

# A High Input Impedance Single-Ended Input to Balanced Differential Output Amplifier

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**Abstract**—A high input impedance circuit to convert a single-ended (SE) voltage to its differential counterpart is proposed. It allows setting the common-mode (CM) output voltage to a reference voltage  $v_R$  while providing gain and a balanced output. The circuit, intended to work as sensor front-end for instrumentation applications, can be implemented by using available commercial devices, thus proving a solution for the board-level design of instrumentation systems. It is based on operational amplifiers and can be tailored to specific requirements such as low noise levels, low bias currents, or limited power supply voltages. The CM output voltage is controlled by a closed-loop scheme that results in a very good balance between circuit outputs. In order to test the proposed topology, two single-ended to differential output amplifiers were built and tested: a low-noise amplifier that presents a noise of 70 nV<sub>RMS</sub> in a 0.1 Hz–1 kHz bandwidth with a noise spectral density lower than 2 nV/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$  for higher frequencies, and a low input bias current amplifier for coaxial piezoelectric sensors.

**Index Terms**—Conditioning circuits, differential circuits, instrumentation front-end.

## I. INTRODUCTION

THE present analog signal processing trend is toward fully differential (FD) circuits, because they present a higher dynamic range than their single-ended counterparts, and because current high-resolution analog-to-digital converters (ADCs) have differential inputs. At the same time, FD circuits are well suited for low-voltage, single-supply operation, and are insensitive to potential drops on the ground tracks, thus relaxing printed circuit board design.

The conversion of an SE voltage to a differential-mode (DM) one is depicted in Fig. 1. A ground-referenced input voltage  $v_i$  is converted to a differential output voltage as

$$v_{oD} = v_{oP} - v_{oN} = Gv_i \quad (1)$$

$$v_{oC} = 0.5(v_{oP} + v_{oN}) = v_R \quad (2)$$

where  $v_{oD}$  and  $v_{oC}$  are the DM and CM output voltages;  $v_{oP}$  and  $v_{oN}$  are the potentials at the output nodes P and N;

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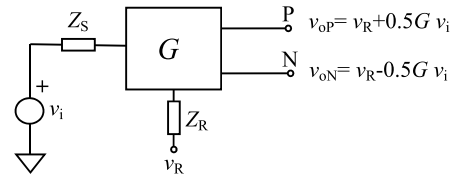


Fig. 1. Conversion of a single-ended voltage to a balanced differential output voltage. Potentials at output nodes P and N ( $v_{oP}$ ,  $v_{oN}$ ) verify (3) and (4).

$v_R$  is the desired CM output voltage; and  $G$  the circuit gain. If (1) and (2) are fulfilled simultaneously, the voltages at output nodes  $v_{oP}$  and  $v_{oN}$  are given by

$$v_{oP} = v_R + 0.5Gv_i, \quad (3)$$

$$v_{oN} = v_R - 0.5Gv_i. \quad (4)$$

In this case, the output is balanced, allowing to exploit the full span of ADCs and analog-processing blocks. Equations (1)–(4) consider that source and common-mode reference impedances  $Z_S$  and  $Z_R$  do not affect the output voltages. This implies high input impedances for both  $v_i$  and  $v_R$ .

When differential output sensors are used (e.g., Wheatstone bridges), all analog signal processing stages, including the front-end, can be implemented using FD circuits [1], but if the sensor provides an SE output, it should be converted to a differential output. In this case, typical instrumentation schemes include several SE analog signal conditioning stages, and signals are converted to DM voltages before being connected to a differential-input ADC [2], [3]. However, to take advantage of FD circuits, this conversion should be done as early as possible, i.e., at the front-end. Moreover, if possible, the conversion may be done on the sensor itself, as proposed in [4] for capacitive sensors. Special care should be taken when designing a front-end circuit since it determines the main virtues and limitations of an instrumentation system. Frequent requirements for voltage-output sensors are: high input impedance, low input bias currents, low noise, and a significant gain to reduce noise contributions of subsequent stages. It is not easy to fulfill all these requirements simultaneously, but at board-level design, the selection of devices can be optimized for specific needs.

The conversion of  $v_i$  to  $v_{oD}$ ,  $v_{oC}$  given by (1) and (2) can be implemented with an FD operational amplifier (FDOA) by using the circuit of Fig. 2(a), where  $G = R_2/R_1$ . This is a simple and efficient solution, appropriate for conditioning

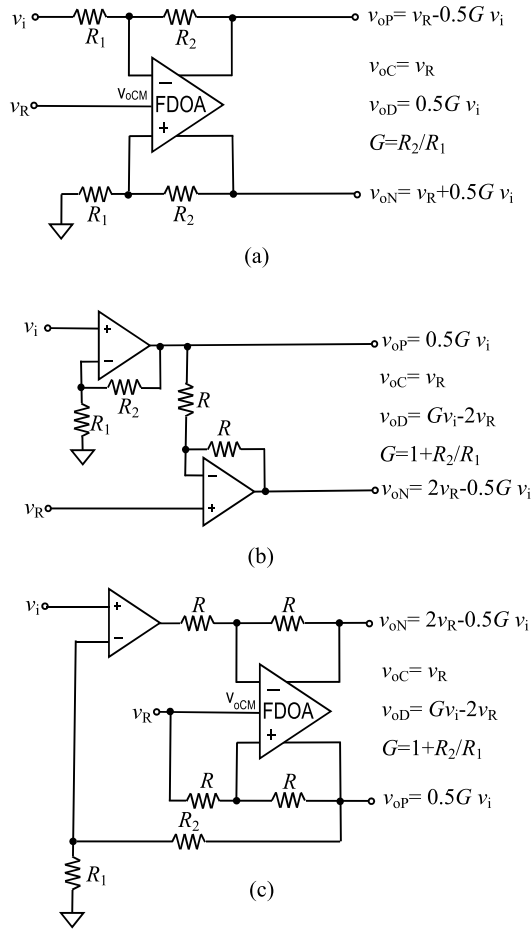


Fig. 2. Three circuits for converting single-ended to differential signals. Circuits based on (a) FD amplifiers, (b) specific commercially available devices as LT6350 or ADA4922, and (c) a combination of them proposed in [8].

