Circuits containing periodically-operated switches in particular resonant-transfer circuits

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CIRCUITS CONTAINING PERIODICALLY-OPERATED SWITCHES

in particular

RESONANT-TRANSFER CIRCUITS

by

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1. Introduction
   1.1. Circuits containing periodically-operated switches.
   1.2. Resonant-transfer circuits.

2. General properties of periodically-varying circuits.
   2.1. Fundamental properties.
   2.2. Power transmitted.
   2.3. Effective behaviour.
   2.4. Reciprocity and quasi-reciprocity.

3. Basic principles of resonant-transfer circuits.
   3.1. Basic resonant-transfer circuits.
   3.2. Need for a more general theory.

4. Pulse impedances.
   4.1. Definition of the concepts pulse impedance and step resistance.
   4.2. Explicit expressions for the pulse impedance.
   4.3. Properties of the pulse impedance and the step resistance.

5. General properties of resonant-transfer circuits.
   5.1. Mathematical definition of the resonant-transfer.
   5.2. Computation of the conversion and reflection coefficients.
   5.3. General properties of the interconnecting two-port.
   5.4. Reciprocity and quasi-reciprocity.
   5.5. Absence of reflection at the terminal ports.

6. Direct and indirect resonant-transfer.
   6.1. Direct resonant-transfer.
      6.1.1. General properties of a direct resonant-transfer arrangement.
      6.1.2. Basic direct resonant-transfer arrangements.
      6.1.3. Inductorless resonant-transfer arrangement.
      6.1.4. Direct-resonant-transfer circuits.
6.2. Resonant-transfer with intermediate storage.
6.3. Ideal filters.
6.4. Influence of losses and timing errors on the overall performance.

7. The filter design problem.

7.1. Realization of ideal universal filters.
    7.1.1. General principles of the reactance compensation procedure.
    7.1.2. Practical considerations.
    7.1.3. Compensation procedure using auxiliary filters.

7.2. Effective (insertion) loss design.
    7.2.1. Realizability conditions.
    7.2.2. Some practical considerations.

7.3. Filters for narrow-band transmission.

8. Amplification in resonant-transfer circuits.


8.2. Stability of active resonant-transfer circuits.

9. Some special applications of the resonant-transfer principle.

9.1. Resonant-transfer circuits for pulse-code modulation.


10. Filters composed of capacitances and resonant-transfer switches.

10.1. Filters composed of capacitances and resonant-transfer switches in cascade.

10.2. General LC-networks in the Φ-domain, using inductorless networks in the p-domain.
    10.2.1. Generalization of the resonant-transfer principle.
    10.2.2. Realization of inductances in the Φ-domain by means of capacitances in the p-domain.
    10.2.3. Realization of equivalent LC-networks.

Bibliography.
1. **INTRODUCTION.**

1.1. Circuits containing periodically-operated switches.

Circuits containing periodically-operated switches are in some respects the simplest circuits with time-varying elements. Nevertheless, a general theory of these circuits is not known although various systematic methods of analysis \([13,30,37,66-69]\) and synthesis \([37,67,68]\) have been published by Bennett, Desoer, Kurth and the author, following an earlier analysis of a particularly simple case by Belevitch \([10]\). A certain amount of additional work has been done by the author (including a treatment by means of an integral equation related to the Wiener-Hopf equation of the theory of optimum filters), but this has not been published.

For certain subclasses, however, theories have been developed which are valid within certain limitations. For switched modulators (such as the ringmodulator, etc.) a simplified theory exists which assumes the modulators to be connected to strongly idealized filters. This theory was first proposed by Caruthers \([20]\) and Kruse \([64]\) and has been extended by various authors. It is described in the books by Tucker \([99,100]\), Belevitch \([12]\) and (to a lesser extent) Henkler \([55]\). Its main deficiency is that it assumes in fact the filters to be "overidealized" in the sense that they cannot be approximated arbitrarily closely by means of realizable networks.

The sampled data systems form another subclass which seems to have been described first by Oldenbourg and Sartorius \([75]\) and which has been treated extensively in the literature (among the many books on this subject, see e.g. \([58,59,97,98]\)). In this case however the approach is closer to control system theory than to true network theory; different parts of the system under consideration are usually assumed to be interconnected by means of decoupling devices so that the analysis problem is appreciably simplified.

In the present series of lectures, we shall deal exclusively with a third subclass formed by the resonant transfer circuits. For these, a theory has now evolved which can be considered to be a true and general network approach.
In several respects, this theory bears a close relationship to the theory of sampled data control systems.

There exist, of course, many other types of circuits containing periodically-operated switches, which do not fall, or at least, do not necessarily fall into one of the subclasses mentioned above (see e.g. [2, 47, 52, 65, 71, 89, 95]). For the sake of brevity, however, we have to omit discussing them here any further.

1.2. Resonant-transfer circuits.

The resonant-transfer principle has been discovered independently by Haard and Svala [54] in 1952, by Cattermole [21, 22] in 1954, by French [48] in 1955 and by Lewis [72] in 1957, although the basic idea behind it is not really new (see e.g. [51]). The aim of all these inventors was to find an efficient and bidirectional method of PAM modulation/demodulation for use in TDM-PAM (time-division multiplex, pulse-amplitude modulation) electronic telephone exchanges*. For such exchanges, the modulation/demodulation process has to be almost lossless and of equal quality in either direction of transmission.

Later on, it has been realized that the resonant-transfer principle could also be used advantageously for various other applications, in particular in PCM (pulse-code modulation) encoders [23, 24, 28] for delta modulation and for conventional AM (amplitude modulation) with SSB (single sideband) or DSB (double sideband) transmission. One can, of course, also take advantage of the possibility that resonant-transfer circuits can serve simultaneously as PAM and as AM modulators. In an electronic TDM-PAM exchange one can e.g. enter the exchange at audio frequency at the subscriber side and leave it again at carrier frequency at the junction side. In this case the frequency transposition should not only be done towards frequencies of the form $F + f$ (F the sampling frequency, $f$ the input frequency) as is commonly done in ordinary modulators, but also towards frequencies of the form $nF + f$ ($n$ a positive integer).

* For a general discussion of electronic TDM-PAM exchanges, see e.g. [7, 8, 9, 26, 34, 53, 63, 73, 76, 77, 81, 90, 91, 92, 96].
Among the first studies on resonant-transfer circuits, the most important is certainly the one by Cattermole [22, 23]. The paper by Kraus [61] takes up similar ideas but complements them in various respects. Some of the results first given by Cattermole have later been found independently by Thomas [94]. Stimulated by Cattermole's work, a general theory of resonant-transfer circuits has been developed by the author [38 - 46]. Other methods of analysis have been published by Desoer [29], Svala [93], French and Harding [49], Perkins [78], May and Stumps [74], Kaden [60], Feder [36], Darré [27] and Leberwurst [70]. Broux has examined certain crosstalk [16] and amplification [17, 18] problems. Various non-reciprocal resonant transfer devices have been described by Adelaar [3] and Edrich [32, 33]. Further contributions are due to Adelaar [4, 5, 6], Price [83], Svala [92], Rosenoer [private communication], Aagaard [1] and Kraus [62]. A very incomplete list of additional patents is [35, 85-88]. Many of the papers on electronic TDM-PAM switching systems mentioned in the footnote on page 1.2. also contain descriptions of the resonant-transfer principle.

A new possibility of application for the resonant-transfer principle has been discovered more recently. Poschenrieder [81] had noticed that a certain chain matrix derived in [43] is very similar to the chain matrix of various distributed-parameter two-ports. This has led him to propose the realization of filter networks built of capacitances and resonant-transfer switches only and having properties mathematically identical to those of certain transmission-line networks and mechanical filters. Further research into this subject by the author has shown that even more flexible designs than those proposed by Poschenrieder can be realized. These correspond in a certain sense to the most flexible of the transmission-line circuits originally proposed by Richards [84], (i.e. those in which capacitances and inductances of a lumped parameter circuit are individually replaced by transmission-line elements), but without involving the technological difficulties which make these transmission-line circuits impractical. These results appear here for the first time.
It is clear that only a summary of the various results obtained so far in the theory of resonant-transfer circuits can be given in these lectures, and that proofs, if given at all, can only be sketched. For further results as well as for all details, the original literature should be consulted.
2. GENERAL PROPERTIES OF PERIODICALLY-VARYING CIRCUITS.

In order to simplify the subsequent discussions, we shall summarize in this section some general properties of periodically-varying circuits, to which also belong the circuits containing periodically-operated switches. We assume throughout that we are dealing with linear circuits, even if this is not explicitly stated.

2.1. Fundamental properties.

Since all differential equations describing the network are linear and have real coefficients, the method of analysis by means of complex exponentials remains valid, just as for linear constant networks.

Consider then a network whose parameters are varying with period $T$ and assume that a complex excitation

$$x(t) = A e^{pt} \quad (2.1)$$

is applied to it, where $A$ and $p$ are complex constants. As Zadeh [102] and Belevitch [14] have pointed out the steady-state response to (2.1) can be written

$$y(t) = Y e^{pt}, \quad Y = A H(p,t) \quad (2.2)$$

where the system function $H(p,t)$ is independent of $A$ and periodic in $t$ with period $T$. If the actual excitation is equal to the real part of (2.1), the actual steady-state response will be equal to the real part of (2.2), and every other possible response differs only by an additive term corresponding to a free oscillation.

Unless a system function is in fact independent of $t$, its value depends also on the choice of the time origin. If the time origin is shifted from zero to $t_0$, $H(p,t)$ is changed into $H(p,t+t_0)$. $H(p,t)$ can also be developed into a Fourier series,

$$H(p,t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} H_n e^{jn\Omega t} \quad (2.3)$$

where

$$\Omega = 2\pi F, \quad F = 1/T \quad (2.4)$$
A quantity such as $H_n e^{jnQ_0 t}$ will be called the component of order $n$ of $H$. By shifting the time origin to $t_0$, $H_n$ is changed into $H_n e^{jnQ_0 t_0}$.

From these considerations, we conclude that if a periodically-varying circuit is driven by an excitation of the form (2.1), the factor $e^{pt}$ is just as superfluous as in case of constant circuits. Thus, if $i(t)$ and $v(t)$ are e.g. a current and a voltage under exponential steady-state conditions, it will in general be sufficient to consider the periodic functions $I=I(t)$ and $V=V(t)$ defined by

$$i = I e^{pt}, \quad v = V e^{pt}$$

(2.5)

Just as in case of constant networks, we may then speak of the current $I$ and the voltage $V$ instead of the current $i$ and the voltage $v$. If clarity requires, these latter ones will also be called respectively the instantaneous current and the instantaneous voltage.

We shall henceforth assume that rms values are used throughout. This way, the physical excitation actually applied is $\sqrt{2}$ times the real part of the complex excitation, and the response actually obtained is then also $\sqrt{2}$ times the real part of the corresponding complex response.

2.2. Power transmitted.

Consider a port of a periodically-varying circuit and let $V$ and $I$ be respectively the voltage and the current at this port under exponential steady-state conditions. We have

$$V = \sum_n V_n e^{jnQ_0 t}, \quad I = \sum_n I_n e^{jnQ_0 t}.$$  

(2.6)

Assuming $p = j\omega$, with $\omega$ real, and

$$\omega \neq k\omega/2 \quad (k = \text{any integer}),$$

(2.7)

the average power $P$ delivered through the port is given by

$$P = \overline{VI} = \sum_n P_n,$$

$$P_n = \text{Re} V^*_n I_n$$

(2.8)
Whenever we write \( p = j\omega \), we shall always assume that \( \omega \) is real. Furthermore, whenever power is considered we shall always assume \( p = j\omega \), with \( \omega \) satisfying (2.7).

2.3. Effective behaviour.

Consider a periodically-varying circuit \( N \) terminated at port 2 by a constant resistance \( R_2 \) and at port 1 by a source of voltage \( e = E e^{pt} \) (\( E \) a constant) in series with a constant resistance \( R_1 \) (fig. 2.1). The following system functions are particularly important, the transfer function \( S_{21} \) defined by

\[
S_{21}(p,t) = 2\sqrt{\frac{R_1}{R_2}} \cdot \frac{V_2}{E} = -2\sqrt{\frac{R_1 R_2}{E_2}} I_2/E
\]  

(2.9)

and the reflection function \( S_{11} \) defined by

\[
S_{11}(p,t) = (2V_1 - E)/E = (E - 2R_1 I_1)/E.
\]  

(2.10)

These definitions are analogous to those of the transfer and reflection coefficients of constant networks.

The Fourier expansions of \( V_1, I_1, V_2 \) and \( I_2 \) can be written, with \( i = 1 \) or 2,

\[
V_i(t) = \sum_n V_{in} e^{jn\omega t}, \quad I_i(t) = \sum_n I_{in} e^{jn\omega t},
\]

and those of \( S_{21} \) and \( S_{11} \)

\[
S_{21}(p,t) = \sum_n S_{21n} e^{jn\omega t}, \quad S_{11}(p,t) = \sum_n S_{11n} e^{jn\omega t}.
\]

We have for the \( S_{21n} \), the conversion coefficient of order \( n \),

\[
S_{21n} = 2\sqrt{\frac{R_1}{R_2}} \cdot \frac{V_{2n}}{E} = -2\sqrt{\frac{R_1 R_2}{E}} I_{2n}/E
\]  

(2.11)

and for \( S_{11n} \), the reflection coefficient of order \( n \),

\[
S_{11n} = (2V_{1n} - E)/E = (E - 2R_1 I_{1n})/E \\
= (Z_{1n} - R_1)/(Z_{1n} + R_1),
\]

\[
S_{11n} = 2V_{1n}/E = -2I_{1n} R_1/E, \quad n \neq 0
\]  

(2.12)

where \( Z_{10} = V_{10}/I_{10} \) is the effective input impedance at the complex frequency \( p \).
Finally, let $P_{\text{max}}$ be the maximum power which can be delivered by the source, $P_{1n}$ the power delivered through port 1 by the component of order $n$, and $P_{2n}$ the power delivered to the load by the same component, we have

$$P_{\text{max}} = \frac{|E|^2}{4R_1}, \quad P_{\text{in}} = \text{Re } V_{\text{in}}^* I_{\text{in}} \quad i = 1 \text{ or } 2,$$

$$|S_{21n}|^2 = \frac{P_{2n}}{P_{\text{max}}},$$

$$|S_{110}|^2 + \frac{P_{10}}{P_{\text{max}}} = 1,$$

$$|S_{11n}|^2 + \frac{P_{1n}}{P_{\text{max}}} = 0, \quad n \neq 0.$$

2.4. Reciprocity and quasi-reciprocity.

If a linear constant network is reciprocal, we have $S_{21} = S_{12}$, i.e. the transmission properties between ports 1 and 2 are the same in the direction 1 $\rightarrow$ 2 as in the direction 2 $\rightarrow$ 1. Extension of the concept of reciprocity to linear periodically-varying networks requires that the frequency transposition, which then usually takes place, and the dependence of the system functions on the choice of the time origin be taken into account. We shall therefore say that a periodically-varying network is reciprocal between ports 1 and 2 with respect to $t_0$ if, after shifting the time origin to $t_0$, the transmission properties are the same in both directions under the following conditions: if for the direction 1 $\rightarrow$ 2 the (complex) frequency injected at port 1 is $p_1$ and the useful frequency received at port 2 is $p_2$, the useful frequency received at port 1 for the direction 2 $\rightarrow$ 1 is again $p_1$ if $p_2$ is injected at port 2. Taking into account the fact that $p_2$ is necessarily of the form $p_1 + jn\Omega$ as well as the rule given in par. 2.1. for the influence of a change of the time origin on a system function, the conditions for reciprocity between ports 1 and 2 can be written as follow: There exists a value $t_0$ such that the conversion coefficients satisfy the two (equivalent) relations

$$S_{21n}(p) = S_{12n}(p + jn\Omega)e^{-j2n\Omega t_0} \quad (2.14)$$
After shifting the time origin to $t_0$, the following relations are then satisfied

$$S_{12n}(p) = S_{21,-n}(p + jn\Omega)e^{-j2n\Omega t_0} \quad (2.15)$$

As Duinker [31] and Belevitch [12] have shown, a circuit is reciprocal with respect to a time $t_0$ if its only time-varying elements are resistances varying symmetrically in time with respect to $t_0$. As a switch is by definition a limiting case of a varying resistance, circuits with periodically-operated switches will be reciprocal if all switches operate symmetrically in time with respect to a certain time $t_0$.

