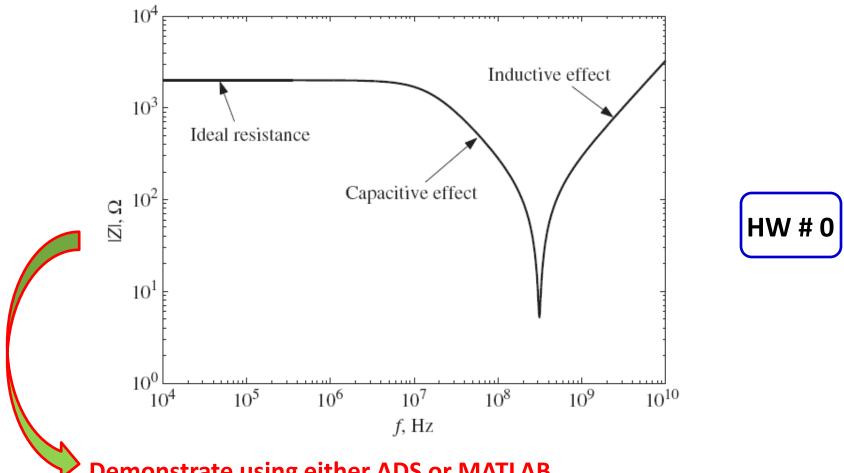
Lecture-2

Date: 07.08.2014

- Review Lecture 1
- Transmission Lines (TL) Introduction
- TL Equivalent Circuit Representation
- Definition of Some TL Parameters
- Examples of Transmission Lines

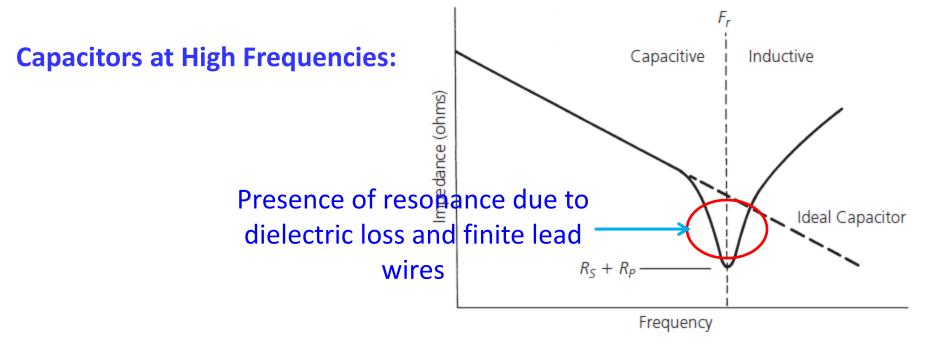
Review – Lecture 1

What is the reason for following behavior of a 2000 Ω thin-film resistor?



Demonstrate using either ADS or MATLAB

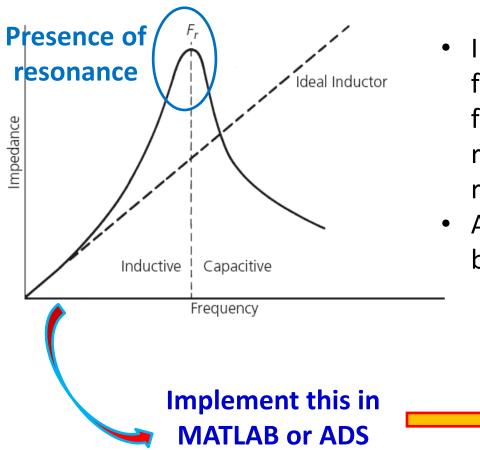
Review – Lecture 1



- Above F_r , the capacitor behaves as an inductor.
- In general, larger-value capacitors tend to exhibit more internal inductance than smaller-value capacitors.
- Therefore, it may happen that a $0.1\mu F$ may not be as a good as a 300pF capacitor in a bypass application at 250~MHz.
- The issue is due to significance of lead inductances at higher frequencies.

Review – Lecture 1

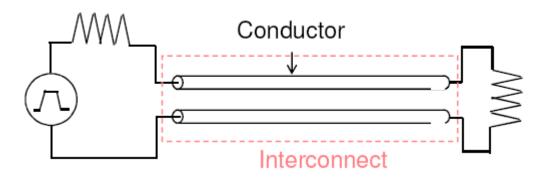
Inductors at High Frequencies:



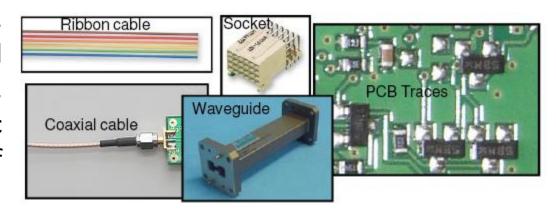
- Initially the reactance of inductor follows the ideal but soon departs from it and increases rapidly until it reaches a peak at the inductor's resonant frequency (F_r) . Why?
- Above F_r , the inductor starts to behave as a capacitor.

