# 2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators" **RF Measurements** – An Introduction –

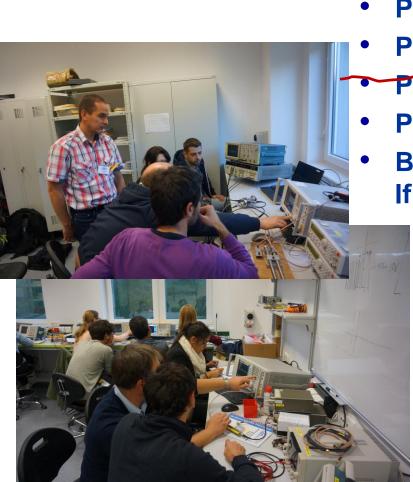
CALL CONTRACT

Jac 1 hours - I have been been a

**Manfred Wendt – CERN** 





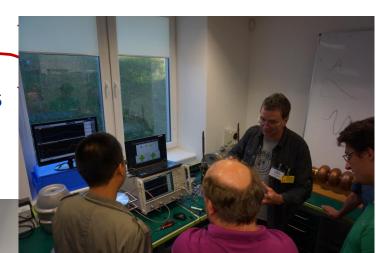


- Introduction
- Part I: Signals and reflections on transmission-lines
- Part II: The Smith chart
- Part III: Scattering parameters

**Contents** 

- Part IV: RF measurement methods
  - Backup slides: If you want to know more...



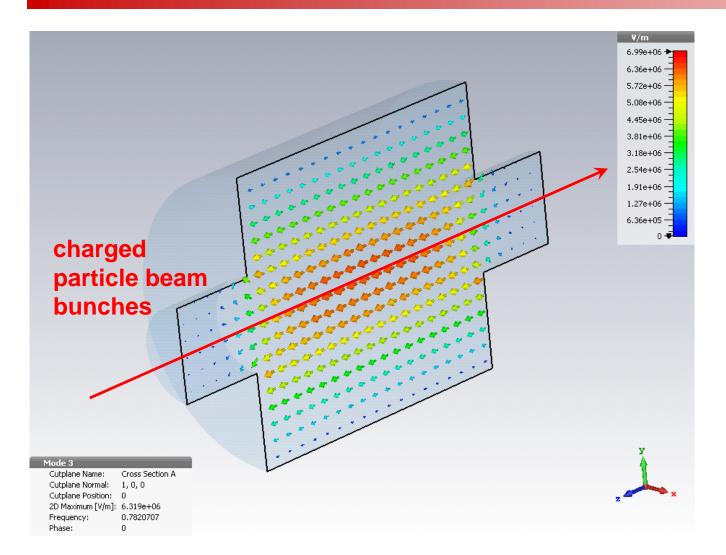






#### Introduction – A resonant cavity





- EM-fields, RF technology, material science, etc.
  - High acceleration gradient, up to 100MV/m

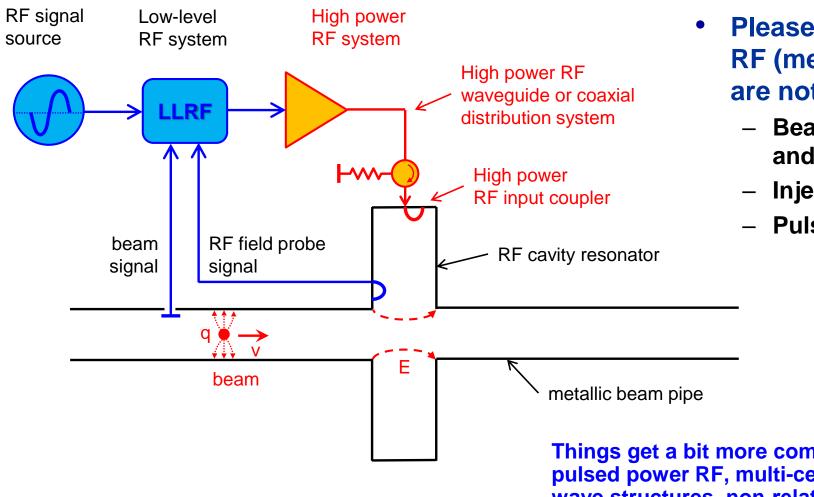
#### • Beam dynamics

- Particle interaction with EM-fields
- HOMs, wakefields
- $f_{res}$ , harmonic number h
- *V<sub>RF</sub>* defines a stable RF bucket (potential well)
  - $\succ$  ...and therefore,  $f_s$ , etc.
- Transit time



### Introduction – A simple RF system



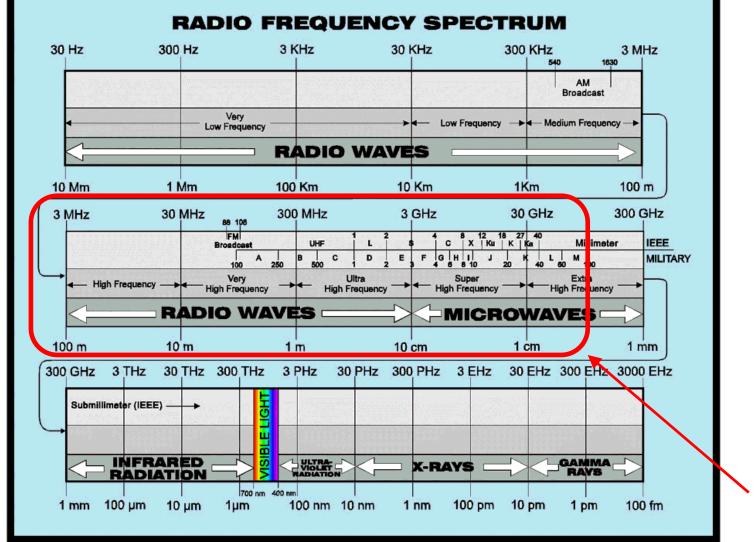


- Please note: RF (measurement) techniques are not limited to accelerator RF
  - Beam / bunch instrumentation and diagnostics
  - Injection / extraction elements
  - Pulsed accelerator systems, etc.

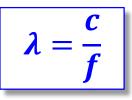
Things get a bit more complicated in the real world: pulsed power RF, multi-cell resonators or traveling wave structures, non-relativistic beams, HOM's, SRF, etc.







Free space wavelength:



We care about RF concepts if the physical dimensions of an apparatus is  $> \lambda/10$ 

RF frequencies typically utilized in accelerator applications



### **Digital (mathematical) RF: The RF-SoC**





- Low-power RF signals can be processed digitally
  - RF System-on-Chip: processors, FPGA, ADCs and DACs
    - > 8x ADC (5 GBPS, 12-bit, 70 dB dynamic range), 8x DAC (9.8 GBPS), incl. up-down converters
    - > Multi-core processors, on-chip memory, many I/O options
  - For frequencies <2 GHz, operation in the 1<sup>st</sup> Nyquist passband
- Not part of this lecture...



#### **Part I: Transmission-lines**



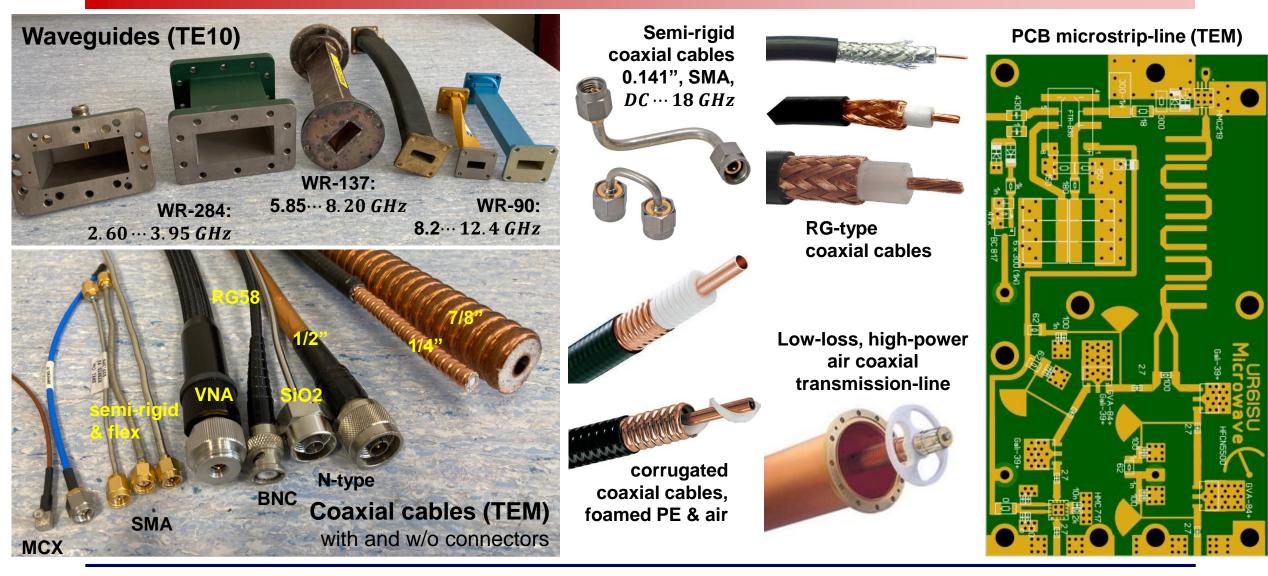
#### • Outline and Learning objectives

- Introduction and some minimum theoretical background
- Reflections effects of pulse signals on transmission-lines due to characteristic-termination impedance mismatch
- Standing waves on transmission-lines for continuous wave (CW) sinusoidal signals, definition of the reflection coefficient
- Relation between reflection coefficient, standing wave ration and return loss



#### **Transmission-lines (1)**







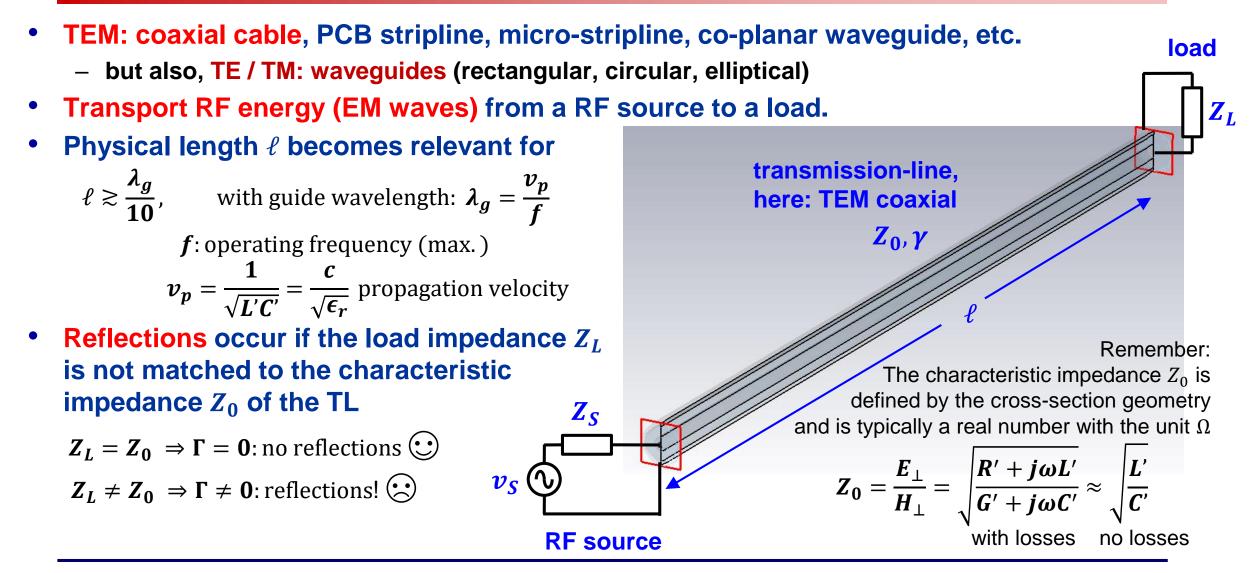
#### **Transmission-lines (2)**



- Transmission-lines transport RF energy (waves) between components and sub-systems and exist in a large variety. Most popular are
  - Coaxial cables, always in TEM operation below the TE11 cut-off frequency
    - > Popular connectors are BNC (*Bayonet Neill–Concelman*), N-type and SMA (Sub-Miniature version A)
    - > There exist a large variety of coaxial cables and connectors for HOM-free operation up to 110 GHz
  - PCB (printed circuit board)-based planar quasi-TEM transmission-lines
    - > Popular are microstrip, stripline and coplanar-waveguide structures
  - Rectangular waveguides, usually in TE10-mode operation
    - For low-loss (high-power), high-frequency RF signal transmission
    - > Clumsy and expensive, however, for some applications the only solution
- Strictly speaking: Transmission-lines are 2-dimensional objects with infinite length
  - The cross-section geometry defines the characteristic impedance  $Z_0$
- TEM transmission-lines (coaxial cables, PCB planar lines) operate from DC (direct current: 0 Hz) to a frequency given by the 1<sup>st</sup> higher-order mode
  - Various frequency depended losses contribute, therefore, high insertion losses at high frequencies
- Rectangular waveguides do not operate at DC or low frequencies!
  - Instead utilize the TE10 mode for the signal transmission



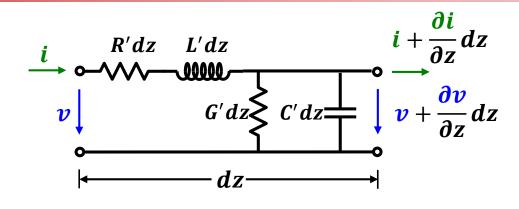




# Telegrapher's Equation for TEM transmission-lines

#### A more general approach:

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{v}(\boldsymbol{z},\boldsymbol{t})}{\partial \boldsymbol{z}} = -\left(\boldsymbol{R}' + \boldsymbol{L}'\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{t}}\right)\boldsymbol{i}(\boldsymbol{z},\boldsymbol{t})$$
$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{i}(\boldsymbol{z},\boldsymbol{t})}{\partial \boldsymbol{z}} = -\left(\boldsymbol{G}' + \boldsymbol{C}'\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{t}}\right)\boldsymbol{v}(\boldsymbol{z},\boldsymbol{t})$$



phase velocity  $v_p = \frac{\lambda}{T} = \frac{\alpha}{R}$ 

in steady state:

 $\frac{dV}{dz} = -(R' + j\omega L')I$ 

 $\frac{dI}{dz} = -(G' + j\omega C')V$ 

$$\frac{d^2 V}{dz^2} = \gamma^2 V$$

voltage and current along a transmission-line:  $V(z) = V_0 \cosh \gamma z - Z_0 I_0 \sinh \gamma z$   $I(z) = I_0 \cosh \gamma z - \frac{V_0}{Z_0} \sinh \gamma z$  $V_0, I_0$ : voltage and current at the beginning of the line (z = 0)

wave number  $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \beta$ 

propagation constant attenuation phase constant 
$$\gamma = \sqrt{(R' + j\omega L')(G' + j\omega C')} = \alpha + j\beta$$

characteristic impedance

$$\mathbf{z}_{0} \cong \sqrt{\frac{\mathbf{R}' + j\omega L'}{\mathbf{G}' + j\omega C'}}$$



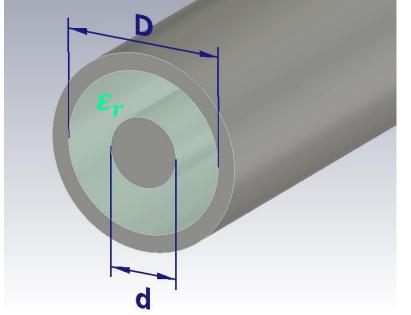


• The characteristic impedance is defined by the cross-section

geometry:

$$Z_0 = \frac{\eta_0}{2\pi\sqrt{\varepsilon_r}} \ln\left(\frac{D}{d}\right) \approx \frac{60 \ \Omega}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_r}} \ln\left(\frac{D}{d}\right) \quad [\Omega]$$

- The attenuation losses in the propagation constant γ are dominated by the material properties:
  - **Propagation constant:**  $\gamma = \alpha + j\beta$
  - Attenuation constant:  $\alpha = \alpha_c + \alpha_d + \alpha_r + \alpha_l$ 
    - The attenuation losses are dominated by conductor and dielectric losses



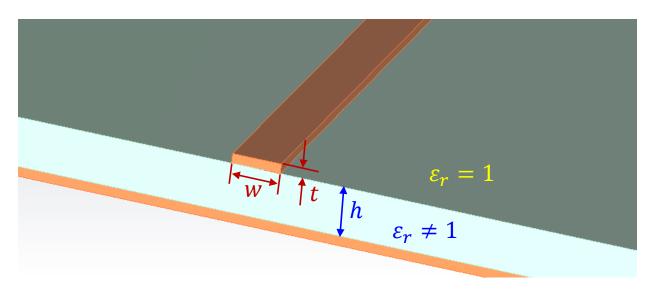
For inner and outer conductor in copper:  $\mu_{rD} = \mu_{rd} = \mu_{rCu} = 1; \ \rho_D = \rho_d = \rho_{Cu} = 1.72 \cdot 10^{-8} \ \Omega m$ 

- Conductor losses: 
$$\alpha_{c} = \frac{\sqrt{f\mu_{0}/\pi}}{2Z_{0}} \left( \frac{\sqrt{\mu_{rD}\rho_{D}}}{D} + \frac{\sqrt{\mu_{rd}\rho_{d}}}{d} \right) [Np/m]$$
  $\alpha_{c} = 6 \cdot 10^{-9} \sqrt{f\epsilon_{r}} \frac{D+d}{dD \ln(D/d)} [dB/m]$   
- Dielectric losses:  $\alpha_{d} = \pi f \sqrt{\mu_{0}\epsilon_{0}\epsilon_{r}} \tan \delta_{\epsilon}$  [Np/m]  $\alpha_{d} = 91 \cdot 10^{-9} f \sqrt{\epsilon_{r}} \tan \delta$  [dB/m]  
 $\geq$  with: resistivity:  $\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma}$  [ $\Omega m$ ]; loss tangent:  $\tan \delta_{\epsilon} = \frac{\epsilon^{"}}{\epsilon^{'}}$ ; permittivity:  $\epsilon = \epsilon^{'} - j\epsilon^{"}$  [F/m]; permeability:  $\mu = \mu^{'} - j\mu^{"}$  [H/m]





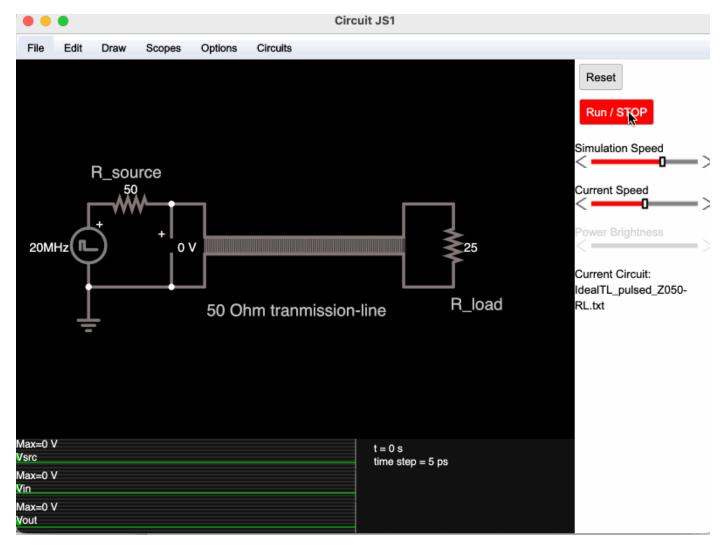
- Microstrip-line:
  - Metallic strip conductor of width *w* and thickness *t* on a dielectric substrate of height *h* over a conductive ground plane.
    - > Typically, the dielectric layer is a low-loss printed circuit board substrate
    - > Quasi-TEM field as the EM-field propagates in two medias of different  $\varepsilon_r$
    - > Complicated analytical approximations to calculate the properties ( $Z_0$ ,  $\varepsilon_{eff}$ , losses, high-order modes, etc.)
- Other popular planar structures are coplanar waveguides and striplines





