

The Finite-Element Method for Modeling Circuits and Interconnects for Electronic Packaging

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Abstract—A full-wave finite-element method (FEM) is formulated and applied in the analysis of practical electronic packaging circuits and interconnects. The method is used to calculate *S*-parameters of unshielded microwave components such as patch antennas, filters, spiral inductors, bridges, bond wires, and microstrip transitions through a via. Although only representative microwave passive circuits and interconnects are analyzed in this paper, the underlined formulation is applicable to structures of arbitrary geometrical complexities including microstrip and coplanar-waveguide transitions, multiple conducting vias and solder bumps, multiple striplines, and multilayer substrates. The accuracy of the finite-element formulation is extensively verified by calculating the respective *S*-parameters and comparing them with results obtained using the finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) method. Computational statistics for both methods are also discussed.

Index Terms—Electronic packaging, finite-element method, interconnects, passive circuits.

I. INTRODUCTION

RECENT advancements in monolithic-microwave integrated-circuit (MMIC) technology resulted in electronic packages of significantly smaller size and a larger number of printed interconnects on the motherboard. Accurate design and optimization of such high-speed high-density microwave circuits and interconnects becomes a major challenge when it comes to high performance and low cost. High-frequency operation is usually the main cause of strong coupling and interference among neighboring transmission lines, thereby affecting the overall electrical performance of the package. The presence of abrupt discontinuities, microstrip bends, bond wires, metallic bridges, and vertical conducting vias results in additional parasitic effects such as radiation and time delays. The major objective of current technology is the design of electronic packages that are optimized to minimize severe parasitic effects without necessarily increasing the cost or the complexity of the manufacturing process.

The existing high demand for the development of more accurate, versatile, and efficient numerical models which can be used in the design and characterization of microwave

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circuits mandates the implementation of full-wave techniques such as the finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) method [1], the spectral-domain approach (SDA) [2], and the finite-element method (FEM) [3]. The FDTD method is probably the most extensively used technique for the analysis of geometrically complex packaging structures. It was initially applied for the evaluation of frequency-dependent parameters of basic microstrip discontinuities [4], [5]. It was later successfully implemented in the analysis of more complex structures such as filters, microstrip transitions, bond wires, bridges, etc. [6], [7]. However, the main drawback of the method is that curved surfaces and nonrectangular volumes are usually modeled using a staircasing approach. The SDA technique is also very popular in the area of microwave-circuit analysis and design. Its main disadvantage though is that it can only handle metallizations in the same plane. Although the method can be extended to treat conducting transitions in the vertical plane [8], it still is restricted to specific types of geometries. On the contrary, the FEM is the most versatile and flexible numerical technique to be used in the analysis of geometrically complicated electronic packaging structures. The introduction of vector finite elements [9], the valuable contributions on absorbing-boundary conditions (ABC's) [10] and the effectiveness of sparse matrix iterative solvers, created a conducive environment for the evolution of the method in the area of computational electromagnetics. The FEM has been extensively used for scattering and radiation problems [11], waveguide propagation problems [12], and analysis of two-dimensional (2-D) MMIC structures [13], [14]. Recently, the method has been applied in the *S*-parameter evaluation of three-dimensional (3-D) MMIC's such as microstrip transitions, planar discontinuities, and conducting vias [15]–[17].

This paper formulates a full-wave analysis and implementation of the FEM to geometrically complex and practical microwave circuits and interconnects. Unlike previous work on the subject [15]–[17], a 2-D eigenvalue analysis [14] is applied at the input port in order to compute the field distribution of the dominant and higher order modes; the microwave circuit is then excited with the governing modal distribution. The eigenvalue analysis is also applied to the output port in order to calculate the frequency-dependent propagation constant and characteristic impedance of the transmission line. The dispersive propagation constant at the input and output ports is used in the implementation of the ABC's, whereas the characteristic impedance is used in the evaluation of the *S*-parameters. The current formulation is proven to be *efficient, flexible, and extremely accurate* in analyzing complex

