

CHAPTER -3

Electromagnetic BandGap Structures

3.1 Introduction and Historical Background

Electromagnetic bandgap materials are one of the most rapidly advancing materials in the electromagnetic arena. They have ability to persuade the propagation of electromagnetic waves to a level that was not possible earlier [1]. Electromagnetic Band Gap (EBG) structures produced a wide variety of design alternatives for researchers working in the area of microwave and photonics. Focus is now towards on finding real applications combined with detailed modelling. Due to the incredible potential of EBGs, there are plethoras of applications in which they can be used. New companies have also started to exploit the commercial potential of this technology [2].

Due to their unique properties, EBG materials are very popular in scientific society. *Generally, EBG structures are defined as artificial periodic structures that avert or assist the propagation of electromagnetic waves in a specified band of frequencies for all incident angles and all polarization states* [3]. EBG structures are always used as a part of microwave devices in order to improve the performance of devices especially to improve the radiation/gain patterns and to decrease the noise /losses in transmissions. EBG structures are also known

as high impedance surface due to their ability to suppress the surface wave at certain operational frequencies. In recent years, there has been rapid increase in utilization of Electromagnetic bandgap (EBG) structures in electromagnetic and antenna community [4] [5].

The EBG terminology is based on the total internal reflection, phenomenon of Photonic crystal in optics, which is realized by periodic structures [19]. EBG Structures are popularly known as photonic crystals that are artificially synthesized crystals which control light completely [6]. The EBG structure is originated from the two papers published by Eli Yablonovitch and Sajeev John in 1987 [8] [9]. In the 1980's Yoblonovitch stated that this PBG, produced by periodic variation in the refractive index of the structure, can be very useful as it can be used to eliminate the spontaneous emission of photons at certain frequency bands. The motivation after this was that the performance of semiconductor lasers, hetero junction bipolar transistor, and solar cells was limited by spontaneous emission, but in characteristically different way. Yablonovitch introduced band gap which can control radiation of light arbitrarily induced, and John presented band gap which can ponder light waves into focus. They used the idea of capitalizing on the Bragg condition to construct materials that block all incoming light of a particular wavelength (the Bragg's condition is met when the planes of a crystal are situated such that each plane reflects a little of the incoming light) [8].

In 1987, Yablonovitch published the first physical review letter discussing how to establish three dimensional periodic variation using PBG crystals. He fabricated the crystal structure by mechanically drilling holes of diameter in millimetre into a high dielectric constant material as shown in Figure 3.2. This patterned material, which is known as “Yablonovitch” prohibited incident microwave signals from propagating in any direction; it manifested 3-D Band Gap.

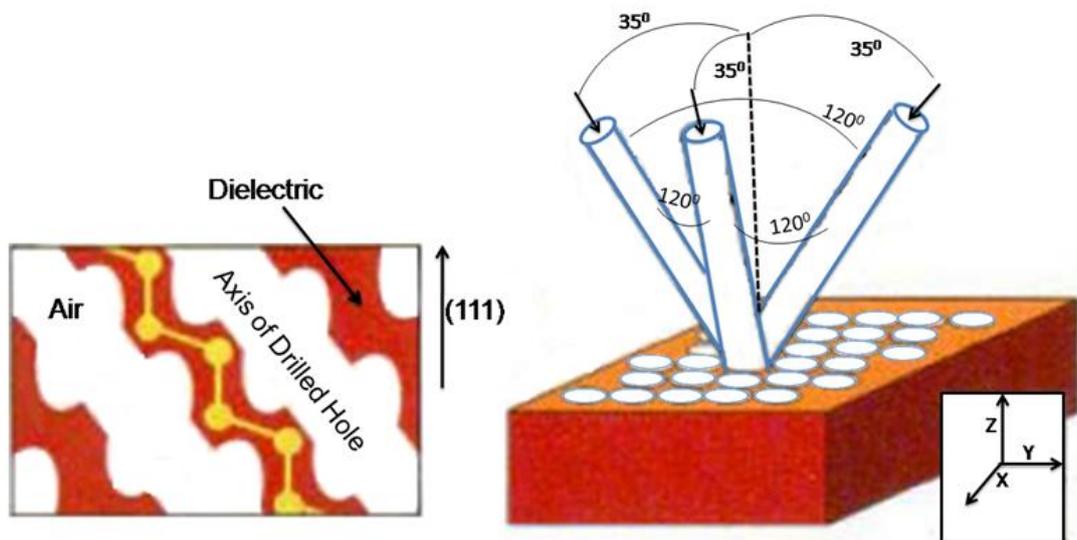


Figure 3.1 First Photonic Crystal by Yablonovitch [16].

Since 1987, other scientists have cited the potential of materials that completely reflect certain electromagnetic frequencies; these new findings have been valuable resources throughout the scientific community. John Maddox wrote in Nature that with these materials, "all kinds of almost-magical things would be possible" [10].

It is interesting to see that analogous band gaps exist when EM wave propagate in a periodic dielectric structure. If such a bandgap or frequency gap exists, EM waves with frequencies inside the gap cannot propagate in any direction inside the material. To understand this concept we consider the analogy of crystals in electronic materials [12].

