INF 5490 RF MEMS

LN04: RF circuit design challenges

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Lecture overview INF5490

- Basic topics
 - LN01: Introduction. MEMS in RF
 - LN02: Fabrication
 - LN03: Modeling, design and analysis (part 1, 2 of 3)
- Main topic of today's lecture:
 - Modeling, 3: Analysis using Finite Element Methods
 - Some characteristics and challenges of RF circuit design

References

Supplementary literature ("cursory"):

- Finite Element Methods
 - http://www.coventor.com/
- RF circuit design
 - Reinhold Ludwig and Pavel Bretchko, "RF Circuit Design, Theory and Applications". Prentice Hall, 2000. ISBN 0-13-122475-1

Methods for RF MEMS modeling

- 1. Simple mathematical modeling
- 2. Converting to electrical equivalents
- Why do we need Finite Element Methods analysis?
 - Simple mathematical models are approximations
 - Not accurate enough for complex structures
 - Ex. Beam deflection: non-uniform charge distribution ←→ force

- Tool for FEM-simulations
 - CoventorWare, CW
 - Used in Oblig1 and Oblig2

3. Finite Element Method analysis

FEM characteristics

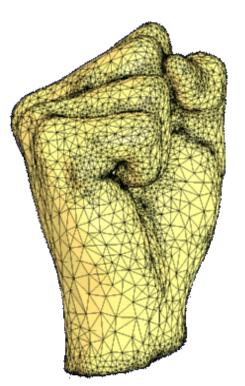
- Build 3D model
- Mesh the 3D model into smaller elements
- Solve mathematical equations for interaction between elements
- → Many iterations needed before a stable solution is obtained

Features

- + Good precision
- + Coupled electrostatic/ mech. interaction
- + Can cope with irregular topologies
- Insight into parameters influence is lost
- Only small parts are practical

Critical issues

- Proper system selection, building the 3D model
- Partitioning (precision of meshing)
- Simulation parameters



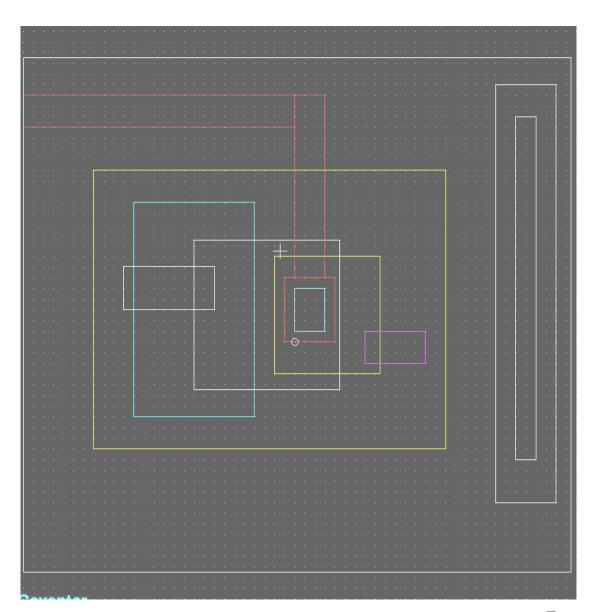
Ex. 3D model building in CW: process specification



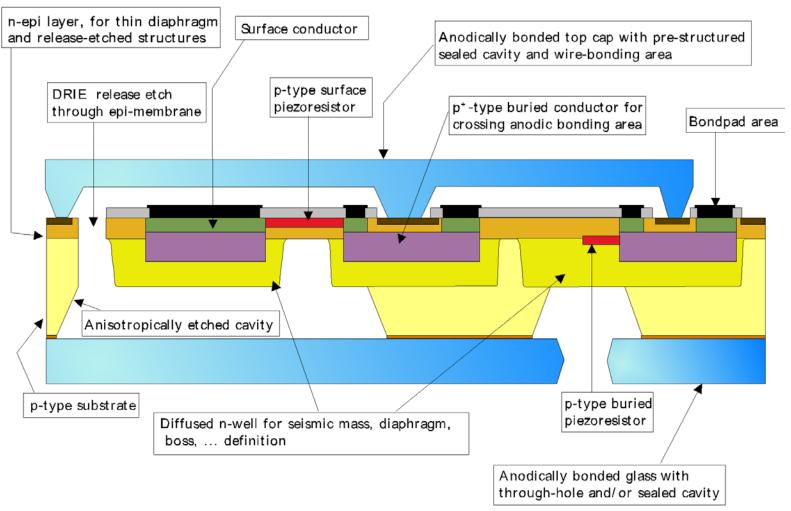
- Specify a process file which matches an actual foundry process
 - simplifications
 - realistic: essential process features included
- → pseudo layers

3D model building: layout

Make accompanying layout

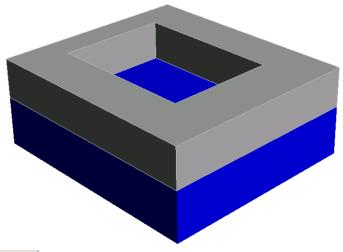


MultiMEMS, typical features



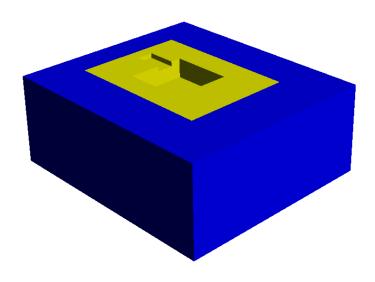
How to model the MultiMEMS bulk process in CoventorWare?

- Problem:
 - The bulk process is not based on "stacking layers"
- Create a pseudo process!
 - Simplified, but matching
 - Transfer to a procedure of stacking (pseudo) layers
 - some layers with zero spacing
 - slicing the bulk material into sub-layers in contact
 - make etchings and re-fillings



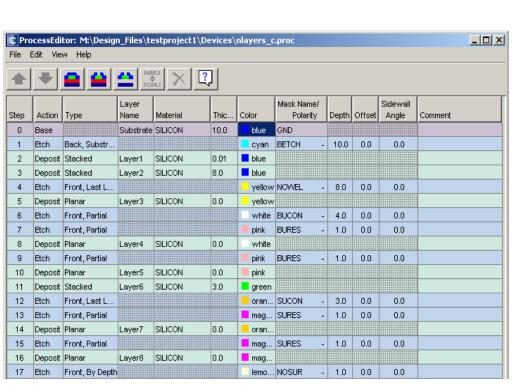
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File	Edit Vie	w Help										
•	•		ENR	BLE X]							
Step	Action	Туре	Layer Name	Material	Thic	Color	Mask Name/ Polarity	Depth	Offset	Sidewall Angle	Comment	
0	Base	111111111111111111111111111111111111111	Substrate	SILICON	10.0	blue	GND					
1	Etch	Back, Substr				cyan	BETCH -	10.0	0.0	0.0		
2	Deposit	Stacked	Layer1	SILICON	0.01	blue						
3	Deposit	Stacked	Layer2	SILICON	8.0	blue						
4	Etch	Front, Last L				yellow	NOWEL -	8.0	0.0	0.0		

