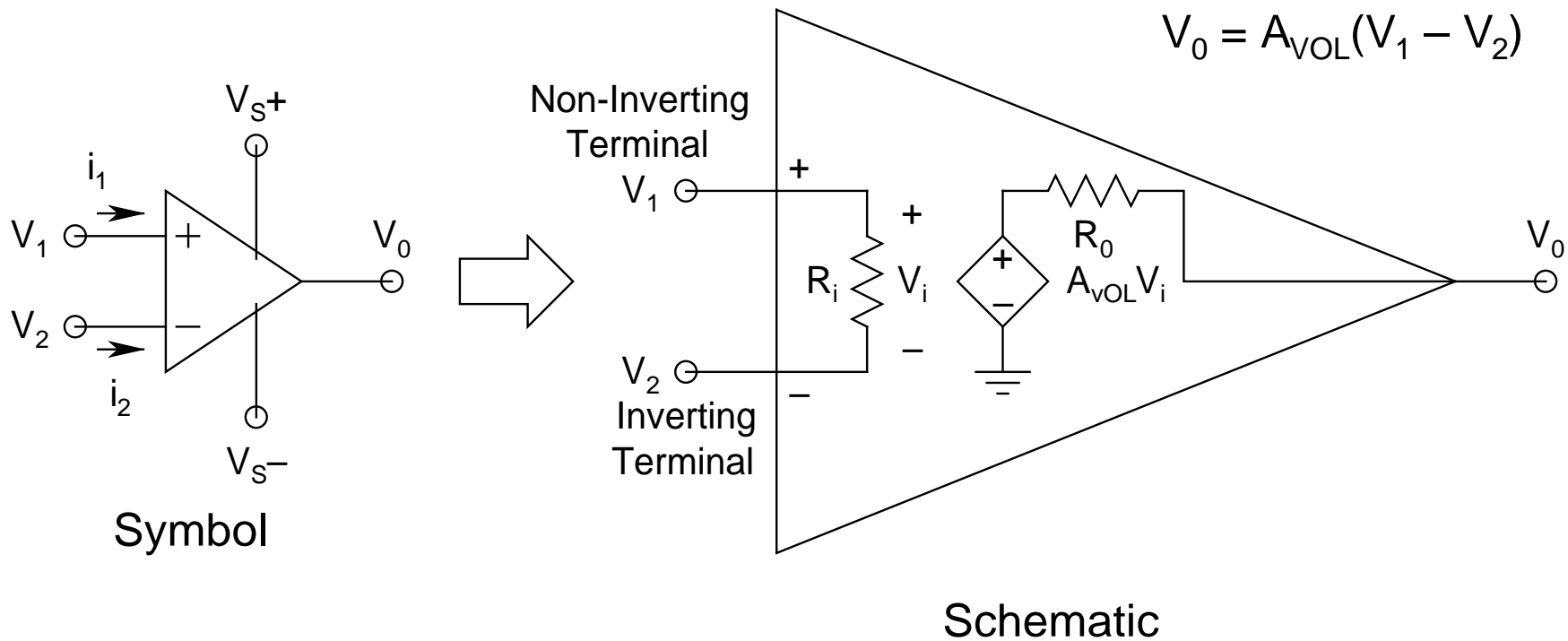


Operational Amplifier [Op-Amp (OA)]

- Gem of analog circuits: extremely versatile and has multitude of applications
- *Two inputs, one output, and biased with dual symmetric power supplies*
- *Extremely large open-loop gain and input resistance, and very small output resistance*
- Has *very high bandwidth* too \Rightarrow *prone to oscillations* \Rightarrow needs to be *compensated* \Rightarrow **reduces available bandwidth to $\sim 5\text{-}10$ Hz**

- **Most important property:**
 - *Rejects signals common to both inputs*
 - Denoted by a parameter known as the ***Common-Mode Rejection Ratio (CMRR)***
 - Has *very high CMRR* \Rightarrow suppresses noise
- **Limitations/Anomalies:**
 - *Offset Voltage and Offset Current*
 - *Saturation Voltages*
 - *Slew Rate*
 - *Minimum Allowed Supply Voltage*

Op-Amp Symbol & Schematic:



V_1, V_2 : Input Voltage, V_0 : Output Voltage, i_1, i_2 : Input Current
 V_{S+}, V_{S-} : Dual Symmetric Power Supplies, R_i : Input Resistance
 R_0 : Output Resistance, A_{VOL} : Open-Loop Gain

- * OAs are essentially *voltage amplifiers*
 - Note the *VCVS* configuration at the output
- * Note that the *difference signal* $V_i (= V_1 - V_2)$ is a *floating signal* (i.e., a signal that is measured between two points, *none of which may be ground*)
 - However, *the output V_o is always measured with respect to ground*
- * *Typical values:* $A_{VOL} \geq 10^5$, $R_i \geq 1 \text{ M}\Omega$, $R_o \leq 100 \Omega$, V_{S^+} and $V_{S^-} = \pm 3 \text{ V (minimum)} - \pm 15 \text{ V}$, $\text{CMRR} \geq 80 \text{ dB } (10^4)$, **Uncompensated Bandwidth $\geq 1 \text{ MHz}$, Compensated Bandwidth $\leq 10 \text{ Hz}$**

- * Basically a *voltage amplifier* (amplifies ac as well as DC, subject to power supply limits)
- * For $V_1 > V_2$, V_0 is *positive* \Rightarrow terminal for V_1 is termed as **non-inverting**
- * For $V_2 > V_1$, V_0 is *negative* \Rightarrow terminal for V_2 is termed as **inverting**
- * R_i is *extremely large* \Rightarrow for all practical purposes, the input currents to the op-amp can be neglected
 $\Rightarrow i_1 = i_2 = 0$
- * *Famous OA paradox*: The input terminals are open and short at the same time

Brief Background History:

- * In 1965, ***Bob Widlar*** of ***Fairchild Semiconductors*** (bought by ***ON Semiconductors*** in 2016) designed the first ***monolithic*** (single substrate) OA
- * Named it ***μA 709*** (μA was a prefix used for Fairchild products)
- * A number of improvements were carried out almost immediately, and the next generation OA was marketed as ***μA 741***
- * Became a huge hit, and 741 became synonymous with OAs (***uses bipolar technology***)

Applications:

- * **Open-loop:** No input-output connection, i.e., *no feedback*
- * **Closed - loop:**
 - *Negative (degenerative) feedback*: the output fed back to the input in such a way that it *opposes* the very cause producing it \Rightarrow **stable system**
 - *Positive (regenerative) feedback*: the output fed back to the input in such a way that it *adds* to the input and produces more output and the process repeats \Rightarrow **highly unstable system**

Negative Feedback:

- * Output fed back to the *inverting* terminal of the OA through the FN

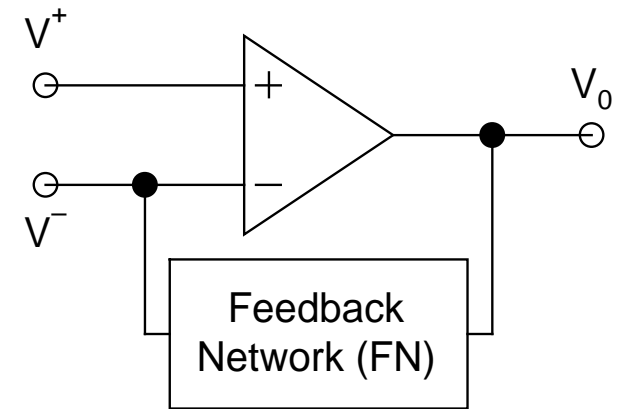
- * $V_0 = A_v (V^+ - V^-)$

- * If due to some reason, V_0 *increases*, then V^- would *increase*, which would pull V_0 *down*

- * Thus, the effect is *opposing* the cause that produced it

⇒ **Negative Feedback**

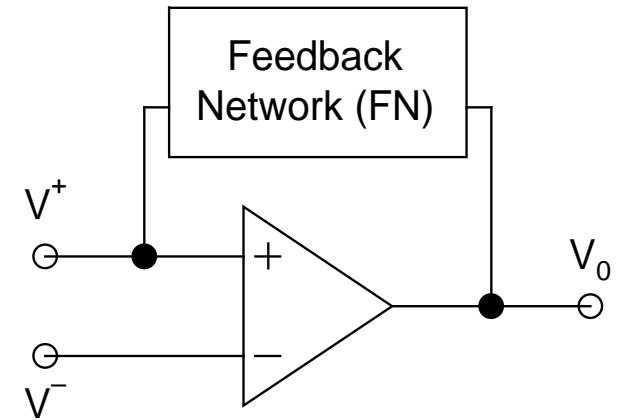
⇒ **Stable System:** All disturbances die down automatically



Positive Feedback:

- * Output fed back to the ***non-inverting*** terminal of the OA through the FN

- * $V_0 = A_v (V^+ - V^-)$



- * If due to some reason, V_0 ***increases***, then V^+ would ***increase***, which would ***increase*** V_0 further, and the process would repeat

- * Thus, the effect is ***aiding*** the cause that produced it

⇒ **Positive Feedback**

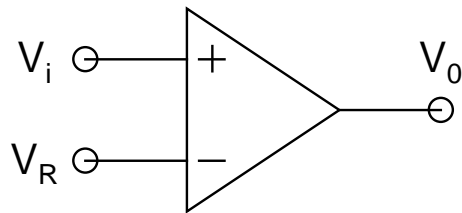
⇒ **Highly Unstable System:** All disturbances build up, eventually leading to ***oscillations*** at the output

Open-Loop:

* Comparator

* Zero-Crossing Detector (Square-Wave Generator)

Comparator:



V_R : Reference Voltage

Compares V_i with V_R
and produces output

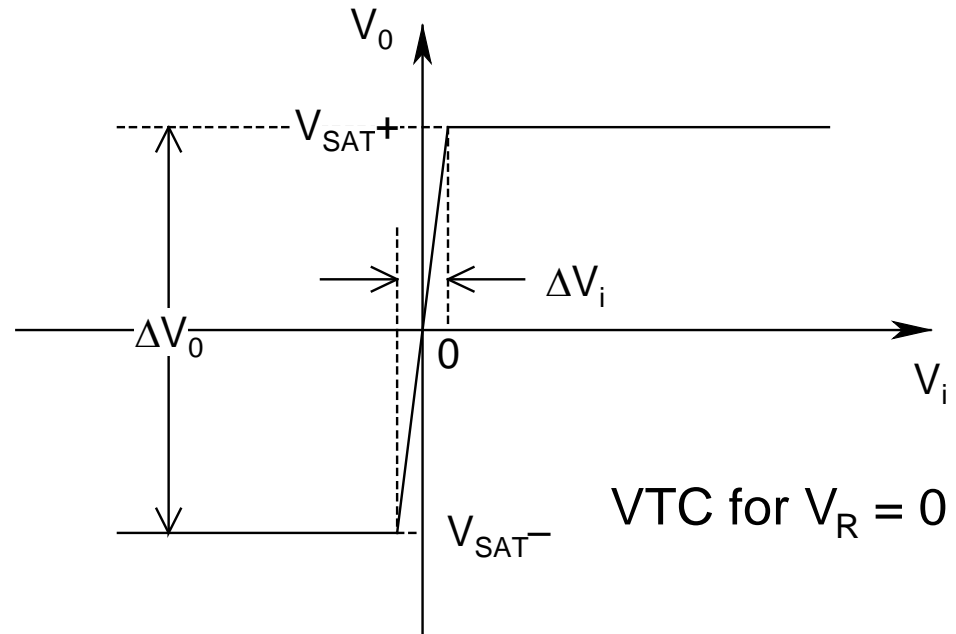


Diagram not to scale

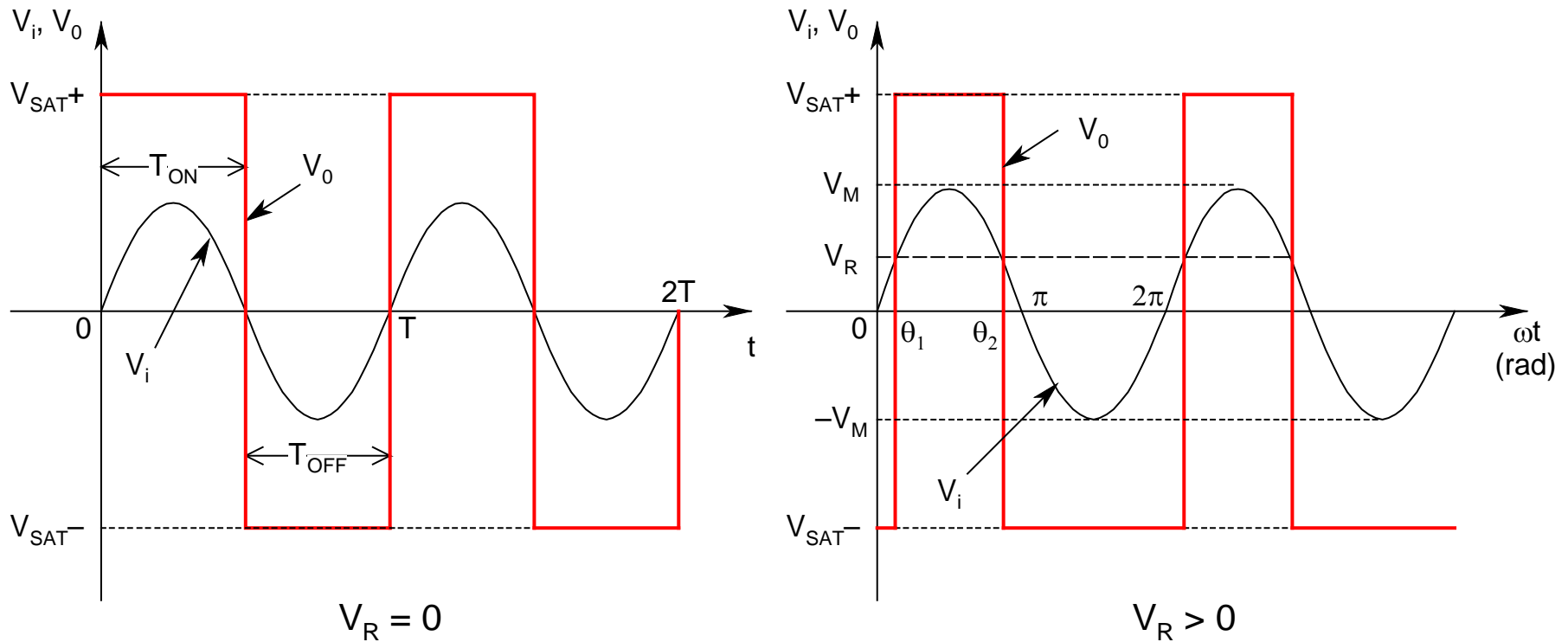
- * Generally, the power supply connections to the OA are not shown for brevity, though they are of course very much there
- * We will follow this practice hence onward
- * With $V_R = 0$, and due to very large A_{VOL} :
 - For positive V_i , V_o saturates at V_{SAT+} (***positive saturation voltage***, which is very close to the ***positive power supply***)
 - For negative V_i , V_o saturates at V_{SAT-} (***negative saturation voltage***, which is very close to the ***negative power supply***)

- * The *finite slope* of the VTC is caused by *finite* A_{VOL}
- * If A_{VOL} *were infinite*, then the change of V_0 would have been *instantaneous* (i.e., $\Delta V_i \rightarrow 0$)
- * *Estimate of ΔV_i :*
 - Let $V_{SAT} = \pm 15$ V and $A_{VOL} = 10^5$:

$$\Rightarrow \Delta V_i = (V_{SAT^+} - V_{SAT^-}) / A_{VOL} = (30 \text{ V}) / 10^5$$

$$= 0.3 \text{ mV} = 300 \mu\text{V} \text{ (really small!)}$$
- * If $V_R \neq 0$, then the change would take place around V_R
 \Rightarrow Known as **Comparator with Threshold**
- * Can be used in *digital circuits* too
 \Rightarrow Known as **Digital Comparator**

Zero-Crossing Detector (Square-Wave Generator):



* Simple *comparator* with *sinusoidal input* (V_i) and with a *reference voltage* V_R

- * Output changes state when input *crosses zero* (for $V_R = 0$) or *crosses V_R* ($V_R \neq 0$)
- * ***Duty Cycle*** (δ) of a square wave: $\delta = T_{\text{ON}}/T$,
where $T (= T_{\text{ON}} + T_{\text{OFF}})$ is the ***Time Period***
- * ***Note:***
 - For $V_R = 0$, $\delta = 50\%$
 - For positive V_R , $\delta < 50\%$
 - For negative V_R , $\delta > 50\%$
- * By adjusting the ***sign and magnitude*** of V_R , we can achieve ***any value*** of δ
- * ***Note that amplitude of V_i is immaterial***

Example: $V_i = V_M \sin(\omega t)$, with $V_M = 5 \text{ V}$, and $V_R = 1 \text{ V}$. Find δ .

First, we find $\theta_1 = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{V_R}{V_M}\right) = 11.54^\circ$, and

$$\theta_2 = 180^\circ - \theta_1 = 168.46^\circ$$

Thus, the angle over which the output is high
 $= (\theta_2 - \theta_1) = 156.92^\circ$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Duty Cycle } \delta = \frac{156.92^\circ}{360^\circ} = 0.436 \text{ or } 43.6\%$$

Exercise: Evaluate δ for $V_R = -1 \text{ V}$

Anomaly : Offset Voltage and Current:

- * The previous two analyses assume that when $V_i = 0$, $V_o = 0$, i.e., the *VTC passes through origin*
- * This is *true for ideal OAs*
- * However, *real OAs* have an *inherently built-in voltage difference* between its two inputs, which would *always make the output saturated, even with zero input*

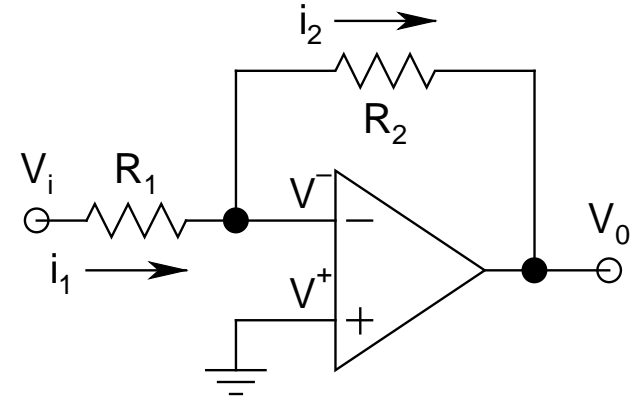
- * Happens due to *component mismatch* in the OA circuit
- * Known as the **Offset Voltage** (V_{OS})
- * Typical values of $V_{OS} \sim 1\text{-}10\text{ mV}$
- * Also, for a *real OA*, the input currents i_1 and i_2 are *not zero, but finite and unequal*
 - \Rightarrow The difference between these two currents is known as the **Offset Current** (I_{OS})
- * Typical values of $I_{OS} \sim 10\text{ nA}$ or so

- **Closed-Loop: *Negative Feedback*:**
 - Plethora of applications
 - **Inverting and Non-Inverting Amplifiers**
 - **Summing Amplifier**
 - **Voltage Follower**
 - **Differential or Difference Amplifier (DA)**
 - **Instrumentation Amplifier**
 - **Level Shifter**
 - **Active Filter (*Low-Pass, High-Pass, Band-Pass*)**
 - **Integrator and Differentiator**
 - **Logarithmic and Exponential Amplifier**

Inverting Amplifier:

* R_2 provides *negative feedback*

- Note that it is connected between the output and the inverting ($-$) terminal \Rightarrow *negative feedback*



* V^+ and V^- are the voltages at the non-inverting and inverting terminals of the op-amp, respectively

- Note that $V^+ = 0$, since that terminal is *grounded*

* One very important *assumption* in op-amp circuit analysis: $R_i \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow$ input current to the op-amp = 0

$$\Rightarrow i_1 = i_2 \Rightarrow (V_i - V^-)/R_1 = (V^- - V_o)/R_2$$

* Also, $V_0 = A_{vOL} (V^+ - V^-) = -A_{vOL} V^-$

* Thus, the ***closed-loop gain*** (A_{vCL}) can be expressed as:

$$A_{vCL} = \left. \frac{V_0}{V_i} \right|_{\text{closed-loop}} = - \left[\frac{R_1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{A_{vOL}} \left(1 + \frac{R_1}{R_2} \right) \right]^{-1} \quad (\textit{show})$$

* The negative sign in front implies that the output voltage is ***exactly out-of-phase*** with the input voltage (i.e., they are ***180° apart***) \Rightarrow **Inverting Amplifier**

* ***Note:*** If $A_{vOL} \rightarrow \infty$, then $A_{vCL} \simeq -R_2/R_1$
 \Rightarrow An extremely simple expression results

- * Note that the *closed-loop gain* is just equal to the *resistor ratio* (feedback resistor/input resistor)
- * **Caution:** For this simplification to hold, A_{vOL} should be at least *100 times* R_2/R_1 (will produce *1% error*)
- * Lower values of A_{vOL} will correspondingly produce more error in the result
- * Thus, blindly using the simplified result without any regard to A_{vOL} is perilous!
- * Note also that the resistance *seen* by the input V_i is simply equal to R_1 (to be discussed next)

Concept of Virtual Ground & Summing Point Constraint:

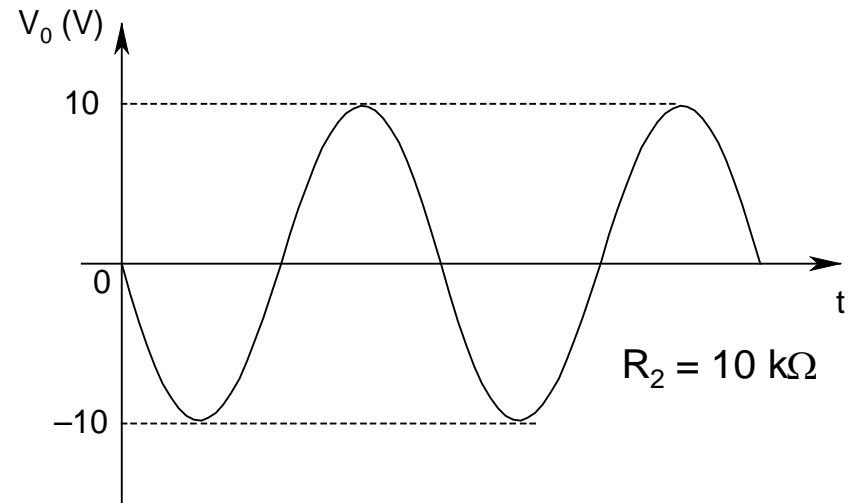
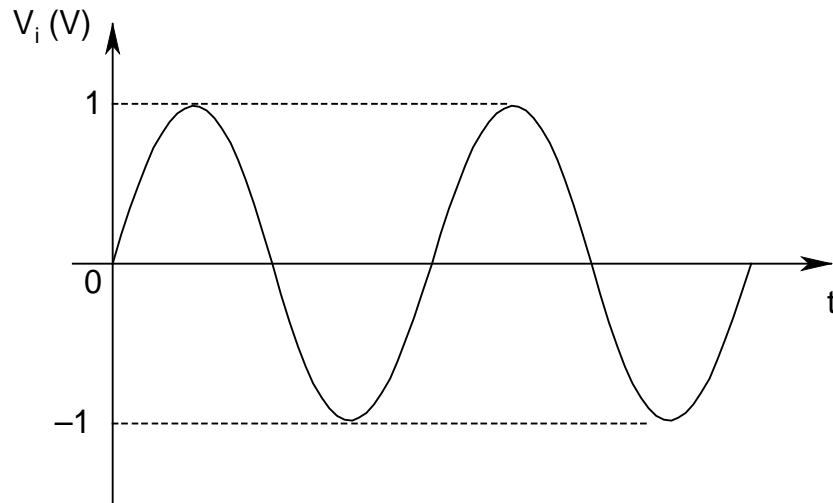
- * **Valid only when the OA is under negative feedback**
- * Due to the *large open-loop gain* (A_{VOL}) of the OA, the *difference* between the voltages at the inverting and non-inverting terminals is *vanishingly small*
- * Thus, if the non-inverting terminal is grounded (i.e., *Real Ground*), then the inverting terminal is also assumed to be at *ground potential*, even though actually it may not be so
 - ⇒ Known as *Virtual Ground* (to distinguish it from actual ground)

- * The assumption that $V^+ = V^-$ as well as $i_1 = i_2 = 0$ is known as the *Summing Point Constraint*
- * These two assumptions make the analysis of OA circuits absolutely trivial
- * Extending this argument, we can say that for OAs under negative feedback, the voltages at the inverting and non-inverting terminals always *track* each other, such that their difference is zero (almost!)
- * ***Caution:*** These assumptions are applicable only for OAs under negative feedback, **never apply these assumptions when the OA is under positive feedback**

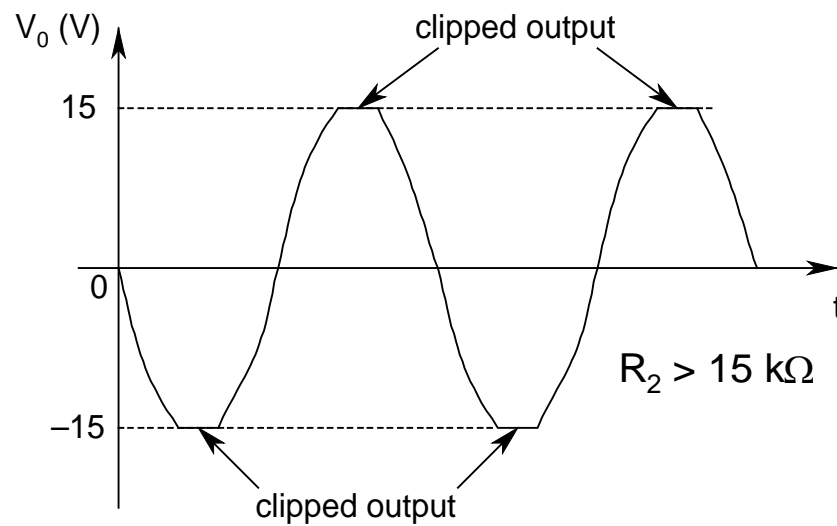
Important Assumptions for OA Circuit Analysis:

- * $R_i \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow$ Zero input currents to the OA
- * $A_{VOL} \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow$ Summing Point Constraint can be applied at the input terminals under negative feedback
- * $R_o \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow$ The output behaves like an *ideal voltage source*
- * The OA can source and sink any current, up to the *maximum permissible limit*, at its output
- * **Be very careful while applying KCL at the output terminal of an OA, since the OA may be sourcing or sinking current (which would have opposite signs)**

Limitations : Saturation Voltages :

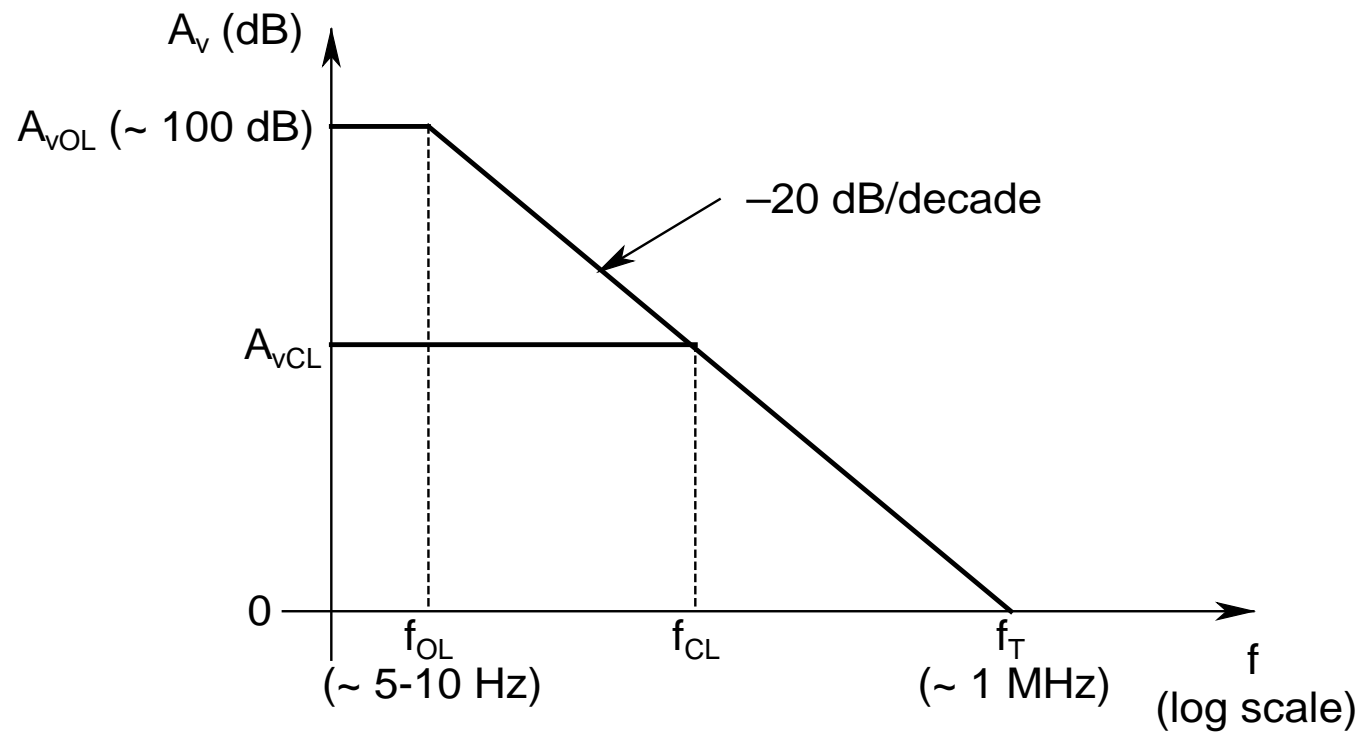


$R_1 = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$
 $V_{\text{SAT}^+} = 15 \text{ V}$
 $V_{\text{SAT}^-} = -15 \text{ V}$



Limitations : Bandwidth (Unity-Gain Cutoff) :

- * OAs are *compensated for stability* with regard to unwanted oscillations
- * Compensation creates a *pole* in the frequency response characteristic, typically at about **5-10 Hz**
- * After that, the gain rolls off at **– 20 dB/decade**
- * The frequency at which the magnitude of this gain becomes *unity* (i.e., **0 dB**) is known as the *unity-gain cutoff frequency* (f_T)
- * **Relation:** $A_{VOL} \times f_{OL} = A_{VCL} \times f_{CL} = f_T$, where f_{OL} and f_{CL} are the *open-loop* and *closed-loop* cutoff frequencies



As $A_{VCL} \uparrow$, $f_{CL} \downarrow$, and vice-versa

Limitations : Slew Rate :

* **Slew Rate** (SR) is the *maximum* possible rate of change of the output with respect to time (in V/ μ sec), which is constant for a given OA, and is typically about **0.5-2 V/ μ sec**

* **Given by:** $SR = \omega_M V_{SAT} = \omega_0 V_0 = \omega_0 |A| V_i$

where ω_M : **Full-power bandwidth: Maximum possible bandwidth when the output is swinging between $\pm V_{SAT}$**

ω_0 : **Bandwidth when the output is swinging between $\pm V_0$ ($< \pm V_{SAT}$)**

Example :

Let $R_1 = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$, $R_2 = 10 \text{ k}\Omega$, $V_{\text{SAT}} = \pm 15 \text{ V}$, and $\text{SR} = 1 \text{ V}/\mu\text{sec}$. Find ω_0 for $V_i = 10 \text{ mV}$, 100 mV , and 1 V .

$$|A| = 10, \quad \therefore \omega_0 = \frac{\text{SR}}{|A| V_i} = \frac{(1 \text{ V}/\mu\text{sec})}{10 \times V_i}$$

