

Lecture – 4

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- Terminated Lossless Transmission Line (Contd.)
- TL Input Impedance
- Solved Examples
- Return Loss and Insertion Loss
- Standing Wave and SWR



Example

- Consider a load resistance $R_L = 100\Omega$ to be matched to a 50 Ω line with a quarter-wave transformer. Find the characteristic impedance of the matching section and plot the magnitude of the reflection coefficient versus normalized frequency, f/f_0 , where f_0 is the frequency at which the line is $\lambda/4$ long.
 - the necessary characteristic impedance is:

$$Z_0 = \sqrt{Z_L Z_{in}}$$
 $(\therefore Z_0 = \sqrt{Z_L Z_{in}} = \sqrt{50 \times 100} = 70.71\Omega)$

• The reflection coefficient magnitude is given as





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Example – (contd.)



 $Z_L = Z_0$

Purely

Transmission Line Input Impedance – Special Cases (contd.)

the load is **numerically equal** to the characteristic impedance of the transmission line (a real value).

$$Z_{in} = Z_0 \frac{Z_0 + jZ_0 \tan(\beta l)}{Z_0 + jZ_0 \tan(\beta l)} = Z_0$$

In other words, if the **load impedance** (Z_L) is **equal** to the TL **characteristic impedance** (Z₀), the **input impedance** (Z_{in}) likewise will be equal to **characteristic impedance** (Z₀) of the TL **irrespective of its length**



Z_L = jX_L the load is purely reactive (i.e., the resistive component is zero)

$$Z_{in} = Z(z = -l) = Z_0 \frac{jX_L + jZ_0 \tan(\beta l)}{Z_0 - X_L \tan(\beta l)} = jZ_0 \frac{X_L + Z_0 \tan(\beta l)}{Z_0 - X_L \tan(\beta l)}$$



Transmission Line Input Impedance – Special Cases (contd.)

In other words, if the **load impedance (Z_L) is purely reactive** then the **input impedance likewise will be purely reactive irrespective of the line length (***l***)**

$$Z_{in} = jX_L \qquad \beta, Z_0 \qquad Z_L = jX_L$$

Note that the **opposite is not true: even if the load is purely resistive (Z_L = R), the input impedance will be complex** (both resistive and reactive components).

• *l* << λ

the transmission line is **electrically small**

- If length *l* is small with respect to signal wavelength λ then:
- Thus the input $Z_{in} = Z_0 \frac{Z_L \cos(\beta l) + jZ_0 \sin(\beta l)}{Z_0 \cos(\beta l) + jZ_L \sin(\beta l)} = Z_0 \frac{Z_L (1) + jZ_0 (0)}{Z_0 (1) + jZ_L (0)} = Z_0 \frac{Z_L (1) + jZ_0 (0)}{Z_0 (1) + jZ_L (0)}$

$$\beta l = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} l = 2\pi \frac{l}{\lambda} \approx 0$$

Therefore:
$$\cos(\beta l) = 1$$

 $\sin(\beta l) = 0$



Transmission Line Input Impedance – Special Cases (contd.)

In other words, if the transmission line length is much smaller than a wavelength, the **input** impedance Z_{in} will **always** be equal to the **load** impedance Z_L .

This is the assumption we used in all previous circuits courses (e.g., Linear Circuits, Digital Circuits, Integrated Electronics, Analog Circuit Design etc.)! In those courses, we assumed that the signal frequency ω is relatively **low**, such that the signal wavelength λ is **very large** ($\lambda \gg l$).

 Note also for this case (the electrically short transmission line), the voltage and current at each end of the transmission line are approximately the same!

$$V(z=-l) \approx V(z=0)$$

$$I(z=-l) \approx I(z=0)$$

If $l \ll \lambda$, our "wire" behaves **exactly** as it did in *Linear Circuits* course!



Example – 1

Determine the input impedance of the following circuit:



How about the following solution?



$$Z_{in} = \frac{-j3*(2+1+j2)}{-j3+(2+1+j2)} = 2.7 - j2.1$$

Where are the contributions of the TL??



Example – 1 (contd.)

• Let us define Z₁ as the input impedance of the last section as:



$$\therefore Z_1 = 8 - j2$$

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 $Z_0 = 1.0$

 $l = \lambda / 2$

Example – 1 (contd.)

