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# W-Band Sensor for Complex Permittivity Measurements of Rod Shaped Samples

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**ABSTRACT** A novel W-band sensor for complex permittivity measurements of rod shaped samples based on reflectometer method is described. Characterization of dielectric materials around 100 GHz is quite a challenge. The main limitation is the requirements for the accuracy of the dimensions of the test sample and ensuring good contact with conductive surfaces. From this point of view, it seems interesting to use a cylindrical waveguide with the TE<sub>01</sub> mode. The four linearly-polarized H<sub>10</sub> fields of rectangular waveguides with equal amplitude and phase circumnavigate the cylindrical waveguide to jointly excite its TE<sub>nm</sub> circular modes with four-fold symmetry. This precludes the excitation of lower-order modes of the metallic cylindrical waveguide. TE<sub>01</sub> mode is unique in that its field leads to zero on the surface of the walls of a metallic cylindrical waveguide. The main field interaction takes place on the sample surface. The calibration method uses calibration curves obtained by simulation for known values of complex permittivity of the samples. This eliminates the requirement for a precision calibration standards, which is the problematic to realize at millimeter wavelengths. Moreover, the complex field structure in the sensor makes it impossible to apply a standard calibration method. Simulation and measurements using these method have been performed in W-band (70-114 GHz). Measurement results demonstrate the robustness of this new sensor for characterizing rod shaped dielectric samples.

**INDEX TERMS** Dielectric materials, dielectric measurement, microwave and millimeter wave measurements, microwave sensors, reflectometry.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The W band of the electromagnetic spectrum ranges from 75 to 110 GHz is used for satellite communications, millimeter-wave automotive cruise control radar, military radar targeting and tracking applications, and some non-military applications. An interesting application of this frequency range is the heating effect. Less-than-lethal weaponry exists that uses millimeter waves to heat a thin layer of human skin to an intolerable temperature so as to make the targeted person move away. A two-second burst of the 95 GHz focused beam heats the skin to a temperature of 130 F (54 °C) at a depth of 1/64 of an inch (0.4 mm). The United States Air Force and Marines are currently using this type of Active Denial System [1]. The use of various

dielectric materials to protect against radiation or ensuring the correct operation of the devices being developed requires knowledge of their characteristics. In any case, determining the permittivity of materials in W band is very timely.

The applied methods of measuring material parameters in the microwave frequency range depends on several parameters, such as the frequency, size and shape of the available samples, the extent of dielectric losses and the presence of anisotropy [2]. Generally, these methods can be divided into transmission/reflection [3]–[5] and resonator methods. For transmission/reflection methods, the transmission coefficient or reflectance is measured. Transmission/reflection measurements can be performed using a closed measurement structure, e.g. coaxial lines, waveguides, as well as open ended probes, and can also be carried out in free space [6], [7]. These methods are useful, first of all, in the case of measuring the permittivity of a small value, of the order of several, and for

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high loss and medium loss samples. These ones can be used for frequencies below 10 GHz due to the significant increase in loss above this frequency. The exception is free space measurement methods that can be used at higher frequencies. Uncertainties for real permittivity is better than  $\pm 1\%$ . Resolution of loss tangent measurements is limited (typically  $\pm 0.01$ ).

Resonator methods can be divided into two groups: metal cavity [8]–[10] and dielectric resonator method [11]–[13]. These methods also include the Fabry-Perot resonator method [14]–[16]. Generally, the resonant frequency and the unloaded Q-factor of a cavity resonator with a sample of the material under test or of a resonator formed by the sample itself, the so-called dielectric resonator are measured. On the base of this measurement, the permittivity and loss tangent is extracted.

