

THE DESIGN OF HIGH SPEED  
ANALOG SAMPLE AND STORAGE GATES

by

RONALD ERIC GOCHT

B.S. Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.  
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B.S. Massachusetts Institute of Technology,  
Cambridge, Massachusetts  
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Signature of Author \_\_\_\_\_  
Department of Electrical Engineering, August 24, 1959

Certified by \_\_\_\_\_ Thesis Supervisor

Accepted by \_\_\_\_\_  
Chairman, Departmental Committee on Graduate Students

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## ABSTRACT

A pulsed analog computer has been proposed which requires the use of analog gates. In order to solve the real time flight simulation problem it has been estimated that components with a maximum deviation from linearity of 1% are required. The computer would operate at 100 KC with a program which is repeated at a 50 cps rate. The purpose of this thesis is to demonstrate that the construction of analog gates capable of meeting the requirements of this system is within the realm of present day technology.

An organized procedure is developed whereby sample gates (impulse modulators) are analyzed. Several diode and several transistor gates are analyzed in great detail, including a prediction of gate linearity from a non-linear model of the gating elements. Several sample gates are found which would be capable of meeting our requirements, the simplest of which is the two bilateral transistor gate. A method for including the sample gate in a closed loop with an operational amplifier to improve linearity is demonstrated. Measurements of sample gate linearity are made in both DC and pulsed situations.

A similar procedure is developed whereby storage gates (clampers) are analyzed. Several storage gates are analyzed but only one, the four diode bridge gate, is found to be capable of pulsed analog applications. An interesting result of the discussion of storage gates is the fact that a certain class of these gates are perfectly linear. Measurements of a storage gates abilities are made by several methods, including a closed loop method which multiplies gate errors until they are easily measured.

Thesis Supervisor: George C. Newton

Title: Associate Professor of Electrical Engineering

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY

#### 1.1 ANALOG GATES, APPLICATIONS AND DEFINITIONS

The use of pulsed or time sharing schemes with analog computing equipment is becoming more popular and more practical each day. In some cases this analog equipment may consist of only an analog output tied to a digital computer.<sup>1</sup> In other digital computers analog equipment may be a part of the computing loop, in which case both input and output to and from the analog world are demanded.<sup>2</sup> Techniques in which analog equipment is conserved by time sharing have been developed. A pulsed analog computer has been proposed in which all arithmetic operations are performed in the analog domain but whose program is controlled digitally.<sup>3,4</sup> In all of these systems high speed analog gates are either required or could be profitably used.

There are two basic types of analog gates; the sample gate and the storage gate. Both of these gates are three terminal pair devices as shown in Fig. 1-1. These gates have two states; the enabled state and the disabled state.  $E_T$  is a trigger voltage which is bivalued.  $E_1$  is a continuous input voltage.  $E_0$ , the output voltage, depends on the state of the gate. The ideal sample gate will have an output voltage  $E_0$  equal to the input voltage  $E_1$  during the enabled periods and will have an output voltage of zero during disabled periods. An ideal storage gate will assume an output voltage equal to the input voltage during enabled periods and will retain this voltage during the following

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<sup>1</sup> Superscript numbers refer to references listed in the Bibliography.

disabled period regardless of the value of  $E_1$ . Real gates, as we shall see, vary from these ideal characteristics in many ways.

## 1.2 THE PULSED ANALOG COMPUTER

As these gates are to be designed for use in a pulsed analog computer it would be worthwhile to briefly discuss this computer. From this discussion of the pulsed analog computer we can determine the specifications to which the gates must be designed. The pulsed analog computer combines analog and digital computing techniques. Where a digital computer performs discrete operations on discrete variables, and an analog computer performs continuous operations on continuous variables; the pulsed analog computer performs discrete operations on continuous variables. From this point of view it is a digital computer with arithmetic operations performed in the analog domain. A set of differential equations will be solved by a repetitive procedure similar to techniques now employed in obtaining a digital solution.

A block diagram of a simple example of a pulsed analog computer is shown in Fig I-2. The inverter, summer, multiplier, and integrators are standard analog equipment, except that they are capable of operation at high speeds. The inputs to these arithmetic elements are connected to the outputs of storage gates. The outputs of these arithmetic elements are connected to the inputs of sample gates. The sample gates outputs are actually connected to summing resistors which form the input to the inverter, and not to a common bus as the block diagram would indicate. The gates are triggered from the digital control unit. An instruction in the computer program will trigger two gates simultaneously; a sample gate and a storage gate. This operation will

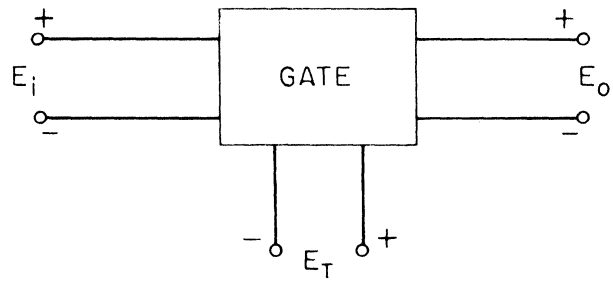


Fig. 1-1 A Gate is A Three Terminal Pair Device

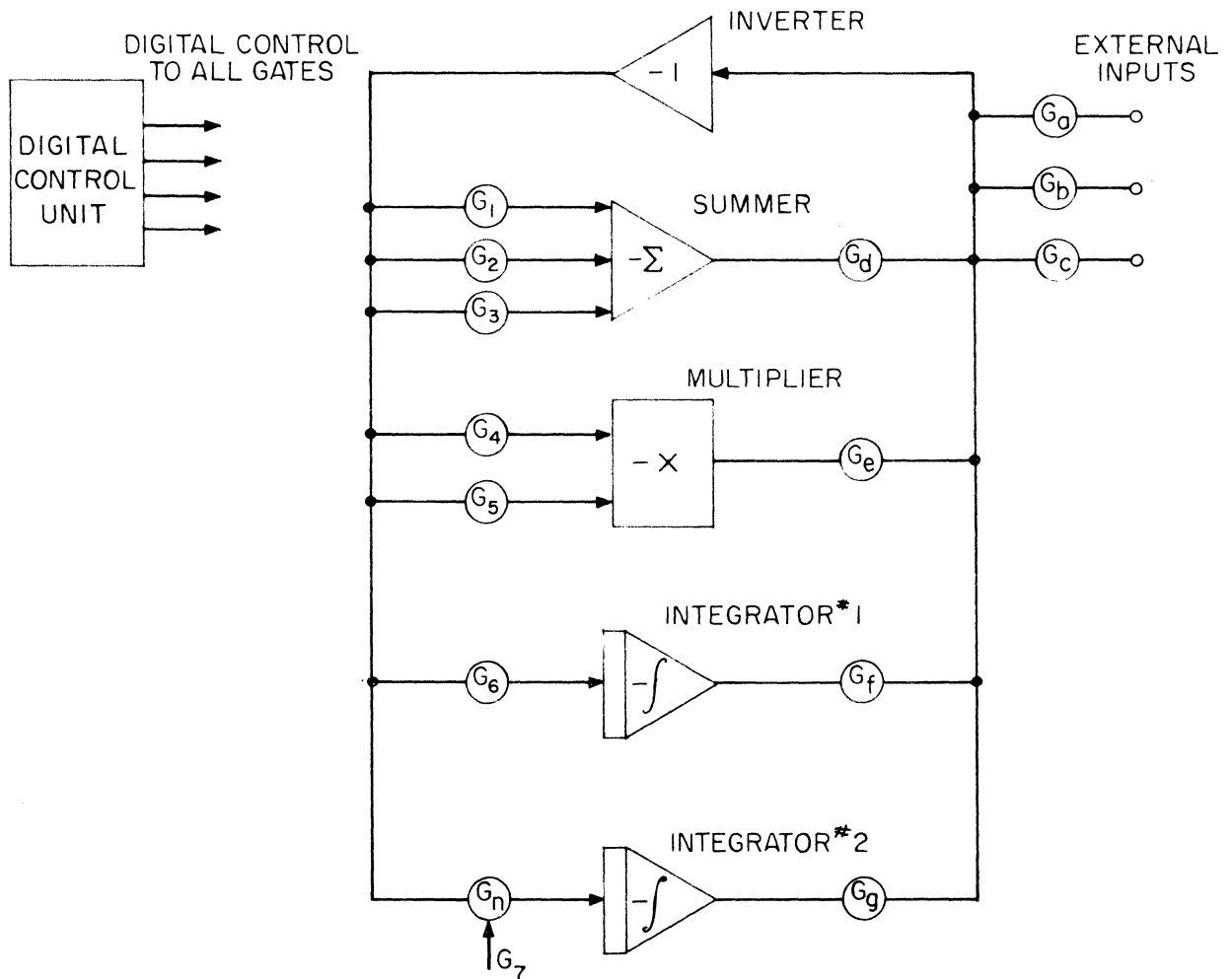


Fig. 1-2 A Pulsed Analog Computer

transfer the input voltage of the sample gate to the output of the storage gate.

To better demonstrate the operation of the pulsed analog computer it will be instructive to follow through a sample program. For example we may want to solve the second order differential equation  $\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + w^2x = f(t)$ . The program can be written by following a procedure similar to those employed in drawing a block diagram for an analog computer program. That is, the equation is first solved for the highest derivative, and then, assuming that we know this highest derivative we can proceed to compute the quantity  $-w^2x - b\dot{x} + f(t)$ . The equality is completed by routing this computed quantity back to the point where we started with  $\ddot{x}$ . Fig. I-3 is the block diagram for the analog computer solution of this equation.

A program for the pulsed analog computer is written by following the same procedure. The input to integrator number 1 will be assumed to be  $\ddot{x}$ . By performing the instruction  $G_f G_7$  the quantity  $\ddot{x}$  is placed at the input to integrator number 2 and we now have available both  $\dot{x}$  and  $x$ .  $b$ ,  $w^2$ , and  $-f(t)$  are available through sample gates  $G_a$ ,  $G_b$  and  $G_c$  respectively. The next step in the program will be to compute  $b\dot{x}$  by the following pair of instructions,  $G_f G_4$  and  $G_a G_5$ . The quantity  $+b\dot{x}$  is now available at the output of the multiplier and will be gated to the first input of the summer in preparation for the addition which must be performed. By continuing this process we arrive at the following complete program. The last step in the program has completed the equality. Note that this program is not unique for the solution of this equation, but that several steps could

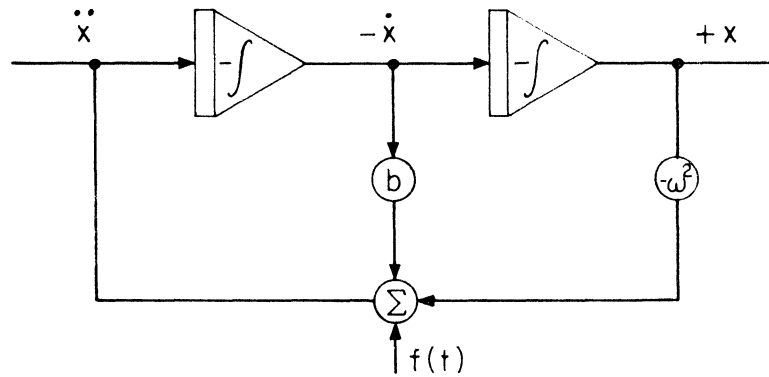


Fig. 1-3 Analog Computer Solution of  $\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + \omega^2 x = f(t)$

STEP #	INSTRUCTION	COMMENTS
1	$G_f G_7$ ——— $\int \dot{x} = x$	
2	$G_f G_4$ ———	} $b\dot{x}$
3	$G_a G_5$ ———	
4	$G_e G_1$ ———	} $-b\dot{x} - \omega^2 x + f(t)$
5	$G_g G_4$ ———	
6	$G_b G_5$ ———	
7	$G_e G_2$ ———	
8	$G_c G_3$ ———	
9	$G_d G_7$ ———	COMPLETES EQUALITY

Fig. 1-4 Program for pulsed analog solution of  $\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + \omega^2 x = f(t)$

have been interchanged. This program has illustrated how analog equipment can be time shared. The multiplier computed both the products  $bx$  and  $\omega^2 t$ . While not very apparent from this simple example, in a more elaborate problem this sharing of analog elements would result in a considerable saving of equipment.

### 1.3 GATE SPECIFICATIONS

In both the all-digital and the pulsed analog case, both the length of time required for one instruction and the number of instructions in the program are important when real time solutions are demanded. There is an error introduced into the total solution because of the discrete manner in which the pulsed analog computer has produced the solution. The steps of the program must be run through many times for each cycle in the solution of the differential equation in order to obtain an accurate answer. An exact analysis of this effect is difficult even for this simple case. Nevertheless it has been estimated that for the real time simulation of high performance aircraft (which is the motivating force in designing this computer) to a reasonable degree of accuracy, about 5%, a 2000 step program would have to be run through 50 times a second. This means that single instruction will have to be completed in  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  seconds. In terms of gates this means a  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  second enabled period and a possible  $20 \times 10^{-3}$  second disabled period.

In addition to errors introduced in computation due to the discrete operation of the computer, there is an error introduced because of the inaccuracies of the computing elements and gates. In order to maintain solution error to a reasonably small value

the computing elements and gates must maintain a corresponding accuracy. Again even in our simple problem the exact effect of component inaccuracies is difficult to analyze. For the purposes of flight simulation it is estimated that .1% components are needed.<sup>4</sup> In order to use these gates with existing arithmetic components a voltage range of  $\pm 20$  volts will be required. This outlines the basic specifications on the gates to be designed. All design work will be carried out with these specifications and the pulsed analog computer in mind.

#### 1.4 SAMPLE GATE DESIGN

Any design procedure for sample gates must take into account the important quantities; gain, effect of trigger voltage on output, range of operation, enabled linearity and speed. A simplified schematic for the sample gate (Fig. 1-5) will allow us to get a first estimate of gate gain. The enabled gain will be

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_{i0}} \right| E = \frac{R_{LE}}{R_s + R_{LE} + Z_{gE}} \quad 1.1$$

The disabled gain will be

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_i} \right| D = \frac{R_{LD}}{R_s + R_{LD} + Z_{gD}} \quad 1.2$$

where  $R_s$  is the input source resistance,  $Z_g$  is the impedance of the gates series element, and  $R_L$  is the impedance of the gates shunt element.  $R_L$  may include the gates load resistance. The subscripts E and D refer to the enabled and disabled value of the quantity respectively. In a shunt gate,  $Z_{gE} = Z_{gD}$ . In a series gate  $R_{LE} = R_{LD}$ .

Three types of trigger sources can be distinguished. These are the grounded trigger, the balanced trigger and the floating trigger. The effect of the trigger voltage can often be estimated

by assuming the triggered elements to be a single node when enabled.

A sample gate is usable over a limited range of input voltages. By using a piecewise linear model for the gating elements the breakpoints in the gates characteristics can be determined. At this point it is often useful to plot  $E_0$  vs  $E_1$ . This plot will include the gate gain, effect of trigger voltage and break points.

Linearity of the enabled gate becomes a problem largely because  $Z_{gE}$  may be a function of gate current. In order to predict these non-linearities a more elaborate model than the piecewise linear model for the gating element is required. Even non-linearities in the trigger source can appear as non-linearities in the gate output. It would now be appropriate to make a plot of  $E_{0E} - KE_1$ .  $K$  is a reference gain chosen commonly to be the gate gain near the point where  $E_1 = 0$ .

The switching speed of a gate is largely determined by the switching speeds of the particular components used in the gate. The design work here can only attempt to make best use of the gating components. As a final step in this design procedure we must assure ourselves that the gates operation is consistent with the input source, output load, and trigger source characteristics.

The steps outlined have been called a design procedure while they are in reality an analysis procedure. However when applied to a given gating configuration many opportunities will be found for design. Several compromises will become apparent for example, switching speed can often be traded for gate linearity.



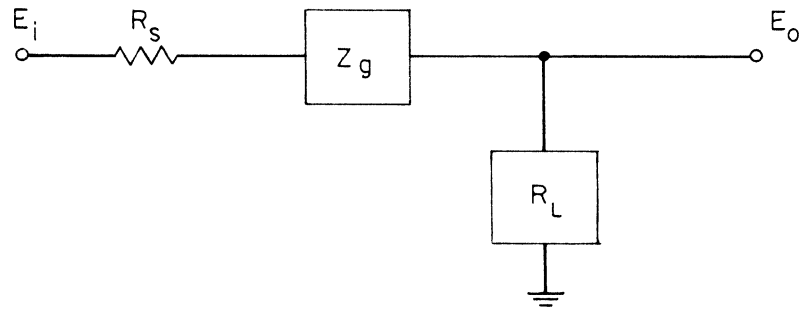


Fig. 1-5 A Simplified Sample Gate

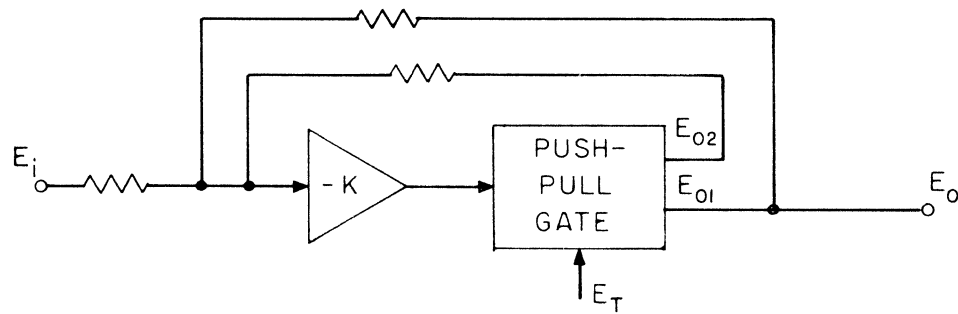


Fig. 1-6 Push Pull Sample Gate and Feedback

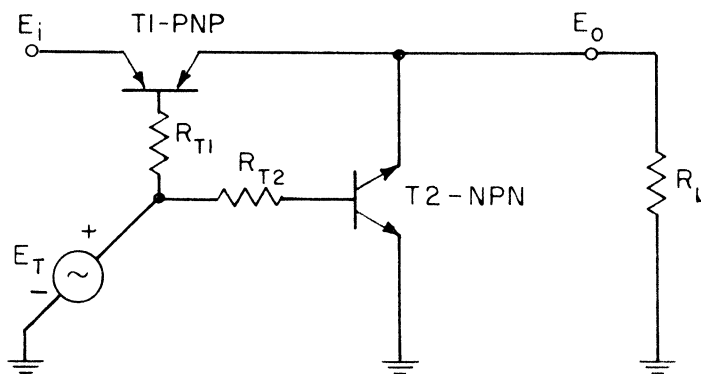


Fig. 1-7 A Series-Shunt Transistor Sample Gate

Improvements in sample gate linearity can be obtained by including the sample gate in a closed loop. Fig. 1-6 shows how this might be accomplished. The push-pull sample gate has two outputs one of which is exactly the same as an ordinary sample gate. The other output will have an output of zero during the enabled periods and a output equal to the input during disabled periods. By feeding back both outputs the operational amplifier is assured of continued closed loop operation, which makes this scheme usable with any operational amplifier.

### 1.5 A TRANSISTOR SAMPLE GATE

Among the several sample gates analyzed, the bilateral transistor series-shunt gate (Fig. 1-7) best meets the requirements for pulsed analog uses. The design procedure previously outlined can be applied to this gate. This gate is enabled with a negative trigger voltage  $-E_{TE}$  which saturates T1 and cuts off T2. The gate is disabled with a positive trigger voltage  $E_{TD}$  which cuts off T1 and saturates T2. This gate is to be used between two analog feedback amplifiers and therefore has an input source resistance of almost zero and an external output load resistance,  $R_L$ , of  $100K\Omega$ . The enabled gain of the gate will be  $\frac{R_L}{R_L + R_{SAT}}$  and the disabled gain of the gate will be zero, where  $R_{SAT}$  is the saturation resistance of the transistor, and it is assumed the cut off transistor resistance is much greater than  $R_L$ . Note also that any leakage current from the cutoff transistor will always flow through a very small resistance. By replacing the enabled element with a single node and completely neglecting the disabled element, the first order effect of trigger voltage on the output

is seen to be zero. The transistor models of Fig. 1-8 are usable in calculating the linear range of this gate. Using the model, with D1 and D2 taken to be ideal diodes, the break points in the  $E_0$  vs  $E_1$  plots can be determined. In Fig. 1-9 the gain, effect of trigger voltage, and breakpoints of this gate have been plotted.

A very realistic non-linear model for the transistor is obtained by replacing the diodes of Fig. 1-8 with the diode function

$$e_d = K_1 \ln \left\{ 1 + \frac{i_d}{I_{co}} \right\} \quad 1.3$$

From this model the saturation resistance, which is defined to be  $\frac{\partial v_c}{\partial I_c} / r_c = 0$  in the grounded emitter characteristics, can be shown to vary as  $1/I_\beta$ .

$$r_{SAT} = \frac{2K_1(1-\alpha)}{I_\beta}$$

Non-linearities due to the fact that  $r_{SAT}$  varies with base current are the important non-linearities in a transistor sample gate. Errors due to unbalance in the transistors operation are generally small (less than  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  volts). Errors due to the curvature of the grounded emitter characteristics of the transistor are easily eliminated by design. For the gate of Fig. 1-7 the non-linearities due to  $r_{SAT}$  varying with trigger current can be expressed by Equ. 1-5.

$$E_0 - KE_1 = \frac{2(1-\alpha) K_1 R_{T1} (E_1)^2}{R_L \frac{E}{TE} (E_1 + \frac{E}{TE})} \quad 1.5$$

where K is the gain of the gate at  $E = 0$ . The complete derivation of this expression is included in Chapter IV.

Since the base current of T1 varies with  $E_1$ , the switching speed of this gate will vary with input voltage. As the linearity of the gate is improved longer switching speeds will result.

A General Transistor 2N593 or 2N594 may have a value of  $2(1-\alpha) K_1$  of about  $2.5 \times 10^{-3}$  volts. With  $R_{T1}$  selected to be  $250K\Omega$ ,  $R_L$  given to be  $100K\Omega$ , and  $E_{TE}$  selected to be + 25 volts, the maximum gate non-linearity will be .1% or  $20 \times 10^{-3}$  volts. It should be noted that the cutoff transistor will be back biased by as much as 45 volts. Transistors must be selected to be certain that they are capable of withstanding this large voltage. Fig. 1-10 is a plot of gate linearity.

#### 1.6 STORAGE GATE DESIGN

The basic considerations which must be taken into account in the design of a storage gate are: set time, hold time, range of operation and switching transients. A simplified schematic for a storage gate is shown in Fig. 1-11. The actual storage is accomplished by holding charge on a capacitor C. The set time is defined to be the maximum time required for the output of the enabled gate to change from one value to another. Since the final value may never be reached an allowable error must be specified. The disabled gate will maintain the correct voltage within an allowable discharge error for a finite time  $\tau_d$ . The minimum value of  $\tau_d$  is called the hold time.

A floating trigger source is often used with the storage gate. This will allow us to include the gating elements and the trigger source in a two terminal series element. The characteristics of this element can be shown by a plot of  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$ .

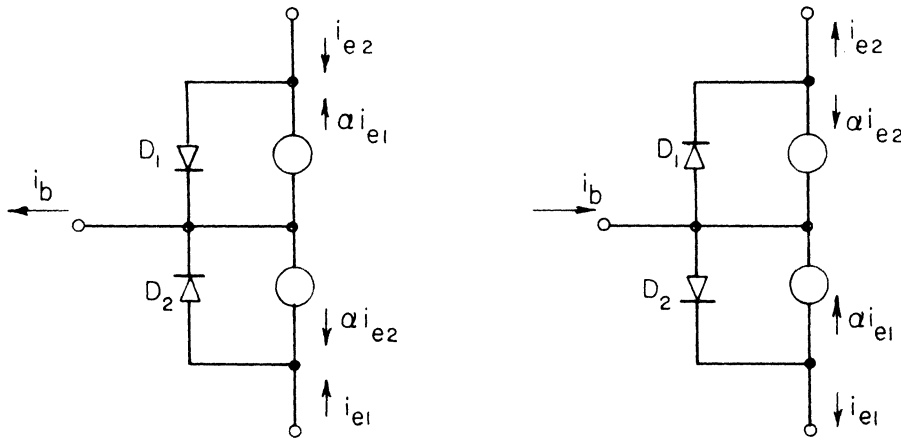


Fig. 1-8 Models for Transistors

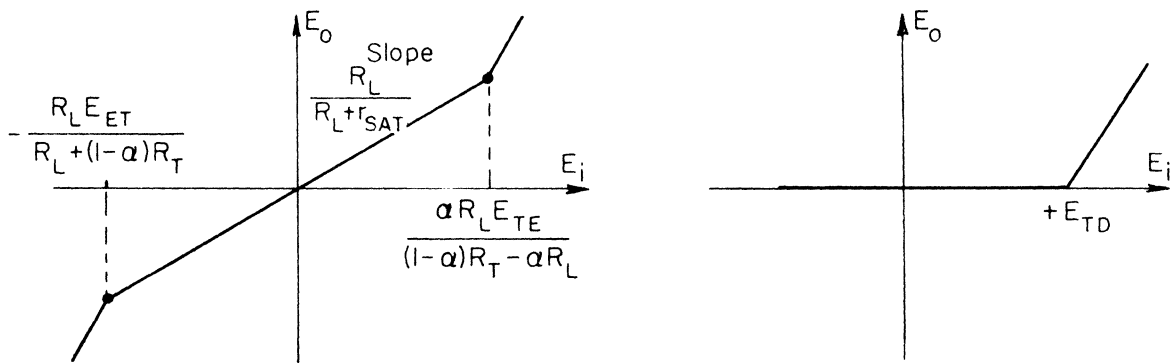


Fig. 1-9 Transistor Gate Characteristics

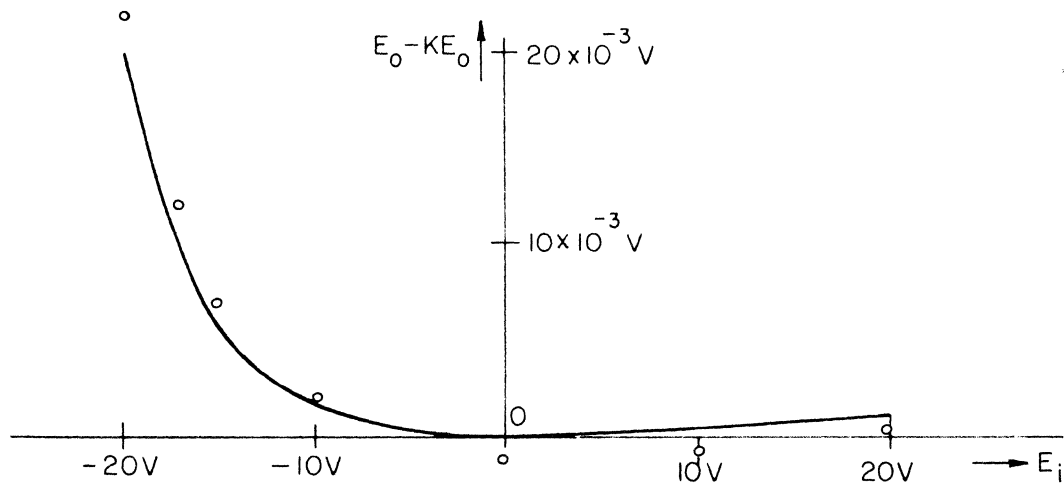


Fig. 1-10 Transistor Gate Linearity

Non-linearities in the enabled  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot will affect set time but will not affect gate linearity. A gate of this type will have a linear gain of unity. The disabled  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot will show a maximum difference which can occur between input and output voltage before the leakage current becomes excessive. The gate which we will attempt to build will have a maximum difference of 40 volts.

The exact nature of the off-switching transients in a storage gate are important because these transients may introduce permanent errors in the output voltage. The operation of a storage gate is much more limited by the characteristics of the input and output circuits than is the sample gate. Current limitations in the input source become of immediate importance when calculating set time. Similarly leakage currents into the output circuitry will lessen hold time. And of course no gate is complete without a properly designed trigger source.