Thus, for $V_i = 10 \text{ mV}$, $\omega_0 = 10 \text{ Mrad/sec}$

$= 100 \text{ mV}, \quad = 1 \text{ Mrad/sec}$

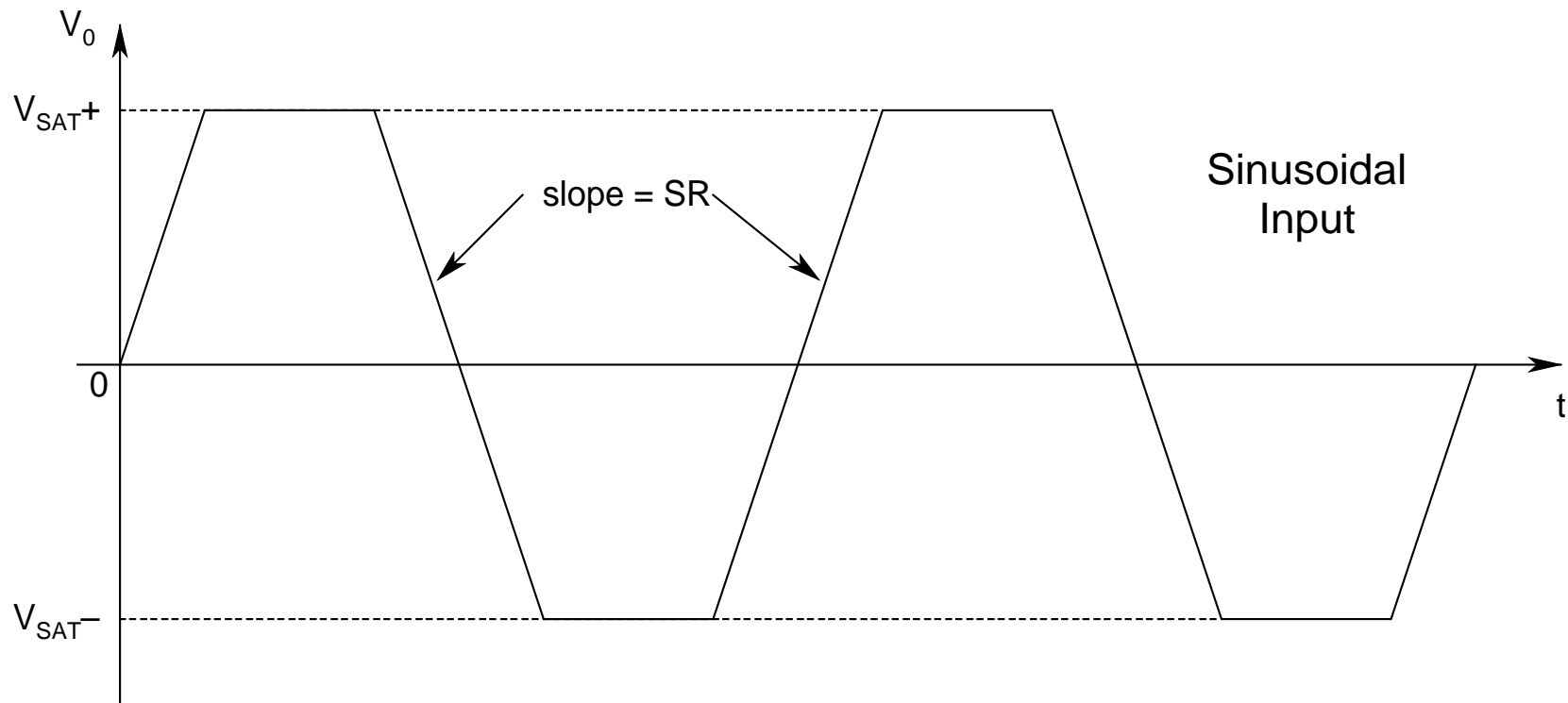
$= 1 \text{ V}, \quad = 100 \text{ krad/sec}$

Note: ω_0 is an inverse function of both gain ($|A|$) and the input signal amplitude (V_i)

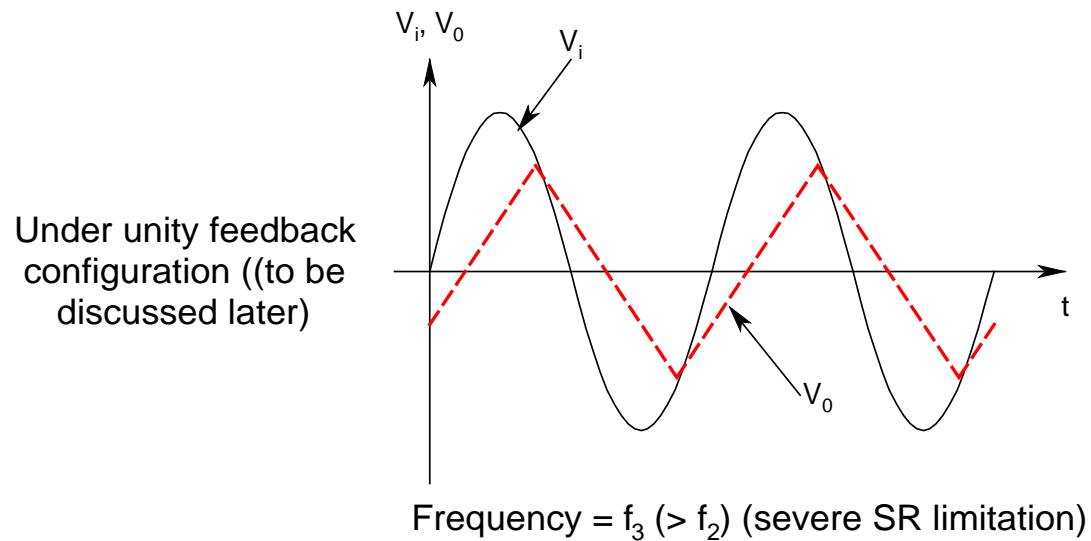
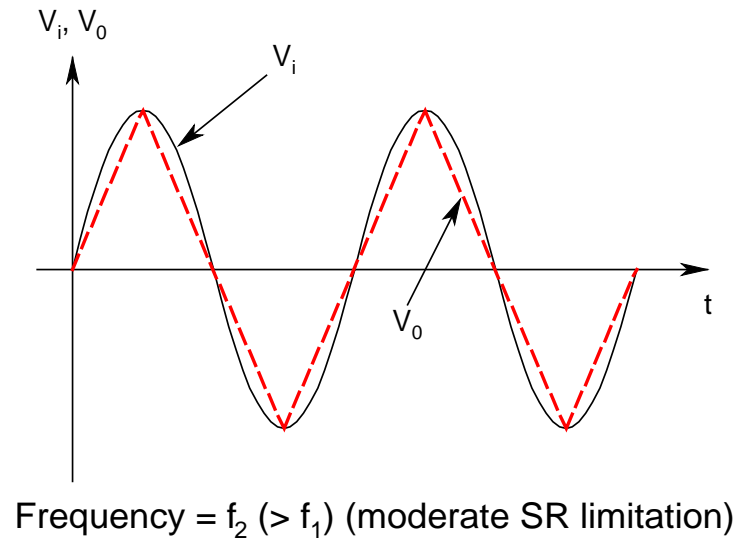
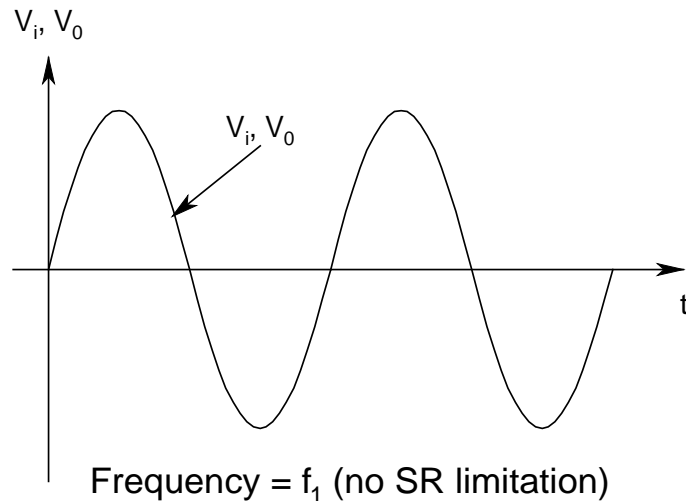
Thus, as $|A|$ and $V_i \uparrow$, $\omega_0 \downarrow$

An Interesting Scenario :

The amplitude and frequency of the sinusoidal input signal is such that the output becomes both saturation voltage and slew rate limited

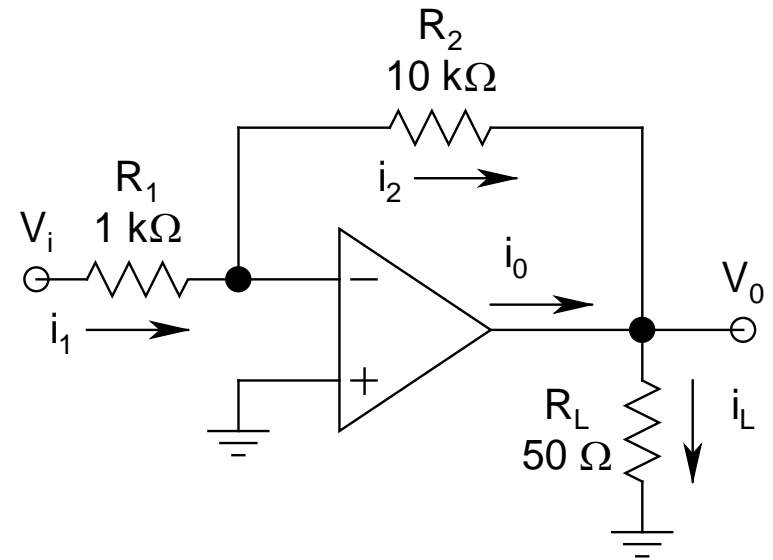


Dramatic Effect of SR Limitation :



Limitation : Output Current Source/Sink Capability :

- * OAs have a limit on the **maximum current** ($i_{0,\max}$) that they can source or sink
- * This puts a **lower limit** on the value of the load resistance that it can drive



- * Let $V_i = -1\text{ V} \Rightarrow V_0 = +10\text{ V}$ (without R_L)
- * **With R_L :** KCL at the output (*note that V_0 is positive*)

$$-\frac{V_0}{R_2} + i_0(\max) = \frac{V_0}{R_L} \quad (\text{OA has to source current})$$

- * For $i_{0,\max} = 25 \text{ mA}$, $V_0 = 1.24 \text{ V}$ (*note that the nominal value is 10 V*)
- * This severe attenuation in the output voltage is caused by the *limited current drive capability* of the OA coupled with the small value of R_L
- * Thus, there is a minimum value of R_L , beyond which the output will start to attenuate \Rightarrow find this minimum value of R_L for this example (*Ex.*)
- * ***Caution:*** While using KCL at the output node of an OA: **Always check if the current being sourced/sunk by the OA is below $i_{0,\max}$**

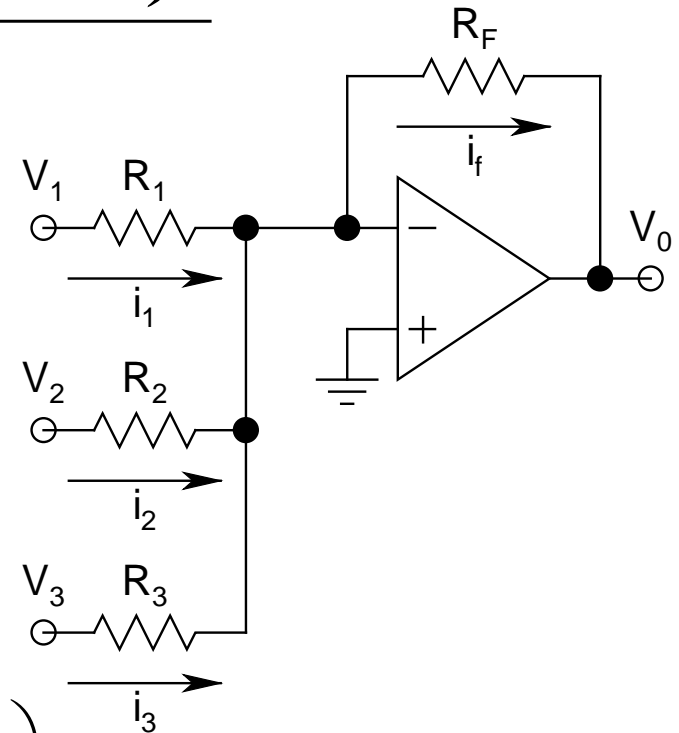
Summing Amplifier (or simply Summer) :

* $i_1 + i_2 + i_3 = i_f$ (*no input current to the OA*)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_2}{R_2} + \frac{V_3}{R_3} = -\frac{V_0}{R_F}$$

(*virtual ground at the inverting terminal*)