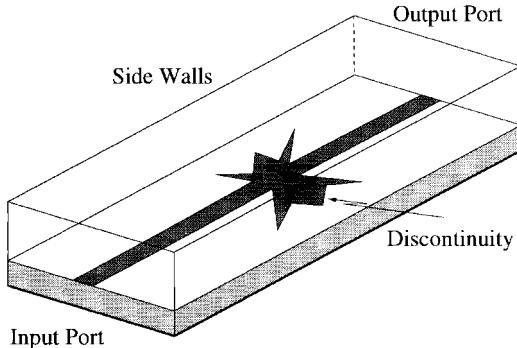


Fig. 1. 3-D rendering of a typical microstrip discontinuity.

microwave circuits and interconnects. It is *efficient* because of the use of a 2-D eigenvalue analysis to determine the excitation fields and needed circuit parameters. It is *versatile* because the input and output ports are not restricted to a single microstrip line—coplanar waveguides, coupled microstrip lines, and fin-lines can also be used. It is *accurate* because the excitation field, propagation constant, and characteristic impedance are computed at every frequency using a full-wave approach.

An outline of the FEM formulation used toward modeling complex microwave circuits and interconnects is provided in Section II. Similarly, a description of the FDTD implementation is given in Section III. Numerical results for several representative geometries including a microstrip patch antenna, a planar microwave filter, a circular spiral inductor connected in series or in parallel, and a package depicting a double-via transition between two microstrip lines are presented in Section IV. For some of these cases, a comparison between the FEM and FDTD method is shown.

II. THE FEM

A full-wave FEM is used in the analysis of complex electronic packaging circuits printed on single or multilayer substrates. A typical microstrip discontinuity is illustrated in Fig. 1. The input port of the structure is excited using the dominant field distribution at a specific frequency. The governing field distribution at the input port is evaluated *a priori* using a 2-D eigenvalue analysis [14]. The input and output ports are appropriately terminated using ABC's that are directly applied to the transverse electric-field component at the surface. The same type of ABC's are also used to effectively terminate the sidewalls of open structures.

Although the 2-D analysis assumes that the surrounding walls are either perfect electric conducting (PEC) or perfect magnetic conducting (PMC) surfaces, the obtained solution may still be used as a proper excitation for open structures provided that the terminating sidewalls are placed far enough to allow decay of the evanescent fields along the transverse direction. Because of the highly attenuating nature of these fields, the error caused by the terminating sidewalls is basically negligible if the distance between the transmission line and mesh truncation is comparable to the distance between present discontinuities and ABC surfaces. Besides, implementation of boundary conditions for evanescent fields in an eigenvalue analysis, although straightforward, requires knowledge of the

precise attenuation rate of the fields along the transverse direction. The corresponding attenuation constant is geometry specific and is usually estimated based on approximate empirical formulas [18].

The 3-D finite-element analysis begins with the discretization of Helmholtz's equation in the following source-free region:

$$\nabla \times ([\mu_r]^{-1} \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{E}) - k_o^2 [\epsilon_r] \mathbf{E} = 0 \quad (1)$$

where $[\epsilon_r]$ and $[\mu_r]$ are, respectively, the relative permittivity and permeability tensors of the domain. Using the well-known Galerkin's technique, the Helmholtz's equation may be transformed in a weak integral form given by

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\Omega} ([\mu_r]^{-1} \nabla \times \mathbf{E}) \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{N}) dV - k_o^2 \int_{\Omega} [\epsilon_r] \cdot \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{N} dV \\ & + \int_{S_1} ([\mu_r]^{-1} \nabla \times \mathbf{E}) \cdot (\mathbf{N} \times \hat{a}_n) dA \\ & + \int_{S_2} ([\mu_r]^{-1} \nabla \times \mathbf{E}) \cdot (\mathbf{N} \times \hat{a}_n) dA \\ & + \int_{S_3} ([\mu_r]^{-1} \nabla \times \mathbf{E}) \cdot (\mathbf{N} \times \hat{a}_n) dA = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where S_1 and S_2 denote the input and output ports, respectively, whereas S_3 denotes all open wall surfaces. The unit vector \hat{a}_n is normal to a given surface and is pointing outside the finite-element volume, whereas \mathbf{N} is the vector testing function. To evaluate the surface integrals in (2), appropriate boundary conditions need to be developed at those surfaces [11], [15]. The development of such boundary conditions mandates expressing the electric field on the surface in terms of the transverse and longitudinal components, designated by the subscripts t and n as follows:

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}_t + \hat{a}_n \mathbf{E}_n. \quad (3)$$

The normal component of the electric field \mathbf{E}_n is further assumed to be negligible. This assumption is implemented only in the evaluation of the surface integrals. As a result, the total electric field at the excitation plane can be expressed as a superposition of two transverse field components, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{E}(x, y, z) \simeq \mathbf{E}_t(x, y, z) = \mathbf{E}_t^{\text{inc}}(x, y, z) + \mathbf{E}_t^{\text{sca}}(x, y, z) \quad (4)$$

where the superscripts inc and sca denote incident and scattered fields, respectively. The incident field in (4) is obtained from the 2-D eigenvalue analysis, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{E}_t^{\text{inc}}(x, y, z) = E_o \mathbf{e}_t(x, y) e^{-j k_z z} \quad (5)$$

where $\mathbf{e}_t(x, y)$ is the field distribution of the dominant mode at the input port and k_z is the corresponding propagation constant. Expressing the incident field in the form shown in (5), it was assumed that the input port lies on the xy -plane. Substituting (5) into (4), the total transverse field at the input port is represented as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}(x, y, z) & \simeq \mathbf{E}_t(x, y, z) \\ & = E_o \mathbf{e}_t(x, y) e^{-j k_z z} + R E_o \mathbf{e}_t(x, y) e^{j k_z z} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

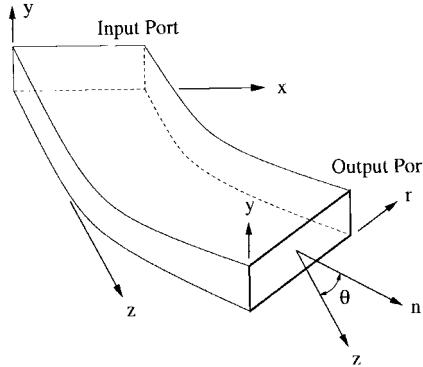


Fig. 2. Two-port geometry with the output port oriented at an angle θ with respect to the input port.

where R is the reflection coefficient. Based on (6), the following first-order ABC is valid [11]:

$$-\hat{a}_z \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) + jk_z \hat{a}_z \times (\hat{a}_z \times \mathbf{E}) = -2jk_z \mathbf{E}^{\text{inc}}. \quad (7)$$

A similar ABC can be derived for the output port as well. The planar surface of the output port lies on the ry -plane where $\hat{a}_r \times \hat{a}_y$ forms a unit vector normal to the port plane. This unit vector forms an angle θ with respect to the unit vector \hat{a}_z . In other words, the output port plane does not have to be parallel with the input port plane (see Fig. 2). As a result, geometries such as waveguide and microstrip bends may be analyzed.

Referring to Fig. 2, the total field at the output port can be expressed in the following form:

$$\mathbf{E}(x, y, z) \simeq \mathbf{E}_t(x, y, z) = TE_0 \mathbf{e}_t(r, y) e^{-jk_n(x \sin \theta + z \cos \theta)} \quad (8)$$

where T is the transmission coefficient and k_n is the effective propagation constant in the direction represented by

$$\hat{n} = \hat{a}_x \sin \theta + \hat{a}_z \cos \theta. \quad (9)$$

Based on the orientation of the output port and the corresponding field distribution at that plane, a valid first-order ABC is given by [11]

$$\hat{a}_n \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) + jk_n \hat{a}_n \times (\hat{a}_n \times \mathbf{E}) = 0. \quad (10)$$

Substituting (7) and (10) into (2), the latter becomes

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\Omega} ([\mu_r]^{-1} \nabla \times \mathbf{E}) \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{N}) dV - k_o^2 \int_{\Omega} [\epsilon_r] \cdot \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{N} dV \\ & + jk_z \int_{S_1} ([\mu_r]^{-1} \mathbf{E} \times \hat{a}_{n_1}) \cdot (\mathbf{N} \times \hat{a}_{n_1}) dA \\ & + jk_n \int_{S_2} ([\mu_r]^{-1} \mathbf{E} \times \hat{a}_{n_2}) \cdot (\mathbf{N} \times \hat{a}_{n_2}) dA \\ & + \int_{S_3} ([\mu_r]^{-1} \nabla \times \mathbf{E}) \cdot (\mathbf{N} \times \hat{a}_{n_3}) dA \\ & = -2jk_z \int_{S_1} ([\mu_r]^{-1} \mathbf{E}_t^{\text{inc}} \times \hat{a}_{n_1}) \cdot (\mathbf{N} \times \hat{a}_{n_1}) dA \quad (11) \end{aligned}$$

