

COVID-19 Return to Campus Slide for use in Semester 2 classes



Protect yourself and others from getting sick



Stay home if you feel unwell



Wash your hands with soap



Cough into your elbow



Avoid contact



Use and dispose of tissues



Stay 1.5m from other people where possible



Wipe down any equipment before use



Avoid crowding around entryways before and after classes



Follow lift etiquette and use stairs where possible



qut.edu.au/coronavirus

- Go to **Return to campus resources and posters** at COVID-19: Information for staff
- Contact your HSE Partners Amanda Burns or Matt Mackay for local area support and advice



School of Electrical Engineering and Robotics

EGB348 Electronics

Operational Amplifier Circuits

Jasmine Banks (2020)

Recommended Readings:

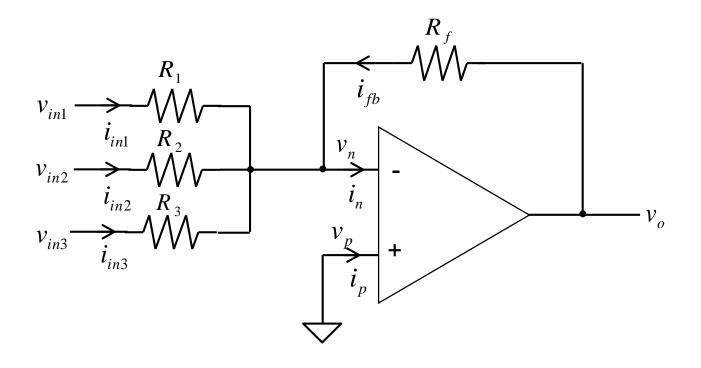
Hambley: Chapter 14, Horowitz and Hill: Chapter 4



Op Amp Circuits

- Op Amp Negative Feedback Circuits:
 - Summing and difference amps
 - Integrator and differentiator
 - Instrumentation amp
 - Precision half wave rectifier
- Op Amp Positive feedback circuits:
 - Schmitt Trigger
 - Square wave generator (Astable Multivibrator)
 - Pulse generator (Monostable Multivibrator)

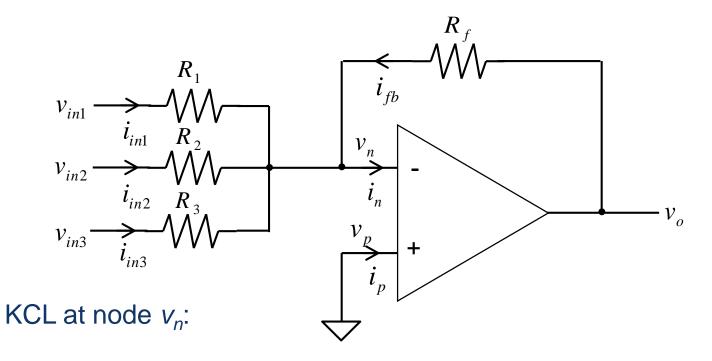




• Golden Rule I: $v_n = v_p = 0$

• Golden Rule II: $i_n = i_p = 0$





 $v_o = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_1}v_{in1} + \frac{R_f}{R_2}v_{in2} + \frac{R_f}{R_3}v_{in3}\right)$

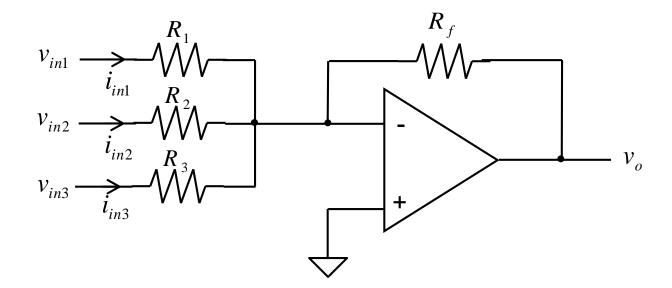
output is a weighted sum of inputs



Example 1

• Design a 3 bit digital to analogue converter using a summing amplifier. Use $R_f = 10k\Omega$.

3 bit binary number: b2 b1 b0





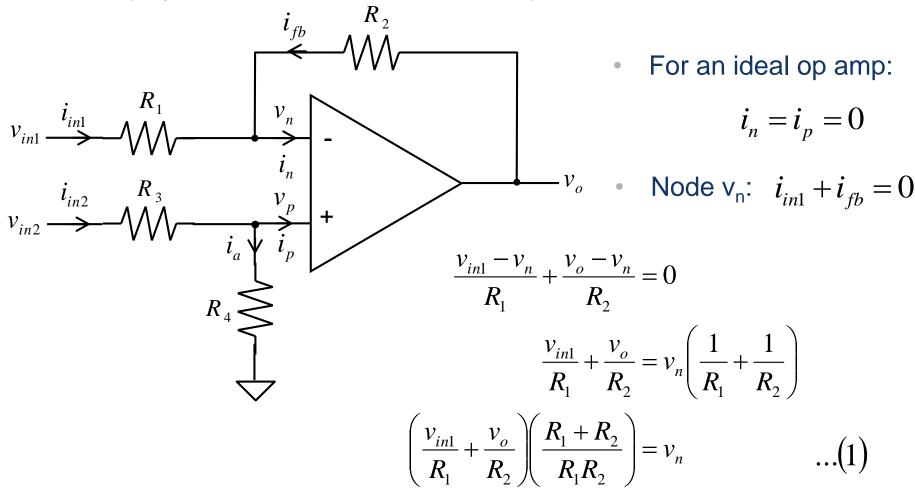
Example 1

We would like:

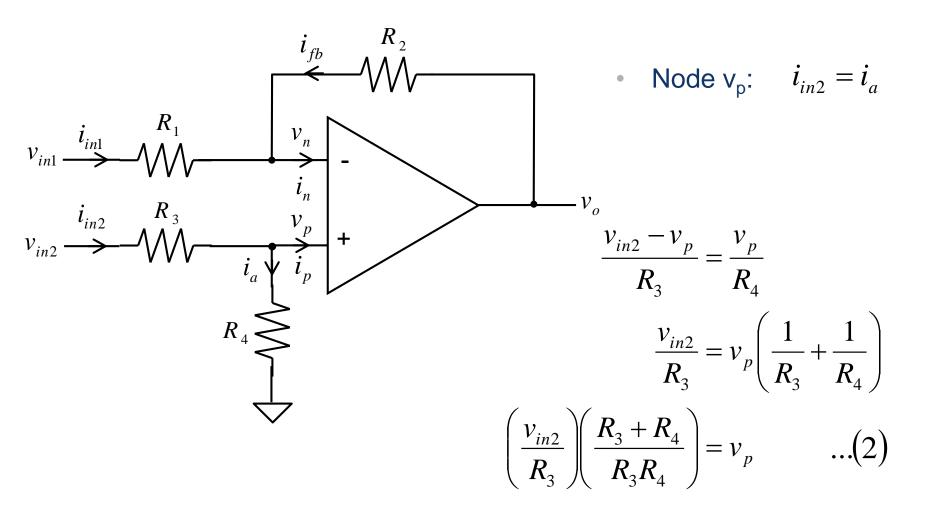
• We have
$$v_o = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_1}v_{in1} + \frac{R_f}{R_2}v_{in2} + \frac{R_f}{R_3}v_{in3}\right)$$
 , with $R_f = 10\mathrm{k}\Omega$



Amplify the difference between two inputs









Golden Rule I:

$$V_n = V_p$$

Combining (1) and (2):

$$\left(\frac{v_{in1}}{R_1} + \frac{v_o}{R_2}\right) \left(\frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}\right) = \frac{v_{in2}}{R_3} \left(\frac{R_3 R_4}{R_3 + R_4}\right)$$

$$v_o \left(\frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}\right) = v_{in2} \left(\frac{R_4}{R_3 + R_4}\right) - v_{in1} \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2}\right)$$

$$v_o = v_{in2} \left(\frac{R_4}{R_1}\right) \left(\frac{R_1 + R_2}{R_3 + R_4}\right) - v_{in1} \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)$$



$$v_{o} = v_{in2} \left(\frac{R_{4}}{R_{1}}\right) \left(\frac{R_{2}}{R_{4}}\right) \left(\frac{R_{1}/R_{2}+1}{R_{3}/R_{4}+1}\right) - v_{in1} \left(\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}}\right)$$

$$v_{o} = v_{in2} \left(\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}}\right) \left(\frac{R_{1}/R_{2}+1}{R_{3}/R_{4}+1}\right) - v_{in1} \left(\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}}\right)$$

$$v_{o} = \left(\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}}\right) \left(v_{in2} \left(\frac{R_{1}/R_{2}+1}{R_{3}/R_{4}+1}\right) - v_{in1}\right)$$

$$= 1$$

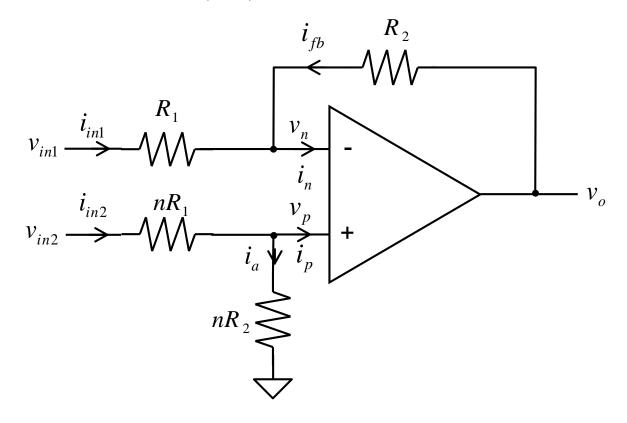
We need:

$$\frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_4} \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{R_1 = nR_3}{R_2 = nR_4}$$