### 1.7 THE FOUR DIODE STORAGE GATE

The four diode bridge gate (Fig. 1-12) has often been used for a storage gate<sup>6</sup> and, despite the attempt to use several other novel gating arrangements, it remains the best storage gate available. This gate is enabled with a positive trigger voltage and disabled with a negative trigger voltage. Assuming that the diodes are identical and have a forward resistance  $r_f$  and a reverse resistance  $r_p$ , the  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plots can be easily obtained and are shown in Fig. 1-13. However before any conclusions can be reached about the four diode gate a more realistic model must be chosen for the diodes. If the diode curve

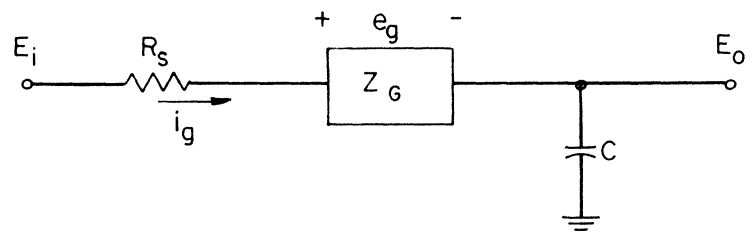


Fig. 1-11 A Simplified Storage Gate

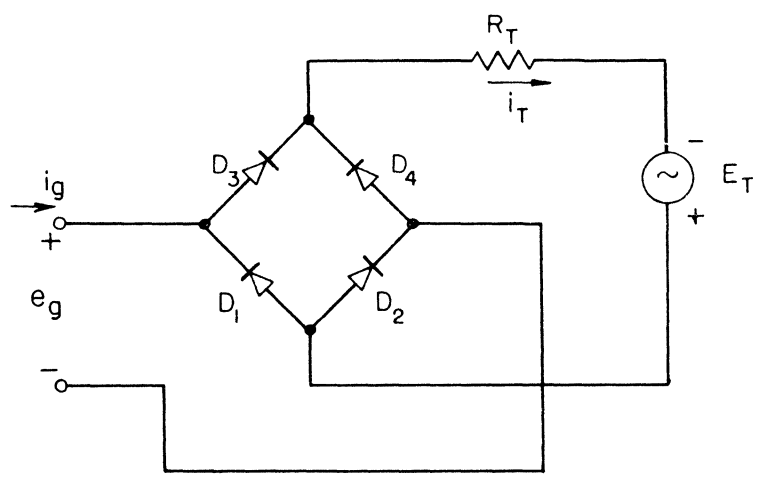


Fig. 1-12 Four Diode

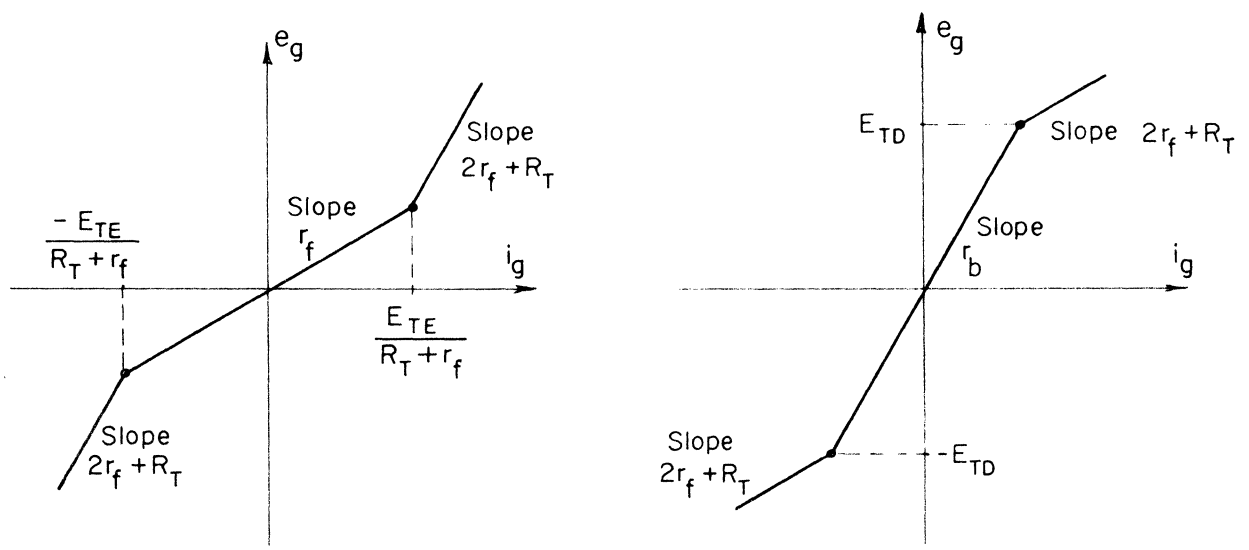


Fig. 1-13 Four Diode Bridge Characteristics

$e_d = f(i_d)$  is given and the diodes are identical the following set of equations can be derived.

$$E_T - i_T R_T = f\left[\frac{(i_T - i_g)}{2}\right] + f\left[\frac{(i_T + i_g)}{2}\right] \quad 1.6$$

$$e_g = f\left[\frac{(i_T + i_g)}{2}\right] - f\left[\frac{(i_T - i_g)}{2}\right] \quad 1.7$$

From these equations the plot of  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  can be obtained either graphically or even perhaps analytically. Many interesting results can be obtained from this analysis. For example if the trigger source is a current source of value  $i_T$  the maximum possible value of  $i_g$  will be  $i_T$ .

Silicon diode characteristics are often approximated as

$$e_d = K_1 \ln \left\{ 1 + \frac{i_d}{I_{co}} \right\} \quad 1.8$$

For a current source trigger the resistance of the gate  $r_g$  (which is defined to be  $\left. \frac{\partial e_g}{\partial i_g} \right|_{i_g}$ ) can be shown to be

$$r_g = \frac{2K_1}{i_T} \quad 1.9$$

Therefore the current capabilities of the gate increase with trigger current not only because its linear range is extended but also because its conducting resistance is decreased. A typical value of  $2K_1$  is .13 volts.

The exponential diode model shows that the true character of a back biased diode is closer to a current source than to a resistor. Fig. 1-14 shows the back biased diodes of the disabled gate replaced with current sources. This circuit would be ambiguous since four independent current sources are arranged such that



$I_2 - I_4 = I_3 - I_1$ . Therefore the four dotted resistors have been added. However we can use the current source model to demonstrate the point that leaky diodes can be used to build a gate which has a leakage current much lower than any diode in the gate. This is due to the fact that these currents subtract before they leave the gate. If four equal diodes are used a gate can be built in which the very steep slope of the diode characteristic plays the important role in the disabled gates characteristics. The Transistron SG-222 diode, for example, has a leakage current of about  $.25 \times 10^{-6}$  amps. By carefully selecting and matching these diode the gate leakage current can be reduced to  $.01 \times 10^{-6}$  amps.

Now that we know that abilities of the series element, the value of the capacitor and the input source can be designed. Assume that the diodes for the gate have been carefully selected and a leakage current of  $.01 \times 10^{-6}$  amps obtained. In order to secure a hold time of  $20 \times 10^{-3}$  seconds within an allowable error of  $20 \times 10^{-3}$  volts a  $.01 \times 10^{-6}$  farad capacitor is required. Now turning to the enabled period a 40 volt change across this capacitor in  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  seconds will require an average charging current of 40 ma. Or if the capacitor is to charge exponentially to within  $20 \times 10^{-3}$  volts of final value a  $130 \Omega$  resistance and peak current of .3 amps are demanded. A vacuum tube circuit which is capable of 150 ma output currents and which has a linear output resistance of  $\frac{r_p}{2}$  has been developed for use with this gate<sup>7</sup> (Fig. 1-15). This circuit will replace the usual cathode follower output stage of the operational amplifier which drives the gate.

Special care must be taken to assure that the enabled gate

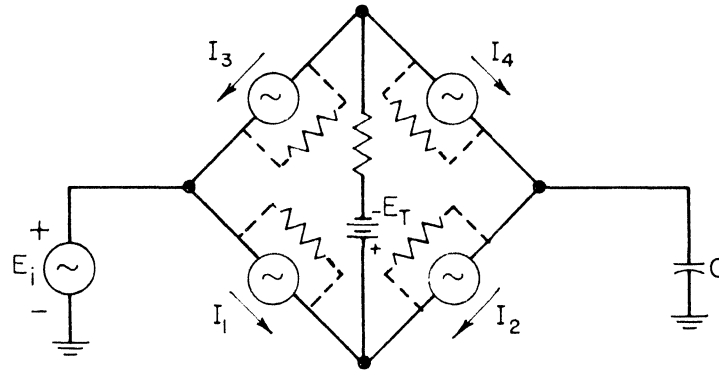


Fig. 1-14 Back Biased Diodes are Current Sources

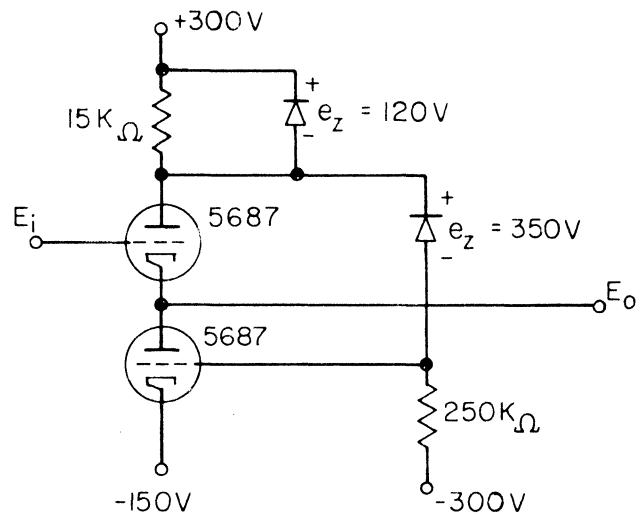


Fig. 1-15 The White Cathode Follower

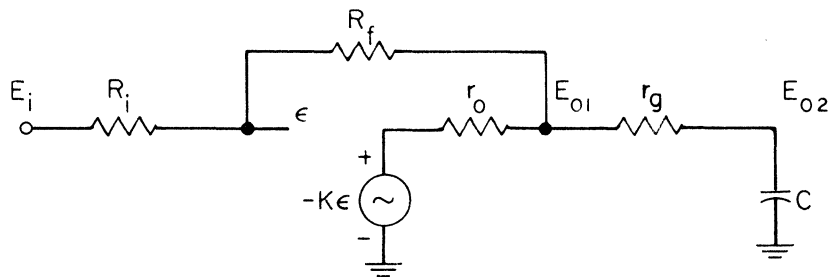


Fig. 1-16 Feedback Amplifier with Enabled Storage Gate

does not place a load on the operational amplifier which would cause it to oscillate. Fig. 1-16 illustrates the situation and Fig. 1-17 is a block diagram for this closed loop system. It is assumed that the unloaded feedback amplifier is designed to be very stable. The addition of the lag term

$$\frac{r_g CS + 1}{(r_o + r_g)CS + 1}$$

could introduce enough additional phase shift to cause instability. However if  $r_g$  is greater than  $r_o$  this term can be made to have little effect.  $r_o$  which is equal to  $\frac{r_p}{2}$  will typically be about  $5\Omega$ . By adjusting  $r_g$  the system can be stabilized while still maintaining a set time of  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  seconds.

### 1.8 MEASUREMENTS

Measurement of a gate capabilities should be made under conditions similar to those it will experience in actual use. The important measurements to be made on a sample gate are enabled linearity, disabled gain and switching speed. A circuit used for making direct measurement of sample gate linearity is illustrated in Fig. 1-18. Adjustments are provided to eliminate any bias which the gate may have and to normalize the gain before measurements are taken. The measuring instrument can be a high gain DC oscilloscope for making pulsed measurements. The input and output of the feedback gate are already of opposite sign and therefore a simple resistive summing network will make the gate error immediately available. The disabled gain can be determined by simply measuring the gate output when typical inputs are applied to the gate.

In a storage gate we must measure set time and hold time. Set time can be measured by using the circuit of Fig. 1-19.

The input voltage is made equal to say + 20 and a large resistor is connected from the capacitor to -20 volts. The time between pulses is adjusted to allow the capacitor to reach its final value. The set time is completed when the gate error is within its allowed limits. The hold time of a storage gate must be measured with a pulsed input. For example if the input of the storage gate is +20 volts during the enabled period it should be switched to -20 volts immediately following the enabled period to simulate the input which a storage gate may actually experience. If this is not done any resistive component in  $Z_{gD}$  will not make its presence felt. At the end of the hold time the input will return to +20 volts and the capacitor will recharge to its proper value again. To measure the discharge error we need only measure this recharge, which can be done with a sensitive AC oscilloscope.

A closed loop system has been designed which consists of two sample gates and two storage gates and allows these components to operate under conditions similar to those experienced in actual pulsed analog use. This system, which is illustrated in Fig. 1-19, can also be used to make measurements of disabled gate discharge. The system operates by starting with the switch in position number 1 and applying a pulse  $E_{T1}$ . This will trigger sample gate number 1 and storage gate number 1 and in so doing will transfer the input voltage to the output. The next step is to trigger  $E_{T2}$  which transfer this voltage to the output of storage gate number 2. By this time the switch has moved into position number 2 and the program will continue to circulate the input

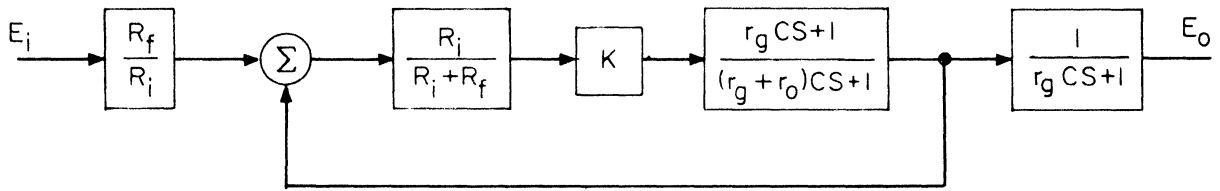


Fig. 1-17 Block Diagram Used to Determine Storage Gate Stability

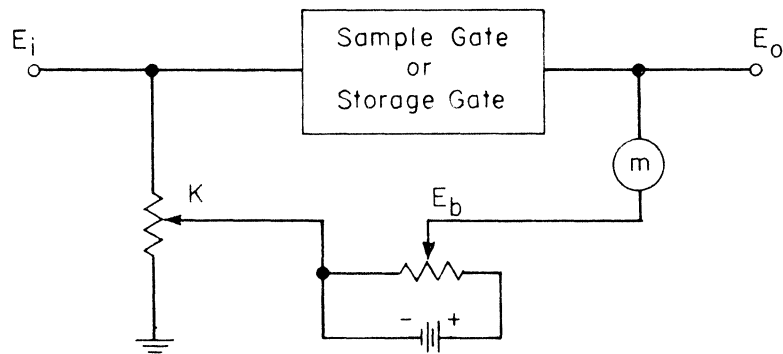


Fig. 1-18 Circuit Used to Measure Sample Gate Linearity

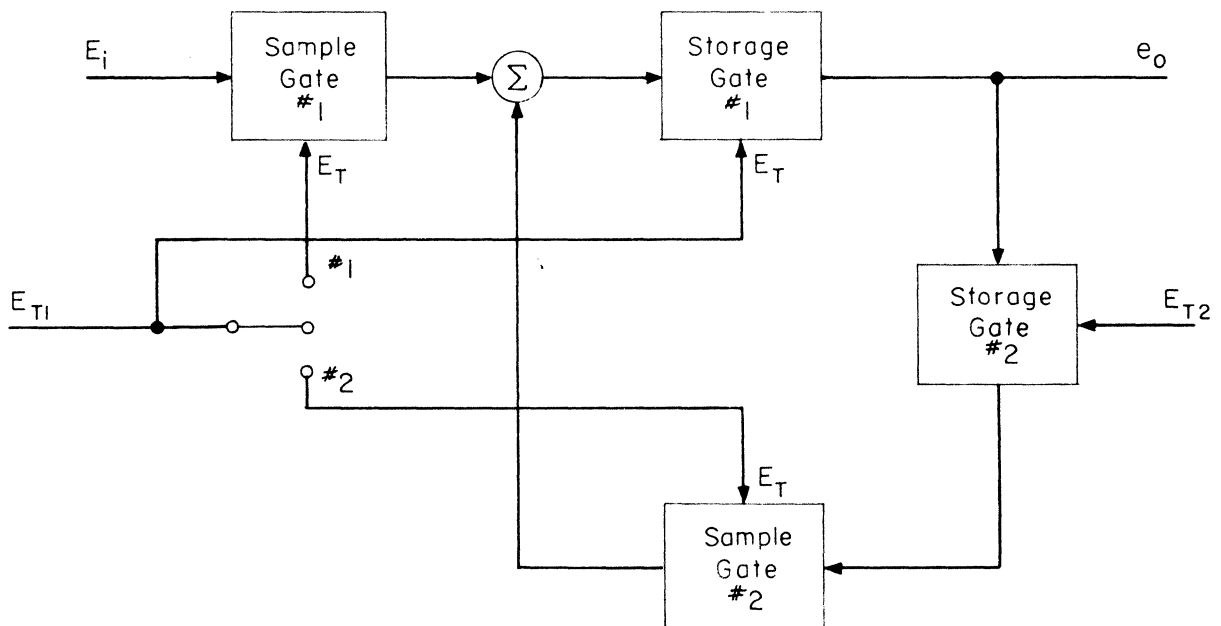


Fig. 1-19 Circuit Used to Test Gate Under Actual Operating Conditions

voltage by applying a pulse  $E_{T1}$ . The trigger pulses continue to repeat at regular intervals. After many cycles are completed the switch is returned to position number 1 and the process started over again. The switching and counting is accomplished by a simple digital circuit.

If the loop gain is positive a difference equation can be written for the  $(n + 1)$  th output.

$$e(n + 1) = K e(n) + E_b \quad 1.10$$

where  $K$  is the loop gain and  $E_b$  is a bias voltage accumulated in making one excursion around the loop. The solution to this equation is

$$e(n) = e(o) - \frac{E_b}{1-K} (K)^n + \frac{E_b}{1-K} \quad 1.11$$

or in the special case when  $K = 1$ .

$$e(n) = e(o) + E_b n$$

By looking at the output on the scope we can adjust the loop gain and bias until  $K = 1$  and  $E_b = 0$ . Now by changing the time between trigger pulses  $E_{T1}$  and  $E_{T2}$  an additional bias term will appear due to the fact that an additional discharge time has been allowed for storage gate number 1. This error is multiplied by the number of cycles  $n$ . By this method the small values of discharge error can be readily measured. This method is, however, limited by non-linearities in loop gain and by amplifier drift.

### 1.9 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The simple and important conclusion that can be drawn from this thesis is that analog gates to meet the pulsed analog requirements can be built. In the sample gate which was built

transistors had to be selected for high voltage breakdown. In the storage gate diodes had to be selected for low leakage current. While these selection procedures do not lend themselves to mass production techniques, the fact that the required analog gates can be built has nevertheless been demonstrated.

There remains many opportunities for the further improvement of analog gates. Several immediate approaches can be suggested for both the sample and storage gate. Better symmetrical transistors may be presently available on the market for use in the sample gate. Often the fact that a transistor is symmetrical is not even mentioned in the transistor specifications. A careful study may uncover several usable transistors. There is also the possibility that non-symmetrical transistors can be used in this gate. The same model configuration which was used for the bilateral transistor can also be used for the non-symmetrical transistor. The model will however have a numerical unbalance. From this model the important gate properties could be established in terms of the transistors parameters. This will give some criterion for choosing a transistor to be used in the gate. By this approach a transistor with a high voltage break down and faster switching speed may be selected. In a sample gate, trigger source complexity and gate performance can be traded. By using a separate trigger source for each element of the series shunt transistor gate a better gate can be built. In this manner the trigger requirements of each element can be better satisfied. All of these approaches could serve to further improve the sample gate.

It is needless to say that the search for better diodes to

be used in the storage gate should continue. Another fundamental problem connected with the storage gate concerns itself with the properties of the capacitors dielectric. An effect called dielectric absorption can cause gate errors. A theoretical or experimental assurance that this effect can be made negligibly small, by selecting the proper dielectric, would be welcomed. The transistor blocking oscillator which was designed for use with the storage gate has the limitation that it can only be pulsed at a 20KC rate. The use of better pulse transformers, which are now available on the market, could possibly extend this to 50KC. Or perhaps a monostable multivibrator with high current capabilities could be built. Finally the output stage of the storage gate requires some special attention. Since this stage operates completely open loop, it is subject to drift and non-linearities. These disadvantages could possibly be eliminated by a more careful design.



## CHAPTER II

### THE SAMPLE GATE

#### 2.1 BASIC DESIGN

The basic considerations which must be taken into account in the design of a sample gate are the enabled gain, the disabled gain, operating range, linearity and speed. A simplified schematic for a sample gate is shown in Fig. 1-5.  $R_s$  is the internal resistance of the source.  $Z_g$  will take on two values;  $Z_{gE}$ , the impedance of the disabled series element and  $Z_{gD}$ , the impedance of the disabled series element.  $R_L$  is the shunt element of the gate and may also include gate load resistance. The value of  $R_L$  can also be changed by the trigger pulse and can take on two values;  $R_{LE}$ , the shunt resistance for the enabled gate and  $R_{LD}$ , the shunt resistance for the disabled gate. The trigger voltage which is omitted from this diagram simply determines the state of  $Z_g$  and  $R_L$ . The subscript E will always refer to the enabled quantity while the subscript D refers to the disabled quantity. Expressions for the gate transmissions can now be written. When the gate is enabled the transmission will be

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_i} \right| E = \frac{R_{LE}}{R_{LE} + Z_{gE} + R_s} \quad 2.1$$

If this transmission is to be near one,  $R_s + Z_{gE}$  must be very much less than  $R_{LE}$ . The disabled gain, which for an ideal gate is zero, is for this more realistic model

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_i} \right| D = \frac{R_{LD}}{R_{LD} + Z_{gD} + R_s} \quad 2.2$$

From this we arrive at the criterion the  $Z_{gD} + R_s \gg R_{LD}$ . It is

not necessary that both  $Z_g$  and  $R_L$  be triggered. In a series gate only  $Z_g$  is triggered. In a shunt gate only  $R_L$  is triggered. In a series-shunt gate both are triggered.

There are essentially three methods of wiring the trigger source to the gating elements (Fig. 2-1). In the grounded trigger arrangement the trigger voltage causes a current  $i_T$  to flow. The return path to ground for this current is through the terminals of the gating element to the connected circuits and to ground. The incremental equation  $i_T = i_{T1} + i_{T2}$  applies. These currents can cause an error at the output of the gate. The first effect of trigger voltage on enabled gate output can often be calculated by assuming that the gating element becomes a single node during the enabled period. If the by Eq. 2-3.

$$\frac{E_o}{E_{TE}} \Big|_E = \frac{R_S R_L}{R_T R_S + R_T R_L + R_S R_L} \quad 2.3$$

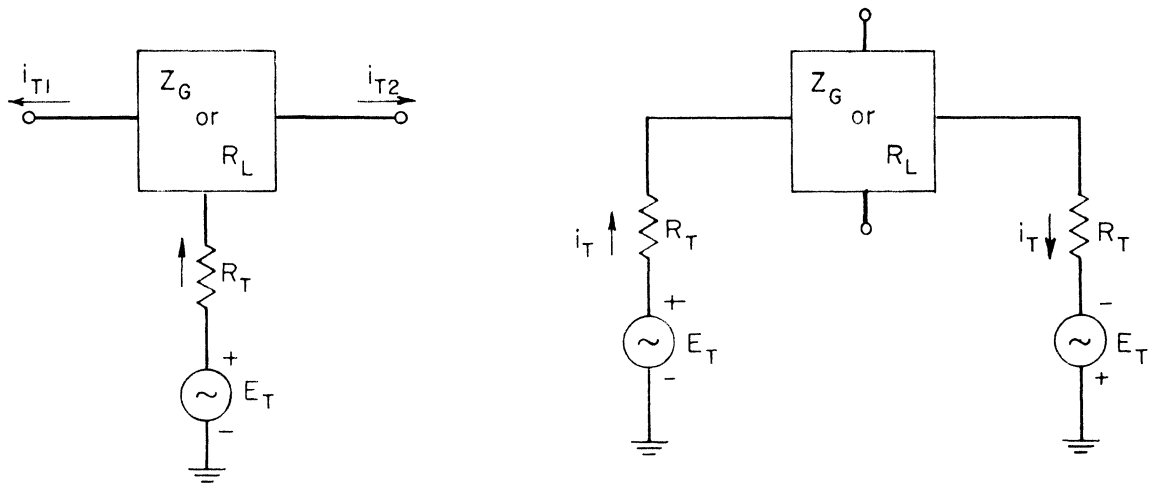
We can also see that the trigger resistance  $R_T$  will affect the gate gain. The balanced trigger offers the possibility of circulating the trigger current without introducing an error due to currents from the terminals of the gating element. The value of  $R_T$  does however enter the expression for gate enabled gain. Similar to the balanced trigger source is the floating trigger source of Fig. 2-1c. In the floating trigger case the value of  $R_T$  does not necessarily enter into the expressions for gate gain. In any case, the trigger voltage will introduce an additional term in the expression for enabled and disabled output. For an ideal gate this term will be zero.

A sample gate will be usable only over a limited range of

input voltages. A complete model for the gate will permit us to approximate the extent of this useful range. If piecewise linear models are used for the gates components, then piecewise linear gate transmission characteristics can be calculated. The graph of  $E_0$  vs  $E_1$  for both the enabled and disabled gate will be of particular interest. These plots should also include the gate gain and effect of trigger voltage as calculated so far. From these plots we will be able to determine many of the gates abilities and disabilities.

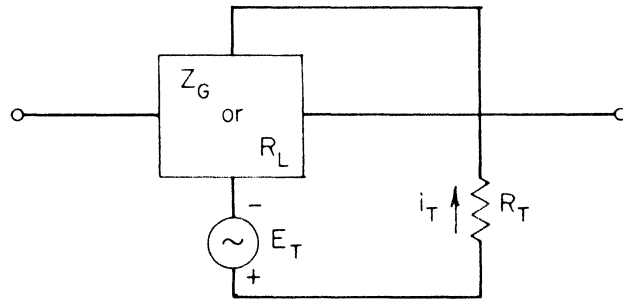
Linearity of the enabled gate becomes a problem largely because  $Z_{ge}$  may be a function of gate current. Also in many cases the major non-linearities are introduced by the driving source resistance  $R_s$ . However, these will affect the linearity only when  $Z_{ge} + R_s$  becomes large enough to affect the expressions for enabled gain. In gates in which the trigger current changes with input voltages non-linearities in the trigger source can be reflected into gate output. The speed of the gate or the time it takes the output voltage to change from zero to its new value when enabled, is mainly a property of the switching speed of the particular components used in the gate. Of course the switching speed of the trigger voltage source is also of considerable importance in determining gate switching speed.

The question of a model for the gates elements is an important one. The more realistic the model, the more realistic will be the calculations for gain, linear range, etc. The general method of analysis for any gate will be to first look at the gross effects using a gross model, and then as the picture becomes clearer



(a) The Grounded Trigger

(b) The Balanced Trigger



(c) The Floating Trigger

Fig. 2-1 Three Basic Triggering Methods

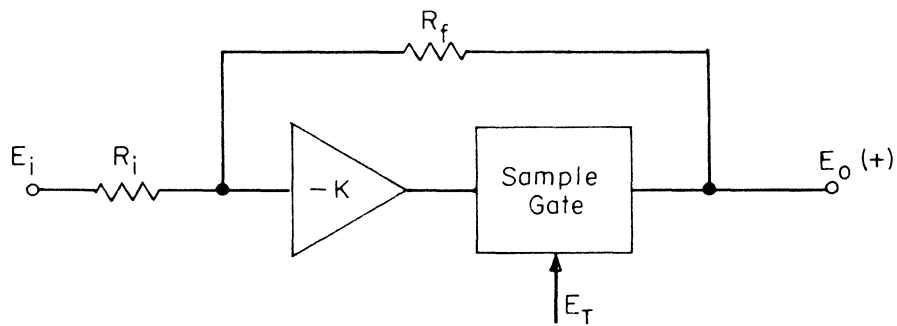


Fig. 2-2 Feedback Can Improve the Linearity of the Sample Gate

to add in the more subtle and more refined aspects of the gates operation. Actually, different models may be used for different calculations. For example, if a gate uses diodes we may first assume these diodes to be ideal. If this model shows that the gate has the, proper enabled and disabled gain and linear range, a more elaborate model for the diodes, perhaps a piecewise linear diode with a forward conducting resistance  $r_f$  and a back resistance  $r_b$ , will allow us to get a better estimate of enabled and disabled gain. Finally, if an estimate of gate linearity is desired, a non linear diode curve will have to be used. In this thesis no attempt is made to associate a model chosen for a device with the physics of the device.

As in the design of any equipment the input and output conditions are important. The input current requirements of a sample gate must be consistent with the driving sources capabilities. Similarly the load which the gate faces should be of proper magnitude. Finally, no sample gate is complete without a carefully designed trigger source. This completes the fundamentals of sample gate design. Below is a list which summaries the important steps which are taken in analyzing a gate.

- 1 ) Get rough picture of gates operation by inspection
- 2 ) Choose model for gating elements for each calculation
- 3 ) Calculate enabled gain; Calculate disabled gain
- 4 ) Determine range of operation, enabled and disabled
- 5 ) consider effect of trigger voltage on output, both states
- 6 ) calculate or measure linearity
- 7 ) Estimate gate speed

8 ) Consider or design in more detail input source, output load, and trigger source.

## 2.2 SAMPLE GATES AND FEEDBACK

The linearity of a sample gate can be improved by the use of feedback. By inserting a sample gate after the final output stage and before the feedback point of an operational amplifier all the benefits of the high gain amplifier and negative feedback can be obtained. Fig. 2-2 illustrates in this method. This feedback arrangement adapts very easily to pulsed analog uses. The operational amplifier can for example be the same amplifier which is used for a summer. The output stage of a multiplier is very likely to be an operational amplifier used as a summer, which can therefore incorporate this gating arrangement.

One disadvantage of this closed loop arrangement is the fact that the amplifier is open loop when the gate is disabled. An operational amplifier which is operated open loop will saturate, resulting in large output voltages and long recovery time. This difficulty can be overcome by the use of a push-pull gate. The push-pull gate is a sample gate with two outputs. One output is exactly like the ordinary sample gate. The other output is zero during the enabled period and is equal to the input during the disabled period. By feeding back both outputs the amplifier is always in a closed loop state. Ideally the switching time of the gate should be fast when compared to the response time of the amplifier. This is to prevent any large transients from being introduced during the switching.

### 2.3 MEASUREMENTS

Three important quantities must be measured in the sample gate. These are; enabled linearity, switching speed, and disabled gain. Because we are interested in errors of about .1% or  $20 \times 10^{-3}$  volts any method of measurement must avoid a comparison of large quantities. For example we could not measure the input voltage of a gate, measure the output voltage of the gate, and then subtract these two voltages to obtain an accurate estimate of gate error. Fig. 1-18 is a schematic of a circuit used to directly measure gate non-linearity. Adjustments are provided whereby the gate gain and any gate bias can be removed before making these measurements. In this measurement the voltage drop across the source resistance  $R_s$  has necessarily been neglected. Unless  $E_1$  is readily attainable some independent measurement would have to be made to determine input source linearity. The measuring instrument can be either a millivolt meter for D C measurements or, to be more realistic, an oscilloscope for pulsed measurements. Switching time can be easily observed when making pulsed measurements. The disabled gain can be obtained by simply measuring the output of the disabled gate with a high gain oscilloscope while some typical inputs are applied to the gate.

The input and output of a sample gate with feedback are of opposite sign. The error in this arrangement can be measured after constructing a resistive summing network. Since much care was taken to design the gate with a particular load in mind, the measuring resistors should simulate this load. If  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are adjusted to be equal and the gain from  $E_1$  to  $E_0$  carefully adjusted

the error measuring meter will indicate  $\frac{E_0 - E_1}{2}$ . Again DC or pulsed measurements can be made.



