

## **Chapter 5: Operational Amplifiers**

1

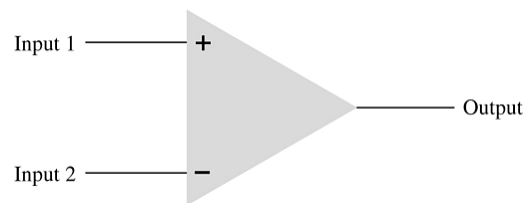
### **5.0 The Operational Amplifiers**

- ☐ Usually Called Op-Amps.
- ☐ An amplifier is a device that accepts a varying input signal and produces a similar output signal with a larger amplitude.
- ☐ Usually connected so part of the output is fed back to the input (Feedback Loop).
- ☐ Most Op-Amps behave like voltage.
- ☐ They are the basic components used to build analog circuits.
- ☐ The name “operational amplifier” comes from the fact that they were originally used to perform mathematical operations such as integration and differentiation.

2

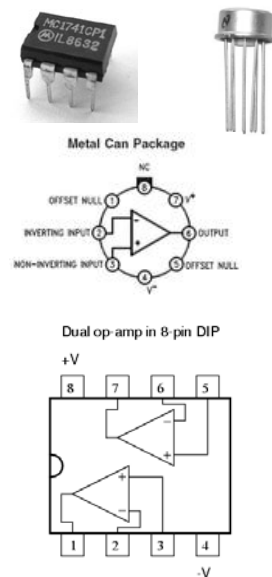
## The Operational Amplifiers (continue...)

- Integrated circuit fabrication techniques have made high-performance operational amplifiers very inexpensive in comparison to older discrete devices.
- Op-Amp is a very high gain differential amplifier with a high input impedance (typically a few mega-Ohms) and low output impedance (less than 100 Ohms).
- Note the op-amp has two inputs and one output.

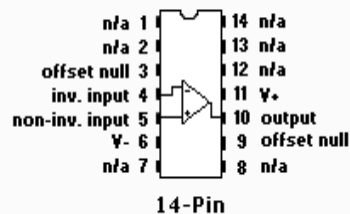
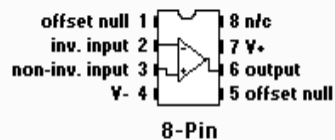


3

## 5.1 Typical Op-Amps



### Two Most Common 741 Types

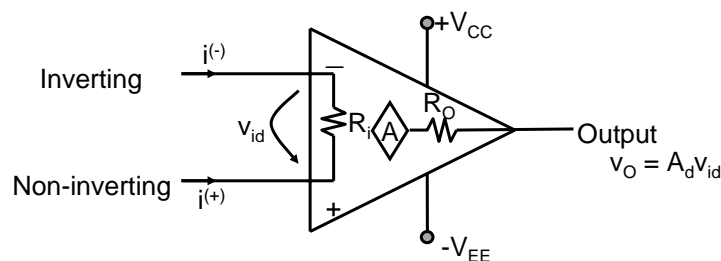


4

## 5.2 The Op-Amp Gain

- Op-Amps have a very high gain.
- They can be connected open-loop or closed-loop.
  - **Open-loop** refers to a configuration where there is no feedback from output back to the input. In the open-loop configuration the gain can exceed 10,000.
  - **Closed-loop** configuration reduces the gain. In order to control the gain of an op-amp it must have feedback. This feedback is a negative feedback. A negative feedback reduces the gain and improves many characteristics of the op-amp.

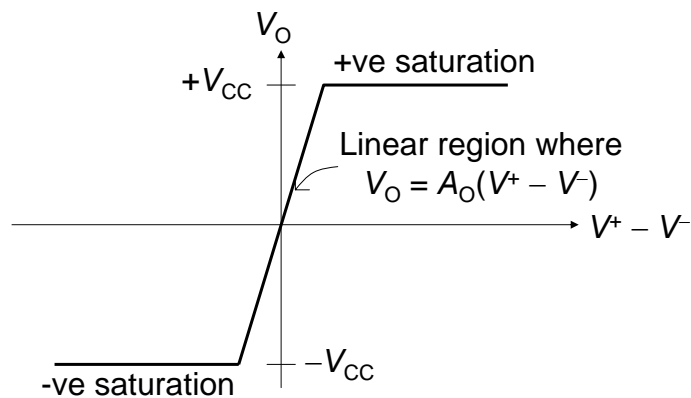
5



- $i^{(+)}$ ,  $i^{(-)}$  : Currents into the amplifier on the inverting and non-inverting lines respectively.
- $v_{id}$  : The input voltage from inverting to non-inverting inputs.
- $+V_{CC}$ ,  $-V_{EE}$  : DC source voltages, usually +15V and -15V.
- $R_i$  : The input impedance. Ideally infinity.
- $A$  : The gain of the amplifier. Ideally infinity.
- $R_o$  : The output impedance. Ideally zero.
- $v_O$  : The output voltage,  $v_O = A_{OL} v_{id}$  where  $A_{OL}$  is the open-loop voltage gain.

6

### 5.3 The Op-Amp Transfer Curve



7

### 5.4 Ideal Op-Amp Characteristics

- ☐ High open-loop gain, ( $A_{OL} = \infty$ ).
- ☐ High input impedance, ( $R_i = \infty$ ).
- ☐ Low output impedance, ( $R_o = 0$ ).
- ☐ Output saturation voltage,  $\pm V_{o(sat)}$  is equal to input supply voltage,  $\pm V_{CC}$ .
- ☐ High CMRR ( $\infty$ ).
- ☐ High bandwidth, ( $BW = \infty$ ).

8

## 5.5 Op-Amp Specifications

### —DC Offset Parameters

Even when the input voltage is zero, there will be an output called **offset**. The following can cause this offset:

- Input offset voltage
- Output offset voltage due to input offset current
- Total offset voltage due to input offset voltage and input offset current
- Input bias current

9

### Input Offset Voltage ( $V_{IO}$ )

The specification sheet for an op-amp indicate an input offset voltage ( $V_{IO}$ ).

The effect of this input offset voltage on the output can be calculated with:

$$V_{o(offset)} = V_{IO} \times \frac{R_f + R_i}{R_i}$$

10

## Output Offset Voltage Due to Input Offset Current ( $I_{IO}$ )

If there is a difference between the dc bias currents for the same applied input, then this also causes an output offset voltage:

- The input offset Current ( $I_{IO}$ ) is specified in the specifications for the op-amp.
- The effect on the output can be calculated with

$$V_{o(\text{offset due to } I_{IO})} = I_{IO} R_f$$

11

## Total Offset Due to $V_{IO}$ and $I_{IO}$

Op-amps may have an output offset voltage due to both factors  $V_{IO}$  and  $I_{IO}$ . The total output offset voltage will be the sum of the effects of both:

$$V_{O(\text{offset})} = V_{O(\text{offset due to } V_{IO})} + V_{O(\text{offset due to } I_{IO})}$$

12

## Input Bias Current ( $I_{IB}$ )

A parameter that is related to input offset current ( $I_{IO}$ ) is called **input bias current** ( $I_{IB}$ )

The separate input bias currents are:

$$I_{IB}^- = I_{IB} - \frac{I_{IO}}{2} \quad I_{IB}^+ = I_{IB} + \frac{I_{IO}}{2}$$

The total input bias current is the average:

$$I_{IB} = \frac{I_{IB}^- + I_{IB}^+}{2}$$

13

## Op-Amp Specifications —Frequency Parameters

An op-amp is a wide-bandwidth amplifier. The following affect the bandwidth of the op-amp:

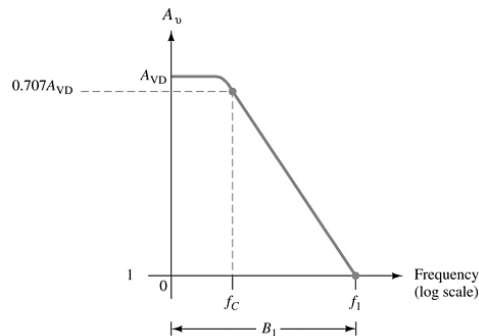
- Gain
- Slew rate

14

## Gain and Bandwidth

The op-amp's high frequency response is limited by internal circuitry. The plot shown is for an open loop gain ( $A_{OL}$  or  $A_{VD}$ ). This means that the op-amp is operating at the highest possible gain with no feedback resistor.