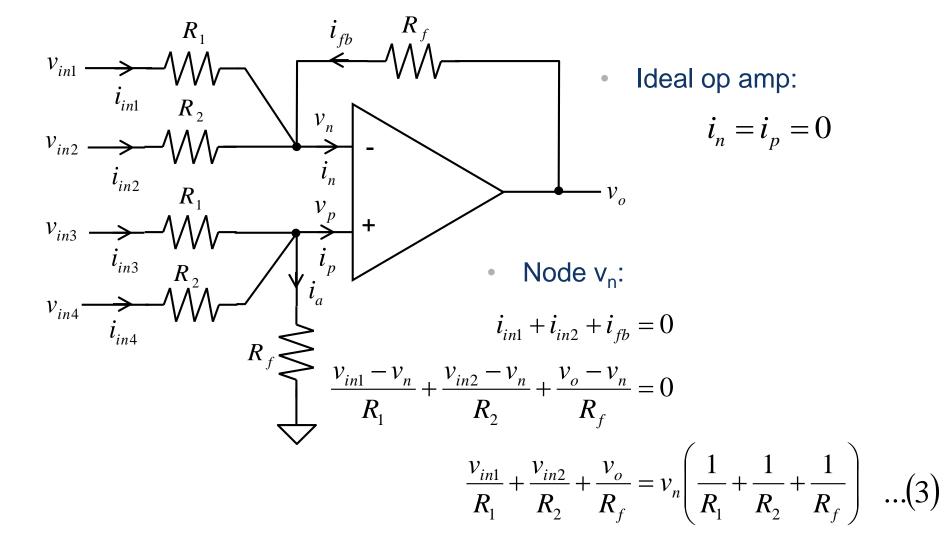


Then we have:

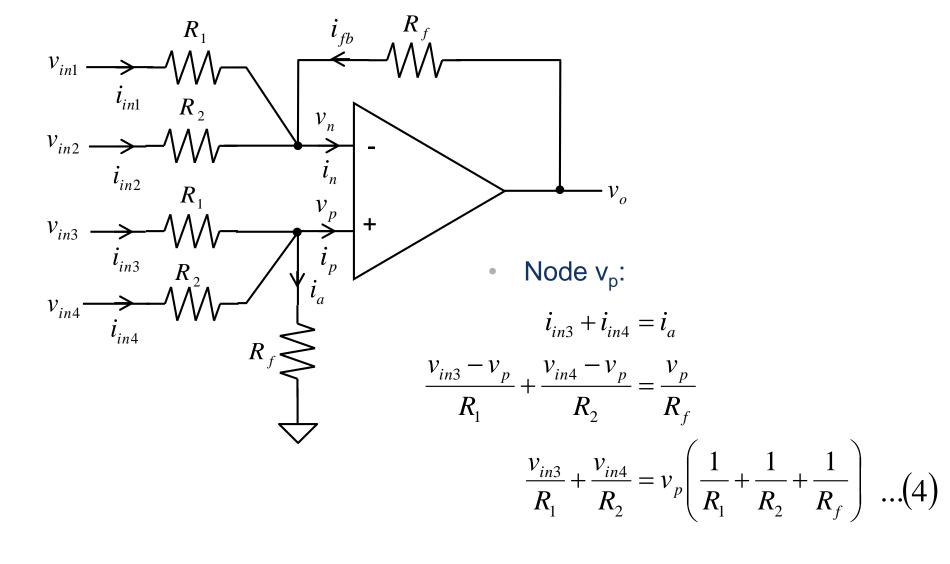
$$v_o = \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) (v_{in2} - v_{in1})$$













• Golden Rule I: $v_n = v_p$

Combining (1) and (2):

$$\frac{v_{in1}}{R_1} + \frac{v_{in2}}{R_2} + \frac{v_o}{R_f} = \frac{v_{in3}}{R_1} + \frac{v_{in4}}{R_2}$$

$$\frac{v_o}{R_f} = \frac{1}{R_1} (v_{in3} - v_{in1}) + \frac{1}{R_2} (v_{in4} - v_{in2})$$

$$v_o = \frac{R_f}{R_1} (v_{in3} - v_{in1}) + \frac{R_f}{R_2} (v_{in4} - v_{in2})$$



Example 2:

• Using $R_f = 100k\Omega$, design a summing difference amp circuit to produce an output:

$$v_o = 20(v_{in3} - v_{in1}) - 10v_{in2}$$

The above can be expressed as:

$$v_o = 20(v_{in3} - v_{in1}) - 10(v_{in2} - 0)$$

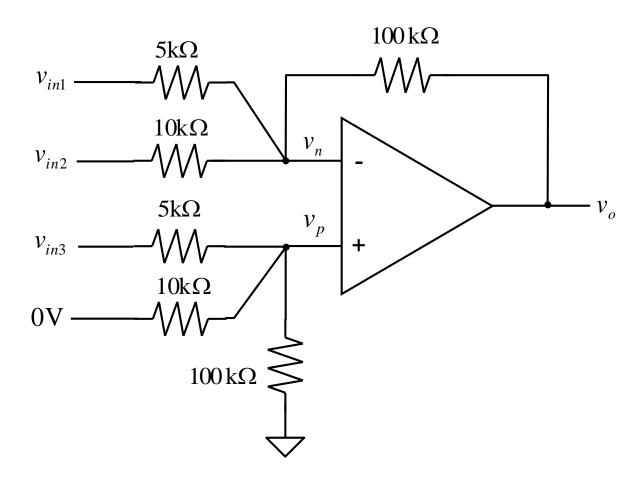
Compare this with the output for the summing difference amp:

$$v_o = \frac{R_f}{R_1} (v_{in3} - v_{in1}) + \frac{R_f}{R_2} (v_{in4} - v_{in2})$$

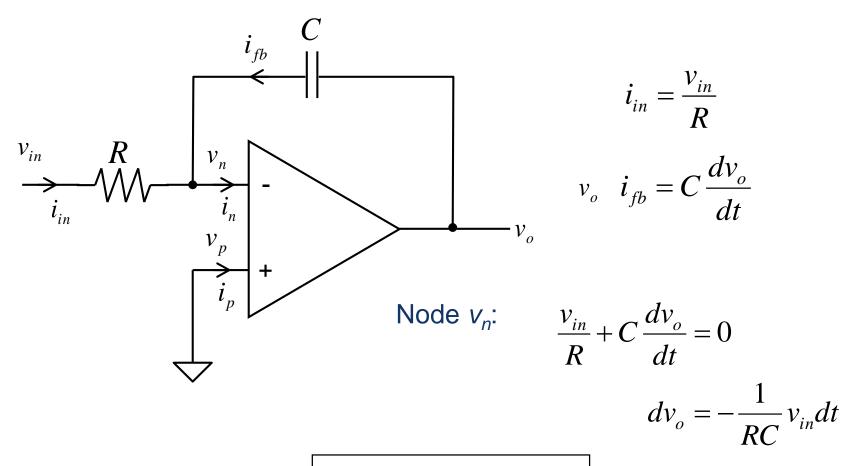


Example 2:

We need:







$$v_o = -\frac{1}{RC} \int v_{in}(t) dt$$

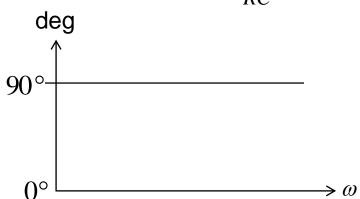


Frequency response:

Magnitude:

 $20 \log \left| \frac{V_o}{V_{in}} \right| \stackrel{\text{dB}}{\longrightarrow} -20 \text{dB/dec}$ $0 \text{dB} \stackrel{\text{-20dB/dec}}{\longrightarrow} \omega$

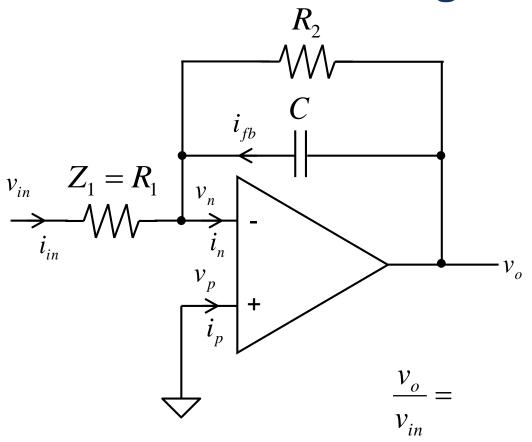
Phase:





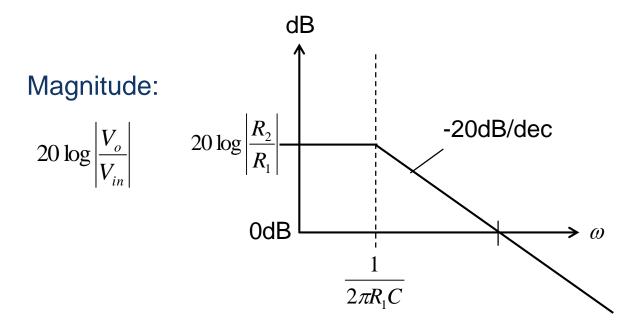
- Problem with this integrator circuit:
 - No feedback at DC
 - High gain at low frequencies
 - Add a resistor which introduces a pole that limits the gain at low frequencies.



