

$$\text{or} \quad v_1 = \frac{q}{C}. \quad (14.23)$$

Differentiating with respect to time, we obtain

$$\frac{dv_1}{dt} = \frac{1}{C} \frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{i}{C} \quad (14.24)$$

where  $i$  is the current flowing through the capacitor. Since the input impedance of the OP AMP is infinite, the current  $i$  flows through the resistance  $R$  also. Therefore,  $i = -v_o/R$ , so that Eq. (14.24) gives

$$v_o = -CR \frac{dv_1}{dt} \quad (14.25)$$

Obviously, the output voltage  $v_o$  is proportional to the time derivative of the input voltage  $v_1$ , the proportionality constant being  $-CR$ .

**9. Integrator:** If the positions of  $R$  and  $C$  in the circuit of Fig. 14.13 are interchanged, the resulting circuit, depicted in Fig. 14.14, is an integrator. As the gain of the OP AMP is infinite, the point  $G$  is a virtual ground. The current  $i$  flowing through the resistance  $R$  is  $i = v_1/R$ . The input impedance of the OP AMP being infinite, the current  $i$  flows through the feedback capacitor  $C$  to produce the output voltage  $v_o$ . Therefore,

$$v_o = -\frac{1}{C} \int_0^t i \, dt = -\frac{1}{CR} \int_0^t v_1 \, dt. \quad (14.26)$$

The output voltage  $v_o$  is thus proportional to the time integral of the input voltage  $v_1$ , the proportionality constant being  $-1/(CR)$ . Hence the circuit is referred to as an *integrator*. Integrators find applications in sweep or ramp generators, in filters, and in simulation studies in analog computers.

The basic integrator circuit of Fig. 14.14 has the drawback that since the capacitor is an open circuit for dc, the dc gain of the OP AMP circuit is infinite. So, any dc voltage at the input would drive the OP AMP output to saturation. To avoid this possibility, a resistance  $R_1$  is connected in parallel with the capacitance  $C$ , which limits the dc gain of the circuit. The value of  $R_1$  is so chosen that  $R_1 \gg 1/\omega C$  where  $\omega$  is the angular frequency of the input signal. Then  $v_o$  is, to a good approximation, given by Eq. (14.26).

**10. Voltage-to-current converter:** If the output current of a device is proportional to its input signal voltage, the device is called a voltage-to-current converter. The noninverting amplifier circuit of Fig. 14.7, redrawn in Fig. 14.15, can serve as a voltage-to-current converter, the load resistance  $R_L$  replacing the resistance  $R_f$ . If  $i_L$  is the current through  $R_L$ , we have

$$i_L = \frac{v_1}{R_1} \quad (14.27)$$

the point  $G$  having the input voltage  $v_1$  due to the infinite gain of the OP AMP. Observe that the current  $i_L$  does not depend on the load resistance  $R_L$  and is proportional to the input voltage  $v_1$ . Voltage-to-current converters are used in analog-to-digital converters and in driving the deflection coils of cathode ray tubes in television.

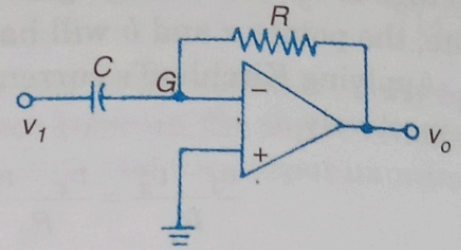


Fig. 14.13 Differentiator.

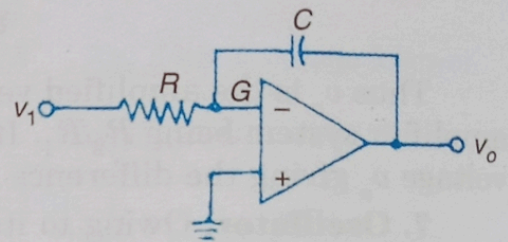


Fig. 14.14 Integrator.

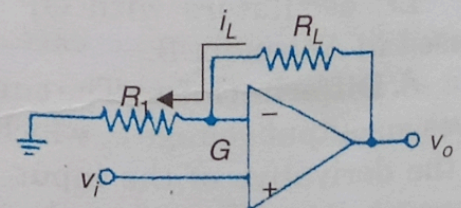


Fig. 14.15 Voltage-to-current converter.



