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Ultra-Wideband Microstrip Antenna for Body Centric Communications

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Capacitance Extraction for Microstrip Lines Using Conformal Technique Based on Finite-Difference Method

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Abstract — In this paper, a novel method using conformal technique of finite-difference method (FDM) is proposed to capacitance extraction of microstrip lines. Instead of deriving the average dielectric constant $\varepsilon$, this method uses electric field numerical weights to process the inhomogeneous cells, and takes the discontinuous effects of both inhomogeneous Ampere cell and Faraday cell into account. Besides, a new boundary condition is proposed, where the cells obeying exponential distribution are added at boundary. The new method shows good agreement with the measurement and traditional methods.

Index Terms — Capacitance extraction, conformal technique, finite-difference method (FDM).

I. INTRODUCTION

Finite-difference method (FDM) has been widely used to solve variable electromagnetic problems, especially the extraction of distributed parameters [1-3]. When solving the capacitance parameter of microstrip lines, the cells divided from the electromagnetic space can be inhomogeneous, and the dielectric constants in one cell are not unique. Thus, the difference equations cannot be used directly. The general methods solving this problem are equivalent dielectric constant techniques [4-5]. They derive the average dielectric constants according to the relationships of cell loop’s volume, area and length, but have neglected the inhomogeneous Faraday and Ampere cells. So a new conformal technique is proposed in this paper, which uses the electric field numerical weights to process inhomogeneous cells, and takes discontinuous effects of Ampere and Faraday cells into account.

Besides, when FDM is used to solve the open structures, boundary conditions are required to terminate the calculation space. Generally, there are two kinds of boundary conditions. One is absorbing boundary condition (ABC) according to the traveling wave equation [6], [7]. The other is perfectly matched layer (PML) based on the absorbing media [8]. ABC requires much less computation and memory than PML, but it may cause higher reflection and larger error. Hence, a new boundary condition is proposed, which cells obeying exponential distribution are added at the boundary. Finally, the proposed conformal technique and new boundary condition are verified by calculation.

II. FORMULATION

A. The iteration equation of FDM

The Gauss law can be represented as:

$$ q = \int_D \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s}, \tag{1} $$

where $q$ is the total electric charge on the surface of the conductor, and $\vec{D}$ is the electric displacement vector which can be represented as $\vec{D} = \varepsilon \vec{E}$. Electric field intensity $\vec{E}$ can be represented by potential $\Phi$ as $\vec{E} = -\nabla \Phi$. The capacitance solving model is a dual regional structure whose dielectric constants are $\varepsilon_1$ and $\varepsilon_2$. So the spatial difference equations of $\vec{E} = -\nabla \Phi$ in these two regions can be described:

$$ E_i[(i + \frac{1}{2})\Delta x, j\Delta y] = -\frac{\Phi[(i + 1)\Delta x, j\Delta y] - \Phi(i\Delta x, j\Delta y)}{\Delta x}, \tag{2} $$

$$ E_i[i\Delta x, (j + \frac{1}{2})\Delta y] = -\frac{\Phi[i\Delta x, (j + 1)\Delta y] - \Phi(i\Delta x, j\Delta y)}{\Delta y}. \tag{3} $$

where $i$ and $j$ are any positive integers, $\Delta x$ and $\Delta y$ are the step size in $x$ and $y$ direction. So the divergence of electric displacement vector can be derived as:

$$ \nabla \cdot \vec{D}(i\Delta x, j\Delta y) = -\varepsilon_i \Phi[(i + 1)\Delta x, j\Delta y] + \Phi[(i - 1)\Delta x, j\Delta y] - 2\Phi(i\Delta x, j\Delta y) - \varepsilon_2 \frac{\Phi[i\Delta x, (j - 1)\Delta y] - 2\Phi[i\Delta x, j\Delta y] + \Phi[i\Delta x, (j + 1)\Delta y]}{(\Delta y)^2}. \tag{4} $$

If $\varepsilon_i = \varepsilon_2$ and $\Delta x = \Delta y$, according to Laplace equation: $\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = 0$, (4) can be simplified as follows:

$$ \Phi(i\Delta x, j\Delta y) = \frac{1}{4} \left\{ \Phi[(i + 1)\Delta x, j\Delta y] + \Phi[i\Delta x, (j + 1)\Delta y] + \Phi[(i + 1)\Delta x, j\Delta y] + \Phi[(i - 1)\Delta x, j\Delta y] \right\}. \tag{5} $$

Equation (1) can be finally updated as:

$$ q = -\varepsilon_i \sum_{i,j} \Phi(i\Delta x, j\Delta y). \tag{6} $$

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Equation (6) is the finite difference iteration equation to solve the capacitance, and the value of per unit length capacitance can be obtained from \( C = q/V \).

**B. The conformal technology based on FDM**

Figure 1 shows the microstrip line model we analysis in this paper. Figure 1 (a) is the discrete grid model. Figure 1 (b) show the structure of microstrip line in Fig. 1 (a). All the simulation calculations in this paper are conducted on the basis of the model of Fig. 1 (b). As shown in Fig. 1 (a), each grid represents a cell. We can see that the dielectric constants of cells at the boundary between two regions cannot be unique. When using the new conformal technology to solve the inhomogeneous cells here, the process is divided into two parts: Faraday cell and Ampere cell.

![Fig. 1.](image)

Fig. 1. (a) The discrete grid model of microstrip line, and (b) structure of microstrip line with \( W/H = 3 \), \( \varepsilon_r = 4.4 \).

As shown in Fig. 2, Faraday cell is divided into two regions with different dielectric constants \( \varepsilon_1 \) and \( \varepsilon_2 \). \( \Delta \) \( \varepsilon \) is divided into two parts: \( \Delta \varepsilon_1 \) and \( \Delta \varepsilon_2 \). The electric field strengths of \( x \) and \( y \) direction are also divided into two parts: \( E_{x1} \) and \( E_{x2} \), \( E_{y1} \) and \( E_{y2} \). \( \theta \) is the angle between \( x \) direction and interface.

