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A pulse length analyzer

Paul Scheie

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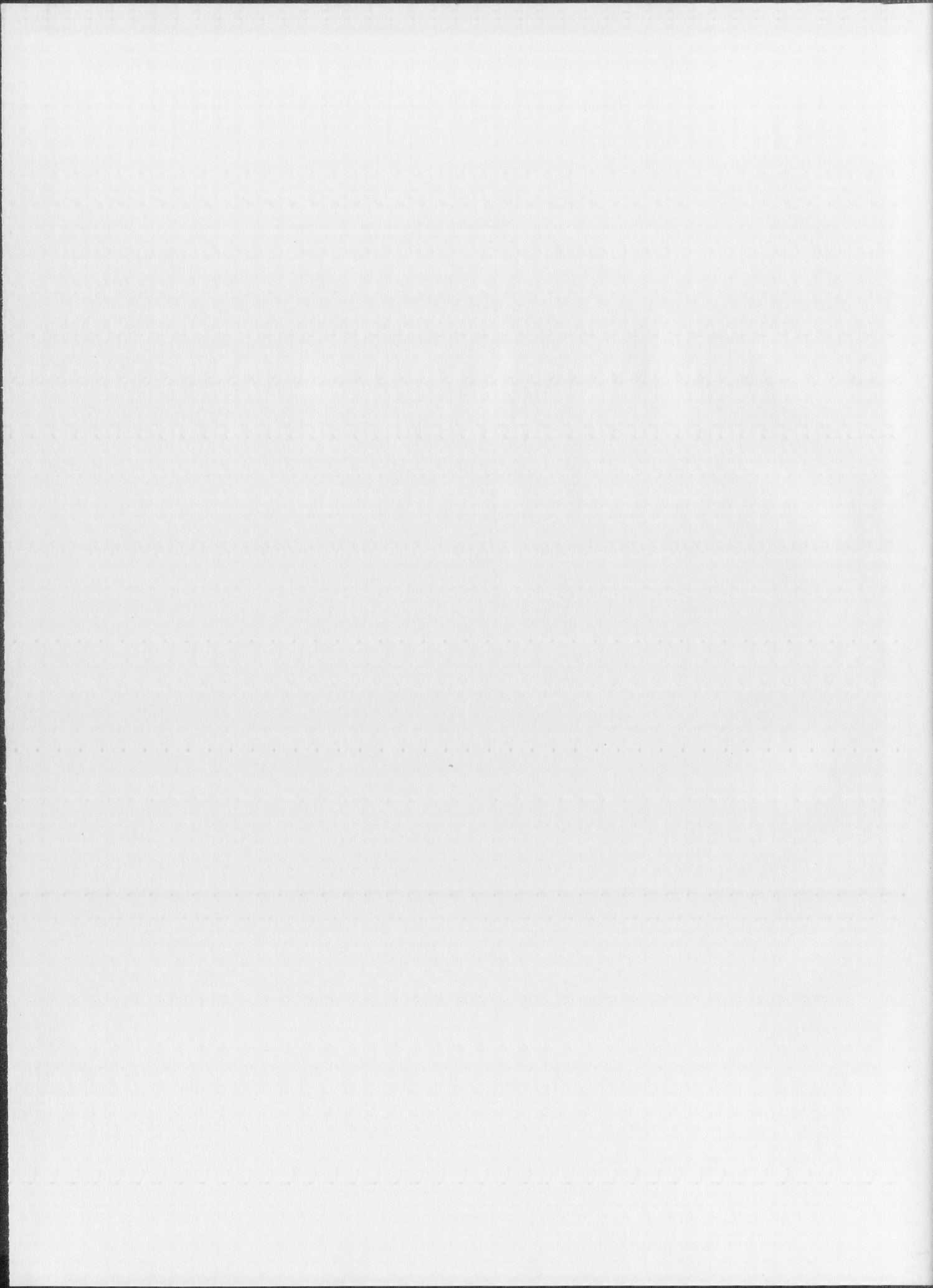
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A PULSE LENGTH ANALYZER

By

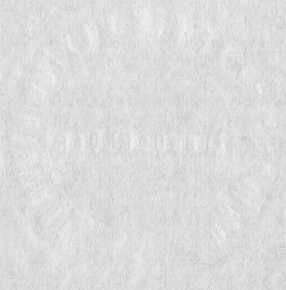
Paul O. Scheie

A Thesis

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Science in Physics

The University of New Mexico

1957



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This thesis, directed and approved by the candidate's committee, has been accepted by the Graduate Committee of the University of New Mexico in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

E. H. Casletter
DEAN

June 8, 1957
DATE

A PULSE LENGTH ANALYZER

by

Paul O. Scheie

Thesis committee

John R. Green
CHAIRMAN

C. P. Leavitt

Victor H. Ragsdale

This letter is to certify that the
minutes of the meeting of the
Board of Directors of the
City of New York, held on the 15th day of
January, 1901, are hereby approved.

James W. Smith

Mayor of the City of New York

By
John A. Smith

Secretary

John A. Smith

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. THE CIRCUITS	6
The Power Supply	6
The Univibrator.	6
The Gate and Inverter.	9
The Linear Sweep Circuit	11
III. CONCLUSION	28
BIBLIOGRAPHY	29

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CHAPTER

I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. THE CIRCUITS	2
The Power Supply	3
The Unilateral	4
The Beta and Resonance	5
The Linear Steep Circuit	11
III. CONCLUSION	12
BIBLIOGRAPHY	13

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
I. Univibrator Pulses with Corresponding Capacitances.	10
II. Actual and Expected Slopes from the Linear Sweep Circuit with Corresponding Capacitances	23

TABLE

- I. Unpublished papers of the author 101
- II. Papers and reports of the author 102
- III. Papers and reports of the author 103

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1. Block Diagram for Scintillator Calibration	3
2. Pulse Length Analyzer.	5
3. Power Supply for Pulse Length Analyzer	7
4. Univibrator, Gate, and Inverter.	8
5. Wave Shapes from Input through Inverter.	12
6. Linear Sweep Circuit	13
7. Wave Shapes for Linear Sweep Circuit	14
8. Simplified Sweep Circuit	16
9. Input Lengths vs. Sweep Output Amplitudes.	22

FIGURE

1. Block Diagram for Synthesizer
2. Pulse Length Analyzer
3. Power Supply for Pulse Length Analyzer
4. Unistator, Gate, and Counter
5. Wave Shapes from Input and Unistator
6. Linear Sweep Circuit
7. Wave Shapes for Linear Sweep
8. Simplified Sweep Circuit
9. Input Lengths vs. Sweep Speed

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

For experiments involving small scintillators and for experiments involving scintillator telescopes, the circuitry may closely resemble that used with geiger counters. However, if it is desired to make use of the variation in the signal amplitude in a large scintillator, some means must be found to deal with a wide range of amplitudes. The scintillator employed in the experiment to which this work relates is a tank 10 feet in diameter that contains 300 gallons of activated toluene; light of the scintillations is collected by a 16 inch photo-multiplier tube that is located on top of the tank.

A circuit has been developed which will convert the pulses from the photo-multiplier tube into pulses of standard height (ie., amplitude) whose length (ie., duration) is proportional to the logarithm of the height of the original pulse. This circuit is called the "Logarithmic Circuit" in Fig. 1. In such a manner amplitudes extending over a range of somewhat less than 10^4 can be handled. Before the scintillation pulses can be used, however, it is necessary to learn what correspondence exists between the cosmic-ray particles traversing the tank and the scintillation pulses produced by such traversals. In particular, it is essential that the average pulse produced by the traversal of a single, minimum ionizing particle be determined.

In order to obtain this information an experiment was designed to run a geiger counter tray telescope in coincidence with the scintillator. Fig. 1 gives the block diagram of the experiment. If the geiger tube trays are triggered by ionizing particles so that pulses from the traversal arrive at the coincidence circuit within a time of approximately 2 μ sec., a "coincidence pulse" of 2 μ sec. will be produced. This coincidence pulse opens a gate in the pulse length analyzer. The particle, or particles, triggering the geiger tube trays should also have passed through the scintillator and, therefore, have produced a pulse in the photomultiplier tube. This scintillation pulse is passed through a cathode follower and cable to an amplifier and then to the logarithmic circuit described earlier. The logarithmic pulse is delayed to compensate for delays in the geiger tubes and coincidence circuits, and then it is converted by the pulse length analyzer into an amplitude which is recorded by the 10 channel pulse amplitude analyzer.

By this arrangement it is possible to record the pulses from the scintillator only when the geiger tube telescope is triggered simultaneously. Most of the events in which the telescope is triggered will be the traversals of singly occurring mu-mesons; events with more than one particle will occur with rapidly decreasing probability as the number of particles increases. An analysis of the differential spectrum of scintillator pulses occurring simultaneously with triggering of the telescope will then make it possible

EXPERIMENTAL

In order to determine the effect of the concentration of the solution on the rate of reaction, a series of experiments were carried out. The concentration of the solution was varied from 0.1 to 1.0 M, and the rate of reaction was measured. The results are shown in the following table:

Concentration (M)	Rate of reaction (sec ⁻¹)
0.1	0.05
0.2	0.10
0.3	0.15
0.4	0.20
0.5	0.25
0.6	0.30
0.7	0.35
0.8	0.40
0.9	0.45
1.0	0.50

It is seen from the above table that the rate of reaction increases linearly with the concentration of the solution. This is in agreement with the theoretical prediction that the rate of reaction is proportional to the concentration of the reactants.

The following experiment was carried out to determine the effect of the temperature on the rate of reaction. The temperature was varied from 20°C to 40°C, and the rate of reaction was measured. The results are shown in the following table:

Temperature (°C)	Rate of reaction (sec ⁻¹)
20	0.05
25	0.10
30	0.20
35	0.40
40	0.80

It is seen from the above table that the rate of reaction increases exponentially with the temperature. This is in agreement with the theoretical prediction that the rate of reaction is proportional to the exponential of the negative of the activation energy divided by the temperature.

The following experiment was carried out to determine the effect of the catalyst on the rate of reaction. The catalyst was varied from 0 to 1.0 M, and the rate of reaction was measured. The results are shown in the following table:

Catalyst (M)	Rate of reaction (sec ⁻¹)
0	0.05
0.1	0.10
0.2	0.20
0.3	0.30
0.4	0.40
0.5	0.50
0.6	0.60
0.7	0.70
0.8	0.80
0.9	0.90
1.0	1.00

It is seen from the above table that the rate of reaction increases linearly with the concentration of the catalyst. This is in agreement with the theoretical prediction that the rate of reaction is proportional to the concentration of the catalyst.

