Another version of the voltage - to - werrent converter is shown in Figure 1. In this circuit, one terminal of the load is grounded, and load current is controlled by an input voltage. The analysis of the circuit is accomplished by first determining the voltage V, at the noninverting input terminal and then establishing the relationship between V, and the load current.

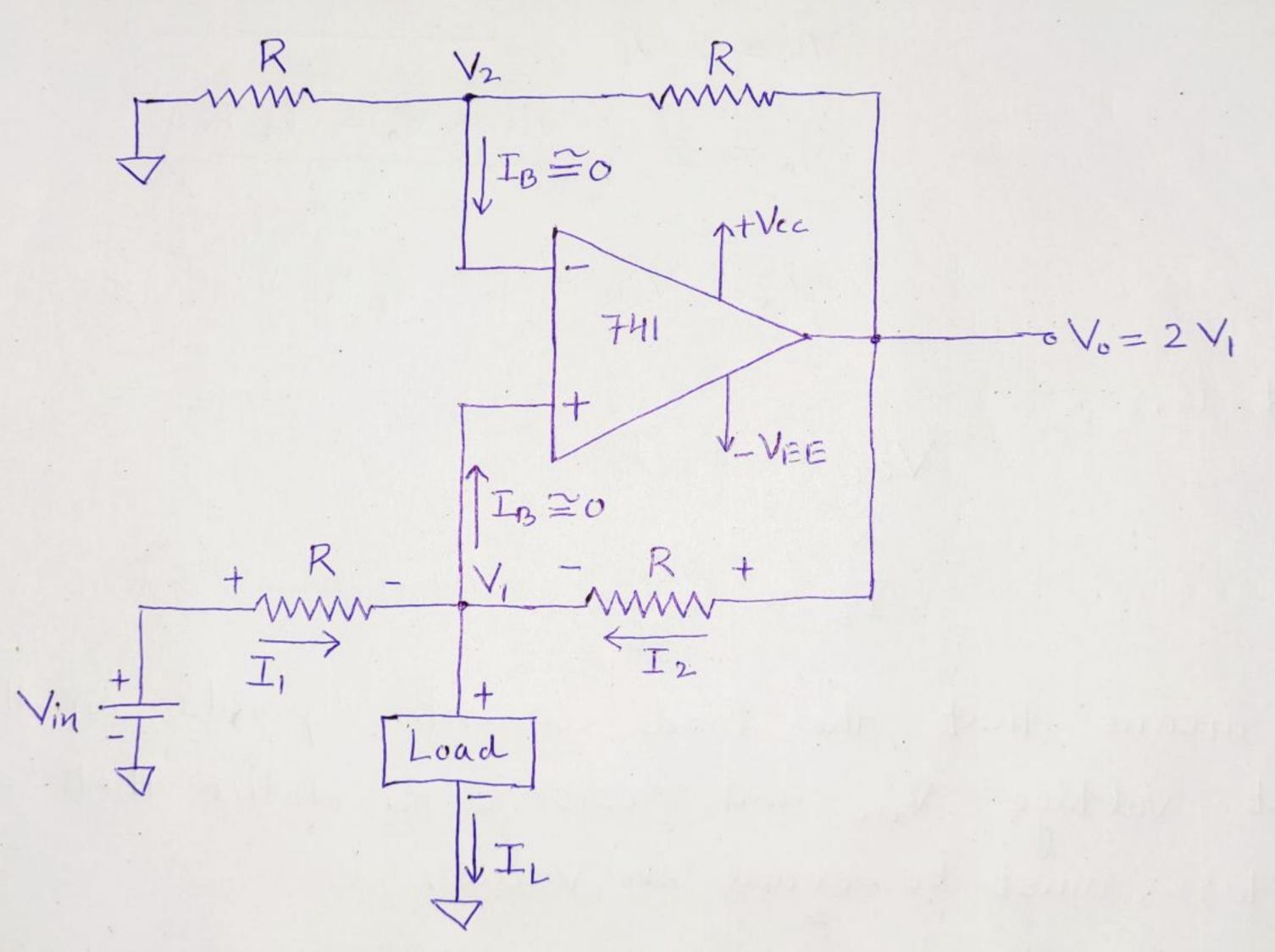


Figure 1. Voltage - to- current converter with grounded load.

