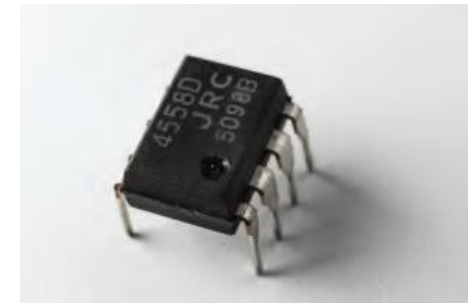
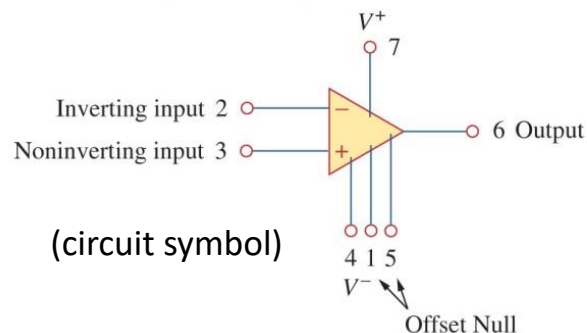
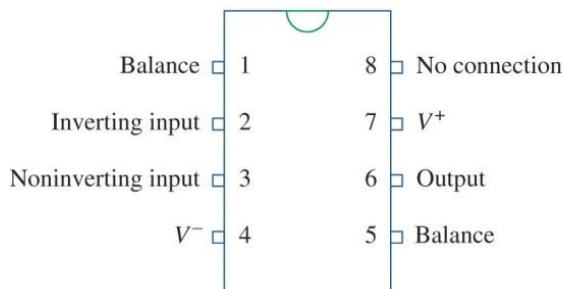


# Ch6: Operational Amplifiers

# Operational Amplifiers

# Operational Amplifier

- An **Operational Amplifier**, or **Op Amp** for short, is an electronic unit that behaves like a voltage-controlled voltage source.
- It is an active circuit element designed to perform mathematical operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, differentiation, and integration when external components, such as resistors and capacitors, are connected to its terminals.
- Op amps are commercially available in integrated circuit (IC) packages in several forms. A typical one is the eight-pin dual in-line package (or DIP) as shown.
- Pin 8 is unused, and Pins 1 and 5 are of little concern to us. The five important terminals are: inverting input (Pin 2), noninverting input (Pin 3), output (Pin 6), positive and negative power supplies (Pins 7, 4).

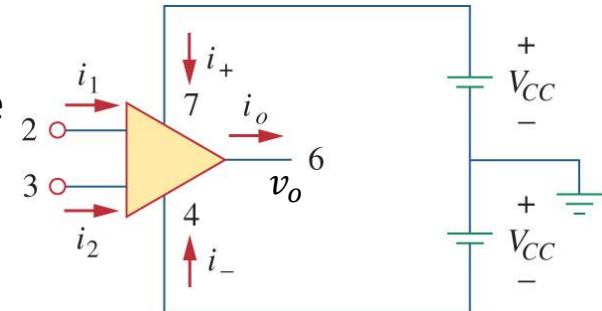


# Operational Amplifier

- Most op-amps use two voltage sources, with a ground reference between them. This gives a positive and negative supply voltage.

$$i_o = i_1 + i_2 + i_+ + i_-$$

$$-V_{CC} \leq v_o \leq V_{CC}$$

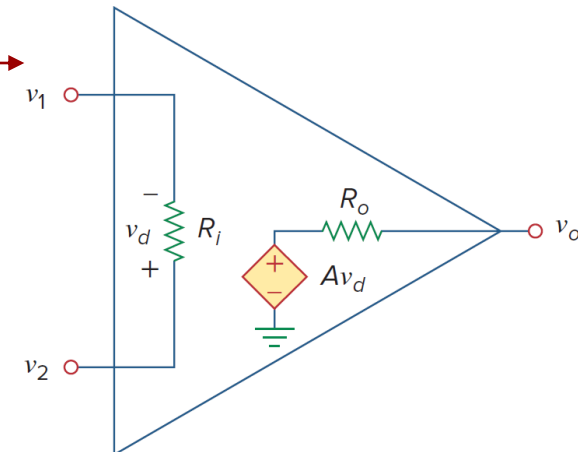


- The equivalent circuit model of an op amp is shown. The output section consists of a voltage-controlled source in series with the output resistance  $R_o$ .



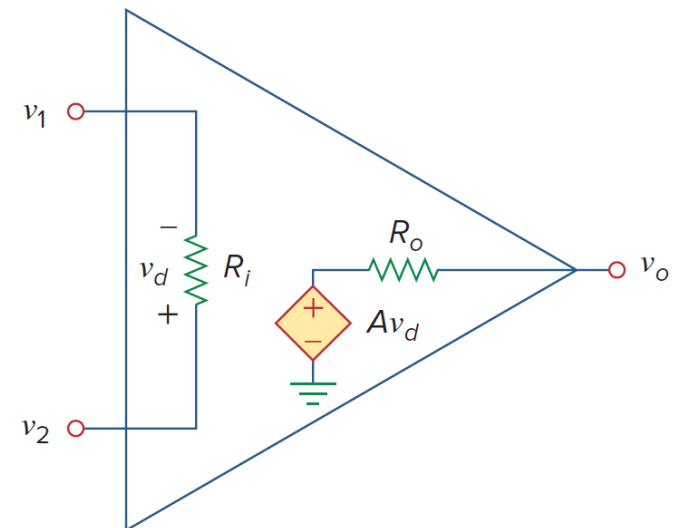
- $v_1$  is the voltage between the **inverting terminal** and ground and  $v_2$  is the voltage between the **noninverting terminal** and ground. The op amp senses the difference between the two inputs  $v_d = v_2 - v_1$ , multiplies it by the **op amp open-loop voltage gain**  $A$ , and causes the resulting voltage to appear at the output:

$$v_o = Av_d = A(v_2 - v_1)$$



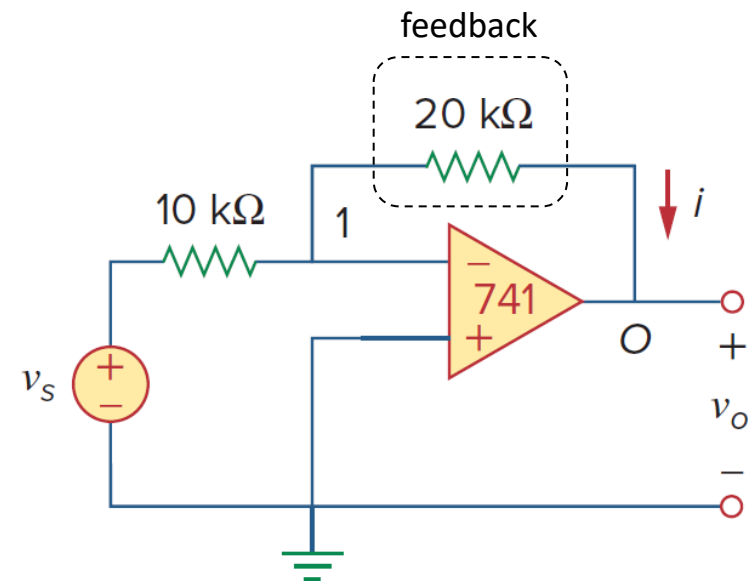
# Typical Ranges for Op Amp Parameters

<u>Parameter</u>	<u>Typical range</u>
Open-loop gain, $A$	$10^5$ to $10^8$
Input resistance, $R_i$	$10^5$ to $10^{13} \Omega$
Output resistance, $R_o$	10 to 100 $\Omega$
Supply voltage, $V_{CC}$	5 to 24 V



# Feedback

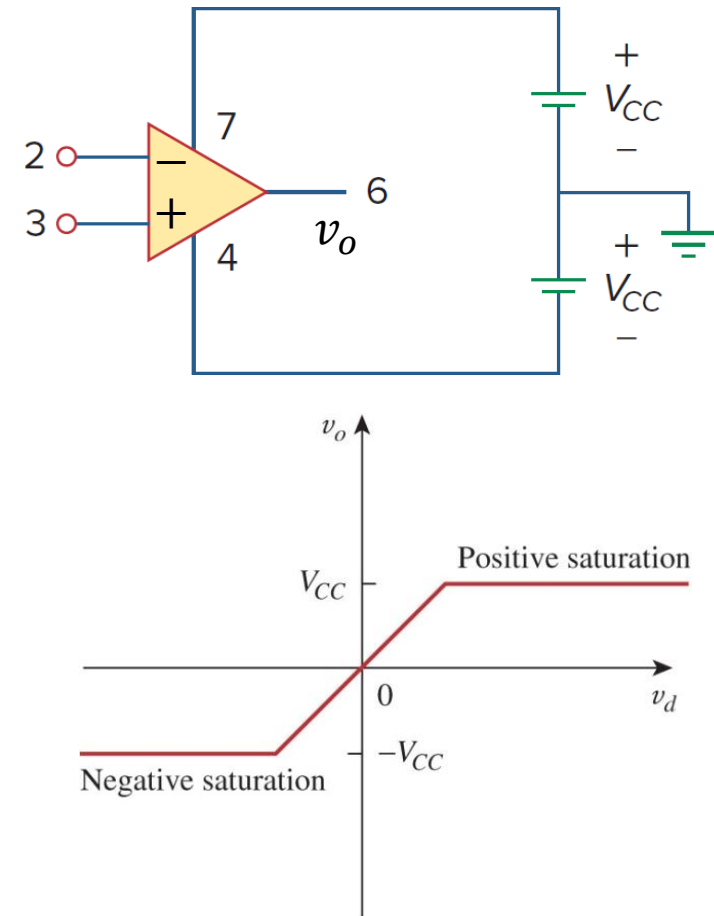
- Op-amps take on an expanded functional ability with the use of feedback. The idea is that the output of the op-amp is fed back into the **inverting terminal**.
- Depending on what elements this signal passes through, the gain and behavior of the op-amp (i.e., the ratio of the output voltage to the input voltage) changes. This ratio is called is called the **closed-loop gain**.
- Feedback to the inverting terminal is called “**negative feedback**”.
- Positive feedback would lead to oscillations.



# Voltage Saturation

- As an ideal source, the output voltage would be unlimited. However, in reality, one cannot expect the output to exceed the supply voltages  $V_{CC}$ .
- When an output should exceed the possible voltage range, the output remains at either the maximum or minimum supply voltage. This is called **saturation**.
- Outputs between these limiting voltages are referred to as the **linear region**.

$$-V_{CC} \leq v_o \leq V_{CC}$$



# Ideal Op Amp

To facilitate the understanding of op amp circuits, we will assume **ideal op amps**. An op amp is ideal if it has the following characteristics:

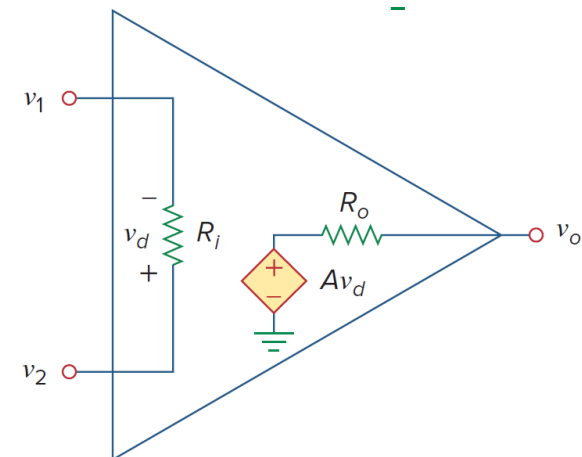
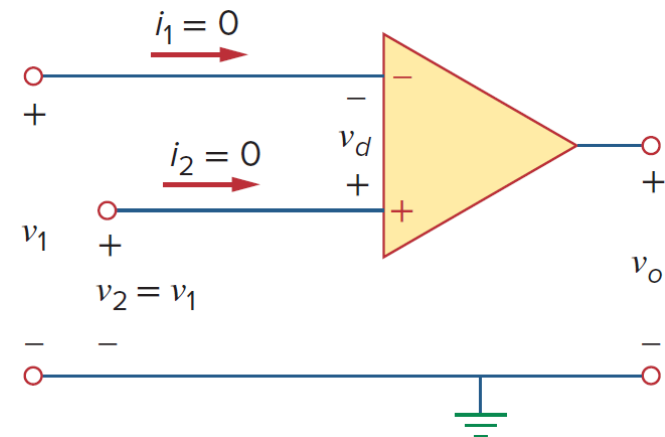
1. Infinite open-loop gain,  $A \simeq \infty$ .
2. Zero output resistance,  $R_o \simeq 0$ . Thus, an ideal op amp is load independent.
3. Infinite input resistance,  $R_i \simeq \infty$ . Thus, for an ideal op amp

i) The currents into both input terminals are zero.

$$i_1 = 0, \quad i_2 = 0$$

ii) The voltage between the two input terminals is equal to zero.

