Applications of Linear Integrated Circuits

Applications of Linear Integrated Circuits: Adder, Integrator, Differentiator, Difference amplifier and Instrumentation amplifier, Converters: Current to voltage and voltage to current converters, Active Filters: First order filters, second order low pass, high pass, band pass and band reject filters, Oscillators: RC phase shift oscillator, Wien bridge oscillator, Square wave generator.

Special Purpose Integrated Circuits: Functional block diagram, working, design and applications of Timer 555 (Monostable & Astable), Functional block diagram, working and applications of VCO 566, PLL 565, Fixed and variable Voltage regulators.

Integrator:

- It is the circuit in which the output voltage waveform is the integral
 of the input voltage waveform.
- Such a circuit is obtained by using a basic inverting configuration, if the feedback resistor R_F is replaced by a capacitor C_F .
- The integrator circuit does the integration of the input voltage waveform.

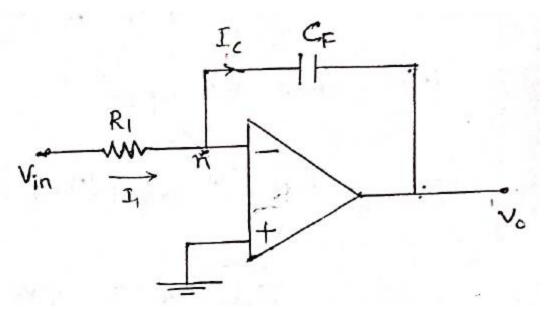


Fig: Integrator Circuit

$$\mathcal{I}_{c}$$

$$I_{i} = I_{c}$$
But
$$I_{i} = \frac{V_{in} - V_{n}}{R_{i}}$$

impedance
$$I R$$
 $+ V_R - V_R = IR$

$$\frac{1}{ywc} \qquad \frac{1}{+ V_L} \qquad V_C = \frac{1}{C} \int I dI$$

$$\frac{1}{ywc} \qquad \frac{1}{+ V_L} \qquad V_L = L \frac{dI}{dI}$$

$$I_1 = \frac{V_{in}}{R_1} - (1)$$

And Ic =
$$C_F \frac{d}{dt} (V_n - V_o)$$

From (1) & (2),
$$\frac{V_{in}}{R_{i}} = \frac{-c_{F}}{c_{F}} \frac{dv_{o}}{dt}$$

Integrate the above equation on both the sides

$$\int_{0}^{t} dv_{o} = -\frac{1}{Rc_{F}} \int_{0}^{t} v_{in} dt$$

$$V_{o}(t) = -\frac{1}{R_{i}c_{F}} \int_{0}^{t} v_{in}(t) dt + V_{o}(0)$$

where
$$V_0(0) = integration constant$$

The value of V_0 at the time $t=0$

The above een shows

Vo is directly of to the -ve integral of Vin inversly of to the time const - RICF

Transfer Function:

The equation for $V_0(t)$ can be written in phasor notation as

$$V_{0}(S) = -\frac{1}{R_{1}C_{F}} \left[\frac{1}{S} V_{in}(S) \right]$$

$$T(S) = -\frac{1}{SR_{1}C_{F}}$$

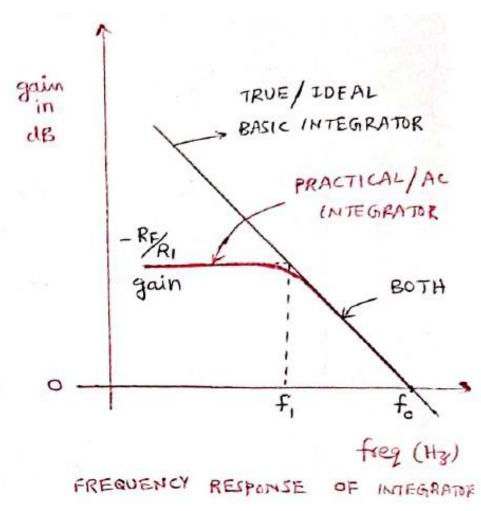
$$S = J\omega$$

$$T(J\omega) = -\frac{1}{J\omega R_{1}C_{F}}$$
Amplitude $|T(J\omega)| = \frac{1}{\omega R_{1}C_{F}}$

The amplitude vs frequency response of the true integrator is shown in the following figure.

It has infinite gain at ω =0; So the system is unstable.

To reduce the gain at dc or at low frequencies, a resistor R_F is connected across the capacitor C_F as shown in the figure.



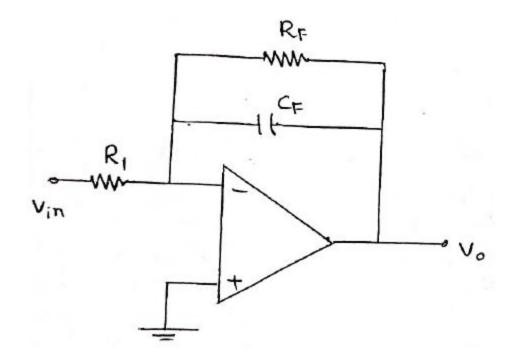


Fig: Practical integrator circuit

where
$$Z_F = \frac{R_F / C_F}{1 + 3 \omega C_F R_F}$$

So that
$$\frac{v_0}{v_{in}} = -\frac{2r}{R_i}$$

The transfer function is given by

At
$$\omega=0$$
;

Amplitude | T(JW) | = RF

$$\sqrt{R_1^2 [i + w^2 c_f^2 R_f^2]}$$

The gain is constant (= $\frac{R_F}{R_I}$) upto the frequency f_I .

FOR $f < f_I$, 91 ads as a constant gain A

FOR $f > f_I$ 91 acts as a integrator

TIME CONSTANT $T = R_F C_F$

Differentiator:

If the resistor R_1 and C_F of the integrator are interchanged, we obtain the differentiator circuit.

The output is the derivative of the input waveform.

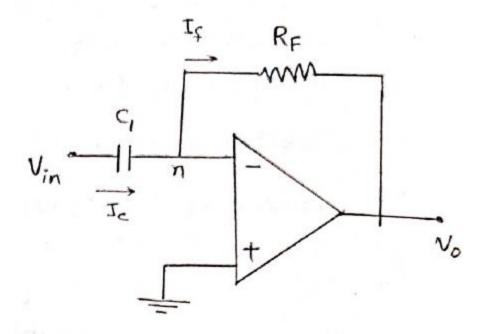


Fig: Differentiator circuit

Apply KCL at node 'n'

where
$$I_{c} = C_{1} \frac{d}{dt} (V_{in} - V_{n})$$

$$= C_{1} \frac{dV_{in}}{dt} (: V_{n} = 0)$$
and $I_{f} = \frac{V_{n} - V_{0}}{R_{F}} = \frac{-V_{0}}{R_{F}}$

$$\therefore -\frac{V_{0}}{R_{F}} = C_{1} \frac{dV_{in}}{dt}$$

$$V_{0} = -R_{F}C_{1} \frac{dV_{in}}{dt}$$

The output equals to the R_FC_1 times the negative instantaneous rate of change of input voltage with time.

