

IEEE RFID 2026: Tutorial Sessions

- The RF in RFID —————➤ How radios communicate
- Energy Harvesting —————➤ How passive chips get power
- Circuits —————➤ What's in the chips and why
- Cryptography —————➤ How chips talk securely (or not!)
- Middleware and Applications —➤ How to get data for the real world
- Applied RFID: Tires —————➤ Example of real business application
- Applied RFID: PLCs —————➤ Examples of real data capture

The RF in RFID

IEEE RFID 2026 Tutorial #1

Presented by Daniel Dobkin



Purposes of this Tutorial

- Introduce concepts needed for understanding radio links
 - Types of radio frequency identification and sensing
 - Signals, propagation, links, protocols
 - Location and realistic propagation
- Provide background needed for other tutorials/conference papers

Outline

- Radios for identification; passive and active devices
- Radio basics: signals, antennas, propagation, reception
- Communications protocols (introduction)
- Locating objects with radio signals
- Propagation in realistic environments

Real World Play Time

(IF we get this set up):

- Attendees hold up tagged badges, read them, who is read?
- Put badges behind person or under arm or ... ; what is read?
- Move away; what is read?
- Lessons: passive range, location, ambient effects
 - Comparison to active beacons in Jeffrey Dungen's Tutorial #4!

Identification: I See You

- Initial automated identification extrapolated from human sight:
 - Bar codes and later QR codes
- Advantages:
 - Easily integrated with human-readable labeling, small added cost
 - QR codes can support unique item identification
 - Bar and QR codes can be read with a phone camera (today)
- Disadvantages:
 - Labels can be easily damaged or obscured
 - If you can't see it you can't read it
 - Human or specialized orientation setup needed
 - High volume environments can be challenging

ISO / IEC 15420  < 1234 5670 > up to 12 characters + error correction	ISO/IEC 18004  up to 2953 bytes (- error correction)
ISO/IEC 15438  up to 1108 bytes (- error correction)	ISO/IEC 16022  typically 800-1200 characters max

Radios for Identification

- Radio wavelength $\gg$ optical:
 - Propagation is not line-of-sight
 - Shadowing is relatively weak
 - Many common optically-opaque objects are transparent
- Result:
 - Radios can see more of the surroundings than cameras or eyes
 - Big advantage in inventory capture, item location/management
 - BUT: water and metal are still opaque
 - Location can be difficult! Hall of mirrors = easy to see, not easy to find

Phenomena	Frequency	Wavelength/ size
Green light	600 THz	0.5 μm
US ISM	915 MHz	33 cm
People / stuff	0.001-10 Hz	30 cm – 2 m



Image: Mike Pennington

Active and Passive RFID

- **Active RFID:** beacon transmits a radio signal
 - Typically long range – hundreds of meters to kilometers possible
 - We'll cover this in propagation discussion
 - BUT: requires power source, expensive to purchase and maintain
- **Passive RFID:** tag reflects an existing radio signal
 - Range is limited by regulation and physics – centimeters to 10's of meters
 - Power provided by radio signal from reader device, no battery, simple TX
 - CHEAP!
 - CHEAP!
 - CHEAP!
 - Can last a very long time, no battery to replace
 - And did we mention – CHEAP!

Chips and Chiplessness

- Backscatter behavior can be influenced by antenna shape, load behavior, ambient
 - Chipless tags
 - Chipless sensors
- Cheap and simple BUT:
 - Encoding often analog, can be challenging, limited ID span
 - Range may be limited
 - Which can be a feature!
- Discussion mostly deferred to plenary talk on Thursday...

Radio Communications

- Electromagnetic Waves
- Inductive and Radiative Coupling
- Common RFID Bands
- Antenna Gain and Patterns
- The Friis Equation
- Link Budgets
- Antenna Arrays

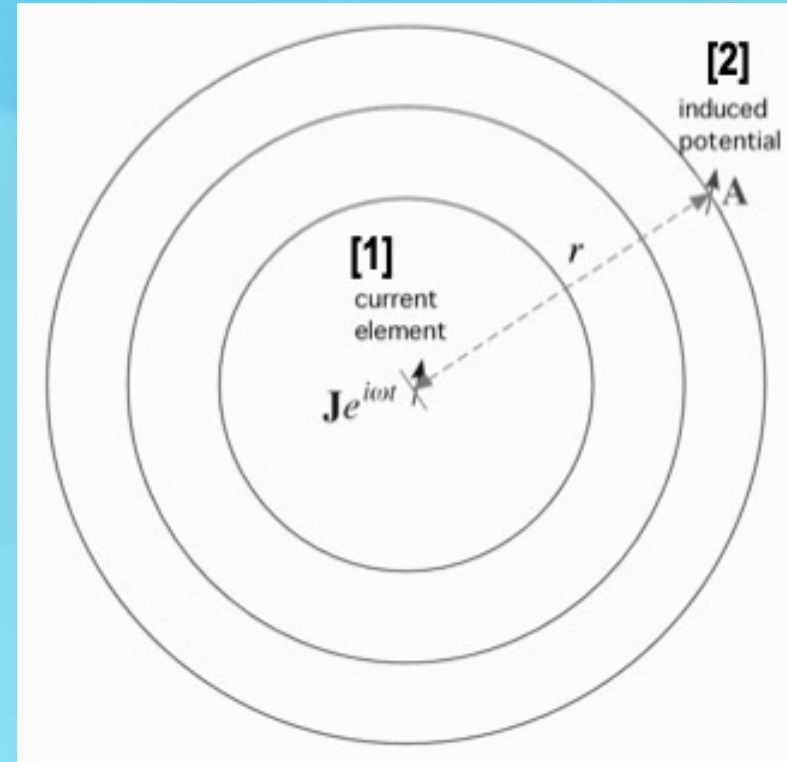
Electromagnetic Waves

- A current at [1] creates a vector potential at [2] with time delay (r/c), amplitude $1/r$
- Charge induces a scalar potential ϕ
- Electric field at location 2 is:

$$\vec{E} = -\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt} - \nabla\phi$$

- If you put a (small) wire at [2] the induced voltage is

$$\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$



$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A} &= \mu_0 \mathbf{J} \frac{e^{-ikr} e^{i\omega t}}{4\pi r} \\ k &= \frac{\omega}{c} \\ \omega &= 2\pi f \\ \mu_0 &= 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ Henry/meter} \\ \frac{d\mathbf{A}}{dt} &= i\omega \mathbf{A} \\ \phi &= \mu_0 c^2 Q \frac{e^{-ikr} e^{i\omega t}}{4\pi r}\end{aligned}$$

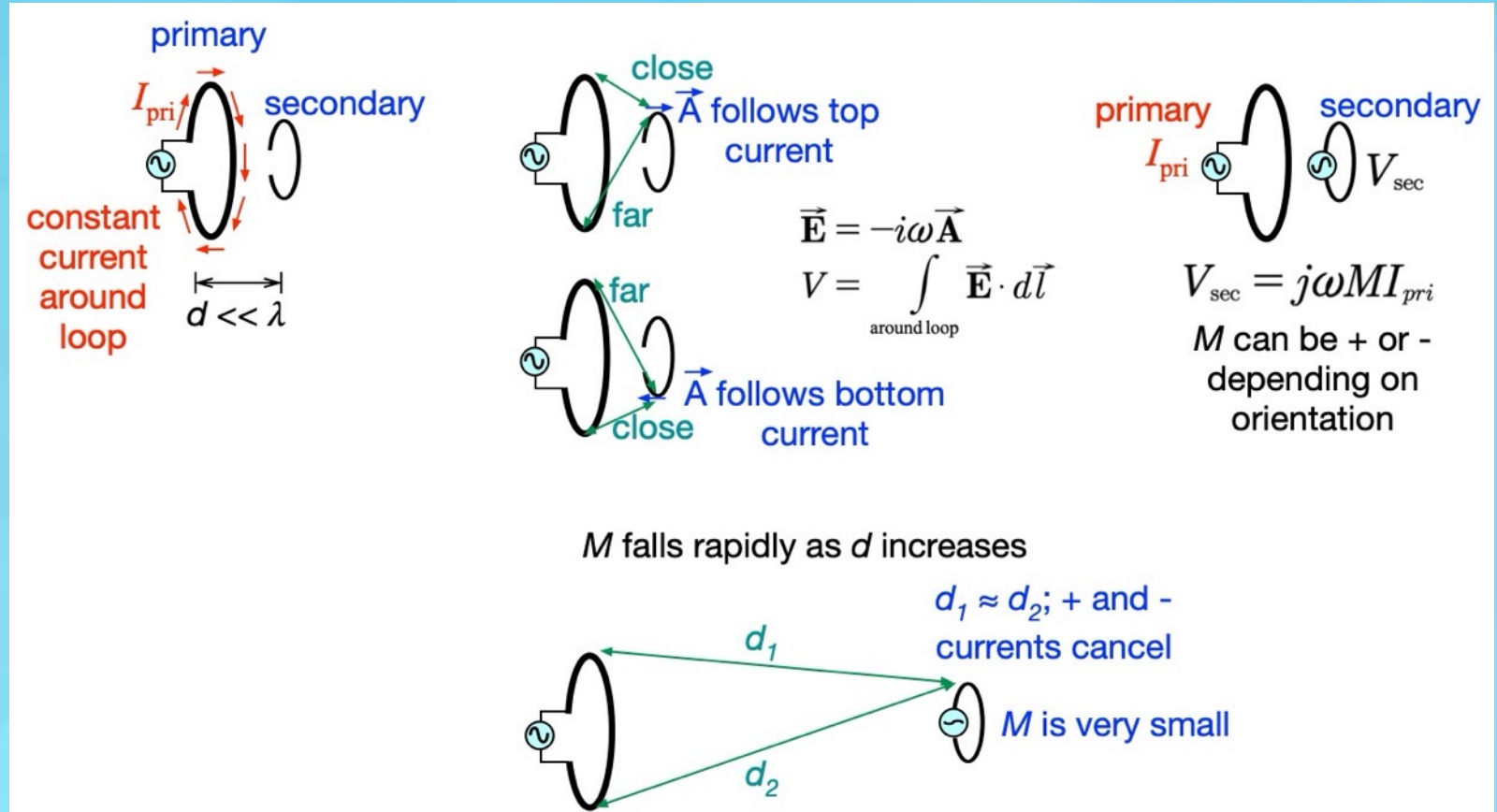


Near and Far: Induction and Radiation

- Wire size, distance $\ll$ wavelength λ :
 - Phase doesn't matter but distance to wire does
 - Induced signals change with position of receiver in complex fashion
 - NEAR FIELD or **INDUCTIVE** coupling
- Wire size $\ll \lambda$ to $> \lambda$, distance large compared to λ , wire size:
 - Shape of wire influences the radiated potential in each DIRECTION (directivity), but received signal then just falls as $(1/r)$
 - FAR FIELD or **RADIATIVE** coupling

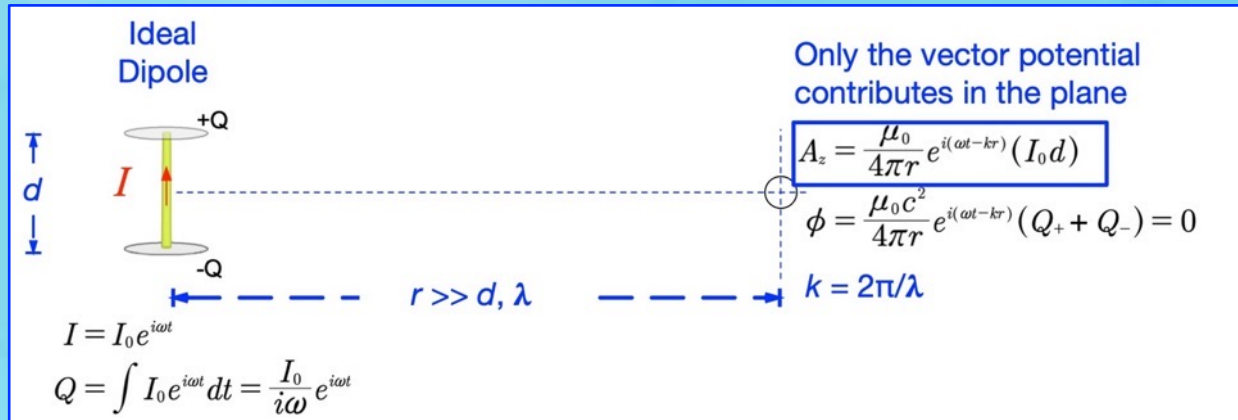
Inductive Coupling

- Wire size, distance $\ll$ wavelength λ :
 - Phase doesn't matter but distance to wire does
 - Induced voltage follows nearest currents: mutual inductance M
 - Coupling M falls rapidly for distance large compared to loop sizes



Radiative Coupling: Short Dipole

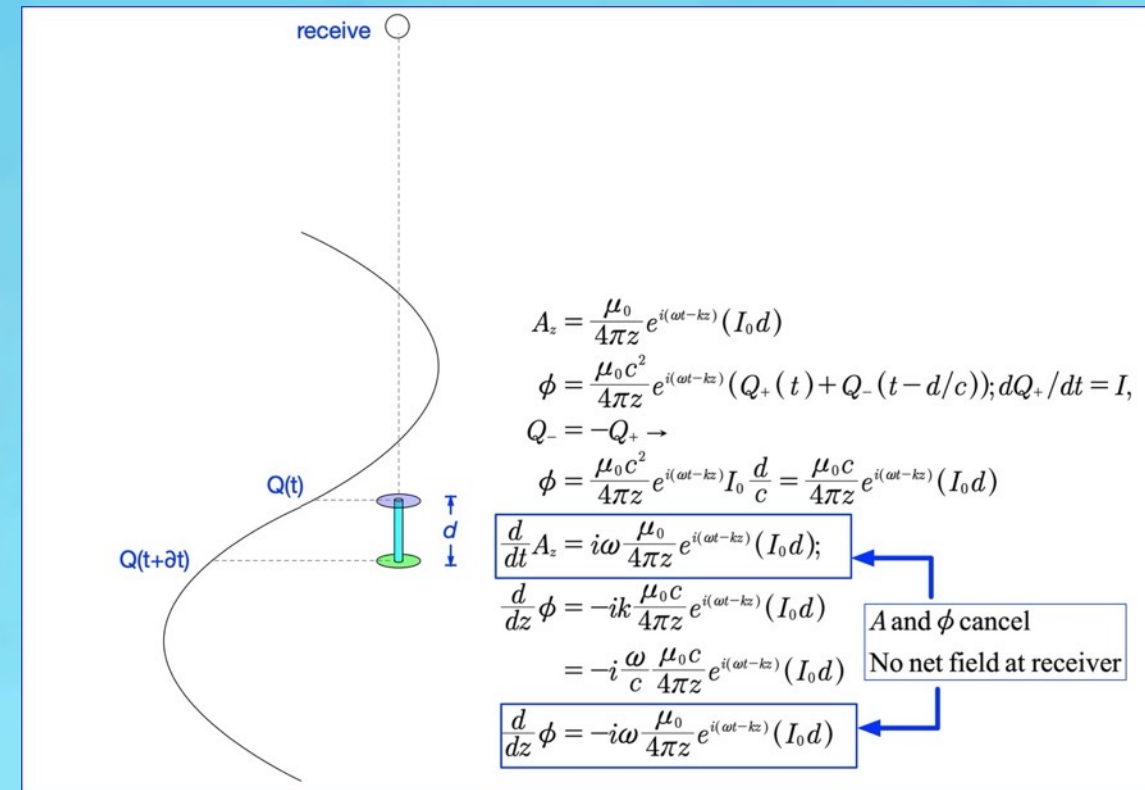
- Only A contributes in the plane



- Dipoles transmit in the plane, not on the axis!

- Still true for d comparable to wavelength but harder to compute
- Full pattern is sinusoidal

- No transmission along dipole axis

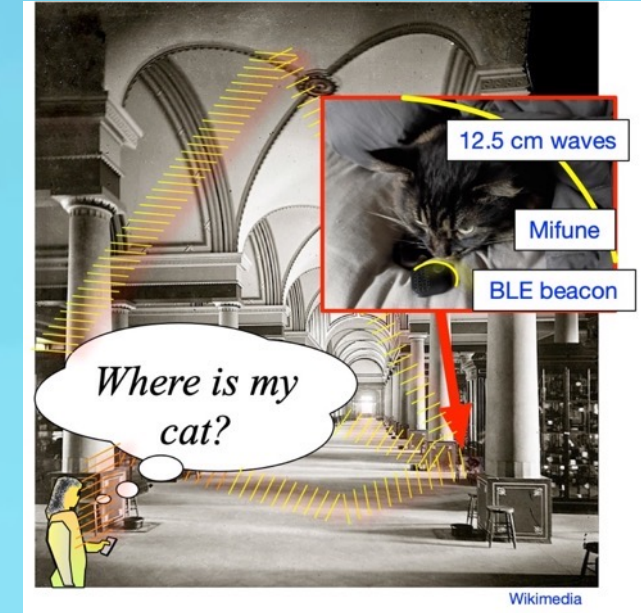
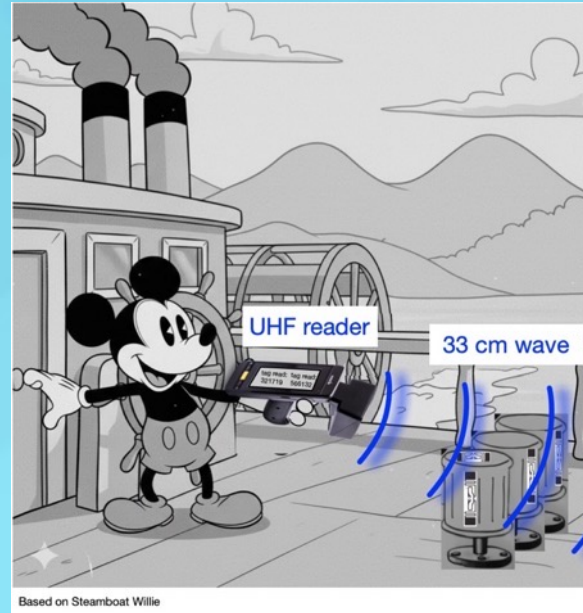


Common RFID Bands

○ HF: ISM 13.553–13.567 MHz, $\lambda \approx 22$ meters: INDUCTIVE

○ UHF: ISM 902–928 MHz, $\lambda \approx 0.33$ m: RADIATIVE

○ BLE: ISM 2400–2483 MHz, $\lambda \approx 0.12$ meters: RADIATIVE



ISM: "Industrial, Scientific and Medical"

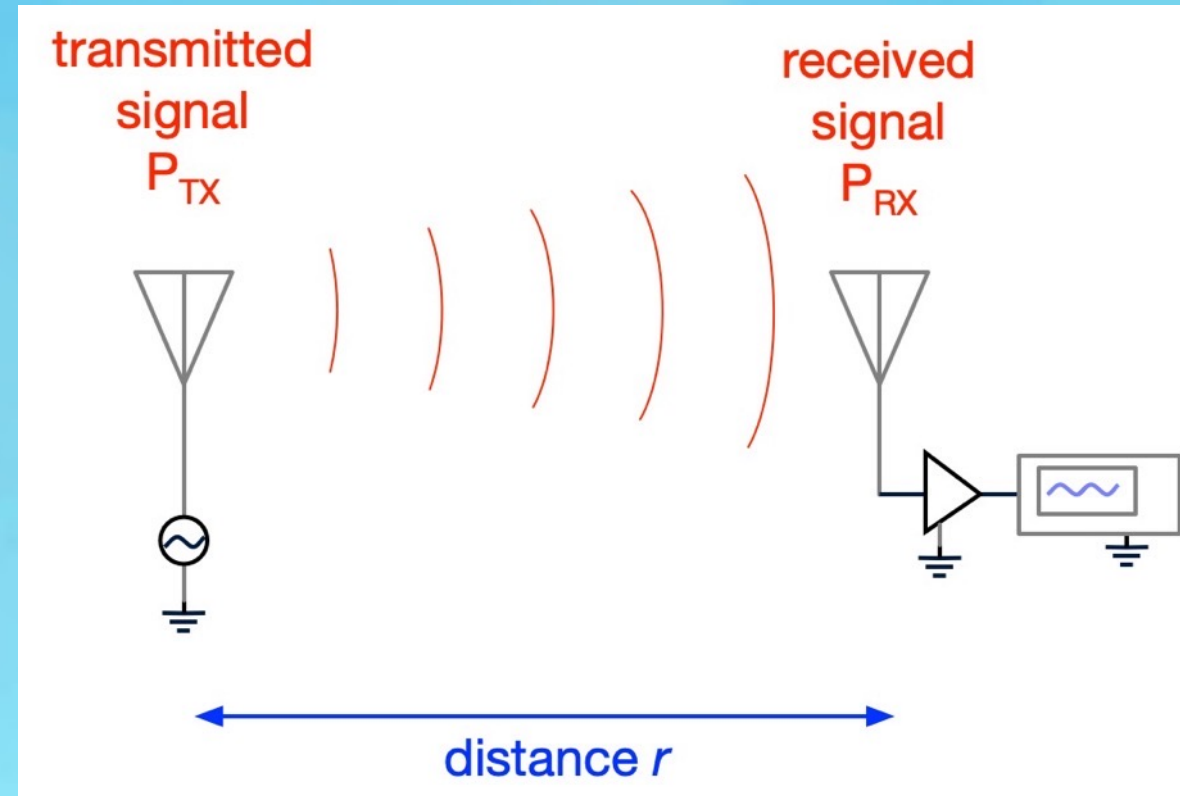
HF: "High Frequency"

UHF: "Ultra-High Frequency"

BLE: "Bluetooth Low Energy"

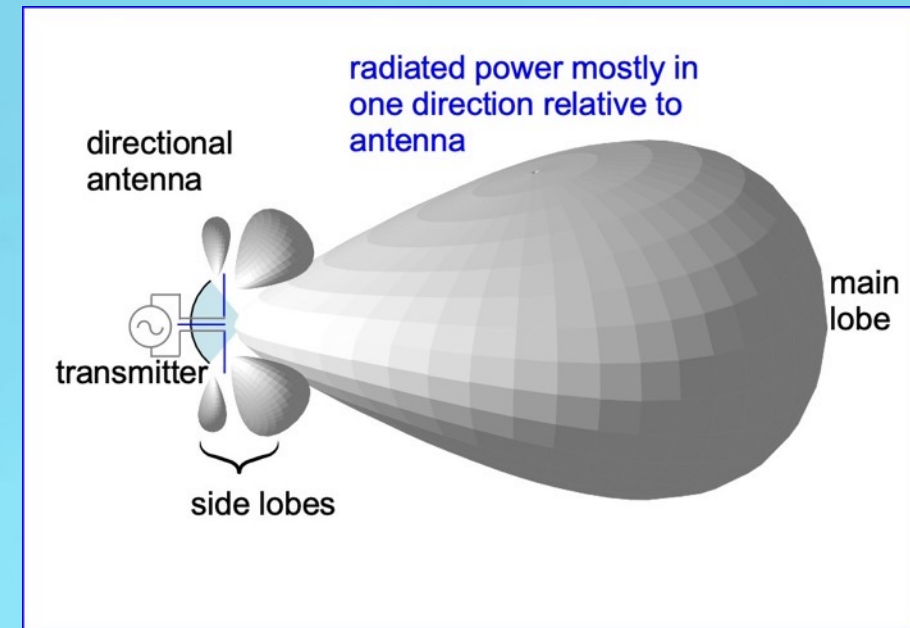
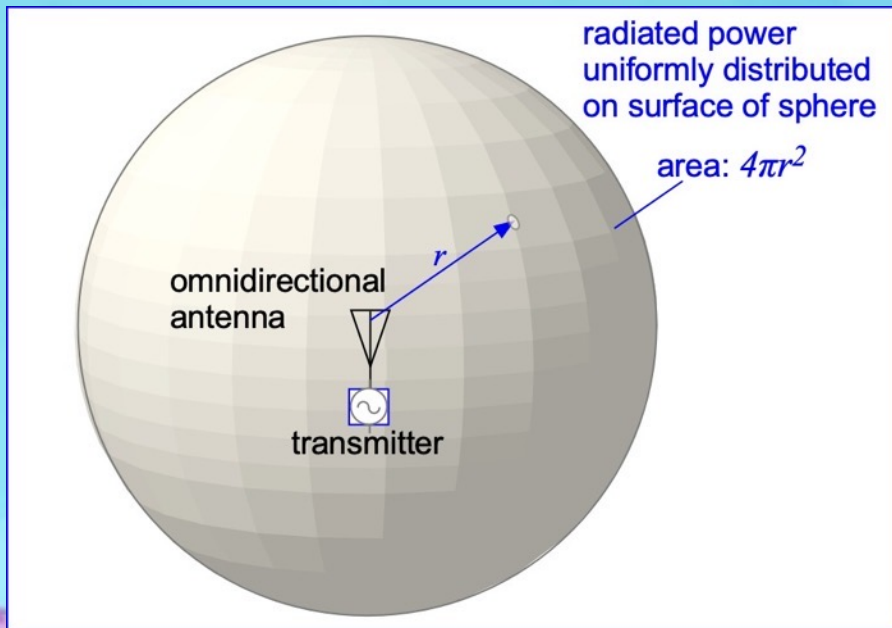
Radiative Transmission/Reception

- (Vector+scalar) potential from current in transmit antenna creates electric field → voltage in receiving antenna
- Received signal depends on:
 - Transmitted signal
 - Antennas
 - Orientation
 - Distance
 - and stuff in the way or nearby (later)



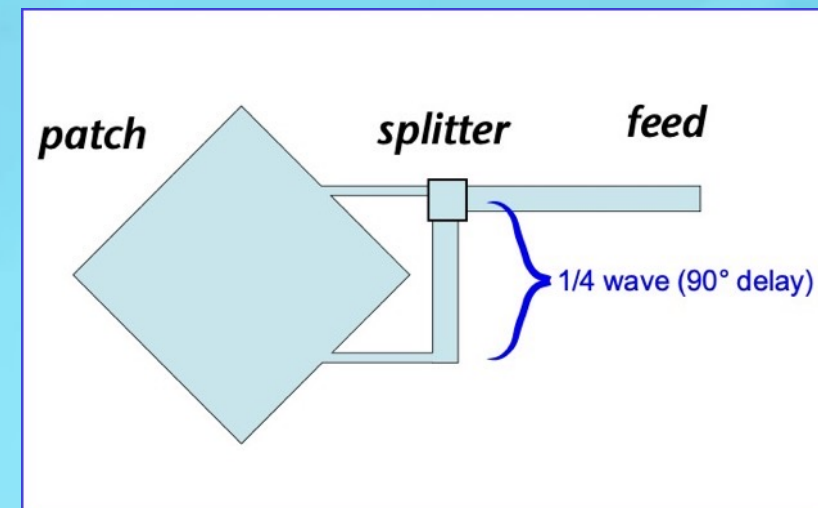
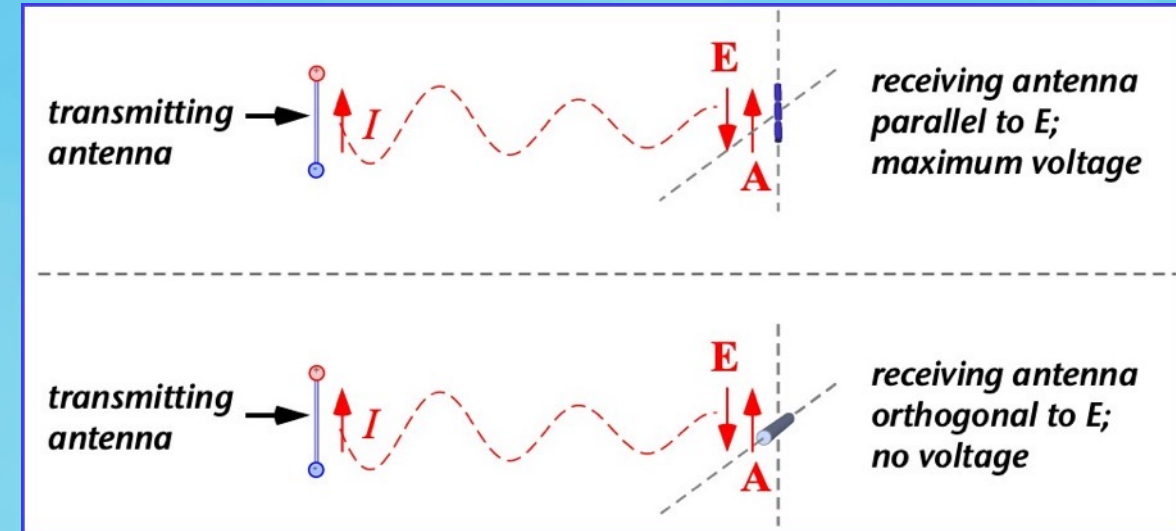
Antenna [Directive] Gain

- Simple “ideal” antenna would transmit energy in every direction equally
 - $\text{Power}/\text{m}^2 = \text{power}/4\pi r^2$
- Real antennas send most of the signal in a specific direction: “Directive gain”
 - NOT actual increase in total power! Just redistribution



