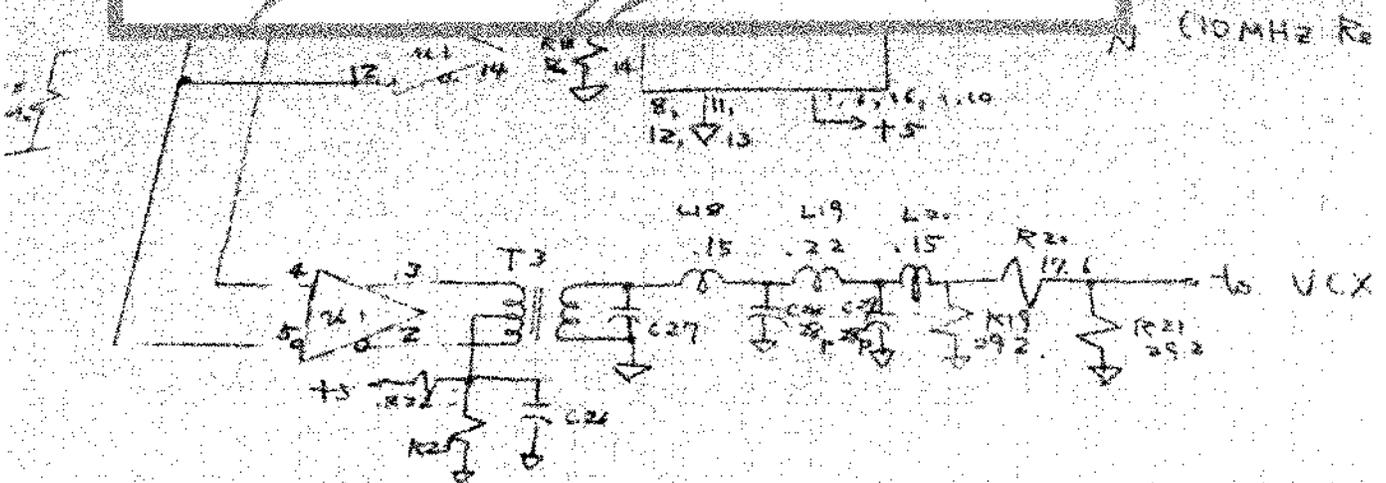
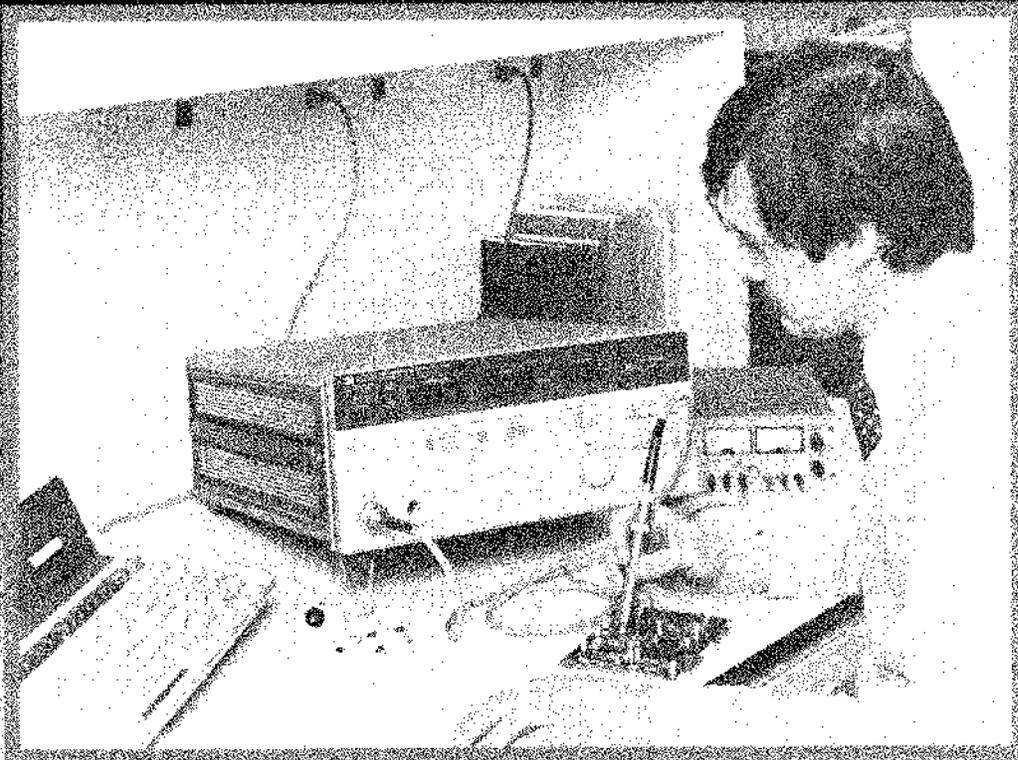


# Practical Design and Evaluation of High Frequency Circuits

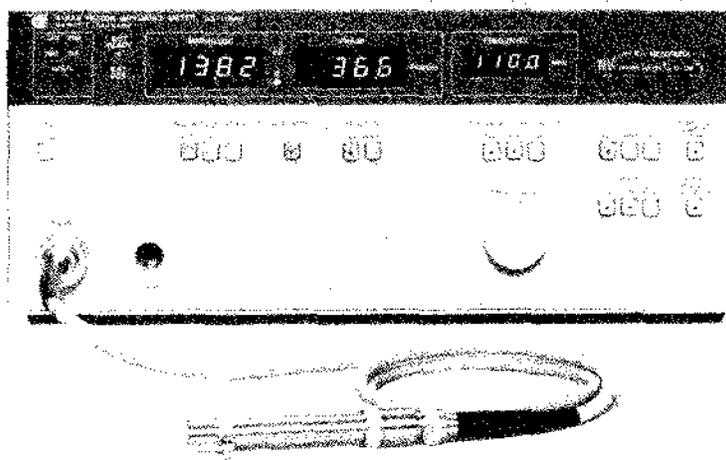
Using the HP4193A Vector Impedance Meter



**hp** HEWLETT  
PACKARD

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**Figure 1-1. 4193A Vector Impedance Meter**

# 1. INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Preface

Have you ever designed an electronic circuit only to find that once it was built, it didn't work the way you intended it to. You have probably run into this sort of problem when working with electronic circuits that will operate somewhere between the HF and VHF bands. Such differences can usually be accounted for by three factors which affect circuit performance in the high frequency band, but not in the low frequency band. These factors include the following:

- Circuit components do not always work across an actual operational frequency range the way they theoretically should.
- At high frequency bands, printed circuit board patterns exhibit high impedance that cannot be ignored.
- The way components are packaged or laid out on the board will affect circuit operation.

This Application Note explains how to use the 4193A Vector Impedance Meter (Fig. 1-1) to solve these problems, and to achieve reliable and efficient design of video electronic circuits, and circuits which operate in the VHF band. In explaining the circuit design application of the 4193A, many actual examples are used. These include measuring component impedance at the desired operating frequency, measuring the input/output impedance of an assembled circuit, and measuring the output impedance of a power supply. The information included in this Application Note should prove useful in designing and packaging circuits for VTR, TV and other communications equipment.

## 1.2 4193A Outline

The 4193A is a grounded probe-type vector impedance meter. Its measurement frequency is continuously vari-

able from 0.4 to 110MHz with 4-digit resolution. The instrument measures and digitally displays impedance magnitude  $|Z|$  from 10 milliohms to 100 kilohms with 3.5 digit resolution, and phase from  $0^\circ$  to  $\pm 180^\circ$  with  $0.1^\circ$  resolution. In addition, the automatic sweep feature provides many convenient functions for measuring frequency characteristics and operability. The 4193A can accurately measure impedance characteristics of not only individual circuit components, but also of entire assembled circuits, and can be effectively used at every stage of electronic circuit design. Main specifications are listed in Table 1-1.

## 1.3 RF Circuit Design

When designing an electronic circuit, the main components must first be selected. Careful selection is important because the characteristics of components at rated frequencies may be quite different from those at actual operating frequencies. Parts which greatly affect circuit performance must be carefully evaluated before circuit assembly to ensure they will perform as desired. The impedance of lead wires and stray capacitance between components also affect circuit performance, requiring components to be evaluated at the actual operating frequency or frequency band, and with the lead wire cut to the lengths that will actually be used. After evaluating the individual components, the pattern in which the selected parts will be mounted on the printed circuit board must be evaluated. This becomes especially important for circuits operating at frequencies above 10MHz, because the impedance in the pattern and capacitance between patterns greatly affect circuit characteristics. Correct evaluation can effectively prevent unexpected phase shifts, signal attenuation, and oscillations. After assembling the components in the determined pattern, the circuit must be connected to a DC power source and tested for overall performance. Various problems may be encountered at this stage: the amplifier doesn't provide sufficient gain, the gain is not flat enough, or, for a filter, the cut-off frequencies do not match. One of the most common causes of these problems is that stray admittances generated between the packaged parts of patterns result in actual impedance values quite different from the expected ones. To solve this problem, input and output impedances and other characteristics must be measured with the circuit assembled, and without changing bias conditions. Thus, when designing an electronic circuit for operation in the RF band, the three most important factors to be evaluated are the characteristics of components at the actual operating frequency, the impedance of lead wires and printed circuit board patterns, and the stray capacitance between mounted circuit components. The 4193A Vector Impedance Meter measures component characteristics, pattern impedance, and stray capacitance easily and efficiently, and contributes greatly to reliable design of video circuits and circuits operating in the VHF band.

**Table 1-1. Key Specifications of 4193A**

Test Signal	Frequency: 400 kHz to 110.0 MHz. 4 digit resolution Sweep: Manual or Automatic, Full Sweep or Partial Sweep
Measurement Range Resolution and Accuracy	$ Z $ : 0.01 $\Omega$ to 120.0k $\Omega$ Maximum resolution: 10m $\Omega$ on 10.00 $\Omega$ range Best accuracy: 3.0% $\theta$ : $-180.0^\circ \sim +180.0^\circ$ Resolution: 0.1 $^\circ$ Best accuracy: 3.2 $^\circ$
Displays	4 digit frequency display. 3½ digit impedance magnitude and phase displays.
Data Output/ Remote Control	HP-IB and recorder output of $ Z $ $\theta$ and frequency

## 2. MEASUREMENT OF DISCRETE COMPONENTS FOR HIGH FREQUENCY CIRCUITS

### 2.1 General

The most frequently encountered problems in high frequency circuit design are insufficient gain (amplifiers) and incorrect cutoff frequency (filters), both of which are usually caused by differences between the impedances and admittances of the design-stage circuit and those of the assembled circuit. At the component level, there are two main causes:

- Impedance frequency characteristics of the components themselves.
- Impedance of and capacitance between lead wires of individual circuit components.

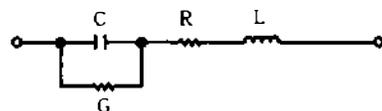
In terms of the assembled circuit, there are also two main causes:

- Impedance of the printed pattern.
- Stray admittances between components and between patterns.

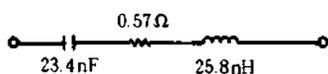
Components used in high-frequency electronic circuits should be evaluated for individual characteristics before assembly, and for impedance after assembly. The following explains how to make this evaluation.

### 2.2 Component Frequency Characteristics Measurement

A great deal of useful information can be obtained by measuring the impedance characteristics of circuit components at the frequency which they are to operate. Fig. 2.1 shows an example of using the 4193A to measure the impedance frequency characteristics of a ceramic capacitor. If the capacitor were ideal, the curve would go down at the right. Instead, it shows a V-shaped characteristic. This happens because the capacitor itself includes inductive and resistive components. If equivalent circuit elements do not greatly depend on frequency characteristics, the  $R$ ,  $C$ , and  $L$  values given in Fig. 2.2 can easily be estimated from the measurement results shown in Fig. 2.1.