Transmission Line

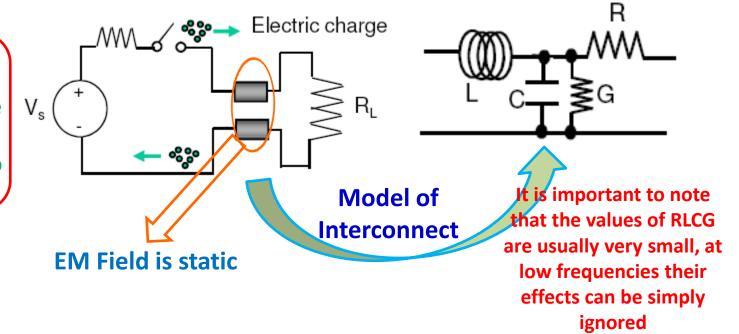
 It is a standard practice to use metallic conductors for transporting electrical energy from one point of a circuit to another. These conductors are called interconnects.



Therefore cables, wires, conductive tracks on printed circuit boards (PCBs), sockets, packaging, metallic tubes etc are all examples of interconnect.

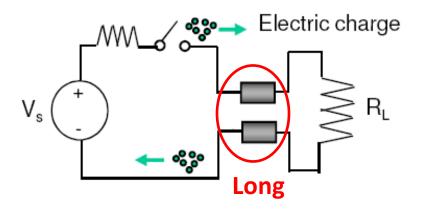


Static EM Field changes uniformly i.e, when field at one point increases, field at other location also increases



- For <u>short interconnect</u>, the moment the switch is closed, a voltage will appear across R₁ as current flows through it. The effect is instantaneous.
- Voltage and current are due to electric charge movement along the interconnect.
- Associated with the electric charges are static electromagnetic (EM) field in the space surrounding the short interconnect.
- The short interconnect system can be modelled by lumped RLC circuit.

If the interconnection is <u>long</u> (in comparison to the wavelength of the signal frequency), it takes some time for the voltage and current to appear on the R_L when the switch is closed.



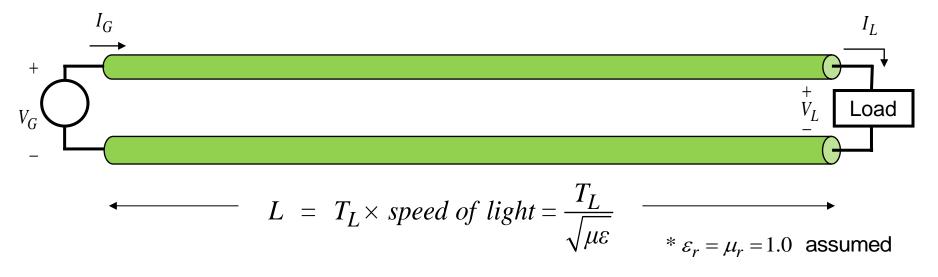
Electric charges move from V_S to the R_L . As the charge move, there is an associated EM field which travels along with the charges

In effect, there is propagating EM field along the interconnect. The propagating EM field is called wave and the interconnect guiding the wave is called transmission line.

Why Transmission Lines Theory?

- A transmission line is a two-conductor system that is used to transmit a signal from one point to another point.
- Transmission line theory must be used instead of <u>circuit theory</u> for any two-conductor system if the speed-of-light travel time, T_L , across the line is a significant fraction of a signal's period $T \rightarrow \text{size}$ of the circuit dimensions are comparable to the wavelength of the traveling wave \rightarrow leads to variations in current and voltage across the circuit dimensions.

Why Transmission Lines Theory?