SE signals for differential-input ADCs, but not to work as a front-end, because it presents low input impedances. In order to remedy this, unity-gain buffers must be included at  $v_i$  and  $v_R$  inputs, thus adding noise and dc errors. Moreover, FDOAs are intended for high-speed applications, and they are not well suited for high-precision low-power instrumentation circuits [2].

There are topologies based on operational amplifiers that allow performing the SE-to-differential conversion. Some of them, which combine inverting and noninverting amplifiers, are appropriate to generate balanced outputs for synchronous detectors, or lock-in-based systems [5], [6], but they present low input impedances. There are topologies and integrated circuit (IC) solutions for RF applications such as active baluns [7], but they are intended for 50- $\Omega$  systems and their gain depends on devices parameters as their transconductance.

High input impedance circuits based on noninverting amplifiers are commercially available, such as the LT6350 from linear technologies and the ADA4922 from analog devices. These devices, that implement the circuit of Fig. 2(b), are usually employed with unity gain ( $G = 1$ ) but can be adapted to amplify  $v_i$ . They provide high input impedance for

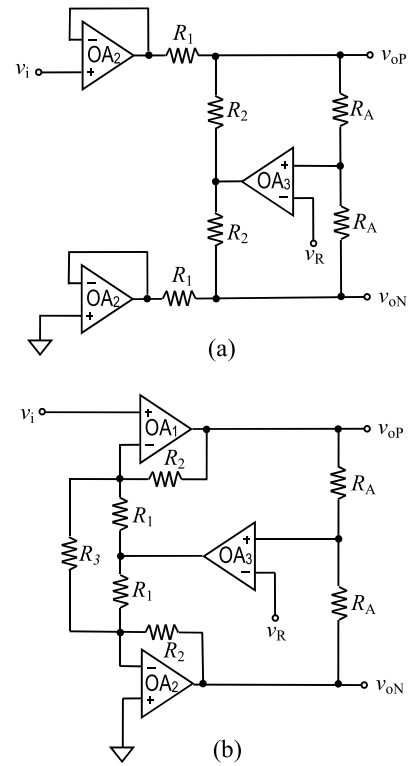


Fig. 3. (a) Circuit described in [9] that provides a balanced output, ensures a desired common-mode output voltage  $v_R$ , but attenuates the input signal  $v_i$ . (b) Proposed circuit to correct this problem by including amplification in the first stage.

both  $v_i$  and  $v_R$ , and their common-mode output voltage  $v_{oC}$  fulfills (2), but their outputs are not balanced: the potential at node P ( $v_{oP} = 0.5 v_i$ ) is a scaled version of  $v_i$ , while the potential at node N ( $v_{oN} = 2v_R - 0.5Gv_i$ ) sets the common-mode voltage. The same situation arises with the solution proposed in [8] and shown in Fig. 2(c), which includes an OA at the input and an FDOA working in a closed-loop scheme. In all these cases, the output common-mode voltage  $v_{oC}$  equals  $v_R$ , but the differential output voltage, given by  $v_{oD} = Gv_i - 2v_R$ , does not fulfill (1) and the differential output is not “centered.” Moreover, a dc voltage at  $v_R$  (i.e., for single-supply circuits) produces undesired dc shifts in  $v_{oD}$ , thus wasting the input span of the subsequent stage.

A circuit that presents high input impedance and ensures the desired common-mode output voltage  $v_R$  by using a closed-loop scheme is described in [9]. The circuit shown in Fig. 3(a) provides a balanced output but it does not provide gain: the differential-mode output voltage  $v_{oD}$  is the attenuated version of the input signal  $v_i$  and is not appropriate for a front-end. The circuit herein proposed replaces the DM attenuator by an amplifier, thus providing gain but also producing stability problems that will be described and solved in the next section.

## II. PROPOSED CIRCUIT

The proposed circuit, depicted in Fig. 3(b), consists in an FD amplifier [10] with an additional CM feedback. The CM output voltage  $v_{oC}$  is sensed by the averaging network  $R_A - R_A$ ,

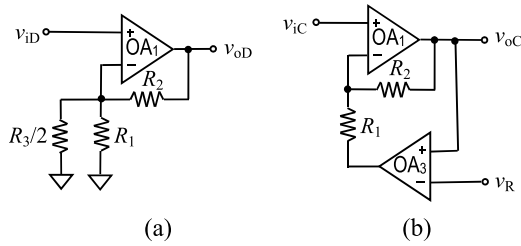


Fig. 4. (a) Differential-mode and (b) common-mode equivalent circuits of the proposed topology.

compared against  $v_R$ , amplified, and then fed back to the input stage. If the open-loop gain  $A_3$  of  $OA_3$  is high enough, the output CM voltage equals  $v_R$ . Note that the traditional gain resistor  $R_1$  was split in order to provide a CM injection node and, as it will be stated later, a resistor  $R_3$  was added to provide a DM gain without affecting the CM behavior.