The transfer function for the above equation can be written as

$$V_{0}(A) = -R_{F}(1..., 8V_{in}|A)$$

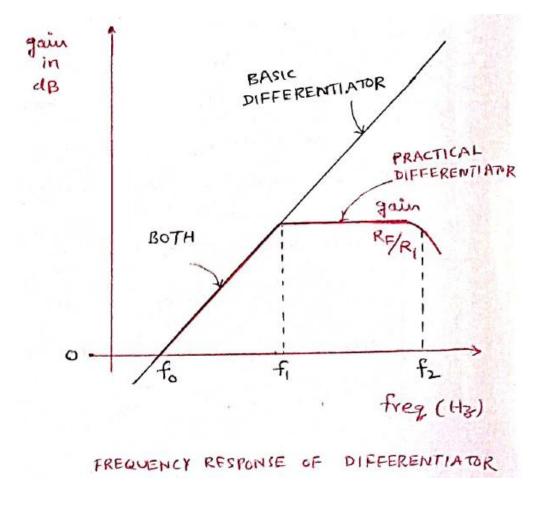
$$T(A) = \frac{V_{0}(A)}{V_{in}|A} = -3 R_{F}(1...)$$

$$T(3\omega) = -\frac{1}{2}\omega R_{F}(1...)$$

$$Gaim = |T(3\omega)| = \omega R_{F}(1...)$$
The frequency of which gain = 1 % $f_{0} = \frac{1}{2\pi R_{F}(1...)}$

The gain increases as frequency increases, this makes the circuit unstable.

The gain vs frequency of the basic differentiator is shown in the figure



- The gain increases as the frequency increases.
- To reduce the gain at higher frequencies, a resistor R_1 is connected in series with the C_1 as shown in the figure.

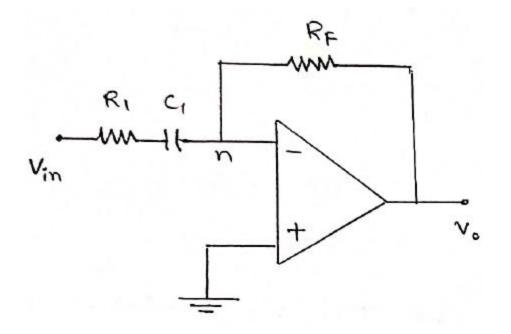


Fig: Practical differentiator circuit

Apply KCL at node 'n'.

$$\frac{V_{n}-V_{in}}{Z_{1}} + \frac{V_{n}-V_{0}}{R_{F}} = 0$$

$$\frac{-U_{in}}{R_{1}+\frac{1}{3}\omega c_{1}} + \frac{-V_{0}}{R_{F}} = 0 \quad (: V_{n}=0)$$

The transfer function is given by

The gain is constant = RF from frequency fi = 1

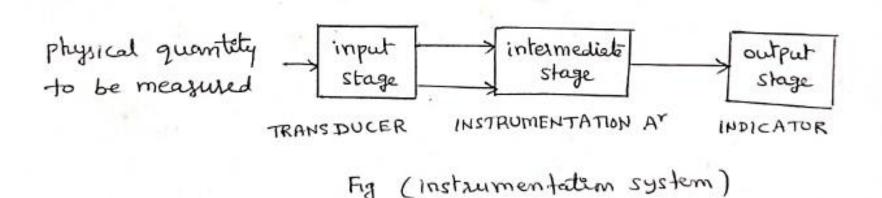
FOR $f_0 < f < f_1$, It acts as a basic differentiator for $f > f_1$, It acts as an Ar with gain $\frac{RF}{R_1}$

For good differentiation,

 $T \geqslant R_F C_I$ $f_1 = 10 f_0$ $C_1 = 0.1 M_F$

Instrumentation Amplifier:

- In many industrial and consumer applications, the measurement and control of physical conditions are very important.
- For example measurement and control of temperature, humidity, light sensitivity, water flow etc. These physical quantities are usually measured with the help of transducer.
- The output of the transducer has to be amplified so that it can drive the indicator or display system. This function is performed by instrumentation amplifier.



The input stage has a transducer. The output stage may use devices such as meters, oscilloscopes, or magnetic records.

Instrument amplifier is used to amplify the low level output signal of the transducer, so that it can drive the indicator or display.

Important features of instrumentation amplifier are

- 1. It should have differential inputs.
- 2. High CMRR
- 3. High input impedance
- 4. High gain accuracy
- 5. Low dc offset

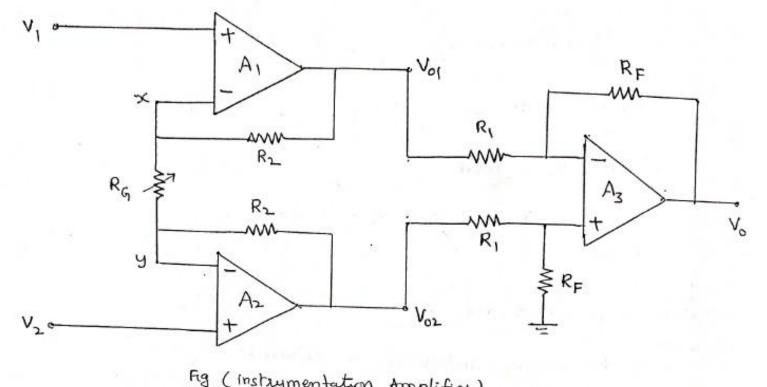


Fig (instrumentation Amplifier)

A, and Az are ideal then $V_x = V_1$ and $V_y = V_2$

inverting terminal of A, is fed a voltage V, through Rg The inverting terminal of Az is fed a voltage Vz through Rg

$$\frac{V_{x}-V_{01}}{R_{2}} + \frac{V_{x}-V_{y}}{R_{G}} = 0$$

$$\frac{V_{01}}{R_{2}} = \frac{V_{1}}{R_{2}} + \frac{V_{1}}{R_{G}} - \frac{V_{2}}{R_{G}} \left(\because V_{x}=V_{1} \\ V_{y}=V_{2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{01} = \left(1 + \frac{R_{2}}{R_{G}} \right) V_{1} - \frac{R_{2}}{R_{G}} V_{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{01} = \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_G}\right) V_1 - \frac{R_2}{R_G} V_2$$

Apply Kcl @ node y
$$\frac{V_y - V_{02}}{R_2} + \frac{V_y - V_x}{R_G} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{02} = -\frac{R_2}{R_G} V_1 + \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_G}\right) V_2$$

The next section is a differential AT.

The differential Ar output
$$V_0 = \frac{R_F}{R_1} \left[V_{02} - V_{01} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow V_0 = \frac{R_F}{R_1} \left[V_2 - V_1 + 2 \frac{R_2}{R_{G_1}} \left(V_2 - V_1 \right) \right]$$

$$V_0 = \frac{R_F}{R_1} \left(1 + \frac{2R_2}{R_{G_1}} \right) \left(V_2 - V_1 \right)$$

The overall gain =
$$\frac{V_0}{V_2-V_1} = \frac{R_F}{R_1} \left(1 + \frac{2R_2}{R_{G_1}}\right)$$

The gain can be adjusted without distrubing out symmetry by varying the resistor Ro.

Current to voltage converter:

The current to voltage converter accepts an input current I_S and produces an output voltage V_o which is proportional to the input current.

