fast despite severe shock and vibration in the operating environment. The crys-



tals feature a frequency range from 3.58 to 60,000 MHz. Board height is 0.197 ± 0.008 inches with a length of 0.452 ± 0.0016 inches.

M-Tron Industries INFO/CARD #160

Ceramic trimmer caps suit surface or vertical mount

Voltronics' RF ceramic trimmer capacitors, ranging from 2.0 to 40 pF maximum, are available as 0.35" round or square trimmers and in surface- or vertical-mount styles. Tuning is more than 180° linear. They are priced at 37 cents in 10,000-piece quantities. **Voltronics**

INFO/CARD #161

Non-magnetic variable caps for magnetic resonance

The TTNRP variable-capacitors, available from Polyflon, features a virgin PTFE dielectric. These components are non-magnetic, which makes them ideal for applications involving magnetic resonance imaging coils. The TTNRP series features 10 compact designs, each with a diameter of 0.275" (7.0 mm), a tuning range of 0.8–8 pF on the smallest model to 5–50 pF on the largest. Each capacitor has a 2 kV peak test voltage and a 1 kV peak working voltage. **Polyflon**

INFO/CARD #162

AMPLIFIERS

Integrated power amp chips serve cellular subscriber

The AM52-0001 and AM52-0002 from M/A-COM are new microwave and monolithic integrated circuit (MMIC) integrated power amplifier (IPA) chips that meet the design, economics, size and power consumption challenges posed by advanced mobile phone system (AMPS) and global system for mobile communications (GSM) subscriber sets. The chips are designed to replace amplifiers in older discrete or hybrid configurations. The AM52-0001, designed for use in AMPS and cellular digital packet data (CDPD) subscriber



sets, delivers a large signal gain of 24 dB and saturated power output of 1.2 W from 800 to 960 MHz with a DC supply voltage of 4.8 VDC. The AM52-0002, designed for use in GSM subscriber sets, delivers a large signal gain of 25 dB and saturated power outputs from 880 to 915 MHz of 3.5 W with a supply voltage of 5.8 VDC and 2.8 W with a supply voltage of 4.8 VDC. **M/A COM INFO/CARD #163**

Two-stage power amplifier covers dual-mode cellular

The TQ9143 high-efficiency, 1.4 W power amplifier IC is designed for use in dual-mode time-division multiple access (TDMA) or advanced mobile phone system (AMPS) RF transmitters. It operates over the 824 to 849 MHz frequency range. The TriQuint device has two stages of amplification and integrates most of the RF matching on-chip. The input is matched to 50 Ω and the output is matched with a simple network so external components are minimized. In AMPS mode, the TQ9143 provides output power of 31.5 dBm (1.4 W) at a typical power efficiency of 65%. In TDMA mode, the output power is 30 dBm with typical power efficiency of 40%. The TQ9143 is priced at \$4.50 in quantities of 100,000. **TriQuint Semiconductor**

INFO/CARD #164

Low-noise amplifiers span 1–2.5 GHz with 32 dB gain

Wessex Electronics' models SAO-03001 and SAN-02001 have been designed to meet personal communications network (PCN), personal communications system (PCS) and industrial, scientific and medical bands (ISM) requirements. These small signal, low noise amplifiers (LNAs) are available as connectorized modules with surface mount attachable (SMA) connectors. SAO-03001 can be supplied optimized to cover the 1.7 to 1.99 GHz range, or with marginal specification degrading can cover the 1.0 to 2.5 GHz range. The am-

plifier has a gain of 32 dB with a typical gain variation against frequency of ± 1 dB. The amplifier input/output match is 2.5:1 with a noise figure of 1.5 dB. SAN-02001 spans the 1.71 to 1.785 GHz

Product focus: CAD for circuits

Circuit-board plotter makes high-precision prototypes

The Protomat 95S circuit-board plotter from LPKF CAD CAM Systems is designed to fabricate printed circuit-board prototypes with high levels of precision in fine-pitch technology. Fully automated, the unit features improved accuracy and quality, while reducing prototype development time. Because the Z-axis reference



uses an air-bearing foot, that never touches the printed circuit board (PCB) material, even soft substrates such as Teflon can be processed at higher levels of accuracy. LPKF CAD CAM Systems INFO/CARD #174

Circuit design software includes office tools

Compact Software's Serenade version 7.0 CAD/CAM software for designing RF and microwave circuits is written for Windows NT. The software includes schematic and simulator features such as: built-in hierarchical project management with locator display; simultaneous, multiple schematic edit and display capabilities; customizable property dialogs for tailoring information entry, customizable tool bars; coplanar waveguide, microstrip, coaxial and discrete RF component models; enhanced metal semiconductor field effect transistor (MESFET), highelectron mobility transistor and heterojunction bipolar transistor models; and electronic Smith chart design for graphical design of matching networks for amplifiers and oscillators. The software merges electrical design and physical design tools with office productivity tools for a comprehensive design capability.