The spatial derivative of Faraday’s law can be written as:

\[
\nabla(\varepsilon_1 E_{x1} \cdot \Delta x) + \nabla(\varepsilon_2 E_{x2} \cdot \Delta x) + \nabla(\varepsilon_1 E_{y1} \cdot \Delta y) + \nabla(\varepsilon_2 E_{y2} \cdot \Delta y) = \mu \left( \frac{1}{\Delta t} \left( H_{y1} \right)^{\perp}(i + \frac{1}{2}, j) - H_{y2} \right)^{\perp}(i + \frac{1}{2}, j + \frac{1}{2}) \Delta \Delta y
\]

where \( \Delta \varepsilon_1 \) and \( \Delta \varepsilon_2 \) are the normal component and tangential component after orthogonal decomposition of \( \frac{\Delta N_2}{\Delta} \). \( \Delta N_2 \) and \( \Delta T_2 \) are the component values of \( \frac{\Delta N_2}{\Delta} \) and \( \Delta T_2 \) after expanding or reducing. \( \Delta x' \) is the total length after adjusting the path of field component. So the modified total length of the integral path can be obtained from (9):

\[
\Delta x' = \Delta x_1 + \Delta x_2 = \Delta x_1 + \Delta x_2 \sqrt{\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta (\Delta \varepsilon_1 \frac{\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_1})}. \quad (10)
\]

So we use \( \Delta x' \) instead of \( \Delta x \) to calculate (7).

![Fig. 2.](image)

Fig. 2. The inhomogeneous Faraday cell model.

The conformal process of Ampere cell is same to the Faraday cell, and the Ampere cell model is shown in Fig. 4. The spatial derivative of Ampere’s law can be written as:

\[
H_{y1}^{\perp}(i + \frac{1}{2}, j + \frac{1}{2}) - H_{y2}^{\perp}(i + \frac{1}{2}, j + \frac{1}{2}) = \Delta y \left( \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial x} \right)^{\perp}_{(i + 1/2, j)}.
\]

\( \Delta y \) is the total length of Ampere loop integral path.

According to electric displacement vectors boundary conditions in perfect dielectric, the weights of two kinds of media can be defined as 1 and \( \varepsilon_r/\varepsilon_i \). The positional relationships are shown in Fig. 5. So the relationship between the components after removing the weights can be written as:

\[
E_{x1} = E_{x2} \varepsilon_1 + E_{x2} \varepsilon_2
\]

\[
E_{y1} = E_{y2} \varepsilon_1 + E_{y2} \varepsilon_2
\]

\[
E_{x2} = E_{x2} \varepsilon_1 + E_{x2} \varepsilon_2
\]

where \( E_{x', x}, E_{y', y} \) are the weighted components. \( e_x \) and \( e_y \) are unit vectors.
III. NUMERICAL RESULTS

To verify the validity of the new boundary condition, we use the mesh \( \Delta x=\Delta y=10^{-3} \text{m} \) to calculate the region where the coordinate is \( x \in [-39\Delta x, 39\Delta x] \) and \( y \in [-39\Delta y, 39\Delta y] \). The potential at infinity is set at 0. We add the conductors with +10V at \((-20\Delta x, -20\Delta y)\) and -10V at \((20\Delta x, 20\Delta y)\) respectively.

Now the electric field distributions using different boundary conditions are shown in Fig. 6 and Fig. 7. One is the traditional boundary condition which is similar to a rectangle shield and the potential is \( \Phi = 0 \). The other is the new boundary condition in this paper. The electric field strength shown in Fig. 6 attenuates slowly in the diagonal direction. Whereas the electric field strength shown in Fig. 7 is closer to the potential distribution model with the same amount unlike charges. So the new boundary condition proposed in this paper is more applicable to solve the capacitance.

![Fig. 6. The electric field distribution under traditional boundary condition.](image)

![Fig. 7. The electric field distribution under new boundary condition.](image)

A new boundary condition is proposed in the paper, which cells obeying exponential distribution are added at the boundary. Taking \( x \) direction for example, the electric field distribution obeys \( e^{kx} \), where \( k \) is a positive number. The outermost cells are considered infinitely long. When \( x \) tends to infinity, \( e^{kx} \) is close to zero. So the outermost cells are described and the potentials are zero at infinity points.

After above process, \( \varepsilon_i \) and \( \varepsilon_0 \) has been converted as \( \varepsilon_e \). So the relationship between electric field strength and electric displacement can be expressed by \( \mathbf{D} = \varepsilon_e \mathbf{E} \).

C. A new boundary condition

A new boundary condition is proposed in this paper, which cells obeying exponential distribution are added at the boundary. Taking \( x \) direction for example, the electric field distribution obeys \( e^{kx} \), where \( k \) is a positive number. The outermost cells are considered infinitely long. When \( x \) tends to infinity, \( e^{kx} \) is close to zero. So the outermost cells are described and the potentials are zero at infinity points.

\[
\begin{cases}
D'_{2N} = D_{2N} \\
D'_{2T} = D_{2T} \varepsilon_0/\varepsilon_2
\end{cases}
\]

where \( D'_{2N} \) and \( D'_{2T} \) are the weighted components. Then taking the weights into the integral path:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta T_2 &= \Delta y_2 \cos \phi \\
\Delta N_2 &= \Delta y_2 \sin \phi \\
\Delta N'_{2} &= \left( \frac{D'_{2T}}{D_{2T}} \right) = \frac{\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_1} \\
\Delta T'_{2} &= \left( \frac{D'_{2N}}{D_{2N}} \right) = \frac{\varepsilon_0}{\varepsilon_1} \\
\Delta y'_{2} &= \sqrt{\Delta N'^2_2 + \Delta T'^2_2}
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \Delta N_2 \) and \( \Delta T_2 \) are the initial length of normal and tangential component, which are obtained from orthogonal decomposition \( \Delta y_2, \Delta y_2', \Delta N_2' \) and \( \Delta T_2' \) are the length after adjusting the path of field component. So the modified total length of the integral path is:

\[
\Delta y' = \Delta y_1 + \Delta y'_{2} = \Delta y_1 + \Delta y_2\sqrt{\cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \phi \varepsilon_2/\varepsilon_1}.
\]

