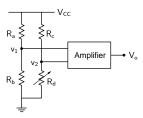
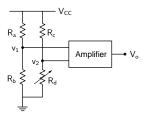
# EE101: Op Amp circuits (Part 2)



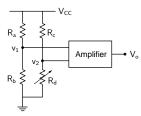
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Department of Electrical Engineering Indian Institute of Technology Bombay





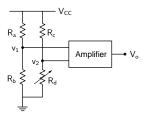
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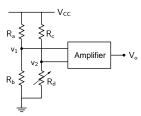


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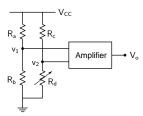
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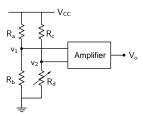
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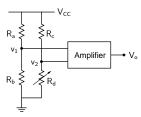
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For example, with  $\mathit{V_{CC}} = 15~V$  ,  $\mathit{R} = 1~k$ ,  $\Delta \mathit{R} = 0.01~k$  ,

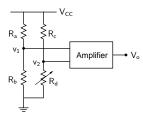
$$v_1 = 7.5 V$$
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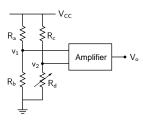


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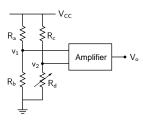
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Given  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ ,

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 common-mode voltage,

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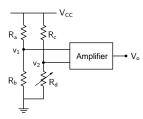
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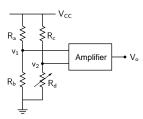
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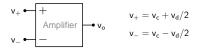
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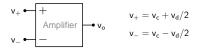
Note that the common-mode voltage is quite large compared to the differential-mode voltage.

This is a common situation in transducer circuits.



An ideal amplifier would only amplify the difference ( $v_+-v_-$ ), giving  $v_o=A_d~(v_+-v_-)=A_d~v_d$ ,

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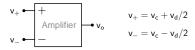
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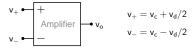
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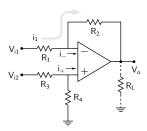
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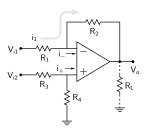
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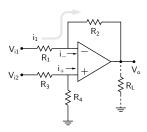
For the 741 Op Amp, the CMRR is 90 dB ( $\simeq$  30,000), which may be considered to be infinite in many applications. In such cases, mismatch between circuit components will determine the overall common-mode rejection performance of the circuit.





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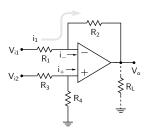
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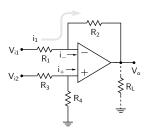


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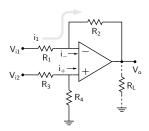
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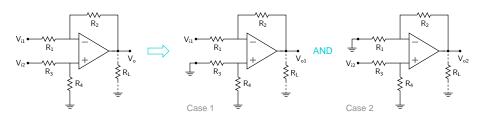
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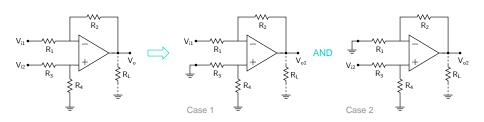
The circuit is a "difference amplifier."





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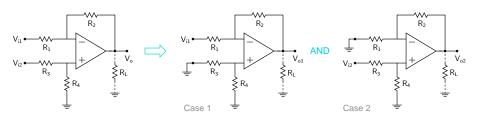


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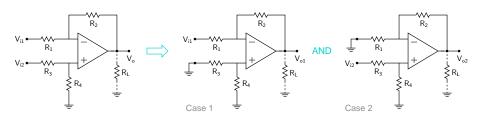
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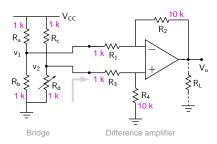
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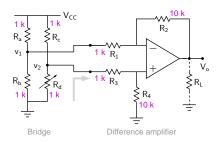
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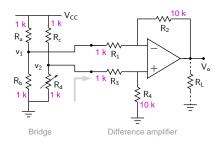
The net result is.

$$V_o = V_{o1} + V_{o2} = \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) \left(\frac{R_4}{R_3 + R_4}\right) V_{i2} - \frac{R_2}{R_1} V_{i1} = \frac{R_2}{R_1} \left(V_{i2} - V_{i1}\right), \text{ if } R_3/R_4 = R_1/R_2.$$



