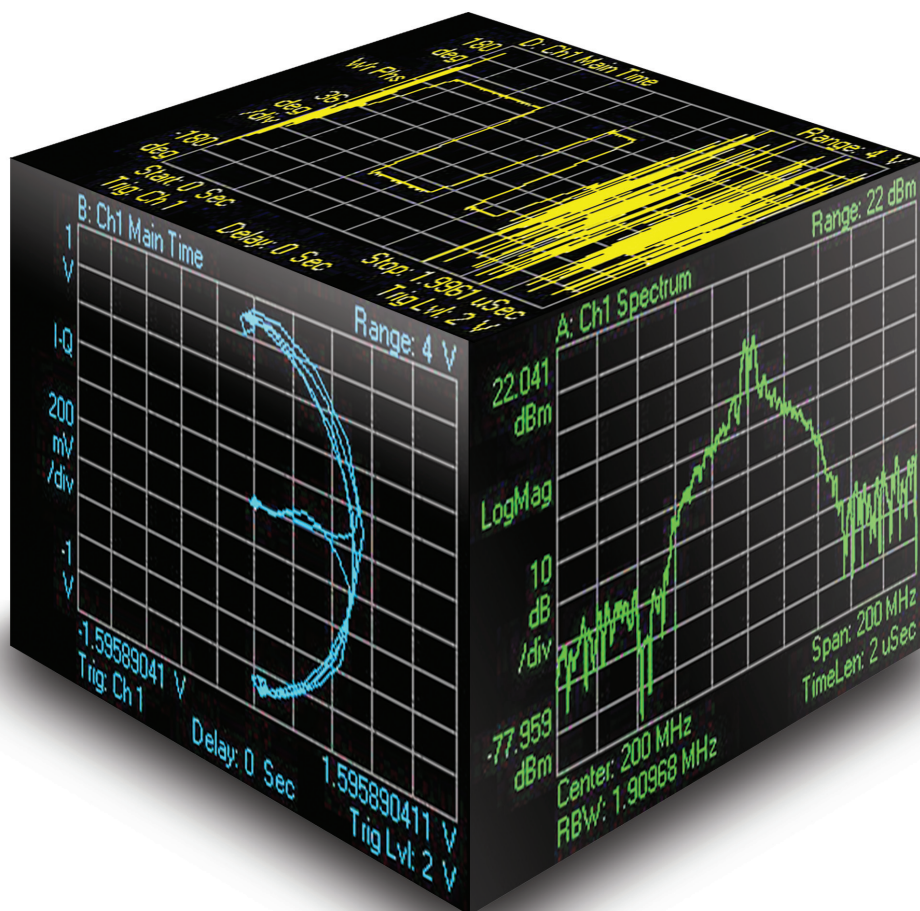
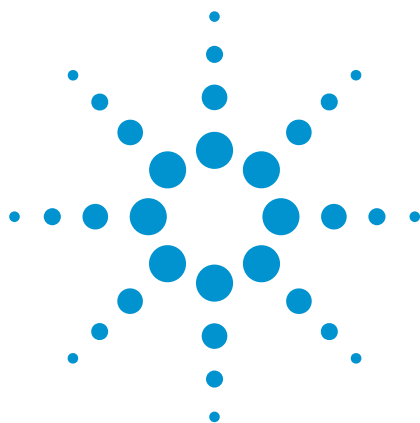


Spectrum and Signal Analysis...Pulsed RF

Application Note 150-2



Agilent Technologies

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

The basic pulse spectrum

The spectrum analyzer was originally designed to look at the output of radar transmitters. A pulse radar signal is a train of RF pulses with a constant repetition rate, constant pulse width and shape, and constant amplitude. By looking at the characteristic spectra, all-important properties of the pulsed signal such as pulse width, occupied bandwidth, duty cycle, and peak and average power, can be measured easily and with high accuracy. Perhaps an even more important application of the spectrum analyzer is the detection of transmitter misfiring and frequency pulling effects. This application note is intended as an aid for the operation of spectrum and signal analyzers and the interpretation of their displayed pulse spectra.

The formation of a square wave from a fundamental sine wave and its odd harmonics is a good way to start an explanation of the spectral display for nonsinusoidal waveforms. You will recall perhaps at one time plotting a sine wave and its odd harmonics on a sheet of graph paper, then adding up all the instantaneous values. If there were enough harmonics plotted at their correct amplitudes and phases, the resultant waveform began to approach a square

wave. The fundamental frequency determined the square wave rate, and the amplitudes of the harmonics varied inversely to their number.

A rectangular pulse is merely an extension of this principle, and by changing the relative amplitudes and phases of harmonics, both odd and even, we can plot an infinite number of wave shapes. The spectrum analyzer effectively separates waveforms and presents the fundamental and each harmonic contained in the waveform.

Consider a perfect rectangular pulse train as shown in Figure 1a, perfect in the respect that rise time is zero and there is no overshoot or other aberrations. This pulse is shown in the time domain and we wish to examine its spectrum so it must be broken down into its individual frequency components. Figure 1b superimposes the fundamental and its second harmonic plus a constant voltage to show how the pulse begins to take shape as more harmonics are plotted. If an infinite number of harmonics were plotted, the resulting pulse would be perfectly rectangular. A spectral plot of this would be as shown in Figure 2.

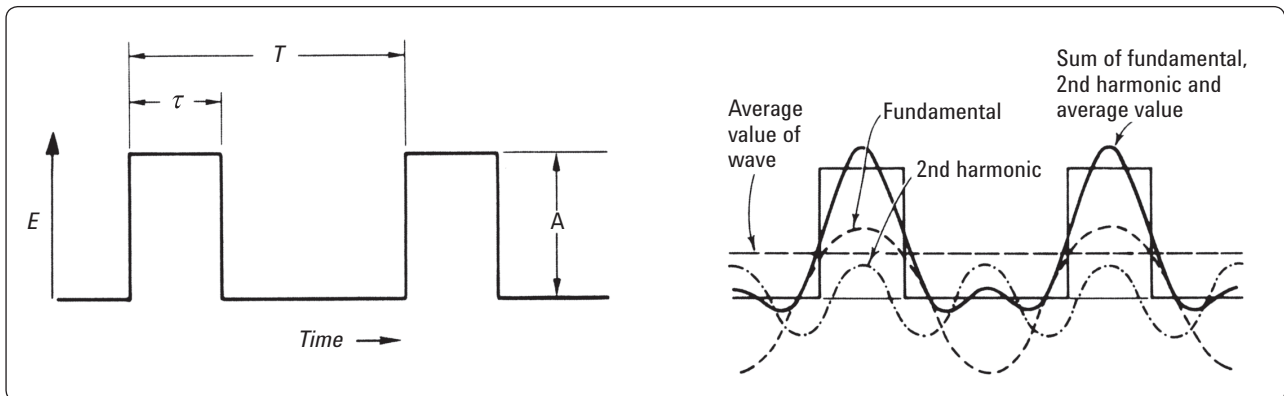


Figure 1a. Periodic rectangular pulse train

Figure 1b. Addition of a fundamental cosine wave and its harmonics to form rectangular pulses

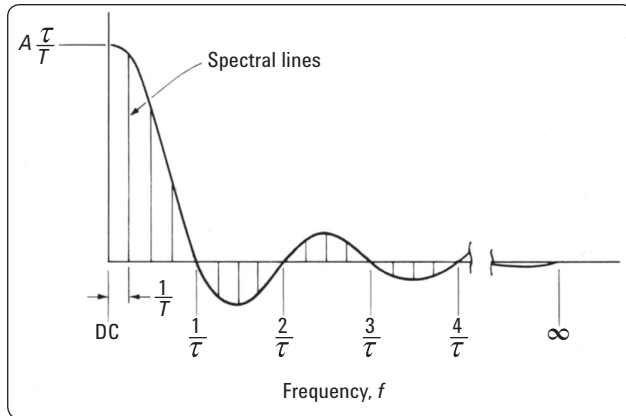


Figure 2. Spectrum of a perfectly rectangular pulse. Amplitudes and phases of an infinite number of harmonics are plotted, resulting in smooth envelope as shown.

The envelope of this plot follows a function of the basic form:

$$y = \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$$

There is one major point that must be made clear before going into the spectrum analyzer display further. We have been talking about a square wave and a pulse without any relation to a carrier or modulation. With this background we now apply the pulse waveform as amplitude modulation to an RF carrier. This produces sums and differences of the carrier and all of the harmonic components contained in the modulating pulse.

We know from single tone AM how the sidebands are produced above and below the carrier frequency. The idea is the same for a pulse, except that the pulse is made up of many tones, thereby producing multiple sidebands that are commonly referred to as spectral lines on the spectrum analyzer display. In fact, there will be twice as many sidebands or spectral lines as there are harmonics contained in the modulating pulse.

Figure 3 shows the spectral plot resulting from rectangular amplitude pulse modulation of a carrier. The individual lines represent the modulation product of the carrier and the modulating

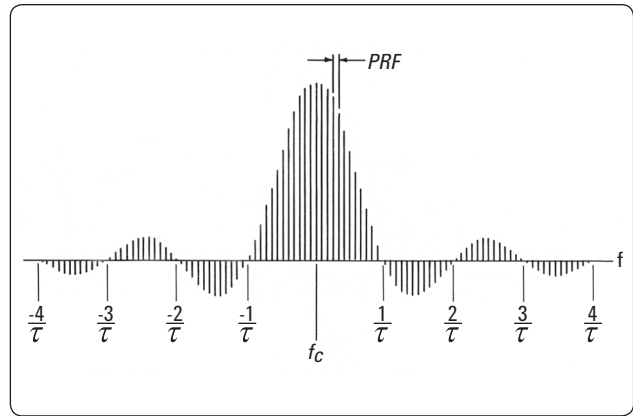


Figure 3. Resultant spectrum of a carrier amplitude modulated with a rectangular pulse

pulse repetition frequency with its harmonics. Thus, the lines will be spaced in frequency by whatever the pulse repetition frequency might happen to be. The spectral line frequencies may be

$$F_L = F_c \pm nPRF$$

expressed as:

where F_c = Carrier frequency

$$PRF = \text{Pulse repetition frequency} \\ n = 0, 1, 2, 3 \dots$$

The "mainlobe" in the center and the "sidelobes" are shown as groups of spectral lines extending above and below the baseline. For perfectly rectangular pulses and other functions whose derivatives are discontinuous at some point, the number of sidelobes is infinite.

