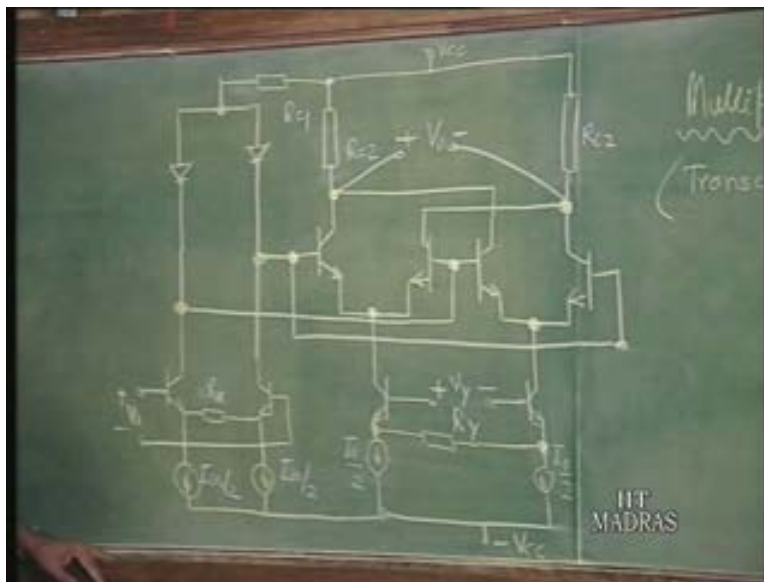


Electronics for Analog Signal Processing - II
Prof. K. Radhakrishna Rao
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Indian Institute of Technology – Madras

Lecture Number - 32
Multipliers

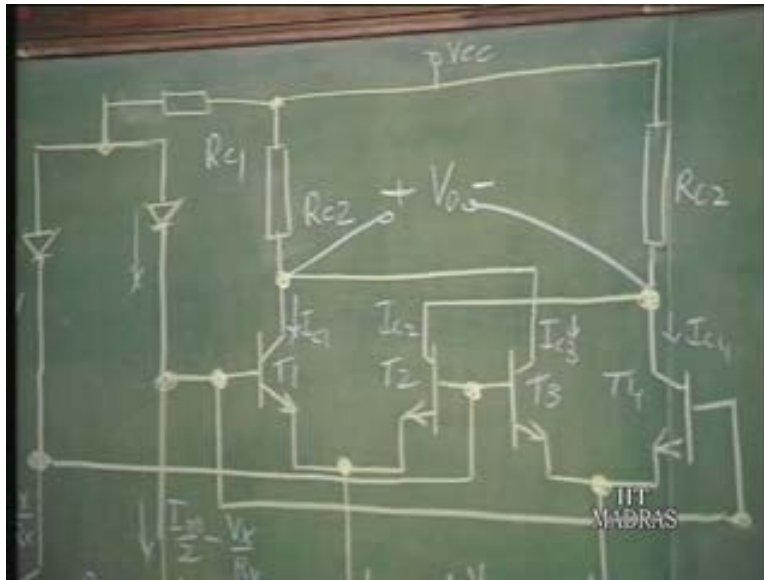
In the last class, we discussed transconductance type material using what is called translinear principle. The voltage V_x was converted into sort of linear differential current using a transconductor of this type.

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The current here was $I_{naught\ naught\ by\ 2} + V_x \text{ by } R_x$; and here, $I_{naught\ naught\ 2}$ by...minus $V_x \text{ by } R_x$. Differential current of this type was flowing here and that was the current in the diode; and we saw that the current in these transistors which we called as T_1 , T_2 , T_3 , T_4 , were respectively, let us say I_{c1} , I_{c2} , I_{c3} and I_{c4} .

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These are the currents and these currents are related to this in the following fashion that, this current into this current...because in the clockwise direction and anti-clockwise direction, the current products should be equated. This current which is I_{c2} is equal to I_{c1} plus V_x by R_x divided by...into this current, that is I_{c2} , was equal to I_{c1} minus V_x by R_x into I_{c1} .

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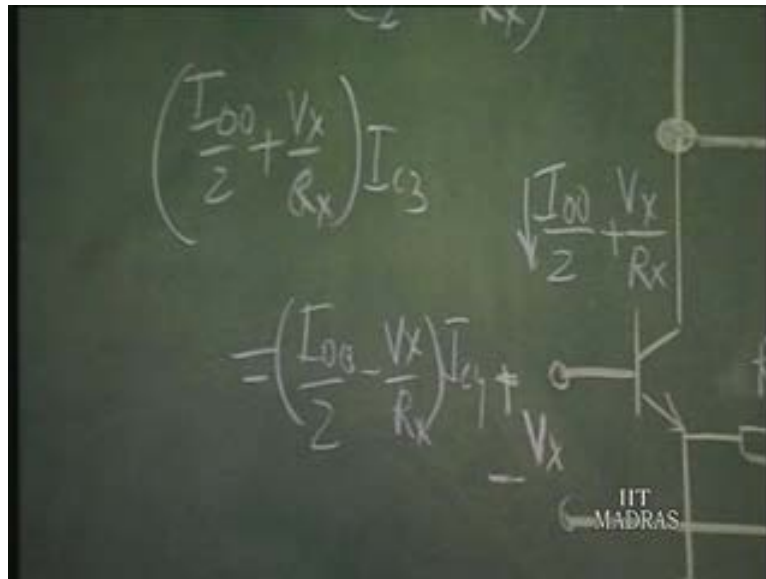
Hand-drawn equations on a chalkboard. The equations are:

$$\left(\frac{I_{00}}{2} + \frac{V_x}{R_x}\right) I_{c2} = \left(\frac{I_{00}}{2} - \frac{V_x}{R_x}\right) I_{c1}$$

The text 'IIT MADRAS' is visible at the bottom right of the diagram.

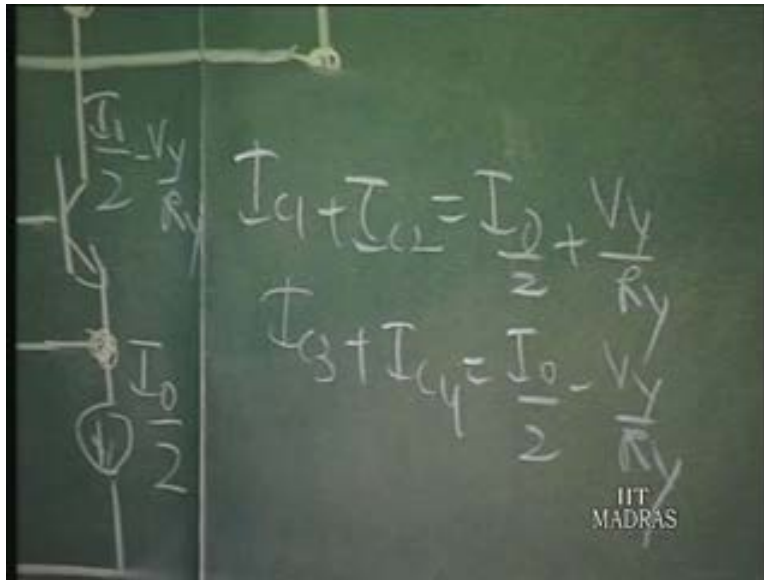
And since this...this was this voltage, these two voltages are adding. So, I_{c1} is $I_{c2} - \frac{V_x}{R_x}$; and the same voltage is also applied to another set; and therefore, what we get is that I_{c3} is $I_{c2} + \frac{V_x}{R_x}$; and then here. So...into I_{c3} equals $I_{c2} - \frac{V_x}{R_x}$.

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Using this relationship, and also the fact that $I_{c1} + I_{c2} = I_{c2} + \frac{V_y}{R_y}$. Here this is $I_{c2} + \frac{V_y}{R_y}$; and this is $I_{c2} - \frac{V_y}{R_y}$. Again, that means $I_{c3} + I_{c4}$ is equal to $I_{c2} - \frac{V_y}{R_y}$.