In the open loop, the op-amp has a narrow bandwidth. The bandwidth widens in closed-loop operation, but the gain is lower.



15

## Slew Rate (SR)

Is the maximum rate at which an op-amp can change output without distortion.

OR

A limitation of the maximum possible rate of change of the output of an op-amp.

Slew Rate is independent of the closed-loop gain of the op-amp.

$$SR = \frac{\Delta V_o}{\Delta t} \quad V/\mu s$$

The SR rating is given in the specification sheets as  $V/\mu s$  rating.

16



**Example:**

An op-amp has  $SR = 2V/\mu s$ . Determine  $A_{CL}$  if  $v_i$  changes by  $0.5V/10\mu s$ ?

$$V_o = A_{CL} V_i$$

$$\frac{\Delta V_o}{\Delta t} = A_{CL} \frac{\Delta V_i}{\Delta t}$$

$$\therefore A_{CL} = \frac{\Delta V_o / \Delta t}{\Delta V_i / \Delta t} = \frac{SR}{\Delta V_i / \Delta t} = \frac{2V/\mu s}{0.5V/10\mu s} = 40$$

This means that for  $A_{CL}$  greater than 40 will cause a distortion at the output.

17

**Maximum Signal Frequency**

The slew rate determines the highest frequency of the op-amp without distortion.

$$f \leq \frac{SR}{2\pi V_p}$$

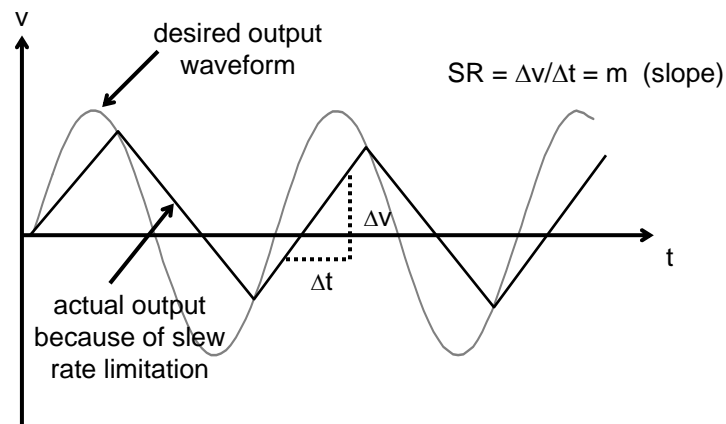
where  $V_p$  is the peak voltage

**Example:**

An op-amp has  $SR = 0.5V/\mu s$  and a supply voltage  $\pm 15V$ . What is the maximum frequency before distortion occur?

$$f \leq \frac{SR}{2\pi V_p} \leq \frac{0.5V/\mu s}{2\pi(15)} = 5.3\text{kHz}$$

18



The picture above shows exactly what happens when the slew rate limitations are not met and the output of the operational amplifier is distorted.

19

## Absolute Ratings

These are commonly the maximum ratings for the op-amp.

Absolute Maximum Ratings	
Supply voltage	6 22 V
Internal power dissipation	500 mW
Differential input voltage	6 30 V
Input voltage	6 15 V

20

## Electrical Characteristics

TABLE 13.2 mA741 Electrical Characteristics:  $V_{CC} = \pm 15\text{ V}$ ,  $T_A = 25^\circ\text{C}$ 

Characteristic	MIN	TYP	MAX	Unit
$V_{IO}$ Input offset voltage		1	6	mV
$I_{IO}$ Input offset current		20	200	nA
$I_{IB}$ Input bias current		80	500	nA
$V_{ICR}$ Common-mode input voltage range	$\pm 12$	$\pm 13$		V
$V_{OM}$ Maximum peak output voltage swing	$\pm 12$	$\pm 14$		V
$A_{VD}$ Large-signal differential voltage amplification	20	200		V/mV
$r_i$ Input resistance	0.3	2		M $\Omega$
$r_o$ Output resistance		75		$\Omega$
$C_i$ Input capacitance		1.4		pF
CMRR Common-mode rejection ratio	70	90		dB
$I_{CC}$ Supply current		1.7	2.8	mA
$P_D$ Total power dissipation		50	85	mW

Note these ratings are for specific circuit conditions, and they often include minimum, maximum and typical values.

21

## CMRR

One rating worth mentioning that is unique to op-amps is CMRR or **common-mode rejection ratio**.

Because the op-amp has two inputs that are opposite in phase (inverting input and the non-inverting input) any signal that is common to both inputs will be cancelled.

A measure of the ability to cancel out common signals is called CMRR.

22

## 5.6 Op-Amp Advantages

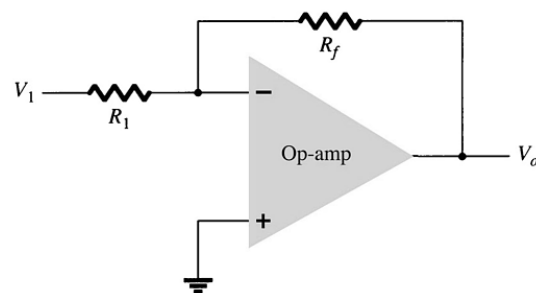
- ☐ No external element is needed for stability.
- ☐ Gain value varies with feedback to one of the inputs.
- ☐ AC signal can be amplified without biasing.
- ☐ Output nearly zero when input is zero.
- ☐ Output can be in phase or 180° out of phase with input.

23

## 5.7 Op-Amp Linear Applications

### - Inverting Amplifier

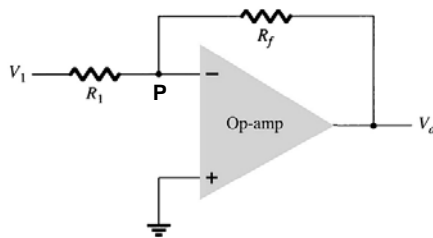
- ☐ The signal input is applied to the **inverting (–) input**.
- ☐ The **non-inverting input (+)** is grounded.
- ☐ The resistor  $R_f$  is the **feedback resistor**.
- ☐ It is connected from the output to the negative (inverting) input. This is **negative feedback**.



