SSPA Circuit description and operation

The SSPA is designed with a pair of LDMOS MRF151G’s based on a design from Motorola’s H.O. Granberg in document AR305. Power splitter and combiner are G10 circuit board type.

The controller, FET switches, low pass filter, antenna relays and bar graph indicator is from W6PQL. The controller takes signals from a temperature sensor located between the two RF pallets, the reverse power pad on the low pass filter and controls the antenna relays, remote preamp, rear panel fans and 50V applied to the RF deck. A copy of the controller schematic and board layout is included in this documentation. If you selected Option 1, only the low pass filter is installed, all of the other features and protections are not available.

Jim, W6PQL, gives a great write up on his website (www.w6pql.com) about the controller so this won’t be repeated here. The PTT jack on the rear panel starts the transmit sequence causing the remote preamp FET switch to turn off by using the disable port so regardless of the position of the front panel preamp switch, voltage is removed from the remote preamp before anything else happens. Next, the internal antenna relays energize putting the RF deck inline. Last, the 50V FET switch is enabled which places 50V on the RF deck which also applies the proper bias to the FET’s for linear operation. Simultaneously, the ALC holdoff voltage (rear panel RCA jack) is removed allowing the driving transceiver to put out whatever power the user has set. While the ALC holdoff will not be used with transverters most likely, it’s recommended to be used for transceivers and may help with ALC overshoot experienced by some rigs. We have also provided a “transverter” PTT output on the rear panel. This is the last sequence from the sequencer and can be used to key a transverter. The device can handle up to 30V @ 50ma. which is more than sufficient for any solid state transverter.

Protection is provided for both high SWR (preset to 2:1) and high temperature. The fans only run during transmit unless the heat sink gets above 110F, then the fans run continuously until the temp drops to about 105F. If the temp gets to 135F, the amp goes in to bypass. The fans are 50V units but we have wired them in series to reduce the noise. If you find the cooling is not sufficient, the fans can be wired in parallel to increase air flow (both red wires together to 50V and both white wires together to the controller). When running long periods of WSJT, we recommend re-wiring the fans for full 50v operation. It is noisier but the amp will run cooler!

A note about the SWR protection. Reverse power derived from the directional coupler on the low pass filter is fed to the controller. About 50W reflected for 500W forward is a 2:1 SWR which is what the amp is set to trip at. It is VERY possible under the right conditions to have a device failure before the SWR trips. I’ve actually seen an amp arc from the output transformer to the heat sink when operated at 2.5:1 SWR. So the best caution is, DON’T OPERATE THE AMP WITHOUT CHECKING YOUR LOAD!!

The remote preamp can be switched from 12V to 28V depending on the remote preamp relays used. There is a rear panel voltage selection switch for this function. The front panel remote preamp enable switch grounds the “ON” pad on the FET switch placing voltage on the rear panel F connector. When the
amplifier enters transmit mode, the “DISABLE” pad on the FET switch is pulled low immediately removing the voltage to the remote preamp.

The Low Pass Filter provides both the reflected power signal used by the controller for SWR shutdown protection but also provides a forward power signal used by the front panel relative power bar graph.

The main power rocker switch is also a 20A circuit breaker and removes power from all circuits in the amplifier. The amps have a power supply module in them that takes the incoming 50V and regulates it down to 28V, 12V and 5V. 28V is only used for the remote preamp and to drive the 12V and 5V regulators since these will not take the full 50V input. In the event of a high SWR shutdown, you will need to cycle this power switch to restore operation.

Since these amps only require about 8-9 watts of drive, a high power hybrid attenuator has been added. These are located in the RF deck in an area covered by a small tin cover. Depending on your drive level, the attenuation varies from 3dB to 10dB.

