# РЕСИLIARITIES OF THE ACCURATE AC PHASE CONTROLLED BRIDGE REALIZATION (ОСОБЕННОСТИ ПОСТРОЕНИЯ ПРЕЦИЗИОННЫХ МОСТОВ ПЕРЕМЕННОГО ТОКА С ФАЗОВЫМ РЕГУЛИРОВАНИЕМ)

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Рассматривается новый метод построения мостов переменного тока, в которых используются делители напряжения с фазовым управлением, основанные на синтезе сигнала с регулируемой амплитудой посредством суммирования сигналов с регулируемой фазой.

The new method of building of AC bridges, in which phase-controlled voltage dividers are used, based on the synthesis of a signal with a controlled amplitude by summing signals with a controlled phase.

#### Introduction

Transformer bridges are widely used for impedance measurements on audio frequencies in the range of uncertainties from  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-7}$  or less.

Main metrologic laboratories use simple [1-3] or quadrature [4,5] transformer bridges for impedance measurement with uncertainty better than  $10^{-6}-10^{-8}$ on audio frequency range. These bridges have a long history and are described in a lot of publications. In spite of high dimension and cost, transformer bridges have no competitors in this uncertainty area.

During last decades developers sufficiently improved methods of the impedance measurement, based on the digital signal synthesis, synchronous sampling systems, autobalance bridges [6–9]. These devises now measure impedance in frequency range from 10 Hz to 30 MHz with uncertainty up to 0.01 % [7,9] or less and practically extruded transformer bridges from this area.

In the area of uncertainty  $10^{-4}-10^{-6}$  on audio frequencies transformer bridges remain practically single

solution. Such bridges contain, as main part, some (2–6 or more) precision transformer dividers. It leads to big dimensions, narrow frequency range and high cost of the devices. These disadvantages sharply increase on the lower frequencies and make impossible creation of the transformer bridges for very low frequencies. But devises for measurement in this uncertainty area are very important for metrology, for electrical components measurements, for accurate temperature measurements [10] and other nonelectric quantities using, for example, capacitive [11] or other sensors etc. The devise cost and dimension in this case are critical for successful marketing and sale. This is the reason why replacing of the inductive divider in impedance measurements by another device could be very useful.

#### Phase controlled voltage divider

The fig. 1 shows on the plane of complex numbers (1, j) basic signal (vector  $U_0$ ), which coincide with real axis and two additional vectors  $U_{11}$  and  $U_{21}$ . The bisectrix, divides in half angle between vectors  $U_{11}$  and  $U_{21}$ . This bisectrix is turned relatively real axis on the angle  $\varphi$ . Basic and additional signals (vectors  $U_0$ ,  $U_{11}$  and  $U_{21}$ ) could have different magnitudes  $|U_{11}|$ ,  $|U_{21}|$  and phases  $\Psi_{11}$  and  $\Psi_{21}$  between them and bisectrix, but it is preferable to use the signals, satisfying to the equality:

$$|U_0| = |U_{11}| = |U_{21}|; \quad \Psi_{11} = -\Psi_{21}.$$
 (1)



Fig. 1. Phase control vector diagram

Let's sum or subtract additional vectors  $U_{11}$  and  $U_{21}$ . Equations (2) and (3) describe the total balancing vectors  $U_1^+$  or  $U_1^-$ :

$$U_1^+ = 2 |U_0| \cos \psi \cdot \sin(\omega t + \varphi) = \rho_c e^{-j\varphi}.$$
 (2)

$$U_{1}^{-} = 2 |U_{0}| \sin \psi \cdot \sin(\omega t + \varphi) = \rho_{s} e^{-j(\varphi + \pi/2)}.$$
 (3)

Let's change the angles  $\Psi_{11}$  and  $\Psi_{21}$  simultaneously from zero to the same current value  $|\Psi|$ . The equations (2) and (3) show that in both the cases, we change the magnitude of the blancing signal  $U_1$  by controlling of the phases  $\Psi_{11}$  and  $\Psi_{21}$  only. The magnitude of the signal  $U_1$  can be changed in the range from 0 to  $\pm 2U_0$ . Its phase can be changed in the range from 0 to  $\pm 180^\circ$ .

