

Reconfigurable Analog Computers

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Abstract—The ACHILLES heel of classic analog computers was the complex, error prone, and time consuming process of programming. This typically involved manually patching hundreds or even thousands of connections between individual computing elements as well as setting many precision 10-turn potentiometers manually, often taking hours, or even days. Albeit being simplified by means of removable patch panels, switching from one program to another still was time consuming and thus expensive.

With digital computers about to hit physical boundaries with respect to energy consumption, clock frequency, and integration density, analog computers have gained a lot of interest as co-processors for certain application areas in recent years. This requires some means for automatic reconfiguration of these systems under control of an attached digital computer.

The following sections give an overview of classic and modern approaches towards such *autopatch* systems.

I. INTRODUCTION AND REQUIREMENTS

Analog computing has been gaining a lot of interest in recent years due to its promise of substantial speedups and unmatched energy efficiency for the solution of problems described by systems of coupled (nonlinear) differential equations or by partial differential equations. In contrast to today's prevailing digital computers, which solve problems by executing a sequence of rather simple instructions read from some memory attached to a central processing unit (*CPU*), an analog computer does not have any memory in the classic sense at all, it does not execute instructions, and it typically does not represent values by sequences of bits. Instead, an analog computer works by setting up an (electronic) model of the problem under consideration by connecting a number of computing elements in a suitable fashion. These work on values represented by continuous voltages or currents and work in continuous time and full parallelism (see [ULMANN 2023] for a thorough treatment of analog and hybrid computers, their history, programming techniques, etc.).

This different approach is best described by a toy problem such as the computation of $a(b + c)$. On a digital computer this would require six individual instructions: Three to read the values a , b , and c , one addition, one multiplication, and one instruction to store the result back into memory. Since all of these instructions depend on each other there is not too much that can be done in order to achieve parallelism in execution. On an analog computer, this problem would require two computing elements, one adder and one multiplier

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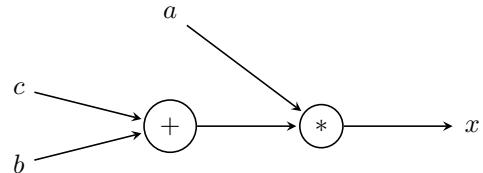


Fig. 1. Computing $a(b + c)$ on an analog computer

connected as shown in figure 1. All values are represented by a corresponding voltage (or a current), so each connection between computing elements is just a single wire, the program being a directed graph with edges resembling connections and vertices representing computing elements.

It should be noted here that while a digital computer is always capable of trading time against problem size, given that enough memory is available, an analog computer must physically grow with the problem size, i.e., there must be enough individual computing elements for any given problem. Back in the heyday of analog computing, the 1950s–1960s, this was a problem due to the cost and size of analog computers. Using modern CMOS techniques, it is now possible to integrate hundreds or thousands of computing elements on a single integrated circuit, allowing next generation analog computers to scale to sizes previously unheard of.

This problem of scaling, however, is complemented by a great benefit: While the time to solution on a digital computer typically grows with problem size, often much worse than linearly, typically described by the *Big-O notation*, the solution time on an analog computer is basically constant, regardless of the number of computing elements required for the implementation of a particular problem. This is a fundamental advantage of analog computers over stored-program digital computers.

Figure 2 shows an early mechanical differential analyzer (a mechanical analog computer) with its creator, VANNEVAR BUSH (11.03.1890–30.06.1974) standing next to it. He is looking at the central interconnect structure. The computing elements are arranged to the left and right of this interconnect. This also becomes visible in the classic program circuit shown in figure 3. Variables were transmitted between computing elements by rotating shafts and gears.