Given that the circuit works with both common and differential-mode voltages, its analysis can be conducted using its CM and DM equivalent circuits [11], [12] shown in Fig. 4(a) and (b), respectively (see the Appendix). Solving these circuits considering that the open-loop gains  $A_1, A_3$  of  $OA_1, OA_3$  are high enough, the output voltages for CM and DM voltages result

$$v_{oC} = v_R \quad (5)$$

$$v_{oD} = v_{iD}(1 + R_2/R_{13}) \quad (6)$$

where  $R_{13}$  denotes the parallel of  $R_1, R_3/2$  and the DM and CM input voltages as a function of  $v_i$  are  $v_{iD} = v_i, v_{iC} = v_i/2$ . Then, replacing  $v_{iD} = v_i$  in (5) and (6), the following equation results showing that the circuit amplifies and converts the SE voltage  $v_i$  into a DM one  $v_{oD}$  and sets the common-mode output voltage to  $v_R$ :

$$v_{oD} = Gv_i; v_{oC} = v_R \quad (7)$$

$$G = (1 + R_2/R_{13}); R_{13} = R_1 \parallel R_3/2. \quad (8)$$

#### A. Stability Considerations

The proposed circuit is, in fact, FD with one of its inputs grounded. The stability of FD circuits can be analyzed by a space-state approach [13] or, as proposed in [14], by its CM and DM half circuits. To ensure stability both the CM and DM half circuits must be stable.

Using internally compensated “unity-gain stable” OAs, the DM half circuit of Fig. 4(a) is stable (it is a simple noninverting amplifier), but its CM counterpart of Fig. 4(b) could present stability problems. The CM open-loop gain of this circuit is given by that of  $OA_3$ , plus additional gain and phase provided by the inverting amplifier composed by  $OA_1, R_1$ , and  $R_2$ , that leads to stability problems.

The strategy proposed to ensure stability is setting the ratio  $R_2/R_1$  to a value around or below 0 dB and use for  $OA_3$  an amplifier with a gain-bandwidth product ( $GBP_3$ ) lower than that of  $OA_1$  ( $GBP_1$ ). Adopting  $R_2/R_1 = 1$  and  $GBP_3$  ten times lower than  $GBP_1$ , achieves an overall open-loop gain close to that of  $OA_3$  for frequencies around the 0 dB crossing

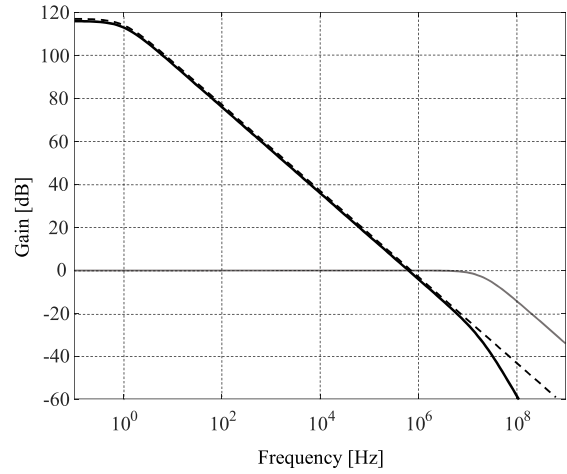


Fig. 5. CM open-loop gain. The gain of the closed-loop inverter amplifier for  $R_2/R_1 = 1$  and  $GBP_1 \gg GBP_3$  is indicated in gray, the open-loop gain of  $OA_3$  in dashed line, and the resulting overall open-loop gain in black solid line.

and below. Hence, the circuit inherits the stability features of  $OA_3$  and works properly.

Fig. 5 shows, in dashed line, a typical open-loop gain of  $OA_3$  and, in solid gray line, the gain of the inverting amplifier composed by  $OA_1, R_1, R_2$  for  $R_2/R_1 = 1$  and  $GBP_1 = 10GBP_3$ . As can be seen in from Fig. 5, the gain of the inverting amplifier maintains its nominal value ( $R_2/R_1 = 1$ ) beyond the 0 dB crossing of  $OA_3$ . Then, the overall common-mode open-loop gain, indicated in solid black line, agrees with that of  $OA_3$ .

A low  $R_2/R_1$  ratio ( $R_2/R_1 \leq 1$ ) allows achieving CM stability but limits the DM gain. This is solved by including a resistor  $R_3$  in parallel to the  $R_1R_2$  network as shown in Fig. 3(b). This resistor provides DM mode gain without affecting CM stability because it does not appear in the CM half circuit of Fig. 4(b).

