# 1

# SCATTERING PARAMETERS AND ABCD MATRICES

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# 1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we recall the most important characterization techniques used in the design of microwave filters [1.1]. These consist of the scattering parameters, which are often based on electromagnetic analysis of the microwave structures, and the *ABCD* parameters, which are useful to make the link with two-port systems and have been studied exhaustively over the years. Several examples are presented to better understand the relations between the two formalisms. The bisection (or Bartlett) theorem is also reviewed and proves to be very useful in the case of symmetrical networks.

#### 1.2 SCATTERING MATRIX OF A TWO-PORT SYSTEM

#### 1.2.1 Definitions

The scattering matrix [1.2] of a two-port system provides relations between the input and output reflected waves  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  and the input and output incident waves  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  when the structure is to be connected to a source resistance  $R_G$  and a load resistance  $R_L$ , as depicted in Figure 1.1. The notion of waves rather than voltages and currents is better suited for microwave structures.

For a two-port system, the equations relating the incident and reflected waves and the *S* parameters are given by

$$b_1 = S_{11}a_1 + S_{12}a_2$$
  
$$b_2 = S_{21}a_1 + S_{22}a_2$$

These equations can be summarized in the matrix form (b) = (S)(a), where

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The parameter  $S_{11}$ , called the *input reflection coefficient*, can be computed by setting the output incident wave  $a_2$  to zero and taking the ratio of the input reflected wave over the input incident wave:

$$S_{11} = \left. \frac{b_1}{a_1} \right|_{a_2 = 0}$$

The output incident wave  $a_2$  is set to zero by connecting the output of the system to the reference resistor  $R_L$ . The parameter  $S_{11}$  provides a measure of how much of the input incident wave does not reach the output of the system and is reflected back at the input. For microwave filters, ideally,  $S_{11}$  should be equal to zero in the passband of the filter.

The parameter  $S_{21}$ , called the *forward transmission coefficient*, can be computed by setting the output incident wave  $a_2$  to zero and taking the ratio of the output reflected wave over the input incident wave:

$$S_{21} = \left. \frac{b_2}{a_1} \right|_{a_2 = 0}$$

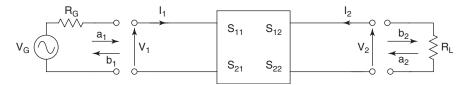


Figure 1.1 Notation used in defining the scattering matrix of a two-port system.

The output incident wave  $a_2$  is set to zero by connecting the output to the reference resistor  $R_L$ . The parameter  $S_{21}$  provides a measure of how much of the input incident wave reaches the output of the system. For microwave filters, ideally,  $S_{21}$  should be equal to 1 in the passband of the filter.

The parameter  $S_{22}$ , called the *reflection coefficient at the output of the system*, can be computed by setting the input incident wave  $a_1$  to zero and taking the ratio of the output reflected wave over the output incident wave:

$$S_{22} = \frac{b_2}{a_2} \Big|_{a_1 = 0}$$

The input incident wave  $a_1$  is set to zero by connecting the input of the system to the reference resistor  $R_G$ . As in the case of  $S_{11}$ , it is desirable that  $S_{22}$  be kept close to zero in the passband of the filter.  $S_{11}$  and  $S_{22}$  provide a measure of how well the system impedances are matched to the reference terminations.

The parameter  $S_{12}$ , called the *reverse transmission coefficient*, can be computed by setting the input incident wave  $a_1$  to zero and taking the ratio of the input reflected wave over the output incident wave:

$$S_{12} = \left. \frac{b_1}{a_2} \right|_{a_1 = 0}$$

The input incident wave  $a_1$  is set to zero by connecting the input of the system to the reference resistor  $R_G$ . The parameter  $S_{12}$  provides a measure of how much of an incident wave set at the output of the system would reach the input. Due to symmetries in the system,  $S_{21}$  and  $S_{12}$  can have similar values. Since there are no generators at the output of the system, an output incident wave could appear due to a poor  $S_{22}$ .

The scattering parameters can be illustrated using a graph, as shown in Figure 1.2. The graph shows that part of the incident wave  $a_1$  results in a reflected wave  $b_1$  through the parameter  $S_{11}$ , and in a transmitted wave  $b_1$  through the parameter  $S_{21}$ . Similar descriptions can be given for  $a_2$  and the parameters  $S_{22}$  and  $S_{12}$ . It is always important to remember that the S-parameter values are associated with a given set of termination values. Changing the termination values will change the S-parameter values.

