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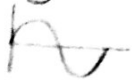


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OPERATIONAL AMPLIFIER

Electrical Circuits : 2 types

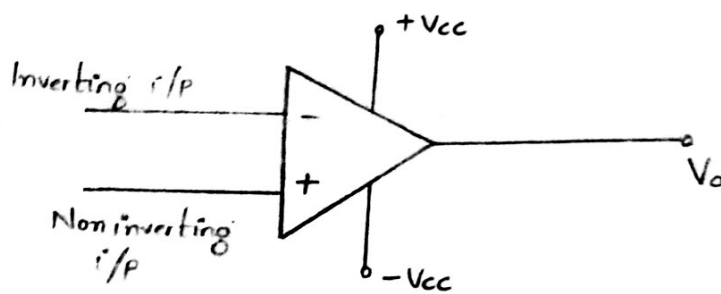
- Digital circuits \rightarrow 0 & 1 (voltage levels)
- Analog Circuits \rightarrow Voltage varies continuously
 \rightarrow Main component is opamp.



★ Opamp is defined as:

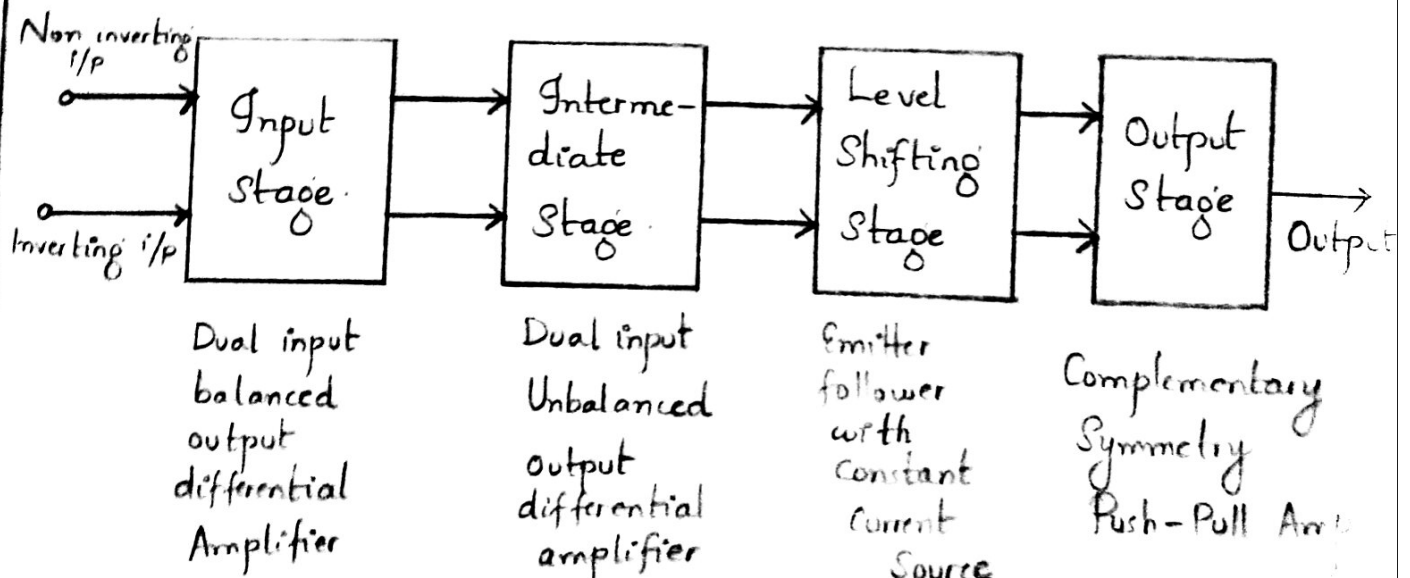
It is direct coupled high gain amplifier

ie, Different stages inside an opamp is directly connected



Opamp can be used to perform various mathematical operation like adder, subtraction, differentiation & integration.

★ Basic Block diagram of Op Amp.



Functions of Each Stages.

I Input Stage

- Dual input balanced output differential amplifier
- Double ended high gain differential amplifier circuit used.
- This stage provides high gain.
- Provides high input impedance (Z_{in})

II Intermediate Stage.

- Dual input unbalanced output differential amplifier
- Single ended differential amplifier
- Gain is half compared to first stage.

III Level Shifting Stage.

- Emitter follower with constant current source is used.
- Function is to shift dc level of previous stage to ground.

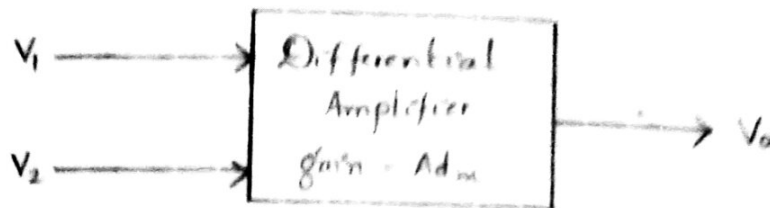
IV Output Stage.

- Complementary symmetry push pull amplifier is used
- Function is to increase the output voltage swing and output power
- To decrease the output impedance (Z_{out})

Differential Amplifier

(2)

- Used to amplify the difference between 2 input signals.



$$V_0 = A_{dm} (V_1 - V_2)$$

- (i) Difference mode input voltage (V_{dm})

