

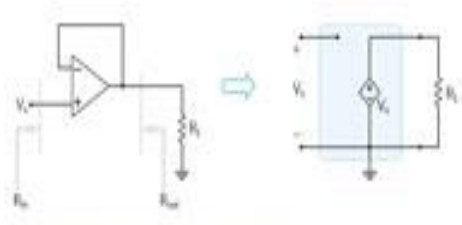
Basic Electronics
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Lecture – 35
Op-amp circuits (continued)

Welcome back to Basic Electronics. In the previous lecture, we looked at the op-amp buffer as a special case of the non-inverting amplifier. In this lecture, we will see the meaning of the term loading effects and see how an op-amp buffer can be used to eliminate these loading effects. We will then look at another useful op-amp circuit, the summer, which can be used to add two or more input voltages. We will illustrate the operation of the summer with the help of simulation results. We will then comment on the range of resistance values that are commonly used in an op-amp circuits. Finally, we will present an op-amp circuit, an amplifier circuit, which allows a relatively large gain without using large resistance values. So, let us begin.

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Op-amp buffer



In summary, the buffer (voltage follower) provides

- a large input resistance R_{in} as seen from the source
- a small output resistance R_{out} as seen from the load.
- a gain of 1, i.e., the output voltage simply follows the input voltage.

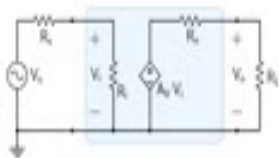
M. S. Patil © IIT Bombay

So, here is summary of the op-amp buffer. This is the circuit. We have a source on one side and we have a load register on the other side. The input resistance of the op-amp buffer is the resistance we see from here and the output resistance is the resistance we see from here. And, we have seen that the input resistance is very large, almost infinite. And therefore, in the equivalent circuit of the buffer we can show an infinite resistance

here, which is an open circuit. We have also seen that the output resistance of the op-amp buffer is very small, almost zero. And therefore, we have shown a 0 ohm resistance here, which is a short circuit. We have also seen that the gain of the buffer is just 1. And therefore, if this voltage is V_s , this A_v times V_i is simply V_s . So, that is the equivalent circuit of the op-amp buffer. And, to summarize it provides a large input resistance as seen from the source, a small output resistance R_{out} as seen from the load and a gain of 1. That is, the output voltage simply follows the input voltage.

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Loading effects (revisited)



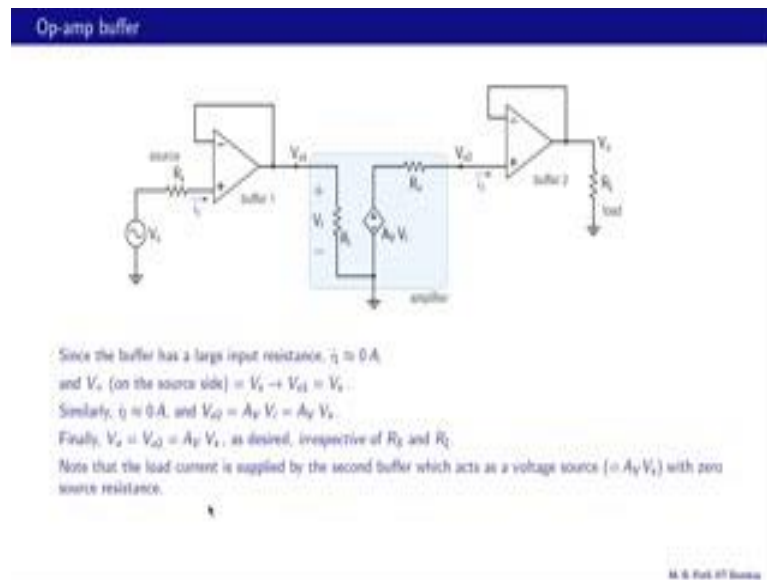
Problem: We would like to have $V_o = A_v V_i$.
But the actual output voltage is,

$$V_o = \frac{R_L}{R_o + R_L} A_v V_i = A_v \frac{R_L}{R_o + R_L} \frac{R_i}{R_s + R_i} V_s$$

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We now return to our original problem. We have a source with source voltage V_s , source resistance R_s , our load resistance is R_L . We want to apply an amplified V_s across R_L . And, this is the amplifier we want to use which has the voltage gain of A_v . So, what we would like is V_o to be equal to A_v times V_s . Now, if you recall with this configuration, the output voltage is not A_v times V_s , but something smaller; A_v times R_L divided by R_o plus R_L . And, this factor arises because of the voltage division happening here on the load side times R_i divided by R_i plus R_s , where this factor is because of voltage division happening on the source side that multiplied by V_s . So, it is not quite what we want. What we want is V_o equal to A_v times V_s . And, now let us see how we can use an op-amp buffer to achieve this target.

