



Radiated EMI Characteristics

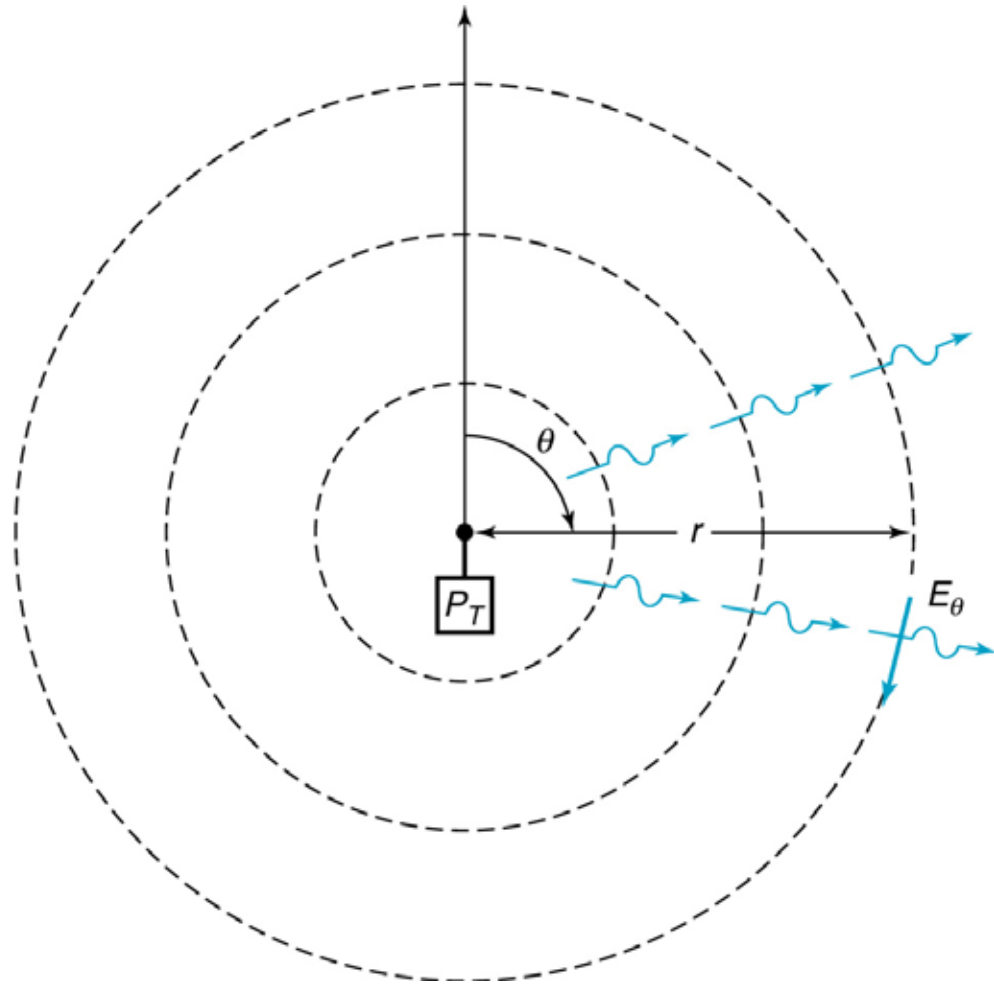
How fields, but not pigs, fly!

Topics

- EM Propagation
 - Summary of free space effects
- Close Proximity Effects
 - Coupling on pcbs
 - Screening/shielding
 - Look at these by considering antennas

Antennas and Plane Waves

Waves radiated from an antenna are spherical waves but appear to a local observer as uniform plane waves



Why Antennas?

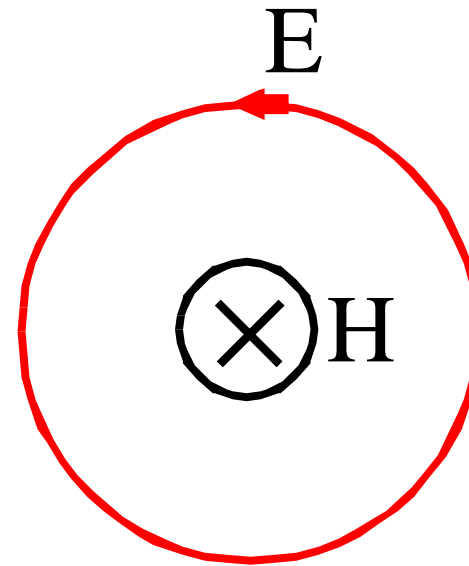
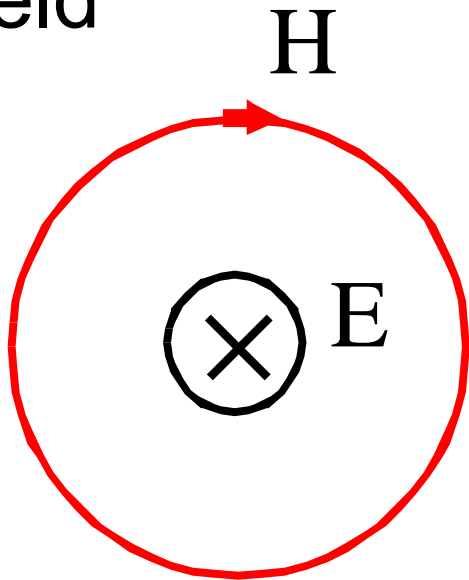
- Necessary for Measurements
- Basic radiation theory applies to radiative coupling
- Used for shielding considerations
 - Can simplify the problem if we understand what is going on

Free Space Propagation

- We are a long way from the source
 - Far Field Approximation
 - Plane wave
 - **E** and **H** fields are normal to each other and the direction of propagation
- Time varying **E** and **H** fields are inter-related and always present together

Time Varying Fields

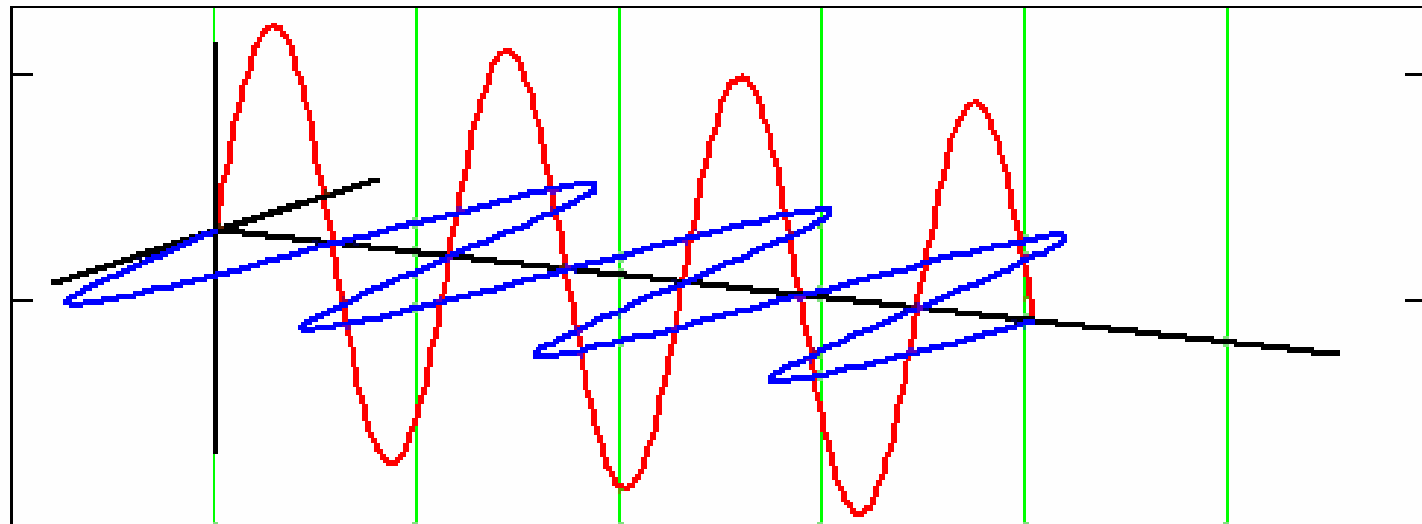
- E and H are orthogonal
- Combination forms the Electromagnetic Field



Plane Wave in 3-D Space

- If phase and amplitudes are correct we get a plane wave.
- **E** and **H** are in Phase
- Their magnitudes have a fixed ratio
 - The Wave Impedance, η

Plane Wave in 3-D Space



- Magnetic Field
- axes
- Electric Field

Plane Wave Properties

- Wave travels one wavelength in one time period

$$\omega T = 2\pi$$

- Propagation Velocity -

$$v = \frac{\lambda}{T} = f\lambda$$

- Phase change per m -

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \quad \text{rad / m}$$

Plane Wave Properties

■ Propagation Velocity $u = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu\varepsilon}} \quad m/s$

■ Permeability $\mu = \mu_0\mu_r \quad H/m$

■ Permittivity $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_0\varepsilon_r \quad F/m$

■ Free Space $k = k_0 \quad c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0\varepsilon_0}} = 3 \times 10^8 \quad m/s$

Plane Wave Properties

- Ratio of Fields is constant
 - In Free Space

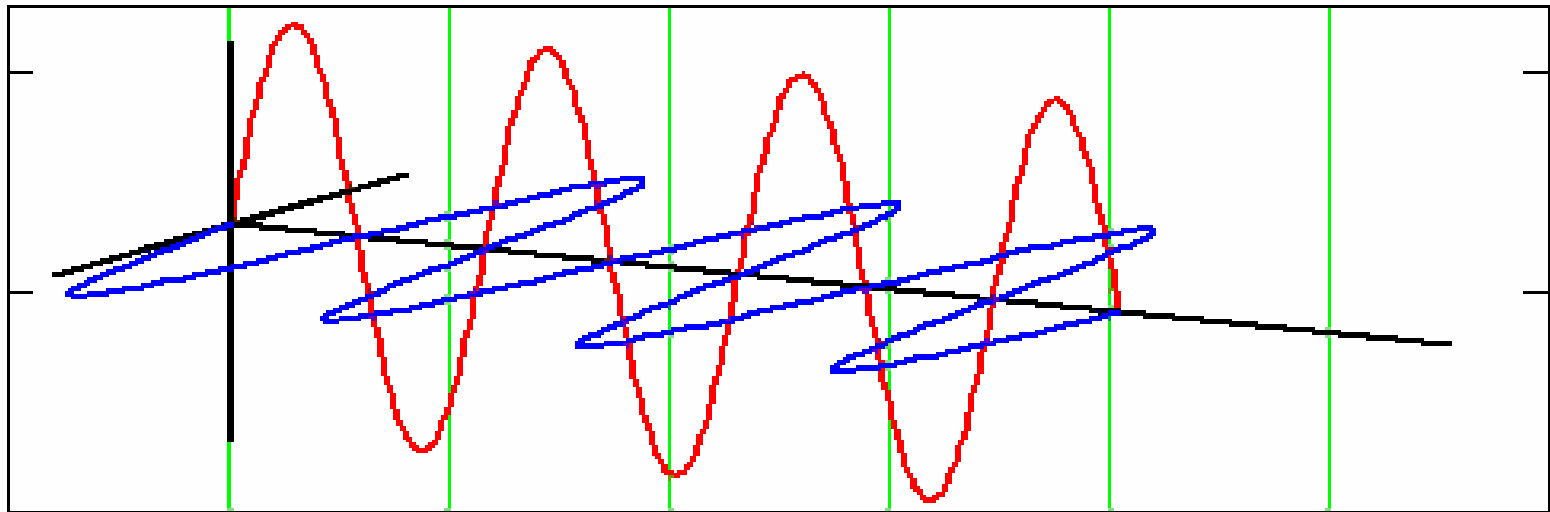
$$\frac{\underline{E}}{\underline{H}} = 120\pi = 377 \Omega$$