So we use \( \Delta y' \) instead of \( \Delta y \) to calculate (11).
value obtained from Fig. 9 is 97.759pF/m. Furthermore, the per unit length capacitance has been measured by the static field capacitance measurement method. It uses galvanometer measured the charge of microstrip line in case of a given voltage. Then the per unit length capacitance can be obtained and the value is 97.761pF/m. So the value of capacitance is closer to the measurement when using new conformal technology.

![Fig. 8. The potential distribution without using conformal technique.](image1)

Besides, to verify the accuracy of new method further, the average dielectric constant method has been used to calculate the capacitance of the microstrip line model in Fig. 1 (b), and the discrete grid model is shown in Fig. 10. The potential distribution using the average dielectric constant method is shown in Fig. 11, and the per unit length capacitance is 96.87pF/m. The comparative result shows that the capacitance calculated by the new method is more approximated to the measurement than the average dielectric constant method. It shows that the new method has higher precision than the average dielectric constant method.

![Fig. 10. The microstrip line model using average dielectric constant method.](image2)

IV. CONCLUSION

A new method based on FDM has been proposed for capacitance extraction of microstrip line using conformal technique. The results show that the capacitance solved by the proposed method is close to the measurement and more accurate than traditional one. Besides, the new method can be applied to various positional relationships between dielectric interface and electric field directions. It also has a significance to the analysis and design of high speed PCB.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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Ultra-Wideband Microstrip Antenna for Body Centric Communications

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Abstract — A novel low profile reconfigurable wide band microstrip antenna for impulse radio ultra-wideband (IR-UWB) WBANs and targeted for on-body sensor node has been introduced. The printed monopole antenna consists of a heart shaped radiating patch and an elliptical ground plane. This antenna has a frequency bandwidth of 130% with a VSWR of 1.5 and average gain is about 3.6 dBi. There is a slot on the patch which is loaded by two varactor diodes to form a tunable notch band. The antenna operates from 2.4 GHz to 12 GHz. The proposed antenna is a good candidate for medical purpose since it has a sufficient amount of gain and bandwidth. We used active circuit to increase the flexibility of setting rejection band to prevent having interference from other sources such as Wi-Fi. The antenna is fabricated and there is a good agreement between the simulation and measurement results.

Index Terms — Body-centric wireless communication, miniaturized microstrip antenna, wireless body networks.

I. INTRODUCTION

Antenna designing for WBAN system is challenging due to the human body effect. Especially, providing the sufficient gain and efficiency of an antenna is the main issue of on-body to on-body communication. To overcome this problem, an on-body antenna should have vertical polarization relative to the human body surface. In addition, to satisfy the propagation along the body surface for on-body to on-body communication, the antenna is required to have omnidirectional radiation characteristic [1]. Also, a number of techniques aimed at minimizing the cost of such antenna without significantly sacrificing performance have been considered. One of the most important techniques is using slots on the patch surface. Slots perturb antenna current on the antenna surface and increase antenna bandwidth [2]. Another advantage of using slots is changing antenna polarization or using as a Frequency Selective Surface (FSS) to filter unwanted frequencies [3]. In some paper, small slots are imbedded on ground plane or feeding point to have better matching response. These techniques are well-known as Defected Ground Structure (DGS) and Defected Microstrip Structure (DMS) [4]. PIN diodes have been also used to change the antenna dimensions electrically and increase the frequency bandwidth [5]. In this paper, we use varactor diodes to increase the frequency bandwidth. The varactor diode is a variable capacitor which can be modelled as a series capacitor and a resistor to model the ohmic losses [6, 7]. To improve frequency and pattern bandwidth, heart-shaped printed monopole antenna is proposed in [8]. In this paper, a low profile ultra-wideband on-body antenna is presented. The proposed antenna has a low profile, omnidirectional radiation patterns in the whole UWB band, and maximum radiation along the near body surface. We also use antenna with slot and taper heart-shaped to increase frequency bandwidth. In some purposes we need filter to cut the frequency bandwidth, two varactor diodes are used to change the notch in frequency bandwidth. When we change the DC bias of the diodes, their capacitance values change. So this antenna is combination of filter and antenna. The proposed low profile UWB antenna is suitable for on-body communications since the field is vertically polarized and propagated along the body surface for IEEE 802.11b/g and IEEE 802.11a. The antenna is considered to operate as a relay between sensors located on the body and non-local station so it is an advantage for the antenna to be able to have tangential radiation over the body surface in the on-body mode and a bore sight pattern in the off-body mode at the frequency bands of 802.11a and 802.11b/g, respectively [9, 10]. This antenna has a frequency bandwidth of 130% with a VSWR of 1.5, average gain is about 3.6 dBi.

II. DESIGN OF A SLOTTED MICROSTRIP ANTENNA

As it is shown in Fig. 1, the proposed slot antenna
with line feed has been designed on Rogers RO4003 with permittivity of $\varepsilon_r=3.2$ and substrate thickness of $h=0.813$ mm and substrate size of $42\times30$ mm. The dimensions of slots and antenna are mentioned in Table 1.

