Measurement Techniques for Characterization of Power Amplifiers

DAVID WISELL

Doctoral Thesis in Telecommunications
Stockholm, Sweden 2007
Akademisk avhandling som med tillstånd av Kungliga Tekniska högskolan
framlägges till offentlig granskning för avläggande av teknologie doktorsexamen i
telekommunikation fredagen den 14 december klockan 13:00 i sal 99:133 på
Högskolan i Gävle, Kungsbäcksvägen 47, Gävle.

Tryckt av Universitetsservice US AB
Abstract

In this thesis a sampling time domain measurement system primarily intended for measurements on radio frequency power amplifiers is discussed. The need for such a measurement system is established. Impairments due to non-ideal measurement instruments are discussed as well as methods to compensate for these impairments. Techniques to improve upon the raw measurement performance of the measurement instruments with regard to bandwidth, dynamic range, linear and nonlinear distortion are discussed.

A method to simultaneously find the phase and amplitude ripple of a vector signal generator and a vector signal analyzer is presented. The method is verified with extensive measurements.

Two techniques, frequency stitching and Zhu’s generalized sampling theorem, to extend the effective measurement bandwidth of the measurement system is discussed and evaluated with measurements. They are both found to be able to extend the effective bandwidth for measurements of output signals of nonlinear power amplifiers with more than five times.

The measurement system is used for sampled input – output measurements of power amplifiers and the obtained data are fitted to different behavioral power amplifier models including memory. Some different behavioral models are evaluated and compared for different kinds of power amplifiers. A neural network model and extensions to the well-known parallel Hammerstein model are specifically discussed. The parallel Hammerstein model are also used together with frequency stitching and Zhu’s generalized sampling theorem.

A general hardware and software structure of a versatile measurement system based on virtual instruments for measurements on power amplifiers is discussed in some detail. Special attention is given to the software architecture and to the concepts of hardware and software reusability.

An automated, fast, accurate and production-friendly method for two-tone power and frequency sweep measurements, including measurement of the phase of the intermodulation products in addition to the amplitude, is also presented.
Acknowledgment

First I want to thank Ericsson AB and especially Mr. Hans Lindblad and Dr. Peter Olanders for their substantial financial support of this work. Numerous present and former managers at Ericsson AB have supported the work over the years, most notably among them, Mr. Rolf Jönsson, Dr. Niclas Keskitalo, Mr. Peder Malmlöf, Mr. Per Lind, Mr. Lars-Ola Klockervold, Mr. Terje Strand, Mr. Martin Råberger and Dr. Ulf Forsén, they are all acknowledged. Dr. Niclas Keskitalo is especially acknowledged for creating and steering the project and for being my de facto supervisor for much of the work.

For the academic and scientific supervision I want to express my gratitude to Professor Peter Händel at the Royal Institute of Technology, Stockholm, who has been my scientific supervisor for the latter part of the work and to Professor Anders Ahlén, Uppsala University, who was the scientific supervisor for the first part of the work. For supervision in different stages of the work I want to thank Dr. Tommy Öberg and Dr. Daniel Rönnow. For excellent scientific cooperation and good company during numerous coffee breaks over many years I want to thank Dr. Magnus Isaksson. I do also sincerely want to acknowledge all the other people at the Electronics department at the University of Gävle.

The University of Gävle and Dr. Edvard Nordlander and Dr. Niclas Björsell is also much acknowledged for providing financial support. The work was also supported by the Knowledge Foundation in cooperation with, in addition to Ericsson AB and the University of Gävle, Racomna AB, Note AB, Syntronic AB, Rohde & Schwarz GmbH, Freescale Semiconductor and Infineon Technologies, to which I am all grateful. The generous contribution of Rohde & Schwarz GmbH is especially acknowledged.

Mr. Olav Andersen, Mr. Peder Malmlöf, Mr. Anders Svensson, Mr. Richard Berg, Mr. Anders Hansebacke and Mr. Patrik Stenvard are much acknowledged for fruitful discussions on the topic of the thesis and for their support in general. They are all with Ericsson AB. Mr. Peder Malmlöf is especially acknowledged for initiating the work. Mr. Olav Andersen is especially acknowledged for sharing his unrivalled, truly in-depth knowledge, of RF measurement techniques with me. I am also grateful for the fruitful discussions I have had with numerous other colleagues at Ericsson over the years and for the support they have given.

Last and most I want to thank my family, parents and siblings, especially my wife Nina, whose tolerance, patience and support have made the concluding of this work possible. Finally I want to thank my three sons, Johan, Adam and Peter, and my daughter Maria, for bringing happiness to my life.

David Wisell
Söderfors, October 2007
### Contents

1 INTRODUCTION .................................................................................................................9  
   1.1 BACKGROUND ...........................................................................................................9  
   1.2 CONTRIBUTIONS ......................................................................................................10  
   1.3 OTHER PUBLICATIONS ..........................................................................................11  
   1.4 ABBREVIATIONS ....................................................................................................13  
   1.5 NOTATIONS ............................................................................................................14  

2 TRADITIONAL TECHNIQUES FOR CHARACTERIZATION OF POWER AMPLIFIERS ..........................................................17  

3 CHARACTERIZATION OF POWER AMPLIFIERS USING WIDEBAND DIGITALLY MODULATED SIGNALS .................................................................21  

4 THE MEASUREMENT SYSTEM ...........................................................................25  
   4.1 MEASUREMENT SIGNALS .......................................................................................25  
   4.2 THE IMPLEMENTED MEASUREMENT SYSTEM ......................................................26  
   4.3 SOFTWARE AND HARDWARE ARCHITECTURE ...................................................27  
   4.4 EXPERIMENTAL ....................................................................................................29  

5 METHODS FOR ENHANCED MEASUREMENT PERFORMANCE ..................31  
   5.1 EXTENSION OF THE DYNAMIC RANGE ................................................................33  
   5.2 EXTENSION OF THE MEASUREMENT BANDWIDTH ..............................................35  
   5.3 CORRECTION OF LINEAR DISTORTION ..................................................................38  

6 COMPLEX ENVELOPE BEHAVIORAL PA MODELING ........................................41  
   6.1 INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................................41  
   6.2 GOODNESS CRITERIA FOR EVALUATION OF PA MODELS ....................................42  
   6.3 SOME COMPLEX ENVELOPE BEHAVIORAL PA MODELS .....................................43  

7 SUMMARY OF APPENDED PAPERS ...................................................................47  
   7.1 PAPER A .................................................................................................................47  
   7.2 PAPER B .................................................................................................................47  
   7.3 PAPER C .................................................................................................................48  
   7.4 PAPER D .................................................................................................................48  
   7.5 PAPER E .................................................................................................................49  
   7.6 PAPER F .................................................................................................................49
1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Measurement technology for radio frequencies (RFs) has undergone, and is still undergoing, a rapid technology shift from analog to digital techniques, similar to what has previously happened to wireless communication technology.

