

<u>Lecture – 9</u>

Date: 01.02.2016

- Matched, Lossless, and Reciprocal 3-port Network
- Scattering Parameters and Circuit Symmetry
- Even-mode and Odd-mode Analysis
- Generalized S-Parameters
- Example
- T-Parameters

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 $S_{21} \quad S_{31}$

A Matched, Lossless, Reciprocal 3-Port Network

- Consider a 3-port device.
 Such a device would have a scattering matrix :
- Assuming the device is passive and made of simple (isotropic) materials, the device will be **reciprocal,** so that:
- Similarly, if it is **matched**, we know that:
- As a result, a **matched**, **reciprocal** device would have a scattering matrix of the form:
- if we wish for this network to be lossless, the scattering matrix must be unitary, and therefore:

$$S_{21} = S_{12}$$

 $S_{31} = S_{13}$
 $S_{23} = S_{32}$

$$S_{11} = S_{22} = S_{33} = 0$$

 $\boldsymbol{S} = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} & S_{13} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} & S_{23} \\ S_{31} & S_{32} & S_{33} \end{bmatrix}$

$$S = \begin{vmatrix} S_{21} & 0 & S_{32} \\ S_{31} & S_{32} & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$|S_{21}|^{2} + |S_{31}|^{2} = 1 \qquad S_{31}^{*}S_{32} = 0$$
$$|S_{12}|^{2} + |S_{32}|^{2} = 1 \qquad S_{21}^{*}S_{32} = 0$$
$$|S_{13}|^{2} + |S_{23}|^{2} = 1 \qquad S_{31}^{*}S_{31} = 0$$



A Matched, Lossless, Reciprocal 3-Port Network (contd.)

Since each complex value S is represented by two real numbers (i.e., real and imaginary parts), the unitary equations result in 9 real equations. The problem is, the 3 complex values S₂₁, S₃₁ and S₃₂ are represented by only 6 real unknowns.

We have **over constrained** our problem ! There are **no unique solutions** to these equations !

As unlikely as it might seem, this means that a matched, lossless, reciprocal **3-port** device of **any** kind is a **physical impossibility**!

You **can** make a lossless reciprocal 3-port device, **or** a matched reciprocal 3-port device, **or even** a matched, lossless (but nonreciprocal) 3-port network.

But try as you might, you **cannot** make a lossless, matched, **and** reciprocal three port component!



Matched, Lossless, Reciprocal 4-Port Network

Guess what! I have determined that—unlike a **3-port** device a matched, lossless, reciprocal **4-port** device is physically possible! In fact, I've found two general solutions!

The first solution is referred to as the symmetric solution:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \alpha & j\beta & 0 \\ \alpha & 0 & 0 & j\beta \\ j\beta & 0 & 0 & \alpha \\ 0 & j\beta & \alpha & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Note for the symmetric solution, every row and every column of the scattering matrix has the same four values (i.e., α, jβ, and two zeros)!
- The second solution is referred to as the **anti-symmetric** solution.

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \alpha & \beta & 0 \\ \alpha & 0 & 0 & -\beta \\ \beta & 0 & 0 & \alpha \\ 0 & -\beta & \alpha & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

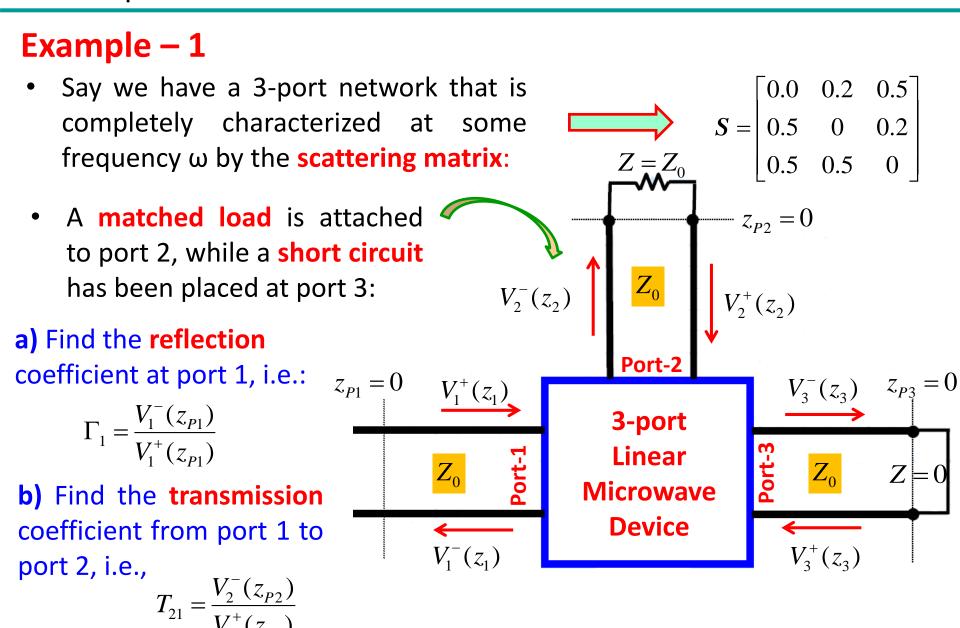
Note that for anti-symmetric solution, **two** rows and **two** columns have the same four values (i.e., α , β , and two zeros), while the **other** two row and columns have (slightly) **different** values (α , - β , and two zeros)

For all **n**

Matched, Lossless, Reciprocal 4-Port Network (contd.)

- It is quite evident that each of these solutions are **matched** and **reciprocal**. However, to ensure that the solutions are indeed **lossless**, we must place an **additional** constraint on the values of α , β . Recall that a **necessary** condition for a lossless device is:
- For the symmetric case, we find: $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$
- Similarly, for the **anti-symmetric** case, we find: $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$
- It is evident that if the scattering matrix is unitary (i.e., lossless), the values α and β cannot be independent, but must be related as:
- Generally speaking, we can find that α
 ≥ β. Given the constraint on these two values, we can thus conclude that:

$$0 \le |\beta| \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad \qquad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \le |\beta| \le 1$$



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Example – 1 (contd.)

Solution:

I am amused by the trivial problems that you apparently find so difficult. I know that:

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{V_1^-}{V_1^+} = S_{11} = 0.0$$

and

$$T_{21} = \frac{V_2^-}{V_1^+} = S_{21} = 0.5$$

NO!!! The above solution is **not correct**!



Remember, $V_1^{-}/V_1^{+} = S_{11}$ only if ports 2 and 3 are terminated in matched loads! In this problem port 3 is terminated with a short circuit.

Therefore:

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{V_1}{V_1^+} \neq S_{11}$$

and similarly:

$$T_{21} = \frac{V_2^-}{V_1^+} \neq S_{21}$$

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Example – 1 (contd.)

• To determine the values T_{21} and Γ_1 , we must start with the **three** equations provided by the **scattering matrix**:

$$V_1^- = 0.2V_2^+ + 0.5V_3^+ \qquad \qquad V_2^- = 0.5V_1^+ + 0.2V_3^+ \qquad \qquad V_3^- = 0.5V_1^+ + 0.5V_2^- = 0.5V_1^- + 0.5V_2^- = 0.5$$

• and the two equations provided by the attached loads:

$$V_2^+ = 0$$
 $V_3^+ = -V_3^-$

Solve those five expressions to find:

$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{V_1^-}{V_1^+} = -0.25$$
 $T_{21} = \frac{V_2}{V_1^+} = 0.4$



Example – 2

- Consider a **two-port device** with $Z_0 = 50\Omega$ and $S(\omega = \omega_0) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 & j0.7 \\ j0.7 & -0.2 \end{bmatrix}$
- Say that the transmission line connected to port 2 of this device is terminated in a matched load, and that the wave incident on port 1 is:

$$V_1^+(z_1) = -j2e^{-j\beta z_1}$$
 where $z_{1P} = z_{2P} = 0$.

Determine:

- **1.** the port voltages $V_1(z_1 = z_{1P})$ and $V_2(z_2 = z_{2P})$
- **2.** the port currents $I_1(z_1 = z_{1P})$ and $I_2(z_2 = z_{2P})$
- **3.** the net power flowing into port 1

Solution: 1. Given the **incident** wave on port 1 is:

$$V_1^+(z_1) = -j2e^{-j\beta z_1}$$

• we can conclude (since $z_{1P} = 0$):

$$V_1^+(z_1 = z_{1P}) = -j2e^{-j\beta z_{1P}} = -j2e^{-j\beta(0)} = -j2$$

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Example – 2 (contd.)

since port 2 is matched (and only because its matched!), we find:

 $V_1^-(z_1 = z_{1P}) = S_{11}V_1^+(z_1 = z_{1P}) = 0.1(-j2) = -j0.2$

• The voltage at port 1 is thus:

 $V_1(z_1 = z_{1P}) = V_1^+(z_1 = z_{1P}) + V_1^-(z_1 = z_{1P}) = -j2 + (-j0.2) = -j2.2 = 2.2e^{j(-\pi/2)}$

• Similarly, since port 2 is matched: $V_2^+(z_2 = z_{2P}) = 0$

• Therefore:
$$V_2^-(z_2 = z_{2P}) = S_{21}V_1^+(z_1 = z_{1P}) = j0.7(-j2) = 1.4$$

• The voltage at port 2 is thus: $V_{2}(z_{2} = z_{2P}) = V_{2}^{+}(z_{2} = z_{2P}) + V_{2}^{-}(z_{2} = z_{2P}) = 0 + 1.4 = 1.4 = 1.4 = 1.4e^{-j0}$



Example – 2 (contd.)

