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Recall that the electromagnetic spectrum is generally **full** of signals at all different **frequencies**.

Q: Yikes! How can we possibly do that?

A: Each signal has its own "IP address"—its carrier frequency  $\omega_0$ ! We can build devices that select or reject signals based on this carrier frequency.

HO: Filters

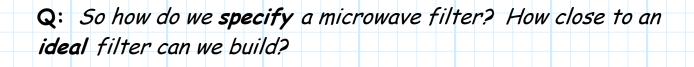
**HO: The Filter Phase Function** 

**Q:** Why do we give a darn about **phase** function  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$ ? After all, phase **doesn't** matter.

A:

**HO: Filter Dispersion** 

**HO: The Linear Phase Filter** 



A: HO: Microwave Filter Design

Q:

A: HO: The Filter Design Worksheet

HO: The Microwave Filter Spec Sheet

### **Filters**

A RF/microwave **filter** is (typically) a passive, reciprocal, 2-port linear device.



If port 2 of this device is terminated in a matched load, then we can relate the incident and output power as:

$$P_{out} = \left| S_{21} \right|^2 P_{inc}$$

We define this power transmission through a filter in terms of the power transmission coefficient T:

$$\mathbf{T} \doteq \frac{P_{out}}{P_{inc}} = \left| S_{21} \right|^2$$

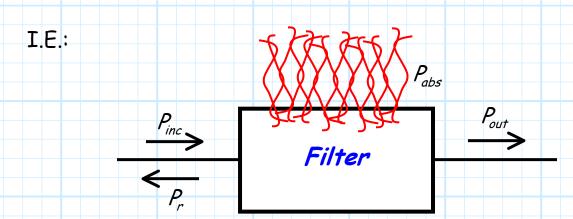
Since microwave filters are typically passive, we find that:

$$0 \le T \le 1$$

in other words,  $P_{out} \leq P_{inc}$ .

Q: What happens to the "missing" power  $P_{inc} - P_{out}$ ?

A: Two possibilities: the power is either absorbed  $(P_{abs})$  by the filter (converted to heat), or is **reflected**  $(P_r)$  at the input port.



Thus, by conservation of energy:

$$P_{inc} = P_r + P_{abs} + P_{out}$$

Now ideally, a microwave filter is lossless, therefore  $P_{abs}=0$  and:

$$P_{inc} = P_r + P_{out}$$

which alternatively can be written as:

$$\frac{P_{inc}}{P_{inc}} = \frac{P_r + P_{out}}{P_{inc}}$$

$$1 = \frac{P_r}{P_{inc}} + \frac{P_{out}}{P_{inc}}$$

Recall that  $P_{out}/P_{inc}=\mathbf{T}$ , and we can likewise **define**  $P_r/P_{inc}$  as the **power reflection coefficient**:

$$\Gamma \doteq \frac{P_r}{P_{inc}} = \left| S_{11} \right|^2$$

We again emphasize that the filter output port is terminated in a matched load.

Thus, we can conclude that for a lossless filter:

$$1 = \Gamma + T$$

Which is simply another way of saying for a lossless device that  $1 = |S_{11}|^2 + |S_{21}|^2$ .

Now, here's the important part!

For a microwave filter, the coefficients  $\Gamma$  and  $\Gamma$  are functions of frequency! I.E.,:

$$\Gamma(\omega)$$
 and  $\Gamma(\omega)$ 



The **behavior** of a microwave filter is described by these **functions**!

We find that for most signal frequencies  $\omega_s$ , these functions will have a value equal to one of two different approximate values.

Fither:

$$\Gamma(\omega=\omega_s)\approx 0$$

and 
$$T(\omega = \omega_s) \approx 1$$

or

$$\Gamma(\omega=\omega_s)\approx 1$$

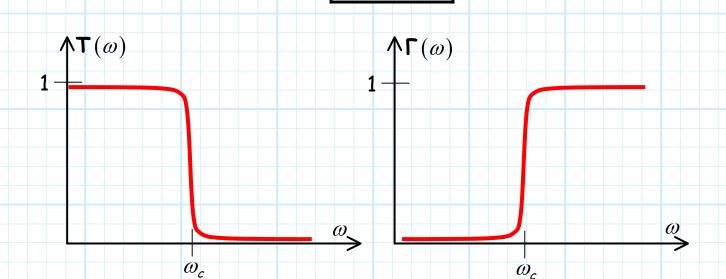
$$\Gamma(\omega = \omega_s) \approx 1$$
 and  $\Gamma(\omega = \omega_s) \approx 0$ 

In the **first** case, the signal frequency  $\omega_s$  is said to lie in the pass-band of the filter. Almost all of the incident signal power will pass through the filter.

In the **second** case, the signal frequency  $\omega_s$  is said to lie in the stop-band of the filter. Almost all of the incident signal power will be reflected at the input—almost no power will appear at the filter output.

Consider then these four types of functions of  $\Gamma(\omega)$  and  $\Gamma(\omega)$ :

#### 1. Low-Pass Filter



Note for this filter:

$$\mathbf{T}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 1 & \omega < \omega_c \\ \mathbf{T}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 0 & \omega < \omega_c \\ \approx 0 & \omega > \omega_c \end{cases}$$
 
$$\mathbf{\Gamma}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 0 & \omega < \omega_c \\ \approx 1 & \omega > \omega_c \end{cases}$$

This filter is a **low-pass** type, as it "passes" signals with frequencies **less** than  $\omega_c$ , while "rejecting" signals at frequencies greater than  $\omega_c$ .

Q: This frequency  $\omega_c$  seems to be very important! What is it?