**11. Current-to-voltage converter:** If the output voltage of a device is proportional to its input signal current, the device is termed a current-to-voltage converter. Figure 14.16 shows the circuit diagram of a current-to-voltage converter. The input signal current  $i_s$  can be provided by the output current (independent of the load) of a photocell or a photomultiplier tube. Since the point  $G$  serves as a virtual ground, the current through the resistance  $R_s$  must be zero. The whole input signal current  $i_s$  flows through the feedback resistor  $R_f$  to produce the output voltage  $v_o$ . We have

$$v_o = -i_s R_f \quad (14.28)$$

Thus the output voltage  $v_o$  is proportional to the input current  $i_s$ , the proportionality constant being  $-R_f$ .

**12. Logarithmic amplifier:** If the feedback resistor  $R_f$  in the circuit of Fig. 14.6 is replaced by a diode, we obtain a *logarithmic amplifier* giving an output voltage  $v_o$  that changes as the logarithm of the input voltage  $v_1$ . The circuit of a logarithmic amplifier is shown in Fig. 14.17.

The volt-ampere characteristic of the diode is given by Eq. (5.5), viz.

$$i = I_s \left[ \exp \left( \frac{ev_f}{\eta k_B T} \right) - 1 \right]$$

Here  $i$  is the diode current for the forward voltage  $v_f$ . If  $ev_f / (\eta k_B T) \gg 1$  or,  $i \gg I_s$ , we have

$$i \approx I_s \exp \left( \frac{ev_f}{\eta k_B T} \right)$$

or, 
$$\ln \left( \frac{i}{I_s} \right) = \frac{ev_f}{\eta k_B T}$$

or, 
$$v_f = \frac{\eta k_B T}{e} \ln \left( \frac{i}{I_s} \right)$$

Since  $G$  is a virtual ground in Fig. 14.17, we have  $i = v_1 / R_1$  and the output voltage is

$$v_o = -v_f = -\frac{\eta k_B T}{e} \ln \left( \frac{v_1}{I_s R_1} \right).$$

Hence  $v_o$  responds to the logarithm of  $v_1$ .

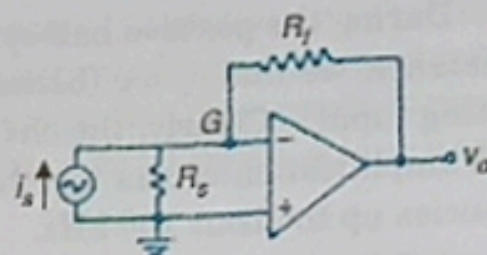


Fig. 14.16 Current-to-voltage converter.

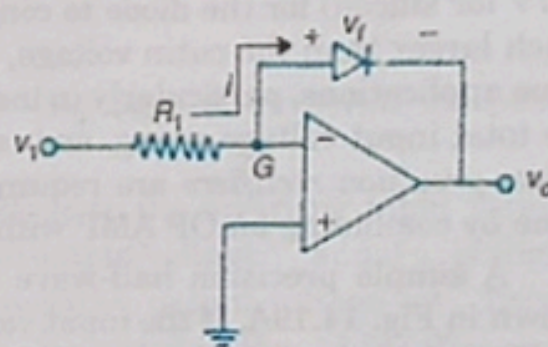


Fig. 14.17 A logarithmic amplifier for positive input voltage  $v_1$ .

current and the load voltage are also zero.

**14. Peak detector:** In the peak detector circuit (Fig. 14.20), if the input voltage  $v_i$  is larger than the output voltage  $v_o$ , the OP AMP output voltage  $v$  is positive. Hence the diode  $D$  is forward biased and it conducts. The circuit now acts as a voltage follower, so that  $v = v_i$ , and the capacitor  $C$  is charged by the amplifier output current through  $D$  to the voltage  $v_i$ . If  $v_i$  now



drops below the capacitor voltage  $v_o$ , the OP AMP output voltage  $v$  is negative and the diode  $D$  turns OFF. The capacitor cannot discharge, and holds at any instant of time  $t$  the most positive value of the input voltage  $v_i$  prior to  $t$  (Fig. 14.21). After the operation, the circuit is reset by activating the gate of a MOSFET connected across the capacitor. The MOSFET acts as a switch to discharge the capacitor.