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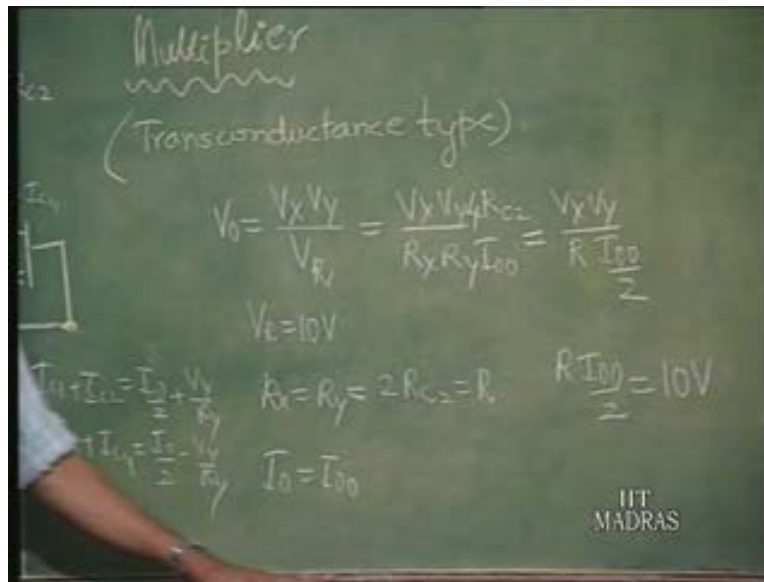


We could establish ultimately that V_{naught} , the differential output voltage taken here, is going to be product $V_x V_y$ divided by V_R . So this, we had shown in the last class. This V_R could be made equal to 10 volts by proper choice of R_x , R_y and R_{c2} and I_{naught} by 2 and I_{naught} by 2.

So, we can make V_R equal to 10 volts by proper... R_x can be made equal to R_y . R_x can be made equal to R_y and we have here...this I_{naught} can be made equal to I_{naught} , so that all these current sources can be derived out of the same current mirror principle.

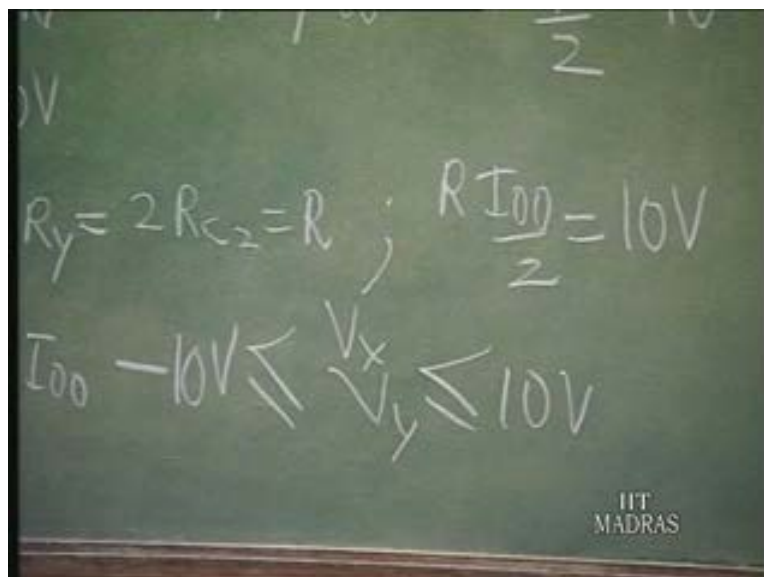
So, I_{naught} can be made equal to I_{naught} . What is the expression in terms of R_x R_y can you give me? This $V_x V_y$, $R_x R_y$, I_{naught} into R_{c2} ; 4, 4 here. So, we can select R_x equal to R_y equal to $2 R_{c2}$, equal to R . Then, what happens here is...this is equal to $V_x V_y$... R_x equal to R_y equal to $2 R_{c2}$. $1R_y$ gets cancelled with R_{c2} . So, we get $R I_{naught}$ by 2. So, this $R I_{naught}$ by 2 is made equal to 10 volts.

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Therefore this becomes equal to $V_x V_y$ by 10. Now, once we select this value, we can see here that this becomes equal to zero, under the worst condition, when V_x max becomes equal to $I_0 R_x$ or $I_0 R$; and we have already chosen $I_0 R$ or R equal to 10 volts. So, this can now take care of V_x and V_y less than or equal to 10 volts as the dynamic range greater than or equal to minus 10 volts automatically.

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So, this design will see to it that this multiplier will function linearly in the range minus 10 volts to plus 10 volts automatically, the moment we select the components in the above manner. Is this clear?

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The image shows a chalkboard with the following handwritten equations and conditions:

$$V_0 = \frac{V_x V_y}{V_R} = \frac{V_x V_y R_{C2}}{R_x R_y I_{00}} = \frac{V_x V_y}{R \frac{I_{00}}{2}} = \frac{V_x V_y}{10}$$

$$V_R = 10V$$

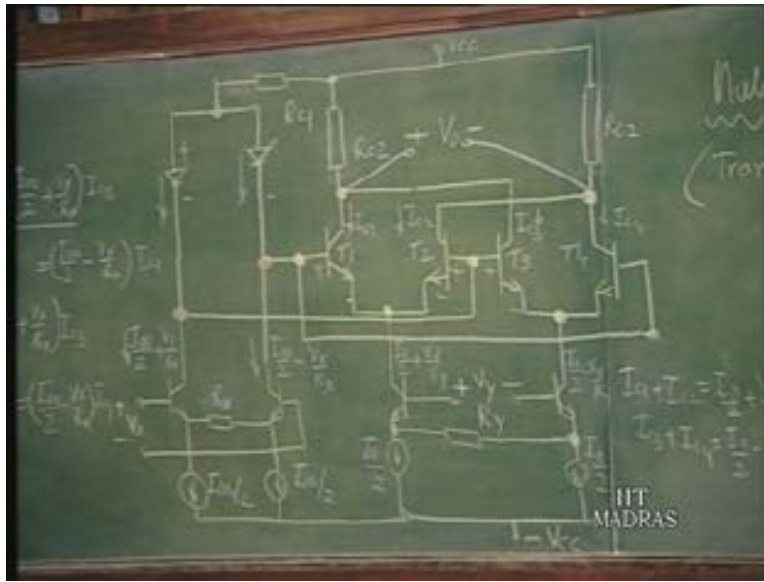
$$R_x = R_y = 2R_{C2} = R ; \quad R \frac{I_{00}}{2} = 10V$$

$$I_0 = I_{00} \quad -10V \leq V_x, V_y \leq 10V$$

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So, this multiplier therefore is useful for us within a dynamic range of minus 10 volts to plus 10 volts and V reference is 10 volts. So, it can give you at most plus minus 10 volts as the maximum output because V_x equal to 10 volts, V_y equal to 10 volts. Then, since V_R is also 10 volts, V naught maximum also is plus minus 10 volts magnitude; it is going to be maximum of 10 volts. So, this transconductance type multiplier is a precision multiplier which can be basically used up to about 1 megahertz very easily.

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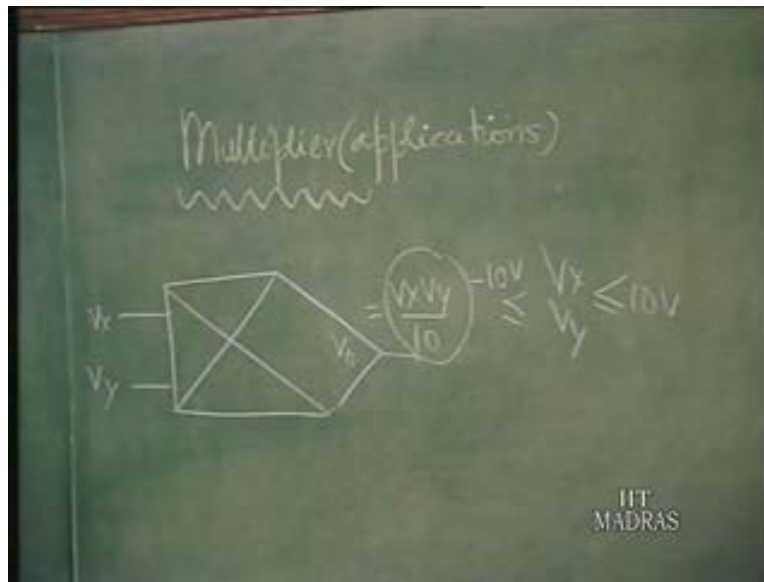


Now, this IC multiplier is readily available for use in a variety of applications. We will therefore go into application of precision multiplier and then go back to further types of multipliers at a later date.

Before we start discussing about other types of multipliers, we can digress and go to applications. It is obvious that the transconductance type multiplier is the one which is used in a very large number of communication applications and therefore it is time that we discussed some applications and then go back to discussion of other types of multipliers.

