

# Diode Coincidence and Mixing Circuits in Digital Computers\*

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**Summary**—Basic circuits utilizing germanium diodes in electrically pulsed systems are described. The circuits are of the following types:

1. Coincidence circuits—output signal occurs only when all the inputs receive signals simultaneously.
2. Mixing circuits—output signal occurs when any one of the inputs receives a signal.

The analyses of transient response of the output signal and the input impedance are given.

## I. INTRODUCTION

COINCIDENCE and mixing circuits, also known as gates and buffer circuits, respectively, occur frequently in many electronic devices and play an important role in electronic digital computers. A coincidence circuit produces an output when, and only when, all inputs are energized simultaneously. A mixing circuit combines several inputs without interaction into one output which is responsive to any one of the inputs. These circuits may be formed by using multiple control-grid vacuum tubes, tubes in parallel, or diodes.

The circuits, which are to be described, using germanium diodes are not amplitude sensitive, that is, the circuit operations depend only upon the presence or absence of signals provided the amplitudes are kept within a predetermined range. This property is desirable in most electronic digital computers and other similar applications.

In the following analysis and discussion it is assumed that the diodes are ideal except under the conditions where their back resistances cannot be neglected.

## II. COINCIDENCE CIRCUIT

A basic coincidence circuit of  $n$  inputs for positive pulses is shown in Fig. 1. All the voltages shown are referred to ground. All the input pulses are assumed to be rectangular with the same duration and equal amplitude and will occur at the same instant when there is a coincidence. The supply voltages are adjusted so that:

$$E_1 > E_o > E_2, \tag{1}$$

and

$$I_1 > I. \tag{2}$$

When there is no signal at any of the inputs, the clamping diode  $X_c$  and all the coupling diodes  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are conducting; hence,  $e_o$  equals  $E_o$ . When there is a

pulse appearing at one of the inputs, taking input 1 as an example,  $X_1$  is cut off. Since  $I_1$  is greater than  $I$  the

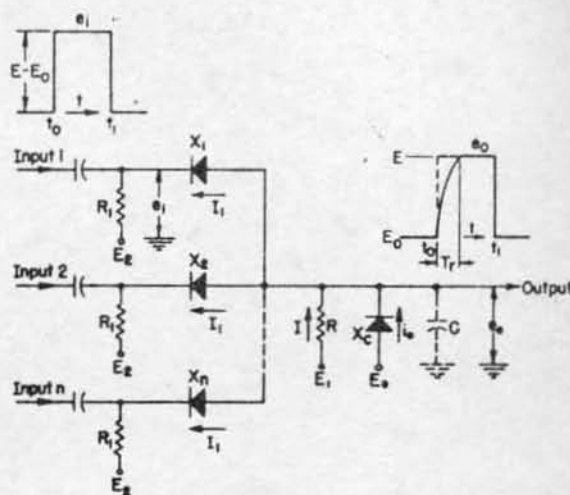


Fig. 1—Basic coincidence circuit for positive pulses.

clamping diode remains conducting, except when a coincidence of all the inputs occurs. With coincidence all the diodes are cut off and  $e_o$  rises exponentially with time constant  $RC$ , where  $C$  is the output capacitance including the capacitance of the diode  $X_c$ .

The rise time of the output pulse can be found to be:

$$T_r = RC \ln \frac{E_1 - E_o}{E_1 - E} \tag{3}$$

If the voltage drop across  $R$  is large compared to the amplitude of the pulse, the rise time is approximately:

$$T_r = \frac{(E - E_o)C}{I} \tag{4}$$

After the output voltage  $e_o$  has reached  $E$ , it follows the input voltage  $e_i$  exactly; because if  $e_o$  is greater than  $e_i$ , the clamping diodes will begin to conduct. If the input pulses do not have the same duration and do not occur at the same instant, the output pulse only occurs in the overlapping part of all the input pulses and has an amplitude equal to the smallest of the inputs.

The purpose of using the clamping diode is threefold. First, it acts as a clamper or dc restorer to permit the use of capacitive coupling. Second, it keeps  $e_o$  constant, except when there is a coincidence, regardless of the number of inputs at which signals are present. If the clamping diode were not present, the maximum change in  $e_o$  in the absence of a coincidence would be:

$$\Delta e_o = \frac{R_1 E_1 + R E_2}{R_1 + R} - \frac{R_1 E_1 + n R E_2}{R_1 + n R} \tag{5}$$

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and this variation may have sufficient amplitude to give a false response when  $n$  is large. Third, the clamping diode eliminates leakage signals caused by the back resistance of the coupling diodes. The maximum leakage signal, which occurs when signals are applied to  $n-1$  inputs, is:

$$\Delta e_o' = \frac{(n-1)RR_1\Delta e_i}{(R+R_1)R_b + (n-1)RR_1} \quad (6)$$

for no clamping diode.  $R_b$  is the back resistance of a diode and  $\Delta e_i$  is the amplitude of the input pulses. With the clamping diode, the leakage signal will not occur until  $i_o$  becomes zero or:

$$\frac{(n-1)(E-E_o)}{R_b} = I_1 - I. \quad (7)$$

Under this condition the clamping diode is cut off. If the difference  $I_1 - I$  is large enough so that the clamping diode remains conducting for the highest pulse amplitude, no leakage will occur.