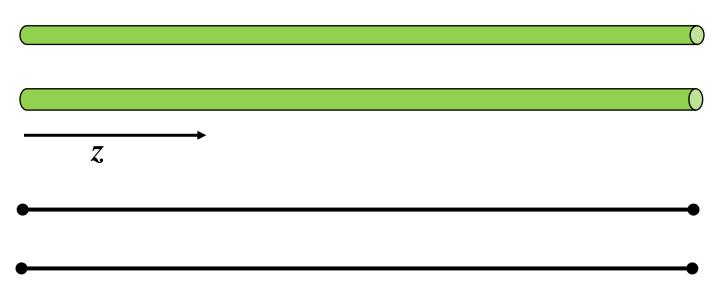
Frequency	Period T		L = 30[cm] $\Rightarrow T_L = 100$ [pS]*	- , -	- , -
60 [Hz]	16.7[mS]	•	•	•	•
1 [kHz]	1[mS]	•	•	•	•
1 [MHz]	$1[\mu S]$	•	•	•	•
1 [GHz]	1[nS]	X	X	•	•
1 [THz]	1[pS]	X	X	X	•

- X Transmission line theory
- Circuit theory

Why Transmission Lines Theory?

- Transmission-line theory is valid at any frequency, and for any type of waveform (assuming an ideal transmission line).
- Transmission-line theory is perfectly consistent with Maxwell's equations (although we work with voltage and current, rather than electric and magnetic fields).
- Circuit theory does not view two wires as a "transmission line": it cannot predict effects such as signal propagation, distortion, etc.

Symbols:



Note: We use this schematic to represent a general transmission line, no matter what the actual shape of the conductors.



• Four fundamental parameters characterize any transmission line:

C = capacitance/length [F/m] - Capacitance/m between the two conductors

L = inductance/length [H/m] - Inductance/m due to stored magnetic energy

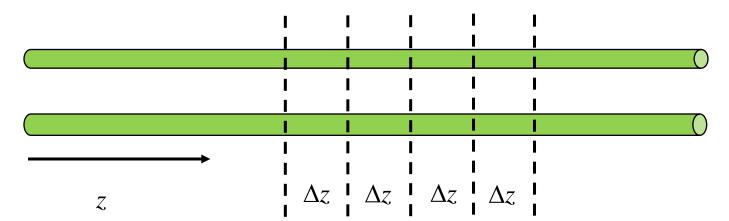
 $R = \text{resistance/length} [\Omega/m] - \text{Resistance/m due to the conductors}$

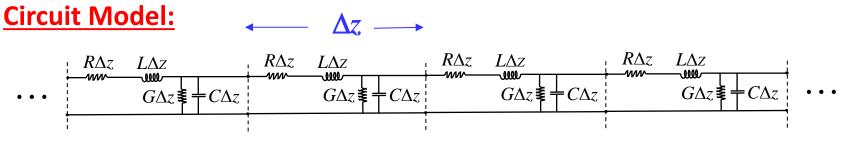
G = conductance/length [S/m] - Conductance/m due to the filling material between the conductors

It is usually assumed that these parameters are constant along the transmission line (ie, the transmission line is uniform)

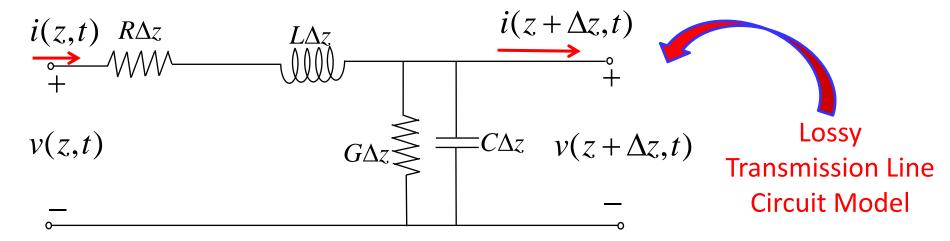
Note: most of the times these are "per unit length" parameters.

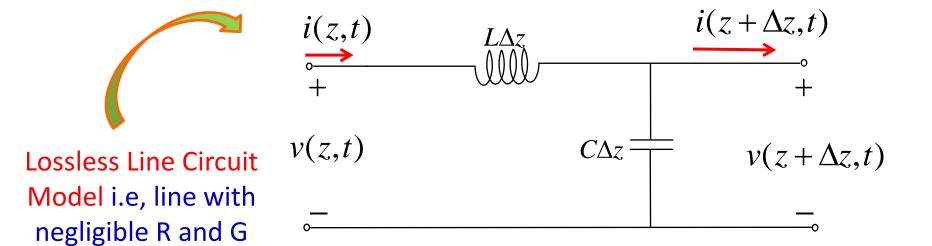
 Variations in current and voltage across the circuit dimensions → KCL and KVL can't be directly applied → This anomaly can be remedied if the line is subdivided into elements of small (infinitesimal) length over which the current and voltage do not vary