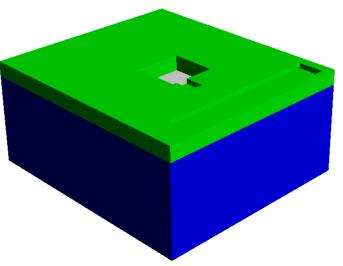
Two slices of the base material stacked. N-well opening



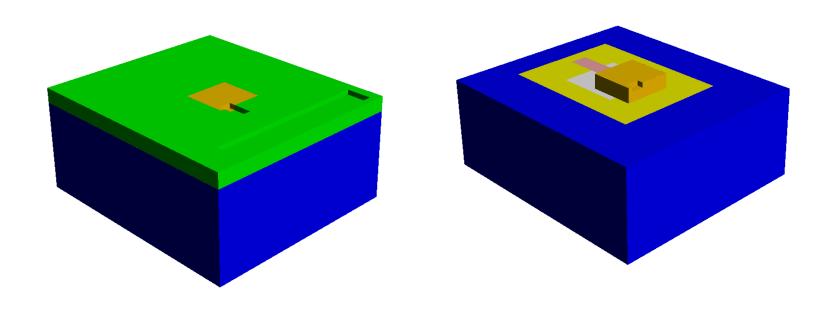


N-well in-filling. Etching holes for buried conductor implant and buried resistor implant





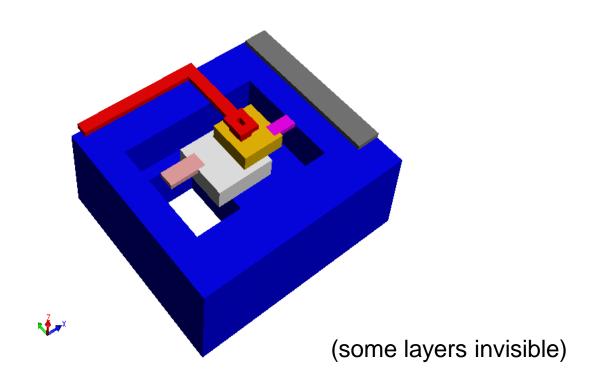
Add **epi-layer**. Etch holes for **surface conductor** and **surface resistor**, -fill in. Etch hole for n+ implant. (Implants are invisible)

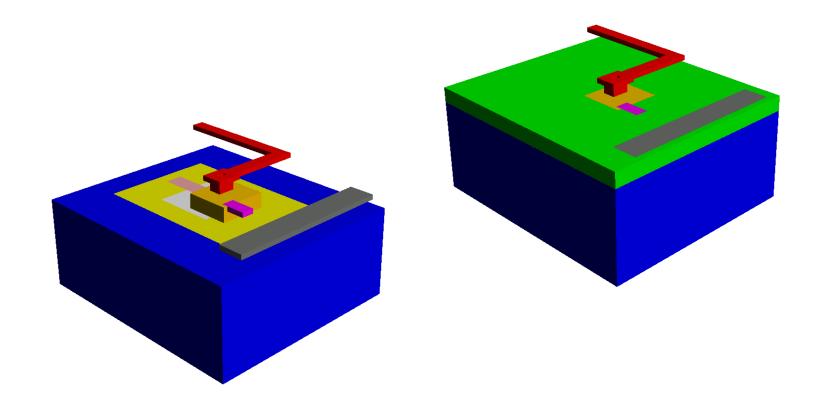


Surface conductor is made visible

Epi-layer is invisible

3D model building: expansion



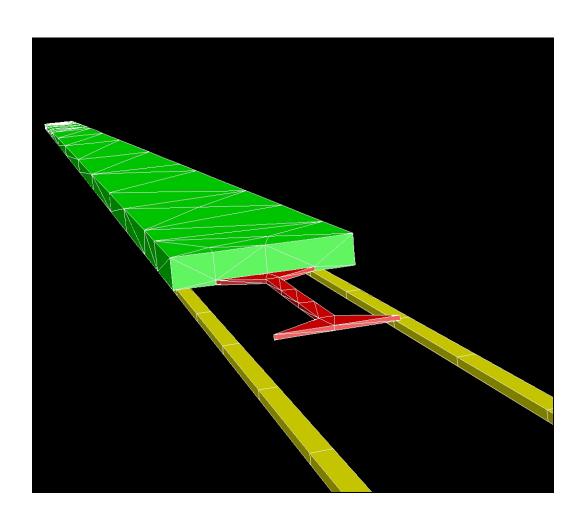


Complete structure with some layers made invisible

3D modeling procedure

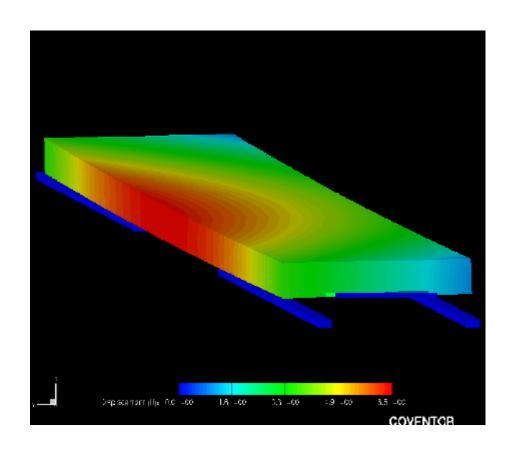
- To introduce one diffusion:
 - Etch base material
 - Fill in implanted material
 - use "deposit planar" with thickness = 0
- To introduce multiple overlapping diffusions:
 - Etch base material with all (overlapping) diffusion masks (the deepest first)
 - Fill in the deepest implanted material
 - Re-etch the remaining diffusion openings
 - Fill in the next deepest implant etc.

Meshed model



- Mirror meshed by tetrahedrons
 - $-23 \mu m, 3 \mu m$
- Electrodes meshed by Manhatten bricks
 - $-5 \mu m$
- Rather coarse dimensions used due to time consuming pull-in analysis in CW

Mirror deflection, snapshot



Today's lecture

Modeling: 3. Finite Element Method analysis

RF circuit design

- → "Multi disciplinary"
- Electromagnetic waves
- Skin depth
- Passive components at high frequencies
- Transmission line theory
- Two-port networks
 - S-parameters
- Filters
- Q-factor

RF- and microwave design is multi disciplinary

- Theoretical fundament
 - Electromagnetism, electromagnetic waves
 - Signal processing
- Technology, practical aspects
 - Circuit theory
 - Kirchhoff's laws for current and voltage
- Some topics of today's lecture is also covered in INF5481
 - "RF-circuits, theory and design" (Svein-Erik Hamran, fall semester)
- INF5490/9490:
 - − → Central issues covered in one lecture!