2. The port currents can be easily determined from the results of the previous section

$$I_{1}(z_{1} = z_{1P}) = I_{1}^{+}(z_{1} = z_{1P}) - I_{1}^{-}(z_{1} = z_{1P}) = \frac{V_{1}^{+}(z_{1} = z_{1P})}{Z_{0}} - \frac{V_{1}^{-}(z_{1} = z_{1P})}{Z_{0}}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_{1}(z_{1} = z_{1P}) = -j\frac{2.0}{50} + j\frac{0.2}{50} = -j\frac{1.8}{50} = -j0.036 = 0.036e^{-j\pi/2}$$

$$I_{2}(z_{2} = z_{2P}) = I_{2}^{+}(z_{2} = z_{2P}) - I_{2}^{-}(z_{2} = z_{2P}) = \frac{V_{2}^{+}(z_{2} = z_{2P})}{Z_{0}} - \frac{V_{2}^{-}(z_{2} = z_{2P})}{Z_{0}}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_{2}(z_{2} = z_{2P}) = \frac{0}{50} - \frac{1.4}{50} = -\frac{1.4}{50} = -0.028 = 0.028e^{+j\pi}$$

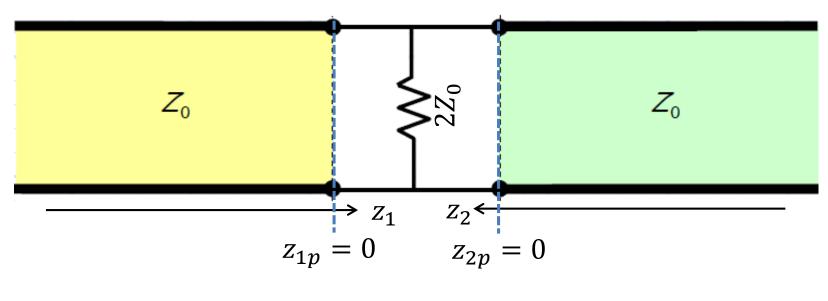
3. The **net power** flowing into port 1 is: $\Delta P_1 = P_1^+ - P_1^-$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta P_1 = \frac{\left|V_1^+\right|^2}{2Z_0} - \frac{\left|V_1^-\right|^2}{2Z_0} \Rightarrow \Delta P_1 = \frac{\left(2\right)^2 - \left(0.2\right)^2}{2(50)} = 0.0396 \quad \text{Watts}$$



Example – 3

• determine the **scattering matrix** of this two-port device:





Q: OK, but how can we **determine** the scattering matrix of a device? A: We must carefully apply our **transmission line theory**!

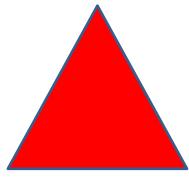
Q: Determination of the Scattering Matrix of a multi-port device would seem to be particularly laborious. Is there any way to simplify the process?
A: Many (if not most) of the useful devices made by us humans exhibit a high degree of symmetry. This can greatly simplify circuit analysis—if we know how to exploit it!

Q: Is there any other way to use circuit symmetry to our advantage?
A: Absolutely! One of the most powerful tools in circuit analysis is Odd-Even
Mode analysis.



Circuit Symmetry

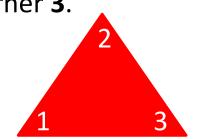
- One of the most powerful concepts in for evaluating circuits is that of symmetry. Normal humans have a conceptual understanding of symmetry, based on an aesthetic perception of structures and figures.
- On the other hand, mathematicians (as they are wont to do) have defined symmetry in a very precise and unambiguous way. Using a branch of mathematics called Group Theory, first developed by the young genius Évariste Galois (1811-1832), symmetry is defined by a set of operations (a group) that leaves an object unchanged.
- Initially, the symmetric "objects" under consideration by Galois were polynomial functions, but group theory can likewise be applied to evaluate the symmetry of structures.
- For example, consider an ordinary equilateral triangle; we find that it is a highly symmetric object!



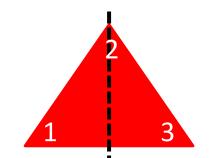
Q: Obviously this is true. We don't need a mathematician to tell us that!
A: Yes, but how symmetric is it? How does the symmetry of an equilateral triangle compare to that of an isosceles triangle, a rectangle, or a square?



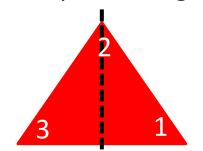
 To determine its level of symmetry, let's first label each corner as corner 1, corner 2, and corner 3.



First, we note that the triangle exhibits a plane of **reflection symmetry**:



Thus, if we "**reflect**" the triangle across this plane we get:

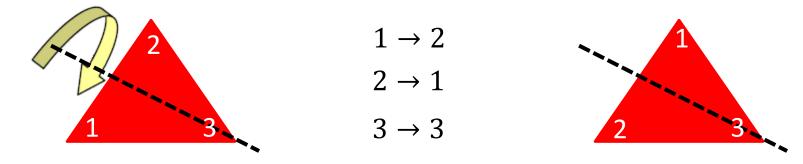


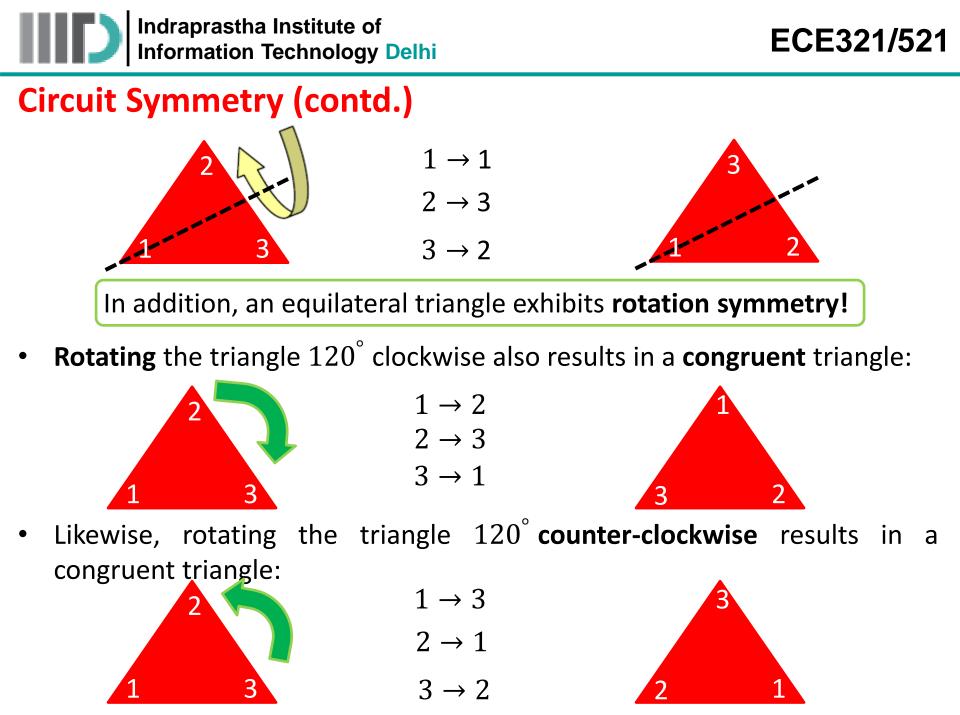


Note that although corners 1 and 3 have changed places, the triangle itself remains **unchanged**—that is, it has the same **shape**, same **size**, and same **orientation** after reflecting across the symmetric plane!

- Mathematicians say that these two triangles are **congruent.** $1 \rightarrow 3$
- Note that we can write this reflection operation as a $2 \rightarrow 2$ permutation (an exchange of position) of the corners, defined as: $3 \rightarrow 1$

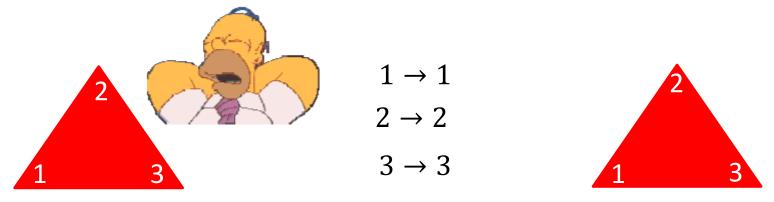
Q: But wait! Isn't there more than just one plane of reflection symmetry?A: Definitely! There are two more:







 Additionally, there is one more operation that will result in a congruent triangle—do nothing!



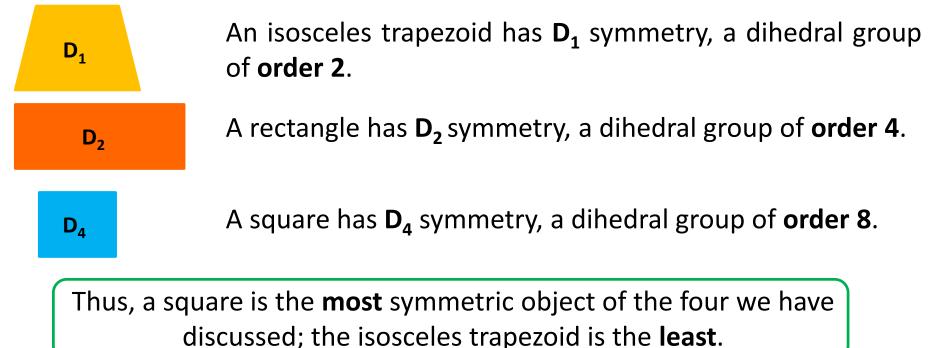
This seemingly **trivial** operation is known as the **identity operation**, and is an element of **every** symmetry group.

