

# Outline of EMC Design Methods

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## 1 | What is EMC Design?

This chapter outlines the latest EMC design methods for electronic circuits. As the basics described in references [1] to [4] are still current, many areas of EMC design have not changed, but because frequency bands have increased in width, more attention needs to be paid to further details (see [5]). Because EMC phenomena are complicated part of the EMC problem has not been clarified sufficiently. Therefore, people often attempt to explain invisible things as if they had really seen them or explain them with personification. EMC engineers are required to judge whether an explanation is reasonable (whether it has enough evidence to support it) and whether the explanation can be applied to their individual situation. These requirements may be the very heart of the EMC problem.

In order to reduce malfunctions and the performance deterioration of electronic devices caused by noise, measures need to be taken by both noise generators and noise receivers. A measure for suppressing noise emitted from a generator or a damage-causing system is called a “countermeasure against emission” and a measure for decreasing entries of noise into a receiver or a damage-suffering system and preventing malfunctions caused by noise that has entered is called a “countermeasure for immunity” (Figure 1). The term “EMC (Electro-Magnetic Compatibility)”<sup>\*1</sup> means that these two measures need to be simultaneously and effectively applied at the same time, and that a system with no failure must be realized in any environment.

**Figure 1 Classification of EMC Countermeasures**



## 2 | Countermeasures for Immunity

From the viewpoint of noise resistance, circuits that handle faint analog signals, such as sensors, are most in need of countermeasures for immunity. Generally, analog circuits are easily damaged by noise and digital ones are not. This means

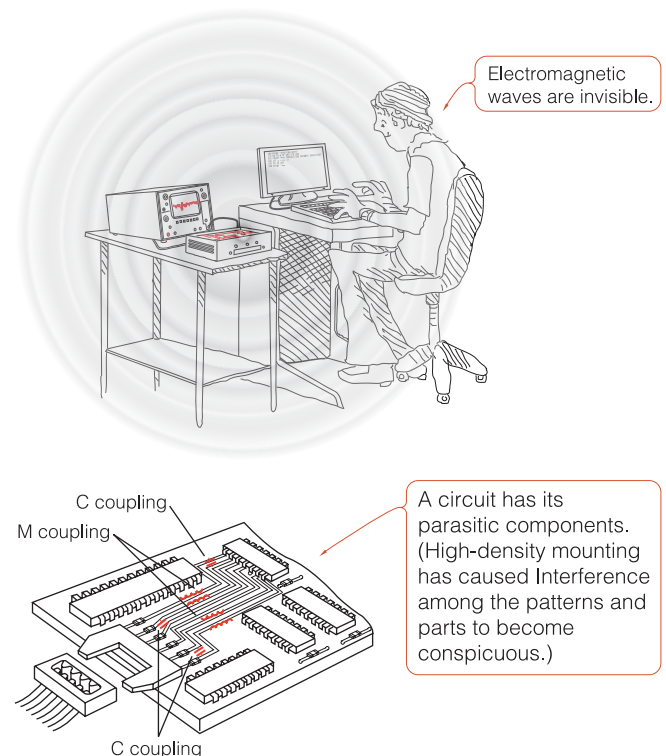
ironically that digital signals have high-frequency components as their harmonics and they can be noise sources. Therefore, analog circuits need to be placed away from digital and switching circuits. In addition, normally, the same grounding cable should not be used for the three types of circuits. On the other hand, as their drive voltage lowers digital circuits also tend to be affected by noise and therefore malfunction easily.

Recently, as electronic devices have become lighter, thinner, and more compact, they are touched more by users and the problem of static electricity has become a focus for countermeasures for immunity. Countermeasures against static electricity are described in a later chapter.

## 3 | Countermeasures against Emission

Because conduction noise has a low frequency, a relatively conventional measure such as the insertion of a filter to prevent the noise being conducted can be applied. Emission noise however, is difficult to deal with because electromagnetic waves are invisible (Figure 2) and difficult to measure. Furthermore, because emission noise has a high frequency, parasitic

**Figure 2 When a Frequency Becomes Higher**



<sup>\*1</sup> There is a similar term “EMI (Electro-Magnetic Interference),” which was formerly called “RFI (Radio Frequency Interference).” EMI refers to problems caused by electromagnetic noise. Countermeasures against EMI, EMC, and general noise can mean much the same, but the term “EMI” is sometimes used to mainly mean emission.

components<sup>\*2</sup> and resonance become conspicuous, which makes it difficult to find the reason for the emission noise being generated. However, there are some ironclad rules to observe in handling emission noise. The following explains how to handle noise from the viewpoints of (1) noise-generating source, (2) transmission route, and (3) antenna (for emission noise).