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So, this is how we can use an op-amp buffer. One on the source side and one on the load side to obtain V_o equal to A_v times V_s and eliminate the loading effects on the load side as well as on the source side. So, this part is our source as before. This is the amplifier and this is the load. What we have done is on the source side between the source and the amplifier; we have inserted one buffer circuit. Similarly, on the output side between the amplifier and the load we have inserted another op-amp buffer. And, let us see what this does. Since, the buffer has a large input resistance i_1 is 0, this current, therefore no voltage drop here. And, V_{o1} is the same as V_s . Now for the buffer, the output voltage is the same as the input voltage. So, therefore V_{o1} is equal to this voltage here, which is V_s .

Now, let us come to the load side, i_2 , this current is also 0 because the buffer has a large input resistance. Therefore, no voltage drops here. And, V_{o2} is equal to A_v times V_{o1} . V_{o1} here is this voltage, which is V_{o1} equal to V_s ; that gives us V_{o2} equal to A_v times V_s . And, V_o is the same as V_{o2} . And therefore, we get V_o is equal to A_v times V_s , as we wanted. And that is irrespective of R_s and R_L ; because we did not have a voltage division on the source side or on the load side.

Let us note that the load current is supplied by the second buffer. So, the load current is really coming like this, and that acts as a voltage source equal to A_v times V_s with 0 source resistance. Why 0 source resistance because that is a buffer, and as we have seen

the buffer has a very very small output resistance. So, this is how buffer can be used. Whenever we are concerned about loading effects, we can insert a buffer and that essentially eliminates the loading effects.

So, when we started off we got V_o equal to V_i for the buffer. And, it was not clear whether that is at all the useful relationship because we are simply getting V_o equal to V_i . But, now it should be clear that a buffer really has a very important role to play in electronics, when we want to isolate the source from the load.

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Op-amp circuits (linear region)

$V_+ = V_- = 0V \rightarrow i_1 = V_1/R_1, i_2 = V_2/R_2, i_3 = V_3/R_3$
 $i = i_1 + i_2 + i_3 = \left(\frac{V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_2}{R_2} + \frac{V_3}{R_3} \right)$
 Because of the large input resistance of the op-amp, $i_+ \approx 0 \rightarrow i_+ = i$, which gives
 $V_o = V_- - i R_2 = 0 - \left(\frac{V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_2}{R_2} + \frac{V_3}{R_3} \right) R_2 = - \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1} V_1 + \frac{R_2}{R_2} V_2 + \frac{R_2}{R_3} V_3 \right)$
 i.e., V_o is a weighted sum of V_1, V_2, V_3 .
 If $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R$, the circuit acts as a summer, giving
 $V_o = -R (V_1 + V_2 + V_3)$ with $K = R_2/R$.

Here is another commonly used op-amp circuit. And, in fact we are already somewhat familiar with this circuit. Imagine that we do not have this R_2 and R_3 . And, in that case the circuit reduces to the inverting amplifier. That we have seen earlier.