- This is the wave impedance, η_0

Field Components

- We consider cosinusoidal signals
 - Simplest building block. c.f. Fourier Analysis
- Phase shift can be seen
 - at a fixed point as time changes
 - at a fixed time as distance changes
- Equations must show this

Sinusoidal Signal in Free Space



- Magnetic Field
- axes
- Electric Field

Field Components

- Fields obtained by solving Maxwell's equations

$$\underline{E}_x = E_0 \cos\left(2\pi f\left(t - \frac{z}{v}\right)\right) \quad V / m$$

$$\underline{H}_y = H_0 \cos\left(2\pi f\left(t - \frac{z}{v}\right)\right) \quad A / m$$

- Distance and time affect phase of waveform

Field Components

- Putting $v = f\lambda$ we get

$$\underline{E}_x = E_0 \cos(\omega t - k_0 z) \quad V / m$$

$$\underline{H}_y = H_0 \cos(\omega t - k_0 z) \quad A / m$$

- This is a simplification of $\underline{E}_x = E_0 e^{\pm jk_0 z}$

- Comes from the wave equation which is of the form

$$\nabla^2 E_x + k_0^2 E_x = 0$$

Field Components

- At any point in space and time the argument of the cosine function is constant

$$\cos(\omega t - k_0 z) = \text{const.}$$

$$\omega t - k_0 z = \text{const} = a$$

$$z = \frac{-a + \omega t}{k_0}$$

Field Components

- Differentiating this gives

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\omega}{k_0} = c$$

- For arbitrary lossy media

$$v = \frac{\omega}{\gamma} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu\epsilon}}$$

- Where γ is the complex propagation constant

Characteristic Impedance of a Medium

- Obtained from Maxwell's Equations

$$\nabla \times \underline{E} = -j\omega\mu_0 \underline{H}$$

- Simpler version would be

$$\frac{\partial E_x}{\partial z} = \frac{\omega\mu_0}{j} H_y$$

- giving $H_y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_0}{\mu_0}}} E_x$ $H_y = \frac{1}{\eta_0} E_x$ $H_y = \frac{k_0}{\omega\mu_0} E_x$

Characteristic Impedance of a Medium

- Generally $\eta = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} = \frac{|E|}{|H|}$

- Wave Impedance in Ω .

$$\eta_0 = 120\pi = 377\Omega$$

Power in an Plane Wave

- Power is Vector Cross Product of Electric and Magnetic Fields.

- This defines power propagation direction.

- Average power is more useful

$$\underline{P}_{av} = \frac{1}{2} \text{Re}(\underline{E} \times \underline{H}^*) \quad W$$

- or

$$\underline{P}_{av} = \frac{|\underline{E}|^2}{2\eta_0} \quad W$$

Summary

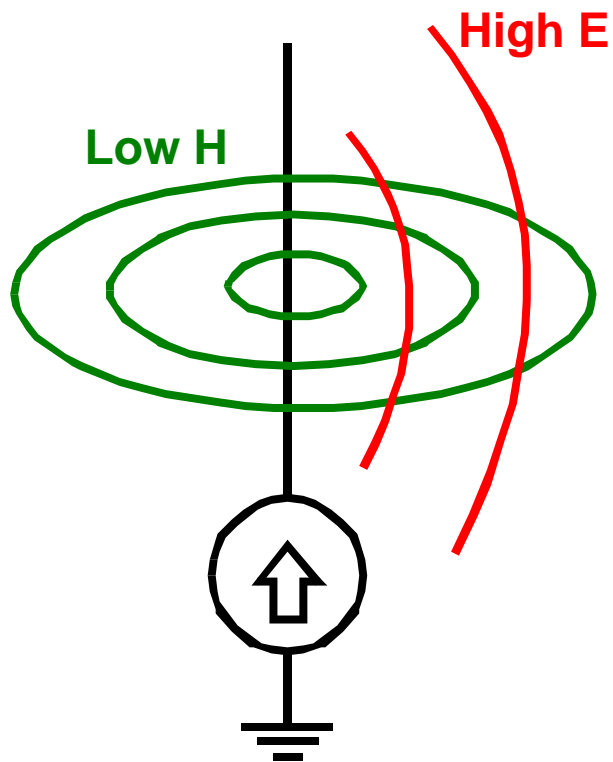
- Basic EM wave propagation is as a plane wave
- Holds for all waves any reasonable distance from the radiating source.
- Electric and Magnetic fields are normal to each other and to the propagation direction.
- Wave impedance is the ratio of the fields

Antennas

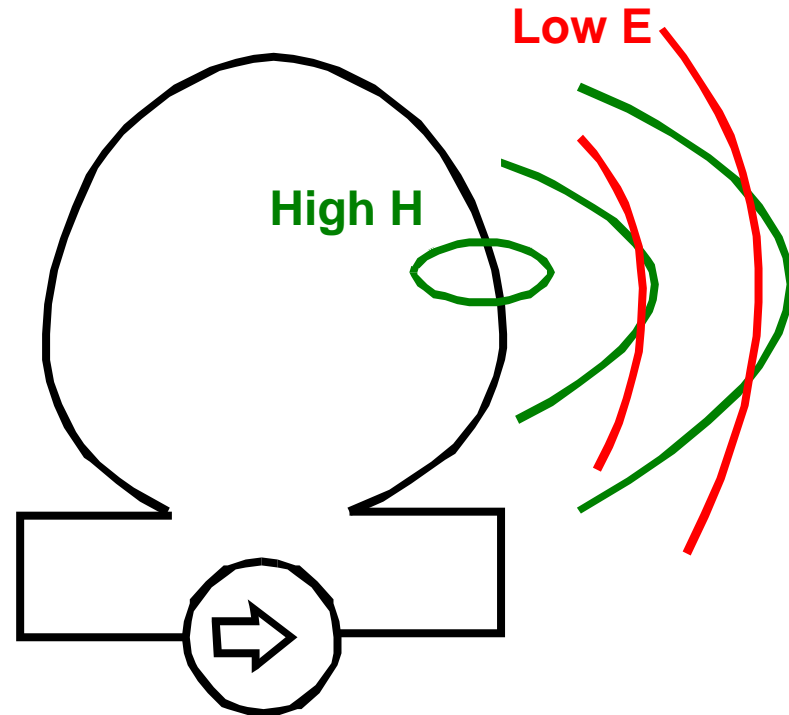
- Impedance Transformer
- Transition Device
- Radiates and receives EM power, as fields, efficiently
- Fields describes as components in 3-D



Generic Radiating Devices



Electric Field Source
Low Current



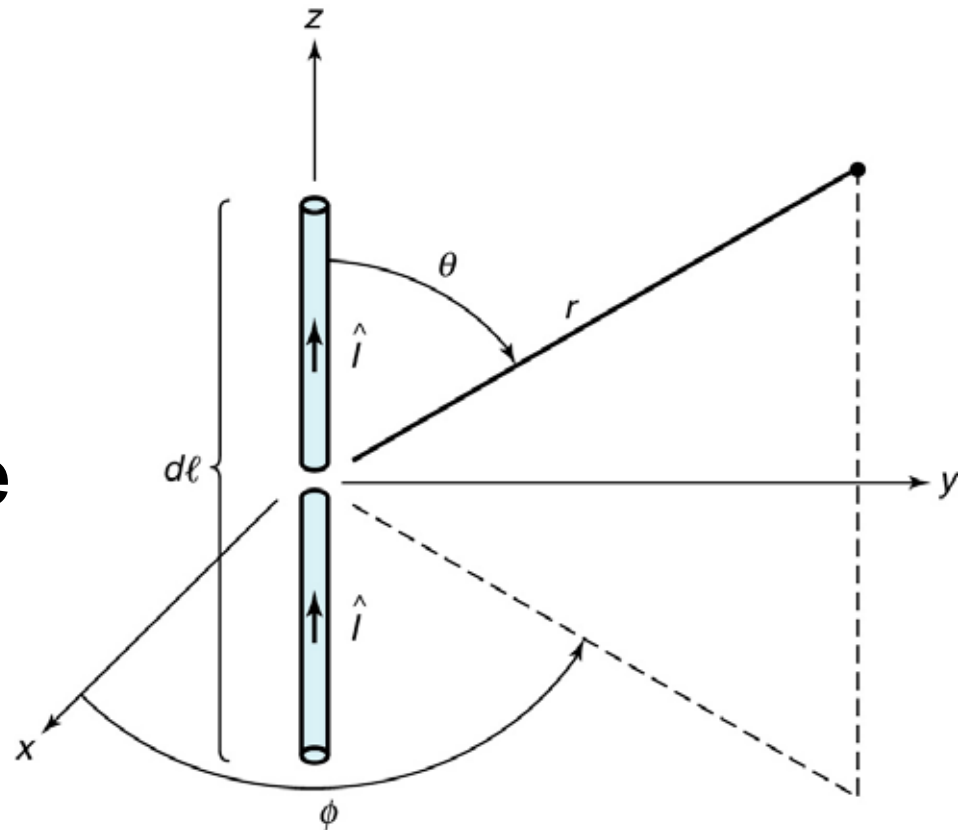
Magnetic Field Source
High Current

Fields Radiating from Antennas

- Defined on a spherical co-ordinate system
 - Radiating fields form a spherical wavefront
- May be “near” or “far” from the antenna.
 - Have different properties.
 - Far Field is a plane wave
- Consider two fundamental radiators

