

STANDARD NOISE SOURCES

K 81A, K 50A and K 51A

In the performance of short wave apparatus, such as television and radar equipment, noise plays an important part. This is attributable to the inherent noise of the receivers and amplifiers used. An important property of amplifiers and receivers is the 'noise factor', which defines their noise properties under given conditions.

There are two main methods of determining the noise factor. The first is the one employing a standard signal generator. This method is rather time-consuming and inaccurate, since it necessitates absolute measurements of power and effective bandwidth. The other method is to employ a standard noise source, such as hot resistors, saturated diodes and gas discharge tubes. Since it would be necessary to heat resistors to 29000 °K for measuring a noise factor of 100, which may often be required, their use is, however, restricted.

Saturated diodes are only available for measurements at frequencies up to about 1000 Mc/s. However, at such frequencies it is hardly possible to effect good matching between the diode and its circuit. The K 81 A noise diode is designed for use at frequencies up to 300 Mc/s.

Specially designed gas discharge tubes have proved to possess properties that make them very suitable for use as standard noise sources at microwaves. The K 50 A and K 51 A are intended for use in the 3 cm and the 10 cm band respectively.

NOISE

Noise originates from the arbitrary motion of electrons in solids, liquids and gases. The electron motion may be due to temperature (thermal agitation- or Johnson noise) or to phenomena occurring in gas discharges (collisions of the electrons and the ions) or in vacuum tubes (shot noise, partition noise, induced grid noise).

It can be proved that the mean square noise voltage v_n^2 at the terminals of a resistor equals $4kTBR$, where k is Boltzmann's constant (1.38×10^{-23} Joule/°C), T the absolute temperature of the resistor, B the effective bandwidth of the frequency range considered and R the resistance of the resistor.

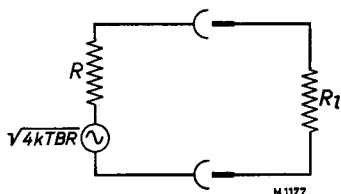


Fig. 58. Representation of a resistor as a noise source.

Accordingly, a resistor may be considered as a noise source of which the e.m.f. is $\sqrt{4kTBR}$ and whose internal resistance is R , which is assumed to be noise-free (fig. 58).

The maximum obtainable power from this

noise source is dissipated in a load resistor R_l , which is equal to R . This so-called 'available noise power' is thus:

$$W_{nu} = \frac{v_n^{-2}}{4R} = \frac{4kTB}{4R} = kTB \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

The available noise power is therefore directly proportional to the absolute temperature T . Analogous to the noise from a resistor, the noise originating from a non-thermal noise source may be expressed in terms of the 'noise temperature', i.e. the temperature of a resistor that would deliver the same amount of noise as the non-thermal noise source.

THE NOISE FACTOR OF A POWER AMPLIFIER

For the sake of simplicity only the noise factor of a power amplifier will be discussed. The discussion is, however, also valid for any other four-terminal network.

Fig. 59 shows the block diagram of a power amplifier and the adjacent circuits. The input of the amplifier is matched to the driver, which has an internal resistance ' R ' and is thus equal to the input resistance of the amplifier.



Fig. 59. Block diagram of a power amplifier and adjacent circuits.

The available noise power at the input is kT_0B , T_0 being the noise temperature of the driver.

The term 'available gain' is introduced, being the ratio of the available output power and the available power at the input of the amplifier.

If the available signal power at the input of the amplifier is assumed to be S , and the available gain of the amplifier to be G , the available signal power at the output is GS and the available noise power

$$W_n = GkT_0B + W_i, \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

where W_i is the inherent noise power of the amplifier available at the output.

The noise factor of the amplifier is defined as the ratio of the available signal-to-noise ratio at the input and the available signal-to-noise ratio at the output of the amplifier, hence:

$$N = \frac{S/kT_0B}{GS/W_n} = \frac{W_n}{GkT_0B}, \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

or:

$$N = \frac{GkT_0B + W_i}{GkT_0B}.$$

The last expression shows that the noise factor may also be defined as the ratio of the noise power actually available at the output to the noise power that would be available at the output if the amplifier were noiseless.

From (3) it follows that:

$$W_n = NGkT_0B ; \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

since:

$$W_n = GkT_0B + W_i = NGkT_0B ,$$

$$W_i = (N - 1) GkT_0B . \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

THE SATURATED DIODE AS A STANDARD NOISE SOURCE

The operation of a diode as a noise source is based on the following principle. When the diode is saturated, all electrons emitted by the cathode will reach the anode. The number of electrons emitted during a time interval Δt , i.e. the charge transferred during this time interval, is not constant but fluctuates around a statistical average value due to the thermal movement of the electrons in the cathode. The charge transmitted per unit time corresponds to the direct anode current I_a , and on this average value a fluctuating current is superimposed. This effect is termed the shot effect. The mean square of the noise current within a frequency band B is given by:

$$i_n^{-2} = 2e \cdot I_a \cdot B , \dots\dots\dots (6)$$

in which e denotes the charge of an electron, i.e. 1.6×10^{-19} C.