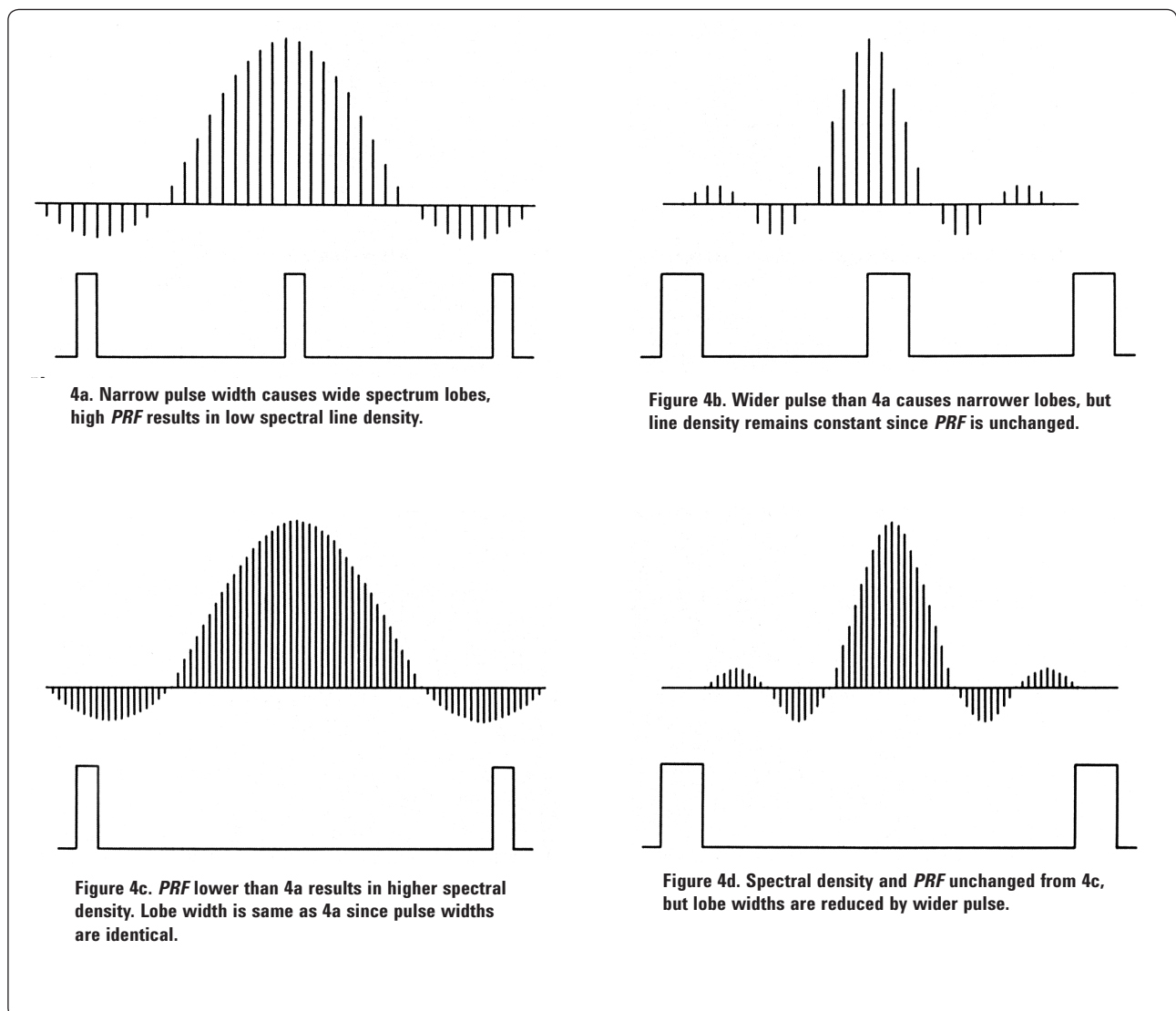
The mainlobe contains the carrier frequency represented by the longest spectral line in the center. Amplitude of the spectral lines forming the lobes varies as a function of frequency according to the expression for a perfectly rectangular pulse.

$$\frac{\sin(\omega \frac{\tau}{2})}{\omega \frac{\tau}{2}}$$

Thus, for a given carrier frequency the points where these lines go through zero amplitude are determined by the *modulating pulse width only*. As pulse width becomes shorter, minima of the envelope become further removed in frequency from the carrier, and the lobes become wider. The *sidelobe widths* in frequency are related to the modulating pulse width by the expression $f = 1/T$. Because the mainlobe contains the origin of the spectrum (the carrier frequency), the upper and lower sidebands extending from this point form a mainlobe $2/T$ wide. Remember, however, that the total *number* of sidelobes remains constant so long as the pulse quality, or shape, is unchanged and only its repetition rate is

varied. Figure 4 compares the spectral plots for two pulse lengths, each at two repetition rates with carrier frequency held constant.

Notice in the drawings how the spectral lines extend below the baseline as well as above. This corresponds to the harmonics in the modulating pulse, having a phase relationship of 180° with respect to the fundamental of the modulating waveform. Since the spectrum analyzer can only detect amplitudes and not phase, it will invert the negative-going lines and display all amplitudes above the baseline.



Because a pulsed RF signal has unique properties we have to be careful to interpret the display on a spectrum analyzer correctly. The response that a spectrum analyzer (or any swept receiver) can have to a periodically pulsed RF signal can be of two kinds, resulting in displays that are similar but of completely different significance. One response is called a "line spectrum" and the other is called a "pulse spectrum." We must keep in mind that these are both responses to the same periodically pulsed RF

input signal, and the "line" and "pulse" spectrum refer solely to the response or display on the spectrum analyzer.

We will discuss both types of response to a signal with the basic appearance as shown in Figure 5 with the aid of pictures, and then summarize all formulas and rules for proper operation of the analyzer.

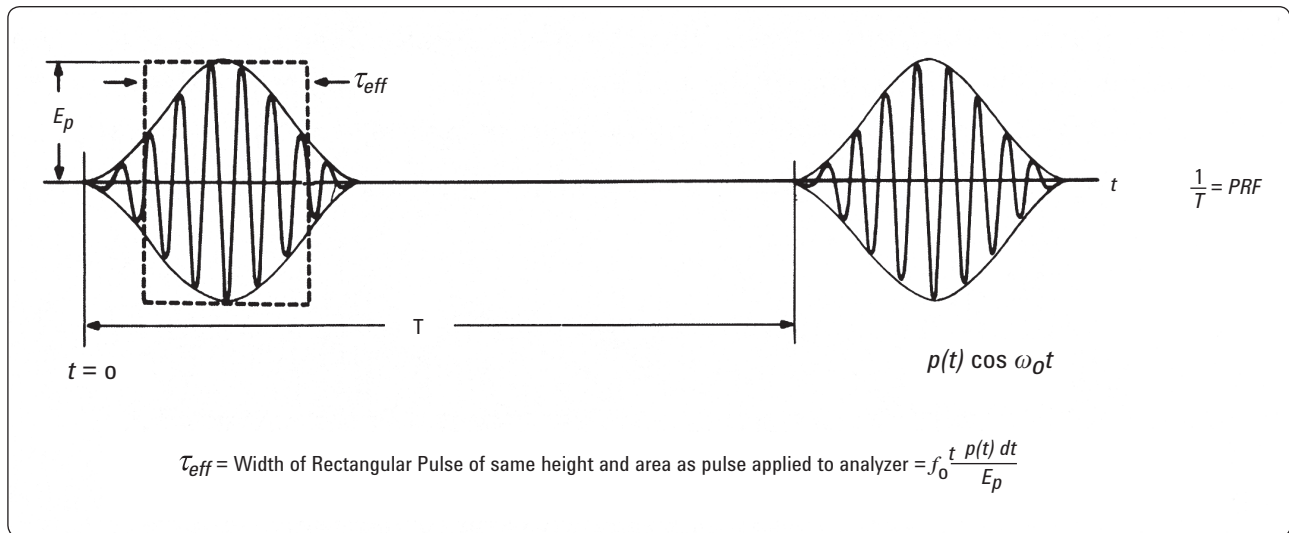


Figure 5. Basic RF pulse

Chapter 2. "Line" Spectrum

General rules and explanation

A "line" spectrum occurs when the spectrum analyzer's 3 dB bandwidth RBW is narrow compared to the frequency spacing of the input signal components. Because the individual spectral components are spaced at the pulse repetition frequency (PRF) of the periodically pulsed RF, we can say:

$$RBW < PRF$$

In this case all individual frequency components can be resolved. Only one is within the bandwidth at a time as shown in Figure 6.

The display is a frequency domain display of the actual Fourier components of the input signal. Each component behaves as a CW signal. The display has the normal true frequency domain characteristics:

1. The spacing between lines on the display will NOT change when the analyzer sweep time is changed.
2. The amplitude of each line will not change when the band RBW is changed as long as RBW remains considerably below the PRF .

We will now look at the display images on page 9 of a pulsed RF signal to see how different sweep time, span and resolution bandwidth of the spectrum analyzer influence the appearance of the signal on the display.

A carrier signal with a CW amplitude of -30 dBm (Figure 7) is modulated by a pulse train with a PRF of 1 kHz and an effective pulse width τ_{eff} of 0.1 ms (Figure 8). In Figure 9 we see the resulting pulse spectrum in a linear display. The RBW is 100 Hz, one-tenth of the PRF .

The logarithmic display (Figure 10) allows a much better evaluation of the signal spectrum, because the lower amplitudes of the higher order sidelobes can now be easily measured.

Each Fourier component is resolved and the line spacing is measured as 1 kHz, which is the PRF . We can also see that the spacing of the sidelobe minima is 10 kHz, according to the relation

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{eff}} = \frac{1}{0.1 \text{ ms}} = 10 \text{ kHz}$$

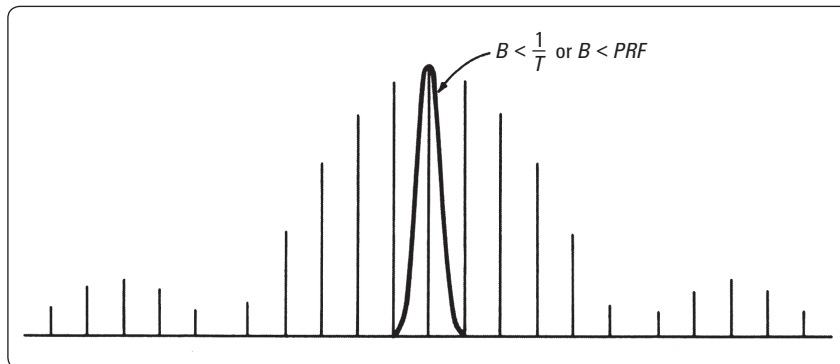


Figure 6. IF bandwidths smaller than PRF

We thus can count ten spectral lines in each sidelobe or twenty lines plus the carrier line in the mainlobe, according to the duty cycle of the pulsed signal.

$$\tau_{eff} / T \text{ or } \tau_{eff} PRF = 0.1$$

(The fact that the amplitude of the spectral lines on the lobe minima reach zero for each integer ratio of τ_{eff} / T can be used to adjust the duty cycle very accurately.)

The display in Figure 10 does not change for different scan times, unless we select a scan time too short for the given scan width and bandwidth.

Most Agilent spectrum and signal analyzers have built-in logic with a warning that enables us to avoid any wrong combination of these control settings.

For spectrum analyzers without this feature we have to satisfy an additional equation to avoid display errors:

$$\frac{Span[Hz / div]}{SweepTime[s / div]} < (RBW [Hz])^2$$

(See Appendix B)

In Figure 11 the *RBW* of the analyzer has been changed to 300 Hz. Although the resolution of the spectral lines is reduced (minimal) we still have a true Fourier line spectrum display. From this experience we can derive a rule of thumb for the analyzer's bandwidth to obtain a line spectrum:

$$RBW < 0.3 PRF \text{ (preferably } RBW < 0.1 PRF)$$

This rule is valid for the shape factors (4 to 4.5:1) of the IF filters used in modern digital-IF spectrum analyzers.

In Figure 12 we have changed the span from 100 kHz (10 kHz/div) to 50 kHz (5 kHz/div). We see that the spectrum envelope and the line spacing have changed, but the number of lines in each lobe remains constant.

In Figure 13 the pulse width has been altered from $\tau_{eff} = 0.1$ ms to $\tau_{eff} = 0.05$ ms. Comparing with Figure 10 (same control settings on the spectrum analyzer), we find three differences:

1. The sidelobe minima are spaced by 20 kHz.
2. The number of lines in each sidelobe is 20. (The line spacing is still 1 kHz since we did not change the *PRF*.)
3. The amplitude of the spectrum envelope is 6 dB lower.

The last point reveals a very important fact which has not been mentioned yet, but can easily be seen in the display of the calibrated logarithmic displays on page 9: The amplitude of the carrier component (highest amplitude in the spectrum envelope) of a pulse modulated signal is considerably lower than the CW amplitude of the unmodulated carrier. This effect is commonly called pulse desensitization.

Pulse desensitization α_L

The expression "pulse desensitization" is quite misleading since the sensitivity of the spectrum analyzer is not reduced by a pulse modulated signal. The apparent reduction in peak amplitude can be explained in the following manner: pulsing a CW carrier results in its power being distributed over a number of spectral components (carrier and sidebands). Each of these spectral components then contains only a fraction of the total power.

In Figure 10, where we have a duty cycle τ_{eff} / T of 0.1, we measure a display amplitude which has a difference of -20 dB compared to the CW amplitude of the carrier. In Figure 13, with a duty cycle of 0.05, we measure -26 dB. This leads to the equation for the line spectrum pulse desensitization factor α_L :

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_L [dB] &= 20 \log_{10} (\tau_{eff} / T) \\ &= 20 \log_{10} (\tau_{eff} PRF) \end{aligned}$$

This relation is only valid for a true Fourier line spectrum ($RBW < 0.3 PRF$). We can see that α_L is only dependent on the duty cycle τ_{eff} / T of the pulsed signal.