RF circuit design

- Some important questions
 - How do circuits behave at high frequencies?
 - Why do component functionality change?
 - At what frequencies is standard circuit analysis not valid?
 - What "new" circuit theory is needed?
 - How can this theory come into practical use?
 - → Figures and equations from R. Ludwig et al: "RF Circuit Design"

Electromagnetic waves

Electric and magnetic fields

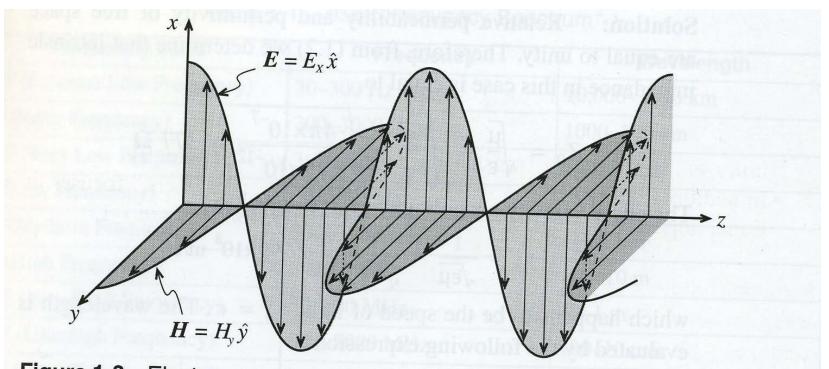


Figure 1-3 Electromagnetic wave propagation in free space. The electric and magnetic fields are recorded at a fixed instance in time as a function of space (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) are unit vectors in x- and y-direction).

Important wave parameters:

Electric field
$$E_x = E_{0x} \cos(\omega t - \beta z)$$

Magnetic field
$$H_y = H_{0y} \cos(\omega t - \beta z)$$

Angular frequency:
$$\omega$$
 Propagation constant: β

Wave is periodic, repeating when:
$$\beta \cdot z = 2\pi$$

Wavelength:
$$z = \lambda = \frac{2\pi}{\beta}$$

The wave propagates a distance λ during the time T = period

Propagation velocity:
$$v_p \cdot T = \lambda$$

(in vacuum: c)

$$v_p = \lambda \cdot \frac{1}{T} = \lambda \cdot f = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \cdot \frac{\omega}{2\pi} = \frac{\omega}{\beta}$$

Important wave parameters, contd.

For a position z = constant, the wave repeats after a period T:

$$ωT = 2π$$

and
$$\omega = 2 \pi / T = 2 \pi f$$

in which f = frequency

Frequency and wavelength

- In vacuum: λ * f = c
 - Increasing frequency → decreasing wavelength
- At high frequencies (RF) is the wavelength comparable to the circuit dimensions
 - \rightarrow

Table 1-1 IEEE Frequency Spectrum

Frequency Band	Frequency	Wavelength		
ELF (Extreme Low Frequency)	30-300 Hz	10,000-1000 km		
VF (Voice Frequency)	300-3000 Hz	1000–100 km		
VLF (Very Low Frequency)	3-30 kHz	100–10 km		
LF (Low Frequency)	30-300 kHz	10–1 km		
MF (Medium Frequency)	300-3000 kHz	1-0.1 km		
HF (High Frequency)	3-30 MHz	100–10 m		
VHF (Very High Frequency)	30-300 MHz	10–1 m		
UHF (Ultrahigh Frequency)	300-3000 MHz	100-10 cm		
SHF (Superhigh Frequency)	3-30 GHz	10-1 cm		
EHF (Extreme High Frequency)	30-300 GHz	1-0.1 cm		
Decimillimeter	300-3000 GHz	1-0.1 mm		
P Band	0.23-1 GHz	130–30 cm		
L Band	1–2 GHz	30-15 cm		
S Band	2-4 GHz	15–7.5 cm		
C Band	4–8 GHz	7.5–3.75 cm		
X Band	8-12.5 GHz	3.75-2.4 cm		
Ku Band	12.5-18 GHz	2.4-1.67 cm		
K Band	18-26.5 GHz	1.67-1.13 cm		
Ka Band	26.5-40 GHz	1.13-0.75 cm		
Millimeter wave	40–300 GHz	7.5–1 mm		
Submillimeter wave	300-3000 GHz	1-0.1 mm		

Two important laws

- Faradays law
 - Varying magnetic field induces current

- Amperes law
 - Current is setting up a magnetic field

Faradays law

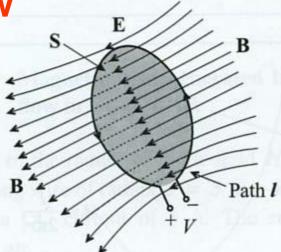
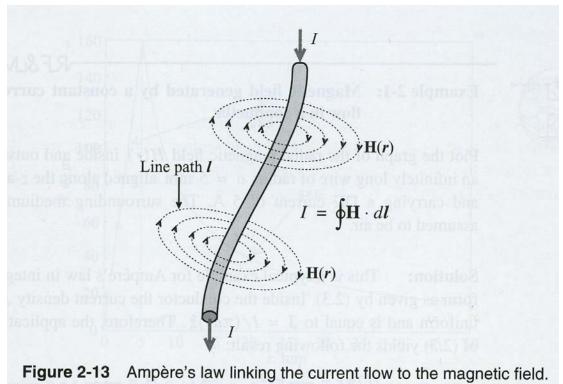


Figure 2-15 The time rate of change of the magnetic flux density induces a voltage.

$$\begin{split} \oint \overline{E} \cdot d\overline{l} &= -\frac{d}{dt} \iint \overline{B} \cdot d\overline{S} \\ \overline{B} &= magnetic \quad flux - density \\ \overline{B} &= \mu \cdot \overline{H} \\ \mu &= permeability = \mu_0 \cdot \mu_r \\ \overline{H} &= magnetic \quad field \end{split}$$

Amperes law



$$I = \oint \overline{H} \cdot d\overline{l} = \iint \overline{J} \cdot d\overline{S}$$

"Skin depth"

- Signal transmission at increasing frequency
 - DC signal:
 - Current is flowing in whole cross section
 - AC signal (sequence of arguments for the operation):
 - Varying current induces an alternating magnetic field (Amperes law)
 - Magnetic field strength higher for small radius
 - Increased time variation of magnetic field in centre
 - Varying magnetic field induces an electric field (Faradays law)
 - Induced electric field (opposing the original one) increases in strength towards the centre of the conductor

Current density for various frequencies

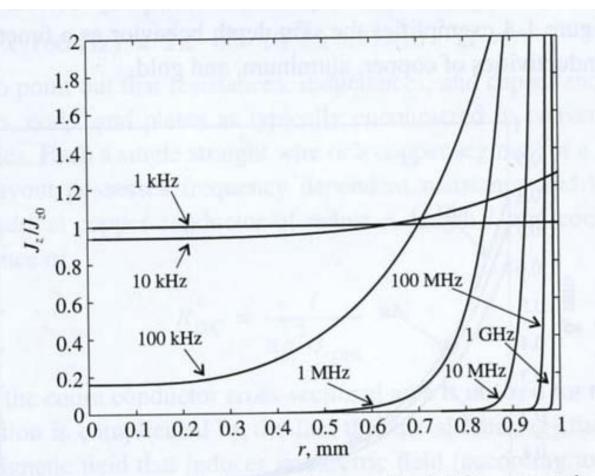
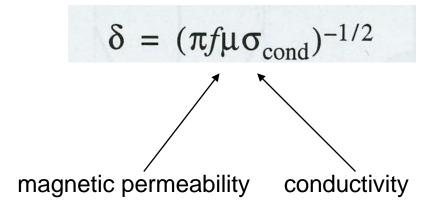


Figure 1-5(b) Frequency behavior of normalized AC current density for a copper wire of radius a = 1 mm.