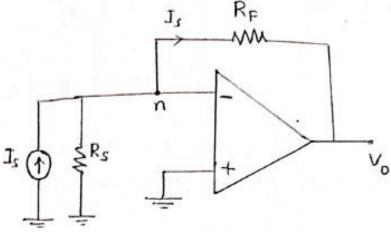
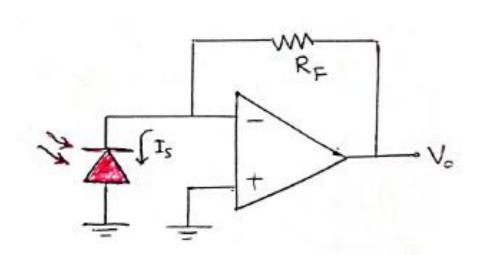


Fig: Current to voltage converter

- Due to virtual ground $V_n=0$
- Thus the current through $R_S = 0$
- So I_S flows through R_F.
- Therefore the output voltage is $V_o = -I_S R_F$

Photo Detector amplifier:

 The current to voltage conversion principle is used in many special purpose amplifiers such as photo conductive and photo voltaic detectors. Photo detectors are transducers that produce electric current in response to incident light.



- A trans resistance amplifier is used to convert current to voltage.
- Si photo diode is commonly used photo detector. This diode gives an output current that is proportional to an incident light energy.
- The current through this device can be converted into voltage by using a current to voltage converter and there by the amount of light on the photo device can be measured.

Voltage to current converter:

- The voltage to current converter accepts input voltage V_s and produces an output current I_o which is proportional to V_s .
- There are two types of voltage to current converters.
- (a) Voltage to current converter with floating load.
- (b) Voltage to current converter with grounded load.
- A floating load refers to the situation where both of its terminals are un committed. In V-I converter with floating load configuration, the load RL itself acts as a feedback element and is not grounded.

A grounded load refers to the situation where one of its terminals is already committed to ground.

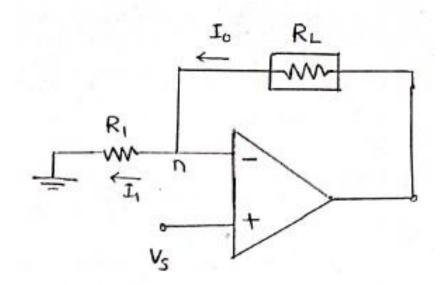
(a) Voltage to current converter with floating load:

From figule,
$$V_n = V_s$$

$$Apply KcL @ node n$$

$$I_0 = I_1$$

$$\Rightarrow I_0 = \frac{V_n}{R_1} = \frac{V_s}{R_1}$$



(b) Voltage to current converter with grounded load:

Apply KCL @ node p
$$\frac{V_p - V_s}{R} + \frac{V_p - V_o}{R} + I_o = 0$$

W. 9. to Vo, the op-Amp acts as a non investing Ar.

$$\Rightarrow V_0 = \left(1 + \frac{R_F}{R_1}\right) V_P$$

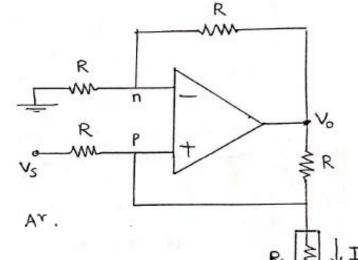
$$= \left(1 + \frac{R_F}{R_1}\right) V_P$$

$$= 2V_P.$$

so that,
$$\frac{V_P - V_S}{R} + \frac{V_P - 2V_P}{R} + I_D = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_P - V_S + V_P - 2V_P}{R} + I_D = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_D = \frac{V_S}{R}$$



Active Filters:

- These filters are used in the circuits which require the separation of signals according to their frequencies.
- Filters are most widely used in communication and signal processing.
- These filters are built from
 - (i) Passive RLC Filters
 - (ii)Crystals
 - (iii) Resistors, capacitors and Op-amps(Active filters)

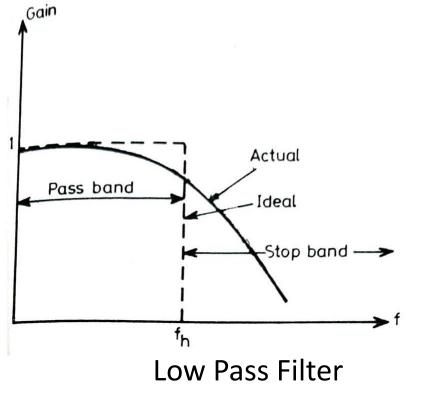
Under active filters, we have low pass, high pass, band pass and band reject filters.

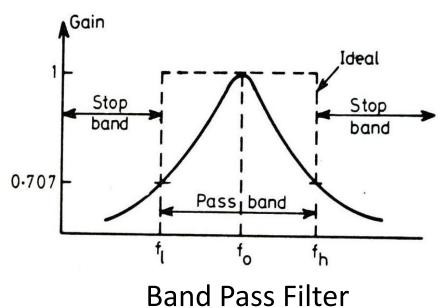
RC active Filters:

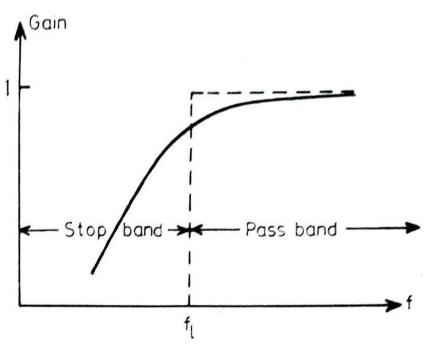
- The active filters have their own limitations. High frequency response is limited by the gain bandwidth product and slew rate of the op-amp.
- The high frequency active filters are more expensive than the passive filters.

The most commonly used filters are

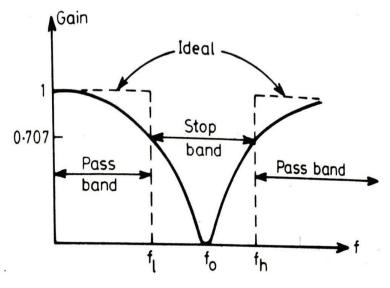
- (a) Low Pass Filters (LPF)
- (b) High Pass Filters (HPF)
- (c) Band Pass Filters (BPF)
- (d) Band Reject Filter / Band Stop Filter











Band Stop Filter

Active filters are specified by the voltage transfer function.

$$H(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)}$$

Under steady state condition (i.e., $s=j\omega$)

$$H(j\omega) = |H(j\omega)| e^{j \phi(\omega)}$$

where $|H(j\omega)|$ is the magnitude or the gain function and $\phi(\omega)$ is the phase function. Usually the magnitude response is given in dB as

$$20 \log |H(j \omega)|$$

Sometimes, active filters are specified by a loss function $V_i(s)/V_o(s)$. The use of loss function is a carry over from passive filter design.

First order Low pass filter:

Active filters may be of different orders and types.

A first order filter consists of a single RC network connected to the non inverting input terminal of the op-amp as shown in figure.