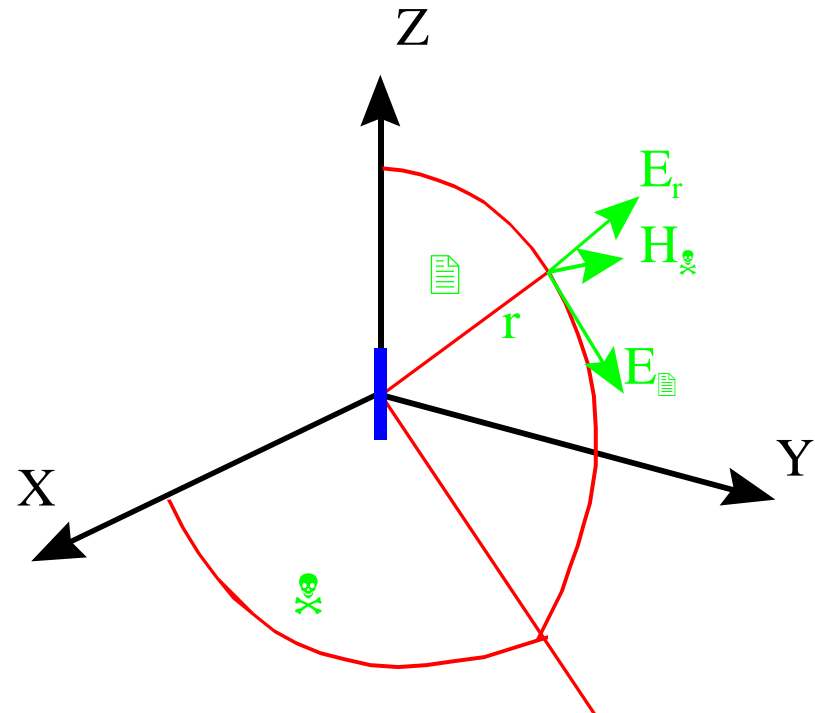
Radiating Elements - Wire

- Correctly known as Hertzian Dipole
- Note Co-ordinate System

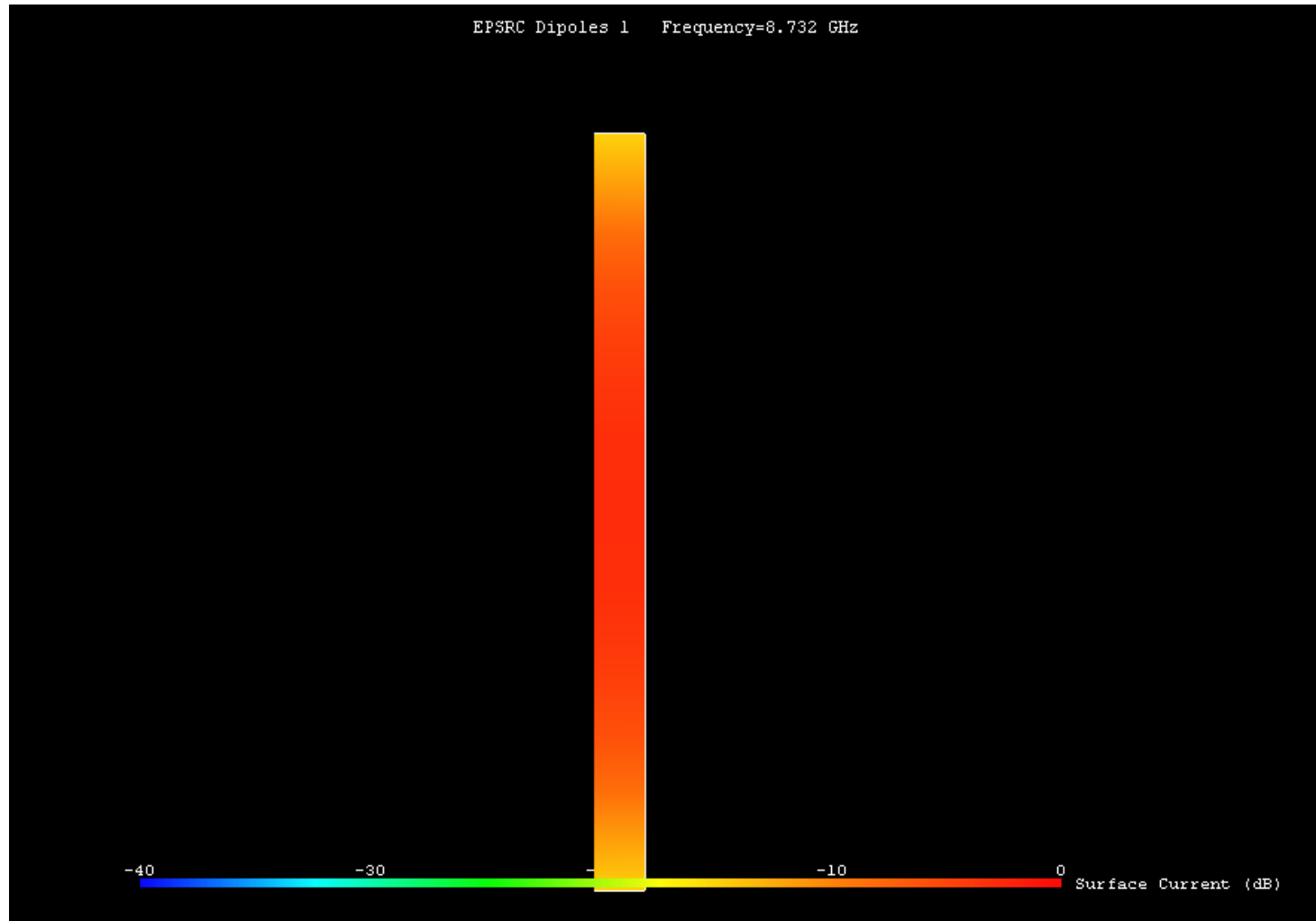


Radiating Elements - Wire

- Co-ordinate system and Field components are shown



Simulated Dipole Currents

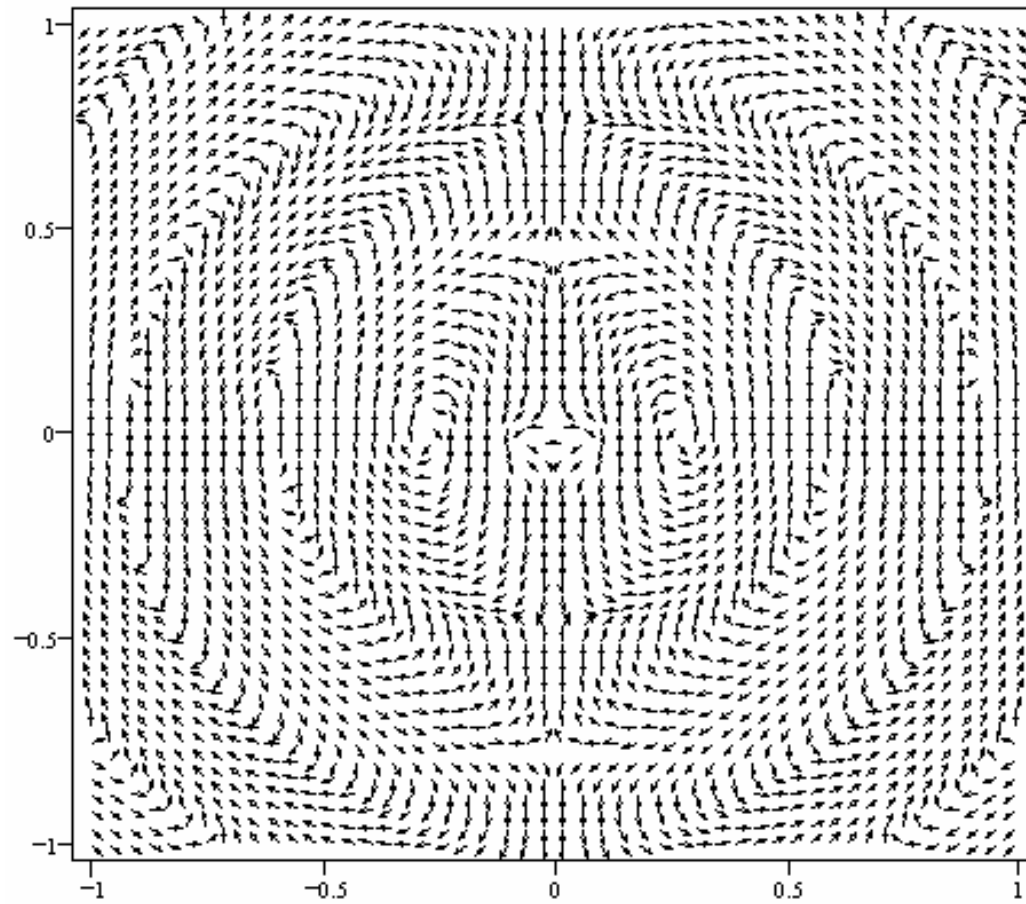


Field Components

- Radial \vec{E}_r
- Azimuthal \vec{H}_ϕ
- Elevation \vec{E}_θ
- Specific to a wire

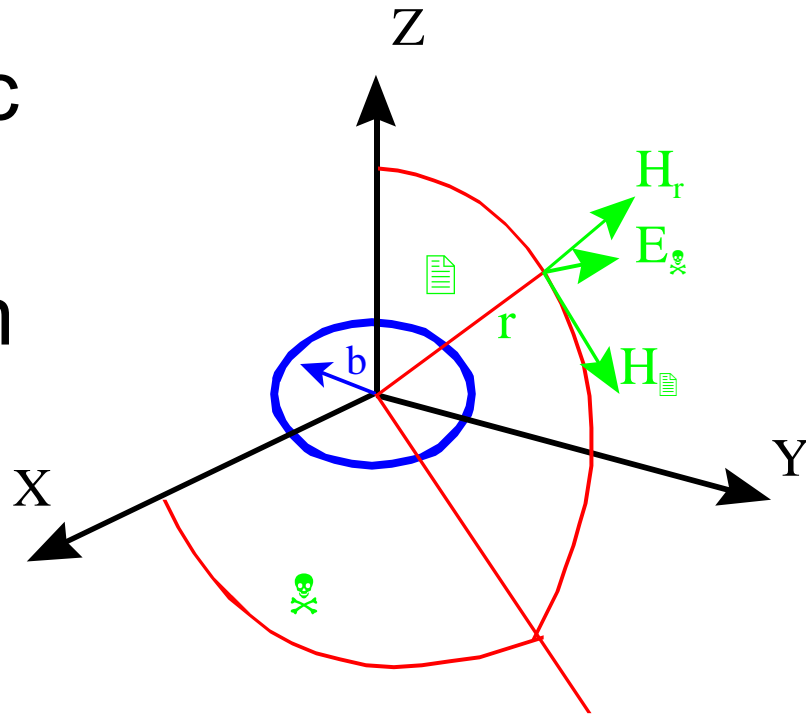
Simulated Dipole Fields

Vector field of an oscillating Hertzian dipole



Radiating Elements - Loop

- Known as Magnetic Dipole
- Co-ordinate system and Field components are shown



Field Components

- Radial \vec{H}_r
- Azimuthal \vec{E}_ϕ
- Elevation \vec{H}_θ
- Specific to a loop

Field Components - Wire

$$E_r = \frac{-e^{-j \cdot k \cdot r}}{4 \cdot \pi} \cdot I \cdot l \cdot \eta_0 \cdot k^2 \cdot 2 \cdot \cos(\theta) \cdot \left[\frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^2} + \frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^3} \right]$$

$$E_\theta = \frac{-e^{-j \cdot k \cdot r}}{4 \cdot \pi} \cdot I \cdot l \cdot \eta_0 \cdot k^2 \cdot \sin(\theta) \cdot \left[\frac{1}{j \cdot k \cdot r} + \frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^2} + \frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^3} \right]$$

$$H_\phi = \frac{-e^{-j \cdot k \cdot r}}{4 \cdot \pi} \cdot I \cdot l \cdot k^2 \cdot \sin(\theta) \cdot \left[\frac{1}{j \cdot k \cdot r} + \frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^2} \right]$$

Field Components - Loop

■ Magnetic Moment $m = I \cdot \pi \cdot b^2$

$$H_r = \frac{-e^{-j \cdot k \cdot r}}{4 \cdot \pi} \cdot j \cdot \frac{\omega \cdot \mu \cdot m}{\eta_0} \cdot k^2 \cdot 2 \cdot \cos(\theta) \cdot \left[\frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^2} + \frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^3} \right]$$

$$H_\theta = \frac{-e^{-j \cdot k \cdot r}}{4 \cdot \pi} \cdot j \cdot \frac{\omega \cdot \mu \cdot m}{\eta_0} \cdot k^2 \cdot \sin(\theta) \cdot \left[\frac{1}{j \cdot k \cdot r} + \frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^2} + \frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^3} \right]$$

$$E_\phi = \frac{-e^{-j \cdot k \cdot r}}{4 \cdot \pi} \cdot j \cdot \omega \cdot \mu \cdot m \cdot k^2 \cdot \sin(\theta) \cdot \left[\frac{1}{j \cdot k \cdot r} + \frac{1}{(j \cdot k \cdot r)^2} \right]$$

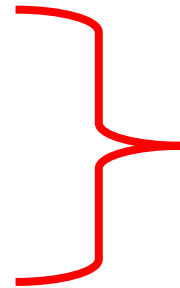
Far Field

$$r \gg \lambda$$

- Distance from radiator
 - Many different definitions
- Only $1/r$ terms significant
- Plane Wave

$$E_{\theta} = j\omega\mu \frac{e^{-jkr}}{4\pi r} Il \sin(\theta)$$

$$H_{\phi} = jk \frac{e^{-jkr}}{4\pi r} Il \sin(\theta)$$



$$\left| \frac{E_{\theta}}{H_{\phi}} \right| = \frac{j\omega\mu}{jk} = \eta_0$$

Near Field

- $r \ll \lambda$ so higher power terms relevant
- Wave impedance for wire and loop are different
- Consider radiated field equations
- Find that either **E** or **H** is the larger quantity

Near Field - Wire

- E field is dominant

$$Z_{nf} = \left| \frac{E_{\theta}}{H_{\phi}} \right| = \frac{1}{\omega \epsilon} \left[\frac{1/r^2}{1/r} \right] = \frac{1}{\omega \epsilon r} \quad \Omega$$

- Impedance is very high close to radiator and reduces as r increases.