Skin depth, contd.

- Resistance R increases towards centre of conductor
 - Current close to surface at increasing frequency
 - Formula: "skin-depth" →
 - Current density reduced by a factor 1/e
- What does this mean for practical designs? →



"Skin-depth"

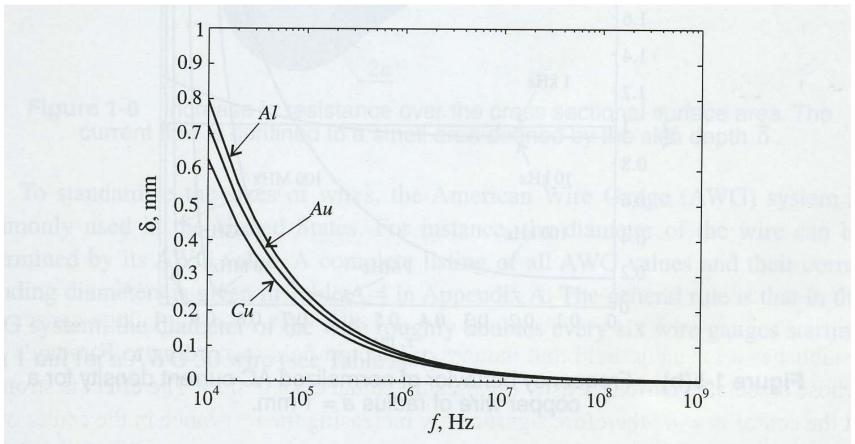
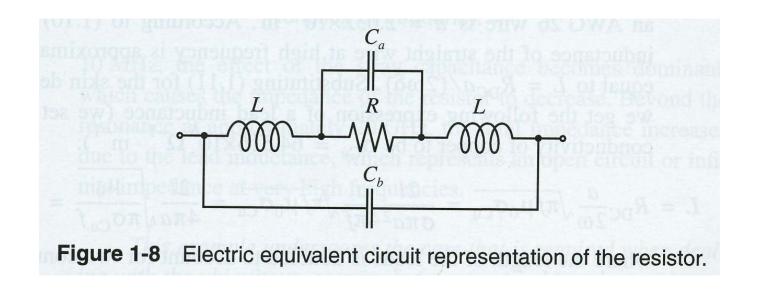


Figure 1-4 Skin depth behavior of copper $\sigma_{Cu}=64.516\times10^6~\mathrm{S/m}$, aluminum $\sigma_{Al}=40.0\times10^6~\mathrm{S/m}$, and gold $\sigma_{Au}=48.544\times10^6~\mathrm{S/m}$.

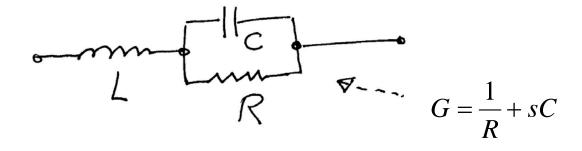
Passive components at high frequencies

Equivalent circuit diagram for resistor



Calculating resistor-impedance

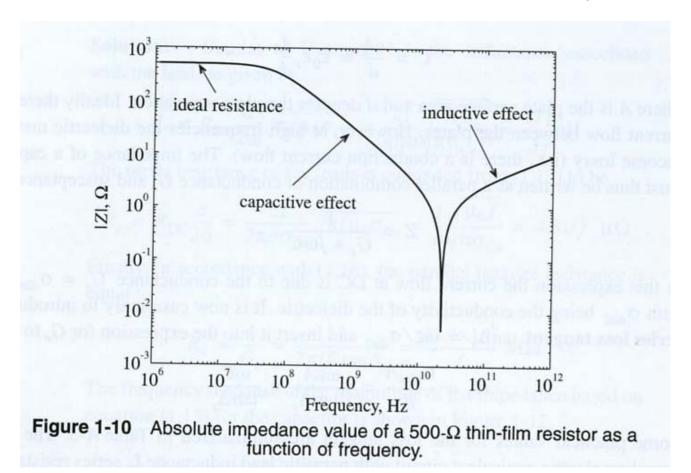
Simplified model:



$$z = sL + \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R} + sC} = sL + \frac{R}{1 + sRC}$$

$$z(j\omega) = j\omega L + \frac{R}{1 + j\omega RC}$$

Impedance versus frequency



Limits:

$$z(j\omega) \to R$$
, $n \mathring{a} r \quad \omega \to 0$
 $z(j\omega) \to j\omega L$, $n \mathring{a} r \quad \omega \to \infty$

Resonance when terms cancel

$$sL = -\frac{R}{1 + sRC}$$

$$LRCs^{2} + Ls + R = 0$$

$$s^{2} + \frac{1}{RC}s + \frac{1}{LC} = 0$$

$$s = -\frac{1}{2RC} \pm j\sqrt{\frac{1}{LC} - \frac{1}{4R^{2}C^{2}}}$$

High frequency capacitor

Equivalent circuit

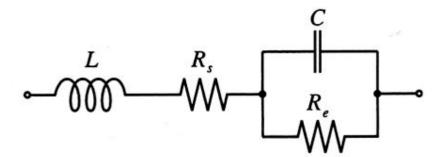


Figure 1-11 Electric equivalent circuit for a high-frequency capacitor.

Impedance versus frequency

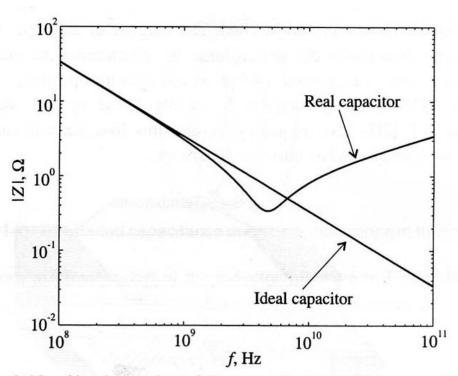


Figure 1-12 Absolute value of the capacitor impedance as a function of frequency.

High frequency inductor

Equivalent circuit

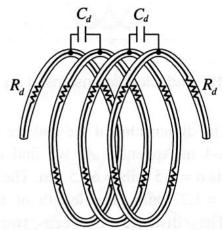


Figure 1-14 Distributed capacitance and series resistance in the inductor coil.

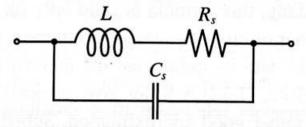


Figure 1-15 Equivalent circuit of the high-frequency inductor.