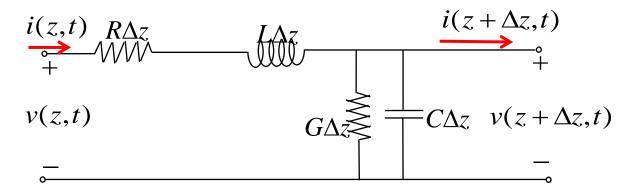




 $\lim_{\Delta z \to 0}$ \Rightarrow Infinite number of infinitesimal sections







Applying KVL:

$$v(z,t) - v(z + \Delta z, t) = R\Delta z i(z,t) + L\Delta z \frac{\partial i(z,t)}{\partial t} \implies \frac{v(z,t) - v(z + \Delta z, t)}{\Delta z} = Ri(z,t) + L\frac{\partial i(z,t)}{\partial t}$$

Describes the voltage along the transmission lines

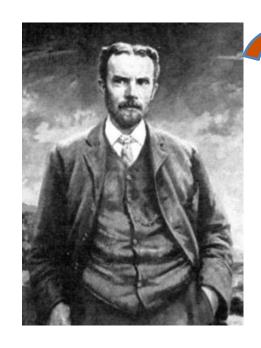
$$\therefore -\frac{\partial v(z,t)}{\partial z} = Ri(z,t) + L\frac{\partial i(z,t)}{\partial t}$$
 For $\Delta z \to 0$

KCL on this line segment gives: $i(z,t) - i(z + \Delta z,t) = G\Delta z v(z + \Delta z,t) + C\Delta z \frac{\partial v(z + \Delta z,t)}{\partial t}$

Simplification results in:

$$\frac{\partial i(z,t)}{\partial z} = -Gv(z,t) - C\frac{\partial v(z,t)}{\partial t}$$
 For $\Delta z \to 0$

Describes the current along the transmission lines



These differential equations for current/voltages were derived by Oliver Heavyside. These equations are known as Telegrapher's Equations.

Solution for Voltage and Current:

• For a sinusoidal excitation [i.e, $V_s(t) = V_s\{cos(\omega t)\}$], the steady state voltages and currents along the transmission line are also sinusoidal functions of time whose dependence on position and time can be expressed as:

$$v(z,t) = f(z)\cos(\omega t + \varphi(z))$$
 $i(z,t) = g(z)\cos(\omega t + \eta(z))$

- f(z) and g(z) are real functions of position and $\varphi(z)$ and $\eta(z)$ describe the positional dependence of the phase.
- Alternatively,

$$v(z,t) = f(z)\cos(\omega t + \varphi(z)) = \text{Re}\Big[f(z)e^{j\varphi(z)}e^{j\omega t}\Big]$$
$$i(z,t) = g(z)\cos(\omega t + \eta(z)) = \text{Re}\Big[g(z)e^{j\eta(z)}e^{j\omega t}\Big]$$

• Let us define these phasors: $V(z) = f(z)e^{j\varphi(z)}$ $I(z) = g(z)e^{j\eta(z)}$

The phasors I(z) and V(z) are complex functions of position and express the variations of current/voltage as a function of position along the transmission line.

- Therefore the current and voltage functions can be expressed as: $v(z,t) = \text{Re}[V(z)e^{j\omega t}]$ $i(z,t) = \text{Re}[I(z)e^{j\omega t}]$
- The time-harmonic form of the telegrapher equations are:

$$\operatorname{Re} \frac{\partial \left(f(z)e^{j\varphi(z)}e^{j\omega t} \right)}{\partial z} = -\operatorname{Re} \left(R.g(z)e^{j\eta(z)}e^{j\omega t} + j\omega L.g(z)e^{j\eta(z)}e^{j\omega t} \right) \\
\operatorname{Re} \frac{\partial \left(g(z)e^{j\eta(z)}e^{j\omega t} \right)}{\partial z} = -\operatorname{Re} \left(G.f(z)e^{j\varphi(z)}e^{j\omega t} + j\omega C.f(z)e^{j\varphi(z)}e^{j\omega t} \right)$$

 With the substitution of phasors, the equations of voltage and current wave result in:

$$Re \frac{\partial \left(V(z)e^{j\omega t}\right)}{\partial z} = -Re \left(RI(z)e^{j\omega t} + j\omega LI(z)e^{j\omega t}\right)$$

$$Re \frac{\partial \left(I(z)e^{j\omega t}\right)}{\partial z} = -Re \left(GV(z)e^{j\omega t} + j\omega CV(z)e^{j\omega t}\right)$$