Compact Software INFO/CARD #175

Measurement and analysis software

Anritsu Wiltron, a provider of highperformance test and measurement systems, and Optotek Limited, a supplier of RF and microwave computer aided engineering (CAE)/CAD software have joined forces to offer MMICAD for Windows. The package directly interfaces with Anritsu Wiltron vector network analyzers to measure S-parameters in circuit analysis. The software features a gain compression module that integrates with MMICAD, and has the ability to measure continuous wave. The system features a built-in interface for setting desired test conditions. **Anritsu Wiltron** INFO/CARD #176

Software sweeps HF design for frequency, input power

Webb Laboratories' SysCad for Windows is an integrated environment for the design of high-frequency receivers and receive and transmit systems. With SysCad, the designer can incorporate amplifiers, multipliers, data blocks, and lumped and distributed elements in single designs. Designs can be swept in both frequency and input power level, with 2D and 3D graphical outputs available in a host of formats. SysCad utilizes the UniSpur spurious analysis engine for exact determination of spurious problem frequencies in transmit and receive systems of one-, two- or three-frequency conversions. Webb Laboratories INFO/CARD #177

Linear simulation software imports, exports SPICE

MMICAD version 2 is a Windowsbased RF and microwave linear simulation software for the PC. The simulation library includes coplanar waveguide, microstrip, suspended substrate, stripline, ideal elements, RF elements and noise elements models. Expanded design aids cover



capacitor, matching circuit, transmission element, resonator and filter designs. After layout has been optimized, the software can simulate the effect of changes on circuit performance. Import and export capability allows SPICE users to import circuit files. After simulation, the circuit can be exported back to SPICE format. **Optotek Limited INFO/CARD #178**

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Configuration SPDT	Operating Frequency (GHz) DC- 2.0	Minsertion Loss (dB) .5	Isolation (dB) 23	Features 3 volt positive con- trol; economy priced	Port Number SW-373
SPDT	DC- 2.0	.5	33	Extended frequency; industry standard	SW-239
SPDT	.8 -2.0	.9	38	Integral CMOS Driver	SW-335
SPDT	DC-2.5	.5	39	Terminated internally	SW-338
*Typical par	ameters at 1GHz.				

	HGH	POWE	R HAN	IDLING	
Configuration F	Operating Frequency (GHz)	*In action Loss (dB)	*Isolation (dB)	Peofures	Port Number
SPDT	DC- 2.5	.5	32	+ 33dBm, P-1dB	SW-277
SPDT	DC- 2.0	.5	17	2 Watt power handling; single neg/pos control	SW358 /SW359A

*Typical parameters at 1GHz

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5 Bit Digital	DC- 2.0	1,2,4,8,16	1.6	Highly accu-	AT-210
4 Bit Digital	DC- 2.0	2,4,8,16	1.6	rate attenuation;	AT-220
3 Bit Digital	DC- 2.0	4,8,16	1.6	consumption	AT-230
•Typical pare	meters at 1GHz.				

VOLTAGE VARIABLE ATTENUATORS

Configuration	Operating Frequency (GHz)	*Attenuation (dB)	*Insertion Loss (dB)	Features	Part Number
VVA	.5 - 2.0	0 - 35	3.2	Best linearity, single positive control	AT-108
VVA	DC- 2.0	0 - 35	7.2	18 dBm IP3	AT-635
VVA	DC- 2.0	0 - 15	3.2	Economical; small size (50T-14B)	AT-259
*Typical pa	rameters at 1GH.	Ζ.	1. H. H.		



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range. The amplifier has a gain of 13 dB with a typical gain variation against frequency and temperature of ± 0.5 dB. The amplifier has a third-order intercept figure of -130 dBm.

Wessex Electronics INFO/CARD #165

High-power pulse amplifier generates gaussian shaping

A high-power pulse amplifier utilizes the latest digital technologies to generate the required gaussian pulse shaping necessary for TACAN applications. Model CPHC968129-3000 from Comtech operates over the 960 to 1,215 MHz frequency band with adjustable putput power from 150 W to 3 kW peak. The amplifier is fully protected and has a soft failure feature. Prime power required is 115/220 VAC single phase, 50/60 Hz.

