AN INVESTIGATION OF BROADBAND MINIATURE ANTENNAS

by

Andrew Durham Harris

and

Glen A. Myers

September 1968

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Andrew Durham Harris
Captain, United States Marine Corps

and

Glen A. Myers
Associate Professor of Electrical Engineering
Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, California

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This task was supported by Naval Ship Systems Command, Code 6050.
ABSTRACT:

This report considers the application of a negative impedance converter to a short monopole antenna. The theory of short antennas and an analysis of the negative impedance converter are presented. The frequency-response characteristics of the negative impedance converter are analyzed. The performance of each of various miniature antenna configurations is compared experimentally with that of a 16 foot untuned whip antenna. The nonlinear behavior of the negative impedance converter is explored experimentally. Also considered is the manner in which atmospheric noise level influences the design of antennas intended to operate in the frequency region below the VHF band.

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Chapter 1
INTRODUCTION

The electronics field is characterized by progressive miniaturization of equipment, with integrated circuits providing the present momentum for this trend. This feature of the electronics field has not generally been shared by the antenna field. Traditionally, antenna size has been dictated by the wavelength of the radiated carrier. Only in the past few years, with the advent of the space program, has there been any consistent dedicated interest in size reduction of antennas.

Recently, some work on "small integrated antennas" (SIA) has been reported [Ref. 1, 2]. In general, available engineering data on the SIA is sparse. Furthermore, the theory of their operation has not been well presented. As concerns the future development of miniature antennas, it is perhaps unfortunate at this time that general knowledge of their status stems from reports in magazines rather than from publications in professional journals.

This report considers "small" monopole receiving antennas. The theory of these small antennas and the experimental results obtained as a part of this study are presented.

A. Background Material

A radio antenna may be defined as the structure associated with the region of transition between a guided wave and a free-space wave, or vice versa [Ref. 3]. A short antenna is one whose maximum dimension is much greater than its other two and yet much less than a wavelength [Ref. 4]. In this report a miniature antenna is defined as a short antenna.
A basic problem of short antennas is their large value of capacitive reactance. To obtain maximum power transfer from the antenna to the load, the load impedance must be the complex conjugate of the antenna impedance $Z_a$ (see Fig. 1), or the antenna must be made to appear purely resistive by compensating for its capacitive reactance. The conventional approach involves the use of series inductance to resonate the antenna at a particular frequency.

This method is severely limited, however, by inductor ohmic losses and by the narrow bandwidth resulting from the inherent high Q of short antennas.

Alternate broadband impedance-matching techniques involve the use of active circuits [Ref. 5]. The methods are generally one of two types. The first type we call impedance-level matching. Using this approach a high-impedance short monopole is connected to a high-impedance device such as a field-effect transistor. A low-impedance small loop is connected to a low-impedance device such as
a common-base transistor amplifier. No effort is made to obtain an exact conjugate match. Some work on impedance-level matching has been reported [Ref. 6]. Impedance-level matching is not considered further in this report.

The second type of broadband impedance matching using active circuits is called negative-impedance matching in this report. This approach uses negative impedance converters (NIC) to approximate a complex conjugate impedance match at the antenna terminals. A NIC is a two-port network that converts an external impedance $Z$, connected to one port, into a negative impedance $-Z$ at the other port as shown in Fig. 2. The theory of NIC's is well established. Such devices have been used for years in repeaters on long telephone lines [Ref. 7-10]. The NIC is gaining acceptance as a standard tool in network synthesis [Ref. 11].

This report presents results obtained using a NIC with miniature antennas. Figure 3 is a photograph of one of the miniature antennas and the NIC breadboard circuit which were designed, built and tested as a

![Negative Impedance Converter Representation](image-url)
part of this study. The antenna in Fig. 3 is a 2 1/2 inch monopole with a 2 1/2 inch top hat. Data are included comparing miniature antenna performance with that of a whip antenna. Analyses of the short antenna and the NIC are also presented.

FIG. 3. MINIATURE ANTENNA AND NIC PHOTOGRAPHS.

3. Plan of the Report

Chapter 2 presents the important results obtained from this study. The manner in which atmospheric noise level influences design of low-frequency antennas is considered in Chapter 3. The theory of short monopole antennas and an analysis of the NIC are contained in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 details the experimental procedure used to compare the performance of a miniature antenna with a 16 foot whip antenna. Conclusions and recommendations are listed in Chapter 6. Appendix A develops the relations pertaining to the frequency response characteristics of a NIC. A list of references is provided.
This section compares the performance of the miniature antenna with that of a whip antenna. The results of a test to determine non-linearity of the NIC are also included.

