# RF and Microwave Components in LTCC 

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#### Abstract

Low Temperature Co-fired Ceramic (LTCC) technology is a multi-layer ceramic process that can be used to fabricate low cost, high performance RF and microwave components. It is an extremely versatile technology that can be used to realise a wide range of components from simple passive filter structures and packages to complex sub-system assemblies containing discrete SMT (Surface Mount Technology) components, bare die and printed passives. This paper presents an overview of the LTCC fabrication process and details an on-going programme of work aimed at providing the detailed RF characterisation data that designers require in order to fully exploit the benefits of the technology. Measured material characterisation data is presented for a number of different LTCC substrate materials and metallisations. Two different band-pass filter structures, one at 2.4 GHz the other at 28 GHz , have been developed to assess the accuracy of the characterisation data. Details of the design, layout and measured performance of these filters is also presented.


## Overview of LTCC Technology

LTCC technology is a multi-layer ceramic process. The ceramic layers are tape-cast in their pre-fired "green-state" and the tape is cut to the required size. Registration holes, via holes and cavities are then punched or drilled into the different tape layers. The via holes are normally filled, often with silver, and then thick film processing is used to print metallisation patterns on each, or selected tapes. When thick film processing is used, the minimum line width/gap is around $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. If finer line geometries are required a photo-imagable process can be used [1]. The different layers are then inspected, registered and laminated and then co-fired at around $850^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Post fire processing of the top layer is also an option that is sometimes used.

This description of the LTCC process makes it sound similar to conventional multilayer circuit boards fabricated using laminate materials such as FR4. However, LTCC has a number of advantages:

- Lower loss dielectric (lower tan $\delta$ )
- Better controlled dielectric properties ( $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{r}}, \tan \delta$ and thickness)
- It is well suited to producing modules in low-cost SMT packages, including BGA topologies
- LTCC processes can produce modules, which are well suited to incorporating bare die. Cavities and integral heat-sinks can be easily realised
- Many processes allow the integration of printed passive components (resistors, capacitors and inductors)

A 3-dimensional image of an LTCC assembly incorporating a bare die, SMT components and integrated passive is shown in Figure 1.


Figure 1: LTCC substrate with integrated passives
Some of the advantages of LTCC listed above (lower tan $\delta$ and better control of dielectric properties) can also be achieved with traditional thick film processes. In this case it is the other features of LTCC that provide advantages:

- Layers are produced in parallel resulting in reduced costs and increased yields
- There is only a single firing operation (taking around 4 hours) so reducing production time and cost
- Each layer can be inspected prior to stacking, which also improves yield
- Multiple layer structure allows the realisation of innovative printed structures such as baluns and filters [2] and facilitates miniaturisation

There are obviously also perceived disadvantages to LTCC and amongst those sited are:

- Many processes are not mature and much process development is still ongoing
- RF characterisation data, for both the integral passive components and the material itself, are not readily available
- During the firing process there is tape shrinkage of between $12 \%$ and $16 \%$ occurs in the X and Y dimensions and slightly more in the Z

The shrinkage is often sited, by proponents of alternative processes, as the main drawback to using LTCC. However, with well-controlled processes the shrinkage can be kept within a narrow window, provided the metal loading across the tape is balanced. Some manufacurers are also developing "zero-shrink" LTCC processes.

With respect to the lack of RF characterisation data, the work described here is evidence that at least one supplier is attempting to change this. It should be noted that
not mean that LTCC based RF components for volume applications don't exist. Figure 2 shows a power amplifier (courtesy of Ultra RF) for use in base station applications.


Figure 2: LTCC RF power amplifier module for base station applications (courtesy of Ultra RF)

## Material Characterisation

The important material parameters of a substrate material for RF and microwave applications are dielectric constant, $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{r}}$ (relative permittivity) and loss tangent, tan $\delta$ (dissipation factor). However, the conductor properties and surface roughness of the substrate material must also be considered for optimum performance/cost tradeoff. Dielectric constant and loss tangent can be determined using a number of different methods as discussed in [3]. The technique selected for the characteristation described here was to fabricate and evaluate microstrip ring resonators [4].

