Date: 13.11.2014

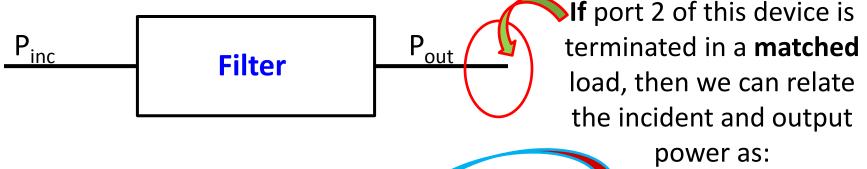
Lecture – 22

- High Frequency Filter
- Filter Phase Function
- The Linear Phase Filter
- The Insertion Loss Method

Filters

- A microwave filter

 A two-port microwave network that allows source power to be transferred to a load as an explicit function of frequency.
- A RF/microwave filter is (typically) a passive, reciprocal, 2-port linear device.



We define this power transmission through a filter in terms of the **power**

transmission coefficient T:

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

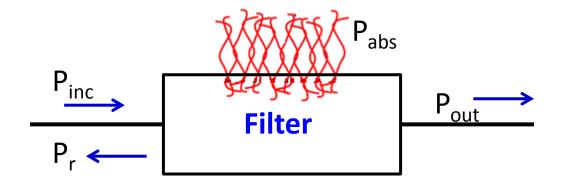
As microwave filters are typically **passive**





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

A: Two possibilities: the power is either absorbed (Pabs) 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:

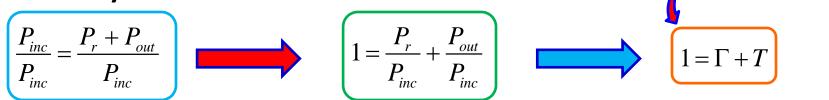
$$P_{inc} = P_r + P_{out}$$

lossless

filter

Filters (contd.)

Alternatively we can write:



Where:

$$T = \frac{P_{out}}{P_{inc}}$$
 Transmission Coefficient

$$\Gamma \doteq \frac{P_r}{P_{inc}} = |S_{11}|^2$$
 Power Reflection Coefficient

• Therefore, another way of saying a 2-port lossless device can be:

$$1 = \left| S_{11} \right|^2 + \left| S_{21} \right|^2$$

• Now, here's the important part! \rightarrow For a microwave filter, the coefficients Γ and Γ are functions of frequency! i.e.,:

$$\Gamma(\omega)$$
 $T(\omega)$

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

- We find that for most signal frequencies ω_s , these functions will have a value equal to one of **two** different **approximate** values.
- Either:

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

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

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

<u>or</u>

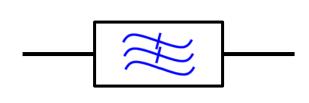
$$\Gamma(\omega = \omega_s) \approx 1$$

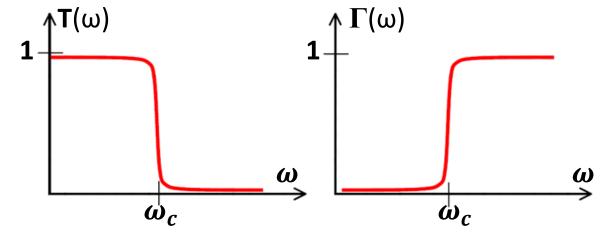
$$T(\omega = \omega_s) \approx 0$$

In **this** case, the signal frequency ω_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 $T(\omega)$:

1. Low Pass Filter





Note for this filter:

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

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

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

Q: This frequency ω_c seems to be very important! What is it?



A: Frequency ω_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.