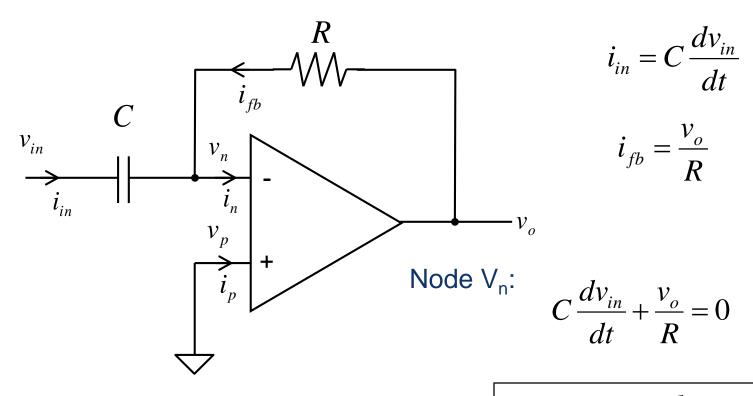




Frequency response:







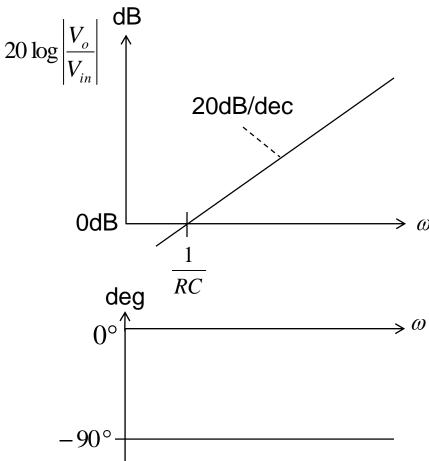
$$v_o = -CR \frac{dv_{in}}{dt}$$



Frequency response:

Magnitude:

Phase:

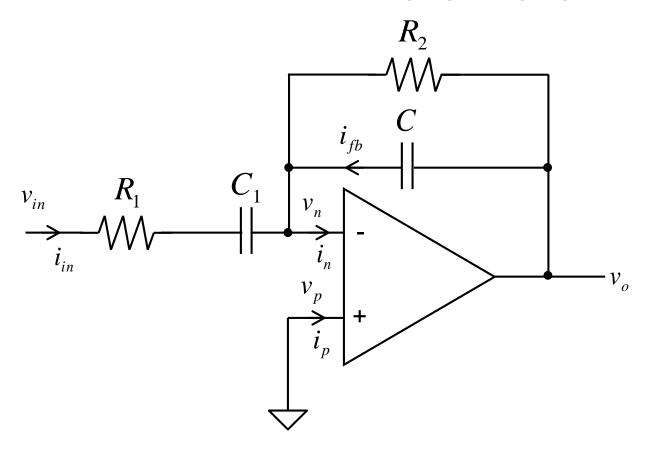




Problem with instability at high frequencies.

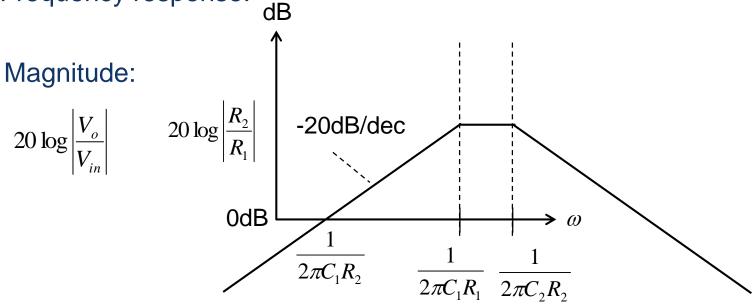
Add two poles to roll off the gain





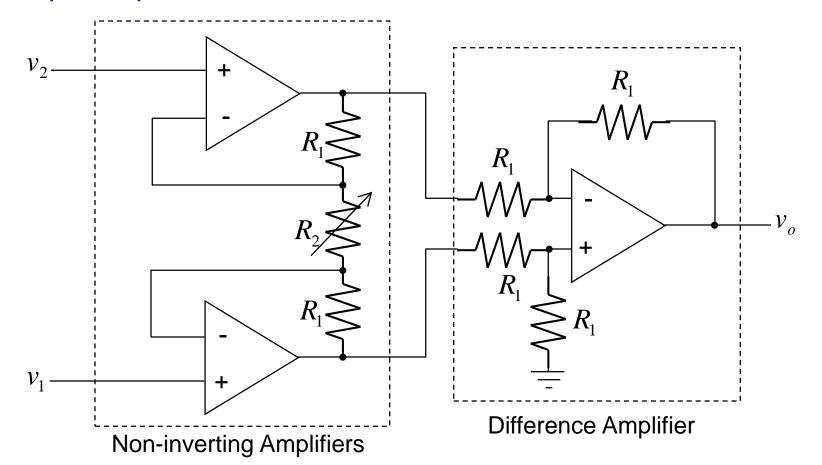


Frequency response:

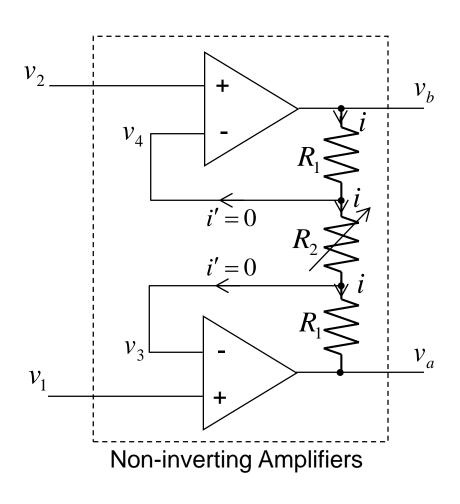




 This is a differential input amplifier system with very high input impedances.







Non inverting amplifier:

$$v_b - iR_1 - iR_2 - iR_1 = v_a$$

 $v_b - v_a = i(2R_1 + R_2)$

– due to virtual short:

$$v_4 = v_2;$$
 $v_3 = v_1$
 $i = (v_2 - v_1)/R_2$

– Therefore:

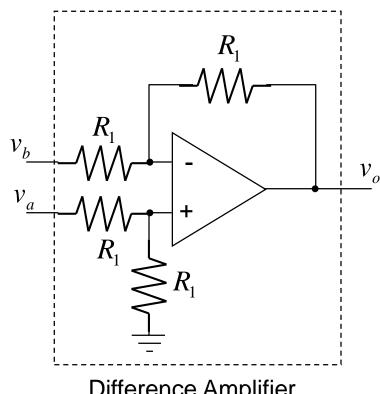
$$v_b - v_a = (v_2 - v_1) \left(\frac{2R_1}{R_2} + 1 \right)$$



Difference Amplifier:

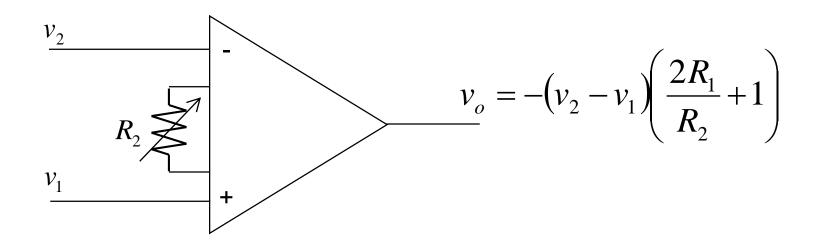
$$v_o = -(v_b - v_a)$$

$$v_o = -(v_2 - v_1) \left(\frac{2R_1}{R_2} + 1\right)$$



Difference Amplifier





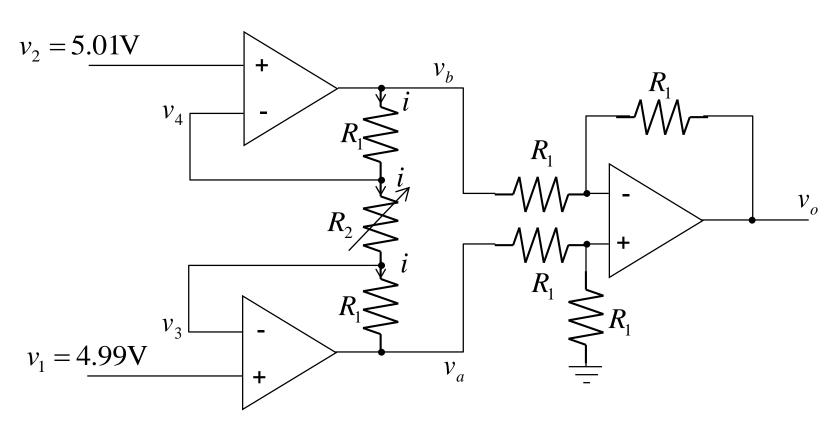


Example 3:

• Voltages v_2 =5.01V and v_1 =4.99V are input to an instrumentation amp. What are the values of v_b , v_a , i and v_o when R_1 = 30k Ω and R_2 = 2.7k?