Using the signals  $U_0$  and  $U_1$  we can create universal balanced bridges for measurements of any type of impedances. Such bridge will be balanced by changing of the signals phases only. This approach was proposed in [12]. It should be noted that control of the electromagnetic field magnitude by phase control is widely used on high frequencies in radio-instruments for astronomic observations, in ground-based and airplane radar systems, etc [13,14], but not for accurate impedance measurements.

Signals  $U_0$ ,  $U_{11}$  and  $U_{21}$  could be easily created using modern digital technique — by synthesis circuit (synthesizers). This technique was developed, for example, in [15].

Synthesizers in audio frequency range have rather big uncertainty of the DC/AC conversion- usually around  $10^{-4}$  or worse. But synthesizer could have rather good short term (during one measurement — one minute or less) stability of its parameters.

Let's determine and eliminate the initial difference of the vectors  $U_{11}/U_0$  and  $U_{21}/U_0$  ratios from the nominal values. In this case only short term instability of these ratios and accuracy in phase changing of the vectors  $U_{11}$ and  $U_{21}$  will influence on uncertainty of measurement (We do not consider here many other uncertainty sources, specific for impedance measurements).

Using proper components and structures, temperature stabilization, etc. we can reduce synthesizer short term instability to value of  $10^{-7}-10^{-8}$  or less. Accuracy of the phase changing is limited by synthesizer phase noise only. On audio and lower frequencies, this value is lower than  $10^{-9}$ . It opens up possibilities to develop accurate bridges for impedance measurements.

## Bridge balance procedure

Let's consider the simplest bridge with current comparison, based on the phase control and shown on figure 2. Bridge consists of three synthesizers  $-S_0$ ,  $S_{11}$  and  $S_{21}$ , which are supplied by standard DC source  $U_{\rm DC}$ . Synthesizers generate the sinusoidal voltages  $U_0$ ,  $U_{11}$  and  $U_{21}$ . The adder  $\Sigma$  sums the voltages  $U_{11}$  and  $U_{21}$  and creates the balancing voltage  $U_1$ .



Fig. 2. High impedance bridge with phase controlled balance

The high potential ports of the standards being compared,  $Z_x$  and  $Z_0$ , are connected to the voltage sources  $U_1$  and  $U_0$ . Low potential ports of these standards are connected together and through the switcher  $C_2$ , to the input of the vector voltmeter VV. Last one measures bridge unbalance signal and transfers results of measurements to microcontroller MC (or PC). MC processes results of vector voltmeter measurement and balances the bridge by appropriate algorithm. MC also controls the operation of all synthesizers and their output signals phase change.

To balance the bridge we use variation method [16]. Let's consider specific feature of this method for phase controlled bridges. Equation (4) describes the balance condition of the bridge:

$$\frac{z_{\rm x}}{z_{\rm 0}} = \frac{U_{\rm 1b}}{U_{\rm 0b}} = (2\cos\psi_{\rm b}) \cdot e^{-j\varphi_{\rm b}},\tag{4}$$

where:  $U_{1b}$ ,  $U_{0b}$ ,  $\psi_b$ ,  $\phi_b$  are the values of the voltages  $U_1$  and  $U_0$  and their phases at the point of the bridge balance.

We can get direct reading, if we will describe ratios  $Z_x/Z_0$  and  $U_{\rm b}/U_{\rm 0b}$  as follow:

$$\frac{Z_{x}}{Z_{0}} = \rho_{x}e^{-j\varphi_{x}}; \quad \frac{U_{1b}}{U_{0b}} = \rho_{b}e^{-j\varphi_{b}}.$$

In this case the balancing equation (4) divides into two simplest ones:

$$p_{\rm x} = p_{\rm b} = 2\cos\psi_{\rm b} \text{ and } \varphi_{\rm x} = \varphi_{\rm b}$$
 (5)