The shift from analog to digital has had profound consequences for the design, modeling and characterization of critical radio components such as the power amplifier (PA), a key component of radio basestations (RBSs) [1]. The PA must now be designed to possibly handle digital modulated signals with bandwidths of tenths of MHz and a fast changing envelope with a considerable peak-to-average power ratio (PAPR). Such signals are a far distance from narrow-banded constant envelope signals of earlier systems such as GSM. There is also a trend toward higher and higher efficiency requirements on the PA. This has led to a plethora of techniques that tries to meet these requirements [2], [3]. A natural consequence is the increased need for measurement methods and techniques tailored to meet the requirements for these applications. The measurement technology becomes a key enabler both for design, verification or production testing of these PAs. Typically sampled measurement systems are used, i.e. the output signal, and sometimes also the input signal, of the PA are downconverted and sampled [4], [5] and [6]. The sought information, for design, verification or production testing purposes, is then extracted using digital signal processing (DSP).

Further, more and different information about the PAs are often needed when they are integrated with DSP algorithms, e.g. digital predistortion (DPD), in order to increase their performance with regard to linearity and efficiency. This is probably also true for most of the emerging PA technologies.

Measurement methods based on downconversion and sampling of the RF signals, as well as behavioral or black-box modeling of the PA, often focus on the first spectral zone around the RF carrier. This is also the focus of the measurement methods and techniques developed in this thesis.

The measurement requirements for PA characterization can often not be fully met using commercial off-the-shelf (COTS) instrumentation. Instead different techniques to increase the raw instrument performance have to be applied. The most critical parameters are often the bandwidth and dynamic range of the measurement system.

The main focus of this thesis is the development of methods to increase the performance of a measurement system for measurements of radio components beyond the raw performance of the measurement instruments. Most of the techniques that have been developed in this thesis have originally had PA measurements in mind, but are equally useful for measurements on other
components or entire transmitters as well. This is important since the PA technology is developing towards integrated solutions with digital input and RF output signals [1] and the term transmitter, rather than PA, architecture, may be more appropriate [2].

Finally some PA models are developed and discussed based on the measurements taken using the developed measurement system.

This thesis is basically built on the publications listed in Ch. 1.2 which are appended. The remaining publications produced during the course of the work are listed in Ch. 1.3.

The outline is as follows. In Ch. 2 traditional techniques for nonlinear characterization of PAs are briefly treated. A motivation to complement the techniques in Ch. 2 with methods aimed at wideband digitally modulated signals is given in Ch. 3. A measurement system for measurements on such signals is introduced in Ch. 4. In Ch. 5 the performance of this measurement system is enhanced through various techniques built on DSP. In Ch. 6 the measurement system is put to work for the purpose of PA model identification and development. In Ch. 7 a short summary of the papers in Ch. 1.2 is given.

## 1.2 Contributions

This thesis builds on the work presented in the following publications. The publications considered most significant for this thesis are labeled [Paper A-L] and appended in the end of the thesis. They are introduced and referenced as [Paper A-L] throughout the text, while some of the others are listed in Ch. 1.3 and referenced in the reference list. The contribution to each paper, [Paper A]-[Paper L], is stated in Ch. 7.


**[Paper D]** D. Wisell, B. Rudlund, and D. Rönnow, "Characterization of Memory Effects in RF Power Amplifiers Using Digital Two-Tone


1.3 Other Publications

These publications have also been produced during the course of the work but are not appended to the thesis, but some are referenced in the text.


D. Wisell and T. Öberg, "Analysis and Identification of Transmitter Non-

1.4 Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACEPR</td>
<td>Adjacent Channel Error Power Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACLR</td>
<td>Adjacent Channel Leakage Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADC</td>
<td>Analog-to-Digital Converter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AM/AM</td>
<td>Amplitude Dependent Amplitude Distortion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AM/PM</td>
<td>Amplitude Dependent Phase Distortion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIC</td>
<td>Application Specific Integrated Circuit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COTS</td>
<td>Commercial off-the-shelf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CW</td>
<td>Continues Wave, i.e. sinusoidal signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC</td>
<td>Digital-to-Analog Converter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPA</td>
<td>Driver Power Amplifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPD</td>
<td>Digital Predistortion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSO</td>
<td>Digital Sampling Oscilloscope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>Digital Signal Processing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DUT</td>
<td>Device Under Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EER</td>
<td>Envelope Elimination and Restoration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ET</td>
<td>Envelope Tracking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FPGA</td>
<td>Field Programmable Gate Array</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IF</td>
<td>Intermediate Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>Intermodulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM3</td>
<td>Third-Order Intermodulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP3</td>
<td>Third-Order Intercept Point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDMOS</td>
<td>Laterally Diffused Metal Oxide Semiconductor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LO</td>
<td>Local Oscillator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPF</td>
<td>Low Pass Filter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LSNA  Large Signal Network Analyzer
MER   Memory Effect Ratio
NMSE  Normalized Mean-Square Error
NVNA  Nonlinear Vector Network Analyzer
OFDM  Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing
PA    Power Amplifier
PAPR  Peak-to-Average Power Ratio
RBS   Radio Basestation
RBW   Resolution Bandwidth Filter
RF    Radio Frequency
SDM   Software Driven Measurements
SI    Synthetic Instrument
TDFT  Time-Discrete Fourier Transform
VI    Virtual Instrument
VSA   Vector Signal Analyzer
VSG   Vector Signal Generator
WCDMA Wideband Code Division Multiple Access
ZGST  Zhu's Generalized Sampling Theorem

1.5 Notations

These notations are used throughout this thesis. Other notations are used in the papers in the Appendix.

\[ a(t),\ a(n) \]  Amplitude modulation
\[ \epsilon \]  Model error
\[ \epsilon(t) \]  Error signal
\[ \epsilon(n) \]  Error signal
\[ E( f ) \]  TDFT of \( \epsilon(n) \)
\[ H(q^{-1}) \quad \text{Discrete-time linear filter} \]

\[ I(n) \quad \text{In-phase signal} \]

\[ j \quad \sqrt{-1} \]

\[ K(\cdot) \quad \text{General nonlinear function with memory} \]

\[ M \quad \text{Constant that sets the number of filter coefficients} \]

\[ n \quad \text{Discrete time} \]

\[ \omega_c \quad \text{Angular carrier RF} \]

\[ \varphi(t), \varphi(n) \quad \text{Phase modulation} \]

\[ p(n) \quad \text{Power envelope} \]

\[ P \quad \text{Constant that sets the nonlinear order} \]

\[ Q(n) \quad \text{Quadrature-phase signal} \]

\[ s(t) \quad \text{Modulated RF signal} \]

\[ \hat{s}(t) \quad \text{Hilbert transform of } s(t) \]

\[ t \quad \text{Continues time} \]

\[ u(n) \quad \text{Input signal to the PA on complex envelope form} \]

\[ U(f) \quad \text{TDFT of } u(n) \]

\[ y(n) \quad \text{Output signal from the PA on complex envelope form} \]

\[ y_{\text{meas}}(n) \quad \text{Measured output signal from the PA on complex envelope form} \]

\[ y_{\text{sim}}(n) \quad \text{Output signal from the PA model on complex envelope form} \]

\[ y'(n) \quad \text{The } y(n) \text{ time-aligned to } u(n) \]

\[ Y_{\text{meas}}(f) \quad \text{TDFT of } y_{\text{meas}}(n) \]

\[ Y_{\text{sim}}(f) \quad \text{TDFT of } y_{\text{sim}}(n) \]
Power amplifiers have traditionally been characterized with respect to linearity using power swept continues wave (CW) signals to find the AM/AM and AM/PM distortion and the 1 dB compression point, or simple two-tone measurements to find the third-order intercept point (IP3). The AM/AM distortion is the amplitude distortion as a function of the amplitude of an input CW signal and AM/PM is the phase distortion as a function of the same amplitude. Typical AM/AM and AM/PM traces are shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, respectively. The measurement is taken at one frequency at a time and there is a strict one-to-one relationship between the input power and the AM/AM and AM/PM.