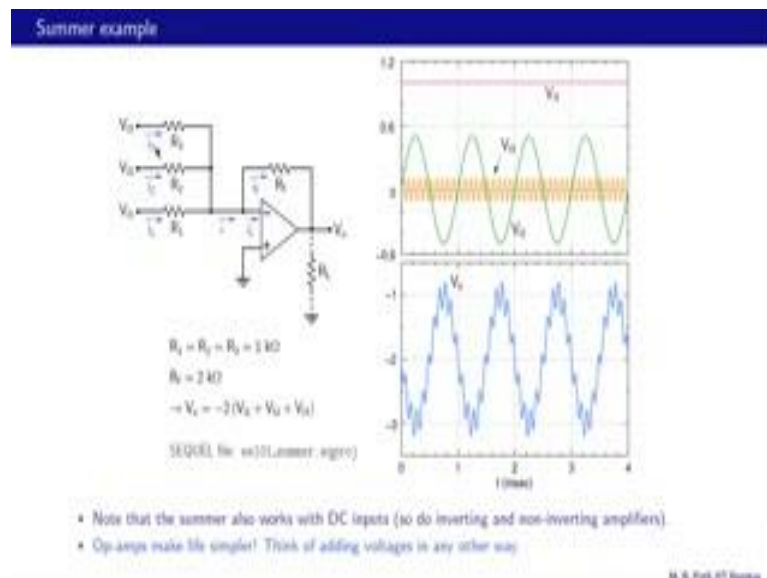
Now coming back to this circuit, there are three inputs here; V_{i1} , V_{i2} and V_{i3} , that of course is the output. And, now let us see how the circuit works. We will assume that the op-amp is operating in the linear region, and therefore V_{minus} and V_{plus} are nearly equal. So, we have V_{minus} equal to 0. What would this current be then? i_1 , it would be V_{i1} minus 0 divided by R_1 . What about i_2 ? It would be V_{i2} minus 0 divided by R_2 and so on. So, we have these three currents. Now, i_1 equal to V_{i1} by R_1 , i_2 equal to V_{i2} by R_2 and i_3 equal to V_{i3} by R_3 .

Next because of the large input resistance of the op-amp, i_i , this current is 0. And therefore, we can say that i_f is equal to i_i . And once we know i_f , we can obtain the output voltage V_o , which is V_{-} minus this voltage drop. V_{-} is 0 and i_f is the same as i_i , this expression here. So, then putting it together we get V_o equal to minus R_f by R_1 times V_{i1} plus R_f by R_2 times V_{i2} plus R_f by R_3 times V_{i3} .

Now, this we can think of as K_1 times V_{i1} plus K_2 times V_{i2} plus K_3 times V_{i3} , where we can adjust K_1 , K_2 , K_3 , by simply choosing the values of R_1 , R_2 and R_3 . So, this circuit is in fact doing a weighted sum of V_{i1} , V_{i2} and V_{i3} and the weights K_1 , K_2 , K_3 can be adjusted using the resistances. And, if we make R_1 , R_2 and R_3 all equal, denoted by R , then we have minus R_f over R V_{i1} plus R_f over R V_{i2} plus R_f over R V_{i3} , so that R_f over R is a common factor. We can take that out, and then get minus K times V_{i1} plus V_{i2} plus V_{i3} .

So, this is simply summer circuit. It is simply adding three voltages. In fact, we can extend it to four voltages, if you like by adding another resistance or we can have just two voltages V_{i1} and V_{i2} . So, there is some flexibility in configuring it appropriately.

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Here is an example. The sequel file is also available. So, you can check out this simulation and change the input voltages or resistance values and so on. What we have here is three voltages; V_{i1} , which is a constant DC voltage, 1 volt, V_{i2} with the sinusoid, V_{i3} also a sinusoid with the lower amplitude and higher frequency as

compared to V_{i2} . The resistance values R_1 , R_2 , R_3 are chosen to be equal 1 k and R_f is chosen to be 2 k . So, if we substitute these values in our previous expression, we end up with V_o equal to minus two times V_{i1} plus V_{i2} plus V_{i3} .

Let us look at the output voltage waveform now. This one we see that there is this low frequency component, and that comes from V_{i2} . And super imposed on that, we have this high frequency component, and that comes from V_{i3} . And, notice that this entire waveform has been shifted first that it has an average value of about minus 2 volts. And that comes from V_{i1} . And, it is easy to see where this minus 2 volts is coming from. We have V_{i1} equal to 1 volt, and that 1 volt gets multiplied by minus two here and that gives us minus 2 volts.

Now, let us make a few important points. Note that the summer also works with DC inputs. This is a DC input, for example. And that comment applies also to the inverting, non-inverting amplifiers. These circuits do also work with a DC input. And, compare that with the common emitter amplifier. We have seen before in the common emitter amplifier, if you recall we had a coupling capacitor which connected the input voltage to the amplifier.

And, if the input voltage is DC voltage, then this coupling capacitor would block that input voltage because the entire DC input voltages would appear across the coupling capacitor and the amplifier will not even see that DC voltage. And therefore, it will have no impact on the output of the amplifier. So, in that sense these op-amp circuits are definitely better because they can be used for DC voltages or slowly varying voltages, whereas the common emitter amplifier cannot be used for those conditions.