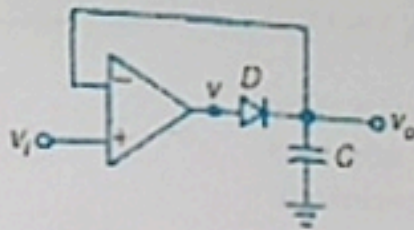


Fig. 14.20 Peak detector

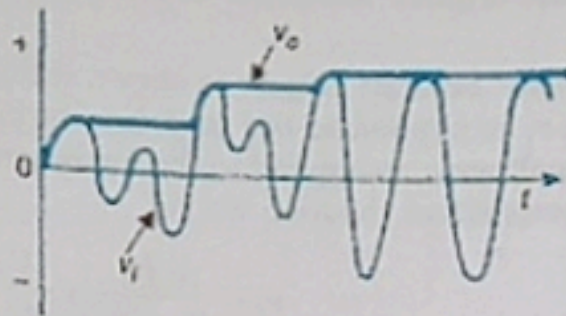


Fig. 14.21 Input and output voltage waveforms.

**15. Voltage comparator:** A voltage comparator (or simply a comparator) is a device used for the comparison of two voltage levels. The output of the comparator indicates which of the two input voltages is greater. Hence it is a switching device, giving an output voltage when one input voltage is larger, and another output voltage when the other input voltage is larger. An OP AMP can be used as a comparator by operating it in the open-loop condition and applying the two voltages to be compared to the inverting and the noninverting inputs. If the voltage to the noninverting input terminal ( $v_1$ ) slightly exceeds the voltage to the inverting input terminal ( $v_2$ ), the OP AMP quickly switches to the maximum positive output voltage  $V$ , and if  $v_2$  is slightly greater than  $v_1$ , the OP AMP switches to the maximum negative output voltage  $-V$ . This behaviour results from the very large open-loop gain, and is illustrated in Fig. 14.5C. The output voltage  $v_o$  switches when  $v_d = v_1 - v_2 = 0$ .

To further clarify the behaviour of the comparator we show in Fig. 14.21(i) an open-loop OPAMP with supply voltages  $+V$  and  $-V$ . A dc source of voltage  $+V_R$  is connected to the inverting input and a sinusoidal voltage  $v_i = V_m \sin \omega t$  is applied to the noninverting input ( $V > V_m > V_R$ ). Figure 14.21(ii) displays the comparator output voltage  $v_o$ . The output voltage  $v_o$  switches to  $+V$  whenever  $v_i$  exceeds  $V_R$ .  $v_o$  stays at  $V$  as long as  $v_i > V_R$ . When  $v_i$  drops below  $V_R$ , the comparator output switches to  $-V$ .

Sometimes the inverting or the noninverting input terminal is grounded. The comparator then acts as a zero-crossing detector. If the inverting input is grounded, the output voltage  $v_o$  switches to the maximum positive voltage  $V$  when the voltage  $v_i$  to the noninverting input is slightly positive. When  $v_i$  is slightly negative,  $v_o$  switches to  $-V$ . If the noninverting input is grounded, the reverse action takes place.

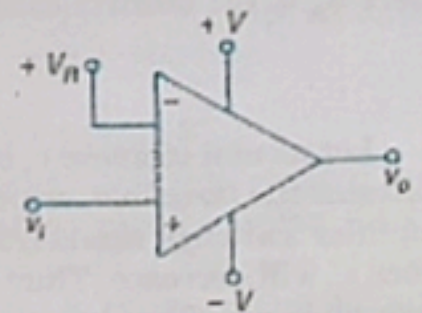


Fig. 14.21 (i) An OP AMP comparator.

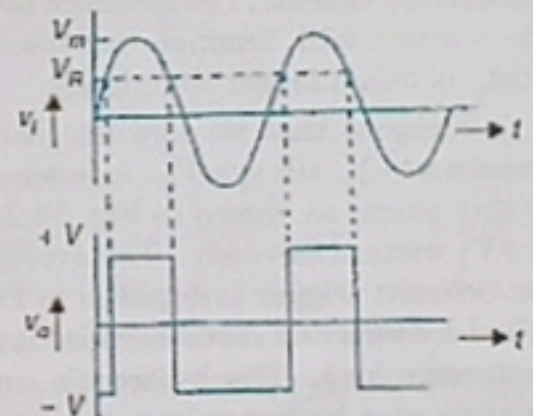


Fig. 14.21 (ii) Input and output voltages of the comparator.