Now the multiplier, the ideal multiplier that we had designed, V_x , V_y and the output V_o ought let us say, is equal to $V_x V_y$ by 10, with a dynamic range. With all the offset and feed through being adjusted to zero, this is the ideal multiplier.

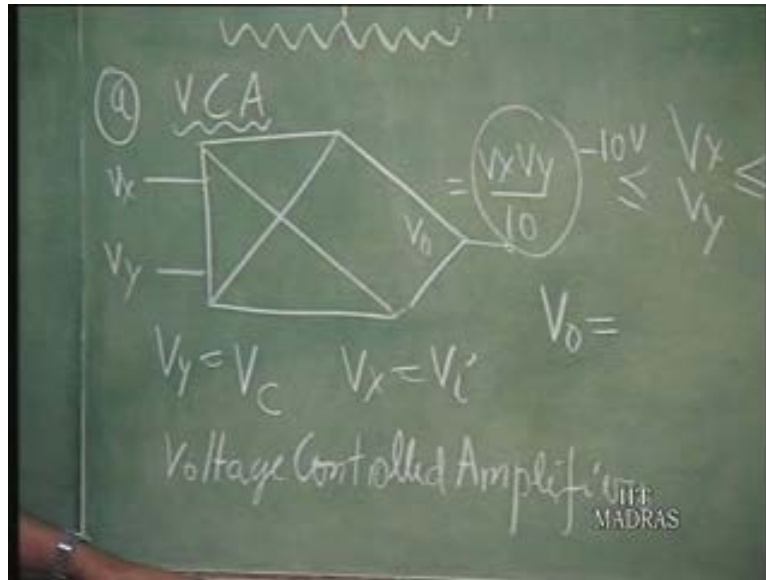
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Let us therefore discuss the applications and see where and what are the areas this is of importance. First and foremost, let us consider V_y is equal to a constant D C voltage V_c , which is called the control voltage and V_x is my regular input V_i . Then, output V_{naught} is going to be...this is the application 'a' as a voltage controlled amplifier.

Voltage controlled amplifiers find a variety of application, particularly in music synthesizers and A G C, A V C, etc. schemes; automatic gain control scheme, automatic volume control schemes, amplitude stabilization of oscillators,... In all these things, voltage controlled amplifiers are needed.

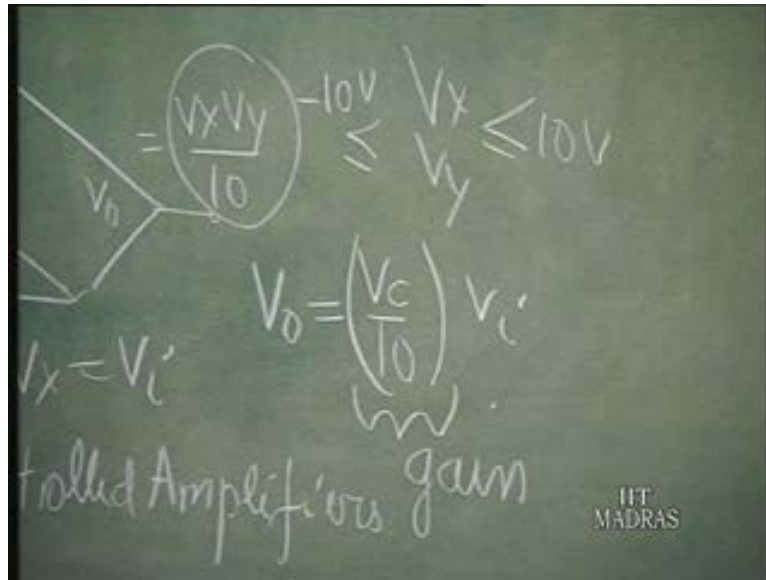
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So, V_o then equals V_c by 10 which is the gain, into V_i . This is the gain of the amplifier; gain in the sense we know that it is not really voltage gain that we are talking of; it is power gain.

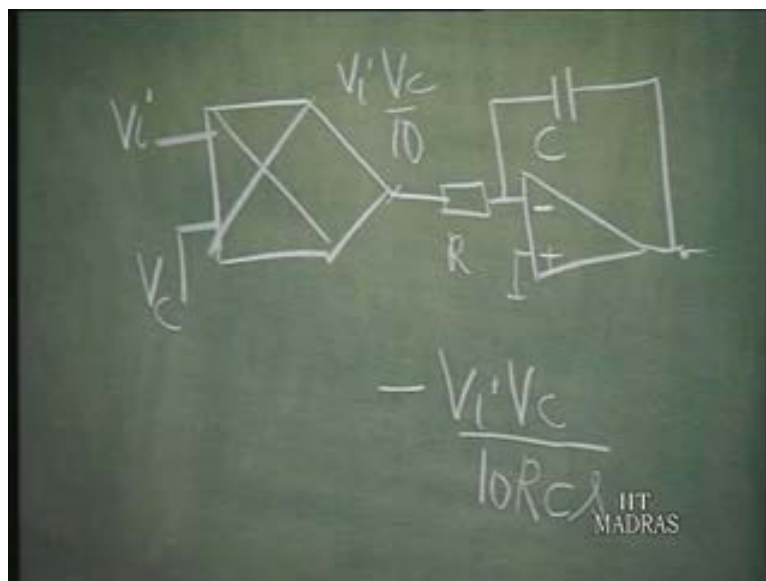
So, this still is an amplifier. V_c is always less than 10 volts. So, the gain is always less than 1, in this case of ideal multiplier, please...But, V_c can take on both positive and negative. So, it can become a non-inverting amplifier or inverting amplifier depending upon the sign of V_c . So, this is a voltage controlled amplifier which can give you an inverting type of amplifier or non-inverting type of amplifier and the gain can be varied all the way from zero to 1, linearly.

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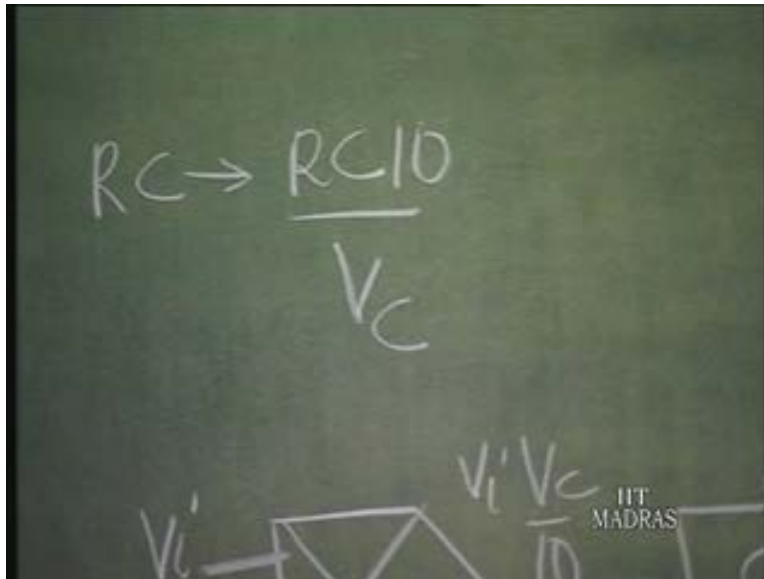
Next, there is such a voltage control amplifier is there and I use this in combination with, let us say an integrator. Let us see what happens. The normal integrator has the input here. But now, I am feeding the input through a multiplier. This is V_i and this is V_c . So obviously, this becomes $V_i V_c$ by 10. So, output now becomes integral. Therefore, $V_i V_c$ by $10 R C$ into s with a negative sign.

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Normal integrator output is minus V_i by S c r. So now, it becomes minus V_i by 10 into V_c by R c s. So, it is equivalent to saying that it is like earlier integrator, but with the time constant $R C$ being replaced by $R C$ into 10 by V_c . So, the time constant is changed from the original $R C$ into $R C$ by... $R C$ by V_c into 10.

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So, the time constant is inversely proportional to V_c . If that is the case, if I design an oscillator, for that matter filter or oscillator, using this, then the frequency of oscillations or the pole frequency of such a system is going to be 1 over $R C$ under normal case, going to be replaced by V_c by 10 $R C$.