Among the methods with a cavity resonator, the most frequently used are waveguide cavities working with first of  $TE_{01n}$  or  $TM_{01n}$  modes. One of the main advantages of the  $TE_{01n}$  modes methods is that it is insensitive to air gaps between the symmetrically placed sample and the cavity resonator. It is related to the field distribution in the cavity. The accuracy of the measurement depends largely on the losses in the tested sample. For very small losses, the accuracy decreases due to the large proportion of losses in the metal walls of the resonator. Another disadvantage is that for frequencies below 8 GHz, the resonator sizes become large. Uncertainties of real permittivity determination employing  $TE_{01n}$  mode cavities are the order of 0.5%. In the  $TM_{01n}$  mode resonators, samples filling the entire cavity depth are used. Unfortunately, such a solution is very sensitive to air gaps between the sample and the structure. Typical measurement uncertainties for real permittivity are about 0.5%–2%. Fabry–Perot resonators are commonly used in the mm-wave range for low-loss materials. The achieved accuracy of the measurement of the real part of the permittivity is about 0.5%. The disadvantage is the need to make the resonator accurately and the large size of the sample.

In the methods with the dielectric resonator, the fact that almost 90% of the electromagnetic field energy is concentrated in the measured sample is used. Different modes and different structures are used [11]–[13]. The resonant frequency of the dominant modes as well as the higher modes, e.g. the whispering gallery modes, is determined. The limitation in the use of methods with the basic mode is its size, because in order for the dielectric resonator to be a good resonator, it must have high permeability, which reduces its size and limits its use to about 20 GHz. Another limitation is the amount of material losses - the best results are obtained for small and very small values of the loss tangent. The achievable accuracy is  $10^{-6}$  for the loss tangent of materials with high permeability ( $\epsilon > 20$ ) and 0.3% for the measurement of the real part of the permeability - regardless of their value. For higher frequencies it is possible to use whispering gallery resonators. The main advantage of the whispering gallery methods is the almost unlimited resolution of the loss tangent

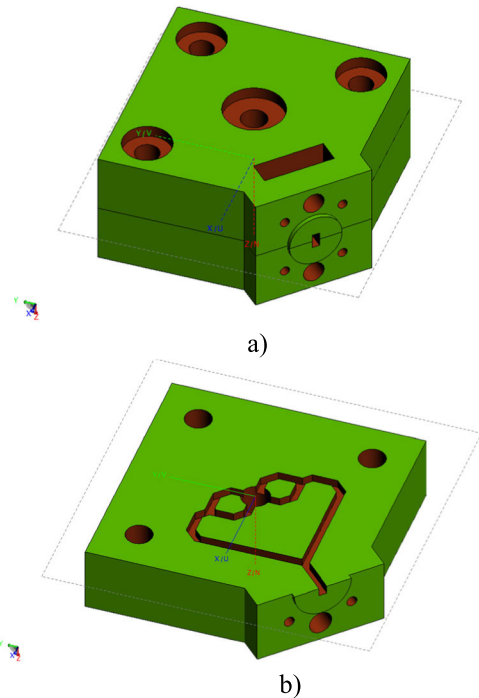
measurement, unfortunately only for losses less than  $10^{-4}$ . Another disadvantage of these methods is the difficulty in correctly determining the mode.

Characterization of dielectric materials at frequencies around 100 GHz is quite a challenge. The main limitations are the requirements for the accuracy of the dimensions of the test sample and ensuring good contact with conductive surfaces. From this point of view, it seems interesting to use a cylindrical waveguide with the  $TE_{01}$  circular (called  $TE_{01}$  cir.) mode.  $TE_{01}$  cir. mode is unique in that its field leads to zero on the surface of the walls of a metallic cylindrical waveguide because exciting only  $E_\varphi$  component. An example of the way to excite the  $TE_{01}$  cir. mode is shown in [17]. The four linearly-polarized  $H_{10}$  reg. fields of rectangular waveguides with equal amplitude and phase circumnavigate the cylindrical waveguide to jointly excite its  $TE_{nm}$  circular modes four-fold symmetry. This precludes the excitation of lower-order modes of the metallic cylindrical waveguide (i.e.,  $TE_{11}$  cir.,  $TM_{01}$  cir.,  $TE_{21}$  cir.,  $TM_{11}$  cir.). It will be the best, but the bandwidth of spectral characteristics of the mode converter from  $H_{10}$  reg. to the  $TE_{01}$  cir. is about 5% only. If you want to use the whole W-band then we cannot work with  $TE_{01}$  cir modes only. In [18] a generic approach to excite a pure circular  $TE_{mn}$  cir mode through sidewall couplings with the emphasis on the coupling mechanism is presented. Particular attention was paid to the analysis of the modes excited by the converter. Three mode converters  $TE_{21}$  cir,  $TE_{01}$  cir,  $TE_{41}$  cir, were designed, built, and tested at W-band (75 – 110 GHz). It has been shown that the measurements of back-to-back transmission show the maximum transmission bandwidth of 24 GHz for the  $TE_{01}$  cir converter.