24

## Inverting Op-Amp Gain

- Gain can be determined from external resistors:  $R_f$  and  $R_1$ .



$$V^- = \frac{R_f}{R_1 + R_f} V_1 + \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_f} V_o$$

$$V^+ = 0$$

$$\therefore V^+ = V^- = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{R_f}{R_1 + R_f} V_s + \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_f} V_o = 0$$

$$R_f V_1 = -R_1 V_o$$

$$\therefore A_v = \frac{V_o}{V_1} = -\frac{R_f}{R_1}$$

- The negative sign denotes a  $180^\circ$  phase shift between input and output.

- **Point P** is known as virtual ground.

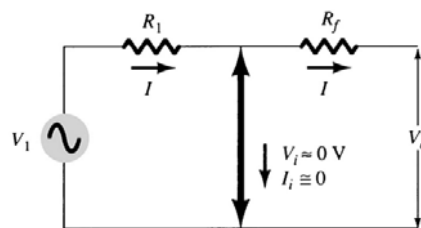
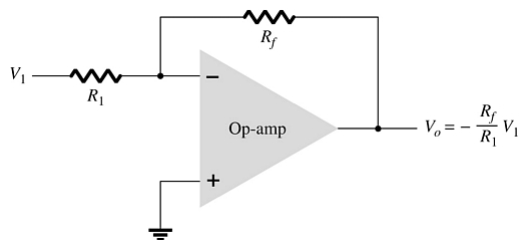
25

## 5.8 Virtual Ground And Virtual Short Circuit

An understanding of the concept of **virtual ground** provides a better understanding of how an op-amp operates.

**Virtual ground** refers to one of op-amp input terminals that is virtually connected to ground due to the other input terminal that is physically connected to ground.

The *non-inverting input* pin is at ground. The *inverting input* pin is also at 0V for an AC signal.



26

- The op-amp has such high input impedance that even with a high gain there is no current from inverting input pin, therefore there is no voltage from inverting pin to ground—all of the current is through  $R_f$ .
- **Virtual short circuit** means that whatever voltage that appears at the non-inverting input terminal will automatically appear at the inverting input terminal because of the very large open-loop gain.

27

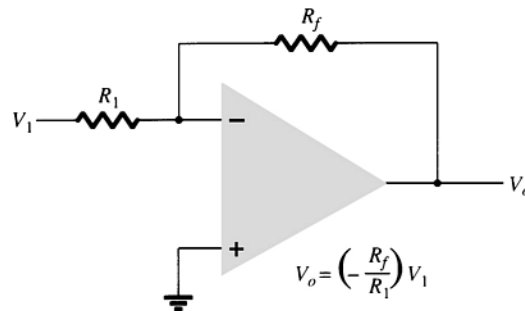
### 5.9 Practical Op-Amp Circuits

- These op-amp circuits are commonly used:
  - Inverting amplifier
  - Non-inverting amplifier
  - Unity follower
  - Summing amplifier
  - Integrator
  - Differentiator

28

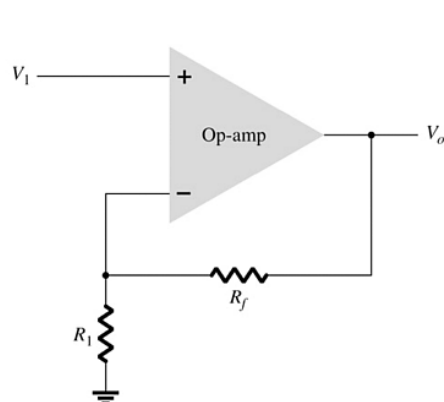
### Inverting Amplifier

- The output voltage is the gain times the input voltage.
- What makes an op-amp different from other amplifiers is its impedance characteristics and gain calculations that depend solely on external resistors.



29

### Non-Inverting Amplifier



$$V^- = \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_f} V_o$$

$$V^+ = V_1$$

$$V^- = V^+$$

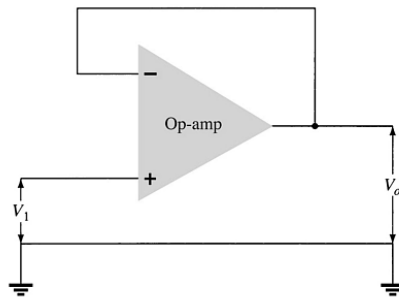
$$\frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_f} V_o = V_1$$

$$\therefore A_V = \frac{V_o}{V_1} = \frac{R_1 + R_f}{R_1} = 1 + \frac{R_f}{R_1}$$

30

## Unity Follower

- Any amplifier with no gain or loss is called a unity gain amplifier.
- The advantages of using a unity gain amplifier:
  - Very high input impedance
  - Very low output impedance



$$V^- = V_o$$

$$V^+ = V_1$$

$$\therefore V^- = V^+$$

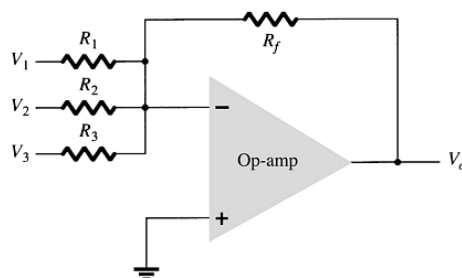
$$V_o = V_1$$

$$\therefore \frac{V_o}{V_1} = 1$$

31

## Inverting Summing Amplifier

- The output is the sum of individual signals times the gain:



$$I_1 = \frac{V_1 - V^-}{R_1} = \frac{V_1 - 0}{R_1} = \frac{V_1}{R_1}$$

$$I_2 = \frac{V_2 - V^-}{R_2} = \frac{V_2 - 0}{R_2} = \frac{V_2}{R_2}$$

$$I_3 = \frac{V_3 - V^-}{R_3} = \frac{V_3 - 0}{R_3} = \frac{V_3}{R_3}$$

$$\therefore \frac{V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_2}{R_2} + \frac{V_3}{R_3} = -\frac{V_o}{R_f}$$

$$V^- = V^+ = 0$$

$$I_1 + I_2 + I_3 = I_f$$

$$I_f = \frac{V^- - V_o}{R_f} = \frac{0 - V_o}{R_f}$$

$$\therefore V_o = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_1}V_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2}V_2 + \frac{R_f}{R_3}V_3\right)$$

32



If  $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_f$

$$V_O = -(V_1 + V_2 + V_3)$$

For N numbers of input:

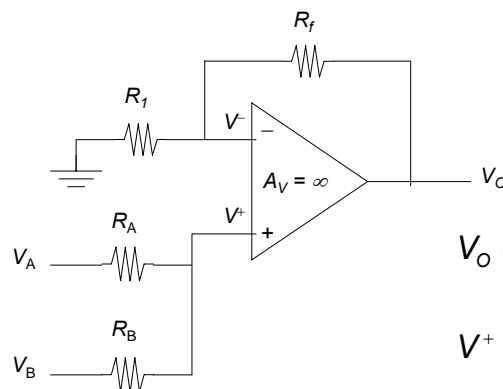
$$V_O = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_1}V_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2}V_2 + \frac{R_f}{R_3}V_3 + \dots + \frac{R_f}{R_N}V_N\right)$$