#### B. Frequency Response

Equations (5)–(7) assume OAs with ideally infinite open-loop gains  $A_1, A_3$  and are valid for low frequencies. As frequency increases, (5) and (6) becomes (see the Appendix)

$$V_{oD} = G_{DD}(s)V_i \quad (9)$$

$$V_{oC} = 0.5G_{CC}(s)V_i + G_{RC}(s)V_R, \quad (10)$$

where capital letters denote Laplace transforms. Considering the conditions adopted for stability ( $R_2/R_1 = 1$  and  $GBP_1 \gg GBP_3$ ), the transfer functions in (9) and (10) can be approximated by (see the Appendix)

$$\begin{aligned} G_{DD}(s) &\approx \frac{A_1(s)}{1 + A_1(s)/G}; G_{CC}(s) \\ &\approx \frac{2}{1 + A_3(s)} \quad \text{and} \quad G_{RC}(s) \approx \frac{A_3(s)}{1 + A_3(s)}. \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

If the open-loop gains  $A_1$  and  $A_3$  are high enough,  $G_{DD}(s) \approx G, G_{CC}(s) \approx 0, G_{RC}(s) \approx 1$ . Therefore, (9) and (10) reduce to the following equation and the circuit converts the SE voltage  $V_i$  into a differential output:

$$V_{oD} = GV_i; V_{oC} = V_R. \quad (12)$$

This expression is valid if the conditions  $A_1/G \gg 1$  and  $A_3 \gg 1$  are fulfilled, thus limiting the useful bandwidth of the proposed circuit. The amplifier gain, which depends on  $GBP_1$ , can be approximated by

$$G_{DD}(s) \approx \frac{G}{1 + s\tau_1}; \tau_1 = \frac{G}{2\pi GBP_1} \quad (13)$$

and its  $-3$ -dB bandwidth is approximately

$$BW_{-3\text{dB}} \approx GBP_1/G. \quad (14)$$

### C. Mismatch Between $v_{oP}$ and $-v_{oN}$

A figure of merit for single-ended to differential converters is the difference between its outputs  $v_{oP}$  and  $-v_{oN}$ . An advantage of the proposed circuit comes from the closed-loop control it performs over  $v_{oC}$ : the differential output is naturally balanced since any mismatches are reduced by the open-loop gain. However, as in any feedback loop, the control can only be as good as the estimation of the controlled variable. The high CM open-loop gain  $A_3$  that  $OA_3$  provides ensures a null voltage at its input (virtual ground and the middle point of the averaging network  $R_A R_A$  equals  $v_R$ ). Considering a mismatch in these resistors, and thus renaming them as  $R_{AP}$ ,  $R_{AN}$ , the  $OA_3$  virtual ground condition leads to

$$v_{oP} \frac{R_{AN}}{R_{AN} + R_{AP}} + v_{oN} \frac{R_{AP}}{R_{AN} + R_{AP}} = v_R \quad (15)$$

where  $v_R$  can be considered equal to 0 without loss of generality in order to analyze the unbalance between  $v_{oP}$  and  $-v_{oN}$ , thus yielding

$$\frac{v_{oP}}{-v_{oN}} = \frac{R_{AP}}{R_{AN}}. \quad (16)$$

The amplitude error  $\varepsilon_M = (-v_{oP}/v_{oN} - 1)$  [3], hence, depends on  $R_{AP}$  and  $R_{AN}$  values

$$\varepsilon_M = (R_{AP}/R_{AN} - 1) \quad (17)$$

and using resistors with tolerance  $t = \Delta R/R$ , the worst case corresponds to  $\varepsilon_M = 2t$ .

However, as frequency increases and even with a perfect matching between  $R_{AP}$  and  $R_{AN}$ , amplitude and phase errors  $\varepsilon_M, \varepsilon_P$  appear because of OA frequency responses. As it is described in the Appendix, their Laplace transforms  $V_{oP}, V_{oN}$  are given by

$$V_{oP} = \frac{1}{2}(G_{CC}(s) + G_{DD}(s))V_i \quad (18)$$

$$V_{oN} = \frac{1}{2}(G_{CC}(s) - G_{DD}(s))V_i. \quad (19)$$

Note that for low frequencies,  $G_{DD} \gg G_{CC}$ , and (18) and (19) reduce to

$$V_{oP} = -V_{oN} \quad (20)$$

but as frequency increases,  $V_{oP}$  and  $-V_{oN}$  differs because of  $G_{CC}$ . The amplitude and phase errors  $\varepsilon_M, \varepsilon_P$  considering

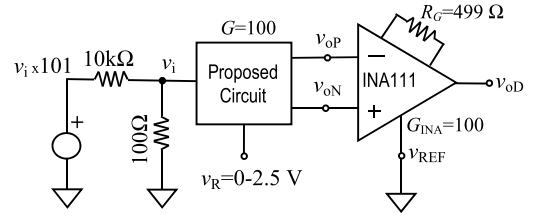


Fig. 6. Experimental setup. A function generator and an attenuator were used to simulate an SE sensor. The instrumentation amplifier was included to amplify  $v_{oD}$  for noise-test purposes.

dc effects described by (17) and the frequency responses given by (18) and (19) result

$$\varepsilon_M(s) = 1 - \frac{R_{AP}}{R_{AN}} \frac{|G_{CC}(s) + G_{DD}(s)|}{|G_{CC}(s) - G_{DD}(s)|} \quad (21)$$

$$\varepsilon_P(s) = \phi \left( \frac{G_{CC}(s) + G_{DD}(s)}{G_{CC}(s) - G_{DD}(s)} \right). \quad (22)$$

## III. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The proposed circuit can be built with standard operational amplifiers, thus allowing selecting commercially available devices to fulfill specific requirements, such as low noise, low bias current, or low-voltage power supplies, among others. Two prototypes were designed, built, and tested: a low-noise amplifier and a low input bias current amplifier, both for converting single-ended sensor signals to differential-output voltages.