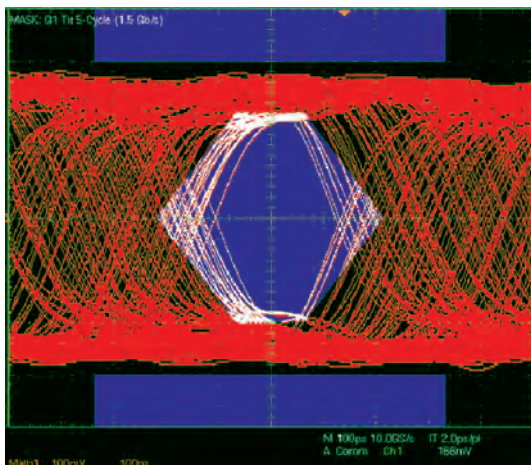
### ● Measure to be Taken at a Noise-generating Source

The best measure is to ensure the generation of no noise. But, normally, this is not very easy to do. One man's signal is another man's noise. Therefore, as second best, a measure needs to be taken near a noise-generating source and such methods are listed in the next section (transmission route).

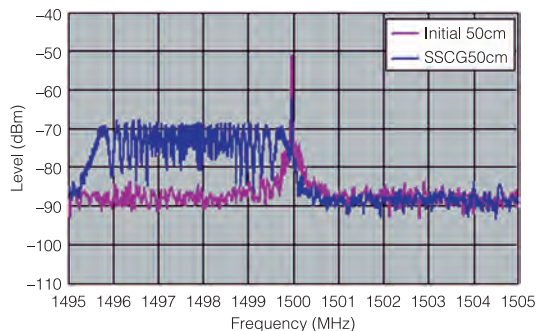
An entirely different method than those mentioned above that may be used for a noise-generating source is Spread Spectrum Clocking (SSC). This method handles a digital signal by introducing a degree of jitter that does not affect the operation of the circuit (Figure 3). Due to the jitter, the signal spectrum becomes wider, which reduces concentration on a single frequency. Of course, the total noise amount has not decreased, but, if a specific frequency is causing a problem, the problem is solved to some extent.

**Figure 3 What is Spread Spectrum?**

The Eye-pattern of a signal to which SSC has been applied has jitter.



The spectrum of a signal to which SSC has been applied has become wider.



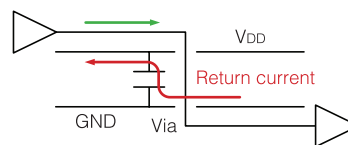
<sup>\*2</sup> Parasitic components include reactance, etc. that are not shown in the circuit diagram. ESL of a capacitor and coupling among patterns are also parasitic components (Figure 2).

### ● Measures to be Taken on a Transmission Route

As measures to be taken on a transmission route, four major elements in EMC designing are available: patterning, grounding, filtering, and shielding.

Problems in patterning and grounding (GND) often include the following: (1) when the parallel wiring is long, crosstalk noise increases, (2) unless characteristic impedance is controlled and appropriate terminal processing is performed, reflection arises, and (3) unless an appropriate return path is secured, signals are disturbed. These are simultaneous problems with EMC and SI (Signal Integrity). It is no exaggeration to say that patterning and grounding are both aspects of the printed-circuit board design itself. For example, when wiring passes through from the surface to the back by vias as shown in Figure 4, the return path needs to be made in the same way. Return paths need to be connected by vias when the same potential is applied between grounding wires and by a capacitor (AC coupling) when different potentials are applied to the power supply and grounding wire (see [6]). If this connection of return paths is not made appropriately, signals not only deteriorate but signals that have passed through a part where return paths are connected by vias may also excite the power supply and the grounding surface, and affect power integrity (from SI to PI).

**Figure 4 Securing of a Return Path**



PI is as important as or even more important than SI. This is because some of the clock frequencies of digital ICs reach GHz order and the conventional careless placement of bypass capacitors of 0.1  $\mu$ F no longer works. However, basic procedures, such as placement of a bypass capacitor very close to an IC, have not changed (see [7]). Recently, bypass capacitors have started to be installed on ICs, interposers, and printed-circuit boards. Such bypass capacitors have a role of localizing noise made from an IC (and supplying voltage to an IC, to put it the other way around). This is why bypass capacitors are also called decoupling capacitors. Because electrostatic capacity values differ, depending on the size of each IC, it cannot be generally said what value is most suitable. However, with clock acceleration, the ESI (Equivalent Series Inductance) required tends to be lower.