## 14.8 THE SCHMITT TRIGGER

With a positive or *regenerative* feedback, an OP AMP circuit can be constructed to switch from one voltage level to another, showing the phenomenon of *hysteresis* or *backlash*. Such a circuit is called a *regenerative comparator*, or more commonly, a *Schmitt trigger* after the original developer of the circuit using vacuum tubes.

An OP AMP Schmitt trigger is shown in Fig. 14.21A. The input voltage  $v_i$  is applied to the inverting terminal, whereas the feedback voltage  $v_f$  is applied to the noninverting terminal. From the superposition theorem we get

$$v_f = \frac{v_o R_1}{R_1 + R_2} + \frac{V_R R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

If  $v_i$  is small or negative such that  $v_i \ll v_f$ , then the amplifier will saturate giving  $v_o = V_A$ , where  $V_A$  is the positive saturation voltage. So,

$$v_f = \frac{V_A R_1}{R_1 + R_2} + \frac{V_R R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = V_1 \text{ (say).}$$

Let us now increase  $v_i$  in the positive direction. Then  $v_o$  will remain unchanged at  $V_A$  till  $v_i$  attains the *threshold*, *critical*, or *trigger voltage*  $V_1$ . At this trigger voltage, the output of the amplifier switches regeneratively to  $v_o = -V_A$ . This is because as  $v_i$  just exceeds  $V_1$ ,  $v_o$  and hence  $v_f$  will decrease. Thus  $(v_i - v_f)$  increases to decrease  $v_o$  further. This cumulative action takes place rapidly to bring  $v_o$  immediately to  $-V_A$ . The output voltage  $v_o$  is held at  $-V_A$  so long as  $v_i > V_1$ . Figure 14.21B(a) shows this transfer characteristic.

For  $v_i > V_1$ , we have

$$v_f = \frac{V_R R_2}{R_1 + R_2} - \frac{V_A R_1}{R_1 + R_2} = V_2 \text{ (say).}$$

The switching action occurs only if the amplification is sufficiently large so that small changes in  $v_f$  are amplified to the desired extent. The feedback factor here is  $\beta = R_1/(R_1 + R_2)$ . The circuit will function satisfactorily provided the loop gain  $-\beta A_V$  is much larger than unity.

Suppose that we now decrease  $v_i$ . Then the output will remain at  $-V_A$  till  $v_i = V_2$ . A regenerative transition will occur at this point, as shown in Fig. 14.21B(b) so that  $v_o$  will switch to  $+V_A$  instantaneously. The overall transfer characteristic of the Schmitt trigger is depicted in Fig. 14.21B(c). This curve is called a *hysteresis curve* because it has the form of a magnetic hysteresis loop. The hysteresis curve shows that the circuit triggers at a higher voltage for increasing input signals than for decreasing input signals.

The width of the hysteresis loop is given by

$$V_H = V_1 - V_2 = \frac{2R_1 V_A}{R_1 + R_2}$$

In order to reduce  $V_H$ , we have to make  $R_1/(R_1 + R_2)$  small. But it cannot be reduced greatly, for otherwise the loop gain  $-\beta A_V$  becomes small.

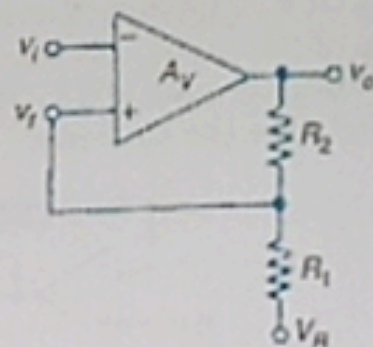


Fig. 14.21A An OP AMP Schmitt trigger.

