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# An Impedance Converter-Based Probe Characterization Method for Magnetic Materials' Loss Measurement

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**Abstract**—As an essential component in power applications, magnetic cores and their design play an important role in achieving high efficiency and high power density. Accurate measurement of the core loss is important for inductor and power converter optimization. Loss measurement depends on exactly determining the phase angle between the voltage and the current. However, measurement errors can be introduced due to the discrepancies in propagation delays in the voltage and current sensors. In addition, the propagation delay is frequency-dependent but has a large influence in the MHz range and above. Previously, several methods have been proposed to compensate for this discrepancy, but they are time-consuming and can result in large measurement errors. In this article, a characterization method for core loss based on a vector network analyzer (VNA) and an impedance converter is proposed to accurately measure the phase discrepancies between voltage and current sensors. The proposed method is experimentally verified up to 15 MHz with a three-coil test setup.

**Index Terms**—Core loss characterization, impedance converter, phase discrepancy, vector network analyzer (VNA).

## I. INTRODUCTION

MAGNETIC components (e.g., inductors and transformers) are critical components in power electronics applications [1]–[4]. Due to their high permeability, ferrites are used to reduce the physical dimension of these passive components. However, ferrites are nonlinear. Losses can be influenced by the temperature, frequency, and magnetic flux density [5]–[8]. To optimize the performance of inductors and transformers with respect to loss, size, power density, and thermal characteristics, accurate loss measurements for these magnetic materials are essential.

Among the existing methods, the dual-winding measurement method [9]–[11] is the most widely used as the

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conduction loss of windings can be excluded from the measurement. However, the accuracy of this method is sensitive to the phase error between the voltage and current measurements. Typically, the main discrepancy is caused by imbalanced propagation delays between probes or the phase shift of a nonideal current sensing resistor. As discussed in [11], the phase shift of a 0.2- $\Omega$  sensing resistor with a 1-nH parasitic inductor can reach 8.9° at 5 MHz, and a measurement error of larger than 100% can be generated by this level of phase error.

To eliminate the error caused by the phase discrepancy, several methods exist, including the phase difference cancellation method and the probe characterization method.

The error can be almost neglected if the phase difference between the voltage current and current waveforms is perfectly canceled, which can be achieved with an additional capacitor [9], [10] or inductor [10]. Accurate core loss can be characterized by these techniques; however, perfect phase cancellation can only be achieved at a single frequency, which makes the tuning process burdensome. In addition, due to the nonlinearity of magnetic material, the permeability of the core can change with the excitation level. The compensation reactance needs to be changed with the excitation level even for a single frequency as the inductance value of the inductor can change. The requirement for perfect resonance compensation makes this method time-consuming and cumbersome. An improved partial cancellation method is proposed in [11], which enables accurate core loss characterization without fine-tuning. Although perfect cancellation is not required, different cancellation factors are required for different devices under test (DUTs). Automatic core loss measurement is still challenging for the method.

The simplicity of core loss measurement can be greatly improved if the probes can be rigorously characterized. This avoids a tedious reactance tuning process and allows standardized core loss characterization without changing the compensation parameters. A ferrite loss characterization method was implemented with voltage, current probes, and an impedance analyzer [12]. The phase error can be compensated during the calibration process. However, only “THRU” calibration can be applied, which cannot eliminate all the effects of probes and parasitics. Moreover, the characterization process is hard to be applied to modern commercial active probes due to the limitation of the probe-to-instrument interface. Besides,

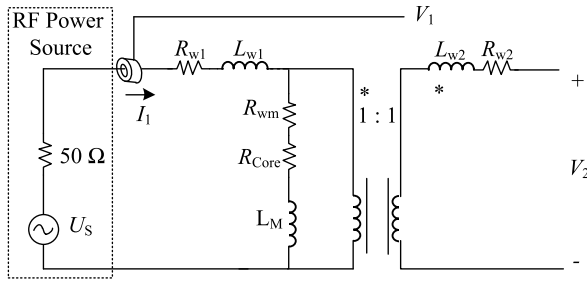


Fig. 1. Equivalent circuit for the dual-winding measurement setup.

the method is invalidated when the core sample is operating in the nonlinear region, as impedance analyzers are designed for linear components.

In this article, an impedance converter-based in-house probe is proposed to address these challenges. The wideband phase shift and attenuation of the probe can be characterized by a vector network analyzer (VNA), which provides a constant compensation factor for different measurement configurations. Thus, the core loss can be accurately measured with an ordinary dual-winding measurement setup without extra compensation components. The proposed method is validated by an air-core three-coil system up to 15 MHz. This article is organized as follows. In Section II, the phase discrepancy introduced core loss measurement error is analyzed, and the in-ideal performance of a commercial active probe is demonstrated. The proposed impedance converter-based in-house probe and its characterization method are discussed in Sections II and III. Section IV validates the proposed method for several cores with different materials. In Sections V and VI, the error analysis and conclusion are provided, respectively.

## II. OVERVIEW OF THE DUAL-WINDING METHOD

### A. Sensitivity to Phase Discrepancy

Fig. 1 shows an equivalent circuit for a general dual-winding measurement setup. The DUT carries two windings with identical turn numbers, and the two windings serve exciting and sensing purposes separately.  $R_{w1}$ ,  $R_{w2}$ ,  $L_M$ ,  $L_{w1}$ , and  $L_{w2}$  correspond to the equivalent series resistances (ESRs) and the magnetizing and leakage inductances of the winding wires.  $R_{Core}$  represents the core loss, which includes hysteresis, eddy current, and residual loss in the magnetic material. The mutual resistance due to the proximity effect in the windings should also be considered [13], [14], which is denoted as  $R_{wm}$ .