Most RF and microwave LTCC components utilise printed transmission lines and microstrip ring resonators can be conveniently fabricated and measured. Preliminary evaluation data, described in [5], was used as the basis for the ring resonator design. Rings with fundamental resonant frequencies of $1 \mathrm{GHz}, 2 \mathrm{GHz}, 3 \mathrm{GHz}, 4 \mathrm{GHz}$ and 5 GHz were produced. A photograph of one set of the ring resonators is shown in Figure 3. Also shown in the photograph is a Through Reflect Line (TRL) calibration tile, which is used to calibrate out the effects of the test jig [6]. A photograph of the commercially available test jig, which is suitable for use up to 50 GHz , is shown in Figure 4.


Figure 3: Photograph of the ring resonators and TRL calibration tile


Figure 4: Photograph of test jig

As ring resonators get smaller, they can exhibit problems associated with increased radiation and coupling across the ring. In order to avoid such problems 5 GHz was the highest frequency ring fabricated. Characterisation data above 5 GHz can be obtained by measuring the harmonic resonances of the rings.

It should be remembered that microstrip transmission lines are dispersive. This means that the (effective) dielectric constant, for signals propagating on the transmission line, varies with frequency. The thicker the substrate the more dispersive it is, which effectively sets an upper limit on substrate thickness and/or maximum operating frequency. All of the ring resonators were fabricated with a substrate thickness of 0.4 mm . For the dielectric materials under consideration, microstrip lines on this thickness of substrate can be considered to suffer from negligible dispersion up to around 25 GHz .

The test tiles have a feed line to the ring resonator then a gap. Energy is capactively coupled into the ring resonator and travels around to the output feedline. The coupling between feedline and resonator is very low, this is required to ensure the resonator can be considered to be "un-loaded". There is a peak in transmission from input to output at frequencies where the circumference of the ring resonator is an integral number of wavelengths long. All feed lines are kept as small as possible to avoid resonances in the feedlines themselves, which could mask the resonant peaks of the rings.

Characterisation was carried out for the following substrate materials:

- Dupont 951
- Dupont 943
- Ferro A6

Two different conductors were considered: gold and silver. The measured insertion loss of all 5 different sizes of resonator is shown in Figure 5 through to Figure 8, for the Dupont 951 substrate with silver metallisation.


Figure 5: Dupont 943, Ag metallisation, 1 GHz resonator


Figure 7: Dupont 943, Ag metallisation, 3GHz resonator


Figure 6: Dupont 943, Ag metallisation, 2 GHz resonator


Figure 8: Dupont 943, Ag metallisation, 4GHz resonator

The resonant frequency of the transmission peaks is used to determine the dielectric constant and the Q of the resonance is used to determine the loss tangent. All of the broadband measurements shown above were used merely to investigate the general trend of the resonator response. For the detailed resonant frequency and Q measurements calibration was carried out over a much narrower band as shown in Figure 10. This allows increased frequency resolution. At frequencies above around 12 GHz , the resonant peaks are no longer visible. This is a result of the coupling from the input to output feedlines across the jig actually


Figure 9: Dupont 943, Ag metallisation, 5 GHz resonator exceeding the coupling through the ring resonator. Thus the resonant peaks of the ring are masked. Alternative structures are currently being investigated to resolve this issue and allow material characteristion to higher frequencies.

At the fundamental frequency of resonance, the circumference of the resonator is one wavelength long. At the $2^{\text {nd }}$ harmonic it is two wavelengths long and at the $3^{\text {rd }}$ harmonic, three wavelengths long and so on. In all cases the wavelength is the guide wavelength $\left(\lambda_{\mathrm{g}}\right)$ of signals propagating on the microstrip transmission line. Given that the mean circumference of the resonator is known, this allows the effective dielectric constant of the microstrip transmission line to be determined using Equation 1. Where C is the speed of light, F the frequency and $\lambda_{\mathrm{g}}$ the wavelength.

Equation 1: $\quad \varepsilon_{e f f}=\frac{c}{\lambda_{g} \cdot F}$

Complex equations are available [7] allowing the relationship between the effective dielectric constant


Figure 10: Close-in plot of the $2^{\text {nd }}$ harmonic of the 4 GHz resonator on Dupont $943, \mathrm{Ag}$ $\left(\varepsilon_{\text {eff }}\right)$ and the relative dielectric
constant $\left(\varepsilon_{\mathrm{r}}\right)$ to be determined. However modern RF CAD packages have transmission line calculators, which allow the value of $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{r}}$ to be determined much more conveniently and this was the approach adopted for this work.
The measured $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{r}}$ (determined as described above) for the Dupont 943 material is plotted against frequency in Figure 11 and Figure 12. Results from all five resonators are plotted on a single graph, one chart is from measurements of the silver resonators, the other from measurements of the gold. The agreement in $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{r}}$ determined using the two different metallisations is excellent. There is also a very good correlation between the $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{r}}$ at specific frequencies determined using different resonators.