where $\hat{a}_{n_1} = -\hat{a}_z$, $\hat{a}_{n_2} = \hat{a}_x \sin \theta + \hat{a}_z \cos \theta$, and \hat{a}_{n_3} is the outward unit vector normal to the open wall surfaces. The ABC at the open walls is very similar to the one implemented at the output port. The only difference between the two is that k_n is replaced by $k_o \sqrt{\epsilon_r \mu_r}$ where ϵ_r and μ_r are,

respectively, the permittivity and permeability of the local medium. By introducing tetrahedral elements, the electric field \mathbf{E} is expanded in terms of a set of vector basis functions \mathbf{N} to finally obtain the following elemental matrix system:

$$[M^e + B_{S_1}^e + B_{S_2}^e + B_{S_3}^e] \{E^e\} = \{b^e\} \quad (12)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} M^e(i, j) &= \int_{\Omega^e} \{\nabla \times \mathbf{N}_i\}^T \cdot [\mu_r]^{-1} \cdot \{\nabla \times \mathbf{N}_j\} dV \\ & - k_o^2 \int_{\Omega^e} \mathbf{N}_i^T \cdot [\epsilon_r] \cdot \mathbf{N}_j dV \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_{S_1}^e(i, j) &= jk_z \int_{S_1^e} \{\mathbf{N}_i \times \hat{a}_{n_1}\}^T \cdot [\mu_r]^{-1} \\ & \cdot \{\mathbf{N}_j \times \hat{a}_{n_1}\} dA \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_{S_2}^e(i, j) &= jk_n \int_{S_2^e} \{\mathbf{N}_i \times \hat{a}_{n_2}\}^T \cdot [\mu_r]^{-1} \\ & \cdot \{\mathbf{N}_j \times \hat{a}_{n_2}\} dA \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_{S_3}^e(i, j) &= jk_o \sqrt{\epsilon_r \mu_r} \int_{S_3^e} \{\mathbf{N}_i \times \hat{a}_{n_3}\}^T \cdot [\mu_r]^{-1} \\ & \cdot \{\mathbf{N}_j \times \hat{a}_{n_3}\} dA \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} b^e(i) &= -2jk_z \int_{S_1^e} \{\mathbf{N}_i \times \hat{a}_{n_1}\}^T \cdot [\mu_r]^{-1} \\ & \cdot \{\mathbf{E}_t^{\text{inc}} \times \hat{a}_{n_1}\} dA \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

where $i, j = 1, \dots, 6$. The elemental matrices are then assembled into the global matrix using the edge connectivity information. The global matrix system is solved using an efficient conjugate gradient-square (CGS) solver with Jacobi preconditioning. For better and faster convergence, the iteration is done in double precision.

Once the electric-field distribution is obtained everywhere in the structure, the next step is to evaluate the corresponding voltages at the two ports. Note that although the theoretical formulation was based on a two-port network, it can be easily extended for multiple ports. The S -parameters of the structure are evaluated using

$$S_{11} = \frac{V_1 - V_1^{\text{ref}}}{V_1^{\text{ref}}} \quad (18)$$

$$S_{21} = \frac{V_2}{V_1^{\text{ref}}} \sqrt{\frac{Z_{c1}}{Z_{c2}}} \quad (19)$$

where V_1 and V_2 are the voltages calculated at ports 1 and 2 (3-D analysis), respectively, whereas V_1^{ref} is the reference voltage calculated at port 1 (2-D analysis). Also, Z_{c1} and Z_{c2} are the corresponding characteristic impedances of the transmission lines at the two ports. These are calculated using the 2-D finite-element eigenvalue analysis.

III. THE FDTD METHOD

The FDTD method is one of the most popular numerical techniques for solving complex electromagnetic problems. The FDTD method is finding applications in a wide spectrum of simulation problems including antennas for wireless communications, biomedical applications, microwave circuits,

electronic packaging, and electromagnetic scattering and penetration. The popularity of this method is attributed to its simplicity in implementation and computer programming, its ability to handle arbitrary and complex geometries including different materials, and the fact that it is a time-domain method.

