LO2 Operational Amplifiers Applications 1

Chapter 9 Ideal Operational Amplifiers and Op-Amp Circuits

Donald A. Neamen (2009). Microelectronics: Circuit Analysis and Design,

4th Edition, Mc-Graw-Hill

Prepared by: Dr. Hani Jamleh, Electrical Engineering Department, The University of Jordan

9.1.3 Analysis Method *Feedback*

- Usually, an op-amp is not used in the open-loop (configuration shown in Figure 9.2.
 - Feedback is added to close the loop between the (output and the input.
 - Negative feedback:
 - The output is connected to the **inverting terminal**.
 - This configuration produces stable circuits.
 - Positive feedback:
 - The output is connected to the **noninverting terminal**.
 - This configuration can be used to produce oscillators.

Figure 9.1(a)





9.1.3 Analysis Method Two Port Network Voltage Amplifier





9.1.3 Analysis Method



9.1.3 Analysis Method Ideal op-amp characteristics



Figure 9.6

- The **ideal op-amp** characteristics resulting from our negative feedback analysis are shown in Figure 9.6 and summarized below.
 - 1. The internal differential gain A_{od} is considered to be *infinite*.
 - 2. The differential input voltage $(v_2 v_1)$ is assumed to be zero.
 - If A_{od} is <u>very large</u> and if the output voltage v_0 is <u>finite</u>, then the two input voltages must be nearly <u>equal</u>.

$$v_0 = A_v(v_2 - v_1) \rightarrow (v_2 - v_1) = \frac{v_0}{A_v} \rightarrow (v_2 - v_1) = \frac{v_0}{\infty} = 0 \rightarrow v_2 = v_1$$

- 3. The effective input resistance R_i to the op-amp is assumed to be *infinite*, so the two input currents, $i_1 = i_2 = 0$.
- 4. The output resistance R_o is assumed to be *zero*, so the output voltage:
 - 1. is connected directly to the dependent voltage source, and
 - 2. is independent of any load connected to the output.

9.1.4 Practical Specifications

- Practical op-amps are not ideal.
 - Although their characteristics approach those of an ideal op-amp.
- Figure 9.7(a) is a more accurate equivalent circuit of an op-amp.
- A load resistance R_L is connected to the output terminal.
 - R_L may actually represent another op-amp circuit.



9.1.4 Practical Specifications Output Voltage Swing

- Since the op-amp is composed of transistors biased in the active region by the DC input voltages V^+ and V^- , the output voltage is limited.
 - When $v_0 \rightarrow V^+$, it will saturate at a value <u>nearly equal</u> to V^+ .
 - When $v_0 \rightarrow V^-$, it will saturate at a value <u>nearly equal</u> to V^- .
 - v_0 cannot go above the V^+ or below the V^- .
- The output voltage is limited to:

$$V^- + \Delta V < v_0 < V^+ - \Delta V$$



9.1.4 Practical Specifications Output Voltage Swing

- Figure 9.7(b) is a simplified voltage transfer characteristic for the op-amp, showing the saturation effect.
- In older op-amp designs, such as the 741, the value of ΔV is between 1 and 2V.

• Example: If
$$V^+ = 15V$$
 and $V^- = -15V$,

let $\Delta V = 2V$ then:

 $-13 < v_0 < 13$



9.1.4 Practical Specifications Output Currents

- As we can see from Figure 9.7(a):
 - If the output voltage is positive, the load current is supplied by the output of the opamp.
 - If the output voltage is negative, then the output of the op-amp sinks the load current.
- A limitation of practical op-amps is the maximum current that an op-amp can v2 or supply or sink.
- A typical value of the maximum current is on the order of $\pm 20mA$ for a generalpurpose op-amp.





- 7. Difference Amplifier
- 8. Instrumentation Amplifier
- 9. Integrator
- 10. Differentiator
- 11. Reference Voltage Source Design
- 12. Precision Half-wave Rectifier



9.2 Inverting Amplifier

- One of the most widely used op-amp circuits is the **inverting amplifier.**
- Figure 9.8 shows the closed-loop configuration of this circuit.
- Note, we must keep in mind that:
 - The op-amp is biased with DC voltages as an active device.







Figure 9.9

- We analyze the circuit in Figure 9.8 by considering the ideal equivalent circuit shown in Figure 9.9.
- The **closed-loop voltage gain**, or simply the **voltage** gain, is defined as:

$$A_{v} = \frac{v_{O}}{v_{I}}$$

- We stated that if the open-loop gain A_{od} is very large, then the two inputs v_1 and v_2 must be nearly equal.
- Proof:

$$v_{0} = A_{od}(v_{2} - v_{1})$$

$$\frac{v_{0}}{A_{od}} = (v_{2} - v_{1})$$

$$A_{od} \rightarrow \infty$$

$$v_{2} = v_{1}$$



Figure 9.9

$$v_2 = v_1$$

- Since v_2 is at ground potential, voltage v_1 must also be approximately *zero* volts.
 - Having v_1 be essentially at ground potential does not imply that terminal (1) is grounded.
 - Terminal (1) is said to be at virtual ground:
 - It is essentially zero volts, but it does not provide a current path to ground → means that terminal 1 is essentially at zero volts, but is not connected to ground potential.