The average power P_{avg} of the signal is also dependent on the duty cycle:

$$P_{avg} = P_{peak} \tau_{eff} / T \text{ or } P_{avg} = P_{peak} \tau_{eff} PRF$$

Written as a ratio in dB:

$$\frac{P_{avg}}{P_{peak}} [dB] = 10 \log_{10} (\tau_{eff} PRF)$$

Line spectra of a pulsed modulated 1 GHz carrier

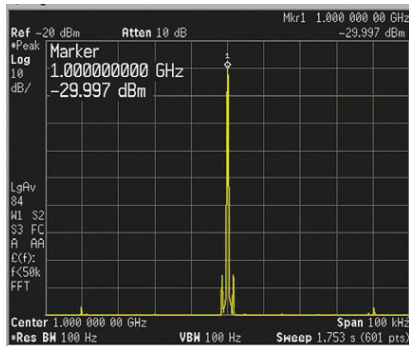


Figure 7. CW signal at 1 GHz with an Amplitude of -30 dBm, span of 100 kHz, *RBW* of 100 Hz and reference of -20 dBm

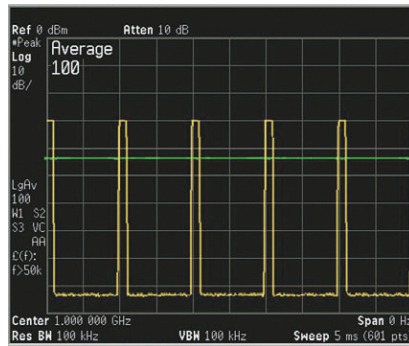


Figure 8. Time domain display of the 1 GHz, pulse width of 0.1 ms, period of 1.0 ms and a 5 ms sweep time

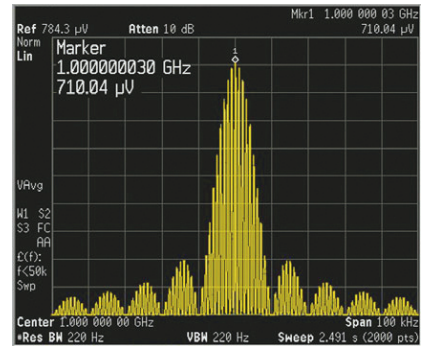


Figure 9. Line spectrum of the pulsed 1 GHz with 100 kHz span and linear amplitude display

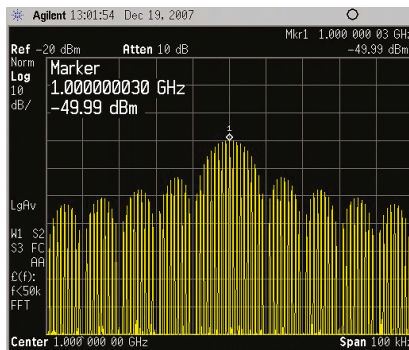


Figure 10. Log display of signal in figure 9

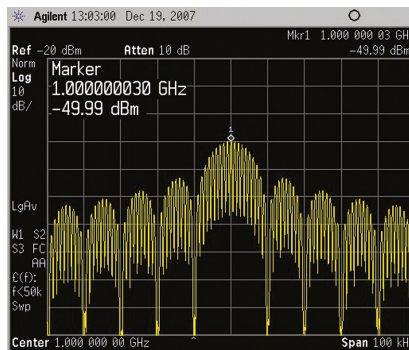


Figure 11. Same signal as figure 9 with bandwidth increased to 300 Hz

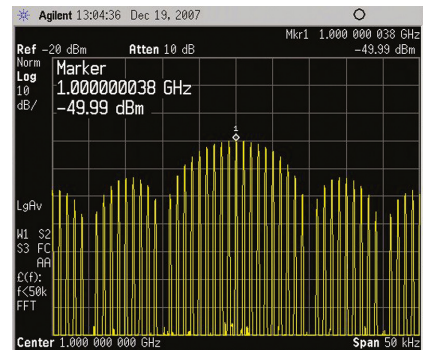


Figure 12. Same signal as figure 11 with span decreased to 50 kHz and bandwidth decreased to 100 Hz

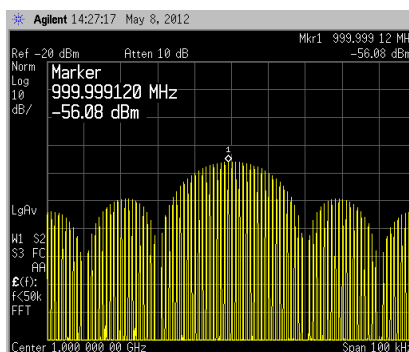


Figure 13. The pulse width is changed to 0.05 ms, pulse period of 1 ms and span of 100 kHz

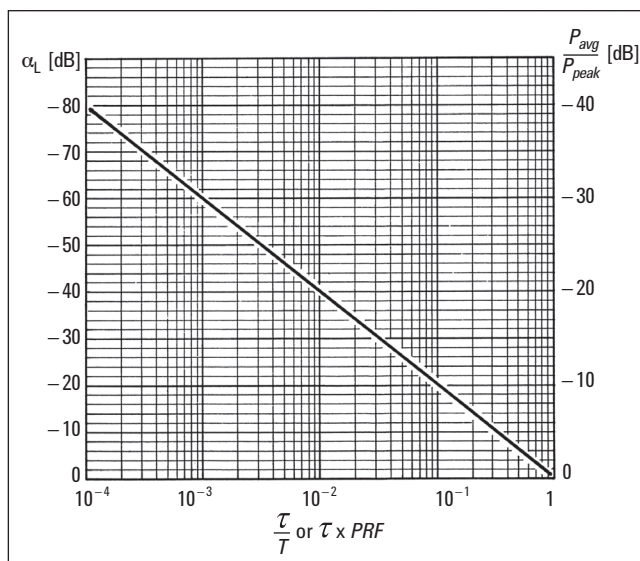


Figure 14. Pulse desensitization α_L (line spectrum)

Note: Images were captured using an Agilent PSA spectrum analyzer.

We read from the diagram that for a duty cycle of 0.1 we will get a display desensitization of -20 dB, and for a ratio of 0.05 we get -26 dB as shown in Figure 10 and Figure 13. The diagram also shows that the desensitization factor α_L becomes very large for low duty cycles. In this case, the sensitivity of the analyzer and the maximum signal level at the broadband front end mixer become important factors. We shall describe the necessary considerations for these analyzer properties in the next chapter about the more important "pulse" spectrum display.

Transition to the "pulse" response

If we increase the RBW in our example to 1 kHz, we get the display shown in Figure 15. We notice that the analyzer has lost the ability to resolve the spectral lines because $RBW = PRF$. The lines now displayed are generated in the time domain by the single pulses of the signal. We also see that the displayed amplitude of the spectrum envelope has increased. This is due to the fact that the IF filter is now sampling a broader part of the spectrum at a time, thus collecting the power of several spectral lines.

A pulse repetition rate equal to the resolution bandwidth is the demarcation line between a true Fourier-series spectrum, where each line is a response representing the energy contained in that harmonic, and a "pulse" or Fourier-transform response.

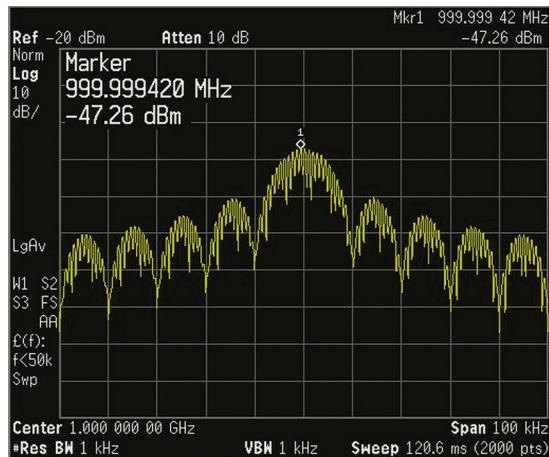


Figure 15. The bandwidth was changed to equal the pulse repetition frequency and the pulse width was changed to 0.1 ms.

Chapter 3 – “Pulse” Spectrum

General rules and explanation

A “pulse” spectrum occurs when the bandwidth RBW of the spectrum analyzer is equal to or greater than the PRF . The spectrum analyzer in this case cannot resolve the actual individual Fourier frequency domain components, since several lines are within its bandwidth. However, if the bandwidth is narrow compared to the spectrum envelope, then the envelope can be resolved (Figure 16). The resultant display is not a true frequency domain display, but a combination of time and frequency display. It is a time domain display of the pulse lines because each line is displayed when a pulse occurs, regardless of the frequency within the pulse spectrum to which the analyzer is tuned at that moment. It is a frequency domain display of the spectrum envelope. The display has three distinguishing characteristics:

1. The spacing between the pulse lines and their number will change when the sweep time of the analyzer is changed. The lines are spaced in real time by $1/PRF$. The shape of the spectrum envelope will not change with the scan time.

2. The spacing between the lines will not change when the span is changed. The spectrum envelope will change horizontally as we would expect.

3. The amplitude of the display envelope will increase linearly as the bandwidth RBW is increased. This means an amplitude increase of 6 dB for doubling RBW .

This is true as long as RBW does not exceed $\frac{0.2}{\tau_{eff}}$. When the bandwidth equals $\frac{1}{\tau_{eff}}$ (or 1/2 of the mainlobe width), the display amplitude is practically the peak amplitude of the signal. At this point the IF filter covers nearly all significant spectral components. But then we have lost the ability to resolve the spectrum envelope.

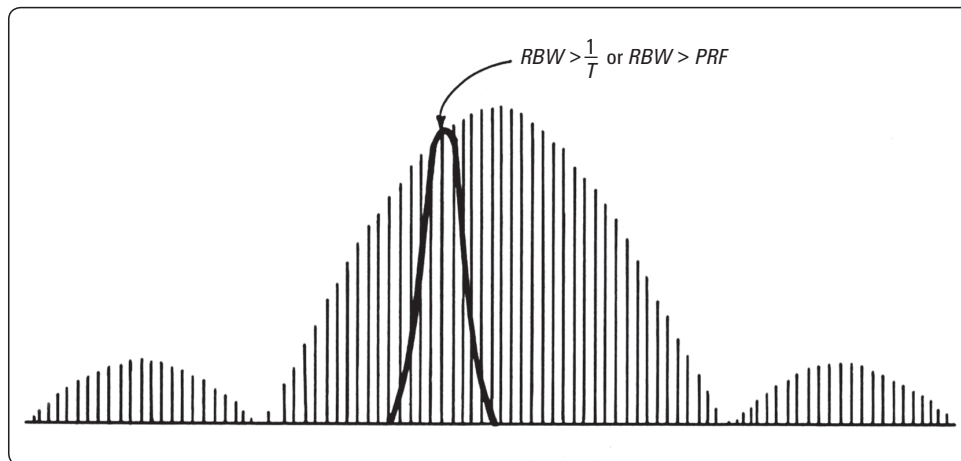


Figure 16. IF bandwidth greater than PRF

We show these characteristics in the following pictures:

In Figure 17 we modulate the -30 dBm CW carrier by a pulse

train with a PRF of 100 Hz and $\tau_{eff} = \frac{1}{10 \text{ kHz}} = 100 \mu\text{s}$.

The analyzer's IF bandwidth is $RBW = \frac{0.1}{\tau_{eff}}$ 1 kHz; i.e.,

We can see the spectrum envelope with the mainlobe and sidelobes and the minima in between. The lines that form the envelope are not spectral lines but pulse lines in the time domain.

We can verify this by changing the scan time (Figure 18). If we reduce the scan time further, we lose the information about the shape of the spectrum envelope; i.e., the frequency domain information. But we now can easily measure the PRF in the time domain (Figure 19 and Figure 20).

In Figure 21 we changed the span to 5 kHz/div. The span is the same as in Figure 18. We can see that the spectrum envelope changed (frequency domain), but the line spacing remains constant (time domain).

In Figure 22 we use an RBW of 300 Hz. We can measure an amplitude decrease of approximately 10 dB compared to Figure 17, which shows the linear relationship between RBW and display amplitude. We also can see that the minima are better resolved than in Figure 17. In Figure 23 the RBW is increased to 3 kHz. The display amplitude increase compared to Figure 22 is not 20 dB but only 18 dB. We lost the linear relationship between bandwidth and display amplitude because RBW is greater

than $\frac{0.2}{\tau_{eff}}$ in this case.