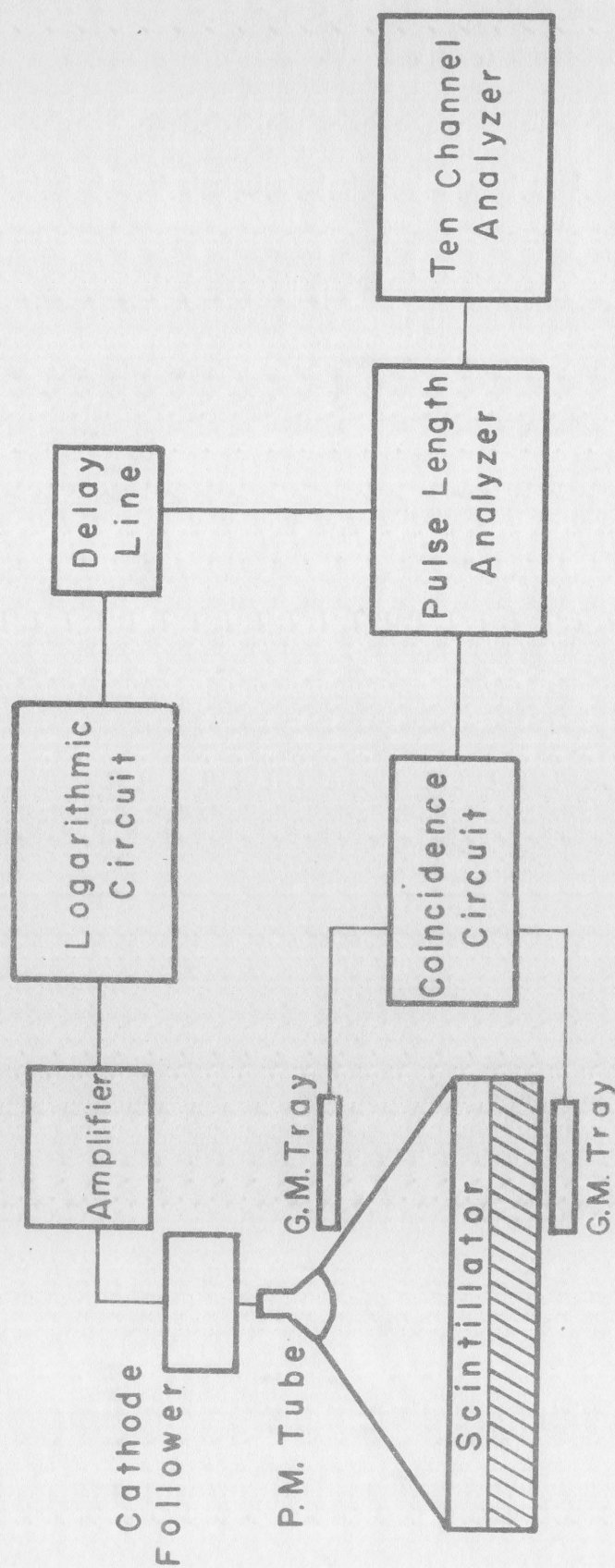


Figure 1
Block Diagram For
Scintillator Calibration

to identify the average pulse amplitude corresponding to traversal of the scintillator tank by single particles.

The remainder of this paper is concerned with the circuits necessary to make the information from the telescope coincidence and scintillator ready for the 10 channel analyzer. This will require two major steps. The first brings the two pulses together at a gate where the scintillator pulse will be passed only if the gate has been opened by a coincidence pulse from the telescope. The second step is to convert such a gated pulse into a pulse whose height is proportional to the length of the gated pulse. The result of these circuits, then, is to produce a pulse whose amplitude is proportional to the logarithm of the amplitude of the pulse produced in the scintillator, and to produce this pulse only when it occurs in coincidence with the counter telescope.

Fig. 2 shows the arrangement of these circuits. The coincidence pulse triggers a univibrator with variable output pulses in order that the gate can be opened for a predetermined length of time. During this time the delayed pulse from the logarithmic circuit passes through the gate in inverted form. This gated pulse is re-inverted and then made to trigger the linear sweep circuit.

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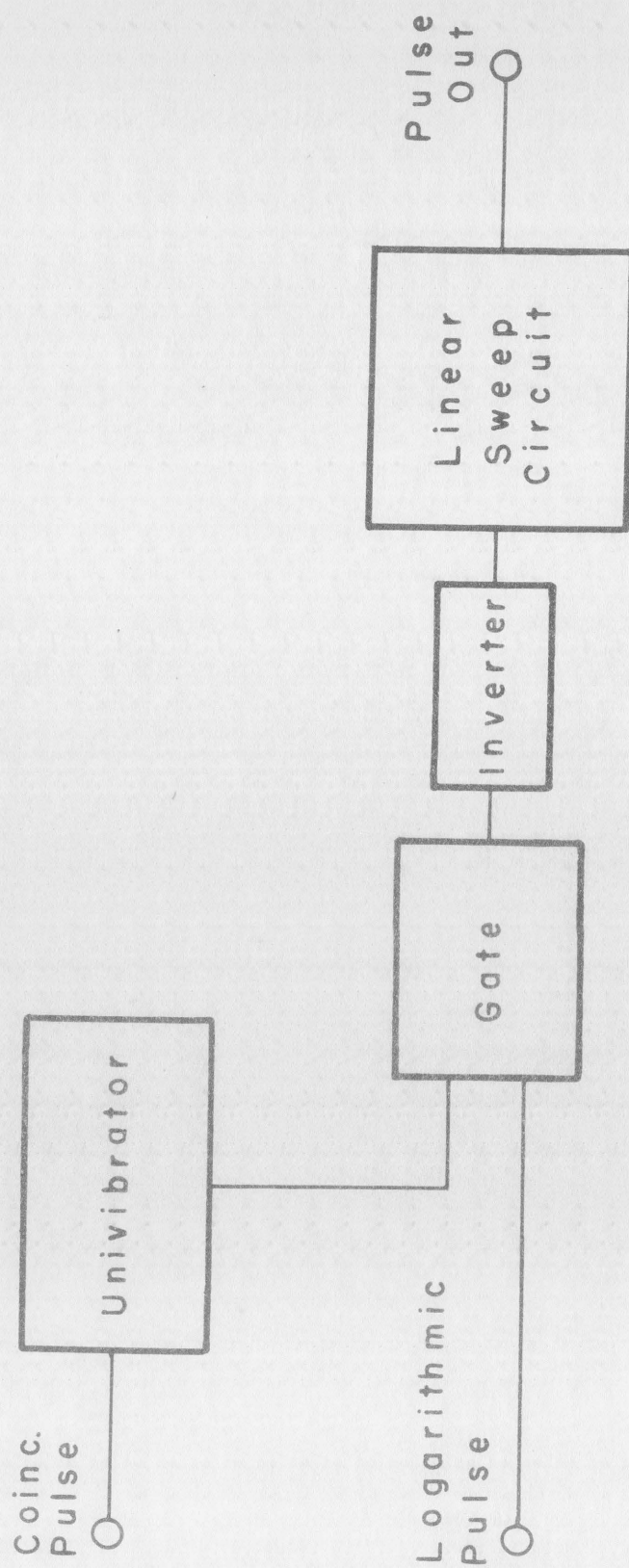
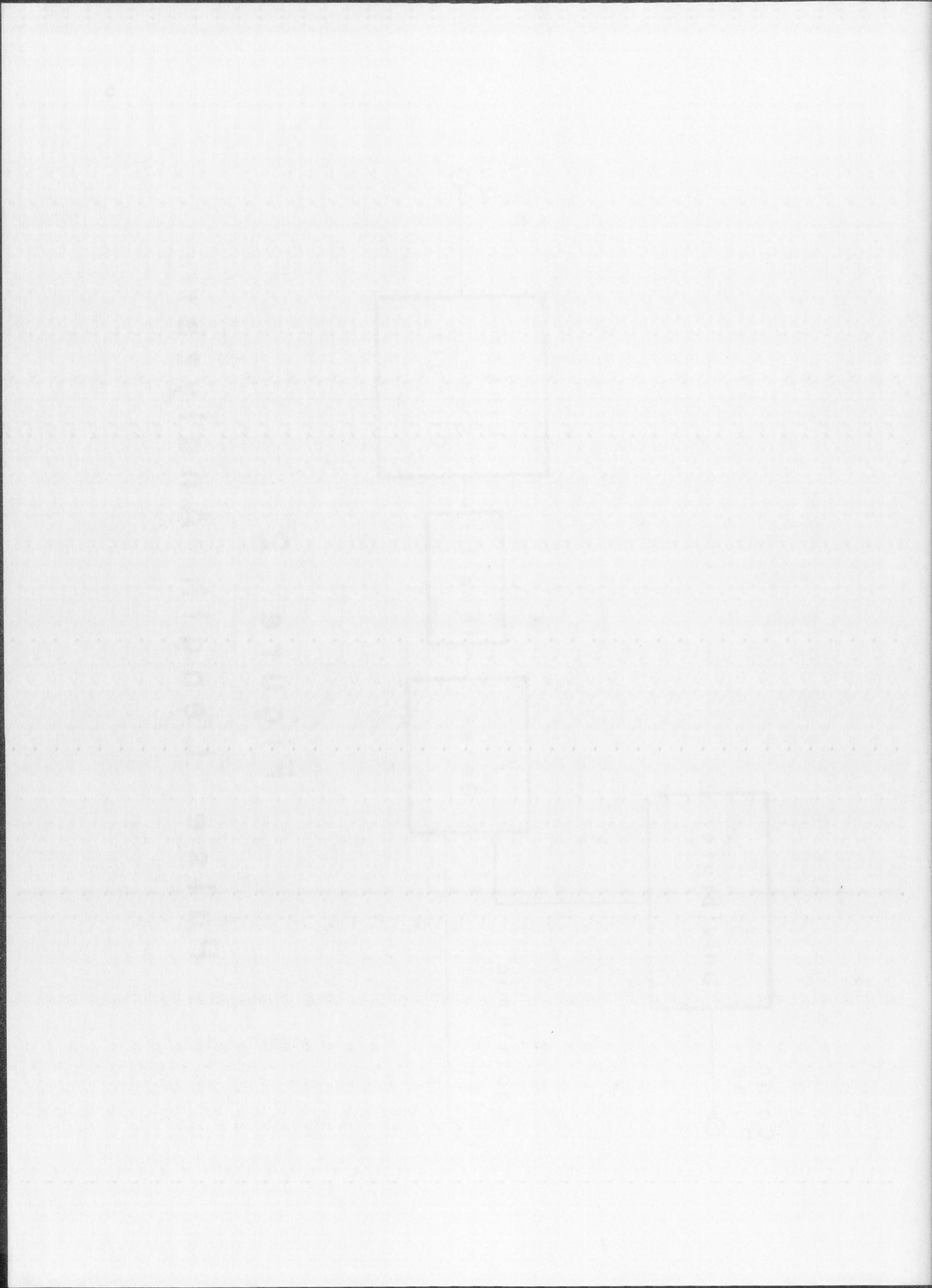


Figure 2
Pulse Length Analyzer



CHAPTER II

THE CIRCUITS

I. THE POWER SUPPLY

The power supply is an integral part of the entire electronic unit. Inasmuch as no part of the circuit requires accurately stabilized potentials, it was possible to employ a simple rectifier-filter supply. Potentials available include -100 v., -300 v., +150 v., +300 v., and +400 v.. The schematic diagram for the complete power supply is contained in Fig. 3.

II. THE UNIVIBRATOR

The first step is to bring together the coincidence pulse from the geiger tube trays and the delayed logarithmic pulse from the scintillator. The circuit to accomplish this is shown in Fig. 4.

The coincidence pulse from the geiger tube trays is used to open the gating circuit to allow the logarithmic pulse from the scintillator to pass through. However, the coincidence pulse is only some 2 microseconds long; whereas the logarithmic pulses extend from 20 to 500 microseconds in length. A univibrator was, therefore, inserted to maintain the gate in an opened condition for times that can be selected. These times range from ten microseconds to 1,000 microseconds, with a separate switch to allow manual control

The power supply is a 100-0-100 volt transformer with a 100 volt primary and two 100 volt secondaries. The transformer is connected to a 100 volt AC source. The secondary windings are connected to two 100 ohm resistors in series. The voltage across the resistors is 100 volts. The current through the resistors is 1 ampere. The power dissipated in the resistors is 100 watts. The schematic diagram is shown in Fig. 3.