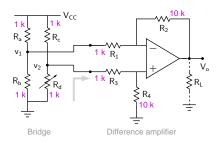


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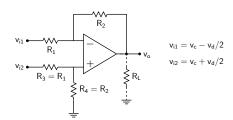
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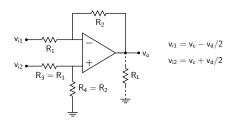


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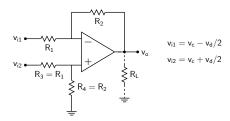
We will discuss an improved difference amplifier later. Before we do that, let us discuss another problem with the above difference amplifier which can be important for some applications (next slide).





Consider the difference amplifier with  $R_3=R_1$ ,  $R_4=R_2 \rightarrow V_o=\frac{R_2}{R_1}\left(v_{i2}-v_{i1}\right)$ .

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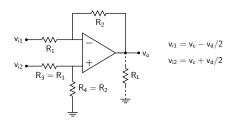


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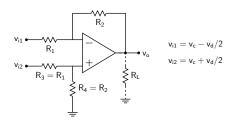
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#### Difference amplifier



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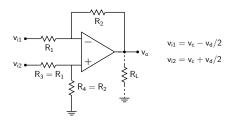
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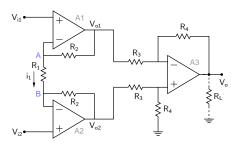
In practice,  $R_3$  and  $R_1$  may not be exactly equal. Let  $R_3=R_1+\Delta R$  .

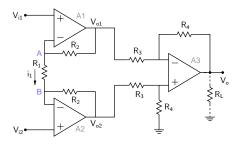
$$\begin{split} v_o \;\; &= \; \frac{R_2}{R_1 + \Delta R + R_2} \left( 1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) v_{i2} - \frac{R_2}{R_1} \; v_{i1} \\ &\simeq \frac{R_2}{R_1} (v_d - x \, v_c) \, , \text{with } x = \frac{\Delta R}{R_1 + R_2} \quad \text{(show this)} \end{split}$$

$$|A_c| = x \frac{R_2}{R_1} \ll |A_d| = \frac{R_2}{R_1}.$$

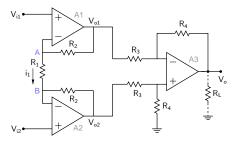
However, since  $v_c$  can be large compared to  $v_d$ , the effect of  $A_c$  cannot be ignored.



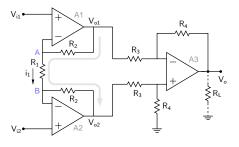




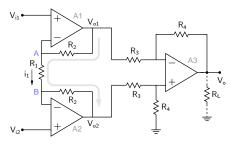
$$V_{+} \approx V_{-} \rightarrow V_{A} = V_{i1}, \ V_{B} = V_{i2}, \rightarrow i_{1} = \frac{1}{R_{1}} (V_{i1} - V_{i2}).$$



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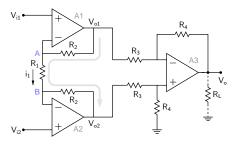


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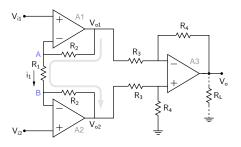
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$$\begin{aligned} V_{o1} - V_{o2} &= i_1 (R_1 + 2 \, R_2) = \frac{1}{R_1} \left( V_{i1} - V_{i2} \right) (R_1 + 2 \, R_2) = \left( V_{i1} - V_{i2} \right) \left( 1 + \frac{2 \, R_2}{R_1} \right). \\ \text{Finally, } V_o &= \frac{R_4}{R_2} \left( V_{o2} - V_{o1} \right) = \frac{R_4}{R_2} \left( 1 + \frac{2 \, R_2}{R_2} \right) \left( V_{i2} - V_{i1} \right). \end{aligned}$$



$$V_{+} \approx V_{-} \rightarrow V_{A} = V_{i1} \,, \ V_{B} = V_{i2} \,, \rightarrow i_{1} = \frac{1}{R_{-}} \left( V_{i1} - V_{i2} \right).$$

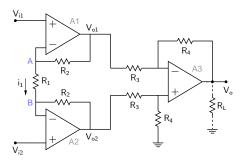
Large input resistance of A1 and A2  $\Rightarrow$  the current through the two resistors marked  $R_2$  is also equal to  $i_1$ .