From a practical point of view, the reciprocity so defined is too severe and cannot be satisfied by certain networks which, however, are perfectly usable in bidirectional circuits. For this reason, we shall make use of the more general concept of quasi-reciprocity which we define as follows. We shall say that a periodically-varying circuit is quasi-reciprocal if the transmission in the direction $2 \rightarrow 1$ differs from the one in the direction $1 \rightarrow 2$ only by a uniform delay $\Delta_1$ at the stage of the frequency $p_1$ and a uniform delay $\Delta_2$ at the stage of the frequency $p_2$. This implies that the following two (equivalent) conditions be satisfied

$$S_{21n}(p) = S_{12,-n}(p + jn\Omega)e^{2p\Delta + jn\Omega(\Delta - \Delta')}, \quad (2.16)$$

$$S_{12n}(p) = S_{21,-n}(p + jn\Omega)e^{-2p\Delta - jn\Omega(\Delta + \Delta')}, \quad (2.17)$$

where

$$2\Delta = \Delta_1 + \Delta_2, \quad 2\Delta' = \Delta_1 - \Delta_2. \quad (2.18)$$

From the point of view of a signal traversing the circuit, the total delay difference $2\Delta$ is the only one of importance*. Moreover, if we change the time origin to $t_0$, this difference $2\Delta$

* According to the choice of the signs of $\Delta_1$ and $\Delta_2$ adopted here, $2\Delta$ expresses in fact the additional delay of direction $2 \rightarrow 1$ with respect to the delay of direction $1 \rightarrow 2$. 

\[ S_{12n}(p) = S_{21,-n}(p + jn\Omega)e^{-j2n\Omega t_0} \quad (2.15) \]
is not altered while $\Delta'$ is replaced by $\Delta' - 2t_0$.

The concept of quasi-reciprocity can, of course, also be applied to constant circuits. Such a circuit will be called quasi-reciprocal between ports 1 and 2 if we have

$$S_{21}(p) = S_{12}(p) e^{2p\Delta}$$

(2.19)

Note that for a gyrator we have $S_{21} = -S_{12}$ which cannot be satisfied for all frequencies by this expression.
3. **BASIC PRINCIPLES OF RESONANT-TRANSFER CIRCUITS.**

3.1. Basic resonant transfer circuits.

Consider first the circuit of Fig. 3.1. It contains two equal capacitances $C$, one transfer inductance $2L$ and a switch $S$, which together form the simplest type of resonant-transfer arrangement.

Suppose that the switch $S$ is being closed at $t=0$ and that it is being opened again at $t = \tau$, where

$$\tau = \pi \sqrt{LC} \quad (3.1)$$

is equal to half the resonant period of the circuit. The charge initially present on the left-hand capacitance will then precisely have been transferred to the right-hand capacitance and vice-versa. With other words, by keeping the switch closed for a period equal to $\tau$, we have obtained a means to produce a controlled interchange of the charges initially present on the two capacitances.

Another circuit which produces the same result is shown in Fig. 3.2, where we assume that the switches $S_1$ and $S_2$ are closed simultaneously for a period still given by (3.1). The advantage of this new circuit is that certain parasitic capacitances which are unavoidable in practical situations can be absorbed into the central capacitance $2C/3$.

Consider next the simple resonant-transfer circuit shown in Fig. 3.3. It comprises two two-ports $N_1$ and $N_2$ which, for simplicity, we may assume to be identical. At port 1, it is fed by a source of voltage $E$, resistance $R_1$ and frequency $p = j\omega$, and at port 2 it is terminated by a resistance $R_2$. Ports 3 and 4 are interconnected by a small inductance $2L$ and a switch $S$. At high frequency, $N_1$ and $N_2$ reduce at ports 3 and 4 to simple capacitances $C$. The two capacitances $C$, the inductance $2L$ and the switch $S$ together clearly form a resonant-transfer arrangement with $\tau$ given by (3.1). We assume that $\tau$ is very small compared to all other resonant periods and time constants of the complete circuit (i.e. the circuit including $N_1$, $N_2$ and the terminations).
Suppose now that $S$ operates periodically at a rate $F = 1/T$; more precisely, suppose that $S$ is closed during transfer periods defined by

$$t_m - \frac{T}{2} < t < t_m + \frac{T}{2},$$

and that it is open otherwise. If we assume furthermore that $\tau \ll T$ we can clearly distinguish between a short-time and a long-time behaviour. The short-time behaviour is determined by the resonant-transfer arrangement alone. For the long-time behaviour, however, the detailed phenomena in this resonant transfer arrangement are without importance. It simply acts as if at regular discrete instants $t_m$ given by (3.3) the two capacitances $C$ would instantaneously interchange their charges.

The current $i$ flowing between terminals 3 and 4 must be of the general form (2.5). On the other hand, it is composed of short pulses so that we can write

$$i = I e^{pt},$$

where

$$I = J \Delta(t),$$

where $\Delta(t) = T \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - mT),$$

$\delta(t)$ being, in the usual notation, a unit impulse which we may assume to be ideal and $J$ being a constant (in general complex) having the dimensions of a current. Moreover, if $N_2$ has suitable low-pass properties and if $\omega < \Omega/2 = \pi F$, the output signal appearing at port 2 will again be an almost sinusoidal signal of the same frequency $\omega$ as the input signal. This shows that the circuit of Fig. 3.3. can serve to transform a sinusoidal input signal first into a corresponding PAM-signal $i(t)$ and then back into a continuous signal similar to the original one. Furthermore, as $N_1$ has been assumed to be identical to $N_2$, the low-pass properties of $N_1$ in turn will prevent the various frequency components (except $\omega$) contained in (3.4) form reaching the source resistance $R_1$. 
This is essential if high overall transmission efficiency should be obtained since these other frequency components would dissipate part of the available energy in $R_1$.

An important result of Cattermole's theory can now be stated: lossless transmission in either direction is obtained between the input and output ports 1 and 2 if $N_1$ and $N_2$ are ideal open-circuit low-pass filters with cut-off frequency $f_c$ equal to half the sampling rate, i.e. if $f_c = F/2$. This result is quite remarkable since no similar result for conventional modulator circuits is known. As has been mentioned in the introduction, the ideal filters used in the theory of conventional modulators are in fact "overidealized", but this is clearly not the case here.

Cattermole, [22, 23] has shown that the same ideal open-circuit filter as the one mentioned above can also serve as ideal filter for various other types of resonant transfer circuits. One of these is the circuit with intermediate storage shown in Fig. 3.4 where $S_1$ and $S_2$ operate both at the same rate but not simultaneously. The resonant-transfer arrangement is formed in this case by the three capacitances $C$, the two inductances $2L$ and the two switches $S_1$ and $S_2$. The transfer in either direction therefore occurs in two steps, the middle capacitance $C$ serving as temporary storage device.

Despite the importance of Cattermole's results, we shall omit discussing his theory any further, since all results obtained by him also follow from the more general theory to be presented here.

3.2. Need for a more general theory.

The discussion given in par. 3.1 leaves many questions open. Among these, the most important are perhaps the following:

1. How can we analyse the circuit if the two networks $N_1$ and $N_2$ are distinct? In this case, we also want to tolerate that the two capacitances, which have been designated both by $C$ in Fig. 3.3 and which we shall henceforth designate respectively by $C_1$ and $C_2$, may be distinct. This problem is of practical importance. In a telephone exchange, a local line may e.g. be connected to $N_1$ and a trunk line to $N_2$. In this case, $N_1$ and $N_2$ may still both be
low-pass filters, but economy considerations require that the filter connected to the local line be less elaborate than the one connected to the trunk line. It may also be, however, that we want to select an AM-modulated signal for the trunk transmission, in which case \( N_2 \) will have to be a band-pass filter while \( N_1 \) may still be a low-pass filter.

2. In addition to the arrangements considered by Cattermole, various other resonant transfer arrangements are of interest. The question is, therefore, how the behaviour of the most general resonant-transfer arrangement can be described in a simple and general way.

3. What are the general expressions for the conversion and reflection coefficients?

4. What is the influence of the unavoidable losses in the resonant-transfer arrangement as well as the influence of the timing errors (duration of the transfer period not equal to the ideal)?

5. What are the general conditions which must be satisfied in order to insure equal quality of transmission in both directions? As true reciprocal behaviour is usually no longer possible for time-varying circuits, we want at least to obtain quasi-reciprocal behaviour, i.e. we want the transmission properties in both directions to differ at most by a constant (frequency independent) delay.

6. What are the general conditions which must be satisfied in order to insure absence of reflection at one or both terminal ports?

7. What are the general conditions which must be satisfied by \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \) to be ideal filters, i.e. filters such that lossless transmission of the overall circuit is obtained? Such ideal filters are desired not only for audio-to-audio transmission but also if frequency translation is involved.
8. In a TDM-PAM exchange, the networks $N_1$ and $N_2$ must work under different operating conditions (in particular together with different types of resonant-transfer arrangements) depending on the way the connection is set up in the exchange. What are the conditions for $N_1$ and $N_2$ to be ideal universal filters, i.e. ideal filters providing equal performance in these different situations?

9. In practical low-pass situations, one always wants to have a cut-off frequency lower than half the sampling rate, i.e. $f_c < F/2$. Under these circumstances, is it still possible to conceive ideal realizable networks having the properties of ideal filters, and more specifically of ideal universal filters? More precisely, can an algorithm be given allowing to design networks $N_1$ and $N_2$ whose performance is arbitrarily close to the ideal one?

10. Similar questions arise for band-pass problems.

11. Although an algorithm such as the one mentioned under 9 allows to design filters with arbitrary good performance, it does not furnish optimum filters, i.e. filters whose performance is the best possible under given conditions such as number of elements, structure etc. The question is thus how optimum filters can be designed for given performance criteria.

12. What simplifications arise for the filter design problem in case of narrow band transmission?

13. Although lossless transmission can theoretically be obtained, some losses, which occur mainly in the decoupling transformers contained in $N_1$ and $N_2$, are unavoidable. If these losses are too large, they have to be compensated, and one may even wish to realize an overall amplification. This can e.g. be achieved by including bidirectional active elements (negative resistances), in the resonant-transfer arrangements. The question is then how to design the arrangement under these conditions in order to assure proper behaviour.
14. What are the consequences for the stability of the circuit if active elements are provided and if at the same time absence of reflections is required? In particular, what general stability criterion can be given and how does such a criterion depend on the amount of loss compensation or amplification required?

15. What are the consequences for the filter design problem resulting from the stability criterion mentioned under 14?

16. What is the crosstalk between various channels in case of time-division multiplexing?

17. How can the theory be extended to various other domains of application of the resonant-transfer principle, such as resonant-transfer n-ports, PCM and delta modulation circuits, resonant-transfer N-path filters, etc.?

In the subsequent sections, we shall briefly expose a very general theory by means of which the above questions can be answered, or at least partially be answered. In this theory, we shall always assume that from the point-of-view of the long-time behaviour, the pulse duration may be considered to be infinitely small. It is true that for certain applications it would be useful to dispose of first order expressions which take into account the deviation from this assumption. Such expressions, however, have not yet been computed, although the theories exposed in [29] and [37] could be useful for this problem.

In the last section, finally, we shall show how the general theory, which will be discussed hereafter, leads to a completely new type of application of the resonant-transfer principle, the realization of filters built of capacitances and resonant-transfer switches only. Such a resonant-transfer switch may be formed by a transfer inductance and an ordinary (electronic) switch, (as is also the case in the circuits of Fig. 3.3 and 3.4), or by such an ordinary switch together with additional transistors and capacitors [87]. This way, completely inductorless filters can even be obtained.
4. PULSE IMPEDANCES.

4.1. **Definition of the concepts pulse impedance and step resistance.**

Consider an impedance $Z(p)$ which reduces at high frequency to a capacitance $C$ defined by

$$C = \frac{1}{\lim_{p \to \infty} p Z(p)}.$$  \hfill (4.1)

Suppose that we apply to it a current of the form

$$i = I \, e^{pt}, \quad I = I(t) = J \Delta(t-t_0)$$  \hfill (4.2)

where $J$ is a constant having the dimensions of a current and where $\Delta(t)$ is the pulse-train given by (3.5). The current pulses thus occur at the instants

$$t_m = t_o + mT, \quad m = \ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots$$  \hfill (4.3)

where we may e.g. assume without any restrictions that

$$0 \leq t_0 < T.$$  \hfill (4.4)

Let $v = V \, e^{pt}$ be the voltage appearing across $Z$ due to the current (4.2). Clearly, $V = V(t)$ is a periodic function of time of period $T$. At the instants $t_m$ given by (4.3), $V$ jumps suddenly from a value $V_b$ to a value $V_a$, the subscripts "b" and "a" standing respectively for "before" and "after". $V_a$ and $V_b$ are both proportional to $J$ and we can write

$$u = ZJ \quad (4.5), \quad (V_a - V_b)/2 = R_c J \quad (4.6)$$

where

$$U = (V_a + V_b)/2.$$  \hfill (4.7)

The proportionality coefficients $Z$ and $R_c$ have the dimensions of impedances and will be called respectively pulse impedance and step resistance. $Z$ is dependent on $p$ and has a real and an imaginary part,

$$Z = R + j X.$$  \hfill (4.8)

$R_c$ turns out to be a positive constant given by (see also par. 4.2)

$$R_c = T/2 \, C.$$  \hfill (4.9)
If we interpret $U$ as a voltage and $J$ as a current, (4.5) can be considered to express Ohm's law between $U$, $J$ and $\tilde{Z}$. Various other reasons for calling $\tilde{Z}$ an impedance will be seen later. We also have

$$V_a = U + R_c J, \quad V_b = U - R_c J, \quad (4.10)$$

$$V_a = \tilde{Z}_a J, \quad V_b = \tilde{Z}_b J, \quad (4.11)$$

where

$$\tilde{Z}_a = \tilde{Z} + R_c, \quad \tilde{Z}_b = \tilde{Z} - R_c. \quad (4.12)$$

Suppose now that $Z$ is the input impedance of a network $N$ to which a source of voltage $E e^{pt}$ ($E$ a constant) is applied at terminals 1-1' and which is fed at 2-2' by a current (4.2) (Fig. 4.1a, the superfluous factor $e^{pt}$ having been dropped). The voltage $v = v e^{pt}$ appearing across 2-2' can be computed by applying the superposition principle. With $V_a$ and $V_b$ having the same meaning as before, and $U$ being still defined by (4.7), we obtain

$$U = E_o + \tilde{Z} J \quad (4.13)$$

where $E_o$ is the voltage which would appear across 2-2' if the voltage source were acting alone and where the pulse impedance $\tilde{Z}$ is the same as in (4.5). Expression (4.6) is still valid but a term $E_o$ has to be added to the right-hand members of all four equations (4.10) and (4.11). Expression (4.13) clearly can be represented by the equivalent circuit of Fig. 4.1b.