Researchers explained the concept of metallic waveguides and dielectric mirrors, to understand the concept of photonic crystals. These cavities and waveguides are widely used to control the propagation of microwaves. Metallic cavities do not allow microwaves to propagate under a certain threshold frequency and metallic waveguides allow propagation of microwaves along its axis only [12]. Photonic crystals having different dielectric mediums not only imitate the properties of waveguides and cavities, but also bring out a strategy to have complete control over EM waves outside the microwave regime like light waves [12]. Further, these crystals are scalable and applicable to wider range of frequencies. We may construct a photonic crystal with a given geometry in the millimetre range for microwaves and with micron dimensions for infrared control. If a crystal reflects light of any polarization incident at any angle for some frequency range, then that crystal is said to be complete photonic or electromagnetic band gap [11].

Due to their remarkable potential to control the entire electromagnetic spectrum with simple synthesis, EBG structures bring a revolution in the material science technology. It has been described that the greater dielectric contrast between the mediums can open wider gaps [12].

3.2 **Types of EBG Structure:**

EBG structures are periodic in nature, which may be realized by drilling, cuffing, and etching on the metal or dielectric substrates. They may be formed in the ground plane or over the substrate. On the basis of dimensions EBG structures are categorised as one dimensional (1-D), two dimensional (2-D), and three dimensional (3-D) periodic structures that satisfies Bragg's conditions, i.e., inter-cell separation (period) is close to half guided wavelength ($\lambda_g/2$). They are capable of forbidding electromagnetic propagation in either all or selected directions [13] [15].

3.2.1 **3-D EBG Crystals**

In the beginning a 3D EBG was designed only. A successful attempt to obtain a 3D periodic dielectric structure was made in Iowa State University (ISU) [4]. It was called the woodpile structure as shown in the figure 3.2. Three dimensional EBG crystals have periodicity along all the three dimensions and the remarkable feature is that these systems can have complete band gaps, therefore that propagation states are not allowed in any direction [14].

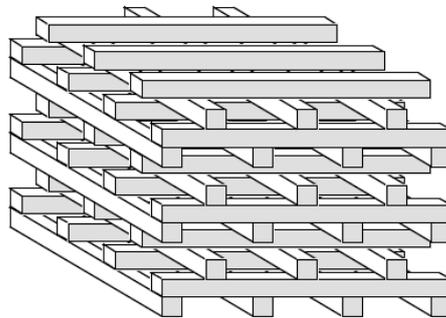


Figure 3.2 Three dimensional EBG Structures [15]

Although, a perfect 3-D EBG structure is required to block all waves in all directions, but then these structures are difficult to fabricate and integrate. From literature, we learned that 2-D EBG could be even more valuable. 2-D EBG structures are easy to fabricate and are capable of maintaining a similar control on the wave propagation in the structure as the 3-D structure.

3.2.2 2-D EBG Crystals

These crystals have periodicity in two dimensions and are homogeneous along the third direction, or we can say that, all variations happen in the two dimensions, whereas everything is constant along the third dimension, thereby propagation is allowed along one axis of the crystal [15]. These 2-D EBG structures have substantial advantages in terms of compactness, stability, and fabrication, which make them more attractive for microwave devices [14].

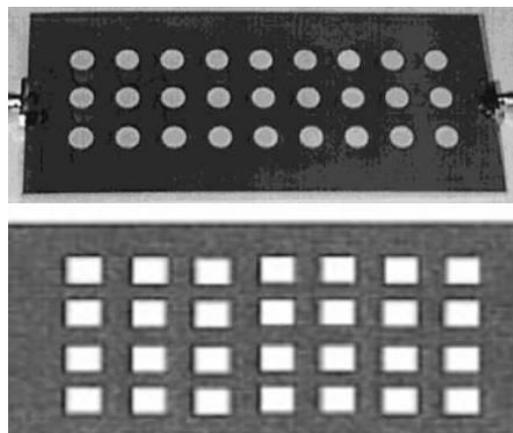


Figure 3.3 Two dimensional EBG structures [17] [18].

One of the greatest advances in the development of these 2-D EBG structures in microwave range has been their implementation in microstrip technology.

3.2.3 1-D EBG Crystals

One dimensional EBG structures can also be implemented in microstrip technology. 1-D EBG structures have periodicity of two different media along one direction only. These basic crystals exhibit three important phenomena: photonic band gaps, localized modes, and surface states. However, as the index contrast is only along one direction, the band gaps and bound states are limited to that direction. Nevertheless, these simple structures show most of the features of 2-D and 3-D EBG crystals [12].

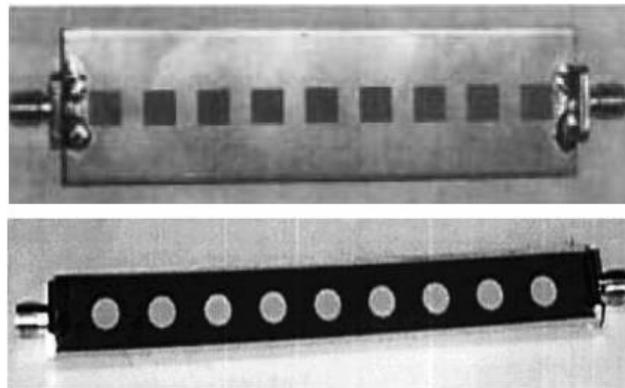


Figure 3.2.1 One dimensional EBG structure [16]

3.3 Applications of EBG Structures

EBG technologies have a wide range of applications in RF and microwave engineering, including filters, waveguides, cavities, antennas etc. In order to get the most of this technology, a fully integrated receiver or emitter system should

be developed in which all the components are designed using EBG technology. First step in order to achieve this goal is a design of the individual component.