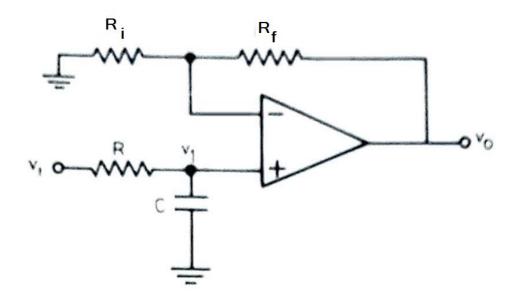


Fig: First order low pass filter

The voltage v₁ across the capacitor C in the s-domain is

$$V_1(s) = \frac{\frac{1}{sC}}{R + \frac{1}{sC}} V_i(s)$$

$$\frac{V_1(s)}{V_1(s)} = \frac{1}{RCs + 1}$$

where V(s) is the Laplace transform of v in time domain.

The closed loop gain A_o of the op-amp is,

$$A_o = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_1(s)} = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_i}\right)$$

The overall transfer function from the above two equations is given by

$$H(s) = \frac{V_{\circ}(s)}{V_{i}(s)} = \frac{V_{\circ}(s)}{V_{1}(s)} \cdot \frac{V_{1}(s)}{V_{i}(s)} = \frac{A_{\circ}}{RCs + 1}$$

$$H(s) = \frac{V_{\circ}(s)}{V_{i}(s)} = \frac{V_{\circ}(s)}{V_{1}(s)} \cdot \frac{V_{1}(s)}{V_{i}(s)} = \frac{A_{\circ}}{RCs + 1}$$

Let
$$\omega_h = \frac{1}{RC}$$

Therefore,
$$H(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{A_o}{\frac{s}{\omega_h} + 1} = \frac{A_o \omega_h}{s + \omega_h}$$

The above equation is the standard form of the transfer function of a first order low-pass system.

The frequency response is determined by putting, $s=j\omega$ in the above equation

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{A_o}{1 + j\omega RC} = \frac{A_o}{1 + j(f/f_h)}$$

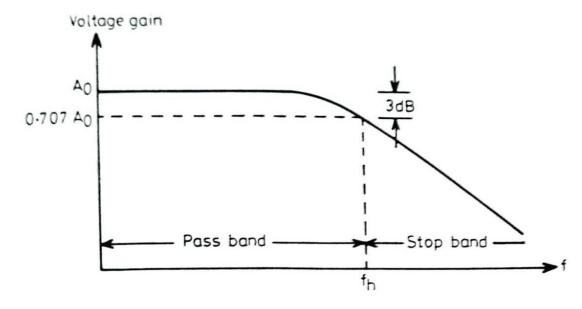
where
$$f_h = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$
 and $f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi}$

At very low frequency, i.e.
$$f << f_h$$
 $H(j\omega) \simeq A_o$

At
$$f = f_h$$
 $|H(j\omega)| = \frac{A_o}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707 A_o$

At very high frequency i.e. $f >> f_h$ $|H(j\omega)| << A_o \simeq 0$

The frequency response of the first order low pass filter is shown in the following figure



Second order Active filter:

An improved filter response can be obtained by using a second order active filter.

The results that are derived here are used for the analysis of low pass and high pass filters.

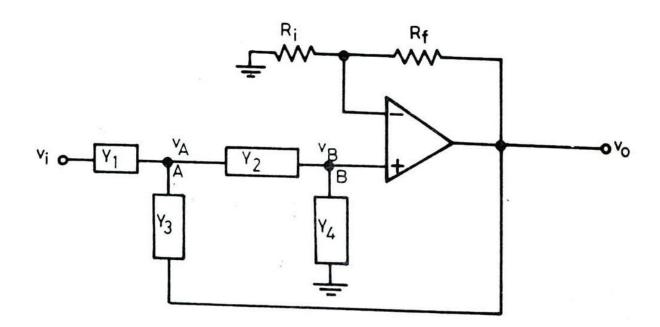


Fig. Sallen Key filter (General second order filter)

The op-amp is connected as non-inverting amplifier and hence,

$$v_o = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_i}\right) v_B = A_o v_B$$
 where, $A_o = 1 + \frac{R_f}{R_i}$

 $v_{\rm B}$ is the voltage at node B.

Kirchhoff's current law (KCL) at node A gives

$$v_{i} Y_{1} = v_{A} (Y_{1} + Y_{2} + Y_{3}) - v_{o} Y_{3} - v_{B} Y_{2}$$

$$= v_{A} (Y_{1} + Y_{2} + Y_{3}) - v_{o} Y_{3} - \frac{v_{o} Y_{2}}{A_{o}}$$

where v_A is the voltage at node A.

KCL at node B gives,

$$v_{A}Y_{2} = v_{B} (Y_{2} + Y_{4}) = \frac{v_{o} (Y_{2} + Y_{4})}{A_{o}}$$

$$v_{A} = \frac{v_{o} (Y_{2} + Y_{4})}{A_{o} Y_{2}}$$

By simplifying the above two equations, we get

$$\frac{v_{o}}{v_{i}} = \frac{A_{o} Y_{1} Y_{2}}{Y_{1} Y_{2} + Y_{4} (Y_{1} + Y_{2} + Y_{3}) + Y_{2} Y_{3} (1 - A_{o})}$$

To make a low pass filter, choose, $Y_1 = Y_2 = 1/R$ and $Y_3 = Y_4 = sC$ as shown in

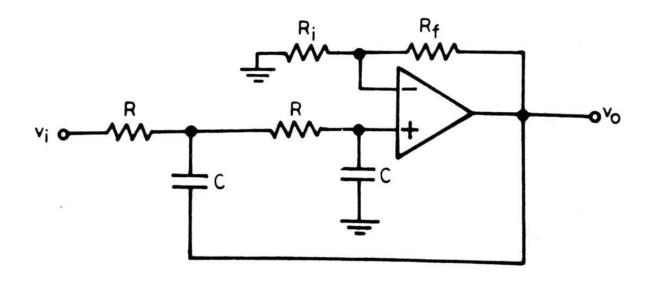


Fig. Second order low-pass filter

For simplicity equal components has been used, we get the transfer function H(s) of a low pass filter as,

$$H(s) = \frac{A_o}{s^2 C^2 R^2 + sCR (3 - A_o) + 1}$$

From the above equation, $H(0) = A_0$ for s=0 and $H(\infty) = 0$ for s= ∞ , and it is the configuration for a low pass filter.

The transfer function of low pass second order system (electrical, mechanical, hydraulic or chemical) can be written as

$$H(s) = \frac{A_o \omega_h^2}{s^2 + \alpha \omega_h s + \omega_h^2}$$

Where, A_o is the gain, $\omega_h \text{ is the upper cut off frequency in radians/sec}$ α is the damping coefficient

Comparing the above two equations, we get

$$\omega_{h} = \frac{1}{RC}$$

$$\alpha = (3 - A_{o})$$

That is, the value of the damping coefficient α for low pass active RC filter can be determined by the value of A_{α} chosen.

