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COAXIAL MICROWAVE BANDPASS FILTERS

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ABSTRACT

A review of lumped element filter synthesis techniques using the power loss ratio is presented. This leads to filter synthesis based on impedance inverters for which S. B. Cohn (Ref. 1) has given an approximate microwave realization. Here an improved method is presented which considers the distributive property of the impedance inverter. Several theoretical curves are shown comparing the two methods. Finally results from an experimental model are shown.

FOREWORD

This study on microwave bandpass filters was motivated by the need for a filter that could be constructed completely within a coaxial line. There is no single source in the literature which describes the principles and derives the relations used here. Also there is little information on how these principles may be applied to coaxial bandpass filters.

However, after applying these principles to a coaxial filter, some empirical modification is required because the design is based on approximating a lumped-reactive element with a distributed element. Therefore, this theory was improved by accounting for the nonzero length of the reactive element. These new design formulas give a filter characteristic which resembles the desired characteristic to a much greater degree than the older method.

The purpose of this study is to bring together the principles and derivations needed for the construction of a microwave bandpass filter. With this information and appropriate tables for a low-pass prototype circuit an engineer can design a coaxial microwave bandpass filter for a desired bandwidth and for Chebyshev filters a desired passband ripple. The theory developed there applies equally well to bandpass impedance matching networks. In addition to the information mentioned above, the designer needs to know only the Q of the load and the load impedance level.

The formulas are simple to use and sufficiently exact so that no additional empirical modification is needed. The filter is easy to make since it consists only of a coaxial line and some disks. Both of the above considerations are important in reducing fabrication costs.

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COAXIAL MICROWAVE BANDPASS FILTERS

I. General Discussion

At low frequencies a very general and complete filter synthesis technique has been developed which utilizes lumped inductors and capacitors as the basic building blocks. At microwave frequencies distributed parameter elements are used which makes filter synthesis more complicated. Since these elements have a complex frequency dependence, no complete filter synthesis technique has been developed. However, lumped techniques have been an invaluable guide to microwave filter synthesis.

The following discussion presents the necessary equations and outlines a procedure for designing bandpass impedance matching networks in coaxial transmission lines. The method of analysis starts by defining the desired frequency dependence of the reflection coefficient of the network. A low-pass lumped-prototype circuit is developed which is transformed into a bandpass circuit. The use of impedance inverters (a device which takes the reciprocal of the impedance) is found necessary to realize the lumped prototype in a distributed circuit. An impedance inverter is realized by a disk and a small length of line. Since a coaxial disk introduces discontinuity capacitance, the design is modified to take this into account. Finally, an example is given to show how these relations are used. In short, a review of filter synthesis is presented which is followed by an improved synthesis technique for the impedance inverter.

II. Power Loss Ratio

The power loss ratio or transducer loss ratio is defined as the incident or available power divided by the power delivered to the load (Ref. 2, pp. 403-410).

$$P_{LR} = \frac{|V_g|^2 R_L}{4R_g |V_L|^2} = \frac{1}{1 - \Gamma \Gamma^*} = \frac{1}{1 - \rho^2}$$
 (1)

The symbol Γ is the input reflection coefficient of a lossless network terminated by a resistive load R_L . This synthesis method begins by choosing the reflection coefficient of the network which for passive circuits is restricted to the range $0 \leq \Gamma$ (ω) \leq 1. For a transmission line with characteristic impedance Z_0 terminated with an impedance Z_L = R + jX the reflection coefficient is

$$\Gamma(\omega) = \frac{Z_{L} - Z_{O}}{Z_{L} + Z_{O}} = \frac{R(\omega) - Z_{O} + jX(\omega)}{R(\omega) + Z_{O} + jX(\omega)}$$
(2)

If m and n denote the even and odd parts of the polynomials respectively, the load impedance is (Ref. 3, p. 22)

$$Z_{L} = \frac{m_{1} + n_{1}}{m_{2} + n_{2}} \tag{3}$$

When s, the complex frequency, is $j\omega$, Eq. 4 below shows that the even parts are real and the odd parts are imaginary.

$$Z_{L} = \frac{(m_{1} + n_{1})(m_{2} - n_{2})}{(m_{2} + n_{2})(m_{2} - n_{2})}$$

$$Z_{L} = \frac{m_{1}^{m_{2} - n_{1}^{n_{2}}}}{m_{2}^{2} - n_{2}^{2}} + \frac{m_{2}^{n_{1} - m_{1}^{n_{2}}}}{m_{2}^{2} - n_{2}^{2}} = R(\omega) + jX(\omega)$$
(4)

Therefore $R(\omega)$ is an even function and $X(\omega)$ is an odd function of ω . This property is used in Eq. 2 to show

$$\Gamma(-\omega) = \frac{R(\omega) - Z_0 - jX(\omega)}{R(\omega) + Z_0 - jX(\omega)} = \Gamma^*(\omega)$$
 (5)

Since $\Gamma(\omega)\Gamma(-\omega)=\rho^2$, it is apparent that ρ^2 is an even function of ω . The power loss ratio is the ratio of even polynomials which from Eq. 1 can be expressed as

$$P_{LR} = 1 + \frac{(R - Z_0)^2 + X^2}{4RZ_0} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1 + \frac{P(\omega^2)}{Q^2(\omega)}$$
 (6)

For the case of a low-pass Chebyshev filter, this last ratio is chosen as

$$P_{LR} = 1 + k^2 T_n^2 (\omega/\omega_c)$$
 (7)

where ω_c is the cutoff frequency, \textbf{k}^2 is the passband tolerance, and \textbf{T}_n is the Chebyshev polynomial of degree $\,n_{\text{\tiny c}}$

$$T_n(\omega/\omega_c) = \cos\left[n \operatorname{Arccos}(\omega/\omega_c)\right]$$
 (8)

 T_n oscillates between \pm 1 for $|\omega/\omega_c| \le 1$ and equals one when $|\omega/\omega_c| = 1.$

III. Lumped Low-Pass Prototype Circuit

A low-pass filter may be realized by either of two dual prototype lumped ladder networks as shown in Figs. 1 and 2.

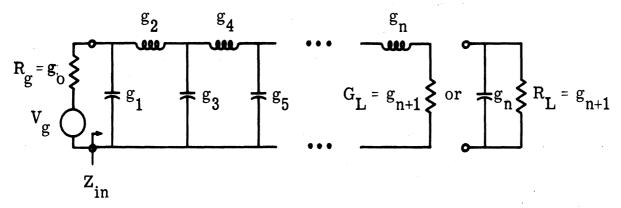


Fig. 1. Low-pass prototype circuit starting with shunt capacitor

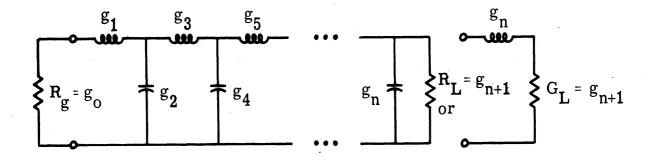


Fig. 2. Low-pass prototype circuit starting with series inductor

A relationship must be found between these two lumped circuits and the power loss ratio which was defined in terms of a transmission line.

In particular a transmission and reflection coefficient will be found for

the more general network of Fig. 3 where the source and load are connected by an arbitrary lossless network with $Z_1 = V_1 / I_1 = R_{11} + jX_{11}$.

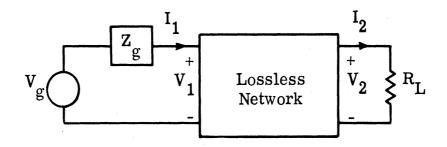


Fig. 3. Lossless network fed through an arbitrary generator impedance

Since the network is lossless, the average power entering port 1 must equal the average power leaving at port 2.

$$\frac{|V_{g}|^{2} R_{11}}{|Z_{g} + Z_{1}|^{2}} = \frac{|V_{2}|^{2}}{R_{L}}$$
(9)

This expression may be rearranged to give the ratio of power delivered to the load to the available power from the generator.

$$\frac{|V_2|^2 4R_g}{R_L |V_g|^2} = \frac{4R_{11} R_g}{|Z_g + Z_1|^2}$$
 (10)

This is seen to be equivalent to the transmission coefficient as the term on the right-hand side is

$$1 - \left| \frac{Z_1 - Z_g^*}{Z_1 + Z_g} \right|^2 = 1 - \frac{(R_{11} - R_g)^2 + (X_g + X_{11})^2}{|Z_g + Z_1|^2} = \frac{4R_g R_{11}}{|Z_g + Z_1|^2}$$

Therefore the reciprocal power loss ratio or transmission coefficient for the circuit of Fig. 3 is simply

$$|t|^{2} = \frac{V_{2}^{2}/R_{L}}{V_{g}^{2}/(4R_{g})} = 1 - \left|\frac{Z_{1}-Z_{g}^{*}}{Z_{1}+Z_{g}}\right|^{2} = 1 - |\Gamma|^{2} \quad (11)$$

Thus the reflection coefficient of the low-pass prototype circuit of Fig. 1 is

$$\Gamma = \frac{Z_{in} - R_g}{Z_{in} + R_g}$$
 (12)

where \mathbf{Z}_{in} is the input impedance of the ladder network as seen from the terminals of the generator resistance. To derive the particular \mathbf{g} values for the circuit of Fig. 1, the two expressions for the power loss ratio are equated.

$$P_{LR} = 1 + k^2 T_n^2 (\omega/\omega_c) = \frac{1}{1 - |\Gamma|^2}$$
 (13)

The left hand side defines the ripple factor k, the cutoff frequency $\omega_{_{\mbox{\scriptsize C}}}$, and the number of elements n. The right hand side is a function of the lumped prototype circuit g values which can now be found. Explicit expressions exist for the ${\bf g}_{\bf k}$ for both the maximally flat and the Chebyshev filters. However, tabulated values will be used subsequently and they may be found in various references (i.e., Ref. 4). A similar procedure is used for the case of the filter of Fig. 2.

IV. Impedance Matching with Lumped Low-Pass Networks 1

A low-pass Chebyshev impedance matching network is shown in Fig. 4.

