

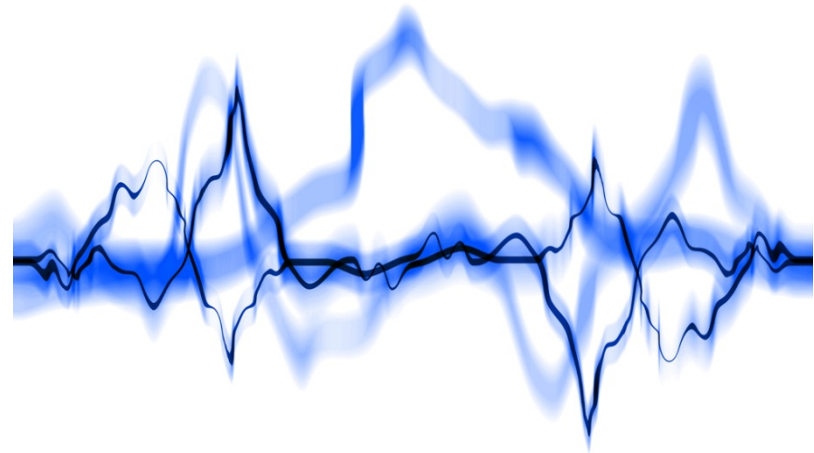
Last time:

Noise and Electromagnetic Compatibility



Chapter 22

- Introduction
- Noise sources
- Representing noise sources within equivalent circuits
- Noise in bipolar transistors
- Noise in FETs
- Signal-to-noise ratio
- Noise Figure
- Designing for low-noise applications
- Electromagnetic compatibility
- Designing for EMC



23.1

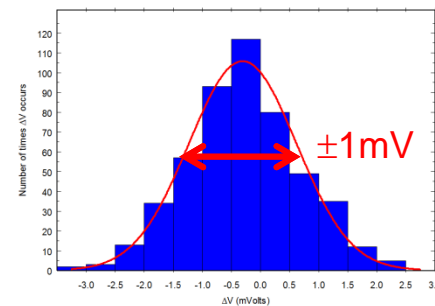
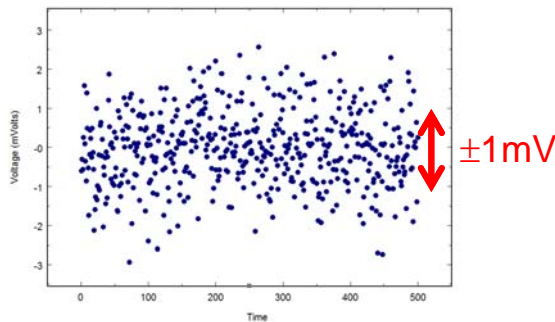
Last time: Device noise

- Thermal or Johnson noise $V_{n(\text{rms})} = (4 \cdot k \cdot T \cdot R \cdot BW)^{1/2}$
 - Random thermal motion of charge carriers in resistive materials (both BJT and FET's)
 - Gaussian and white
- Shot noise (current noise) $I_{n(\text{rms})} = (2 \cdot e \cdot I \cdot BW)^{1/2}$
 - Statistical fluctuations in the number of charge carriers flowing
 - Most apparent at low current levels
 - Source of noise in BJT transistors from low I_B flow across p-n potential barriers.
 - ~Gaussian and white
- 1/f noise
 - Variety of sources.
 - Most common is **flicker noise**, the variation of diffusion of charge carriers in devices
 - Common source of noise in FET devices
 - Power increases at low frequencies \Rightarrow “red” (6dB/octave) or “pink” (3dB/octave) noise

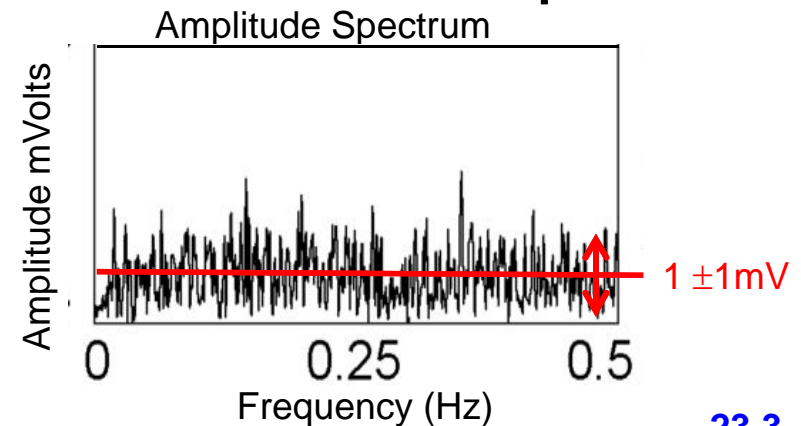
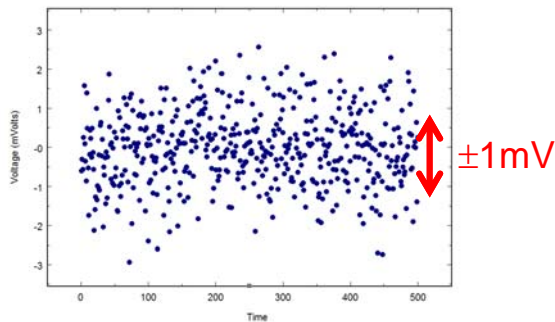
23.2

Definition of Gaussian white noise:

- Gaussian=deviations follow normal distribution



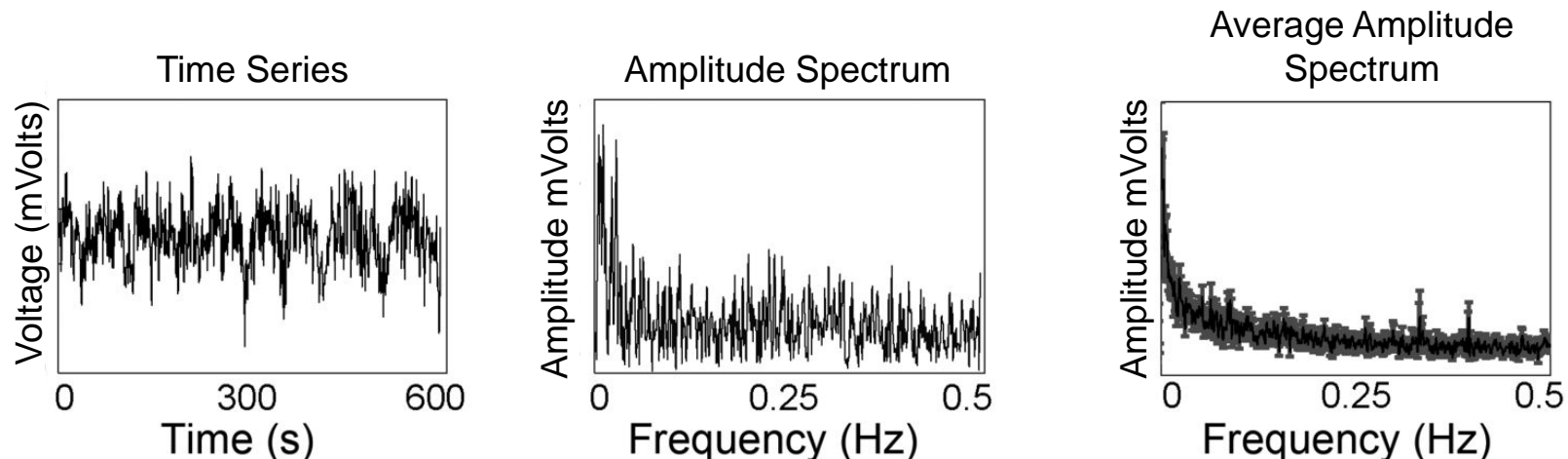
- White-all frequencies have the same amplitude



23.3

Red or pink noise

- Lower frequencies have higher amplitudes



- More power at low frequencies
 - Red increases 6dB/octave, Pink 3dB/octave, as frequency decreases
 - Example: a drifting baseline on detector with thermal noise

Figures of merit

- Signal quality: Signal to noise ratio
 - Average voltage level divided by RMS noise: $S/N \text{ ratio} = \left(\frac{V_s}{V_n} \right)$
 - Expressed in dB as: $S/N \text{ ratio (dB)} = 20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{V_s}{V_n} \right) \text{ dB}$
 - Can get V_s by averaging input samples
- Circuit quality: Noise figure
 - Measured output RMS noise divided by
Measured input RMS noise times the gain of the circuit:

$$NF(dB) = 20 \log_{10} \frac{\text{rms noise output voltage from amplifier}}{\text{rms noise output voltage from noiseless amplifier}}$$

- Questions?