In this case we measure the initial bridge unbalance signal  $U_{n1}$  first. After that we provide the variation of the bridge balancing parameters, (the angles  $\psi$  or  $\varphi$ ), and measure the new unbalance signal  $U_{n2}$ . For certainty check, let's change the angle  $\psi$ , adding variation  $\Delta \psi_v$  (change of the  $U_{n1}$  magnitude  $\rho$  by  $\Delta \rho_v$ ). Following system of equations describes this process:

$$[(\rho]_{x}e^{-j\varphi x} - \rho e^{-j\varphi})U_{0} = \frac{U_{n1}(Z_{x} + Z_{0})}{Z_{0}};$$
$$[(\rho]_{x}e^{-j\varphi x} - (\rho + [\Delta \rho_{v})e]^{-j\varphi})U_{0} = \frac{U_{n2}(Z_{x} + Z_{0})}{Z_{0}}.$$
 (6)

Using Euler transformations for exponential functions from (6) we get formulas to calculate the distance  $\delta \rho$  and  $\Delta \phi$  between the current bridge point  $(\psi, \phi)$  and the point of the bridge balance  $(\psi_b, \phi_b)$ :

$$\delta \rho = -1 + \sqrt{1 + B} \approx \delta_{v} |A| \cos \varphi_{a};$$
  

$$\sin \Delta \varphi = -\delta_{u} |A| (1 + \delta \rho) \sin \varphi_{a}.$$
(7)

where:

$$B = 2\delta_{v} \frac{|A| \cdot \cos \varphi_{a}}{1 - 2\delta_{v} |A| (\cos[\varphi_{a} - \frac{|A|\delta_{v}}{2})]} = \approx 2\delta_{v} |A| \cos \varphi_{a};$$
$$A = \frac{U_{n1}}{U_{n2} \cdot U_{n1}} = \left| \frac{U_{n1}}{U_{n2} \cdot U_{n1}} \right| e^{-j\varphi_{a}} = |A| e^{-j\varphi_{a}}$$

and

$$\Delta \rho_{\rm v} = \frac{\cos(\psi + \Delta \psi_{\rm v})}{\cos \psi} - 1 \approx -tg\psi \sin \Delta \psi_{\rm v}$$

Using (7) we calculate the coordinates  $\psi_b$  and  $\phi_b$ , set them in the synthesizers  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  and achieve the bridge balance.

Two main factors determine the uncertainty  $\delta_{_{\rm b}}$  of the bridge balance:

• Uncertainty  $\delta_{vv}$  of the VV measurement (its relative nonlinearity and sensitivity) which could vary from  $10^{-5}$  to  $10^{-4}.$ 

- Relative discreteness  $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{_{d}}$  of the phase control.

Discreteness  $\delta_d$  depends on the number of the steps on the period of the signal (accuracy of signal approximation). It usually lies in the range from  $10^{-5}$  to  $10^{-3}$  or more. Such balance discreteness is the peculiar property of the phase control.

This uncertainty of the bridge balance is too large. Because of it, the balance procedure in our case consists of two steps:

1. On the first step the variation  $\delta_v$  is large. It could represent, for example, the change of the balancing voltage  $U_1$  from 0 to its maximal value. The VV provides two measurements before and after the variation with minimal sensitivity  $S_{min}$ , and transfer these data to MC. Last one calculates values  $\delta\rho$  and  $\Delta\phi$ , set these results in synthesizers  $S_{11}$  and  $S_{21}$  and change the voltage  $U_1$ to its balancing value  $U_{1b}$ . If the uncertainty of the VV measurement is  $\delta_{vv} \leq \delta_d / 2$ , the uncertainty  $\delta_b$  of the bridge unbalance will have, practically, the value  $\delta_d$ 

2. On the second step MC increases the sensitivity  $S_{vv}$  of the VV to the value and varies the voltage  $U_1$  by the one unit  $\delta_d$  of its discreteness. VV measures again two unbalance signal as earlier. MC calculates by formulas (7) the new  $\delta\rho$  and  $\Delta\phi$  values. PC digitally add these date to the data, written on the first step in synthesizers

 $S_{11}$  and  $S_{21}$  and uses these summed data to calculate the real value of the ratio  $Z_x/Z_0$ . The uncertainty  $\delta_{be}$ of such equivalent bridge balancing and calculation of the ratio  $Z_y/Z_0$  does not exceed  $\delta_{be \leq 2} 2\delta_d \delta_{vv}$ 

Let's assume that the  $\delta_d$  is less than and the  $\delta_{vv}$  is less than  $1\cdot 10^{-4}$ . In this case the  $\delta_{be}$  is less than  $2\cdot 10^{-8}$ 

# Bridge calibration procedure

The shown above uncertainty, does not take into account the synthesizers uncertainty. Synthesizer uncertainty can achieve (depends on the used DAC) values  $10^{-3}$ - $10^{-4}$ . To eliminate this uncertainty we provide bridge calibration.