Putting $s = j\omega$, in H(s), we get

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{A_o}{(j\omega/\omega_h)^2 + j\alpha(\omega/\omega_h) + 1}$$

the normalized expression for low pass filter is

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{A_o}{s^2 + \alpha s + 1}$$

where normalized frequency
$$s = j\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_h}\right)$$

The expression for magnitude in dB is given by

$$20 \log |H(j\omega)| = 20 \log \left| \frac{A_o}{1 + j\alpha (\omega/\omega_h) + (j\omega/\omega_h)^2} \right|$$

$$= 20 \log \left| \frac{A_o}{\sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_h^2}\right)^2 + \left(\alpha - \frac{\omega}{\omega_h}\right)^2}} \right|$$

$$20 \log \left| H(j\omega) \right| = 20 \log \left| \frac{V_o}{V_i} \right| = 20 \log \frac{A_o}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_h}\right)^4}}$$

For the nth order generalized filter, the normalized transfer function is given by

$$\left| \frac{H(j\omega)}{A_o} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_h}\right)^{2n}}}$$

Higher order Low pass filter:

Higher order filters can be built by cascading a proper number of first and second order filters. The transfer function is given by

$$H(s) = \frac{A_{o1}}{s^2 + \alpha_1 s + 1} \cdot \frac{A_{o2}}{s^2 + \alpha_2 s + 1} \cdot \frac{A_o}{s + 1}$$
second order another second first order section order section

High pass active filter:

High pass filter is the complement of the low pass filter and can be obtained by interchanging R and C.

$$H(s) = \frac{A_o s^2}{s^2 + (3 - A_o) \omega_1 s + \omega_1^2}$$

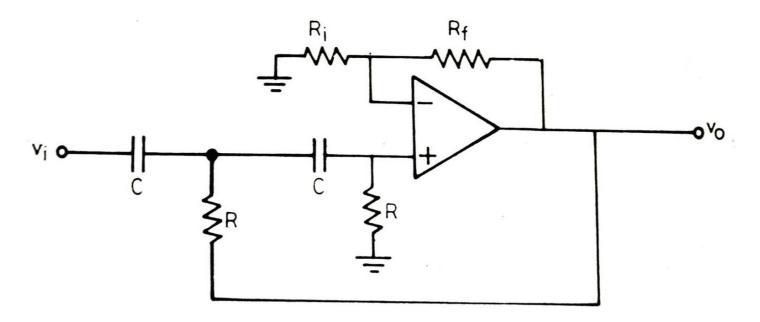


Fig. Second order high pass filter

where
$$\omega_1 = \frac{1}{RC}$$

$$H(s) = \frac{A_o}{1 + \frac{\omega_l}{s} (3 - A_o) + \left(\frac{\omega_l}{s}\right)^2}$$

For $\omega=0$, we get H = 0 and $\omega=\infty$, we get H=A_o. So the circuit behaves like a high pass filter.

The lower cut off frequency is given by

$$f_{\rm l} = f_{\rm 3dB} = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$

Putting s=j ω , and 3-A_o = α = 1.414 in the above equation, we get

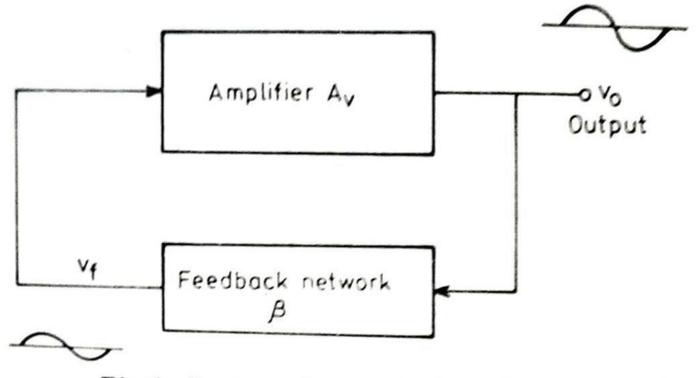
$$|H(j\omega)| = \left|\frac{V_o}{V_i}\right| = \frac{A_o}{\sqrt{1 + (f_i/f)^4}}$$

Hence
$$\left| \frac{H(j\omega)}{A_o} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{f_1}{f}\right)^4}}$$

For the nth order generalized filter, the normalized transfer function is given by

$$\left| \frac{H(j\omega)}{A_o} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{f_1}{f}\right)^{2n}}}$$

Sine wave generators:



Block diagram of a feedback oscillator

For sustained oscillation, $A_{\nu}\beta = 1$. That is, the magnitude condition $|A_{\nu}\beta| = 1$ and the phase condition, $|A_{\nu}\beta| = 0^{\circ}$ or 360° must be simultaneously satisfied in the circuit.

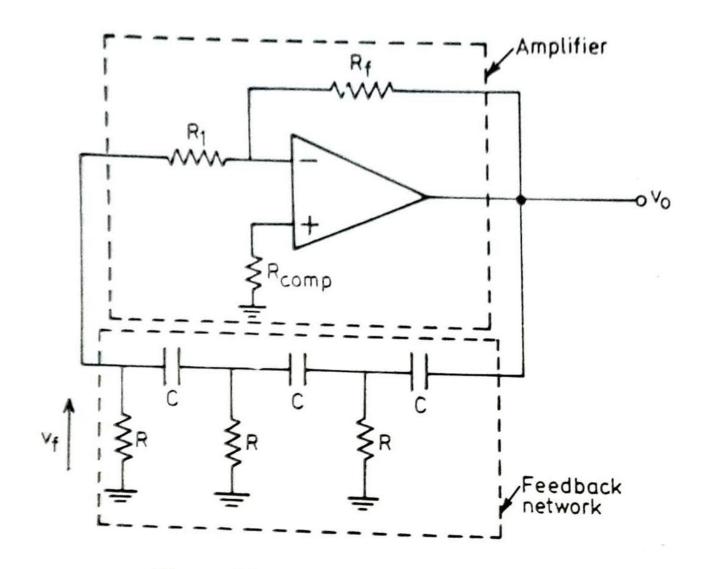
There are different types of sine-wave oscillators available according to the range of frequency, namely RC oscillators for audio frequency and LC oscillators for radio frequency range. Here we will discuss only two types of audio frequency RC oscillators.

Phase shift oscillator:

$$\beta = \frac{\nu_{\rm f}}{\nu_{\rm o}} = \frac{1}{1 + 6/s\,RC + 5/s^2\,R^2C^2 + 1/s^3\,R^3C^3}$$

Letting $s = j\omega$,

$$\beta = \frac{1}{1 - 5 (f_1/f)^2 - j [6 (f_1/f) - (f_1/f)^3]}$$



Phase shift oscillator

where
$$f_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$

For A_{ν} β = 1, β should be real. So the imaginary term in Eq. must be equal to zero, that is,

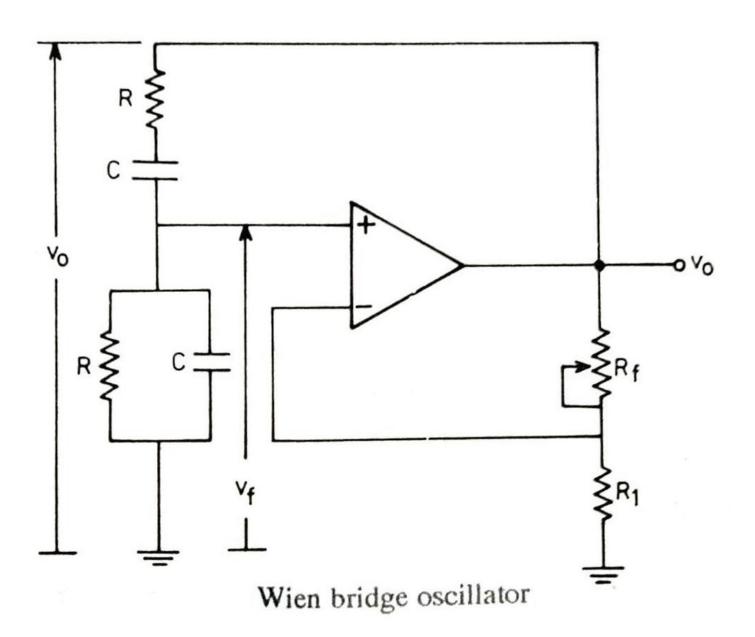
$$6 (f_1/f) - (f_1/f)^3 = 0$$

$$f_1/f = \sqrt{6}$$

The frequency of the oscillation f_o is given by,

$$f_{\circ} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6} \ (2\pi RC)}$$