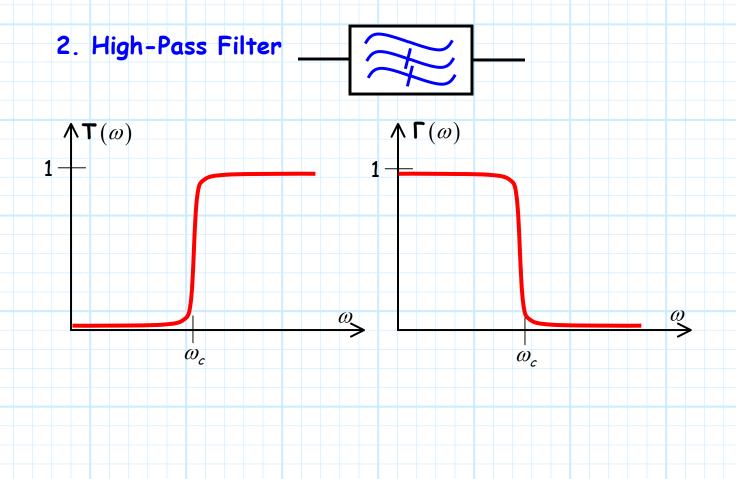
A: Frequency  $\omega_c$  is a filter parameter known as the **cutoff** frequency; a value that approximately defines the frequency region where the filter pass-band transitions into the filter stop band.

According, this frequency is defined as the frequency where the power transmission coefficient is equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$ :

$$T(\omega = \omega_c) = 0.5$$

Note for a lossless filter, the cutoff frequency is **likewise** the value where the power **reflection** coefficient is  $\frac{1}{2}$ :

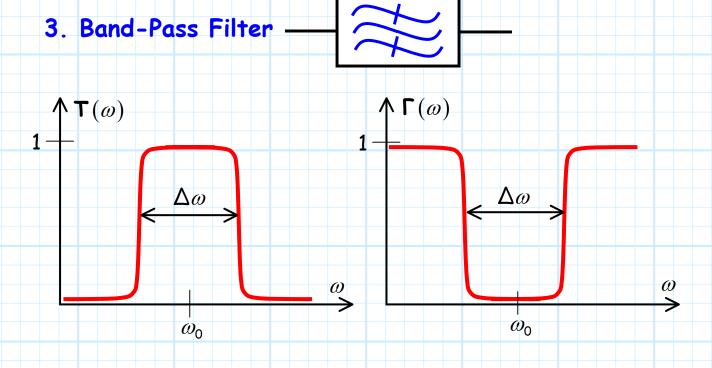
$$\Gamma(\omega = \omega_c) = 0.5$$



Note for this filter:

$$\mathbf{T}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 0 & \omega < \omega_c \\ \approx 1 & \omega > \omega_c \end{cases} \qquad \mathbf{\Gamma}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 1 & \omega < \omega_c \\ \approx 0 & \omega > \omega_c \end{cases}$$

This filter is a **high-pass** type, as it "**passes**" signals with frequencies **greater** than  $\omega_c$ , while "**rejecting**" signals at frequencies **less** than  $\omega_c$ .

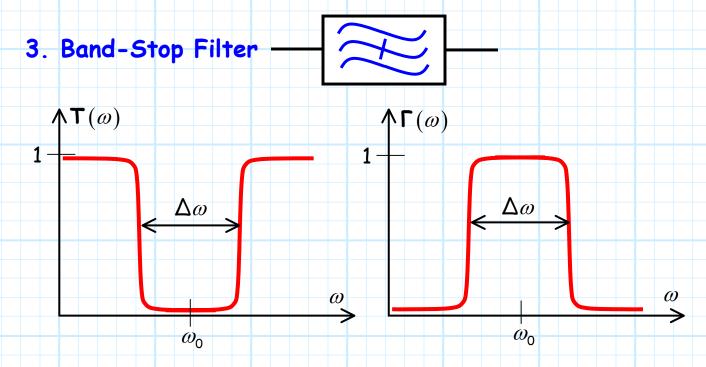


Note for this filter:

$$\mathbf{T}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 1 & |\omega - \omega_0| < \Delta \omega/2 \\ \approx 0 & |\omega - \omega_0| > \Delta \omega/2 \end{cases} \qquad \mathbf{\Gamma}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 0 & |\omega - \omega_0| < \Delta \omega/2 \\ \approx 1 & |\omega - \omega_0| < \Delta \omega/2 \end{cases}$$

This filter is a **band-pass** type, as it "passes" signals within a frequency bandwidth  $\Delta \omega$ , while "rejecting" signals at all frequencies outside this bandwidth.

In addition to filter bandwidth  $\Delta \omega$ , a fundamental parameter of bandpass filters is  $\omega_0$ , which defines the **center frequency** of the filter bandwidth.



Note for this filter:

$$\mathbf{T}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 0 & |\omega - \omega_0| < \Delta \omega/2 \\ \approx 1 & |\omega - \omega_0| > \Delta \omega/2 \end{cases} \qquad \mathbf{\Gamma}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 1 & |\omega - \omega_0| < \Delta \omega/2 \\ \approx 0 & |\omega - \omega_0| < \Delta \omega/2 \end{cases}$$

This filter is a **band-stop** type, as it "rejects" signals within a frequency bandwidth  $\Delta \omega$ , while "passing" signals at all frequencies outside this bandwidth.

# The Filter Phase Function

Recall that the power transmission coefficient  $T(\omega)$  can be determined from the scattering parameter  $S_{21}(\omega)$ :

$$T(\omega) = |S_{21}(\omega)|^2$$

Q: I see, we only care about the **magnitude** of complex function  $S_{21}(\omega)$  when using microwave filters!?