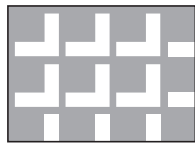
On the other hand, an EBG (Electro-magnetic Band Gap) structure, which is a completely different method, has recently been paid attention to as a measure for PI. In an EBG structure, by incorporating a periodic structure, which includes repeated pattern forming, into the power supply or the GND face (Figure 5), transmission of the electromagnetic waves of specific frequency bands may be prevented (see [8] - [10]). An EBG structure is one type of band rejection filter that has been developed mainly with a longstanding method that was used in waveguide filters (Figure 6).

Now, let's think about shielding. It can be easily imagined that a metal shield cuts off electromagnetic waves and reduces emission noise. However, if the metal shield has a hole in it, its emission noise-reducing effect decreases by half.

The hole functions as a slot antenna and can be a secondary emission source.

**Figure 5 EBG Structure**

A pattern is formed on a plane.



A pattern is formed on a section.



**Figure 6 EBG Structure's Propagation Characteristic**

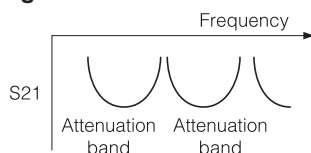
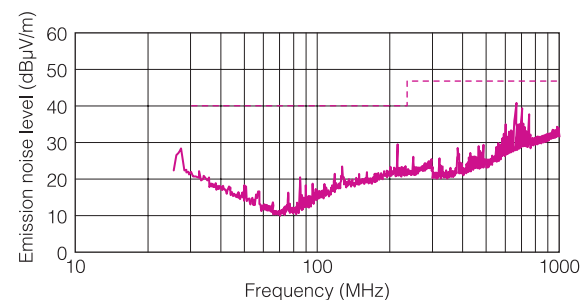
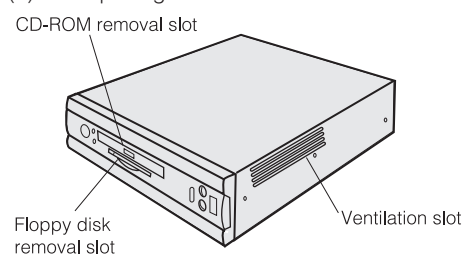


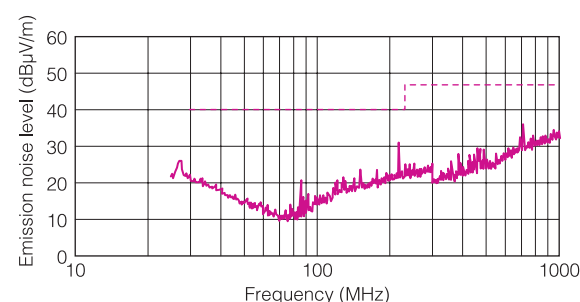
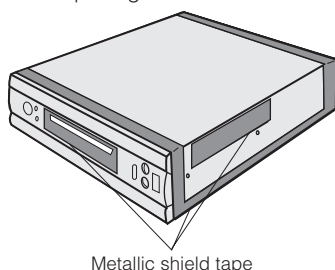
Figure 7 shows the result of an experiment conducted with a personal computer (see [11]). After the holes or openings were covered with metallic shield tape, the noise level around 550 to 750 MHz improved by about 10 dB.

**Figure 7 Effect of a Shield**

(a) With openings



(b) With no opening



A magnetic sheet has an effect similar to that of a metallic shield. A magnetic sheet cuts off electromagnetic waves and absorbs them with the help of ferrite (see a later chapter).

### ● Measure to be Taken against Antennas

Emission noise is also called unnecessary emission and is an electromagnetic wave emitted from an unintended antenna. A candidate for such an antenna is something long or big in terms of radiation efficiency. In many cases, cables connected to equipment can be unintended antennas.

In handling cables so that they do not become unintended antennas, it is common practice to insert a filter to prevent noise from being put onto the cables rather than to apply a direct measure to the cables themselves. Generally, it is not possible to know how a cable, particularly an interface cable is used (whether it is bent or not) or what is connected to the end of the cable. Therefore, a filter is needed to ensure safety. In addition, it is necessary to take into consideration the function of a cable as a receiving antenna. Because an antenna is a reversible passive part, an antenna that easily emits electromagnetic waves can also easily receive them (see [12] and [13]). In such a situation, the role that a filter plays as a countermeasure for immunity is very important. Suppressing noise that enters from a cable is another role of a filter.