There is a 10 position barrier strip near the reap panel of the amp where various voltages terminate and distribute to various components. The wiring is as follows – starting at the far left (nearest to the outer wall of the amp) the first two circuits are 50V continuous when the power switch is on. The next two positions (3 and 4) are 50V on transmit and feeds the 50V to the RF deck. Position 5 is 5V from the power supply and is not used as is position 6 not used. Positions 7 and 8 are 12V from the power supply module and 12V distribution to any device requiring 12V. Positions 9 and 10 are 28V from the power supply and feed to the remote preamp voltage selection switch.

### Operation

Operation is pretty simple. Connect the input and output to suitable 2m source and a low SWR load with a wattmeter in line. Connect the PTT jack to your transceiver PTT output. Adjust the drive to no more than 5w to start – while FET’s are pretty robust, OVERDRIVE WILL DESTROY THE DEVICE IMMEDIATELY!!! Gradually increase the power until you reach the 500w output level and STOP! The relative output indicator is adjusted so that 500W is just full scale.

Remote preamp operation is initiated when the front panel switch is in the up position. The voltage set to the remote preamp is selected on the rear panel between 12V and 24V. The female F connector carries the DC voltage to the remote preamp. **WARNING** - For the sequencer to operate properly, you MUST have the PTT line from your transceiver connected to the amp. If you do not, it is possible to enable the preamp and then transmit through the amp into your preamp instantly destroying the device. DO NOT operate without the PTT attached!!
WARRANTY

There is no warranty expressed or implied. The amplifiers are delivered as is. They have been tested at full output (500Watts) but these are used surplus equipment and thus we have no idea how the equipment was used or abused. Operating the amplifier into an incorrect load can cause device failure even though there is protection circuits. If you do not agree with these terms, do not hook the amplifier up and make arrangements to return the amp to us for a refund.
Input attenuator location

Directional coupler replacement on output combiner
Inside RF desk showing temp sensor location between RF pallets
Main power barrier strip wiring

- **Heavy White 12V from P.S.**
- **Medium Red to RF deck**
- **Medium White from tab on FET**
- **Medium White and yellow To input pad on FET switch**
- **Medium Red from ckt breaker**
- **Yellow 5V N/C**
- **12V White to controller**
- **12V White to RF relays**
- **12V to preamp voltage select switch**
- **28V to preamp voltage select switch**
- **Blue 28V from P.S.**
- **Green to splice then red to fan**
- **12V White to LED bar graph**
The header connections are as follows:

1. **ground**
   - This can be up to 65v, and is the connection used to provide 12-14v from the VDD rail when Q10 will be used for that purpose. The use of Q10 is optional, and is not used when the control board will be operated from a 12v supply. If Q10 is to be used to provide 12v from a 28v, 50v or 65v rail, a 25 ohm 25w current-limiting resistor should be placed in series with the connection to the rail to protect Q10 and D18 from damage due to accidental shorting of the 12v rail (it can happen to the best of us). Without current limiting, even a temporary short on the 12v rail will cause that rail to permanently go to HV potential (28, 50 or 65v).

2. **HV**; this can be up to 65v, and is the connection used to provide 12-14v from the VDD rail when Q10 will be used for that purpose. The use of Q10 is optional, and is not used when the control board will be operated from a 12v supply. If Q10 is to be used to provide 12v from a 28v, 50v or 65v rail, a 25 ohm 25w current-limiting resistor should be placed in series with the connection to the rail to protect Q10 and D18 from damage due to accidental shorting of the 12v rail (it can happen to the best of us). Without current limiting, even a temporary short on the 12v rail will cause that rail to permanently go to HV potential (28, 50 or 65v).

3. **LV**; this is the 12v power input to the board; if Q10 is used, it provides 12v to this pin, otherwise an external 12v-14v source should be connected here.

4. This is a connection to the base of Q10, and is only used for testing with the factory test fixture.

5. **AMP SW**; used with a front panel switch to gate 12v to the on-board sequencer, usually to take a controlled amplifier on or off line.