### **TL: Signal visualization in time-domain**





- Circuit simulator applet: <u>https://www.falstad.com/circuit/</u>
  - Load file:

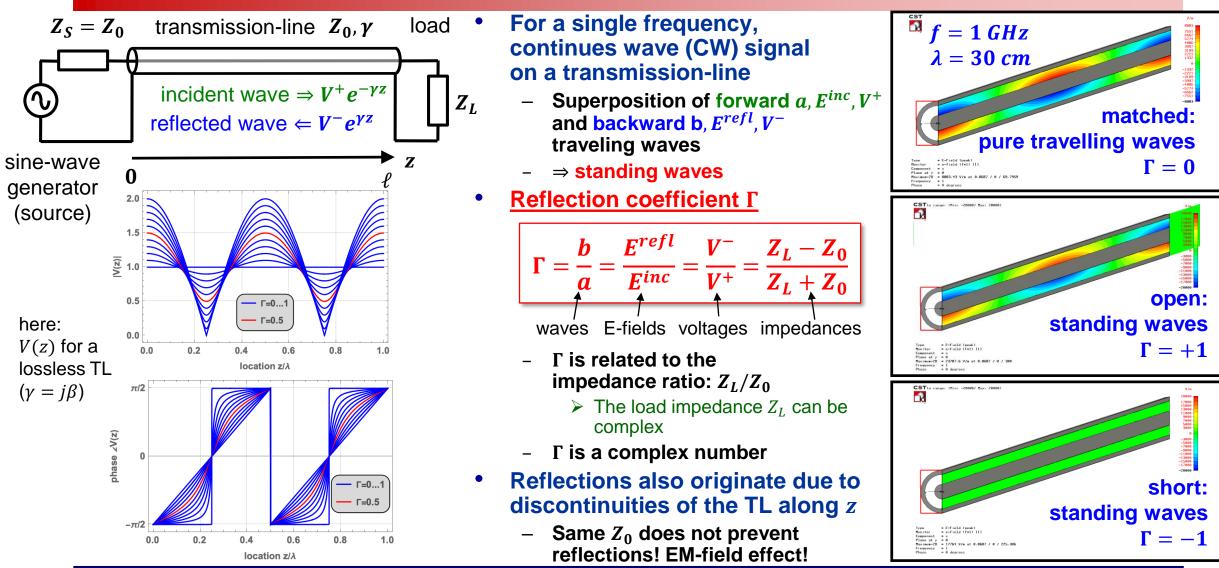
#### IdeaITL\_DCswitched\_Z050-RL.txt

- > Change the load resistor value:  $RL = 50, 100, 25 \Omega$
- Operate the switch and observe the signals at the beginning, and at the end of the transmission-line.
- Load file: IdealTL\_pulsed\_Z050-RL.txt
  - > Change the load resistor value:  $RL = 50, 100, 25 \Omega$
  - Observe the signal waveforms! Can you predict the values?!
    - (Press *Run/STOP* and hover with the mouse over the waveform)



### TL: Operating with sinusoidal signals (FD)









• The voltage standing wave ratio (VSWR) expresses the ratio between the maximum and minimum voltage of a standing wave along a transmission-line

$$VSWR = \frac{|V_{max}|}{|V_{min}|} = \frac{|a| + |b|}{|a| - |b|} = \frac{1 + |\Gamma|}{1 - |\Gamma|} = \left|\frac{Z_L}{Z_0}\right|$$

- The VSWR is a function of the frequency.
- The generalized standing wave ratio (SWR),
   e.g., expressed as power ratio is less popular

$$SWR = \frac{1 + \sqrt{P^{-}/P^{+}}}{1 - \sqrt{P^{-}/P^{+}}}$$

• The return loss (RL) is another way to express reflection effects

$$RL[dB] = 10 \log_{10} \frac{P^+}{P^-} = -20 \log_{10} |\Gamma|$$

with: 
$$\begin{cases} |V_{max}| = |V^+| + |V^-| \\ |V_{min}| = |V^+| - |V^-| \end{cases}$$

symbols: incident (forward) wave:  $a, X^+$ reflected (backward) wave:  $b, X^-$ 

Г	$VSWR = Z_L/Z_0$	Return Loss [dB]	Refl. Power $ \Gamma ^2$	Inc. Power $1 -  \Gamma ^2$
0.0	1.00	œ	0.00	1.00
0.1	1.22	20.0	0.01	0.99
0.2	1.50	14.0	0.04	0.96
0.3	1.87	10.5	0.09	0.91
0.4	2.33	8.0	0.16	0.84
0.5	3.00	6.0	0.25	0.75
0.6	4.00	4.4	0.36	0.64
0.7	5.67	3.1	0.49	0.51
0.8	9.00	1.9	0.64	0.36
0.9	19.00	0.9	0.81	0.19
1.0	œ	0	1.00	0.00



/**n** \

- dezi-Bel: 1 dB = 0.1 B (Bel)
  - Logarithmic scaling to compare large, e.g., power ratios:  $P_{dB} = 10 \log_{10}$
  - or large ratios of other quantities, e.g.:

dB ratio	$P_1/P_2$	$V_1/V_2$
n x 10 dB	10 <sup>n</sup>	10 <sup>n/2</sup>
40 dB	10000	100
20 dB	100	10
10 dB	10	~3.16
6 dB	~4	~2
3 dB	~2	~1.41
0 dB	1	1
-3 dB	~0.5	~0.71
-20 dB	0.01	0.1

e.g., power ratios: 
$$P_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{P_1}{P_2}\right)$$
  
 $V_{dB} = 20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2}\right)$   
 $I_{dB} = 20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{I_1}{I_2}\right)$   
 $\frac{P_1}{P_2} = 10^{\left(\frac{P_{dB}}{10}\right)} \quad \frac{V_1}{V_2} = 10^{\left(\frac{V_{dB}}{20}\right)}$   
The 3 dB ratio (half power) is a common specification for the bandwidth



#### "dB" is not "dBm"



1

- *dBm* is defined as a logarithmic power unit
  - based on dB and  $P_{ref} = 1 mW$

$$P_{dBm} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P}{P_{ref}} \right)$$

1

- *dBm* can also be used as logarithmic voltage unit
  - e.g., for  $Z_0 = 50 \Omega$ :  $V_{ref} = 0.2236 V$

dBm	Р	V (RMS)
30 dBm	1 W	7.07 V
20 dBm	100 mW	2.24 V
10 dBm	10 mW	707 mV
6 dBm	4.0 mW	446 mV
0 dBm	1.0 mW	224 mV
-20 dBm	10 µW	22.4 mV
-60 dBm	1.0 nW	224 µV
-120 dBm	1.0 fW	224 nV
- 174 dBm	4.0e-21 W	0.446 nV

$$V_{dBm} = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{V}{V_{ref}} \right)$$

$$P = P_{ref} 10^{\left(\frac{P_{dBm}}{10}\right)}$$

$$V = V_{ref} \mathbf{10}^{\left(\frac{V_{dBm}}{20}\right)}$$

noise power in a bandwidth BW = 1 Hz at room temperature



#### Part II: Smith-Chart



#### • Outline and Learning objectives

- Refresher: Visualization of a complex impedance in the frequency domain
- Definition of the Smith chart, mapping the complex impedance / admittance plane with the complex reflection coefficient
- Basic facts and important points on the Smith chart
- Simple example

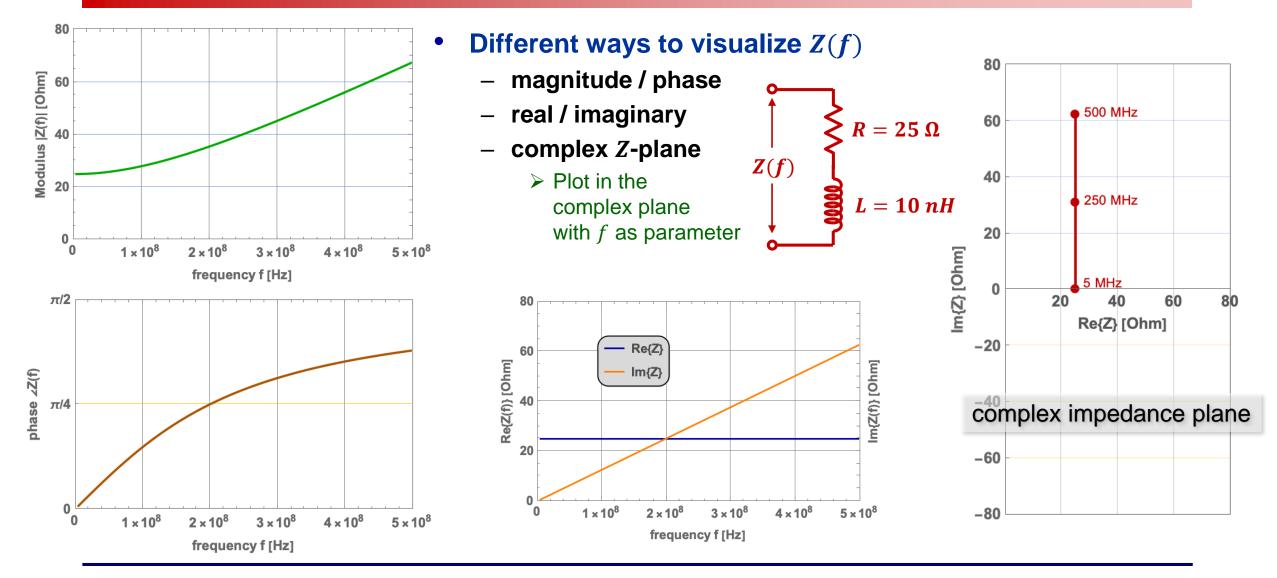
More examples and information in the backup section:

- Examples for a RL and RC series circuit, and for a transmission-line terminated with a RL series circuit.
- > Operation of a  $\lambda/4$ transformer based on a transmission-line as a (normalized) impedance inverter



#### **Reminder: The complex** *Z***-Plane**

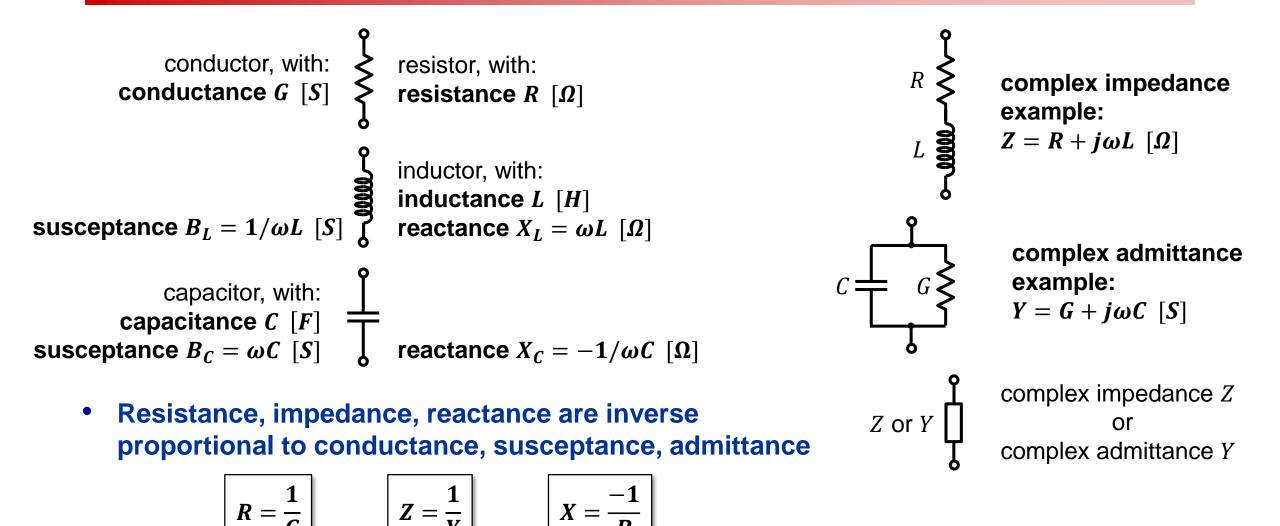






#### **Reminder: Circuit Vocabulary**

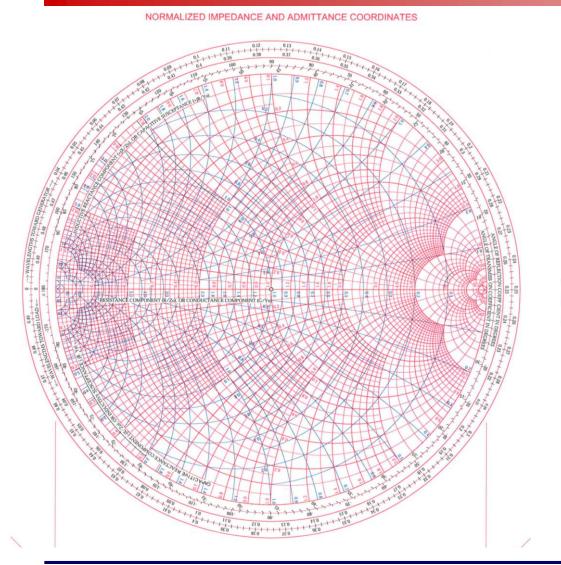




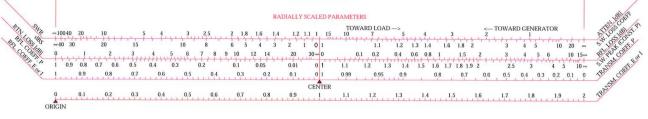


### The Smith Chart (1)





- The *Smith* chart is a calculation tool, divided in 2 parts:
  - A transformation of the complex, normalized impedance z and admittance y-planes on a circle.
  - A set of "rulers" below, for additional computations
    - > VSWR, return and reflection loss, etc.

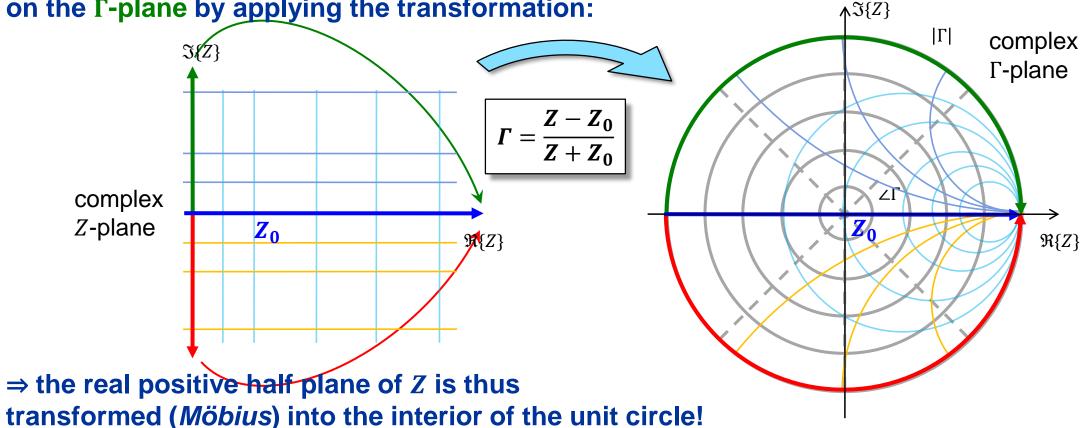


- At a 1<sup>st</sup> look the Smith chart is quite overwhelming
  - In this introduction the focus is on the complex z-plane





- The Smith chart (in impedance / admittance coordinates) represents the complex Γ-plane (in polar coordinates) within the unit circle.
- It is a conformal mapping of the complex *Z*-plane on the Γ-plane by applying the transformation:



### The Smith Chart (3)



• In the classical paper *Smith* chart the impedance *Z* is normalized:

$$z = \frac{Z}{Z_0}$$

to a reference impedance  $Z_0$ ,

typically, to the characteristic impedance of the coaxial cable transmission-lines used in RF / microwave engineering:  $Z_0 = 50 \Omega$ .

- The normalized form of the transformation follows then as:
  - The Smith chart is a parametric graph
    - with the frequency *f* as parameter
    - and the normalized, complex impedance z and complex reflection coefficient  $\Gamma$  as variables
      - > also, the normalized, complex admittance y = 1/z is mapped and can be used as variable.
- In the past

۲

- The Smith chart was used as a calculation tool for impedance matching, e.g., antennas to transmitters or receivers, amplifier input / output stages, couplers of accelerating cavities, etc.
- At presence, the *Smith* chart is still popular
  - for visualization purposes, e.g., vector network analyzer (VNA) measurement of input / output impedances (display of the Snn scattering parameters)
  - for the optimization of the coupling between RF source and a cavity resonator.

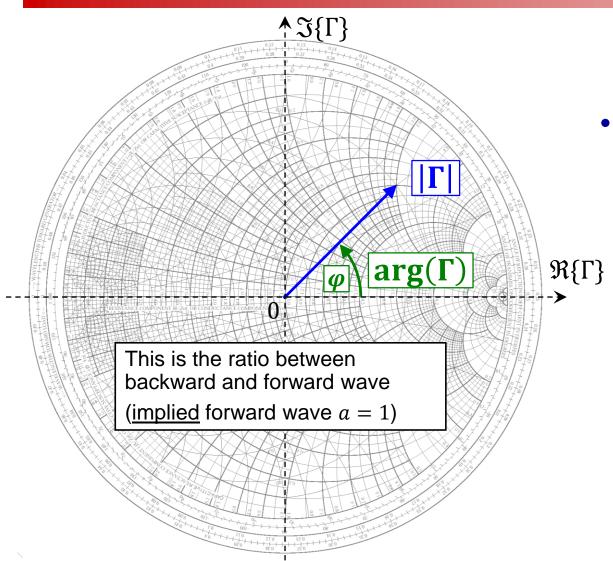
- ..

$$\Gamma = \frac{z-1}{z+1} \Rightarrow \frac{Z}{Z_0} = z = \frac{1+\Gamma}{1-\Gamma}$$



### The Smith Chart (4)





In the *Smith* chart, the complex reflection factor

$$\Gamma = |\Gamma| e^{j\varphi} = \frac{b}{a}$$

is expressed in linear polar coordinates, representing the ratio of backward *b* vs. forward *a* traveling waves.