## CHAPTER III

### DIODE SAMPLE GATES

#### 3.1 A DIODE SERIES GATE

The series diode gate with a grounded trigger of Fig. 3-1 will serve as a first example of a sample gate. This gate, which is enabled with a positive trigger voltage and disabled with a negative trigger voltage, can be roughly analyzed by considering the diodes to be ideal. In the enabled state the complete expression for gate output voltage (that is, including the effect of trigger voltage) can be easily written.

$$E_o = \frac{R_s R_L E_{TE}}{R_s R_T + R_L R_T + R_s R_L} + \frac{R_T R_L E_1}{R_s R_L + R_s R_T + R_T R_L}$$

3.1

Still using the ideal diode model the disabled gain is truly zero. The range of input voltage over which the diodes will remain conducting when the gate is enabled can be determined by writing expressions for the current in the diodes.

$$i_1 = \frac{R_s E_{TE} + R_T E_1}{R_s R_L + R_s R_T + R_L R_T} \quad 3.2a$$

$$i_2 = \frac{-(R_s + R_L)E_1 + R_L E_{TE}}{R_s R_L + R_s R_T + R_L R_T} \quad 3.2b$$

As neither of these currents can be negative, the range of voltages for  $E_1$  is  $-\frac{R_s}{R_T} E_{TE} \leq E_1 \leq \frac{R_T E_{TE}}{R_L + R_T}$ . When the gate is disabled

there is no value of input voltage which will make the output other than zero. Therefore, the disabled gain is always zero.

Fig. 3-2 summarizes the gates characteristics.

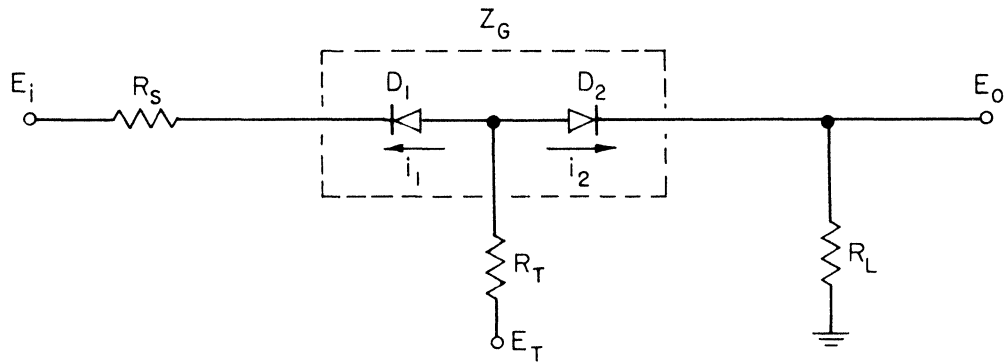


Fig. 3-1 Series Diode Gate with Grounded Trigger

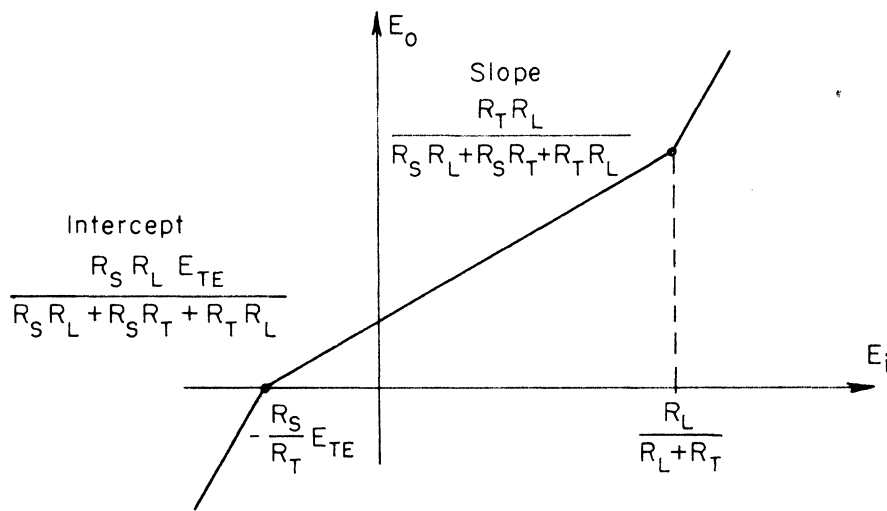


Fig. 3-2 Enabled and Disabled Transmissions of Series Diode Gate

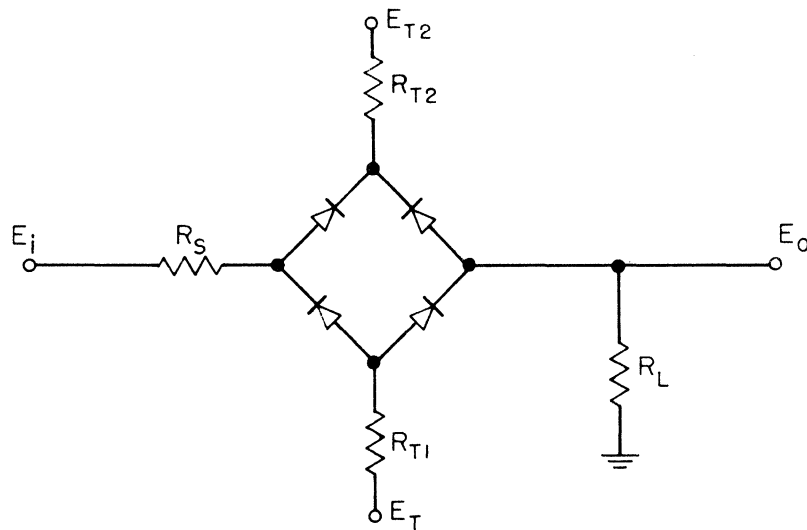


Fig. 3-3 The Four Diode Balanced Trigger Series Sample Gate

Applying typical numbers to the equations for enabled gain and linear range will give us a better feeling for the capabilities of this gate.  $R_s = 500r$ ,  $R_L = 2 Kr$ ,  $R_T = 20Kr$  and  $E_{TE} = 40V$  are all values which one might choose. This allows us to calculate that

$$E_o = .785 + .785 E_1$$

and that

$$1 \leq E_1 \leq 36.3.$$

Even at this point many difficulties which would be encountered when applying this gate to the pulsed analog computer are apparent. The gate lacks unity gain. However, upon returning to the schematic for the pulsed analog computer (Fig. 1-2) we see that this can be compensated for by a change in the input resistor of the following inverter. A real difficulty with this gate is its limited linear range. This gate is good only for positive input and positive output voltages. Of course, we could add 20 volts to the input and then subtract 20 volts from the output to obtain the proper range; but this becomes awkward. In other words we can stop here for it is hardly likely that this gate would be used in our application. It has served well however, as a first illustration of a sample gate and the types of difficulties which are encountered in its design.

### 3-2 THE DIODE SERIES GATE WITH BALANCED TRIGGER

By paralleling the gating element of the previous gate with a symmetric element, the balanced trigger four diode bridge gate is constructed. (Fig. 3-3) The newly added gating element is symmetric in that the diodes are reversed and the polarity of the

trigger voltage is reversed. This gate will be enabled when  $E_{T1}$  is positive and  $E_{T2}$  is negative. It is disabled when  $E_{T1}$  is negative and  $E_{T2}$  is positive. Again considering that during the enabled state the diodes are all short circuits we can calculate the enabled gain and the effect of the trigger voltages in one step. All currents in the gate can be calculated. Fig. 3-4 shows the circuit and Eq. 3-3a to Eq. 3-3f are the results. Of course,  $i_c R_L$  is the output voltage.

$$\begin{bmatrix} E_{T1E} - E_1 \\ E_{T1E} \\ E_{T2E} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_s & R_{T1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & R_{T1} & R_L & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & R_L & -R_{T2} \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_a \\ i_b \\ i_c \\ i_d \end{bmatrix} \quad 3.3a$$

$$D = R_s R_{T1} R_L + R_s R_{T1} R_{T2} + R_s R_L R_{T2} + R_{T1} R_{T2} R_L \quad 3.3b$$

$$\begin{aligned} Dia = & - (R_{T1} R_L + R_{T1} R_{T2} + R_L R_{T2}) E_1 + R_L R_{T2} E_{T1E} \\ & + R_L R_{T1} E_{T2E} \end{aligned} \quad 3.3c$$

$$\begin{aligned} Dib = & -R_L R_{T2} E_1 + (R_L R_{T2} + R_L R_s + R_s R_{T2}) E_{T1E} \\ & - R_s R_L E_{T2E} \end{aligned} \quad 3.3d$$

$$Dic = R_{T1} R_{T2} E_1 + R_{T2} R_s E_{T1E} + R_s R_{T1} E_{T2E} \quad 3.3e$$

$$\begin{aligned} Did = & R_{T1} R_L E_1 + R_s R_L E_{T1E} - (R_s R_{T1} + R_s R_L \\ & + R_{T1} R_L) E_{T2E} \end{aligned} \quad 3.3f$$

To determine the operating range of this gate, current in each diode of the four diode bridge must be calculated. If the diodes are of very low resistance or of zero resistance, the currents  $i_a$ ,  $i_b$ ,  $i_c$ , and  $i_d$  will appear as current sources with values as determined by Eq. 3-5a to Eq. 3-5e. Fig. 3-5 illustrates

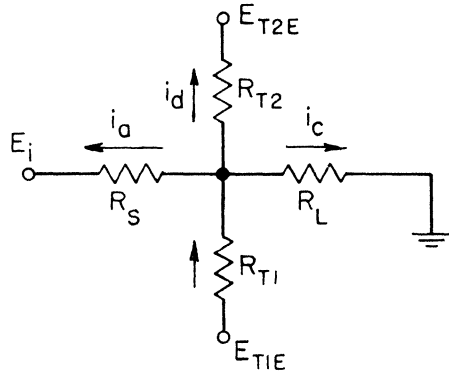


Fig. 3-4 In the Enabled Gate All Diodes Are Shorts

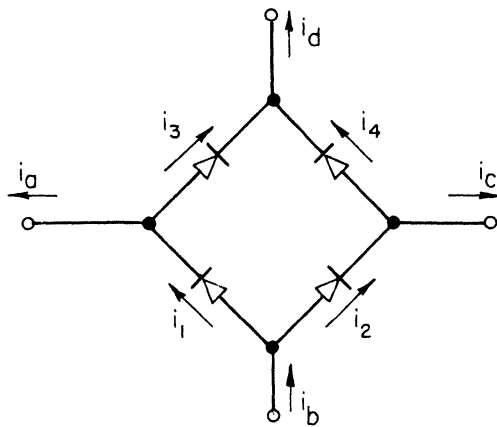


Fig. 3-5 The Four Diode Bridge

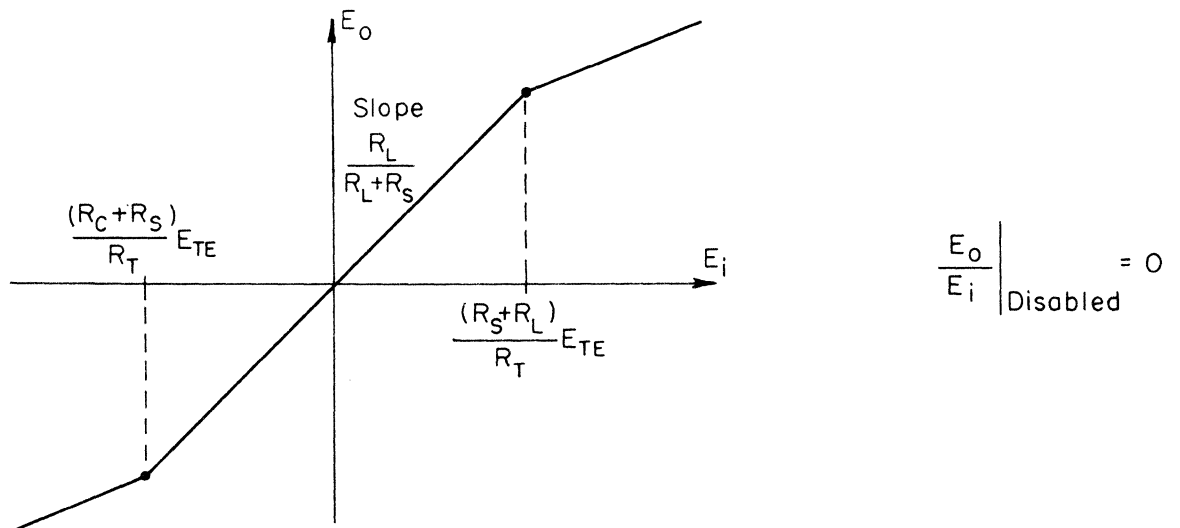


Fig. 3-6 Four Diode Gate with Balanced Trigger

this bridge. If the diodes are all short circuits and the four currents  $i_a$ ,  $i_b$ ,  $i_c$  and  $i_d$  are given, the diode currents  $i_1$ ,  $i_2$ ,  $i_3$  and  $i_4$  cannot be uniquely determined. However, if the diodes have a resistance  $R_a$  the following equation applies.

$$0 = i_1 R_a + i_3 R_a - i_4 R_a - i_2 R_a \quad 3.6a$$

$$0 = i_1 + i_3 - i_4 - i_2 \quad 3.6b$$

Eq. 3-6b will hold for any  $R_a$  however small, provided  $R_a \neq 0$ . Three current summing equations and Eq. 3-6b provide enough information to calculate all diode currents. These expressions are summarized in Eq. 3-7

$$\begin{bmatrix} i_a \\ i_b \\ i_c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ i_3 \\ i_4 \end{bmatrix} \quad 3.7$$

The solution to these equations are given in Eq. 3-8.

$$\begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ i_3 \\ i_4 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_a \\ i_b \\ i_c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad 3.8$$

The next step is to calculate  $i_1$ ,  $i_2$ ,  $i_3$  and  $i_4$  in terms of  $E_1$  and  $E_{TG}$ . This is not very difficult and the results are shown below. It is apparent

$$i_1 = \frac{-(R_L R_T + 1/2 R_T^2)}{D} E_1 + 1/2 \left( \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \right) \quad 3.9a$$

$$i_2 = \frac{1/2 R_T^2}{D} E_1 + 1/2 \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \quad 3.9b$$

$$i_3 = \frac{R_L R_T + 1/2 R_T^2}{D} E_1 + 1/2 \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \quad 3.9c$$

$$i_4 = -1/2 \frac{R_T^2}{D} E_1 + 1/2 \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \quad 3.9d$$

from Fig. 3-3 and from the above equations that the linear range is symmetric with respect to  $E_1$ . For large positive  $E_1$  the current in  $D_1$  is the first to go negative. This will occur when

$$E_1 = \frac{\pm 1/2 \frac{R_L R_T + R_L R_S + 1/2 R_T R_S}{R_T R_L + 1/2 R_T^2} E_{TE}}{\quad} \quad 3.10$$

As in the previous gate there is no value of  $E_1$  which make  $E_o$  other than zero when the gate is disabled.

In the interest of large enabled gain the trigger voltage and its associated resistor are often made to appear as a current source to the enabled gate. With the modification that  $R_T$  is very large or that  $E_{TE}/R_T$  appears as a current source, we can rewrite the equations for enabled gain, disabled gain, enabled linear range and current in the diodes.

The enabled and disabled gains become

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_1} \right| E = \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_S} \quad 3.11$$

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_1} \right| D = 0 \quad 3.12$$

$$i_1 = \frac{-(R_L R_T + 1/2 R_T^2)}{D} E_1 + 1/2 \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \quad 3.9a$$

$$i_2 = \frac{1/2 R_T^2}{D} E_1 + 1/2 \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \quad 3.9b$$

$$i_3 = \frac{R_L R_T + 1/2 R_T^2}{D} E_1 + 1/2 \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \quad 3.9c$$

$$i_4 = -1/2 \frac{R_T^2}{D} E_1 + 1/2 \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \quad 3.9d$$

from Fig. 3-3 and from the above equations that the linear range is symmetric with respect to  $E_1$ . For large positive  $E_1$  the current in  $D_1$  is the first to go negative. This will occur when

$$E_1 = \frac{1/2 R_L R_T + R_L R_S + 1/2 R_T R_S}{R_T R_L + 1/2 R_T^2} E_{TE} \quad 3.10$$

As in the previous gate there is no value of  $E_1$  which make  $E_o$  other than zero when the gate is disabled.

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The enabled and disabled gains become

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_1} \right| E = \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_S} \quad 3.11$$

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_1} \right| D = 0 \quad 3.12$$



Similarly, the linear range is modified to take into account this approximation.

$$E_1 = \pm (R_L + R_S) \left[ \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \right] \quad 3.13$$

In this case the diode bridge behaves very symmetrically. Eq. 3-14a to Eq. 3-14d show that the diodes on opposite legs of the bridge have identical currents in them. There is a superposition which applies to this bridge and its currents. The trigger source causes a current  $I_T/2$  to flow in each diode.

$$i_1 = -1/2 \frac{E_1}{R_S + R_L} + 1/2 \left( \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \right) \quad 3.14a$$

$$i_2 = 1/2 \frac{E_1}{R_S + R_L} + 1/2 \left( \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \right) \quad 3.14b$$

$$i_3 = 1/2 \frac{E_1}{R_S + R_L} + 1/2 \left( \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \right) \quad 3.14c$$

$$i_4 = -1/2 \frac{E_1}{R_S + R_L} + 1/2 \left( \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \right) \quad 3.14d$$

The input voltage causes a current  $\frac{E_1}{2(R_S + R_L)}$  to flow in each diode. These currents will add in two opposite diodes and subtract in the other two. Remember that this is only true when  $R_T \gg R_S + R_L$ .

Fig. 3-6 is a summary of the gates characteristics as discussed so far.

As a numerical example, let us assume that we are to design a diode gate of the balanced trigger type and that we are given the input source resistance as 500 ohms and the output load as 2000 ohms. The linear range of this gate is to be  $\pm 20$  volts. It remains for us to design a trigger source. Recognizing that we

cannot build a perfect current source, we can, however, use the equations derived for this case as a guide. Let us vary  $R_T$  and calculate  $E_{TE}$ , maximum trigger current, and  $\frac{E_o}{E_1} \bigg|_E$  with the constraint that the linear range remain a constant  $\pm 20$  volts. By turning back to the appropriate equation and putting in the known values the following three equations can be written.

$$E_{TE} = .02 \frac{2000 R_T + .5 R_T^2}{1000 + 1.25 R_T}$$

$$i_{dmax} = \frac{60 + .01 R_T}{1000 + 1.25 R_T}$$

$$\frac{E_o}{E_1} \bigg|_E = \frac{2 R_T}{2000 + 2.5 R_T}$$

In Fig. 3-7 the above equations are plotted. From these graphs the right combination of  $R_T$  and  $E_{TE}$  can be chosen.  $i_{dmax}$  gives the maximum current required of this source and  $\frac{E_o}{E_1} \bigg|_E$  is the resulting gate gain.

### 3-3 THE DISABLED SERIES GATE

Before continuing with the floating trigger four diode gate, we might pause to investigate in general one of the main disadvantages of the series sample gate when applied to the pulsed analog computer. This difficulty originates in the fact that  $Z_{GD}$  contains a capacitive component. The resistive component of  $Z_{GD}$  is generally large enough to be of no consequence when compared to this capacitive component. Fig. 3-8 is an illustration of the circuit with which we are now concerned. Let us assume that the input voltage is a ramp  $\frac{(\Delta E)}{\Delta t} t$  and that this ramp lasts for a long time compared to the time constant  $\tau = (R_s + R_L)C$ . The problem is to

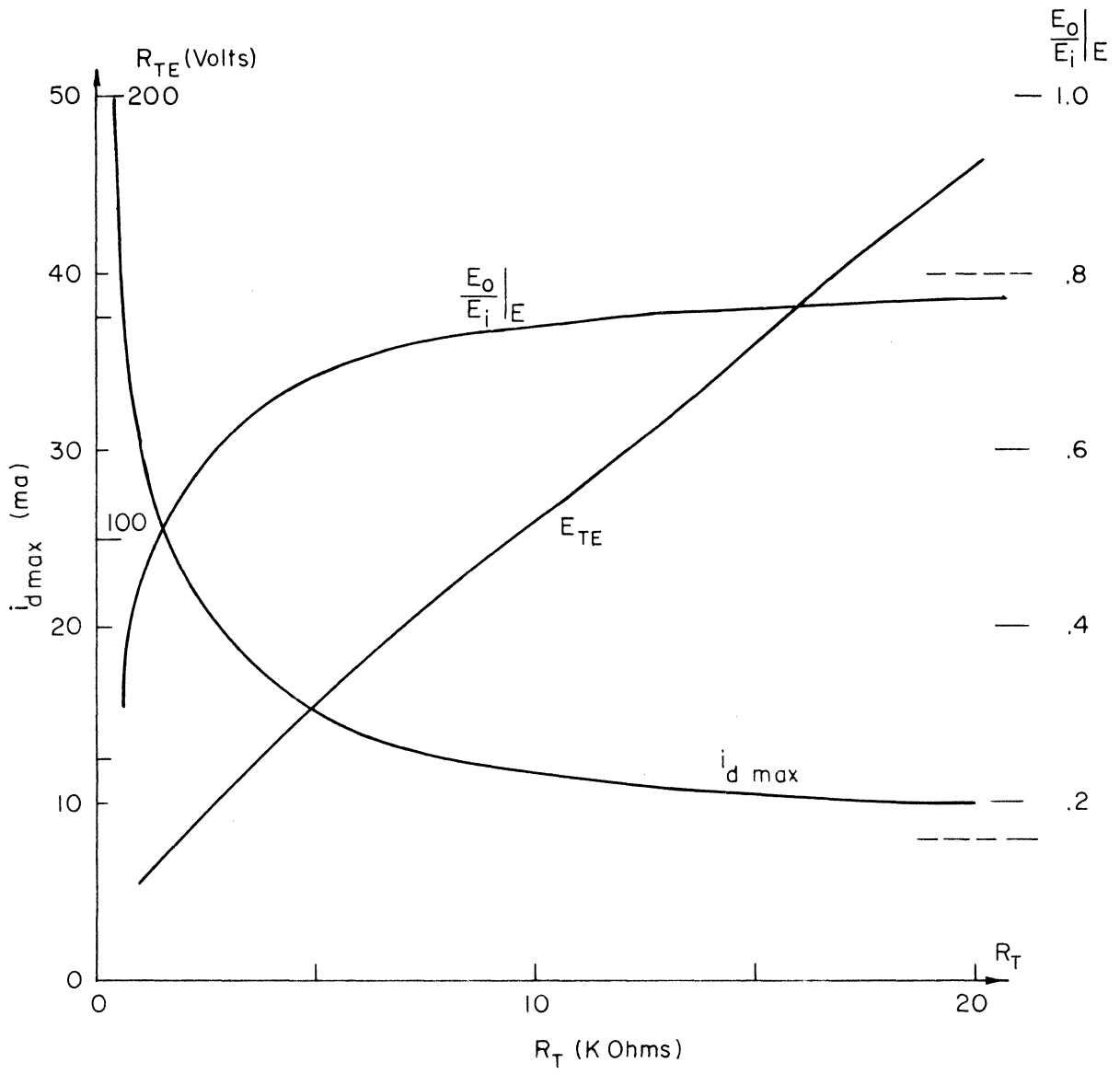


Fig. 3-7 The Design of a Balanced Trigger Source

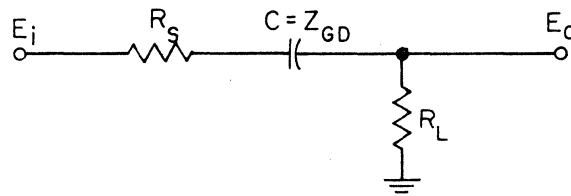


Fig. 3-8 A Disabled Series Gate

compute the final value of the output voltage due to this ramp, and then to adjust the variables to keep this error below a predetermined minimum. Eq. 3-14 is an expression for the disabled gain. Eq. 3-15 is an expression for the actual output. And lastly, Eq. 3-16 is the final value of the output.

$$\frac{E_o}{E_i} \Big|_D = \frac{R_L C_s}{(R_s + R_L) C_s + 1} \quad 3.14$$

$$E_o = \frac{R_L C_s}{(R_s + R_L) C_s + 1} \times \left( \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} \right) \frac{1}{s^2} \quad 3.15$$

$$e_{omax} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s E_o = \left( \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} \right) R_L C \quad 3.16$$

For a numerical example, let us assume that the disabled gate appears as a capacitor of value  $25 \times 10^{-12}$  farads (which is typical for a diode gate), and that the input voltage changes 40 volts in  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  seconds. If the maximum allowed voltage read through is .02 volts, what is the largest value of  $R_L$  which we can use? The  $R_L$  to satisfy Eq. 3-16 is 2,000 ohms. This or a lower value of  $R_L$  will reduce the disabled gain to an allowable value. Most calculations which are made for the enabled gate favor a large value of  $R_L$ . The difficulties are then encountered in attempting to use this resistor in the enabled gate and still maintain enabled gain, linear range and linearity.

#### 3.4 THE DIODE SERIES GATE WITH FLOATING TRIGGER

The next gate which we will consider is the logical extension of the diode series gate to the floating trigger case (Fig. 3-9). The analysis of the balanced trigger gate when  $E_{TF}$  and  $R_T$  are very large is similar in many respects to this gate. The gate of Fig. 3-9 is enabled with a positive

trigger voltage and disabled with a negative trigger voltage. A model a little more elaborate than the ideal diode can easily be used for this gate.

If the diodes are assumed to have a forward or conducting resistance of  $r_f$  and a back resistance of  $r_b$ , the results as illustrated in Fig. 3-10 can be obtained for gate gain and linear range. Unlike the previous gates the disabled range of this gate is not infinite. This is not due to the fact that a different model is being used for the gating elements, but is a property of the configuration.

An alternative approach can be used to calculate  $E_o$  vs  $E_i$  plots for the floating trigger gate. The gating elements, including the trigger source can be considered to be a two terminal impedance. This impedance,  $Z_G$ , is non-linear. A plot of  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  can be calculated once the model for the diodes has been chosen. On this same graph the load line  $E_i = (R_s + R_L) i_g + e_g$  can be drawn. The intersection of these two curves determines the operating point of the gate. By varying  $E_i$  and recording corresponding values of  $i_g$  the plots of  $E_o$  vs  $E_i$  can be obtained. This method of analysis will be used to find an estimate of the linearity of the floating trigger four diode series gate.

The first step in determining this linearity is therefore to find the  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plots for the enabled series element. Let us assume that the four diodes of the gate are equal and that some diode curve  $e_d = f(i_d)$  is given. Fig. 3-11 illustrates the circuit which we are now interested in. Many equations can be immediately written down by inspection.

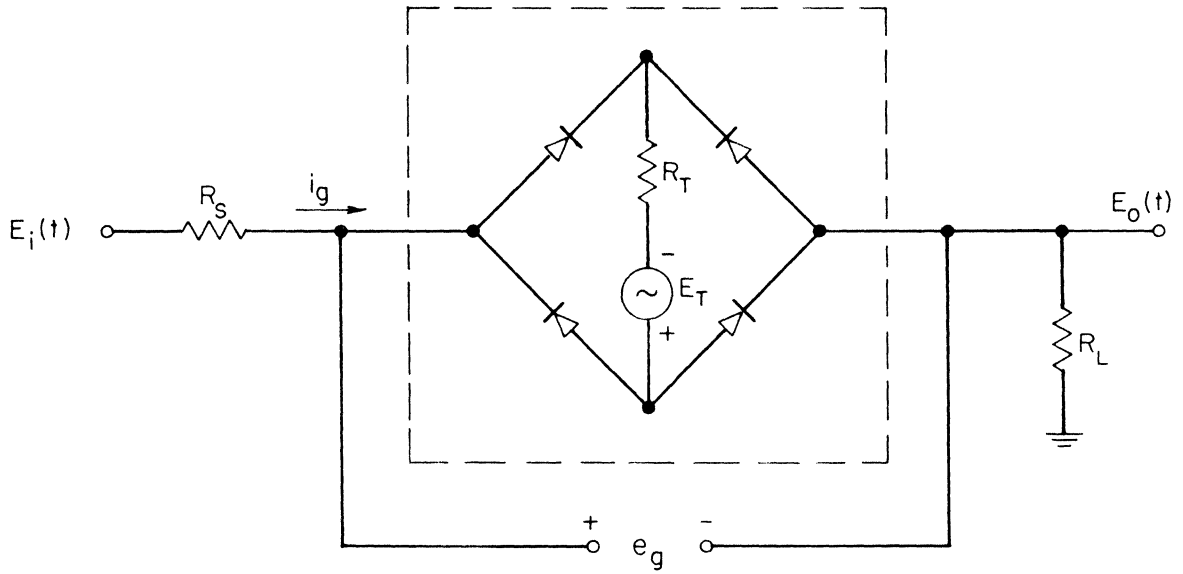


Fig. 3-9 Four Diode Bridge Gate with Floating Trigger

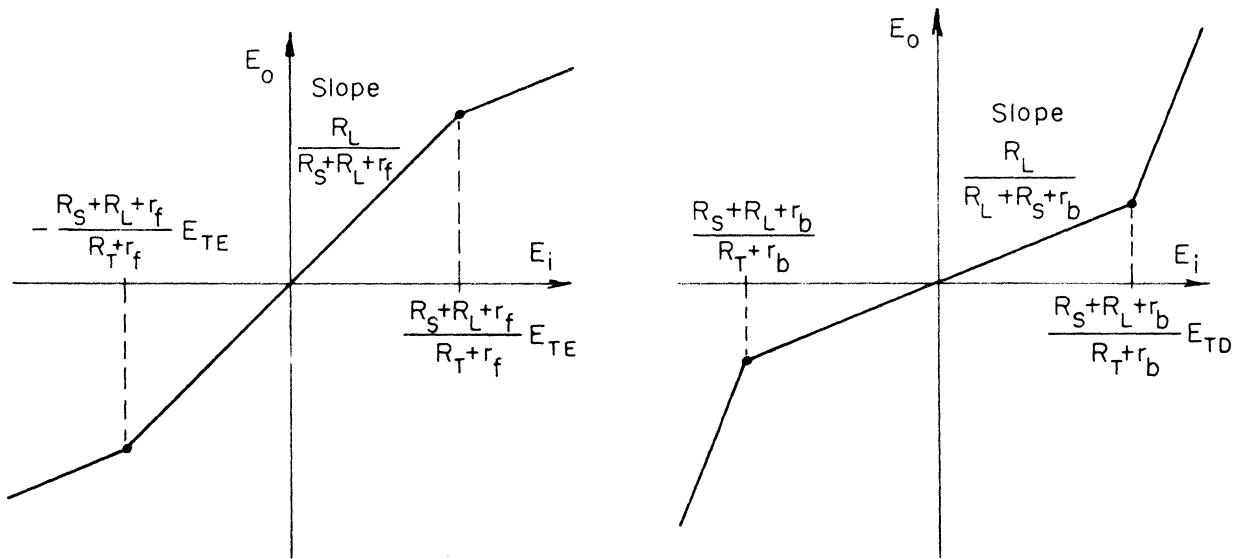


Fig. 3-10 Trigger Four Diode Gate's Enabled Floating and Disabled Gain

$$E_T = e_1 + e_3 + i_T R_T \quad 3.17a$$

$$E_T = e_2 + e_4 + i_T R_T \quad 3.17b$$

$$e_g = e_3 - e_4 \quad 3.17c$$

$$e_g = e_2 - e_1 \quad 3.17d$$

$$i_g + i_1 = i_3 \quad 3.17e$$

$$i_3 + i_4 = i_T \quad 3.17f$$

$$i_1 + i_2 = i_T \quad 3.17g$$

$$i_4 + i_g = i_2 \quad 3.17h$$

If we interchange subscripts 1 with 4 and 2 with 3 the set of equations remains unchanged. This symmetry plus the fact that the diodes are equal proves that  $e_1 = e_4$  and  $e_2 = e_3$  and of course  $i_1 = i_4$   $i_2 = i_3$ . This reduces the eight equations above to the four below.

$$E_T = e_1 + e_2 + i_T R_T \quad 3.18a$$

$$e_g = e_2 - e_1 \quad 3.18b$$

$$i_g + i_1 = i_2 \quad 3.18c$$

$$i_1 + i_2 = i_T \quad 3.18d$$

The voltages  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are replaced with  $f(i_1)$  and  $f(i_2)$  respectively.

$$E_T = f(i_1) + f(i_2) + i_T R_T \quad 3.19a$$

$$e_g = f(i_2) - f(i_1) \quad 3.19b$$

$$i_g + i_1 = i_2 \quad 3.19c$$

$$i_1 + i_2 = i_T \quad 3.19d$$

From Eq. 3-19c and Eq. 3-19d we can solve for  $i_1$  and  $i_2$  in terms of  $i_g$  and  $i_T$ .

$$i_1 = \frac{i_T - i_g}{2} \quad 3.20a$$

$$i_2 = \frac{i_g + i_T}{2} \quad 3.20b$$

These expressions are substituted into Eq. 3-19a and Eq. 3-19d to give Eq. 3-21

$$E_T = f \left[ \frac{i_T - i_g}{2} \right] + f \left[ \frac{i_T + i_g}{2} \right] + i_T R_T \quad 3.2.a$$

$$e = f \left[ \frac{i_T + i_g}{2} \right] - f \left[ \frac{i_T - i_g}{2} \right] \quad 3.21b$$

In order to proceed any further the function  $e_d = f(i_d)$  must be specified. It can be given graphically or analytically. If  $e_d = f(i_d)$  is given graphically the  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot can be obtained by a procedure outlined in Appendix I. If it is given analytically there is the possibility that  $i_T$  can be eliminated from Eq. 3-21. Then  $e_g$  is known as, at least, an implicit function of  $i_g$ .