Second point, op-amps make life simpler. And, this is something that should be obvious by now. For example, if we think of adding voltages in any other way, we will find that it is not at all trivial; whereas this circuit, the summer, makes it very easy. And, not only that it even allow us to vary the weights for these three input voltages by simply changing this resistance values.

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The slide is titled "Choice of resistance values" and contains the following text:

- If resistances are too small, they draw larger currents → increased power dissipation
- If resistances are too large:
 - The effect of offset voltage and input bias currents becomes more pronounced (to be discussed)
 - Combined with parasitic (wiring) capacitances, large resistances can affect the frequency response and stability of the circuit.
 - Thermal noise increases as R increases, and it may not be desirable in some applications
- Typical resistance values: 0.1 k to 100k

At the bottom right of the slide, there is a small logo and the text "M. S. Park @ Samsung".

Let us now talk about the choice of resistance values in op-amp circuits. And, this is a very important question from a practical perspective. If you want to build an op-amp circuit, we will definitely need to know whether any arbitrary resistance value is good enough or there is some restriction turns out that there are some restrictions. And, let us see why.

If the resistance values are too small, for example, then they draw larger currents. And, where do these currents come from? They eventually come from the power supply, that is, V_{CC} and minus V_E . And that leads to an increase in the power dissipation. And that of course is in general, undesirable. What if the resistance values are too large? Let us see what happens in that case. One, the effect of offset voltage and input bias current becomes more pronounced. And, this is something we are not yet discussed; we will look at its own. In short, what happens is the circuit performance is then not what we would accept, and that of course is not desirable.

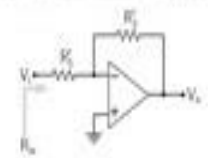
Second, combined with parasitic or wiring capacitances, large resistance can affect the frequency response and stability of the circuit. Two, given example say we connect an op-amp amplifier circuit and give certain input voltage and expect a certain output voltage. Now, we connect our output to the oscilloscope and find that there are some oscillations at the output, which are nothing to do with the input voltage. Now, this kind

of situation can arise if the circuit is unstable. And that can happen if the resistances are very large. And therefore, those should be avoided.

Third, there is something called thermal noise. What is a meaning of noise? Noise is a kind of disturbance that rides on our signal voltages. And, it is something that we do not want because that corrupts our signal. Now, this thermal noise increases as the resistance value increases. And, it may not be desirable in some applications. So, because of all of these considerations, very small resistance values and very large resistance values are avoided in practice. And, the typical resistance values which we use in op-amp circuits are in the range 0.1 k to 100 k. So, if we are designing an op-amp circuit we should make sure, in general that our resistance values fall in this range.

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Design an amplifier with $R_{in} = 10\text{ k}$ and $A_V = -100$.

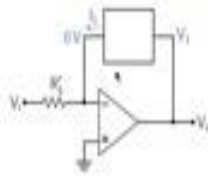


$R_{in} = R_1 = 10\text{ k}$

$A_V = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} = -100 \rightarrow R_2 = 100 \times 10\text{ k} = 1\text{ MD}$

R_2 may be unacceptable from practical considerations.
 \rightarrow need a design with smaller resistances.

If we ensure $\frac{V_0}{V_i} = R_2$, we will satisfy the gain condition.



M. S. Park of Samsung

Let us do this design problem. We want to design an amplifier with R_{in} equal to 10 k, the input resistance of the amplifier and a voltage gain of minus 100. We have already seen an op-amp circuit, the inverting amplifier, which gives us negative gains. So, we can choose that. The input resistance should be 10 k of this amplifier. So, let us see what that gives us. What is R_{in} ? It is the same as R_1 , as we have seen earlier. And that happens because the inverting terminal is at virtual ground. And, this current is V_i by R_1 . So, that gives us an input resistance of R_1 .

Since R_{in} is supposed to be 10 k, we have to have R_1 equal to 10 k. What about R_2 ? That is given by the gain now. Since, the voltage gain of the inverting

amplifier is minus R_2 prime by R_1 prime. And that we want to be minus 100; that gives us R_2 prime. So, R_2 prime should be 100 times R_1 prime, which is 10 k. So, that comes to 1 mega ohm. And, as we saw in the last slide this value is somewhat large and it may be unacceptable from practical considerations.

So, therefore this solution is certainly not the best. So, let us see if you can improve on that. So, we need a design which has smaller resistance values. Fortunately, for us electronics is full of clever tricks. And, here is one of them. So, we modify the circuit. We put a black box here, instead of R_2 prime. And what should that black box do? The same thing as what R_2 prime does here. What does R_2 prime do? If I call this voltage V_1 , this is of course the virtual ground and this current as i_1 , then V_1 divided by i_1 should be R_2 prime, which is 1 mega ohm.