A: Hardly! Since  $S_{21}(\omega)$  is complex, it can be expressed in terms of its magnitude and **phase**:

$$S_{21}(\omega) = \text{Re}\left\{S_{21}(\omega)\right\} + j \text{Im}\left\{S_{21}(\omega)\right\}$$
$$= |S_{21}(\omega)| e^{j \angle S_{21}(\omega)}$$

where the phase is denoted as  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$ :

$$\angle S_{21}(\omega) = \tan^{-1} \left[ \frac{\operatorname{Im} \left\{ S_{21}(\omega) \right\}}{\operatorname{Re} \left\{ S_{21}(\omega) \right\}} \right]$$

We likewise care very much about this phase function!

Q: Just what does this phase tell us?

A: It describes the relative phase between the wave incident on the input to the filter, and the wave exiting the output of the filter (given the output port is matched).

In other words, if the incident wave is:

$$V_1^+(z_1) = V_{01}^+ e^{-j\beta z}$$

Then the exiting (output) wave will be:

$$V_{2}^{-}(z_{2}) = V_{02}^{-} e^{+j\beta z_{2}}$$

$$= S_{21} V_{01}^{-} e^{+j\beta z_{2}}$$

$$= |S_{21}| V_{01}^{-} e^{+j(\beta z + \angle S_{21})}$$

We say that there has been a "phase shift" of  $\angle S_{21}$  between the input and output waves.

Q: What causes this phase shift?

A: Propagation delay. It takes some non-zero amount of time for signal energy to propagate from the input of the filter to the output.

Q: Can we tell from  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$  how long this delay is?

A: Yes!

To see how, consider an **example** two-port network with the impulse response:

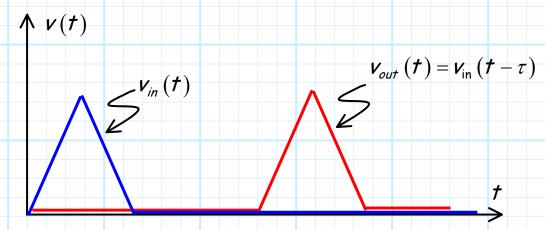
$$h(t) = \delta(t - \tau)$$

We determined earlier that this device would merely **delay** and input signal by some amount  $\tau$ :

$$v_{out}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t - t') v_{in}(t') dt'$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - t' - \tau) v_{in}(t') dt'$$

$$= v_{in}(t' - \tau)$$



Taking the Fourier transform of this impulse response, we find the frequency response of this two-port network is:

$$H(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t)e^{-j\omega t}dt$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t-\tau)e^{-j\omega t}dt$$
$$= e^{-j\omega\tau}$$

In other words:

$$|H(\omega)| = 1$$
 and  $\angle H(\omega) = -\omega \tau$ 

The interesting result here is the **phase**  $\angle H(\omega)$ . The result means that a delay of  $\tau$  seconds results in an output "phase shift" of  $-\omega \tau$  radians!

Note that although the **delay** of device is a **constant**  $\tau$ , the **phase shift** is a **function** of  $\omega$ --in fact, it is directly proportional to frequency  $\omega$ .

Note if the input signal for this device was of the form:

$$V_{in}(t) = \cos \omega t$$

Then the output would be:

Thus, we could **either** view the signal  $v_{in}(t) = \cos \omega t$  as being delayed by an amount  $\tau$  seconds, **or** phase shifted by an amount  $-\omega \tau$  radians.

Q: So, by **measuring** the output signal phase shift  $\angle H(\omega)$ , we could determine the delay  $\tau$  through the device with the equation:

$$\tau = -\frac{\angle \mathcal{H}(\omega)}{\omega}$$

right?

A: Not exactly. The problem is that we cannot unambiguously determine the phase shift  $\angle H(\omega) = -\omega \tau$  by looking at the output signal!

The reason is that  $\cos(\omega t + \angle H(\omega)) = \cos(\omega t + \angle H(\omega) + 2\pi)$ =  $\cos(\omega t + \angle H(\omega) - 4\pi)$ , etc. More specifically:

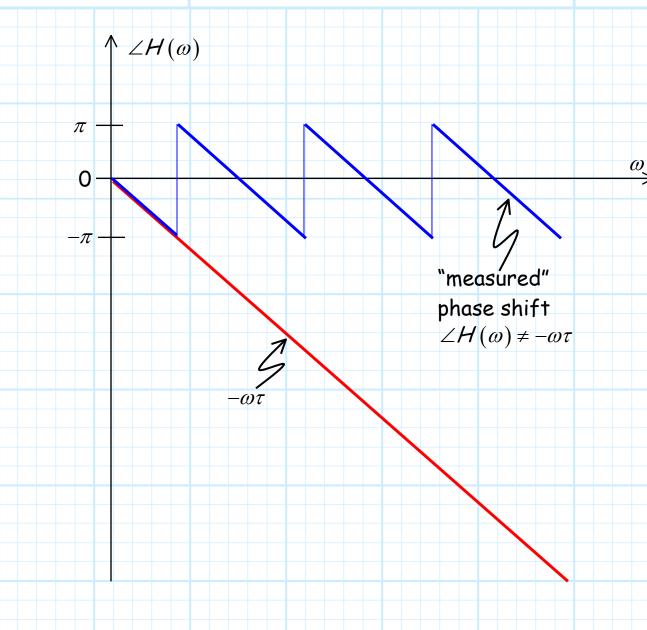
$$cos(\omega t + \angle H(\omega)) = cos(\omega t + \angle H(\omega) + n2\pi)$$

where n is any integer—positive or negative. We can't tell which of these output signal we are looking at!

Thus, any phase shift measurement has an inherent ambiguity. Typically, we interpret a phase measurement (in radians) such that:

$$-\pi < \angle H(\omega) \le \pi$$
 or  $0 \le \angle H(\omega) < 2\pi$ 

But almost certainly the actual value of  $\angle H(\omega) = -\omega \tau$  is nowhere near these interpretations!