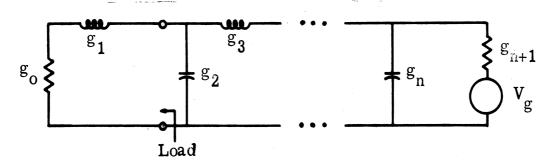


Fig. 4. Low-pass matching network

This network can be designed either to provide minimum reflection or to provide a specified ripple in the passband. The first criteria is the one used in the example later. The load is considered to consist of both g_0 and g_1 . An optimum impedance matching network must necessarily have a filter-like characteristic. Also, if the load has a reactive part, it is impossible to have perfect power transmission over a range of frequencies. Overall power transmission may be improved, however, if a small amount of power is reflected at all frequencies in the passband.

The load is characterized by the decrement

$$\delta \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{1}{g_1 g_0 \omega_c} \tag{14}$$

where $\omega_c^{'}$ is the cutoff frequency for the low-pass circuit of Fig. 4. The published tables and curves for the $g_k^{'}$ ($k=1,2,\ldots,n$) are normalized to $\omega_c^{'}=1$. Hence these $g_k^{'}$ values must be remultiplied by $\omega_c^{'}$ when used. The decrement can be written in terms of the resonated $Q_A^{'}$ of

¹Ref. 4, p. 120.

the load, which by use of a reactive element has been tuned to resonate at $\omega_{\rm o}$, and the fractional bandwidth w.

$$\delta = \frac{1}{wQ_A} \tag{15}$$

This definition will be convenient for bandpass matching structures described later, and it emphasizes that the decrement is the reciprocal Q of the load at the edge of the impedance matching band. Better matching and lower ripple can be achieved by using more filter elements although beyond n = 3 or 4, there is only slight improvement. The calculation of the g values for the impedance matching network of Fig. 4 is complicated so curves found in Ref. 4 (pp. 126-129) are used to get the element values.

V. Bandpass Matching Networks

At microwave frequencies bandpass rather than low-pass impedance matching networks are usually desired. For the bandpass case both the load and generator resistances may be specified by the designer whereas for the low-pass case optimum design occurs only for a specified load to generator impedance level ratio.

A bandpass filter is easily derived by the low-pass to bandpass frequency mapping

$$\frac{\omega'}{\omega_{\mathbf{c}}} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{w}} \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_{\mathbf{o}}} - \frac{\omega_{\mathbf{o}}}{\omega} \right) \tag{16}$$

where $\omega_0^2 = \omega_1 \omega_2$ and $w = \frac{\omega_2 - \omega_1}{\omega_0}$. The low-pass frequency variable is ω and the bandpass frequency variable is ω . The bandwidth of the

bandpass filter is $\[\omega_2$ - $\[\omega_1$] and the center frequency is $\[\omega_0$. This mapping transforms shunt capacitors into parallel resonant circuits and series inductors into series resonant circuits. Both of these types resonate at $\[\omega_0$. The circuits of Figs. 1 and 2 are transformed into the bandpass circuits of Figs. 5 and 6.

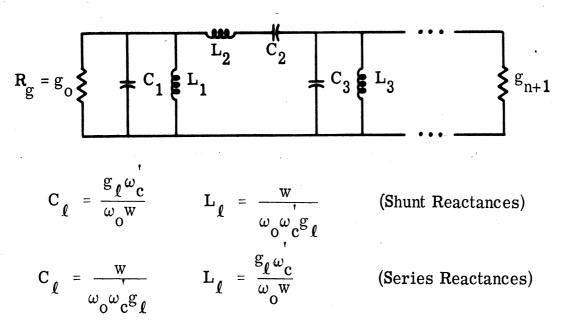
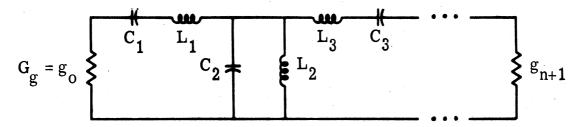


Fig. 5. Bandpass prototype starting with shunt resonator



The element values are given by the same formulas found in Fig. 5.

Fig. 6. Bandpass prototype starting with series resonator

The steps are carried out in greater detail in several references

(Ref. 5, pp. 356-362).

VI. Impedance Inverters

Many kinds of microwave filters can be constructed more conveniently if they can be built from either all capacitive or all inductive elements. This can be done with the use of ideal impedance or admittance inverters for the low-pass case. For the bandpass case, a filter may be constructed with only series or only shunt resonant circuits when inverters are used. The ideal impedance inverter is defined in Figs. 7(a) and (b).

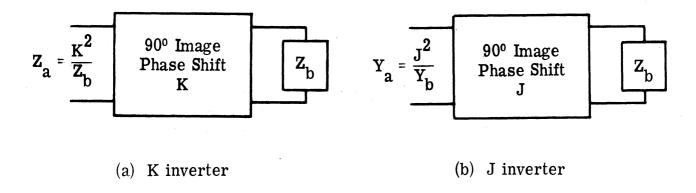


Fig. 7. Ideal impedance inverters

One obvious example of a K inverter is a quarter wavelength of transmission line with a characteristic impedance of K at all frequencies.

The lumped bandpass filters shown in Figs. 5 and 6 may be built from series resonant circuits separated by K inverters or from shunt resonant circuits separated by J inverters as shown in Figs. 8 and 9.

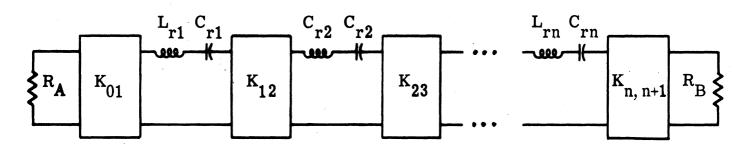


Fig. 8. Lumped bandpass impedance matching network using K inverters

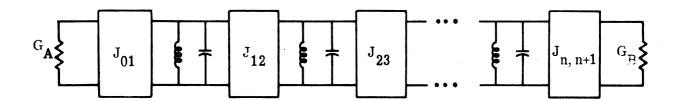


Fig. 9. Lumped bandpass impedance matching network using J inverters

The values of the $K_{i,\ i+1}$ are found on the basis that the circuit in Fig. 8 must have the same response as the circuit in Fig. 5. A section of the lumped prototype is given in Fig. 10 together with the equivalent section of the inverter network in Fig. 11.

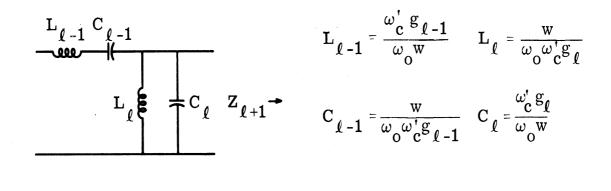


Fig. 10. Prototype section

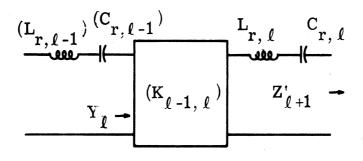


Fig. 11. K inverter section

The elements $L_{\ell-1}$ and $C_{\ell-1}$ constitute the left hand series arm needed for the circuit of Fig. 11, but the impedance level must be changed to correspond to that of Fig. 11. This is accomplished by multiplying all the inductances by $L_{\mathbf{r},\ \ell-1}/L_{\ell-1}$ and all capacitors by $L_{\ell-1}/L_{\mathbf{r},\ \ell-1}$ as indicated in Fig. 12.

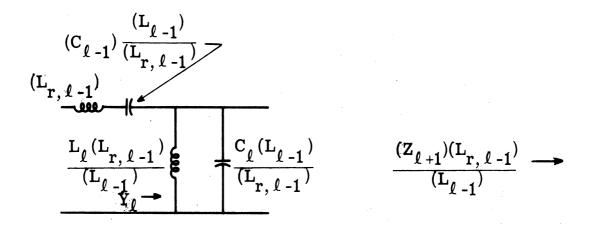


Fig. 12. Prototype with adjusted impedance level

For the circuit of Fig. 12 to be identical to that of Fig. 11, Y_{ℓ} must be the same for both.

$$\frac{K_{\ell-1,\ell}^{2}}{|[\omega L_{r,\ell} - 1/(\omega C_{r,\ell})] + Z_{\ell+1}'} = \frac{1}{j \left[\frac{\omega C_{\ell}(L_{\ell-1})}{(L_{r,\ell-1})} - \frac{(L_{\ell-1})}{\omega L_{\ell}(L_{r,\ell-1})}\right] + Y_{\ell+1} \frac{(L_{\ell-1})}{(L_{r,\ell-1})}}{|[L_{\ell-1}]|} K_{\ell-1}^{2} \left\{ j \left[\omega \frac{C_{\ell}(L_{\ell-1})}{(L_{r,\ell-1})} - \frac{(L_{\ell-1})}{\omega L_{\ell}(L_{r,\ell-1})}\right] + (Y_{\ell+1}) \frac{(L_{\ell-1})}{(L_{r,\ell-1})} \right\}$$

$$= j \left\{ \omega L_{r,\ell} - 1/(\omega C_{r,\ell}) \right\} + Z_{\ell+1}'$$

$$= j \left\{ \omega L_{r,\ell} - 1/(\omega C_{r,\ell}) \right\} + Z_{\ell+1}'$$

The terms with the same frequency dependence are equated to give a solution for K.

$$K_{\ell-1, \ell} = \sqrt{\frac{L_{r, \ell}(L_{r, \ell-1})}{(L_{\ell-1})C_{\ell}}} \quad \text{with } L_{\ell}C_{\ell} = L_{r, \ell}C_{r, \ell} = \frac{1}{\omega_{O}^{2}}$$
 (18)

The K can be written in terms of the original low-pass prototype by referring to Fig. 10.

$$K_{\ell, \ell+1} = \frac{\omega_{o}^{w}}{\omega_{c}} \sqrt{\frac{L_{r, \ell}(L_{r, \ell+1})}{g_{\ell}g_{\ell+1}}}$$
(19)

The first and last K's are obtained similarly. Figure 13 is the first section of the total bandpass circuit of Fig. 5.