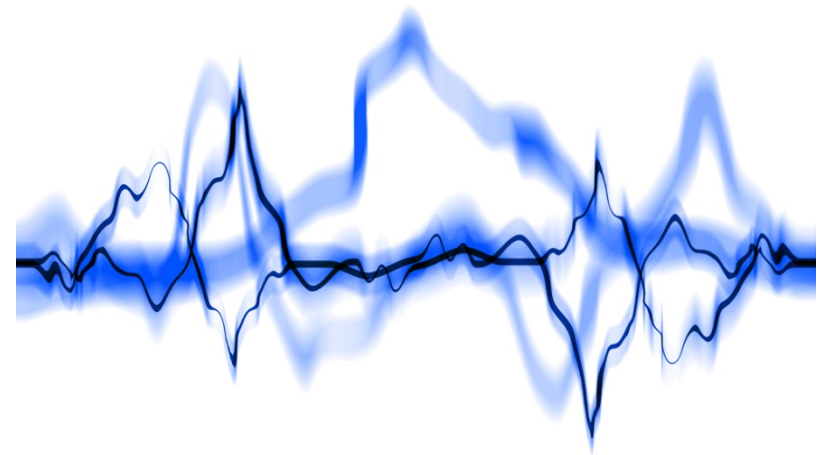
Today:

Noise and Electromagnetic Compatibility



Chapter 22

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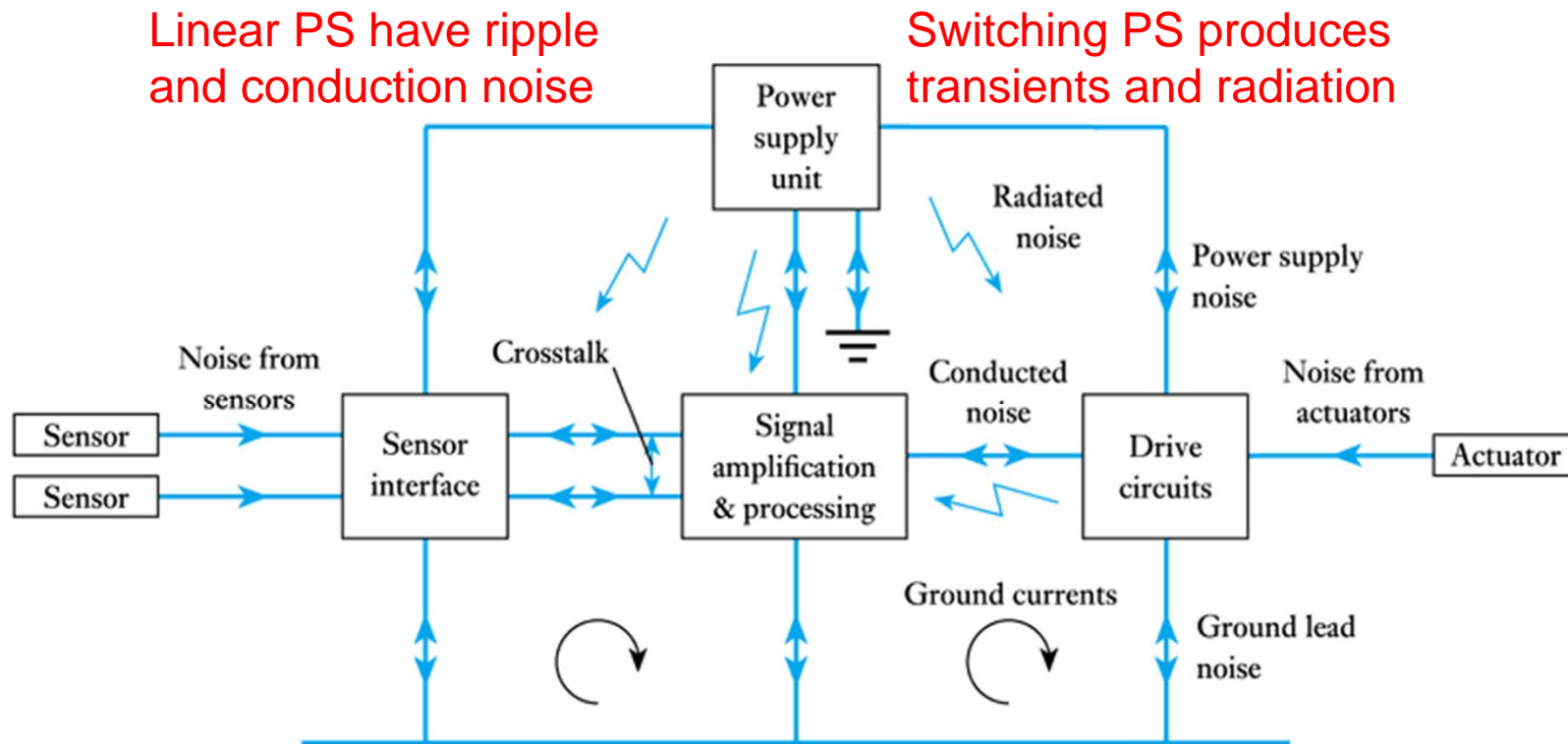


23.7

Other sources of noise

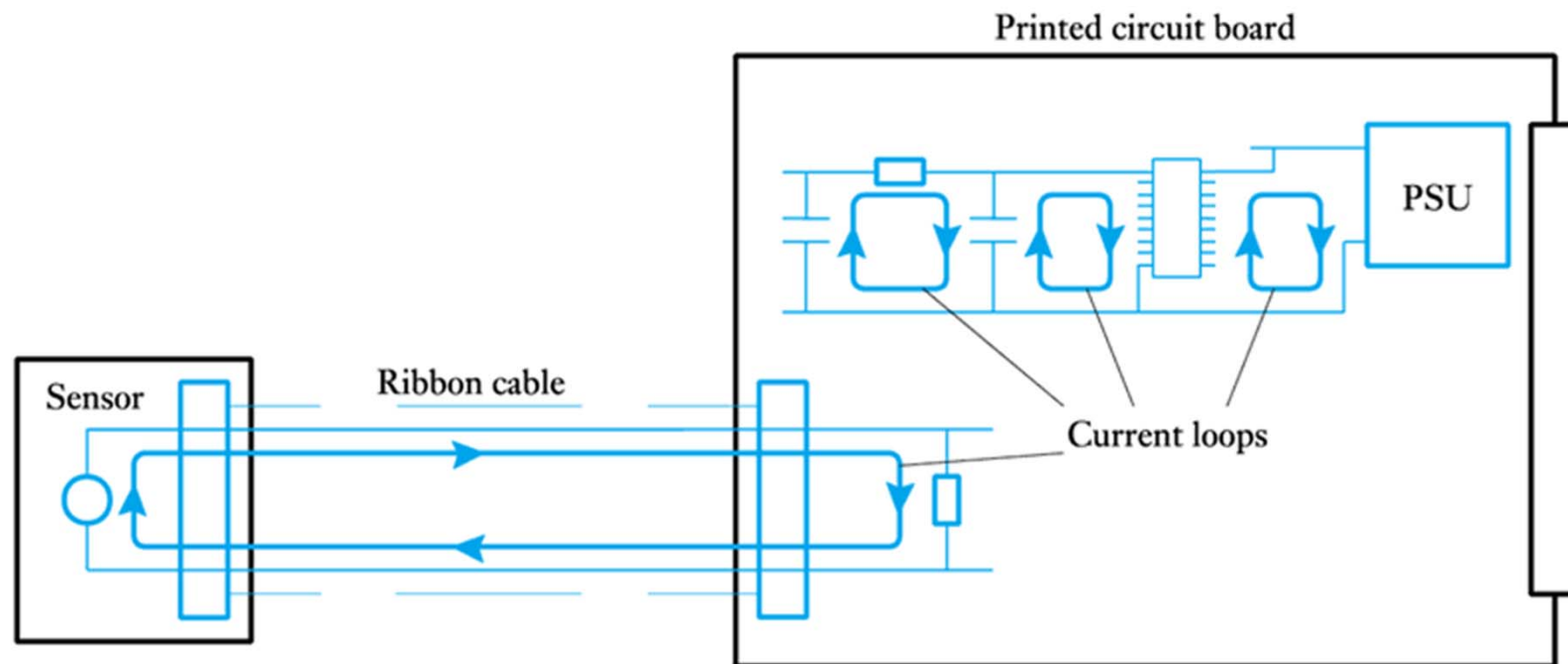
- Interference
 - Pick-up of electro-magnetic radiation in circuit
 - One part of the circuit to another
 - External sources of EM radiation

