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A Compact Semi-Lumped Tunable Complex Impedance Transformer

Anne-Laure Perrier, Jean-Marc Duchamp, Olivier Exshaw, Robert Harrison, *Member, IEEE*, and Philippe Ferrari

Abstract — This article describes the design and performance of a compact tunable impedance transformer. The structure is based on a transmission line loaded by varactor diodes. Using only two pairs of diodes, the circuit is very small with a total length of only $\lambda/10$. Both the frequency range and the load impedance can be tuned by varying the varactor bias voltages. Our design provides a tunable operating frequency range of $\pm 40\%$ and an impedance match ranging from 20Ω to 90Ω at 0.8 GHz and from 30Ω to 170Ω at 1.5 GHz . In addition, a new approach that considers losses for the simulation and measurement of this impedance transformer was investigated. The measured performance of a 1 GHz prototype design confirmed the validity of this new approach.

Index Terms — impedance transformer, microwave, miniaturized device, tunable device, varactors.

I. INTRODUCTION

ONE of the most formidable challenges in the field of microwave telecommunications is designing tunable devices. In the near future, more and more applications will require systems that can operate over variable frequency ranges. Tunable impedance transformers are important in applications such as transistor impedance matching over a large tunable bandwidth for maximum gain or minimum noise factor purposes, in designing tunable power dividers, in characterizing MMIC transistors, and in general matching networks.

Microwave impedance transformers and matching networks are based either on transmission line sections having specific characteristic impedances, or on L, T, or Π structures. The most usual section type is the quarter-wave impedance transformer, while L, T, or Π structures can be realized by using lumped elements like CLC (capacitor-inductor-capacitor) devices [1], or by using single- or double-stub structures.

The overall length of transmission-line based structures can be reduced by loading a high impedance line with capacitors [2]. Such devices can also be made tunable if the fixed capacitors are replaced by tunable capacitors, such as varactor diodes or MEMS capacitors.

In the last decade, several authors have proposed the use of transmission lines loaded by switches in series or in parallel to realize tunable impedance transformers [3,4,5]. These first devices demonstrated the impedance transformer principle but they cover a small part of the Smith chart. Based on a CLC

structure and a quarter-wave transformer, a resonant cell topology [6] has been used in several configurations [7,8,9]. In spite of a medium Smith chart coverage, the length of these devices is important because they are realized with a minimum of two quarter-wave transformers.

With the MEMS switches and MEMS varactors development, other designs based on single-stub [10], double-stub [11,12,13] or triple-stub topologies [14, 15] have also been realized. Most of these devices need lots of MEMS switches or varactors complicating the bias commands. Moreover these impedance transformers require large surface to cover, in general, small or medium part of the Smith chart.

Lots of these impedance transformers are demonstrated to be used as tuners and some of them are used to realize antenna [9] or transistor [16] matching. Recently, new and improved tunable impedance transformers have been described. A very compact lumped-element CLC impedance transformer with a $\pm 36\%$ tunable bandwidth for a 50Ω load was demonstrated [17]. Some designs, based on transmission lines with variable characteristic impedance, were also presented [18, 19]. These devices are original but not lead a large coverage of the Smith chart. A double-slug impedance tuner, based on a distributed MEMS transmission line and employing 80 RF-MEMs switches, could produce 1,954 different complex impedances around the center of the Smith chart [20]. This device is also original but we note the important number of MEMS switches with complicate the bias commands. A MEMS impedance tuner was realized at 25 GHz [21]. This design was used with MEMS varactors, and provided continuous impedance coverage. Compared to the other impedance transformers referenced in this paper, this MEMS impedance tuner is optimized in term of surface, variable element number and Smith chart coverage.

Impedance transformer type + operating frequency	Variable capacitor	Technology	Dimensions	Smith chart coverage	
Transmission line	[3] 27 GHz	4 MIM capacitors + HEMT transistors	Monolithic GaAs	1*1 mm ² $\lambda/5*\lambda/5$	Very small Some complex impedances
	[5] 18 GHz	8 pHEMT switches	Monolithic GaAs	2.4*0.8 mm ² $\lambda/3*\lambda/9$	Small ≈ 50 complex impedances
	[22] 20 to 50 GHz	8 MEMS switches	Monolithic Glass $\epsilon_r=4,6$	2.5*1 mm ² $\lambda/2*\lambda/5$	Medium 256 complex impedances
	[20] 12 to 25 GHz	80 MEMS switches	Monolithic Quartz $\epsilon_r=3,8$	10 mm λ	Medium 1954 complex impedances
	[21] 27 to 30 GHz	4 MEMS varactors + 1 MIM capacitor	Monolithic Si	0.49*0.12 mm ² $\lambda/8*\lambda/30$	Good Continuous
	[23] 0.05 to 2 GHz	FET switches			Good 36 complex impedances
	[19] 0.9 GHz	2 varactors	Hybrid Rogers $\epsilon_r=3$	30*30 mm ² $\lambda/8*\lambda/8$	Small Continuous
	[18] 2.14 GHz	p-i-n diode	Hybrid RF35 $\epsilon_r=3,5$	$\lambda/4$	Very small 50, 89 or 200 Ω
Resonant cell	1 resonant cell [6] 2.4 GHz	3 varactors	Hybrid Rogers TMM10i	$\lambda/2$	Continuous from 4 to 392 Ω No complex impedances
	2 resonant cells [7] 23 to 25 GHz	MEMS varactors	Monolithic Quartz	3.7*2 mm ² $\lambda/2*\lambda/4$	Medium Continuous
	1 resonant cell [9] 0.39 GHz	12 diodes p-i-n	Hybrid		Medium 4096 complex impedances
Stub	Double-stub [8] 29 to 32 GHz	12 MEMS switches	Monolithic Quartz	3*2 mm ² $\lambda/2*\lambda/3$	Small 49 complex impedances
	Double-stub [11] 10 to 20 GHz	8 MEMS switches	Mixed Si and Alumina	$\approx 3\lambda*2\lambda$	Small
	Double-stub [12] 10 to 20 GHz	8 MEMS switches	Mixed Si and Alumina	18*11 mm ² $1,3\lambda*0,8\lambda$	Small to good 256 complex impedances
	Double-stub [13] 10 GHz	6 MEMS switches	Monolithic Si $\epsilon_r=11,7$	6*7 mm ² $\lambda/2*\lambda/2$	Small 64 complex impedances
	Double-stub [16] 8 to 12 GHz	4 MEMS switches + 1 varactor	Monolithic		Small (transistor matching)
	Triple-stub [14] 6 to 20 GHz	11 MEMS switches	Monolithic Glass $\epsilon_r=4,6$	7.3*7.3 mm ² $\lambda/2*\lambda/2$	Medium to very good
	Single-stub [10] 20 to 50 GHz	10 MEMS switches	Monolithic Glass $\epsilon_r=4,6$	5.6*3.6 mm ² $\lambda*3\lambda/2$	Good
	Triple-stub [15] 4.5 GHz	5 varactors	Hybrid Duroid $\epsilon_r=6,15$	28 mm λ	No measurement of complex impedances

Table 1: Impedance transformers topology and performance.