• From Figure 9.9, we can write:

$$i_1 = \frac{v_I - v_1}{R_1} = \frac{v_I - 0}{R_1} = \frac{v_I}{R_1}$$

- Since the current into the op-amp is assumed to be *zero*, current i_1 must flow through resistor R_2 to the output terminal, which means that $i_2 = i_1$.
- The output voltage is given by (KVL):

$$v_0 = v_1 - i_2 R_2 = 0 - \left(\frac{v_I}{R_1}\right) R_2$$







$$v_0 = v_1 - i_2 R_2 = 0 - \left(\frac{v_I}{R_1}\right) R_2$$

• Therefore, the closed-loop voltage gain is:

$$A_{v} = \frac{v_{O}}{v_{I}} = -\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}}$$

- For the ideal op-amp, the closed-loop voltage gain A_v is a function of the ratio of two resistors;
 - Note: It is not a function of the transistor parameters within the op-amp circuit.
- The minus sign implies a phase reversal \rightarrow 180° phase shift.



Figure 9.8



- We can also determine the input resistance seen by the voltage source v_I .
- Because of the virtual ground, we have:

$$i_{1} = \frac{v_{I} - v_{1}}{R_{1}} = \frac{v_{I} - 0}{R_{1}} = \frac{v_{I}}{R_{1}}$$
$$i_{1} = \frac{v_{I}}{R_{1}}$$

• The **input resistance** is then defined as:

$$R_i = \frac{v_I}{i_1} = R_1$$







$$R_i = \frac{v_I}{i_1} = R_1$$

- This shows that:
 - The input resistance seen by the source is a function of R_1 only, and is a result of the "virtual ground" concept.
- Figure 9.10 summarizes our analysis of the inverting amplifier circuit.
- Since there are no coupling capacitors in the opamp circuit, the input and output voltages, as well as the currents in the resistors, can be DC signals.
 - The inverting op-amp can then amplify DC voltages.





- **Specifications**: The circuit configuration to be designed is shown in Figure 9.10.
- Design the circuit such that the voltage gain is $A_v = -5$.
- Assume the op-amp is driven by an ideal sinusoidal source:

 $v_s = 0.1 \sin \omega t (V)$

that can supply a maximum current of $5\mu A$.

- Note: Assume that frequency ω is low so that any frequency effects can be neglected.
- **Design Pointer**: If the sinusoidal input signal source has a nonzero output resistance, the op-amp must be redesigned to provide the specified voltage gain.



Figure 9.10

• **Initial Solution**: The input current is given by:

$$i_1 = \frac{v_I}{R_1} = \frac{\bar{v}_s}{R_1}$$

• If
$$i_1(\max) = 5 \ \mu A$$
, then we can write:

$$R_1 = \frac{v_s(\max)}{i_1(\max)} = \frac{0.1}{5 \times 10^{-6}} \Rightarrow 20 \ k\Omega$$

• The closed-loop gain is given by:

$$A_{v} = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} = -5$$

• We then have:

$$R_2 = 5R_1 = 5(20k\Omega) = 100 k\Omega$$

• **Comment**: The output resistance of the signal source R_s must be included in the design of the op-amp to provide a specified voltage gain.



Figure 9.10

Problem-Solving Technique: Ideal Op-Amp Circuits

- 1. If the noninverting terminal of the op-amp is at ground potential, then the inverting terminal v_1 is at virtual ground.
 - Sum currents at this node, assuming zero current enters the op-amp itself.
- 2. If the noninverting terminal of the op-amp is not at ground potential, then the inverting terminal voltage v_1 is equal to that at the noninverting terminal voltage v_2 .
 - Sum currents at the inverting terminal node, assuming *zero* current enters the op-amp itself.
- 3. For the ideal op-amp circuit, the output voltage is determined from either step 1 or step 2 above and is independent of any load connected to the output terminal.

- Assume that an inverting amplifier is to be designed having a closed-loop voltage gain of $A_v = -100$ and an input resistance of $R_i = R_1 = 50 \ k\Omega$.
- The feedback resistor R_2 would then have to vir be $R_2 = |A_v| \cdot R_1 = 100 \cdot 50k\Omega = 5M!$
 - However this resistance value is too large for most practical circuits.
 - Practically, for IC design, always avoid resistance values larger than $50k\Omega!$
- What is the solution?