A printed-circuit board is the second candidate for an unintended antenna. The areas of the power supply and the GND face in particular are large, and their function as a radiation antenna has recently been regarded as a problem. This is what is called the board resonance problem (see [14] and [15]). As a measure against resonance, there is a method of moving a resonance frequency by changing the position or capacitance value of a bypass capacitor to remove it from the clock harmonics. On the other hand, a more fundamental and effective measure against resonance is to introduce a loss component to a circuit to damp the resonance (see [7]). There are various ways to introduce a loss component, and ESR (Equivalent Series Resistance) of a bypass capacitor is one of them. It appears that an electrolytic-system capacitor often plays such a role although you may not be aware of this function. Recently, the Controlled ESR Capacitor, which is one type of ceramic capacitor, has appeared and plays its part in introducing a loss component (see a later chapter). These capacitors help suppress resonance in circuits that have feedback, such as a switching power supply.

In board resonance, when noise that has been put onto the GND face reaches other circuits, such as other ICs or cables (=antennas) on the same board, it affects them as common mode noise<sup>3</sup>. Therefore, these components need to be given special care when used in transmission routes (from PI to SI).

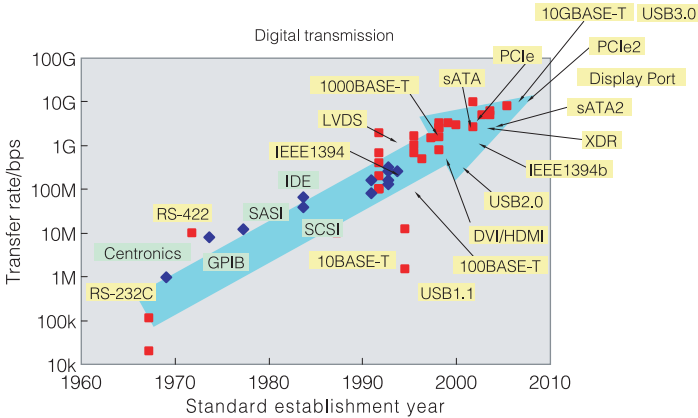
Recently, radiation from an IC itself has attracted attention (see [16]). Because the area of an IC on a board is not small, the effect of the IC cannot be underestimated.

<sup>3</sup> Generally, because the return path of noise is far away in the common mode, the loop area tends to be larger. Therefore, the noise is regarded as a major cause of emission noise (see [3]).

## ● Differential Transmission

In recent years, as a digital signal transmission method, differential transmission (also known as balanced transmission) has been considered. Although the differential transmission method was established a long time ago, recently it has been given more attention with clock acceleration (Figure 8).

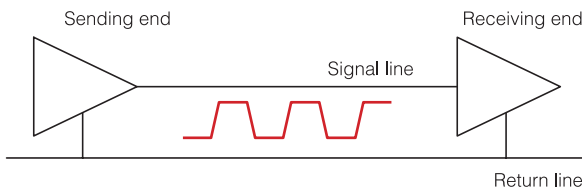
**Figure 8 Accelerated Digital Transmission**



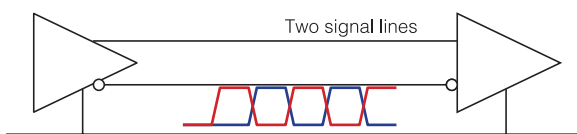
In normal data transmission, the sending and receiving ends are connected by one line, but because one line is needed also for the return path, two lines in total are needed, and high/low voltage is sent. In differential transmission, two lines are used and three lines in total are needed with one line acting as the return path, and two kinds of voltage (high/low and its opposite-direction low/high) are sent (see Figure 9).

**Figure 9 Signal Transmission Methods**

(a) Normal transmission



(b) Differential transmission

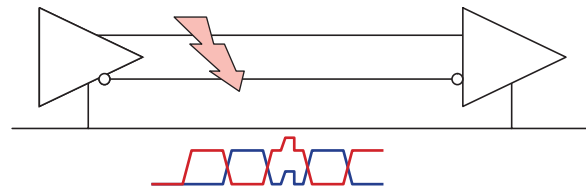


The receiving side detects only the difference between the two kinds of voltage. At this time, because the receiving side only notices the difference, the information amount of the two lines is the same as that of a single line. Therefore, it seems to be uneconomical to have included an additional line, but in this inefficiency, the strength of the differential transmission is hidden (see [17]). In most cases the two lines used in differential transmission are close to each other (for cables, a twisted pair line is often used), and, therefore, when exogenous noise appears, the noise induced in one line is the same in volume as that induced in the other (Figure 10). Therefore, the receiving end is not affected by such noise. Thus, even with a lower amplitude, signals can be sent safely and securely. On the other hand, from the viewpoint of noise radiation, differential

transmission is effective. In differential transmission, an electric current is sent and returns along two lines that are very close to each other. Therefore, when seen from a distance, it appears that no current is run because the two lines offset each other.