### A. Low Noise Amplifier

In order to implement a low-noise version of the proposed circuit, the ultra-low noise OA OPA2211 from Texas Instruments was selected for  $OA_1, OA_2$ . OP07 was used for  $AO_3$  because it presents  $GBP_3 = 0.6$  MHz, lower enough than that of  $OA_1$  ( $GBP_1 = 80$  MHz), thus ensuring stability for a ratio  $R_2/R_1 = 1$ . A resistor  $R_3 = 41\Omega$  was set to achieve, according to (8), a gain of 40 dB (100 times). In summary, component selection for the circuit of Fig. 3(b) results

$OA_{1,2}$  : OPA2211 ( $GBP_1 = 80$  MHz);

$OA_3$  : OP07 ( $GBP_3 = 0.6$  MHz)

$R_1 = 2.1$  k $\Omega$ ,  $R_2 = 2.1$  k $\Omega$ ,  $R_3 = 41\Omega$ ,  $R_A = 22$  k $\Omega$ . (23)

In order to verify design (7) and (8), the circuit was tested with low-frequency sinusoidal signals for  $v_i$  and dc voltages from 0 to 2.5 V for  $v_R$ . Fig. 6 shows the experimental setup. The sensor voltage  $v_i$  was simulated by a function generator and a resistive attenuator  $\times 101$ . This signal was applied to the proposed circuit, and its outputs  $v_{oP}, v_{oN}$  acquired using a digital oscilloscope Agilent MSO-X-2024A, resulting in the signals shown in Fig. 7. This case corresponds to  $v_i = 10$  mV,  $v_R = 2.5$  V and the output voltages agree with those predicted by (7). The amplifier was powered by a  $\pm 5$ -V power supply.

In order to evaluate noise features, an instrumentation amplifier INA111 was introduced. It converts  $v_{oD}$  to single

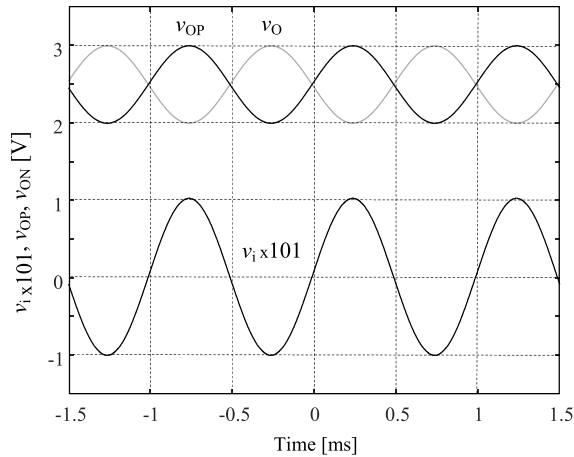


Fig. 7. Input and output signals obtained with  $v_i = 10$  mV and  $v_R = 2.5$  V.

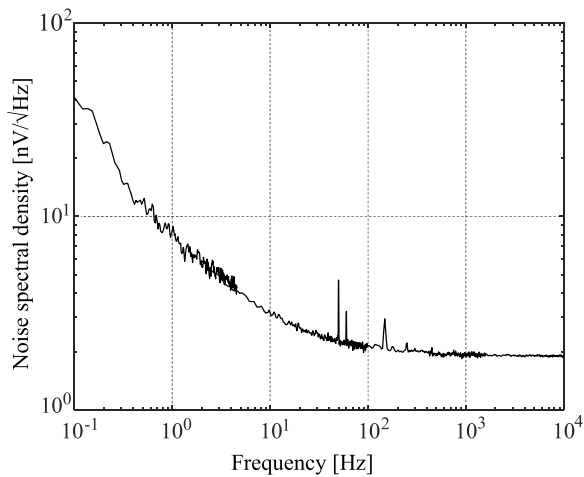


Fig. 8. Noise spectral density (input referenced) of the built prototype.

ended and amplifies it 100 times before feeding it to a Stanford Research 760 Spectrum Analyzer. The INA111 presents a voltage noise of around  $10 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$  but, considering the gain  $G = 100$  of the amplifier under test, it introduces an input-referred noise of  $0.1 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$  and does not contribute significantly to the overall noise.

The noise spectral density of the prototype with its input short-circuited is shown in Fig. 8. The total noise in the 0.1 Hz–1 kHz bandwidth is  $70 \text{ nV}_{\text{RMS}}$  and the noise spectral density is lower than  $2 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$  for higher frequencies.

1) *Frequency Response*: The frequency response of the prototype was obtained experimentally up to 4 MHz using the function generator of the Agilent MSO-X-2024A oscilloscope as  $V_i$  and measuring the peak-to-peak amplitudes of  $V_{oP}$ ,  $V_{oN}$ , and  $V_{oD}$  with this same instrument. The results are shown in Fig. 9:  $V_{oP}/V_i$  in triangles,  $V_{oN}/V_i$  in squares and  $V_{oD}/V_i$  in circles. They present a good agreement with the frequency responses predicted by (13) and (20) considering  $\text{GBP}_1 = 80$  MHz.