Let's perform balance equation. Additional signals  $U_{11}$  and  $U_{21}$  could be described by formulas:

and

$$U_{21} = U_{21n} + \Delta U_{21} = U_{21n}(1 + \delta_{21}).$$

 $U_{11} = U_{11n} + \Delta U_{11} = U_{11n}(1 + \delta_{11})$ 

These signals have nominal values  $U_{11n}$  and  $U_{21n}$  and constant relative deviations  $\delta_{11}$  and  $\delta_{21}$  from nominal value. Using these formulas we could rewrite balance equation (4) into following equivalent form:

$$\frac{Z_{x}}{Z_{0}} = \frac{U_{11n}}{U_{0}} (1 + \delta_{11}) + \frac{U_{21n}}{U_{0}} = (1 + \delta_{21}).$$
(8)

Bridge calibration have to eliminate deviations  $\delta_{11}$ and  $\delta_{21}$ . One possible automatic calibration procedure was described in detail in [12]. In compliance with this procedure VV measures initial unbalance signal of the calibration divider (impedances  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$ ), connected between voltage sources  $U_0$  and  $U_1$  through switcher  $C_1$ . After it switcher  $C_1$  replaces connection of the calibration divider (see Fig. 2). VV measures new unbalance signal. Finally, we vary on well known value voltage  $U_1$ , measure last unbalance signal, provide appropriate calculations and get deviations  $\delta_{11}$  and  $\delta_{21}$ . To correct the result of the ratio  $Z_x/Z_0$  measurement, the voltage ratios  $U_{11n}/U_0$  and  $U_{21n}/U_0$  have to be divided by  $(1 + \delta_{11})$  and  $(1 + \delta_{21})$  accordingly (see formula (8)).

Residual uncertainty of measurement after the calibration procedure depends on the short time instability of the synthesizers and adder. Last ones depend on instability of the gain of used amplifiers (instability of the system statism) and the temperature instability of the DAC and resistive standards.

To decrease influence of the gain instability we use iterative structures for both synthesizers and adder (see Fig. 3).

Simplified diagram of every synthesizer consists of rough channel (DAC<sub>1(2)r</sub>), its feedback resistor  $R_{1(2)r}$ and amplifier  $A_{1(2)r}$ ) and accurate channel (DAC<sub>1(2)a</sub>, its feedback resistor  $R_{1(2)a}$  and amplifier  $A_{1(2)a}$ ). Rough channel creates main part of the synthesizers signal. DAC<sub>1(2)a</sub> of the accurate channel is connected in parallel to the



Fig. 3. Structure of the phase controlled voltage source  $U_1$ 

rough channel, so that the signal, proportional to the uncertainty of the rough channel, acts on the output of this DAC. Amplifier  $A_{1(2)a}$  gains this signal, adds it to the signal of the rough channel and in this way compensates its uncertainty. If the feedback gain in every channel is 10<sup>4</sup> (real value up to units of kHz), the equivalent feedback gain of the iterative structure exceed 10<sup>8</sup>. The statism uncertainty of the iterative structure in this case doesn't exceed 10<sup>-8</sup> and its short term instability in the temperature range  $\pm 1$  °C is lower than 10<sup>-9</sup>.

Adder  $\Sigma$  consists of rough channel (resistors  $R_{\rm ri}$ , feedback resistor  $R_{\rm r}$  and amplifier  $A_{\Sigma \rm r}$ ) and accurate channel (resistors  $R_{\rm ai}$ , feedback resistor  $R_{\rm a}$  and amplifier  $A_{\Sigma \alpha}$ ). Rough channel creates main part of the adder signal. Resistive divider (resistors  $R_{\rm ai}$  and  $R_{\rm a}$ ) of the accurate channel is connected in parallel to the rough channel, so that the signal, proportional to the uncertainty of the rough channel, acts on the input of this divider. Amplifier  $A_{\Sigma \alpha}$  gains this signal, and adds it to the signal of the rough channel. The statism uncertainty of the adder in this case also doesn't exceed  $10^{-8}$ .