Impedance versus frequency

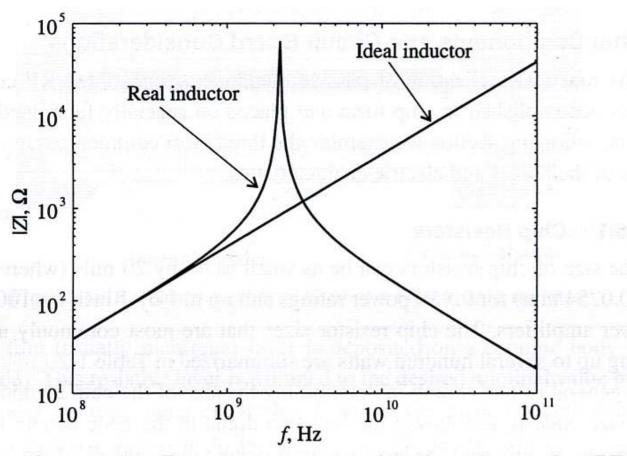


Figure 1-17 Frequency response of the impedance of an RFC.

Transmission line theory

- Frequency increases
 → wavelength decreases (λ)
- When λ is comparable with component dimensions, there will be a voltage drop over the component!!
 - → Current and voltage are not constant
- Voltage and current are waves that propagate along conductors and components
 - Position dependent value →
 - Signal should propagate along transmission lines
 - Reflections, characteristic impedances must be controlled

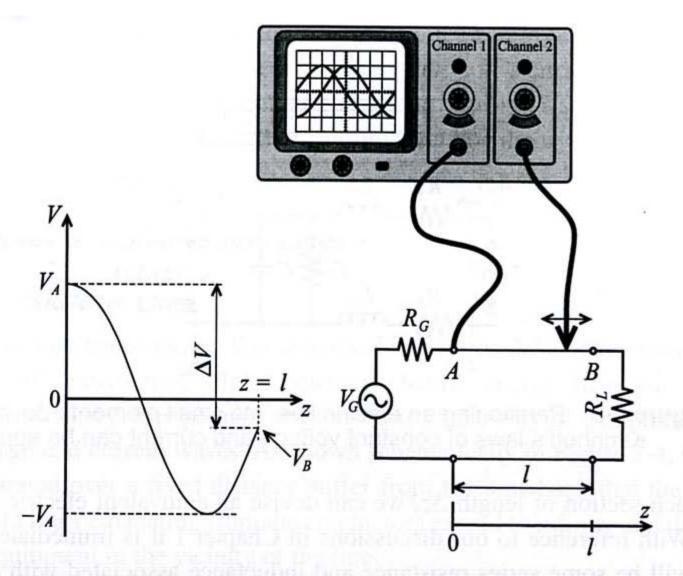


Figure 2-2 Amplitude measurements of 10 GHz voltage signal at the beginning (location A) and somewhere in between a wire connecting load to source.

Transmission line

A conductor has to be modeled as a transmission line

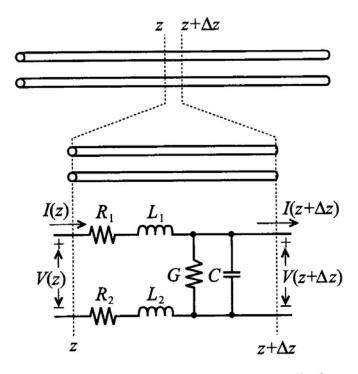


Figure 2-3 Partitioning an electric line into small elements Δz over which Kirchhoff's laws of constant voltage and current can be applied.

The line is divided into infinitesimal sub-units

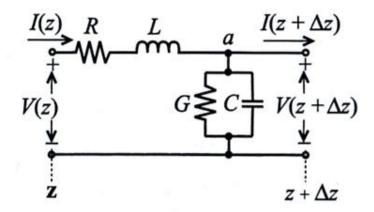
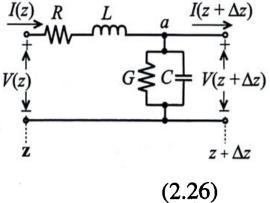


Figure 2-17 Segment of a transmission line with voltage loop and current node.

Use Kirchhoff's laws

Will give 2 coupled 1.order diff-equations



$$(R + j\omega L)I(z)\Delta z + V(z + \Delta z) = V(z)$$

$$\lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \left(-\frac{V(z + \Delta z) - V(z)}{\Delta z} \right) = -\frac{dV(z)}{dz} = (R + j\omega L)I(z)$$
 (2.27)

$$-\frac{dV(z)}{dz} = (R + j\omega L)I(z)$$
 (2.28)

$$I(z) - V(z + \Delta z)(G + j\omega C)\Delta z = I(z + \Delta z)$$
 (2.29)

$$\lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{I(z + \Delta z) - I(z)}{\Delta z} = \frac{dI(z)}{dz} = -(G + j\omega C)V(z)$$
 (2.30)

$$\frac{d^2V(z)}{dz^2} - k^2V(z) = 0 (2.31)$$

$$k = k_r + jk_i = \sqrt{(R + j\omega L)(G + j\omega C)}$$
 (2.32)

$$\frac{d^2I(z)}{dz^2} - k^2I(z) = 0 ag{2.33}$$

Solution: 2 waves

The solution is waves in a positive and negative direction

$$V(z) = V^{+}e^{-kz} + V^{-}e^{+kz}$$
 (2.34)

$$I(z) = I^{+}e^{-kz} + I^{-}e^{+kz}$$
 (2.35)

$$I(z) = \frac{k}{(R+j\omega L)} (V^{+}e^{-kz} - V^{-}e^{+kz})$$
 (2.36) (Jmfr.2.27)

Characteristic line-impedance: $Z_0 = \frac{V^+}{I^+} = -\frac{V^-}{I^-}$

$$Z_0 = \frac{(R + j\omega L)}{k} = \sqrt{\frac{(R + j\omega L)}{(G + j\omega C)}}$$
 (2.37)

Impedance for lossless transmission line

$$Z_0 = \sqrt{L/C}$$

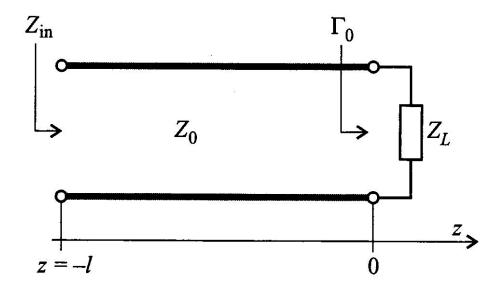


Figure 2-23 Terminated transmission line at location z = 0.

Reflection

 How to avoid reflections and have good signal propagation?

• Definition of reflection coefficient ->

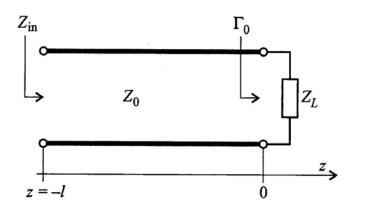


Figure 2-23 Terminated transmission line at location z = 0.