Writing Kirchhoff's current equation at node VI,

There fore,

$$V_1 = \frac{Vin + Vo - ILR}{2}$$

Since the op-amp is connected in the noninverting mode, the gain of the circuit in Figure 1 is

$$\frac{1}{R} = 2$$

Then the output voltage is

$$V_0 = 2 V_1$$

$$V_0 = 2 \left( \frac{V_{in} + V_0 - I_L R}{2} \right)$$

Vo = Vin + Vo - ILR

That is,

Vin = IL R

02,

$$I_L = \frac{V_{in}}{R}$$
 — (3)

This means that the load current depends on the input voltage Vin and resistor R. Notice that all resistors must be equal in value.

Q1. In the circuit of Figure 1, Vin= 5 V, R=10 KD and V1= 1 V. Find (a) the load current and (b) the output voltage Vo. Assume that the op-amp is initially nulled.

Solution: (a) Using equation (3),  $T_L = \frac{Vin}{R} = \frac{5}{10 \text{ K-}2} = 0.50 \text{ mA}$ 

(b). Since Vin = ILR, From equation (D),

 $V_0 = 2V_1 = 2V$ .

## The Integrator

A circuit in which the output voltage waveform is the integral of the input voltage waveform is the integrator or the integration amplifier. Such a circuit is obtained by using a basic inverting amplifier configuration if the feedback resistor RF is replaced by a capacitor CF [ see Figure 2].