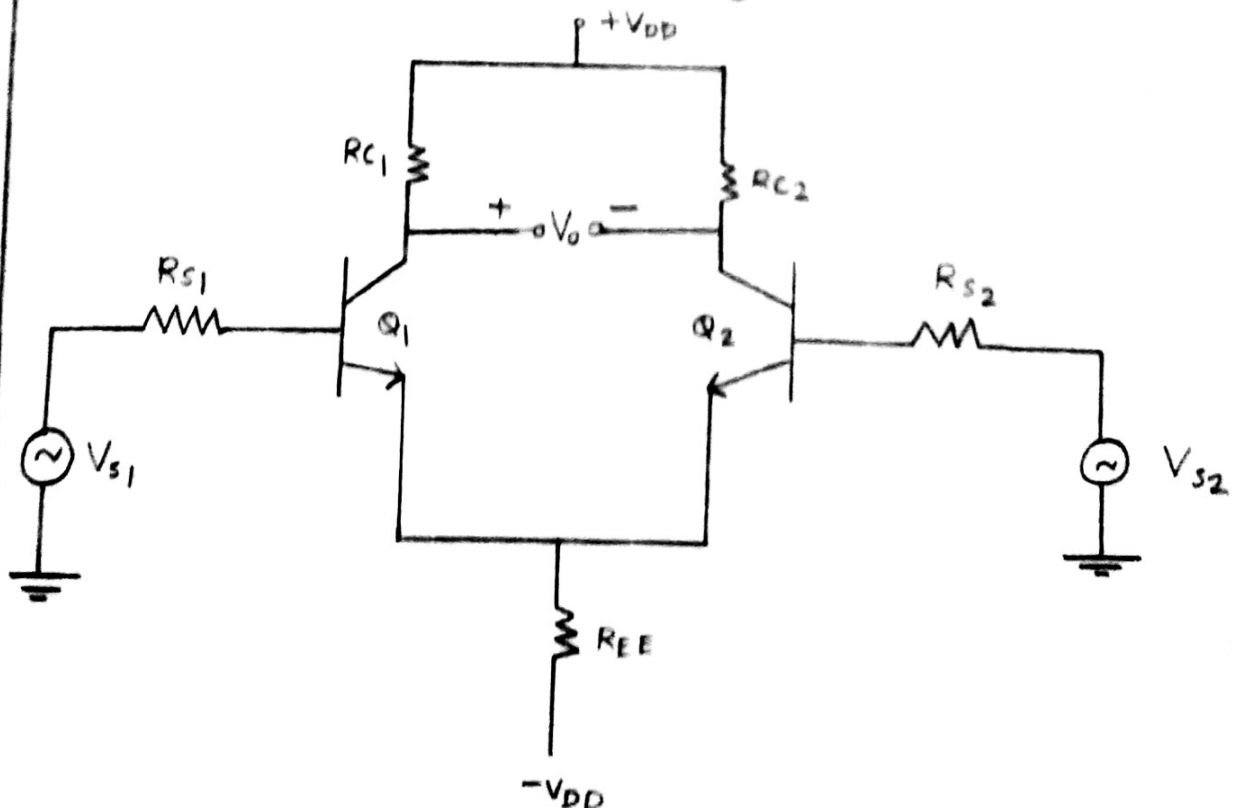
$$V_{dm} = V_1 - V_2$$

- (ii) Common mode input voltage (V_{cm}) \Rightarrow (represents noise signal)

$$V_{cm} = \frac{V_1 + V_2}{2}$$

(One aim is to reduce this noise i.e., V_{cm} - small)

Differential Amplifier Using BJT

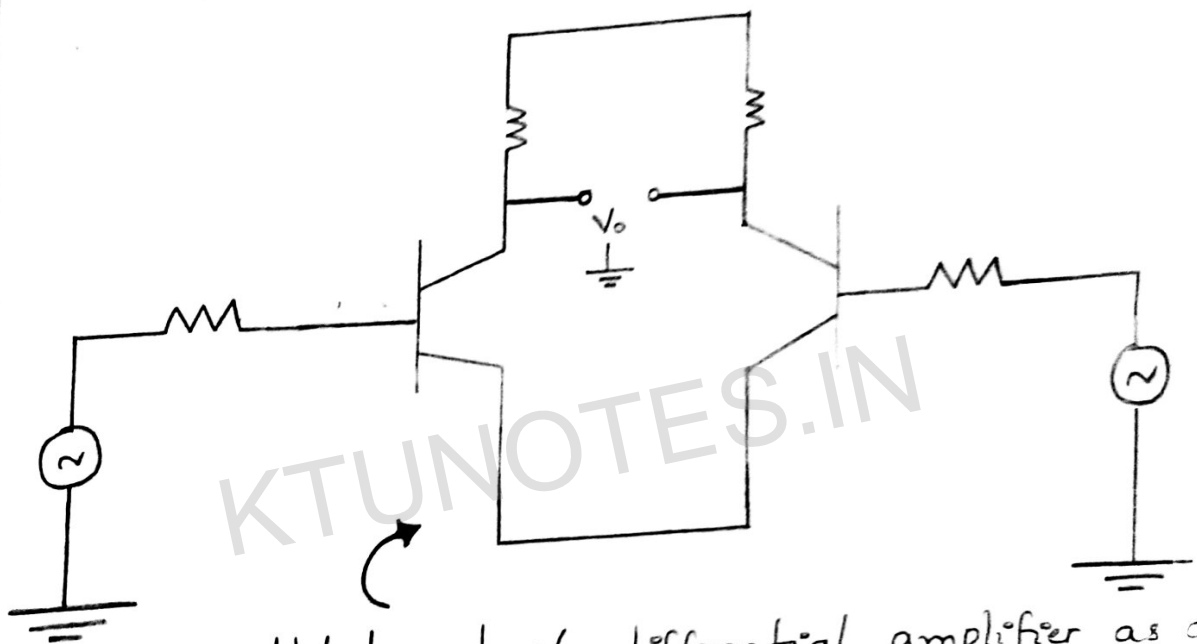


This is called as BJT Differential amplifier of resistor loading.

- Load R_{C1}, R_{C2}
- Supply $+V_{DD}, -V_{DD}$
- Inputs V_{S1}, V_{S2}

Output is taken from 2 collectors.

** As it is taken from , it is called balanced output differential amplifier or double ended differential amp.



Unbalanced o/p differential amplifier as output is taken from one collector which is grounded.

Two Voltage Gains :

(i) Difference mode voltage gain (A_{dm})

$$A_{dm} = \frac{-h_{fe} R_e}{2(R_s + h_{ie})}$$

$h_{fe} \rightarrow$ Current gain

$h_{ie} \rightarrow$ Input resistance of amplifier.

Common mode Voltage gain (A_{cm})

