



**ISO100** 

# **Miniature** Low Drift - Wide Bandwidth **ISOLATION AMPLIFIER**

### **FEATURES**

- EASY TO USE, SIMILAR TO AN OP AMP  $V_{\text{OUT}}/I_{\text{IN}}=R_{\text{F}}$ , Current Input VOUT/VIN = Re/RIN. Voltage Input
- 100% TESTED FOR BREAKDOWN 750V Continuous Isolation Voltage
- ULTRA-LOW LEAKAGE, 0.3µA, max, at 240V/60Hz
- WIDE BANDWIDTH, 60kHz
- LOW COST
- 18-PIN DIP PACKAGE

## DESCRIPTION

The ISO100 is a miniature low cost optically-coupled isolation amplifier. High accuracy, linearity, and time-temperature stability are achieved by coupling light from an LED back to the input (negative feedback) as well as forward to the output. Optical components are carefully matched and the amplifier is actively laser-trimmed to assure excellent tracking and low offset errors.

The circuit acts as a current-to-voltage converter with a minimum of 750V (2500V test) between input and output terminals. It also effectively breaks the galvanic connection between input and output commons as indicated by the ultra-low 60Hz leakage current of 0.3 µA at 250 V. Voltage input operation is easily achieved by using one external resistor.

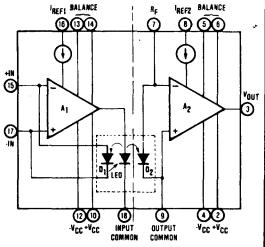
Versatility along with outstanding DC and AC performance provide excellent solutions to a variety of challenging isolation problems. For example, the ISO100 is capable of operating in many modes, including: noninverting (unipolar and bipolar) and inverting (unipolar and bipolar) configurations. Two precision current sources are provided to accomplish bipolar operation. Since these are not required for unipolar operation, they are available for external

### **APPLICATIONS**

- INDUSTRIAL PROCESS CONTROL Transducer sensing (thermocouple, RTD, pressure bridges) 4mA to 20mA loops **Motor and SCR control Ground loop elimination**
- BIOMEDICAL MEASUREMENTS
- TEST EQUIPMENT
- DATA ACQUISITION

use (see Applications section).

Designs using the ISO100 are easily accomplished with relatively few external components. Since Voul of the ISO100 is simply IINROUT, gains can be changed by altering one resistor value. In addition, the ISO100 has sufficient bandwidth (DC to 60kHz) to amplify most industrial and test equipment signals.



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PDS-456E

At TA = +250

PARAMET ISOLATIO

Voltage, Rated Ci Test Bre Rejection

Leakage C

OFFSET V

Input Stag Initial O

vs Te vs Inc Output Sta

Initial O vs Ou

vs Tu

REFEREN

Magnitude vs Po Matching

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Small Sign Full Powe Slew Rate Settling Ti

TEMPERA Specificat

Operating Storage

GENERAL Input Curi Linear C Without Input Imp Output Vo Output Im

GAIN Initial Erro vs Tem

Nonlinea CURREN 0.01Hz to 10H2 100Hz 1kHz

INPLIT OF Initial Off vs Pow

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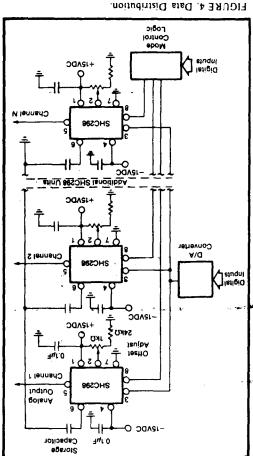
# HIGH SPEED DATA ACQUISITION

version time as before. sample/hold can be eliminated from the channel contime of the multiplexer, instrumentation amplifier, and be connected to the sample/hold inputs. The settling mentation amplifier and double-ended multiplexer may dressed (see Figure 5) Fow low-level systems, and instrusample/holds reverse roles and another channel is addata by the time the conversion is complete. Then, the channel. The second sample/hold will have acquired this ADC, the multiplexer may be addressed to the next While the first channel is in hold and switched on to the sition time of the sample/hold can be virtually eliminated. holds are used with a high-speed multiplexer, the acquiof the analog-to-digital converter. If two or more sample/ sition time of the sample/hold plus the conversion time acquisition system is usually considered to be the acqui-The minimum sample time for one channel in a data

Mode Control NYO (0) (0) CPS Analog-to-Bigital Digital TuqtuO retrer Output **2HCS88** 

FIGURE 5. "Ping-Pong" Sample Holds.

