

WAVE PROPAGATION AND BROADBAND COMMUNICATION ENGINEERING(WP&BCE)

(As per the latest syllabus prepared by the
SCTE&VT, Bhubaneswar, Odisha)



Fifth Semester

E&TC Engg.

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WAVE PROPAGATION AND **BROADBAND COMMUNICATION** **ENGINEERING**

CHAPTER-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF PERIODS & MARKS

Sl. No.	Chapter No.	Topics	Periods as per syllabus	Periods actually needed	Expected marks
1	1	WAVE PROPAGATION AND ANTENNA	12	14	20
2	2	TRANSMISSION LINES	10	08	20
3	3	TELEVISION ENGINEERING	13	11	25
4	4	MICROWAVE ENGINEERING	15	13	30
5	5	BROADBAND COMMUNICATION	10	10	15
Total			60	56	110

CHAPTER NO-01:

WAVE PROPAGATION AND ANTENNA

LEARNING OBJECTIVES:

Effects of environment such as reflection, refraction, interference, diffraction, absorption and attenuation (Definition only)
Classification based on Modes of Propagation- Ground Wave, Ionosphere, Skywave Propagation, Space Wave Propagation.

Definition- Critical Frequency, Max. Useable Frequency, Skip Distance, Fading,

Duct Propagation & troposphere Scatter Propagation, Actual Height and Virtual Height,

Radiation Mechanism of an Antenna- Maxwell Equation.

Definition – Antenna Gains, Directive Gain, Directivity, Effective Aperture,

Polarization, Input Impedance, Efficiency, Radiator Resistance, Bandwidth, Beam Width, Radiation Pattern.

Antenna-

Types of Antenna: Monopole and Dipole Antenna and Omnidirectional Antenna,

Operation of following Antenna with Advantage & Applications.

- a. Directional High Frequency Antenna: Yagi & Rhombus Only*
- b. UHF & Microwave Antenna: Dish Antenna (With parabolic Reflector) & Horn Antenna.*

Basic concepts of Smart Antennas- Concept and benefits of smart Antennas

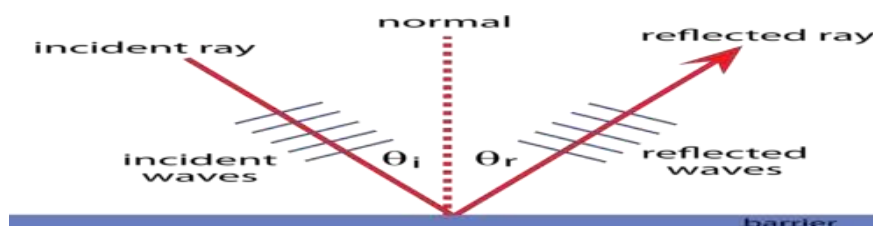
Introduction:

- **Wave propagation** is any of the ways in which waves travel.
- With respect to the direction of the oscillation relative to the **propagation** direction, we can distinguish propagations as
 1. Longitudinal **wave** and
 2. Transverse **waves**.
 3. For electromagnetic **waves**, **propagation** may occur in a vacuum as well as in a material medium.
- In radio engineering, an **antenna** is the interface between radio **waves propagating** through space and electric currents moving in metal conductors, used with a transmitter or receiver.
- In wireless communication systems, signals are radiated **in** space as an electromagnetic **wave** by using a receiving, transmitting **antenna** and a fraction of this radiated power is intercepted by using a receiving **antenna**. An **antenna** is a device used for radiating or receiving radio **waves**.

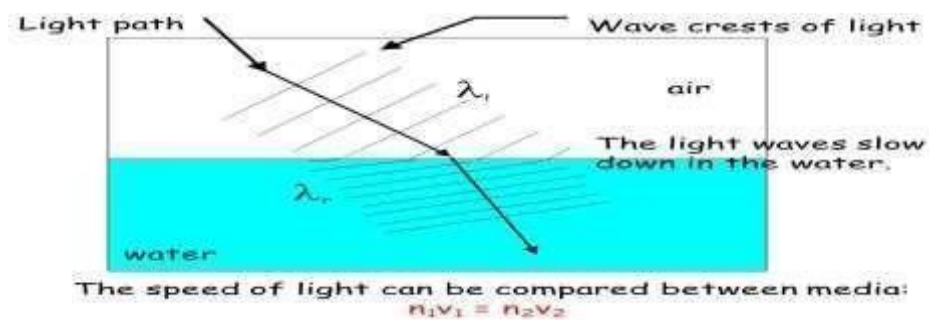
.Effects of environment such as reflection, refraction, interference, diffraction, absorption and attenuation (Definition only)

* A large number of copies of the useful signal at the reception are caused by the **effects** of environmental **impacts** on the **propagation** of electromagnetic **waves** along the route, such as reflection, refraction, interference, diffraction, absorption and attenuation.

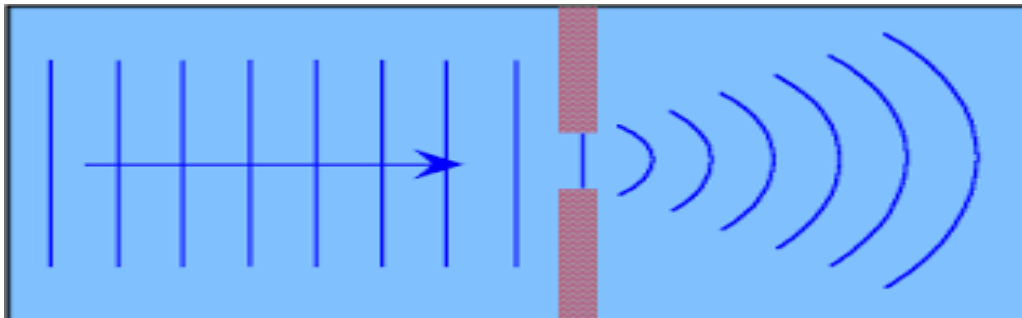
- **Reflection : Reflection of waves** is the change in the direction of a **wave** upon striking the interface between two materials. When a **wave** strikes any interface between any two mediums the bouncing back of **wave** is termed as **reflection of waves**.



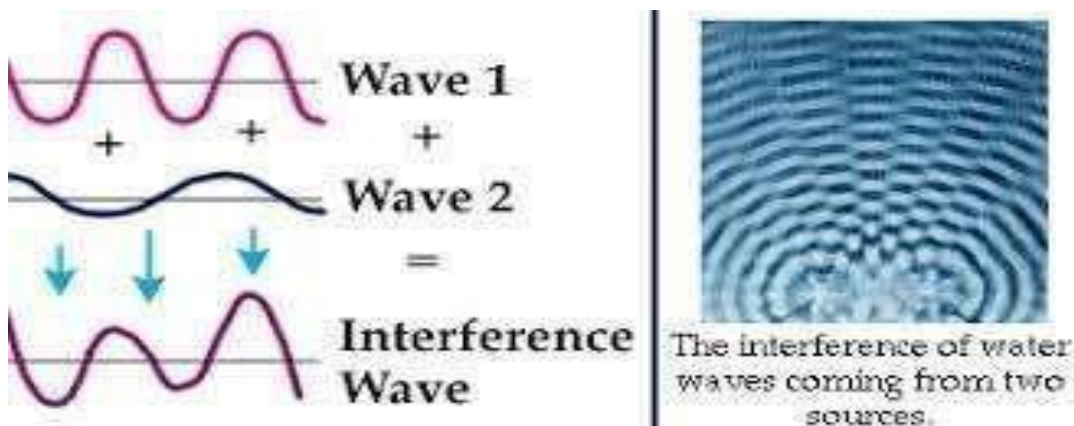
- **Refraction :** Refraction of waves involves a change in the direction of waves as they pass from one medium to another. Refraction, or the bending of the path of the waves, is accompanied by a change in speed and wavelength of the waves. Thus, if water waves are passing from deep water into shallow water, they will slow down.



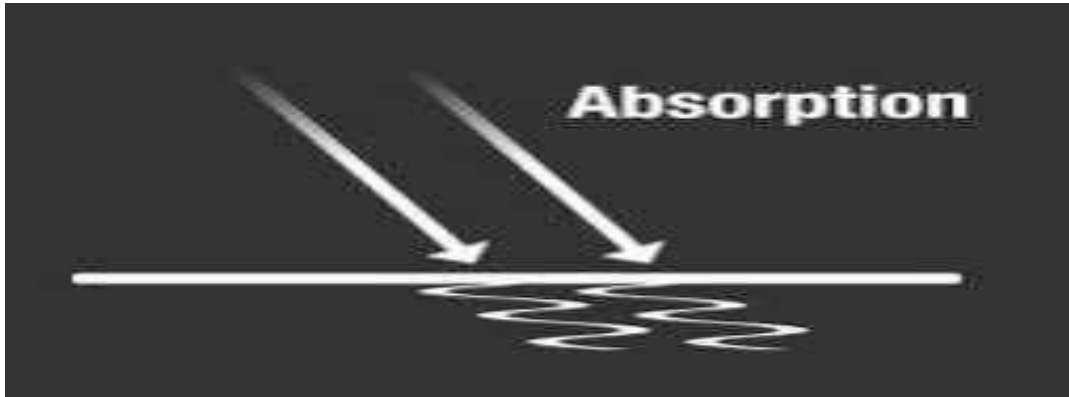
- **Diffraction :** Diffraction of Wave refers to various phenomena that occur when a wave encounters an obstacle or a slit. It is defined as the bending of waves around the corners of an obstacle or through an aperture into the region of geometrical shadow of the obstacle/aperture.



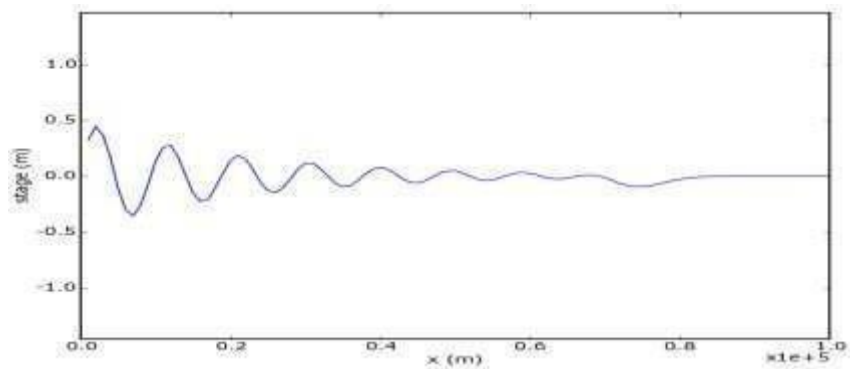
- **Interference:** Wave interference is the phenomenon that occurs when two waves meet while traveling along the same medium. The interference of waves causes the medium to take on a shape that results from the net effect of the two individual waves upon the particles of the medium.



- **Absorption :** Electromagnetic radiation travels in **wave** packets known as photons that consist of propagating electric and magnetic fields. These photons undergo **absorption** when they transfer energy to atoms within a substance they are striking instead of transmitting through or reflecting off of it.



- **Attenuation :** Attenuation is a general term that refers to any reduction in the strength of a signal. Attenuation occurs with any type of signal, whether digital or analog. Sometimes called loss, **attenuation** is a natural consequence of signal transmission over long distances.



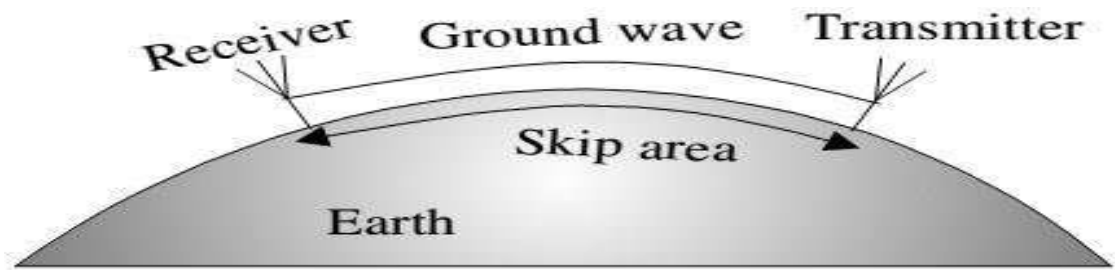
Classification based on Modes of Propagation:

Based on modes of propagation, waves can be classified into following four types,

- 1) Groundwave
- 2) Ionosphere
- 3) Skywave propagation
- 4) Spacewave propagation

Ground Wave Propagation:

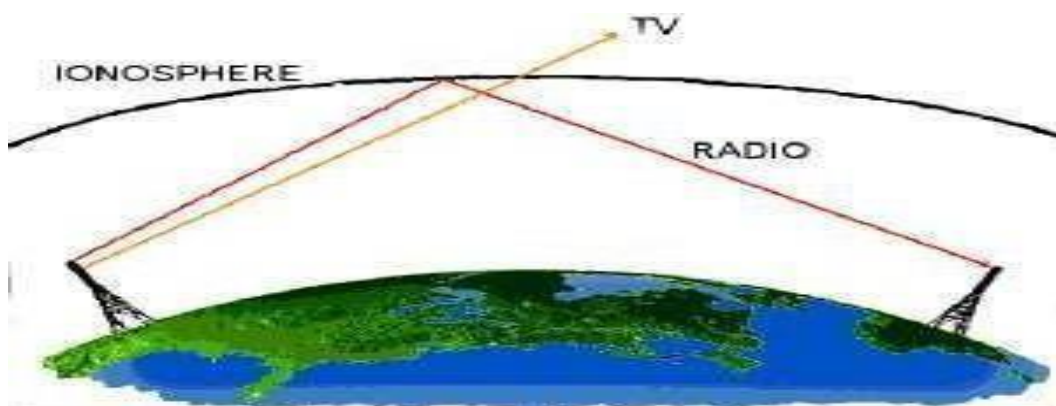
- 1) **Ground Wave propagation** is a method of radio wave propagation that uses the area between the surface of the earth and the ionosphere for transmission.



- 2) The ground wave can propagate a considerable distance over the earth's surface particularly in the low frequency and medium frequency portion of the radio spectrum.
- 3) Ground wave radio signal propagation is ideal for relatively short distance propagation on these frequencies during the daytime. Sky-wave ionospheric propagation is not possible during the day because of the attenuation of the signal on these frequencies caused by the D region in the ionosphere.
- 4) In view of this, lower frequency radio communications stations need to rely on the ground-wave propagation to achieve their coverage.
- 5) The radio signals spread out from the transmitter along the surface of the Earth. Instead of just travelling in a straight line the radio signals tend to follow the curvature of the Earth.
- 6) This is because currents are induced in the surface of the earth and this action slows down the wave-front in this region, causing the wave-front of the radio communications signal to tilt downwards towards the Earth.
- 7) With the wave-front tilted in this direction it is able to curve around the Earth and be received well beyond the horizon.
- 8) The type of antenna and its polarization has a major effect on ground wave propagation. Vertical polarization is subject to considerably less attenuation than horizontally polarized signals.

Ionosphere Wave Propagation:

- 1) The **ionosphere** is a particularly important region with regard to **radio signal propagation** and **radio communications** in general.

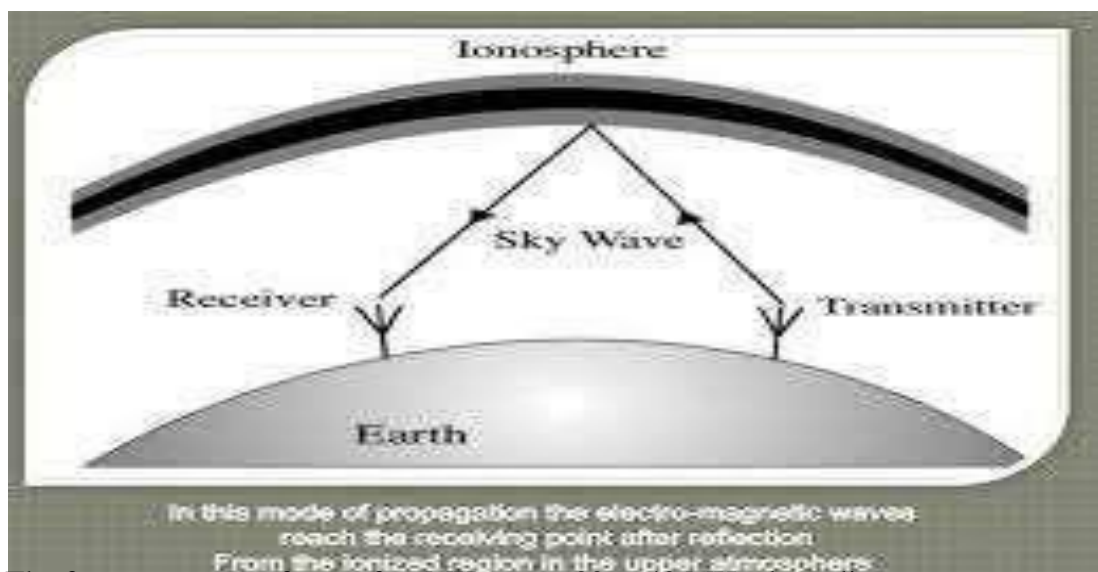


- 2) While the ions give the **ionosphere** its name, but it is the free electrons that affect the **radio waves** and **radio communications**.

- 3) As **radio waves** enter Earth's atmosphere from space.
- 4) Some of the **waves** are absorbed by the electrons in the **ionosphere** while others **pass through** and are detectable to ground based observers.
- 5) Higher **frequency waves** are able to **pass through** the atmosphere entirely and reach the ground.
- 6) The ionosphere exists between about 90 and 1000 km above the earth's surface. Radiation from the sun ionizes atoms and molecules here, liberating electrons from molecules and creating a space of free electron and ions.
- 7) Subjected to an external electric field from a radio signal, these free ions will experience a force and be pushed into motion. However, since the mass of the ions is much larger than the mass of the electrons, ionic motions are relatively small and will be ignored.

Sky Wave Propagation:

- 1) In radio communication, **sky wave** or skip refers to the **propagation** of radio **waves** reflected or refracted back toward Earth from the ionosphere, an electrically charged layer of the upper atmosphere.



- 2) The frequency range from a few MHz up to 30 to 40 MHz, long distance communication can be achieved by ionospheric reflection of radio **waves** back toward the earth. This mode of **propagation** is called **sky wave propagation** and is used by short **wave** broadcast services.
- 3) Since it is not limited by the curvature of the Earth, sky wave propagation can be used to communicate beyond the horizon, at intercontinental distances.
- 4) It is mostly used in the short wave frequency bands.
- 5) As a result of sky wave propagation, a signal from a distant AM broadcasting station, a shortwave station, or – during sporadic E propagation conditions (principally during the summer months in both hemispheres) a distant VHF FM or TV station – can sometimes be received as clearly as local stations.
- 6) Most long-distance shortwave (high frequency) radiocommunication – between 3 and 30 MHz – is a result of sky wave propagation. Since the early 1920s amateur radio

operators (or "hams"), limited to lower transmitter power than broadcast stations, have taken advantage of sky wave for long-distance (or "DX") communication.

- 7) The ionosphere is a region of the upper atmosphere, from about 80 km to 1000 km in altitude, where neutral air is ionized by solar photons and cosmic rays.
- 8) When high-frequency signals enter the ionosphere at a low angle they are bent back towards the earth by the ionized layer.
- 9) If the peak ionization is strong enough for the chosen frequency, a wave will exit the bottom of the layer earthwards – as if obliquely reflected from a mirror.
- 10) Earth's surface (ground or water) then reflects the descending wave back up again towards the ionosphere.
- 11) When operating at frequencies just below the MUF, losses can be quite small, so the radio signal may effectively "bounce" or "skip" between the earth and ionosphere two or more times (multi-hop propagation), even following the curvature of the earth.
- 12) Consequently, even signals of only a few Watts can sometimes be received many thousand miles away. This is what enables shortwave broadcast to travel all over the world.
- 13) If the ionization is not great enough, the wave only curves slightly downwards, and subsequently upwards as the ionization peak is passed so that it exits the top of the layer only slightly displaced.

Space Wave Propagation:

- 1) **Space wave propagation** is defined for the radio waves that occur within the 20 km of the atmosphere i.e. troposphere, comprising of a direct and reflected waves.
- 2) These waves are also known as tropospheric **propagation** as they can travel directly from the earth's surface to the troposphere surface of the earth.

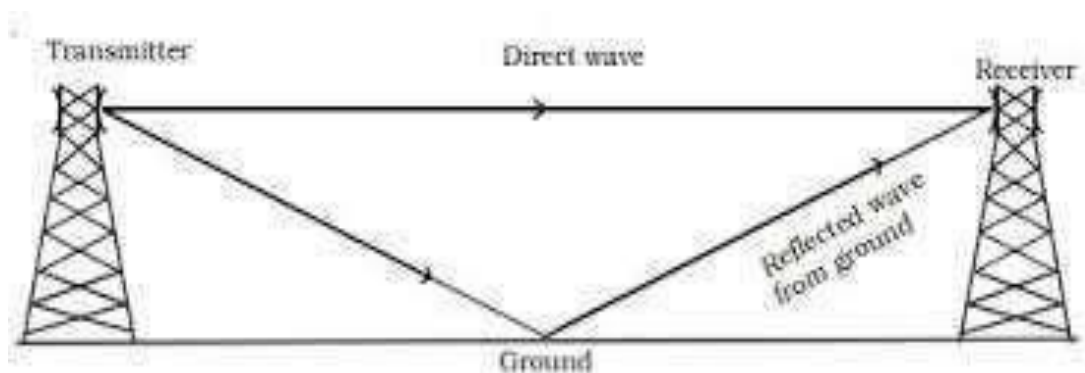


Fig Space wave propagation

- 3) In order to prevent attenuation and loss of signal strength, the height of the antennas and distance between them can be given as:

$$D_m = (2RH_t)^{-1/2} + (2RH_r)^{-1/2}$$

Where,

D_m : distance between the two antennas R:

radius of the earth

H_t : height of transmission antenna

H_r : height of receiver antenna

Applications of space wave propagation

It is used in various [communications systems](#) like

- A line of sight communication and satellite communication
- Radar communication
- Microwave linking

Space wave propagation limitations

- These waves are affected by the curvature of the earth.
- The propagation of these waves happens along the line of sight distance which is defined as the distance between the transmitting antenna and the receiving antenna which is also known as the range of communication.

Critical Frequency:

1. **Critical frequency** is the highest magnitude of **frequency** above which the **waves** penetrate the ionosphere and below which the **waves** are reflected back from the ionosphere.
2. Its value is not fixed and it depends upon the electron density of the ionosphere.

Maximum Usable Frequency (MUF):

1. In radio transmission **maximum usable frequency (MUF)** is the **highest** radio **frequency** that can be used for transmission between two points via reflection from the ionosphere (**sky wave** or "skip" **propagation**) at a specified time, independent of transmitter power.

Skip Distance:

1. A **skip distance** is the **distance** a radio **wave** travels, usually including a hop in the ionosphere.
2. A **skip distance** is a **distance** on the Earth's surface between the two points where radio **waves** from a transmitter, refracted downwards by different layers of the ionosphere, fall.

Fading:

1. The decrease in the quality of the signal can be termed as **fading**.
2. This happens because of atmospheric effects or reflections due to multipath.
3. **Fading** refers to the variation of the signal strength with respect to time/distance

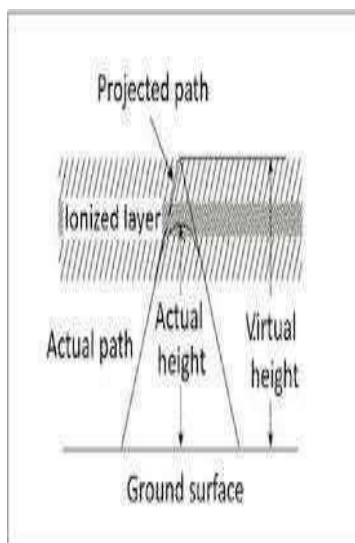
Duct Propagation:

1. A layer of troposphere bounded above and below by layers that have different refractive index, which confines and propagates an abnormally high proportion of VHF (very high frequency) and UHF (ultrahigh frequency) radiation.
2. This results in freak long-distance communications and radar pickup ranges.

Troposphere Scatter Propagation:

1. This method of propagation uses the tropospheric scatter phenomenon, where radio waves at UHF and SHF frequencies are randomly scattered as they pass through the upper layers of the troposphere.
2. Radio signals are transmitted in a narrow beam aimed just above the horizon in the direction of the receiver station.

Virtual Height And Actual Height:



Continued...

- **Virtual Height:**

- The incident and refracted rays follow paths that are exactly the same as they would have been if reflection had taken place from a surface located at a greater height, called **virtual height** of this layer.

- **Actual Height:**

- The actual path of the wave in the ionized layer is a curve and is due to refraction of wave. The height from this curve to earth surface is called **Actual height**.

Radiation mechanism of an antenna-Maxwell equation:

Maxwell's Equations are a set of four vector-differential equations that govern all of electromagnetics (except at the quantum level, in which case we as antenna people don't care so much). They were first presented in a complete form by James Clerk Maxwell back in the 1800s. He didn't come up with them all on his own, but did add the displacement current term to Ampere's law which made them complete.

The four equations (written only in terms of **E** and **H**, the electric field and the magnetic field), are given below.

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} &= \frac{\rho_v}{\epsilon} && \text{(Gauss' Law)} \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{H} &= 0 && \text{(Gauss' Law for Magnetism)} \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{E} &= -\mu \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t} && \text{(Faraday's Law)} \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{H} &= \mathbf{J} + \epsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} && \text{(Ampere's Law)}\end{aligned}$$

In Gauss' law, ρ_v is the volume electric charge density, **J** is the electric current density (in Amps/meter-squared), ϵ is the permittivity and μ is the permeability.

Antenna Gain :

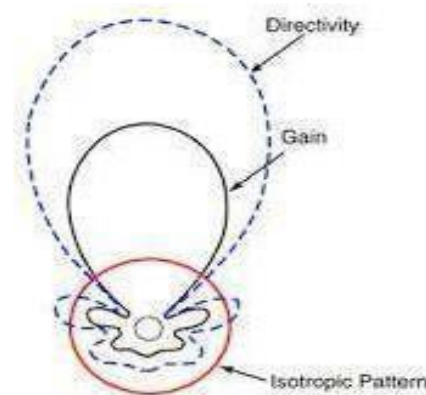
- The term **antenna gain** defines the degree to which an **antenna** concentrates radiated power in a given direction, or absorbs incident power from that direction, compared with a reference **antenna**.
- **Antenna gain** is usually defined as the ratio of the power produced by the **antenna** from a far-field source on the **antenna's** beam axis to the power produced by a hypothetical lossless isotropic **antenna**, which is equally sensitive to signals from all directions.

Directive Gain:

- The **directive gain** or directivity of an antenna in a given direction is the ratio of its radiation intensity in that direction to its mean radiation intensity.
- **Directivity** can be extrapolated from the ratio **between** the power radiated in the direction of the strongest emission to the total power radiated by the **antenna**.

Directivity:

- **Directivity** is a fundamental antenna parameter. It is a measure of how 'directional' an antenna's radiation pattern is.
- An antenna that radiates equally in all directions would have effectively zero directionality, and the **directivity** of this type of antenna would be 1 (or 0 dB).



Effective Aperture:

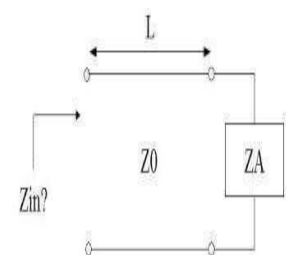
- In electromagnetics and antenna theory, antenna aperture, effective area, or receiving cross section, is a measure of how effective an antenna is at receiving the power of electromagnetic radiation.
- The effective area simply represents how much power is captured from the plane wave and delivered by the antenna.

Polarization:

- **Polarization** is the attribute that wave oscillations have a defined direction relative to the direction of propagation of the wave.
- EM waves are transverse waves that may be **polarized**.
- The direction of **polarization** is defined to be the direction parallel to the electric field of the EM wave.

Input Impedance:

- **Impedance** relates the voltage and current at the **input** to the **antenna**. The real part of the **antenna impedance** represents power that is either radiated away or absorbed within the **antenna**. The imaginary part of the **impedance** represents power that is stored in the near field of the **antenna**.



Efficiency Of Antenna:

- The **efficiency** of an antenna is a ratio of the power delivered to the antenna relative to the power radiated from the **antenna**.
- A high **efficiency antenna** has most of the power present at the **antenna's** input radiated away.
- Being a ratio, **antenna efficiency** is a number between 0 and 1.

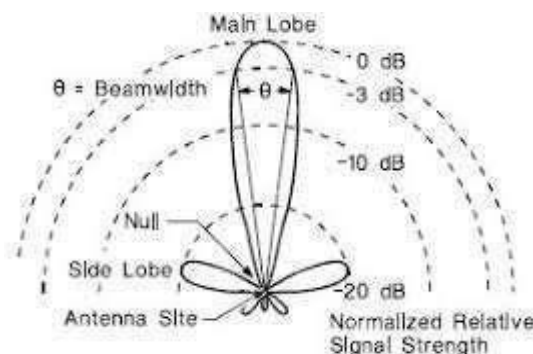
Radiation Resistance :

- The radiation resistance can be defined as the value of resistance that would dissipate the same amount of power as radiated as radio waves by the antenna with the antenna input current passing through it.
- Radiation resistance is that part of an antenna's feed point electrical resistance that is caused by the radiation of electromagnetic waves from the antenna.

Band Width:

- The **bandwidth** of an antenna refers to the range of frequencies over which the **antenna** can operate correctly.
- The **antenna's bandwidth** is the number of Hz for which the **antenna** will exhibit an SWR less than 2:1.
- The **bandwidth** can also be described in terms of percentage of the center frequency of the **band**.

Beam Width:



- **Beam width** is the area where most of the power is radiated, which is the peak power.
- Half power **beam width** is the angle in which relative power is more than 50% of the peak power, in the effective radiated field of the **antenna**.
- Beam width is usually but not always expressed in degrees and for the horizontal plane.

Radiation Pattern:

- In the field of **antenna** design the term **radiation pattern** (or **antenna pattern** or far-field **pattern**) refers to the directional (angular) dependence of the strength of the radio waves from the **antenna** or other source.

TypesOfRadiationPattern:

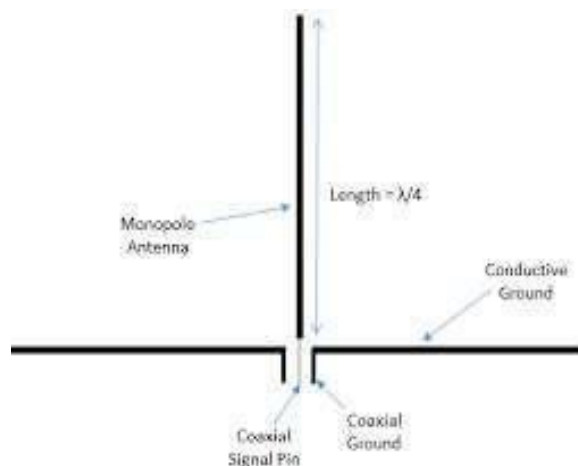
- Pencil-beam**pattern** –Thebeamhasasharpdirectional pencilshaped**pattern**.
- Fan-beam**pattern**–The beamhasafan-shaped**pattern**.
- Shapedbeam**pattern**–Thebeam,whichisnon-uniformandpatternlessisknownas shaped beam.

Antenna

- Inradioengineering,anantennaistheinterfacebetweenradiowavespropagating through space and electric currents moving in metal conductors, used with a transmitter or receiver.
- **TypesOfAntenna:**Theseareoffollowingtypes,
 1. Mono pole
 2. Dipole antenna
 3. Omnidirectionalantenna

1.MonopoleAntenna:

- A**monopoleantenna**isaclassofradioantennaconsistingofastraightrod-shaped conductor, often mounted perpendicularly over some type of conductive surface, called a ground plane.



- Thedriving signal fromthetransmitteris applied, orforreceivingantennas theoutput signal to thereceiver is taken, between the lower end of the monopole and the ground plane.
- Onesideoftheantennafeedlineis attached tothelowerend ofthemonopole,andthe other side is attached to the ground plane, which isoften theEarth.
- Thiscontrastswithadipoleantennawhichconsistsoftwo identicalrodconductors, with the signal from the transmitter applied between the two halvesof theantenna.
- The monopole is often used as a resonant antenna; the rod functions as an open resonatorfor radiowaves,oscillatingwithstandingwaves of voltageandcurrent along its length.