Also the resolution of the sidelobes is lost to a great extent.

If we increase RBW to 10 kHz (which is equal to $\frac{1}{\tau_{eff}}$),

we get a display with an amplitude practically equal to the peak amplitude of the pulsed signal (Figure 24).

Some additional rules of thumb are of importance:

1. For a sufficient resolution of the spectrum envelope the bandwidth should be less than 5% of the mainlobe width

$$RBW < \frac{0.1}{\tau_{eff}}$$

or:

For higher resolution into the lobe minima (20 to 30 dB) we

$$RBW < \frac{0.03}{\tau_{eff}}$$

should use:

2. The system must respond to each pulse independently. The effects of one pulse must decay out before the next pulse occurs. The IF amplifier decay time constant is approximately $0.3/RBW$. A decay of the pulse effect down to 1% (-40 dB) requires five time constants. This leads

$$RBW > 1.5PRF$$

to the rule:

However, we get less than 1 dB error if $RBW = PRF$, where the baseline is only 20 to 25 dB below the spectrum envelope (see Figure 15). The range between $RBW < 0.3PRF$ (line spectrum) and $RBW > PRF$ (pulse spectrum) shows properties of both response types and should be avoided.

3. The number of pulse lines that form the spectrum envelope display is determined by the PRF and the scan

$$scan \ time [s/div] \geq \frac{10}{PRF[Hz]}$$

time. For a display with useful resolution, i.e., a sufficient number of lines, the scan time should be selected to:

We then have more than 100 lines forming the spectrum envelope, thus assuring that the mainlobe peak is displayed on each scan (see Figure 18 and Figure 22). In the other displays where

$$RBW < \frac{1}{\tau_{eff}} \text{ we again have to consider a "pulse desensitization"}$$

factor because we compare a CW signal with a pulsed signal. This factor will be extensively discussed later.

Pulsed RF signal in "pulsed" spectrum display

(All pictures show the same log ref of -20 dBm).

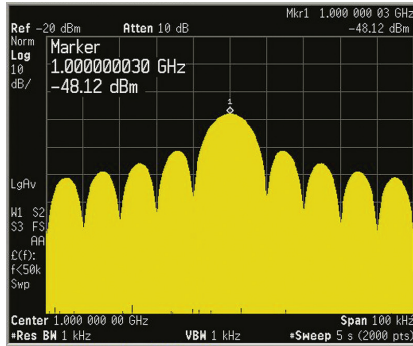


Figure 17. The *PRF* was set to 100 Hz (pulse period of 10 ms) pulse width of 0.1 ms, span of 100 kHz, sweep time of 10 sec and *RBW* of 1 kHz

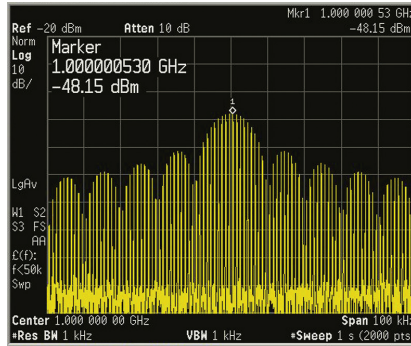


Figure 18. Same signal as figure 17 with the sweep time reduced to 1 sec

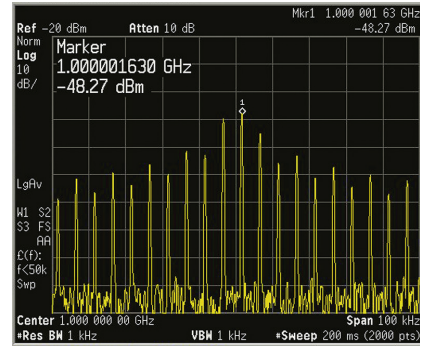


Figure 19. Same signal as figure 18 with the sweep time future reduced to 200 ms

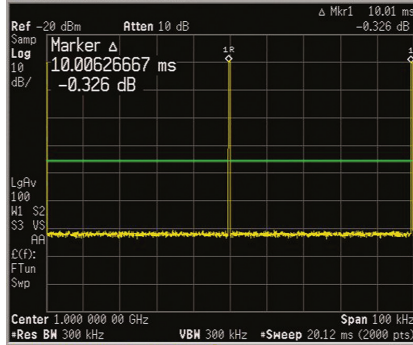


Figure 20. Same signal as figure 19 with the *RBW* expanded to 300 kHz and sweep time 20 ms

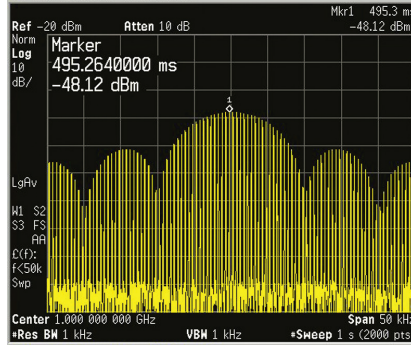


Figure 21. Same signal as figure 20 with the span of 50 kHz, *RBW* of 1 kHz and sweep time of 1 sec

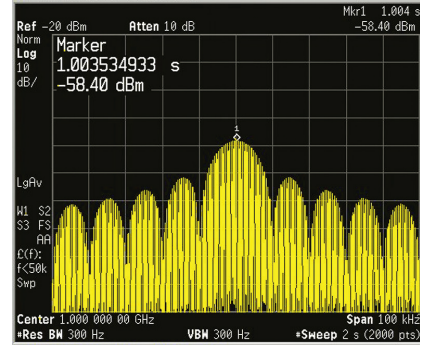


Figure 22. Same signal as figure 21 with the *RBW* reduced to 300 Hz, span increased to 100 kHz, and sweep time increased to 2 seconds

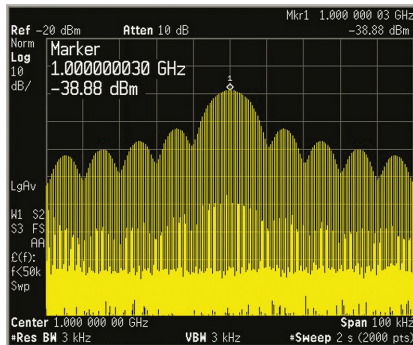


Figure 23. The *RBW* is increased to 3 kHz

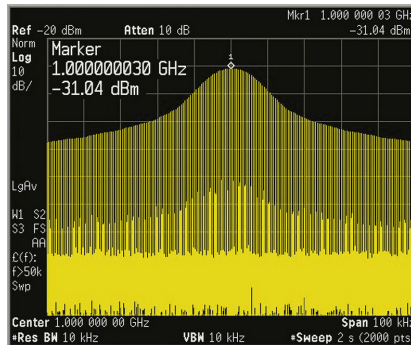


Figure 24. The *RBW* is increased further to 10 kHz

Why use a “pulse” spectrum display?

In many instances, it is neither possible nor desirable to make a fine grain line-by-line analysis of a spectrum. A good example of such a case is a train of short RF pulses at a low repetition frequency as normally used in radar transmitters. Not only must the IF bandwidth become inconveniently narrow, but often the frequency modulation on the pulsed carrier is so excessive that the resulting display is confusing.

In the “pulse” spectrum mode we can get all information we need: the spectrum envelope and amplitude in the frequency domain and the *PRF* in the time domain. We also have two advantages over the “line” spectrum display:

1. We can use shorter scan times because of the greater bandwidth.
2. We can increase the display amplitude of the pulsed signal by choosing a broader bandwidth. We know that the display amplitude increases linearly with the bandwidth *RBW*. The noise level of the analyzer increases only proportional to \sqrt{RBW} . So we can increase the signal-to-noise ratio proportional to \sqrt{RBW} . The reason that the amplitude of the pulse increases proportional to the *RBW* is that the signals are coherent and add directly. The noise is not coherent and the power increases with the \sqrt{RBW} .

This is opposite to the CW and “line” case where we have to use narrower bandwidths to decrease the noise level, thus increasing the signal-to-noise ratio. Figure 25 and Figure 26 show these effects clearly.

From the preceding discussion about the “pulse” spectrum response we can find another important fact: the spectrum/signal analyzer must provide independent controls for bandwidth, span, and sweep time to optimize the display according to the rules of thumb given for this type of response. Also the variable persistence CRT offers a great advantage if we want to have a flicker-free display of pulsed signals with low *PRF*.

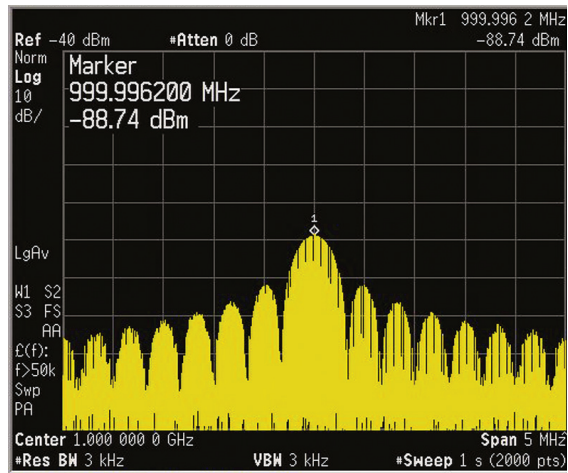


Figure 25. A 1 GHz carrier with -50 dBm amplitude, *PRF* of 400 Hz, 3 μ sec pulse, *RBW* of 3 kHz, 5 MHz span, and a sweep time of 1 second is displayed. You will note that only the lower order sidelobes can easily be measured.

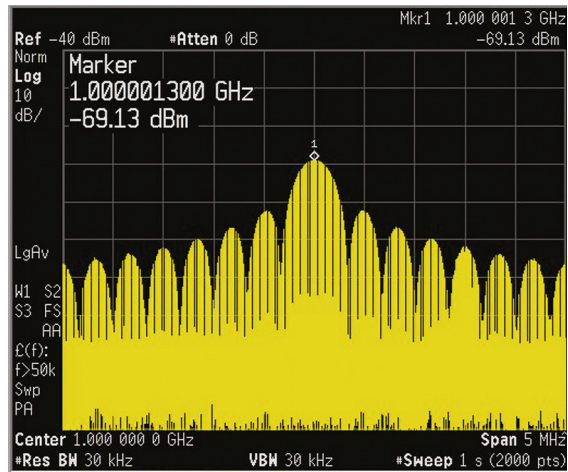


Figure 26. The same display as figure 25 with the *RBW* increased to 30 kHz. This increase resulted in a 20 dB increase in the signal with only a 10 dB increase in noise. The higher order sidelobes are now more easily measured.

Peak pulse response - pulse desensitization α_p

In the "pulse" spectrum just described, the response of the spectrum analyzer to each RF input pulse is in essence the pulse response of the analyzer's IF amplifier.

The peak pulse response of Agilent spectrum and signal analyzers has been established and is relatively independent of pulse shape and pulse repetition frequency (for $RBW > PRF$). The expression relating the peak pulse response to a CW signal response is the pulse desensitization factor α_p .

This factor α_p for the "pulse" response depends on different physical conditions compared to α_L in the "line" spectrum:

$$\alpha_p = 20 \log_{10} (\tau_{eff} B_{imp}) [\text{dB}]$$

In this equation we find a new expression: the effective impulse bandwidth, B_{imp} . This can be visualized as the bandwidth of an ideal, rectangularly shaped filter with a pulse response equivalent to the actual filter with the 3 dB bandwidth B (Figure 27). Since the impulse bandwidth B_{imp} of the IF amplifier is not the same as its 3 dB bandwidth B , a correction factor K has been introduced. This factor K represents an empirical approach defining B_{imp} relative to B :

$$K = \frac{B_{imp}}{RBW}$$

For 4-pole synchronously tuned filters as used in Agilent ESA Series, 8560 family, and 859x IF sections, the value of K is ideally 1.6 with tolerance expectations of about $\pm 10\%$, or ± 0.8 dB. For the Agilent PSA Series, K is 1.479 with a tolerance of about $\pm 2\%$ (± 0.17 dB).