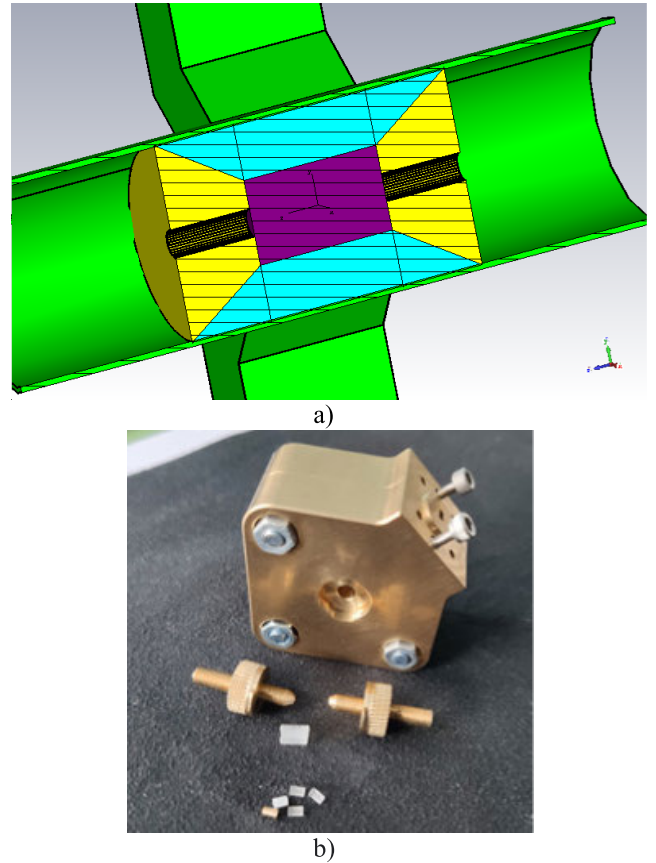
## II. SENSOR DESIGN AND DATA PROCESSING TECHNIQUES

In this work, we consider the use of a similar converter in order to apply it to the characterization of a dielectric sample that is introduced inside a cylindrical waveguide in which the  $TE_{mn}$  mode is excited. The converter dimensions were selected by means of preliminary simulations: quad feed by WR-10 rectangular waveguides ( $2.54 \times 1.57$  mm), radius of a cylindrical waveguide is equals 1.75 mm. The Fig. 1 shows the model of designed sensor. The sensor consists of two identical parts connected together. Fig.1.b) shows one of these parts, which are tightly joined with pins and screws. Each parts made of brass and machined using a computer numerically controlled (CNC) lathe with a tolerance of  $5 \mu\text{m}$ .

In Fig. 2 green and yellow colors represent metal, blue - Teflon, purple – sample. The sample height equal to 2.5 mm, diameter equal to 1.5 mm. The shape of the sample indicates that the sensor can be used for characterizing the samples in the form of a cylinder. This is a very important aspect when industrial materials are present or when samples are prepared in the form of rods, which is easier than other forms. Small holes in the metal part (yellow in color) will allow the use of such a sensor for testing liquids in the future. The choice of the conical shape of the metal parts is related to



**FIGURE 1.** Model of sensor prepared for fabrication (a), one of two parts of the sensor (b).



**FIGURE 2.** The longitudinal cross-section of a sensor a) and fabricated sensor with accessories and samples b).

the need to gently clamp the sample, which is placed in a Teflon holder with a diameter equal to 3.5 mm. As it was mentioned that TE<sub>01</sub> cir. mode is unique in that its field leads to zero on the surface of the walls of a metallic cylindrical waveguide because exciting only E<sub>φ</sub> component. The main field interaction takes place on the sample surface.

