

# High Data Rate Communication Through Metallic Barriers

**Abstract**—A high bandwidth piezoelectric transducer technology for high data rate communications across metallic barriers is presented and discussed. To characterize the channel, a linear time-invariant (LTI) model of the device is obtained using frequency fitting methods with the *S*-parameter measurements of the communication network. The corresponding impulse response of the channel is derived from the poles and residues used to fit the frequency data. A recursive formulation of the impulse response of complex poles is advanced and analyzed. The channel characteristics were used to estimate the trans-barrier data rate employing orthogonal frequency division multiplex (OFDM) as used in a powerline communication (PLC) standard. An off-the-shelf PLC system is used to communicate through a metallic barrier and raw data rates exceeding 70 Mbps were achieved as predicted by the model. The methods described here are useful for estimating the physical data rate achievable by trans-barrier and emerging passive device technologies.

**Index Terms**—channel characterization, vector fitting, impulse response, mechanical transduction, powerline communication

## I. INTRODUCTION

The idea of providing power and/or communicating across a metal barrier without feedthroughs, holes, or other apertures has gained considerable interest in recent years. Replacing conventional connectors with trans-barrier energy transfer provides mechanical isolation between delicate internal electronic components and the external environment. This simplifies system design as factors including thermal stress, pressure, contaminants, and electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) can be treated holistically.

The application space for such technology include down-bore hole sensors for drilling and fracking [1] as well as nuclear waste monitoring [2]. Trans-barrier energy transfer can

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also benefit the aeronautics and aerospace field [3]. Investigations have led to the use of such technology for energy transfer as well as communication through metallic barriers [4] [5] [6]. Thus, systems can be fully enclosed in metallic structures for operation in harsh environments.

Sandia National Laboratories has developed novel piezoelectric transducers based on lead zirconate titanate (PZT) that have a sufficiently high mechanical frequency while also being fairly agnostic to barrier material and thickness. However, the complex physical phenomena of the piezoelectric transducer operation is difficult to model, so estimating communication performance is challenging unless key aspects of the device characteristics are properly treated.

In this paper a systematic approach for characterizing and modeling a trans-barrier communication channel based on its *S*-parameter frequency measurements is proposed. The method consists of approximating the frequency response using two different frequency fit methods for comparison purposes. The causal channel impulse response (CIR) of the channel is then determined from the complex poles and residues of the fitted transfer function. A new recursive formula for the an impulse response based on complex poles is advanced and its properties discussed. An estimate of the channel delay from the impulse response is used to set the parameters for an off-the-shelf powerline communication (PLC) system. Tests show raw data rates exceeding 70 Mbps can be achieved in trans-barrier communications using the proposed technology.

## II. DEVICE CHARACTERIZATION

The transducers exploit the piezoelectric effect which is the accumulation of electrical charge in the material in response to applied mechanical stress [7]. The piezoelectric material is not conductive on its own. However, when the device is exposed to mechanical stress, a shifting of the positive and negative charge centers in the material takes place, resulting in an external field that encodes the information. Therefore, the main electrical transfer of energy is through voltage modulation, and we are interested in characterizing the trans-barrier communication system using the voltage transfer function.

The communication test system utilizes a pair of piezo-electric transducers co-axially aligned and directly coupled to opposite sides of a wall common to the aluminum enclosures as shown in Figure 1. The enclosures provide effective electromagnetic isolation over the frequency range of the tests. Shielded RF cables feed the signal to the respective devices inside the enclosures for frequency response characterization.

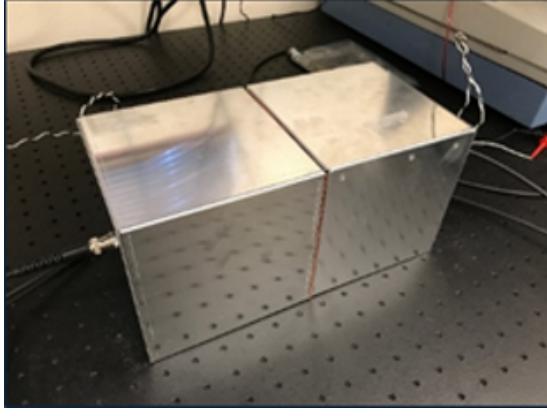


Fig. 1. Device frequency measurement setup showing aluminum Faraday cages butted together and corresponding signal ports. Each transducer is inside the respective cage connected to the barrier that is common to the enclosures.

