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Alternative Insulating Gases to SF₆: A Short Review

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Abstract

The present paper undertakes the study of sulfur hexafluoride (SF6) as an insulating gas. SF6 is a modern technology gas, with the extraordinary ability to instantly "extinguish" electric arcs, thus it is mainly used in the equipment of electricity generation, transmission and distribution grid, but it can also be used in a multitude of other kinds of applications. Despite its many advantages, the use of SF6 also comes with some serious negative effects and it is important to be restricted. For instance, it is the gas that contributes the most to the "greenhouse effect" and it has a significant impact on global climate change. After the presentation of the gas and the applications in which it is used, reference is being made to the problems caused by its use and there will be a presentation of some other insulating gases that can be used as alternative solutions.

Keywords

Insulating gas, sulfur hexafluoride, electrical grid, circuit breaker, greenhouse effect, toxic by-products, alternative gases

Introduction

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) is an electronegative gas which is appropriate for switchgear. Its ability to extinguish arcs is remarkable and this is the reason why it is widely used in the high voltage industry. More precisely, SF_6 used in substations, in gas insulated switchgear (GIS), in high voltage cables as

well as insulating gas electrostatic machines [1]. It was discovered by the Nobel prize winner in Chemistry Henri Moissan [2]. Its synthesis is obtained with the reaction of F with S. During this reaction other substances in smaller quantities are also obtained, such as S2 F₁₀ and SF₄. Such substances, in contradistinction to SF₆, are toxic and they must be removed. Sulfur hexafluoride can be stable without any decomposition in its molecular structure up to 500° C, it is not flammable and it does not react with H₂O or Cl. The density of SF6 is about 6kg / m³ under normal temperature and pressure and this renders the aforementioned gas five (5) times heavier than air. Its specific thermal conductivity is three (3) times higher than that of the air. Consequently, SF6 has an excooling capability. cellent Sulfur hexafluoride is under normal conditions non-toxic, chemically inert and stable. Both S and F are electronegative chemical elements subsequently free electrons are attached to SF₆ creating thus negative ions SF6-. Such ions are heavy, moving slowly and thus they render ionisation more difficult, increasing in this way the breakdown strength of SF₆. In other words, the molecules of SF₆ render the phenomenon of electron avalanche slower. The dielectric strength of SF₆ is three times higher than that of the air under normal pressure [3].

Most of the byproducts after a breakdown or arcing do not degrade the dielectric strength of SF₆ and can easily removed. During arcing there is no polymerisation with carbon or other conducting byproducts. SF6 is compatible with most insulating and conducting materials. Its dielectric constant at 1.0133 bar is 1.0021 at 200° C, whereas with a pressure of 20 bar the dielectric constant increases by 6%. The dielectric strength of SF6 follows Paschen's law (i.e. with the breakdown voltage being dependent on the function pd, where p is the gas pressure and d is the gap spacing in a homogeneous electric field) [4, 5]. Another advantage of SF6 is its cooling ability with its time for the extinguishing of an arc being 100 times lower than that of air.

The usefulness of SF $_6$ is not limited to the electrical industry. In the metallurgical industry SF $_6$ acts as protective inert gas in order to prevent re-ignition of magnesium, to help in removing pollution and gases such as hydrogen (H $_2$) in the case of aluminium production, to the

production of semiconductors (dry etching), in medicine (eye surgery as well as in ultrasound applications), in housing and in oceanography.

Regarding the electrical industry, 80% of SF₆ is used for the generation and transmission of electrical power. Its wide use includes switchgear (GIS) up to several hundreds of kV since it prevents the formation of arcing [6, 71. Its thermal conductivity together with its speedy recovery of dielectric strength after arcing renders it suitable for switching devices. Such properties allow size reduction of GIS in comparison to AIS. Its electronegativity gives the SF₆ GIS the capability of absorbing the energy of the electrons in case of arcing and thus to decrease the temperature of the arc. SF6 can also recover easily and quickly its dielectric strength, consequently it is an ideal medium for quenching the arc. The total space required for GIS with SF₆ is only a fraction of that required by a GIS with air [3, 4, 8].

SF₆ is also used in Gas Insulated Transmission Lines (GITL), where it is used, among others, as insulating medium in high density populated industrial areas. GITL offer high transmission ability, low losses, low capaci-

tance, low external magnetic field, non-flammability, reliability, compact solutions in case of high density areas, no interference in telecommunication systems. On the other hand, some disadvantages are the high cost of such a line, the limited length, the danger of pollution from particles which diminishes the insulating capability. The cost at the moment is 6 to 8 times higher than that of conventional lines. A solution to that is the replacement of SF6 by a mixture of SF₆ and nitrogen, which is cheaper [9]. GITL are used mainly for shorter transmission lengths they can be deformed because of the change in volume (and consequently of pressure). An alternative is also the replacement of SF₆ with air of high quality and high pressure.

SF6 is also used in transformers, where it may replace the oil. Because of its nonflammability it is preferred (besides its high dielectric strength, its compatibility with solid insulation and its cooling capability). In transformers, the lower noise, the lower cost of maintenance, the higher expected lifetime, the high reliability, are significant advantages. On the other hand, its effect on the environment and its lesser

thermal capacity than the oil, are distinct disadvantages [10 - 12].

Problems in the use of SF6

When an electric discharge occurs a part of SF₆ decomposes in lower chemical substances which in turn give some chemical byproducts. The probable formation of byproducts such as SF₄, SF₂, S₂F₁₀, SO₂, S₂O₂F₁₀, HF, SOF₂, SOF₄, SO₂F₂, SOF₁₀, and H₂S is well established. Some of these byproducts are toxic, e.g. S₂F₁₀. The latter is due to the reaction

 $SF_5 + SF_5 \rightarrow S_2F_{10}$

where, SF_5 is formed from the decomposition of SF_6 as a result of the collision with electrons. Minute quantities of SO_2F_2 and S_2F_{10} may cause severe health problems to humans [13].

Furthermore, byproducts of SF₆ are related to the greenhouse effect. Greenhouse gases are gases that absorb part of infrared radiation from the earth and they return it to the earth. Such gases appear either in the natural environment (e.g. H₂O, CO₂, CH4, N2O) or they are artificial products such as and products of fluorinated compounds (FFC) as well as reaction products such as CO₂, nitrogen, and sulphur oxides.

The trapping of infrared radiation from the gases and the re-emission rises the earth temperature. The re-emission of infrared radiation back to earth has as consequence the rise of temperature. One of the man-made re-absorptions is leakage of SF6 from substations and from the metal industry [14].

In a period of 100 years, SF6 is 23000 times more efficient in trapping infrared radiation than an equivalent quantity of carbon dioxide (CO₂). SF₆ may be emitted and accumulated in the atmosphere and may affect the climate change for many centuries (the lifetime of SF6 in the atmosphere is more than 3000 years). Since it is not easily decomposed, its contribution to the rise of temperature of the earth may be cumulative and permanent. Leaks of SF₆ may come from electrical industry, from substations, from testing electrical equipment etc. [15 - 18].

The situation today - Alternative proposals

Substations and related systems continue to use SF₆. Researchers from Bristol confirmed significant increases of the said gas since 1995 from 3.5 ppt per trillion to 10.5 ppt per trillion in 2021 [17]. It is true that SF₆

concentration is still small compared with that of CO2. concentration, however. is expected to increase until the year 2030. Another worrying aspect is that SF6 is a gas that cannot be decomposed destroyed by physical or means. The fact that SF6 is still be used is that there are very strong reactions from the electrical industry. Another reason is that there are not still in sight alternative solutions to the use of the SF6.

