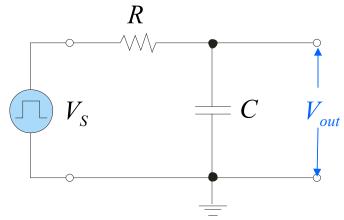
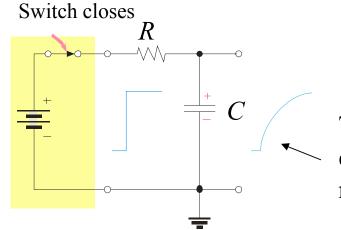
An RC integrator is a circuit that approximates the mathematical process of integration. Integration is a summing process, and a basic integrator can produce an output that is a running sum of the input under certain conditions.

A basic *RC* integrator circuit is simply a capacitor in series with a resistor and the source. The output is taken across the capacitor.



When a pulse generator is connected to the input of an *RC* integrator, the capacitor will charge and discharge in response to the pulses.

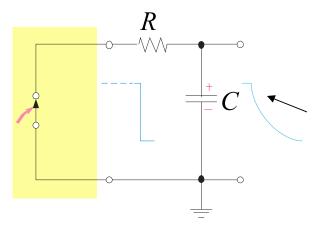
When the input pulse goes HIGH, the pulse generator acts like a battery in series with a switch and the capacitor charges.



The output is an exponentially rising curve.

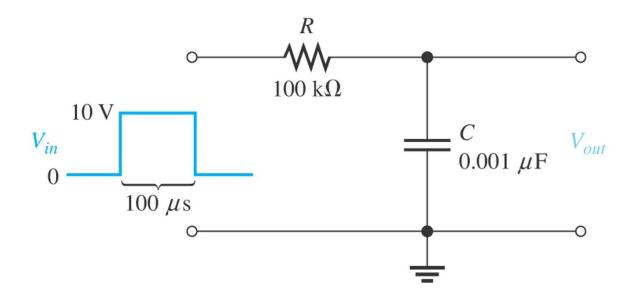
When the pulse generator goes low, the small internal impedance of the generator makes it look like a closed switch has replaced the battery.

The pulse generator now acts like a closed switch and the capacitor discharges.



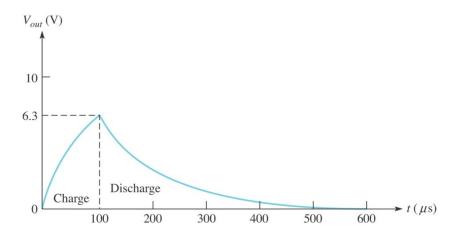
The output is an exponentially falling curve.

# **Examples**

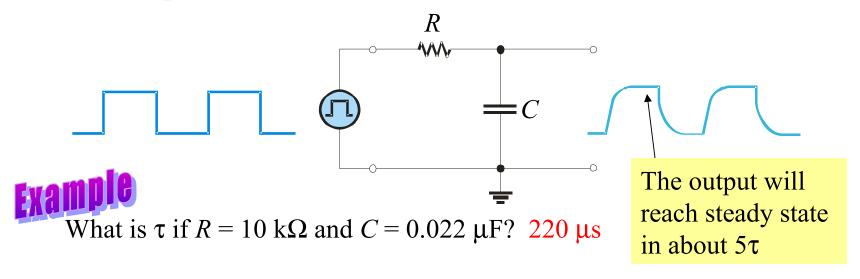


### **Solution**

- 1. Time constant  $\tau = RC = (100K\Omega)(0.001\mu F) = 100\mu s$
- 2. Compute the  $V_{out}$  for one time constant  $V_{out} = (0.63)10V = 6.3V$
- 3. Time to finish discharging  $5\tau = 500 \mu s$

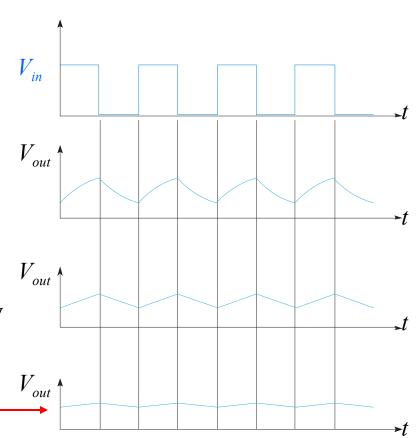


Waveforms for the RC integrator depend on the time constant ( $\tau$ ) of the circuit. If the time constant is short compared to the period of the input pulses, the capacitor will fully charge and discharge. For an RC circuit,  $\tau = RC$ . The output will reach 63% of the final value in  $1\tau$ .