Clearly, using the equation:

$$\tau = -\frac{\angle H(\omega)}{\omega}$$

would **not** get us the correct result in this case—after all, there will be **several** frequencies  $\omega$  with exactly the **same measured** phase  $\angle H(\omega)!$ 

Q: So determining the delay  $\tau$  is impossible?

A: NO! It is entirely possible—we simply must find the correct method.

Looking at the plot on the previous page, this method should become **apparent**. Not that although the measured phase (blue curve) is definitely **not** equal to the phase function  $-\omega \tau$  (red curve), the **slope** of the two are **identical** at every point!

Q: What good is knowing the slope of these functions?

A: Just look! Recall that we can determine the slope by taking the first derivative:

$$\frac{\partial \left(-\omega \,\tau\right)}{\partial \omega} = -\tau$$

The slope directly tells us the propagation delay!

Thus, we can determine the propagation delay of this device by:

$$\tau = -\frac{\partial \angle \mathcal{H}(\omega)}{\partial \omega}$$

where  $\angle H(\omega)$  can be the **measured** phase. Of course, the method requires us to **measure**  $\angle H(\omega)$  as a **function** of frequency (i.e., to make measurements at **many** signal frequencies).

Q: Now I see! If we wish to determine the propagation delay  $\tau$  through some **filter**, we simply need to take the derivative of  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$  with respect to frequency. **Right?** 

A: Well, sort of.

Recall for the **example** case that  $h(t) = \delta(t - \tau)$  and  $\angle H(\omega) = -\omega \tau$ , where  $\tau$  is a **constant**. For a microwave filter, **neither** of these conditions are true.

Specifically, the phase function  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$  will typically be some arbitrary function of frequency  $(\angle S_{21}(\omega) \neq -\omega\tau)$ .

Q: How could this be true? I thought you said that phase shift was **due** to filter delay  $\tau$ !

A: Phase shift is due to device delay, it's just that the propagation delay of most devices (such as filters) is not a constant, but instead depends on the frequency of the signal propagating through it!

In other words, the propagation delay of a filter is typically some arbitrary **function** of frequency (i.e.,  $\tau(\omega)$ ). That's why the phase  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$  is **likewise** an arbitrary function of frequency.

Q: Yikes! Is there any way to determine the relationship between these two arbitrary functions?

A: Yes there is! Just as before, the two can be related by a first derivative:

$$\tau(\omega) = -\frac{\partial \angle S_{21}(\omega)}{\partial \omega}$$

This result  $\tau(\omega)$  is also know as **phase delay**, and is a **very** important function to consider when designing/specifying/selecting a microwave **filter**.

Q: Why; what might happen?

A: If you get a filter with the wrong  $\tau(\omega)$ , your **output** signal could be horribly **distorted**—distorted by the evil effects of signal dispersion!

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### Filter Dispersion

Any signal that carries significant information must has some non-zero bandwidth. In other words, the signal energy (as well as the information it carries) is spread across many frequencies.

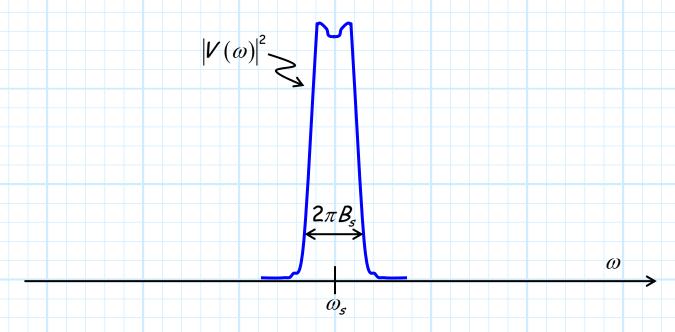
If the different frequencies that comprise a signal propagate at different velocities through a microwave filter (i.e., each signal frequency has a different delay  $\tau$ ), the output signal will be **distorted**. We call this phenomenon signal **dispersion**.

Q: I see! The phase delay  $\tau(\omega)$  of a filter **must** be a constant with respect to frequency—otherwise signal dispersion (and thus signal distortion) will result. Right?

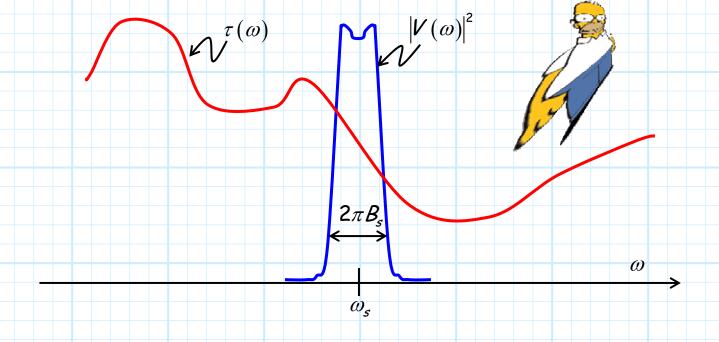
A: Not necessarily! Although a constant phase delay will insure that the output signal is not distorted, it is not strictly a requirement for that happy event to occur.

This is a **good** thing, for as we shall latter see, building a good filter with a constant phase delay is **very** difficult!

For example, consider a modulated signal with the following frequency spectrum, exhibiting a bandwidth of  $B_s$  Hertz.