Since the individual electrons do not influence each other, this expression is applicable to the entire frequency spectrum, but at extremely high frequencies the influence of the transit time effect becomes more and more noticeable and reduces the shot effect.

When a current $I_a + i_n$ passes through a resistance R_a included in the anode circuit of the diode, a noise voltage drop $v_n^2 i_n \cdot R_a$ will be produced in addition to the voltage drop caused by the direct anode current. So long as the influence of the internal resistance of the diode is negligible compared with that of R_a , i.e. when $R_i \gg R_a$ (which will always be the case when the diode is saturated, since $\partial v_a / \partial i_a = \infty$), the resistance R_a may be considered as a noise source with an e.m.f. v_n and an internal resistance R_a . The noise voltage source may be represented by the equivalent diagram shown in fig. 60.

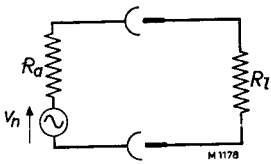


Fig. 60. Equivalent diagram of a saturated diode as a noise source.

The available noise power of this noise source is given by:

$$W_{na} = \frac{i_n^{-2} \cdot R_a}{4} \dots\dots\dots (7)$$

From (6) and (7) it follows that:

$$W_{na} = \frac{e \cdot I_a \cdot B \cdot R_a}{2} = 8 I_a \cdot B \cdot R_a \cdot 10^{-20} \dots\dots\dots (8)$$

The essential formulae having been given, we will now investigate the way in which the noise generator should be set up in order to be used as a standard noise source, and the requirements to be satisfied in order to obtain reliable results.

The requirement is imposed on the circuit that the internal resistance of the generator should be real and that no appreciable attenuation should be caused by the circuit at high frequencies. In order to ensure that the internal resistance

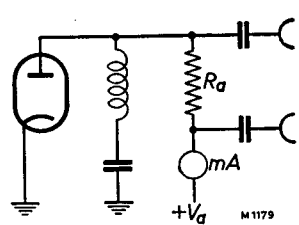


Fig. 61. Basic circuit of a noise generator equipped with a noise diode.

of the generator is real, the capacitance introduced by the tube and the circuit may be neutralized by an inductance shunted across the tube. In this way a parallel tuned resonant circuit is obtained, which is heavily damped by the anode load resistance R_a (usually 60Ω or 300Ω).

Fig. 61 shows the basic circuit of a noise generator equipped with a noise diode. The noise factor is measured in the following way.

As shown in fig. 62, the amplifier to be tested is connected to the noise generator. The anode load resistance R_a of the generator should be equal to the input resistance of the amplifier.



Fig. 62. Block diagram of the measuring set-up.

First the heater current of the diode remains switched off and a meter indicating the relative power output is connected to the output terminals of the amplifier. After a record has been made of the reading of this meter, which indicates a value corresponding to a power output $W_n = NGkT_0B$ (according to eq. (4)), the heater current of the diode is switched on and carefully adjusted to the value at which the output meter indicates twice the original power. The additional noise output power due to the energized diode is GW_{na} and exactly equal to the initial power $NGkT_0B$.

Hence:

$$GW_{na} = NGkT_0B, \dots\dots\dots (9)$$

which gives:

$$N = \frac{W_{na}}{kT_0B} = \frac{8 \cdot I_a B R_a \cdot 10^{-20}}{kT_0B}$$

When T_0 is 288 °K:

$$N = 20 I_a R_a, \dots\dots\dots(10)$$

where I_a is expressed in mA and R_a in $k\Omega$.

When the milliammeter incorporated in the anode circuit has been calibrated accordingly, the noise factor can be read directly, or it can be calculated by means of eq. (10).

STANDARD NOISE DIODE K 81 A

The K 81 A is a directly heated diode equipped with a noval base, intended for use as a standard noise source at frequencies up to 300 Mc/s. Owing to the small distance between the filament and the anode, the transit time is reduced to a large extent. In order to realize small self-inductances of the electrode leads, both the extremities of the filament and the anode are each connected to three pins of the base.

The filament is fairly thick, so that it can be fed from a 2 volts battery. The thermal inertia consequent upon this thickness is sufficient to prevent fluctuations in the saturation current when an a.c. supply is used. In this case the filament voltage should be very well stabilized. As a result of the diode's high internal resistance, the anode voltage need not be stabilized.

When a load resistor of 50 ohms is employed, a noise factor of 20 (13 dB) can be measured without exceeding the maximum admissible anode current and anode dissipation. When the load resistor is enlarged, it is possible to measure higher noise factors.

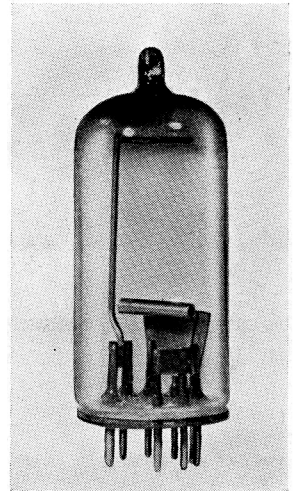


Fig. 63. Photograph of the K81A (actual size).