 The differential equations for current and voltage along the transmission line can be expressed in phasor form as:

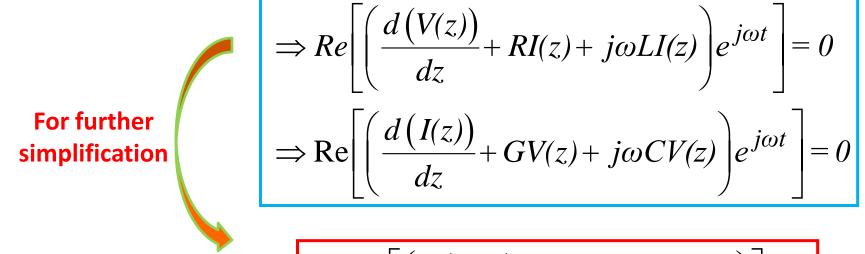
$$Re \frac{d\left(V(z)e^{j\omega t}\right)}{dz} = -Re\left(RI(z)e^{j\omega t} + j\omega LI(z)e^{j\omega t}\right)$$

$$Re \frac{d\left(I(z)e^{j\omega t}\right)}{dz} = -Re\left(GV(z)e^{j\omega t} + j\omega CV(z)e^{j\omega t}\right)$$

As I(z) and V(z) are function of only position

$$\frac{\partial V(z)}{\partial z} = \frac{dV(z)}{dz}$$
$$\frac{\partial I(z)}{\partial z} = \frac{dI(z)}{dz}$$

The equations can be simplified as:



At
$$\omega t=0$$
, $e^{j\omega t}=1$:

At
$$\omega t=0$$
, $e^{j\omega t}=1$: $\Rightarrow Re\left[\left(\frac{d\left(V(z)\right)}{dz}+RI(z)+j\omega LI(z)\right)\right]=0$

At
$$\omega t = \pi/2$$
, $e^{j\omega t} = j$:

At
$$\omega t = \pi/2$$
, $e^{j\omega t} = j$: $\Rightarrow Re \left[\left(\frac{d(V(z))}{dz} + RI(z) + j\omega LI(z) \right) j \right] = 0$

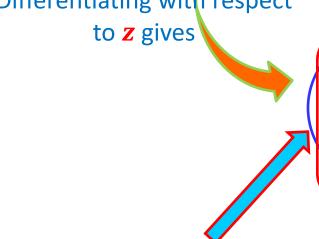


$$\frac{dV(z)}{dz} = -(R + j\omega L)I(z)$$

$$\frac{dI(z)}{dz} = -(G + j\omega C)V(z)$$

These differential equations can be solved for the phasors along the transmission line

Differentiating with respect



Transmission Line Wave Equations

$$\frac{d^2 V(z)}{dz^2} - \gamma^2 V(z) = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2 I(z)}{dz^2} - \gamma^2 I(z) = 0$$

$$\gamma = \sqrt{(R + j\omega L)(G + j\omega C)}$$

Here

Complex Propagation Constant

Complex Propagation Constant:

$$\gamma = \sqrt{(R + j\omega L)(G + j\omega C)}$$

$$\gamma = \alpha + \beta$$

$$\gamma = \alpha + \beta$$
Phase
Attenuation Constant Constant (nepers/m) (radians/m)

 For lossless transmission line (i.e, transmission line where R and G are negligible) - most common scenario in our transmission line based circuit design:

$$\gamma = j\beta = j\omega\sqrt{LC}$$
No Attenuation

Phase Constant is also Propagation Constant for a Lossless Line



Oh please, continue wasting my valuable time. We both know that a lossless transmission line is a physical impossibility.

True! However, a low-loss line is possible – in fact it is typical! If $R \ll \omega L$ and $G \ll \omega C$, we find that the lossless transmission line equations are excellent approximations!!!