6. **Kill port**; used to provide an immediate kill signal to an external FET power switch to remove VDD from an amplifier during a detected fault condition.

7. **D6A**; output to an external panel LED to indicate a transmit condition

8. **PTT**; input connection from a ptt control line (pull low to energize)

9. **D4C**; output connection to the cathode of an external LED to indicate a fault condition caused by high reflected power (high SWR)

10. **D4A**; output connection to the anode of the LED mentioned in #9

11. **Load Fail In**; input connection from an external SWR sensor

12. **D5A**; output to an external panel LED to indicate the presence of operating power (12v rail)

13. **D7A**; output to an external panel LED to indicate a high temperature fault condition

14. **TSENS**; input from an external sensor (thermistor), normally mounted on an amplifier's heat sink

15. **FAN**; connection to the board’s fan switch, designed to pull to ground up to 90v at up to 3 amps. Normally connected to the return lead of cooling fan(s).

16. **Block**; use of this signal is optional; it is a gated negative voltage designed to be connected to a system’s ALC rail going back to your driving radio. It's purpose is to hold off any power generated by the radio, following PTT, until the on-board sequencer has completed it's transmit turn-on functions. This signal is released at event 3 of the on-board sequencer.

17. **BIAS**; sequenced amplifier bias power, 12v at up to 300ma provided at event 2

18. **Event 1**; a pull-to-ground connection to the first on-board sequencer event, normally connected to antenna relay return lines.
   - Can switch up to 90v at up to 3 amps

19. **Event 2**; a pull-to-ground connection to the second on-board sequencer event, normally connected to a high current FET switch, which gates VDD power to an amplifier’s RF deck

20. **TP1**; This is a connection to test point 1, and is used to set the fan trigger temperature (aprox. 115F), where the fan will run continuously until the heat sink temperature drops to about 110F. This connection should initially be set to read 3.15K to ground when VR2 is properly adjusted and no other connections are made to the board. This is normally set after the board has been assembled, and before additional testing or installation.
If Q10 is to be used, it is most easily mounted by elevating the board above the mounting surface with 3/16" spacers, passing the leads through the holes in the board from the bottom, and securing with the appropriate mounting hardware prior to soldering in place. The photo below shows a typical mounting. Note the leads on Q10 do not touch the metal mounting surface below them...I made this one uncomfortably close, the leads can be pulled up a bit more before soldering to the board. If you will not be using Q10, you must still elevate the board above conductive mounting surfaces a bit, as there are exposed connections on the back of the board.

Version 6.3 is the same as version 6.2 with the exception of adding the 20-pin header connector, and substituting wire holes in place of the solder-to surface mount connection points.
If the signal is negative, use only jumper J1. If positive, use only jumpers J2 and J3.

This audio oscillator and rectifier generate a negative ALC voltage used to block the output from a driving transmitter or transceiver.

Q6 is a block release switch. It removes the ALC blocking voltage when triggered by event 3 of the sequencer.

Q5 prevents hot-switching antenna relays in the case where the operator might switch the amplifier into bypass mode while still transmitting with the driver. It does this by maintaining supply voltage to the blocking circuit between events 3 and 1, blocking driver output until after event 1 releases the relays.

Event 1 is normally used to switch antenna relays. Designed to pull the relay return line to ground (up to 100V @ 3 amps max).

Event 2 is normally used to switch on amplifier bias (12V bias port provided) and can simultaneously operate other devices, such as a high current FET power switch (used to gate VDD to the amplifier). Designed to pull a control line to ground (up to 28V @ 300 ma max).

Event 3 is used by the control board to block RF from the driving radio at critical times (when antenna relays are switching state). It does this by gating a blocking voltage on the ALC port (normally routed to the ALC input to the driving radio).