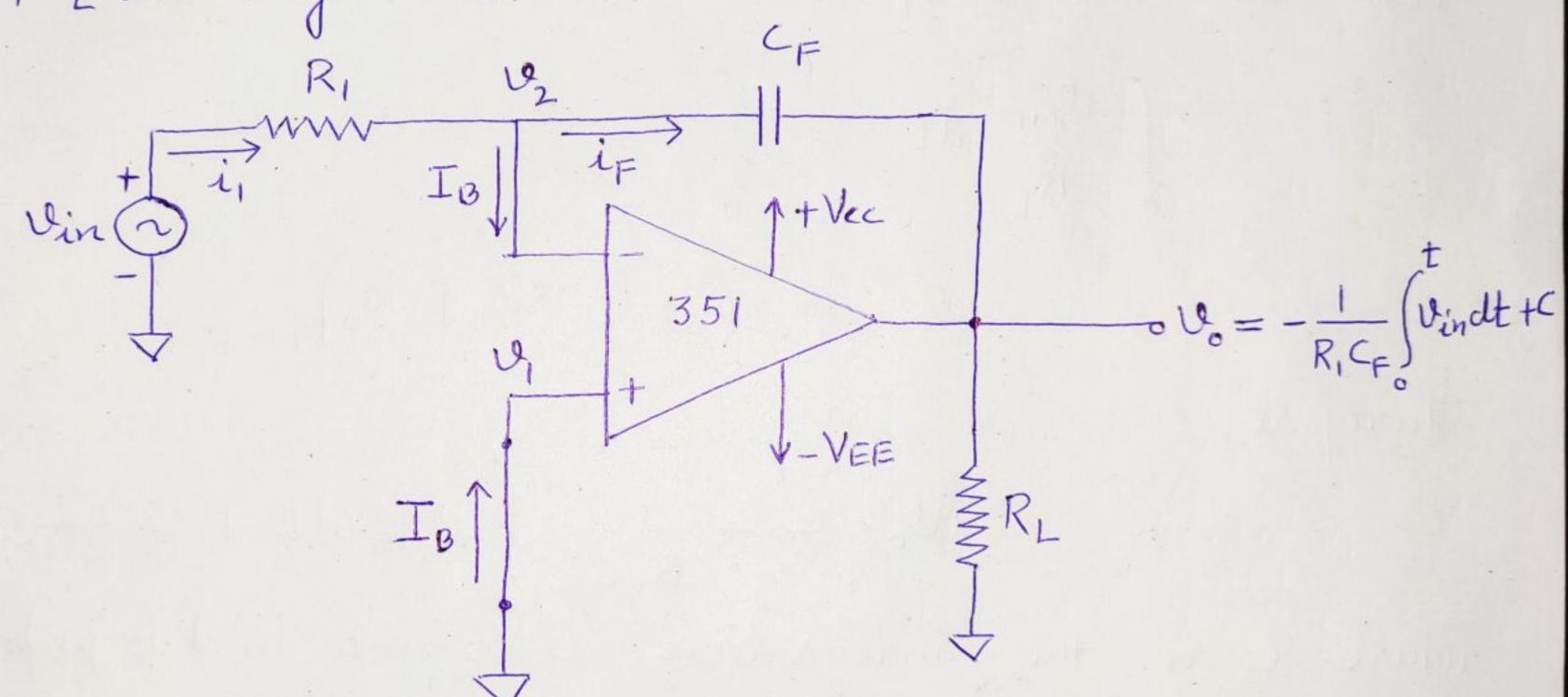


Figure 2. The integrator circuit.

The empression for the output voltage is can be obtained by writing Kirchhoff's current equation at node is:

Since IB is negligibly small,

Recall that the relationship between current through and voltage across the capacitor is,

$$i_c = c \frac{dv_c}{dt}$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{\text{Uin} - \text{U2}}{R_1} = C_F \left(\frac{\text{d}}{\text{dt}}\right) \left(\text{U2} - \text{U0}\right)$$

However,  $u_1 = u_2 \cong 0$  because A is very large. Therefore,

$$\frac{Vin}{R_1} = C_F \frac{d}{dt} (-v_0)$$

The output voltage can be obtained by integrating both sides with respect to time:

$$\int_{0}^{t} \frac{v_{in}}{R_{i}} dt = \int_{0}^{t} C_{F} \frac{d}{dt} (-v_{o}) dt$$

Therefore,

$$v_0 = -\frac{1}{R_1C_F} \int v_{in} dt + C - 4$$

Therefore,  $V_0 = -\frac{1}{R_1C_F} \int V_{in} dt + C - \frac{4}{4}$  where C is the integration constant and is proportional to the value of the output valtage  $V_0$  at time t=0

Equation (4) indicates that the output voltage is directly proportional to the negative integral of the input voltage and inversely proportional to the time constant R, CF. For example, if the input is a sine wave, the output will be a cosine wave; or if the imput is a square wave, the output will be a tri--angular wave as shown in Figure 3. Note that

these waveforms are drawn with the assumption G that  $R_1C_F = 1$  second and  $V_{00T} = 0 \text{ V}$ , that is, C = 0.