Figure 9.10

- Consider the op-amp circuit shown in Figure 9.12 with a T-network in the feedback loop.
- The analysis of this circuit is similar to that of the inverting op-amp circuit of Figure 9.10. At the input, we have:

$$i_1 = \frac{v_I}{R_1} = i_2$$

• We can also write that:

$$v_X = 0 - i_2 R_2 = -v_I \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)$$





(-)

$$v_X = 0 - i_2 R_2 = -v_I \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)$$

- If we sum the currents at the node v_X , we have (i.e. KCL at node v_X): $i_2 + i_4 = i_3$
- which can be written:

$$-\frac{v_X}{R_2} - \frac{v_X}{R_4} = \frac{v_X - v_O}{R_3}$$
$$v_X(\frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_4} + \frac{1}{R_3}) = \frac{v_O}{R_3}$$





$$v_X = 0 - i_2 R_2 = -v_I \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)$$
$$v_X \left(\frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_4} + \frac{1}{R_3}\right) = \frac{v_0}{R_3}$$

• Substituting the expression for v_X we obtain:

$$-\nu_{I}(\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}})(\frac{1}{R_{2}} + \frac{1}{R_{4}} + \frac{1}{R_{3}}) = \frac{\nu_{O}}{R_{3}}$$

• The closed-loop voltage gain is therefore:

$$A_{v} = \frac{v_{0}}{v_{I}} = -\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}} \left(1 + \frac{R_{3}}{R_{4}} + \frac{R_{3}}{R_{2}} \right)$$



Figure 9.12

- **Objective**: An op-amp with a T-network is to be designed as a microphone preamplifier.
- **Specifications**: The circuit configuration to be designed is shown in Figure 9.12.
- The maximum microphone output voltage is 12mV (*rms*) and the microphone has an output resistance of $R_S = 1k\Omega$.
- The op-amp circuit is to be designed such that the maximum output voltage is 1.2V (rms).
- The input amplifier resistance should be fairly large, but all resistance values should be less that $500k\Omega$.



Figure 9.12

• Choices:

- The final design should use standard resistor values.
- Standard resistors with tolerances of $\pm 2 \ percent$ are to be considered.
- Solution: We need a voltage gain of

$$|A_v| = 1.2/0.012 = 100$$

• The gain Equation for such a circuit can be $v_{I \circ -}$ written in the form:

$$A_{v} = \frac{v_{0}}{v_{I}} = -\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}} \left(1 + \frac{R_{3}}{R_{4}} + \frac{R_{3}}{R_{2}} \right)$$
$$= -\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}} \left(1 + \frac{R_{3}}{R_{4}} \right) - \frac{R_{3}}{R_{1}}$$



Figure 9.12

$$A_{\nu} = \frac{\nu_0}{\nu_I} = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} \left(1 + \frac{R_3}{R_4}\right) - \frac{R_3}{R_1}$$

• As a designer, we arbitrarily choose: $R_2/R_1 = R_3/R_1 = 8$

• Then:

$$-100 = -8(1 + \frac{R_3}{R_4}) - 8$$

• Which yields:

$$\frac{R_3}{R_4} = 10.5$$



Figure 9.12

- The effective R'_1 must include the R_S resistance of the microphone.
- If we set $R_1 = 49 k\Omega$ so that $R'_1 = 50k\Omega$, then:

$$R_2 = R_3 = 400 \ k\Omega$$

and:

$$R_4 = \frac{R_3}{10.5} = \frac{400k}{10.5} = 38.1k\Omega$$



Figure 9.12

Choosing Standard Resistor Values (Appendix C)

Resistor	Calculated Value	Nearest Standard Value	
R_1	49 <i>k</i> Ω	$51 \ k\Omega$	
R_2	$400 \ k\Omega$	$390 \ k\Omega$	
R_3	$400 \ k\Omega$	$390 \ k\Omega$	
R_4	38.1 <i>k</i> Ω	?	

Table C.1		Standard resistance values (×10 ⁿ)			
10 11 12 13	16 18 20 22	27 30 33 36	43 47 51 56	68 75 82 91	
15	24	39	62	100	

• **Design Pointer:** If we need to use standard resistance values in our design, then, using Appendix C, we can choose $R_1 = 51 k\Omega$ so that $R'_1 = 52k\Omega$, and we can choose $R_2 = R_3 = 390 k\Omega$. Then, after recalculating for R_4 we have:

$$-100 = -\frac{R_2}{R_1'} \left(1 + \frac{R_3}{R_4}\right) - \frac{R_3}{R_1'}$$

$$-100 = -\frac{390k}{52k} \left(1 + \frac{390k}{R_4}\right) - \frac{390k}{52k}$$