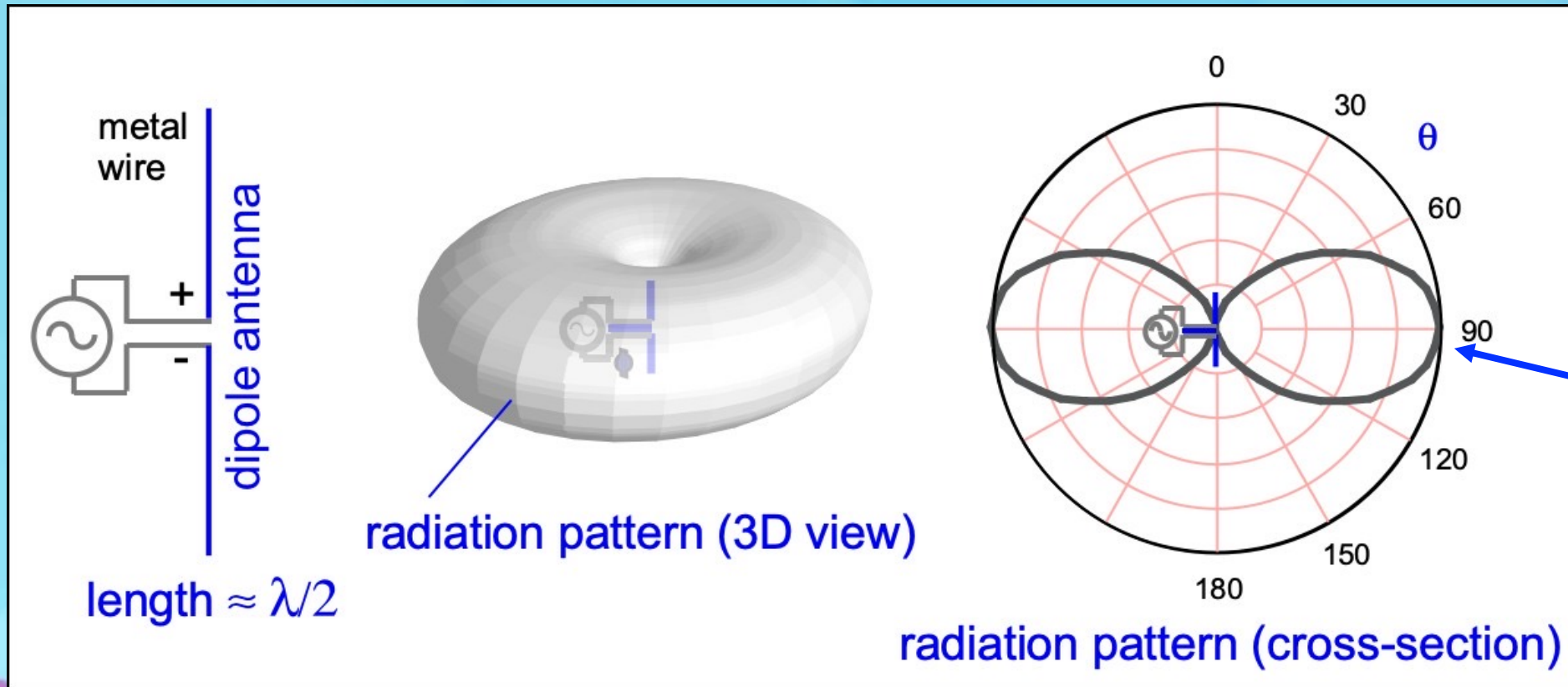
Antenna Polarization

- Vector potential and thus electric field are in the direction of current flow
 - For the short dipole we looked at before, radiated field is vertical
- Direction of field is the *polarization* of the antenna
- We can make circular polarization by using perpendicular currents excited 90° out of phase



Antenna Pattern Example: Dipole

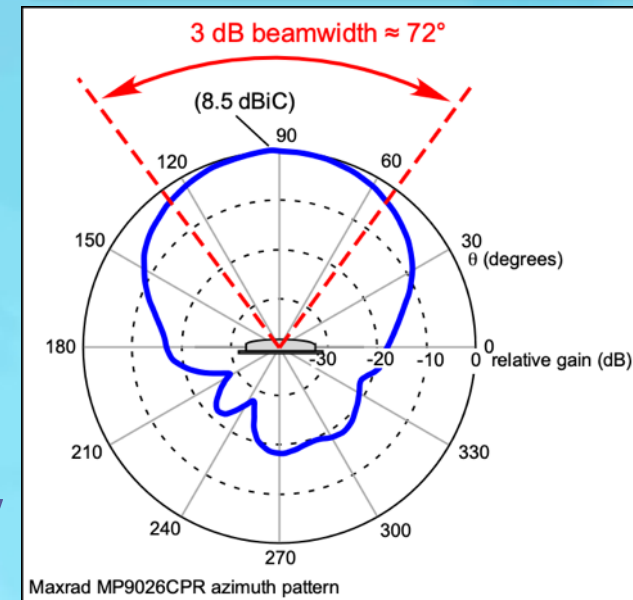
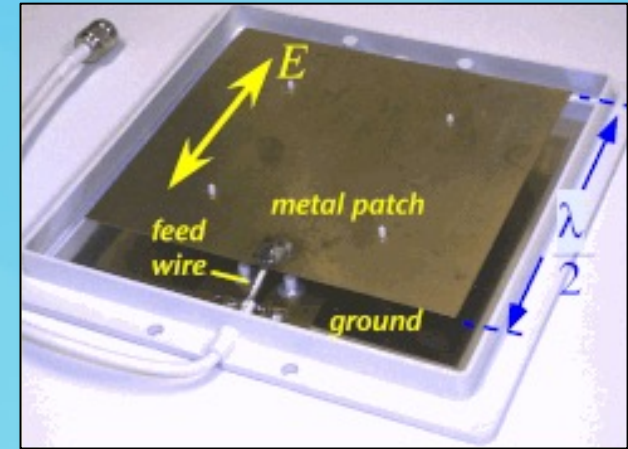
- Dipole antenna energy mostly perpendicular to dipole, zero along axis, uniform in $\theta = 90^\circ$ plane



Maximum
directive
gain about
2.3 dBi;
 ≈ 1.8 dBi
for a small
RFID tag
antenna

Antenna Pattern Example: Patch

- Patch antenna = rectangular metal above metal ground plane
 - Feed wire configured for optimal match
- Commercial patch antenna example
 - Circular polarization
 - Beamwidth about 72° , maximum gain about 8.5 dBiC (decibels from isotropic, circular)
 - Reduced but non-zero radiation BEHIND the antenna
 - Recall -20 dB is a factor of 1/10 in voltage
 - Voltages are what adds when signals are received by another antenna, so this is not always negligible!



The Friis Equation

- Signal IN EMPTY SPACE depends on transmit power, transmit antenna directivity (gain), distance, received antenna directivity
 - Wavelength dependence is from definition of antenna gain vs. aperture, NOT propagation
- The Friis equation applies to simple open spaces; real environments can be MUCH MORE COMPLEX
 - We will discuss this in the Real Environments section a bit later...

$$P_{RX} = P_{TX} G_{TX} G_{RX} \left(\frac{\lambda}{4\pi r} \right)^2$$

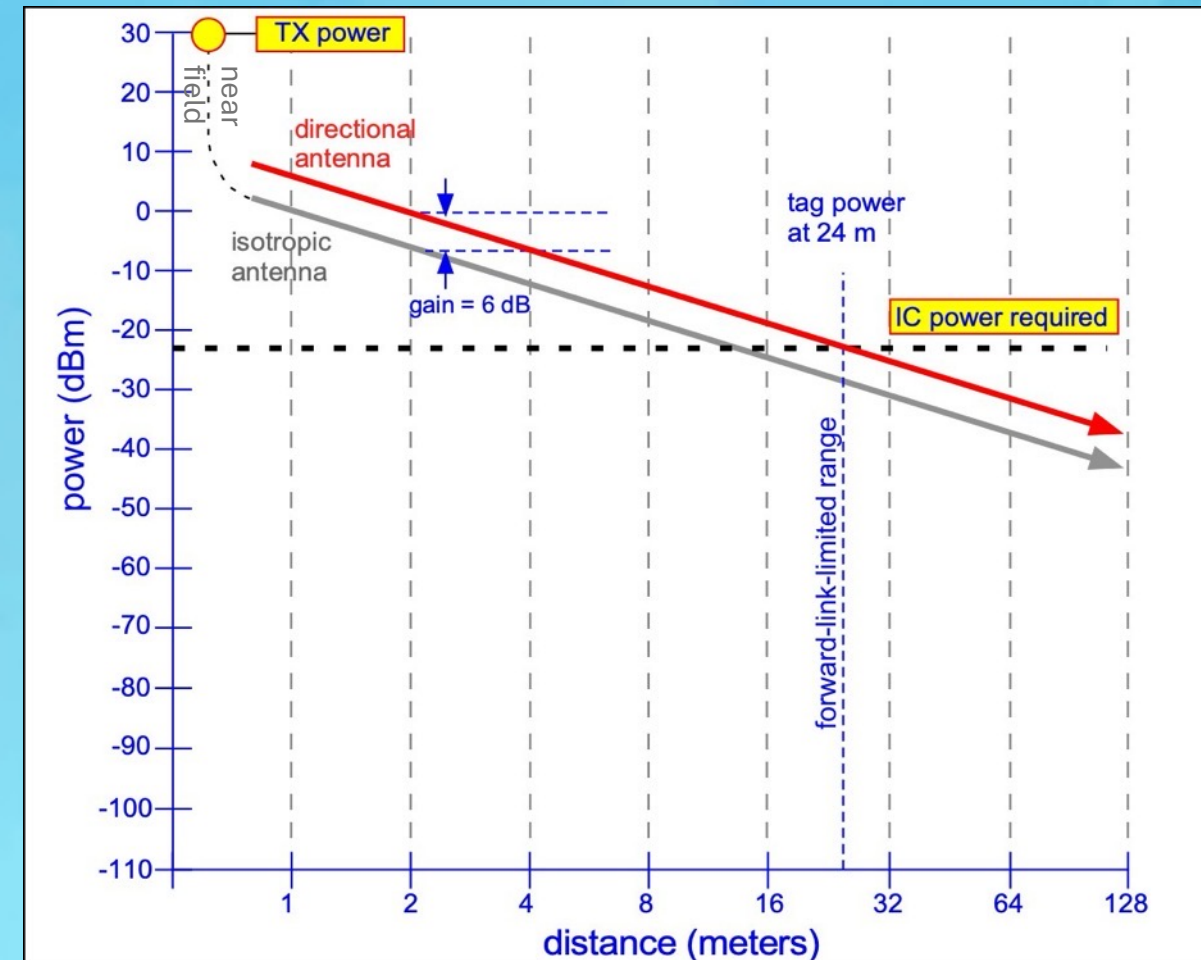
Diagram illustrating the Friis Equation with labels for each term:

- P_{RX} : received power
- P_{TX} : transmit power
- G_{TX} : transmit directive gain
- G_{RX} : receive directive gain
- λ : wavelength
- r : distance TX-RX

NOTE: Valid for distances larger than antenna size, wavelength. Polarization is not included above but can be important!

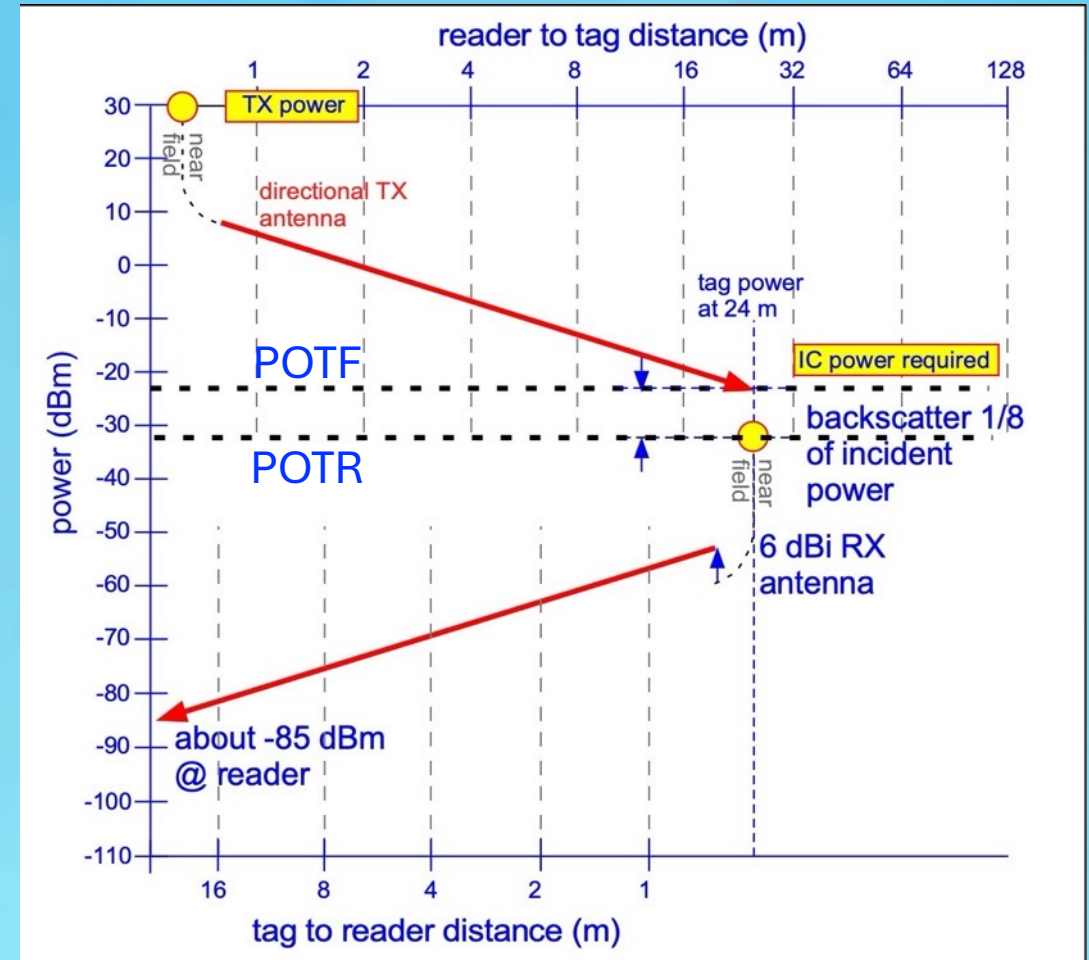
Forward Link Budget

- The radio link needs to transmit enough power for the receiver to hear and demodulate the signal; in logarithmic terms:
 - Transmit power + directive gain – propagation loss = received power
 - Received – (minimum received) = link budget
- Example for passive tag receiver:
 - 1 W transmit power with 6 dBi antenna (assuming tag antenna gain ≈ 1) provides -23 dBm to tag 24 meters away: *forward-link-limited range*



Reverse Link Budget: Backscatter

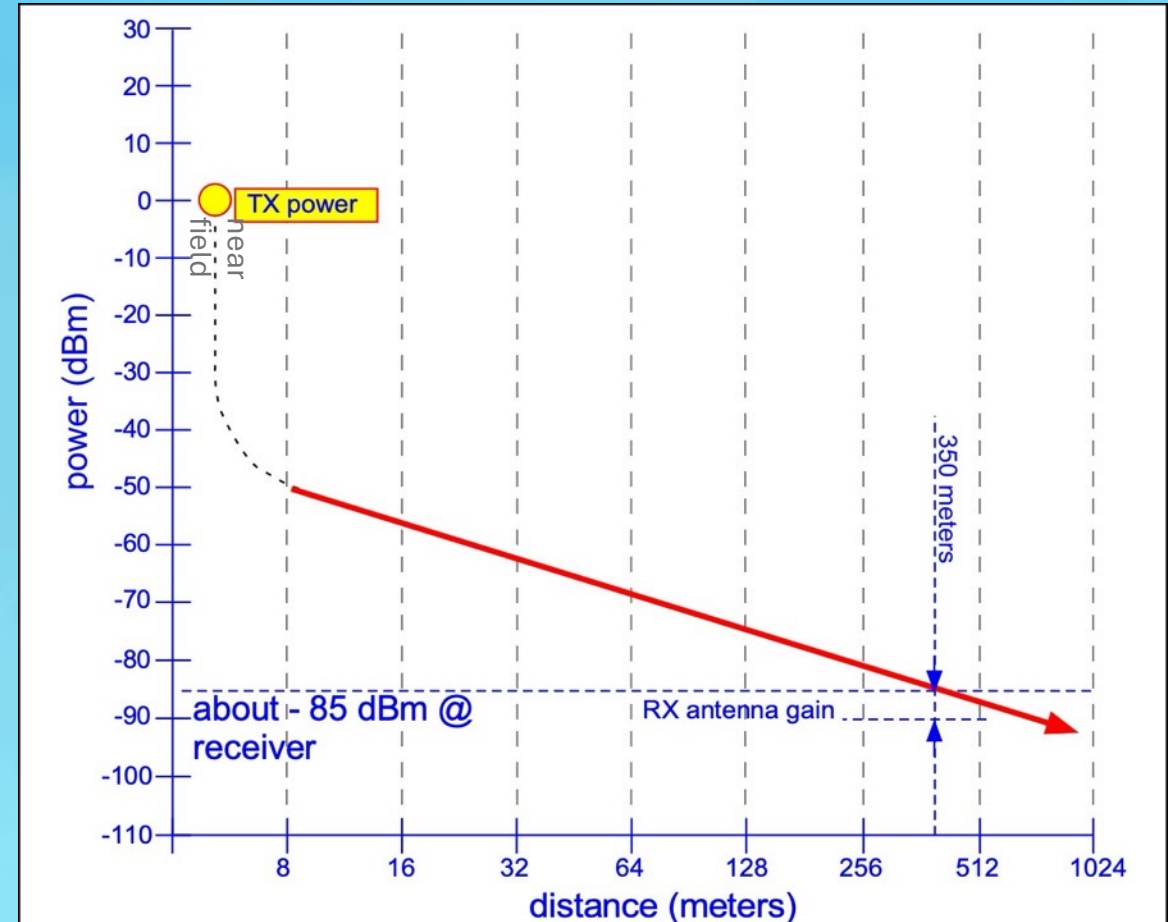
- A passive RFID tag doesn't have its own transmitter, just backscatters incident RF
- Result: reverse-link starts with power reduced by $1/r^2$ and then propagates back ($1/r^2$) so:
- Power at reader goes as $1/r^4$!
 - If we move the tag 2x (3 dB) farther, received signal falls by 16x (12 dB)



We again assume tag antenna gain is close to 1; POTF and POTR are power-on tag forward and reverse (Voyantic)

Beacon Link Budget

- BLE beacon has its own transmitter but needs to run on a battery or harvested energy
 - Transmit power can be one mW or less
- TX antenna gain may be small
- BUT we still can get lots of range in open space
 - 14x farther for the same received signal vs. passive tag!

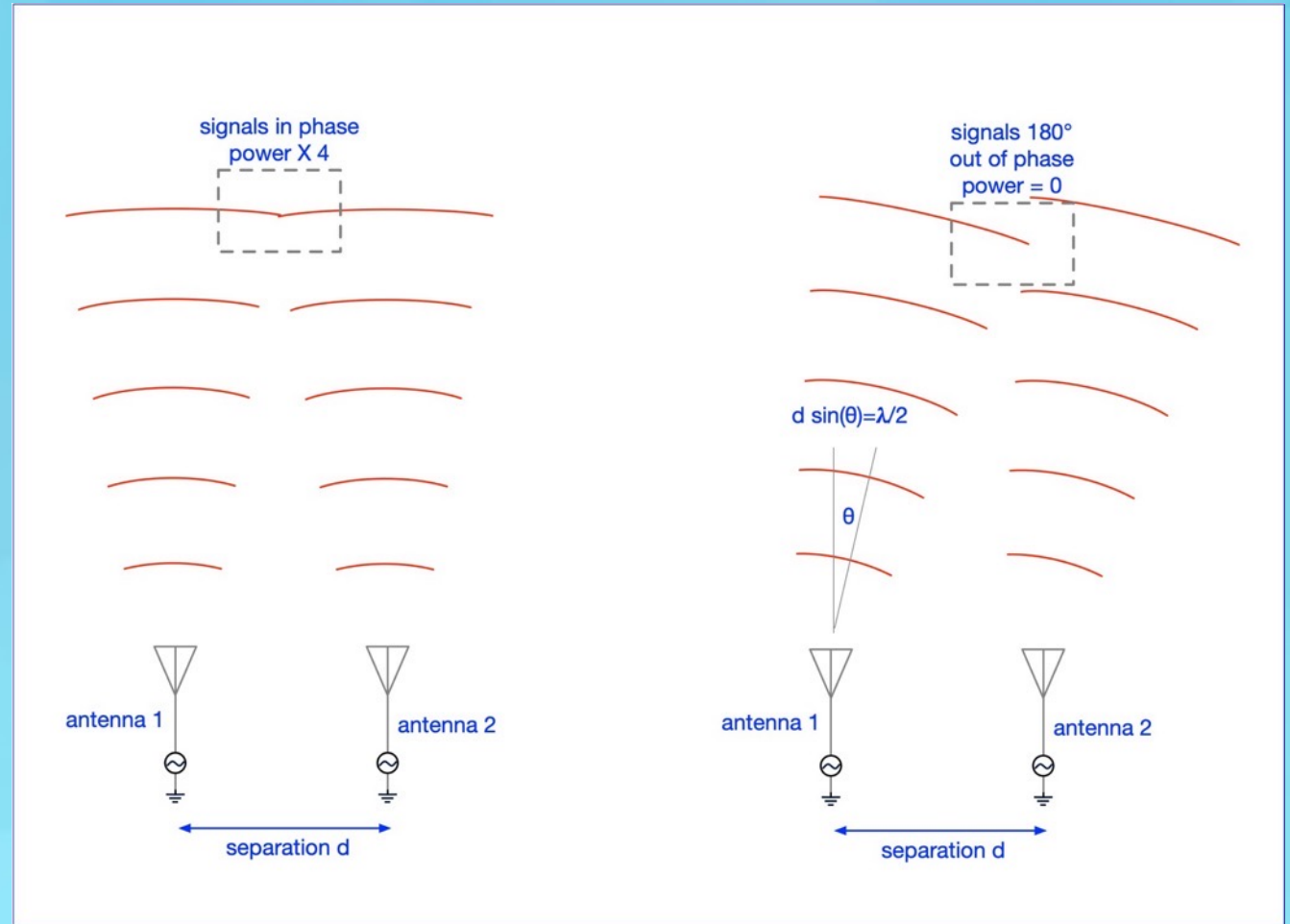


Passive Links: Practical Considerations

- Tags are often much smaller than a half-wavelength
 - A small tag might be 1.5 cm vs. $\lambda/2 \approx 15$ cm @ 915 MHz
 - Theoretical efficiency is not affected but PRACTICAL efficiency IS, because impedance decreases with size; 2 ohms is hard to match!
 - More details in Energy Harvesting (next session)
- Orientation of tag antenna is often not controllable
 - Low (directive) gain is good!
 - BUT there are directions where a null exists
 - AND reflections from environment will create multiple incident waves
 - AND stuff near the tag antenna affects gain and impedance
- Reader antenna directivity can be used to find the tag
 - See Location discussion

Antenna Arrays and Beamforming

- Two antennas create potentials that can add or subtract
 - Power goes as SQUARE
 - Directive gain of the array increases with more antennas
- We can change the relative phase of elements to DIRECT the beam
- Very powerful tool but often complex and expensive

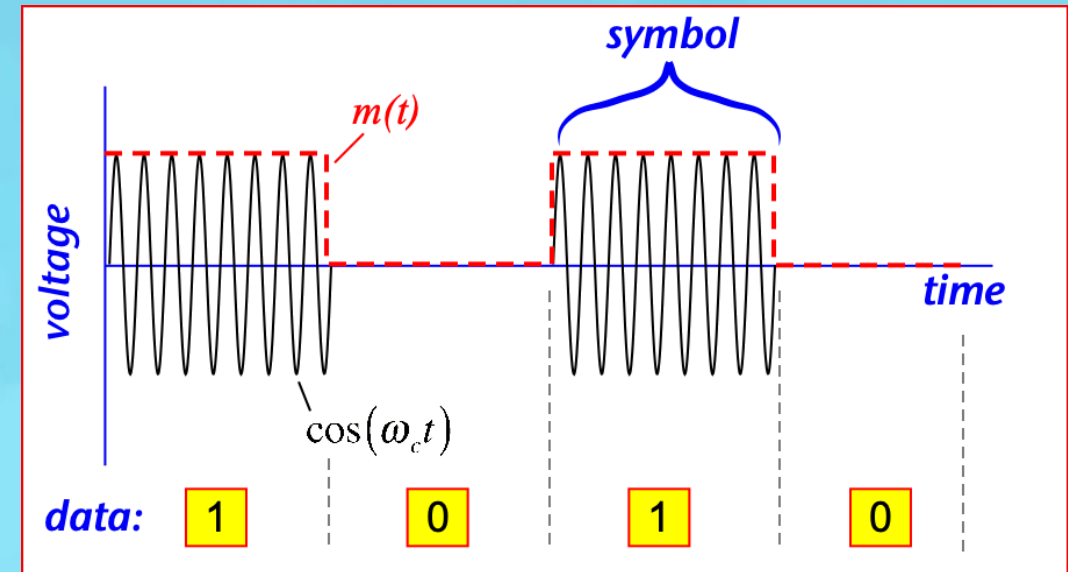
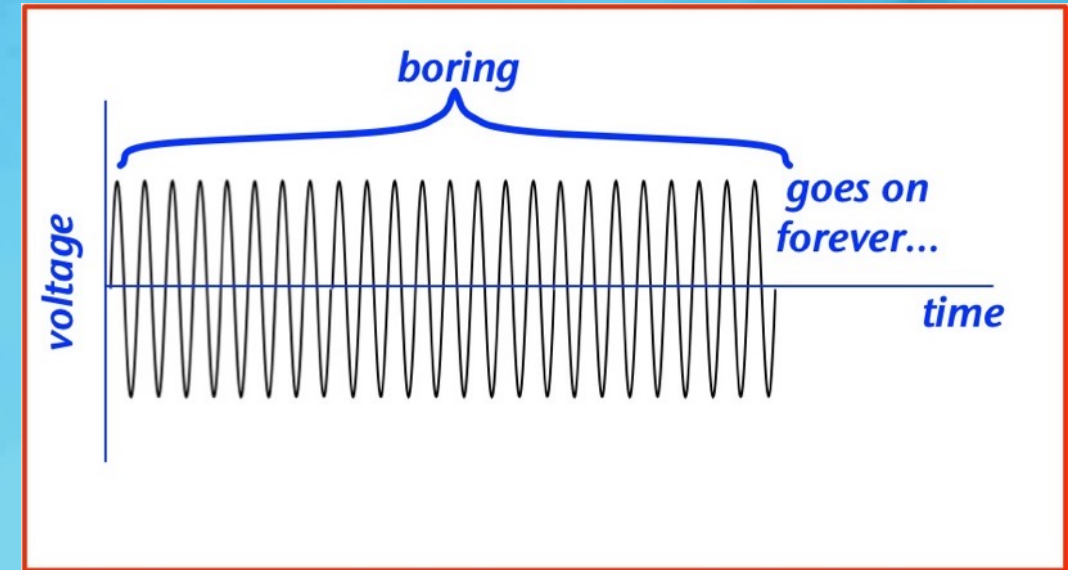


Examples: Impinj xArray, Zebra ATR7000;
Wang et. al. NSDI 2019

Modulation

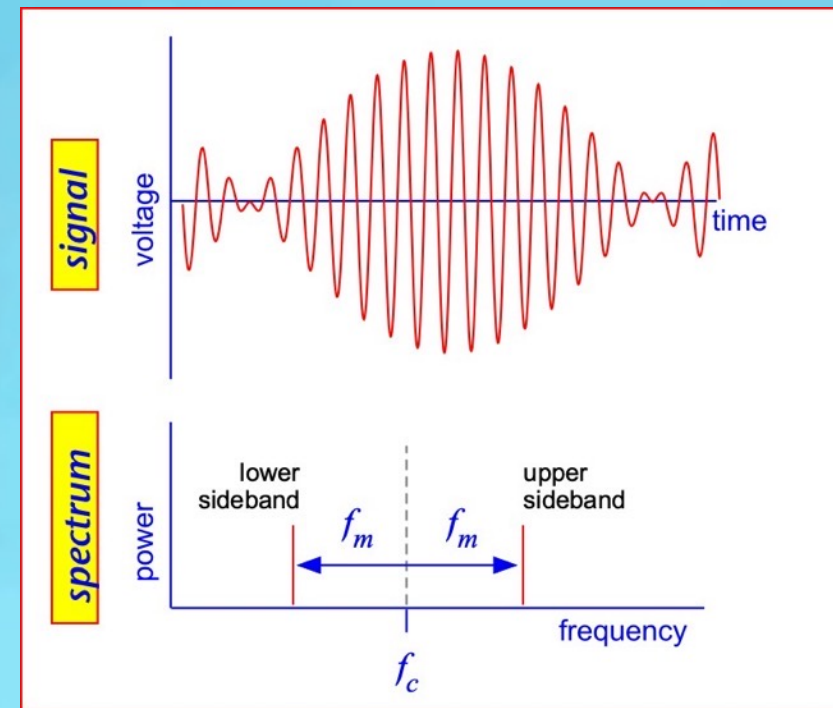
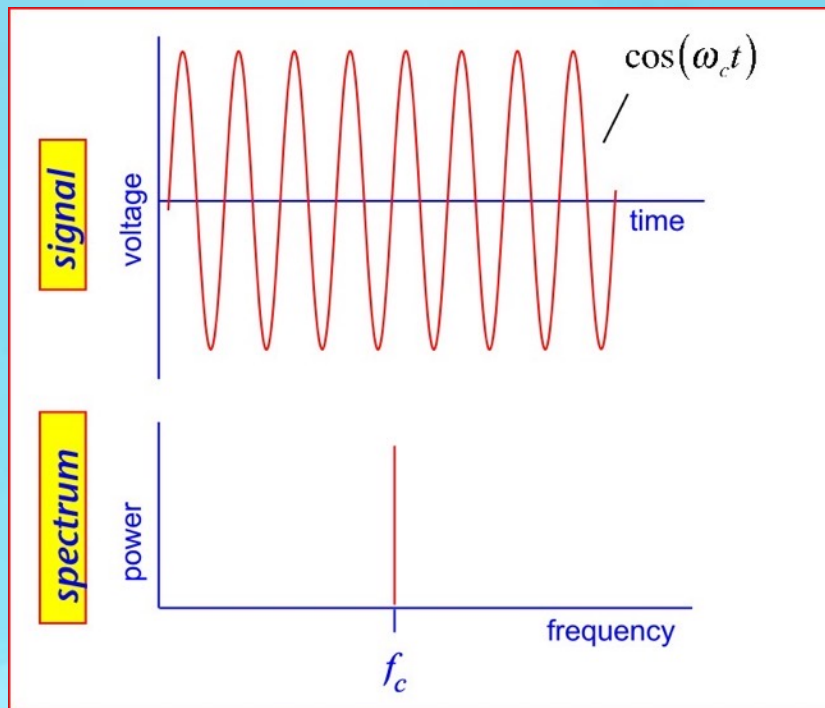
- A CW (continuous wave) signal conveys no information
 - One note...
- We need to modulate to convey information
 - One note with a message!