The first stage is a common emitter amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the collector. The voltage gain is approximately 10. The second stage is a common collector amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the emitter. The voltage gain is approximately 1. The third stage is a common emitter amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the collector. The voltage gain is approximately 10. The fourth stage is a common collector amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the emitter. The voltage gain is approximately 1. The fifth stage is a common emitter amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the collector. The voltage gain is approximately 10. The sixth stage is a common collector amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the emitter. The voltage gain is approximately 1. The seventh stage is a common emitter amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the collector. The voltage gain is approximately 10. The eighth stage is a common collector amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the emitter. The voltage gain is approximately 1. The ninth stage is a common emitter amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the collector. The voltage gain is approximately 10. The tenth stage is a common collector amplifier. The input signal is applied to the base of the transistor. The emitter is connected to ground through a 10 ohm resistor. The collector is connected to a 100 ohm load resistor. The output signal is taken from the emitter. The voltage gain is approximately 1.

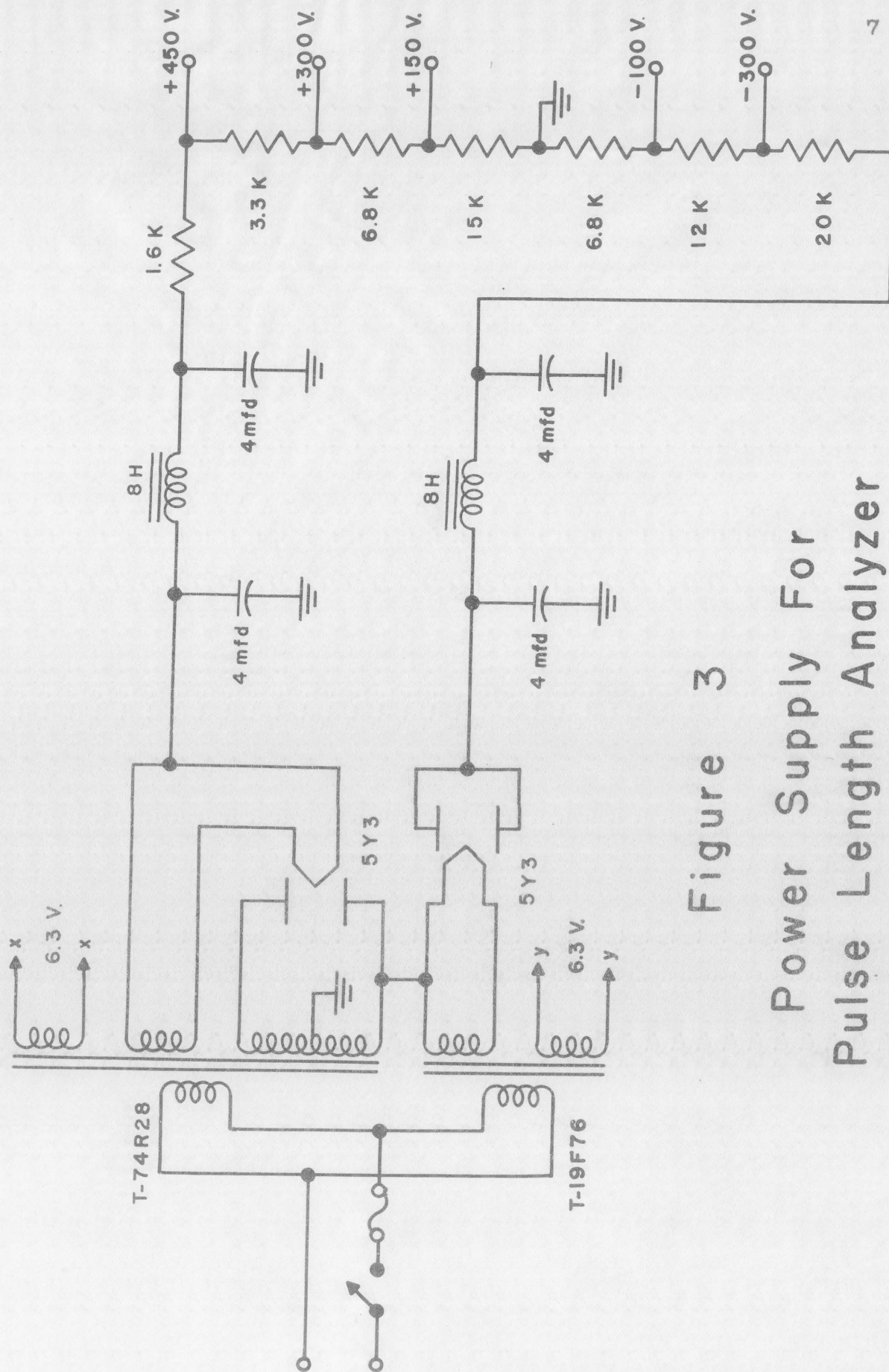


Figure 3
Power Supply For
Pulse Length Analyzer



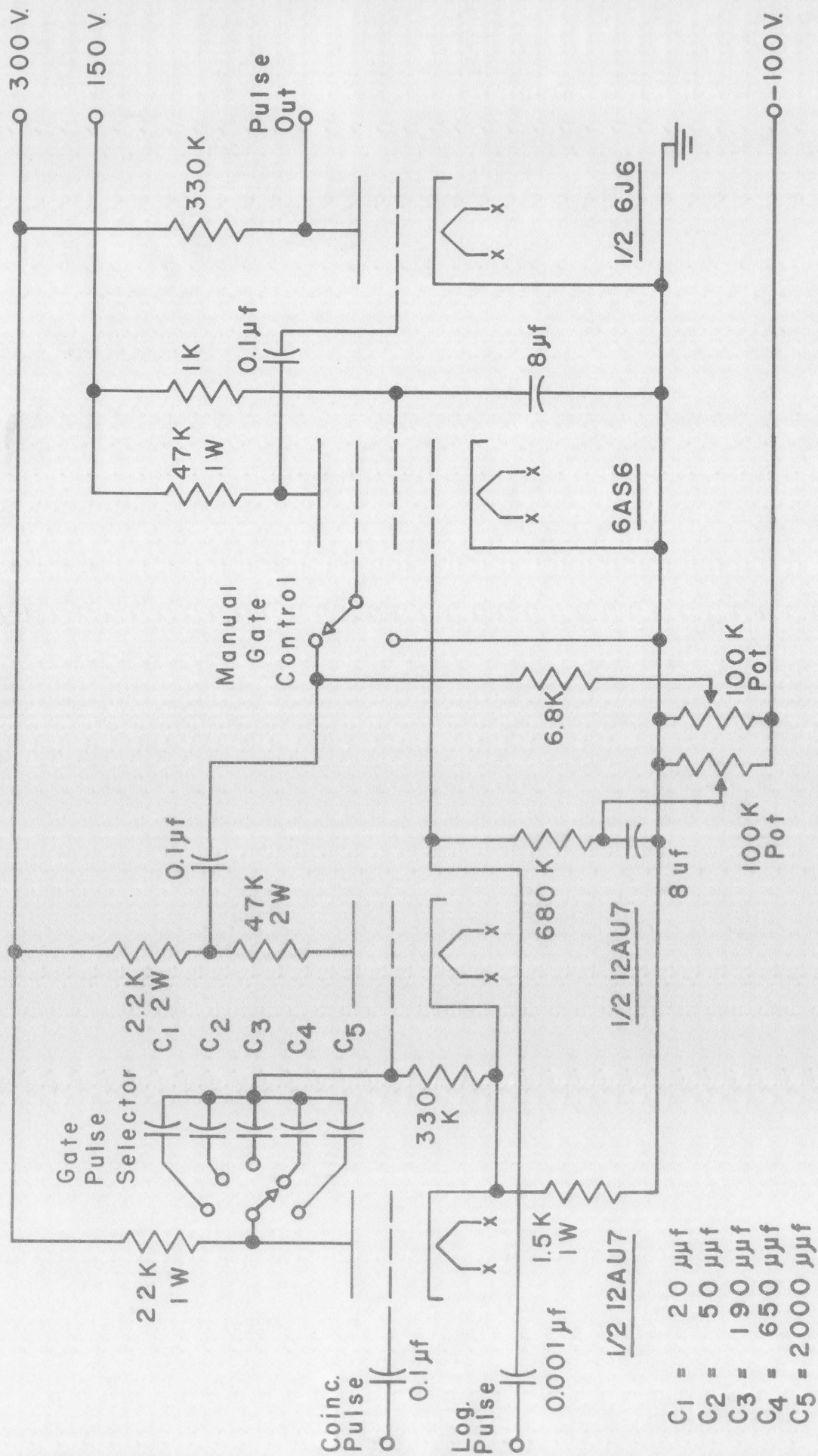


Figure 4
Univibrator, Gate, And Inverter

of the gate (See Fig. 4). One could, of course, make the length long enough to include, in one setting, all possible pulses from the logarithmic circuit, but this would increase the dead-time in the case of fast counting. This would also lead to the possibility of more than one scintillation pulse being counted for a single coincidence of the telescope. Thus, the variable-length coincidence pulse makes it possible to choose an optimum length for various ranges and rates of scintillator pulses.

The univibrator employed was cathode coupled. It was found that this model gave the sharpest pulses over the entire range desired, and it also eliminated any direct capacitance-coupled path between the input and the output.

It was noted that the output length was considerably affected by the input length. This was, however, discounted as being of little consequence since, in this particular circuit arrangement, the input pulse from the coincidence circuit would always be the same length. The capacitances, as given in Table I, were determined with input pulses from the coincidence circuit by which the univibrator would normally be activated.

III. THE GATE AND INVERTER

The gate tube used was a 6AS6. The pulse from the coincidence-univibrator is placed on the third grid. This grid can insure cut off, but even if it is positive, the nature of the pulse on the plate is still controlled by the

of the gate (see Fig. 2). One would, of course, like to
lengthen long enough to include, in one section, all possible
pulses from the logarithmic circuit, but this would increase
the dead-time in the case of fast counting. This would also
lead to the possibility of more than one activation pulse
being counted for a single occurrence of the reference.
Thus, the variable-length or instantaneous pulse width is used
to choose an optimum length for various ranges and rates
of activator pulses.

The activator employed was a pulse generator. It was
found that this model gave the shortest pulse over the
range desired, and it also eliminated any delay between
pulses coupled into between the input and the output.
It was noted that the output length was considerably
affected by the input pulse. This was, however, determined
as being of little consequence since, in this particular
circuit arrangement, the input pulse from the logarithmic
circuit would always be the same length. The pulse length
as given in Table I, was determined with input pulses from
the coincidence circuit of which the activator would not
nearly be activated.

III. THE DATA AND INTERPRETATION

The gate tube used was a 6AR5. The pulse from the
coincidence circuit is placed on the input gate. This
gate can be turned off, but even if it is possible, the
nature of the pulse on the input is still maintained by the

TABLE I

UNIVIBRATOR PULSES WITH CORRESPONDING CAPACITANCES

Capacitance (μpf)	Pulse Out ($\mu\text{sec.}$)
$C_1 = 20$	10
$C_2 = 50$	30
$C_3 = 190$	100
$C_4 = 650$	300
$C_5 = 2,000$	1,000

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Grades	(year)
01	= 80
02	= 80
03	= 100
04	= 100
05	= 1000

first grid. The pulse from the logarithmic circuit is placed on the first grid. If grid three is positive as the result of a coincidence pulse, there will be produced at the plate of the gating tube a pulse whose length is the same as that of the logarithmic pulse but whose polarity is reversed. An inverter follows to provide a positive pulse to trigger the sweep circuit. Fig. 5 gives the wave shapes from the input through the inverter.