Programming such a machine basically required to dismantle and reassemble it from scratch, a process that could take up to two “man-days” (see [BUSH et al. 1945, p. 277]). This often invalidated the advantage in speed offered by the system as one could also solve the problem executing a manual



Fig. 2. Mechanical differential analyzer

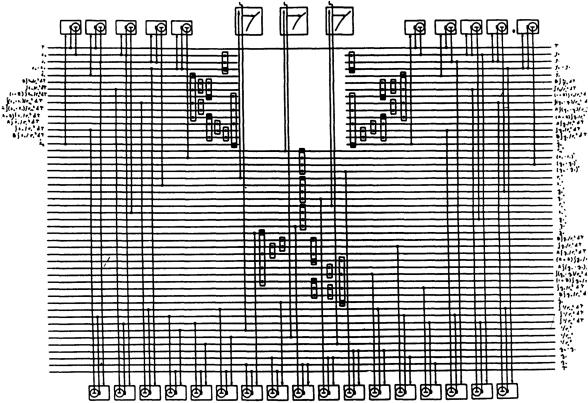


Fig. 3. Setup of the BUSH differential analyzer for a cosmic ray problem (see [OWENS 1986, p. 77])

numeric integration technique in about the same time.

II. EARLY ATTEMPTS AT AN AUTOPATCH

Accordingly, the process of programming the machine, i. e., connecting the various computing elements, had to be sped up considerably. This led to the ROCKEFELLER differential analyzer, which still relied on mechanical computing elements. However, these were no longer directly connected to each other by means of rotating shafts and gears but used servo motors and synchros for input and output. This made it possible to use a crossbar switch from a telephone exchange system as the central interconnect of the machine, implementing an $n \times m$ matrix of switches.

From its structure this is the holy grail of analog computing – having a full $n \times m$ switch matrix makes it possible to connect the computing elements without any restrictions. Unfortunately, this does obviously not scale. In a machine such as the ROCKEFELLER analyzer with several dozen computing elements it was a viable option, but for machines employing hundreds, thousands, of even more computing elements, a full matrix interconnect is just not practical.

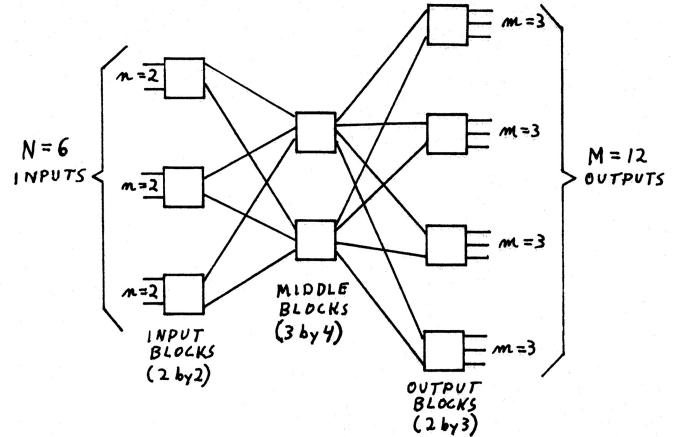


Fig. 4. Interconnect structure as proposed in [HANNAUER 1968, p. 4-2]

III. HANNAUER'S WORK

In 1961, *Electronic Associates Inc. (EAI)* performed a study on an autopatch system based on an EAI 231R analog computer. This vacuum tube system featured about $2 \cdot 10^2$ individual computing elements. The study concluded that a viable switch matrix would require between $5 \cdot 10^4$ and 10^5 individual switches (reed relays back then) – clearly impractical.

In the second half of the 1960s, GEORGE HANNAUER, also at EAI, performed a comprehensive study on the problem of autopatch systems (see [HANNAUER 1968]) under a NASA contract. In order to reduce the number of switches required for a realistically large analog computer, a hierarchy of switch matrices had to be employed. For this, HANNAUER coined the terms *concentrator* and *expander* for switch matrices depending on the quotient $e = m/n$ of their inputs and outputs with $e < 1$ being a concentrator and $e > 1$ an expander.

This quite closely resembled the structure of a telephone exchange where the number of users substantially exceeds the average number of connections required (see [CLOS 1953] and [BENES 1965] for details). While blocking conditions in a telephone exchange are clearly undesirable, they can be typically resolved by retrying a failed connection attempt. In an analog computer, however, a blocking condition is fatal as it implies that a certain program cannot be implemented at all.

Based on this interconnect structure it took EAI about fifteen years to unveil the *SIMSTAR* in 1983. This fully reconfigurable analog computer employed the three stage switch matrix structure shown in figure 4. It consisted of twenty 16×20 input blocks for a total of 320 input signals, twenty 20×32 middle blocks, and 32 22×16 output blocks yielding 512 output signals. This setup required 30464 FET switches instead of 163840 which would be required in the naïve approach using a single matrix consisting of 320×512 individual switches. SIMSTAR was an incredible technological success but unfortunately a commercial failure as it came at a time when digital computers became faster and cheaper at an ever increasing rate.