Fig. 1. AM/AM distortion. The output power as a function of the input power. Measured with a power swept CW signal at a certain frequency using a vector network analyzer.
The 1 dB compression point is the power level at which the gain is one dB lower than the small signal gain. The third-order intercept point is illustrated in Fig. 3. It is the point at which the third-order intermodulation products (IM3) in a two-tone test equals the fundamental. This point is obtained by extrapolating measurements of the IM3 and the fundamentals done at lower input power levels. The fundamental has a 1:1 slope and the IM3 has a 1:3 slope, i.e. if the input power is increased 1 dB the IM3 increase 3 dB. The IP3 can be related to either the input or output power level. For amplifiers it is normally referenced to the output power level.

While these measurements are still valid and important, they fail in some respects to give information about the amplifier that is needed when implementing several of the linearization and efficiency enhancement techniques that are now widely used see e.g. [1] and [3]. Neither do the traditional measurements give enough information to design highly accurate models of the PAs, as described below.
Fig. 3. Third-order intercept point. The IP3 is the point at which the amplitude of the two fundamentals and the IM3 would be equal if the two fundamentals increase with a 1:1 slope and the IM3 increases with a 1:3 slope as functions of the input power until they meet.

As already mentioned, power swept CW measurements have traditionally been used for nonlinear characterization of PAs. It is now well-known that such measurements will not reveal the actual behavior of the amplifier when subject to a digitally modulated signal having a large PAPR, a fast changing envelope and a bandwidth of several MHz. This was noted by Bösch in 1989 [7]. In [8] a two-tone measurement with different tone separation and recording of the AM/AM and AM/PM distortion was done. The results in both [7] and [8] indicated that the traditional nonlinear narrow band measurements were not capable of predicting the behavior of PAs when subjected to advanced digitally modulated signals.

One method that was proposed to circumvent the limitations of the two-tone test for nonlinear characterization of PAs was two-tone sweeps in frequency and amplitude. Some examples of this are [3], [9], [10], [11], [12] and [13]. The two-tone sweep in frequency is an extension of the two-tone sweep in power that has been used for years. By sweeping in both frequency and power, a matrix of the intermodulation level for both the upper and lower IM3 are obtained. From this matrix the properties of the amplifier are then derived. Typical such plots are given in e.g. [14], [15] and [16]. Normally only the amplitude of the third, and sometimes fifth, order intermodulation is recorded. When the phase is measured complicated measurement set-ups have been used. Results in the order of a measurement
time in hours [13] and a measurement accuracy of a few tenths of a dB and a few
degrees are reported from these. See [12] for a comparison on the accuracy that is
obtained for different techniques to measure the IM products of two-tone
measurements.

In [Paper D] an alternative method to the ones discussed above for measurements
of the amplitude and phase of the IM products generated in two-tone testing was
discussed. This method makes use of DSP in order to accelerate the measurement
speed considerably. The advantages of the proposed technique are, in addition to
the measurement speed, the high accuracy, that it will take advantage of new
improvements in ADC and DAC technology and that it can be implemented on the
same hardware (HW) as the measurement system presented in Ch. 4 and thus
integrated into that measurement system.

A technique that is somewhat related to the one explained in [Paper D] but
makes use of three, rather than two, tones, in order to find the third-order Volterra
Kernels [17] was developed in [Paper C]. Measurement of Volterra kernels have
previously been presented in e.g. [18]. The rationale for the three-tone
measurements over the two-tone is that it allows complete determination of the
third-order Volterra kernel.

Even if numerous attempts, see e.g. [19], [20], [21] and [22] have been made to
correlate two-tone measurements to modulation quality parameters, e.g. adjacent
channel leakage ratio (ACLR) [23], many applications such as PA modeling and
DPD of PAs benefit from the use of more application-like signals, i.e. multitone or
modulated signals, in practice. Such techniques are discussed in Ch. 3.
3 Characterization of Power Amplifiers Using Wideband Digitally Modulated Signals

With the introduction of digitally modulated signals with a wider bandwidth and a fast changing envelope, e.g. WCDMA, the requirements on the PA changed. Specifically, the concept of “memory effects” in the PA become of large interest. The origins of such phenomena in the PAs are beyond the scope of this thesis but are explained in [24]. Early PAs for digitally modulated wideband signals did often use the feedforward technology [25] for linearization, partly because it, as a technology, is resistant to the “memory effects”. One drawback with the feedforward technology was however the high complexity (read costs), which called for other solutions. This lead to the development of the DPD technique which either requires a “memory less” PA or an advanced DPD that incorporates compensation for the “memory effects”. The first solution being a PA design problem and the second being a system identification and compensation problem. The basic concept of DPD is straightforward enough. It is simply to create in inverse model of the PA which is then implemented using signal processing and applied to the signal before it is sent to the PA. Somewhat more detailed descriptions can be found in [1], [2] and [3].

Early measurement systems for characterization of these “memory effects”, or nonlinear frequency dependence, were, as mentioned above, based on two-tone sweeps and the like. Sampled systems started to appear in the mid nineties [8] and have become the method of choice for most industry and academic researchers for these kind of measurements, see e.g. [4], [5] and [8]. These measurement systems closely resembles the transmitter architecture in DPD based transmitters [1], [26] and thus may have some applicability also in such applications. The development, calibration and optimization of a measurement system of this kind are the main focus of this thesis and are treated in Ch. 5 (improvement of the performance of this measurement system).

In work previously presented in [6] measurements were taken using a CW and two eight-tone signals with bandwidths of 100 kHz and 1 MHz respectively, see Fig. 4. It is clear that the CW measurement is not valid for the eight-tone signals. When subjected to an eight-tone signal this amplifier will start to show distortion at significantly lower input power levels than what is indicated by the CW measurement. This result clearly attracted some interest at the time since the results in [6] have been used by some instrument manufacturers when advertising commercial software for this kind of measurements, see [27] (Agilent) and [28] (Rohde & Schwarz).
The PA technology for cellular RBSs is currently undergoing a rapid development, mainly aimed to increase the efficiency of the PA [1]. Numerous different technologies such as Doherty, Chireix, envelope elimination and restoration (EER), envelope tracking (ET), class-D, E, F, etc PAs and/or combinations of these compete [2]. It is far beyond the scope of this thesis to even briefly touch upon any of these techniques but their introduction will not fundamentally change the need for RF measurement technology? But rather increase it? One difference, however, will be that there will be no measurable RF input signal in the traditional sense for several of these PA techniques of the future.