These 6 operations form the **dihedral symmetry group D**₃ which has order six (i.e., it consists of six operations). An object that remains congruent when operated on by any and all of these six operations is said to have **D**₃ symmetry.

An equilateral triangle has **D**₃ symmetry!



 By applying a similar analysis to an isosceles trapezoid, rectangle, and square, we find that:



Q: Well that's all just fascinating—but just what the heck does this have to do with RF circuits!?!
A: Plenty! Useful circuits often display high levels of symmetry.

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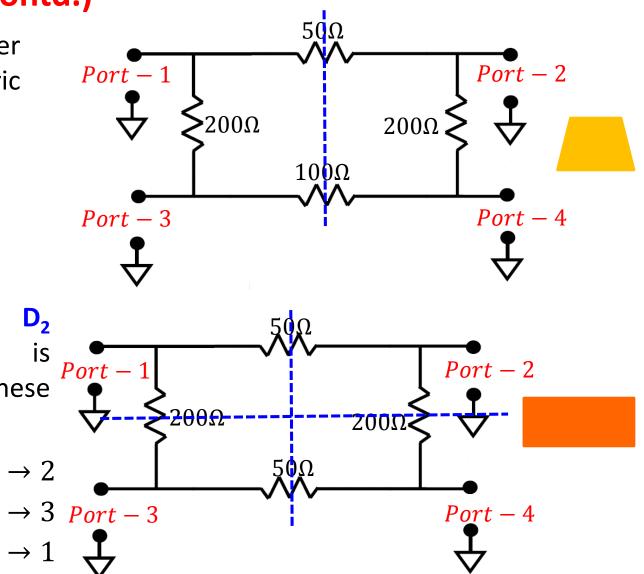
Circuit Symmetry (contd.)

- For example consider these D₁ symmetric multi-port circuits:
 - $1 \rightarrow 2 \qquad 3 \rightarrow 4$ $2 \rightarrow 1 \qquad 4 \rightarrow 3$
 - Or this circuit with D₂ symmetry: which is congruent under these permutations:

$$1 \rightarrow 3, 2 \rightarrow 4, 3 \rightarrow 1, 4 \rightarrow 2$$

$$1 \rightarrow 2, 2 \rightarrow 1, 3 \rightarrow 4, 4 \rightarrow 3 P$$

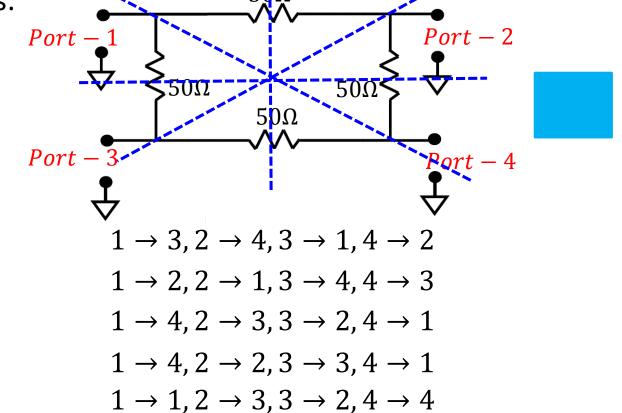
$$1 \rightarrow 4, 2 \rightarrow 3, 3 \rightarrow 2, 4 \rightarrow 1$$





Circuit Symmetry (contd.)

• Or this circuit with D_4 symmetry: which is **congruent** under these permutations:



The **importance** of this can be seen when considering the scattering matrix, impedance matrix, or admittance matrix of these networks.

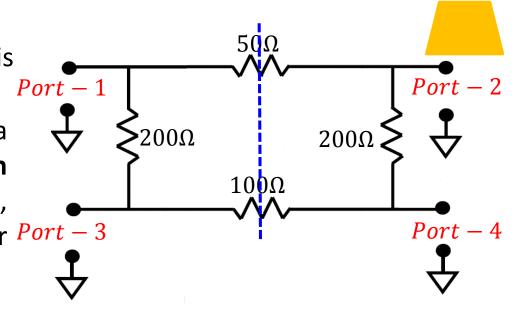
Circuit Symmetry (contd.)

- For example, consider again this symmetric circuit:
- This four-port network has a single plane of reflection symmetry (i.e., D₁ symmetry), and thus is congruent under Port 3 the permutation:

 $1 \rightarrow 2, 2 \rightarrow 1, 3 \rightarrow 4, 4 \rightarrow 3$

- So, since (for example) $1 \rightarrow 2$, we find that for this circuit: $S_{11} = S_{22}$ $Z_{11} = Z_{22}$ $Y_{11} = Y_{22}$ must be true!
- Or, since $1 \rightarrow 2$ and $3 \rightarrow 4$ we find:

 $S_{13} = S_{24}$ $Z_{13} = Z_{24}$ $Y_{13} = Y_{24}$ $S_{31} = S_{42}$ $Z_{31} = Z_{42}$ $Y_{31} = Y_{42}$



 Continuing for all elements of the permutation, we find that for this symmetric circuit, the scattering matrix must have this form:

and the **impedance** and **admittance** matrices would likewise have this same form.

• Note there are just **8** independent elements in this matrix. If we also consider **reciprocity** (a constraint independent of symmetry) we find that $S_{31} = S_{13}$ and $S_{41} = S_{14}$, and the matrix reduces further to one with just **6** independent elements:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{21} & S_{13} & S_{14} \\ S_{21} & S_{11} & S_{14} & S_{13} \\ S_{31} & S_{41} & S_{33} & S_{43} \\ S_{41} & S_{31} & S_{43} & S_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

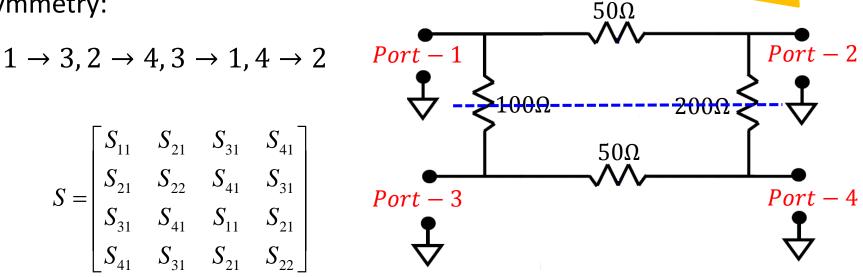
 $S = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{21} & S_{31} & S_{41} \\ S_{21} & S_{11} & S_{41} & S_{31} \\ S_{31} & S_{41} & S_{33} & S_{43} \\ S_{41} & S_{31} & S_{43} & S_{33} \end{bmatrix}$

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Circuit Symmetry (contd.)

 Or, for circuits with this D₁ symmetry:



Q: Interesting. But **why do we care**?

A: This will greatly **simplify** the analysis of this symmetric circuit, as we need to determine **only** six matrix elements!

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Circuit Symmetry (contd.)

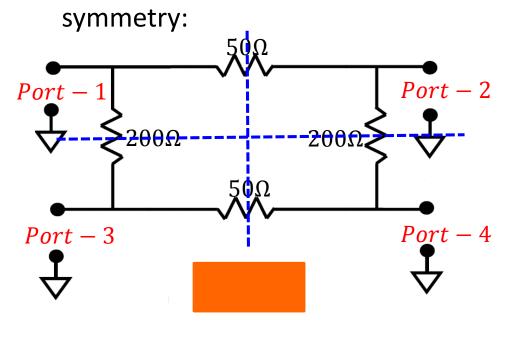
For a circuit with **D**₂

we find that the impedance (or scattering, or admittance) matrix has the form:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{21} & S_{31} & S_{41} \\ S_{21} & S_{11} & S_{41} & S_{31} \\ S_{31} & S_{41} & S_{11} & S_{21} \\ S_{41} & S_{31} & S_{21} & S_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: there are just **four** independent values!

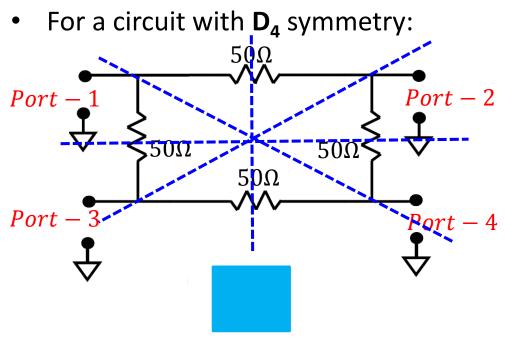
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Circuit Symmetry (contd.)



 we find that the admittance (or scattering, or impedance) matrix has the form:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{21} & S_{21} & S_{41} \\ S_{21} & S_{11} & S_{41} & S_{21} \\ S_{21} & S_{41} & S_{11} & S_{21} \\ S_{41} & S_{21} & S_{21} & S_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: there are just **three** independent values!

 One more interesting thing (yet another one!); recall that we earlier found that a matched, lossless, reciprocal 4-port device must have a scattering matrix with one of two forms:

S

<i>S</i> =	0	α	jβ	0	
	α	0	0	jβ	
	jβ	0	0	α	
	0	jβ	α	0	
<u>Symmetric</u>					

The "symmetric solution" has the same form as the scattering matrix of a circuit with D2 symmetry!