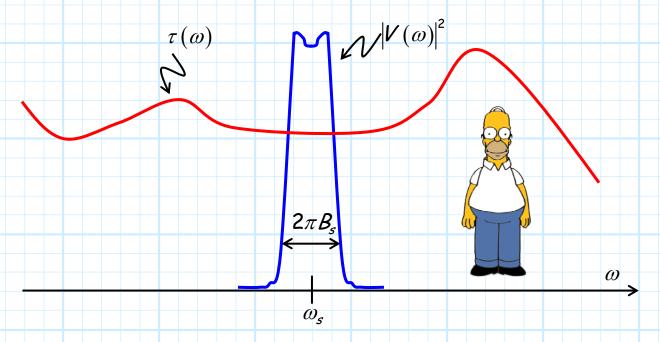
Now, let's likewise plot the **phase delay** function  $\tau(\omega)$  of some filter:



Note that for this case the filter phase delay is **nowhere** near a constant with respect to frequency.

However, this fact alone does **not** necessarily mean that our signal would suffer from **dispersion** if it passed through this filter. Indeed, the signal in this case **would** be distorted, but **only** because the phase delay  $\tau(\omega)$  changes significantly across the **bandwidth**  $\mathcal{B}_s$  of the signal.

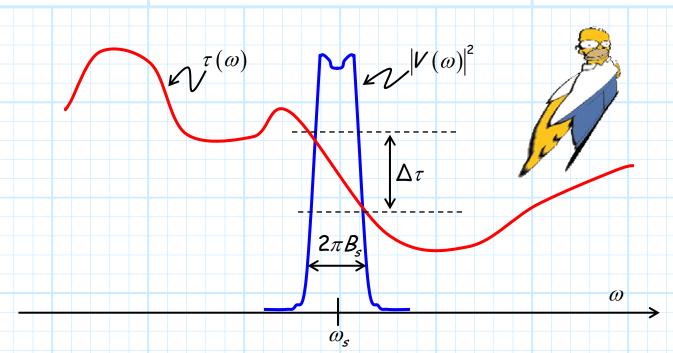
Conversely, consider this phase delay:



As with the previous case, the phase delay of the filter is **not** a constant. Yet, if this signal were to pass through this filter, it would **not** be distorted!

The reason for this is that the phase delay across the **signal** bandwidth is approximately constant—each frequency component of the **signal** will be delayed by the **same** amount.

Compare this to the **previous** case, where the phase delay changes by a precipitous value  $\Delta \tau$  across signal bandwidth  $B_s$ :



Now this is a case where dispersion will result!

Q: So does  $\Delta \tau$  need to be **precisely** zero for no signal distortion to occur, or is there some **minimum** amount  $\Delta \tau$  that is acceptable?

A: Mathematically, we find that dispersion will be insignificant if:

$$B_s \Delta \tau \ll 1$$

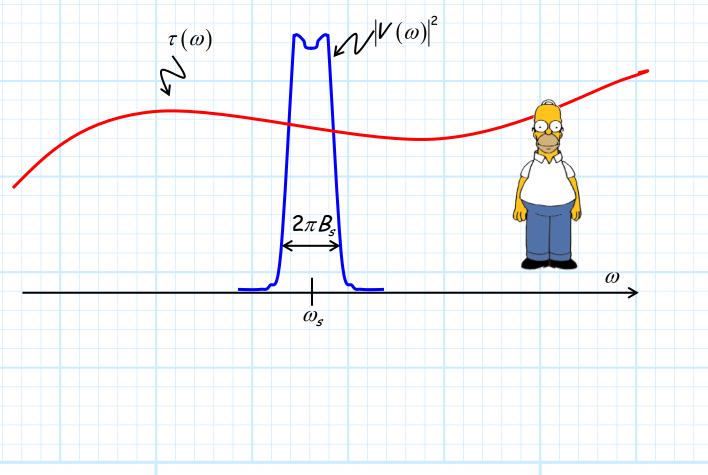
A more specific (but subjective) "rule of thumb" is:

$$B_s \Delta \tau < 0.1$$

Generally speaking, we find for wideband filters—where filter bandwidth B is much greater than the signal bandwidth (i.e.,  $B \gg B_s$ )—the above criteria is easily satisfied. In other words, signal dispersion is not typically a problem for wide band filters (e.g., preselector filters).

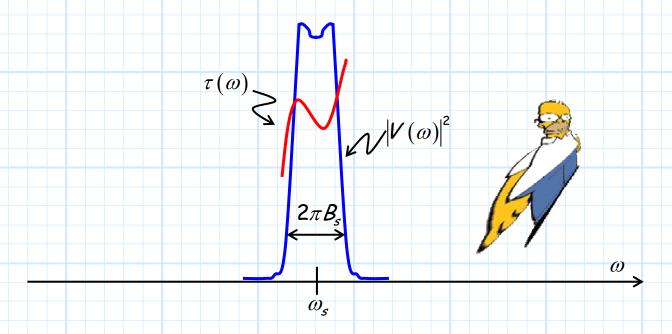
This is **not** to say that  $\tau(\omega)$  is a constant for wide band filters. Instead, the phase delay can change **significantly** across the wide **filter** bandwith.

What we typically find however, is that the function  $\tau(\omega)$  does not change very **rapidly** across the wide filter bandwidth. As a result, the phase delay will be **approximately** constant across the relatively narrow signal bandwidth  $\mathcal{B}_s$ .



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Conversely, a narrowband filter—where filter bandwidth B is approximately equal to the signal bandwidth (i.e.,  $B_s \approx B$ )—can (if we're not careful!) exhibit a phase delay which likewise changes significantly over filter bandwidth B. This means of course that it also changes significantly over the signal bandwidth  $B_s$ !



Thus, a narrowband filter (e.g., IF filter) must exhibit a near constant phase delay  $\tau(\omega)$  in order to avoid distortion due to signal dispersion!

### The Linear Phase Filter

Q: So, narrowband filters should exhibit a **constant** phase delay  $\tau(\omega)$ . What should the phase function  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$  be for this **dispersionless** case?

A: We can express this problem mathematically as requiring:

$$\tau(\omega) = \tau_c$$

where  $\tau_c$  is some constant.