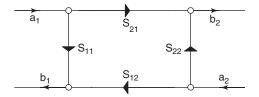


Figure 1.2 Graph of a two-port scattering matrix.

# 1.2.2 Computing the S Parameters

A common example of a scattering matrix in microwave is that of a waveguide of length  $l_0$  and characteristic impedance  $Z_0$ , as shown in Figure 1.3. When the structure is to be connected to a source and load resistance equal to the characteristic impedance of the waveguide, the scattering matrix is given by

$$(S) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & e^{-j\beta l_0} \\ e^{-j\beta l_0} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

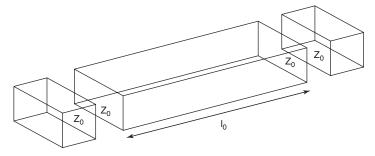
where  $j\beta$  is the propagation function of a given mode above the cutoff frequency of the waveguide. This matrix tells us that the structure will be perfectly matched to the terminations since  $S_{11}$  and  $S_{22}$  are equal to zero. It also tells us that  $b_1$  the wave transmitted, will simply be a delayed version of  $a_1$ , the incident wave, since the forward transmission coefficient,  $S_{21}$ , has a magnitude of 1 and a linear phase of  $-\beta l_0$ , and the longer the length, the longer the delay. Since we cannot differentiate one end of a waveguide from the other, we would have similar results if connecting the source to the output and the load to the input (e.g.,  $S_{12} = S_{21}$ ).

As will be seen, microwave structures will at times have discontinuities that result in the apparition of "scattered" and unwanted electromagnetic fields. For these cases, matching the electromagnetic fields on each side of the discontinuity will provide relations that can be used for defining the scattering parameters of the discontinuity. In that case, the scattering parameters will be defined directly from electromagnetic wave equations. It should be noted, however, that scattering parameters are not limited to microwave structures and electromagnetic field equations.

The incident and reflected waves can be expressed in terms of voltages and currents, as shown in Figure 1.1.

$$a_1 = \frac{V_1 + R_G I_1}{2\sqrt{R_G}} \qquad a_2 = \frac{V_2 + R_L I_2}{2\sqrt{R_L}}$$

$$b_1 = \frac{V_1 - R_G I_1}{2\sqrt{R_G}} \qquad b_2 = \frac{V_2 - R_L I_2}{2\sqrt{R_L}}$$



**Figure 1.3** Waveguide of length  $l_0$  and characteristic impedance  $Z_0$ .

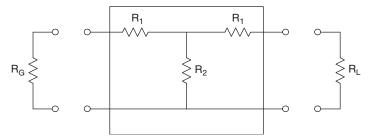


Figure 1.4 Defining the scattering parameters of a resistive two-port system.

For example, the scattering parameters of the resistive two-port system in Figure 1.4 can be defined from these voltages and currents.

The input reflection coefficient  $S_{11}$  is defined from the input incident and reflected waves when the system is connected to the reference resistor  $R_L$ , as shown in Figure 1.5. Also shown in the figure, the system connected to resistor  $R_L$  can be modeled as  $Z_{\rm in}$ , an input impedance of the system. In this case,  $V_1 = Z_{\rm in} I_1$  and  $S_{11}$  is given by

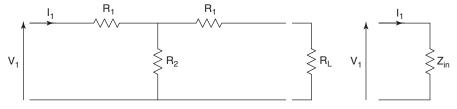
$$S_{11} = \frac{V_1 - R_G I_1}{V_1 + R_G I_1} = \frac{Z_{\text{in}} I_1 - R_G I_1}{Z_{\text{in}} I_1 + R_G I_1} = \frac{Z_{\text{in}} - R_G}{Z_{\text{in}} + R_G}$$

This gives  $Z_{\text{in}} = R_1 + R_2 || (R_1 + R_L)$  for the input impedance of the system. For  $S_{11}$  to be equal to zero, the input impedance  $Z_{\text{in}}$  should be equal to the source resistor  $R_G$ .