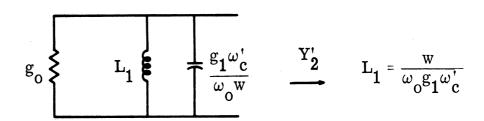


Fig. 13. Input section of prototype

The impedance level is raised to the desired generator resistance by multiplying all impedances by R_{A}/g_{o} as shown in Fig. 14.

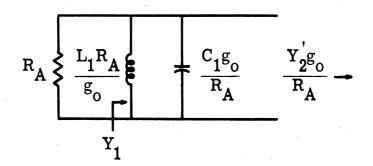


Fig. 14. Unnormalized input section of prototype

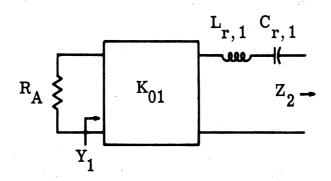


Fig. 15. Input K inverter section

This must have the same response as the network with the K inverter of Fig. 15 so Y_1 are the same in both cases.

$$j \left[\frac{g_{0}g_{1}^{\omega}c^{\omega}}{\omega_{0}^{w}R_{A}} - \frac{\omega_{0}^{\omega}c^{g}_{0}g_{1}}{\omega_{R}A^{w}} \right] + Y_{2}g_{0}/R_{A} = \frac{1}{K_{01}^{2}} \left\{ j \left[\omega L_{r, 1} - \frac{1}{\omega C_{r, 1}} \right] + Z_{2} \right\}$$
(20)

$$K_{01} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega_0^{\text{W L}}_{\text{r, 1}}^{\text{R}}_{\text{A}}}{\omega_c^g_0^g_1}}$$
 (21)

Similarly

$$K_{n, n+1} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega_0^{\text{w L}} r, n^{\text{R}}_{\text{B}}}{\omega_c^{\text{g}} n^{\text{g}}_{n+1}}}$$
 (22)

The bandpass prototype circuit of Fig. 5 can therefore be replaced by the circuit of Fig. 8 with its associated K inverters. Since the K or J inverters have the ability to shift the impedance levels, the sizes of the R_A and R_B as well as the $L_{r,\ \ell}$ may be chosen arbitrarily while retaining the same response as the prototype circuit. The use of K inverters has given the designer additional flexibility especially with regard to his choice of R_A and R_B .

VII. Microwave Realization

The parameters for the circuit of Fig. 8 have been explicitly derived, but two problems still remain for realization in a microwave structure: (1) how are the series resonant circuits to be made, and (2) how are the K inverters realized. Before actually resolving the first question it is convenient to generalize the expressions for the K's and corresponding J's to make them more compatible with distributive elements.

A series LC circuit or more generally a series resonator which has zero reactance at ω_0 can be described in terms of its resonant frequency ω_0 and a reactance slope parameter χ_\bullet

$$\chi = \frac{\omega_{O}}{2} \frac{dX}{d\omega} \bigg|_{\omega_{O}}$$
 (23)

A shunt resonator where the susceptance is zero at ω_0 , in turn can be described in terms of its resonant frequency and a susceptance slope parameter b.

$$b = \frac{\omega_{O}}{2} \frac{dB}{d\omega} \bigg|_{\omega_{O}}$$
 (24)

For the series LC circuit $\chi = \omega_0 L$ and for the shunt LC circuit $b = \omega_0 C$. Thus the Q for a circuit with resistance R in series with a series resonator or a conductance G in parallel with a shunt resonator is $Q = \chi/R$ and Q = b/G respectively. The K and J values in terms of these slope parameters are given in Figs. 16 and 17. For distributed circuits, these figures should be used rather than Figs. 8 and 9.

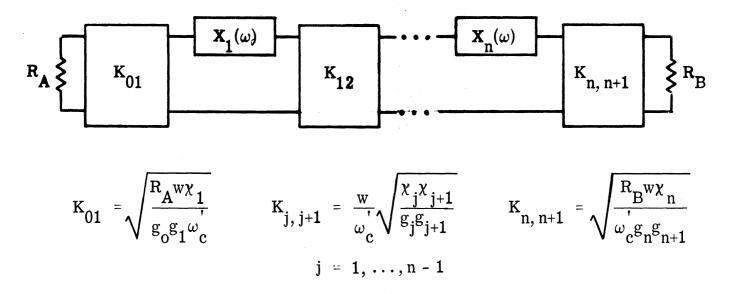


Fig. 16. Generalized impedance matching networks using K inverters

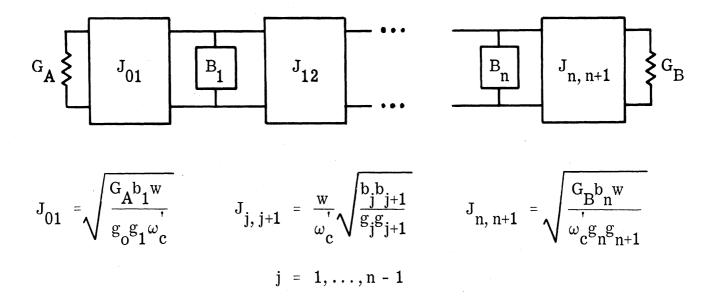


Fig. 17. Generalized impedance matching network using J inverters

The series resonant circuits $X_i(\omega)$, shown in Fig. 16, can be realized as a half wavelength transmission line. Thus the choice of $L_{r,\,\ell}$ in the previous section is equivalent to the choice of characteristic impedance of the half wavelength line. Often all the X_i can be made to have the same characteristic impedance of 50 ohms. The reactance slope parameter is obtained from the transmission line equation. The reactance of the transmission line is

$$X = Z_{0} \frac{(Z_{0}^{2} - R_{L}^{2}) \tan \phi}{Z_{0}^{2} + R_{L}^{2} \tan^{2} \phi}$$
 (25)

where $\phi = \beta d = \omega d/c$. The slope parameter is obtained by differentiation of X.

$$\chi = Z_{o} \frac{\omega_{o}}{2} (Z_{o}^{2} - R_{L}^{2}) \frac{d}{c} \sec^{2} \phi \frac{Z_{o}^{2} + R_{L}^{2} \tan^{2} \phi - 2R_{L}^{2} \tan^{2} \phi}{(Z_{o}^{2} + R_{L}^{2} \tan^{2} \phi)^{2}}$$

$$\chi = \frac{Z_{o}}{2} \frac{\omega_{o}^{d}}{c} (Z_{o}^{2} - R_{L}^{2}) \sec^{2} \phi \frac{Z_{o}^{2} - R_{L}^{2} \tan^{2} \phi}{(Z_{o}^{2} + R_{L}^{2} \tan^{2} \phi)^{2}}$$
(26)

For a transmission line resonant at $\phi = \pi$

$$\chi = \frac{Z_0 \pi}{2} \left(\frac{Z_0^2 - R_L^2}{Z_0^2} \right) \tag{27}$$

Inversion networks often present a very small resistance in shunt with the series resonator so that $R_L/Z_o <<$ 1. In this case

$$\chi \cong \frac{Z_0 \pi}{2} \tag{28}$$

The impedance matching properties of a series of K inverters can be shown by an example. In Fig. 18 two unequal resistances are matched with three K inverters separated by half-wavelength transmission-lines.

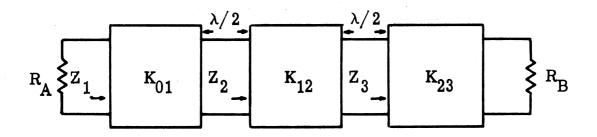


Fig. 18. Three K inverter example

Each K inverter inverts the impedance.

$$Z_3 = \frac{K_{23}^2}{R_B}$$

$$Z_2 = \frac{K_{12}^2 R_B}{K_{23}^2}$$

$$Z_{1} = \frac{K_{01}^{2} K_{23}^{2}}{K_{12}^{2} R_{B}}$$

Using the values of the K's from Fig. 16,

$$z_1 = \frac{R_A^{w\chi_1}}{g_0^g_1^{\omega_c}} \cdot \frac{R_B^{w\chi_2}}{g_2^g_3^{\omega_c}} \cdot \frac{(\omega_c^{'})^2 g_1^g_2}{w^2 \chi_1^{\chi_2}} \cdot \frac{1}{R_B}$$

$$z_1 = \frac{R_A}{g_0 g_3}$$

In general with n K inverters, the input impedance is $Z_1 = \frac{R_A}{g_0 g_{n+1}}$ when n is even and $\frac{R_A g_{n+1}}{g_0}$ when n is odd. The parameter g_0 is always chosen as 1 while $g_{n+1} \neq 1$ for Chebyshev filters when n is even or for Chebyshev impedance matching networks when the load is complex. If $g_{n+1} \neq 1$ the designer must modify the value of R_A in K_{01} so as to obtain the correct impedance level.

The series resonant circuits can be realized in a microwave structure by a half-wavelength transmission line with a reactance slope parameter of $\pi Z_0/2$. The second question needing clarification is how the K inverters are realized. One inverter already mentioned is a quarter wavelength line. Much broader bandwidth may be achieved using the K inverters in Fig. 19 or the J inverters in Fig. 20.

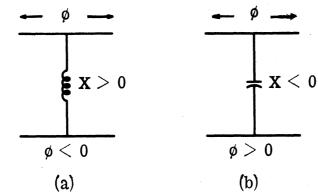


Fig. 19. Lumped K inverter realization

Fig. 20. Lumped J inverter realization

In Figs. 19(a) and 20(b) the negative line length must be absorbed by available line length between inverters. The value of K for the inverters of Fig. 19 is

$$K = Z_0 \tan |\phi/2| \qquad (29)$$

where

$$\phi = - \operatorname{Arctan} \left(2X / Z_{0} \right) \tag{30}$$

$$X/Z_{o} = \frac{K/Z_{o}}{1 - (K/Z_{o})^{2}}$$
 (31)

The value of J for the J inverters in Fig. 20. is

$$J = Y_0 \tan |\phi/2| \tag{32}$$

where

$$\phi = -\operatorname{Arctan} 2B/Y_{O} \tag{33}$$

$$B/Y_{O} = \frac{J/Y_{O}}{1 - (J/Y_{O})^{2}}$$
 (34)

Thus when K or J is calculated by the equations in Figs. 16 or 17, ϕ and the reactance or susceptance can be found. The derivation of these formulas may be found in Cohn's work (Ref. 1) and will not be rederived here. A more general set of relations based on Fig. 19(b) will be derived later which give the above results when specialized to a lumped capacitor.