IV. THE LINEAR SWEEP CIRCUIT

There are two simple methods for measuring a pulse length. One consists of turning on a high frequency oscillator for the duration of the pulse and measuring the number of oscillations occurring in this period; if the frequency of the oscillator is known, the length can be readily calculated. In the other method the length of the pulse is converted into an amplitude which can then be fed into an ordinary scaler or pulse-amplitude analyzer. The second method was the one employed in this work and the actual circuit used is shown in Fig. 6. Wave shapes for the circuit are given in Fig. 7.

From a qualitative point of view one can analyze the general operation of the circuit as follows. The incoming positive pulse arrives at the switching vacuum tube (5963) whose first section is normally conducting. The positive pulse turns on the first section which, in turn, cuts off

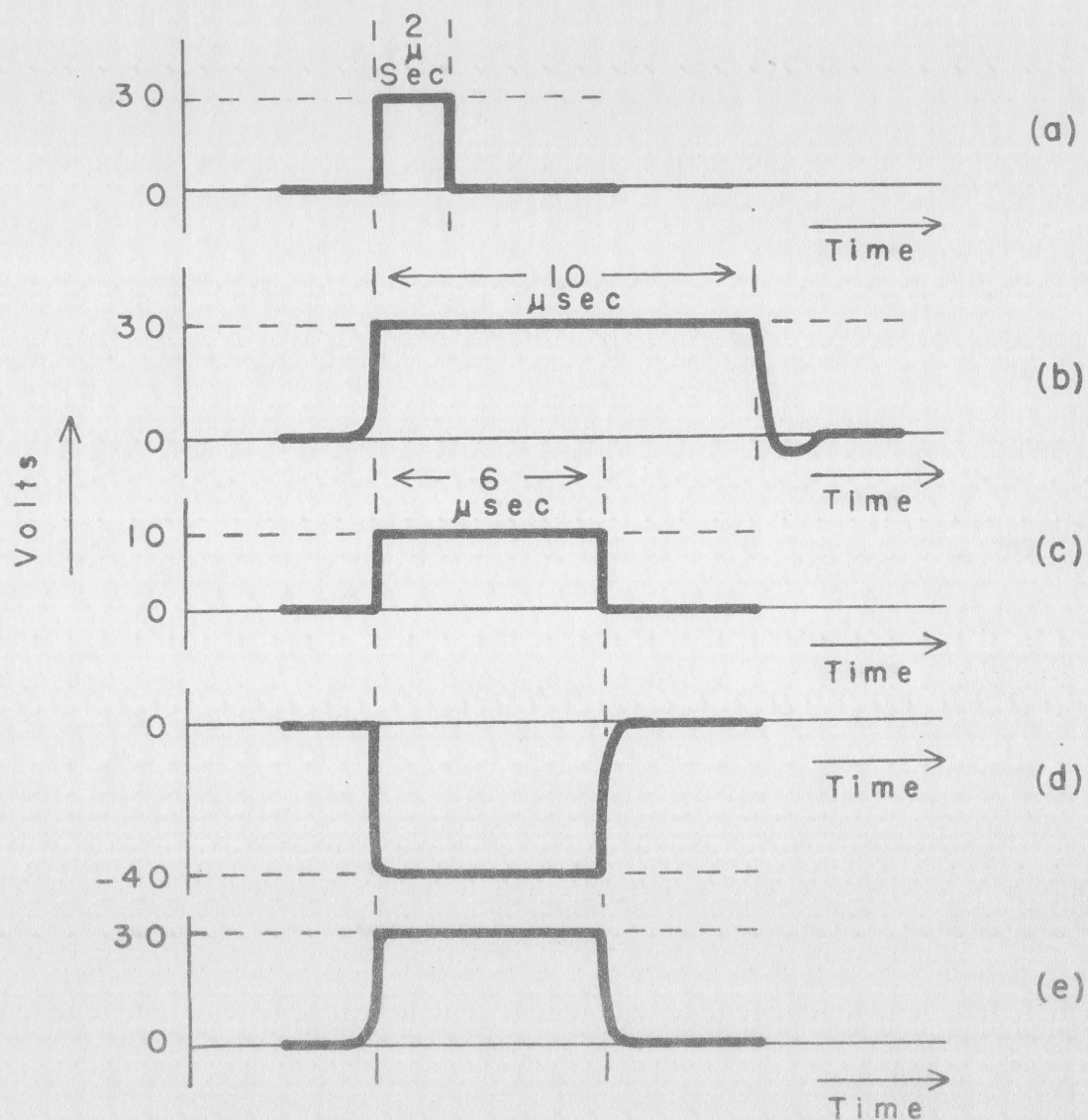


Figure 5

Wave Shapes Input Through inverter

- (a) Coincidence Pulse
- (b) Univibrator Pulse
- (c) Logarithmic Pulse
- (d) Gated Pulse
- (e) Inverted Pulse



Figure 2

Wave Shaper
about 1000 inverter

(a) Collector Pulse

(b) Inverter Pulse

(c) Inverter Pulse

(d) Inverter Pulse

(e) Inverter Pulse

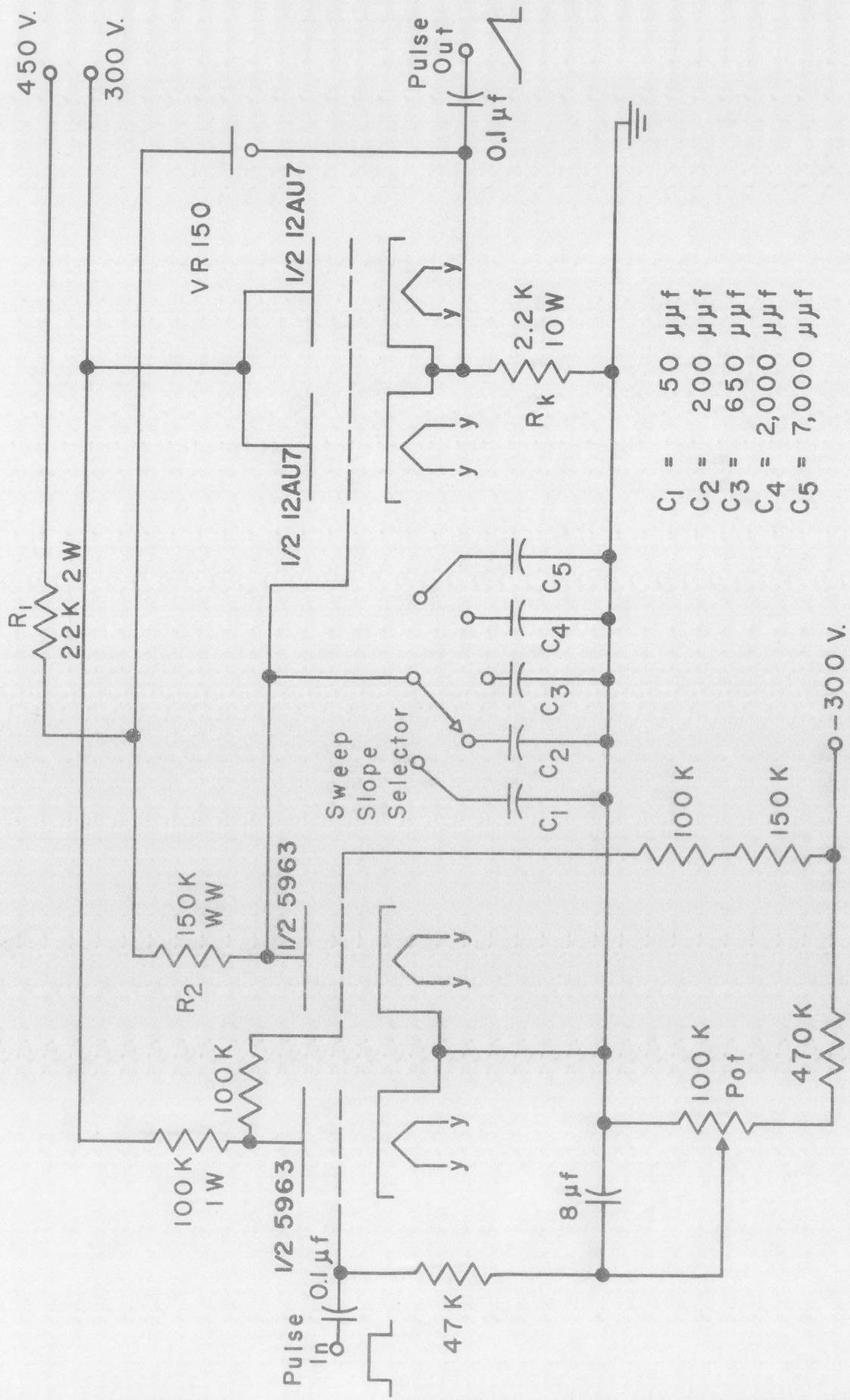
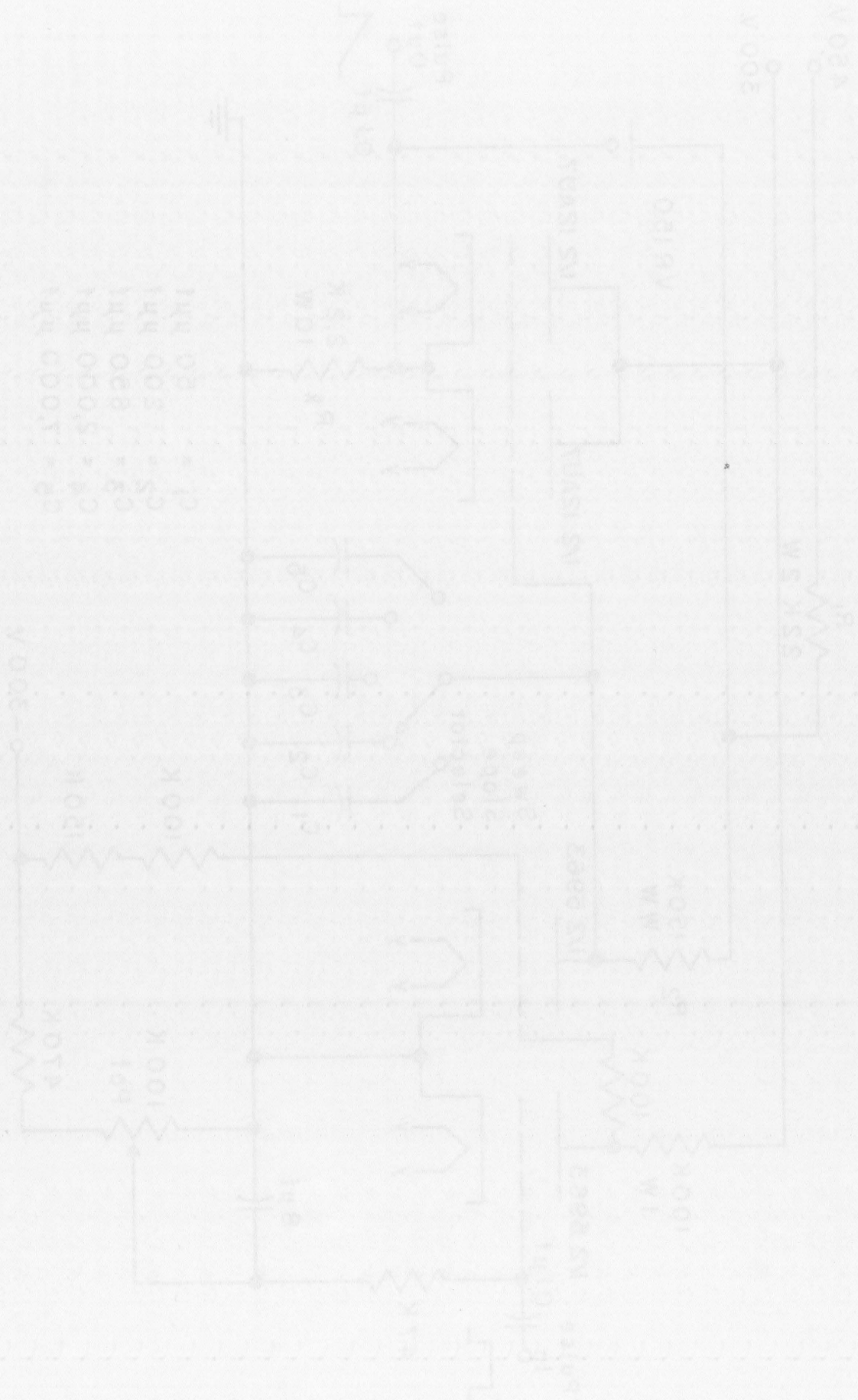