A. Comparative Performance of Miniature Antennas

Signal levels obtained with a miniature antenna were compared with those obtained with a 16 foot untuned whip antenna by using the system of Fig. 4. Performance curves for a 2 1/2 inch monopole with a 2 1/2 inch diameter top hat and for a 10 inch monopole with a 10 inch diameter top hat are shown in Fig. 5. Table 1 shows the comparative gain of other combinations of monopole length and top hat size using the 2 1/2 inch monopole with the 2 1/2 inch top hat as a reference. Signal sources are signals of opportunity selected by using a Hallicrafters SX-130 communications receiver. A calibrated attenuator between the antenna providing the stronger signal and the receiver is used to provide accurate comparisons.
FIG. 5. GAIN VS FREQUENCY OF MINIATURE ANTENNA RELATIVE TO THAT OF A 16 FOOT UNTUNED WHIP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antenna Length (inches)</th>
<th>2½</th>
<th>2¼</th>
<th>2¼</th>
<th>2¼</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top Hat Diameter (inches)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2½</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2¼</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2½</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain relative To 2½&quot; Ant. With 2¼&quot; Hat</td>
<td>-7 dB</td>
<td>0 dB</td>
<td>+3 dB</td>
<td>+7 dB</td>
<td>+2 dB</td>
<td>+5 dB</td>
<td>+9 dB</td>
<td>+6 db</td>
<td>+9 db</td>
<td>+11 dB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 1. COMPARATIVE GAIN OF DIFFERENT MINIATURE ANTENNA CONFIGURATIONS.
Although no noise measurements are made, the noise level is somewhat higher with the miniature antenna than with the whip. This is expected since the NIC used with the miniature antenna provides a voltage gain of 2. Thus, the noise level due to atmospheric noise with the miniature antenna is at least 6 dB higher than with the whip. The NIC circuit generates some noise, although this noise should be insignificant compared to atmospheric noise in the region below 10 MHz. Additional noise considerations are contained in Chapter 3.

B. Dynamic Range Considerations

Very strong signals, in particular the signal from a local broadcast station, exceeds the linear signal handling capability of the NIC. The magnitude of the local broadcast station's received signal is about 1 volt peak-to-peak at the output of the NIC. Spectrum analysis of the circuit's output with two simultaneous sinusoidal signals applied yields the results shown in Fig. 6. As shown in Figs. 6a and 6b, a signal which provides a 1 volt peak-to-peak signal at the output of the NIC generates significant harmonic, sum, difference, and third-order mixing signals. Input signals which provide a peak-to-peak level of 0.1 volts at the output of the NIC yield reduced intermodulation signals as shown in Fig. 6c.

A detailed discussion of the experimental procedure used to generate the photographs shown here and additional discussion of these results of the dynamic range test appear in Chapter 5.
FIG. 6. PHOTOGRAphS OF THE NIC OUTPUT VOLTAGE SPECTRum WHEN THE INPUT CONSISTs OF TWO SIMULTANEOUS SINUSOIDAL SIGNALS. The input signal frequencies are 200 kHz and 230 kHz.
Chapter 3

NOISE EFFECTS

A brief discussion of atmospheric noise and its effect on receiving antenna systems in the frequency region below 10 MHz is presented in this chapter.

Atmospheric noise level is an important consideration in the design of receiving systems to operate in the frequency region below 30 MHz. Curves giving the average field intensity of atmospheric noise, cosmic noise, and man-made noise versus frequency are available which show the severe noise level in the frequency region below 10 MHz [Ref. 12]. In most cases system performance is limited by this ambient noise level rather than by antenna performance. No noise measurements were made in this study. This noise-level limitation is important, however, when specifying antenna performance.

In the frequency region below 10 MHz so little sensitivity is required to receive a signal that is above the atmospheric noise level that either impedance-level matching or negative-impedance matching are satisfactory as confirmed by Reference 6. In the higher frequency regions where increased sensitivity is desirable and where receivers are device-noise limited instead of natural-noise limited, the advantages of negative-impedance matching over impedance-level matching can be realized.