Table 1 resumes the impedance transformers topology and performance. Lot of these examples required more than three varactors, complicating the circuit with numerous bias voltages. Those based on quarter-wave transmission lines result in physically long structures with narrow bandwidths.

Moreover, many of these designs were characterized only for a 50 Ω load, so that the insertion loss was known only for that particular case. In some instances, only S_{11} was measured, resulting in no information on insertion loss.

This article describes how a tunable and compact impedance transformer, using only two pairs of varactors, was designed. Two different methods for the optimization and experimental characterization of the circuit were developed. The first and the simplest method was based on the synthesized impedances representation with a 50 Ω load. In this case, the synthesized impedance was extracted from the S_{22} parameter. The insertion loss was not measured for complex loads.

The second method was much more complete: the return loss and the insertion loss of the transformer, loaded by a complex impedance, were calculated and measured using an

external tuner. We emphasize that the first method is accurate only for lossless devices, as it cannot extract the characteristics of lossy circuits.

In a previous study [24, 25], we demonstrated the ability of a new topology to design a tunable complex-impedance transformer, operating at 5 GHz. Its length was $\sim \lambda/3$ and it needed only two varactors. Its key features were a large matching impedance range, from 5 Ω to 300 Ω , and a tunable frequency range of ± 15 %. However, this prototype exhibited significant insertion loss, from 2 to 6 dB, owing to the use of low-Q varactors, resulting in a nonoptimized design.

This article describes the design and performance of a new, more compact, and better optimized configuration than the one presented earlier [24]. The design procedure leads to a small $\lambda/10$ long transformer with reduced insertion loss.

This article is organized into six sections. Section II details the principle of the impedance transformer. The transformations from 50 Ω to possible complex impedances are illustrated on Smith charts. Section III presents the development of two different simulation approaches: “synthesized impedance” method, and the “matching load”

method. The two methods are compared in the case of lossy and lossless circuits. Section IV discusses the design of an impedance transformer for a proof of concept. This device is realized in a printed board hybrid technology. The simulated and measured results obtained by the two different methods are compared in Section V. Finally, Section VI contains concluding remarks.

II. PRINCIPLE

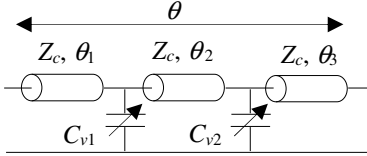


Fig. 1. The equivalent electrical circuit of the impedance transformer.

The equivalent electrical circuit of the complex-impedance transformer is shown in Fig. 1. Its total electrical length is θ , and it consists of three transmission-line sections of equal characteristic impedance Z_c , and different electrical lengths θ_1 , θ_2 , and θ_3 . The transmission line is loaded by two tunable capacitors C_{v1} and C_{v2} .

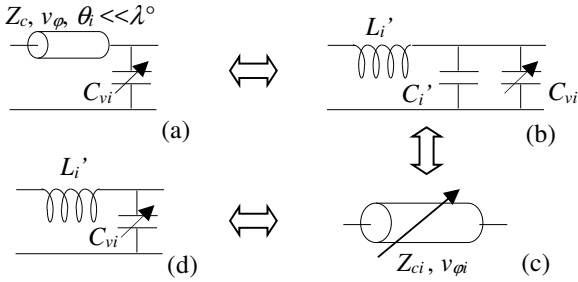


Fig. 2. Equivalent circuits of one section of the impedance transformer.

Assuming that the electrical length θ_i ($i = 1, 2$, or 3) of each section is small as compared to the electrical wavelength ($\lambda^0 = 2\pi$), a section can be replaced by its lumped-element equivalent circuit, as shown in Fig. 2 (b). The characteristic impedance Z_c and phase velocity v_ϕ of the transmission line are defined thus:

$$Z_c = \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} \quad \text{and} \quad v_\phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}, \quad (1)$$

where, L is the inductance and C the capacitance per unit length of the transmission line.

From the lumped equivalent circuit of a section (see Fig. 2 (b)), Z_{ci} and $v_{\phi i}$ can also be expressed thus:

$$Z_{ci} = \sqrt{\frac{L_i'}{C_i' + C_{vi}}} \quad \text{and} \quad v_{\phi i} = \frac{l_i}{\sqrt{L_i'(C_i' + C_{vi})}}, \quad (2)$$

where, $L_i' = Ll_i$ and $C_i' = Cl_i$. The quantities, L_i' is the equivalent inductance and C_i' the equivalent capacitance of a section of physical length l_i :

$$l_i = \frac{\theta_i}{2\pi} \frac{c}{f \sqrt{\epsilon_{r_{eff}}}}, \quad (3)$$

where, c is the light celerity and $\epsilon_{r_{eff}}$ the effective dielectric constant.

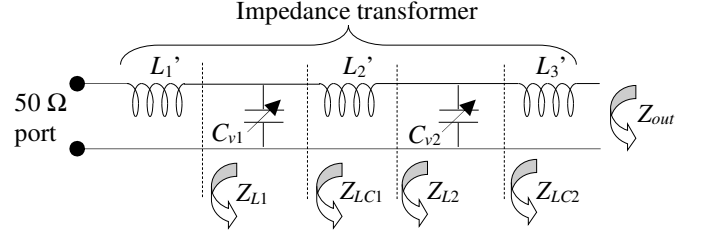


Fig. 3. Simplified equivalent electrical circuit of the complex impedance transformer.

Each section of the impedance transformer is equivalent to a transmission line with a tunable characteristic impedance Z_{ci} and phase velocity $v_{\phi i}$, (see Fig. 2 (c)). The maximum tunability of Z_{ci} and $v_{\phi i}$ was obtained when $C_i' \ll C_{vi}$. This condition was satisfied when Z_c was large, leading to the simplified equivalent electrical circuit of Fig. 2 (d).