This is just a simple Zener diode regulator with a current amplifier (Q10) designed to provide 13.5V from the 24 to 55V rail. If you plan to use this accessory, always use a current limiting resistor in series with the power feed to Q10 to protect against accidental shorts on the 12V rail. Without this current limiting, a short on the low voltage rail will short Q10 and open the Zener, placing 24 to 50V on the 13.5V rail. A 25 ohm 25W resistor is recommended for 50V feeds.

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BUILDING PUSH-PULL, MULTIOCTAVE, VHF POWER AMPLIFIERS

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BUILDING PUSH-PULL, MULTIOCTAVE, VHF POWER AMPLIFIERS

By choosing the right feedback network and wideband transformers, users will have a powerful amp.

WIN FET packages are the heart of a unique, push-pull 300-W power amplifier. With a 50-V power supply, this broadband amplifier is easy to implement, and has excellent impedance-matching characteristics and low DC-current levels.

Applications include low-band and VHF communications base stations, FM broadcast, low-band TV, and certain medical uses. For these uses, a frequency coverage of at least 10 to 175 MHz is required. However, for a particular application, the required bandwidth can be narrowed for increased circuit efficiency.

The development of high-power VHF/ULF power FETs make the amplifier possible. These FETs have recently become available in a push-pull package configuration—commonly called the Gemini. A push-pull Gemini package is a flange-mounted transistor header capable of accommodating two individual transistors—either FETs or bipolar transistors. One of the three transistor electrodes is connected to the normally grounded flange.

On first observation, it seems that a push-pull header would not be as advantageous as separate headers for each transistor. Separate headers provide better thermal distribution, improved circuit design and layout versatility, and higher production yields. The result is lower cost per watt of output power.

In addition, operating parameters of the two transistors in a push-pull header must be closely matched before assembly. If there is even the slightest mismatch in any of the several DC parameters, the device must be rejected. Another drawback of the push-pull header is that the adjacent-transistor configuration results in reduced thermal ratings, leading to a decrease in electrical ruggedness.

But there are important advan-

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1. For this high-power VHF amplifier, separate circuit boards are used for the input and output. The magnetic core has been removed from the output transformer for clarity. Note the thermistor (upper middle) attached to one end of the transistor flange.
HIGH-POWER AMP

Advantages to the push-pull design. For example, the power gain performance of this design is difficult to duplicate in single-ended configurations because power gain is directly related to the emitter- or source-to-ground inductance. Also, in push pull designs, the common-mode inductance is completely insignificant; mutual inductance between each emitter, or source, becomes the critical factor. This mutual inductance is much easier to control and minimize.

There are several different design approaches that can be used for solid-state power amplifiers. A transformer-based push-pull design is the best approach for multioctave devices, but such circuits are not easily implemented for frequency ranges higher than 50 to 100 MHz. If transformers are used, their locations and connecting points, as well as the locations of any associated capacitances, are extremely critical. These parameters must be tightly controlled.

Control of input and output impedances to the matching networks is also required. These impedances must be kept constant over the entire operating range. Internal impedances—which are directly proportional to the frequency—cannot be easily adjusted. However, some designs mitigate the effect of this frequency-dependent internal impedance. These practices include inserting special correcting elements between the matching network and the device, designing the matching networks for the proper impedance-versus-frequency slope, and introducing negative-feedback series resistor-inductor-capacitor (RLC) networks for controlling the feedback over the desired frequency band. Often, the negative-feedback technique is used with special, correcting-element techniques.

Negative feedback is the output voltage returned to the input at 180 deg. out of phase. In series RLC networks, the series resistor limits the overall amount of feedback voltage and also lowers the Q of the inductor. The capacitance is mostly used for DC blocking.

With these networks, the series inductive reactance results in phase lag. This phase lag is maximum at high frequencies, where the effect of the negative feedback is the least. As a result, the out-of-phase voltage must be obtained from either side of the push-pull circuit—or through a specially designed network—which allows the impedance of the voltage source to be optimized.

