

射频电子学

电路及其应用

(英文版)

JON B. HAGEN

**RADIO-FREQUENCY
ELECTRONICS**

Circuits and Applications

(美)

Jon B. Hagen

康奈尔大学

著



机械工业出版社
China Machine Press

经典原版书库

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PREFACE

This book was written to prepare the reader to analyze and design radio-frequency (RF) circuits. Developed as a text for a one-semester electrical engineering course at Cornell University, it can also be used for self-study and as a reference for practicing engineers. The discussions of systems, for example television and radio astronomy, complement the detailed analyses of the basic circuit blocks. In the discussions of these basic circuits, I have tried to convey an intuitive understanding from which mathematical analysis easily follows. The scope of topics is wide, and the level of analysis ranges from introductory to advanced. This seems to suit today's students who, though unfamiliar with radio-frequency circuits, are well prepared in engineering fundamentals and have good analytical skills. The only background assumed is basic engineering mathematics and physics, linear circuit analysis, and some elementary analog electronics. Many readers will have had more digital than analog experience, so the digital aspects of switching modulators and direct digital synthesizers are given only short explanations. On the other hand, some basic analog circuit elements such as transformers are now less commonly understood and are therefore reviewed in detail.

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Jon B. Hagen

Ithaca, NY
October 1996

CONTENTS

<i>Preface</i>	<i>page iii</i>
1 INTRODUCTION	1
RF Circuits	2
Narrow-Band Nature of RF Signals	3
AC Circuit Analysis – A Brief Review	3
Impedance and Admittance	4
Series Resonance	4
Parallel Resonance	5
Nonlinear Circuits	5
Problems	5
2 IMPEDANCE MATCHING I	9
Transformer Matching	9
L-Networks	10
Quick Design Procedure for L-Networks	12
Higher Q : Pi and T Networks	13
Lower Q : The Double L-Network	14
Equivalent Series and Parallel Circuits	15
Lossy Reactors and Efficiency of Matching Networks	16
Q -Factor Summary	16
Problems	17
3 LINEAR AMPLIFIERS	19
Single-Loop Amplifiers	19
The Emitter Follower	20
Common-Emitter and Common-Base Amplifiers	21
One Transistor, Two Supplies	22
Two Transistors, Two Supplies	23
AC Amplifiers	25
Audio Amplifiers	25
RF Amplifiers	27
A Note on Matching a Power Amplifier to its Load	29
Problems	29
4 FILTERS I	32
Prototype Low-Pass Filters	33
A Low-Pass Filter Example	34
Conversion to Bandpass Filters	37

Bibliography	39
Appendix 4.1	40
Problems	43
5 FREQUENCY CONVERTERS	46
The Ideal Multiplier as a Mixer	46
Switching Mixers	48
General Nonlinear Device Mixer	50
Diode Mixer	51
Problems	52
6 RADIO RECEIVERS	54
The Basic Requirements	54
Amplification	54
Crystal Sets	55
TRF Receivers	55
The Superheterodyne Receiver	56
Image Rejection	57
Solving the Image Problem	58
Double Conversion Superheterodyne Receiver	59
Automatic Gain Control	60
Noise Blankers	60
Digital Signal Processing in Receivers	60
Bibliography	61
Problems	61
7 CLASS-C AND CLASS-D AMPLIFIERS	63
Class-C Amplifiers	63
Simplified Analysis of Class-C Operation	64
General Analysis of a Class-C Operation with a Nonideal Tube or Transistor	66
Drive Considerations	67
Series-Fed and Shunt-Fed Circuits	67
The Class-C Amplifier as a Voltage Multiplier	68
High-Power Class-C Amplifiers	68
Modified Class-C Amplifiers for Higher Efficiency	69
Class-D Amplifiers	69
Series Resonant Class-D Amplifier	69
Parallel Resonant Class-D Amplifier	71
Which Circuit to Use: Class C or Class D?	71
Bibliography	72
Problems	72
8 TRANSMISSION LINES	73
Fundamentals	73
Determination of Characteristic Impedance and Propagation Velocity	74
Modification of an Impedance by a Transmission Line	76
Problems	78