Example 3:



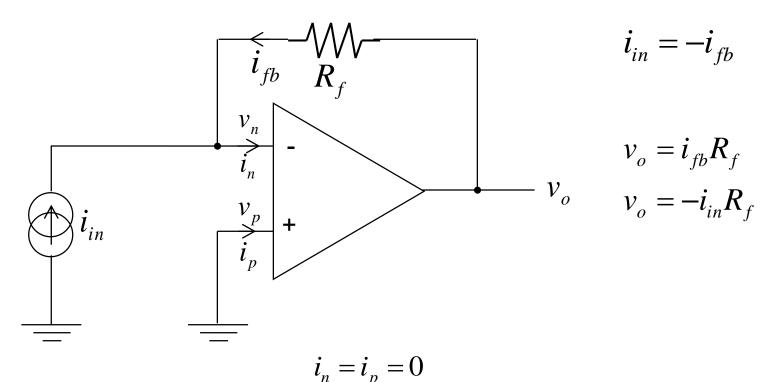


Example 3:



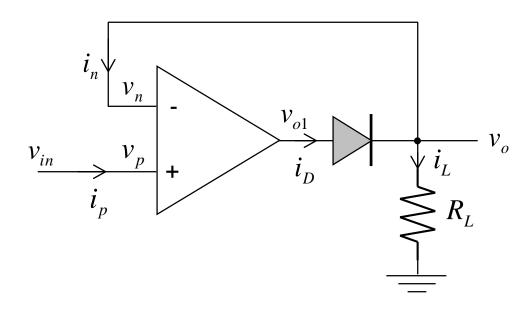
Current to Voltage Converter

- In some situations, the output of a device is a current, for example a photodiode or photodetector.
- We may need to convert this current to voltage.





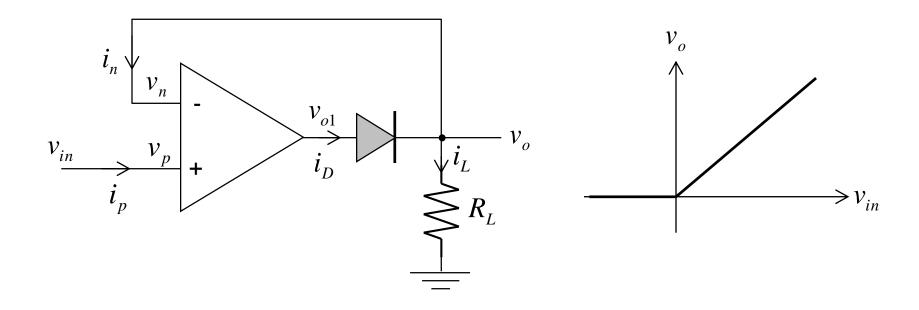
Precision Half Wave Rectifier



- For $v_{in} > 0$, the circuit behaves as a voltage follower, and $v_o = v_{in}$.
- The load current i_L is positive, and $i_D = i_L$.



Precision Half Wave Rectifier



- For $v_{in} < 0$, v_o starts to go –ve, producing –ve i_L and i_D .
- However, i_D cannot go –ve due to the diode.
- The diode cuts off and the feedback loop is broken, $v_o = 0$.

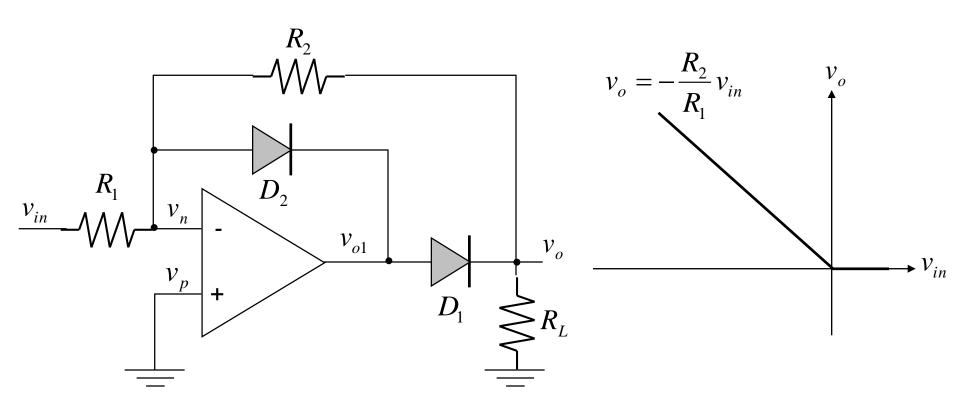


Precision Half Wave Rectifier

- Provides accurate rectification for very small input voltages and is sometimes called a *superdiode*.
- Problem for large negative input voltages
 - large voltage difference at op amp input, not a problem if the op amp has in-built protection.
 - $-v_{o1}$ is saturated at the negative supply. This is not harmful to the op amp, but internal circuits take time to recover from saturation, slowing down response time.



The saturation problem can be solved with the circuit below.





- When v_{in} is positive, v_{o1} is driven negative. D_2 is switched on and v_{o1} becomes $-V_D$. D_1 is reverse biased. v_p is at virtual ground, and $v_o = 0V$.
- When v_{in} is negative, v_{o1} is driven positive and D_2 is switched off. D_1 is switched on and the feedback loop goes through D_1 and R_2 . The circuit behaves like an inverting amplifier with gain $-R_2/R_1$.



Example 4:

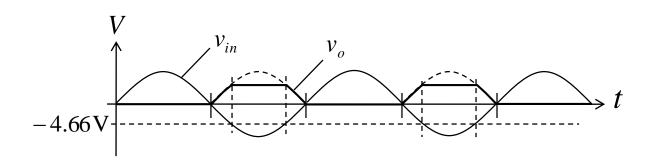
• Suppose the diodes have on-voltages of 0.6V, the power supply of the op amp is ± 15 V, $R_1 = 22$ k Ω and $R_2 = 68$ k Ω . What are the values of v_o and v_{o1} when $v_{in} = 2$ V, and -2V? Estimate the most negative input voltage for which the circuit will operate properly.



Example 4:



Example 4:





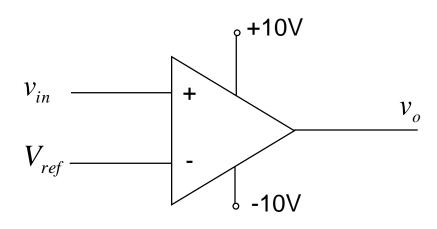
Circuits Using Positive Feedback

- All circuits up until now have used negative feedback.
- Positive feedback can be used to perform some useful non-linear functions, including:
 - Schmitt trigger
 - Square wave generator (Astable multivibrator)
 - Pulse generator (Monostable multivibrator)

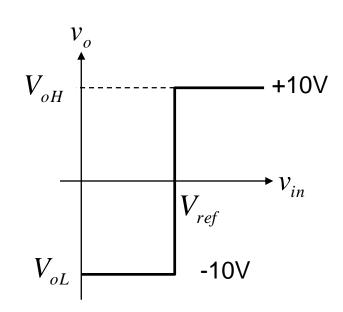


Comparator

- Compares a voltage to a known reference level, V_{ref} .
- Output
 - logic 1 when $v_{in} > V_{ref}$
 - logic 0 when $v_{in} < V_{ref}$



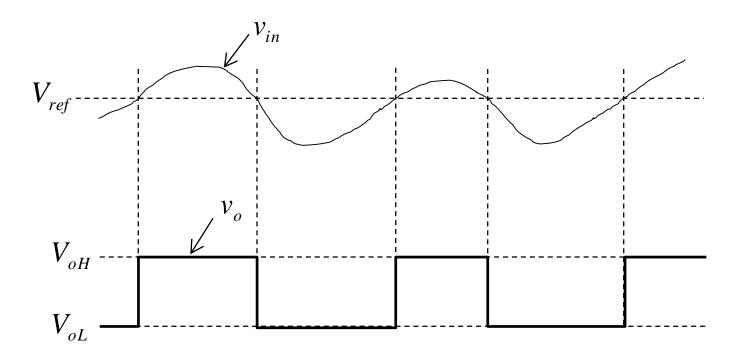
$$v_o = A_{v0} \left(v_p - v_n \right)$$





Comparator

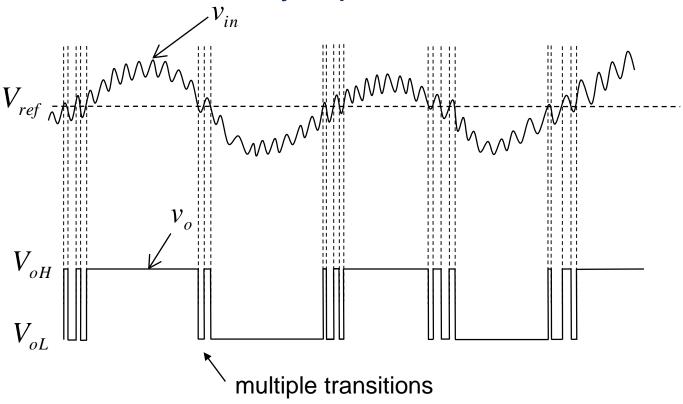
Example input/output waveforms:





Comparator

Problem for noisy input:

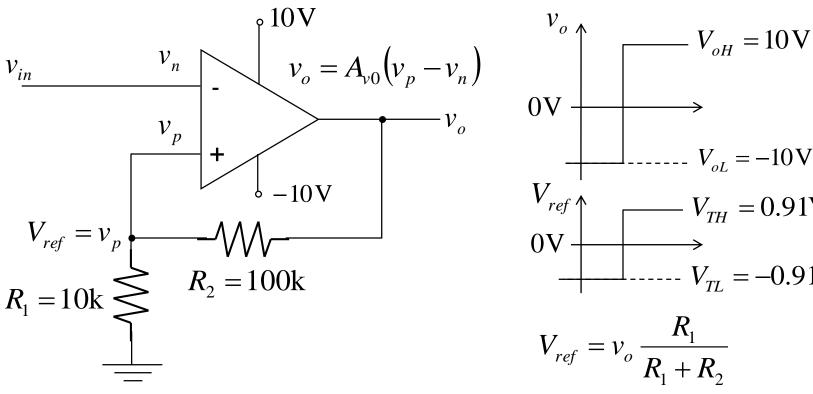


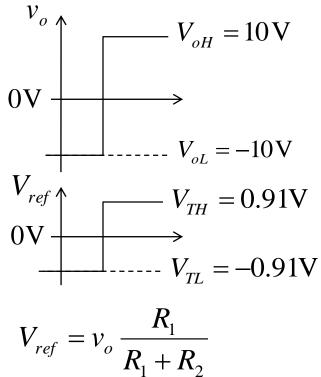


- The Schmitt trigger is like a comparator with two reference trigger levels.
- Positive feedback is used note that the virtual short condition does not apply



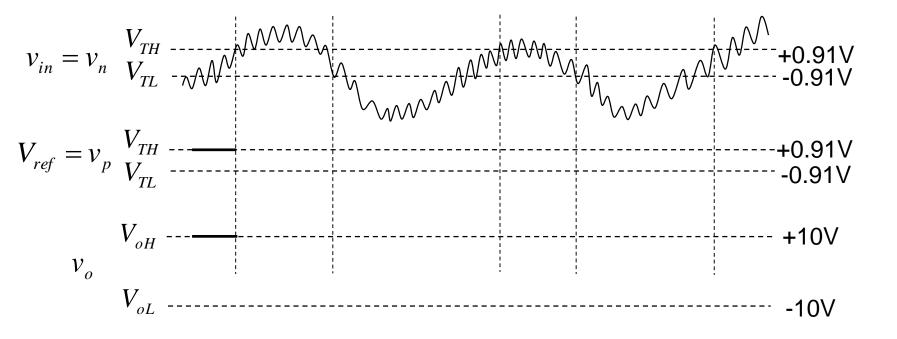
The reference voltage v_{ref} depends on the output v_0 .





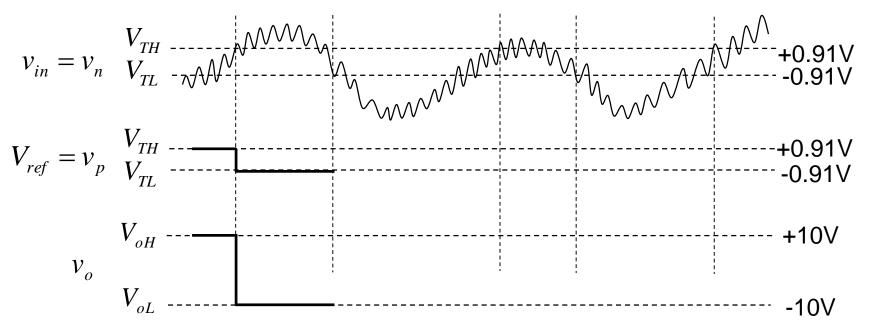


- Consider the case where $V_{in} < V_{TH}$.
- v_o is driven to v_{oH}
- V_{ref} is calculated from: $V_{ref} = V_{oH} \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$



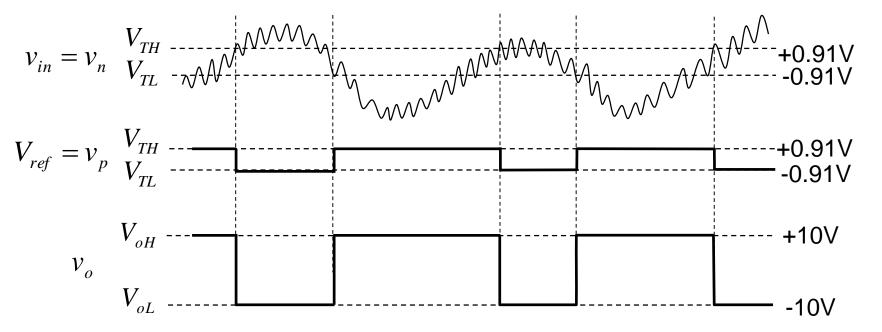


- When v_{in} increases and crosses V_{TH} , the output is driven low to V_{ol} .
- V_{ref} therefore becomes: $V_{ref} = V_{TL} = V_{oL} \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$
- while v_{in} remains higher than V_{ref} , the output will stay at V_{OL} .



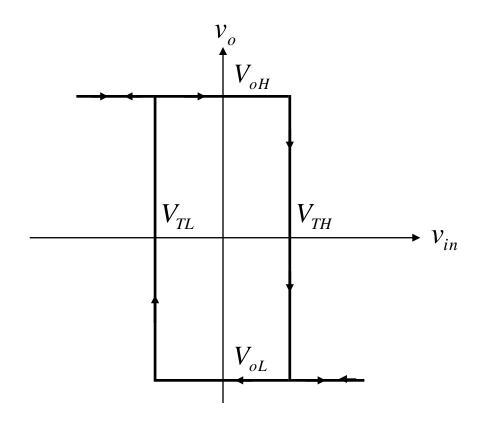


- When v_{in} decreases and crosses V_{TL} , the output is driven high to v_{oH} .
- V_{ref} therefore becomes: $V_{ref} = V_{TH} = V_{oH} \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$
- while v_{in} remains lower than V_{ref} , the output will stay at V_{OH} .





- The Schmitt trigger is said to exhibit hysteresis.
- Voltage transfer characteristic:





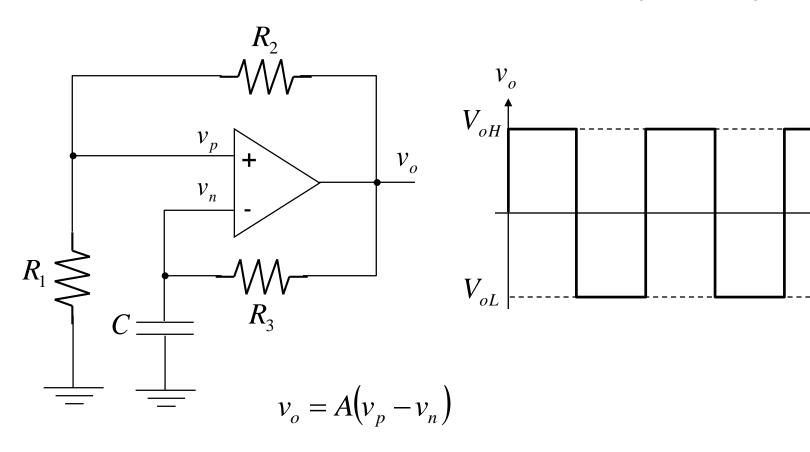
Multivibrator Circuits

- Astable Multivibrator: Circuit oscillates between two unstable states.
- Monostable Multivibrator: Circuit has one stable state, and one unstable state. An input signal can cause the circuit to change into the unstable state for a short period of time.
- Bistable Multivibrator: Circuit has two stable states.
 Input signals can cause the circuit to change state.
 Examples are latches and flip-flops.



Square Wave Generator (Astable Multivibrator)

Output oscillates between two states, v_{oH} and v_{oL}.