- which yields $R_4 = 34.4 \ k\Omega$. We may use a standard resistor of $R_4 = 33 \ k\Omega$.
- This resistance value then produces a voltage gain of:

$$A_{\nu} = -\frac{R_2}{R_1'} \left(1 + \frac{R_3}{R_4}\right) - \frac{R_3}{R_1'} = -\frac{390}{52} \left(1 + \frac{390}{33}\right) - \frac{390}{52} = -103.6$$

- Trade-offs: If we consider $\pm 2 \ percent$ tolerances in the standard resistor values, the A_v can be written as: $A_v = -\frac{R_2(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + R_1(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{R_3(1 \pm 0.02)}{R_4(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} - \frac{R_3(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + R_1(1 \pm 0.02)} \\ = -\frac{390k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{390k(1 \pm 0.02)}{33k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} - \frac{390k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \\ = -\frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{390k(1 \pm 0.02)}{33k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} - \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \\ = -\frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{33k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \\ = -\frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{33k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \\ = -\frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{33k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \\ = -\frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{33k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \\ = -\frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{33k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \\ = -\frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{33k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \\ = -\frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{33k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)} + \frac{100k(1 \pm 0.02)}{1k + 51k(1 \pm 0.02)}$
- Analyzing this equation, we find:
 - The maximum magnitude as $|A_v|_{max} = 111.6 \text{ or } +7.72 \text{ percent}$, and
 - The minimum magnitude as $|A_v|_{min} = 96.3 \text{ or } -7.05 \text{ percent}$.

• Comments:

- 1. All resistor values are less than $500 k\Omega$.
- 2. The resistance ratios in the voltage gain expression are approximately equal.
- As with most design problems, there is no unique solution.
- We must keep in mind that:
 - Because of resistor value tolerances, the actual gain of the amplifier will have a range of values.
- The amplifier with a T-network allows us to obtain a large gain using reasonably sized resistors.





- Figure 9.15 shows the basic **noninverting amplifier.**
- The input signal v_I is applied directly to the noninverting terminal, while:
 - One side of resistor R_1 is connected to the inverting terminal and
 - The other side is at ground.





- The analysis of the noninverting amplifier is essentially the same as for the inverting amplifier.
- We assume that no current enters the input terminals.
- Since $v_1 = v_2$, then $v_1 = v_I$, and current i_1 is given by:

$$i_1 = -\frac{v_1}{R_1} = -\frac{v_I}{R_1}$$

- Current i_2 is given by: $i_2 = \frac{v_1 - v_0}{R_2} = \frac{v_2 - v_0}{R_2} = \frac{v_I - v_0}{R_2}$
- As before, $i_1 = i_2$, so that: $-\frac{v_I}{R_1} = \frac{v_I - v_O}{R_2}$





$$-\frac{v_I}{R_1} = \frac{v_I - v_O}{R_2}$$

• Solving for the closed-loop voltage gain, we find:

$$A_{v} = \frac{v_{O}}{v_{I}} = 1 + \frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}}$$

- From this equation, note that:
 - 1. The output is in phase with the input, as expected (i.e. it is a non-inverting amplifier).
 - 2. The gain is always greater than unity (i.e $A_v > 1$).



Figure 9.15

- The input signal v_I is connected directly to the noninverting terminal; therefore, since the input current is essentially *zero*, the input impedance R_i seen by the source is very large, ideally infinite.
- The ideal equivalent circuit of the noninverting op-amp is shown in Figure 9.16.



$$A_{v} = \frac{v_{O}}{v_{I}} = 1 + \frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}}$$

- An interesting property of the noninverting op-amp occurs when:
 - $R_1 = \infty$, an open circuit, and
 - $R_2 = 0$, a short circuit.
- The closed-loop gain then becomes:

$$A_{v} = \frac{v_{0}}{v_{I}} = 1 + \frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}} = 1 + \frac{0}{\infty} = 1$$



$$A_{v} = \frac{v_{0}}{v_{I}} = 1 + \frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}} = 1 + \frac{0}{\infty} = 1$$
$$v_{0} = v_{I}$$

- Since the output voltage follows the input, this op-amp circuit is called a voltage follower.
- The closed-loop gain is independent of resistor R_2 (except when $R_2 = \infty$),
- So we can set $R_2 = 0\Omega$ to create a short circuit.



- The **voltage-follower op-amp** circuit is shown in Figure 9.17.
- It might seem that this circuit, with unity voltage gain, would be of little value.
 - However, other terms used for the voltage follower are impedance transformer or buffer.
- The input impedance $R_i \rightarrow \infty$, and the output impedance $R_o \rightarrow 0$.
- If, for example, the output impedance of a signal source is large, a voltage follower inserted between the source and a load will prevent loading effects.
 - It will act as a **buffer** between the source and the load.



Compare between the following two circuits!



Figure 9.18