

Measurement Techniques



Design
Verification
&
Evaluation

**EVERYTHING TEST** 







# RF Test Fundamentals of Transmitt

Fundamentals of Transmitter and Receiver Testing



Neil Jarvis, RF and Microwave Applications Engineer

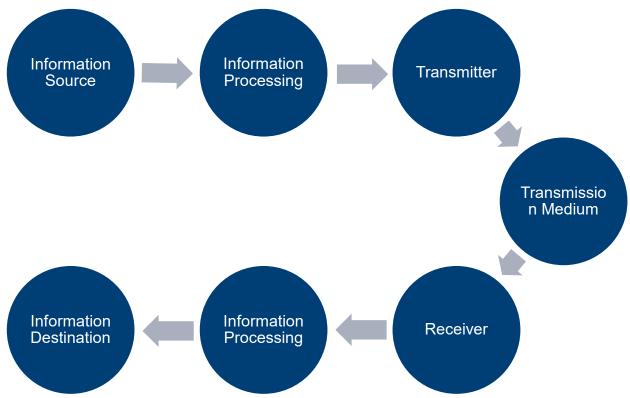
## ROHDE&SCHWARZ

Make ideas real



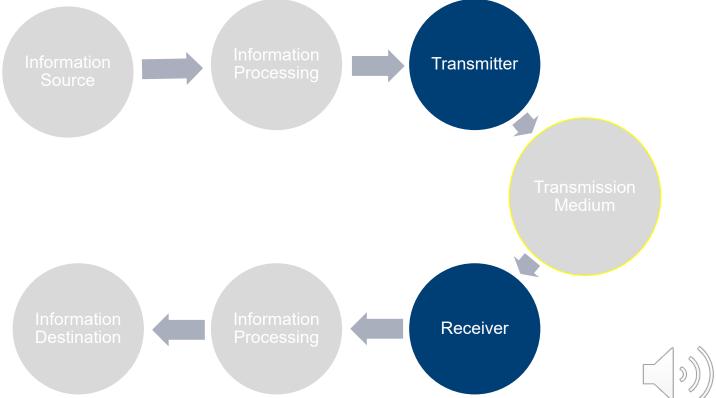
# **Simplified Communications System Block Diagram**





# What is different about a wireless system? Focus on the Transmission medium

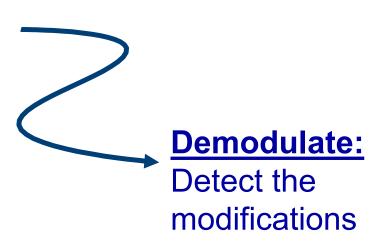




## **Modulation: Transmitting Information**

## **Modulate:**

Modify some characteristic of a carrier



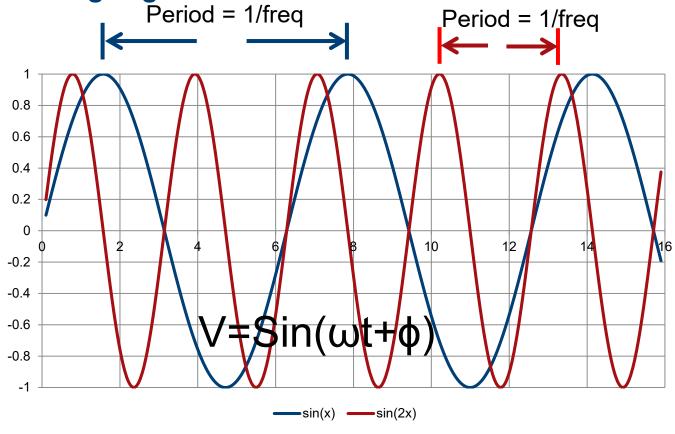
Any reliably detectable change in signal characteristics can carry information





# Simple Analog Signals in Time Domain Period = 1/freq







## **Modulation**



#### What is Modulation

- ► Modulation is the process of varying one or more properties of a higher frequency periodic waveform called the "Carrier Wave"
  - Amplitude
  - Frequency
  - Phase
  - Amplitude and Phase

## Why use Modulation

- Matching the transmission characteristics of the medium attenuation, multipath, fading etc
- ➤ Transmission efficiency is a function of antennas of dimension needing to be comparable with the wavelength of the signal, typically a quarter wavelength