3.3.1 Applications of EBG Structures in Antenna Engineering

A massive amount of basic EBG applications exists especially within the microwave and low millimetre-wave region, for example in electronically scanned phased arrays, high precision GPS, Bluetooth, mobile telephony, antennas etc.

Phased array antennas are the key components to provide higher performance by manipulating and steering wireless signal beams towards the desired directions. Phased arrays involving phase shifters are conventionally used in several applications.

EBG structures are the very promising candidates to exterminate the problems created by surface waves while at the same time improving the performance. Gonzala and Kelley proposed that, replacing the dielectric substrate by the EBGs increases the gain of the antenna and reduces the surface waves [20], [21].

William. E. Mckinzie designed a Metallo-Dielectric EBG antenna which behaves as Artificial Magnetic Conductors; these EBG designed for the solutions in printed circuit technology [22].

As the world goes wireless, data, and voice transmission are becoming even more popular. Attention is now focused on to make devices fast, compact, and high performing.

For this, Romula and his co-workers proposed a high impedance electromagnetic surface, for cell phone handset geometry, to reduce the radiations [24].

Several antenna configurations using electromagnetic bandgap crystals have already been studied such as: dipole antennas [25-26], slot antennas, [27], patch antennas [20, 28-29], bow-tie antennas [30], spiral and curl antennas [31-32], superstrate antennas or resonant cavity antennas [33-34], parabolic reflector antennas [35] and combinations of the above [36]. It has been demonstrated that by using the EBG substrates for patch antennas, the surface wave effects are significantly reduced [37] and are able to provide relatively broadband frequency performance.

There are two main advantages in using the metallo Dielectric EBG antennas, first they suppress surface currents, and second they introduce in-phase image currents.

Enoch et. al. designed a high impedance surface using metamaterial for the directive emissions in the antennas [38]. Similarly, Robert Coccioli et. al. developed a uniplanar compact PBG substrate, to reduce surface wave losses for an aperture coupled fed patch antenna on a thick high dielectric constant substrate [39].

Some simple two-dimensional arrays of conducting elements have been used to improve the performance of patch antennas [40].

Microwave filtering has also been turned out to be an important area where Electromagnetic bandgap materials play an important role [41]. The broad stop-band can be exploited to suppress spurious pass-bands present in conventional microstrip filters. The sharp cut-off can also be used to improve the roll-off on a low-pass filter. Furthermore, combinations of conventional designs and Electromagnetic bandgap materials could lead to very compact structures.

3.3.2 Resonators and Filters using EBG Structures

Resonators based on EBG technology have been recently proposed as an alternative to current technologies [42-45]. Resonator structures can be fabricated on different laminates by using inexpensive standard printed circuit board (PCB) processing techniques and can be used in commercial products.

Tim Eular and John Papapolymeror proposed a micromachined resonator at 45 GHz based on defect induced EBG laminate with high quality factor and low losses [42]. Some other researchers also designed high quality factor filters [42, 43], with high isolation [44] and low insertion losses [44, 45] with wide band width.

The concept of EBGs has been utilized to develop the devices of high isolation with high quality factor that can integrate monolithically with other components. According to the demands, Chappel and his co-workers designed 2, 3, and 6 pole filters using metallo-dielectric EBG lattice. Chappel also designed a wide bandgap structure using the high-k ceramics, which was embedded into a

polymer to create an EBG substrate. J.C Vardaxoglu et. al. also proposed a tunable wide bandgap using metallo-dielectric EBGs [46]. Hell and his team proposed a reconfigurable EBG cavity resonator with low insertion losses [47].

The use of EBG circuits for filter applications [48-52] in microwave technology has been proposed in different ways. Vesna Radistic designed the EBG by etching a 2-D structure of holes in the ground plane of the microstrip circuit [48].

To produce compact designs using the "Uniplanar Compact EBG Structures" where, the slow wave effect is produced by a distributed LC two-dimensional structure, which allows a considerable size reduction in the circuit. A spurious-free band pass filter and high-performance low pass filter using a coupled microstrip, was proposed by Fei-Ran Yang and his group [49].

Loptegi and his researchers also designed different band pass filters using defect ground structures [50]. Ducaín Nesić proposed a PBG microstrip slow wave structure. This proposed structure exhibits slow wave and low pass characteristics. It was fabricated by using modified microstrip line, without etching the ground plane [51-52].

3.3.3 EBG Defect and Wave Guides

The area of conventional waveguides is a field where hybrid solutions could play an important role. Fei-Ran Yang designed a wave guide using PBG structure. The structure is a 2-D square lattice with each cell consisting of metal

pad and four connecting lines [53]. Recently the coupled cavity waveguides (CCW) have attracted considerable attention. This perception can enable bends in the waveguide with very low bend reflection losses [54].

Joannopoulos and researchers proposed a channel drop filter structures composed of two waveguides [55]. Mekias et. al. demonstrated an efficient transmission of light around the photonic bandgap waveguides. They revealed that there was complete transmission at certain frequencies [56]. Furthermore, they require infinitely deep structures that can be readily analysed. A more practical approach was based on a dielectric waveguide that uses the inverse geometry, i.e. air holes in a dielectric host. Using these structures guiding is maintained within the periodic plane by total internal reflection, which is not the case for air filled guides.