 Accordingly, this frequency is defined as the frequency where the power transmission coefficient is equal to 1/2:

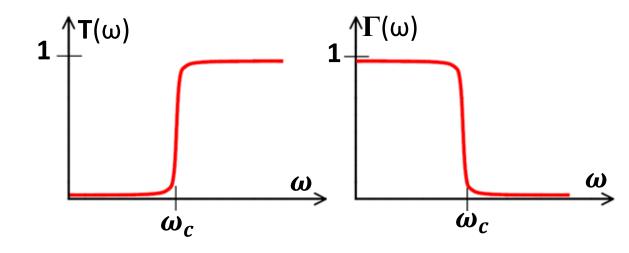
$$T(\omega = \omega_c) = 0.5$$

 Note for a lossless filter, the cutoff frequency is likewise the value where the power reflection coefficient is 1/2:

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

2. High - Pass Filter



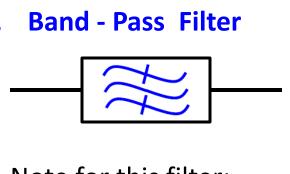


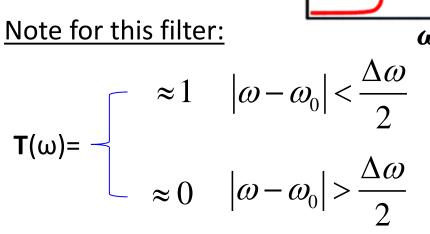
Note for this filter:

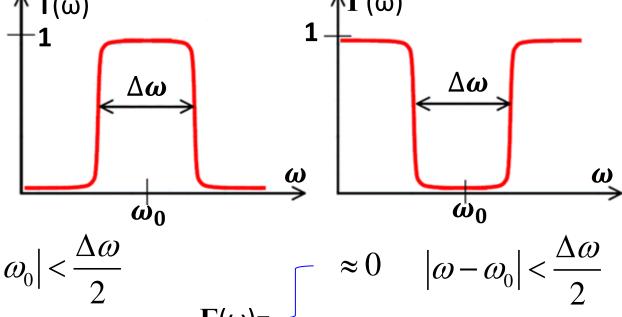
$$\mathbf{T}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \approx 0 & \omega < \omega_c \\ \approx 1 & \omega > \omega_c \end{cases}$$

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

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



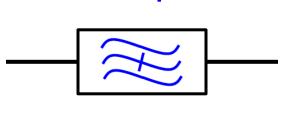




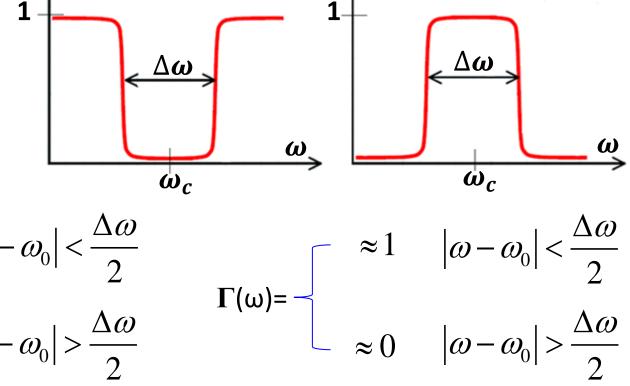
- This filter is a **band-pass** type, as it "passes" signals within a frequency bandwidth $\Delta\omega$, while "rejecting" signals at all frequencies outside this bandwidth.
- In addition to filter bandwidth $\Delta\omega$, a fundamental parameter of bandpass filters is ω_0 , which defines the **center frequency** of the filter bandwidth.



4. Band - Stop Filter



Note for this filter:



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

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 $S_{21}(\omega)$:

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

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**:



$$S_{21}(\omega) = |S_{21}(\omega)| e^{j \angle S_{21}(\omega)}$$

where the phase is denoted as
$$\angle S_{21}(\omega)$$
:
$$\left[\angle S_{21}(\omega) = \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{\operatorname{Im} \{ S_{21}(\omega) \}}{\operatorname{Re} \{ S_{21}(\omega) \}} \right] \right]$$

We therefore 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:

$$V_{2}^{-}(z_{1}) = V_{02}^{-}e^{+j\beta z_{2}}$$

$$= S_{21}V_{01}^{+}e^{+j\beta z_{2}} = |S_{21}|V_{01}^{+}e^{+j(\beta z + \angle S_{21})}$$

We say that there has been a "phase shift" of $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$ 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?