The significance of this equivalent circuit can considerably be enhanced by calculating the average power transmitted to $N$ via port 2. This can be done either by a frequency domain analysis, using (2.8), or by a time domain analysis calculating the power transmitted by each pulse. One obtains

$$P = \text{Re} U^* J = \text{Re} U J^*, \quad (4.14)$$

which is the expression one would obtain from Fig. 4.1b if $U$ and $J$ are considered to be ordinary steady-state quantities. For $E = 0$, i.e. for the situation under which (4.5) is valid, we obtain as for ordinary impedances, using (4.8),

$$P = \tilde{R} |J|^2. \quad (4.15)$$
It should be clear that any other conclusions which can be drawn from expressions such as (4.5), (4.13), (4.14) and (4.15) in case of constant networks in the sinusoidal steady-state also remain valid. Thus, e.g., the maximum power $P_{\text{max}}$ which can be derived from the circuit of Fig. 4.1a by means of a current of the form (4.2) is given by

$$P_{\text{max}} = \frac{|E_0|^2}{4 \Re} \quad (4.16)$$

4.2. Explicit expressions for the pulse impedance.

By means of methods similar to those used in the theory of the $z$-transform, one obtains for the pulse impedance the following expressions

$$Z = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} Z(p + jn\Omega) \quad (4.17)$$

$$Z = R_C + T \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} A(mT)e^{-mpT} \quad (4.18)$$

where $\Omega$ is given by (2.4) and where $A(t)$ is the impulse response corresponding to $Z(p)$, i.e.

$$Z(p) = \mathcal{L}\{A(t)\} \quad (4.19)$$

the symbol $\mathcal{L}$ standing, as usual, for the Laplace transform operator. (4.17) is easiest derived by means of a frequency domain analysis, noting that $(V_a + V_b)/2$ must be equal to the value of the Fourier development of $V(t)$ at the points of discontinuity $t = t_m$. (4.18) is easiest derived by means of a time domain analysis by summing over the effects of all previous pulses up to $t = -\infty$. The expression (4.9) for $R_C$ can be obtained by either of these analyses.

An integral expression for $Z$ is

$$Z = \frac{T}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma - j\infty}^{\sigma + j\infty} \frac{Z(q)}{1 - e^{-qT}} dq \quad (4.20)$$

where

$$\sigma_0 < \sigma < \text{Re} p \quad (4.21)$$

$\sigma_0$ being the largest of the real parts of the poles of $Z(p)$. 

For \( p = j\omega \), (4.20) is strictly valid only if \( Z \) is minimum-reactive, but it can easily be extended to the limiting case of non-minimum-reactive impedances by proper modification of the path of integration. (4.17) can be derived from (4.20) by closing the contour of integration by means of a large semi-circle in the right-half plane, while (4.18) can be obtained by series expansion of the integrand of (4.20), making use of (4.19).

As \( Z(p) \) is capacitive at high frequency, we can write

\[
Z(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{B_i}{p-p_i},
\]

(4.22)

with

\[
R_C = \frac{T}{2C} = \frac{T}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} B_i,
\]

(4.23)

or, if multiple poles are present,

\[
Z(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \frac{B_{ik}}{(p-p_i)^k},
\]

(4.24)

with

\[
R_C = \frac{T}{2C} = \frac{T}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} B_i,
\]

(4.25)

where \( N \) is the number of distinct poles and \( N_i \) the degree of multiplicity of the \( i \)th pole. \( Z \) can now be computed by means of (4.17), (4.18) or (4.20); in the latter case, the contour of integration has to be closed by means of an infinite half-circle in the left half-plane. The result is best expressed in a new variable

\[
\phi = \tanh \left( \frac{pT}{2} \right)
\]

(4.26)

or, for \( p = j\omega \),

\[
\phi = j\varphi, \quad \varphi = \tan \left( \frac{\omega T}{2} \right).
\]

(4.27)

We obtain from (4.22),

\[
\bar{Z} = \bar{Z}(\phi) = \frac{T}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{B_i}{\phi - \phi_i} \frac{\varphi - \phi_i}{1 - \varphi_i}
\]

(4.28)

and from (4.24),

\[
\bar{Z} = \bar{Z}(\phi) = \Phi R_C + (1 - \Phi^2) \frac{T}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \frac{B_{ik}}{(p-p_i)^k} \frac{\partial^{k-1}}{\partial p_i^{k-1}} \frac{\varphi - \phi_i}{1 - \varphi_i}
\]

(4.29)

where

\[
\phi_i = \tanh(p_i T/2)
\]

(4.30)
The derivation of (4.28) and (4.29) assumes in fact that $Z(p)$ is minimum-reactive. These expressions remain valid, however, even in case of non-minimum-reactive impedances since impedances of this latter type have a physical meaning only as limiting cases of minimum-reactive impedances.

For $p = j\omega$, we also obtain from (4.8) and (4.17),

$$Z(j\omega) = \tilde{Z}(\varphi) + j \tilde{X}(\varphi)$$

where

$$\tilde{R}(\varphi) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} R(\omega + n\Omega), \quad \tilde{X}(\varphi) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega + n\Omega).$$

Henceforth, $\tilde{Z}(\varphi)$ shall also be called the $\varphi$-transform of $Z(p)$. Although $\tilde{Z}(\varphi)$ is unique for a given $Z(p)$, there exist an infinite number of inverse transforms $Z(p)$ for a given $\tilde{Z}(\varphi)$. This follows from the fact that there exist an infinite number of different $p_i$ which satisfy (4.30) for a given $\varphi_i$.

It is often advantageous to make use of normalized quantities which we shall define as follows, $R_o$ being a normalizing resistance to be specified in each individual case:

$$z = r + jx = Z/R_o, \quad r = R/R_o, \quad x = X/R_o$$

$$\tilde{z} = \tilde{r} + j\tilde{x} = \tilde{Z}/R_o, \quad \tilde{r} = \tilde{R}/R_o, \quad \tilde{x} = \tilde{X}/R_o$$

$$C_o = T/2R_o, \quad c = C/C_o = R_o/R_C$$

$$\lambda = pT/2, \quad \lambda_i = p_i T/2$$

$$\nu = \omega T/2 = \pi f/F$$

$$b_i = B_i C_o$$

We then have e.g.

$$\varphi = \tanh \lambda \quad (a), \quad \varphi = \tan \nu \quad (b)$$

$$z(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{b_i}{\lambda - \lambda_i},$$

$$1/c = \lim_{\lambda \to \infty} \lambda z(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} b_i.$$
The variable $\phi$ corresponds to the variable $w$ introduced by Johnson, Lindorff and Nordling \[57\] and is related to the variable $z= e^{pt}$ used in the $z$-transform theory by

$$\phi(z-1)/(z+1).$$

It has the interesting property that

$$\text{Re} \phi \geq 0 \quad \text{if} \quad \text{Re} p \geq 0$$

(4.43)

where equally placed symbols correspond to one another.

From an expression such as (4.17), one might conclude that, except for a missing factor $1/T$, $\tilde{Z}$ is identical to the usual $z$-transform \[59\]. This is not so since in the usual $z$-transform theory an expression such as (4.17) is only valid for transfer impedances having at least a double zero at infinity, while here this zero is essentially simple.

The pulse sequence impedances $G$ and $G_1$ used by Cattermole \[22,23\] are related to $Z_a$ and $Z_b$ by

$$Z_a = G T, \quad Z_b = G_1 T.$$  

Kraus \[62\] has proposed to replace the variables $U$ and $J$ by new variables $U'$ and $J'$ defined by

$$U' = U e^{pt}, \quad J' = J e^{pt}.$$  

In this case, the definition of $\tilde{Z}$ is not modified and the power relations also remain valid. Although there are certain advantages to using these new variables, we have preferred not to do so in order to keep the formulas given here in agreement with those given in \[43\].

4.3. Properties of the pulse impedance and the step resistance.

From the results of the two previous paragraphs, many useful properties of the pulse impedance and the step resistance can be obtained. Among these, the following should be mentioned:

1. $Z(\phi)$ is a Brune function (rational positive real function) of the variable $\phi$ if $Z(p)$ is a Brune function of the variable $p$  
   (follows from (4.28),(4.29)and (4.43)together with(4.15)or(4.32)).
The converse, however, is not always true, i.e. none of the inverse transforms of a Brune function \( \tilde{Z}(\psi) \) has to be a Brune function; example: a function \( \tilde{Z}(\psi) \) for which \( \tilde{R}(\psi) \) is zero for a certain real value of \( \psi \) without being identically zero for all \( \psi \) cannot correspond to any Brune function \( Z(p) \) (cf. property 3 mentioned below).

2. \( \tilde{Z}(\psi) \) is minimum-reactive in \( \psi \) if and only if \( Z(p) \) is minimum-reactive in \( p \) (follows from (4.30) and (4.43)).

3. If for \( \psi = j\varphi \), \( \tilde{R}(\varphi) \) is zero for any particular value of \( \varphi \), it is identically zero for all \( \varphi \), (follows from (4.32) by noting that \( R(\omega) \) cannot be zero in an infinite number of points unless it is identically zero).

4. \( \tilde{Z}(\psi) \) is a reactance function of the variable \( \psi \) if \( Z(p) \) is a reactance function of the variable \( p \), and vice versa. Furthermore, although \( Z(p) \) has to be capacitive at high frequency, \( \tilde{Z}(\psi) \) may have a pole at \( \psi = \infty \). More precisely we have the following correspondences

\[
\begin{align*}
z(\lambda) &= 1/\lambda c, & \tilde{z}(\psi) &= 1/\psi c & (4.44) \\
z(\lambda) &= \frac{\lambda}{c(\lambda^2 + \varphi_o^2)}, & \tilde{z}(\psi) &= \frac{\psi}{c'(\psi^2 + \varphi_o^2)} & (4.45)
\end{align*}
\]

where

\[
\begin{align*}
\varphi_o &= |\tan \varphi_o|, & \psi_o &= |\tan^{-1} \varphi_o| & (4.46) \\
c' &= c/(1 + \varphi_o^2) = c \cos^2 \varphi_o & (4.47)
\end{align*}
\]

Note that \( \tilde{z}(\psi) \) in (4.45) reduces to \( 1/\psi c \) for \( \psi_o = n\pi \), i.e. for \( f_o = nF \) (\( n \) an integer), and that it reduces to \( \psi/c \) for \( \psi_o = (2n + 1) \pi/2 \), i.e. for \( f_o = (2n + 1)F/2 \).

5. \( \tilde{Z}(\psi) \) is the input impedance of an ideal open-circuit filter in the \( \psi \)-domain if \( Z(p) \) is the input impedance of an ideal open-circuit filter in the \( p \)-domain, and vice versa. More precisely, limiting ourselves to low-pass filters with cut-off frequency \( f_c \leq F/2 \) and \( R = R_o \) in the pass-band, we have for \( z(j\psi) = r(\psi) + jx(\psi) \),
\[ r(v) = \frac{R}{R_0} \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } |v| < v_c = \pi f_c / \pi \leq \pi / 2, \\ 0 & \text{for } |v| > v_c, \end{cases} \quad (4.48) \]

\[ x(v) = \frac{X}{R_0} = -j \frac{1}{\pi} \ln \left( \frac{v + v_c}{v - v_c} \right), \quad (4.49) \]

and for the corresponding \( z(j\varphi) \)

\[ \tilde{r}(\varphi) = \frac{R}{R_0} \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } |\varphi| < \varphi_c = \tan v_c \\ 0 & \text{for } |\varphi| > \varphi_c, \end{cases} \quad (4.50) \]

\[ \tilde{x}(\varphi) = \frac{X}{R_0} = -j \frac{1}{\pi} \ln \left( \frac{\varphi + \varphi_c}{\varphi - \varphi_c} \right). \quad (4.51) \]

Similar relations have been obtained in case of band-pass filters. All these relations can best be proved by first computing \( \tilde{r}(\varphi) \) by means of (4.32), which is relatively simple to do. The imaginary part \( \tilde{x}(\varphi) \) can then be obtained directly by noting that \( \tilde{z}(\varphi) \) is minimum-reactive at the same time as \( z(\varphi) \) so that the Bayard-Bode relations [15] can be applied.

6. \( Z \) and \( R_C \) are related by

\[ \tilde{Z}(1) = R_C, \quad \tilde{Z}(-1) = -R_C \quad (4.52) \]

\[ \frac{\pi}{2} \geq \frac{\pi \sqrt{2}}{0} \tilde{r}(\varphi) d\varphi = \int_0^\infty \frac{\tilde{r}(\varphi)}{1 + \varphi^2} d\varphi \quad (4.53) \]

where in this last expression the equality or inequality sign holds depending on whether \( z(\lambda) \), and therefore also \( \tilde{z}(\varphi) \) is minimum-reactive or not.

7. \( Z(\varphi) \) and \( R_C \) are permanent, i.e. independent of the choice of the time origin. This needs some explanation as we have nowhere assumed in section 4 that we are dealing with time-variable circuits. In fact, however, we may assume that the circuit under consideration belongs to a larger circuit containing e.g. periodically-operated switches. In this case, a change of the time origin will modify the parameter \( t_0 \) in (4.2) as well as the system functions of the total circuit, but will leave unchanged the values of \( Z \) and \( R_C \).
5. GENERAL PROPERTIES OF RESONANT-TRANSFER CIRCUITS.

5.1. Mathematical definition of the resonant transfer.

A general resonant-transfer two-port is shown in Fig. 5.1 where the following assumptions are supposed to be fulfilled: $S_1$ and $S_2$ are switches which operate periodically at a rate $F = 1/T$. $N_1$ and $N_2$ are constant networks (usually filters) while $N_0$ may contain further periodically-operated switches operating at the same rate as $S_1$ and $S_2$. $Z_3$ is the input impedance of $N_1$ at port 3 when terminated at port 1 by resistance $R_1$ (i.e. with $E = 0$). Similarly, $Z_4$ is the input impedance of $N_2$ at port 4 when terminated at port 2 by $R_2$. $C_1$ and $C_2$ are related to $Z_3$ and $Z_4$ by

$$\frac{1}{C_1} = \lim_{p \to -\infty} pZ_3(p), \quad \frac{1}{C_2} = \lim_{p \to +\infty} pZ_4(p) \quad (5.1)$$

The switches $S_1$ and $S_2$ are closed during very short transfer periods $t_{1m} - \tau_1/2 < t < t_{1m} + \tau_1/2$ and $t_{2m} - \tau_2/2 < t < t_{2m} + \tau_2/2 \quad (5.2)$ of duration $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ respectively, where

$$t_{1m} = t_1 + mT, \quad t_{2m} = t_2 + mT, \quad (5.3)$$

and are open otherwise. $t_{1m}$ and $t_{2m}$ do not have to correspond to the same instants, i.e. we may have $t_1 \neq t_2$; more precisely, we may write

$$T = T_1 + T_2 \quad (5.4)$$

where we may e.g. assume without any restriction that

$$0 < T_1 < T, \quad 0 < T_2 < T. \quad (5.5)$$

Similarly, we may have $\tau_1 \neq \tau_2$, although this is usually less essential. The circuit is fed by a source of voltage $E$ and complex frequency $p$; the currents traversing the ports 3 and 4 are $I_3$ and $I_4$ respectively, and the voltages across these ports are $V_3$ and $V_4$, the factor $e^{pt}$ being again omitted everywhere.