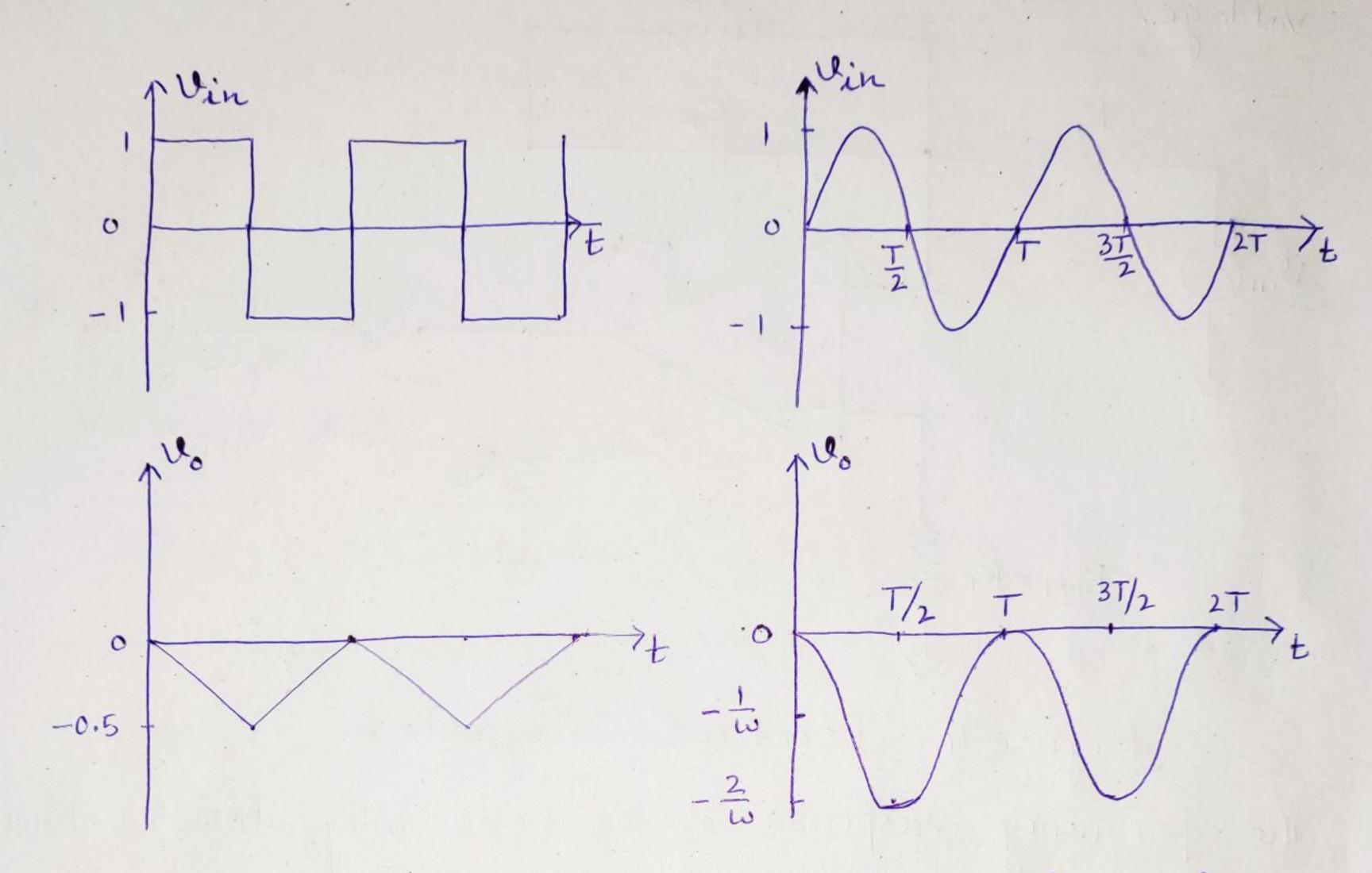


Figure 3. Input and output (ideal) waveforms for integrator ( $R_1 \subseteq 1$  second and  $V_{00T} = 0 V$  assumed).

When  $V_{in}=0$ , the integrator of Figure 2 works as an open-loop amplifier. This is because the capacitor  $C_F$  acts as an open circuit ( $X_{CF}=\infty$ ) to the input offset voltage  $V_{io}$ . In other words, the input offset Voltage  $V_{io}$  and the part of the input current charging capacitor  $C_F$  produce the error voltage at the output of the integrator. Therefore, in the practical integrator shown in Figure 4, to reduce the error voltage at the output, a resistor  $R_F$  is connected across the

feedback capacitor CF. Thus RF limits the low-frequency gain and Prence minimizes the variations in the output Voltage.