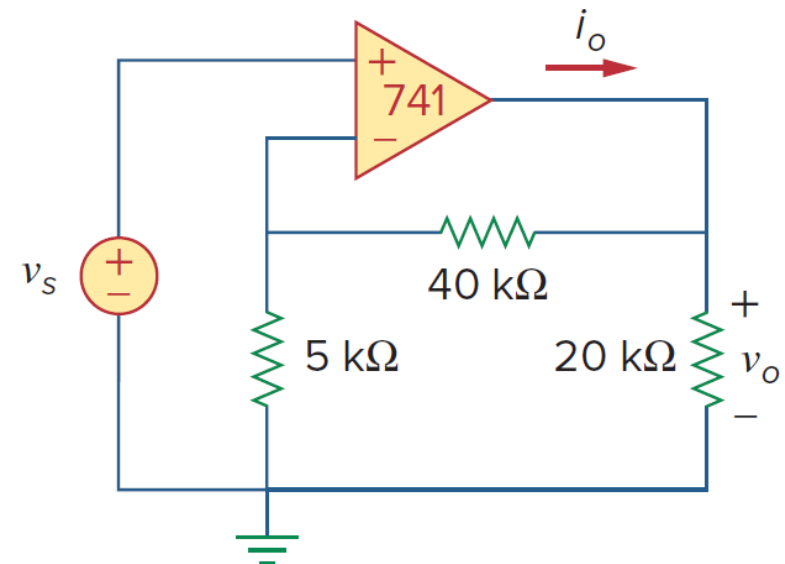
$$v_d = v_2 - v_1 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad v_2 = v_1$$





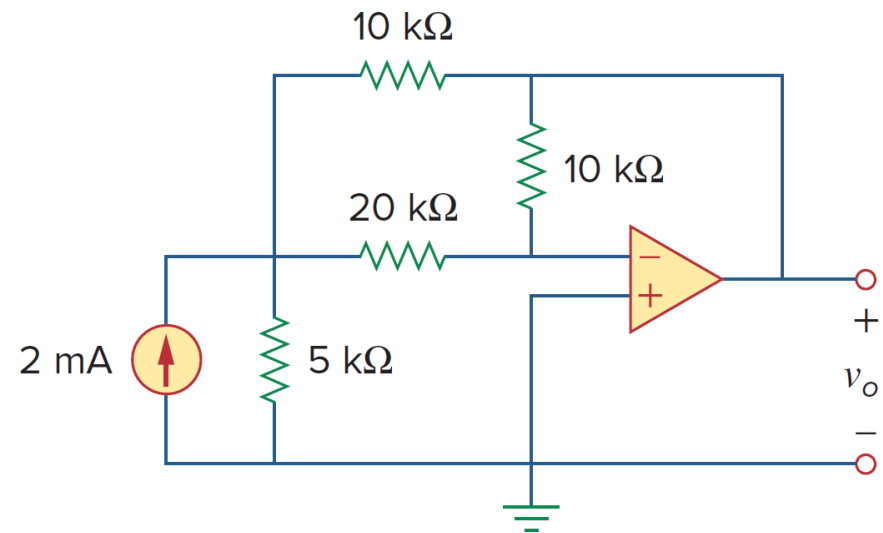
# Example

A 741 op amp has an open-loop voltage gain of  $2 \times 10^5$ , input resistance of  $2 \text{ M}\Omega$ , and output resistance of  $50 \Omega$ . The op amp is used in the following circuit. **Using the ideal op amp model**, calculate the closed-loop gain  $v_o / v_s$ . Find  $i_o$  when  $v_s = 1 \text{ V}$ .



# Example

Using the ideal op amp model, determine the output voltage  $v_o$  in the circuit.



# Inverting and Noninverting Amplifiers

# Inverting Amplifier

In an **Inverting Amplifier** circuit, the noninverting input is grounded,  $v_i$  is connected to the inverting input through  $R_1$ , and the feedback resistor  $R_f$  is connected between the inverting input and output.

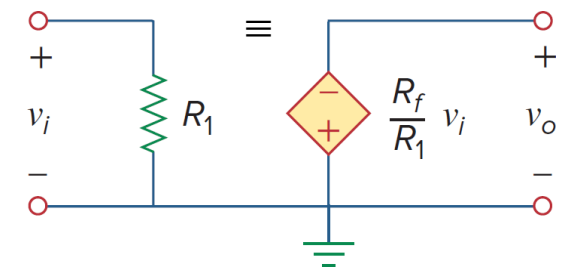
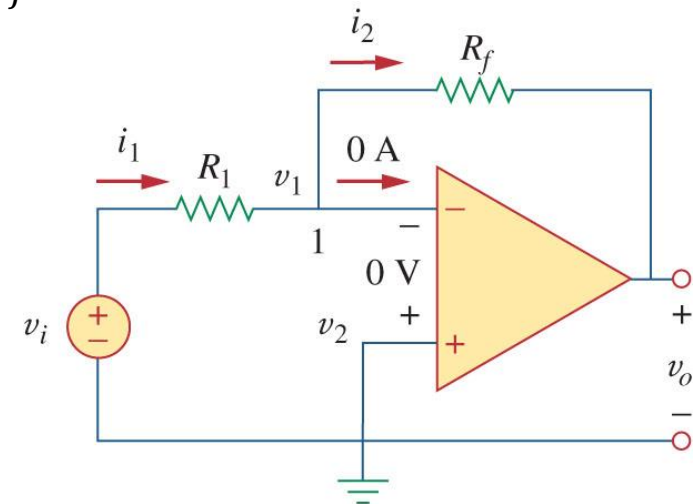
Applying KCL at node 1:

$$i_1 = i_2 \Rightarrow \frac{v_i - v_1}{R_1} = \frac{v_1 - v_o}{R_f}$$

Since the noninverting terminal is grounded, for an ideal op amp,  $v_1 = v_2 = 0$ . Thus,