Near Field - Loop

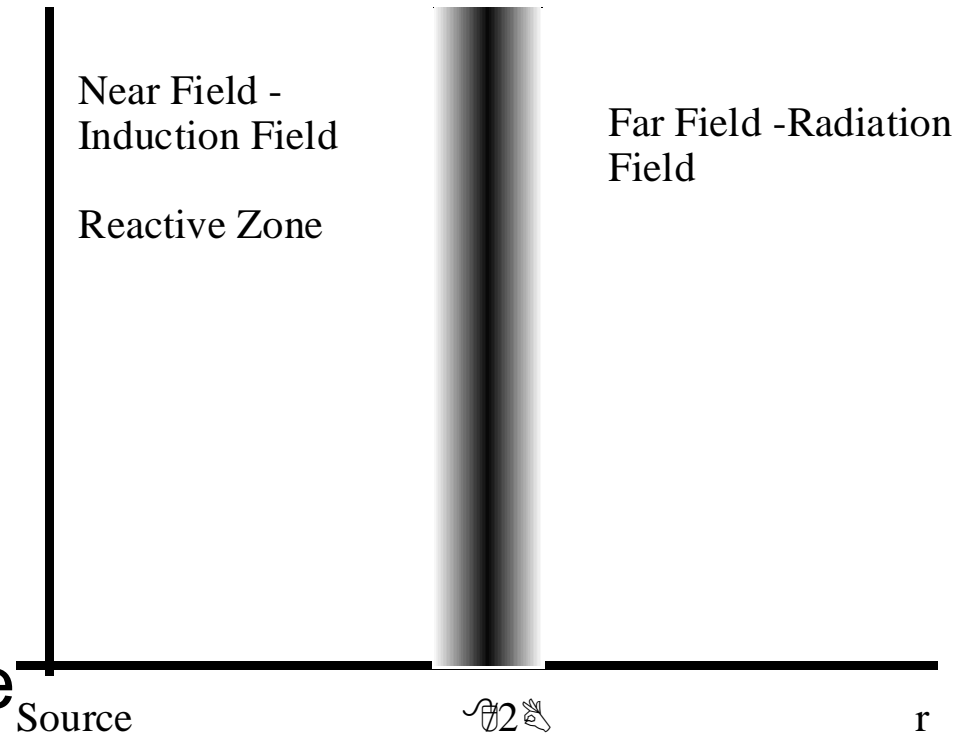
- H field dominates

$$Z_{nf} = \left| \frac{E_{\phi}}{H_{\theta}} \right| = \omega\mu \left[\frac{1/r}{1/r^2} \right] = \omega\mu r \quad \Omega$$

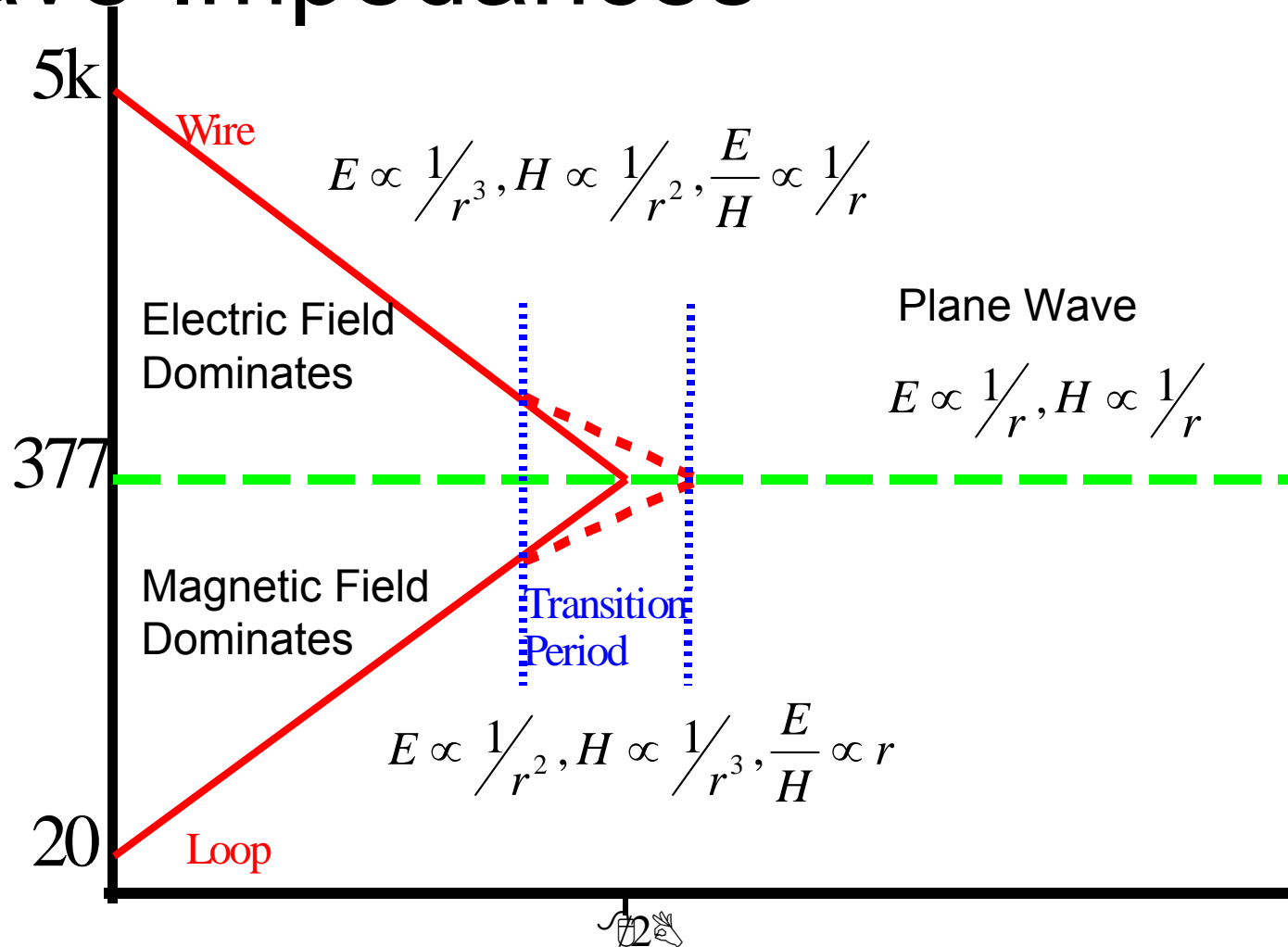
- Impedance close to radiator is very low and increases with r

Near to Far Transition

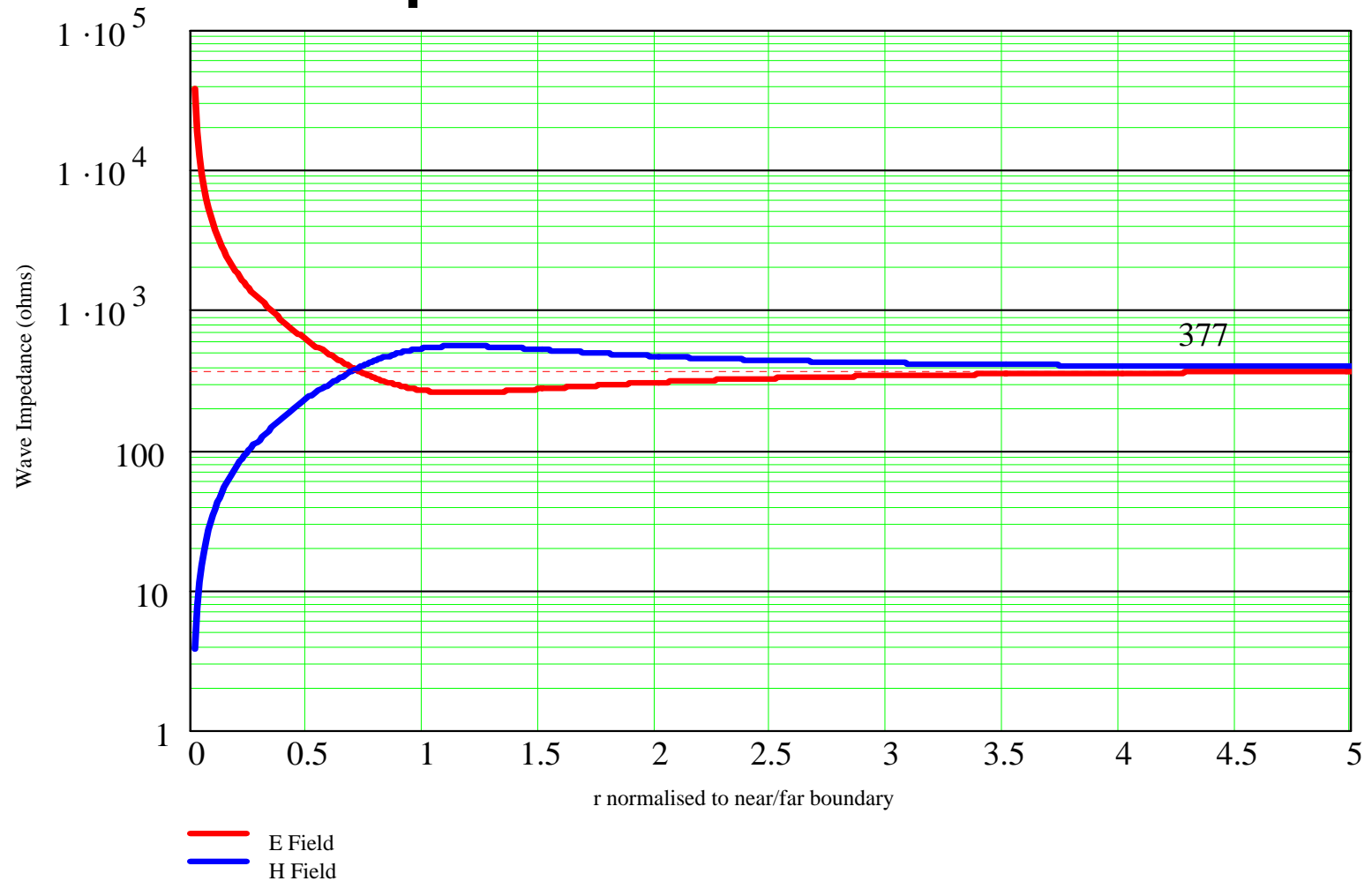
- Higher powers of r become less effective
- $1/r$ starts to dominate
 - None are dominant in the transition zone