VIII. Combining K and J Inverters

When wavelengths are too long to space inverters of one kind every half wavelength, K and J inverters can be placed alternately every quarter wavelength as in Fig. 21.

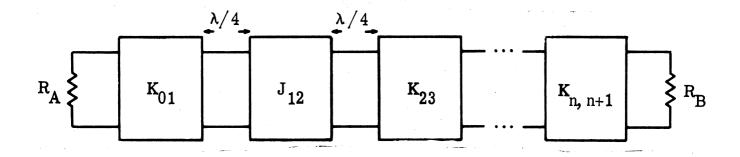


Fig. 21. Alternate K and J inverters

The only difference between the values here and those in Figs. 16 and 17 is a difference in slope parameter. For a quarter wavelength line $\chi = \pi Z_0 / 4 \text{ and } b = \pi Y_0 / 4.$

IX. K Inverter with Disks of Nonzero Length

The image impedance and the image propagation function are found useful in the derivation of the disk length and phase shift of the impedance inverter. The image impedance in a uniform transmission line is the characteristic impedance of the line, and the image propagation function is the propagation constant of the transmission line. The image impedance and propagation function are more general than that implied above for a uniform line. If $\mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{I}\mathbf{1}}$ and $\mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{I}\mathbf{2}}$ are the image impedances of an unsymmetrical network, then an infinite chain of these networks

connected together, as shown in Fig. 22, will present its corresponding image impedance at any junction of these networks.

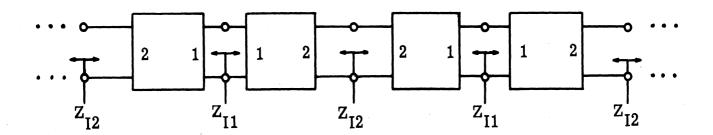


Fig. 22. Image impedance for $Z_{\overline{11}}$ infinite network chain

Since the impedance is the same in both directions, the reflection coefficient at each junction is zero. If a wave propagates from left to right, its phase and attenuation will be affected by each network according to its image propagation function, but it will travel from one network to another without reflection (Ref. 4, pp. 49-50).

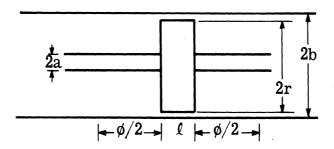


Fig. 23. Coaxial realization of the K inverter of Fig. 19(b)

The design of the K inverters used in the previous designs is based on one of Cohn's procedures (Ref. 1), which is here designated as a "lumped-design procedure." In that procedure, the filter design calls for a K inverter of the form shown in Fig. 23. The inverter is realized by selecting a disk of nonzero length, so that the disk capacitance is equal to that of the capacitor in Fig. 19(b).

A more accurate procedure has been developed here, and is designated as a "distributed-design procedure." This procedure follows the general form of Cohn's analysis, but considers the coaxial K inverter shown in Fig. 23 to be a section of low-Z_O line rather than a lumped capacitor. The dimensions of this structure are thus chosen with regard to the distributed character of the disk. Typically, the disk diameter is specified, and the length and characteristic impedance are determined.

The image propagation constant can be expressed as

$$\tanh \gamma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{Z_{11}Y_{11}}} = \sqrt{\frac{Z_{sc}}{Z_{oc}}}$$

and the image impedance as

$$Z_{I1} = K = \sqrt{\frac{Z_{11}}{Y_{11}}} = \sqrt{Z_{oc} Z_{sc}}$$

 $Z_{11} = Z_{oc}$ is the input impedance of a two-port network when the output is open circuited, and $Y_{11} = 1/Z_{sc}$ is the input admittance of a two-port network when the output is short circuited (Ref. 3, pp. 186-191).

If the circuit element is bisected, as shown in Fig. 24, the open circuit and short circuit impedances can readily be found.

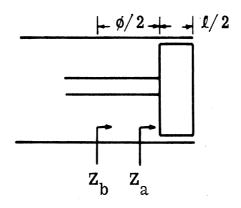


Fig. 24. Bisected disk element

For the open circuit case

$$Z_{aoc} = -jZ_{c} \cot \frac{\beta \ell}{2}$$

where $\beta=(\omega/c)\sqrt{\epsilon_{r}}$, and ϵ_{r} is the relative dielectric constant of the material between the disk and the outer conductor while Z_{c} is the characteristic impedance of the coaxial disk. Now Z_{aoc} is translated a distance $\phi/2$ down the coaxial line (which has characteristic impedance Z_{o}). Since this circuit is assumed lossless, the impedance at Z_{b} is imaginary.

$$X_{\text{boc}} = Z_0 \frac{\tan \phi / 2 - \frac{Z_c}{Z_o} \cot \frac{\beta \ell}{2}}{1 + \frac{Z_c}{Z_o} \cot \frac{\beta \ell}{2} \tan \frac{\phi}{2}}$$

This can be expressed as the tangent of the sum of two angles by a trigonometric identity.

$$X_{boc} = Z_o \tan \left[\frac{\varphi}{2} - Arctan \left(\frac{Z_c}{Z_o} \cot \frac{\beta \ell}{2} \right) \right]$$

If instead of an open circuit, as shown in Fig. 24, there is a short circuit at the plane of bisection, then

$$Z_{asc} = jZ_{c} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2}$$

Translating this $\phi/2$ radians, the short circuit reactance is found.

$$X_{bsc} = Z_{o} \tan \left[\frac{\phi}{2} + Arctan \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2} \right) \right]$$

Since this circuit is lossless, the propagation constant consists of only the imaginary part β '.

$$-j\gamma = \beta' = 2 \operatorname{Arctan} \sqrt{\frac{-X_{bsc}}{X_{boc}}}$$

$$\beta' = 2 \operatorname{Arctan} \left\{ \frac{-Z_{o} \tan \left[\frac{\phi}{2} + \operatorname{Arctan} \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2} \right) \right]}{Z_{o} \tan \left[\frac{\phi}{2} - \operatorname{Arctan} \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \cot \frac{\beta \ell}{2} \right) \right]} \right\}$$

As in the quarter-wave transformer, the electrical length is $\beta' = \pm 90^{\circ}$. This means the argument of the Arctan is 1.

$$\tan \left[-\frac{\phi}{2} - \operatorname{Arctan}\left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2}\right) \right] = \tan \left[\frac{\phi}{2} - \operatorname{Arctan}\left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \cot \frac{\beta \ell}{2}\right) \right]$$

$$\phi = \operatorname{Arctan}\left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \cot \frac{\beta \ell}{2}\right) - \operatorname{Arctan}\left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2}\right)$$

$$(35)$$

Using the trigonometric identity, Arctan A \pm Arctan B = Arctan [(A \pm B)/ (1 \mp AB)], the phase angle ϕ may be expressed in terms of the yet unknown length ℓ .

$$\phi = \operatorname{Arctan} \left[\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \left(\cot \frac{\beta \ell}{2} - \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2} \right) - \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \right)^{2} \right]$$

$$1 + \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \right)^{2}$$
(36)

If $\beta \ell/2 <<$ 1, this ϕ reduces to the value obtained by Cohn as indicated in Eq. 30.

The image impedance or K value can be found also.

$$\mathbf{K} = \sqrt{-\mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{boc}} \mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{bsc}}}$$

$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{o}} \sqrt{\tan \left[-\frac{\phi}{2} + \operatorname{Arctan} \left(\frac{\mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{c}}}{\mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{o}}} \cot \frac{\beta \ell}{2} \right) \right]} \tan \left[\frac{\phi}{2} + \operatorname{Arctan} \left(\frac{\mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{c}}}{\mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{o}}} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2} \right) \right]$$

Eliminating the cotangent term by use of Eq. 35 gives the value of K in terms of the unknown length ℓ .

$$K = Z_0 \tan \left[\frac{\phi}{2} + Arc \tan \left(\frac{Z_c}{Z_o} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2} \right) \right]$$
 (37)

This again reduces to Cohn's value for K in Eq. 29 when $\beta \ell/2 = 0$. An expression for $\phi/2$ in terms of K is found by applying the trigonometric identity for the tangent of the sum of two angles to Eq. 37.

$$\frac{K}{Z_{O}} = \frac{\tan \frac{\phi}{2} + \frac{Z_{C}}{Z_{O}} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2}}{1 - \tan \left(\frac{\phi}{2}\right) \left(\frac{Z_{C}}{Z_{O}} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2}\right)}$$

Solving this for $\phi/2$ gives

$$\tan \frac{\varphi}{2} = \frac{\frac{K}{Z_0} - \frac{Z_c}{Z_0} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2}}{1 + \frac{c}{Z_0^2} \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2}}$$
(38)

Equations 36 and 38 are two equations in the two unknowns ϕ and ℓ . The unknown ϕ will be eliminated, and the result will be one equation in the unknown $\mathbf{F} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \tan \beta \ell / 2$.