$$v_o = - \underbrace{\frac{R_f}{R_1}}_{\text{(Gain)}} v_i$$

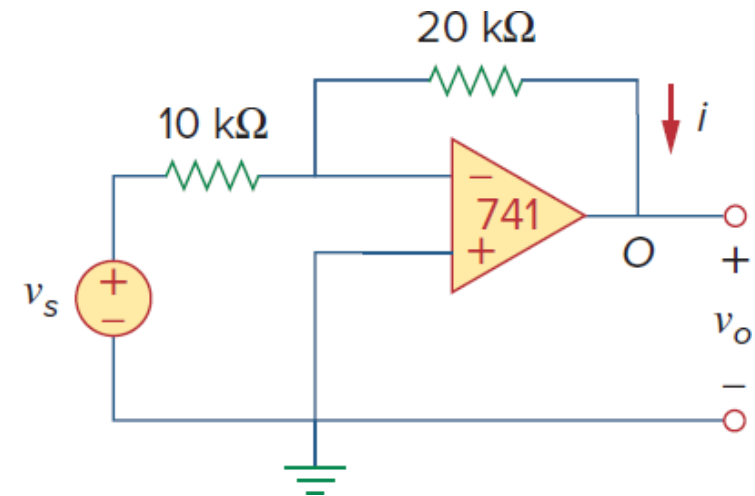
An inverting amplifier reverses the polarity of the input signal while amplifying it.



(inverting amplifier's equivalent)

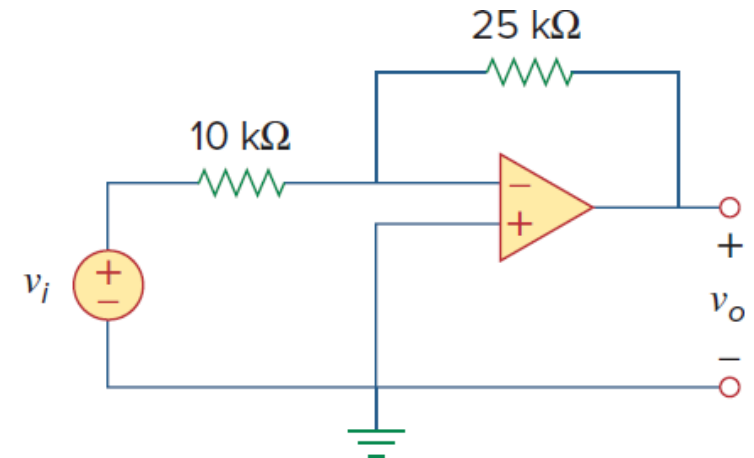
# Example

Using the ideal op amp model, find the closed-loop gain  $v_o / v_s$ . Determine current  $i$  when  $v_s = 2$  V.



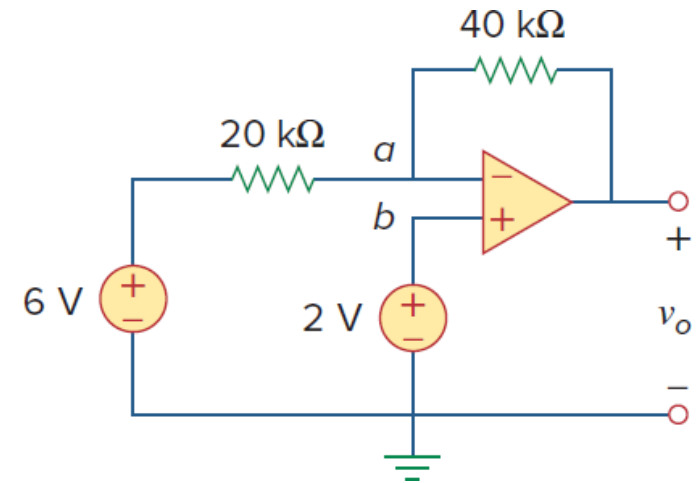
# Example

If  $v_i = 0.5$  V, calculate: (a) the output voltage  $v_o$ , and (b) the current in the 10-k $\Omega$  resistor.



# Example

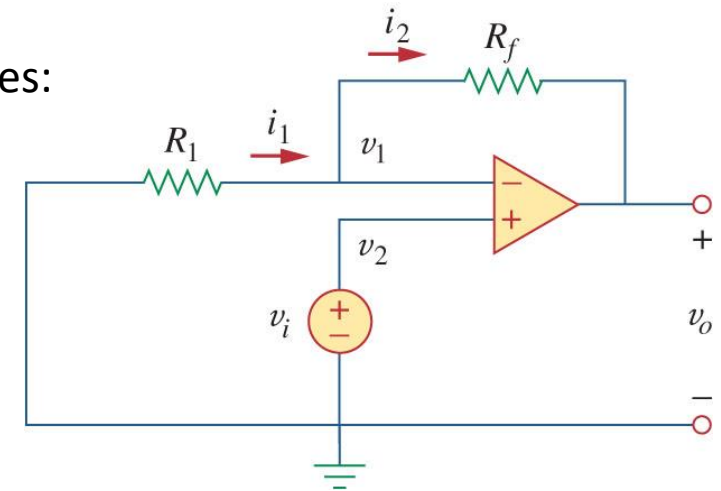
Determine  $v_o$  in the op amp circuit shown.



# Noninverting Amplifier

- The basic configuration of the **noninverting amplifier** is the same as the inverting amplifier. Except that the input and the ground are switched.
- Once again, applying KCL to the inverting terminal gives:

$$i_1 = i_2 \Rightarrow \frac{0 - v_1}{R_1} = \frac{v_1 - v_o}{R_f}$$



- There is once again negative feedback in the circuit, thus,  $v_1 = v_2 = v_i$ . This gives:

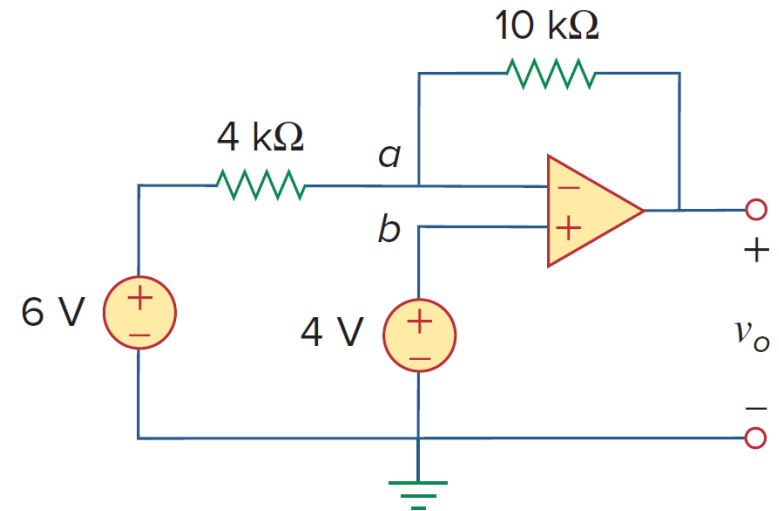
$$\frac{-v_i}{R_1} = \frac{v_i - v_o}{R_f} \Rightarrow v_o = \underbrace{\left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_1}\right)}_{\text{(Gain)}} v_i$$

Thus, the output has the same polarity as the input, and it can never go below 1.