In addition, because of the two lines, the low amplitude is reduced by half and the differential transmission's resistance to exogenous noise helps reduce the amplitude and gives an advantage over noise.

**Figure 10 Differential Transmission Resistant to Exogenous Noise**



The differential transmission method that is resistant to noise in this way can be said to be a type of EMC design. However, such differential transmission is not perfect.

If asymmetric factors (any of signals, wirings, and parts) exist in a circuit system, a part of the differential signals is converted into the common mode components (see [18] and [19]). The effect of the conversion appears as signal skew and amplitude variation (SI problem) and it can develop into the EMC problem. Controlling such common mode components is a role of the Common Mode Filter (CMF). While CMF does not stop differential signals from passing, it can reduce common mode components. Using CMF appropriately can help solve the above problems (see [20]). For details of measures for high-speed interfaces, see a later chapter.

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# Classification of EMC Countermeasure Components and Their Roles

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## 1 | What are EMC Countermeasure Components?

### ■ EMC Countermeasure Components as Filters

EMC countermeasure components are electronic components used for EMC countermeasures against noise. Specifically, they are components, such as capacitors and filters, as shown in Figure 1, and the phrase “EMC countermeasure components” is generally used to describe them. Therefore, there are no specific objects called EMC countermeasure components. In addition, among the EMC countermeasure components, there are general-purpose components that are used for other purposes than EMC countermeasures, such as capacitors and coils. However, many of the components are used only for EMC countermeasures. Other than the components shown in the figure, in a broad sense a dumping resistor and a clamp diode can be referred to as EMC countermeasure components. However, because they are used mainly for SI (Signal Integrity), they are not described here.

**Figure 1 Various Types of EMC Countermeasure Components**

(1) Components that separate signals according to their frequencies

Coil	
Bead	
Capacitor	
Three-terminal filter	

(2) Components that separate signals according to their modes

Common mode filter	
Transmission transformer	
Ferrite core	

(3) Components that separate signals according to their amplitudes

Varistor	
Zener diode	

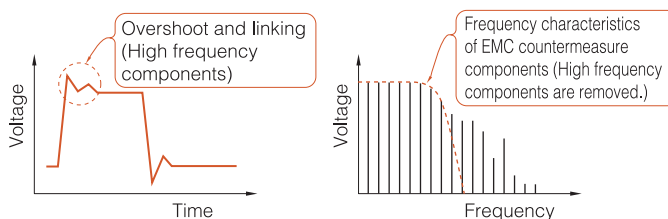
Generally speaking, EMC countermeasure components are regarded as “filters” for separating necessary signals (information) from unnecessary signals (noise). These filters are divided into several types according to their different characteristics.

### ● Separating Signals according to Their Frequencies

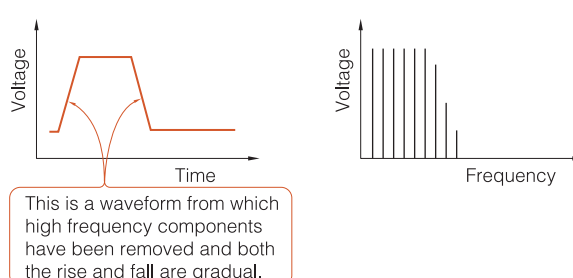
Generally, noise has high frequency components (see a later reference [1]), and, therefore, it can be separated by making use of this characteristic (Figure 2). An EMC countermeasure component in this case can be called an LPF (Low Pass Filter). In Figure 1, a coil, a bead, a capacitor, a three-terminal filter, etc. are classified as LPFs. Because they are LPFs, when they are used a coil and a bead are inserted into a series circuit and a capacitor into a shunt circuit. For obtaining sharper attenuation characteristics, a three-terminal filter can be made by combining a coil, bead, and a capacitor, and an RC filter can be made by

**Figure 2 Components that Separate Unnecessary Signals (noise) according to their Frequencies**

(a) Without EMC countermeasure components



(b) With EMC countermeasure components



combining a resistor and a capacitor (which are both cheap). A filter for an AC power line is typical of such filters, and it can be made by combining a capacitor (X capacitor or Y capacitor) and a common mode filter, which can be replaced by a coil.