We assume the transducer is electrically well-defined by a linear time-invariant (LTI) filter channel model where the output response  $r(t)$  of the channel in time is characterized by the following relation [8]

$$r(t) = s(t) \otimes h(t) + n(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau + n(t) \quad (1)$$

In (1)  $s(t)$  is the signal,  $h(t)$  is the impulse response of the LTI channel,  $n(t)$  is the noise, and  $\otimes$  denotes the convolution operator. The channel impulse response  $h(t)$  is the time-domain representation of the channel's frequency transfer function  $H(j\omega)$  relating the output voltage to the input voltage as a function of frequency  $\omega = 2\pi f$ .

A vector network analyzer (VNA) measured the two-port  $S$ -parameters of the channel.  $S$ -parameter measurements describe device characteristics in terms of incident and reflected electrical waves. The voltage transfer function is related to the two-port  $S$ -parameters via the relation [9]

$$A_V = \frac{S_{21}(1 + \Gamma_L)}{(1 - S_{22}\Gamma_L) + S_{11}(1 - S_{22}\Gamma_L) + S_{12}S_{21}\Gamma_L} \quad (2)$$

where  $\Gamma_L$  is the load reflection coefficient. Network analyzer  $S$ -parameter measurements are performed in properly terminated loads so  $\Gamma_L = 0$  and (2) becomes  $A_V = S_{21}/(1 + S_{11})$ . This is the resulting transfer function  $H(j\omega)$ .

There are several electrical properties we can determine from the  $S$ -parameters in relation to device characteristics. One property is *Reciprocity* given by the relation

$$S = S^T \quad \text{or} \quad S_{ji} = S_{ij} \quad \text{for } i \neq j \quad (3)$$

If a network is reciprocal it can imply that linear reciprocal materials are used in the device. Another property is *Symmetry* given by

$$S_{ii} = S_{jj}, \quad \text{for } i \neq j \quad (4)$$

Symmetrical networks are often physically symmetrical, but this need not be the case in general. Both of these properties are checked as part of characterizing the device.

Another important property is *Passivity*. Passivity has been shown to be the most stringent requirement of an electrical network as it implies both causality and stability [10]. Passivity can be confirmed directly from the  $S$ -parameters by checking the condition

$$\text{eig}[I - S^*S] \geq 0 \Rightarrow \text{eig}[S^*S] \leq 1 \quad (5)$$

where  $\text{eig}[M]$  refers to the eigenvalues of the matrix  $M$ . Any frequencies that violate this condition must be further analyzed in relation to the measured data to understand the nature of the violation.

One final consideration is that the time-domain response of the device must be causal. For causality,  $S_{ij}(t) = 0$  for  $t < T_{ij}$  with  $T_{ij} > 0$ ; that is, the network cannot have a response before any stimulus is applied. There are means of validating the causality of the system theoretically. The Kramers-Kronig relations [11] are directly applicable to the real and imaginary parts of the measured  $S$ -parameters. On the other hand, the Paley-Wiener [12] can be used with the frequency-domain transfer function from (2). As noted earlier, passivity implies causality, so the passivity tests are sufficient for our case.

For proper communication system design, the channel impulse response (CIR) is needed from the frequency-domain measured data. However, there are challenges with using  $S$ -parameter measurements directly in obtaining the channel impulse response. The  $S$ -parameters are measured over a finite bandwidth. The truncated frequency response is equivalent to frequency-domain rectangular windowing so the time-domain response is non-causal [13]. To circumvent the causality issue, the work of [14] describes a method for artificially extending the frequency response and maintaining amplitude and phase integrity of the response via the Hilbert transform. We choose to employ vector fitting to approximate the frequency response and extract the causal impulse response as discussed in the next section.