The loss generated by core and mutual-winding resistance can be characterized by measuring the primary winding current  $I_1$  and the open-circuit voltage  $V_2$  of the secondary winding. It can be formulated as

$$\begin{aligned} P_{Mutual} &= \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T V_2 \cdot I_1 dt \\ &= \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T V_2 \cdot \frac{V_1}{Z_t} dt \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where  $Z_t$  is the  $I$ - $V$  transfer impedance of the current sensor and  $T$  denotes the period of the excitation signal. The mutual



Fig. 2. Error versus  $Q$  factor for different phase discrepancy levels.

winding loss  $R_{wm}$  can be extracted and canceled, and the core loss can be expressed as

$$P_{Core} = P_{Mutual} - \int_0^T I_1^2 R_{wm}. \quad (2)$$

The phase difference between  $V_2$  and  $I_1$  is close to  $90^\circ$  in a low-loss transformer. Thus, propagation delay between the voltage and current probes is one of the main error sources in ferrite loss characterization. The sensitivity of loss measurement has been well-discussed in [9] and can be formulated as

$$\begin{aligned} P_{Error} &= \tan(\theta) \cdot \Delta\theta \\ &= Q \cdot \Delta\theta \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where  $\theta$  represents the phase difference between the voltage and current waveforms and  $\Delta\theta$  is the phase shift discrepancy between the voltage and current sensors.  $Q$  is the quality factor of the ferrite core under test (CUT) and is expressed as

$$Q = \frac{\omega L_M}{R_{Core}}. \quad (4)$$

Fig. 2 shows the error in the loss measurement caused by the phase discrepancy between probes.

The measurement error increases with the quality factor of the CUT in a fixed measurement setup. A phase discrepancy of  $1^\circ$  can produce 100% error for a coil with a  $Q$  factor larger than 60, while the  $Q$  factor can even reach 80 in real measurement. As a result, the phase discrepancy can generate a large measurement error in the hundreds of kHz range and above. Moreover, the phase shift of a probe is typically brought by the propagation delay of its cable and the internal amplifier, which is larger under a high-frequency range. As an example, a propagation delay of 28 ns generates a  $1^\circ$  phase shift at 100 kHz, and the phase shift is ten times larger, i.e.,  $10^\circ$  at 1 MHz. Therefore, it is essential to compensate for the phase discrepancy, especially for high-frequency and low-loss applications.

### B. Challenges in Characterization for Commercial Probes

Most electric ferrite characterization methods [10]–[12], [15] were developed based on commercial

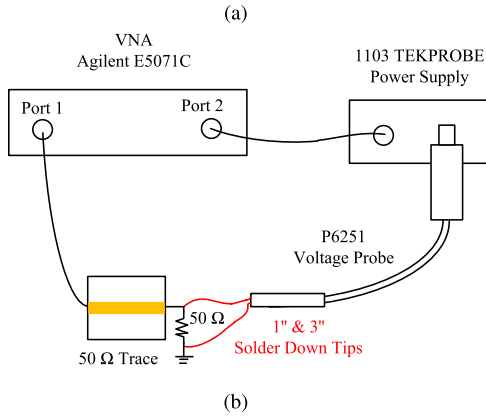
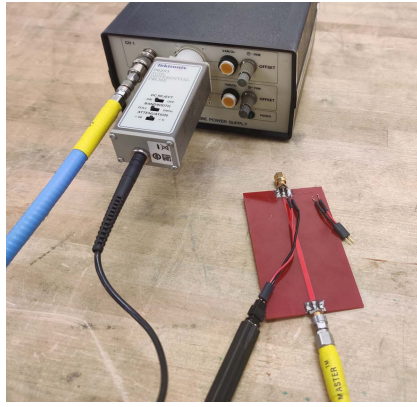


Fig. 3. (a) Photograph of the current probe. (b) Gain and phase of the transfer function for the current probe.

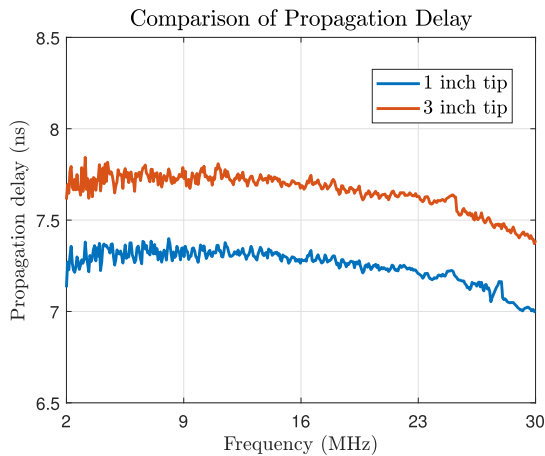


Fig. 4. Measured propagation delays of P6251 with different solder tips.

active probes, which provides high input impedance and consistency of propagation delay between different units. However, the vendors only provide data under limited operating conditions, e.g., the propagation delay from the probe tip to output is provided for a Tektronix P6251 [16]. Extra delay can be introduced by an external probe tip, and the exact value of the delay is not provided.

A VNA is an instrument that measures the wideband network parameters of electric devices and has been widely used for probe characterization [16]. Due to the various

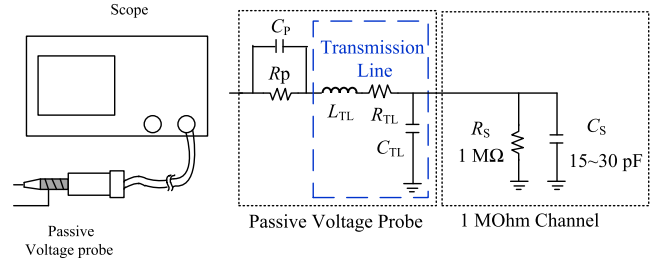


Fig. 5. Equivalent circuit of a probe connected to a 1-M $\Omega$  channel.

probe-to-instrument interfaces defined by different manufacturers, using a VNA to measure the electric performance of active probes can be difficult. Fortunately, active probes with a TekProbe interface can be powered by its probe power supply (TekProbe power supply 1103) and connected to any instrument with a 50- $\Omega$  input impedance, as shown in Fig. 3. The propagation delay and attenuation of an active voltage probe can be directly extracted from the  $S_{21}$  measurement, which is formulated as

$$\text{Attenuation} = 1/\text{mag}(S_{21}) \quad (5)$$

$$T_d = \frac{\Delta\text{Phase}(S_{21})}{\Delta\omega} \quad (6)$$

where  $\omega$  is the frequency of  $S_{21}$ .