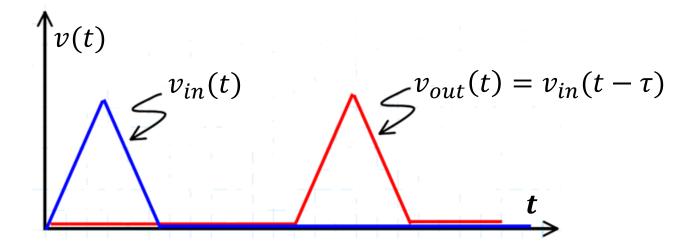
A: Yes!

- To see how, consider an **example** two-port network (filter) with the impulse response: $h(t) = \delta(t-\tau)$
- We just identified that this device would merely **delay** an input signal (say by some amount τ):

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

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

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



 Now if we take the Fourier transform of this impulse response, then frequency response of this two-port network is:

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

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

$$= e^{-j\omega t}$$

In other words:

$$|H(\omega)| = 1$$

$$\angle H(\omega) = -\omega \tau$$

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

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

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

Then the output would be:

$$v_{out}(t) = \cos \omega (t - \tau)$$



$$v_{out}(t) = \cos \omega(t - \tau)$$
 $v_{out}(t) = \cos(\omega t - \omega \tau)$

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

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

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

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!

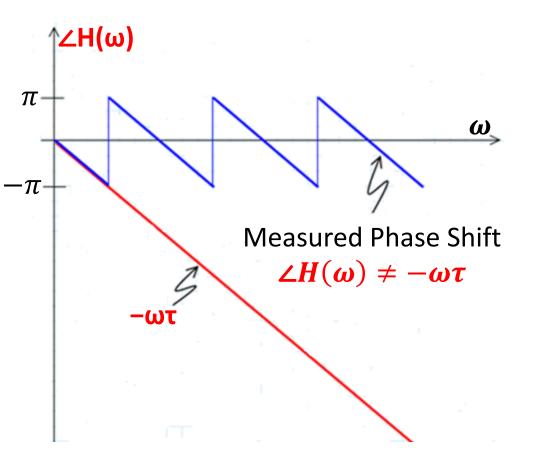
Thus, any phase shift measurement has an inherent ambiguity. Typically, we interpret a phase measurement (in radians) such that:

$$-\pi < \angle H(\omega) \le \pi$$

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 ω with exactly the **same** measured phase $\angle H$ (ω)!

Q: So determining the delay τ is **impossible**?

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

Looking at the plot, this method should become **apparent**. Note 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:

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

The slope directly tells us the **propagation delay!**

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

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

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 τ 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 τ 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 τ !

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:

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



This result τ(ω) is also known as **phase delay**, and is **very** important function to consider when designing/specifying/selecting a **microwave filter**

Q: why; what might happen if we don't consider?

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

Filter Dispersion



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

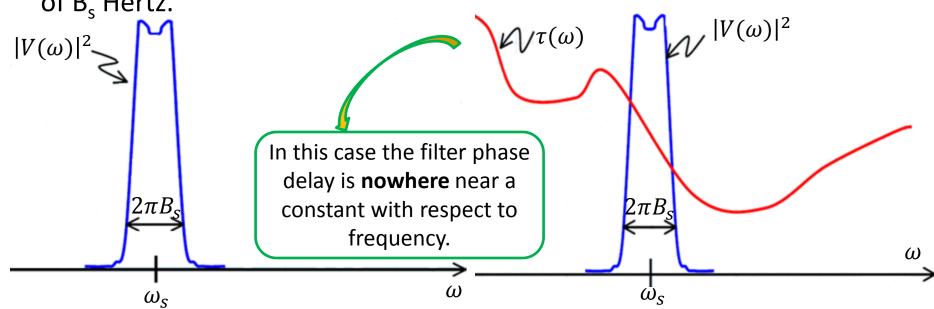
If the different frequencies that comprise a signal propagate at different velocities through a microwave filter (i.e., each signal frequency has a different delay τ), the output signal will be **distorted**. We call this phenomenon signal **dispersion**.