An FDTD code suitable for handling general multiconductor structures has been developed. The code is quite general in handling different material and conductor discontinuities, such as the ones found in electronic packages. The developed code uses first-order Mur ABC's. These have been proven to work well in applications involving microwave circuits. The electric-wall source condition has been implemented to excite the dominant mode of structures investigated in this paper. Since the FDTD method uses rectangular bricks as the basic mesh elements, it is predominantly suited for planar structures. For structures characterized by curved surfaces, the FEM is more suitable.

In obtaining the S -parameters of a given structure, a source plane is imposed at the input port. The excitation signal is a Gaussian pulse in the time domain. Once the pulse is launched, the first-order Mur ABC's are immediately turned on. The numerical simulation is carried out twice. The first simulation occurs in the absence of the discontinuity. This is required in order to establish a reference incident waveform propagating along the microstrip line. The reference plane is defined N cells away from the beginning of the discontinuity. A second simulation is repeated in the presence of the discontinuity and the time signature of the incident and reflected voltages at the reference plane is obtained. Using the two simulations, the incident and reflected time-domain waveforms are first calculated and then used to evaluate the amplitude and phase of the return loss (RL). A similar argument holds for the transmitted voltage used in the evaluation of the insertion loss (IL) of the structure.

IV. RESULTS

The finite-element formulation presented in Section II was successfully implemented and applied to a variety of circuits and interconnects that are frequently used in microwave electronic packages. The FEM was extensively verified by comparing it with results obtained using the FDTD method briefly outlined in Section III.

The first geometry considered, primarily for verification purposes, is a rectangular microstrip patch antenna, which is printed on a RT/Duroid substrate with $\epsilon_r = 2.2$ and height 0.794 mm. A 50Ω microstrip line is used to excite the patch. The same exact geometry was analyzed by Sheen *et al.* [6] using the FDTD method. The mesh sizes suggested in [6] were also used here; i.e., $\Delta x = 0.389$ mm, $\Delta y = 0.4$ mm, $\Delta z = 0.265$ mm, and $\Delta t = 0.441$ ps. These mesh sizes result in an integral number of cells along the width and length of the patch, but not along the width of the microstrip line feeding the patch. The resulting FDTD mesh dimensions are $61 \times 100 \times 17$ cells.

A comparison of the RL obtained using the FEM and the FDTD method is shown in Fig. 3. A fairly good agreement

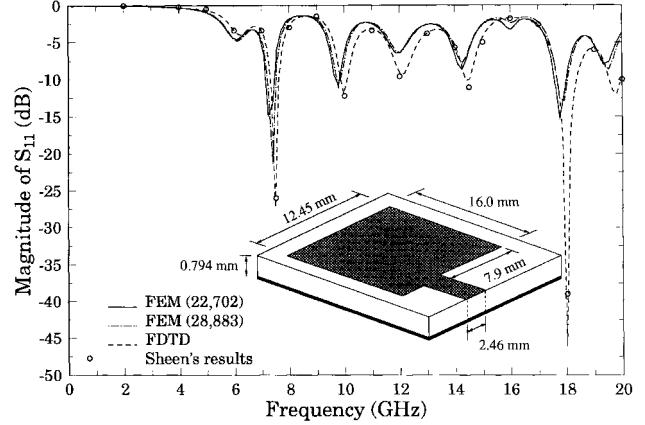


Fig. 3. Return loss of a rectangular microstrip patch antenna printed on a RT/Duroid substrate with $\epsilon_r = 2.2$.

between the two methods is illustrated. For frequencies lower than 10 GHz (where the mesh density is sufficiently fine), the agreement between the two numerical techniques is excellent. Two different finite-element discretizations were considered: one with 22 702 tetrahedras and the other with 28 883 tetrahedras. However, as shown in Fig. 3, only a minor improvement is observed in the predictions when running the larger discretization. A possible source of error in the calculations is the inability of the FDTD method to properly match all microstrip-surface dimensions. A narrower microstrip line for example, always results in a larger characteristic impedance, thereby affecting the RL of the structure, especially at the higher frequencies. On the other hand, using the FEM, all geometry dimensions are precisely modeled.