$$A_{cm} = \frac{-h_{fe} \times R_c}{R_s + h_{ie} + 2R_E(1+h_{fe})}$$

$R_c \rightarrow$ Collector resistor

$h_{fe} \rightarrow$ current gain

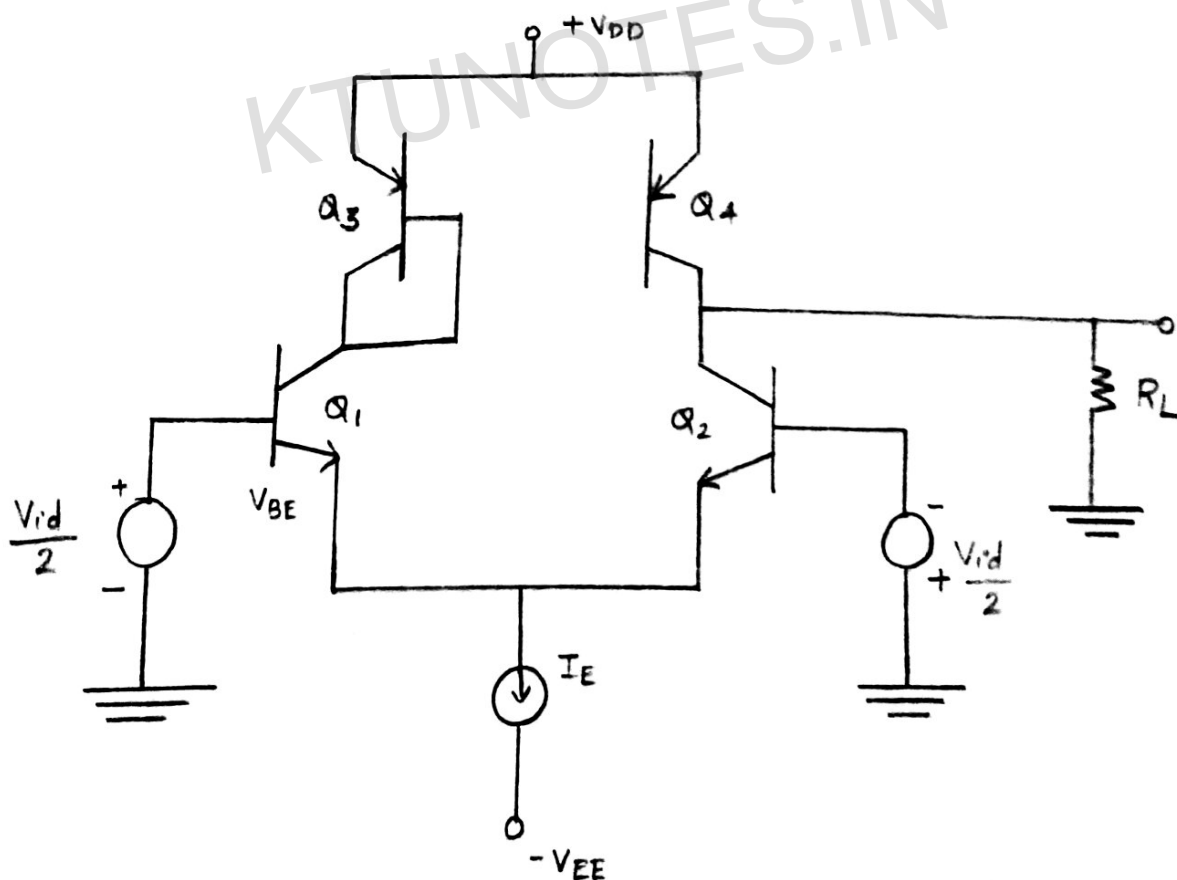
$R_s \rightarrow$ Source resistor

$h_{ie} \rightarrow$ i/p resistance of amplifier.

A_{dm} value should be high and A_{cm} should be Low.

To increase A_{dm} , Active biasing was designed.

\Downarrow
Differential Amplifier Using BJT using active biasing



Characteristics of Opamp

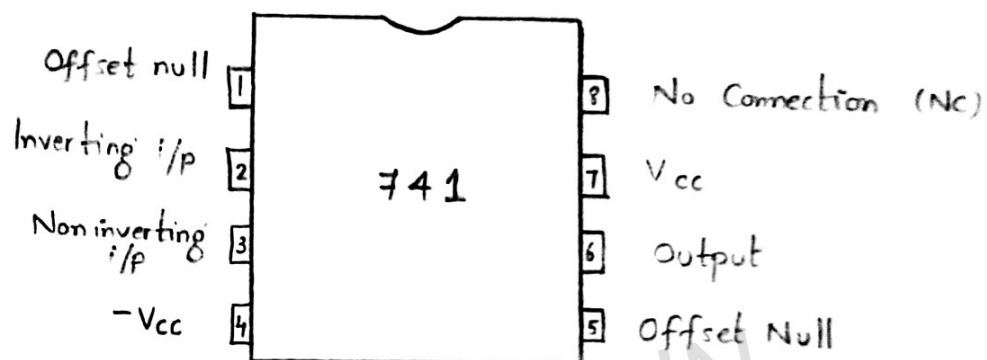
Most commonly used opamp is IC 741

μA 741 \rightarrow Fair child

LM 741 \rightarrow National Instruments.

MC1 741 \rightarrow Motorola.

Pin Diagram :



Characteristics

1) Input Offset Voltage.

It is the voltage that must be applied between the two input terminals of an op amp to nullify the o/p - due to mismatch between terminals, there will be a voltage between the two terminals

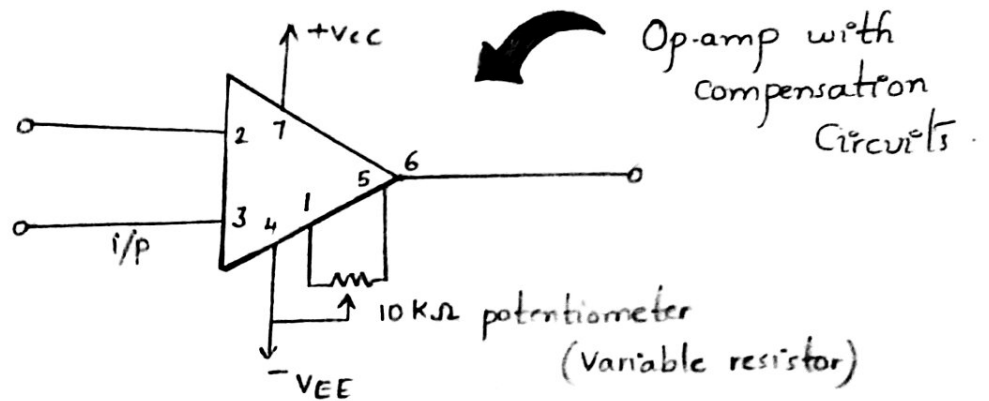
- Sometimes there will be error voltage at output, so to avoid that, i/p voltage should be made zero.
- And the voltage applied to make i/p voltage zero is called input offset voltage.
- For IC 741, Input offset voltage, $V_{io} = 6\text{mV}$ (occurs due to mismatch in transistor which are used)

Output Offset Voltage

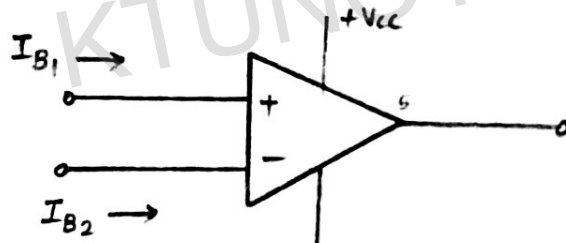
(4)

It is the output voltage due to the input offset voltage. It can be +ve or -ve with respect to ground.

- To multiply or to make output offset voltage zero, we use compensating circuits.



3) Input Offset Current



It is the algebraic difference between the currents flowing into the non-inverting and inverting terminals of an op-amp. (I_{io})

$$I_{io} = |I_{B1} - I_{B2}|$$

$$\text{741 IC } I_{io} = 200 \text{ nA}$$

④ Input Bias Current (I_B)

It is the average of currents flowing into non inverting and inverting terminals of an op amp. It is denoted by I_B .

$$I_B = \frac{I_{B1} + I_{B2}}{2}$$

741 $I_B = 500 \text{ nA}$.