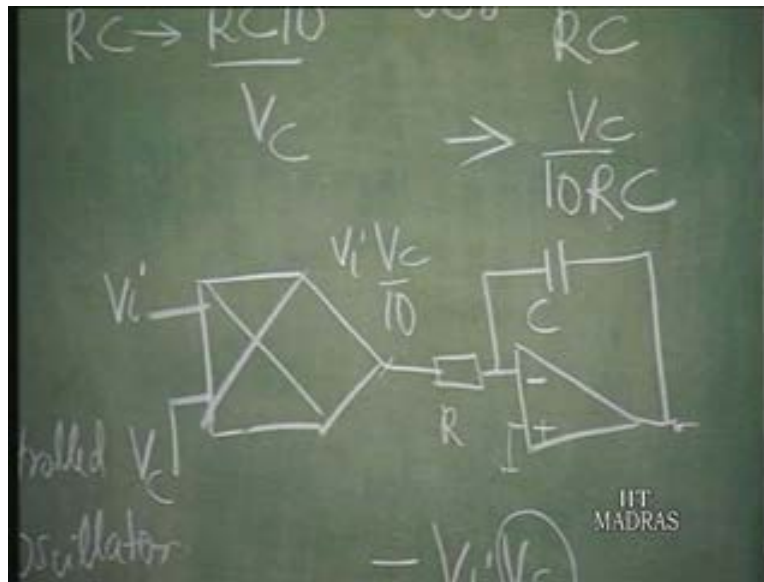
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The image shows a chalkboard with handwritten mathematical equations. At the top, the natural frequency is given as $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{RC}$. Below this, an arrow points to the modified expression $\frac{V_c}{10RC}$. In the bottom right corner, there is a logo for IIT MADRAS with a circled letter 'a' next to it. Some other faint markings like V_i, V_c and a circuit diagram are visible at the bottom left.

We had earlier discussed a K H N filter or universal active filter, which use two integrators. Both the integrators now, let us say, are replaced by such modified integrators, then the Omega naught or the pole frequency is going to change to V_c by $10 R C$. If you design a double integrator or quadrature oscillator, the frequency of oscillation or the natural frequency of the system also is going to be 1 over $R C$ which is going to be replaced by V_c by $10 R C$. So, that means I can build voltage control filters, voltage controlled oscillators, linear; all this using such a replacement of the integrator.

So, wherever ordinary integrator is there, you replace it by a multiplier in combination with integrator. Then the $R C$ time constants will be replaced by $10 R C$ by V_c ; and all such circuits become voltage controlled and they can be used again in music synthesizers, programmable filters and all these things. Voltage controlled oscillator, voltage controlled oscillator is again a circuit whose frequency of oscillation is directly proportional to control voltage and it is nothing but an F M generator because if I now feed a carrier frequency here plus a modulation frequency, if I feed this here as a voltage, then actually, modulating frequency is fed here. So, output will be a carrier frequency plus the quiescent frequency which is...quiescent frequency plus modulating frequency, which is nothing but an F M.

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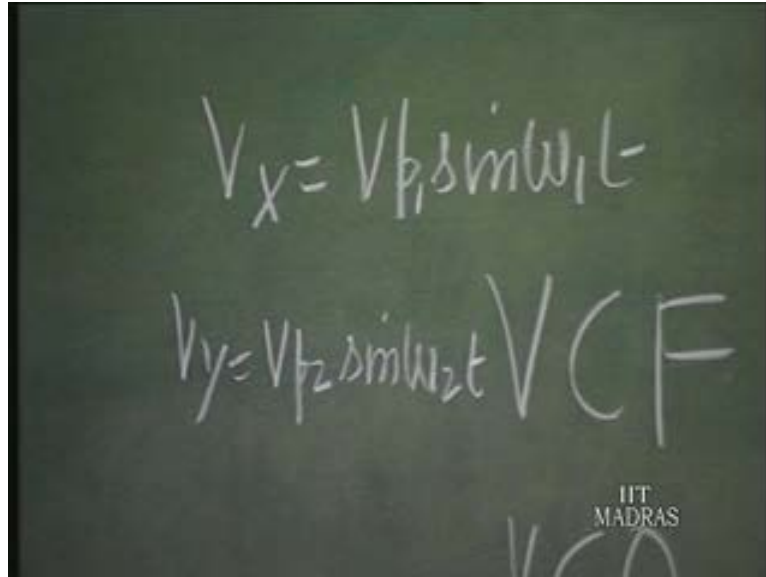
So, voltage controlled oscillators are nothing but F M generators. This is a linear thing and therefore it is a wide band F M generator. This is important that...because of its perfect linearity, it is possible to use it for wide band F M generation in things like, let us say, frequency shift keying, etcetera.

Such F M generation is F S K generation is possible; apply the digital ones and zeroes here, digital ones and zeros with additional D C. Then, output will be a quiescent frequency plus the frequency varying from certain value; let us say at 200 hertz, it is 1; at 100 hertz, it is zero; something like that. So, you can get an F S K output directly from this.

So, voltage controlled amplifier. How this is suitable for use in, let us say A G C and A B C, we will discuss slightly later, because it is going to be a controlled system like that of a voltage regulator. We will discuss slightly later.

Other applications like, now if V_x is equal to, let us say $V_p \sin \Omega_1 t$, V_y is equal to, let us say $V_{p2} \sin \Omega_2 t$; the inputs are now different.

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$$V_x = V_{p1} \sin \omega_1 t$$
$$V_y = V_{p2} \sin \omega_2 t$$

VCF

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These are two different frequencies that are coming as inputs to the multiplier. So, what is going to be the output? This is of interest to us in communication.

So, output is going to be $V_{p1} \sin \Omega_1 t V_{p2} \sin \Omega_2 t$ divided by 10, which is going to be $V_{p1} V_{p2}$ by 20 times $\sin a \sin b$ is \cos ; that is by 2 is there, factor of 2; $\cos a - b$ which is $\Omega_1 - \Omega_2$ minus $\cos \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$.

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The chalkboard shows the following equation:

$$V_0 = \frac{V_{p1} \sin(\omega_1 t) V_{p2} \sin(\omega_2 t)}{10}$$
$$= \frac{V_{p1} V_{p2}}{20} \left[\cos(\omega_1 - \omega_2)t - \cos(\omega_1 + \omega_2)t \right]$$

The IIT Madras logo is visible in the bottom right corner of the chalkboard image.

$\sin a \sin b$ is equal to $\cos a$ minus b minus $\cos a$ plus b by 2. This is now... So, these are what are called side bands. If Ω_1 is the carrier and Ω_2 is the modulating frequency, Ω_1 is the carrier, Ω_2 is the modulating frequency, this output communication engineers called as double side band systems. Carrier is absent. This is called double side band. It will have Ω_c minus Ω_m and Ω_c plus Ω_m .

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The chalkboard shows the following equation and definitions:

$$\text{DSB} = \frac{V_{p1} V_{p2}}{20} \left[\cos(\omega_1 - \omega_2)t - \cos(\omega_1 + \omega_2)t \right]$$

$\omega_1 = \omega_c$ (carrier)
 $\omega_2 = \omega_m$ (modulating)

The IIT Madras logo is visible in the bottom right corner of the chalkboard image.

So, in power efficient designs, we do not want to unnecessarily send the carrier. We just want only the side bands sent; and you can receive at the receiver end the modulated output and detect the output by putting an antenna whose bandwidth is sufficient to receive Ω_c , plus or minus Ω_m . You can receive this information and then put it in what is called as a mixer. So, this is nothing but a D S B modulator. Multiplier is nothing but a D S B modulator.

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DSB modulator = $\frac{V_1 V_2}{2} [\cos(\omega_1 - \omega_2) - \cos(\omega_1 + \omega_2)]$

$\omega_1 = \omega_c$ (carrier)

$\omega_2 = \omega_m$ (modulating frequency)

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When V_x and V_y are respectively two sin waves, one is the carrier, another is the modulating frequency. Then it is called a D S B modulator. This is the second application that we are discussing.

Now, if this is received at the receiving antenna and let us say Ω_1 is Ω_c plus or minus Ω_m , that is one input is the D S B itself and Ω_2 is, let us say Ω_c , let **let** us call this minus Ω_{IF} , Ω_c minus Ω_{IF} , this is called local oscillator frequency because Ω_c is a fixed frequency. Ω_{IF} is another fixed frequency. What happens, let us see. Again, we get this plus this and this minus this.

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Handwritten equations on a chalkboard:

$$\omega_1 = \omega_c \pm \omega_m$$

$$\omega_2 = \omega_c - \omega_{IF} \text{ (local oscillator)}$$

$$V_o = \frac{V_{p1} \sin \omega_1 t + V_{p2} \sin \omega_2 t}{10}$$

Logo: IIT MADRAS

So, we will see that the output will correspond to $2\omega_c$ plus or minus ω_m minus ω_{IF} . This plus this and this minus this. ω_c will get cancelled. You get ω_{IF} plus or minus ω_m .