Getz Plays Jobim: One-Note Samba



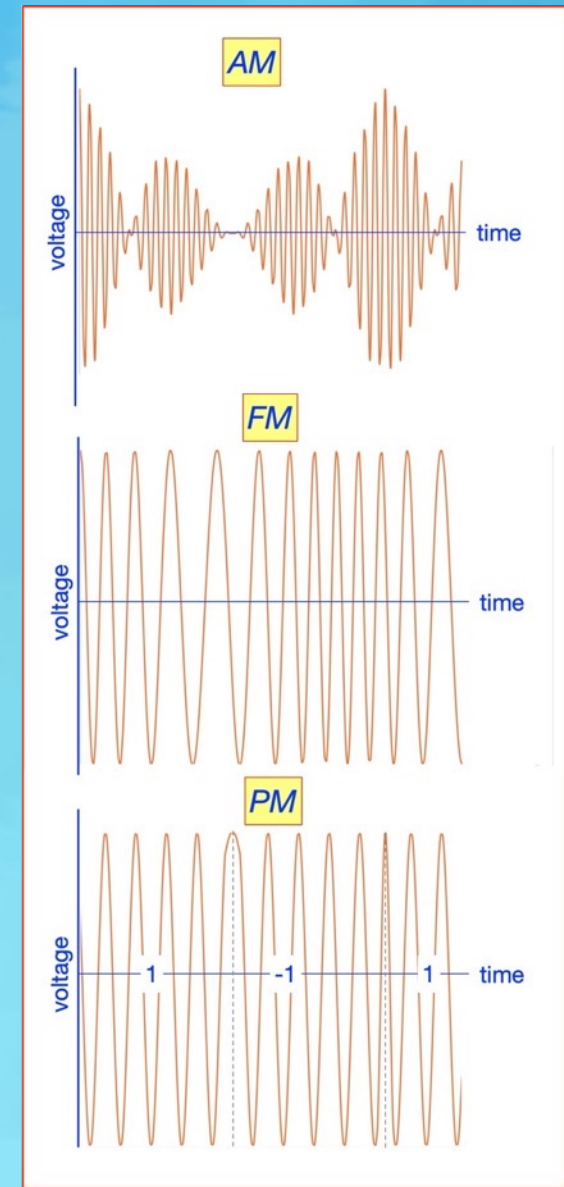
Time and Frequency

- The spectrum of an unmodulated wave is just a spike (fundamental)
- A modulated cosine has additional frequency components



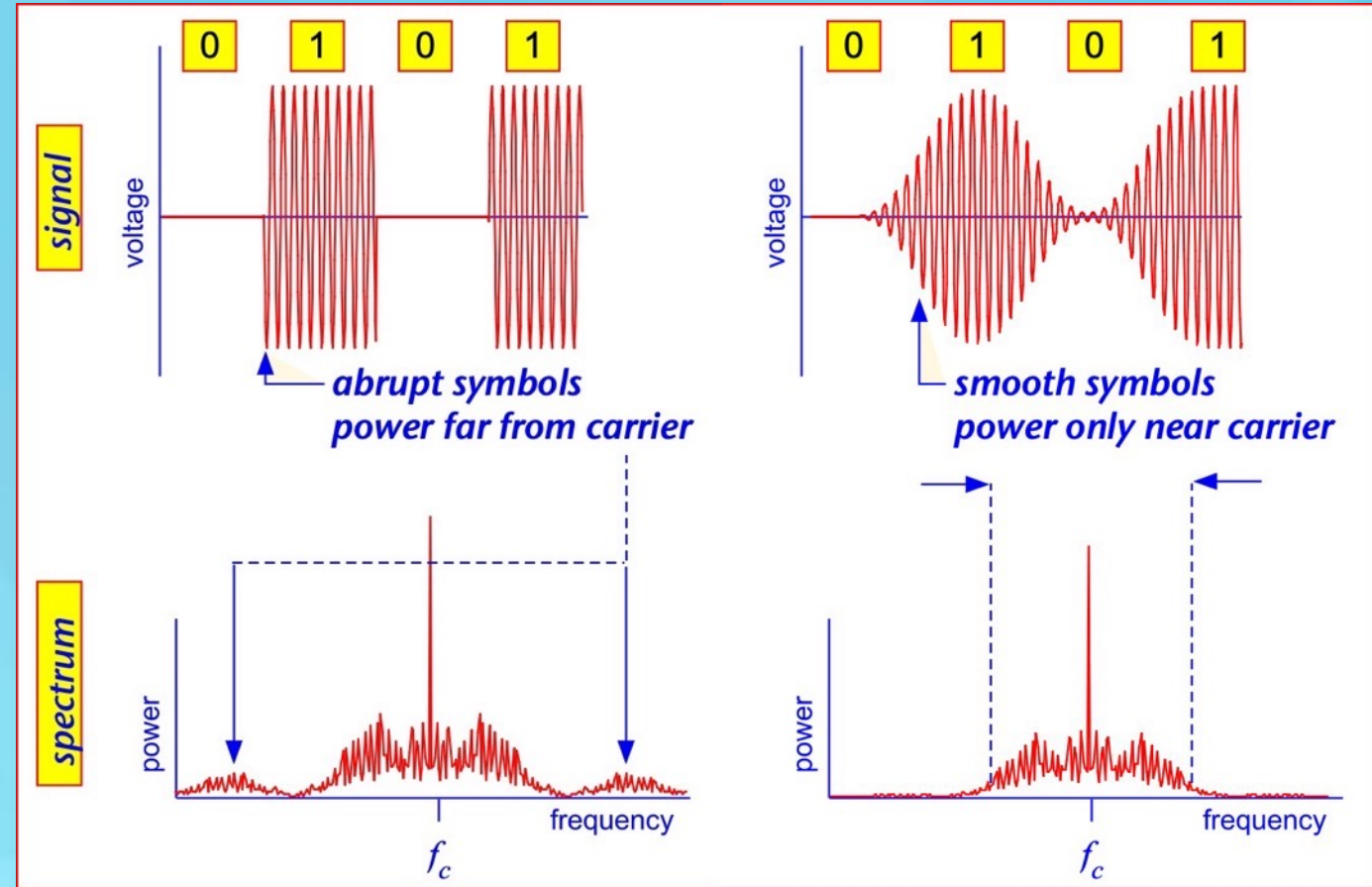
Ways to Modulate

- Amplitude Modulation (AM)
 - Change the amplitude of a single frequency
 - But still creates new frequencies
 - Digital version: amplitude-shift keying (ASK)
- Frequency Modulation (FM)
 - Change fundamental frequency
 - Digital version: frequency-shift keying (FSK)
- Phase Modulation (PM)
 - Not used in (ancient) commercial radio!
 - But very useful in digital: phase-shift keying (PSK)



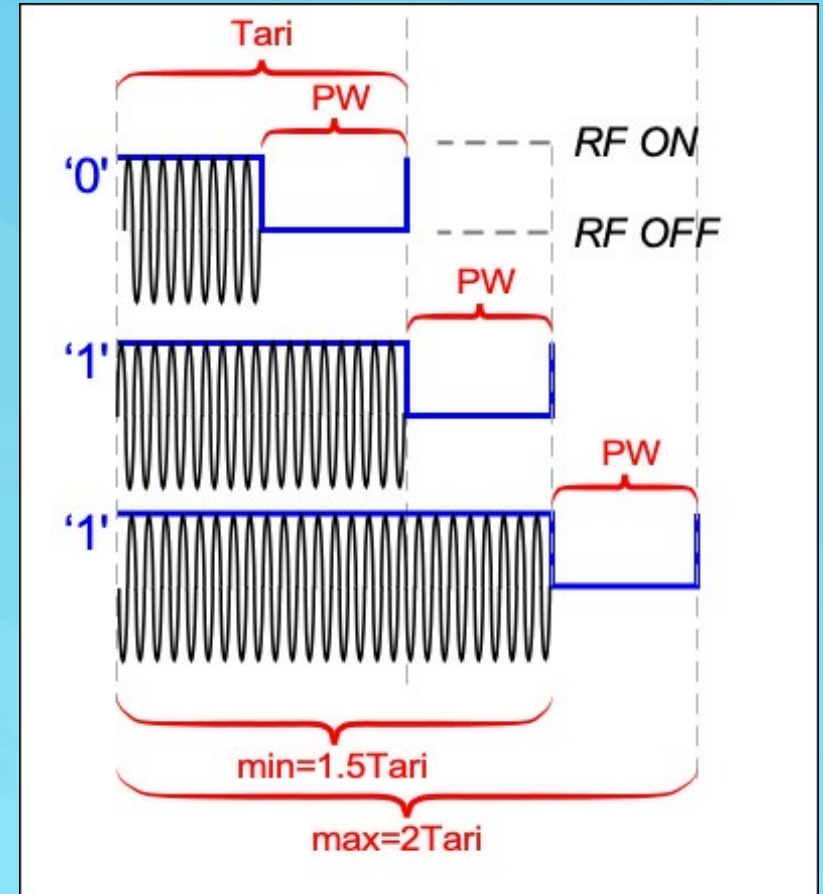
Abrupt and Smooth Modulation

- Modulation approach also affects frequency spectrum
- Abrupt modulation gives spurious frequencies far from carrier
 - But easy to decode
- Smooth modulation gives narrow spectrum
 - But decoder needs to look at the right time



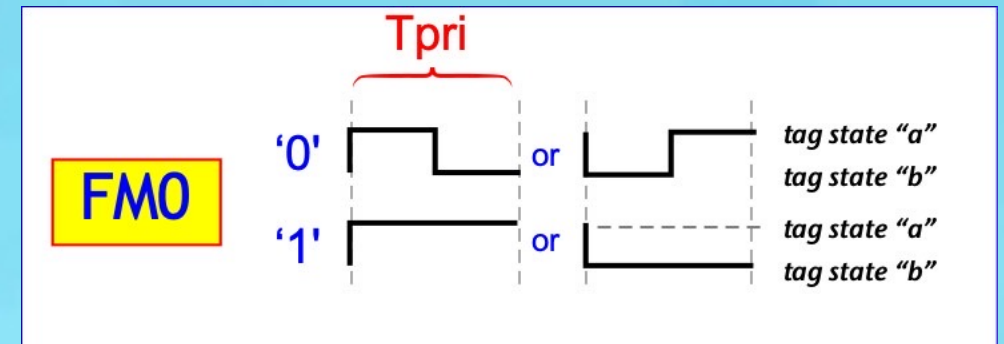
Modulation for Passive UHF RFID: Reader

- Pulse-interval-encoding (PIE):
 - Amplitude-modulation BUT both 0 and 1 symbols contain RF-on times!
 - Tag needs RF power to stay on; duty cycle 50% for '0' symbol, larger for '1' symbol
 - Ensures that tag received power remains close to continuous-wave value even for long sequence of '0' symbols
 - Typical value of T_{ari} $\approx$ 25 microseconds
 - Minimum value 6.25 microseconds



Modulation for Passive UHF RFID: Tag

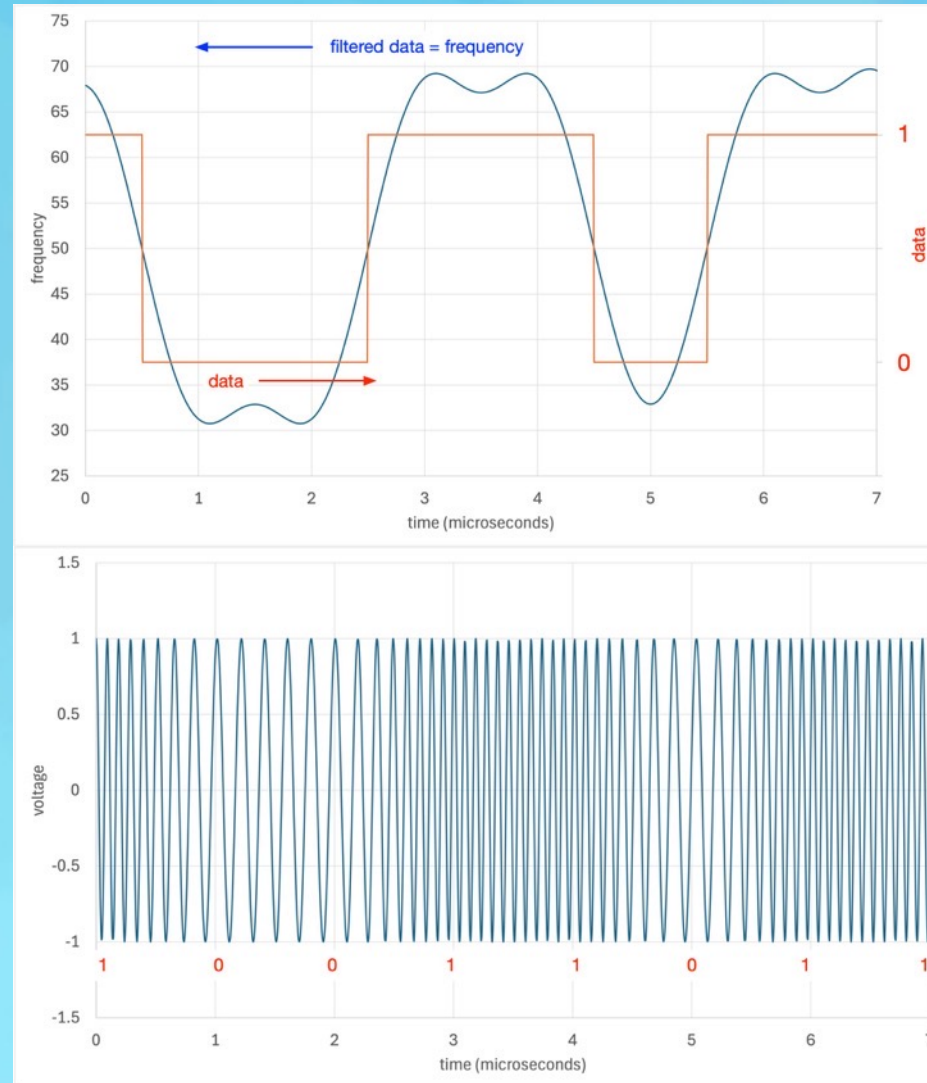
- Tag doesn't have a transmitter!
 - We can only modify the way we SCATTER the signal from the reader
 - AND we have NO CONTROL over the environment the antenna is in, or the phase or amplitude of the incoming signal
 - So we can only CHANGE the scattered signal with no idea of what change we made
- Tag signals just involve these changes:
 - A symbol with change in the middle and edge is '0'
 - A symbol with change only at the edge is a '1'



- Option to use more transitions for a single symbol (MMS): more time but better SNR

Modulation for Bluetooth Low Energy

- Active radio, 1 MHz or 2 MHz channels
- Basic modulation is Gaussian Frequency Shift Keying
 - Filter the data with a Gaussian, then modulate frequency; trade intersymbol interference for narrower spectrum
 - Everything exaggerated at right so you can see what's going on
 - Amplitude constant
 - Basic: 1 bit/symbol, 1 Mbps



Based on: Implementation of Digital Signal Processing: Some Background on GFSK Modulation, S. Gerez, U. Twente, March 2016

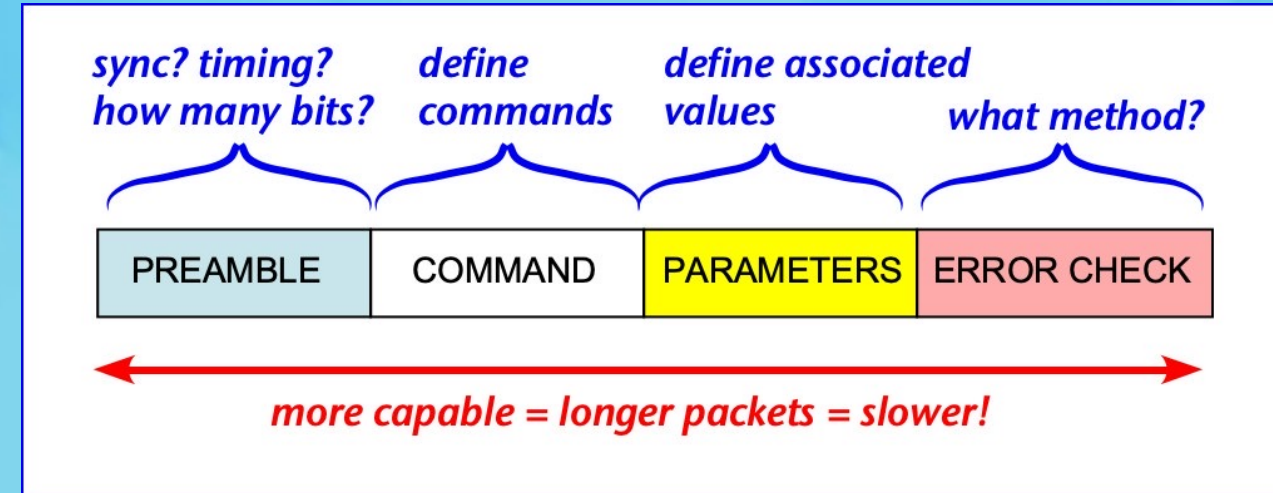
GREATLY exaggerated for clarity, NOT BLE-compliant!

Communications Protocols

- Packet structure
 - Example: Passive RFID
 - Example: Active Beacon
- Medium access

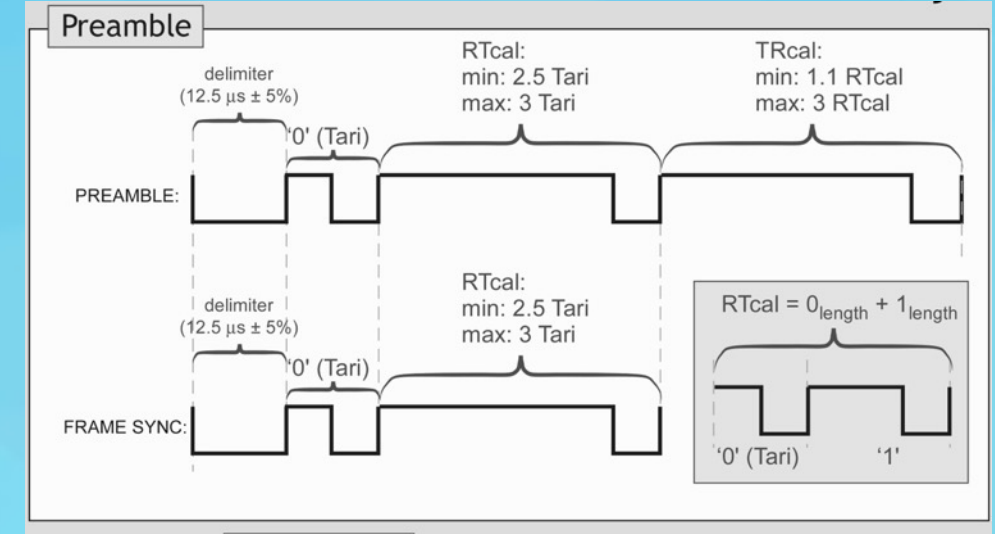
Packets

- Once signal is modulated, information is usually sent in discrete packets
 - Preamble, address/command, data, error checking
- Huge variety of standards; some of the most common are
 - ISO 15693/14483 for inductive
 - EPC Class 1 Gen 2 v2/3 for passive RFID (ISO 18000-63)
 - Bluetooth Low Energy for beacons
 - 802.15.4z Ultrawideband



ISO 18000-63 (EPC C1G2) Reader Packet

- C1G2 uses different packet structures for different commands
- Preamble contains PIE/FM0-MMS timing information for rest of packet
- Most common packet: Query
 - 8 parameters + (short) error check



Query										tag reply: preamble+RN16
# bits	Command	DR	M	TRExt	Sel	Session	Target	Q	CRC5	
	4	1	2	1	2	2	1	4	5	
	1000	0: DR=8 1: DR=64/3	00: M=1 01: M=2 10: M=4 11: M=8	0: no pilot 1: pilot tone	00: all 01: all 10: ~SL 11: SL	00: S0 01: S1 10: S2 11: S3	0: A 1: B	0-15		

Define tag reply

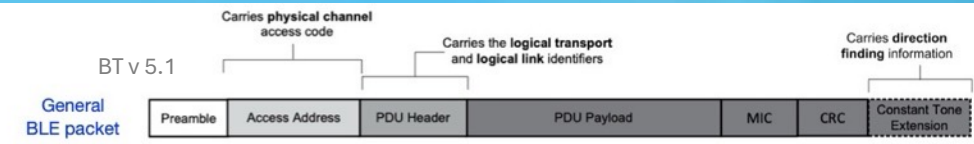
Tags that participate

Who talks when

Gen2 V3 has some additional provisions for avoiding marginally-powered tag responses

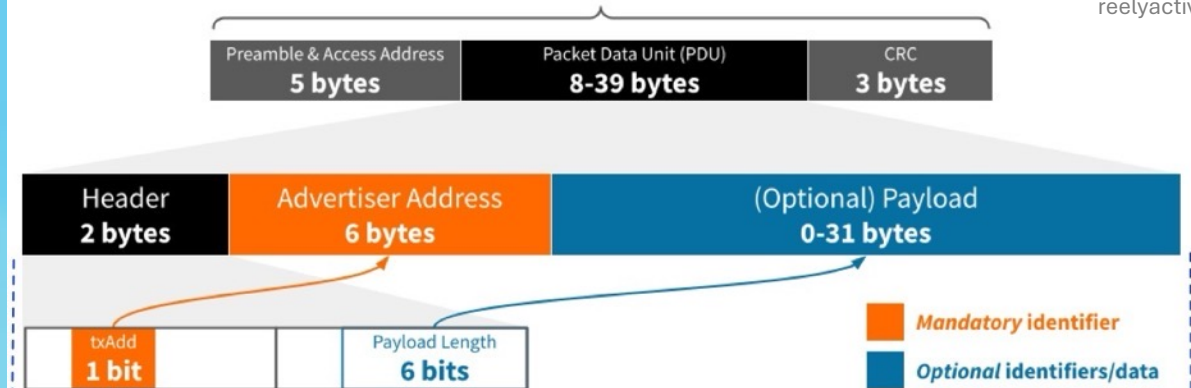
Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE) Packet

- Basic BLE using simple GFSK modulation, 1 Msps
 - Up to 2,120 bits/packet
- Example packet: iBeacon (Apple)
 - Preamble/access removed for clarity
 - Type: BLE only (standard Bluetooth not supported)
 - iBeacon ID
 - RSSI = received signal strength at 1 meter, for estimating distance



Jeffrey Dungen
reelyactive

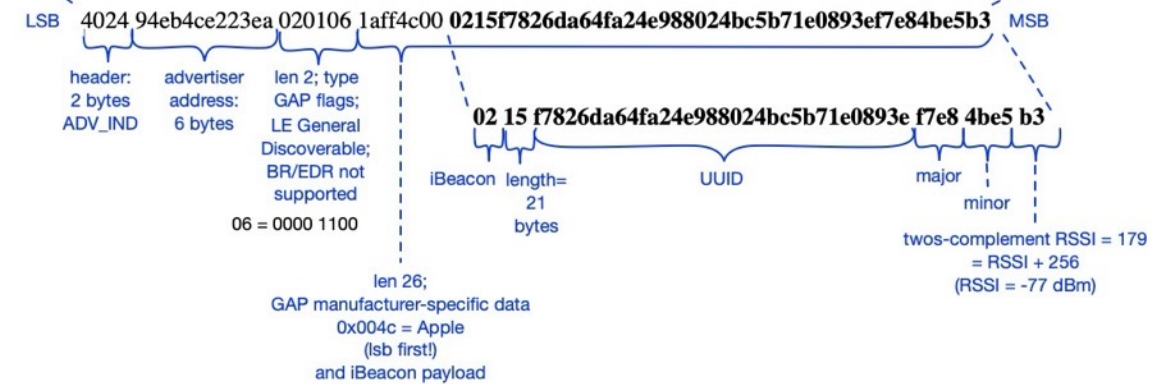
Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE) Advertising Packet (v4.x)



iBeacon Frame



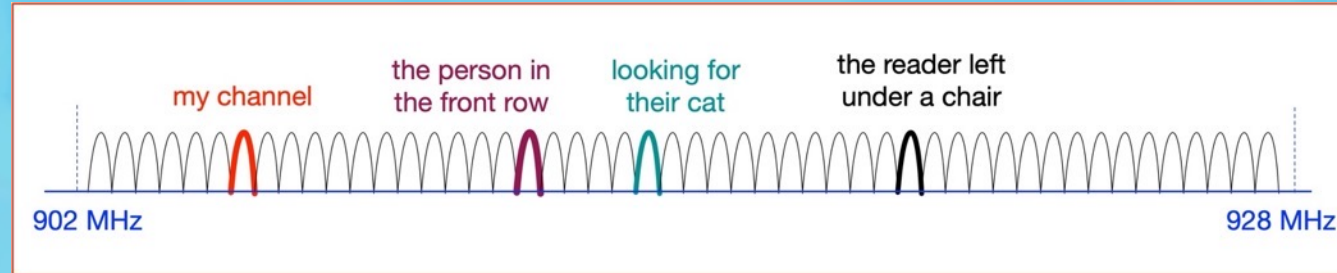
Version 4 UUID



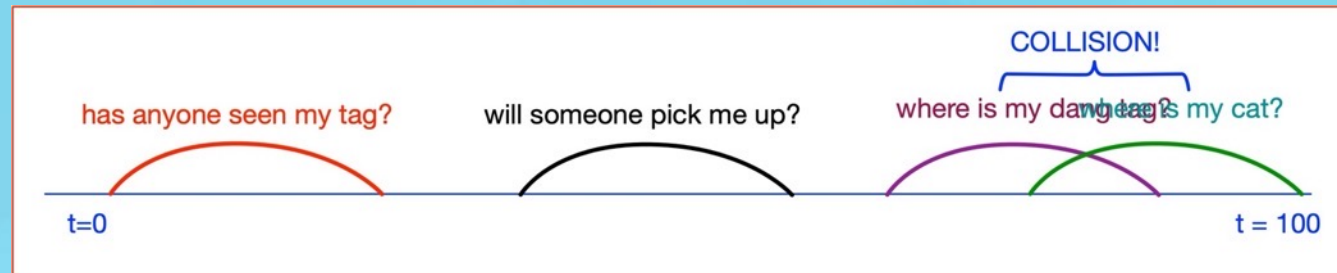
Medium Access

- In a simple world there's only one reader and one tag
 - In the real world everybody competes for the same frequency at the same time
- Various ways to take turns:
 - Frequency Division Multiple Access: sing a different note
 - Time Division Multiple Access: wait for a solo
 - Code Division Multiple Access: counterpoint

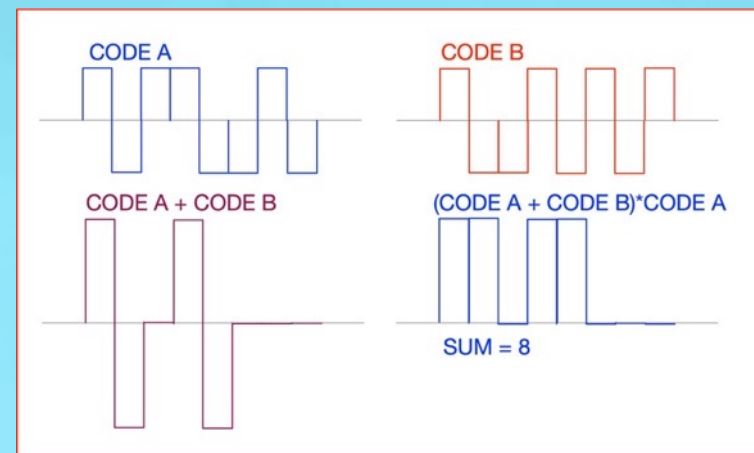
FDMA



TDMA

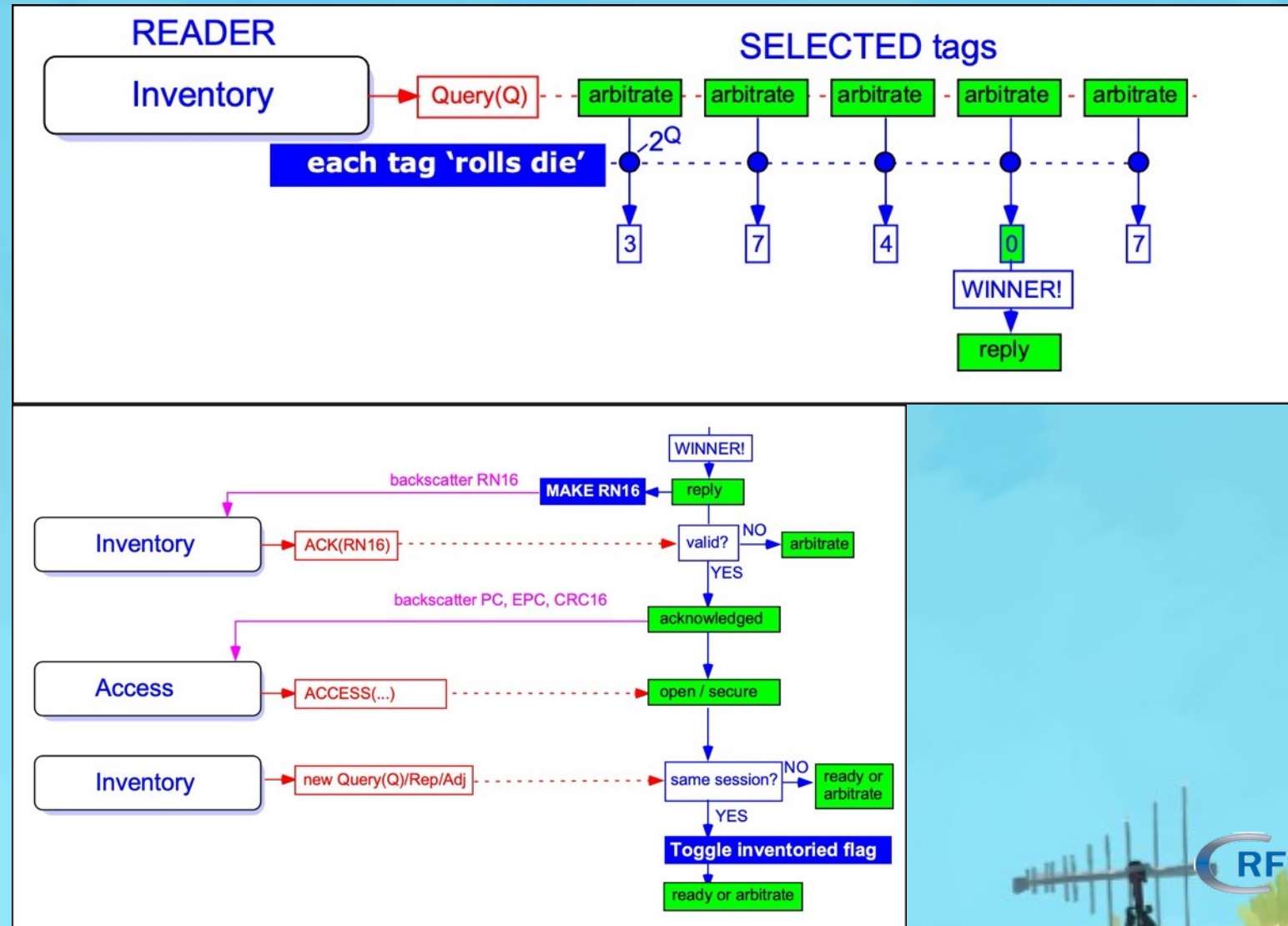


CDMA



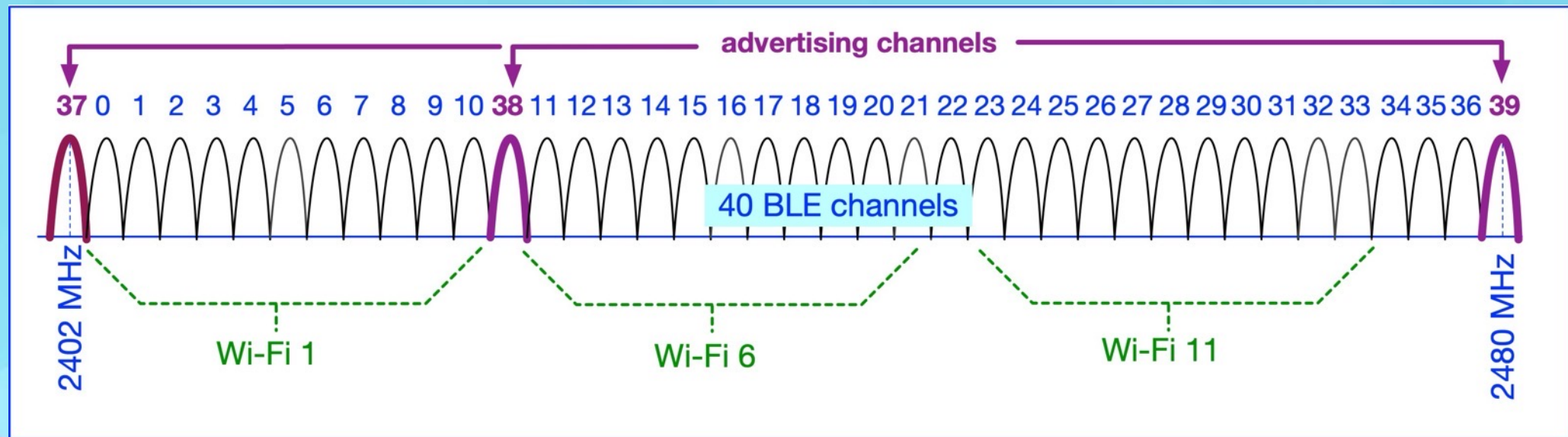
Passive UHF RFID: Mix of FDMA/TDMA

- FDMA, US ISM: Reader chooses a new 500 kHz band at random every 0.4 s
- TDMA, Slotted Aloha: Reader sends a Query command, tags choose random #, count down until 0, then reply
 - If tag reply is acknowledged, that tag owns the frequency band until discussion with the reader is complete