The measurement technology for PAs will have to evolve with the technology which it is aimed for. Some ideas of what the future might bring for RF measurement systems are treated in Ch. 4.3.

Other techniques than the one discussed in this thesis for characterization of PAs under large signal excitation have been proposed for, loosely speaking, the same purpose. The most known are probably the large signal network analyzer (LSNA), [29], [30], [31], which also goes under numerous other names, e.g. nonlinear vector network analyzer (NVNA).

The LSNA makes use of a technique based on multitones that are applied to a PA driven into its nonlinear regime using one large CW signal. This technique is very...
different from the PA characterization techniques developed and discussed in this thesis and a comparison of the extracted models using the different techniques in practical applications would be most interesting.
4 The Measurement System

This Chapter gives an overview of the measurement system for characterization of PAs that have been developed. A schematic view of the system is shown in Fig. 5. It shall however be remembered that most of what is said here is also true for measurements on other RF components and on entire transmitters.

Similar systems have been proposed elsewhere see e.g., [4], [5], [6] and [8]. With regard to hardware, these differ primarily in how they obtain the input signal of the PA, see below. An alternative, but still somewhat similar, technique treated in e.g. [3], would be to sample the RF input and output signals using a digital sampling oscilloscope (DSO).

The different trade-offs that have to be done when designing measurement systems of the kind in Fig. 5 are discussed in [Paper G] and [32]. Hardware limitations and impairments in the measurement system, as well as techniques to overcome them, are treated in Ch. 5.

A more general discussion on hardware and software architecture for measurements system of this kind is also included [Paper L].

4.1 Measurement Signals

The measurement signals that have been used throughout this work can be written as (neglecting noise)

\[ s(t) = a(t) \cos(\omega_c t + \phi(t)) + e(t) , \]  

where \( s(t) \) is the RF measurement signal, \( a(t) \) and \( \phi(t) \) the amplitude and phase modulation, respectively, \( \omega_c \) is the angular frequency of the RF carrier and \( e(t) \) is all signal content that does not fall in the first spectral zone around \( \omega_c \), e.g. harmonics generated by a nonlinear PA.

For the purposes of RF measurement technology development and behavioral PA modeling, the signals can be expressed on complex envelope form. The complex envelope \( \tilde{s}(n) \) of (1) in the first spectral zone, i.e. excluding \( e(t) \) by bandpass filtering around \( \omega_c \), after sampling, is

\[ \tilde{s}(n) = a(n)e^{j\omega_c(n)} = I(n) + jQ(n) , \]  

where \( I(n) \) and \( Q(n) \) are the in-phase and quadrature-phase signals respectively, \( j = \sqrt{-1} \) and \( n \) is discrete time.

This is the form that will be used in most of the sequel to express the measurement signals.
4.2 The Implemented Measurement System

The measurement system essentially consists of a vector signal generator (VSG) and a vector signal analyzer (VSA), see Fig. 5. The test signal is generated in the PC and downloaded to the VSG that produces the desired modulated signal at the desired RF. This signal might be further amplified using a driver power amplifier (DPA). The output signal of the PA is measured and compared to a reference (input) signal. The reference signal has been chosen somewhat differently by different authors in similar previously published measurement set-ups. In [6] and [8] only the output of the amplifier was measured and the internal digital signal in the VSG was used as reference. In [4], the input and output signals were measured using a VSA with two receivers. In most measurements presented in this thesis the input and output signals have been measured using one receiver, i.e. one VSA. This has the benefit that linear distortion in the VSA cancels, to some degree, between the measurements of the input and output signals, respectively, as described in Ch. 5.3. A requirement for using only one VSA is obviously that a repetitive test signal is used.

The VSA down-converts and samples the signals and returns them to the PC on complex envelope form. Finally the down-converted and sampled input \( u(n) \) and output \( y(n) \) signals of the PA are time-aligned. The time-alignment is a two-step procedure that involves both time- and frequency domain techniques as first indicated in [Paper G] and further described in [Paper B] and [Paper E]. Here \( u(n) \) is used as reference for the time-alignment. The time-aligned version of \( y(n) \) is denoted \( y'(n) \). An investigation of the properties of the abovementioned time-alignment procedure can be found in [33].

The instruments used for the measurements in this thesis are as VSG, the SMU 200A [34], and as VSA, the FSQ [35]. They are both from Rohde & Schwarz GmbH and shall be considered state-of-the-art in their respective field.
4.3 Software and Hardware Architecture

One important aspect of a measurement system such as the one in Fig. 5 is the software architecture used in the PC. It is most desirable that the instruments can be easily replaced depending on the hardware requirements for the application at hand, the availability of new instrumentation and so on. The idea is that the measurement functionality resides in the PC and that this measurement functionality is encapsulated in such a way that it is not dependent on the actual VSG or VSA that are present in the specific measurement set-up. This concept is also called SDM - software driven measurements. One attempt to design such a software architecture was proposed in [Paper L]. It is based on a layered architecture where the measurement functionality, or virtual instruments (VIs) (sometimes also called “synthetic instruments” (SIs)), resides in software components that communicates with the physical hardware through intermediary software layers.

A similar approach for the limited case of the LSNA that was introduced in Ch. 3 was taken in [36].
The current VI/SI trend goes toward a generic hardware/software platform as is further discussed in [37]. A typical example of a general VI/SI measurement system is shown in Fig. 6. It has been taken from [37] and is similar to the hardware architecture promoted by the Interchangeable VI foundation [38]. The concept is also further developed by measurement instrumentation vendors, e.g. [39].

The system is controlled by the PC and can generate a flexible number of RF output signals, a flexible number of analog baseband output signals and a flexible number of digital output signals. These are applied to the device under test (DUT) through a switch matrix. Similarly, on the receiver side the outputs of the DUT are sent to the appropriate receiver chain. Data handling and signal processing may be done using ASICs, FPGAs or DSPs. The SDM methods might reside in the PC or in the ASICs, FPGAs or DSPs. Despite the advanced hardware set-up of Fig. 6, the main part of the measurement is, again, the software, where the functionality resides as is described in [Paper L]. The hardware architecture is further discussed in [37].

Fig. 6. A typical VI/SI measurement set-up [37]. The signal generation side can have any number of digital, analog and RF signal paths. Similarly the signal analysis side can receive any number of digital, analog and RF signals.
4.4 Experimental

With this kind of measurement system AM/AM and AM/PM plots, on sample basis, similar to what was shown in Fig. 1, Fig. 2 and Fig. 4 can be made. Such AM/AM and AM/PM plots are sometimes referred to as dynamic AM/AM and AM/PM [40] plots since they incorporate frequency dependence in the PA. The coordinates \((x,y)\) in these plots are given by

\[
\begin{align*}
(x,y)_{\text{AM/AM}} &= \left(20\log_{10}\left(\frac{|u(n)|}{|u'_n|}\right), 20\log_{10}\frac{|u'(n)|}{|u(n)|}\right) \\
(x,y)_{\text{AM/PM}} &= \left(20\log_{10}\left(\frac{|u(n)|}{|u'(n)|}\right), \angle u(n) - \angle u'(n)\right)
\end{align*}
\]

Such plots are shown in Fig. 7, AM/AM, and Fig. 8, AM/PM, for different average input power levels using a wideband (~4 MHz) modulated signal and a 40 W class-AB LDMOS PA. These plots have been taken from [ Paper J].