(a) Equivalent Circuit



(b) Simplified Equivalent Circuit

The  $L$  and  $C$  reactances can be ignored in the area indicating resistance near the resonant frequency  $f_0$  (approx. 5.8 MHz), where the phase is zero in Fig. 2.1. Since  $1/G \gg R$ , the capacitor can be regarded as a simple equivalent resistive circuit, whose equivalent series resistance (ESR) is 0.57 ohm.

$$R = 0.57 \text{ ohm} \quad (2.1)$$

In the low-frequency capacitive area of Fig. 2.1, the  $L$  component can be ignored. Since parallel conductance  $G$  is also negligibly small compared to  $\omega C$ , the capacitor can be regarded as an equivalent RC series circuit. Therefore, the value of  $C$  can be calculated from the following equation.

$$C \approx \frac{1}{\omega \sqrt{|Z|^2 - R^2}} \quad (2.2)$$

$\omega$  : Angular frequency =  $2\pi f$

$f$  : Measurement frequency (Hz) = 0.4 MHz

$|Z|$  : Impedance magnitude (ohm) displayed on the 4193A

$R$  : Equivalent series resistance (ohm)

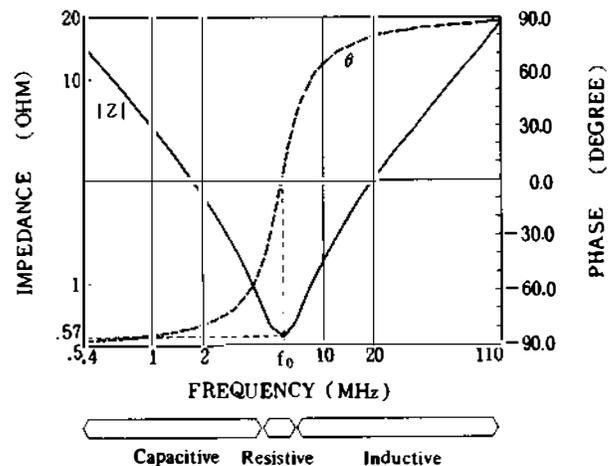


Figure 2.1. Frequency Characteristics of Ceramic Capacitor

Frequency Range	Equivalent circuit
Lower frequency	$(\frac{1}{G} \gg R, \frac{1}{\omega C} \gg R)$
Around resonant frequency	$(\frac{1}{G} \gg R,  \omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}  \ll R)$
Higher frequency	$(\frac{1}{G} \gg R, \omega L \gg R)$

(c) Example of Equivalent Circuit with Actual Values

Figure 2.2. Equivalent Circuits of Ceramic Capacitor

The following equation can be used in the frequency range where  $|Z| \gg R$ .

$$C \approx \frac{1}{\omega |Z|} = \frac{1}{2\pi \times 0.4 \times 10^6 \times 17.00} = 23.4 \text{ nF} \quad (2.3)$$

In the area of high-frequency inductance, the capacitive reactance can be ignored and an equivalent RL series circuit can be assumed. The value of  $L$ , then, is determined by the following equation.

$$L \approx \frac{\sqrt{|Z|^2 - R^2}}{\omega} \quad (2.4)$$

The following equation can be used in the frequency range where  $|Z| \gg R$ , and  $f = 110 \text{ MHz}$ .

$$L \approx \frac{|Z|}{\omega} = \frac{17.85}{2 \times \pi \times 110 \times 10^6} = 25.8 \text{ nH} \quad (2.5)$$

From the above explanation, the equivalent circuit given in Fig. 2.2 can be expressed as b) or c) if the results of equations 2.1 to 2.5 are used.

The measurement results given in Fig. 2.1 indicate that the capacitor works well at frequencies of about 5 MHz or below. The limitation of capacitor performance can be checked by calculating the equivalent circuit constants as described above, and then used as a basic value for selecting parts or design data.

This method of capacitor evaluation is also applicable to resistors and coils. Fig. 2.3 shows how to calculate each equivalent circuit constant.

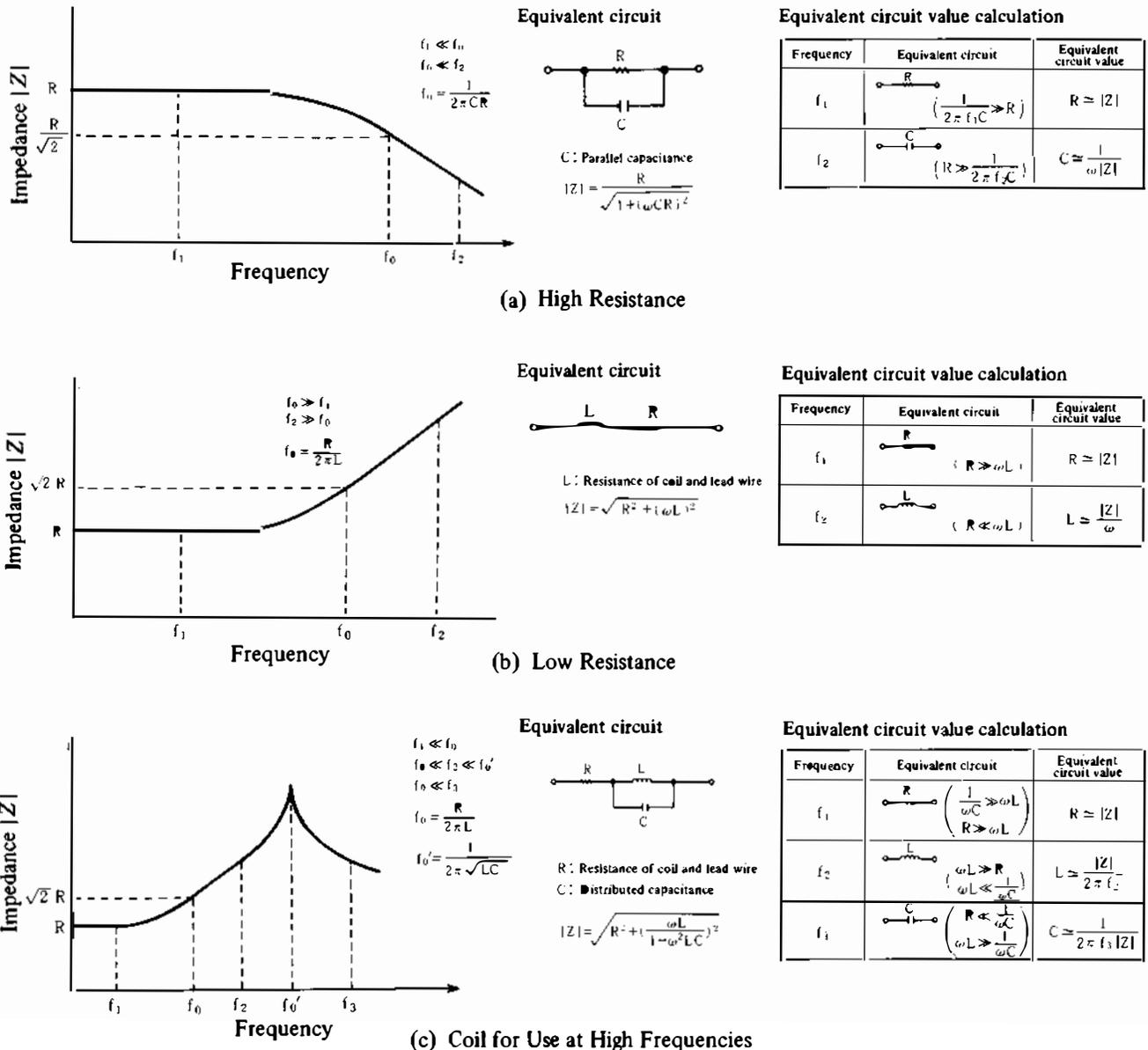


Figure 2.3. Frequency Characteristics and Equivalent Circuit for Circuit Components

## 2.3 4193A Test Fixture for Discrete Component Measurement

For reliable measurement of a circuit component in the video or VHF band, it is important to put the component in as close to actually assembled status as possible, and to use a suitable test fixture. The 4193A provides a variety of fixtures (Fig. 2.4) for measuring chip, radial lead, and axial lead components, and components of other shapes.

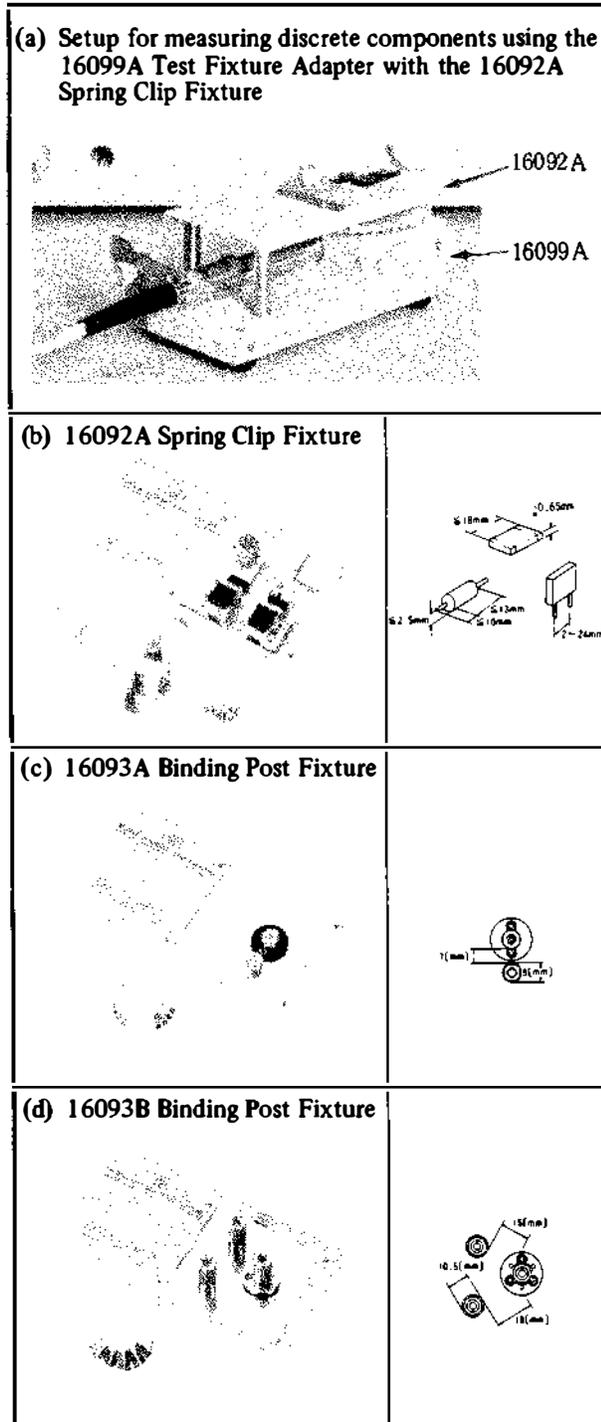


Figure 2.4. Test Fixtures for the 4193A

Fig. 2.4 (a) shows the 4193A attached to the 16099A Test Fixture Adapter, upon which is mounted a discrete component test fixture. Three types of component test fixtures are available, as shown in (b), (c) and (d) of Fig. 2.4. The numbers given in the figure indicate the distance between terminals, or the maximum measurable component dimensions. Because its measurement terminals are movable, the 16092A Test Fixture, shown in (b) of Fig. 2.4, can be used to measure components with lead wires as long as those to be actually used. Fig. 2.5 shows the results of two measurements made on the same ceramic capacitor. Lead wire length differs by about 1 cm for purposes of measurement. Since there are big differences in resonance frequencies and impedance values, the lead wires must be as long as will actually be used.

Fig. 2.6 shows a component mounting adapter which connects directly to the probe. Components are connected between the center terminal and either of the two outer terminals. Spacing between the center terminal and each outer terminal is 13.5 mm and 20 mm, respectively.

Fig. 2.7 shows a probe socket designed for board mounting and for user-fabricated test fixtures. Almost any type of fixture can be connected for measurement.