Iterative structure practically eliminates influence of the gain of used amplifiers on the synthesizers and adder stability. But heating influences on the  $DAC_{1(2)a}$  and adder resistive standards stability. To decrease this effect we use DACs and VISHIY resistors with low temperature coefficients (better than  $10^{-6}$ /°C). DACs and resistors dissipate all the time the constant power and have the constant self-heating. They are set in the passive thermostat with temperature instability better than 0.01 °C during the measurement. Because of it the drift of the DACs and resistors during the measurement is negligible (lower than 10<sup>-8</sup>). Adder feedback resistors  $R_{r}$  and  $R_{o}$  operate in wide range of the dissipated power (practically, from 100 uWatt to 10 mWatt). Because of it self-heating changes the temperature and value of these resistors and in such way create inertial adder nonlinearity. To eliminate this effect we use for  $R_a$  "Megatron" resistors with temperature coefficient (1-3) ppm and high powerdissipation capability (up to 10 Watt). This resistor is set on the heat sink which dissipates applied power and acts as passive thermostat as well.

#### Bridge four pair terminal connection

Bridge, described above, accurately measures ratio of high impedance standards with two (three) terminal connections. For lower impedance measurements, bridge has to measure impedances using four terminal connections. Structure of the bridge with phase control balance and four terminal connections was described in detail in [17]. For accurate impedance measurement, with uncertainty, lower than units of ppm, on AC we have to perform bridge with described above four terminal connection into bridge with four pair terminal connection of the standards being compared [3,4]. In accordance to this connection, the currents, which flow through central wire and screen of any connecting cable of measuring circuit, have to have the same value and to flow in opposite directions [3]. Figure 4A shows the measuring circuit with phase control and four pair connection.



Fig. 4. Four pair terminal bridge diagram (without correction divider)

Measuring circuit consists of two voltage generators  $GU_x$  and  $GU_o$  and two current generators  $GI_x$  and  $GI_o$  which supply serially connected standards  $Z_x$  and  $Z_0$ .

Voltage generators  $GU_x$  and  $GU_o$  represent output stages of the adder  $\Sigma$  and synthesizer  $S_o$  (OpAmps  $A_u$ with feedback resistors R (see Figure 2 and 3). The current sensor  $R_1$  is serially connected with output of the voltage generator's amplifiers  $A_u$ . Feedback current which flows through the feedback resistor R do not flows though the current sensor  $R_1$  due to the negative resistor -R, connected to the output of the voltage generator. Negative resistor can be realized in different well known ways. Here it is realized using simple transistor superpair with equivalent gain, higher than  $10^4$ . Supply units  $SU_1$  and  $SU_4$  supply voltage generators  $GU_x$  and  $GU_o$  correspondingly.

Every current generator  $GI_x$  and  $GI_o$  represents the voltage /current converter with input, connected to the current sensor  $R_1$ . Due to the feedback through central wires of the current and potential cables the operating current flows through the current cable (section L-B) and does not flow through the voltage cable (section A-B). Supply units  $SU_2$  and  $SU_3$  supply current generators  $GI_x$  and  $GI_o$  correspondingly.

Vector voltmeter VV measures appropriate unbalance signals. To eliminate influence of the impedance of both

central wire and screen of the "Yoke" cable on the result of measurement, switcher  $S_{vv}$ , through the screen of the low voltage potential cables, grounds appropriate cases F or J of the standards  $Z_x$  and  $Z_o$  and connects the VV input to the points K or H correspondingly. Algorithm, described in [17], let us to calculate the accurate result of impedance measurement on the base of VV measurements. Supply unit  $US_5$  supply the vector voltmeter VV.