The propagation delays and attenuation are measured with the same trace, coax cables, and a 50- $\Omega$  terminator, as shown in Fig. 4. A  $\sim 300$ -ps difference in delay is observed, which is brought by the difference in the tip length. The delay due to the probe tip is not provided by the vendor. In addition, the propagation delays are not constant values even in the 2–30-MHz range. Applying delay data provided by the vendor in probe compensation can introduce unacceptable error, especially in high-frequency applications [15]. Even though the measurement accuracy is less sensitive to attenuation error voltage, the nonconstant attenuation will introduce extra error.

In summary, commercial probes cannot provide a constant propagation delay among operating bandwidths. A large measurement error can be generated if the frequency-dependent propagation delay is not captured and compensated.

### III. IMPLEMENTATION, CHARACTERIZATION, AND COMPENSATION METHOD FOR PROBES

A probe can be characterized using a VNA, as demonstrated in Section II. An impedance converter is designed, which allows the attachment of high-impedance passive probes to a VNA and gets rid of the limitation of commercial probes. The design considerations for the probing system are also discussed.

#### A. Implementation and Characterization for Impedance Converter-Based Probe

A passive voltage probe is typically connected to a 1-M $\Omega$  input channel of an oscilloscope; the equivalent circuit of both probe and scope is illustrated in Fig. 5.

The passive voltage probe can be modeled as the combination of a parallel RC circuit and a transmission line. The probe

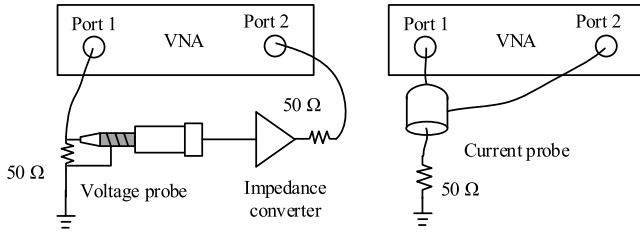


Fig. 6. Characterization setups for voltage probing system and current probe.

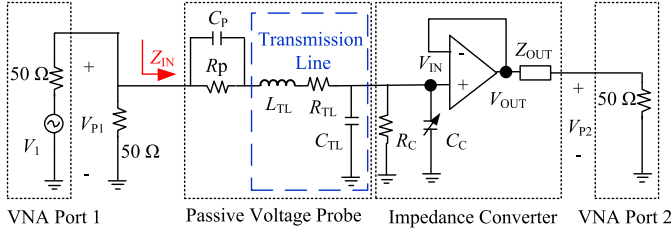


Fig. 7. Equivalent circuit for the voltage probing system characterization setup.

tip resistance  $R_p$  is typically 9 M $\Omega$ , which gives a 10:1 dividing ratio with the scope's 1-M $\Omega$  input resistance  $R_S$ . At dozens of kHz and above, the same dividing ratio is achieved by the capacitances of the probe tip  $C_p$  (typical value: 10 pF), transmission line  $C_{TL}$ , and scope channel  $C_S$  (typical value: 15~30 pF) [17].

The impedance converter is then designed to reproduce the input impedance of a 1-M $\Omega$  channel of the scope. It consists of an operational amplifier and a parallel  $RC$  network. The input–output voltage transfer function of the combined voltage probe and impedance converter  $TF_{VP}$  can be measured by a VNA. The measurement setup and equivalent circuit of the probing system are demonstrated in Figs. 6 and 7, respectively.

As demonstrated in Fig. 7,  $V_1$  is the voltage source generated by port 1 with a 50- $\Omega$  source impedance. Port 1 is terminated with a 50- $\Omega$  load; therefore,  $V_{P1}$  is denoted as the output voltage of port 1 and is measured by the voltage measurement circuit.

To calculate the transfer function of the voltage measurement circuit, the input impedance of the probe needs to be calculated first as

$$Z_{IN}(\omega) = \left( \frac{1}{j\omega C_p} // R_p \right) + j\omega L_{TL} + R_{TL} + \left( \frac{1}{j\omega(C_C + C_{TL})} // R_C \right). \quad (7)$$

We note that  $L_{TL}$  and  $R_{TL}$  are in the range of nH and hundreds of ohms and, thus, can be neglected. In addition, in the frequency range of interest (<30 MHz),  $Z_{IN} \gg 50 \Omega$ ; therefore, the signal picked up by the voltage probe  $V_{P1}$  is given by

$$V_{P1} = V_1 \cdot \frac{(50 \Omega // Z_p)}{50 \Omega + (50 \Omega // Z_p)} \approx \left( \frac{V_1}{2} \right). \quad (8)$$

The output of the voltage probe is connected to the impedance converter, and the input signal of the impedance

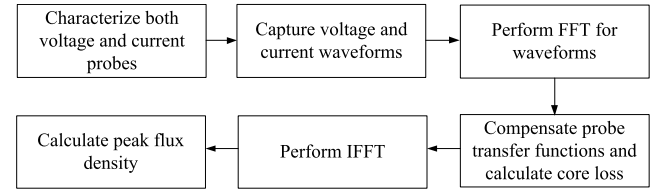


Fig. 8. Flowchart for the proposed method.

converter  $V_{IN}$  can be easily found as

$$V_{IN} = V_{P1} \frac{Z_C // Z_{CTL}}{Z_P} \quad (9)$$

where  $Z_C$  and  $Z_{CTL}$  are the input impedances of the impedance converter and the parasitic capacitance of the transmission line, respectively,

$$Z_C = R_C // \frac{1}{j\omega C_C} \quad (10)$$

$$Z_{CTL} = \frac{1}{j\omega C_{CTL}}. \quad (11)$$

Due to the negative feedback provided by the amplifier,  $V_{OUT} = V_{IN}$ . The voltage  $V_{P2}$  induced on port 2 can be written as

$$V_{P2} = V_{OUT} \cdot \frac{50 \Omega}{Z_{OUT} + 50 \Omega}. \quad (12)$$

The output impedance of the converter is configured to be 50  $\Omega$  for impedance matching.