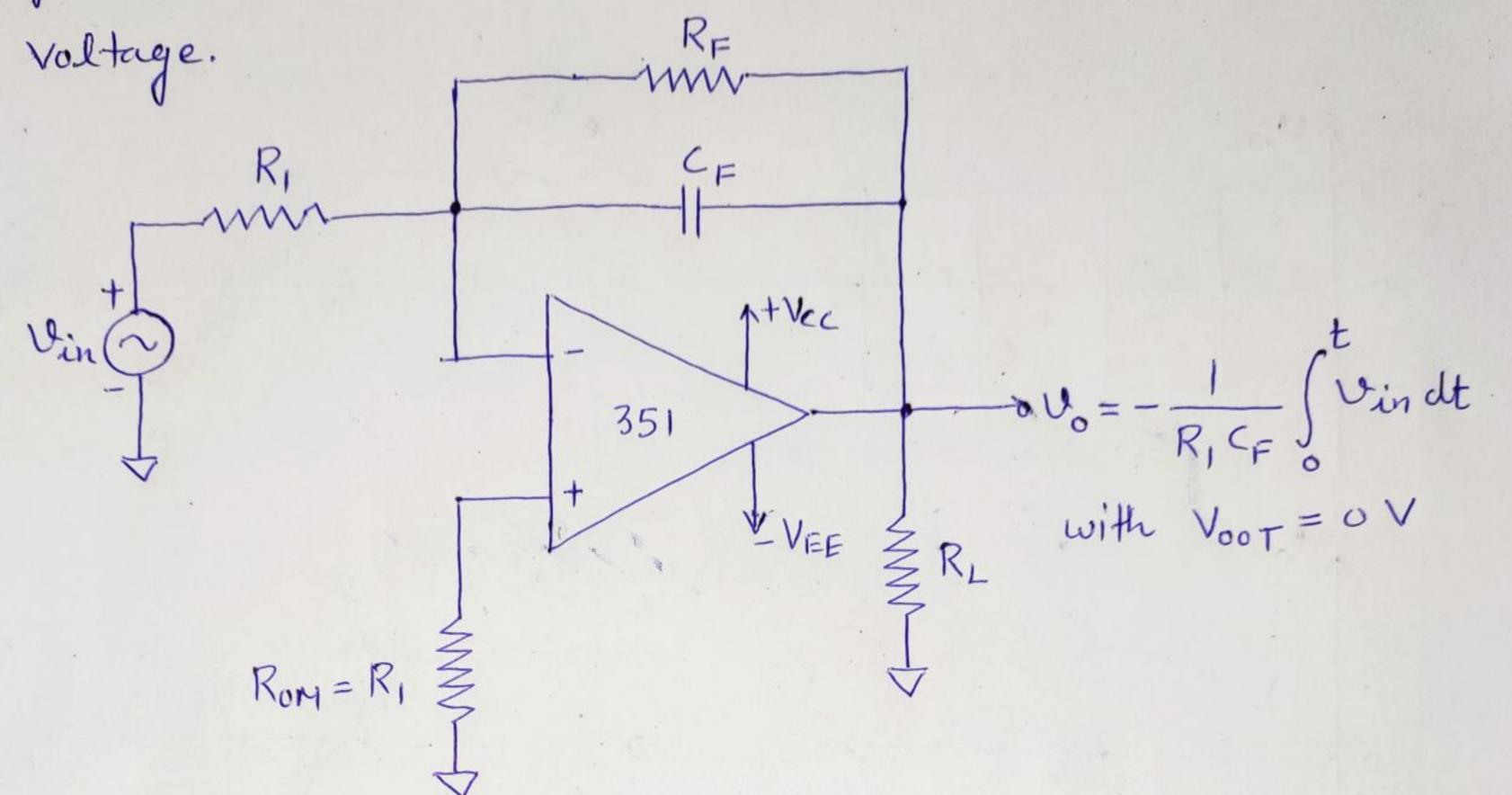


Figure 4. Practical integrator.