Recall that the definition of phase delay is:

$$\tau(\omega) = -\frac{\partial \angle S_{21}(\omega)}{\partial \omega}$$

and thus combining these two equations, we find ourselves with a differential equation:

$$-\frac{\partial \angle S_{21}(\omega)}{\partial \omega} = \tau_c$$

The **solution** to this differential equation provides us with the necessary phase function  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$  for a **constant** phase delay  $\tau_c$ .

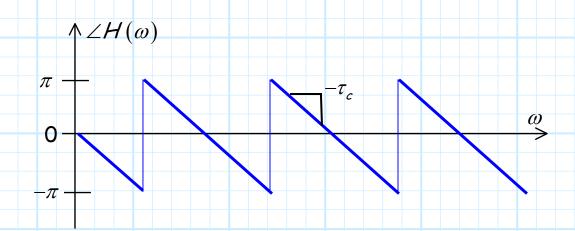
Fortunately, this differential equation is easily solved!

The solution is:

$$\angle S_{21}(\omega) = -\omega \tau_c + \phi_c$$

where  $\phi_c$  is an arbitrary constant.

Plotting this phase function (with  $\phi_c = 0$ ):



As you likely expected, this phase function is linear, such that it has a constant slope  $(-\tau_c)$ .

Filters with this phase response are called **linear** phase filters, and have the desirable trait that they cause no dispersion distortion.

## Microwave Filter Design

Recall that a **lossless** filter can be described in terms of either its power transmission coefficient  $T(\omega)$  or its power reflection coefficient  $\Gamma(\omega)$ , as the two values are completely **dependent**:

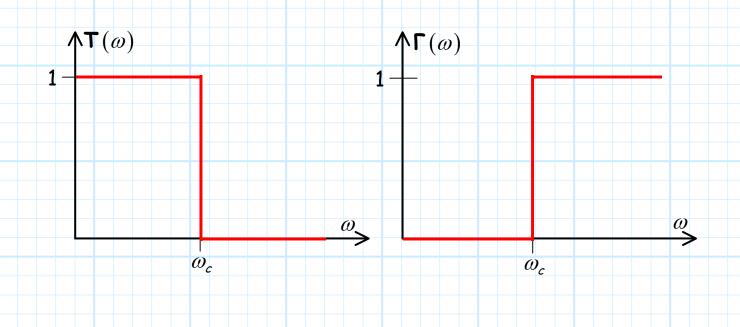
$$\Gamma(\omega) = 1 - \Gamma(\omega)$$

Ideally, these functions would be quite simple:

1.  $T(\omega) = 1$  and  $\Gamma(\omega) = 0$  for all frequencies within the passband.

2.  $T(\omega) = 0$  and  $\Gamma(\omega) = 1$  for all frequencies within the stopband.

For example, the ideal low-pass filter would be:



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Add to this a linear phase response, and you have the perfect microwave filter!

There's just one small problem with this **perfect** filter > It's **impossible** to build!

Now, if we consider only possible (i.e., realizable) filters, we must limit ourselves to filter functions that can be expressed as finite polynomials of the form:

$$\mathbf{T}(\omega) = \frac{a_0 + a_1 \omega + a_2 \omega^2 + \cdots}{b_0 + b_1 \omega + b_2 \omega^2 + \cdots + b_N \omega^N}$$

The order Nof the (denominator) polynomial is likewise the order of the filter.

There are many different **types** of polynomials that result in good filter responses, and each type has its own set of **characteristics**.

The type of **polynomial** likewise describes the type of microwave **filter**. Let's consider **three** of the most popular types:

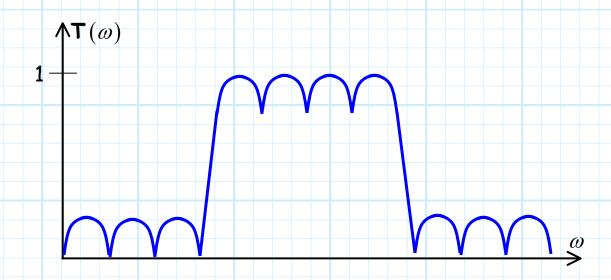
#### 1. Elliptical



Elliptical filters have three primary characteristics:

a) They exhibit very **steep** "roll-off", meaning that the transition from pass-band to stop-band is very rapid.

- b) They exhibit **ripple** in the **pass**-band, meaning that the value of **T** will vary slightly within the pass-band.
- c) They exhibit ripple in the **stop**-band, meaning that the value of **T** will vary slightly within the stop-band.

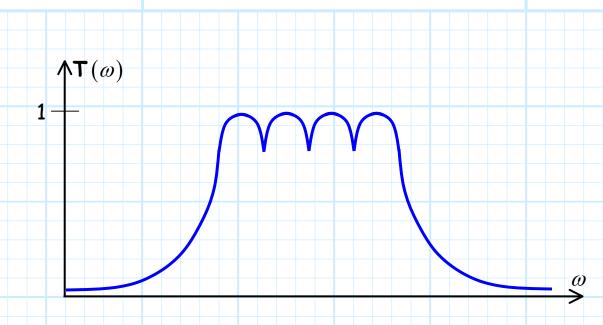


We find that we can make the roll-off steeper by accepting more ripple.

#### 2. Chebychev

Chebychev filters are also known as equal-ripple filters, and have two primary characteristics

- a) Steep roll-off (but not as steep as Elliptical).
- b) Pass-band ripple (but not stop-band ripple).