9 IMPEDANCE MATCHING II	81
Impedances Specified by Reflection Coefficient	81
Problems	87
10 POWER SUPPLIES	89
Full-Wave Rectifier	89
Inherent Regulation of the Choke-Input Power Supply	90
Ripple	91
Half-Wave Rectifier	91
Electronically Regulated Power Supplies	92
Three-Phase Rectifiers	93
Problems	94
11 AMPLITUDE MODULATION	97
AM in the Time Domain	97
AM in the Frequency Domain	99
High-Level Modulation	100
Class-A Modulator	101
Class-B Modulator	101
Class-S Modulator	102
Digital-to-Analog Modulator	103
Current Practice	104
Problems	104
12 SUPPRESSED CARRIER AM	106
Single Sideband	108
Product Detector	108
Other Advantages of SSB	109
Generation of SSB	110
Filter Method	110
Phasing Method	110
Weaver Method	111
SSB with Class-C or Class-D Amplifiers	112
Bibliography	112
Problems	113
13 OSCILLATORS	115
Relaxation Oscillators	115
Sine Wave Electronic Oscillators	117
An Unintentional Oscillator	119
Series Resonant Oscillators	120
Negative-Resistance Oscillators	121
Oscillator Dynamics	122
Stability	123
Design Example – Colpitts Oscillator	123
Numerical Example	125
Problems	126

14 PHASE LOCK LOOPS	128
Phase Adjustment by Means of Frequency Control	128
Mechanical Analog of a PLL	130
Loop Dynamics	132
Loop Filter	132
Linear Analysis of the PLL	133
Frequency Response of the Type I Loop	134
Frequency Response of the Type II Loop	134
Transient Response	135
Multiplier as a Phase Detector	136
Range and Stability	137
Acquisition Time	137
PLL Receiver	138
Bibliography	139
Problems	139
15 FREQUENCY SYNTHESIZERS	141
Direct Synthesis	141
Mix and Divide Direct Synthesis	142
Indirect Synthesis	143
Direct Digital Synthesis	144
Noise Spectrum of the DDS	145
Switching Speed and Phase Continuity	147
Phase Noise from Multipliers and Dividers	147
Bibliography	148
Problems	148
16 SWITCHING CONVERTERS	150
Basic Switcher Topologies	150
Buck Circuit	150
Continuous Mode	150
Discontinuous Mode	151
Buck/Boost Circuit	152
Continuous Mode	152
Discontinuous Mode	153
Boost Circuit	154
Continuous Mode	154
Discontinuous Mode	154
Other Converter Topologies	155
Transformer-Coupled Converters	155
The Horizontal Output Circuit in Cathode Ray Tube Terminals and Television Sets	157
Bibliography	159
Problems	159
17 DIRECTIONAL POWER METERS AND STANDING WAVES	161
An In-Line Directional Wattmeter	161
Resistive Impedance Bridge	163

Standing Waves	164
Effect of Standing Waves on an Antenna Transmission Line	165
Problems	165
18 SMALL-SIGNAL RF AMPLIFIERS	167
Linear Two-Port Networks	167
Amplifier Specifications – Gain, Bandwidth, and Impedances	168
Amplifier Stability	169
Overload Characteristics	170
Intermodulation	170
Dynamic Range	171
Narrow-Band Amplifier Circuits	172
Wide-Band Amplifier Circuits	172
Transistor Equivalent Circuits	173
Amplifier Design	174
Simple Low-Frequency Amplifiers	174
Common-Base Amplifier	175
Bibliography	176
Problems	176
19 FILTERS II – COUPLED RESONATOR FILTERS	178
Impedance Inverters	179
Worked Example – A Bandpass Filter with 1% Fractional Bandwidth	182
Effects of Finite Q	184
Tuning Procedures	185
Other Filters	186
Bibliography	186
Problems	186
20 HYBRID COUPLERS	188
Directional Coupling	189
Transformer Hybrid	189
Applications of the Transformer Hybrid	190
Quadrature Hybrids	191
Balanced Amplifier	192
Power Combining	194
Other Hybrids	195
Wilkinson Power Divider (or combiner)	195
Ring Hybrid	195
Branch Line Hybrids	196
Lumped Element Hybrids	196
General Directional Couplers	198
Bibliography	198
Problems	199
21 AMPLIFIER NOISE I	201
Thermal Noise	201
Noise Figure	203