![Antenna Image](image1)

**Fig. 1.** Proposed slotted microstrip antenna: (a) side view, and (b) top view.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>$L_1$</th>
<th>$L_2$</th>
<th>$L_3$</th>
<th>$L_4$</th>
<th>$L_5$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dimension (mm)</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter</td>
<td>$L_6$</td>
<td>$L_7$</td>
<td>$L_8$</td>
<td>$h$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension (mm)</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.813</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two varactor diodes are used to change the capacitance value of the circular slots and these slots create notch in the frequency band. The notch band avoid interference with other frequency bands. Circular slots create notch in the frequency band. Line feed should be adjusted for 50Ω transmission line [11].

To increase the frequency bandwidth, two crossed slots are designed on the surface of the microstrip patch. These slots decrease antenna patch area and based on the following formula, quality factor of the microstrip antenna decreases. $S$ is the area of the patch and $f_r$ is the resonant frequency of the microstrip antenna. Frequency shift for patch is given as [12]:

$$\Delta S = \frac{S_0}{Q_0}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

With the dimensions given in Table 1, the proposed antenna was simulated in close proximity of the human body. To obtain the human effect on the antenna behavior, VOXEL model of body with CST software is simulated. The human body model was developed in the CST microwave studio. It is an adult male of mass 100 kg, height 180 cm and chest circumference of 115 cm, including muscle, skeleton and brain with human tissue. The electrical properties were defined at the frequency band of 2.5-12 GHz with resolution of 100 MHz. Figure 2 shows the placement of the antennas on the model. The antenna is placed 2 mm apart from the chest of the model. The on body simulated and measured $S_{11}$ of the proposed antenna are illustrated in Fig. 3 and Fig. 5. As shown in Fig. 3, the bandwidth of the antenna can be changed from 2.5 GHz to 12 GHz in transmitting purposes and 2 GHz to 12 GHz in receiving purposes. As it is shown in Fig. 6, the human body behaves like a reflector and improves gain of the antenna because the permittivity of the body is about 42. The backlobe part of the antenna pattern is removed. In these types of antennas each part of the antenna has different resonant frequency, therefore the impedance bandwidth is wider than typical microstrip antenna. To obtain better results all dimensions are optimized. We have used Particle Swarm Algorithm with CST software. It is observed that the variation in the diameter of the metallic arcs has major effect on the lower frequency bandwidth. In case of impedance bandwidth, it improves return loss at higher frequency region and does not affect the lower cut-off frequency. The simulated antenna VSWR referenced to 50Ω is shown in Fig. 4. The improvement in the input impedance bandwidth using slots and curved ground plane is clear. It is interesting to mention that at low frequencies, the input impedance of the antenna is depended on the patch dimensions not the substrate dimensions.

At high frequencies the input impedance is intensively affected by the substrate thickness. We can improve matching parameter using elliptical ground plane. It is obvious that the radiation patterns changes slightly at higher frequency because of variation antenna dimensions at different frequencies. It means that radiation pattern bandwidth is smaller than impedance bandwidth. In portable system, this is negligible since we do not have constant and stable direction for transmitter. This antenna is so small and can be used in medical purposes. For example, in some frequencies such as Wi-Fi, interference is inevitable and we need an antenna that can filter unwanted frequencies. These diodes are used for creating notch to reject these frequencies. In this paper we used tapered elliptical form for the structure to get better impedance matching. The radiation patterns
of the antenna when the antenna is attached to the body are changed. The body behaves like a reflector because the body permittivity $\varepsilon_r=42$ is so high. To verify the simulation result, the antenna has been fabricated and tested (see Fig. 7).

Fig. 2. The proposed antenna placed on the chest human body model.

Fig. 3. Simulated $S_{11}$ with CST software for different capacitance values on body.

Fig. 4. VSWR of the slotted microstrip antenna.

Fig. 5. Measured $S_{11}$ in two states: 1-Diodes ON, 2-Diodes OFF.

Fig. 6. Comparison of the antenna radiation patterns at different frequencies with human body and without human body.

Fig. 7. Photo of fabrication.
VI. CONCLUSION
An efficient wide band and dual pattern heart-patch antenna with two varactor diodes and strip line feed is proposed for on-body and off-body communication modes is proposed and analysed with respect to the bandwidth, average gain, radiation pattern. The impedance bandwidth of proposed antenna achieved 130% from frequency range 2.8 to 12 GHz. The average gain of the antenna is about 3.5 dBi. The radiation pattern of E-plane & also studied. It has Bi-directional E-plane & Omni-directional H-plane. This antenna is simple in structure and easy to fabricate with MIC/MMIC systems. This antenna can be used for wireless communication systems, especially for medical purposes. We can adjust notch frequency band of the antenna easily by changing DC bias of the varactor diodes. The proposed antenna presents much improved gain with one tapered shape radiating element than the previous works of the compact dual band and dual mode antennas. The results show that this antenna does not experience significant frequency detuning from the free space resonance at whole frequency bands when simulated on the human body.

REFERENCES
A Simple Analytical Method to Calculate Bending Loss in Dielectric Rectangular Waveguides

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Abstract — We present a simple analytical method to compute attenuation in bent dielectric rectangular waveguides. An approximate formulation for the attenuation constant is first derived by determining the ratio of average power loss per unit length to the average power propagating along the waveguide. Since the waveguide has been simplified into a slab in the process of derivation, losses at the four edges of the structure have been neglected. To account for these losses, the perturbation theory has been employed. The total loss is found to agree closely with that obtained via the Finite Element Method (FEM). Unlike the FEM which requires considerable computational time and power to solve, we demonstrate that the analytical method proposed here can easily be applied and it gives sufficiently accurate result.

Index Terms — Analytical method, attenuation constant, bending loss, perturbation theory, propagation constant, rectangular waveguides.