For an example let us assume that we have a square law diode as illustrated in Fig. 3-12. As long as all diodes are conducting a  $\sqrt{i_d}$  can be substituted for  $f(i_d)$  in Eq. 3-21. After a little algebra, including the elimination of  $i_T$ , the following equation results.

$$R_T e_g^4 - 2a^2 E_T e_g^2 + 2a^4 i_g e_g + a^4 R_T i_g^2 = 0 \quad 3.22$$

For large positive  $i_g$ , the diodes D1 and D2 will be nonconducting. An equation for  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  can be found by an inspection of the circuit. (Eq. 3-23)



$$e_g = e_3 + i_g R_T - E_T + e_2 \quad 3.23a$$

$$e_g = 2a \sqrt{i_g} + i_g R_T - E_T \quad 3.23b$$

Eq. 3-21 shows us that  $e_g = h(i_g)$  is symmetric with respect to the origin, and therefore we need only consider positive  $i_g$ . Some terms of equation 3-22 and 3-23b are extraneous to the actual curve we are seeking. However, upon plotting these curves the unused portion can be removed by inspection.

Before plotting these curves a few special properties can be observed. Since a break point in  $f(i_d)$  occurs at  $i_d = 0$ , a break point will occur in  $e_g = h(i_g)$  when  $i_g = i_T$  (from Eq. 3-21). Eq. 3-21a reduces to Eq. 3-24 at the break point. Eq. 3-24a applies as long as  $f(i_d = 0) = 0$ ,

$$E_T - i_g R_T = f(i_g) \quad 3.24a$$

$$E_T - i_g R_T = a \sqrt{i_g} \quad 3.24b$$

and Eq. 3-24b applies for our example.

Another interesting and useful property of the gate is the incremental resistance of the gating element near the origin. By converting Eq. 3-22 to polar coordinates  $(r, \theta)$  and solving for  $\tan \theta$  when  $i_g = 0$  the resistance can be found (Eq. 3-25.)

$$r_g \left| \begin{array}{l} i_g = 0 \\ i_g = 0 \end{array} \right. = \frac{\Delta r_g}{i_g} = \frac{R_T}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{2 E_T R_T}{a^2} - 1}} \quad 3.25$$

This resistance could also be found by solving first for the current in the diodes when  $i_g = 0$ . This current, which is the same for all diodes, determines an operating point or an incremental resistance of the diodes. This incremental resistance of one diode is the incremental resistance of the gate near the origin.

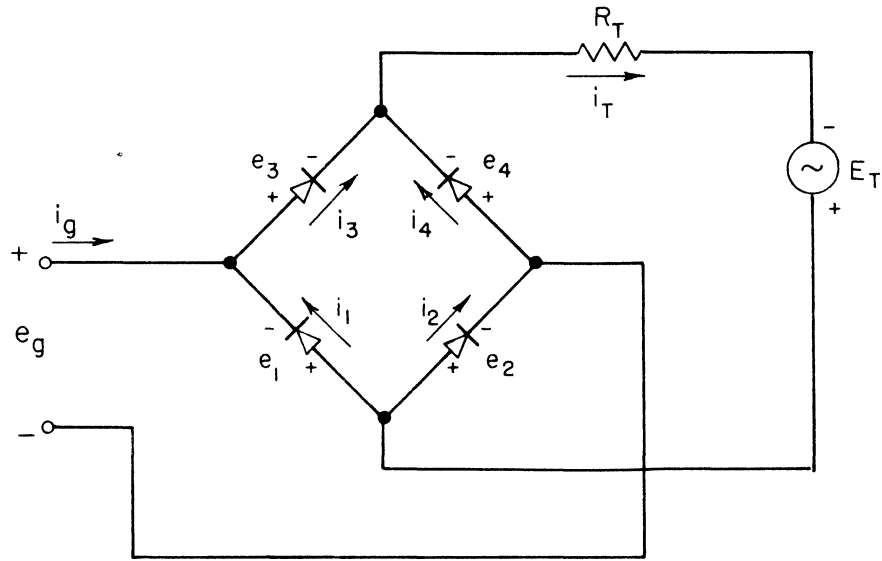


Fig. 3-11 Four Diode Series Element with Floating Trigger

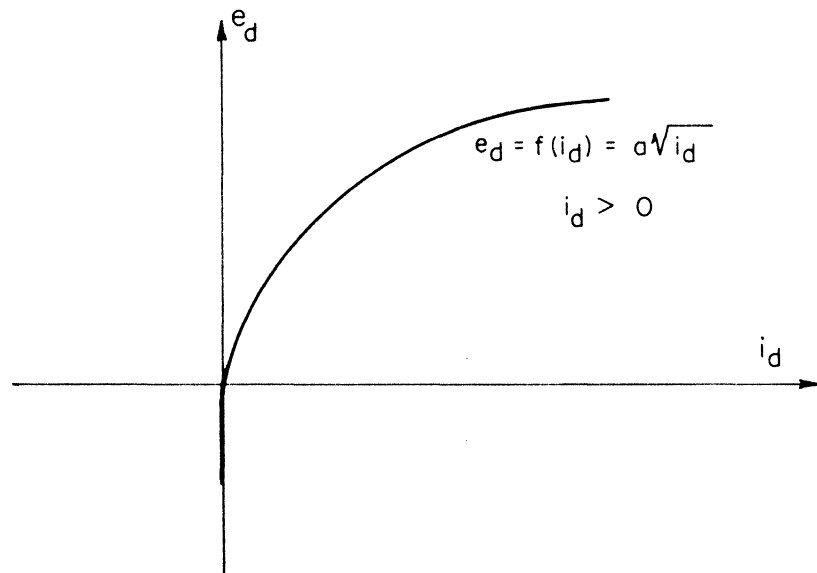
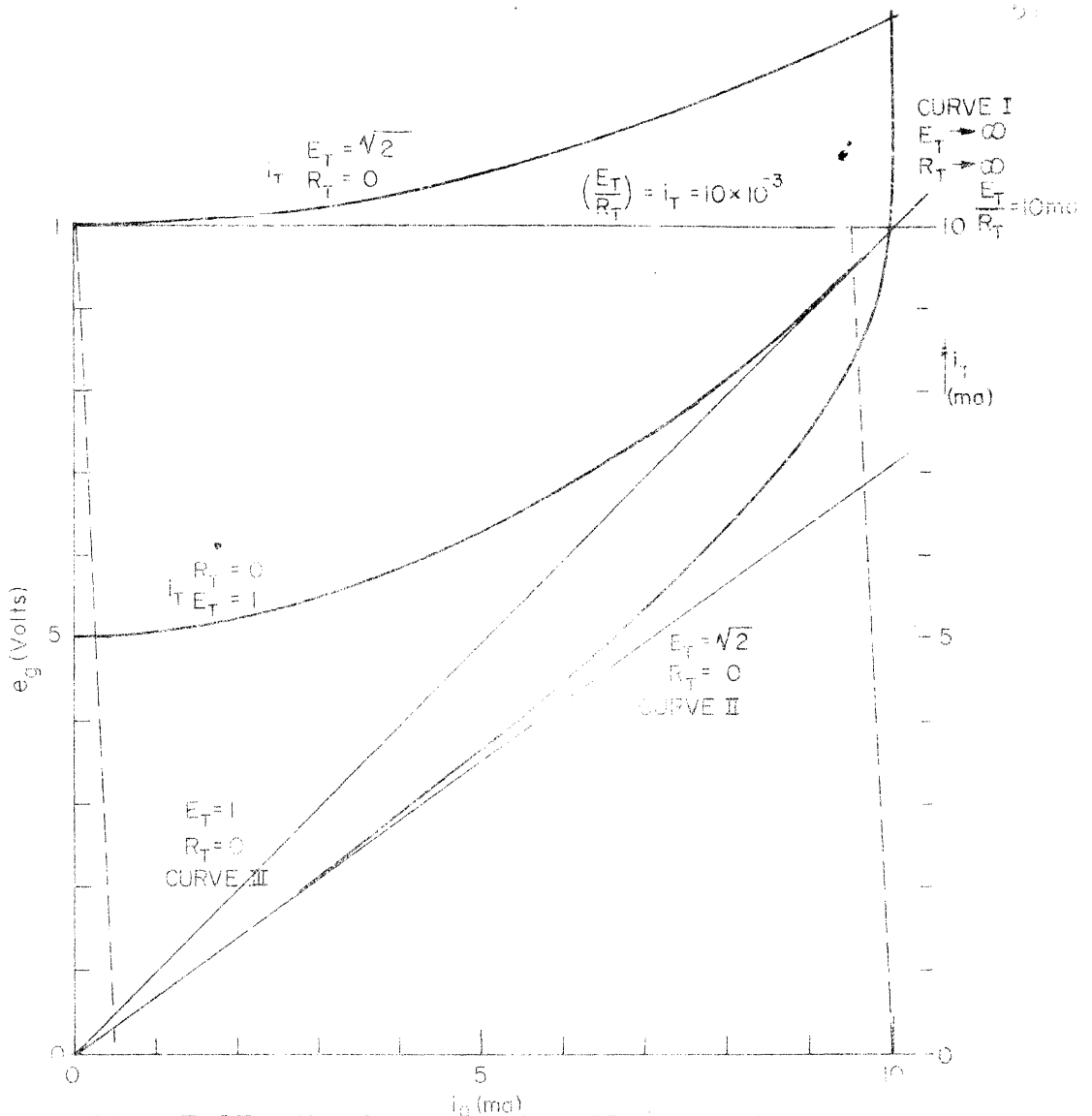


Fig. 3-12 Square Law Diode

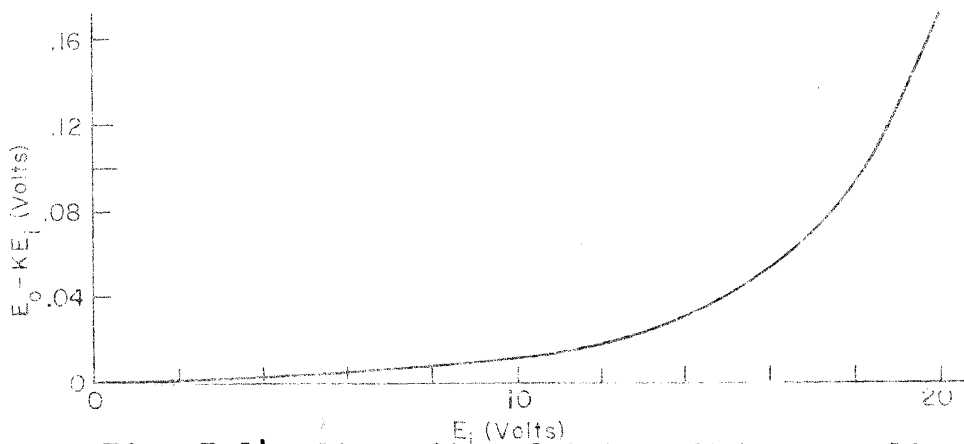
Fig. 3-13 contains plots of  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  for a few extreme combinations of trigger voltage and resistance. The value of  $a$  has been taken to be  $10 \frac{\text{Volts}}{(\text{amps})^{1/2}}$ . The trigger source is a 10 ma current source for curve I. The resistance at the origin is  $50\sqrt{2}$  ohms. All combinations of  $E_t$  and  $R_T$  which result in  $50\sqrt{2}$  ohms of incremental resistance near the origin will lie between curve I and curve II. Curve II is the other extreme case, where the trigger source is a pure voltage source. In actually building a trigger source the current requirements placed on this source are important. Therefore the trigger current has been plotted for each trigger source. If we vary  $E_T$  and  $R_T$  such that the break point or maximum trigger current required remains at a constant 10 ma, we will vary from curve I to curve III. It has been obvious from the start that non-linearities in the input source resistance  $R_s$  result in gate transmission non-linearities. In the gate which we are now considering non-linearities in  $R_T$  also contribute to non-linearities in gate transmission.

The smaller the value of  $R_T$ , the closer to perfect linearity is this ideal gate. The current source trigger represents the extreme case of non linearity and the deviation from linearity has been plotted in Fig. 3-14. The resistance of the gate near the origin has been taken as a reference in order to compute ideal gate gain. This curve has been plotted for  $R_s = 0$  and  $R_L = 2000$  ohms.

While these results are realistic in that non linear diode curves have been used, they are not realistic in that the four



**Fig. 3-13 The Design of a Floating Trigger Source for Four Diode Gate. Square Law Diodes ( $e_d = 10 i_d$ ) Are Used in This Gate.**



**Fig. 3-14 Linearity of Gate. K is normalized to be  $2000 \pm 2000 + 50 \ 2$**

diodes have been assumed to be identical. The most important effect of an unbalance in the diodes is to shift the  $e_g = h(i_g)$  plot from the origin  $i_g = 0, e_g = 0$ . In practice this voltage is rather unpredictable but may be brought to a reasonably small value by either an offset bias or by carefully matching diodes.

In order to make any statements about the switching speed of the four diode gate we must establish a model for the diode which includes switching effects. The diode D of Fig. 3-15 is statically the same as the diode in Fig. 3-10. As the trigger voltage in any gate is assumed to change in a step fashion our model need only apply for step changes in voltage  $E_T$ . When the voltage  $E_T$  changes from  $-E_{TD}$  to  $E_{TE}$  the current in the diode will go from  $i_{dD} = -\frac{E_{TD}}{R_T + r_b}$  to  $i_{dE} = -\frac{E_{TD}}{R_T + r_b}$  in zero time. That is, our diode will go from the non conducting to the conducting state as fast as the trigger voltage. However when the voltage changes from  $E_{TE}$  to  $-E_{TD}$  the resistance of the diode will remain at  $r_f$  for an interval of time,  $T_s$ . This switching time depends on both the enabled current  $i_{dE}$  and on the reverse current  $i_{dR} = -\frac{E_{TD}}{R_T + r_f}$ . For our purposes  $T_s = +K \frac{i_{dE}}{i_{dR}}$ , where K is a property of the diode construction. Fig. 3-15 illustrates this switching.

If this diode model is inserted in the bridge of Fig. 3-9 the switching speed of the gate and the transients introduced upon switching depend upon the input voltage  $E_1$ . Let us consider two extreme cases. When the value of  $E_1$  is zero, the positive trigger voltage will cause an equal current to flow in each diode. An instantaneous change in  $E_T$  from  $E_{TE}$  from  $E_{TE}$  to  $-E_{TD}$  will

similarly cause an equal reverse current to flow in each diode. Because the diodes have all been subjected to identical conditions they will all become non conducting at the same instant. A different situation exists when  $E_1$  is some large positive voltage. The currents in the diodes of the enabled gate are now unbalanced. In order to simplify an already over simplified argument let us assume that diodes  $D_1$  and  $D_4$  are conducting zero current. Diodes  $D_2$  and  $D_3$  are therefore conducting full trigger current. When the trigger voltage changes sign  $D_1$  and  $D_4$  become high resistances instantly. An estimate of the reverse current in the diodes which are left conducting can be calculated from Fig. 3-16.

$$i_{dR} = \frac{(E_{TD} - E_1)}{R_s + 2r_f + R_L + R_T} \quad 3.26$$

After a time  $T_s = K \frac{1}{i_{dR}} dE$  the gate will be completely disabled.

During this switching a transient has been introduced at the output of the gate. This transient is illustrated in Fig. 3-17.

Since a crude model has been used for diode switching, we can only come to some crude conclusions about gate switching. A transient appears at the output of the four diode gate while switching from the enabled to the disabled state, which depends on  $E_1$ . This transient is a property of the gate configuration and switching characteristics of the diodes which can only be completely eliminated by using zero switching time diodes. While this transient may not be very aesthetic it is of no consequence in pulsed analog work provided it is sufficiently short. The storage gate which follows this sample gate need only come to the end of its enabled period before this transient starts.

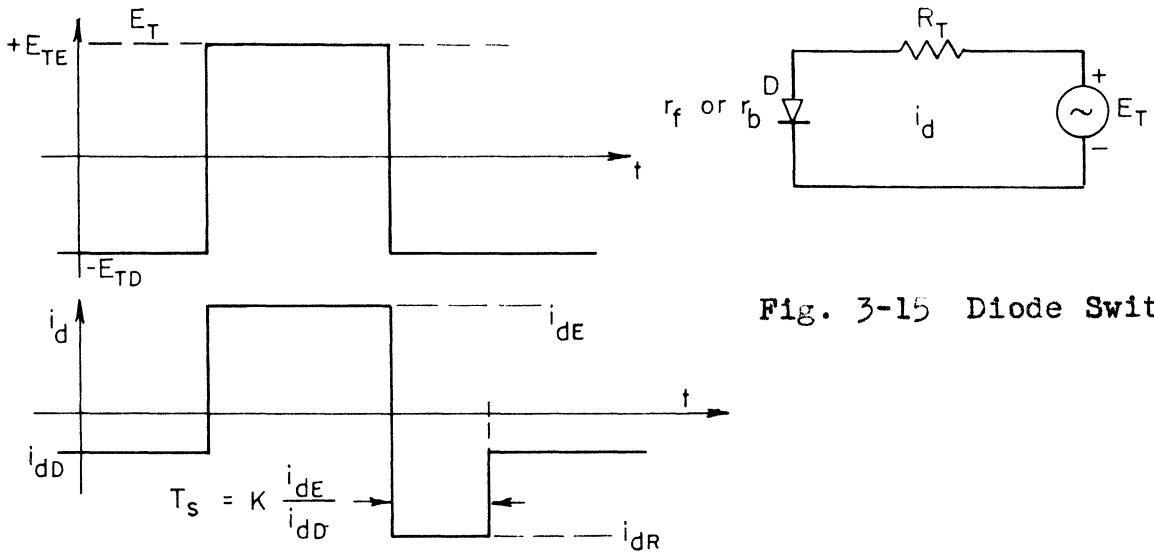


Fig. 3-15 Diode Switching

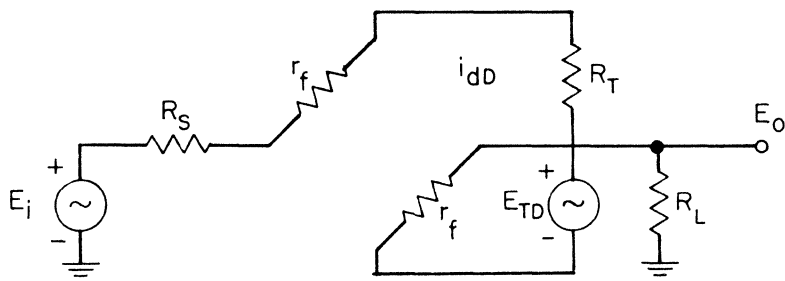


Fig. 3-16 Switching of Four Diode Gate

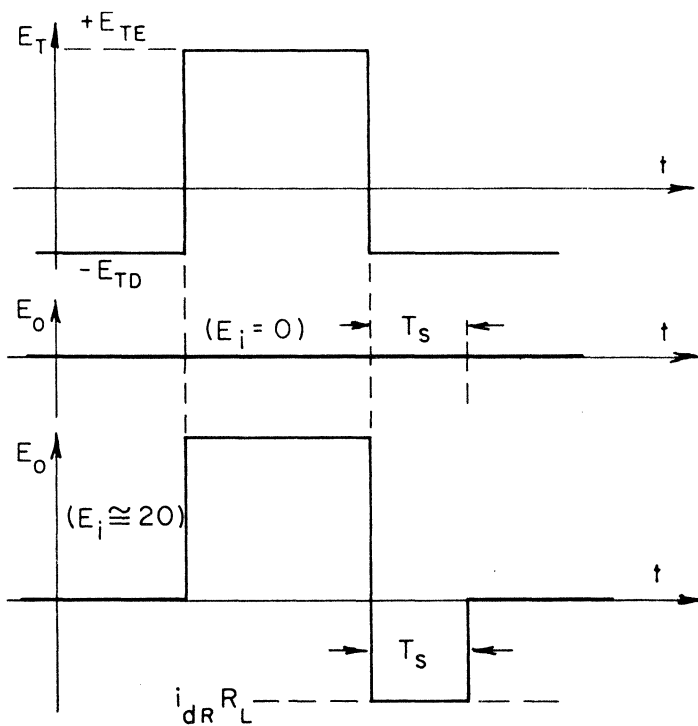


Fig. 3-17 Trigger Voltage and Output Transients

A four diode bridge gate can be built which meets the pulsed analog requirements. The gate has the disadvantage that an unpredictable bias, caused by an unbalance in diode characteristics, will have to be cancelled out. Also in a series gate the linearity of the input source may be strained. In a series-shunt gate this difficulty could be eliminated. Using the four diode bridge as both a series and a shunt element a sample gate can easily be built to meet pulsed analog requirements. The transistor gate of Chapter 4 will also meet our requirements and offers some advantages over this diode gate.



## CHAPTER IV

### BILATERAL TRANSISTOR SAMPLE GATES

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we will investigate the use of bilateral transistors as gating elements. A basic configuration is shown in Fig. 4-1. Once this basic element is understood special cases and more elaborate combinations can be considered. The transistor will operate in either the saturated or in the cutoff state. Fig. 4-2 adopts a simple model for the saturated transistor. When the trigger voltage  $E_T$  is large negative the diodes are conducting and have a resistance  $r_f$ . Expressions for  $i_{e1}$  and  $i_{e2}$  can be calculated (Eqs. 4-1, 4-2).

$$i_{e1} = \frac{[R_{12} - R_{22}] E_T + R_{22} E_1 - R_{12} E_2}{R_{11} R_{22} - R_{12} R_{21}} \quad 4.1$$

$$i_{e2} = \frac{[R_{21} - R_{11}] E_T - R_{21} E_1 + R_{11} E_2}{R_{11} R_{22} - R_{12} R_{21}} \quad 4.2$$

where

$$R_{11} \triangleq R_1 + r_{f1} + R_T$$

$$R_{22} \triangleq R_2 + r_{f2} + R_T$$

$$R_{12} \triangleq R_T + \alpha_1 r_{f1}$$

$$R_{21} \triangleq R_T + \alpha_2 r_{f2}$$

The value of the current in the diodes is important when we are calculating the point at which the transistor leaves saturation.

Eq. 4-3 and Eq. 4-4 should satisfy this need.

$$D1_{d1} = \{ R_{22} - R_{12} + \alpha_1 R_{11} - \alpha_1 R_{21} \} E_T \quad 4.3$$

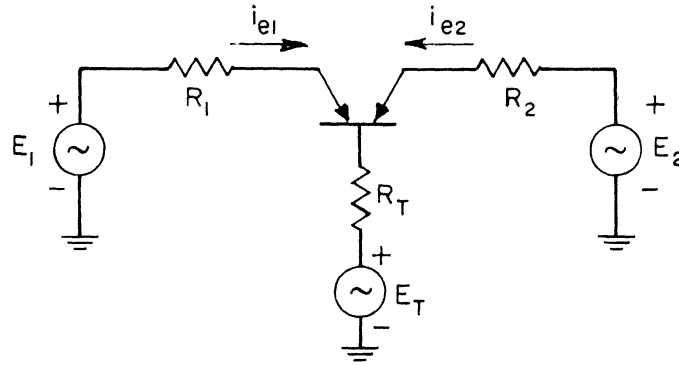


Fig. 4-1 A Basic Bilateral Transistor Configuration

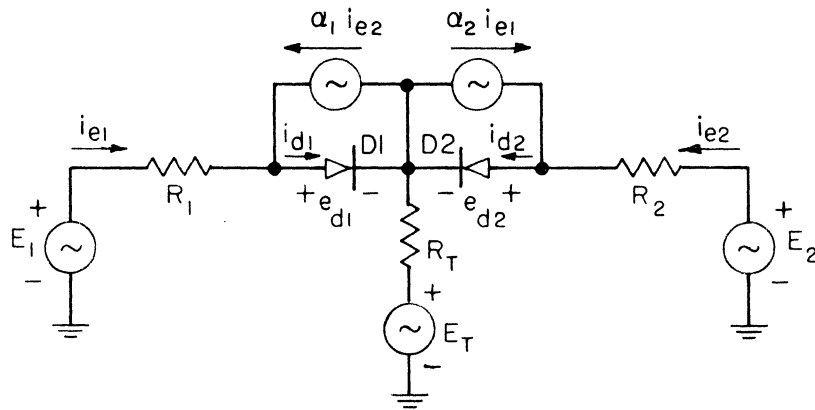


Fig. 4-2 Basic Configuration with Transistor Model

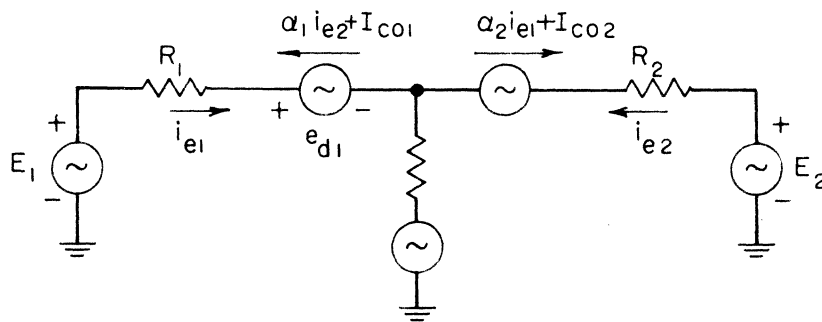


Fig. 4-3 Basic Configuration with Cutoff Transistor

$$\begin{aligned}
 & + \left\{ -R_{22} + \alpha_1 R_{21} \right\} E_1 + \left\{ R_{12} - \alpha_1 R_{21} \right\} E_2 \\
 D I_{d2} = & \left\{ R_{11} - R_{21} + \alpha_2 R_{22} - \alpha_2 R_{12} \right\} E_T \\
 & + \left\{ R_{21} - \alpha_2 R_{22} \right\} E_1 + \left\{ -R_{11} + \alpha_2 R_{12} \right\} E_2 \quad 4.4
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{where } D = R_{11} R_{22} - R_{12} R_{21}$$

If in the reverse direction the diodes appear as resistances  $r_b$ , Eqs. 4-1 to 4-2 apply to the cutoff transistor simply by substituting  $r_b$  for  $r_f$ . A different model, which has been incorporated in Fig. 4-3, is often used for the cut off transistor. With this model all the currents of the circuit can be determined independent of the voltages and resistors. (Eq. 4-5, 4-6). The transistor will remain cutoff as long as the diode voltages  $e_{e1}$  and  $e_{e2}$  remain negative. In practice the currents  $i_{d1}$  and  $i_{d2}$  are so small that

$$i_{e1} = \frac{\alpha_1 I_{co2} - I_{co1}}{1 - \alpha_1 \alpha_2} \quad 4.5$$

$$i_{e2} = \frac{\alpha_2 I_{co1} - I_{co2}}{1 - \alpha_1 \alpha_2} \quad 4.6$$

the voltage drops which they cause across the resistors are insignificant when computing linear range. Neglecting leakage currents in this way is identical to using ideal diodes in the model of Fig. 4-2. The diode voltages are then simply

$$e_{d1} = -E_T + E_1 \quad 4.7$$

$$e_{d2} = -E_T + E_2 \quad 4.8$$

#### 4-2 THE SERIES TRANSISTOR GATE

Fig. 4-4 illustrates a bilateral transistor series sample gate

with a grounded trigger. This gate is the basic configuration with the modification that  $E_2 = 0$ . The output of the gate can be written down from Eq. 4-1, with the appropriate substitutions as indicated in Fig. 4-4. In many

$$E_{OE} = -i_{e2} R_L = \frac{\{R_{11} - R_{21}\} R_L (-E_{TE})}{R_{11}R_{22} - R_{12}R_{21}} + \frac{R_{21} R_L E_1}{R_{11}R_{22} - R_{12}R_{21}} \quad 4.9$$

cases the trigger resistance will be very large compared to the other resistances of the gate. With this approximation and using a perfectly symmetrical transistor Eq. 4-10 can be written. The term  $2(1 - \alpha) r_f$

$$E_{OE} = \frac{\{R_s + (1 - \alpha) r_f\} R_L}{R_s + R_L + 2(1 - \alpha) r_f} \left[ -\frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \right] + \frac{R_L E_1}{R_s + R_L + 2(1 - \alpha) r_f} \quad 4.10$$

is often referred to as the transistor saturation resistance  $r_{SAT}$ . The DC output of the disabled gate will be caused by the leakage current of Eq. 4-6.