- Therefore the length of the antenna is determined by the wavelength of the radio waves it is used with.
- The most common form is the quarter-wave monopole, in which the antenna is approximately one quarter of the wavelength of the radio waves.
- However in broadcasting monopole antennas $5/8 = 0.625$ wavelength long are also popular, because at this length a monopole radiates a maximum amount of its power in horizontal directions.
- The monopole antenna was invented in 1895 by radio pioneer Guglielmo Marconi; for this reason it is sometimes called the Marconi antenna.
- Common types of monopole antenna are the whip, rubber ducky, helical, random wire, umbrella, inverted-L and T-antenna, inverted-F, mast radiator, and ground plane antennas.
- A monopole has an omnidirectional radiation pattern: it radiates with equal power in all azimuthal directions perpendicular to the antenna.
- However, the radiated power varies with the elevation angle, with the radiation dropping off to zero at the zenith of the antenna axis.
- It radiates vertically polarized radio waves.

2. Dipole Antenna :

Half Wave Dipole:

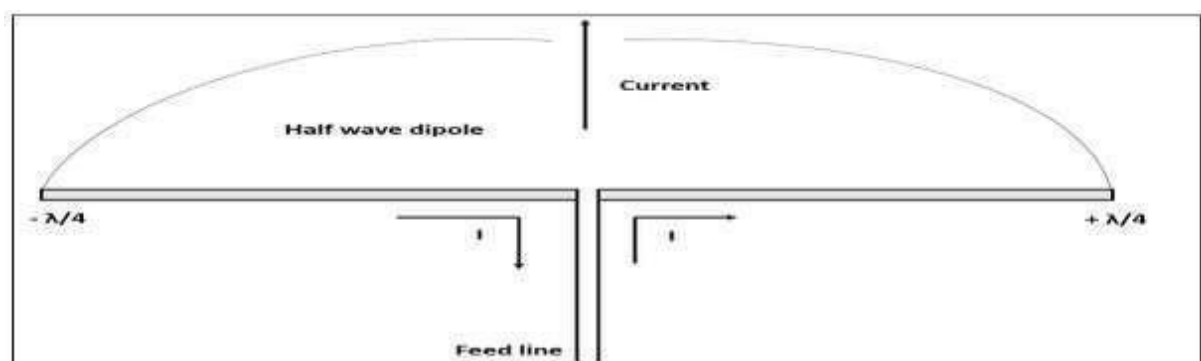
- A folded dipole is an antenna, with two conductors connected on both sides, and folded to form a cylindrical closed shape, to which feed is given at the center. The length of the dipole is half of the wavelength. Hence, it is called a **half wave folded dipole antenna**.

Frequency range

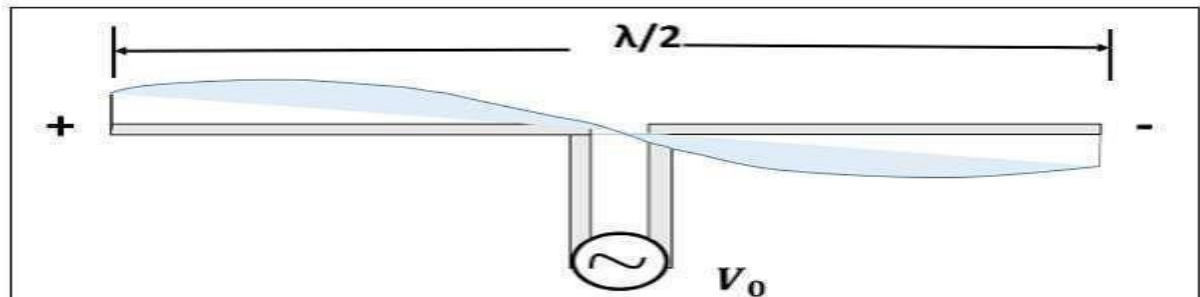
- The range of frequency in which half wave folded dipole operates is around 3 KHz to 300 GHz. This is mostly used in television receivers.

Construction & Working of Half-wave Folded Dipole

- This antenna is commonly used with the array type antennas to increase the feed resistance. The most commonly used one is with Yagi-Uda antenna. The following figure shows a half-wave folded dipole antenna.



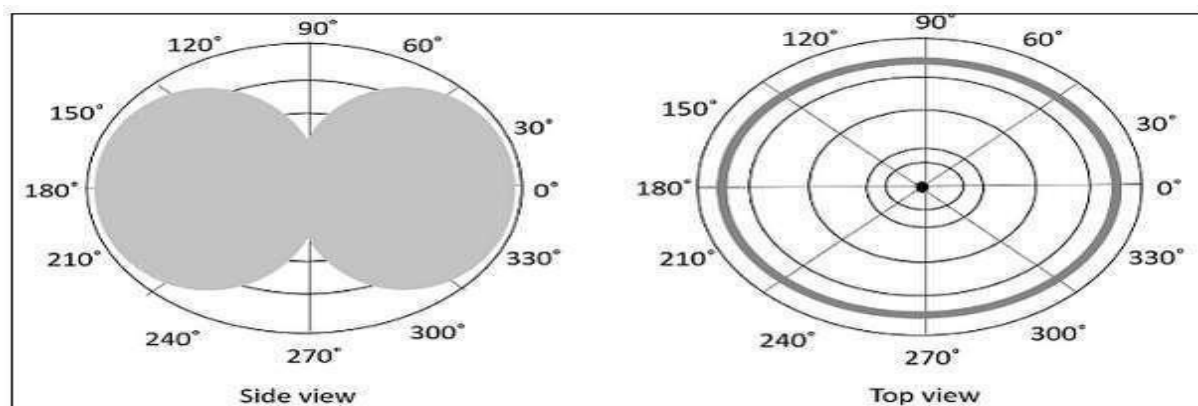
- This antenna uses an extra conducting element (a wire or a rod) when compared with previous dipole antenna. This is continued by placing few conducting elements in parallel, with insulation in-between, in array type of antennas.
- The following figure explains the working of a half-wave folded dipole antenna, when it is provided with excitation.



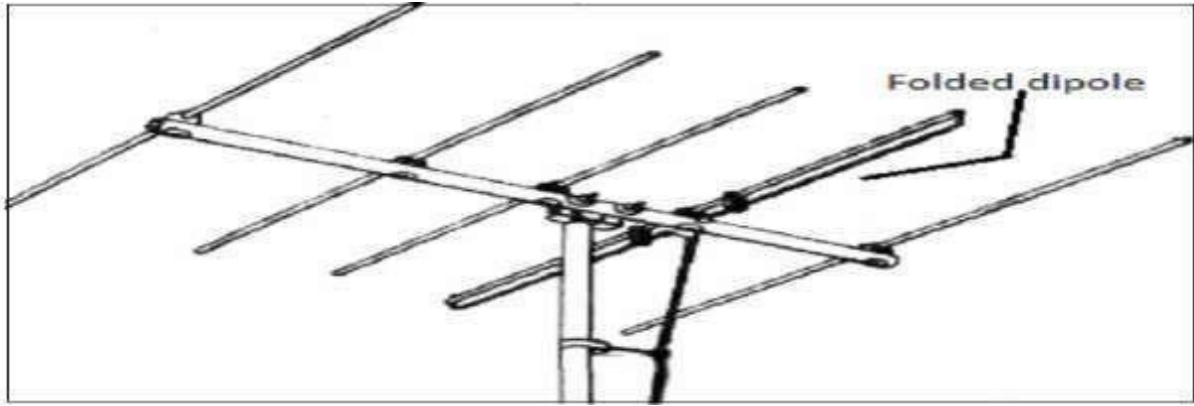
- If the diameter of the main conductor and the folded dipole are the same, then there will be four-fold (two times of squared one) increase in the feed impedance of the antenna.
- This increase in feed impedance is the main reason for the popular usage of this folded dipole antenna. Due to the twin-lead, the impedance will be around 300Ω .

Radiation Pattern

- The radiation pattern of half-wave folded dipoles is the same as that of the half-wave dipole antennas.
- The following figure shows the radiation pattern of half-wave folded dipole antenna, which is **Omni-directional** pattern.



- Half-wave folded dipole antennas are used where optimum power transfer is needed and where large impedances are needed.
- This folded dipole is the main element in **Yagi-Uda antenna**. The following figure shows a **Yagi-Uda antenna**, which we will study later.
- The main element used here is this folded dipole, to which the antenna feed is given.
- This antenna has been used extensively for television reception over the last few decades.



Advantages

The following are the advantages of half-wave folded dipole antenna –

- Reception of balanced signals.
- Receives a particular signal from a band of frequencies without losing the quality.
- A folded dipole maximizes the signal strength.

Disadvantages

The following are the disadvantages of half-wave folded dipole antenna –

- Displacement and adjustment of antenna is a hassle.
- Outdoor management can be difficult when antenna size increases.

Applications

The following are the applications of half-wave folded dipole antenna –

- Mainly used as a feed element in Yagi antenna, Parabolic antenna, turnstile antenna, log periodic antenna, phased and reflector arrays, etc.
- Generally used in radio receivers.
- Most commonly used in TV receiver antennas.

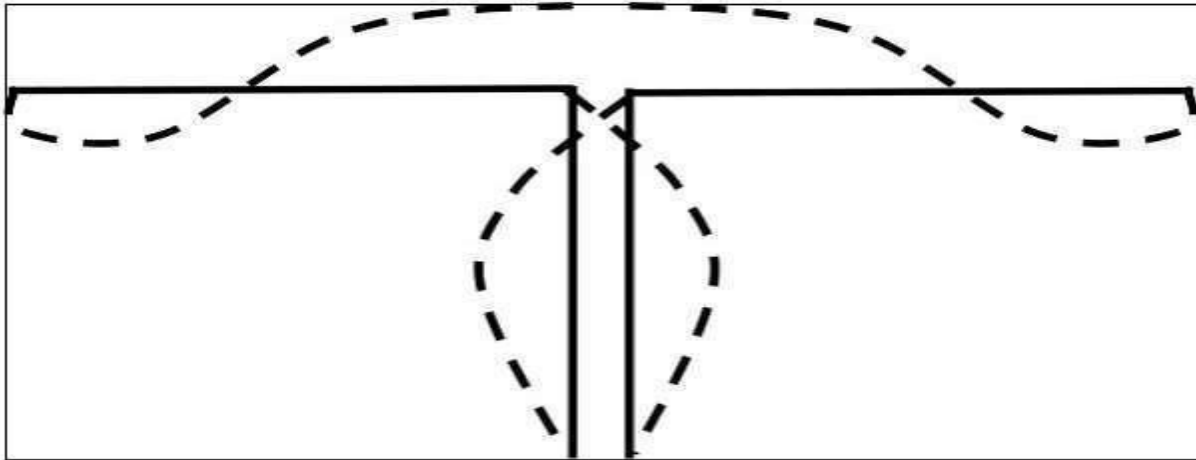
Full Wave Dipole:

- If the length of the dipole, i.e. the total wire, equals the full wavelength λ , then it is called as **full wave dipole**.

Construction & Working of Full-wave Dipole

- The full-wave dipole with its voltage and current distribution is shown here. Both the positive and negative peaks of the wave induce positive and negative voltages respectively.

- However, as the induced voltages cancel each other, there is no question of radiation.
- The below figure shows the voltage distribution of full-wave dipole whose length is λ . It is seen that two half-wave dipoles are joined to make a full-wave dipole.



The voltage pattern when induces its positive charges and negative charges at the same time, cancel out each other as shown in the figure. The induced charges make no further attempt of radiation since they are cancelled. The output radiation will be zero for a full wave transmission dipole.

Radiation Pattern

As there is no radiation pattern, no directivity and no gain, the Full wave dipole is seldom used as an antenna. Which means, though the antenna radiates, it is just some heat dissipation, which is a wastage of power.

Disadvantages

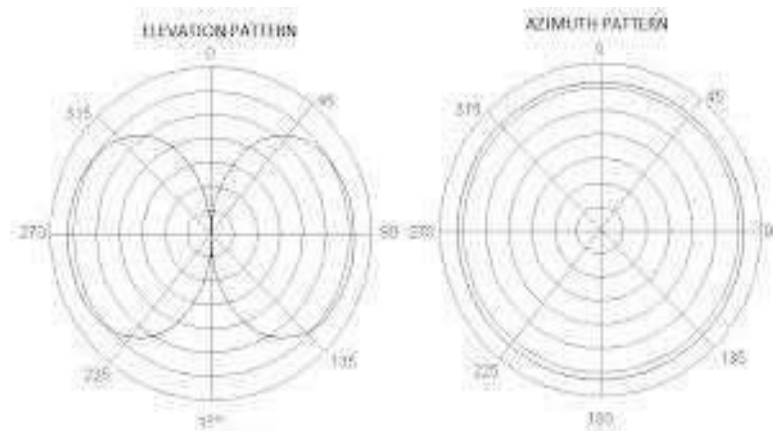
The following are the disadvantages of full-wave dipole antenna.

- Heat dissipation
- Wastage of power
- No radiation pattern
- No directivity and no gain

Due to these drawbacks, the full-wave dipole is seldom used.

3. Omni-Directional Antenna:

- An **omnidirectional antenna** is a class of antenna which radiates equal radio power in all directions perpendicular to an axis (azimuthal directions), with power varying with angle to the axis (elevation angle), declining to zero on the axis.



- When graphed in three dimensions this radiation pattern is often described as doughnut-shaped.
- Note that this is different from an isotropic antenna, which radiates equal power in all directions, having a spherical radiation pattern.
- Omnidirectional antennas oriented vertically are widely used for non-directional antennas on the surface of the Earth because they radiate equally in all horizontal directions, while the power radiated drops off with elevation angle so little radio energy is aimed into the sky or down toward the earth and wasted.
- Omnidirectional antennas are widely used for radio broadcasting antennas, and in mobile devices that use radios such as cell phones, FM radios, walkie-talkies, wireless computer networks, cordless phones, GPS, as well as for base stations that communicate with mobile radios, such as police and taxi dispatchers and aircraft communications.
- Common types of low-gain omnidirectional antennas are the whip antenna, "Rubber Duck" antenna, ground plane antenna, vertically oriented dipole antenna, discone antenna, mast radiator, horizontal loop antenna (sometimes known colloquially as a 'circular aerial' because of the shape) and the halo antenna.
- Higher-gain omnidirectional antennas can also be built. "Higher gain" in this case means that the antenna radiates less energy at higher and lower elevation angles and more in the horizontal directions.
- High-gain omnidirectional antennas are generally realized using collinear dipole arrays.
- Omnidirectional radiation patterns are produced by the simplest practical antennas, monopole and dipole antennas, consisting of one or two straight rod conductors on a common axis. Antenna gain (G) is defined as antenna efficiency (e) multiplied by antenna directivity (D) which is expressed mathematically as: $G = eD$.
- A useful relationship between omnidirectional radiation pattern directivity (D) in decibels and half-power beamwidth (HPBW) based on the assumption of a $\sin(b\theta)/b\theta$ pattern shape is:

$$D \approx 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{101.5}{\text{HPBW} - 0.00272 \text{HPBW}^2} \right) \text{ dB.}$$

OperationsoffollowingAntennaswithadvantageandapplications.

(A)DirectionalHighFrequencyAntenna:

Yagi-UdaAntenna

Yagi-UdaantennaisthemostcommonlyusedtypeofantennaforTV receptionoverthelast few decades. It is the most popular and easy-to-use type of antenna with better performance, which is famous for its high gain and directivity

Frequencyrange

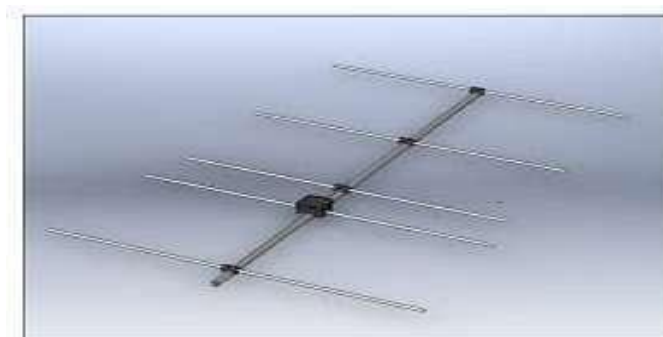
ThefrequencyrangeinwhichtheYagi-Udaantennasoperateisaround**30MHzto 3GHz** whichbelong tothe **VHF**and **UHF**bands.

ConstructionofYagi-UdaAntenna

AYagi-Udaantennawasseenontopofalmosteveryhouseduringthepastdecades.The parasitic elements and the dipole together form this Yagi-Uda antenna.



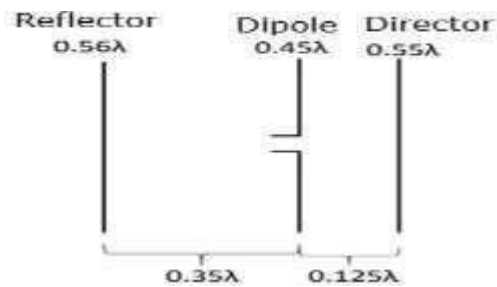
The figure shows a **Yagi-Uda antenna**. It is seen that there are many directors placed to increasethe directivityoftheantenna.Thefeederisthefoldeddipole.The reflectoristhe lengthy element, which is at the end of the structure.



The figure depicts a clear form of the Yagi-Uda antenna. The center rod like structure on whichtheelementsaremountediscalledas**boom**.Theelementtowhichathickblackhead is connected is the **driven element** to which the transmission line is connected internally, through that black stud. The single element present at the back of the driven element is the **reflector**, which reflects all the energy towards the direction of the radiation pattern. The other elements, before the driven element, are the **directors**, which direct the beam towards the desired angle.

Designing

For this antenna to be designed, the following design specifications should be followed.



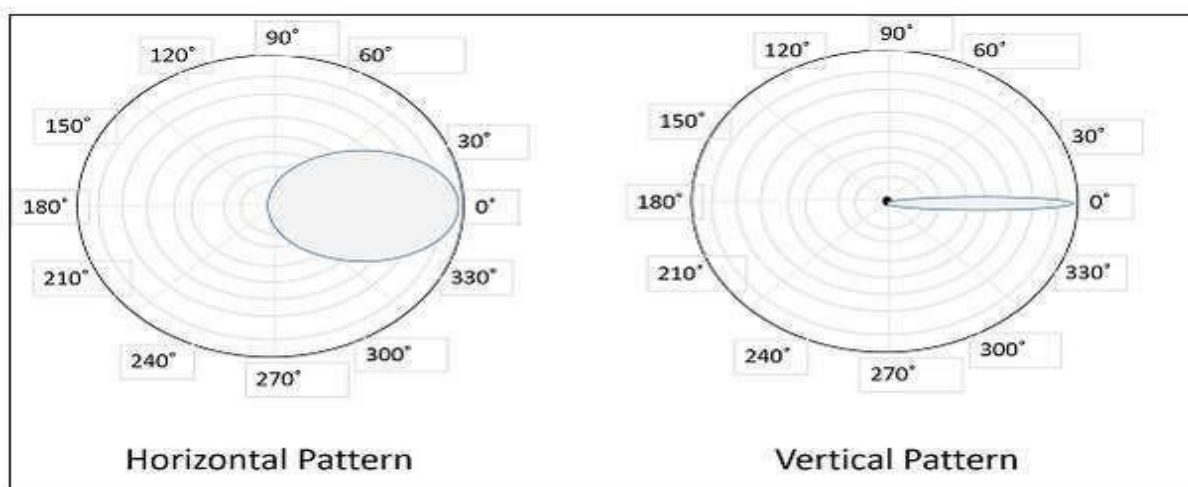
They are –

ELEMENT	SPECIFICATION
Length of the Driven Element	0.458λ to 0.5λ
Length of the Reflector	0.55λ to 0.58λ
Length of the Director 1	0.45λ
Length of the Director 2	0.40λ
Length of the Director 3	0.35λ
Spacing between Directors	0.2λ
Reflector to dipole spacing	0.35λ
Dipole to Director spacing	0.125λ

If the specifications given above are followed, one can design a Yagi-Uda antenna.

Radiation Pattern

The directional pattern of the Yagi-Uda antenna is **highly directive** as shown in the figure given below.



The minor lobes are suppressed and the directivity of the major lobe is increased by the addition of directors to the antenna.

Advantages

The following are the advantages of Yagi-Uda antennas –

- High gain is achieved.
- High directivity is achieved.
- Ease of handling and maintenance.
- Less amount of power is wasted.
- Broader coverage of frequencies.

Disadvantages

The following are the disadvantages of Yagi-Uda antennas –

- Prone to noise.
- Prone to atmospheric effects.

Applications

The following are the applications of Yagi-Uda antennas –

- Mostly used for TV reception.
- Used where a single-frequency application is needed.

Rhombic Antenna

The **Rhombic Antenna** is an equilateral parallelogram shaped antenna. Generally, it has two opposite acute angles. The tilt angle, θ is approximately equal to 90° minus the angle of major lobe. Rhombic antenna works under the principle of travelling wave radiator. It is arranged in the form of a rhombus or diamond shape and suspended horizontally above the surface of the earth.

Frequency Range

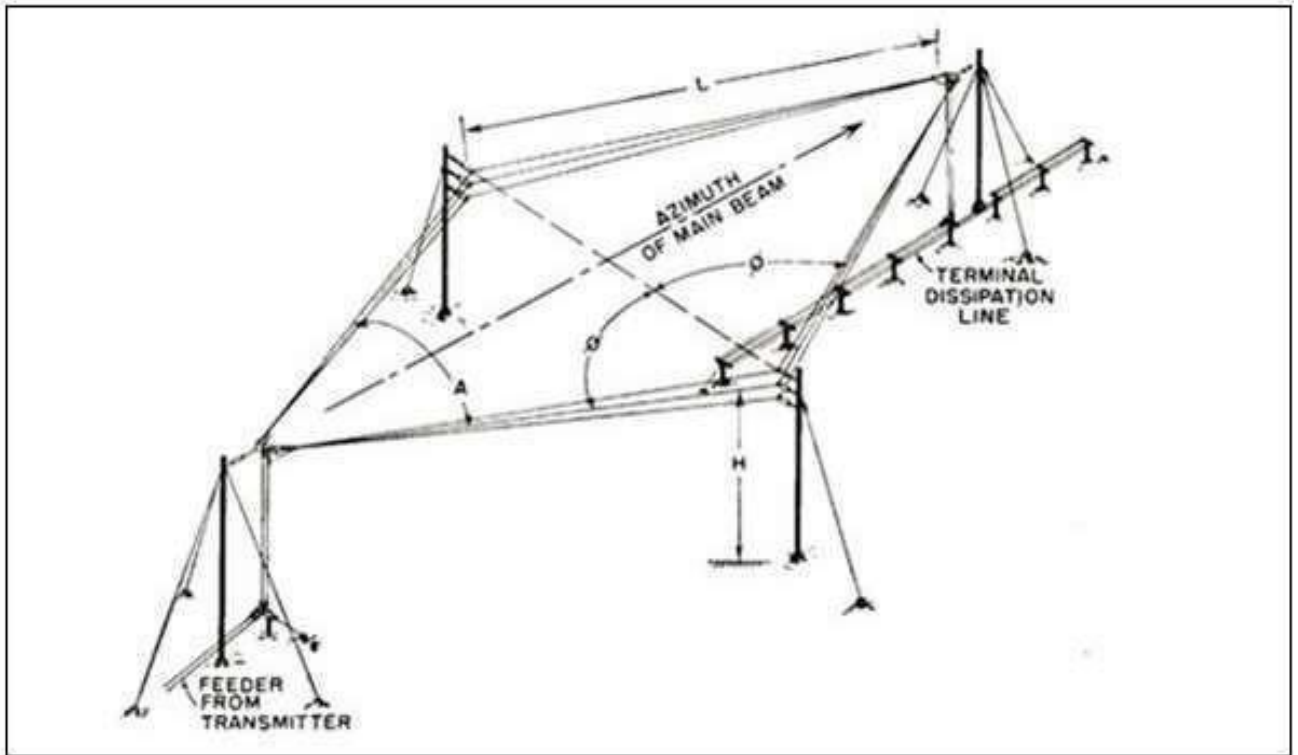
The frequency range of operation of a Rhombic antenna is around **3 MHz to 300 MHz**. This antenna works in **HF** and **VHF** ranges.

Construction of Rhombic Antenna

Rhombic antenna can be regarded as two V-shaped antennas connected end-to-end to form obtuse angles. Due to its simplicity and ease of construction, it has many uses –

- In HF transmission and reception
- Commercial point-to-point communication

The construction of the rhombic antenna is in the form of a rhombus, as shown in the figure.



The two sides of rhombus are considered as the conductors of a two-wire transmission line. When this system is properly designed, there is a concentration of radiation along the main axis of radiation. In practice, half of the power is dissipated in the terminating resistance of the antenna. The rest of the power is radiated. The wasted power contributes to the minor lobes.

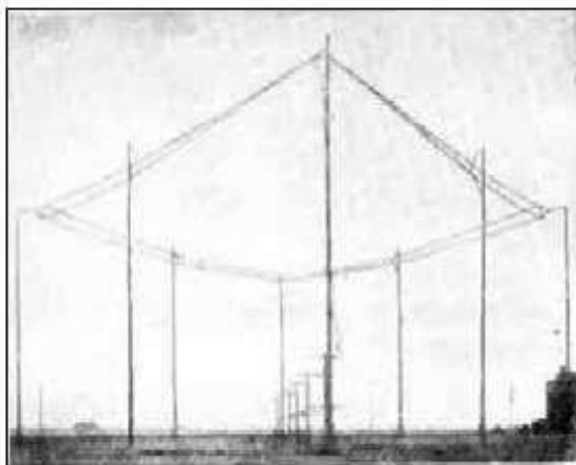


Figure 1

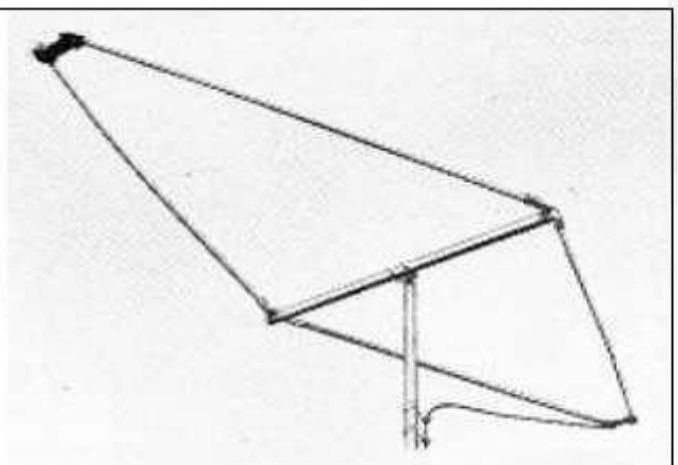


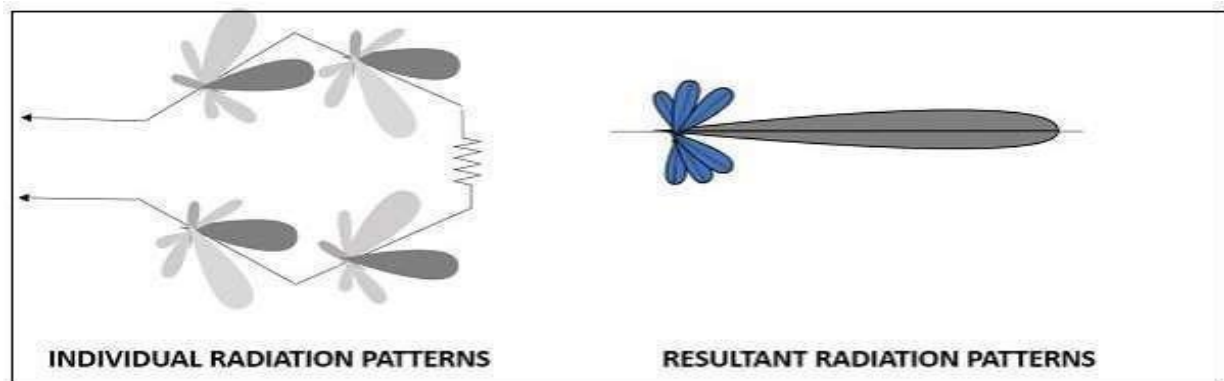
Figure 2

Figure 1 shows the construction of rhombic antenna for point-to-point communication in olden days. Figure 2 shows the rhombic UHF antenna for TV reception, used these days.

The maximum gain from a rhombic antenna is along the direction of the main axis, which passes through the feed point to terminate in free space. The polarization obtained from a horizontal rhombic antenna is in the plane of rhombus, which is horizontal.

Radiation Pattern

The radiation pattern of the rhombic antenna is shown in the following figure. The resultant pattern is the cumulative effect of the radiation at all four legs of the antenna. This pattern is **uni-directional**, while it can be made bi-directional by removing the terminating resistance.



The main disadvantage of a rhombic antenna is that the portions of the radiation, which do not combine with the main lobe, result in considerable side lobes having both horizontal and vertical polarization.

Advantages

The following are the advantages of Rhombic antenna –

- Input impedance and radiation pattern are relatively constant
- Multiple rhombic antennas can be connected
- Simple and effective transmission

Disadvantages

The following are the disadvantages of Rhombic antenna –

- Wastage of power in terminating resistor
- Requirement of large space
- Reduced transmission efficiency

Applications

The following are the applications of Rhombic antenna –

- Used in HF communications
- Used in long distance skywave propagations
- Used in point-to-point communications

(B)UHFAndMicrowaveAntenna:

DishAntenna(ParabolicReflector)

ParabolicReflectors areMicrowaveantennas.Forbetterunderstandingoftheseantennas, the concept of parabolic reflector has to be discussed.

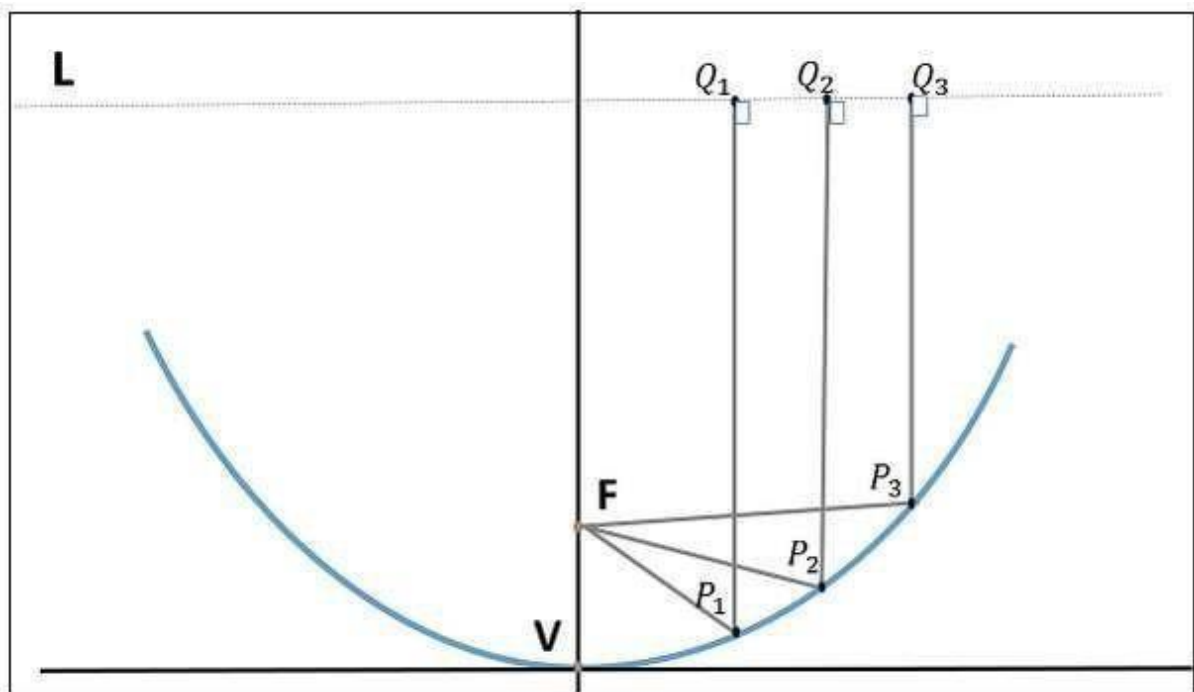
FrequencyRange

Thefrequency rangeusedfortheapplicationofParabolicreflectorantennasis **above1MHz**. These antennas are widely used for radio and wireless applications.

PrincipleofOperation

Thestandarddefinitionofaparabolais-Locusofapoint,whichmovesinsuchawaythatits distance from the fixed point (called **focus**) plus its distance from a straight line (called **directrix**) is constant.