I. INTRODUCTION

Dielectric waveguides, such as optical fibers, have been widely used in the fields of telecommunication and integrated optics to channel signal from one end to another. In a dielectric waveguide, the core dielectric rod is immersed in one or more layers of dielectric materials which are of lower index of refraction \( n_2 \) than the core material itself \( n_1 \). This allows wave to propagate in the waveguide based on the principle of total internal reflection, described by Snell’s law [1, 2]. In order to ensure that the information carried by the modulating signal is preserved, it is important to minimize losses in the waveguide during wave propagation. The losses in a dielectric waveguide can generally be classified into dielectric and bending losses. In a uniformly straight waveguide, the fields are mostly confined within the core of the waveguide. Hence, radiation loss is practically negligible in the waveguide. When certain curvatures occur in the waveguide, however, wave with angles of incident exceeding the critical angle tend to radiate out from the guiding structure [3]. Because of this reason, radiation loss or more commonly known as bending loss, in this case, can no longer be ignored. Since bent structures are inevitable when channeling the signal, both dielectric and bending losses are equally important when estimating the total loss in the waveguide. Developing mathematical expression to describe the presence of curvatures in a rectangular waveguide is inherently difficult. This is because a combination of Cartesian and cylindrical coordinates is required so as to define the cross section and the bending radius of the waveguide. Hence, analytical methods, found in most literatures [4-7], focus only on the analyses of uniformly straight waveguides. As can be seen from some of the recent literatures [8-11], computational methods such as Finite Domain Time Difference (FDTD) or Finite Element Method (FEM) are preferred when bending loss is to be accounted for in the calculation of loss. The algorithms used in computational methods discretize the solution space into meshes. The electric field in each mesh is then numerically calculated. Hence, although they produce accurate results, these methods typically consume substantial computational time and power. This is particularly true when fields are to be solved for signals with very small wavelength (such as THz or optical signal) propagating in a three dimensional structure where the number of meshes is exceptionally huge. Analytical methods, on the other hand, are simpler and require relatively less time and power to solve.

Marcatili [3] and Marcuse [12] were among some of the early researchers who had developed analytical solutions for bent rectangular waveguides. In the process of derivation, however, both of them had assumed the fields’ radiation at the four corner regions of the waveguide to be negligible. Due to this reason, the loss found using their methods has been underestimated. It is worthwhile noting that, Marcatili’s method is only valid when the wave is weakly guided (i.e., the difference between \( n_1 \) and \( n_2 \) is small), while Marcuse’s method is not bounded by this limitation. Hence, Marcuse’s method has the advantage of being applied in structures with arbitrary ratio of indices of refraction. In this paper, we present an improvement on the accuracy of
Marcuse’s method. We consider a dielectric rectangular waveguide surrounded by homogeneous dielectric material in our study. In order to account for the loss at the corner regions, we incorporate into the formulation the correction factor developed by Deck et al. [13]. This paper shall be presented in such a way that, casual readers could appreciate the final mathematical expressions, without the need of going through the underlying mathematics.

II. FORMULATION

Figure 1 depicts the structure of a bent rectangular waveguide with width \( a \) and height \( b \). When deriving the attenuation constant of the waveguide, Marcuse has first assumed the fields at the vicinity of a bent waveguide to be similar to that of a straight guide. The assumption should hold valid as long as the radius of curvature \( R \) is sufficiently large. When deriving the fields’ expressions, he has also assumed that there is no field variation in the \( y \) direction. This allows the propagating waves to be described as simple TE and TM waves [12]. According to the law of conservation of energy, the rate of decrease of power is to be equivalent to the power loss. Hence, power loss \( \Lambda \) can be expressed as the ratio of average power loss per unit length \( \Delta p \) to the average power propagating along the waveguide \( p \), i.e., [1, 12]:

\[
\Lambda = \frac{\Delta p}{p}. \tag{1}
\]

By substituting the fields’ expression into (1), the loss equation \( \Lambda \) can be obtained as follows [12]:

\[
\Lambda = \text{Im} \left[ \frac{2\sqrt{k^2 - n_e^2 k_x^2} \left(n_e^2 k_y^2 - k_z^2\right)}{k_x^2 k_y n_e^2 - n_e^2} \exp \left[ a\sqrt{k^2 - n_e^2 k_x^2} - \frac{2(k_z^2 - n_e^2 k_y^2)^2 (R + 0.5a)}{3k_z^2} \right] \exp \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{k^2 - n_e^2 k_x^2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k^2 - n_e^2 k_y^2}} \right] \right], \tag{2}
\]

where \( k_z \) is the wavenumber of the dielectric cladding material and \( k_c \) is the propagation constant, which can be adopted from that of a straight waveguide. It is to be noted that \( k_c \) is a complex variable which comprises a phase constant \( \beta_c \) and an attenuation constant \( \alpha_c \), i.e., \( k_c = \beta_c - j\alpha_c \). Here, we have applied the closed-form expression for \( k_c \), modified from [14] as shown below:

\[
k_c = k_c^1 - \left(\frac{m\pi}{a}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{n\pi}{b}\right)^2 + 2(1 - j) \left(\frac{m\pi}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{n\pi}{b}\right)^2 + k_c^2 \] \tag{3}
\]

where \( k_1 \) is the wavenumber of the core material, \( \mu_1 \) and \( \mu_2 \) are respectively the permeability of the core and cladding materials; whereas \( m \) and \( n \) are respectively the number of half cycle variations in the \( x \) and \( y \) directions. The skin depth \( \delta \) in (3) is given by [15]:

\[
\delta = \frac{2Z_S}{(1 + j)\omega \mu_2}, \tag{4}
\]

where \( \omega \) is the angular frequency. The surface impedance of the dielectric layer \( Z_S \) can be expressed in terms of the electrical properties of the two mediums as [7, 16]:

\[
Z_S = \frac{1}{j\omega \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)}, \tag{5}
\]