Although there is no clear difference between a coil and a bead, a bead becomes lossier in a high frequency band. Because in many cases lossiness works favorably (energy absorption, etc.) as an EMC countermeasure, a bead is preferred, but because a coil causes high inductance, it is used in a relatively low frequency band and in a location where an absolute value is needed.

### ● Separating Signals according to Their Modes

When the transmission mode of noise is different from that of information (necessary signals), noise and information can be separated from each other according to the difference in their mode. For example, in differential transmission, necessary signals are in the differential mode, and, normally, unnecessary components are in the common mode (information may be put in the common mode, depending on standards.) A common mode filter (CMF), ferrite core<sup>\*1</sup> (including a clamp filter), and a transmission transformer<sup>\*2</sup> are components for suppressing such common mode components. They use magnetic coupling in an effective way so that they do not affect the differential mode and act only on the common mode. These components are inserted into series circuits.

### ● Separating Signals according to Their Amplitudes

A varistor and a zener diode do not act on signals with low amplitudes, but they transform themselves into an extremely low resistance when high voltage (noise) occurs, and they prevent the noise from being transmitted. They exert an effect on sudden noise, such as static electricity. These parts are inserted into shunt circuits.

### ■ Classification not Based on the Function of Each Component

Mentioned above is classification based on the function of each EMC countermeasure component, but it is also important to take into account whether the components can be attached additionally. From such a viewpoint, clamp filters, magnetic sheets, etc. are convenient to use. Electronic components, such as beads and CMFs, can be used as necessary if a land is provided beforehand (they need to be connected with a jumper wire when no EMC countermeasure component is used).

In addition, an important point to consider is whether grounding is needed or not. Because a three-terminal filter has a grounding terminal, to deliver its maximum performance it needs to be grounded in the shortest distance to the earth. A capacitor, varistor, and zener diode also need grounding when they are used in shunt circuits. In addition, grounding is often used, although indirectly, for a transmission transformer with an intermediate tap.

<sup>\*1</sup> A ferrite core can be seen as a half-finished product, for example when it has a conducting wire passed through it, it becomes a CMF or a bead.

<sup>\*2</sup> The role of a transmission transformer should be regarded not as a control of the common mode but as insulation. A transformer converts electric energy into magnetic energy once and converts it back into electric energy again, thereby interrupting an electrical path.

Explanations for each component have been omitted here because of space limitations. For more information, see a later chapter or references [2] to [5].

## 2 | Methods of Evaluating EMC Countermeasure Components

### ■ Evaluation Parameters

How do EMC countermeasure components actually have an effect? This chapter describes methods of evaluating them.

The characteristics of a two-terminal component can be expressed as impedance between its terminals as shown in Figure 3 (a). The characteristics of a three- or more-terminal component can also be expressed as impedance if its terminals are connected appropriately so as to be two terminals.

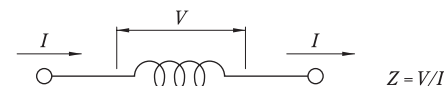
A common mode filter (CMF) is such a filter. The characteristics of a common mode filter are expressed as several types of impedance when its terminals are connected differently (Figure 3 (b)).

Because the characteristics of a component that needs grounding (GND) are difficult to express as impedance, an S parameter is used. The S parameter is used for the three-terminal filter in Figure 1 (Figure 3 (c)). The characteristics of components other than three-terminal filters can be expressed with S parameters if GND is provided appropriately. In this case, attention needs to be paid to the arrangement of components. Coil-system components, such as a bead and a CMF, need to be inserted into series circuits and a capacitor into a shunt circuit (state in which C or L of the three-terminal filter in Figure 3 (c) has been removed) so that their characteristics can be measured.

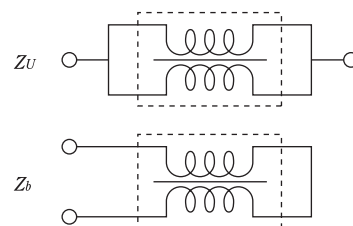
Described below is the outline of impedance. S parameters are explained in another chapter.

**Figure 3 Evaluation Parameters of EMC Countermeasure Components**

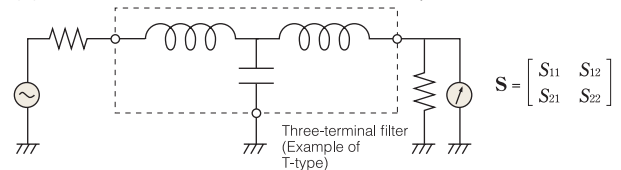
(a) Two-terminal components are evaluated with impedance.