In the case where the total capacitances of the coupling diodes is comparable to the output capacitance, the output voltage changes abruptly to the value:

$$\frac{nC_x E}{C + nC_x}, \quad (8)$$

where  $C_x$  is the capacity of a coupling diode and the rise time is:

$$T_r' = (nC_x + C)R \ln \frac{E_1 - \frac{nC_x}{nC_x + C} E}{E_1 - E}. \quad (9)$$

If the voltage drop across  $R$  is large compared to the amplitude of the pulse, the rise time is approximately:

$$T_r' = \frac{CE}{I}. \quad (10)$$

Several types of input circuits are shown in Fig. 2 where the notations are identical with those used in Fig. 1. Input 1 is a capacitive coupled input. Inputs 2 and 3 are used for direct coupling which is sometimes necessary for gate signals of long durations. Input 2 should not be driven to a potential lower than  $E_o$  for then excessive current may exist in  $X_o$  and  $X_2$  in series, if the output impedance of the driving source is low. This limitation is avoided by the use of input 3, since diode  $X_3$  is cut off when the input voltage is less than  $E_o$ .

Input 4 is an inhibiting input. A coincidence of inputs, 1, 2, and 3 will give an output, except when a coinciding negative pulse is applied at input 4. Normally, diodes  $X_o$  and  $X_4$  are cut off and the presence of a negative pulse at the input makes the diode  $X_4$  conduct and inhibits the output. Diode  $X_o$  is merely used for clamping, while the series resistor  $R_3$  is used to limit the current through  $X_o$  and  $X_4$  during the negative pulse when the output impedance of the source is low.

It should be noted that if there is no signal existing at the inhibiting input for a considerable length of time the potential of point  $A$  is approximately midway between  $E$  and  $E_o$ , assuming the back resistance of diodes

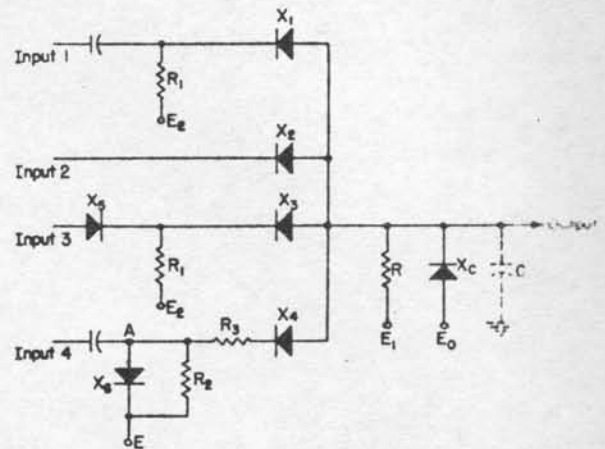


Fig. 2—Coincidence circuit for positive pulses—different types of inputs.

$X_4$  and  $X_6$  are equal and large compared to  $R_3$ . The output voltage, when it reaches the potential of point  $A$ , is affected by the output impedance of the inhibiting source. The shunt resistor  $R_2$ , having a resistance small compared to the back resistance of the crystal diode, maintains the potential of point  $A$  very close to  $E$  in the absence of inhibiting pulses.

Any combination of the inputs described above will form a coincidence circuit. The number of inputs is limited by the current capacity of the clamping diode  $X_c$ , since the current in the clamping diode, when no signal exists at any of the inputs, is:

$$i_o = (n-p)I_1 - I, \quad (11)$$

where  $n$  is the total number of inputs and  $p$  is the number of inhibiting inputs.

A coincidence circuit for negative pulses is identical with the one for positive pulses, except that all the diode connections are reversed and the relation of the various voltages is:

$$E_2 > E_o > E_1. \quad (12)$$

Positive pulses are required for the inhibiting inputs.

### III. MIXING CIRCUITS

A mixing circuit for positive pulses is shown in Fig. 3. The voltage  $E_3$  is negative with respect to  $E_o$  and all diodes are conducting in the absence of input pulses. The diodes  $X_2$ ,  $X_4$ , etc., are used for clamping. When a signal is applied to any one of the inputs, taking input 1 for example,  $X_2$  is cut off and  $X_1$  conducts more heavily. Other coupling diodes  $X_3$ , etc. are cut off when  $e_o$  rises above  $E_o$  and the output voltage  $e_o$  will follow the input voltage  $e_i$  exactly until time  $t_1$ . All the coupling diodes are cut off and  $e_o$  falls exponentially with time constant

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$RC$ . If the voltage drop across  $R_4$  is large compared to the amplitude of the pulse,  $I$  and  $C$  determine the fall time  $T_f$ . The number of inputs is limited by the required transient response of the driving source which sees a capacitance of  $C + (n-1)C_s$ , where  $C_s$  is the shunt capacitance of a diode.