Thefollowingfigureshowsthegeometryofparabolicreflector.Thepoint **F**isthefocus(feed is given) and **V** is the vertex. The line joining F and V is the axis of symmetry. PQ are the reflected rays where **L** represents the line directrix on which the reflected points lie (to say that they are being collinear). Hence, as per the above definition, the distance between F and L lie constant with respect to the waves being focussed.



The reflected wave forms a collimated wave front, out of the parabolic shape. The ratio of focallengthtoaperturesize(ie., f/D)knownas “**foveDratio**”isanimportantparameterof parabolic reflector. Its value varies from **0.25 to 0.50**.

The law of reflection states that the angle of incidence and the angle of reflection are equal. This law when used along with a parabola, helps the beam focus. The shape of the

parabola when used for the purpose of reflection of waves, exhibits some properties of the parabola, which are helpful for building an antenna, using the waves reflected.

Properties of Parabola

- All the waves originating from focus, reflect back to the parabolic axis. Hence, all the waves reaching the aperture are in phase.
- As the waves are in phase, the beam of radiation along the parabolic axis will be strong and concentrated.

Advantages

The following are the advantages of Parabolic reflector antenna—

- Reduction of minor lobes
- Wastage of power is reduced
- Equivalent focal length is achieved
- Feed can be placed in any location, according to our convenience
- Adjustment of beam (narrowing or widening) is done by adjusting the reflecting surfaces

Disadvantage

The following is the disadvantage of a Parabolic reflector antenna—

- Some of the power that gets reflected from the parabolic reflector is obstructed. This becomes a problem with small dimension paraboloid.

Applications

The following are the applications of Parabolic reflector antenna—

- The Cassegrain feed parabolic reflector is mainly used in satellite communications.
- Also used in wireless telecommunication systems.

Horn Antenna

To improve the radiation efficiency and directivity of the beam, the wave guide should be provided with an extended aperture to make the abrupt discontinuity of the wave into a gradual transformation. So that all the energy in the forward direction gets radiated. This can be termed as **Flaring**. Now, this can be done using a horn antenna.

Frequency Range

The operational frequency range of a horn antenna is around **300 MHz to 30 GHz**. This antenna works in **UHF** and **SHF** frequency ranges.

Construction & Working of Horn Antenna

The energy of the beam when slowly transforms into radiation, the losses are reduced and the focussing of the beam improves. A **Horn antenna** may be considered as a **flared out wave guide**, by which the directivity is improved and the diffraction is reduced.

There are several horn configurations out of which, three configurations are most commonly used.

Sectoral horn

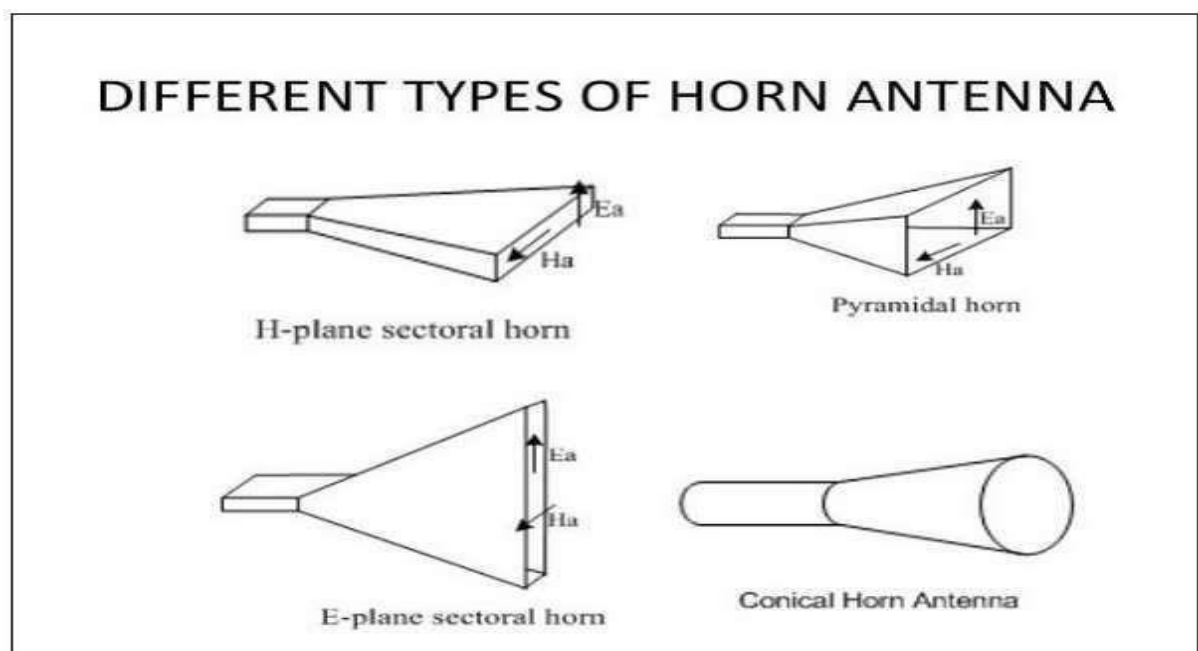
This type of horn antenna, flares out in only one direction. Flaring in the direction of Electric vector produces the **sectorial E-plane horn**. Similarly, flaring in the direction of Magnetic vector, produces the **sectorial H-plane horn**.

Pyramidal horn

This type of horn antenna has flaring on both sides. If flaring is done on both the E & H walls of a rectangular waveguide, then **pyramidal horn antenna** is produced. This antenna has the shape of a truncated pyramid.

Conical horn

When the walls of a circular waveguide are flared, it is known as a **conical horn**. This is a logical termination of a circular wave guide.



The above figures show the types of horn configurations, which were discussed earlier.

Flaring helps to match the antenna impedance with the free space impedance for better radiation. It avoids standing wave ratio and provides greater directivity and narrower beam width. The flared waveguide can be technically termed as **Electromagnetic Horn Radiator**.

Flare angle, Φ of the horn antenna is an important factor to be considered. If this is too small, then the resulting wave will be spherical instead of plane and the radiated beam will not be directive. Hence, the flare angle should have an optimum value and is closely related to its length.

Combinations

Horn antennas may also be combined with parabolic reflector antennas to form a special type of horn antennas. These are –

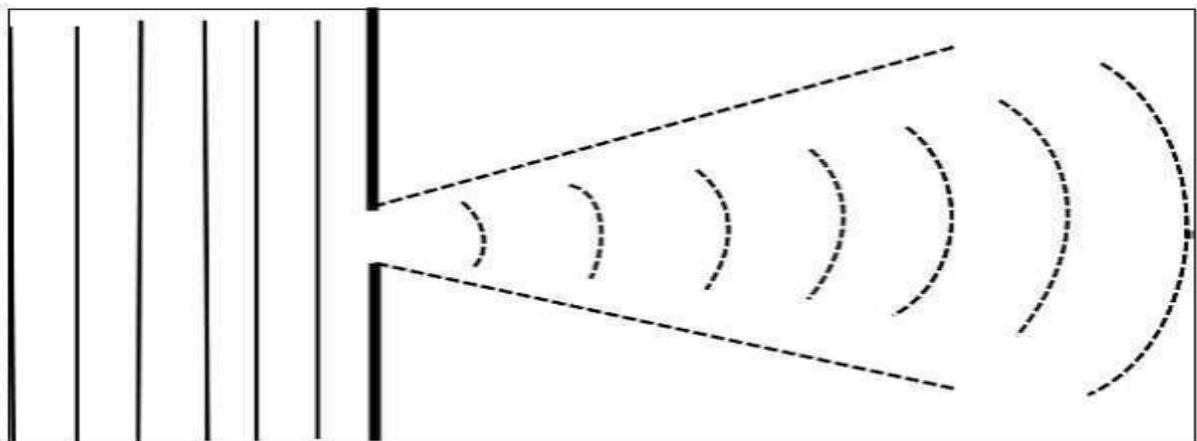
- Cass-horn antenna
- Hog-horn or triply folded horn reflector

In **Cass-horn antenna**, radio waves are collected by the large bottom surface, which is parabolically curved and reflected upward at 45° angle. After hitting the top surface, they are reflected to the focal point. The gain and beam width of these are just like parabolic reflectors.

In **hog-horn antenna**, a parabolic cylinder is joined to a pyramidal horn, where the beam reaches the apex of the horn. It forms a low-noise microwave antenna. The main advantage of the hog-horn antenna is that its receiving point does not move, though the antenna is rotated about its axis.

Radiation Pattern

The radiation pattern of a horn antenna is a Spherical Wavefront. The following figure shows the **radiation pattern** of a horn antenna. The wave radiates from the aperture, minimizing the diffraction of waves. The flaring keeps the beam focussed. The radiated beam has high directivity.



Advantages

The following are the advantages of Horn antenna –

- Small minor lobes are formed
- Impedance matching is good
- Greater directivity
- Narrower beamwidth
- Standing waves are avoided

Disadvantages

The following are the disadvantages of Horn antenna –

- Designing of flare angle, decides the directivity
- Flare angle and length of the flare should not be very small

Applications

The following are the applications of Horn antenna –

- Used for astronomical studies
- Used in microwave applications

Basic Concepts of Smart Antennas:

- **Smart antennas** (also known as adaptive array **antennas**, digital **antenna** arrays, multiple **antennas** and, recently, MIMO) are **antenna** arrays with **smart** signal processing algorithms used to identify spatial signal signatures such as the direction of arrival (DOA) of the signal, and use them to calculate beam forming vectors.
- An antenna, when individually can radiate an amount of energy, in a particular direction, resulting in better transmission, how it would be if few more elements are added to it, to produce more efficient output. It is exactly this idea, which led to the invention of **Antenna arrays**.
- An antenna array can be better understood by observing the following images. Observe how the antenna arrays are connected.
- An **antenna array** is a radiating system, which consists of individual radiators and elements.
- Each of this radiator, while functioning has its own induction field. The elements are placed so closely that each one lies in the neighbouring one's induction field.
- Therefore, the radiation pattern produced by them, would be the vector sum of the individual ones.
- The spacing between the elements and the length of the elements according to the wavelength are also to be kept in mind while designing these antennas.
- The antennas radiate individually and while in array, the radiation of all the elements sum up, to form the radiation beam, which has high gain, high directivity and better performance, with minimum losses.

Advantages

The following are the advantages of using antenna arrays –

- The signal strength increases
- High directivity is obtained
- Minor lobes are reduced much
- High Signal-to-noise ratio is achieved
- High gain is obtained
- Power wastage is reduced
- Better performance is obtained

Disadvantages

The following are the disadvantages of array antennas –

- Resistive losses are increased
- Mounting and maintenance is difficult
- Huge external space is required

Applications

The following are the applications of array antennas –

- Used in satellite communications
- Used in wireless communications
- Used in military radar communications
- Used in the astronomical study

Types of Arrays

The basic types of arrays are –

- Collinear array
- Broadside array
- Endfire array
- Parasitic array
- Yagi-Uda array
- Log-periodic array
- Turnstile array
- Super-turnstile array

Short Questions With Answers

1. Define an antenna.

Antenna is a transition device or a transducer between a guided wave and a free space wave or vice versa. Antenna is also said to be an impedance transforming device.

2. What is meant by radiation pattern?

Radiation pattern is the relative distribution of radiated power as a function of distance in space. It is a graph which shows the variation in actual field strength of the EM wave at all points which are at equal distance from the antenna. The energy radiated in a particular direction by an antenna is measured in terms of FIELD STRENGTH. (E Volts/m)

3. Define Radiation intensity?

The power radiated from an antenna per unit solid angle is called the radiation intensity U (watts per steradian or per square degree). The radiation intensity is independent of distance.

4. Define Beam efficiency?

The total beam area (W_A) consists of the main beam area (W_M) plus the minor lobe area (W_m). Thus $W_A = W_M + W_m$. The ratio of the main beam area to the total beam area is called beam efficiency. Beam efficiency = $SM = W_M / W_A$.

5. Define Directivity?

The directivity of an antenna is equal to the ratio of the maximum power density $P(q, f)_{\max}$ to its average value over a sphere as observed in the far field of an antenna. $D = P(q, f)_{\max} / P(q, f)_{\text{av}}$. Directivity from Pattern. $D = 4\pi / W_A$. Directivity from beam area (W_A).

6. What are the different types of aperture?

- i) Effective aperture. ii). Scattering aperture. iii) Loss aperture. iv) collecting aperture.
- v). Physical aperture.

7. Define different types of aperture?

Effective aperture (A_e). It is the area over which the power is extracted from the incident wave and delivered to the load is called effective aperture. Scattering aperture (A_s). It is the ratio of the reradiated power to the power density of the incident wave. Loss aperture. (A_e). It is the area of the antenna which dissipates power as heat. Collecting aperture. (A_e). It is the addition of above three apertures. Physical aperture. (A_p). This aperture is a measure of the physical size of the antenna.

8. Define Aperture efficiency?

The ratio of the effective aperture to the physical aperture is the aperture efficiency. i.e Aperture efficiency = $\eta_{ap} = A_e / A_p$ (dimensionless).

9. What is meant by effective height?

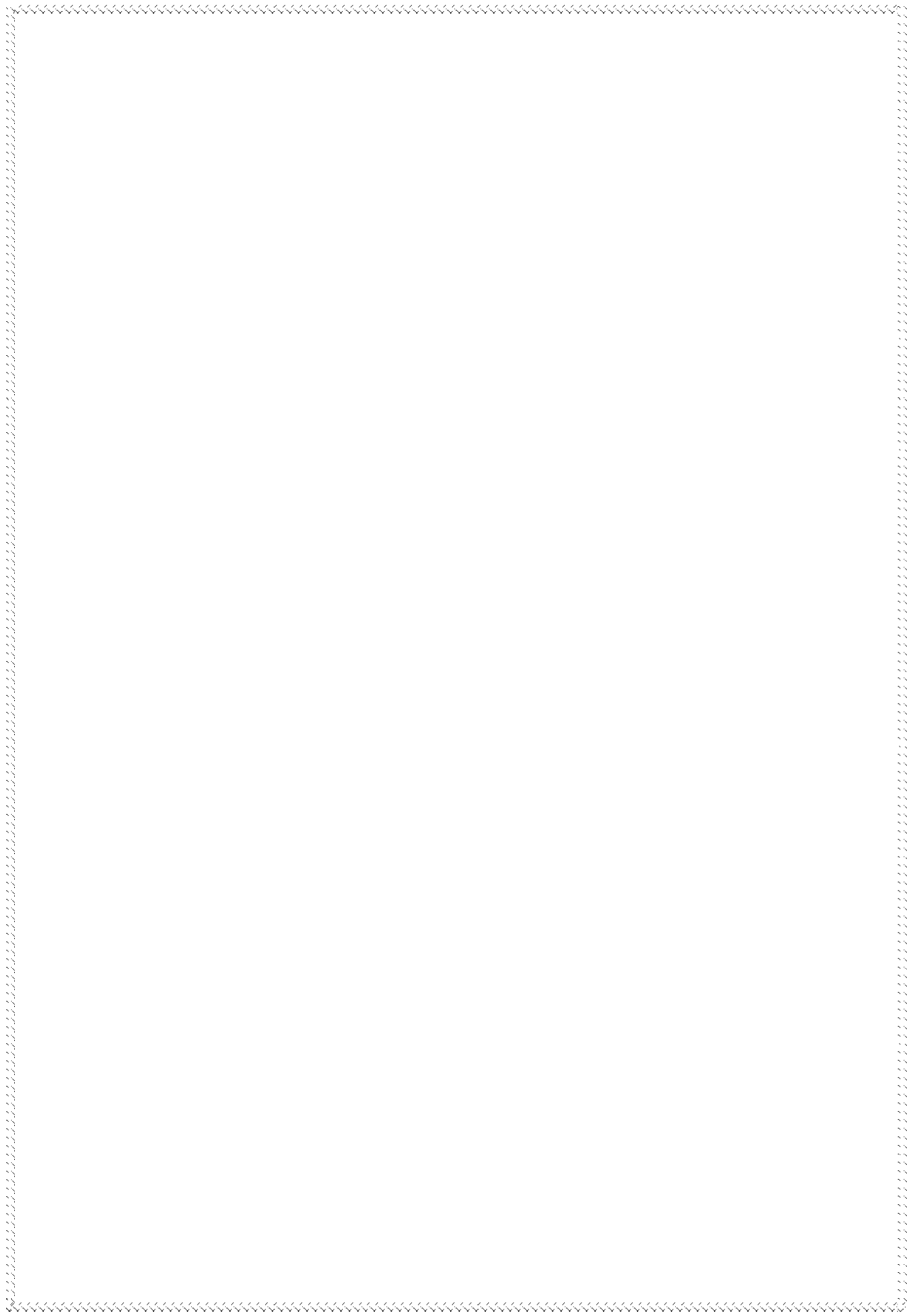
The effective height h of an antenna is the parameter related to the aperture. It may be defined as the ratio of the induced voltage to the incident field. i.e $H = V / E$.

10. What are the field zone?

The fields around an antenna may be divided into two principal regions. i. Near field zone (Fresnel zone) ii. Far field zone (Fraunhofer zone)

Long Questions

1. Write short note on effects of environment in wave propagation.
2. Write short note on Sky wave propagation.
3. Define and derive equation for Radiation mechanism of Antenna.
4. Define dipole Antenna. Explain full wave dipole Antenna in detail.
5. Explain how Yagi-Uda Antenna performs its operation?



CHAPTER NO-02:

TRANSMISSION LINES

LEARNING OBJECTIVES:

Fundamentals Of Transmission Lines

Equivalent circuit of transmission line & RF equivalent circuit

Characteristic impedance, methods of calculations & simple numerical.

Losses In Transmission Line

Standing wave – SWR, VSWR, Reflection coefficient, simple numerical.

Quarter wave & half wavelength Line

Impedance matching & Stubs – single & double

Primary And Secondary Constants Of X-Mission Line

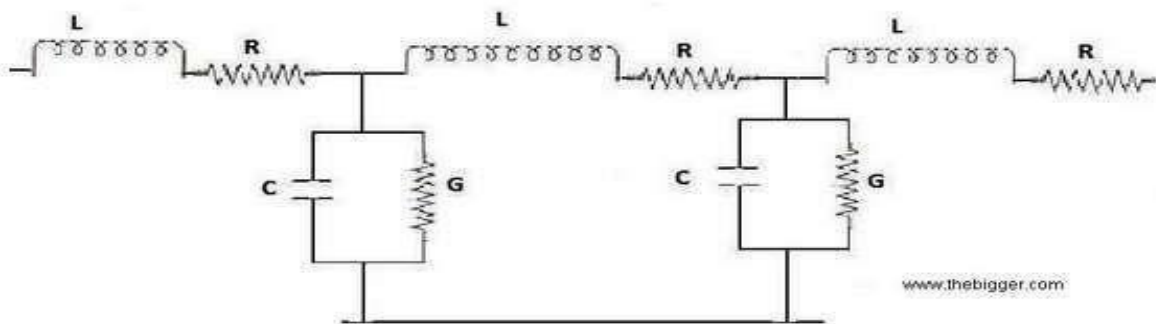
Fundamentals Of Transmission Lines:

- In radio-frequency engineering, a **transmission line** is a specialized cable or other structure designed to conduct alternating current of radio frequency, that is, currents with a frequency high enough that their wave nature must be taken into account.
- Transmission lines are used for purposes such as connecting radio transmitters and receivers with their antennas (they are then called feed lines or feeders), distributing cable television signals, trunk lines routing calls between telephone switching centres, computer network connections and high speed computer data buses.
- These are basically of the types such as parallel line (ladder line), coaxial cable, stripline, and microstrip.
- Ordinary electrical cables suffice to carry low frequency alternating current (AC), such as mains power, which reverses direction 100 to 120 times per second, and audio signals.
- However, they cannot be used to carry currents in the radio frequency range, above about 30 kHz, because the energy tends to radiate off the cable as radio waves, causing power losses.
- Radio frequency currents also tend to reflect from discontinuities in the cables such as connectors and joints, and travel back down the cable toward the source. These reflections act as bottlenecks, preventing the signal power from reaching the destination.
- Transmission lines use specialized construction, and impedance matching, to carry electromagnetic signals with minimal reflections and power losses.
- The distinguishing feature of most transmission lines is that they have uniform cross sectional dimensions along their length, giving them a uniform *impedance*, called the characteristic impedance, to prevent reflections.
- Types of transmission line include parallel line (ladder line, twisted pair), coaxial cable, and planar transmission lines such as strip line and micro strip.
- The higher the frequency of electromagnetic waves moving through a given cable or medium, the shorter the wavelength of the waves.
- Transmission lines become necessary when the transmitted frequency's wavelength is sufficiently short that the length of the cable becomes a significant part of a wavelength.
- At microwave frequencies and above, power losses in transmission lines become excessive, and waveguides are used instead, which function as "pipes" to confine and guide the electromagnetic waves.
- Some sources define waveguides as a type of transmission line; however, this article will not include them.
- At even higher frequencies, in the terahertz, infrared and visible ranges, waveguides in turn become lossy, and optical methods, (such as lenses and mirrors), are used to guide electromagnetic waves.

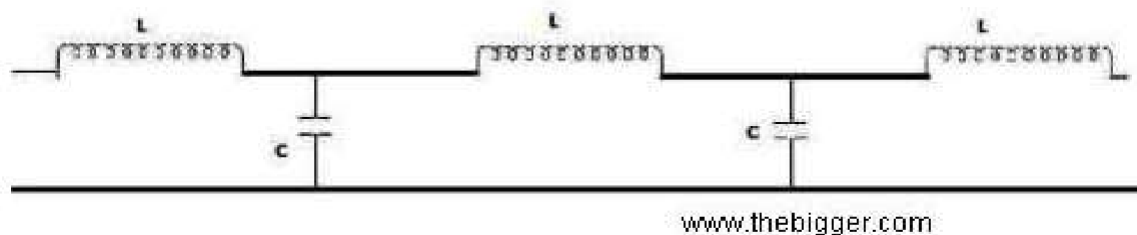
2.2 Equivalent circuit of transmission line & RF equivalent circuit :

Equivalent Circuit:

- We know that the conductors are present in a two-wire line. Dielectrics are also present between them.
- It is also clear that conductors can be of any length. Conductors also have some diameter.
- If both the length and diameter are associated with the conductor then resistance and inductance must be present there.
- If wires are separated from each other by placing the dielectric between them then the leakage of charge will take place, because the dielectric that we are using is an insulating material which can't be a perfect insulator.
- This can be explained well by introducing the concept of shunt conductance. It is denoted by G .



- All the quantities i.e. Resistance, Capacitance and Shunt conductance are calculated with respect to the length of the conductor.
- The inductive reactance has a greater value than that of resistance with respect to the radio frequencies.
- On the other hand the value of the capacitive susceptance is also much more than that of the shunt capacitance.
- These all the quantities are working along the length of line. So, if we ignore both R and G then we can consider the circuit as lossless.
- The circuit drawn below is formed after simplifying the circuit shown above.



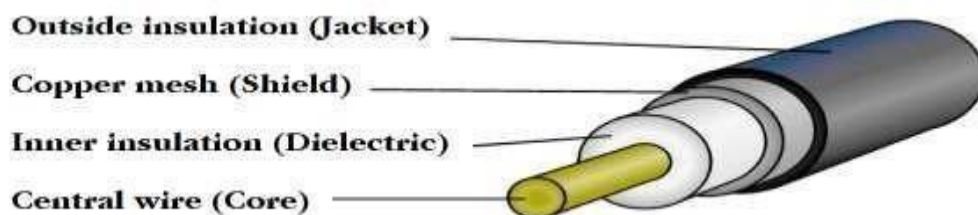
RF Equivalent Circuit:

- The transmitter that generates the RF power to drive the antenna is usually located at some distance from the antenna terminals. The connecting link between the two is the RF transmission line.
- Its purpose is to carry RF power from one place to another, and to do this as efficiently as possible.

- From the receiver side, the antenna is responsible for picking up any radio signals in the air, and passing them to the receiver with the minimum amount of distortion so that the radio has its best chance to decode the signal.
- For these reasons, the RF cable has a very important role in radio systems: it must maintain the integrity of the signals in both directions.
- There are two main categories of transmission lines: cables and waveguides.

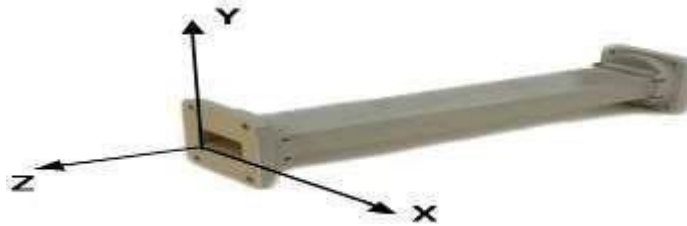
Cables:

- RF cables are, for frequencies higher than HF, almost exclusively coaxial cables (or "coax" for short, derived from the words "of common axis").
- Coax cables have a core wire, surrounded by a non-conductive material (which is called dielectric or insulation), and then surrounded by an encompassing shielding which is often made of braided wires.
- The dielectric keeps the core and the shielding apart. Finally, the coax is protected by an outer shielding which will generally be a PVC material.
- The inner conductor carries the RF signal and the outer shield is there to keep the RF signal from radiating to the atmosphere and to stop outside signals from interfering with the signal carried by the core.
- Another interesting fact is that the electrical signal always travels along the outer layer of the central conductor: the larger the central conductor, the better the signal will flow. This is called the "skin effect".



Waveguides:

- Above 2 GHz, the wavelength is short enough to allow practical, efficient energy transfer by different means.
- A waveguide is a conducting tube through which energy is transmitted in the form of electromagnetic waves.
- The tube acts as a boundary that confines the waves in the enclosed space. The skin effect prevents any electromagnetic effects from being evident outside the guide.
- The electromagnetic fields are propagated through the waveguide by means of reflections against its inner walls, which are considered perfect conductors.
- The intensity of the fields is greatest at the center along the X dimension, and must diminish to zero at the end walls because the existence of any field parallel to the walls at the surface would cause an infinite current to flow in a perfect conductor.
- Waveguides, of course, cannot carry RF in this fashion. The X, Y and Z dimensions of a rectangular waveguide can be seen in the following figure:



- There are an infinite number of ways in which the electric and magnetic fields can arrange themselves in a waveguide for frequencies above the low cutoff frequency.
- Each of these field configurations is called a mode. The modes may be separated into two general groups.
- One group, designated TM (Transverse Magnetic), has the magnetic field entirely transverse to the direction of propagation, but has a component of the electric field in the direction of propagation.
- The other type, designated TE (Transverse Electric) has the electric field entirely transverse, but has a component of magnetic field in the direction of propagation.
- TM waves are sometimes called E waves, and TE waves are sometimes called H waves, but the TM and TE designations are preferred.

Characteristics impedance, methods of calculations & simple numerical :

- Transmission system behavior differs at low and high frequencies, and the different behaviors are usually described in terms of lumped-constant and distributed-constant systems.
- Lumped-constant circuits involve components (coils, resistors, capacitors, etc.) whose physical dimensions are much less than the wavelength of the propagating electromagnetic wave and which can be located at discrete points.
- When circuit components and connecting wires are of dimensions comparable to a wavelength of the propagating electromagnetic wave, then the circuit components and the wires effectively become distributed constants.
- We may then think of a line as being composed of a series of small inductors and capacitors, where each coil is the inductance of an extremely small section of wire, and the capacitance is that existing between the same two sections.
- Each series inductor acts to limit the rate at which current can charge the following shunt capacitor, and in so doing it establishes a very important property of a transmission line, its **characteristic impedance**. This is abbreviated by convention as **Z₀**.
- The value of the characteristic impedance is equal to L/C in a perfect line, one in which the conductors have no resistance and there is no leakage between them.
- L and C are respectively the inductance and capacitance per unit length of line.
- The inductance decreases with increasing conductor diameter, and the capacitance decreases with increasing spacing between the conductors.
- Hence a line with closely spaced large conductors has a low characteristic impedance, while one with widely spaced thin conductors has a high one.
- Typical coaxial lines can have characteristic impedance's ranging from 30 Ω to 100 Ω , but most common impedance values for coaxial cables are 50 Ω and 75 Ω .

- Physical constraints on practical wire diameters and spacing limit Z_0 values to these ranges. The 50Ω RG-58 cable was developed during World War II to connect antennas which had an impedance of 50Ω .
- A line terminated in a purely resistive load equal to the characteristic line impedance is said to be matched.
- In a matched transmission line, the power is transferred outward from the source until it reaches the load, where it is completely absorbed.
- Thus with either an infinitely long line or a matched one, the impedance presented to the source of power is the same, regardless of the line length: it is equal to the characteristic impedance of the line.
- The current in such a line is given by the applied voltage divided by the characteristic impedance, according to Ohm's law. If the terminating resistance R is not equal to Z_0 , then the line is said to be mismatched. The more the R differs from Z_0 , the greater the mismatch.
- The power reaching R is not totally absorbed, as it was when R was equal to Z_0 , because R requires a voltage to current ratio that is different from the one traveling along the line.
- The result is that R absorbs only part of the power reaching it, the incident or direct power.
- The remainder goes back along the line toward the source, and it is known as the reflected power.
- The greater the mismatch, the larger the percentage of the incident power that is reflected. In the extreme case when R is zero (a short circuit) or infinity (an open circuit), all of the power reaching the end of the line is reflected back toward the source.
- The ratio of the reflected voltage at a given point on a transmission line to the incident voltage is called the voltage reflection coefficient.
- The voltage reflection coefficient is also equal to the ratio of the incident and reflected currents.

$$\rho = \frac{E_r}{E_i} = \frac{I_r}{I_i}$$

- Where ρ is the reflection coefficient, E_r is the reflected voltage, E_i is the incident voltage, I_r is the reflected current, I_i is the incident current.
- The reflection coefficient is determined by the relationship between the line's characteristic impedance and the actual load at the end of the line. In most cases, the load is not entirely resistive.
- It is a complex impedance, consisting of a resistance in series with a reactance. The reflection coefficient is thus a complex quantity, having both amplitude and phase. It can be designated with the letter ρ or with the letter Γ .
- The relationship between R_a , the load resistance, X_a , the load reactance, Z_0 , the line characteristic impedance with real part R_0 and reactive part X_0 and the complex reflection coefficient is given by:

$$\rho = \frac{Z_a - Z_0}{Z_a + Z_0} = \frac{(R_a + jX_a) - (R_0 + jX_0)}{(R_a + jX_a) + (R_0 + jX_0)}$$

- For most transmission lines the characteristic impedance is almost completely resistive, meaning that $Z_0 = R_0$ and $X_0 = 0$. The magnitude of the complex reflection coefficient then simplifies to

$$|\rho| = \sqrt{\frac{(R_a - R_0)^2 + X_a^2}{(R_a + R_0)^2 + X_a^2}}$$

Example: if the characteristic impedance of a coaxial line is 50Ω and the load impedance is 140Ω in series with a capacitive reactance of $-j190\Omega$, the magnitude of the reflection coefficient is

$$|\rho| = \sqrt{\frac{(140 - 50)^2 + 190^2}{(140 + 50)^2 + 190^2}} = 0.782$$

Losses In Transmission Line:

The energy losses that happen in case of transmission lines are shown below:

1. Conductor Heating
2. Dielectric Heating
3. Radiation Losses

It is observed that the radiation loss in parallel wire lines is much more than that of the coaxial cables.

Conductor heating: The heating rate of a conductor is directly proportional to the square of the current. It is inversely proportional to the characteristic impedance (Z_0). Conductor heating will also increase with the increase in frequency.

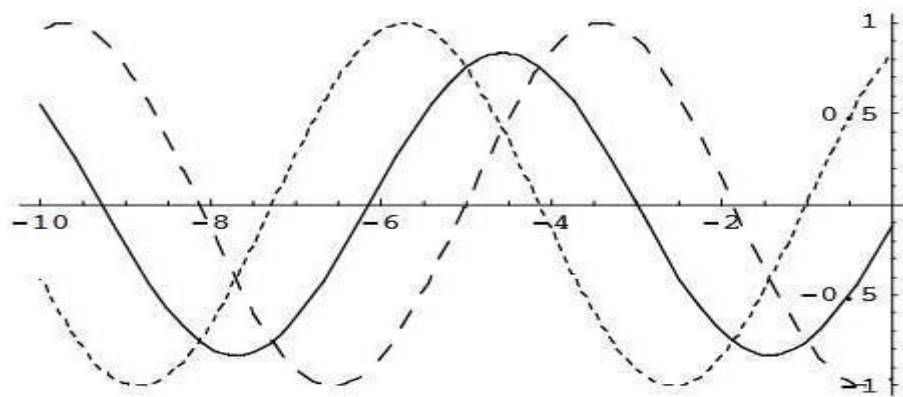
Radiation Loss: The transmission lines act as antennas when the separation distance between the conductors is very small as compared to their wavelength. Then the conductor starts radiating energy. As we will increase the frequency, the radiation loss will also increase.