• Now let us define the input impedance of the middle TL as Z₃:



-j3

Parallel Combination

 $Z_{A} = 0.22 + j0.028$



Example – 1 (contd.)

• Finally the simplified problem is:



$$\therefore Z_{in} = Z_4 = 0.22 + j0.028$$



Example – 2



Given:

$$V(z) = V_{a}^{+}(z) + V_{a}^{-}(z) = V_{a}^{+}e^{-j\beta z} + V_{a}^{-}e^{+j\beta z}$$
 For $z < -l$
$$V(z) = V_{b}^{+}(z) + V_{b}^{-}(z) = V_{b}^{+}e^{-j\beta z} + V_{b}^{-}e^{+j\beta z}$$
 For $-l < z < 0$



Example – 2 (contd.)

We can write current equations as:

$$I(z) = \frac{V_a^+(z)}{Z_0} - \frac{V_a^-(z)}{Z_0} = \frac{V_a^+}{Z_0} e^{-j\beta z} - \frac{V_a^-}{Z_0} e^{+j\beta z} \quad \text{For}$$

$$I(z) = \frac{V_b^+(z)}{Z_0} - \frac{V_b^-(z)}{Z_0} = \frac{V_b^+}{Z_0} e^{-j\beta z} - \frac{V_b^-}{Z_0} e^{+j\beta z} \quad \text{For}$$

$$At z = -l:$$

$$I_{a}(z = -l) \longrightarrow I_{b}(z = -l)$$

$$+ I_{R} + \mathcal{B}, Z_{0}$$

$$V_{a}(z = -l) V_{b}(z = -l) \mathcal{B}, Z_{0}$$

$$= Z_{0}/2 = \mathcal{B}, Z_{0}$$

$$KCL \text{ gives:}$$

$$I_{a}(z = -l) = I_{a}(z = -l) = I_{a}(z = -l)$$

$$I_{a}(z = -l) = I_{a}(z = -l) = I_{a}(z = -l)$$

$$I_{a}(z = -l) = I_{a}(z = -l) = I_{a}(z = -l)$$

 $Z_0 / 2$

KVL gives: $V_a(z=-l)=V_b(z=-l)$

-l < z < 0

z < -l

KCL gives: $I_{a}(z=-l) = I_{b}(z=-l) + I_{R}$



Example – 2 (contd.)

• At z = -l:

$$V_a(z = -l) = V_a^+(z = -l) + V_a^-(z = -l) = V_a^+e^{-j\beta(-l)} + V_a^-e^{+j\beta(-l)} = V_a^+e^{+j\beta l} + V_a^-e^{-j\beta l}$$

It is given:
$$l = \frac{\lambda}{4} \longrightarrow \beta l = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\lambda}{4} = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\therefore V_a(z = -l) = V_a^+ e^{+j(\pi/2)} + V_a^- e^{-j(\pi/2)} = j(V_a^+ - V_a^-)$$

$$V_b(z = -l) = j\left(V_b^+ - V_b^-\right)$$

Similarly:
$$I_a(z = -l) = j\left(\frac{V_a^+ + V_a^-}{Z_0}\right)$$
$$I_b(z = -l) = j\left(\frac{V_b^+ + V_b^-}{Z_0}\right)$$



Example – 2 (contd.)

VC

• Now let us revisit the expressions achieved from KVL, KCL and Ohm's Law

$$V_{a}(z = -l) = V_{b}(z = -l)$$

$$\Rightarrow j(V_{a}^{+} - V_{a}^{-}) = j(V_{b}^{+} - V_{b}^{-})$$

$$I_{R} = \frac{2V_{a}(z = -l)}{Z_{0}} = \frac{2j(V_{a}^{+} - V_{a}^{-})}{Z_{0}}$$

$$I_{R} = \frac{2V_{b}(z = -l)}{Z_{0}} = \frac{2j(V_{b}^{+} - V_{a}^{-})}{Z_{0}}$$

$$I_{a}(z = -l) = I_{b}(z = -l) + I_{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow j\left(\frac{V_{a}^{+} + V_{a}^{-}}{Z_{0}}\right) = j\left(\frac{V_{b}^{+} + V_{b}^{-}}{Z_{0}}\right) + I_{R}$$

$$V_{a}^{+} + V_{a}^{-} = V_{b}^{+} + V_{b}^{-} - jI_{R}Z_{0}$$

$$\therefore 1 + \frac{V_{a}^{-}}{V_{a}^{+}} = 3\frac{V_{b}^{+}}{V_{a}^{+}} - \frac{V_{b}^{-}}{V_{a}^{+}}$$

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Example – 2 (contd.)