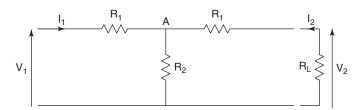
The forward transmission coefficient  $S_{21}$  is defined from the input incident wave and output reflected wave when the system is connected to the reference resistor  $R_L$ , as shown in Figure 1.6. Replacing the incident and reflected waves by their voltage and current expressions,  $S_{21}$  is given by

$$S_{21} = \sqrt{\frac{R_G}{R_L}} \frac{V_2 - R_L I_2}{V_1 + R_G I_1}$$

Also from the computations of  $S_{11}$ ,  $V_1 = Z_{in}I_1$  when the system is connected to  $R_L$ . From Figure 1.6 it is also seen that  $V_2 = -R_LI_2$ . Therefore,  $S_{21}$  will be



**Figure 1.5** Defining the input reflection coefficient  $S_{11}$ .



**Figure 1.6** Defining the forward transmission coefficient  $S_{21}$ .

given by

$$S_{21} = \sqrt{\frac{R_G}{R_L}} \frac{V_2 - (-V_2)}{V_1 + (R_G/Z_{\text{in}})V_1} = 2\sqrt{\frac{R_G}{R_L}} \frac{1}{1 + R_G/Z_{\text{in}}} \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

Note that in the case where  $Z_{in} = R_G$  (input impedance matching) and  $R_G = R_L$  (similar source and load terminations), the forward coefficient reduces to

$$S_{21} = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

In Figure 1.6,

$$V_2 = \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_1} V_A$$
 and  $V_A = \frac{R}{R + R_1} V_1$ 

where  $R = R_2 ||(R_1 + R_L)$ , so that

$$V_2 = \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_1} \frac{R}{R + R_1} V_1$$

and a general expression for  $S_{21}$  is given by

$$S_{21} = 2\sqrt{\frac{R_G}{R_L}} \frac{1}{1 + R_G/Z_{\text{in}}} \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_1} \frac{R}{R + R_1}$$

The  $S_{22}$  and  $S_{12}$  parameters can be defined using a similar process, where the input is now connected to the reference resistor  $R_G$ . In the resistive example above, the S parameters are independent of frequency since the impedances of the resistors are independent of frequency. However, the results can be used to define the S parameters of a more general case, as shown in Figure 1.7. The input reflection coefficient  $S_{11}$  will now be a function of the impedances of the system and therefore depend on the frequency of application through the Laplace variable s:

$$S_{11}(s) = \frac{Z_{\text{in}}(s) - R_G}{Z_{\text{in}}(s) + R_G}$$

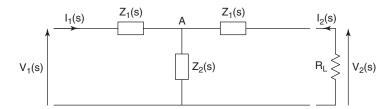


Figure 1.7 Defining the scattering parameters of a general two-port system.

where the input impedance  $Z_{in}(s)$  is given by  $Z_{in}(s) = Z_1(s) + Z_2(s)||[Z_1(s) + R_L]||$ 

The forward transmission coefficient  $S_{21}$  will also depend on the frequency of operation and is given by

$$S_{21}(s) = 2\sqrt{\frac{R_G}{R_L}} \frac{1}{1 + R_G/Z_{\text{in}}(s)} \frac{R_L}{R_L + Z_1(s)} \frac{Z(s)}{Z(s) + Z_1(s)}$$

where the impedance  $Z(s) = Z_2(s) || [Z_1(s) + R_L]$ . This means that the S parameters will generally have different values depending on the frequency at which they are being evaluated. In the case of a microwave filter, ideally,  $S_{21}(f)$  should be equal to 1 at the frequencies of the passband of the filter and be equal to zero at the frequencies of the stopband of the filter. Similarly,  $S_{11}(f)$  should be equal to zero at the frequencies of the passband of the filter and be equal to 1 at the frequencies of the stopband of the filter. Figure 1.8 shows the forward transmission coefficient  $S_{21}$  and the input reflection coefficient  $S_{11}$  versus frequency for a fifth-order Chebyshev filter with passband edges at 10 and 11 GHz and specified a -20-dB return loss.

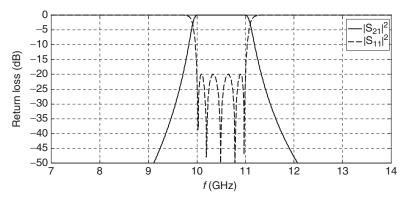


Figure 1.8 Frequency dependence of the scattering parameters.