■ Electromagnetic coupling between stages

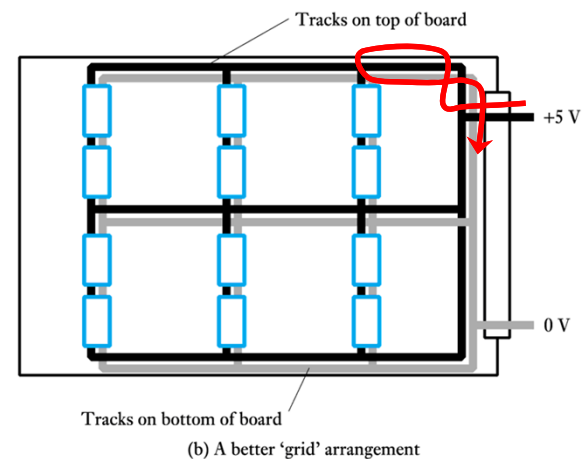
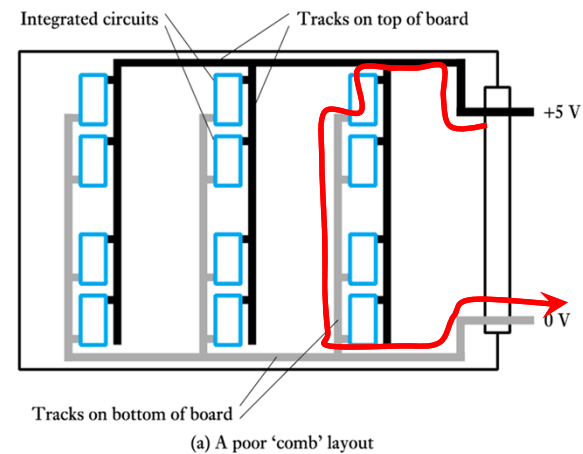


Designing for EMC

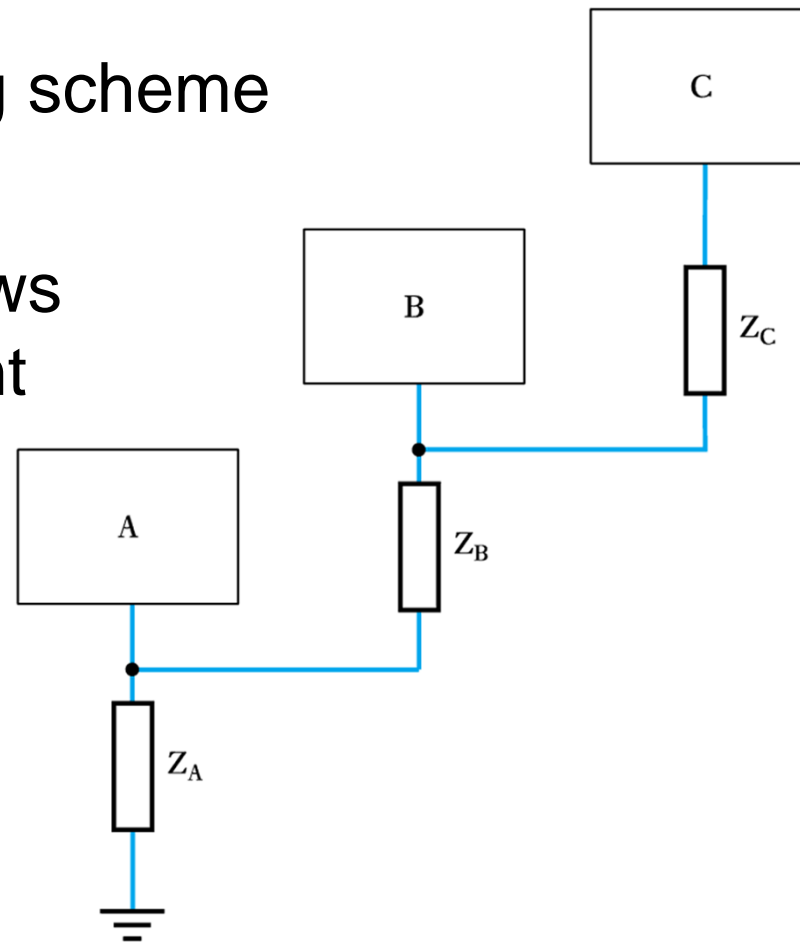
- Examples of current loops (or antennae) within circuits



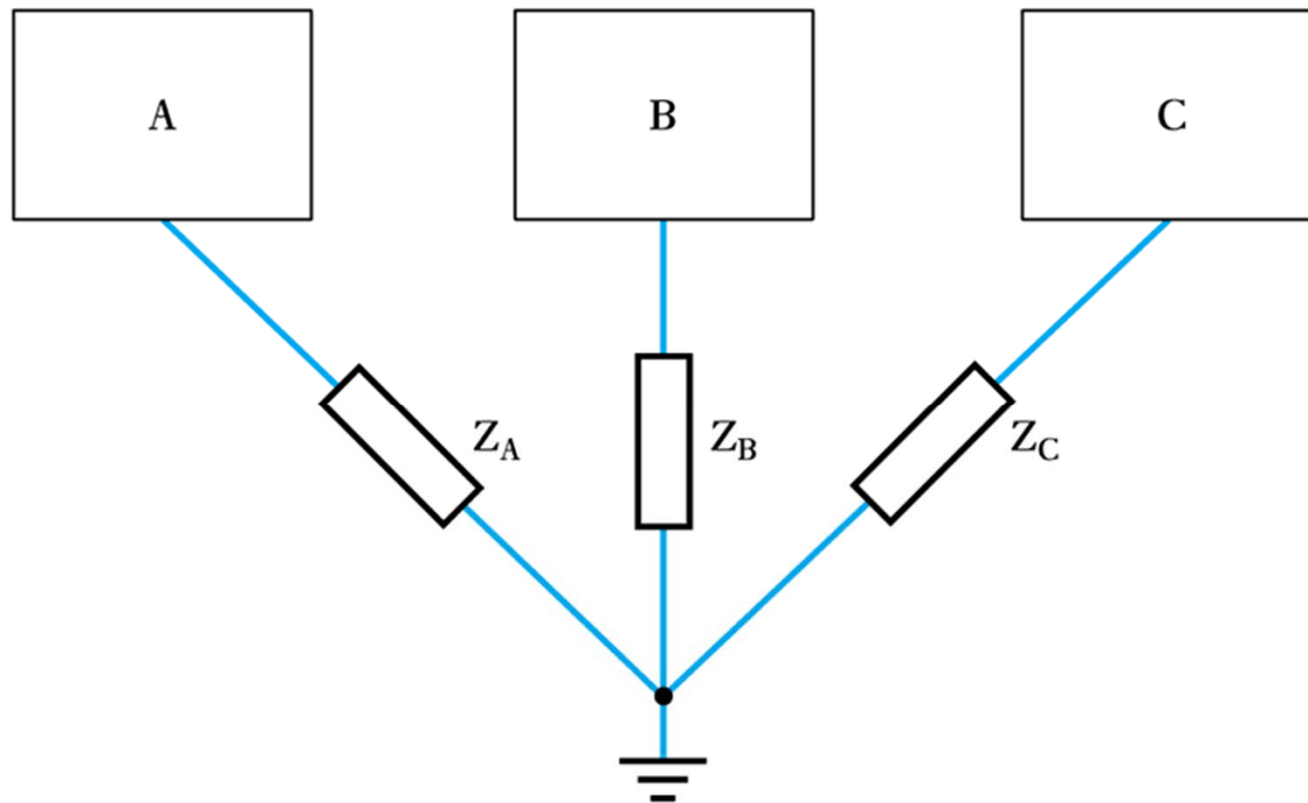
- Examples of power supply routing methods
- 2-Rail technique can allow large current loops to form
- Better to use grid
- Use rounded corners to reduce field strength
- Extend to power plane and ground plane in multi level boards



- A simple series grounding scheme
- If module B suddenly draws power, large return current will raise the potential of the ground point in A