where \( \epsilon_{0d} \) and \( \epsilon_{0c} \) are respectively the relative permittivity of the core and the cladding materials. To account for the loss at the four corner regions, we employ the formulation developed by Deck et al. [13] by means of the perturbation theory. When deriving the correction to the mode propagation and profile function, correction to the dielectric function in the four corner regions is assumed to produce changes in the squared propagation constant and fields profile function [13]. The corner field correction factor \( \Delta \lambda \) can be expressed as [13]:

\[
\Delta \lambda = \left[ \left( \frac{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2}{2} \right) \left( \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \right) \right]^2 \times \left\{ 1 + \left[ \cos(k_c b) + \left( \frac{\epsilon_1}{\epsilon_2} \right) \frac{\gamma}{k_c} \sin(k_c b) \right]^2 \right\}^{(2\beta_c + 1)}, \tag{6}
\]

where \( \epsilon_1 \) and \( \epsilon_2 \) are respectively the permittivity of the core and its cladding material,

\[
\gamma = \left( \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \right) \left( \epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2 \right) - \kappa^2,
\]

and \( k_c \) is the transverse wavenumber in the \( y \) direction. For simplicity, we apply the closed-form expression of \( k_c \) in [6] as shown in (7) below:

\[
k_c = \frac{2\pi}{b} \sqrt{\left(\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2}{\epsilon} \right)^2 - \kappa^2}.
\]
\[ k_\gamma = \frac{\pi}{b} \left( \frac{m n^2 b (n^2 - n_z^2)}{m n^2 b^2 (n^2 + n_z^2)} \right). \]  

(7)

The total bending loss \( \Lambda_T \) can therefore be determined by including the additional loss found in (6) with the loss in (2), i.e., \( \Lambda_T = \Lambda + \Delta \Lambda \).

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We compute the loss in a 2.4 \times 1.3 \text{mm}^2 silicon rectangular waveguide, with bending radius \( R = 1 \text{ mm} \). The conductivities of silicon and the surrounding medium are given as \( 4.33 \times 10^{-4} \text{ S/m} \) and \( 8.0 \times 10^{-15} \text{ S/m} \), respectively. To validate the closed-form formulations presented here, we compare the computed results with the S21 parameters found from the Finite Element Method (FEM). The results from FEM are simulated from Ansoft’s High Frequency Structure Simulator HFSS. Since S21 accounts for the total loss in the waveguide, we have incorporated the total dielectric loss \( \alpha_z \), i.e., the imaginary component of (3) together with the bending loss in (2) during comparison. When calculating the loss, we have set \( m = 1 \) and \( n = 0 \) for the dominant TE mode. It is worthwhile noting that, the loss in a practical waveguide may also be contributed from the imperfection of the waveguide structure. Since the work presented here is a theoretical exercise, such loss has therefore been neglected.

Figure 2 depicts the comparison of loss between our computed result and that obtained from HFSS. It can be seen from the figure that although the curves agree somewhat with each other, the loss from the computed result has clearly been underestimated. The average error with reference to the FEM result \( \epsilon_{\text{ave}} = 60.17\% \). Since Marcuse has neglected the presence of the electric field in the \( x \) direction \( E_x \), the loss of the \( E_x \) mode has not been taken into account. As shown in [6], the modes propagating in a dielectric waveguide are degenerate – both \( E_y \) and \( E_x \) modes exist concurrently and that the propagation constants of both modes are similar to each other. Figure 3 shows the total loss (i.e., the addition of dielectric and bending losses) when both \( E_x \) and \( E_y \) modes are taken into account. It can be observed from Fig. 4 that the electric fields of the \( E_y \) and \( E_x \) modes are orthogonal to each other. Despite their direction of polarizations, however, the profiles exhibited by both modes are qualitatively similar to each other [3]. Here, we have taken the bending loss exhibited by the \( E_x \) mode to be identical with that by \( E_y \). The result turns out to be in closer agreement with that obtained from the FEM method, although discrepancy between the results is still apparent (\( \epsilon_{\text{ave}} = 44.53\% \)). Figure 5 shows the final result when the corner field correction factor \( \Delta \Lambda \) has been included into our calculation. By considering the loss at the four edges of the waveguide, it can be observed from the figure that the result improves significantly, with the computed result approaches that of the simulation (\( \epsilon_{\text{ave}} = 21.27\% \)).

Fig. 2. Loss of a bent rectangular silicon waveguide, obtained from the analytical method proposed here (solid line) and the FEM (dashed line). The analytical method has only considered the dielectric loss and the bending loss from the \( E_y \) mode (loss at the corner regions has been neglected).

Fig. 3. Loss of a bent rectangular silicon waveguide, obtained from the analytical method proposed here (solid line) and the FEM (dashed line). The analytical method has only considered the dielectric loss and the bending loss from the \( E_y \) and \( E_x \) modes (loss at the corner regions has been neglected).

Fig. 4. Electric field lines of: (a) \( E_y \) and (b) \( E_x \) modes at the cross section of the rectangular waveguide.
**Fig. 5.** Loss of a bent rectangular silicon waveguide, obtained from the analytical method proposed here (solid line) and the FEM (dashed line). The analytical method has taken into account the dielectric loss, as well as, the bending loss from the $E_y$ and $E_x$ modes (loss at the corner regions has been included).

**IV. CONCLUSION**

We have presented a closed-form analytical method to predict the attenuation in a bent dielectric rectangular waveguide. The dielectric loss in the waveguide can be extracted from the propagation constant obtained from a straight waveguide; whereas, the bending loss in the waveguide is determined from Marcuse’ approximate method [12]. To enhance the accuracy of Marcuse’ method, the correction factor in [13] has been applied to account for the loss at the corner regions. By including the bending loss exhibited by both $E_y$ and $E_x$ modes and the dielectric loss, the result is found to agree closely with that computed using the rigorous computational method. Since the formulations presented here are all in closed-form, it is not necessary to rely on computational intensive machines, such as a computer to calculate them. Besides being straight forward, the method also produces results which can be easily found; while at the same time, sufficiently accurate.