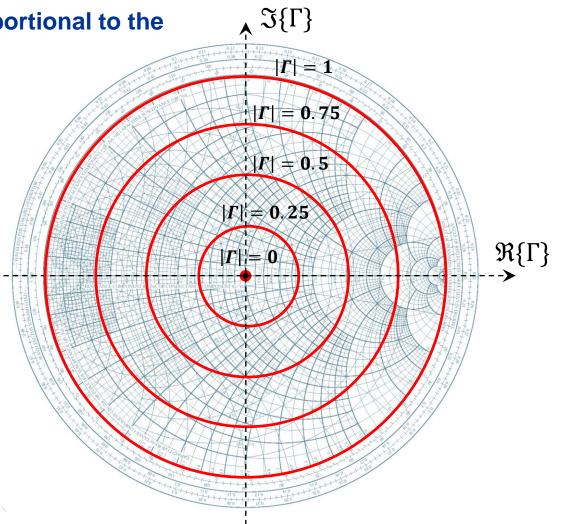
### The Smith Chart (5)



- The distance from the center of the directly proportional to the magnitude of the reflection factor  $|\Gamma|$  and permits an easy visualization of the matching performance.
  - In particular, the perimeter \_ of the diagram represents total reflection:  $|\Gamma| = 1$ .
  - (power dissipated in the load) = — (forward power) – (reflected power)

$$P = |a|^{2} - |b|^{2}$$
$$= |a|^{2} (1 - |\Gamma|^{2})$$
$$\bigwedge$$
available mismatch source power losses

losses



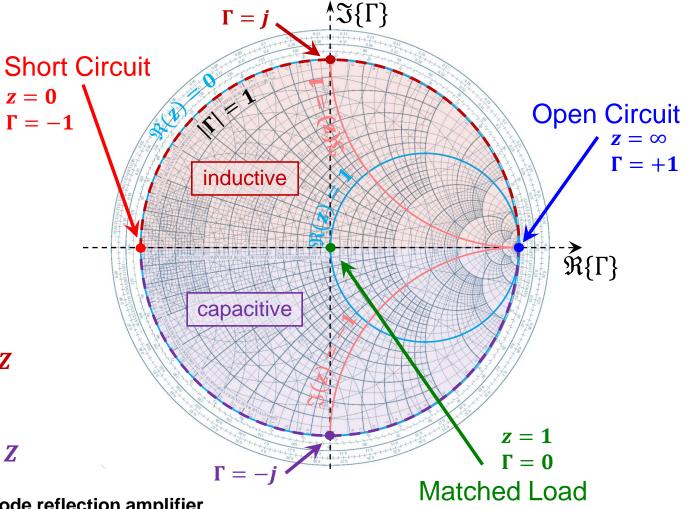


### The Smith Chart – "Important Points"



#### **Important Points:**

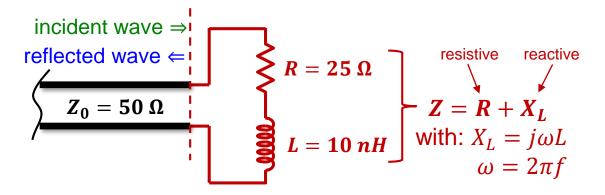
- Short Circuit  $\Gamma = -1, z = 0$
- Open Circuit  $\Gamma = +1, z \rightarrow \infty$
- Matched Load  $\Gamma = 0, z = 1$
- On the circle  $|\Gamma| = 1$ : lossless element
- Upper half:
   "inductive" =
   positive imaginary part of Z
- Lower half: "capacitive" = negative imaginary part of Z
  - Outside the circle,  $\Gamma > 1$ : active element, e.g., tunnel diode reflection amplifier





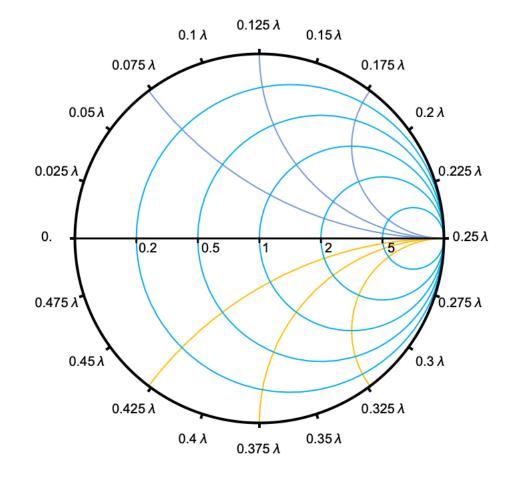
#### **The Smith Chart – Basic Example**





#### **Complex impedance based on lumped element components**

- Calculate Z for a given frequency, e.g., f = 50 MHz:  $Z = (25 + j6.28) \Omega$
- Calculate the normalized impedance  $z = Z/Z_0 = 0.5 + j0.126$ 
  - Locate z in the Smith chart
  - Retrieve  $\Gamma = 0.34 \angle 161^{\circ} = 0.34e^{j2.81}$
- Repeat for other frequencies...





# Remarks on transmission-lines and the Smith chart

- The Smith chart is a special type of a parametric plot for the complex impedance or admittance, mapped to the plane of the complex reflection coefficient.
- The use of the *Smith* chart can be viewed in two ways:
  - As a calculation and impedance matching tool as originally envisioned.
    - However, today this will happen rather rarely!
    - > Please notice: All the examples presented (in the backup slides) are based on the paper-style *Smith* chart, which is always based on an unitless, normalized impedance  $z = Z/Z_0$
  - As a visualization tool for the complex impedance, along with the reflection coefficient
    - Still very popular and useful for displaying and analyzing  $S_{ii}$  on a vector network analyzer, also used in datasheets, and RF simulation and education software.
    - > Here the *Smith* chart utilizes the actual complex impedance Z in units of  $\Omega$ ! Markers on the parametric trace give all relevant information, including the element values of a selected equivalent circuit.
- More information and basics examples are found in the backup slides
- Old, but excellent information on transmission-lines and standing waves:
  - <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I9m2w4DgeVk</u>
  - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DovunOxIY1k&t=38s
- *Smith* chart education software (only for MS-Windows):
  - <u>https://www.fritz.dellsperger.net/smith.html</u>





- A brief recap on electrical networks
  - A simplified way to describe electrical, electronics and RF circuits
  - Electrical network composed out of lumped and distributed elements
  - Two-port RC-filter example using admittance (Y) parameters
- Introduction to scattering (S) parameters
  - General concept of incident / reflected waves scattered at the ports of an RF network
  - Reference impedance  $Z_0$
  - 1-port and 2-port S-parameters
  - Properties of the S-matrix: reciprocity, symmetry, losses
    - > with more examples in the backup slides
  - A few S-matrix examples for RF networks with 1-, 2-, 3-, and 4-ports
  - S-parameters in practice: the SnP Touchstone file format
  - General *n*-ports

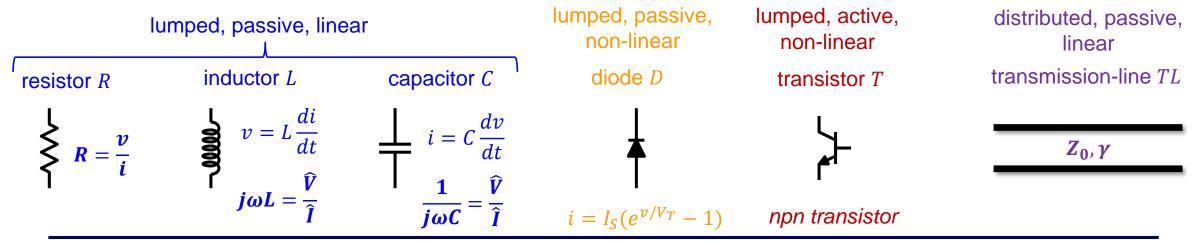




 The electromagnetic behavior or RF circuits and systems, like any other electrical / electronics circuit or system can be described by Maxwell's equations

$$\nabla \cdot E = \frac{\rho}{\varepsilon}, \quad \nabla \times B - \frac{\partial E}{c^2 \partial t} = \mu J, \quad \nabla \times E + \frac{\partial B}{\partial t} = 0, \quad \nabla \cdot B = 0$$

- These equations need to be solved, taking all the boundaries and materials into account
- However, this is far too complicated and inconvenient for most practical situations!
  - simplified electrical network description based on approximative lumped or distributed elements
    - With given characteristics and values of each circuit element represented by a symbol in an electrical network, following the laws of Ohm and Kirchhoff. Here some examples:

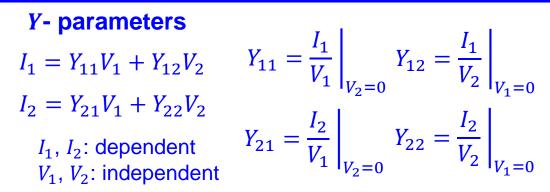






- Complex electrical, electronics and RF systems are divided into functional blocks, i.e., networks, with n-ports, each port has two terminals
  - The two-port network is most popular, typical examples for two-port networks are filters, attenuators, amplifiers, etc.



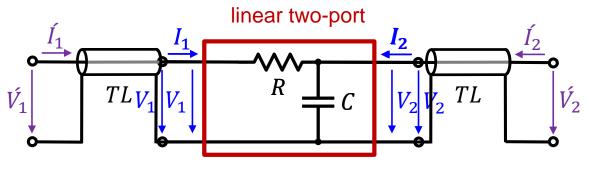


- The characteristic behavior of the *n*-port network is defined by a set of 2*n* parameters, linked to their ports.
  - A two-port network has four parameters as port voltages ( $V_1$ ,  $V_2$ ) and port currents ( $I_1$ ,  $I_2$ ), two are independent, the other two are dependent parameters.
  - Various combinations of dependent and independent port voltages and currents exist, accordingly various  $n \times n$  matrix definitions for linear *n*-port networks exist, known as *Y*-, *Z*-, *h* and *g* parameters.





- It is more convenient to express the parameters for linear networks in the frequency domain
  - Avoids solving differential equations! Example: Simple RC two-port network
    - > Only for time-invariant and linear networks!



Y- parameters: Z-

*Z*-parameters:

 $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{v}_{2} & Y = \frac{1}{R} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 + j\omega RC \end{bmatrix} \qquad Z = \frac{1}{j\omega C} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + j\omega RC & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

#### Voltage/current-based network parameters fail at high frequencies!

- Now voltages and currents are a function of frequency (or time) AND space:  $V(\omega, z)$ ,  $I(\omega, z)$ 
  - Originating from time/space varying EM-fields
- Example: RC two-port network embedded between transmission-lines
  - > While it is still possible to solve the network problem, it becomes complicated and cumbersome based on V and I
- The circuit may become unstable or might be damaged, when operating on a short or open end for characterizing the network parameters
- Due to parasitic effects, a reliable measurement of *V* and *I* becomes almost impossible.
- Resolution: RF scattering parameters based on power-waves for linear networks which include distributed elements
  - The magnitude of a traveling wave is independent of the location z in a lossless transmission-line



### **Principle of Scattering (S)-Parameters**



#### Analogy to optical waves

- Light falls on a car window
  - Some parts of the incident light is reflected (you see the mirror image)
  - Other parts of the light is transmitted through the window (you can still see objects inside the car)
- Optical reflection and transmission coefficients of the window glass define the ratio between reflected and transmitted light.
- Similar in RF networks: The scattering (S)-parameters of an *n*-port RF network (DUT) is characterized by incident and reflected / transmitted (power) waves.

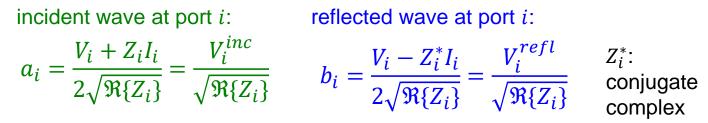




#### **Generalized S-Parameters**



 for an arbitrary *n*-port microwave or RF network are defined by a set of normalized complex voltage waves:



- as incident  $a_i$  and reflected / transmitted  $b_i$  power waves at the  $i^{th}$  port of the network, defined by the terminal voltage  $V_i$  and current  $I_i$ , and an arbitrary reference impedance  $Z_i$ 

Please note the complex notation implies linear, time-invariant networks describe in the frequency-domain

- Today, for most practical cases the RF network, also called "device under test" (DUT) is characterized by a vector network analyzer (VNA), connected with coaxial cables (transmission-lines) with a characteristic impedance of  $Z_0 = 50 \Omega$  to the ports.
  - Usually the S-parameters are defined for a port reference impedance:  $Z_i = Z_0 = 50 \Omega$
  - Some VNAs with a physical reference impedance of  $Z_0 = 50 \ \Omega$  allow a mathematical port impedance conversion to adapt to a port reference impedance  $Z_i \neq 50 \ \Omega$

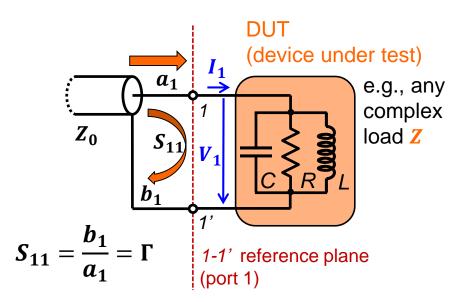
*n*-port



#### **S-Parameters – 1-port**



- Electrical / electronics networks
  - 1 ··· *n*-port electronics circuits
  - Defined by voltages  $V_i(\omega)$  or  $v_i(t)$ and currents  $I_i(\omega)$  or  $i_i(t)$  at the port terminals
  - Characterized by circuit matrices, e.g., Z, Y, h, etc.
- RF / microwave networks
  - 1…n-port RF DUT circuit or subsystem, e.g., filter, amplifier, transmission-line, hybrid, circulator, resonator, etc., which may include distributed elements
  - Defined by incident  $a_i(\omega)$  and reflected / transmitted waves  $b_i(\omega)$  at a reference plane *s* (physical position) at the ports.
  - Characterized by a scattering parameter (S-parameter) matrix of the reflected and transmitted power waves, typically as a function of the frequency  $f = 2\pi/\omega$
  - Normalized to a reference impedance of typically  $Z_0 = 50 \ \Omega$



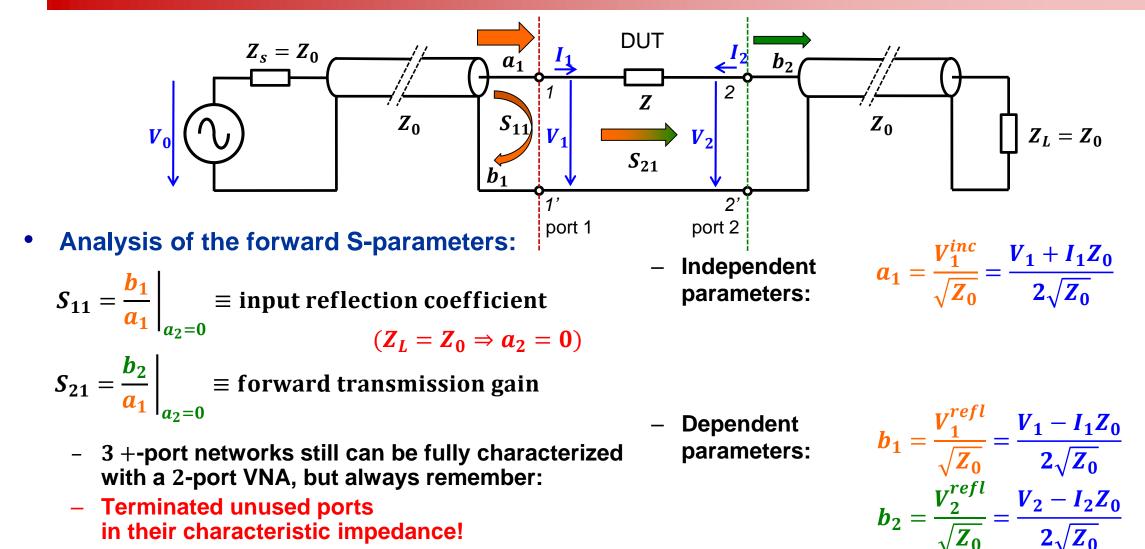
1-port RF network (DUT) example

- S-Parameters allow to characterize the DUT with the measurement equipment located at some physical distance
- All high frequency effects of distributed elements are included with respect to the reference plane



## S-Parameters – 2-port (1)

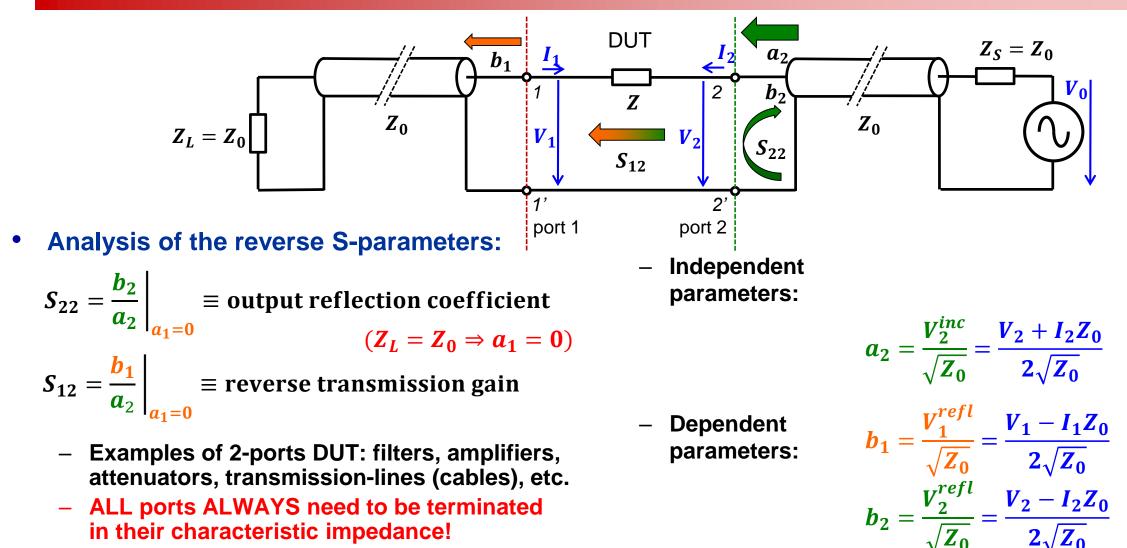






# S-Parameters – 2-port (2)



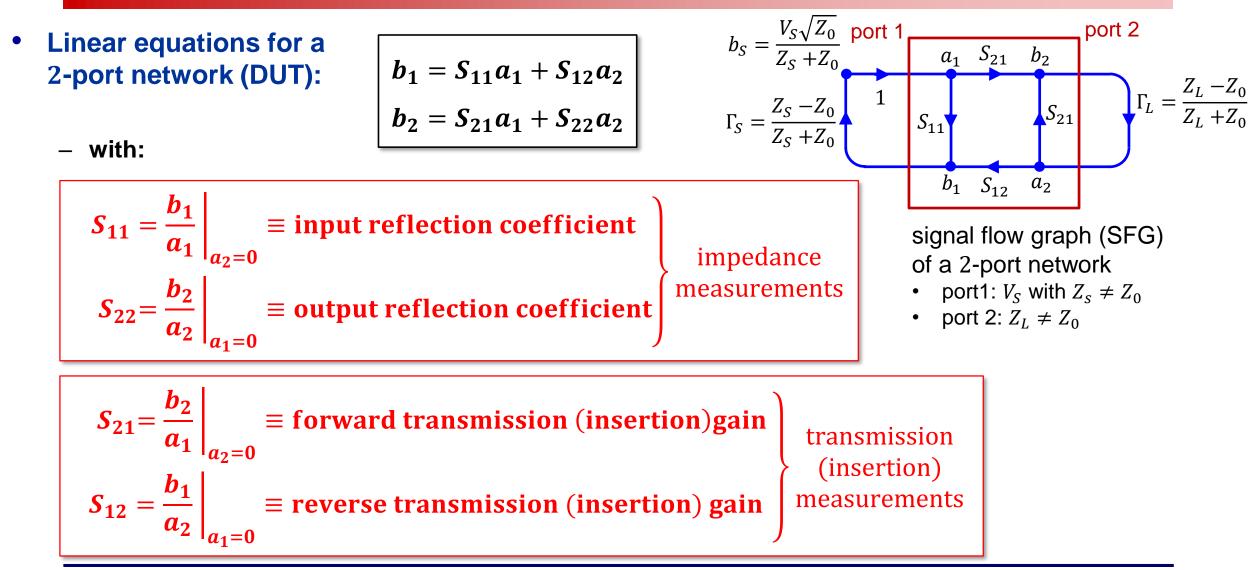


in their characteristic impedance!