Comtech Microwave Products INFO/CARD #166

TEST EQUIPMENT

Cellular modem test system offers network emulation

The GT-Cellular Lite automatic celular modem test system is a costeffective, easy-to-use solution for esting cellular modems and other celular data communications devices. The system from Telecom Analysis Systems TAS) emulates an end-to-end cellularo-public switched telephone network PSTN) communications link and provides performance tests for cellular modems. Standard system components include a wireless communications anayzer, a telephone network emulator, a dual terminal emulator and software. Prices start at \$30,000. TAS

INFO/CARD #167

Test measurement antenna has dual polarized horn

Model DP240 dual polarized horn by Flann Microwave is a multi-active, coaxially fed, quadridged horn offering a high performance over the 2 to 18 GHz frequency band. The DP240 features a 25 dB isolation with low phase and amplitude imbalance between ports. The horn maintains a low voltage standing wave ratio (VSWR), and the electroformed construction ensures a -20 dB maximum cross polarization level. The DP240 is designed for the investigation of electromagnetic compatibility (EMC), antenna measurement and radar cross-section measurement.

Flann Microwave INFO/CARD #168

Complete EU compliance test solution in a box

BEST 96 from Schaffner is an entire electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) test system in a single package. It is the first complete, self-contained solution to combine all the functions required for full compliance testing of residential, commercial and light-industrial elec-



trical and electronic products. Manufacturers can now complete the entire CE compliance and compliance test procedures in-house. BEST 96 comes complete with everything needed for the entire compliance procedure. Schaffner

INFO/CARD #169

Ground station amplifier covers 1-10 MHz range

Frequency Electronics' FE-7923A is a 10-channel sinewave distribution amplifier that operates between 1 and 10 MHz. It is designed to meet stringent satellite ground-station requirements. It offers low phase and amplitude noise bursts with isolation in excess of 100 dB. Other features include a unity gain linear operation with a sinusoidal input signal, input and output voltage standing wave ratio (VSWR) less than 1.5:1, high isolation cascode amplifiers for output phase shifts less than 0.001° and operation from a 115 VAC line or 15 VDC. Frequency Electronics INFO/CARD #170

SIGNAL SOURCES

Surface mount VCXO fits crowded "real estate"

The F5000 surface-mount, voltagecontrolled crystal oscillator (VCXO) from Fox Electronics offers the frequency control features of a traditional through-hole VCXO in a smaller, ceramic surface mount package ($0.552'' \times 0.386'' \times 0.132''$). The F5000 features frequency stability of less than ±50 ppm. The available frequency range is 1–30 MHz. A maximum current draw of 15 mA means low power consumption. The F5000 suits designs requiring a VCXO in a crowded surface mount design. Fox Electronics INFO/CARD #171

TCXO package complies with 14-pin applications

Networks International's temperature compensated crystal oscillator (TCXO) for surface-mount applications includes a package footprint that is compatible with standard 14-pin applications. It has a standard operating range of -30° C to 75° C in a frequency range of 9-25 MHz. The TCXO has a stability of ± 2.5 ppm, a frequency adjustment of ± 3 ppm minimum and clipped sine output waveform. Networks International INFO/CARD #172

T3 SMD clock oscillator limits error to 20 ppm

MF Electronics' surface mount design (SMD) clock oscillator for the 44.736 MHz data transmission standard (T3) transmission ensures 20 ppm maximum temperature error (0°C-70°C). It features a 5×7 mm footprint, 1.9 mm height and better than 45/55 symmetry. It is designed as a high-stability SMD frequency source for T3. The oscillator also incorporates a 0.1 µF bypass capacitor. The price is \$4.05 in original equipment manufacturer (OEM) quantities.