In this specific measurement it is observed that for a low input power level (magenta) there is almost no spread in the AM/AM and AM/PM curves indicating negligible linear memory effects in the PA. As the power is increased, the spread does also increase, indicating a quite substantial amount of nonlinear memory effects. As the PA goes into compression (blue), the nonlinear memory effects in the peaks for AM/AM decreases, as can be expected. The PA cannot deliver more power, the history does no longer matter.
Fig. 7. Dynamic AM/AM plots for different input power levels.

Fig. 8. Dynamic AM/PM plots for different input power levels.
5 Methods for Enhanced Measurement Performance

The main focus of this thesis has been to develop measurement methods and techniques in order to increase the raw performance of the hardware. Here we divide these techniques into three sub-groups depending on the performance parameter they are targeting, dynamic range, bandwidth or linear distortion. Techniques for extension of the dynamic range are treated in Ch. 5.1, techniques for bandwidth extension are treated in Ch. 5.2 and techniques to overcome the linear distortion are treated in Ch. 5.3.

Here it is chosen to describe a measurement system with an IQ-modulator based VSG and an intermediate frequency (IF) sampling based VSA. This choice is based on the discussion in [Paper G] and [32] and it gives a desirable trade-off between dynamic range and bandwidth. An overview of the main limitations and distortion mechanisms in the measurement set-up are given in Fig. 9, see [32] for a detailed discussion on the effects caused by these.

On the signal generation side there are numerous sources of distortion and limitations. There are a limited number of bits in the DACs, a limited clock frequency in DACs, an unequal gain between the I- and Q-paths in the VSG, a DC offset on the I- and/or Q-paths, nonlinear distortion in the I- and/or Q-paths, linear distortion in the I- and/or Q-paths, not a 90 degree phase shift between the I- and Q-paths, linear distortion when combining the I- and Q-paths, nonlinear distortion in VSG PA, nonlinear distortion in the DPA, numerous noise sources.

On the VSA side there is a limited sampling rate in the ADC, a limited number of bits in the ADC, linear distortion in the resolution bandwidth filter (RBW), noise.

Together the abovementioned factors settle the performance of the measurement system in terms of bandwidth, dynamic range and linear distortion.
Fig. 9. Imperfections and distortion mechanisms in the measurement system. Both
the VSG and the VSA contains numerous hardware limitations and distortions. The
effects of these are studied in some detail in [32].
5.1 Extension of the Dynamic Range

The dynamic range of the measurement system is set by the noise and the nonlinear distortion. The highest dynamic range $DR_{\text{max}}$ is obtained at the power level $P_0$ where they contribute equally, see Fig. 10. A measurement system of this kind is very weakly nonlinear and, thus, dominated by third order nonlinear effects. Hence, the distortion products can be expected to rise three dB as the power level is increased by one dB.

Three techniques have been used in this work in order to extend the dynamic range of the measurement system, i.) measurement of the input and output signals using the same receiver (VSA), ii.) coherent averaging of multiple measurements of the same signal and iii.) DPD of the DPA, see Fig. 9.

By measuring both the input and output signals of the PA, distortion products generated in the VSG will become a part of the input signal to which the output signal is compared. That is, the model identification will not be carried out using the intended ideal input signal, but with a signal that much more closely resembles the actual input signal to the PA, which is somewhat distorted. This essentially means that the distortion in the VSG will cancel between the measurements of the input and output signals and will not disturb the measurement.

Coherent averaging of multiple measurements of the same signal in order to decrease the noise is treated in [41] and [Paper E] and essentially means that the same test signal is measured several times, the measurements are then time-aligned and added together. This increases the effective dynamic range by $20\log_{10}(N)/3$ dB, where $N$ is the number of measurements, as explained in [Paper E]. The averaging can only decrease the noise floor, the distortion will not be affected. If an even larger dynamic range is needed an RF bandpass filter can be placed directly after the VSG. An example of how the dynamic range can be extended through the use of coherent averaging and filtering was presented in [41] and an illustration of the typical performance improvement that can be expected from coherent averaging and filtering is shown in Fig. 11. The measurement is done with a ~4 MHz wide WCDMA like signal. The raw performance of the measurement system (No averaging) is shown in blue. With averaging in the VSA the effective dynamic range is increased with some 15 dB using 800 averages (Red). The dynamic range is now limited by the distortion in the VSG and cannot be further reduced using averaging. Instead a sharp ~4 MHz wide bandpass filter is used at the output of the VSG. The dynamic range is now further increased with some 10 dB to an excellent 90 dB in terms of ACLR as defined in [23] for WCDMA signals (Green).
Fig. 10. Definition of maximum dynamic range in the measurement system.

Fig. 11. The effects of filtering and averaging on a typical modulated signal.
When testing PAs that require a high input drive level, i.e. one-stage high power PAs, a DPA is needed as was shown in Fig. 5. In such cases the DPA may also contribute to the overall distortion. An alternative to put an RF filter after the DPA or to use an excessively large DPA is to apply DPD on the DPA in order to linearize it as was done in [Paper H]. An example of the performance that can be obtained is shown in Fig. 12 for an average output power level of approximately 33 dBm. This is enough for many basestation applications and could be further increased if needed.

If a highly distortion free input signal to the PA, or some other component, is desired the VSG may also need to be predistorted. Analysis and DPD and distortion phenomena in VSGs are somewhat treated in [32].

![Fig. 12. The effect of DPD of the DPA.](image)

### 5.2 Extension of the Measurement Bandwidth

The bandwidth of telecommunication systems have increased over the last ten, twenty years and may continue to do so [42], [43], [44], [45]. Further, it can be of interest to jointly amplify signals from different systems and bands in one PA. Thus, if efficiently and cheaply done, there is basically no limit to the bandwidth
requirements of the PA. In addition, and maybe more important from a short term measurement system view, the output signal of a nonlinear PA, due to the nonlinearities, has a considerably larger bandwidth than the input signal. A typical example could be that the input signal has a bandwidth of 20 MHz and while the bandwidth of the output signal might be more than 100 MHz. The bandwidth is here somewhat loosely defined but is essentially the frequency range for which the distortion raises above the noise floor. This is illustrated in Fig. 13.

This has consequences for the measurement system. While the bandwidth of the measurement system might be more than enough for measurement of the input signal, it can be completely insufficient for measurement of the output signal.

There is a trade-off between bandwidth and dynamic range, i.e. the number of bits in the ADC and the sampling frequency. They cannot both be maximized simultaneously.

Techniques to extend the available measurement bandwidth have been published. These techniques include interleaved ADCs first proposed in [46] and filter bank techniques described in e.g. [47].

The technique with interleaved ADCs is commonly used today in e.g. sampling oscilloscopes. The drawback with interleaved ADCs is that there is a timing mismatch between the different ADCs (two or more) which causes distortion. This distortion can however be compensated for, see e.g. [48].