Dielectric heating: It directly depends upon the voltage flowing across the dielectric. Similar to conductor heating, it is also inversely proportional to the characteristic impedance of the line. In this case, the loss also increases with the increase in frequency. If we use air as the dielectric medium, then the loss will be almost zero.

Standing wave—SWR, VSWR, Reflection coefficient, simple numerical. :

- If R_a is equal to R_0 and if X_a is zero, the formula for reflection coefficient (mentioned above) is also zero: this is the case of the matched line.
- On the other hand, if R_a is equal to zero, meaning that the load has no resistive part, then the reflection coefficient is equal to 1 regardless of the value of R_0 . This means that all the forward power is reflected, since the load is completely reactive.

- As a consequence of reflection, a standing wave may be visualized as an interference between the incident signal E_i at a given frequency, traveling in the forward direction, and the signal E_r , at the same frequency, traveling in the reverse direction.
- At the load, the relationship between the amplitudes of E_r and E_i and the phase angle between them are uniquely determined by the load impedance.
- The phase angle between E_r and E_i , however, will vary along the line as a function of the distance from the load.
- A wave is created that oscillates in amplitude but never moves laterally. That is why it is called standing wave. In the following figure, the E_r , E_i and the standing wave can be seen. The dashed lines are the E_r and the E_i , while the non dashed one represents the standing wave.



- At a position 180° from the load ($1/2\lambda$), the voltage and current must have the same values they do at the load. At a position 90° from the load ($1/4\lambda$), the voltage and current must be inverted: if the voltage is lowest and the current is highest at the load, then at 90° from the load the voltage reaches its highest value and the current reaches its lowest value at the same point.
- Note that the conditions at 90° also exist at 270° , and the ones at 180° are valid at every point multiple of 180° . In a matched line, all of the power that is transferred along the line is absorbed in the load if the load is equal to the characteristic impedance. None of the power is reflected back toward the source. As a result, no standing waves will be developed along the line. The voltage along the line is constant, so the matched line is also said to be flat.
- The ratio of the maximum voltage, resulting from the interaction of incident and reflected voltages along the line, to the minimum voltage is defined as the **Voltage Standing-Wave Ratio (VSWR)** or simply **Standing-Wave Ratio (SWR)**. The ratio of the maximum current to the minimum current is the same as the VSWR, so either current or voltage can be measured to determine the standing-wave ratio.

$$SWR = \frac{E_{\max}}{E_{\min}} = \frac{I_{\max}}{I_{\min}}$$

- In the case where the load contains no reactance, the SWR is equal to the ratio between the load resistance R and the characteristic impedance of the line. The standing-wave ratio is an index of many of the properties of a mismatched line. The SWR is related to the magnitude of the complex reflection coefficient by the following equation

$$SWR = \frac{1 + |\rho|}{1 - |\rho|}$$

- where we can see that with $\epsilon\rho=0$ we get $SWR=1$, so we have maximum transmission, and with $\epsilon\rho=1$ we get $SWR=\infty$, so we have no transmission. And the reflection coefficient magnitude may be defined from a measurement of SWR as

$$|\rho| = \frac{SWR - 1}{SWR + 1}$$

- We may also express the reflection coefficient in terms of forward and reflected power, quantities that can be easily measured using a directional RF wattmeter. The reflection coefficient may be computed as

$$\rho = \sqrt{\frac{P_r}{P_f}}$$

- where P_f is the power in the forward wave and P_r is the power in the reflected wave. We can use this equation to calculate the SWR from a measurement of the forward and reflected power

$$SWR = \frac{1 + |\rho|}{1 - |\rho|} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{\frac{P_r}{P_f}}}{1 - \sqrt{\frac{P_r}{P_f}}}$$

- The relation between the Return Loss expresses in dB, which is the amplitude of the reflected wave to the amplitude of the incident wave, and the reflection coefficient is given by:

$$\text{Return Loss (dB)} = -20 \log(\rho)$$

- The relation between the power ratio and the reflection coefficient is given by:

$$\frac{P_r}{P_f} = 100 \rho^2$$

- For example, if we measure a return loss of 15 dB, then we can calculate the reflection coefficient as 0.178 and thus the SWR as 1.43.

Quarterwave&halfwavelengthLine:

- RF is reflected from the end of a transmission line that is not terminated in its characteristic impedance. As a consequence, the impedance measured at the input of the transmission may or may not be the same as the load impedance. Before examining the general case of a transmission of an arbitrary electrical length, we will look at two special cases:
 1. Half wavelength lines
 2. Quarter wavelength lines.

1. Half Wavelength Lines:

A half wavelength transmission line is one whose electrical length is one half wavelength long, or a multiple of one half wavelength. When a $\lambda/2$ line whose characteristic impedance is Z_0 is terminated in a load impedance Z_L , the input impedance is always Z_L , regardless of the value of Z_L . To see why this is so, consider an RF sine wave of frequency f and wavelength λ traveling from input to the load. If $V_0 \cos(2\pi[(x/\lambda)+ft])$ and $I_0 \cos(2\pi[(x/\lambda)+ft])$ are the voltage and current on the transmission line, then at the input, $x = 0$, and the input impedance is:

$$Z_S = V_0 \cos(2\pi ft) / I_0 \cos(2\pi ft)$$

At the load, $x = \lambda/2$, and the load impedance of the line is:

$$Z_L = V_0 \cos(\pi + 2\pi ft) / I_0 \cos(\pi + 2\pi ft)$$

From elementary trigonometry, we know that $\cos(\pi + 2\pi ft) = -\cos(2\pi ft)$. Substituting this into the above expression gives:

$$Z_L = V_0 \cos(2\pi ft) / I_0 \cos(2\pi ft) = Z_S$$

Notice that this is true for any value of Z_0 , Z_S and Z_L .

This property of half wave lines has a very useful consequence

A transmission line may be reduced or increased in length by a half wavelength (or a multiple) and the input impedance remains the same.

Here is an example showing how a half wavelength line could be used:

An FM broadcast antenna has an impedance of 50 ohms. The transmitter requires a 50 ohm load. The only transmission line available is low loss 75 ohm coaxial cable (type RG-6), whose velocity factor is 0.75. If the antenna is located 400 feet above the transmitter and the operating frequency is 89.1 MHz, what is the minimum length of 75 ohm cable required that will connect the transmitter and antenna and provide a 50 ohm input impedance?

Solution:

Since the transmission line has a characteristic impedance of 75 ohms and the load impedance is 50 ohms, the only way to get a 50 ohm input impedance is to select a length of line that is a multiple of a half wavelength long. In fact, we need to determine the multiple of a half wavelength at 89.1 MHz that is closest to and larger than the required line length of 400 ft. We begin by computing the electrical length of 400 feet of RG-6 coaxial transmission line:

$$l_{ELECTRICAL} = \frac{l f}{984 V_F} = \frac{200 * 98.1}{984 * 0.75} = \frac{19620}{738} = 26.59 \lambda$$

It is necessary to make the line 0.41λ longer, resulting in an overall length of 27λ , which is a multiple of 0.5λ . Note that we cannot take 0.19λ off the line to get 26.5λ , because the line would then be too short. Now we determine the physical length of line equivalent to 0.41λ

$$\frac{984 V_F l_{ELECTRICAL}}{f} = l = \frac{984 * 0.75 * .41}{98.1} = \frac{302.6}{98.1} = 3.084 \text{ ft} = 3 \text{ ft } 1 \text{ in.}$$

The required length of line is $400 + 3.084 = 403.084 \text{ ft} = 403 \text{ ft } 1 \text{ in}$

A half wave line can also be used in place of a resonant LC circuit. The input impedance of an open circuited half wave line is infinite. If RF of a slightly lower frequency is applied, the electrical length of the line decreases below a half wavelength and the input impedance is inductive. If the frequency is increased, the input impedance is capacitive. Thus the open circuited half wave line acts like a parallel LC circuit. By similar reasoning, one can show that a shorted half wave line acts like a series resonant circuit. The table below shows the relationship between a half wave line and a resonant LC circuit.

Half Wave Line Termination	$f < f_0$	$f = f_0$	$f > f_0$	Type of LC Circuit
open circuit	Z_S is inductive $L_{ELECT} < \lambda/2$	Z_S is infinite $L_{ELECT} = \lambda/2$	Z_S is capacitive $L_{ELECT} > \lambda/2$	Parallel LC
short circuit	Z_S is capacitive $L_{ELECT} < \lambda/2$	Z_S is zero $L_{ELECT} = \lambda/2$	Z_S is inductive $L_{ELECT} > \lambda/2$	Series LC

At very high frequencies, where it is difficult to construct LC circuits with capacitors and inductors, they may be constructed from lengths of transmission line.

2. Quarter Wavelength Lines:

A quarter wavelength transmission line is one whose electrical length is one quarter wavelength long, or an odd multiple of a quarter wavelength long. The input, load and characteristic impedances of a quarter wave line are related by the following equation:

$$Z_S = Z_0^2 / Z_L$$

where:

Z_S is the input impedance

Z_0 is the characteristic impedance of the transmission line

Z_L is the load impedance

Quarter wave lines are generally used to transform an impedance from one value to another. Here is an example: A VHF loop antenna used to receive weather maps from satellites has an impedance of 110 ohms at 137 MHz. This antenna will be used with a receiver whose input impedance is 50 ohms.

- What is the impedance of the quarter wave matching section?
- If a cable with a 0.75 velocity factor is used for the matching section, what is its length?

a) We begin with $Z_S = Z_0^2 / Z_L$. This equation can be rewritten as:

$$Z_0^2 = Z_L Z_S$$

$$Z_0^2 = 110 * 50 = 5500$$

$$Z_0 = \sqrt{5500} = 74 \text{ ohms}$$

b) To determine the actual length we use the following formula:

$$(984 * VF * 0.25) / f = \text{length}$$

where VF = the velocity factor and f is the frequency in MHz. If we do the math, we discover that the matching section is 15 inches long.

A quarter wave line can also be used in place of a resonant LC circuit. The input impedance of an open circuited quarter wave line is zero (short circuit).

If RF of a slightly lower frequency is applied, the electrical length of the line decreases below a half wavelength and the input impedance is capacitive.

If the frequency is increased, the input impedance is inductive. Thus the open circuited quarter wave line acts like a series LC circuit. By similar reasoning, one can show that a open circuited quarter wave line acts like a parallel resonant circuit.

The table below shows the relationship between a quarter wave line and a resonant LC circuit.

Quarter Wave Line Termination	$f < f_0$	$f = f_0$	$f > f_0$	Type of LC Circuit
open circuit	Z_S is capacitive $L_{ELECT} < \lambda/2$	Z_S is zero $L_{ELECT} = \lambda/2$	Z_S is inductive $L_{ELECT} > \lambda/2$	Series LC
short circuit	Z_S is inductive $L_{ELECT} < \lambda/2$	Z_S is infinite $L_{ELECT} = \lambda/2$	Z_S is capacitive $L_{ELECT} > \lambda/2$	Parallel LC

Impedancematching&Stubs–single&double;



Stub tuning is an impedance matching technique, when an open-circuited or short-circuited transmission line is connected to the main transmission line. A stub is usually made as part of a circuit which allows the avoidance of lumped elements. Co-planar waveguides or slot lines are usually connected to a stub in series; microstrips in parallel.

Parallel stub tuning is depicted in Figure 1. The parameter chosen, so admittance is $Y = Y_0 + jB$, and susceptance $-jB$.

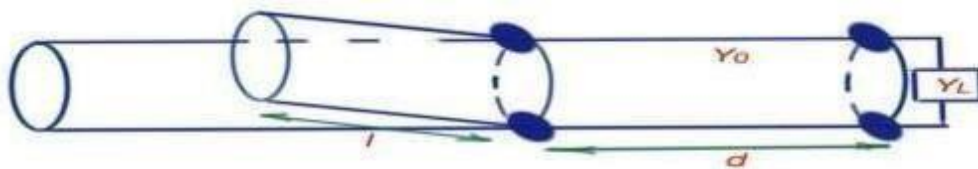


Figure 1.

Series stub tuning is depicted in Figure 2. The parameter chosen so the impedance is $Z = Z_0 + jX$, where reactance is $-jX$.

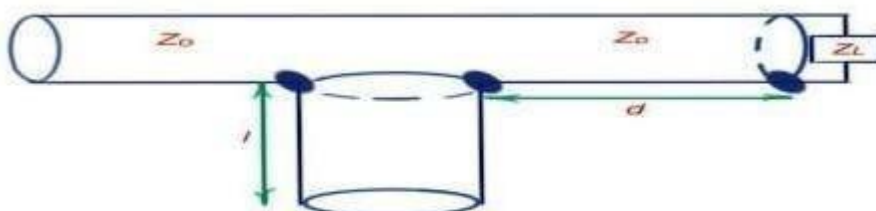


Figure 2.

Admittance and impedance are related with $Y = \frac{1}{Z}$.

By varying the parameter distance to the load, we can achieve the desired values of reactance and susceptance.

For this type of impedance, matching parameters are important. Here is the analytical solution.

$Z_L = R_L + jX_L$ is a load impedance.

Then, the distance between stub and load can be found as:

$$\frac{d}{\lambda} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} \tan^{-1} \frac{Z_L \pm \sqrt{R_L \frac{(Z_0 - R_L)^2 + X_L^2}{Z_0}}}{R_L - Z_0}, & \text{if } \frac{Z_L \pm \sqrt{R_L \frac{(Z_0 - R_L)^2 + X_L^2}{Z_0}}}{R_L - Z_0} > 0 \\ \frac{1}{2\pi} (1 + \tan^{-1} \frac{Z_L \pm \sqrt{R_L \frac{(Z_0 - R_L)^2 + X_L^2}{Z_0}}}{R_L - Z_0}), & \text{if } \frac{Z_L \pm \sqrt{R_L \frac{(Z_0 - R_L)^2 + X_L^2}{Z_0}}}{R_L - Z_0} < 0 \end{cases}$$

The stub length equations are more complex (stub can be opened or short cutted):

$$\frac{l_{open}}{\lambda} = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{B}{Y_0} \right), \text{ where } B = \frac{R_L^2 a - (Z_0 - X_L a)(Z_0 + X_L a)}{Z_0(R_L^2 + [X_L + Z_0 a]^2)}, a = \frac{Z_L \pm \sqrt{R_L \frac{(Z_0 - R_L)^2 + X_L^2}{Z_0}}}{R_L - Z_0}$$

$$\frac{l_{short}}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{Y_0}{B} \right), \text{ where } B = \frac{R_L^2 a - (Z_0 - X_L a)(Z_0 + X_L a)}{Z_0(R_L^2 + [X_L + Z_0 a]^2)}, \text{ and } a = \frac{Z_L \pm \sqrt{R_L \frac{(Z_0 - R_L)^2 + X_L^2}{Z_0}}}{R_L - Z_0}$$

When we have a series connection of stubs, the analytical solution will be the following:

$Y_L = G_L + jB_L$ is a load admittance.

The distance between load and stub is

$$\frac{d}{\lambda} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{B_L \pm \sqrt{\frac{G_L}{Y_0} (Y_0 - G_L)^2 + \frac{G_L B_L^2}{Y_0}}}{G_L - Y_0} \right), & \text{if } \frac{B_L \pm \sqrt{\frac{G_L}{Y_0} (Y_0 - G_L)^2 + \frac{G_L B_L^2}{Y_0}}}{G_L - Y_0} > 0 \\ \frac{1}{2\pi} (\pi + \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{B_L \pm \sqrt{\frac{G_L}{Y_0} (Y_0 - G_L)^2 + \frac{G_L B_L^2}{Y_0}}}{G_L - Y_0} \right)), & \text{if } \frac{B_L \pm \sqrt{\frac{G_L}{Y_0} (Y_0 - G_L)^2 + \frac{G_L B_L^2}{Y_0}}}{G_L - Y_0} < 0 \end{cases}$$

The stubs lengths are (for short cut and open stub):

$$\frac{l_{open}}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \tan^{-1} \frac{Z_0}{X}, \text{ where } X = \frac{G_L^2 a - (Y_0 - cB_L)(B_L + cY_0)}{Y_0(G_L^2 + (B_L + Y_0 c)^2)} \text{ and } c = \frac{B_L \pm \sqrt{\frac{G_L}{Y_0} (Y_0 - G_L)^2 + \frac{G_L B_L^2}{Y_0}}}{G_L - Y_0}$$

$$\frac{l_{short}}{\lambda} = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \tan^{-1} \frac{X}{Z_0}, \text{ where } X = \frac{G_L^2 a - (Y_0 - cB_L)(B_L + cY_0)}{Y_0(G_L^2 + (B_L + Y_0 c)^2)} \text{ and } c = \frac{B_L \pm \sqrt{\frac{G_L}{Y_0} (Y_0 - G_L)^2 + \frac{G_L B_L^2}{Y_0}}}{G_L - Y_0}.$$

Double-stub matching is a type of matching where two stubs are shunted to a main transmission line on a fixed distance.

This type of tuning is more favourable from a practical point of view. Double stub tuning is schematically depicted in Figure 3.

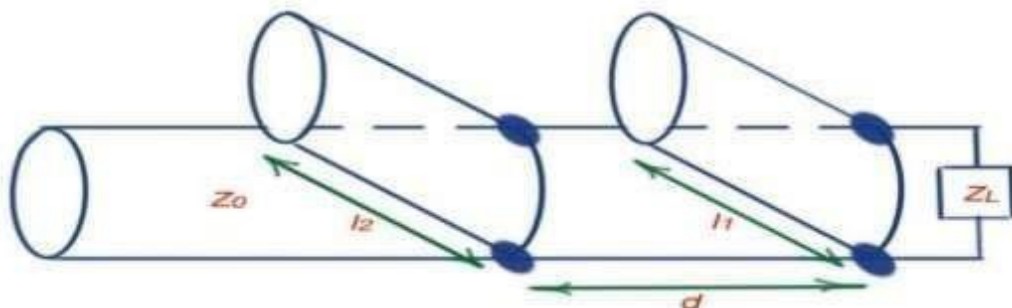


Figure 3.

Here two stubs are shunted to the main transmission line in a fixed position. Here is an analytical solution for double stub tuning.

Admittance of the first stub $Y_1 = G_L + j(B_L + B_1)$, where load admittance $Y_L = G_L + jB_L$. Then for admittance of a second stub we have: $Y_2 = Y_0 \frac{G_L + j(B_L + B_1 + Y_0 \tan \beta d)}{Y_0 + j(\tan \beta d)(G_L + jB_1 + jB_L)}$,

$$\text{here } G_L = Y_0 \frac{1 + (\tan \beta d)^2}{2(\tan \beta d)^2} \left[1 \pm \sqrt{1 - \frac{4(\tan \beta d)^2(Y_0 - B_L \tan \beta d + B_1 \tan \beta d)^2}{Y_0^2(1 + \tan \beta d^2)^2}} \right].$$

The lengths of stubs are:

$$\frac{l_{1open}}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{B_1}{Y_0}\right), \quad \frac{l_{2open}}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{B_2}{Y_0}\right), \quad \frac{l_{1short}}{\lambda} = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \tan\left(\frac{Y_0}{B_1}\right), \quad \frac{l_{2short}}{\lambda} = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \tan\left(\frac{Y_0}{B_2}\right).$$

$$\text{Here } B_1 = -B_L + \frac{Y_0 \pm \sqrt{Y_0 G_L (1 + (\tan \beta d)^2) - G_L^2 (\tan \beta d)^2}}{\tan \beta d}, \text{ and}$$

$$B_2 = \frac{G_L Y_0 \pm Y_0 \sqrt{Y_0 G_L (1 + (\tan \beta d)^2) - G_L^2 (\tan \beta d)^2}}{G_L \tan \beta d}.$$

Primary And Secondary Constants Of X-Mission Line:



Primary Parameters or constants

Resistance (R):

- It is series resistance due to internal resistance of the conductor.
- It is uniformly distributed along the line.
- It depends on the conductivity and cross sectional area of the conductor.
- At high frequencies, it depends on skin depth.
- It is measured as loop resistance per unit length of the line.

Primary Parameters or constants

Inductance (L):

- It is series inductance due to magnetic flux density produced around a conductor of a transmission line.
- It is uniformly distributed along the line.
- The flux linkages per unit current gives the inductance of the transmission line.
- It is measured as loop inductance per unit length of the transmission line.
- Units: H/m

Primary Parameters or constants

Capacitance (C):

- Two parallel conductors or coaxial conductors of a transmission line separated by distance 'd' acts as a capacitor.
- Thus a shunt capacitance formed due to the electric field between the conductors.
- It is uniformly distributed along the line.
- It is measured as shunt capacitance per unit length of the transmission line.

Primary Parameters or constants

Conductance (G):

- A shunt conductance due to leakage current between the conductors of a transmission line.
- Since, the dielectric or insulation material around the conductors is not perfect, a small amount of current flows through the dielectric material.
- It is uniformly distributed along the line.
- It is measured as shunt conductance per unit length of the transmission line.

Secondary Parameters or constants

Propagation constant (γ):

- The propagation constant of a sinusoidal electromagnetic wave is a measure of the change undergone by the amplitude and phase of the wave as it propagates in a transmission line.
- It is also the square root of the product of series impedance and shunt admittance.

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

Where, $(R + j\omega L) = Z \rightarrow$ series impedance

$(G + j\omega C) = Y \rightarrow$ Shunt admittance

$$\therefore \gamma = \sqrt{ZY}$$

Secondary Parameters or constants

Characteristic impedance (Z_0):

- It is the ratio of magnitude of voltage and current in an infinite transmission line at zero reflection wave condition.
- It is also the square root of the ratio of series impedance to shunt admittance.

$$\text{Characteristic impedance } (Z_0) = \sqrt{\frac{R + j\omega L}{G + j\omega C}}$$

Where, $(R + j\omega L) = Z \rightarrow$ series impedance

$(G + j\omega C) = Y \rightarrow$ Shunt admittance

$$\therefore Z_0 = \sqrt{\frac{Z}{Y}}$$

Possible Short Type Questions With Answers

1. Define the line parameters?

Ans- The parameters of a transmission line are Resistance (R), Inductance (L), Capacitance (C), Conductance (G).

2. What are these secondary constants of a line? Why the line parameters are called distributed elements?

Ans- The secondary constants of a line are: Characteristic Impedance, Propagation Constant. Since the line constants R, L, C, G are distributed throughout the entire length of the line, they are called as distributed elements. They are also called as primary constants.

3. Define Characteristic impedance

Ans- Characteristic impedance is the impedance measured at the sending end of the line. It is given by

$$Z_0 = \sqrt{Z/Y}, \text{ where}$$

$Z = R + j\omega L$ is the series impedance
 $Y = G + j\omega C$ is the shunt admittance

4. Define Propagation constant

Ans- Propagation constant is defined as the natural logarithm of the ratio of the sending end current or voltage to the receiving end current or voltage of the line. It gives the manner in which the wave is propagated along a line and specifies the variation of voltage and current in the line as a function of distance. Propagation constant is a complex quantity and is expressed as

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

The real part is called the attenuation constant α whereas the imaginary part of propagation constant is called the phase constant β

5. What is a finite line? Write down the significance of this line?

Ans- An infinite line is a line in which the length of the transmission line is infinite. A finite line, which is terminated in its characteristic impedance, is termed as a finite line. So for an infinite line, the input impedance is equivalent to the characteristic impedance.

6. How frequency distortion occurs in a line?

Ans- When a signal having many frequency components are transmitted along the line, all the frequencies will not have equal attenuation and hence the received end waveform will not be identical with the input waveform at the sending end because each frequency is having different attenuation. This type of distortion is called frequency distortion.

7. What is delay distortion?

Ans- When a signal having many frequency components are retransmitted along the line, all the frequencies will not have same time of transmission, some frequencies being delayed more than others. So the received end waveform will not be identical with the input waveform at the sending end because some frequency components will be delayed more than those of other frequencies. This type of distortion is called phase or delay distortion.

8. Mention different types of losses in Transmission line.(w-20)

Ans-

- copper loss,
- Dielectric Loss,
- Radiation or Induction Loss.

Possible Long Questions

1. Explain equivalent circuit of Transmission line and RF equivalent circuit.(w-20)
2. Explain about different losses in Transmission Line.
3. What is impedance matching? Explain single stub matching in detail.
4. Discuss about the primary and secondary constants of transmission line.(w-20)

CHAPTERNUMBER-03: TELEVISION ENGINEERING.

LEARNINGOBJECTIVES:

Define-Aspect ratio, Rectangular Switching. Flicker, Horizontal Resolution, Videobandwidth, Interlaced scanning, Composite video signal, Synchronization pulses

TV Transmitter–Block diagram & function of each block.

Monochrome TV Receiver-Block diagram & function of each block.

Colour TV signals (Luminance Signal & Chrominance Signal, (I & Q, U & V Signals).

Types of Televisions by Technology-

Discuss the principle of operation-LCD display, Large Screen

CATV systems & Types & networks

Digital TV Technology-Digital TV Signals, Transmission of digital TV signals & Digital TV receiver Video programme processor unit.

Define-Aspect ratio, Rectangular Switching, Flicker, Horizontal Resolution, Video bandwidth, Interlaced scanning, Composite video signal, Synchronization pulses

Aspect ratio : Aspect ratio can be defined as the ratio of width to height of the picture frame. For television, it is standardized as 4:3.

Rectangular Switching : TV's aspect ratio is the width and height (**W:H**) of your TV screen. So, if the shape of your TV is:

- **Square shape:** 4:3 aspect ratio. Usually traditional TV with Standard Definition (SD).
- **Rectangle shape:** 16:9 aspect ratio. Usually current High Definition (HD) TVs.

Your TV can affect the aspect ratio, but there are other things that can affect it, too - like TV boxes, video games, and DVD players. Anything that is connected to and shown on your TV has its own aspect ratio.

Flicker: The result of 24 pictures per second in motion pictures and that of scanning 25 frames per second in television pictures is enough to make an illusion of continuity. But, they are not rapid enough to permit the brightness of one picture or frame to blend smoothly in the next through the time when the screen is blanked between successive frames. This develops in a definite flicker of light that is very irritating to the observer when the screen is made alternately bright and dark.

Horizontal Resolution: The ability of the system to resolve maximum number of picture elements along the scanning lines determines horizontal resolution.

Video bandwidth : In broadcast television systems, **VF bandwidth**, **video bandwidth** or more formally **video frequency bandwidth** is the range of frequencies between 0 and the highest frequency used to transmit a live **television** image. The maximum frequency can be found by multiplying three figures; the number of frames per second, number of lines per frame and maximum number of sine periods per line.

Interlaced scanning : Interlaced scan is a display signal type in which one-half of the horizontal pixel rows are refreshed in one cycle and the other half in the next, meaning that two complete scans are required to display the screen image. The *i* in a TV signal specifications such as 1080i stands for *interlaced scanning*. The number indicates the number of horizontal lines in a raster.

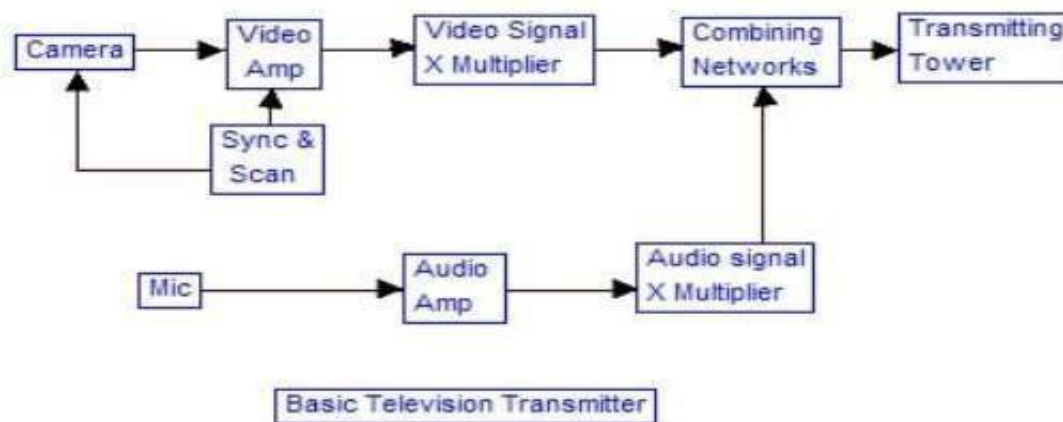
Composite video signal : A single-frequency sine wave is not useful in data communications. We need to send a **composite signal**, a **signal** made of many simple sine waves. According to Fourier analysis, any **composite signal** is a combination of simple sine waves with different frequencies, amplitudes, and phases.

Synchronization pulses : In general, synchronization is the process in which the signals are retransmitted and received in accordance with the clock **pulses**. In **synchronization of Television** transmitter, a sharp **pulse** is sent between each video signal line so that to maintain the impeccable transmitter-receiver **synchronization**.

TV Transmitter–Block diagram & function of each block.

The block diagram can be broadly divided into two separate sections, viz., one that generates an electronic signal (called video signal) corresponding to the actual picture and then uses this video signal to modulate an R-F carrier so as to be applied to the transmitting antenna for transmission, other that generates an electronic signal (called audio signal) containing sound information and then uses this signal to modulate another RF carrier and then applied to the transmitting antenna for transmission.

Block diagram of television transmitter



[The basic television Broadcast transmitter block diagram figure(a)]

The block diagram can be broadly divided into two separate sections, viz., one that generates an electronic signal (called video signal) corresponding to the actual picture and then uses this video signal to modulate an R-F carrier so as to be applied to the transmitting antenna for transmission, other that generates an electronic signal (called audio signal) containing sound information and then uses this signal to modulate another RF carrier and then applied to the transmitting antenna for transmission.

However only one antenna is used for transmission of the video as well as audio signals. Thus these modulated signals have to be combined together in some appropriate network. In addition there are other accessories also. For instance, video as well as audio signals have to be amplified to the desired degree before they modulate their respective RF carriers.

This function is performed by video and audio amplifiers. The block picture signal transmitter and audio signal transmitter shown in figure(a) may consist of modulators as the essential component; Video signal transmitter employs an AM transmitter as amplitude-modulation is used for video signals whereas audio signal transmitter employs FM modulator as frequency modulation is used for sound information. Scanning circuits are used to make the electron beam scan the actual picture to produce the corresponding video signal. The scanning by electron beam is in the receiver too. The beam scans the picture tube to reproduce the original picture from the video signal and this scanning at the receiver must be matched properly to the scanning at the transmitter. It is for this reason that synchronizing Circuits are used at the transmitter as well as receiver.