For a lossless transmission line the second order differential equation for

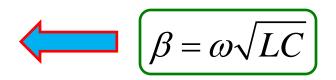
• For a lossless transmission line the second order differential equation phasors are:
$$\frac{d^2 V(z)}{dz^2} + \beta^2 V(z) = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2 I(z)}{dz^2} + \beta^2 I(z) = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2 I(z)}{dz^2} + \beta^2 I(z) = 0$$

$$V(z) = V_0^+ e^{-j\beta z} + V_0^- e^{j\beta z}$$

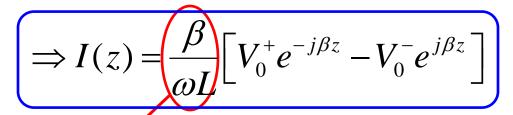
$$V_0^+ \text{ and } V_0^-$$



$$V(z) = V_0^+ e^{-j\beta z} + V_0^- e^{j\beta z}$$
 \leftarrow V_0^+ and V_0^- are complex constants

Similarly the current phasor for a lossless line can be described:

$$I(z) = -\frac{1}{j\omega L} \frac{dV(z)}{dz} = -\frac{1}{j\omega L} \frac{d}{dz} \left[V_0^+ e^{-j\beta z} + V_0^- e^{j\beta z} \right]$$



Gives the Definition of Characteristic
Impedance

$$Z_0 = \frac{\omega L}{\beta} = \frac{\omega L}{\omega \sqrt{LC}} = \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$$
 Completely Dependent on L and C

Characteristic Impedance for a Lossless Line is Real

$$\therefore I(z) = \frac{V_0^+}{Z_0} e^{-j\beta z} - \frac{V_0^-}{Z_0} e^{j\beta z}$$

Opposite Signs in these
Terms Gives a Clue about
Current Flow in Two
Different Directions

 The time dependent form of the voltage and current along the transmission line can be derived from phasors as:

$$v(z,t) = \operatorname{Re}\left[V(z)e^{j\omega t}\right] = \operatorname{Re}\left[V_0^+ e^{-j(\beta z - \omega t)} + V_0^- e^{j(\beta z + \omega t)}\right]$$
$$i(z,t) = \operatorname{Re}\left[I(z)e^{j\omega t}\right] = \operatorname{Re}\left[\frac{V_0^+ e^{-j(\beta z - \omega t)}}{Z_0} - \frac{V_0^- e^{j(\beta z + \omega t)}}{Z_0}\right]$$

• For the simple case of V_0^+ and V_0^- being real, the voltage and current along the transmission line can be expressed as:

$$v(z,t) = V_0^+ \cos(\omega t - \beta z) + V_0^- \cos(\omega t + \beta z)$$
$$i(z,t) = \frac{V_0^+}{Z_0} \cos(\omega t - \beta z) - \frac{V_0^-}{Z_0} \cos(\omega t + \beta z)$$

$$V_0^+\cos(\omega t - \beta z)$$

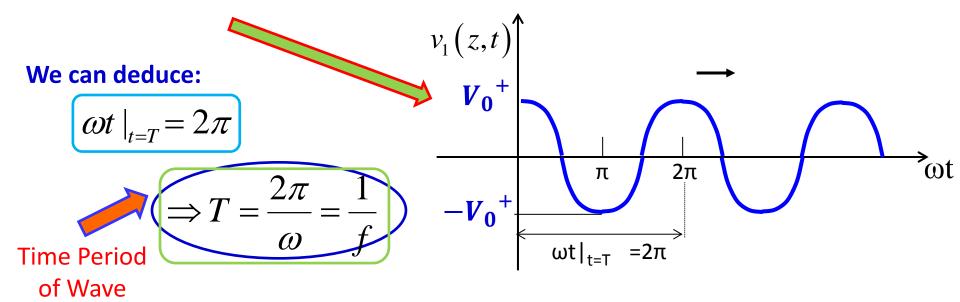
$$v_1(z,t)$$

Wave Functions

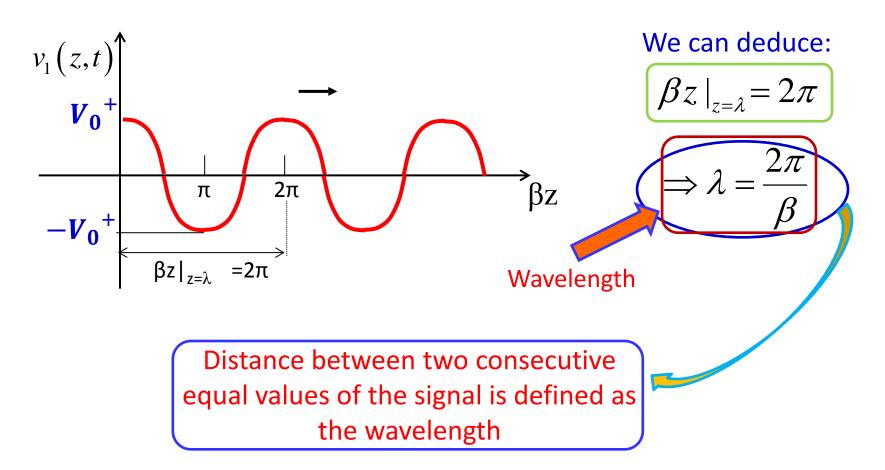
Let us examine the wave characteristics of

$$v_1(z,t) = V_0^+ \cos(\omega t - \beta z)$$

For fixed position z and variable t



For fixed time t and variable position z



What is the physical meaning of **B**

Let us consider once again:
$$V_0^+ \cos(\omega t) - \beta z$$

Apparently β represents the relative phase of this wave function in space (ie, function of transmission line position)