# Example

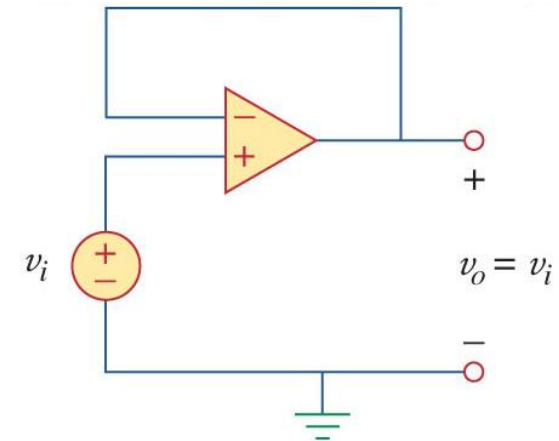
For the op amp circuit in the figure, calculate the output voltage  $v_o$ .



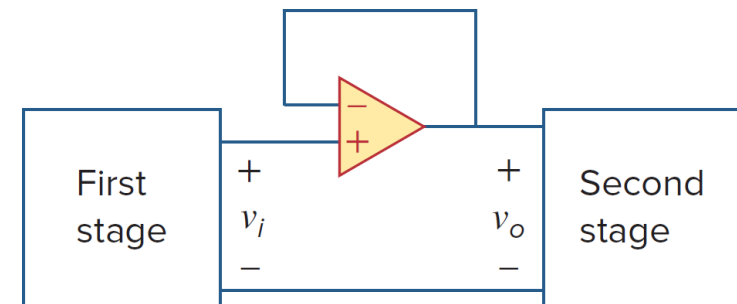
# Voltage Follower (or Unity Gain Amplifier)

In a noninverting amplifier, if feedback resistor  $R_f = 0$  (short circuit) or  $R_1 = \infty$  (open circuit) or both, the gain becomes 1. Under these conditions, the circuit is called a **voltage follower** (or **unity gain amplifier**) because the output follows the input.

$$v_o = v_i$$



- Such a circuit has a very high input impedance and is therefore useful as an intermediate-stage (or buffer) amplifier to isolate one circuit from another, while allowing a signal to pass through.
- The voltage follower minimizes interaction between the two stages and eliminates interstage loading.



# Summing and Difference Amplifiers

# Summing Amplifier

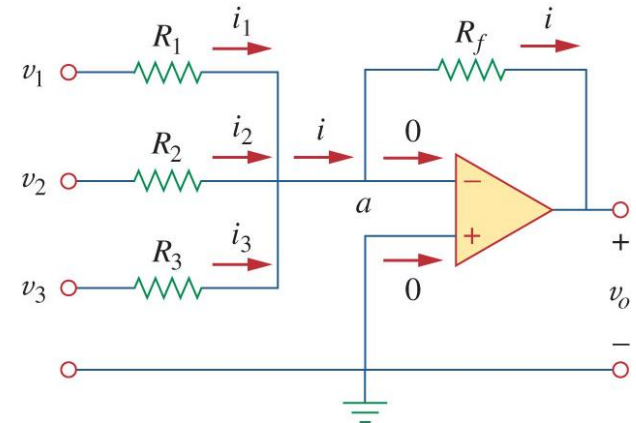
A summing amplifier is an op amp circuit that combines several inputs and produces an output that is the weighted sum of the inputs.

Applying KCL at node  $a$  (where  $v_a = 0$ ) gives:

$$i = i_1 + i_2 + i_3$$

$$i_1 = \frac{v_1 - v_a}{R_1}, i_2 = \frac{v_2 - v_a}{R_2}, i_3 = \frac{v_3 - v_a}{R_3}, i = \frac{v_a - v_o}{R_f}$$

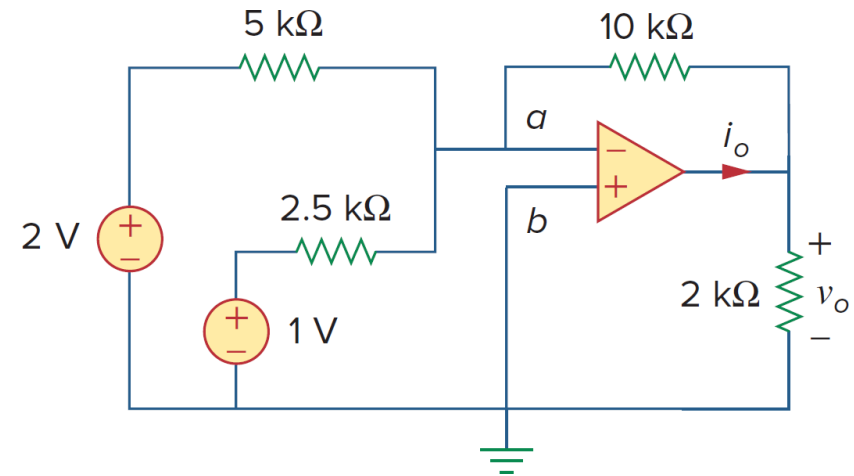
$$v_o = - \left( \frac{R_f}{R_1} v_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2} v_2 + \frac{R_f}{R_3} v_3 \right)$$



The number of inputs need not be limited to three!

# Example

Calculate  $v_o$  and  $i_o$  in the op amp circuit.



# Difference Amplifier

A difference amplifier is a device that amplifies the difference between two inputs and can reject any signals common to the two inputs.