Complete TV transmitter Block Diagram

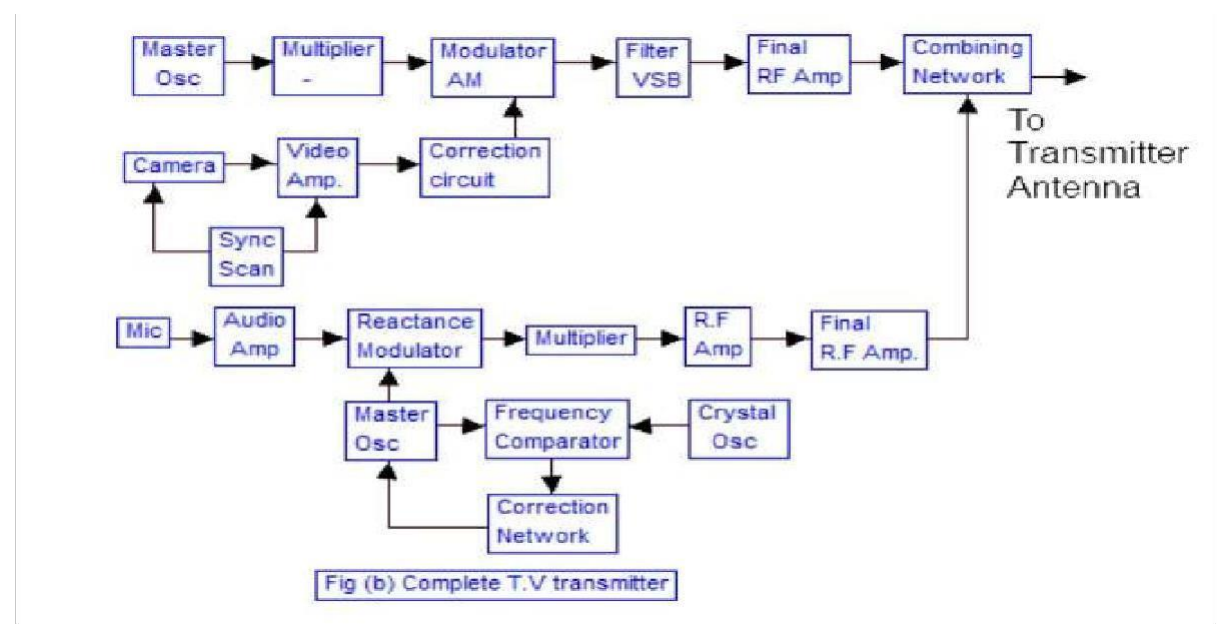


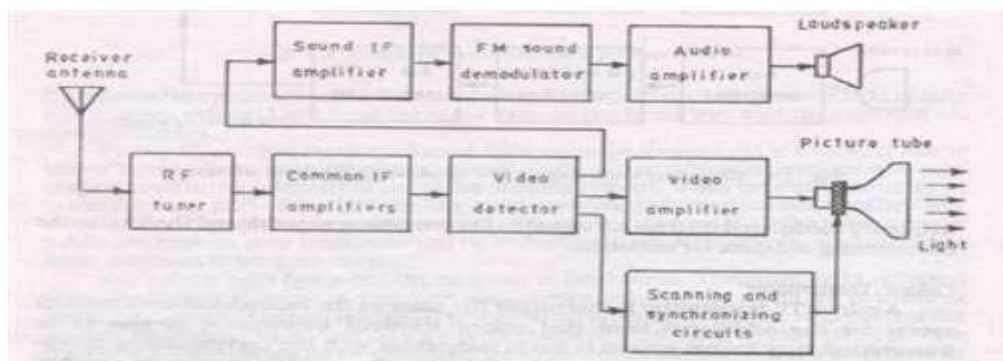
Figure (b) depicts the complete block diagram of a Television Broadcast Transmitter. The important blocks have already been discussed individually in the preceding sections, that makes understanding of the diagram shown here much more simple. A brief explanation is given ahead. The block diagram can be broadly divided into two sections, viz., an amplitude modulated transmitter and a frequency modulated transmitter. Former is used for video modulation whereas latter is used for audio modulation.

Master oscillator in both generates an RF carrier frequency. Generally, a master oscillator generates a sub multiple of carrier and then drives harmonic generators (frequency

multipliers) to achieve correct value carrier. Harmonic generators are nothing but class C tuned amplifiers whose output tuned circuit is tuned to some harmonic of the input signal. In actual practice, master oscillator and harmonic generator are separated or isolated by a buffer stage to avoid loading of the harmonic generator on the oscillator output. The carrier is then fed to an amplitude modulator in video transmitter and a frequency modulator in audio transmitter. In the modulator, the modulation signal is also fed with proper amplitude. Since low-level modulation is employed, the modulating signal is amplified by linear amplifiers up to the desired degree required for transmission. Video and audio signals on separate carriers are then combined together so as to be fed to the transmitting antenna as a signal.

3.3: Monochrome TV Receiver-Block diagram & function of each block.

Block diagram of television receiver



Television Receiver

A radio receiver designed to amplify and convert the video and audio radio-frequency signals of a television broadcast that have been picked up by a television antenna; the receiver reproduces the visual image broadcast and the accompanying sound. Television receivers are designed for color or black-and-white operation; both non-portable and portable models are produced. Those manufactured in the USSR are capable of receiving signals from television stations transmitting in specifically assigned portions of the very-high-frequency (VHF) band (48.5–100 megahertz and 174–230 megahertz; 12 channels) and ultra high-frequency (UHF) band (470–638 megahertz; several tens of channels).

Television receivers must simultaneously amplify and convert video and audio radio-frequency signals. They are usually designed with a super heterodyne circuit, and versions differ in the methods used to extract and amplify the audio signal. The principal components of a television receiver are shown in Figure 1.

The tuner selects the signal of the desired channel and converts them to a lower frequency within the intermediate-frequency pass band. The signal-processing circuits include an

intermediate-frequency amplifier for the video signal, an amplitude detector, a video amplifier for the brightness signal, and, in color receivers, a color- processing circuit for the chrominance signal. The processing circuit produces a brightness signal and a color- difference signal, which are fed to the control electrodes of a kinescope; an audio signal, which is fed to the audio channel; and horizontal and vertical synchronizing pulses (or a composite television signal), which are fed to a scanning generator. In the color television system used in the USSR, the color- processing circuit for the chrominance signal consists of a band- pass amplifier, in which the chrominance signal is extracted, channels for the direct and delayed signals, an electronic switching device, two frequency detectors for the color- difference signals, a matrix circuit, and amplifiers for the three color- difference signals. The color processing circuit has provisions for the extraction and decoding of the chrominance signal and for line selection, as well as chrominance disconnect circuits that operate when black-and-white transmissions are received.

The scanning generators include horizontal and vertical scanning circuits that produce sawtooth currents in the horizontal and vertical scanning coils of the deflection system.

The high voltage for feeding the second anode of the kinescope is derived from a special high voltage winding of the line transformer or by rectifying pulses from the transformer; the voltage for the focusing electrode is similarly derived.

The kinescope's interface includes static and dynamic white balance controls, switches for extinguishing the electron guns, and regulators for focusing the beams. The demagnetizing circuit for a color kinescope creates a damped alternating current in a demagnetizing loop that circles the kinescope screen. The current demagnetizes the shadow mask and yoke, which are made of steel. The audio section consists of an amplifier for the difference frequency, which in the USSR is 6.5 megahertz, a frequency detector for the audio signal, and a low- frequency amplifier from which the audio signal is fed to a high- quality acoustical system, usually composed of several loudspeakers. The power- supply section converts mains voltage into the supply voltages for all components of the television set, including the kinescope and vacuum tube heaters.

Colour TV signals (Luminance Signal & Chrominance Signal, (I & Q, U & V Signals).

Luminance

Luma is the weighted sum of gamma-compressed R'G'B' components of a color video—the *prime symbols* ' denote gamma compression. The word was proposed to prevent confusion between luma as implemented in video engineering and relative luminance as used in color science (i.e. as defined by CIE). Relative luminance is formed as a weighted sum of *linear* RGB components, not gamma-compressed ones.

While luma is more often encountered, relative luminance is sometimes used in video engineering when referring to the brightness of a monitor. The formula used to calculate relative luminance uses coefficients based on the CIE color matching functions and the relevant standard chromaticities of red, green, and blue.

The **I signal** represents hues from the orange-cyan colour axis, and the **Q signal** represents hues along the magenta-yellow colour axis. The human eye is much less sensitive to spatial detail in colour, and thus the chrominance information is allocated much less bandwidth than the **luminance** information.

Chrominance

Chrominance (*chroma* or *C* for short) is the signal used in video systems to convey the color information of the picture, separately from the accompanying luma signal (or *Y'* for short).

Chrominance is usually represented as two color-difference components: $U = B' - Y'$ (blue-luma) and $V = R' - Y'$ (red-luma). Each of these difference components may have scale factors and offsets applied to it, as specified by the applicable video standard.

In composite video signals, the *U* and *V* signals modulate a color subcarrier signal, and the result is referred to as the chrominance signal; the phase and amplitude of this modulated chrominance signal correspond approximately to the hue and saturation of the color. In digital-video and still-image color spaces such as *Y'CbCr*, the luma and chrominance components are digital sample values.

Separating RGB color signals into luma and chrominance allows the bandwidth of each to be determined separately. Typically, the chrominance bandwidth is reduced in an analog composite video by reducing the bandwidth of a modulated color subcarrier, and in digital systems by chroma subsampling.

Types of Televisions by Technology-

Based on Television Technology, there are basically 6 types of TVs available in the market, such as:

1. cathode-ray tube TVs:

- Direct View TVs are a rebranding of the classic, century-long dominance of the cathode-ray tube TVs. Most TV manufacturers have ceased production on these models in most countries in favor of newer technologies.
- For gaming, especially older gaming, having a direct view TV may be important.
- Many classic video games were developed specifically for the cathode-ray tube technology. Older games played on newer TVs can look torn or lag in ways that aren't a problem with direct view TVs.

2. Plasma Display Panels:

- Beginning in the 1990s, plasma display panel TVs became the first flat screen alternative to cathode-ray tube technology. Plasma displays are designed as a cellular grid with pixels that contain plasma, an ionized gas that responds to electric fields.
- The plasma layer is flanked by electrodes, with glass panels in the front and rear. Plasma TVs use similar phosphor screens as cathode-ray tube TVs, making the color depth similar in both technologies.

- However, plasma screen technology has considerable faster frame response over cathode-ray tubes, refreshing up to 600 times a second (600 Hz). Plasma TVs are also easily scalable — the first flat, big screen systems were all plasma displays.
- While an improvement in many ways over cathode-ray tubes, plasma TVs were still bulky, and they were and are susceptible to “burn-in,” or image retention, over time.

3. Digital Light Processing (DLP):

- Digital Light Processing (DLP) TVs were invented by Texas Instruments in the 1980s, using a completely novel technological approach.
- DLPs use an optical semiconductor chip with over 1 million mirrors that process digital signals by tilting to varying degrees, reflecting light in different directions to create an image.
- The resulting smooth viewing experience has several advantages over cathode-ray tube and plasma TVs, including longer lifespans, lighter weight, and 3D projection compatibility.
- However, newer technologies that are thinner, quieter, have faster response rates, and use less energy have also caused the shutdown of DLP TV production as of 2012.

4. Liquid Crystal Display (LCD):

- Liquid Crystal Display TVs are by far the most common TV type available today. First conceived in the 1960s, LCD technology uses a unique state of matter called liquid crystals. In this state, molecules are fluid but retain a specific crystal structure such that they are all oriented the same way.
- For LCDs, each pixel of the display contains several precisely oriented liquid crystal molecules that are aligned between two electrodes and two polarizing filters. When the screen is inert, no light can pass through.
- But when an electric field is applied, the liquid crystals rotate to a degree dependent on the voltage applied, which lets a corresponding amount of light pass through the screen at that pixel.
- So, by applying different voltages to different pixels across the screen, an image can be viewed. Most LCD TVs today are backlit with LED lights, and are sometimes just referred to as LED TVs.
- LCDs have been used for almost all screens produced in the last decade (2010s), including, among others, computers, clocks, smartphones, and watches.
- This is in part due to the versatility of the LCD technology, allowing screen sizes ranging from small watches all the way up to very large TVs. And unlike previous TV technologies, LCD screens are all flat and lightweight.

5. Organic Light-Emitting Diode (OLED) Display:

- An organic light-emitting diode (OLED) display contains an organic compound that emits light in response to electricity.

- The organic compound, which can be small molecules or polymers, is situated between two electrodes, at least one of which is transparent for viewing the fluorescent compound clearly.
- Unlike LCDs, no backlighting is required since the compound itself is light-emitting, so OLEDs can display deeper blacks than LCD screens and generally display greater contrast ratios in ambient light.
- They can also be even thinner and lighter than LCDs because filter layers are not required. While there are many advantages of OLED technology and OLED TVs have started slowly to replace LCD TVs over the last decade, the take over isn't nearly as fast or sure of victory as the transition from cathode-ray tubes to LCDs for our television viewing.
- And that's because, even with all the excitement in and potential of the technology, there are still some significant drawbacks. The biggest problem with OLEDs is a finite lifespan on the light-emitting fluorescent materials, resulting in a much shorter lifespan than LCDs.

6. Quantum Light-Emitting Diode (OLED):

- Just a few years old, quantum light-emitting diode (QLED) displays are the next generation of LCD displays.
- Tiny nanoparticles called quantum dots are embedded in the LCD display, which dramatically improves color and brightness.
- OLEDs still have better contrast ratios over QLEDs, but QLED screens can be larger, last longer, and are not susceptible to burn-in. Plus, QLED TVs are more affordable than OLED TVs, ranging between LCDs and OLEDs in price.

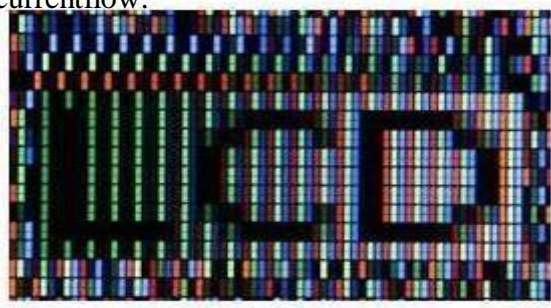
Discuss the principle of operation - LCD display, Large Screen

Display. LCD display

A liquid crystal display or LCD draws its definition from its name itself. It is a combination of two states of matter, the solid and the liquid. LCD uses a liquid crystal to produce a visible image. Liquid crystal displays are super-thin technology display screens that are generally used in laptop computer screens, TVs, cell phones, and portable video games. LCD's technologies allow displays to be much thinner when compared to a [cathode ray tube](#) (CRT) technology.

Liquid crystal display is composed of several layers which include two polarized panel filters and electrodes. LCD technology is used for displaying the image in a notebook or some other electronic devices like mini computers. Light is projected from a lens on a layer of liquid crystal. This

combination of colored light with the grayscale image of the crystal (formed as electric current flow).



An LCD

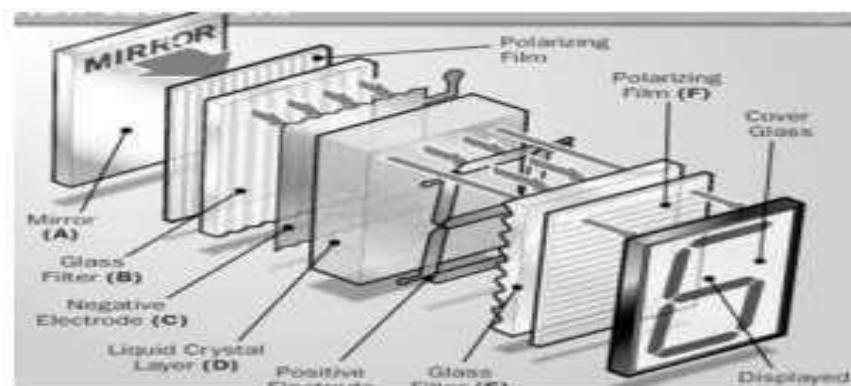
An LCD is either made up of an active matrix display grid or a passive display grid. Most of the Smartphone's with LCD technology uses active matrix display, but some of the older displays still make use of the passive display grid designs. Most of the electronic devices mainly depend on liquid crystal display technology for their display. The liquid crystal has a unique advantage of having low power consumption than the [LED](#) or cathode ray tube.

The liquid crystal display screen works on the principle of blocking light rather than emitting light. LCDs require a backlight as they do not emit light themselves. We always use devices which are made up of LCD's displays which are replacing the use of cathode ray tube. Cathode ray tube draws more power compared to LCDs and is also heavier and bigger.

How LCDs are Constructed?

Simple facts that should be considered while making an LCD:

1. The basic structure of the LCD should be controlled by changing the applied current.
2. We must use polarized light.
3. The liquid crystal should be able to control both of the operation to transmit or can also be able to change the polarized light.



As mentioned above that we need to take two polarized glass pieces as filter in the making of the liquid crystal. The glass which does not have a polarized film on the surface of it must be rubbed with a special polymer that will create microscopic grooves on the surface of the polarized glass filter. The grooves must be in the same direction as the polarized film.

Now we have to add a coating of pneumatic liquid phase crystal on one of the polarizing filters of the polarized glass. The microscopic channel causes the first layer molecule to align with filter orientation. When the right angle appears at the first layer piece, we should add a second piece of glass with the polarized film. The first filter will be naturally polarized as the light strikes it at the starting stage.

Thus the light travels through each layer and guided to the next with the help of a molecule. The molecule tends to change its plane of vibration of the light to match its angle. When the light reaches the far end of the liquid crystal substance, it vibrates at the same angle as that of the final layer of the molecule vibrates. The light is allowed to enter into the device only if the second layer of the polarized glass matches with the final layer of the molecule.

How LCDs Work?

The principle behind the LCDs is that when an electrical current is applied to the liquid crystal molecule, the molecule tends to untwist. This causes the angle of light which is passing through the molecule of the polarized glass and also causes a change in the angle of the top polarizing filter. As a result, a little light is allowed to pass the polarized glass through a particular area of the LCD.

Thus that particular area will become dark compared to others. The LCD works on the principle of blocking light. While constructing the LCDs, a reflected mirror is arranged at the back. An electrode plane is made of indium-tin-oxide which is kept on top and a polarized glass with a polarizing film is also added on the bottom of the device. The complete region of the LCD has to be enclosed by a common electrode and above it should be the liquid crystal matter.

Next comes the second piece of glass with an electrode in the form of the rectangle on the bottom and, on top, another polarizing film. It must be considered that both the pieces are kept at the right angles. When there is no current, the light passes through the front of the LCD it will be reflected by the mirror and bounced back. As the electrode is connected to a battery the current from it will cause the liquid crystals between the common-plane electrode and the electrode shaped like a rectangle to untwist. Thus the light is blocked from passing through. That particular rectangular area appears blank.

CATV systems & Types & networks

The television cable industry has become a major service provider by allowing data transport over upgraded CATV cable networks. The cable industry has had many plans for delivering unique services to its subscribers. High-resolution digital video has been part of the plan, as well as TV set-top boxes that provide interactive game interfaces, WebTV, and other features. Cable data networks make this possible.

Cable data networks are one of several residential broadband schemes. Other schemes include DSL (Digital Subscriber Line), satellite systems such as Hughes Network System's DirecPC, and wireless data systems discussed under "Wireless Broadband Access Technologies." In fact, MMDS (Multichannel Multipoint Distribution Services) has been called a "wireless cable data network" solution because of its multipoint characteristics.

Cable Network Provider Services

Cable operators can add various types of Internet-related services to enhance their networks. For example, caching ensures that the benefits of high-speed Internet access available to cable network subscribers is not lost when accessing slower links and servers on the Internet. For example, a number of users in the system may frequently access a server that is connected to the Internet via a 56K modem link. The cable operator can cache this information on its local server to make the information immediately available to subscribers.

IP telephony support allows users to make voice telephone calls over the cable network. This requires a cable modem that provides integrated MTA (multimedia terminal adapter) support, which basically means it has a telephone jack and a computer connector. IP telephony over cable networks supports multiple phone and simultaneous calls, which are set up as virtual circuits. Additional virtual circuits can be created at any time, with available bandwidth and the number of handsets/headsets being the only restriction. Incoming calls are set up as another virtual circuit. At the cable operator end, an IP-to-PSTN (public-switched telephone network) gateway converts and routes IP-based telephone calls into the traditional telephone system.

Cable operators are working to provide a number of services to their customers, including audio and video servers that can serve up music and movies. A big player is @Home, a cable-specific ISP, meaning that it provides content to cable companies throughout the United States. Cable companies such as Cox Communications deploy @Home Network as part of their interactive content for homes and workplaces. Cox is an equity partner in At Home Corporation, along with Comcast Corporation and Tele-Communications.

Corporate users should keep in mind that cable networks are primarily geared toward home users, not companies that want to build high-speed remote office connections, extranets, or other high-usage links. Many cable operators may discourage large organizations from connecting to their cable system.

Standards Development

Cable standards are designed to provide interoperability between cable modems and head-end gear. Subscribers should be able to buy off-the-shelf cable modems that are guaranteed to connect over the cable network with the equipment installed at the cable operator's site. Standards benefit both subscribers and operators by making connection easier and promoting new applications. The most important standards are outlined here:

- **DOCSIS (Data over Cable Interface Specification):** DOCSIS is the result of work done by MCNS (Multimedia Cable Network System Partners Ltd.). This standard has become the most interesting and important, and is covered under the "DOCSIS" heading.
- **DAVIC (Digital Audio Visual Council):** DAVIC was a non-profit group that promoted digital audio-visual applications and services based on specifications which maximized interoperability across countries and applications/services. DAVIC developed a digital video broadcast reference model that is popular in Europe and preferred by the European Cable Communications Association (ECCA), a European cable industry organization. DAVIC is oriented toward delivering digital video to

home users, while DOCSIS is better positioned for data delivery. DAVIC completed its work and closed in 2000.

- **IEEE 802.14 Working Group:** This group is defining the physical layer and a MAC (Medium Access Control) layer protocol for HFC networks. The architecture specifies an HFC cable plant with a radius of 80 kilometers from the head end. The group's goal is to develop a specification for delivering Ethernet traffic over the network. ATM networking was also considered for the delivery of multimedia traffic. There has been some conflict between the work done by this IEEE group and the work done by MCNS, but MCNS is implementing part of the IEEE's physical layer work. Still, a paper about cable standards at the CATV Cyberlab claims that "the IEEE 802.14 effort was a failure." In fact, MCNS began work on DOCSIS because the IEEE was not working fast enough on its specification.
- **IETF IP over Cable Data Network (IPCDN) Working Group:** The IPCDN is defining how IP can be delivered over the cable network. Most of its work is centered on DOCSIS and addresses higher levels than the IEEE 802.14 Working Group, which is concentrating on physical and data link layer protocols. IPCDN is defining a specification to map both IPv4 and IPv6 into the HFC access networks. The group is interested in multicast, broadcast, address mapping and resolution (for IPv4), and neighbor discovery (for IPv6). IPCDN is also working on bandwidth management and guarantees using RSVP, security using IPSec, and management using SNMP.

Digital TV Technology-Digital TV Signals, Transmission of digital TV signals & Digital TV receiver Video programme processor unit.

Digital television (DTV) is the transmission of television audiovisual signals using digital encoding, in contrast to the earlier analog television technology which used analog signals. At the time of its development it was considered an innovative advancement and represented the first significant evolution in television technology since color television in the 1950s. Modern digital television is transmitted in high definition (HDTV) with greater resolution than analog TV. It typically uses a widescreen aspect ratio (commonly 16:9) in contrast to the narrower format of analog TV. It makes more economical use of scarce radio spectrum space; it can transmit up to seven channels in the same bandwidth as a single analog channel, and provides many new features that analog television cannot. A transition from analog to digital broadcasting began around 2000.

Different digital television broadcasting standards have been adopted in different parts of the world; below are the more widely used standards:

Digital Video Broadcasting (DVB)

Advanced Television System Committee (ATSC)

Integrated Services Digital Broadcasting (ISDB)

Digital Terrestrial Multimedia Broadcasting (DTMB)

Digital Multimedia Broadcasting (DMB)

Formats and bandwidth

Digital television's roots have been tied very closely to the availability of inexpensive, high performance computers. It was not until the 1990s that digital TV became a real possibility. Digital television was previously not practically feasible due to the impractically high bandwidth requirements of uncompressed digital video, requiring around 200 Mbit/s (25 MB/s) bit-rate for a standard-definition television (SDTV) signal, and over 1 Gbit/s for high-definition television (HDTV).

Digital television supports many different picture formats defined by the broadcast television systems which are a combination of size and aspect ratio (width to height ratio).

With digital terrestrial television (DTT) broadcasting, the range of formats can be broadly divided into two categories: high definition television (HDTV) for the transmission of high-definition video and standard-definition television (SDTV). These terms by themselves are not very precise, and many subtle intermediate cases exist.

One of several different HDTV formats that can be transmitted over DTV is: 1280×720 pixels in progressive scan mode (abbreviated *720p*) or 1920×1080 pixels in interlaced video mode (*1080i*). Each of these uses a 16:9 aspect ratio. HDTV cannot be transmitted over analog television channels because of channel capacity issues.

Receiving digital signal

There are several different ways to receive digital television. One of the oldest means of receiving DTV (and TV in general) is from terrestrial transmitters using an antenna (known as an *aerial* in some countries). This way is known as Digital terrestrial television (DTT). With DTT, viewers are limited to channels that have a terrestrial transmitter in range of their antenna.

Other ways have been devised to receive digital television. Among the most familiar to people are digital cable and digital satellite. In some countries where transmissions of TV signals are normally achieved by microwaves, digital MMDS is used. Other standards, such as Digital multimedia broadcasting (DMB) and DVB-H, have been devised to allow handheld devices such as mobile phones to receive TV signals. Another way is IPTV, that is receiving TV via Internet Protocol, relying on digital subscriber line (DSL) or optical cable line. Finally, an alternative way is to receive digital TV signals via the open Internet (Internet television), whether from a central streaming service or a P2P (peer-to-peer) system.

Possible Short Type Questions With Answers

1. Mention the major function of the camera tube?

Ans- The major function of the camera tube is to convert an optical image into electrical signals.

2. Define visual acuity?

Ans- Visual acuity can be defined as the ability of human eye to resolve finer details in a picture.

3. Define aspect ratio? (w-20)

Ans- Aspect ratio can be defined as the ratio of width to height of the picture frame. For television, it is standardized as 4:3.

4. Define luminous flux?

Ans- Luminous flux can be defined as the radiated luminous power or power of visible light expressed in terms of its effect on the average or normal human eye.

5. Define luminance?

Ans- Luminance can be defined as the quantity of light intensity emitted per square centimeter of an illuminated area.

6. What are rods and cones?

Ans- The retina of the human eye consists of light sensitive cellular structures of two kinds namely rods and cones. The rods sense primarily the brightness levels including very faint impressions. The cones are mainly responsible for colour perception. There are 65 lakhs cones and about 10 crores rods connected to the brain through 8 lakhs optic nerve fibres.

7. Why is scanning necessary in a television system?

Ans- Scanning is the important process carried out in a television system in order to obtain continuous frames and provide motion of picture. The scene is scanned both in the horizontal and vertical directions simultaneously in a rapid rate. As a result sufficient number of complete picture frames per second is obtained to give the illusion of continuous motion.

8. How will you solve the flickering problem?

Ans- The flickering problem is solved in motion pictures by showing each picture twice. Hence 48 views of the scene are shown per second although they are still the same 24 pictures frames per second. As a result of the increased.

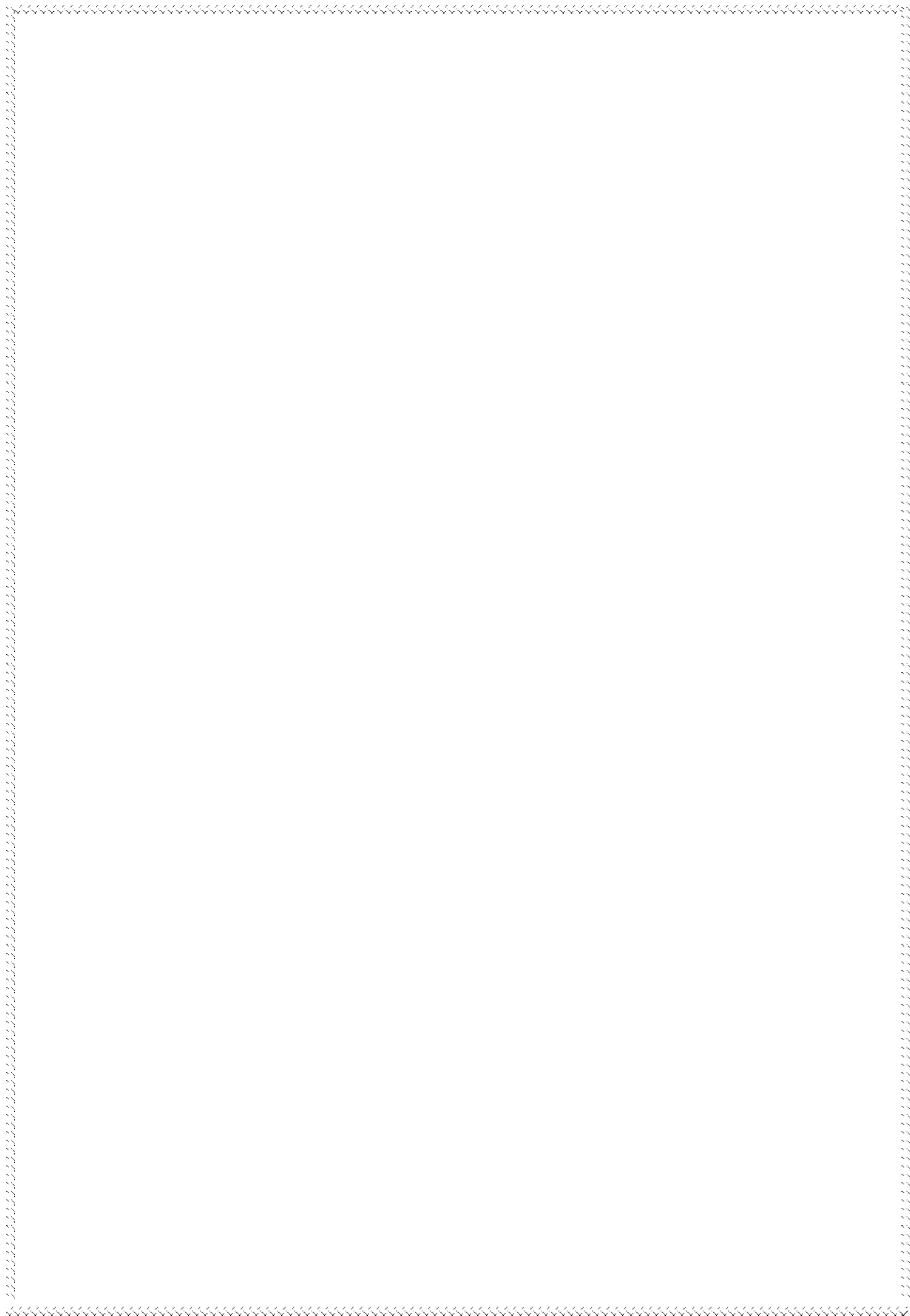
9. Define Flicker and Resolution Of TV.?(w-20)

Ans- Flicker is when each frame is only displayed for a short time with black frames inserted between.

Resolution is the total number of pixels available on a display screen or total pixels contained within the processed picture,

Possible Long Questions

1. Explain the function of each block of a TV Transmitter.(w-20)
2. Explain the function of each block of a TV Receiver.
3. Briefly explain about the color TV signals.
4. Explain different types of TV according to its technology.
5. Explain principle of operation of LCD.(w-20)
6. With Neat Diagram, explain the composite video signal.(w-20)



CHAPTERNUMBER-04:

MICROWAVE ENGINEERING

LEARINGOBJECTIVES:

Definemicrowavewaveguides.

Operationofrectangularwaveguidesanditsadvantages.

PropagationofEMwavethroughwaveguidewithTE&TM modes.

Circularwaveguide.

OperationalCavityResonator

WorkingofDirectionalCoupler,Isolators&Circulators.

MicrowaveTubes-PrincipleofOperationofTwoCavityKlystron

Principleofoperationoftravellingwavetubes

PrincipleofoperationofCyclotron.

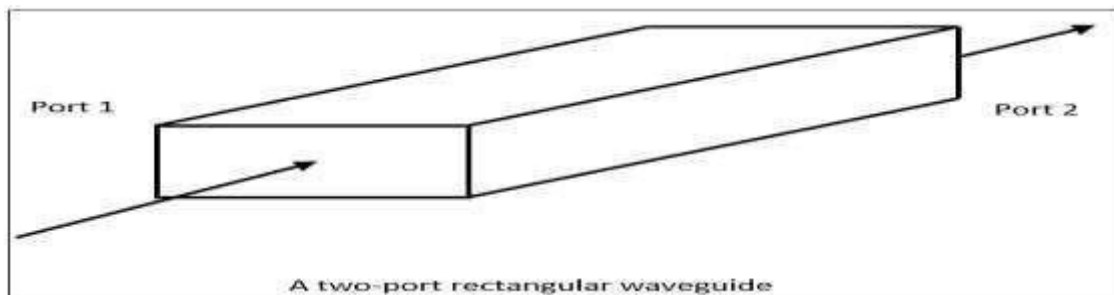
PrincipleofoperationsofTunnelDiode&GunnDiode.

Define Microwave Wave Guides.-

Microwaves propagate through microwave circuits, components and devices, which act as a part of Microwave transmission lines, broadly called as Waveguides.

A hollow metal tube of uniform cross-section for transmitting electromagnetic waves by successive reflections from the inner walls of the tube is called as a **Waveguide**.

The following figure shows an example of a waveguide.



A waveguide is generally preferred in microwave communications. Waveguide is a special form of transmission line, which is a hollow metal tube. Unlike a transmission line, a waveguide has no center conductor.

The main characteristics of a Waveguide are—

- The tube wall provides distributed inductance.
- The empty space between the tube walls provides distributed capacitance.
- These are bulky and expensive.

Advantages of Waveguides

Following are a few advantages of Waveguides.