BLE: Mix of FDMA and Whenever

- Beacons that just post information talk whenever they want to
- They can also advertise to form a connection
- Both cases use advertising channels 37, 38, 39, which do not overlap the main 2.4 GHz Wi-Fi bands
 - Back-and-forth uses random sequence over all channels



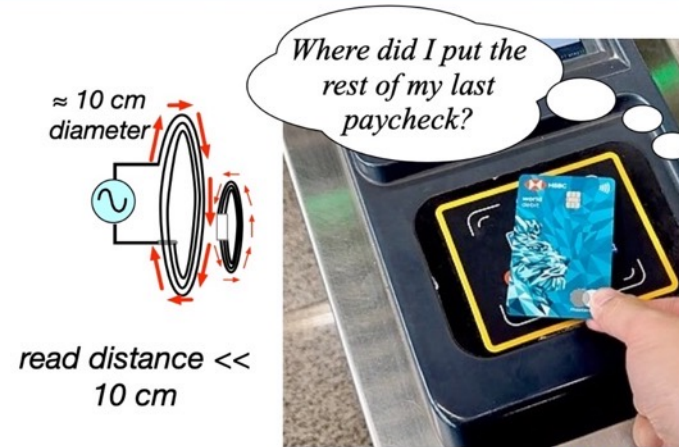
Finding Stuff

- Overview of Radio Location
- Received Signal Strength
- Time of flight
- Angle of arrival
- Phase
- Practical Location

Radio Location

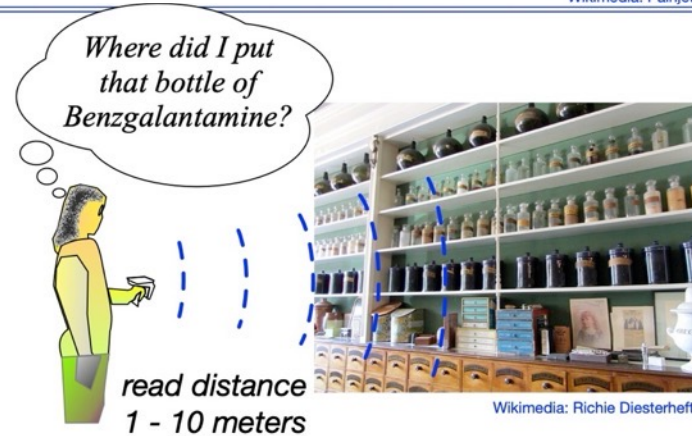
- Identifying an object may not be helpful if we don't know where the object is!
- Tradeoff with range:
 - Inductive tag range 1 to a few cm: if I read it, it's there!
 - Passive tags up to 10's of meters: where is it in the room (or next door)?
 - Active beacons, 10's to 100's of meters: where is it in the neighborhood?

INDUCTIVE HF



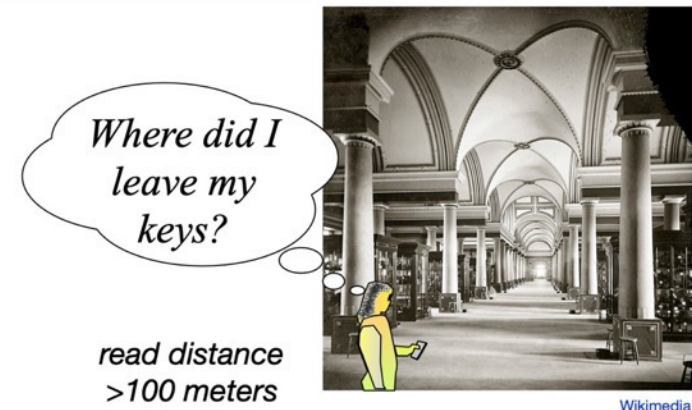
Wikimedia: Painjet

PASSIVE UHF



Wikimedia: Richie Diesterheft

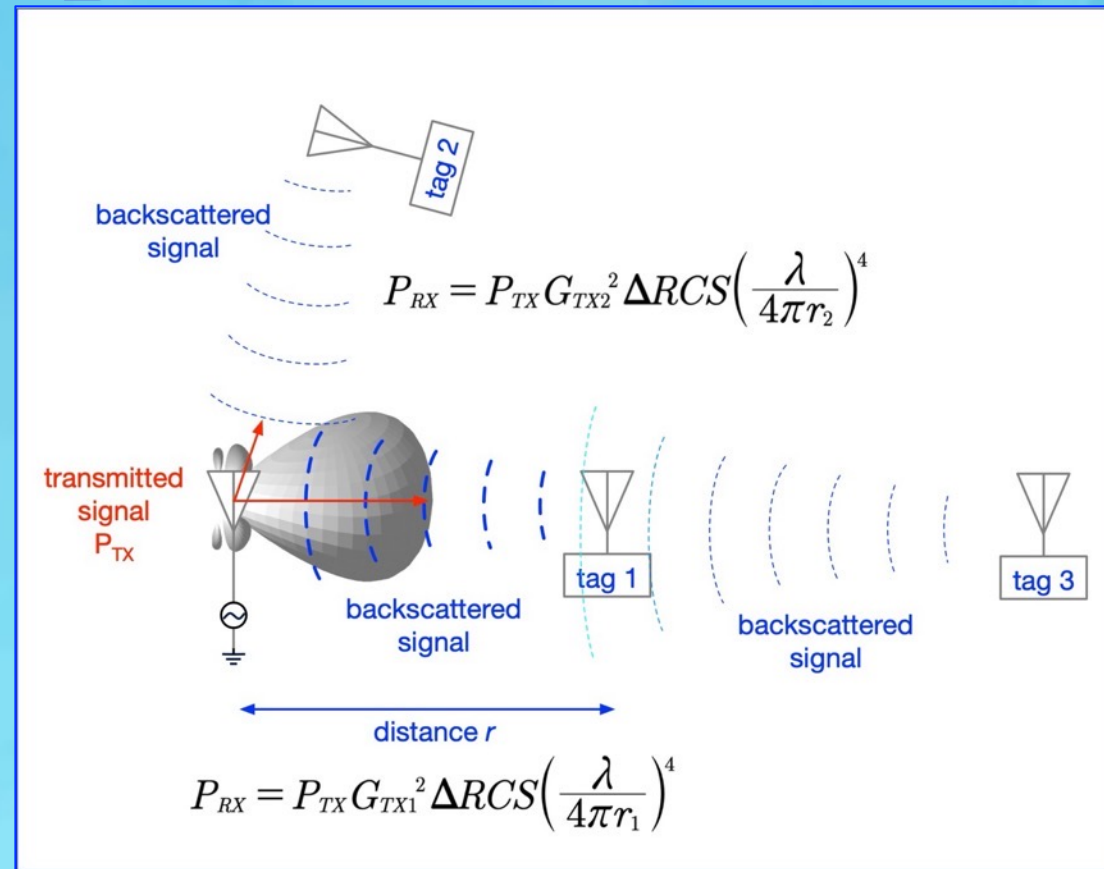
ACTIVE BEACON



Wikimedia

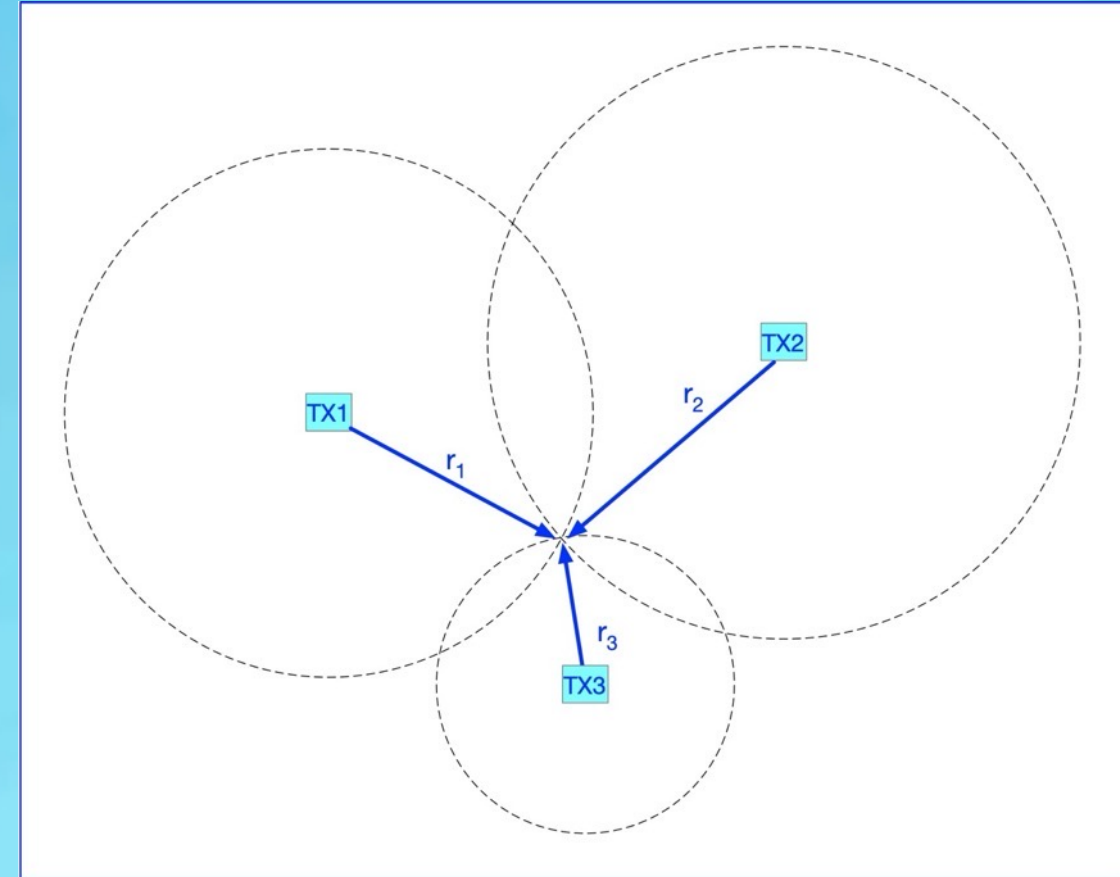
Received Signal Strength (RSSI)

- Beacon: Received power $\approx$ (antenna gain)*(1/distance)²
- Passive tag: Backscatter power $\approx$ (antenna gain)² * (1/distance)⁴
- Both distance and angle of incidence affect RSSI
 - Use multiple antenna locations OR orientations to distinguish between distance and angle



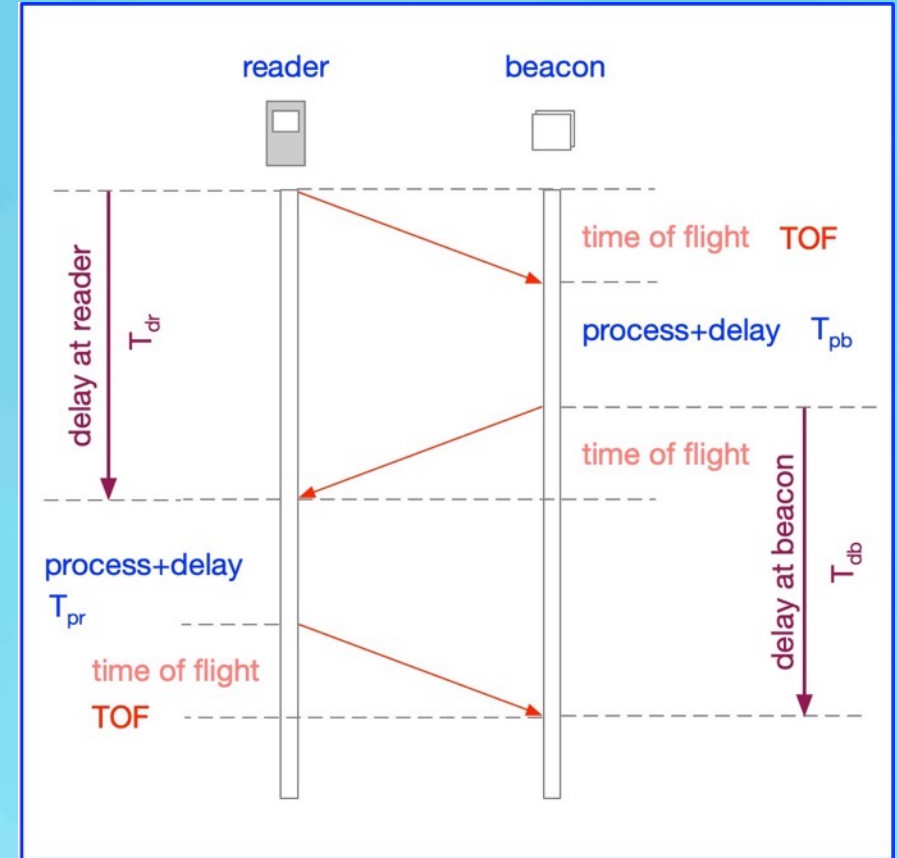
Time of Flight

- RF signals move at the speed of light
 - Distance = (propagation time) • c
- Distance to three non-collinear points = location
 - At least in a plane!
- BUT: Absolute position requires knowledge of absolute time of transmission and reception
 - Often not available



Two-Way Time of Flight

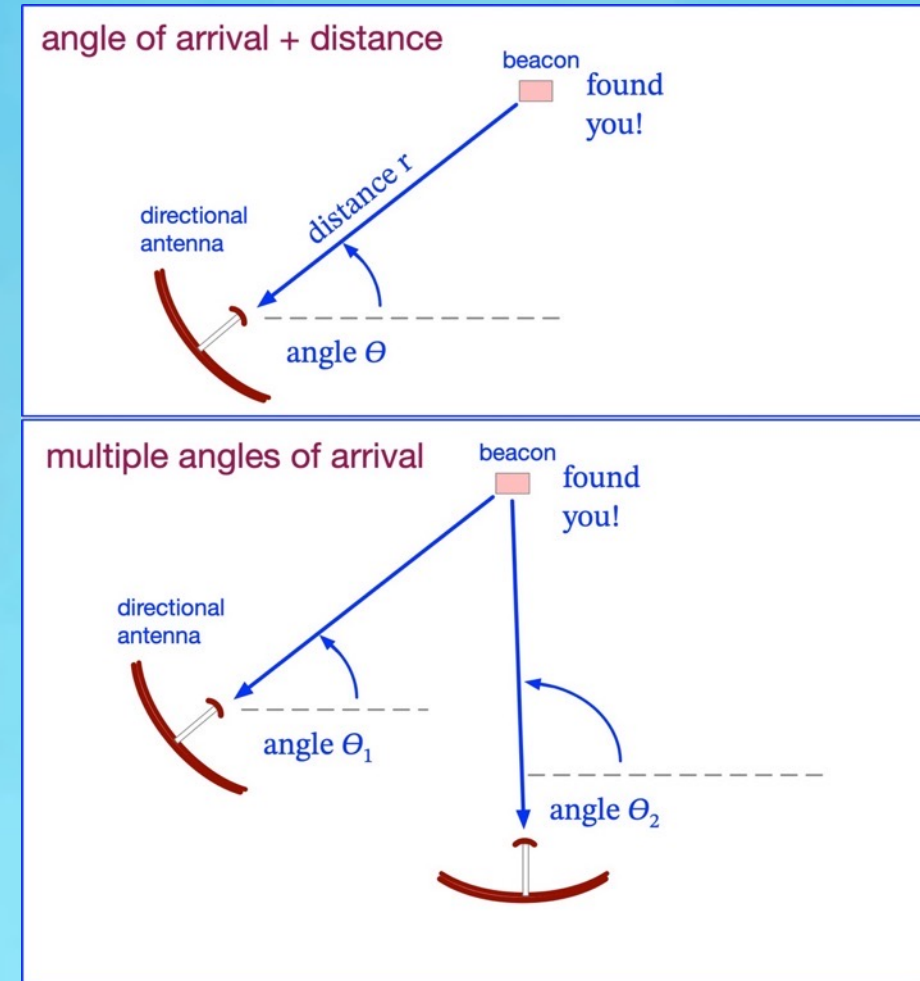
- Bidirectional transmissions can be used to estimate total delay
 - BUT the time for processing received signals and retransmitting is often bigger than propagation times!
 - Example: 5 meters = 15 ns time of flight, whereas typical process delays are many microseconds
 - So use nominal delay, report delay value in packet, send both ways
 - error is then the clock error * DIFFERENCE in delay times, can be < 1 ns
 - Roughly what is used in 802.15.4 with ultrawideband pulsed signals; also supported in BLE, but lower precision



$$TOF = \frac{1}{4}(T_{dr} + T_{db} - T_{pr} - T_{pb})$$

Angle of Arrival

- If we have a directional receive antenna (or array), we can determine signal angle of arrival
 - Rotate a single directional antenna and look for maximum amplitude OR
 - Use phase-vs-position for an array
- If we know the range from time-of-flight, OR we have multiple antennas not collinear with the signal, we can find the location
- BUT easily fooled by multipath!

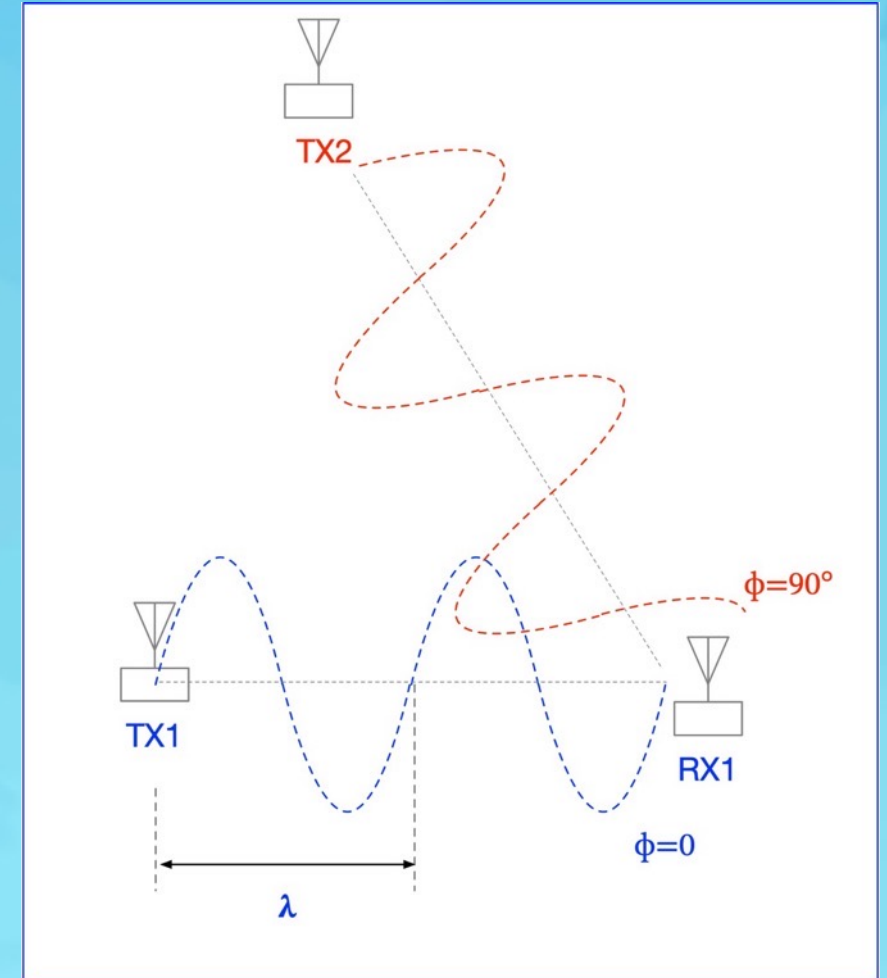


Phase-Based Location

- A single frequency wave has a specific phase at any place and time
- If I can measure the phase of a received signal, I know exactly where I am in the wave
 - BUT I do NOT know which wave I'm in!
- CHANGE in phase vs. frequency gives range

$$\phi = kd = \frac{2\pi fd}{c} \rightarrow \frac{\Delta\phi}{\Delta f} = 2\pi \frac{d}{c}$$
$$d = 3m \rightarrow \frac{d}{c} = \frac{3}{3 \times 10^8} = 10ns$$
$$\Delta f = 20MHz \rightarrow \Delta\phi = 1.25rad = 72^\circ$$

Used in BLE channel sounding, but requires careful phase calibration

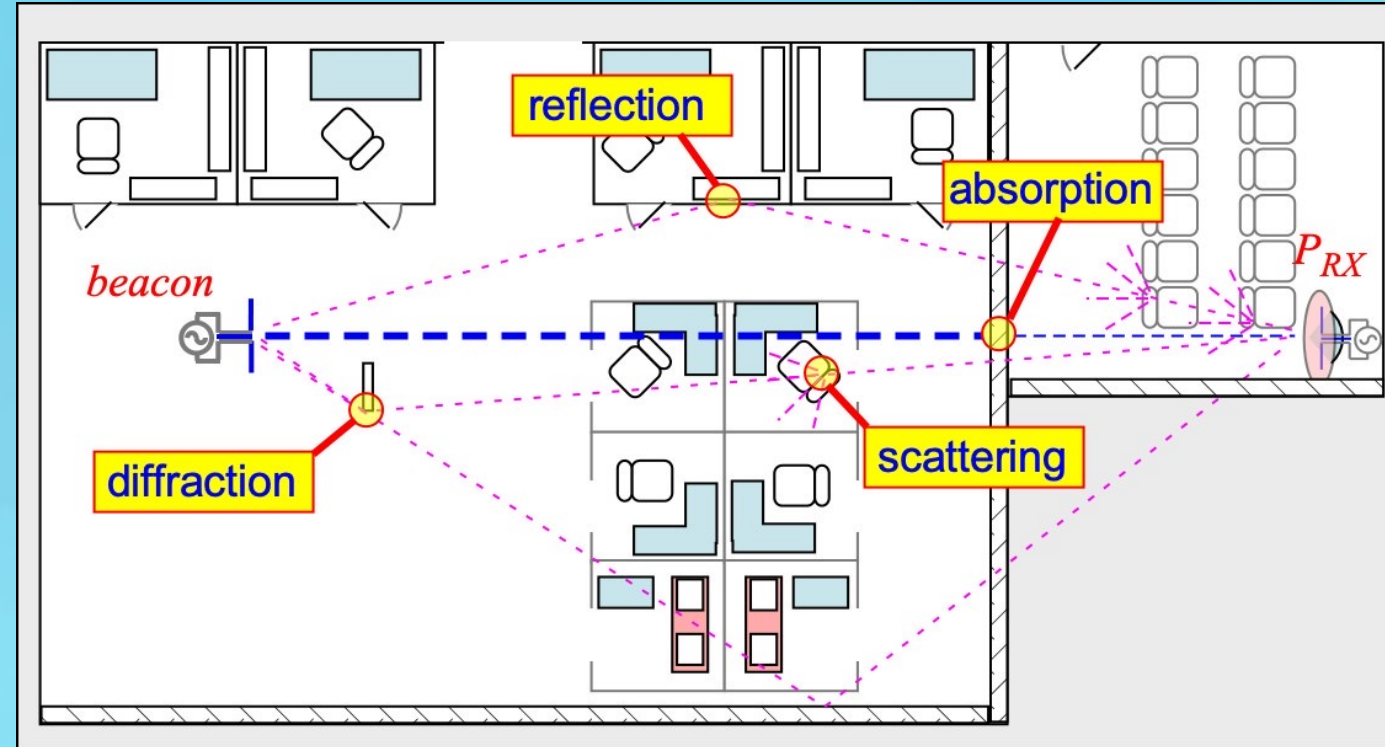


Practical Location (EPC Gen2)

- The simplest way to find objects with UHF RFID depends on SIMPLE handheld readers, basic RSSI data, and HUMAN skills:
 - Handheld reader with short range and some antenna gain
 - Wander through candidate area until you detect the tag you want
 - Randomly vary position and orientation, watch for INCREASE in signal strength
 - Human and reader MOVE in the direction of maximum signal strength
 - ITERATE until visual identification is possible
- VERY fast and efficient in retail environments
 - Robust to propagation issues because you iterate to close range
 - Generalizable to automated procedures
 - e.g. Motroni et. al., IEEE JRFID #8 p. 559, 2024, using phase history

Real Environments

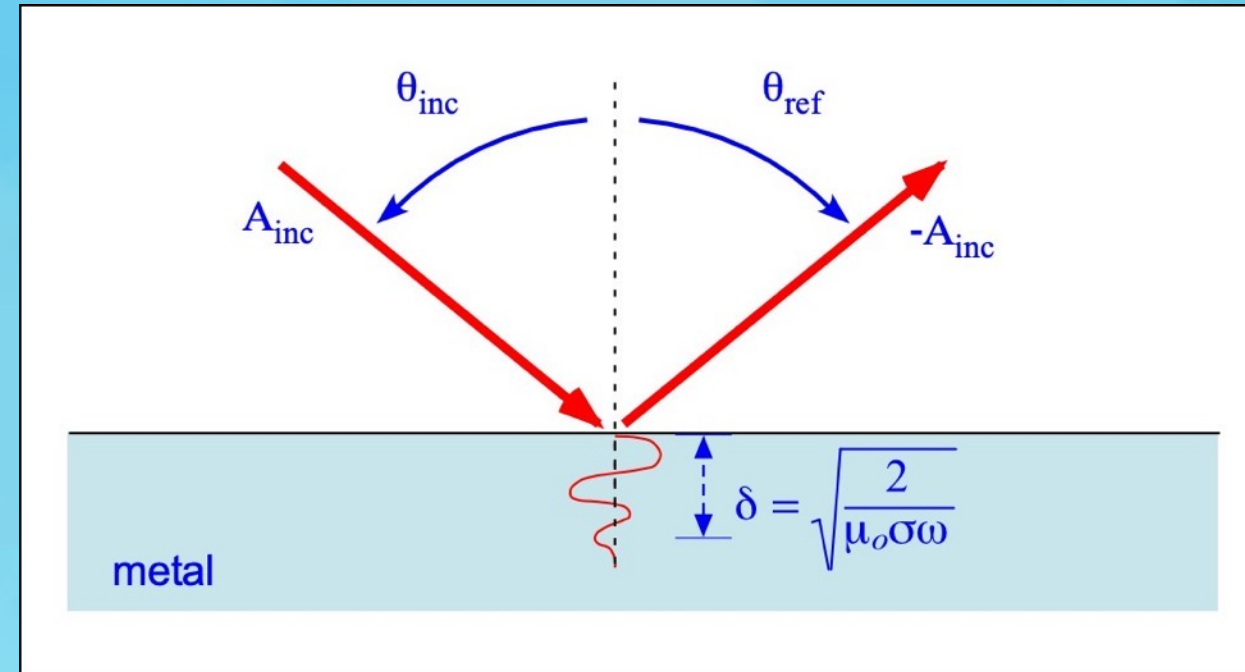
- Many challenges for communication / localization in realistic environments
 - Reflection
 - Absorption
 - Diffraction
 - Multipath
 - Constructive/destructive interference, fading



Backscatter tag goes both ways!
Everything is squared!

Reflection from Metal Surfaces

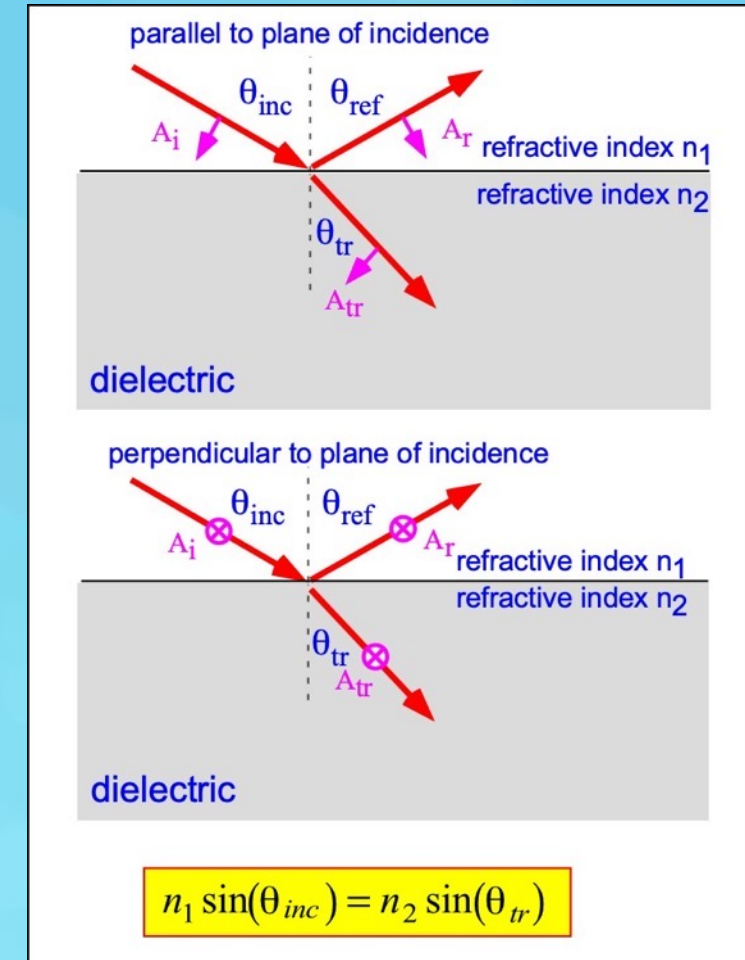
- Incident potentials induce motion of electrons in metals, creating a second wave: REFLECTION
- Smooth metal surface:
 - Angle of incidence = angle of reflection
 - Essentially zero transmission through the metal (but see Diffraction!)