(b) CMFs are evaluated with balanced/unbalanced impedance.



(c) Three-terminal filter is evaluated with S parameters.



### ■ Impedance

For a component that separates signals according to their frequencies, the frequency characteristic of its impedance is significant. It is important to see how the component's impedance changes between the noise's frequency and the (necessary) signal's frequency (Figure 4 (a)).

At this time, the absolute value of the impedance

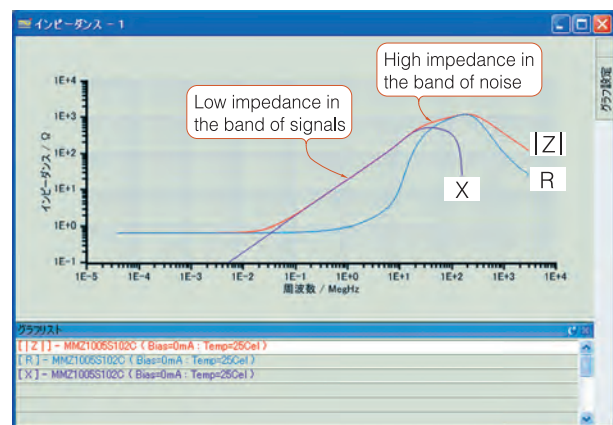
$|Z| = \sqrt{R^2 + X^2}$  is important, but the ratio of R to X of lossy components, such as a bead, needs to be considered. While the ratio of R to X of a lossy component changes according to frequencies, it is safe to think that the pattern of the component is almost unique to its material (magnetic permeability frequency characteristic). Therefore, it is important to select an appropriate magnetic material (product series) to be used in the beads. When ringing is to be suppressed, it is better to select a material that becomes lossy from relatively low frequencies; when high speed is regarded as important, the opposite type of material needs to be used.

On the other hand, the performance of a less lossy component is characterized with reactance  $X$  (or susceptance  $B$ ), and the value obtained from division of the reactance  $X$  or susceptance  $B$  by the angle frequency  $\omega$  is often used. In other words, inductance  $L$  for a coil and capacitance  $C$  for a capacitor are often used. These values are constant, not dependent on frequencies, and therefore, they can be expressed not by a graph but by numerical values (in nH or pF). However, both components have self-resonance (changed from being capacitive to being inductive, and vice versa), and, therefore, when high frequencies are handled, impedance (and its frequency characteristic) needs to be considered again. ESL may sometimes be used as an indicator of self-resonance for capacitors.

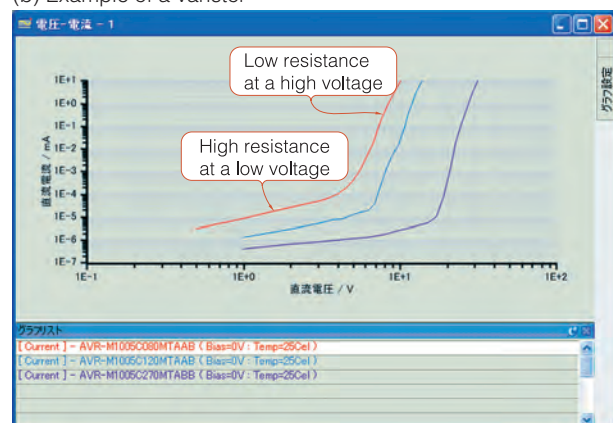
For a component that separates signals according to their amplitudes, the voltage or current characteristic (not frequency characteristic) of its impedance is important. However, for varistors, etc., “voltage vs. current” is graphically displayed conventionally (Figure 4 (b)). In this case, the curves on the graph shows impedance (resistance).

**Figure 4 Impedance Characteristics**

(a) Example of a bead



(b) Example of a varistor



### 3 Points to Note When Selecting an EMC Countermeasure Component

The previous section has described methods of evaluating EMC countermeasure components. This section mentions some points to note when selecting an EMC countermeasure component to be used with a method. Concerning whether an EMC countermeasure component is actually effective, other than the characteristic of the component, the following four items are related: (1) Termination condition, (2) Mounting position and mounting state, (3) Radiation mechanism of radiation noise (from where and how it is radiated), and (4) Surrounding environment including thermal coupling and magnetic coupling.

Therefore, even if you use a good performance component, whether the component has an effect depends on how you use it. Considered here are (1) and (2) of the above four items.