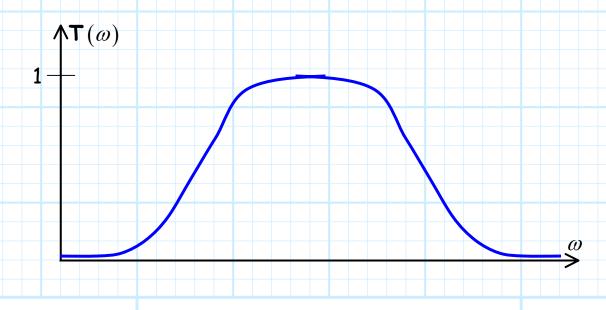


We likewise find that the roll-off can be made steeper by accepting more ripple.

#### 3. Butterworth

Also known as **maximally flat** filters, they have two primary characteristics

- a) Gradual roll-off.
- b) No ripple—not anywhere.



Q: So we always chose elliptical filters; since they have the steepest roll-off, they are closest to ideal—right?

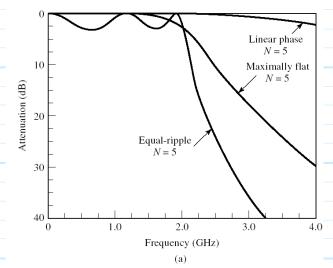
A: Ooops! I forgot to talk about the **phase response**  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$  of these filters. Let's examine  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$  for each filter type **before** we pass judgment.

Butterworth  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$   $\rightarrow$  Close to linear phase.

Chebychev  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$ 

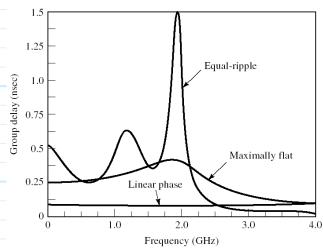
> Not very linear.

Elliptical  $\angle S_{21}(\omega) \rightarrow A$  big non-linear **mess!** 



Thus, it is apparent that as a filter roll-off improves, the phase response gets worse (watch out for dispersion!).

→ There is no such thing as the "best" filter type!



Q: So, a filter with perfectly linear phase is impossible to construct?

A: No, it is possible to construct a filter with near perfect linear phase—but it will exhibit a horribly poor roll-off!

Now, for any **type** of filter, we can **improve** roll-off (i.e., increase stop-band attenuation) by **increasing the filter order** N. However, be aware that increasing the filter order likewise has these **deleterious** effects:

- 1. It makes phase response  $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$  worse (i.e., more non-linear).
- 2. It increases filter cost, weight, and size.
- 3. It increases filter insertion loss (this is bad).
- 4. It makes filter performance more sensitive to temperature, aging, etc.

From a **practical** viewpoint, the **order** of a filter should typically be kept to N < 10.

Q: So exactly what are these filter polynomials  $T(\omega)$ ? How do we determine them?

A: Fortunately, radio engineers do not need to determine specific filter polynomials in order to specify (to filter manufacturers) what they want built.

Instead, radio engineers simply can specify the **type** and **order** of a filter, saying things like:

or	"I need a <b>3</b> <sup>rd</sup> -order Chebychev filter!"
or	"Get me a 5 <sup>th</sup> -order Butterworth filter!"
	" I wish I'd paid <b>more</b> attention in EECS 622!"
The	us, the most <b>important</b> filter specifications are:
	1. Filter bandwidth and center frequency
	2. Filter type and order.
	wever, there are <b>many more</b> important filter ecifications!

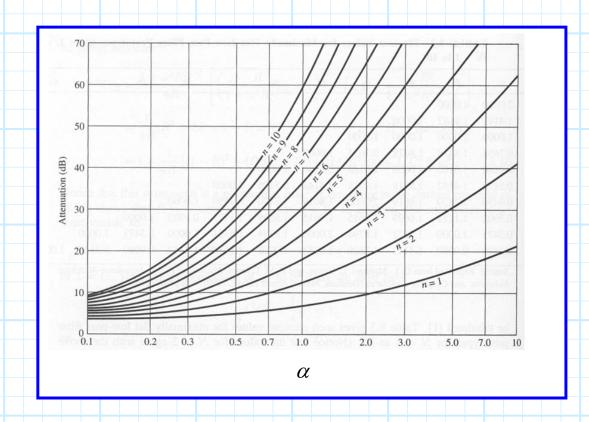
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### Filter Design Worksheet

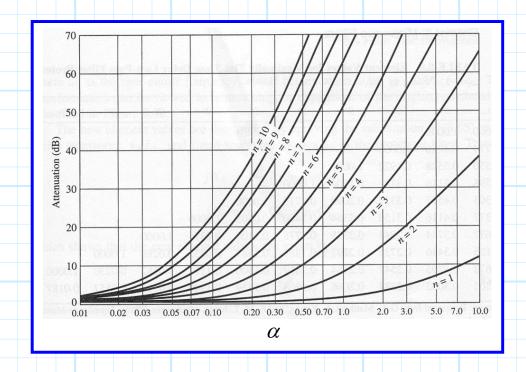
Q: Given the order of a Butterworth or Chebychev bandpass filter, what will my stop band attenuation be? Or stated another way, what should the order of my filter be, in order to achieve a desired amount of stop-band attenuation  $(-10\log_{10}\mathbf{T}(\omega))$ ?

A: Consult the normalized attenuation charts (They're in your book)!

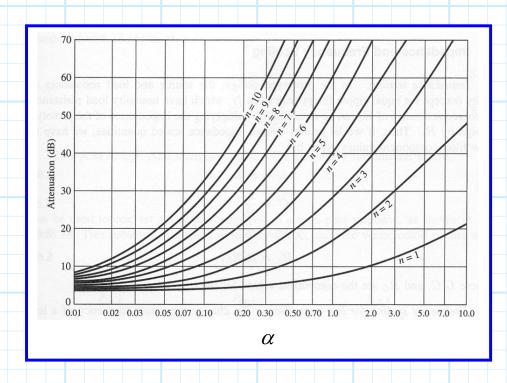
For example, the normalized attenuation chart for a **Butterworth** filter is:



While the normalized attenuation chart for a Chebychev with 0.5 dB of passband ripple is:



And the normalized attenuation chart for a Chebychev with 3.0 dB of passband ripple is:



Q: Great, how the heck do I use these??