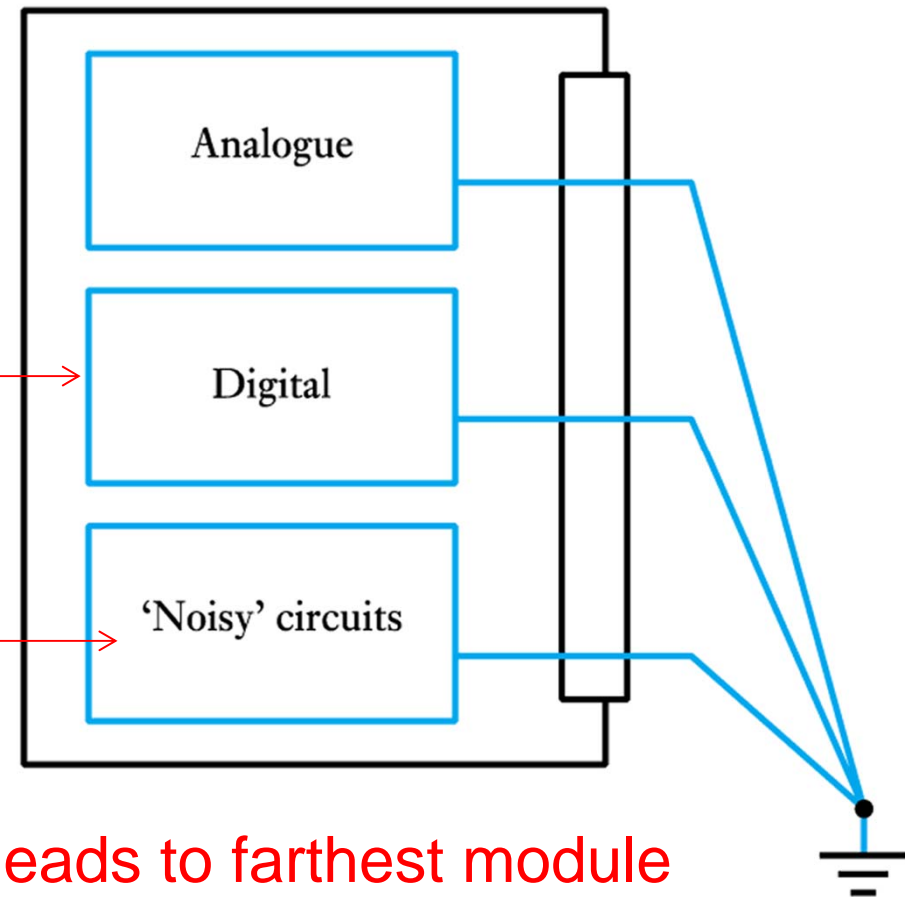
- A single-point grounding scheme uncouples modules



- System partitioning to reduce EMC problems

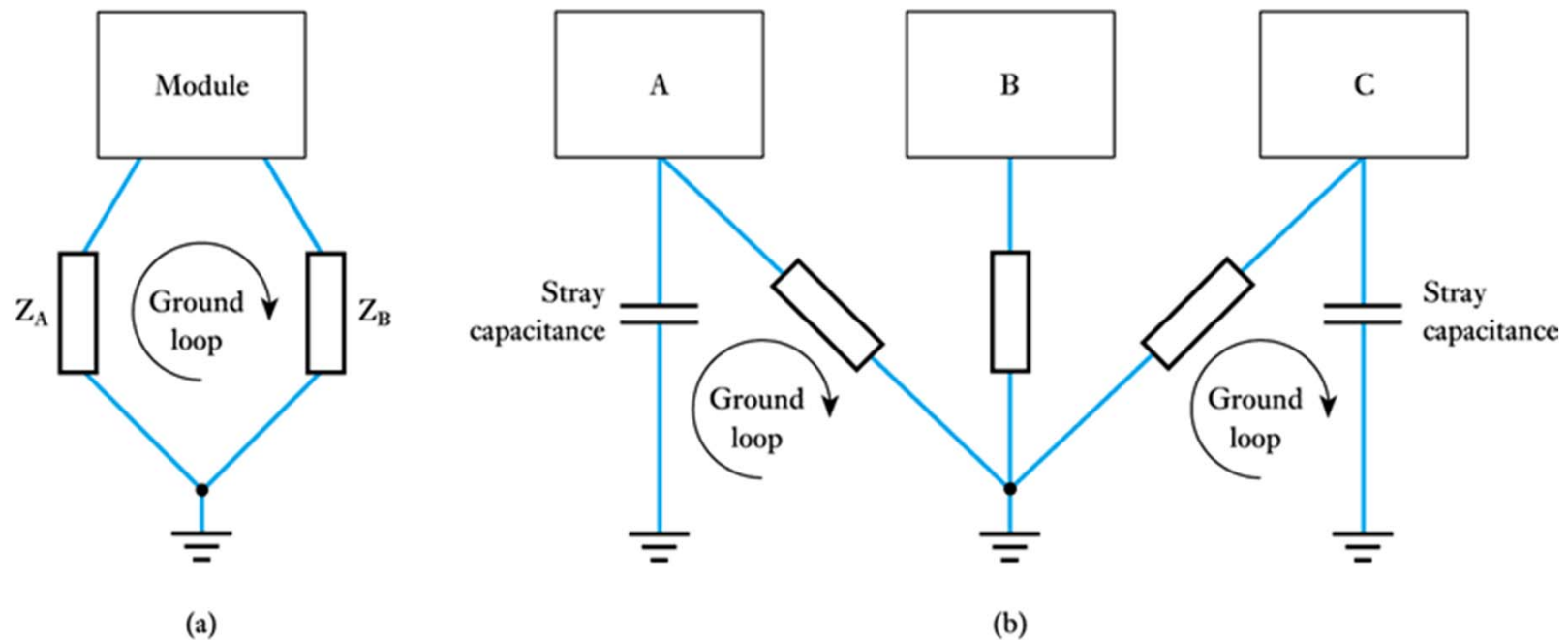
Less sensitive to noise
But better at producing it!
Clock signals & switching

E.g. power supplies,
oscillators, relays etc.

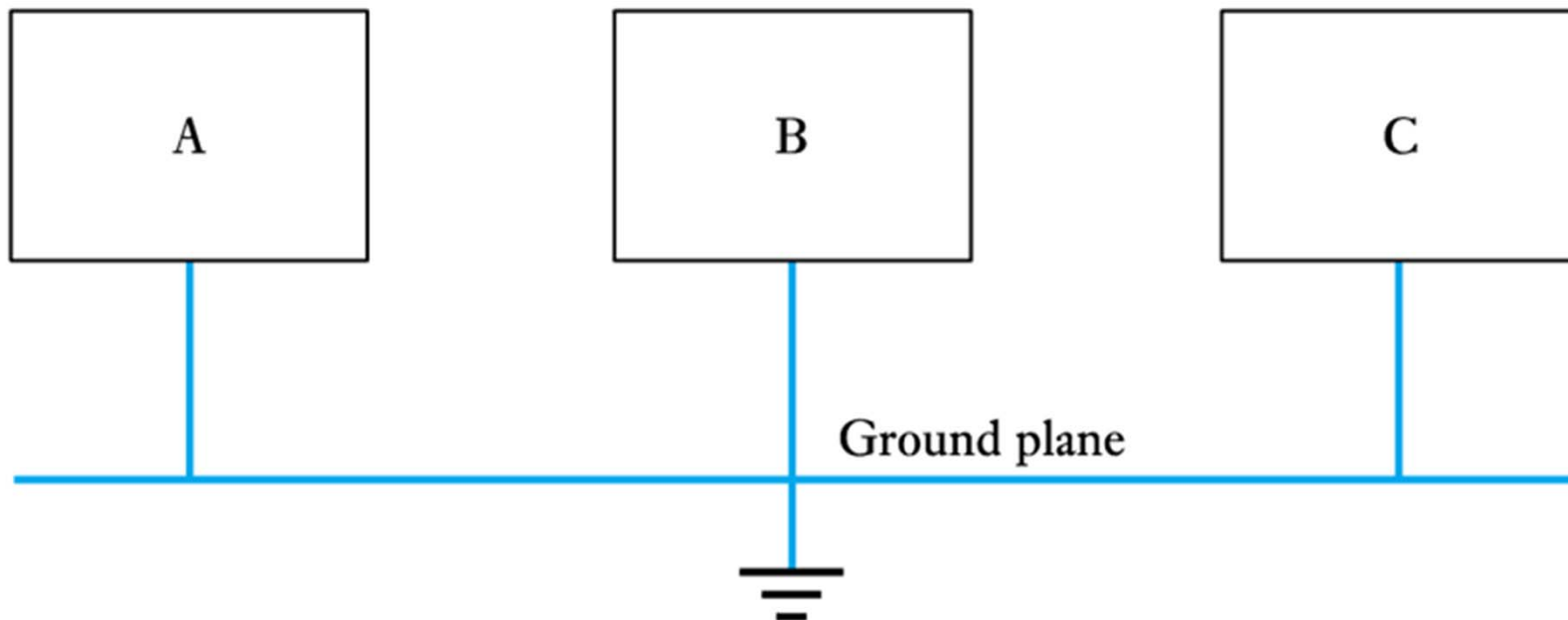


But can create long ground leads to farthest module

- Multiple paths to ground create Ground loops
- Stray capacitance at high frequency (> 1 MHz) can create loops where you least expect them