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Handwritten equations on a chalkboard:

$$V_{p1} \sin \omega_1 t + V_{p2} \sin \omega_2 t$$

$$\omega_{IF} \pm \omega_m$$

$$2\omega_c \pm \omega_m - \omega_{IF}$$

$$V_o = \dots$$

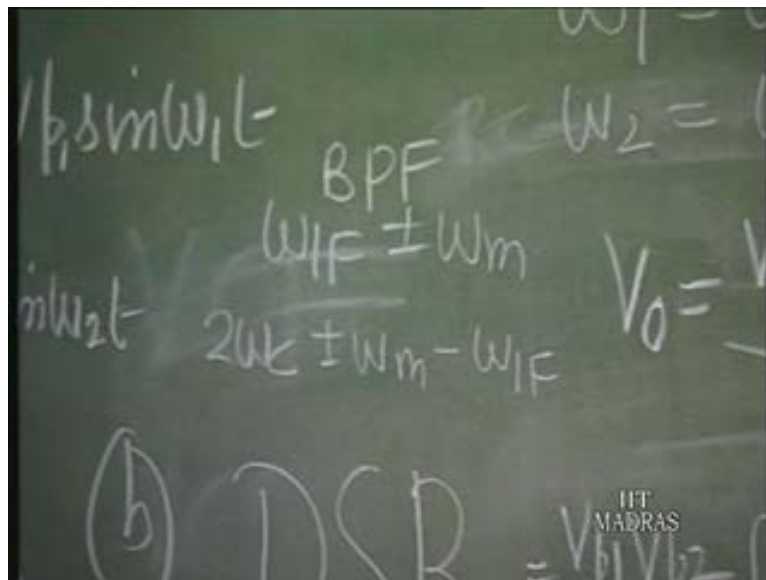
Logo: IIT MADRAS

So, when you mix this, it is called a mixer. You are mixing these two frequency components; it is called a mixer. What is a mixer again? It is nothing but a multiplier.

Only thing is the input is different now. One is a D S B modulated input; another is the local oscillator which is having a frequency Ω_c minus or plus Ω_{IF} , it does not matter.

So, this local oscillator frequency is mixed with incoming frequency and you get Ω_{IF} plus or minus Ω_m and this. You have to isolate this from this. So, you put a band pass filter whose center frequency is Ω_{IF} with a bandwidth sufficient for Ω_{IF} plus or minus Ω_m . This gets eliminated. This is a very high frequency component.

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So, this gets eliminated and you have now transferred the wanted information which is plus minus Ω_m from the carrier to Ω_{IF} , which is a lower frequency. This is what is done in both television as well as radio receivers so that the amplifier design becomes very simplified. Amplifier that is designed to amplify all the signals have to operate at a fixed frequency called intermediate frequency. Then, the amplifier design is very simple.

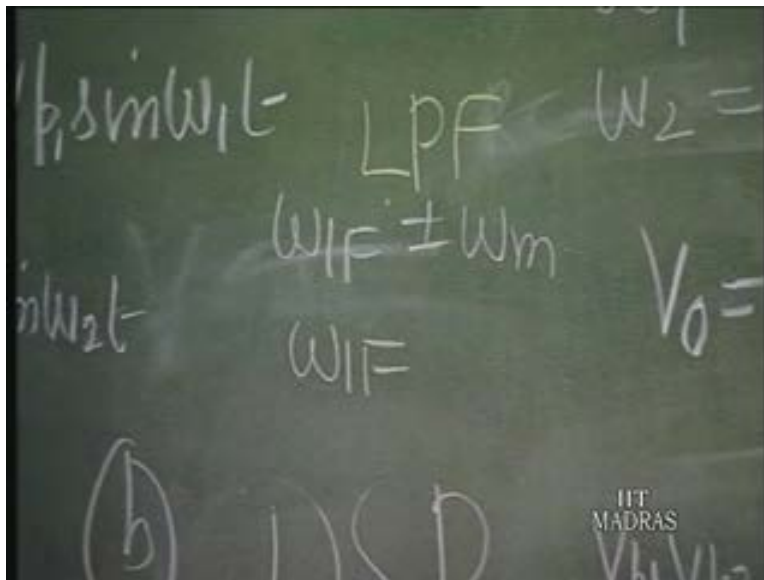
So, mixer is the name attributed to the same multiplier whose input is changed from the original carrier and modulating frequency to modulated frequency and local oscillator

frequency. Now we will see how it also gets the name of, let us say detector. The same thing is going to be called modulator, mixer or detector simply based on inputs and output structure difference.

So, the multiplier is a basic component which is involved in communication again and again; as a mixer, as a modulator or as a demodulator. This is what...what this is. Now we have information in Ω_c plus or minus Ω_m . I put a local oscillator whose frequency is Ω_c . So, output will be twice Ω_c plus minus Ω_m and Ω_m .

I can now eliminate Ω_c plus minus Ω_m by using a simple low pass filter whose cut-off frequency is something higher than Ω_m . So, I just put a low pass filter. It will remove twice Ω_c plus or minus Ω_m .

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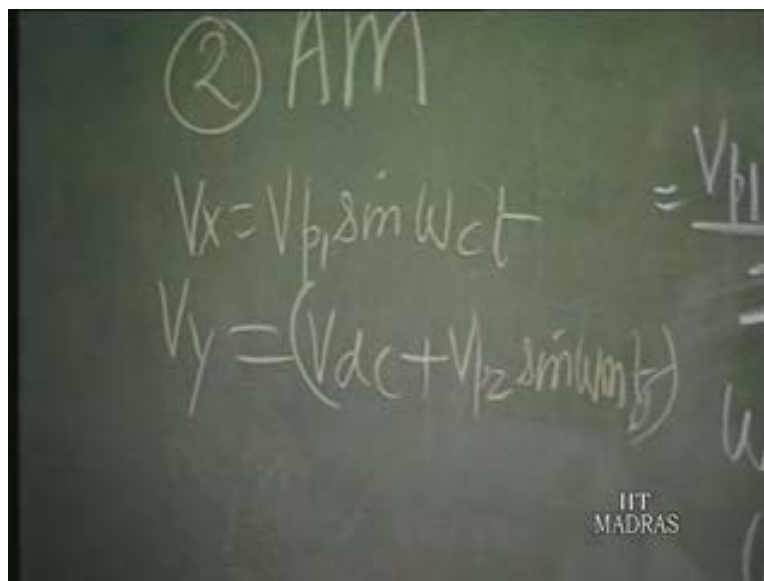
The input therefore is the I F output and an I F local oscillator frequency. Then it detects the modulated frequency. That is called a demodulator. This is also called balanced modulator and this is balanced demodulator. This kind of thing, receiver design, is possible only when at the receiving end, I can generate in the local oscillator, a frequency

which is as stable as that has been transmitted. That is Ω_c minus Ω_{IF} should have the same stability. Not...it can be good or bad; but if the stability of transmitter is good, this could be as good or as bad. It should be tracking with that. Otherwise, there will be problems in receiving.

Same thing is true with this detector, that I should be able to generate a local oscillator frequency which is Ω_{IF} with the same amount of stability as that of the Ω_{IF} strip itself. So, with that requirement, the receiver design becomes pretty complicated. That is why it is not normally used in the common cheap radio receivers called super heterodyne receivers, which make use of a different principle all together in modulation. That is called amplitude modulation as against D S B.

What is an amplitude modulator? This we can learn from the fact that an amplitude modulator A M circuit is nothing but a multiplier. Let us say V_x is $V_p \sin \Omega_c t$; V_y on the other hand is a V_{dc} plus $V_p \sin \Omega_m t$...so that when you multiply, there is apart from the product component which is $\Omega_c \dots \sin \Omega_c t$ into $\sin \Omega_m t$, you have a D C multiplied by the carrier, which will give you sufficient carrier to identify the signal properly.