## S-Parameters – 2-port (3)







### S-Parameters – *n*-port



• Reflection coefficient and impedance at the *i*<sup>th</sup>-port of a RF network (DUT):

$$S_{ii} = \frac{b_i}{a_i} = \frac{\frac{V_i}{I_i} - Z_0}{\frac{V_i}{I_i} + Z_0} = \frac{Z_i - Z_0}{Z_i + Z_0} = \Gamma_i$$
  
$$Z_i = Z_0 \frac{1 + S_{ii}}{1 - S_{ii}} \text{ with } Z_i = \frac{V_i}{I_i} \text{ being the input impedance at the } i^{th} \text{port}$$

• Power reflection and transmission for a *n*-port network (DUT):

 $|S_{ii}|^{2} = \frac{\text{power reflected from port }i}{\text{power incident on port }i}$  $|S_{ij}|^{2} = \text{transmitted power between ports }i \text{ and }j$ with all ports terminated in their characteristic impedance }Z\_{0}and  $Z_{s} = Z_{0}$ 

Here the US notion is used, where power =  $|a_i|^2$ . European notation (often): power =  $|a_1|^2/2$ These conventions have no impact on the S-parameters, they are only relevant for absolute power calculations





- Waves traveling towards the *n*-port:
- Waves traveling away from the *n*-port: (

$$(a) = (a_1, a_2, a_2, \dots a_n)$$
  
 $(b) = (b_1, b_2, b_2, \dots b_n)$ 

• The relation between  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  (i = 1...n) can be written as a system of n linear equations

 $(a_i = \text{the independent variable}, b_i = \text{the dependent variable})$ 

one-port	$b_1 = S_{11}a_1 + S_{12}a_2 + S_{13}a_3 + S_{14}a_4 + \cdots$
two-port	$b_2 = S_{21}a_1 + S_{22}a_2 + S_{23}a_3 + S_{24}a_4 + \cdots$
three-port	$b_3 = S_{31}a_1 + S_{32}a_2 + S_{33}a_3 + S_{34}a_4 + \cdots$
four-port	$b_4 = S_{41}a_1 + S_{42}a_2 + S_{43}a_3 + S_{44}a_4 + \cdots$

in compact matrix form follows

$$(b) = (S)(a)$$

 $(\mathbf{S}) = S_{11} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{b_1} = S_{11}\boldsymbol{a_1}$ 

Its simplest form is for a passive 1-port network:

– with the reflection coefficient:

 Most popular is the 2-port network:

rt network:  

$$(S) = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{12} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} b_1 = S_{11}a_1 + S_{12}a_2 \\ b_2 = S_{21}a_1 + S_{22}a_2 \end{array}$$
n unmatched load, present at port 2 with a

- An unmatched load, present at port 2 with a **reflection coefficient**  $\Gamma_{load}$  transfers to the input port as:

$$\Gamma_{in} = S_{11} + \frac{S_{21}\Gamma_{load}S_{12}}{1 - S_{22}\Gamma_{load}}$$

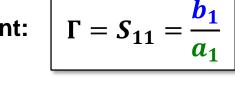
$$a_1$$
  
 $b_1$   
plane  
1-port  
 $b_1$   
port 1

port 1 port 2  

$$a_1$$
  
 $b_1$   
 $2$ -port  
 $b_2$ 









# **S-Matrix Properties**



- A port of the network is matched if:  $S_{ii} = 0$ 
  - i.e., no reflections!
- A *n*-port is reciprocal if:  $(S)^T = (S) \Rightarrow S_{ij} = S_{ji} \forall i, j$   $(S)^T$ : transpose

Matrix symmetry

- Most passive components are reciprocal, e.g., resistor, capacitor, inductor, transformer, etc.
  - > But not components with inhomogeneous material properties, e.g., magnetized ferrites, plasma, etc.
- Active components, like amplifiers are non-reciprocal
- A *n*-port is symmetric if:  $S_{ij} = S_{ji} \land S_{ii} = S_{jj}$

Matrix symmetry and electrical symmetry

- It needs to be reciprocal, and input and output reflection coefficient need to be equal.
- A *n*-port is passive and lossless if the matrix (S) is unitary:  $(S)^{\dagger}(S) = (S)^{T}(S)^{*} = (I)$   $(S)^{\dagger} = (S^{*})^{T}$ : conjugate transpose (I): identity matrix
  - Example: passive, lossless 2-port:

$$(S^*)^T(S) = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11}^* & S_{21}^* \\ S_{12}^* & S_{22}^* \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \implies \begin{aligned} ZS_{11} - ZS_{12} = ZS_{21} - ZS_{22} - \pi \\ |S_{11}| = |S_{22}|, \qquad |S_{12}| = |S_{21}| \\ |S_{11}| = \sqrt{1 - |S_{12}|^2} \end{aligned}$$



- Examples for 1-port S-matrices are any simple, passive (complex) impedances Z
  - Any R, L, C, RL, RC, LC and RLC circuit or any combinations of those elements leading to a single port network, which of course also my include distributed (transmission-line) elements
  - "Special" cases are:
    - $\succ Z = Z_0 \Rightarrow S_{11} = 0$  (matched, ideal termination)

 $\succ Z = 0 \implies S_{11} = -1$  (ideal short)

 $\succ Z = \infty \implies S_{11} = +1$  (ideal open)

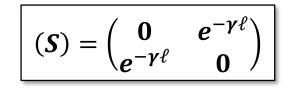
$$(S) = S_{11} = Z$$

- If  $|S_{11}| > 1$  an active element is involved, e.g., a reflection amplifier
- Strictly speaking, a simple RF resonator, e.g., a "pill-box" cavity, is a 3-port
  - One coaxial or waveguide port as RF power coupler, plus two beam (waveguide) ports.
- However, for many practical cases it can be treated as 1-port
  - The mode of interest,
    - e.g., TM010, is trapped with no or negligible fields contribution near the beam-ports
  - We consider only a single coupler to characterize,
    - e.g., the TM010 mode in terms of a 1-port S-parameter measurement
      - > Typically applying an RLC-parallel equivalent circuit



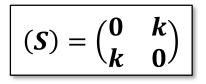


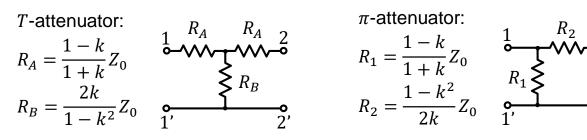
### Ideal (matched: $Z = Z_0$ ) transmission-line of length $\ell$

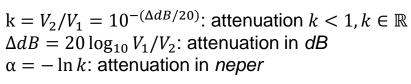


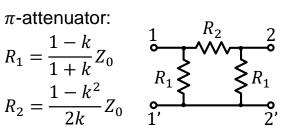
- $\gamma = \alpha + j\beta$ : propagation constant α: attenuation constant in [*Np/m*]  $\beta = 2\pi/\lambda$ : phase constant [*rad/m*]
- For a lossless transmission-line:  $\alpha = 0 \Rightarrow |S_{21}| = |S_{12}| = 1$ —
- For a lossless line of length  $\ell = \lambda/4$ :  $(S) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -j \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

### **Ideal** attenuator

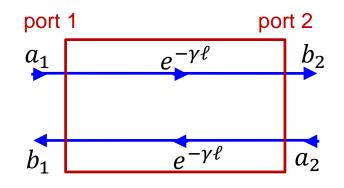




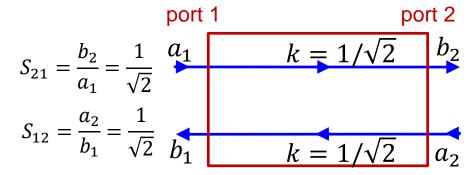




signal flow graph (SFG):



SFG example: 3 dB attenuator



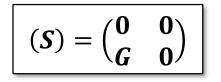
2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators": RF Measurements – M. Wendt



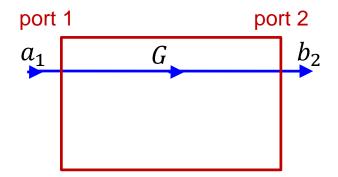
# **S-Matrix Examples – 2-port**



• Ideal amplifier (gain stage)



 $G = V_{out}/V_{in} = 10^{g/20}$ : voltage gain G > 1g = 20 log<sub>10</sub>  $V_{0ut}/V_{in}$ : voltage gain in dB

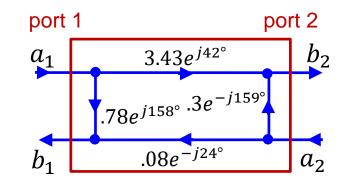


### • Low-noise RF transistor

 $(S) = \begin{pmatrix} 0.78e^{j158^{\circ}} & 0.08e^{-j24^{\circ}} \\ 3.43e^{j42^{\circ}} & 0.3e^{-j159^{\circ}} \end{pmatrix}$ 

Datasheet Avago VMMK-1218:  $f = 10 GHz, Z_0 = 50\Omega, T_A = 25^{\circ}C,$  $V_{ds} = 2V, I_{ds} = 20mA$ 

- Avago VMMK-1218
- E-pHEMT GaAs FET
  - The S-parameters are different at other frequencies and operational conditions
  - > The transistor requires impedance matching networks at in- and output





# S-Matrix Examples – 3-port

 $b_2 \mid a_2$ 

port 3

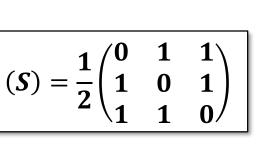
bz

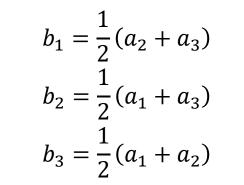
port 2

port 1



• 3-port resistive power divider

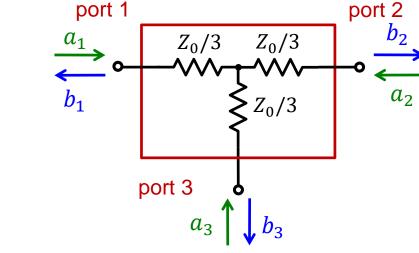




- The transfer-loss between *ij*-ports is 6 dB.

### Ideal circulator

- $(S) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad b_1 = a_3 \\ b_2 = a_1 \\ b_3 = a_2$
- Matched, but not reciprocal



- Isolator, based on the circulator
  - Terminating, e.g., port 3 internally results in a 2-port, called isolator

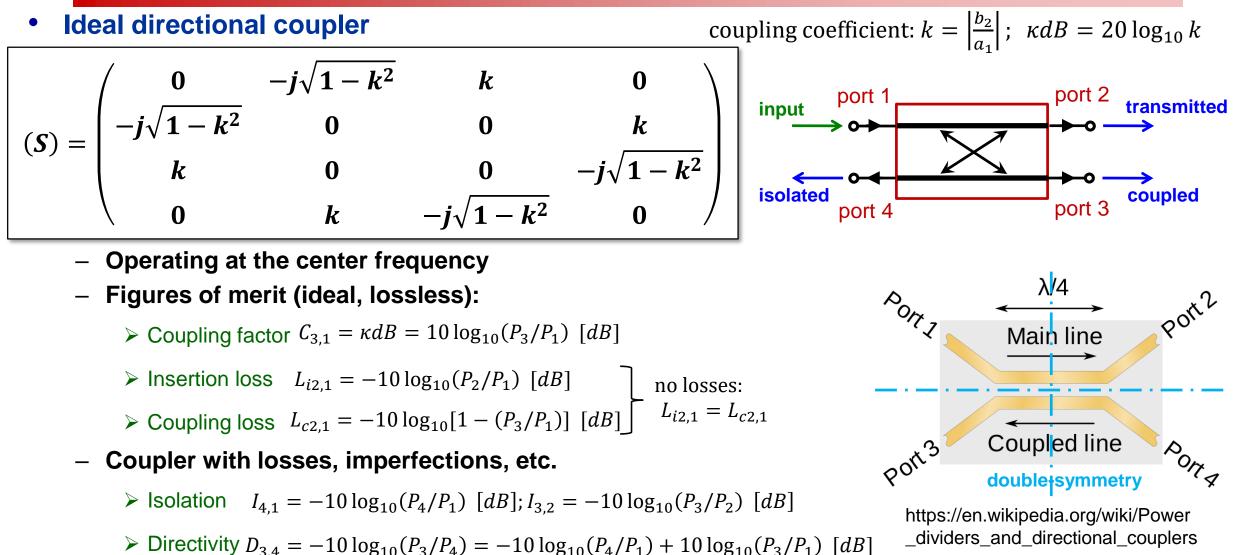
$$(S) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad b_2 = a_1$$
port 1 port 2

2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators": RF Measurements – M. Wendt



# **S-Matrix Example – 4-port**







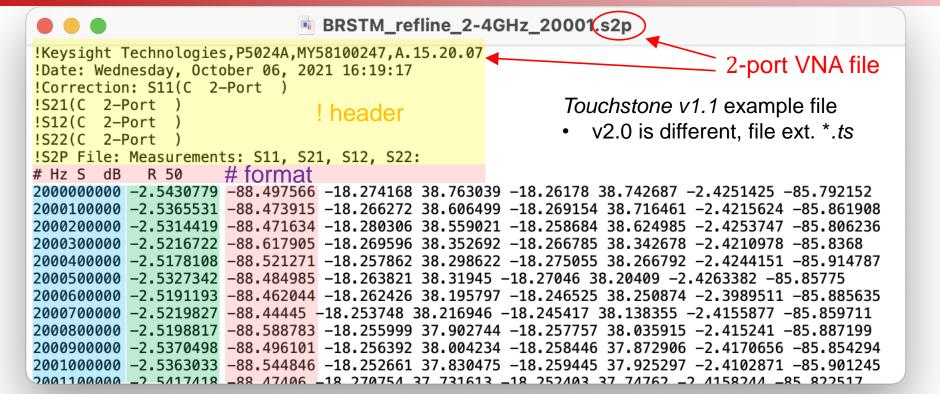


- In practice, S-parameters are a function of the frequency: S(f)
  - Some instruments or applications can also provide time-domain S-parameters
- In most real-world practical situations, S-parameters are acquired by a measurement, e.g., characterization of a RF component or sub-system by a VNA.
  - By characterizing the DUT over a range of frequencies,  $f_{min} < f < f_{max}$  in steps of  $\Delta f$
- Also, numerical RF analysis tools (Qucs, ADS, Microwave Office, etc.) generate S-parameters through linear RF circuit / systems simulations.
  - Numerical EM software tools (CST, HFSS, etc.) and PCB tools (Cadence Allegro) can also generate S-parameters
- Both application types, VNA measurements and RF/EM simulation software exchange S-parameters on a file basis
  - The SnP Touchstone ASCII file format is de-facto the industry standard for S-parameters
  - Example *Touchstone* s2p file:



### **SnP Touchstone S-Parameter Files**





### frequency $f |S_{11}|$ [dB] $\angle S_{11}$ [deg]

- The file name extension specifies the number *n* of ports
  - Attention: NOT equal to the number of columns! The carriage return (CR) is different between s1p, s2p and s3p, s4p files!
- The comment header (!) includes general information, e.g., type of instrument, measurement time, etc.
- The format line (#) defines the format (mag[dB],angle[deg], mag/angle, real/imag), stimulus units and the reference impedance
- The column delimiter varies, e.g., space, comma, semicolon, etc.
  - Column order in the example file: f S11dB S11a S21dB S21a S12dB S12a S22dB S22a





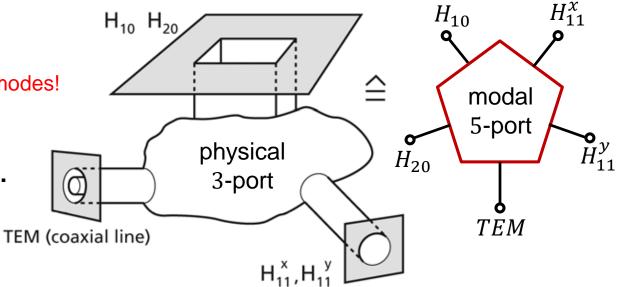
- A general *n*-port may include ports of different technologies, i.e., waveguides, as well as TEM transmission-lines, such as coaxial lines, microstrip lines etc.
  - In the frequency range of interest different modes may propagate at each physical port, e.g., several waveguide modes in a rectangular waveguide and/or higher order modes in a coaxial line..
  - Each EM-mode must then be represented by a distinct modal port.
    - This is very important in EM-simulation to ensure the absorption of the energy for all modes!
  - The number of modal ports needed generally, increases with frequency, as more waveguide modes can propagate.

Waveguide modes

 TEM
  $H_{10}$   $H_{11,x}$   $H_{20}$  Increasing frequency

 f = 0 Hz
  $H_{11,y}$  Increasing frequency

 Number of ports
 1
 2
 4
 5
 6
 7
 8
 9



 $H_{11}^x, H_{11}^y$ : x, y-polarization of the  $E_{11}$  circular mode





- The scattering (S) parameters are based on incident and reflected normalized complex voltage waves (power waves), defined at the ports of a RF network.
- S-Parameters are used to characterize a linear, time-invariant RF component, circuit or sub-system as function of frequency under realistic operational conditions
  - The S-parameters are given in a matrix notation, and have complex values
- The characteristic of the S-matrix may provide additional details about the network, such as reciprocity, symmetry, losses.
- Typically, the S-parameters matrix of a RF network is acquired by measurement characterization with a vector network analyzer (VNA), or by a numerical analysis, e.g., circuit analysis or electromagnetic simulation software
- The S-parameter matrices of a set of networks can be converted to transfer (T) parameter matrices to enable a simple cascading of those networks
- The number of logical, modal ports might be higher than the number of physical ports for a general RF network utilizing various transmission-line technologies.





- Overview of RF measurement instruments
  - Oscilloscope, spectrum analyzer (SA), signal (FFT) analyzer, slotted measurement line, vector network analyzer (VNA)
- The super-heterodyne receiver principle
  - Modulation, down-conversion, mixer, spectrum analyzer block schematics
- Reflection measurement with the slotted coaxial air-line
- S-parameter measurements
  - Simple measurement setup, VNA block schematics
  - VNA calibration
  - Features of modern RF measurement equipment
  - Synthetic pulse measurements with the VNA
  - Measurement example: pillbox resonator characterization
    - $\succ$  Equivalent circuit parameters, Q-factor measurement in the Smith-chart, R/Q measurement
  - Measurement of the beam-coupling impedance with a stretched-wire





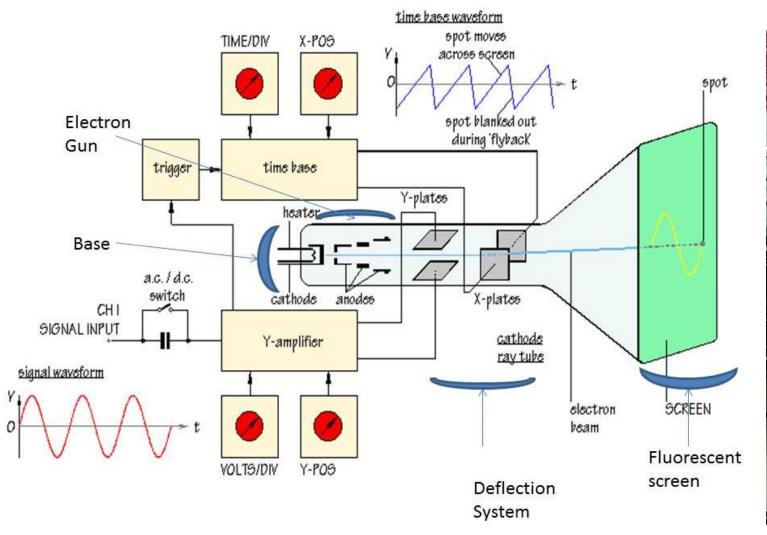
There are different options to observe RF signals Here some typical measurement tools:

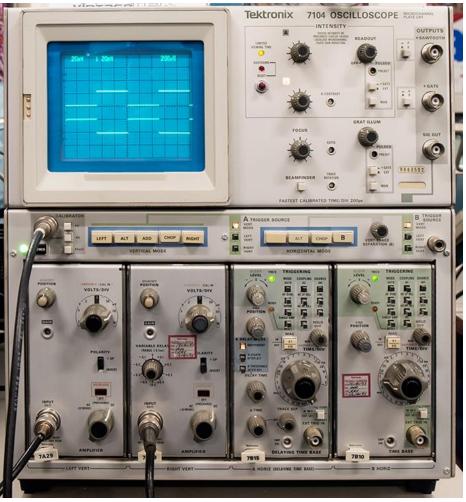
- Oscilloscope: to observe signals in time-domain
  - periodic signals
  - burst and transient signals with arbitrary waveforms
  - application: direct observation of signals from a beam pick-up, from a test generator, or from other sources
  - visualizes the shape of a waveform, etc.
  - limited performance for the evaluation of non-linear effects.