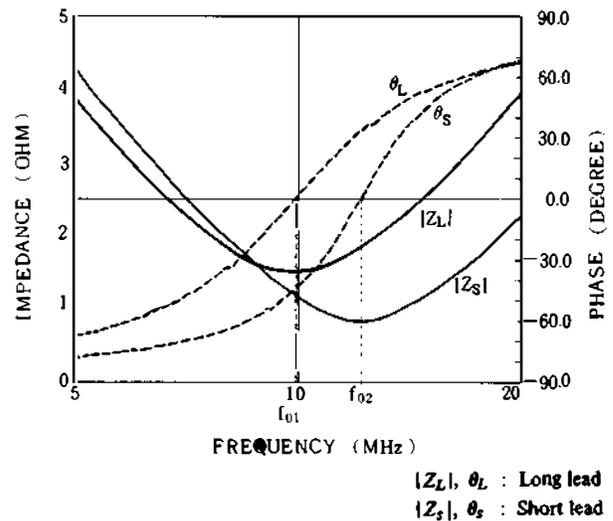


Figure 2.5. Lead-Length Dependency of Frequency Characteristics of Discrete Components

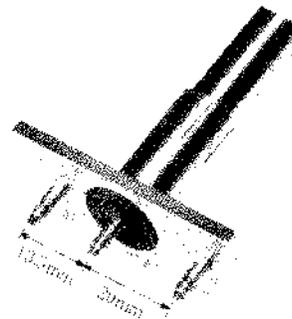


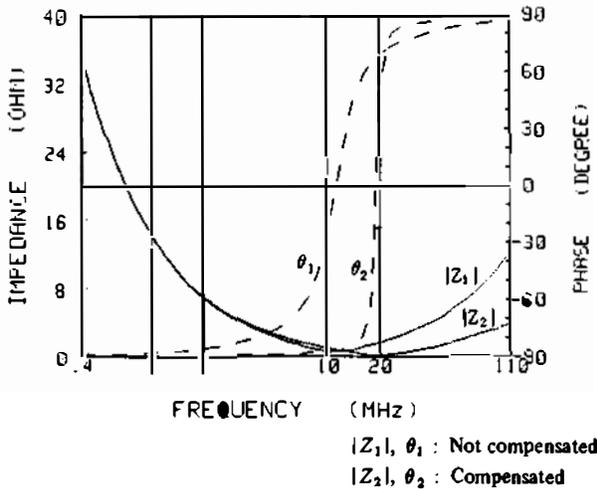
Figure 2.6. Component Mounting Adapter



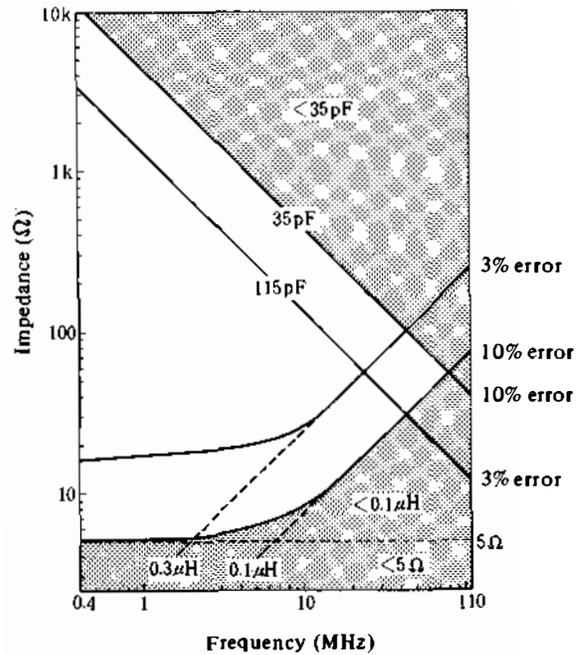
**Figure 2.7. Probe Socket**

## 2.4 Compensation for Test Fixture Residuals

In some cases, the residual impedance in a test fixture causes error when measuring the impedance of a circuit component. If this effect can be compensated, a more accurate measurement can be obtained. Fig. 2.8 compares values of impedance characteristics with and without residual impedance compensation. Compensation for residual impedance raises the resonant frequency by about 8 MHz, and lowers the resonant impedance by about 0.5 ohm. Eliminating the error caused by the test fixture results in the correct value. The impedance range in which correct values can be obtained if residual impedance is compensated is shown in Fig. 2.9. (A sample program for automatic residual impedance compensation via the HP-IB is given in the Appendix (p. 19).



**Figure 2.8. Residual Impedance Compensation for Frequency Characteristics of Ceramic Capacitor**



□ : Range where the residual error is less than 10%

▨ : Range where the residual error is 10% or more (must be compensated)

Whenever the residual error caused by the fixture is to be minimized, compensation is necessary.

**Figure 2.9. Additional Error due to Residual Impedance when the 16092A is attached to the 16099A**

• **How to compensate for residual impedance**

Measured impedance values displayed on the 4193A include the impedance of the DUT plus the residual impedance of the test fixture. See Fig. 2.10. To obtain the true impedance of the DUT, the following method can be used.

1. Short circuit terminals A and B, and note the values displayed on the 4193A as  $|Z_s|$  and  $\theta_s$  ( $R_0$  and  $X_0$  measurements). Shorting rings are furnished with the 16092A and 16093A/B for this purpose.

$$Z_s \approx R_0 + jX_0 \quad (\text{Impedance of shorting ring} \ll |R_0 + jX_0|) \quad (2.6)$$

2. Perform measurement with terminals A and B open, and note the values displayed on the 4193A as  $|Z_0|$  and  $\theta_0$  ( $G_0$  and  $B_0$  measurements).

$$Z_0 \approx \frac{1}{G_0 + jB_0} \quad (|G_0 + jB_0| \ll \frac{1}{|R_0 + jX_0|}) \quad (2.7)$$

3. Connect the component to be measured to terminals A and B, and note the values displayed on the 4193A as  $|Z_m|$  and  $\theta_m$ .
4. The actual impedance of the component is  $Z_x/\theta_x$ , and is calculated as follows:

$$|Z_x| = \sqrt{R^2 + X^2} \quad (2.8)$$

$$\theta_x = \tan^{-1} \frac{X}{R} \quad (2.9)$$

where

$$R = \frac{(|Z_0| \cos \theta_m - |Z_m| \cos \theta_0) \cdot |Z_m| \cdot |Z_0|}{(|Z_0| \cos \theta_m - |Z_m| \cos \theta_0)^2 + (|Z_0| \sin \theta_m - |Z_m| \sin \theta_0)^2 - |Z_s| \cos \theta_s} \quad (2.10)$$

$$X = \frac{(|Z_0| \sin \theta_m - |Z_m| \sin \theta_0) \cdot |Z_m| \cdot |Z_0|}{(|Z_0| \cos \theta_m - |Z_m| \cos \theta_0)^2 + (|Z_0| \sin \theta_m - |Z_m| \sin \theta_0)^2 - |Z_s| \sin \theta_s} \quad (2.11)$$

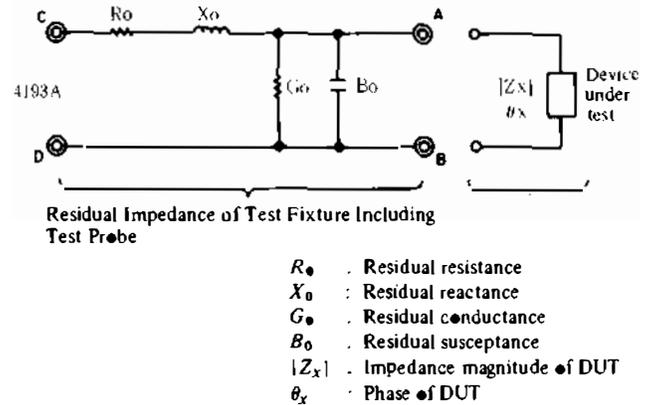


Figure 2.10. Equivalent Circuit of Test Fixture

### 3. IN-CIRCUIT IMPEDANCE MEASUREMENT

In addition to measuring discrete components, as explained in Section 2, it is also important to measure the impedance of the assembled circuit if it is to operate at high frequencies. The following explains how to use the 4193A for this kind of evaluation.

#### 3.1 Input/Output Impedance Measurement

A high-frequency circuit often exhibits characteristics that differ significantly from theoretical ones because of board pattern impedances, and because of stray capacitances between mounted components. This results in, for example, insufficient amplifier output or incorrect filter cutoff frequency. One of the causes is that the actual input and output impedance values are different from the theoretical ones.

By measuring the input and output impedances, the following factors can be correctly evaluated:

- Amplifier or mixer impedance matching.
- Tuning amplifier frequency characteristics.

Two examples of how to solve the above problems are given below.

##### (1) Impedance Matching

Fig. 3.1 shows a hypothetical video amplifier circuit. Point (A) is designed to match at 50 ohms. The filter used in amplifier 2 eliminates noise in the 300 MHz region, and is designed so that the characteristic impedance becomes 50 ohms. With the 4193A, impedance matching was checked at 50 ohms in the frequency range of 1 to 100MHz. The results shown in Fig. 3.2 were obtained.

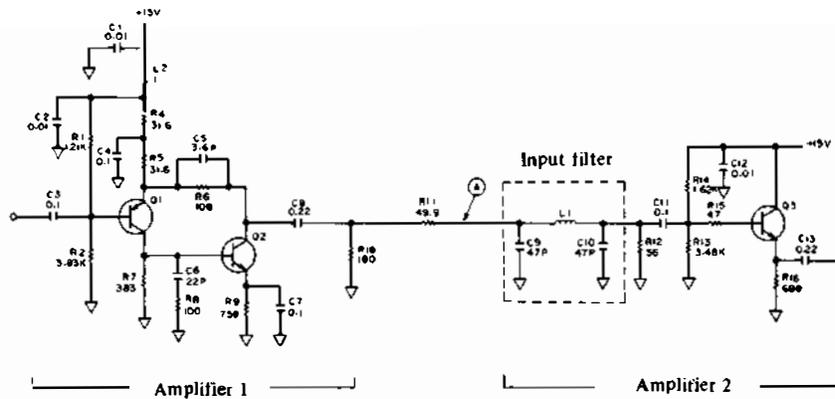
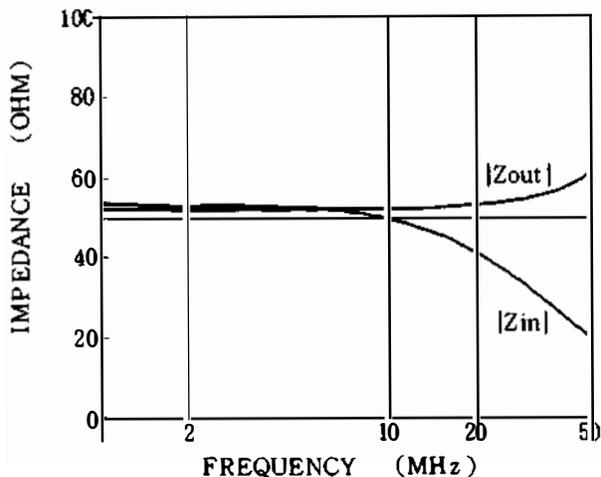


Figure 3.1. Video Frequency Band Amplifier



$|Z_{out}|$  : Output impedance of amplifier 1  
 $|Z_{in}|$  : Input impedance of amplifier 2

Figure 3.2. Impedance Matching between Amplifiers 1 and 2

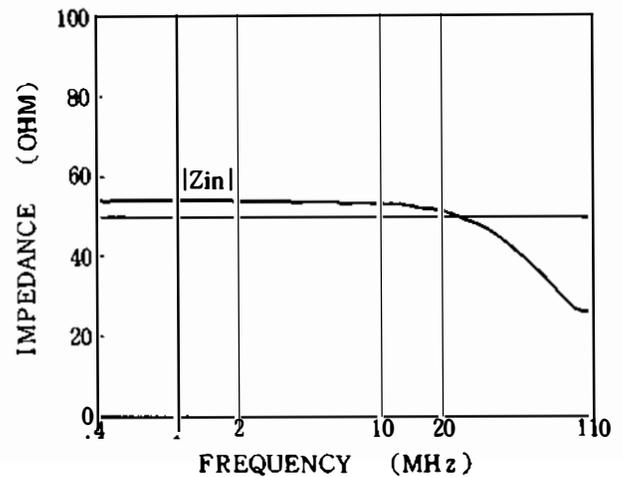


Figure 3.3. Frequency Characteristics of Video Amplifier shown in Figure 3.1 when C9 and C10 values are changed to 20pF in the input filter circuit

The two circuits were found to match at frequencies up to 10 MHz. However, the output and input impedances were 53 and 40 ohms at 20MHz, and 61 and 18 ohms at 50MHz, respectively. That is, they were found not to match at high frequencies. This disparity results because the distributed capacitance of inductor L1 becomes larger as the frequency increases, and because the characteristic impedance value changes. In this circuit, the frequency range is from 1 to 100MHz, and the input impedance of amplifier 2 must be between 25 and 75 ohms to obtain the initial output level of amplifier 2. To satisfy this condition, the value of the input filter capacitor of amplifier 2 must be changed, while measuring the input impedance with the 4193A, until the optimum value is obtained. The value of 20 pF was found to be best for the 47 pF capacitor (Fig. 3.3). Since the filter cutoff frequency is 205 MHz at that value, noise in the 300 MHz area from amplifier 1 can be sufficiently suppressed.