The mathematical model includes a metallic circular waveguide of inner radius r<sub>t</sub>, inner wall of which is containing a Teflon lining of inner radius r<sub>d</sub> and relative permittivity ε<sub>t</sub> for the full length of the waveguide [19]. The model includes a coaxial dielectric insert of radius r<sub>d</sub> and relative permittivity ε<sub>d</sub> which can be changed, Fig. 3.

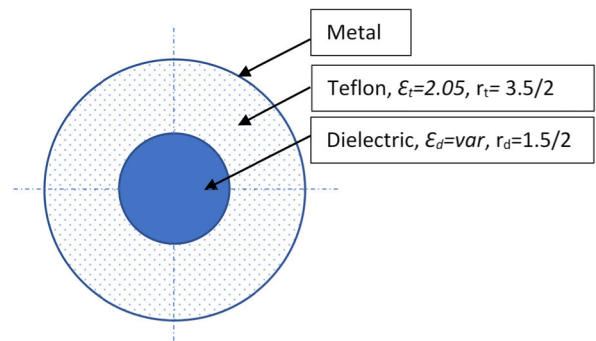
The structure may be divided into two analytical regions, the central dielectric filled region I: 0 ≤ r ≤ r<sub>d</sub> and the Teflon filled region II: r<sub>d</sub> ≤ r ≤ r<sub>t</sub>. For TE<sub>01</sub> mode we can write (1):

$$\gamma^{II} J_0' \{ \gamma^I r_d \} ( J_0 \{ \gamma^{II} r_d \} Y_0' \{ \gamma^{II} r_t \} - Y_0 \{ \gamma^{II} r_d \} J_0' \{ \gamma^{II} r_t \} ) = \gamma^I J_0 \{ \gamma^I r_d \} ( J_0' \{ \gamma^{II} r_d \} Y_0' \{ \gamma^{II} r_t \} - Y_0' \{ \gamma^{II} r_d \} J_0' \{ \gamma^{II} r_t \} ) \quad (1)$$

where J<sub>0</sub> and Y<sub>0</sub> are the zeroth-order Bessel functions of the first and second kinds, respectively. Prime with a function represents the derivative with respect to its argument;  $\gamma_n^I = \sqrt{(\epsilon_d k^2 - \beta_n^2)}$  and  $\gamma_n^{II} = \sqrt{(\epsilon_t k^2 - \beta_n^2)}$  are radial propagation constants in regions I and II, respectively. k and β<sub>n</sub> are the free space and phase propagation constants.

The results of calculation of the radial propagation constant depend on the frequencies and permittivity of samples is shown in Fig. 4.

The propagation constant depend on the permittivity of samples for three frequencies is shown in Fig. 5



**FIGURE 3.** The model of cylindrical coaxial waveguide.

Form obtained results we can say that it possible extract some information connected with permittivity of sample under test. However, the extraction is not possible with using well known algorithms and advanced calibration methods. Therefore we propose a different approach.

The calibration method uses calibration curves obtained by simulation for known values of complex permittivity of the samples. This eliminates the requirement for a precision calibration standards, which is the problematic to realize at millimeter wavelengths. Moreover, the complex field structure in the sensor makes it impossible to apply a standard calibration method. Simulation and measurements using these method have been performed in W-band (70-114 GHz). The sensor

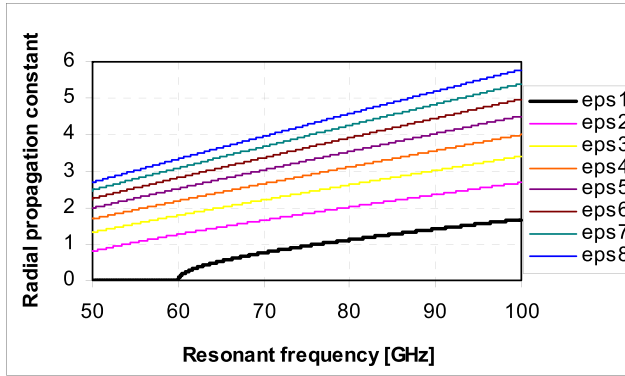


FIGURE 4. The radial propagation constant  $\gamma_1$  as a function of a frequency.