#### 1.2.3 S-Parameter Properties

Depending on the properties of the *S* parameters, the structures can be classified into the following categories:

• *Reciprocity*. A two-port system is said to be *reciprocal* if the *S* matrix is equal to its transpose:

$$(S) = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix} = (S)^{\mathrm{T}} = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{21} \\ S_{12} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

In other words, the forward transmission coefficient and the reverse transmission coefficient are equal (e.g.,  $S_{21} = S_{12}$ ).

- Symmetry. A two-port system is said to be symmetrical if in addition to the reciprocity, the input and output reflection coefficients are identical (e.g.,  $S_{11} = S_{22}$ ), and antisymmetrical if they are opposite in sign (e.g.,  $S_{11} = -S_{22}$ ).
- *Lossless*. A two-port system is said to be *lossless* if power is conserved. In this case the complex conjugate of the *S* matrix is equal to its transpose:

$$(S)^* = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11}^* & S_{12}^* \\ S_{21}^* & S_{22}^* \end{pmatrix} = (S)^{\mathrm{T}} = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{21} \\ S_{12} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

In the case of lossless structures, additional relations exist between the transmission and reflection coefficients:

$$|S_{11}|^2 + |S_{12}|^2 = 1$$
  

$$|S_{21}|^2 + |S_{22}|^2 = 1$$
  

$$S_{11}S_{21}^* + S_{22}^*S_{12} = 0$$

In the case of a lossless and reciprocal two-port system, the input reflection coefficient and the forward transmission coefficient are such that  $|S_{11}|^2 = 1 - |S_{21}|^2$ . An example of this is shown in Figure 1.8. Additional results concerning lossless systems are given in Appendix 1.

#### 1.3 ABCD MATRIX OF A TWO-PORT SYSTEM

There are several benefits of using the *ABCD* matrix representation when designing microwave filters [1.3,1.4]. They allow simulating entire structures made of a cascade of lumped elements, such as capacitors, inductors, and transformers. Lumped ladder structures are available in the literature for providing specified filtering responses. In addition, *S* parameters can be converted to *ABCD* parameters, and vice versa. When analyzing a microwave structure element, it is easier to

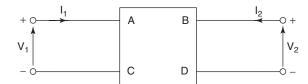


Figure 1.9 Notation used in defining the ABCD matrix of a two-port system.

model the element as a combination of lumped elements rather than interpreting the *S* parameters directly.

The ABCD matrix of a two-port is defined using voltages and currents as shown in Figure 1.9. The ACBD matrix is defined by

$$V_1 = AV_2 + B(-I_2)$$
  
 $I_1 = CV_2 + D(-I_2)$ 

In matrix form this provides the relation

$$\begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_2 \\ (-I_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

The ABCD matrices of some of the most basic elements found in microwave structures are described next.

### 1.3.1 ABCD Matrix of Basic Elements

A common element found in many microwave filter design problems consists of a single impedance Z placed in series, as shown in Figure 1.10. The equations and the ABCD matrix of a series impedance are

$$I_1 = (-I_2)$$

$$V_1 = V_2 + Z(-I_2)$$
 or 
$$\begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & Z \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_2 \\ (-I_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

Another common element consists of an admittance Y placed in parallel, as shown in Figure 1.11. The equations and ABCD matrix of a parallel admittance are

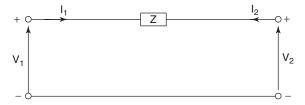


Figure 1.10 ABCD matrix of a series impedance.

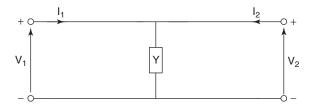


Figure 1.11 ABCD matrix of a parallel admittance.

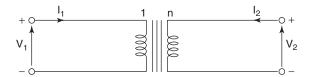


Figure 1.12 ABCD matrix of an ideal transformer.

$$V_1 = V_2$$
 or  $\begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ Y & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_2 \\ (-I_2) \end{pmatrix}$ 

Another common element encountered in microwave systems is the ideal transformer shown in Figure 1.12. The equations and *ABCD* matrix of the ideal transformer are

$$V_2 = nV_1$$

$$(-I_2) = \frac{I_1}{n} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{n} & 0 \\ 0 & n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_2 \\ (-I_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