Wien bridge oscillator:



From the feedback network, the feedback factor β is,

$$\beta = \frac{v_f}{v_o} = \frac{R/(1+j\omega RC)}{[(R-j/\omega C)+R/(1+j\omega RC)]}$$
$$= \frac{R}{3R+j(\omega R^2C-1/\omega C)}$$

For $A_{\nu}\beta = 1$, β must be real. That is the imaginary term in Eq. must be zero.

$$\omega R^2 C - \frac{1}{\omega C} = 0$$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{RC}$$

The frequency of oscillation f_o is, $f_o = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$

555 Timer:

- It is a highly stable device for generating accurate time delay or oscillation.
- This 555 timer can provide time delay ranging from micro seconds to hours.
- 555 timer can be used with supply voltage in the range of +5V to +18V and can drive load up to 200mA.
- 555 timer is used in various applications such as oscillator, pulse generator, ramp, square wave generator, mono stable multivibrator, burglar alarm, traffic light control and voltage monitor.

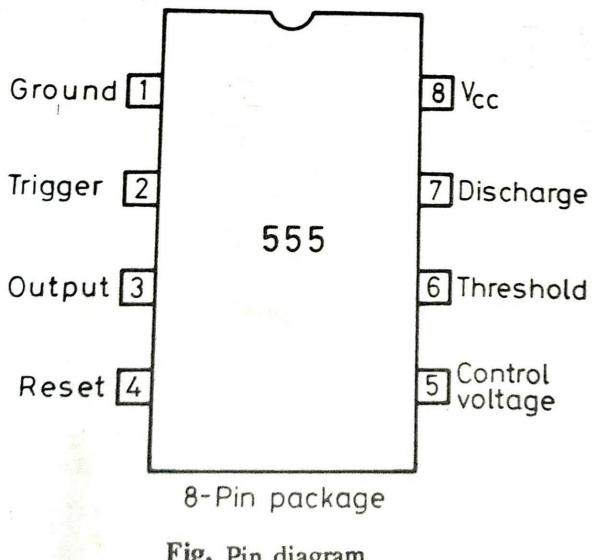
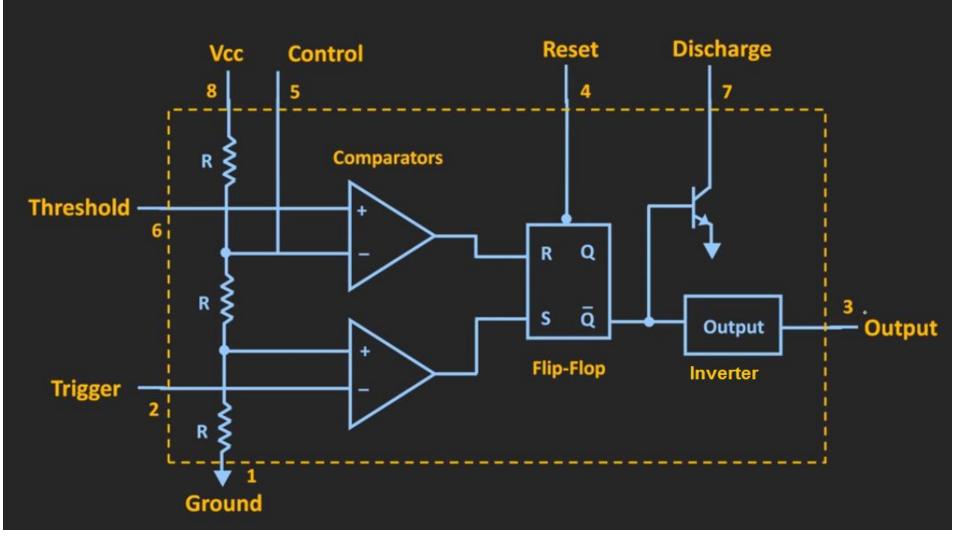


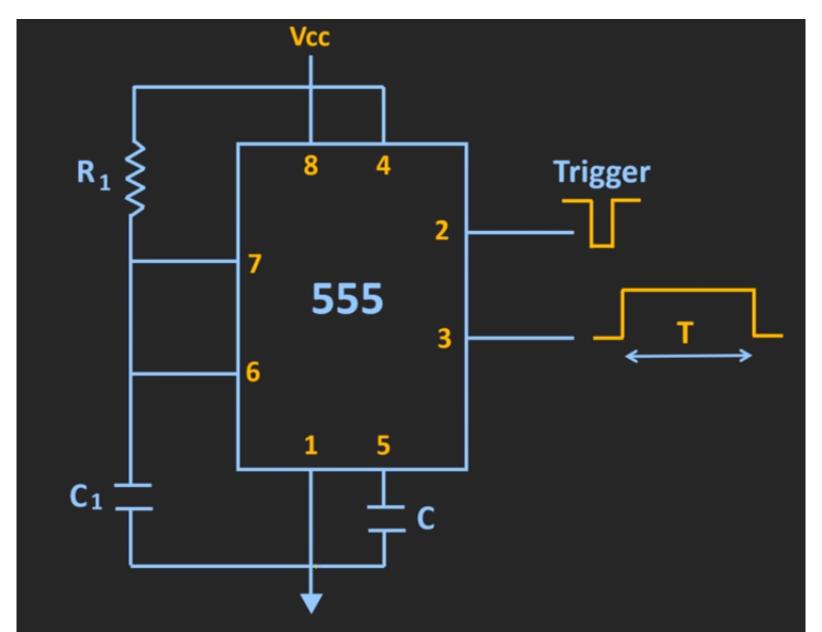
Fig. Pin diagram

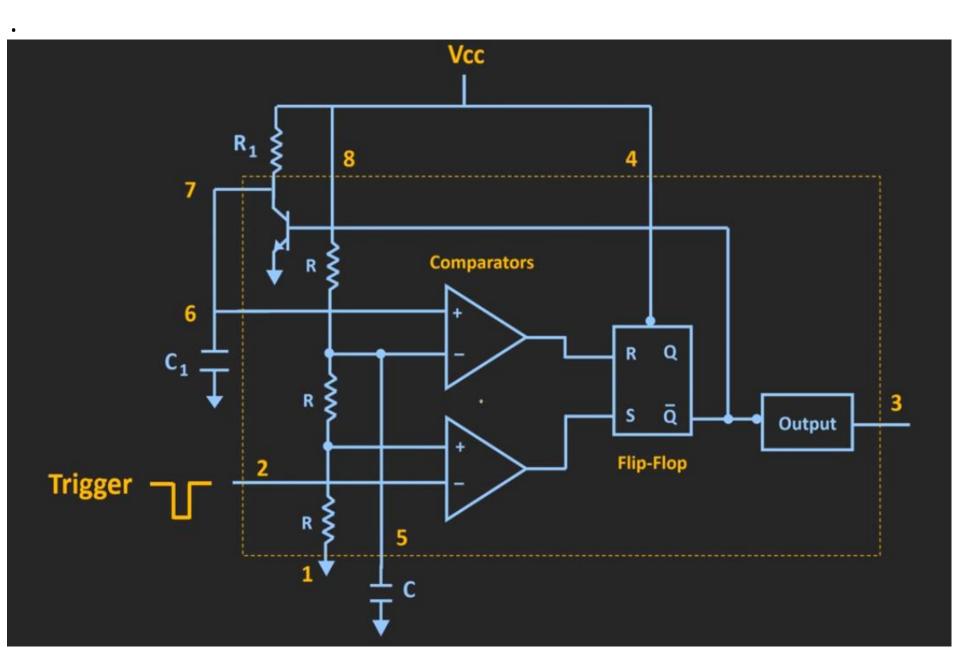
555 Timer Block Diagram



Monostable multivibrator:

Monostable has one stable state.