Figure 6
Linear Sweep Circuit

Figure 2

Figure 2



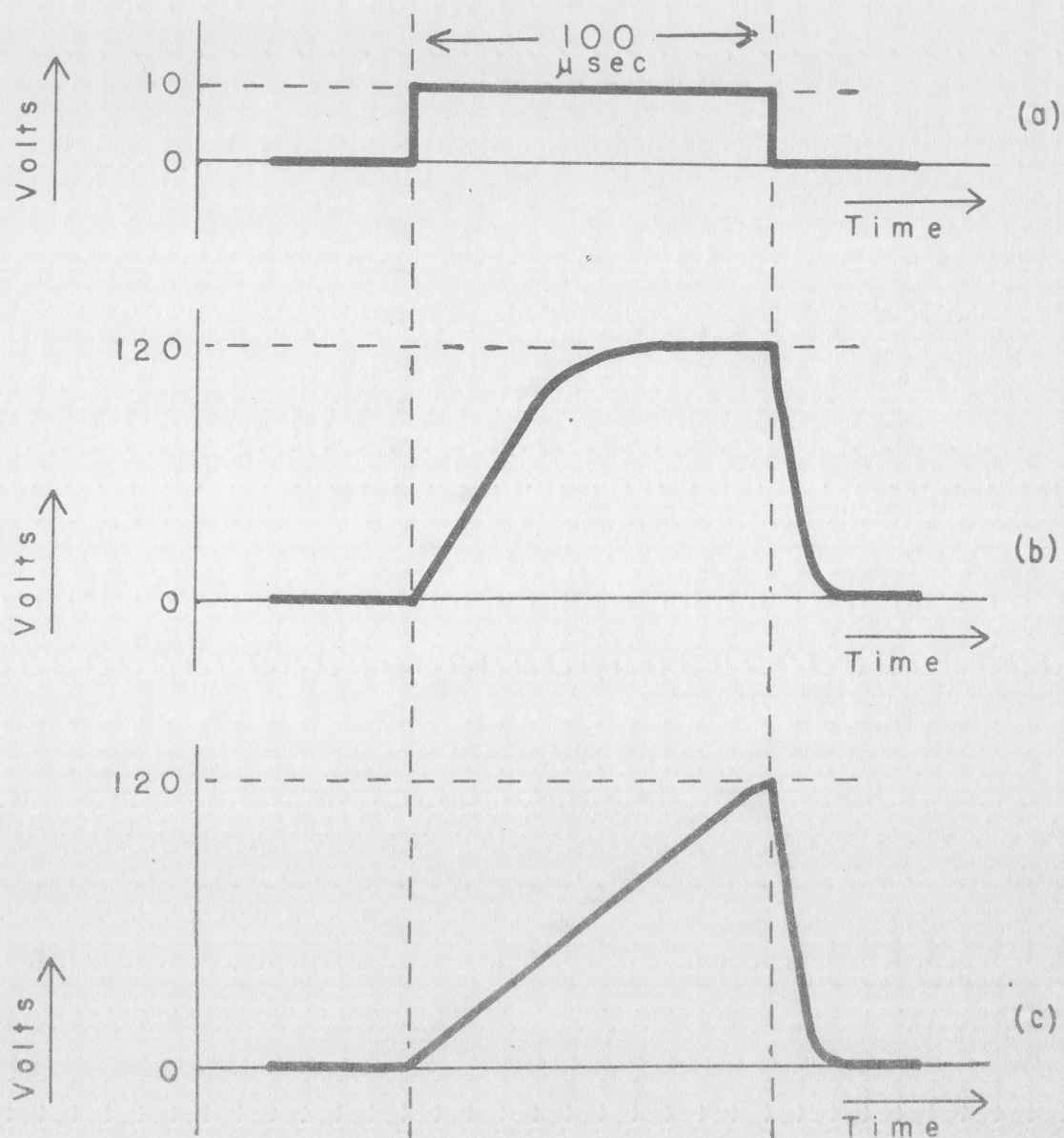


Figure 7

Wave Shapes For

Linear Sweep Circuit

- (a) Input Pulse
- (b) Sweep Pulse — No Feedback
- (c) Sweep Pulse

the second. Now, with the second stage conducting, the plate potential is relatively low, in the neighborhood of five volts for this circuit. When it is cut off, the plate potential cannot rise immediately to the supply potential because current must still flow through the plate resistor to charge the capacitor, C. This produces a finite rise-time for the plate potential; and, if the remainder of the circuit were omitted, the wave shape would appear as indicated in Fig. 7b. If the cathode follower and the VR tube are added as a form of feedback, the potential towards which the capacitor charges is maintained at approximately the same value. To the degree that this potential remains constant, so does the charging current to the capacitor remain constant. As a result, the potential of the capacitor should increase at a constant rate. The circuit employs several values of the charging capacitors that can be chosen to give a charging rate that is optimum for the range of pulse lengths being investigated.

The circuit will now be analyzed in a more quantitative fashion. A simplified schematic diagram is given in Fig. 8. The equations which describe the operation of the circuit are the following:

$$E_o = (i_b + i_i) R_k + V_o + (i_1 + i_2) R_1 \quad (1)$$

$$E_o = i_2 R_2 + e_c + (i_1 + i_2) R_1 \quad (2)$$

$$E_b = e_b + (i_b + i_i) R_k \quad (3)$$

$$e_g = e_c - e_k \quad (4)$$

$$di_b = g_m de_g + \frac{1}{r_p} de_b \quad (5)$$

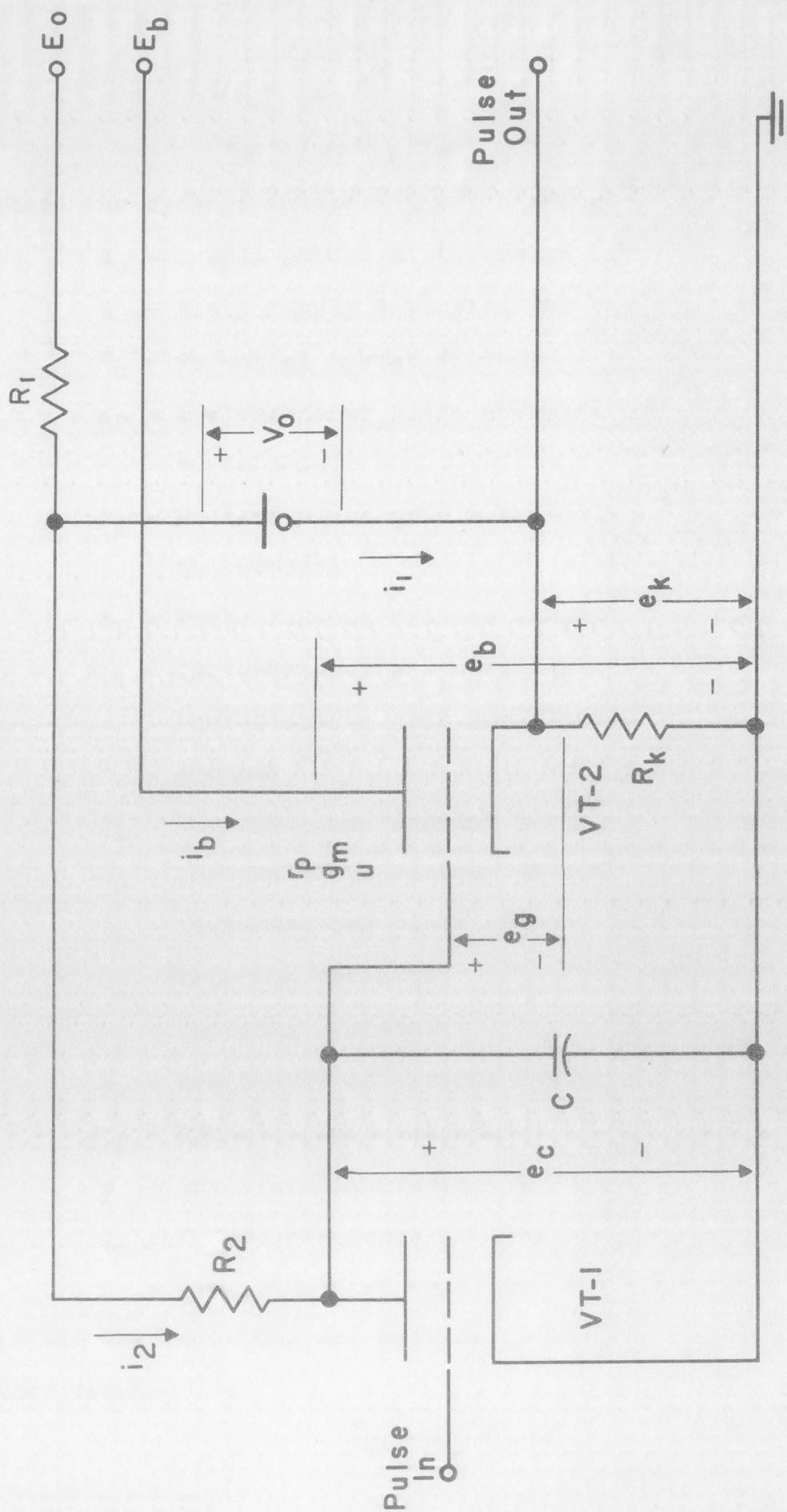


Figure 8
Simplified Sweep Circuit

$$de_c = i_2 \frac{dt}{C} \quad (6)$$

$$e_k = (i_1 + i_b) R_k \quad (7)$$

where the symbols indicate the following:

- E_o - Supply potential to charge capacitor
- E_b - Plate supply potential for VT-2
- V_o - Potential across VR tube
- e_b - Instantaneous plate potential of VT-2 (relative to cathode)
- e_g - Instantaneous grid potential of VT-2 (relative to cathode)
- e_k - Instantaneous cathode potential of VT-2
- e_c - Instantaneous potential across capacitor (also instantaneous grid potential of VT-2 relative to ground)
- i_1 - Instantaneous current through resistance, R_1
- i_2 - Instantaneous current through resistance, R_2
- i_b - Instantaneous plate current of VT-2
- R_1 - Dropping resistor
- R_2 - Charging resistor
- R_k - Resistance of cathode resistor of VT-2
- r_p - Dynamic plate resistance of VT-2
- μ - Amplification factor of VT-2
- g_m - Transconductance of VT-2
- C - Capacitance of capacitor to be charged

If all the equations are written in terms of small changes, they become

$$(di_b + di_1) R_k + (di_1 + di_2) R_1 = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$66 = 12 \frac{1}{2}$$

$$64 = (12 \frac{1}{2})^2$$

where the symbols indicate the following

H_0 - Supply of total factor

H_1 - Private supply of total factor

V_0 - Total value added

V_1 - Value added in the private sector

to calculate

α_0 - Elasticity of total factor

to calculate

α_1 - Elasticity of total factor

α_2 - Elasticity of total factor

the elasticity of total factor

to calculate

α_3 - Elasticity of total factor

α_4 - Elasticity of total factor

α_5 - Elasticity of total factor

α_6 - Elasticity of total factor

α_7 - Elasticity of total factor

α_8 - Elasticity of total factor

α_9 - Elasticity of total factor

α_{10} - Elasticity of total factor

α_{11} - Elasticity of total factor

α_{12} - Elasticity of total factor

α_{13} - Elasticity of total factor

α_{14} - Elasticity of total factor

α_{15} - Elasticity of total factor

α_{16} - Elasticity of total factor

α_{17} - Elasticity of total factor

α_{18} - Elasticity of total factor

$$di_2 R_2 + de_c + (di_1 + di_2) R_1 = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$de_b + (di_b + di_1) R_k = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$de_g + de_k - de_c = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$di_b - g_m de_g - \frac{1}{r_p} de_b = 0 \quad (5)$$

$$de_c - i_2 \frac{dt}{C} = 0 \quad (6)$$

$$de_k - (di_1 + di_b) R_k = 0 \quad (7)$$

These equations are solved for i_2 by first obtaining di_b/dt and di_1/dt in terms of i_2 and di_2/dt , and then solving the resulting differential equation for i_2 .