A: The variable  $\alpha$  is a **normalized** frequency variable. The plots show attenuation versus frequency for a filter of **order** n.

Say we have a **bandpass filter**, whose (3 dB) passband extends from  $f_1$  to  $f_2$  ( $f_2 > f_1$ ). The bandwidth of this filter would therefore be  $f_2 - f_1$ .

Using these values, we can define a normalized frequency  $\alpha$  as:

$$\alpha = \left| \frac{1}{\Delta} \left( \frac{f}{f_0} - \frac{f_0}{f} \right) \right| - 1$$

where:

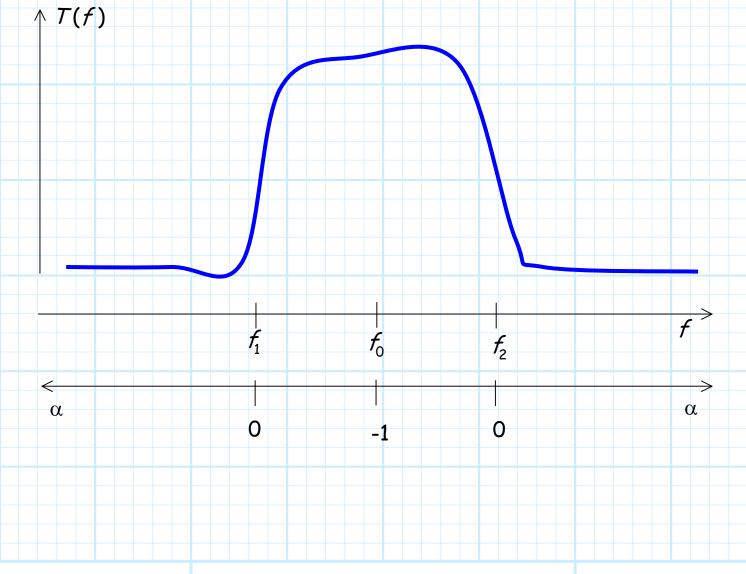
$$f_0 = \sqrt{f_1 f_2}$$

$$\Delta = \frac{f_2 - f_1}{f_0}$$

Thus, given a frequency f, we can calculate a value  $\alpha$ .

- \* It turns out that all frequencies f outside the pass band of the filter will have **positive** values of  $\alpha$ , while frequencies within the pass band will result in **negative** values of  $\alpha$ .
- \* Accordingly, if  $f = f_1$  or  $f = f_2$ , the value of  $\alpha$  will be **zero** (try it!).

- \* As a result, the attenuation charts give answers for positive values of  $\alpha$  only, corresponding to frequencies in the stop band.
- \* In other words, the attenuation charts provide information about the stop band attenuation only. Note as  $\alpha$  gets larger, the attenuation for all filter orders increases.
- \* This makes since, as an increasing  $\alpha$  corresponds to a frequency f either greater than  $f_2$  and increasing, or a frequency f less than  $f_1$  and decreasing.



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For **example**, consider a Butterworth bandpass filter whose passband extends from 1 GHz to 4 GHz.

Therefore,  $f_1$  = 1 GHz and  $f_2$  = 4 GHz, resulting in  $f_0$  = 2 GHz and  $\Delta$  = 1.5.

Q1: By how much is a 500 MHz signal attenuated if the filter has order n=6?

For  $f = 0.5 \, GHz$ :

$$\alpha = \left| \frac{1}{\Delta} \left( \frac{f}{f_0} - \frac{f_0}{f} \right) \right| - 1$$

$$= \left| \frac{1}{1.5} \left( \frac{0.5}{2.0} - \frac{2.0}{0.5} \right) \right| - 1$$

$$= 1.5$$

It appears from the attenuation chart that this filter attenuates a 500 MHz signal approximately 50 dB.

Q2: What should the filter order n be, if we need to attenuate signals at 6.6 GHz by at least 40 dB?

For f = 8 GHz:

$$\alpha = \left| \frac{1}{\Delta} \left( \frac{f}{f_0} - \frac{f_0}{f} \right) \right| - 1$$

$$= \left| \frac{1}{1.5} \left( \frac{6.6}{2.0} - \frac{2.0}{6.6} \right) \right| - 1$$

$$= 1.0$$

Again from the chart, we find at  $\alpha$  = 1.0, a filter with order n =7 (or higher) will attenuate a 6.6 GHz signal by more than 40 dB.

Now you too can determine filter attenuation and /or order. I hope you've been paying attention!!



# Filter Spec Sheet

#### Kind

Low-pass, high-pass, band-pass, stop-band.

Bandwidth (Hz)

Center Frequency (Hz)

Relevant only for band-pass and stop-band.

Type

Chebychev, Butterworth, etc.

Order

Input/Ouput Impedance

This describes the input impedance for pass-band frequencies.

Insertion Loss (dB)

Insertion Loss is the value of  $T(\omega)$  in the pass band, expressed in decibels.

$$IL = -10\log_{10} \mathbf{T}(\omega)$$

Although ideally this would be 0 dB ( $T(\omega) = 1$ ), we find that there is always a **little** bit of power **absorbed** by the filter, and thus  $T(\omega)$  is slightly less than one (again, **in the passband**).

As a result, the insertion loss of most filters is **typically** 1 dB or less (e.g., 0.2 dB), but can approach 2 or 3 dB for filters of very **high order** N.

#### Maximum Input Power (Watts)

You can only put so much signal power into a passive filter! Exceeding this spec will typically result in filter destruction.

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