### III. FREQUENCY FITTING METHODS

The measured  $S$ -parameters of the device out to 50 MHz are plotted in Figure 2. The  $S_{21}$  frequency response has multiple lobes starting at 5 MHz and spaced roughly 10 MHz apart. The peak of each lobe is approximately 15 dB below the previous lobe peak as the frequency increases. The phase responses are approximately linear with slight bumps coinciding with the nulls of the magnitude response. The input and output return loss are highly reflective throughout most of the band. Over the entire frequency range the device is passive and reciprocal, and nearly symmetric.

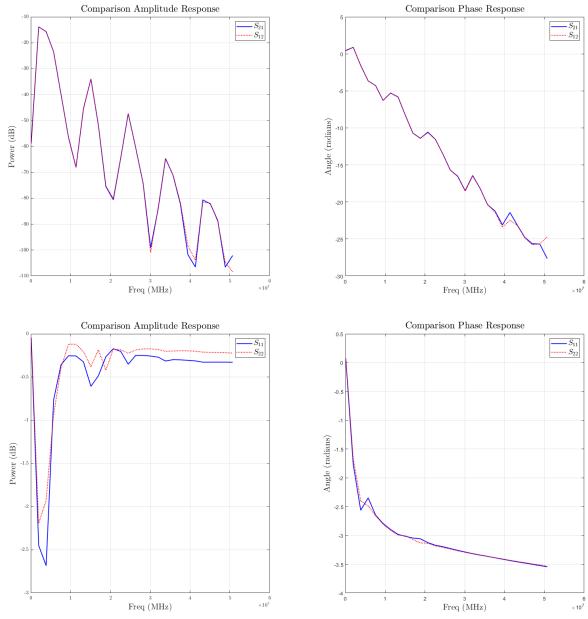


Fig. 2.  $S$ -parameter measurements of sample PZT device in frequency range  $0 \leq f \leq 50$  MHz over all ports of interest.

We seek to obtain a LTI channel model of the frequency response and extract the channel impulse response from the data. Vector fitting (VF) is a means of fitting a rational function in the complex domain to a complex vector of frequency response data [15] as

$$f(s) = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{c_k}{s - a_k} + d + sh \quad (6)$$

where complex frequency  $s = j\omega = j2\pi f$ ,  $f$  is the frequency,  $c_k$  and  $a_k$  are the residues and poles, respectively,  $d$  is some real constant,  $h$  is a real value representing a scaling parameter for the fit, and  $N$  is the number of poles used to fit the data. The fit is obtained from a sequential solution to (6), estimating the coefficients using a least squares approximation of the function over the selected frequency interval. The vector fitting method has been shown to be robust, accurate, and fairly efficient when compared to other techniques for approximating a frequency response [16]. Matlab supports vector fitting through the `rationalfit` function [17].

Matlab introduced the `rational` object in Matlab R2020a and is described as using an interpolation algorithm to create a rational fit to frequency-dependent data [18]. Like the vector fit (VF) method, this function provides the error to the fit as well as the ability to specify the maximum number of poles  $N$  with default being  $N = 1000$ . The formulation is similar to that of (6) except  $h = 0$  and we only retain the direct term  $d$ . The direct term is a constant and offers a degree of freedom to improve the fit but may introduce an impulse at  $t = 0$ .

The `rational` object fit to  $A_V = S_{21}/(1 + S_{11})$  magnitude and phase are plotted in Figure 3. The method

results in a good fit over the first three lobes. Beyond the third lobe, the amplitude response climbs slightly and then flattens. This is because the number of poles used in this approximation is  $N = 16$  which is fairly low but makes the response less sensitive to higher number of poles. The error between the original and fitted magnitude response is  $-29.9$  dB. The phase responses deviate substantially beyond 30 MHz where phase becomes flat. However, the energy contribution beyond this frequency does not play a significant role in the response.