5) Common Mode Rejection Ratio (CMRR)

It is the ratio of differential voltage gain to common mode voltage gain. It is usually expressed in dB.

$$CMRR = 20 \log \frac{A_{dm}}{A_{cm}} \quad \text{Very Important!!}$$

In ideal case A_{cm} should be zero and then CMRR should be infinity.

In case of 741 IC, $CMRR = 90 \text{ dB}$

$$A_{dm} = \frac{V_o}{V_{id}}$$

&

$$A_{cm} = \frac{\text{o/p common mode voltage}}{\text{i/p common mode voltage}}$$

Gain.

It is the ratio of output voltage to differential input voltage.

$$V_o = A(V_1 - V_2) \quad (V_{id} = V_1 - V_2)$$

$$\therefore V_o = A \cdot V_{id}$$

$$A = \frac{V_o}{V_{id}}$$

Ideally, the value of gain should be as high as possible or infinite. In case of :

$$\text{IC } 741, A = 2,00,000$$

7. Bandwidth.

It is the range of frequency within which the gain remains constant.

$$\text{Gain} \times \text{Bandwidth} = \text{Constant}$$

$$\text{for } 741 \text{ IC} = 1 \text{ MHz}$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = \infty$$

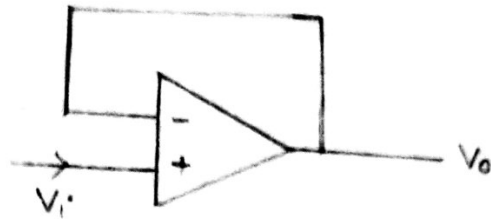
8. Slew Rate.

It is the maximum rate of change of output voltage per unit time. It is usually expressed in volts/microsecond.

$$\text{Slew Rate} = \left[\frac{d}{dt} (V_o) \right]_{\max} \text{ V}/\mu\text{s}$$

- Slew rate's value should be high for high frequency signal
- Causes of slew rate limiting
 - (1) Internal Capacitors
 - (2) Temperature

Slew Rate Equation



$$V_i = V_m \sin \omega t$$

$$V_o = V_m \sin \omega t$$

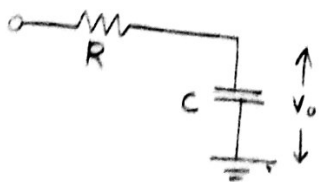
$$\text{Slew rate} = \frac{d}{dt} (V_o) = \omega V_m \cos \omega t$$

$$SR = \left[\frac{d\omega}{dt} \right]_{\max} = V_m \omega$$

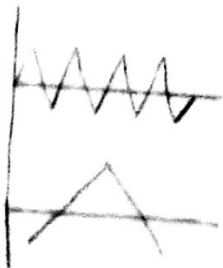
$$\text{Slew Rate} = 2\pi V_m f_m$$

$$f_m = \frac{SR}{2\pi V_m}$$

NOTE :



Suppose a triangular/sawtooth wave is given and V_o is taken from C , \therefore I flowing through capacitor with capacitance C is $\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{I}{C}$



And to get o/p same as i/p, capacitor should charge & discharge fastly & simultaneously. Because of capacitor we won't get o/p as i/p so this rate is slew rate.

Operational Amplifiers

A. Stolp, 4/22/01
rev, 12/5/05

An *operational amplifier* is basically a complete high-gain voltage amplifier in a small package. Op-amps were originally developed to perform mathematical operations in analog computers, hence the odd name. They are now made using integrated circuit technology, so they come in the typical multi-pin IC packages. With the proper external components, the operational amplifier can perform a wide variety of “operations” on the input voltage. It can multiply the input voltage by nearly any constant factor, positive or negative, it can add the input voltage to other input voltages, and it can integrate or differentiate the input voltage. The respective circuits are called *amplifiers*, *summers*, *integrators*, and *differentiators*. Op-amps are also used to make active frequency filters, current-to-voltage converters, voltage-to-current converters, current amplifiers, voltage comparators, etc. etc.. These little parts are so versatile, useful, handy, and cheap that they’re kind of like electronic Lego blocks — although somewhat drably colored.

Op-amp characteristics

Operational amplifiers have several very important characteristics that make them so useful:

1. An op-amp has *two* inputs and it amplifies the *voltage difference* between those two inputs. These two inputs are known as the noninverting input, labeled (+), and the inverting input, labeled (-), as shown in Fig. 1. The output voltage is a function of the noninverting input voltage minus the inverting input voltage.

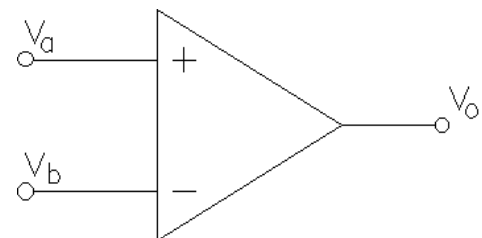


Figure 1 Op-amp symbol

That is: $v_o = G(v_a - v_b)$ Where G = voltage gain of the op-amp.

2. The op-amp must be connected to external sources of power (not shown on the drawing above). The output voltage (v_o) cannot be more positive than the positive power source or more negative than the negative power source. The gain (G) is very high, typically more than 100,000. Together that means that if the output (v_o) is in the *active* range (somewhere between its physical limits, often called “rails”), then $v_a - v_b \approx 0$, and $v_a \approx v_b$. This is a very important point. If you don’t see this, look back at the equation above, v_o is limited, G is very big, so $(v_a - v_b)$ must be very small.

If the output is:

In active range
 $- \text{rail} < v_o < +\text{rail}$

The inputs must be:

$$v_a \approx v_b$$

If the inputs are:

$$\begin{aligned} v_a &> v_b \\ v_a &< v_b \end{aligned}$$

The output must be:

$+ \text{rail}$
 $- \text{rail}$

3. In fact, $v_a - v_b$ must be so small that it’s very difficult to make v_a & v_b close enough

without using some *negative feedback*. Negative feedback makes the op-amp maintain $v_a \approx v_b$ for itself. With the proper negative feedback the op-amp keeps $v_a \approx v_b$ so close that you can assume that $v_a = v_b$. Without this negative feedback the op-amp output will almost certainly be at one of its limits, either high or low, i.e. NOT in its active, or *linear*, range. Incidentally, circuits without negative feedback are also useful, but then the output is either high or low (digital) and not linearly related to the input. These types of circuits are called *nonlinear* circuits.

4. Op-amps amplify DC as well as AC.
5. The input currents are almost zero. In more technical terms, the op-amp has very high input impedance. As long as you use reasonable resistor values in your circuits (say $\leq 1\text{ M}\Omega$), you can neglect the input currents.