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \alpha & j\beta & 0 \\ \alpha & 0 & 0 & -\beta \\ \beta & 0 & 0 & \alpha \\ 0 & -\beta & \alpha & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Anti-symmetric

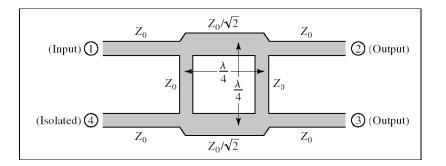
$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & S_{21} & S_{31} & 0 \\ S_{21} & 0 & 0 & S_{31} \\ S_{31} & 0 & 0 & S_{21} \\ 0 & S_{31} & S_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Q: Does this mean that a matched, lossless, reciprocal four-port device with the "symmetric" scattering matrix **must** exhibit **D**₂ symmetry? A: That's **exactly** what it means!

- Not only can we determine from the form of the scattering matrix whether a particular design is possible (e.g., a matched, lossless, reciprocal 3-port device is impossible), we can also determine the general structure of a possible solutions (e.g. the circuit must have D₂ symmetry).
- Likewise, the "anti-symmetric" matched, lossless, reciprocal four-port network must exhibit D₁ symmetry!

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & S_{21} & S_{31} & 0 \\ S_{21} & 0 & 0 & -S_{31} \\ S_{31} & 0 & 0 & S_{21} \\ 0 & -S_{31} & S_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

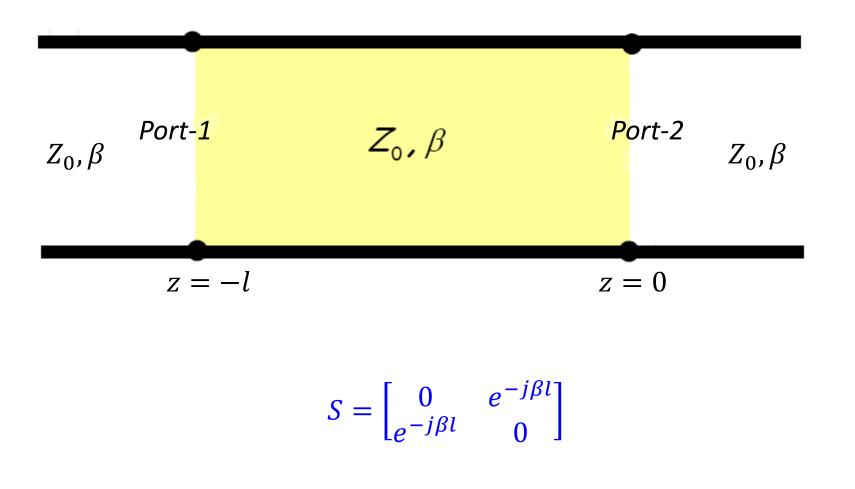
We'll see just what these symmetric, matched, lossless, reciprocal four-port circuits actually are later in the course!





Example – 4

 determine the scattering matrix of the simple two-port device shown below:

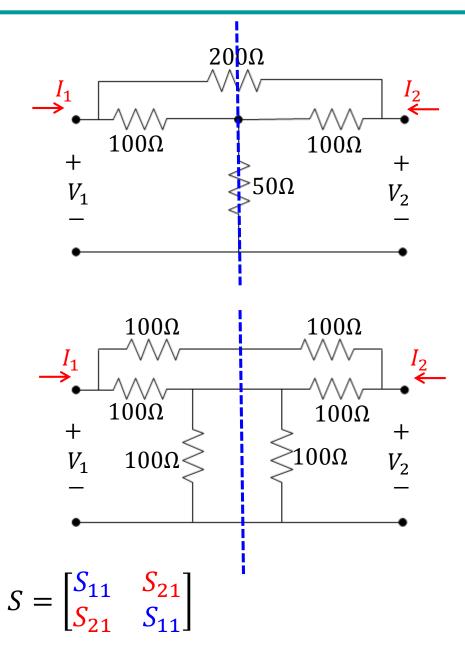


Symmetric Circuit Analysis

- Consider this D₁ symmetric twoport device:
- **Q:** Yikes! The plane of reflection symmetry slices through two resistors. What can we do about that?

A: Resistors are easily split into two equal pieces: the 200Ω resistor into two 100Ω resistors in **series**, and the 50Ω resistor as two 100Ω resistors in **parallel**.

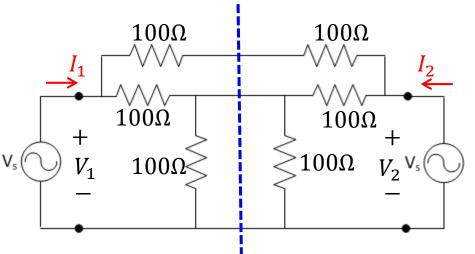
 Recall that the symmetry of this 2-port device leads to simplified network matrices:





Q: can circuit symmetry likewise simplify the procedure of determining these elements? In other words, can symmetry be used to simplify circuit analysis?A: You bet!

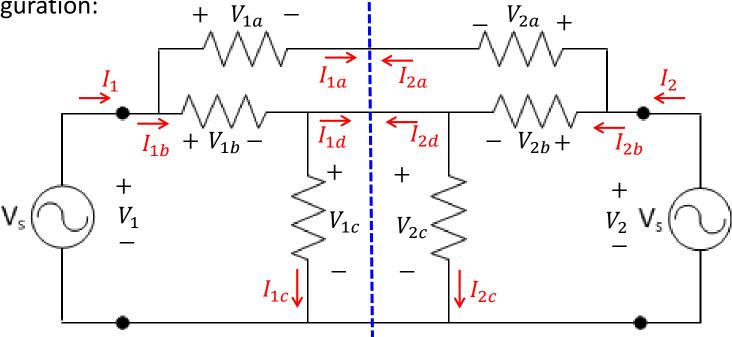
 First, consider the case where we attach sources to circuit in a way that preserves the circuit symmetry:



But remember! In order for **symmetry to be preserved**, the source values on both sides (i.e, V_s) must be **identical**!



Now, consider the voltages and currents within this circuit under this symmetric configuration:



Since this circuit possesses bilateral (reflection) symmetry (1→2, 2→1), symmetric currents and voltages must be equal:

$$V_{1} = V_{2} \qquad V_{1a} = V_{2a} \qquad V_{1b} = V_{2b} \qquad V_{1c} = V_{2c}$$
$$I_{1} = I_{2} \qquad I_{1a} = I_{2a} \qquad I_{1b} = I_{2b} \qquad I_{1c} = I_{2c} \qquad I_{1d} = I_{2d}$$

Q: Wait! This **can't** possibly be correct! Look at currents I_{1a} and $I_{1a} = -I_{2a}$ I_{2a} , as well as currents I_{1d} and I_{2d} . From KCL, **this** must be true: $I_{1d} = -I_{2d}$

• Yet **you** say that **this** must be true: $I_{1a} = I_{2a}$ $I_{1d} = I_{2d}$

There is an obvious contradiction here! There is no way that both sets of equations can simultaneously be correct, is there?

A: Actually there is! There is one solution that will satisfy both sets of equations: $I_{1a} = I_{2a} = 0$ $I_{1d} = I_{2d} = 0$ The surrents are zero.

The currents are zero!

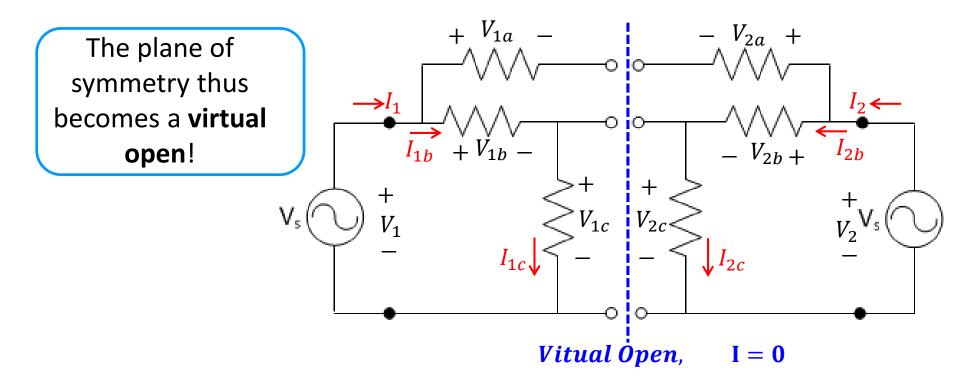


If you **think** about it, this makes **perfect sense**! The result says that **no current** will flow from one side of the symmetric circuit into the other.

 If current did flow across the symmetry plane, then the circuit symmetry would be destroyed—one side would effectively become the "source side", and the other the "load side" (i.e., the source side delivers current to the load side).



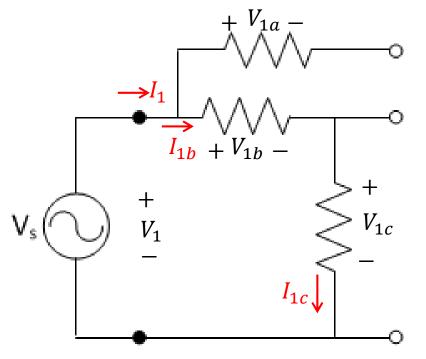
 Thus, no current will flow across the reflection symmetry plane of a symmetric circuit—the symmetry plane thus acts as a open circuit!





Q: So what?