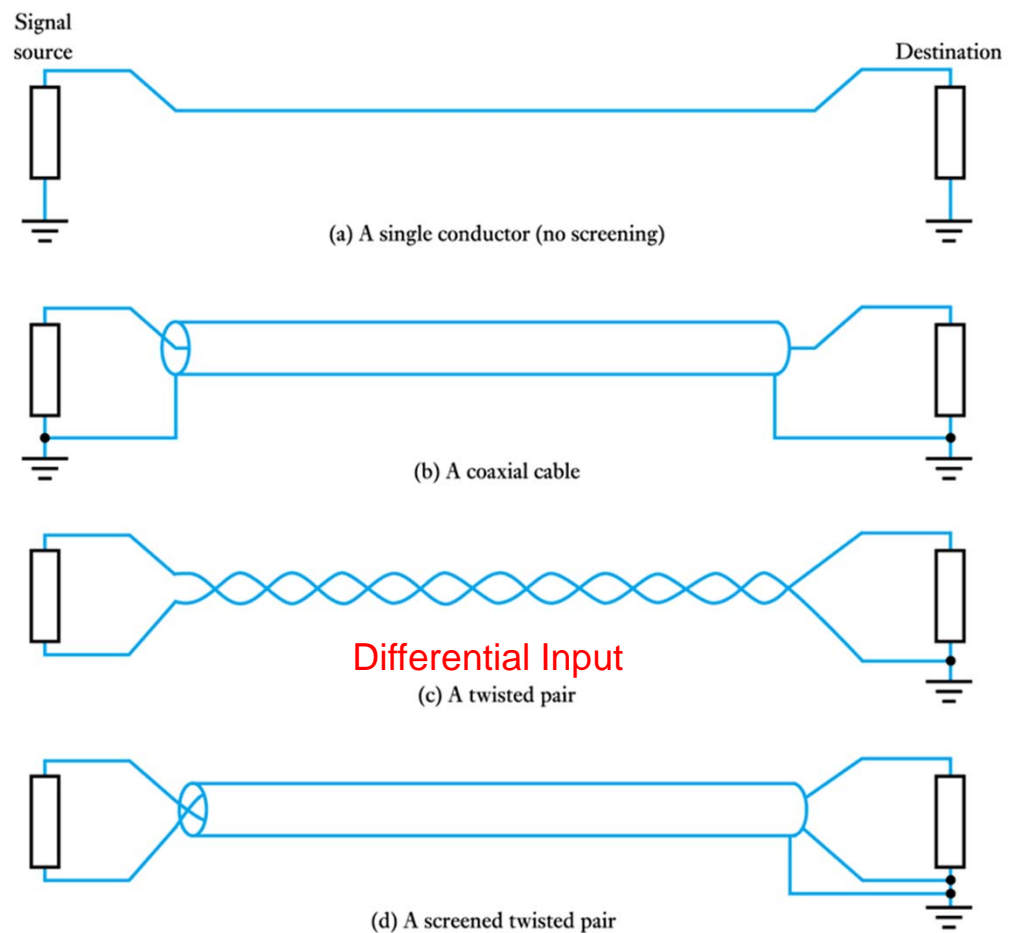


- A multipoint grounding scheme (good at high frequencies or modules where you don't know how they are grounded internally)



- Cable-screening techniques

- Can have separate Signal and Chassis grounds, tied at a single point.





Video 22C Further Study

Further Study

- The Further Study section at the end of Chapter 22 considers the implications of EMC for safety critical systems, such as those found within cars.
- Identify some of the safety-related systems within a modern car and consider how EMC related factors could affect their operation. Then, watch the video for a discussion of some of the issues involved.

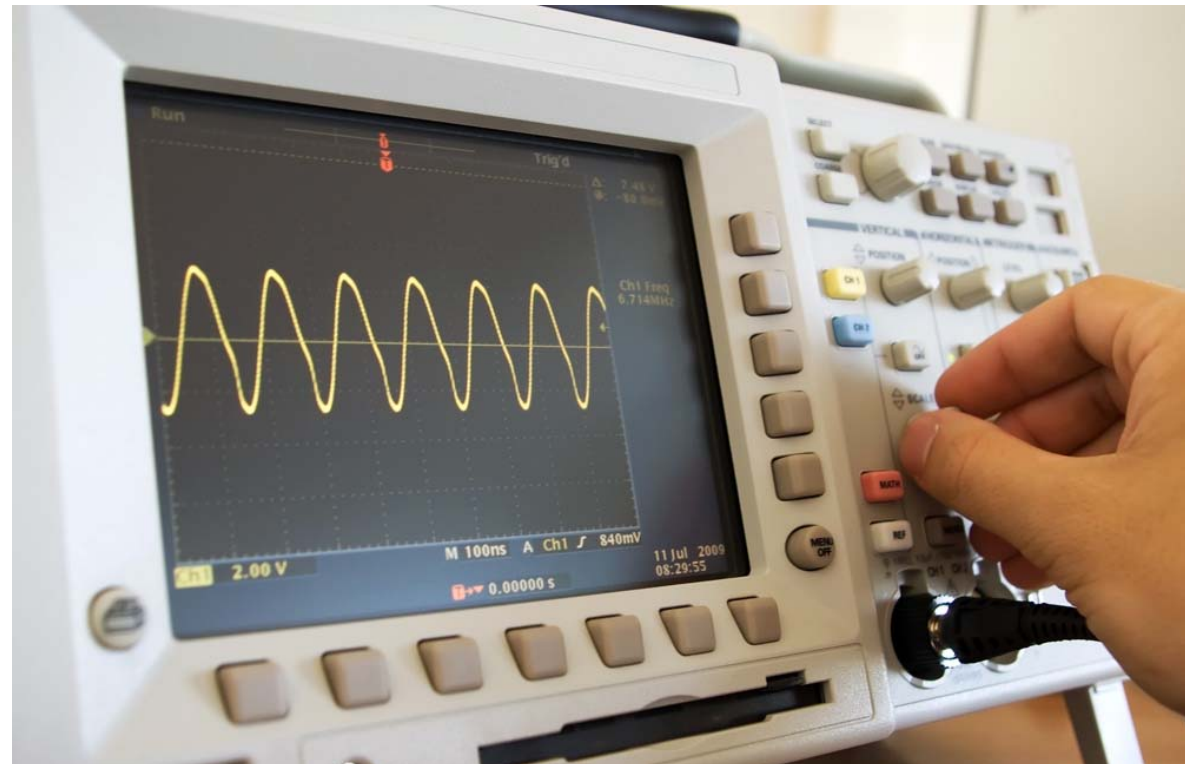


Key points

- Noise in electronic circuits can be of various forms, including thermal noise, shot noise, $1/f$ noise and interference
- Both bipolar transistors and FETs suffer from noise
- Electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) is concerned with the ability of a system to operate in the presence of interference and to not interfere with other equipment (or itself)
- Circuit layout plays a major role in determining EMC performance

Positive feedback, oscillators and stability

- Introduction
- Oscillators
- Stability





23.1

Introduction

- Earlier we looked at feedback in general terms
 - in particular we concentrated on negative feedback
- In this chapter we will consider **positive feedback**
 - this is used in both analogue and digital circuits
 - it is used in the production of **oscillators**
 - positive feedback can also occur unintentionally within circuits, when it has implications for **stability**

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Oscillators

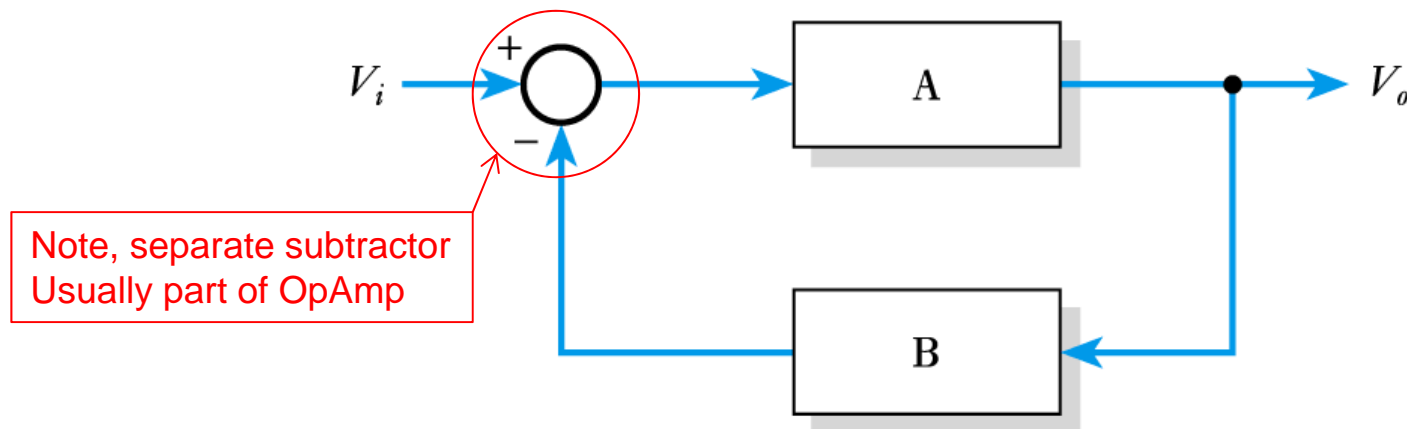


Video 23A



23.2

- Earlier we looked at a generalised feedback system



- We also derived the closed-loop gain G of this

$$G = \frac{A}{(1 + AB)}$$

23.22

If either A or B (but not both) invert the signal (ie gain < 0), then the output will be 180° out of phase with the input)