Simple, isn't it? OK, so it doesn't sound so simple yet, but the application of these characteristics really isn't hard. Let's look at some circuits.

Linear Circuits

Linear circuits employ negative feedback to keep $v_a \approx v_b$. If a circuit has a connection from the output to the inverting (-) input, then it has negative feedback.

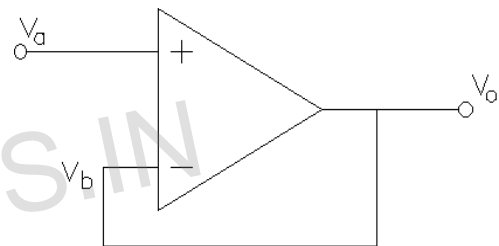


Figure 2 Voltage follower

Voltage follower

The voltage follower shown in Fig. 2 is probably the simplest linear op-amp circuit. Notice the feedback from the output to the inverting (-) input. If we were to hook the circuit input (v_a) up to some voltage source, say 2 volts DC, what would happen? If the output was lower than 2 V, then the input voltage difference ($v_a - v_b$) would be positive and the huge gain of the op-amp would drive the output higher. If the output was higher than 2 V, then $v_a - v_b$ would be negative the output would go down. Very quickly the output voltage v_o would change until $v_a - v_b$ becomes very small. Or basically, until $v_o = 2\text{ V}$. This is the concept of negative feedback! A fraction (in this case all) of the output voltage is "fed back" to the input in order to control the gain of the op-amp. The op-amp works very hard to maintain a very small difference between the voltages on its inputs. This circuit is known as a voltage follower because the output "follows" the input.

Negative feedback is an important concept. It is used in almost all systems, including all natural systems. A very simple example is the heating system in your house. If the air temperature is too low the thermostat detects a difference between its setting and the air temperature and turns on the heater. When the air temperature reaches the set temperature the thermostat turns off the heater—negative feedback. The servo system that you've seen in lab is another example of negative feedback. When the motor position sensor senses a different position than the input position sensor the circuit makes the motor turn in such a way that the difference is minimized and the positions line up.

Noninverting amplifier

Now suppose we feed back only a fraction of the output voltage rather than all of it. The method used for this is shown in Fig. 3. R_1 and R_f constitute a voltage divider. Remember, the current flowing into an op-amp input is virtually nil, so we can neglect its effect on the voltage divider. This is one of the very nice features of an op-amp. In this circuit, as in the voltage follower, the op-amp works very hard to keep $v_a - v_b$ very small. Only now v_b is a fraction of v_o and the op-amp has to make v_o that much larger.

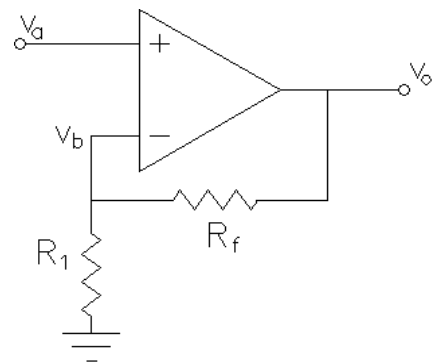


Figure 3 Noninverting amplifier

$$v_{in} = v_a \approx v_b = \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_f} v_o$$

For all practical purposes:

$$v_o = \frac{R_1 + R_f}{R_1} v_{in} = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_1}\right) v_{in}$$

Notice that by adjusting the ratio of R_f and R_1 , we can make the gain of the op-amp circuit almost anything we want. Isn't that neat? The circuit in Fig. 3 is called a noninverting amplifier because the output voltage is in phase with the input voltage; that is, it is *not* inverted. When the input voltage increases, the output voltage will also increase and vice-versa. Yes, noninverting is a double negative and kind-of a dumb name.

Inverting amplifier

Before going on, observe that I've swapped the positions of the two inputs (- & +) on my op-amp symbol. Either way of drawing the op-amp is OK, whatever makes the whole schematic look better. The noninverting input is on the bottom in this case because it's hooked to ground. Draw the op-amp so that the surrounding circuitry is clear.

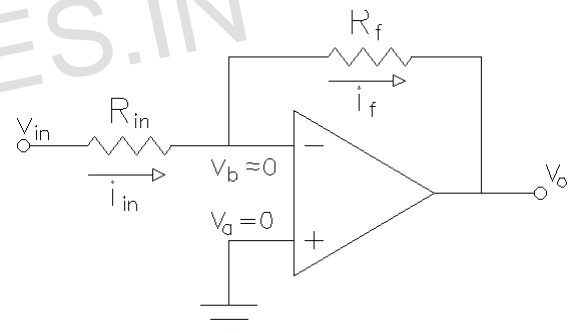


Figure 4 Inverting amplifier

The op-amp output is still connected to the inverting (-) input, so again we have negative feedback. If $v_b > v_a$ then the output will go down, taking v_b with it, until $v_b \approx v_a$. If $v_b < v_a$ then the output will go up until $v_b \approx v_a$. Negative feedback makes the op-amp do its best to equalize its inputs. In this circuit $v_a = 0$, which means that the op-amp will try to keep $v_b \approx 0$ as well. The current into the op-amp is zero, so i_{in} and i_f must be the same ($i_f = i_{in}$). Using these two ideas together:

$$i_{in} = \frac{v_{in} - 0}{R_{in}} = i_f = \frac{0 - v_o}{R_f}$$

$$v_o = -\frac{R_f}{R_{in}} v_{in}$$

The minus sign means that v_o will be inverted with respect to v_{in} , hence the name of this amplifier. When v_{in} is positive, v_o is negative, and when v_{in} is negative, v_o is positive. The gain of the inverting amplifier, like that of the noninverting amplifier, is completely dependent on our choices of R_f and R_{in} .

Summer

The inverting amplifier can also be used as a summing amplifier; that is, it can be made to add the effects of several input voltages together. Look at the circuit in Fig. 5.

$$i_f = i_1 + i_2 + i_3$$

$$i_f = -\frac{v_o}{R_f} = \frac{v_1}{R_1} + \frac{v_2}{R_2} + \frac{v_3}{R_3}$$

$$v_o = -\frac{R_f}{R_1}v_1 - \frac{R_f}{R_2}v_2 - \frac{R_f}{R_3}v_3$$

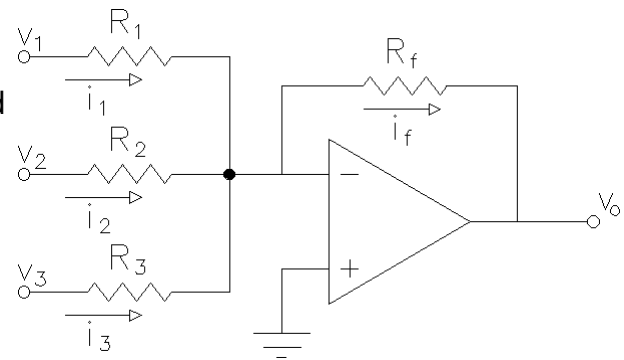


Figure 5 Summer

The summer can be expanded to any number of inputs. See? This is getting easier.