# Cathode Ray Tube (CRT) Oscilloscope

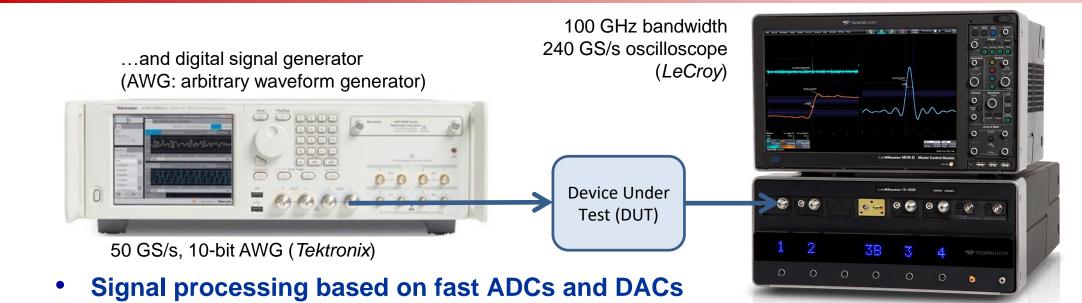






# Today: Digital Storage Oscilloscope (DSO)





- Similar "look and feel" as analog oscilloscopes, but better performance
  - > 8...12-bit multi-GS/s ADCs, still, be aware of aliasing effects!
  - > Fast sampling oscilloscope require sufficient memory resources.
- AWG or pulse generator & digital oscilloscope: Time-domain (TD) test setup
  - Device under test (DUT) characterization and trouble shooting
    - > Impulse, step, or arbitrary waveform (e.g., beam signal) as stimulus signal
    - High impedance probe for measurements on the printed circuit board (PCB)





- Spectrum analyzer: to observe signals in a "frequency-domain like" fashion
  - sweeps in equidistant steps through a given frequency range
  - application: observation of spectrum from the beam, or from a signal generator or RF source, or the spectrum emitted from an antenna to locate EMI issues in the accelerator tunnel, etc.
    - Also, DUT characterization in the laboratory, e.g., noise figure measurement on amplifiers (requires a noise source), intermodulation measurements on amplifiers (requires two RF generators).
  - Requires periodic signals
  - Assumes time-invariance of the measurement object (DUT) throughout the frequency sweep
  - Large dynamic range!
- **RF detection (Schottky) diode (RF power meter)** 
  - Supplies a rectified (video) output signal proportional to the RF signal level
  - Delivers no frequency or phase information but operates over a very broad frequency range few MHz to many GHz, and up to 90 dB dynamic range.





- Vector signal analyzer (VSA), sometimes called FFT analyzer
  - Acquires the RF signal, after down-conversion to an intermediate (IF) signal, in time-domain by fast sampling
  - Further numerical treatment in digital signal processors (DSPs)
  - Spectrum calculated using Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)
  - Combines features of an oscilloscope and a spectrum analyzer:
     Signals can be observed directly in time-domain, or in a frequency-domain like fashion
  - Contrary to the SA, also the spectrum of non-periodic signals and transients can be measured
  - Application: Observation of tune sidebands, transient behavior of a phase locked loop, single pass beam signal spectrum, etc.
  - Digital oscilloscopes and FFT analyzers share similar technologies, i.e., fast sampling and digital signal processing, and therefore can provide similar measurement options
    - > The digital oscilloscope directly digitizes the RF signal
      - $\rightarrow$  limited dynamic range, large instantaneous bandwidth
    - The FFT analyzer digitizes the down-converted IF signal
      - $\rightarrow$  large dynamic range, but (still) limited instantaneous bandwidth





- **Tools to characterize RF components and sub-systems:**
- Slotted coaxial (or waveguide) measurement transmission-line
  - For study and illustration purposes only not anymore used in today's RF laboratory environment.
- Vector Network Analyzer (VNA)
  - Combines the functions of a vector spectrum analyzer (FFT analyzer), a RF sweep generator, and a S-parameter test set (directional coupler)
  - Excites a Device Under Test (DUT, e.g., circuit, antenna, amplifier, etc.) network at a given sinusoidal continuous wave (CW) frequency, and measures the response in magnitude and phase => determines the S-parameters
  - Covers a selectable frequency range by measuring step-by-step at subsequent frequency points (like a spectrum analyzer, again requires the DUT to be time-invariant!)
  - Applications: characterization of passive and active RF components,
     *Time Domain Reflectometry* (TDR) by Fourier transformation of the reflection response, etc.

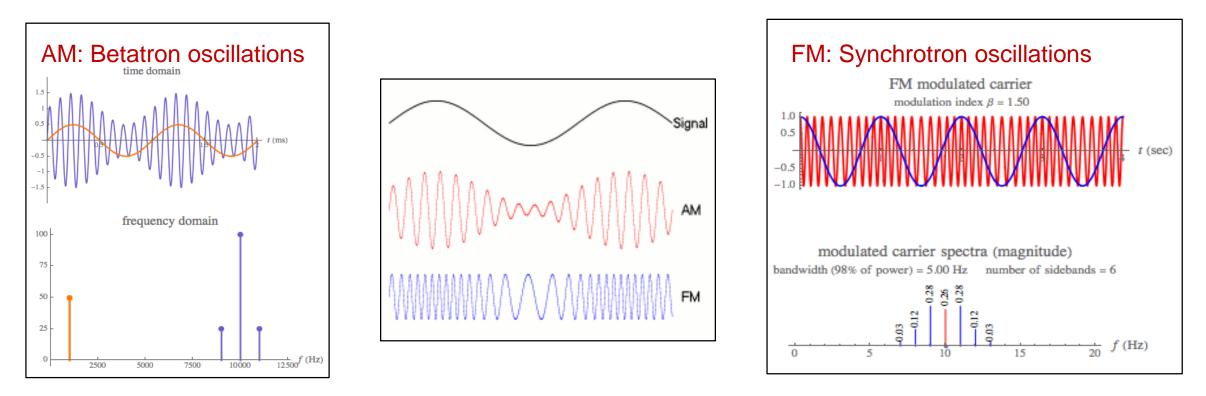
> Also, power sweep measurements (1 dB compression point),

- 4-port VNAs enable virtual ports: e.g., single-ended / differential port DUT characterization.
- The VNA is the most versatile and comprehensive tool in the RF laboratory!





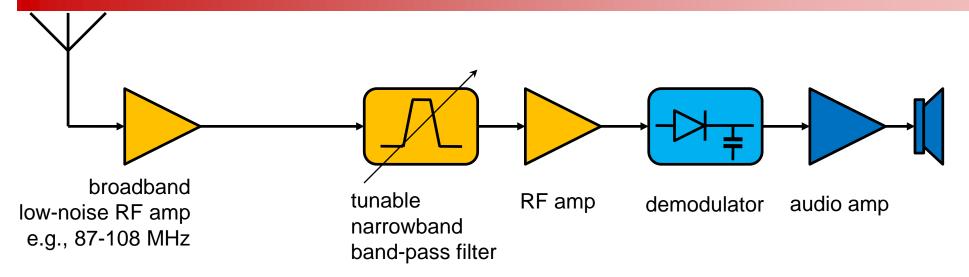
- RF signals are continuous wave (CW), sinusoidal signals
  - Often, a high frequency carrier is modulated with low frequency information
  - Modulation appears "naturally" in ring accelerators as:
    - Modulation is also provided through the LLRF system to the accelerating structures





# A (too) simple Radio Receiver

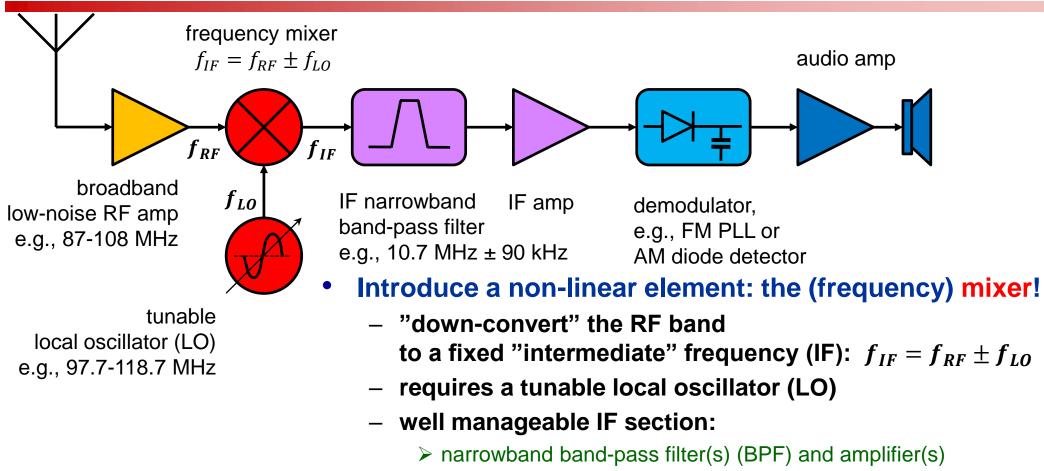




- ...or: How does a "traditional" analog radio works?
  - It was, and still is, difficult to make precisely tunable narrowband, band-pass filters for high frequencies (~100 MHz)!!
  - high frequency low-noise amplifiers are expensive!
  - high frequency demodulators are not trivial.
  - direct detection of radio and RF signals is challenging!



# **The Super-Heterodyne Receiver**



- RF telecommunication standard
- Often multiple mixing stages are used in modern RF instruments, e.g., spectrum and network analyzers





$$y_{RF}(t) = A_{RF} \sin(\omega_{RF}t + \varphi_{RF}) \xrightarrow{\mathsf{RF}} y_{IF}(t) = y_{RF}(t)y_{L0}(t)$$

$$\mathsf{Ideal\ mixer:} \quad f_{IF} = f_{RF} \pm f_{L0} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{LO}\ } y_{L0}(t) = A_{L0} \sin(\omega_{L0}t + \varphi_{L0})$$

$$y_{IF}(t) = \frac{1}{2}A_{L0}A_{RF}\{\sin[(\omega_{RF} - \omega_{L0})t + (\varphi_{RF} - \varphi_{L0})] \text{ upper sideband}$$

$$\int_{L0} f_{L0} - f_{RF} \xrightarrow{f_{IM}\ } f_{RF} \xrightarrow{f_{L0} + f_{RF}} \xrightarrow{f_{L0} + f_{RF}} \xrightarrow{I=f(V) \text{ of a Schottky diode}} \xrightarrow{I=f(V) \text{ of a Schottky diode}} \xrightarrow{I=I_0\left(e^{V/v_T} - 1\right)} \xrightarrow{V}$$

- **Real-world mixer:**  $f_{IF} = mf_{RF} \pm nf_{LO}$ 
  - Image frequency:  $f_{IM} = f_{LO} f_{IF}$

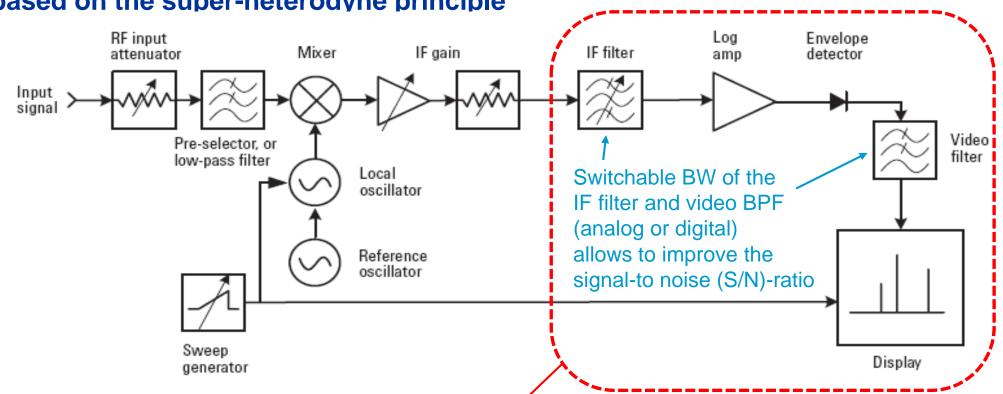
s +…

 $\Delta I = I_0 e^{V/V_T} \left[ \frac{\Delta V}{V_T} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\Delta V}{V_T} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{6} \left( \frac{\Delta V}{V_T} \right)^3 \right]$ 



# **Simplified Spectrum Analyzer**





#### based on the super-heterodyne principle

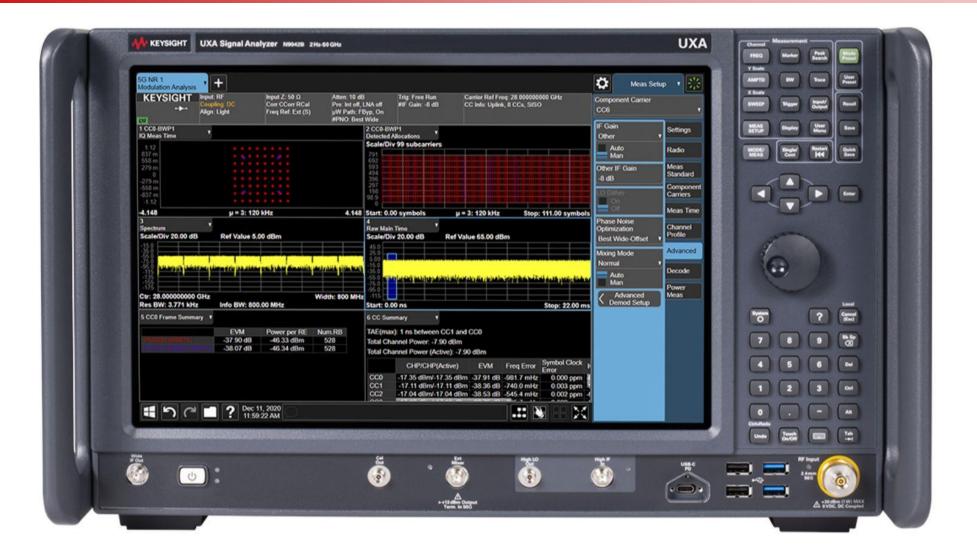
#### Today, the IF, demodulation, video and display sections of a spectrum analyzer are realized digitally

Requires an analog-digital converter (ADC) with sufficient dynamic range



# Modern Spectrum (RF Signal) Analyzer

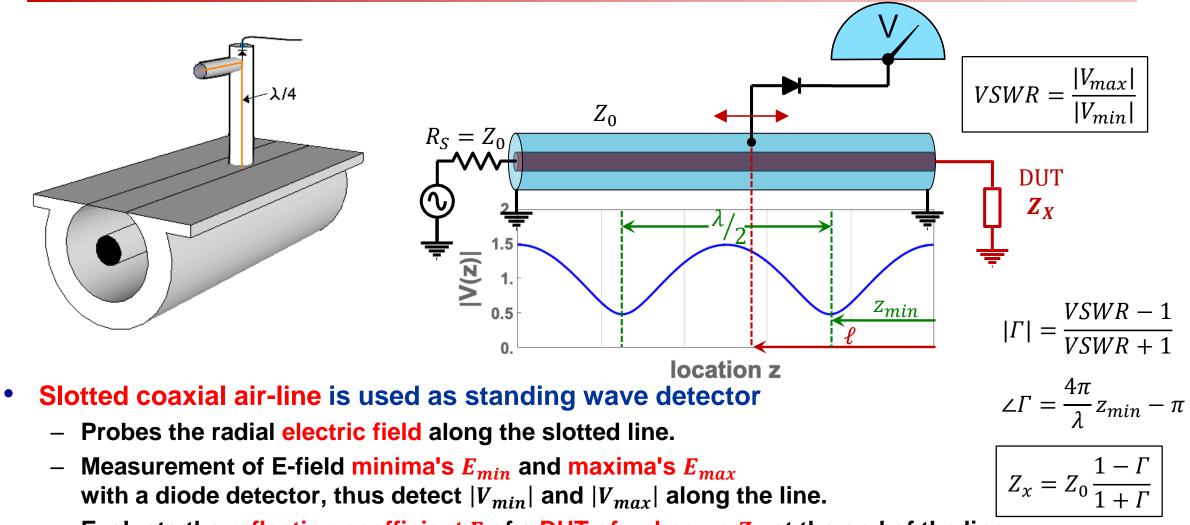






# **Reflection (VSWR) Measurement**



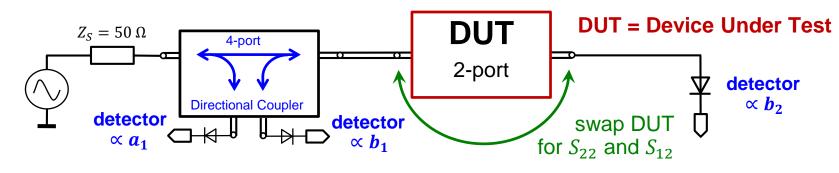


- Evaluate the reflection coefficient  $\Gamma$  of a DUT of unknown  $Z_X$  at the end of the line



## How to measure S-Parameters?





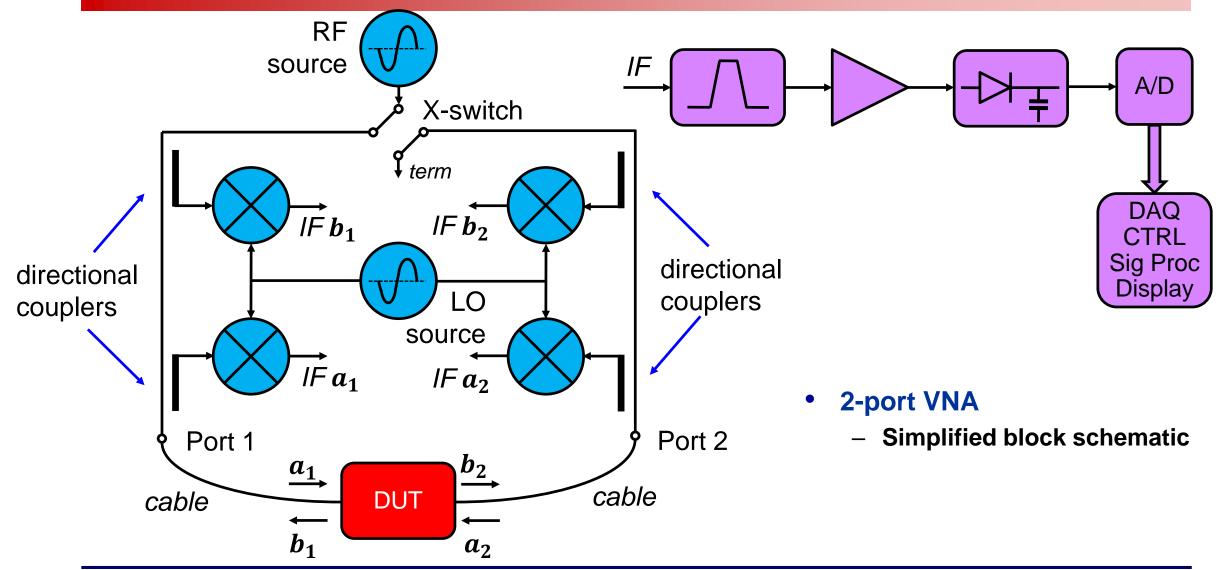
- Performed in the "frequency domain"
  - Single or swept frequency generator, stand-alone or as part of a VNA or SA
  - Requires a directional coupler and RF detector(s) or receiver(s)
- Evaluate S<sub>11</sub> and S<sub>21</sub> of a 2-port DUT
  - Ensure  $a_2 = 0$ , i.e., the detector at port 2 offers a well-matched impedance
  - Measure incident wave  $a_1$  and reflected wave  $b_1$ at the directional coupler ports and compute for each frequency
  - Measure transmitted wave  $b_2$  at DUT port 2 and compute
- Evaluate S<sub>22</sub> and S<sub>12</sub> of the 2-port DUT
  - Perform the same methodology as above by exchanging the measurement equipment on the DUT ports

 $S_{11} = \frac{b_1}{a_1} \Big|_{a_2 = 0}$  $S_{21} = \frac{b_2}{a_1} \Big|_{a_2 = 0}$ 