Figure 11: Measured $\varepsilon_{r}$ of Dupont 943 from Ag metallisation resonators


Figure 12: Measured $\varepsilon_{r}$ of Dupont 943 from Au metallisation resonators

Results of a similar uniformity were obtained for the other materials investigated. Figure 13 summarises the values of $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{r}}$ determined for the different materials. The materials in red were as a result of this work, whilst those in blue are as a result of previous investigations [5].


Figure 13: Summary of $\varepsilon_{r}$ estimates of materials at $\mathbf{6 G H z}$
The loss tangent of the substrate ( $\tan \delta$ ) can be determined from measurement of the Q factor of the resonators. The Q of the ring resonators is simply the ratio of the centre frequency to the 3 dB bandwidth. Because the resonators are only very lightly loaded (low coupling into the resonator) the measured Q is the unloaded $\mathrm{Q}\left(\mathrm{Q}_{0}\right)$. The $\mathrm{Q}_{\mathrm{o}}$ of a microstrip line is given by Equation 2, from [7].

Equation 2: $\quad Q_{o}=\frac{\pi}{\alpha ? \lambda_{g}}$
Where $\lambda \mathrm{g}$ is the guide wavelength (of the microstrip line) at the frequency of interest and $\alpha$ is the total loss (in nepers per unit length). If losses are split into conductor losses $\left(\alpha_{c}\right)$ and dielectric losses $\left(\alpha_{d}\right)$ then $Q_{o}$ can be expressed by Equation 3:

Equation 3: $\frac{1}{Q_{o}}=\frac{\alpha_{c} ? \lambda_{g}}{\pi}+\frac{\alpha_{d} ? \lambda_{g}}{\pi}=\frac{1}{Q_{c}}+\frac{1}{Q_{d}}$
The loss tangent $(\tan \delta)$ is the reciprocal of $\mathrm{Q}_{\mathrm{d}}$, thus we can rearrange Equation 3 to give an expression for tan $\delta$, as shown in Equation 4:

Equation 4: $\quad \operatorname{Tan} \delta=\frac{1}{Q_{o}}-\frac{\alpha_{c} ? \lambda_{g}}{\pi}$
Qc is calculated from the metal properties of the conductor and knowledge of its thickness and surface roughness, which is $0.8 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Once again the transmission line calculator of a modern RF CAD package was used as a convenient means of making this calculation.

Figure 14 shows the measured unloaded Q of the silver Ferro A 6 resonators versus frequency. The correlation between the unloaded Q of the different resonators at specific frequencies, is very good. Figure 15 is a similar graph for the gold Ferro A6
resonators. The value of the unloaded Q has dropped as a result of the lower conductivity of the gold compared to the silver.


Figure 14: Unloaded Q of Ferro A6 resonators, Ag metallisation


Figure 15: Unloaded Q of Ferro A6 resonators, Au metallisation

The spread in the measured unloaded Q values of Figure 14 and Figure 15 due in part to the variation of conductor width and thickness. This is limitation of the thick film process. The tolerance on line width is $\pm 12 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and the conductor thickness is between $9 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $11 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. This degree of variation can cause a unit to unit variation in the absolute value of measured Q of around $\pm 5$. Taking a line of best fit through the measured Q data, the loss tangent versus frequency was determined using the method described above. The resulting loss tangent versus frequency is plotted for the Dupont 951 and Ferro A6 materials in Figure 16. The values determined using both the silver and gold resonators are plotted on the same graph and the agreement is very good. This gives increased confidence in the validity of these results.


Figure 16: Measured loss tangent for Ferro A6 and Dupont 951 resonators, using Au and Ag resonators

Results of a similar uniformity were obtained for the other materials investigated. Figure 17 summarises the values of $\tan \delta$ determined for the different materials. The materials in red were as a result of this work, whilst those in blue are as a result of previous investigations [5].