Subtracting equation (2) from (1) and substituting e_c from equation (6) gives

$$\frac{di_2}{dt} = \frac{1}{R_2} \left[\frac{di_b}{dt} + \frac{di_1}{dt} \right] R_k - \frac{i_2}{C} \quad (8)$$

di_b/dt is obtained by substituting for de_g and de_b from equations (4) and (3) into (5) so that

$$di_b - g_m (de_c - de_k) + \frac{R_k}{r_p} (di_b + di_1) = 0$$

Substituting for de_k and de_c from (7) and (6) gives

$$\frac{di_b}{dt} = \frac{1}{[r_p + (\mu+1)R_k]} \left[\frac{\mu i_2}{C} - (\mu+1)R_k \frac{di_1}{dt} \right] \quad (9)$$

From equation (2) one can solve for di_1 to obtain

$$di_1 = -\frac{1}{R_1} \left[di_2 R_1 + de_c + di_2 R_2 \right]$$

Substituting for de_c from (6) gives

$$di_1 = -\frac{1}{R_1} \left[di_2 (R_1 + R_2) + \frac{i_2 dt}{C} \right]$$

Solving for di_1/dt

Let $y = u + v$ where u is a function of x and v is a function of x .

Then $y' = u' + v'$ and $y'' = u'' + v''$.

Substituting $y = u + v$ and $y' = u' + v'$ into the differential equation, we get

These equations are satisfied if u and v are functions of x and y in terms of x and y respectively.

Substituting $y = u + v$ and $y' = u' + v'$ into the differential equation, we get

$$u'' + v'' + p(u' + v') + q(u + v) = r$$

From equation (1) and (2) we get

$$u'' + p u' + q u = r$$

$$v'' + p v' + q v = 0$$

From equation (1) and (2) we get

$$u'' + p u' + q u = r$$

$$v'' + p v' + q v = 0$$

Solving for u and v

$$\frac{di_1}{dt} = - \left[\frac{di_2}{dt} + \frac{di_2}{dt} \frac{R_2}{R_1} + \frac{i_2}{R_1 C} \right] \quad (10)$$

Substituting equation (9) and then (10) into (8) yields

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{di_2}{dt} \left[R_1 R_2 \gamma_p + R_1 R_2 R_K (\mu + 1) + R_1 R_K \gamma_p + R_2 R_K \gamma_p \right] \\ & + \frac{i_2}{C} \left[R_1 \gamma_p + R_1 R_K + R_K \gamma_p \right] = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Now by setting

$$\alpha = \left[R_1 R_2 \gamma_p + R_1 R_2 R_K (\mu + 1) + R_1 R_K \gamma_p + R_2 R_K \gamma_p \right]$$

and

$$\beta = \left[R_1 \gamma_p + R_1 R_K + R_K \gamma_p \right] \frac{1}{C}$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \frac{di_2}{dt} + \beta i_2 &= 0 \\ i_2 &= i_{20} e^{-\frac{\beta}{\alpha} t} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

$$\frac{di_2}{dt} = -\frac{\beta}{\alpha} i_{20} e^{-\frac{\beta}{\alpha} t} \quad (13)$$

At this point it is now possible to find e_k , which is the desired variable since this is the output potential. Substituting first equation (9) and then (10) into (7) gives

$$\frac{da}{dt} = -\left[\frac{a}{\tau_1} + \frac{a}{\tau_2} + \frac{a}{\tau_3} \right]$$

Substituting eq. (1) into eq. (2) gives

Yields

$$\frac{da}{dt} [R_1 + R_2 + R_3] = -a$$

$$+ \frac{a}{\tau_1} [R_1 + R_2 + R_3] = 0$$

Now by eq. (1)

$$a = [R_1 + R_2 + R_3] \tau_1$$

and

$$b = [R_1 + R_2 + R_3] \tau_2$$

then

$$a = \frac{b}{\tau_2} \tau_1$$

Substituting

$$a = \frac{b}{\tau_2} \tau_1$$

$$\frac{da}{dt} = \frac{db}{dt} \frac{\tau_1}{\tau_2}$$

As only τ_1 and τ_2 are constants, the desired variation of a with b is

the desired variation of a with b is

Substituting this variation into eq. (1) gives

$$\frac{de_k}{dt} = \frac{-R_k \gamma_p (R_1 + R_2)}{R_1 [\gamma_p + (\mu+1) R_k]} \frac{di_2}{dt} + \frac{R_k}{R_1 C} \frac{\mu R_1 - \gamma_p}{\gamma_p + (\mu+1) R_k} i_2$$

Whereupon, substituting for i_2 and di_2/dt from (12) and (13)

leaves

$$\frac{de_k}{dt} = \left[\frac{C \gamma_p \beta (R_1 + R_2)}{\alpha} + \mu R_1 - \gamma_p \right] \frac{R_k i_{20} e^{-\frac{\rho}{\alpha} t}}{C R_1 [\gamma_p + (\mu+1) R_k]}$$

Then, substituting for α and β gives

$$\frac{de_k}{dt} = \frac{R_1 R_k}{C} \frac{[\gamma_p^2 + \gamma_p R_1 + \gamma_p R_2 \mu + \gamma_p R_k \mu + R_2 R_k \mu (\mu+1)]}{[\gamma_p R_1 R_2 + \gamma_p R_1 R_k + \gamma_p R_2 R_k + R_1 R_2 R_k (\mu+1)]} \frac{i_{20} e^{-\frac{\rho}{\alpha} t}}{[\gamma_p + (\mu+1) R_k]}$$

By setting

$$\gamma = \frac{i_{20} R_1 R_k}{C} \frac{\gamma_p^2 + \gamma_p R_1 + \gamma_p R_2 \mu + \gamma_p R_k \mu + R_2 R_k \mu (\mu+1)}{[\gamma_p R_1 R_2 + \gamma_p R_1 R_k + \gamma_p R_2 R_k + R_1 R_2 R_k (\mu+1)] [\gamma_p + (\mu+1) R_k]} \quad (14)$$

the equation becomes

$$\frac{de_k}{dt} = \gamma e^{-\frac{\rho}{\alpha} t}$$

which, when integrated gives

$$e_k = e_{k0} + \frac{\alpha}{\rho} \gamma [1 - e^{-\frac{\rho}{\alpha} t}]$$

and if $\frac{\rho}{\alpha} t \ll 1$, the exponential function can be expanded and only the first order term retained so that

$$e_k = e_{k0} + \frac{\alpha}{\rho} \gamma \frac{\rho}{\alpha} t$$

or

$$e_k = e_{k0} + \gamma t \quad (15)$$

From this it is evident that γ is the slope of the sweep curve.

If a particular set of values from the circuit are substituted in equation (14) it is found that

represented in Figure 1. The curves are

From this it is evident that the curves

are

only for $\frac{b}{a} \ll 1$, the curves are

and $\frac{b}{a} \ll 1$, the curves are

which, when $\frac{b}{a} \ll 1$, the curves are

the equation becomes

by setting

Then, substituting in (1) and (2) we get

leaves

Whence, substituting in (1) and (2) we get

or

$$\gamma = \frac{71.8}{81.8} \frac{i_{20}}{C}$$

$$\gamma = 0.88 \frac{i_{20}}{C}$$

where $r_p = 3.5k$

and $\mu = 20$.

i_{20} is given by

$$i_{20} = \frac{e_{K0} + V_0 - e_{c0}}{R_2}$$

and for this particular circuit this is 166/150,000 volts/ohm.

Therefore

$$\gamma = \frac{71.8}{81.8} \times \frac{166}{150,000} \times \frac{1}{C}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{0.976}{C} \times 10^{-3} \frac{\text{Volts}}{\text{second}}$$

Figure 9 shows the relation between the measured input pulse lengths and the corresponding output pulse amplitudes for the ranges that could easily be checked. Table II gives the expected slopes as calculated from the above expression for the corresponding capacitances as well as the actual slopes measured at the cathode of the cathode follower by an oscilloscope. In actual practice a trimmer capacitor was added where necessary to provide fine adjustment.

The value for γ is critically sensitive to only a few of the parameters of the circuit, since in practice $R_2 > R_1 > r_p$, R_K . If the terms which do not appreciably affect γ be neglected, then one is left with