Capacitor 4710 (see Figure 4). to-analog converter whose digital inputs are multiplexed The SHC298 may be used to hold the output of a digital-NOITUBIRTZIO ATAO



### TEST SYSTEMS

digital voltmeters, etc. for other parts of the test system such as comparators, acquire and hold data transients for human operators or The SHC298 is also well suited for use in test systems to

with less than 1% error. capacitor, the output may be held more than 15 minutes , 10 seconds with less than 0.1% error. With a luF storage With a 0.1 µF storage capacitor, the output may be held

## CAPACITIVE LOADING

spould be used. and may oscillate. When driving long lines, a buffer SHC298 is sensitive to capacitive loading on the output

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### **ELECTRICAL (CONT)**

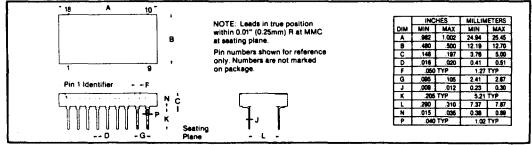
PARAMETER	CONDITIONS	ISO100AP			18O100BP			ISO100CP			J
		MIN	TYP	MAX	MIN	TYP	MAX	MIN	TYP	MAX	UNITS
POWER SUPPLIES		1	<del>                                     </del>								
nput Stage		1	l								1
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Voltage derated performance		±7		±18	•			٠.			v
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	IIN = -204A	ĺ	+8, -1.1	+13, -2	'			<b>i</b> 1	.		mA
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Voltage derated performance	i	±7		±18	•	1	•			١ ٠	l v
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	BIPO	LAR OPE	RATION			<u> </u>		L		L	<u> </u>
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Without Damage		-1	1	+1			•		1	•	mA.
Input Impedance	<u>}</u>	1	0.1				l .		) · ]	l	Ω
Output Voltage Swing	$R_L = 2k\Omega$ , $R_F = 1M\Omega$	-10		+10	•	i i	•	•		•	l v
Output Impedance		1	1200			•			•		Ω
GAIN	Vo = RF IIN	1	<u> </u>								
Initial Error Adjustable To Zero	1		2	5	1	1	2		1 1	2	% 011
vs Temperature	l .		0.03	0.07	1	0.01	0.05	1	0.005	0.03	%00
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Nonlinearity (3)			0.1	04		0.03	0.1	i I	0.02	0.07	<b>*</b>
CURRENT NOISE	ItN = 0.2µA	1						<b></b>			<del>                                     </del>
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vs Temperature	1	1		3			2			1	nA/º
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Supply Current	Im = +104A		+2, -1,1				٠.			•	mA
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# Same as ISO100AP. NOTES

1. See Typical Performance Curves for temperature effects.
2. See Theory of Operation section for definitions. For dB see Ex. 2, CM and HV errors.
3. Nonlinearity is the peak deviation from a "best fit" straight line expressed as a percent of full scale output.

4. Bipolar offset current includes effects of reference current mismatch and unipolar offset current.

### **MECHANICAL**

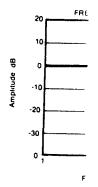


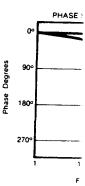
# ABSOLUTE N

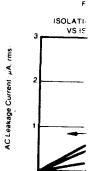
Supply Voltages Isolation Voltage Input Current Storage Temperatus Output Short-cire

