

## Biomedical Instrumentation

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## Amplifiers and Signal Processing

### Applications of Operational Amplifier In Biological Signals and Systems

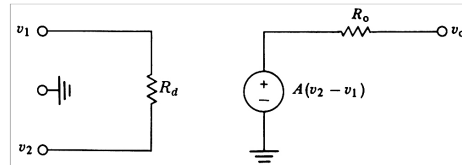
- The three major operations done on biological signals using Op-Amp:

- Amplifications and Attenuations
- DC offsetting:
  - add or subtract a DC
- Filtering:
  - Shape signal's frequency content

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### Ideal Op-Amp

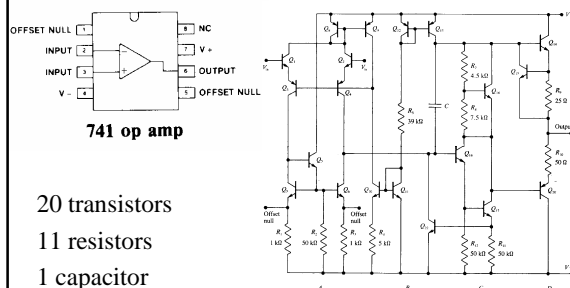
- Most bioelectric signals are small and require amplifications
- Op-amp equivalent circuit:



The two inputs are  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ . A differential voltage between them causes current flow through the differential resistance  $R_d$ . The differential voltage is multiplied by  $A$ , the gain of the op amp, to generate the output-voltage source. Any current flowing to the output terminal  $v_o$  must pass through the output resistance  $R_o$ .

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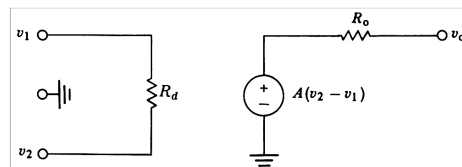
### Inside the Op-Amp (IC-chip)



741 op amp  
20 transistors  
11 resistors  
1 capacitor

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### Ideal Characteristics



- $A = \infty$  (gain is infinity)
- $V_o = 0$ , when  $v_1 = v_2$  (no offset voltage)
- $R_d = \infty$  (input impedance is infinity)
- $R_o = 0$  (output impedance is zero)
- Bandwidth =  $\infty$  (no frequency response limitations) and no phase shift

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### Two Basic Rules

- **Rule 1**
  - When the op-amp output is in its linear range, the two input terminals are at the same voltage.
- **Rule 2**
  - No current flows into or out of either input terminal of the op amp.

### Inverting Amplifier

$$v_o = -\frac{R_f}{R_i} v_i \quad G = \frac{v_o}{v_i} = -\frac{R_f}{R_i}$$

- (a) An inverting amplifier. Current flowing through the input resistor  $R_i$  also flows through the feedback resistor  $R_f$ .
- (b) The input-output plot shows a slope of  $-R_f/R_i$  in the central portion, but the output saturates at about  $\pm 13$  V.

### Summing Amplifier

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

### Example 3.1

- The output of a biopotential preamplifier that measures the electro-oculogram is an undesired dc voltage of  $\pm 5$  V due to electrode half-cell potentials, with a desired signal of  $\pm 1$  V superimposed. Design a circuit that will balance the dc voltage to zero and provide a gain of -10 for the desired signal without saturating the op amp.

### Answer 3.1

- We assume that  $v_b$ , the balancing voltage at  $v_i=5$  V. For  $v_o=0$ , the current through  $R_f$  is zero. Therefore the sum of the currents through  $R_i$  and  $R_b$ , is zero.

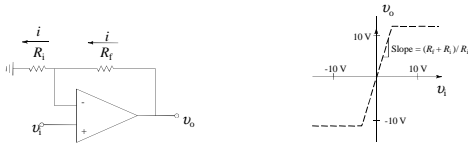
$$\frac{v_o}{R_i} + \frac{v_b}{R_b} = 0 \Rightarrow R_b = \frac{-R_i v_b}{v_i} = \frac{-10^4(-10)}{5} = 2 \times 10^4 \Omega$$

### Follower ( buffer)

- Used as a buffer, to prevent a high source resistance from being loaded down by a low-resistance load. In another word it prevents drawing current from the source.

$$v_o = v_i \quad G = 1$$

## Noninverting Amplifier



$$v_o = \frac{R_f + R_i}{R_i} v_i \quad G = \frac{R_f + R_i}{R_i} = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_i}\right)$$

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## Differential Amplifiers

- **Differential Gain  $G_d$**

$$G_d = \frac{v_o}{v_4 - v_3} = \frac{R_4}{R_3}$$

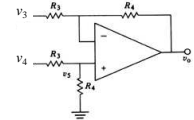
- **Common Mode Gain  $G_c$**

- For ideal op amp if the inputs are equal then the output = 0, and the  $G_c = 0$ .
- No differential amplifier perfectly rejects the common-mode voltage.

- **Common-mode rejection ratio  $CMMR$**

- Typical values range from 100 to 10,000

- Disadvantage of one-op-amp differential amplifier is its low input resistance

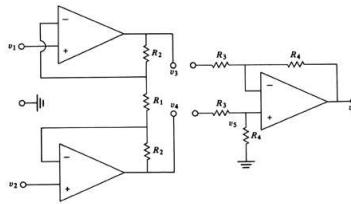


$$v_o = \frac{R_4}{R_3} (v_4 - v_3)$$

$$CMMR = \frac{G_d}{G_c}$$

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## Instrumentation Amplifiers



Differential Mode Gain

$$v_3 - v_4 = i(R_2 + R_1 + R_2)$$

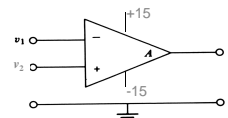
$$v_1 - v_2 = iR_1$$

$$G_d = \frac{v_3 - v_4}{v_1 - v_2} = \frac{2R_2 + R_1}{R_1}$$

Advantages: High input impedance, High CMRR, Variable gain

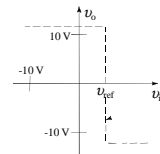
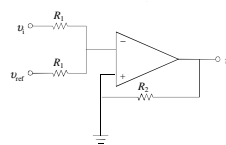
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## Comparator – No Hysteresis



$$v_1 > v_2, v_o = -13 \text{ V}$$

$$v_1 < v_2, v_o = +13 \text{ V}$$

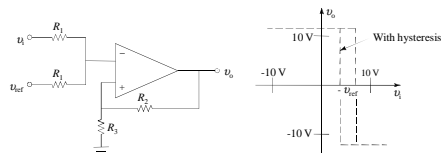


If  $(v_1 + v_{ref}) > 0$  then  $v_o = -13 \text{ V}$  else  $v_o = +13 \text{ V}$   
 $R_1$  will prevent overdriving the op-amp

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## Comparator – With Hysteresis

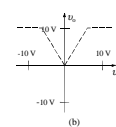
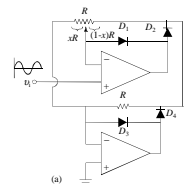
- Reduces multiple transitions due to mV noise levels by moving the threshold value after each transition.



$$\text{Width of the Hysteresis} = 4V_{R3}$$

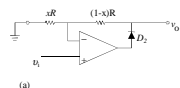
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## Rectifier



- **Full-wave precision rectifier:**

- For  $u_i > 0$ ,  $D_2$  and  $D_3$  conduct, whereas  $D_1$  and  $D_4$  are reverse-biased. Noninverting amplifier at the top is active



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### Rectifier

(a)

(b)

- Full-wave precision rectifier:
  - For  $u_i < 0$ ,  $D_1$  and  $D_3$  conduct, whereas  $D_2$  and  $D_4$  are reverse-biased. Inverting amplifier at the bottom is active

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### One-Op-Amp Full Wave Rectifier

(c)

- For  $u_i < 0$ , the circuit behaves like the inverting amplifier rectifier with a gain of  $+0.5$ . For  $u_i > 0$ , the op amp disconnects and the passive resistor chain yields a gain of  $+0.5$ .

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### Logarithmic Amplifiers

- Uses of Log Amplifier
  - Multiply and divide variables
  - Raise variable to a power
  - Compress large dynamic range into small ones
  - Linearize the output of devices

(a)

$$V_{BE} = 0.06 \log \left( \frac{I_C}{I_S} \right)$$

$$v_o = 0.06 \log \left( \frac{v_i}{R_i \cdot 10^{-13}} \right)$$

(a) A logarithmic amplifier makes use of the fact that a transistor's  $V_{BE}$  is related to the logarithm of its collector current. For range of  $I_c$  equal  $10^{-7}$  to  $10^{-3}$  and the range of  $v_o$  is  $-0.36$  to  $-0.66$  V.

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### Logarithmic Amplifiers

(a)

(b)

(a) With the switch thrown in the alternate position, the circuit gain is increased by 10. (b) Input-output characteristics show that the logarithmic relation is obtained for only one polarity;  $\times 1$  and  $\times 10$  gains are indicated.

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### Integrators

$$v_o = -\frac{1}{R_i C_f} \int_0^t v_i dt + v_{ic}$$

$$\frac{V_o(j\omega)}{V_i(j\omega)} = -\frac{Z_f}{Z_i}$$

$$\frac{V_o(j\omega)}{V_i(j\omega)} = \frac{-R_f}{R_i + j\omega R_f R_i C}$$

$$\frac{V_o(j\omega)}{V_i(j\omega)} = \frac{-1}{R_f + j\omega R_i C}$$

$$\frac{v_o}{v_i} = \frac{-R_f}{R_i} \quad \text{for } f < f_c$$

$$f_c = \frac{1}{2\pi R_i C_f}$$

(a)

A large resistor  $R_i$  is used to prevent saturation

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### Integrators

(a)

- A three-mode integrator
  - With  $S_1$  open and  $S_2$  closed, the dc circuit behaves as an inverting amplifier. Thus  $u_o = u_c$  and  $u_o$  can be set to any desired initial conduction. With  $S_1$  closed and  $S_2$  open, the circuit integrates. With both switches open, the circuit holds  $v_o$  constant, making possible a leisurely readout.

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## Differentiators

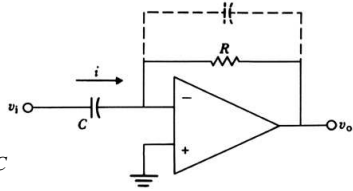
- **A differentiator**

- The dashed lines indicate that a small capacitor must usually be added across the feedback resistor to prevent oscillation.

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

$$\frac{V_o(j\omega)}{V_i(j\omega)} = -\frac{Z_f}{Z_i}$$

$$\frac{V_o(j\omega)}{V_i(j\omega)} = -j\omega RC$$

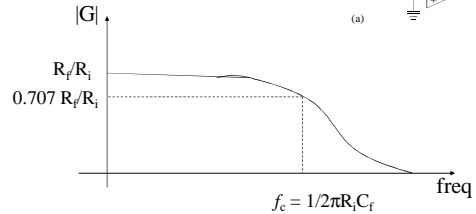
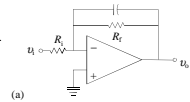


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## Active Filters- Low-Pass Filter

- A low-pass filter attenuates high frequencies

$$\text{Gain} = G = \frac{V_o(j\omega)}{V_i(j\omega)} = \frac{-R_f}{R_i} \frac{1}{1 + j\omega R_f C_f}$$

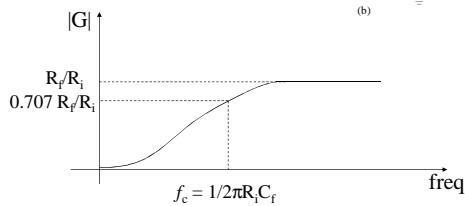
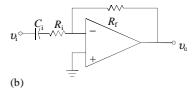


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## Active Filters (High-Pass Filter)

- A high-pass filter attenuates low frequencies and blocks dc.

$$\text{Gain} = G = \frac{V_o(j\omega)}{V_i(j\omega)} = \frac{-R_f}{R_i} \frac{j\omega R_i C_i}{1 + j\omega R_f C_f}$$

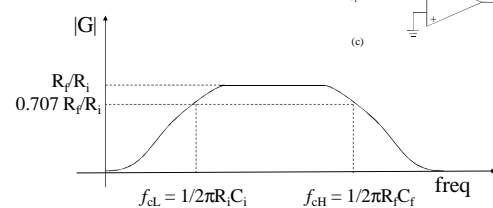
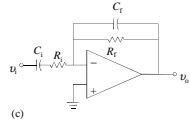


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## Active Filters (Band-Pass Filter)

- A bandpass filter attenuates both low and high frequencies.

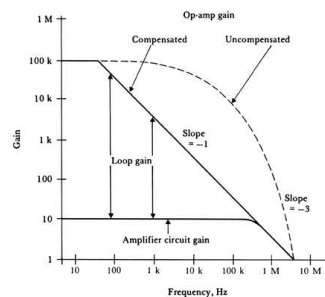
$$\frac{V_o(j\omega)}{V_i(j\omega)} = \frac{-j\omega R_f C_i}{(1 + j\omega R_f C_f)(1 + j\omega R_i C_i)}$$



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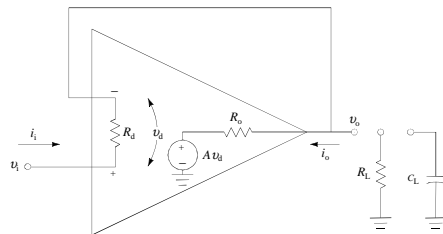
## Frequency Response of op-amp and Amplifier

- Open-Loop Gain
- Compensation
- Closed-Loop Gain
- Loop Gain
- Gain Bandwidth Product
- Slew Rate



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## Input and Output Resistance



$$R_{ai} = \frac{\Delta v_i}{\Delta i_i} = (A+1)R_d$$

$$R_{ao} = \frac{\Delta v_o}{\Delta i_o} = \frac{R_o}{A+1}$$

Typical value of  $R_d = 2$  to  $20 \text{ M}\Omega$     Typical value of  $R_o = 40 \Omega$

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