A: So what! This means that our circuit can be **split apart** into **two separate** but **identical** circuits. Solve **one** half-circuit, and you have **solved** the other!



$$V_1 = V_2 = V_s$$
 $V_{1a} = V_{2a} = 0$
 $V_{1b} = V_{2b} = \frac{V_s}{2}$ $V_{1c} = V_{2c} = \frac{V_s}{2}$

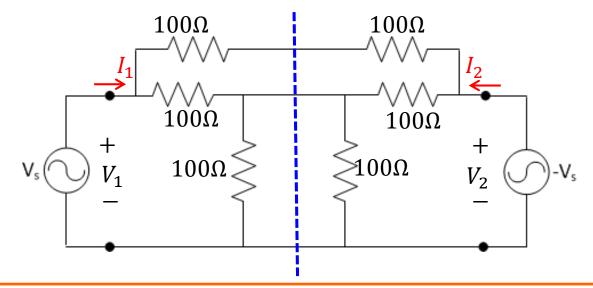
 $I_{1} = I_{2} = \frac{V_{s}}{200} \qquad I_{1a} = I_{2a} = 0$ $I_{1b} = I_{2b} = \frac{V_{s}}{200} \qquad I_{1c} = I_{2c} = \frac{V_{s}}{200}$

 $I_{1d} = I_{2d} = 0$



Asymmetric Circuit Analysis

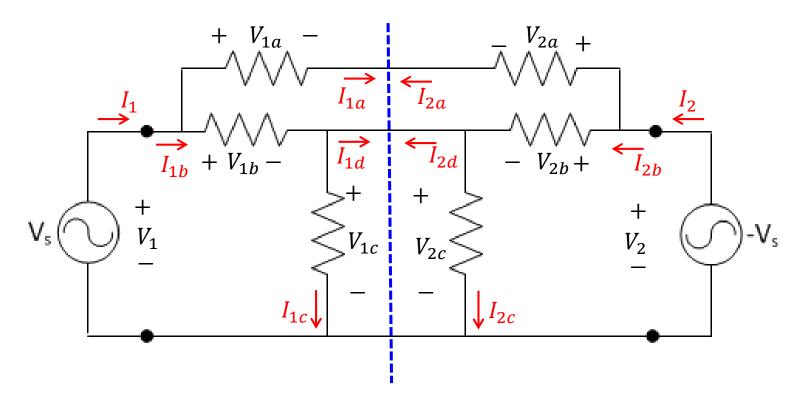
 Now, consider another type of symmetry, where the sources are equal but opposite (i.e., 180 degrees out of phase).



This situation still preserves the **symmetry** of the circuit— **somewhat.** The **voltages** and **currents** in the circuit will now posses **odd symmetry**—they will be **equal but opposite** (180 degrees out of phase) at symmetric points across the symmetry plane.

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Asymmetric Circuit Analysis (contd.)

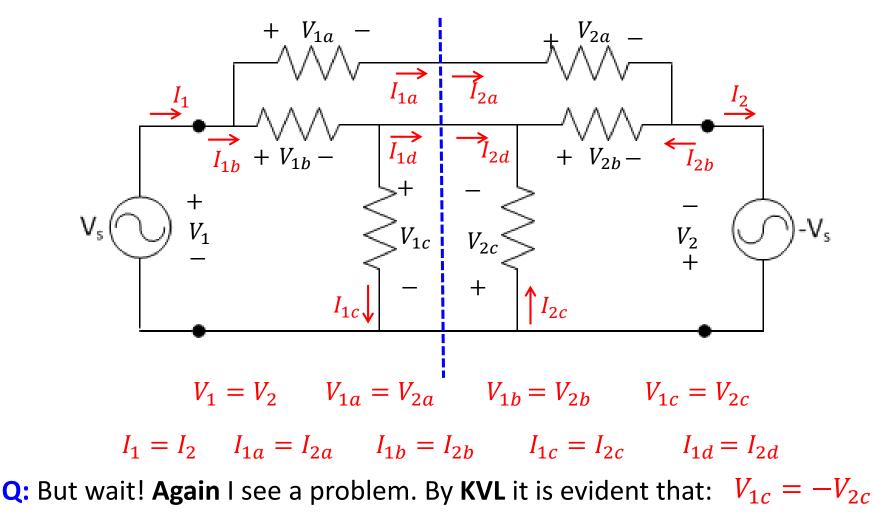


 $V_{1} = -V_{2} \qquad V_{1a} = -V_{2a} \qquad V_{1b} = -V_{2b} \qquad V_{1c} = -V_{2c}$ $I_{1} = -I_{2} \qquad I_{1a} = -I_{2a} \qquad I_{1b} = -I_{2b} \qquad I_{1c} = -I_{2c} \qquad I_{1d} = -I_{2d}$



Asymmetric Circuit Analysis (contd.)

• Perhaps it would be easier to **redefine** the circuit variables as:



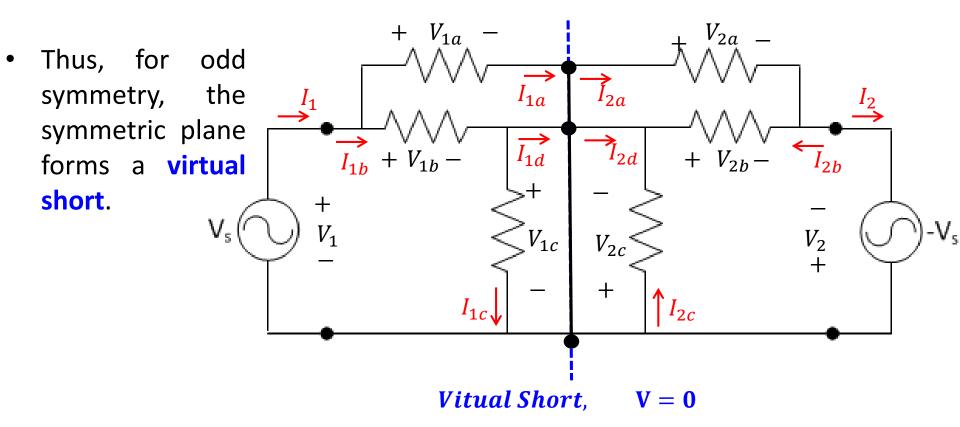
Yet **you** say that $V_{1c} = V_{2c}$ must be true!



Asymmetric Circuit Analysis (contd.)

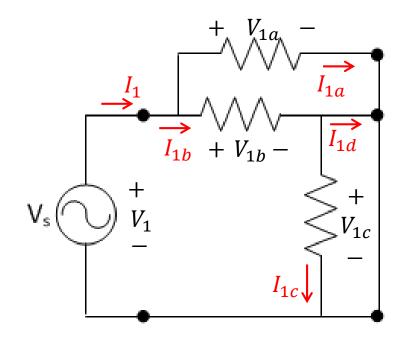
A: Again, the solution to **both** equations is **zero**! $V_{1c} = V_{2c} = 0$

For the case of **odd symmetry**, the symmetric plane must be a plane of **constant potential** (i.e., constant voltage)—just like a **short circuit**!



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Asymmetric Circuit Analysis (contd.)



	$I_1 = \frac{V_s}{50}$
$V_1 = V_s$	$I_{1a} = \frac{V_s}{100}$
$V_{1b} = V_s$	$I_{1b} = \frac{V_s}{100}$
$V_{1a} = V_s$	$I_{1c} = 0$
$V_{1c}=0$	$I_{1d} = \frac{V_s}{100}$



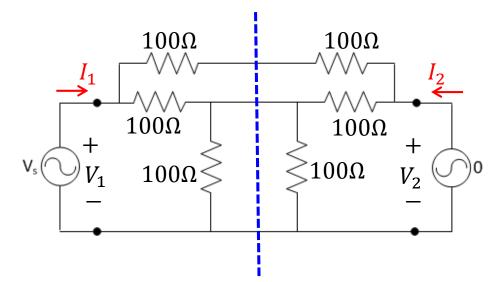
Odd/Even Mode Analysis

Q: Although symmetric circuits appear to be plentiful in microwave engineering, it seems unlikely that we would often encounter symmetric sources. Do virtual shorts and opens typically ever occur?

A: One word—superposition!

If the elements of our circuit are **independent** and **linear**, we can apply superposition to analyze **symmetric circuits** when **nonsymmetric** sources are attached.

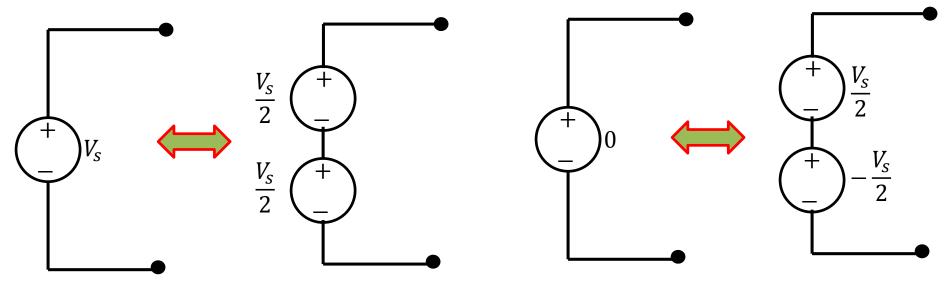
 For example, say we wish to determine the admittance matrix of this circuit. We would place a voltage source at port 1, and a short circuit at port 2—a set of asymmetric sources if there ever was one!





Odd/Even Mode Analysis (contd.)

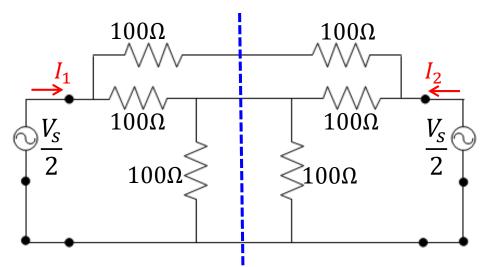
• Here's the really **neat** part. We find that the source on port 1 can be modelled as **two equal** voltage sources in series, whereas the source at port 2 can be modelled as **two equal but opposite** sources in series.