Defects induced waveguides, commonly referred as coupled cavity waveguides (CCW), are used for making efficient waveguides, bends, and splitters. Spectral properties of the waveguides depend upon the nature of defects and their spacing. Both broad band and a narrow band waveguides can be produced by using these chains of defects.

Andrew. L. Raynolds examined a waveguide using the hexagonal lattice of air holes drilled in the dielectric substrate [57]

Another interesting application of defects induced waveguides is the terahertz local oscillator generation. It is well known that a defect mode within an electromagnetic bandgap is localized. The PBG acts as a high-Q and loss-less

cavity, and that it is possible to make an efficient and compact oscillator. Using a non-linear material as the defect it has been shown that it is possible to generate THz radiations [58].

3.3.4 EBG Tuned Microwave Devices

Tunable devices using EBG structures are very promising components for today's devices. The properties of EBG components rely on the contrast between the dielectric constant of the materials involved. Variation of the dielectric constant will lead to sensitive tuning of the properties of the EBG component. Some alternatives exist to accomplish tuning of Electromagnetic bandgap materials:

- (1) Micromechanically or electrically modifying the device geometry and/or dielectric loading [59] [60].
- (2) By creating some defects and
- (3) By using ferroelectric and ferromagnetic substrates [62].

In micro electro mechanical systems (MEMS) fabrication technologies, the position of the switches and membrane was modified electrically and local properties of the EBG components was modulated.

In the fourth alternative, they use different dielectric substrates are used on which the EBG structures were designed. By changing the permittivity and the permeability of the substrate, by using external electric or magnetic field, they achieve tuning in the EBG components is achieved .

A tunable filter using fractal electromagnetic bandgap structure was designed, simulated and fabricated, and its tuning was achieved using micromachined capacitive bridge [59]. Another ultra wide bandstop filter was designed and tuned using MEMS switches based on EBG co-planar waveguides [60].

Tunable electromagnetic bandgap structures based on ferroelectric or ferromagnetic thin films were also reported in literature [61]. To achieve tunable EBG performance ferroelectric capacitors are also considered [59] [62]. In addition, to achieve tunable electromagnetic bandgap EBG performance, ferroelectric varactors are considered in LC circuits, for periodically loading coplanar waveguides (CPWs). Asymmetric or symmetric tuning of the bandgap width was achieved by changing the capacitance of the varactors in LC circuits [61]. Yongje Sung presented a novel approach to obtain the electromagnetic bandgap structure with a wide tunable stopband filter using defected ground structure (DGS) [63]. Miguel and researcher also proposed a multiple frequency tuned photonic bandgap microstrip structure [64].

3.3.5 Miniaturization

Miniaturisation of microwave devices and antennas has become increasingly important in recent years. Modern wireless communication systems require small microwave elements that are relevant to high-level integration into compact lightweight systems.

Miniaturisation can be achieved by several techniques. Roger and his co-workers designed a magnetic conductor and to reduce its size and cost. In order

to do that they integrated some capacitance of the FSS without resorting to a second layer of overlapping patches [65]. By increasing the capacitor and inductor in Sivenpiper High Impedance Surface, size of the EBG cell was reduced [66]. Feresidis et. al. introduced the concept of closely coupled metallo dielectric electromagnetic band-gap structure, and designed 2-D double layer dipole arrays. These arrays are closely packed [67].

It is well known that at certain frequencies outside the band gap, periodic structures support waves, commonly termed as slow waves, with reduced phase velocity and guided wavelength with respect to the wave propagating in a comparable homogeneous medium. This property can be exploited for the miniaturisation of microwave elements, such as the triple array elements [68]. An approach to this is to examine elements with periodic loading. Multiple-order periodic loading of basic elements possesses a good degree of flexibility in the design [68, 69]. Fractal-type structures are subsequently produced using second order loading. This can also be used for multiband AMC designs [70]. Another way of increasing the length of the loading stubs without increase the unit cell and at the same time to increasing the capacitive coupling between successive elements is the inter digital topology. The loadings of successive dipoles are shifted so that they can extend to the full length allowed by the array geometry.

3.3.6 Planar EBG Structures

EBG technology represents a major breakthrough with respect to the current planar approaches, mainly due to their ability to guide and efficiently control electromagnetic waves. As the frequency increases, a planar structure that integrates the antenna, mixers, local oscillator, and all peripheral circuitry onto one single substrate becomes an attractive option.

Planar EBG's are of particular interest at microwave frequencies due to ease of fabrication. These EBG's are usually periodic in one and two dimensions. Planar EBG structures consist of uniformly distributed periodic metallic patterns on one side of a dielectric slab. They exhibit some interesting features such as distinctive passband and stopband, slow wave effects, low attenuation in the passband and suppression of surface waves when serving as the ground of planar microstrip circuit. Several Planar EBG configurations have been reported in the literature like uni-planar designs without vertical vias, one and two dimensional EBG transmission line design etc. in which they used EBG basis points with different geometries, and shapes like circular shape, square, hexagonal, fork shape, plus sign and many more. In some planar devices, they create defects by creating a discontinuity in periodic pattern. For example in a planar circular defect induced EBG structure with triangular lattice, they remove some circles or change their size for creating some discontinuity. Some of these types of EBG structures are shown in the figure. 3.5.

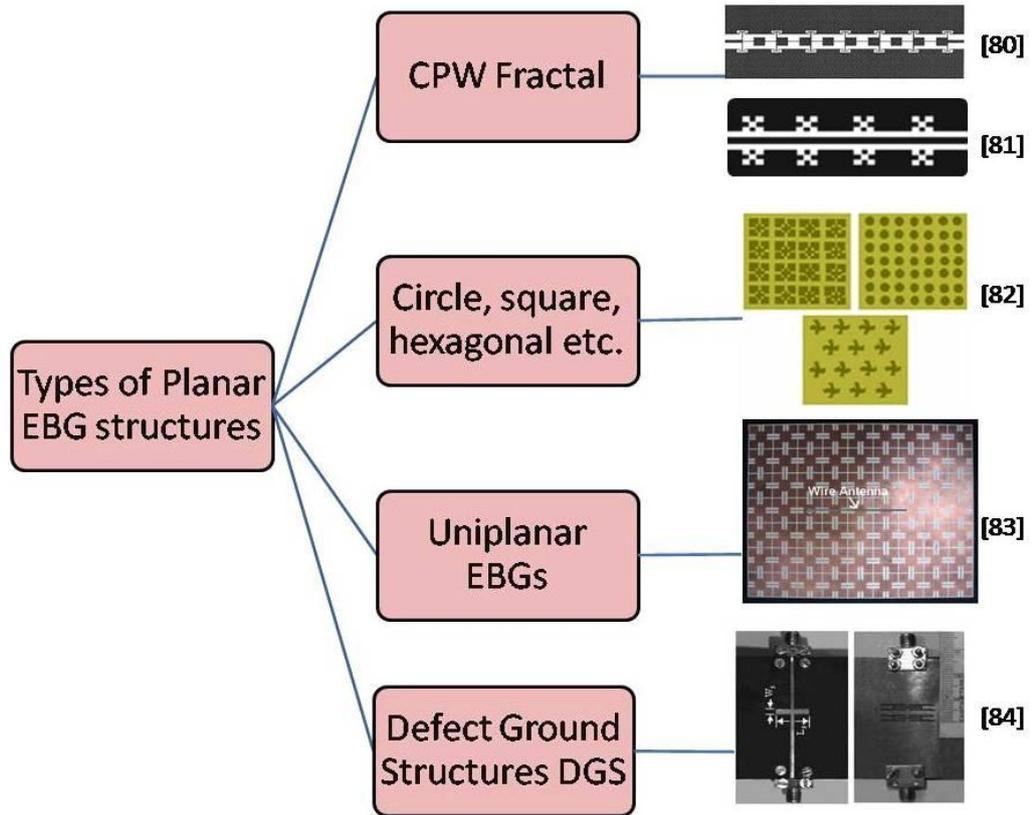


Figure 3.5. Classification of Planar EBG Structures

In conventional circle EBG, the development evolves to circle, circle-plus and annular rings EBGs. The CPW line is perturbed with the square EBG followed by Minkowski's iterations [71] on the conventional square EBG. Defect ground structure (DGS) [72] [73] is a new class of very wideband low pass filter that has been successfully utilized in antennas and filters. DGS is studied in various forms, uniplanar compact PBG (UC PBG) [74] is a periodic form of DGS in which a cascade of LC equivalent resonators is realized in the ground plane. A stepped-impedance bandstop filter is also realized in planar form. A hybrid DGS-EBG is designed to realize a very fine passband and wide stop band

performance [75].

V. Radisic et al [76] proposed 2D uniform hole-patterned EBG structure on the ground plane of a microstrip transmission line to realize wide stopband. Recently, cascading of three different EBG structures [71] were also proposed to achieve wider stopband. A new type of compact microstrip line is photonic bandgap (PBG) structures employing in T-type microstrip line for filter applications. A miniature band rejection filter with four cell was simulated, fabricated, its band rejection characteristics is lower than -10 dB from 23 GHz-32 GHz. Proposed filter was very compact and much easier to fabricate [77]. Periodically loaded ultra wideband (UWB) bandpass filter based on the EBG concept was proposed. Compact wideband filters with steep transition bands can be designed easily using this methodology [78]. Two different uniform photonic bandgap structures used as stopband filters for microstrip lines at 5.4 GHz were proposed and compared in terms of the pattern shapes, and effects on the s parameters. This work suggested the use of 1D pattern to reduce the transversal size of the filter. [79]. 1-D uniplanar periodical structures and defect high-Q resonators for co-planar waveguide, co-planar stripline, and slotlines were also proposed. These uniplanar structures consists of 1-D periodic etched slots along a transmission line or alternating characteristics impedance series having wideband bandstop filter characteristics.

There are several other applications of these Planar EBG structures shown in the figure below.