In order to provide insight into the computational effort required by the FEM, the following statistics were reported. The original mesh consisted of 22 702 tetrahedras and a total of 25 625 unknowns. The computational time was approximately 30 min per frequency point in the lower frequency range and 15 min per frequency point in the upper frequency range. This problem was run on a 370 IBM RISC/6000 UNIX workstation. The solution tolerance based on the residual norm was set to $1.0e-6$. The recorded computational time also accounts for the central processing unit (CPU) time needed in evaluating the modal field distribution at the input port. On the other hand, the FDTD code took approximately 45 min for the overall simulation, and 8192 time steps were allowed for the pulse to propagate. The simulation was done on a Silicon Graphics Power Indigo2 workstation with an R8000 processor. Note that the latter is a significantly faster computer than the 370 IBM RISC/6000.

The second circuit considered in this paper was also extracted from Sheen *et al.* [6]. This is a low-pass filter which is printed on an RT/Duroid substrate with $\epsilon_r = 2.2$ and height 0.794 mm. This geometry was run using both the FEM and the FDTD codes for a frequency range of 20 GHz. The magnitude of S_{11} and S_{21} versus frequency is illustrated in Fig. 4. Excellent agreement between the two methods is shown. The finite-element mesh consisted of 28 914 tetrahedras and a total of 33 532 unknown field components. The corresponding CPU time for this problem was approximately

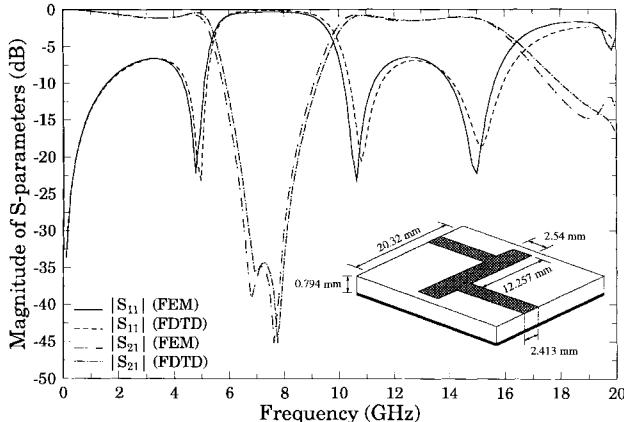


Fig. 4. Return and insertion loss of a low-pass filter printed on a RT/Duroid substrate with $\epsilon_r = 2.2$.

20 min per frequency point in the lower frequency range and 10 min per frequency point in the upper frequency range. Note that although the low-pass filter is computationally a larger problem than the microstrip patch antenna, the required CPU time is significantly less. The reason is related to the condition number of the resulting matrix system. As far as the FDTD method is concerned, the mesh dimensions were the following: $\Delta x = 0.4064$ mm, $\Delta y = 0.4233$ mm, $\Delta z = 0.265$ mm, and $\Delta t = 0.441$ ps. The overall mesh size was $81 \times 101 \times 17$ cells. The required computational time was approximately 50 min, and again, a total of 8192 time steps were allowed for the pulse to propagate. The simulation was run on a Silicon Graphics Power Indigo2 workstation with an R8000 processor.

Although spiral inductors, as well as inductors in general, are commonly found in microwave circuits, most of the relevant analysis has been done based on either quasi-static methods [19] or rectangular-grid methods such as the FDTD, SDA, transmission-line method (TLM), and method of lines (MoL) [20]. Using the FEM, electromagnetic modeling of curved structures presents no more difficulties than rectangular structures provided that the code is written using unstructured elements. A circular spiral inductor connected in series with a microstrip line on an alumina substrate with $\epsilon_r = 9.8$ is considered here. One end of the spiral is bonded with the microstrip line at port 2 through a cylindrical metallic bridge. The bridge surface is defined by three points: the first point is in the center of the spiral, the second point is at the edge of the microstrip line, and the third point is in the middle of the gap (height of 1.0 mm). The spiral is made out of $1\frac{1}{2}$ turns with width 0.2 mm. The microstrip line at the input and output ports is 0.635-mm wide, and the substrate height is also 0.635 mm. The magnitude of S_{11} and S_{22} calculated using the FEM is illustrated in Fig. 5. Although measurements were not available for data comparison, the geometry discretization in both cases was sufficiently fine to ensure accurate simulations. Specifically, the mesh consisted of 27701 elements and a total of 32553 unknowns. The corresponding computational time was approximately 1 h per frequency point in the lower range of frequencies, and 20 min per frequency point in the intermediate-to-upper range of frequencies; again, a 370 IBM RISC/6000 workstation was used to run this problem. Most