#### 1.3.2 Cascade and Multiplication Property

One of the main advantages of the *ABCD* representation is that the *ABCD* matrix of a system made of the cascade of two systems, as shown in Figure 1.13, is equal to the multiplication of the individual *ABCD* matrices. The equations of this system are given by

$$V_1 = A_1 V_2 + B_1(-I_2)$$
 and  $V'_1 = A_2 V'_2 + B_2(-I'_2)$   
 $I_1 = C_1 V_2 + D_1(-I_2)$   $I'_1 = C_2 V'_2 + D_2(-I'_2)$ 

but since  $V_2 = V_1'$  and  $(-I_2) = I_1'$  we have

$$\begin{cases} V_1 = A_1(A_2V_2' + B_2(-I_2')) + B_1(C_2V_2' + D_2(-I_2')) \\ = (A_1A_2 + B_1C_2)V_2' + (A_1B_2 + B_1D_2)(-I_2') \\ I_1 = C_1(A_2V_2' + B_2(-I_2')) + D_1(C_2V_2' + D_2(-I_2')) \\ = (C_1A_2 + D_1C_2)V_2' + (C_1B_2 + D_1D_2)(-I_2') \end{cases}$$

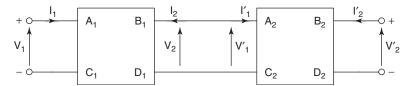


Figure 1.13 Cascade of two ABCD systems.

On the other side, if we multiply the ABCD matrices, we find that

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & B_1 \\ C_1 & D_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_2 & B_2 \\ C_2 & D_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 A_2 + B_1 C_2 & A_1 B_2 + B_1 D_2 \\ C_1 A_2 + D_1 C_2 & C_1 B_2 + D_1 D_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since both techniques provide the same answers, in the future the *ABCD* matrix of the cascade of two systems will be given by multiplication of their *ABCD* matrices. This is very powerful since it will be easier to define individual *ABCD* matrices of a microwave structure and then multiply these matrices for simulating the entire structure.

**Application to a T Network** A T network is often described as three impedances forming a structure that looks like a T, as shown in Figure 1.14. In this case the ABCD matrix is given by the multiplication of three ABCD matrices (impedance  $Z_1$ , admittance  $1/Z_2$ , and impedance  $Z_3$ ):

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & Z_1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{Z_2} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & Z_3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{Z_1}{Z_2} & Z_1 + Z_3 + \frac{Z_1 Z_3}{Z_2} \\ \frac{1}{Z_2} & 1 + \frac{Z_3}{Z_2} \end{pmatrix}$$

**Application to a \Pi Network** A  $\Pi$  network is often described as three admittances forming a structure that looks like a  $\Pi$ , as shown in Figure 1.15. In this case, the *ABCD* matrix is given by the multiplication of three *ABCD* matrices

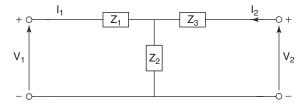
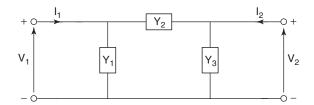


Figure 1.14 T network.



**Figure 1.15** Π network.

(admittance  $Y_1$ , impedance  $1/Y_2$ , and admittance  $Y_3$ ):

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ Y_1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{Y_2} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ Y_3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{Y_3}{Y_2} & \frac{1}{Y_2} \\ Y_1 + Y_3 + \frac{Y_1 Y_3}{Y_2} & 1 + \frac{Y_1}{Y_2} \end{pmatrix}$$

# 1.3.3 Input Impedence of a Loaded Two-Port

When a two-port is connected to a load  $Z_L(s)$  as shown in Figure 1.16, the output voltage  $V_2$  and current  $I_2$  will be such that  $V_2 = Z_L(-I_2)$ . The *ABCD* equations then become

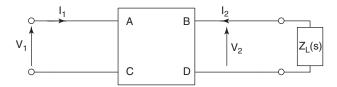
$$V_1 = AV_2 + B(-I_2) = AZ_L(-I_2) + B(-I_2)$$
  
 $I_1 = CV_2 + D(-I_2) = CZ_L(-I_2) + D(-I_2)$ 

from which it is straightforward to extract the input impedance of the two-port network:

$$Z_{\rm in} = \left. \frac{V_1}{I_1} \right|_{Z_L} = \frac{AZ_L + B}{CZ_L + D}$$

# 1.3.4 Impedance and Admittance Inverters

An *impedance inverter* is a two-port network that can provide an input impedance that is the inverse of the load impedance. This property is illustrated in



**Figure 1.16** Two-port terminated on a load impedance  $Z_L(s)$ .

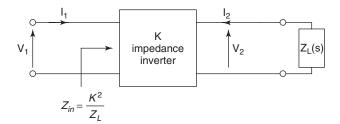


Figure 1.17 Impedance inverter principles.