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.

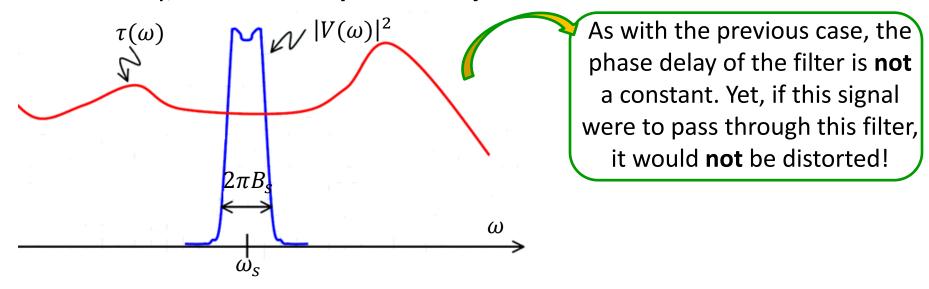
This is a **good** thing, for as we shall latter see, building a good filter with a constant phase delay is **very** difficult!

- 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 τ(ω) of some filter:



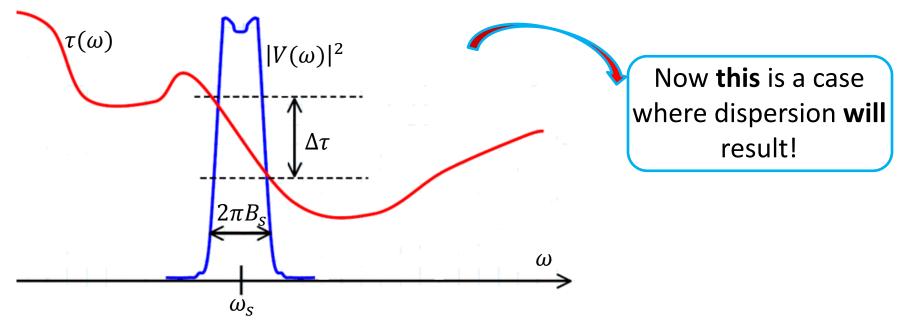
However, this fact alone does **not** necessarily mean that our signal would suffer from **dispersion** if it passed through this filter. Indeed, the signal in this case **would** be distorted, but **only** because the phase delay $\tau(\omega)$ changes significantly across the **bandwidth** B_s of the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

Conversely, consider this phase delay:



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:



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:

$$\omega_s \Delta \tau \leq 1$$

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

$$\omega_s \Delta \tau \leq \frac{\pi}{5}$$

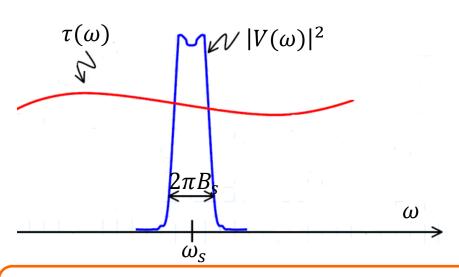
• Or, using $\omega_S = 2\pi f_S$:

$$f_s \Delta \tau \leq 0.1$$

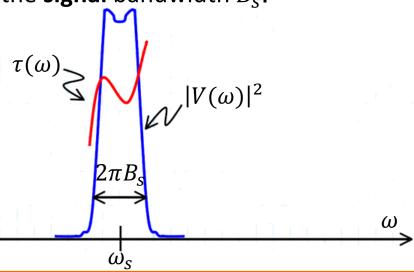
Generally speaking, we find for **wideband** filters—where filter bandwidth B is much greater than the signal bandwidth (i.e.,B >>B_s)—the above criteria is **easily** satisfied. In other words, signal dispersion is **not** typically a problem for wide band filters (e.g., pre-select filters).