So, in this black box we should ensure that V_1 divided by i_1 is the same value; that is 1 mega ohm. But, the network inside should be designed, so that it does not use large resistance values.

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$$i_1 = \frac{V_1}{R_1 + (R_1 \parallel R_2)}$$

$$V_1 = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} i_1 = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \frac{R_1 + R_2}{R_1(R_1 + R_2) + R_1 R_2} V_1$$

$$R_{eq} = \frac{V_1}{i_1} = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_1 + R_1 R_1}{R_2}$$
 → Choose R_1, R_2, R_3 such that $R_{eq} = R_2' = 1 \text{ M}\Omega$

So, let us see how that can be done. Let us consider this ‘T’ network; as called T because it looks like the letter ‘T’. It consists of three resistances R_1 , R_2 and R_3 . So, this is going to be our black box. That we saw in the last slide. And, what we want from this black box is V_1 divided by i_1 is 1 mega ohm. So, let us first see what V_1 over i_1 is in terms of R_1 , R_2 and R_3 .

Let us look at i_2 first. Now, in this circuit R_1 and R_2 are actually in parallel because this node is common and that other node is also common. Therefore, the net resistance seen from here is R_3 plus R_1 parallel R_2 . So therefore, i_2 is V_1 divided by R_3 plus R_1 parallel R_2 . Let us now look at i_1 , that current. Once we know i_2 , we can obtain i_1 by using the current division formula. So, i_1 is going to be R_2 divided by R_1 plus R_2 times i_2 . And that gives us this expression for i_1 .

Let us define $R_{\text{effective}}$ to be V_1 by i_1 . And, since we already have i_1 in terms of V_1 , here we can find V_1 over i_1 . And, we can see that this R_1 plus R_2 is going to cancel out and we get V_1 by i_1 as $R_1 R_2$ plus $R_2 R_3$ plus $R_3 R_1$ divided by R_2 . And, now our job is to choose R_1 , R_2 , R_3 , such that $R_{\text{effective}}$ which corresponds to R_2 prime in our previous slide should be 1 mega ohm. If we can do this without using large resistance values, then our design is done.

So, what we are going to do is replace our original inverting amplifier with this circuit. And, the job of R_2 prime is now being done by this T network. And, our next step is to find R_1 , R_2 , R_3 , which will give us the same $R_{\text{effective}}$ as R_2 prime, which is one mega.

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$$R_{\text{eff}} = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_2}$$
 We want $R_{\text{eff}} = R_2' = 1 \text{ M}\Omega$.
 Let $R_1 = R_3 = R \rightarrow R_{\text{eff}} = \frac{R^2 + 2 R R_2}{R_2} = R \left(\frac{R}{R_2} + 2 \right) \rightarrow R_2 = \frac{R}{\frac{R_{\text{eff}}}{R} - 2}$
 For $R = 10 \text{ k}$, $R_2 = \frac{10 \text{ k}}{100 - 2} \approx 102 \Omega$.
 Ref: Walt et al, Introduction to op-amp theory and applications, McGraw-Hill, 1992.

Here is our expression for $R_{\text{effective}}$. And, we want $R_{\text{effective}}$ to be 1 mega ohm. So, what we will do is take R_1 and R_3 to be equal, and we will call that R . Then in terms of R , $R_{\text{effective}}$ turns out to be this expression here. And, we can now solve for R_2 as R

divided by $R_{\text{effective}}$ by $R - 2$. For R equal to 10 k, for example, R_2 turns out to be 102 ohms.

So, in this manner our objective of gain of minus 100 is now achieved. And, we have done that without using large resistances. And therefore, our design is good one. Now, 102 ohms is not something that is readily available. So, we would generally put a part here and then adjust its value. By the way, this circuit is taken from this book here by Wait and others. And, there are many other interesting op-amp circuits in that book. And, you may take a look.

In conclusion, we have seen how an op-amp buffer can be used to avoid loading effects. We also looked at the op-amp summer and illustrated its functioning with the help of an example. We commented on the range of resistance values, which are typically used in op-amp circuits. Finally, we looked at an interesting amplifier circuit, which gives a relatively large gain without using very large resistance values. So, that is all for now, see you next time.