SF6 was first used as insulating medium for switchgear in 1938 by Grosse. Westinghouse Electric Co. was the first to manufacture switchgear for the 115 kV network [19]. From then on the said gas was used in various types of electrical equipment as insulating medium. It is still a widely used gas because of the properties mentioned above. As alternatives to SF₆, mixtures of the said gas with nitrogen (with 50%-60% SF₆) were used. The dielectric strength of the mixture may reach 85-90% of the dielectric strength of pure SF6. It was shown that an 800 kV transmission line using this mixture costs only 21% of the cost when pure SF6 is used. Mixtures of SF6 with air, N2O, N2, CO2 were also tried [20]. A transmission line with a mixture of SF6 /N₂ was used in the beginning of this century in Geneva, Switzerland. Efforts were also made to use the above mixture in a 420 kV line in France, where the percentage SF₆ in the mixture was reduced by 30% [21]. Such mixtures are also tried in DC systems, the main counterargument being that in DC conditions metallic particles may play in even more crucial role in the degradation.

Such a mixture of SF6 with other gases may well offer a solution w.r.t. the satisfactory functioning of electrical equipment and may reduce the use of SF6 to a significant degree but its use cannot be totally excluded. Consequently, various researchers tried to propose gases with similar characteristics which may not be detrimental to the environment. Given the electronegativity of SF6 efforts were made so that the altergases preserve native characteristic without the toxicity.

Devins studied the break-down voltage of several electronegative gases, such as CF4, C_3F_8 , C_4F_{10} and C_2F_6 . These fluorocarbons are stable and electronegative. Regarding their insulating properties the above gases are classified with the following order $C_6F_{14} > C_4F_{10} > C_3F_8 > C_2F_6 > CF_4$ [22]. The problem

with the above gases is that they are also included in the gases whose use must be limited according to Kyoto protocol because of their global warming potential (GWP).

The gas CF₂Cl₂ has dielectric strength similar to that of SF₆ whereas the mixture CF2Cl2-CO2 has insulating properties similar to CF₂Cl₂-N₂ differs considerably but it from the mixture SF6-CO2 [21]. Towards the end of the nineties with the greenhouse effect to having worsened, attention was paid to perfluorocarbons (PFC) and hydrofluorocarbons (HFC) because of their remarkable insulating properties [23]. By the end of the last century but also earlier, the physico chemical and insulating properties of the pure c-C₄ F₈ were studied. With a uniform electric field, the aforementioned gas presented 1.18 to 1.25 times higher dielectric strength than SF₆. Such a mixture, however, cannot be used in high altitudes because of its high temperature of liguefaction [24]. Research efforts were made with other combinations, such as c-C₄F₈ $/N_2$, c-C₄F₈/air, and c-C₄F₈/CO₂ regarding their insulating properties thus finding that they have higher dielectric strength than the mixture SF6/N2 with a uniform electrode arrangement [25].

Yet research on c-C₄F₈ with gases such as N_2 , CO_2 , N_2O_3 CHF3 and CF4 revealed that dielectric strength the the mixtures $c-C_4F_8/N_2$, $c-C_4F_8$ /CO2 and c-C4F8/CF4 increases linearly with increasing percentage of C₄F₈. The best mixture analogies of the c-C₄F₈ $/CO_2$ and c-C₄F₈/N₂ are 10% and 20% respectively regarding the AC dielectric strength. With respect to the insulating properties the classification of the above gases is

 $C-C_4F_8/N_2 > C-C_4F_8/CHF_3 > C-C_4F_8/CO_2 > C-C_4F_8/CF_4$

with the remark that c-C4F8 renders sedimentation of the carbon atoms unavoidable during discharge diminishing thus the insulating properties of the mixture [26]. Work done on c-C₄F₈/N₂ different pressures and different electrode distances. The inception voltage for the pure c-C₄F₈ is about 1.3 times higher than that of SF6. c-C₄F₈ and N₂ show that they sort of synergistic have a effect when mixed together [27].

Relatively recently it was shown that in tests with switchgear of 145 kV a mixture of C4F7N/CO2 in analogy of 18-20% could obtain the same dielectric strength as the pure SF6. Experiments with AC voltages as well with im-

pulse voltages showed that the above mixture presented satisfactory electrical behavior. An important point that was emphasized is that the above data are valid for quasi-uniform uniform and electric fields but not for non-uniform fields. This implies that attention must to be paid to the equipment dethat non-uniform S0 fields are avoided since the mixture of fluoronitrile/CO2 tends to give lower dielectric strength than SF₆ with non-uniform fields [28].

The gases $c-C_4F_8$ and C_3F_8 are not typical greenhouse gases, however, their GWP is rather high (8700 and 7000 respectively) and they can stay in the atmosphere for a very long time (3200 and 2600 years respectively) [23].

Novec 5110 - C5F100 and Novec 4710 - C4F7N are also alternatives to SF6. These are high density gases that are non-flammable and they do not destroy the ozon of the atmosphere. Their dielectric strength is superior to that of SF6 and their GWP is much lower to that of the SF6 [29, 30]. Their boiling point is much higher than that of SF₆, which means that their pressure is lower at any temperature. They can cause much lesser damage to the environment since they remain in the atmosphere 0.4 and 30 years

respectively. They are much less damaging for the environment since their contribution to the greenhouse effect is minimal. When the above gases are mixed with their dielectric strength gets higher when the percentage of the gases in the mixture is higher. It must, however, be noted that for the same pressure the mixtures of the aforementioned gases with air, their dielectric strength is lower than that of the pure SF6. The mixtures can be used at higher pressures (in the range of 5.2 bar) in order to reach the dielectric strength of the pure SF6. Both C5F10O and C4F7N have a better electronegativity than SF₆ their thermal properties are satisfactory and from a medical point of view are safe [31].

Regarding another possible replacement of SF6 researchers proposed CF₃I, which is a gas which also captures trons. It is colorless non-flammable. Its environmental effects are negligible It has, however, a relatively high temperature of liquefaction (-22.5° C) which implies that for wider use it has to mixed with other with a lower temperature of liquefaction. The main products after discharge activity are C₂F₆, C₂F₄, C₂F₅I, C₃F₈, CHF₃, C₃F₆ and CH₃I with

the first two to be the main decomposition byproducts, with C₂F₆ to be the main by-product independently of whether the applied electric field is uniform or non-uniform [32]. In an earlier investigation, the same authors noted that the V-t characteristics of CF3I, SF6, CF3I/N2 and SF6/N2 gas mixtures under non-uniform field gaps by using the steep-front square pulse voltage showed that with a more uniform electric field the sparkover voltage of CF3I is higher than that of SF6 wher-CF₃I/N₂ gas mixture eas a containing N₂ gas of 40% are equivalent to those in pure SF₆ gas as far as the V-t characteristics are concerned for uniform electric field [33]. CF₃I has low toxicity and does not cause any damage to the immune system of humans. On the other hand, C3F8 as a by-product of discharge activity can cause weakness and problems in sleep but it exists only in minute quantities. In case of a surface flashover, the concentration of C_3F_8 is only 0.00122 ppm under uniform field conditions and only 0.000501 ppm under non-uniform electric field. With a rod-plane electrode arrangement CF3I has generally a higher dielectric strength than SF₆ for higher pressures whereas the relation is reversed at lower pressures [21] and with nonuni-