Differentiator

The differentiator looks an awful lot like the inverting amplifier, and is analyzed in a very similar way.

$$i_C = C \frac{dv_{in}}{dt} = i_f = -\frac{v_o}{R_f}$$

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

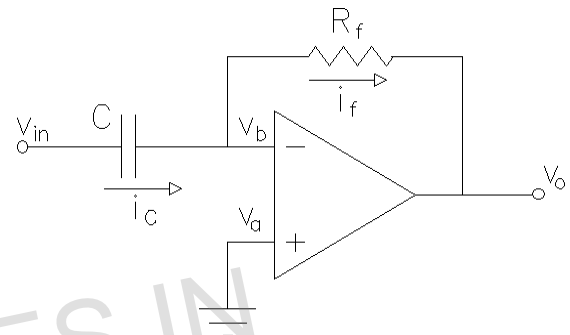


Figure 6 Differentiator

Integrator

Another useful op-amp circuit is the integrator, shown in Fig. 7. For this circuit:

$$i_{in} = \frac{v_{in}}{R_{in}} = i_C = -C \frac{dv_o}{dt}$$

$$v_o = -\frac{1}{CR_{in}} \int v_{in} dt$$

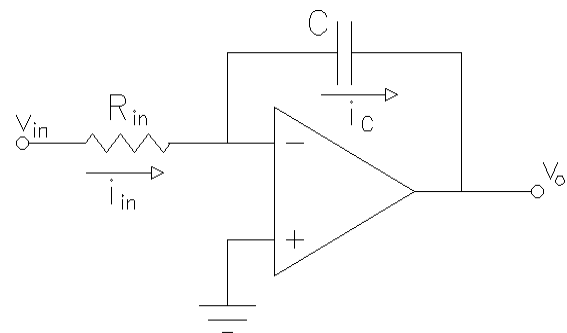


Figure 7 Integrator

Unfortunately, The simple integrator does have one little practical problem. Notice that if the input voltage has any dc component, the output voltage will soon try to run off to infinity. (Actually it will stop when the op-amp reaches one of its output limits, either negative or positive.) A resistor is usually placed in parallel with the capacitor to eliminate this rather annoying effect. The circuit in Fig. 8 has such a resistor. This is a *running-average* or *Miller* integrator.

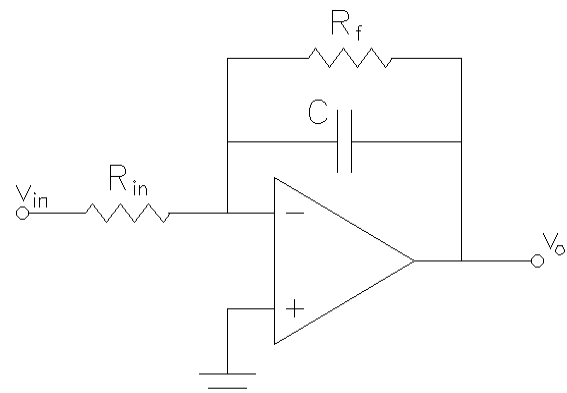


Figure 8 Practical integrator

Active Filters

If you replace the resistors in the inverting and noninverting amplifiers with frequency dependant impedances (capacitors and/or inductors), you can make all sorts of frequency dependant circuits, including filters. In fact, the differentiator and integrator circuits can be thought of as filters.

One of the main advantages of active filters is that you don't need to use inductors. Real inductors are far from ideal, as you've no doubt observed in lab. Real capacitors are much closer to ideal capacitors and they're cheaper than inductors. Entire books are devoted to these *active* filters and we won't cover them any further here.

Differential amplifier

This circuit amplifies only the difference between the two inputs. In this circuit there are two resistors labeled R_{in} , which means that their values are equal. Same goes for the two R_f 's.

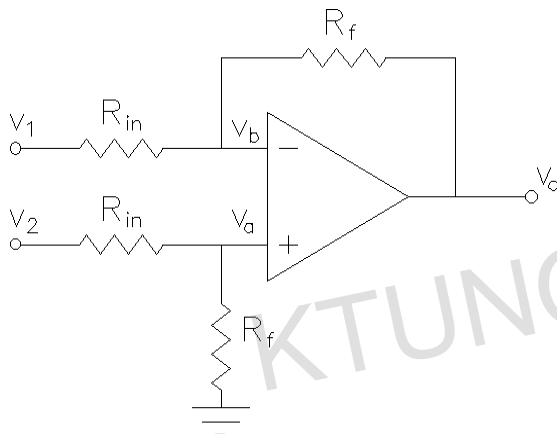


Figure 10 Differential amplifier

$$v_a = \frac{R_f}{R_{in} + R_f} v_2 = v_b = \frac{R_f}{R_{in} + R_f} (v_1 - v_o) + v_o$$

$$\frac{R_f}{R_{in} + R_f} v_2 = \frac{R_f}{R_{in} + R_f} (v_1 - v_o) + \frac{R_{in} + R_f}{R_{in} + R_f} v_o$$

$$R_f v_2 = R_f v_1 - R_f v_o + R_{in} v_o + R_f v_o$$

$$R_f v_2 = R_f v_1 + R_{in} v_o$$

$$v_o = \frac{R_f}{R_{in}} (v_2 - v_1)$$

Don't confuse the differential amplifier with the differentiator. The differential amplifier amplifies the difference of two inputs while the differentiator amplifies the slope of an input.

Instrumentation Amplifier

The differential amplifier isn't really very practical. The current that flows into the top input depends on the voltage applied to the bottom input. This may not seem that bad, but it is. It means that the input characteristics of this circuit are not constant. One way to get around this would be to place a voltage follower on each input, as shown here.

$$v_o = \frac{R_f}{R_{in}} (v_2 - v_1)$$

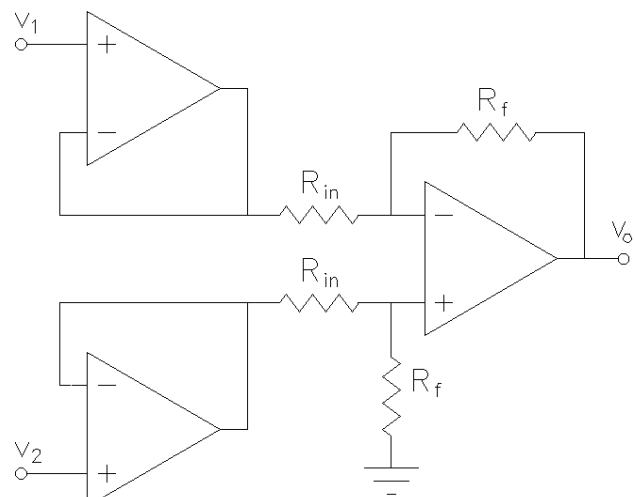


Figure 9 Buffered differential amplifier

Now this is a perfectly good circuit. If the two R_i s are closely matched and the two R_{in} s are also closely matched, then this circuit will amplify differential voltages very well and reject *common* voltages (a voltage that is common to both inputs should subtract out of the equation). In EE terms, it has a good Common-Mode-Rejection-Ration (CMRR).