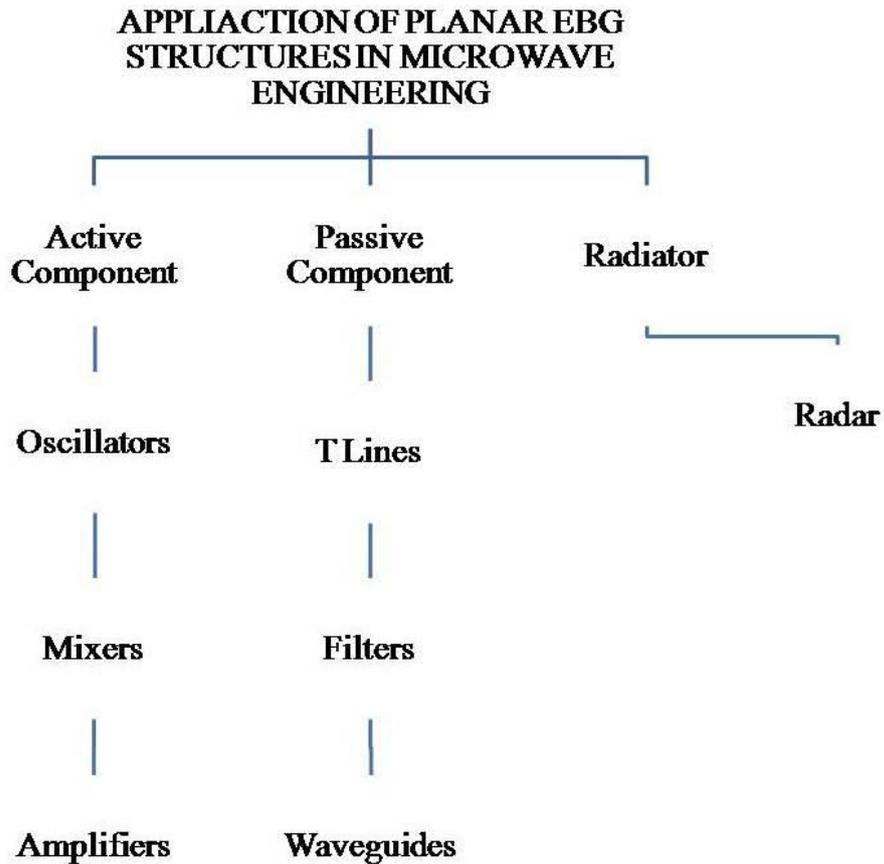


Figure 3.6 Applications of Planar EBG Structures

These planar EBGs are periodic in one and two dimensions but we learned from the literature that the two dimensional EBGs could be even more valuable.

Present work also focuses on 2 dimensional planar EBG structures.

3.3 Phenomenon Of EBG Structures:

This section is deals with the details of bandgap theory using the Bloch wave formulism. Using the wave propagation equation it is concluded that any

periodic structure leads to a band of frequency where propagation is not allowed, referred to as bandgap phenomenon.

The phenomenon of bandgap structures appeared in the late 1960's in the optical domain. At first, the explanation to this phenomenon was given by Kogelnik and Shank in their explanation to the dispersion characteristics of the distributed feedback lasers [85]. At that time, they did not value the phenomenon of the bandgap produced by the periodic variations in the refractive index, but they just focused on explaining the phenomenon. They proved that the periodic variation in the refractive index of a structure produced forward and backward propagating waves that interact with each other through coupled wave equations. By solving these coupled wave equations, they found through the dispersion relation that there existed a certain frequency band along which there was no wave propagation due to the presence of evanescent waves.

Two approaches are generally used to obtain the solution of the propagation of electromagnetic waves in a periodic layered medium. One is the Coupled-Mode theory and other is the Bloch wave expansion method [87].

3.4.1 Bloch Wave Expansion

Here the phenomenon of bandgap structure and existence of a forbidden band are discussed using the Bloch- Wave formulation.

The properties of the periodic medium are described by its dielectric and permeability tensors, which are periodic, function of x and y for the two

dimensional periodic systems, reflecting the translational symmetry of the medium:

$$\varepsilon(x) = \varepsilon(x + a), \mu(x) = \mu(x + a)$$

$$\varepsilon(y) = \varepsilon(y + b), \mu(y) = \mu(y + b)$$

where a and b are arbitrary lattice vectors. These equations merely state that the medium looks exactly the same to an observer at x as at $x+a$. In a three dimensional periodic medium, there exist permittivity lattice vector a_1, a_2, a_3 which define the periodicity of the lattice, such that the medium remains invariant under translation through any vector a which is the sum of integral multiples of these vectors.

The propagation of the electromagnetic waves in a periodic medium is described by the Maxwell's equations. By combining the source free Faradays and Ampere's Laws at fixed frequency ω [88],

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \quad (3.1)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \quad (3.2)$$

As \vec{E} and \vec{H} are proportional to $e^{-i\omega t}$ at frequency ω , and $\partial/\partial t$ can be replaced by $(i\omega)$. Now by putting this value in equation (3.1) and (3.2) we obtained the following equations

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = i\omega \vec{B} \quad (3.3)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = i\omega \varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0 \mu_0 \vec{E} \quad (3.4)$$

Now by eliminating the \vec{B} in eqn. (3.3) & (3.4) we will get the following relation

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{E}) = \omega^2 \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \quad (3.5)$$

On the other hand, it can be written as follows.

$$\frac{1}{\epsilon_r} \nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{E}_r) = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \vec{E} \quad (3.6)$$

Where $c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}}$

Where let ϵ is the dielectric function of the metallic period $\epsilon(r)$ and c is the speed of light in vacuum. This is an Eigen value equation, with eigen (ω/c^2) and an eigen operator $\vec{\nabla} \times \frac{1}{\epsilon} \vec{E}$ is a Hermitian operator (acts the same to the left and right) under the inner product $\int \vec{E} * \vec{E}'$ between the two fields \vec{E} and \vec{E}' [89].