Finally, the transfer function of the combined voltage probe and impedance converter  $TF_{VP}(\omega)$  can be related by the two-port voltages  $V_{P1}$  and  $V_{P2}$  as

$$TF_{VP}(\omega) = \frac{V_{P2}}{V_{P1}} = \frac{Z_C // Z_{CTL}}{2Z_P} = S_{21VP}. \quad (13)$$

The transfer function  $TF_{VP}$  contains both attenuation and phase information among the whole measurement frequency range.

### B. Characterization for Current Probe

The characterization method for the current probe is well known [18], and the measurement setup is depicted in Fig. 6. The current–voltage transfer function of the probe  $TF_{CP}$  at different source frequencies  $\omega$  can be expressed as

$$TF_{CP}(\omega) = S_{21CP} \times 50. \quad (14)$$

### C. Measurement Procedure

As the measured phase shift discrepancy is frequency-dependent, the fast Fourier transform (FFT) is applied to the measured time-domain voltage and current waveforms. After compensation is performed in the frequency domain, the loss can be calculated. Then, the inverse FFT (IFFT) is applied for the voltage waveforms, and the compensated peak flux density is obtained. The flowchart of the proposed measurement method is shown in Fig. 8.

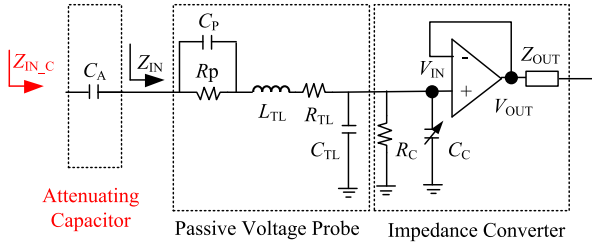


Fig. 9. Equivalent circuit model with the attenuating capacitor.

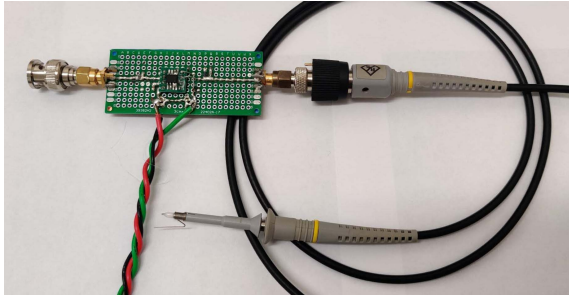


Fig. 10. Prototype of the impedance converter and the passive voltage probe.

#### D. Design Considerations for the Voltage Probing System

Despite the benefits introduced by the impedance converter, there are still limitations in the designed voltage probing system. First, the high-speed operational amplifiers have a limited voltage output swing (typically less than 10 V), and an extra attenuator is required for high flux measurement cases. Second, the input impedance of passive probes is not sufficient for high-frequency applications [10]. The two issues can be solved by introducing another attenuating capacitor into the probing system, as shown in Fig. 9.

The total input impedance of the probing system  $Z_{IN\_C}$  with the attenuating capacitor  $C_A$  is expressed as

$$Z_{IN\_C} = \frac{1}{j\omega C_A} // Z_{IN}. \quad (15)$$

In addition, the extra attenuation ratio AR generated by  $C_A$  can be formulated as

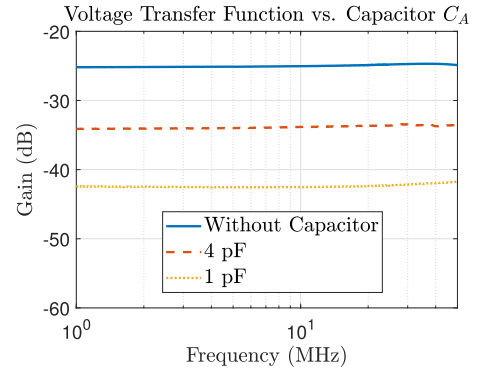
$$AR = \frac{Z_{IN}}{Z_{IN\_C}}. \quad (16)$$

In summary, both the input impedance and the maximum input voltage of the probing system can be extended with an extra attenuating capacitor.