- Waveguides are easy to manufacture.
- They can handle very large power in kilowatts.
- Power loss is very negligible in waveguides.
- They offer very low loss, low value of α —attenuation.
- When microwave energy travels through waveguide, it experiences lower losses than a coaxial cable.

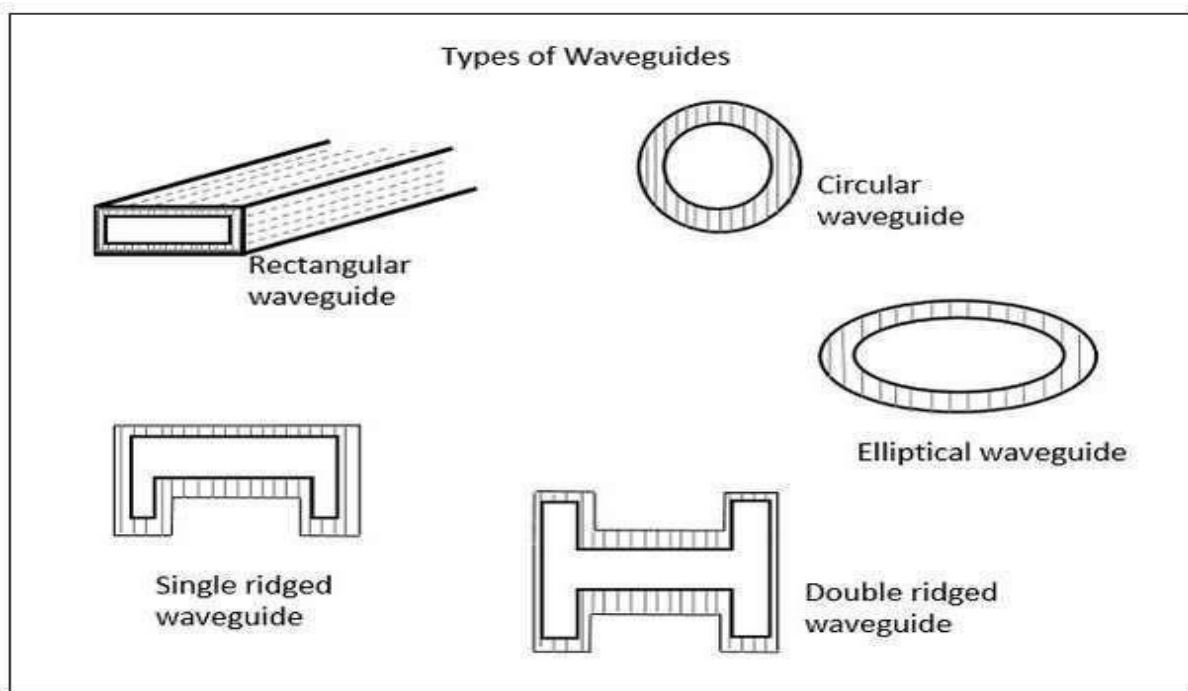
Types of Waveguides

There are five types of waveguides.

- Rectangular waveguide
- Circular waveguide
- Elliptical waveguide

- Single-ridged waveguide
- Double-ridged waveguide

The following figures show the types of waveguides.

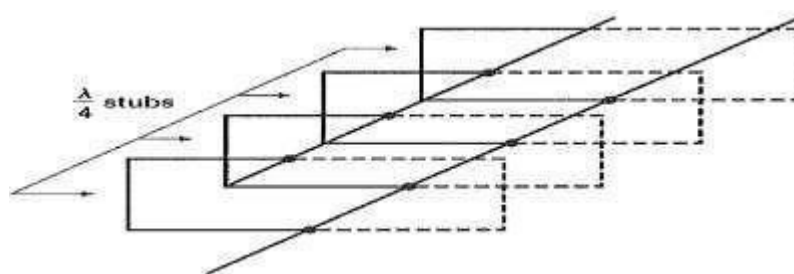


The types of waveguides shown above are hollow in the center and made up of copper walls. These have a thin lining of Au or Ag on the inner surface.

Operation of rectangular waveguides and its advantage.

Rectangular Waveguides – As we know already that the term skin effect indicated that the majority of the current flow (at very high frequencies) will occur mostly along the surface of the conductor and very little at the center. This phenomenon has led to the development of hollow, conductors known as waveguides.

To simplify the understanding of the waveguide action, which explained how the quarter-wave shorted stub appeared as a parallel resonant circuit ($H_i Z$) to the source. This fact can be used in the analysis of a wave guide; i.e., a transmission line can be transformed into a waveguide by connecting multiple quarter-wave shorted stubs (Figure 1). These multiple connections represent a $H_i Z$ to the source and offer minimum attenuation of a signal.



In a similar way, a pipe with any sort of cross section could be used as a waveguide, but the simplest cross sections are preferred. Waveguides with constant rectangular or circular cross sections are normally employed, although other shapes may be used from time to time for special purposes. With regular transmission lines and waveguides, the simplest shapes are the ones easiest to manufacture, and the ones whose properties are simplest to evaluate.

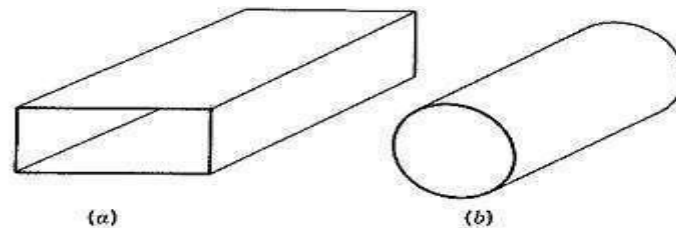


FIGURE 10-2 Waveguides. (a) Rectangular; (b) circular.

A rectangular waveguide is shown in Figure 10-2, as is a circular waveguide for comparison. In a typical system, there may be an antenna at one end of a waveguide and a receiver or transmitter at the other end. The antenna generates electromagnetic waves, which travel down the waveguide to be eventually received by the load.

The walls of the guide are conductors, and therefore reflections from them take place. It is of the utmost importance to realize that conduction of energy takes place not through the walls, whose function is only to confine this energy, but through the dielectric filling the waveguide, which is usually air. In discussing the behavior and properties of waveguides, it is necessary to speak of electric and magnetic fields, as in wave propagation, instead of voltages and currents, as in transmission lines. This is the only possible approach, but it does make the behavior of waveguides more complex to grasp.

Advantages of Rectangular Waveguides:

The first thing that strikes us about the appearance of a (circular) waveguide is that it looks like a coaxial line with the inside removed. This illustrates the advantages that waveguides possess. Since it is easier to leave out the inner conductor than to put it in, waveguides are simpler to manufacture than coaxial lines. Similarly, because there is neither an inner conductor nor the supporting dielectric in a waveguide, flashover is less likely. Therefore the power-handling ability of waveguides is improved, and is about 10 times as high as for coaxial air-dielectric rigid cables of similar dimension (and much more when compared with flexible solid-dielectric cable).

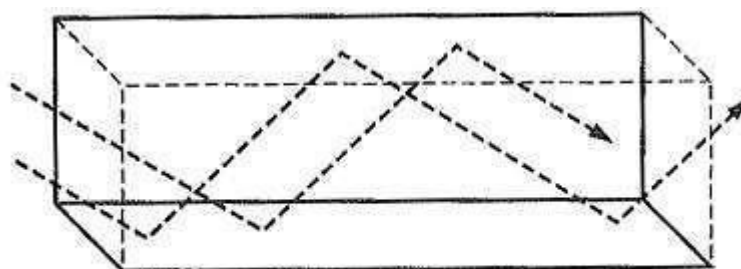


FIGURE 10-3 Method of wave propagation in a waveguide.

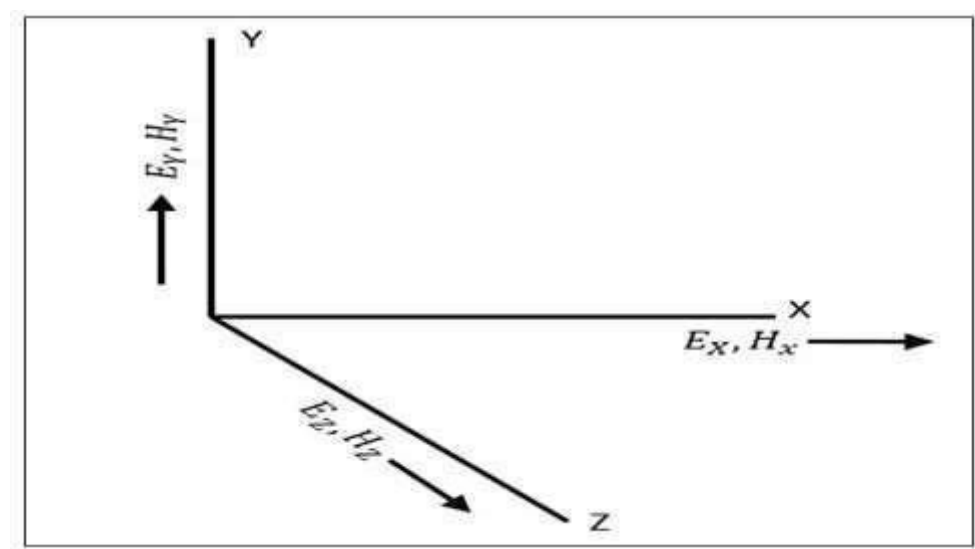
There is nothing but air in a waveguide, and since propagation is by reflection from the walls instead of conduction along them, power losses in waveguides are lower than in comparable transmission lines (see Figure 10-3). A 41-min air-dielectric cable has an attenuation of 4.0 dB/100 m at 3 GHz (which is very good for a coaxial line). This rises to 10.8 dB/100 m for a similar foam-dielectric flexible cable, whereas the figure for the copper WR284 waveguide is only 1.9 dB/100 m.

Everything else being equal, waveguides have advantages over coaxial lines in mechanical simplicity and a much higher maximum operating frequency (325 GHz as compared with 18 GHz) because of the different method of propagation.

Propagation of EM wave through waveguide with TE & TM modes.

A wave has both electric and magnetic fields. All transverse components of electric and magnetic fields are determined from the axial components of electric and magnetic field, in the z direction. This allows mode formations, such as TE, TM, TEM and Hybrid in microwaves. Let us have a look at the types of modes.

The direction of the electric and the magnetic field components along three mutually perpendicular directions x, y, and z are as shown in the following figure.



Types of Modes

The modes of propagation of microwaves are—

TEM Transverse Electromagnetic Wave

In this mode, both the electric and magnetic fields are purely transverse to the direction of propagation. There are no components in 'Z' direction.

$$E_z = 0 \text{ and } H_z = 0$$

TE Transverse Electric Wave

In this mode, the electric field is purely transverse to the direction of propagation, whereas the magnetic field is not.

$$E_z = 0 \text{ and } H_z \neq 0$$

TM Transverse Magnetic Wave

In this mode, the magnetic field is purely transverse to the direction of propagation, whereas the electric field is not.

$$E_z \neq 0 \text{ and } H_z = 0$$

HE Hybrid Wave

In this mode, neither the electric nor the magnetic field is purely transverse to the direction of propagation.

$$E_z \neq 0 \text{ and } H_z \neq 0$$

Multi conductor lines normally support TEM mode of propagation, as the theory of transmission lines is applicable to only those systems of conductors that have a go and return path, i.e., those which can support a TEM wave.

Waveguides are single conductor lines that allow TE and TM modes but not TEM mode. Open conductor guides support Hybrid waves. The types of transmission lines are discussed in the next chapter.

Circular waveguide.



A waveguide is a hollow metal tube (rectangular or circular in cross section) that transmits electromagnetic energy from one place to another. A waveguide with a circular cross-section is called as **Circular Waveguide**. It supports both transverse electric (TE) and transverse

magnetic(TM) modes. TE₁₁ is the dominant mode in a circular waveguide i.e., a signal in this mode propagates with the minimum degradation.

The circular waveguide is easier to manufacture than rectangular waveguides and is relatively easy to install. It is usually used to connect a horn antenna with a reflector in tracking radars and for long-distance waveguide transmission above 10 GHz.

The cut-off frequency of a circular waveguide is inversely proportional to its radius. See the formula below - r is the radius of the circular waveguide and C is the speed of light. Circular waveguide cut off frequency can be calculated by the following formula,

Formula:

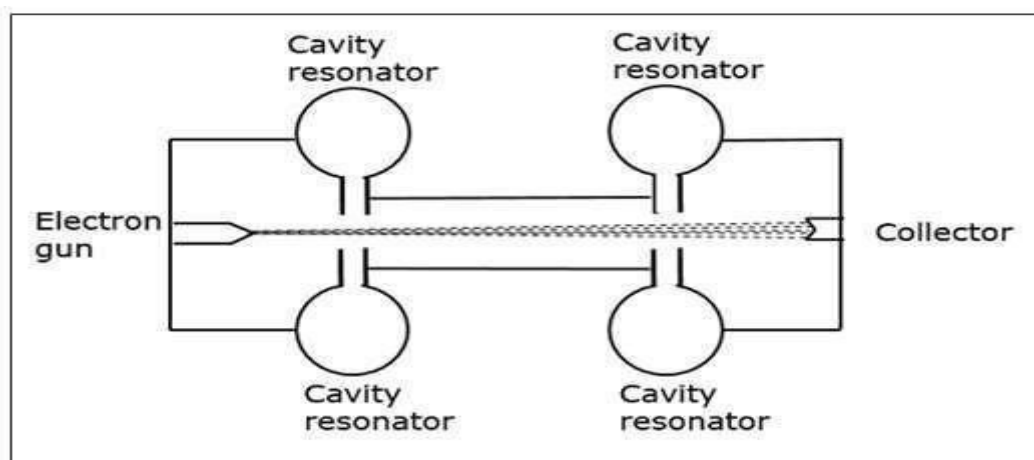
$$f_c = \frac{1.8412 \times C}{2 \times \pi \times r}$$

Based on frequency bands, there are fixed waveguide sizes for circular waveguides.

Operational Cavity resonator. (Cavity Klystron)

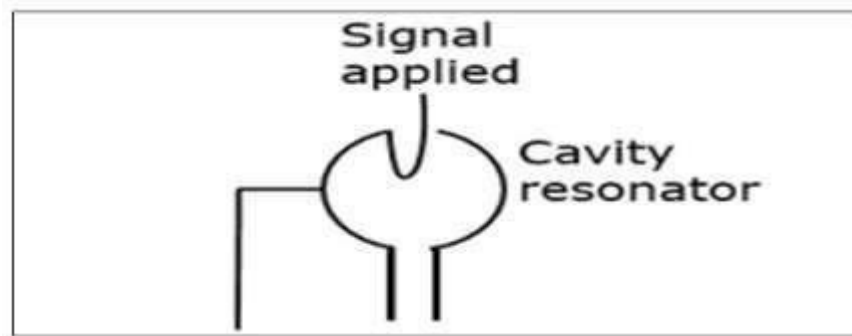
For the generation and amplification of Microwaves, there is a need of some special tubes called as **Microwave tubes**. Of them all, **Klystron** is an important one.

The essential elements of Klystron are electron beams and cavity resonators. Electron beams are produced from a source and the cavity klystrons are employed to amplify the signals. A collector is present at the end to collect the electrons. The whole set up is as shown in the following figure.



The electrons emitted by the cathode are accelerated towards the first resonator. The collector at the end is at the same potential as the resonator. Hence, usually the electrons have a constant speed in the gap between the cavity resonators.

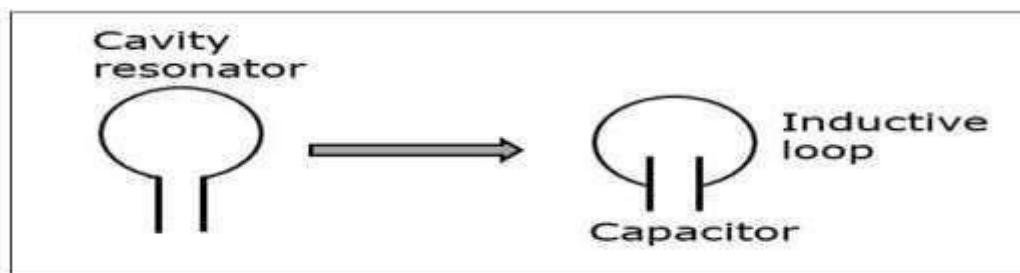
Initially, the first cavity resonator is supplied with a weak high frequency signal, which has to be amplified. The signal will initiate an electromagnetic field inside the cavity. This signal is passed through a coaxial cable as shown in the following figure.



Due to this field, the electrons that pass through the cavity resonator are modulated. On arriving at the second resonator, the electrons are induced with another EMF at the same frequency. This field is strong enough to extract a large signal from the second cavity.

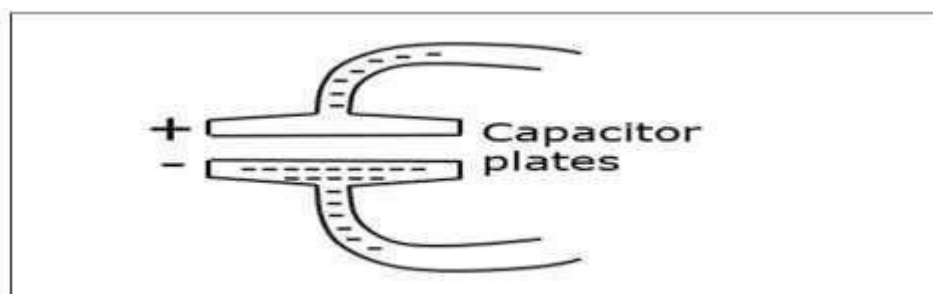
Cavity Resonator

First let us try to understand the constructional details and the working of a cavity resonator. The following figure indicates the cavity resonator.



A simple resonant circuit which consists of a capacitor and an inductive loop can be compared with this cavity resonator. A conductor has free electrons. If a charge is applied to the capacitor to get it charged to a voltage of this polarity, many electrons are removed from the upper plate and introduced into the lower plate.

The plate that has more electron deposition will be the cathode and the plate which has lesser number of electrons becomes the anode. The following figure shows the charged deposition on the capacitor.



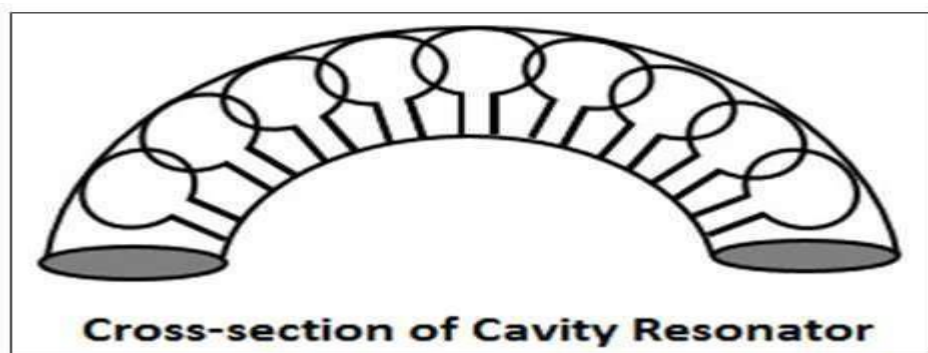
The electric field lines are directed from the positive charge towards the negative. If the capacitor is charged with reverse polarity, then the direction of the field is also reversed. The displacement of electrons in the tube, constitutes an alternating current. This alternating current gives rise to an alternating magnetic field, which is out of phase with the electric field of the capacitor.

When the magnetic field is at its maximum strength, the electric field is zero and after a while, the electric field becomes maximum while the magnetic field is at zero. This exchange of strength happens for a cycle.

Closed Resonator

The smaller the value of the capacitor and the inductivity of the loop, the higher will be the oscillation or the resonant frequency. As the inductance of the loop is very small, high frequency can be obtained.

To produce higher frequency signal, the inductance can be further reduced by placing more inductive loops in parallel as shown in the following figure. This results in the formation of a closed resonator having very high frequencies.

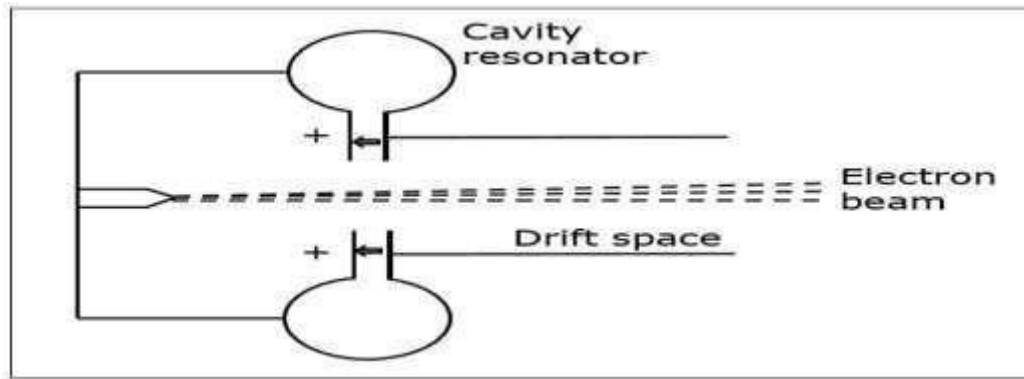


In a closed resonator, the electric and magnetic fields are confined to the interior of the cavity. The first resonator of the cavity is excited by the external signal to be amplified. This signal must have a frequency at which the cavity can resonate. The current in this coaxial cable sets up a magnetic field, by which an electric field originates.

Working of Klystron

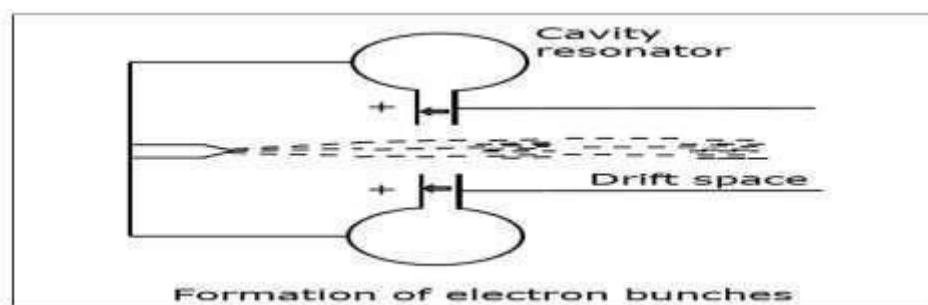
To understand the modulation of the electron beam, entering the first cavity, let's consider the electric field. The electric field on the resonator keeps on changing its direction of the induced field. Depending on this, the electrons coming out of the electron gun, get their pace controlled.

As the electrons are negatively charged, they are accelerated if moved opposite to the direction of the electric field. Also, if the electrons move in the same direction of the electric field, they get decelerated. This electric field keeps on changing, therefore the electrons are accelerated and decelerated depending upon the change of the field. The following figure indicates the electron flow when the field is in the opposite direction.



While moving, these electrons enter the field-free space called as the **drift space** between the resonators with varying speeds, which create electron bunches. These bunches are created due to the variation in the speed of travel.

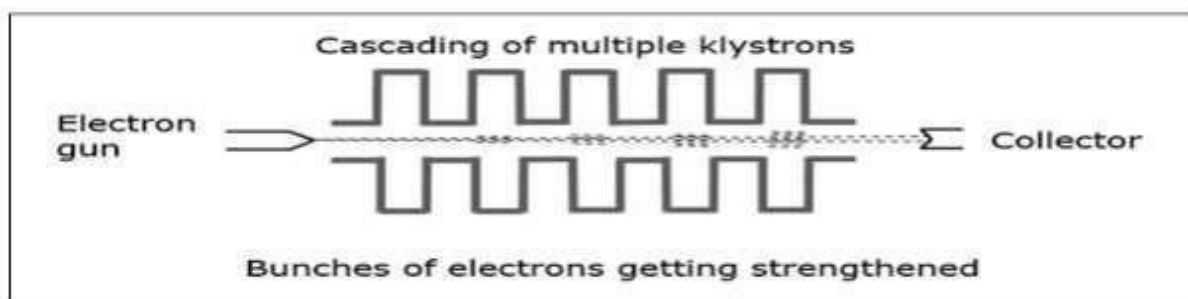
These bunches enter the second resonator, with a frequency corresponding to the frequency at which the first resonator oscillates. As all the cavity resonators are identical, the movement of electrons makes the second resonator to oscillate. The following figure shows the formation of electron bunches



The induced magnetic field in the second resonator induces some current in the coaxial cable, initiating the output signal. The kinetic energy of the electrons in the second cavity is almost equal to the ones in the first cavity and so no energy is taken from the cavity.

The electrons while passing through the second cavity, few of them are accelerated while bunches of electrons are decelerated. Hence, all the kinetic energy is converted into electromagnetic energy to produce the output signal.

Amplification of such two-cavity klystron is low and hence multi-cavity klystrons are used. The following figure depicts an example of multi-cavity klystron amplifier.



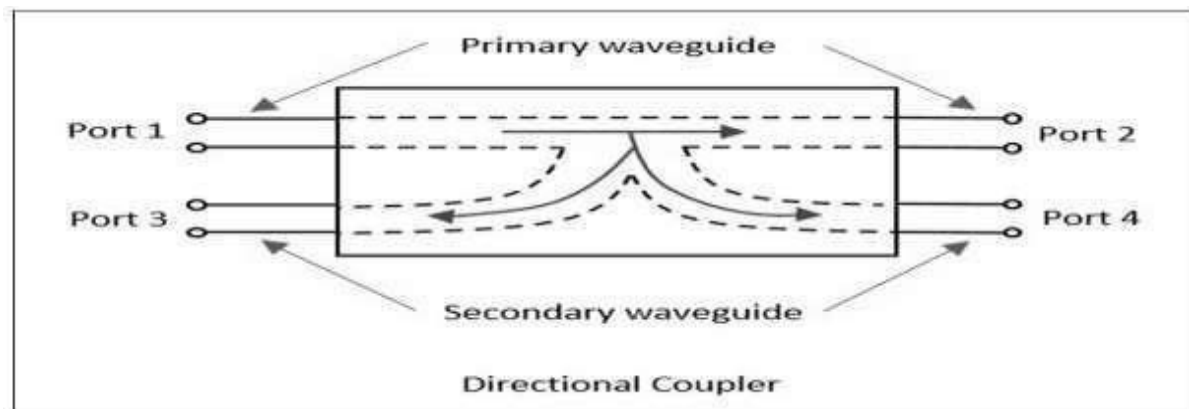
With the signal applied in the first cavity, we get weak bunches in the second cavity. These will set up a field in the third cavity, which produces more concentrated bunches and soon. Hence, the amplification is larger.

Working of Directional coupler, Isolators & Circulator.

Directional coupler:

A **Directional coupler** is a device that samples a small amount of Microwave power for measurement purposes. The power measurements include incident power, reflected power, VSWR values, etc.

Directional Coupler is a 4-port waveguide junction consisting of a primary main waveguide and a secondary auxiliary waveguide. The following figure shows the image of a directional coupler.



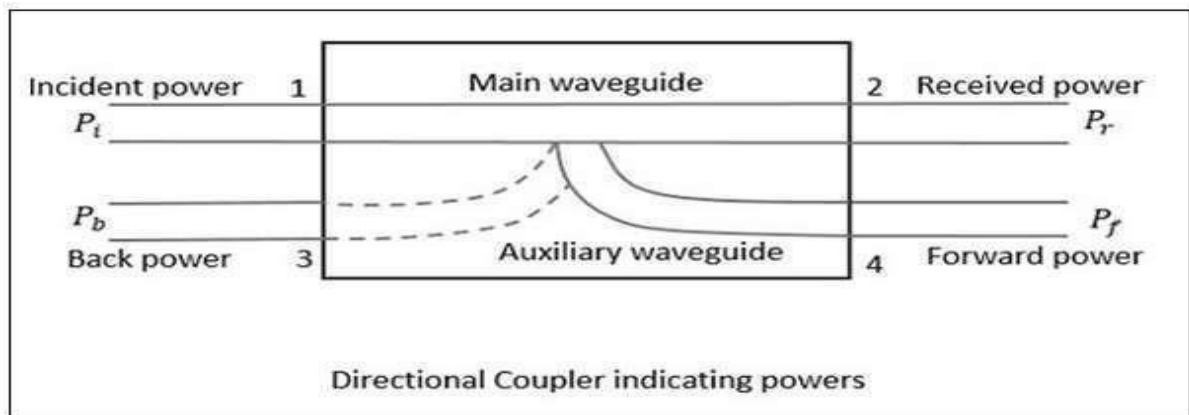
Directional coupler is used to couple the Microwave power which may be unidirectional or bi-directional.

Properties of Directional Couplers

The properties of an ideal directional coupler are as follows.

- All the terminations are matched to the ports.
- When the power travels from Port 1 to Port 2, some portion of it gets coupled to Port 4 but not to Port 3.
- As it is also a bi-directional coupler, when the power travels from Port 2 to Port 1, some portion of it gets coupled to Port 3 but not to Port 4.
- If the power is incident through Port 3, a portion of it is coupled to Port 2, but not to Port 1.
- If the power is incident through Port 4, a portion of it is coupled to Port 1, but not to Port 2.
- Port 1 and 3 are decoupled as are Port 2 and Port 4.

Ideally, the output of Port 3 should be zero. However, practically, a small amount of power called **backpower** is observed at Port 3. The following figure indicates the power flow in a directional coupler.



Where

- P_i = Incident power at Port 1
- P_r = Received power at Port 2
- P_f = Forward coupled power at Port 4
- P_b = Back power at Port 3

Following are the parameters used to define the performance of a directional coupler.

Coupling Factor C

The Coupling factor of a directional coupler is the ratio of incident power to the forward power, measured in dB.

$$C = 10 \log_{10} P_i P_f \text{ dB}$$

Directivity D

The Directivity of a directional coupler is the ratio of forward power to the back power, measured in dB.

$$D = 10 \log_{10} P_f P_b \text{ dB}$$

Isolation

It defines the directive properties of a directional coupler. It is the ratio of incident power to the back power, measured in dB.

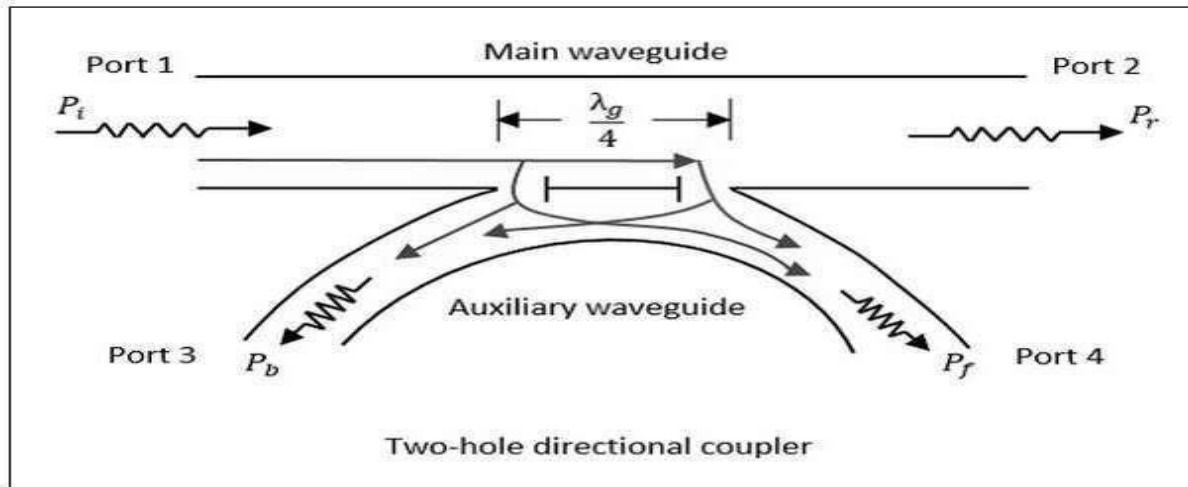
$$I = 10 \log_{10} P_i P_b \text{ dB}$$

Isolation in dB = Coupling factor + Directivity

Two-Hole Directional Coupler

This is a directional coupler with a main and an auxiliary waveguide, but with two small holes that are common between them. These holes are $\lambda_g/4$

distance apart where λ_g is the guide wavelength. The following figure shows the image of a two-hole directional coupler.



A two-hole directional coupler is designed to meet the ideal requirement of directional coupler, which is to avoid back power. Some of the power while travelling between Port 1 and Port 2, escapes through the holes 1 and 2.

The magnitude of the power depends upon the dimensions of the holes. This leakage power at both the holes are in phase at hole 2, adding up the power contributing to the forward power P_r . However, it is out of phase at hole 1, cancelling each other and preventing the back power to occur.