A resistive network eliminates the reduced efficiency of the feedback power. This power is dissipated in the series resistor. Power loss can be considerable—up to 15 percent at the low end of the spectrum—where the feedback is highest.

Another factor in negative-feedback system design is that the out-of-phase feedback voltage must be injected after the input-matching network. This will not affect the device input impedance, but it will lower the load impedance to the input-matching network. Also, there will be an additional load to the device output at low frequencies, where the output impedance is higher and less reactive.

In addition to the correct use of negative feedback, the basis for good, multioctave, RF power-amplifier design is well-designed wideband transformers and correct matching elements. With proper design, this combination yields a low-input circuit VSWR over many octaves and results in a system with level power output.

Proper push-pull design requires a noncritical, source-to-ground inductance that provides a DC current path. This allows the circuit board to be split into two sections: an input
and an output board (Fig. 1). The input section carries the input-matching network and part of the gate-bias circuit.

The first parts of the bias circuit—the output matching network and the drain-source voltage \( V_{DS} \) filtering and bypassing components—are mounted on the output board. This configuration allows each board to be changed independently for matching-network modifications or for other purposes. Furthermore, the input matching is almost identical for a 28-V power-supply counterpart, requiring the change of only one chip capacitor and the output board (Fig. 2).

Component locations can be seen in Fig. 3. The board material is G10, which is adequate for frequency ranges as high as 200 to 250 MHz, especially since no high-Q elements are incorporated. For a two-sided board, the lower side is a continuous ground plane, although not necessarily in all locations. This means that no through-holes are provided for components such as resistors, trimpots, and inductors. These components—as well as chip capacitors and wideband transformers—must be surface-mountable. The total number of feedthroughs to the bottom ground plane is 16.

Gate-bias voltage is obtained from the main DC supply voltage through two voltage dividers. The first divider includes a trimpot for the bias adjustment. The second divider accommodates a thermistor-resistor combination \( R_T, R_s \) for temperature stabilization of FET biases. Without this stabilization, the drain idle current would have an approximate temperature coefficient of +15 mA/°C. With this temperature coefficient, idle current would increase by a factor of three if the case temperature was doubled.

The FET and circuit boards are mounted on a milled copper plate, measuring 115 x 75 x 6 mm. Input/output SMA-type connectors are mounted at the end of this plate. The result is a self-contained, single-structure that can be fastened to a properly cooled heatsink. In laboratory tests, the copper plate—called the heat spreader—was pressed against an air-cooled heatsink by its own weight with a thermal compound interface. The \( V_{DS} \) feed circuitry consists of standard high-and low-frequency filtering and bypassing. In Fig. 2, it is clear that components \( L_1 \) and \( C_7 \) handle the high-frequency end; the low-frequency end is handled by the \( L_6, C_6 \) components.

Normally it is desirable to filter down to very low frequencies to prevent any RF energy from feeding back to the power supply, in case of load mismatches and instabilities. But this type of filtering applies primarily to single-ended circuits. In push-pull circuits, the DC feed is usually at a balanced point, with no RF potential. In this push-pull circuit, such an elaborate filtering network is not necessary, except when partially damaged devices cause excessive unbalances between the two sides.

**IMPEEDANCE MATCHING**

Input- and output-impedance matching is done with unique wideband transformers (Figs. 4 and 5).\(^1\) Advantages of using these transformers include DC isolation between the primary and secondary turns, automatic balanced-to-unbalanced functions, and compact size vis-a-vis the power-handling capability. The principle is the same as in ordinary low-frequency transformers. However, the tight coupling coefficient is achieved between the transformers’ windings by the use of a low-impedance transmission line, in this case, semirigid coaxial cable.