Wave Impedances



Wave Impedances



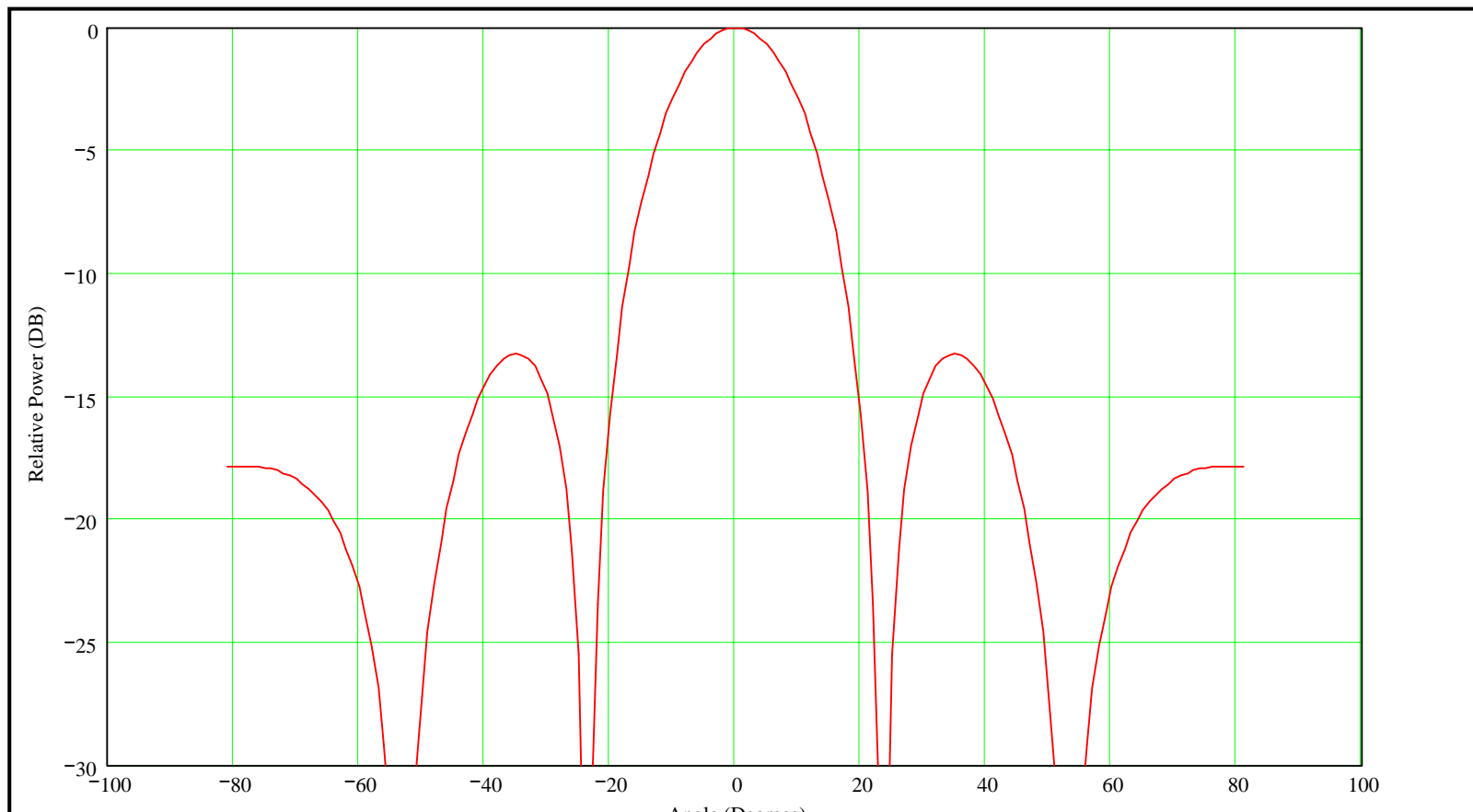
Some Antenna Principles

- Efficient radiators and susceptors are normally at least about one wavelength in size.
- Quarter and half wavelength dimensions are resonant radiators.
 - Omnidirectional
- Larger radiators tend to focus and direct power in a preferred direction

Antenna Characteristics

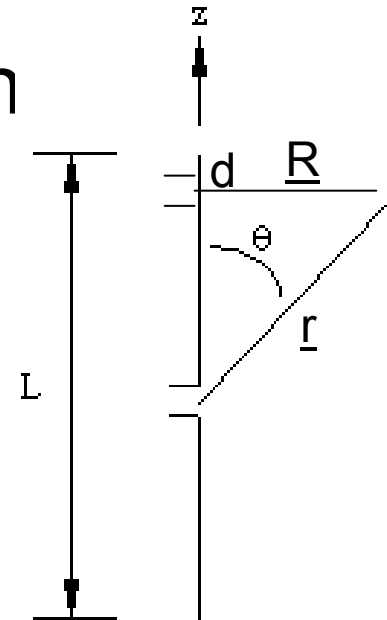
- Define antennas by how they radiate power
 - Radiation Pattern
 - Gain
 - Directivity
- Also look at impedance match

Radiation Pattern



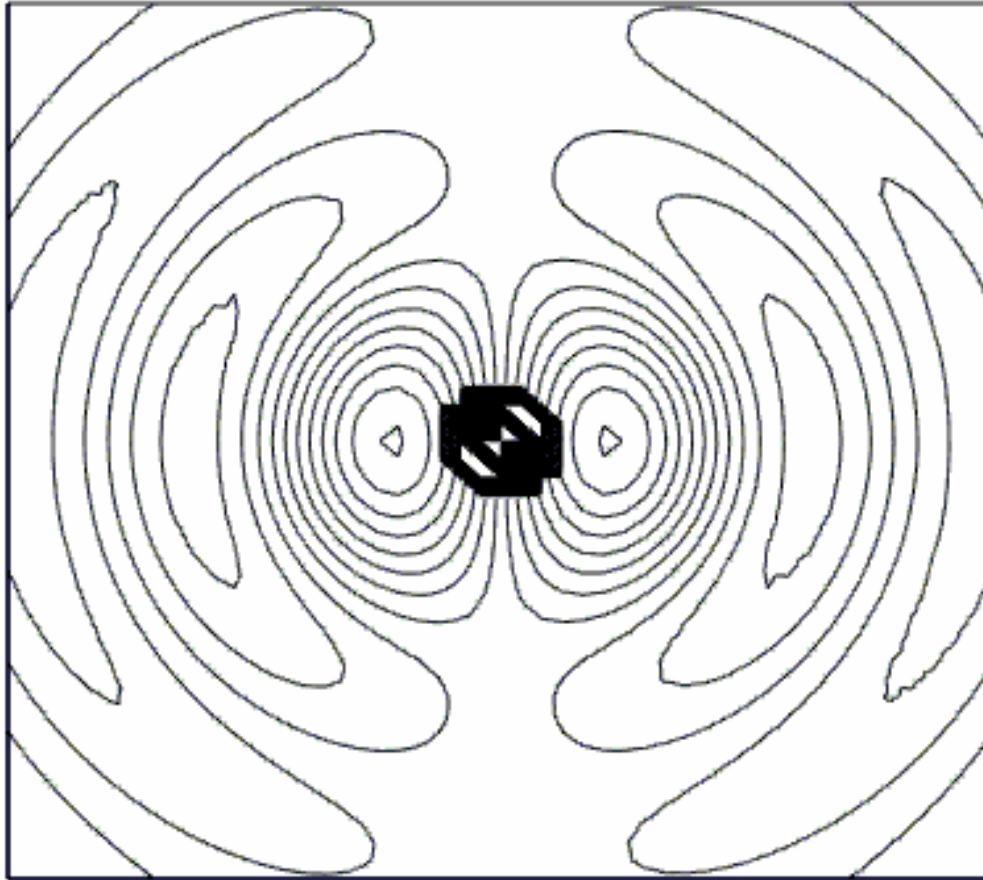
Radiation Pattern

- Three dimensional plot of radiated power density
- Often presented as cuts in azimuth or elevation
- Consider a dipole
 - Uniform current (Iz)
 - Length, a .



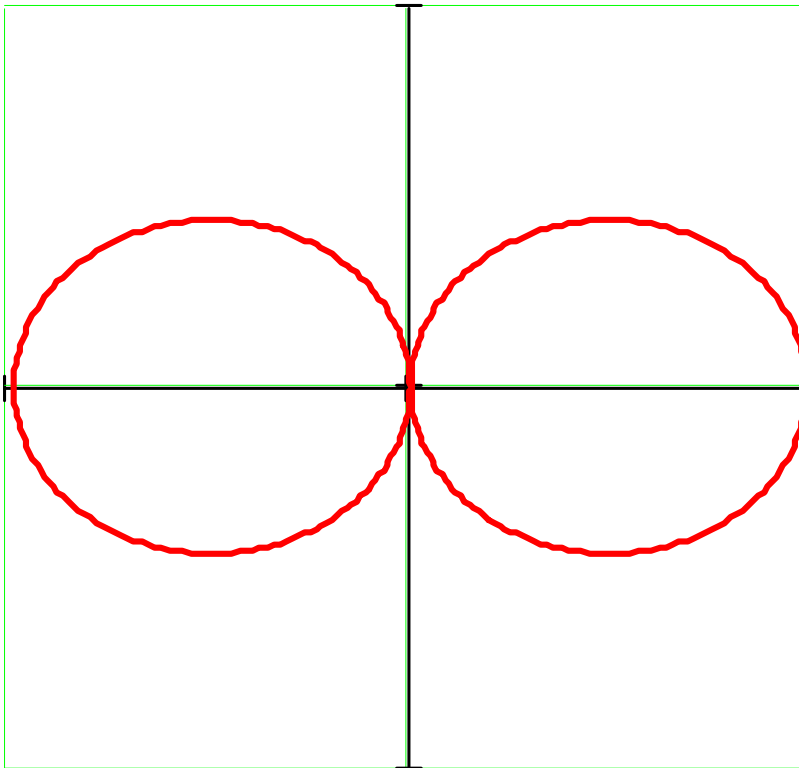
Dipole Radiating Fields

Field lines of E in $y = 0$ plane.



Elevation Pattern

z axis

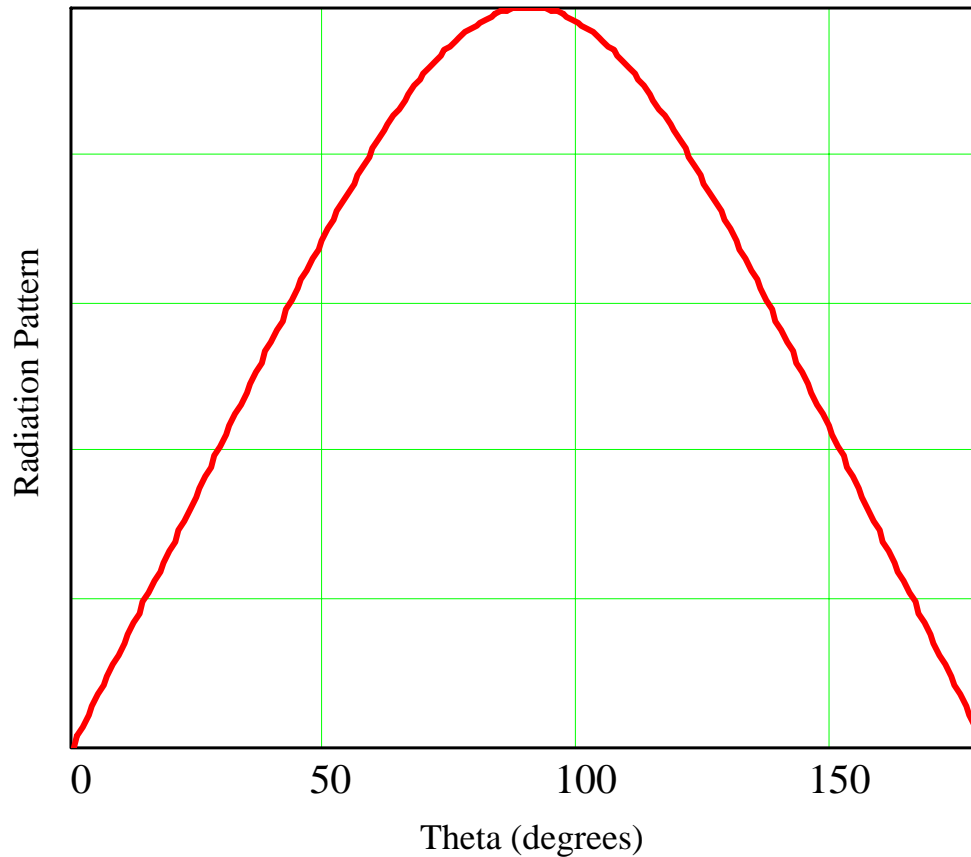


For a dipole of length
 $L = 0.5 (\lambda_0)$.

Far-Field Pattern of the Dipole Antenna.