TECHNICAL DATA

Heating: direct by a.c. or d.c.

CAPACITANCES

Capacitance between filament and anode $C_{af} = 2.2 \text{ pF}$

MOUNTING POSITION: any
 ELECTRODE ARRANGEMENT

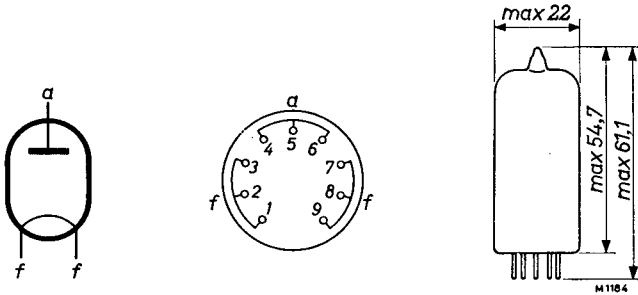


Fig. 64. Electrode arrangement, electrode connections and maximum dimensions in mm (noval base).

TYPICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Filament voltage	$V_f =$	1.85 V
Filament current	$I_f =$	2.5 A
Anode voltage	$V_a =$	100 V
Anode current	$I_a =$	15 mA

LIMITING VALUES

Filament voltage	$V_f = \text{max.}$	2 V
Anode voltage	$V_a = \text{max.}$	150 V
Anode current	$I_a = \text{max.}$	20 mA
Anode dissipation	$W_a = \text{max.}$	3 W

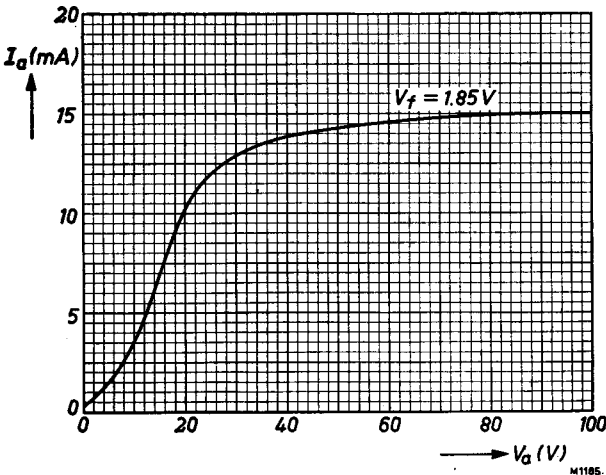


Fig. 65. I_a/V_a characteristic of the K81A at a heater voltage of 1.85 V.

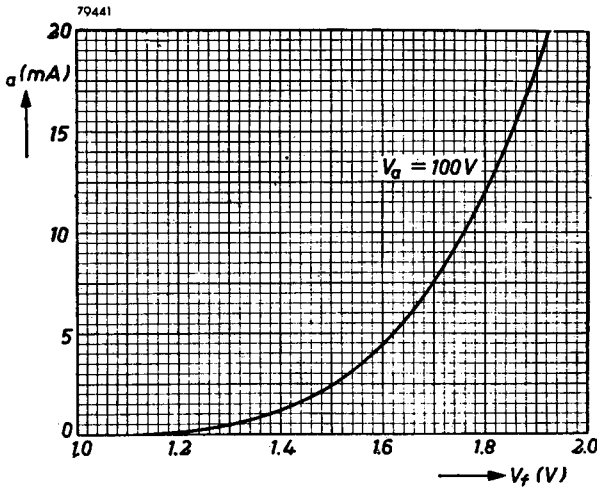


Fig. 66. I_a/V_g characteristic of the K81A at an anode voltage of 100 V.

PRACTICAL CIRCUIT

Fig. 67 shows the circuit diagram of a typical set-up for noise measurements with the K 81 A at 50 Mc/s. The h.f. section is mounted in a closed metal box. The filament and anode voltages are applied via low-pass filters, which prevent the noise originating in the power supply from entering the circuit.

The anode-filament capacitance and the parasitic capacitances are compensated by the self-inductance L .

P represents a coaxial output plug to which a coaxial cable with a characteristic impedance of 50 or 75 ohms should be connected, depending on the load resistor used.

CHARACTERISTIC DATA

- $L = 3 \text{ H (approx.)}$
- $C = 5000 \text{ pF}$
- $C' = 1000 \text{ pF}$
- $R_a = 50 \text{ or } 75 \Omega$
- $V_a = 90 - 150 \text{ V}$

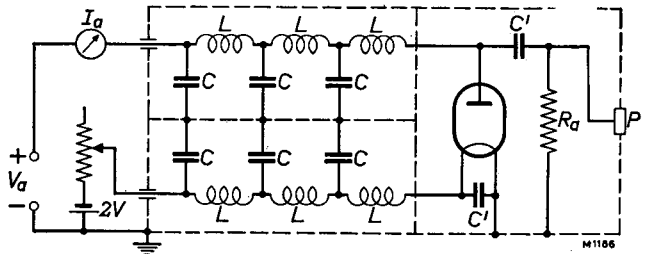


Fig. 67. Practical set-up for noise measurements at 50 Mc/s with the K81A.