And if  $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_f = \dots = R_N$

$$V_O = -(V_1 + V_2 + V_3 + \dots + V_N)$$

33

### Non-Inverting Summing Amplifier



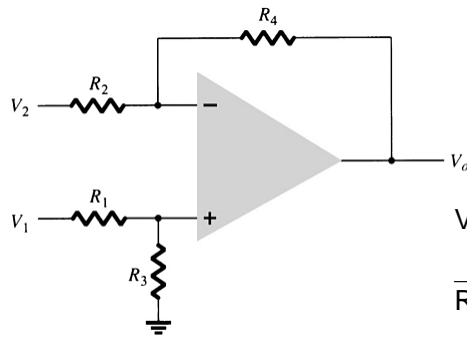
$$V_O = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_1}\right) V^+$$

$$V^+ = \frac{R_B}{R_B + R_A} V_A + \frac{R_A}{R_A + R_B} V_B$$

$$V_O = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_1}\right) \left[ \frac{R_B}{R_B + R_A} V_A + \frac{R_A}{R_A + R_B} V_B \right]$$

34

## Subtracting Amplifier



$$V^- = \frac{R_2}{R_2 + R_4} V_O + \frac{R_4}{R_2 + R_4} V_2$$

$$V^+ = \frac{R_3}{R_1 + R_3} V_1$$

$$V^- = V^+$$

$$\frac{R_2}{R_2 + R_4} V_O + \frac{R_4}{R_2 + R_4} V_2 = \frac{R_3}{R_1 + R_3} V_1$$

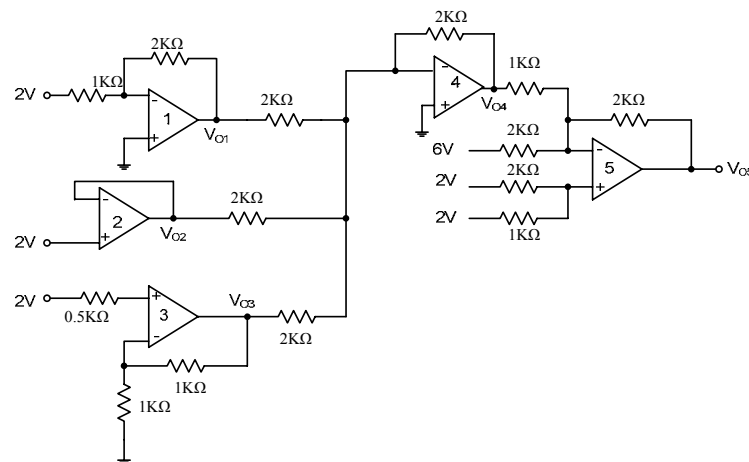
$$V_O = \left(1 + \frac{R_4}{R_2}\right) \left[ \frac{R_3}{R_1 + R_3} V_1 - \frac{R_4}{R_2 + R_4} V_2 \right]$$

If  $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_4$   
 $V_O = V_1 - V_2$

35

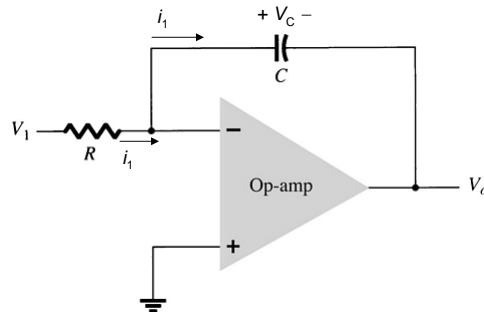
## Exercise:

- ☐ Name the function of each op-amp.
- ☐ Determine  $v_{o1}$ ,  $v_{o2}$ ,  $v_{o3}$ ,  $v_{o4}$  and  $v_{o5}$ .



36

## Integrator



$$i_1 = \frac{V_1 - V^-}{R} \equiv \frac{V_1}{R}$$

$$\frac{dV_C}{dt} = \frac{i_1}{C}$$

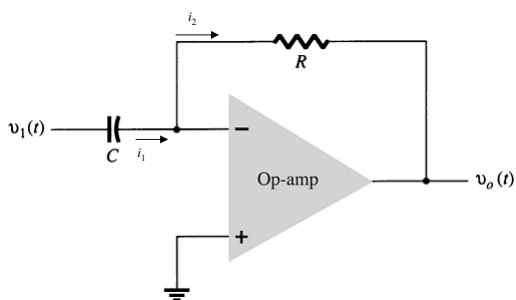
$$\frac{dV_o}{dt} = -\frac{dV_C}{dt}$$

$$\frac{dV_o}{dt} = -\frac{i_1}{C} = -\frac{V_1}{RC}$$

$$\therefore V_o(t) = -\frac{1}{CR} \int V_1 dt$$

37

## Differentiator



$$i_1 = C \frac{dV_1}{dt}$$

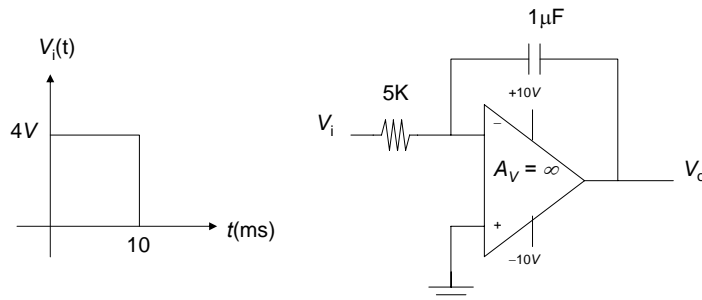
$$V_o = -i_2 R$$

$$i_1 = i_2$$

$$\therefore V_o = -i_1 R = -RC \frac{dV_1}{dt}$$

38

**Example :** Plot  $V_o(t)$  and  $V_c(t)$  versus  $t$ .



If capacitor initially uncharge,

$V_{out} = 0$  at  $t = 0$ .

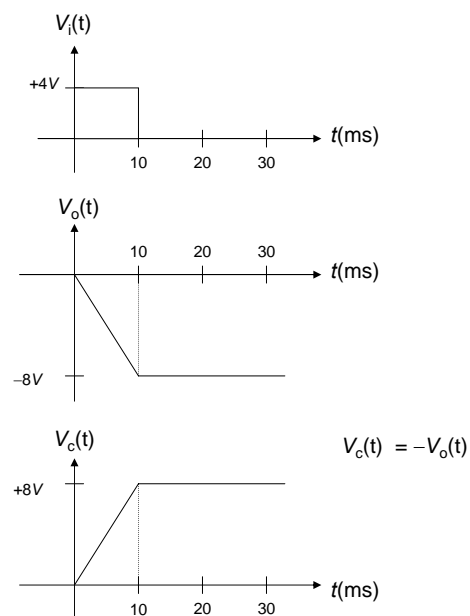
$$V_o(t) = -\frac{1}{CR} \int_0^t V_i dt$$