* In practical situations, one of the switches $S_1$ or $S_2$ may often be omitted without affecting the behaviour of the circuit.
\( \tau_1 \) and \( \tau_2 \) are of such short duration that we can again distinguish between short-time and long-time behaviour. The short-time behaviour is determined by the resonant-transfer arrangement alone, i.e. by \( C_1, C_2, S_1, S_2 \) and \( N_0 \). This resonant-transfer arrangement is such that \( V_3 \) and \( V_4 \) change appreciably during the corresponding transfer periods. The currents \( I_3 \) and \( I_4 \) are thus composed of short pulses which carry appreciable charges across \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) respectively. From the point of view of the long-time behaviour, we may thus write

\[
I_3 = J_3 \Delta(t-t_1), \quad I_4 = J_4 \Delta(t-t_2)
\]  

(5.6)

where the "currents" \( J_3 \) and \( J_4 \) are (complex) constants and where \( \Delta(t) \) is defined by (3.5). Furthermore, we may assume that \( V_3 \) changes suddenly at each \( t = t_{1m} \) from a value \( V_{3b} \) to \( V_{3a} \), and \( V_4 \) at each \( t = t_{2m} \) from \( V_{4b} \) to \( V_{4a} \). We can thus define "voltages" \( U_3 \) and \( U_4 \) by

\[
U_3 = \frac{(V_{3a} + V_{3b})}{2}, \quad U_4 = \frac{(V_{4a} + V_{4b})}{2}
\]  

(5.7)

and we can write, according to what we have seen in par. 4.1,

\[
U_3 = E_o - Z_3 J_3, \quad U_4 = Z_4 J_4
\]  

(5.8)

\[
\frac{(V_{3b} - V_{3a})}{2} = R_{C1} J_3, \quad \frac{(V_{4b} - V_{4a})}{2} = R_{C2} J_4
\]  

(5.9)

where

\[
R_{C1} = \frac{T}{2C_1}, \quad R_{C2} = \frac{T}{2C_2}
\]  

(5.10)

are the step resistances corresponding to \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) respectively, \( Z_3 \) and \( Z_4 \) the pulse impedances corresponding to \( Z_3 \) and \( Z_4 \) respectively and where \( E_o \) is the open-circuit voltage measured at port 3 of network \( N_1 \) when port 1 is fed by the source \( E \) in series with \( R_1 \).

Without going into any physical detail, we can now formally define a resonant-transfer arrangement as a means for establishing two independent linear* relations between the quantities \( V_{3a}, V_{3b}, V_{4a} \) and \( V_{4b} \). More precisely, we postulate at present that

* As we are dealing with linear circuits, we assume that the resonant-transfer arrangement is linear too.
the arrangement composed of \( N_0, C_1, C_2, S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) (Fig. 5.1) imposes the existence of two such relations whose coefficients depend exclusively on this arrangement but not on the rest of the circuit (they may depend, of course, on \( p \) and \( T \)). Solving these equations with respect to \( V_{3a} \) and \( V_{4a} \), we can write

\[
V_a = B V_b \tag{5.11}
\]

where \( V_a \) and \( V_b \) are the vectors

\[
V_a = \begin{bmatrix} V_{3a} \\ V_{4a} \end{bmatrix}, \quad V_b = \begin{bmatrix} V_{3b} \\ V_{4b} \end{bmatrix} \tag{5.12}
\]

and where \( B \) is the voltage transfer matrix

\[
B = \begin{pmatrix} B_{33} & B_{34} \\ B_{43} & B_{44} \end{pmatrix} \tag{5.13}
\]

whose elements only depend on the resonant-transfer arrangement itself.

Taking into account (5.7) and (5.9), we can now transform (5.11) into two linear relations between \( U_3, U_4, J_3 \) and \( J_4 \). These two new relations thus define a certain equivalent two-port \( N_i \), called interconnecting two-port, with port voltages \( U_3 \) and \( U_4 \) and port currents \( J_3 \) and \( J_4 \). Finally, taking into account (5.8) we obtain for the original circuit of Fig. 5.1 the equivalent circuit shown in Fig. 5.2.

The two-port \( N_i \) can, of course, be characterized by the various matrices used in conventional two-port theory. Hereafter, we shall make use of its chain matrix \( A \) defined by

\[
U_3 = A_{33} U_4 - A_{34} J_4 \tag{5.14}
\]

\[
J_3 = A_{43} U_4 - A_{44} J_4 \tag{5.15}
\]

and related to \( B \) by

\[
A_{33} = \frac{1}{2} B_{43} \left[ (1+B_{33})(1-B_{44}) + B_{34} B_{43} \right], \tag{5.16}
\]

\[
A_{34} = \frac{1}{2} B_{43} \left[ (1+B_{33})(1+B_{44}) - B_{34} B_{43} \right] R_{c2}, \tag{5.17}
\]
\[ A_{43} = \frac{(1 - B_{33})(1 - B_{44}) - B_{34} B_{43}}{2 R_{C1} B_{43}}, \quad (5.18) \]
\[ A_{44} = \frac{(1 - B_{33})(1 + B_{44}) + B_{34} B_{43}}{2 R_{C1} B_{43}}, \quad (5.19) \]
as well as (incidentally) of its impedance matrix
\[ W = \begin{pmatrix} W_{33} & W_{34} \\ W_{43} & W_{44} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (5.20) \]

The matrix \( B \), however, presents also many advantages. It can be shown that it cannot cease to exist for \( \text{Re} \ p > 0 \) if the two-port \( N_0 \) (Fig. 5.1) is composed of passive elements, including, possibly, periodically-operated switches. The scattering matrix \( S_1 \) of \( N_1 \) with respect to terminating resistances \( R_{C1} \) at port 3 and \( R_{C2} \) at port 4 is related to \( B \) by
\[ S_1 = \begin{pmatrix} B_{33} & B_{34} \sqrt{\gamma} \\ B_{43} \sqrt{\gamma} & B_{44} \end{pmatrix} \quad (5.21) \]
where
\[ \gamma = \frac{R_{C2}}{R_{C1}} = \frac{C_1}{C_2}. \quad (5.22) \]
The interconnecting two-port clearly is reciprocal if
\[ \det A = \frac{W_{34}}{W_{43}} = \frac{C_1 B_{34}}{C_2 B_{43}} = 1 \quad (5.23) \]
and it is quasi-reciprocal if
\[ \det A = \frac{W_{34}}{W_{43}} = \frac{C_1 B_{34}}{C_2 B_{43}} = e^{-p\Delta} \quad (5.24) \]
where \( \Delta \) is a certain constant.

Note that the various two-port parameters of \( N_1 \) do not have to be constants but may depend on \( p \).

5.2. Computation of the conversion and reflection coefficients.

With the aid of the equivalent circuit of Fig. 5.2, the conversion and reflection coefficients of the original circuit of Fig. 5.1 can now be computed.
Using the definitions given in section 2, we obtain e.g. in terms of the chain matrix of $N_1$,

$$S_{21n}(p) = 2 \sqrt{R_1 R_2} M_1(p) M_2(p+j\omega) e^{-jn\Omega t_2}/D_A,$$  (5.25)

$$S_{110}(p) = \rho_1 - 2 R_1 N_{A4} M_1^2(p)/D_A,$$  (5.26)

$$S_{11n}(p) = -2 R_1 N_{A4} M_1(p) M_1(p+j\omega) e^{-jn\Omega t_1}/D_A,$$  (5.27)

$$S_{12n}(p) = 2 \sqrt{R_1 R_2} M_1(p+j\omega) M_2(p) e^{-jn\Omega t_1} \text{det} A/D_A,$$  (5.28)

$$S_{220}(p) = \rho_2 - 2 R_2 N_{A3} M_2^2(p)/D_A,$$  (5.29)

$$S_{22n}(p) = -2 R_2 N_{A3} M_2(p) M_2(p+j\omega) e^{-jn\Omega t_2}/D_A,$$  (5.30)

where

$$\rho_1 = \frac{Z_{11}(p) - R_1}{Z_{11}(p) + R_1}, \quad \rho_2 = \frac{Z_{22}(p) - R_2}{Z_{22}(p) + R_2},$$  (5.31)

$$N_{A3} = A_{43} Z_3 + A_{33}, \quad N_{A4} = A_{43} Z_4 + A_{44},$$  (5.32)

$$D_A = A_{43} Z_4 + A_{44} Z_3 + A_{33} Z_4 + A_{34}.$$  (5.33)

In these expressions, $Z_{11}$, $Z_{22}$, $M_1$ and $M_2$ are the following quantities: $Z_{11}$ is the open-circuit input impedance of $N_1$ seen from port 1, $Z_{22}$ the open-circuit input impedance of $N_2$ seen from port 2, $M_1$ the open-circuit voltage ratio of $N_1$ in the direction 1→3 if $N_1$ is fed at port 1 by a voltage source of resistance $R_1$, and $M_2$ is the open-circuit voltage ratio of $N_2$ in the direction 2→4 if $N_2$ is fed at port 2 by a voltage source of resistance $R_2$.

As we assume $N_1$ and $N_2$ to be reciprocal, $M_1$ is also equal to the current transfer ratio of $N_1$ in the direction 3→1, when port 1 is terminated by $R_1$, and $M_2$ is also equal to the current transfer ratio of $N_2$ in the direction 4→2 when port 2 is terminated by $R_2$.

* The expressions given in \[43\] follow from those given here if we chose $t_1 = 0$, $t_2 = T_1$.**
5.3. General properties of the interconnecting two-port.

Some of the important properties of the interconnecting two-port $N_1$ are the following:

1. The only parameters of $N_1$ and $N_2$ having any influence on the various matrices by means of which $N_1$ can be described are the capacitances $C_1$ and $C_2$. Consequently, the properties of $N_1$ depend exclusively on the resonant-transfer arrangement itself.

2. The interconnecting two-port is permanent, i.e. its two-port parameters are independent of the choice of the time origin.

3. The average power $P_0$ delivered to the two-port $N_0$ of Fig. 5.1 is given by

$$P_0 = \text{Re}(U_3J_3^* + U_4J_4^*). \quad (5.34)$$

This corresponds to the power dissipated in the two-port $N_1$ of the circuit of Fig. 5.2 if this circuit is interpreted as in ordinary steady-state analysis.

4. $N_1$ is passive at the same time as $N_0$.

5.4. Reciprocity and quasi-reciprocity.

As has been done above, we shall assume hereafter that the networks $N_1$ and $N_2$ are reciprocal. Under these conditions, the circuit of Fig. 5.1 will be reciprocal in the sense discussed in par. 2.4 if, and only if the following conditions are satisfied by the interconnecting two-port:

1. $N_1$ itself is reciprocal, i.e. (5.23) is satisfied.

2. The coefficients $A_{33}$, $A_{34}$, $A_{43}$ and $A_{44}$ are either all single-valued (e.g. rational) functions of $\phi$ or they are all the product of $\sqrt{1-\phi^2}$ or $1/\sqrt{1-\phi^2}$ by single-valued functions of $\phi$.

In terms of the matrices $B$ or $W$, condition 2 just mentioned can also be replaced by the following two conditions to be satisfied simultaneously:
3. The coefficients $B_{33}$ and $B_{44}$ (the coefficients $W_{33}$ and $W_{44}$) are single-valued functions of $\phi$.

4. The coefficients $B_{34}$ and $B_{43}$ ($W_{34}$ and $W_{43}$) are either both single-valued functions of $\phi$ or both the product of $\sqrt{1 - \phi^2}$ or $1/\sqrt{1 - \phi^2}$ by single-valued functions of $\phi$.

Similarly, the circuit of Fig. 5.1 will be quasi-reciprocal in the sense discussed in par. 2.4 if, and only if the following conditions are satisfied by the interconnecting two-port:

1. $N_1$ itself is quasi-reciprocal, i.e. (5.24) is satisfied.
2. The coefficients $A_{33}$, $A_{34}$, $A_{43}$ and $A_{44}$ are either all the product of $e^{-p\Delta}$, where $\Delta$ is a certain constant, by single-valued functions of $\phi$, or they are all the product of $\sqrt{1 - \phi^2} e^{-p\Delta}$ or $e^{-p\Delta}/\sqrt{1 - \phi^2}$ by single-valued functions of $\phi$.

Here again, in terms of the matrices $B$ and $W$, condition 2 just mentioned can also be replaced by the following two conditions to be satisfied simultaneously:

3. The coefficients $B_{33}$ and $B_{44}$ ($W_{33}$ and $W_{44}$) are both single-valued functions of $\phi$.
4. The quantities $B_{34} e^{p\Delta}$ and $B_{43} e^{-p\Delta}$ ($W_{34} e^{p\Delta}$ and $W_{43} e^{-p\Delta}$) are both the product of $\sqrt{1 - \phi^2}$ or $1/\sqrt{1 - \phi^2}$ by single-valued functions of $\phi$.

5.5. Absence of reflection at the terminal ports.

In this paragraph, we shall assume throughout that $p=j\omega$. Furthermore, for reasons of simplicity we assume that only one useful frequency has to be considered at each terminal port; this excludes in particular DSB input or output signals. We shall say that no reflection occurs at a port at which the circuit is being fed by a source if no power is returned neither at the frequency of the source itself nor at any of the additional frequencies generated in the circuit.

Assume first that the circuit under consideration is fed at port 1 as shown in Fig. 5.1, with $p=p_1=j\omega_1$. 
No reflection will occur if for \( p = j\omega_1 \) the reflection function \( S_{11}(p, t) \) is identically zero for all \( t \), or, what amounts to the same, if all the reflection coefficients \( S_{11n}(p) \) (\( n = \ldots -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots \)) are zero for \( p = j\omega_1 \). Using the results of par. 5.2, and assuming that \( N_1 \) is lossless, this leads to the following two conditions to be satisfied for \( p = j\omega_1 \),

\[
M_1(p + jn\Omega) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad n \neq 0, \quad (5.35)
\]

\[
\tilde{Z}_3^* = \frac{(A_{33}\tilde{Z}_4 + A_{34})}{(A_{43}\tilde{Z}_4 + A_{44})}, \quad (5.36)
\]

the asterisk expressing, as usual, the complex conjugate of the corresponding quantity. Expression (5.36) can equivalently be expressed in terms of the matrix \( B \) by

\[
B_{33} + B_{44}\rho_3^*\rho_4 = \rho_3^* + \rho_4 \det B \quad (5.37)
\]

where

\[
\rho_3 = \frac{(\tilde{Z}_3 - R_{C1})}{(\tilde{Z}_3 + R_{C1})}, \quad \rho_4 = \frac{(\tilde{Z}_4 - R_{C2})}{(\tilde{Z}_4 + R_{C2})}. \quad (5.38)
\]

These conditions can be interpreted as expressing that the power available from the source, i.e. \(|E|^2/4R_1\), is completely transmitted to \( N_0 \) via port 3.