# The Vector Network Analyzer (VNA)



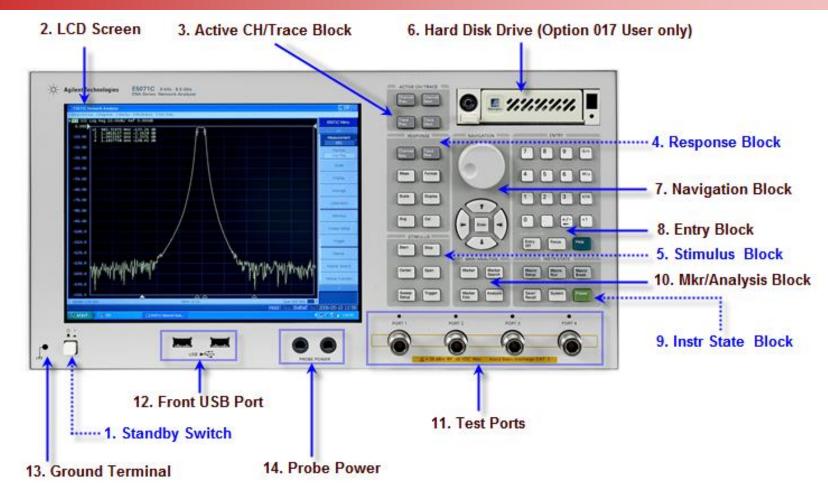


2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators": RF Measurements – M. Wendt



## **Fun with the VNA!**





- The "look and feel" between VNAs vary between manufacturers and models
  - Concepts and operation is still very similar

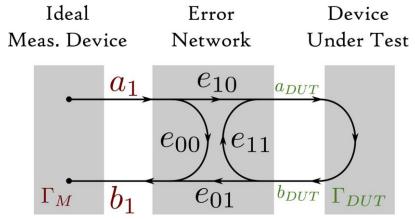




- Calibration is not necessary for pure frequency or phase measurements
- Before calibrating the VNA measurement setup, perform a brief measurement and chose appropriate VNA settings:
  - Frequency range (center, span or start, stop)
  - Number of frequency points
    - > Can be sometimes increased by rearranging the VNA memory (# of channels)
  - IF filter bandwidth
  - Output power level

# • Calibrate the setup, preferable with an electronic calibration system if more than 2 ports are used! Ideal

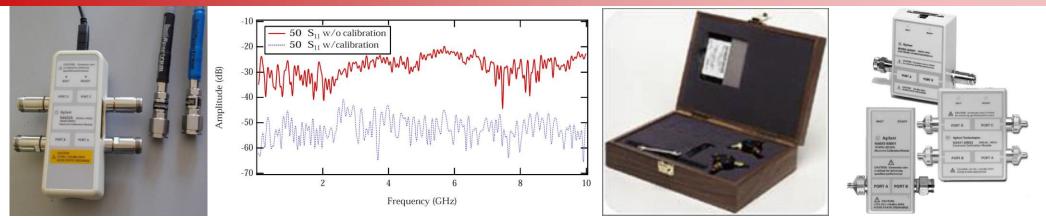
- Each port and combination needs to be calibrated, with the cables attached
- Choose the appropriate connector type and sex
- The instrument establishes a correction matrix and displays the "CAL" status.





# **VNA Calibration (2)**





- Calibration improves the measurement performance
  - Return loss improvement by typically 20 dB. Enables mdB accuracy measurements!
  - Full 2-port or 4-port calibration with manual calibration kits is prone to errors, better use electronic calibration systems.
  - Change VNA settings will cause the instrument to inter- and extrapolate, and the calibration status becomes uncertain.
- Cables are included in the calibration
  - However, changing coaxial connector types not.
  - Special VNA cables allows the adaption of different connector types and sex, without requiring a re-calibration of the setup!



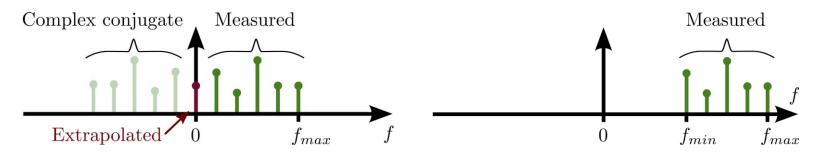


- Modern VNAs (SAs, oscilloscopes, etc. as well) have many "features"
- Hardware features, e.g.
  - Automatic calibration system, down to DC
  - 4 and more ports
  - Additional 2<sup>nd</sup> source, for downconverter / mixer measurements
  - Integrated spectrum analyzer function
- Software, control and data post processing options, e.g.
  - Far too many to list all
  - Sweep options, e.g., lin., log., segmented, in frequency or power
  - iDFT (or iFFT), gating
  - TDR, TDT for BP or LP step or impulse, segmented (advanced) TDR
    - Only for linear, time-invariant systems!
  - Port extension, virtual ports (4-port VNA),  $Z_{0e}$ ,  $Z_{0o}$  characterization, virtual baluns, etc.
  - Data transformations, e.g.,  $\Gamma \Rightarrow Z$
  - Noise figure measurements
  - Measurements following telecommunication standards





• Based on an inverse discrete *Fourier* transformation (iDFT) option in the VNA

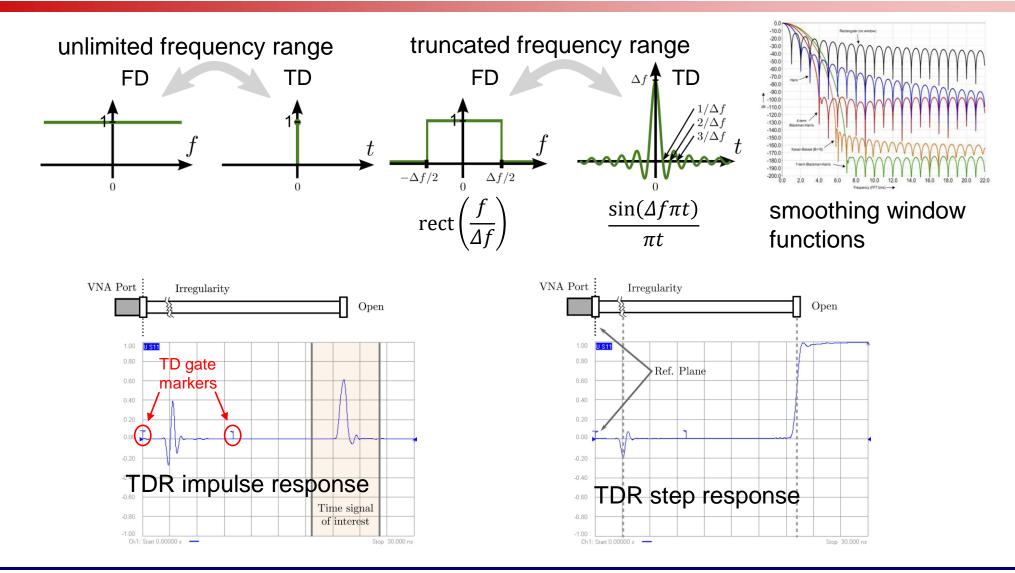


- Low-pass mode: Impulse or step response, relying on equidistant samples over the extrapolated (to DC) frequency range.
  - > The VNA does not measure at DC!
  - Manually match frequency range and # of points for DC extrapolation, e.g., 1...1000 MHz -> 1001 points, to enable extrapolation exactly to DC, or let the instrument chose the extrapolation settings automatically
- Enables time-domain reflectometry (TDR)
  - > Very useful on portable VNAs, troubleshooting RF cable problems
- Band-pass response (no DC extrapolation)
- Allows time-domain gating and de-embedding of non-resonant sub-systems, e.g., measurements on a PCB
- Limited to linear systems
- Select the "real" format for  $S_{11}$  or  $S_{21}$  for time-domain transformations (*Keysight* instruments)!
  - > or dB magnitude to detect small reflections in TDR analysis



# **Synthetic Pulse TD Measurements (2)**



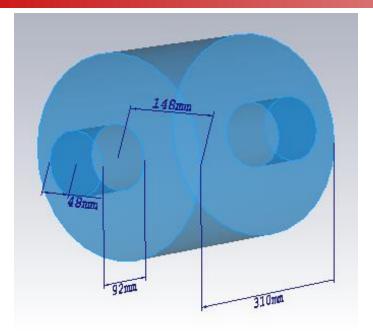


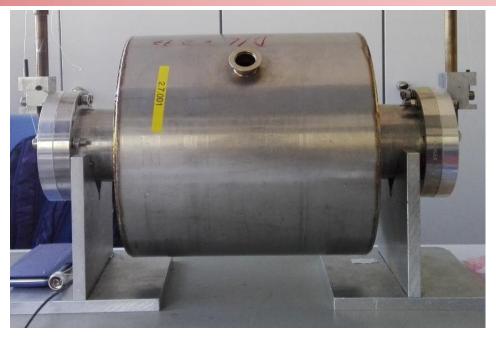
2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators": RF Measurements – M. Wendt



# An Example – Pillbox\* *TM*<sub>010</sub> Eigenmode







• Characterize the accelerating  $TM_{010}$  mode of a cylindrical cavity with beam ports

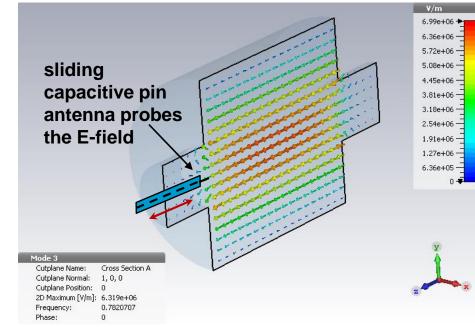
\* normal conducting!

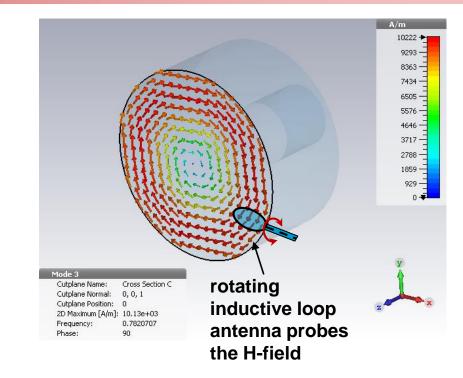
- The  $TM_{010}$  does not have to be the lowest frequency mode
- Compare the measured values of  $f_{res}$ ,  $Q_0$  and R/Q
  - with an analytical analysis of a perfect cylinder (no beam ports)
  - with a numerical analysis



### **Excite the Modes while Measuring** $S_{11}$







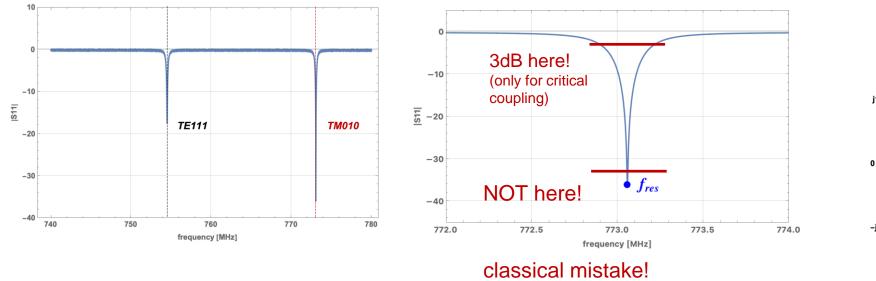


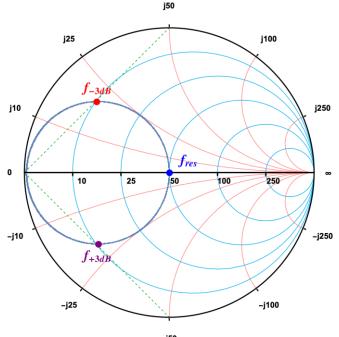
- $S_{11}$  measurement with tunable coupling antenna
  - E-field on z-axis using a capacitive coupling pin
    - > Center pin, e.g., of semi-rigid coaxial cable
  - H-field on the cavity rim using an inductive coupling loop
    - > Bend the center conductor to a closed loop connected to ground



## **Measurement of Frequency and Q-value**





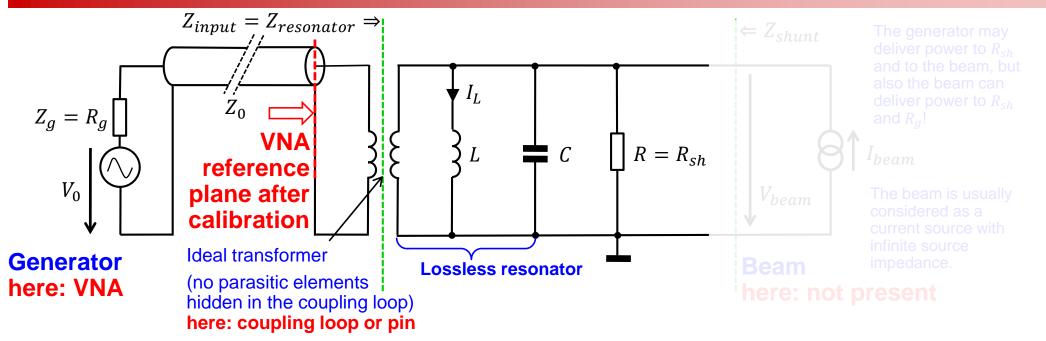


- Identify the correct  $(TM_{010})$  mode frequency
  - Introduce a small perturbation, e.g., metallic rod or wire on the z-axis, and observe the shift of the mode frequencies
- Calibrate the VNA and measure S<sub>11</sub>
  - Tune the coupling loop for critical coupling
  - Display the resonant circle in the *Smith* chart using enough points!



# The Equivalent Circuit of a Resonant Mode





 $R = R_{sh}$ : shunt resistor, representing the losses of the resonator

We have resonance condition, when 
$$\omega L = \frac{1}{\omega C}$$
  
 $\Rightarrow$  Resonance frequency:  $\omega_{res} = 2\pi f_{res} = \frac{1}{LC} \Rightarrow f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$ 



# **Useful Formulas of the Equivalent Circuit**



- Characteristic impedance "R over Q"
- Stored energy at resonance
- Dissipated power
- Q-factor
- Shunt impedance (circuit definition)
- Tuning sensitivity
- Coupling parameter (shunt impedance over generator or feeder impedance)

The CERN Accelerator Set  

$$X = \left(\frac{R}{Q}\right) = \left(\frac{\omega_{res}}{L}\right) = \frac{1}{\omega_{res}} \left(\frac{L}{C}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$$

$$U = U_e + U_m = \frac{1}{4} |V_c|^2 C + \frac{1}{4} |I_L|^2 L$$

$$V_c \dots \text{ Voltage at the capacitor}$$

$$I_L \dots \text{ Current in the inductor}$$

$$P = \frac{V^2}{2R}$$

$$Q = \frac{R}{X} = \frac{\omega_{res}}{P}$$

$$U \dots \text{ stored energy}$$

$$P \dots \text{ dissipated}$$

$$P \dots \text{ dissipated}$$

$$P = \frac{V^2}{2P}$$

$$\frac{R}{Q} = \frac{V^2}{2\omega_{res}} U$$

$$\frac{\Delta f}{f} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta C}{C} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

$$k^2 = \frac{R}{R_{input}}$$

$$\text{ tune for critical coupling}$$





• The quality (Q) factor of a resonant circuit is defined as ratio of the stored energy U over the energy dissipated P in one oscillation cycle:

$$Q = 2\pi \frac{\text{energy stored}}{\text{energy dissipated in 1 cycle}} = \frac{\omega_{res}U}{P}$$

- The *Q*-factor of an impedance loaded resonator:
  - $Q_0$ : unloaded Q-value of the unperturbed system
  - $Q_L$ : loaded Q-value, e.g., measured with the impedance of the connected generator
  - $Q_{ext}$ : external Q-factor, representing the effects of the external circuit (generator and coupling circuit)
- Q-factor and bandwidth
  - This is how we actually "measure" the Q-factor!

$$Q = \frac{f_{res}}{f_{BW}}$$

with:  $f_{BW} = f_{+3dB} - f_{-3dB}$ 

$$\frac{1}{Q_L} = \frac{1}{Q_0} + \frac{1}{Q_{ext}} =$$

tune *k* for critical coupling:

$$Q_0 = Q_{ext}$$

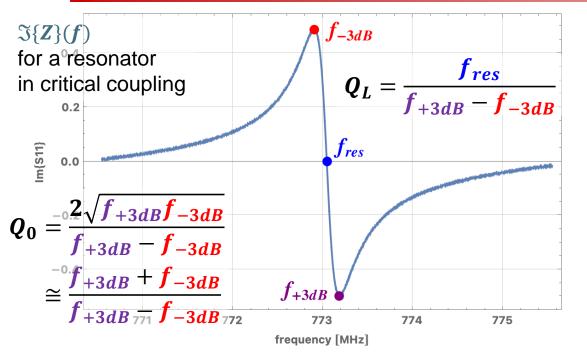
$$\Rightarrow \boldsymbol{Q}_0 = 2 \boldsymbol{Q}_L$$

With  $Q_L$  being our measured Q-value

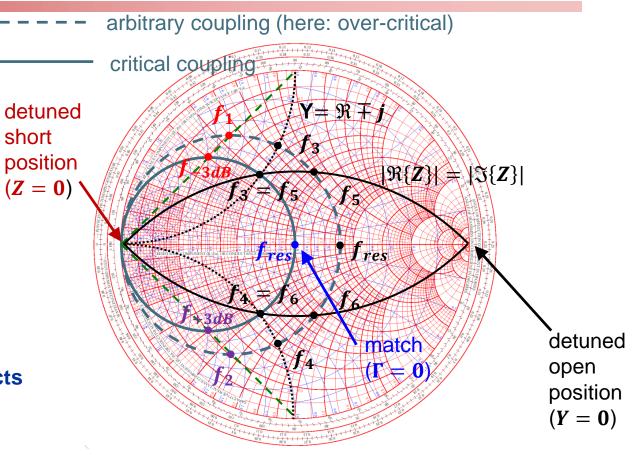


# *Q***-factor from S\_{11} Measurement**





- Correct for the uncompensated transmission-line effects between calibration reference and the coupling loop
  - Electrical length adjustment: "straight"  $\Im{Z}(f)$
- Adjust the locus circle to the detuned short location
  - Phase offset
- Verify no evanescent fields penetrating outside the beam ports
  - i.e., no frequency shifts if the boundaries at the beam ports are altered



Frequency marker points in the *Smith* chart:  $f_{1,2} (f_{-3dB}, f_{+3dB})$ :  $|\Im\{S_{11}\}| = max$ . to calculate  $Q_L$   $f_{3,4}$ :  $Y = \Re \mp j$  to calculate  $Q_{ext}$  $f_{5,6}$ :  $|\Re\{Z\}| = |\Im\{Z\}|$  to calculate  $Q_0$ 

81





• Remember from the equivalent circuit:



- $V_{acc}$  is based on the integrated longitudinal E-field component  $E_z$  along the z-axis (x = y = 0)
- Based on Slater's perturbation theorem:

$$\frac{\Delta f}{f_{res}} = \frac{1}{U} \Big[ \mu_0 \left( k_{\parallel}^H |H_{\parallel}|^2 + k_{\perp}^H |H_{\perp}|^2 \right) - \varepsilon_0 \left( k_{\parallel}^E |E_{\parallel}|^2 + k_{\perp}^E |E_{\perp}|^2 \right) \Big]$$

- Resonance frequency shift due to a small perturbation object, expressed in longitudinal and transverse E and H field components
- k: coefficients proportional to the electric or magnetic polarizability of the perturbation object (here: only  $k_{\parallel}^{E}$  for a longitudinal metallic object)
- E-field characterization along the z-axis  $E(z) = E_{\parallel}(z) = \int U \frac{\Delta f(z)}{f_{res}} \cdot \frac{-1}{k_{\parallel}^{E} \varepsilon_{0}}$

with: 
$$k_{\parallel}^{E} = \frac{\pi}{3} l^{3} \left[ \sinh^{-1} \left( \frac{2}{3\pi} \frac{l}{a} \right) \right]^{-1}$$
  