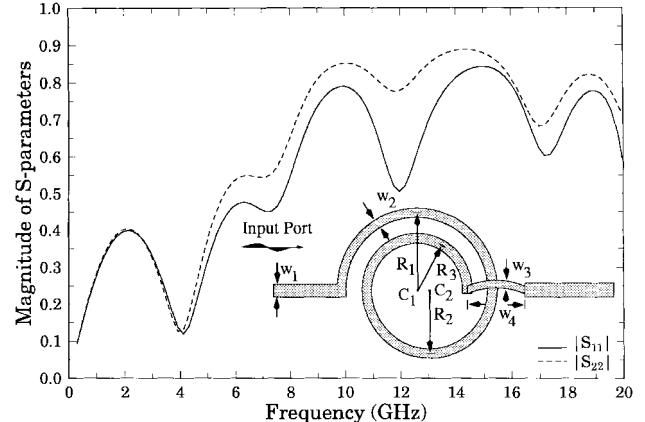


Fig. 5. S -parameters of a spiral inductor connected in series with two microstrip lines. The substrate is made of alumina of $\epsilon_r = 9.8$ and height 0.635 mm ($w_1 = 0.635$ mm, $w_2 = w_3 = 0.2$ mm, $w_4 = 2.3$ mm, $R_1 = 1.9$ mm, $R_2 = 1.3$ mm, $R_3 = 0.7$ mm).

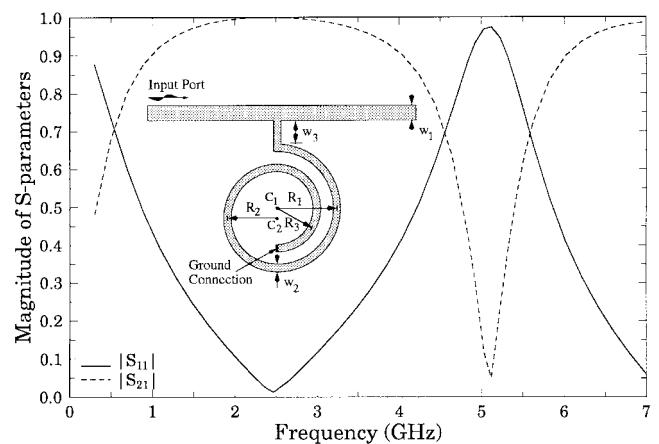


Fig. 6. S -parameters of a spiral inductor connected in shunt across a microstrip line. The substrate is made of alumina of $\epsilon_r = 9.8$ and height 0.635 mm ($w_1 = 0.635$ mm, $w_2 = 0.2$ mm, $w_3 = 0.6$ mm, $R_1 = 1.9$ mm, $R_2 = 1.3$ mm, $R_3 = 0.7$ mm).

of the computational effort (90%) was spent solving the linear system of equations. Comparing the two plots in Fig. 5, it is interesting to observe that those are not identical, although very similar. The minor differences are basically attributed to the presence of the cylindrical metallic bridge. In addition, it is important to mention here that the spiral inductor behaves as a lumped element only in the lower range of frequencies (linear region); at higher frequencies, the structure begins to resonate due to additive capacitive effects.