Assume next that the circuit is fed at port 2 instead of 1, with \( p = p_2 = j\omega_2 \), and that \( N_2 \) is lossless. No reflection will occur in this case if we have for \( p = j\omega_2 \),

\[
M_2(p + jn\Omega) = 0, \quad \text{for} \quad n \neq 0, \quad (5.38)
\]

and

\[
\tilde{Z}_4^* = \frac{(A_{44}\tilde{Z}_3 + A_{43})}{(A_{34}\tilde{Z}_3 + A_{33})}, \quad (5.39)
\]

this last condition being equivalent with

\[
B_{44} + B_{33}\rho_3^*\rho_4 = \rho_4^* + \rho_3 \det B. \quad (5.40)
\]

In practice absence of reflections will usually be required simultaneously in both respective pass-bands of the filters \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \), i.e. for all useful frequencies \( \omega_1 \) at port 1 and for all useful frequencies \( \omega_2 \) at port 2.
In this case, we may always assume that a frequency \( \omega_1 \) injected at port 1 is received as \( \omega_2 \) at port 2 and vice versa, i.e.

\[
\omega_2 - \omega_1 = m \Omega
\]  

(5.41)

where \( m \) is an integer. Assuming that \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \) are lossless (at least at the useful frequencies \( \omega_1 \) and \( \omega_2 \) respectively), the conditions (5.35) to (5.40) must then be satisfied simultaneously, the first three at \( p = j \omega_1 \) and the last three at \( p = j \omega_2 = j \omega_1 + j m \Omega \).

For circuits which are at least quasi-reciprocal, however, (5.36), (5.37), (5.39) and (5.40) do not change if \( p \) is replaced by \( p + jn \Omega \). In this case, these four conditions may thus be tested either at \( p = j \omega_1 \) or at \( p = j \omega_2 \).

As we shall see later, the simplest ideal filters for resonant-transfer circuits are those for which \( Z \) is equal to \( R_C \) in the pass-band. If \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \) are such filters, we thus have

\[
Z_3 = R_{C1} \quad \text{and} \quad Z_4 = R_{C2}
\]  

(5.42)

i.e. \( \rho_3 = \rho_4 = 0 \). (5.37) and (5.40) then reduce respectively to

\[
B_{33} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad B_{44} = 0
\]  

(5.43)

which are remarkably simple. They express that \( V_{3a} \) does not depend on \( V_{3b} \), and \( V_{4a} \) not on \( V_{4b} \).

If the conditions (5.43) are fulfilled, they will usually be fulfilled at all values of \( p \), in contrast to (5.35) to (5.40) which will usually be realized at most in the respective pass-bands of the filters \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \).
6. DIRECT AND INDIRECT RESONANT-TRANSFER.

6.1. Direct resonant-transfer.

6.1.1. General properties of a direct resonant-transfer arrangement.

Suppose that the two switches $S_1$ and $S_2$ operate simultaneously, i.e. that $t_1 = t_2$ and $\tau_1 = \tau_2 = \tau$. Suppose furthermore that the network $N_0$ in Fig. 5.1 is without memory, i.e. that no energy is stored in it at the beginning of each transfer period, and that $N_0$ is constant during each transfer period. If these various conditions are fulfilled, we say that the resonant-transfer is direct, and the network $N_0$ is then called a resonant-transfer switch.

Consider under these conditions the network $N_a$ corresponding to the resonant-transfer arrangement during a transfer period and let $Z_{33}$, $Z_{34}$, $Z_{43}$ and $Z_{44}$ be the elements of its impedance matrix (Fig. 6.1). We obtain

$$B_{33} = C_1 \mathcal{L}^{-1}_{-\tau}(Z_{33}), \quad B_{34} = C_2 \mathcal{L}^{-1}_{-\tau}(Z_{34}), \quad \text{(6.1)}$$

$$B_{43} = C_1 \mathcal{L}^{-1}_{-\tau}(Z_{43}), \quad B_{44} = C_2 \mathcal{L}^{-1}_{-\tau}(Z_{44}) \quad \text{(6.2)}$$

where $\mathcal{L}^{-1}(\cdot)$ represents the inverse Laplace transform taken at $t = \tau$. In this case, the two-port $N_a$ is thus constant. It is furthermore reciprocal if $Z_{34} = Z_{43}$, as can be seen from (5.23).

All the reciprocity conditions given in par. 5.4. are then satisfied, the overall circuit of Fig. 5.1 being reciprocal with respect to $t_0 = t_1$ or $t_0 = t_1 + T/2$. This is in agreement with the general reciprocity condition discussed in par. 2.4. The equivalent circuit of $N_1$ for $Z_{34} = Z_{43}$ is a resistive two-port.

In most practical situations, $N_a$ can be separated into two parts which differ at most by a different choice of the impedance level. Designating in this case by $Z_0$ and $Z_c$ respectively
the open-circuit and the short-circuit impedance of the left one of these two parts, the relations (6.1) and (6.2) can be replaced by simpler relations leading to the equivalent circuits shown in Fig. 6.2 where

\[ \xi = \frac{(1+B_c)}{(1-B_c)} \], \quad \eta = \frac{(1+B_0)}{(1-B_0)}, \quad (6.3) \]

\[ B_0 = C_1 \xi^{-1}\{Z_0}\], \quad B_c = C_1 \xi^{-1}\{Z_c\}, \quad (6.4) \]

\[ R_{cs} = R_{c1} + R_{c2}, \quad R_{cp} = R_{c1} R_{c2} / (R_{c1} + R_{c2}). \quad (6.5) \]

In practice, one usually has

\[ 0 \leq \xi \leq 1, \quad 1 \leq \eta \leq \infty. \quad (6.6) \]

In the ideal case \( \xi = 0, \eta = \infty, N_1 \) thus reduces to a simple through-connection.

6.1.2. Basic direct resonant-transfer arrangements.

Consider first the arrangement of Fig. 6.3 where \( R_s \) and \( R_p \) take into account the unavoidable losses in the coil. We use the following notation:

\[ C = \frac{2C_1 C_2}{C_1 + C_2}, \quad \omega_c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}, \quad \tau' = \pi / \omega_c', \quad (6.7) \]

\[ Q_s = \frac{\omega_c' L}{R_s}, \quad Q_p = \frac{R_p}{\omega_c' L}, \quad Q = \frac{Q_s \cdot Q_p}{Q_s + Q_p}. \quad (6.8) \]

In this case, we always have \( \eta = \infty \) while \( \xi \) can be computed by means of the results of par. 6.1.1. Limiting ourselves here to high quality inductors and small timing errors, i.e. assuming that

\[ Q \gg 1 \quad \text{and} \quad |\tau - \tau'| / \tau' \ll 1 \quad (6.9) \]

we obtain

\[ \xi = \pi / 4Q + \pi^2 (\tau - \tau')^2 / 4\tau'^2. \quad (6.10) \]
Consider next the arrangement of Fig. 6.4 where we assume
\[ \frac{L_1}{L_2} = \frac{C_2}{C_1} = \frac{R_{s1}}{R_{s2}} = \frac{R_{p1}}{R_{p2}} \text{ and } C_o = \frac{C_1 + C_2}{3} \] (6.11)

We still use the notation (6.7) and (6.8) as well as
\[ Q' = \frac{2Q_s}{Q_p/(4Q_s + Q_p)} \quad , \quad L = (L_1 + L_2)/2 \] (6.12)

Assuming again that (6.9) holds as well as \( Q' > 1 \), we obtain for \( c \) the same expression (5.53) as before while we obtain for \( \eta \)
\[ 1/\eta = \pi/8Q' + \pi^2(\tau - \tau')^2/4 \tau'^2. \] (6.13)

6.1.3. Inductorless resonant-transfer arrangement.

If the arrangements of Figs. 6.3 and 6.4 are lossless \( (Q_s = Q_p = \infty) \) and if the timing error is zero \( (\tau = \tau') \), the total charge \( q_o \) transmitted in the direction from \( C_1 \) to \( C_2 \) is given by
\[ q_o = \frac{2C_2}{C_1 + C_2} q_{1b} - \frac{2C_1}{C_1 + C_2} q_{2b}, \] (6.14)

where \( q_{1b} \) is the charge initially present on \( C_1 \) and \( q_{2b} \) the charge initially present on \( C_2 \). This is precisely twice the charge which would be transmitted if we had simply interconnected \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) via an arbitrary resistance (which may simply be the lead resistance) until the voltages across \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) have become equal. In this case the precise duration of the transfer period is unimportant as long as it is long enough compared to the time constant of the transient behaviour. The great disadvantage is, however, that a considerable loss of energy now occurs, the equivalent circuit of \( N_1 \) being in this case a simple series resistance equal to \( R_{cs} = R_{c1} + R_{c2} \).

All this suggests to conceive a different type of arrangement in which \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) are first simply interconnected via an ordinary (electronic) switch and in which some electronic means is provided which subsequently doubles the charge transmitted via this switch. A device having these properties is
is described in a recent Siemens patent [87] and is also mentioned in [82]. It is shown in Fig. 6.5 where the resonant-transfer switch $N_o$ comprises two auxiliary transistors and two auxiliary capacitances, with

$$C_3 = C_1 \ll C_5, \quad C_4 = C_2 \ll C_6. \quad (6.15)$$

The time constant of the discharge across the switch $S$ has to be much smaller than the duration $\tau$ of a transfer period while the time constant of $C_5$ ($C_6$) with the input resistance of transistor $T_1$ ($T_2$) has to be large compared to $\tau$. The advantages of the circuit of Fig. 6.5 are thus that precise timing becomes much less important and that no coils are needed.

6.1.4. Direct resonant-transfer circuit.

For a direct resonant-transfer circuit with a resonant-transfer arrangement as described in par. 6.1.1., the complete equivalent circuit becomes as shown in Fig. 6.6. The conversion and reflection coefficients can be computed either directly from this circuit or from the general expressions derived in par. 5.2. Neglecting higher order terms in $c$ and $1/\eta$, we obtain e.g.

$$S_{21n} = \frac{2 \sqrt{R_1 R_2} M_1(p) M_2(p+j\omega)}{Z_3 + Z_4 + \sqrt{\frac{\eta}{R_3 Z_4}}} R_1 \frac{1}{\eta R_p} \quad (6.16)$$

In particular, for $c = 1/\eta = 0$ and $p=j\omega$, we obtain, assuming the networks $N_1$ and $N_2$ to be lossless,

$$|S_{21n}(j\omega)|^2 = \frac{4 R_2(\omega) R_4(\omega+j\omega)}{|Z_3 + Z_4|^2} \quad (6.17)$$

where $R_2(\omega)$ is the real part of $Z_3(j\omega)$ and $R_4(\omega)$ the real part of $Z_4(j\omega)$. 
6.2. Resonant-transfer with intermediate storage.

The most important circuits with indirect resonant-transfer are those with (capacitive) intermediate storage. A circuit of this type is shown in Fig. 6.7 where the transfer occurs in two steps. $S_1$ and $S_2$ are never closed simultaneously, i.e., referring to our earlier notation defined in par. 5.1, we have

$$0 < T_1 < T, \quad 0 < T_2 < T, \quad (6.18)$$

$$T_1 > (\tau_1 + \tau_2)/2, \quad T_2 > (\tau_1 + \tau_2)/2. \quad (6.19)$$

On the other hand, $S_3$ opens and closes at the same time as $S_1$, and $S_4$ at the same time as $S_2$. $N'$ and $N''$ are resonant-transfer switches, i.e. $N'$ together with $C_1$ and $C_0$ forms a direct resonant-transfer arrangement $N'_a$, and $N''$ together with $C_0$ and $C_2$ a direct resonant-transfer arrangement $N''_a$. $R_0$ may be the leakage resistance of $C_0$ while $S_0$ and $R_0$ may or may not be present. If they are, $R_0$ may, according to a proposal by Adelaar [6], be a negative resistance connected periodically across $C_0$ when $S_3$ and $S_4$ are open in order to produce an amplification of the sample stored on $C_0$. $S_0$ and $R_0$ may, however, also be used as a clamping device if unilateral transmission is required (par. 9.2).

From the point of view of the long-time behaviour, the currents $I_5$ and $I_6$ across the switches $S_3$ and $S_4$ respectively can be written

$$I_5 = J_5 \Delta(t-t_1), \quad I_6 = J_6 \Delta(t-t_2) \quad (6.20)$$

where $\Delta(t)$ is again defined by (3.5). For the (instantaneous) voltage $v_o = V_o e^{pt}$ across $C_0$, we can write

$$v_o(t_{1m} - 0) = e^{-\alpha_2} v_o(t_{1m} - T_1 + 0) \quad (6.21)$$

$$v_o(t_{2m} - 0) = e^{-\alpha_1} v_o(t_{2m} - T_2 + 0) \quad (6.22)$$
where $t_{1m}$ and $t_{2m}$ are defined by (5.3) and where the (positive or negative) constants $\alpha_1$ and $\alpha_2$ characterize the influence of $S$, $R$, and $R'$. At each instant $t_{1m}$, $V_0$ changes suddenly from a value which we call $V_{5b}$ to a value $V_{5a}$, and at each $t_{2m}$, it changes suddenly from $V_{6b}$ to $V_{6a}$. This allows us to define "voltages" $U_5$ and $U_6$ by

$$U_5 = \frac{(V_{5a} + V_{5b})}{2}, \quad U_6 = \frac{(V_{6a} + V_{6b})}{2},$$

while we also have

$$(V_{5a} - V_{5b})/2 = J_5R_{Co}, \quad (V_{6a} - V_{6b})/2 = J_6R_{Co} \quad (6.23)$$

where

$$R_{Co} = T/2C_0 \quad (6.24)$$

The interconnecting two-port $N_1$ of the equivalent circuit of Fig. 5.2 can now be considered to be composed of three two-ports $N_1'$, $N_1''$ and $N_1'''$ in cascade (Fig. 6.8). $N_1'$ is simply the interconnecting two-port corresponding to $N_a'$; it can be characterized e.g. by its chain matrix $A'$ which can be computed as discussed in section 6.1. Similarly, $N_1''$ corresponds to $N_a''$ and can be characterized by its chain matrix $A''$. The two-port $N_1'''$ has constant image impedances equal to $R_{Co}$. Its scattering matrix with respect to terminations $R_{Co}$ is given by

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & e^{-pT_2}\alpha_2 \\
-e^{-pT_1}\alpha_1 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\quad (6.25)
$$

and its chain matrix $A''''$ is given by

$$
A'''' = e^{-p\Delta}\alpha' \begin{pmatrix}
\cosh(\alpha + pT/2) & R_{Co} \sinh(\alpha + pT/2) \\
\sinh(\alpha + pT/2)/R_{Co} & \cosh(\alpha + pT/2)
\end{pmatrix}
\quad (6.26)
$$

or equivalently by

$$
A'''' = A'''' \cosh \alpha e^{-p\Delta - \alpha'} \sqrt{1 - \Psi^2},
\quad (6.27)
$$
where

\[ \Delta = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{2}, \quad \alpha = \frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2}, \quad \alpha' = \frac{\alpha_2 - \alpha_1}{2}, \quad (6.28) \]

\[ A'' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \psi \tanh \alpha & R_C \left( \phi + \tanh \alpha \right) \\ \left( \phi + \tanh \alpha \right) / R_C & 1 + \psi \tanh \alpha \end{pmatrix}, \quad (6.29) \]

If \( N'_1 \) and \( N''_1 \) are reciprocal, the original circuit will be quasi-reciprocal if \( \alpha = 0 \), and it will be reciprocal if in addition \( \Delta = 0 \). A possible equivalent circuit of the original circuit is shown in Fig. 6.9 which comprises two three-port gyrators, two delay lines \( (T_1 \text{ and } T_2) \) and two attenuators \( (\alpha_i > 0, i=1 \text{ or } 2) \) or amplifiers \( (\alpha_i < 0) \), all with characteristic impedance equal to \( R_C \).