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 Bs.



Conversely, a **narrowband** filter — where filter bandwidth B is approximately **equal** to the signal bandwidth (i.e., $B_s = B$) — can (if we are not careful!) exhibit a phase delay which changes **significantly** over **filter** bandwidth B. This means that the delay 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:

$$\tau(\omega) = \tau_c$$
 where τ_c is some **constant**.

Recall that the definition of **phase delay** is: $\tau(\omega) = -\frac{\partial \angle S_{21}(\omega)}{\partial \omega}$

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

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 τ_c .

Fortunately, this differential equation is **easily** solved!

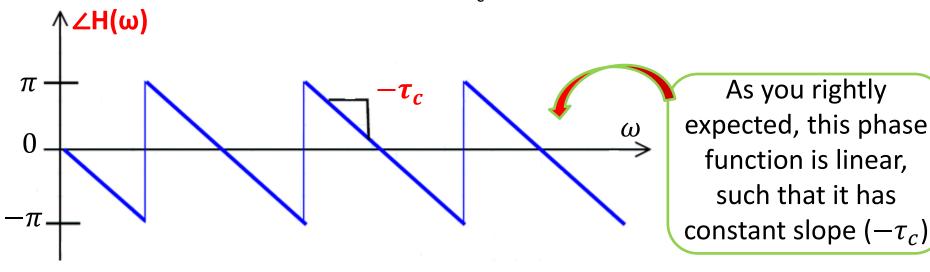
The Linear Phase Filter (contd.)

• The solution is:

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

where ϕ_c is an arbitrary **constant**.

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



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

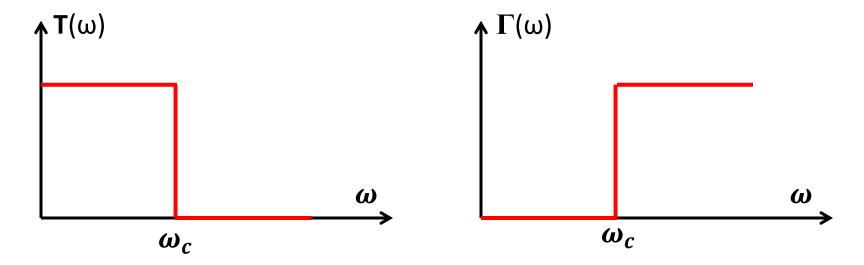
The Insertion Loss Method

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

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

- Ideally, these functions would be quite simple:
- **1.** $T(\omega) = 1$ and $\Gamma(\omega) = 0$ for **all** frequencies within the **pass**band.
- **2.** $T(\omega) = 0$ and $\Gamma(\omega) = 1$ for **all** frequencies within the **stop**band.

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



- 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:

$$T(\omega) = \frac{a_o + a_1\omega + a_2\omega^2 + ...}{b_o + b_1\omega + b_2\omega^2 + ... + b_N\omega^{2N}}$$

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

 Instead of the power transmission coefficient, we often use an equivalent function (assuming lossless) called the power loss ratio P_{IR}:

$$P_{LR} = \frac{P_1^+}{P_2^-} = \frac{1}{1 - \Gamma(\omega)}$$

Note, $P_{LR} = \infty$ when $\Gamma(\omega) = 1$, and $P_{LR} = 1$ when $\Gamma(\omega) = 0$.

- We likewise note that, for a lossless filter: $P_{LR} = \frac{1}{T(\omega)}$
- Therefore $P_{LR}(dB)$ is: $P_{LR}(dB) = 10\log_{10} P_{LR} = -10\log_{10} T(\omega)$

The power loss ratio in dB is simply the insertion loss of a lossless filter, and thus filter design using the power loss ratio is also called the Insertion Loss Method.