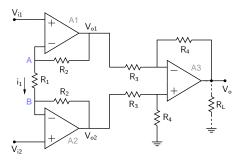
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Finally, 
$$V_o = \frac{R_4}{R_3} (V_{o2} - V_{o1}) = \frac{R_4}{R_3} \left( 1 + \frac{2 R_2}{R_1} \right) (V_{i2} - V_{i1}).$$

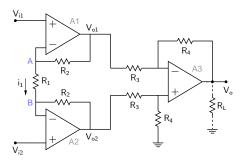
This circuit is known as the "instrumentation amplifier."





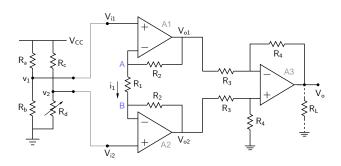


The input resistance seen from  $V_{i1}$  or  $V_{i2}$  is large (since an Op Amp has a large input resistance).



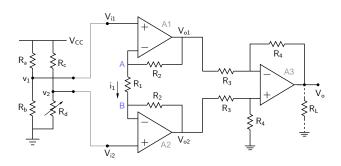
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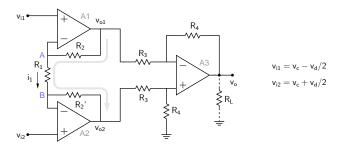
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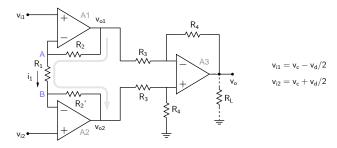
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As a result, the voltages  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  in the bridge circuit will remain essentially the same when the bridge circuit is connected to the instrumentation amplifier.



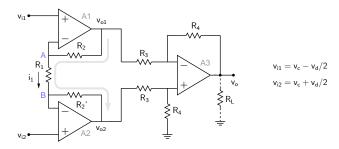
As we have seen earlier,  $v_{i1}$  and  $v_{i2}$  can have a large common-mode component ( $v_c$ ). What is the effect of  $v_c$  on the amplifier output  $v_o$ ?



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$$v_+ \approx v_- \Rightarrow v_A = v_c - v_d/2 \,, \ v_B = v_c + v_d/2 \,. \label{eq:vp}$$

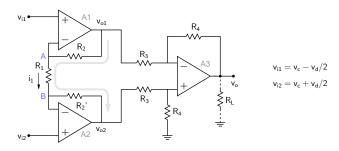


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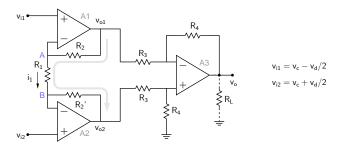
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 $v_c$  has simply got cancelled! (And this holds even if  $R_2$  and  $R_2'$  are not exactly matched.)



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 $\rightarrow$  The instrumentation amplifier is very effective in minimising the effect of the common-mode signal. (Note that component mismatch in the second stage will cause a finite CMRR, but the first stage has effectively amplified only  $v_d$  while leaving  $v_c$  unchanged; so the overall CMRR has improved.)

Some circuits produce an output in the form of a current. It is convenient to convert this current into a voltage for further processing.

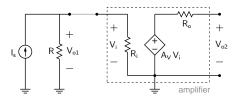
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Current-to-voltage conversion can be achieved by simply passing the current through a resistor:  $V_{o1} = I_s \, R$  .

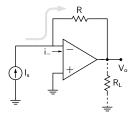


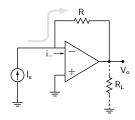
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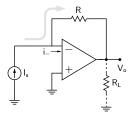


However, this simple approach will not work if the next stage in the circuit (such as an amplifier) has a finite  $R_i$ , since it will modify  $V_{o1}$  to  $V_{o1} = I_s(R_i \parallel R)$ , which is not desirable.