The frequency response of the basic integrator is shown in Figure 5. In this figure, for is the frequency at which the gain is odb and is given by

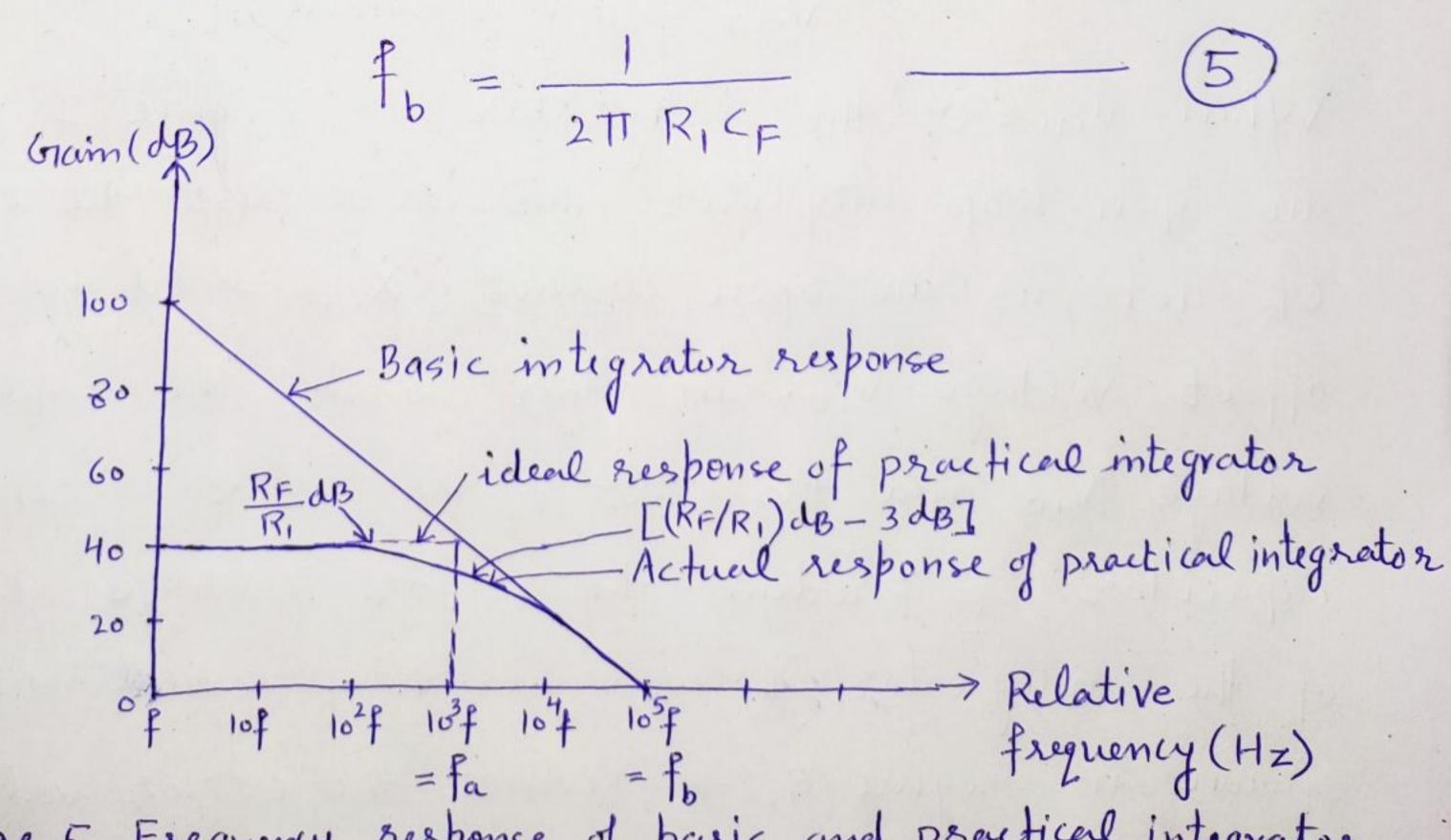


Figure 5. Frequency response of basic and practical integrator.

fa=1/(211 RF(F), fb=1/(211 RICF)