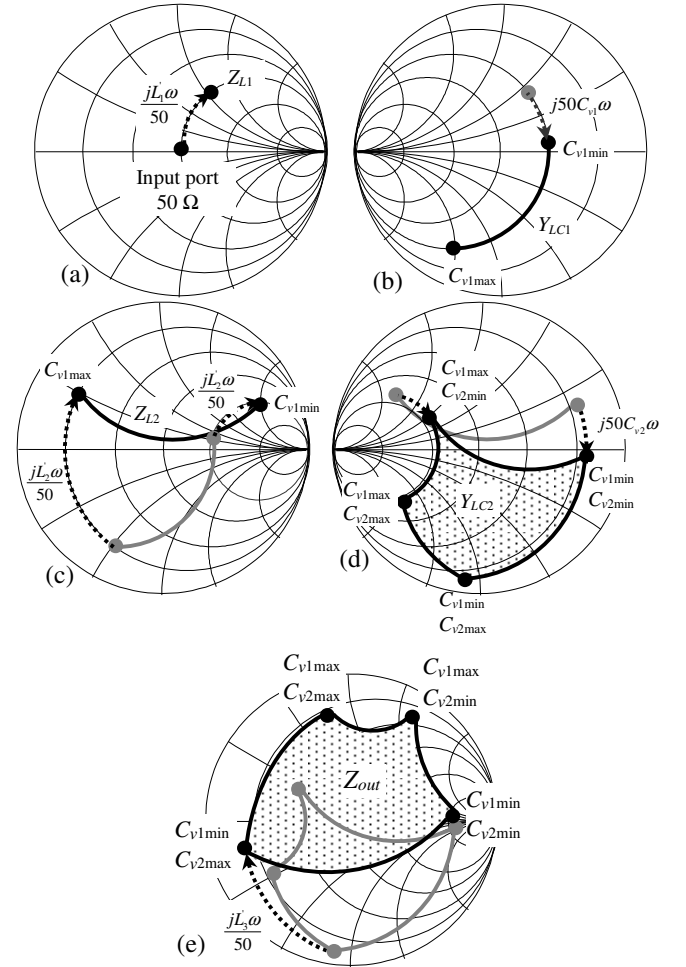


Fig. 4. Principle of impedance transformations. The impedances (a) Z_{L1} , (b) Z_{LC1} , (c) Z_{L2} , (d) Z_{LC2} , and (e) Z_{out} are synthesized at the transverse planes of the impedance transformer, as shown in Fig. 3.

If Z_c is large and if the total electrical length θ is small as compared to the wavelength, the equivalent circuit of the

complex impedance transformer can be simplified, as shown in Fig. 3. This simplified equivalent electrical circuit will be used to explain the principle of the complex impedance transformer. Each section has now been replaced by its equivalent inductance L_i' . The quantities Z_{L1} , Z_{LC1} , Z_{L2} , Z_{LC2} and Z_{out} are the output impedances as seen at different transverse planes indicated by the dotted lines, when the input port is terminated by 50Ω . The Smith charts of Fig. 4 show the principle of all the impedance transformations, starting from the $50\text{-}\Omega$ input port in (a) to the output impedance Z_{out} in (e). These transformations assume a fixed frequency and no losses. In the impedance chart of Fig. 4 (a), one can see that the inductance L_1' transforms the 50Ω input impedance to Z_{L1} at the output end of inductor L_1' . In the admittance chart of Fig. 4 (b), it can be seen that the variable capacitive admittance ωC_{v1} transforms Z_{L1} to a range of admittances Y_{LC1} . The Y_{LC1} output admittance values are part of the circle defined by $\omega C_{v1\min}$ and $\omega C_{v1\max}$ where $C_{v1\min}$ and $C_{v1\max}$ are the minimum and maximum capacitance values. A second $L'C_V$ section is necessary to transform this circular arc into a surface, as shown in the impedance and admittance charts (Figs. 4 (c) and (d)). The final inductance L_3' allows the achievable Z_{out} area on the Smith chart to be rotated. This area corresponds to a value of S_{22} when the output is terminated by 50Ω .

III. OPTIMIZATION METHOD

The Smith charts given in Section II show that the Z_{out} impedance area depends on the three inductances L_1' , L_2' , and L_3' , the minimum and maximum values C_{\min} and C_{\max} of the two capacitors, and the operating frequency f . All these parameters need to be optimized according to the tuner application. In this section we develop and compare two different methods for optimizing an impedance transformer. The first method is based on the display of the Z_{out} area (see Fig. 4 (e)) using the S_{22} parameter for a 50Ω load. Examples of synthesized impedances obtained by this method are shown in Subsection A below. The second method calculates the S_{11} and S_{21} parameters when the impedance transformer is loaded with complex impedances. The principle of this “matching load” method is given in Subsection B. In Subsection C we compare the two methods with a typical example. The comparison is made both by including and omitting the losses to determine their effect on the second optimization method.

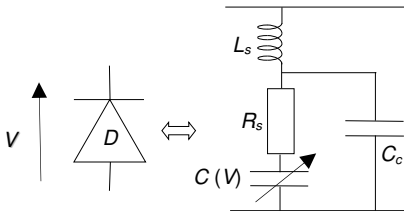


Fig. 5. Equivalent circuit of the reverse-biased varactor diode.

In practice, not all the elements constituting the impedance transformer are ideal. In the optimization process, the complete equivalent electrical circuit of a commercial varactor

diode (Fig. 5) was considered. M/A-COM™ varactors (MA4ST-1240) with a series inductance $L_s = 1.2 \text{ nH}$, a series resistance $R_s = 1.6 \Omega$, a case capacitance $C_c = 0.11 \text{ pF}$, and a tunable capacitance $C(V)$ ranging from 1.5 to 8.6 pF were used. A single varactor was used to realize each tunable capacitor in Fig. 1. To compare the two approaches, we specified that the impedance transformer should have the parameters $Z_C = 200 \Omega$, $\theta_1 = 15^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 15^\circ$ and $\theta_3 = 8^\circ$. Ideal transmission lines were assumed for the simulations.

A. First Approach: the “Synthesized Impedance” Method.

The first approach, the “synthesized impedance” method, is based on the display of the S_{22} parameter when the impedance transformer is loaded by 50Ω . Many state of the art tuners are just characterized this way, and so insertion loss, versus the load, is not known.

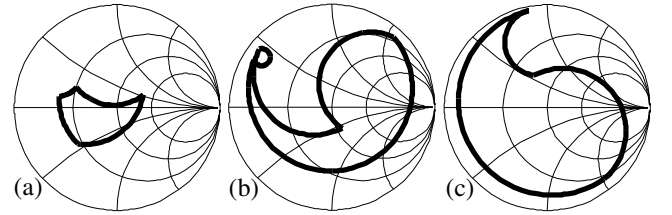


Fig. 6. Synthesized impedances at (a) 0.5 GHz, (b) 1 GHz, and (c) 1.5 GHz.

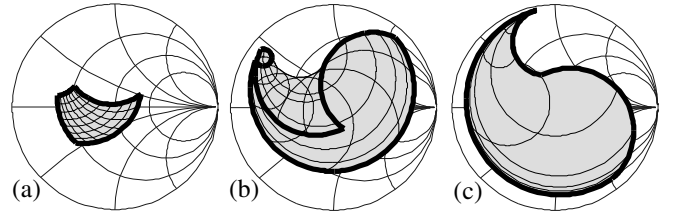


Fig. 7. Total area of the synthesized impedances at (a) 0.5 GHz, (b) 1 GHz, and (c) 1.5 GHz.