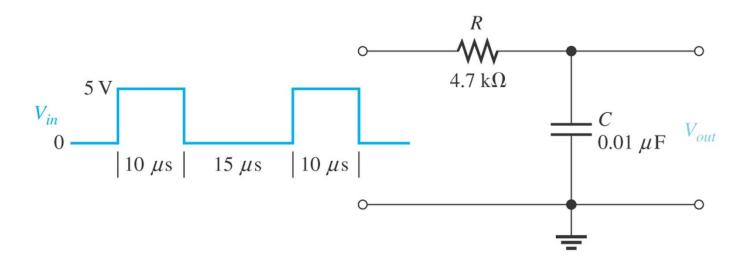


If  $\tau$  is increased, the waveforms approach the average dc level as in the last waveform. The output will appear triangular but with a smaller amplitude.

Alternatively, the input frequency can be increased (*T* shorter). The waveforms will again approach the average dc level of the input.—



# Example



### **Solution**

- 1. Time constant  $\tau = RC = (4.7K\Omega)(0.01\mu F) = 47\mu s$
- 2. Calculate the first pulse

$$V_C = V_F (1 - e^{-\tau}) = 5(1 - e^{-47}) = 958mv$$

3. Calculate the second pulse 15

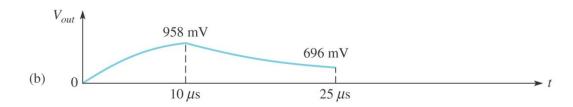
$$V_C = V_i(e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}) = 958(e^{-\frac{13}{47}}) = 696mv$$

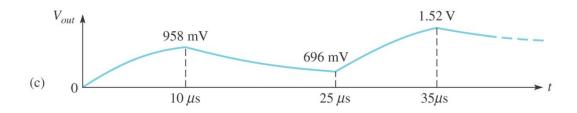
4. Calculate the second pulse

$$V_C = V_F + (V_i - V_F)e^{\frac{17}{\tau}} = 5 + (696mV - 5V)e^{-\frac{19}{47}} = 1.52V$$

### **Solution**

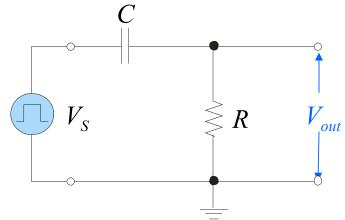






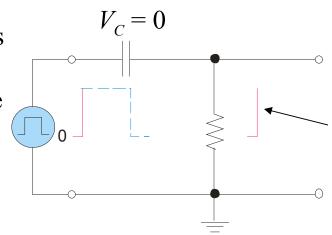
An RC differentiator is a circuit that approximates the mathematical process of differentiation. Differentiation is a process that finds the rate of change, and a basic differentiator can produce an output that is the rate of change of the input under certain conditions.

A basic *RC* differentiator circuit is simply a resistor in series with a capacitor and the source. The output is taken across the resistor.



When a pulse generator is connected to the input of an *RC* differentiator, the capacitor appears as an instantaneous short to the rising edge and passes it to the resistor.

The capacitor looks like a short to the rising edge because voltage across C cannot change instantaneously.



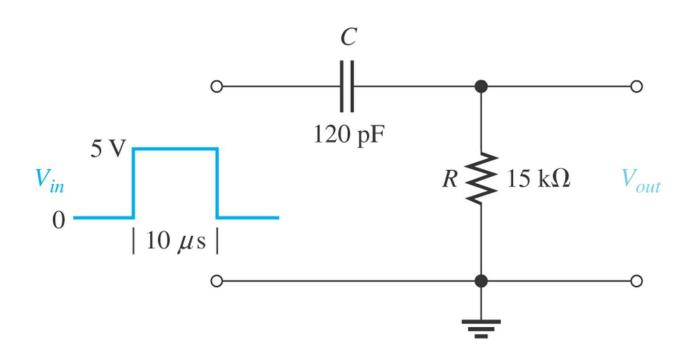
During this first instant, the output follows the input.

After the initial edge has passed, the capacitor charges and the output voltage decreases exponentially.

The voltage across *C* is the traditional charging waveform.

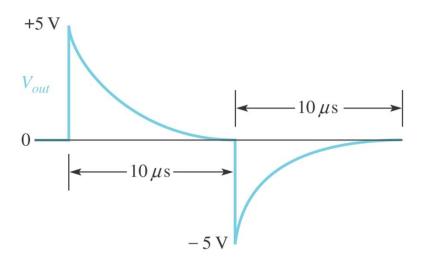
The output decreases as the pulse levels off.