420 is given by

$$Y = \frac{254}{217} \cdot \frac{100}{100000} \cdot C$$

$$Y = \frac{0.00117}{C} \cdot 100$$

Figure 2 shows the calculated values for the

and data for the

data for the

gives the

expression for the

actual values

by an

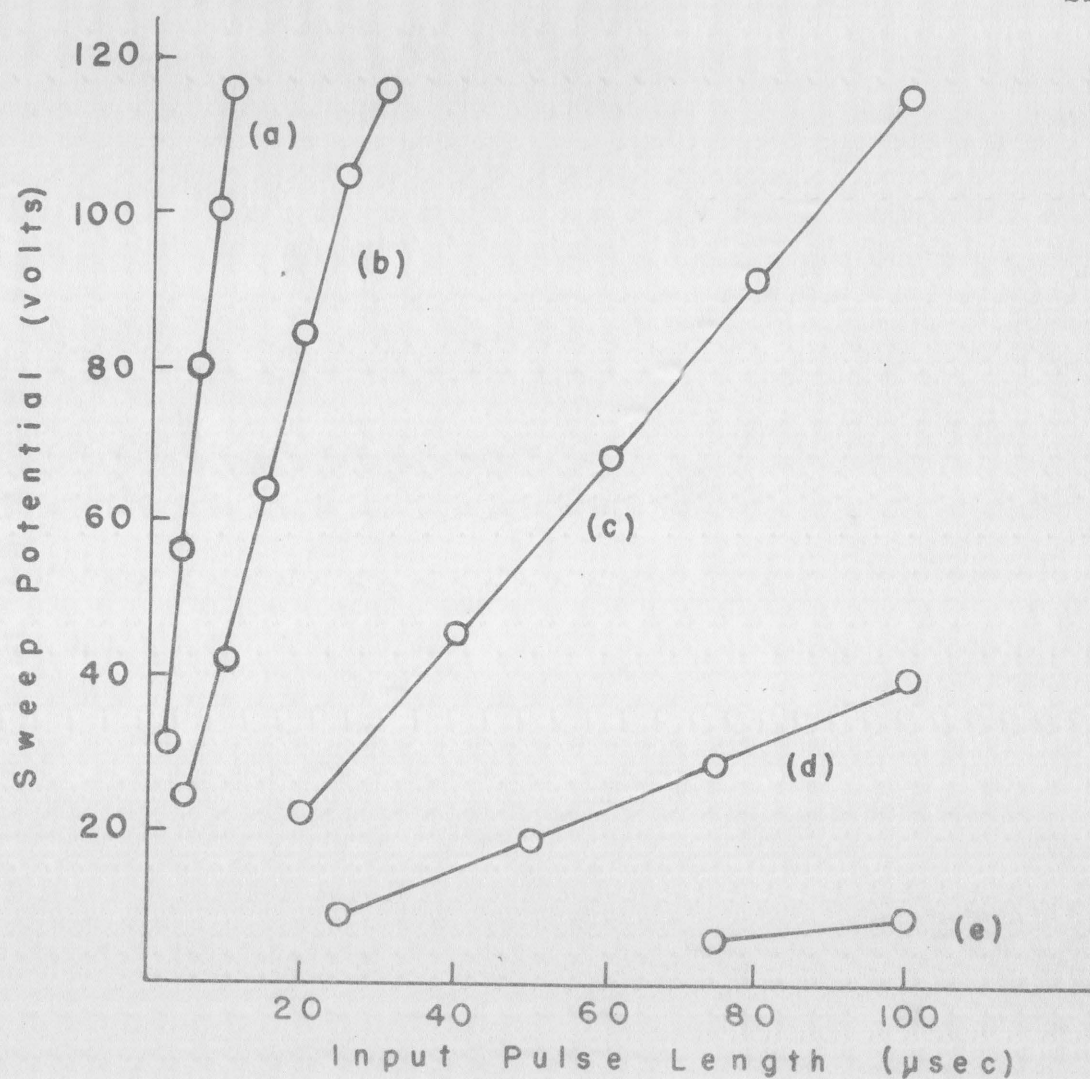
was added when

The value for

of the

It is

neglected, then



(a)	$C_1 = 50 \mu\mu f$	Slope = 11.6	v/ μ sec
(b)	$C_2 = 200 \mu\mu f$	Slope = 3.86	v/ μ sec
(c)	$C_3 = 650 \mu\mu f$	Slope = 1.16	v/ μ sec
(d)	$C_4 = 2000 \mu\mu f$	Slope = 0.400	v/ μ sec
(e)	$C = 7000 \mu\mu f$	Slope = 0.114	v/ μ sec

Figure 9

Input Pulse Length
vs
Sweep Pulse Amplitude



Figure 3. Output pulse amplitude versus input pulse length for different values of the input pulse width. (a) $t_p = 0.1 \mu s$, (b) $t_p = 0.2 \mu s$, (c) $t_p = 0.5 \mu s$, (d) $t_p = 1 \mu s$.

Input Pulse Length

Output Pulse Amplitude

TABLE II
ACTUAL AND EXPECTED SLOPES
FROM THE LINEAR SWEEP CIRCUIT WITH
CORRESPONDING CAPACITANCES

Maximum Rise Time (μ sec)	C (μ pf)	Expected Slope Volts/ μ sec.	Actual Slope Volts/ μ sec.
1000	7000	0.139	0.114
300	2000	0.488	0.400
100	650	1.50	1.16
30	200	4.88	3.86
10	50	13.9	11.6

$$\gamma = \frac{i_{20} R_1 R_K}{C} \frac{r_p R_2 \mu + R_2 R_K \mu (\mu + 1)}{[R_1 R_2 r_p + R_1 R_2 R_K (\mu + 1)][r_p + (\mu + 1) R_K]}$$

which, upon further simplification, reduces to

$$\gamma = \frac{i_{20}}{C} \frac{R_K \mu}{r_p + (\mu + 1) R_K} = 0.88 \frac{i_{20}}{C} \quad (17)$$

It can be noted here that the value of the slope is insensitive to small variations in R_1 . In fact, the remaining expression for γ is that for the initial slope of a capacitor charging to the potential $[V_0 + e_K - e_0]$ through the resistance R_2 multiplied by the constant, 0.88.

The deviation of the actual slopes from the calculated ones was a matter of some concern. Several possibilities for partial explanation can be found. In the first place, considerable difficulty was encountered in measuring the initial current and the total rise time accurately. On the basis of several different values obtained from several different instruments it appears that the uncertainty in all measured potentials is approximately 10 per cent. In addition to this, the component resistances and capacitances had tolerances of only 10 per cent. In one case the substitution of a supposedly equal-valued capacitor for C resulted in a change in sweep time of almost 20 per cent.

By letting $V = e_{k0} + V_0 - e_{c0}$

and

$$\delta V = 0.1 V$$

the root-mean-square deviation of can be calculated from

$$y = \frac{2.5 \times 10^{-4}}{C}$$

which, upon further analysis, yields

$$y = \frac{2.5 \times 10^{-4}}{C} \ln \frac{1 + C}{1 - C}$$

It can be noted from the above that the value of y is directly proportional to $\ln \frac{1 + C}{1 - C}$. The relationship between y and C is shown in Figure 1. The curve is a straight line passing through the origin, indicating that y is directly proportional to C .

The deviation of the experimental data from the theoretical curve was a matter of some interest. Several points were plotted for partial evaluation of the theory. The results are shown in Figure 2. The deviation is not too large, and the initial curve and the experimental data are in good agreement. The basis of several different calculations is shown in Figure 3. The results are in good agreement with the theoretical curve. The deviation is not too large, and the initial curve and the experimental data are in good agreement. The basis of several different calculations is shown in Figure 3. The results are in good agreement with the theoretical curve.

$$y = \frac{2.5 \times 10^{-4}}{C} \ln \frac{1 + C}{1 - C}$$

and

$$y = \frac{2.5 \times 10^{-4}}{C} \ln \frac{1 + C}{1 - C}$$

The two curves are in good agreement with the theoretical curve.

$$\overline{e^2} = \sum_{i=1}^w \left[\frac{\partial F(x_i)}{\partial x_i} \right]^2 \overline{\Delta x_i^2} \quad 1$$

Using this on equation (16) gives for $\overline{d\gamma^2}$

$$\overline{d\gamma^2} = \left[\frac{\mu}{r_p/R_k + \mu + 1} \right]^2 \left[\frac{V}{R_k C} \right]^2 \left[\frac{dV^2}{V^2} + \frac{dR_k^2}{R_k^2} + \frac{dC^2}{C^2} + \frac{dV_p^2}{R_k^2} + \frac{V_p^2}{R_k^4} \overline{dR_k^2} \right]$$

and for the particular value $C = 0.002$ mfd, $d\gamma$ is

$$d\gamma = 0.136 \times 10^6 \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{second}}$$

The measured value is 0.400 ± 0.04 volts/microsecond and that calculated is 0.488 volts/microsecond. Thus, the uncertainty in the calculated value because of propagation of errors is larger than the difference between the calculated and the observed values.

One might expect a systematic deviation to appear because of stray capacitances in leads, in the 6J6, and in the VR tube; but the figures obtained do not indicate such a deviation. If it does exist it is overshadowed by the deviation calculated above.

There also remains the possibility of stray inductances producing a lag in the rise time. With the current through the cathode changing at a rate of 10^6 volts/second, an inductance of one microhenry would produce a back emf of 1 volt. However, although the cathode resistor was wire-wound and would seem to be a good source of the emf, there

¹W. Edwards Deming, Statistical Adjustment of Data (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1944), p. 40.

$$\bar{\sigma}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{y_i^2}{\Delta x_i^2} \right]$$

Using this on equation (12) gives for $\bar{\sigma}^2$

$$\bar{\sigma}^2 = \left[\frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{V}{R^2 C} \right)^2 \left[\frac{V}{R^2 C} + \frac{V}{R^2 C} + \frac{V}{R^2 C} + \frac{V}{R^2 C} + \frac{V}{R^2 C} \right] \right]$$

and for the particular value $C = 0.01$ and $R = 1$

$$\bar{\sigma}^2 = 0.132 \times 10^{-6}$$

The measured value is 0.001 0.001 a, and the that calculated is 0.001 0.001 a, and the certainty in the calculated value is 0.001 0.001 a, and the error is larger than the difference between the calculated and the observed values.

One might expect a systematic variation in the cause of error, especially in the case of the VR tube; but the difference between the calculated and the observed values is 0.001 0.001 a, and the error is larger than the difference between the calculated and the observed values.

There also seems to be a possibility of a systematic variation in the cause of error, especially in the case of the VR tube; but the difference between the calculated and the observed values is 0.001 0.001 a, and the error is larger than the difference between the calculated and the observed values.

I. Stewart Lewis, Department of Physics
New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

was no appreciable change noted when a carbon two-watt resistor was put in its place. Of course, the current of 75 ma. going through this resistor heated the carbon quite rapidly and could have changed its resistance.

Another point of interest was the fact that the total increase in the rising potential was limited to 120 volts. Whenever the potential neared this point a slight rounding off occurred and then the potential leveled off.

The answer is found to lie with the existence of grid current in the cathode follower which, up to now, has been assumed to be negligible.

In order to check for grid current a resistor of 2.2 K was inserted in the grid circuit. When the capacitor, C, was charged the potential across this resistor, as measured on an oscilloscope, was 2 volts which corresponds to a grid current of about 1 ma.

This grid current produces a potential drop of 150 volts across R_2 . The charging current, i_2 , is also of the order of 1 ma. as shown in equation (16). Therefore, when both currents flow through R_2 a potential drop of 300 volts is produced across R_2 which sets a maximum of 150 volts for e_c since the supply potential is 450 volts. The maximum is reduced somewhat by the current in the VR tube which maintains a potential drop across R_1 .

Grid current also has another effect on the output pulse. Because the maximum e_k is 120 volts while $e_k + V_o$

attempts to reach 450 volts due to the current through R_2 the VR tube draws so little current it will no longer regulate. Thus, i_2 no longer remains constant and the slight rounding off results on the top of the pulse, leaving the rest quite linear.

The rate with which the output pulse returns to zero is a function of the first tube of the sweep circuit. The 5963 was picked as giving the sharpest drop from among a group of similar tubes that included a 12AT7, a 12AU7, and a 12AX7.

attempts to reach 450 volts due to the fact that
the VR tube draws so little current it is no longer
late. Thus, it no longer remains constant and the
rounding off results on the top of the pulse, leaving the
rest quite linear.

The rate with which the output voltage rises
is a function of the time constant of the RC circuit. The
5983 was picked as giving the sharpest output pulse
group of similar tubes since it had a τ of 1.2 μ sec.
12AX7.

CHAPTER III

CONCLUSION

A circuit has been developed to perform the required function of producing a pulse whose height is accurately proportional to the length of an input pulse. A required gating function is also included.

An elementary analysis of the circuit predicts the observed behavior of the circuit within expected limits of error.

Some difficulty may be encountered in counting very long pulses. If the counter input time constant is small, the long pulses will be differentiated. This could be remedied by first differentiating and then re-amplifying the abrupt drop at the end of the sweep pulse; but, since this drop is not linear, one stands to lose some of the linearity just obtained in the sweep circuit. This is especially true for short pulses where the drop at the end is most non-linear.

The author is indebted to Professor John R. Green for suggesting this analyzer and for much advice while it was being constructed.

CHAPTER 11

CONCLUSION

A circuit has been developed to produce the required function of producing a pulse whose height is proportional to the length of an input pulse. A similar gating function is also included.

An elementary analysis of the circuit produces a theoretical behavior of the circuit which is compared with the observed behavior.

Some difficulties may be encountered in connecting long pulses. If the counter, input and output is used, the long pulses will be distorted. This is due to the fact that the first differentiating and long pulses are distorted by the drop at the end of the input pulse. This drop is not linear, the standard of input, and the resulting just obtained in the wave output. This is a difficulty for short pulses where the drop at the end is not linear.