Fig. 6 shows the synthesized impedances of the impedance transformer at (a) 0.5 GHz, (b) 1 GHz, and (c) 1.5 GHz. The thick lines correspond to a fixed minimum or maximum value for the capacitance of one varactor and a complete variation of the other. In some cases, this area is not sufficient to show all possible synthesized impedances. With intermediate values of the two capacitors, all the shaded area shown in Fig. 7 can be covered by this impedance transformer. The synthesized impedance area in Fig. 7 (b) is larger than the area in Fig. 6 (b). In this section, simulation results are shown as in Fig. 7. In Section V, measured results are presented as in Fig. 6.

B. Second Approach: the “Matching Load” Method.

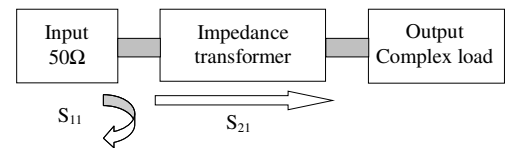


Fig. 8. Experimental setup for the measurement of S_{11} and S_{21} .

For the second method, the impedance transformer was loaded by complex impedance. The setup shown in Fig. 8 corresponds to a typical real working configuration of the

transformer, for example when it is used as a matching network for a transistor. Here, the input return loss S_{11} and insertion loss S_{21} of the impedance transformer were investigated. In the following discussion, we refer to this approach as the “matching load” method.

The simulations were done by a Mathematica [26] program, developed to automatically calculate the Smith chart coverage for the entire range of varactor capacitances. A flowchart of the program is given in Fig. 9.

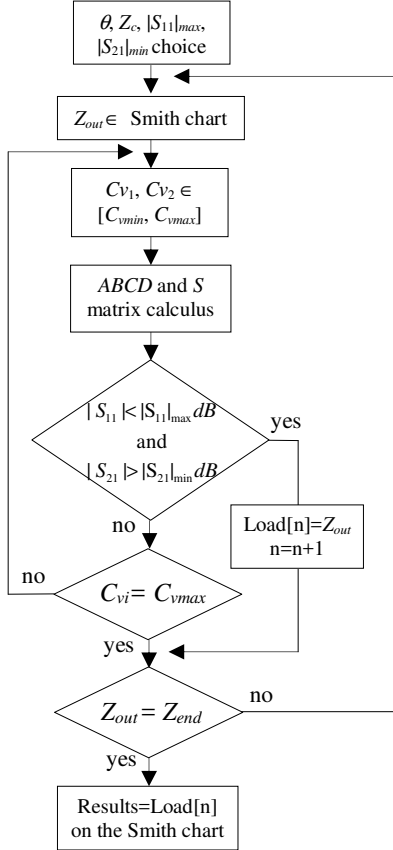


Fig. 9. Flowchart for the Mathematica simulation program.

Fig. 10 shows all the complex loads that were tested by the program. For each load, the cascade $ABCD$ and S matrices of the impedance transformer were calculated, with two criteria $|S_{11}|_{\max}$ and $|S_{21}|_{\min}$ applied to the $|S_{11}|$ and $|S_{21}|$ parameters. The two capacitor values, C_{v1} and C_{v2} that satisfy the two criteria were extracted. Then the “matching load” area was plotted on the Smith chart. Equations for calculating S parameters in the case of a complex load are [27]:

$$S_{11} = \frac{AZ_{out} + B - CZ_{in}^*Z_{out} - DZ_{in}^*}{AZ_{out} + B + CZ_{in}Z_{out} + DZ_{in}} \quad (4)$$

$$S_{12} = \frac{2(AD - BC)(\text{Re}(Z_{in})\text{Re}(Z_{out}))^{1/2}}{AZ_{out} + B + CZ_{in}Z_{out} + DZ_{in}} \quad (5)$$

$$S_{21} = \frac{2(\text{Re}(Z_{in})\text{Re}(Z_{out}))^{1/2}}{AZ_{out} + B + CZ_{in}Z_{out} + DZ_{in}} \quad (6)$$

$$S_{22} = \frac{-AZ_{out}^* + B - CZ_{in}Z_{out}^* + DZ_{in}}{AZ_{out} + B + CZ_{in}Z_{out} + DZ_{in}}, \quad (7)$$

where $\text{Re}(Z_{in})$ and $\text{Re}(Z_{out})$ are the real parts of the input and output impedances, respectively.

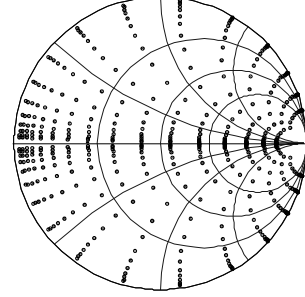


Fig. 10. The complex loads generated by the program.

Comment: The simplified equivalent circuit of Fig. 3 is used in order to understand and easily visualize all the impedance transformations on the Smith chart. However, in the simulation process, for the “synthesized impedance” and “matching load” methods, we have compared equivalent electrical circuit of Fig. 1 and Fig. 3 by using $ABCD$ transmission line matrix and $ABCD$ inductance matrix respectively. We have demonstrated that results are identical for small length impedance transformers and similar for longer devices. In this paper all the simulations shown in the figures have carried out with the equivalent electrical circuit of Fig. 1 i.e. with the used of real transmission lines.

C. Comparison Between the Two Methods.

In this subsection, simulation results of the impedance transformer obtained by the two different methods, and described at the beginning of Section III are compared. Results are shown for the 1 GHz center frequency. In Sub-subsections (1), (2), and (3), the two methods are compared with the varactor R_s as a parameter. In Sub-subsection (4), we demonstrate that the results obtained when an impedance transformer was optimized using the “synthesized impedance” method, without considering losses, can be quite different from those obtained when the varactor losses were included.

1) Lossless Varactors

In lossless microwave devices, the S -parameter moduli are related by

$$|S_{11}|^2 + |S_{21}|^2 = 1. \quad (8)$$

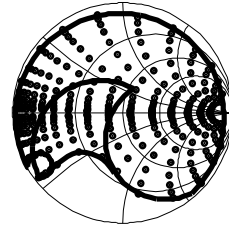


Fig. 11. Simulated coverage areas according to the “conjugate synthesized impedances (S_{22})” approach (■) and the “matching loads” approach (●), at 1 GHz without varactor’s series resistance, i.e., lossless varactors.

For a matching criterion $|S_{11}| < -20$ dB, relation (8) leads to

$|S_{21}| > -0.04$ dB. With the criteria $|S_{11}|_{\max} = -20$ dB and $|S_{21}|_{\min} = -0.04$ dB, Fig. 11 shows the “conjugate synthesized impedances” and the “matching loads” obtained from the two different methods. In this lossless case, the results of the two methods are perfectly superposed.