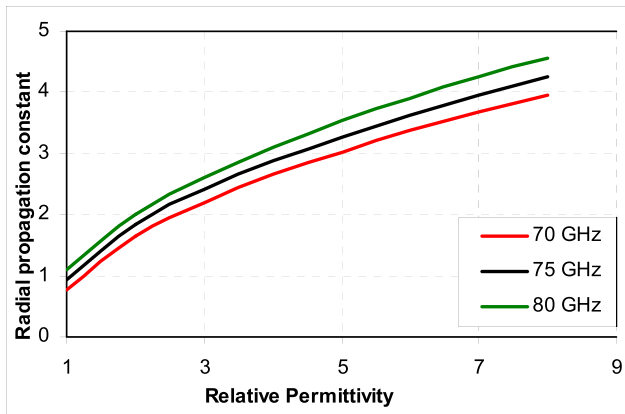


FIGURE 5. The radial propagation constant  $\gamma_1$  as a function of relative permittivity.

was used to measure the complex reflection coefficient in a W-band depending on the relative permittivity  $\epsilon_i$  of the sample under test.

$$S_{11}(f, \epsilon_i) = |S_{11}(f, \epsilon_i)| \cdot \exp\{j \cdot \text{phase}(S_{11}(f, \epsilon_i))\} \quad (2)$$

The sensor was not a special matched due to the fact that introducing material under test will cause the sensor unmatched. Calibration was performed only on the waveguide input of the sensor. The complex reflection coefficient contains information about the amplitude and phase of the wave reflected from the sample. At the beginning we will use phase dependencies, which are processed in this way: measured unwrapped values of the phase for the samples are normalized by the air sample unwrapped phase value. After normalization, the mean values for each sample were calculated:

$$\text{diff}(\text{phase}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \times \{\text{phase}[S_{11}(f_n, \epsilon_i)] - \text{phase}[S_{11}(f_n, \epsilon_A)]\} \quad (3)$$

where  $N$  – number of frequency points in chosen frequency band;  $\text{phase}$  - the phase angle in the interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$  for each element of a complex reflection coefficient  $S_{11}$ ;  $S_{11}(f_n, \epsilon_A)$  – reflection coefficient for empty sample.

Based on the mean phase difference values, it was possible to determine dependence on the permittivity of the samples.

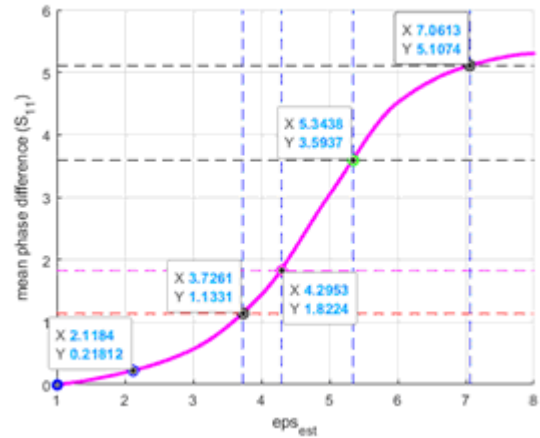


FIGURE 6. Dependence for relative permittivity equal to 2.05 (Teflon), 4.826, 6.567 and 7.878 on the mean phase difference.