In a circuit which requires matching between stages, the 4193A can be used to measure the impedance, evaluate the results, and if mismatching occurs, to get rid of the cause.

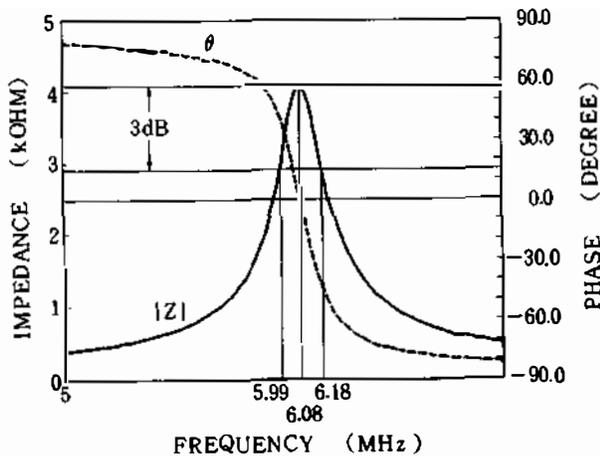


Figure 3.4. Output Impedance-Frequency Characteristics of a Tuned Amplifier

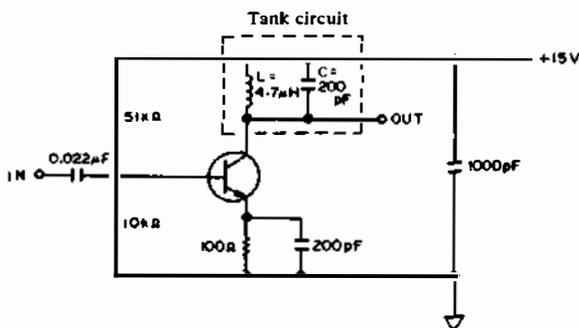


Figure 3.5. Tuned Amplifier Circuit

## (2) Tuned Amplifier

In a tuned amplifier, because output impedance is generally proportional to gain, by measuring output impedance, characteristics such as resonant frequency and bandpass can be evaluated. Fig. 3.4 shows the results of using the 4193A to measure output impedance in order to find frequency characteristics of the tuned amplifier shown in Fig. 3.5. This amplifier should theoretically resonate at 5.2 MHz, but actually resonates at 6.08 MHz. The measured resonant frequency differs from the expected one because of pattern inductance and stray capacitance between patterns and components. From the measurement results shown in Fig. 3.4, the pass band and resonant frequency can be calculated as follows.

- Pass Band . . . . . Frequency range between the -3 dB points on the curve:  
5.99 MHz to 6.18 MHz
- Resonant frequency . . . . . Frequency at which output voltage and current are in phase: 6.08 MHz

When the tank circuit is mounted, the circuit  $Q$  can be calculated from bandwidth  $\Delta F$  and resonant frequency  $f_0$  using the following equation.

$$Q = \frac{f_0}{\Delta F} = \frac{6.08}{6.18 - 5.99} = 32.0 \quad (3.1)$$

When  $L = 4.7 \mu\text{H}$  and  $C = 200 \text{ pF}$ , the characteristics are as shown in Fig. 3.4. To change the resonant frequency to the desired value of 5.2 MHz, the following measures can be taken.

By setting the 4193A measurement frequency to 5.2 MHz and continually changing the value of the tuning capacitor, the phase display can be checked. When the phase is 0 degrees, 254 pF is the capacitor value to be used. Fig. 3.6 shows the output impedance characteristics at that time.

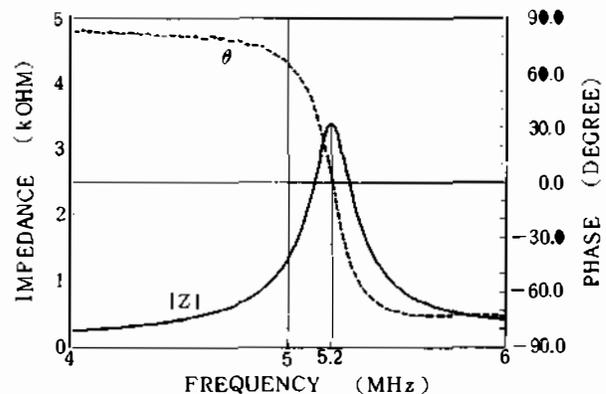


Figure 3.6. Output Impedance - Frequency Characteristics of the Improved Tuned Amplifier

### 3.2 Oscillator Circuit Design and Evaluation

Oscillator circuits, such as crystal oscillators, often do not work as designed. One of the causes is that the negative impedance of the circuit could not be measured accurately after circuit assembly. The 4193A can be used to calculate stable oscillation conditions from the negative impedance measurement and to determine the optimum value of the load impedance. As an example, the following describes how to do so for the 100 MHz crystal oscillator shown in Fig. 3.7.

The 100 MHz crystal oscillator circuit in the figure can be represented by the equivalent circuit shown in Fig. 3.8.

Condition for oscillation:

$$-\frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{R_L} \leq 0 \quad (r \leq R_L) \quad (3.2)$$

Condition for no oscillation:

$$-\frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{R_L} > 0 \quad (r > R_L) \quad (3.3)$$

When the condition given in equation 3.2 is satisfied, oscillation starts. When the condition given in equation 3.3 is satisfied, oscillation does not occur.

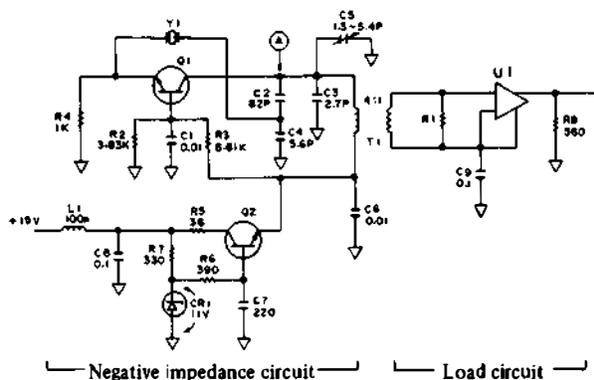


Figure 3.7. 100MHz Crystal Oscillator Circuit

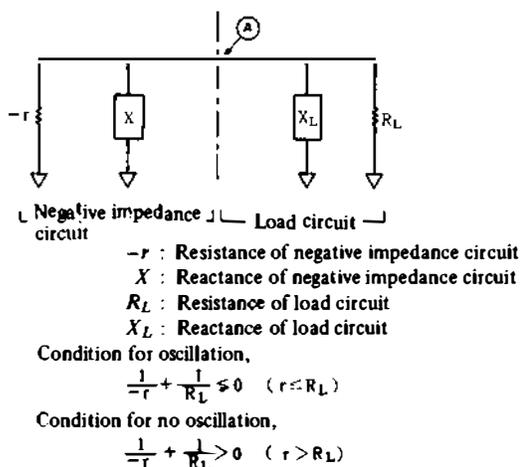


Figure 3.8. Equivalent Circuit and Oscillation Condition of Negative Resistance Oscillator

By disconnecting point A in Fig. 3.8 and measuring the negative impedance and the load impedance with the 4193A, it can be checked whether the oscillation condition and design margin are satisfied. If the oscillation condition is not satisfied, constants  $-r$  or  $R_L$  can be changed to stabilize oscillation.

Refer again to the circuit diagram given in Fig. 3.7. Circuits R1 and U1 on the load side can be removed to check the oscillation condition and to measure the negative output impedance at point A. The result is shown in Fig. 3.9. Oscillations may occur at points B (100 MHz) and C (100.04 MHz) where the phase is  $-180^\circ$ . Since the negative resistance ( $-r_1$ ) at point B is 320 ohms and ( $-r_2$ ) at point C is 820 ohms, the following two conditions must be satisfied to cause oscillation at 100 MHz at point B, and not at 100.04 MHz at point C. From the oscillation condition of equation 3.2,

$$320 \text{ ohms} \leq R_L \quad (r_1 \leq R_L) \quad (3.4)$$

and from equation 3.3,

$$820 \text{ ohms} > R_L \quad (r_2 > R_L) \quad (3.5)$$

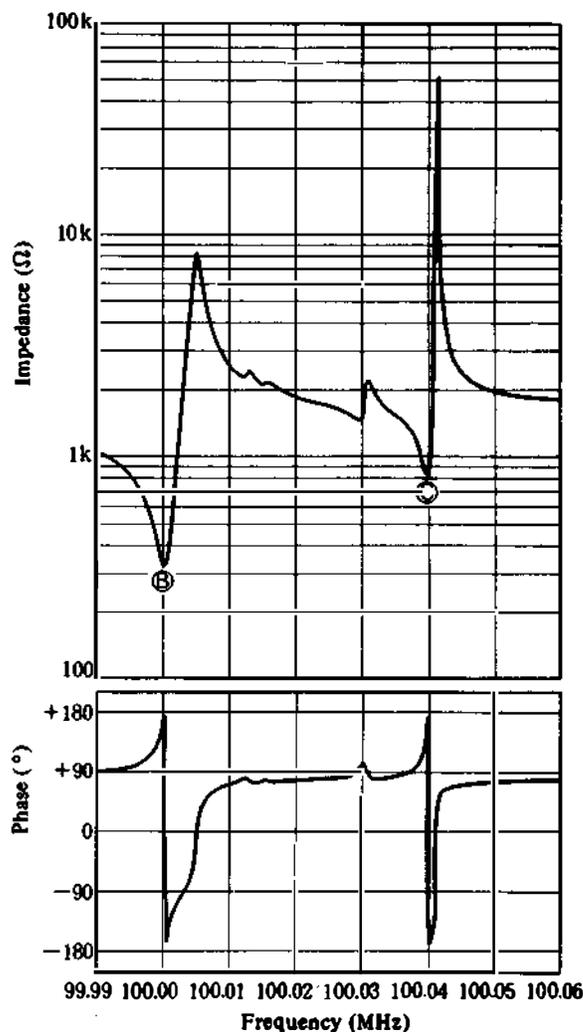


Figure 3.9. Negative Impedance Characteristics of Crystal Oscillator

Thus, a load impedance,  $R_L$ , which satisfies both conditions, must be used. The optimum value is about 600 ohms, which is between 320 and 820 ohms, taking into account design margins such as the diverse impedances of the crystal resonator and circuit components, and ambient temperature.

Value  $R_1$  can then be determined from value  $R_L$  (600 ohms). The impedance on the load side from point A is about 16 times  $R_1$  (connected by transformer T1; turns ratio 4 : 1) because the U1 input resistance can be ignored. Therefore,  $R_1$  is 37.5 ohms (= 600 ohms/16). If  $R_1$  is a discrete resistor with a standard value, 38.3 ohms,  $R_L$  is 612.8 ohms (38.3 ohms  $\times$  16) and fully satisfies the stability conditions at point A (equations 3.4 and 3.5).

Finally,  $R_1$  and U1, whose values are now known, can be installed, the negative impedance can be removed, and the impedance on the load side can be measured using the 4193A. The result is converted to the resistance shown in Fig. 3.10. The figure indicates that value  $R_L$  is around 600 ohms, and that stable oscillation can be obtained.

The 4193A can easily measure the usually hard-to-determine impedance characteristics of an assembled oscillator circuit such as this, or at least to determine circuit constants for securing stable oscillation, for preventing abnormal oscillations, and for designing highly reliable oscillator circuits. Figures 3.9 and 3.10 show measurements made with an external synthesizer connected and the frequency resolution raised. For details, refer to the appendix (p. 18).