MF Electronics INFO/CARD #173

RF literature

Catalog includes High-power components

RF Power Components offers a 40page catalog of high-power resistors and terminations, high-power attenuators, 90° hybrid couplers, high-power dividers and combiners, and custom devices. Outline diagrams are accompanied by application notes and general notes. The catalog also contains resistor and termination technical notes, an inches and millimeters converstion chart and a product index. **RF Power Components INFO/CARD #179**

Catalog details RF, microwave filters

Lark Engineering has a 129-page catalog detailing RF and microwave filters and diplexers in ranges from 100 KHz to 18 GHz. Outline drawings and performance graphs are included. Lark Engineering INFO/CARD #180

Two catalogs cover RF, microwave components

Microlab/FXR has two catalogs detailing passive RF and microwave components. The wireless products catalog highlights high-power, low-pass filters; couplers; dividers; and tuners for use in wireless signal transmission applications. The full-line catalog details attenuators, terminations, dummy loads, couplers, DCblocks, detectors and waveguide products. **Microlab/FXR INFO/CARD #181**

Components catalog includes control products

Micronetics' control components catalog offers solid-state switches, attenuators, phase-shifters, electromechanical switches and detectors. Specifications and descriptions are accompanied by photographs, graphs and diagrams. **Micronetics**

INFO/CARD #182

Design guide offers VCO specification help

Wireless Radio's free design guide, *How* to Specify Voltage Controlled Oscillators helps engineers to include the various specifications necessary when selecting a voltage-controlled oscillator (VCO). A fillin-the-blank guide helps the user to cover all the necessary bases. Applications help may be obtained by mail or fax. The guide is available on the Internet along with other application notes and links to additional technical resources. Wireless Radio offers a free catalog on disk for surfacemount VCOs from 25 MHz to 3 GHz. Wireless Radio Communications INFO/CARD #183

News bulletin includes articles, tech notes

LCF Enterprises' spring news bulletin features technical articles, application notes, news and product infor- mation about small, high-efficiency modules, full turn-key rackmount systems and integrated transmit and receive subsystems with switches, control logic and preamps for mobile, hand-held, battery powered, satellite, laboratory, electromagnetic imaging (EMI), electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) and for general-purpose use. LCF Enterprises

INFO/CARD #184

Brochure contains manufacturing capabilities

A 16-page, color brochure from Celeritek, discusses the company's engineering development, volume production and manufacturing capabilities and covers products designed for applications including: point-to-point radio; mobile satellite communication; cellular; personal communications systems; and fixed wireless. Also shown are functional block diagrams and electrical specifications of subsystems, transceivers, transmitters, receivers, radios and low-noise and power amplifiers. A section on GaAs-based semiconductor products for wireless commu-nications is included. Celeritek

INFO/CARD #185

Beginner's guide to DSP

A Simple Approach to Digital Signal Processing (John Wiley & Sons and Texas Instruments) is a 236-page guide for those who need to know about DSP and who have no prior knowledge. The reader is led step-by-step from basic concepts to complex functions including sampling, filtering, transforming signals into the frequency domain, encoding waveforms, data compression, DSP hardware design issues and system design flow.

John Wiley & Sons and Texas Instruments INFO/CARD #186

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RF IC Design Engineer

Responsible for simulation/layout supervision/ evaluation of RF IC devices for wireless applications (cellular, cordless and Personal Communication systems). Ensure testability/ manufacturability of device designs and successful implementation of RF ICs from concept to operation in the radio module. We prefer a Ph.D. or MSEE (or equivalent) with 3+ years of experience in Analog and RF integrated circuit design (frequency range 0.1-3 GHz using Silicon Bipolar and/or BICMOS processes). Background in Spice and/or Harmonic balance simulators desired.

RF IC Layout Designer

Responsible for custom layout of RF ICs using Silicon Bipolar technology. Knowledge of layout parasitics and their effect on electrical performance is desirable. Must be familiar with UNIX Workstations and Cadence verification tools (DIVA or Dracula). Requires ability to interface effectively with Engineers and work interactively on custom RF IC layouts (including mask set generation).

Senior Logic Design Engineer

Responsible for design of Logic functions in the embedded Flash memories. Flash state machine design experience preferred. A BS/MSEE plus 2-4 years experience in CMOS logic or Memory design required.

Flash Memory Device Engineer

Responsible for performing circuit/logic design on embedded Flash modules, supervising layout design and performing product debugging. Requires MSEE with 2-4 years experience. Hands-on experience in sub-micron Flash memory design preferred.

Mixed Signal/RF Design Methodologist

Proactively champion and evolve the mixedsignal and RF design methodology with a goal of shortening design interval and improving product quality. The individual must have either mixed signal or RF design experience and a background in using commercial CAD tools (capturing, simulation, and layout). We prefer an MS or Ph.D. in Electrical Engineering plus at least 5 years of industrial experience in mixed signal/RF designs.