We find that realizable filters will have a power loss ratio of the form:

$$P_{LR}(\omega) = 1 + \frac{M(\omega^2)}{N(\omega^2)}$$

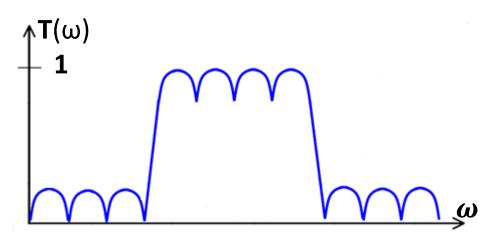
where $M(\omega^2)$ and $N(\omega^2)$ are polynomials with terms $\omega^2, \omega^4, \omega^6$, etc.

By specifying these polynomials, we specify the frequency behavior of a realizable filter. Our job is to first choose a desirable polynomial!

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

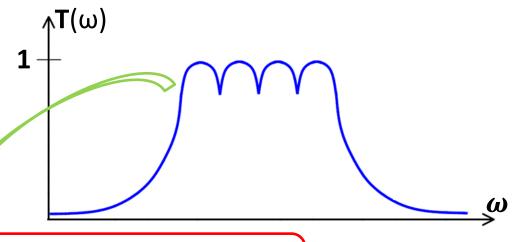


We can make the roll-off **steeper** by accepting more **ripple**.

2. Chebychev: These 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.

• The Chebychev low-pass filters have a power loss ratio equal to:

$$P_{LR}(\omega) = 1 + k^2 T_N^2 \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_c}\right)$$

where k specifies the passband **ripple**, $T_N(x)$ is a Chebychev polynomial of **order** N, and ω_c is the low-pass **cutoff frequency**.

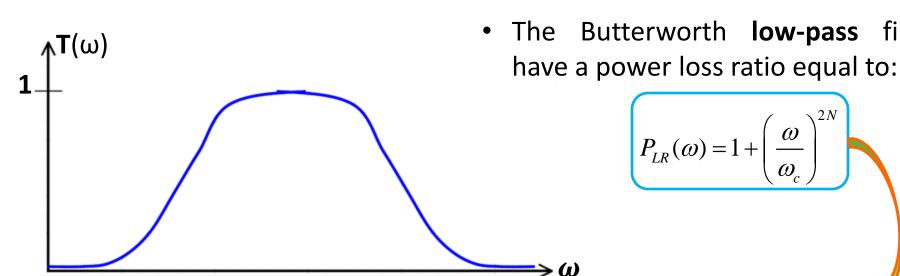
filters

The Insertion Loss Method (contd.)

3. Butterworth

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

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



where ω_c is the low-pass cutoff frequency, and N specifies the order of the filter.

Q: So we always choose **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 Chebyshev $\angle S_{21}(\omega)$ \rightarrow **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 nonlinear).
 - 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 how do we take these polynomials and make real filters

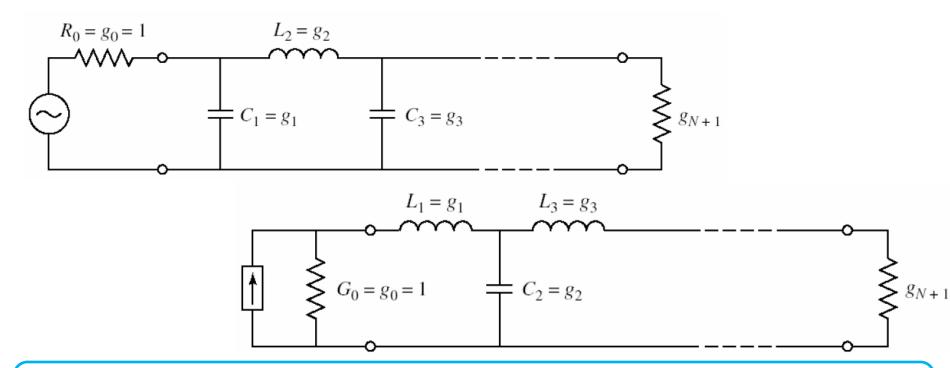
A: Similar to matching networks and couplers, we:

- Form a general circuit structure with several degrees of design freedom.
- 2. Determine the **general form** of the power loss ratio for these circuits.
- Use the degrees of design freedom to equate terms in the general form to the terms of the desired power loss ratio polynomial.