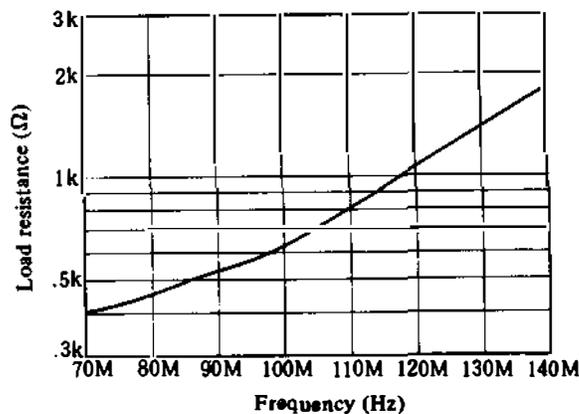
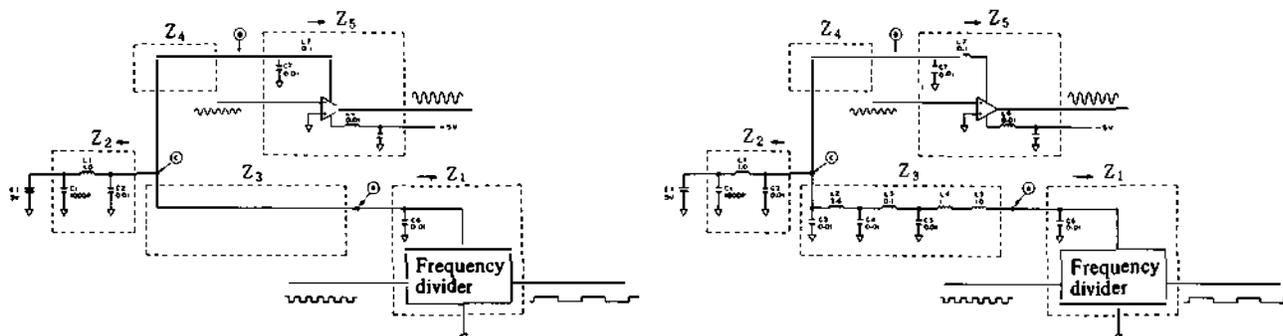


Figure 3.10. Frequency Characteristics of Load Resistance ( $R_L$ ) Derived from Load Circuit Impedance

### 3.3 Power Source and Ground Pattern Impedance

In a hybrid circuit with both analog and digital sections, noise in the digital section may have adverse effects on the analog section when transmitted through the power source or ground line. In this case, the impedances of the power source and ground patterns can be used to prevent noise from getting through. To eliminate interference between circuits, power source line evaluation using the 4193A is especially important. In actual applications, the AC impedance should be large enough to attenuate noise on a line if the line lets noise pass easily, or absorbs noise because of the decoupling capacitor. The 4193A is useful for designing a pattern which does not transmit noise. This is done by measuring pattern impedances of the power source and ground systems over a frequency range of 0.4 to 110 MHz by simple probing.



(1) Printed pattern connection between points A and C

(2) Filter circuit inserted between points A and C

$Z_1$  : Impedance of frequency divider at the power supply point  
 $Z_2$  : Output impedance of 5V supply  
 $Z_3$  : Printed pattern impedance between 5V supply and frequency divider

$Z_4$  : Printed pattern impedance between 5V supply and power supply point of amplifier  
 $Z_5$  : Impedance of amplifier at the power supply input

Figure 3.11. DC Power Supply Configuration for Mixed Analog and Digital Circuit

Fig. 3.11 shows frequency divider (digital) and amplifier (analog) circuits mounted on a printed circuit board. They are both powered from the same +5V power source.  $Z_1$  contains decoupling capacitor C6, and  $Z_5$  contains decoupling capacitor C7. The impedance value is large at high frequencies, and switching noise generated at  $Z_1$  goes to point ⑥ through the +5V power source pattern, and appears in the amplifier output as spurious noise. To check how much noise gets through, the switching frequency of the divider circuit, pattern impedances  $Z_3$  and  $Z_4$  between points ① and ③, and between points ② and ③, respectively, at the second harmonic, and ground impedances  $Z_1$ ,  $Z_2$ , and  $Z_3$  at points ①, ②, and ③, respectively, were measured with the 4193A. The results are listed in Table 3.1 (1). Using equation 3.6 to determine the noise transfer ratio, gave results of 16% to 70%.

$$B(f) = \frac{Z_2 \cdot Z_5 \cdot A(f)}{Z_3 (Z_2 + Z_4 + Z_5) + Z_2 (Z_4 + Z_5)} \quad (3.6)$$

$A(f)$  : Noise generated at  $Z_1$   
 $B(f)$  : Noise transferred to  $Z_5$

If the AC impedance of  $Z_3$  is increased, noise can be attenuated. By inserting an inductor in series with the  $Z_3$  pattern, and a bypass capacitor between the grounds (see Fig. 3.11), the resultant values become as listed in Table 3-1 (2). The noise transfer ratio improves to about 1% or less, spurious noise at the amplifier output decreases at the same ratio, and high-quality signals are thereby obtained.

Since the 4193A measures pattern impedances and quantitatively evaluates noise, it is a valuable tool for achieving more logical and efficient circuit design.

**Table 3-1. Impedance Evaluation of DC Power Supplies**

Frequency		$Z_2(\Omega)$	$Z_3(\Omega)$	$Z_4(\Omega)$	$Z_5(\Omega)$	Noise level at point ⑥
						Noise level at point ①
7.5MHz	(1)	50	1.5	2	9	-30.8dB
	(2)	50	450	2	9	-35.9dB
10MHz	(1)	65	2.5	2.6	1.5	-13.1dB
	(2)	65	600	2.6	1.5	-52.6dB
15MHz	(1)	120	4	3.7	1.5	-15.9dB
	(2)	120	970	3.7	1.5	-56.6dB
20MHz	(1)	235	5.6	4.8	2.5	-14.3dB
	(2)	235	1420	4.8	2.5	-55.4dB

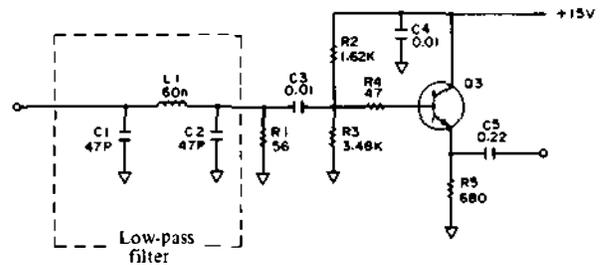
### 3.4 Pattern Inductor Design and Evaluation

Circuits often do not operate as designed at high frequencies because of pattern impedances. However, this need not always be a problem. Pattern impedances can sometimes be utilized for more effective circuit design because of three factors:

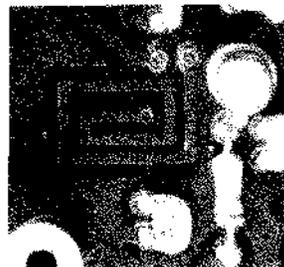
- They have high resonant frequencies, are stable as inductive elements, and are not frequency dependent.
- Not all desired inductor values can be created by coils.
- They are cheap and do not take up much board space.

The following explains how the 4193A is used to measure the pattern inductance of an LC filter.

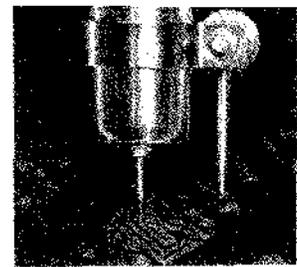
In the low-pass filter for input to the video amplifier shown in Fig. 3.12, pattern type series inductor L1 (Fig. 3.13) was chosen in order to match the previous stage at 50-ohm impedance. This match is necessary because the filter's cut-off frequency is over 100MHz and cannot be increased any further. The designed value is 60nH, but lead inductance, distributed capacitance, pattern inductance, and other factors make it difficult to obtain the exact value when initially assembling the circuit. Here, the 4193A can be used to solve the problem. By making a trial pattern inductor value larger than the designed value, the initial impedance value can be found by shifting the 4193A probe tip (Fig. 3.14).



**Figure 3.12. Low-pass Filter Circuit Used in Video Amplifier**

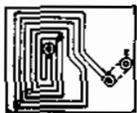
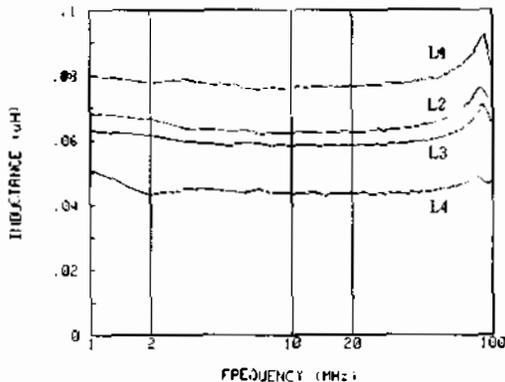


**Figure 3.13. Printed Pattern Inductor**



**Figure 3.14. Pattern Impedance Measurement Using Test Probe of the 4193A**

Conversely, by making the pattern area gradually smaller, the impedance can be measured step by step. In the 4193A, parameter conversion can be easily done by a controller via the HP-IB. The optimum value can be obtained by monitoring the inductance value directly. When designing a pattern with high inductance ( $\geq 1\mu\text{H}$ ), the stray capacitance of the probe may affect measurement. The correct value can be obtained by compensating for the residual impedance (see paragraph 3.5 and appendix A (p. 15)). Fig. 3.15 shows the measured values of the trial pattern inductor created by using the parameter conversion program given in the appendix (p. 19) and gradually changing the measurement point. The point at which the measured value is almost the same as the designed value, 60nH, is found in the frequency range of 1 to 100 MHz. The 4193A proves very useful for measuring pattern inductance of a high-frequency electronic circuit like this or any other hybrid IC because of its high resolution (10 milliohms), wide measurement range, and easy-to-use probe.



- L<sub>1</sub> : Impedance between A and E
- L<sub>2</sub> : Impedance between B and E
- L<sub>3</sub> : Impedance between C and E
- L<sub>4</sub> : Impedance between D and E

Figure 3.15. Helical Pattern Inductance Evaluation at Different Points on Pattern

### 3.5 Measuring Assembled Circuit Impedance

There are several points to note when measuring assembled circuit impedance, especially active circuits which must have high reliability. The four most important points for making measurements with the 4193A are as follows:

#### (1) Circuit Measurement Fixture and Residual Impedance Compensation

In addition to the component measurement test fixtures explained in Section 2.3, there are also circuit measurement test fixtures for the 4193A. Fig. 3.16 (a) shows a ground adapter which measures by directly probing circuit, and Fig. 3.16 (b) shows a ground lead used when there is no ground point near the measurement point.

When the circuit measurement terminal is a BNC connector, the BNC adapter shown in Fig. 3.17 is used. The BNC adapter ground can be used as an N-type ground if removed. Residual impedances can be compensated for these fixtures in the same way as for discrete component test fixtures described in Section 2.4.



Figure 3.16. Ground Adapter (a) and Ground Lead (b)



Figure 3.17. BNC Adapter

#### (2) Probe Withstand Voltage

When the probe is used to measure impedances in an active circuit the bias voltage of the circuit may have an adverse affect. The 4193A probe can handle up to 50V DC, and can measure almost any circuit without being damaged. However, this limit may be exceeded when measuring a circuit driven by high voltage or a high output electronic amplifier. In this case, correct measurement can be obtained without damaging the probe by using a blocking capacitor (refer to the appendix for the measurement method). Note that the AC withstand voltage of the probe is 5V<sub>rms</sub>.

#### (3) Measurement Signal Level

The 4193A measurement signal level changes according to the impedance measurement range, as listed in Table 3-2. If the range is fixed, the current level does not change regardless of the impedance measured. Therefore, a voltage equal to the product of displayed impedance value and measurement current is applied to the component being measured, and reaches its peak when the impedance value is highest.