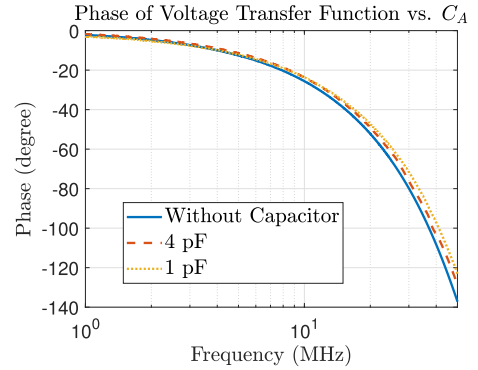
### IV. CHARACTERIZATION OF THE VOLTAGE PROBING SYSTEM AND CURRENT PROBE

#### A. Voltage Probing System

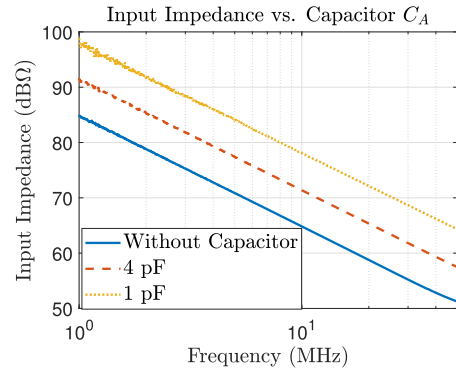
Fig. 10 shows the prototype of the impedance converter and the voltage probe. The impedance converter is built with an operational amplifier (Analog Device ADA4817-1) and a passive probe (R&S RT-ZP10).  $R_C$  is configured as 1 M $\Omega$ , and  $C_C$  is a tunable capacitor whose capacitance value ranges between 1 and 30 pF. This configuration provides an attenuation ratio of 20, i.e., 26 dB.



(a)



(b)



(c)

 Fig. 11. Influence of  $C_A$  on the voltage measurement circuit. (a) Gain of the voltage transfer function. (b) Phase of the voltage transfer function. (c) Input Impedance of the voltage probe.

To verify the proposed equivalent circuit of the voltage probe, the input impedance and the transfer functions are measured for the cases where  $C_A$  is not added,  $C_A = 4$  pF, and  $C_A = 1$  pF. The measurement setup is demonstrated in Fig. 6.

The measured gain and phase values of the voltage transfer function for three cases are shown in Fig. 11(a) and (b), respectively. The calculated gains with a capacitance of 4 and 1 pF are  $-36$  and  $-46$  dB, respectively, which agrees well with the measured results. Smooth voltage transfer functions are obtained up to 50 MHz from the current design and can be extended to a higher frequency with better control of parasitics in the amplifier board.

The input impedance  $Z_{IN\_C}$  also increases with external capacitor  $C_A$ , which is verified in Fig. 11(c). The input

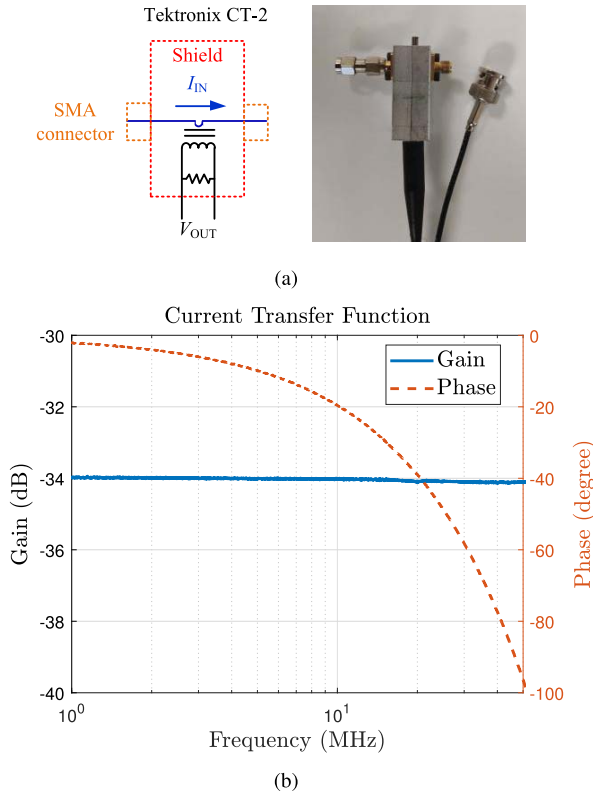


Fig. 12. (a) Photograph of the current probe. (b) Gain and phase of the transfer function for the current probe.

impedance is measured directly by the VNA according to [19]. The input impedance of the voltage probe decreases at a rate of 20 dB/dec, which validates the capacitor-based circuit model. In addition, the capacitances extracted from the measurement are 8.9, 3.6, and 2 pF when  $C_A$  is not added, while the expected capacitances are 10, 2.8, and 1 pF, respectively.

### B. Current Probe Characterization

The current probe (Tektronix CT-2 with P6041 probe cable) and its transfer function are shown in Fig. 12. Two SMA connectors are connected in series and installed on the current probe so that the probe can be directly connected to other instruments using coaxial connectors. The current  $I_{IN}$  flowing through the probe can be measured by the output voltage  $V_{out}$ .

We note that the gain of the current probe is approximately a constant value up to 50 MHz, while the phase shift can reach  $20^\circ$  at 10 MHz. This phase shift is due to the propagation delay of the current probe and its cable.

## V. EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION

### A. Core Loss Characterization

To verify the proposed characterization method, an experiment was built, as shown in Fig. 13. It consists of a signal generator (Agilent N5181A), a power supply (Agilent E3648A), a power amplifier (Instruments for Industry 5500), and an oscilloscope (R&S RTO1024, 10 GS/s with a 2-GHz bandwidth). In addition, the ferrite core is immersed in the

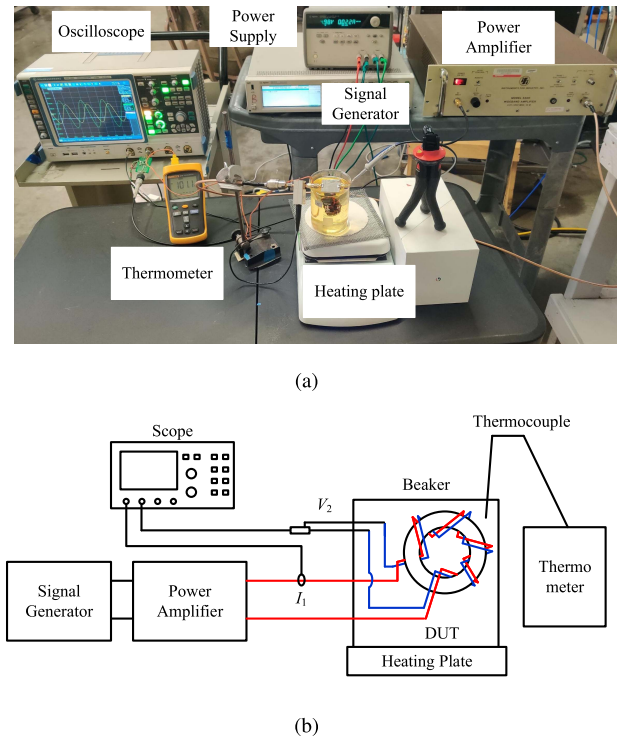


Fig. 13. (a) Photograph of the core characterization setup. (b) Diagram of the core loss measurement setup.