Applying KCL to node  $a$ :

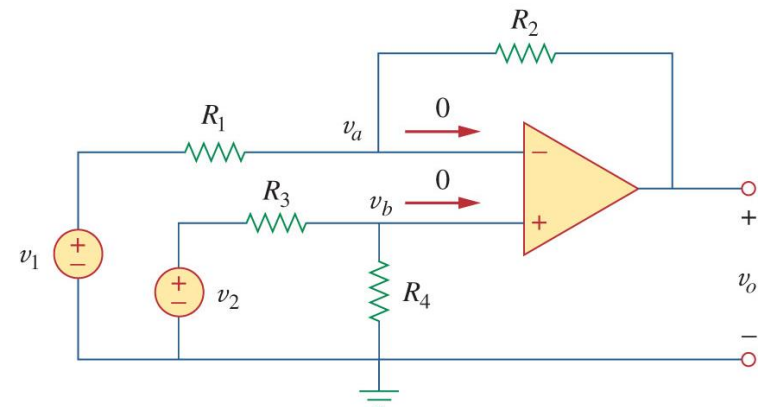
$$\frac{v_1 - v_a}{R_1} = \frac{v_a - v_o}{R_2} \Rightarrow v_o = \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1} + 1 \right) v_a - \frac{R_2}{R_1} v_1$$

Applying KCL to node  $b$ :

$$\frac{v_2 - v_b}{R_3} = \frac{v_b - 0}{R_4} \Rightarrow v_b = \frac{R_4}{R_3 + R_4} v_2$$

Since  $v_a = v_b$ :

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



# Common Mode Rejection

❖ If  $\frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_4}$ , the difference amplifier becomes  $v_o = \frac{R_2}{R_1}(v_2 - v_1)$

In this case, when  $v_1 = v_2$ , then  $v_o = 0$  (i.e., a difference amplifier can reject a signal common to the two inputs).

❖ If  $R_2 = R_1$  and  $R_3 = R_4$ , the difference amplifier becomes a **subtractor**:

$$v_o = v_2 - v_1$$

# Example

Design an op amp circuit with inputs  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  such that  $v_o = -5v_1 + 3v_2$ .

**Design 1)** Use only one op amp and at least one 10-K $\Omega$  resistor.

**Design 2)** Use two op amps and at least one 10-K $\Omega$  resistor.



# Instrumentation Amplifier

The difference amplifier has one significant drawback: The input impedance is low. By placing 2 noninverting amplifiers stage before the difference amplifier this can be resolved.

An **instrumentation amplifier** is an amplifier of low-level signals used in process control or measurement applications and commercially available in single-package units.

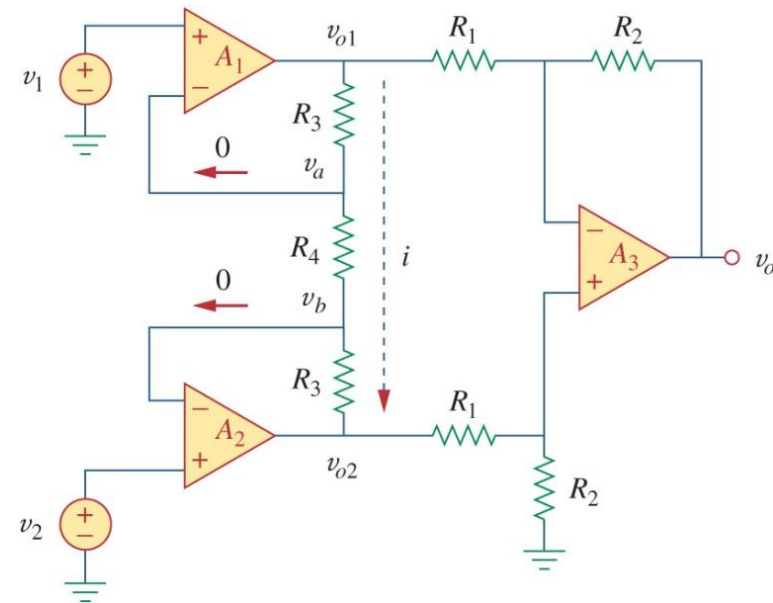
Since the amplifier  $A_3$  is a difference amplifier:

$$v_o = \frac{R_2}{R_1} (v_{o2} - v_{o1})$$

Since the op amps  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  draw no current, current  $i$  flows through the three resistors as though they were in series.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} v_{o1} - v_{o2} &= i(R_3 + R_4 + R_3) = i(2R_3 + R_4) \\ i &= \frac{v_a - v_b}{R_4} \xrightarrow{v_a = v_1, v_b = v_2} i = \frac{v_1 - v_2}{R_4} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

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



# Integrator and Differentiator Amplifiers

# Integrator

- Capacitors, in combination with op-amps can be made to perform advanced mathematical functions.
- One such function is the integrator. An **integrator** is an op amp circuit whose output is proportional to the integral of the input signal.

At node a,  $i_R = i_C$

$$i_R = \frac{v_i - v_a}{R}, \quad i_C = C \frac{d(v_a - v_o)}{dt}$$

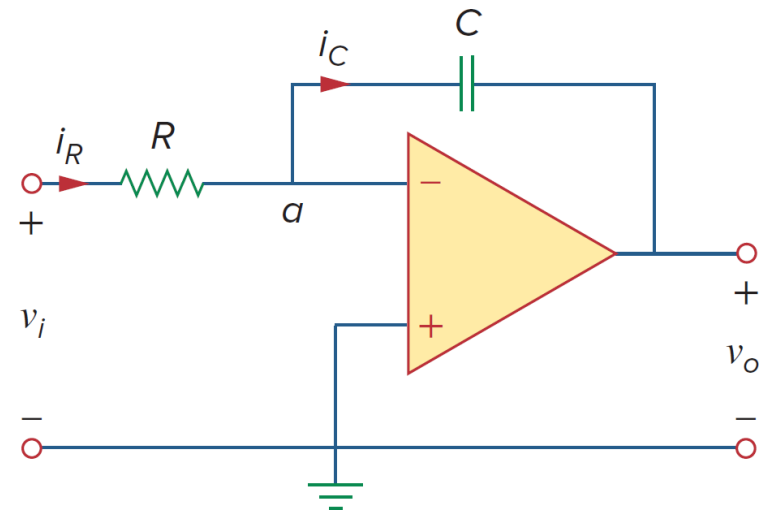
$\xrightarrow{v_a = 0}$   $\frac{v_i}{R} = -C \frac{dv_o}{dt}$