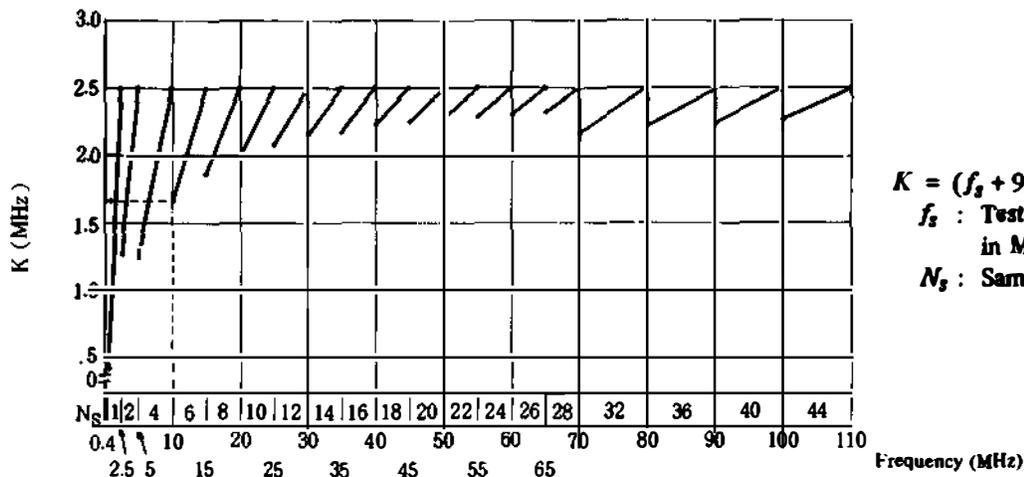
**Table 3-2. Relation between Measurement Signal Level and Impedance Range**

Impedance range	10Ω	100Ω	1kΩ	10kΩ	100kΩ
Measurement current	100μA	100μA	100μA	50μA	10μA
Maximum signal level	2mV	20mV	200mV	1V	1.2V

If measured impedance value overrange (Or) is displayed, the voltage applied to the component exceeds the value in the table. This may reach 100 to 230mVrms on 10Ω to 1kΩ ranges, and 1 to 1.2Vrms on other ranges. Therefore, care must be taken when measuring voltage sensitive components. When measuring an assembled circuit, the measurement signal level must be carefully considered, especially for circuits that contain an amplifier. If the circuit saturates, or if the active point of an active element is changed drastically, the impedance may be measured under circuit conditions different from actual operating conditions. To guard against this, use an oscilloscope, and check the measurement points of the circuit before actual measurement to make sure that there is no distortion in the waveforms.

**(4) Effects of Operation Signals on Circuit Measurement**  
When measuring circuit impedance with the 4193A, ideally, the circuit should be free from operating signals or noise. However, this is impossible for some circuits. For circuits with AC signals (e.g., active circuits such as synthesizers or signal generators), the measured value may become unstable. To obtain stable results with the 4193A despite the AC signals or noise, the following two points should be considered.

1. Difference between frequency of operating signal in the circuit and the 4193A measurement frequency.
2. Level of operating signal going through the circuit.



**Figure 3.19. Relation of Constant K to Test Frequency of 4193A**

$$K = (f_s + 9.765 \times 10^{-3}) / N_s$$

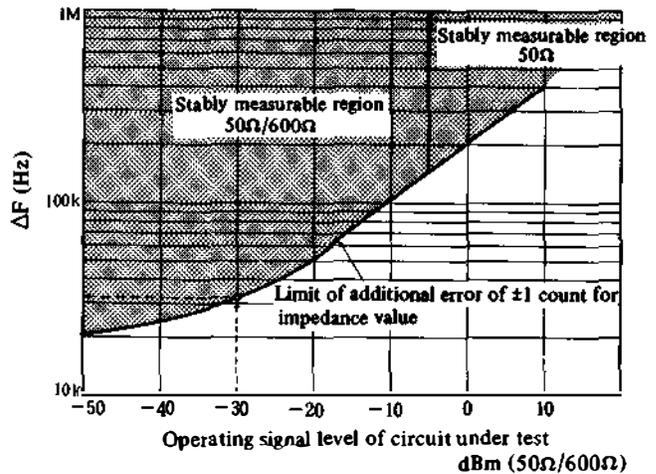
$f_s$  : Test frequency of the 4193A in MHz  
 $N_s$  : Sampling number

**1. Frequency condition**

If the operating frequency of the circuit to be measured is too close to the 4193A measurement frequency, measured values fluctuate and the correct value cannot be obtained. Therefore, it is necessary to set a difference between them. This difference, called ΔF, changes according to the signal level of the circuit to be measured. Fig. 3.18 gives reference data indicating the relationships between signal level and ΔF. Note how much difference must be set between their frequencies when the signal level does not change. This is near the fundamental wave of the 4193A measurement signal, but also applies to harmonics. Therefore, the following harmonics and signal frequency of the circuit to be measured must have at least the ΔF shown in Fig. 3.18.

$$F = n \times K \quad (n = 1, 2, \dots) \quad (3.7)$$

$F$ : 4193A harmonics  
 $K$ : See Fig. 3.19



(ΔF: Frequency difference between test frequency of the 4193A and operating signal frequency of circuit under test)

**Figure 3.18. Relation between Minimum Frequency Difference (ΔF) and Operating Signal Level of Circuit under Test**

**2. Level of operating signal passing through circuit**

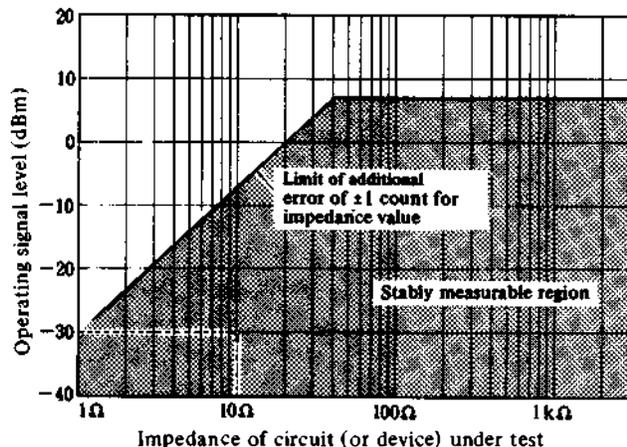
The second point necessary for stable measurement is the level of the signal passing through the circuit. The maximum allowable signal level in the circuit loosely depends on the impedance of the component to be measured, as shown in Fig. 3.20. For example, if the impedance is 10-ohm, the level of the signal passing through the circuit must be lower than -10 dBm. If higher, measurement values may fluctuate.

Check whether the following example satisfies the above condition (indicated by dashed lines in Fig. 3.18 to 3.20).

Measurement conditions:

- Operating frequency . . . . 10MHz (assume there are no harmonics)
- Operation signal level . . . . -30 dBm
- Impedance . . . . . 10 ohms

If the measurement is made at a frequency as close to the operating frequency as possible,  $\Delta F$  is 30 to 35 kHz as calculated from Fig. 3.18. Then, suppose that the 4193A measurement frequency is set to 10.04MHz. Here, 8.3748 and 10.0498 MHz are found to be the 4193A harmonics closest to 10MHz from equation 3.7 and Fig. 3.19. These values satisfy the  $\Delta F$  condition because they are more than 35 kHz away from the operating frequency, 10 MHz, of the component to be measured. Also, since the 10-ohm impedance is in the stable area of Fig. 3.20 when the operation signal is -30 dBm, stable measurement is possible at 10.04 MHz. Note that measurement is always stable if the level of a signal passing through a circuit is -80 dB or lower than the 4193A measurement signal.



**Figure 3.20. Relation between Operating Signal Level and Impedance Value of Circuit under Test**

# APPENDIXES

## A. HP-IB System Applications

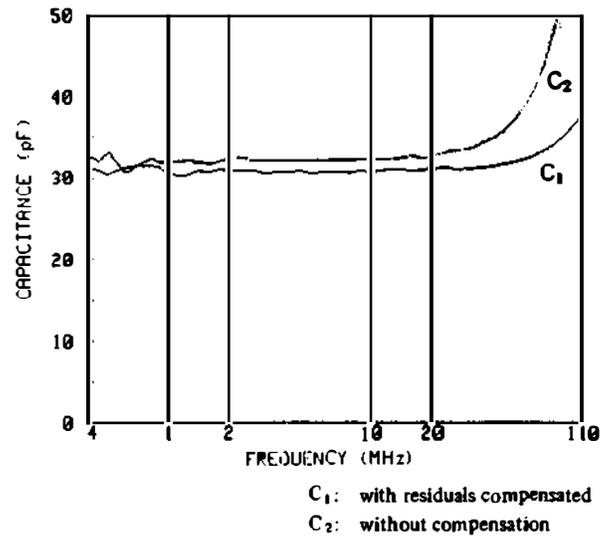
By connecting the 4193A to a controller via the HP-IB, measurement and data processing can be done automatically. The following describes a measurement example in which the residual impedance of a test fixture is compensated by a simple system structure as shown in Fig. A-1. Parameter conversion is also done. Residual impedance compensation was already explained in Section 2.4. Parameter conversion can be calculated from the 4193A measurement data ( $|Z|$  and  $\theta$ ) given in Table A-1. Fig.

A-2 (p. 16) is a flowchart for compensation and conversion using the 9845B desk-top computer, and shows six cases of representative automatic parameter conversion. The results are given in Fig. A-3. This program is very efficient because parameter conversion can be done without having to compensate for residual impedance. For a device or test fixture which does not require such compensation, parameter conversion can be done immediately.

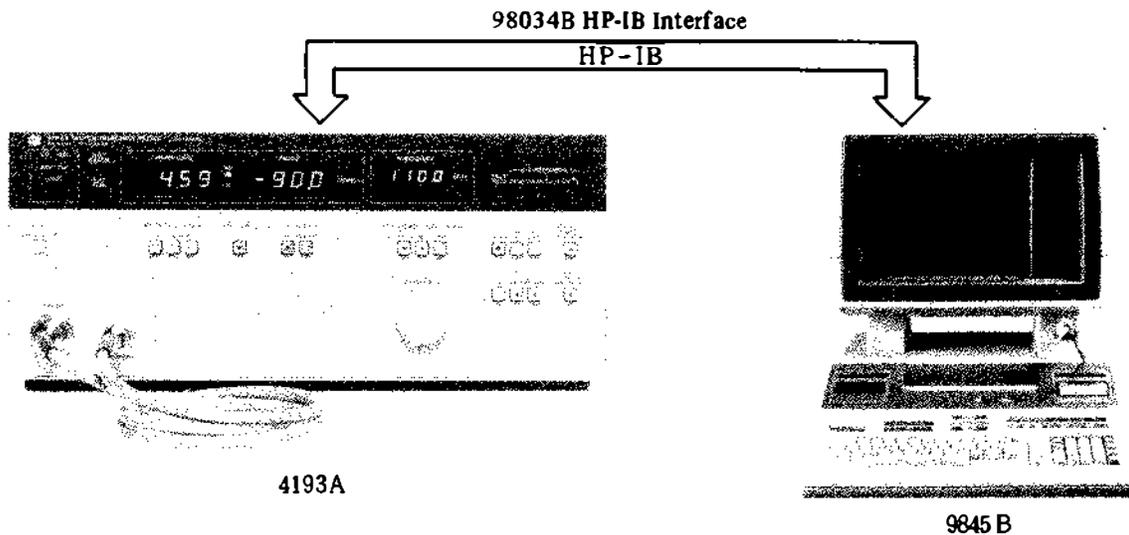
**Table A-1. Table of Parameter Conversion**

Parameters	Equivalent Circuits	Symbols	Conversion equations
Series resistance		$R_S$	$ Z  \cdot \cos \theta$
Series reactance		$X$	$ Z  \cdot \sin \theta$
Conductance		$G$	$\cos \theta /  Z $
Susceptance		$B$	$-\sin \theta /  Z $
Series inductance		$L_S$	$ Z  \cdot \sin \theta / (2\pi f)$
Series capacitance		$C_S$	$-1 / (2\pi f \cdot  Z  \cdot \sin \theta)$
Parallel inductance		$L_P$	$ Z  / (2\pi f \cdot \sin \theta)$
Parallel capacitance		$C_P$	$-\sin \theta / (2\pi f \cdot  Z )$
Quality factor		$Q$	$ \tan \theta $
Dissipation factor		$D$	$\tan \delta = 1 /  \tan \theta $
Admittance		$ Y , \theta_Y$	$ Y  = 1 /  Z , \theta_Y = -\theta$

$f$  : Test frequency  
 $|Z|$  : Impedance magnitude readings  
 $\theta$  : Phase readings