We can now write:

$$\alpha_p [\text{dB}] = 20 \log (\tau_{eff} K RBW); K = 1.48 \text{ or } 1.6$$

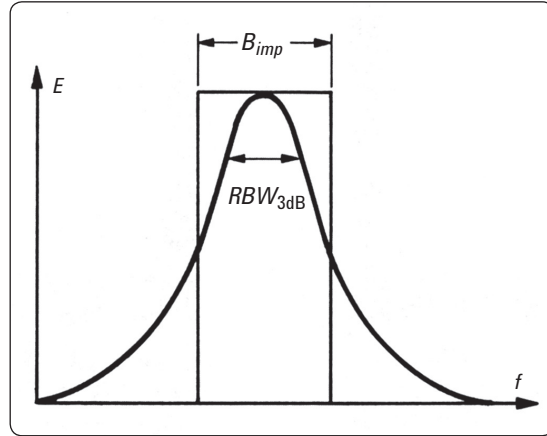


Figure 27. Equivalent B_{imp} of Gaussian filter.

There are several conditions which must be satisfied if this is to be valid:

1. The IF bandwidth-pulse width product must be less than two-tenths:

$$RBW \tau_{eff} < 0.2 \text{ or } RBW < \frac{0.2}{\tau_{eff}}$$

2. The normalized scan rate (NSR) of the analyzer must be less than one:

$$NSR = \frac{\text{ScanWidth}[\text{Hz}]}{\text{ScanTime}[\text{s}] \times (RBW[\text{Hz}])^2} < 1$$

3. The IF bandwidth must be greater than the PRF :

$$RBW > PRF$$

The conditions in 1 to 3 are automatically accomplished if the Equations 5, 6, and 7 are satisfied.

4. The peak pulse amplitude at the broadband input mixer of the analyzer must stay below the saturation point (1 dB compression). The typical saturation point for Agilent spectrum analyzers is between -10 dBm and $+5$ dBm:

$$P_{peak} \leq -10 \text{ dBm}$$

Figure 28 is a diagram showing the pulse desensitization α_p in relation to IF bandwidth B and pulse width τ_{eff} . We see that the PRF does not appear, since it is of no significance for the display amplitude as long as $B > PRF$. The shaded area between the

$$RBW = \frac{0.03}{\tau_{eff}} \text{ and } RBW = \frac{0.1}{\tau_{eff}}$$

represents the optimum bandwidth range for an analysis of a pulsed signal. There are also three dotted lines that show different noise levels of an analyzer for a fast determination of the dynamic range.

We will now take a few examples to show how the diagram is used:

1. We assume a pulsed signal with the following characteristics: $P_{peak} = -30$ dBm, $\tau_{eff} = 1 \mu s$, $PRF = 1$ kHz. The noise level of the analyzer is $N = -100$ dBm for 1 kHz bandwidth. We find on the diagram for $\tau_{eff} = 1 \mu s$ an optimum bandwidth of 100 kHz ($\rightarrow RBW > PRF$). We then can read a pulse desensitization of $\alpha_p \approx -16$ dB. The displayed amplitude of the spectrum envelope will be ≈ -46 dBm. We also read from the crossing point of the line for $N = -100$ dBm and the line for $RBW = 100$ kHz a resultant noise level of -80 dBm. We thus get a usable display range (S/N ratio) of only 34 dB. Although this range is sufficient in most cases for evaluation of the pulse spectrum, this example shows how important a spectrum analyzer with a low noise level is.

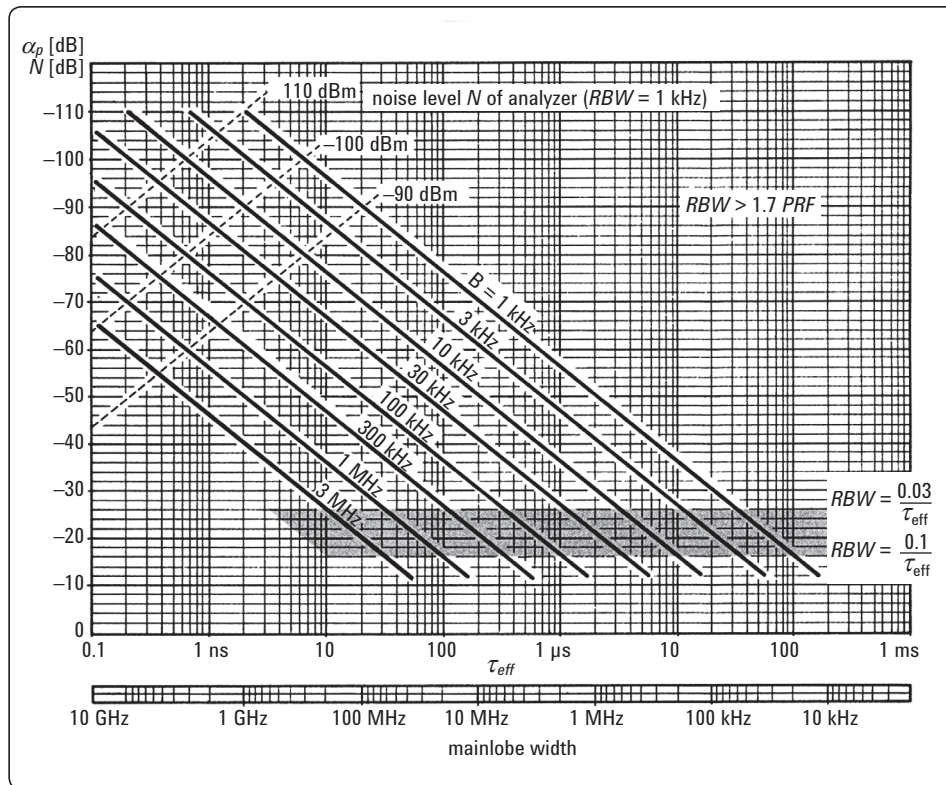


Figure 28. Pulse desensitization α_p (pulse spectrum)

2. Pulse power measurements: We see on the spectrum analyzer display the spectrum envelope of a pulsed signal with the following characteristics: the display amplitude is -50 dBm, the mainlobe width is 10 MHz. The analyzer's bandwidth is 300 kHz. What are the peak and the average powers of the signal?

The effective pulse duration τ_{eff} is calculated from the lobe width or read from the diagram:

$$\tau_{eff} = \frac{2}{10 \text{ MHz}} = 0.2 \mu\text{s} \text{ or } 200 \text{ ns}$$

In the diagram, we find a pulse desensitization of -21 dB for $\tau_{eff} = 200$ ns and $RBW = 300$ kHz. The peak power is 21 dB greater than the displayed amplitude, and we can calculate the peak power to $P_{peak} = -29$ dBm.

To find the average power, we first have to measure the PRF . This is done by reducing the scan time until we can easily measure the pulse line spacing in time domain. Assume we measured the line spacing to 1 ms which equals a PRF of 1 kHz, we then can calculate the average power $P_{avg} = P_{peak} \tau_{eff} PRF$.

$$\tau_{eff} PRF = 2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s} \times 10^3 \text{ Hz} = 2 \times 10^{-4}$$

Using the diagram for α_L , Figure 14 on page 9, we find a

factor $\frac{P_{avg}}{P_{peak}}$ of -37 dB. Thus, with the peak power P_{peak}

of -29 dBm and the factor of -37 dB, we can calculate the average power $P_{avg} = -66$ dBm.

3. We want to calculate the peak power of a signal displayed with an amplitude of -30 dBm and a mainlobe width of 100 MHz. The analyzer bandwidth is 300 kHz. The signal

has a pulse duration $\tau_{eff} = \frac{2}{100 \text{ MHz}} = 20$ ns.

We find a desensitization factor of -41 dB.

This would yield a signal peak power of $+11$ dBm, far beyond the saturation level of -10 dBm. Thus, the calculation is not valid. We have to insert at least 20 dB attenuation before the input mixer.

To check that the input signal level at the front end mixer is below the saturation point, we have to observe that for a 10 dB step of the input attenuator the display amplitude must also change by exactly 10 dB.

Very short RF pulses

We know from the diagram for α_p (Figure 28) that the desensitization of the analyzer display becomes very high for very short RF pulses, even with the widest resolution bandwidth. If we assume that we can provide the maximum usable input signal level of -10 dBm (which is normally possible when we measure in the proximity of the radar transmitter to be investigated), we are then limited only by the sensitivity of the analyzer. For a sufficient evaluation of a pulsed RF signal we should have a display range of at least 30 dB above the noise level. Figure 29 is a diagram which shows the maximum usable display range as a function of pulse width and analyzer sensitivity for a maximum input level of -10 dBm and a bandwidth of 300 kHz.*

We can easily see that for a pulse width of, for example, 1 ns, an analyzer must have a sensitivity of -110 dBm (specified for $RBW = 300$ kHz) or better to yield a usable display. It is not possible to improve the signal-to-noise ratio with a low noise preamplifier, because we are already limited by the saturation level of the input mixer. The new generation of Agilent spectrum analyzers offers exceptionally high sensitivities that allow measurements of extremely short RF pulses.

*See page 15.

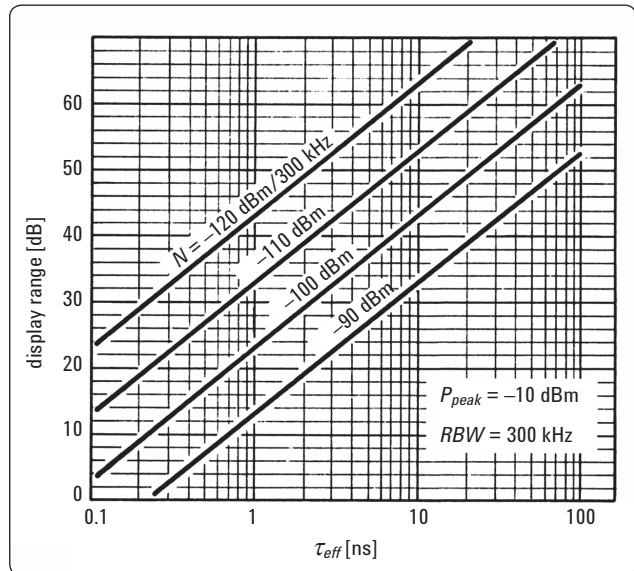
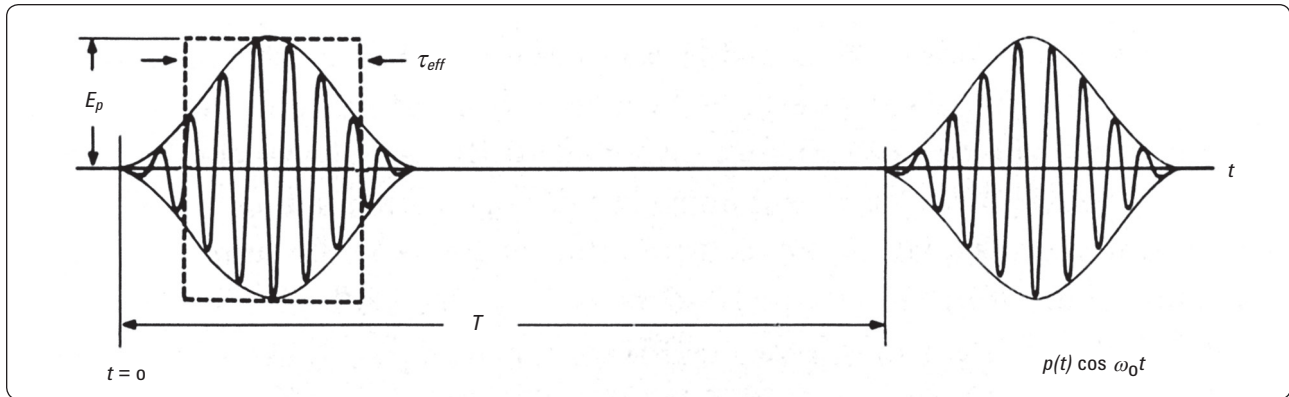


Figure 29. Display range vs. sensitivity

Chapter 4

Summary of Pulse Spectra Characteristics



Type of response	"Line" spectrum (Fourier series)	"Pulse" spectrum (Fourier transform)
Requirements for each		
Type of spectrum:		
Bandwidth	$RBW < 0.3PRF$	$\frac{0.1}{\tau_{eff}} < RBW < 1.7PRF$
Sweep time	$T_s > \frac{F_s}{RBW^2}$	$T_s > \frac{10}{PRF}$
Peak input power	$P_{peak} \leq -10 \text{ dBm}$	$P_{peak} \leq -10 \text{ dBm}$
Desensitization factor	$\alpha_L = 20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{\tau_{eff}}{T} \right)$	$\alpha_p = 20 \log_{10} (\tau_{eff} K RBW)$
Amplitude of spectrum display at $\omega = \omega_0$	$A = E_p' \frac{\tau_{eff}}{T} = E_p' \tau_{eff} PRF$	$A = E_p' \tau_{eff} K RBW$
Type of display used	Fourier or spectral lines	Pulse repetition rate lines
for duty cycle $\frac{\tau_{eff}}{T}$	> 0.05	< 0.05
Number of lines/Division	Changes with scan width not scan time	Changes with scan time not scan width
E_p' = response on CRT due to CW signal $E_p \cos \omega_0 t$	RBW = IF bandwidth (3 dB)	
T_s = sweep time	K = constant of IF amplifier ($K \approx 1.479$ or 1.617)	
F_s = span	τ_{eff} = width of rectangular pulse of same height and area as pulse applied to analyzer = $\int_0^t \frac{p(t) dt}{E_p}$	
$PRF = \frac{1}{T}$ = Pulse repetition frequency in Hz		

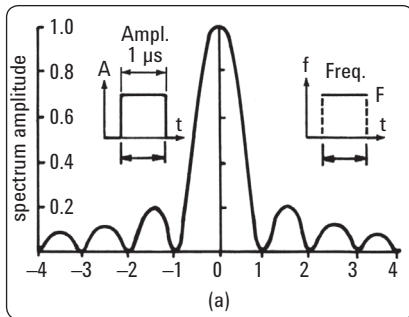
Common pulse spectra

Figure 30 shows some examples of typical spectrum displays for pulse signals with different pulse shapes and with the presence of AM and FM. An extensive mathematical treatment of different pulse forms and their spectra can be found in Appendix A.