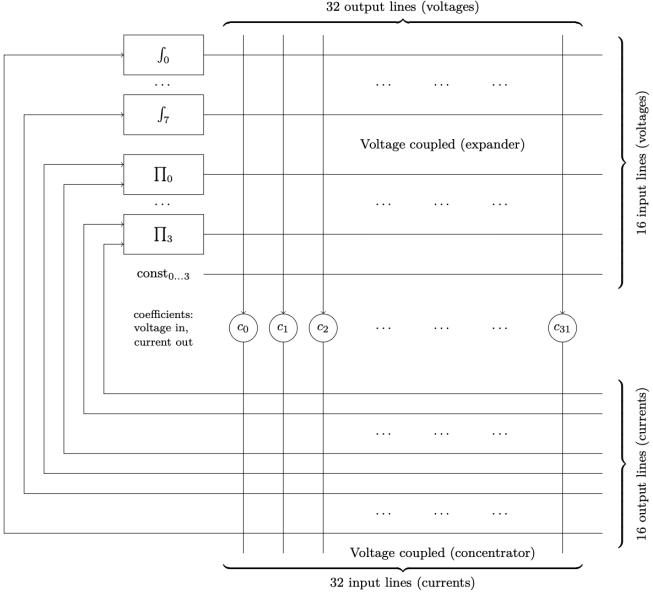


Fig. 5. Interconnect system of a LUCIDAC

IV. VOLTAGE AND CURRENT COUPLING

The representation of variables by voltages or currents has a substantial effect on the setup of an analog computer program. Using voltages, as in the vast majority of classic and modern analog computers, one output signal of a computing element can be distributed to the inputs of a number of other computing elements. However, this requires multiple inputs per computing elements – integrators or summers typically have somewhere between four and six inputs, with built-in weights of 1 and 10. Accordingly, there are much more computing element inputs than outputs in a voltage coupled system.

Using currents instead of voltages allows to implicitly sum a number of input currents at the input of a computing element such as an integrator or summer, reducing the number of inputs in the system substantially as every computing element only has one input (except multipliers or comparators which still require two or more different inputs). Unfortunately, an output current cannot be distributed to a number of inputs of following computing elements directly, thus requiring multiple buffered current outputs per computing element.

These particular advantages and disadvantages of voltage and current coupling can be combined favorably as demonstrated in modern systems such as the small-scale *LUCIDAC*,¹ featuring eight integrators, four multipliers, and 32 coefficients or the much larger *REDAC*,² with up to 1000 integrators, 500 multipliers, and 8000 coefficients. Figure 5 shows the basic interconnect structure of the small LUCIDAC system.

On the top right is a voltage coupled 16×32 switch matrix capable of connecting each input row line to any combination of its 32 column lines. These column lines each feed a multiplying *digital-analog-converter (DAC)* implementing coefficient elements. Each of these coefficients multiplies its

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fn X(t);
fn Y(t);
fn Z(t);

let diff[X, t] = 1.8 * Y - X;
let diff[Y, t] = 1.56 * X * (1 - 2.678 * Z) - 0.1 * Y;
let diff[Z, t] = 1.5 * X * Y - 0.2667 * Z;

let X(t: 0) = 0.1;
let Y(t: 0) = 0.0;
let Z(t: 0) = 0.0;

plot(x: X(t), y: Y(t));

out X(t);
out Y(t);

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Fig. 6. DLS description of a chaotic LORENZ '63 system

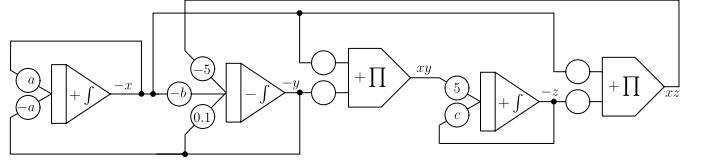


Fig. 7. Resulting analog computer setup for the chaotic LORENZ '63 system

input voltage by a 12 bit value representing a value interval of $[-10, 10]$. At its output it delivers a current which is then fed into one of the 32 column lines of the 32×16 switch matrix shown on the bottom right. This matrix is now current coupled. Accordingly, it can perform an implicit summation of input currents onto a single output row line. Each of these 16 row lines is connected to one input of the computing elements.