Reflection coefficient

$$\Gamma_0 = \frac{V^-}{V^+} \qquad \leftarrow \text{ definition of reflection coefficient for z = 0}$$

$$V(z) = V^+(e^{-kz} + \Gamma_0 \cdot e^{+kz})$$

$$I(z) = \frac{V^+}{Z_0}(e^{-kz} - \Gamma_0 \cdot e^{+kz})$$

Impedance for z = 0:

$$Z(0) = \frac{V(0)}{I(0)} = Z_0 \frac{1 + \Gamma_0}{1 - \Gamma_0} = Z_L \qquad \text{= load impedance}$$

$$\Gamma_0 = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0}$$

Various terminations

$$\Gamma_0 = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0}$$

Open line

→ reflection with equal polarity

$$Z_L = \infty \Longrightarrow \Gamma_0 = 1$$

Short circuit

→ Reflection with inverse polarity

$$Z_L = 0 \Longrightarrow \Gamma_0 = -1$$

No reflection when:

$$Z_0 = Z_L \Rightarrow \Gamma_0 = 0$$

→ "MATCHING"

Standing waves

• Short circuiting gives standing waves $(Z_L = 0)$

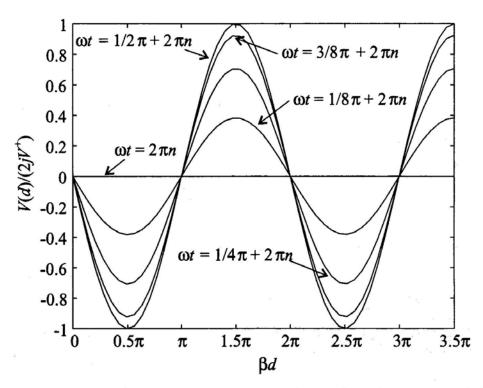


Figure 2-25 Standing wave pattern for various instances of time.

RF-circuits

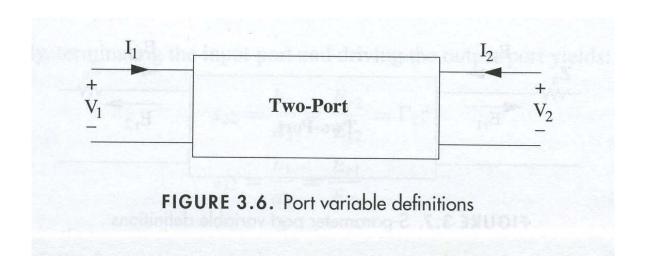
- A high frequency circuit may be viewed as
 - a finite number of transmission line sections interconnected with discrete active and passive components

Two-port network

- Circuits can be made up of simple parts:
 - Two-ports
- Two-port-description can be used to simplify analysis of complex networks
- Different types of two-ports
 - Z, Y, h-matrix
 - Each one is used in different situations and has different properties when interconnected
 - Z → series, Y → parallel, hybrid
 - Figure →

Two-ports at low frequencies

- Open and shorts are used for two-ports to determine
 - Z (impedance) or
 - Y (admittance) at low frequencies



Multiport-network

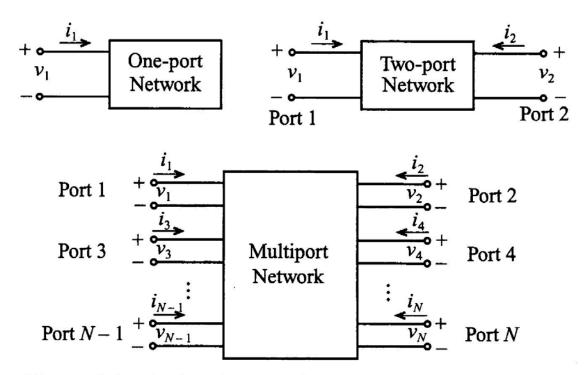


Figure 4-1 Basic voltage and current definitions for single- and multiport network.

Ex. Z-matrix

$$\{\mathbf{V}\} = [\mathbf{Z}]\{\mathbf{I}\} \tag{4.3}$$

ABCD network

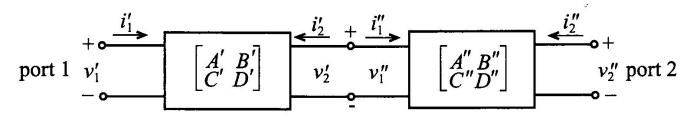


Figure 4-9 Cascading two networks.

$$\begin{cases}
v_1 \\
i_1
\end{cases} = \begin{cases}
v_1' \\
i_1'
\end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix}
A' & B' \\
C' & D'
\end{bmatrix} \begin{cases}
v_2' \\
-i_2'
\end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix}
A' & B' \\
C' & D'
\end{bmatrix} \begin{cases}
v_1'' \\
i_1''
\end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix}
A' & B' \\
C' & D'
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
A'' & B'' \\
C'' & D''
\end{bmatrix} \begin{cases}
v_2'' \\
-i_2''
\end{cases}$$
Cascade coupling made easy

ABCD-parameters for "useful" 2-ports

Table 4-1 ABCD-Parameters of Some Useful Two-Port Circuits.

Circuit	ABCD-Parameters		
$ \begin{array}{cccc} i_1 & Z & i_2 \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ v_1 & & v_2 \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ v_1 & & v_2 \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ v_1 & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ v_2 & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ v_1 & & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ v_2 & & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \\ \downarrow & & & & & \\ \downarrow & & & \\ \downarrow & & & \\ \downarrow &$	A= 1 C= 0	B= Z D= 1	
v_1 Y v_2	A= 1 C= Y	B= 0 D= 1	
$ \begin{array}{c c} i_1 & Z_A & Z_B & i_2 \\ \hline v_1 & Z_C & v_2 \end{array} $	$A = 1 + \frac{Z_A}{Z_C}$ $C = \frac{1}{Z_C}$	$B = Z_A + Z_B + \frac{Z_A Z_B}{Z_C}$ $D = 1 + \frac{Z_B}{Z_C}$	
$ \begin{array}{c c} i_1 & Y_B & i_2 \\ v_1 & Y_A & Y_C & v_2 \end{array} $	$A = 1 + \frac{Y_B}{Y_C}$ $C = Y_A + Y_B + \frac{Y_A Y_B}{Y_C}$	$B = \frac{1}{Y_C}$ $D = 1 + \frac{Y_A}{Y_C}$	
$ \begin{array}{c c} i_1 & & i_2 \\ \hline v_1 & Z_0, \beta & v_2 \\ \hline d & & \end{array} $	$A = \cos \beta l$ $C = \frac{j \sin \beta l}{Z_0}$	$B = jZ_0 \sin \beta l$ $D = \cos \beta l$	
$ \begin{array}{c c} i_1 & N:1 & \stackrel{i_2}{\longleftarrow} \\ v_1 & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \end{array} $	A= N C= 0	$B=0$ $D=\frac{1}{N}$	