Cascaded Amplifiers	204
Other Noise Parameters	205
Noise Figure Measurement	206
Problems	206
22 TRANSFORMERS AND BALUNS	208
Transformer Currents and the Ideal Transformer	209
Low-Frequency Equivalent Circuit of a Perfectly Coupled Lossless Transformer	209
Operation of the Perfectly Coupled Lossless Transformer	211
Mechanical Analog of a Perfectly Coupled Transformer	212
The Imperfectly Coupled Transformer	213
Double-Tuned Transformer	214
Conventional Transformers with Magnetic Cores	214
Eddy Currents and Laminated Cores	215
Design of Iron Core Transformers	215
Maximum Temperature and Transformer Size	217
Transmission Line Transformers	218
Baluns	220
Bibliography	223
Problems	223
23 WAVEGUIDE CIRCUITS	225
Waveguides	225
Simple Explanation of Waveguide Propagation	225
Propagation of the Fundamental Mode in a Rectangular Waveguide	226
Guide Wavelength	227
Form of the Magnetic Field	228
Wall Currents	229
Waveguide Versus Coaxial Cable for Low-Loss Power Transmission	229
Waveguide Impedance	230
Matching in Waveguide Circuits	231
Three-Port Waveguide Junctions	232
Four-Port Waveguide Junctions	232
Appendix 1: Lowest-Loss Waveguide Versus Lowest-Loss Coaxial Line	233
Appendix 2: Coaxial Line Dimensions for Lowest Loss, Highest Power, and	
Maximum Voltage	235
Lowest Loss	235
Highest Power	236
Maximum Voltage	236
Relative Performance of 50 Ohm Coaxial Line	236
Bibliography	236
Problems	237
24 TELEVISION SYSTEMS	238
Image Dissection	238
The Nipkow System	238
NTSC Television Standard	239
The Video Signal	241

Horizontal Synchronization	241
Vertical Synchronization	242
Modulation	243
Sound	245
Other Television Standards	245
Color Television	245
Three Colors through a Single Channel	246
Compatibility	246
Comb Filters	249
Television Transmitters	250
Television Receivers	250
Color Television Receiver	251
Digital Television	257
Video Compression	258
Color, Sound, and Packets	259
Bibliography	259
Problems	260
 25 RADAR PULSE MODULATORS	 261
Line Modulators	263
Bibliography	266
Problems	266
 26 TR SWITCHING	 268
Self-duplexing Radar Techniques	268
TR Switching Devices and Circuits	270
Branch Line TR Switches	270
Balanced Duplexers	271
Diode Switches	272
Diodes for RF Switching	274
Bibliography	275
Problems	275
 27 DEMODULATORS AND DETECTORS	 277
Diode Detector	277
Analysis Assuming an Ideal Rectifier	278
Analysis with a Real Diode	278
AC-Coupled Diode Detector	280
Single-Sideband (SSB) and Morse Code Detection	280
Product Detector for AM	281
Synchronous AM Detector	281
FM Demodulators	282
PLL FM Demodulator	282
Tachometer FM Detector	283
Delay Line FM Detector	283
Quadrature FM Demodulator	284
Slope Detector	284
The Foster–Seeley Discriminator	285