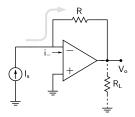


$$V_- pprox V_+$$
, and  $i_- pprox 0 \Rightarrow V_o = V_- - \emph{I}_s \, \emph{R} = -\emph{I}_s \, \emph{R} \, .$ 



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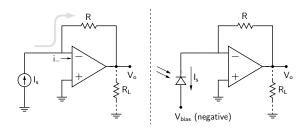
The output voltage is proportional to the source current, *irrespective* of the value of  $R_L$ , i.e., irrespective of the next stage.



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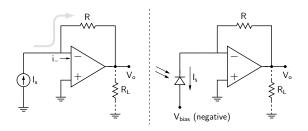
Example: a photocurrent detector.



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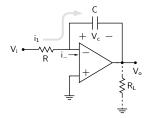


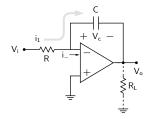
$$V_- \approx V_+$$
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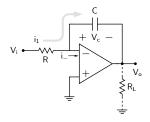
Example: a photocurrent detector.

 $V_o = \mathit{I_s} \, R$  . The diode is under a reverse bias, with  $V_n = 0 \, V$  and  $V_p = V_{ ext{bias}}$  .





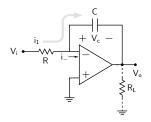
$$V_- \approx V_+ = 0 \ V \rightarrow i_1 = V_i/R \,. \label{eq:V-def}$$



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Since  $i_- \approx 0$  , the current through the capacitor is  $i_1$  .

$$\Rightarrow C \frac{dV_c}{dt} = i_1 = \frac{V_i}{R} .$$

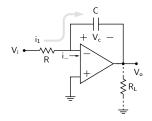


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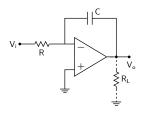
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$$V_o = -\frac{1}{RC} \int V_i \, dt$$

The circuit works as an integrator.



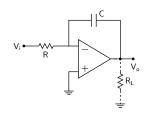
## Integrator



$$\mathsf{R}=1\,\mathsf{k}\Omega\,,\ \mathsf{C}=\mathsf{0.2}\,\mu\mathsf{F}$$

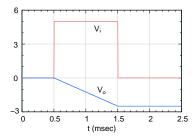
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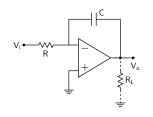
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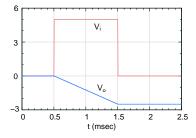
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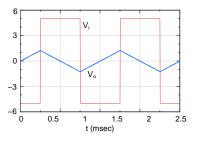


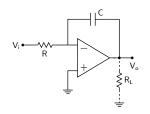


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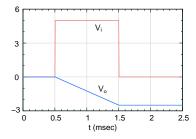


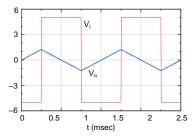




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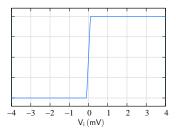
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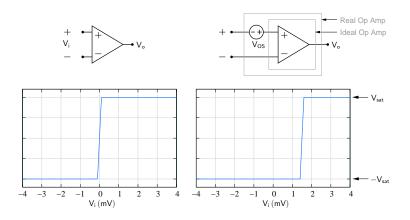


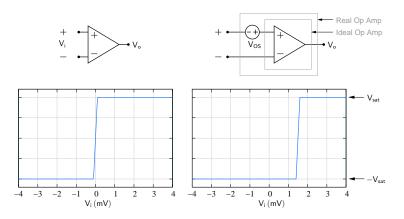


SEQUEL files: ee101\_integrator\_1.sqproj, ee101\_integrator\_2.sqproj

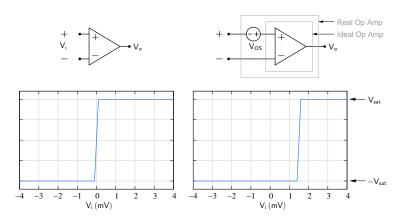




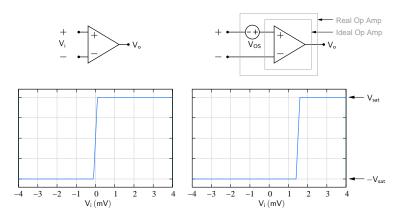




For the real Op Amp,  $V_o = A_V((V_+ + V_{OS}) - V_-)$ .