# **Signal Characteristics to Modify**

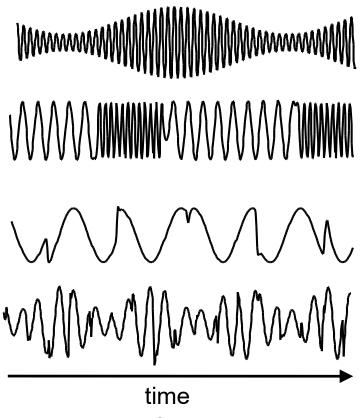


► Amplitude

▶ Frequency

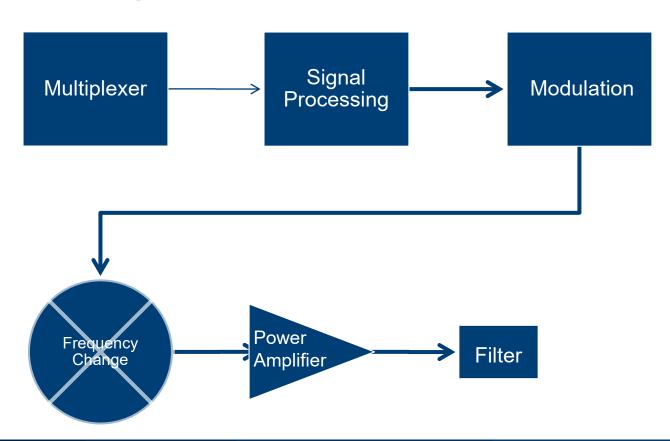
▶ Phase

Amplitude and Phase



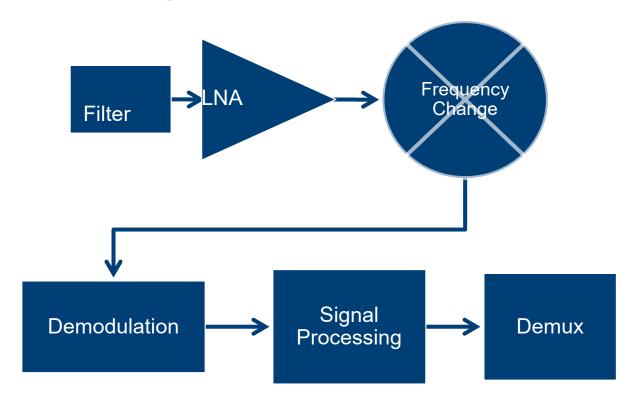
# What Does a Simple Transmitter Look Like?





# What Does a Simple Receiver Look Like?







# **Design Considerations**



## Link budget?

- How big a signal do I need to transmit?
- How good a receiver or LNA do I need?
- What kind of antenna do I need?
- **▶** Where from to?
- ▶ What does environment look like?
  - Weather
  - Obstacles
  - Direct Line of Sight
  - Spectrum

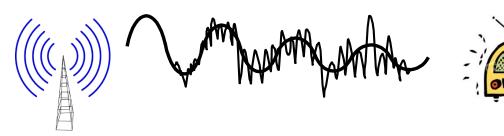
### What am I sending

- Real-time
- How fast
- How much data
- Am I moving, stationary, how fast
- Physical limitations
  - Size
  - Weight
  - Power



# **Now Noise Affects Analog and Digital Signals**





► As an analog signal is attenuated in the presence of noise, it becomes increasingly difficult to detect the signal accurately



▶ If a digital signal's transitions are sufficiently large, bit errors don't occur at the receiver and the signal can be detected with no loss of information

# What is the Input Noise?



▶ If we are below 100 GHz and above -150 °C (Rayleigh-Jeans approximation)

Input Noise Power from a MATCHED Resistor is:  $N_{in} = kTB$ 

- Where k is Boltzmann's constant = 1.38 x10-23 J / °K
- T is the temperature in degrees kelvin (room temp ~ 19.8 °C = 293 °K)
- To is defined as "standard temperature" and is equal to 290 °K = 16.8 °C
- B is the noise bandwidth of the system
- ► At standard temperature (290 °K), kToB = -174 dBm/Hz
  - At 85 °C, kTB = -173.1 dBm / Hz
  - At 19.8 °C, kTB = -173.9 dBm / Hz
  - At -30 °C, kTB = -174.7 dBm / Hz



## Noise in a Bandwidth



- ► At standard temperature (290 °K), kT<sub>o</sub>B = -174 dBm/Hz
- ▶ Determine system bandwidth, usually defined by standard or specification
- ▶ Convert Bandwidth to dB
- ► Add dB Bandwith to -174 dBm/Hz to determine noise floor
- ► Example
  - Channel bandwidth 1 MHz =1E6 Hz.
  - -10\*log(1E6) = 60 dB



## **Noise Floor**



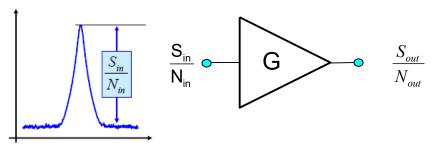


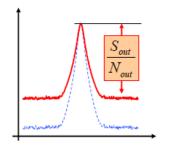


# What is Noise Figure and Noise Factor?



▶ Noise Figure and Noise factor are defined as the ratio of the SNR at the input to the SNR at the output of the device under test.





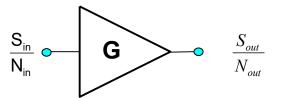
(Linear) Noise Factor = 
$$\frac{SNR_{in}}{SNR_{out}} = \frac{\left(\frac{S_{in}}{N_{in}}\right)}{\left(\frac{S_{out}}{N_{out}}\right)}$$



# What is Noise Figure and Noise Factor?









- ▶ It is a quantitative measure of a device's impact on signal to noise ratio.
  - Noise Factor → Linear values

Noise Figure  $F_{dB} = 10LOG(F)$ 

- Noise Figure → LOG scale values (in dB)
- ► Key question: Can any device improve the signal to noise ratio of a signal?

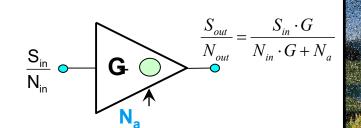


## A real device...



A real device adds some quantity of noise denoted N<sub>a</sub>







Then noise factor becomes:

Noise Factor 
$$F = \frac{\left(\frac{S_{in}}{N_{in}}\right)}{\left(\frac{S_{in}G}{N_{in}G+N_a}\right)} = \frac{S_{in}}{N_{in}} \frac{N_{in}G+N_a}{S_{in}G} = \frac{N_{in}G+N_a}{N_{in}G}$$



# What is Noise Figure and Noise Factor?





$$\frac{S_{in}}{N_{in}}$$
  $\frac{S_{out}}{N_{out}}$ 



Noise Figure and Noise factor are defined as the ratio of the SNR at the input to the SNR at the output of the device under test.

(Linear) Noise Factor = 
$$\frac{SNR_{in}}{SNR_{out}} = \frac{\left(\frac{S_{in}}{N_{in}}\right)}{\left(\frac{S_{out}}{N_{out}}\right)}$$

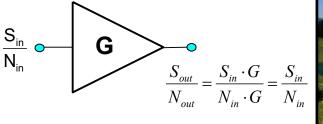


# A perfect device...



A perfect device would not add any noise to a signal







A perfect device has a Noise Factor of 1

Noise Factor 
$$F = \frac{S_{in}/N_{in}}{S_{out}/N_{out}} = \frac{S_{in}/N_{in}}{S_{in}/N_{in}} = 1$$
 (Linear value)

❖ A perfect device has a Noise Figure of 0 dB

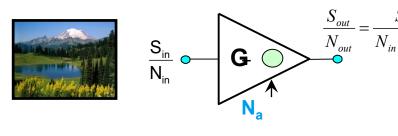
Noise Figure 
$$F_{dB} = 10LOG(F)$$
  
=  $10LOG(1)$   
=  $0 dB$ 



## **IEEE** standard definition



$$\otimes$$
  $N_{in} = kT_oB$ 





Then noise factor becomes:

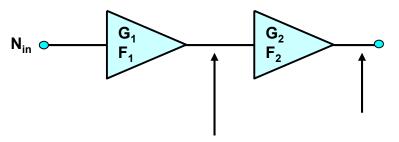
Noise Factor 
$$F = \frac{N_a + kT_oBG}{kT_oBG}$$

**This is the IEEE standard definition of Noise Factor** 



# **Noise Figure of Cascaded Components**





 $F_{dB} = 10LOG(F)$ 

 $N_{in}$ = -174 dBm/Hz

N<sub>a1</sub>= -172 dBm/Hz -154 dBm/Hz N<sub>a2</sub>=-163 dBm/Hz -152 dBm/Hz

-134 dBm/Hz

### (Linear) Cascaded Noise Figure:

$$F = F_1 + \frac{F_2 - 1}{G_1}$$



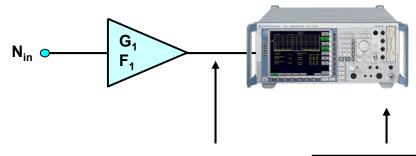
2.31 dB



# **Noise Figure of Cascaded Components**







 $F_{dB} = 10LOG(F)$ 

 $N_{in}$ = -174 dBm/Hz

N<sub>a1</sub>= -172 dBm/Hz -154 dBm/Hz  $N_{a2}$ =-163 dBm/Hz

-152 dBm/Hz

-134 dBm/Hz

#### (Linear) Cascaded Noise Figure:

$$F = F_1 + \frac{F_2 - 1}{G_1}$$

(Linear Terms: Not dB)