A spiral inductor is usually connected either in series or in parallel. The same configuration as the one used in the previous example is now connected in shunt with a microstrip line printed on an alumina substrate. The center of the spiral is grounded using a planar conducting via. The magnitude plots of S_{11} and S_{21} calculated using the FEM code are shown in Fig. 6. Although comparisons are not available, it is interesting to observe that at lower frequencies the structure indeed behaves as a lumped inductor connected in shunt. Such a structure though is highly resonant; therefore, multiple peaks

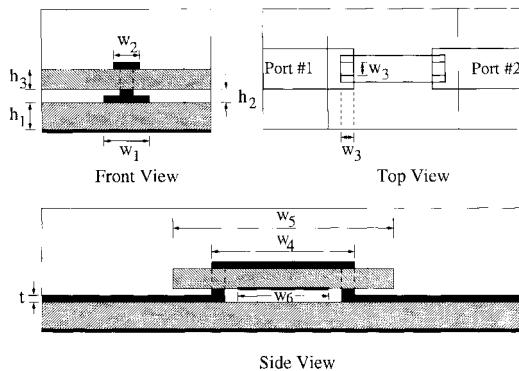


Fig. 7. Double-via-transition package. The bottom and top layers have dielectric constants of 2.2 and 6.2, respectively ($h_1 = 0.8$ mm, $h_2 = 0.4$ mm, $h_3 = 0.6$ mm, $w_1 = 2.4$ mm, $w_2 = 0.8$ mm, $w_3 = 0.4$ mm, $w_4 = 5.2$ mm, $w_5 = 6.8$ mm, $w_6 = 3.6$ mm, $t = 0.2$ mm).

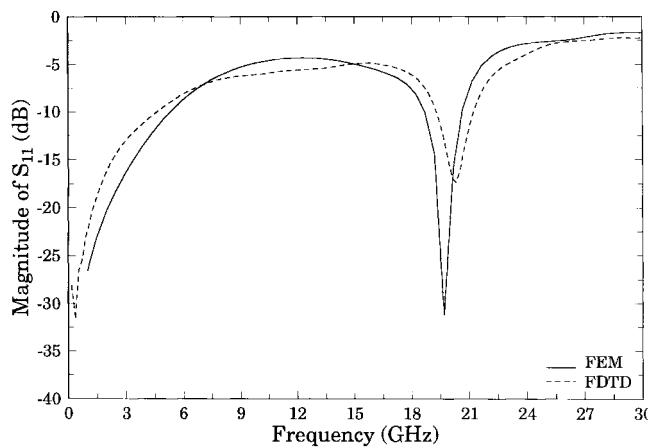


Fig. 8. S_{11} versus frequency for the double-via-transition package.

and nulls appear in the higher frequency range. As a result, the resulting S -parameters are plotted only up to 7 GHz. The finite element mesh for this problem consisted of 43 588 tetrahedras and a total of 51 270 unknowns.

The final structure examined is the two-layer package shown in Fig. 7, which is representative of practical designs. The bottom layer is a dielectric substrate with $\epsilon_r = 2.2$, whereas the top layer is another substrate with $\epsilon_r = 6.2$. The microstrip at the input port is connected to the microstrip at the upper layer through a vertical conducting via, and an identical via joins the upper microstrip with the microstrip at the output port. A metallic sheet is placed at the bottom interface of the upper dielectric layer to provide potential grounding. Also, all geometry shapes were chosen to be rectangular so the simulation is performed with both FEM and FDTD codes. The magnitude of S_{11} versus frequency, calculated using the two numerical techniques, is illustrated in Fig. 8. Although both methods accurately predict the resonant frequency of the package, there are some minor discrepancies between the two data sets. The reason might be attributed to nonphysical reflections from the surrounding first-order ABC's. More efficient mesh terminations, such as the recently developed perfectly matched layer (PML) [21]–[23] or other higher order ABC's,

need to be implemented in both FEM and FDTD methods to further reduce possible truncation errors.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The FEM has been applied in the analysis of microwave electronic circuits and interconnects. The input port is excited using a 2-D eigenvalue solution, whereas all ports are terminated using first-order dispersive ABC's based on the effective dielectric constant. The open sidewalls are also terminated using first-order ABC's. For few of these geometries, a comparison with the FDTD method is provided. Obtained S -parameters illustrate good agreement between the two numerical techniques. Although the FEM is shown to be computationally more intensive than the FDTD method (at least for the cases considered in this paper), it exhibits numerous advantages over many numerical techniques—most importantly, the ability to accurately model curved surfaces and inhomogeneous materials, both of which are commonly employed in electronic packages and microwave circuits.

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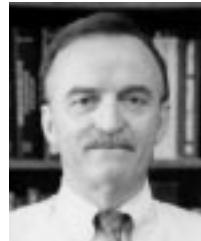
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