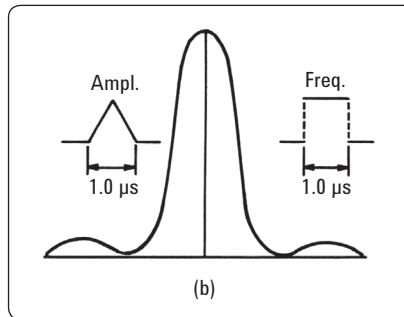
The ideal rectangular RF pulse free of FM will produce a symmetrical pulse spectrum as shown in (a). When the pulse is changed to a triangular shape, the spectrum remains symmetrical with decreased amplitude of the sidelobes (b). The pulse spectrum will remain symmetrical even if the pulse shape is distorted or unsymmetrical.

PULSE SPECTRUM IN THE PRESENCE OF FM: A symmetrical pulse with linear coherent FM will produce a symmetrical spectrum with increased sidelobe amplitude and minima not reaching zero, (c), (d).

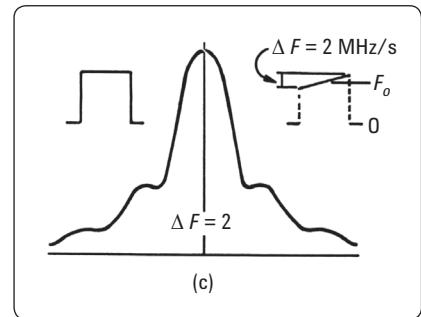
If incidental FM (FM due to amplitude modulation) or coherent FM is introduced together with an unsymmetrical pulse, an unsymmetrical pulse spectrum with the minima not reaching zero will be produced, (e), (f). This is also true for a symmetrical pulse with nonlinear coherent FM.



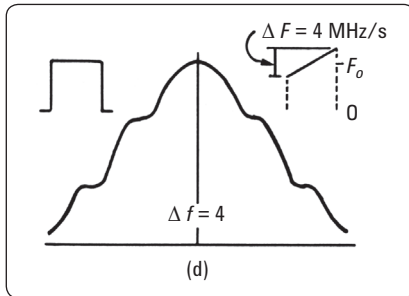
Spectrum of rectangular pulse without AM or FM occurring during pulse. Shape is that of $\frac{\sin(\omega \frac{t}{2})}{\omega \frac{t}{2}}$ function.



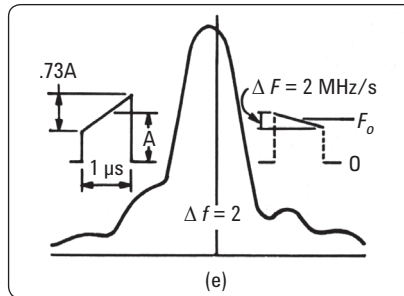
Triangular pulse spectrum without FM during pulse. Effective pulse width is shorter than (a) causing minima to occur at wider intervals of frequency.



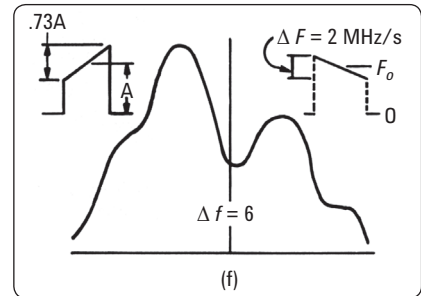
Spectrum of rectangular pulse with linear FM resulting in increased sidelobe amplitude and minima not reaching zero.



Same pulse spectrum as (c) with more severe FM.



Effect of linear AM and FM during pulse. Note loss in symmetry due to pulse amplitude slope.



More severe case of FM and AM occurring during pulse.

Figure 30. Common pulse spectra

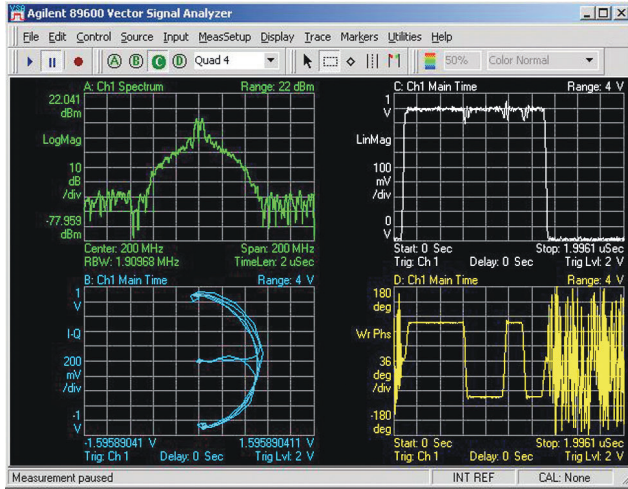


Figure 31: This is an example of a barker code radar showing the spectrum, IQ, pulse envelope and phase Barker.

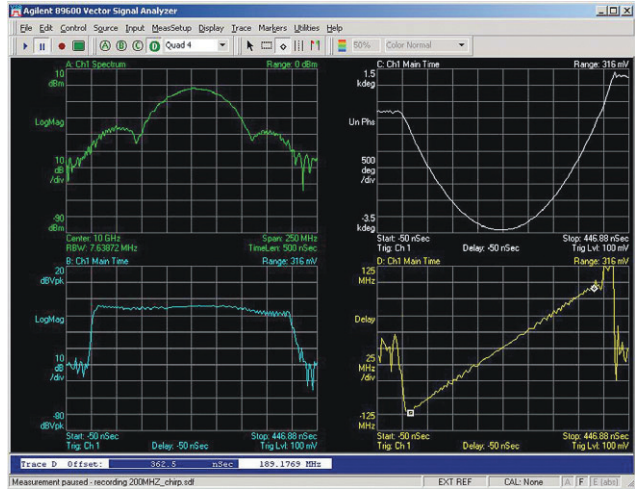


Figure 32: This is an example of a linear FM chirp radar showing the spectrum, pulse envelope, phase versus time and frequency versus time.

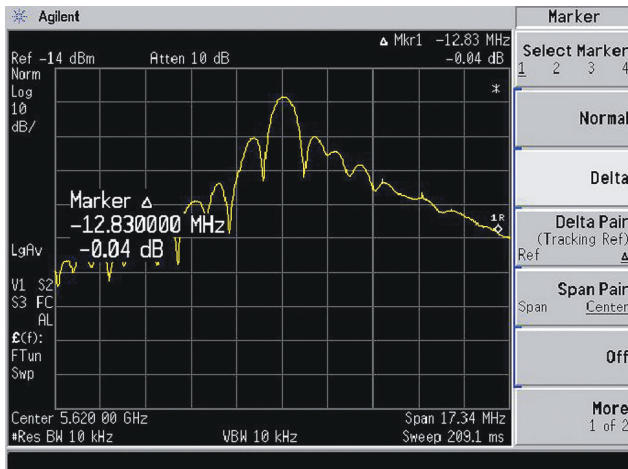


Figure 33: This spectrum is a result of AM and FM modulating the pulse.

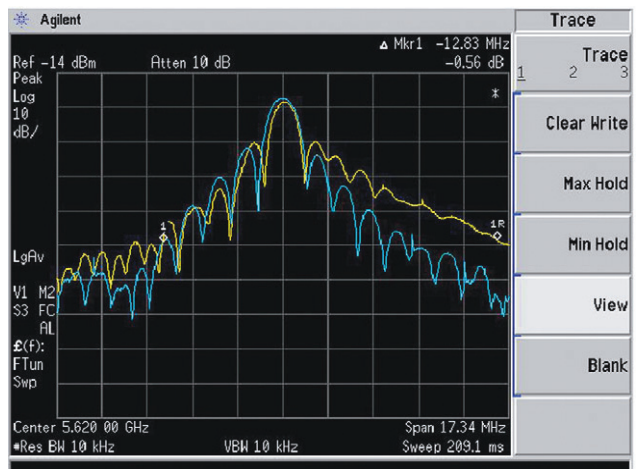


Figure 34: The transmitter is readjusted to reduce AM and FM.

Appendix A. Table of Important Transforms

Explanation of the table

The time functions and corresponding frequency functions in this table are related by the following expressions:

$$F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-i\omega t} dt \quad (\text{Direct transform})$$

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega)e^{i\omega t} d\omega \quad (\text{Inverse transform})$$

The $1/2 \pi$ multiplier in the inverse transform arises merely because the integration is written with respect to ω , rather than cyclic frequency. Otherwise the expressions are identical except for the difference of sign in the exponent. As a result, functions and their transforms can be interchanged with only slight modification. Thus, if $f(\omega)$ is the direct transform of $f(t)$, it is also true that $2\pi f(-\omega)$ is the direct transform of $f(t)$. For example, the spectrum of a $\frac{\sin X}{X}$ pulse is rectangular (pair 6, page 22) while the spectrum of a rectangular pulse is of the form $\frac{\sin X}{X}$ (pair 7, page 23).

Likewise pair 1S is the counterpart of the well-known fact that the spectrum of a constant (dc) is a spike at zero frequency.

The frequency functions in the table are in many cases listed both as functions of ω and also of p . This is done merely for convenience. $F(p)$ in all cases is found by substituting p for $i\omega$ in $F(\omega)$. (Not simply p for ω as the notation would ordinarily indicate. That is, in the usual mathematical convention one would write $F(\omega) = F(-ip) = G(p)$ where the change in letter indicates the resulting change in functional form. The notation used above has grown through usage and causes no confusion, once understood.) Thus, in the p -notation

$$F(p) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-pt} dt \quad f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(p)e^{pt} dp$$

The latter integral is conveniently evaluated as a contour integral in the p -plane, letting p assume complex values.

The frequency functions have been plotted on linear amplitude and frequency scales, and where convenient, also on logarithmic scales. The latter scales often bring out characteristics not evident in the linear plot. Thus, many of the spectra are asymptotic to first or second degree hyperbolas on a linear plot. On a log plot these asymptotes become straight lines of slope -1 or -2 (i.e., -6 or -12 dB/octave).

The time functions in the table have all been normalized to convenient peak amplitudes, areas or slopes. For any other amplitude, multiply both sides by the appropriate factor. Thus, the spectrum of a rectangular pulse 10 volts in amplitude and 2 seconds long is (from pair 7, page 23) $20 \frac{\sin(\omega)}{\omega}$ volt-seconds.