WIRELESS ENGINEERING

(Dept. Code: RFD-0801-PH)

RF Design Engineers

Requires design experience in RF circuits for low cost, battery-powered portable systems, including RF amplifiers, mixers, oscillators and synthesizers in the range of DC to 3GHz. Experience in the latest RF CAD tools essential. Strong knowledge in communication theory, digital modulation and TDMA/CDMA standards a plus.

RF Systems Engineers

Requires design experience in RF systems for low-cost, battery-operated portable systems, including receiver and transmitter system planning, analysis and simulation using the latest CAD tools. Strong knowledge in communication theory, digital modulation and TDMA/CDMA standards required. Knowledge of RF circuit design techniques a plus.

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Responsible for the development of RF hardware to support advanced HF/UHF/VHF tactical radio products. Will be a leader and/or major contributor to a cross-functional development team with hands-on responsibility for the design of RF systems, circuitry and hardware from the definition of requirements through the integration and testing of the completed product to release to manufacturing. BSEE (MSEE preferred) with 10+ years experience with the development of RF circuitry required. Knowledge and application of computer simulation of RF circuitry are highly desired. Must have experience planning, executing and tracking challenging tasks, and the demonstrated ability to successfully complete them.

SENIOR RF ENGINEERS

As a member of a cross-functional development team, you'll have hands-on responsibility for the design of RF circuitry and hardware from the definition of requirements through the integration and testing of the completed product to release to manufacturing. BSEE with 4+ years experience in the development of RF circuitry is required. Knowledge and application of computer simulation of RF circuitry is highly desired. Your background must demonstrate the ability to undertake a technically challenging task and successfully complete it.

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RF Network Planning Engineer

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RF Channel Modeling Engineer

Use your expertise in macrocell/microcell RF propagation modeling and propagation data analysis to define and implement RF channel models for advanced RF network planning tools. Play a key role in planning the placement and design of radio base stations for wireless networks.

RF Propagation Testing Engineer

Plan and carry out RF propagation studies and analyze experimental measurement data to characterize the performance of advanced wireless systems. Must be familiar with RF propagation testing methods and equipment. Some positions require travel and/or temporary assignments in U.S. locations.

RF Field Testing Engineer

Play a leadership role in planning and conducting field testing of advanced digital RF communications equipment and systems. Requires broad experience with a variety of test and measurement equipment and digital wireless systems. Some positions require travel and/or temporary assignments in U.S. locations.

RF Hardware and Systems Engineer

Play a lead role in RF communications subsystem and advanced wireless system simulation, laboratory and field testing and validation, and integration. Knowledge of RF signal processing, digital wireless standards, RF testing methodologies, RF test facility preparation, and FCC requirements is preferred.

RF Network and Planning Software Engineer

Positions are available for experienced RF network planning software development professionals, including responsibilities for design, coding, and test at the module and system level. Team development expertise is required using C and C++ in a UNIX environment. Familiarity with Object-Oriented design and analysis, SEI concepts and processes, structured software development principles, source level debuggers and Configuration Management tools.

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•RFSR Staff Engineer requires 12+ years experience (Job Code: RFSRSK) •RF Staff Engineer requires 8+ years experience (Job Code: RFSFSK)

TEST ENGINEER

Responsible for developing test systems and procedures that guarantee performance of new products for CATV. Requires an MSEE degree coupled with 5+ years experience in developing and testing complex products with extensive software, RF and analog components. Thorough knowledge of PC test software packages, testing methodologies, and statistics, as well as exposure to analog and RF products are also required. (Job Code: RFTESK)

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- Familiar with PLL synthesizers, spread spectrum, and FCC Part 15 regulations.
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Mgr. Component Products: Responsible for P&L of 30mm component business providing RF/MW product modules to the wireless communications industry. Product Marketing Manager: Lead the technical marketing effort for the Wireless Communications Group, develop business/marketing plans, manage customer relationships, perform market analysis, develop sales/marketing material

CATV Design: Rf Design experience should include LC fitter, microstrip, amplifier, circuit modeling and system analysis in the 5-1000Mhz range. BS/MSEE fiber optics a plus.

Project Leader Base Station: Design, fabricate, test and develop rl/mw components circuits and subsystems for cellular basestation front-ends. BSEE/MSEE

Baseband Analog Circuit Design: Baseband analog circuit designers for cordless telephony systems at 900 MHz and 46/49 MHz BSEE 5 yrs.

Regional Field Sales: Aggressive individuals to create and serve new accounts. Positions are located throughout the U.S.A. An engineer who wants to enter sales world is acceptable. Base salary, commission and car. BSEE.