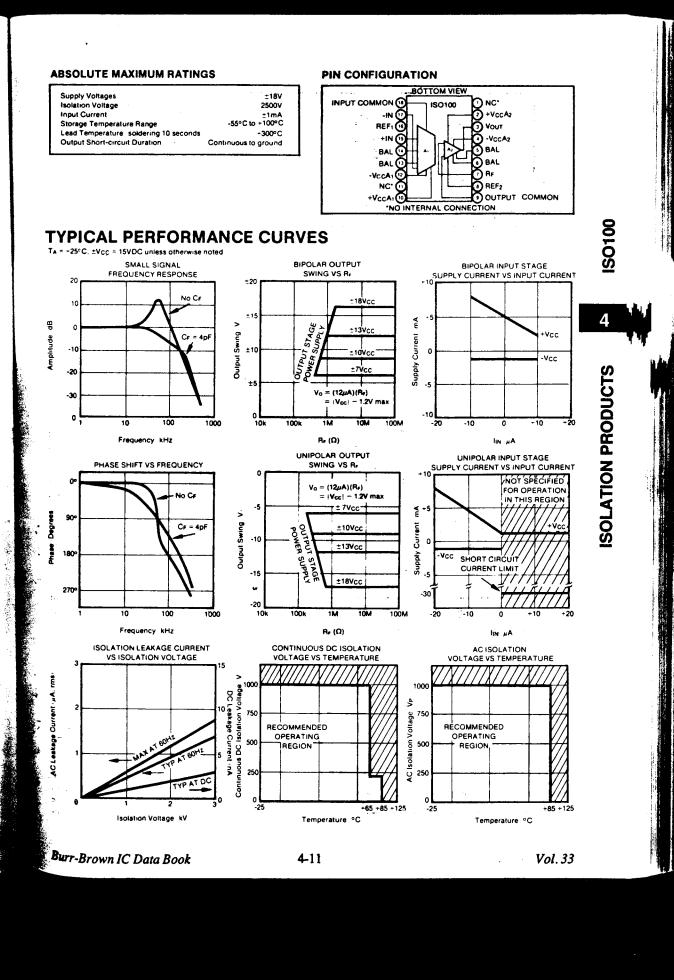
## **TYPICAL**

TA = -25°C. ±VCC









nA nA

'nΑ

mA

 $\Omega$ 

Ω

o! FS ₩°C

⊌/kHr

\*

V√Hz V√Hz

nA/°C

nAN

oA/kHr

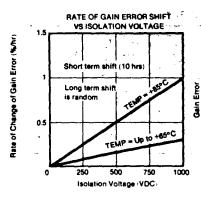
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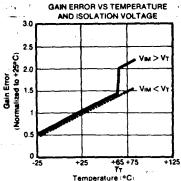
mA

mΑ

ERS 4AX 5.45 2.70 5.00 0.51 P 2.67 0.30

7.87 0.89





### NOTES:

Vr and Tr approximate the threshold for the indicated gain shift. This is caused by the properties of the optical cavity.

Tt ~ +65°C, Vt ~ 200VDC. Shift does not occur for AC voltages.

V<sub>IM</sub> = Isolation-mode Voltage

V<sub>T</sub> = Threshold Voltage

Tr = Threshold Temperature

### THEORY OF OPERATION

The ISO100 is fundamentally a unity gain current amplifier intended to transfer small signals between electrical circuits separated by high voltages or different references. In most applications an output voltage is obtained by passing the output current through the feedback resistor  $(R_F)$ .

The ISO100 uses a single light emitting diode (LED) and a pair of photodiode detectors, coupled together, to isolate the output signal from the input.

Figure 1 shows a simplified diagram of the amplifier. IREFI and IREFI are required only for bipolar operation, to generate a midscale reference. The LED and photodiodes (DI and D2) are arranged such that the same amount of light falls on each photodiode. Thus, the currents generated by the diodes match very closely. As a result, the transfer function depends upon optical match, rather than absolute performance. Laser-trimming of the components improves matching and enhances accuracy, while negative feedback improves linearity. Negative feedback around A1 occurs through the optical path formed by the LED and D1. The signal is transferred across the isolation barrier by the matched light path to D2.

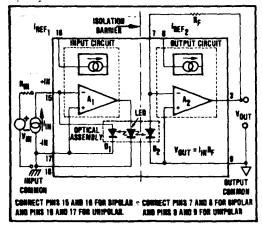


FIGURE 1. Simplified Block Diagram of the ISO100.