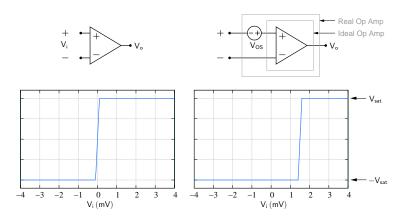


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 $V_o$  versus  $V_i$  curve gets shifted.



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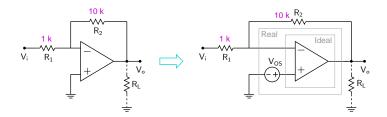
For 
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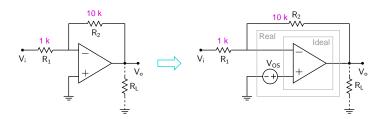
 $V_o$  versus  $V_i$  curve gets shifted.

741:  $-6 \,\text{mV} < V_{OS} < 6 \,\text{mV}$ .

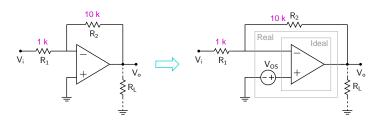
OP-77: 
$$-50 \,\mu V < V_{OS} < 50 \,\mu V$$
 .





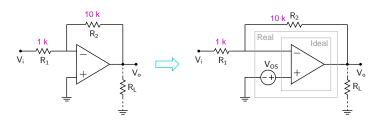


By superposition, 
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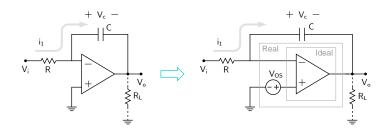
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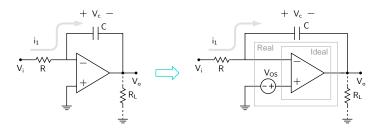


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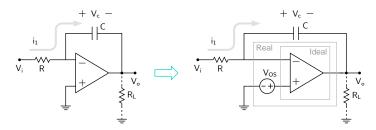
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i.e., a DC shift of  $22 \,\mathrm{m} \, V$ .



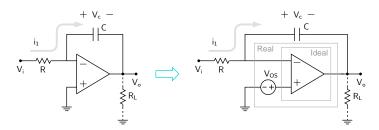


$$V_- \approx V_+ = V_{OS} \rightarrow i_1 = \frac{1}{R}(V_i - V_{OS}) = C \frac{dV_c}{dt}.$$



$$V_- \approx V_+ = V_{OS} \rightarrow i_1 = \frac{1}{R} (V_i - V_{OS}) = C \, \frac{dV_c}{dt} \, . \label{eq:V_pos}$$

i.e., 
$$V_{c}=rac{1}{RC}\int(V_{i}-V_{OS})\,dt$$
 .

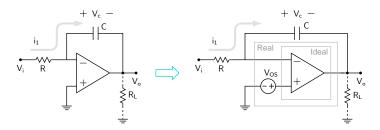


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Even with  $V_i = 0 \ V$ ,  $V_c$  will keep rising or falling (depending on the sign of  $V_{OS}$ ).

Eventually, the Op Amp will be driven into saturation.



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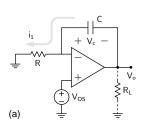
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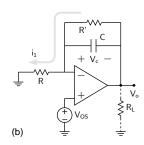
Eventually, the Op Amp will be driven into saturation.

 $\rightarrow$  need to address this issue!

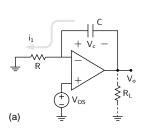


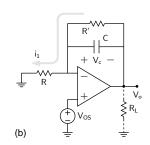
Integrator with  $V_i = 0 V$ :





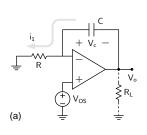
Integrator with  $V_i = 0 V$ :

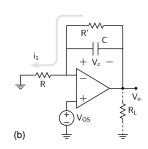




(a) 
$$i_1=rac{V_{OS}}{R}=-C\,rac{dV_c}{dt}$$
  $V_c=-rac{1}{RC}\int V_{OS}\,dt o {
m Op~Amp~saturates}.$ 

Integrator with  $V_i = 0 V$ :