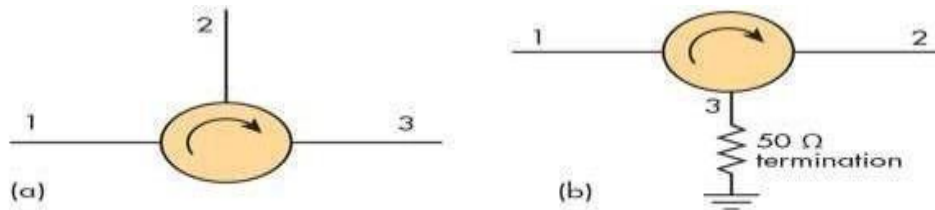
Hence, the directivity of a directional coupler improves.

Circulators And Isolators:

These essential devices help direct the flow of microwave signals in RF equipment and systems. Circulators and isolators are three-port passive electronic devices that help direct the flow of microwave signals in RF equipment and systems. A port is defined as a connection point for either an input signal, output signal, or termination. Figure 1a shows the standard schematic symbol for a circulator. The arrow indicates the unidirectional flow of signals from port to port.

How a Circulator Works

Figure 1a shows a circulator, where any port can be an input or an output. A signal applied to port 1 will be passed to port 2 with minimum attenuation. A signal input to port 2 will pass to port 3, but not back to port 1. An input to port 3 will pass to port 1, but not in reverse to port 2. The amount of insertion loss from port to port is typically in the 0.2-to-0.75-dB range.

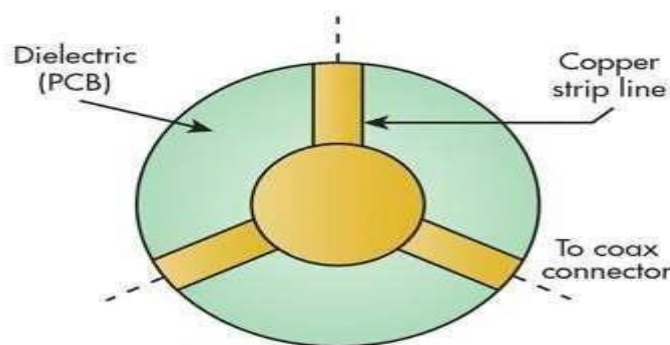


1. Shown are (a) the common schematic symbol of a circulator and (b) the schematic symbol of an isolator.

If one of the ports is terminated in a resistance equal to the impedance of the port, usually $50\ \Omega$, the circulator becomes an isolator (Fig. 1b). An input signal at port 1 will pass to and exit port 2 if port 2 is properly matched to $50\ \Omega$. If there is a mismatch at port 2, any reflected signal will be passed to port 3 and absorbed by the load. This protects or isolates port 1 from port 2 in the reverse direction.

Construction

A circulator is typically a Y-shaped section of microstrip or stripline transmission line on a printed circuit board or other dielectric (Fig. 2). The line impedance is $50\ \Omega$. The ports, spaced 120° apart, are commonly terminated with SMA or N-type coaxial connectors.

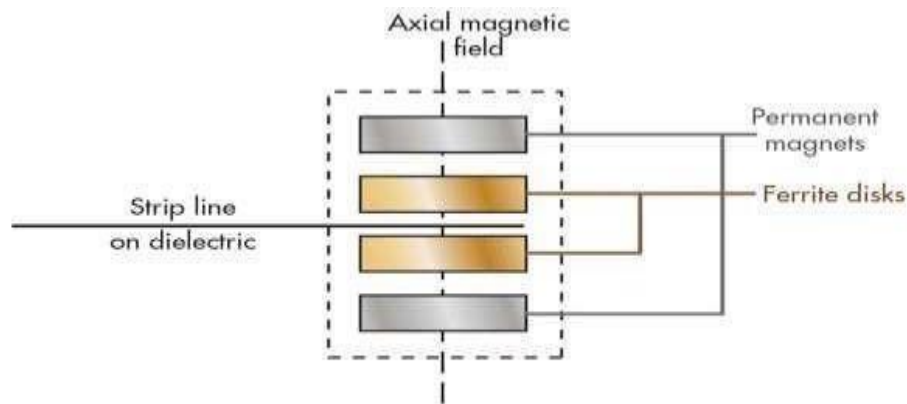


2. The Y-shaped strip line circuit is the heart of the circulator.

The Y-junction assembly is then sandwiched between two layers of ferrite material (Fig. 3). Two strong permanent magnets are positioned on either side of the ferrite disks. The magnets send a strong magnetic field axially through the ferrite disks. The ferrite material supports and focuses the magnetic field around the Y-junction. The axial magnetic field is called the bias.

When a signal is applied to one of the ports, an electromagnetic field is set up in the stripline. This field then interacts with the applied bias magnetic field, causing the signal to rotate in one direction to the next adjacent port.

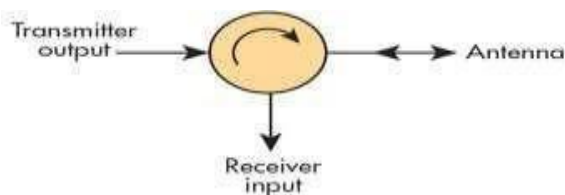
The assembly made up of the Y-junction and the ferrite disks forms a dielectric resonator that has a resonant frequency. The circulator is not operated at this frequency. Operation takes place in regions above or below the resonant frequency of the device, where attenuation is minimal.



3. This common construction of a circulator shows a Y strip line, ferrite disks, and magnets. There is no spacing between actual disk components as shown here.

Applications

The most common application of a circulator is as a duplexer. A duplexer allows the transmitter and receiver in a radio or radar unit to share a common antenna (*Fig. 4*). The transmitter output is applied to port 1 and will pass to port 2, where the antenna is connected. The receiver input is connected to port 3. A signal received by the antenna is passed to port 3, but not back to port 1. The transmitter output is not passed to the receiver input. The key effect is to prevent the typically high transmitter power from damaging the receiver input circuits.



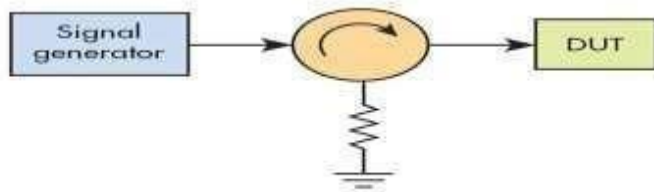
4. This circulator connected as a duplexer allows a transmitter and receiver to share a common antenna.

A common use of an isolator is shown in *Fig. 5*. The isolator is connected between a signal generator and some device under test (DUT). If all impedances are matched, the signal passes freely to the DUT. If there is a mismatch at the DUT or if the DUT is disconnected, it creates a high-voltage standing wave ratio (VSWR), causing a large reflected signal. The circulator absorbs this signal, protecting the usually expensive signal generator.

The attenuation of an isolator in the reverse direction is typically in the 20-dB range. If greater attenuation is needed, two isolators can be cascaded as shown in *Fig. 6*. The result is a four-port device that can boost attenuation to about 40 dB or so. Such four-port units are available as a single product rather than two individual isolators.

Specifications

When specifying or buying a circulator or isolator, the most important characteristics to consider are:



5. This isolator is connected to protect a signal generator in a test setup.

Microwavetubes-PrincipleofoperationoftwoCavityKlystron.

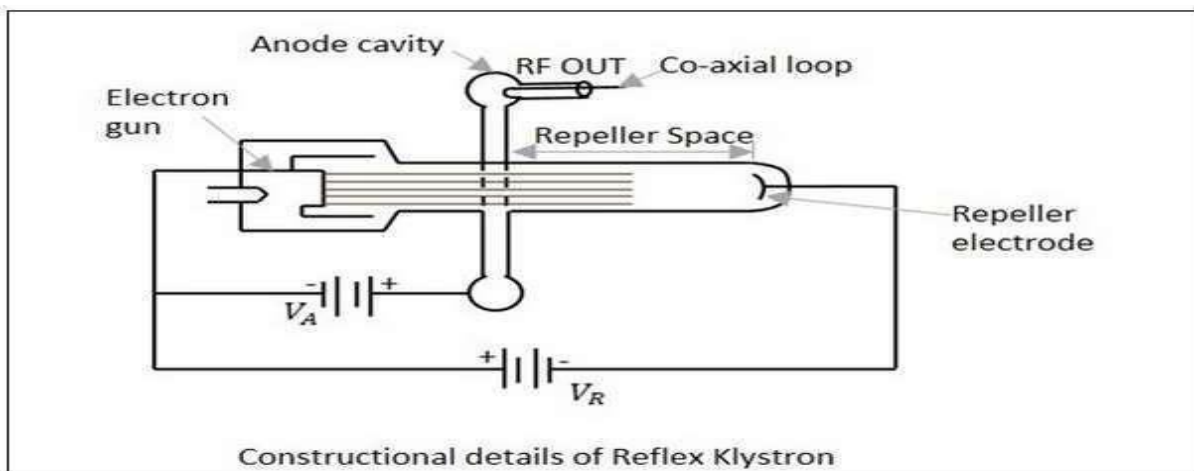
ReflexKlystron:

This microwave generator, is a Klystron that works on reflections and oscillations in a single cavity, which has a variable frequency.

Reflex Klystron consists of an electron gun, a cathode filament, an anode cavity, and an electrode at the cathode potential. It provides low power and has low efficiency.

Construction of Reflex Klystron

The electron gun emits the electron beam, which passes through the gap in the anode cavity. These electrons travel towards the Repeller electrode, which is at high negative potential. Due to the high negative field, the electrons repel back to the anode cavity. In their return journey, the electrons give more energy to the gap and these oscillations are sustained. The constructional details of this reflex klystron is as shown in the following figure.



It is assumed that oscillations already exist in the tube and they are sustained by its operation. The electrons while passing through the anode cavity, gain some velocity.

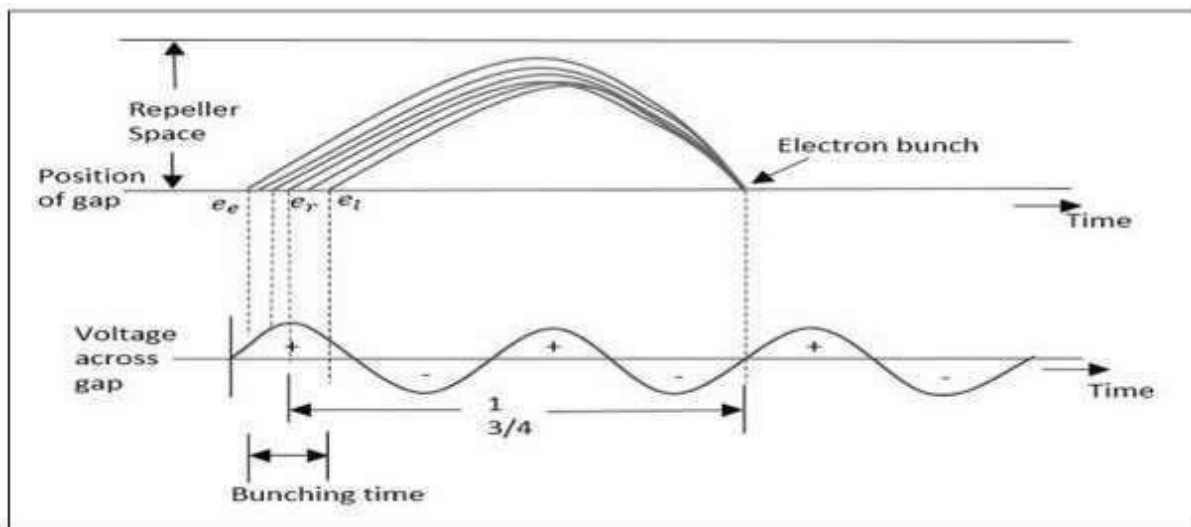
Operation of Reflex Klystron

The operation of Reflex Klystron is understood by some assumptions. The electron beam is accelerated towards the anode cavity.

Let us assume that a reference electron e_r crosses the anode cavity but has no extra velocity and it repels back after reaching the Repeller electrode, with the same velocity. Another electron, let's say e_e which has started earlier than this reference electron, reaches the Repeller first, but returns slowly, reaching at the same time as the reference electron.

We have another electron, the late electron e_l , which starts later than both e_r and e_e , however, it moves with greater velocity while returning back, reaching at the same time as e_r and e_e .

Now, these three electrons, namely e_r , e_e and e_l reach the gap at the same time, forming an **electron bunch**. This travel time is called as **transit time**, which should have an optimum value. The following figure illustrates this.



The anode cavity accelerates the electrons while going and gains their energy by retarding them during the return journey. When the gap voltage is at maximum positive, this lets the maximum negative electrons to retard.

The optimum transit time is represented as

$$T = n + \frac{3}{4} \text{ where } n \text{ is an integer}$$

transit time depends upon the Repeller and anode voltages.

Applications of Reflex Klystron

Reflex Klystron is used in applications where variable frequency is desirable, such as—

- Radioreceivers
- Portable microwave links
- Parametric amplifiers
- Local oscillator of microwave receivers
- As a signal source where variable frequency is desirable in microwave generators.

Principle of Operation of Travelling Wave Tubes:

Travelling wave tubes are broadband microwave devices which have no cavity resonators like Klystrons. Amplification is done through the prolonged interaction between an electron beam and Radio Frequency RF field.

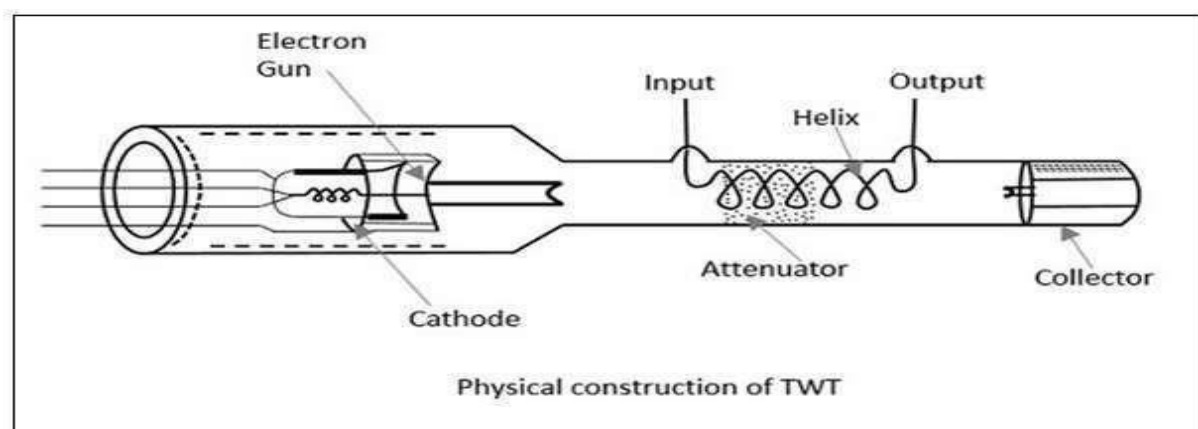
Construction of Travelling Wave Tube

Travelling wave tube is a cylindrical structure which contains an electron gun from a cathode tube. It has anode plates, helix and a collector. RF input is sent to one end of the helix and the output is drawn from the other end of the helix.

An electron gun focusses an electron beam with the velocity of light. A magnetic field guides the beam to focus, without scattering. The RF field also propagates with the velocity of light which is retarded by a helix. Helix acts as a slow wave structure. Applied RF field propagated in helix, produces an electric field at the center of the helix.

The resultant electric field due to applied RF signal, travels with the velocity of light multiplied by the ratio of helix pitch to helix circumference. The velocity of electron beam, travelling through the helix, induces energy to the RF waves on the helix.

The following figure explains the constructional features of a travelling wave tube.



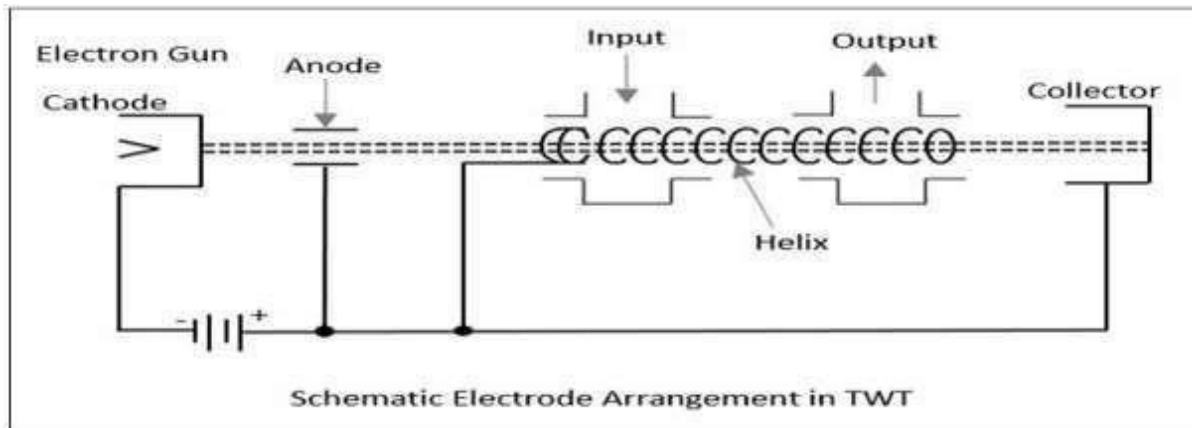
Thus, the amplified output is obtained at the output of TWT. The axial phase velocity V_p

is represented as

$$V_p = V_c (Pitch / 2\pi r)$$

Where r is the radius of the helix. As the helix provides least change in V_p

phase velocity, it is preferred over other slow wave structures for TWT. In TWT, the electron gun focuses the electron beam, in the gap between the anode plates, to the helix, which is then collected at the collector. The following figure explains the electrode arrangements in a travelling wave tube.



Operation of Travelling Wave Tube

The anode plates, when at zero potential, which means when the axial electric field is at a node, the electron beam velocity remains unaffected. When the wave on the axial electric field is at a positive antinode, the electron from the electron beam moves in the opposite direction. This electron being accelerated, tries to catch up with the late electron, which encounters the node of the RF axial field.

At the point, where the RF axial field is at a negative antinode, the electron referred earlier, tries to overtake due to the negative field effect. The electrons receive modulated velocity. As a cumulative result, a second wave is induced in the helix. The output becomes larger than the input and results in amplification.

Applications of Travelling Wave Tube

There are many applications of a travelling wave tube.

- TWT is used in microwave receivers as a low noise RF amplifier.
- TWTs are also used in wide-band communication links and co-axial cables as repeater amplifiers or intermediate amplifiers to amplify low signals.
- TWTs have a long tube life, due to which they are used as power output tubes in communication satellites.
- Continuous wave high power TWTs are used in Troposcatter links, because of large power and large bandwidths, to scatter to large distances.
- TWTs are used in high power pulsed radars and ground based radars.

Principle of Operation of Cyclotron:

Cyclotron is a device used to accelerate charged particles to high energies. It was devised by Lawrence.

Principle : Cyclotron works on the principle that a charged particle moving normal to a magnetic field experiences magnetic Lorentz force due to which the particle moves in a circular path.

Construction:

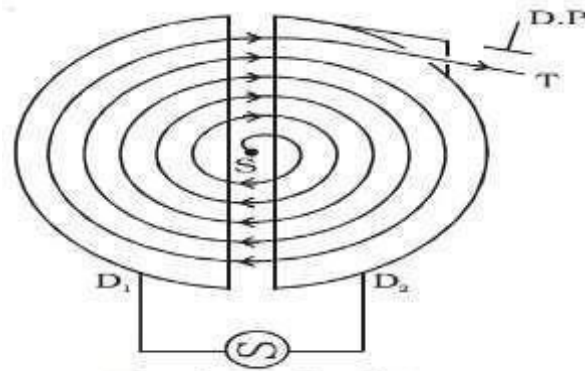


Fig 3.21 Cyclotron

It consists of a hollow metal cylinder divided into two sections D1 and D2 called Dees, enclosed in a evacuated chamber (Fig 3.21). The Dees are kept separated and a source of ions is placed at the centre in the gap between the Dees. They are placed between the pole pieces of a strong electromagnet. The magnetic field acts perpendicular to the plane of the Dees. The Dees are connected to a high frequency oscillator.

Working:

When a positive ion of charge q and mass m is emitted from the source, it is accelerated towards the Dee having a negative potential at that instant of time. Due to the normal magnetic field, the ion experiences magnetic Lorentz force and moves in a circular path. By the time the ion arrives at the gap between the Dees, the polarity of the Dees gets reversed. Hence the particle is once again accelerated and moves into the other Dee with a greater velocity along a circle of greater radius. Thus the particle moves in a spiral path of increasing radius and when it comes near the edge, it is taken out with the help of a deflector plate (D.P). The particle with high energy is now allowed to hit the target T.

$$Bqv = (mv^2)/r$$

$$v/r = Bq/m = \text{constant} \dots (1)$$

The time taken to describe a semi-circle $t =$

$$\pi r / v \dots (2)$$

Substituting equation (1) in (2), t

$$= \pi m / Bq \dots (3)$$

It is clear from equation (3) that the time taken by the ion to describe a semi-circle is independent of

(i) the radius (r) of the path and (ii) the velocity (v) of the particle

Hence, period of rotation $T = 2t$

$$T = 2\pi m / Bq = \text{constant} \dots (4)$$

So, in a uniform magnetic field, the ion traverses all the circles in exactly the same time. The frequency of rotation of the particle,

$$\nu = 1/T = Bq / 2\pi m \dots (5)$$

If the high frequency oscillator is adjusted to produce oscillation of frequency as given in equation (5), resonance occurs.

Cyclotron is used to accelerate protons, deuterons and α -particles.

$$Bqv = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$

$$\frac{v}{r} = \frac{Bq}{m} = \text{constant} \dots (1)$$

$$t = \frac{\pi r}{v} \dots (2)$$

$$t = \frac{\pi m}{Bq} \dots (3)$$

$$T = \frac{2\pi m}{Bq} = \text{constant} \dots (4)$$

$$\nu = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{Bq}{2\pi m} \dots (5)$$

Limitations

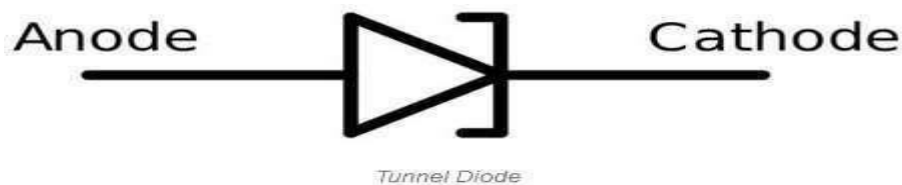
- Maintaining a uniform magnetic field over a large area of the Dees is difficult.
- At high velocities, relativistic variation of mass of the particle upsets the resonance condition.
- At high frequencies, relativistic variation of mass of the electron is appreciable and hence electrons cannot be accelerated by cyclotron.

Principle of Operations of Tunnel Diode & Gunn Diode:

Tunnel diode : A Tunnel Diode is also known as Esaki diode and it is a highly doped semiconductor that is capable of very fast operation. Leo Esaki invented the Tunnel diode in August 1957. The Germanium material is basically used to make tunnel diodes. They can also be made from gallium arsenide and silicon materials. Actually, they are used in frequency detectors and converters. The Tunnel diode exhibits negative resistance in their operating range. Therefore, it can be used as an amplifier, oscillators and in any switching circuits.

What is a Tunnel Diode?

Tunnel Diode is the P-N junction device that exhibits negative resistance. When the voltage is increased, the current flowing through it decreases. It works on the principle of the Tunneling effect. Metal-Insulator-Metal (MIM) diode is another type of Tunnel diode, but its present application appears to be limited to research environments due to inherent sensitivities, its applications considered to be very limited to research environments. There is one more diode called **Metal-Insulator-Insulator-Metal (MIIM) diode** which includes an additional insulator layer. The tunnel diode is a two-terminal device with n-type semiconductor as the cathode and p-type semiconductor as an anode. The tunnel diode circuit symbol is as shown below.



Tunnel Diode Working Phenomenon

Based on the classical mechanics' theory, a particle must acquire energy which is equal to the potential energy barrier height, if it has to move from one side of the barrier to the other. Otherwise, energy has to be supplied from some external source, so the N-sided electrons of the junction can jump over the junction barrier to reach the P-side of the junction. If the barrier is thin such as in tunnel diode, according to the Schrodinger equation implies that there is a large amount of probability and then an electron will penetrate through the barrier. This process will happen without any energy loss on the part of the electron. The behavior of the quantum mechanical indicates tunneling. The high-impurity **P-N junction devices** are called as tunnel-diodes. The tunneling phenomenon provides a majority carrier effect.

$$P \propto \exp(-A \cdot E_b \cdot W)$$

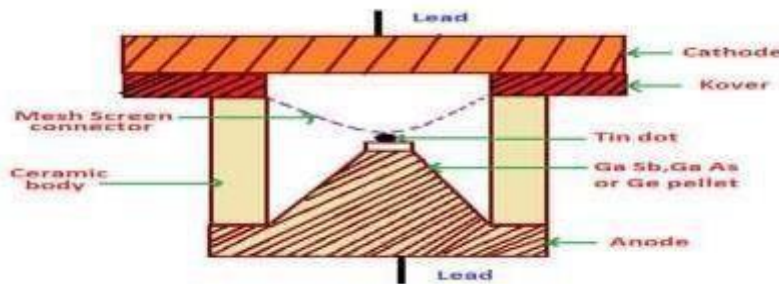
Where,

'E' is the energy of the barrier,

'P' is the probability that the particle crosses the barrier, 'W' is the width of the barrier

Construction of Tunnel Diode

The diode has a ceramic body and a hermetically sealing lid on top. A small tin dot is alloyed or soldered to a heavily doped pellet of n-type Ge. The pellet is soldered to anode contact which is used for heat dissipation. The tin-dot is connected to the cathode contact via a mesh screen is used to reduce the inductance.



Operation and its Characteristics

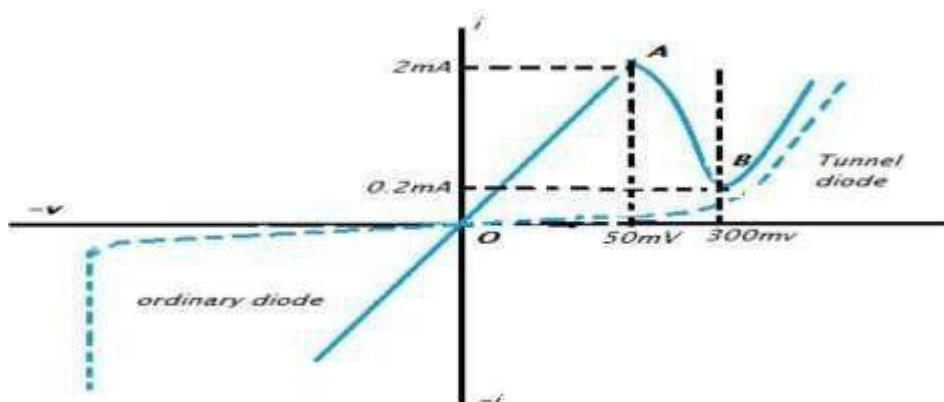
The operation of the tunnel diode mainly includes two biasing methods such as forward and reverse

Forward Bias Condition

Under the forward bias condition, as voltage increases, then current decreases and thus become increasingly misaligned, known as negative resistance. An increase in voltage will lead to operating as a normal diode where the conduction of electrons travels across the P-N junction diode. The negative resistance region is the most important operating region for a Tunnel diode. The Tunnel diode and normal P-N junction diode characteristics are different from each other.

Reverse Bias Condition

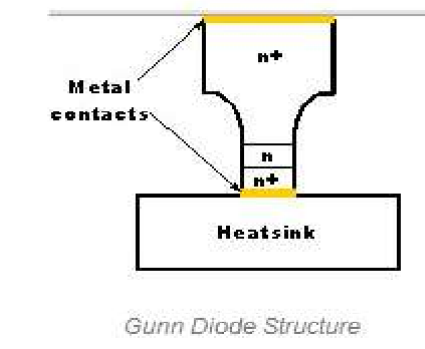
Under the reverse condition, the tunnel diode acts as a back diode or backward diode. With zero offset voltage, it can act as a fast rectifier. In reverse bias condition, the empty states on the n-side aligned with the filled states on the p-side. In the reverse direction, the electrons will tunnel through a potential barrier. Because of its high doping concentrations, tunnel diode acts as an excellent conductor.



The forward resistance is very small because of its tunneling effect. An increase in voltage will lead to an increase in the current until it reaches peak current. But if the voltage increased beyond the peak voltage then current will decrease automatically. This negative resistance region prevails still the valley point. The current through the diode is minimum at valley point. The tunnel diode acts as a normal diode if it is beyond the valley point.

GUNN DIODE:

A Gunn Diode is considered as a type of diode even though it does not contain any typical PN diode junction like the other diodes, but it consists of two electrodes. This diode is also called as a Transferred Electronic Device. This diode is a negative differential resistance device, which is frequently used as a low-power oscillator to generate microwaves. It consists of only N-type semiconductor in which electrons are the majority charge carriers. To generate short radio waves such as microwaves, it utilizes the Gunn Effect.



The central region shown in the figure is an active region, which is properly doped N-type GaAs and epitaxial layer with a thickness of around 8 to 10 micrometers. The active region is sandwiched between the two regions having the Ohmic contacts. A heat sink is provided to avoid overheating and premature failure of the diode and to maintain thermal limits.

For the construction of these diodes, only N-type material is used, which is due to the transferred electron effect applicable only to N-type materials and is not applicable to the P-type materials. The frequency can be varied by varying the thickness of the active layer while doping.

GUNN Effect:

It was invented by John Battiscombe Gunn in 1960s; after his experiments on GaAs (Gallium Arsenide), he observed a noise in his experiments' results and owed this to the generation of electrical oscillations at microwave frequencies by a steady electric field with a magnitude greater than the threshold value. It was named as Gunn Effect after this had been discovered by John Battiscombe Gunn.

The Gunn Effect can be defined as generation of microwave power (power with microwave frequencies of around a few GHz) whenever the voltage applied to a semiconductor device exceeds the critical voltage value or threshold voltage value.

GUNN Diode Working:

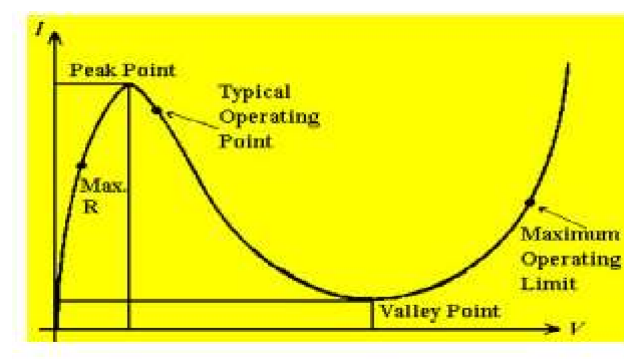
This diode is made of a single piece of N-type semiconductor such as Gallium Arsenide and InP (Indium Phosphide). GaAs and some other semiconductor materials have one extra-energy band in their electronic band structure instead of having only two energy bands, viz. valence band and conduction band like normal semiconductor materials. These GaAs and some other semiconductor materials consist of three energy bands, and this extra third band is empty at initial stage.

If a voltage is applied to this device, then most of the applied voltage appears across the active region. The electrons from the conduction band having negligible electrical resistivity are transferred into the third band because these electrons are scattered by the applied voltage. The third band of GaAs has mobility which is less than that of the conduction band.

Because of this, an increase in the forward voltage increases the field strength (for field strengths where applied voltage is greater than the threshold voltage value), then the number of electrons reaching the state at which the effective mass increases by decreasing their velocity, and thus, the current will decrease.

Thus, if the field strength is increased, then the drift velocity will decrease; this creates a negative incremental resistance region in V-I relationship. Thus, increase in the voltage will increase the resistance by creating a slice at the cathode and reaches the anode. But, to maintain a constant voltage, a new slice is created at the cathode. Similarly, if the voltage decreases, then the resistance will decrease by extinguishing any existing slice.

GUNN Diode Characteristics:



The current-voltage relationship characteristics of a Gunn diode are shown in the above graph with its negative resistance region. These characteristics are similar to the characteristics of the tunnel diode.

As shown in the above graph, initially the current starts increasing in this diode, but after reaching a certain voltage level (at a specified voltage value called as threshold voltage value), the current decreases before increasing again. The region where the current falls is termed as a negative resistance region, and due to this it oscillates. In this negative resistance region, this diode acts as both oscillator and amplifier, as in this region, the diode is enabled to amplify signals.