Filter Realizations Using Lumped Elements

- Our first filter circuit will be "realized" with lumped elements.
- Lumped elements—we mean inductors L and capacitors C!
- Since each of these elements are (ideally) perfectly reactive, the resulting filter will be lossless (ideally).

Let us first consider two configurations of a ladder circuit:



Note that these two structures provide a **low-pass** filter response (evaluate the circuits at $\omega = 0$ and $\omega = \infty$!).

Moreover, these structures have N different **reactive elements** (i.e., N degrees of design freedom) and thus can be used to realize an **N-order** power loss ratio.

For example, consider the **Butterworth** power $P_{LR}(\omega) = 1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_c}\right)^{2N}$

$$P_{LR}(\omega) = 1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_c}\right)^{2N}$$

Recall this is a **low-pass** function, as $P_{LR}=1$ at $\omega=0$, and $P_{LR}=\infty$ at $\omega = \infty$. Note also that at $\omega_c = \omega$:

$$P_{LR}(\omega = \omega_c) = 1 + \left(\frac{\omega_c}{\omega_c}\right)^{2N} = 2$$
 Thus



$$\Gamma(\omega = \omega_c) = T(\omega = \omega_c) = \frac{1}{2}$$

In other words, ω_c defines the 3dB bandwidth of the low-pass filter.

• Likewise, we find that this Butterworth function is **maximally flat** at $\omega = 0$:

$$P_{LR}(\omega=0) = 1 + \left(\frac{0}{\omega_c}\right)^{2N} = 1$$
and:
$$\frac{d^n P_{LR}(\omega)}{d\omega^n}|_{\omega=0} = 0$$
 For all n

- Now, we can determine the function $P_{LR}(\omega)$ for a lumped element ladder circuit of N elements using our knowledge of **complex circuit theory**.
- Then, we can equate the resulting polynomial to the maximally flat function above. In this manner, we can determine the appropriate values of all inductors L and capacitors C!
- Finding these L an C requires little bit of complex algebra.
- Pozar provides tables of complete Butterworth and Chebychev low-pass solutions.

TABLE 8.3 Element Values for Maximally Flat Low-Pass Filter Prototypes ($g_0 = 1$, $\omega_c = 1$, N = 1 to 10)

N	g_1	g_2	<i>g</i> ₃	g_4	<i>g</i> 5	g_6	g 7	<i>g</i> 8	g 9	g_{10}	g_{11}
1	2.0000	1.0000									
2	1.4142	1.4142	1.0000								
3	1.0000	2.0000	1.0000	1.0000							
4	0.7654	1.8478	1.8478	0.7654	1.0000						
5	0.6180	1.6180	2.0000	1.6180	0.6180	1.0000					
6	0.5176	1.4142	1.9318	1.9318	1.4142	0.5176	1.0000				
7	0.4450	1.2470	1.8019	2.0000	1.8019	1.2470	0.4450	1.0000			
8	0.3902	1.1111	1.6629	1.9615	1.9615	1.6629	1.1111	0.3902	1.0000		
9	0.3473	1.0000	1.5321	1.8794	2.0000	1.8794	1.5321	1.0000	0.3473	1.0000	
10	0.3129	0.9080	1.4142	1.7820	1.9754	1.9754	1.7820	1.4142	0.9080	0.3129	1.0000

Source: Reprinted from G. L. Matthaei, L. Young, and E. M. T. Jones, Microwave Filters, Impedance-Matching Networks, and Coupling Structures, Artech House, Dedham, Mass., 1980, with permission.