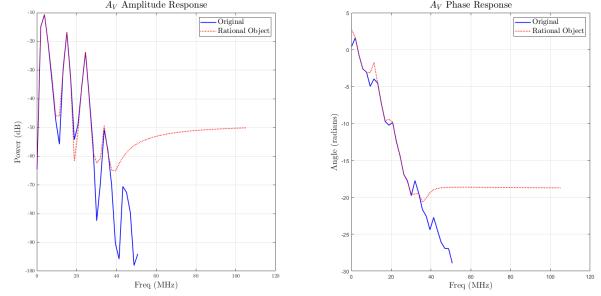


Fig. 3. Plot of rational object fit to voltage transfer function  $A_V$  frequency response of the device spectrum in dB and unwrapped phase in radians.

An advantage of using Matlab's `rational` object is that there is the companion function `zpk` that extracts the poles from the object for further analysis [19]. A plot of the pole-zero diagram of the fitted response is given in Figure 4. All poles and zeros are complex conjugate pairs. The poles are all in the left-half plane so the response is stable. There are two zeros near the origin to accommodate the very low amplitude at DC.

The presence of zeros in the right-half plane indicate the fitted function is non-minimum phase. A minimum phase transfer function implies that if the magnitude response of the transfer function is specified so is its phase. A non-minimum phase function violates this relation and has its energy concentrated near the start of the impulse response [20]. In addition, the resulting group delay of the fitted response is not minimum. Therefore, there will be slightly more delay in the impulse response obtained from the `rational` object approximation. We consider this outcome as providing a conservative limit for the channel delay if the device is actually minimum phase.

#### IV. CHANNEL IMPULSE RESPONSE

To obtain the channel impulse response from the vector fit and `rational` object methods, we used Matlab's `timeresp` function [21]. A proper sampling rate was chosen relative to the frequency response of the device. The peak of the impulse response  $A$  is obtained by finding the largest value of the response vector. We then chose to find the time  $t_\gamma$  where the impulse response amplitude is  $\gamma A$  with  $\gamma < 1$ . This was done by sorting the impulse response vector and finding the time closest to the desired value  $\gamma A$  with  $\gamma = 0.1$  for our case. This technique was used to find the relevant parts of the plots shown in this section.

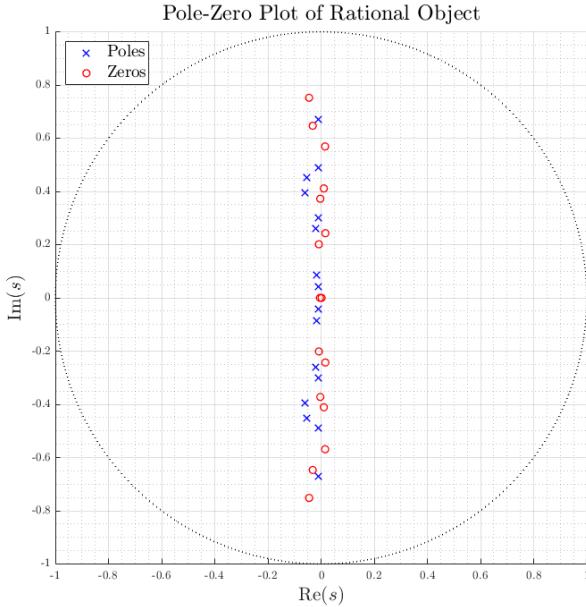


Fig. 4. Pole-zero plot from rational object fit to  $S$ -parameter data of device frequency response.

Figure 5 shows the impulse response due to each method. It is evident that the results of the VF and rational object methods are very close. The impulse response of the rational object method introduces an impulse at  $t = 0$  which is not present for the VF method. The peak of the impulse response  $A$  occurs at  $t_A = 0.17 \mu\text{sec}$  and the response decays to 10% of that peak at  $t_\gamma = 0.8 \mu\text{sec}$ . Note that because the methods are based on the summation of simple poles, it is passive and the response is causal *a fortiori*.