form electrodes. With lightning voltages, the dielectric strength of pure CF₃I higher than that of SF₆ for spherical electrodes. With a mixture of CF3I/CO2, having 60% of CF₃I, the dielectric strength may reach the dielectric strength of the pure SF₆. The percentage increase of CF3I in mixture with either CO₂ or N₂ results in an increase of the dielectric strength [34]. In a mixture of 30%/70% CF3I/CO2 the dielectric strength increases with the electrode uniformity, whereas the insulating properties of 30%/70% CF₃I/ CO2 are similar with those of mixture 20%/80% [18, 35]. Yet other work indicated that with a 60% percentage of CF3I the V-t characteristic of CF₃I/N₂ or CF₃I/air the dielectric strength is similar to that of SF₆ [36]. Research formed on mixed gas C₄F₇ N/ CO₂ indicated a dielectric strength comparable or even better than that of drawing also attention to the faster decomposition rate of the former with increasing temperature [37].

Regarding the inception voltage of partial discharges with a point/plane electrode arrangement, it was found that this does not vary either with pure CF_3I or pure SF_6 at 0.1 Mpa. A mixture of $\text{CF}_3\text{I}/\text{CO}_2$

presents an inception voltage by about 0.9 - 1.1 times higher than that of a mixture of SF_6/CO_2 [20]. When the volume of CF₃I is about 20% in a mixture of CF₃I/N₂, the inception voltage was 0.92 -0.94 times higher than that of a mixture SF₆/N₂ provided that the experimental conditions are the same [20]. With respect to the arc quenching, both the pure CF3I and the mixture CF₃I/CO₂ present satisfactory performance compared to SF₆ in the case of Short Line Fault (SLF) and in the case of Breaker Terminal Fault (BTF) [20].

Regarding modern applications of the above, one may emphasize that efforts are being made in several countries. Combinations of C5F10 O with dry air and CO₂ have been tried in RMU of 24 kV with a nominal current of 630 A with satisfactory results.

Synthetic air in 12 - 36 kV/ 1250 A equipment is also being tried [38]. GIS with $F_{10}O$ is also in use in Switzerland [39].

Conclusion

Since even a small quantity of SF₆ may have detrimental effects in climate change, alternatives were being sought. Today's alternatives suggest other gases as replacements. There are, however, some hindrances either because research is rightly so - slow or because industry seems to be slower to react. Alternatives gases to the SF6 and/or mixtures of gases were presented and in all probability these seem to be viable alternatives. However, a lot will depend on the approach of the various governments to the problem of climate change.

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Measurement Uncertainty in Network Analyzers: Differential Error DE Analysis of Error Models Part 7: Remarks on the Uncertainty Notions -from Lab VNA to Toy NanoVNA-

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Abstract

From A Common User's Point Of View [FACUPOV] any Vector Network Analyzer [VNA] -from the most expensive Laboratory VNA [Lab VNA] to an extremely cheap Do It Your Self [DIY] NanoVNA [Toy NanoVNA] - that can deliver all the values of its Calibration and the Device Under Test [DUT] in each one of the measurement frequencies, subjects to the uniquely existing estimation of its Measurement Uncertainty in that frequency, that is the one which is computed after the Exact Formation of its Complex p-DER Differential Error Region, as well as, of its two Real Differential Error Intervals in polar -rather than rectangular- form: ρ-magnitude DEI and ρphase DEI. However, due to the fast and wide spread through the Internet of a huge bunch of accompanying instructions regarding these matters, confusion has arisen from some of the concepts and notations commonly in use in VNA literature which reappears now again, as they are given obscurely, ambiguously, or even incorrectly. Accordingly, this paper presents in full details now, the work done by the authors and announced in the past during the meetings of the circle members of Automatic Network Analyser Metrology [ANAMET] technology group of National Physical Laboratory [NPL] so as to isolate among the also observed then misconceptions, those that definitely require reformulation of their expressions and perhaps a broader consensus on the range of their values and among them primarily that of phase or argument. In addition, in order to highlight the unprecedented advantages of the full and correct computation of DERs and DEIs, the following Practical Applications are included: (a) a comparison between several different in concept and form VNA quantities, (b) a counter example based on previous authors' work, (c) a 3D representation of complex p-DERs, and (d) a selected number of characteristic frames of AVI videos that produced by the authors to show the evolution of the 2-D outline of Complex ρ -DERs and of its two Real ρ -DEIs, both rectangular and polar, uncertainty width in terms of frequency, while the internet links to all of these videos are also provided.

Keywords

microwave measurements, network analyzer, differential error region, differential error interval, calibration

Introduction

Some useful remarks on the uncertainty notions used VNA measurements, that we had in mind when we began our research for the systematic errors about 30 years ago, and which came up again after the presentation of the 33rd (Rohde & Schwarz, Fleet, 11 May 2010) and 34th (National Physical Laboratory, Teddington, 21 October 2010) ANAMET meetings and reappeared nowadays are presented here. The unclear and not well defined concepts are mainly due to the fact of introducing the complex numbers to represent the VNA measurements since we measure magnitude and phase. Thus, our first concern is to give a well formed formula for the phase determination of a complex number. Then we examine the information given in relevant literature, old and new, about the phase and its uncertainty, and how it can lead to misunderstandings. A comparison for the magnitude and phase uncertainty is given, with the help of some AVI videos for two different DUTs, a 50-0hm dc-resistance box as a well closed DUT and a ground plane antenna as an open DUT, of which some representative and notable frames are illustrated.

The merits of using total differentials to determine the measurement uncertainty are discussed and the size of the problem for a numerical eva-luation of ΔS_{ij} in one-port and two-port measurements is exposed.

A counter example from an already published authors' work is used in order to demonstrate that a full one-port SLO calibration may not always be considered as a preferable one over that of just a short response S calibration. A 3-D representation of the reflection coefficient together with the DERs as beads around its curve in space is given.

A final remark concerns the use of terms magnitude and amplitude for the value -

size of the involved quantities and the terms argument and phase for the angle. Magnitude is usually used for vectors and amplitude for complex numbers in ac signals or waves, such voltage or current. Argument is used more commonly for complex numbers while phase for sinusoidal functions and waves and it is the most preferable term in general. In the rest of the text the use and meaning both of these two couples are considered from the same view point, although, at least our VNA, definitely use the terms magnitude and phase for what it measures as Sii "vectors" [1]. However, there is a lot of misleading information on the internet and elsewhere about the definition of these quantities. Typically we mention here the case: "Degrees are almost universally used for the phase angles in sinusoidal functions, as $sin(\omega t + 30^{\circ})$. (Since ωt in radians, this is a case of mixed units.)".

The first announcement of the present work was a twenty minute presentation in the 35th ANAMET meeting of the National Physical Laboratory [NPL] in 20 October 2011 in Teddington, which is available in

www.antennas.gr/anamet/35/

All the AVI videos produced in order to enhance the presentation of the subject are available as FLOSS in the same link, as above.