Typical values of δ 1-10 microns at GHz frequencies...

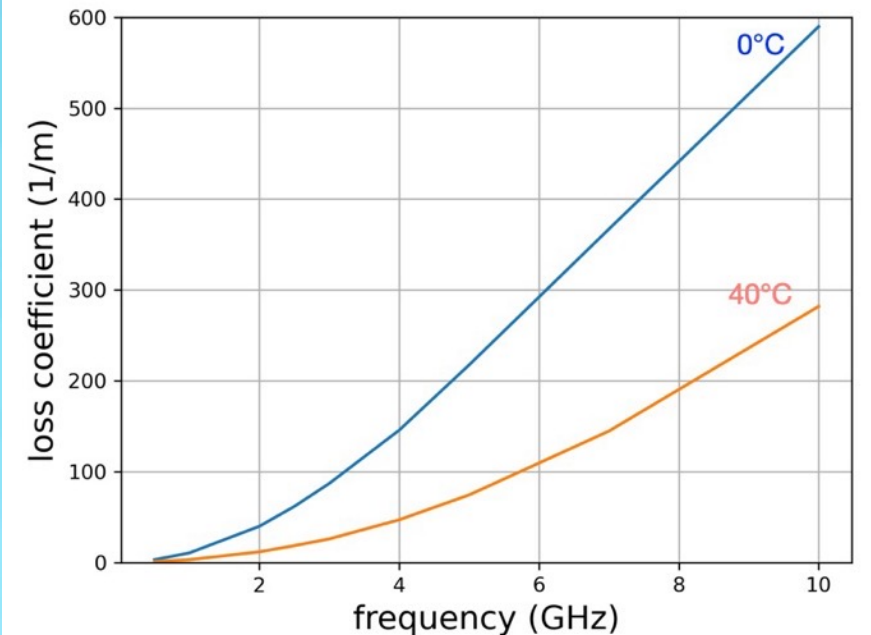
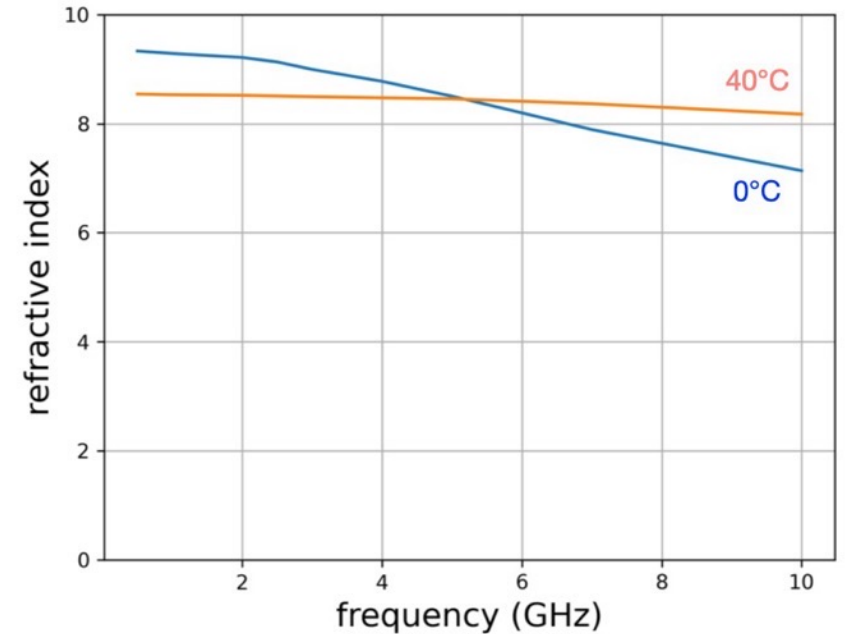
Dielectric Surface

- Part of signal is reflected, part transmitted through dielectric
 - Often also absorption
- Transmitted signal is usually oriented differently from incident signal, but returns to original direction on exit IF surfaces are parallel
- Angle of reflection is independent of polarization, but magnitude is NOT!
 - Ex: 0 reflection from the floor for vertical polarization, $\approx 60^\circ$ incidence (Brewster's angle)



Water

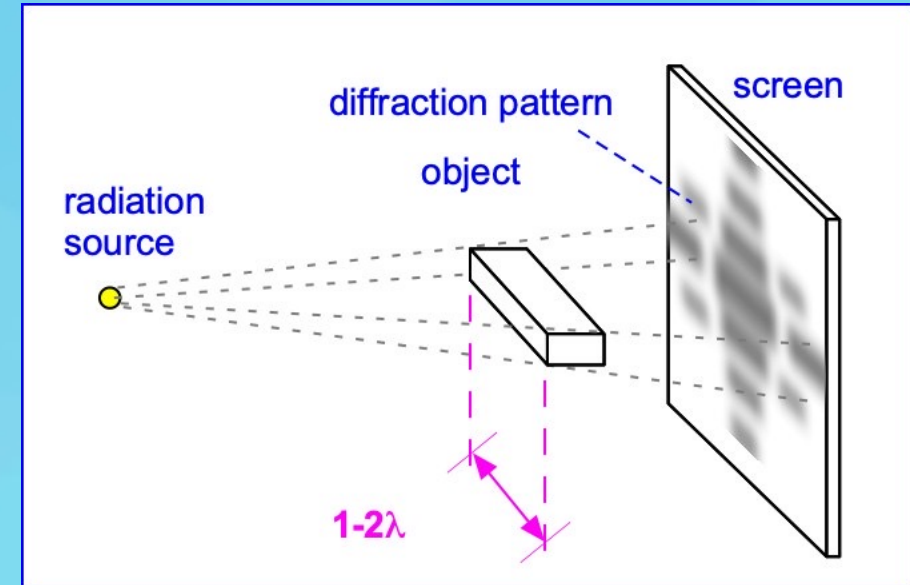
- Water is an unusual dielectric
 - Very high dielectric constant at RF frequencies:
 - $n = 8$ to 9 for $f < 5$ GHz
 - Absorption $\approx 7/\text{m}$ @ 0.9 GHz, $40/\text{m}$ @ 2.4 GHz at room temperature
 - 10 dB attenuation in 15 cm @ 0.9 , 2.5 cm @ 2.4 GHz
- Humans are mostly water, strong reflectors and absorbers
- Food items are also often all wet



based on Turner et. al., J. Atmospheric and Oceanic Tech v 33 p. 33 (2016)

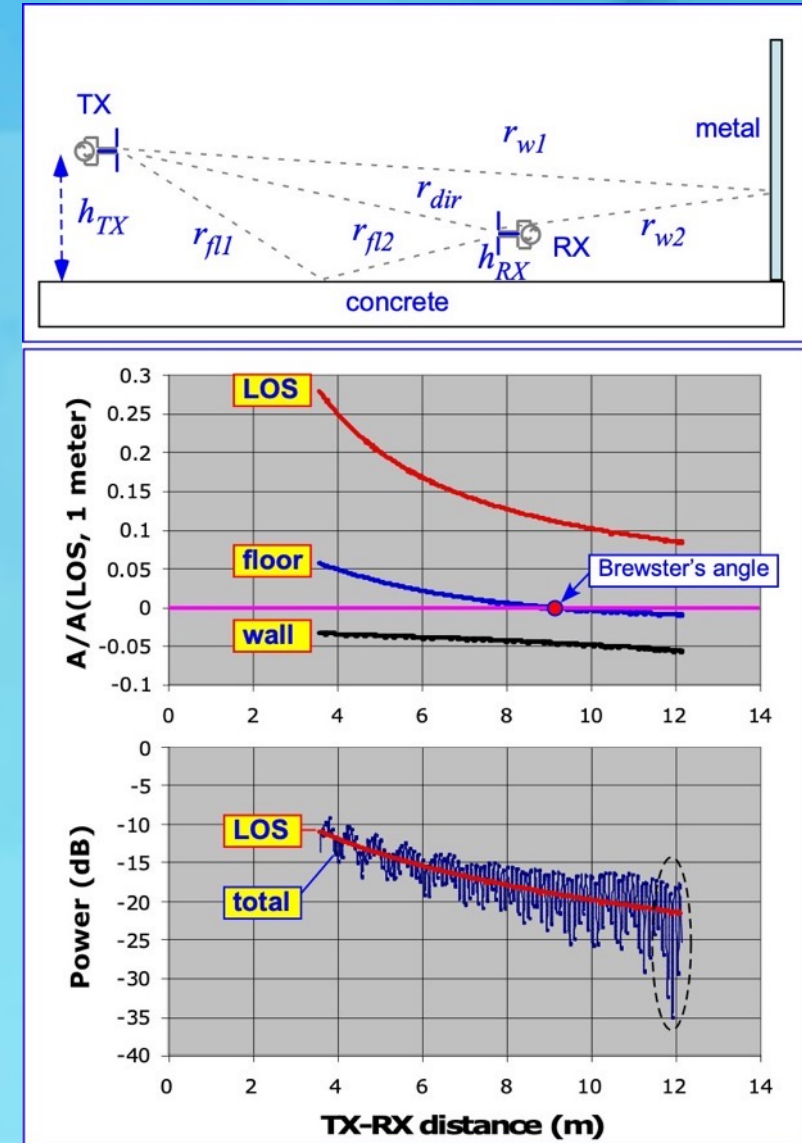
Diffraction

- The current that sends fields to 0 inside the metal does NOT necessarily have the same effect far away: DIFFRACTION
 - Typically important for object size of ≈ 0.1 wavelength to a few wavelengths
 - That's 3 cm to 3 meters for 1 GHz = TYPICAL SIZE OF OBJECTS IN HUMAN WORLD
- Result is that waves “bend around” human-sized obstacles
 - obstacles act as (re-)transmit antennas
 - response can be very complex



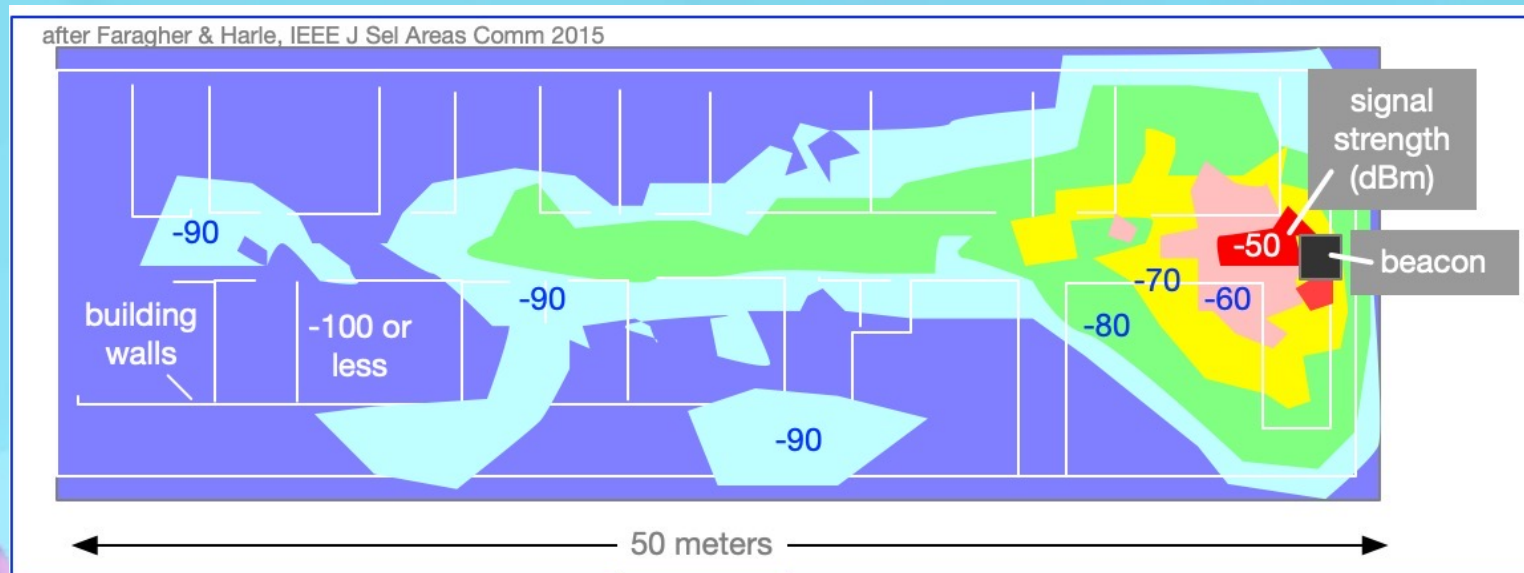
Multipath

- Real environments usually have LOTS of stuff
 - Direct, reflected, diffracted, transmitted beams may add or subtract depending on relative phase, polarization
- Result: MULTIPATH FADING
 - VERY complex spatial/time dependence of amplitude and phase for each path
 - Add them all up (with receive antenna gain) to get – a mess!
 - SIMPLE example at right: 2.45 GHz direct, floor reflection, wall reflection already give >10 dB fading at 10 meters
 - Real world is often much more complex



Empirical Approach: Fingerprinting

- Collect RSSI data for multiple reader locations and multiple tag or beacon locations
- AI or numerical fit to match received signals to environment and locate tag or beacon



Example for BLE beacon in building interior

PROBLEMS:

- Time dependence as people and things move
- Computational complexity with multiple beacons

Finding Things Found Out

- Accurate location is possible:
 - In open spaces, especially with UWB signals
 - In complex spaces if multiple simultaneous paths AND characterization data (fingerprints) are available
 - With human (or AI) control of antenna position/orientation and ability to get to short range

Conclusions

- Radio waves have many advantages over light for finding and identifying objects in SOME circumstances
- Different frequencies and wavelengths have different time and space scales and behavior in practical environments, thus different applications
- Transmission and reflection can both be used to send signals
- Equipment choice is a complicated tradeoff of size, cost, speed, application requirements, regulations, standards
- Once you get something that works you might leave it alone!
 - Or not... that's what the conference is for!

Thanks to... (at least)

- The D4N team
- Brendon Parsons
- Christopher Saetia
- Sam Singh
- Rich Marshall
- Juho Partanen
- RFID Inc.: Lucas Heurich, James Heurich
- ASYGN: Sofia Benouakta
- Pavel Nikitin

...and to everyone in the audience who stayed awake through the talk!

ANY QUESTIONS...

...YOU DIDN'T WANT TO ASK
Because you don't want to know



Additional Information

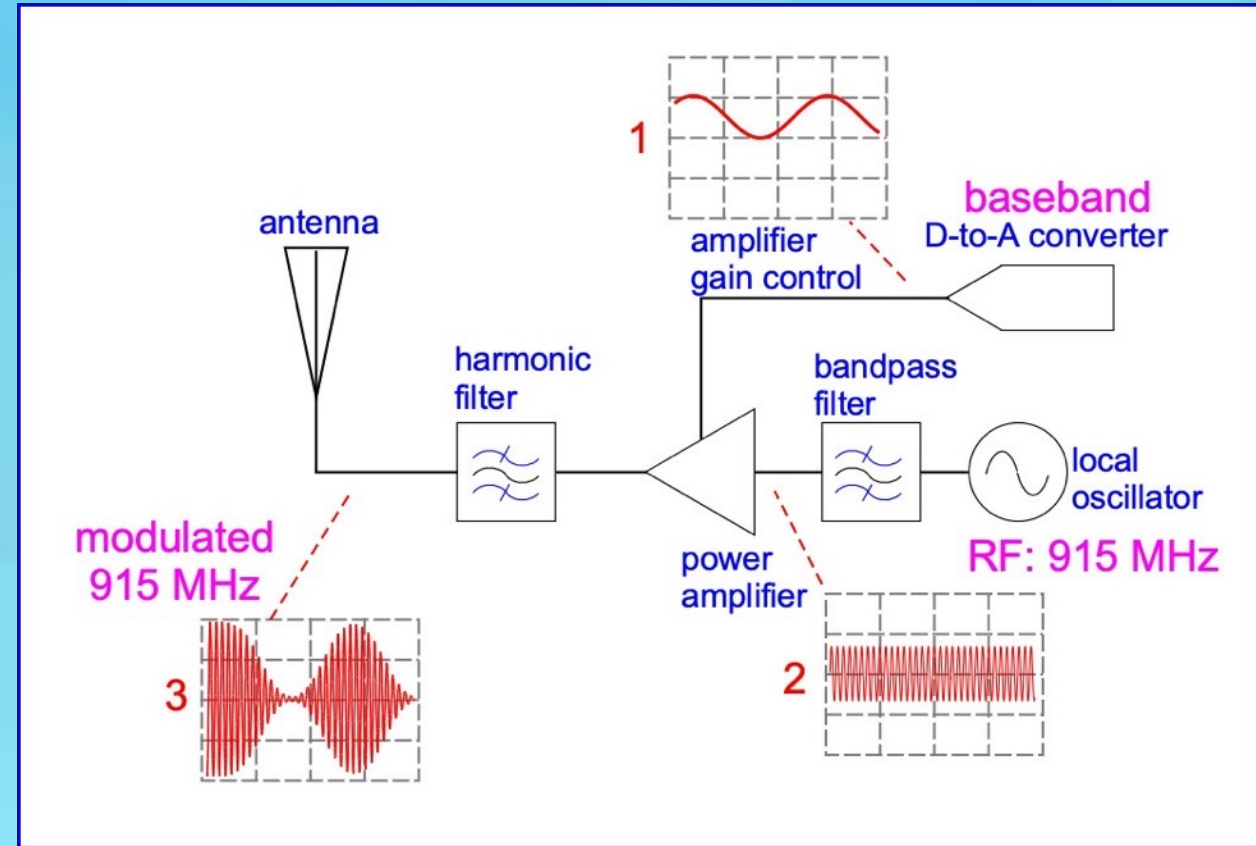
- Radio architectures
- BLE packet data ordering
- Transmission lines and the Smith chart
- RFID/BLE bands and regulatory issues
- Statistical models of received power in real environments
- RF formula summaries (Greg Durgin)
- Ultrawideband modulation and coding
- Phase-based ranging details
- Tag modulation
- Sensor tags
- Dielectric reflection: Brewster's angle
- Complex exponentials, gradients

Radios

- Reader Architecture
 - Transmitter
 - Receiver
 - Combined TX/RX
- Tag/Beacon Architecture
 - Chipless
 - Passive
 - Active

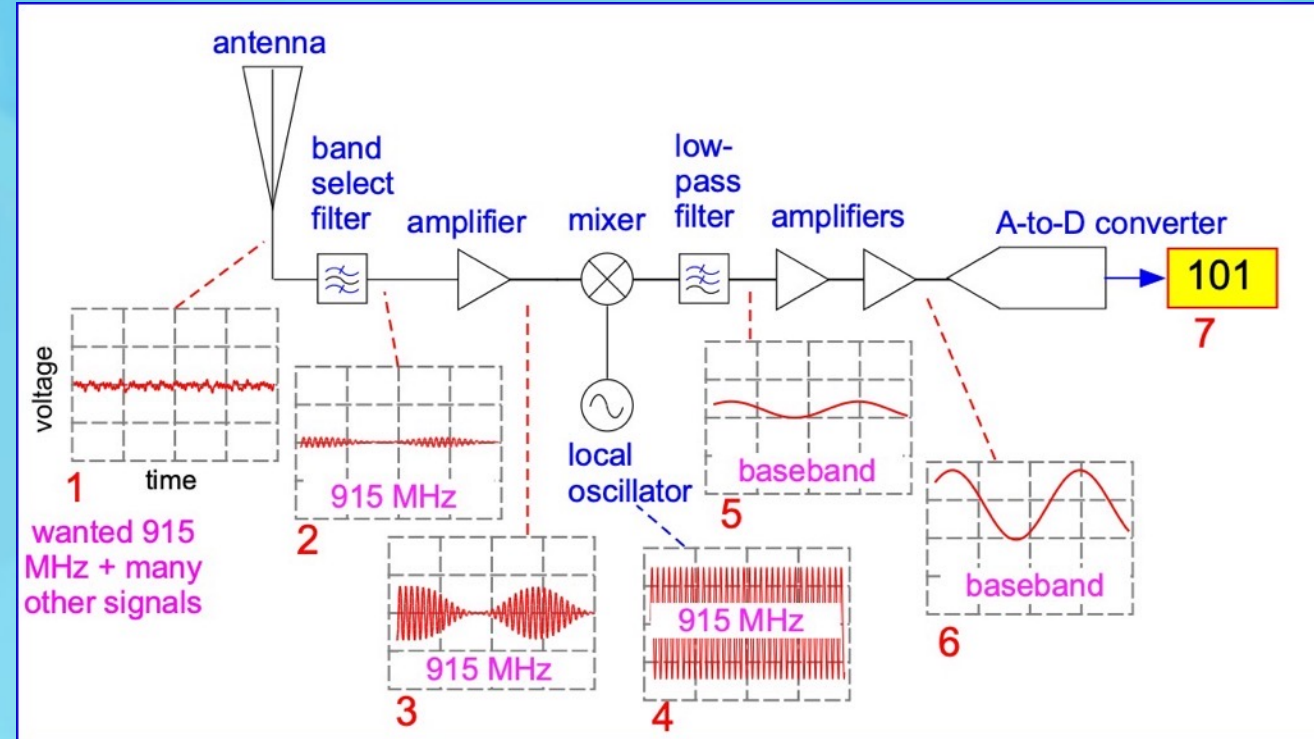
Example Transmitter Architecture

- Direct-conversion with modulation:
 - Local oscillator creates constant sinusoidal signal; frequency varies e.g. over allowed channels in 902-928 MHz ISM band
 - Amplify with varying gain determined by baseband signal
 - Resulting modulated signal is filtered to remove any harmonics, then sent to antenna
 - Note that in many cases, two signals 90 degrees out of phase may be used to support phase-modulation as well as amplitude-modulation



Example Receiver Architecture

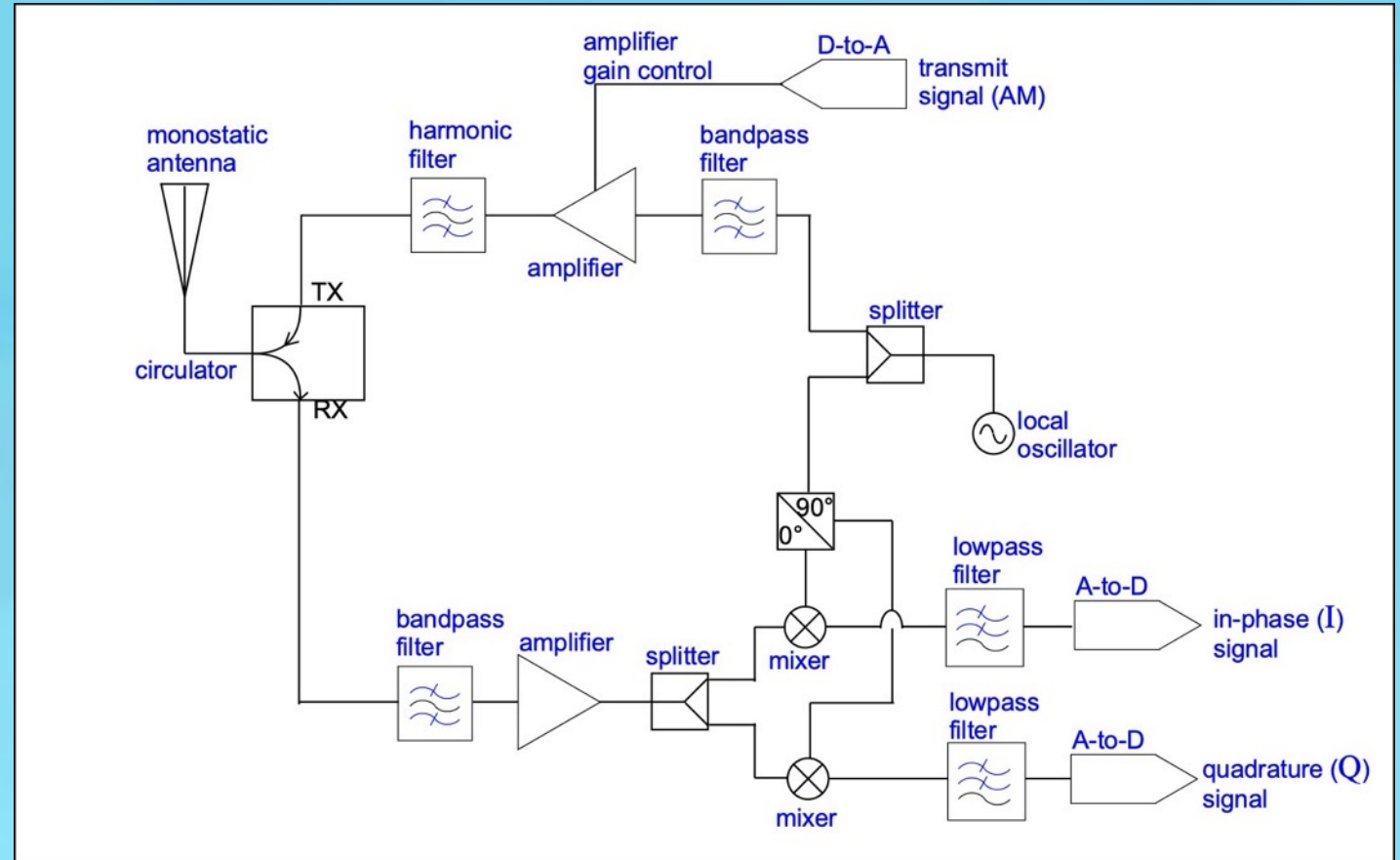
- Direct Conversion receiver:
 - Optional filtering of band (e.g. US ISM 902-928 MHz)
 - Optional amplification of RF signal
 - Local oscillator signal mixed with received signal using nonlinear device:
 - Result: $f(\text{LO}) + f(\text{RF})$, $f(\text{LO}) - f(\text{RF})$
 - Filter to select only the difference ($f(\text{LO})$), amplify, convert to digital



For backscatter radio, the same local oscillator supports transmit and receive. Two separate paths using 90° phase-shifted oscillator signals (I and Q) may be used to detect phase of the received signal

Reader TX/RX Architecture

- Example of monostatic (one-antenna) reader
 - Single local oscillator for TX and RX, both direct conversion
 - Amplitude modulation for TX; in-phase/quadrature (I/Q) demodulation
 - Circulator connects both transmit and receive to one antenna, minimizes TX-RX coupling (we hope!)



after reader diagram from Pavel Nikitin

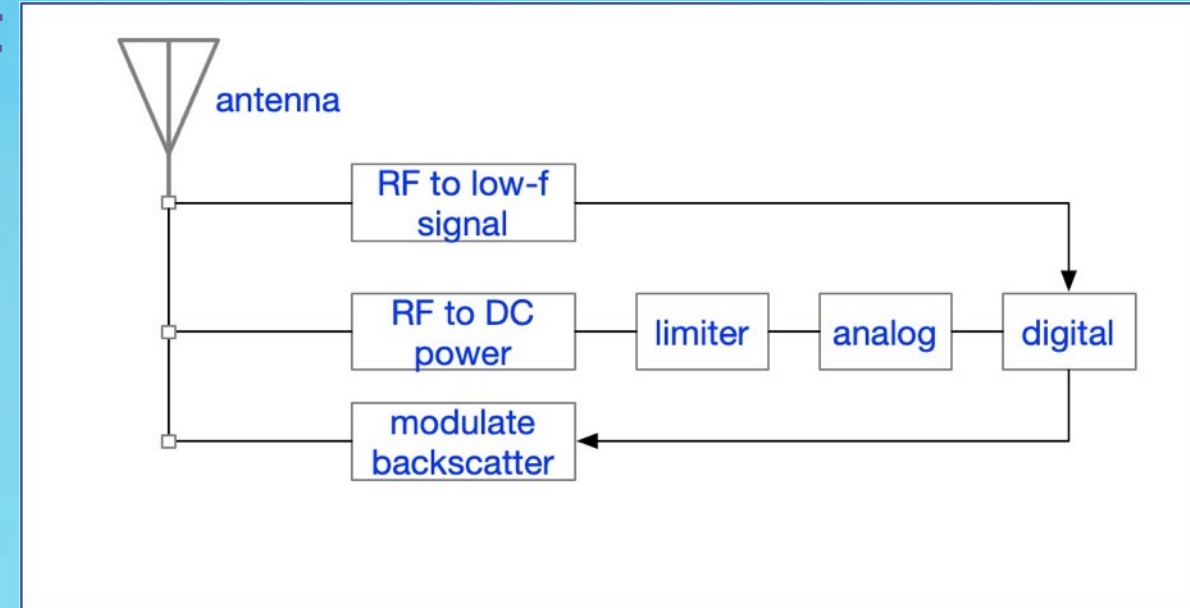
Commercial readers may include additional amplifier stages, other features

Tag Architecture

- Chipless tag needs to:
 - Vary RF response to send an informative signal to the transmitter
- Chip tag needs to:
 - Wake up when transmitted signal is present
 - Detect header and reader message(s)
 - Vary antenna behavior to backscatter response
- Active beacon needs to:
 - Send a fixed signal at a fixed time interval
 - Option to listen for trigger or turnon
 - Option to respond to sensor inputs
 - Option for full duplex communication with reader