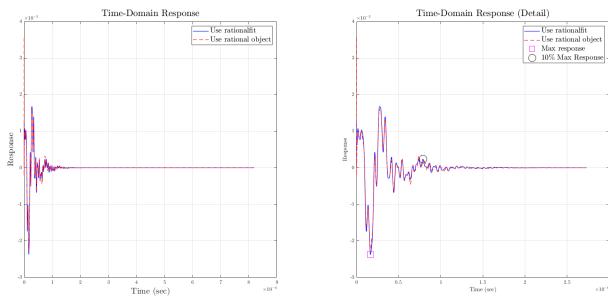


Fig. 5. Plot of channel impulse response from the rational object approach compared to a similar extraction using vector fitting (VF) method. Left plot shows response and right plot shows response detail including maximum of time response and time when response is down 10% from the maximum for VF result.

To understand the effects of the impulse response on a signal, it is important to quantify the impulse response duration. The convolution operation given by (1) inverts the impulse response about the time axis and slides across the signal, generating a result that corresponds to the area under

of the curve of the overlap between the two. A longer impulse response has more overlap that extends the response at the tail of the signal producing inter-symbol interference (ISI). Higher levels of ISI means communication systems must either implement longer symbols or provide more separation between symbols resulting in reduced data rates. To be conservative, we would say that the impulse response has little effect beyond  $1.5 \mu\text{sec}$ .

At this point it is useful to note that the frequency fit methods result in poles that can be real or complex conjugates with the latter captured by the relation

$$\frac{K}{s + \alpha + j\omega} + \frac{K^*}{s + \alpha - j\omega} = 2 \frac{(s + \alpha)\Re[K] + \omega\Im[K]}{(s + \alpha)^2 + \omega^2}$$

where  $\Re[x], \Im[x]$  denote the real and imaginary parts of  $x$ , respectively, the complex frequency is denoted by  $\alpha + j\omega$ ,  $K$  is the residue, and  $K^*$  is the complex conjugate of  $K$ . It is well known that rearranging the formulation and evaluating the inverse Laplace transform yields the total impulse response as [22]

$$h(t) = 2 \sum_{i=1}^k |K_{2i-1}| e^{-\alpha_{2i-1}t} \cos(\omega_{2i-1}t - \arg[K_{2i-1}]) U_{-1}(t) + \sum_{i=k+1}^N K_i e^{-p_i t} U_{-1}(t) \quad (7)$$

where

$$U_{-1}(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ 1, & t > 0 \end{cases}$$

is the unit step function. We can see that the response consists of contributions from real poles and conjugate complex poles and is a well-known result of passive network theory. It is noteworthy that (7) is implemented in Matlab's `impulse` function for a rational fit object.

Now let us turn our attention to the channel response captured in (7), in particular, the portion corresponding to exponentially decaying sinusoids. It can be shown that the sum of sinusoids is also a sinusoid; that is,

$$\sum_{i=1}^N A_i \sin(\omega_i t + \phi_i) = A_C \sin(\omega_C t + \phi_C) \quad (8)$$

when generated recursively. Letting  $k \geq 3$  and given the first two sinusoids, the recursion is given by the following relations

$$A_k^2 = A_{k-2}^2 + A_{k-1}^2 + 2A_{k-2}A_{k-1} \cos[(\omega_{k-2} - \omega_{k-1})t + (\phi_{k-2} - \phi_{k-1})] \quad (9)$$

$$\omega_k = \frac{\omega_{k-2} + \omega_{k-1}}{2} \quad (10)$$

$$\phi_k = \frac{\phi_{k-2} + \phi_{k-1}}{2} + \Phi \quad (11)$$

$$\Phi = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{(A_{k-2} - A_{k-1}) \sin(\rho)}{(A_{k-2} + A_{k-1}) \cos(\rho)} \right) \quad (12)$$

$$\rho = \left( \frac{\omega_{k-2} - \omega_{k-1}}{2} \right) t + \frac{\phi_{k-2} - \phi_{k-1}}{2} \quad (13)$$

Note that the amplitudes are exponentially decaying; that is, for any  $A_i$  we actually have  $A_i \exp(-\beta_i t)$ . This recursion shows that the impulse response of a LTI system based on complex poles can be represented by a single sinusoid with time-varying amplitude and phase.