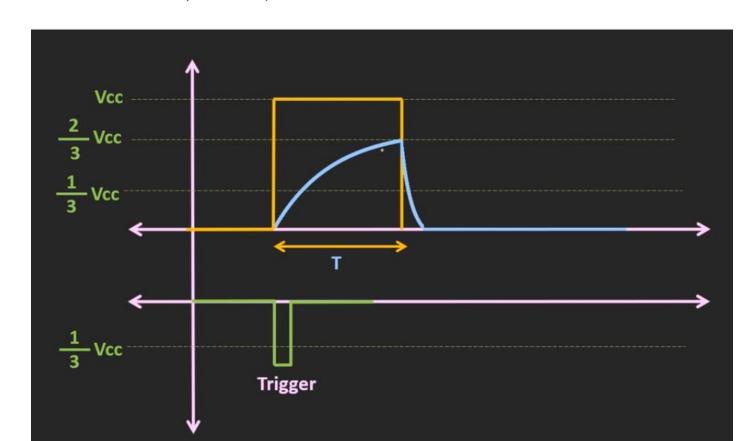
$$v_{\rm c} = V_{\rm cc} (1 - e^{-t/RC})$$

At
$$t = T$$
, $v_c = (2/3) V_{cc}$

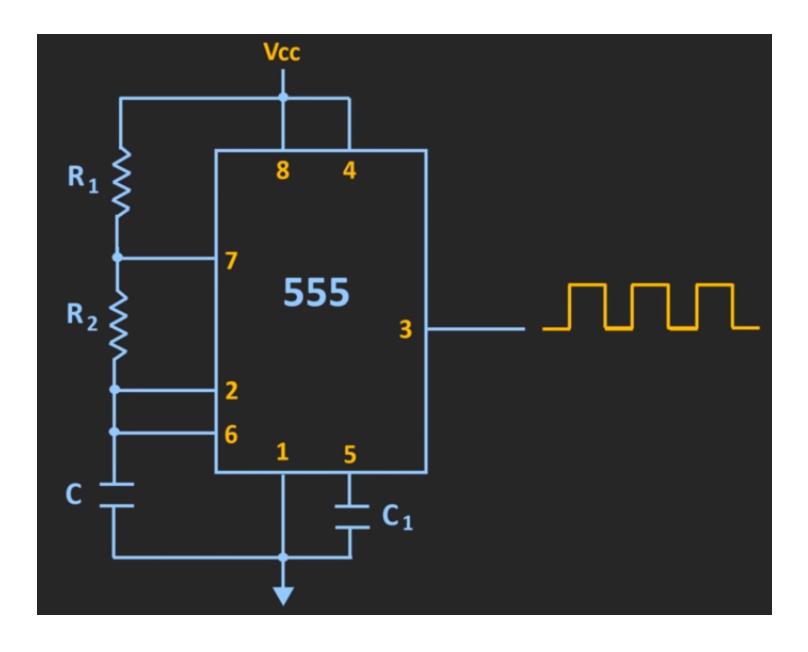
Therefore,
$$\frac{2}{3}V_{cc} = V_{cc} (1 - e^{-T/RC})$$

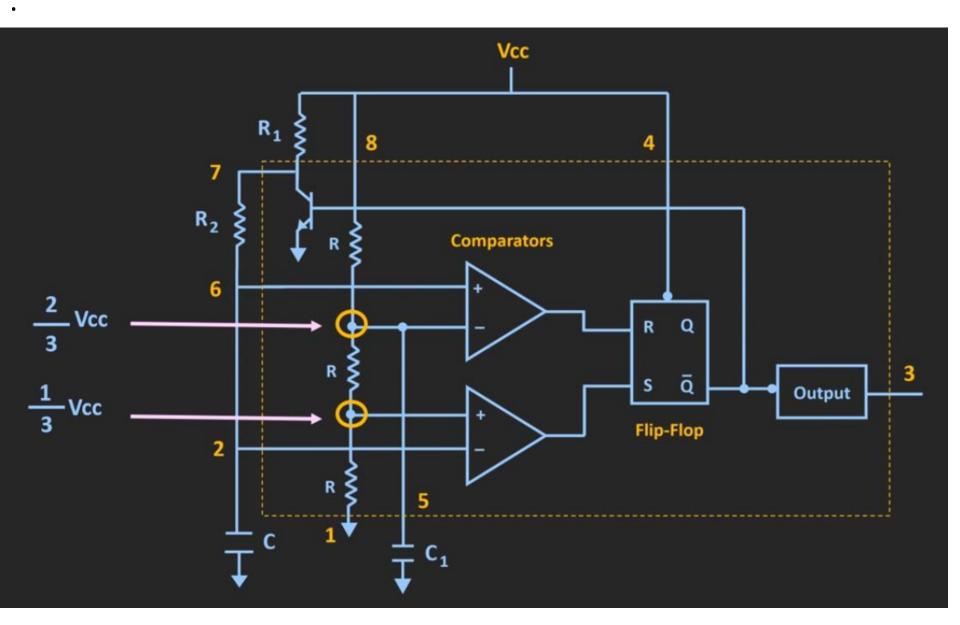
$$T = RC \ln (1/3)$$

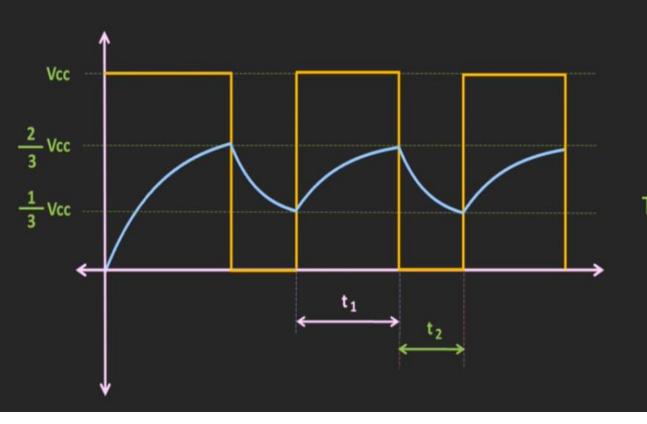
$$T = 1.1 RC$$
 (seconds)