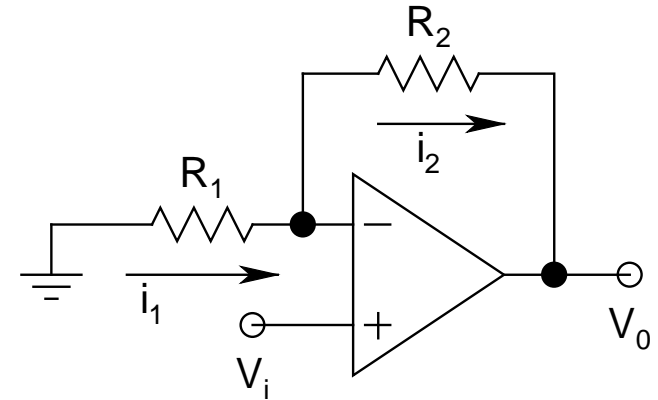
$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow V_0 &= -\left(\frac{R_F}{R_1} V_1 + \frac{R_F}{R_2} V_2 + \frac{R_F}{R_3} V_3 \right) \\ &= -\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{R_F}{R_i} V_i \right) \end{aligned}$$



- * Note that the circuit produces an *weighted sum* of the input voltages, with the weighting factor given by R_F/R_i for the i^{th} input
- * **Ex:** If $R_1 = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$, $R_2 = 2 \text{ k}\Omega$, $R_3 = 5 \text{ k}\Omega$, and $R_F = 10 \text{ k}\Omega$, then $V_0 = -(10V_1 + 5V_2 + 2V_3)$
- * Immensely popular in earlier days of *analog computers*
- * With the advent of *digital computers*, has lost favor
- * All the limitations discussed for inverting amplifier hold for all OA circuits to be discussed, including this one

Non-Inverting Amplifier :

- * Note that the feedback is still **negative** (output fed back to the **inverting** terminal of the OA)



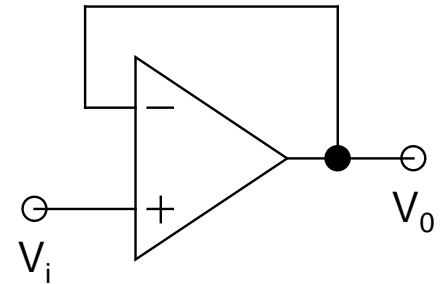
- * Input V_i applied to the **non-inverting** terminal
- * Applying **summing point constraint**:

$$i_1 = i_2 \Rightarrow -\frac{V_i}{R_1} = \frac{V_i - V_0}{R_2} \Rightarrow A_{vCL} = \frac{V_0}{V_i} = 1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}$$

- * Thus, input and output are **in phase**, and the magnitude of the voltage gain $\geq 1 \Rightarrow$ **Non-Inverting Amplifier**
- * The input signal source V_i is not **loaded** at all by the OA, since the input resistance is **infinite**

Voltage Follower :

- * An interesting application of the *non-inverting amplifier*
- * Put $R_2 = 0$ (*short-circuit*), i.e., connect the output directly to the inverting terminal of the OA
- * Then, $A_{vCL} = 1$, irrespective of the value of R_1
- * Thus, R_1 can as well be removed (*open-circuit*)
- * Resulting circuit is known as *voltage follower*, since the output follows the input with *unity gain* and *no phase shift*
- * This configuration is also known as *buffer*, with $R_i \rightarrow \infty$, $R_o \rightarrow 0$, and $A_v = 1$



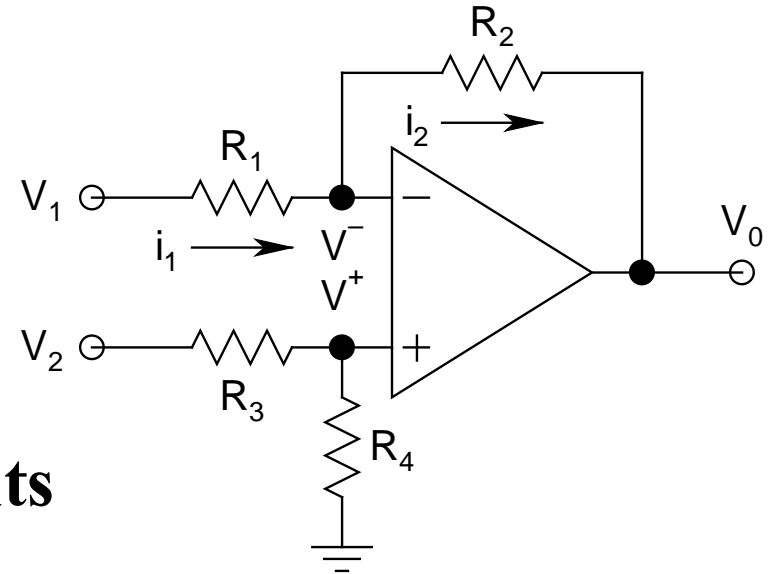
- * Frequently used for *isolation* between stages
- * Another name for this configuration is *unity feedback configuration*, since the entire output is fed back to the input
- * Also, since the *closed-loop gain is unity*, the *bandwidth* of the circuit is equal to f_T (**maximum**)
- * Used also for *impedance matching*, when a *driver* circuit having *high output resistance* drives a *load* having *low input resistance*

Differential (or Difference) Amplifier (DA) :

* Extremely useful circuit:

**Amplifies the difference
between the two input
signals, while rejecting
signals common to both inputs**

⇒ An excellent ***noise suppressor***



* To analyze this circuit, we apply ***summing point constraint***, which yields $V^+ = V^-$, and input current to the OA = 0

* ***Note:*** The circuit has only ***negative feedback***

- * $i_1 = i_2 \Rightarrow \frac{V_1 - V^-}{R_1} = \frac{V^- - V_0}{R_2}$ and $V^+ = \frac{R_4}{R_4 + R_3} V_2$
- * Thus, $V_0 = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} V_1 + \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) \left(\frac{R_4/R_3}{1 + R_4/R_3}\right) V_2$
- * **Exercise:** Show that the same result could also have been obtained by applying ***Superposition Principle***
- * **An interesting outcome:** Make $R_2/R_1 = R_4/R_3$
 - $\Rightarrow V_0 = \frac{R_2}{R_1} (V_2 - V_1) \quad \dots \quad (1)$
 - \Rightarrow A ***perfect differential output***, with ***no common-mode signal present*** there! $\Rightarrow \mathbf{CMRR} \rightarrow \infty$

* For a **DA**, the output voltage V_0 is expressed as:

$$V_0 = A_{dm} V_{id} + A_{cm} V_{ic}$$

where

$$V_{id} = \textit{differential-mode input voltage} = V_2 - V_1$$

$$V_{ic} = \textit{common-mode input voltage} = (V_1 + V_2)/2$$

$$A_{dm} = \textit{differential-mode gain}$$

$$A_{cm} = \textit{common-mode gain}$$

Common-Mode Rejection Ratio:

$$\text{CMRR} \triangleq 20 \log_{10} |A_{dm}/A_{cm}| \text{ (expressed in dB)}$$

* Compare with (1): $A_{dm} = R_2/R_1$, $A_{cm} = 0$, and

$$\text{CMRR} \rightarrow \infty$$

- * It is obvious that if $R_2/R_1 \neq R_4/R_3$, then $A_{cm} \neq 0$, and would result in a ***finite CMRR***
- * ***Exercise:*** Find A_{dm} , A_{cm} , and CMRR, if $R_2/R_1 = 10$ and $R_4/R_3 = 11$
- * Immensely useful circuit, particularly for ***telemetry*** applications
- * Differential Amplifier is the heart of another extremely useful block, namely ***Instrumentation Amplifier***

Instrumentation Amplifier :

- * Bread-and-Butter Circuit for ***Instrumentation Engineers***
- * Used for ***field telemetry applications***, where the points of measurements and processings are far away
 - ⇒ The signal may get thoroughly ***corrupted by noise*** during transmission, and it becomes extremely ***difficult to extract*** using conventional circuits
- * ***Requirements*** of such a circuit:
 - Should have ***extremely high input resistance***, so that the ***measuring instrument does not load the signal***
 - Should have ***perfect impedance matching***

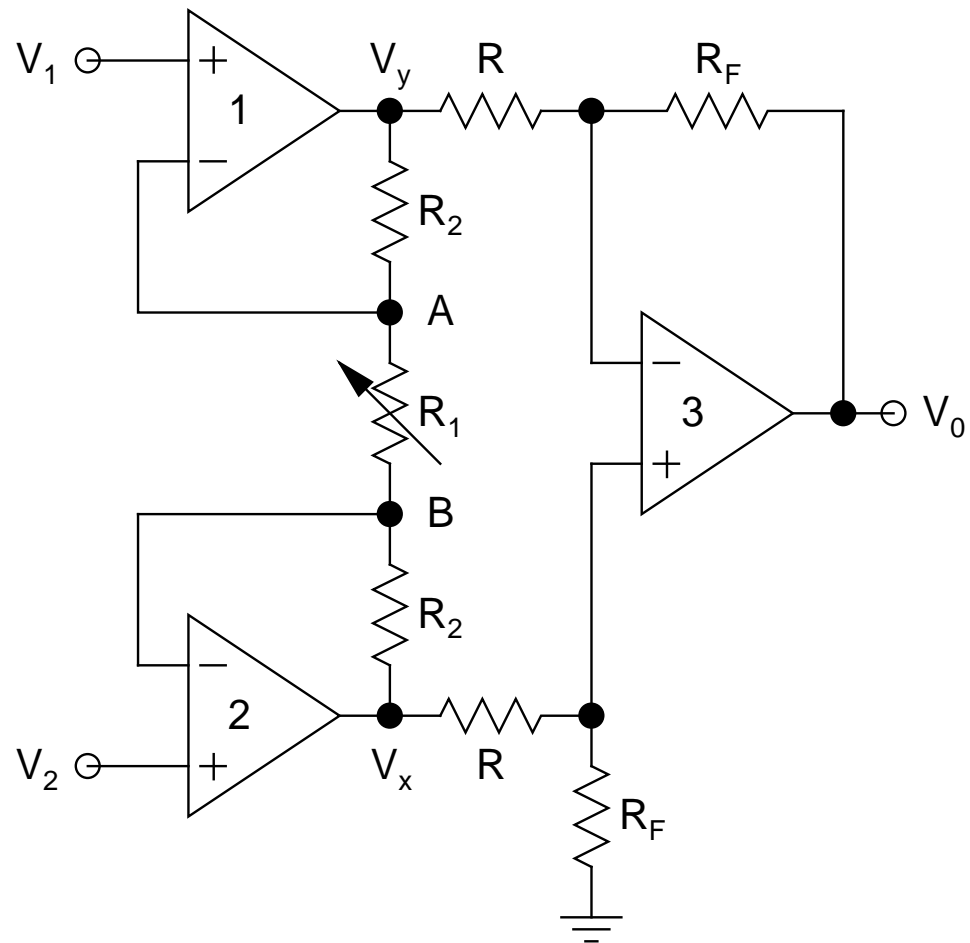
- Should have *extremely high* A_{dm} and *very small* A_{cm} (ideally zero)

⇒ An *extremely large CMRR* is a necessity to
suppress noise

* *Simplest circuit solution:*

- Precede a *DA* (having *high* A_{dm} *and CMRR*) by
a *buffer* (having *high* R_i providing *perfect*
impedance matching)

* Resulted in the *Instrumentation Amplifier*



Instrumentation Amplifier

- * **Note:** OAs 1 and 2 are *buffers*, while OA 3 is a **DA**
- * Both 1 and 2 have *negative feedback*, thus we can apply the *summing point constraint* for both of them
- * Thus, **voltages at nodes A and B are equal to the input voltages V_1 and V_2** , respectively
- * Also, since OAs 1 and 2 do not draw any input current,
∴ the current through the branch R_2 - R_1 - R_2 is the same
- * Thus, V_x and V_y can be immediately expressed in terms of V_1 and V_2