$$E_{OD} = \frac{I_{co}}{1 + \alpha} R_L \quad 4.11$$

An estimate of the linear range of this series gate can be obtained by using Eq. 4-3, 4-4. When in the enabled state we can, for this calculation, assume that  $r_f = 0$ . Eq. 4-12 and 4-13 are the expressions for the currents in the diodes.

$$D_{d1} = - (R_L + \alpha R_s) E_{TE} - (R_L + (1 - \alpha) R_T) E_1 \quad 4.12$$

$$D_{d2} = - (R_s + \alpha R_L) E_{TE} + (-\alpha R_L + (1 - \alpha) R_T) E_1 \quad 4.13$$

where the value of  $D$ , which is positive, is of no consequence,  $i_{d1}$  will change sign for large negative  $E_1$ . The point at which this will occur

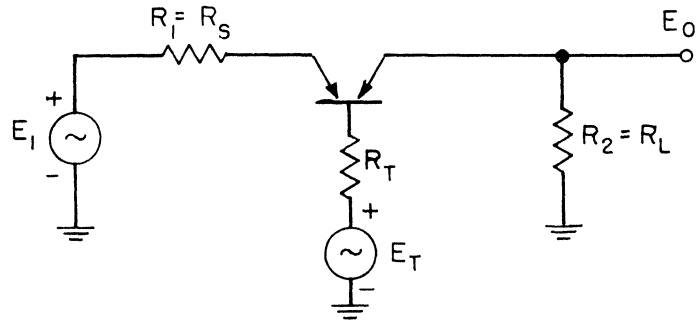


Fig. 4-4 Series Bilateral Transistor Gate with Grounded Trigger

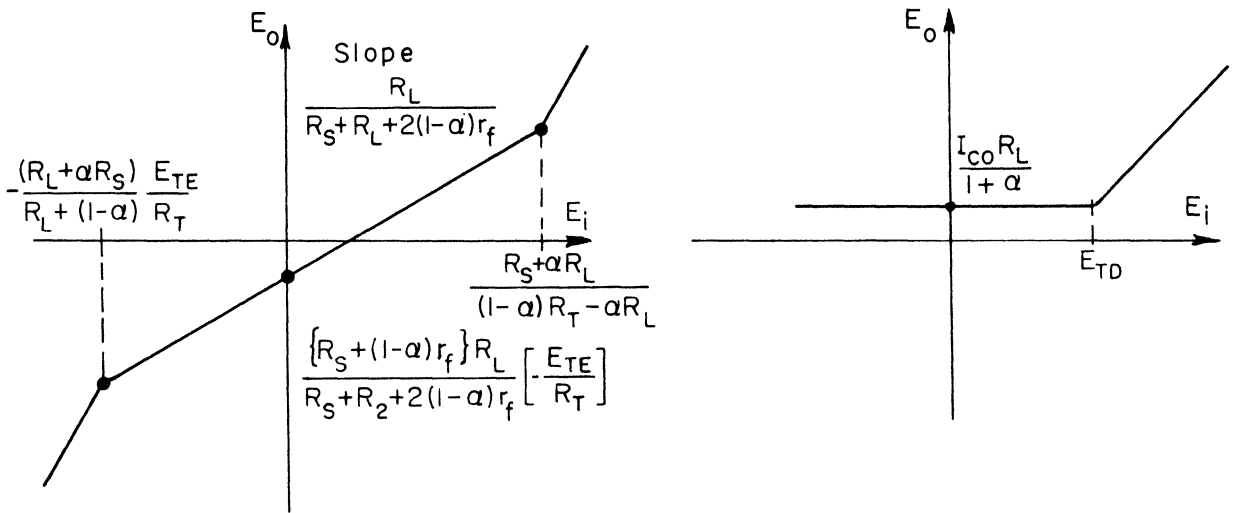


Fig. 4-5 Series Transistor Sample Gate

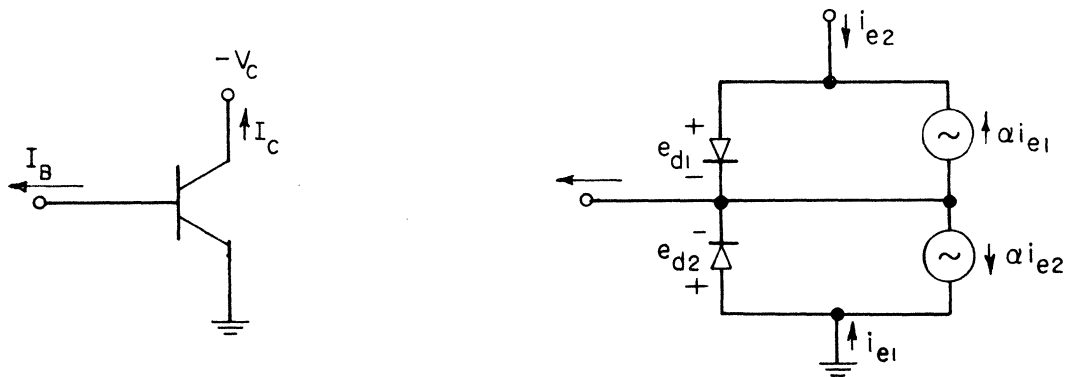


Fig. 4-6 The Grounded Emitter Transistor

is given in Eq. 4-14. The sign of the coefficient of  $E_1$  in Eq. 4-13 can

$$E_{1B} = - \frac{(R_L + \alpha R_S)}{R_L + (1-\alpha)R_T} E_{TE} \quad 4.14$$

be either positive or negative depending on the relative magnitudes of  $R_L$ ,  $R_T$  and  $\alpha$ . The break point can therefore be either positive or negative. This break point will occur when

$$E_{1B} = - \frac{(R_S + \alpha R_L)}{\alpha R_L - (1-\alpha)R_T} E_{TE} \quad 4.15$$

If  $E_1$  as calculated in Eq. 4-14 is negative than  $E_1$  can go no more negative than this value. If the calculated value of  $E_1$  is positive than  $E_1$  can go no more positive. If Eqs. 4-14 and 4-15 both demand a negative break point, the smallest one obviously applies. If the trigger source is a current source both breaks are roughly equal in magnitude but opposite in sign (Eq. 4-16, 4-17).

$$E_{1B} = - \frac{(R_L + \alpha R_S)}{(1-\alpha)} \left[ \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \right] \quad 4.16$$

$$E_{1B} = \frac{R_L + \alpha R_S}{1-\alpha} \left[ \frac{E_{TE}}{R_T} \right] \quad 4.17$$

From Eq. 4-8 the transistor of the disabled gate will leave the cutoff condition when

$$E_1 = + E_{TD} \quad 4.18$$

The disabled gate will remain linear for all negative input voltages. All break points for this gate have now been determined using ideal diodes in the transistor model. The gates transmission characteristics, with a current source enabled trigger, are

summarized in Fig. 4-5.

A non-linear and more realistic model for the bilateral transistor can be obtained by replacing the two diodes in the model used in Fig. 4-2 with non-linear diodes  $e_d = f(i_d)$ .<sup>8,9</sup> This diode function can be determined by direct measurement. The transistor curves for the grounded emitter configuration,  $V_c$  vs  $I_c$  with  $I_b$  as a parameter, are often given or can be easily measured. From our model, Fig. 4-6b, we should be able to predict these curves. By writing down all the equations associated with Fig. 4-6 and making a few appropriate substitutions we can arrive at the grounded emitter characteristics (Eq. 4-19). The saturation resistance which appears

$$V_c = f \{ I_B + (1-\alpha) I_c \} - f \{ \alpha I_B - (1-\alpha) I_c \} \quad 4.19$$

directly on the grounded emitter curves is defined to be

$$r_{SAT} \triangleq \left. \frac{\partial V_c}{\partial I_c} \right|_{I_c = 0} \quad 4.20$$

This is consistent with our previous example of a transistor in which  $f(i_d) = i_d r_f$  and  $r_{SAT} = 2(1-\alpha)r_f$ .

It is rather difficult to use this model which we have established in the general series gate of Fig. 4-4. However a few special but useful cases can be discussed. For example if  $i_{TE}$  is fixed, a load line

$$E_1 = -R_s I_c - V_c - (i_{TE} + I_c) R_L \quad 4.21$$

can be drawn and a plot of gate linearity easily obtained.

The diode function is very likely to be of the form

$$e_d = K_1 \ln \left\{ 1 + \frac{i_d}{I_{co}} \right\} \quad 4.22$$

in which case we can compute the grounded emitter characteristics to be

$$V_c = K_1 \ln \left\{ \frac{I_{co} + I_B + (1-\alpha)I_c}{I_{co} + \alpha I_B - (1-\alpha)I_c} \right\} \quad 4.23$$

The saturation resistance is then

$$r_{SAT} = \left. \frac{\partial V_c}{\partial I_c} \right|_{I_c = 0} = \frac{2K_1(1-\alpha)}{I_B} \quad 4.24$$

Eq. 4.24 includes the approximation that  $I_B \approx \alpha I_B$  and  $I_B \gg I_c$ . Close to the origin of the  $V_c$  vs  $I_c$  plot Eq. 4-23 can be approximated as Eq. 4-25.

$$V_c = \frac{2(1-\alpha)K_1}{I_B} I_c \quad 4.25$$

Small but important errors in the enabled transmission of this gate can be predicted analytically using the non-linear transistor model. In this method certain assumptions are made whose validity must be checked after the final results have been obtained. The assumptions which we use amount to using a different transistor model to make different calculations. The trigger current, for example, is calculated using the ideal diode model. In the pulsed analog case, where  $R_s$  is the output impedance of an operational amplifier and  $R_L$  is the input impedance of an operational amplifier, Eq. 4-25 will determine  $i_{TE}$ . Two voltages are neglected because of their small value.

$$i_{TE} = \frac{E_i + E_{TE}}{R_T} \quad 4.25$$

The trigger current will flow mainly through the source resistance,  $R_s$ . The resulting voltage drop, at its maximum value, is assumed to be small (less than  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  volts). A voltage drop will



develop across the collector of the transistor due to the unbalance in  $i_{e1}$  and  $i_{e2}$ . This voltage can be computed from the grounded emitter characteristics (Eq. 4-27.) This

$$V_c = + K_1 \ln \left\{ \frac{1}{\alpha} \right\} \quad 4.27$$

voltage is also assumed to be negligibly small.

The next gate error is caused by the fact that  $r_{SAT}$  varies with  $I_b$ . The gain of the gate is now

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_i} \right|_E = \frac{R_L}{R_L + r_{SAT}} \quad 4.28$$

where  $R_s$  has been neglected because it is small and it is constant. Combining Eq. 4-24, 4-26 and 4-28 we can arrive at Eq. 4-29. This equation

$$\left. \frac{E_o}{E_i} \right|_E = \frac{R_L}{R_L + \frac{2(1-\alpha)K R_T}{E_i + E_{TE}}} \quad 4.29$$

is then the non-linear gain of the series sample gate, where the non-linearities are caused by the fact that  $r_{SAT}$  varies with  $I_b$ .  $E_o - K E_i$  is the error caused by this gate, where  $K$  is selected to be the value of  $\left. \frac{E_o}{E_i} \right|_E$  when  $E_i = 0$ . By performing this subtraction a direct expression for gate error is obtained (Eq. 4-30). If  $K$  is assumed to be unity the gate error is given by Eq. 4-31. The more gross non-linearities, those caused by the

$$E_o - K E_i = \frac{2(1-\alpha)K_1 R_T E_i^2}{R_L E_{TE} (E_i + E_{TE})} \quad 4.30$$

$$E_o - E_i = \frac{2(1-\alpha)K_1 R_T E_i}{R_L (E_i + E_{TE})} \quad 4.31$$

curvature of the  $V_c$  vs  $I_c$  characteristics, have not yet come to play an important role in the gates operation. To show that this

is true, the errors predicted by Eq. 4-30 or 4-31 should be compared with the maximum deviation between Eq. 4-23 and 4-25.

#### 4.3 THE SHUNT TRANSISTOR GATE

If the study of transistor gates were to parallel the study of diode gates the next gate which we would consider would be the balanced trigger gate of Fig. 4-8. Following this we would study the floating trigger gate. However we shall take a little different point of view and proceed with the study of a shunt transistor gate. The gate which we shall discuss is illustrated in Fig. 4-9. This gate is disabled with a positive trigger which saturates the transistor, and is enabled with a negative trigger which cuts off the transistor. A basic configuration similar to Fig. 4-1 but which has the PNP transistor replaced by a NPN is shown in Fig 4-10. A model for the NPN transistor which corresponds to the model of the PNP of Fig. 4-2 can be inserted in this figure. Eq. 4-1 to Eq. 4-8 will then apply exactly to this configuration. By making the proper identifications the enabled and disabled outputs of the gate can be established. (Eq. 4-32, 4-33). With the usual approximations that

$$E_{OE} = E_1 + \frac{\alpha_1 I_{co2} - I_{co1}}{1 - \alpha_1 \alpha_2} (R_s + R_G) \quad 4.32$$

$$E_{OD} = E_1 - \frac{(R_{22} - R_{12}) E_{TD} + R_{22} E_1}{R_{11} R_{22} - R_{12} R_{21}} (R_s + R_G) \quad 4.33$$

the transistor is perfectly symmetrical and the assumption that  $R_T$  is very large, Eq. 4-32 and 4-33 are modified to give Eq. 4-34 and 4-35.

$$E_{OE} = E_1 - \frac{I_{co}}{1 - \alpha} (R_s + R_G) \quad 4.34$$

$$E_{OD} = \frac{E_1 \{ 2(1-\alpha) r_f \}}{R_S + R_G + 2(1-\alpha) r_f} - \frac{(1-\alpha) r_f (R_S + R_G)}{R_S + R_G + 2(1-\alpha) r_f} \left[ \frac{E_{TD}}{R_T} \right] \quad 4.35$$

The linear range can similarly be established. The enabled range will end when the diodes of the transistor are no longer back biased. This break will occur when

$$E_1 = - E_{TE} \quad 4.36$$

No break will occur for negative  $E_1$ . The diodes of the disabled gate must remain conducting. The positive and negative break point in the disabled linear range will occur as mentioned in Eq. 4-37 and 4-38. This shunt gate's characteristics are summarized in Fig. 4-11.

$$E_{1B} = \frac{\alpha(R_S + R_G)}{1-\alpha} \frac{E_{TD}}{R_T} \quad 4.37$$

$$E_{1B} = - \frac{(R_S + R_G)}{1-\alpha} \frac{E_{TD}}{R_T} \quad 4.38$$

The trigger current for the shunt gate will remain constant over the entire range of operation due to the fact that one collector of the transistor is grounded. If the non-linear transistor which was used for the series gate is used in the shunt gate, the enabled characteristics are unaltered. The grounded emitter characteristics will apply directly in computing the gates disabled output voltage.

One of the main disadvantages of the shunt gate is the fact that in its design a compromise has to be made in adjusting the value of  $R_G$ . If  $R_G$  is made small the disabled element must remain linear over a large current range. If  $R_G$  is made large the output resistance of the enabled gate becomes correspondingly large. The

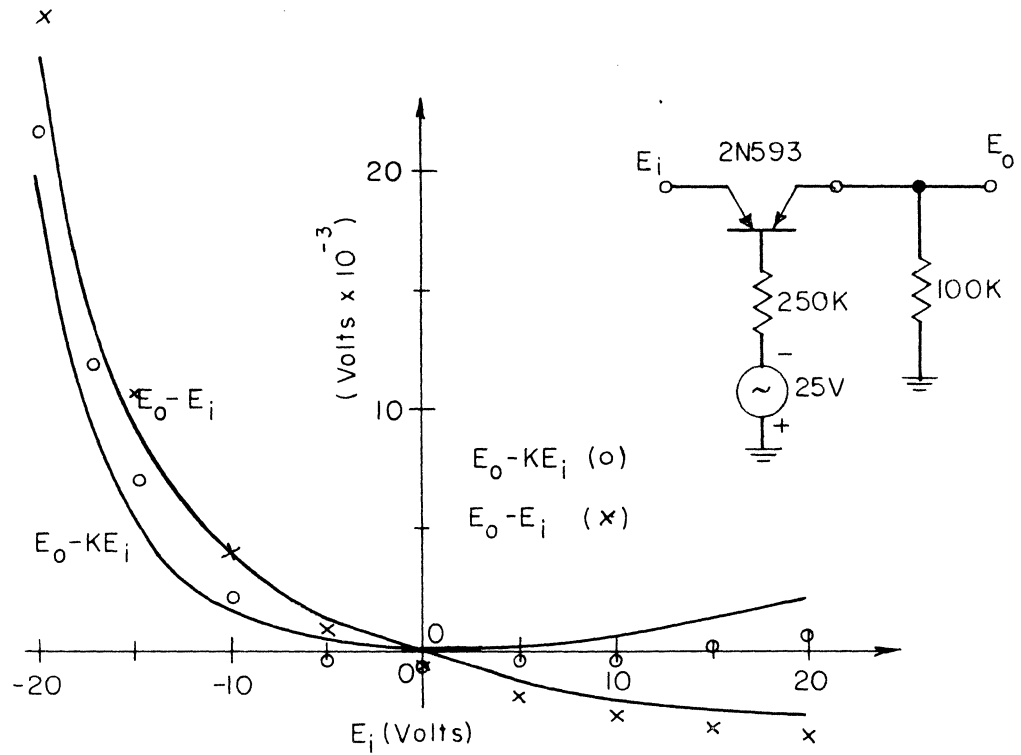


Fig. 4-7 Transistor Gate Linearity

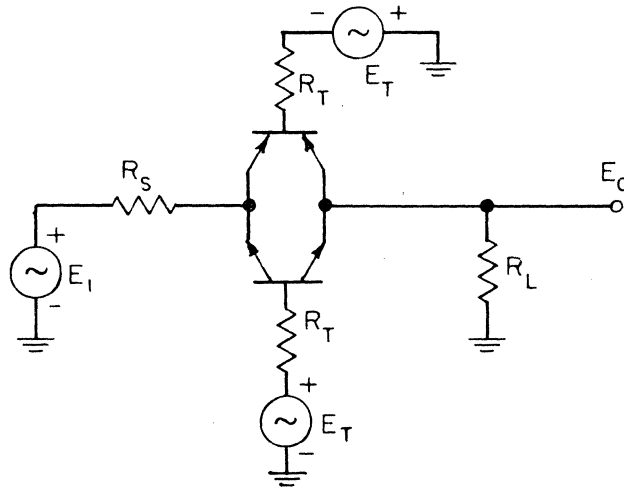


Fig. 4-8 Balanced Trigger Transistor Series Gate

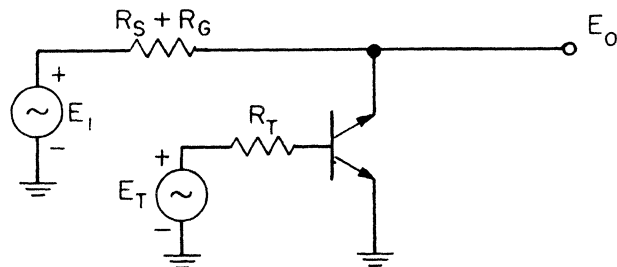


Fig. 4-9 Shunt Transistor Sample Gate

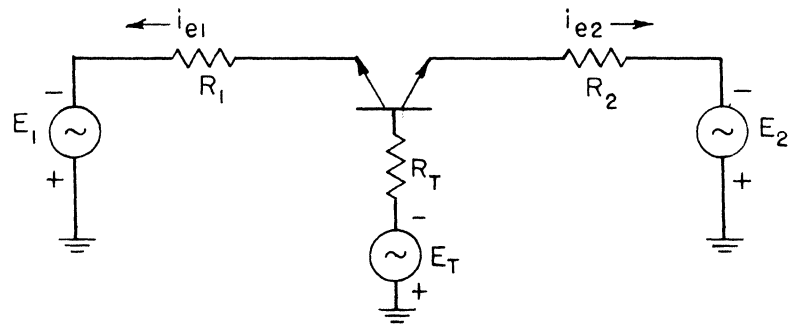


Fig. 4-10 General Configuration with NPN Transistor

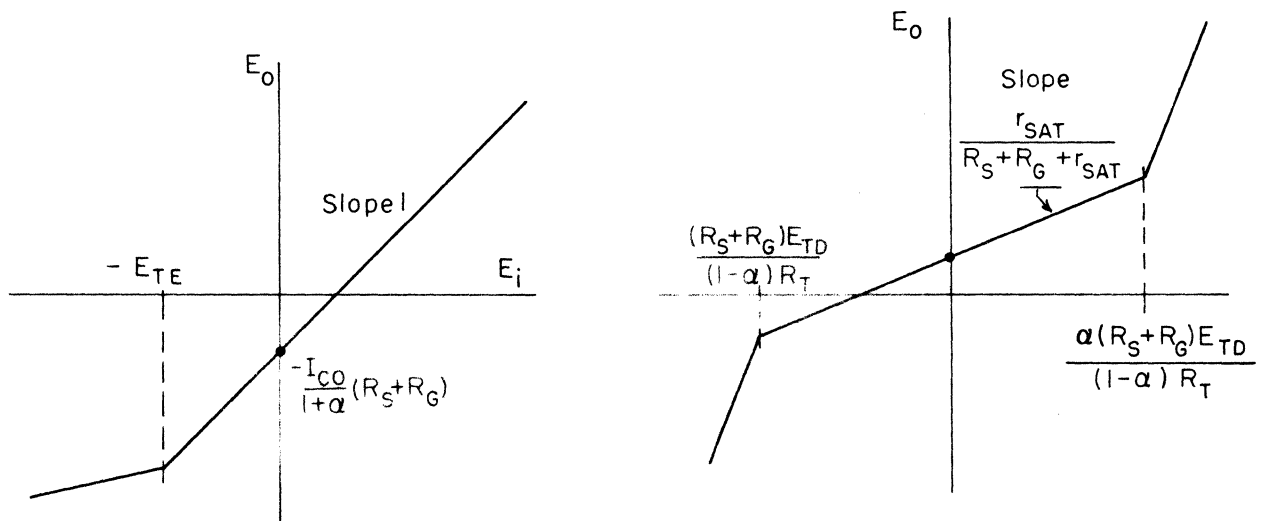


Fig. 4-11 Shunt Transistor Gate Characteristics

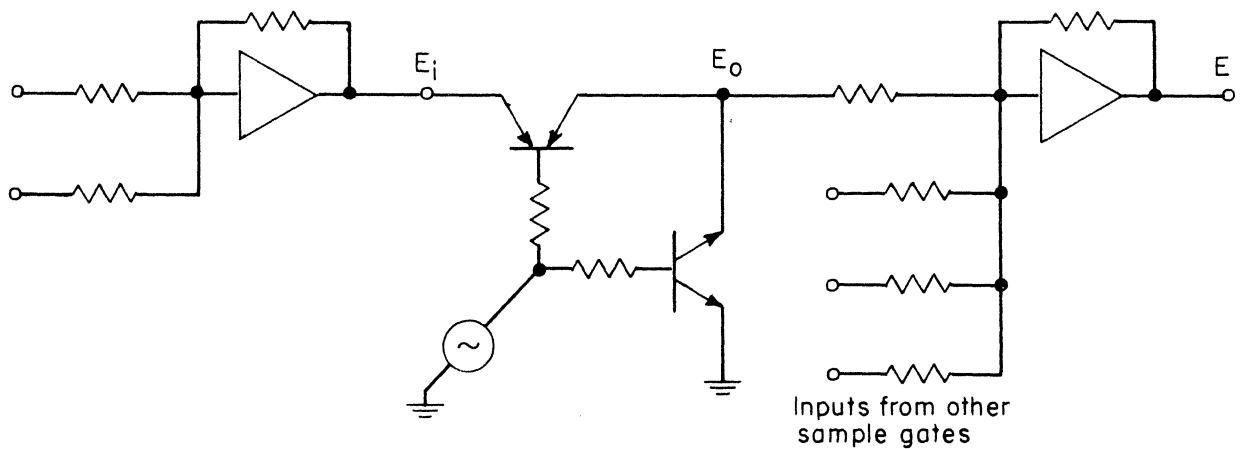


Fig. 4-12 The Series-Shunt Gate and its Reverse Environment

series-shunt gate eliminates this difficulty. The series-shunt gate also eliminates the major disadvantage of the series gate, which is capacity read through.

#### 4.4 THE SERIES-SHUNT TRANSISTOR SAMPLE GATE

In this section we will become very practical and complete the design of a series-shunt gate which can be used in the pulsed analog computer. For a series gating element we will use the PNP symmetrical transistor. For a shunt element we will use the NPN symmetrical transistor. The gate and its environment are illustrated in Fig. 4-12.  $R_g$ , the output resistance of the first operational amplifier is assumed to be less than 1 ohm. The load resistance is assumed to be  $100K\Omega$ . Now that we have decided upon a gate configuration and the gates input and output conditions have been specified, little remains to be designed. Once the transistors have been selected from the limited number which are immediately available, only the two trigger source resistors and the trigger voltage remain to be specified. Our previous experience with transistor gates will prove valuable in designing this gate.

The first model which we shall use for the gating element is the transistor model with the ideal diodes. In the enabled state, with  $E_T$  positive, the equations which were developed separately for the series gate and shunt gate can be used. The cut off transistor T2 can be completely ignored, provided both diodes are always back biased. The cutoff transistor T2 can be continued to be ignored as more elaborate models for the saturated transistor are adopted. All previous analysis for the series enabled gate can be used. Finally a realistic leakage current model for the cut

off transistor can be inserted to show that it does not affect the gate output.

The series enabled gate which was given as an example previously applies exactly to our gate. Experimental curves for the diodes in the transistor model are given in Fig 4-13 and 4-14. The diode function  $e_d = f(i_d)$  can be approximated analytically as

$$i_d = 3 \times 10^{-6} e^{\left\{ \frac{e_d}{3.75 \times 10^{-2}} \right\}} \quad 3.39$$

With the value of  $e_d$  measured to be .967 our model for the transistor is complete.

The saturation resistance of the transistor can now be calculated. Fig. 4-15

$$r_{SAT} = \frac{2.5 \times 10^{-3}}{I_b} \quad 4.40$$

compares measured and calculated values of  $r_{SAT}$ . The maximum value of  $r_{SAT}$  in our gate will be  $125 \Omega$ . The maximum value of leakage current from the cut off transistor is  $6 \times 10^{-6}$  amps. The maximum voltage error which this could produce is less than  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  volts and can therefore be neglected. Fig. 4-7 is a theoretical and measured plot of this gate errors. This plot was actually made with and without the series element to show that the disabled shunt element does not effect gate output.