There are some interesting implications of this result. First, the amplitude  $A_C$  is the envelope of the resulting sinusoid. It is the sum of slowly varying sinusoids with time-varying phase. Given an arbitrary set of values for  $A_i, \omega_i, \phi_i$ , the resulting envelope is the same regardless of the order of the variables in the recursion.

The frequency  $\omega_k$  in the recursion is not a function of time and is determined from a type of averaging of the frequencies. However, the final frequency  $\omega_C$  in the sinusoid depends on the order of the values of the recursion and can be different. Thus, if there are  $m$  different frequencies, there are  $m!$  different final frequencies possible for an equivalent representation. On the other hand, the final phase  $\phi_C$  is a function of time and is also determined from an averaging process. As we shall now discuss, there is an implicit relation between the frequency  $\omega_C$  and phase  $\phi_C$  for any operation taken to obtain the final frequency and phase relations.

Let us assume that we have obtained a pair  $(\omega_A, \phi_A)$  and  $(\omega_B, \phi_B)$  with  $\omega_A \neq \omega_B$  and  $\phi_A \neq \phi_B$  resulting from employing the recursion using a different order of arbitrary values of  $A_i, \omega_i, \phi_i$ . Since the amplitudes are the same we can make  $A = 1$  without loss of generality, then the following must hold

$$\sin(\omega_A t + \phi_A) = \sin(\omega_B t + \phi_B) \quad (14)$$

From the trigonometric identities we have

$$\sin(X) - \sin(Y) = 2 \cos\left(\frac{1}{2}(X + Y)\right) \sin\left(\frac{1}{2}(X - Y)\right) \quad (15)$$

The rightmost term must be zero so that

$$\sin\left(\frac{1}{2}(X - Y)\right) = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}(X - Y) = \sin^{-1}(0) = \pm k\pi \quad (16)$$

for  $k = 0, 1, \dots$ . Making the appropriate substitution we obtain the condition that the phases must satisfy

$$\phi_A - \phi_B = \pm 2k\pi - (\omega_B - \omega_A)t, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots \quad (17)$$

The recursion forces this condition for any order of the summation of the sinusoids.

## V. DEVICE COMMUNICATION PERFORMANCE

The usable bandwidth of the piezoelectric transducers through the metal barrier is generally below 50 MHz, so powerline communication (PLC) technology up to 30 MHz is suitable for this application. To estimate potential data rate performance, the HomePlug PLC standard was used [23]. This standard employs orthogonal frequency division multiplex (OFDM). OFDM is a discrete multi-tone technique

where a large number of orthogonally spaced narrowband carriers are independently modulated and processed. Due to the narrow carriers, the large spectral variations of the channel can be accommodated via proper modulation of the carriers employing bit loading algorithms [24].

The HomePlug standard employs 1155 subcarriers between 2 and 30 MHz. The subcarrier spacing is 24.414 kHz corresponding to a symbol length of 40.96  $\mu$ sec. The cyclic prefix for the OFDM symbol was set to 7.56  $\mu$ sec to comfortably handle the 1.5  $\mu$ sec delay of the channel; the total symbol length is 48.52  $\mu$ sec. Supported modulation includes binary phase shift keying (BPSK) and quadrature amplitude modulation (QAM) with up to 12 bits per carrier for QAM-4096. Turbo convolutional coding is used at 8/9 rate and the potential data rate on a clean channel exceeds 200 Mbps. A computational model was developed to perform the bit loading based on the mapping of the subcarrier to the voltage transfer function of Figure 2. The noise floor was assumed to be 60 dB below the peak of the frequency response. Using these parameters, the estimated data rate was 68 Mbps.

To perform the actual trans-barrier communication testing, Sandia acquired a BlueChip Dolphin evaluation kit [25] that uses a combination of IEEE 1901 and ITU-G.9905 standards with an OFDM physical layer. The Bluechip system uses pulse amplitude modulation (PAM) and low density parity check (LDPC) coding with bit loading depending on channel conditions. The frequency response is from 2 to 28 MHz and up to 200 Mbps data rate is possible.