All the transmission and reflection properties of the circuit of Fig. 6.7 can now be computed. In the simplest case \( N'_1 \) and \( N''_1 \) are simple through connections while \( \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0 \). We then have e.g. 

\[ S_{21n} = \frac{2 \sqrt{R_{12} R_C M_1(p) M_2(p+jn\Omega)} \sqrt{1 - \psi^2} e^{p\Delta - jn\Omega t_2}}{\psi(Z_3 Z_4 + R_C^2) + R_C (Z_3 + Z_4)}, \quad (6.30) \]

and for \( p = j\omega \), assuming \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \) to be lossless,

\[ |S_{21n}(j\omega)|^2 = \frac{4(1+\psi^2)R_C^2 R_3(\omega) R_4(\omega+n\Omega)}{|j\psi(Z_3 Z_4 + R_C^2) + R_C (Z_3 + Z_4)|^2}, \quad (6.31) \]

while similar expressions hold for \( S_{12n} \).

### 6.3. Ideal filters.

We shall say that the networks \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \) are ideal filters for direct resonant-transfer circuits if they are such that in their respective pass-bands \( (6.17) \) becomes unity, i.e. equal to its highest possible value. Similarly, we shall say that \( N_1 \) and

* Here again, the formulas given in [43] follow from those given here if we choose \( t_1 = 0, t_2 = T_1 \).
are ideal filters for resonant-transfer circuits with intermediate storage if they are such that in their respective pass-bands (6.31) becomes equal to unity. The general conditions for ideal filters are different in these two situations and shall not be reproduced here. We shall limit ourselves instead to what we call ideal universal filters.

The concept of ideal universal filter arises e.g. in the following way. In an electronic TDM exchange based on the resonant-transfer principle, a same filter will at certain times have to work together with an arrangement with direct transfer and at other times with an arrangement with intermediate storage, depending on the way the connection is established in the exchange. One can thus wonder if it is possible to specify $N_1$ and $N_2$ in such a way that (6.17) and (6.31) both become equal to unity. It turns out that in order to obtain this we must have for the value of $n$ and all the values of $\omega$ under consideration

$$R_3(\omega) = R_4(n\omega) = R_3'(\omega) = R_4'(\omega) = R_0$$  \hspace{1cm} (6.32)

$$\gamma_3(\omega) = \gamma_4(\omega) = 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (6.33)

where $R_3$, $R_4$, $\tilde{R}_3$ and $\tilde{R}_4$ are the real parts of $Z_3$, $Z_4$, $\tilde{Z}_3$ and $\tilde{Z}_4$ respectively, while $\gamma_3$ and $\gamma_4$ are the imaginary parts of $Z_3$ and $Z_4$. Consequently, an ideal universal filter can be defined as follows.

Consider the network $N$ of Fig. 6.10 which is terminated at port 1 by a resistance $R_1$. We assume that the input impedance $Z(p)$ at port 2 reduces at high frequency to a capacitance $C$, i.e. we assume (4.1) to hold. Let $M(p)$ be the open-circuit voltage ratio in the direction 1→2 when $N$ is fed at port 1 by a voltage source in series with $R_1$. We shall say that $N$ is an ideal universal filter if the following conditions are satisfied for all pass-band frequencies $\omega$

$$Z(j\omega) = R_0 = R_0'$$  \hspace{1cm} (6.34)

$$|M(j\omega)|^2 = \frac{R_0'}{R_1}$$

where $R_0$ is a constant, the condition for $M(j\omega)$ expressing in fact the losslessness of $N$ at the frequencies $\omega$. 
All ideal filters as well as the ideal universal filters discussed so far are in fact filters for single-side-band (including low-frequency to low-frequency) transmission. These concepts can however easily be extended to situations where the signal is transmitted in double-sideband form at one or both terminal ports. This leads to the concept of ideal universal filter for double-sideband transmission for which (6.34) has to be replaced by

\[ Z(j\omega) = 2R(\omega) = R_0, \quad |M(j\omega)|^2 = R_0/R_1. \]  

(6.35)

So far, we have assumed in (6.34) and (6.35) that \( R_0 \) is any constant. With the aid of a theorem due to Kintchine and Ostrowski (see e.g. [14], vol. II, pp. 157-158), as well as (4.52) it can be shown, however, that this constant \( R_0 \) is necessarily equal to the step resistance \( R_0 = T/2C \) corresponding to \( Z(p) \). With other words, the input capacitance of an ideal universal filter is necessarily equal to \( C_0 = T/2R_0 \).

6.4. Influence of losses and timing errors on the overall performance.

In order to get an idea of the influence of the losses and timing errors on the overall performance, it is useful to compute \( S_{21n} \) under the assumption that (6.32) and (6.33) are fulfilled. Retaining only first order terms in \( \xi \) and \( 1/\eta' \), we obtain for direct resonant-transfer circuits

\[ 1/|S_{21n}| = 1 + c + 1/\eta', \quad (6.36) \]

and for circuits with intermediate storage

\[ 1/|S_{21n}| = 1 + c' + c'' + 1/\eta' + 1/\eta'', \quad (6.37) \]

where \( c' \) and \( \eta' \) refer to \( N'_i \), and \( c'' \) and \( \eta'' \) to \( N''_i \). In first approximation the influence of the losses and timing errors is thus to add a frequency independent loss.
7. THE FILTER DESIGN PROBLEM

7.1. Realization of ideal universal filters.

7.1.1 General principles of the reactance compensation procedure.

We shall assume in this and the following paragraphs that we are dealing with low-pass filters. Some particularities of the band-pass problem will be discussed later.

Normalized quantities will be used throughout, the constant resistance $R_0$ in the pass-band being, of course, chosen as normalizing resistance. The conditions (6.34) can then be written

$$\tilde{z}(j\omega) = 1, \quad r(\omega) = 1, \quad |M(j\omega)|^2 = 1/r_1$$

(7.1)

where $r_1 = R_1/R_0$ is the normalized terminating resistance.

For the ideal open-circuit low-pass filter studied in par. 4.3, the two last conditions (7.1) are clearly satisfied. If in addition, $f_c = F/2$, i.e. $\varphi_c = \infty$, the first condition (7.1) is also satisfied. This corresponds to the ideal universal filter already studied by Cattermole [22, 23].

Consider next the two-port $N$ shown in Fig. 7.1 where we assume $N'$ to be an ideal open-circuit low-pass filter of cut-off frequency $f_c < F/2$ and $z_n(\lambda)$ to be a reactance which is capacitive at high frequency. The input impedance $z'(\lambda)$ of $N'$ is then given by (4.48) and (4.49), with $z$ replaced by $z'$, and the corresponding pulse impedance is given by (4.50) and (4.51), with $z$ replaced by $z'$. The two-port $N$ of Fig. 7.1 can thus be made arbitrarily close to an ideal universal filter with an arbitrary cut-off frequency $f_c < F/2$ if we can indicate a succession of reactance functions

$$z_1(\lambda), z_2(\lambda), \ldots, z_n(\lambda), \ldots$$

(7.2)

such that in the pass-band of $N'$ their $\phi$-transforms

$$\tilde{z}_1(\phi), \tilde{z}_2(\phi), \ldots, \tilde{z}_n(\phi), \ldots$$

(7.3)

tend more and more towards the value $\tilde{z}_0$ defined by

$$\tilde{z}_0(\phi) = \frac{j}{\pi} \ln \left( \frac{j\varphi + \phi}{j\varphi - \phi} \right)$$

(7.4)
Since every reactance function in the $\phi$-domain can be transformed back into a reactance function in the $\lambda$ domain having a zero at $\lambda = \infty$, the problem will be completely solved if we can indicate a succession of reactance functions (7.3) having the required property. Such a succession of reactance functions is indeed given by

$$\tilde{Z}_n(\psi) = j \frac{2}{\pi} \frac{W_{n-1}(j\varphi_c/\psi)}{P_n(j\varphi_c/\psi)}$$

(7.5)

where $P_n$ is the Legendre polynomial of degree $n$ and where $W_{n-1}$ is, in the notation of Jahnke and Emde, the auxiliary polynomial of degree $n-1$ occurring in the theory of the spherical functions of the second kind [56,101]. That (7.5) is indeed a reactance function can be shown by continued fraction expansion of (7.4) [79]. It can also be shown by direct calculation that the input capacitance of $N$ has the value mentioned at the end of par. 6.3.

The procedure of obtaining an ideal universal filter by the method just described will be called reactance compensation. It can equally well be applied to the realization of ideal universal band-pass filters, starting from an ideal open-circuit band-pass filter.

7.1.2. Practical considerations.

In a practical situation, the open-circuit filter $N'$ to be compensated will, of course, be non-ideal. Similarly the compensating reactance $z_n(\lambda)$ should be the simplest one which is still compatible with the given performance criterion. This does not imply, however, that the subscript $n$ should necessarily be as small as possible. For low-pass filters, e.g., the number of inductances as well as the number of capacitances required for the realization of a $z_n(\lambda)$ with odd subscript $n$ is the same as for the next highest even value of $n$. Consequently, only even values of $n$ are of interest in this case.
In particular, \( z_2(\lambda) \) corresponds to a parallel resonant circuit, \( z_4(\lambda) \) can be realized by means of two parallel resonant circuits in series, \( z_6(\lambda) \) by three such circuits, etc. As \( z_n(\lambda) \) only has to produce a correcting effect, a single parallel resonant circuit will be sufficient in most practical situations.

The restriction to even values of \( n \) does not apply to band-pass filters. If compensation is required in the neighbourhood of both cut-off frequencies, the simplest possible compensating reactance is formed by a parallel resonant circuit in series with a simple capacitance.

The method of reactance compensation is in some respects similar to the well-known method of \( m \)-derivation. As can be concluded from a theory given by Belevitch [11], filters equivalent to \( m \)-derived filters can be obtained by adding a suitable reactance either in series with the open-circuit port of an open-circuit filter or in shunt with the short-circuit port of a short-circuit filter.

7.1.3. Compensation Procedure Using Auxiliary Filters

The compensating impedance used in the circuit of Fig. 7.1 does not necessarily have to be a reactance. Consider e.g. the function \( \tilde{z}''(\psi) \) which for imaginary values of \( \psi \) is given by

\[
\tilde{z}''(j\psi) = \tilde{R}''(\psi) + j\tilde{X}''(\psi)
\]

where

\[
\tilde{R}''(\psi) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } |\psi| < \varphi_c, \\ 1 & \text{for } |\psi| > \varphi_c, \end{cases}, \quad 0 < \varphi_c < \infty
\]

\[
\tilde{X}''(\psi) = j \frac{1}{\pi} \ln \left| \frac{\varphi + \varphi_c}{\varphi - \varphi_c} \right|
\]

Clearly, \( \tilde{z}''(\psi) \) is the input impedance of an ideal open-circuit high-pass filter in the \( \psi \)-domain. In the \( \lambda \)-domain, however, the corresponding \( z''(\lambda) \) is the input impedance of an ideal open-circuit band-pass filter of any one of the following three types, \( f'_c \) and \( f''_c \) being respectively the lower and the upper cut-off frequency.
and $f_c$ being the smallest positive solution of $\psi_c = \tan(\pi f_c / F)$,

1. $f'_c = nF + f_c$, $f'_c = (n + 1/2)F$,
2. $f'_c = (n + 1/2)F$, $f'_c = (n + 1)F - f_c$,
3. $f'_c = nF + f_c$, $f'_c = (n + 1)F - f_c$,

where $n$ is a non-negative integer. Furthermore, in the stop-band the real part $r''(v)$ of $z''(jv)$ is $r''(v) = 0$ in all three cases, while in the pass-band $r''(v) = 1$ for type 1 and 2, and $r''(v) = 1/2$ for type 3.

If $z_n(\lambda)$ in Fig. 7.1 is replaced by anyone of the impedances $z''(\lambda)$ thus defined, the resulting two-port $N$ is again an ideal universal low-pass filter. It is no longer purely reactive although it is still lossless in the pass-band of $N'$. A purely reactive compensating impedance can be derived from $z''(\lambda)$ by simply short-circuiting or open-circuiting the terminating resistance of the band-pass filter. This does not affect its input impedance in the stop-band (i.e. in the pass-band of $N'$ as well as at all other frequencies corresponding to $|\psi| < \psi_c$).

The simplest practical realization of the impedances $z''(\lambda)$, clearly, is a parallel resonant circuit shunted by a resistance.

7.2. Effective (insertion) loss design.

7.2.1. Realizability conditions.

Although in principle, the methods described above allow to design arbitrarily good filters, they do not furnish filters which are optimum for a given performance criterion (e.g. smallest number of elements or smallest number of inductors for given attenuation requirements). The design of such optimum
filters requires that we first establish a set of necessary and sufficient conditions for the realizability of the mathematical expressions to be considered.

We shall limit ourselves here to the case of a symmetrical lossless \((c = 1/\eta = 0, N_1 \text{ and } N_2 \text{ purely reactive})\) direct resonant-transfer circuit. We shall assume in addition that the open circuit voltage ratios \(M_1 = M_2 = M\) are normal, i.e. that they have no multiple poles. The conversion coefficient \(S_{21n}(\lambda)\) of a direct resonant-transfer circuit having these various properties satisfies the following necessary and sufficient conditions (written in terms of normalized quantities):

1. It is of the form

\[
S_{21n}(\lambda) = \frac{m(\lambda)m(\lambda + j2\pi n)}{N \prod_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1 - \phi_i^*}{\phi_i - \phi_i^*}}
\]  

(7.10)

where \(N\) is a positive integer and where the parameters \(\phi_i\) are related to certain other parameters \(\lambda_i\) by \(\phi_i = \tanh \lambda_i\).

2a. The parameters \(\lambda_i\) are real or complex numbers with non-positive real parts. Moreover, if \(k\) is the number of parameters \(\lambda_i\) which are purely imaginary, we have \(0 \leq k < N\). We shall assume that these purely imaginary parameters are those labelled \(i = N-k+1\) to \(i = N\).

2b. All complex \(\lambda_i\) occur in conjugate pairs.

2c. All \(\lambda_i\) are distinct.

3. \(m(\lambda)\) is a rational function of the form

\[
m(\lambda) = \frac{f(\lambda)}{d(\lambda)}
\]  

(7.11)

where the polynomial \(d(\lambda)\) is related to the \(\lambda_i\) by

\[
d(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{N-k} (\lambda - \lambda_i)
\]  

(7.12)

and where \(f(\lambda)\) is an arbitrary real even or odd polynomial in \(\lambda\) of degree smaller than \(N-k\). The coefficient of the term of highest degree in \(f(\lambda)\) may without any restriction be chosen equal to unity.
4a. For $1 \leq i \leq N-k$, the parameters $b_i$ are related to the $\lambda_i$ and to the polynomial $f(\lambda)$ by

$$
b_i = \pm 2 \frac{f^2(\lambda_i)}{\prod_{l=1}^{N-k} \left( \lambda_l^2 - \lambda_i^2 \right)}
$$

where the upper sign corresponds to $f(\lambda)$ even and the lower sign to $f(\lambda)$ odd, and where $d'(\lambda)$ represents the derivative of $d(\lambda)$ with respect to $\lambda$.

4b. For $N-k+1 \leq i \leq N$, the parameters $b_i$ are arbitrary real positive numbers, the only restriction being that the $b_i$'s corresponding to two conjugate $\lambda_i$'s have to be identical.

### 7.2.2. Some practical considerations.

With the aid of the above realizability conditions, the design of an optimum filter can now be reduced to a mathematical optimization problem which, however, is more difficult than in ordinary filter design.

Firstly we note that we have to consider simultaneously the transmission of the useful signal as well as the suppression of all unwanted signals generated in the circuit. Due to this, a certain number (in general at least two) of the functions $S_{21n}(\lambda)$, corresponding to different values of the subscript $n$, have to be considered simultaneously.