Dipole Radiation Pattern - Azimuthal

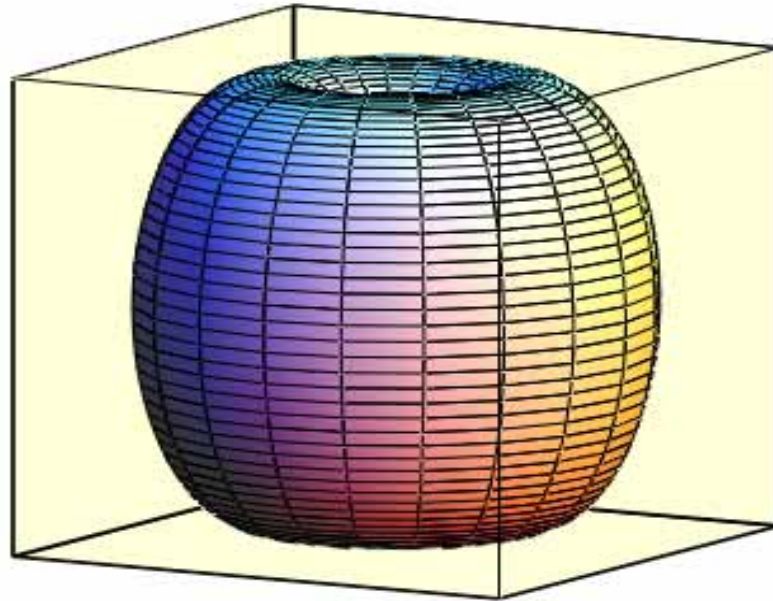
Radiation Pattern of the Dipole Antenna.



For a dipole of length
 $L = 0.5 (\lambda_0)$.

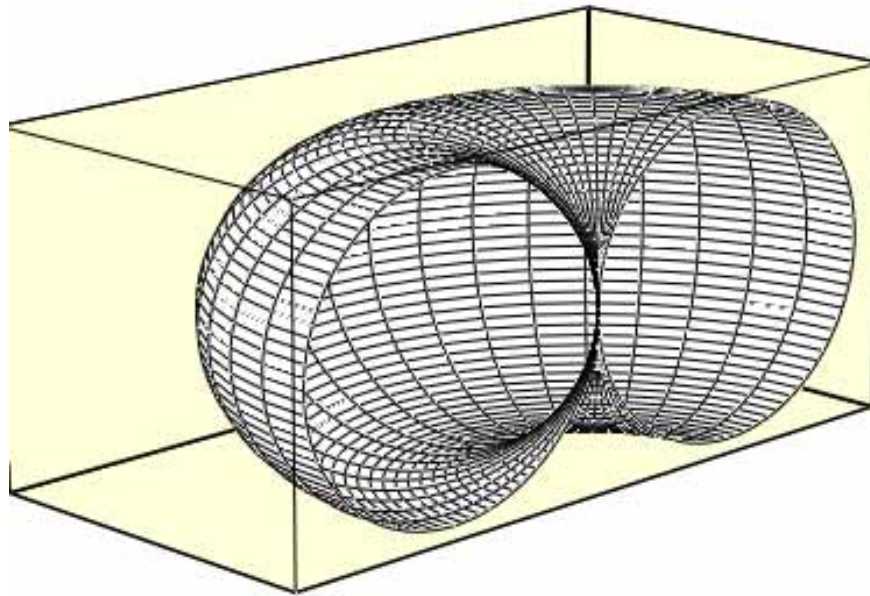
Dipole Radiation Pattern

Radiation Pattern of the Dipole Antenna.



Cutaway radiation pattern

Radiation Pattern of the Dipole Antenna.



(X, Y, Z)

The Maths of it!

- Dipole of length, a , with current, I , in z direction

- Far Field $r > \frac{2a^2}{\lambda}$ $r \gg a$ $r \gg \lambda$

- Electric and Magnetic Fields

$$\underline{E} \approx -j\omega\mu\underline{A} \qquad \underline{H} \approx \frac{1}{\eta} \hat{r} \times \underline{E}$$

The Maths of it!

- Vector Magnetic Potential, A , is

$$A_z = \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} I(z) \frac{e^{-jkr}}{4\pi r} e^{jkz \cos(\theta)} dz$$

- This gives

$$E_\theta = \frac{\eta}{2} I \frac{a}{\lambda} \frac{1}{r} j e^{-jkr} \frac{\sin(u)}{u} \sin(\theta) \quad u = \frac{ka}{2} \cos(\theta)$$

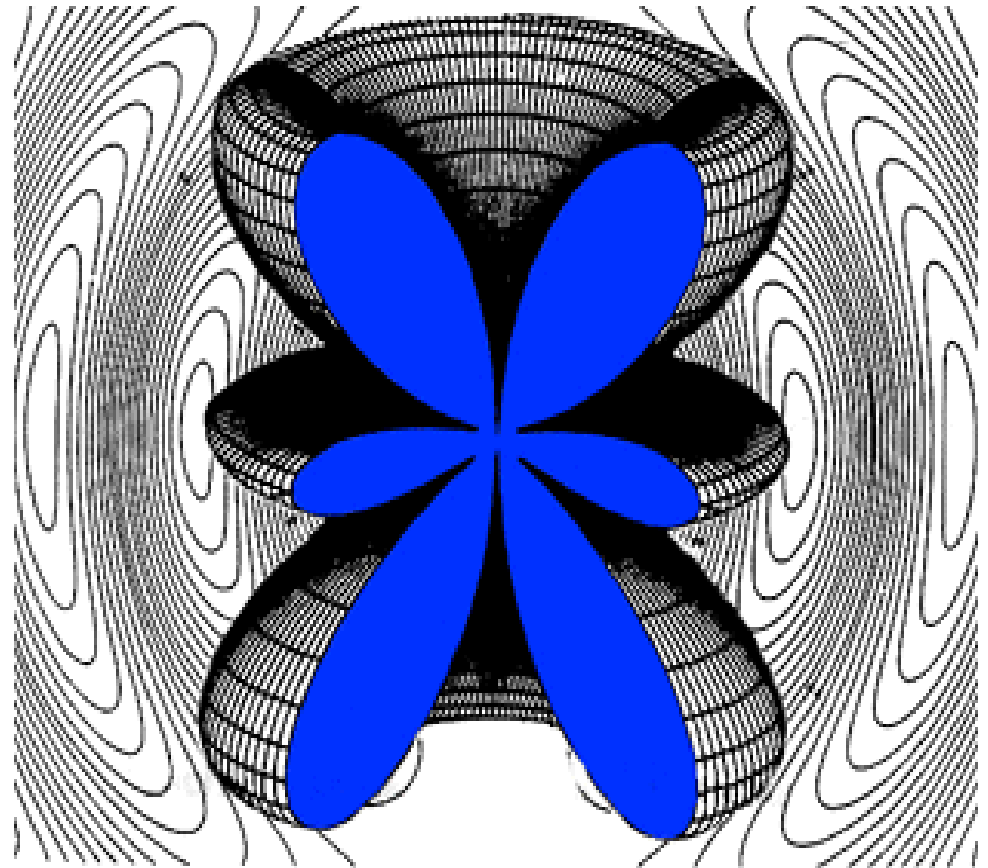
Current (points to I)
 Distance (points to r)
 Magnitude (points to $\frac{\eta}{2}$)
 Length (points to $\frac{a}{\lambda}$)
 Phase (points to $j e^{-jkr}$)
 Pattern (points to $\frac{\sin(u)}{u} \sin(\theta)$)

Power Pattern

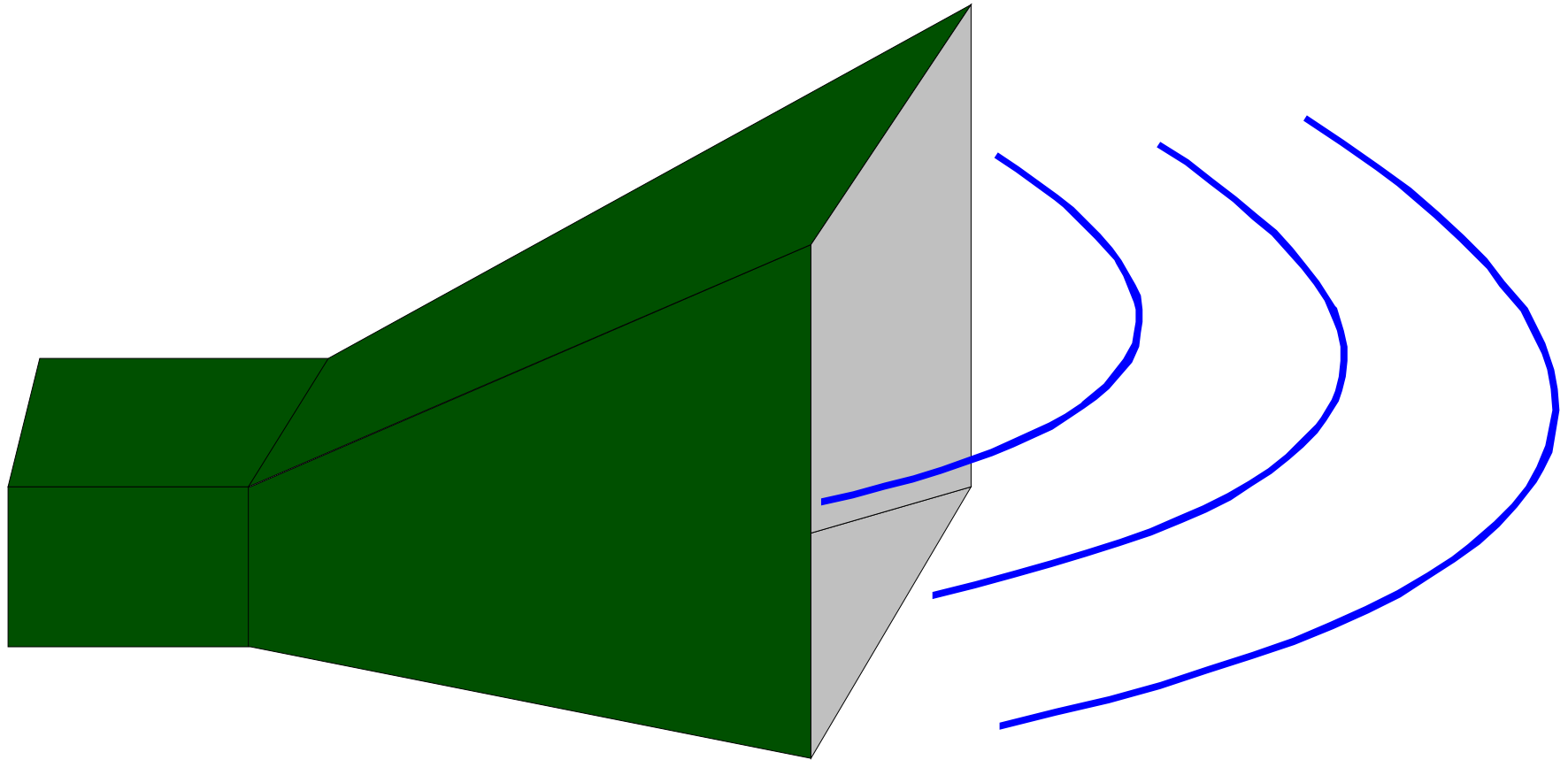
- Normal to plot the power pattern based on the Poynting Vector.
- Total Power is obtained by integrating radiation intensity over full sphere