2) *Error Between  $v_{oP}$  and  $v_{oN}$* : The circuit prototype was built with 1% tolerance metal-film resistors. Resistors  $R_{AP}$  and  $R_{AN}$  were measured by an Agilent 34401A multimeter

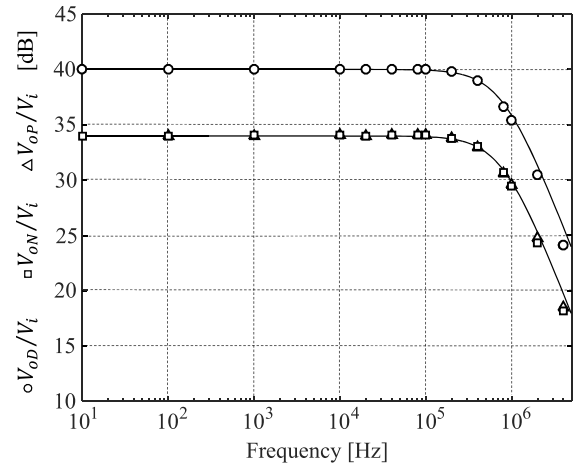


Fig. 9. Experimental data showing the dependence with the frequency of  $G_{DD} = V_{oD}/V_i$  (in circles),  $G_{oP} = V_{oP}/V_i$  (in triangles), and  $G_{oN} = V_{oN}/V_i$  (in squares). Solid lines correspond to theoretical transfer functions  $G_{DD}$ ,  $G_{oP}$ , and  $G_{oN}$  predicted by (13) and (20).

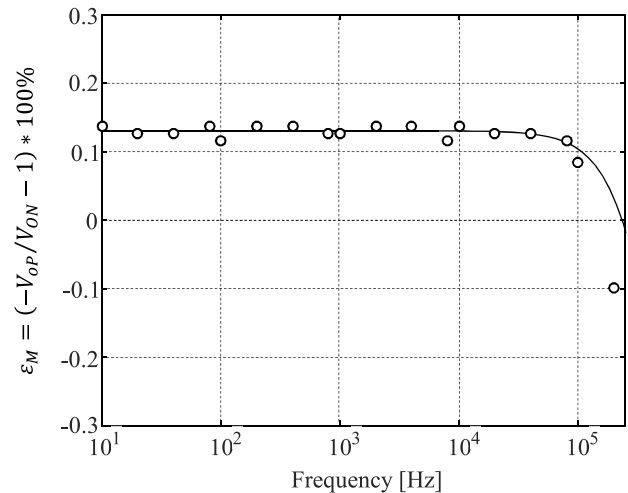


Fig. 10. Amplitude error  $\varepsilon_M$  between  $V_{oP}$  and  $V_{oN}$  as a function of the frequency. Experimental data in circles and, in solid line, the  $\varepsilon_M$  predicted by (21) for  $R_{AP}$ ,  $R_{AN}$  prototype resistors values,  $\text{GBP}_1 = 80$  MHz and  $\text{GBP}_3 = 0.6$  MHz.

resulting  $R_{AP} = 22.092 \text{ k}\Omega$ ,  $R_{AN} = 22.062 \text{ k}\Omega$  and an estimated amplitude error  $\varepsilon_M$  given by (17) of 0.13%. Sinusoidal signals  $V_i$  were applied for frequencies from 10 to 300 kHz and the rms value of the output voltages  $v_{oP}$ ,  $v_{oN}$  measured by the same multimeter. The experimentally obtained magnitude error  $\varepsilon_M$ , shown in Fig. 10 with circles, presents a very good agreement with the theoretical error (solid line) predicted by (21) for the  $R_{AP}$ ,  $R_{AN}$  circuit values and  $\text{GBP}_1 = 80$  MHz and  $\text{GBP}_3 = 0.6$  MHz.

3) *Phase Error*: The phase angle  $\phi(V_{oP}, V_i)$  between  $V_i$  and  $V_{oP}$  and  $\phi(V_{oN}, V_i)$  between  $V_i$  and  $V_{oN}$  were measured using the digital oscilloscope Agilent MSO-X-2024A. Using this data, the phase error  $\varepsilon_P$  was computed as stated in [3] as  $\varepsilon_P = \phi(V_{oP}, V_i) - \phi(V_{oN}, V_i)$ . The results, shown in Fig. 11, show a phase error below  $\pm 1^\circ$  for frequencies up to 200 kHz, increasing to  $5^\circ$  at 1 MHz and  $15^\circ$  for 4 MHz. Taking into

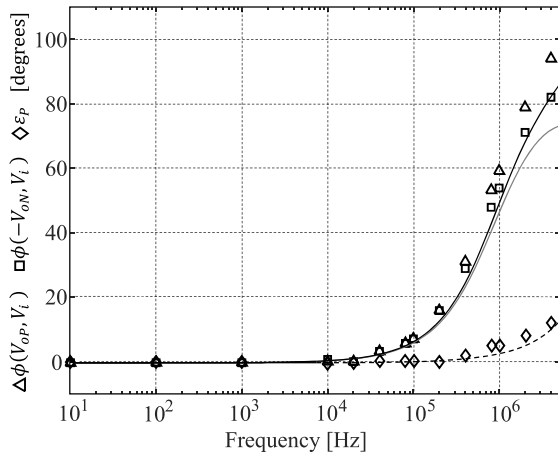


Fig. 11. Experimental phase angles:  $\phi(V_{oP}, V_i)$  in triangles and  $\phi(-V_{oN}, V_i)$  in squares. The continuous lines indicated the same phase angles as predicted by theoretical equations (18) in black and (19) in gray. The phase error  $\varepsilon_P$ , defined as the difference between these measured angles, is indicated in diamonds, and in dashed line its predicted value according to (22).