The low-impedance side always has one turn, and consists of parallel, connected segments of the coax outer conductor. The high-impedance side has inner conductor segments that are connected in series. This arrangement permits only integer impedance ratios that are perfect squares, such as 1, 4, 9, and 16. The coupling coefficient between the primary and secondary turns can be controlled by varying the coax impedance. The optimum line impedance formula, Eq. 1, also applies to the transmission-line transformers:

\[
Z_0 = \sqrt{R_s \cdot R_f}^{1/2}
\]  

(1)

High line impedance results in loss of high frequency response, whereas a very low impedance would further lower the \( R_s \) at the middle frequencies (see table).

There is a trade-off between the cable diameter and the length of the board. Depending on where the lines
are stacked, using large-diameter cable results in less-definable connection points to the low-impedance winding. This results in an increased leakage inductance. The areas of the coax inner conductor—where the winding series connections are made—are uncontrollable and contribute to the leakage inductance.

In an optimum configuration, the low-impedance winding connection points should be brought together as close as possible. This minimizes the lengths of the uncovered inner-conductor segments, but the physical format would be difficult to accomplish.

The optimum value for the $R_p$ would be exactly 12.5 $\Omega$, with a high value for the $X_p$. In fact, if $X_p$ is equal to, or greater than, the high-impedance termination, it can be omitted. Then, only the $R_p$ becomes the determining factor. The worst case is at 100 MHz, at which the $R_p$ is low and the $X_p$ is high (see table).

This means the transformer ratio is greater than 1:1 at that frequency, resulting in a dip in the drain efficiency. It is the result of the leakage inductance and can be observed at frequencies as low as 50 MHz. The compensation capacitor, $C_p$, is optimized at 175 MHz, but its influence diminishes at 130 to 150 MHz. Despite all of this, the overall performance of the transformer was considered satisfactory.

Variations of the output impedance with frequency, compared to those of the input, are usually several times smaller. Therefore, impedance-sloping networks are rarely seen. Such networks should be able to handle high RF currents and voltages and would be difficult to design with low losses. Negative feedback, however, tends to present an artificial load to the device output and it can be designed to decrease with device power.

The parallel, equivalent gate-to-gate input impedance of the push-pull network is 1.25 - J 3.12 $\Omega$ at 175 MHz, making the normalized impedance value equal to 3.97 $\Omega$. At 10 MHz, the normalized impedance would be 15.7 $\Omega$. At 175 MHz, a 16:1 impedance ratio would result in a closer input-impedance match, but it was decided that a 9:1 ratio would provide a closer match at lower frequencies. The high end can be corrected with an adjustment of $C_1$ and $C_2$. At 10 MHz, the input transformer would see a 15.7 $\Omega$ load, which represents a VSWR of almost 5:1.

Therefore, if no correction network or feedback is employed, negative feedback will level the power gain as well. But, with simple RLC networks, only the high-end low-frequency ends can be equalized, leaving a “hump” at the middle frequencies. In most cases, this hump is only 2 to 3 dB—tolerable for most applications. The series resistor should lower the $Q$ of the inductor. But real optimization requires a variable source for the feedback voltage. The feedback resistor values can also be calculated.

A simplified model of the feedback network can be seen in Fig. 6. Only the series inductor, which is used to shape the gain slope, is omitted. This inductor can be treated as an additional variable. Its value for the spectrum in question would be lower than the minimum limit achievable with the physical layout, regarding the minimum lead lengths. In other words, the model only allows the calculation of the feedback resistor values at a single frequency. In most instances, the minimum series inductor is limited by the physical size of the circuitry. Ideally, its reactance should be infinite at the high end of the band and should be zero at 10 MHz. From the data sheet and by simple calculations, it is possible to obtain the following values:

- $G_{ps}$ at 10 MHz = 26 dB.
- $G_{ps}$ at 175 MHz = 16 dB (lowered to 15 dB with feedback).
- $P_{in}$ (1) (f = 10 MHz, $P_{out} = 300$ W) = 0.75 W, $V_{in}$ (RMS) = 2.05 V ($V_g$).
- $P_{in}$ (2) (f = 175 MHz, $P_{out} = 300$ W) = 9.50 W, $V_{in}$ (RMS) = 7.29 V ($V_g$).
- $V_g$ = RMS output voltage (drain to drain) = -61.25 V.
- $R_f$, $R_g$ (transformer source and gate-to-gate impedances) = 5.5 $\Omega$.
- $R_b$ = feedback resistor.
- $R_o$ (output load) = 12.5 $\Omega$.