Both the stability and the low-frequency roll-off  $\mathcal{P}$  problems can be corrected by the addition of a resistor  $R_F$  as shown in Practical Integrator of Figure 4. The frequency response of the practical integrator is shown in Figure 5 by a dashed line. In this figure, f is some relative operating frequency, and for frequencies f to fa, the gain  $R_F/R_I$  is constant. However, after fa, the gain decreases at a rate of 20 dB/decade. In other words, between fa and fb, the circuit of Figure 4 acts as an integrator. The gain-limiting frequency fa is given by,

$$f_a = \frac{1}{2\pi R_F C_F}$$
 — 6

Grenerally, the value of  $f_a$  and im turn  $R_i$  (F and  $R_f$ ) that  $f_a$  ( $f_b$ ). For example, if  $f_a = f_b/10$ , then  $R_f = 10R_1$ . In fact, the input signal will be integrated properly if the time period T of the signal is larger them or equal to  $R_f$  (F). That is,

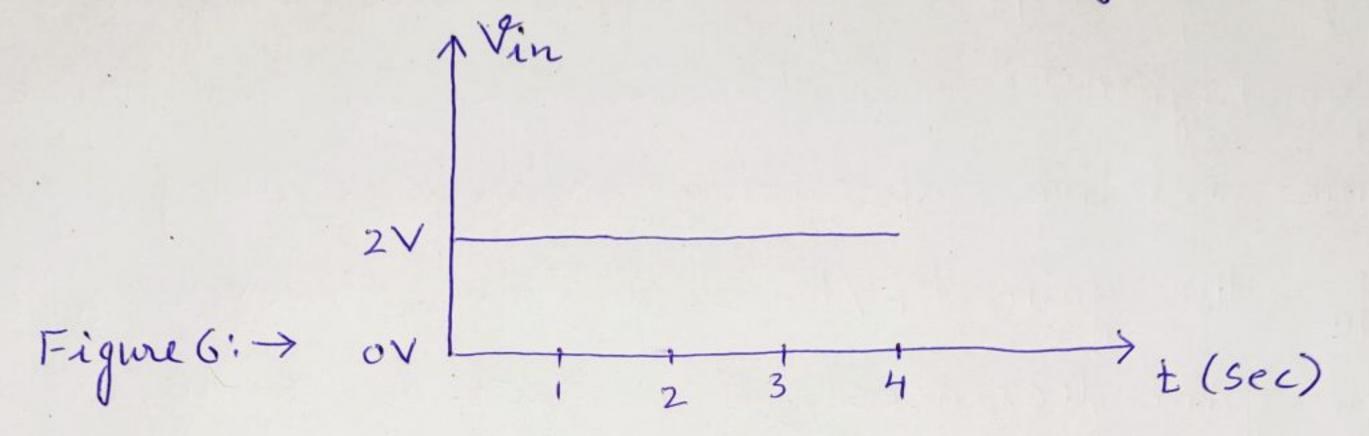
T > RFCF

where

 $R_F C_F = \frac{1}{2\pi f_a}$ 

The integrator is most commonly used in analog computers and analog-to-digital (ADC) circuits.

Q:2. In the circuit of Figure 2, R, CF = 1 second (8) and the input is a step (dc) Voltage as shown in Figure 6. Determine the output voltage and sketch it. Assume that the op-amp is initially nulled.



Solution: The input function is constant beginning at t=0 seconds. That is Vin = 2 V for 0 4 t 44. Therefore, using equation (4)

$$V_{0} = -\frac{1}{R_{1}C_{F}} \int_{0}^{t=4} V_{in} dt + C$$

$$V_{0} = -\int_{0}^{t=4} 2 dt$$

$$= -\left[\int_{0}^{t=4} 2 dt + \int_{0}^{t=4} 2 dt +$$

The output voltage wave form is drawn in Figure 7. The waveform is called a ramp function. The slope of the ramp is - 2V/s. Thus, with a constant voltage applied, the integrator gives a ramp at the output.