The results of Chapter 2 show that the performance of the miniature antenna relative to a whip deteriorates above 10 MHz. The background
noise in this frequency region is so high, however, that the miniature antenna may still be useful to 20 MHz or more.

One might suspect that, due to the broadband characteristic of the miniature antenna, system noise would be higher than with a narrowband antenna. It must be remembered, however, that in a receiving system, the amount of noise at the output of the system is typically determined by the bandwidth of the narrowband IF amplifier and not by the bandwidth of the antenna.
Chapter 4

ANALYSIS

The theory of short antennas and of voltage inversion negative impedance converters is presented in this chapter.

A. Short Antenna Theory

We define a short antenna as one whose maximum dimension is much greater than its other two and yet much less than a wavelength of the signal of interest. To analyze a short antenna consider its equivalent circuit shown in Fig. 7 [Ref. 4, pp. 294-295]. For the case of a receiving antenna, the quantity \( e \) represents the voltage induced in the antenna by the electromagnetic wave. The term \( Z_a \) is the antenna impedance.

![Short Antenna Equivalent Circuit](image)

**FIG. 7. SHORT ANTENNA EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT.**

1. **Antenna Impedance**

The antenna input impedance \( Z_a \) is composed of the input resistance \( R_a \) and the input reactance \( X_a \). The input resistance consists of the radiation resistance \( R_r \) associated with the radiated power and the loss resistance \( R_h \) associated with the power dissipated as heat.
For a vertical monopole whose length $L$ is much less than the wavelength $\lambda$ of an electromagnetic wave, we assume a linear current distribution with zero current at the top and a current maximum at the base. With such a linear current distribution, the radiation resistance is given as

$$R_r = 40\pi^2 \left(\frac{L}{\lambda}\right)^2 \text{ohms}$$

for a short antenna of length $L$ above a perfect ground [Ref. 4, p. 309].

The input reactance is capacitive for $L$ less than $\lambda/4$.

For $L$ much less than $\lambda$, an approximate equation for antenna capacitance $C_a$ is [Ref. 4, p. 303]

$$C_a = \frac{2\pi e_v L}{\ln(L/a) - 1} \quad \text{L} \ll \lambda$$

where $C_a = \frac{1}{\omega X_a}$

$L$ = height, meters
$a$ = antenna radius, meters
$e_v$ = absolute dielectric constant of free space = $1/(36\pi) \times 10^{-9}$ farad/meter

For example a monopole with a length $L$ of 2 1/2 inches and a radius $a$ of 1/8 inch has an antenna capacitance $C_a$ of 0.7 pf.

Capacitive top loading is a technique for increasing the effective height of a short vertical antenna. As the size of the capacitive umbrella increases, the effective height increases to a maximum because of the increase in height of the center of charge; the effective height then decreases because of the umbrella's shielding effect on the vertical element [Ref. 13].
The self-capacitance $C_t$ of the top loading structure is essentially added in parallel with the monopole capacitance $C_a$ to give the equivalent circuit of Fig. 8 for the case of a short antenna with top loading.

![Equivalent Circuit of a Short Antenna with Capacitive Top Loading](image)

**FIG. 8. EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT OF A SHORT ANTENNA WITH CAPACITIVE TOP LOADING.**

The top-loading capacitance $C_t$ is a linear function of the diameter of the geometric form for a disc, sphere, or cylinder, and is shown by the curves of Fig. 9 [Ref. 14]. The length and diameter of the cylinder are equal in Fig. 9. As an example, a 2 1/2 inch diameter disc top hat has a self-capacitance $C_t$ of 2.5 pf.

When a large amount of top loading is used, the antenna current is no longer linear but may be almost uniform; i.e., the antenna current at the antenna base equals the current at its top. This doubles the radiation resistance $R_a$ given by Eq. (1) if a uniform current distribution is assumed:

$$R_a = \frac{80\pi^2 (L/\lambda)^2}{2} \text{ ohms.}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)
The actual value of radiation resistance $R_r$ with top loading will be somewhere between that of Eq. (1) and that of Eq. (3).

![Graph showing capacitance vs diameter for Cylinder, Sphere, and Disk](image)

**FIG. 9. TOP-LOADING CAPACITANCE OF A CYLINDER, DISK, AND SPHERE VS THEIR DIAMETERS.**

2. **Impedance Matching**

The conventional method of matching the short antenna to a 50 ohm load, for example, is to place a series inductance at the antenna base, or possibly at the top of the antenna. The radiation resistance $R_r$ must then be matched through a transformer or other impedance matching network to the 50 ohms. The disadvantages of this method are ohmic losses in the inductor and the fact that the antenna presents a pure resistance at only one frequency.