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② AM

$$V_x = V_p \sin \omega_c t$$
$$V_y = (V_{dc} + V_p \sin \omega_m t)$$

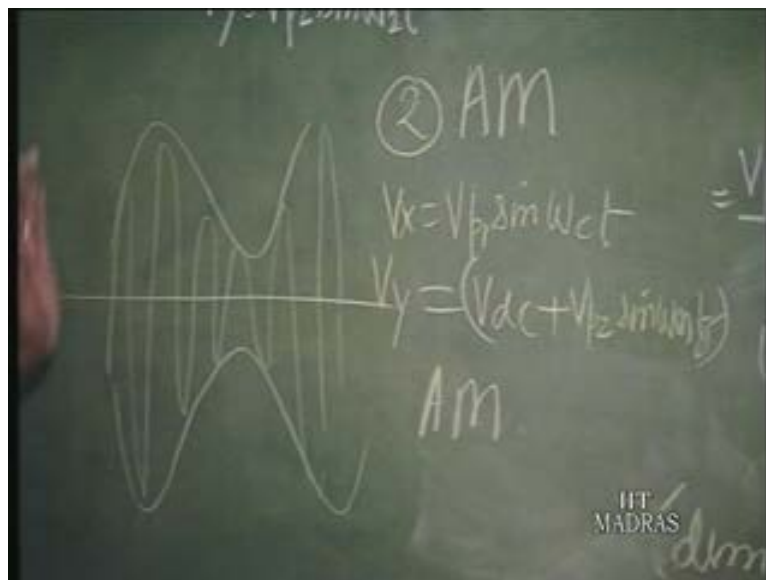
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This is called...therefore this is nothing but a non-ideal multiplier where you have the x feed through component coming. See that this is nothing but a non-ideal multiplier where x feed through component is coming. It is not just the product component.

So, if you have a non-ideal multiplier, you can obtain an amplitude modulated signal. What is the advantage of amplitude modulated signal? As against the D S B, you can detect this simply by envelope detection, which is done simply by using a diode.

So, the amplitude modulated signal which looks like this, that is the envelop; and the envelop contains the full information. So therefore, chop this off using a diode and then put a filter so as to detect only the envelop. So, that...that detector is a very simple detector. It does not require generation at the local oscillator. That frequency, which is as stable as that, that is now transmitted.

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So, this is A M generation. That means A M generation is also possible with the same multiplier. Only thing is that multiplier need not be an ideal multiplier. It can be a non-ideal multiplier with x feed through or y feed through component.

Next, the communication application...we have another important application wherein the frequencies are the same, but the input can be now $V_p \sin \Omega t$. This is V_x and V_y is V_{p1} , let us say V_{p2} , $\sin \Omega t + \phi$. Once the frequencies are the same, there can be a phase difference.

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The image shows a chalkboard with two equations written in white chalk. The first equation is $V_x = V_{p1} \sin(\omega t)$. The second equation is $V_y = V_{p2} \sin(\omega t + \phi)$. In the bottom right corner of the chalkboard, the text "IIT MADRAS" is visible.

So, if you feed this as the input x and y , what will you get? Again, you will get a component which is $V_{p1} V_{p2} \cos(\Omega_1 - \Omega_2)$. Here, it is this minus that...that is $\cos \phi$ minus this plus this. That means $\cos 2\Omega t + \phi$. This is the output. You can now see that by putting a low pass filter, I can get rid of this and output is $V_{p1} V_{p2} \cos \phi$.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:24)

The image shows a chalkboard with the following handwritten equations and text:

$$V_0 = \frac{V_{p1} V_{p2}}{20} \left[\cos \phi - \cancel{\cos(2\omega t + \phi)} \right]$$

LPF

$$V_x = V_{p1} \sin \omega t$$
$$V_y = V_{p2} \sin(\omega t + \phi) = \frac{V_{p2}}{20}$$

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What is phi? phi is nothing but the phase difference. So, this is a phase detector, an important building block, in a variety of applications. Phase detector. It is not linear; it is non-linear, because output D C voltage is proportional to $\cos \phi$, not ϕ . You can make it linear by simply passing these waveforms through comparators or limiters, what are called as amplitude limiters.

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The image shows a man standing next to a chalkboard. The chalkboard contains the same equations as in the previous slide, with the addition of the text "Phase detector" written below the equations.

$$V_0 = \frac{V_{p1} V_{p2}}{20} \left[\cos \phi - \cancel{\cos(2\omega t + \phi)} \right]$$

LPF

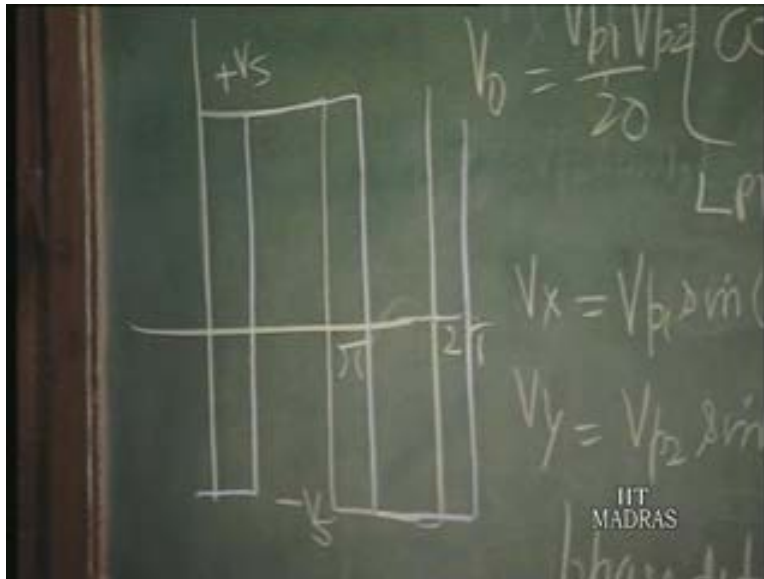
$$V_x = V_{p1} \sin \omega t$$
$$V_y = V_{p2} \sin(\omega t + \phi) = \frac{V_{p2}}{20}$$

Phase detector

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So if you, for example, pass it through amplitude limiters, output amplitude of V_x is, let us say limited to some value. So, this is 2π , this is π ; and the other waveform is, let us say delayed from this waveform by a factor of π . Let us say the amplitude to which it is limited is, plus V_s and minus V_s .

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This can be done by making these voltages go through comparators. So, the amplitude will be limited to supply voltage plus V_s and minus V_s , both of them. So, V_x and V_y get fed through this and then to the multiplier.

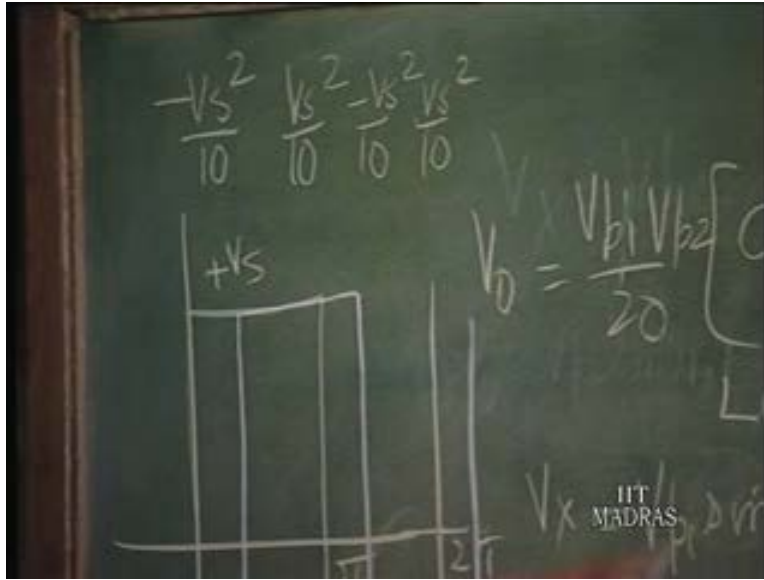
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So, what will be the output? Here, when this is positive, this is negative. So, output is negative; and in this region it is V s square by 10, negative; and in this region, both are positive.