On the Notion of Phase

The well-known representation of a complex number \dot{z} , with the dot above the character z to clearly signifying its complex nature, in Cartesian and Polar form, is shown in Fig. 1 and defined as

$$\dot{z} = x + i y = z \angle \hat{z},$$

$$z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \ \hat{z} \in (-\pi, \pi]$$

$$x = z \cos(\hat{z}), y = z \sin(\hat{z})$$
(1)

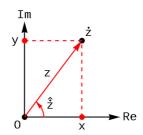


Fig. 1: Complex number

The use of arctangent (\tan^{-1}) function to determine \hat{z} as a function of one variable is inadequate since it returns wrongly the same argument for opposite complex numbers, red and black points shown in the unit circle in Fig. 2, that is, for complex numbers lying in the first and third (I, III) and in the

second and fourth (II, IV) quadrants and returns values only between $-\pi/2$ and $+\pi/2$ and not in the whole interval of \hat{z} , as given in (2),

$$\hat{z} = \tan_p^{-1}(\frac{y}{x}),$$

$$(-\infty, +\infty) \to (-\frac{\pi}{2}, +\frac{\pi}{2})$$
(2)

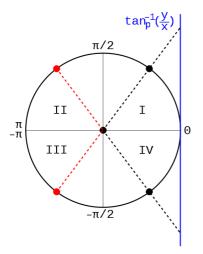


Fig. 2: Arctangent result

It is most appropriate to use the arctangent function of two variables, as defined: a) by taking into account the sign of the real and imaginary part, that is, in which quadrant lies the complex number and b) in terms of the arctangent function of one variable. This function, (3), will return the correct \hat{z} values in the entire interval

 $(-\pi, \pi]$, as it is expected for complex numbers. Fig. 3 and Tab. 1 give a phase example for nine (9) characteristic points in the unit circle.

$$\begin{split} & sgn(y) = \{\, y < 0 \, \colon \, -1 \, , \, y \! \geqslant 0 \, \colon \, +1 \, \} \\ & \hat{z} = tan_2^{-1}(y \, , \, x) = \\ & \left[tan_p^{-1}(\frac{y}{x}) \, , \, \, x > 0 \right. \\ & sgn(y) \! \ast \! \pi \, + tan_p^{-1}(\frac{y}{x}) \, , \, \, x < 0 \, (3) \\ & sgn(y) \! \ast \! \frac{\pi}{2} \, , \, \, x = 0 \\ & \left[\frac{0}{0} \, , \, \, x = 0 \, , \, \, y = 0 \right. \\ & \left(-\infty \, , \, +\infty \right) \! \times \! \left(-\infty \, , \, +\infty \right) \! \rightarrow \! \left(\, -\pi \, , \, +\pi \, \right] \\ &) \end{split}$$

In Fortran there is the special function ATAN2 and in Mathematica Arg[z] that automatically produce these values, except for the case x = 0, y = 0 of course.

On the Notion of Phase Uncertainty

1. The first available information on VNA measurements was the very helpful notes of a Vector Seminar by Hewlett-Packard Company [HP] itself in 1989 [2]. As any other printed textbook that can not be changed afterwards, careful study was needed.

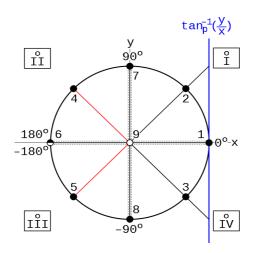


Fig. 3: Phase example - 9 points in unit circle

$$\hat{\dot{z}} \in \! (-\pi, -\frac{\pi}{2}) \cup \{-\frac{\pi}{2}\} \cup (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \, 0) \cup \{0\} \cup (0\,, \frac{\pi}{2}) \cup \{\frac{\pi}{2}\} \cup (\frac{\pi}{2}, \, \pi) \cup \{\pi\}$$

Tab. 1: 9 points in unit circle

Point	Х	у	$tan_p^{-1}(y/x)$	$tan_2^{-1}(y/x)$
1	1	0	0°	0°
2	1	1	45°	45°
3	1	-1	-45°	-45°
4	-1	1	-45°	135°
5	-1	-1	45°	-135°
6	-1	0	0°	180°
7	0	1	∞	90°
8	0	-1	∞	-90°
9	0	0	"0/0"	"0/0"

Thus, in page 3-11 the figure and its adjacent paragraph, shown in Fig. 4, is given, as well as the expressions of $\Delta \phi$, as phase uncertainty, inside the slide and of ΔS_{11} for the one-port error model of Fig. 5(a), as they appear in the same Seminar notes. Fig. 5(b) shows the one-port error model as it is used in all of our work, with the reflection coefficient ρ of the DUT as it results after calibration and measurement. Noticeable there is a slightly different notation in the same slide used in the Seminar notes between the figure and the relation below it. However there is an obvious correspondence between the involved quantities as: D and ED of HP with our D, S11M of HP with our m, M_S and E_S of HP with our M, 1+TR, ER of HP with our R, and S_{11A} or S_{11a} of HP with our ρ .

Fig. 4 is very interesting since it includes two (2) inconsistencies, one (1) query and one (1) error, as it is explained step-by-step below.

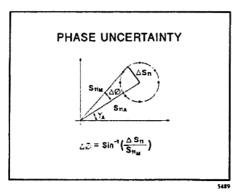
Step 1 - 2 Inconsistencies: In Fig. 6, at the two yellow marked phrases there is a clear reference at S_{11} after calibration which corresponds to S_{11A} not to S_{11M} which is the measured value. But in the $\Delta \phi$ expression we found the unexpected S_{11M} .

Step 2 - 1 Query: If " ΔS_{11} is perpendicular to the value of S_{11A} ", as it is shown in Fig. 7, then the given expression of arc sinus is correct. The question is: is there any case for this statement to be true, and if it is then when it happens.

Step 3 - 1 Error: In Fig. 8 the statement that this is the worst case is wrong, since the worst case, that is, the one which gives the maximum $\Delta \varphi$, results only when we consider the tangent to the circle centered at S_{11A} with radius ΔS_{11} . That means, that the worst case for Δφ will when ΔS_{11} is perpendicular to the S_{11M} value and not S_{11A} . We built the [DELTAPHI. AVI] video in order to reveal the wrong statement. Six frames are shown in Fig. 9, for random points on the circle. All frames contain the actual worst case and the case indicated incorrectly as the worst. The variable is the position around the circle centered at S_{11A} with radius the value of ΔS_{11} . Therefore, for every point on the periphery the $\Delta \phi$ angle is outlined with blue color and its value is noted in degrees. The angle for the case of Fig. 8, that is, when ΔS_{11} is perpendicular to S_{11A} , as it is stated in the Seminar notes, is sketched out green color and with value is written, Fig. 8(c).

lined with red color in Fig. ΔS_{11} . Since $28.1^{\circ} > 25.2^{\circ}$ the 8(e), that is, when S_{11M} is sta-tement under discussion on the tangential line and is obviously wrong.

The actual worst case is out- there is a 90° angle with

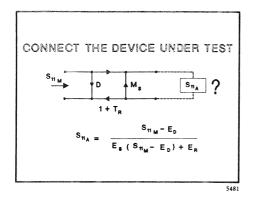


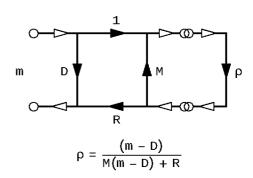
What about phase uncertainty? Phase uncertainty is a function of both s_{11} (the result after calibration) and Δs_{11} . The worst case phase error occurs when Δs_{11} is perpendicular to the value of s_{11a} . Since Δs_{21} is a worst case value, $\Delta \phi$ which is defined as the arcsin of $(\Delta s_{11}/s_{11})$ is the worst case phase uncertainty about y, ...