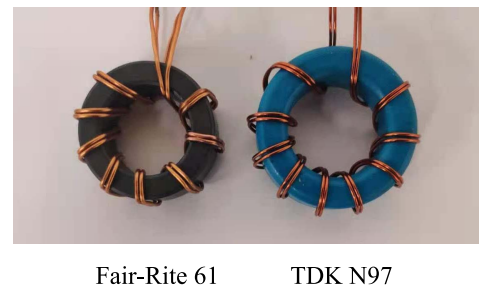


Fig. 14. Toroid samples with bifilar windings.

oil bath on a hot plate, and its temperature is supervised by a thermocouple. The setup supports high-temperature core loss measurement up to  $100^\circ\text{C}$  without largely influencing the temperature of voltage and current probes.  $C_A$  is configured to be  $\sim 1$  pF to increase the input impedance of the voltage probe. We note that two capacitors (2.1 pF, Murata, dielectric: C0G, and voltage rating: 200 V) are connected in series to avoid capacitance variation due to the high voltage level.

Two different cores from TDK (R41.8/26.2/12.5N97) and Fair-Rite (T36/23/13-61) were characterized separately. Fig. 14 shows the CUT samples made with seven turns of AWG 24 copper wires. The losses measured by the in-house probe and P6251 (Tektronix, with a 1-in solder down tip) are compared. Both commercial and in-house probes are compensated for with the transfer functions measured by the VNA (Agilent E5071C).

1) *Measurement Results for Fair-Rite 61*: The measured core losses are compared with the datasheet results, as shown

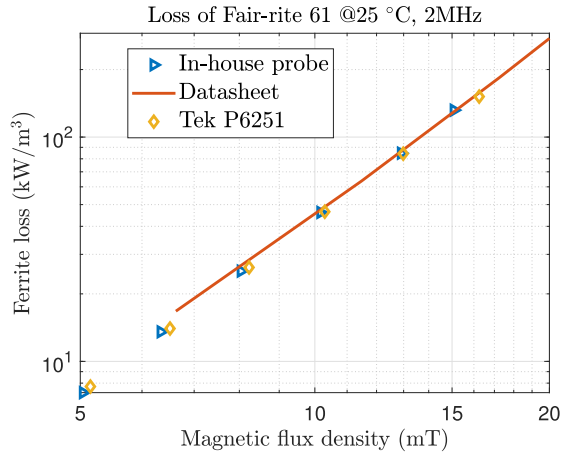


Fig. 15. Core loss comparison between the proposed method and the datasheet.

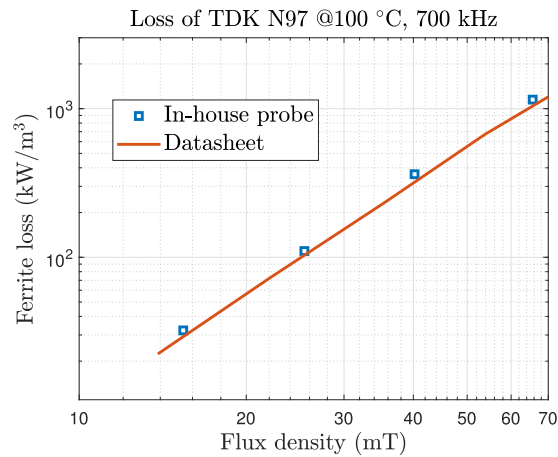


Fig. 16. Core loss comparison between the proposed method and the datasheet.

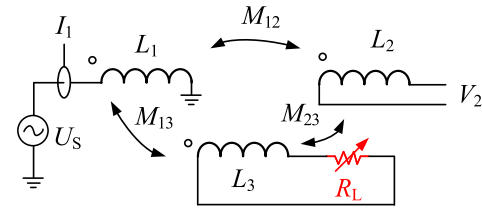
in Fig. 15. The excitation frequency was set to 2 MHz, and the core losses at 25 °C were measured. The losses measured by the in-house and the Tek P6251 are well matched, where the differences between the two probes are within 3%. In addition, the errors are within 8% if we assume that the manufacturer's loss measurement results are accurate. However, the loss due to mutual winding is not included and will be discussed in the next section.

2) *Measurement Results for TDK® N97*: To further demonstrate the measurement accuracy of the proposed method, the core loss of the TDK N97 core is measured at 100 °C with a 700-kHz excitation.

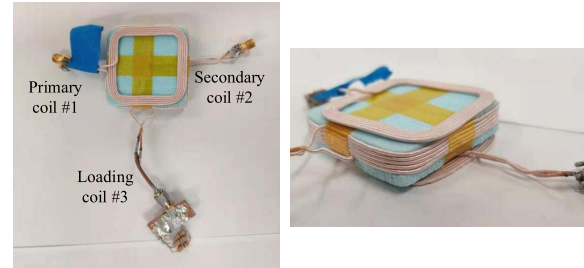
The measured core losses are compared with those given by the datasheet in Fig. 16. Similar to the previous measurement results, the discrepancy between the measurement results and the datasheet is less than 10%, which further validates the proposed probe characterization method.