However, the problem is sensor calibration, which is not easy or impossible to perform. In this study, it was proposed to use the calibration curve obtained on the basis of simulations carried out in the CST simulator. The calibration curve is the result of calculation the simulated mean phase different values for known permittivities (Fig. 6). The calibration curve is constructed using the following sample permittivity values in the frequency band from 70.5 GHz to 79 GHz: 1 (Air), 2.05 (Teflon), 3, 3.75 (Quartz), 4, 4.5, 5, 5.5, 6, 7 and 8. The influence of the frequency band on the shape of the calibration curve depends on the selected bandwidth and will be analyzed in the following part of the work. Calibration curve now makes it possible to easily determine the permittivity of the samples under test. The mean values of phase difference after normalization, for example for Quartz<sub>M</sub> is 1.1492 and is shown in Fig. 6 by a horizontal dotted red line. The point where this red line intersects with the calibration curve shows us the relative permittivity for Quartz<sub>M</sub> which is equal to 3.75, exactly as much as the sample in the simulation. The designation Quartz<sub>M</sub> and Quartz determines the amount of permittivity measured and obtained by simulation for the Quartz sample. Except of the samples mentioned above (Teflon and Quartz<sub>M</sub>), with relatively known parameters, were used for testing specially prepared materials (Fig. 7) with different permittivity around “4” (sample no 4), “6” (sample no 6) and “8” (sample no 8), respectively.

The main advantage of such a material is that it can be slightly shaped at a temperature of around 40 degrees, supposedly like using plasticine. Obtaining the appropriate permittivity is achieved by introducing a certain percentage of TiO<sub>2</sub>. Relative permittivity values were obtained in X-band using the resonant method, called the split post dielectric resonator method [20].

The sample with thin plate shape was placed between two parts of cylindrical dielectric resonator. The mean values of the real permittivity of the samples and  $\tan \delta$  were taken: “4” =  $4.826 \times 0.00347$ ; “6” =  $6.567 \times 0.004153$ ; “8” =  $7.878 \times 0.0047725$ . In the W-band, the use of the resonance method is not possible due to the requirement of too



FIGURE 7. The specially prepared materials with different permittivity.

small dimensions of test samples. In the W-band, the results obtained by the proposed method are as follows: sample “4” gives a permittivity of 4.2054; sample “6”–5.1341; sample “8”–6.8916 (Fig.3). The obtained values of the permittivity of the samples at W-band are slightly lower than it is known in literatures, which may agree with the behavior of dielectrics at higher frequencies, comparing permittivity in the X- and W-band. The use of other samples was not possible due to their absence and the lack of information on their permittivity in the W-band.

Using the designed sensor, it is also possible to estimate the losses on the basis of the amplitude relation of reflection coefficient. Apparently, as for the phase, the amplitude is normalized to the reflection amplitude for a metal sample. So, the power dissipated (losses) in samples can be estimated (4).

Knowing the dissipated power one can calculate the dissipation factor (3) or well known as a  $\tan \delta$  (5).

$$losses(\epsilon_i) = 1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \left\{ |S_{11}(f_n, \epsilon_i) / S_{11}(f_n, \epsilon_M)|^2 \right\} \quad (4)$$

where  $S_{11}(f_n, \epsilon_M)$  – reflection coefficient for metal sample.

$$\tan(\delta) = \left\{ \frac{losses(\epsilon_i)}{\sqrt{1 - losses(\epsilon_i)}} - \tan(\delta_A) \right\} / [2real\epsilon_i] \quad (5)$$

The results of processing the dissipated power are shown in Fig. 8. Colored solid curves show simulated different levels of  $\tan \delta$ : blue – 0.0005, violet – 0.001, black – 0.005, and red – 0.01. The results obtained on the basis of the measurement are shown by means of separate colored circles.

The designation  $Quartz_M$  and  $Quartz$  determines the amount of permittivity measured and obtained by simulation for the Quartz sample. The results clearly show that the applied method significantly increases the accuracy of the  $\tan \delta$  estimation. As a result, it can be concluded that the obtained results for Teflon and Quartz are very similar. For Teflon in simulation  $\tan \delta$  was assumed to be 0.0003, Quartz – 0.0004. As a result of the  $\tan \delta$  measurements for the  $Quartz_M$ , it is equal to 0.0009, for the  $Teflon_M$   $\tan \delta = 0.0005$ . For the samples “4”, “6” and “8”  $\tan \delta$  is close to 0.01. It can be stated that for samples “4”  $\tan \delta = 0.008$ ;