Figure 17: Summary of measured $\tan \delta$ for different materials

## RF and Microwave Component Realisation

Two band-pass filters have been designed for a range of the LTCC tape systems. One of these addresses the Bluetooth/ISM frequency band from 2.4 to 2.483 GHz . The other is a mm-wave design centred on 28 GHz .

## Bluetooth/ISM Filter

Filters for the 2.4 GHz ISM/Bluetooth frequency band were designed for several of the different material systems. The design is a three-section capacitively loaded tapped combline type. A photograph of one of the filters is shown in Figure 18. The design uses 0402 ceramic SMT capacitors, which are attached to the completed LTCC tile using solder or conductive epoxy. To accurately simulate the performance of this filter it is necessary to include the parasitics of the SMT capacitors and the LTCC vias to ground.


Figure 18: Photograph of the 2.4 GHz BPF (overall tile width $=15 \mathrm{~mm}$ )

Figure 19 shows the measured performance of one of the filters on the Dupont 943 substrate material with gold conductor. Figure 20 is the same filter on the same substrate material but using silver conductor. The increased conductivity of the silver metallisation can be seen to reduce the band centre loss from 1.2 dB to 1.0 dB . These losses also include the $50 \Omega$ input and output track to the filter.


Figure 19: Measured performance of Dupont 943, 2.4GHz BPF, Au metal


Figure 20: Measured performance of Dupont 943, 2.4GHz BPF, Ag metal

A comparison of the measured to modelled performance is shown for the Dupont 943 filter using Au metallisation in Figure 21. All filters exhibited a slightly wider than simulated bandwidth. This is likely to be a result of processing tolerance resulting in a smaller than designed coupling gap. If this sort of variation could not be tolerated in practice, an optically defined top layer metallisation pattern could be used to give improved definition.


Figure 21: Comparison of measured to simulated performance of Dupont 943, 2.4 GHz BPF, Au metallisation

## MM-Wave Filter

A popular printed filter at microwave and mm-wave frequencies is the edgecoupled filter. A four section, 28 GHz version of such a filter has been designed in a number of the tape materials. It would find use in applications such as broadband wireless communications. A photograph of one of the filters is shown in Figure 22. The wide lengths of line at the input and output to the filter are impedance matching sections, which help to ease the requirements for narrow track and gap widths within the filter. The minimum line width and spacing used


Figure 22: Photograph of one 28 GHz BPF (overall tile width $=15 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) was $160 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, which can be conveniently fabricated using thick film processing. The overall size was approximately $3 \mathrm{~mm} \times 6 \mathrm{~mm}$, depending up on substrate material.

The measured versus modelled performance for one of the 28 GHz filters is shown in Figure 23. The design is on frequency with an insertion loss of just under 1.5 dB , slightly lower than simulated.


Figure 23: Measured versus simulated performance of millimetre-wave filter in Dupont 951, silver metallisation

## Conclusions

LTCC is well suited to realising compact, multi-function RF and microwave modules. These can include, bare die, SMT components and printed passives such as filters, couplers and baluns. The technology is capable of low cost, high volume manufacture.

This paper has presented material characterisation techniques and measured results for a number of LTCC tape materials. It has also detailed the design and measured performance of 2.4 GHz and 28 GHz band-pass filters. A comparison of the material properties of a range of LTTC tape systems and some well-known, commercially available RF and microwave substrate materials is presented in Table 1.

| Material | $\varepsilon_{\mathbf{r}}$ | Tan $\delta$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| FR4 | $4^{*}$ | 0.025 |
| Rogers RO4003 | $3.38 \pm 0.05$ | 0.0027 |
| Rogers RT/Duroid 5880 | $2.20 \pm 0.02$ | 0.0009 |
| $99.6 \%$ Alumina | 9.9 | 0.0004 |
| Dupont 951 | 7.85 | 0.0063 |
| Dupont 943 | 7.5 | 0.002 |
| Ferro A6 | 5.7 | 0.0012 |
| Heraeus CT800 | 7.68 | 0.0039 |
| Emca T880B | 7.94 | 0.0063 |
| Motorola T2000 | 9.09 | 0.0026 |

*Varies significantly from supplier to supplier
Table 1: Summary of substrate material properties
Although the LTCC materials don't exhibit the very low loss tangents of high purity ceramics they are never the less, low loss materials. This fact combined with the advantages of the multi-layer structure, printed passives and low cost processing mean that LTCC has much to offer for the realisation of RF and microwave components.

## References

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