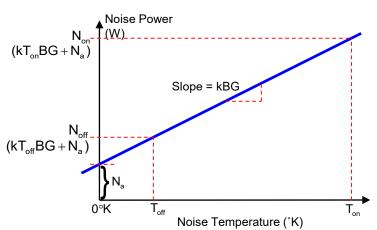
2.31 dB

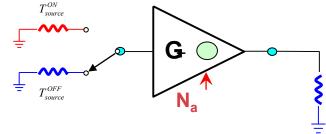


# **Measuring Noise Figure**



- ► We just described the Y-factor technique
- Make two measurements with a calibrated receiver
- ► Noise Source provides the "known" input signal
- Calculate Gain and Na of the device under test





$$Y = \frac{N_{on}}{N_{off}}$$
 (Y-factor)



# **Spurious Response**

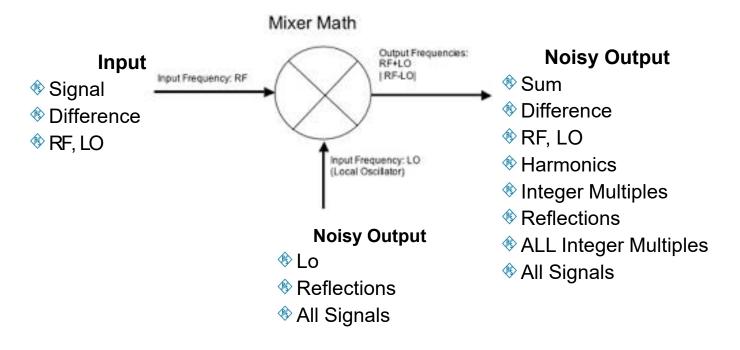


▶ In radio reception, a response in the receiver intermediate\_frequency (IF) stage produced by an undesired emission in which the <u>fundamental</u> frequency (or harmonics above the fundamental frequency) of the undesired emission mixes with the fundamental or harmonic of the receiver local oscillator.

# **Mixer Spurios Signal**



FIGURE 2: MIXER MATH



# **Mixer Spurious Outputs**



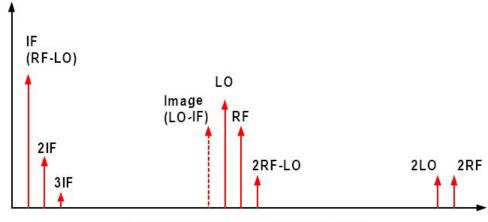


Figure 2: Mixer spectral output



## **Filter**

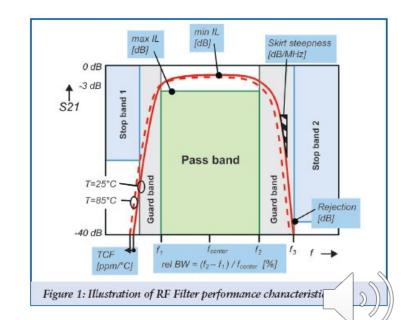


#### ► IN BAND

- 3 dB Bandwidth
- 1 dB Bandwidth
- Insertion Loss (Max, Min Avg.)
- Ripple
- Phase Response

#### Out of Band

- Ultimate Rejection
- 40 dB Bandwidth
- Rejection at?
- Where do the signals go?

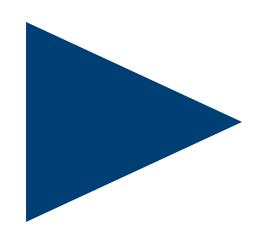


# **Amplifier**



#### **SMALL**

- kTB
- Noise Floor
- Noise Figure
- Dynamic Range



## Large

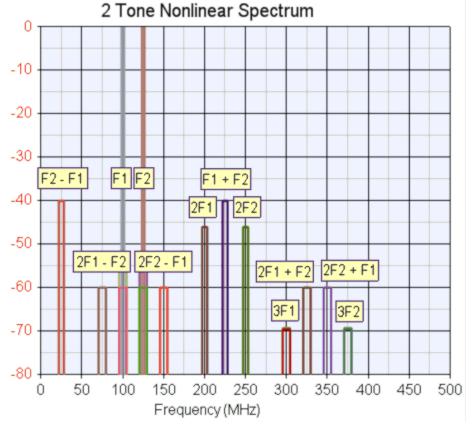
- P1dB Compression
- OIP3
- ACPR
- Harmonics
- Spurious
- Dynamic Range