The value of the feedback resistor is given by:

$$R_f = \frac{V_2 + V_3}{\left(\frac{V_1}{R_1} - \frac{V_2}{R_2}\right)} - R_4$$

$$= 48.3 \Omega \text{ (each resistor)} \quad (2)$$

Total power dissipated ($R_s$ and $R_o$) = 63.28 × 0.58 = 36.70 W, or 18.35 W per resistor. The values can be rounded to 50 $\Omega$, allowing the use of stock resistors. The resistors used here are rated for 25 W. They have a one-sided flange for heatsinking purposes, which is mounted on 0.35 × 0.35 × 4-mm-high copper blocks in each end of the FET. Holes are provided through the blocks, and common screws are used to mount the resistors and the FET.

The purpose of the copper blocks is to conduct the heat away from the resistors to the heatsink through the ends of the FET flange and to raise their height to more than the top surface of the ceramic lids of the FET, allowing the resistors to be mounted directly on $\omega_p$ of each lid. This design provides the shortest path between the drain and the gate, still leaving about 20 mm of lead length, which is the practical minimum for the series inductance.

On the top of one of the resistor flanges, fastened with the common resistor-FET mounting screw, is a solder lug into which one end of a thermistor (Rt) has been attached. Together with $R_t$, it tracks the FET gate-threshold voltage variations with the FET flange and heatsink temperature. Similar thermistors come in pill or cylinder forms, and are 3 to 4 mm in diameter and 4 to
5 mm long. Normally they have wires soldered to each end, of which one was removed and replaced with the solder lug. The lug is the electrical contact to the ground and the thermal contact to the heatsink. Thermistors with similar mounting may be commercially available.

Since the output-load impedance is fixed and set for a nominal 12.5 Ω, the optimum supply voltage would be approximately 45 V for the best combination of drain efficiency and saturated power. If good linearity is required, higher voltage will give better results. In most applications, such as single sideband (where the duty cycle is low), the efficiency is less important. Other factors that affect efficiency are the amount and type of magnetic material in the output transformer, the amount of negative feedback introduced, and the magnitude of drain idle current.

It would be difficult to design an amplifier covering the 1-to-175-MHz range in one segment, since highly permeable magnetic material is excessively lossy at VHF. Transmission-line transformers would allow multiturn windings and the use of material with lower permeability, but could easily lead to excessive physical line length. For extremely broadband designs, a low overall efficiency must be accepted, as well as reduced power output from the specified device values. In such cases, efficiencies of 40 to 45 percent are typical.

However, if the band is split into segments such as 1 to 75 MHz and 75 to 175 MHz, magnetic material in the output transformer is not required for the high segment, resulting in 10-to-15-percent higher efficiency. Amplifiers, for even narrower bandwidths such as the 88-to-108-MHz FM broadcast band, have been designed with efficiencies up to 70 percent using the same devices and design technique.

Some power is absorbed by the feedback networks at the high end of the band as a result of the finite reactance of the series inductances. The reactance decreases in proportion with the frequency and reaches its minimum value at the lowest frequency of operation, which is where maximum power loss due to feedback occurs. The numbers previously determined from the feedback resistor calculations permits a determination: The power loss is $P_{\text{in}} - P_{\text{out}} = 1 + 36.7 W = 45.45 W$, which converts to 7.5 percent, assuming 50-percent initial efficiency.