- * Note that the input resistance seen by the inputs V_1 and V_2 is *infinitely large*, thus the circuit does not cause any *loading* of the input signal
- * OA3 being a simple **DA**, the output voltage V_0 can be easily expressed as:

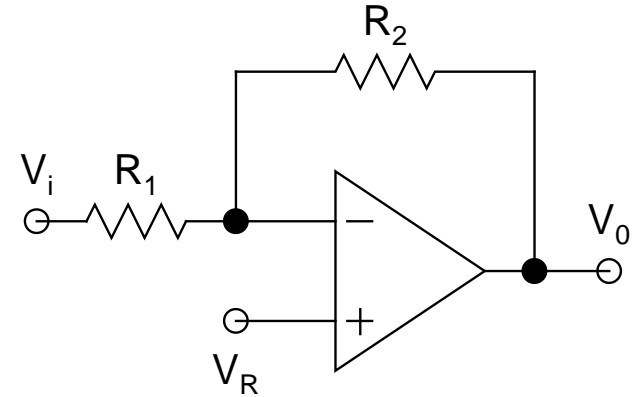
$$V_0 = \frac{R_F}{R} (V_x - V_y) = \frac{R_F}{R} \left(1 + \frac{2R_2}{R_1} \right) (V_2 - V_1)$$

where V_x and V_y have been expressed in terms of V_1 and V_2 (**Exercise**: Prove this expression for V_0)

- * Note that the **voltage gain** of the first stage (i.e., the buffer stage) is $(1 + 2R_2/R_1)$
- * Generally, R_1 is kept **variable**, so that the gain of the circuit can be **adjusted**
 $\Rightarrow R_1$ is known as the **gain resistor**
- * Extremely useful circuit, and instrumentation engineers can't live without it!
- * Note that resistors have **tolerance**, thus, even though the ideal expression for V_0 indicates **infinite CMRR**, in actual situations, the **CMRR would be finite, but large**

Level Shifter:

- * *Adds DC offset to a time-varying signal*
- * Circuit resembles an *inverting amplifier*, with a *reference voltage* V_R applied at the *non-inverting terminal*
- * *Negative feedback* present in the circuit can be easily identified \Rightarrow *summing point constraint* can be applied \Rightarrow the voltage at the inverting terminal is also V_R



* Thus, $V_0 = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} V_i + \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) V_R$ (*by superposition*)

* The magnitude of the **DC offset**, amounting to $\left(1 + R_2/R_1\right) V_R$, can be easily identified from the above expression

* Note also that the **sign** of the DC offset can be changed by changing the **sign** of V_R

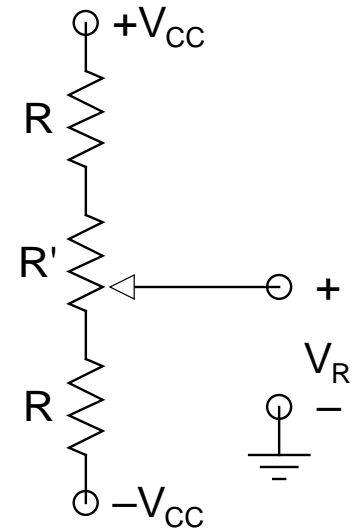
* For a specific requirement of the **DC offset**, either the **resistor ratio** (R_2/R_1) or the **reference voltage** (V_R) or **both** can be changed

For Continuously Varying V_R :

- * Uses two fixed value resistors (R) and a ***potentiometer*** (R')
- * Biased using dual power supply $\pm V_{CC}$: the same supply that powers the OA
- * The range of V_R (***Exercise***: Prove it):

$$-\frac{V_{CC}R'}{2R + R'} \leq V_R \leq +\frac{V_{CC}R'}{2R + R'}$$

- * For ***higher resolution***, use potentiometer with ***higher number of turns*** \Rightarrow ***CROs*** use this technique to add ***DC offset*** to a signal

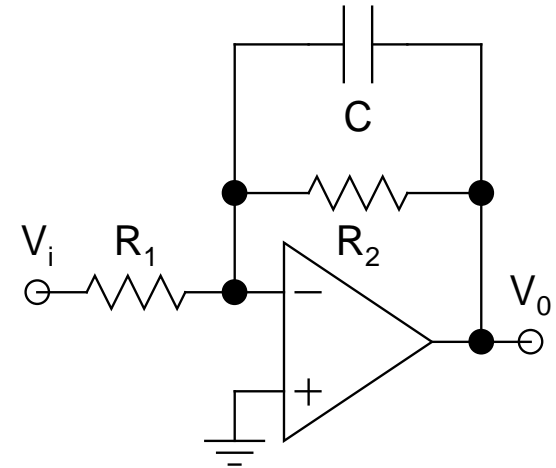


Active Filters:

- * We have already seen *passive filters* using resistors, inductors, and capacitors
- * *Passive filters* are **incapable of producing voltage gain** (the gain is always ≤ 1)
- * Filters can also be constructed using OAs, which **can provide for voltage gain**
 - \Rightarrow Known as *Active Filters*
 - \Rightarrow Can design *LPF*, *HPF*, and *BPF* using OAs

LPF:

- * First note that the OA is under ***negative feedback***, \therefore ***virtual ground concept*** can be applied
- * Thus, the circuit is simply an ***inverting amplifier***, with a capacitor **C** in parallel with a resistor **R_2** in the feedback branch
- * ***Resistor R_2 is necessary***, \therefore without it, the OA won't have any **DC feedback path**, and will go under ***open-loop***, with output ***saturating to $\pm V_{SAT}$***



* Impedance of parallel combination of R_2 and C :

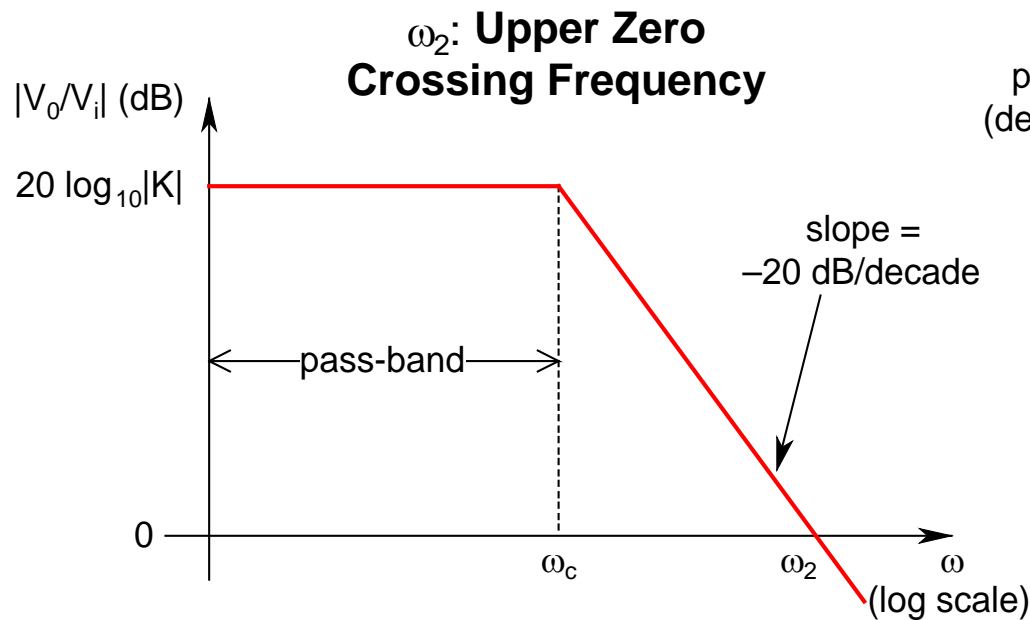
$$Z = R_2 \parallel \left(\frac{1}{j\omega C} \right) = \frac{R_2}{1 + j\omega R_2 C}$$

* Thus, $\frac{V_0}{V_i} = -\frac{Z}{R_1} = -\frac{R_2/R_1}{1 + j\omega R_2 C} = \frac{K}{1 + j\omega/\omega_c}$

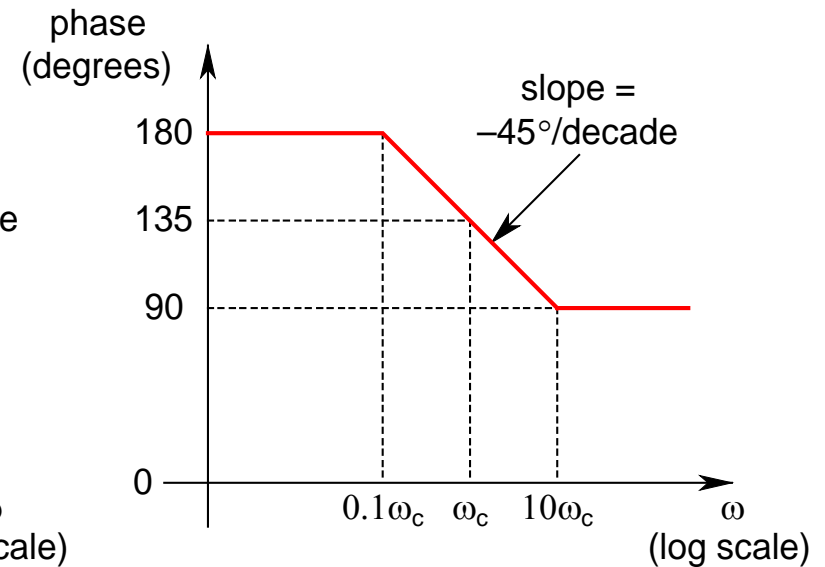
- $K (= -R_2/R_1)$ is the *low-frequency* (or *pass-band*) *gain*, with the negative sign implying *180° phase shift* between input and output

- $\omega_c [= 1/(R_2 C)]$ is the *upper cutoff frequency*

* From the transfer function, **LPF** behavior is obvious



Asymptotic Gain Plot



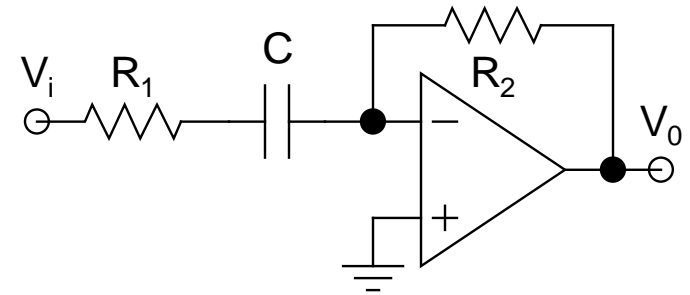
Asymptotic Phase Plot

- * **Note:** Gain controlled by R_1 and R_2 , while cutoff frequency controlled by $C \Rightarrow$ tremendous flexibility
- * Also known as a ***first-order filter***, since the transfer function has only a ***single pole***

- * Note that the transfer function has a ***single pole*** at ω_c
 \Rightarrow The gain stays ***constant*** at $20\log_{10}|K|$ till ω_c ,
 and then ***drops*** @ 20 dB/decade
- * For ***very low frequency*** ($\omega \rightarrow 0$), the phase angle
 of the output is 180° (or, equivalently, -180°)
 (due to the presence of the ***negative sign*** in front
 of the transfer function) till $0.1\omega_c$, and then starts
 to ***drop*** @ 45° /decade till $10\omega_c$, resulting in a
final phase of 90° (or, equivalently, -270°) as
 $\omega \rightarrow \infty$