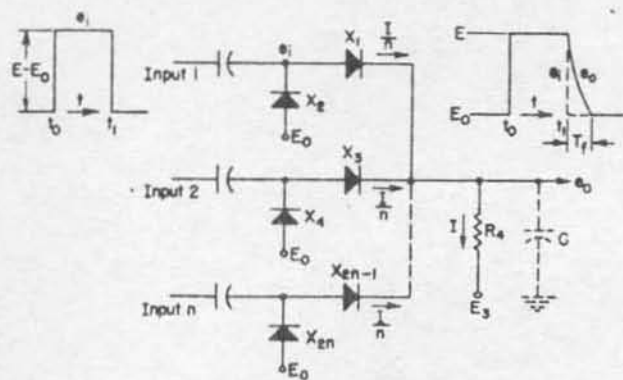


Fig. 3—Basic mixing circuit for positive pulses.

For direct-coupled input, the coupling capacitor and the clamping diode are omitted. When the inputs are a combination of direct- and capacitive-coupled inputs, it is desirable to shunt the clamping diodes with resistors having a low resistance compared to the back resistance of a diode for a similar reason as that described for the inhibiting input of a coincidence circuit.

IV. INPUT IMPEDANCE

The equivalent circuit of a driving source and one of the inputs of a coincidence circuit for positive pulses is shown in Fig. 4(a), where  $R_g$  is the internal resistance of the equivalent generator. It is assumed that the capaci-

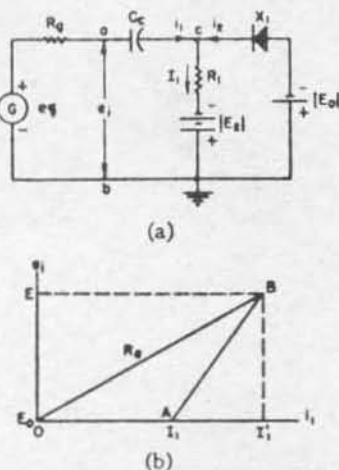


Fig. 4—(a) Equivalent input circuit of a coincidence circuit; (b) relation between input voltage and current.

tance of the coupling capacitor  $C_c$  is large so that the change in voltage across it is negligible during the pulse. For the quiescent state current  $i_1$  is zero, and the potential at point  $c$  is  $E_0$ . When a pulse is generated by the source, both  $e_c$  and  $i_1$  are increasing. Since point  $c$  is clamped at  $E_0$ ,  $I_1$  remains constant and  $i_2$  decreases until  $X_1$  is cut off. The input resistance  $R_i$  across points  $a$  and

$b$  can be expressed by the function:

$$R_i = 0 \quad \text{for } 0 < i_1 < I_1$$

$$R_i = R_1 \quad \text{for } i_1 \geq I_1, \quad (15)$$

which is represented by the slopes of the broken line  $OAB$  in Fig. 4(b).

Letting  $e_c$  swing from  $E_0$  to  $E$ , the input resistance can be represented by an equivalent resistance  $R_e$  which will satisfy the conditions at the end points  $O$  and  $B$ . The equivalent resistance  $R_e$  can be written as:

$$R_e = \frac{E - E_0}{I_1'} = \frac{E - E_0}{E - E_2} R_1, \quad (14)$$

where  $R_e$  is a function of the amplitude of the pulse. Since the circuits are not amplitude sensitive, only the minimum pulse amplitude is to be considered. The equivalent input impedance is then a parallel combination of  $R_e$  and  $C_s$  which is the capacitance of crystal diode  $X_1$ . The back resistance of the diode is usually very large compared to  $R_e$  and can be neglected. The input impedance of a mixing circuit can be found in a similar way, and will not be repeated here.

V. APPLICATIONS

Coincidence circuits are commonly used for the following applications:

1. Reshaping of deteriorated pulses produced by the various components of electronic digital computers.
2. Selecting or inhibiting a certain one or groups of pulses from a pulse train.