This equation can be solved by various methods. Here the plane wave expansion method is used for solving eqn. (3.6).

Plane wave expansion method refers to a computational technique in electromagnetic to solve the Maxwell's equation by formulating an eigen value problem out of the equation.

Plane wave are solutions to the homogeneous Helmholtz equation, and from a basis to represent field in the periodic media. The electric or magnetic fields are expanded for each field component in terms of the Fourier series components along the reciprocal lattice vector. Similarly, the dielectric permittivity (which is periodic along reciprocal lattice vector for photonic crystals) is also expanded

through Fourier series components [88]. We express the eigen function as a superposition of plane waves:

$$E_{kn}(r) = \sum_G E_{kn}(G) \exp(i(k + G) \cdot r) \quad (3.7)$$

Where n and G are the band index and the reciprocal lattice vector, respectively, and in summation G runs over all the reciprocal lattice vectors, including $G=0$. In the superposition of the plane wave's different phenomenon like Bloch wave, formula and Bragg's plane condition are used [90].

By inserting eqn. (3.7) into eqn. (3.6), the following eigen value equation for the expansion coefficient $\{E_{kn}(G)\}$ is obtained

$$-\sum_{G'} \kappa(G - G')(k + G') \{(k + G') \times E_{kn}(G')\} = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} E_{kn}(G) \quad (3.8)$$

Where $\kappa(G - G')$ is the furrier transform of the inverse dielectric tensor, $\varepsilon^{-1}(r)$.

For a 2D crystal uniform in the z direction with a period ε in the x - y plane and k vector parallel to the 2D plane [13], eqn. (3.6) for TM modes is transformed to:

$$\sum_{G'} \kappa(G - G') |k + G'|^2 E_z(G') = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} E_z(G) \quad (3.9)$$

For plotting a dispersion relation of the 2 dimensional square lattice, Fourier analysis of the eqn. (3.9) has been done. The Fourier coefficient $\kappa(G)$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa(G) &= 2f \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_a} - \frac{1}{\varepsilon_b} \right) \frac{J_1 G r_a}{G r_a} & G \neq 0 \\ &= \frac{f}{\varepsilon_a} + \frac{1-f}{\varepsilon_b} & G = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (3.10)$$

Where r_a is the radius of the basis points, $f = \frac{\pi r_a^2}{a^2}$ is the filling fraction, a is the lattice constant, and $J_1(Gr_a)$ is the Bessel function of first kind. The G vector is a 2D reciprocal vector in the x - y plane [91]. By putting, the values of dielectric constants and the filling fraction one can plot the dispersion diagrams. For example, we plot the dispersion relation for the square metallic lattice with circular basis point in which the ϵ_a is considered as the dielectric constant of metallic basis points and the ϵ_b is the dielectric constant of the air. The radius of the circular metallic basis point is 1.76 mm, and lattice constant for square lattice 8 mm [5].

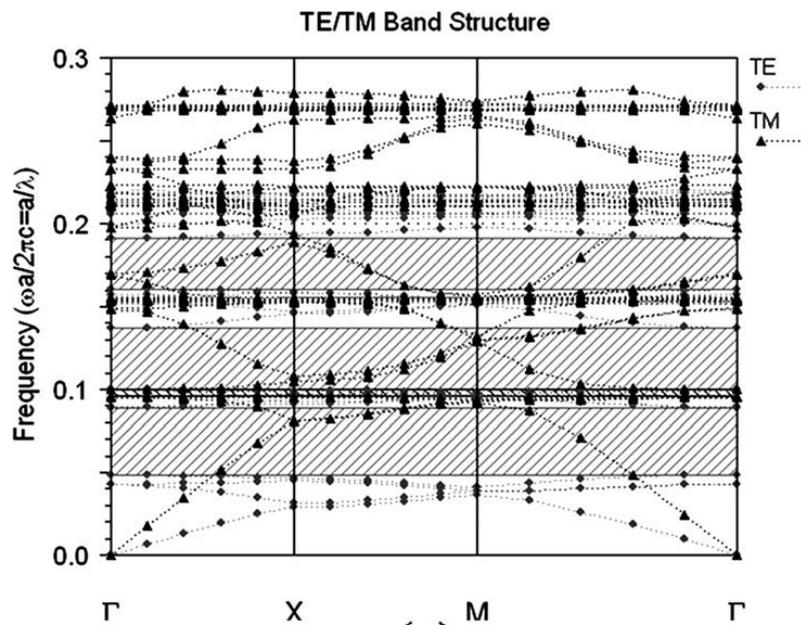


Figure 3.7 Dispersion diagram for square metallic EBG structures [5].

Dispersion diagrams shows the relation between the frequency ω and the wave vector k and it is equivalent to the Brillouin diagram used to illustrate the energy band structure in periodic crystals. The horizontal axis of the dispersion

diagrams indicate the wave number β in the Brillouin zone. In the 2-D case, β will be $\sqrt{(k_x^2 + k_y^2)}$, where k_x and k_y are the wave numbers in the x & y directions, respectively. The X, Y, and M in the Brillouin zone represent the high symmetry points in the spectral domain[92].

3.4.2 Brillouin Zones

Brillouin zones are an important characteristic of crystal structures. The construction and illustration of Brillouin zones for a three dimensional lattice are somewhat difficult to follow. The construction of Brillouin zones for a two dimensional lattice is much easier to follow.