Even if the inductor could be tuned for multiple frequency operation, $R_r$ is also frequency sensitive, and the matching network must also be tuned. Very little bandwidth is available about the fixed resonance frequency since the antenna reactance, even with top loading, is much larger than $R_r$ for very short antennas. Thus, the short monopole antenna has a very high Q and a subsequent narrow bandwidth.

The matching technique used in this study involves the use of negative capacitance to neutralize the antenna capacitive reactance.
over a wide frequency range, thus providing a broadband antenna.

The parallel equivalent circuit of Fig. 10, which is derived from that of Fig. 8, is used for this analysis. Since the antenna equivalent circuit is sharply resonant (high Q), the approximations of Fig. 10 are useful. The ohmic loss resistance $R_h$ of Fig. 8 is neglected in Fig. 10 because it is usually much smaller than the radiation resistance $R_r$.

![Parallel Equivalent Circuit of a Short Antenna with Capacitive Top Loading](image)

FIG. 10. PARALLEL EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT OF A SHORT ANTENNA WITH CAPACITIVE TOP LOADING.

Within the limits of the approximations of Fig. 10, a negative capacitance $-C_n$ when shunted across the antenna terminals T-T', reduces the circuit to a signal source and its associated resistance. The capacitive antenna reactance is canceled over a broad frequency range where the approximations apply and where the antenna appears to be short and hence is highly capacitive. The resistance matching problem is handled by an emitter-follower stage, following the negative-capacitance circuit, having an output impedance of 50 ohms.
B. Theory of Voltage Inversion Negative Impedance Converters

A negative impedance converter (NIC) is defined in Chapter 1. A voltage inversion NIC converts impedance (see Fig. 2) using a voltage generator as shown in Fig. 11 [Ref. 8]. A simple analysis of the circuit of Fig. 11 shows that the impedance seen at the input is the negative of the impedance connected to the output.

![Diagram of Voltage Inversion Negative Impedance Converter Equivalent Circuit](image)

To realize the model of Fig. 11, we use an amplifier having a voltage gain of 2, an infinite input impedance and a zero output impedance. The resulting circuit, shown in Fig. 12, reduces to Fig. 11 if $A_v$ equals 2. From Fig. 12,

$$e_1 = i_1 Z + A_v e_1$$

or

$$e_1 = i_1 Z + 2e_1 \text{ if } A_v = 2$$

from which

$$\frac{e_1}{i_1} = -Z.$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

An advantage of using this particular voltage inversion NIC is the availability of $2e_1$ for driving the receiver directly or preferably through an emitter follower isolation and matching stage.
Instability is a problem, of course, when working with negative impedances. For example in Fig. 12 if \( Z \) is a capacitance and the input is open, the circuit is unstable and will oscillate. A capacitor as large or larger than the negative capacitance must be connected across the input to prevent oscillation.

A realizable NIC cannot, of course, contain an amplifier with an infinite input impedance and zero output impedance and with no phase difference between input and output over an infinite frequency range. The finite input impedance places a low-frequency limit on the NIC's application, and the finite output impedance limits its high-frequency use. An additional high-frequency limitation, and the most severe limitation in this application, is the range over which the amplifier gain \( A_v \) equals 2 without appreciable phase difference between input and output. A detailed analysis of these limitations appears in Appendix A.

Another deviation from the ideal is the limited dynamic range of the amplifier (non-linear behavior with high-level input signals). This effect is considered further in Chapter 5.
C. Analysis of Circuit Used

The circuit used to match the short antenna to a receiver is shown in Fig. 13. The first stage is a field-effect transistor source follower to provide an input impedance of approximately one megohm. Two common-emitter stages Q₂ and Q₃ and an emitter-follower stage Q₄ are held to a total voltage gain of plus 2 by voltage feedback; i.e., \( A_v = \frac{R_5 + R_8}{R_4} \). The voltage feedback also reduces the output impedance to approximately three ohms, a value well below the output impedance of the emitter follower Q₄ without voltage feedback.

\( C_n \) provides the impedance \( Z \) in Fig. 12 and controls the amount of negative capacitance \(-C_n\) available at the input to the NIC. The emitter follower Q₅ is used primarily for isolation between the NIC.