Again, upon multiplication by a constant having appropriate dimensions, the frequency functions become filter transmissions. Thus, if pair 1 is multiplied by α , the frequency function represents a simple RC cutoff. A one-coulomb impulse (pair 1S) applied to this filter would produce an output (impulse response) with the spectrum $\frac{\alpha}{p+\alpha} \times 1$ coulomb, representing the time function $\alpha e^{-\alpha t}$ coulombs (which has the dimensions of amperes). Or a 1 volt step function (pair 2S) would produce the output spectrum $\frac{\alpha}{p+\alpha} \frac{1}{p}$ volts, which represents the time function $(1 - e^{-\alpha t})$ volts (pair 4S).

The entries 1S through 6S in the table (page 24) are singular functions for which the transforms as defined above exist only as limits. For example, 1S may be thought of as the limit of pair 7 (multiplied by $\frac{1}{T}$) as $T \rightarrow 0$.

Properties of transforms

There are a number of important relations which describe what happens to the transforms of functions when the functions themselves are added, multiplied, or convolved. These relations state mathematically many of the operations encountered in communications systems: operations such as linear amplification, mixing, modulation, filtering, and sampling. These relations are all readily deducible from the defining equations above; but for ready reference some of the more important ones are listed in the properties of transforms on the last page of this appendix.

Again, because of the similarity of the direct and inverse transforms, a symmetry exists in these properties. Thus, delaying a function multiplies its spectrum by a complex exponential; while multiplying the function by a complex exponential delays its spectrum. Multiplying any two functions is equivalent to convolving their spectra; multiplying their spectra is equivalent to convolving the functions.

Many of the pairs listed in the table of transforms can be obtained from others by using one or more of the rules of manipulation listed in the properties of transforms. For example, the time function in pair 8, page 23 is $\frac{1}{T}$ times the *convolution* of that in pair 7 with itself.

The spectrum should therefore be $\frac{1}{T}$ times the *product* of that in pair 7 with itself, as it indeed is. Further, by using these properties, many pairs not in the table can be obtained from those given. For example, the spectrum of $f(t) = (1 - \alpha t)e^{-\alpha t}$ is (by the addition property)

$$F(p) = \frac{1}{p + \alpha} - \frac{\alpha}{(p + \alpha)^2} = \frac{p}{(p + \alpha)^2}$$

Table of Important Transforms

TIME FUNCTIONS		NO.	FREQUENCY FUNCTIONS (LINEAR SCALES)		(LOG AMPL. - LOG FREQ.)
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ e^{-\alpha t}, & t > 0 \end{cases}$	1	$F(p) = \frac{1}{p + \alpha}$ $F(\omega) = \frac{1}{\alpha + i\omega}$		
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ \alpha t e^{-\alpha t}, & t > 0 \end{cases}$	2	$F(p) = \frac{\alpha}{(p + \alpha)^2}$ $F(\omega) = \frac{\alpha}{(\alpha + i\omega)^2}$		
	$f(t) = e^{-\alpha t }$	3	$F(p) = \frac{2\alpha}{\alpha^2 - p^2}$ $F(\omega) = \frac{2\alpha}{\alpha^2 + \omega^2}$		
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ e^{-\alpha t} \sin \beta t, & t > 0 \end{cases}$	4	$F(p) = \frac{\beta}{(p + \alpha)^2 + \beta^2}$ $F(\omega) = \frac{\beta}{(\alpha^2 + \beta^2 - \omega^2 + i2\alpha\omega)}$		
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ e^{-\alpha t} (\cos \beta t - \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \sin \beta t), & t > 0 \end{cases}$	5	$F(p) = \frac{p}{(p + \alpha)^2 + \beta^2}$ $F(\omega) = \frac{i\omega}{(\alpha^2 + \beta^2 - \omega^2 + i2\alpha\omega)}$		
	$f(t) = \frac{\sin(\frac{\pi}{\tau} t)}{(\frac{\pi}{\tau})}$	6	$F(\omega) = \begin{cases} \tau, & \omega < \frac{\pi}{\tau} \\ 0, & \omega > \frac{\pi}{\tau} \end{cases}$		

Table of Important Transforms

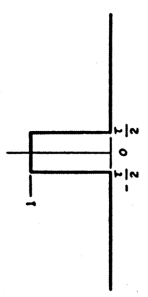
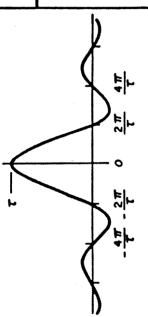
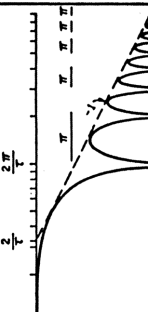
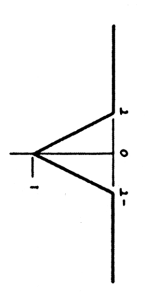
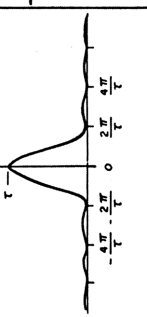
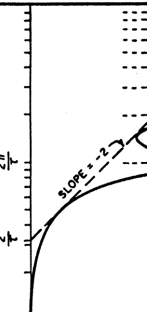
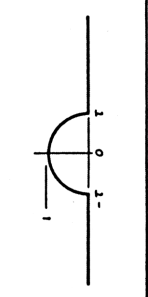
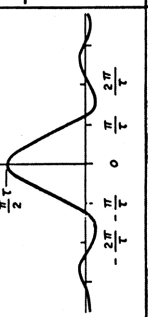
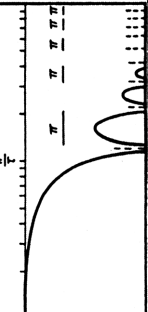
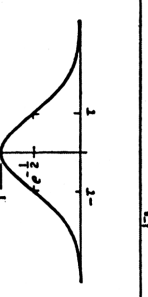
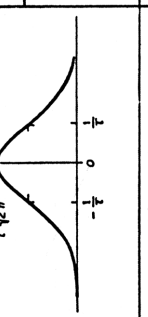
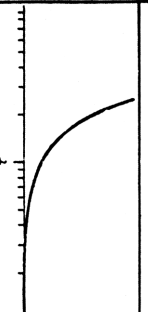
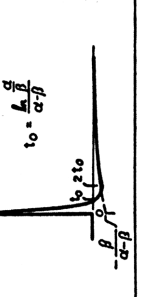
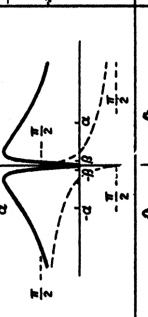
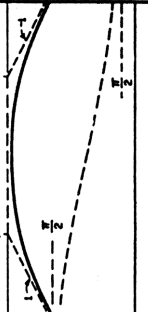
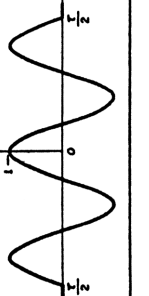
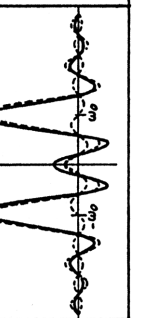
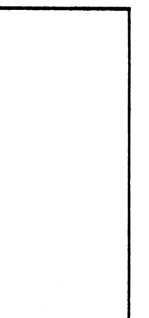
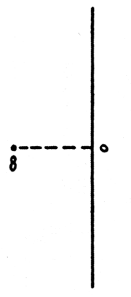
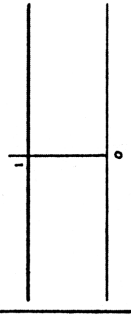

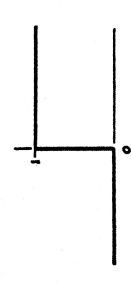
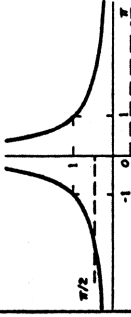
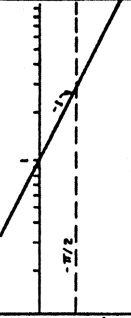
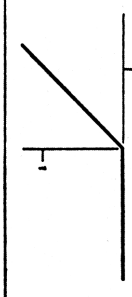
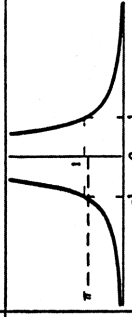
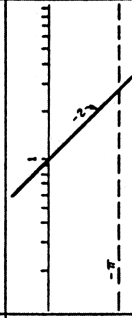
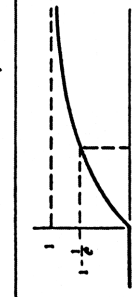
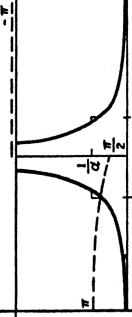

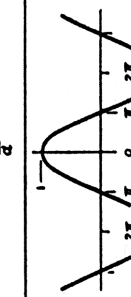
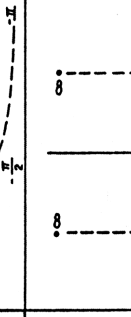
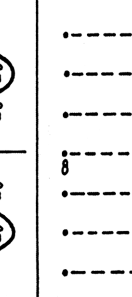
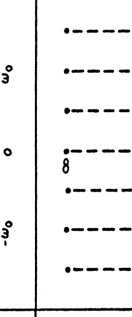
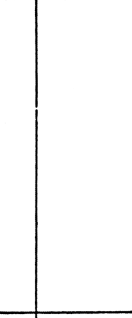
TIME FUNCTIONS		NO.	FREQUENCY FUNCTIONS (LINEAR SCALES)		(LOG AMPL. - LOG FREQ.)
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & t < \frac{\tau}{2} \\ 0, & t > \frac{\tau}{2} \end{cases}$	7	$F(\omega) = \tau \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\omega\tau}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{\omega\tau}{2}\right)}$		
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{ t }{\tau}, & t < \tau \\ 0, & t > \tau \end{cases}$	8	$F(\omega) = \tau \frac{\sin^2\left(\frac{\omega\tau}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{\omega\tau}{2}\right)^2}$		
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right)^2}, & t < \tau \\ 0, & t > \tau \end{cases}$	9	$F(\omega) = \frac{\pi}{2} \tau \frac{2J_1(\omega\tau)}{(\omega\tau)}$		
	$f(t) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right)^2}$	10	$F(\omega) = \tau \sqrt{2\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\tau\omega)^2}$		
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ \alpha e^{-\beta t}, & t > 0 \end{cases}$	11	$F(\rho) = \frac{\rho}{(\rho + \alpha)(\rho + \beta)}$		
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} \cos \omega_0 t, & t < \frac{\tau}{2} \\ 0, & t > \frac{\tau}{2} \end{cases}$	12	$F(\omega) = \frac{\tau}{2} \left[\frac{\sin\left(\frac{(\omega - \omega_0)\tau}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{\omega - \omega_0}{2}\right)\tau} + \frac{\sin\left(\frac{(\omega + \omega_0)\tau}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{\omega + \omega_0}{2}\right)\tau} \right]$		

Table of Important Transforms

TIME FUNCTIONS		NO.	FREQUENCY FUNCTIONS (LINEAR SCALES)		(LOG AMPL. - LOG FREQ.)
	$f(t) = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\tau}, & t < \frac{\tau}{2} \\ 0, & t > \frac{\tau}{2} \end{cases}$ = $\delta(t)$ (DELTA FUNCTION)	1S	$F(p) = F(\omega) = 1$		
	$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t \delta(\lambda) d\lambda = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ 1, & t > 0 \end{cases}$ = $u(t)$ (UNIT STEP)	2S	$F(p) = \frac{1}{p}$		
	$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t u(\lambda) d\lambda = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ t, & t > 0 \end{cases}$ = $S(t)$ (UNIT SLOPE)	3S	$F(p) = \frac{1}{p^2}$		
	$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ 1 - e^{-at}, & t > 0 \end{cases}$	4S	$F(p) = \frac{a}{p(p+a)}$		
	$f(t) = \cos \omega_0 t$	5S	$F(\omega) = \pi [\delta(\omega + \omega_0) + \delta(\omega - \omega_0)]$		
	$f(t) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - nT)$	6S	$F(\omega) = \frac{2\pi}{T} \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\omega - n \frac{2\pi}{T})$		