Using this mixed voltage/current value representation, the analog computer does not need any explicit summers as computing elements, thus greatly reducing the number of connections within a given setup. The degree of sparsity in a setup like this is determined by the number of column lines of the two matrices, which can be easily extended beyond the 32 lanes shown here.

Programming these systems is done using a *domain specific language (DSL)* and a compiler capable of translating problem descriptions into suitable configuration bitstreams. Figure 6 shows the input to compiler specifying a chaotic *Lorenz '63* system (see [LORENZ 1963]). The resulting analog computer setup is shown in figure 7. Integrators are represented by triangular structures with a small rectangular box on the left, the elements inscribed with $+II$ are multipliers, and coefficients are represented by circles.

Since there is one coefficient per column line in this particular autopatch system, every input to a computing element has an associated coefficient element. Since the inputs to the computing elements are current coupled, multiple input values can be combined at the current input of an element. Noteworthy is the absence of any summers from this circuit as summation takes place in the current coupled matrix.

V. COEFFICIENTS

Another interesting aspect of modern reconfigurable analog computers is the implementation of its coefficient elements, namely their resolution and available value interval. While coefficients in classic analog computers, being just voltage

¹See <https://anabrid.com/lucidac>, retrieved 26.09.2025.

²See <https://anabrid.com/redac>, retrieved 26.09.2025.

dividers, were restricted to values within $[0, 1]$, using multiplying DACs with output buffers, it is now easy to extend the interval into the negative domain such as $[-1, 1]$. This greatly simplifies programming and system implementation as no inverters are needed for sign inversions, further reducing the number of computing elements required for a particular problem.

Using current coupling, at least in the output stage of a coefficient, makes it possible to extend the value interval further with $[-10, 10]$ being desirable. This further aids programming and simplifies the overall analog computer implementation as no built-in weights for integrators, etc., are required to upscale values.

In a system such as the LUCIDAC, every column lane connecting the two switch matrices has an associated coefficient. Accordingly, the number of coefficient elements grows with the degree of connectivity, causing substantial cost of implementation due to the complexity of high resolution coefficients.

However, a study of real analog computer programs shows that not all coefficients need 12 or more bits of resolution. In fact, a substantial number of coefficients will have values such as ± 10 , ± 1 , ± 0.5 , and ± 0.1 , requiring only three bits of configuration data per coefficient. The actual proportion of high resolution coefficients to these low resolution elements highly depends on the class of problems the analog computer is used for, but having about 20% to 30% of low resolution coefficients seems to be sufficient to implement most if not all problems.

VI. CONFIGURATION TIME

With solution times in the order of several μs , these modern analog computers pose the same problem as VANNEVAR BUSH's differential analyzers nearly 100 years ago: The configuration time must be on par with the solution time. Ideally, it should be even smaller in order to not lose the speed advantage of the actual solution process due to a slow setup.

Since the number of configuration bits required for a system scales linearly with the number of switches to be controlled and the number of coefficients times their respective solution, it will be necessary to implement some way of performing “sparse configurations”, i. e., update switch matrices and coefficient values on a “need to change” basis instead of uploading a full set of configuration data every time a setup is changed.

VII. CONCLUSION

Analog computers will play a major role in future computer systems as specialized co-processors, alleviating the digital processor from a wide range of compute intensive tasks. Elaborate autopatch systems as described above are of central importance for this particular applications.

In addition to this, suitable software support in order to abstract from the underlying analog computing paradigm as much as possible and to integrate this class of co-processors seamlessly into existing software systems is required, too. This will include libraries for popular programming languages such as Python as well as plug-ins for systems like MATLAB, etc.

These developments will bring analog computers back to a wide variety of applications, most noteworthy *high-performance-computing (HPC)* where their extremely high energy efficiency and fast solution times will make it possible to tackle problems currently not within reach of classic digital computers.

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