In the disable gate, with  $E_T$  negative, the non-linearities due to curvature of the  $V_c$  vs  $I_c$  characteristics and non-linearities due to saturation resistance varying with base current are not important and we must look to the small errors due to leakage current and base current. Fig. 4-16 is an illustration of the

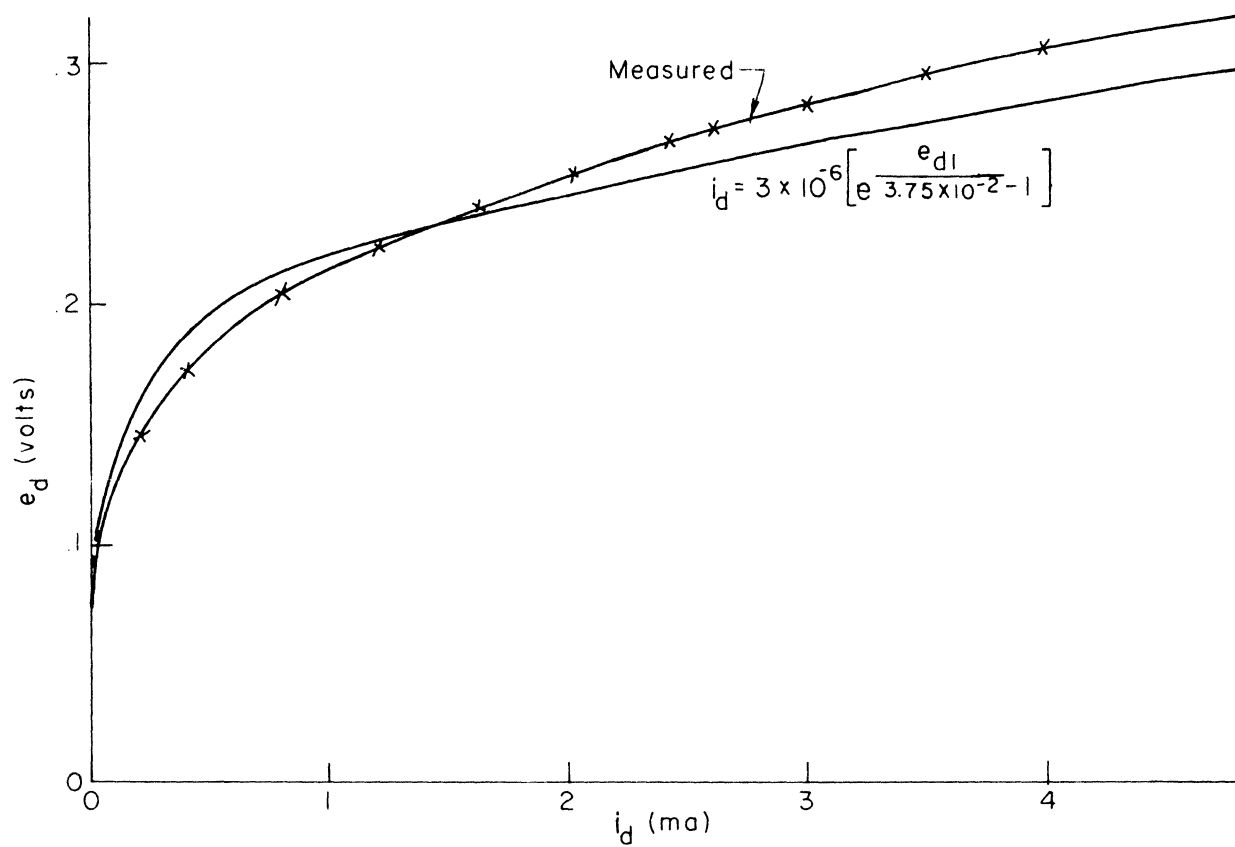


Fig. 4-13 Transistor Diode Forward Characteristics

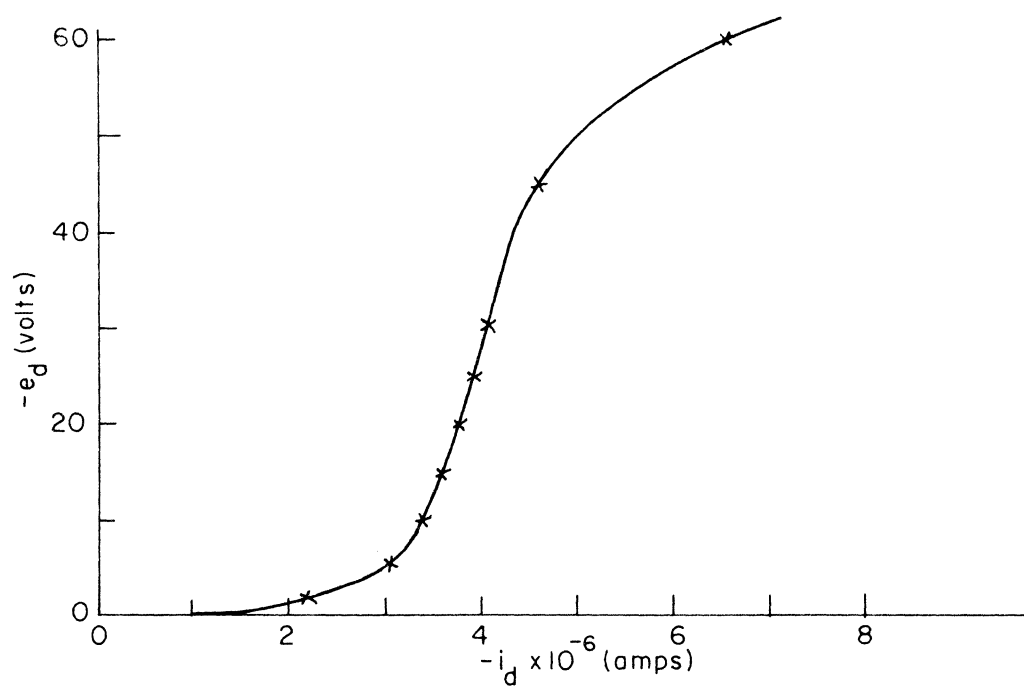


Fig. 4-14 Transistor Diode Reverse Characteristics



circuit which we are now considering. The voltage  $E_o$  will be

$$E_{OD} = V_c - r_{SAT} I_c \quad 4.41$$

$V_c$  can be computed from the grounded emitter characteristics to be approximately  $K_1 \ln(1/\alpha)$ . An exaggerated value of  $E_{OD}$  would be less than  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  volts. While not important for a single gate this voltage does place become important when several of these gates form the inputs to a summer. It does place one type of limit on the number of inputs which can be applied to one summer. A value of  $R_{T2}$  of  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  would result in a saturation resistance of  $100 \Omega$ . Smaller values of  $R_{T1}$  and  $R_{T2}$  would further improve linearity but would increase switching speed. The complete gate, including a monostable multivibrator<sup>10</sup> which was designed for use with this gate, are shown in Fig. 4-18. Simple speed up techniques have been used to assure switching in less than  $1 \mu$  second.

One advantage of this gate is its simple trigger source. However, by using a separate trigger source for each element of the gate a more linear and a faster switching gate can be built. Eq. 4-30 shows that as the trigger source approaches a current source, the non-linearities due to  $r_{SAT}$  varying with base current becomes smaller. This could not be done with a single trigger source since the maximum back voltage of the shunt transistor is soon exceeded. Also if trigger current does not vary with input voltage, switching transients will not vary with input voltage. While it is very impractical to build a good current source trigger with transistors, an enabled trigger voltage of about 40 volts is very possible.

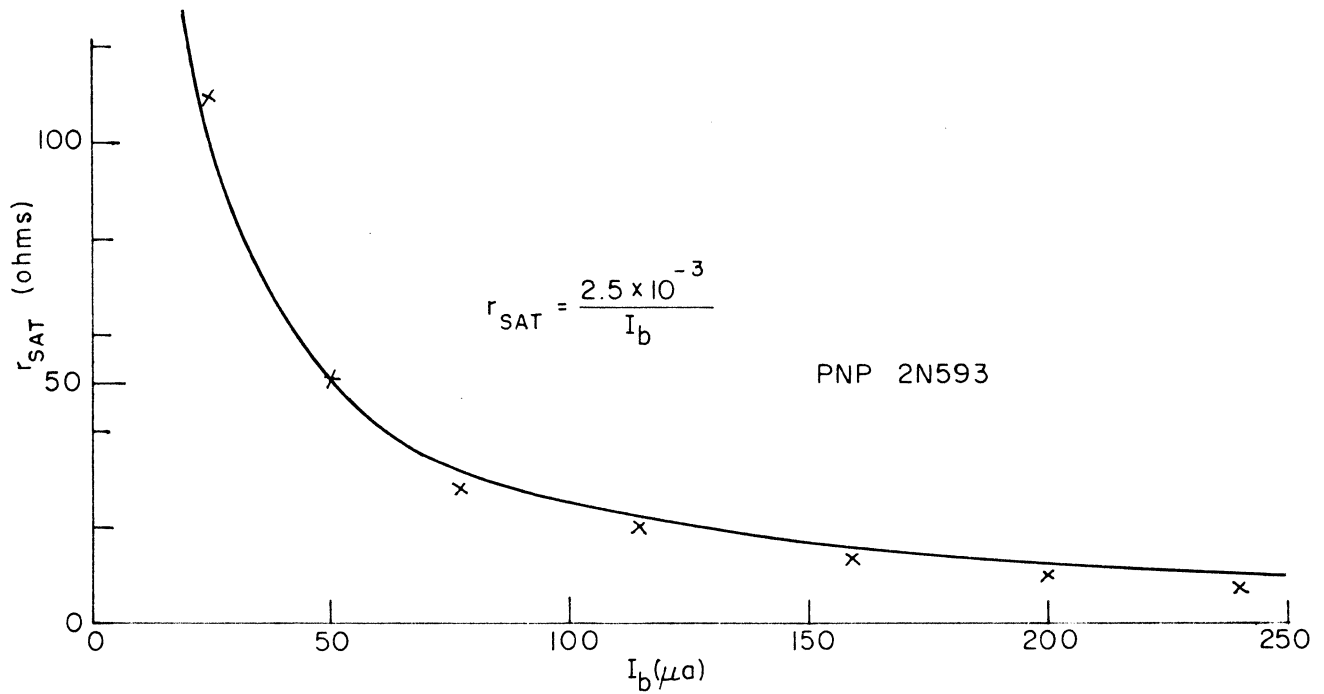


Fig. 4-15 Saturation Resistance VS Base Current

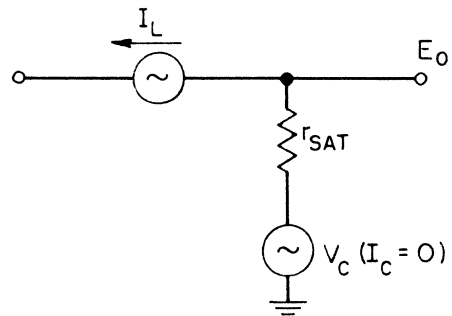


Fig. 4-16 The Disabled Series Shunt Gate

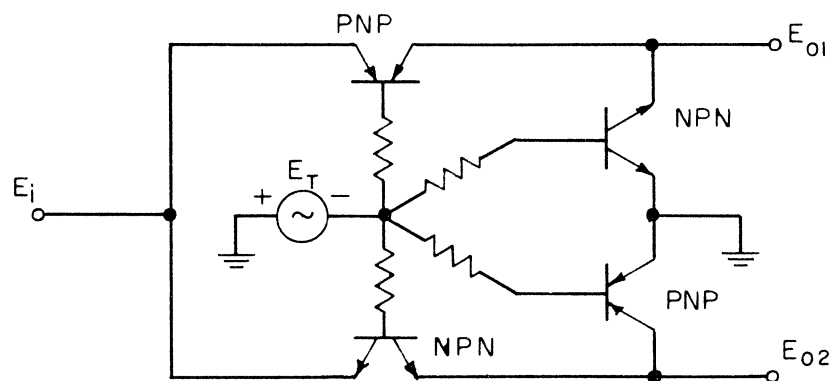


Fig. 4-17 The Monostable Multivibrator and Sample Gate

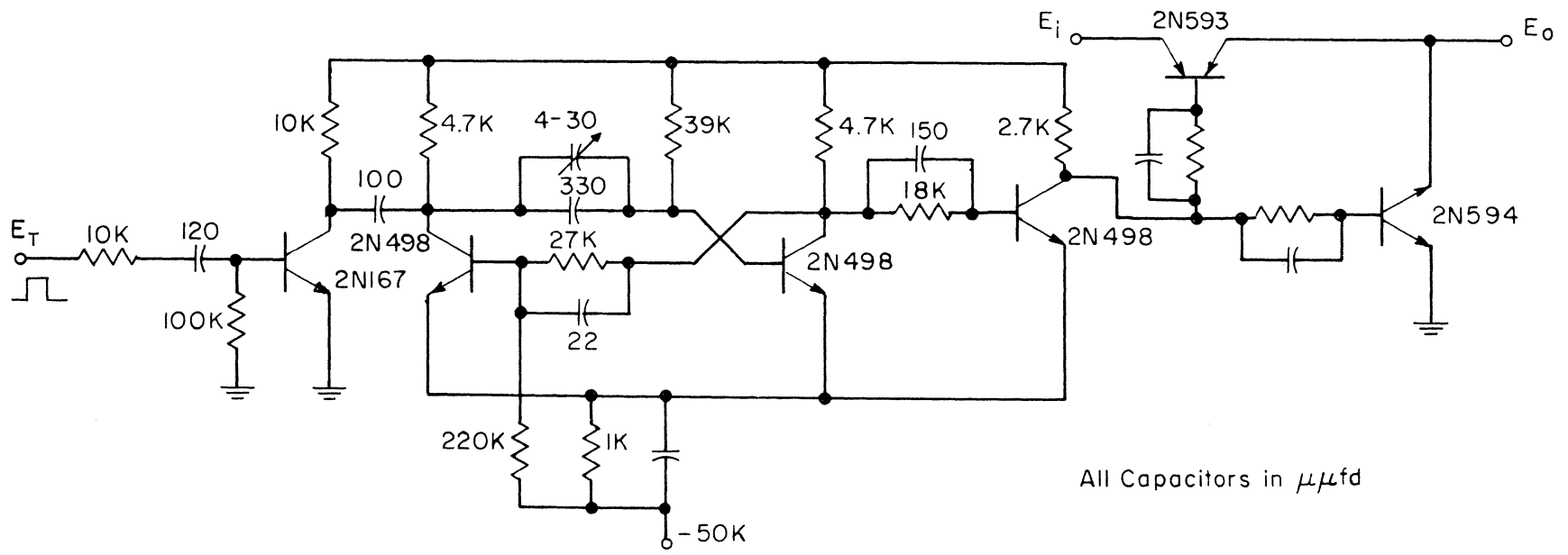


Fig. 4-18 Push-Pull Transistor Gate

Two more transistors can be easily added to the series-shunt gate which we have now built to construct a push-pull sample gate. (Fig. 4-17). One trigger source is still required to build this gate. This gate can now be included in a closed loop with an operational amplifier. While improvements in gate linearity can be achieved by this method a test set up found that amplifier noise and drift could not be separated from gate non-linearity. Switching transients also become more difficult to control due to the fact that amplifier response time was comparable to gate switching speed.

CHAPTER V  
THE STORAGE GATE

5.1 BASIC DESIGN

The basic considerations which must be taken into account in the design of a storage gate are; set time, hold time, linear range of gating element, allowable error, and switching transients. A simplified schematic for a storage gate is shown in Fig. 5-1.  $R_s$  is the internal resistance of the source.  $Z_g$  is the gate impedance which as before takes on two values;  $Z_{gE}$ , the impedance of the enabled element, and  $Z_{gD}$ , the impedance of the disabled element. The actual storage is accomplished by holding charge on a capacitor  $C$  after the gate is disabled.  $R_o$  is the input impedance of the device which measures  $E_o$ . The storage gate is similar to the series sample gate in that any gating element used in the series sample gate can be used as a gating element of the storage gate.

The set time of a storage gate is defined as the maximum time required for the output of the enabled gate to change from its previous value to its new value. The set time for the linear and resistive circuit of Fig. 5-1 can be computed by assuming that at the beginning of the enabled period  $E_1$  is a maximum voltage  $+V_{max}$  and that  $E_o$  is a minimum voltage  $-V_{max}$ . The capacitor will charge exponentially toward  $V_{max}$  (Eq. 5-1). The large resistor

$$E_o(t) = +V_{max} - 2V_{max} e^{\frac{-t}{(R_s + Z_{gE})C}} \quad 5.1$$

$R_o$  is neglected in this calculation. As  $E_o$  will never exactly reach  $+V_{max}$  an allowable enabled error must be specified in order to determine set time.

After the gate has become disabled the capacitor will retain the desired voltage within an allowable discharge error for a finite time  $\tau_d$ . The minimum value of  $\tau_d$  is called the hold time. If  $Z_{gD}$  and  $R_o$  are pure resistive, the maximum discharge current will occur when  $E_1 = -V_{\max}$  and  $E_o = +V_{\max}$ . The value of this current is given in Eq. 5-2. The voltage change during the period

$$i_d = \frac{2V_{\max}}{Z_{gD}} + \frac{V_{\max}}{R_o} \quad 5.2$$

of interest will be so small that a constant discharge current will be assumed. The voltage change at the end of the holding period will then be

$$E_o = \frac{i_d}{C} \tau_d \quad 5.3$$

The value of  $R_o$  is determined by an independent design and is neglected in a first consideration of a gates abilities. Usually the value of  $i_d$  is determined by the components used in the gate and little remains to be designed. Therefore Eq. 5-3 can be used to determine a minimum value of  $C$ .

The same three triggering methods as have been used previously can be used in the storage gate. Similarly the trigger voltage can effect the gates output. The current from the grounded trigger must flow back to ground through  $R_s$  and  $C$ . This will cause at least a constant bias error. The balanced trigger offers the possibility of eliminating this error. In both of these cases, if the trigger source is not a current source, a gate gain of less than unity will result. The floating trigger can circulate trigger current without necessarily introducing an error and also assures unity gain. For this reason, and the fact that it is easier to

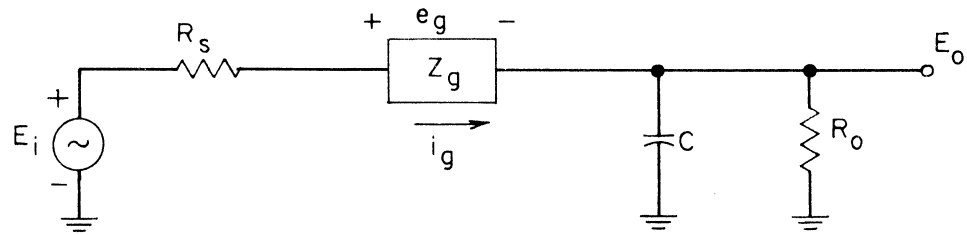


Fig. 5-1 A Simplified Storage Gate

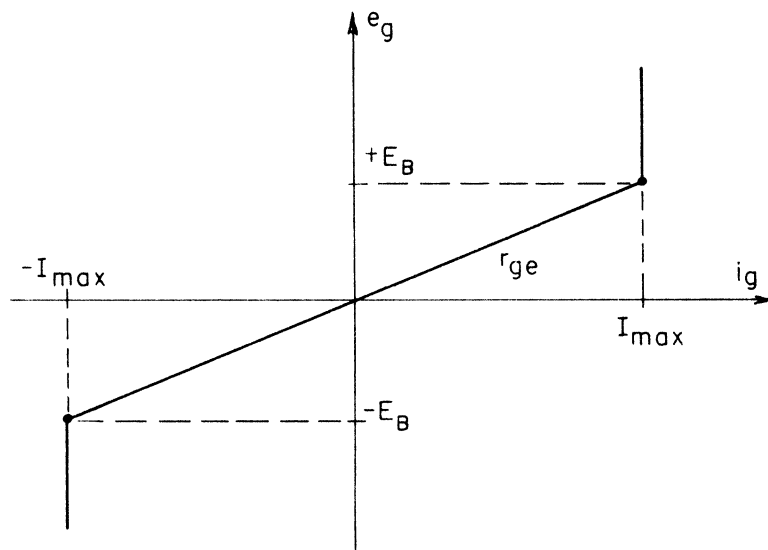


Fig. 5-2 An Extreme Case of Current Limiting in the Gating Element

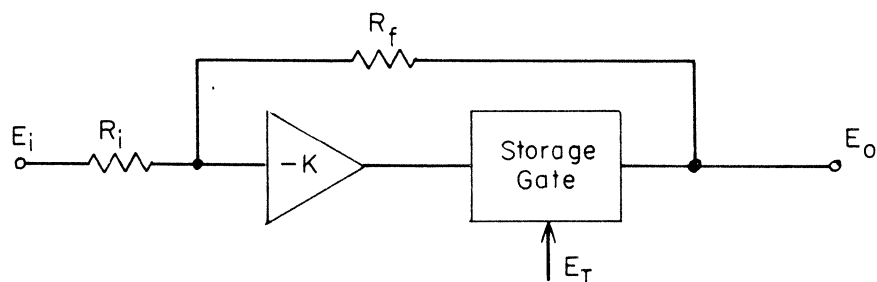


Fig. 5-3 Closed Loop Storage Gate

analyze, the floating trigger will be used in the remainder of this general design procedure.

In Fig. 5-1 the two terminal gating element can be thought of as including the trigger voltage and trigger resistor as well as including the gating elements. As we are using a floating trigger, there need be no other terminals to this box. The gates impedance can now be more accurately described by a plot of  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$ . In the enabled  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot we will look for limitations on the current conducting ability of the series element, which will effect set time. In the disabled  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot we will look for increases in the discharge current which will effect hold time.

Even in a simplified design procedure, the effect of current limiting in the enabled gating element cannot be neglected. This is because the value of C as chosen by Eq. 5-2 is often rather large. An extreme case of current limiting is illustrated in Fig. 5-2. The set time of this gate is effected by this non-linearity. If at the start of the enabled period the capacitor voltage is  $-V_{max}$  and the input voltage has been set to  $+V_{max}$ , the capacitor will charge linearly.

$$E_o(t) = -V_{max} + \frac{I_{max}}{C} t \quad 5.4$$

This saturation will last until the break point of the  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot is reached. This will occur when

$$\frac{E_o(t) - V_{max}}{R_s + Z_{ge}} = I_{max} \quad 5.5$$

Following this the remainder of the charge will be completed exponentially with a time constant  $(r_{ge} + R_s)C$ .

Non-linearities in the series element of a floating trigger



storage gate do not contribute to the non-linearities of the gate output. This can be seen by considering Fig. 5-1 and the enabled  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot. At the end of the set period  $i_g$  has been reduced to essentially zero. While  $e_g$  may not be zero when  $i_g = 0$ , it will, at the end of each charging period, take on the same value. Therefore no non-linearity is introduced in the gates output due to non-linearities in  $Z_{ge}$ . An exception occurs in the case in which  $e_g$  is not single valued for  $i_g = 0$ .

Errors introduced upon switching from the enabled to the disabled state are very important in the storage gate. Special care must be taken to reduce these errors or to compensate for them.

The storage gates operation is even more dependent upon the external circuitry (input source, trigger source, and output buffer) than is the sample gate. Non-linearities in the input source and trigger source are reflected into the gates output behavior, not necessarily as a non-linear output voltage but as a limitation on the charging current available to the capacitor. The  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot, which already includes the effect of trigger source voltage and resistance, can also include the effect on non-linearities in this source. A plot of the input capabilities is also appropriate and important. Non-linearities in  $R_g$  do not cause non-linearities in  $E_0$  since the current in  $R_g$  is always zero at the end of the set time. The output buffer stage also requires special design in that discharge current from the capacitor during the disabled period is very important. This completes the fundamentals of storage gate design. Below is a list which summarizes the important steps which are taken in the design of a storage gate.

- 1)) Get rough picture of gates operation by inspection
- 2) Choose model for gating element for each calculation
- 3) Determine  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot
- 4) Choose value of C from hold time considerations
- 5) Calculate set time.
- 6) Estimate gate switching properties
- 7) Consider of design in more detail input source, output load and trigger source.

## 5.2 THE STORAGE GATE AND FEEDBACK

In the pulsed analog system the input to a storage gate is a feedback type amplifier. Two methods of using this amplifier have been proposed. Fig. 5-3 is a closed loop method, where, by including the gate in the loop, it is hoped that we can improve linearity and speed.<sup>11</sup> There are several reasons why this method has not proved to be practical. First the storage gate is already linear and needs no improvement of linearity. The system is rather difficult to stabilize due to the additional time constant which has been introduced. During much of the time the amplifier operates open loop and special design problems arise. Delays in the output buffer may also effect stability. Switching transients become more difficult to control and finally in a pulsed analog system this arrangement would require a separate input unit for each gate. The open loop system of Fig. 5-4 does not solve all the problems mentions above, but it is generally easier to use. First let us consider the additional stability problems introduced by the capacitive load. Fig. 1-16 illustrates the situation with which we are now concerned.  $R_D$  is the output resistance of the open

loop operational amplifier.  $R_g$  is the conducting resistance of the gate near  $i_g = 0$ .  $K$  includes all the time constants of the operational amplifier. Fig. 1-17 is a block diagram for Fig. 1-16. Fig. 1-17 shows that the addition of  $R_g$  and  $C$  amounts to a lag term in the closed loop amplifier. The problem is to correctly locate this lag filter and at the same time maintain proper set time and hold time. The factor  $K$  may also have to be modified. The smaller the value of  $R_g$  the easier will we be able to stabilize the system. In fact a little negative feedback could be used in the open loop amplifier final output stages to assure low open loop output impedance.

There also exists the possibility that low frequency oscillations can be introduced due to the non-linearities of the system. The current capabilities of the output driver are admittedly limited. If the output current  $i_o$  is symmetrically limited to  $\pm I_m$ , the block diagram of Fig. 5-5. can be drawn. Fig. 5-6 rearranges this block diagram and assumes that  $k \gg 1$  and that the RC time constants are very small. These approximations only apply at low frequencies. The non-linearity of the system is symmetrical and therefore introduces no additional phase shift. It's describing function lies along the  $-180^\circ$  line and above the  $0 \text{ dB}$  line on the Nichols chart. Any phase shift in  $K$  greater than  $90^\circ$  will cause the open loop transfer function to cross this describing function and the system will oscillate. Therefore low frequency lag compensation cannot be used in this system. The effect of any low frequency oscillation on the output of a storage gate with a  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  second enabled period would be difficult to predict. To avoid the problem of

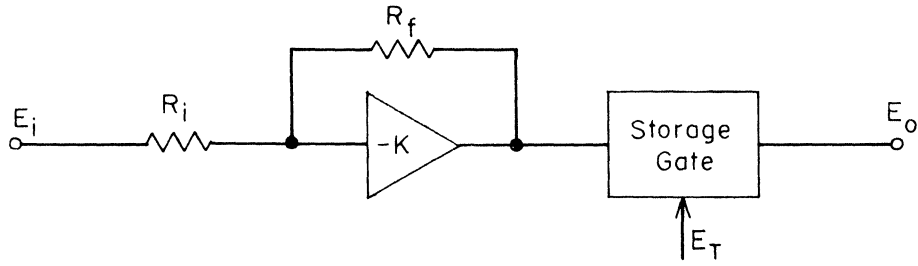


Fig. 5-4 Open Loop Storage Gate

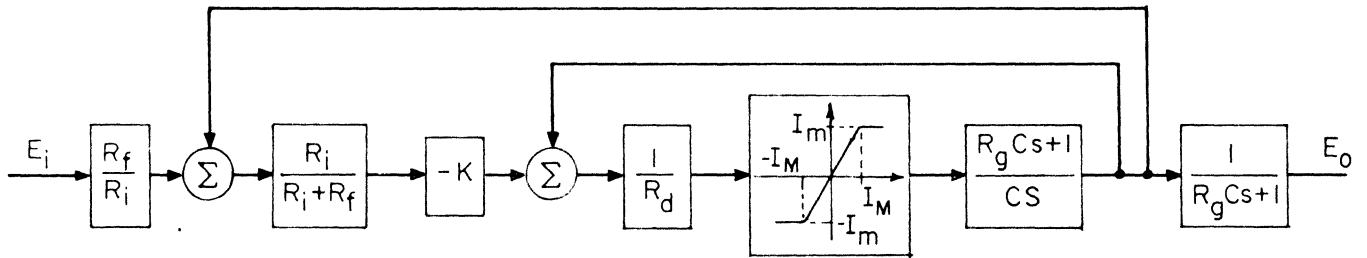


Fig. 5-5 Block Diagram of Feedback Amplifier with Storage Gate Load and Non-Linear Current Driver

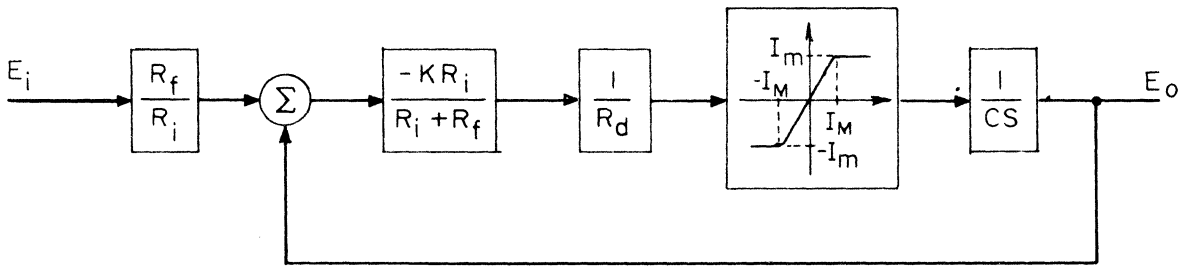


Fig. 5-6 Block Diagram Used to Explain Possibility of Low Frequency Oscillations

predicting this effect we will eliminate the oscillations.

## CHAPTER VI

### SEVERAL STORAGE GATES

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we shall study several storage gates which were considered for possible pulsed analog use. These gates are very interesting and could be used as storage gates in many applications. However none of these gates are usable for pulsed analog purposes. The important properties of these gates will be summarized. The reasons why these gates can not be used in the pulsed analog system will be pointed out. All of the gates considered will be of the floating trigger type.

#### 6.2 THE BILATERAL TRANSISTOR STORAGE GATE

The bilateral transistor storage gate will make a good first example. This gate, which is illustrated with a positive trigger and disabled with a negative trigger, is illustrated in Fig. 6-1. The basic operating characteristics of this gate can be illustrated using a fairly simple model for the transistor. The model chosen for the NPN transistor is shown in Fig. 6-2. The diodes have a forward conducting resistance of  $r_f$  and a reverse resistance of  $r_b$ .  $r_b$  is assumed to be much greater than  $r_f$ . This model and a perfectly matched PNP transistor can be incorporated into the series gating element. It should be noted that if non-symmetrical transistors were used in this gate the same model configuration, but with a numerical unbalance, could be used. The resulting enabled  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot is illustrated in Fig. 6-3.

The enabled gate has many useful properties. The enabled resistance is made low and the linear range of the gate greatly extended by the active current generators of the transistor. After

the break point in the enabled characteristics the transistor becomes active. This fact keeps the conducting resistance of the gate low even after the break point. However these same active current generators also succeed in lowering the gates disabled resistance. As is the case with most gates which we attempt to use to meet our desired specifications it is this low back resistance or leakage current which is their most severe limitation. The diodes of the disabled gate are back biased at times by 40 volts or more. A transistor capable of this voltage range, with a back resistance high enough for pulsed analog uses is not available on the market at this time. Because of these limitations the transistor gate must be disqualified for pulsed analog applications.

### 6.3 THE FOUR-LAYER DIODE GATE

Included among the many novel semiconductor devices which have appeared in recent years is the Shockley four-layer diode. The d-c. characteristics of this device are illustrated in Fig. 6-4. The four-layer diode has two stable states. If the voltage exceeds  $V_B$  it goes into a low resistance state. It will remain in this low resistance state until the current drops below  $I_H$ , at which time it will return to a high resistance state. A gate which uses these diodes has been suggested by Nyder and Given. Fig. 6-5 illustrates this gate. A large positive trigger voltage will enable this gate by causing the diodes to conduct. A negative trigger voltage will attempt to reverse the current in the diodes and thereby return them to the high resistance state.