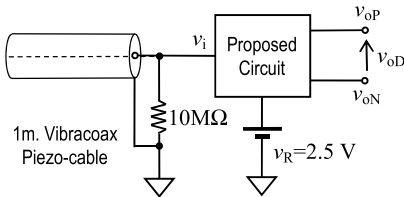


Fig. 12. Experimental setup used to test the proposed circuit working as front-end for a piezoelectric cable sensor.

account that the circuit is intended to work as instrumentation front-end for low frequencies, this phase error does not impose a serious limitation. The experimental data present a good agreement with the theoretical curves given by (18) and (19) depicted by continuous lines in Fig. 11.

### B. Low Input Bias Current Amplifier

As another example of the proposed circuit, a low input bias current amplifier was built to work as front-end for a coaxial piezoelectric Vibromax sensor. In this case, the OA TLC2202 that presents an input bias current of 1 pA and a  $GBP_1 = 2$  MHz was selected for OA<sub>1</sub> and OA<sub>2</sub>. To ensure stability, a ratio  $R_2/R_1 = 1$  was set and the OA LM308, with a compensation capacitance of  $C_F = 1$  nF ( $GBP_3 = 100$  kHz), was used for OA<sub>3</sub>. The resistor  $R_3$  was set to 41  $\Omega$  to achieve a gain of 40 dB. The component selection for the circuit of Fig. 3(b) results

OA<sub>1,2</sub> : TLC2202( $GBP_1 = 2$  MHz); OA<sub>3</sub> : LM308,

$C_F = 1$  nF( $GBP_3 \approx 100$  kHz)

$R_1 = 2.1$  k $\Omega$ ,  $R_2 = 2.1$  k $\Omega$ ,  $R_3 = 41\Omega$ ,  $R_A = 22$  k $\Omega$ . (24)

Fig. 12 shows the experimental setup and Fig. 13 shows the output voltages  $v_{oP}$ ,  $v_{oN}$  when soft taps were applied on the sensor. Note that the balanced output and the common-mode output voltages are  $v_{oC} = v_R = 2.5$  V.

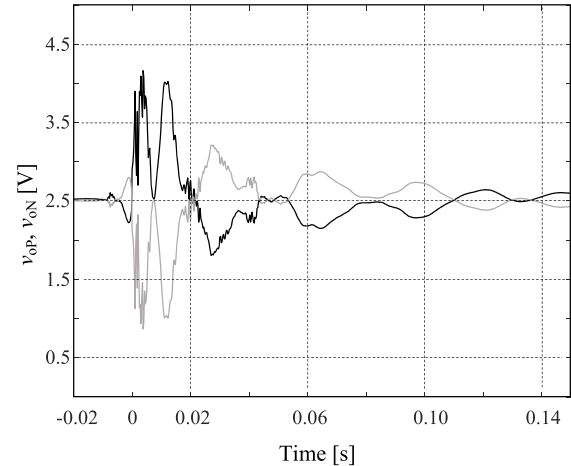


Fig. 13. Differential output voltage produced by a coaxial Vibromax piezocable.

## IV. CONCLUSION

A circuit for a single-ended input to the differential-output amplifier was proposed. It allows setting the differential gain  $G$  and the common-mode output voltage  $v_{oC}$  independently. The circuit, shown in Fig. 3(b), presents a high input impedance as the previous circuits of Fig. 2(b) and (c), but its differential output is centered with respect to the desired common-mode output, thus exploiting the complete voltage range of the circuit. It also implies an improvement over the circuit of Fig. 3(a), which provides a balanced output but not gain. Furthermore, if the gain of the proposed amplifier is high enough its input-referred noise corresponds to that of OA<sub>1</sub> and OA<sub>2</sub>, whereas for the circuit of Fig. 3(a) this noise is amplified by the attenuation ratio  $1 + R_1/R_2$ .

The proposed scheme allows obtaining an output voltage with a very good balance that only depends on the ratio of the two resistances that estimate  $v_{oC}$  from the circuit output. This feature is achieved, thanks to the closed-loop control performed over the common-mode voltage which also introduces a limitation: the circuit works properly as long as its open-loop gain is high enough, this means for frequencies below the OAs gain-bandwidth products.

The proposed circuit, intended to work as front-end in board-level designs, can be implemented using standard OAs. This allows tailoring circuit features to particular requirements as low-noise or low bias current applications. The presented design equations were experimentally validated on an ultra-low noise single-ended input to differential-output amplifier and were also applied to the design of a front-end for a coaxial piezoelectric sensor.

## APPENDIX

### V. DIFFERENTIAL AND COMMON-MODE HALF CIRCUITS

The proposed topology is comprised of an FD circuit excited by a single-ended source as shown in Fig. 14. One of its inputs is  $v_{iP} = v_i$ , whereas the other is  $v_{iN} = 0$ . Assuming a perfectly symmetric circuit, CM input voltages

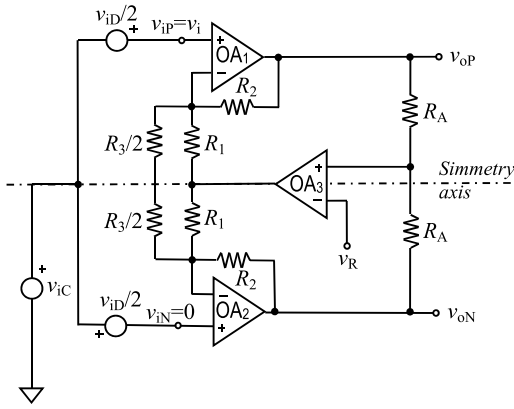


Fig. 14. Proposed circuit with its symmetry axis indicated in “dashed point” line.

only produce CM voltages, while DM input voltages just produce DM voltages. In this condition, the effects of CM and DM signals can be analyzed separately by using CM and DM half-circuits [11], [12].