Antenna Pattern and Fields

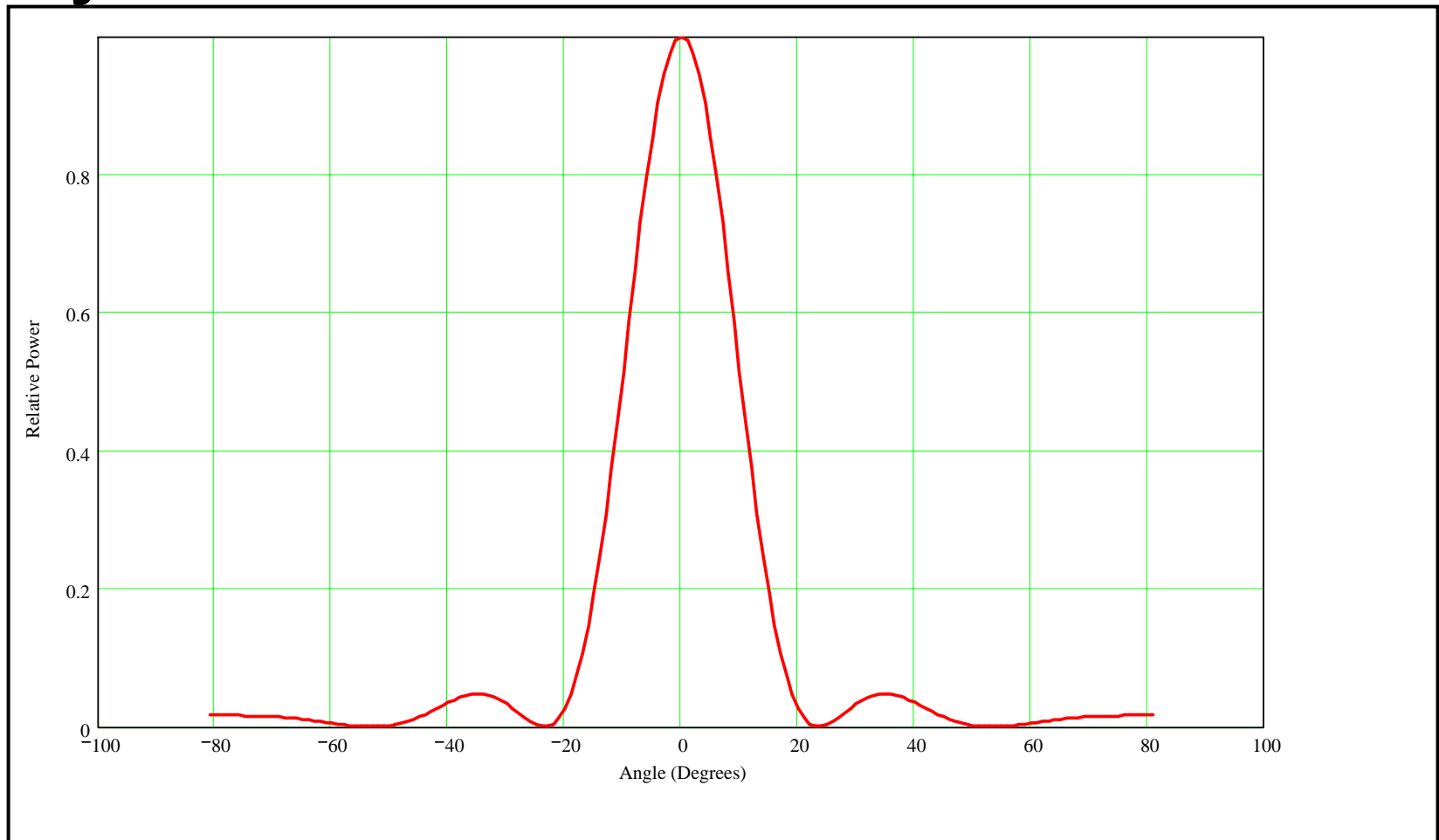
- This is for a 1.5λ dipole



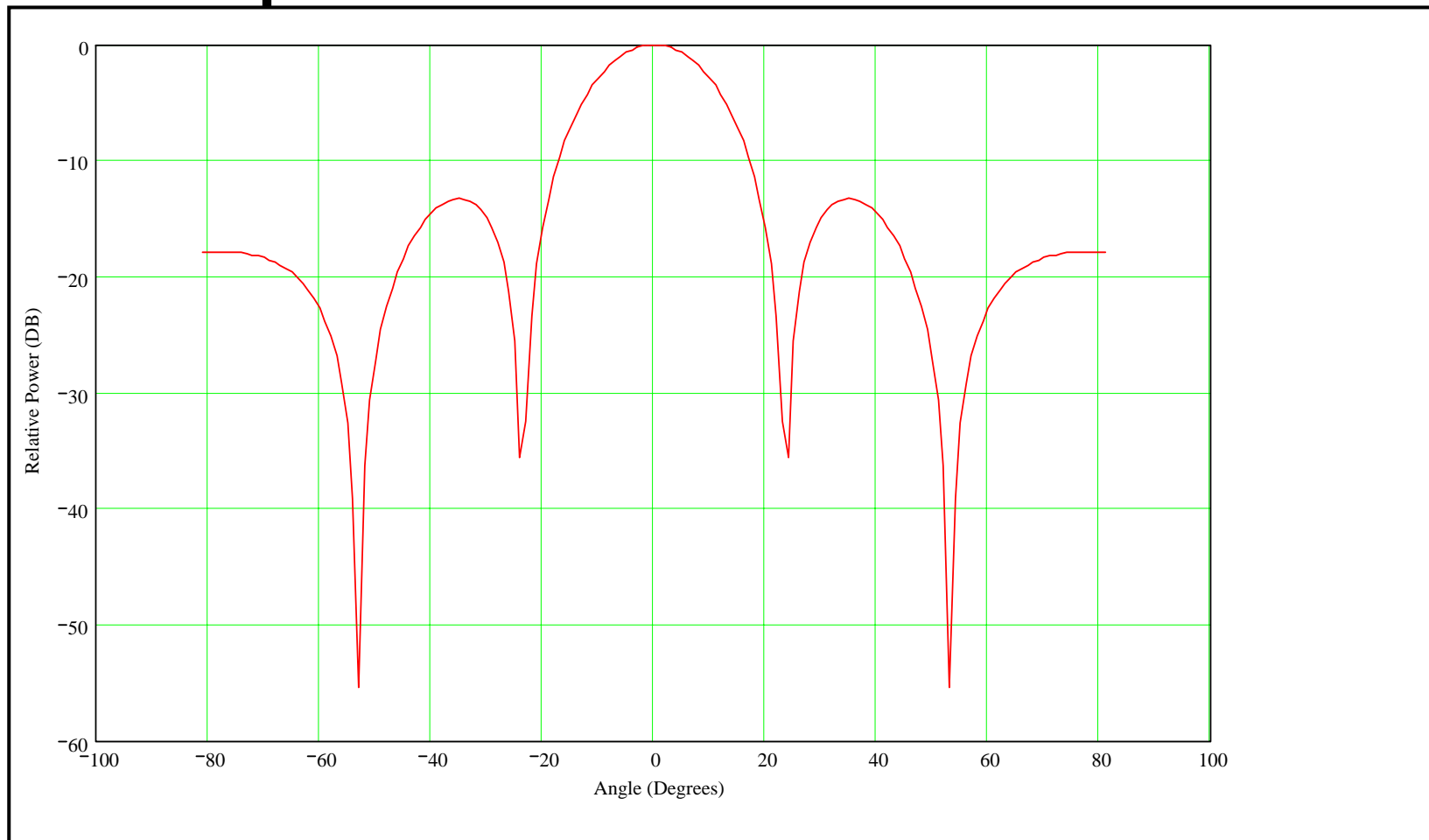
Pyramidal Horn Power Pattern



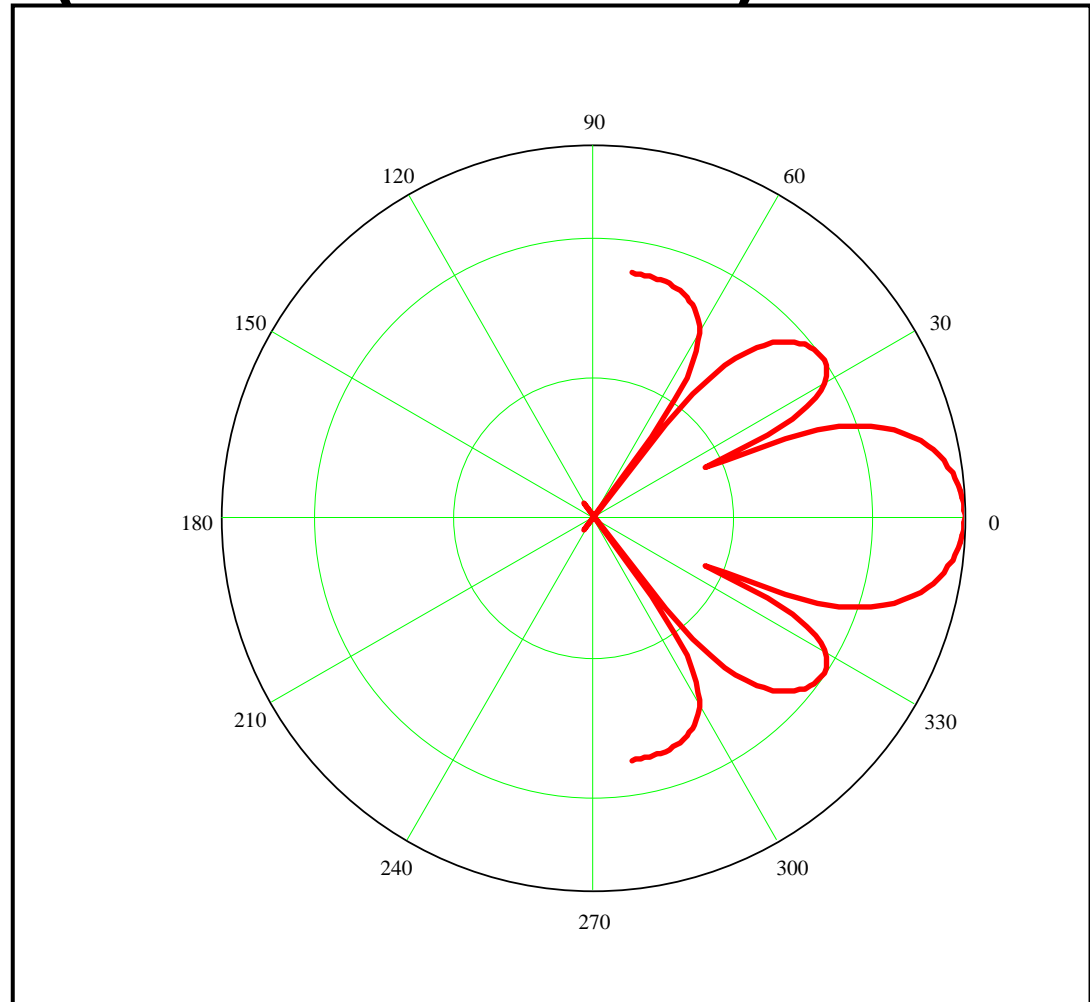
Pyramidal Horn Power Pattern



dB Equivalent



Polar Plot (dB or Linear)



Directivity

- Measure of how well an antenna concentrates, or directs, transmitted power.
- Also measure of antenna's receiving sensitivity.
- Correct definition is 3-D function over full sphere.
- Normally quote maximum radiation direction.