Passive Tag Architecture

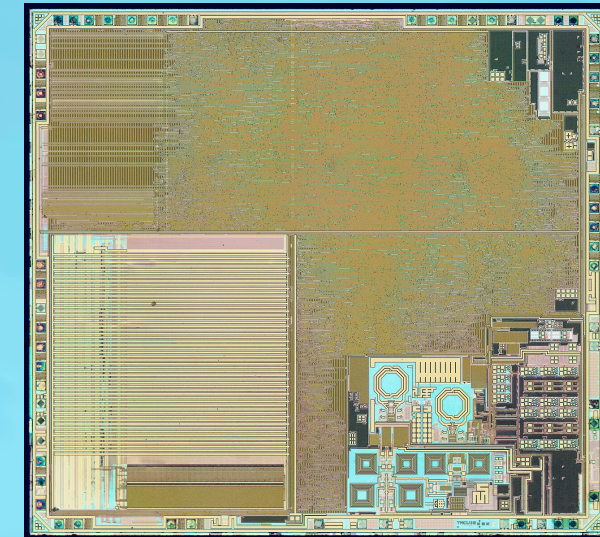
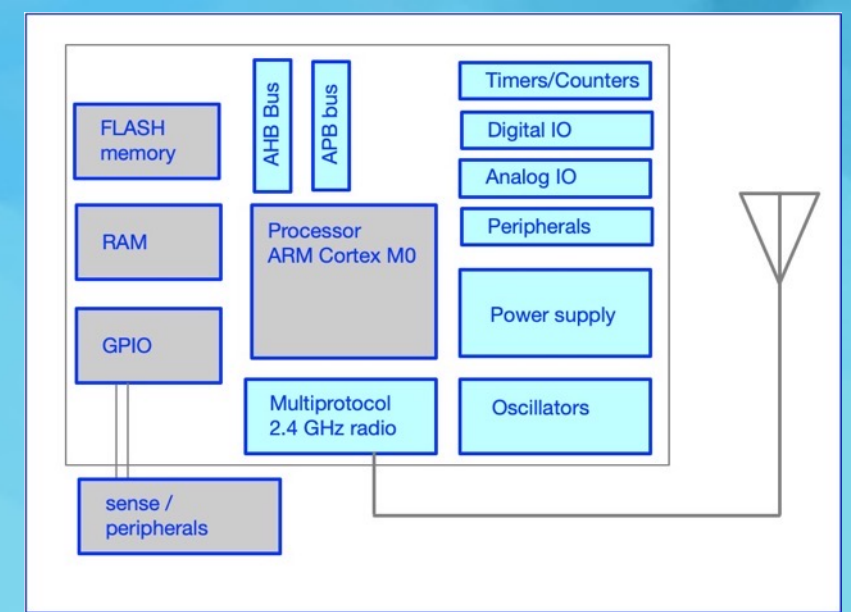
- Tag first needs to convert incident RF to DC to operate analog and digital circuitry
 - Stacked rectification to boost voltage
- Additional data blocks:
 - Envelope detector for data from reader
 - Modulate backscattered signal by changing load presented to the antenna to reply
- Details in Tutorials #2 and #3



After Design and Implementation of A Sub-1V Analog Front-end for Passive UHF RFID Tag, J. Huang, J., Shen, X. Wang [Shenzhen Medica / Peking U] 2nd Int'l Conf Inf Tech Computer App (ITCA) 2020 p. 660

Active Tag Architecture

- Battery for power, memory for data
- Turnon: timer or optional sensor/listener
- Memory access, beacon transmission
- Optional interfaces to surroundings / sensor data
- Details in tutorial #4

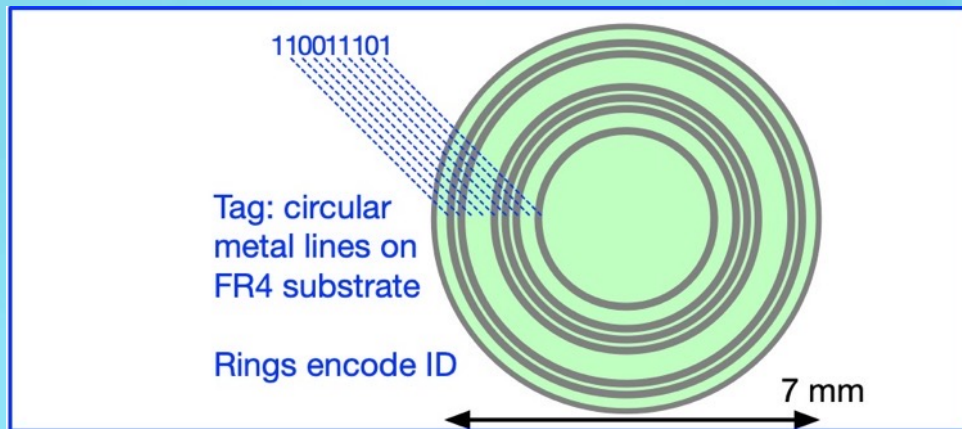


Nordic Semi
nrf51822

<http://zeptobars.com/en/read/nRF51822-Bluetooth-LE-SoC-Cortex-M0>

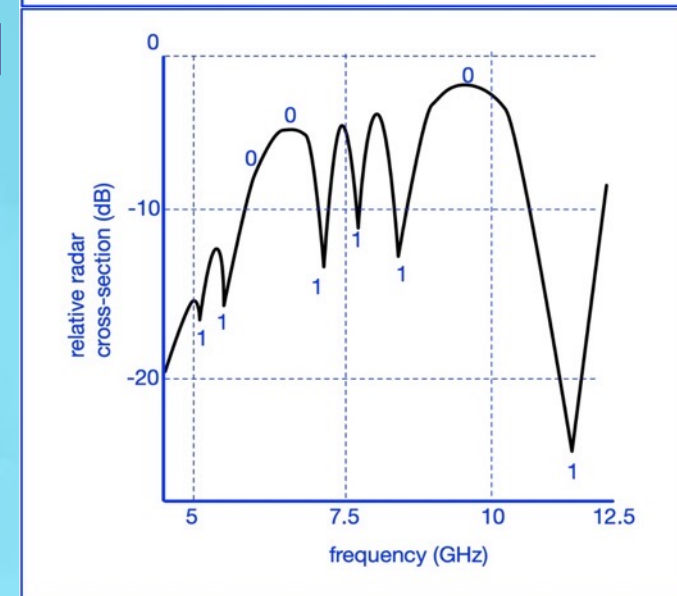
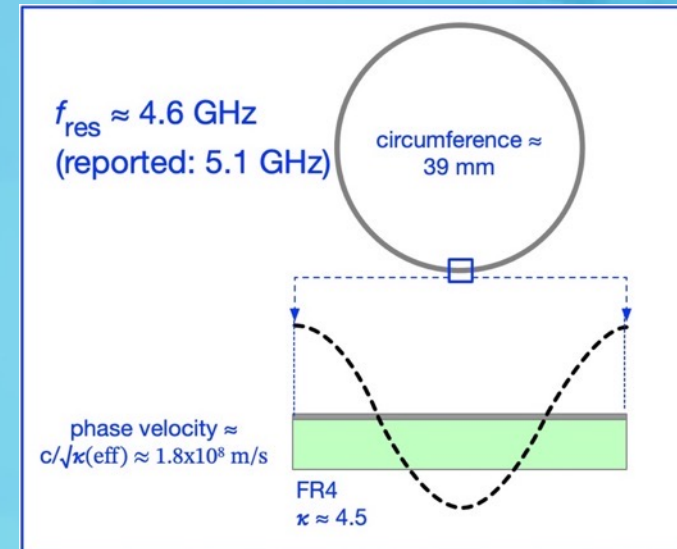
Chipless Tag Example

- Circular FR4 substrate with metallic rings as resonators
 - Based on Habib et. al. IEEE EIT 2016



- Roughly: just wave propagating around a circular microstrip line

- RESULT: broadband reflection vs. frequency = tag ID
- No chip needed
 - BUT 9 bits = 512 tags! Not much ID space...



Response estimate
based on Habib figure 5

Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE) Packet: Data Ordering

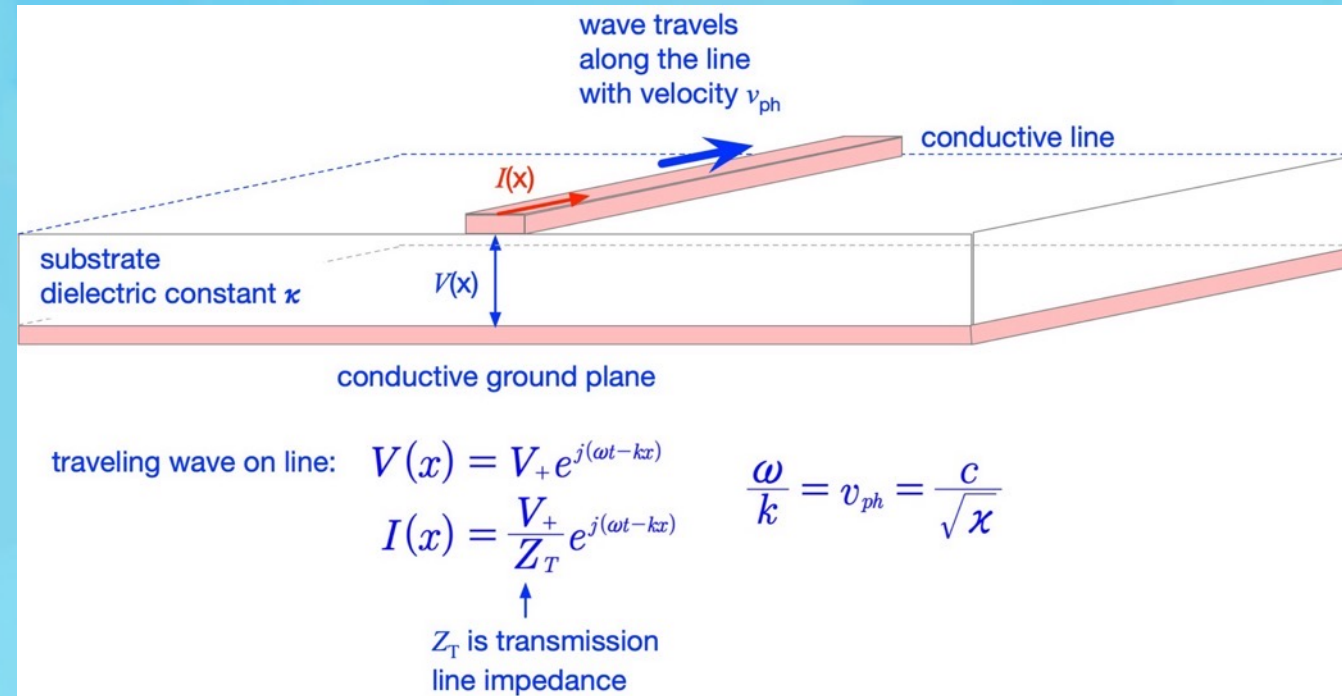
- Data is SENT Least-Significant-Byte (LSB) first ("Little-Endian"), but sometimes written in conventional hexadecimal byte format
 - Example: iBeacon packet MAJOR identifier from previous slide
 - This is the opposite of how we usually write numbers and can be confusing!
- Note manufacturer-specific packet sections may use other conventions, e.g. MSB!
 - Tutorial #4 will provide more details

shown as: **f7e8**
hexadecimal value: **0xe8f7 = 59,639 (decimal)**
sent as: **1111 0111 1110 1000**
LSB first: **f 7 e 8**

Transmission Lines

Valid when wavelength $\gg$
substrate thickness and line width

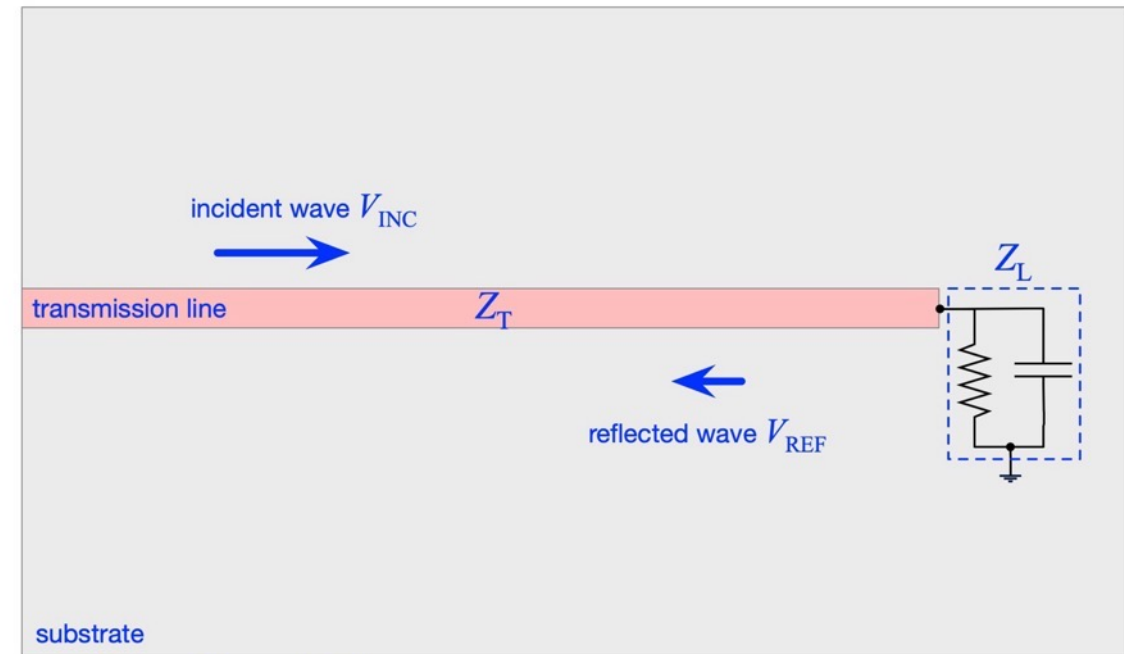
- Radio waves can propagate along appropriate metal structures
 - Most common is a conductive line over a conductive ground plane, but many other waveguide structures possible
- If loss is small, the wave is simply moving along the transmission line
 - Although velocity is less than that of light in vacuum!



Note that this works because the current in the line and the ground plane cancel when viewed from far away: no radiation!

Reflections on Reflection

- To use the signal you connect the transmission line to a load
 - The load has a finite impedance, often frequency-dependent
- If the load impedance is not equal to the transmission line impedance, some of the signal is reflected



$$V = V_{INC} + V_{REF}$$

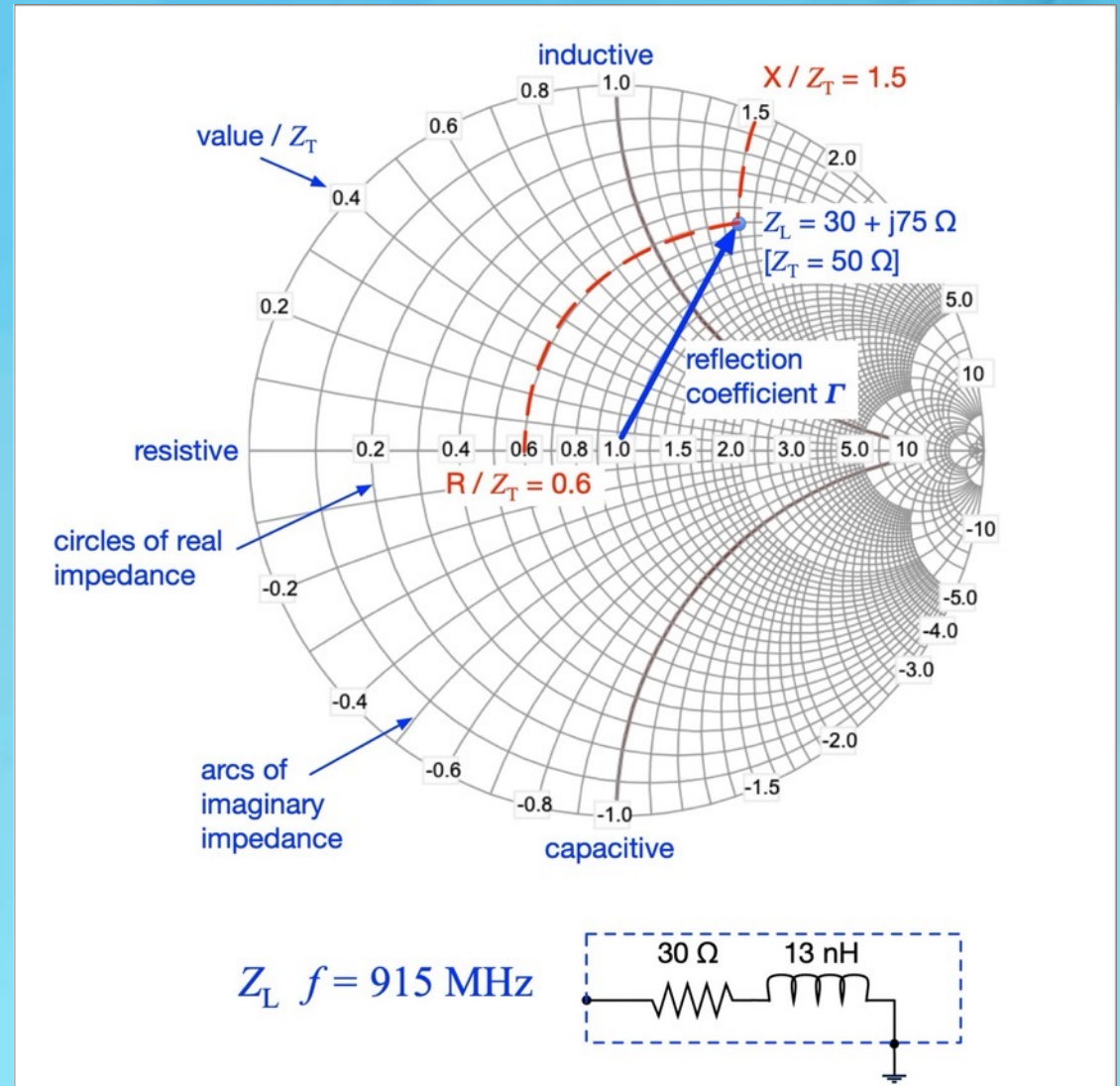
$$I = I_{INC} - I_{REF}$$

$$V_{REF} = \Gamma V_{INC}$$

$$\text{reflection coefficient } \Gamma = \frac{Z_L - Z_T}{Z_L + Z_T}$$

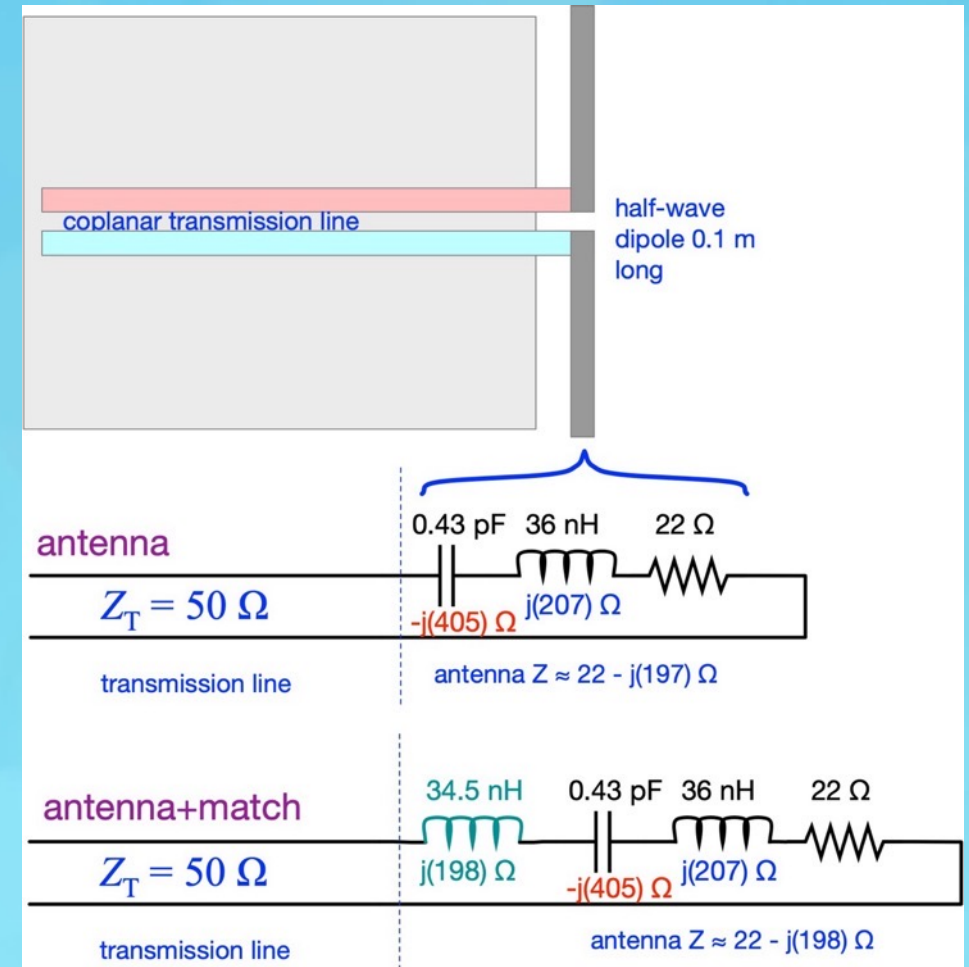
The Smith Chart

- The reflection coefficient is a point in the complex plane
 - Passive elements require $|\Gamma| \leq 1$
- If we overlay the corresponding load impedance for each complex reflection, we get the Smith Chart
 - Translation between complex reflection and impedance



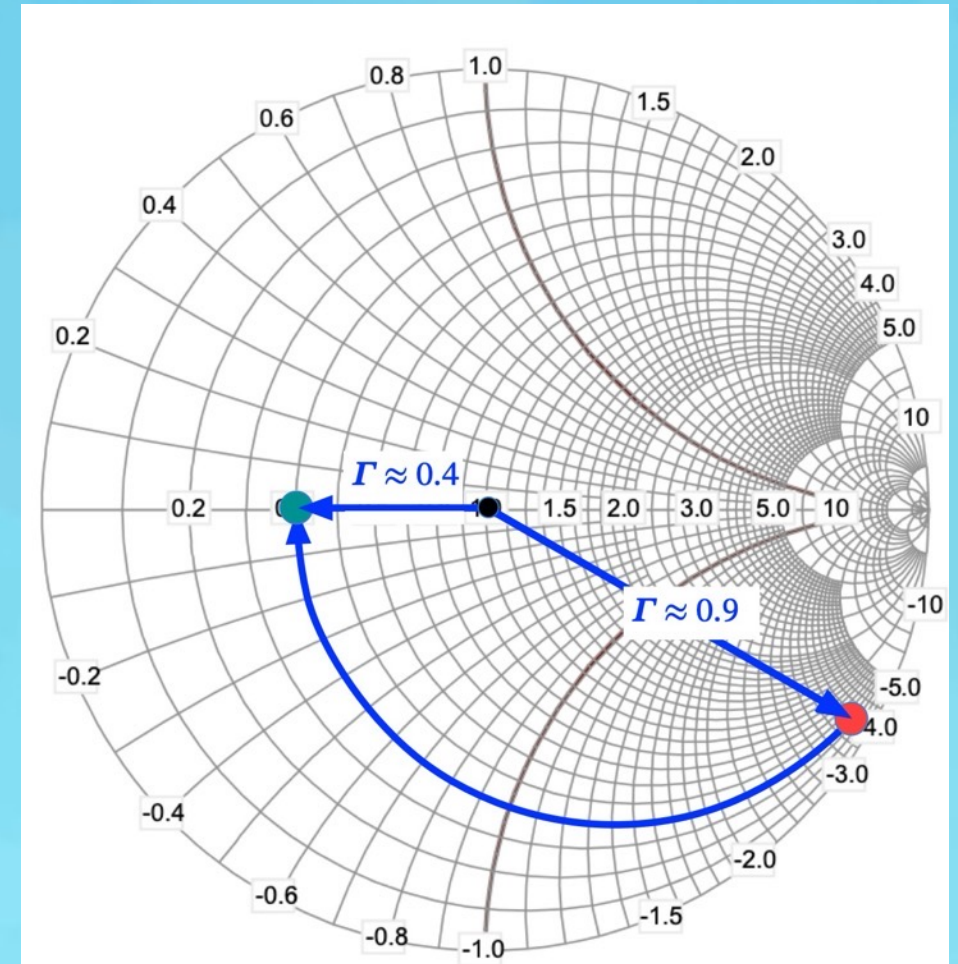
Antenna Matching Example

- Transmission line ($Z=50\ \Omega$) connected to dipole antenna
 - Length about $\lambda/3$
 - Not matched; part of the signal will be reflected
- Add series inductor to remove reactive component of antenna impedance
- We can do the math, OR we can use the Smith chart to SEE what's happening...



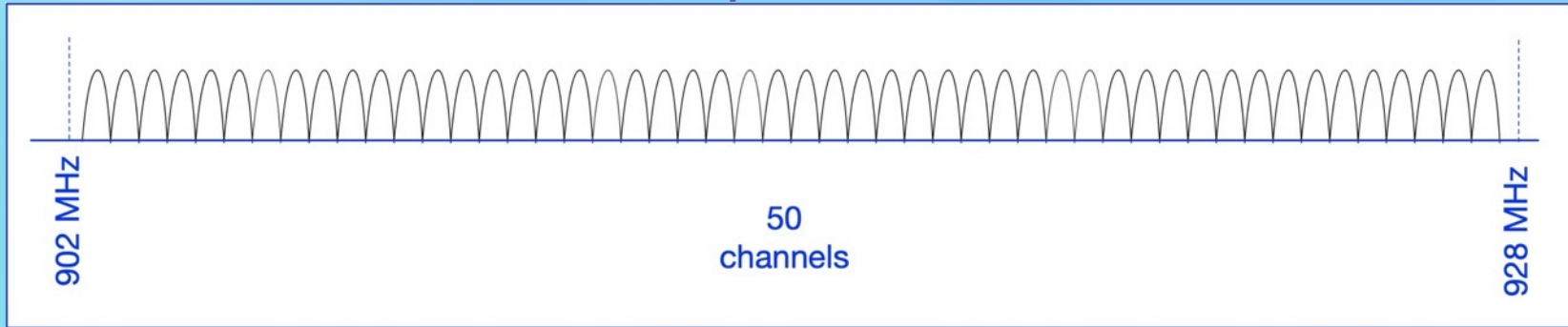
Antenna Matching Example: Smith Chart View

- Antenna has reflection coefficient of about 0.9 (red dot)
 - Very little power will be transmitted by the unmatched antenna
- Series inductor causes us to rotate on a circle of constant real impedance
 - Minimum when we reach real axis (green dot)
- With addition of the matching circuit, reflection coefficient reduced to 0.4
 - Most of the power from the transmission line gets to the antenna
 - We can do better with additional shunt elements (future discussion)

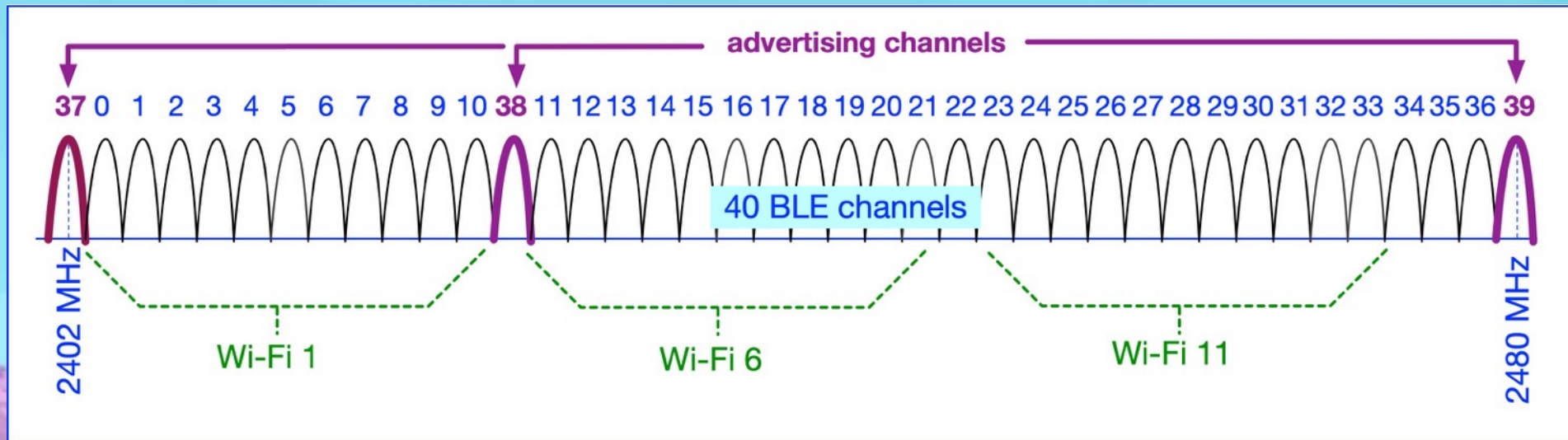


Common RFID Band Channels

- UHF: ISM 902-928 MHz, 500 kHz channels



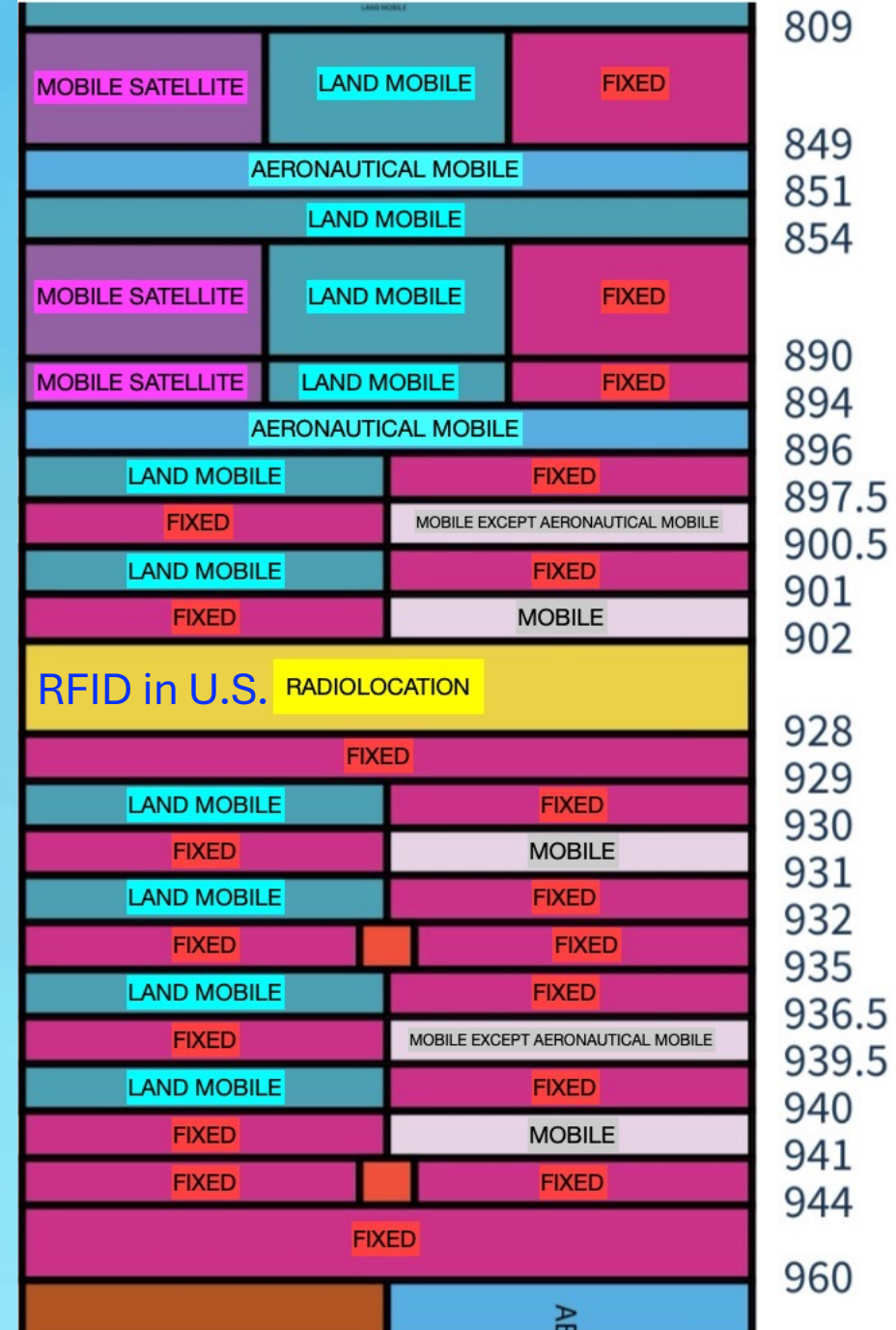
- BLE: ISM 2400-2483 MHz, 2 MHz channels