- Looking at the expression

$$G = \frac{A}{(1 + AB)}$$

we note that when $AB = -1$, the gain is infinite

– this represents the condition for oscillation

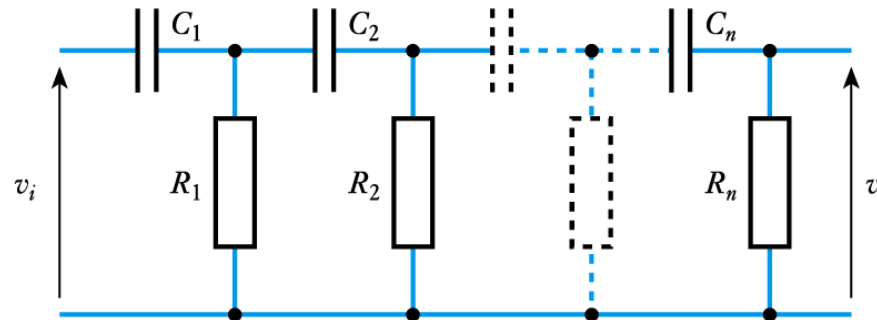
- The requirements for oscillation are described by the **Baukhausen criterion:**

1. The magnitude of the loop gain AB must be 1.
2. The phase shift of the loop gain AB must be 180°, or 180° plus an integer multiple of 360°

Solve this using a nodal analysis with $Z_C = -j/(\omega C)$, $Z_R = R$
Assign V to each of the nodes (note node 1 = V_i , node 3 = V_o)
Assign currents at each node, and $I = V/R$.

■ RC or phase-shift oscillator

- one way of producing a phase shift of 180° is to use an **RC ladder network**



- an arrangement with three identical stages gives a phase shift of 180° when
$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi CR\sqrt{6}}$$
- at this frequency the gain of the network is
$$\frac{v_o}{v_i} = -\frac{1}{29}$$

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Example solution 3 RC pairs:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{ZC1} & \frac{1}{ZC1} + \frac{1}{ZC2} + \frac{1}{R1} & -\frac{1}{ZC2} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{ZC2} & \frac{1}{ZC2} + \frac{1}{ZC3} + \frac{1}{R2} & -\frac{1}{ZC3} \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{ZC3} & \frac{1}{ZC3} + \frac{1}{R3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Vi \\ V1 \\ V2 \\ Vo \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -I\omega C & 2I\omega C + \frac{1}{R} & -I\omega C & 0 \\ 0 & -I\omega C & 2I\omega C + \frac{1}{R} & -I\omega C \\ 0 & 0 & -I\omega C & I\omega C + \frac{1}{R} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Vi \\ V1 \\ V2 \\ Vo \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving for V_i in terms of V_o to get V_o/V_i

Yields

$$\frac{v_o}{v_i} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{5}{(\omega CR)^2} - j\left(\frac{6}{\omega CR} - \frac{1}{(\omega CR)^3}\right)}$$

For real gain

$$\frac{6}{\omega \cdot C \cdot R} = \frac{1}{(\omega \cdot C \cdot R)^3}$$

Or

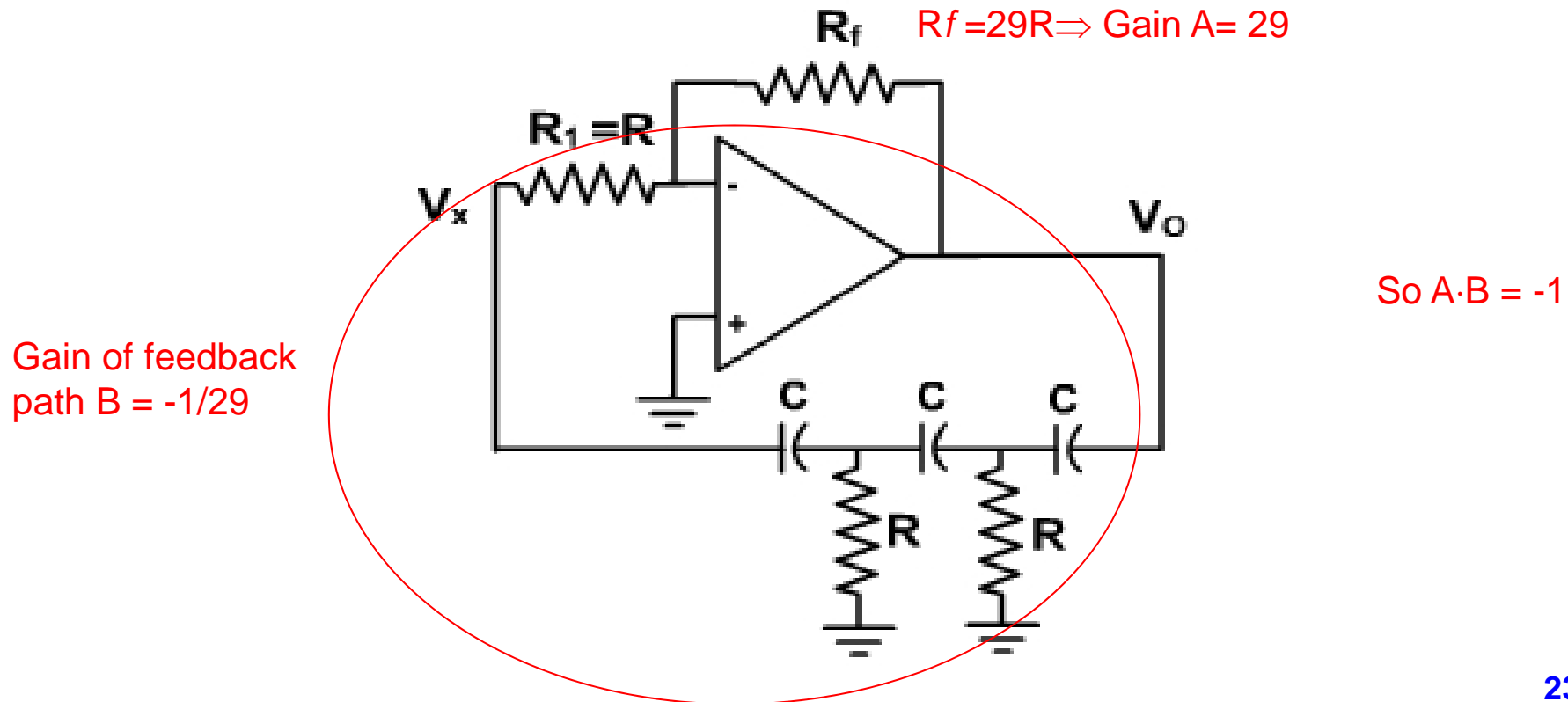
$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi CR\sqrt{6}}$$

And $\frac{V_o}{V_i} = -\frac{1}{29}$

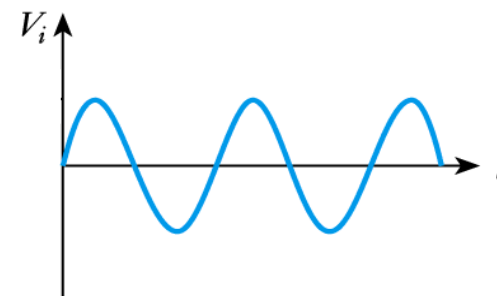
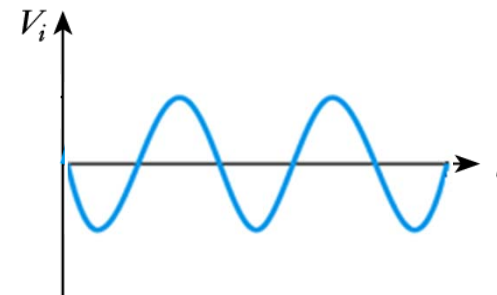
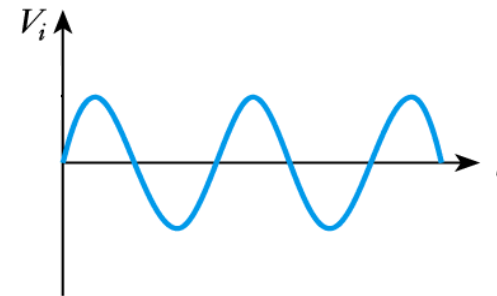
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Many different flavours! See supplemental material
(Chapter from TI op amp book) for designs