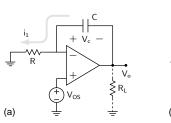


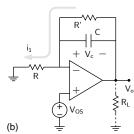
(a) 
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(b) There is a DC path for the current.

$$ightarrow V_o = \left(1 + rac{R'}{R}
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Integrator with  $V_i = 0 V$ :





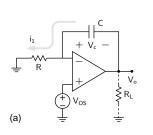
(a) 
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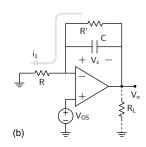
(b) There is a DC path for the current.

$$ightarrow V_o = \left(1 + rac{R'}{R}
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R' should be small enough to have a negligible effect on  $V_o$ .

Integrator with  $V_i = 0 V$ :





(a) 
$$i_1 = \frac{V_{OS}}{R} = -C \frac{dV_c}{dt}$$
  $V_c = -\frac{1}{RC} \int V_{OS} dt \rightarrow \text{Op Amp saturates.}$ 

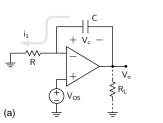
(b) There is a DC path for the current.

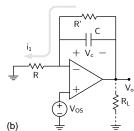
$$ightarrow V_o = \left(1 + rac{R'}{R}
ight) V_{OS} \, .$$

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However, R' must be large enough to ensure that the circuit still functions as an integrator.

Integrator with  $V_i = 0 V$ :





(a) 
$$i_1=rac{V_{OS}}{R}=-C\,rac{dV_c}{dt}$$
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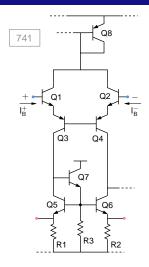
$$ightarrow \, V_o = \left(1 + rac{R'}{R}
ight) \, V_{OS} \, .$$

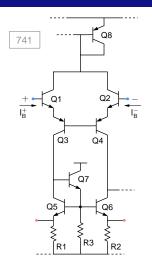
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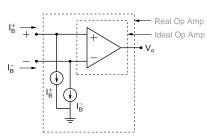
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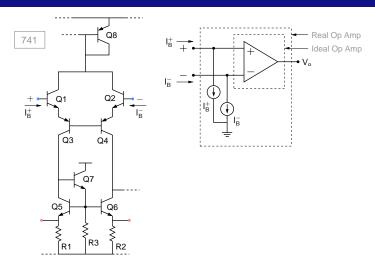
 $\rightarrow$   $R' \gg 1/\omega \mathit{C}$  at the frequency of interest.









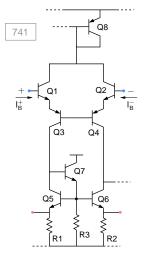


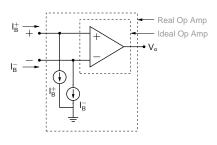
 $\it I_{B}^{+}$  and  $\it I_{B}^{-}$  are generally not exactly equal.

$$|I_B^+ - I_B^-|$$
 : "offset current"  $(I_{OS})$ 

$$(I_B^+ + I_B^-)/2$$
: "bias current"  $(I_B)$ .







Op Amp	I <sub>B</sub>	I <sub>os</sub>	V <sub>os</sub>	
741	80 nA	20 nA	1 mV	BJT input
OP77	1.2 nA	0.3 nA	$10\mu\mathrm{V}$	BJT input
411	50 pA	25 pA	0.8 mV	FET input

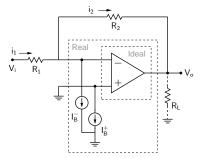
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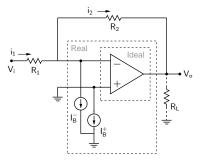
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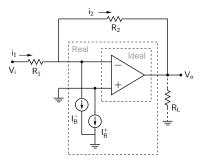
### Inverting amplifier:



Inverting amplifier:

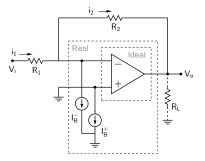


#### Inverting amplifier:



$$V_- \approx V_+ = 0 \; V \to \emph{i}_1 = V_\emph{i}/R_1 \, .$$

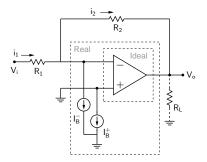
#### Inverting amplifier:



$$V_- \approx V_+ = 0 \ V \rightarrow i_1 = V_i/R_1$$
.

$$i_2 = i_1 - I_B^- \, \rightarrow \, V_o = V_- - i_2 \, R_2 = 0 - \left(\frac{V_i}{R_1} - I_B^-\right) R_2 = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} \, V_i + I_B^- \, R_2 \, , \label{eq:i2}$$

Inverting amplifier:



Assume that the Op Amp is ideal in other respects (i.e.,  $V_{OS}=0~V$ , etc.).