3-11

$$\triangle S_{11} = S_{11M} - S_{11A} \cong D + T_R S_{11A} + M_S S_{11A}^2$$

Fig. 4: Phase uncertainty $\Delta \varphi$ and ΔS_{11} [2]

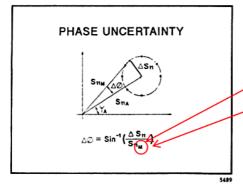




(a) HP Seminar notes

(b) Author's

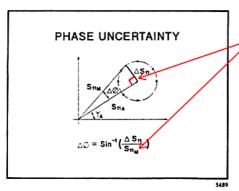
Fig. 5: One-port error model



What about phase uncertainty? Phase uncertainty is a function of both s_{11} (the result after calibration) and Δs_{11} . The worst case phase error occurs when Δs_{11} is perpendicular to the value of s_{12} . Since Δs_{11} is a worst case value, $\Delta \phi$ which is defined as the arcsin of $(\Delta s_{11}/s_{11})$ is the worst case phase uncertainty about s_{12} .

3-11

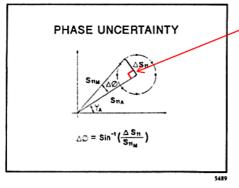
Fig. 6: Two (2) Inconsistencies



What about phase uncertainty? Phase uncertainty is a function of both s_{11} (the result after calibration) and Δs_{11} . The worst case phase error occurs when Δs_{11} is perpendicular to the value of s_{11} . Since Δs_{11} is a worst case value, $\Delta \phi$ which is defined as the arcsin of $(\Delta s_{11}/s_{11})$ is the worst case phase uncertainty about $\psi_{s_{11}}$.

3-11

Fig. 7: One (1) Query



What about phase uncertainty? Phase uncertainty is a function of both s_{11} (the result after calibration) and Δs_{11} . The worst case phase error occurs when Δs_{11} is perpendicular to the value of s_{11} . Since Δs_{11} is a worst case value, $\Delta \phi$ which is defined as the arcsin of $(\Delta s_{11}/s_{11})$ is the worst case phase uncertainty about $v_{s_{11}}$.

3-11

Fig. 8: One (1) Error

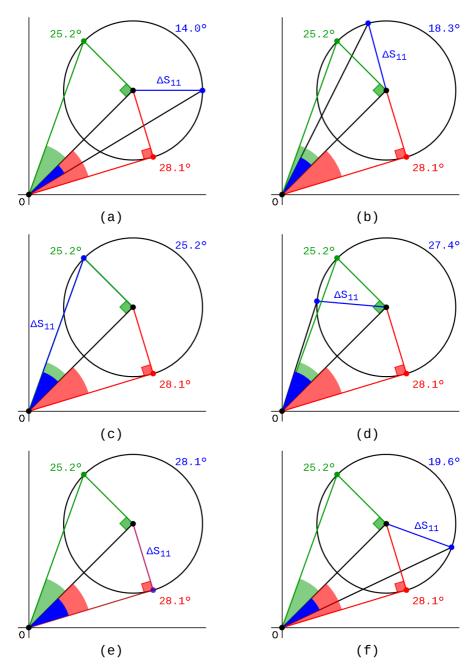


Fig. 9: Six characteristic frames for $\Delta \phi$ values

2. Another issue has to do with the adopted interval of values for phase and its uncertainty. For example, in a presentation of 33rd ANAMET meeting [3], there is a figure showing the phase versus frequency covering the range of values [-5000°, 1000°], whi-le the following, right after that, calculation of electrical length requires the phase to be in radians.

In a presentation of 34th ANAMET meeting [4], an example exists for the reflection coefficient of Thru showing: (1) the linear magnitude with uncertainty greater or equal to 0 and omitting the negative values, (2) the phase is given in the interval $(-\pi, \pi]$, while (3) its uncertainty is in the interval $(-2\pi, 2\pi]$.

Finally, a presentation of the same ANAMET meeting, as and its corresponding previously published paper [5, 6], shows S_{11} , S_{22} "reflection phase" for a 17 mm air line in the range of -2500° to 0° , which means: six (6) times around the circle plus 340° .

3. Since we basically have ratios and products of complex numbers S_{ij} to deal with, we are interested in difference and addition of phase angles. If we accept the $(-\pi, \pi]$ interval from (1) for any phase angle, then obviously

the difference of two phase angles will be in the interval $(-2\pi, 2\pi)$ and the addition will be in $(-2\pi, 2\pi]$. These intervals cover the unit circle for determining the phase more than once, thus destroying the "1-1" correspondence.

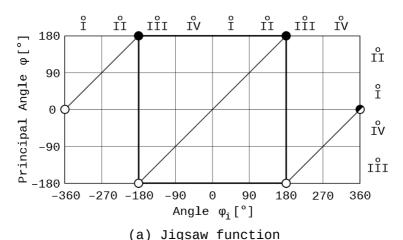
The shape of the correspondence for both difference and addition in the above mentioned intervals is shown in Fig. 10(a) in a Cartesian plot, where the principal interval is indicated by the thick black frame. Fig. 10(b), (c) shows its right and left extension respectively, where we have taken care to keep the same 360° range as in the principal interval. The values of angles that are included are indicated with an open circle. It is clear that in each of these two intervals there is a discontinuity described by the shown jigsaw function. Moreover, the φ principal angles result from different φi value, for example quadrant I results from the interval (0°, 90°) and also from the interval $(-360^{\circ}, -270^{\circ})$. In both figures the number of each quadrant is shown for both axes.

In order to correctly compute the complex number we discriminate two cases: (i) if $\phi_i \in (-360^\circ,\ 360^\circ)$ then we use the relations:

$$\varphi = \begin{cases} \varphi_{i} + 360^{\circ}, & \varphi_{i} \leq -180^{\circ} \\ \varphi_{i} - 360^{\circ}, & \varphi_{i} > +180^{\circ} \\ \varphi_{i}, & -180^{\circ} < \varphi_{i} \leq 180^{\circ} \end{cases}$$
 (4)

and (ii) if the angle is outside the interval (-360°, 360°) then a two step procedure is needed: (ii.1) we ap-

ply the well known Euclid's division lemma extended to negative dividend or negative divisor to find the signed reminder ϕ_i in (-360°, 0°), or (0°, 360°) as shown in Fig. 10(b), (c) respectively, $\phi' = k 360^\circ + \phi_i$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ (5) and (ii.2) apply (4) for ϕ_i .