But what if you want to change the gain? You'd have to change two resistors at the same time. By adding two more matched resistors and variable resistor we'll get the instrumentation amplifier shown at right. The equation for this circuit is:

$$v_o = \left(1 + \frac{2R_2}{R_1}\right) \frac{R_4}{R_3} (v_2 - v_1)$$

This is an important circuit and you will probably see it again many times. For instance, if you had to amplify the output of a wheatstone bridge of stain gages, this would be the amp for the job.

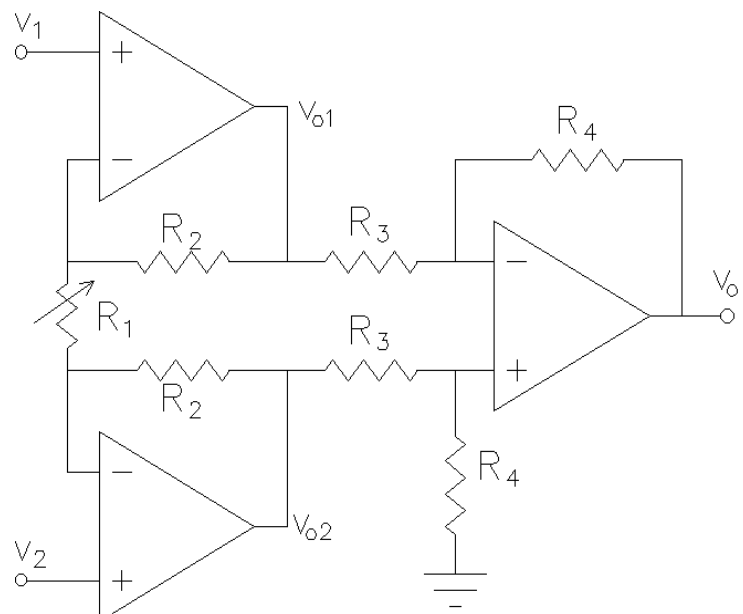


Figure 11 Instrumentation amplifier

Op-amp with extra current amplification

Most op-amps cannot supply much current to the load. They are often limited to 10 or 20 mA, about enough to light an LED, but not much more. That can be very limiting. The circuit at right shows a quick and dirty way to use two transistors to greatly increase the load current (at a small cost in output voltage swing). Notice that the feedback is taken from the output of the transistors, so they sort-of become part of the op-amp and the op-amp will do a pretty good job of eliminating the "crossover" dead-zone that occurs as one transistor turns off and the other turn on.

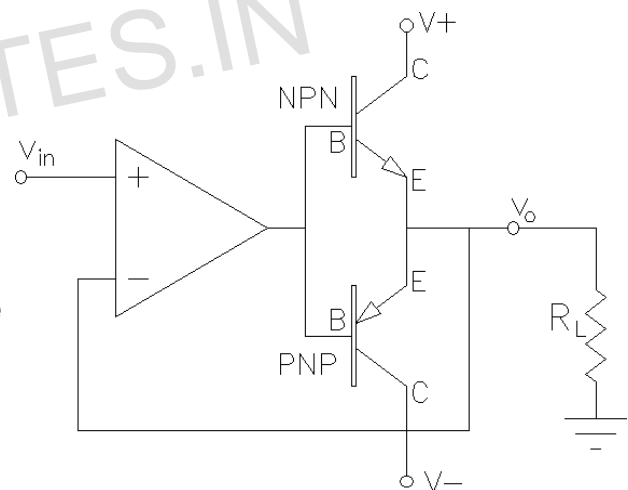


Figure 12 How to get more current

This particular circuit is a simple voltage follower. You can adapt this same current amplification to most of the other op-amp circuits that we have discussed. A few words of warning, however. The extra delay in the feedback can result in instabilities. Try it with the parts you intend to use before you depend on this design. Also, if you use a low quality op-amp (with a slow slew rate) you can get significant crossover distortion.

Nonlinear Circuits

In all cases so far, the feedback signal (voltage) has been applied to the inverting (-) input of the op-amp. This means that the feedback is negative. Negative feedback tends to reduce the difference between the v_a and v_b voltages and make linear circuits. Without negative feedback the op-amp cannot minimize the difference between v_a and v_b and the very high sensitivity of the op-amp results in *switching*, or *nonlinear* circuits.

Comparator

Now look at Fig. 14. This circuit will **not** work as a linear circuit. If $v_a > 0$ the output will be as high as the op-amp can make it, usually a volt or two below the positive power supply. If $v_a < 0$ the output will be as low as the op-amp can make it, usually a volt or two above the negative power supply. The output is no longer linearly related to the input—it's more like a digital signal, high or low depending on how v_{in} compares to ground (0 V). The comparator is a *nonlinear* circuit.