**Amplifier Outputs** 









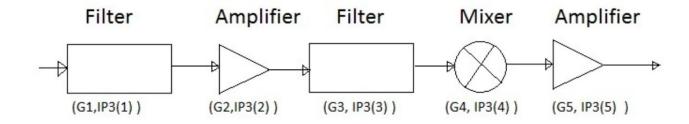
# **Cascade Analysis**



- ► Cascade analysis is a simple yet powerful tool for analyzing system performance. You can analyze small-signal gain and noise figure nearly exactly, and come pretty close to modeling large-signal performance, such as predicting one-dB compression point and IP3.
- ▶ The noise figure equation is fairly simple. Adding a decent nonlinear equation for large-signal performance is a lot more complicated.

# **Cascade Analysis**







# **Cascaded Analysis**



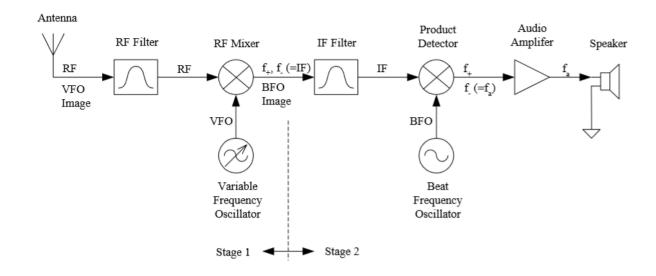
Device Parameters {@ Output}											
Component Designation	Gain (dB)	NF (dB)	IP2 (dBm)	IP3 (dBm)	P[sat] (dBm)	NBW (MHz)	Return Loss (dB) Input	Output			
Amplifier	20.00	1.00	30.00	30.00	20.00	100.00	50.00	15.00			
Filter	-3.00	3.00	250.00	250.00	250.00	100.00	50.00	15.00			
Mixer	-7.00	7.00	25.00	25.00	15.00	100.00	50.00	50.00			
Amplifier	20.00	2.00	30.00	30.00	20.00	100.00	50.00	50.00			

Cumulative Output Parameters										
Gain	NF	IP2	IP3	P[sat]	P[n]	SNR	DR	SFDR	IMD3 I	Power
(dB)	(dB)	(dBm)	(dBm)	(dBm)	(dBm/BW)	(dB)	(dB)	(dB)	(dBm)	(DdB)
20	1	30	30	20	-72.85	92.85	92.85	68.57	0	20
17	1.03	27	27	17	-75.82	92.82	92.82	68.55	-3	20
10	1.3	16.12	18.81	10	-82.55	92.55	92.55	67.57	-7.61	17.61
30	1.48	26.51	29.46	20	-62.37	92.37	82.37	61.22	31.07	-1.07



# **Superheterodyne Receiver**



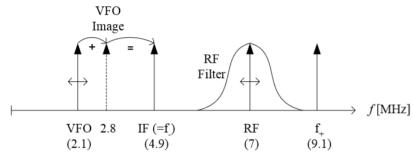




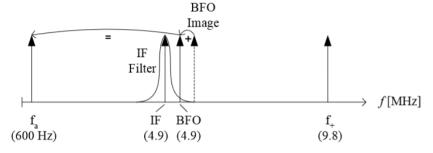
# **Superheterodyne Receiver Frequencies**







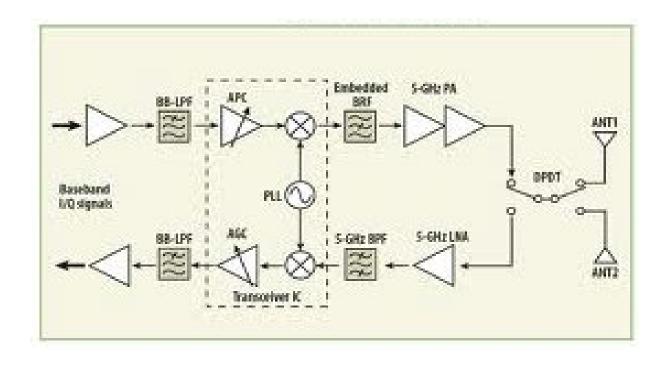
#### Stage 2:





# **Putting it all together**

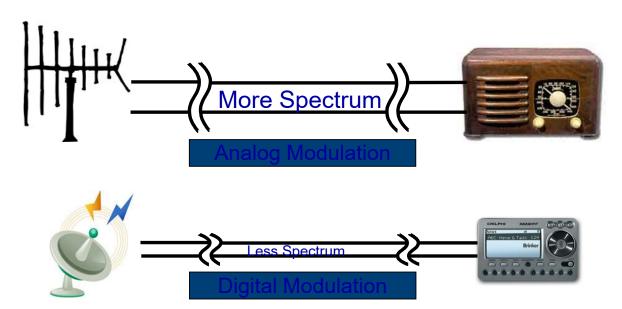






### Why use Digital Modulation?



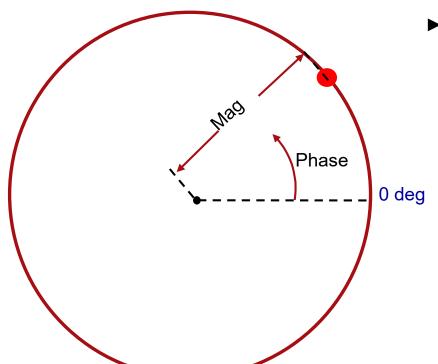


- Uses less spectral bandwidth (\$\$)
- Easier to transmit data than with analog modulation
- Can provide security against eavesdropping



### **Polar Display**

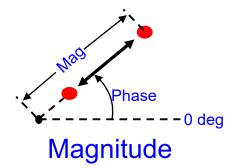


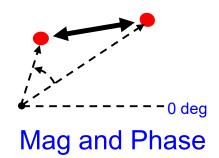


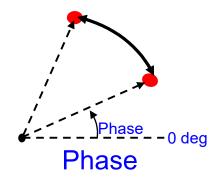
- Shows Magnitude and Phase relative to CW Carrier
  - Magnitude is an absolute value
  - Phase is relative to a reference signal (unmodulated carrier)

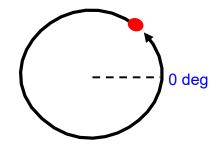
### **Carrier Modifications on Polar Display**









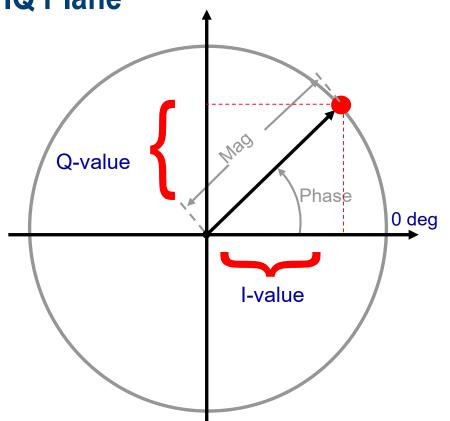


Frequency (1Hz Frequency Difference = 1 Rev/Sec)



### IQ Plane



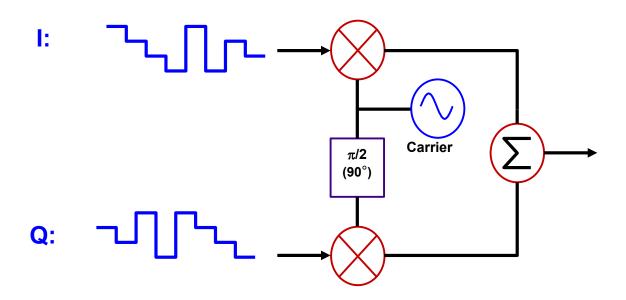


- Show Mag and Phase on "I" and "Q" Axes
- Polar to Rectangular Conversion
- IQ Plane Shows:
  - The phase of the modulated carrier relative to the unmodulated carrier, and
  - The baseband I and Q inputs required to produced the modulated carrier

### **IQ** Modulation

RETEST (((T)))