1) *Differential Mode Half Circuit*: The proposed circuit has a symmetry axis, indicated in the dashed dotted line in Fig. 14 that splits it into two identical semicircuits. Note that the resistor  $R_3$  was split to achieve symmetry while preserving circuit behavior. Each node in the upper side has its homologue in the lower side. When a pure DM input voltage is applied, potentials of the upper semicircuit nodes vary opposite to those from their lower semicircuit counterparts. Then, the potential on the symmetry axis remains unaltered: it can be considered an isopotential line for DM signals. Their effects can thus be analyzed using the DM half circuit which is obtained grounding all the nodes of the semicircuit on the symmetry axis. This circuit can be used to compute the DM output voltage  $v_{oD}$  that a DM input voltage  $v_{iD}$  produces.

The DM half circuit is shown in Fig. 4(a). Solving this circuit, the transfer function  $G_{DD}(s)$  between the Laplace transforms of DM output voltages  $V_{oD}$  and DM input voltages  $V_{iD}$  results

$$G_{DD}(s) = \frac{V_{oD}}{V_{iD}} = \frac{A_1(s)}{1 + \frac{A_1(s)}{1+R_2/R_1}} = \frac{A_1(s)}{1 + \frac{A_1(s)}{G}} \quad (25)$$

where  $A_1$  denotes the open-loop gain of OA<sub>1</sub>. Assuming that an internally compensated OA with a gain-bandwidth product  $GBP_1$  is used, and a significant nominal gain  $G = (1+R_2/R_1) \gg 1$  is adopted,  $G_{DD}(s)$  can be approximated by

$$G_{DD}(s) \approx \frac{G}{1 + s\tau_1}; \tau_1 = \frac{G}{2\pi GBP_1}. \quad (26)$$

2) *Common-Mode Half Circuit*: If a pure CM voltage  $v_{iC}$  is applied to a symmetrical circuit, the potentials of the upper semicircuit nodes show the same variation as those of their lower semicircuit counterparts. Then, no current flows through any impedances connecting the semicircuits and these elements do not have any effect for CM voltages, as occurs with  $R_3$  in the circuit of Fig. 3(b). The CM half circuit, which allows analyzing the CM output voltage  $v_{oC}$  that a CM input voltage  $v_{iC}$  produces, is obtained omitting these

impedances. Special care must be taken when bisecting the circuit of Fig. 14, because the key of the proposed scheme is the feedback provided by OA<sub>3</sub> that only works for CM voltages. In this case, the middle point of the averaging network  $R_A - R_A$  adopts a potential equal to the CM output voltage  $v_{oC}$  and can be replaced by a short circuit for the CM half circuit. The sensed CM voltage  $v_{oC}$  is compared against  $v_R$ , amplified by OA<sub>3</sub>, and fed back to the middle point of the  $R_1 - R_1$  network. Hence, the output of OA<sub>3</sub> affects both outputs  $v_{oP}$  and  $v_{oN}$  equally, thus producing CM voltages. Finally, taking into account these conditions, the CM half circuit of Fig. 4(b) results. It allows obtaining the CM output voltage  $V_{oC}$  that the inputs  $V_{iC}$  and  $V_R$  produce

$$V_{oC} = \frac{1 + R_2/R_1}{1 + \frac{1+R_2/R_1}{A_1(s)} + A_3(s)R_2/R_1} V_{iC} + \frac{A_3(s)R_2/R_1}{1 + \frac{1+R_2/R_1}{A_1(s)} + A_3(s)R_2/R_1} V_R \quad (27)$$

where  $A_3$  denotes the open-loop gain of OA<sub>3</sub>. This expression states two transfer functions:  $G_{CC}(s) = V_{oC}/V_{iC}$  and  $G_{RC}(s) = V_{oC}/V_R$ . In the conditions stated for circuit stability ( $GBP_1 \gg GBP_3$  and  $R_2/R_1 = 1$ ), they can be approximated by

$$G_{CC}(s) \approx \frac{2}{1 + A_3(s)} \quad \text{and} \quad G_{RC}(s) \approx \frac{A_3(s)}{1 + A_3(s)}. \quad (28)$$

If both open-loop gains  $A_1$  and  $A_3$ , are high enough:  $G_{CC}(s) \approx 0$ ,  $G_{RC}(s) \approx 1$  and the CM output voltage  $v_{oC}$  exclusively depends on  $v_R$ . The gain  $G_{CC}$  is very small for low frequencies but increases as  $A_3$  decreases, tending to a maximum value of 2. Since OA<sub>3</sub> is working with unity feedback, the  $G_{CC}$  frequency response corresponds to that of OA<sub>3</sub> working as a unity-gain buffer. Finally, considering that the input voltages  $V_{iC}$ ,  $V_{iD}$  are related to the input voltage  $V_i$  of the proposed amplifier by

$$V_{iC} = V_i/2; V_{iD} = V_i. \quad (29)$$

Their CM and DM outputs are

$$V_{oD} = G_{DD}(s)V_i \quad (30)$$

$$V_{oC} = 0.5G_{CC}(s)V_i + G_{RC}(s)V_R \quad (31)$$

where  $G_{DD}$ ,  $G_{CC}$ , and  $G_{RC}$  are the transfer functions given by (26) and (28).

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