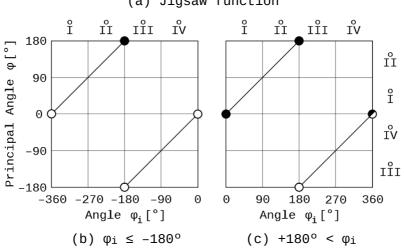


Fig. 10: Principal angle ϕ in terms of angle ϕ_1

In order a) to reveal the problem, and b) to amplify our thesis regarding these issues, two extreme examples are presented in Fig. 11. The difference of point A with phase +177°, in respect to -177° phase of the blue point A' $(\dot{z}_A/\dot{z}_{A'})$, is not 354° but -6° , while the phase difference of red point with phase -80° in respect to +130° phase of red point B' $(\dot{z}_{R}/\dot{z}_{R})$, is 150° and not -210° as:

$$\Delta \phi$$
' = 177° - (-177°) = 354° \Rightarrow
 $\Delta \phi$ ' > 180° \Rightarrow $\Delta \phi$ = 354° - 360° \Rightarrow
 $\Delta \phi$ = -6° and

$$\Delta \phi$$
' = -80° - (+130°) = -210° \Rightarrow
 $\Delta \phi$ ' < -180° \Rightarrow $\Delta \phi$ = -210° +360° \Rightarrow
 $\Delta \phi$ = 150°

Finally, if we consider, as last example, the value -2400° then from (5) we take:

$$\varphi' = -2400^{\circ} = -6 \times 360^{\circ} - 240^{\circ}$$

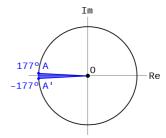
and thus from (4):

$$\phi_{1} = -240^{\circ} < -180^{\circ} \Rightarrow$$
 $\phi = -240^{\circ} + 360^{\circ} \Rightarrow \phi = 120^{\circ}$

Notably, there are various ways to use (4) and (5) in practice, because the program-

ming language in use may implement differently the functions integer and fractional parts of a real number.

It is important to keep always in mind what a Vector Network Analyzer, as HP8505A, can measure and present as indications in [degrees]. Thus, for Sij surements the range for phase is ±180° [7], as it corresponds to complex numbers, while this range may be different for measurements concerning the electrical length where also the final purpose is different, as occurred in the first ANAMET presentation above [3].



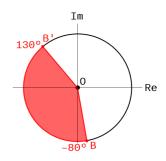


Fig. 11: Extreme $\Delta \phi$ examples

On the Concepts of Magnitute and Phase Uncertainties

The full presentation of our exact estimation of VNA measurement uncertainties in comparison with the approximate ones by HP [2] begins with the contents of Tab. 1. This table contains the various expressions used for the magnitude and phase uncertainties under discussion. In the first row the ΔS_{11} , $\Delta \phi$ in black print are the expressions produced by HP [2] and reproduced here in Fig. where the used \cong symbol implies some undeclared there [2] sort of approximations. In the second row, the ΔS_{11}^F , $\Delta \omega^{F}$ are the full -not approximated- expressions produced by us and resulting from the complex difference S11M-S11A, where in dark gray print are the additional terms, which are missing from the corresponding HP expressions [2], above. In the third row, the ΔS^{d}_{11} and $\Delta \phi^{d}$ in light gray print are correspondingly the absolute value of the difference between the complex numbers \dot{S}_{11M} , \dot{S}_{11A} and the phase difference between them. Finally, in the fourth row in red print are shown the defined by us polar DEIs, differential error intervals, for the magnitude and phase of S₁₁.

Two related examples are

shown in Fig. 12 and Fig. 13: the first for a Box surround a 50 Ohm dc resistance, the second for a UHF Ground Plane Antenna (GPA) [8]. Blue color is used for the Differential Error Region (DER) and green for the rectangular DEIs, real and imaginary part. The numeric evaluation of ΔS_{11} results $2(7x^2) = 2^{14} =$ 16,384 points from N = 7 (7) complex variables) interval endpoints, as it was plained in detail in [8, 9].

Almost all of ΔS_{11} points belongs to S₁₁-DER for the selected frequency frames for both these DUTs. ΔS₁₁ underestimates the systematic error for the first and overestimates the error for second. All the corresponding values for magnitude phase, and their uncertainty are given in Tab. 2, colored accordingly. For the Box it is obvious that the full expression of ΔS_{11} does give a different result, for the antenna there is some difference. The DEIs are given in absolute value.

Two AVI videos were produced covering the measured frequency range: 1) [Box-DERs-DEIs.AVI] and 2) [GPA-DERs-DEIs.AVI]. Eight frames were selected for each DUT shown in Fig. 14 (28, 80, 301, 444, 600, 782, 990, 1211 MHz) and Fig. 15 (600, 652, 700, 800, 816, 856, 900, 1000 MHz) re-

spectively, with all the corresponding values with their colors above each frame.

For the 50-0hm Box a notable case occur at the lowest frequency of 2 MHz where the reflection coefficient S_{11} is nearly 0. The same behavior is true for the next 4 frames, that is, for 15, 28, 41 and 54 MHz. In Fig. 14(a),

the results for 28 MHz are shown with the orange point to correspond to the origin 0 of the coordinate system. ΔS_{11} is very small (black/grey co-lor), while this is a special case for our DER which contains the origin 0 and it gives a circle for the polar DEIs, as it is already explained in [10, 11].

Tab. 1: Magnitude and phase uncertainty expressions

Magnitude	Phase
$\Delta S_{11} = S_{11M} - S_{11A} \simeq D + T_R S_{11A} + M_S S_{11A}^2$	$\Delta \varphi = \sin^{-1} \frac{\Delta S_{11}}{S_{11A}}$
$\Delta S_{11}^{F} = S_{11M} - S_{11A} = \frac{D + T_{R}S_{11A} + M_{S}S_{11A}^{2} - DM_{S}S_{11A}}{1 - M_{S}S_{11A}}$	$\Delta \varphi^{F} = sin^{-1} \frac{\Delta S_{11}^{F}}{S_{11A}}$
$\Delta S_{11}^{d} = \dot{S}_{11M} - \dot{S}_{11A} $	$\Delta \phi^{d} = \hat{S}_{11M} - \hat{S}_{11A}$
DEI: ΔS_{11}^- , ΔS_{11}^+	DEI: Δφ ⁻ , Δφ ⁺

Tab. 2: Figs. 10 - 11 Magnitude and phase uncertainty

	50-Ohm Box - 873 MHz	GP Antenna - 976 MHz
S ₁₁	0.359∠-60.27°	0.593∠-108.39°
S ₁₁	±0.034, ±0.034, ±0.028,	±0.193, ±0.200, ±0.211,
	(0.040, 0.037)	(0.061, 0.055)
∠S ₁₁ °	±5.45, ±5.47, ±4.52,	±18.97, ±19.72, ±20.52,
	(7.66, 7.72)	(6.57, 6.64)

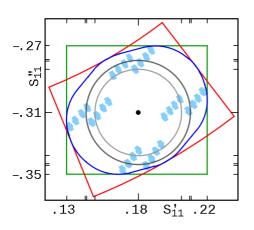


Fig. 12: 50-0hm Box - 873 MHz

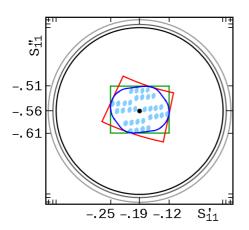
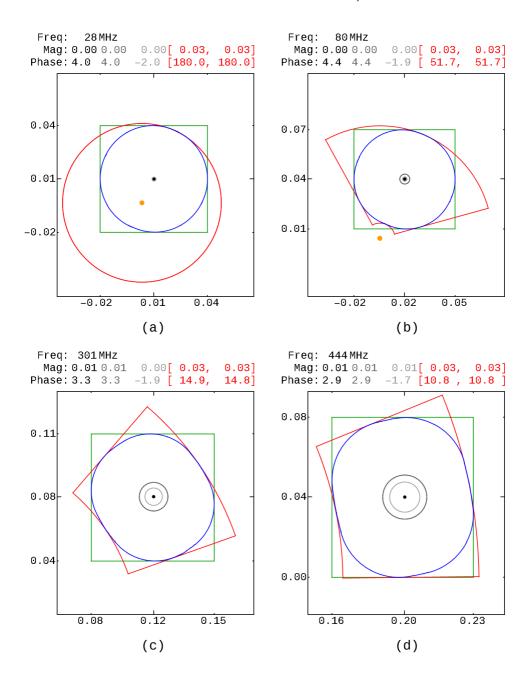