In principle, the value of β must have units of (ϕ/z)

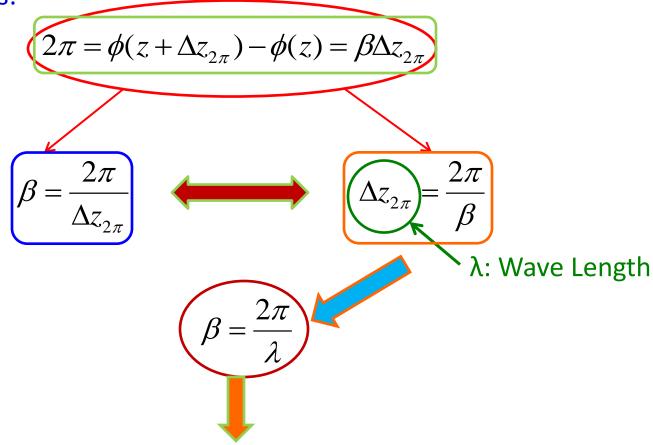


Radians/meter

Therefore, if the values of β is small, we will need to move a significant distance Δz down the transmission line in order to observe a change in the relative phase of the oscillation

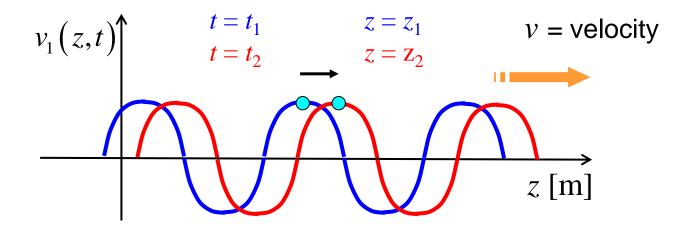
Conversely, if the value of β is large, a significant change in relative phase can be observed if traveling a short distance Δz down the transmission line

• For example, in order to observe a change in relative phase of 2π , the distance Δz is:



Can't we call it spatial frequency?

For variable position z and variable time t



It is apparent that the phase of both these are identical and hence:

$$v_1(z_1,t_1) = v_2(z_2,t_2) \qquad \cos(\beta z_1 - \omega t_1) = \cos(\beta z_2 - \omega t_2)$$
Speed of Propagation
$$\frac{z_2 - z_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\omega}{\beta}$$
Phase Velocity (v_p)

$$\Rightarrow v_p = \frac{\omega}{\beta} = \frac{\omega}{\omega\sqrt{LC}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

Simplified Expression for Wavelength:

$$\lambda = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega\sqrt{LC}} = \frac{v_p}{f} = v_p T$$

i.e, the wavelength is the distance traveled by the wave in a time interval equal to one period

Let us examine this expression:

$$\frac{z_2 - z_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\omega}{\beta}$$

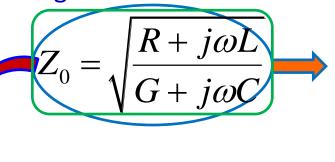
- $t_2>t_1$ and $^\omega/_\beta$ is a positive quantity \to this implies that z_2-z_1 must be positive or $z_2>z_1$
- It ensures that the point of constant phase moves towards right (i.e, toward the load in the transmission line)
- In other words, the wave function ${V_0}^+cos(\omega t-\beta z)$ represents a traveling wave moving at a velocity v_p towards the load
- This wave is called outgoing wave when seen from the source and incident wave when viewed from the load

- Similarly, the analysis of $V_0^- cos(\omega t + \beta z)$ will show that this function represents a traveling wave at a velocity v_p to the left (i.e, towards the source in a transmission line)
- This wave is called incoming wave when seen from the source and reflected wave when viewed from the load
- $V_0^+ e^{-j\beta z}$ is called incident wave (phasor form) and $V_0^- e^{j\beta z}$ is called reflected wave (phasor form)
- In general, the voltage and current on a transmission line is composed of incident and reflected wave
- The quantity βz is known as electrical length of the line
- Therefore: $V(z) = V^+(z) + V^-(z) = V_0^+ e^{-j\beta z} + V_0^- e^{j\beta z}$

$$I(z) = \frac{V_0^+}{Z_0} e^{-j\beta z} - \frac{V_0^-}{Z_0} e^{j\beta z} = \frac{V^+(z) - V^-(z)}{Z_0}$$