Figure 1.17. An ideal impedance inverter will have an ABCD matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_2 \\ (-I_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

The input impedance of the two-port network when connected to a load impedance  $Z_L(s)$  will be given by

$$Z_{\text{in}} = \frac{V_1}{I_1}\Big|_{Z_I} = \frac{AZ_L + B}{CZ_L + D} = \frac{0Z_L + jK}{(j/K)Z_L + 0} = \frac{K^2}{Z_L}$$

An *admittance inverter* is a two-port network that can provide an input admittance that is the inverse of the load admittance. This property is illustrated in Figure 1.18. An *ideal admittance inverter* will have an *ABCD* matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ I_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{j}{J} \\ jJ & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_2 \\ (-I_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

The input admittance of the two-port network when connected to a load admittance  $Y_L(s)$  will be given by

$$Y_{\text{in}} = \frac{I_1}{V_1}\Big|_{Y_I} = \frac{CV_2 + DY_LV_2}{AV_2 + BY_LV_2} = \frac{C + DY_L}{A + BY_L} = \frac{jJ + 0Y_L}{0 + (j/J)Y_L} = \frac{J^2}{Y_L}$$

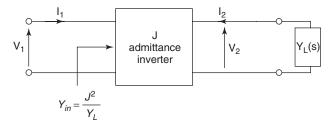


Figure 1.18 Admittance inverter principles.

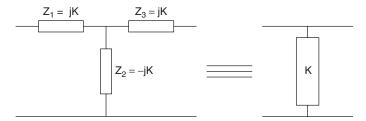


Figure 1.19 Realization of an ideal impedance inverter.

An ideal impedance inverter can be realized as a T network, as shown in Figure 1.19. This is shown by checking that the *ABCD* matrix of the T network, when  $Z_1 = Z_3 = jK$  and  $Z_2 = -jK$  is that of an impedance inverter:

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{Z_1}{Z_2} & Z_1 + Z_3 + \frac{Z_1 Z_3}{Z_2} \\ \frac{1}{Z_2} & 1 + \frac{Z_3}{Z_2} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{jK}{-jK} & jK + jK + \frac{(jK)(jK)}{-jK} \\ \frac{1}{-jK} & 1 + \frac{jK}{-JK} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

An ideal admittance inverter can be constructed using the  $\Pi$  network of Figure 1.20. This is shown by checking that the *ABCD* matrix of a  $\Pi$  network when  $Y_1 = Y_3 = jJ$  and  $Y_2 = -jJ$  is that of an admittance inverter:

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{Y_3}{Y_2} & \frac{1}{Y_2} \\ Y_1 + Y_3 + \frac{Y_1 Y_3}{Y_2} & 1 + \frac{Y_1}{Y_2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{jJ}{-jJ} & \frac{1}{-jJ} \\ jJ + jJ + \frac{(jJ)(jJ)}{-jJ} & 1 + \frac{jJ}{-jJ} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{j}{J} \\ jJ & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

An impedance inverter can be approximated using two identical inductors and a capacitor as shown in Figure 1.21. The *ABCD* matrix of this T network is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - LC\omega^2 & jL\omega(2 - LC\omega^2) \\ jC\omega & 1 - LC\omega^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

At the frequency  $\omega_0$  where  $LC\omega_0^2 = 1$ , this T network behaves as an ideal impedance inverter  $K = L\omega_0$ .

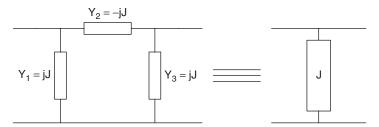


Figure 1.20 Realization of an ideal admittance inverter.

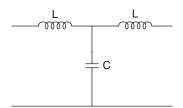


Figure 1.21 Approximate realization of an impedance inverter.