- Therefore the complete oscillator is an op amp with



- Input at inverting input
- Output Voltage
- Feedback Voltage at inverting input

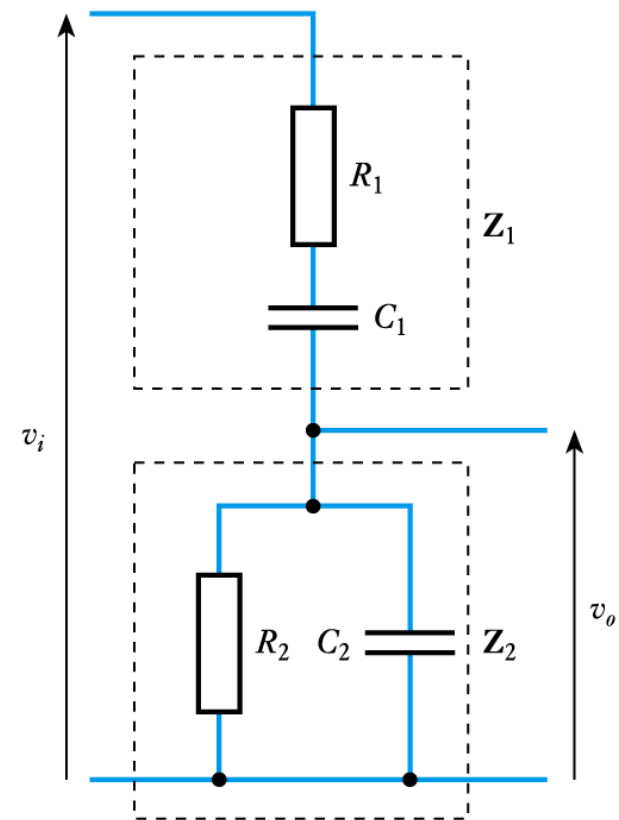


■ Wien-bridge oscillator

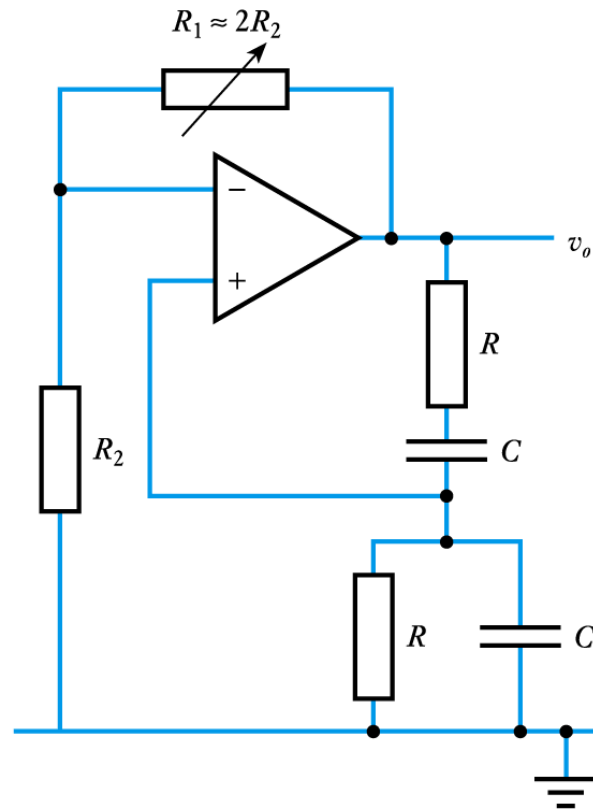
- uses a Wien-bridge network
- this produces a phase-shift of 0° at a single frequency, and is used with **a non-inverting** amplifier
- the selected frequency is

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi CR}$$

- when the gain is $1/3$



- A complete oscillator might look like



■ Amplitude stabilisation

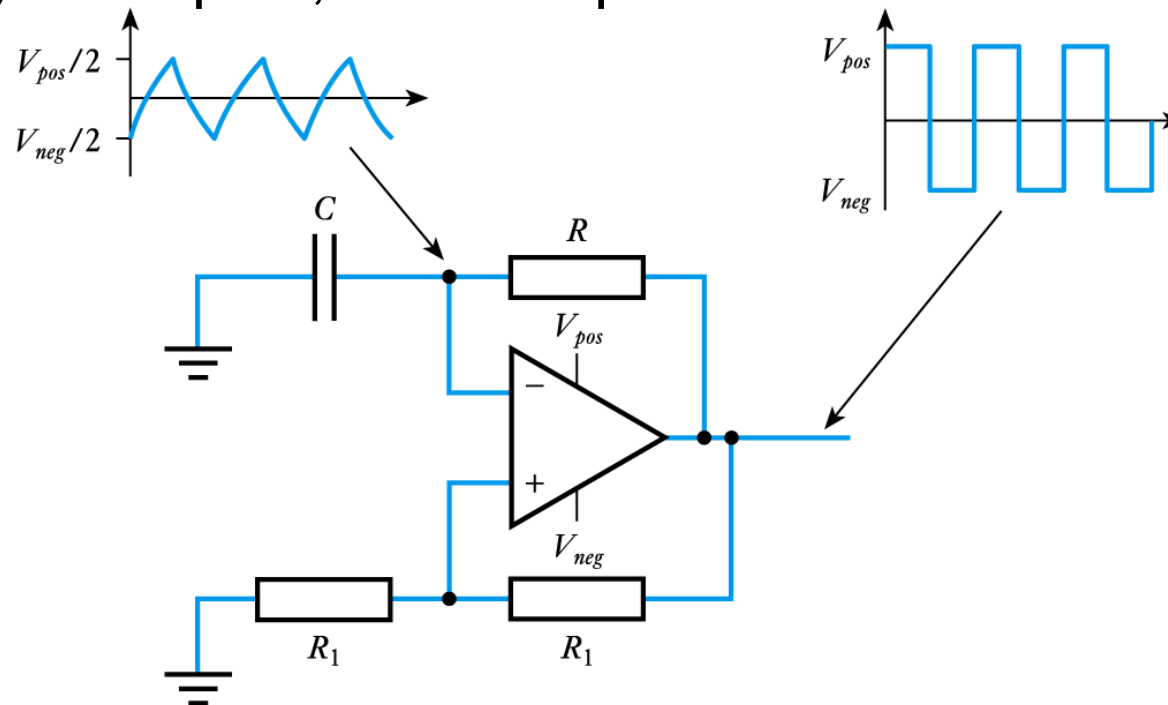
- in both the oscillators above, the loop gain is set by component values
- in practice the gain of the active components is very variable
 - if the gain of the circuit is too high it will saturate
 - if the gain of the circuit is too low the oscillation will die
- real circuits need some means of stabilising the magnitude of the oscillation to cope with variability in the gain of the circuit
- see **Section 23.2.3** in the course text for more discussion of this topic



Video 23B

■ Digital oscillators

– many examples, for example the **relaxation oscillator**



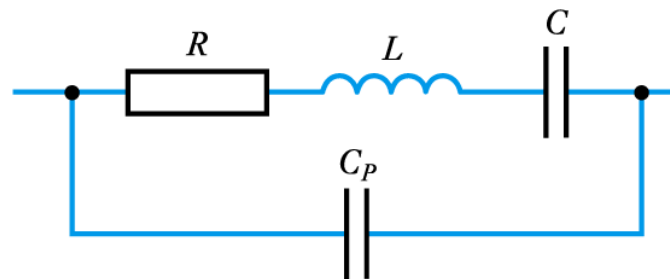
23.31

■ Crystal oscillators

- **frequency stability** is determined by the ability of the circuit to select a particular frequency
- in tuned circuits this is described by the **quality factor, Q**
- **piezoelectric crystals** act like resonant circuits with a very high Q – as high as 100,000