2) Lossy Varactors

In this sub-section, the varactor series resistance R_s was considered. Fig. 12 shows the results obtained from the two different methods when $|S_{11}|_{\max} = -20$ dB, for several $|S_{21}|_{\max}$ values. Because of R_s , the “matching load” method gives no possible loads when $|S_{21}|_{\min} = -0.1$ dB; for $|S_{21}| < -2$ dB, the covered areas remain small. In this case, a perfect superposition of the results obtained by the two methods is never obtained. These results show that for lossy varactors, the “conjugate synthesized impedance” method, which is much simpler for experimental characterization, fails to give the correct covered area. Fig. 12 proves the importance of the “matching load” method to know the insertion loss of the device versus this complex load. So, a 50Ω measurement is not sufficient to characterize the tuner insertion loss.

For further simulations, the criterion $|S_{21}|_{\min} = -2$ dB was applied.

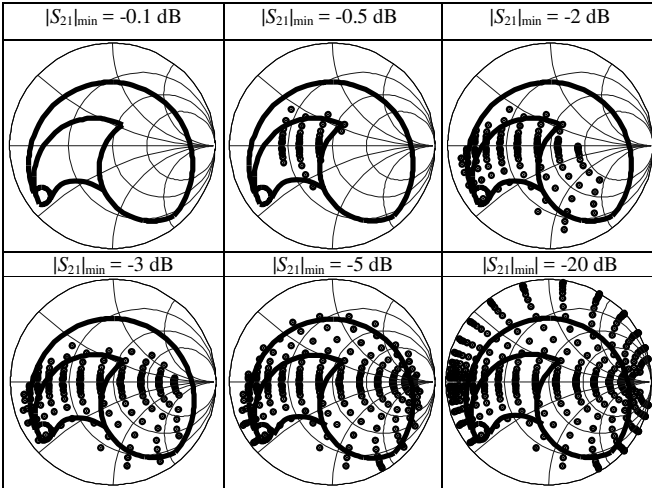


Fig. 12. Simulated coverage areas at 1 GHz according to the “conjugate synthesized impedance” (S_{22}^*) method (—) and the “matching load” method (•••), when $R_s = 1.6 \Omega$. Results are plotted for $|S_{21}|_{\min}$ values from -0.1 dB to -20 dB.

3) Influence of the Varactor Series Resistance R_s

In this sub-section the complex impedance coverage was investigated by varying the series resistance R_s of the varactor as a parameter. Fig. 13 compares the results obtained from the “synthesized impedance” and “matching load” methods, with $|S_{11}|_{\max} = -20$ dB and $|S_{21}|_{\min} = -2$ dB. For each Smith chart, the areas obtained by the two methods decrease as R_s increases.

The difference of area between the two methods increase with R_s so for a fixed complex load the insertion loss increase with R_s .

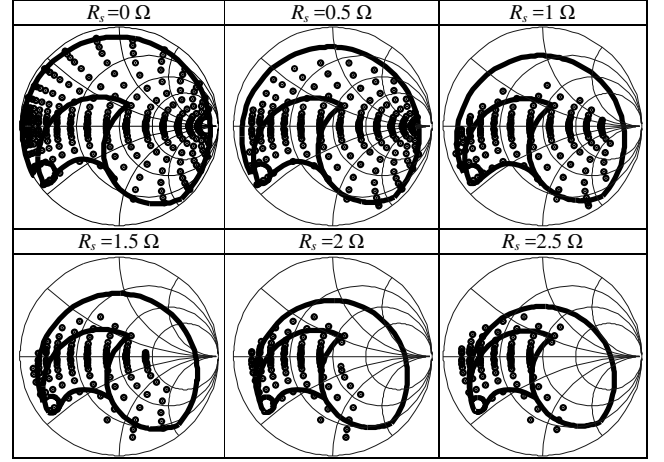


Fig. 13. Simulated 1 GHz coverage areas according to the “conjugate synthesized impedance” (S_{22}^*) method (—) and the “matching load” method (•••). Here the varactor series resistance R_s is varied.

4) Application Example

To investigate the impact of choosing the design method, an impedance transformer was designed to cover the largest possible area, while using the “synthesized impedance” method. The same MA4ST-1240 M/A-COM™ varactor ($R_s = 1.6 \Omega$) was used and the characteristic impedance of the line was also fixed to 200Ω . The maximum “conjugate synthesized impedance” area was obtained when $\theta_1 = 40^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 15^\circ$, and $\theta_3 = 8^\circ$. The same transformer was then simulated using the “matching load” method, with the criteria $|S_{11}| < -20$ dB and $|S_{21}| > -2$ dB. Results are compared in Fig. 14. A few loads allowing $|S_{11}| < -20$ dB and $|S_{21}| > -2$ dB were found at 1 GHz (see Fig. 14 (a)), but no loads were found at 1.5 GHz (see Fig. 14 (b)). However, a large area was obtained with the “conjugate synthesized impedance” method.

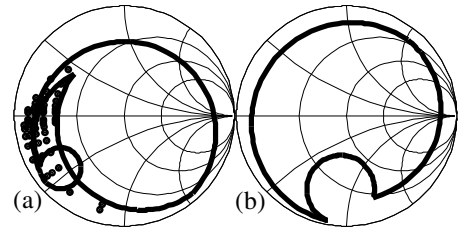


Fig. 14. Simulated coverage areas according to the “conjugate synthesized impedance” (S_{22}^*) method (—) and the “matching load” method (•••), at (a) 1 GHz, and (b) 1.5 GHz for a 40° - 15° - 8° impedance transformer, with $R_s = 1.6 \Omega$.

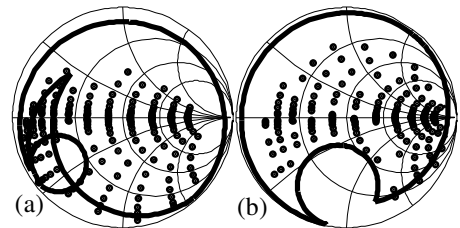


Fig. 15. Simulated coverage areas according to the “conjugate synthesized impedances” (S_{22}^*) method (—) and the “matching load” method (•••), at (a)

1 GHz, and (b) 1.5 GHz for a $40^\circ\text{-}15^\circ\text{-}8^\circ$ impedance transformer, with $R_s=0.5\ \Omega$.

These typical results bring to the fore the importance of the design method. For lossy varactors the “synthesized impedance” method, which is used by several researchers in the field, can be very inaccurate because insertion loss information can not be obtained.

The same impedance transformer ($\theta_1=40^\circ$, $\theta_2=15^\circ$, $\theta_3=8^\circ$ and $Z_c=200\ \Omega$) was simulated by the two methods assuming $R_s=0.5\ \Omega$ (see Fig. 15). The covered areas of the “matching load” are very different compared to the results with $R_s=1.6\ \Omega$ (Fig. 14).

To bring to the fore the importance of the “matching load” method, we can compare Fig. 15 (a) to Fig. 13 ($R_s=0.5\ \Omega$) and Fig. 14 (a) to Fig. 13 ($R_s=1.5\ \Omega$). These results obtained with the same varactors give totally different covered area. So an important difference between the two different methods of simulation is clearly pointed out. We note that insertion loss is more critical for this topology ($\theta_1=40^\circ$, $\theta_2=15^\circ$, $\theta_3=8^\circ$) than for the first topology ($\theta_1=15^\circ$, $\theta_2=15^\circ$ and $\theta_3=8^\circ$).

It is obvious that in the case of lossy varactors, i.e. the reality in most cases, the “matching load” method has to be used in order to calculate and optimize by simulation the different parameters as the electrical length and the characteristic impedance of each transmission line, in order to achieve a maximum covered area in the Smith chart.

IV. PROTOTYPE DESIGN

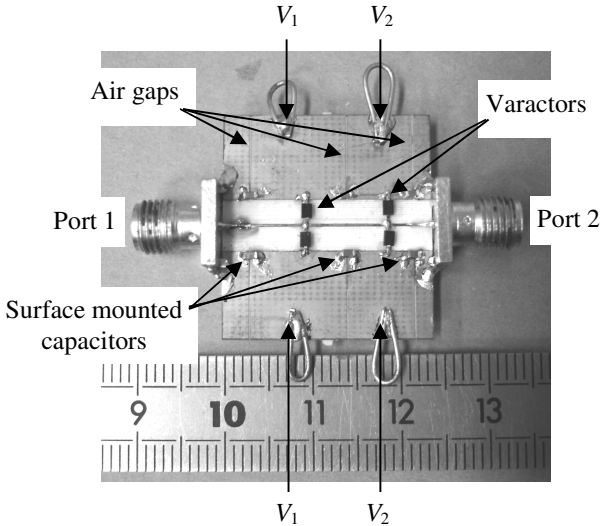


Fig. 16. Photograph of the impedance transformer.

To demonstrate the principles developed in Sections II and III, a tunable impedance transformer proof of concept was designed for a 1-GHz working frequency. The circuit was optimized with a Mathematica program using the “matching load” method. Commercial varactors (M/A-COM™ type MA4ST-1240) were used. Their $L_s=1.8\ \text{nH}$, $R_s=1.6\ \Omega$, and $C_c=0.11\ \text{pF}$. The $C(V)$ range, extracted from experimental results, was $1.0\text{--}8.6\ \text{pF}$ for a bias voltage V range from 12 to 0 V. Coplanar waveguide (CPW) was used, the prototype

being fabricated on a Rogers™ RO4003 substrate ($\epsilon_r=3.36$, $\tan(\delta)=0.0035$, dielectric thickness $0.813\ \text{mm}$, and copper thickness $35\ \mu\text{m}$). The transmission line characteristic impedance was set at $200\ \Omega$, leading to a CPW central conductor width of $250\ \mu\text{m}$ and a gap of $2.8\ \text{mm}$. Two varactors were used in parallel to realize the tunable capacitors. This is necessary for CPW symmetry and to lower effective series resistance.

The fabricated proof of concept is shown in Fig. 16. By providing an air gap in the ground plane, separate reverse biases V_1 and V_2 can be applied to the two pairs of diodes. Surface mounted capacitors were used to ensure ground continuity for the RF signal.

The overall electrical length was 38° ($\theta_1=15^\circ$, $\theta_2=15^\circ$, $\theta_3=8^\circ$), corresponding to $\sim\lambda/10$. The effective ϵ_r was 1.75, leading to $l_1=9.4\ \text{mm}$, $l_2=9.4\ \text{mm}$, and $l_3=5\ \text{mm}$.

V. RESULTS

In this section, the simulated and measured results obtained by the two methods are compared.

In Subsection A, the tunable frequency range of the impedance transformer loaded by $50\ \Omega$ is shown. In Subsections B and C, the simulated and measured results obtained from the “synthesized impedance” and “matching load” methods are compared.

For the simulations, lossless transmission lines were assumed but all parasitic elements of the diodes were considered. Measurements were made using a Wiltron 360 vector network analyzer (VNA).

A. Tunable Frequency Range for a $50\text{-}\Omega$ Load.

An initial measurement using a $50\text{-}\Omega$ load was made to extract the tunable bandwidth and to confirm the varactor’s equivalent electrical model.

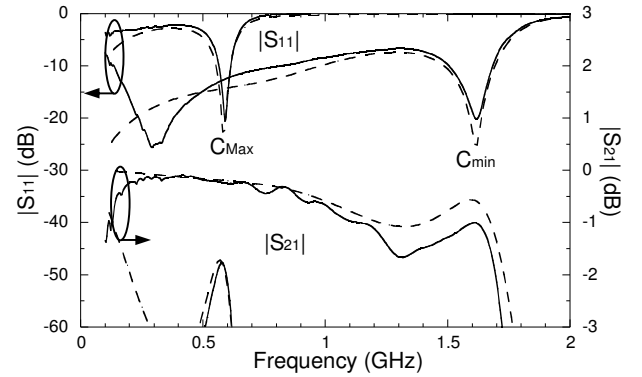


Fig. 17. Simulated (—) and measured (—) frequency tuning ranges for a fixed $50\text{-}\Omega$ load.

Fig. 17 shows the frequency tunability of the complex impedance transformer. Simulated and measured results for the parameters S_{11} and S_{21} , obtained for the extreme tunable frequencies, are shown. These correspond to the extreme capacitances of the variable capacitors. These results show that the transformer can be continuously tuned from 0.6 to 1.6 GHz, that is, $\pm 60\%$ around 1 GHz, with $|S_{11}| < -20\ \text{dB}$ and

$|S_{21}| > -2$ dB. Good agreement between simulated and measured results was obtained for the whole tunable frequency range.

B. “Synthesized Impedance” Method

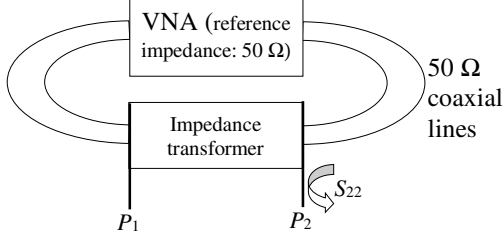


Fig. 18. Experimental setup for the measurement of S_{22} .

In the experimental setup shown in Fig. 18, the impedance transformer was inserted between the two ports of the VNA, and a coaxial SOLT (short-open-load-through) calibration procedure was applied between the calibration plans P_1 and P_2 . The S_{22} parameter was measured at the impedance transformer output. The phase shift φ due to the SMA connector used in the prototype of Fig. 16 is given by

$$\varphi = -15.55f, \quad (9)$$

where f is the frequency in GHz. This phase shift is taken into account in measurement results.

Fig. 19 compares the simulated and measured results from 0.5 to 2 GHz. The conditions are the same as in Fig. 6, with one varactor bias being fixed at its minimum or maximum value and the other being varied over its full range.