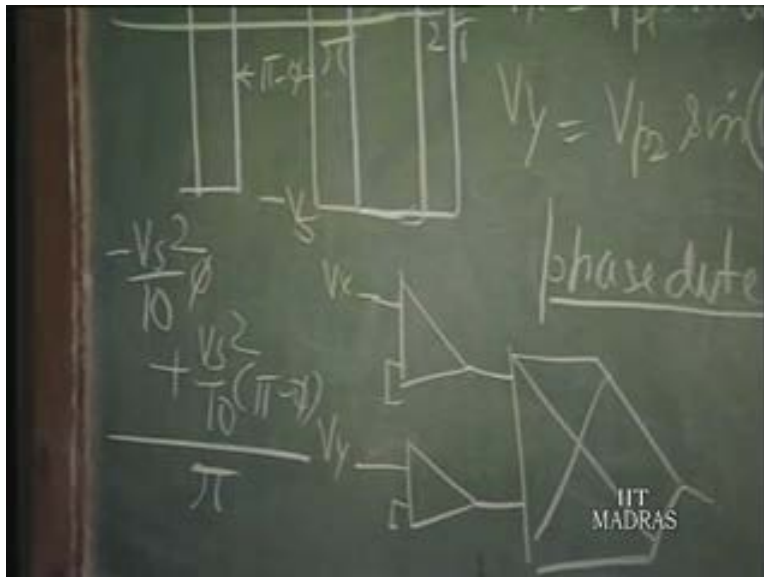
So, output is positive, V s square by 10. Again here it is, one is positive, another is negative. Again it is minus V s square by 10. Again here, both are negative. So, it is positive, V s square by 10. So, in one cycle of this waveform, this goes through two cycles.

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That is what it says in this multiplication also. There is a $2\Omega t$ component coming into picture. Apart from that, if you actually evaluate the average of this now... If this is, let us say ϕ , the average of this is going to be $\text{minus } V s \text{ square by } 10 \text{ into } \phi$; this into $\text{minus } V s \text{ square by } 10$. And this period is $\pi \text{ minus } \phi$. So, $\text{plus } V s \text{ square by } 10 \text{ into } \pi \text{ minus } \phi$; and since it is getting repeated in the same manner, it is enough if we take the average this way and divide it by total of π itself.

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If you take the average for 2π also, it will be the same average. So, you get this here, V_{av} average as being equal to V_s^2 by 10 . This π and π get cancelled; $1 - \frac{2\phi}{\pi}$. You can see that the average D C component is directly proportional to ϕ . So, this becomes a linear phase detector.

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$$V_{av} = \frac{V_s^2}{10} \left[1 - \frac{2\phi}{\pi} \right]$$

$$V_o = \frac{V_{p1} V_{p2}}{20} \left[\cos \phi - \cos(2\omega t + \phi) \right]$$

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So, you can see that communication engineers call these amplifiers as limiters, not as comparators. You can limit the amplitude by using high gain amplifiers and apply this to a multiplier which is nothing but a modulator or mixer or anything; but if the two frequencies are the same, then the average component at the output will be directly proportional to ϕ . This is called a linear phase detector.

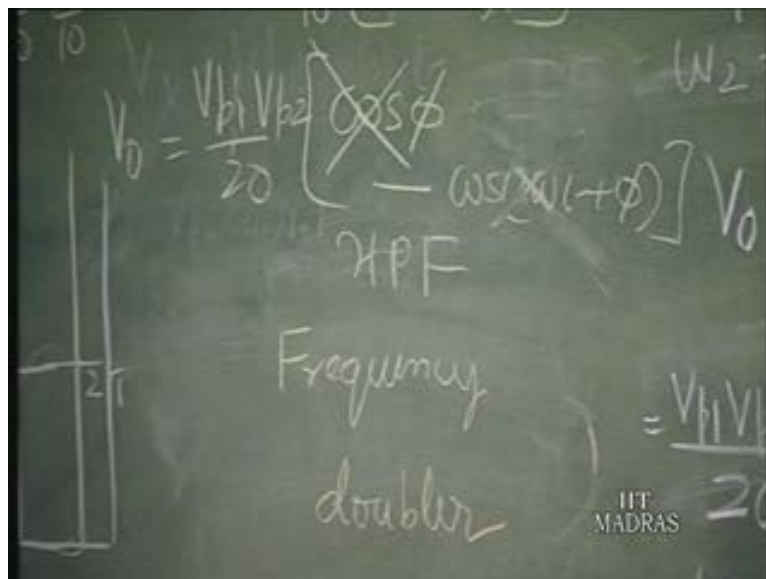
Therefore, we can use it as a linear phase detector in... We will see this is a basic building block of a phase lock loop also. Later on we will see this... Here, this point that it is proportional to $\cos \phi$ can be exploited in using it for power measurement. If V_x is proportional to line voltage, that means you put a voltage transformer there. Then, V_y is proportional to line current. Then you put a current transformer; the output of the voltage transformer and current transformer, you apply directly to the multiplier; and you put a

low pass filter, you will get the power factor directly. The output voltage will indicate the power factor.

If you really use the amplitude information, it is nothing but the power consumed in the line. You can use this information as a direct replacement of what is called two watt meter method of power measurements. The two watt meter method of power measurement in three phase circuit can be translated in terms of two such multipliers being used in order to evaluate the power of the three phase circuit. So, it can be used as a watt meter; phase detector, watt meter.

Now you can see that instead of taking this as the output, $\cos \phi$, this can be eliminated by using a high pass filter. Only this can be taken. What is this going to give us? You have put Ω as the input; you have got 2Ω as the output. This is called frequency doubler. This output, when I select only the high frequency component, reject the D C, is called frequency doubler.

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This is very important in its application of generating stable, high frequency components from stable, low frequency components. Let us say it is very difficult to generate stable

high frequency component. Then, you have to synthesize such frequencies by doubling or tripling or multiplying. So, for frequency multiplication, this can be used. If you can double, you can triple because this can be...the doubled frequency can be one input and again Ω can be the other input. 2Ω and Ω , you will get 3Ω . So, like that, you can multiply frequencies.

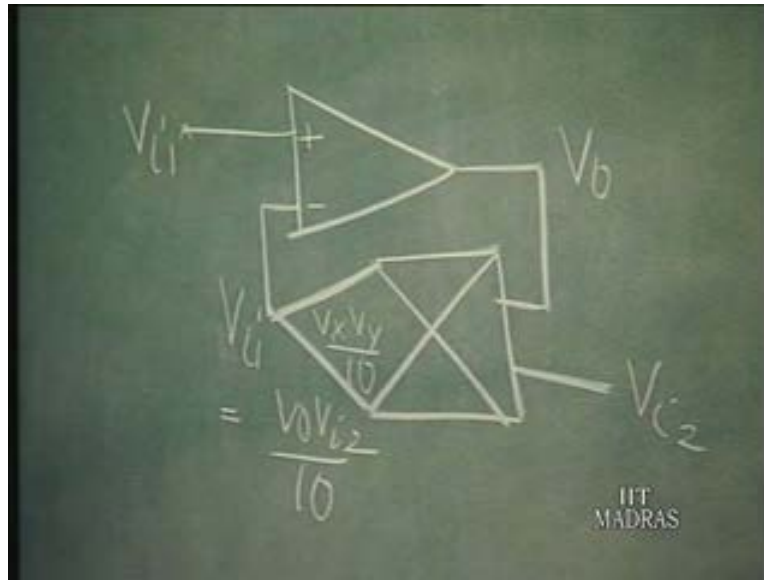
So, frequency synthesis...this can be used. If you can use it for frequency synthesis, I can get Ω^2 , Ω^3 , Ω etcetera, then I can generate the harmonic components and I can therefore obtain any periodic waveform using a periodic waveform as the input. A triangular waveform, for example, can be used as the input; triangular waveform is nothing but x or t . So, using this input, I can generate a sine waveform which is going to be t minus t cubed by factorial 3, so on... So, we can generate a periodic waveform of any shape using a triangular waveform, using this kind of frequency synthesis.

Other applications of the multiplier, like how to use it as a divider, we have seen that in the log-antilog multiplier. We can use it straightaway as a multiplier or divider; whereas, this transconductance multiplier, the output is $V_x V_y$ by 10; straightaway a DC, which is generated using a DC current and a resistance. So, we cannot possibly use it as a divider straightaway. How do you convert a multiplier into a divider?

So, this multiplier can be put in the feedback path. This is always the case. I have been repeatedly telling you that if you have a certain function, the inverse of the function can be always obtained by putting that functional block within the feedback loop of an op-amp.

So, let us consider an op-amp of this type. So, this is, let us say V_i ; this is V_{naught} . If this is V_i , this should be V_i , if the feedback is negative in the case of an op-amp; and that is straightaway equal to...let us say this is V_{i1} and this is V_{i2} . So, this is V_{i1} . So, and that V_{i1} is equal to $V_{naught} V_{i2}$ by 10, $V_{naught} V_{i2}$ by 10 because this is going to give you $V_x V_y$ by 10; $V_{naught} V_{i2}$ by 10.