From Eq. 36

$$\tan \phi = \frac{\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}} \left(\frac{1}{F} - F\right)}{1 + \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}}\right)^{2}} = \frac{2 \tan \frac{\phi}{2}}{1 - \tan^{2} \frac{\phi}{2}}$$

Equation 38 is substituted into the right-hand side of the above expression.

$$\frac{\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}}\left(\frac{1}{F} - F\right)}{1 + \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}}\right)^{2}} = \frac{2\left(\frac{K}{Z_{o}} - \frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}}F\right)\left(1 + \frac{KZ_{c}}{Z_{o}^{2}}F\right)}{1 + \frac{2KZ_{c}}{Z_{o}^{2}}F + \frac{K^{2}Z_{c}^{2}}{Z_{o}^{4}}F^{2} - \frac{K^{2}}{Z_{o}^{2}} + \frac{2Z_{c}K}{Z_{o}^{2}}F - \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}}\right)^{2}F^{2}}$$

This is a quartic equation which after some algebra can be written in the following form:

$$G^{4} - 2\frac{K}{Z_{c}}PG^{3} + \left[1 + \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}}\right)^{2}\right]G^{2} - \frac{2KZ_{c}}{Z_{o}^{2}}PG + \left(\frac{Z_{c}}{Z_{o}}\right)^{2} = 0$$

Here it is found convenient to define F = 1/G and

$$P = \frac{\Delta}{1 - (Z_{c}/Z_{o})^{2}} \frac{1 - (K/Z_{o})^{2}}{1 - (K/Z_{o})^{2}}$$
(39)

It should be noted that P is normally positive. This expression can

be factored to give four roots.

$$G = \pm j \frac{Z}{Z_0}$$

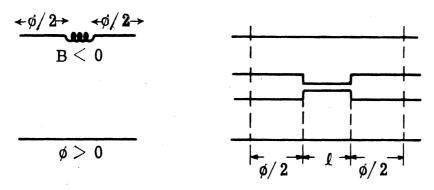
$$G = \frac{KP}{Z_c} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{KP}{Z_c}\right)^2 - 1}$$

The second two roots are the roots of interest. The reciprocal of G gives an explicit solution for ℓ in terms of known quantities.

$$\frac{1}{G} = F = \tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2} = \frac{KP}{Z_c} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{KP}{Z_c}\right)^2 - 1}$$
 (40)

X. J Inverter with Nonzero Inductor Length

The same general theory described in the previous section may be applied in an analogous fashion to the series inductor J inverter shown in Fig. 25.



- (a) Lumped J inverter
- (b) Distributed J inverter

Fig. 25. The series J inverter

In this case the image propagation constant is

$$\tanh \gamma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{Z_{11}Y_{11}}} = \sqrt{\frac{Y_{oc}}{Y_{sc}}}$$

and the image admittance is

$$Y_{I1} = J = \sqrt{\frac{Y_{11}}{Z_{11}}} = \sqrt{Y_{sc}Y_{oc}}$$

The derivation follows exactly as before with Z_{sc} replaced by Y_{oc} , Z_{oc} replaced by Y_{sc} , Z_{c} replaced by Y_{c} and Z_{o} replaced by Y_{o} . The final answer is

$$\tan \frac{\beta \ell}{2} = \frac{JP}{Y_c} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{JP}{Y_c}\right)^2 - 1}$$
 (40')

where

$$P = \frac{1 - (Y_c/Y_o)^2}{1 - (J/Y_o)^2}$$
 (39')

and

$$\phi = \operatorname{Arctan} \left\{ \frac{\left[\cot(\beta \ell/2) - \tan(\beta \ell/2) \right] (Y_{c}/Y_{o})}{1 + (Y_{c}/Y_{o})^{2}} \right\}$$
(36')

The remaining two impedance inverters shown in Figs. 19(a) and 20(b) are

not amenable to this kind of analysis since a structure approximating a shunt inductance or a series capacitance would not be a TEM structure.

XI. Effects of Discontinuity Capacitance

A sudden change in diameter of the center conductor introduces fringing capacitance which has not yet been accounted for in the design. Also higher order propagating and evanescent modes around the disks will have the effect of storing more energy than the theory presented would indicate. P. I. Somlo (Ref. 6) has derived curves for discontinuity capacitance which takes both these effects into account. For computer calculations he has given the approximate formula

$$C_{d} = \epsilon_{0} \cdot 2b \cdot \left[\frac{\alpha^{2} + 1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{1 + \alpha}{1 - \alpha} - 2 \ln \frac{4\alpha}{1 - \alpha^{2}} \right] + 0.111 \cdot (1 - \alpha)(\tau - 1) \cdot 2\pi \cdot b \cdot 10^{-12}$$
(41)

where b is the radius of the outside conductor, a is the radius of the center conductor, r is the radius of the disk, $\alpha = (b-r)/(b-a)$ and $\tau = b/a$. This formula introduces a maximum error of $\pm 0.03 \ (2\pi b) \, pF$ when $0.01 \le \alpha \le 1.0$ and $1.0 \le \tau \le 6.0$.

The length of the disks must be shortened to account for this added capacitance. The capacitance of a TEM line is

$$C = \frac{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon} \ell'}{Z_C}$$
 (42)

where $\mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{c}}$ is the characteristic impedance of the line at the disk given by

$$Z_{c} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_{o}}{\epsilon}} \ln (b/r)$$
 (43)

Since there are two discontinuities for the disk, the total discontinuity capacitance $C = 2 C_d$ and the length ℓ' by which the disk must be shortened is easily found.

For the case of the series inductor J inverter, the shunt discontinuity capacitance cannot be absorbed in the inductor as is possible for the disk K inverter.

XII. Design Procedure

The procedure for the design of a disk K inverter for a bandpass filter in a coaxial line follows:

- (1) A value for K is calculated on the basis of the formulas under Fig. 16. Usually tables for the g_j are normalized so that $\omega_c = 1$.
- (2) A diameter is assumed for the disk. The larger the disk diameter, the smaller its length will be, and the greater its discontinuity capacitance.
- (3) The disk characteristic impedance is found from the relation 43 (Ref. 2, p. 81) where "r" is the center conductor (in this case, disk) radius and "b" is the outer conductor radius.

- (4) The value for P is found from Eq. 39.
- (5) At this point a test must be made. If the value KP/Z $_{\rm c}$ < 1, the disk diameter is too small, and a larger one must be assumed.
- (6) Use Eq. 40 to find the disk length.
- (7) Use Eq. 36 or 38 to find the phase angle ϕ .
- (8) The discontinuity capacitance is found from Eq. 41 and a length ℓ ' from Eq. 42 is subtracted from the disk length.

The disk length found in step 6 must of course be larger than ℓ '. The assumed disk diameter, and the resulting disk length and phase angle completely specify the disk K inverter. This design approach accounts for the nonzero disk length.

XIII. 50-Ohm to 50-Ohm Bandpass Filters

Several curves were derived for various bandpass filters centered at 8.5 GHz with different fractional bandwidths for the purpose of comparing the distributed design described in the previous section with the lumped design. The following filters were based on a Chebyshev low-pass prototype circuit with 0.1 dB ripple. For the three-ripple case this means that $g_0 = 1.0$, $g_1 = 1.0315$, $g_2 = 1.474$, $g_3 = 1.0315$, and $g_4 = 1.0$. The design was carried out using 50-ohm coaxial line with an outer conductor diameter of 0.5626 in. and a center conductor diameter of 0.24425 in. In the theoretical curves which follow, the effect of discontinuity capacitance has been neglected. However, when a coaxial bandpass filter

is built, the design should be modified to account for the discontinuity capacitance as described in Section XII. Figures 26, 27, and 28 show that there is considerable improvement in using the distributed design. The distributed design filters are all centered at the design frequency although the bandwidth is narrower than the design bandwidth. The maximum ripple in the passband is smaller for the distributed case although it is still larger than the design ripple of 0.1 dB or $|\Gamma|^2 = 0.023$.

The design data for these curves are shown in Table I. Since the bandpass filter is symmetrical, the first two disks are identical with the last two, so only the values for the first two are given.

XIII a. Six-Disk Filter Using Distributed Design. A 5-percent and a 10-percent bandwidth filter were designed with six disks using the distributed design technique. The resulting curves are shown in Figs. 29 and 30. The same improvements over the lumped design are evident for the five-ripple case. A comparison of the five-ripple case and the three-ripple case for the distributed design shows that the maximum ripple is still higher for the five-ripple case.

The design parameters for the filters are shown in Table II. Since the filter is symmetrical, the first three disks are identical to the last three.

Tables I and II show that the difference in disk lengths between the lumped and distributed case is not large. As would be expected, the difference in the phase angles ϕ between the two cases is greatest

Lumped or Distributed	Bandwidth w	K1	$ m K_2$	Disk Diameter D ₁ in.	$egin{array}{l} ext{Dismeter} \ ext{D}_2 ext{ in.} \end{array}$	l cm	l ₂ cm	φ ₁ rad. φ ₂ rad.	φ ₂ rad.
	1%	6.1701	0.72194	0.502	0.554	0.3011	0.3496	0.24556	0.02888
	1%	:	* *	:	*	0.3471	0.4302	0.15534	0.01330
	2%	13.7969	3,6097	0.502	0.532	0.1263	0.2547	0.53847	0.14414
	2%		•	:	:	0.1298	0.2777	0.50663	0.10963
	10%	19.5117	7.2193	0.502	0.502	0.0820	0.2559	0.74412	0.28679
	10%	•	÷	:	:	0.0833	0.2816	0.72378	0.21529

Table I. Disk parameters for bandpass filters with three ripples

Lumped	Band-						
or Distributed	width w	K	K ₂		K_3 D_1 in. D_2 in. D_3 in.	D_2 in.	D_3 in.
T	%9	13.0849 3.1316	3.1316	2,3863 0.502	0.502	0.532	0.532
Q	2%		*	ξ.	.	=	:
Ħ	10%	18.5049	6.2632 4.7726	4.7726	0.502	0.502	0.532
D	10%			**		•	, t

or Distributed Lwidth w ℓ_1 cm ℓ_2 cm ℓ_3 cm ℓ_3 cm ℓ_1 rad. ℓ_2 rad. ℓ_3 rad.L5%0.13430.29400.38640.511920.125100.09538D5%0.13840.33280.54620.477930.829290.01747L10%0.08800.29650.19190.708930.249230.19033D10%0.08960.33990.20090.687060.161140.16587	Lumped	Band-						
0.1343 0.2940 0.3864 0.1384 0.3328 0.5462 0.0880 0.2965 0.1919 0.0896 0.3399 0.2009	or Distributed	width w	l cm	ℓ_2 cm	l ₃ cm	φ ₁ rad.	ϕ_2 rad.	φ ₃ rad.
0.1384 0.3328 0.5462 0.0880 0.2965 0.1919 0.0896 0.3399 0.2009	ı	2%	0.1343	0.2940	0.3864	0.51192	0.12510	0.09538
0.0880 0.2965 0.1919 0.0896 0.3399 0.2009	D	2%	0.1384	0.3328	0.5462	0.47793	0.82929	0.01747
********	L	10%	0.0880		0.1919		0.24923	0.19033
	D	10%	0.0896	0.3399	0.2009	0.68706	0.16114	0.16587