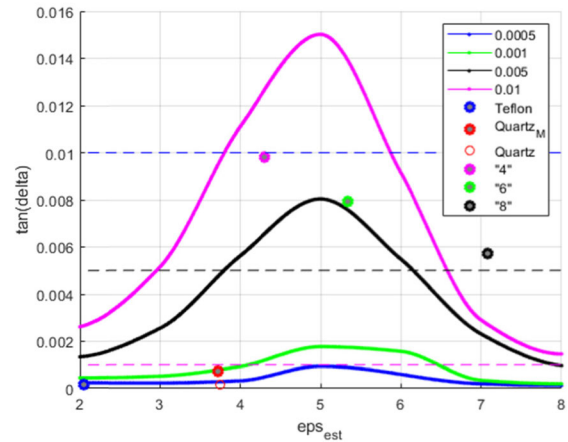


FIGURE 8. Dependence of losses on relative permittivity.

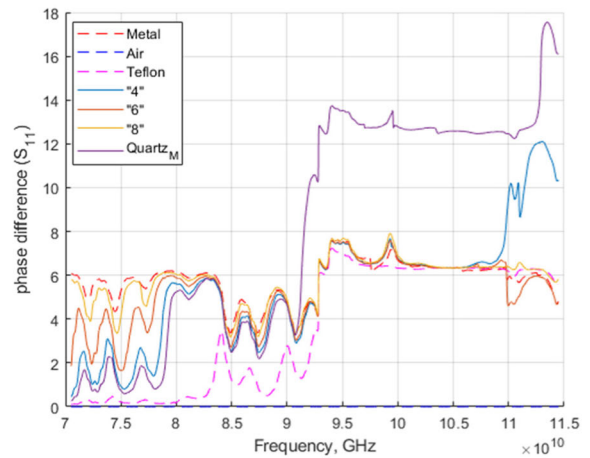


FIGURE 9. Processed measured phase difference of reflection coefficients vs W-band frequency for different samples.

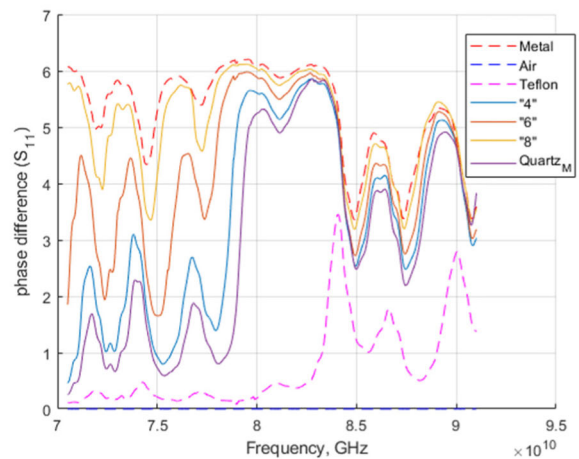


FIGURE 10. Processed measured phase difference of reflection coefficients in frequency band from 70.5 GHz to 91 GHz.

for “6”  $\tan \delta = 0.0055$ , and for sample “8” – 0.012. The obtained values of the  $\tan \delta$  of the samples in W-band are higher compare to results obtained in X-band, which may agree with the behavior of dielectrics at higher frequencies. Measurement results demonstrate the robustness of this new sensor for characterizing rod.

TABLE 1. Results of measurement.

Sample	Thickness [mm]	Air gap [mm]	Resonant frequency [GHz]	Q-factor	Permittivity	Loss tangent $\times 10^{-3}$
“4”	1.8	0.00	9.830025	1394.330	4.815239	4.62
“4”	1.8	0.02	9.899700	1859.099	4.852851	3.32
“4”	1.5	0.00	9.790275	2175.617	4.870999	2.90
“4”	1.5	0.01	9.842175	2187.150	4.764605	3.03
“4”	2.5x $\Phi$ 1.5		W-band		4.3	8
“6”	1.8	0.00	9.606525	707.663	6.489368	6.81
“6”	1.8	0.01	9.638850	1127.351	6.557295	4.05
“6”	1.8	0.02	9.674475	1482.678	6.588322	2.95
“6”	1.8	0.03	9.706500	1559.277	6.632488	2.80
“6”	2.5x $\Phi$ 1.5		W-band		5.34	5
“8”	1.98	0.00	9.407850	685.454	7.805609	5.26
“8”	1.98	0.01	9.443775	753.994	7.852244	4.76
“8”	1.98	0.02	9.475725	804.732	7.911845	4.44
“8”	1.98	0.03	9.510225	777.933	7.941921	4.63
“8”	2.5x $\Phi$ 1.5		W-band		7.06	12
Quartz <sub>M</sub>	2.5x $\Phi$ 1.5		W-band		3.73	0.7
Teflon <sub>M</sub>	2.5x $\Phi$ 1.5		W-band		2.12	0.3