Fig. 13. Illustration of the bandwidth of typical input and output signals of the PA.
The filter bank technique uses a number of filters that filters out different parts, in frequency, of the signal. The output of each filter is then digitized. A sampled version of the signal is finally constructed in the digital domain.

In this work two other techniques are proposed for the application of PA characterization. These are the frequency stitching technique [Paper E] and the application of Zhu’s generalized sampling theorem (ZGST), first proposed in [49], [Paper I] and [Paper K]. None of these are truly new, the frequency stitching technique is a tuning of the filter bank technique for the specific problem of PA characterization and ZGST is well known and have been discussed in conjunction with PAs for some time, see e.g. [50, 51], but seldom applied to real measurements.

Fig. 14. The frequency “stitching” technique. Frequency “slices” of a wideband signal are measured at different time instances, \( t_1, t_2, \ldots \), and centre frequencies \( f_1, f_2, \ldots \). The wideband signal is then reconstructed from these measurements.
As for the coherent averaging in Ch. 5.1, the frequency stitching technology is based on that a repetitive measurement signal is used. If the input signal to the PA is repetitive, the distorted output signal will also be repetitive. Since the signal is repetitive different parts of it, in the frequency domain, can be measured at different times using a narrowband receiver. The combined wideband signal can then be restored in the frequency domain. The frequency stitching technique is illustrated in Fig. 14.

ZGST essentially says that under some mild conditions the output signal of a nonlinear system can be reconstructed by sampling it at the Nyquist rate of the input signal rather than the Nyquist rate of the output signal. The required conditions are essentially that the input and output signals are band-limited and that the nonlinear system performs a one-to-one mapping of the input signal to the output signal. These conditions are normally met in practice for PAs. Somewhat more detailed discussions on the conditions and their fulfillment for PAs have appeared in [52] and [53].

Here we note the potential of the ZGST while some measurement results are presented in [Paper I] and [Paper K]. The ZGST is also somewhat discussed in Ch. 6 in conjunction with PA modeling. The results are essentially that the ZGST can be used without loss of performance.

5.3 Correction of Linear Distortion

Most authors tend to neglect the influence of the linear distortion in the measurement set-up, probably partly because, to the author’s knowledge, no simple calibration technique has been proposed until recently. Especially the phase calibration pose a problem.

Measurement systems of the kind shown in Fig. 5 suffer from linear distortion both in the VSG and the VSA as was described above, see again Fig. 9. Especially the linear distortion in the VSA can cause problems. The linear distortion in the VSG will cancel similarly to the nonlinear distortion from the VSG, as was described in Ch. 5.1, provided that both the input and output signals of the PA are measured. The linear distortion in the VSA, mostly caused by the RBW, on the other hand, will only cancel between the two measurements to some degree. Especially the out-of-band distortion in the output signal will to some extent be filtered, see Fig. 15.

In addition to what is said above the linear distortion in the VSA will be the dominant error contributor when the frequency stitching method in Ch. 5.2 is used, as was described in [Paper E].
Fig. 15. The effects of linear distortion in the VSA on the input and output signals of the PA. While the input signal and the in-band distortion are only marginally affected the out-of-band distortion is often significantly distorted by the RBW.

A technique to calibrate both the amplitude and the phase of both the VSA and the VSG without using extra instrumentation, which also works together with the frequency stitching technique that was described in [Paper E], is proposed in [Paper F]. The basic principle for the technique proposed in [Paper F] is that the VSG is first connected directly to the VSA. Then multiple measurements are taken while changing the center frequency of either the VSG or VSA slightly. This will generate the necessary calibration information.

Another technique to calibrate the linear distortion would be to first calibrate the VSG for amplitude and phase using a DSO which has negligible distortion over the bandwidth of a typical VSG. Then, using the calibrated VSG, the VSA can be calibrated.

Yet another method was proposed in [54] in which the phase response of a DSO is found from the amplitude response using the Hilbert transform. A direct approach of such a method gives large errors [32]. In [54] these errors are approximated using a small number of basis functions in order to obtain a more accurate result. A similar approach could most likely be taken also for the case of VSG/VSA calibration.

Similar calibration problems are also encountered in the calibration of LSNAs, see Ch. 3 [55].
6 Complex Envelope Behavioral PA Modeling

6.1 Introduction

With complex envelope behavioral PA modeling is here meant a model that models the PAs influence on the complex envelope of the signal as it passes through the PA. It is a black box model in the sense that it has no explicit connection to any physical quantity and it is not known what happens inside the PA. The interest here is simply to construct an input – output mapping for the complex envelope of the signal in the first spectral zone as it is passed through the PA.

This is in contrast to other kinds of behavioral PA models that try to model the entire behavior of the PA, not only the behavior in the first spectral zone.

Complex envelope models are even further different from physical models where the focus is on the physical parameters, e.g. currents, impedances, etc.

If (2) is input to the amplifier, the output in the first spectral zone, after sampling, is given by

\[ y(n) = K(u(n)), \]

where \( K(\cdot) \) is the complex envelope response of the PA in the first spectral zone that are to be modeled. Some such models are studied in Ch. 6.

An important property of a modulated signal that is to be used for characterization of PAs is its PAPR. The PAPR is the maximum of the instantaneous power envelope defined by \( p(n) = |y(n)|^2 \), divided by the average power. It is most often expressed in dB. It essentially sets the amplitude range of the characterization. Typically PAPR values of 6-9 dB are encountered in many communication systems. Numerous techniques exist to decrease the PAPR for different kind of signals. This is of interest since a low PAPR enables higher efficiency in the PA. Two kinds of signals that are of particular interest is multiple tone signals, as they are often used for PA characterization, see e.g. [56] and [57], and orthogonal frequency division multiplexing (OFDM) signals as they are used in modern communication systems. See e.g. [58], [59], [60] and [61] for techniques of PAPR reduction for multiple tone signals and [62] and [63] for some PAPR techniques for OFDM signals.

In Ch. 6.2 goodness criteria for evaluation of behavioral complex-envelope PA models are discussed and in Ch. 6.3 some such models are treated.
6.2 Goodness Criteria for Evaluation of PA Models

The main goodness criteria used in this work are the normalized mean-square error (NMSE) and adjacent channel error power ratio (ACEPR). The exact definitions of these have varied somewhat between different papers and do also differ between different authors. Here the following definitions are used:

\[
\text{NMSE} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\varepsilon}{\sum_n |y_{\text{meas}}(n)|^2} \right),
\]

where \( \varepsilon \) is defined as

\[
\varepsilon = \sum_n |y_{\text{meas}}(n) - y'_{\text{sim}}(n)|^2,
\]

where \( y'_{\text{sim}}(n) \) is an amplitude and time adjusted version of the original output signal of the model \( y_{\text{sim}}(n) \), such as \( \varepsilon \) is minimized. This is in agreement with the error calculation procedures in the ETSI standard [23]. Further, \( y_{\text{meas}}(f) \) and \( y_{\text{sim}}(f) \) are the time-discrete Fourier transforms (TDFTs) of \( y_{\text{meas}}(n) \) and \( y_{\text{sim}}(n) \), respectively, and \( E(f) \) is the TDFT of \( \varepsilon(n) = y_{\text{meas}}(n) - y'_{\text{sim}}(n) \). The integrals in (7) are taken over the 3.84 MHz wide channel \( ch \) and the two adjacent channels \( adj \), centered 5 MHz above and below the channel, respectively, as defined in the ETSI standard [23] for the 3G system WCDMA. In principle, similar criteria for out-of-band emissions can be defined in the frequency domain for other standards as well. The ACEPR is illustrated in Fig. 16, where the TDFT of \( u(n), U(f) \), is also shown.