(metallic ellipsoid, e.g., syringe needle

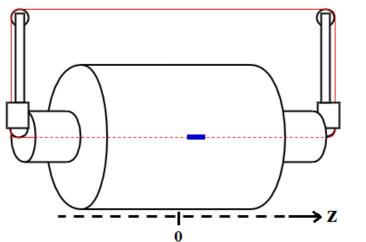
of half length l and radius a)

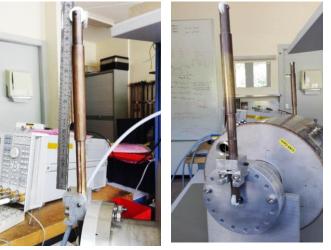


# **R/Q** Measurement - Bead Pull Method









- E-field characterization by evaluating
  - The frequency shift  $\Delta f$  ( $S_{11}$  reflection measurement with a single probe) or

$$\frac{\Delta f}{f_{res}} = \frac{1}{2 Q_0} \tan \phi$$

- The phase shift  $\phi$  at  $f_{res}$  (S<sub>21</sub> transmission measurement with 2 probes)
- Exercise with a manual bead-pull through a known cavity
  - requires: fishing wire, syringe needle, ruler and VNA
  - Compare the measured  $E_z$  at the maximum f or  $\phi$  shift (in the center of the cavity) with the theoretical estimation (e.g., numerical computed value)

# **Beam Coupling Impedance**

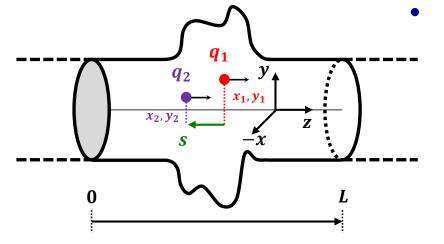
#### The wake potential

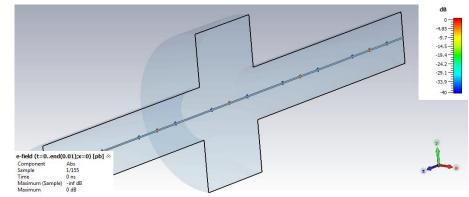
- Lorenz force on  $q_2$  by the wake field of  $q_1$ :
  - $\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = q_2 \left(\vec{E} + c_0 \vec{e}_z \times \vec{B}\right)$
- Wake potential of a structure, e.g., a discontinuity driven by  $q_1 +\infty (orL)$

$$\vec{w}(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, s) = \frac{1}{q_1} \int_{-\infty \text{ (or 0)}} dz \left[ \vec{E}(x_2, y_2, z, t) + c_0 \vec{e}_z \times \vec{B}(x_2, y_2, z, t) \right]_{t=(s+z)/c}$$

- Beam coupling impedance
  - Frequency domain representation of the wake potential  $Z(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, \omega) = -\frac{1}{c_0} \int_{0}^{+\infty} ds \, \overrightarrow{w}(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, s) e^{-j\omega s/c_0}$
  - Can be decomposed in longitudinal  $Z_{\parallel}$  and transverse  $Z_{\perp}$  components (*Panofsky-Wenzel* theorem)

- Resonant structures, 
$$i^{th}$$
 mode:  $R_{sh,i} = Z_{\parallel,i} = \frac{2k_{loss,i}Q_i}{\omega_i}$ 

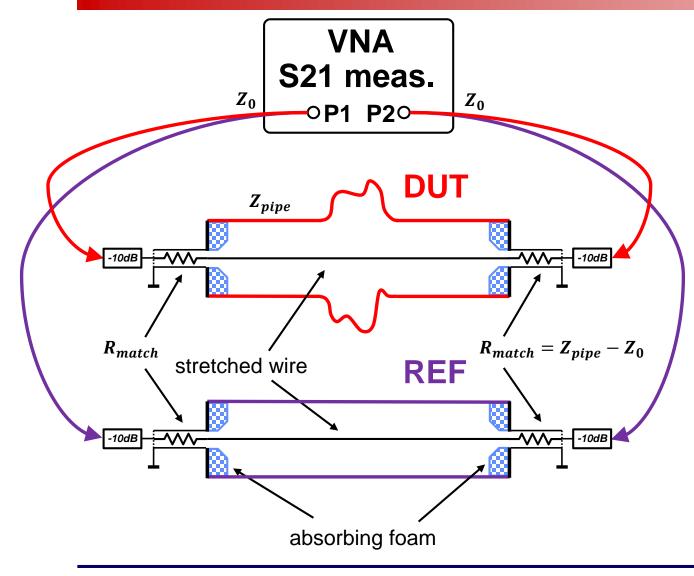








## **Stretched-Wire** $Z_{\parallel}$ **Measurement**



#### • Formulas:

- Normalized electrical length:  $\Theta = 2\pi \frac{L}{2}$
- Lumped impedance formula

$$Z_{\parallel} = 2Z_{pipe} \frac{1 - S_{21}}{S_{21}} \quad \begin{array}{l} \Theta \leq 1 \\ L < D_{pipe} \end{array}$$

– Log formula

$$Z_{\parallel} = -2Z_{pipe}\ln S_{21}$$

Improved log formula

$$Z_{\parallel} = -2Z_{pipe} \ln S_{21} \left( 1 + j \frac{\ln S_{21}}{2\Theta} \right)$$

Transmission coefficient

$$S_{21} = \frac{S_{21,DUT}}{S_{21,REF}}$$

Circular beam pipe impedance  $Z_{pipe} = \frac{\eta_0}{2\pi\sqrt{\varepsilon_r}} \ln \frac{D}{d} \cong 60 \ \Omega \ln \frac{D_{pipe}}{d_{wire}}$ 

2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators": RF Measurements – M. Wendt







- No summary, just thank you for listening!
- Also, a big THANK YOU to all the help from the hands-on instructors!
- More THANKS to Dassault / CST, SIMUSERV (Frank) and Computer Controls / Keysight
- THANK YOU to my colleagues at CERN, in particular Joel D.!











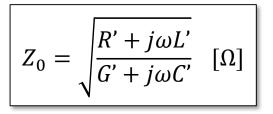
# **Refresher: Some TL Equations (1)**

•

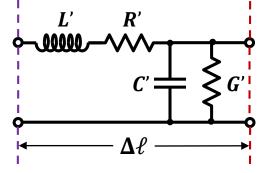


- Characteristic impedance
  - for a TEM transmission-line

➤ with losses

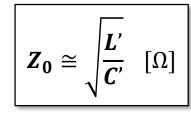


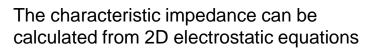
Equivalent circuit TEM TL segment



→ lossless, non-magnetic media ( $\mu_r = 1$ )

$$Z_0 \cong \frac{\sqrt{\mu_0 \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_r}}{C'} = \frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon_r}}{cC'} = \frac{1}{v_p C'} \quad [\Omega]$$





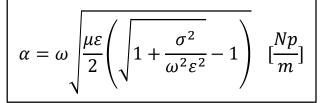
$$Z_{0} \cong \frac{L'}{\sqrt{\mu_{0}\varepsilon_{0}\varepsilon_{r}}} = \frac{cL'}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_{r}}} = v_{p}L' \quad [\Omega]$$

**Propagation constant** 

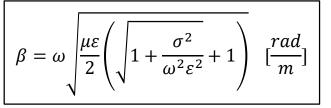
$$\gamma = \sqrt{(R' + j\omega L')(G' + j\omega C')}$$

$$\gamma = \alpha + j\beta = \sqrt{j\omega\mu(\sigma+j\omega\varepsilon)}$$

#### attenuation constant



phase constant



$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_g} \left[\frac{rad}{m}\right] \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \omega \sqrt{L'C'}$$

2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators": RF Measurements – M. Wendt



## **Refresher: Some TL Equations (2)**



#### • Wave impedance

in media

prostoristic impodence of free space

• Speed of light

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \varepsilon_0}} \cong 2.997925 \cdot 10^8 [\frac{m}{s}]$$

• Phase velocity

$$v_p = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L'C'}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu\varepsilon}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0\mu_r\varepsilon_0\varepsilon_r}} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{\mu_r\varepsilon_r}} \left[\frac{m}{s}\right]$$

- non-magnetic media ( $\mu_r = 1$ )

$$v_p \cong \frac{c}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_r}} \quad [\frac{m}{s}]$$

#### Wavelength

in free space

$$\lambda_0 = \lambda = \frac{c}{f} \quad [m]$$

#### guide wavelength (in media)

$$\lambda_g = \frac{c}{f\sqrt{\mu_r \varepsilon_r}} = \frac{\lambda_0}{\sqrt{\mu_r \varepsilon_r}} \quad [m]$$

- non-magnetic media:  $(\mu_r = 1)$ 

$$\lambda_g \cong rac{c}{f\sqrt{arepsilon_r}} \quad [m]$$

- Electrical length
  - for a TEM line of physical length  $\ell$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\ell} = 2\pi \frac{\boldsymbol{\ell}}{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_g} \ [rad] \qquad \boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\ell} = 360 \frac{\boldsymbol{\ell}}{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_g} \ [deg]$$

• Permeability: 
$$\mu = \mu_0 \mu_r$$
  $\mu_0 \cong 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7}$  [H/m]

• **Permittivity:**  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{0}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{r}$   $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{0} \cong 8.854 \cdot 10^{-12}$  [*F*/*m*]

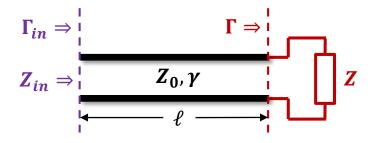




• Transmission-line terminated with an arbitrary impedance Z:

$$Z_{in} = Z_0 \frac{1 + \Gamma_{in}}{1 - \Gamma_{in}}$$
 with:  $\Gamma_{in} = \Gamma e^{-2\gamma \ell}$  and:  $\Gamma = \frac{Z - Z_0}{Z + Z_0}$ 

$$Z_{in} = Z_0 \left( \frac{Z \cosh \gamma \ell + Z_0 \sinh \gamma \ell}{Z_0 \cosh \gamma \ell + Z \sinh \gamma \ell} \right) = Z_0 \frac{Z + Z_0 \tanh \gamma \ell}{Z_0 + Z \tanh \gamma \ell} \quad [\Omega]$$



#### • Lossless transmission-line:

 $\alpha = 0 \Rightarrow$ 

$$Z_{in} = Z_0 \left( \frac{Z \cos \beta \ell + j Z_0 \sin \beta \ell}{Z_0 \cos \beta \ell + j Z \sin \beta \ell} \right) \left[ \Omega \right]$$

- **Popular applications**  
> Quarter-wave line: 
$$\ell = \frac{\lambda}{4} \Rightarrow \theta = \frac{\pi}{2} \Rightarrow Z_{in} = \frac{Z_0^2}{Z}$$
  
> Terminated (matched) line:  $Z = Z_0 \Rightarrow Z_{in} = Z_0$   
> Open line:  $Z \to \infty \Rightarrow Z_{in} = -jZ_0 \cot \beta \ell$   
> Shorted line:  $Z = 0 \Rightarrow Z_{in} = jZ_0 \tan \beta \ell$ 

2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators": RF Measurements – M. Wendt

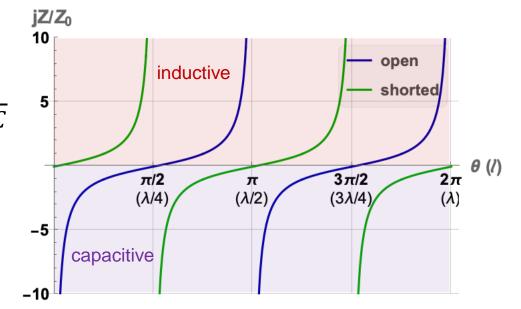


# **Lossless Transmission-lines**



$Z_{in,open} = -j Z_0 \cot \beta \ell$		$0 < \ell < \lambda_g/4 \ 0 <  heta < \pi/2$	$egin{aligned} \lambda_g/4 < \ell < \lambda_g/2 \ \pi/2 <  heta < \pi \end{aligned}$	$egin{aligned} \lambda_g/2 < \ell < 3\lambda_g/4 \ \pi <  heta < 3\pi/2 \end{aligned}$	$rac{3\lambda_g/4 < \ell < \lambda_g}{3\pi/2 <  heta < 2\pi}$
	lossless TL open	"capacitive"	"inductive"	"capacitive"	"inductive"
$Z_{in,short} = j Z_0 \tan \beta \ell$	lossless TL shorted	"inductive"	"capacitive"	"inductive"	"capacitive"

- A lossless TL with open (Z = 0) or shorted (Z → ∞) termination can approximate a lumped reactive element (capacitor or inductor)
  - A "capacitive" element has the form:  $Z_C = \frac{1}{j\omega C} = -j\frac{1}{\omega C}$
  - An "inductive" element has the form:  $Z_L = j\omega L$ 
    - > A more precise method follows a "*T*" or " $\pi$ " *LCL* or *CLC* equivalent circuit of the lossless TL.
    - > In case of  $\theta \ll 1$ , we can simplify  $\tan \theta \cong \theta$ , etc.
    - > In practice it is useful to select a low  $Z_0$  for a capacitive, or a high  $Z_0$  for an inductive semi-lumped element approximation



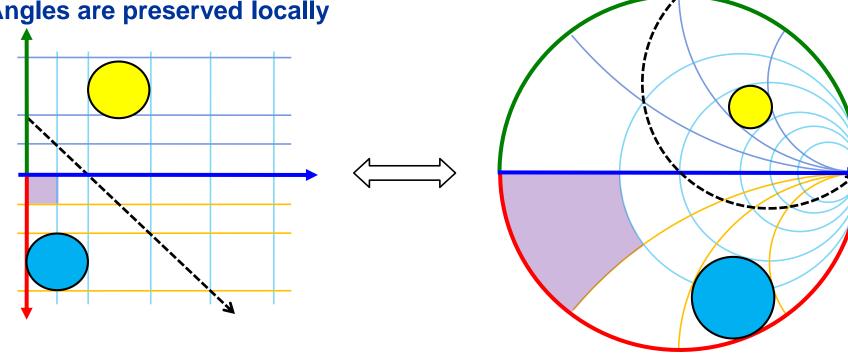




#### This is a "bilinear" transformation with the following properties:

- Generalized circles are transformed into generalized circles
  - circle  $\rightarrow$  circle
  - straight line  $\rightarrow$  circle
  - circle  $\rightarrow$  straight line
  - straight line  $\rightarrow$  straight line
- Angles are preserved locally

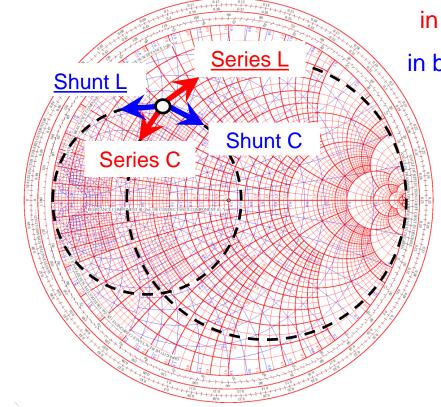
- > a straight line is equivalent to a circle with infinite radius
- $\succ$  a circle is defined by 3 points
- > a straight line is defined by 2 points



2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators": RF Measurements – M. Wendt







in red: impedance plane (= z)

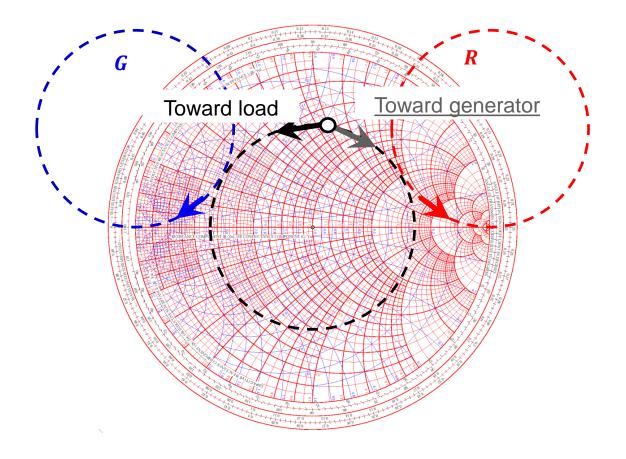
in blue: admittance plane (= y)

	<u>Up</u>	Down
Red circles	<u>Series L</u>	Series C
Blue circles	<u>Shunt L</u>	Shunt C



### **Navigation in the Smith Chart (3)**



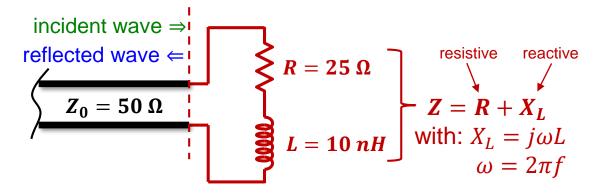


Red arcs	Resistance R
Blue arcs	Conductance G
Con-centric circle	Transmission line going Toward load <u>Toward generator</u>



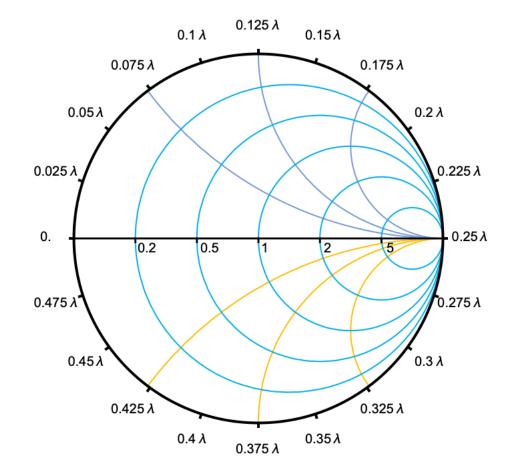
### The Smith Chart – Basic Example (1)





#### **Complex impedance based on lumped element components**

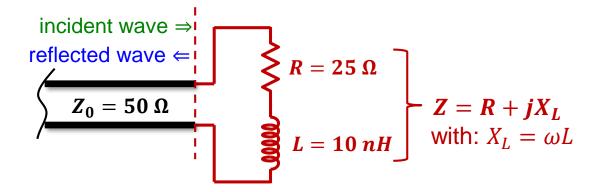
- Calculate Z for a given frequency, e.g., f = 50 MHz:  $Z = (25 + j6.28) \Omega$
- Calculate the normalized impedance  $z = Z/Z_0 = 0.5 + j0.126$ 
  - Locate z in the Smith chart
  - Retrieve  $\Gamma = 0.34 \angle 161^\circ = 0.34e^{j2.81}$
- Repeat for other frequencies...