Table II. Disk parameters for bandpass filters with five ripples

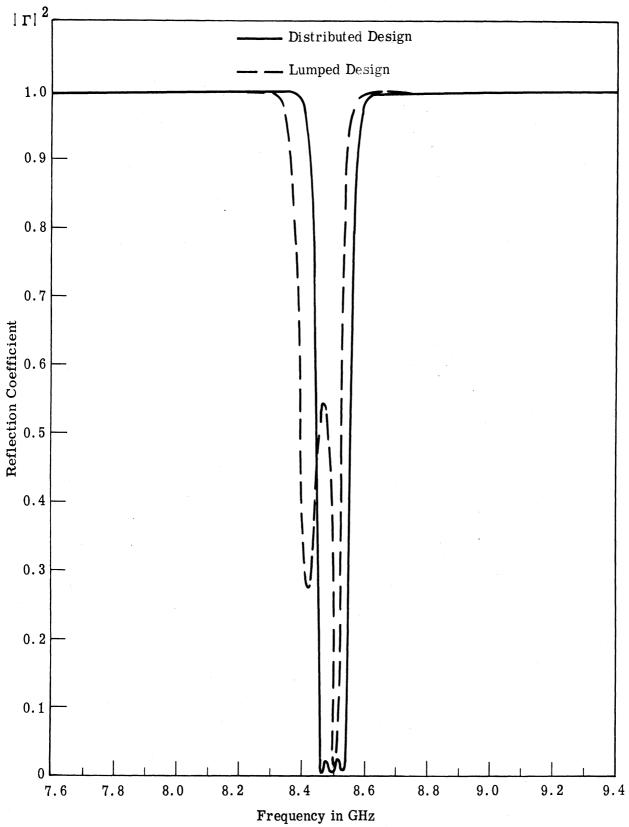


Fig. 26. Theoretical comparison between two design techniques for a 1 percent bandwidth bandpass filter which operates between two 50-ohm loads

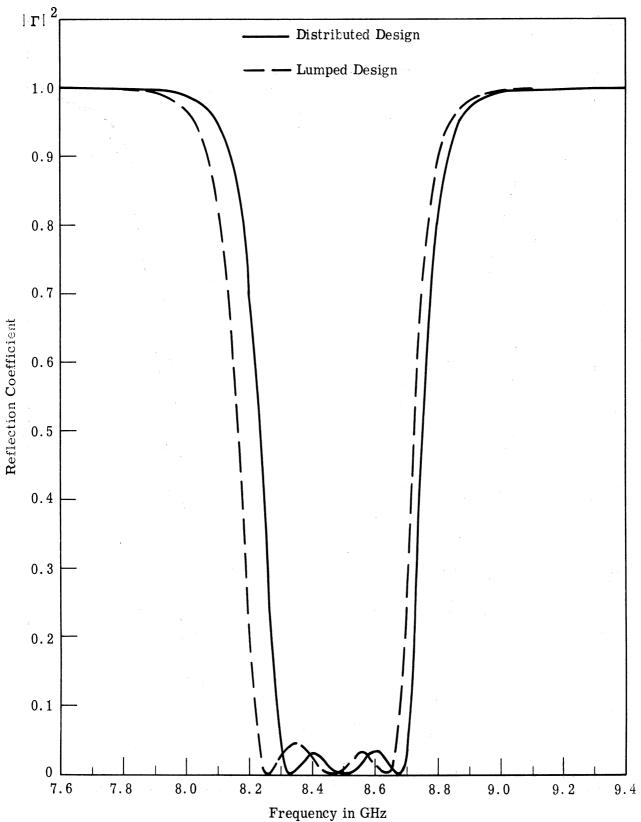
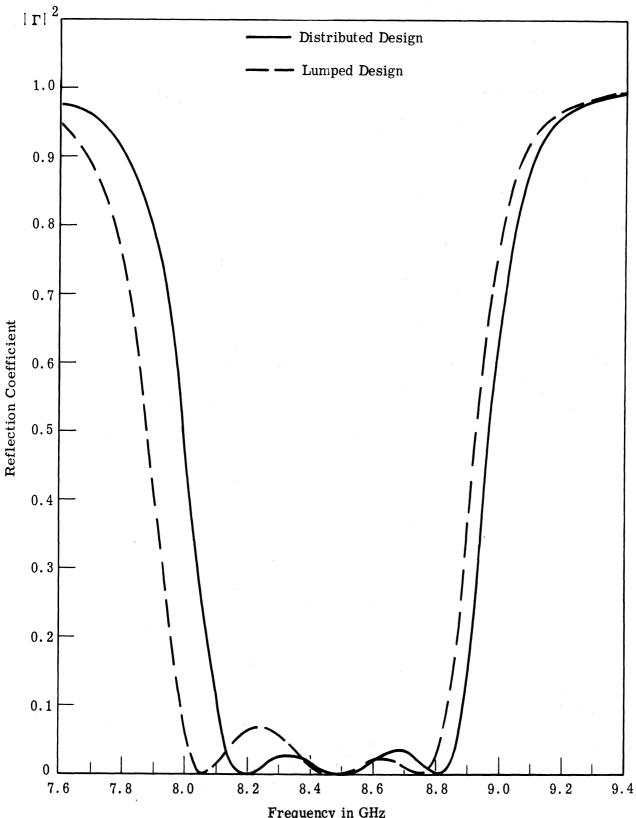


Fig. 27. Theoretical comparison between two design techniques for a 5 percent bandwidth bandpass filter which operates between two 50-ohm loads



Frequency in GHz
Fig. 28. Theoretical comparison between two design techniques for a 10 percent bandwidth bandpass filter which operates between two 50-ohm loads

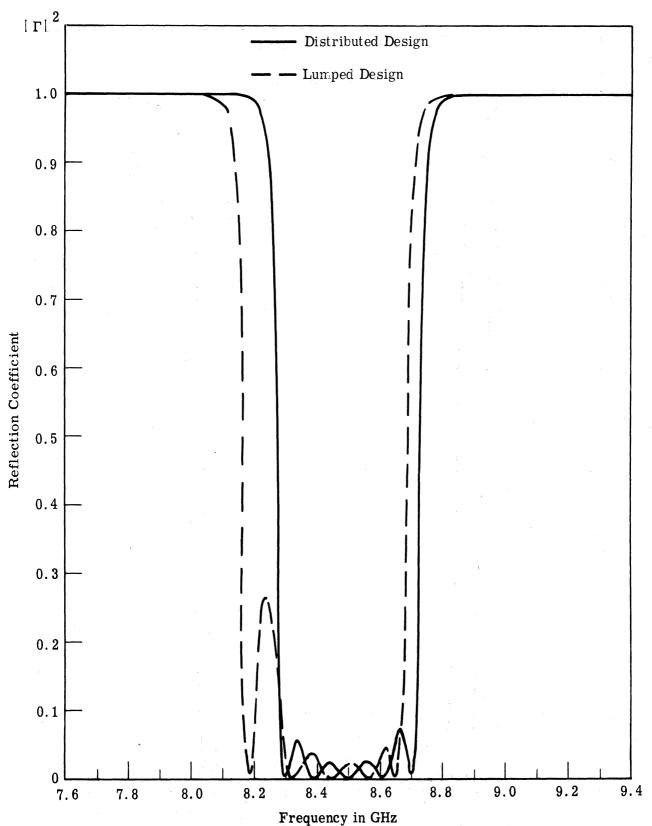


Fig. 29. Theoretical comparison between two design techniques for a 5 percent bandwidth 5-ripple filter which operates between two 50-ohm loads

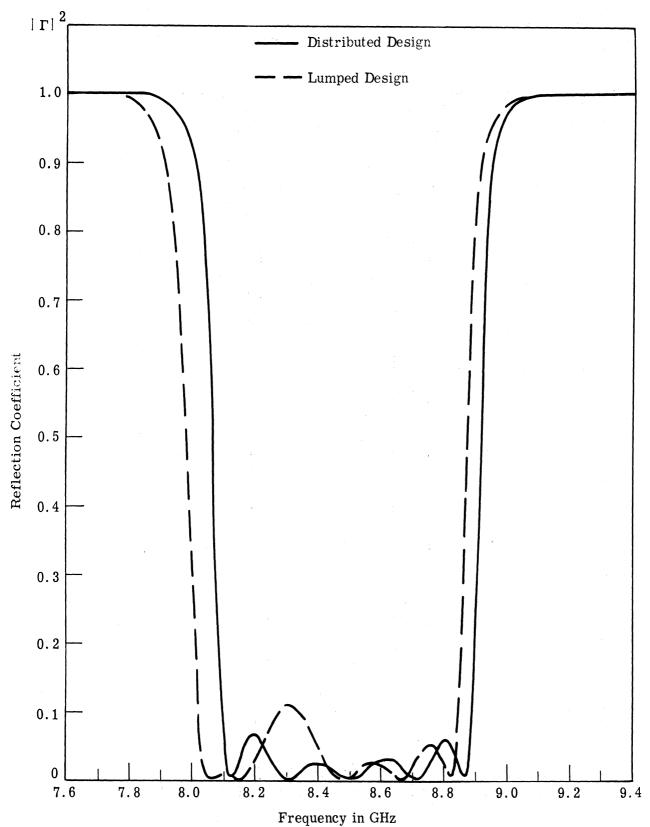


Fig. 30. Theoretical comparison between two design techniques for a 10 percent bandwidth 5-ripple filter which operates between two 50-ohm loads

when the disk length is large. The different disk diameters used in Tables I and II were the result of increasing the diameter to make the expression for $\tan \beta \, \ell/2$ real.

$$\delta = \frac{1}{wQ_A} = \frac{1}{17.5} = 0.0571$$

In this case the load acts as the first series resonator so the first K inverter is K_{12} which is given by

$$K_{12} = \frac{1}{\omega_{c}} \sqrt{\frac{wR_{A}\chi_{2}}{g_{1}g_{2}\delta}}$$

The low-pass prototype g values can be obtained from a graph (Ref. 4, p. 128), and the values for K can be found from the above expression and the formulas found in Fig. 16. For an n pole low-pass prototype circuit, only n K inverters are needed for the matching network whereas n+1 K inverters were needed for the 50-ohm to 50-ohm filter.