“A Bragg Plane” for two points in a lattice is the plane which is perpendicular to the line between the two points and passes through the bisector of that line. The first Brillouin zone for a point in a lattice is the set of points that are closer to the point than the Bragg Plane of point. In other words, one can reach any of the points without crossing the Bragg Plane of any other point in the first Brillouin zone of a lattice point [93].

The second Brillouin zone is defined as the points which may be reached from the first Brillouin zone by crossing only one Bragg plane. This can be generalised to define the n^{th} Brillouin zone as the set of points, not in the previous zones that can be reached from one $(n-1)^{\text{th}}$ zone by crossing one and only one Bragg plane. In constructing the Brillouin zones for a point it is expedient to

first determine the nearest neighbours, the next nearest neighbours and so on [93].

Figure 3.8 shows the Bragg planes between the central lattice point and other lattice points. For example, the yellow circle in the middle of Figure 3.8 represents the centre of one EBG cell. The centres of the four nearest adjacent cells, vertically and horizontally, are marked as red circles. In between the yellow circle and each red circle is a red line, which is the Bragg plane.

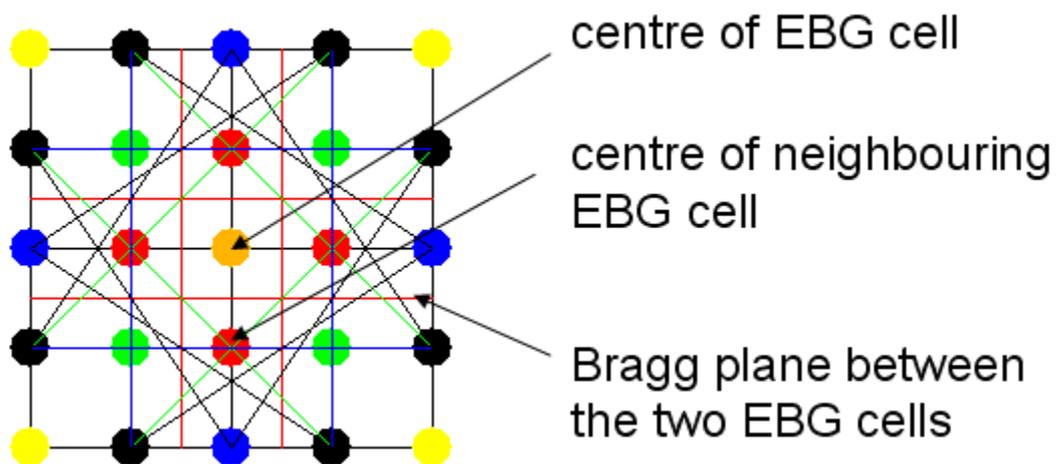


Figure 3.8 Construction of the Bragg planes in relation to the central lattice point [82].

The first Brillouin zone extends from the chosen point of the lattice to the Bragg planes. The area that is beyond the first Bragg plane, but walled in by Bragg planes as well, is the second Brillouin zone. Whenever a Bragg plane is crossed, a new Brillouin zone begins. This zone ends at the borders of the Bragg planes. Figure 3.8 shows an example of the first four Brillouin zones in a 2D square lattice. The

colours correspond to the colours in Figure 3.8, for example, the red Bragg planes between the central circle and the red circles of Figure 3.9 mark the borders of the red Brillouin zone shown in Figure 3.9.

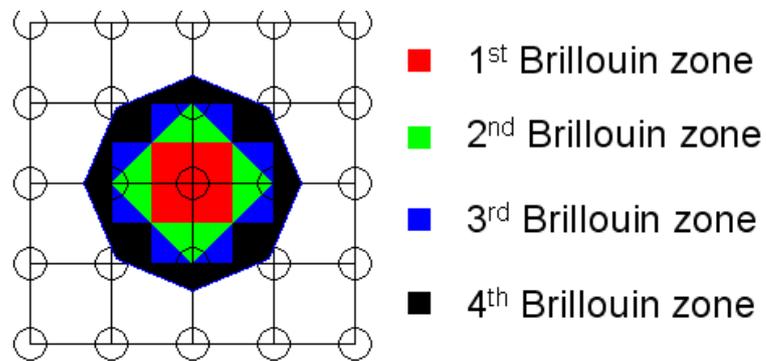


Figure 3.9 The first four Brillouin zones in a square lattice [82].

For a square lattice, the first Brillouin zone is a square and for a hexagonal lattice, the first Brillouin zone is a hexagon. Usually there is also symmetry in the Brillouin zone, so that the calculation of the dispersion diagram is along the lines connecting the critical points. Critical points are points of high symmetry [93]. The nomenclature for the cube is used for the square lattice as well. Γ denotes the centre of the Brillouin zone, X stands for a centre of a face and M is the centre of an edge. This region of symmetry within a Brillouin zone is called the irreducible Brillouin zone. For a square lattice, the irreducible Brillouin zone is triangle shaped.

3.5 Conclusion

In this chapter a detailed discussion about the history of EBG structures, type of EBG structure, different applications of EBG structures and EBG structure as a filter, resonator etc is given. This chapter gives the better understanding of the phenomenon of EBG structures and wave propagation in periodic media. The detailed analysis of plane wave propagation in periodic media has been explained using the Bloch wave function and Bragg's condition, by which one can understand the origin of bandgaps and brillouin zones are understood.

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