Fig. 13: GP Antenna - 976 MHz

For the antenna: The notable cases are for the frequencies 816, 820, 824 and 828 MHz. For example, at 816

MHz, shown in Fig. 15(e), the orange point of the origin O is inside the ΔS_{11} circle and the arc sinus function cannot give an acceptable answer. At 828 MHz O is exactly on the periphery and still the arc sinus does not work. At 848 (Mag: 0.03, 0.03, 0.25, [0.03, Phase: 14.1, 14.1, 142., [15.1, 15.1]) and 856 MHz (Mag: 0.04, 0.04, 0.27, [0.04 , 0.03], Phase: 12.5, 12.6, 98.6, [11.9, 11.8]) shown in Fig. 13(f), the considered errors are comparable, and these are the only cases that this occurs.

The ΔS_{11} numeric evaluation 2(7x2) = 214 =points, took ~5 min on a Net-Atom N270/1.6GHz,1GB within Mathematica. The numeric evaluation of ΔS₂₁ for two-port measurements, 2(22x2) ~18x1012 mands: at least: 2(20x2) =points; ~1x1012 points, if we exclude the Ex crosstalk system error [12]. So, we prepared the mini super computer of Fig. 16, an equivalent to 3xCray-2 Super Computers, many years ago, with a 16 CPUs Cluster, 8xAMD Athlon X2/240 at GHz, 16 GB RAM, in GNU/Linux 64-bit PelicanHPC 2.3.2 operating system [13], to try to evaluate all that points with parallel programming in cluster.



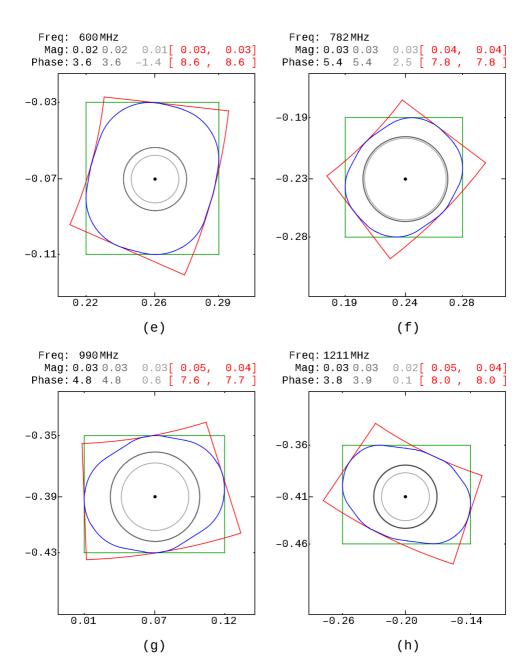
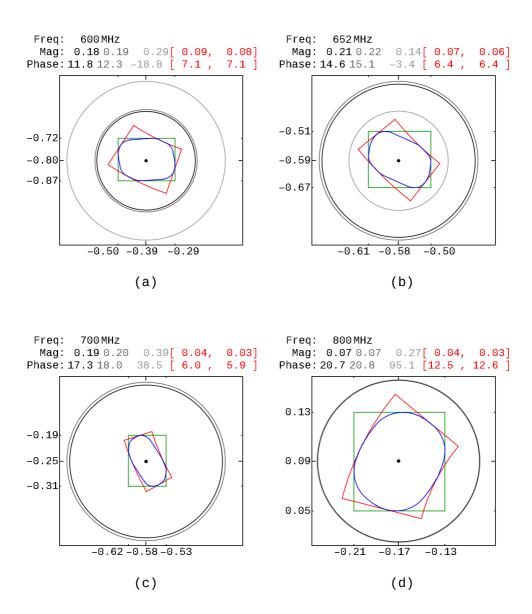


Fig. 14: Characteristic frames from [Box-DERs-DEIs.AVI]



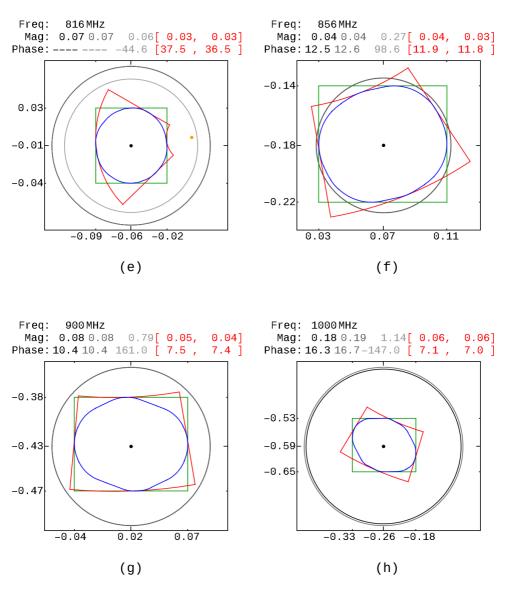


Fig. 15: Characteristic frames from [GPA-DERs-DEIs.AVI]

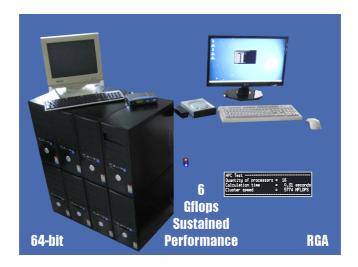


Fig. 16: The RGA mini-Super computer

The Notion of Complex DER

In [14] someone can read for the S-parameters of a two-port error model: "Luckily you don't need to know these equations to use network analyzers". By the same reasoning, and probably to a greater extent, it is not necessary to know the expressions of the total differentials which produce the DERs' points. You need only the software tool in order evaluate them [10, 11]. Some remarks for total differentials are:

- 1. Involve Linear relations by default.
- 2. Result in exact cyclopolygonal regions in complex plane instead of approximate circles or ellipses.

- 3. Produce rectangular intervals, DEIs, for real and imaginary parts, and polar DEIs for magnitude and phase.
- 4. Demand careful use of mathematics.
- 5. Give answer to special cases.
- 6. Make possible the expression of interconnection between measurements and instrument specifications.

Another remarkable point for the advantages of total differentials came up during the PhD thesis [15] where a number of 3,059 possible antennas where presented, with 900+ figures, and 436 of them were constructed and measured. The production of three (3)

figures for only one (1) antenna is based on 42,432 measurements and almost 23 hours work with our HP 8505A were needed. And the query is: if a method based on statistical principles was used to determine the uncertainty for this specific antenna characteristics, then how many measurements would be necessary for the same antenna system order to ensure a valid result? Statistics are simple enough, but time consuming under real conditions. A second query is: What errors do they really include?

A Counter Example

As a counter example to the full one-port calibration we bring back here the case of short response calibration reflection for the coefficient measurement of the UHF ground plane antenna [16]. The paper is open for permanent review at the given link in References below and for details. Fig. 17 shows transformation of the one-port error model of Fig. 4(b), where the dashed boxes indicate the two system errors, directivity D and source match M, that do not exist.