Power Detectors	287
Bibliography	289
Problems	289
28 FREQUENCY AND PHASE MODULATION	291
Basics of Angle Modulation	291
Frequency Spectrum of FM	292
Very Narrow-Band FM or PM	293
Wide-Band FM Spectral Width	293
Frequency Multiplication of an FM Signal	294
Noise	294
Analysis of the SNR Improvement in FM	295
Output SNR for an AM Signal with the Same Carrier Power	296
Comparison of Noise, FM versus AM Under Strong Signal Conditions	296
Preemphasis and Deemphasis	297
FM, AM, and Channel Capacity	297
Bibliography	299
Problems	299
29 ANTENNAS AND RADIO WAVE PROPAGATION	301
Antennas	301
Electromagnetic Waves	301
Propagation in a Vacuum	302
Antenna Directivity and Gain	303
Effective Capture Area of an Antenna	304
A Spacecraft Radio Link	305
Terrestrial Radio Links	306
The Ionosphere	306
Wave Propagation in the Ionosphere	307
Reflection of Waves from the Ionosphere	308
Daytime Versus Nighttime Propagation	308
Other Modes of Propagation	309
Bibliography	309
Problems	309
30 AMPLIFIER NOISE II	311
Noise Matching	311
Equivalent Circuits for Noisy Two-Port Networks	312
Noise Figure of the Equivalent Circuit	312
Devices in Parallel	315
Noise Measure	315
Bibliography	316
Problems	317
31 OSCILLATOR NOISE	319
Power Spectrum of a Linear Oscillator	320
Sideband Shape	322
Phase Noise	322

Effect of Nonlinearity	323
Bibliography	324
Problems	324
32 RADIO AND RADAR ASTRONOMY	326
The Discovery of Cosmic Noise	326
Radiometry	327
Spectrometry	328
Interferometry	329
Imaging Interferometry	329
Radar Astronomy	330
The Moon	331
Venus	332
Delay-Doppler Mapping	333
Overspreading	334
Bibliography	334
Problems	335
33 RADIO SPECTROMETRY	336
Filters and Filter Banks	337
Autocorrelation Spectrometry	337
Hardware Autocorrelators	338
One-Bit Autocorrelation	340
Fourier Transform Spectroscopy	341
Acousto-optical Spectrometry	341
Chirp-z Spectrometry	343
Radar Pulse Compression	344
Bibliography	345
Problems	345
34 LABORATORY TEST EQUIPMENT	347
Power Measurements	347
Voltage Measurements	347
Impedance Measurements	348
Swept Frequency Impedance Measurements	350
Problems	353
<i>Index</i>	355

INTRODUCTION

1

Consider the magic of radio. Portable, even hand-held, short-wave transmitters can reach thousands of miles beyond the horizon. Tiny microwave transmitters aboard space probes return data from across the solar system. And all at the speed of light. Yet before the late 1800s there was nothing to suggest that telegraphy through empty space would be possible even with mighty dynamos, much less with insignificantly small and inexpensive apparatus. The Victorians could extrapolate from experience to imagine flight aboard a steam-powered mechanical bird or space travel in a scaled-up Chinese skyrocket. But what experience would even have hinted at *wireless* communication? The key to radio came from theoretical physics. Maxwell consolidated the known laws of electricity and magnetism and added the famous displacement current term, $\partial D/\partial t$. By virtue of this term, a changing electric field produces a magnetic field, just as Faraday had discovered that a changing magnetic field produces an electric field. Maxwell's equations predicted that *electromagnetic waves* can break away from the electric currents that generate them and propagate independently through space with the electric and magnetic field components of the wave constantly regenerating each other.

Maxwell's equations predict the velocity of these waves to be $1/\sqrt{\epsilon_0\mu_0}$ where the constants ϵ_0 and μ_0 can be determined by simple measurements of the static forces between electric charges and between current-carrying wires. The dramatic result is, of course, the experimentally known speed of light, 3×10^8 m/s. The electromagnetic nature of light is revealed. Hertz conducted a series of brilliant experiments in the 1880s in which he generated and detected electromagnetic waves with wavelengths very long compared to light. The utilization of Hertzian waves (the radio waves we now take for granted) to transmit information developed hand-in-hand with the new science of electronics.