![FIG. 13. VOLTAGE INVERSION NIC CIRCUIT DIAGRAM.](image-url)
and the receiver. This stage is not designed to present a particular output impedance to any given receiver.

The circuit of Fig. 13 can handle a 4.5 volt peak-to-peak signal level measured at the output. Larger signals saturate and cut off one or more of the stages. As noted in Chapter 2, significant nonlinear behavior is observed with one volt peak-to-peak signal level at the output.
Chapter 5
EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

Figure 14 shows the experimental arrangement used to compare the miniature antenna performance with that of a 16 foot untuned whip.

The base of the whip is approximately 2 feet off the ground, and the miniature antenna is approximately 6 feet above the ground. No ground planes are used.

To compare the two antennas at a particular frequency, a signal of opportunity is obtained with the receiver; the attenuator is then adjusted so the signal strength meter on the receiver gives the same reading using each antenna. If the 16 foot whip gives the stronger signal, the attenuator is used with the whip rather than as shown in Fig. 14.

The arrangement of Fig. 14 is also used to compare the different short antenna and top hat combinations. With each combination the NIC is adjusted to just cancel the antenna's capacitance; that is, the amount of negative capacitance is increased to a point just short of
oscillation. This adjustment also gives the best performance in each case, as expected. A signal of opportunity at 1010 kHz is used for this comparison test.

Initially, the above experiments were attempted at the Naval Postgraduate School. However, a 1 kilowatt broadcast station about two miles away made measurements impossible. The broadcast signal level is approximately one volt peak-to-peak at the NIC output, exceeding the small-signal linearity limit of the circuit. Harmonics and mixing signals generated in the NIC by the broadcast station's signal are troublesome even at frequencies above 10 MHz. To ensure the absence of very strong signals, a remote residence on the central California coast about 30 miles from the nearest broadcast station was used as a site for making measurements.

To confirm the nonlinear properties of the NIC when handling large signals, a two signal test was conducted using the arrangement shown in Fig. 15.

![Circuit Diagram](image_url)

**FIG. 15.** CIRCUIT USED TO DETERMINE THE NONLINEAR BEHAVIOR OF THE NIC.
The two antennas shown on the oscillators in Fig. 15 are each actually 2 foot lengths of wire very near the miniature antenna. The test oscillators are set to give equal one volt peak-to-peak signals at the NIC output for one test, unequal signals of one volt and 0.1 volt peak-to-peak for the second test, and equal 0.1 volt peak-to-peak signals for the last test. The results of these tests are shown as Fig. 6 in Chapter 2.
Chapter 6
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusions

Several conclusions may be drawn from this study. Some of the more important results are as follows:

1. In the medium-frequency and high-frequency bands, system performance is usually limited by the atmospheric noise level rather than antenna performance.

2. A voltage inversion negative impedance converter can be used to match a short monopole antenna over a broad frequency range in the medium-frequency region.

3. A 2 1/2 inch monopole with a 2 1/2 inch diameter top hat and a NIC for matching compares favorably with a 16 foot untuned whip as a medium-frequency receiving antenna.

4. A limitation of the NIC antenna is significant nonlinear distortion of large signals due to amplifier nonlinearity in the NIC.

5. Performance of the NIC antenna at high frequencies is limited by the maximum frequency at which the amplifier in the NIC can provide a voltage gain of 2 with negligible phase shift.

B. Recommendations

This study indicates some areas where further investigation is warranted.

1. The high-frequency performance of the NIC could possibly be extended by judicious selection of transistors and additional engineering effort to minimize the phase shift of the NIC amplifier at higher frequencies.
2. The current inversion negative impedance converter (rather than the voltage inversion NIC) could possibly be applied to miniature antennas, with improved high-frequency performance resulting.

3. The application of negative impedance converters to miniature transmitting antennas is worthy of consideration.

4. Sensitivity of the miniature antenna NIC configuration should be measured.
LIST OF REFERENCES


Appendix A

ANALYSIS OF FREQUENCY LIMITATIONS
OF THE VOLTAGE INVERSION NIC

This Appendix analyzes the frequency response of a voltage inversion NIC having finite input impedance, nonzero output impedance, and a nonzero amplifier phase vs frequency characteristic. To simplify the analysis problem, with a slight sacrifice in accuracy, each deviation from the ideal amplifier with a voltage gain of 2 is considered separately.