Conversion between different 2-port types

 Table 4-2
 Conversion between Different Network Representations

determinant

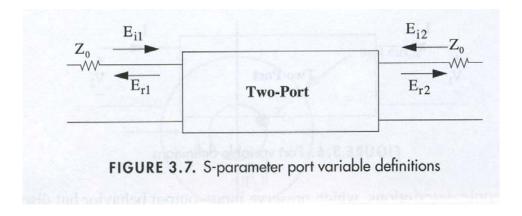
	[Z]	[Y]	[h]	[ABCD]
[Z]	$egin{array}{c} Z_{11} \ Z_{12} \ Z_{21} \ Z_{22} \end{array}$	$\frac{Z_{22}}{\Delta Z} - \frac{Z_{12}}{\Delta Z}$ $-\frac{Z_{21}}{\Delta Z} \frac{Z_{11}}{\Delta Z}$	$\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{\Delta Z} & \underline{Z}_{12} \\ \overline{Z}_{22} & \overline{Z}_{22} \\ \\ -\underline{Z}_{21} & \underline{1} \\ Z_{22} \end{array}$	$ \frac{Z_{11}}{Z_{21}} \frac{\Delta Z}{Z_{21}} \\ \frac{1}{Z_{21}} \frac{Z_{22}}{Z_{21}} $
[Y]	$\frac{Y_{22}}{\Delta Y} - \frac{Y_{12}}{\Delta Y}$ $-\frac{Y_{21}}{\Delta Y} \frac{Y_{11}}{\Delta Y}$	$Y_{11} \ Y_{12} \ Y_{21} \ Y_{22}$	$\frac{1}{Y_{11}} - \frac{Y_{12}}{Y_{11}}$ $\frac{Y_{21}}{Y_{11}} - \frac{\Delta Y}{Y_{11}}$	$-\frac{Y_{22}}{Y_{21}} - \frac{1}{Y_{21}} \\ -\frac{\Delta Y}{Y_{21}} - \frac{Y_{11}}{Y_{21}}$
[h]	$\begin{array}{ccc} \frac{\Delta h}{h_{22}} & \frac{h_{12}}{h_{22}} \\ -\frac{h_{21}}{h_{22}} & \frac{1}{h_{22}} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{ccc} \frac{1}{h_{11}} & -\frac{h_{12}}{h_{11}} \\ \frac{h_{21}}{h_{11}} & \frac{\Delta h}{h_{11}} \end{array}$	$h_{11} \ h_{12} \ h_{21} \ h_{22}$	$-\frac{\Delta h}{h_{21}} - \frac{h_{11}}{h_{21}} - \frac{h_{22}}{h_{21}} - \frac{1}{h_{21}}$
[ABCD]	$ \frac{A}{C} \frac{\Delta ABCD}{C} $ $ \frac{1}{C} \frac{D}{C} $	$\frac{D}{B} - \frac{\Delta ABCD}{B}$ $-\frac{1}{B} - \frac{A}{B}$	$ \frac{B}{D} \frac{\Delta ABCD}{D} $ $ \frac{1}{D} \frac{C}{D} $	A B C D

Two-ports at high frequencies

For high frequencies: Difficult to provide adequate shorts and opens due to reflections

Introduce: "scattering" parameters (S-parameters)

Then: line terminated in its characteristic impedance
→ gives no reflections!



S-parameters

- 2-port used for definition of S-parameters
- "Power waves" defined as

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{Z_0}}(V_n + Z_0 I_n) \tag{4.36a}$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{Z_0}}(V_n - Z_0 I_n)$$
 (4.36b)

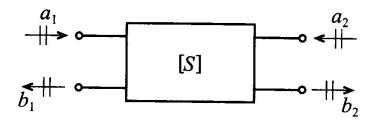


Figure 4-14 Convention used to define S-parameters for a two-port network.

Use incident and reflected voltage waves

The solution is waves in a positive and negative direction

$$V(z) = V^{+}e^{-kz} + V^{-}e^{+kz}$$
 (2.34)

$$I(z) = I^{+}e^{-kz} + I^{-}e^{+kz}$$
 (2.35)

$$I(z) = \frac{k}{(R+i\omega L)} (V^{+}e^{-kz} - V^{-}e^{+kz})$$
 (2.36) (Jmfr.2.27)

Characteristic line-impedance: $Z_0 = \frac{V^+}{I^+} = -\frac{V^-}{I^-}$

$$Z_0 = \frac{(R + j\omega L)}{k} = \sqrt{\frac{(R + j\omega L)}{(G + j\omega C)}}$$
 (2.37)

II.
$$I(z) = \frac{1}{Z_0} \left(V^{\dagger} e^{-kz} - V^{-} e^{+kz} \right)$$

I.
$$V^{+}e^{-kz} = V(z) - V^{-}e^{+kz}$$

I.
$$V^{+}e^{-kz} = \frac{1}{2}(V(z) + Z_0 I(z))$$

Define:
Incident power wave:
$$a_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{Z_o}} \cdot V_n^{\dagger} e^{-kz}$$
 Port
Reflected $-u - u - : b_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{Z_o}} \cdot V_n^{\dagger} e^{+kz}$
 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{Z_o}} = \text{scaling factor}$
I. $a_n = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{Z_o}} \cdot \left(V_n(z) + Z_o I_n(z) \right)$
If $b_n = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{Z_o}} \cdot \left(V_n(z) - Z_o I_n(z) \right)$
I+II. $a_n + b_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{Z_o}} \cdot V_n(z)$
 $a_n - b_n = \sqrt{Z_o} \cdot I_n(z)$

Calculate the power of the wave:

$$P_n = \frac{1}{2} Re \left\{ V_n \cdot I_n^{\dagger} \right\}$$
 $\frac{1}{2} \cdot V_n = \sqrt{2}_0 \left(a_n + b_n \right)$
 $\frac{1}{2} \cdot I_n = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[(a_n + b_n) + (b_n + b_n) \right]$
 $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[(a_n + b_n) + (b_n + b_n) \right]$
 $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[(a_n + b_n) + (a_n + b_n) \right]$
 $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[(a_n + b_n) + (a_n + b_n) \right]$
 $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[(a_n + b_n) + (a_n + b_n) \right]$
 $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[(a_n + b_n) + (a_n + b_n) \right]$

$$V_n \cdot I_n^* = (a_{nR} + b_{nR}) \cdot (a_{nR} - b_{nR}) + j() + j()$$

$$+ (a_{ni} + b_{ni}) \cdot (a_{ni} - b_{ni})$$

$$P_n = \frac{1}{2} R_e(V_n \cdot I_n^*) = \frac{1}{2} [(a_{nR} - b_{nR})^2 + (a_{ni} - b_{ni})^2]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} [(a_{nR} + a_{ni})^2 - (b_{nR} + b_{ni})^2]$$

$$P_n = \frac{1}{2} (|a_n|^2 - |b_n|^2) \quad n = 1, 2$$

$$Power of incident wave I$$

$$Power of reflected wave
$$I = square of magnitude$$

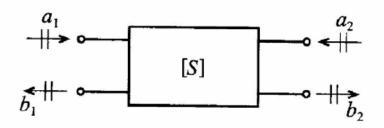
$$Normalizing by VZ_0 : convenient.$$$$

Definition of S-parameters, cont.