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Example – 2 (contd.)





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Example – 2 (contd.)

Let us bring all the three simplified equations together





(2)



Simplification of (2) and (3) results in: $1 + \frac{V_a^-}{V^+} = \frac{10}{3} \frac{V_b^+}{V^+}$ (5)

Simplify all of these to obtain the values of

$$rac{V_a^-}{V_a^+}$$
 $rac{V_b^+}{V_a^+}$ $rac{V_b^-}{V_a^+}$



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Example – 2 (contd.)

Let us now summarize the fruits of our effort





Reflection Coefficient Transformation

- We know that the **load** at the end of some length of a transmission line (with characteristic impedance Z_0) can be specified in terms of its impedance Z_L or its reflection coefficient Γ_0 .
- Note both values are complex, and either one completely specifies the load—if you know one, you know the other!

 Recall that we determined how a length of transmission line transformed the load impedance into an input impedance of a (generally) different value:



Reflection Coefficient Transformation (contd.)

Q: Say we know the load in terms of its **reflection coefficient**. How can we express the **input** impedance in terms its **reflection coefficient** (call this Γ_{in})?



A: Well, we **could** execute these **three** steps:

1. Convert Γ_0 to Z_L :

2. Transform Z_L down the line to Z_{in} :

$$Z_L = Z_0 \left(\frac{1 + \Gamma_0}{1 - \Gamma_0} \right)$$

3. Convert Z_{in} to Γ_{in} :

$$\Gamma_{in} = \frac{Z_{in} - Z_0}{Z_{in} + Z_0}$$

$$Z_{in} = Z_0 \frac{Z_L + jZ_0 \tan(\beta l)}{Z_0 + jZ_L \tan(\beta l)}$$

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Reflection Coefficient Transformation (contd.)

Q: Yikes! This is a **ton** of complex arithmetic—isn't there an **easier** way? A: Actually, there **is**!

• Recall that the input impedance of a transmission line length l, terminated with a load Γ_0 , is:

Directly
insert this
into:
Note this **directly** relates
$$\Gamma_0$$
 to Z_{in} (steps 1 and 2 combined!).
$$\Gamma_{in} = \frac{Z_{in} - Z_0}{Z_{in} + Z_0} \quad \text{directly} relates Γ_0 to Γ_{in} . $\Gamma_{in} = \Gamma_0 e^{-j2\beta l}$$$

Q: Hey! This result looks **familiar**.

A: Absolutely! Recall that we found the reflection coefficient function $\Gamma(z)$:







Terminated Lossless Transmission Line (contd.)





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Terminated Lossless Transmission Line (contd.)

Based on your circuits experience, you might well be tempted to always use V(z), I(z) and Z(z).

However, it is useful (as well as simple) to describe activity on a transmission line in terms of $V^+(z)$, $V^-(z)$ and $\Gamma(z)$

Terminated Lossless Transmission Line (contd.)

- The solution of Telegrapher equations (the equations defining the current and voltages along a TL) boils down to <u>determination of complex</u> <u>coefficients V⁺, V⁻, I⁺ and I⁻</u>. Once these are known, we can describe all the quantities along the TL.
- For example, the wave representations are:





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Terminated Lossless Transmission Line (contd.)

• Contrast the wave functions with complex voltage, current and impedance



 It is, thus, much easier and more straightforward to use the wave representation → However, V(z), I(z), or Z(z) are still fundamental and very important—particularly at each end of the transmission line!

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Power Considerations on a TL

• We have discovered that **two waves propagate** along a transmission line, one in each direction $(V^+(z) \text{ and } V^-(z))$.



The result is that electromagnetic energy flows along the transmission line at a given rate (i.e., **power**).

Q: How much power flows along a transmission line, and where does that power go?