Astable Multivibrator:







$$t_1 = 0.693 (R1 + R2) C$$

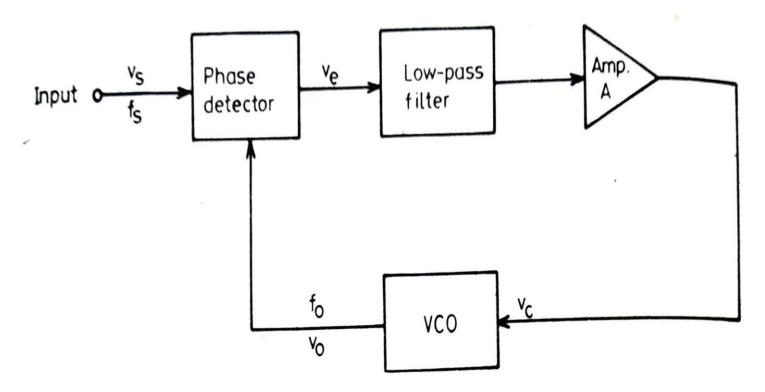
$$T = t_1 + t_2 = 0.693 (R1 + 2R2) C$$

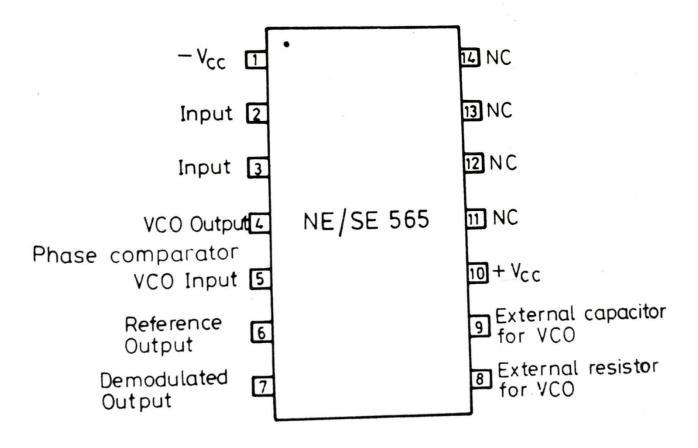
Phase Locked Loop (PLL):

- It is an important building block of linear systems.
- It is used in satellite communication systems, air borne navigational systems, FM communication systems.

Basic Principles:

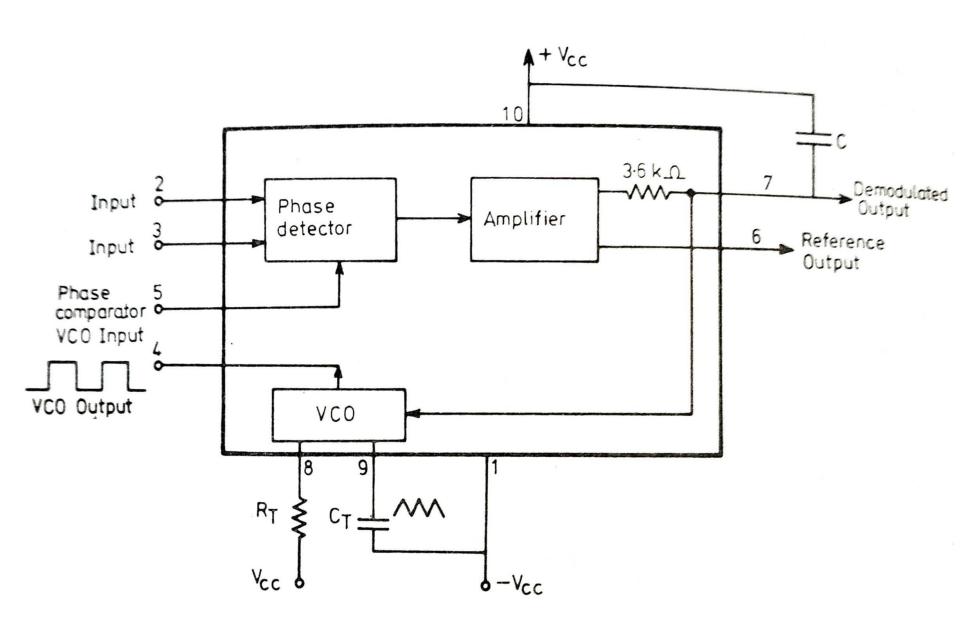
The basic blocks in the PLL is shown in the following figure.



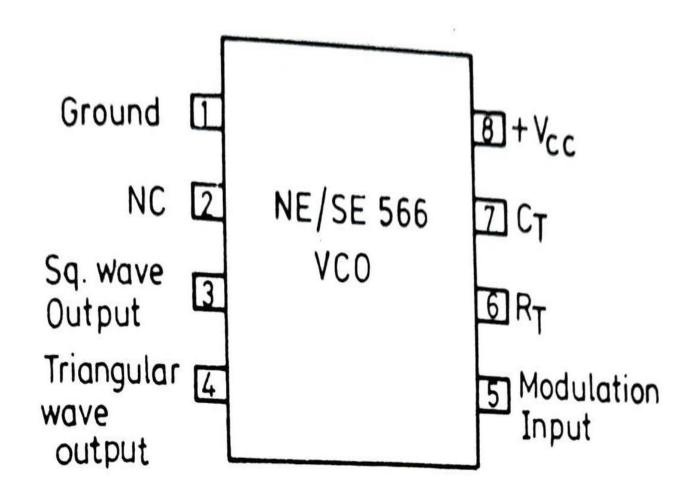


Pin diagram

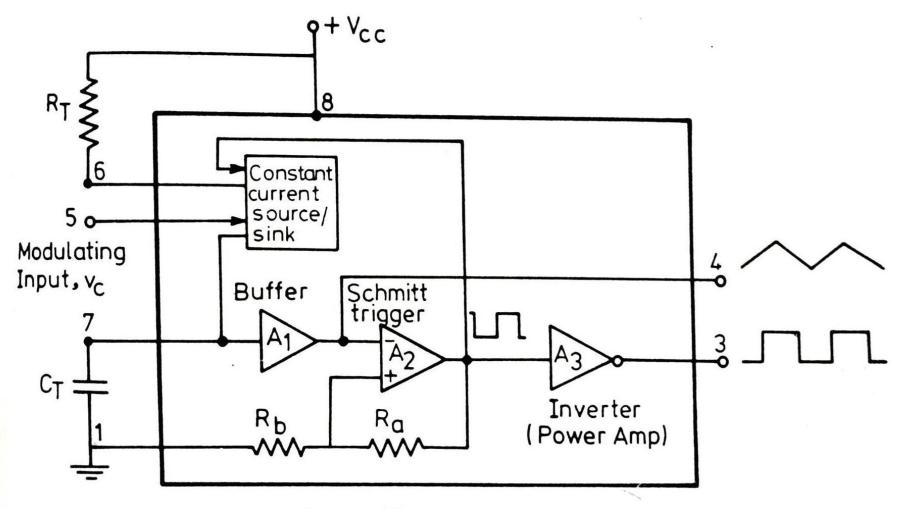
$$f_{\rm o} = \frac{0.25}{R_{\rm T} C_{\rm T}} \, \text{Hz}$$



Voltage Controlled Oscillator (VCO):



Voltage controlled oscillator Pin configuration



Voltage controlled oscillator Block diagram

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