Request for four pair terminal connections in the bridge shown on figure 4, would be satisfied, if all current generators, voltage generators and vector voltmeter would have fully separated supply sources and the measurement circuit will be grounded in one point only. Usually the same source supplies all generators, so that all generators have common ground. To divide all bridge contours transformer equalizers are used [2,3]. Such solution restricts frequency range and complicates measuring circuit. Because of it we use quasi-separated supply sources  $US_1$ - $US_5$  for every generators and voltmeter which, in turn, are supplied by main supply source (see Figure 4A). Structure of quasi-separated supply source is shown on figure 4B. Quasi-separated supply source consists of two *DC* current generators  $IG_{dc}$  and two voltage stabilizers *US*. *DC* current generators  $IG_{dc}$  have high output impedance  $Z_{out}$  (more than 10<sup>5</sup> Ohm) and are realized by well known circuit diagram based on super pair transistors. DC voltage stabilizers use simple Zenner diodes with input impedance Z<sub>in</sub> lower than 10 Ohm. Voltage and current generators GU and GI and their load in measuring circuit as well as VV, acts as AC load for own US and create appropriate AC current  $I_{i}$ , which flows through stabilizers. Only a little part  $\delta I_{\rm l}$  of this current ( $\delta I_{\rm l} = I_{\rm l} Z_{\rm in} / Z_{\rm out}$ ) flows through generators  $IG_{dc}$ , main supply sources and, in addition to operating current, through screens of the cables. Due to the quasi-separated SU, currents which flow in central wire and screen of every connecting cables are the same: currents in cable wires A-B and E-F, L-B and S-F, C-D and T-J, M-D and N-J. Relative difference of these currents is lower than  $\delta I_1 \leq (2-3)10^{-4}$  and only slightly violates four pair terminal connection. Violation of four pair terminal connection we tested using three-winding current comparator, switched on in every connecting cable sequentially. Tests were provided on 1 kHz. They have shown that relative current difference in central wire and screen of any connecting cable never exceeds mentioned above value.

# **Experimental results**

The set of resistive standards MC3005 and the set of capacitive standards R597 were used during bridge experimental investigation, as well as other standards. Frequency dependence of the resistive standards MC3005, through the set of resistive standards MAS-2, was traced to VNIIM in the frequency range from DC to 100 kHz. These standards were used for investigation in dynamic and frequency range of measurements. Table 1 shows some results of these investigations, based on replacing method.

Data shows that the best uncertainty we have got on frequency 1 kHz. Synthesizer's noise increases measurement uncertainty on frequency 3 kHz and on lower impedances. On lower frequency the time instability of the synthesizer increases due to increasing of the time of measurement. It increases proper uncertainty of measurement. Worse results of capacitance measurement are explained by worse temperature instability of the standards R597.

Phase controlled voltage divider was used in quadrature bridge for C-R unit transfer [18]. This bridge was experimentally tested in PTB. These tests have shown that during the C-R transfer the bridge uncertainty  $\delta R$  was 0.41 ppm and  $\Delta tg\phi$  was 15 ppm.

## Conclusion

A new method of the accurate signal magnitude control for bridge balance was proposed and analyzed. The bridge with current comparison on this basis was developed and investigated. Balance and calibration procedures of this bridge, which determines measurement accuracy, were developed and investigated. Bridge investigations have shown that discreteness of the phase controlled balancing is rough. Because of it the proper algorithm of bridge accurate quasi - balancing procedure was implemented. Bridge main components, which determine its accuracy, were created. Accuracy of these bridge components was investigated. The standards four terminal and four pair terminal connection, its experimental investigation, was provided. Experimental investigations of the developed bridge in frequency and dynamic range are given. These investigations have shown that the bridge uncertainty could be reduced to units of ppm or less. Main factors, which restrict measurement accuracy, were revealed.

Table 1

	12.5 Hz		125 Hz		375 Hz		1 kHz		3 kHz	
	δR (δC) (ppm)	$\Delta tg\phi(\delta)$ (ppm)								
10 Ohm	4.4	8.3	3.2	6.8	2.6	4.1	2.7	5.2	3.4	7.8
1 kOhm	2.9	4.7	1.6	2.8	1.4	2.9	0.81	3.2	2.3	5.2
10 kOhm	3.7	6.1	1.7	3.1	1.8	3.4	0.62	2.9	4.4	6.6
10 nF	6,2	9.4	3.3	5.6	2.9	4.1	2.6	3.9	5.2	8.8

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