The overall ISO amplifier is noninverting (a positive going input produces a positive going output).

# INSTALLATION AND OPERATING INSTRUCTIONS

### UNIPOLAR OPERATION

In Figure 1, assume a current,  $l_{\rm IN}$ , flows out of the ISO100 ( $l_{\rm IN}$  must be negative in unipolar operation). This causes the voltage at pin 15 to decrease. Because the amplifier is inverting, the output of A1 increases, driving current through the LED. As the LED light output increases, D1 responds by generating an increasing current. The current increases until the sum of the currents in and out of the input node (-Input to  $A_1$ ) is zero. At that point the negative feedback through D1 has stabilized the loop, and the current  $l_{\rm D1}$  equals the input current plus the bias current. As a result no bias current flows in the source. Since D1 and D2 are matched ( $l_{\rm D1} = l_{\rm D2}$ ),  $l_{\rm IN}$  is replicated at the output via D2. Thus, A1 functions as a unity-gain current amplifier, and A2 is a current-to-voltage converter, as described below.

Current produced by D2 must either flow into A2 or  $R_F$ . Since A2 is designed for low bias current ( $\approx$ 10nA) almost all of the current flows through  $R_F$  to the output. The output voltage then becomes;

 $V_O = (I_{D2}) R_F = (I_{D1} \pm I_{ON}) R_F \approx (-I_{IN}) R_F = I_{IN} R_F$ , (1) where,  $I_{OS}$  is the difference between A1 and A2 bias currents. For input voltage operation  $I_{IN}$  can be replaced by a voltage source  $(V_{IN})$  and series resistor  $(R_{IN})$  since the summing node of the op amp is essentially at ground. Thus,  $I_{IN} = V_{IN}/R_{IN}$ .

Unipolar operation does have some constraints, however. In this mode the input current must be negative so as to produce a positive output voltage from A1 to turn the LED on. A current more negative than 20nA is necessary to keep the LED turned on and the loop stabilized. When this condition is not met the output may be indeterminant. Many sensors generate unidirectional signals, e.g., photoconductive and photodiode devices, as well as some applications of thermocouples. However, other applications do require bipolar operation of the ISO100.

### **BIPOLAR OPERAT**

To activate the bip shown in Figure 1, ar op amps. The input unipolar operation. has to supply all symmetry, I<sub>D1</sub> = I<sub>1</sub> matched, the curren This results in no c voltage will be zero. current from the inp satisfy  $l_{DI} = l_{IN} + l_{RL}$ equals ID2, a curren output voltage is the In is limited. Positiv min). At this point, opens. Negative IIN DI with maximum max).

### DC ERRORS

Errors in the ISO10 voltages plus their shown in Figure 2.

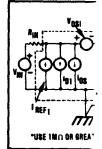


FIGURE 2. Circuit

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th oi th m l<sub>REF1</sub> and l<sub>REF2</sub>: at co

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BIPOLAR OPERATION

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aints, however. gative so as to Al to turn the nA is necessary abilized. When indeterminant. l signals, e.g., , as well as some r, other applihe ISO100.

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To activate the bipolar mode, reference currents as shown in Figure 1, are attached to the input nodes of the op amps. The input stage stabilizes just as it did in unipolar operation. Assuming  $I_{1N} = 0$ , the photodiode has to supply all the IREFI current. Again, due to symmetry,  $I_{D1} = I_{D2}$ . Since the two references are matched, the current generated by D2 will equal IREF2. This results in no current flow in R<sub>F</sub>, and the output voltage will be zero. When Its either adds or substracts current from the input node, the current D1 will adjust to

satisfy  $I_{DI} = I_{IN} + I_{REFI}$ . Because  $I_{REFI}$  equals  $I_{REF2}$  and  $I_{DI}$ equals ID2, a current equal to IIN will flow in RF. The output voltage is then  $V_0 = I_{1N}R_F$ . The range of allowable  $l_{IN}$  is limited. Positive  $l_{IN}$  can be as large as  $l_{REFI}$  (10.5 $\mu$ A, min). At this point, D1 supplies no current and the loop opens. Negative I<sub>IN</sub> can be as large as that generated by D1 with maximum LED output (recommended 10 µA,

### **DC ERRORS**

Errors in the ISO 100 take the form of offset currents and voltages plus their drifts with temperature. These are shown in Figure 2.