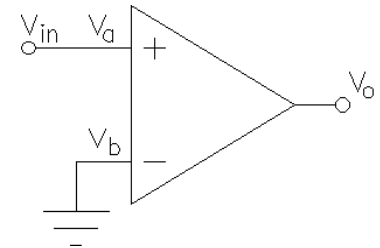


Figure 13 Comparator

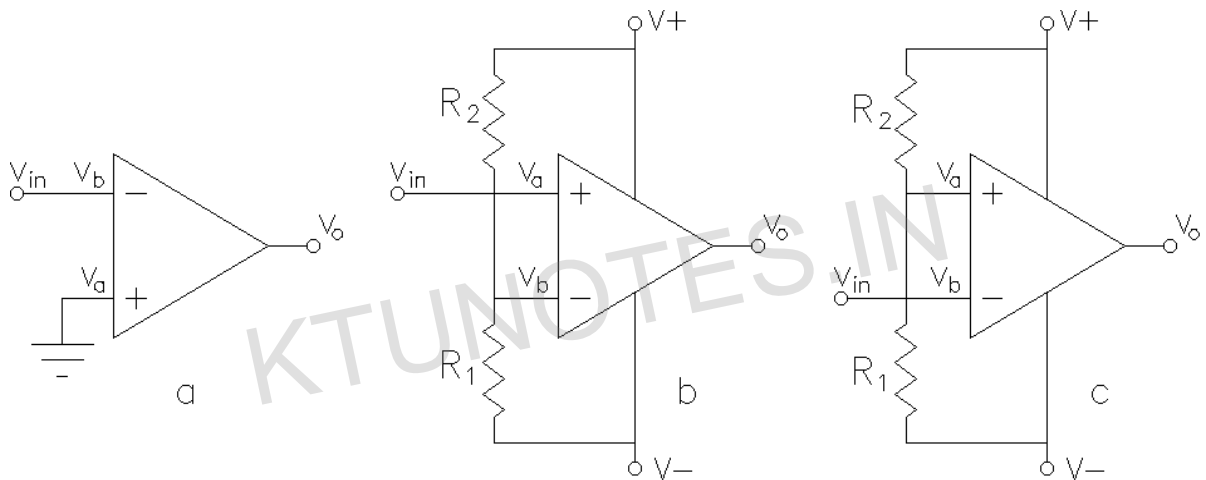


Figure 14 Other comparators

All the circuits above are also comparators. In the first circuit, the input is again compared to ground, but this time the output goes low when the input goes high and vice-versa. In the remaining circuits the input is compared not to 0 V, but to some voltage set by the voltage divider of R_1 and R_2 .

Schmitt trigger

The Schmitt trigger is a variation of the simple comparator which has hysteresis, that is, it has a toggle action. When the output is high, positive feedback makes the switching level higher than it is when the output is low. A little positive feedback makes a comparator with better noise immunity. Increase the positive feedback and the Schmitt trigger can be used in other switching applications.

Look at the Schmitt trigger circuit shown at right. Notice that $v_a = [R_1 / (R_1 + R_f)] v_o$, it depends on the output. Lets say

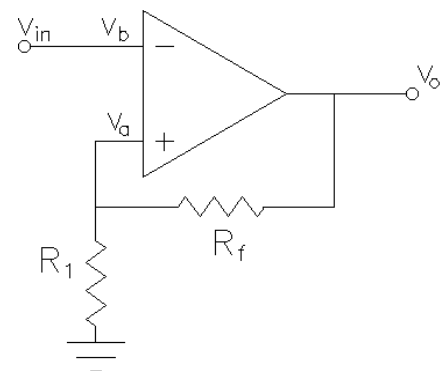


Figure 15 Schmitt trigger

the output is low and the input is decreasing. When $v_{in} < v_a$ the output goes high and suddenly v_a goes a little bit higher with it. That makes the difference between v_b and v_a even bigger. To make the circuit switch again v_{in} has to go back up beyond the original switching level. It has to reach the new v_a before the output will switch low. In this circuit the two switching levels are above and below ground by the same amount (unless you have nonsymmetric power supplies).

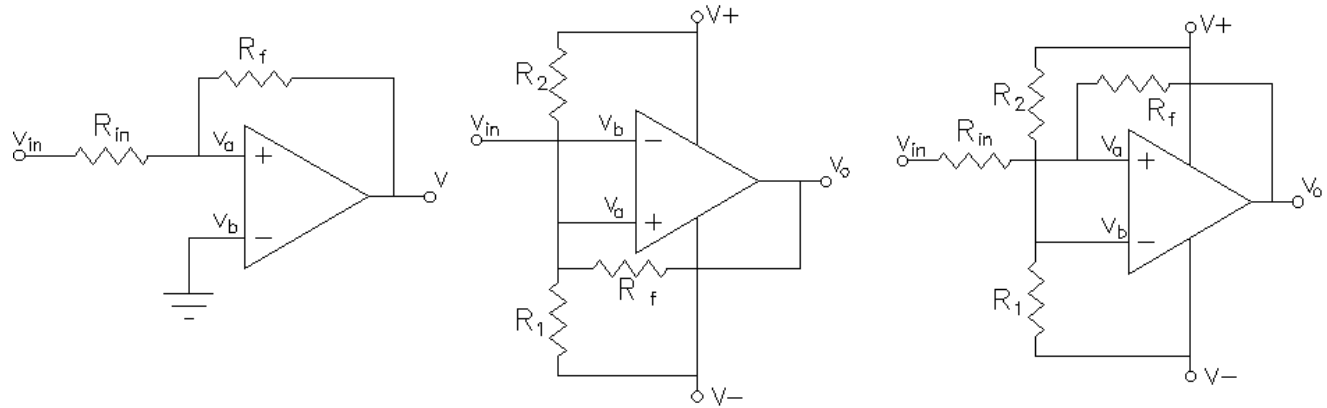


Figure 16 Other Schmitt triggers

The circuits above are variations of the Schmitt trigger. In the first circuit, the input is again compared to levels above and below ground, but this time the output goes high when the input goes high and vice-versa. In the remaining circuits the switching levels are not symmetric about 0 V, but about some voltage set by the voltage divider of R_1 and R_2 .

Multivibrator (square wave generator)

The heart of the multivibrator is a Schmitt trigger with lots of positive feedback. Usually $R_2 = R_3$, which set the switching levels at about $\frac{1}{2} V_+$ and $\frac{1}{2} V_-$. When the output is high the capacitor charges through R_1 until it reaches the $\frac{1}{2} V_+$ switching level, the output switches low and the capacitor discharges to zero and then charges up (down) until it reaches the $\frac{1}{2} V_-$ switching level. That makes the output switch high and the process repeats.

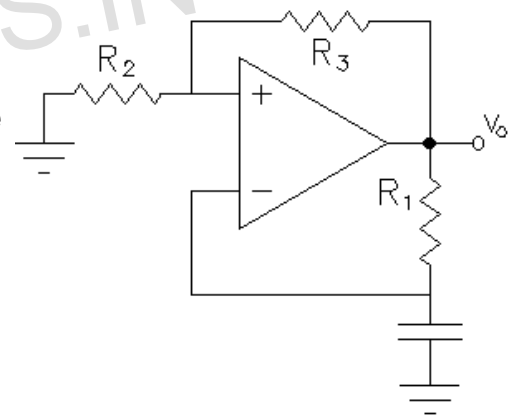


Figure 17 Multivibrator

Conclusion

In all of these circuits, with either negative or positive feedback, the output voltage v_o cannot increase without bounds. It is bounded in the positive direction by V_+ , the op-amp positive power supply voltage, and is bounded in the negative direction by V_- , the op-amp negative supply voltage. If the output voltage is within these bounds, $v_a - v_b$ must be very small. If $v_a - v_b$ were not very small, v_o would soon be forced to one of its limits. Linear circuits use negative feedback to keep this difference small. Without negative feedback you can reasonably assume that the circuit is some kind of switching circuit and that the output is always at one or the other of its limits.

This only scratches the surface of what you can do with op-amps. Get a copy of *The Op-amp Cookbook* for lots more ideas presented in a no-nonsense way.