#### (1) Termination condition

Parameters for evaluation, such as impedance and S Parameter have the following characteristics:

► Impedance shows the characteristic of a single component (on the assumption that it is sufficiently away from the GND). Therefore, whether the component is effective depends on a relative evaluation of the terminating impedance. In other words, an absolute judgment cannot be made for such questions as whether the component is effective when its impedance equals or exceeds a certain number of ohms, or whether the component is not effective when its impedance is less than the value. However, it is useful to know the following tendencies: In a high-impedance environment, insertion of a capacitor into a shunt circuit is effective<sup>\*3</sup>. The reason why this is effective is that a relatively large inductance value is needed in order to produce a similar effect when a coil is inserted into a series circuit. Conversely, in a low-impedance environment, insertion of a coil into a series circuit is effective. In addition, when a component is used in low frequencies, its consonants (L value, C value) need to be relatively large. Therefore, the shape of the component tends to be larger. When a component is used in high frequencies, the situation will be reversed.

► On the other hand, when an S Parameter is used, a termination condition is taken into account. However, normally, this is a characteristic when the purely resistant termination is 50 Ω (CISPR17: 1981 and MIL-STD-220B: 2000). Of course, it will be a rare case if the termination is exactly 50 Ω<sup>\*4</sup>, and reactance components also exist.

Then, how can a component's effect on noise be measured directly? If resistive termination is allowable, the S Parameter when the termination is other than 50 Ω can be calculated from the S Parameter when the termination is 50 Ω. Therefore, when the calculated S Parameter is used, the attenuation effect on

<sup>\*3</sup> In this instance, resistive termination is assumed. Another assumption is described later.

<sup>\*4</sup> A matching circuit of differential transmission, etc. is one example of such a rare case, and the S Parameter value itself shows the behavior of a circuit. Therefore, for example, it is an important indicator of the behavior that, in a CMF for high-speed differential transmission, the cutoff frequency of the differential mode (frequency of IS<sub>d021</sub> = 3 dB) is sufficiently high and the characteristic impedance  $Z_{0d}$  is matched.



any (resistive) termination can be estimated. For a concrete calculation method, see the chapter on S Parameter.

If the termination is not resistive, there is no way other than to examine the effect under actual use conditions. Of course, there will be no error if an actual component is soldered and the effect is observed. On the other hand, in a circuit simulation, the effect can be clarified to some extent (in this case, information of impedance and S parameter<sup>\*5</sup> is used).

Figure 5 shows the effect of an EMC countermeasure component measured in a simplified simulation with the “SEAT” software that TDK provides for free. The figure shows a case where, because a reactance component exists in I/O, the attenuation effect that may be expected from an S Parameter when termination is 50 Ω has not been obtained. In such a case, by making the best use of easily repeated trial and error in a simulation, the search for an optimum component can be narrowed down.

## (2) Mounting position and mounting state

Basically, an EMC countermeasure component must be inserted into a noise occurrence location. This will easily produce the expected effect (see [6]) and reduce the risk that noise will diffuse because there is no distance between the component and the location. Concerning static electricity countermeasure components, such as a varistor, it is important to place them as near to the route by which noise enters as possible.

In addition, the I/O position relationship of a component and the way GND is provided also affect the characteristic of the component. It is an ironclad rule that input and output must not be close to each other, and that a component must be grounded within the shortest distance.

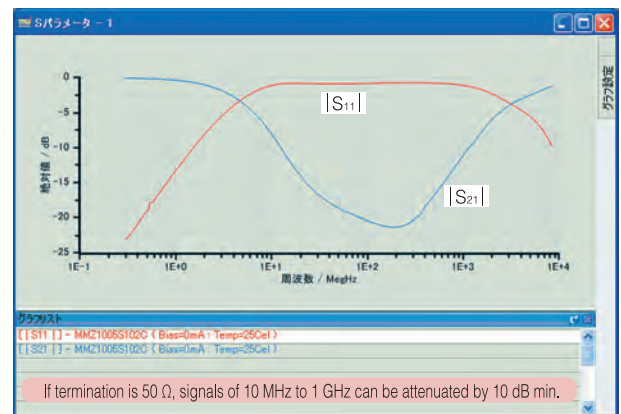
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<sup>\*5</sup> While recent circuit simulators can handle S Parameter more easily, many of the SPICE-series simulators are unable to handle them with no trouble. If your SPICE-series simulator cannot handle S Parameter, either, see PSPICE’s Application Note “Create a S-Parameter Subcircuit for Microwave and RF Applications.”

**Figure 5 Case showing that Insertion of an Inappropriate Component causes a Disordered Waveform.**

(a) S parameter



(b) Simplified simulation with “SEAT”