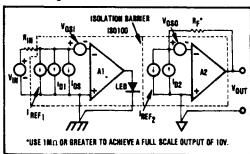


FIGURE 2. Circuit Model for DC Errors in the ISO100.

At and A2:

are assumed to be ideal amplifiers. Voso and Vosi: are the input offset voltages of the output and input stage, respectively. Voso appears directly at the output, but, Vosi appears at the output as

$$V_{OSI} \frac{R_F}{R_{IN}}$$

los:

see equation (2).

is the offset current. This is the current at the input necessary to make the output zero. It is equal to the combined effect of the difference between the bias currents of Al and A2 and the matching errors in the optical components, in the unipolar

mode.

IREFI and IREF2: are the reference currents that, when connected to the inputs, enable bipolar operation. The two currents are trimmed, in the bipolar mode, to minimize the Ios bipolar error.

loi and loz:

are the currents generated by each photodiode in response to the light from the LED.

A<sub>e</sub>:

is the gain error.

A<sub>c</sub> = | Ideal gain / Actual gain | -1

The output then becomes:

$$V_{OUT} = R_F \left[ \left( \frac{V_{IN} \pm V_{OSI}}{R_{IN}} - I_{REF1} \pm I_{OS} \right) (1 + A_e) + I_{REF2} \right] \pm V_{OSO}$$
(2)

The total input referred offset voltage of the ISO100 can be simplified in the unipolar case by assuming that A. = 0 and  $V_{1N} = 0$ :

$$V_{OUT} \approx R_F \left[ \frac{\pm V_{OSI}}{R_{IN}} \pm I_{OS unipolar} \right] \pm V_{OSO}$$
 (3)

This voltage is then referred back to the input by dividing by Re/Rin.

$$V_{OS_{(RTI)}} = (\pm V_{OSI}) \pm R_{IN} (I_{OS_{unipolar}}) + V_{OSO}/(R_F/R_{IN})$$
(4)

Example 1: (Refer to Figure 2 and Electrical Specifications Table)

Given:

$$\begin{array}{l} l_{OS~bipolar} = +35 nA \\ R_{1N} = 100 k\Omega \\ R_{F} = 1 M\Omega ~(gain = 10) \\ V_{OSI} = +200 \mu V \\ V_{OSO} = +200 \mu V \end{array}$$

Find: The total offset voltage error referred to the input and output when  $V_{\rm IN}=0V$ .

Vos total RTI

$$= \{ [\pm V_{OSI} \pm R_{IN} (l_{OS \ bipolar}) - R_{IN} (l_{REF \ 1}) ]$$

$$= \{ [+A_c] + R_{IN} l_{REF \ 2} \} \pm V_{OSO} / (R_F / R_{IN})$$

$$= \{ [+200\mu V + 100k\Omega (35nA) - 100k\Omega (12.5\mu A) ]$$

$$= \{ [1.02] + 100k\Omega (12.5\mu A) \} +$$

$$= 200\mu V / (1M\Omega / 100k\Omega)$$

$$= \{ [0.2mV + 3.5mV - 1.25V]$$

$$= \{ [1.02] + 1.25V \} + 0.02mV$$

= -21.2 mVVos total RTO

- =  $V_{OS}$  total RTI  $\times$   $R_F/R_{IN}$
- = -21.2mV $\times 10$
- = -212 mV

Note: This error is dominated by Ios bipolar and the reference current times the gain error (which appears as an offset). The error for unipolar operation is much lower. The error due to offset current can be zeroed using circuits shown in Figures 6 and 7. The gain error is adjusted by trimming either R<sub>F</sub> or R<sub>IN</sub>.

### **COMMON-MODE AND HIGH VOLTAGE ERRORS**

Figure 3 shows a model of the ISO100 that can be used to analyze common-mode and high voltage behavior.