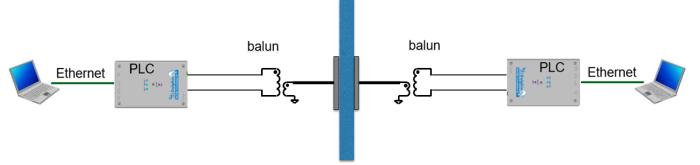


Fig. 6. Drawing showing laptops connected to BlueChip PLC units for throughput tests through a metallic barrier.

Two laptops were set up and the eval kit units were used to drive the piezoelectric transducers through baluns for signal transmission as shown in Figure 6. The Bluechip toolset was used to evaluate the data rate performance through the barrier. Modulation ranged from differential 2-PAM to 16-PAM; 32-PAM was disabled. LDPC code rate 4/5 was implemented. BlueChip's internal tool for plotting the carrier to interference plus noise ratio (CINR) was used to show the spectrum with bit loading in Figure 7. The raw data rate was about 76 Mbps with lossless packet data rate of 43 Mbps. This is in good agreement with the estimation based on the parameters using the Homeplug standard.

These results are very favorable compared to previous results. Prior works using OFDM communication through metallic barriers achieved data rates of 12 [26] [27], 15 [28] [29] and 17 Mbps [30]. We believe higher data rates can be achieved through improved device matching and better powerline drivers. In addition, pre-distortion techniques can

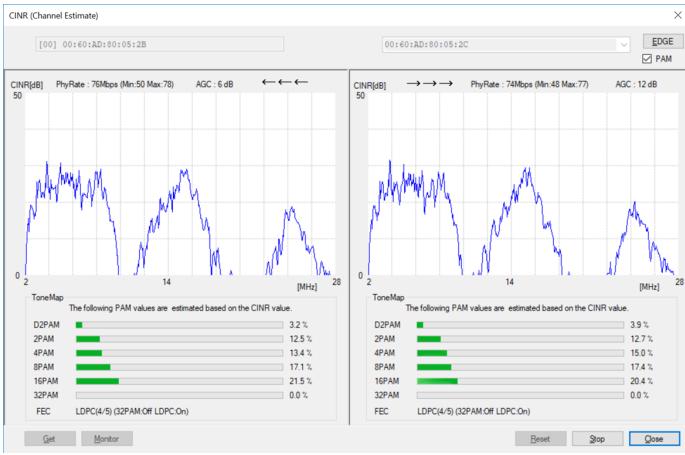


Fig. 7. Capture from BlueChip's tool showing CINR over 2 to 28 MHz spectrum with corresponding bit loading and data rates.

compensate for the spectral droop in the higher frequency range of the spectrum.

## VI. SUMMARY AND CONSIDERATIONS

A systematic approach for characterizing and designing high data rate communication systems across metallic barriers using PZT devices was presented. By using frequency fitting method on the measured  $S$ -parameters of the channel we extract a causal channel impulse response and use the time-domain characteristics to set the appropriate parameters for the communication system. To estimate the potential data rate through the barrier we considered OFDM as used in the HomePlug powerline communication system. Test results using an off-the-shelf PLC system confirmed raw data rate exceeding 70 Mbps was achievable.

It is possible to deploy more than one piezoelectric transducer with multi-input multi-output (MIMO) OFDM to achieve more flexible communications options. Transmit diversity can result in superior signal-to-noise ratio across the metallic barrier with corresponding higher data rates. On the other hand, spatial multiplexing can be used to create dedicated communication channels to separate components within a metallic enclosure. Here, each tile becomes an independent connector, and proper tiling can minimize crosstalk between the transducers.

Sandia's high bandwidth PZT technology can also be used with orthogonal frequency division multiple access (OFDMA) to assign subcarriers to specific components in a system. The result is a single transducer acting as a "universal" connector with "virtual pins" that isolate components through the frequency selectivity afforded by the grouped subcarriers.

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