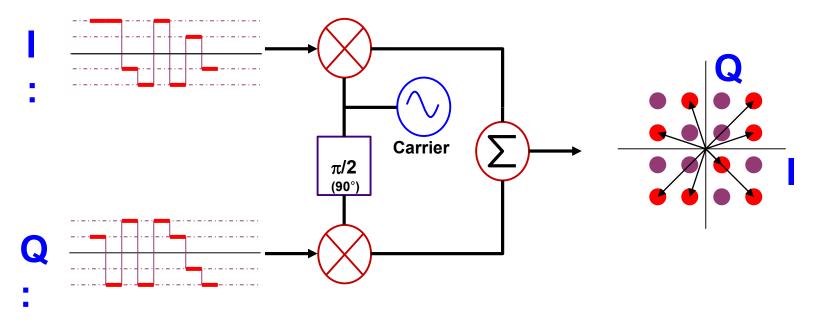
- ► Enables simultaneous amplitude and phase modulation
- ► Modulating signal can be treated as a phasor
  - It has both an In-phase (I) and Quadrature (Q) component





## **IQ** Modulator

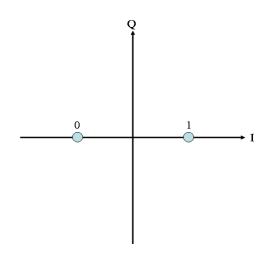




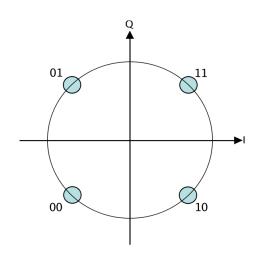


## **Digital Phase Modulation - Phase Shift Keying (PSK)**

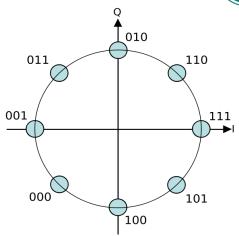




BPSK (Binary Phase Shift Keying)



QPSK (Quadrature Phase Shift Keying)



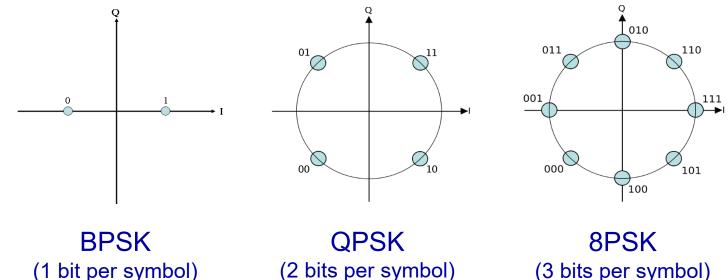
8PSK (8 State Phase Shift Keying)

**Constellation Diagrams** 



### Bit Rate and Symbol Rate





Bit Rate is the frequency of the system bit stream

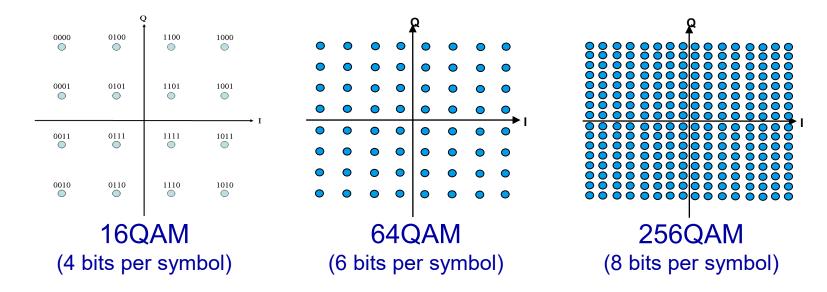
Symbol Rate is the bit rate divided by bits per symbol (Also known as Baud Rate)



(3 bits per symbol)

## Digital Phase/Amplitude Modulation -- Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM)



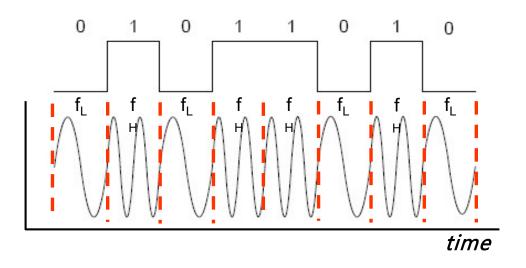


**Constellation Diagrams** 



## Digital Frequency Modulation-- Frequency Shift Keying (FSK)





$$f_{L} = f_{c} - f_{H} = f_{E} + f_{\Delta}$$

### **Digital Modulation Quality Measurements**

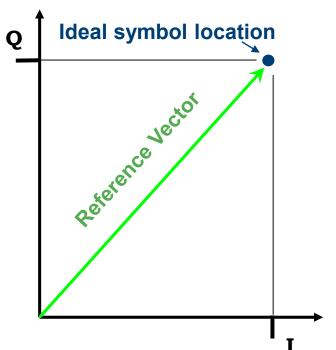


- ► EVM (Error Vector Magnitude)
  - Deviation from ideal signal
  - Measured at one symbol or averaged over many
- ► rho
  - Correlation to ideal signal
  - Only measured over many symbols
  - Can't calculate correlation with a single point