Linear amplifiers usually operate at a lower efficiency than amplifiers designed for CW or FM service. For good linearity, the output-matching network is designed for a higher transform ratio than that which is optimum for efficiency, which also results in higher saturated power output. Linearity is affected by the amount of quiescent idle current as well, of which a certain amount is always required. In a FET amplifier, going from class B to class C has a larger effect on efficiency than in a bipolar design, since the gate threshold voltage is usually higher than the base-emitter forward voltage. Zero gate voltage would lower the amplifier's power gain, but would also increase its efficiency by more than that accounted for by the idle current, and could actually be thought of as setting the operating point closer to class D.

Stability is a concern with all solid-state amplifiers. It is easier to achieve with FETs than bipolar transistors, mainly due to a higher ratio of feedback capacitance to input impedance. The "half $f_r$ oscillation" phenomenon is unknown with FETs, since the nonlinear diode junctions are not present. However, at low frequencies the FET input impedance is almost a pure capacitance with high reactance, resulting in extremely high power gain. If the FET gate is not properly terminated due to input mismatches, low-frequency instabilities may take place—especially if the frequency response of the input circuit is low enough to sustain the activity.

For push-pull RF FET amplifiers, the two gates must have sufficient isolation between each other at the frequency at which the device internal capacitances, wirebond inductions, and external inductions resonate. If the gate inductance is low compared to the device's internal inductions, oscillations at the resonant frequency will occur.

Depending on the exact conditions and device type, relatively low-level parasitic oscillations can occur; in worst-case scenarios, a latching-type condition will destroy the FET instantly. This can be prevented by lowering the Q of the resonant circuit with series resistance or inductance at the gates. Unfortunately, this seriously affects the high frequency performance of the amplifier. A more practical solution is simply to load the input transformer itself with magnetic material, which in this design is required to extend the frequency response down to 10 MHz in any case, and would be required for any amplifier of this type regardless of the frequency range.

The input VSWR can be optimized for lower frequencies by increasing the value of $C_2$ and adjusting $C_1$ (Fig. 2). The optimum value for $C_2$ at 150 MHz is approximately 180 pF.
HIGH-POWER AMP

Its location, which is critical, should be inside $T_1$ (Fig. 3). The $C_3$ capacitor should be soldered in place before the mounting of $T_1$. Some designers allow a fair amount of input reflected power at low frequencies to compensate for excessive power gain. However, this may result in instabilities with the driver, unless biased into class A.

In this design, the input and output magnetic cores are heatsunk to the copper heat spreader. In the case of E- and I-type cores, the I section is pressed flat against the heat spreader, and the E section is cemented to it through a rectangular opening in the circuit board. Since the cemented joints have high thermal resistance, this is not a perfect way to remove the heat from the core, but it lowers the temperature by 20 to 30°C from no cooling at all. Cooling is only necessary for certain types of ferrites with low Curie points. The powdered iron transformer core does not have a Curie point in that sense and can be operated at high temperatures without changes in its magnetic properties.

The efficiency is lowest with full bandwidth and high supply voltage. Although the data was taken under CW conditions, continuous operation of the unit is not recommended, except with reduced duty cycle such as SSB or linear pulse. For applications above 50 to 70 MHz, it is recommended that no magnetic material is inserted in $T_2$ (Fig. 6). This applies especially to FM and other CW modes, at which the unit should be run at reduced power levels and voltages. At full power output (Fig. 7) and worst-case efficiency, power dissipation gets dangerously close to the derated limit, assuming a 60- to 70°C flange temperature.

Overtightening the device mounting screws will bow the relatively thin and long flange. Split lockwashers should be used, with enough mounting torque to fully compress the washer. Silicone thermal compound must be applied to the flange/heat-spread interface. A thin layer wiped only to the flange bottom is sufficient and will spread evenly under the pressure. This interface, the mounting torque, and the flatness and type of mounting surface are some of the most important aspects in high-power transistor amplifier design because heat is the number one enemy of any solid-state device. ●●

References

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