The NMSE is a measure of the total model error, which is of obvious interest when designing a model. A problem with the NMSE, however, is that it is in most cases completely dominated by the error inside the channel, see again Fig. 16. The ACEPR, by definition, is a measure of the out-of-band error, which in many cases, is of higher interest than the in-band error as given by the NMSE. It is the out-of-band distortion that is generated in the adjacent channels that disrupts communications in other channels while the communication inside the channel will be at most marginally affected by the nonlinear distortion in the PA.

Thus, the combination of NMSE and ACEPR is believed to be a reasonable
goodness criterion on which different behavioral PA models, but also other kinds of PA models can be judged.

Some other criteria have been proposed in the literature, see e.g. [64] in which the memory effect ratio (MER) was proposed. The MER is essentially defined as the ratio of rms error that cannot be modeled with a memoryless model to the rms value of the output signal.

There is an ongoing discussion on evaluation criteria for behavioral PA models of the kind discussed here. An attempt to contribute to that discussion was presented in [65].

![Diagram](image.png)

Fig. 16. Definition of the channel and the adjacent channel for WCDMA signals according to [23].

### 6.3 Some Complex Envelope Behavioral PA Models

Numerous complex envelope behavioral PA models have been proposed and it is certainly beyond the scope of this work to cover them all. A comprehensive overview of some of the most important can be found in [66].

One of the simplest models of this kind is the complex polynomial model given by
\[ y(n) = K(u(n)) = \sum_{p=1}^{P} a_{2p-1} |u(n)|^{2(p-1)} u(n) \]  

(9)

where the \( a_i : s \), \( i = 1, 3, ..., 2P-1 \), are the complex-valued parameters that are to be determined.

This model does however not take any frequency dependence, or “memory effects” in the PA into account and, thus, share most of the shortcomings of the more traditional techniques in Ch. 2.

Severely more complicated models have been proposed. Many of them do also posses general approximation capabilities. That is, they can essentially approximate any continuous function, thus, they can also approximate the response of a nonlinear PA, at least in theory. Among these models are neural network models, see e.g. [67], [Paper A], Volterra series [68] with variants, e.g. the Kautz-Volterra model [69] and block oriented models such as the parallel Wiener model [15].

A problem for the Volterra and neural network models is that they suffer from slow convergence due to the many parameters that have to be determined. The Kautz-Volterra and the parallel Wiener models, on the other hand, suffer from complicated system identification procedures. In practice considerable simpler models have been shown to have equal or better performance with regard to NMSE, and especially ACEPR, in many, not to say most, practical cases. One such model, with particularly good performance with regard to ACEPR, is the parallel Hammerstein (PH) or tapped delay line model. The PH model was first proposed for amplifier modeling in [70], and is now widely used both for modeling and DPD of PAs, see e.g. [64], [71], [72]. The structure of the PH models is shown in Fig. 17. Mathematically the PH model is given by

\[ y(n) = \sum_{p=1}^{P} H_{2p-1}(q^{-1}) |u(n)|^{2(p-1)} u(n) = \sum_{p=1}^{P} \sum_{m=0}^{M} b_{m,2p-1} |u(n-m)|^{2(p-1)} u(n-m), \]  

(10)

where the contributions of different nonlinear orders, e.g. three, five etc, are filtered by different filters \( H_i(q^{-1}) \) having the complex-valued coefficients \( b_{j,i} \), \( i = 1, 3, ..., 2P-1 \), \( j = 0, 1, 2, ..., M \) and \( q^{-1} \) is the delay operator.

Despite some shortcomings such as a somewhat higher NMSE than some other models, e.g. the neural network and Kautz-Volterra models, the PH model must currently, due to its simplicity and generally good performance in many practical situations, be considered as the baseline to which other proposed complex envelope behavioral PA models should be compared.
In this work some model development has also been done. In [73] a neural network model was proposed and subsequently extended with regard to bandwidth in [Paper A] using the frequency stitching technique that was described in Ch. 5.2. The primary advantage of the proposed neural network model over the PH model is its lower NMSE. Its drawback is its higher ACEPR.

In [Paper B] different models, including the proposed neural network model and the PH model were compared. This paper is maybe the only published attempt to experimentally compare an array of different PA models for several different input signals, different PAs, different bandwidths and different power levels. All in all the paper is based on ~7000 PA model identification and validations based on measured data. The results basically confirmed the usefulness of the PH model. A second result was the weak generalization capabilities of the PH (and other) models with respect to power level and bandwidth. As a result, it was proposed in [Paper J] to include the average power level in the PH model in order to increase its generalization properties. An alternative would be to incorporate the very long term, i.e. thermal, memory effects [24], [74] into the model using techniques similar to the one presented in [75].

As already discussed in Ch. 5.2, it was proposed in [Paper I] and [Paper L] to apply ZGST to PA modeling as an alternative technique to extend the measurement bandwidth. ZGST was used in conjunction with the PH model and it was found that the ZGST is indeed very useful since the sampling rate can essentially be lowered from the Nyquist rate of the output signal to the Nyquist rate of the input signal with negligible loss in modeling performance.
7 Summary of Appended Papers

The author has contributed in all parts of all the listed papers except Paper C, where the contribution is limited to the experimental part and some discussions and manuscript proofreading. The papers [Paper A] and [Paper B] are joint works where the first author has contributed most but this author has taken part in all aspects of the work and been responsible for some, e.g. experimental.

7.1 Paper A


A radial-basis function neural network (RBFNN) has been used for modeling the dynamic nonlinear behavior of an RF power amplifier for 3G. In the model the signal’s envelope is used. The model requires less training than a model using IQ-data. Sampled input and output signals were used for identification and validation. Noise-like signals with bandwidths of 4 MHz and 20 MHZ were used. The RBFNN is compared to a parallel Hammerstein (PH) model. The two model types have similar performance when no memory is used. For the 4 MHz signal the RBFNN has better in-band performance, whereas the PH is better out-of-band, when memory is used. For the 20 MHz signal the models have similar performance in- and out-of-band. Used as a digital predistortion algorithm the best RBFNN with memory suppressed the lower (upper) adjacent channel power 7 dB (4 dB) compared to a memoryless nonlinear predistorter and 11 dB (13 dB) compared to the case of no predistortion, for the same output power for a 4 MHz wide signal.