### B. Characterization of Mutual Impedance of a Three-Coil System

Due to the lack of a reference method for core loss characterization, validations performed with cores are not strong



(a)



(b)

Fig. 17. (a) Equivalent circuit of the three-coil system.  $L_1$ ,  $L_2$ , and  $L_3$  correspond to self-inductances of the primary, secondary, and loading coils.  $M_{12}$ ,  $M_{13}$ , and  $M_{22}$  represent the mutual inductances.  $R_L$  is the load resistance that is used to control the mutual impedance. (b) Three-coil system prototype.

supports for the proposed method. A three-coil system with an air core is then developed for further validation. The experimental setup is depicted in Fig. 17(a). The coil module consists of primary, secondary, and loading coils. According to Rezaei *et al.* [20], the mutual impedance  $Z_M$  between the primary and secondary coils can be expressed as

$$Z_M = \frac{V_2}{I_1} = \frac{\omega^2(M_{12}L_3 - M_{13}M_{23} - j\omega M_{12}R_L)}{R_L + j\omega L_3} \quad (17)$$

where  $V_2$  is the open-circuit voltage of the secondary coil and  $I_1$  is the input current of the primary coil. Due to the mutual coupling between three coils,  $Z_M$  can be controlled by the value of the load resistor  $R_L$ . We note that the three coils are assembled without a magnetic core, and  $Z_M$  is a constant value under different excitation levels. Therefore,  $Z_M$  measured by a VNA is compared with that measured by the setup shown in Fig. 13.

Fig. 18 compares the phases of  $Z_M$  measured by different instruments. The phase changes with the load resistance  $R_L$ , which validates the three-coil structure. In addition, the phase error between the two methods is limited to 0.2° in the frequency range of 2–15 MHz.

## VI. DISCUSSION

To ensure the accuracy of the proposed measurement method, it is necessary to identify and analyze various error sources in the system, including the influence of mutual resistance, measurement repeatability, loop size of the voltage probe, and linear region of probes.

### A. Influence of Mutual Resistance

As discussed in [13] and [14], the mutual resistance between primary and secondary windings is another main error source



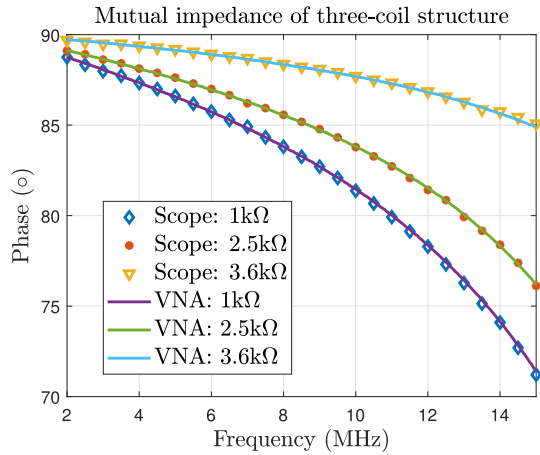


Fig. 18. Comparison of mutual impedance measured by VNA and scope under different loading resistances.

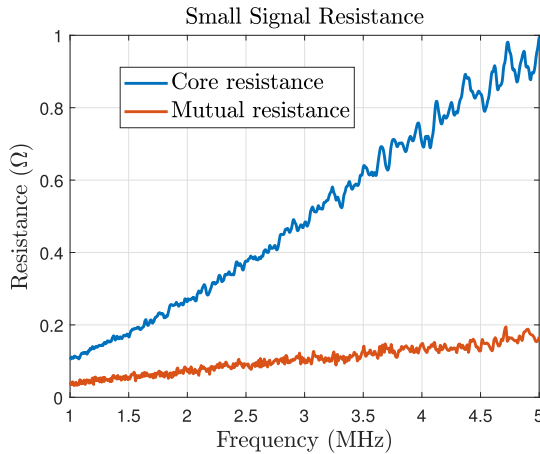


Fig. 19. Extracted small-signal core and mutual winding resistances. The output power of the VNA was configured as  $-10$  dBm.

in core loss characterization. Unlike leakage winding loss, mutual resistance loss cannot be removed by the two-winding measurement method and, thus, can introduce significant error at high frequencies.

The small-signal core and mutual winding resistance of the Fair-Rite 61 sample are characterized by the VNA according to the measurement method proposed in [13], as shown in Fig. 19. The excitation current of VNA was configured as  $\sim 2$  mA, and the extracted mutual resistance was  $\sim 75$  m $\Omega$  at 2 MHz, which is much smaller than the equivalent core resistance. The mutual winding loss can be neglected.

### B. Measurement Repeatability

The largest advantage of the proposed method is that the voltage and current probes are characterized before core loss measurement, and no tuning process is required during the test.

Repeatability of the measurement results is essential for the proposed method, as the positioning of the probes can potentially introduce uncertainty into the measurement results. Therefore, the results of ten measurements are shown

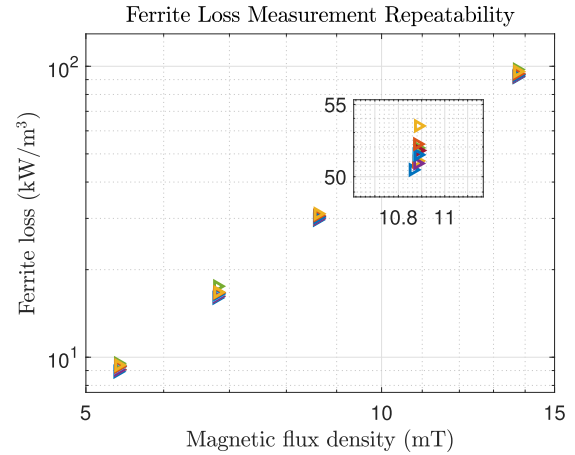


Fig. 20. Measurement repeatability of the proposed method.