A: We can answer by determining the power absorbed by the load!

$$P_{abs} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re} \left(V_L I_L^* \right) = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re} \left(V(0) I(0)^* \right) = \frac{\left| V_0^+ \right|^2}{2Z_0} \left(1 - \left| \Gamma_0 \right|^2 \right) \right)$$

$$P_{abs} = \frac{\left| V_0^+ \right|^2}{2Z_0} - \frac{\left| V_0^+ \Gamma_0 \right|^2}{2Z_0} = \frac{\left| V_0^+ \right|^2}{2Z_0} \left(\frac{V_0^- \right|^2}{2Z_0} \right)$$

$$P_{ref} = \frac{\left| V_0^+ \Gamma_0 \right|^2}{2Z_0} = \left| \Gamma_0 \right|^2 P_{inc}$$

$$P_{inc}$$
Incident Power, P_{inc}
Reflected Power, P_{ref}

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Power Considerations on a TL (contd.)

• It is thus apparent that the power flowing towards the load (P_{inc}) is either absorbed by the load (P_{abs}) or reflected back from the load (P_{ref})



Now let us consider some special cases:



There is no power absorbed by the load \rightarrow all the incident power is reflected

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Power Considerations on a TL (contd.)





Q: Can Γ_0 every be **greater** than one?

A: Sure, if the "load" is an **active** device. In other words, the load must have some **external power** source connected to it.

Q: What about the case where $|\Gamma_0| < 0$, shouldn't we examine **that** situation as well?

A: That would be just plain **silly**; do **you** see why?

Return Loss

 The ratio of the reflected power from a load, to the incident power on that load, is known as return loss. Typically, return loss is expressed in dB:

Return Loss (R.L.):

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- The return loss tells us the percentage of the incident power reflected at the point of mismatch
- For example, if the return loss is 10dB, then 10% of the power is reflected while the 90% is absorbed/transmitted → i.e, we lose 10% of the incident power
- For the return loss of 30dB, the reflected power is 0.1% of the incident power → we lose only 0.1% of the incident power
- A larger numeric value of return loss actually indicates smaller lost power
 → An ideal return loss would be ∞ → matched condition

Return Loss (contd.)

- A return loss of OdB indicates that reflection coefficient is ONE → reactive termination
- Return Loss (RL) is very helpful as it provides real-valued measures of mismatch (unlike the complex-valued Z_L and Γ_0)

A match is good if the return loss is high. A high return loss is desirable and results in a lower insertion loss.

Insertion Loss

This is another parameter to address the mismatch problem and is defined as:



Indraprastha Institute of ECE321/521 Information Technology Delhi **Standing Wave and Standing Wave Ratio** 1 Another traditional real-valued measure of load match is $V_0^+ e^{-j\beta z}$ **Voltage Standing Wave Ratio** Z_L - $V_0^- e^{j\beta z}$ Z_0 (VSWR). Consider again the **voltage** along a terminated transmission line, as a function of **position** *Z*. $z \doteq -l$ For a short circuited line: $\Gamma_0 = -1$ \longrightarrow $V(-l) = V_0^{+} \left(e^{+j\beta l} - e^{-j\beta l} \right)$ $2j\sin(\beta l)$

 $v(-l,t) = \operatorname{Re}\left(V(-l)e^{j\omega t}\right) = \operatorname{Re}\left(2jV_0^+(z)\sin(\beta l)e^{j\omega t}\right)$





- As the time and space are decoupled → No wave propagation takes place
- The incident wave is 180° out of phase with the reflected wave \rightarrow gives rise to zero crossings of the wave at 0, $\lambda/2$, λ , $3\lambda/2$, and so on \rightarrow standing wave pattern!!!

Standing Wave and Standing Wave Ratio (contd.)



Standing Wave and Standing Wave Ratio (contd.)

Similarly:
$$I(-l) = \frac{A(-l)}{Z_0} (1 - \Gamma(-l))$$

 Valid anywhere on the line

- Under the matched condition, $\Gamma_0 = 0$ and therefore $\Gamma(-l) = 0 \rightarrow as$ expected, only positive traveling wave exists.
- For other arbitrary impedance loads: Standing Wave Ratio (SWR) or Voltage Standing Wave Ratio (VSWR) is the measure of mismatch.
- SWR is defined as the ratio of maximum voltage (or current) amplitude and the minimum voltage (or current) amplitude along a line

 therefore, for an arbitrarily terminated line:

$$VSWR = ISWR = SWR = \left| \frac{V(-l)_{\max}}{V(-l)_{\min}} \right| = \left| \frac{I(-l)_{\max}}{I(-l)_{\min}} \right|$$

We have: $V(-l) = V_0^+ e^{+j\beta l} \left(1 + \Gamma_0 e^{-j2\beta l} \right)$

• Two possibilities for extreme values:

$$\Gamma_0 e^{-j\beta l} = 1$$

$$\Gamma_0 e^{-j\beta l} = -1$$

Standing Wave and Standing Wave Ratio (contd.)