$$dv_o = -\frac{1}{RC} v_i dt$$

$$v_o(t) - v_o(0) = -\frac{1}{RC} \int_0^t v_i(\tau) d\tau$$

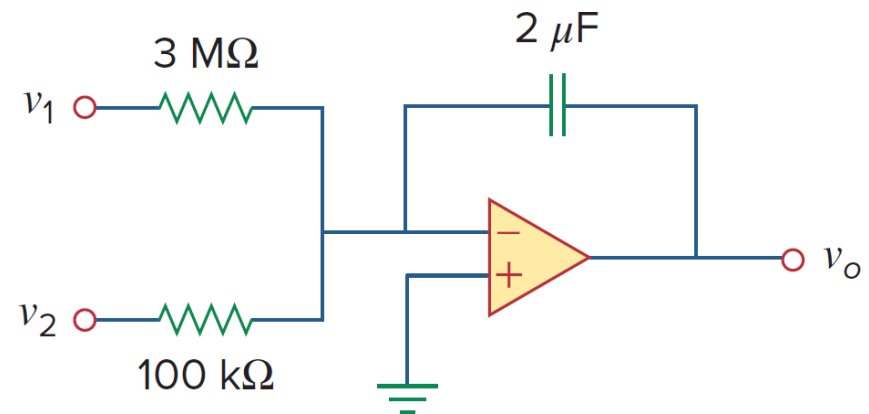
Assuming  $v_o(0) = 0$ ,

$$v_o = -\frac{1}{RC} \int_0^t v_i(\tau) d\tau$$



# Example

If  $v_1 = 10 \cos 2t$  mV and  $v_2 = 0.5t$  mV, find  $v_o$  in the op amp circuit. Assume that the voltage across the capacitor is initially zero.



# Differentiator

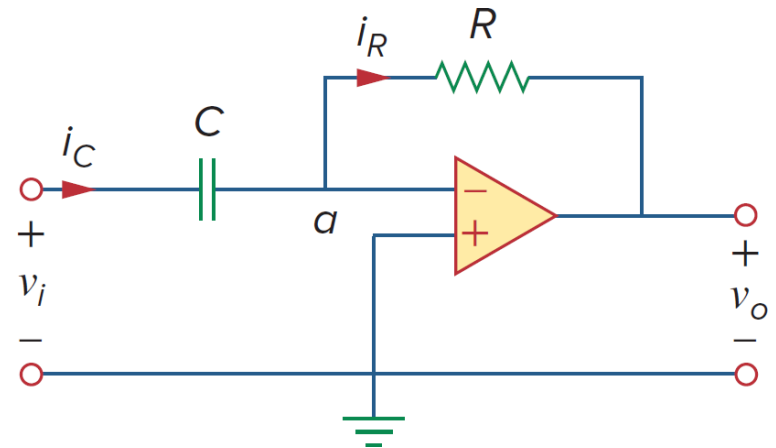
A **differentiator** is an op amp circuit whose output is proportional to the rate of change of the input signal.

At node  $a$ ,  $i_R = i_C$

$$i_R = \frac{v_a - v_o}{R}, \quad i_C = C \frac{d(v_i - v_a)}{dt}$$

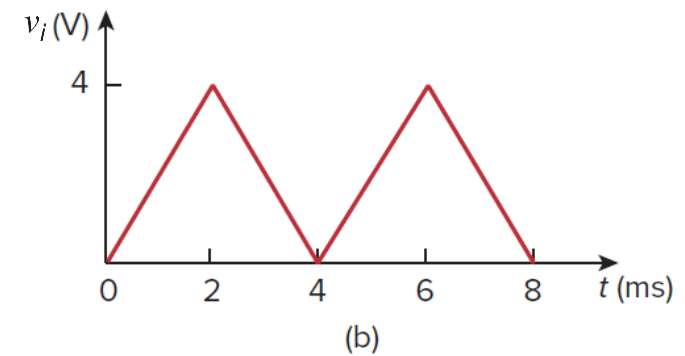
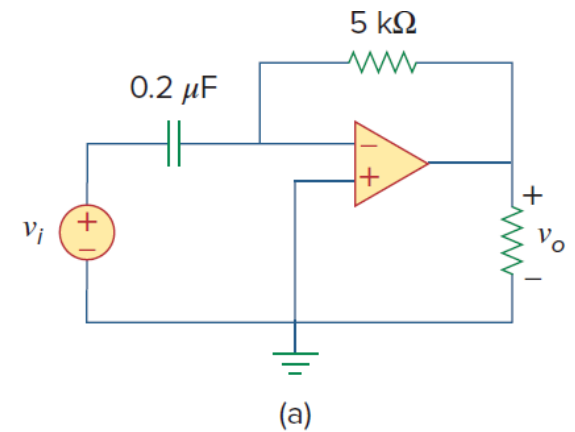
$v_a = 0$  →

$$v_o = -RC \frac{dv_i}{dt}$$



# Example

Sketch the output voltage for the circuit, given the input voltage. Take  $v_o = 0$  at  $t = 0$ .



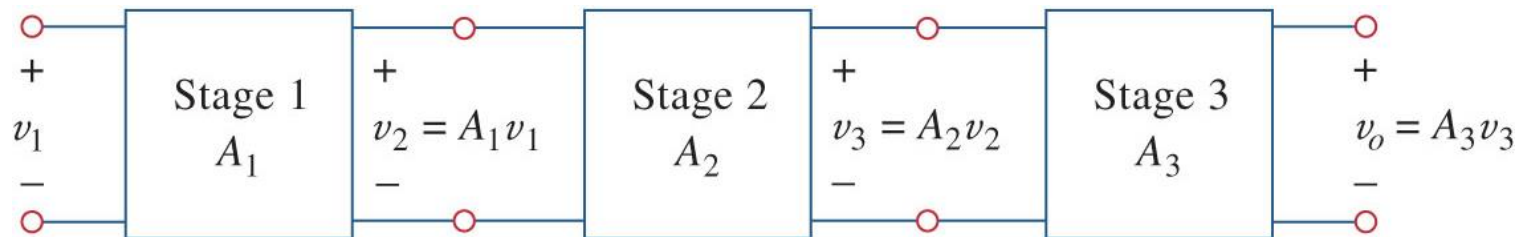
# Cascaded Op Amp Circuits

# Cascaded Op Amps

A **cascade connection** is a head-to-tail arrangement of two or more op amp circuits such that the output of one is the input of the next.