The author is indebted to Professor John J. Van Dine for suggesting this analyzer and for much advice while it was being constructed.

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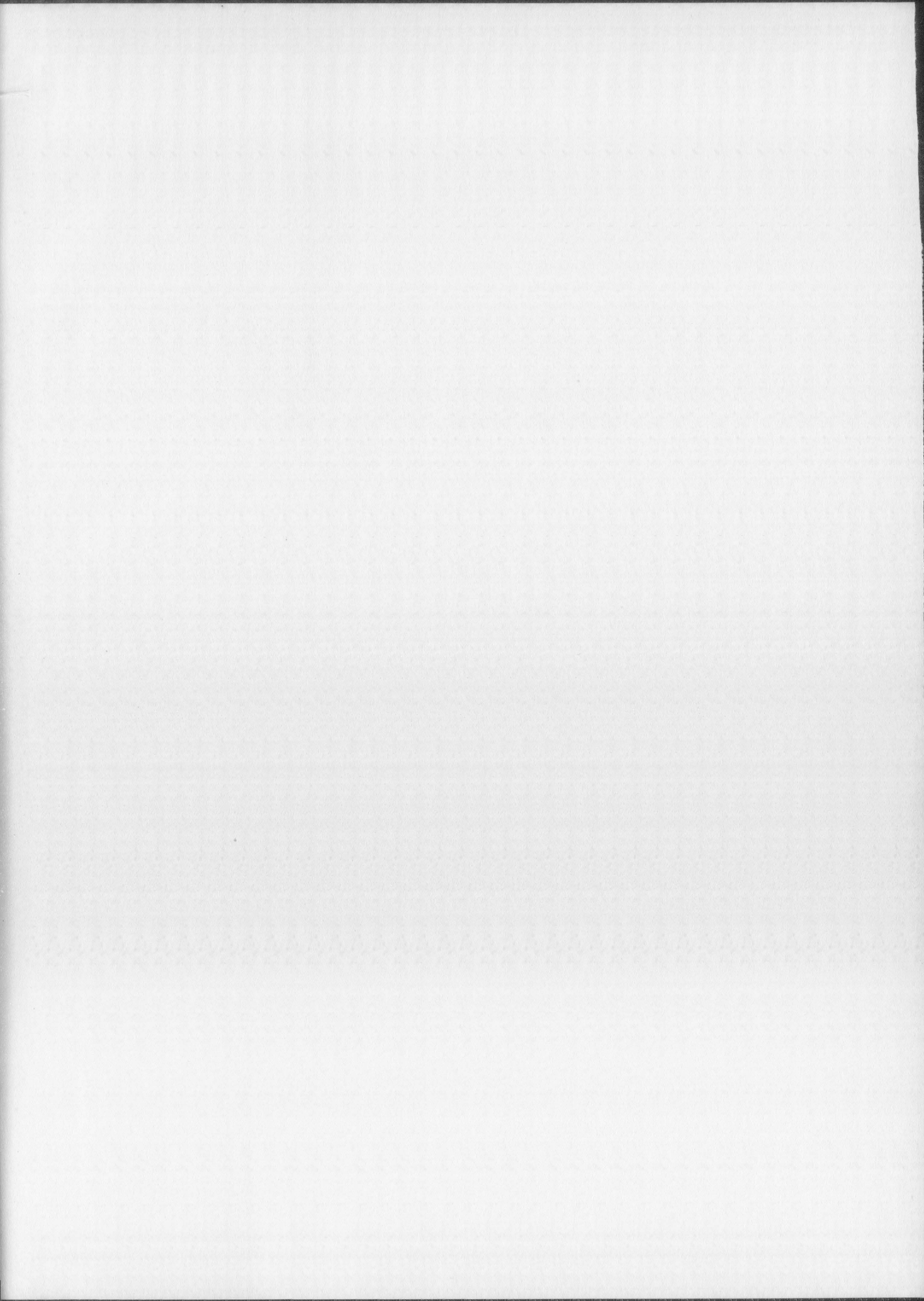
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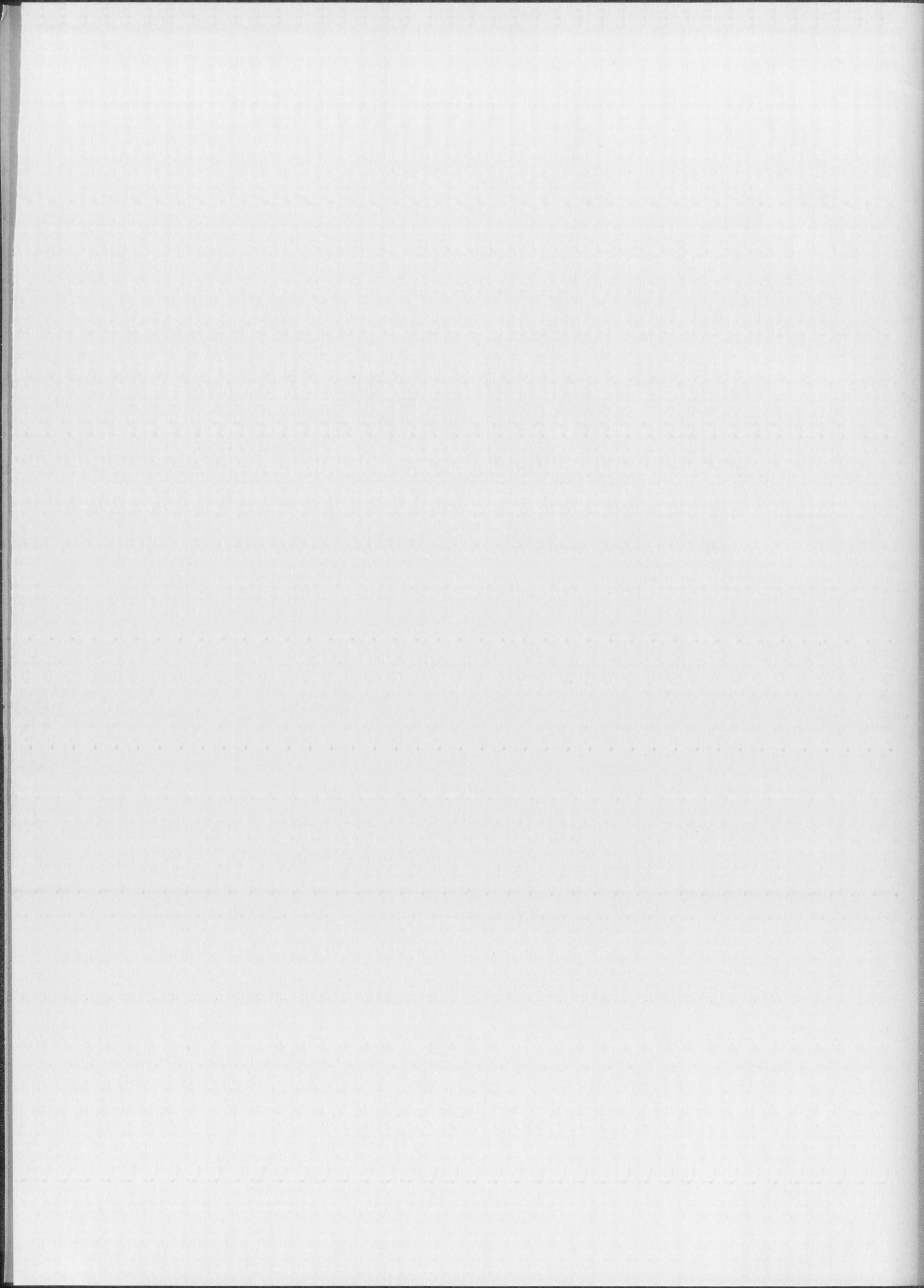
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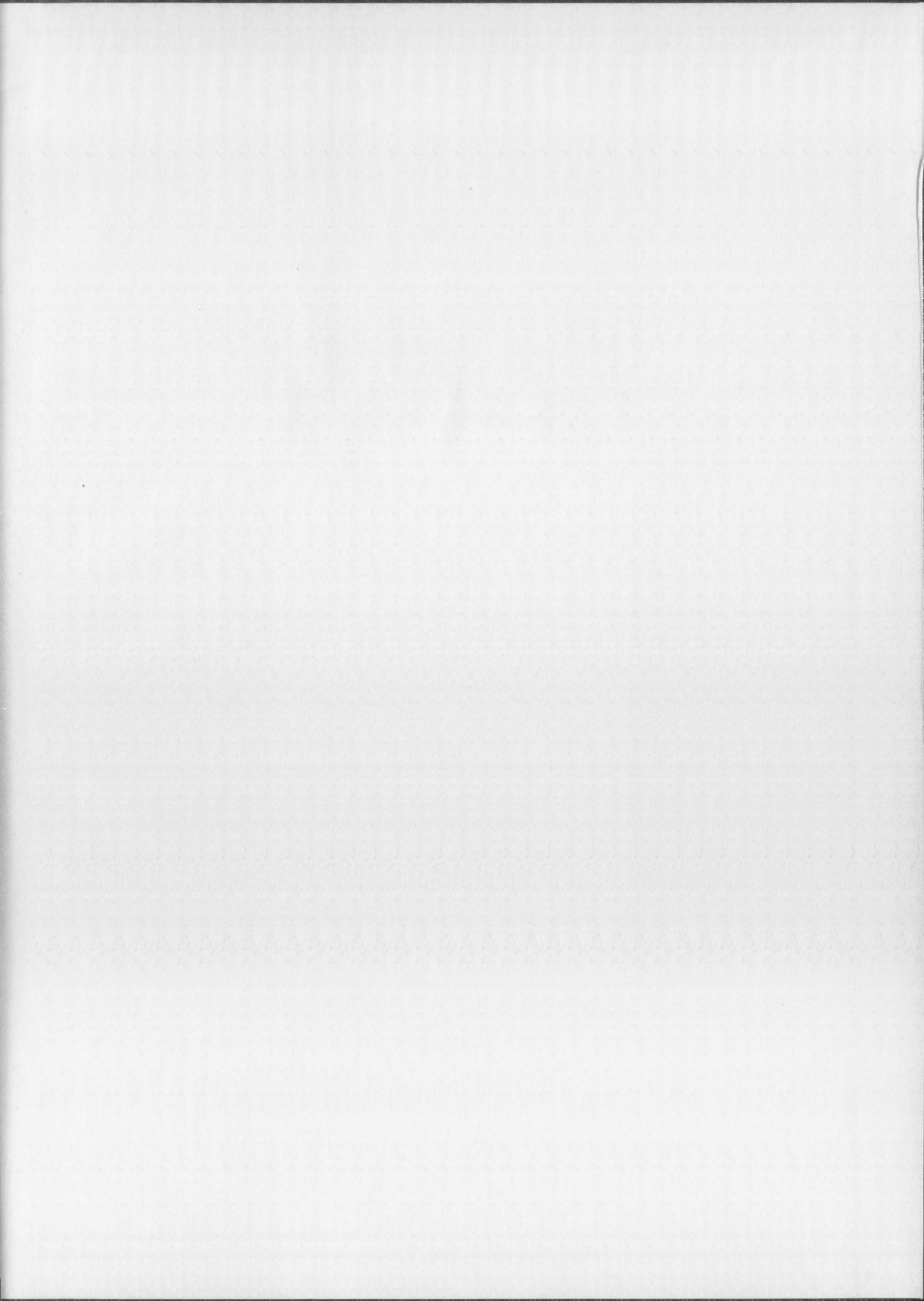
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