$$V_o(t) = -\frac{1}{(5 \times 10^3)(1 \times 10^{-6})} \int_0^t 4 dt$$

$$= -0.2(4t - 0) = -0.8t$$

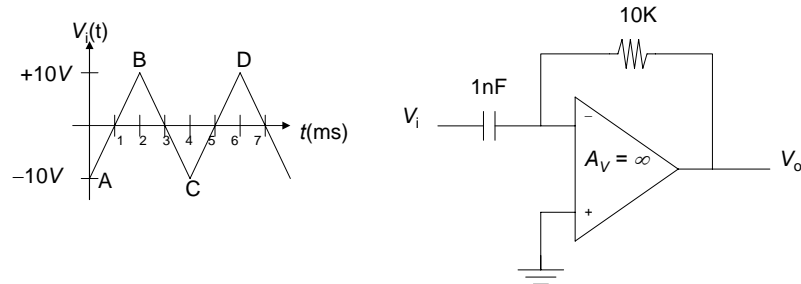
$$V_o|_{t=10ms} = (-0.8)(10) = -8V$$

39



40

**Example :** Determine  $V_o(t)$ .



From A - B

$$\frac{dV_i}{dt} = \frac{10 - (-10)}{2\text{ms}} = 10^4 \text{ V/s}$$

$$V_o = -RC \frac{dV_i}{dt}$$

$$= -(10^4)(0.001\mu\text{F})(10^4 \text{ V/s}) = -0.1\text{V}$$

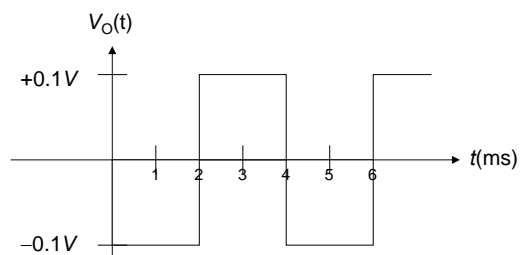
41

From B - C

$$\frac{dV_i}{dt} = \frac{(-10) - 10}{2\text{ms}} = -10^4 \text{ V/s}$$

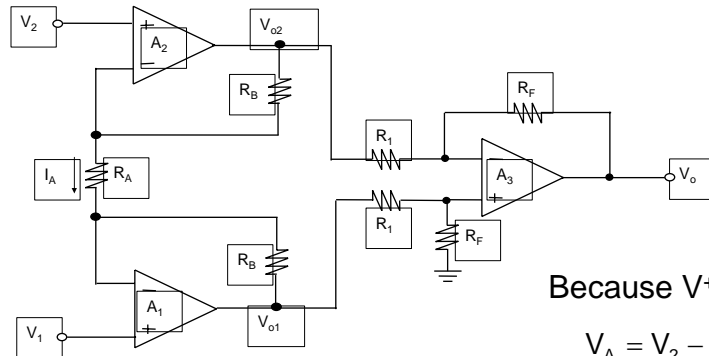
$$V_o = -RC \frac{dV_i}{dt}$$

$$= -(10^4)(0.001\mu\text{F})(-10^4 \text{ V/s}) = +0.1\text{V}$$



42

## Instrumentation Amplifier



Because  $V^+ = V^-$ ,

$$V_A = V_2 - V_1$$

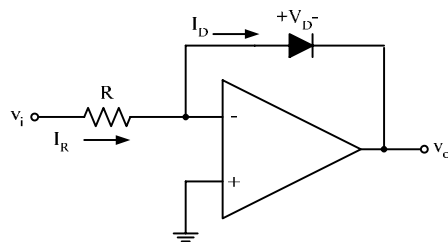
$$I_A = \frac{V_A}{R_A} = \frac{V_2 - V_1}{R_A}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{02} - V_{01} &= I_A (R_B + R_A + R_B) \\ &= \frac{V_2 - V_1}{R_A} (R_A + 2R_B) \end{aligned}$$

$$V_o = \frac{R_F}{R_1} \left( 1 + \frac{2R_B}{R_A} \right) (V_1 - V_2)$$

43

## Log Amplifier



$$I_D = I_S (e^{\frac{V_D}{V_T}} - 1)$$

$$\approx I_S e^{\frac{V_D}{V_T}}$$

$$I_R = \frac{V_i}{R}, V_o = -V_D$$

$$I_R = I_D$$

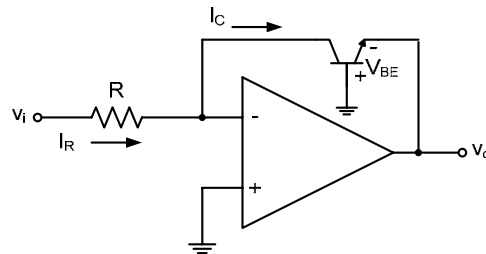
$$\frac{V_i}{R} = I_S e^{\frac{-V_D}{V_T}}$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{V_i}{I_S R}\right) = -\frac{V_o}{V_T}$$

$$V_o = -V_T \ln\left(\frac{V_i}{I_S R}\right)$$

44

$I_S$  is a function of temperature and its value defer between diodes. In order to overcome this problem, replace the diode with a transistor.



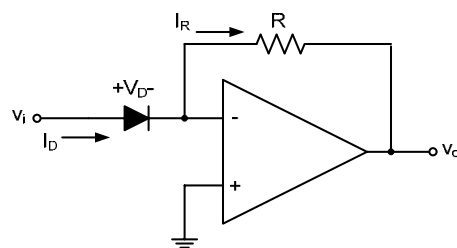
$$I_C = I_0 \left( e^{\frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}} - 1 \right)$$

$$V_{BE} = -V_O$$

$$\therefore V_O = -V_T \ln \left( \frac{V_i}{I_0 R} \right)$$

45

### Antilog Amplifier



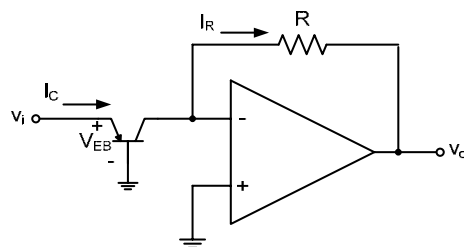
$$I_D = I_R$$

$$I_S \left( e^{\frac{V_D}{V_T}} - 1 \right) = -\frac{V_O}{R}$$

$$V_D = V_i$$

$$I_S e^{\frac{V_i}{V_T}} = -\frac{V_O}{R}$$

$$V_O = -I_S R \left( e^{\frac{V_i}{V_T}} \right)$$



$$V_i = V_{EB}$$

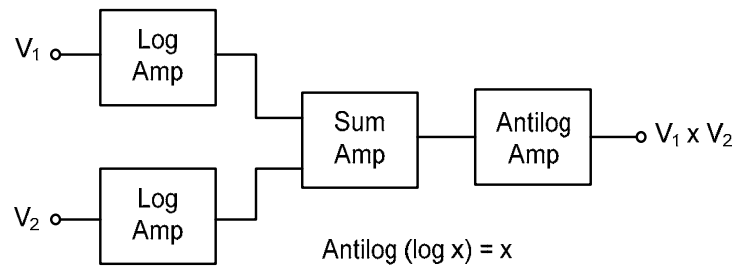
$$V_O = -I_0 R \left( e^{\frac{V_i}{V_T}} \right)$$

46

## Log And Antilog Amplifiers Application

**Example :**  $V_1 \times V_2$

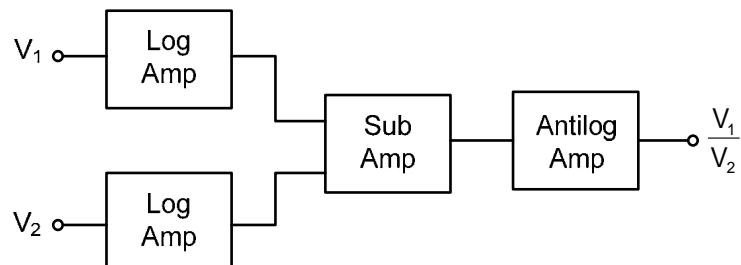
$$\text{Log}(V_1 \times V_2) = \log V_1 + \log V_2$$



47

**Example :**  $\frac{V_1}{V_2}$

$$\text{Log} \left( \frac{V_1}{V_2} \right) = \log V_1 - \log V_2$$

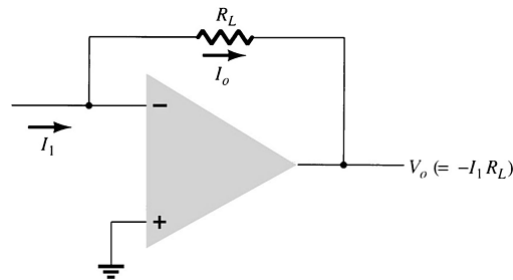


48



### Current to Voltage Converter

- This is simply another way of applying the op-amp operation.
- Whether the input is a current determined by  $V_{in}/R_1$  or as  $I_1$ :
- For example output from photodiode or photodetector.