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• Therefore an equivalent circuit is: • Therefore requivalent $v_{s/2}$ 100Ω 100Ω $v_{s/2}$ 100Ω $v_{s/2}$ 100Ω $v_{s/2}$ $v_{s/2}$

Now, the above circuit (due to the sources) is obviously asymmetric—no virtual ground, nor virtual short is present. But, let's say we turn off (i.e., set to V =0) the bottom source on each side of the circuit:



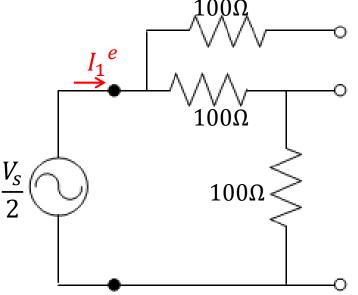
Our **symmetry** has been **restored**! The symmetry plane is a **virtual open**.



Odd/Even Mode Analysis (contd.)

- The circuit is referred to as its even mode, and analysis of it is known as the even mode analysis. The solutions are known as the even mode currents and voltages!
- Evaluating the resulting even mode half circuit we find:

$$I_1^e = \frac{V_s}{2} \frac{1}{200} = \frac{V_s}{400} = I_2^e$$



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 V_{s}

 100Ω

100Ω

^{*}100Ω

Odd/Even Mode Analysis (contd.)

- Now, let's turn the bottom sources back on—but turn off the top two!
- We now have a circuit with odd symmetry—the symmetry plane is a virtual short!
- This circuit is referred to as its **odd mode**, and analysis of it is known as the **odd mode analysis**. The solutions are known as the odd mode **currents** and **voltages**!

100Ω

100Ω

100Ω

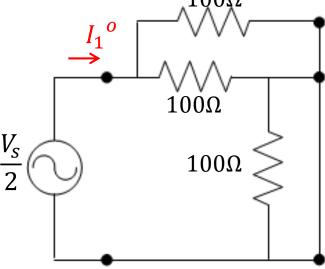
 I_1

 V_{s}

2

• Evaluating the resulting **odd mode** half circuit we find:

$$I_1^o = \frac{V_s}{2} \frac{1}{50} = \frac{V_s}{100} = -I_2^o$$



Odd/Even Mode Analysis (contd.)

Q: But what good is this "even mode" and "odd mode" analysis? After all, the source on port 1 is $V_{s1} = V_s$, and the source on port 2 is $V_{s2} = 0$. What are the currents $I_1 = I_2$ for **these** sources?

A: Recall that these sources are the **sum** of the even and odd mode sources:

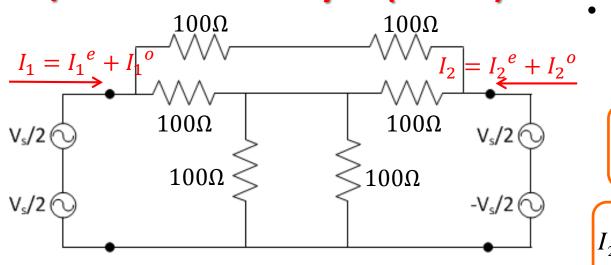
First Source:
$$V_s = \frac{V_s}{2} + \frac{V_s}{2}$$
 Second Source: $V_s = \frac{V_s}{2} - \frac{V_s}{2}$

 and thus—since all the devices in the circuit are linear—we know from superposition that the currents I₁ and I₂ are simply the sum of the odd and even mode currents !

$$I_{1} = I_{1}^{e} + I_{1}^{o}$$
$$I_{2} = I_{2}^{e} + I_{2}^{o}$$

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Odd/Even Mode Analysis (contd.)



Thus, **adding** the odd and even mode analysis results together:

$$I_1 = I_1^e + I_1^o = \frac{V_s}{400} + \frac{V_s}{100} = \frac{V_s}{80}$$

$$I_2 = I_2^e + I_2^o = \frac{V_s}{400} - \frac{V_s}{100} = -\frac{3V_s}{400}$$

• And then the **admittance parameters** for this two port network is:

$$y_{11} = \frac{I_1}{V_{s1}} |_{V_{s2}=0} = \frac{V_s}{80} \frac{1}{V_s} = \frac{1}{80}$$

$$y_{21} = \frac{I_2}{V_{s1}} |_{V_{s2}=0} = -\frac{3V_s}{400} \frac{1}{V_s} = \frac{-3}{400}$$

$$y_{22} = y_{11} = \frac{1}{80}$$

$$y_{12} = y_{21} = \frac{-3}{400}$$

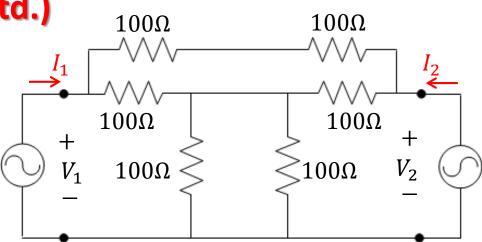
Thus, the full admittance matrix is:

x is:
$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} 1/80 & -3/400 \\ -3/400 & 1/80 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Odd/Even Mode Analysis (contd.)

- **Q:** What happens if **both** sources are **non-zero**? Can we use symmetry then?
- A: Absolutely! Consider this problem, where **neither** source is equal to zero:

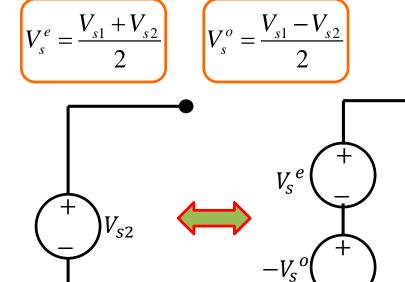


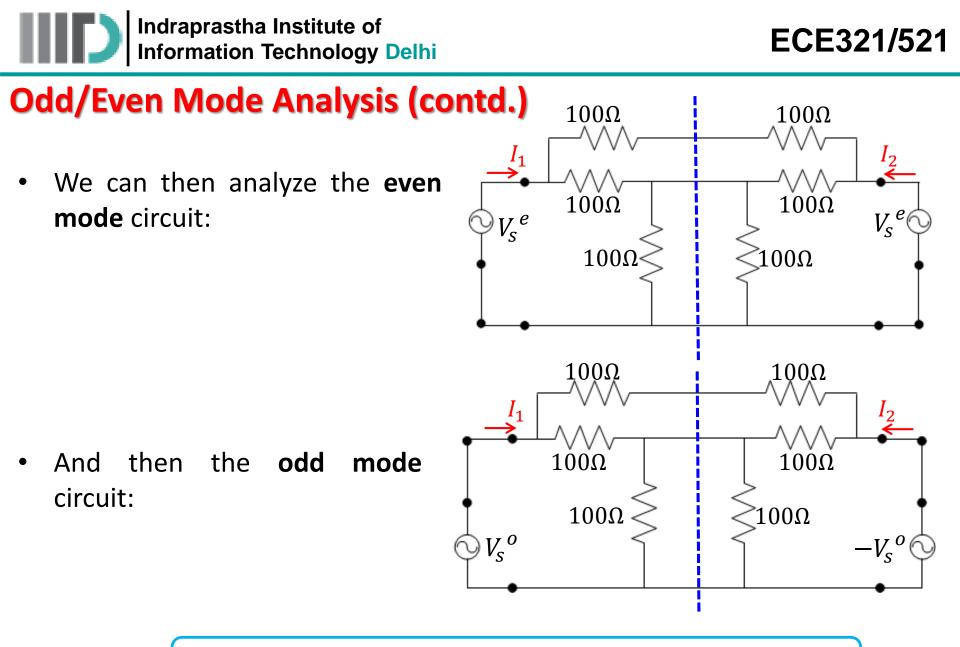
 In this case we can define an even mode and an odd mode source as:

 V_{s1}

 V_s^{e}

 V_s^{o}





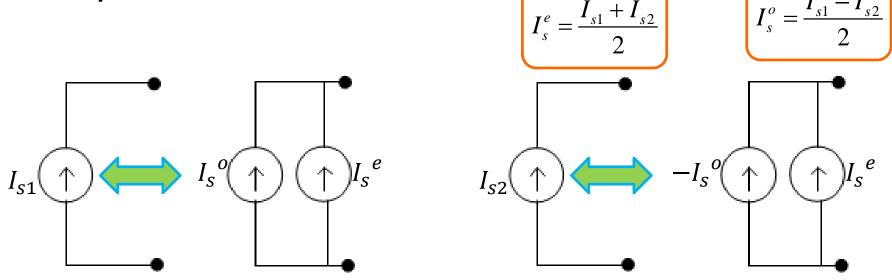
And then combine these results in a **linear superposition**!



Odd/Even Mode Analysis (contd.)

Q: What about **current sources**? Can I likewise consider them to be a **sum** of an odd mode source and an even mode source?

A: Yes, but be very careful! The current of two source will add if they are placed in parallel—not in series! Therefore:



 One final word (I promise!) about circuit symmetry and even/odd mode analysis: precisely the same concept exits in electronic circuit design!