Regulatory Issues

- Governments have regulated frequency usage and allowed power since early 20th century
 - US FCC, EU, Japan, China, Americas, etc. SIMILAR BUT NOT THE SAME
- Most RFID applications use specific shared frequency bands :
 - Anyone can use BUT
 - Rules on maximum power, antenna gain, channel size, usage times

For current global RFID information see:
 “Overview of UHF frequency allocations for RAIN RFID”
 Available from
<https://therainalliance.org/radio-regulations-advisory-council/>



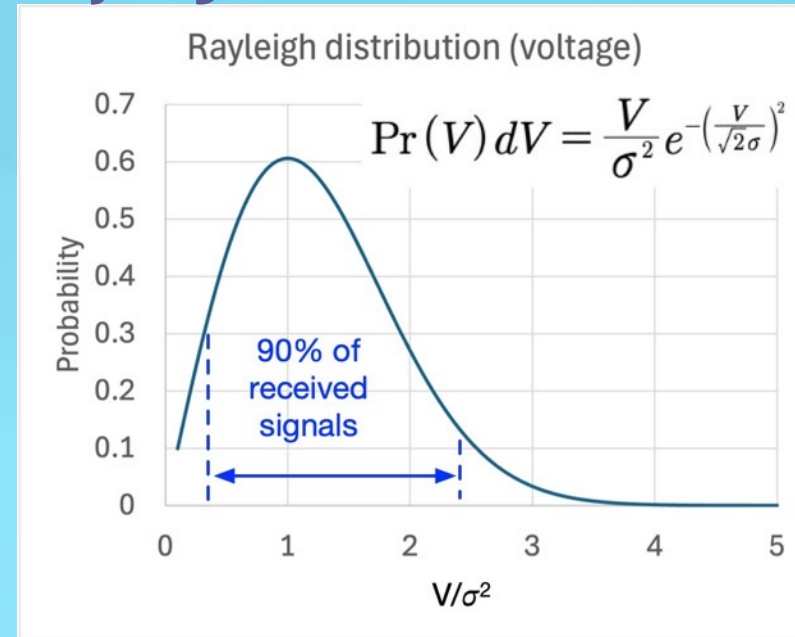
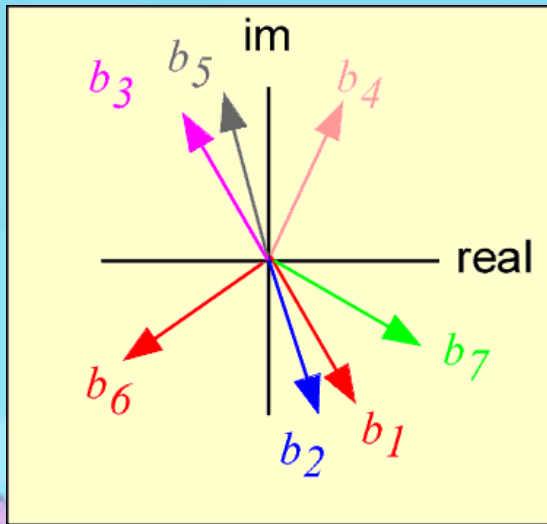
Frequency (MHz)

United States
 Frequency Allocations
 NTIA September 2025

<https://www.ntia.gov/page/united-states-frequency-allocation-chart>

Statistical Models of Received Power

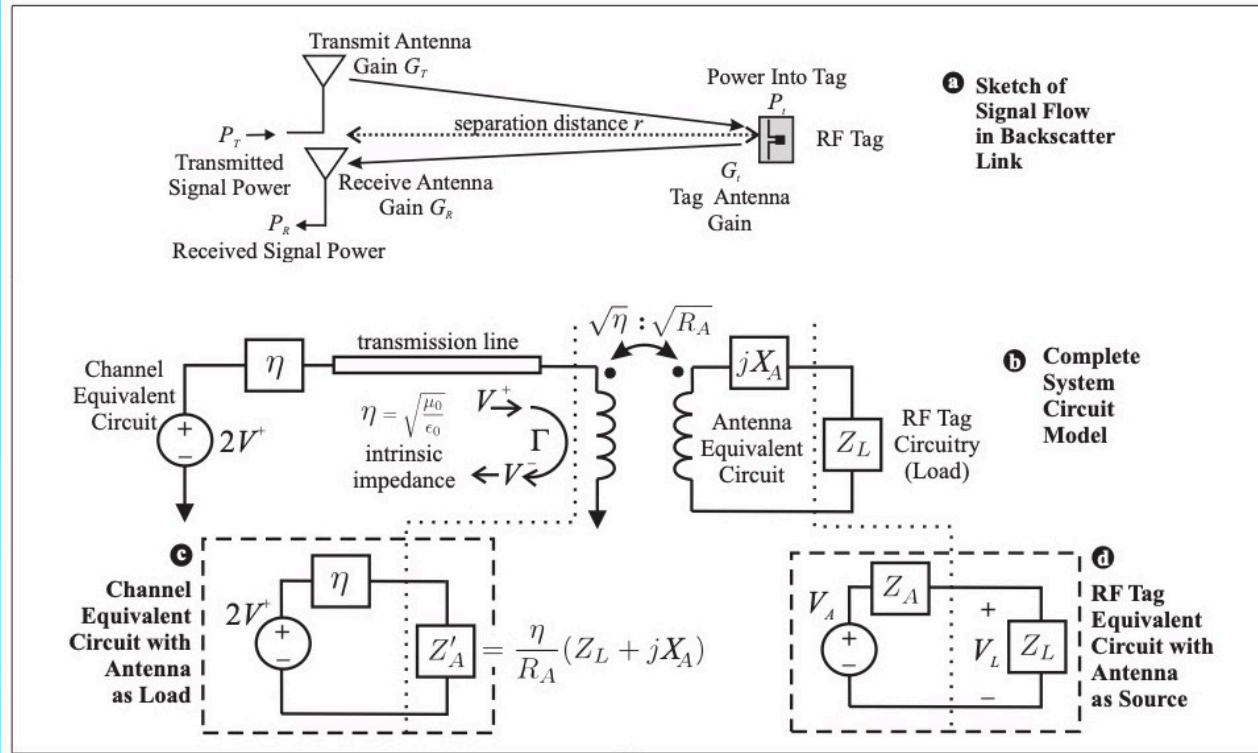
- How can we model what we will get in a complicated environment?
- Traditional approach: admit ignorance
- Example: assume large number of paths, each provides the same received voltage but at random phase
- For more than ≈ 6 beams, the received voltage follows a Rayleigh distribution:



Hard to use raw RSSI for location with 18 dB fading range!

Summary Tables (Greg Durgin)

TABLE I: Equivalent circuit with physical quantities for antennas in forward and backscatter links.



VOLTAGE FORMULAS

$$V^+ = \frac{\lambda \sqrt{2\eta G_T G_i P_T}}{4\pi r} \exp(j[\phi^+ - \frac{2\pi r}{\lambda}])$$

$$V^- = \Gamma V^+ = \frac{Z'_A - \eta}{Z'_A + \eta} V^+ = \frac{Z_L - R_A + jX_A}{Z_L + Z_A} V^+$$

$$V_A = 2V^+ \sqrt{\frac{R_A}{\eta}}$$

$$V_L = \frac{V_A Z_L}{Z_A + Z_L}$$

RF POWER FORMULAS

$$P_t = \frac{P_T G_T G_i \lambda^2}{(4\pi r)^2} (1 - |\Gamma|^2)$$

$$P_R = \frac{G_R G_i \lambda^2 |V^-|^2}{32\eta \pi^2 r^2} = \frac{P_T G_R G_T \lambda^2}{64\pi^3 r^4} \sigma_{RCS}$$

$$\sigma_{RCS} = \frac{G_t^2 \lambda^2 |\Gamma|^2}{4\pi}$$

$$\Delta \sigma_{RCS} = \frac{G_t^2 \lambda^2}{4\pi} \left| \frac{2R_A(Z_{L1} - Z_{L2})}{(Z_{L1} + Z_A)(Z_{L2} + Z_A)} \right|^2$$

$$\Delta \sigma_{sRCS} = \frac{1}{4} \Delta \sigma_{RCS}$$

ELECTROMAGNETIC FIELD FORMULAS

$$\vec{E} = \frac{V^+}{\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{G_t}} \hat{e}$$

$$\vec{H} = \frac{V^+}{\lambda \eta} \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{G_t}} \hat{h}$$

$$\vec{S}_t = \frac{|V^+|^2}{2\eta} \hat{k}$$

$$\vec{S}_R = -\frac{G_t |V^-|^2}{8\eta \pi^2 r^2} \hat{k}$$

PHYSICAL MODEL INPUTS

λ wavelength of radiation (m)
 r transceiver-tag separation distance (m)
 η impedance of free space (377 Ω)
 Z_A port-side complex RF tag antenna impedance (Ω)
 Z'_A channel-side complex RF tag antenna impedance (Ω)
 Z_L complex RF tag load impedance (Ω)

VOLTAGES

V^+ forward-propagating (impinging) wave (V)
 V^- backward-propagating (reflecting) wave (V)
 V_A equivalent RF tag antenna voltage (V)
 V_L tag antenna terminal voltage (V)
 Γ voltage reflection coefficient
 ϕ^+ excess phase offset

POWERS AND GAINS

P_T transmitted power (Watts)
 P_t power absorbed by RF tag (Watts)
 P_R ideal received power (Watts)
 G_T transmit antenna gain
 G_i RF tag antenna gain
 G_R receive antenna gain
 σ_{RCS} RF tag antenna mode radar cross section (m^2)
 $\Delta \sigma_{RCS}$ RF tag differential RCS, classical (m^2)
 $\Delta \sigma_{sRCS}$ signal power RF tag differential RCS (m^2)

ELECTROMAGNETIC FIELDS

$\vec{E}$ incident electric field (V/m)
 $\vec{H}$ incident magnetic field (A/m)
 $\vec{S}_t$ tag-incident average Poynting vector (Watts/ m^2)
 $\vec{S}_R$ RX-incident average Poynting vector (Watts/ m^2)
 $\hat{e}$ electric field polarization
 $\hat{h}$ magnetic field polarization
 $\hat{k}$ direction of propagation ($\hat{e} \times \hat{h}^* = \hat{k}$)

Bandwidth and Ultrawideband

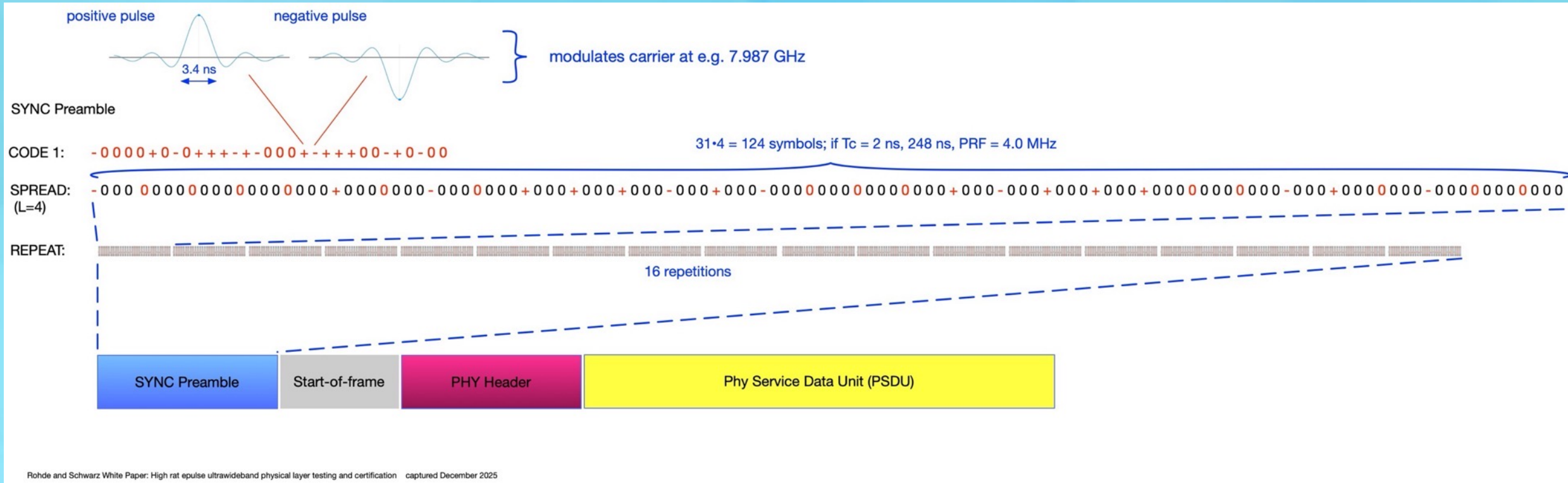
- Bandwidth of typical unregulated signals (e.g. ISM, UNII) are $\approx 1 \text{ MHz} \Rightarrow$ timing accuracy $\approx \pm 1 \mu\text{s} \approx \pm 300 \text{ meters}$
 - Ok for ships on the open sea, not helpful in a room
- For accurate timing: ultrawideband (UWB)!
 - Up to $>1 \text{ GHz}$ bandwidth = $1 \text{ ns} = 30 \text{ cm}$
 - cm accuracy achievable in some cases
 - BUT low power required to avoid interference with other users: limited to -42 dBm/MHz
 - That's -15 dBm (30 microW) in 500 MHz
 - So complex coding is used to provide coding gain and recover the wanted signal in the presence of wideband and narrowband interference

802.15.4: Everything for Everybody...

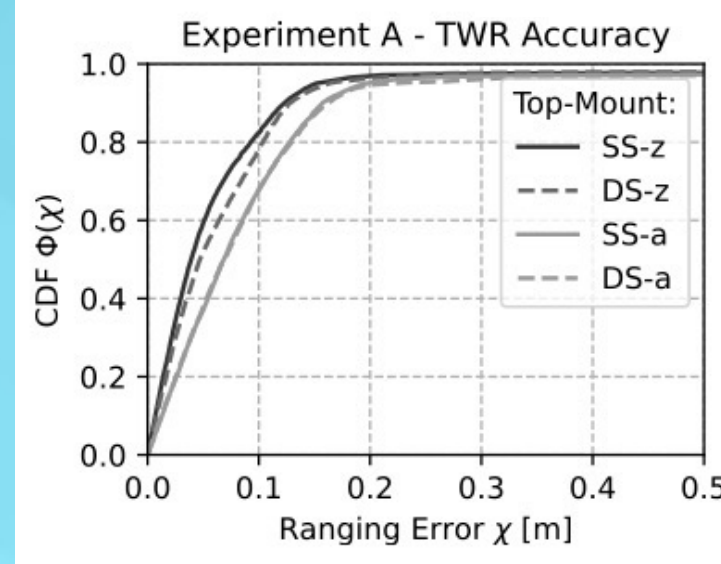
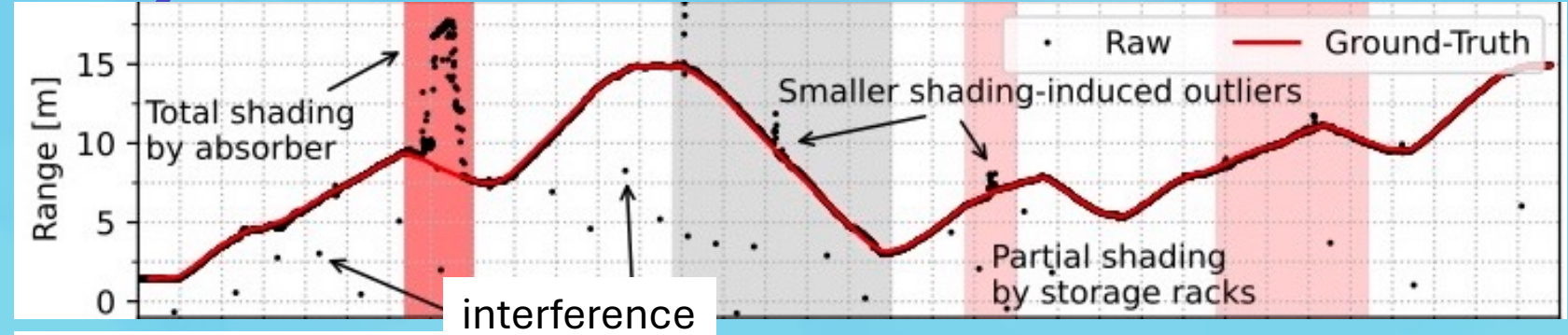
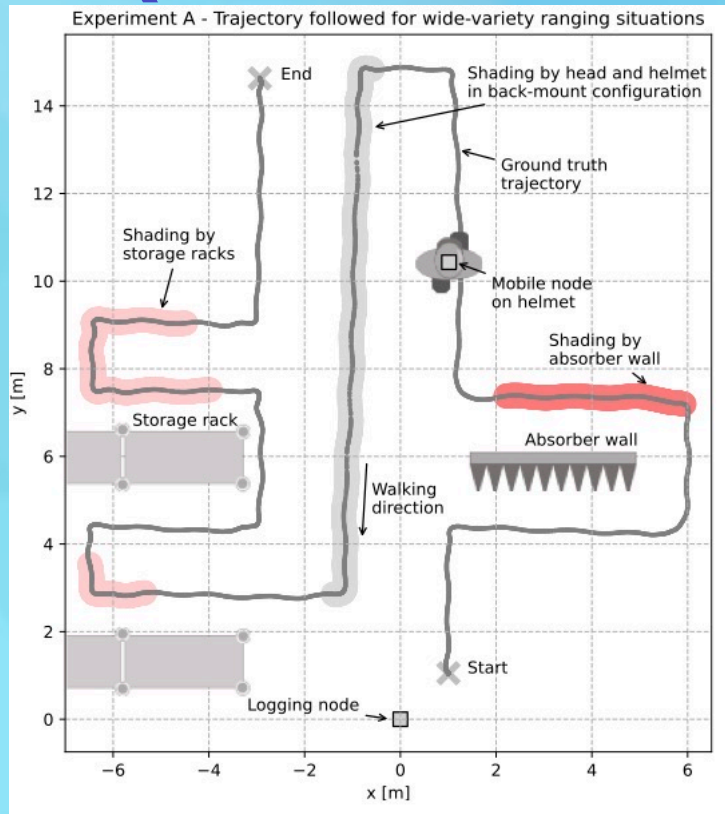
- Physical layer supports:
 - Direct-sequence spread spectrum (DSSS), two varieties
 - Simultaneous binary shift/ASK => simultaneous DSSS
 - Ultrawideband (UWB), Chirped Spread Spectrum (CSS)
 - 780/950 MHz with other keyed modulations
 - Channel hopping
 - Packet extensions for location
- MAC:
 - Frames up to 127 bytes
 - Ethernet support through fragmentation
- Used by various upper layers:
 - Zigbee, WirelessHART, MiWi, 6LoWPAN, Thread, SNAP...

Example: 802.15.4z Coding (partial)

- SYNC Preamble using nsec-scale pulses...



802.15.4z Location Performance (Tiemann et. al. 2022)

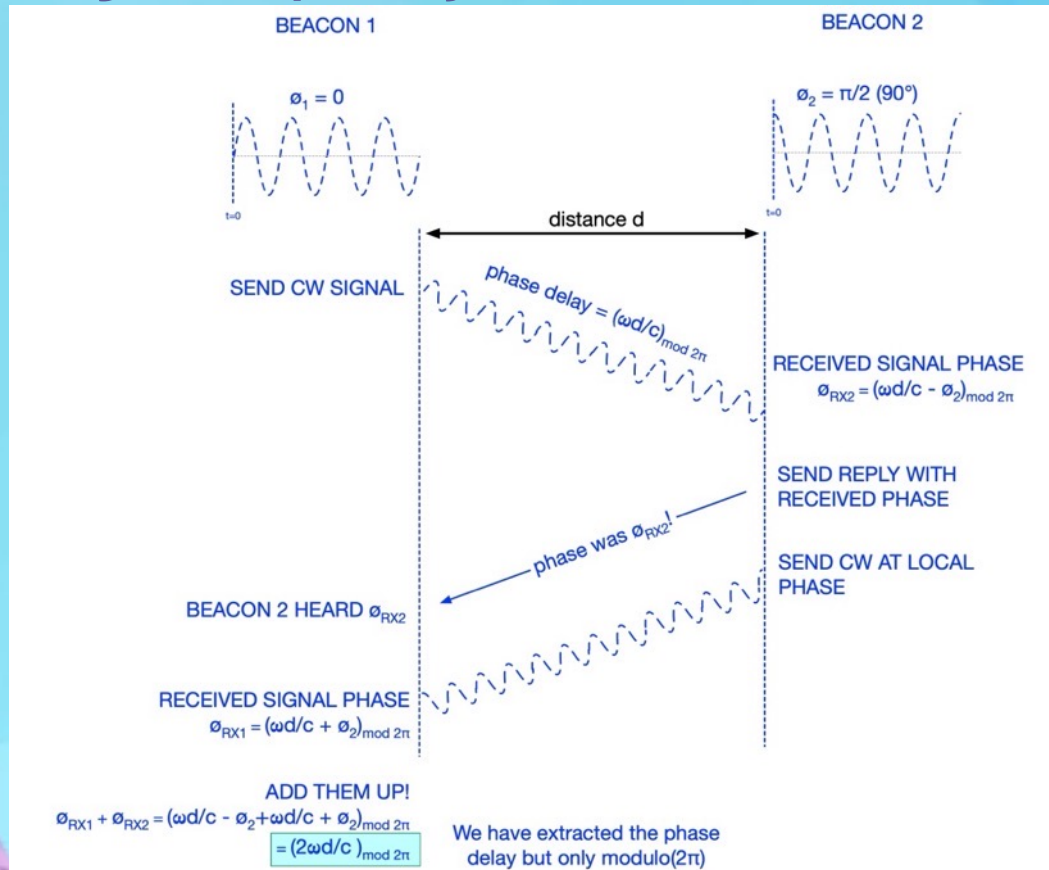


- With minimum interference, unoccluded results often accurate to 10-20 cm
- BUT occlusion or interference can give rise to multi-meter error!

- Experimental Evaluation of IEEE 802.15.4z UWB Ranging Performance under Interference, J. Tiemann, J. Friedrich and C. Wietfield, Sensors v 22 p. 1643 (2022)

Phase-Based Ranging: Details

- Step 1: determine phase delay at a single frequency



- Step 2: Repeat the process to obtain the dependence of phase on frequency

$$\phi(f_1) = \left(\frac{2\omega_1 d}{c} \right) \bmod 2\pi \quad \phi(f_1 + \delta f) = \left(\frac{2[\omega_1 + \delta\omega]d}{c} \right) \bmod 2\pi$$

$$\phi(f_1 + \delta f) - \phi(f_1) = \left(\frac{2(\delta\omega)d}{c} \right) \bmod 2\pi \rightarrow d = \frac{c(\delta\phi) \bmod 2\pi}{4\pi(\delta f)}$$

- Channel spacing 2 MHz for BLE:

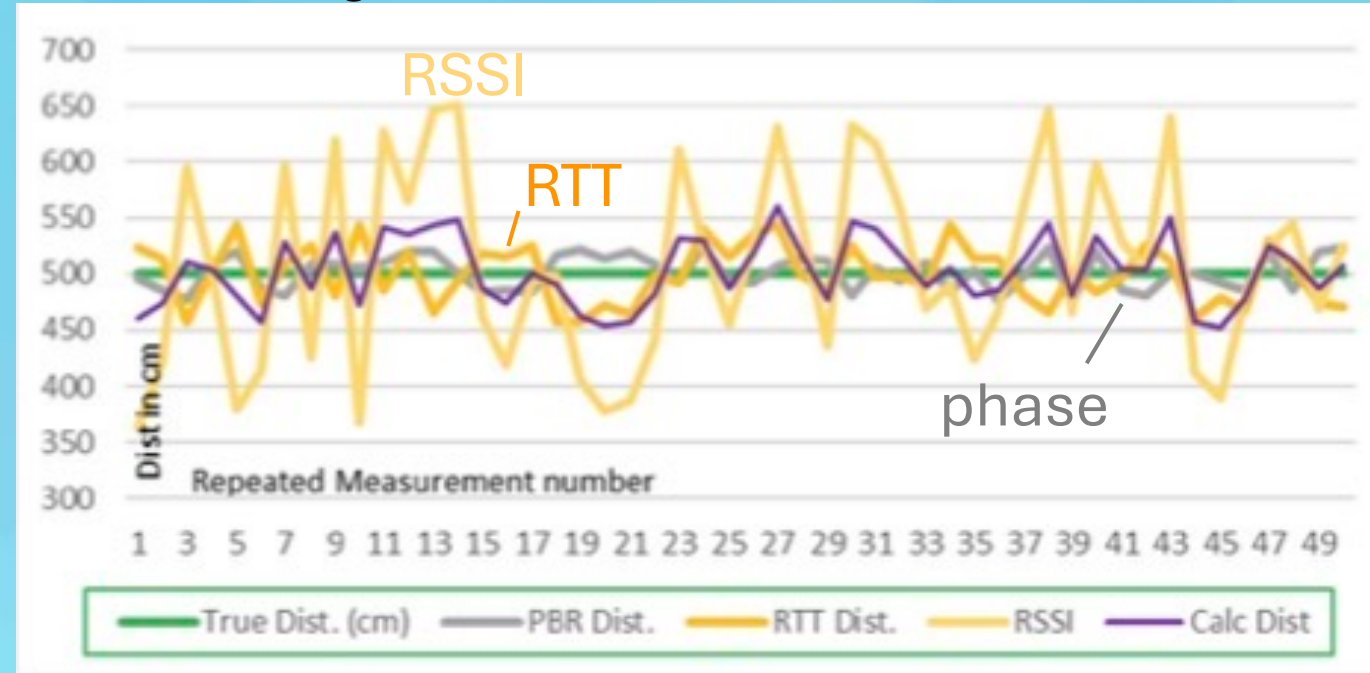
$$\frac{2\pi c}{4\pi(\delta f)} = \frac{c}{2(\delta f)} = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{4 \times 10^6} = 75 \text{ meters}$$

- Multichannel phase-based ranging ambiguity size $\gg$ single channel
 - 75 meters $\approx$ 250 ns; actual distance easily classified by delay-based ranging
 - BLE supports multiple frequencies, corrections for frequency drift between beacons

BLE 6.0 Location Performance: Conventional

- Best results obtained by COMBINING methods:
 - RSSI, phase-based ranging, two-way time-of-flight, 5 meter outdoor distance
 - RSSI max error 31%
 - Round-trip-time error 10%
 - Phase-based ranging error 7%
 - Measurements combined with encryption provisions to detect “man-in-middle” attacks

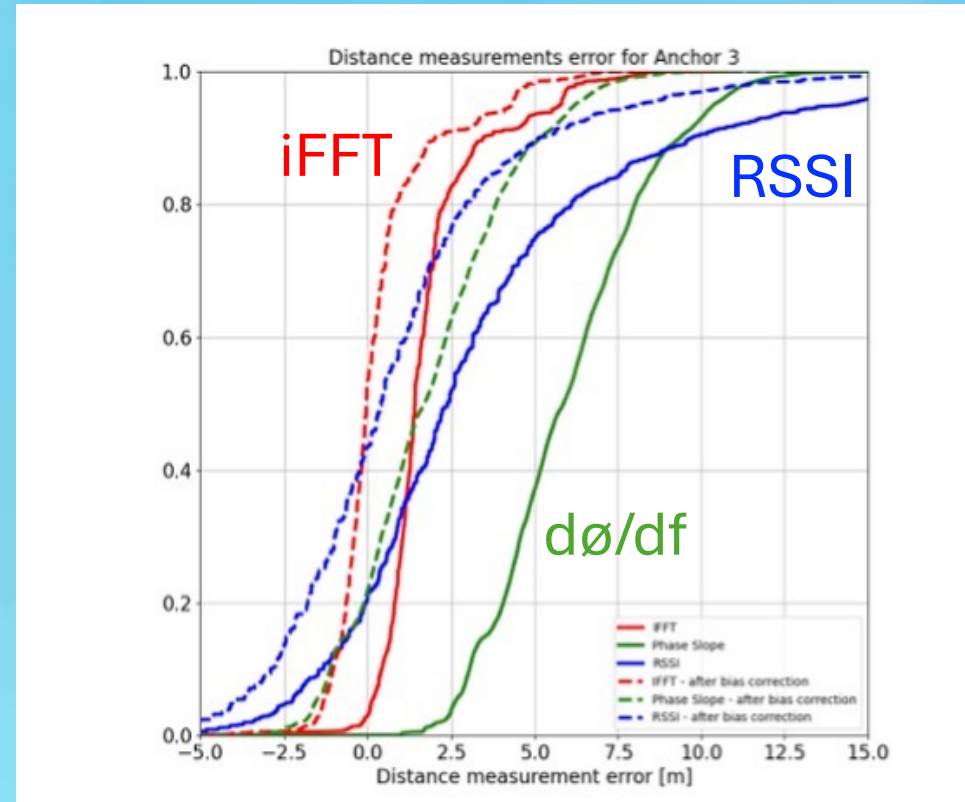
Actual line-of-sight distance 5 m = 500 cm



“BLE Channel Sounding: Novel Method for Enhanced Ranging Accuracy in Vehicle Access”, Suresh D., P. Joshi, P. Parandkar, A. Gambhir and K. Sudharshan, IEEE Access v 13 p. 67531 (2025)