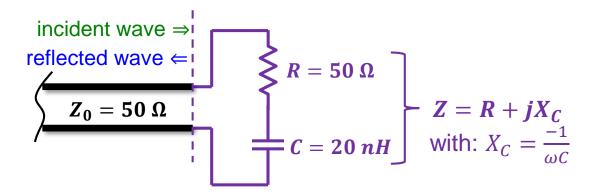


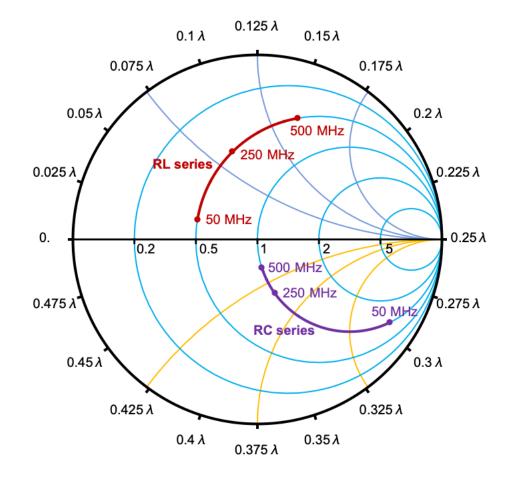
#### The Smith Chart – Basic Example (2)





• ...and for different component values and circuit combinations

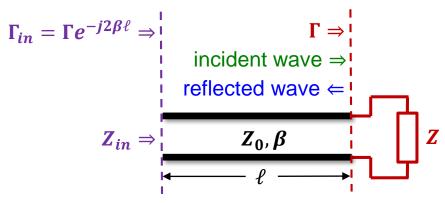






### The Smith Chart – TL Transformer (1)





• S-parameter of a lossless transmission-line:

backward transmission coefficient S12

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e^{-j\beta\ell} \\ e^{-j\beta\ell} & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{\star}$$

forward transmission coefficient S21

Phase delay (electrical length) of

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\ell}$$

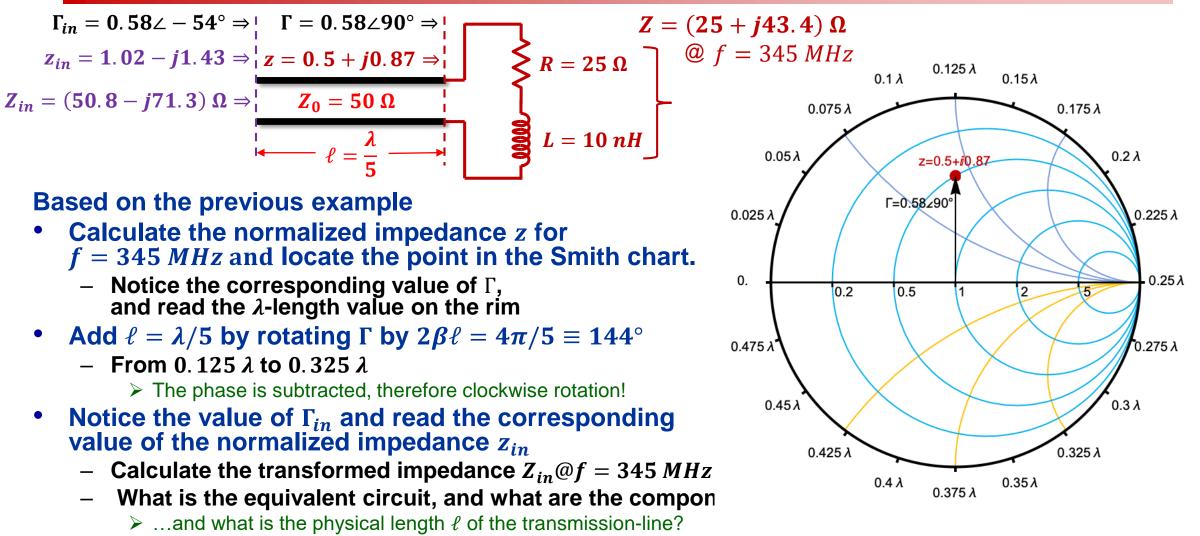
with: 
$$\beta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_g}$$

The lossless transmission-line adds a phase delay of  $2\beta\ell$ , seen at its input, to the reflection coefficient at its output:

$$\Gamma_{in} = \Gamma e^{-j2\beta\ell}$$

- This results in a transformation of the impedance Z at the end of the line to a different impedance  $Z_{in}$  at the input of the line
  - The Smith chart offers an effective, simple graphical way to calculate this transmission-line based impedance transformation



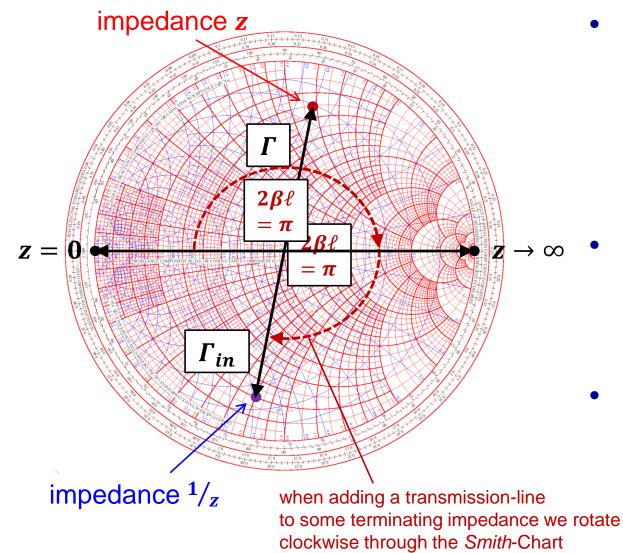


– assuming a coaxial cable as transmission-line with a dielectric constant of  $\epsilon_r = 2.1$ 









• A transmission-line of length

$$\ell = \lambda/4 \equiv \beta \ell = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

transforms a reflection  $\Gamma$  at the end of the line to its input as

$$\Gamma_{in} = \Gamma \ e^{-j2eta \ell} = \Gamma \ e^{-j\pi} = -\Gamma$$

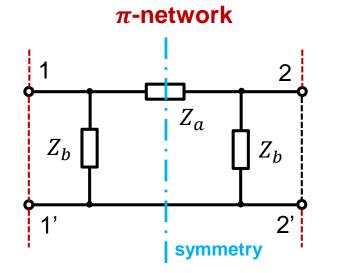
• This results the unitless, normalized impedance *z* at the end of the line to be transformed into:

at the beginning of the line

- $z_{in} = 1/z$
- A short circuit at the end of the  $\lambda/4$ -transformer is transformed to an open, and vice versa
  - This is the principle of the  $\lambda/4$ -resonator.

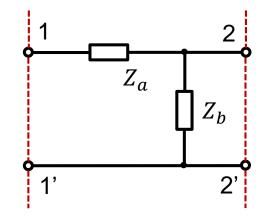
# **Examples for Symmetry and Reciprocity**





 $(S_{\pi}) = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{pmatrix} Z_{a}Z_{b}^{2} - Z_{0}^{2}(Z_{a} + 2Z_{b}) & 2Z_{0}Z_{b}^{2} \\ 2Z_{0}Z_{b}^{2} & Z_{a}Z_{b}^{2} - Z_{0}^{2}(Z_{a} + 2Z_{b}) \end{pmatrix}$ with:  $\Delta = (Z_{a} + Z_{b})[Z_{a}Z_{b} + Z_{0}(Z_{a} + 2Z_{b})]$  $S_{12} = S_{21} \wedge S_{11} = S_{22} \Rightarrow \text{reciprocal and symmetric}$ 

#### divider-network



$$(S_{div}) = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{pmatrix} Z_a Z_b - Z_0 (Z_0 - Z_a) & 2Z_0 Z_b \\ 2Z_0 Z_b & Z_a Z_b - Z_0 (Z_0 + Z_a) \end{pmatrix}$$
  
with:  $\Delta = Z_0 (Z_0 + Z_a) + Z_b (2Z_0 + Z_a)$ 

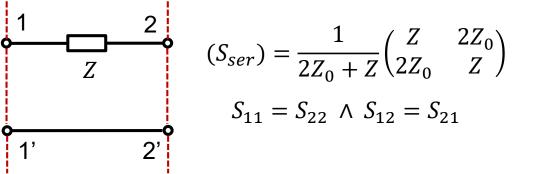
 $S_{12} = S_{21} \land S_{11} \neq S_{22} \Rightarrow$  reciprocal, but not symmetric

#### • Without prof: The S-matrix is always symmetric for reciprocal networks.









 $Z = j\omega L = j10$ Z = R = 10 $|S_{11}| = \sqrt{1 - |S_{12}|^2}$  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{101}} = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{10}{\sqrt{101}}\right)^2}$  $\frac{1}{11} \neq \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{10}{11}\right)^2}$  $\angle S_{11} - \angle S_{12} = \angle S_{21} - \angle S_{22} - \pi$  $\tan^{-1}(10) + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{10} = -\tan\frac{1}{10} - \tan(10) - \pi$  $\Rightarrow$  lossless $\Rightarrow$  lossy

#### 4-port ideal directional coupler

$$(S_{dc}) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{3} & j & 0\\ \sqrt{3} & 0 & 0 & j\\ j & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3}\\ 0 & j & \sqrt{3} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

• It is evident, this ideal 4-port coupler is symmetric and reciprocal

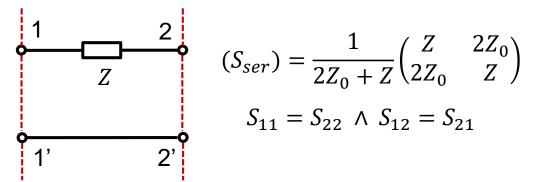
 $S_{ij} = S_{ji} \wedge S_{ii} = S_{jj}$ 

- It also is matched:  $S_{ii} = 0$
- But is it lossless or lossy?









$$(S_{dc}) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{3} & j & 0 \\ \sqrt{3} & 0 & 0 & j \\ j & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3} \\ 0 & j & \sqrt{3} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$(S)^{\dagger}(S) = (I) \implies \sum_{k=1}^{N} S_{ki} S_{ki}^{*} = 1 \land \sum_{k=1}^{N} S_{ki} S_{kj}^{*} = 0 \forall i \neq j$$

• Multiply matrix columns by itself with the conjugate complex

- and test for = 1

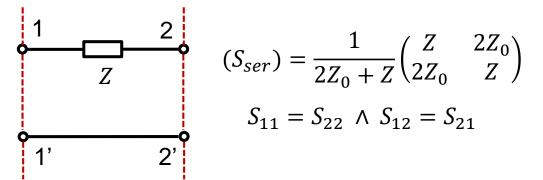
$$\begin{split} S_{11}S_{11}^* + S_{21}S_{21}^* + S_{31}S_{31}^* + S_{41}S_{41}^* &= (0 \cdot 0 + \sqrt{3} \cdot \sqrt{3} + j \cdot (-j) + 0 \cdot 0)/2^2 = 1\\ S_{12}S_{12}^* + S_{22}S_{22}^* + S_{32}S_{32}^* + S_{42}S_{42}^* &= (\sqrt{3} \cdot \sqrt{3} + 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 + j \cdot (-j))/2^2 = 1\\ S_{13}S_{13}^* + S_{23}S_{23}^* + S_{33}S_{33}^* + S_{43}S_{43}^* &= (j \cdot (-j) + 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 + \sqrt{3} \cdot \sqrt{3})/2^2 = 1\\ S_{14}S_{14}^* + S_{24}S_{24}^* + S_{34}S_{34}^* + S_{44}S_{44}^* &= (0 \cdot 0 + j \cdot (-j) + \sqrt{3} \cdot \sqrt{3} + 0 \cdot 0)/2^2 = 1 \end{split}$$

$$Z = j\omega L = j10 \qquad Z = R = 10$$
$$|S_{11}| = \sqrt{1 - |S_{12}|^2}$$
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{101}} = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{10}{\sqrt{101}}\right)^2} \qquad \frac{1}{11} \neq \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{10}{11}\right)^2}$$
$$\angle S_{11} - \angle S_{12} = \angle S_{21} - \angle S_{22} - \pi$$
$$\tan^{-1}(10) + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{10} = -\tan\frac{1}{10} - \tan(10) - \pi \qquad 0 - 0 \neq 0 - 0 - \pi$$
$$\Rightarrow \text{lossless} \qquad \Rightarrow \text{lossy}$$









$$Z = j\omega L = j10$$
 $Z = R = 10$  $|S_{11}| = \sqrt{1 - |S_{12}|^2}$  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{101}} = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{10}{\sqrt{101}}\right)^2}$  $\frac{1}{11} \neq \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{10}{11}\right)^2}$  $\angle S_{11} - \angle S_{12} = \angle S_{21} - \angle S_{22} - \pi$  $\tan^{-1}(10) + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{10} = -\tan\frac{1}{10} - \tan(10) - \pi$  $0 - 0 \neq 0 - 0 - \pi$  $\Rightarrow$  lossless $\Rightarrow$  lossy

#### 4-port ideal directional coupler

$$(S_{dc}) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{3} & j & 0 \\ \sqrt{3} & 0 & 0 & j \\ j & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3} \\ 0 & j & \sqrt{3} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$(S)^{\dagger}(S) = (I) \implies \sum_{k=1}^{N} S_{ki} S_{ki}^{*} = 1 \wedge \sum_{k=1}^{N} S_{ki} S_{kj}^{*} = 0 \forall i \neq j$$

• Multiply all different matrix columns with the conjugate complex

- and test for = 0

$$\begin{split} S_{11}S_{12}^* + S_{21}S_{22}^* + S_{31}S_{32}^* + S_{41}S_{42}^* &= (0 \cdot \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{3} \cdot 0 + j \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot (-j))/2^2 = 0 \\ S_{11}S_{13}^* + S_{21}S_{23}^* + S_{31}S_{33}^* + S_{41}S_{43}^* &= (0 \cdot (-j) + \sqrt{3} \cdot 0 + j \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot \sqrt{3})/2^2 = 0 \\ S_{11}S_{14}^* + S_{21}S_{24}^* + S_{31}S_{34}^* + S_{41}S_{44}^* &= (0 \cdot 0 + \sqrt{3} \cdot (-j) + j \cdot \sqrt{3} + 0 \cdot 0)/2^2 = 0 \\ S_{12}S_{13}^* + S_{22}S_{23}^* + S_{32}S_{33}^* + S_{42}S_{43}^* &= (\sqrt{3} \cdot (-j) + 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 + j \cdot \sqrt{3})/2^2 = 0 \\ S_{12}S_{14}^* + S_{22}S_{24}^* + S_{32}S_{34}^* + S_{42}S_{44}^* &= (\sqrt{3} \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot (-j) + 0 \cdot \sqrt{3} + j \cdot 0)/2^2 = 0 \\ S_{13}S_{14}^* + S_{23}S_{24}^* + S_{33}S_{34}^* + S_{43}S_{44}^* &= (j \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot (-j) + 0 \cdot \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{3} \cdot 0)/2^2 = 0 \end{split}$$





- Cascading e.g., 2-port S-parameter files is important to characterize a larger RF system.
  - Solution: Transfer (T) parameters, which directly relates the waves at input and output

$$(T) = \begin{pmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} \\ T_{12} & T_{22} \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} b_1 = T_{11}a_2 + T_{12}b_2 \\ a_1 = T_{21}a_2 + T_{22}b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- T-parameters enable cascaded 2-port networks by simply multiplying their matrices:

$$(T) = (T^{(1)})(T^{(2)})\cdots(T^{(N)}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} (T^{(i)})$$

– Relation between 2-port T-parameters and S-parameters:

$$(T) = \frac{1}{S_{21}} \begin{pmatrix} -\det(S) & S_{11} \\ -S_{22} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(S) = \frac{1}{T_{22}} \begin{pmatrix} T_{12} & \det(T) \\ 1 & -T_{21} \end{pmatrix}$$
with:  $\det(S) = S_{11}S_{22} - S_{12}S_{21}$ 
with:  $\det(T) = T_{11}T_{22} - T_{12}T_{21}$ 





**(2**)

- Also called "chain" parameters, used for cascading networks based on V and I
  - Useful for chaining a mix of lumped elements and transmission-lines

<sub>(1)</sub>

**(1**)

**(2**)

Chaining 2-port ABCD-parameter networks:

$$(ABCD) = (ABCD^{(1)})(ABCD^{(2)}) \cdots (ABCD^{(N)}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} (ABCD^{(i)})$$

– Relation between 2-port ABCD-parameters and S-parameters:

$$S_{11} = \frac{A + B/Z_0 - CZ_0 - D}{A + B/Z_0 + CZ_0 + D}$$

$$S_{12} = \frac{2(AD - BC)}{A + B/Z_0 + CZ_0 + D}$$

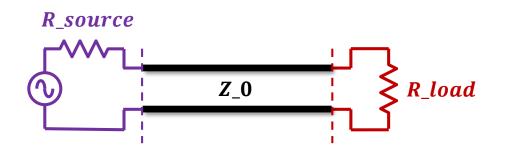
$$S_{11} = \frac{-A + B/Z_0 - CZ_0 + D}{A + B/Z_0 - CZ_0 + D}$$

2023 CAS course on "RF for Accelerators": RF Measurements – M. Wendt









#### **1.** When do no signal reflections occur at the end of a transmission-line?

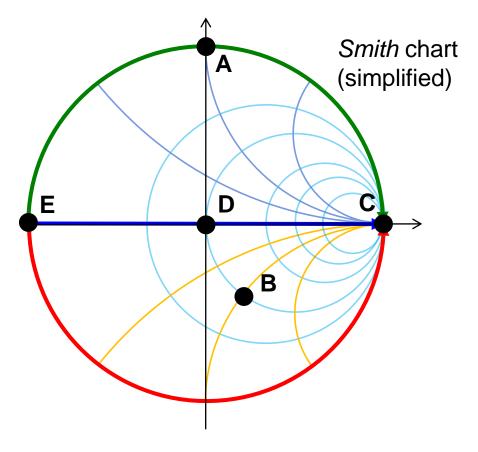
- **R\_source = R\_load**
- $\circ \quad \mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{source}} = \mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{0}}$
- $\chi$  Z\_0 = R\_load
- **X** R\_source = Z\_0 = R\_load
- 2. The Smith chart transforms the complex impedance plane onto the complex Gamma (reflection coefficient) plane within the unit circle.







Prompts		Possible Answers
A. Point A	A5	1. Gamma = +1, z -> infinity
B. Point B	B4	2. Gamma = -j
C. Point C	C1	3. Gamma = 0, z = 1, match
D. Point D	D3	4. Point in the capacitive half plane
E. Point E	E6	5. Gamma = +j
		6. Gamma = -1, z = 0
		7. Point in the inductive half plane



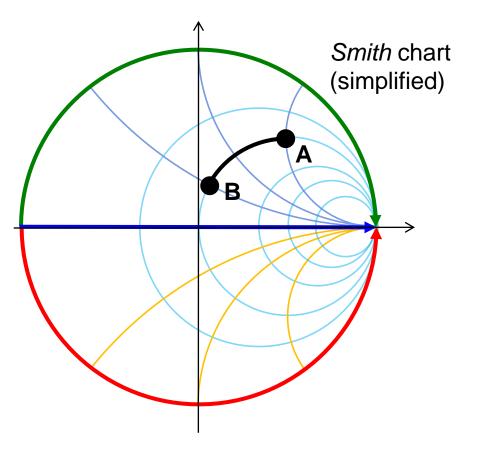






# 4. Trace with marker points in the simplified Smith chart for an RL series impedance

- Frequency f at point B > frequency f at point A
- **Frequency f at point B < frequency f at point A**
- There is no frequency related to points A and B
- Frequency f at point A = frequency f at point B









#### **1.** Select all correct answers

- Y- and Z-parameters of electrical networks require a reference impedance Z\_0
- Scattering parameters of RF networks are based on normalize complex voltage waves incident and reflected / transmitted at their ports
- **X** DUT stands for "Device Under Test", as acronym for the RF network to be characterized
- S-parameters are only defined for a reference impedance of Z\_0 = 50 Ohm.
- Very Sector of the sector o





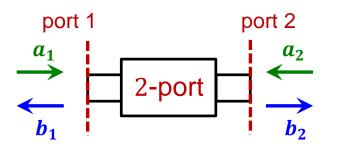


Prompts		Possible Answers
A. matched	A4	1. S_ii = S_ij
B. symmetric	B3	2. (S*) <sup>T</sup> = (i)
C. reciprocal	C5	3. S_ij = S_ji and S_ii = S_jj
D. passive and lossless	D2	4. S_ii = 0
		5. Gamma = +j
		6. S_ij = S_ji









#### **3.** Mark all correct answers for the S-parameters of a 2-port RF network

- $\circ~$  a\_1 and b\_1 are independent parameters
- ✗ S\_11 is the input reflection coefficient
- **∞** a\_1 and a\_2 are the incident waves at port 1 and port 2, respectively.
- $\circ~$  b\_1 and b\_2 are the transmitted waves between port 1 and port 2, and vice versa.
- **∞** S\_21 and S\_12 are the forward and reverse transmission gains.
- ★ To characterize the S-parameters at port 2, port 1 needs to be terminated in its characteristic port impedance.