RF Microwave Test Engineers: Develop and refine automated RF/Microwave test methodologies for product characterization, production test, system test and FCC Certification. BSEE

RF/Anatog Hardware Design: Develop state of the art cordless telephony systems at 900 MHz and 46/49 MHz. Experi-ence with synthesizers, LNA, mixers, IF receivers, transmitter circuit, Power amplifiers and receiver designs. BS/MS 5 plus years.

Sr. Project Antenna Design: Lead the conception, design and development of a wide variety of antennas and antenna systems, including both reflector and array systems using microstrip, stripline and waveguide technologies. BS/MS with 5 years experience.

RF Design Manager: Lead a team of RF engineers from initial design and implementation through product integra-tion and testing into high volume production. 8+ years of RF design with emphasis on low cost radio design. BS/MS Sr. MMIC Design: Design highly integrated GaAs MMICs for advanced cellular products. Circuits to be designed include power amplifiers, LNAs, mixers. IF amplifiers, buffer amplifiers. RF frequencies are 900 and 1800 MHz.

Product Line Manager Wireless: Specific responsibilities include product line strategic planning, establishing rev-enue and price objectives, setting internal cost largets and oversight of Internal product realization schedules.

RF PA Engineers: Requires 3+ years experience in design, test and manufacturing of high efficiency GaAS MESET and HBT class A and C power Amplifiers (c2watts) in the frequency range (-2GHz). Experience in both discrete and MMC design a plus.

Sr. Analog IC Designers: Responsible for conceptual circuit design and developing new analog/mixed signal ic's. BS/MS experience in A/D D/A, ASIC's bipolar and BiMOS.



Applications Engineer: 5 years of directly relevant RF/MW engineering applications and measurement techniques. Strong presentation and instructor skills; must be able to communicate effectively with individuals and groups of all levels of technical expertise and

RF Systems Design: RF system design for low cost battery operated systems, battery powered systems, including receiver and transmitters system planning, analy-sis and simulation using CAD tools. Experience with CDMA/TDMA. BSEE.



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▲ Design, assemble and test RF vacuum power devices. Minimum of 5 years experience with CAD, high power testing and vacuum tube technology required.

▲ Responsible for tasks on electron tube R&D programs, including CAE of microwave tubes, design of devices, setup and test tubes and interpret data. Minimum 2-5 years related experience. Advanced degree required.

Digital design, implementation via programmable logic, ASIC, FPGA. DSP development, software for prototype development.

▲ Analog and RF circuit and system design.

Digital circuit and system design.

ENGINEERS

▲ RF receiver/control system design. Design and analysis of phase lock loops, crystal oscillators, modulators and detectors; and CAD, necessary.

 Digital design of microprocessor based systems. Microprocessor design, C language & programming in a UNIX environment; and CAD (CADENCE, Alegro, WARP) necessary. BSEE with minimum of 3 years experience required. MSEE desired.

 Microwave circuit design, simulation, layout and test of microwave and RF circuits.

 Perform threat analysis and EW system requirements and effectiveness analysis using digital simulations. Solve EW systems engineering problems.

TECHNICAL ADVISOR

▲ Perform engineering assignments utilizing knowledge of theory and expertise of electron beam power vacuum devices. PhD or Masters degree with 5 years experience in Physics or EE, required.

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Engineer positions require a BS degree (EE, ME, CS or IE); MS preferred, with at least three years experience. Positions will be located in various New Jersey facilities.

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JMS-2L	+3	800-1000	DC-200	7.0	24 20	7.45
JMS-2	+7	20-1000	DC-1000	7.0	50 47	7.45
JMS-2LH	+10	20-1000	DC-1000	6.5	48 35	9.45
JMS-2MH	+13	20-1000	DC-1000	7.0	50 47	10.45
JMS-2H	+17	20-1000	DC-1000	7.0	50 47	12.45
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1, (typ) @3V Powerdown (typ)	6mA N/A	6mA N/A	6mA 30µA	10mA 30µА	11mA 30µА

DUALS	MX_330A	LMX2331A	LNIX2332-A	LMX2335	LMX2336	LMX2337
RF Input-Main PLL RF Input-Aux PLL	2.50Hz 510MHz	2.0GHz 510MHz	1.2GHz 510MHz	1.1GHz 1.1GHz	2.0GHz 1.1GHz	550MHz 550MHz
1 _e (typ]] @3V Powerdown (typ)		12mA	8mA 1µA	9mA 1μA	13mA 1μA	9mA 1μA

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