# Example



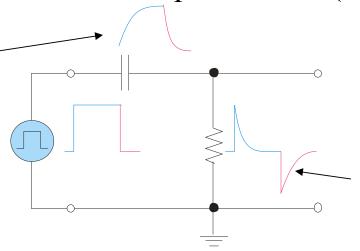
### **Solution**

- 1. Time constant  $\tau = RC = (15K\Omega)(120\mu F) = 1.8\mu s$
- 2. tw is bigger than 5 time constant 90 us



The falling edge is a rapid change, so it is passed to the output because the capacitor voltage cannot change instantaneously. The type of response shown happens when  $\tau$  is much less than the pulse width ( $\tau << t_w$ ).

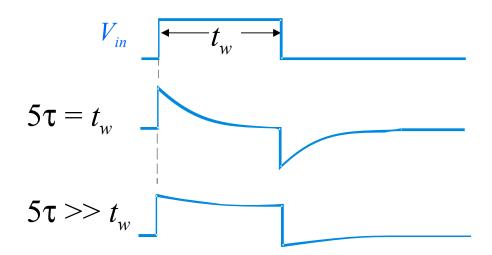
The voltage across *C* when the input goes low decreases exponentially.



After dropping to a negative value, the output voltage increases exponentially as the capacitor discharges.

The output shape is dependent on the ratio of  $\tau$  to  $t_w$ .

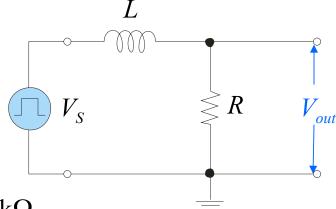
When  $5\tau = t_w$ , the pulse has just returned to the baseline when it repeats.



If  $\tau$  is long compared to the pulse width, the output does have time to return to the original baseline before the pulse ends. The resulting output looks like a pulse with "droop".

Like the RC integrator, an RL integrator is a circuit that approximates the mathematical process of integration. Under equivalent conditions, the waveforms look like the RC integrator. For an RL circuit,  $\tau = L/R$ .

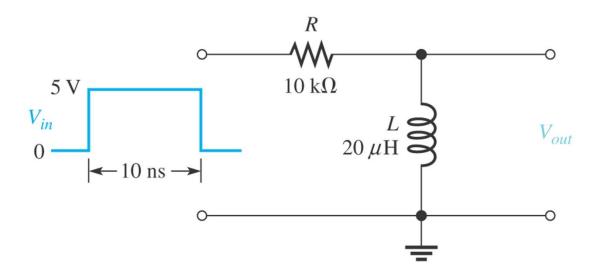
A basic *RL* integrator circuit is a resistor in series with an inductor and the source. The output is taken across the resistor.



Example

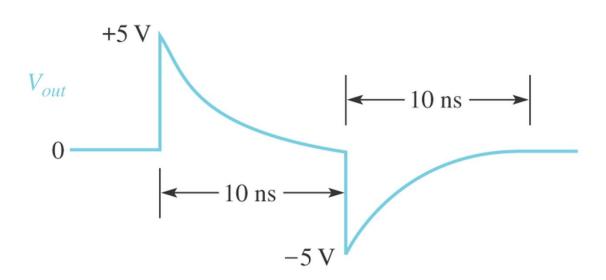
What is the time constant if  $R = 22 \text{ k}\Omega$  and  $L = 22 \mu\text{H}$ ? 1.0 ms

# Example



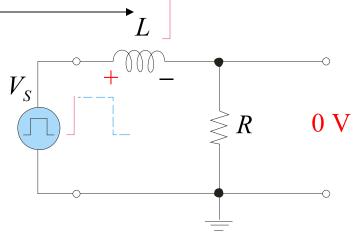
### **Solution**

1. Time constant 
$$\tau = \frac{L}{R} = \frac{20\mu H}{10k\Omega} = 2ns$$



When the pulse generator output goes high, a voltage immediately appears across the inductor in accordance with Lenz's law. The instantaneous current is zero, so the resistor voltage is initially zero.

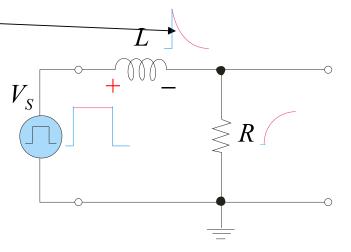
The induced voltage across *L* opposes the initial rise of the pulse.



The output is initially zero because there is no current.