Let us examine next the pass-band attenuation $A$ (i.e. the attenuation at the useful values of $\omega$ and $n$). We want to approximate $A$ in such a way that

$$
A_d \leq A_{dm} \quad , \quad A_s \leq A_{sm} \quad ,
$$

where

$$
A_d = (A_{\text{max}} - A_{\text{min}})/2 \quad , \quad A_s = (A_{\text{max}} + A_{\text{min}})/2 \quad ,
$$

$A_{\text{max}}$ and $A_{\text{min}}$ being respectively the maximum and the minimum values taken by $A$, and $A_{dm}$ and $A_{sm}$ being preassigned quantities.
In contrast to conventional filters, the value of \( A_{\text{min}} \) cannot become zero since this would require the filters to block perfectly all unwanted frequency components, i.e. to have an infinite number of attenuation poles (the unwanted frequency components would otherwise dissipate part of the available energy in the terminating resistances). The value of \( A_{\text{sm}} \) can thus certainly not be smaller than a certain value \( A_{s \text{ min}} \), otherwise no solution can exist. Furthermore, for \( A_s > A_{s \text{ min}} \), the obtainable attenuation of the unwanted signals will be a function of the value of \( A_s \) and will be optimum for a certain value \( A_{s0} \) of \( A_s \), possibly for \( A_s = A_{s \text{ sm}} \). On the other hand, it seems most likely that the optimum value of \( A_d \) corresponds to \( A_d = A_{d \text{ dm}} \).

There may be different situations in which the optimum attenuation requirement is not simply given by (7.14), or in which e.g. also the shape of the phase characteristic is of importance. Whatever the requirements may be, it is certain that we cannot expect that an explicit solution of the optimization problem can ever be found. In practice, iterative methods of optimization will thus always have to be used.

Note also that in case of effective loss design, there is usually no advantage to choose for the parameter \( k \) mentioned in par. 7.2.1. any value other than \( k = 0 \).

7.3. Filters for narrow-band transmission.

We say that we are dealing with narrow-band transmission if the bandwidth of the filters is small compared to \( F \). In this sense, low-pass filters may thus also be narrow-band filters.

It can be shown that in case of narrow-band direct resonant-transfer circuits, the design of the filters can often be reduced to an ordinary filter design problem.
In particular, if both networks $N_1$ and $N_2$ are low-pass filters, one may first design an ordinary filter with symmetrical structure which is subsequently split in two equal halves (see example Fig. 7.2). If a DSB signal is required at port 2, the filter $N_2$ may subsequently be transformed by a low-pass to band-pass transformation, after which its impedance level should be divided by 2 (Fig. 7.3).
8. AMPLIFICATION IN RESONANT-TRANSFER CIRCUITS.


The simplest practical way of achieving loss compensation or amplification in resonant-transfer circuits for bidirectional transmission is to include active devices in the resonant-transfer arrangement. For TDM systems in particular, this often offers the possibility of using the same active device in common for a large number of channels.

The simplest active arrangement is perhaps the one proposed by Adelaar [6] and already mentioned in par. 6.2. In this case, no reflection occurs since the amplification takes place when the sample is stored in the intermediate capacitance \( C_0 \).

Many methods of amplification in direct resonant-transfer arrangements have been proposed \([5, 44, 87, 88, 90, 103, 104]\). In the arrangement of Fig. 6.5, amplification can be obtained by choosing \( C_3 > C_1 \) and \( C_4 > C_2 \). An interesting method achieves amplification by parametrically varying one or several of the reactive elements contained in an arrangement such as the one of Fig. 3.1. This method has been proposed by Holzwarth, Sabban and Schlichte \([88, 103, 104]\) and is further discussed in \([33]\).

An active direct resonant-transfer arrangement which allows to satisfy a large number of requirements is shown in Fig. 8.1 \([44]\). In this case, an intermediate shunt capacitance \( C_0 \) is provided which allows e.g. the parasitic capacitance of the highway in an electronic TDM exchange to be taken into account. Further requirements are that \( L_1, L_2 \) and \( C_0 \) are discharged at the end of the transfer period (in order to avoid crosstalk as well as voltage surges when the switches \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) are being opened) and that the conditions \((5.43)\), i.e. \( B_{33}=B_{44}=0 \), are fulfilled. The circuit has first been proposed in \([43]\) and has been analyzed in the symmetrical case by Rosenoer \([private communication]\).
For the case of greatest practical importance, the element values found by him can be put into the following form (the capacitance $C$ being assumed to be given):

\[
LC = \frac{\tau^2}{\pi^2(1-\alpha^2)^2}, \quad C_0 = \frac{2(1+\alpha^2)^2}{3(1-\alpha^2)}, \quad (8.1)
\]

\[
RC = -\frac{\tau\alpha(3-\alpha^2)}{1-\alpha^4}, \quad R'C = \frac{\tau}{\pi\alpha(1-\alpha^2)}, \quad (8.2)
\]

\[
R_0C = -\frac{3\tau(1-\alpha^2)}{2\pi\alpha(1+\alpha^2)(4+\alpha^2)}, \quad (8.3)
\]

where $\tau$ is the duration of the transfer period, $\alpha$ a gain coefficient defined by

\[
B_{43} = B_{34} = e^{\alpha\pi}, \quad (8.4)
\]

and where $L = L_1 = L_2$, $C = C_1 = C_2$, $R = R_1 = R_2$ and $R' = R'_1 = R'_2$.

We conclude from the above expressions that for moderate gains ($0 < \alpha < 1$), only $R$ and $R_0$ become negative. The circuit then comprises three negative and two positive resistances. The highest possible gain (corresponding to $\alpha = 1$) which can be secured according to (8.1) to (8.4) is equal to $4\pi$ nepers or roughly 27 dB.

Broux [17,18] has further analyzed the arrangement of Fig. 8.1 as well as various related ones. He has examined the possibility of realizing not only a gain but also a partial compensation of the unavoidable losses, taking into account the inherent imperfections of the negative resistances as well as the various operating positions of the switches $S_1$, $S_2$ and $S_0$ (this last one not shown; it may have to be provided across $C_0$ as a clamping device in order to avoid crosstalk). In any case, proper behaviour of the arrangement of Fig. 8.1 for $0 < \alpha < 1$ requires that $R_1$ and $R_2$ be open-circuit stable and $R_0$ short-circuit stable.
8.2. Stability of active resonant-transfer circuits.

If a resonant-transfer circuit contains an arrangement with active elements, the overall circuit may easily become unstable. We shall discuss hereafter a stability criterion which has been found under the assumption that the circuit is at least quasi-reciprocal, that the conditions (5.43), i.e. $B_{33}=B_{44}=0$, are fulfilled at all frequencies and that the networks $N_1$ and $N_2$ are lossless in their respective pass-bands. We also assume that $Z_3$ and $Z_4$ can be considered to be equal to $R_{C1}$ and $R_{C2}$ in the passbands of $N_1$ and $N_2$ respectively, but not outside of these pass-bands. If $\omega$ falls into the pass-band of $N_1$ and $|\omega+n\Omega|$ into the pass-band of $N_2$, we have under the various assumptions just mentioned

$$|S_{21n}(j\omega)|^2 = |S_{12}(-n(j\omega+jn\Omega))|^2 = |b|$$  (8.5)

where

$$b = B_{34}B_{43}.$$  (8.6)

Thus, there will be overall amplification if $|b| > 1$ and overall attenuation if $|b| < 1$.

Consider next the conversion and reflection coefficients derived in par. 5.2. They all contain a denominator term which, for $B_{33}=B_{44}=0$, can be written

$$D=1-b \rho_3 \rho_4$$  (8.7)

where $\rho_3$ and $\rho_4$ are given by (5.38) and $b$ by (8.6). If $B_{34}$ and $B_{43}$ have no poles in the right half plane, as will usually be the case, instability can only occur if $D$ has zeros in the right half plane, i.e. if the plot of $b \rho_3 \rho_4$ for $\rho=j\omega$ encircles the point $+1$. This will never occur if

$$|b| < 1 \rho_{\text{max}}^2$$  (8.8)

where $\rho_{\text{max}}$ is the maximum value of $\sqrt{\rho_3 \rho_4}$ at real frequencies, i.e. because of the periodicity of $\rho_3$ and $\rho_4$, between $\omega=0$ and $\omega=\Omega/2$. 
At first glance, the criterion (8.8) may seem too severe, but this is usually not the case. This is due to the fact that in an electronic TDM exchange many different combinations of filters and resonant-transfer arrangements may be established depending on the way the connection is established in the exchange.

The coefficients $\rho_3$ and $\rho_4$ behave like reflection coefficients of ordinary impedances with respect to positive resistances. Their moduli can thus not exceed unity. According to (8.5) and (8.8), no gain is possible for $\rho_{\text{max}} = 1$. Even the losses occurring in the terminating transformers of practical circuits cannot be compensated in this case since these losses can be considered to occur in the terminations rather than in the circuit itself.

We conclude from all this, that filters obtained by pure reactance compensation (pars. 7.1.1 and 7.1.2) cannot be used in combination with active resonant-transfer arrangements since in this case the input pulse impedance is reactive in the stop-band. $\rho_{\text{max}}$ can however be made as small as we like by means of the compensation method described in par. 7.1.3. The original filter $N'$ should then not be unnecessarily steep since otherwise a slight misadjustment of the compensating impedance may substantially increase the value of $\rho_{\text{max}}$ and thus lead to instability. Although this has not been mentioned in par. 7.1.3, note that ideal universal filters can also be obtained by means of the same compensation method even if the transition range between pass-band and stop-band is not infinitely steep.
9. SOME SPECIAL APPLICATIONS OF THE RESONANT-TRANSFER PRINCIPLE.

9.1. Resonant-transfer circuits for pulse-code modulation.

A resonant-transfer circuit for PCM application is shown in Fig. 9.1. The load circuit consists in this case of a simple capacitance $C_2$. In addition to this, a clamping switch (not shown) may be provided across $C_2$, which discharges this capacitance each time before the switch $S$ closes again. Usually, the resonant-transfer arrangement will be of the simplest possible type as indicated in the figure. In this case, the equivalent circuit is as shown in Fig. 9.2, although a more general interconnecting two-port could equally well be provided between ports 3 and 4.

We shall use hereafter the same notation as in the previous paragraphs.

For a circuit with clamping, we have $V_{4b}=0$, whence from (5.7) to (5.9), $\tilde{Z}_4=R_{C2}$. For a circuit without clamping, $\tilde{Z}_4=R_{C2}/\phi$.

The main quantity of interest is now $V_{4a}$. We shall define a transfer coefficient $S_a$ by

$$S_a = \sqrt{\frac{R_1}{R_{C2}}} \cdot \frac{V_{4a}}{E}. \quad (9.1)$$

It has the property that

$$|S_a|^2 = \frac{W_2}{W_{\text{max}}} \quad (9.2)$$

where

$$W_2 = |V_{4a}|^2 C_2/2, \quad W_{\text{max}} = |E|^2 T/4R_1. \quad (9.3)$$

$W_2$ being the average energy per sample stored on $C_2$ and $W_{\text{max}}$ being the maximum average energy available from the source during the time interval $T$.

For the circuit with clamping, we obtain for $S_a$

$$S_a(p)=2\sqrt{\frac{R_1 R_{C2}}{C_2}} M_1(p)/\left(\tilde{Z}_3 R_{C2}+R_{C2}+R_{Cs}\right), \quad (9.4)$$

i.e., if $N_1$ is lossless,
No amplitude distortion will occur if $N_1$ is an ideal universal filter ($Z_3 = R_3 = R_{C1}$ in the pass-band), and we then have

$$|S_a(j\omega)| = 2\sqrt{C_1C_2}/(C_1+C_2)(1+c).$$

(9.6)

This expression reaches its maximum value $1/(1+c)$ for $C_1 = C_2$.

For a circuit without clamping, we obtain for $S_a$

$$S_a(p) = \frac{\sqrt{R_1R_2}(1+\phi)M_1(p)}{R_{C2} + \phi(Z_3+cR_{Cs})}$$

(9.7)

i.e., if $N_1$ is lossless,

$$|S_a(j\omega)|^2 = (1+\phi^2)R_2R_3(j\omega)/|R_{C2}+j\phi(Z_3+cR_{Cs})|^2$$

(9.8)

No amplitude distortion will occur only if $N_1$ is an ideal universal filter with

$$C_2/C_1 = R_{C1}/R_{C2} = (1-c)/(1+c),$$

(9.9)

and we then have

$$|S_a(j\omega)|^2 = (1-c)/(1+c).$$

(9.10)

It is clear that general realizability criteria similar to those mentioned in par. 7.2.1. can also be given for the circuits described here.

### 9.2. Non-reciprocal resonant-transfer circuits

The resonant-transfer principle can also be applied to the realization of essentially non-reciprocal circuits. A few examples of such circuits will be discussed. As can be concluded from the general discussion in par. 2.4., all these circuits must contain at least two switches which do not both operate symmetrically in time with respect to a same instant $t_0$.

A first example is offered by the circuit of Fig. 6.7., discussed in par. 6.2, where we assume that the samples transmitted via $C_0$ in the direction $5 \rightarrow 6$ do not undergo any
attenuation \((\alpha_1=0)\) while perfect clamping is applied by means of \(S_0\) to the samples transmitted in the opposite direction \((\alpha_2=\infty)\). We also assume \(C_1=C_2=C\), i.e. \(R_{C1}=R_{C2}=R_C\). The two-port \(N''_1\) (Fig. 6.8) is then determined by

\[
B''_{55} = B''_{66} = B''_{56} = 0, \quad B''_{65} = e^{-pT_1},
\]

It can be represented as an isolator of impedance matrix

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
R_C & 0 \\
2R_C & R_C
\end{pmatrix}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (9.11)

in cascade with a delay line of delay \(T_1\) and characteristic impedance \(R_C\) (Fig. 9.3). The isolator itself can be represented by a gyrator of gyration resistance \(R_C\) in series with a two-port consisting of a single shunt resistance \(R_C\).

An even simpler resonant-transfer arrangement for the realization of an isolating device is shown in Fig. 9.4 where we assume that the two capacitances \(C\), the inductance \(2L\) and the switch \(S\) form an ideal resonant-transfer arrangement as discussed in par. 3.1 (Fig. 3.1). To this is added a clamping device consisting of an auxiliary switch \(S_a\) and a very small resistance \(R_a\). Immediately after each transfer period, \(S_a\) closes for a very short but long enough period to produce a practically complete discharge of the left-hand capacitance. We then have \(B_{33}=B_{44}=B_{34}=0\) and \(B_{43}=1\) so that the corresponding two-port \(N_1\) is a simple isolator of impedance matrix (9.11). This is the same two-port as the one obtained from Fig. 9.3 in the limiting case \(T_1 \to 0\).

A gyrator resonant-transfer arrangement has been proposed by Edrich \([32,33]\) (Fig. 9.5a, with \(C_1=C_2=C\)). The switch \(S\) is closed during transfer periods of duration

\[
\tau = \pi \sqrt{LC} \hspace{1cm} (9.12)
\]

which are immediately followed by periods of duration

\[
\tau_a = \pi \sqrt{2LC} \hspace{1cm} (9.13)
\]
during which the switch $S$ is open and $S_1$ closed. The corresponding two-port $N_1$ is determined by

$$B_{33} = B_{44} = 0, \quad B_{34} = -B_{43} = 1$$

(9.14)

Its impedance matrix

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & R_C \\
-R_C & 0
\end{pmatrix}
$$

(9.15)

corresponds to a simple gyrator of gyration resistance $R_C = T/2C$.