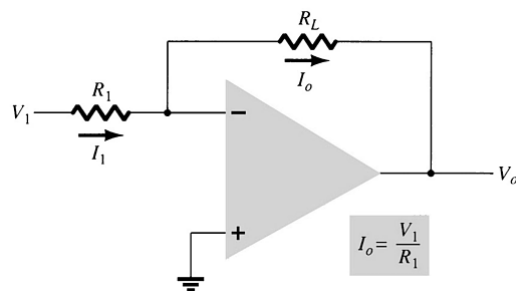
$$V_o = \frac{-R_f}{R_1}$$

or  $V_o = -I_1 R_L$

49

### Voltage to Current Converter

- This is opposite to current to voltage converter.
- For example to drive magnetic coil.



The output current is:

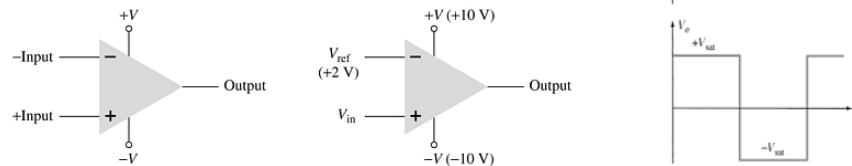
$$I_o = \frac{V_1}{R_1} = kV_1$$

50

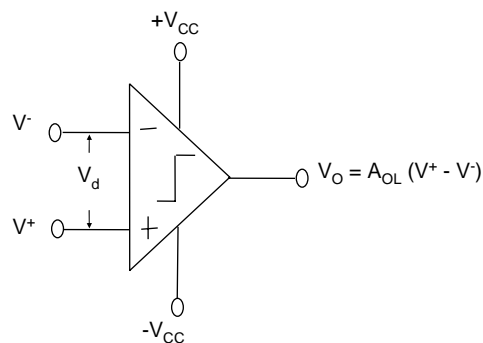
## 5.10 Op-Amp Non-Linear Applications

### - Comparator Circuit

- Comparators have two inputs and one output.
- The operation is a basic comparison.
- The output swings between its maximum and minimum voltage, depending upon whether one input ( $V_{in}$ ) is greater or less than the other ( $V_{ref}$ ).
- The output is always a square wave where:
  - The maximum high output voltage is  $+V_{SAT}$ .
  - The minimum low output voltage is  $-V_{SAT}$ .

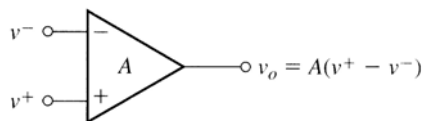


51

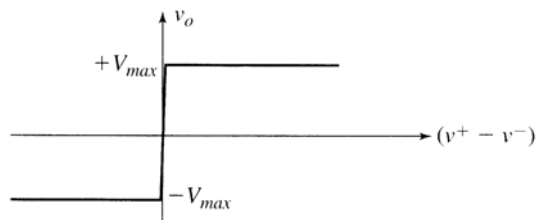


- Since  $A_O = \infty$ ,  $V_O$  will become maximum i.e either at  $+V_{Osat}$  or  $-V_{Osat}$ .
- If input  $V^+ > V^-$ , then  $V_O = +V_{Osat}$ .
- If input  $V^- > V^+$ , then  $V_O = -V_{Osat}$ .

52



(a) Open-loop operation as a voltage comparator

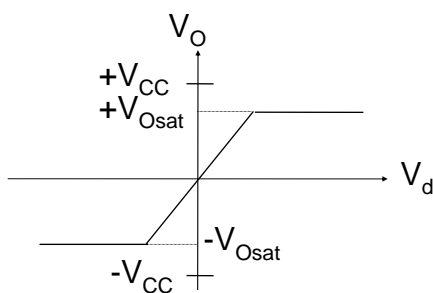


(b) Transfer characteristic of the voltage comparator.

When  $v^+ > v^-$ , the output is at its maximum positive limit, and when  $v^+ < v^-$ , the output switches to its maximum negative limit.

- Since  $A_O = \infty$ ,  $V_O$  will become maximum i.e either at  $+V_{Osat}$  or  $-V_{Osat}$ .
- If input  $V^+ > V^-$ , then  $V_O = +V_{Osat}$ .
- If input  $V^- > V^+$ , then  $V_O = -V_{Osat}$ .

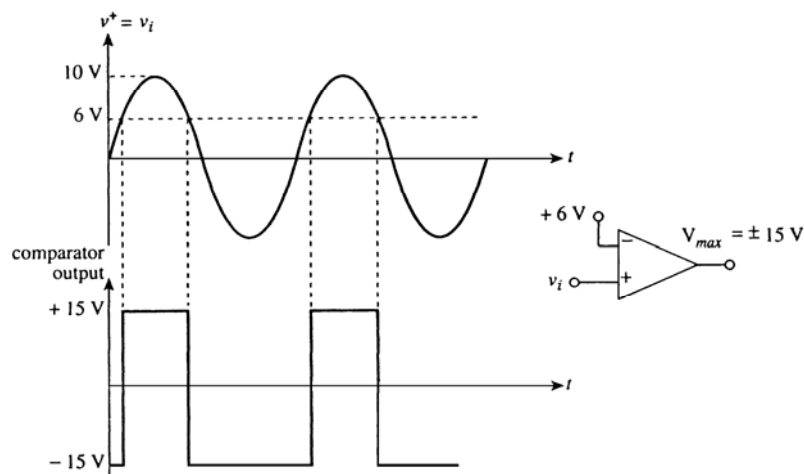
53



Practical Transfer Characteristics

- For ideal Op-Amp,  $\pm V_{Osat} = \pm V_{CC}$ .
- But in practice  $\pm V_{Osat}$  usually 1 or 2 volt less than  $\pm V_{CC}$ .
- Only one input reference will be connected to either inputs of op-amp while the other will be the required voltage that need to compare.

54



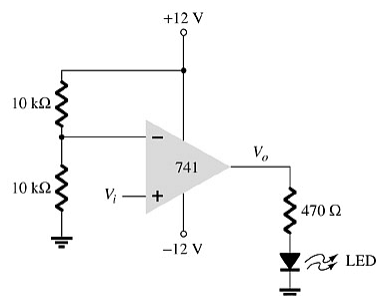
The comparator output switches to  $+V_{osat} = +V_{max}$  when  $v^+ - v^- > 0 \text{ V}$ , which corresponds to the time points where  $v^+$  rises through +6 V. The output remains high as long as  $v^+ - v^- > 0$ , or  $v^+ > 6 \text{ V}$ .

55

## Non-Inverting Op-Amp Comparator

For a non-inverting op-amp comparator:

- The output goes to  $+V_{SAT}$  when input  $V_i$  is greater than the reference voltage.
- The output goes to  $-V_{SAT}$  when input  $V_i$  is less than the reference voltage.