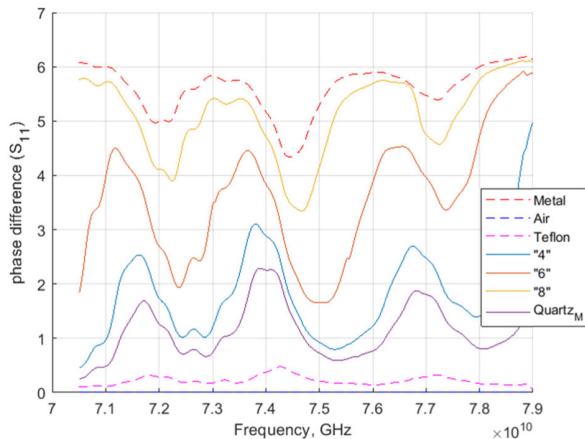


FIGURE 11. Processed measured phase difference of reflection coefficients frequency band from 70.5 GHz to 79 GHz.

### III. EFFECT OF BANDWIDTH ON THE SENSOR CHARACTERISTICS

The correct operation of the sensor depends on the correctly selected operating bandwidth. Fig. 9 shows the measured and processed phase difference of the reflection coefficient relationship in the W-band for several different samples under test. It is very easy to notice four frequency bands in which phase changes are visible depending on the permittivity of sample: 1) 70.5 GHz-79 GHz; 2) 80 GHz-93 GHz 3) 93 GHz-110 GHz and 4) above 110 GHz. These bands are associated with the different types of modes that excite in the sensor. The most interesting in our case is the first range that corresponds to the TE<sub>01</sub> cir. mode. Figures 10 and 11 show in detail the dependence of the phase change on the permittivity of the sample in the second and first frequency ranges.

Moreover, in Fig. 12 the simulation results carried out in the CST simulator for a first range of frequency are shown which are comparable to the results shown in Fig. 11. On the basis of these simulations a calibration curve is built (Fig. 6).

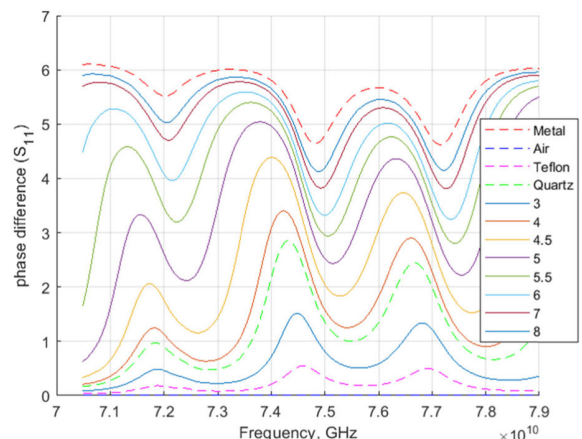


FIGURE 12. Processed simulated phase difference of reflection coefficients vs frequency for different samples with known permittivities.

### IV. CONCLUSION

The using calibration curves obtained by simulation for known values of complex permittivity of the samples is very promising. The possibilities of obtaining calibration curves for real part of permittivity and for  $\tan \delta$  are shown. The results clearly show that the applied method significantly increases the accuracy of the  $\tan \delta$  estimation. Teflon and Quartz samples were used to compare the quality of the samples due to their known permittivity. Other artificially prepared samples (due to the possibility of changing their shape) were characterized using the very well-known resonance method in X-band and the developed sensor. Measurement results demonstrate the robustness of this new sensor for characterizing rod shaped dielectric samples.

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