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \Big|_{\omega = \omega_0} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & jL\omega_0 \\ \frac{j}{L\omega_0} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

As will be seen in the filter design chapters, one will often represent a microwave structure as an equivalent circuit based on impedance or admittance inverters. In some cases it will be possible to greatly reduce or even remove the frequency dependence of the inverter. For other cases, the ideal inverter behavior can only be assumed around the center frequency of the filter (narrowband designs).

#### 1.3.5 ABCD-Parameter Properties

Depending on the properties of the *ABCD* matrix, the structures can be classified into the following categories:

• *Reciprocal*. In this case, the determinant of the ABCD matrix is equal to unity:

$$AD - BC = 1$$

• Symmetrical. In this case, the parameters A and D are equal:

$$A = D$$

# 1.4 CONVERSION FROM FORMULATION S TO ABCD AND ABCD TO S

The *ABCD* matrix can be defined from the *S* parameters and termination conditions using the following conversion equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{R_G}{R_L}} \frac{(1+S_{11})(1-S_{22}) + S_{21}S_{12}}{2S_{21}} & \sqrt{R_GR_L} \frac{(1+S_{11})(1+S_{22}) - S_{21}S_{12}}{2S_{21}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{R_GR_L}} \frac{(1-S_{11})(1-S_{22}) - S_{21}S_{12}}{2S_{21}} & \sqrt{\frac{R_L}{R_G}} \frac{(1-S_{11})(1+S_{22}) + S_{21}S_{12}}{2S_{21}} \end{pmatrix}$$

The *S* matrix can be defined from the *ABCD* parameters and termination conditions using the following conversion equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
S_{11} & S_{12} \\
S_{21} & S_{22}
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{AR_L + B - CR_GR_L - DR_G}{AR_L + B + CR_GR_L + DR_G} & \frac{2\sqrt{R_GR_L}(AD - BC)}{AR_L + B + CR_GR_L + DR_G} \\
\frac{2\sqrt{R_GR_L}}{AR_L + B + CR_GR_L + DR_G} & \frac{-AR_L + B - CR_GR_L + DR_G}{AR_L + B + CR_GR_L + DR_G}
\end{pmatrix}$$

From these definitions it is possible to check the effects of adding redundant elements such as impedance inverters at the input and output of a system on the scattering parameters. This is done in Appendix 2.

#### 1.5 BISECTION THEOREM FOR SYMMETRICAL NETWORKS

When a network is symmetrical, it can be modeled as the cascade of a half network and a reverse half network, as shown in Figure 1.22. In this case, the *ABCD* matrix of the symmetrical network is given by the product of the half network matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & B_1 \\ C_1 & D_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} D_1 & B_1 \\ C_1 & A_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 D_1 + B_1 C_1 & 2A_1 B_1 \\ 2C_1 D_1 & A_1 D_1 + B_1 C_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

This matrix corresponds to a symmetrical network since A = D. Furthermore, the symmetrical network is reciprocal [e.g.,  $AD - BC = (A_1D_1 - B_1C_1)^2 = 1$ ] when the half network is reciprocal [e.g.,  $A_1D_1 - B_1C_1 = 1$ ].

If we define the even-mode input impedance of the half network  $Z_e$  as

$$Z_e = \frac{V_1}{I_1} \Big|_{\text{half-circuit open}} = \frac{A_1 \times \infty + B_1}{C_1 \times \infty + D_1} = \frac{A_1}{C_1}$$

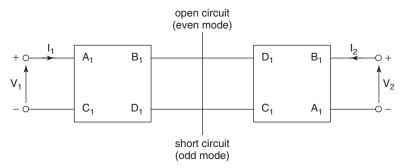


Figure 1.22 Decomposition of a symmetrical network.

and the odd-mode input impedance of the half network  $Z_o$  as

$$Z_o = \frac{V_1}{I_1}\bigg|_{\text{half-circuit shorted}} = \frac{A_1 \times 0 + B_1}{C_1 \times 0 + D_1} = \frac{B_1}{D_1}$$

then for a reciprocal network (e.g.,  $A_1D_1 - B_1C_1 = 1$ ), the matrix of a symmetrical network can be expressed as

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{Z_e - Z_o} \begin{pmatrix} Z_e + Z_o & 2Z_e Z_o \\ 2 & Z_e + Z_o \end{pmatrix}$$