#### What is EVM? Reference Vector



► Must understand the Error Vector first

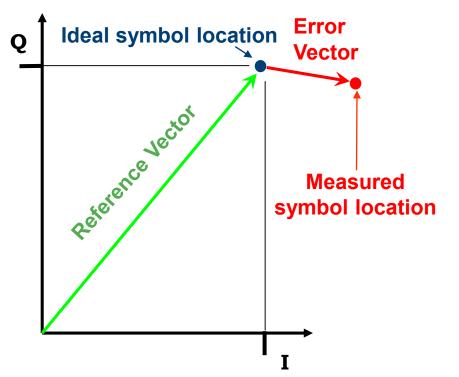


- ► EVM is probably the single most measured quantity on a digitally modulated signal.
- Start by defining an ideal symbol location in the IQ plane
- ► Then define a reference vector that points from the origin to the ideal location.



### What is EVM? Error Vector

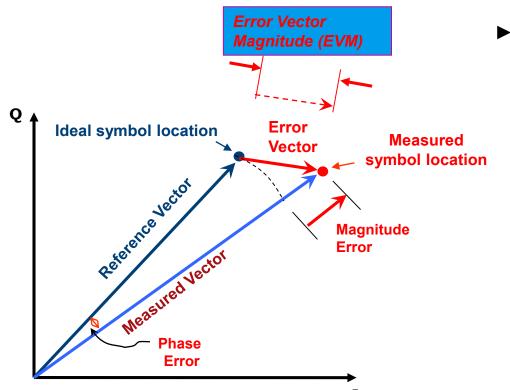




- ► The reference vector is (usually) the length from the origin to the ideal point that is the farthest away from the origin.
- ► Therefore, changing the modulation from QPSK to 64-QAM does not have an impact on the EVM result.
- ➤ This means higher order modulations require better EVM values.

### What is EVM? Error Components



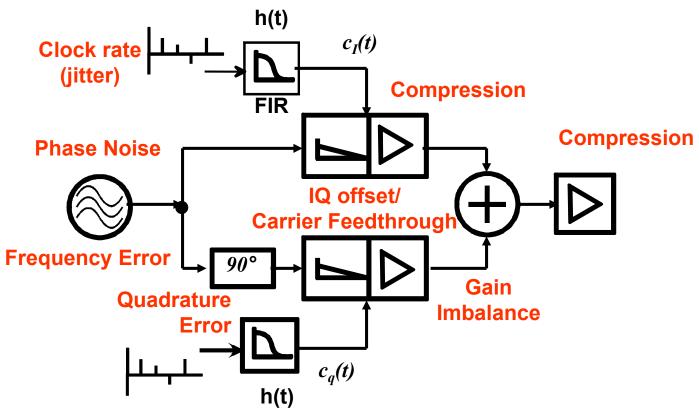


► EVM is 20 log ( | error / ref | )



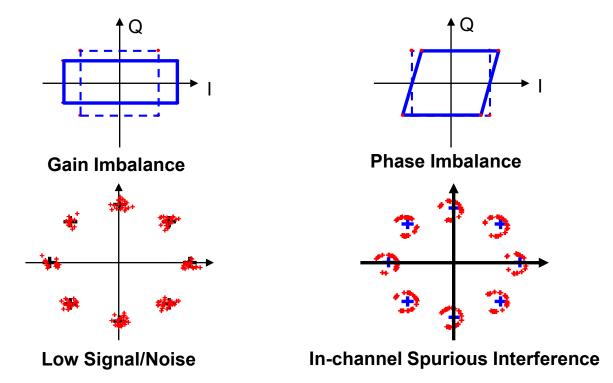
### **Sources of Modulation Error and How to Identify**







# Some Modulation Errors viewed on Constellation Diagram



### SUMMARY / Q&A



- Transmitters and receivers are ubiquitous in todays world
- ▶ Working in many fields of engineering requires a basic understanding of how modulation works for both Analog and Digital Signals
- ► Digital transmissions have good spectral efficiency but requires complex hardware
- ► Can provide secure communications
- Natural format for data transmission
- ► EVM is the standard figure of merit for modulation quality
- ► Constellation diagrams can be used to diagnose some problems







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