### Example:

- $V_{ref}$  in this circuit is +6V (taken from the voltage divider)
- $+V_{SAT} = +V$ , or +12V
- $-V_{SAT} = -V$  or -12V

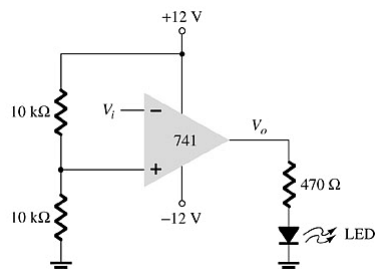
When  $V_i$  is greater than +6V the output swings to +12V and the LED goes on. When  $V_i$  is less than +6V the output is at -12V and the LED goes off.

56

## Inverting Op-Amp Comparator

For an inverting op-amp comparator:

- The output goes to  $-V_{SAT}$  when input  $V_i$  is greater than the reference voltage.
- The output goes to  $+V_{SAT}$  when input  $V_i$  is less than the reference voltage.



### Example:

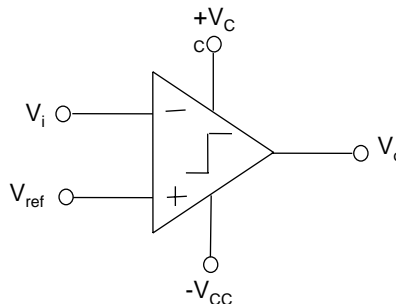
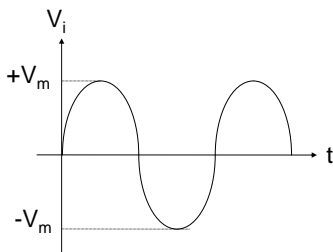
- $V_{ref}$  in this circuit is +6V (taken from the voltage divider)
- $+V_{SAT} = +V$ , or +12V
- $-V_{SAT} = -V$  or -12V

When  $V_i$  is greater than +6V the output swings to -12V and the LED goes off. When  $V_i$  is less than +6V the output is at +12V and the LED goes on.

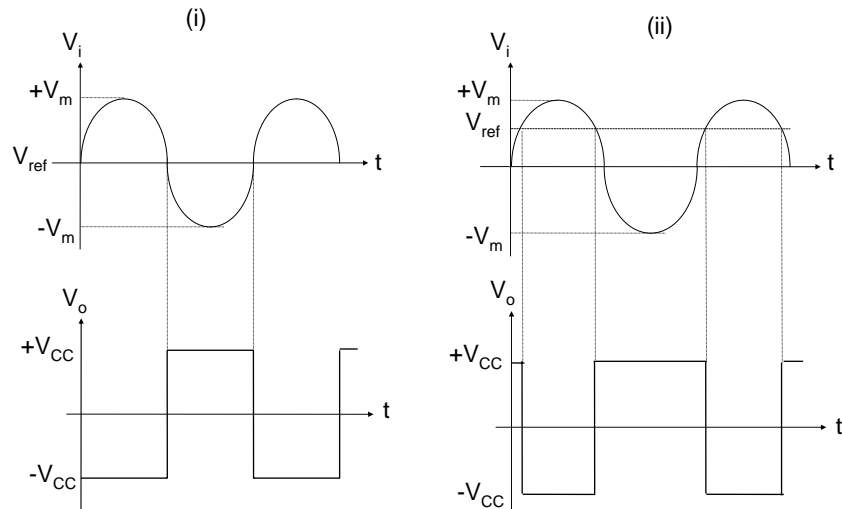
57

### Example:

- Draw the output waveform,  $v_o$  for the given sinusoidal input as shown if (i)  $V_{ref} = 0$  and (ii)  $V_{ref} = V_m/2$
- Assume  $\pm V_{Osat} = \pm V_{CC}$ .

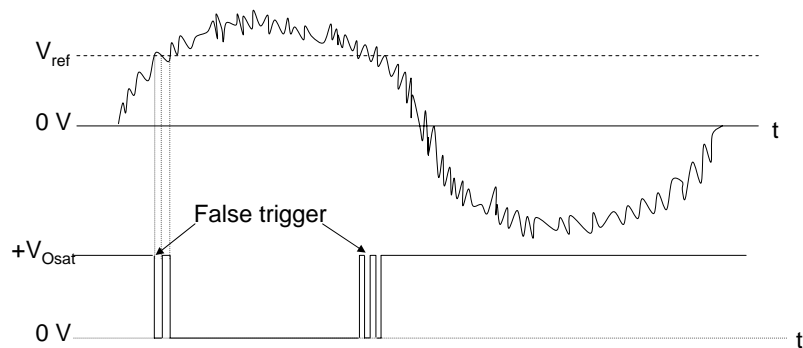


58



59

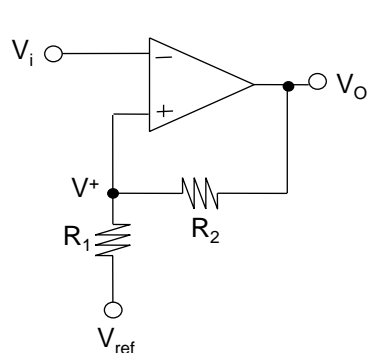
- ☐ Comparator has problem with noise.
- ☐ If input voltage,  $V_i$  is superimposed with noise, this will cause a false triggering.
- ☐ One way to overcome this is by using Schmitt Trigger.



60

## Schmitt Trigger

- Comparator with positive feedback will form a Schmitt Trigger.



$$V^+ = \frac{V_{ref} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} + \frac{V_O R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

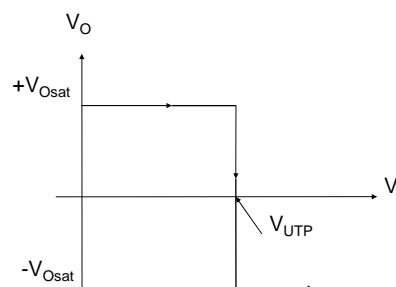
When  $V_i < V^+$ , then  $V_O = +V_{Osat}$

$$V^+ = \frac{V_{ref} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} + \frac{V_{Osat} R_1}{R_1 + R_2} = V_{UTP}$$

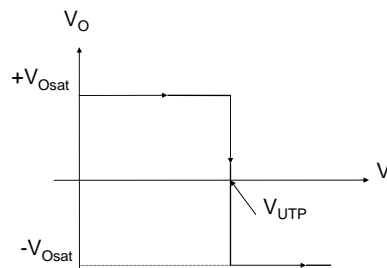
$V_{UTP}$  is known as Upper Trigger voltage

61

- If  $v_i$  increases, output voltage  $v_O = +V_{Osat}$  and stays at this value until  $v_i = V^+ = V_{UTP}$ .
- Beyond this point, if  $v_i$  keep increasing, then  $v_i$  is larger than  $V_{UTP}$ .
- $v_O$  will change to  $-V_{Osat}$ .
- This is shown in the diagram below:



62

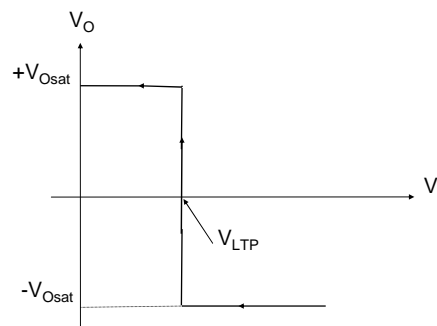


- When  $v_i > V_{UTP}$ , output  $v_O = -V_{Osat}$ , then output at  $V^+$  terminal:

$$V^+ = \frac{V_{ref} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} - \frac{V_{Osat} R_1}{R_1 + R_2} = V_{LTP}$$

- $V_{LTP}$  is known as Lower Trigger voltage

63

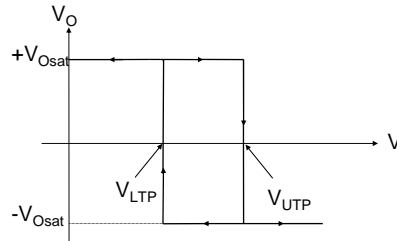


- $v_O = -V_{Osat}$  and stays as long as  $v_i > V_{LTP}$ .
- But if  $v_i$  is reduce to  $v_i = V_{LTP}$  and keep reducing until  $v_i < V_{LTP}$ , then  $v_O$  will change to  $+V_{Osat}$  and stay at that value as long as  $v_i < V_{LTP}$ .

64



- Diagram below shows the transfer characteristic for Schmitt Trigger.



- This shows that when  $v_i < V_{UTP}$  then  $v_O = +V_{Osat}$ .
- If  $v_i > V_{UTP}$ , output will change to  $v_O = -V_{Osat}$ .
- At this point, compare  $v_i$  with  $V_{LTP}$ .
- If  $v_i > V_{LTP}$  then  $v_O = -V_{Osat}$  and if  $v_i < V_{LTP}$  then  $v_O = +V_{Osat}$ .
- In this situation, there are two references i.e  $V_{UTP}$  and  $V_{LTP}$ .

65

## Hysteresis

- Is a property that means a device behaves differently when its input is increasing from the way it behaves when its input is decreasing.
- In other words, the output will switch when the input increases to one level but will not switch back until the input falls below a different level.
- It is a desirable characteristic because it prevents the comparator from switching back and forth in response to random noise fluctuations in the input.
- Quantitatively, the hysteresis voltage ( $V_H$ ) of a Schmitt trigger is defined as the difference between the input trigger levels.

$$V_H = V_{UTP} - V_{LTP}$$

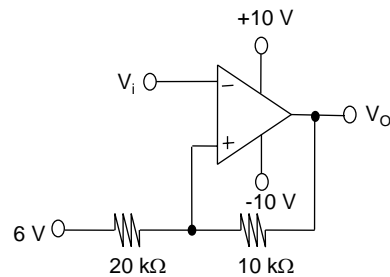
$$= \left( \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} \right) (+V_{CC}) - \left( \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} \right) (-V_{CC})$$

$$V_H = \left( \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} \right) (+V_{CC} - (-V_{CC}))$$

66

**Example:**

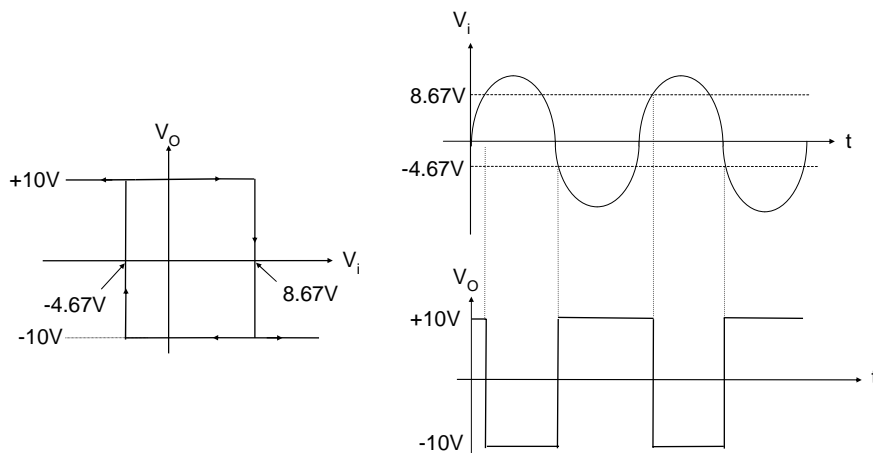
- If  $v_i = 10 \sin \omega t$  Volt, determine  $V_{UTP}$  and  $V_{LTP}$ . Sketch the output waveform and the transfer characteristic.



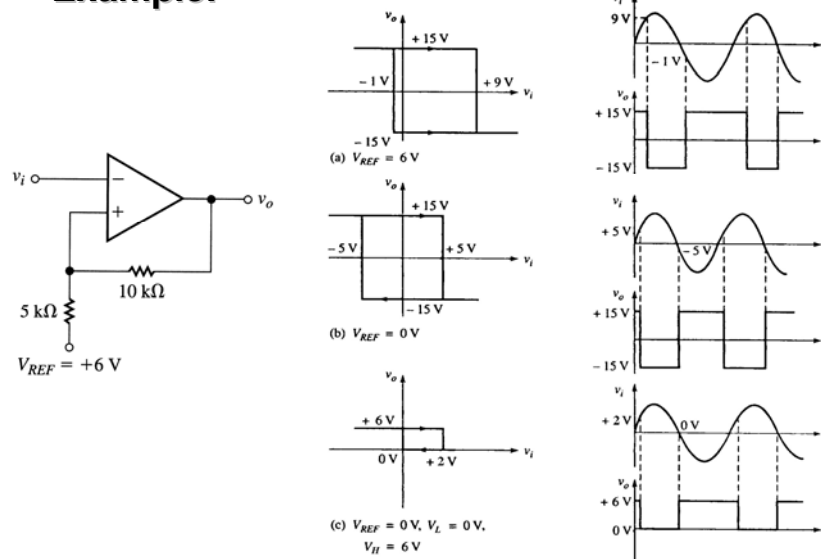
$$V_{UTP} = \frac{6(10k)}{10k + 20k} + \frac{10(20k)}{10k + 20k} = 8.67 \text{ V}$$

$$V_{LTP} = \frac{6(10k)}{10k + 20k} - \frac{10(20k)}{10k + 20k} = -4.67 \text{ V}$$

67



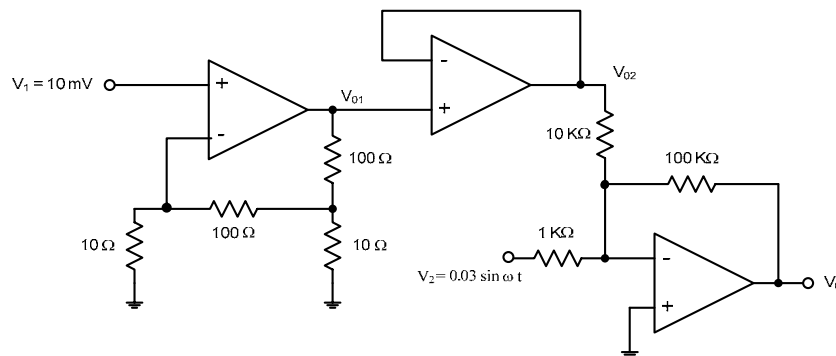
68

**Example:**

69

**Exercise:**

- Determine  $v_{o1}$  and  $v_{o2}$ .



70

**Exercise:**

- Draw the output waveform of  $v_{o1}$  and  $v_{o2}$ .