The results of the 50:1 impedance transformers are shown in Figs. 31 through 34 for different bandwidths. Again the passband was centered around f_0 for the distributed design case. The distributed design

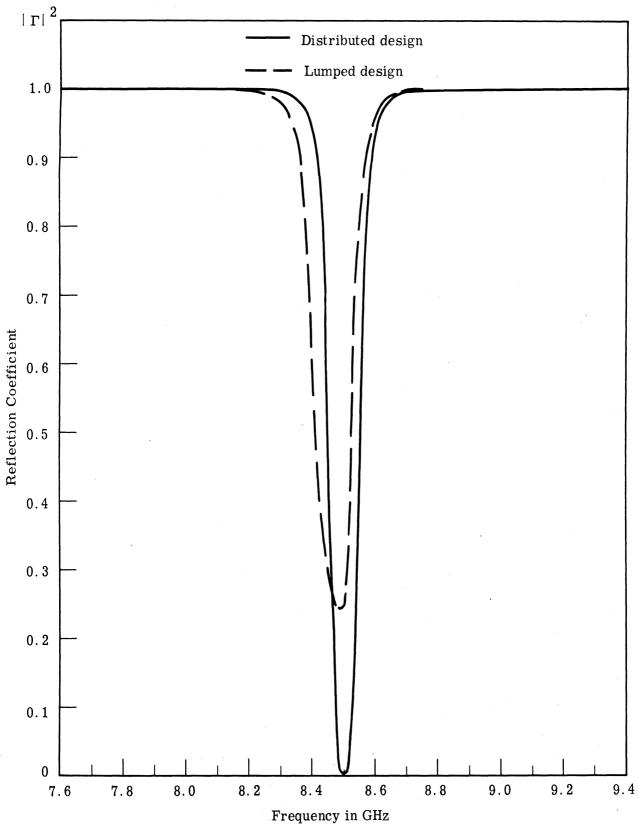


Fig. 31. Theoretical comparison between two design techniques for a 1 percent bandwidth impedance transformer operating between a 50-ohm and a 1-ohm load

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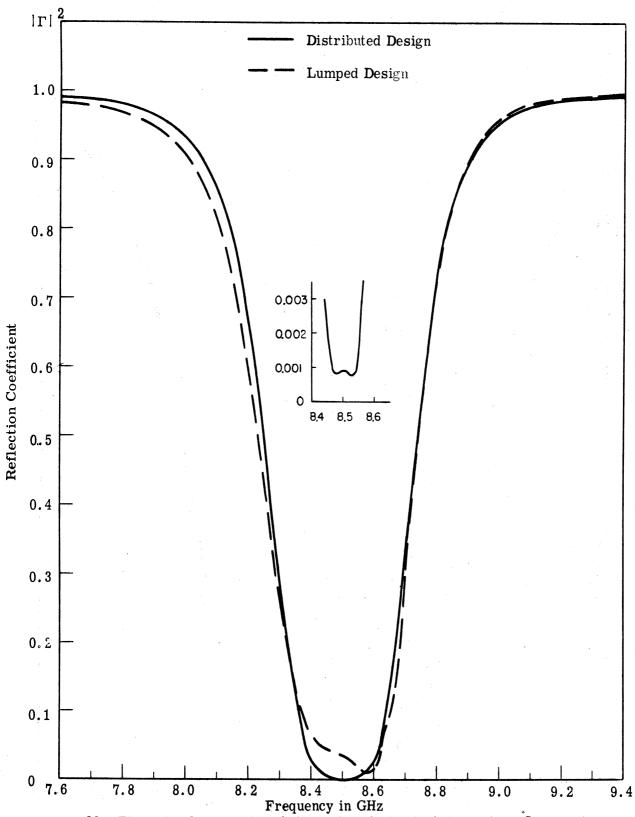


Fig. 32. Theoretical comparison between two design techniques for a 5 percent bandwidth impedance transformer operating between a 50-ohm and a 1-ohm load

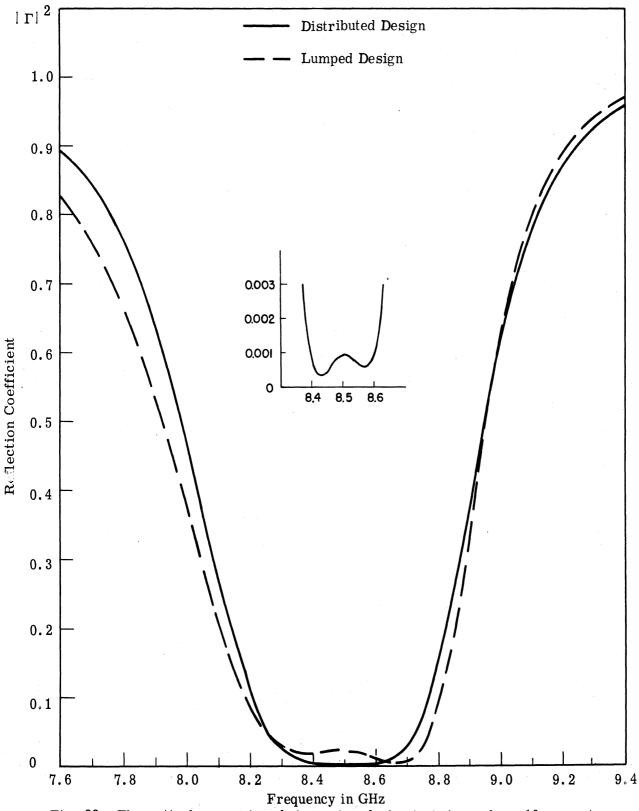


Fig. 33. Theoretical comparison between two design techniques for a 10 percent bandwidth impedance transformer operating between a 50-ohm and a 1-ohm load

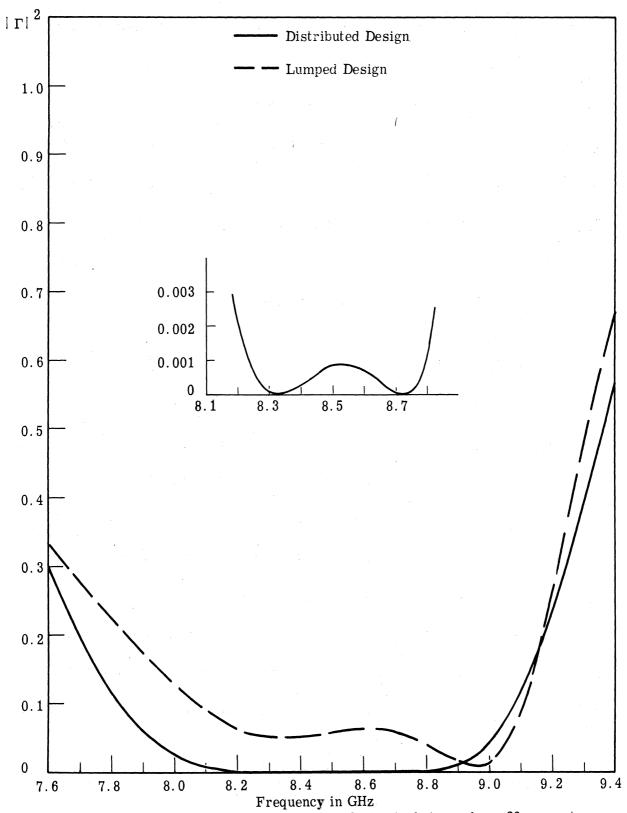


Fig. 34. Theoretical comparison between two design techniques for a 20 percent bandwidth impedance transformer operating between a 50-ohm and a 1-ohm load

transformers generally had a flatter passband and a slightly narrower bandwidth than the design goal. Table III summarizes the design data for these curves.

XIII c. Impedance Plots. The impedance of the 10 percent bandpass filter shown in Fig. 28 is plotted in Fig. 35. The impedance seen from the 1-ohm side of the transformer of Fig. 33 is plotted in Fig. 36. An ideal filter would have an impedance of 50 + j0 ohms in the passband in Fig. 35, and an ideal impedance matching network would have an impedance of 1 + j0 ohms in the passband of Fig. 36.

XIV. Experimental Work

A 50-ohm to 50-ohm bandpass filter with a 10 percent bandwidth was constructed using the distributed design technique. The same ripple and g values were used as before, and the center frequency was chosen as 8.5 GHz. The design procedure of Section XII was used to build a filter of the form shown in Fig. 37. For ease of handling the outer two disks were made thicker by using an air dielectric between the outer conductor and the disk. The center two disks had a Teflon dielectric ($\epsilon_{\mathbf{r}} = 2.03$) between the two conductors to increase the capacitance and to provide mechanical support for the disks. Here the disk lengths, $\ell_{\mathbf{i}}$, have been shortened in accord with Eq. 42 to account for the discontinuity capacitance. The final design parameters are shown in Table IV.