BLE 6.0 Location Performance: Algorithmic Approach

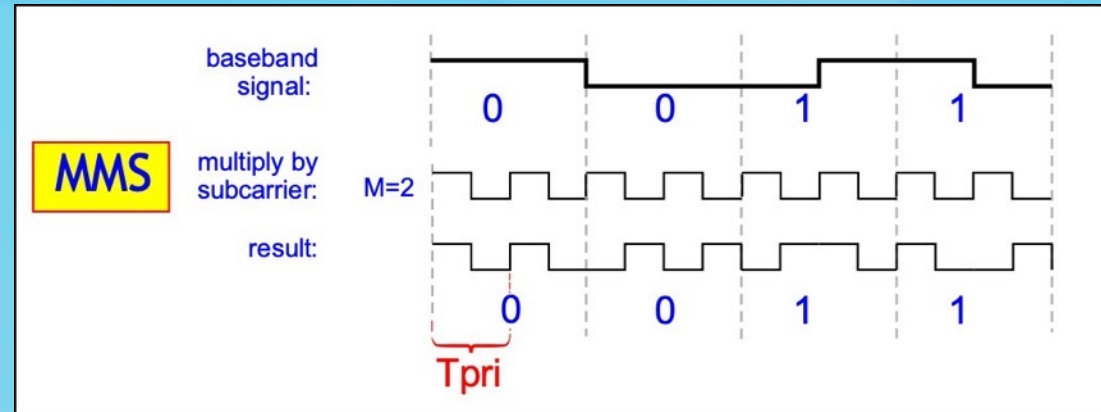
- Over distances to 15 meters in fairly complex indoor environment, inverse Fourier Transform gives most consistent results
 - You're extracting the equivalent time-of-flight paths, can remove all but the shortest one



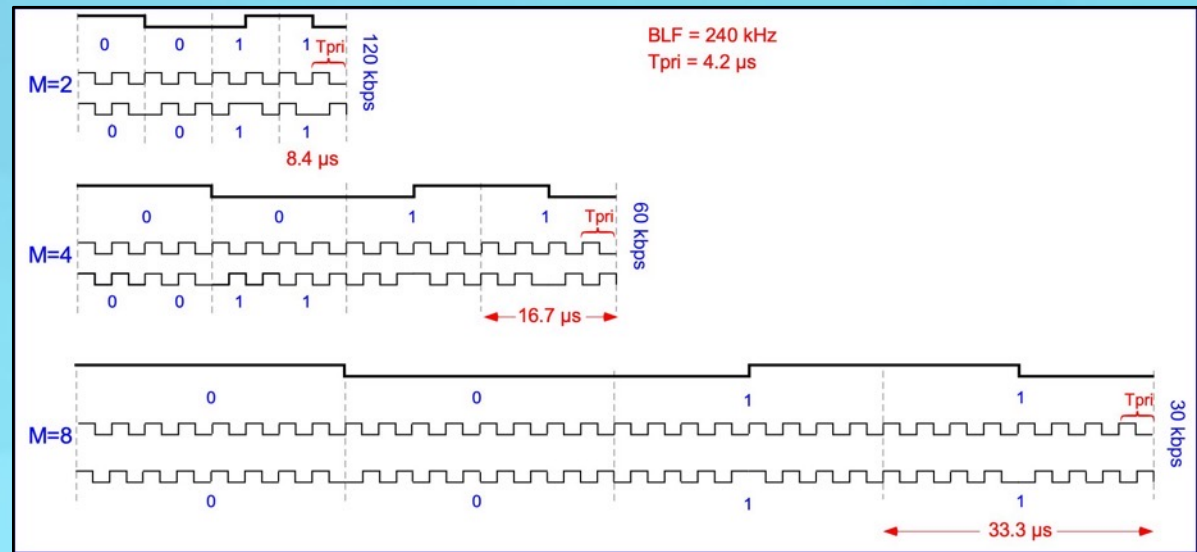
“Experimental Evaluation of Multicarrier Phase Difference Localization in Bluetooth Low Energy”, M. Nikodem, G. Trajnowicz, G. de Blasio and F. Quesada-Arencia, IEEE Sensors Journal v 25 p. 1548 (2025)

Tag Modulation: MMS

- More tag transitions per symbol provides better signal:noise: MMS

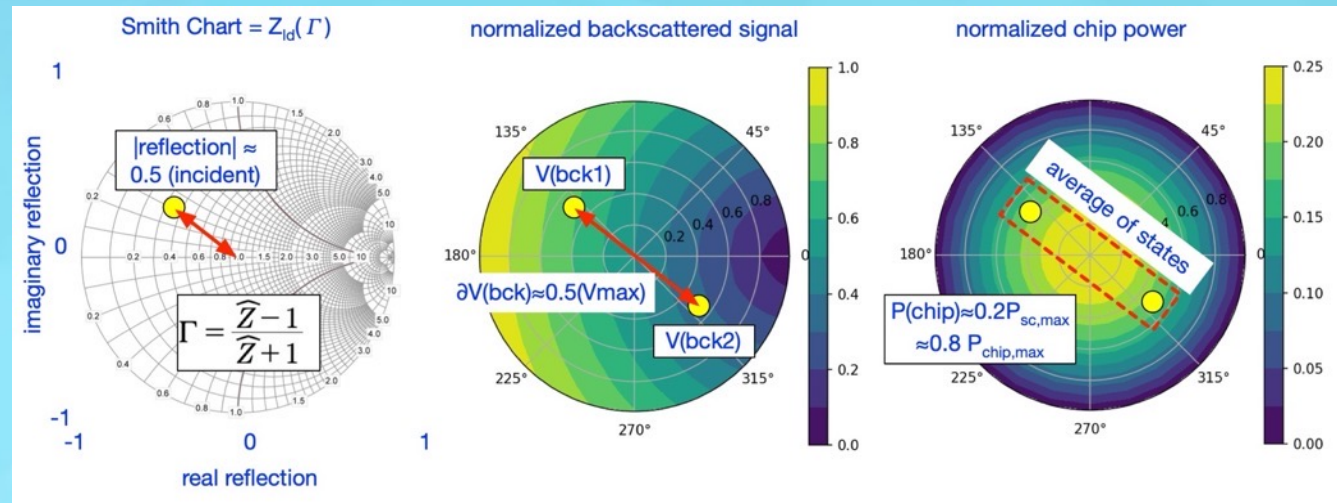
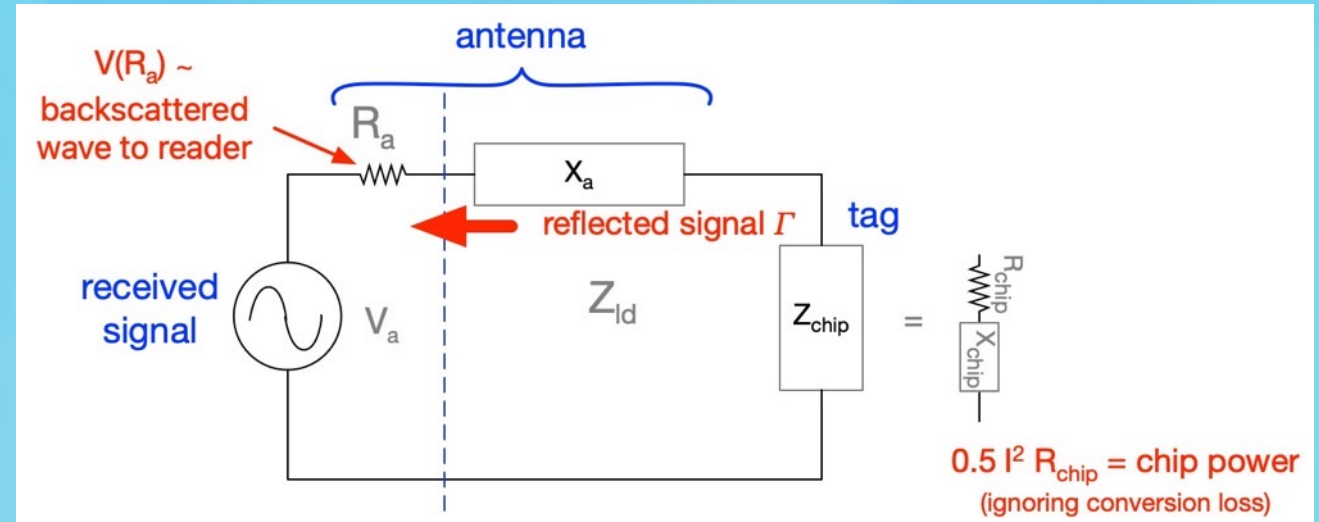


- Increase M to get better noise performance, BUT tradeoff: slower data transmission



Tag Modulation: Change Antenna Load

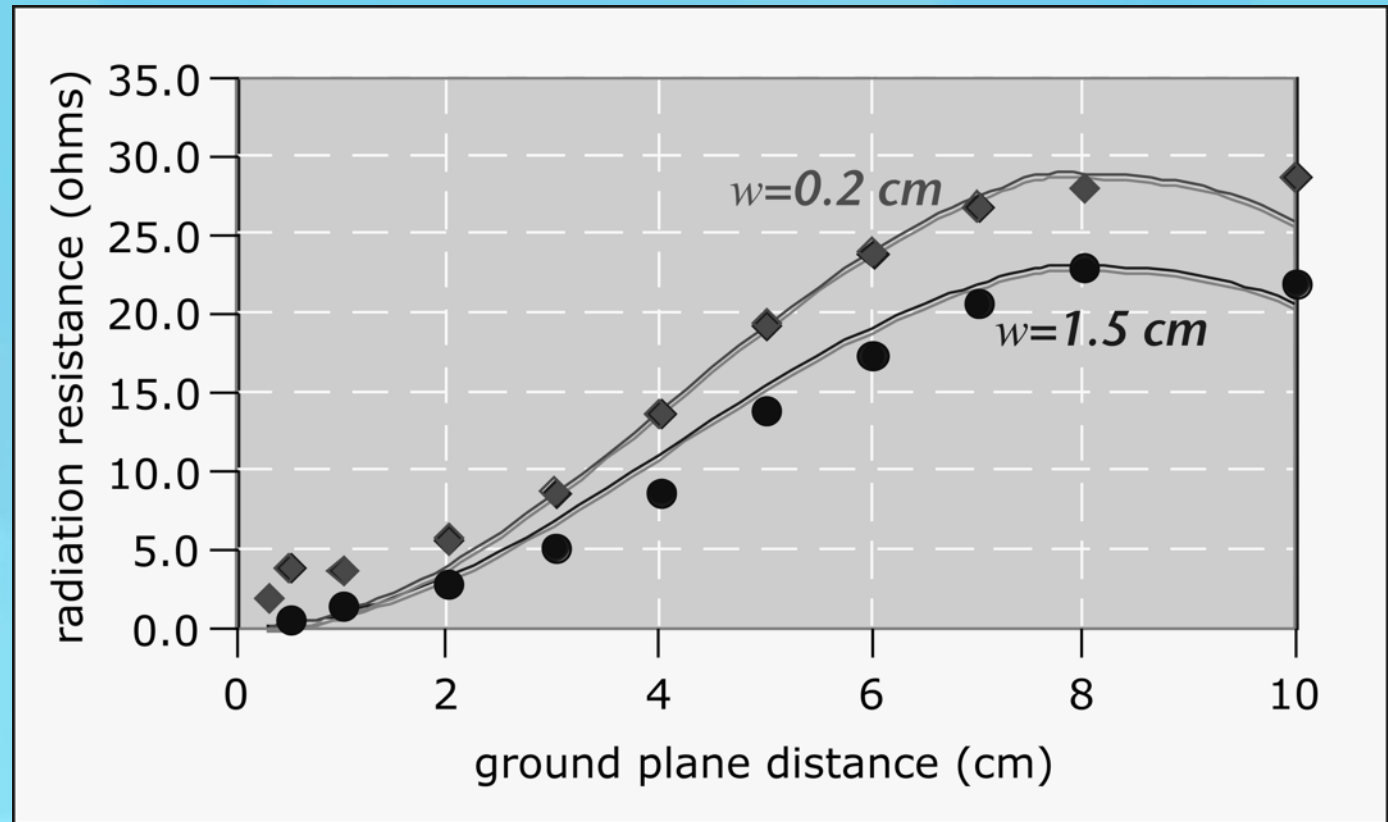
- To modulate backscattered signal we change the load presented to the tag antenna
 - BUT: this also changes the received power that runs the tag IC!
- Need to balance modulation depth and received power



tag-backscatter-illustrations.graffle: Smith-chart-as-RXandTX

Tag Environment: Near Metal Surface

- Tag impedance changes dramatically as a tag nears a metal surface (ground plane here)
- Result is shorter read range if the tag is designed for operation in open air
- Similar results near water, less dramatic effects from other dielectrics

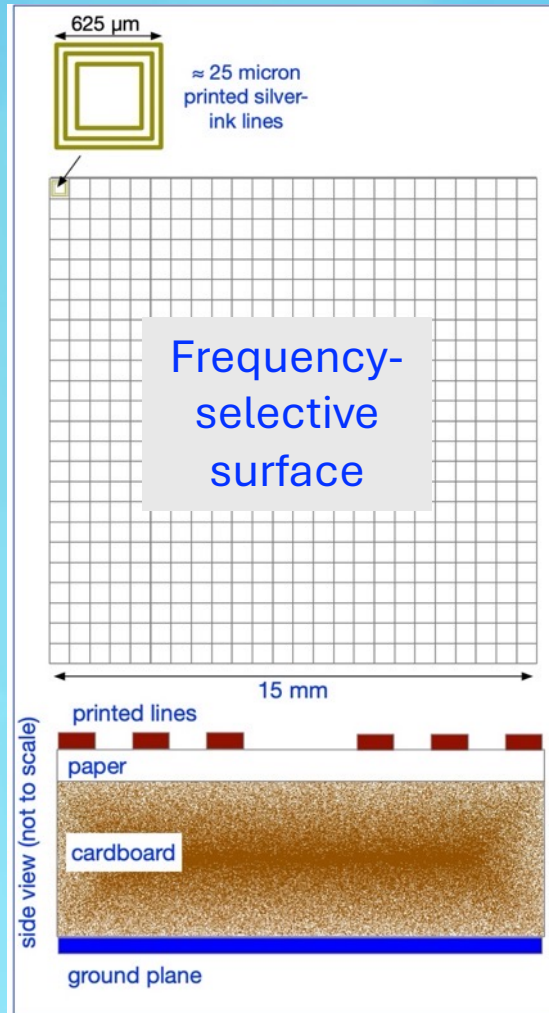


Just Don't Be Insensitive

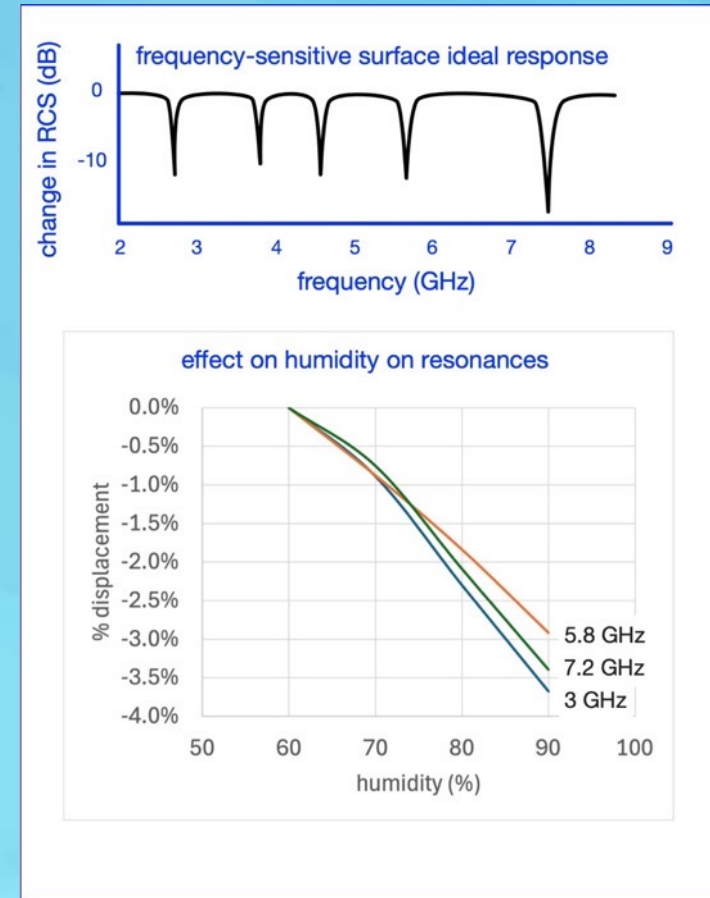
- Once you identify the object, why not identify the world the object is in?
 - Temperature: a hot topic
 - Humidity: all wet
 - Atmospheric pressure: a pressing concern
 - Spoilage: stinky
- Once you sense you need to send
 - Data must be included in transmissions from sensor/tag/beacon

Chipless Sensing Example: Humidity

- Low-cost humidity sense using silver nanoparticle ink on paper, overlay on cardboard+ground plane: “frequency selective surface”
 - After Borgese et. al. IEEE Sensors 2017



- Resulting resonances sensitive to ambient moisture
 - But RCS measured from 25 cm away!
 - And humidity response time ≈ 10 minutes



Example IC-based Sensors

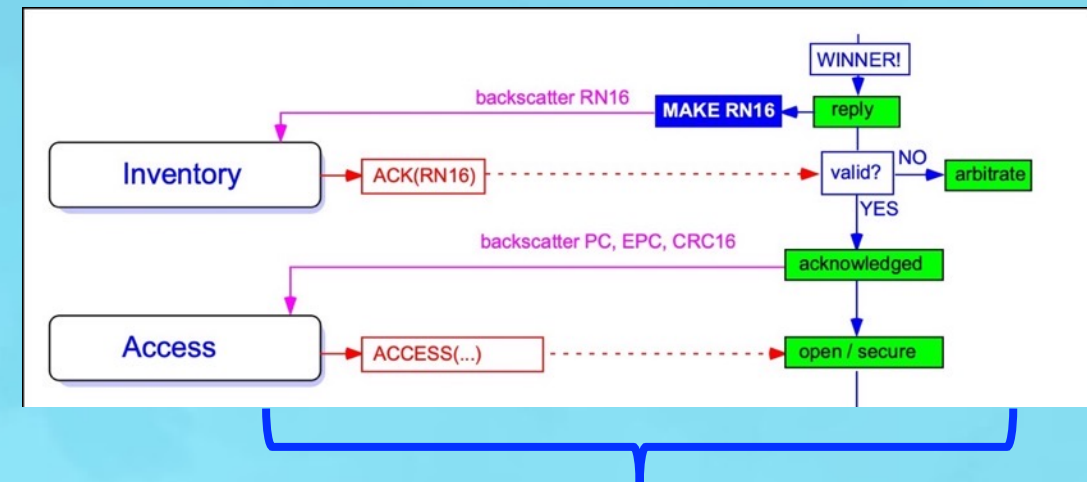
- Commercial products
 - HF, UHF, BLE communications
 - Passive, BAP, active
 - Temperature, humidity, strain, light
 - BUT NOT \$0.05/tag!

Vendor	Tag	Description	Sense Range
ASYGN	AS3213.T	Sensor chip, temperature	-40 to 120°C
	AS3213.S	Strain	3.5 ppm
	AS3213.RH	Relative humidity	0-100%
	AS3213.L	Illumination*	200-12000 Lux
Axzon	AZN5200	Temperature, BAP/P UHF RFID	-30 to 65°C
CSL	CS8300	Temperature, BAP UHF RFID	-24 to 64°C
EM Micro	EM4325	Temperature, BAP/P UHF RFID	-40 to 60°C
GAO RFID	127003	Active TX, 2.45 GHz	-20 to 60°C
	127044	Active TX, BLE	10 to 25°C*
	115400	Temperature/moisture, BAP/P	-40 to 86°C+moisture
Osrfid	FM13DT160	BAP/P, UHF/HF	-30 to 50°C
RFID Inc.	2509-TMP	Ceramic, on-metal, passive UHF	-40 to 85°C
	7334-TMP	Ceramic, on-metal, passive UHF	-40 to 85°C
	9824-TMP	Adhesive, passive UHF	-40 to 85°C
RFMicron	Magnus S3	Temperature + RSSI/match	-40 to 85°C
Smarttrac	Dogbone	Passive UHF adhesive tag	“dry” and “wet”

Temperature Chip Example

- NMV2D, Wernher von Braun Research Center
 - Standard EPC G2V2 chip +
 - Temperature sense: read values from user memory using EPC G2 commands
 - Zero values to get memory read rolling
 - Calibration parameters for quadratic T-vs-V fit
 - Temperature parameter
 - Chip must remain continuously powered for all this!

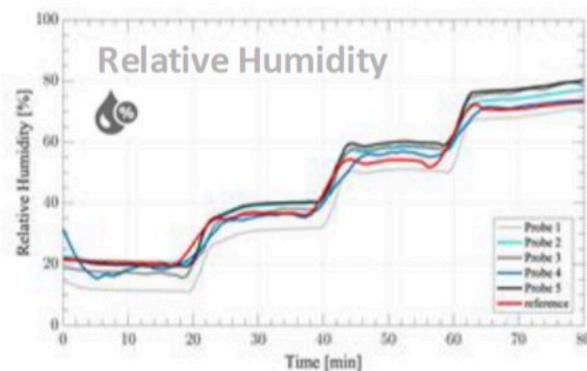
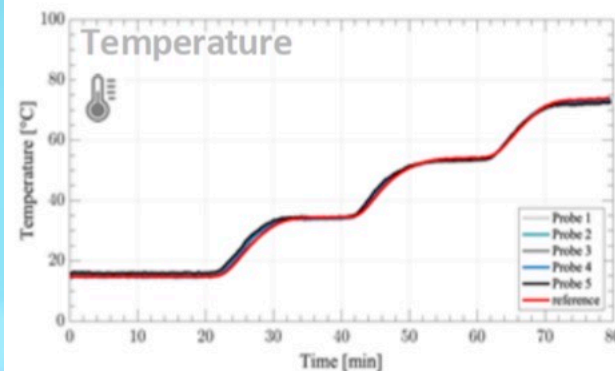
- Inventory + reply + 8*(write 0) + 3*(read fit parameters) + 10*(read temperature parameter value)



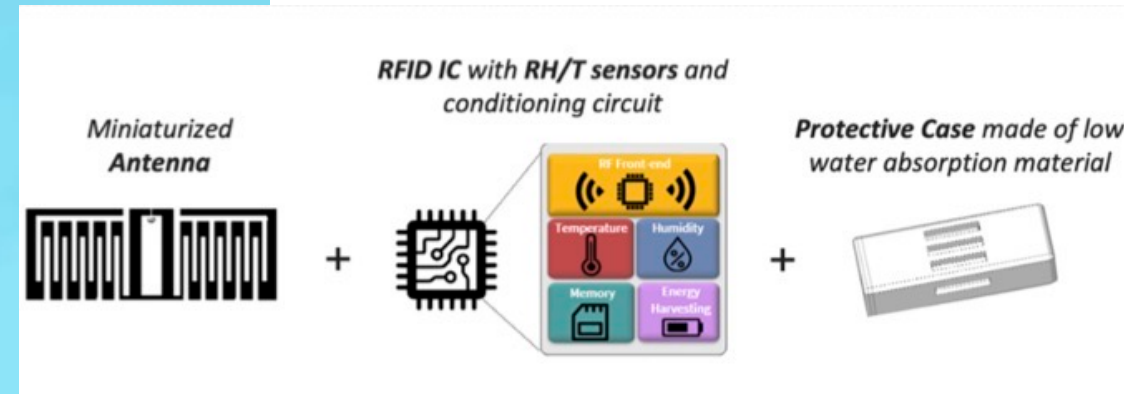
21 extra commands!

Temperature/Humidity Example

- ASYGN AS3213RH, RADIO6ENSE tag
- In-container monitoring for T and RH
 - Data from AIM Case Study "Smart Pharmaceutical Packaging: A Passive Temperature and Humidity Sensing Solution"
 - Read range NOT given, probably short



Courtesy of: Sofia Benouakta

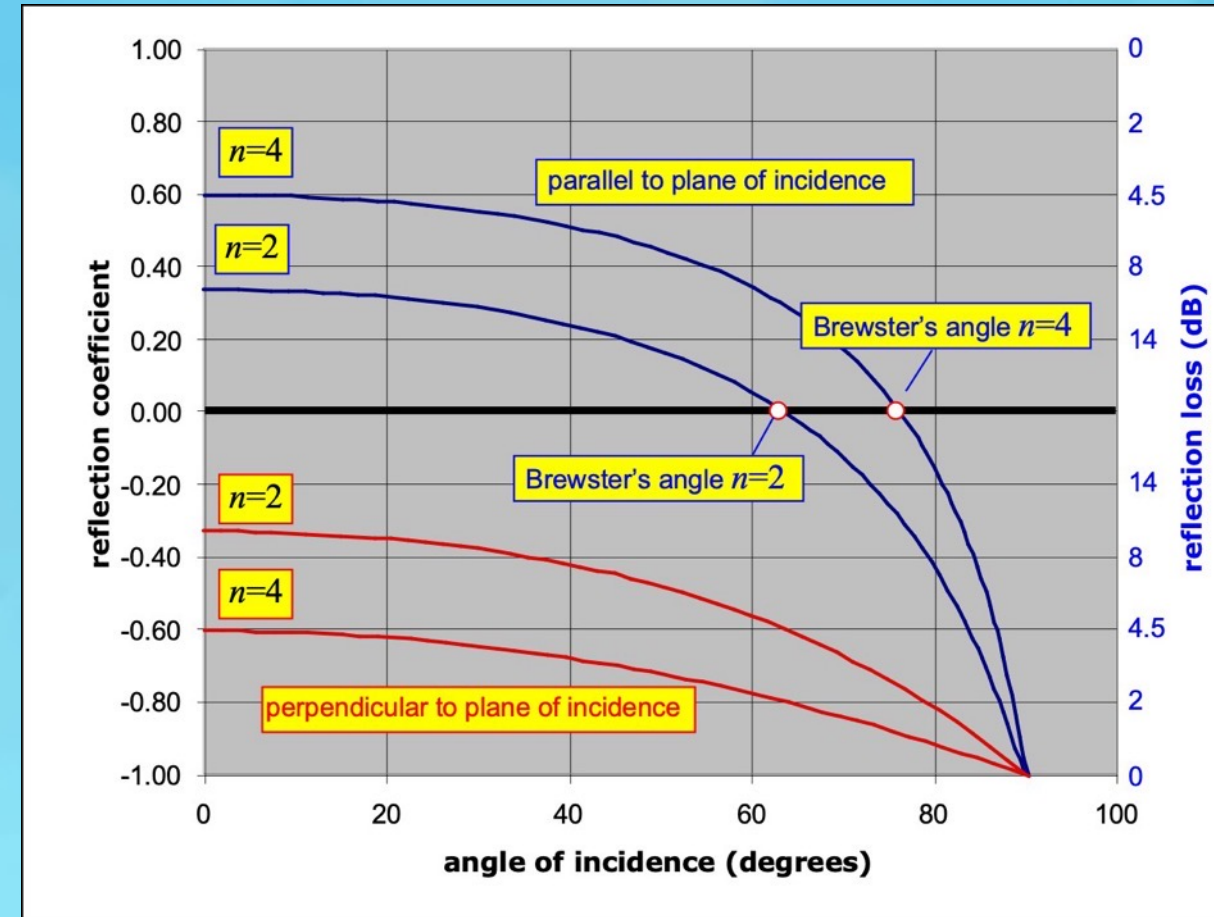


Companies in the sensor space

- From <https://www.cognitivemarketresearch.com/battery-free-rfid-sensor-market-report> captured 11/25/25:
 - Alien Technology LL, CRF MicronInc., IdentivInc., Axzon Inc., Avery Dennison Corporation, Smartrac Technology GmbH, Zebra Technologies Corporation, Checkpoint Systems Inc., Thin Film Electronics ASA, Vishay Intertechnology Inc.
 - Claims >\$500M global, about \$120M US market for sensors... ?? Others report drastically different numbers, but of course part of that is the definition of the market...

Reflection from Dielectric (cont.)

- Magnitude of reflection is VERY dependent on polarization
 - A parallel to plane of incidence: zero reflection at **Brewster's angle**
 - A perpendicular to plane of incidence: reflection magnitude increases monotonically with angle
- Refractive index 2-3 for typical building materials
 - Absorption of concrete can be very dependent on water content and age of structure



Notation

○ Complex exponentials:

$$e^{ix} = \cos(x) + i \cdot \sin(x)$$

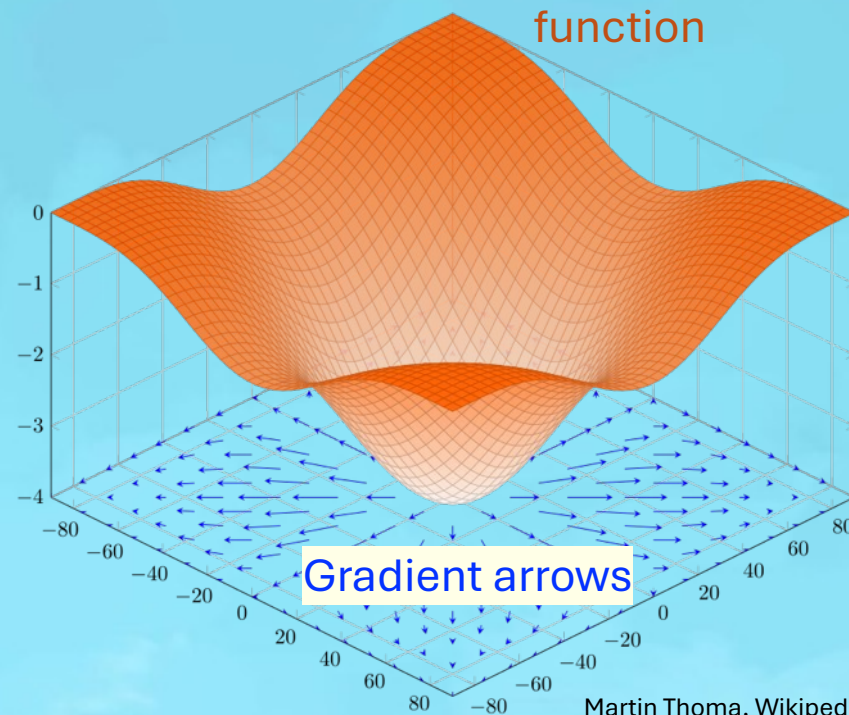
$$e^{i\omega t - ikx} = e^{i\omega t} e^{-ikx} = \text{traveling wave moving to right @ } \Delta kx = \Delta \omega t \rightarrow \frac{x}{t} = v = \frac{\omega}{k}$$

in vacuum: $\omega = ck \rightarrow v = c$ (velocity of light)

○ Gradients, 3D:

$$\phi = f(x, y, z) \quad (\text{scalar})$$

$$\nabla \phi = \left[\frac{df}{dx}, \frac{df}{dy}, \frac{df}{dz} \right] \quad (\text{vector})$$



Martin Thoma, Wikipedia