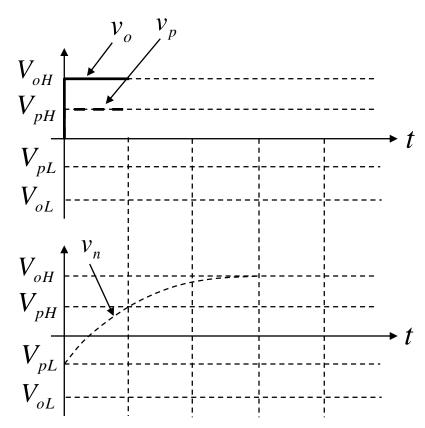




- Assume the output has just switched to V_{oH}.
- v_p therefore becomes:

$$v_p = V_{pH} = V_{oH} \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

• C charges towards V_{oH} through R_3 , with time constant $\tau = R_3C$





General equation for voltage across a capacitor:

$$v_c(t) = V_{final} + (V_{initial} - V_{final})e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$$

Therefore the equation for capacitor charge is:

$$v_{n} = V_{oH} + \left(V_{pL} - V_{oH}\right)e^{-\frac{t}{R_{3}C}}$$

$$v_{n} = V_{oH} + \left(\frac{V_{oL}R_{1}}{R_{1} + R_{2}} - V_{oH}\right)e^{-\frac{t}{R_{3}C}}$$

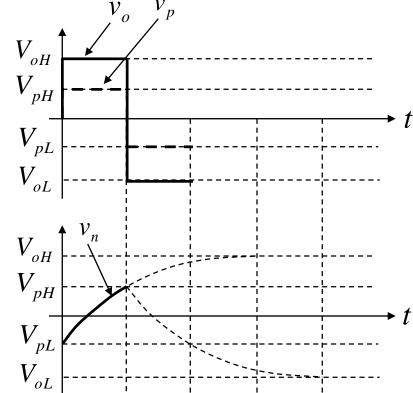


• When v_n crosses V_{pH} , output driven negative and $v_o = V_{ol}$.

v_p therefore becomes:

$$V_{p} = V_{pL} = V_{oL} \frac{R_{1}}{R_{1} + R_{2}}$$

 C discharges towards V_{oL} through R₃, with time constant τ = R₃C





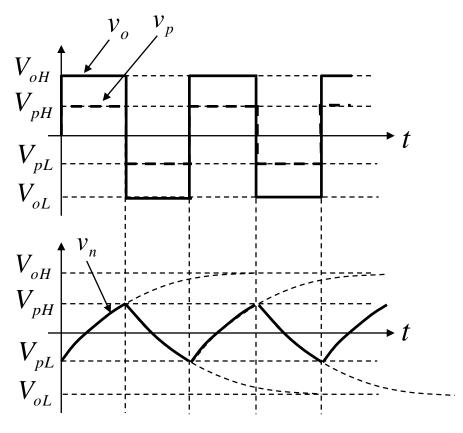
Equation for capacitor discharge:

$$v_{n} = V_{oL} + \left(V_{pH} - V_{oL}\right)e^{-\frac{t}{R_{3}C}}$$

$$v_{n} = V_{oL} + \left(\frac{V_{oH}R_{1}}{R_{1} + R_{2}} - V_{oH}\right)e^{-\frac{t}{R_{3}C}}$$



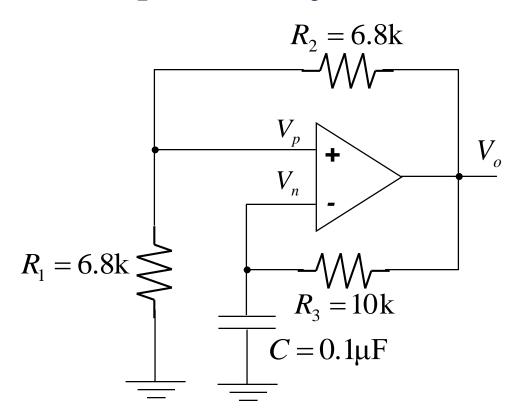
- When v_n crosses V_{pL} , output driven positive and $v_o = V_{oH}$.
- The cycle repeats resulting in a square wave v_o.



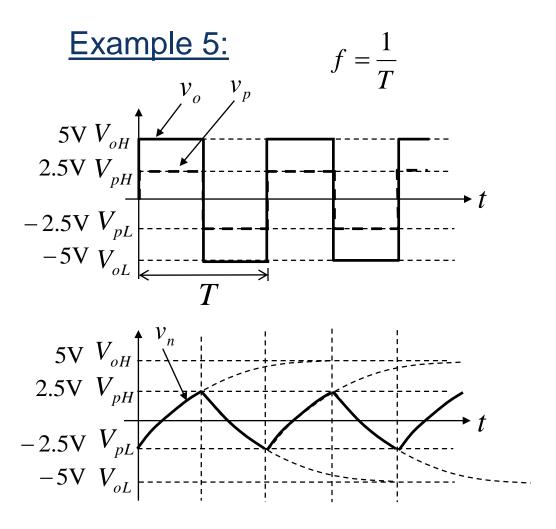


Example 5:

• What is the frequency of oscillation if V_{oH} =5V, V_{oL} = -5V, R_1 = R_2 = 6.8k Ω , R_3 = 10k Ω and C=0.1 μ F?









Example 5:

Capacitor charge/discharge equation:

$$v_c(t) = V_{final} + (V_{initial} - V_{final})e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$$

Therefore, when the capacitor is charging:

When v_n reaches V_{pH}:



Example 5:



Example 5:

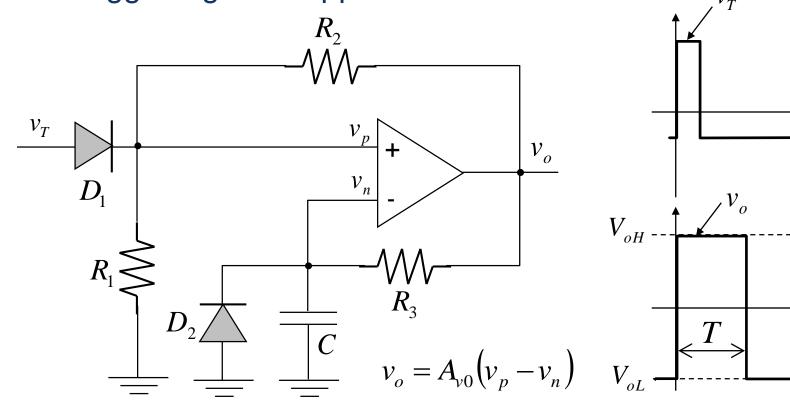


Pulse Generator (Monostable Multivibrator)

Has one stable state.

A single pulse of known duration is generated when a

trigger signal is applied.

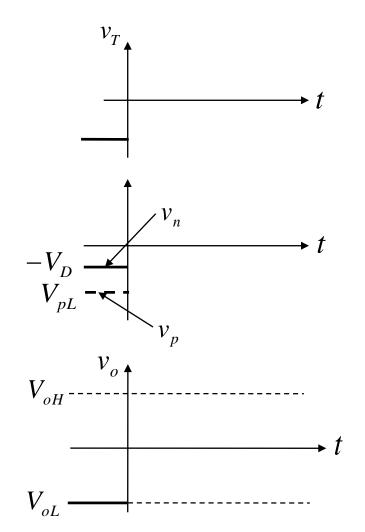




- The circuit rests in its quiescent state with $v_o = V_{oL}$.
- Voltage v_p is given by:

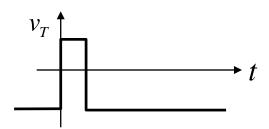
$$v_p = V_{pL} = V_{oL} \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

- While v_T remains less than $V_{pL}+V_D$, diode D_1 remains cut off.
- C discharges to V_{oL} until diode D_2 turns on, clamping v_n at $-V_D$.





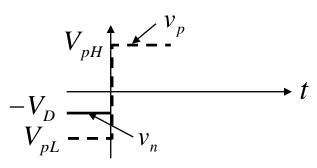
- A positive pulse is applied to v_T.
- Diode D_1 turns on, momentarily pulling node v_p greater than node v_n .

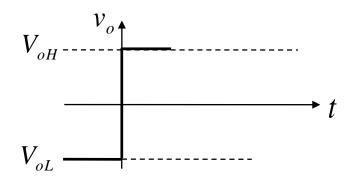


- This drives V_o positive to V_{oH} .
- Voltage at node v_p then becomes:

$$v_p = V_{pH} = V_{oH} \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

and diode D₁ then cuts off.



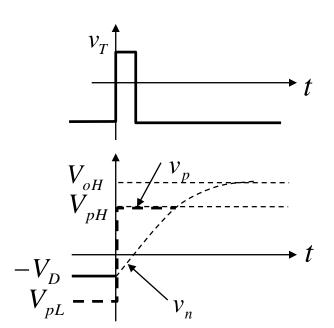


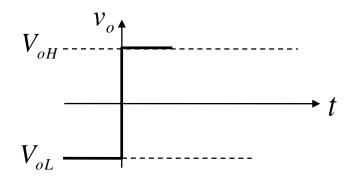


 Capacitor voltage v_n then charges through R₃ toward v_{oH}:

$$v_c(t) = V_{final} + (V_{initial} - V_{final})e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$$

$$v_n(t) = V_{oH} + (-V_D - V_{oH})e^{-\frac{t}{R_3C}}$$
 $-V_D = V_{oL} - V_D = V_D$







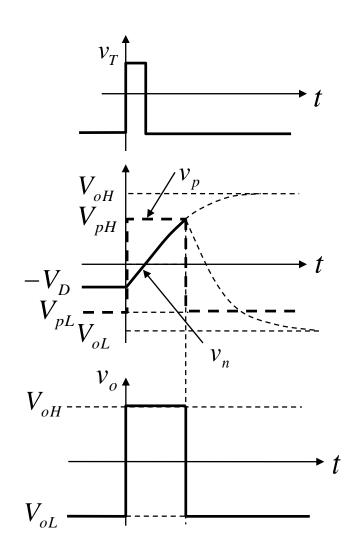
- When v_n crosses v_p , the output is driven negative to V_{ol} .
- Voltage v_p then becomes:

$$v_p = V_{pL} = V_{oL} \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

 Capacitor C discharges through R₃ toward V_{ol}:

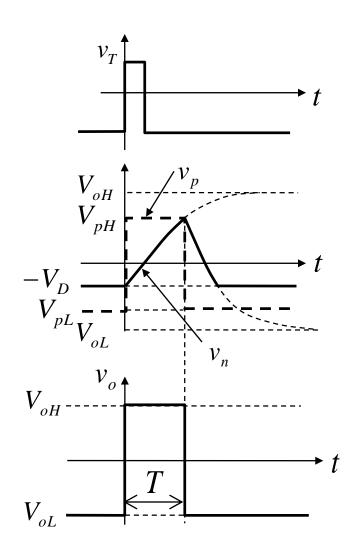
$$v_c(t) = V_{final} + (V_{initial} - V_{final})e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$$

$$v_n(t) = V_{oL} + (V_{oH} - V_{oL})e^{-\frac{t}{R_3C}}$$





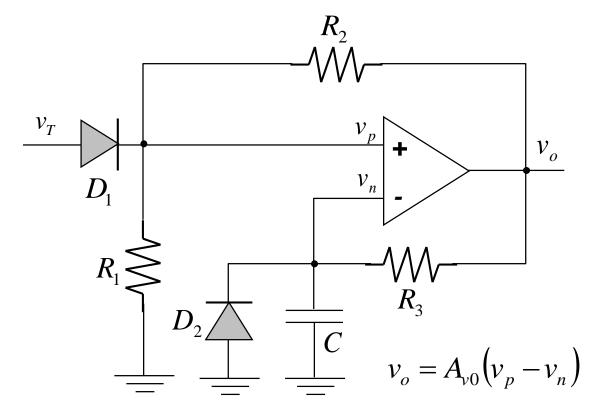
- C discharges to V_{oL} until diode D₂ turns on, clamping v_n at –V_D.
- The output v_o will remain at V_{oL} until another trigger pulse is applied.





Example 6:

• What is the width of the pulse if V_{oH} = 5V, V_{oL} = -5V, V_D = 0.7V, R_1 = 22k Ω , R_2 = 18k Ω , R_3 = 10k Ω and C=0.2 μ F?

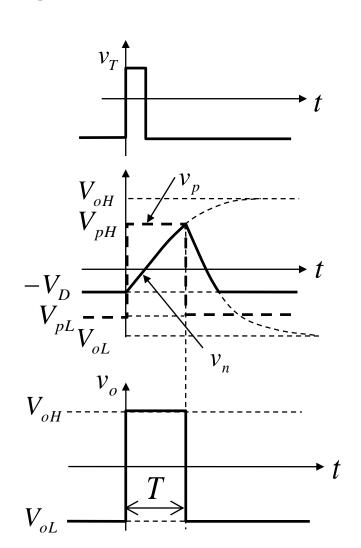




Pulse Generator

Example 6:

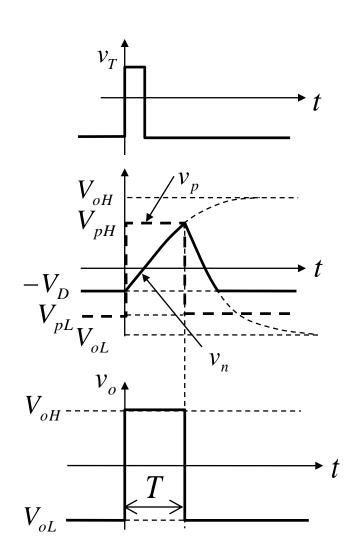
Capacitor charge:





Pulse Generator

Example 6:





Pulse Generator

Example 6:



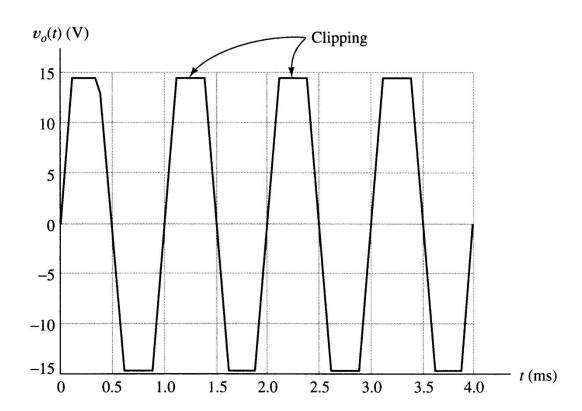
Op Amp Limitations

- Output voltage swing
- Slew rate
- Input bias currents and offset voltages



Output Voltage Swing

- Range of output voltage depends on the type of op amp, and the power supply voltages.
- Eg, if power supply voltages are ±15V:

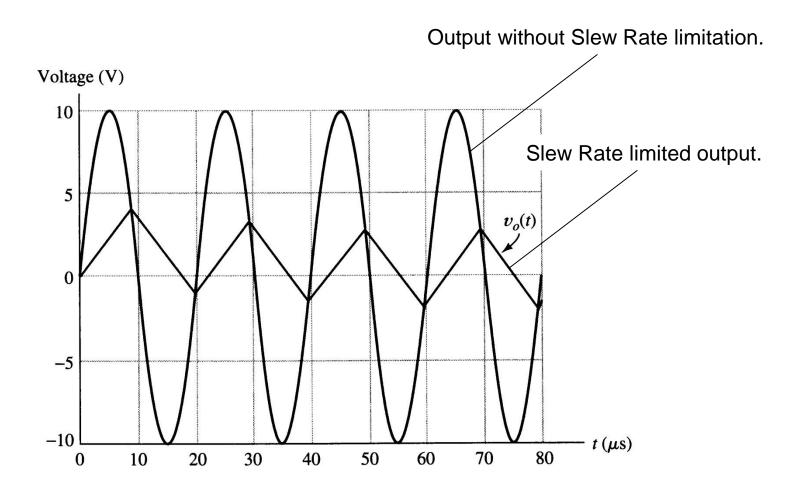




- Rate of change of the output voltage is limited.
- The slew rate (SR) is the maximum rate that the output of the op amp can change from most positive to most negative.
- Limits the maximum amplitude of signal that can be amplified without distortion.
- Typical values:

$$0.1V/\mu s \leq SR \leq 10V/\mu s$$





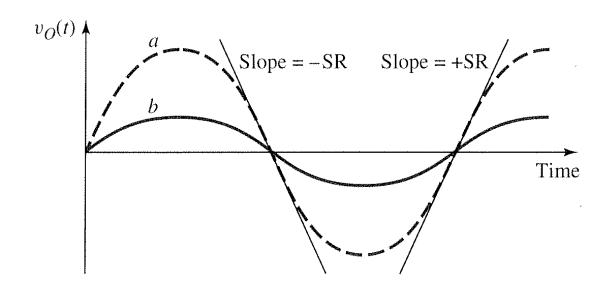


- The *Full Power Bandwidth* (f_{FP}) is the frequency at which the op amp becomes slew rate limited.
- The Full Power Bandwidth is the maximum frequency at which the op amp can produce undistorted output with maximum amplitude.

$$f_{FP} = \frac{\text{SR}}{2\pi V_{O(\text{max})}}$$



- The Full Power Bandwidth can be considerably less than the small signal bandwidth.
- Small signals will be unaffected by slew rate as the rate of change is less than large signals.



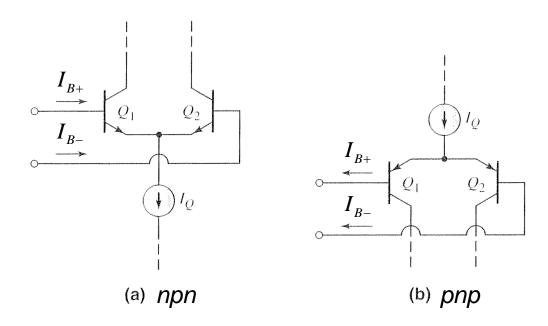


Example

• An amplifier has a gain bandwidth product of $f_T=1MHz$, and closed loop gain of 10. The slew rate is $0.63V/\mu s$, and the desired peak output voltage is 10V. Find the small signal bandwidth and the Full Power Bandwidth.



- Non-zero input currents:
 - $-I_{B+}$ is the DC current flowing into the non-inverting input.
 - I_{B-} is the DC current flowing into the inverting input.





Average of the input DC currents is called the bias current:

$$I_{B} = \frac{I_{B+} + I_{B-}}{2}$$

Typical

30nA for the 741 op amp



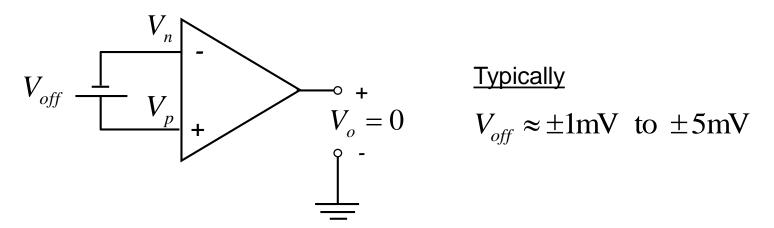
- If the input stage of the op amp is symmetrical, the bias currents will be equal.
- In practice, the DC currents are not equal, and the difference is called the offset current:

$$I_{off} = \left| I_{B+} - I_{B-} \right|$$

typically about 20-50 % of the bias current.