Max. voltage: $|V(-l)|_{max} = |V_0^+|(1+|\Gamma_0|)$ Min. voltage: $|V(-l)|_{min} = |V_0^+|(1-|\Gamma_0|)$

$$\therefore VSWR = \frac{1 + |\Gamma_0|}{1 - |\Gamma_0|} \text{ Apparently: } 0 \le \Gamma_0 \le 1 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \therefore 1 \le VSWR < \infty$$

• Note if
$$|\Gamma_0| = 0$$
 (i.e., $Z_L = Z_0$), then $|V(z)|_{\text{max}} = |V(z)|_{\text{min}} = |V_0^+|$
VSWR = 1. We find for this case:

In other words, the voltage magnitude is a **constant** with respect to position z.

• Conversely, if $|\Gamma_0| = 1$ (i.e., $Z_L = Z_0$), then VSWR = ∞ . We find for **this** case:

$$\left|V(z)\right|_{\max} = 2\left|V_0^+\right|$$

$$\left|V(z)\right|_{\min}=0$$

In other words, the voltage magnitude varies **greatly** with respect to position z.



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Standing Wave and Standing Wave Ratio (contd.)



As with **return loss**, VSWR is dependent on the **magnitude** of $|\Gamma_0|$ (i.e, $|\Gamma_0|$) **only** !

In practice, SWR can only be defined for lossless line as the SWR equation is not valid for attenuating voltage and current



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Standing Wave and Standing Wave Ratio (contd.)



 It is apparent that the maximum and minimum repeats periodically and its values can be used to identify the degree of mismatch by calculating the Standing Wave Ratio



Example – 3

- The following two-step procedure has been carried out with a 50 Ω coaxial slotted line to determine an unknown load impedance:
 - short circuit is placed at the load plane, resulting in a standing wave on the line with infinite SWR and sharply defined voltage minima, as shown in Figure.



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On the arbitrarily positioned scale on the slotted line, voltage minima are recorded at:

$$z = 0.2cm$$
, 2.2cm, 4.2cm

Example – 3 (contd.)

2. The short circuit is removed and replaced with the unknown load. The standing wave ratio is measured as SWR = 1.5, and voltage minima, which are not as sharply defined as those in step 1, are recorded at:



z = 0.72cm, 2.72cm, 4.72cm

Find the load impedance.



Example – 3 (contd.)

- Knowing that voltage minima repeat every $\lambda/2$, we have from the data of step 1 that $\lambda = 4.0$ cm.
- In addition, because the reflection coefficient and input impedance also repeat every $\lambda/2$, we can consider the load terminals to be effectively located at any of the voltage minima locations listed in step 1.
- Thus, if we say the load is at 4.2*cm*, then the data from step 2 show that the next voltage minimum away from the load occurs at 2.72*cm*.

• It gives:
$$l_{min} = 4.2 - 2.72 = 1.48cm = 0.37\lambda$$

• Now:
$$\left|\Gamma_{0}\right| = \frac{SWR - 1}{SWR + 1}$$

$$\left|\Gamma_{0}\right| = \frac{1.5 - 1}{1.5 + 1} = 0.2$$

$$\theta_{\Gamma} = \pi + 2\beta l_{\min}$$

$$\theta_{\Gamma} = \pi + \left(2 \times \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} l_{\min}\right) = 86.4^{\circ}$$

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Example – 3 (contd.)

• Therefore:

IIIF

$$\Gamma_0 = 0.2e^{j86.4^\circ} = 0.0126 + j0.1996$$

• The unknown impedance is then:



Potential Projects

- Dual-band impedance-matching networks based on split-ring resonators
- A multiband reconfigurable matching network
- T-section dual-band impedance transformer for frequency-dependent complex loads
- Dual-band matching technique based on dual-characteristic impedance transformers
- Multi-band frequency transformations matching networks and amplifiers
- Analytical design of dual-band impedance transformer with extra transmission zero
- A T-section dual-band matching network for frequency-dependent complex loads incorporating coupled line with dc-block property
- Techniques to measure port impedances
- Pi -model dual-band impedance transformer for unequal complex impedance loads, and its use in Power Divider, Coupler, Crossover etc.
- triple-frequency matching network for FDCLs