HPF:

- * Only difference from LPF is that C is taken off from the feedback branch and put in the input branch



- * Impedance of the series combination of R_1 and C:

$$Z_1 = R_1 + \frac{1}{j\omega C} = \frac{1 + j\omega R_1 C}{j\omega C}$$

$$* \text{ Thus, } \frac{V_o}{V_i} = -\frac{R_2}{Z_1} = -\frac{j\omega R_2 C}{1 + j\omega R_1 C} = -\frac{j\omega/\omega_1}{1 + j\omega/\omega_c}$$

$\omega_1 \left[= 1/(R_2 C) \right]$ is the *lower zero crossing frequency*

$\omega_c \left[= 1/(R_1 C) \right]$ is the *lower cutoff frequency*

* **Note:** As $\omega \rightarrow 0$, $|V_0/V_i| \rightarrow 0$; and as $\omega \rightarrow \infty$,

$$|V_0/V_i| \rightarrow \omega_c/\omega_1 = R_2/R_1 \text{ (constant)}$$

\Rightarrow **HPF** behavior established

* $|$ **Pass-Band Gain** $| = \omega_c/\omega_1 = R_2/R_1$

\Rightarrow For large pass-band gain, R_2/R_1 should be large

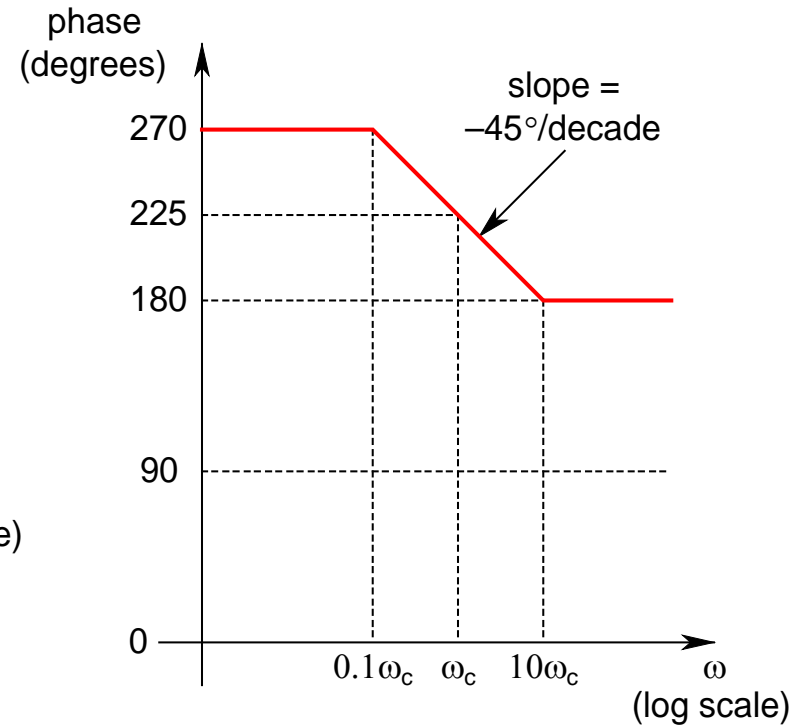
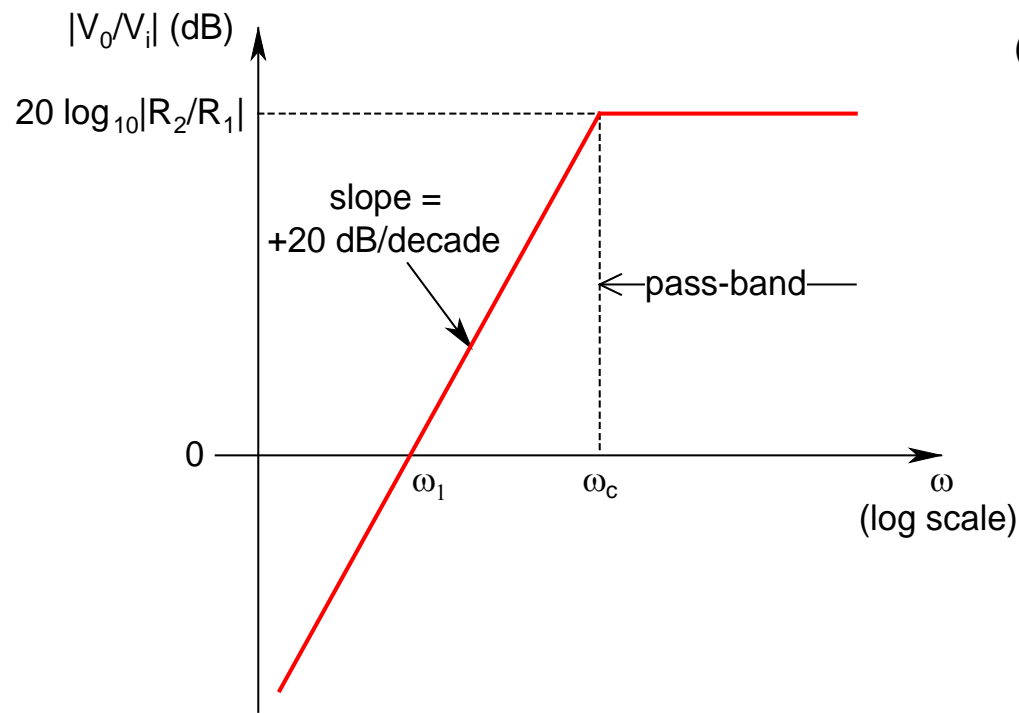
$\Rightarrow R_2$ should be much larger than R_1

$$\Rightarrow \omega_1 \ll \omega_c$$

* ω_1 is known as **lower zero crossing frequency**, since at

this frequency $|V_0/V_i| = 1$ (0 dB), and then **increases**

@ 20 dB/decade till ω_c , after which it becomes **constant**



* **Note:** As $\omega \rightarrow 0$, phase = 180° (due to the negative sign in front of the transfer function) + 90° (constant phase contributed by ω_1) = 270°

BPF:

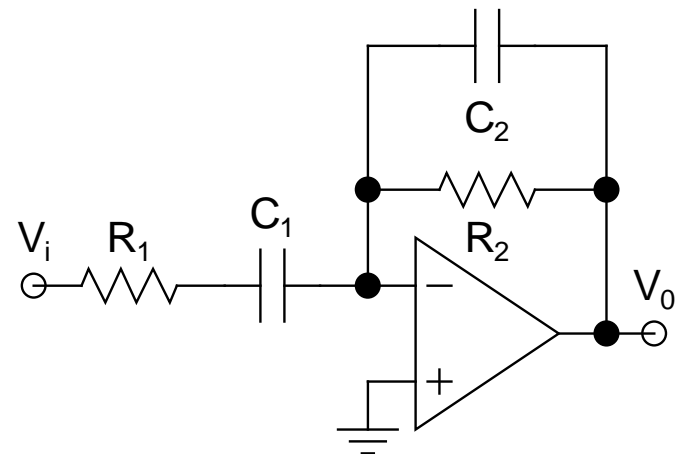
* **Combination of LPF and HPF:** R_1 - C_1 creates *lower cutoff* (for *HPF*), and R_2 - C_2 creates *upper cutoff* (for *LPF*)

* Impedance of series combination of R_1 and C_1 :

$$Z_1 = R_1 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1} = \frac{1 + j\omega R_1 C_1}{j\omega C_1}$$

* Impedance of parallel combination of R_2 and C_2 :

$$Z_2 = R_2 \parallel \left(\frac{1}{j\omega C_2} \right) = \frac{R_2}{1 + j\omega R_2 C_2}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 * \text{ Thus, } \frac{V_0}{V_i} &= -\frac{Z_2}{Z_1} = -\frac{j\omega R_2 C_1}{(1 + j\omega R_1 C_1)(1 + j\omega R_2 C_2)} \\
 &= -\frac{j\omega/\omega_1}{(1 + j\omega/\omega_L)(1 + j\omega/\omega_H)}
 \end{aligned}$$

$\omega_1 \left[= 1/(R_2 C_1) \right]$ is the *lower zero crossing frequency*

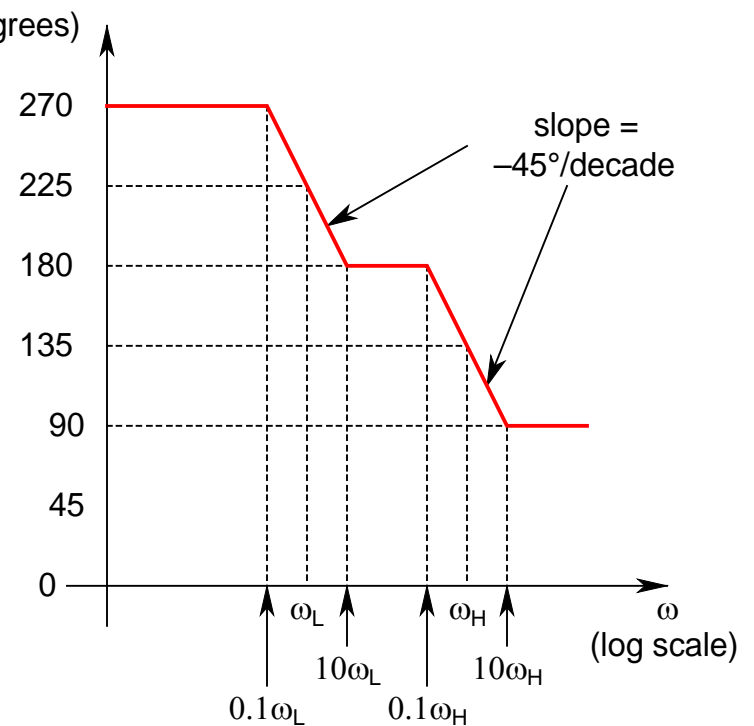
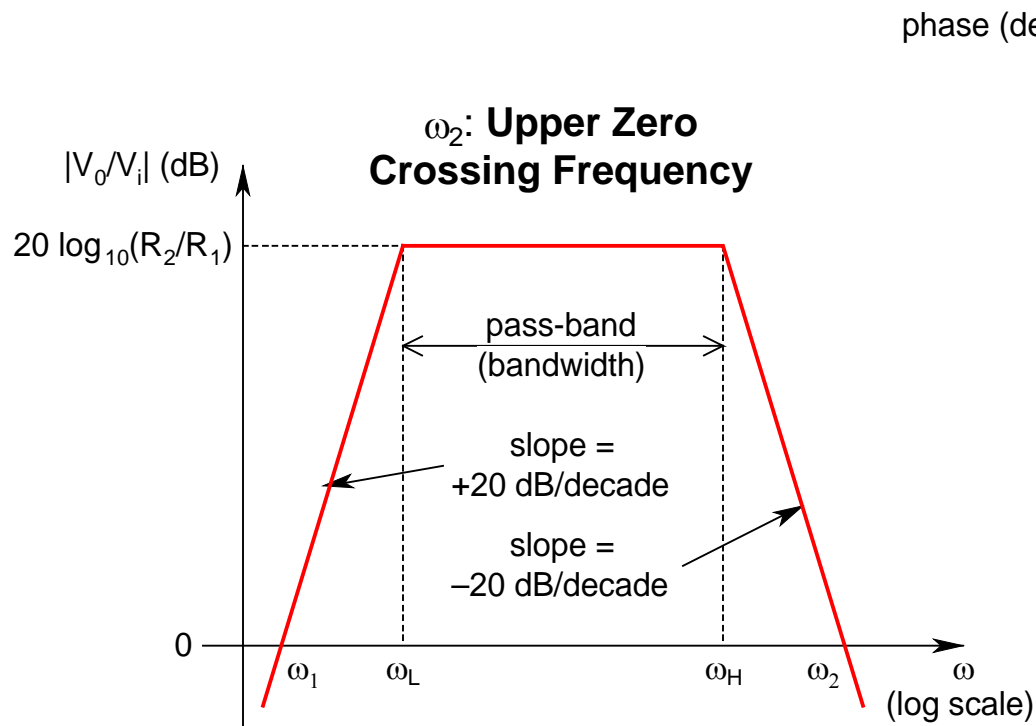
$\omega_L \left[= 1/(R_1 C_1) \right]$ is the *lower cutoff frequency* (for HPF)