Ţ	7								
	ø ₃ rad.	0.25942	9.17667	0.56761	0.53787	0.27712 0.78246	0.76366	1.05618	1.04568
	l_3 cm ϕ_1 rad. ϕ_2 rad. ϕ_3 rad.	0.554 0.502 0.3439 0.3620 0.2843 0.02935 0.02789 0.25942	0.01100 0.17667	0.532 0.502 0.3747 0.2638 0.1184 0.06561 0.13923 0.56761	0.10307	0.27712	0.20206	1678 0.532 0.502 0.502 0.2804 0.1248 0.0427 0.13108 0.54399 1.05618	0.3129 0.1282 0.0432 0.09173 0.51256 1.04568
• •	ϕ_1 rad.	0.02935	0.4591 0.3215 0.01431	0.06561	0.2899 0.1214 0.02006 0.10307	6247 0.542 0.502 0.502 0.2647 0.2653 0.0759 0.0276	0.2906 0.2944 0.0771 0.06861 0.20206	0.13108	0.09173
	l_3 cm	0.2843	0.3215	0.1184	0.1214	0.0759	0.0771	0.0427	0.0432
**	D_1 in. D_2 in. D_3 in. ℓ_1 cm ℓ_2 cm	0.3620		0.2638	0.2899	0.2653	0. 2944	0.1248	0.1282
	ℓ_1 cm	0.3439	0.4183	0.3747	0.4963	0.2647	0. 2906	0.2804	0.3129
ters	D_3 in.	0.502	:	0.502	:	0.502	:	0.502	
Disk Diameters	D_2 in.	0.554	:	0.532	:	0.502	:	0.502	:
Disk	D ₁ in.	0.554	:	0.542	:	0.542	:	0.532	:
	$^{\mathrm{K}_3}$	6.5221	:	14.5839	:	20.	÷	26.	:
	K2	0.6973	•	3,4864	:	6.9727	÷	3.2818 13.9454	:
	K1	0.7338	:	1.6409	:	2,3206	:		:
Band-	w	1%	1%	2%	2%	10%	10%	20%	20%
	Lumped or Distributed	7	D	'n	О	П	Q	ı	D

Table III. Disk parameters for bandpass impedance transformer using three disks

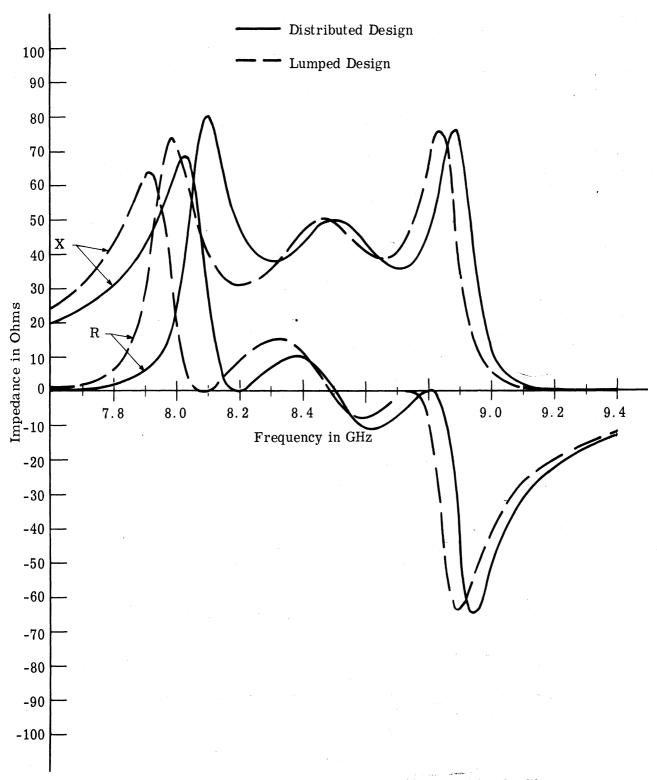


Fig. 35. Theoretical impedance of a 3-ripple, 10 percent bandwidth bandpass filter operating between two 50-ohm loads

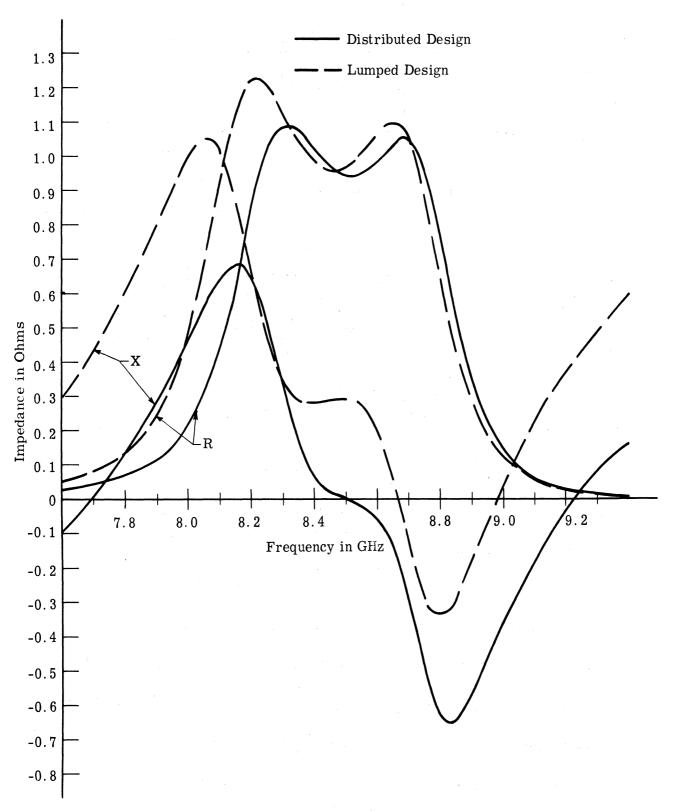


Fig. 36. Theoretical impedance of a 3-ripple, 10 percent bandwidth 50 impedance transformer as seen from the 1-ohm side

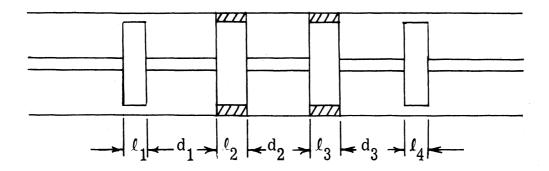
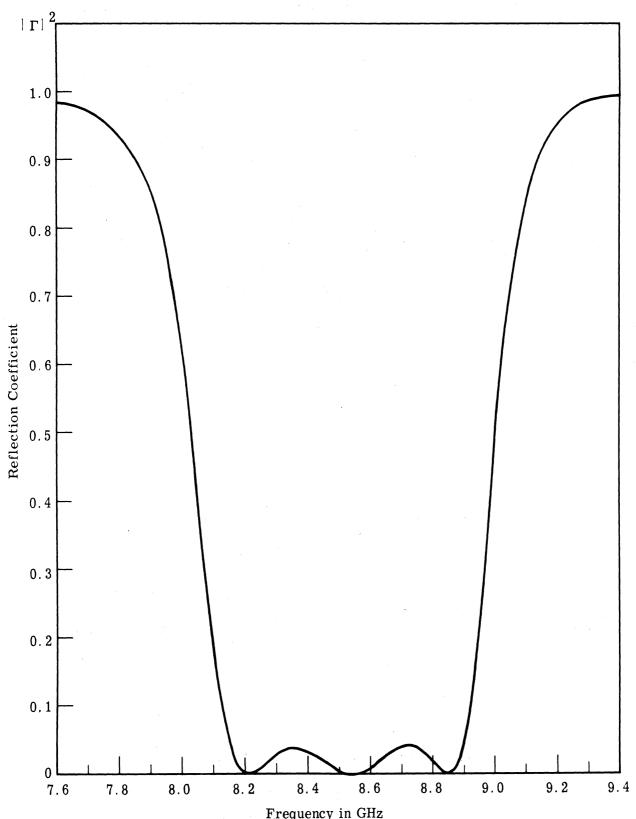


Fig. 37. Coaxial bandpass filter

$$K_1 = 19.51168$$
 $K_2 = 7.219345$
 $\phi_1 = 0.7019 \text{ radians}$
 $\phi_2 = 0.2153 \text{ radians}$
All disk diameters = 0.502 in.
$$\ell_1 = \ell_4 = 0.01456 \text{ in.}$$
 $\ell_2 = \ell_3 = 0.08465 \text{ in.}$
 $d_1 = d_3 = 0.79564 \text{ in.}$
 $d_2 = 0.74186 \text{ in.}$

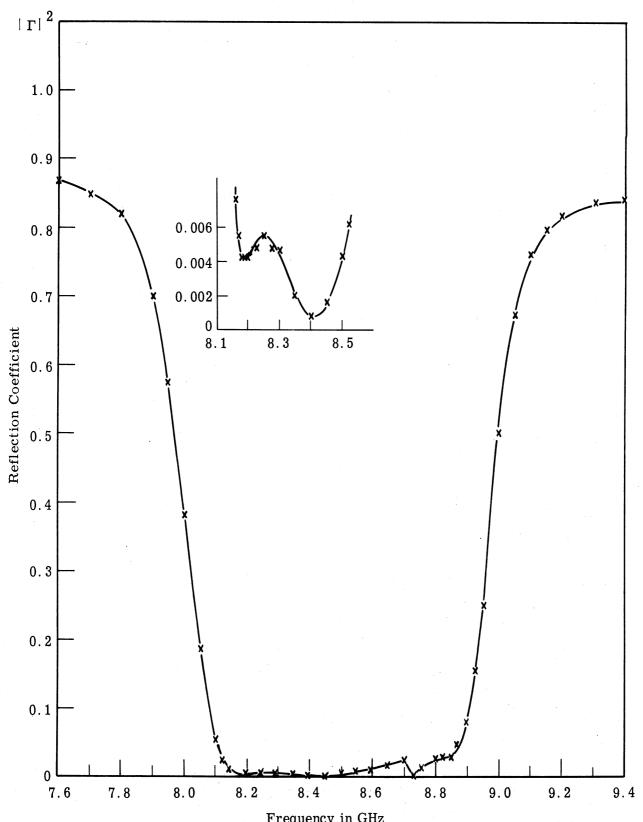
Table IV. Filter design parameters

The theoretical bandpass characteristics for this filter are shown in Fig. 38 and the experimental curve is shown in Fig. 39. In both cases the high frequency ripple is the larger one, the ripple in the experiment filter being slightly larger than the theoretical one. The dip in the middle of the large ripple in Fig. 39 appears to be a small resonance due to a mismatch in the line, quite possibly in a connector. The attenuation in the out of band frequencies was lower in Fig. 39 because the high VSWR was limited by losses in the system.



Frequency in GHz

Fig. 38. Theoretical 10 percent bandiwdth bandpass filter which accounts for discontinuity capacitance



Frequency in GHz
Fig. 39. Experimental 10 percent bandwidth bandpass filter

XV. Conclusions

The distributed design procedure developed here for bandpass filters and impedance transformers gives an improved overall characteristic over the lumped design procedure. Although the distributed design gives a lower ripple than the lumped design, it is still larger than the low-pass prototype design ripple. The design method itself is easy to use and is applicable over a wide range of microwave frequencies.

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A review of lumped-element filter synthesis techniques using the power loss ratio is presented. This leads to filter synthesis based on impedance inverters for which S. B. Cohn (Ref. 1) has given an approximate microwave realization. Here an improved method is presented which considers the distributive property of the impedance inverter. Several theoretical curves are shown comparing the two methods. Finally results from an experimental model are shown.

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