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**REFERENCES**


Ultra-Wide Bandwidth Enhancement of Single-Layer Single-Feed Patch Antenna Using the Theory of Characteristic Modes

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Abstract — The Theory of Characteristic Modes (TCM) is proposed as a systematic approach to antenna design to achieve the goal of finding the antenna structure with optimum broadband behavior. This theory provides a physical insight to the radiating nature of microstrip patch antennas and reduces the design optimization time. In this work, the resonant behavior of the highly radiating structure of the single U-slot rectangular patch on a single-layer \( \varepsilon_r = 4.4 \) substrate is analyzed using TCM. Modal analysis of this single-layer structure with different single feed excitations concludes that VSWR \( \leq 2 \) impedance bandwidth in the order of 96\% can be achieved with a single T-probe feed. Experimental results, included here, show VSWR \( \leq 2 \) impedance bandwidth in the order of 71\%.

Index Terms — Bandwidth broadening, characteristic mode analysis, L-probe, microstrip patch antennas, T-probe, theory of characteristic modes, U-slot, UWB.

I. INTRODUCTION

The need for antennas with high bandwidth is continuing to fuel a lot of research especially in the fields of radar, wireless communication and medical imaging. Microstrip patch antennas are a class of antennas that exhibit low-profile, compact, conformal, cost-effective, and easy-to-fabricate designs. Despite these advantages, microstrip patch antennas suffer from a major drawback, which is narrow bandwidth. For the past couple of decades, extensive research has been dedicated to the area of bandwidth broadening techniques of microstrip patch antennas. Some of these techniques are by means of introduction of parasitic elements and patch slots, which introduce additional resonances in addition to the main patch resonance. Another technique is by means of thick substrates of low permittivity, which will have the side effect of introducing higher inductive reactance due to the longer coaxial feed probe. Some of the patch slot geometries found in the literature are: square, rectangular, triangular, circular, elliptical, E-slot, U-slot, V-slot, and more [1, 2]. Although it is generally understood that patch slots introduce new resonances that contribute to broadening the bandwidth, it is not well understood why some patch slots present better bandwidth than others. A valuable tool that is helping antenna designer’s gain better understanding and physical insight of the radiating nature and resonant behavior of the microstrip patch antenna is the TCM [3, 4]. By understanding the resonant behavior of the different patch slot geometries and other antenna elements, novel antenna designs with the most resonant structures can be proposed to achieve the most radiation and impedance bandwidth.

In recent studies [5-7], we utilized TCM to characterize the resonant behavior of different patch slot geometries, substrate permittivities and ground sizes independent of the feeding element to identify the structures which are more resonant, and hence, contribute significantly to the radiated fields. It was concluded that a single U-slot rectangular patch on a single-layer substrate with relative permittivity of 4.4 and loss tangent of 0.02 will result in a highly radiating structure.

It is the aim of this paper to expand on these recent studies [5-8] and to find the ideal excitation feed to excite the highly radiating structure of the U-slot rectangular patch on \( \varepsilon_r = 4.4 \) substrate to achieve the most radiation and impedance bandwidth. TCM will be utilized once more to analyze some of the different excitation feeds found in the literature [9] to determine the least reactive excitation feed structure, which will excite the modes contributing to the optimum resonant behavior of the U-slot patch antenna.

II. MODAL ANALYSIS OF EXCITATION FEEDS FOR U-SLOT PATCH ANTENNA

Modal significance is defined as the normalized amplitude of the characteristic modes. Modes where the modal significance is close to 1 indicate that they contribute significantly to radiation, whereas modes with modal significance close to 0 indicate they do not [4]. Therefore, modal significance gives the antenna designer physical insight on the resonant behavior of an antenna structure independent of the source excitation.
Before we model the highly radiating structure of U-slot patch and $\varepsilon_r = 4.4$ substrate with an excitation feed, we need to first investigate which eigenmodes are resonating on this structure. In Fig. 1, the modal significance of the top 6 significant eigenmodes is shown. It is shown that modes 1, 3, and 4 contribute the most to radiation since their modal significance is close to 1 over the frequency range 2.5-8.5 GHz. Higher order modes 5 and 6 contribute minimally in the higher frequencies. So, prospective excitation sources will aim to excite all or some of the resonating eigenmodes (1, 3, and 4) in the antenna structure.

Figure 2 shows the characteristic currents for modes 1, 3, and 4 at 5.0 GHz. The location of maximum current distribution, where it is desirable to excite the patch, is denoted by the concentrated red color in Fig. 2. The common location for maximum current distribution between all three modes is marked by the dotted black circles in Fig. 2 and is found to be at the base of the U-slot and the inner edge of the U-slot arm.

![Fig. 1. Modal significance for U-slot patch antenna with $\varepsilon_r = 4.4$ substrate.](image)

![Fig. 2. Characteristic currents of U-slot rectangular patch antenna on $\varepsilon_r = 4.4$ substrate at 5.0 GHz for: (a) mode 1, (b) mode 3, and (c) mode 4.](image)

To find an ideal source feed which will excite the most modes, modal analysis of the U-slot rectangular patch antenna on the $\varepsilon_r = 4.4$ substrate at 5.0 GHz for: (a) mode 1, (b) mode 3, and (c) mode 4.