$\omega_H \left[= 1/(R_2 C_2) \right]$ is the *upper cutoff frequency* (for LPF)

$$* \text{ *Pass-Band* } = \omega_H - \omega_L$$

$$* \left| \text{*Pass-Band Gain*} \right| = R_2/R_1, \text{ thus for large pass-band gain,}$$

$$R_2 \gg R_1 \Rightarrow C_2 \ll C_1 \text{ (} \because \omega_H > \omega_L \text{ and } \omega_1 \ll \omega_L \text{)}$$



- * In plotting the phase, it is assumed that $\omega_H > 100\omega_L$
- * Note that the phase ranges between $\pm 90^\circ$,
characteristic of a BPF

Design Problem: Pass-band gain = 40 dB, lower cutoff frequency = 200 Hz, bandwidth = 800 Hz.

Choose $R_1 = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$, pass-band gain = 40 dB = 100

$$\Rightarrow R_2 = 100 \text{ k}\Omega$$

$$f_L = 200 \text{ Hz} = 1/(2\pi R_1 C_1) \Rightarrow C_1 = 0.8 \text{ }\mu\text{F}$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 800 \text{ Hz} \Rightarrow f_H = f_L + \text{BW} = 1 \text{ kHz}$$

$$= 1/(2\pi R_2 C_2) \Rightarrow C_2 = 1.6 \text{ nF (Note: } \ll C_1)$$

$$f_1 = 2 \text{ decades below } f_L = 2 \text{ Hz}$$

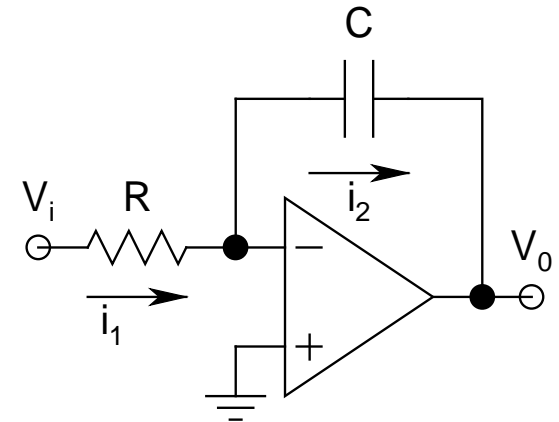
$$f_2 = 2 \text{ decades above } f_H = 100 \text{ kHz}$$

$$\textbf{Check: } f_1 = 1/(2\pi R_2 C_1) = 2 \text{ Hz (checked!)}$$

Integrator:

- * **Time-domain application:** output an *integrated* version of input
- * Looks exactly similar to an **LPF**: note that **the function performed by an LPF in frequency- domain is exactly the same as that done by an integrator in time- domain**
- * Identifying *negative feedback* and applying *virtual ground* concept:

$$i_1 = i_2 \Rightarrow \frac{V_i}{R} = -C \frac{dV_0}{dt}$$



$$\Rightarrow V_0 = -\frac{1}{RC} \int V_i dt = -\frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^t V_i dt + V_0(0)$$

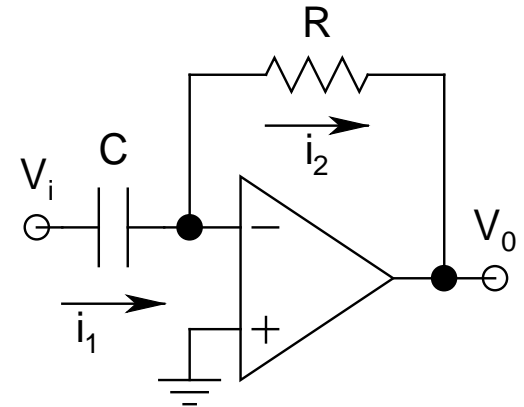
- $\tau (= RC)$ is the *time constant of integration*
- $V_0(0)$ is the initial value of V_0 at $t = 0$
- * Thus, if V_i is a *square pulse*, V_0 will be *triangular*; and for *triangular* V_i , V_0 will be *parabolic*, etc.
- * Practical integrators would have a resistor R_2 shunting the capacitor C in the feedback path to prevent any *open-loop* condition of the OA, which would *saturate* the output at $\pm V_{SAT}$

- * ***Caution:*** The time constant R_2C created by this additional resistor should in no way ***affect*** the integration time constant $\tau (= RC)$
- * This makes the design of a practical integrator little ***tricky***
- * Also, the capacitor needs to be ***discharged*** periodically to prevent any undesirable accumulation of charges in it
- * Used sparingly

Differentiator:

- * Another *time-domain application*:
output a *differentiated* version of input
- * Looks exactly similar to an *HPF*: **note that the function performed by an HPF in frequency- domain is exactly the same as that done by a differentiator in time- domain**
- * Identifying *negative feedback* and applying *virtual ground* concept:

$$i_1 = i_2 \Rightarrow C \frac{dV_i}{dt} = -\frac{V_o}{R}$$



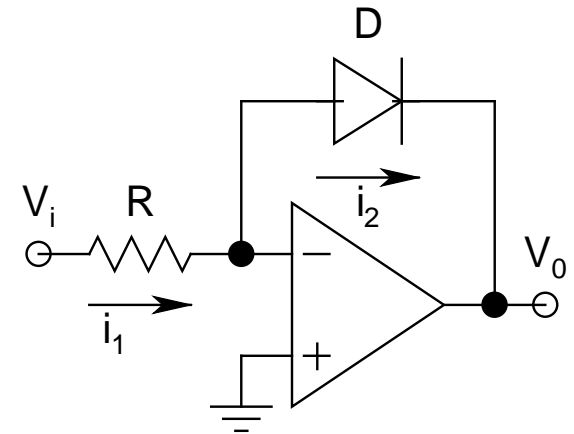
$$\Rightarrow V_0 = -RC \frac{dV_i}{dt} = -\tau \frac{dV_i}{dt}$$

τ ($= RC$) is the *time constant of differentiation*

- * Thus, a *triangular* input will produce a *square wave* output, etc.
- * This circuit also is rarely used since it tends to *amplify* the noise present at the input (note that the *derivative of a noise spike can be dangerously large!*)
- * Occasionally used for *waveshaping*

Logarithmic Amplifier:

- * Output *logarithmic* function of input
- * *Non-linear* application due to the presence of a *non-linear* element (diode D) in the feedback path
- * This circuit is a little complicated, since the feedback path gets *broken* when the diode becomes *reverse biased* and the output saturates to V_{SAT^+}
- * However, when the diode is *forward biased*, then the feedback path is *maintained*, with the diode voltage equal to $-V_0$ (due to *virtual ground*)



* Note that under this condition, ***negative feedback*** is maintained and ***virtual ground*** concept can be applied

$$\Rightarrow i_2 = I_S \left[\exp\left(-\frac{V_0}{V_T}\right) - 1 \right]$$

I_S : ***Reverse Saturation Current*** of diode

V_T : ***Thermal Voltage*** (26 mV at $T = 300$ K)

$$\Rightarrow i_1 = i_2 \Rightarrow \frac{V_i}{R} = I_S \left[\exp\left(-\frac{V_0}{V_T}\right) - 1 \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow V_0 = -V_T \ln \left[\left(\frac{V_i}{I_S R} \right) + 1 \right] \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

Observations:

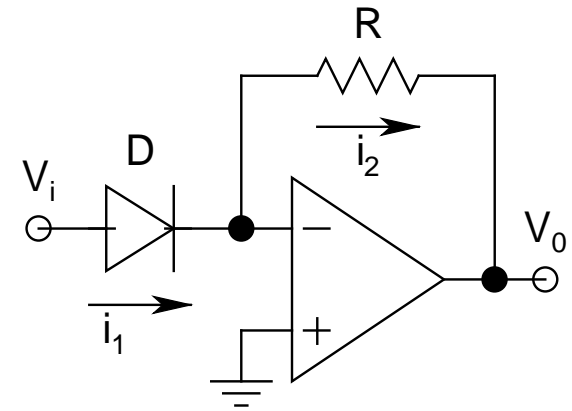
- * For $V_i = 0$, $V_o = 0$, i.e., the VTC passes through ***origin***
- * For ***positive*** V_i , a current equal to V_i / R will flow through R , and the same current would flow through D as well, thus developing an output voltage V_o , given by (1)
- * For $V_i \gg I_S R$, then the -1 term in (1) can be neglected, and V_o becomes a ***true logarithmic function*** of V_i

- * Note that the *maximum* output voltage can only be equal to the *negative of diode voltage*, which typically ranges between *0 to about 1 V* (for Si diodes)
- * Note that due to the logarithmic dependence of V_o on V_i , a *large change in V_i can be compressed to a small change in V_o*
- * For *negative* V_i , the diode becomes *reverse biased*, the feedback path gets *broken*, the OA becomes *open-loop*, the inverting terminal acquires a *finite* negative voltage, and V_o *swings to V_{SAT^-}*

Exponential Amplifier:

- * **Dual of Logarithmic Amplifier**

- * Note that the *negative* feedback path is always maintained through the resistor R (*virtual ground applicable*)



- * Note also that so long as the diode remains *reverse biased*, the input signal V_i can't reach the OA terminal, and V_o *would be zero*

- * Thus, for all *negative* V_i , $V_o = 0$

- * For *positive* V_i , the diode becomes *forward biased*

- * **Note the limited positive range of V_i**

* Thus,

$$i_1 = i_2 \Rightarrow I_S \left[\exp\left(\frac{V_i}{V_T}\right) - 1 \right] = -\frac{V_0}{R}$$

which gives:

$$V_0 = -I_S R \left[\exp\left(\frac{V_i}{V_T}\right) - 1 \right]$$

* For $V_i > 4V_T$, which is about 100 mV at room temperature, the -1 term can be neglected, and the output becomes a *true exponential function* of the input

- * Note that the role of this circuit is exactly *opposite* to that of the logarithmic amplifier:
 - While the **logarithmic amplifier** *compresses* a *large change* in the input voltage into a *small variation* of the output voltage, the **exponential amplifier**, on the other hand, *expands* a *very small range* of the input voltage into a *very large range* of the output voltage
- * **Caution:** Due to the *exponential* dependence of V_0 on V_i , with an increase in V_i , V_0 would increase *rapidly*, and the output may get *saturated* at V_{SAT^-} pretty quickly
 - \Rightarrow Puts an *upper limit* on V_i for fidelity in operation