At the top of the input pulse, the inductor voltage decreases exponentially and current increases. As a result, the voltage across the resistor increases exponentially. As in the case of the RC integrator, the output will be 63% of the final value in  $1\tau$ .

The induced voltage across *L* decreases.



The output voltage increases as current builds in the circuit.

When the pulse goes low, a reverse voltage is induced across L opposing the change. The inductor voltage initially is a negative voltage that is equal and opposite to the generator; then it exponentially increases.

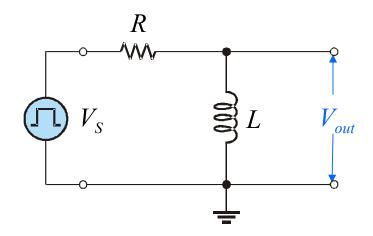
The induced voltage across L initially opposes the change in the source voltage.

The output voltage decreases as the magnetic field around L collapses.

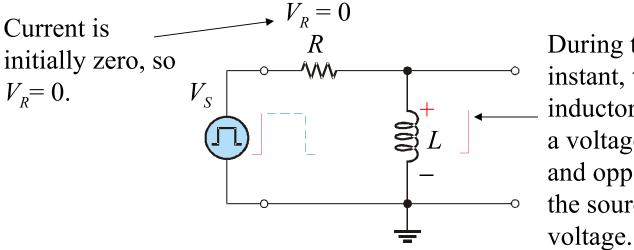
Note that these waveforms were the same in the RC integrator.

An *RL* differentiator is also a circuit that approximates the mathematical process of differentiation. It can produce an output that is the rate of change of the input under certain conditions.

A basic *RL* differentiator circuit is an inductor in series with a resistor and the source. The output is taken across the inductor.

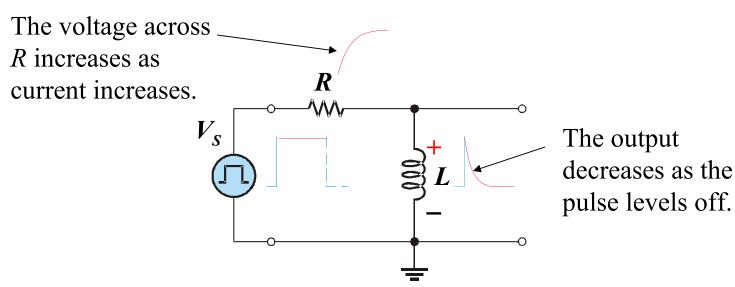


When a pulse generator is connected to the input of an *RL* differentiator, the inductor has a voltage induced across it that opposes the source; initially, no current is in the circuit.

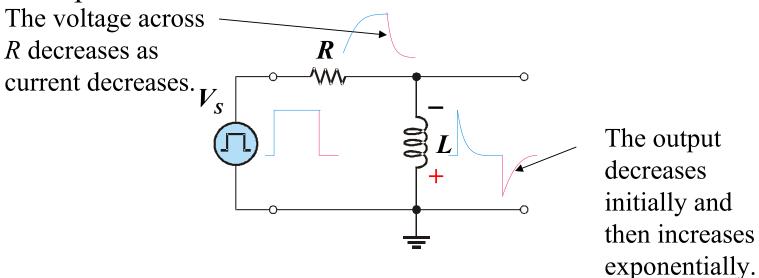


During this first instant, the inductor develops a voltage equal and opposite to the source voltage.

After the initial edge has passed, current increases in the circuit. Eventually, the current reaches a steady state value given by Ohm's law.



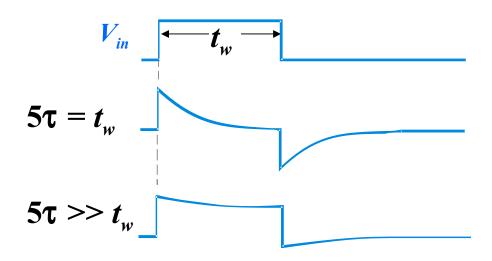
Next, the falling edge of the pulse causes a (negative) voltage to be induced across the inductor that opposes the change. The current decreases as the magnetic field collapses.



As in the case of the RC differentiator, the output shape is dependent on the ratio of  $\tau$  to  $t_w$ .

When  $5\tau = t_w$ , the pulse has just returned to the baseline when it repeats.

If  $\tau$  is long compared to the pulse width, the output looks like a pulse with "droop".



### **Application**

An application of an integrator is to generate a time delay. The voltage at *B* rises as the capacitor charges until the threshold circuit detects that the capacitor has reached a predetermined level.