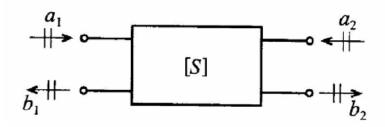
The power is:

$$P_n = \frac{1}{2} \text{Re}\{V_n I_n^*\} = \frac{1}{2} (|a_n|^2 - |b_n|^2)$$

S-parameters



Interpretation of S-parameters



$$S_{11} = \frac{b_1}{a_1}\Big|_{a_2 = 0} = \frac{\text{reflected power wave at port 1}}{\text{incident power wave at port 1}}$$
 (4.42a)

$$S_{21} = \frac{b_2}{a_1}\Big|_{a_2 = 0} \equiv \frac{\text{transmitted power wave at port 2}}{\text{incident power wave at port 1}}$$
 (4.42b)

$$S_{22} = \frac{b_2}{a_2}\Big|_{a_1 = 0} \equiv \frac{\text{reflected power wave at port 2}}{\text{incident power wave at port 2}}$$
 (4.42c)

$$S_{12} = \frac{b_1}{a_2}\Big|_{a_1 = 0} \equiv \frac{\text{transmitted power wave at port 1}}{\text{incident power wave at port 2}}$$
 (4.42d)

Measuring S-parameters

 S-parameters are measured when lines are terminated with their characteristic impedances

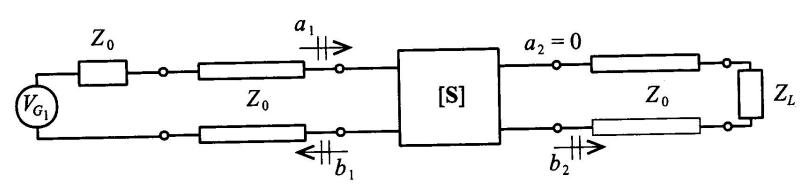


Figure 4-15 Measurement of S_{11} and S_{21} by matching the line impedance Z_0 at port 2 through a corresponding load impedance $Z_L = Z_0$.

Filters

Different filter types

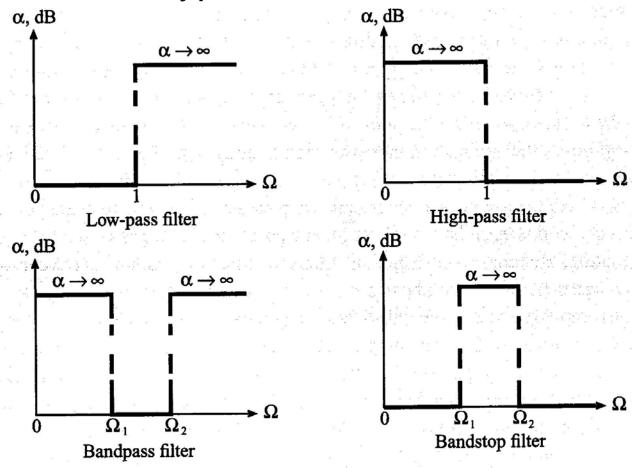


Figure 5-1 Four basic filter types.

Ex. of 3 different filter types

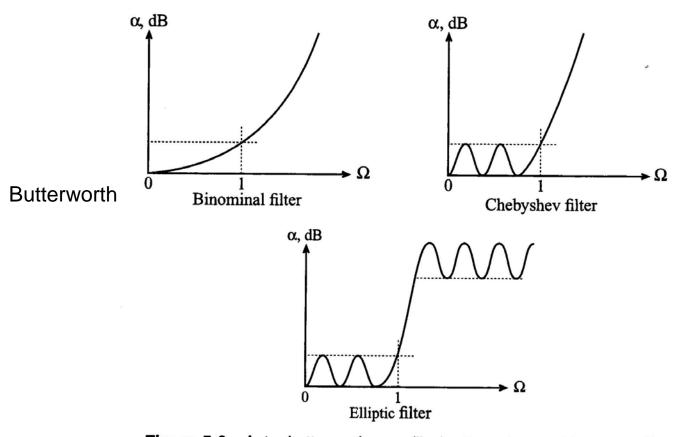


Figure 5-2 Actual attenuation profile for three types of low-pass filters.

Filter parameters

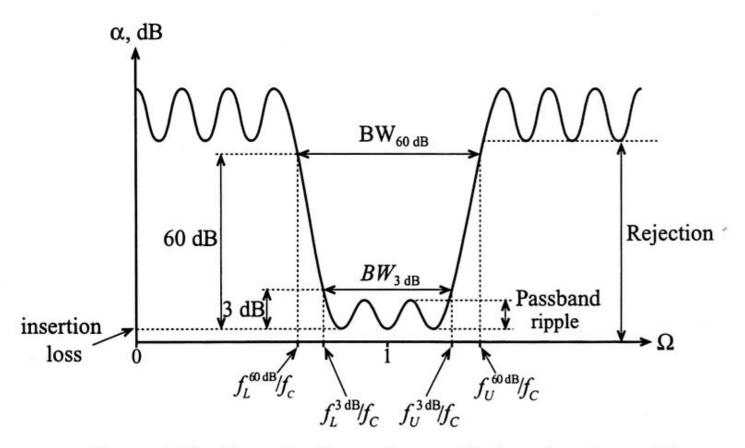


Figure 5-3 Generic attenuation profile for a bandpass filter.

Q-factor

Definition of Q-factor

$$Q = \omega \frac{\text{average stored energy}}{\text{energy loss per cycle}} \bigg|_{\omega = \omega_c} = \omega \frac{\text{average stored energy}}{\text{power loss}} \bigg|_{\omega = \omega_c} = \omega \frac{W_{\text{stored}}}{P_{\text{loss}}} \bigg|_{\omega = \omega_c}$$
(5.4)

- Different definitions of the Q-factor exist
 - The definitions are equivalent

$$Q_{LD} = \frac{f_c}{f_U^{3\text{dB}} - f_L^{3\text{dB}}} \equiv \frac{f_c}{BW^{3\text{dB}}}$$

Unloaded – loaded Q

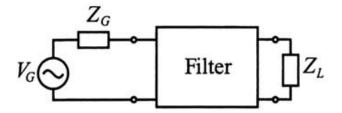


Figure 5-4 Filter as a two-port network connected to an RF source and load.

$$\frac{1}{Q_{LD}} = \frac{1}{\omega} \left(\frac{\text{power loss in filter}}{\text{average stored energy}} \right) \bigg|_{\omega = \omega_r} + \frac{1}{\omega} \left(\frac{\text{power loss in load}}{\text{average stored energy}} \right) \bigg|_{\omega = \omega_r}$$
 (5.5)

$$\frac{1}{Q_{LD}} = \frac{1}{Q_F} + \frac{1}{Q_E}$$

Q-factor is important for frequency stability