Fig. 21. Photograph of different grounding structures.

in Fig. 20, where both the voltage and current probes are removed and reconnected to the circuit. The variation of the results is within 6%.

### C. Error Caused by Loop Size of Pickup Structure

The input impedance of a voltage probe can be simplified as a capacitor as we demonstrated in Fig. 11. However, the parasitic inductance of the pickup structure, which comes from the probe and installation of the DUT, can introduce extra errors in the voltage measurement. To evaluate the error brought by the loop size, illustrated in Fig. 21, the differences in transfer functions measured with two ground structures are illustrated in Fig. 22. The comparison is performed without an external capacitor  $C_A$ , which is the case that can be most affected by the parasitic inductance.

Due to the larger loop size formed by the tip and 3-in ground lead, extra attenuation and phase delay are introduced. We note that the phase difference is limited to  $0.1^\circ$ , and the difference in gain is within 1% below 20 MHz. Despite that the error is almost negligible below 20 MHz, the consistency of the measurement loop between probe characterization and real measurement is still suggested to eliminate the possible error.

### D. Linear Region of Probes

The saturation of both voltage probe and current probes should be avoided. The linear operating region of the voltage

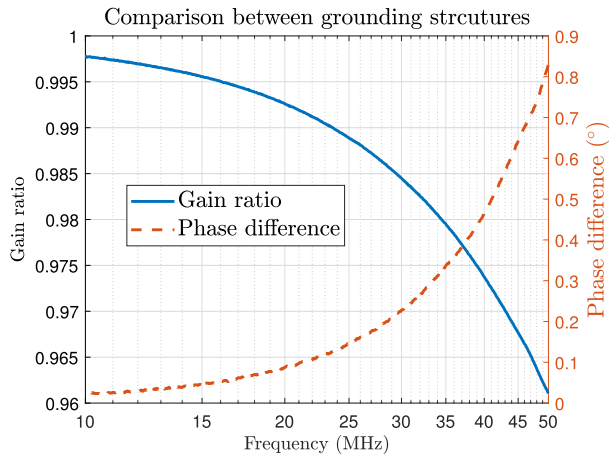


Fig. 22. Gain ratio and phase difference between the ground spring and the 3-in ground lead.

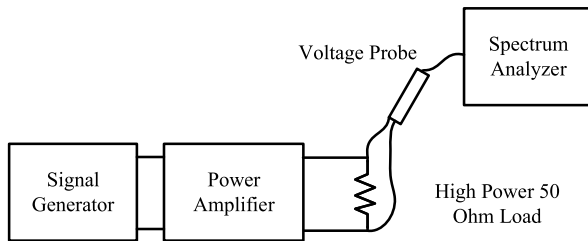


Fig. 23. Measurement setup for the voltage transfer curve of voltage probing system.

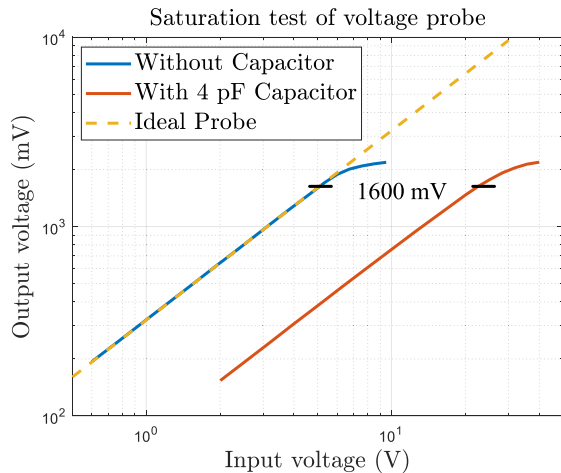


Fig. 24. Voltage transfer curve of the voltage probing system with different configurations.

probing system can be evaluated by the voltage transfer curve, which is defined as the ratio between input and output voltages. The same concept can be applied for the current probe or referring to the data from the manufacturer [21].

The output signal of the proposed voltage probing system is measured by a spectrum analyzer (R&S FSV30) under sinusoidal excitation, as shown in Fig. 23. The input voltage is controlled by the signal generator, and the frequency is configured as 2 MHz. We note that the input voltage is measured separately with a reference active voltage probe (Tektronix: P6251).

The measured voltage transfer curves of the in-house active probe are shown and plotted against an ideal one. As the gain of the internal amplifier is a constant value, the boundary compression point can be defined according to the output voltage. For this example, the probing system can be regarded as a linear system when the output voltage is less than 1.6 V, as shown in Fig. 24. In addition, the total harmonic distortion of the probing system can be limited to 1% when the output voltage is below the threshold voltage. In summary, a higher attenuation should be applied to the probe once its output voltage is larger than 1.6 V.

## VII. CONCLUSION

This article proposes an impedance converter-based probe characterization method for core loss characterization. The in-house active probe eliminates the constraint of the complex probe-to-instrument interface in commercial probes, and the VNA-based probe characterization method can be applied. DUT-free probe compensation is then allowed without extra phase cancellation components, which enables a fast and accurate core loss characterization. The proposed method is experimentally validated by a linear three-coil system with controllable mutual impedance. It demonstrates that the error in phase is limited to  $0.2^\circ$  compared with a VNA below 15 MHz. In addition, the core loss error between measurement results and data from the datasheet is below 10%.

Possible sources of error using this method are analyzed. In particular, the linear operating regions of probes are evaluated, which overcomes the limitation of the small-signal measurement of a VNA.

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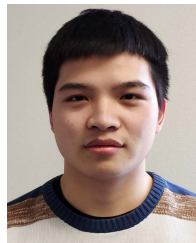
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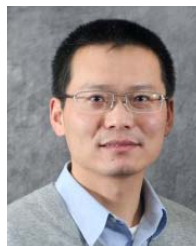


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