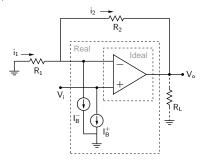
$$V_- \approx V_+ = 0 V \rightarrow i_1 = V_i/R_1$$
.

$$i_2 = i_1 - I_B^- \to V_o = V_- - i_2 \, R_2 = 0 - \left(\frac{V_i}{R_1} - I_B^-\right) R_2 = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} \, V_i + I_B^- \, R_2 \, ,$$

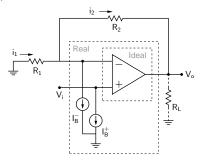
i.e., the bias current causes a DC shift in  $V_o$ .

For 
$$I_B^- = 80 \, \text{nA}$$
,  $R_2 = 10 \, \text{k}$ ,  $\Delta V_o = 0.8 \, \text{mV}$ .

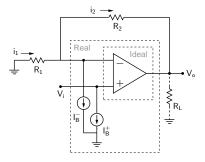
#### Non-nverting amplifier:



Non-nverting amplifier:

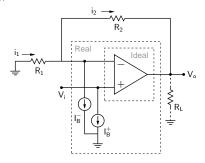


#### Non-nverting amplifier:



$$V_- \, \approx \, V_+ = V_i \rightarrow i_1 = - V_i/R_1 \, . \label{eq:V-def}$$

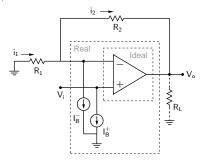
#### Non-nverting amplifier:



$$V_- \approx V_+ = V_i \rightarrow i_1 = -V_i/R_1 \,. \label{eq:V-}$$

$$i_2 = i_1 - I_B^- = -\frac{V_i}{R_1} - I_B^-$$
.

Non-nverting amplifier:



Assume that the Op Amp is ideal in other respects (i.e.,  $V_{OS} = 0 V$ , etc.).

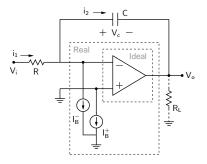
$$V_- \approx V_+ = V_i \rightarrow i_1 = -V_i/R_1$$
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.

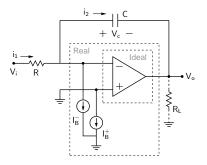
$$V_o = V_i - i_2 R_2 = V_i - \left(-\frac{V_i}{R_1} - I_B^-\right) R_2 = V_i \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) + I_B^- R_2.$$

ightarrow Again, a DC shift  $\Delta V_o$ .

#### Integrator:

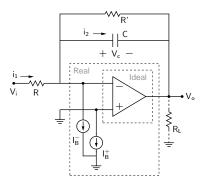


#### Integrator:



Even with  $V_i=0$  V,  $V_c=rac{1}{C}\int -I_B^- dt$  will drive the Op Amp into saturation.

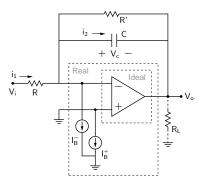
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Even with  $V_i=0$  V,  $V_c=\frac{1}{C}\int -I_B^- dt$  will drive the Op Amp into saturation.

Connecting R' across C provides a DC path for the current, and results in a DC shift  $\Delta V_o = I_B^- \, R'$  at the output.

Integrator:



Even with  $V_i = 0$  V,  $V_c = \frac{1}{C} \int -I_B^- dt$  will drive the Op Amp into saturation.

Connecting R' across C provides a DC path for the current, and results in a DC shift  $\Delta V_o = I_B^- R'$  at the output.

As we have discussed earlier, R' should be small enough to have a negligible effect on  $V_o$ . However, R' must be large enough to ensure that the circuit still functions as an integrator.