Characteristic Impedance (Z₀)

- The characteristic impedance is defined as:
 - Z_0 = (incoming voltage wave) / (incoming current wave)
 - = (outgoing voltage wave) / (outgoing current wave)
- For a generic transmission line:



The incoming and outgoing voltage and current waves are position dependent → the ratio of voltage and current waves are independent of position → actually is a constant → an important characteristic of a transmission line → called as Characteristic Impedance

- Z₀ is not an impedance in a conventional circuit sense
- Its definition is based on the incident and reflected voltage and current waves
- As such, this definition has nothing in common with the total voltage and current expressions used to define a conventional circuit impedance
- Its importance will be apparent during the course of this COURSE!!!

Example - 1

• A plane wave propagating in a lossless dielectric medium has an electric field given as $E_x = E_0 \cos(\omega t - \beta z)$ with a frequency of 5.0 GHz and a wavelength of 3.0 cm in the material. Determine the propagation constant, the phase velocity, the relative permittivity of the medium, and the intrinsic impedance of the wave.

The propagation constant:

$$\beta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \qquad \qquad \beta = \frac{2\pi}{0.03} \qquad \qquad \therefore \beta = 209.4m^{-1}$$

The phase velocity:

$$v_p = \frac{\omega}{\beta} = \frac{2\pi f}{\beta} = \lambda f$$

$$v_p = 0.03 \times 5 \times 10^9 = 1.5 \times 10^8 \, \text{m/sec}$$

Lower than the speed of light in free medium

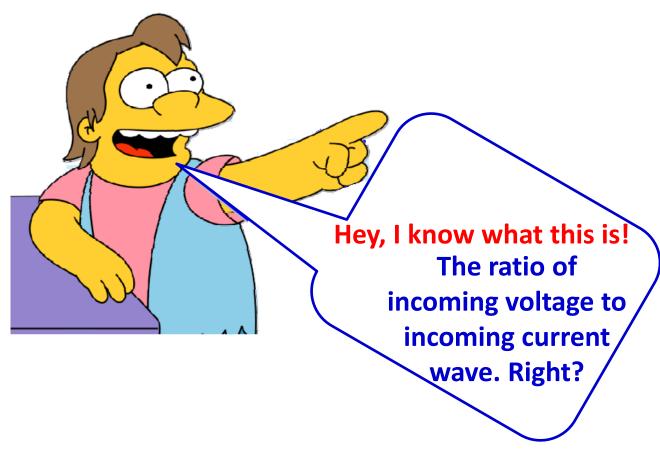
Example – 1 (contd.)

Relative permittivity of the medium:

$$\varepsilon_r = \left(\frac{c}{v_p}\right)^2 \qquad \varepsilon_r = \left(\frac{3 \times 10^8}{1.5 \times 10^8}\right)^2 = 4.0$$

Characteristic impedance of the wave:

Line Impedance (Z)



NO!

Line Impedance (Z) – contd.

Actually, line impedance is the ratio of total complex voltage (incoming + outgoing) wave to the total complex current voltage wave

$$Z(z) = \frac{V(z)}{I(z)} \longrightarrow = \frac{V^{+}(z) + V^{-}(z)}{\left(\left(V^{+}(z) - V^{-}(z)\right) / Z_{0}\right)} \longrightarrow \neq Z_{0}$$
In most of the cases

- However, the line and characteristic impedance can be equal if either the incoming or outgoing voltage wave equals ZERO!
- Say, if $V^{-}(z) = 0$ then:

$$Z(z) = \frac{V^{+}(z) + V^{-}(z)}{\left(\left(V^{+}(z) - V^{-}(z) \right) / Z_{0} \right)} = Z_{0}$$

Line Impedance (Z) – contd.

It appears to me that Z_0 is a transmission line parameter, depending only on the transmission line values R, L, C and G.

Whereas, Z(z) depends on the magnitude and the phase of the two propagating waves $V^+(z)$ and $V^-(z) \rightarrow$ values that depend not only on the transmission line, but also on the two things attached to either end of the transmission line.



Right?

Exactly!!!