**Figure A-3. Effect of Residual Compensation**



**Figure A-1. Example HP-IB System Using the 4193A**

OPT. 311 (98411A) GRAPHICS ROM  
 OPT. 312 (98412A) I/O ROM

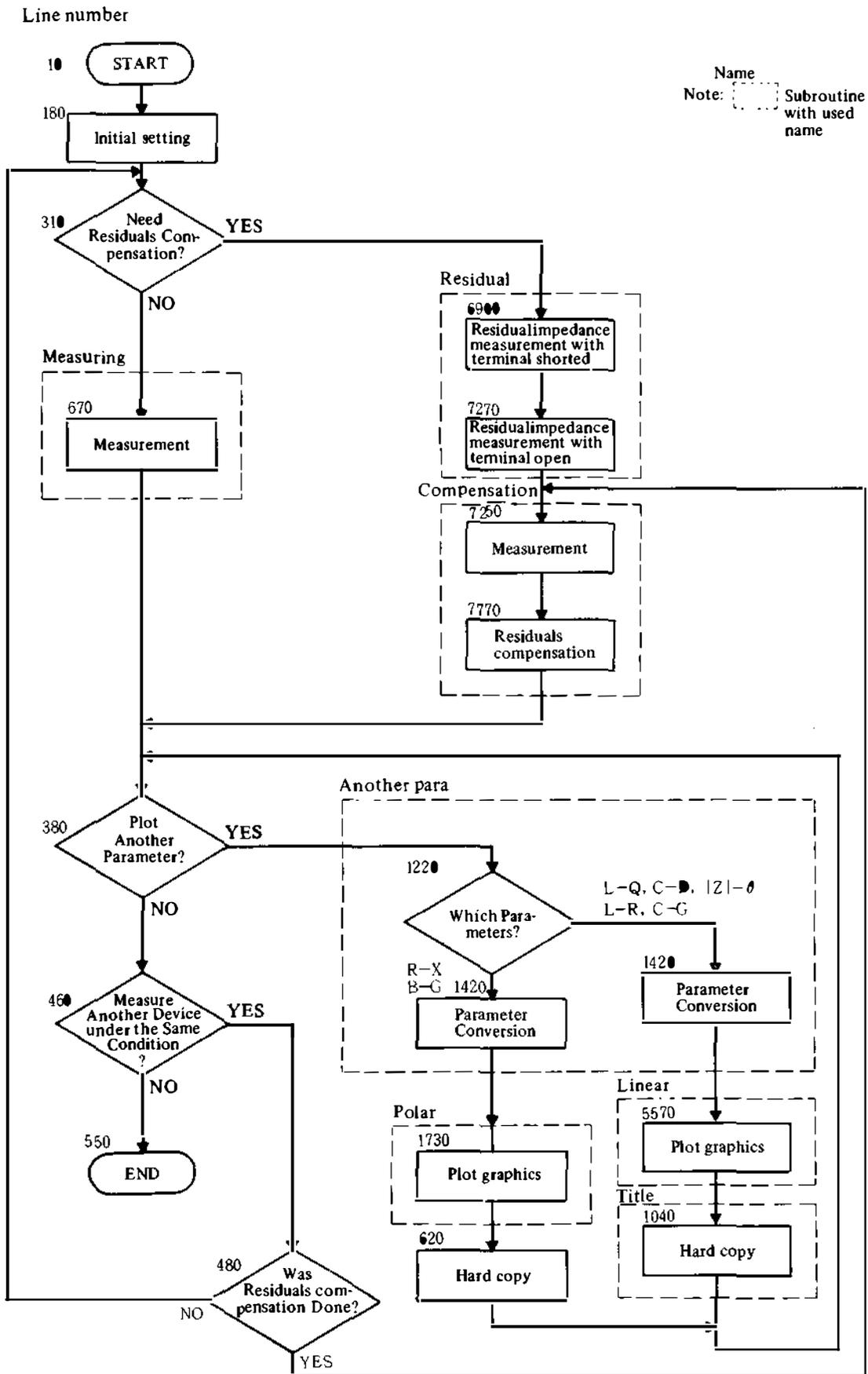


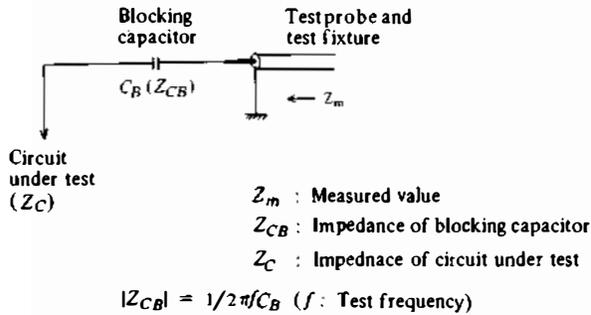
Figure A-2. Flow Chart for Residual Impedance Compensation and Parameter Conversion Program

## B. Measuring Impedance of Components Biased at Over 50V DC

The 4193A probe can safely handle up to 50V DC or 5Vrms AC. Use the following methods for values over 50V DC to prevent damage to the probe.

### (1) Circuit Measurement

If a circuit has a bias voltage of over 50V, insert a blocking capacitor ( $C_B$ ) between the probe and circuit before measurement (Fig. B-1). The impedance  $[1/(2\pi f C_B)]$  of capacitor  $C_B$  must be negligible at the measurement frequency in order to compare it with that of the circuit to be measured. Note that a 4193A measurement value includes  $C_B$  if the value is not small enough. When this occurs, apply the same voltage to be applied to the circuit



when the impedance of blocking capacitor is negligible compared to that of circuit under test:

$$(|Z_{CB}| \ll |Z_C|)$$

$$Z_C \approx Z_m$$

when the impedance of blocking capacitor is not negligible:

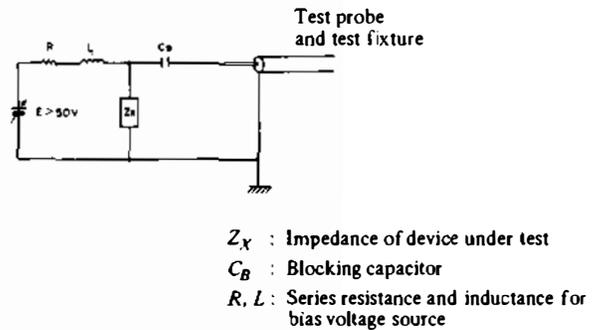
$$Z_C = Z_m - Z_{CB}$$

Figure B-1. Measurement of Active Circuits Biased at Over 50V DC

to  $C_B$ , and check that it does not fail. Then measure with the 4193A to obtain the value of vector impedance  $Z_{CB}$ . After that, measure circuit impedance  $Z_m$  through capacitor  $C_B$  and compute  $Z_m - Z_{CB}$  to obtain the value of component impedance  $Z_C$ .

### (2) Component Measurement

When measuring a component with a voltage over 50V, use the bias circuit shown in Fig. B-2. Here, the impedance of capacitor  $C_B$  must be negligible as described in (1). If the  $C_B$  impedance is too large, compensate in the same way as described in (1). Conversely, the impedance,  $\sqrt{R^2 + \omega^2 L^2}$ , of the bias circuit must be sufficiently large in comparison with that of the component, because the two are in parallel.



$$|Z_{CB}| = 1/2\pi f C_B \quad (f: \text{Test frequency})$$

Condition that the measured value is equal to the impedance value of DUT is as follows:

$$|Z_{CB}| \ll |Z_x|$$

$$\sqrt{R^2 + (2\pi f L)^2} \gg |Z_x|$$

Figure B-2. Measurement of Components Biased at Over 50V DC

### C. How to Increase Test Frequency Resolution (External Synthesizer Application)

The 4193A frequency resolution is 4 digits, but must be improved when measuring high  $Q$  devices, such as crystals. The frequency resolution can be improved by connecting an external synthesizer to the 4193A as shown in Fig. C-1. The external synthesizer affects only the frequency resolution. The measurement signal level and other characteristics are all determined by the 4193A. It is best to make the synthesizer frequency as close to that of the 4193A as possible, but, for the absolute impedance value  $|Z|$ , a difference of 10 MHz or less is small enough for accurate measurement. The phase should be compensated using the following equation.

$$\theta_r = \theta_m + 0.72 (f_0 - f_1)$$

$f_0$  : 4193A set frequency in MHz  
 $f_1$  : External synthesizer set frequency in MHz  
 $\theta_m$  : 4193A display value  
 $\theta_r$  : Compensated real phase value

The limit of frequency resolution provided by an external synthesizer depends on the residual FM in the 4193A internal synthesizer (Fig. C-2).

#### Notes

If a synthesizer capable of generating a frequency of 110 MHz or over is connected, the 4193A may be able to measure up to 140 MHz. Also, if a synthesizer with higher frequency resolution than residual FM in the 4193A internal synthesizer is used, measurement is possible with lower frequency resolution than residual FM. In this case, however, accuracy of the measured value cannot be guaranteed.