- It is often necessary in practical applications to connect op amp circuits in cascade (i.e., head to tail) to achieve a large overall gain. Each amplifier in the string is called a **stage**.
- Op amp circuits have the advantage that they can be cascaded without changing their input-output relationships. This is due to the fact that each (ideal) op amp circuit has infinite input resistance and zero output resistance.

**Example:** A three-stage cascaded connection.

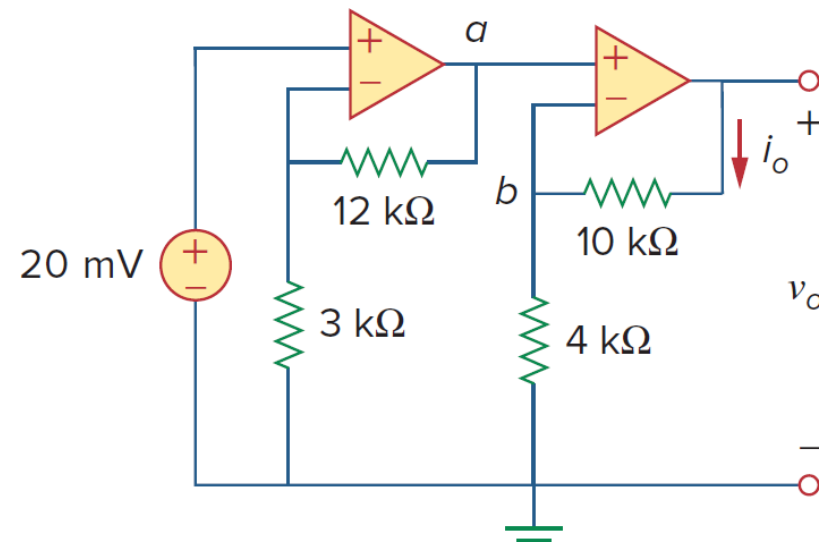


$$A = A_1 A_2 A_3$$



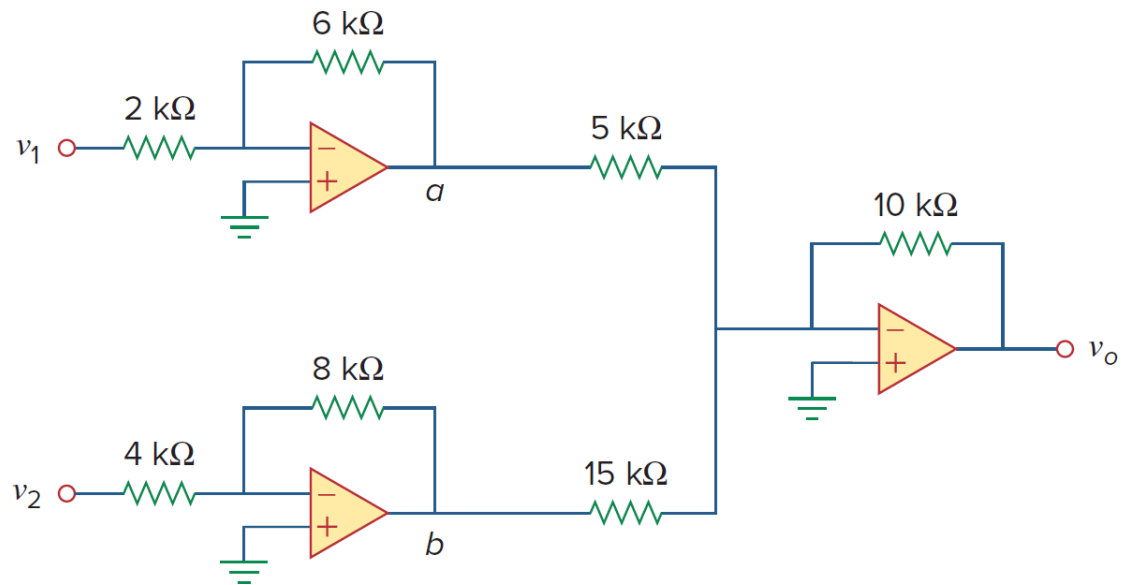
# Example

Find  $v_o$  and  $i_o$  in the circuit.



# Example

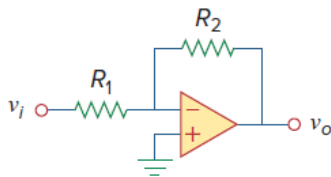
If  $v_1 = 1\text{ V}$  and  $v_2 = 2\text{ V}$ , find  $v_o$  in the op amp circuit.



# Summary of Basic Op Amp Circuits

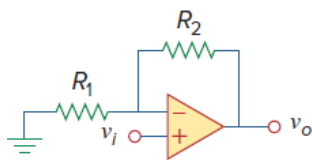
## Op amp circuit

## Name/output-input relationship



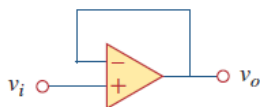
Inverting amplifier

$$v_o = -\frac{R_2}{R_1}v_i$$



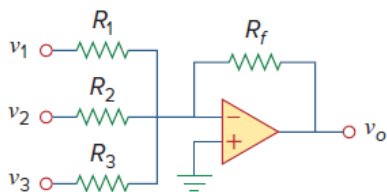
Noninverting amplifier

$$v_o = \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)v_i$$



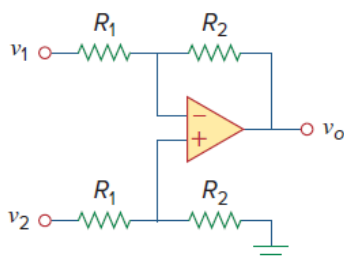
Voltage follower

$$v_o = v_i$$



Summer

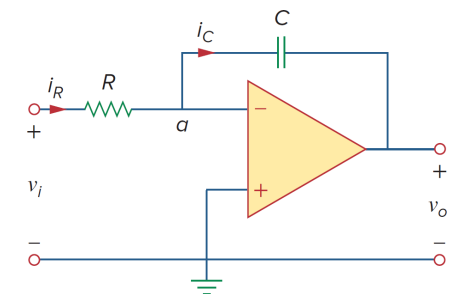
$$v_o = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_1}v_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2}v_2 + \frac{R_f}{R_3}v_3\right)$$



Difference amplifier

$$v_o = \frac{R_2}{R_1}(v_2 - v_1)$$

Integrator:



Differentiator:

