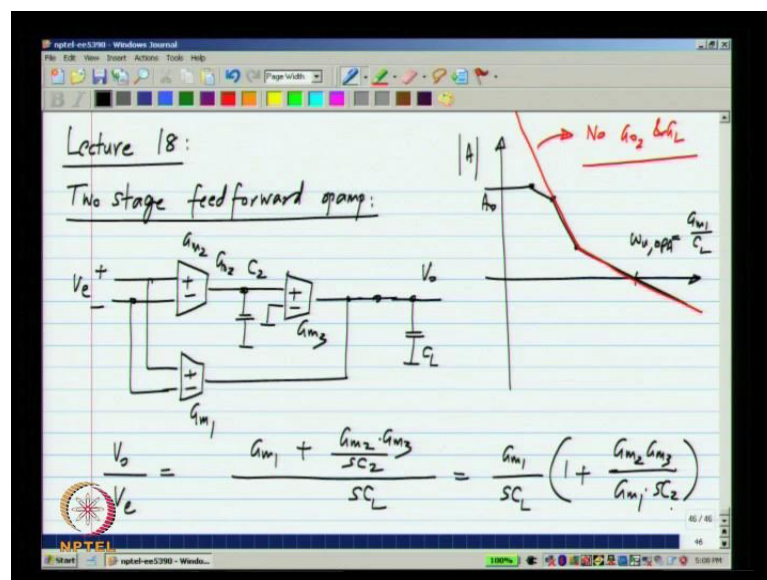


Analog Integrated Circuit Design
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Lecture - 18
Feed forward Compensated Opamp-Typical Opamp Data Sheet

Hello and welcome to lecture 18 of Analog Integrated Circuits Design. What we will do is, first of all, today is to look again at the stability with a two stage feed power opamp and as times how far the 0 must be from the unity loop gain frequency. So, for all we have set is that it has to be within the unity loop gain frequency. We have not discussed how much. Thus, what we will do?

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Now, I will assume that here is a plot conductance g_1 and c_1 . This is the model wave we have been using. G_1 observes the output conductance of these trans conductors as well and there is a 0_2 here and c_2 . This is the input to the opamp and this is the output of the opamp. We know that bode plot of a or v naught by v_e is of this type, right, two poles and a zero before the unity gain frequency, and the unity gain frequency itself equals g_{m1} by c_1 because in this region of frequencies, only this path is active and we have g_{m1} divided by $s c_1$ to be the approximate transfer function.

Now, what we want to do is to evaluate the expression for the close loop gain, and this is placed in feed back. Again, we will just do the simpler case of a unity feedback. If you

have any other feedback, you have to substitute the unity gain frequency of the opamp by the unity loop gain frequency appropriately. Nothing you can do that by yourself. Also, we have a finite dc gain here.

In fact, it is to increase the dc gain that went to two stage opamp, but if you put all of this detail into the expressions while evaluating stability, it becomes quite complicated. Also, I have mentioned earlier that the stability depends on what happens in this region, what happens to the loop gain in that region. We know that the stability criterion which is the noxious criteria or talks about encirclement of minus 1 0 which relates to how the loop gain behaves around the unit circle, where it enters the unit circle from. So, we have to model this part accurately, but this part around dc is not so necessary.

So, what we will do is, we will act as though the dc gains infinite which is clearly unrealistic. As I said, it is because of finite dc gain that we go to a two stage or structure and three stage structures and so on, but here we are only looking at stability. So, I will remove this conductance's which makes the gain infinite. The gain is finite through this also, infinite through this path. The bode plot will look something like that. This part will be the same and will have that one. Both the poles will be at the origin and we do not have conductances. That is what is going to happen, but this is accurate in this region.

So, it is perfectly fine. So, with this simplification transfer function of the opamp v_{naught} by v can be written as we know that v_{naught} has a contribution from g_{m1} and g_{m3} . The current in g_{m1} and current in g_{m3} get added up and pass through c_1 . So, the total current divided by $s c_1$ is the voltage. So, we will have $s c_1$ in the denominator and will have g_{m1} plus the term representing the current coming out of g_{m3} , which is g_{m2} by $s c_2$, that is the transfer function from e to this node, and from there to here is g_{m3} and this can be written in many forms. I will choose a particular form for convenience. I will write it as g_{m1} by $a c_1$, two times 1 plus g_{m2} , g_{m3} by this c_1 times, sorry g_{m2} g_{m3} by g_{m1} times $s c_2$. Now, this is in a slightly non-standard form, but it is convenient from our analysis.

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$$A(s) = \frac{V_o}{V_e} = \frac{\omega_u}{s} \left(1 + \frac{z_1}{s}\right) = \frac{\omega_u}{s} \frac{z_1}{s} \left(1 + \frac{s}{z_1}\right)$$

$$= \frac{k}{1 + k \frac{s^2}{\omega_u z_1} \left(1 + \frac{s}{z_1}\right)}$$

$$= k \cdot \frac{1 + s/z_1}{1 + \frac{s}{z_1} + k \cdot \frac{s^2}{\omega_u z_1}}$$

$$= \frac{k}{1 + \frac{k}{A}}$$

$$\frac{\omega_u}{k} = \omega_{u, loop}$$

So, v_o naught by v_e is of the form the unity gain frequency of the opamp. I will just refer to it as ω_u divided by s , that is what is outside that is g_m by C , g_m by s C plus C by s . Normally, we express things as polynomials in s , but in this case I have the opposite. This can also be written again as ω_u by s , z_1 by s , $1 + s$ by z_1 , and this is nothing, but A of s . I know that ω_u is g_m by C and this is g_m , g_m by g_m times C . Let us say I make a unity gain amplifier with this.

No, I will not evaluate v_o naught by v_e . Again, we have done it many times. It will simply be k by $1 + k$ by A . I said a unity gain amplifier, here I am making an amplifier of k , not to unity gain and this will be nothing, but k times the reciprocal of this whole thing. This is A . So, $1/A$ is s^2 by ω_u times that one-th divided by $1 + s$ by z_1 which when expanded becomes k $1 + s$ by g $1 + s$ by g $1 + k$ s^2 by ω_u g . Now, the d.c. gain is k exactly because we assume that the output conductances are not there. So, the d.c. gain of the opamp is infinite. There is a 0 in the close loop transfer function and there are two poles.

Now, how did we evaluate such a case? Earlier, we looked at the damping factor or we can equivalently look at the quality factor, and we saw that there the damping factor was appropriate, that is whether there would be lot of ringing, whether the system was under damped, over damped or critically damped. We will do the same thing over here. Now, we also see that this ω_u by k can be sort into the unit loop gain frequency. This is

what we have been doing earlier also, right. So, the unity loop gain frequency of the close loop function will be the unity energy frequency divided by k if it is a first order dependence.

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The image shows a digital whiteboard with handwritten mathematical derivations. At the top, the transfer function is given as $\frac{V_o}{V_e} = k \frac{(1 + s/z_1)}{1 + \frac{s}{z_1} + \frac{s^2}{\omega_{u,loop} z_1}}$. This is compared to the standard second-order form $1 + 2\zeta \frac{s}{\omega_n} + \frac{s^2}{\omega_n^2}$. From this comparison, the natural frequency is identified as $\omega_n = \sqrt{\omega_{u,loop} z_1}$ and the damping factor is $\zeta = \frac{1/z_1}{2/\sqrt{\omega_{u,loop} z_1}} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\omega_{u,loop}}{z_1}}$. The text then states "Damping factor $\zeta = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\omega_{u,loop}}{z_1}}$ " and "Critical damping $\zeta = 1$, $z_1 = \omega_{u,loop}/4$ ".

If the loop has first order dependence, that is the case that is what we have and comparing the denominator to the standard form which is what we will get is omega n is square root of omega u loops times g 1 and zeta will be in other words, it is half square root of omega u loop divided by g 1. So, the damping factor zeta equals half of omega u loop by g 1.

If you want critical damping, we can evaluate it for whatever we want, but for critical damping zeta equals 1 which means that g 1 should be omega u loop divided by 4. This confirms our earlier intuition that 0 must lie within the unity loop gain frequency because we have two poles within the unity loop gain frequency for stability, for good behavior. We should have 0 also within the unity loop gain frequency. This tells you that for a two stage feed forward compensated opamp, the zero should be four times below the unity loop gain frequency.

In fact, if you recall the case where the opamp was an integrator with a non-dominant pole for critical damping, the non-dominant pole had to be four times greater than the unity loop gain frequency. Here, the zero has to be four times below the unity loop gain frequency. There is some symmetry in the results which also makes it easy to remember.

Now, you also will see that from this particular expression if you move the 0 to lower and lower frequencies, the damping will become more and more. You will have higher and higher damping factors and if the 0 approaches the unity loop gain frequency, if it is equal to the unity loop gain frequency, the damping factor is half which is acceptable, but it will have a slight ringing anything lower than that, then you will have a lot of ringing.

So, now, what is the value that we must really choose? Now, in case of an opamp which was an integrator with a non-dominant pole, the non-dominant pole had to be higher and higher frequencies, but it is actually difficult to push things to higher and higher frequencies because of constraints on power deception and so on which we will see later. We will find that if you say that the non-dominant pole has to be 100 and higher than the unity loop gain frequency, it is a difficult thing to do. In fact, the only way to do that is probably by reducing the unity loop gain frequency whereas, these constraints looks different. This says that the 0 has to be below the unity loop gain frequency. Now, is there any limit to, any lower limit to 0? Let us look at the expression for the 0.

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$$z_1 = \frac{g_{m2} g_{m3}}{g_{m1} \cdot C_2} \quad ; \quad \omega_n = \frac{g_{m1}}{C_L} ;$$

$$\omega_{u/loop} = \frac{g_{m1}}{k \cdot C_L}$$

Exercise: Evaluate the step response corresponding

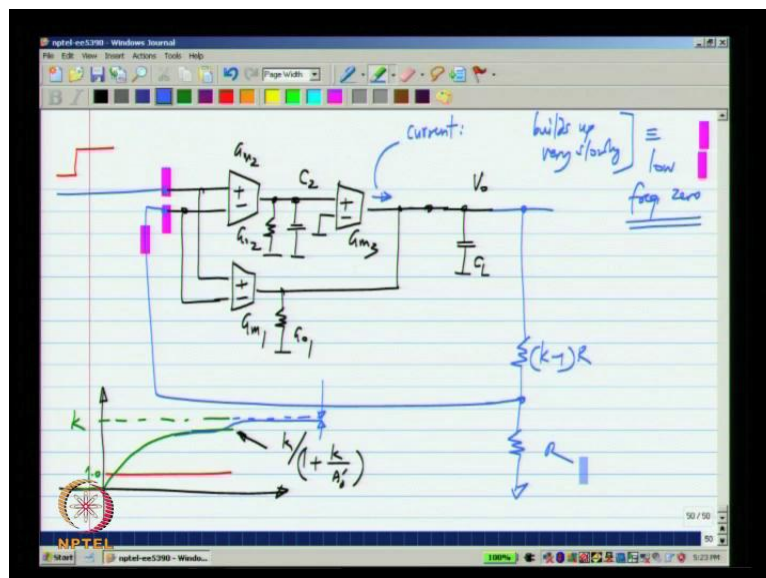
$$\frac{V_o}{V_L} = k \cdot \frac{1 + s/z_1}{1 + \frac{s}{z_1} + \frac{s^2}{\omega_{u/loop} \cdot z_1}} \quad ; \quad \omega_{u/loop} = \frac{\omega_n}{k}$$

Let me also write the expression for the unity gain frequency which is g_{m1} / C_L and the unity loop gain frequency of course is g_{m1} / C_L divided by k . Now, how do we make this 0 smaller and smaller? We could reduce g_{m2} or g_{m3} or we could increase C_2 . Let us say we do not play around with g_{m1} because that also influences the unity

loop gain frequency, but the other three things we can play around or independently control g_1 .

So, it looks like we can make it arbitrarily low, that is we can push the 0 to arbitrarily low frequencies. It turns out that is a great disadvantage. Although the stability criterion is satisfied, there will be other problems. I will not evaluate this completely. Analytically what I suggest that you take it as an exercise and you evaluate the step response corresponding to the transfer function that we have ω_u loop of course is ω_u by k . So, this type some algebra, but with knowledge of laplace transfer, you can do this and also sketch it and see what happens if the 0 moves to lower and lower frequencies, then you will get the point. I will only explain it intuitively here.

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Let me copy over the schematic of the feed forward compensated opamp and what is the amplifier that I built. I took this feed forward compensated opamp and place this in a negative feedback loop. So, what do I mean when I say the 0 is realized at a very low frequency, the 0 is pushed to a very low frequency? Either g_{m2} is very small or g_{m3} is very small or c_2 is very large. In each of these cases, you will see that either the voltage here is very small or finally, the current output from this is very small, rather it builds up very slowly if you have a given voltage here. If c_2 is very large, it has to charge up slowly and this current builds up very slowly. The current magnitude is very small in the laplace domain, but if you have a step input between these two inputs of the opamp, the

current here builds up very slowly that is what it means. So, that is the meaning of having a very low frequency ω .

Now, what is the effect of that? So, that means that let say I apply a step input to this one. Now, initially the output voltage is at some value and it would not change instantaneously because it is a cross capacitor. So, the voltage here, the feedback will not change instantaneously. This is the phenomenon we examined earlier even with an integrator. If you apply a step to the input, the output does not change instantaneously, but it starts ramping up also. Now, we are saying that so effectively, that means between the inputs. So, the opamp you have a step input because this has not changed. We also said that the current that is coming out of $g_m 3$ is very small. It builds up very slowly. So, initially it is very small.

So, initially it is like having only the single stage opamp $g_m 1$ and $c 1$. So, this is all we have. Let us imagine that is $g_m 2$ is very small and $g_m 3$ is very small and $c 2$ is very large, that is ω is at a really low frequency, so that this current does not built up much in the beginning time period. So, what happens if I apply unit step? The output is supposed to build up to k times, the unit steps. Let say this is 1 and this is k . Now, since the current is very small, we practically have a single stage opamp in our circuit.

So, it builds up to something and also, we know that the single stage opamp has a very low dc gain. That is because of any resistors loading it, and it is also because of its own internal resistances which I did not put earlier, but this has to be included here. So, it builds up to some value which is basically k by 1 plus k by a naught prime. Here a naught prime refers to the dc gain only of this path $g_m 1$, $a_{g 1}$ and resistances and so on which is very low. That is why we put the other two stages in the first place.

Now, after a long time the current output of the trans conductance $g_m 3$ starts to build up significantly. So, what happens is after that, after long time this builds up and comes closer. So, although the dc gain of the opamp is high, it takes a long time to reach the low steady state error implied by the high dc gain. In fact, the reason we want high dc gain is, so that the steady state error is very small, but if you push the ω to a very low frequency, what happens is initially it builds up to a large error which is governed by the dc gain of the single stage opamp found by $g_m 1$, and after a long time you achieve a low stage steady error which is given by the high dc gain of this path.

So, it is not beneficial to push the 0 to very low frequencies. In fact, it is harmful. It defeats the purpose of having a two stage free forward compensated opamp. The reason to go to two stages is first to provide high dc gain, but you have to wait forever to reach that. So, while the 0 has to be lower than the unity loop gain frequency. You can go crazy and push it very low.

Now, you please analyze this using laplace transfer and the conclusion that you draw must be consistent with what I have shown here. You have to plot it for many different cases of 0 to be able to see this. Now, because of this reason, right because the output builds up and then, builds up slowly, this kind of feed forward compensated opamp is not necessarily suitable when you have step like input appears rapidly this single stage response and these two stages response much later. So, for step input, this may not be the best choice, but for other kinds of input where you do not expect a step, the feed forward compensated opamp can give you a very good performance.

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The image shows a digital whiteboard with handwritten mathematical notes. At the top, it says "Exercise:" followed by the transfer function:
$$\frac{V_o}{V_i} = k \cdot \frac{1 + s/z_1}{1 + \frac{s}{z_1} + \frac{s^2}{\omega_{u,loop} z_1}}$$
 Below this, there is a diagram of a feedback loop with a feed-forward path. The feedback path has a gain of 1. The feed-forward path has a gain of $\frac{\omega_{u,loop}}{4}$. The output is V_o and the input is V_i . The text "vs. freq." is written between the two equations. To the right, there are notes: "different values of z_1 " and "different values of p_2 ". Below the diagram, there is another transfer function:
$$\frac{V_o}{V_i} = k \frac{1}{1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{u,loop}} + \frac{s^2}{\omega_{u,loop} p_2}}$$
 The whiteboard also shows a toolbar at the top and a taskbar at the bottom with the NPTEL logo.

Now, there is another exercise which will just evaluate the effect of the 0. We have a close loop gain v_o by v_i to be k times $1 + s$ by $g_1 + s$ by $g_1 + s^2$ by $\omega_{u,loop} g_1$. So, this is what we have. Please plot the magnitude of v_o by v_i versus frequency gain for different values of g_1 . You take let us say g_1 to be $\omega_{u,loop}$ by 4 that corresponds to critical damping. You do that and in particular, contrast this with what we had earlier when we have an integrator and a single non-

dominant pole. I believe the expression was something like this, where ω_u loop is the unity loop gain frequency and p_2 is the non-dominant pole. The important difference between these two is the absence of the 0.

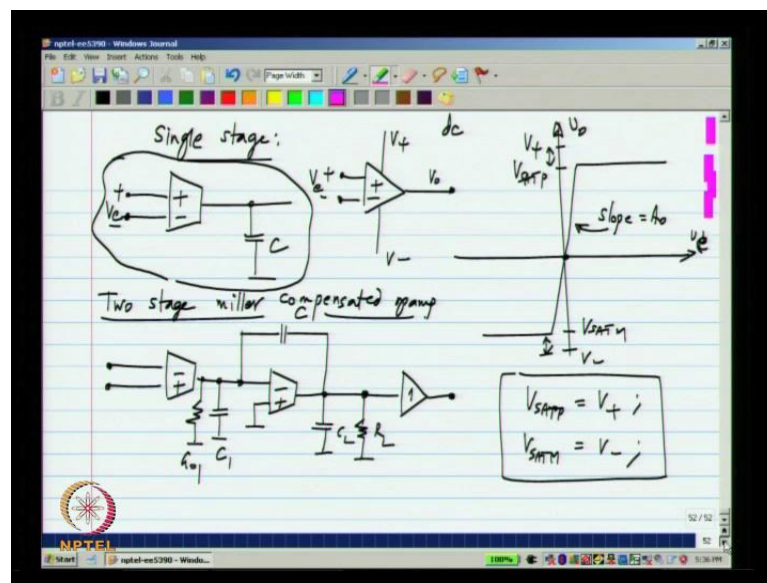
So, you do this for different values of g_1 here, and different values of p_2 here and you compare the two cases when the damping factor is the same for instant for $\zeta = 1$. We have g_1 to be ω_u loop by 4 or in the second case, v_2 to be four times ω_u loop. For the same damping factor, you can compare the transfer function magnitude of v_i over a range of frequencies and then, see how they compare to each other. That also gives you another point of choice when you have more than one solutions. You have to compare two different performance matrix and see which one to choose. It will kind of become obvious why one might be more advantageous compared to the other one. So far we have discussed feed forward compensated opamps which is an alternative way of getting high gains to miller compensated opamps.

Now, you can make feed forward compensated opamps stable. We have to make sure that the number of poles minus number of zeros before the unity gain frequency is 1 at the unity gain frequency. You have only g_m . The main opamp that you started with that is active. All the other step is active before that and goes away. That is the bottom line as far as stability is concerned. Let say you have a feed forward compensated opamp which you have designed for an amplifier of gain 1 and then, you use the same feed forward compensated opamp and an amplifier of gain more than 1. You may find that it is unstable. This will not happen with miller compensated opamps.

So, feed forward compensated opamps have to be designed for each value of gain specifically, and another issue can be that if the zeros in the feed forward compensated opamps are much lower frequency compared to the unity loop gains frequency, you will have very slow settling effectively. What happens is you have only the single stage acting initially and the other stages which have a multiple stages in casket kicking only much later. So, that means, that the low steady state you are hoping to get by getting a high dc gain will appear only after a long time that limits the speed at which you can operate the opamp, and that can be the limitation as well. So, that tells you that the zeros cannot be pushed to very low frequencies compared to the unity loop gain frequency.

So, so far we have macro models of opamps that is design of opamps at the trans conductor level. We have not yet decided how to make the trans conductors using transistors. That will come in later lecture. We know how to make opamps. We know how to enhance their dc gain, we know the main limitations. What we have to look at next is some macro level characteristics, block level characteristics. So, the opamp that you will see a data sheet and we can guess as what these characteristics just by knowing something about circuits as what limitations they bring in, so that when you look at an opamp data sheet, you will understand what those different terms are.

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So, I will first start with the single stage opamp. The most opamps that you buy half the shelf and use it in the lab or not single stage by most of them turn out to be two stage miller compensated opamps. This is the two stage miller compensated opamp. The most of the commercial opamps that are available are this variety, but the invariably include a buffer. This is because you could use it with a very heavy loads, so that the behavior of the opamps is not affected sufficiently by the load. So, this is the most popular variety.

Now, what do you see in opamp data sheet? What is it that we want from an opamp? First of all, we want a very high dc gain. So, the dc gain usually given, even the dc transfer characteristics is given d c v naught verses v i. We want a high dc gain. So, that means that we must have a characteristics to the high scope. Now, what happens is that the opamp is operated from some supplies v plus and v minus. There is an upper supply

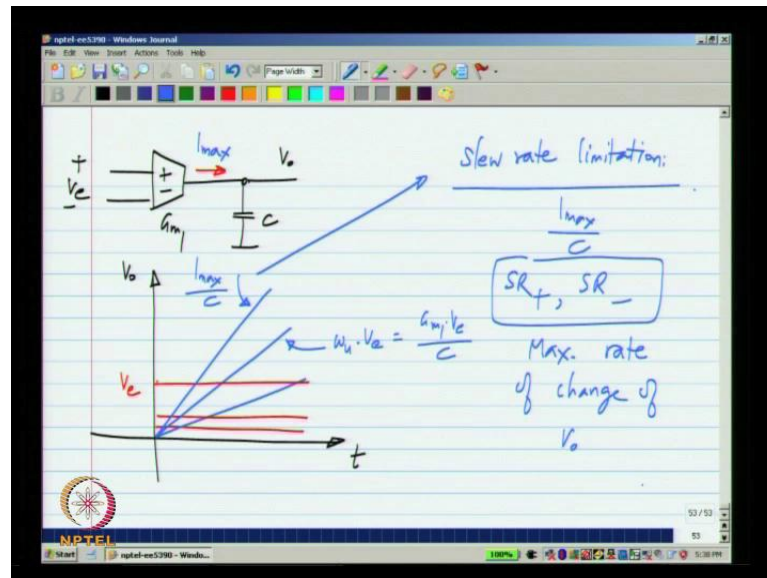
and the lower supply. This could be anything and this is the plot of v_{out} versus v_{in} . Now, if you operate from supply range, it turns out that the opamps output voltage cannot go beyond the supply range.

So, let us say the v_{+} , there is v_{-} . There it cannot go above v_{+} or go below v_{-} . In fact, it cannot even reach v_{+} . Usually, it stops somewhere below v_{+} and somewhere above v_{-} . This is known as the saturation voltages. I will call it v_{sat+} and v_{sat-} positive and negative saturation voltages. They may or may not be equal to each other. That is the gap between v_{sat+} and v_{-} . The gap between v_{sat-} and v_{+} may or may not be equal to each other, and you have to determine what v_{sat+} and v_{sat-} are from the data sheet. Now, when that information is not available, it is a reasonable approximation to assume that v_{sat+} equals v_{+} , that is the upper supply voltage and v_{sat-} equals v_{-} . These things you may know from your basic electronic course, but I am just writing that this is part of the data sheet. Basically this plot tells you the dc gain, but also the limit of voltages over which you get a high dc gain, we will later see when we make the opamp with transistors exactly what these limits are compared to the supplies that we use.

The important thing also is that it is related to the supplies that we use. Now, this v_{-} and v_{+} could be some positive and negative voltages with respect to ground or v_{-} could be 0, and v_{+} is the positive voltage and so on. These limits are correspondingly relative to v_{+} and v_{-} that we use. It is not that v_{sat+} is plus some voltage and v_{sat-} is minus some voltage regardless of the supply. So, that is one limitation. There is limitation on swing limit. Those are the saturation voltages.

Now, in addition to this, it turns out that this can be understood by looking at the single stage opamp itself. It is not only the voltage output of a circuit that is limited. If you realize a trans conductor, the current output from that also will be limited. This just has to do with a design of the trans conductors. It will be limited to some high value or low value, but it will always be limited to some value. What does it mean? Again, we can remove this, an output resistance of the trans conductor and analyzer if the current form is limited. What it means is as you go increasing the input voltage to the opamp, the output current will go on increasing, but at some point, it will stop increasing and it will become constant.

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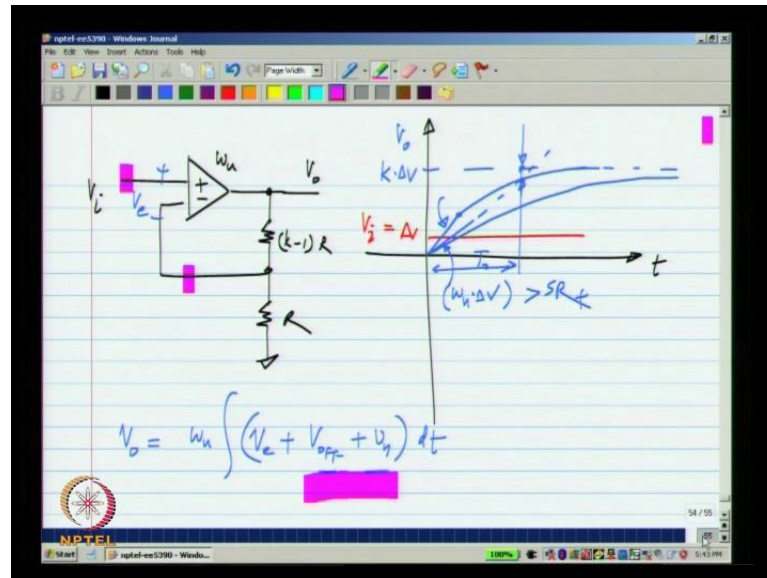
I will simply use g_m and C and v_e and I look at v_o versus t and I assume that v_e is a step of various size, right. So, maybe a Laplace small step, the output voltage will ramp up. I will apply larger steps to the input. The output voltage will ramp up faster, but what happens is beyond a certain value of the input step, v_e the current here does not increase any more. So, let's say the current is I_{max} and the slope of the output which should have been, what it should be. It should be ω_u times v_e .

Now, when the current reaches its maximum value, the output voltage will have a slope of I_{max} divided by C , and it does not depend on v_e anymore. Before that it could have been g_m times v_e divided by C , but g_m times v_e , this relationship is avoided only when the output current is below I_{max} . So, it is I_{max} by C . So, what it means is, it is not linear anymore. The output slope does not increase with the input steps and this limitation is known as the slew rate limitation.

The slew rate is given by I_{max} by C and usually, there is a slew rate in the positive direction and a slew rate in the negative direction which can be different from each other, and both these will be specified and this is nothing, but the maximum rate of change of output voltage v_o and SR_+ is when v_o is increasing, and SR_- is when v_o is decreasing. Now, when does this come into picture? It comes into picture when you have cases where the output voltage has to change rapidly. This typically happens when you have high frequency voltages of large amplitudes. The output will be limited by slew

rate. The output amplitude still may be smaller than the saturation voltages, but the opamp will still behave non-linearly and it scales also when you apply input step to an opamp amplifier.

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Let say the opamp has the unity gain frequency ω_u and I apply v_i which is a step of some size, and that is v_o . What do I expect if I apply an input step of Δv ? This is v_i . The output must reach k times Δv . What it does is initially it starts off with a slope of ω_u times Δv and then, asymptotically reaches k times Δv . This we have seen earlier in our original analysis of the negative feedback amplifier.

Now, what happens is as you go on increasing the input step, there comes a point where ω_u times Δv exceeds the slew rate of the opamps. So, at that point even if you increase the size of the input step, it always starts at a slope equal to the slew rates. At some point, it rescues and it asymptotically reaches k times Δv . So, this means that basically the output will not be linear with the input anymore. So, there is something to be kept in mind. So, these things become important when you are looking at the amount of settling error after a given time. So, let us say after given period t , t_{naught} you are looking at how far the output is away from the desired value of $k \Delta v$.

Now, if you assume a linear model, if the opamp is an integrator, this value is some constant fraction of the input. It is related to ω_u and the amount of time that you have now because of slew rate, this fraction will not be constant. It will be non-linearly

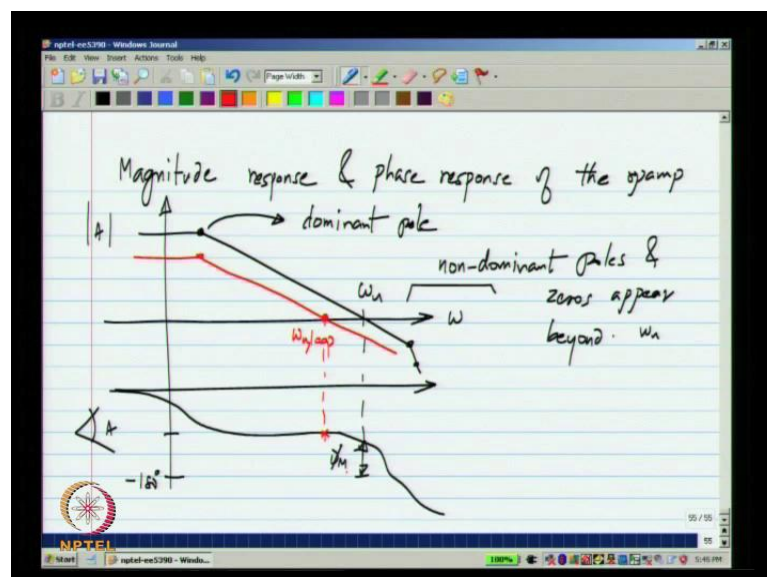
related to the input by this also can lead to non realities and some circuits. So, that is way when using an opamp or when designing an opamp, you have to be aware of the slew rate.

In addition to this you know how the opamp works. It compares the input and the feedback quantity takes the difference and integrates the difference. Now, any error in taking the difference means that there will be an error finally because the input to the integrator must be 0 and we assume that the input to the integrator is exactly this minus that one if it is not that right, if the integrated quantity is not $v_i - v_{naught}$ by k .

In general, the input to the opamp is v_e and the output should be $\omega_u \int v_e dt$. Now, in general, it turns out this is not the case you will have v_e plus some other errors. One of them is known as v_{off} . It is constant with time and there is also a v_n which is a noise which is varying with time. Now, these are random quantities. If you measure v_{off} and v_n for a large number of opamps, you will find different values for each of them. V_{off} is constant with time, but it is different for each opamp.

V_n is randomly varying the time as well as it is different for each opamp. So, these things will cause an error. So, that means that the accuracy to which the feedback quantity, it tracks the input quantity is limited by these numbers. So, v_{off} and v_n are also given in the data sheet and the output will have some contribution from v_{off} and some contribution from v_n .

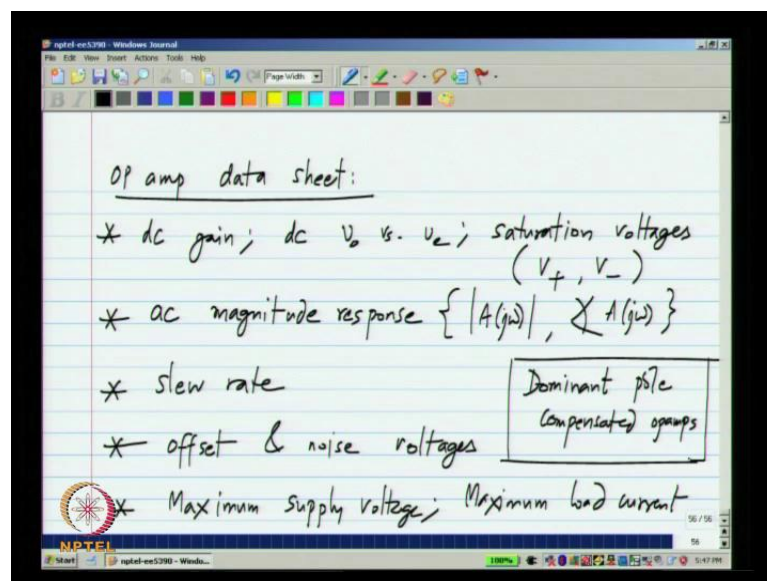
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Finally, we also have the magnitude response and possibly, the phase response as well the opamp and these are evaluated with small signals, and this is basically the bode plot of the opamp, so that you can ascertain stability. So, you will be given magnitude of A and angle of A , and most of the commercial opamps will have this miller compensated structure. The dominant pole compensated structure meaning there will be a single low frequency dominant pole below the unity gain frequency of the opamp, and all the non-dominant poles and zeros appear beyond ω_u , something like this.

The angle of A also will be given and from this you can figure out the phase margin. This will be the phase margin if the opamp is placed in unity gain; otherwise you have to go to the appropriate gain curve. ω_u will be the unity loop gain frequency and you have to look at the phase at that point and ascertain the phase margin of such an amplifier. So, that will be in the opamp data sheet.

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So, when you look at an opamp data sheet, you can expect the dc gain $v_c v_{naught}$ versus v_e in our notation. V_e is the input to the opamp, v_{naught} is the output and this will also include saturation voltages and these are functions of the supply voltages that you use will have the ac magnitude response, which basically means the magnitude of the opamp gain and the phase of the opamp gain, it will mention the slew rate and it will also give you the offset and noise voltages. Exactly how the offset and noise voltages are specified, we will see later. Now, in addition to these things, there may be a number of

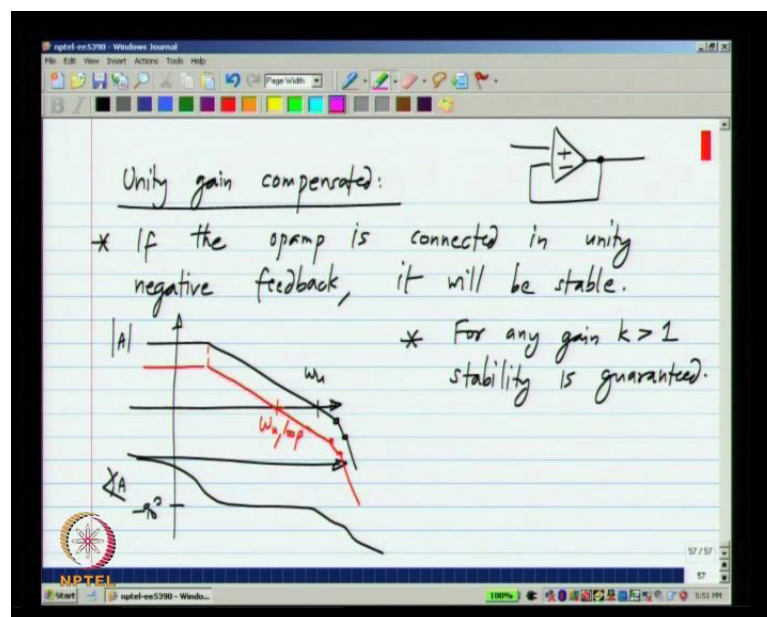
other limits mentioned, that is maximum supply voltage and maximum load current that it can supply and so on.

So, next time you take an opamp data sheet, please look for all of these things and try to understand where they come from. Now, I said that we will have this limitation. By looking at what happens in a single stage opamp, exactly the same thing happens in multi-stage opamps as well. So, these specifications are general. Exactly how they are related to the topology, we will see when we come to transistor level opamp design and also, the other thing I said was most of the opamps are dominant pole compensated opamps.

So, again these term frequency composition is the term that says that the opamp is made to behave like an integrator around the unity loop gain frequency. That is what ensures stability. Here, things like frequency compensations are used to ensure stability.

What it means is that the opamps characteristics are such that around the unity gain frequency, you have 20 db per decade slope or first order behavior or behavior like an integrator that process of getting that is frequency compensation. In our case, we started with the integrator as the model for the opamp. So, we did not use these terms as often as you may find in other books.

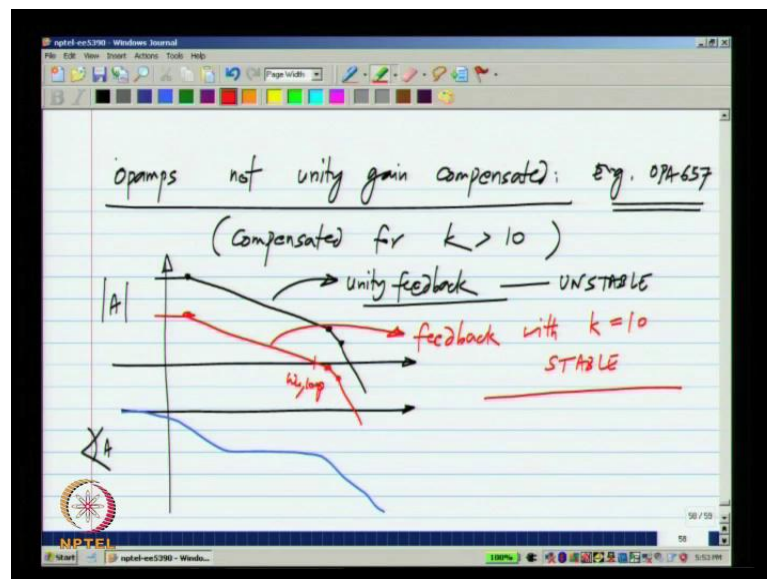
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Now, finally one more thing about standard opamps that you see, most of them are unity gain compensated which means that if the opamp is connected to unity negative feedback, it will be stable, that is if you make an amplifier like this, it will be stable. I also said that they are dominant pole compensated opamps. So, the magnitude and phase A do something of the sort and the none dominant poles and zeros occur beyond ω_u and you have the angle going of like that because it is dominant pole compensated. If you make an amplifier with any other gain k , the stability is guaranteed. This we saw earlier for larger A value of k , this will be ω_u loop.

Now, the stability is guaranteed, but there is a disadvantage. There is a price that we pay by compensating it for unity gain, that is that ω_u loop is smaller than ω_u . If k is 10, ω_u loop is 10 times smaller than ω_u . Now, what is ω_u loop? It is basically the range of frequencies over which you have significant loop gain. Early on this course, we saw that the negative feedback amplifier behaves more or less ideally up to the frequency of ω_u loop because the loop gain is significant up to that frequency. When you make an amplifier with this, the close loop bandwidth will be ω_u loop. Now, you intend to make amplifier only of gain 10 or more and you use an unity gain compensated opamp which are the certain ω_u . That means, you can get a bandwidth of only ω_u by 10 or lower than that, and that is a great disadvantage. Now, this unity gain compensation is not necessary because you never intend to use the same opamp and unity gain mode anyhow.

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So, there are also opamps which are not unity gain compensated which are available. So, usually these are compensated for k greater than some value. An example of this I think you can see from the data sheet is OPA657. Now, what does it mean to have an opamp that is not compensated for unity gain? Let us say it is compensated only for k greater than 10. So, that means, the bode magnitude plot and the phase plot look something like this. This will have the dominant pole here and if you measure only the opamp, the non-dominant poles occur before the gain of the opamp reaches unity, but you will never put this in unity feedback.

Let us say you put it in feedback loop of gain some 10 also, then what happens is you have something like that where unity loop gain. Now, pulse below the non-dominant poles, the phase of course will be the same for both. This will be the loop gain for unity feedback and it will be unstable, whereas this will be the gain for let us say k greater than 10, and it will be stable for k equals 10 and for any value of k greater than 10, it will also be stable.

Now, this kind of compensation is used, that is the opamp is not being compensated. Unity gain advantages when you want to realize high gains and also, realize high bandwidth because the unity loop gain frequency limits the bandwidth of your circuit. There is no point artificially limiting the unity loop gain frequency by compensating it more than necessary.

So, if you look at the plus seat of this particular opamp, I think it says that it is compensated for gains greater than 25 and it also shows you the response of the opamp when you make an amplifier of gain equals to 25 and so on. Now, by comparing the bode plot of this with some other opamp, that is unity gain compensated, you will be able to understand all these things.

So, thank you. I will see you in the next lecture.