Properties of Transforms

Time operation	Frequency operation	Significance
Linear addition $af(t) + bg(t)$	Linear addition $aF(\omega) + bG(\omega)$	Linearity and superposition apply in both domains. The spectrum of a linear sum of functions is the same linear sum of their spectra (if spectra are complex, usual rules of addition of complex quantities apply). Further, any function may be regarded as a sum of component parts and the spectrum is the sum of the component spectra.
Scale change $f(kt)$	Inverse scale change $\frac{1}{ k } F\left(\frac{\omega}{k}\right)$	Time-bandwidth invariance. Compressing a time function expands its spectrum in frequency and reduces it in amplitude by the same factor. The amplitude reduces because less energy is spread over a greater bandwidth. For the same energy pulse as for $k=1$, multiply both functions by $\sqrt{ k }$. The case where $k=-1$ reverses the function in time. This merely interchanges positive and negative frequencies; so for real time functions, reverses the phase.
Even and odd partition $\frac{1}{2}[f(t) \pm f(-t)]$	Even and odd partition $\frac{1}{2}[F(\omega) \pm F(-\omega)]$	Any real function $f(t)$ may be separated into an even part $\frac{1}{2}[f(t) + f(-t)]$ and an odd part $\frac{1}{2}[f(t) - f(-t)]$. The transform of the even part is $\frac{1}{2}[F(\omega) + F(-\omega)]$ which is purely real and involves only even powers of ω . The transform of the odd part is $\frac{1}{2}[F(\omega) - F(-\omega)]$ which is purely imaginary and involves only odd powers of ω . Note: for $f(t)$ real, $F(-\omega) = F^*(\omega)$.
Delay $f(t - t_0)$	Linear added phase $e^{-i\omega t_0} F(\omega)$	Delaying a function by a time t_0 multiplies its spectrum by $e^{-i\omega t_0}$, thus adding a delay of $\theta = -\omega t_0$ to the original phase. Conversely a linear phase filter produces a delay of $-\frac{d\theta}{d\omega} = t_0$.
Complex modulation $e^{i\omega_0 t} f(t)$	Shift of spectrum $F(\omega - \omega_0)$	Multiplying a time function by $e^{i\omega_0 t}$ "delays" its spectrum, i.e., shifts it to center about ω_0 rather than zero frequency. Ordinary real modulation — by $\cos(\omega_0 t)$ say — produces the time function $\frac{1}{2}(e^{i\omega_0 t} + e^{-i\omega_0 t})f(t)$ with the spectrum $\frac{1}{2}[F(\omega - \omega_0) + F(\omega + \omega_0)]$.
Convolution $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau)g(t - \tau)d\tau$	Multiplication (filtering) $F(\omega)G(\omega)$	The spectrum of the convolution of two time functions is the product of their spectra. In convolution one of the two functions to be convolved is reversed left-to-right and displaced. The integral of the product is then evaluated and is a new function of the displacement. Convolution occurs whenever a signal is obtained which is proportional to the integral of the product of two functions as they slide past each other—in other words, in any scanning operation such as in optical or magnetic recording or picture scanning in television. Transform theory states that such scanning is equivalent to filtering the signal with a filter whose transmission is the transform of the scanning function (reversed in time). Conversely, the effect of an electrical filter is equivalent to a convolution of the input with a time function that is the transform of filter characteristic. This function, the so-called "memory curve" of the filter, is identical with the filter impulse response, aside from dimensions. (Note: the convolution of a time function with a unit impulse gives the same function times the dimensions of the impulse.)

Properties of Transforms

Time operation	Frequency operation	Significance
Multiplication $f(t)g(t)$	Convolution $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(s)g(\omega-s)ds$	The spectrum of the product of two time functions is the convolution of their spectra. This is the more general statement of the modulation property. For example, sampling a signal is equivalent to multiplying it by a regular train of unit area impulses. The spectrum of the sampled signal consists of the original signal spectrum repeated about each component of the (line) spectrum of the train of impulses (see pair 6S, page 24). For no overlap, the highest frequency in the signal to be sampled must be less than half the sampling frequency. If this is true, original signal spectrum (hence signal) can be recovered with a low pass filter (sampling theorem).
Differentiation $\frac{d^n f(t)}{dt^n}$	Multiplication by p $p^n F(p)$	The spectrum of the nth derivative of a function is $(i\omega)^n$ times the spectrum of the function. A "differentiating network" has (over the appropriate frequency range) a transmission $K \frac{p}{\omega_0}$ where K is dimensionless or has the dimensions of impedance or admittance. Thus, the output wave is proportional to the derivative of the input.
Integration $\underbrace{\int \int \int}_{n}^t f(\tau)(d\tau)^n$	Multiplication by $\frac{1}{p}$ $\frac{1}{p^n} F(p)$	The spectrum of the nth integral of a function is $(i\omega)^{-n}$ times the spectrum of the function. Thus, the response of any filter to a step function is the integral of its impulse response. An "integrating network" has (over the appropriate frequency range) a transmission $K \frac{\omega_0}{p}$, where K is dimensionless or has the dimensions of impedance or admittance. Thus, the output is proportional to the integral of the past of the input.

Appendix B. IF Amplifier Response and Distortion

IF amplifier response

Mention was made in the test of the phenomenon of decreased sensitivity and resolution that results when a CW signal is swept by the IF amplifier at a high rate compared to the bandwidth squared. Assuming a Gaussian response for the amplifier, the resulting transient can be determined as follows:

A sweep frequency signal as illustrated in Figure B-1 can be represented by

$$s(t) = \exp(j\pi \frac{F_s}{T_s} t^2) \quad (B-1)$$

using pair 10 of Appendix A

$$S(\omega) = \tau \sqrt{2\pi} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\tau\omega)^2\right]$$

where $\tau = \sqrt{\frac{jT_s}{2\pi F_s}}$ (B-2)

If we assume a Gaussian response,

$$H(\omega) = \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\omega}{\delta}\right)^2\right] \quad (B-3)$$

the product of $S(\omega)H(\omega)$ gives

$$Y(\omega) = S(\omega)H(\omega) = \tau \sqrt{2\pi} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\tau^2 + \frac{1}{\delta^2}\right)\omega^2\right] \quad (B-4)$$

The output transient is the inverse transform of this function, again using pair 10

$$y(t) = \frac{\tau}{\sqrt{\tau^2 + \frac{1}{\delta^2}}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\tau^2}{\tau^2 + \frac{1}{\delta^2}}\right)t^2\right] \quad (B-5)$$

Substituting back for τ and simplifying

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - j \frac{2\pi F_s}{T_s \delta^2}}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1 - j \frac{T_s \delta^2}{2\pi F_s}}{1 + \left(\frac{T_s \delta^2}{2\pi F_s}\right)^2} \delta^2 t^2\right] \quad (B-6)$$

The envelope of $y(t)$ is then

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt[4]{1 + \left(\frac{2\pi F_s}{T_s \delta^2}\right)^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\delta^2 t^2}{1 + \left(\frac{T_s \delta^2}{2\pi F_s}\right)^2}\right] \quad (B-7)$$

Note that for low sweep rates

$$\frac{T_s}{2\pi F_s} \gg \frac{1}{\delta^2}$$

$$y(t) = \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{2\pi F_s}{T_s \delta}\right)^2 t^2\right] \quad (B-8)$$

This, as was stated earlier, is a plot of the frequency response of the IF amplifier.

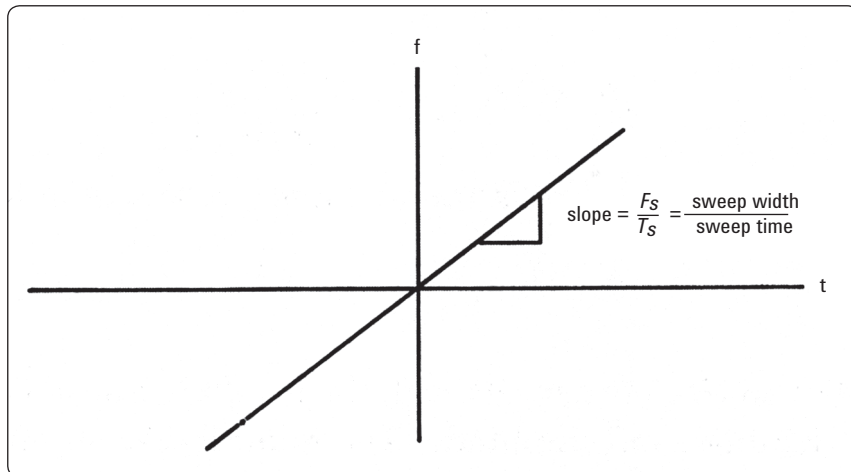


Figure B-1. A sweep frequency signal

Distortion

If the condition on (B-8) is not satisfied, the resulting transient will be altered in both width (time duration) and amplitude. The reduction in amplitude will be

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt[4]{1 + \left(\frac{2\pi F_s}{T_s \delta^2}\right)^2}} \quad (\text{B-9})$$

Noting that $\delta = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{\ln(2)}} B$ where B is the 3 dB bandwidth,

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt[4]{1 + \left(\frac{2\ln(2)}{\pi}\right)^2 \left(\frac{F_s}{T_s B^2}\right)^2}} \quad (\text{B-10})$$

A plot of this function in dB versus $-F_s/(T_s B^2)$ is included as Figure B-2.

If we solve for the 3 dB time duration Δt from equation (B-8) by setting α to $1/\sqrt{2}$ and solving for the appropriate Δt , we get

$$\Delta t = \frac{\sqrt{\ln(2)} \delta T_s}{\pi F_s} \quad (\text{B-11})$$

In a like manner, the 3 dB bandwidth of the function (B-7) is

$$\Delta t' = \frac{2\sqrt{\ln(2)}}{\delta \pi} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\delta T_s}{2\pi F_s}\right)^2} \quad (\text{B-12})$$

The ratio of these times is

$$\frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta t} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{2\pi F_s}{T_s \delta^2}\right)^2} \quad (\text{B-13})$$

This is the ratio of the effective resolving bandwidth of a spectrum analyzer to the bandwidth of the IF amplifier as a function of sweep rate. Rewritten in terms of 3 dB bandwidth B .

$$\frac{B_{eff}}{B} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{2\ln(2)}{\pi}\right)^2 \left(\frac{F_s}{T_s B^2}\right)^2} \quad (\text{B-14})$$

This function is plotted in Figure B-2.

- F_s = Sweep width
- T_s = Sweep time
- B = 3 dB IF bandwidth
- B_{eff} = Effective bandwidth

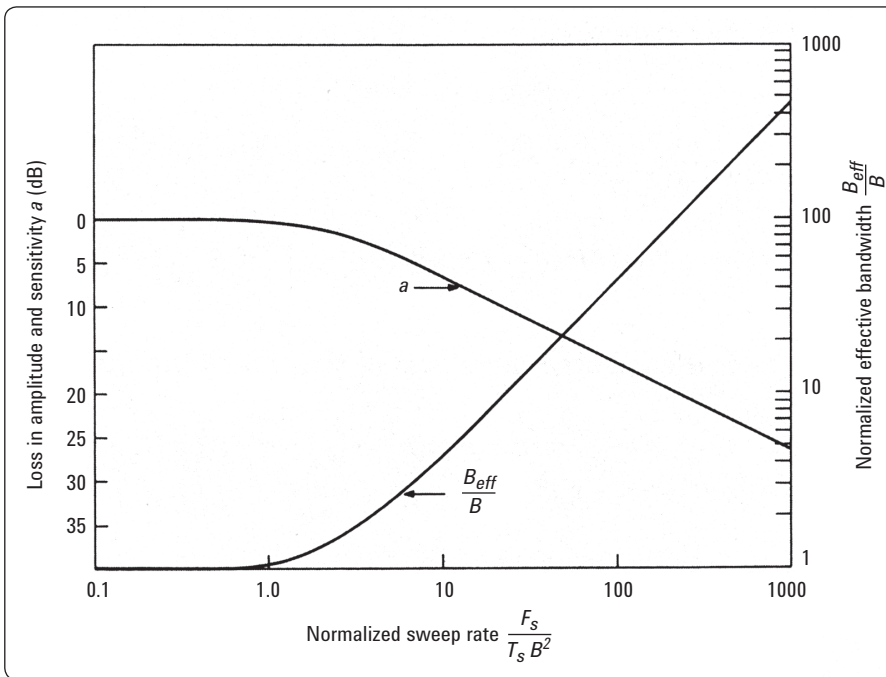


Figure B-2. Sensitivity loss and normalized effective bandwidth vs. normalized sweep rate



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