Possible Short Type Questions With Answers

1. What is transmission matrix?

Ans- When a number of microwave devices are connected in cascade. Each junction is represented by a transmission matrix which gives the output quantities in terms of input quantities.

2. Define VSWR.

Ans- Voltage standing wave ratio is defined as the ratio of maximum voltage to the minimum voltage $VSWR = V_{max}/V_{min}$.

3. What is the principle of Microwave phase shifter?

Ans- When a wave propagates on a line, a phase difference prevails between any two arbitrary points along its path. The phase difference between two points.

4. What are the different types of Directional coupler?

Ans- Two hole directional coupler, Three hole directional coupler, Four hole directional coupler

5. What are hybrid couplers?

Ans- Hybrid couplers are interdigitated microstrip couplers consisting of four parallel striplines with alternate lines tied together. It has four ports. This type of coupler is called Lange hybrid coupler.

6. Give the drawbacks of klystron amplifiers.

Ans- 1. As the oscillator frequency changes, the resonator frequency also changes and the feedback path phase shift must be readjusted for a positive feedback.

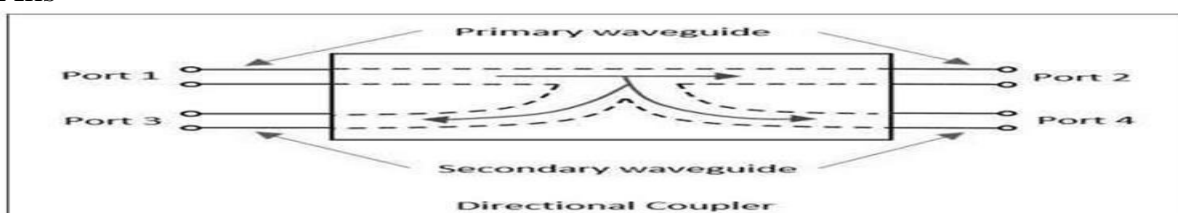
2. The multicavity klystron amplifiers suffer from the noise caused because bunching is never complete and electrons arrive at random at the catcher cavity. Hence it is not used in receivers.

7. What is the purpose of slow wave structures used in TWT amplifiers?

Ans- Slow wave structures are special circuits that are used in microwave tubes to reduce wave velocity in a certain direction so that the electron beam and the signal wave can interact. In TWT, since the beam can be accelerated only to velocities that are about a fraction of the velocity of light, slow wave structures are used.

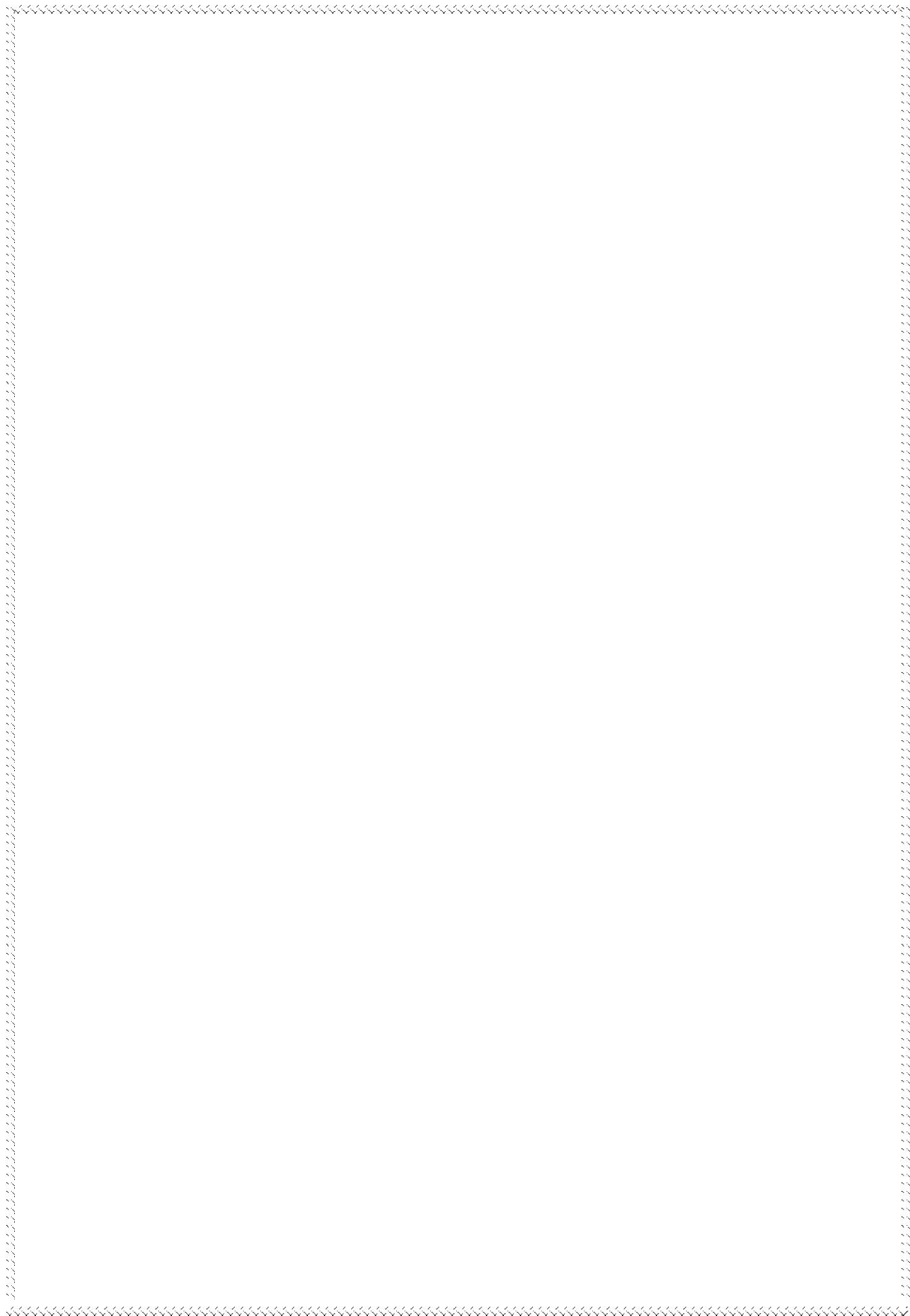
8. Draw a directional coupler and write its ports. (w-20)

Ans-



Possible Long Type Questions

1. Explain operation of rectangular waveguide and write its advantages.
2. Discuss propagation of EM wave through waveguide with TE and TM modes.
3. Write short note on Cavity Klystron and write its applications. (w-20)
4. Explain operation of Isolator and Circulator. (w-20)
5. Explain briefly about Reflex Klystron.
6. Write short note on Travelling Wave Tube.
7. Explain in detail the principle of operation of Travelling Wave Tubes with a neat diagram. (w-20)



CHAPTER NUMBER-05

:BROADBANDCOMMUNICATION

LEARNINGOBJECTIVES:

1. *Broadbandcommunicationsystem-FundamentalofComponentsand Network*
2. *Cablebroadbanddatanetwork-architecture,importance&futureof broadband telecommunication internet based network*
3. *SONET(SynchronousOpticalNetwork)-signalframecomponents topologies advantages and disadvantages*
4. *ISDNDevices,interfaces,services,Architecture,Applications*
5. *BISDN-interfaces&terminals,protocolarchitectureapplications*

Broadband communications system-Fundamental of Components and Network architecture :

Broadband communications is usually considered to be any technology with transmission rates above the fastest speed available over a telephone line. Broadband transmission systems typically provide channels for data transmissions in different directions and by many different users. For example, the coaxial CATV system is a broadband system that delivers multiple television channels over the same cable. In addition, it can handle data transmissions (primarily Internet access for home users) in an entirely different frequency spectrum.

Typical broadband communications systems include the following:

- **ISDN (Integrated Services Digital Network)** ISDN is implemented over existing copper telephone cables. The basic rate variety provides two channels of 64-Kbit/sec throughput that can be bonded to form a 128-Kbit/sec data channel. Primary rate ISDN provides additional bandwidth in increments of 64 Kbits/sec.
- **ATM (Asynchronous Transfer Mode)** Another high-bandwidth service available from the carriers. The carriers use of ATM benefits everyone, but medium to large companies can install ATM equipment on-site to connect directly into carrier ATM networks and gain all the benefits of those systems. See the "ATM" heading for more information.
- **Frame Relay** A data networking and voice service offered by the carriers that is widely available. Like ATM, frame relay is primarily used for corporate rather than home connections.
- **Leased lines and T Carriers** Leased T1 lines provide dedicated throughput of 1.544 Mbits/sec over two-pair twisted wire. Existing telephone cable is usually adequate. T3 provides approximately 45-Mbit/sec throughput. Fractional T1 can be leased in increments of 64 Kbits/sec.
- **DSL (Digital Subscriber Line)** DSL is a whole family of high-bandwidth digital services that the telephone companies offer over copper telephone cable. Depending on the service, rates can reach into the multimegabit/sec rates.
- **Cable (CATV) Data Networks** The cable TV system is a well-established broadband network that now makes its system available for data links and Internet access. Nearly 100 million homes in the U.S. have cable access, and it is estimated that 70 to 75 percent of those homes will be able to support Internet access in the year 2000.
- **Wireless Communications** A variety of wireless broadband services are now available or under development, including satellite-based systems and terrestrial-based systems that are essentially fixed cellular systems. Broadband wireless uses microwave and millimeter wave technology to transmit signals from base stations to customers.

DSL, cable, and broadband wireless will largely solve the problem of providing high bandwidth to home users. This is the so-called "last mile," although last mile has traditionally referred to the copper local loop that connects homes to local telephone central offices. In this respect, CATV and broadband wireless have never had a last-mile problem. DSL solves the last-mile problem in the local loop.

Another aspect of most of these broadband technologies (although not directly related to the definition of broadband) is that they provide direct access to the Internet. There is no need to dial up and hope you get a connection. You are always connected, in the same way that your TV is always connected to the CATV network.

As bandwidth increases, customers will gain access to higher qualities of service for voice, video, and data using packet-based Internet technologies. Global Internet-based telephone calls and videoconferences will become more commonplace, as will distance learning and high-resolution imaging as applied in areas like telemedicine.

An interesting technology that can provide broadband service is HALO (High Altitude Long Operation), which is a scheme to put high-flying planes or balloons above major metropolitan areas. Angel technologies is promoting HALO in the form of a 28-GHz LMDS system that typically uses three planes as aerial base stations. Data rates are in the 10-Mbit/sec range. Skystation International uses balloons that provide 1-Mbit/sec to 12-Mbit/sec transfer rates. The systems connect with ISP and carriers so that users can access the global telecommunications infrastructure.

Cable broadband data network- architecture, importance & future of broadband telecommunication internet based network.

Cable networks deliver Internet access through a shared architecture that is distinct from DSL or fiber to the premise (FTTP) networks.

Cable broadband networks utilize statistical multiplexing to share a fixed amount of network capacity across a group of users. The network's architecture is a hybrid of fiber and coaxial cable, utilizing frequency division duplexing to divide upstream and downstream transmissions.

Approximately 750 MHz to 1 GHz of spectrum is typically available on cable networks to be shared across all services, including television, broadband, and voice. Upstream traffic uses the lower portion of the frequency duplex cable system, between 5 MHz and 42 MHz usually, and downstream traffic uses the remaining upper portion of the available frequencies.

The amount of spectrum on the cable system dedicated to broadband depends, in part, on the requirements of the other. While the 750 MHz – 1 GHz may be a typical range, there are systems that operate at lower levels of spectrum (e.g., down to 450 MHz).

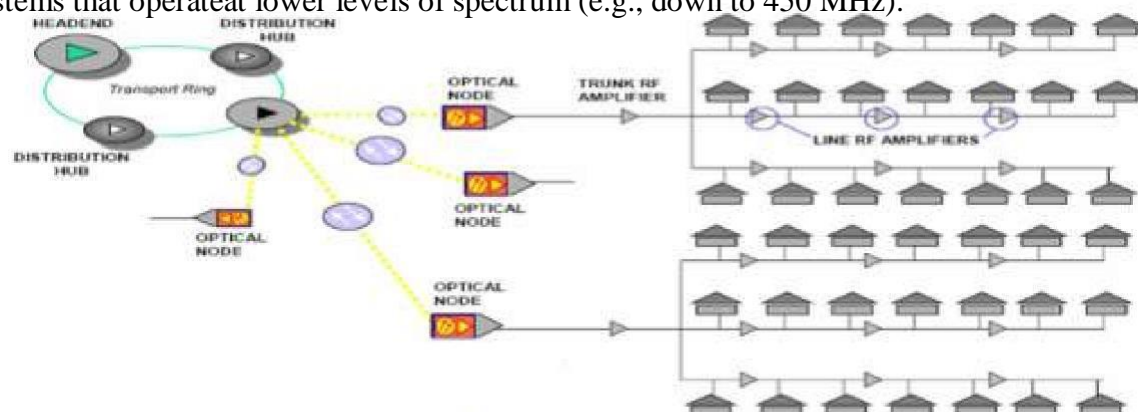


Figure 1: Cable Network Architecture

Cable broadband technology, known as Data Over Cable Service Interface Specification or DOCSIS® technology, is specified by CableLabs on behalf of the global cable industry. DOCSIS technology addresses both the physical layer and media access control (MAC) layer of cable broadband services. DOCSIS technology was initially specified in 1997; several revisions to the specification have been made over time to enable higher-performing services. Today, DOCSIS 3.0 technology is the most widely deployed cable broadband technology.

In a typical cable network, fiber optics connect the head end to a neighborhood hub, and then to an optical node. Coaxial cable then extends beyond the node to the end customers, of which there are generally between 50 and 500 households. Beyond the node, the coaxial network may utilize amplifiers to extend the range of the signal. These 50 to 500 households on the node share the capacity provided by DOCSIS technology. This architecture is depicted in the above diagram.

Importance:

Broadband is important for rural health care providers interested in meaningfully using electronic health records, as many of the capabilities of health IT, such as telehealth and electronic exchange of health care information, require broadband capability.

It is an **important** tool for businesses. It enables companies to communicate effectively with customers and deliver high standards of customer service. **Telecommunications** is a key element in allowing employees to collaborate easily from wherever they are located, remote or local.

The range of telecommunications applications is broad and includes telephony and video conferencing, facsimile, broadcast and interactive television, instant messaging, e-mail, distributed collaboration, a host of Web- and Internet-based **communication**, and data transmission.

It Satisfies Our Basic Needs. Information technology and the ability to connect and communicate is a fundamental part of how our **society** operates. In today's digital ecosystem, **telecommunication** has become the foundation for businesses, governments, communities, and families to seamlessly connect and share information.

It's Vital for Security: From a security perspective, telecommunication is one of the most crucial infrastructures for protection. From natural disaster initiatives to military needs, there's a wide spectrum of institutions that depend on telecom to provide safety.

Future:

- Information sharing over the Internet will be so effortlessly interwoven into daily life that it will become invisible, flowing like electricity, often through machine intermediaries.
- The spread of the Internet will enhance global connectivity that fosters more planetary relationships and less ignorance.
- The Internet of Things, artificial intelligence, and big data will make people more aware of their world and their own behaviour.
- Augmented reality and wearable devices will be implemented to monitor and give quick feedback on daily life, especially tied to personal health. Political awareness and action will be facilitated and more peaceful change and public uprisings like the Arab Spring will emerge.

- The spread of the 'Ubernet' will diminish the meaning of borders, and new 'nations' of those with shared interests may emerge and exist beyond the capacity of current nation-states to control.
- The Internet will become 'the Internets' as access, systems, and principles are renegotiated.
- An Internet-enabled revolution in education will spread more opportunities, with less money spent on real estate and teachers.

SONET (Synchronous Optical Network)-signal frame components, topologies, advantages and disadvantages:

SONET stands for Synchronous Optical Network. SONET is a communication protocol, developed by Bellcore – that is used to transmit a large amount of data over relatively large distances using optical fibre. With SONET, multiple digital data streams are transferred at the same time over the optical fibre.

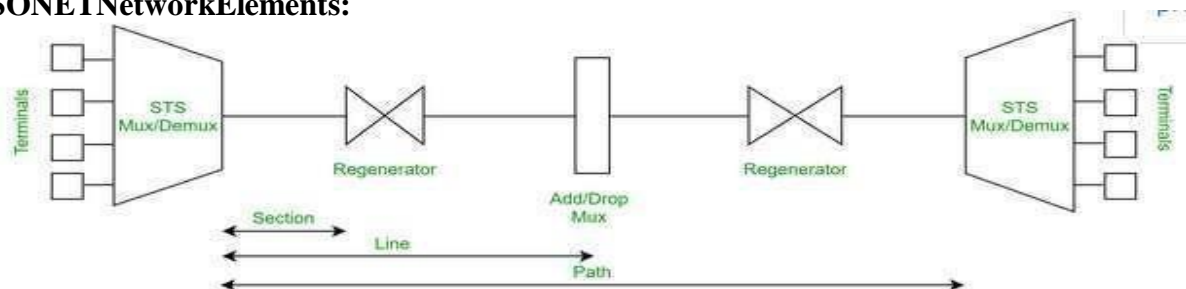
Key Points:

- Developed by Bellcore
- Used in North America
- Standardized by ANSI (American National Standards Institute)
- Similar to SDH (Synchronous Digital Hierarchy) which is used in Europe and Japan.

Why SONET is called a Synchronous Network?

As a single clock (Primary Reference Clock, PRC) handles the timing of transmission of signals & equipments across the entire network.

SONET Network Elements:



1. STS Multiplexer:

- Performs multiplexing of signals
- Converts electrical signal to optical signal

2. STS Demultiplexer:

- Performs demultiplexing of signals
- Converts optical signal to electrical signal

3. Regenerator:

- It is a repeater, that takes an optical signal and regenerates (increases the strength) it.

4. Add/Drop Multiplexer:

- It allowstoaddsignalscomingfromdifferentsourcesintoagivenpathor remove a signal.

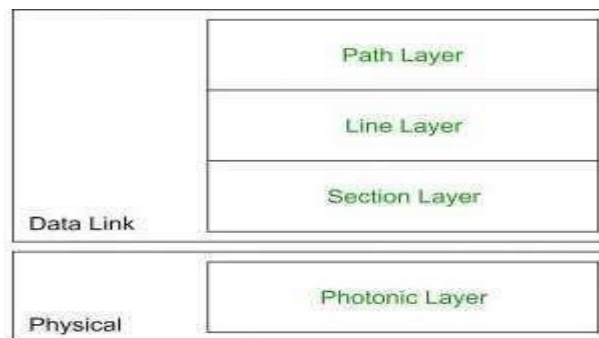
WhySONETis used?

SONETisusedtoconvertelectricalsignalintoopticalsignalsothatitcantravellonger distances.

SONETConnections:

- **Section:**Portion ofnetworkconnectingtwoneighbouringdevices.
- **Line:**Portion of networkconnecting twoneighbouringmultiplexers.
- **Path:**End-to-endportion ofthenetwork.

SONETLayers:



SONETincludesfourfunctionallayers:

- 1. PathLayer:**
 - Itisresponsibleforthemovementofsignalfromitsopticalsourcetoits optical destination.
 - STSMux/Demuxprovidespathlayerfunctions.
- 2. LineLayer:**
 - Itisresponsibleforthemovement ofsignalacrossaphysicalline.
 - STSMux/Demux andAdd/DropMuxprovidesLinelayerfunctions.
- 3. SectionLayer:**
 - Itisresponsibleforthemovement ofsignalacrossaphysicalsection.
 - Eachdeviceofnetworkprovidessectionlayer functions.
- 4. PhotonicLayer:**
 - ItcorrespondstothephysicallayeroftheOSI model.
 - Itincludesphysicalspecificationsfortheopticalfibrechannel(presenceof light = 1 and absence of light = 0).

AdvantagesofSONET:

- Transmitsdatatolarge distances
- Lowelectromagneticinterference
- Highdatarates
- LargeBandwidth

Disadvantages of SONET:

- No interoperable standard.
- Tributary services require SONET mux services.
- Low cost effective for low channel numbers.
- SONET/SDH network management system not well equipped to handle the DWDM method and management.
- Bandwidth efficiency is a problem at higher capacity.
- More overhead is required.

Applications of SONET

- SONET is the best performing, data-efficient and most widely used communication standard for large telecom **networks**.
- It has emerged as a foundation for telecom **networks** across the globe.
- SONET has an extremely high data rate of **operation**.

ISDN Devices, interfaces, services, Architecture, Applications

ISDN or Integrated Services Digital Network is an international standard for end-to-end digital transmission of voice, data and signalling.

ISDN can operate over copper-based systems and allow the transmission of digital data over the telecommunications networks, typically ordinary copper-based systems and providing higher data speeds and better quality than analogue transmission.

The ISDN specifications provide a set of protocols that enable the setup, maintenance and completion of calls.

ISDN is a circuit-switched telephone network that carries packet data over copper lines and enabled existing copper wire-based landline technology to be used to carry digital services.

Although ISDN has been in use for many years, and it is being retired in some areas, it is still widely used and some legacy services still make considerable use of it.

ISDN development

The concept for ISDN was developed when the analogue POTS, plain old telephone systems were the only real telecommunications systems available.

With computer technology developing fast and the Internet era about to dawn, companies needed the ability to communicate using data rather than analogue technology.

The first ideas for packet data systems had been developed in the 1960s, but with there being little need for data exchange between different companies and sites, it was not integrated into the customer-facing side of the business. Telecommunications remained firmly analogue and circuit-switched.

As technology developed, the International Telecommunications Union, ITU recommended the introduction of ISDN, and only slowly did companies start to take up the new offering.

As digital technology, and also the Internet started to make its mark, more companies took up the idea of ISDN, with even some homes where home offices were required, looking at the use of ISDN.

ISDN performed very well when compared to the dial up modems that were used in the 1990s, but as DSL technology took hold, and speeds rose, ISDN became less attractive. Nevertheless, many legacy systems were used, and in some countries it offered the best performance and remained in use for many years. Accordingly many customers who used ISDN for their business telephone systems are now migrating to VoIP as this offers a high degree of capability when compared to analogue systems and even ISDN.

ISDN Advantages

ISDN, Integrated Services Digital Network, provides a number of significant advantages over analogue systems.

It is basic for it enables two simultaneous telephone calls to be made over the same line simultaneously.

Faster call connection. It typically takes a second to make connections rather than the much longer delays experienced using purely analogue based systems.

Data can be sent more reliably and faster than with the analogue systems. Noise, distortion, echoes and crosstalk are virtually eliminated.

The digital stream can carry any form of data from voice to faxes and internet web pages to data files - this gives the name 'integrated services'

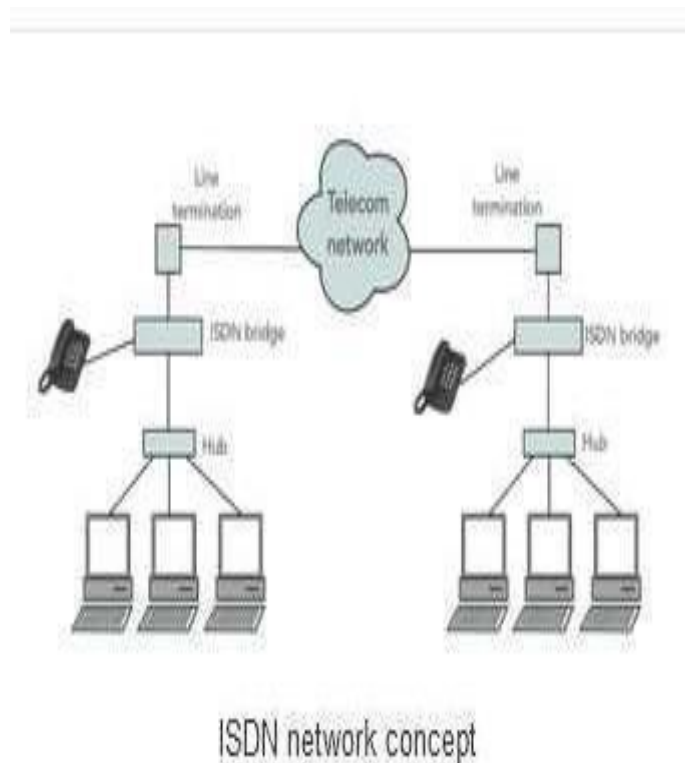
ISDN Usage

ISDN is in use around the world, but with the introduction of ADSL it is facing strong competition. The technology never gained much market share in the USA, although it is used in other countries.

In Japan it became reasonably popular in the late 1990s although it is now in decline with the advent of ADSL. The system was also introduced in Europe where providers such as BT, France Telecom and Deutsche Telekom introduced services.

With most companies now opting for DSL, or fibre connections, ISDN is used in some countries where the system has not migrated over fully yet. It can also be used as a backup in case the DSL or other digital systems fail.

ISDN network architecture



ISDN configurations

Although the ISDN operation is relatively straightforward, it utilises a number of channels and interfaces.

There are two types of channel that are found within ISDN:

- └ **B or Bearer channels:** The bearer channels are used to carry the payload data which may be voice and / or data
- **D or Delta channels:** The D channels are intended for signalling and control, although it may also be used for data under some circumstances.

Additionally, there are two levels of ISDN access that may be provided. These are known as BRI and PRI.

BRI (Basic Rate Interface) - This consists of two B channels, each of which provides a bandwidth of 64 kbps under most circumstances. One D channel with a bandwidth of 16 kbps is also provided. Together this configuration is often referred to as 2B+D.

The basic rate lines connect to the network using a standard twisted pair of copper wires. The data can then be transmitted simultaneously in both directions to provide full duplex operation. The data stream is carried as two B channels as mentioned above, each of which carry 64 kbps (8 kbytes per second). This data is interleaved with the D channel data and this

is used for call management: setting up, clearing down of calls, and some additional data to maintain synchronisation and monitoring of the line.

The network end of the line is referred to as the 'Line Termination' (LT) while the user end acts as a termination for the network and is referred to as the 'Network Termination' (NT). Within Europe and Australia, the NT physically exists as a small connection box usually attached to a wall etc, and it converts the two wire line (U interface) coming in from the network to four wires (S/T interface or S bus). The S/T interface allows up to eight items or 'terminal equipments' to be connected, although only two may be used at any time. The terminal equipments may be telephones, computers, etc, and they are connected in what is termed a point to point configuration. In Europe the ISDN line provides up to about 1 watt of power that enables the NT to be run, and also enables a basic ISDN phone to be used for emergency calls. In North America a slightly different approach may be adopted in that the terminal equipment may be directly connected to the network in a point to point configuration as this saves the cost of a network termination unit, but it restricts the flexibility. Additionally power is not normally provided.

PRI (Primary Rate Interface) - This configuration carries a greater number of channels than the Basic Rate Interface and has a D channel with a bandwidth of 64 kbps. The number of B channels varies according to the location. Within Europe and Australia a configuration of 30B+D has been adopted providing an aggregate data rate of 2.048 Mbps (E1). For North America and Japan, a configuration of 23B+1D has been adopted. This provides an aggregate data rate of 1.544 Mbps (T1).

The primary rate connections utilise four wires - a pair for each direction. They are normally 120 ohm balanced lines using twisted pair cable. Primary rate connections always use a point to point configuration.

Primary rate lines are widely used to connect to Private Branch Exchanges (PBX) in an office etc. Typically this may be used to provide a number of POTS (Plain Old Telephone System) or basic rate ISDN lines to the users.

ISDN Operation

Call data is transmitted over the data (B) channels, with the signalling (D) channels used for call setup and management. Once a call is set up, there is a simple 64 kbit/s synchronous bidirectional data channel between the end parties, lasting until the call is terminated.

There can be as many calls as there are data channels, to the same or different end-points. Bearer channels may also be multiplexed into what may be considered single, higher- bandwidth channels via a process called B channel bonding.

The D channel can also be used for sending and receiving X.25 data packets, and connection to X.25 packet network. In practice, this was never widely implemented.

Although ISDN has been overtaken by technologies such as ADSL it is nevertheless still widely used in many areas, particularly where existing services need to be maintained, or where compatibility needs to be guaranteed. When it is being phased out VoIP phone systems are often taking over as they offer the advantages of a digitally based business phone system.

BISDN-interfaces&terminals,protocolarchitectureapplications:

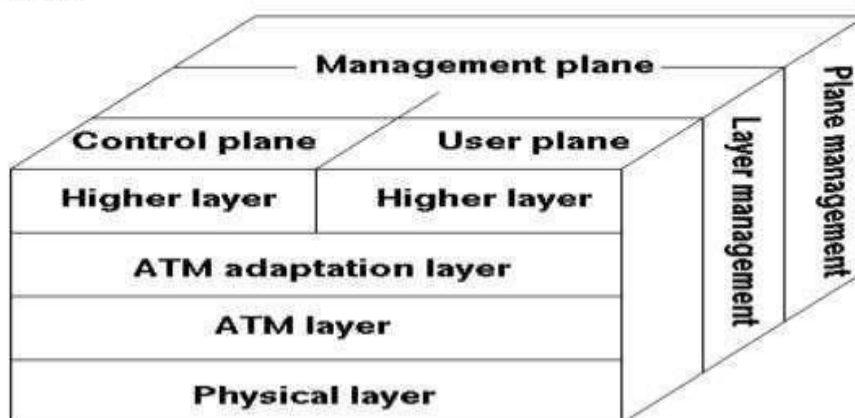
- The next generation of ISDN technology with promised bandwidth from 150 megabits per second up to sufficient to carry videophone calls and movies.
- BISDN will be carried over fiber optic cabling rather than wire and underlying protocol will be asynchronous transfer mode.
- Different implementations are planned in the USA which will employ synchronous optical networks and Europe which will be SDH
- One of the fundamental principles of BISDN is to offer subscribers a large variety of services such as video telephony, video high volume file transfer, HDTV and many more.
- The fixed length cells allow the prediction of the size of the buffers to be used and hence bits could be transmitted at any convenient rate unlike the fixed rate (64kbps) specified by ISDN

General Structure:

- The assembly of several 64kbps channels could be achieved with ordinary ISDN by setting up several 64kbps calls to the same destination on a primary rate interface and concatenating the channels at the terminal.
- The problem is that a uniform delay is not guaranteed; since channels do not follow the same path through the network, there is a different frame delay for each channel and sometimes a satellite link is involved for one or more channels.
- There are two solutions for the problem:
- The Terminal Solution: By using the appropriate buffers at the terminals, the delays in each channel can be padded to be equal. In order to establish these delays the terminals should do a prior investigation. An assumption that is usually made is that relative delays will not change during a call.
- The Network Solution: In this case the exchange processors would ensure that all channels are kept within a single time division multiplex and therefore follow a common route.

Broadband ISDN Protocol

The suggested architecture for the B-ISDN protocol is depicted in figure below.



Possible Short Type Questions with Answers

1. Define Nyquist rate.

Ans- Let the signal be band limited to W Hz.

Then Nyquist rate is given as, $Nyquist\ rate = 2W\ samples/sec$

Aliasing will not take place if sampling rate is greater than Nyquist rate.

2. What is meant by aliasing effect?

Ans- Aliasing effect takes place when sampling frequency is less than Nyquist rate. Under such condition, the spectrum of the sampled signal overlaps with itself. Hence higher frequency takes the form of lower frequencies. This interference of the frequency components is called as aliasing effect.

3. State Sampling theorem.

Ans- A band limited signal of finite energy, which has no frequency components higher than W Hz, may be completely recovered from the knowledge of its samples taken at the rate of $2W$ samples per second.

4. How the message can be recovered from PAM?

Ans- The message can be recovered from PAM by passing the PAM signal through reconstruction filter integrates amplitude of PAM pulses. Amplitude reconstruction signal is done to remove amplitude discontinuities due to pulses.

5. What do you understand from adaptive coding?

Ans- In adaptive coding, the quantization step size and prediction filter coefficients are changed as per properties of input signal. This reduces the quantization error and number of bits to represent the sample value. Adaptive coding is used for speech coding at low bits rates.

6. What is meant by adaptive delta modulation?

Ans- In adaptive delta modulation, the step size is adjusted as per the slope of the input signal. Step size is made high if slope of the input signal is high. This avoids slope overload distortion.

7. Write the full form of ISDN and BISDN. (w-20)

Ans- ISDN- Integrated Services Digital Network.

BISDN- Broadband Integrated Services Digital Network

Possible Long Type Questions

1. Explain fundamentals of Broadband Communication.
2. Explain Architecture, Future of Broadband communication system. (w-20)
3. Write short note on SONET. (w-20)
4. Write short note on ISDN.
5. Write short note on BISDN.

REFERENCE:

Table

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