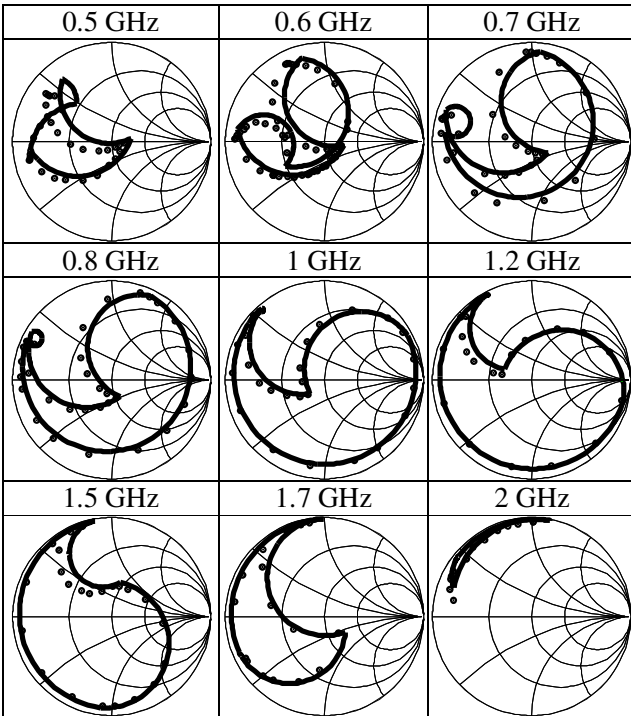


Fig. 19. Simulated S_{22} values (—) compared with measured results (•••).

The tunable S_{22} area changes with the working frequency, and maximum coverage was obtained between 1.0 and

1.2 GHz. A good agreement between simulations and measurements was obtained for all frequencies.

The area of impedances covered by our device is comparable to best results obtained in the literature [10, 21] measured in this way, with a 50Ω load. However, our device is much more simpler.

C. “Matching Load” Method

With the two criteria $|S_{11}| < -20$ dB and $|S_{21}| > -2$ dB, Fig. 20 shows the simulation results obtained when the operating frequency was varied from 0.5 to 2.0 GHz.

Measurements were carried out using an experimental approach similar to that used for the simulations. A mechanical tuner [28] was used as a complex load for the tunable impedance transformer under test. The measurement steps for the calibration are detailed in Fig. 21. First, a coaxial SOLT calibration was used to define reference plans P_1 and P_2 (see Fig. 21 (a)). Then the input impedance of the mechanical tuner was measured, as shown in Fig. 21 (b). Finally, the $|S_{11}|$ and $|S_{21}|$ parameters of the tunable transformer, loaded by the mechanical tuner, were measured (see Fig. 21 (c)). We assume that the insertion loss of the mechanical tuner was negligible for the extraction of the insertion loss $|S_{21}|$ of the impedance transformer. The phase shifts of the SMA connectors are taken into account in measurement results.

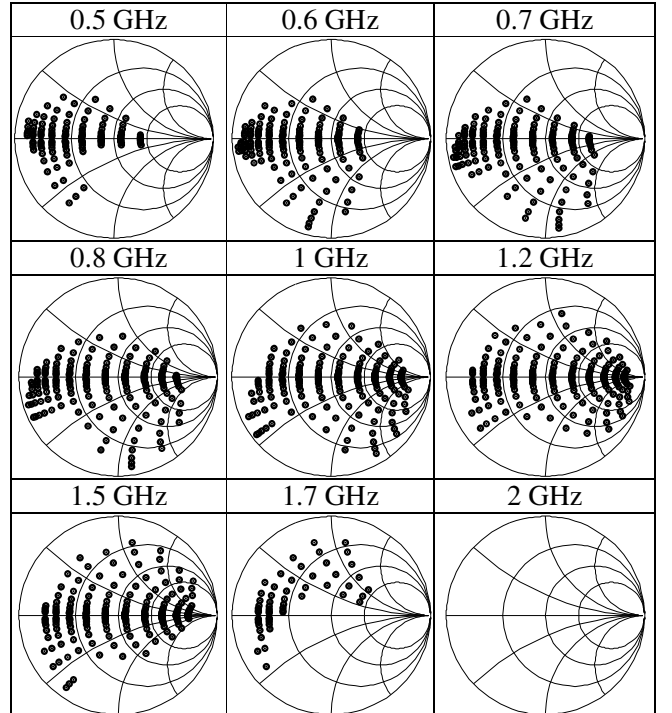


Fig. 20. Simulation results for the “matching loads” method with the criteria $|S_{11}| < -20$ dB and $|S_{21}| > -2$ dB, versus frequency.

The measured results are shown in Fig. 22 for three different frequencies: 0.8, 1.0, and 1.5 GHz. The lowest frequency was 0.8 GHz owing to the limited mechanical tuner bandwidth. The Smith charts show all the points for which the criteria $|S_{11}| < -20$ dB and $|S_{21}| > -2$ dB were satisfied. Each of

these complex loads was associated with a pair of bias voltages (V_1 , V_2), corresponding to two varactor capacitance values (C_{v1} , C_{v2}).

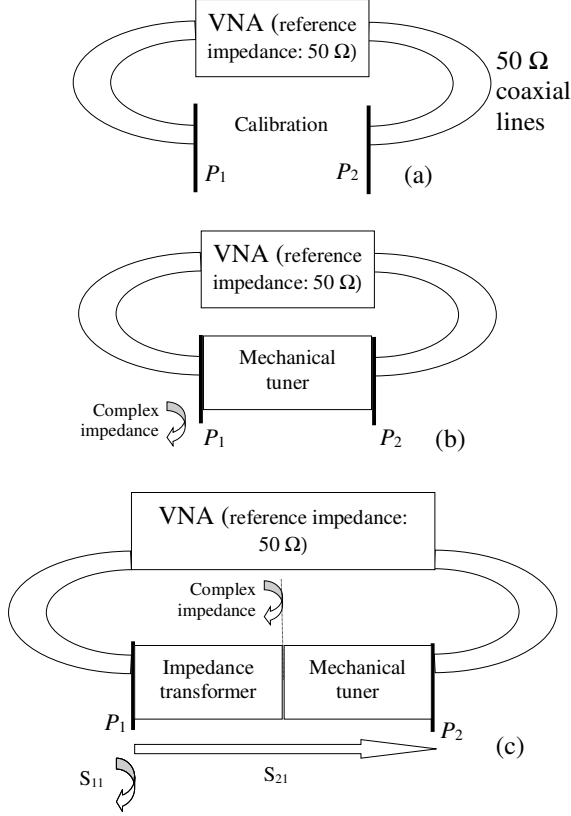


Fig. 21. Principle of the setups for the measurement of S_{11} and S_{21} : (a) calibration planes (b) load impedance measurement (c) measurement of S parameters.

As this measurement procedure is much more time-consuming than the "synthesized impedance" method, fewer measured load points were obtained, resulting in a "matching area" that is not so well defined as the simulated area.