In view of the discussion to be given in par. 10.2, it is useful to generalize the Edrich gyrator to the case $C_1 \neq C_2$. The capacitance $C$ must then be replaced in (9.12) by $C = 2C_1C_2/(C_1 + C_2)$ and in (9.13) by $C_2$, while (9.14) must be replaced by

$$B_{33} = B_{44} = \rho, \quad B_{34} = 1 - \rho, \quad B_{43} = -1 + \rho$$

(9.16)

where

$$\rho = (C_1 - C_2)/(C_1 + C_2).$$

(9.17)

This leads again to an impedance matrix of the simple form (9.15), with $R_C$ replaced by $R_C = T/2C_2$.

A resonant-transfer circulator [19] device first proposed by Adelaar [3] is shown in Fig. 9.6. We assume that the three switches operate periodically but not simultaneously in the order $S_1, S_2, S_3$. Transmission thus always takes place via the intermediate storage capacitance. From Fig. 9.6, we can still derive an equivalent circuit as has been done in par. 5.1, but this equivalent circuit is now a three-port. In particular, $N_1$ is now a threeport circulator with a delay line in cascade with each one of its ports, all characteristic impedances being equal to $R_C$. According to the order in which the switches are assumed to operate, the direction of circulation is clockwise.

Another resonant-transfer circulator device has been proposed by Edrich [32,33]. The corresponding resonant-transfer
arrangement is shown in Fig. 9.7. The switch $S_1$ is closed during transfer periods of duration $\tau = \pi \sqrt{LC}$. These are immediately followed by transfer periods of the same duration during which $S_2$ is closed. The interconnecting three-port $N_1$ is a simple circulator of characteristic impedance $R_0$ and clockwise direction of circulation.

The Edrich circulator is simpler than the one proposed by Adelaar. This latter one, however, offers greater flexibility when used e.g. as a device for realizing 2-wire/4-wire transitions in an electronic TDM-exchange. It is also more advantageous if more than three ports have to be provided.

Various other non-reciprocal resonant-transfer circuits, including devices with non-reciprocal parametric amplification, have also been proposed by Edrich [32,33]. He has made no use, however, of the representation of these circuits by means of the equivalent circuit first derived in [43]. That this representation is particularly simple also for non-reciprocal circuits is clear from the few examples which we have just discussed.

In all these examples, we have assumed that the resonant-transfer switches are composed of ordinary switches and inductances. One could, of course, equally well use other types of resonant-transfer switches. In this case, some of the above circuits may have to be modified slightly. A circuit which e.g. produces the same gyrator effect as the one of Fig. 9.5a but which in a certain sense is more general, is shown in Fig. 9.5b, the resonant-transfer switches $RS_1$ and $RS_2$ being represented by ordinary switches surrounded by circles. From a circuit such as the one of Fig. 9.5b, one may thus not conclude that all parts of the resonant-transfer switches involved do necessarily have to be duplicated. This is certainly not the case for the circuit of Fig. 9.5a, and is also not the case if resonant-transfer switches of the type discussed in par. 6.1.3, are used.
10. FILTERS COMPOSED OF CAPACITANCES AND RESONANT-TRANSFER SWITCHES.

10.1 Filters composed of capacitances and resonant-transfer switches in cascade.

Consider first the circuit with intermediate capacitive storage shown in Fig. 6.7. We assume that neither $S_0$ nor $R_0$ are present, and we also neglect $R_1'$, i.e. $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0$. Under these circumstances, the expression (6.26) for the chain matrix of the two-port $N_1''$ becomes

$$A = e^{-p\Delta} \begin{pmatrix} \cosh (pT/2) & R_{co} \sinh (pT/2) \\ \sinh (pT/2) & R_{co} \cosh (pT/2) \end{pmatrix}.$$  (10.1)

Except for the factor $e^{-p\Delta}$, this is precisely the chain matrix of a lossless transmission line or a lossless element of a mechanical filter, the characteristic impedance being in both cases $R_{co}$ and the length $l=v_p T/2$ where $v_p$ is the speed of propagation. This has led Poschenrieder [82] to propose the realization of filters composed of resonant-transfer switches and capacitances having properties similar to those of filters built by connecting transmission line elements or mechanical elements in cascade, with the advantage, of course, that $T$ is now determined very precisely by the clock pulses and not by the mechanical length $l$ of the element.

The circuit proposed by Poschenrieder is shown in Fig. 10.1. In addition to the networks $N_1$ and $N_2$ and their terminations, it comprises a certain number of capacitances $C_3, C_4, \ldots, C_n$, all separated from one another as well as from $N_1$ and $N_2$ by resonant-transfer switches (represented again by the ordinary symbol of a

* For a summary of the state of the art in the theory of transmission line filters, see e.g. the session devoted to this subject at the recent PIB symposium [80]. There exists also an extensive literature on mechanical filters. A book devoting a chapter to this subject is [50].
switch surrounded by a circle). Two resonant-transfer switches connected to a same capacitance may not be closed at the same time. The networks \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \) may simply consist of the capacitances \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) respectively, or they may be more elaborate RC-networks. From the point of view of the general theory to be exposed hereafter, there is no reason not to accept inductances too. These should however be excluded since one of the purposes of the circuit of Fig. 10.1 is precisely the realization of inductorless filters. If all inductances are to be proscribed, the resonant-transfer switches may e.g. be as described in par. 6.1.3. There may however also be cases in which at least the small (and cheap) inductors required by the circuit of Fig. 3.1 will be acceptable.

If we assume that all resonant-transfer switches are ideal, the equivalent circuit of Fig. 10.1 is as shown in Fig. 10.2 where the network \( N_{ik} \) \((k=3,4, \ldots, n)\) has a chain matrix as given by (10.1), with \( R_{Co} \) replaced by \( R_{Ck} = T/2C_k \) and \( \Delta \) replaced by \( \Delta_k \). The factors \( e^{\Delta_k} \) simply produce a factor \( e^{-\Delta} \), with \( \Delta = \Delta_3 + \Delta_4 + \ldots + \Delta_n \), in the resulting chain matrix of the total interconnecting two-port \( N_1 \). At worst, i.e. for \( \Delta \neq 0 \), this factor simply causes the overall circuit to be quasi-reciprocal. If even this is not acceptable, one can still adjust the timing of the various switches in such a way that \( \Delta = 0 \). In any case, we may omit this factor from our further considerations.

If we do this, the circuit of Fig. 10.2 is equivalent to a cascade of transmission line elements or mechanical filter elements of characteristic impedances \( R_{C3}, R_{C4}, \ldots, R_{Cn} \), connected between terminal impedances \( Z_3 \) and \( Z_4 \). The problem of designing the circuit of Fig. 10.1 thus becomes similar to a classical filter design problem. The networks \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \) should be simple RC-filters required to eliminate the additional sidebands which are located further away.

As is also true for simple transmission line and mechanical filters, the circuit of Fig. 10.1 has the disadvantage that attenuation poles at real frequencies cannot be realized. Poechenrieder [82] has indicated...
a method to overcome this objection, but this method is less flexible than the one to be described in par. 10.2. We shall therefore not discuss it here.

10.2. General LC-networks in the \( \Phi \)-domain, using inductorless networks in the \( p \)-domain.

10.2.1. Generalization of the resonant-transfer principle.

Consider a \( n \)-port \( N \) built of capacitances only (Fig. 10.3). Suppose that we connect to each terminal port \( k \) \( (k=1, 2, \ldots, n) \) an inductance \( L_k \) (corresponding to the situation of Fig. 10.3 with all the switches \( S_k \) closed). The resulting LC-circuit will have \( n \) different natural frequencies \( \omega_1, \omega_2, \ldots, \omega_n \). We shall choose the \( L_k \) in such a way that \( \omega_k=(2k-1)\omega_1 \). All frequencies \( \omega_k \) are thus odd harmonics of \( \omega_1 \).

Suppose next that we add a switch \( S_k \) in series with each \( L_k \), as indicated in Fig. 10.3. If we close all the switches \( S_k \) at \( t=0 \), assuming that some charges were present in \( N \) for \( t<0 \), the resulting currents \( i_k \) in the inductances will all go through zero again at \( t=T \), where

\[
T = \pi/\omega_1.
\]

We may thus open all the switches at \( t=T \), after which all the voltages \( v_k=v_{ka} \) will be precisely equal to the negative of their values \( v_{kb} \) before the switches had been closed, i.e.

\[
v_{ka} + v_{kb} = 0.
\]

The charges \( q_k \) which are transmitted across the switches \( S_k \) to produce this effect are precisely double those which would be transmitted if the \( L_k \) were replaced by small resistances and the switches were kept closed until the circuit has come to rest. This remark makes clear that the inductances could in fact be replaced by electronic charge doubler devices similar to the one described in par. 6.1.3. The property of such devices to require
less precise timing is particularly important for the present application since the higher harmonics involved in the circuit with inductances increase considerably the influence of timing errors.

A circuit such as the one of Fig. 10.3 may still be called a resonant-transfer arrangement. Similarly, each $S_k$ with its associated $L_k$ or electronic charge doubler device may still be called a resonant-transfer switch. As these resonant-transfer switches have to work together as a group, it may be better, however, to call them collectively coupled resonant-transfer switches.

10.2.2. Realization of inductances in the $\phi$-domain by means of capacitances in the $\psi$-domain.

We have seen in par. 9.2. that a gyrator can easily be realized in the equivalent circuit. It must thus be possible without difficulty to realize the dual of a given pulse impedance.

Assume e.g. that the gyrator device of Fig. 9.5 is used as resonant-transfer arrangement in the circuit of Fig. 5.1. The driving-point impedance seen in Fig. 5.2 from port 3 to the right is then equal to $R_2^2/Z_4^2$, i.e. the dual of $Z_4^\wedge$. In particular, if the network $N_2$ in Fig. 5.1 reduces simply to the capacitance $C_2$ and if $R_2 = \infty$, i.e. if $Z_4^\wedge = R_2^2/\phi$, this expression becomes equal to $\phi R_2^2$, or in normalized quantities $\phi/c_2$ where $c_2 = C_2/C_0$, with $C_0 = T/2R_0^\wedge$, $R_0^\wedge$ being the normalizing resistance. The new pulse impedance thus corresponds to a normalized inductance $l_2 = 1/c_2$ whereas the original pulse impedance corresponds to a normalized capacitance $c_2$. If the purpose of the gyrator device of Fig. 9.5 is simply to realize an inductance in the $\phi$-domain, as has just been described, there is no need, of course, to have the switch $S_a$ operate right after the switch $S$: The inversion of the charge on $C_2$ may now take place any time between two consecutive transfer periods.
It is interesting to derive the same results from the circuit of Fig. 6.7 where we omit again $S_0, R_0$ and $R'_0$. If we assume that the two-port $N''_1$ of Fig. 6.8 is short-circuited at port 6 ($U_6=0$), we obtain from the equations of $N''_1$, independently of $T_1$,

$$\frac{U_5}{J_5} = \phi R_{co}.$$ 

$U_6=0$, however, corresponds precisely to $V_{6a} = -V_{6b}$, i.e. to a device which inverts the charge on $C_2$ at the instants $t = t_{2m}$.

10.2.3. Realization of equivalent LC-networks.

As an example, consider the circuit of Fig. 10.4. Its resonant-transfer arrangement contains main resonant-transfer switches (represented by the symbol of an ordinary switch surrounded by a double circle) and auxiliary resonant-transfer switches (represented by the symbol of an ordinary switch surrounded by a single circle). All switches operate periodically at a rate $F=1/T$. The main switches are closed during main transfer periods and the auxiliary switches during auxiliary transfer periods interlaced with the main ones. All capacitances of the resonant-transfer arrangement as well as the terminating resistances have been indicated in Fig. 10.4 by their normalized values. The notation used hereafter is the same as in the previous sections.

Let us assume first that the auxiliary switches are not present. We can number the branches by attributing to them the values of the indices of the corresponding capacitances $c_m$. For $m=1$ or 2, branch $m$ is formed by the input of network $N_m$ (together with the termination) seen from 3-3' or 4-4' respectively. From the point of view of the long-time behaviour, the current in branch $m$ can be written, omitting as usual the factor $e^{pt}$,

$$I_m = J_m \Delta(t-t_o)$$

(10.4)

where $t_o$ is independent of $m$. Furthermore, we can define
voltages $V_{ma}$, $V_{mb}$ and

$$U_m = \frac{(V_{ma} + V_{mb})}{2}$$

(10.5)

corresponding to the voltage $V_m$ across $c_m$.

For each node, an equation such as

$$\Sigma J_m = 0$$

(10.6)

can now be written. For a loop such as the one formed by $c_5$, $c_6$ and $c_7$ we have similarly $\Sigma V_{ma} = \Sigma V_{mb} = 0$, i.e.

$$\Sigma U_m = 0.$$  

(10.7)

This last equation also holds for a loop containing one or several resonant-transfer switches. Let us indeed designate by $V'_k$ the voltage across resonant-transfer switch $k$, with corresponding voltages $V'_{ka}$ and $V'_{kb}$. For a loop containing resonant-transfer switches, equations of the form

$$\Sigma V_{ma} + \Sigma V'_{ka} = \Sigma V_{mb} + \Sigma V'_{kb} = 0$$

can then certainly be written. According to (10.3) (with accents added to conform with our present notation) we have, however,

$$V'_{ka} + V'_{kb} = 0,$$

whence (10.7) follows immediately.

Additional relations between the $J_m$ and $U_m$ are determined by the elements present in Fig. 10.4. Thus, (5.8) can still be written for the branches 1 and 2 respectively, while the (normalized) pulse impedances of the branches containing a simple capacitance are given by $1/\phi c_m$.

It is easy now to reestablish the presence of the auxiliary resonant-transfer switches. According to par. 10.2.2, the normalized pulse impedances $1/\phi c_m$ of the branches in question will then simply have to be replaced by $\phi l_m$, with $l_m = 1/c_m$. Hence, the equivalent circuit of Fig. 10.4 becomes as shown in Fig. 10.5.

It should be clear now that arbitrary LC-networks can be realized in the $\phi$-domain by means of the method exposed here.
The number of auxiliary switches required is equal to the number of inductances to be realized. The number of main switches is in principle equal to the number of inductances plus two, although it may be smaller. One must simply make sure that for every loop of the equivalent circuit containing either $\tilde{Z}_3$, $\tilde{Z}_4$ or an inductance, the corresponding loop of the original circuit contains a main switch. This way one insures that the charges of all those capacitances of the resonant-transfer arrangement which either belong to a terminating network or are connected to an auxiliary switch can vary freely between two consecutive main transfer periods without affecting the charges on the other capacitances. In the example of Fig. 10.4, none of the main switches indicated can be eliminated without violating this rule.

The fact that all the main switches in a circuit such as the one of Fig. 10.4 have to operate simultaneously may cause difficulties if more complicated structures are involved. In this case, one can use resonant-transfer arrangements composed of several parts in cascade, separated by intermediate storage capacitances. The filters obtained this way are thus in a certain sense a combination of those described in pars. 10.1 and 10.2 respectively.
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Fig. 2.1

Fig. 3.1

Fig. 3.2
Fig. 3.3

Fig. 3.4
Fig. 6.1

Fig. 6.2

Fig. 6.3

Fig. 6.4
Fig. 6.7

Fig. 6.8
Fig. 7.2
Fig. 7.3

Fig. 8.1
Fig. 9.1

Fig. 9.2
Fig. 10.3
Fig. 10.4

Fig. 10.5