Fig. 18 shows the comparison of the reflection coefficient after SLO and only S calibration with p-DERs and ps-DERs as stripes with light and dark gray color respec-

tively. It is obvious that the two curves are very cloand that the DERs for are much smaller. Fig. 19 polar shows the **DEIS** as stripes for the magnitude and phase of ρ and ρ_S where the stripes are inside the corresponding p stripes almost in the whole frequency range.

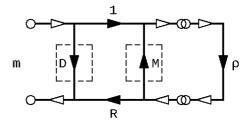


Fig. 17: One-port error model

Numerous results having as follows. Fig. 20 shows the two $\rho\text{-DERs}$ after SLO and after S calibration for the selected frequency of 796 MHz, with their DEIs in rectangular and polar form. In Tab. 3 the values for magnitude, phase and their DEIs demonstrate the difference between the results of the two calibration techniques.

In short - response calibration only the R system error can be taken into account and it is given in Fig. 21 for the two calibration techniques in 3-D and 2-D. The black color is used for the full one-port SLO calibration and the red color for the S

short - response calibration. The corresponding R, R_s -DERs for the selected frequency are shown in Fig. 22.

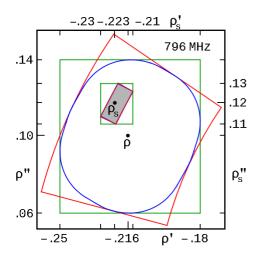


Fig. 20: ρ , ρ s DERs and DEIs

Tab. 4 contains the Min, Max and Mean value of the difference for magnitude and phase between the two cases. Obviously the R curve in Fig. 21 is the same but there is a phase difference.

In Fig. 23 p and ps are shown in 3-D with some selected DERs as beads for the two cases. The vertical axis corresponds to frequency from 600 to 1000 MHz. The figure was produced in Mathematica 7 and it was interactive. From this figure we creat the film

[3D-DERs-DEIs.AVI] where some views are shown.

This is a counter example for the use of full one-port SLO calibration versus a simple response calibration with just one standard. The paper was uploaded to Agilent forum for open review back in 2011 with subject "Systematic Uncertainties in VNA Measurements" by pez, Total posts: 7, Total Views: 3,400+. We copied a comment which includes at least 5 interesting issues:

"... in older equipment and at low frequencies, where the directional couplers were well match (sometimes better than the loads you could purchase) but not applicable once you move away from the test port through any kind of test cable ...",

by D.J., PhD, Agilent Fellow, Total posts: 1,800+. The iniial link of the forum is unfortunately not available any more, but the information has been archived by the authors at their site [17].

These issues need further investigation concerning both the older and the newer equipment for their ability to achieve a certain degree of satisfactorily accurate VNA measurements.

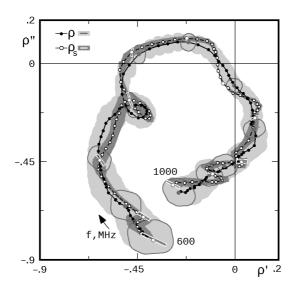


Fig. 18: Complex $\rho\text{-DERs}$ and $\rho_S\text{-DERs}$ in [600, 1000] MHz

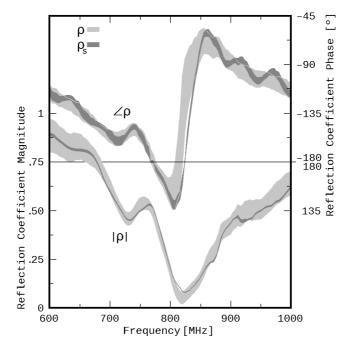
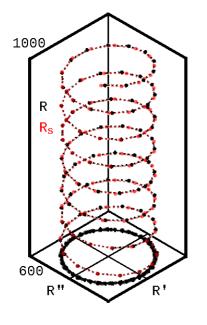
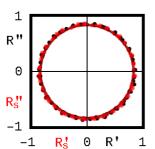


Fig. 19: Polar DEIs of reflection coefficient

Tab. 3: ρ and ρ_S polar DEIs



ρ = 0.238 ∠155.3°				
p	∠ρ (0.600, 0.730)			
$\begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$				
ps	∠ρs			
(0.006, 0.003)	(2.25°, 2.25°)			



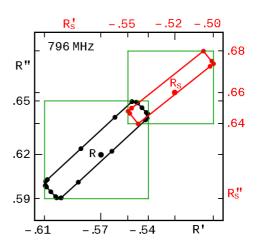


Fig. 21: R, Rs in 3-D and 2-D Fig. 22: R-DER, and Rs-DER

Tab. 4: R, Rs differences

600-1000 MHz	Min	Max	Mean
R - Rs	16×10-6	15x10-3	4.39x10- ³
∠R - ∠Rs [°]	0.04	10.61	4.65

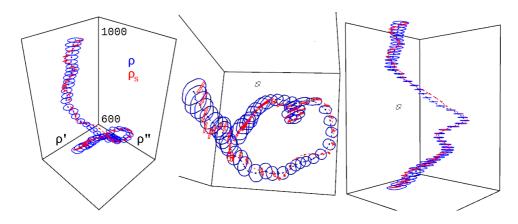


Fig. 23: Complex ρ , ρ_S with selected DERs in [600, 1000] MHz

Conclusion

Due to the one-to-one correspondence between the points of C complex plane and R2 often the complex numbers corresponding to ordered pairs of real numbers are treated as vectors. This is how the "Vector" designation has been established for the Network Analyzer which measures magnitude and phase. We tried here to demonstrate the confusion caused by the meaning of the word "phase" at least in relation to measurements of Sii in the frequency domain. We did not deal at all for example with the area measurements with a VNA related to Electrical Length. accept the use ٥f terms Magnitude and Phase imposed by VNA but emphasize that the pairs are in opinion (Magnitude, Argument) and (Amplitude, Phase), the latter coming closer to physical reality.

We have shown that a hasty and careless reading of the available literature can lead to misunderstandings, and we have compared different ways of calculating the uncertainty in S₁₁ reflection coeffimeasurement cient for two loads with the additional visual aid provided by videos. Through these, the variety of different frequency-dependent produced DERs was revealed. Additionally, their 3-D representation provides a complete picture of what one can expect for the behavior of the DUTs we measure, at least the open ones, under real-world conditions.

Some positive points for the advantageous use of our own method of DERs and DEIs were mentioned and the size of the problem for a direct numerical calculation of ΔS_{ij} was highlighted.

Finally, with a counterexample we showed that there is a case with a simple and fast Short-Response only calibration where it is possible to get the required accuracy for the S₁₁ measurements although this conclusion resulted a-posteriori.

However, many issues still exist, as we stated, and require further study.

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FRONT COVER VIGNETTE

A faded synthesis of an anthemion rooted in a meandros

The thirteen-leaf is a symbol for a life tree leaf.

"Herakles and Kerberos", ca. 530—500 BC,
by Paseas, the Kerberos Painter,
Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.

www.mfa.org/collections/object/plate-153852

The simple meandros is a symbol for eternal immortality.

"Warrior with a phiale", ca. 480—460 BC,

by Berliner Maler,

Museo Archeologico Regionale "Antonio Salinas" di Palermo.

commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/
File:Warrior_MAR_Palermo_NI2134.jpg