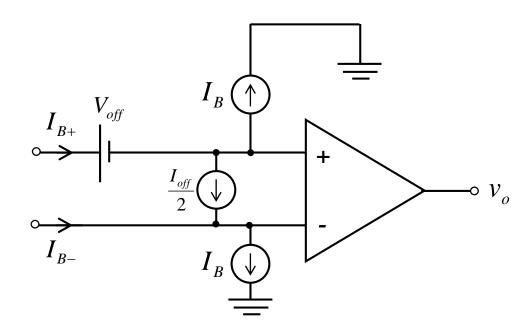


- The output voltage might be non-zero for zero input voltage. The op amp behaves as if a small DC offset voltage V_{off} is in series with one of the input terminals.
- The offset voltage is defined as the input differential voltage that must be applied to the open loop op amp to produce a zero output voltage.



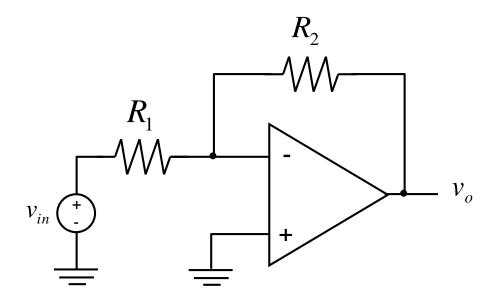


 bias current, offset current and offset voltage can be modelled as shown below:

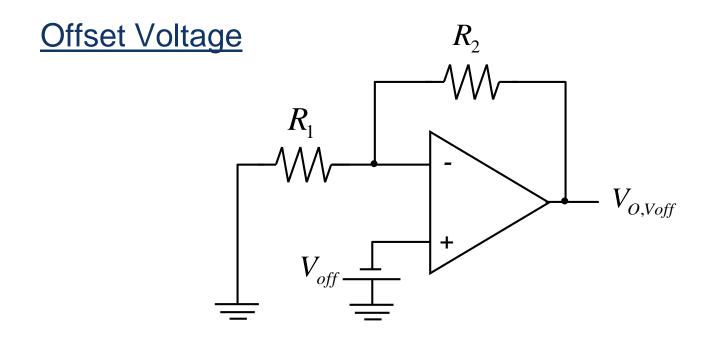




 For the the inverting amp below, determine offset voltage at the output due all DC offset sources:



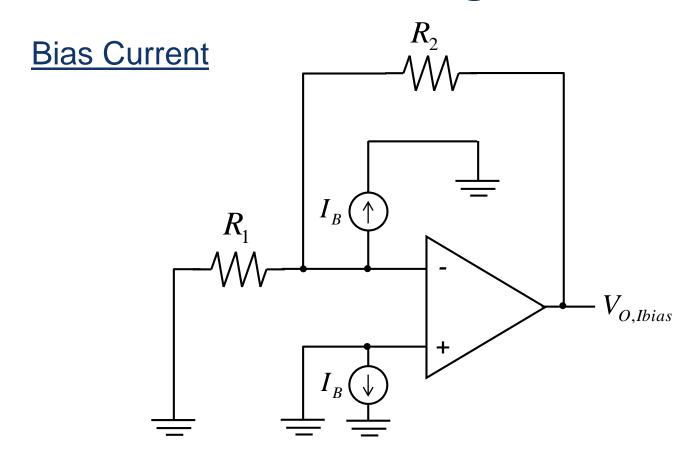




• Output offset voltage due to $V_{\it off}$:

$$V_{O,Voff} = -\left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)V_{off}$$





$$V_{O,Ibias} = R_2 I_B$$



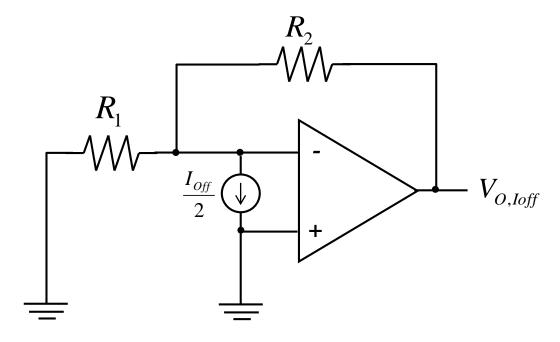
Bias Current

$$V_{in,Ibias} = I_B (R_1 // R_2) = I_B \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$V_{o,Ibias} = V_{in,Ibias} \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) = I_B \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \left(\frac{R_1 + R_2}{R_1} \right) = R_2 I_B$$



Offset Current



$$V_{O,loff} = \frac{R_2 I_{off}}{2}$$



 Using the principle of superposition, the DC output voltage is the sum of all sources acting individually:

$$V_{O(Off)} = V_{O,Voff} + V_{O,Ibias} + V_{O,Ioff}$$



Example

For a given op amp, the maximum bias current, offset current and input offset voltage are: 100nA, ±40nA, and ±2mV respectively. Find the worst case DC output of an inverting amp if $R_1 = 10$ kΩ, $R_2 = 100$ kΩ, and $V_{in} = 0$.

$$V_{O,Voff(\text{max})} = -\left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)V_{Off} =$$

$$V_{O,Voff(\min)} = -\left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)V_{Off} =$$



Example

$$V_{O,Ibias(max)} = R_2 I_B =$$

$$V_{O,Ibias(min)} = R_2 I_B =$$

$$V_{O,Ioff(\max)} = \frac{R_2 I_{Off}}{2} =$$

$$V_{O,Ioff(\min)} = \frac{R_2 I_{Off}}{2} =$$



Example

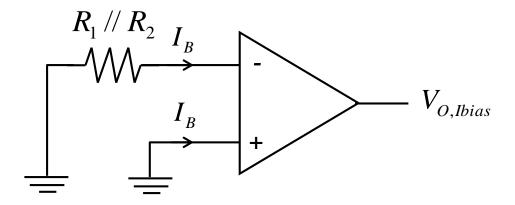
$$V_{O_O\!f\!f(\max)} =$$

$$V_{O_Off(\min)} =$$

Output voltage offset ranges from -24mv to 34mV.



Reducing the Effect of Bias Current



Additional input offset voltage due to bias current:

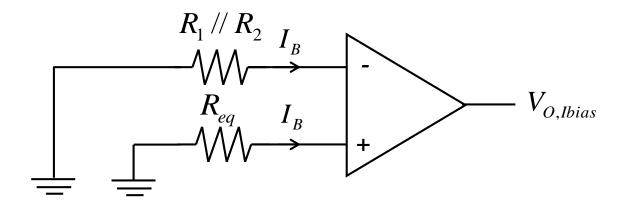
$$V_{in,Ibias} = I_B (R_1 // R_2)$$



Reducing the Effect of Bias Current

Reducing Effect of Input Bias Current

 Design the circuit so that the resistances looking out of the op amp inputs are equal to each other:

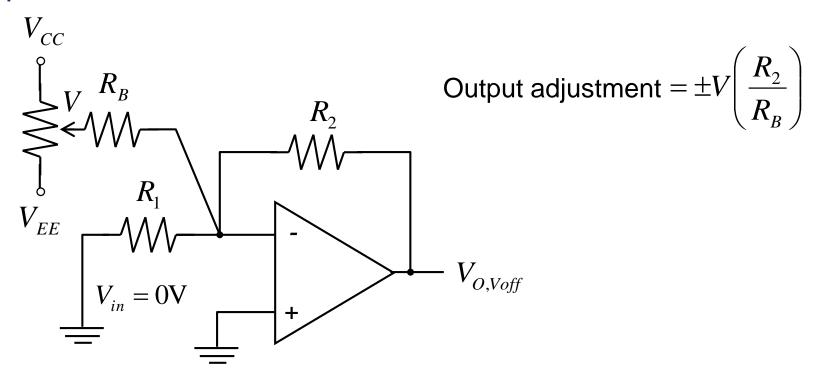


$$R_{eq} = R_1 // R_2$$



Compensating for Offset Voltage

Can adjust the output offset voltage to zero using a potentiometer:

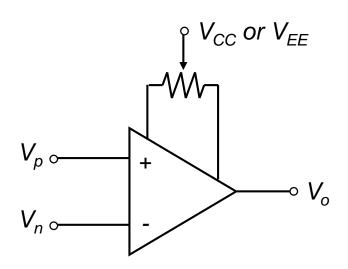


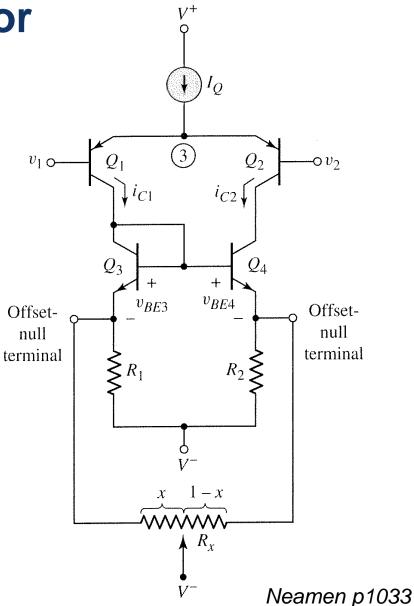
• Set V_{in} to 0V and adjust the potentiometer until $V_{O,Voff}=0$.



Compensating for Offset Voltage

 Can also use the offset null terminals of the op amp:







Compensating for Offset Voltage

- If the potentiometer is centred, then equal resistances are connected to each branch of the input diff-amp stage.
- If the potentiometer is off-centre, then unequal resistance is connected to each branch.
- This introduces an asymmetry in the circuit, and therefore an offset voltage. This offset voltage can be adjusted to compensate for the input offset voltage of the circuit.