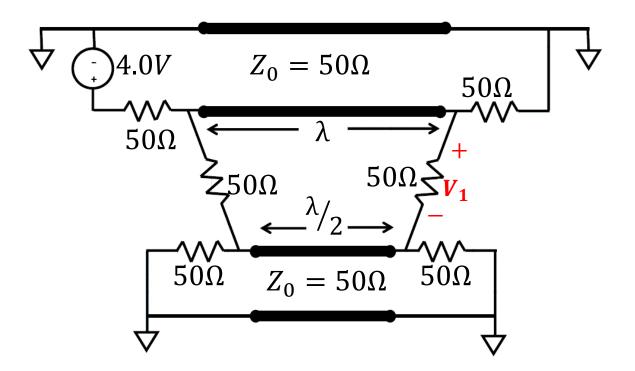


Specifically, the **differential** (odd) and **common** (even) **mode** analysis of bilaterally symmetric electronic circuits, such as **differential amplifiers**!



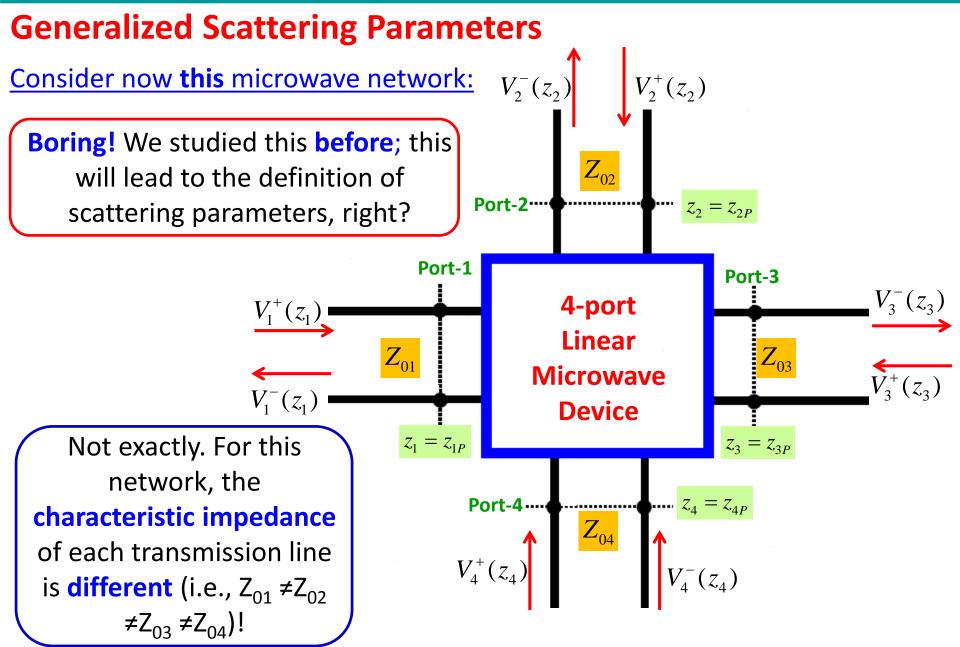
Example – 2

• Carefully (very carefully) consider the symmetric circuit below:



Use odd-even mode analysis to determine the value of voltage V_1 .







Generalized Scattering Parameters (contd.)

Yikes! You said scattering parameters are **dependent** on transmission line characteristic impedance Z₀. If these values are **different** for each port, which Z₀ do we use?

For this general case, we must use generalized scattering parameters!
 First, we define a slightly new form of complex wave amplitudes

$$a_n = \frac{V_n^+}{\sqrt{Z_{0n}}} \qquad \qquad b_n = \frac{V_n^-}{\sqrt{Z_{0n}}}$$

<u>The key things to note are:</u>

___``

b

variable a (e.g., a₁,a₂, ...) denotes the complex amplitude of an **incident (i.e., plus)** wave.

variable b (e.g., a₁,a₂, ...) denotes the complex amplitude of an **exiting (i.e., minus)** wave.



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Generalized Scattering Parameters (contd.)

We now get to **rewrite** all our transmission line knowledge in terms of these generalized complex amplitudes!



• First, our two propagating wave amplitudes (i.e., plus and minus) are **compactly** written as:

$$V_n^+ = a_n \sqrt{Z_{0n}}$$
 $V_n^- = b_n \sqrt{Z_{0n}}$

• Therefore:

$$V_n^+(z_n) = a_n \sqrt{Z_{0n}} \cdot e^{-j\beta z_n}$$

$$V_n^-(z_n) = b_n \sqrt{Z_{0n}} \cdot e^{+j\beta z_n}$$

$$\Gamma(z_n) = \frac{b_n}{a_n} e^{+j2\beta z_n}$$



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Generalized Scattering Parameters (contd.)

• Similarly, the total voltage, current, and impedance at the **n**th port are:

$$V_n(z_n) = \sqrt{Z_{0n}} \left(a_n \cdot e^{-j\beta z_n} + b_n e^{+j\beta z_n} \right)$$

$$I_n(z_n) = \frac{\left(a_n \cdot e^{-j\beta z_n} - b_n e^{+j\beta z_n}\right)}{\sqrt{Z_{0n}}}$$

$$Z(z_{n}) = \frac{a_{n} \cdot e^{-j\beta z_{n}} + b_{n} e^{+j\beta z_{n}}}{a_{n} \cdot e^{-j\beta z_{n}} - b_{n} e^{+j\beta z_{n}}}$$

 Assuming that our port planes are defined with z_{nP} = 0, we can determine the total voltage, current, and impedance at port n as:

$$V_n \doteq V_n (z_n = 0) = \sqrt{Z_{0n}} (a_n + b_n)$$

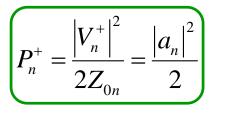
$$I_{n} \doteq I_{n}(z_{n} = 0) = \frac{(a_{n} - b_{n})}{\sqrt{Z_{0n}}}$$

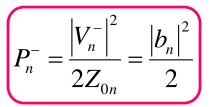
$$Z_n \doteq Z(z_n = 0) = \frac{a_n + b_n}{a_n - b_n}$$



Generalized Scattering Parameters (contd.)

• Similarly, the **power** associated with each wave is:





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As such, the power delivered to port n (i.e., the power absorbed by port n) is:

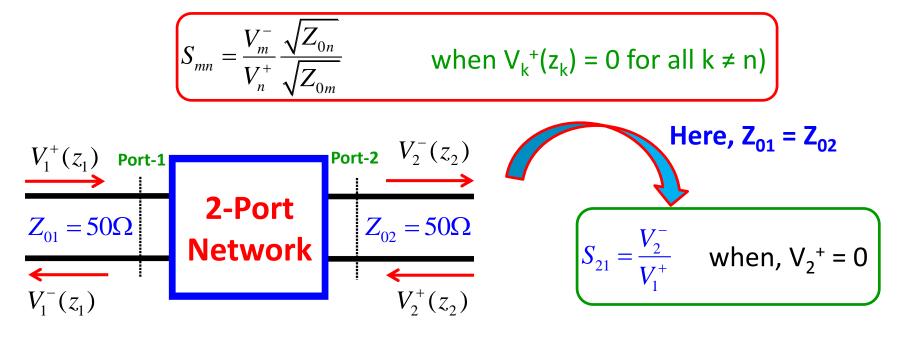
$$P_{n} = P_{n}^{+} - P_{n}^{-} = \frac{\left|a_{n}\right|^{2} - \left|b_{n}\right|^{2}}{2}$$

So what's the **big deal**? This is yet **another way** to express transmission line activity. Do we **really** need to know this, or is this simply a strategy for making the next quiz **even harder**?

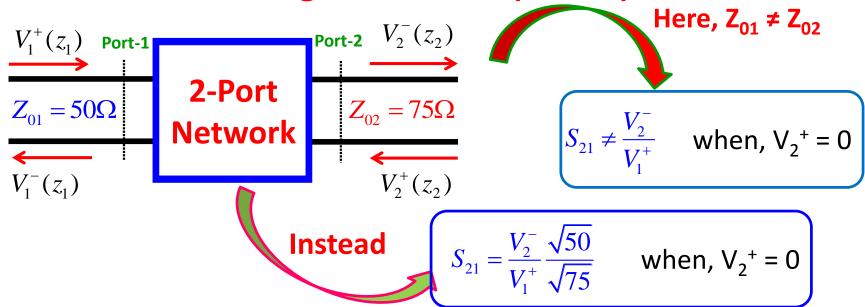


Generalized Scattering Parameters (contd.)

- You may have noticed that this notation (a_n, b_n) provides descriptions that are a bit "cleaner" and more symmetric between current and voltage.
- However, the main reason for this notation is for evaluating the scattering parameters of a device with dissimilar transmission line impedance (e.g., Z₀₁ ≠ Z₀₂ ≠ Z₀₃ ≠ Z₀₄).
- For these cases we must use **generalized scattering parameters**:



Generalized Scattering Parameters (contd.)



 Note that the generalized scattering parameters can be more compactly written in terms of our new wave amplitude notation:

$$S_{mn} = \frac{V_m^-}{V_n^+} \frac{\sqrt{Z_{0n}}}{\sqrt{Z_{0m}}} = \frac{b_m}{a_n} \quad \text{when } a_k = 0 \text{ for all } k \neq n \text{)}$$

Remember, this is the generalized form of scattering parameter—it always provides the correct answer, regardless of the values of Z_{0m} or Z_{0n}!

Generalized Scattering Parameters (contd.)

• But why can't we define the scattering parameter as $S_{mn} = V_m^{-}/V_n^{+}$, regardless of Z_{0m} or Z_{0n} ? Who says we must define it with those awful Z_{0n} values in there?

Recall that a lossless device will **always** have a **unitary** scattering matrix. As a result, the scattering parameters of a lossless device will **always** satisfy, for example:

=1

This is true only if generalized scattering parameters are used The scattering parameters of a lossless device will form a unitary matrix **only** if defined as $S_{mn} = b_m/a_n$. If we use $S_{mn} = V_m^-/V_n^+$, the matrix will be unitary **only** if the connecting transmission lines have the **same** characteristic impedance.