Using the conversion formulas from ABCD to S parameters, the S matrix of a symmetrical and a reciprocal network can be represented as

$$\begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2(Z_e Z_o - R_G R_L)}{-(Z_e + Z_o)(R_G - R_L)} & \frac{2\sqrt{R_G R_L}(Z_e - Z_o)}{2(Z_e + R_G)(Z_o + R_L)} \\ +(Z_e - Z_o)(R_G - R_L) & +(Z_e - Z_o)(R_G - R_L) \\ \frac{2\sqrt{R_G R_L}(Z_e - Z_o)}{2(Z_e + R_G)(Z_o + R_L)} & \frac{2(Z_e Z_o - R_G R_L)}{+(Z_e + Z_o)(R_G - R_L)} \\ +(Z_e - Z_o)(R_G - R_L) & +(Z_e + Z_o)(R_G - R_L) \\ +(Z_e - Z_o)(R_G - R_L) & +(Z_e - Z_o)(R_G - R_L) \end{pmatrix}$$

When the terminations are equal,  $R_G = R_L = R_0$ , and using the normalized even and odd input impedances  $z_e = Z_e/R_0$  and  $z_o = Z_o/R_0$ , the S matrix reduces to

$$\begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{z_e z_o - 1}{(z_e + 1)(z_o + 1)} & \frac{z_e - z_o}{(z_e + 1)(z_o + 1)} \\ \frac{z_e - z_o}{(z_e + 1)(z_o + 1)} & \frac{z_e z_o - 1}{(z_e + 1)(z_o + 1)} \end{pmatrix}$$

In addition, if we note that

$$S_{21} = S_{12} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{z_e - 1}{z_e + 1} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{z_o - 1}{z_o + 1} = \frac{1}{2} (S_{11e} - S_{11o})$$

$$S_{22} = S_{11} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{z_e - 1}{z_e + 1} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{z_o - 1}{z_o + 1} = \frac{1}{2} (S_{11e} + S_{11o})$$

the *S* parameters of a symmetrical network can be expressed in terms of the input reflection coefficient of the half network under open or shorted conditions:

$$\begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} S_{11e} + S_{11o} & S_{11e} - S_{11o} \\ S_{11e} - S_{11o} & S_{11e} + S_{11o} \end{pmatrix}$$

Similar formulations can be found using normalized even and odd input admittances  $y_e = 1/z_e$  and  $y_o = 1/z_o$ .

The bisection theorem will be used in the case of symmetrical networks. Often, these networks will be composed of impedance or admittance inverters. The half network and even- and odd-mode impedances of an impedance inverter are given below.

In the case of an ideal impedance inverter K, the ABCD matrix can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 1 \end{pmatrix}^2$$

The half network of an impedance inverter K and its reverse half network can then be given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & B_1 \\ C_1 & D_1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} D_1 & B_1 \\ C_1 & A_1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

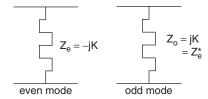
We can check that the product of *ABCD* matrices of the half networks provides the *ABCD* matrix of the ideal inverter:

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & B_1 \\ C_1 & D_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} D_1 & B_1 \\ C_1 & A_1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} (1)(1) + (jK) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{j}{K} \end{pmatrix} & (1)(jK) + (jK)(1) \\ \left(\frac{j}{K}\right)(1) + (1) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{j}{K} \end{pmatrix} & \left(\frac{j}{K}\right)(jK) + (1)(1) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & jK \\ \frac{j}{K} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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**Figure 1.23** Even- and odd-mode models of an impedance inverter *K*.

The even-mode input impedance of the half network is given by  $Z_e = A_1/C_1 = -jK$ , and the odd-mode input impedance of the half network is given by  $Z_o = B_1/D_1 = +jK$ . The even- and odd-mode models of an impedance inverter are shown in Figure 1.23. For an admittance inverter J it can be shown that the even-mode input admittance of the half network is given by  $Y_e = 1/Z_e = jJ$  and the odd-mode input admittance is given by  $Y_o = Y_e^* = -jJ$ .

# 1.6 CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter we recalled some of the fundamental relations for scattering and *ABCD* characterizations of two-port systems. We have also introduced the notion of impedance and admittance inverters, which are not easily realized using lumped elements but will be key in designing microwave filters. The bisection theorem has introduced the concept of even and odd modes that can be used to reduce the complexity of microwave filter design [1.5].

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