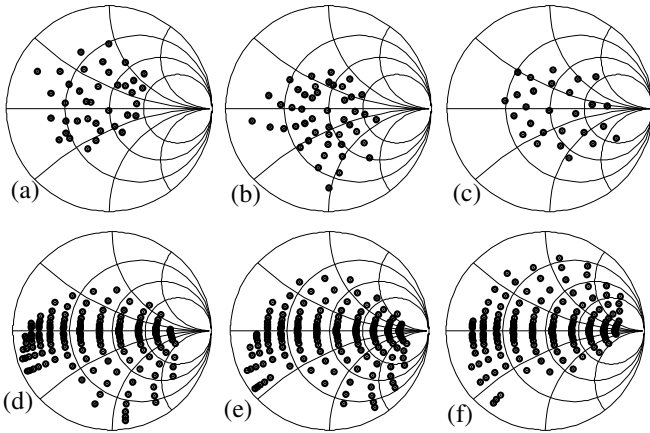


Fig. 22. Measured matched complex loads, under the conditions $|S_{11}| < -20$ dB and $|S_{21}| > -2$ dB, at three frequencies: (a) 0.8 GHz (b) 1.0 GHz and (c) 1.5 GHz.

Simulations, extracted from Fig 20, in the same conditions : (d) 0.8 GHz (e) 1.0 GHz and (f) 1.5 GHz.

The agreement between the measured results of Fig. 22 (a,b,c) and the simulated points in Fig. 22 (b, c, d) is good. The measurements show a large "matching area" that is slightly smaller than the simulated area.

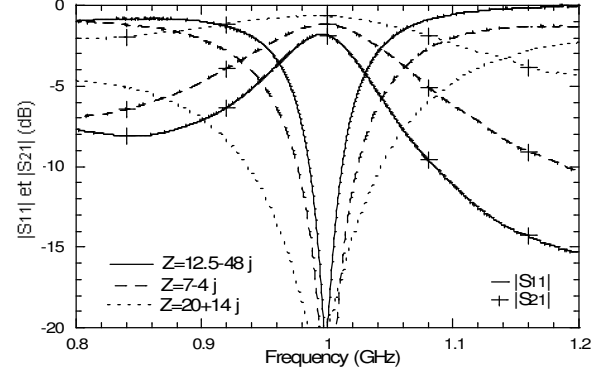


Fig. 23. Measured results for three different complex loads at 1 GHz, with the criteria $|S_{11}| < -20$ dB and $|S_{21}| > -2$ dB.

Fig. 23 shows typical measured results obtained at 1 GHz for three different complex loads.

Conclusions and prospects: We believe that the totality of the results presented here validates our approach to both the design and the measurement methods.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

A principle for designing a compact tunable impedance transformer, based on a single transmission line loaded by only two pairs of varactors, has been proposed. The length of the transformer is only $\lambda/10$. A prototype with a 1-GHz center working frequency has been realized using commercial varactor diodes.

A good agreement has been obtained between the simulations and measurements and, as expected, the network provided a large coverage of the Smith chart (real part from 20Ω to 90Ω at 0.8 GHz and from 30Ω to 170Ω at 1.5 GHz), with a range of tunable working frequencies over $\pm 40\%$.

Two different approaches to the design and measurements have been investigated. It is shown that an external tuner is necessary for accurate determination of the Smith chart coverage.

A MMIC prototype, in a $0.35 \mu\text{m}$ BiCMOS technology, is under development. It is believed that such an impedance transformer can be a good candidate for tunable matching of an amplifier embedded in a reconfigurable front-end.

VII. APPENDIX

Fig. 24 shows a simplified RC equivalent circuit of a single varactor diode inserted between a source impedance Z_{in} and an output load impedance Z_{out} .

We denote $Z_{S_{in}}$ the input impedance as seen from Z_{in} . In admittance form this is

$$Y_{s_{in}} = \frac{1}{Z_{s_{in}}} = \frac{1}{R_s + \frac{1}{jC\omega}} + \frac{1}{\text{Re}(Z_{out}) + j\text{Im}(Z_{out})},$$

where $Z_{out} = \text{Re}(Z_{out}) + j\text{Im}(Z_{out})$. The input can be matched when $Z_{s_{in}}$ and Z_{in} are complex conjugates, that is when $Z_{s_{in}} = Z_{in}^*$, or equivalently, $Y_{s_{in}} = Y_{in}^*$, leading to

$$\frac{1}{R_s + \frac{1}{jC\omega}} + \frac{1}{\text{Re}(Z_{out}) + j\text{Im}(Z_{out})} = \frac{1}{\text{Re}(Z_{in}) - j\text{Im}(Z_{in})},$$

where $Z_{in} = \text{Re}(Z_{in}) + j\text{Im}(Z_{in})$. Thus the output admittance that can be matched is

$$Y_{out} = \frac{1}{\text{Re}(Z_{out}) + j\text{Im}(Z_{out})} = \frac{1}{-R_s - \frac{1}{jC\omega}} + \frac{1}{\text{Re}(Z_{in}) - j\text{Im}(Z_{in})}$$

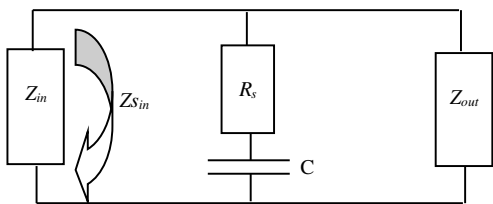


Fig. 24. The input impedance $Z_{s_{in}}$ seen from Z_{in} .

This corresponds to the impedance determined from the measurement of S_{11} and S_{21} , as shown in Section III, Part B.

Let us now calculate the output admittance $Y_{s_{out}}$ as seen from Z_{out} , as shown in Fig. 25. This is the impedance that is extracted from the measurement of S_{22} , as in Section III, Part A:

$$Y_{s_{out}}^* = \frac{1}{Z_{s_{out}}^*} = \frac{1}{R_s - \frac{1}{jC\omega}} + \frac{1}{\text{Re}(Z_{in}) - j\text{Im}(Z_{in})}.$$

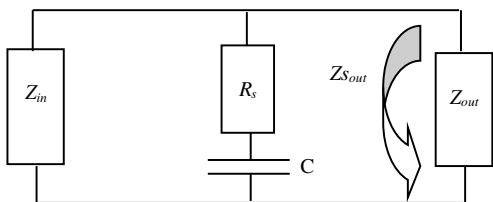


Fig. 25. The output impedance $Z_{s_{out}}$ seen from Z_{out} .

At this point, it becomes obvious that Y_{out} and $Y_{s_{out}}^*$ are different. This is because R_s is not equal to zero. These equations explain why the two measurement approaches investigated in Section III, Parts A and B, do not lead to the same results when the series resistance of the varactors is considered.

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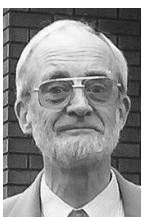


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He is also involved in the development of time-domain techniques for the measurement of passive microwave devices and for soil moisture content.