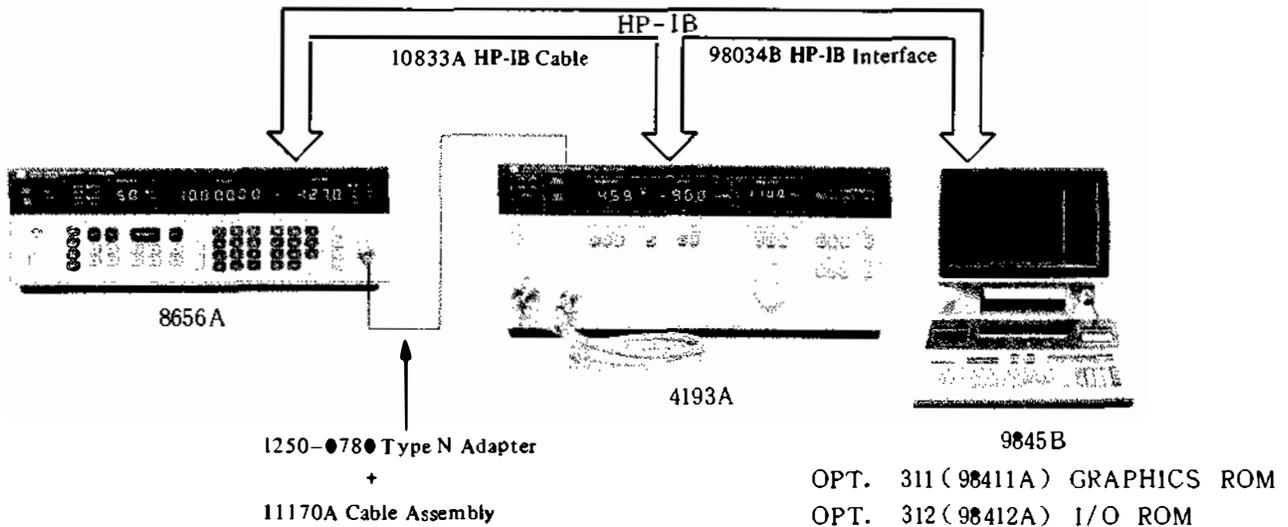


Figure C-1. How to Connect an External Synthesizer

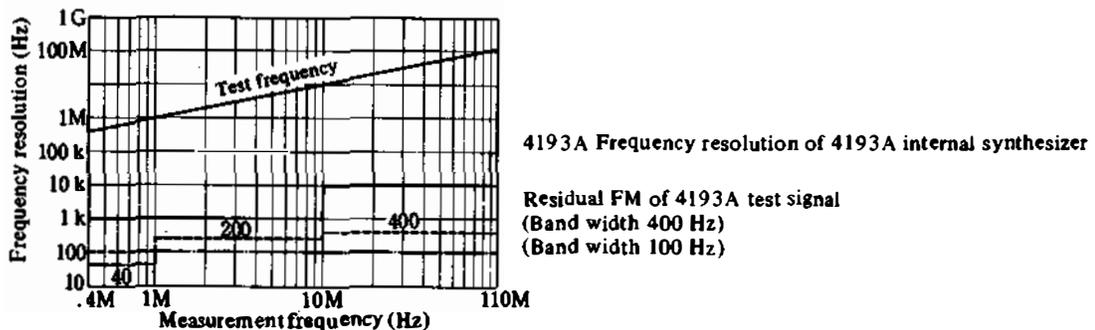


Figure C-2. Residual FM of Test Signal of 4193A



```

1300 PRINT "C|-PHASE", " Z"
1310 BEEP
1320 INPUT "Input PARAMETER COMBINATTON NUMBER.", B
1330 GCLEAR
1340 FIXED 3
1350 IF B=1 THEN PRINT "STEP No.", "FREQUENCY (MHZ)", "RESISTANCE (OHM)", "REACTAN
CE (OHM)"
1360 IF B=2 THEN PRINT "STEP No.", "FREQUENCY (MHZ)", "CONDUCTANCE (MS)", "SUSCEPT
ANCE (MS)"
1370 IF B=3 THEN PRINT "STEP No.", "FREQUENCY (MHZ)", "INDUCTANCE (OHM)", "QUALITY
FACTOR"
1380 IF B=4 THEN PRINT "STEP No.", "FREQUENCY (MHZ)", "CAPACITANCE (PF)", "DISIPA
TION"
1390 IF B=5 THEN PRINT "STEP No.", "FREQUENCY (MHZ)", "INDUCTANCE (MH)", "RESISTAN
CE(OHM)"
1400 IF B=6 THEN PRINT "STEP No.", "FREQUENCY (MHZ)", "CAPACITANCE (PF)", "CONDUCT
ANCE (MS)"
1410 IF B=7 THEN PRINT "STEP No.", "FREQUENCY (MHZ)", "MAGNITUDE (OHM)", "PHASE (D
EGREE)"
1420 FOR I=1 TO N
1430 IF B=1 THEN A(I)=C*(1+COS(D*I))
1440 IF B=2 THEN A(I)=COS(D(I))*C*(1+1000
1450 IF B=3 THEN A(I)=C*(ASIN(D*I))/2/PI*(I+1E6
1460 IF B=4 THEN A(I)=-1E12/2*(I*(I)/SIN(D*(I)))*F(I)
1470 IF B=5 THEN A(I)=C*(I+SIN(D(I)))/2/PI*(I+1E6
1480 IF B=6 THEN A(I)=-1E12/2/PI*(I)-SIN(D(I))*F(I)
1490 IF B=7 THEN A(I)=C*(I)
1500 IF B=1 THEN B(I)=C*(I)*SIN(D(I))
1510 IF B=2 THEN B(I)=-SIN(D(I))*C*(I)*1000
1520 IF (B=3) AND (C(I)=0) THEN B(I)=ABS(SIN(D(I)))/PI*E3
1530 IF (B=3) AND (C(I)=0) THEN 1590
1540 IF B=3 THEN B(I)=ABS(SIN(D(I)))*ABS(COS(D(I)))
1550 IF B=4 THEN B(I)=TAN(ABS(90-ABS(D(I))))
1560 IF B=5 THEN B(I)=C*(I)*COS(D(I))
1570 IF B=6 THEN B(I)=COS(D(I))*C*(I)*1000
1580 IF B=7 THEN B(I)=C(I)
1590 IF T1<A(I) THEN T1=A(I)
1600 IF T2<A(I) THEN T2=A(I)
1610 IF S1<B(I) THEN S1=B(I)
1620 IF S2<B(I) THEN S2=B(I)
1630 PRINT I, F(I), 1E6*A(I), B(I)
1640 NEXT I
1650 PRINT "-----"
1660 PRINT "MAXIMUM=", "A=";T1, "B=";S1
1670 PRINT "MINIMUM=", "A=";T2, "B=";S2
1680 BEEP
1690 INPUT "Input MAXIMUM and MINIMUM value of A for graphic scaling",K1,K2
1700 INPUT "Input MAXIMUM and MINIMUM value of B for graphic scaling",L1,L2
1710 STANDARD
1720 RETURN
1730 Polar: 1 ++++++***** POLAR *****+
1740 SCALE K2-(K1-K2)*.2,(K1+(K1-K2)*.2),L2-(L1-L2)*.2,(L1+(L1-L2)*.2)
1750 CLIP K2,K1,L2,L1
1760 FRAME
1770 IF (K1=0) AND (L1<0) THEN 1870
1780 IF (K1=0) AND (K2=0) OR (L2=0) THEN 2190
1790 IF (K1<0) AND (L1=0) OR (L1=0) AND (L2<0) THEN 2530
1800 IF (K2=0) OR (K1=0) AND (L1=0) THEN 3040
1810 IF (K2=0) OR (K1=0) AND (L2=0) OR (L2=0) THEN 3370
1820 IF (K2=0) OR (K1=0) AND (L1=0) OR (L1=0) AND (L2=0) THEN 3700
1830 IF (K1=0) OR (K1=0) AND (K2=0) AND (L2=0) OR (L2=0) THEN 4100
1840 IF (K1=0) OR (K1=0) AND (K2=0) AND (L1<0) THEN 4490
1850 IF (K1=0) OR (K1=0) AND (K2<0) AND (L1=0) OR (L1=0) AND (L2<0) THEN 48
90
1860 1 ++++++***** K1=0 AND L1=0 *****+
1870 AXES (K1-K2)/10,(L1-L2)/10,K2,L2
1880 MOVE (K1+K2)/2,L2-(L1-L2)*.2
1890 CSIZE 4,.5
1900 DEG
1910 LOG 4
1920 GOSUB Name

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1930 FOR I=0 TO 10 STEP 2
1940 MOVE (2+I*(K1-K2)/10),(L2-(L1-L2)*.01
1950 CSIZE 4,.5
1960 LOG 6
1970 IF K2<-499 THEN 2000
1980 LABEL (2+I*(K1-K2)/10
1990 GOTO 2010
2000 LABEL (K2+I*(K1-K2)/10)*1000
2010 NEXT I
2020 MOVE K2-(K1-K2)*.2,(L1+L2)/2
2030 CSIZE 4,.5
2040 LDIP 90
2050 DEG
2060 LOG 6
2070 GOSUB Name
2080 LDIP 0
2090 FOR I=0 TO 10 STEP 2
2100 MOVE K2-(K1-K2)*.01,(L2+I*(L1-L2)/10
2110 CSIZE 4,.5
2120 LOG 8
2130 IF L2<-499 THEN 2160
2140 LABEL (L2+I*(L1-L2)/10
2150 GOTO 2170
2160 LABEL (L2+I*(L1-L2)/10)*1000
2170 NEXT I
2180 GOTO 5350
2190 1 ++++++***** K1=0 AND L2=0 *****+
2200 AXES (K1-K2)/10,(L1-L2)/10,K2,L2
2210 MOVE (K1+K2)/2,L2-(L1-L2)*.2
2220 CSIZE 4,.5
2230 DEG
2240 LOG 4
2250 GOSUB Name
2260 FOR I=0 TO 10 STEP 2
2270 MOVE K2+I*(K1-K2)/10,(L2-(L1-L2)*.01
2280 CSIZE 4,.5
2290 LOG 6
2300 IF K2<-499 THEN 2330
2310 LABEL (2+I*(K1-K2)/10
2320 GOTO 2340
2330 LABEL (K2+I*(K1-K2)/10)*1000
2340 NEXT I
2350 MOVE K2-(K1-K2)*.2,(L1+L2)/2
2360 CSIZE 4,.5
2370 LDIP 90
2380 DEG
2390 LOG 6
2400 GOSUB Name
2410 LDIP 0
2420 FOR I=0 TO 10 STEP 2
2430 MOVE (2+I*(K1-K2)/10),(L2+I*(L1-L2)/10
2440 CSIZE 4,.5
2450 LOG 8
2460 IF L2<-499 THEN 141
2470 LABEL (L2+I*(L1-L2)/10
2480 GOTO 2500
2490 LABEL (L2+I*(L1-L2)/10)*1000
2500 NEXT I
2510 GOTO 5350
2520 1 ++++++***** K1=0 AND L1=0 AND L2=0 *****+
2530 AXES (K1-K2)/10,(L1-L2)/10,K1,0
2540 MOVE (2+I*(K1-K2)/10),(L2-L1)/20
2550 CSIZE 4,.5
2560 DEG
2570 LOG 3
2580 GOSUB Name
2590 FOR I=0 TO 10 STEP 2
2600 MOVE (2+I*(K1-K2)/10),(L2-L1)*.01
2610 CSIZE 4,.5
2620 LOG 6
2630 IF K2<-499 THEN 2660

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4060 GOTO 4020
4070 LABEL 1*(L1-L2) 10000
4080 NEXT I
4090 GOTO 5350
4100 *****
4110 AXES (K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4120 MOVE (K1-K2)/2, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4130 CSIZE 4, .5
4140 LOGS 6
4150 GOSUB Name
4160 FOR I=0 TO K1/10*(K1-K2) STEP 2
4170 MOVE I*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4180 CSIZE 4, .5
4190 LOGS 6
4200 IF (K1/10)*K1 >= 0 AND (K2/10)*K2 >= 0 THEN 4220
4210 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10
4220 GOTO 4240
4230 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10 10000
4240 NEXT I
4250 FOR I=0 TO K2/10*(K1-K2) STEP 2
4260 MOVE I*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4270 IF (K2/10)*K2 >= 0 THEN 4300
4280 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10
4290 GOTO 4310
4300 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10 10000
4310 NEXT I
4320 MOVE .05*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4330 CSIZE 4, .5
4340 LDIP 90
4350 DEG
4360 LOGS 7
4370 GOSUB Naming
4380 LDIP 0
4390 FOR I=0 TO 10 STEP 2
4400 MOVE I*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4410 CSIZE 4, .5
4420 LOGS 8
4430 IF (L1/10)*K1 >= 0 THEN 4460
4440 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10
4450 GOTO 4470
4460 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10 10000
4470 NEXT I
4480 GOTO 5350
4490 I *****
4500 AXES (K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4510 MOVE (K1-K2)/2, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4520 CSIZE 4, .5
4530 DEG
4540 LOGS 4
4550 GOSUB Name
4560 FOR I=0 TO K1/10*(K1-K2) STEP 2
4570 MOVE I*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4580 CSIZE 4, .5
4590 LOGS 4
4600 IF (K2/10)*K2 >= 0 OR (K1/10)*K1 >= 0 THEN 4630
4610 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10
4620 GOTO 4640
4630 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10 10000
4640 NEXT I
4650 FOR I=0 TO K2/10*(K1-K2) STEP 2
4660 MOVE I*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4670 IF (K2/10)*K2 >= 0 THEN 4700
4680 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10
4690 GOTO 4710
4700 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10 10000
4710 NEXT I
4720 MOVE .05*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4730 CSIZE 4, .5
4740 LDIP 90
4750 DEG
4760 LOGS 7

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4770 GOSUB Naming
4780 LDIP 0
4790 FOR I=0 TO 10 STEP 2
4800 MOVE .05*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4810 CSIZE 4, .5
4820 LOGS 8
4830 IF (K2/10)*K2 >= 0 THEN 4860
4840 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10
4850 GOTO 4870
4860 LABEL (L2+I*(L1-L2)/10) 10000
4870 NEXT I
4880 GOTO 5350
4890 I *****
4900 AXES (K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4910 MOVE (K1-K2)/2, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4920 CSIZE 4, .5
4930 DEG
4940 LOGS 7
4950 GOSUB Name
4960 FOR I=0 TO K1/10*(K1-K2) STEP 2
4970 MOVE I*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
4980 CSIZE 4, .5
4990 LOGS 4
5000 IF (K1/10)*K1 >= 0 THEN 5030
5010 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10
5020 GOTO 5040
5030 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10 10000
5040 NEXT I
5050 FOR I=0 TO K2/10*(K1-K2) STEP 2
5060 MOVE I*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
5070 IF (K2/10)*K2 >= 0 THEN 5100
5080 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10
5090 GOTO 5110
5100 LABEL I*(K1-K2)/10 10000
5110 NEXT I
5120 MOVE .05*(K1-K2)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
5130 CSIZE 4, .5
5140 LDIP 90
5150 DEG
5160 LOGS 7
5170 GOSUB Naming
5180 LDIP 0
5190 FOR I=0 TO L1/10*(L1-L2) STEP 2
5200 MOVE .05*(K2-K1)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
5210 CSIZE 4, .5
5220 LOGS 8
5230 IF (L1/10)*K1 >= 0 THEN 5260
5240 LABEL I*(L1-L2)/10
5250 GOTO 5270
5260 LABEL I*(L1-L2)/10 10000
5270 NEXT I
5280 FOR I=0 TO L2/10*(L1-L2) STEP 2
5290 MOVE .05*(K2-K1)/10, (L1-L2)/10, 0, L2
5300 IF (L2/10)*K2 >= 0 THEN 5330
5310 LABEL I*(L1-L2)/10
5320 GOTO 5340
5330 LABEL I*(L1-L2)/10 10000
5340 NEXT I
5350 I ----- PLOT -----
5360 MOVE A(1), B(1)
5370 FOR I=1 TO N
5380 DRAW A(I), B(I)
5390 NEXT I
5400 RETURN
5410 Name: I ----- PRINTING -----
5420 IF (K2/10)*K2 >= 0 OR (K1/10)*K1 >= 0 THEN 5450
5430 IF B=1 THEN LABEL "RESISTANCE (OHM)"
5440 IF B=2 THEN LABEL "CONDUCTANCE (MS)"
5450 GOTO 5460
5460 IF B=1 THEN LABEL "RESISTANCE (OHM)"
5470 IF B=2 THEN LABEL "CONDUCTANCE (MS)"

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