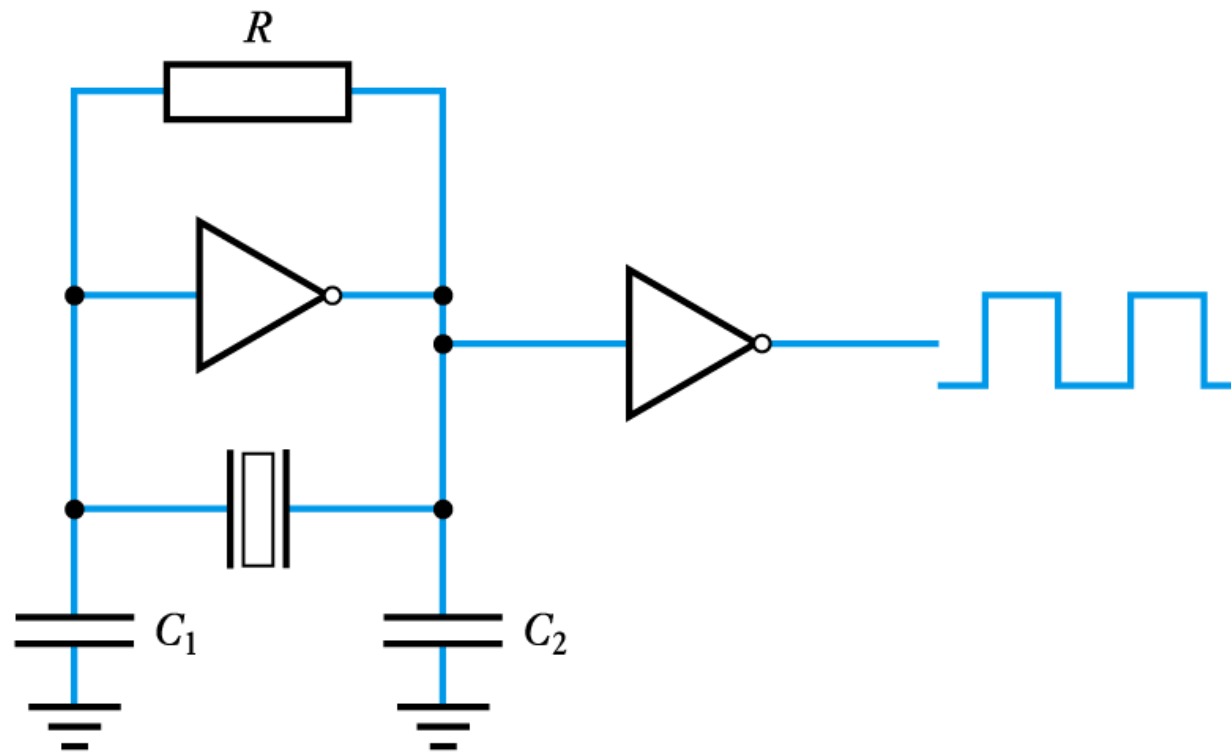


(a) Circuit symbol



(b) Equivalent circuit

- A typical crystal oscillator



Stability

- Earlier we used a general expression for the gain of a feedback network

$$G = \frac{A}{(1 + AB)}$$

- So far we have assumed that A and B are real gains
 - the gain of a *real* amplifier has not only a magnitude, but also a phase angle
 - a phase shift of 180° represents an inversion and so the gain changes polarity
 - this can turn *negative* feedback into *positive* feedback

$$G = \frac{A}{(1 + AB)}$$

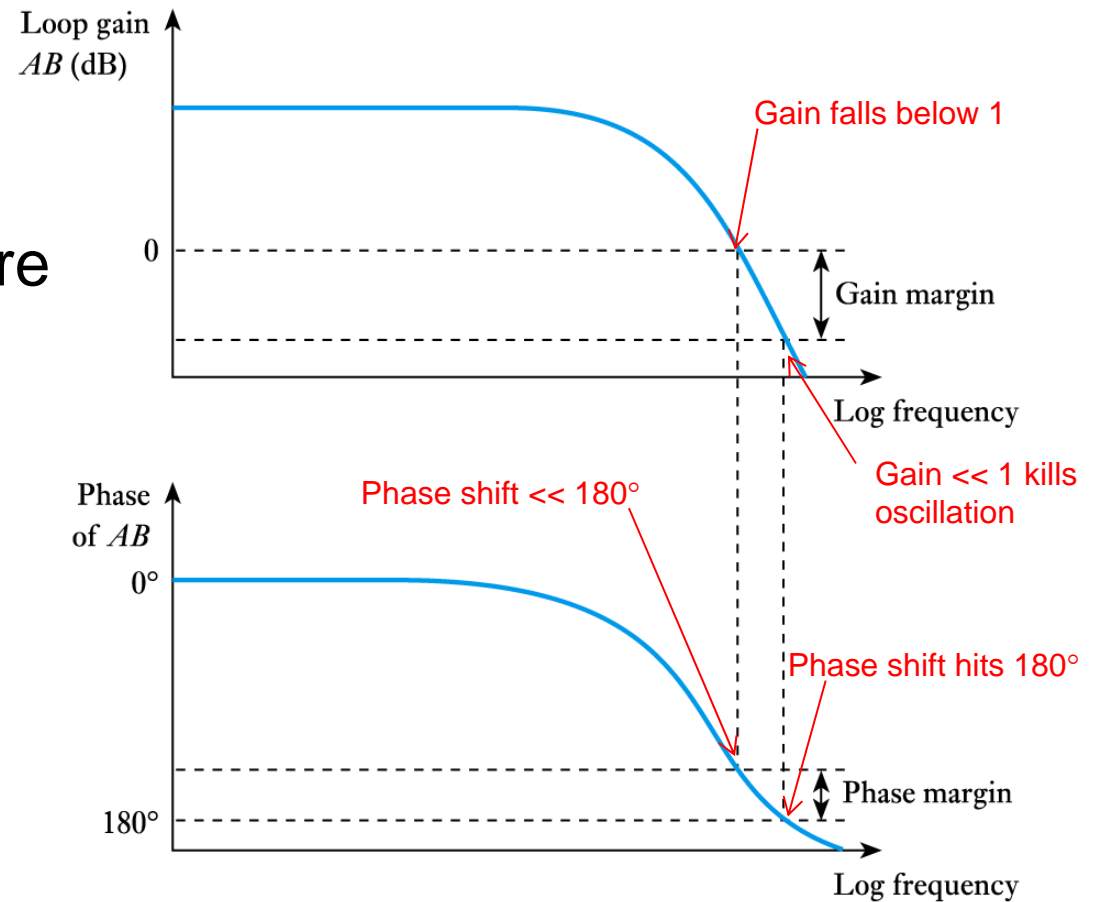
You have a non-inverting amplifier with negative feedback

- AB is >0 and $G < A$ and positive
 - V_+ goes positive, V_o goes positive,
 - V_o (or some fraction) gets put into V_- , and system stabilizes.
- There is a low pass element in the output circuit
 - This can be the fall off with gain at high frequency
 - This will be accompanied by a phase shift with frequency
- At high frequency feedback signal is shifted by 180°
 - V_+ goes positive, V_o goes positive, but
 - V_- is now driven negative, creating positive feedback ($|V_+ - V_-|$ bigger)
- AB is now effectively < 0 (with the 180° phase shift)
 - but need $AB = -1$ to grow oscillation
 - If $|AB| \ll 1$ when phase shift hits 180° , low gain kills oscillation

-
- The gain of all real amplifiers falls at high frequencies and this also produces a phase shift
 - All multi-stage amplifiers will produce 180° of phase shift at some frequency
 - To ensure stability we must ensure that the Barkhausen conditions for oscillation are *not* met
 - That is, $|AB|=1$ and 180° phase shift of B
 - to guarantee this we must ensure that the gain falls below unity before the phase shift reaches 180°

■ Gain and phase margins

- these are a measure of the stability of a circuit



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■ Unintended feedback

- stability can also be affected by unintended feedback within a circuit
- this might be caused by **stray capacitance** or **stray inductance**
- if these produce positive feedback they can cause instability
- a severe problem in high-frequency applications
- must be tackled by careful design



Video 23C Further Study

Further Study

- The Further Study section at the end of Chapter 23 is concerned with amplitude stabilisation in sine wave oscillators.
- It considers a novel use of a light bulb as a stabilising element.
- Take a look at the task involved and then watch the video.



23.39

Key points

- Positive feedback is used in analogue and digital systems
- A primary use is in the production of oscillators
- The requirement for oscillation is that the loop gain AB must have a magnitude of 1, and a phase shift of 180° (or 180° plus some integer multiple of 360°)
- This can be achieved using a circuit that produces a phase shift of 180° together with a non-inverting amplifier
- Alternatively, it can be achieved using a circuit that produces a phase shift of 0° with an inverting amplifier
- For good frequency stability we often use crystals
- Care must be taken to ensure the stability of all feedback systems