Directivity

- Radiated power density in a certain direction compared to power density of an isotropic radiator radiating same power.

$$D(\theta, \phi) = \frac{U(\theta, \phi)}{U_{average}}$$

- Relates directly to beamwidth
 - Higher Directivity gives a narrower beam

Directivity

- Can be related to the Normalised Electric Field Pattern (Max value = 1)

$$U(\theta, \phi) = U_{\max} |F(\theta, \phi)|^2$$

- Average Radiated Power Density

$$U_{\text{average}} = \frac{P_r}{4\pi} \quad W / \text{steradian}$$

Radiated Power

- Two ways of looking at it

$$P_r = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} U(\theta, \phi) d\Omega$$

- and, for an isotropic radiator

$$P_r = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} U_{average} d\Omega = 4\pi U_{average}$$

Directivity

- Picking from these equations

$$D(\theta, \phi) = \frac{U_{\max} |F(\theta, \phi)|^2 4\pi}{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} U(\theta, \phi) d\Omega}$$

- giving

$$D(\theta, \phi) = \frac{|F(\theta, \phi)|^2 4\pi}{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} |F(\theta, \phi)|^2 d\Omega} = \frac{4\pi}{\Omega_A}$$

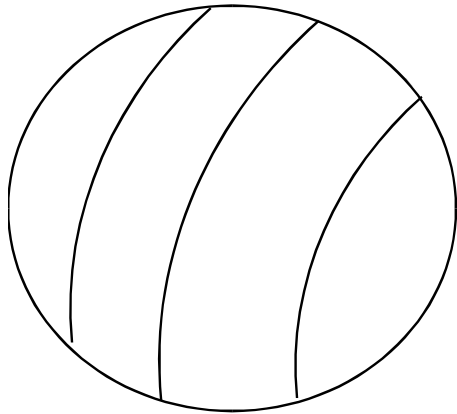
Directivity

- Antenna Directivity is maximum value of directive gain

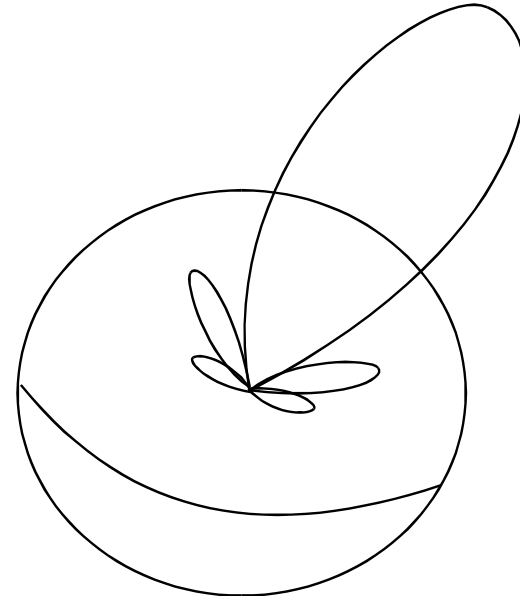
$$D = \max D(\theta, \phi) = \frac{4\pi}{\Omega_A}$$

- Derivation in notes or obtain by looking at previous equation
- Depends **directly** on beamwidth

Directivity



Isotropically Distributed
 $D = 1$

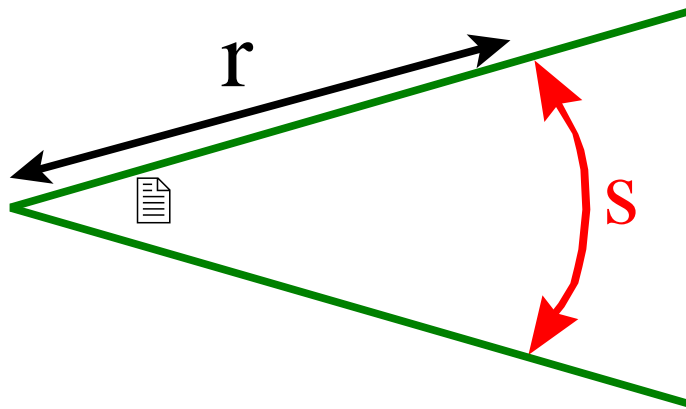


Radiation intensity from an
Actual Antenna

$$D = \frac{4\pi}{\Omega_A}$$

Solid Angle - 1

- In 2-D the angle in radians is given by the length of the arc cut off by the bounding lines of the angle
- $\theta = s/r$ radians



Solid Angle - 2

- In 3-D the solid angle is defined by a cone.
- Solid angle is given as the ratio of the surface area of the sphere cut-out by the cone
- $\omega = S/r^2$.

Gain

■ Why?

- Directivity is also known as directive gain
- Why use a second measure of the same thing?

■ Convenience

- Relates input power to transmitted power
- Shows how efficient the antenna is at transforming guided energy to transmitted energy

Gain

■ Definition

- 4π x ratio of radiation intensity in a given direction to the net power accepted by the antenna

$$G(\theta, \phi) = 4\pi \frac{U(\theta, \phi)}{P_{in}}$$

Losses

- There will be losses
- We define antenna efficiency as

$$e = \frac{P_r}{P_{in}}$$

- Substitute into Gain equation

$$G(\theta, \phi) = 4\pi \frac{U(\theta, \phi)}{P_r} e = \frac{U(\theta, \phi)}{U_{average}} e = eD(\theta, \phi)$$

Gain

- Maximum Power Gain $G=eD$
- G and D are dimensionless.
- Often quoted in dB
- Also quoted in dB relative to a Dipole (dBd) or Isotropic Radiator (dBi)
- Dipole Directivity
 - $D=1.5$
 - $D=1.76\text{dBi}$
 - $D=0\text{dBd}$

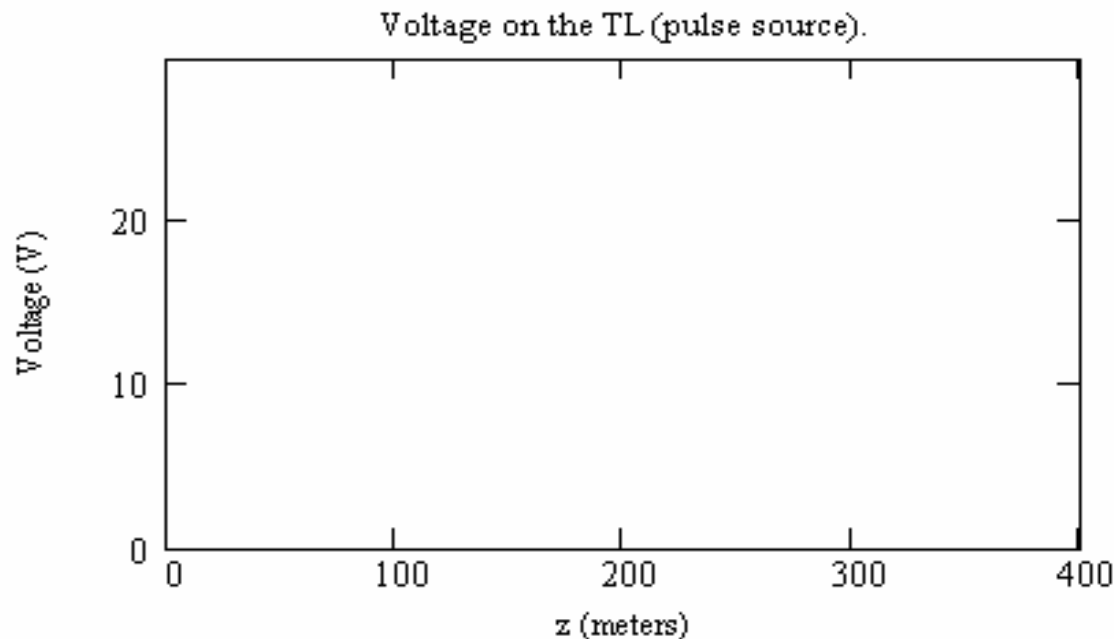
Antenna Losses

- Efficiency reduced by two loss sources
- Reflection at antenna input
- Ohmic losses in antenna
- Simulation on next slide
- 50Ω line with 60Ω load and 150Ω source resistance

Pulse on a Transmission Line

$$k := 1..nz + 1 \quad z_k := (k - 1) \cdot \frac{L}{nz} \quad \text{time} := \frac{\text{FRAME} \cdot (n_{\text{skip}} + 1) \cdot \Delta t}{10^{-6}}$$

Now generate an animation clip of the voltage on this TL. For best results, in the "Animate" dialog box choose $T_0 = 120$.



Reflection Loss

- Caused by reflection coefficient, Γ
 - Γ defined by line and load impedances
$$\Gamma = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0}$$
 - Γ gives ratio of reflected signal to incident signal – E, H, V or I.
 - It is not a power ratio
 - Square it to get the power ratio

Antenna Measurements

- Equations to date would allow measurement of
 - Antenna gain by two methods
 - Comparison
 - Summation of measured radiated powers
 - Efficiency
 - Compare measured output power to input power

Radiation Resistance

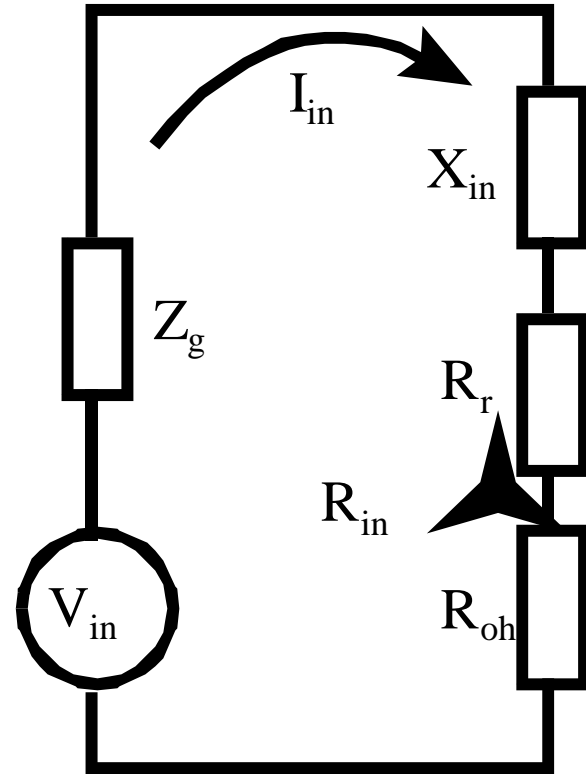
- Transmitting Antenna equivalent circuit

- Power dissipated

$$P_{in} = \frac{1}{2} |I_{in}|^2 R_{in} = P_r + P_{oh}$$

- Radiation Resistance

$$R_r = \frac{2P_r}{|I_{in}|^2} \quad \Omega$$



Effective Collecting Aperture

- Multiply Effective Aperture (A_e) by incident power density to get received power
- A_e is actual aperture multiplied by efficiency
- Used for aperture antennas
 - Horns
 - Patches

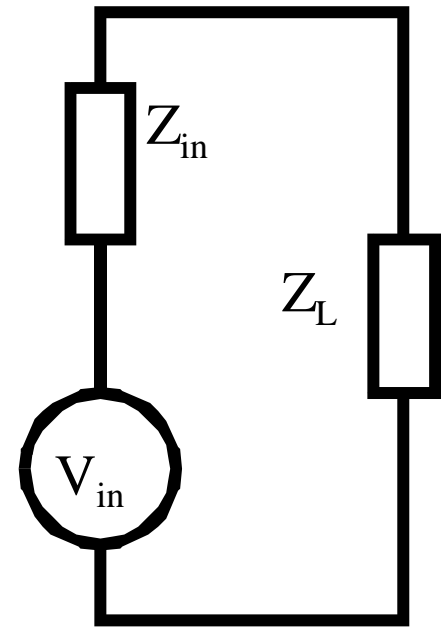
Effective Collecting Aperture

- Receiving Antenna Equivalent Circuit

$$P_r = \frac{1}{2} |I_{in}|^2 R_L$$

- Substitute for I

$$P_r = \frac{1}{2} R_L \frac{|V_{in}|^2}{(R_{in} + R_L)^2 (X_{in} + X_L)^2}$$



Maximum Power Transfer

$$R_{in} = R_L \quad X_{in} = -X_L$$

- Conjugate match
- Substitute this plus equation for Input Resistance

$$P_r = \frac{|V|^2}{8R_r}$$

- Assume zero losses

Effective Area

- Substitute into original equation

$$A_e = \frac{|V|^2}{8R_r P_v}$$

- As power density $P_v = \frac{|E|^2}{2\eta}$

$$A_e = \frac{\eta |V|^2}{4R_r |E|^2}$$

Effective Length

- Used for wire antennas with no real area
 - Received voltage for incident Field

$$l_e = \frac{V}{E}$$

- This gives

$$l_e = \sqrt{\frac{R_r A_e}{30\pi}} \quad m$$

Some Final Useful Equations

- Apertures of antennas

$$A_e(\theta, \phi) = D(\theta, \phi) \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi}$$

- So

$$eA_e(\theta, \phi) = G(\theta, \phi) \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi}$$

- for an aperture Antenna