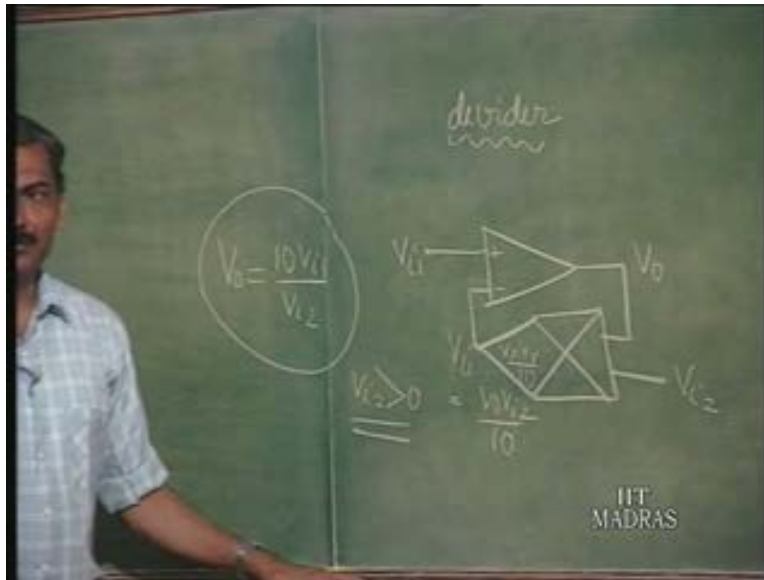
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So, we see here that V_o is going to be equal to $10 V_{i1} / V_{i2}$ which is nothing but a divider. Now, a word of caution, because this is going to be a divider only when V_{i2} is remaining positive; because if this control voltage is positive, this gain is positive; you remember.

If this control voltage is negative, the gain, it will be acting as an inverting amplifier, we have to say. Therefore, this feedback will become positive feedback, if this is negative. So, this is valid as long as V_{i2} is positive. So, this particular thing is working satisfactorily for V_{i2} greater than zero. Is that point understood?

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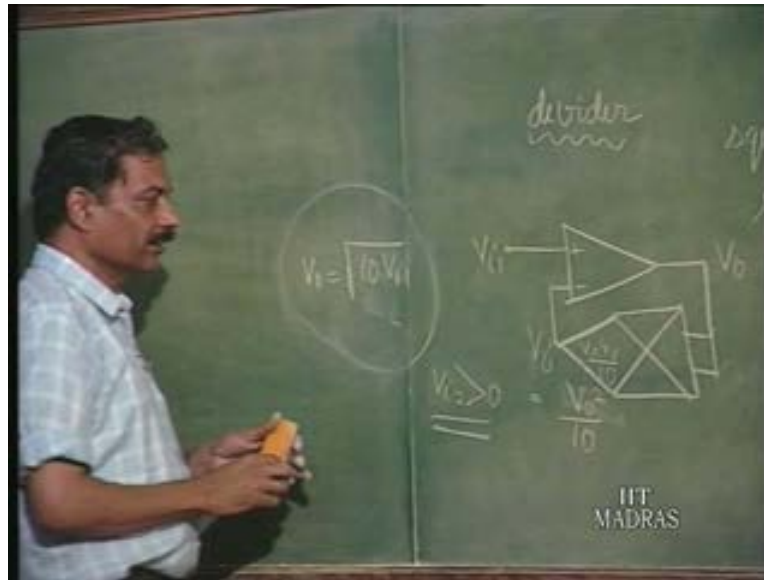


If this is positive, the phase...there is no phase inversion between this and this. If this is negative, there is a phase inversion. If there is a phase inversion, this...there is negative, already 180 degree. This is again 180 degree. There is a positive feedback; even this circuit will fail to function.

So, this is the limitation of this circuit with negative feedback. It cannot work for any polarity of a voltage that you are considering. Now, this also can be used for squaring. How do you do squaring? Squaring you do simply by connecting both the inputs to the same thing, V_x and V_x . So, output will be V_x square by 10. But, we would like to do square rooting let us say, square rooting. How do you do? So, square rooting can be done by simply connecting, again this squaring circuit in the feedback path.

So, instead of...this still remains the same; V_{i1} , this is V_{i1} . This is now V_x and V_y ; both are equal to V_{naught} squared. So, V_x and V_y are equal. So, multiplication of this will result in V_{naught} square; or we get now V_{naught} square by 10 is equal to V_{i1} ; or V_{naught} is equal to root of 10 into V_{i1} . So, this is this.

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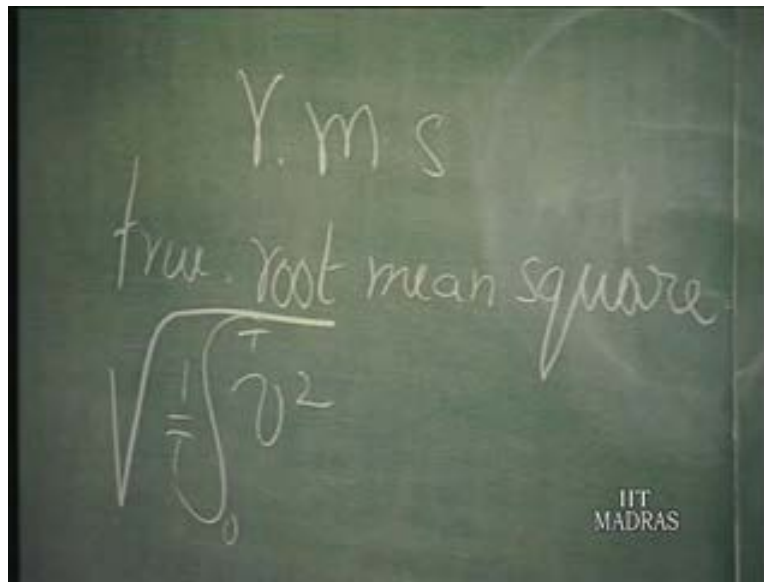


So here, the essential thing is once again, this V_i has to be always positive. If it is negative, once again, we cannot get another... What... what does that mean? That means, actually speaking, that V here has to be always positive. Otherwise, there will be the **the** sign change is not recognized here. This is because this is a squaring circuit; whether it is positive or negative, we will get the same output.

So, this is a square rooting circuit. If you have a square rooting circuit, you can do so many things, squaring and square rooting we know.

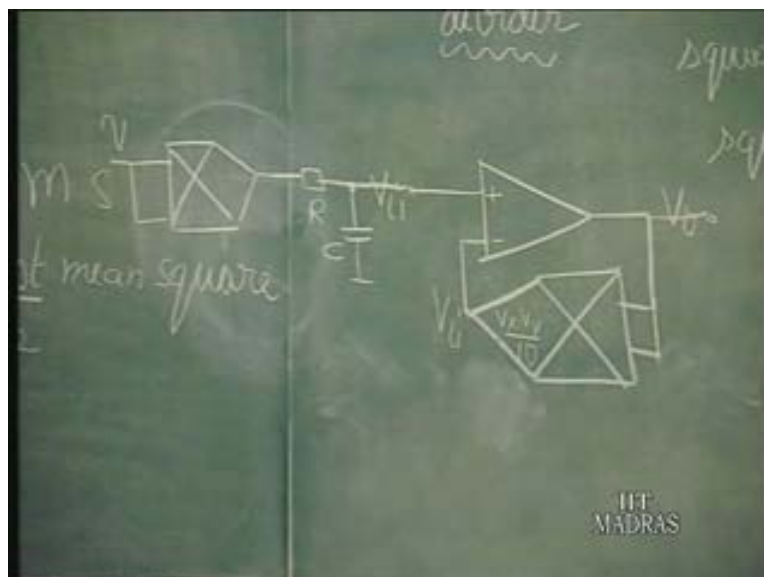
What is called as true root mean square value; root mean square value – R M S value - of a given waveform, periodic waveform. How do you...true R M S value, how do you find out that? By definition, you will take square. Suppose it is V ; you take square of V and then mean...that means integrate and then root square. So, integrate over, let us say, say time period. That is the averaging. So, what do you do?

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You put a squaring circuit which is nothing but a multiplier. This is V . So, you have got the square, then the averaging circuit. That means you will take the average. We can take R c time...this is nothing but a low pass filter. That will do the integration; averaging circuit and then square rooting. This averaging is a D C. So, you will now take the square rooting of that. So, this complete circuit is nothing but a very useful tool called true R M S, root mean square indicator.

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So, the entire thing can be built using multipliers. Such units are available in the market for finding out the true R M S value of a given wave form.