The enabled and disabled  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plots for the four layer diode gate are shown in Fig. 6-6. Note that the enabled characteristics contain a hysteresis effect. This characteristic of the

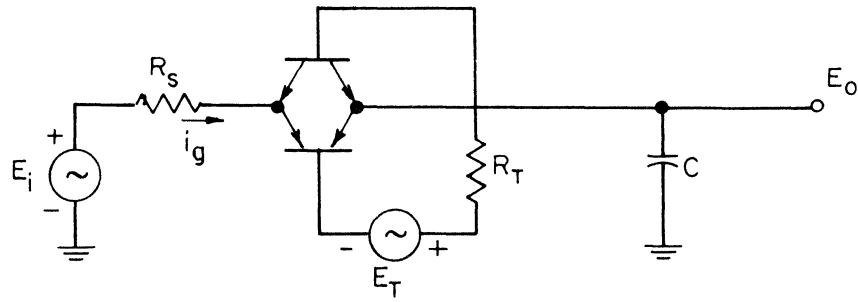


Fig. 6-1 The Bilateral Transistor Gate

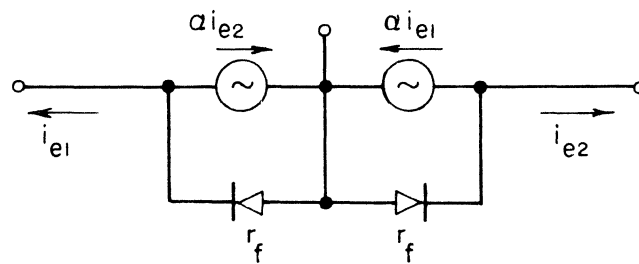


Fig. 6-2 NPN Bilateral Transistor Model

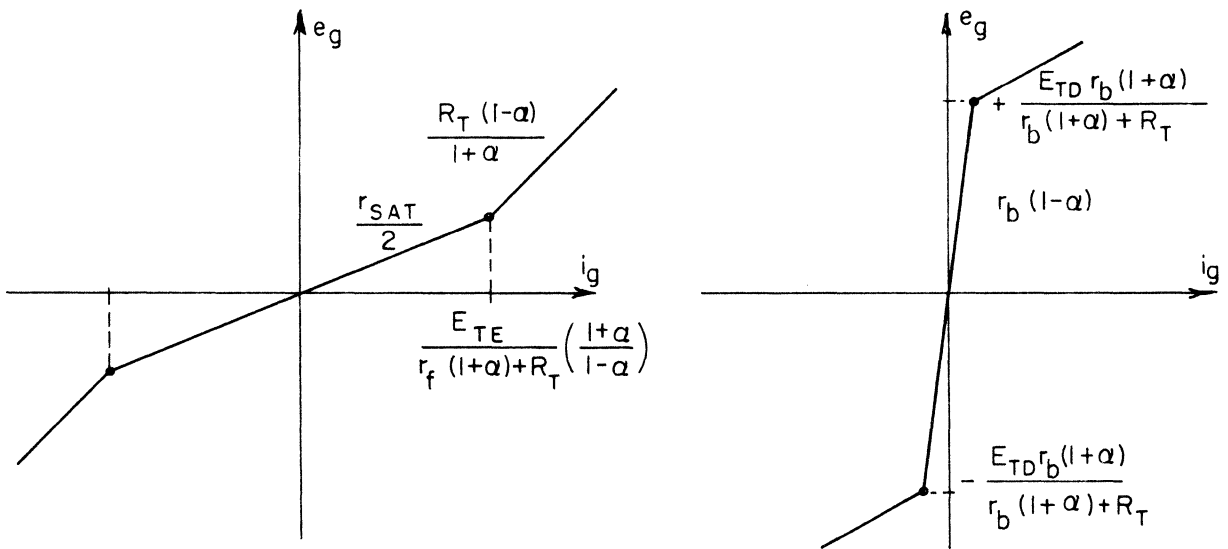


Fig. 6-3 Bilateral Transistor Series Element



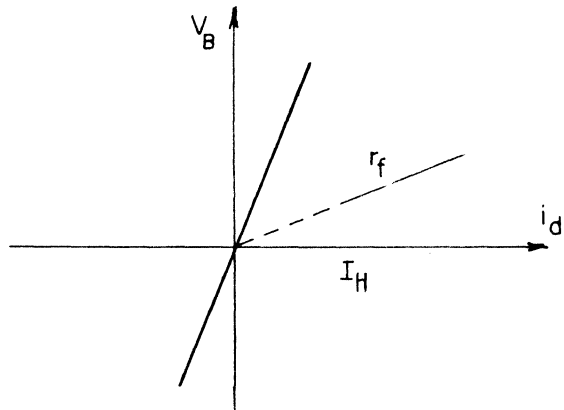


Fig. 6-4 4-Layer Diode d.c. Characteristics

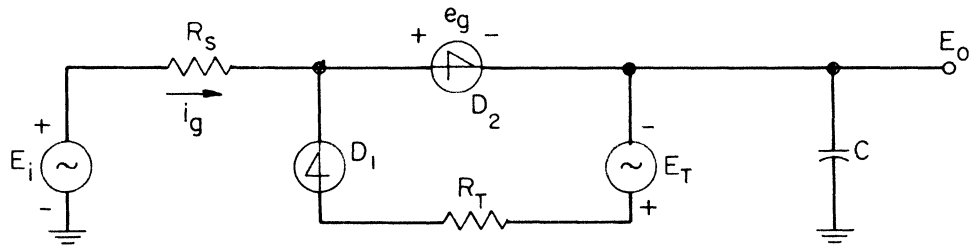


Fig. 6-5 A Four-Layer Diode Gate

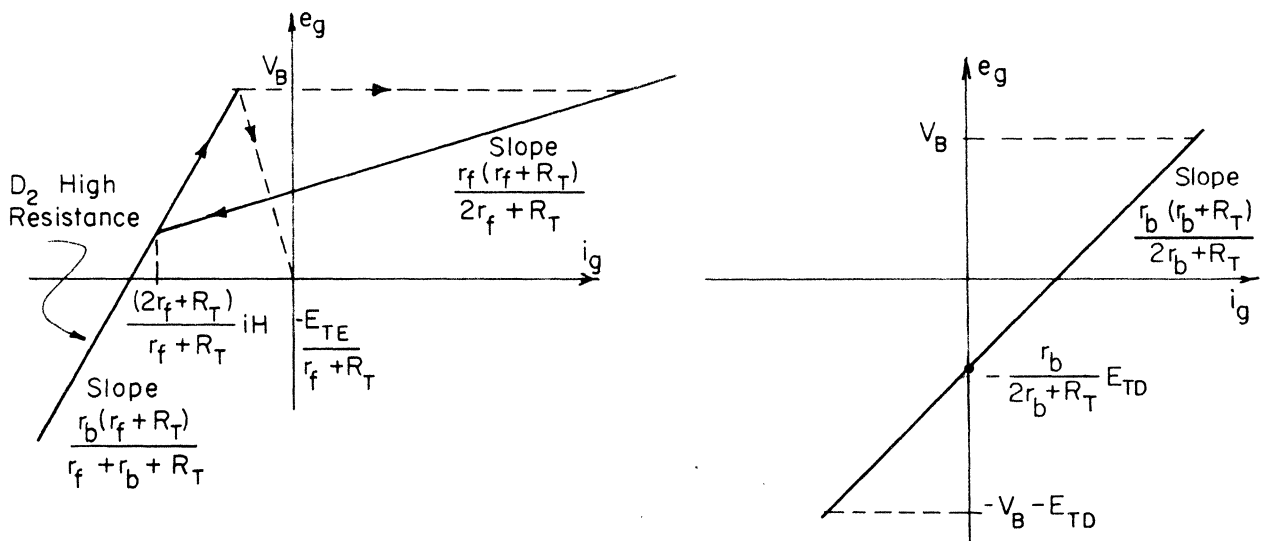


Fig. 6-6 Four-Layer Diode Gate's Characteristics

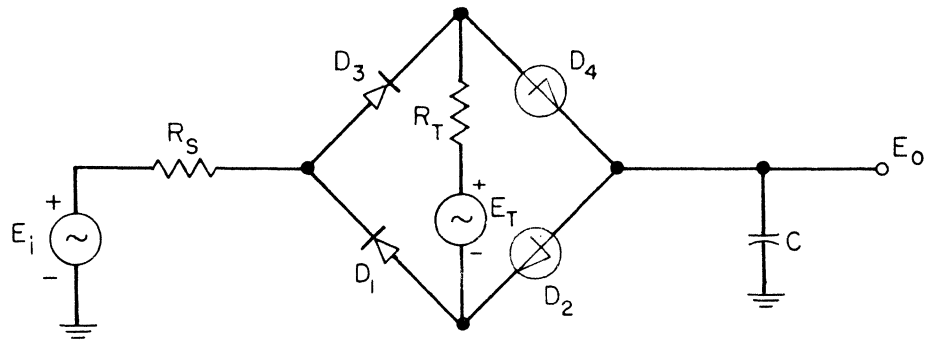


Fig. 6-7 The Connelly Gate

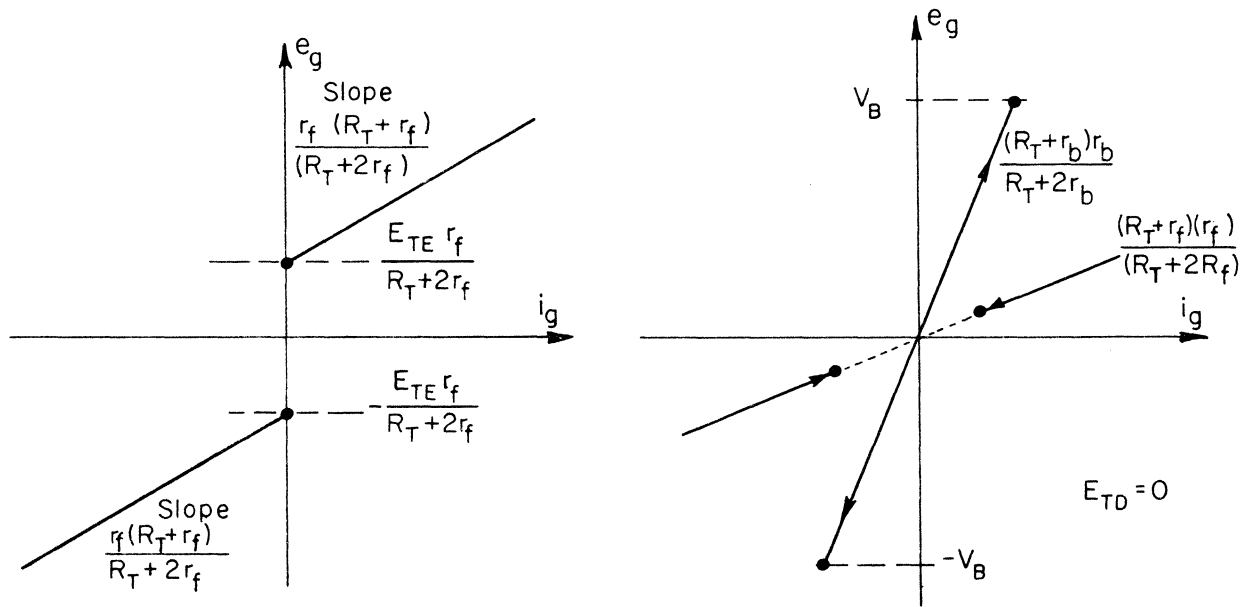


Fig. 6-8 The Connelly Gate's Characteristics

four layer diode gate is not only not very aesthetic it also results in rather awkward switching. If  $E_0$  is much greater than  $E_1$  at the beginning of the enabled period, or if the voltage across D2 does not become large enough to break down D2 at the beginning of the enabled period, the gate will operate on the high resistance portion of the characteristics. This will continue until the capacitor discharges sufficiently to allow D2 to break down. At this time the gate will become completely enabled. The disabled characteristics of this gate are much more straight forward. However if for some reason the disabled gate should break down a similar hysteresis effect will be exhibited. The literature on four-layer diodes claims that the resistance  $r_D$  can be as high as  $1000 \times 10^6$  ohms. Therefore, by selecting these diodes carefully, reasonable disabled characteristics for this gate can be obtained. It is, however, the peculiar enabled characteristics of this gate which make it unusable in our application.

#### 6-4 THE CONNELLY GATE

Another gate which makes use of the four layer diode is the Connelly gate. This gate is illustrated in Fig. 6-7. During the enabled state both four layer diodes are in the conducting state due to the positive trigger voltage. A difference in  $E_1$  and  $E_0$  will then cause a current to flow in one ordinary diode or D3. There is no need to make  $E_T$  negative during the disabled periods since this voltage will simply be shorted by the two diodes D1 and D3. When  $E_T$  is made equal to zero the four layer diodes become high resistances and the gate is disabled.

To determine the highlights of the enabled series element, ideal

diodes can replace the diodes D1 and D3. The four layer diode whose characteristics are illustrated in Fig. 6-4 will be assumed to have an infinite non-conducting resistance. Using these models the enabled  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot is shown in 6-8. Still using ideal diodes, but now taking into account the four layer diode back resistance  $r_b$ , the disabled characteristics can be plotted. A unique property of this series element is seen in the enabled  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot. Its use in a storage gate will result in a non-linear storage gate. This is due to the fact that  $e_g$  is not single valued when  $i_g = 0$ . In this dead zone both diodes D1 and D3 are back biased. The magnitude of this dead zone is greater than  $2I_H r_f$ . In practice this can vary from a few millivolts to as high as 2 volts. While diodes can be selected to maintain a small dead zone, it is very difficult to select these diodes for both small dead zone and large back resistance. The probability of finding the right combination is very small.

Each of these three gates investigated can be used as a storage gate. However with each of these gates extreme difficulty is found in attempting to meet the exact specifications which have been established for the pulsed analog storage gate.

## CHAPTER VII

### THE FOUR DIODE STORAGE GATE

#### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we will become very practical and complete the design of a storage gate which can be used in the pulsed analog computer. The right combination on gate leakage current and input charging current will be obtained through the use of a four diode bridge gate and a White cathode follower input driver. The four diode bridge gate will be shown to have the lowest leakage current of any gate discussed. This low leakage current permits us to use a capacitor which requires a reasonable charging current. The design of the input source assures a low output resistance from the driver. This low output resistance helps solve the stability problem. A trigger source and a special output stage have also been built for use with this gate.

#### 7.2 THE FOUR DIODE BRIDGE SERIES ELEMENT

The use of the four diode bridge as a series gating element has been discussed previously in Chapter II. The application of this element to the storage gate however requires a little special attention. Eqs. 3-21a and 3-21b can be used directly in determining the gates  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot. These equations are repeated here for convenience. A commonly used diode function is the linear

$$R_T - i_T R_T = f \left[ \frac{i_T + i_g}{2} \right] + f \left[ \frac{i_T - i_g}{2} \right] \quad 3.21a$$

$$e_g = f \left[ \frac{i_T + i_g}{2} \right] - f \left[ \frac{i_T - i_g}{2} \right] \quad 3.21b$$

resistive model, with a forward resistance  $r_f$  and a reverse resistance  $r_b$ . Using this  $f(i_d)$  in Eqs. 3-21 the  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plots of

Fig. 1-13 are obtained. These plots assume that  $r_b$ ,  $r_f$  and  $r_b$ ,  $R_T$ .

A more realistic model is needed for the diode before we can come to any conclusions about the four diode bridge gate. Either the exponential diode, which is a very good representation, or perhaps an actual plot of the diodes characteristics could be used.

Using an exponential diode and a current source

$$e_d = K_1 \ln \left[ 1 + \frac{i_d}{I_{co}} \right] \quad 7.1$$

enabled trigger, we can come to a few important conclusions about this gate. Since the current source is a trigger source Eq. 3-21b will give us the gates characteristics directly. Making the appropriate substitutions we arrive at an equation for  $e_g$  as a function of  $i_g$ .

$$e_g = K_1 \ln \left[ \frac{2 I_c + I_T + i_g}{2 I_c + I_T - i_g} \right] = K_1 \ln \left[ \frac{I_T + i_g}{I_T - i_g} \right] \quad 7.2$$

This equation shows that the maximum value of  $i_g$  is  $I_T$ . That is, the gate can conduct no more current than the trigger source delivers. A gate resistance  $r_g$  is defined by Eq. 7-3.

$$r_g = \left. \frac{\partial e_g}{\partial i_g} \right|_{i_g = 0} \quad 7.3$$

For the gate described by Eq. 7-2 this calculates to be

$$r_g = \frac{2 K_1}{2 I_{co} + I_T} \approx \frac{2 K_1}{I_T} \quad 7.4$$

It is very unlikely that a floating current source trigger would be built. However if  $R_T$  is 100 or more times greater than  $r_g$  the current source approximation will apply very well. It should be recalled that we do not need an extremely accurate plot of  $e_g$  vs

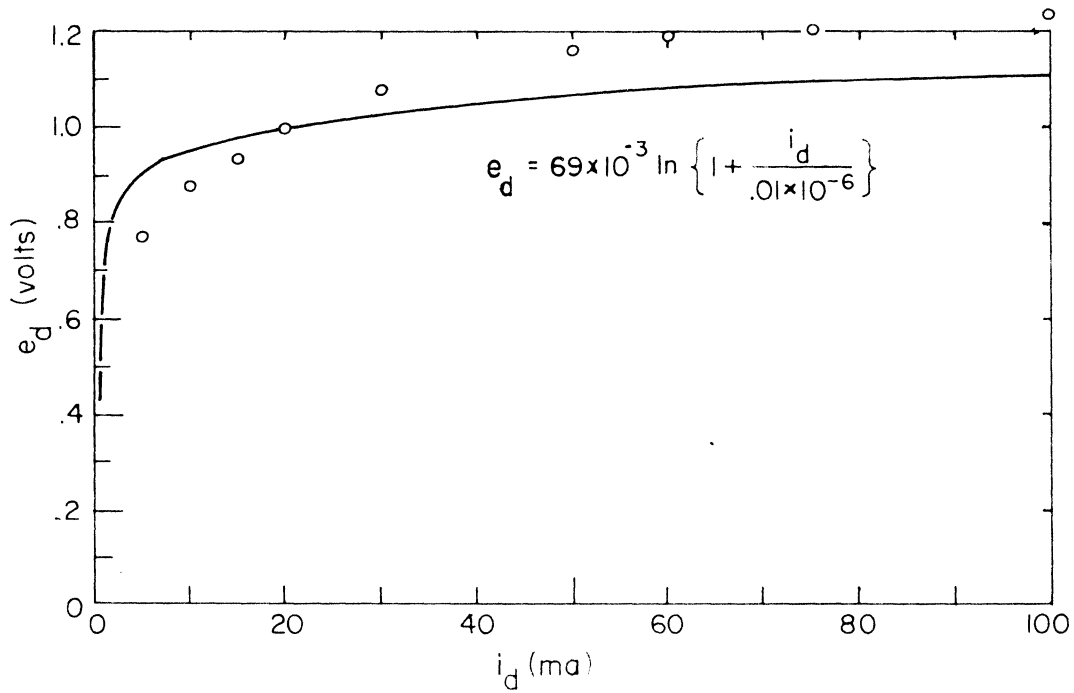


Fig. 7-1 A Silicon Diode's Forward Characteristics

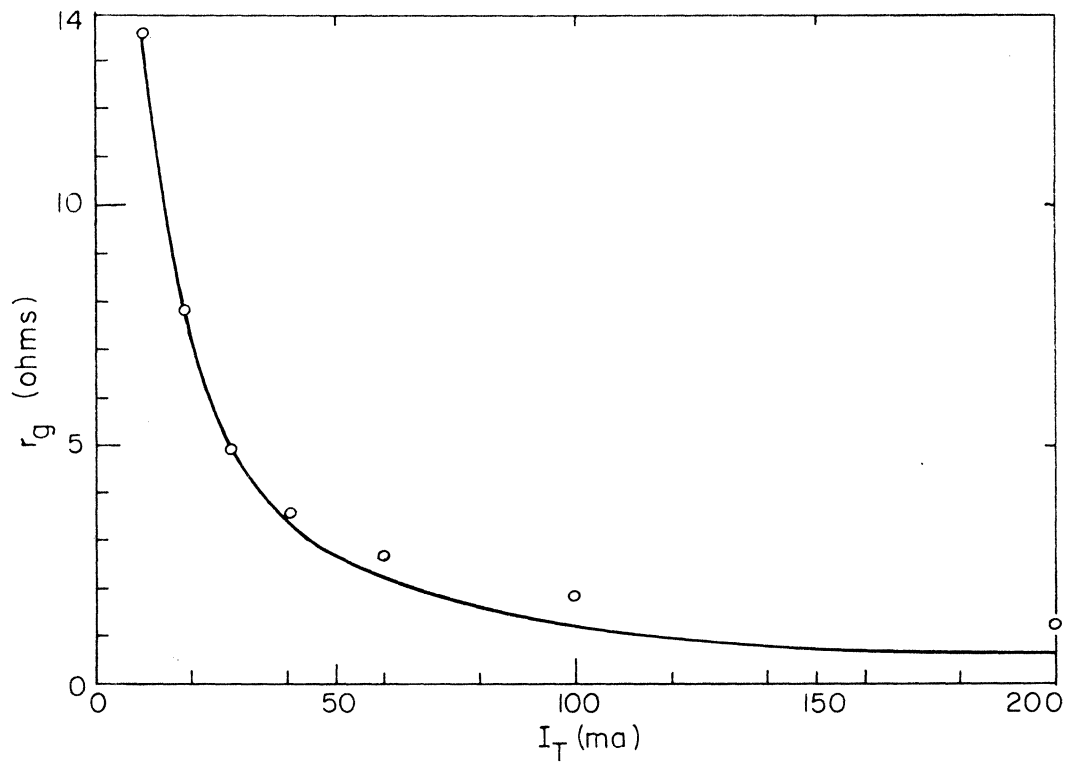


Fig. 7-2 Gate Resistance VS Trigger Current

$i_g$ , but only need an estimate of the gates current conducting abilities. If any question arises, however, the graphical procedure of Appendix I can be used.

Fig. 7-1 illustrates a typical silicon diode forward characteristic. This real diode deviates from the exponential due to an additional resistive term in the diode function. Four similar diodes were used to build a gate and the gates resistance plotted (Fig. 7-2) for several values of trigger current. Pulsed techniques were used to make all measurements since the currents used exceeded the diodes d.c. limitations. The value of  $K_1$  used in calculating theoretical gate resistance was  $69 \times 10^{-3}$  volts.

The exponential model shows that the reverse characteristics of a diode are similar to a current source. Four current sources can be inserted in the four diode gate (Fig. 1-14). The resulting circuit is ambiguous since four independent current sources are arranged such that  $I_1 + I_2 = I_3 + I_4$ . Therefore in order to relieve this ambiguity a high resistance  $r_D$  has been added in parallel with each diode. If diodes are selected such that all leakage currents are equal the gate will have a disabled resistance of  $r_D$ . That is, a gate can be built which has a lower leakage current than the leakage current of any diode in the gate. Experience has shown that it is not practical to match diodes to more than a second significant figure. This however assures an improvement by a factor of 10 over the diode itself. The resistive component of back biased Transistron SG222 may run as high as  $4 \times 10^9$  ohms. While diodes cannot be matched exactly they can be arranged in the gate to give a minimum gate leakage current. The diodes can be first



matched in pairs, with D2 and D4 forming one pair and D1 and D3 the other pair. If D4 has a larger leakage current than D2 this pair will tend to cause a positive gate current  $I_g$ . If D3 has a larger leakage current than D1 this pair will tend to cause a negative gate current. These positive and negative gate currents will cancel causing an even further reduction in gate current. In summary then in order to construct a gate with a resistance comparable to the back resistance of the diodes an attempt should be made to eliminate the effect of the current source by satisfying the equations

$$I_1 + I_2 = I_3 + I_4.$$

This technique is illustrated in Fig. 7-3 and Fig. 7-4. Fig. 7-3 illustrates the reverse characteristics of four selected Transi-tron SG222 diodes. For the data plotted in Fig. 7-4 these diodes have been arranged to give a minimum leakage current. When  $e_g = 0$  each diode is back-biased by 20 Volts. Therefore the current in each diode is about  $15 \times 10^{-9}$  amps.

It should be pointed out that the diodes used in this example were very carefully selected. They were selected first for low leakage current and high back resistance. Secondly they were carefully matched to construct the best possible gate. A very small percentage of SG222 diodes could be used in this gate. If diodes are selected such that leakage current is less than  $.05 \times 10^{-6}$  amps and the back resistance is greater than  $20000 \times 10^{-6} r$ , about 20% of the SG222 diodes will be usable. This will, however, require at least a  $.02 \times 10^{-6}$  farad capacitor. The charging of this capacitor cannot be accomplished by any circuit designed in this thesis. An operational amplifier which can be used for charging this capacitor is the subject of another thesis sponsored by this project<sup>16</sup>.

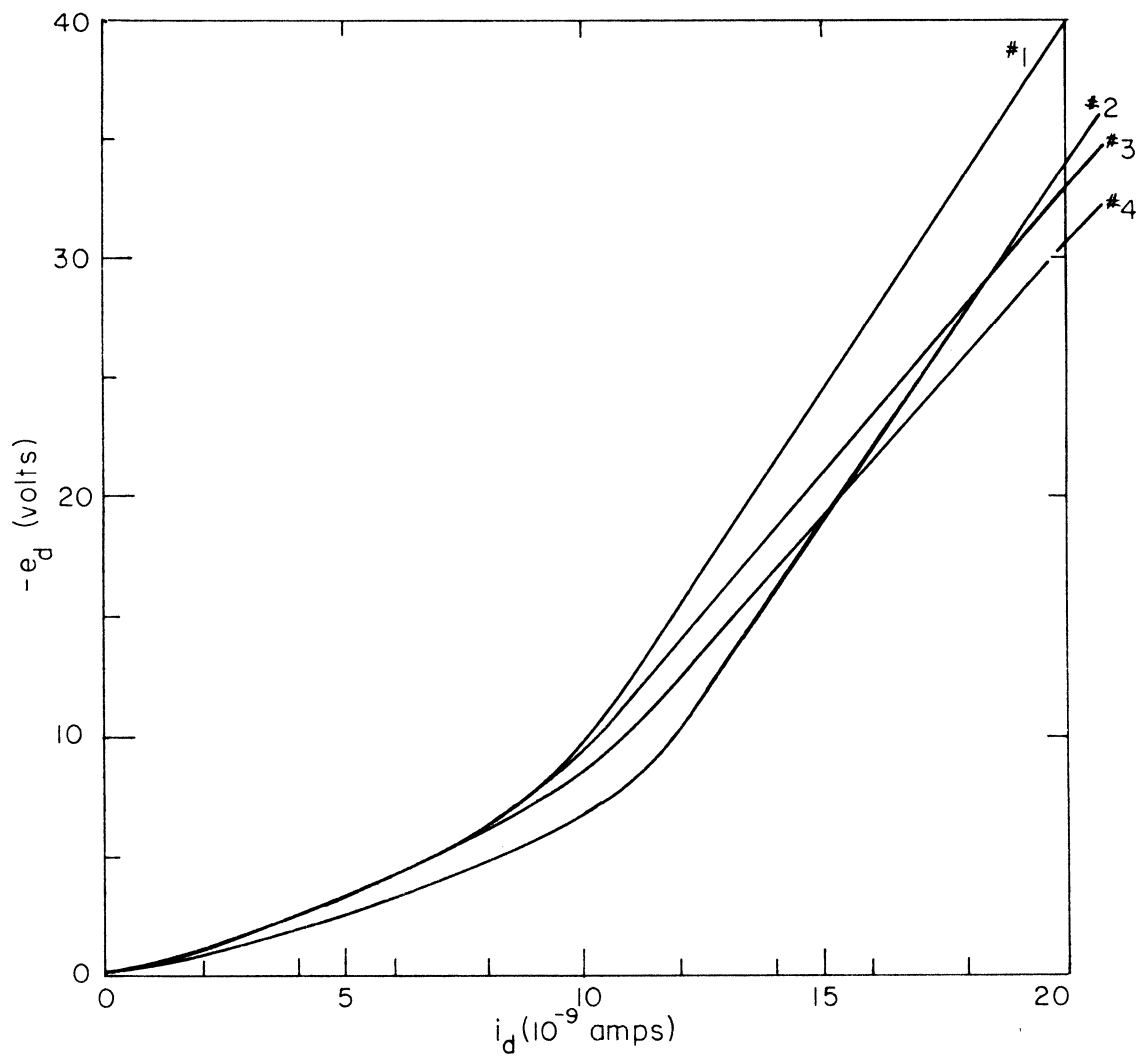


Fig. 7-3 Selected SG222 Reverse Characteristics

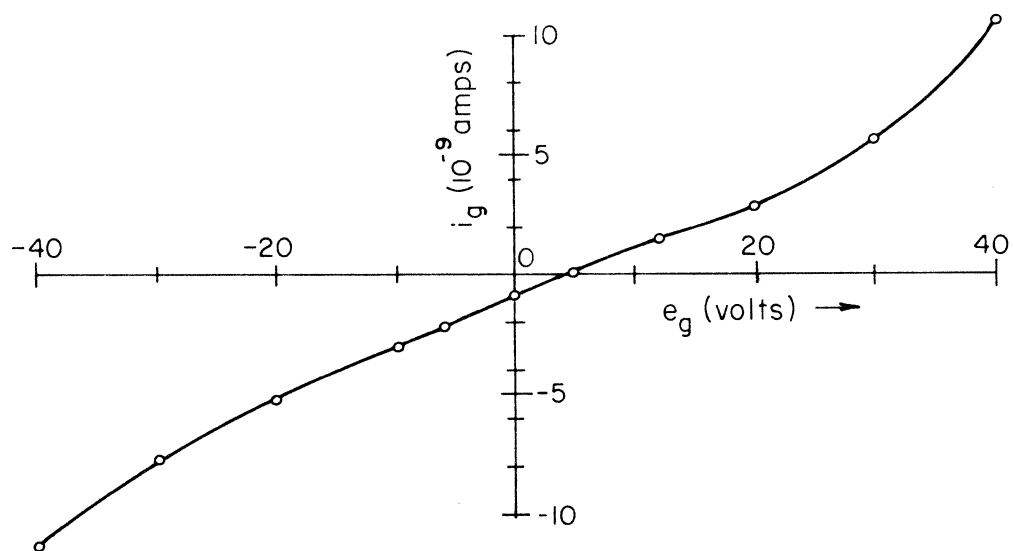


Fig. 7-4 Disabled Gate's Characteristics

A switching transient and the resulting error are unavoidable in the four-diode storage gate. This is due to the unbalance in the diodes switching characteristics. At the end of all gating periods, however, the gate will always be in exactly the same condition regardless of the present value of  $E_1$ . Therefore the switching transient will not be dependent of  $E_1$  but will be the same for all values of input. This fact will allow us to use a bias voltage to compensate for gate switching error.