Generalized Scattering Parameters (contd.)

• Do we really **care** if the matrix of a lossless device is unitary or not?





Example – 3

 let's consider a perfect connector—an electrically very small two-port device that allows us to connect the ends of different transmission lines together.



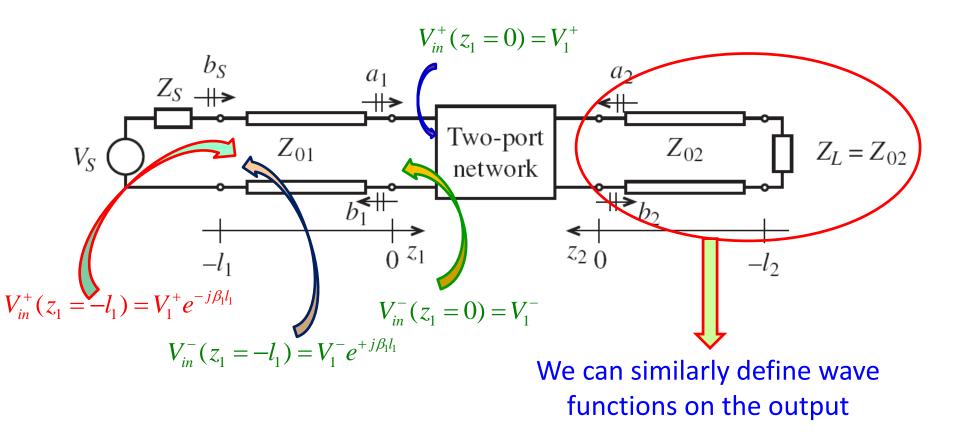
Determine the S-matrix of this ideal connector:

- 1. First case: it connects two transmission lines with same characteristic impedance of Z_0 .
- 2. Second case: it connects two transmission lines with characteristic impedances of Z_{01} and Z_{02} respectively.



Shifting of Planes

- It is not often easy or feasible to match network ports for determination of S-parameters → in such a situation S-parameters are determined through transmission lines of finite length.
- Let us consider a 2-port network to understand these situations.





Shifting of Planes (contd.)

• The equations can be combined to form following matrix

• We can also deduce that S-parameters are linked to the generalized coefficients a_n and b_n (which in turn can be expressed through voltages) through following expressions (if we assume $Z_{01} = Z_{02}$)

$$\begin{cases} V_1^- \\ V_2^- \end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{cases} V_1^+ \\ V_2^+ \end{cases}$$



Shifting of Planes (contd.)

• Simplification of these three matrix expression results in:

$$\begin{cases} V_{in}^{-}(-l_{1}) \\ V_{out}^{-}(-l_{2}) \end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{+j\beta_{1}l_{1}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{+j\beta_{2}l_{2}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{+j\beta_{1}l_{1}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{+j\beta_{2}l_{2}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_{in}^{+}(-l_{1}) \\ V_{out}^{+}(-l_{2}) \end{bmatrix}$$

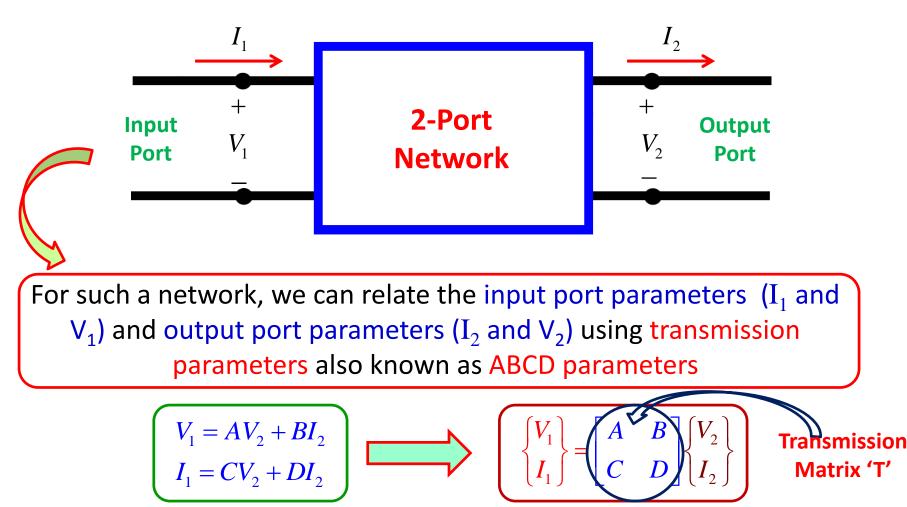
S-parameters of the shifted network [S]^{SHIFT}
Physical Meaning
$$\begin{bmatrix} S \end{bmatrix}^{SHIFT} = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11}e^{+j2\beta_{1}l_{1}} & S_{12}e^{+j(\beta_{1}l_{1}+\beta_{2}l_{2})} \\ S_{21}e^{+j(\beta_{1}l_{1}+\beta_{2}l_{2})} & S_{22}e^{+j2\beta_{2}l_{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

The first term (S_{11}) reveals that we have to take into account twice the travel time for the incident voltage to reach port-1 and, upon reflection, return to the end of the TL segment. Similarly for S_{22} at port-2. The cross terms $(S_{12}$ and S_{21}) require additive phase shifts associated with TL segments at port-1 and port-2



The Transmission Matrix

• If a network has **two** ports, then we can **alternatively** define the voltages and currents at each port as:





The Transmission Matrix (contd.)

 Similar to the impedance and admittance matrices, we determine the elements of the transmission matrix using shorts and opens.

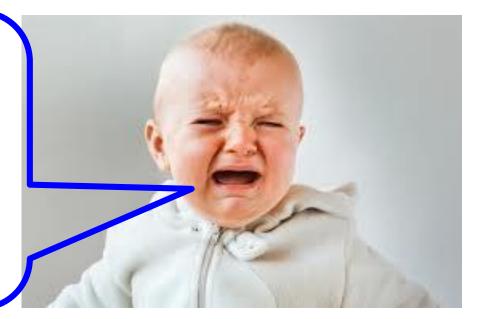
• Note when
$$I_2 = 0$$
 then: $V_1 = AV_2$ $A = \frac{V_1}{V_2}$ A is unitless (i.e., it is a coefficient)
• Note when $V_2 = 0$ then: $V_1 = BI_2$ $B = \frac{V_1}{I_2}$ B has unit of impedance (i.e., Ohms)
• Note when $I_2 = 0$ then: $I_1 = CV_2$ $C = \frac{I_1}{V_2}$ C has unit of admittance (i.e., mhos)
• Note when $V_2 = 0$ then: $I_1 = DI_2$ $D = \frac{I_1}{I_2}$ D is unitless (i.e., it is a coefficient)



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The Transmission Matrix (contd.)

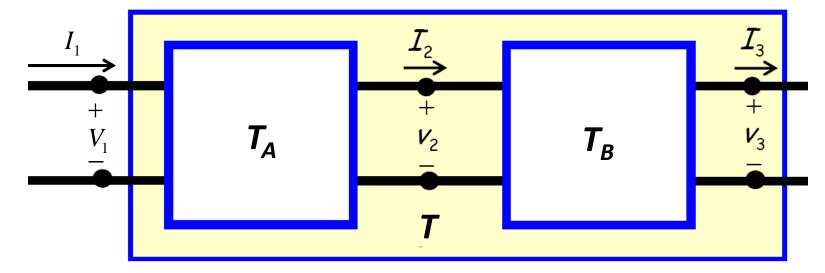
Crying out loud! We already have the impedance matrix, the scattering matrix, and the admittance matrix. Why do we need the transmission matrix? Is it somehow uniquely useful?





The Transmission Matrix (contd.)

 Let us consider the case where a 2-port network is created by connecting (i.e., cascading) two networks:



$$\left\{ \begin{matrix} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{matrix} \right\} = \boldsymbol{T}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \left\{ \begin{matrix} V_2 \\ I_2 \end{matrix} \right\}$$

$$\begin{cases} V_2 \\ I_2 \end{cases} = \boldsymbol{T}_B \begin{cases} V_3 \\ I_3 \end{cases}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{matrix} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{matrix} \right\} = \boldsymbol{T} \begin{cases} V_3 \\ I_3 \end{cases} \right\}$$



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The Transmission Matrix (contd.)

• Combining the first two equations we get:

$$\begin{cases} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{cases} = \boldsymbol{T}_A \begin{cases} V_2 \\ I_2 \end{cases} = \boldsymbol{T}_A \boldsymbol{T}_B \begin{cases} V_3 \\ I_3 \end{cases}$$

• Combining this combined relationship to the third we get:

$$\begin{cases} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{cases} = \boldsymbol{T}_A \begin{cases} V_2 \\ I_2 \end{cases} = \boldsymbol{T}_A \boldsymbol{T}_B \begin{cases} V_3 \\ I_3 \end{cases} = \boldsymbol{T} \begin{cases} V_3 \\ I_3 \end{cases}$$

 Similarly, for N cascaded networks, the total transmission matrix T can be determined as the product of all N networks!

$$T = T_1 T_2 T_3 \dots T_N = \prod_{n=1}^N T_n$$

- Note this result is only true for the transmission matrix T. No equivalent result exists for S ,Z ,Y !
- Thus, the transmission matrix can greatly simplify the analysis of complex networks constructed from two-port devices. We find that the T matrix is particularly useful when creating design software for CAD applications.