TABLE 8.4 Element Values for Equal-Ripple Low-Pass Filter Prototypes ($g_0 = 1$, $\omega_c = 1$, N = 1 to 10, 0.5 dB and 3.0 dB ripple)

0.5 dB Ripple											
N	g_1	g_2	g 3	<i>g</i> ₄	<i>g</i> 5	g 6	g 7	<i>g</i> 8	g 9	g_{10}	<i>g</i> 11
1	0.6986	1.0000									
2	1.4029	0.7071	1.9841								
3	1.5963	1.0967	1.5963	1.0000							
4	1.6703	1.1926	2.3661	0.8419	1.9841						
5	1.7058	1.2296	2.5408	1.2296	1.7058	1.0000					
6	1.7254	1.2479	2.6064	1.3137	2.4758	0.8696	1.9841				
7	1.7372	1.2583	2.6381	1.3444	2.6381	1.2583	1.7372	1.0000			
8	1.7451	1.2647	2.6564	1.3590	2.6964	1.3389	2.5093	0.8796	1.9841		
9	1.7504	1.2690	2.6678	1.3673	2.7239	1.3673	2.6678	1.2690	1.7504	1.0000	
10	1.7543	1.2721	2.6754	1.3725	2.7392	1.3806	2.7231	1.3485	2.5239	0.8842	1.984
3.0 dB Ripple											
N	g_1	<i>g</i> ₂	g 3	<i>g</i> 4	<i>g</i> 5	g 6	<i>8</i> 7	<i>g</i> 8	g 9	g 10	<i>g</i> 11
1	1.9953	1.0000									
2	3.1013	0.5339	5.8095								
3	3.3487	0.7117	3.3487	1.0000							
4	3.4389	0.7483	4.3471	0.5920	5.8095						
5	3.4817	0.7618	4.5381	0.7618	3.4817	1.0000					
6	3.5045	0.7685	4.6061	0.7929	4.4641	0.6033	5.8095				
7	3.5182	0.7723	4.6386	0.8039	4.6386	0.7723	3.5182	1.0000			
8	3.5277	0.7745	4.6575	0.8089	4.6990	0.8018	4.4990	0.6073	5.8095		
9	3.5340	0.7760	4.6692	0.8118	4.7272	0.8118	4.6692	0.7760	3.5340	1.0000	
10	3.5384	0.7771	4.6768	0.8136	4.7425	0.8164	4.7260	0.8051	4.5142	0.6091	5.809
							Jones, M ass.,1980,			pedance-l	Match

Q: What?! What the heck do these values g_n mean?

A: We can use the values g_n to find the values of inductors and capacitors required for a given cutoff frequency ω_c and source resistance R_s (Z_0).

Specifically, we use the values of g_n to find ladder circuit **inductor** and capacitor values as:

$$L_n = g_n \left(\frac{R_s}{\omega_c} \right)$$

$$\left(L_{n} = g_{n} \left(\frac{R_{s}}{\omega_{c}}\right)\right) \qquad \left(C_{n} = g_{n} \left(\frac{1}{R_{s}\omega_{c}}\right)\right)$$

where n = 1, 2, ..., N

Likewise, the value g_{N+1} describes the **load impedance**. Specifically, we find that if the last reactive element (i.e., g_N) of the ladder circuit is a **shunt capacitor**, then:

$$R_L = g_{N+1} R_s$$

Whereas, if the last reactive element (i.e., g_N) of the ladder circuit is a **series inductor**, then:

$$R_L = \frac{R_s}{g_{N+1}}$$

• Note, however, for the **Butterworth** solutions (in Table 8.3) we find that $g_{N+1}=1$ always, and therefore:

$$R_L = R_s$$
 Regardless of the last element

- Moreover, we note (in Table 8.4) that this (i.e., $g_{N+1}=1$) is likewise true for the Chebyshev solutions provided that **N** is odd.
- Thus, since we typically desire a filter where:

$$R_L = R_s = Z_0$$
 We can use **any** order of **Butterworth** filter, or an **odd** order of **Chebyshev**.

In other words, avoid even order Chebyshev filters!