Where is radio today? AM radio, the pioneer broadcast service, still exists along with FM, television, and two-way communication. Now radio also includes radar, surveillance, navigation and broadcast satellites, cellular telephones, remote control devices, and wireless data communications. Applications of radio frequency (RF) technology outside radio include microwave heaters, medical imaging systems, and cable television.

FREQUENCY

WAVELENGTH

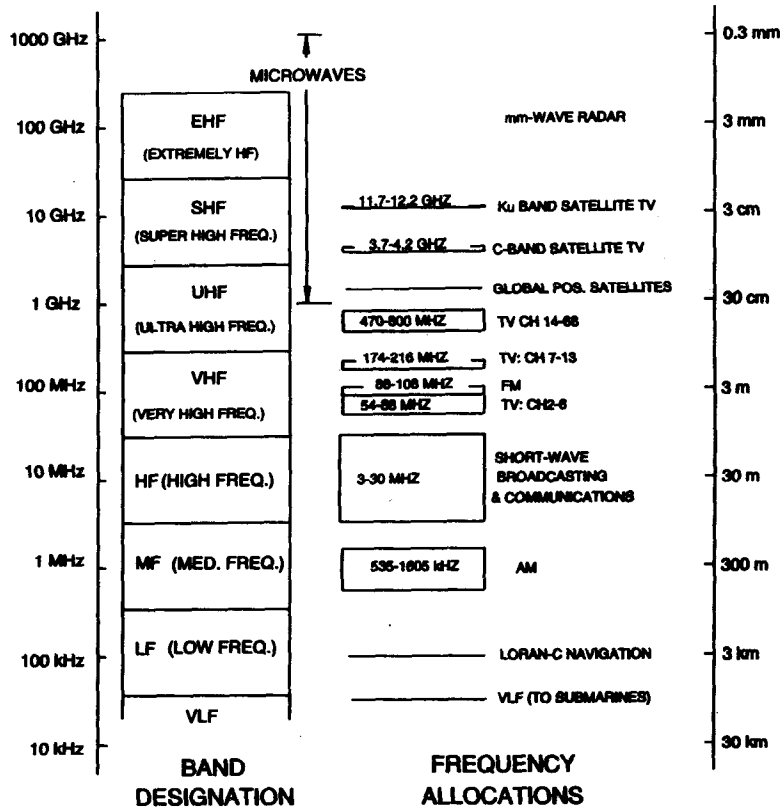


Figure 1-1. The radio spectrum.

Radio occupies about eight decades of the electromagnetic spectrum, as shown in Figure 1-1.

RF CIRCUITS

The circuits discussed in this book generate, amplify, modulate, filter, demodulate, detect, and measure ac voltages and currents at radio frequencies. They are the blocks from which RF systems are designed. They scale up and down in both power and frequency. A six-section bandpass filter with a given passband shape, for example, might be large and water cooled in one application but subminiature in another. Depending on the frequency, this filter might be made of sheet metal boxes and pipes, of solenoidal coils and capacitors, or of piezoelectric mechanical resonators, yet the underlying circuit design remains the same. A class-C

amplifier circuit might be a small section of an integrated circuit for a wireless data link or the largest part of a multimewatt broadcast transmitter. Again, the design principles are the same.