First, consider a finite input impedance as shown in Fig. A-1.

From Fig. A-1,
\[ e_1 = i_z Z + 2e_1 \]  
\[ e_1 = (i_1 - i_z)Z_{in} \]

or
\[ i_z = i_1 - \frac{e_1}{Z_{in}} \]  

32
Substituting Eq. (7) into Eq. (6) yields

\[ e_1 = i_1 z - \frac{e_1 z}{Z_{in}} + 2e_1 \]

which after rearranging gives

\[ -e_1 \left[ 1 - \frac{Z}{Z_{in}} \right] = i_1 z. \]

The desired negative impedance is

\[ e_1 i_1 = -z \left[ \frac{1}{1 - \frac{Z}{Z_{in}}} \right]. \quad (8) \]

For the case of \( Z \) a capacitive reactance and \( Z_{in} \) a pure resistance, Eq. (8) becomes

\[ \frac{e_1}{i_1} = - \frac{1}{j\omega C} \left[ \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{j\omega CR_{in}}} \right] = \frac{1}{R_{in} - j\omega C} = -\frac{1}{j\omega C} = -z, \quad R_{in} \gg \frac{1}{\omega C} \quad (9) \]

Thus, a finite value of NIC input resistance \( R_{in} \) affects the low-frequency performance of the NIC to the extent shown in Eq. (9).

Now consider the effect of a finite output impedance as shown in Fig. A-2.

FIG. A-2. EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT OF VOLTAGE INVERSION NIC WITH FINITE OUTPUT IMPEDANCE.
\[ e_1 = i_1 (Z + Z_{\text{out}}) + 2e_1. \]

Then,
\[ \frac{e_1}{i_1} = Z \left[ 1 + \frac{Z_{\text{out}}}{Z} \right]. \]  

Eq. (10) becomes
\[ \frac{e_1}{i_1} = -\frac{1}{j\omega C} (1 + j\omega CR_{\text{out}}) = -\frac{1}{j\omega C} = -Z \text{ when } R_{\text{out}} \ll \frac{1}{\omega C} \]  

Thus, a finite value of NIC output resistance \( R_{\text{out}} \) affects the high-frequency performance of the NIC to the extent shown in Eq. (11).

Consider next the effect of a practical amplifier whose performance deteriorates with increasing frequency. For simplicity, assume the amplifier gain as a function of frequency is
\[ A_v = A \left[ \frac{1}{1 + j\frac{f}{f_c}} \right] \]  

where \( f_c \) is the -3db voltage cutoff frequency. Then, substitution of Eq. (12) into Eq. (4) and setting \( A \) equal to 2 gives
\[ e_1 = i_1 Z + 2 \left[ \frac{1}{1 + j\frac{f}{f_c}} \right] e_1. \]  

From Eq. (13)
\[
\frac{e_1}{i_1} = Z \left[ \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{f}{f_c}}} \right] = -Z \left[ 1 + \frac{\frac{f}{f_c}}{1 - \frac{f}{f_c}} \right]
\]

or

\[
\frac{e_1}{i_1} = -Z \left[ 1 + j \frac{f}{f_c} \right]
\]

for small values of \( \frac{f}{f_c} \). (14)

Thus, a small phase shift in the amplifier is increased when it appears in the formula for negative impedance.

There are, therefore, two reasons why NIC performance deteriorates with increasing frequency: the finite value of NIC output resistance and phase shift between NIC input and output with increasing frequency. When only a small negative capacitance is required, and when the NIC output resistance is small, the NIC phase shift is the primary cause of degraded performance as frequency increases. The phase shift creates a complex impedance rather than a true negative capacitance as seen by the antenna. Consequently, a standing wave is developed, and power transfer from the antenna to the NIC and the receiver is reduced.
An Investigation of Broadband Miniature Antennas

September 1958

Technical Report - September 1968

Andrew D. Harris
Glen A. Myers

Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, California 93940

Abstract

This report considers the application of a negative impedance converter to a short monopole antenna. The theory of short antennas and an analysis of the negative impedance converter are presented. The frequency-response characteristics of the negative impedance converter are analyzed. The performance of each of various miniature antenna configurations is compared experimentally with that of a 16 foot untuned whip antenna. The nonlinear behavior of the negative impedance converter is explored experimentally. Also considered is the manner in which atmospheric noise level influences the design of antennas intended to operate in the frequency region below the VHF band.
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