![Fig. 3. (a) Geometry of rectangular patch antenna with U-slot, (b) vertical probe, (c) L-probe, and (d) T-probe.](image)

In [8], we performed a modal excitation analysis over the selected frequency range 2.5-8.5 GHz on the U-slot rectangular patch slot and $\varepsilon_r = 4.4$ substrate with vertical probe, L-probe, and T-probe to determine which source feed excites the modes 1, 3, and 4, which contribute to the optimum resonant behavior. It was found that mode 3 is the main mode excited by the conventional vertical probe in the frequency range 2.5-5.7 GHz. Mode 3 is the main mode excited by the

| Table 1: U-slot patch antenna dimensions in mm for different feed probe designs |
|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
|                  | Vertical Probe    | L-Probe           | T-Probe           | T-Probe           |
|                  | (Sim.)            | (Sim.)            | (Sim.)            | (Fabricated)      |
| a                | 2.25              | 2.25              | 2.25              | 4.38              |
| b                | 2.25              | 2.25              | 2.25              | 4.38              |
| W                | 20.25             | 20.25             | 20.25             | 39.48             |
| L_s              | 10.14             | 10.14             | 10.14             | 19.78             |
| t                | 1.13              | 1.13              | 1.13              | 2.21              |
| W_s              | 7.87              | 7.87              | 7.87              | 15.35             |
| W_l              | 140.17            | 140.17            | 140.17            | 139.41            |
| L_g              | 134.54            | 134.54            | 134.54            | 128.44            |
| h                | 7.62              | 7.62              | 7.62              | 15.35             |
| r_p              | 1                 | 1                 | 1                 | 0.65              |
| $x_p$            | 6                 | 4.81              | 4                 | 10.95             |
| $y_p$            | 5                 | 1                 | 0                 | 0                 |
| L_h              | -----             | 3.84              | 3.84              | 2.99x2.28         |
| L_v              | 7.62              | 6.53              | 6.15              | 12.80             |
| d                | 1.31              | 2.5               | 3.31              | 3.31              |
L-probe in the frequency range 2.5-6.1 GHz. Modes 3, 4, and 6 are the main modes excited by the T-probe in the frequency range 2.5-7.0 GHz. Consequently, the T-probe excites the most number of modes over the largest frequency range, and hence, is expected to achieve the highest impedance bandwidth.

In Fig. 4, the modal significance of each of the three probes is shown. The non-excited probe structures are modeled independent of the other antenna elements, i.e., the U-slot patch, substrate, and ground plane. For the vertical probe, in Fig. 4 (a), mode 1 is the contributing mode maxing out at modal significance equal to 0.08. For the L-probe, in Fig. 4 (b), mode 1 is the contributing mode maxing out at modal significance close to 0.16. For the T-probe, in Fig. 4 (c), modes 1 and 2 are the contributing modes maxing out at modal significance close to 0.20. Compared to the other two probes, the T-probe has more modes with higher modal significance which indicates that it is the least reactive feeding structure. This is a desirable feeding structure feature and also explains why the T-probe is expected to achieve the highest impedance bandwidth. The fact that the modal significance of all the probes is relatively low at less than 0.20 indicates that they will not contribute much to the radiation of the entire antenna, which is another desirable feature in feeding structures.

**III. OPTIMIZED IMPEDANCE BANDWIDTH OF U-SLOT PATCH ANTENNA**

Figure 5 shows the VSWR ≤ 2 bandwidth for the 3.9 GHz U-slot patch design with 3 different probes (dimensions shown in the first three columns of Table 1). Results from two electromagnetic solvers, namely FEKO FEM and HFSS FEM, are shown for validation purposes. The vertical probe in Fig. 5 (a) shows VSWR ≤ 2 bandwidth of 21% between 3.55 GHz and 4.38 GHz. The L-probe feed in Fig. 5 (b) shows VSWR ≤ 2 bandwidth of 82% between 2.74 GHz and 6.58 GHz, and the T-probe feed in Fig. 5 (c) shows VSWR ≤ 2 bandwidth of 96% between 2.86 GHz and 8.16 GHz. The simulation results of the two solvers are in good agreement.

The small substrate thickness of 7.62 mm used in the T-probe fed antenna design simulation of Fig. 5 (c) was not available for fabrication. Also, the horizontal probe arm of the T-probe was modeled as a rectangular PEC sheet sandwiched between two substrate layers due to lack of proper instrumentation to fabricate a T-shaped probe. Therefore, a bigger patch antenna with thicker multilayered substrate was fabricated for a 2.0 GHz
design frequency, instead. The dimensions of the fabricated T-probe fed U-slot patch antenna are shown in the rightmost fourth column of Table 1. Figure 6 shows the measured and simulated VSWR ≤ 2 bandwidth of the fabricated antenna. As seen in Fig. 6, measured VSWR ≤ 2 bandwidth of over 71% between 1.8 GHz and 3.8 GHz is realized, though bandwidth can be improved between 2.2 and 2.4 GHz. Also, a higher VSWR ≤ 2 bandwidth between 1.8 and 4.8 GHz could be realized if it was not for the oscillations around 2.3, 3.9, and 4.5 GHz. These oscillations are mainly due to the thicker substrate used in fabrication which introduces more surface waves that scatter at substrate edges. The slight discrepancy between the measured and simulated results in Fig. 6 can be attributed to fabrication inaccuracies and manufacturing tolerances, otherwise the pattern demonstrated by the two curves mostly agree.

Fig. 6. Measured vs simulated VSWR of fabricated T-probe fed, U-slot microstrip patch antenna with ε<sub>r</sub> = 4.4 substrate. Inset: image of fabricated antenna.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper, the Theory of Characteristic Modes has been used to find the ideal excitation feed to excite the highly radiating structure of the U-slot rectangular patch on ε<sub>r</sub> = 4.4 substrate to achieve the most radiation and impedance bandwidth. Different excitation feeds, namely the vertical probe, L-probe, and T-probe were analyzed to determine the least reactive excitation feed structure, which will excite the modes contributing to the optimum resonant behavior of the U-slot patch antenna. Simulated and experimental results show that a single T-probe feed excites the most number of modes and achieves impedance bandwidth in excess of 70%.

REFERENCES


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