NARROW-BAND NATURE OF RF SIGNALS

Note that most of the RF allocations have small fractional bandwidths, that is, the bandwidths are small compared to the center frequencies. The fractional bandwidth of the signal from any given transmitter is less than ten percent – usually much less. This means that the RF voltages throughout a radio system are very nearly sinusoidal. An otherwise purely sinusoidal RF “carrier” voltage must be *modulated* (varied in some way) to transmit information. Every type of modulation (audio, video, pulse, digital coding, etc.) works by varying the amplitude and/or the phase of the carrier. An unmodulated carrier has only infinitesimal bandwidth; it is a pure spectral line. Modulation always broadens the line into a spectral band, but the energy clusters around the carrier frequency. Oscilloscope traces of the RF voltages in a transmitter on a transmission line or antenna are therefore nearly sinusoidal. When modulation is present, the amplitude and/or phase of the sinusoid changes but only over many cycles. Because of this narrow-band characteristic, elementary sine wave ac circuit analysis serves for most RF work.

AC CIRCUIT ANALYSIS – A BRIEF REVIEW

The standard ac circuit theory that treats voltages and currents in linear networks is based on the linearity of the circuit elements. When a sinusoidal voltage or current generator drives a circuit, the resulting steady-state voltages and currents will all be perfectly sinusoidal and will have the same frequency as the generator. Normally we find the response of driven ac circuits by a mathematical artifice. We replace the given sinusoidal generator by a hypothetical generator whose time dependence is $e^{j\omega t}$ rather than $\cos(\omega t)$ or $\sin(\omega t)$. This source function has both a real and an imaginary part since $e^{j\omega t} = \cos(\omega t) + j \sin(\omega t)$. Such a nonphysical (because it is complex) source leads to a nonphysical (complex) solution. But the real and imaginary parts of the solution are separately good physical solutions that correspond to the real and imaginary parts of the complex source. The value of this seemingly indirect method of solution is that the substitution of the complex source converts the set of linear *differential* equations into a set of easily solved linear *algebraic* equations. When the circuit has a simple topology, as is often the case, it can be

reduced to a single loop by combining obvious series and parallel branches. Several computer programs are available to find the currents and voltages in complicated ac circuits. Most versions of SPICE will do this steady-state ac analysis (which is much simpler than the transient analysis which is their primary function). Special linear ac analysis programs for RF and microwave work such as COMPACT, TOUCHSTONE, and MMICAD include circuit models for strip lines, waveguides, and other RF components. You can write a simple program to analyze ladder networks (see Problem 3) that will analyze most filters and matching networks.

IMPEDANCE AND ADMITTANCE

The coefficients in the algebraic circuit equations are functions of the complex *impedances* (V/I), or *admittances* (I/V), of the RLC elements. The voltage across an inductor is $L di/dt$. If the current is $I_0 e^{j\omega t}$, then the voltage is $(j\omega L)I_0 e^{j\omega t}$. The impedance and admittance of an inductor are therefore respectively $j\omega L$ and $1/(j\omega L)$. The current into a capacitor is $C dV/dt$, so its impedance and admittance are $1/(j\omega C)$ and $j\omega C$. The impedance and admittance of a resistor are just R and $1/R$, respectively. Elements in series have the same current, so their total impedance is the sum of their separate impedances. Elements in parallel have the same voltage, so their total admittance is the sum of their separate admittances. The real and imaginary parts of impedance are called resistance and reactance while the real and imaginary parts of admittance (the reciprocal of impedance) are called *conductance* and *susceptance*.

SERIES RESONANCE

A capacitor and inductor in series have an impedance $Z_s = j\omega L + 1/j\omega C$. This can be written as $Z_s = j(L/\omega)(\omega^2 - 1/LC)$, so the impedance is zero when the (angular) frequency is $1/\sqrt{LC}$. At this *resonant frequency*, the *series LC* circuit is a perfect *short* circuit (Figure 1-2). Equal voltages are developed across the inductor and capacitor but they have opposite signs, and the net voltage drop is zero. At resonance and in the steady state there is no transfer of energy in or out of this combination. (Since the overall voltage is always zero, the power, IV is always zero.) However, the circuit does contain stored energy, which simply sloshes back and forth between the inductor and the capacitor. Note that this circuit, by itself, is a simple bandpass filter.