7.2 Paper B


A comparative study of nonlinear behavioral models with memory of radio frequency power amplifier (PAs) is presented. The models are static polynomial, parallel Hammerstein (PH), Volterra, and radial basis-function neural network (RBFNN). Two PAs were investigated, one designed for the 3G mobile telecommunication systems and one for 2G. The 2G PA was found to have
larger memory effects than the 3G PA. A Volterra model was better than a PH for the same nonlinear order and memory depth. The best PH was better than the best Volterra model, since the former can be identified with higher nonlinear order and memory depth. The RBFNN reduced the total model error slightly more than the PH, but the error out-of-band was significantly lower for the PH. The qualitative conclusions are the same for the 2G and 3G PAs, but the model errors are smaller for the latter. For the 3G PA, a static polynomial was as good as the best PH and better than the RBFNN for the hardest cross-validation (identification with a noise signal, validation with an eight tone signal). The models with memory, PH and RBFNN, showed better cross-validation performance than a static polynomial for the hardest cross-validation for the 2G PA.

7.3 Paper C


A stepped three-tone measurement technique based on digitally modulated baseband signals, is used for characterizing radio frequency power amplifiers. The bandwidth of the stepped measurement was 8.8 MHz for the input and 26.4 MHz for the output signal. A power amplifier designed for third-generation mobile telecommunication system was analyzed. The amplitude and phase of the third-order Volterra kernel were determined from identified intermodulation products. The properties of the Volterra kernel along certain paths in the three-dimensional frequency space were analyzed and compared to some box-models for nonlinear systems. The main symmetry of the third-order Volterra kernel of this power amplifier was found to be of the type given by cascaded quadratic nonlinearities with a linear filter between (a Hammerstein-Wiener system) and the frequency dependence, i.e. memory effects, was found to be due to effects at baseband.

7.4 Paper D


In this paper a novel method to measure the amplitude and phase of two-tone third order intermodulation products generated in a high-power amplifier is presented. The method is based on the sampled input and output signals of the amplifier. The presented measurement set-up and the associated algorithms for calculation of the amplitudes and phases are considerably faster and simpler than
current methods. By making use of the sampled input and output signals of the amplifier and signal processing techniques, the need for a non-linear reference, a tunable attenuator and a phase shifter, reported in existing measurement set-ups are eliminated, making it simple and easy to use. Hence, this is a substantial simplification of the measurement set-up compared to what have been reported earlier. The proposed measurement set-up is also suitable for fast, automated measurements, which is of interest for many applications, both lab and production oriented. In addition, a method to increase the bandwidth of the measured signal is used to overcome the bandwidth limitation set by the Nyquist criteria for sampled systems. Measurements are done on two base station high-power amplifiers and are found to be in agreement with theory and reference measurements.

7.5 Paper E


In this paper a method for increasing the bandwidth of a test-bed for dynamic characterization of power amplifiers is described. The technique is readily implemented using commercially available instruments which makes it suitable for e.g. production testing. The bandwidth extension technique is combined with coherent averaging of the measurements in order to simultaneously increase the bandwidth and dynamic range of the test-bed. The errors in the obtained wideband signal are also estimated. The method is evaluated experimentally on a basestation power amplifier for the 3G WCDMA system and on a Doherty amplifier. A tenfold increase in bandwidth to a total of 144 MHz and a more than 10 dB increase in dynamic range to 78 dB were obtained in practice. In addition the obtained wideband signal is used for behavioral amplifier modeling.

7.6 Paper F


This paper describes a method to simultaneously measure the magnitude and phase ripple of two bandpass linear systems in cascade by changing the center frequency for one of the systems. Extensive measurements are presented to support the theory. The method has a wide applicability for measurements on RF power amplifiers, transmitters, receivers, etc. The accuracy of the method is in the order of a few hundredths of a dB and one degree for most realistic measurement set-ups.
7.7 Paper G


This paper describes, and discusses in some detail, a measurement system for dynamic characterisation of power amplifiers. The system uses data that are generated and collected at baseband to accurately calculate AM/AM and AM/PM distortion as well as memory effects in the amplifiers. The limitations of the system in terms of dynamic range and bandwidth are discussed as well as techniques to overcome them. The system may serve as a tool both for designers of power amplifiers as well as for development of amplifier models and systems for predistortion.

7.8 Paper H


A Doherty amplifier was investigated using behavioral amplifier modeling techniques. A measurement system for simultaneous wide bandwidth (>100 MHz) and large dynamic range (~70 dBc ACLR) sampled measurements that are needed for the behavioral modeling is presented. Both the measurement system and the performance of the Doherty amplifier are described. The findings are that the well known and widely used parallel Hammerste in model, also denoted the memory polynomial model, is well suitable also for modeling and predistortion of Doherty amplifiers, and that a Doherty amplifier can be designed with only minor memory effects. This is seen in the modeling error, which is reduced by 13 dB, compared with a constant gain, using a memoryless polynomial model and only 6 dB further by adding memory to the model.

7.9 Paper I


In this paper it is shown that for the purpose of nonlinear power amplifier behavioral modeling, the sampling rate can be set to the Nyquist rate of the input.
signal, rather than to the Nyquist rate of the output signal by making use of Zhu’s
generalized sampling theorem. This claim is supported by measurements on a
basestation power amplifier. The findings are that the model error obtained when
the output signal is sampled at the Nyquist rate of the input signal is approximately
1.5 dB higher than when the sampling rate is set to the Nyquist rate of the output
signal. However, if a sampling rate of twice the Nyquist rate of the input signal is
used, which is still typically, much lower than the Nyquist rate of the output signal,
the degradation is only 0.2 dB. These are important findings that will substantially
ease the requirements on ADCs used in measurement set-ups used for amplifier
modeling.

7.10 Paper J

D. Wisell and N. Keskitalo, ”A Behavioral Power Amplifier Model that Includes

In this paper a behavioral power amplifier model that incorporates the average
input power level is proposed. The result is a model that can accurately predict the
output signal of the amplifier for all input power levels. The model is validated
using measurements on a radio base station power amplifier and it is found that it
does indeed has improved generalization capabilities with regard to input power
level compared to previous models.

7.11 Paper K

D. Wisell, P. Stenvard, A. Hansebacke and N. Keskitalo, ”Considerations when
Designing and Using Virtual Instruments as Building Blocks in Flexible
2007.

In this paper the software and hardware structure of a virtual instrument
measurement system is discussed. The focus is on flexibility, modularity,
generality and hardware independence. A software architecture that meets these
requirements is proposed and discussed in some detail. The proposed software
architecture has a layered structure that makes it suitable for implementation of
versatile measurement systems. The measurement functionality is encapsulated in
its own, hardware independent layer and communicates with its environment, e.g.
physical hardware, through intermediary software components. Finally a
measurement system for characterization of power amplifiers that is designed
following the proposed software architecture, with software driven measurements,
is implemented.
7.12 Paper L


In this paper Zhu’s generalized sampling theorem for sampling of the output signal of a nonlinear system is applied to the case of radio frequency power amplifier modeling. The paper deals in some detail with hardware implementational issues in order to optimize the hardware design in order to make full use of the benefits given by Zhu’s generalized sampling theorem. It is shown that some design changes have to be done compared to more traditional receiver designs, such as removing the anti-aliasing filters. It is also shown that the behavioral amplifier models that are extracted using data taken using Zhu’s generalized sampling theorem have equal or better performance with regard to out-of-band spectral emissions than when the models are extracted using data taken using Nyquist sampling of the output signal of the amplifier.
References


[38] http://www.ivifoundation.org/.