The leakage current of the silicon diodes used in this gate are sensitive to temperature.<sup>13</sup> Eq. 7-4 describes this sensitivity.  $I_{co}$  is the leakage

$$I_{co} = I_0 e^{b(T_j - T_0)} \quad 7.4$$

current at the junction temp  $T_j$ .  $I_0$  is the leakage current at a reference temperature  $T_0$ .  $b$  is a constant and a property of the diode construction. Two problems arise due to this variation of leakage current with temperature. One is obvious. If the room temperature rises the leakage current of the gate will increase. The only solution to this problem is to use diodes which are insensitive to temperature or to keep the room cool. The other harmful effect of temperature variation is less obvious. When the gate is conducting heavily two diodes are conducting full current and two diodes are non-conducting. Under this pulsed load the two conducting diodes will heat up. When the gate returns to its disabled state the two heated diodes will give a larger leakage current than previously. This unbalance will cause gate leakage current. However numerical calculation of this effect show that it can be neglected.<sup>13</sup>

This should also be taken in selecting the dielectric of the

capacitor to be used in the storage gate. In general it is not dielectric leakage current which is important, but it is a phenomena called dielectric absorption.<sup>14</sup> This property of the capacitor dielectric results in an equivalent circuit as shown in Fig. 7-5. When a pulse of current is applied to the capacitor,  $C_0$  will charge immediately.  $C_1$  will not charge immediately because of the resistance  $R_1$ . When the current pulse is removed  $e_c$  will change value due to the charging of  $C_1$ . After a  $40 \times 10^{-3}$  amp current pulse has been applied to a  $.01 \times 10^{-6}$  farad paper capacitor for  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  second a voltage drop as high as 2 volts can be observed. This effect is greatly reduced by using a mica capacitor. However, no numerical calculation or experimental measurements have been made to justify neglecting this phenomena.

### 7.3 WHITE CATHODE FOLLOWER

A vacuum tube circuit which is capable of about  $\pm 150$  ma output currents and which has a very low incremental output impedance has been designed for use with the four diode bridge gate. This circuit which has a non-linear plate load resistance is illustrated in Fig. 7-6. The combination of the zener diode D1 is and resistance  $R_L$  form the non-linear plate load. The other zener diode D2 is used to couple the plate of T1 with the grid of T2. A complete piecewise linear analysis of this circuit is included in Appendix II. The important results can be easily summarized. The circuit is capable of a positive output current of  $\frac{E_b - E_z}{r_p}$ . The negative output current can be as high as  $\frac{E_c}{r_p}$ . Both of these currents are maximum currents outputs calculated without driving any grid positive. The incremental output resistance near the point where  $i_g = 0$

is given in Eq. 7-5.

$$r_d = \frac{r_p^2 + r_p R}{R(1 + \mu + \mu^2) + r_p(2 + \mu)} = \frac{r_p}{\mu^2} \quad 7.5$$

The approximation assumes  $R \gg r_p$  and  $\mu \gg 1$ . There is a breakpoint in the output resistance for comparatively small positive values of output current. To prevent this breakpoint from interfering with the systems stability it has been shifted by applying a current bias to the output. The experimental output characteristics of the unbiased White cathode follower are shown in Fig. 7-7.

#### 7-4 Blocking Oscillator

7.6

7.8

A blocking Oscillator was built for use with the four diode bridge gate. The circuit diagrams for this trigger source is shown in Fig. 7-8. The output pulse on the collector of T2 is a 75 Volt pulse with rise and fall times of about .2  $\mu$  seconds. This output stage can deliver up to 800ma of current through the enabled gate. A very limited pulse width adjustment is provided for this circuit. The pulse width can be varied from 5 to 9  $\mu$  seconds. The real disadvantage of this blocking oscillator is its limited pulse repetition rate. The resistor and diode in parallel with the windings of each transformer are used to prevent inductive overshoot. By allowing this overshoot to increase the pulse repetition rate can also be increased. By decreasing the output current of the output transformer the pulse repetition rate can also be increased.

#### 7-5 Output Buffer

The output buffer for the storage gate must drain very little current from the storage capacitor. A special purpose tube Raytheon

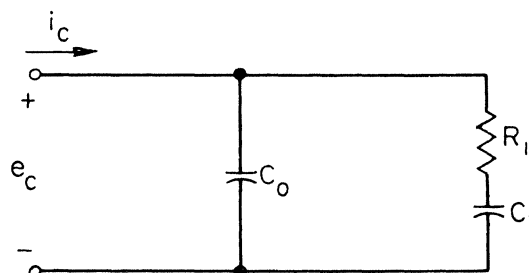


Fig. 7-5 A Real Capacitor

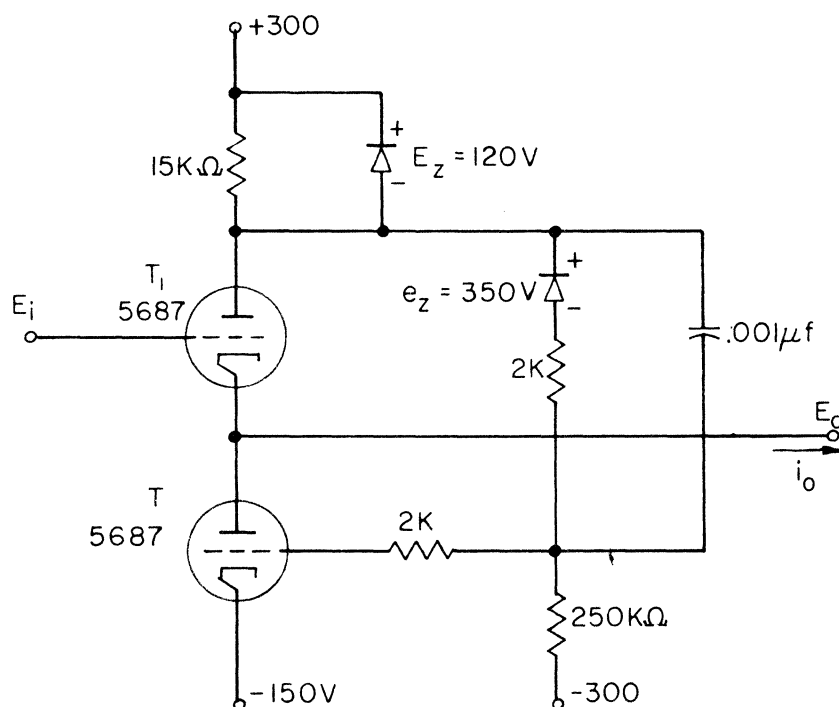


Fig. 7-6 White Cathode Follower with Non-Linear Plate Resistance

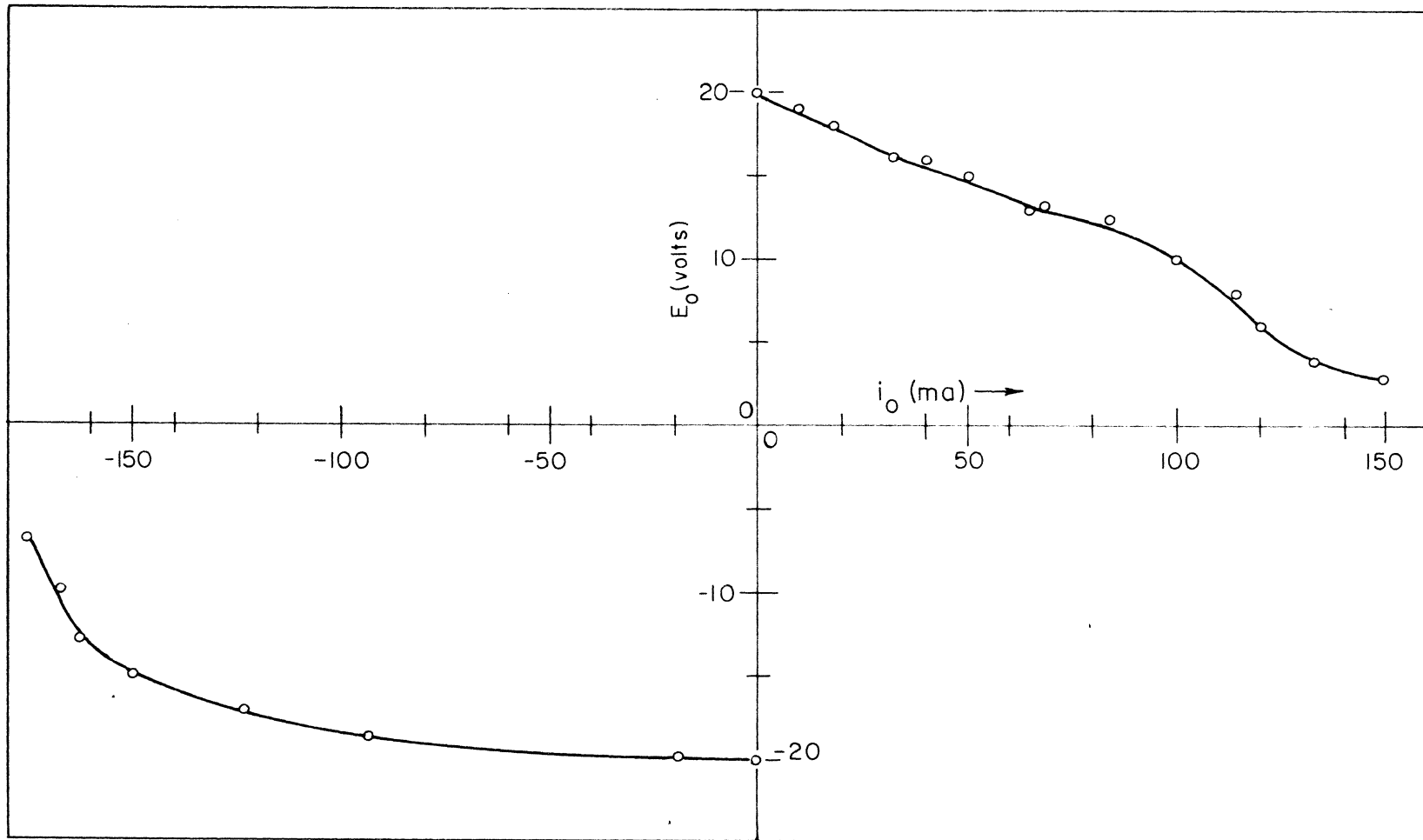


Fig. 7-7 White Cathode Follower's Output Characteristics

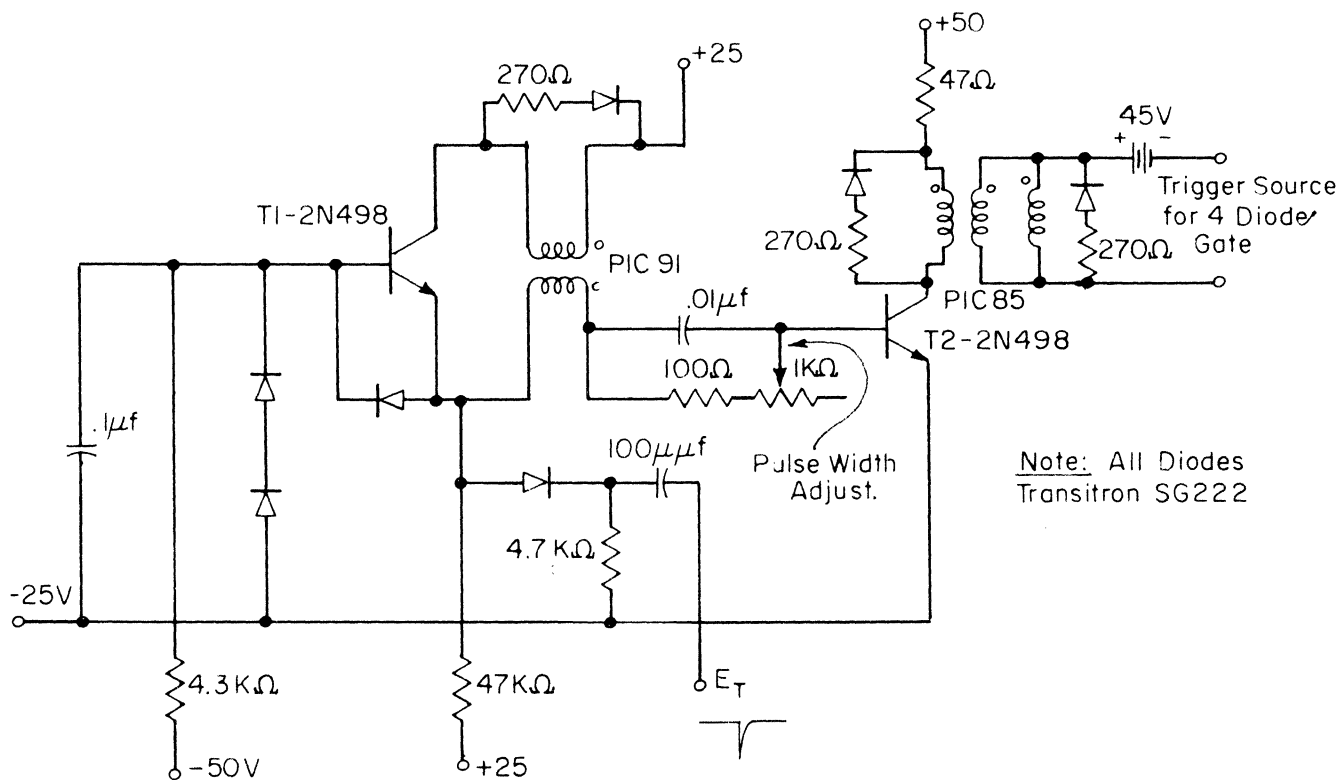


Fig. 7-8 Transistor Blocking Oscillator

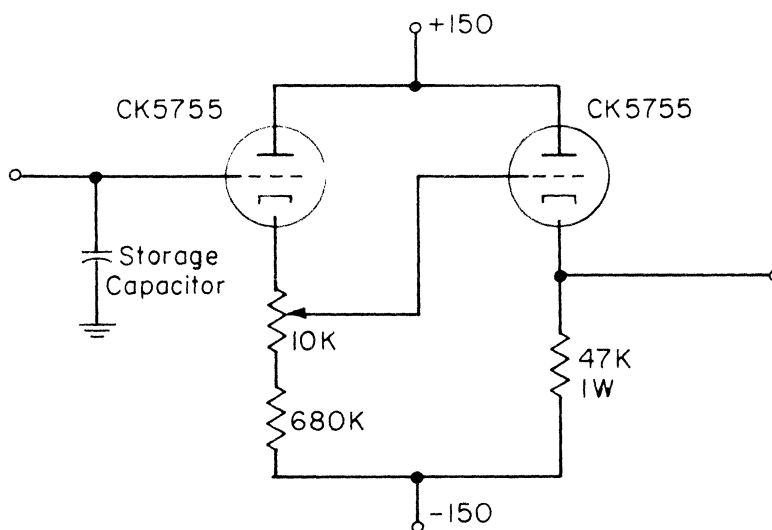


Fig. 7-9 Output Buffer



CK5755 is especially designed to keep grid leakage current at about  $10^{-9}$  amps. This current is less than the current through the gate. This tube is used as a cathode follower in the output buffer. The cathode resistor of the cathode follower must be kept high (about 1 meg) in order to take advantage of the tubes special properties. This high resistnace in the cathode follower prevents the circuit from being loaded down. Another cathode follower follows this first cathode follower in order to make the output of this stage more usable. A bias adjustment is also provided in the circuit.

## APPENDIX I

The  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot for the four diode bridge gate can be obtained by a graphical procedure. Eqs. 3-21a and 3-21b from which this procedure is derived are repeated here for convenience.

$$E_T - i_T R_T = f \left[ \frac{i_T - i_g}{2} \right] + f \left[ \frac{i_T + i_g}{2} \right] \quad 3.21a$$

$$e_g = f \left[ \frac{i_T + i_g}{2} \right] - f \left[ \frac{i_T - i_g}{2} \right] \quad 3.21b$$

The steps below are followed to determine a single point on the  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  plot.

- 1) plot  $f \left[ \frac{i_T + i_g}{2} \right]$  vs  $i_g$  for an arbitrary  $i_T$
- 2) plot  $f \left[ \frac{i_T - i_g}{2} \right]$  vs  $i_g$
- 3) add 1) and 2)
- 4) plot  $E_T - i_T R_T$  (include here trigger source non linearities)
- 5) intersection of 3) and 4) are possible operating points.
- 6) compute  $e_g$  by subtracting 1) and 2)
- 7) plot  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  (one point, with  $i_T$  as a parameter)
- 8) try again for another  $i_T$  (i.e. go back to 1)

If in following this procedure 3) and 4) don't intersect, the value which was arbitrarily chosen for  $i_T$  can never occur. While this procedure may seem rather time consuming at first glance, a good estimate of  $e_g$  vs  $i_g$  can actually be obtained rather quickly in practice. If  $i_T$  is a current source only the subtraction of Eq. 3-21b need be performed.

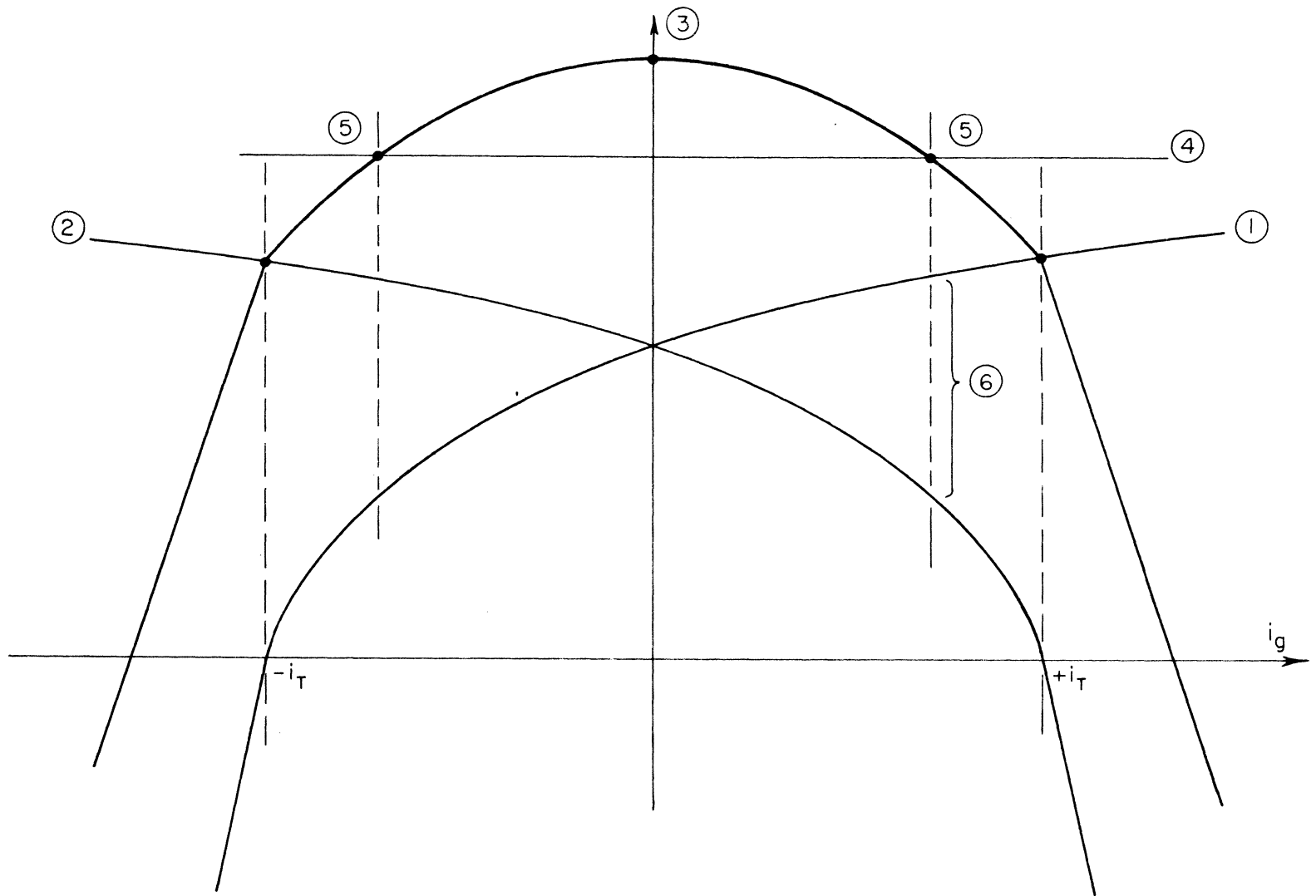


Fig. A1-1 Graphical Construction Used to Find  $e_g$  vs.  $i_g$  Plot for **Four-Diode Bridge**

## APPENDIX II

The piecewise linear analysis of the White Cathode Follower is outlined below. It is always assumed that the current through  $D_2$  is a small percentage of the current through  $T_1$ . This approximation allows us to neglect the bias resistor which goes from the grid of  $T_2$  to the -300 Volt supply.

Equations for Both tube in linear range and  $D_1$  non conducting.

$$e_{b1} = i_{b1} r_p - \mu e_{c1}$$

$$e_{b2} = i_{b2} r_p - \mu e_{c2}$$

$$E_b = i_{b1} R + e_{b1} + e_{b2} - E_c$$

$$E_b = i_{b1} R + e_z + e_{c2} - E_c$$

$$E_{in} = e_{c1} + e_{b2} - E_c$$

$$i_{b2} + i_o = i_{b1}$$

given  $E_{in}$ ,  $i_o$  find  $e_{b2}$ ,  $e_{c2}$ ,  $i_{b2}$ ,  $i_{b1}$ ,  $e_{c1}$ ,  $e_{c2}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ E_b + E_c \\ E_b + E_c - e_z \\ E_{in} + E_c \\ i_o \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r_p & 0 & -1 & 0 & -\mu & 0 \\ 0 & r_p & 0 & -1 & 0 & -\mu \\ R & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ R & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_{b1} \\ i_{b2} \\ e_{b1} \\ e_{b2} \\ e_{c1} \\ e_{c2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Listed below are the total equations for the White Cathode follower's currents and voltages

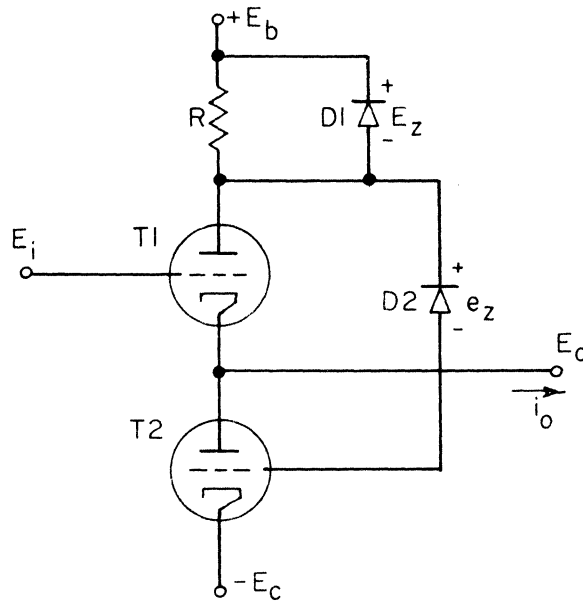


Fig. A2-1 The White Cathode Follower

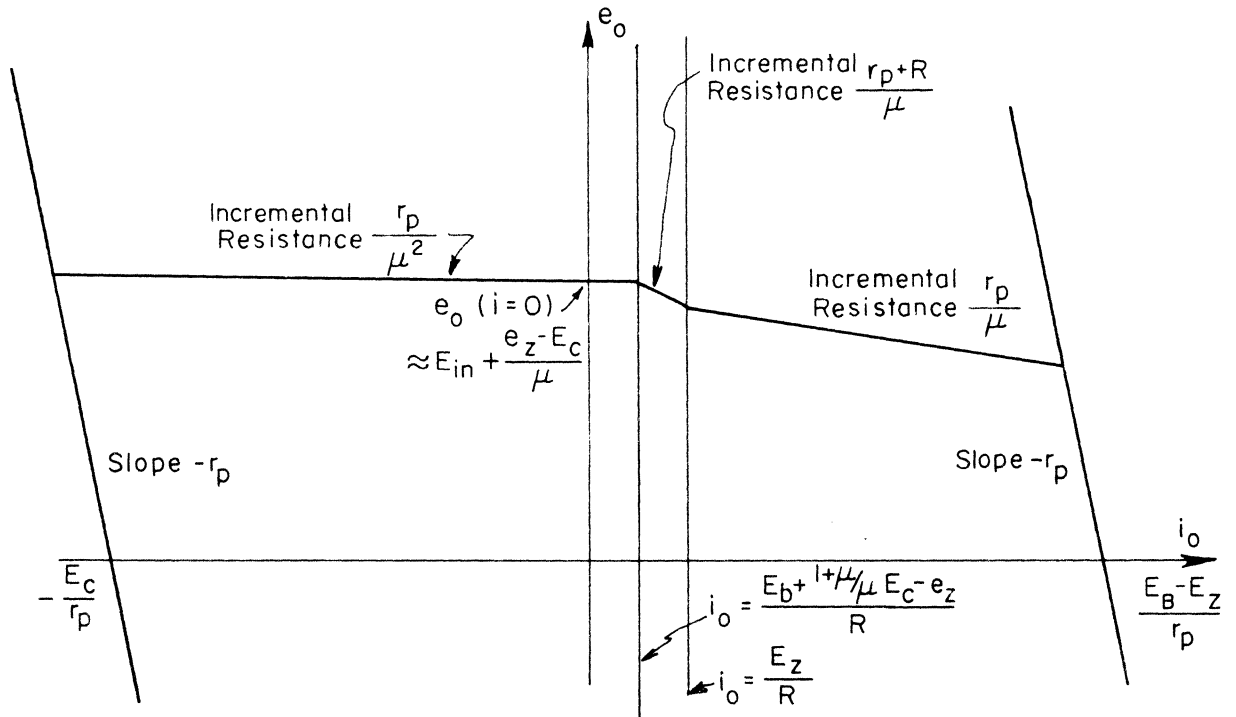


Fig. A2-2 White Cathode Follower's Theoretical Output Characteristics

$$D = R [1 + \mu + \mu^2] + r_p [2 + \mu]$$

$$Di_{b1} = D_1 = i_o [(1 + \mu)r_p] + \mu E_{in} + [1 + \mu + \mu^2] E_b + \\ + [1 + 2\mu + \mu^2] E_c + [-\mu - \mu^2] e_z$$

$$Di_{b2} = D_2 = [-r_p - (1 + \mu + \mu^2)R] i_o + \mu E_{in} + [1 + \mu + \mu^2] E_b \\ + [1 + 2\mu + \mu^2] E_c + [-\mu - \mu^2] e_z$$

$$De_{b1} = D_3 = [r_p^2 - \mu r_p R] i_o + [-\mu r_p - \mu R - \mu^2 R] E_{in} + [r_p \\ + 2\mu r_p] E_b + [r_p + \mu r_p - \mu R - \mu^2 R] E_c + [-\mu r_p + \mu^2 R] e_z$$

$$De_{b2} = D_4 = [-r_p^2 - r_p R] i_o + [\mu^2 R + \mu r_p] E_{in} + [r_p - \mu r_p] E_b \\ + [r_p + \mu^2 R] E_c + [\mu R + \mu r_p] e_z$$

$$De_{c1} = D_5 = [r_p^2 + r_p R] i_o + [2r_p + R + \mu R] E_{in} + [-r_p \\ + \mu r_p] E_b + [R + \mu R + r_p + \mu r_p] E_c + [-\mu r_p - \mu R] e_z$$

$$De_{c2} = D_6 = [-r_p R - \mu r_p R] i_o - \mu R E_{in} + [2r_p + \mu r_p] E_b \\ + [2r_p + \mu r_p - \mu R] E_c + [-R - \mu r_p - 2r_p] e_z$$

When  $T_2$  cuts off the following equations apply  $i_{b2} = 0$

$$i_o = \frac{\mu}{D^1} E_{in} + \left[ \frac{1 + \mu + \mu^2}{D^1} \right] E_b + \left[ \frac{1 + 2\mu + \mu^2}{D^1} \right] E_c - \left[ \frac{\mu + \mu^2}{D^1} \right] e_z$$

$$e_o = \frac{\mu^2 R}{D^1} E_{in} - \frac{\mu r_p}{D^1} E_b - \frac{[r_p + R][1 + \mu]}{D^1} E_c + \frac{\mu [r_p + R]}{D^1} e_z$$

$$D^1 = r_p + (1 + \mu + \mu^2)R$$

Eliminating  $E_{in}$

$$\mu R i_o - e_o = \mu E_b + (1 + \mu) E_c - \mu e_z$$

The equation with  $T_2$  cut off is then

$$e_o = \frac{E_b}{1 + \mu} - i_o \frac{(R + r_p)}{1 + \mu} + \frac{\mu}{1 + \mu} E_{in}$$

The equation below applies only at the point of cutoff.

$$e_o = \frac{\mu^2 R}{D^2} E_{in} - \frac{\mu}{D^2} E_b - \left[ \frac{r_p + R}{D^2} \right] [1 + \mu] E_c + \frac{\mu [r_p + R]}{D^2} e_z$$

The next break point will occur when  $D_1$  begins to conduct at

$$i_o = \frac{E_z}{R}$$

$$e_o = - \frac{(r_p + R)E_z}{(1 + \mu)R} + \frac{E_b}{1 + \mu} + \frac{\mu}{1 + \mu} E_{in}$$

$$i_o > \frac{E_z}{R}$$

$$e_o = - \frac{r_p}{1 + \mu} i_o + \frac{(E_b - E_z)}{1 + \mu} + \frac{\mu}{1 + \mu} E_{in}$$

$$e_{c1} = \frac{r_p}{1 + \mu} i_o + \frac{E_{in}}{1 + \mu} - \frac{E_b - E_z}{1 + \mu}$$

These equations are good until  $e_{c1}$  goes positive

$$\text{at } e_c = 0 \quad i_o = \frac{E_b - E_z - E_{in}}{r_p}$$

$$e_o = E_{in}$$

A break point will occur for negative  $i_o$  when the grid of  $T_2$  goes positive.  $e_{c1} = 0$

$$i_o = \frac{-\mu R}{r_p R + \mu r_p R} E_{in} + \frac{2r_p + \mu r_p}{r_p R + \mu r_p R} E_b$$

$$\frac{2r_p + \mu r_p - \mu R}{r_p R + \mu r_p R} E_c - \frac{R + \mu r_p + 2r_p}{r_p R + \mu r_p R} e_z$$

$$De_{b2} = \frac{\mu}{1 + \mu} D E_{in} - \frac{r_p}{R} \frac{D}{1 + \mu} E_b$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & - \frac{r_p^2 (2 + \mu) + \mu R^2 (1 + \mu + \mu^2) + r_p R (\mu - 1)}{R (1 + \mu)} E_c \\
 & + \frac{R^2 (1 + \mu + \mu^2) + r_p^2 (2 + \mu) + r_p R (\mu^2 + 2\mu + 3)}{R (1 + \mu)}
 \end{aligned}$$

The results of these calculations are summarized in Fig. A-2.



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