Fig. 5 illustrates all the functions mentioned above. The pulse train at input 1 is reshaped by the standard

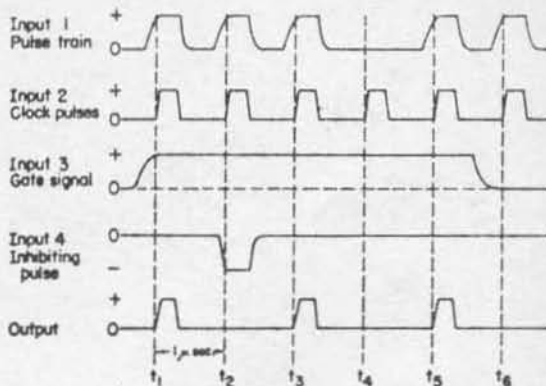


Fig. 5—Wave forms of a typical coincidence circuit for positive pulses.

timing or clock pulses at input 2 and a portion of the train is selected by the gate signal at input 3. The pulse at time  $t_2$  is deleted by the negative inhibiting pulse at input 4. Complete inhibition can be assured if the inhibiting pulse envelopes the clock pulse, regardless of the shape of pulses of the pulse train. These operations are accomplished by the use of one diode coincidence circuit, whereas many dual control-grid tubes and their associated components would be required if vacuum-tube circuits are employed.

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Mixing circuits are used primarily for combining and isolating the outputs of several sources which may have different output impedances. The transient response of many vacuum tubes connected in parallel is greatly improved if they are isolated by a mixing circuit.

Since the diode coincidence and mixing circuits have negligible attenuation, they can be connected in tandem, provided that the output of the driving circuit is capable of sustaining the current required by the input of the driven circuit. These circuits have been extensively used in the EDVAC, an electronic digital computer developed at the Moore School of Electrical Engineering, University of Pennsylvania. In the EDVAC the diode coincidence and mixing circuits are designed for pulses of 0.3-microsecond duration at repetition rates as high as one megacycle with rise and fall times of 0.1 microsecond. These diode circuits can be designed to operate at pulse repetition rates of several megacycles and having rise and fall times of the order of 0.05 microsecond or less.

#### Discussion on

## "Stabilization of Simultaneous Equation Solvers"

G. A. KORN

**Lofti A. Zadeh:**<sup>1</sup> Dr. Korn's paper on "Stabilization of Simultaneous Equation Solvers" contains a few errors, possibly of a typographical origin, which distort the significance of his main result.

In the first place, equation (3) should read

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \left[ a_{ik} - \delta_{ik} \frac{(n+1)}{A} \right] x_k + b_i = 0,$$

and consequently (8) should be written as

$$\frac{n+1}{A(p)} = \lambda_i.$$

In the second place, Dr. Korn's assertion that the real parts of the  $\lambda_i$  never exceed unity, provided  $a_{ik}$  is positive definite and  $a_{ik} \leq 1$ , is incorrect. Actually, the real parts of the  $\lambda_i$  may be greater than unity, but the magnitudes of the  $\lambda_i$  will certainly be less than  $n+1$ .

Finally, in the statement of Dr. Korn's stability criterion (immediately following equation (10)),  $a$  should read  $|a|$  (magnitude of  $a$ ). In the corrected form the criterion loses much of its simplicity, since in order to ascertain whether the computer will be stable or not, it is necessary to vary not only the magnitude of  $a$  but also its phase.

A perfectly general and yet simple criterion for stability of a simultaneous equation solver can easily be obtained through the use of Nyquist's criterion. Thus, we can state that:

<sup>1</sup> G. A. Korn, "Stabilization of simultaneous equation solvers," Proc. I.R.E., vol. 37, pp. 1000-1002; September, 1949.

<sup>2</sup> Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

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A system of  $n$  equations

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}x_k + b_i = 0$$

will have a stable solution if, and only if, the characteristic roots of  $a_{ik}$ , the  $\lambda_i$ , are such that the points  $(n+1)/\lambda_i$  are not enclosed by the Nyquist plot of  $A(p)$ .

In conjunction with the above criterion it is useful to note that when  $a_{ik}$  is positive definite and  $a_{ik} \leq 1$ , the points  $(n+1)/\lambda_i$  are located outside of the unit circle in the right half of the complex plane.

**Granino A. Korn:**<sup>2</sup> The writer is grateful to Dr. L. Zadeh of Columbia University for his criticism of the paper on "Stabilization of Simultaneous Equation Solvers."

With respect to Dr. Zadeh's first objection, it was considered fair enough to absorb the "mixing loss"  $1/n+1$  of the summing network into the gain  $A$  of the amplifier, so that equations (2) and (3) may be considered as correct. Under these circumstances the real parts of the  $\lambda_i$  will, indeed, be less than  $n+1$ , not one, and greater than zero.

In the statement of the stability criterion following equation (10),  $a$  should read  $|a|$  (typing error). The writer has, however, clearly stated below equation (10) that the phase as well as the magnitude of  $a$  must be varied. Dr. Zadeh's application of Nyquist's criterion is not self-evident but seems to be derived from the writer's equation (8).

<sup>2</sup> Curtiss-Wright Corporation, Columbus, Ohio.