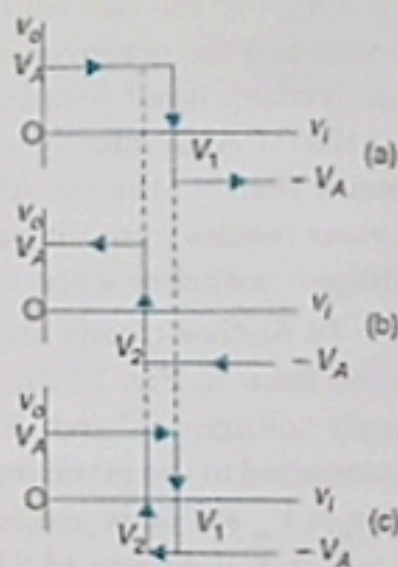


Fig. 14.21B Transfer characteristic of the Schmitt trigger for (a) increasing  $v_i$  and (b) decreasing  $v_i$ . (c) The overall input-output curve exhibiting hysteresis.



Suppose we have to design a Schmitt trigger for which  $V_R = 3\text{ V}$ , and  $V_H = 0.03\text{ V}$ , using an OP AMP for which  $V_A = 5\text{ V}$  and  $A_V = -20000$ . Then

$$V_H = 0.03 = \frac{2R_1 V_A}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{10R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

or, 
$$\frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} = 0.003.$$

The loop gain is  $-\frac{A_V R_1}{R_1 + R_2} = 20000 \times 3 \times 10^{-3} = 60$ . This is much larger than 1, and is therefore acceptable. Let us choose  $R_1 = 100\ \Omega$ . Solving for  $R_2$  gives  $R_2 = 33.23\text{ k}\Omega$ . We can use the commonly available resistance of  $33\text{ k}\Omega$  for  $R_2$ . For these parameter values, the high-level trigger voltage is  $V_1 = 3.006\text{ V}$  and the low-level trigger voltage is  $V_2 = 2.976\text{ V}$ . Note that these trigger voltages are primarily determined by the reference voltage  $V_R$ .

An important application of the Schmitt trigger is to transform a slowly varying input voltage into a square wave voltage at the output. Consider the input signal  $v_i$  of Fig. 14.21C, plotted against time  $t$ . This signal is arbitrary but extends beyond  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ . The output voltage  $v_o$  swings abruptly to  $-V_A$  when the input voltage  $v_i$  exceeds  $V_1$  and to  $+V_A$  when  $v_i$  drops below  $V_2$ . The output voltage is thus a square wave of peak values  $+V_A$  and  $-V_A$  independent of the amplitude of the input voltage.

The Schmitt trigger is a comparator because the circuit compares an input voltage with the trigger levels  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  for the output voltage to swing between  $-V_A$  and  $+V_A$ . It is a regenerative comparator because it employs positive or regenerative feedback.

#### Observation

When a practical OP AMP is connected as an amplifier with a closed loop gain, say,  $A_c$  and an input dc voltage of 1 volt is applied, the output voltage is expected to be  $A_c$  volt. In practice, the output voltage does not at once attain the final value of  $A_c$  volt, but takes some time to reach it owing to the inherent internal time constants of the OP AMP. The time rate of change of the closed-loop amplifier output voltage is called the *slew rate* of the OP AMP. It is a figure of merit, measured in volt per microsecond. A typical value of the slew rate for a monolithic OP AMP is  $1\text{ V}/\mu\text{s}$ . For a faithful reproduction of the input signal, the output must change at a rate less than the slew rate. For an ideal OP AMP, the slew rate is infinitely large.

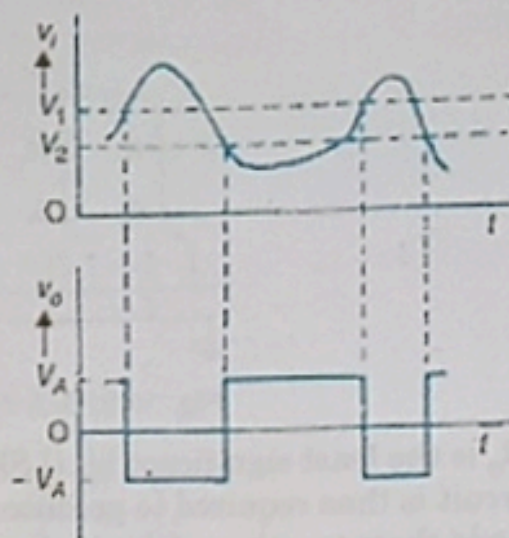


Fig. 14.21C Generation of square waves by the Schmitt trigger from an arbitrary input voltage waveform