### Definitions of CMR and IMR

los is defined as the input current required to make the ISO100's output zero. CMRR and IMRR in the ISO100 are expressed as conductances. CMRR defines the relationship between a change in the applied commonmode voltage (V<sub>CM</sub>) and the change in I<sub>os</sub> required to maintain the amplifier's output at zero:

SOLATION PRODUCTS

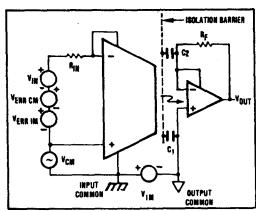


FIGURE 3. High Voltage Error Model.

CMRR (1-mode) = 
$$\Delta I_{OS}/\Delta V_{CM}$$
 in nA/V (5)

CMRR (V-mode) = 
$$\left[\frac{\Delta I_{OS}}{\Delta V_{CM}}\right] R_{IN} = \frac{\Delta V_{ERR\ CM}}{\Delta V_{CM}} \text{ in V/V (6)}$$

IMRR defines the relationship between a change in the applied isolation mode voltage (VIM) and the change in los required to maintain the amplifier's output at zero:

$$1MRR (1-mode) = \frac{\Delta los}{\Delta V_{tot}} \text{ in pA/V}$$
 (7)

IMRR (I-mode) = 
$$\frac{\Delta los}{\Delta V_{IM}}$$
 in pA/V (7)

IMRR (V-mode) =  $\left[\frac{\Delta los}{\Delta V_{IM}}\right]$  Rts =  $\frac{\Delta V_{ERR/IM}}{\Delta V_{IM}}$  in V/V

CMRR 4 IMRR (V-mode) =  $\left[\frac{\Delta los}{\Delta V_{IM}}\right]$  Rts =  $\frac{\Delta V_{ERR/IM}}{\Delta V_{IM}}$  in V/V

CMRR & IMRR in V/V are a function of  $R_{\rm IN}$ .

VIM is the voltage between input common and output common.

VCM is the common-mode voltage (noise that is present on both input lines, typically 60Hz).

VERR is the equivalent error signal, applied in series with the input voltage, which produces an output error identical to that produced by application of  $V_{\text{CM}}$ and VIM.

CMRR and IMRR are the common-mode and isolationmode rejection ratios, respectively.

TOTAL CAPACITANCE (C1 and C2) is distributed along the isolation barrier. Most of the capacitance is coupled to low impedance or noncritical nodes and affects only the leakage current. Only a small capacitance (C2) couples to the input of the second stage, and contributes to IMRR.

Example 2: Refer to Figure 3 and Electrical Specification Table)

Given: 
$$V_{CM} = 1VAC$$
 peak at 60Hz,  $V_{IM} = 200VDC$ ,

$$CMRR = 3nA/V, IMRR = 5pA/V,$$

$$R_{IN} = 100k\Omega$$
,  $R_F = 1M\Omega$ 

(Gain = 10)

Find:

The error voltage referred to the input and

output when  $V_{IN} = 0V$ 

 $V_{ERR\ RTI} = (V_{CM})(CMRR)(R_{IN}) + (V_{IM})$ 

 $(IMRR)(R_{IN})$ 

 $=1 \text{ V} (3 \text{ nA}/\text{ V}) (100 \text{ k}\Omega) + 200 \text{ V}$ 

(5pA/V)(100kΩ)

= 0.3 mV + 0.1 mV

= 0.4 mV

 $V_{ERR\ RTO} = V_{ERR\ RTI} (R_F/R_{IN})$ = 0.4 mV (10)= 4mV(with DC IMRR)

(Note: This error is dominated by the CMRR term)

For purposes of comparing CMRR and IMRR directly with dB specifications, the following calculations can be performed:

CMRR in 
$$V/V = CMRR$$
 (1-mode)( $R_{IN}$ )  
=  $3nA/V$  (100k) =  $0.3mV/V$ 

CMR = 20 LOG 
$$(0.3 \text{mV/V})$$
 = -70dB at 60Hz

IMRR in 
$$V/V = IMRR (I-mode)(R_{IN}) = 5pA/V(100k\Omega) = 0.5\mu V/V$$

$$IMR = 20 LOG (0.5 \times 10^{-6} V/V) = -126 dB at DC$$

### Example 3:

In Example 2, VIM is an AC signal at 60Hz and

$$1MRR = \frac{400pA}{V}$$

 $V_{ERR} RTI = V_{ERR} CM + V_{ERR} IM$ 

 $= 0.3 \text{mV} + 200 \text{V} (400 \text{pA/V})(100 \text{k}\Omega)$ 

= 8.3 mV

 $V_{ERR}$  RTO = 83mV (with AC 1MRR)

### Example 4:

Given: Total error RTO from Examples 1 and 3 as

378mV worst case

Percent error of +10V full scale output Find:

% Error = 
$$\frac{V_{ERR} \text{ total}}{V_{FS}} \times 100$$
  
=  $\frac{378 \text{mV}}{100} \times 100$ 

### **NOISE ERRORS**

Noise errors in the unipolar mode are due primarily to the optical cavity. When the full 60kHz bandwidth is not needed, the output noise of the ISO100 can be limited by either a capacitor, C<sub>F</sub>, in the feedback loop or by a low-pass filter following the output. This is shown in Figure 4. Noise in the bipolar mode is due primarily to the reference current sources, and can be reduced by the low-pass filters shown in Figure 5.

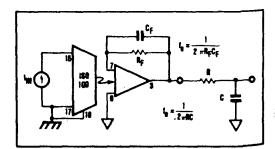


FIGURE 4. Two Circuit Techniques for Reducing Noise in the Unipolar Mode.

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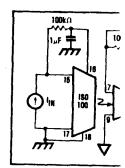


FIGURE 5. Circuit Tech The Current

### **OPTIONAL ADJUSTM**

There are two major sou age and offset current. \ output amplifiers can be external potentiometers. 17. Note that  $V_{0SO}$  (500 $\mu^{\gamma}$ output, but Vosi appears. (R<sub>F</sub>/R<sub>IN</sub>). In general, Vos of los (see Example 1). 1

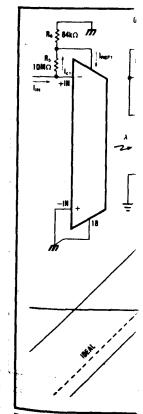


FIGURE 6. Adjusting the U Zero Input.

IMΩ Y<sub>OUT</sub>

FIGURE 5. Circuit Technique for Reducing Noise from The Current Sources in the Bipolar-Mode.

### OPTIONAL ADJUSTMENTS

There are two major sources of offset error: offset voltage and offset current. Vosi and Voso of the input and external potentiometers. An example is shown in Figure output, but Vosi appears at the output multipled by gain (R<sub>F</sub>/R<sub>IN</sub>). In general, V<sub>OS</sub> is small compared to the effect

output amplifiers can be adjusted independently using 17. Note that Voso (500 µV, max) appears directly at the of los (see Example 1). To adjust for los use a circuit

SPTIONAL UNIPOLAR IOS AGJUST 200kΩ P0T BHIFT DUE SMIFT DUE TO A. & R.

FIGURE 6. Adjusting the Unipolar Amplifier Errors at Zero Input.

which intentionally unbalances the offset in one direction and then allows for adjustment back to zero.

Figure 6 shows how to adjust unipolar errors at zero input. The unipolar amplifier can be used down to zero input if it is made to be "slightly bipolar." By sampling the reference current with R5 and R6 the minimum current required to keep the input stage in the linear region of operation can be established. R7 and R8 are adjusted to cancel the offset created in the input stage. This brings the output to zero, when the input is zero. Although the amplifier can now operate down to zero input voltage, it has only a small portion of the current drain and noise that the true bipolar configuration would have.

Adjusting the bipolar errors is illustrated in Figure 7. Each of the errors are adjusted in turn. With  $V_{IN} =$ "open,", los is trimmed by adjusting R10 to make the output zero. R<sub>G</sub> is then adjusted to trim the gain error. The effects of offset voltage are removed by adjusting

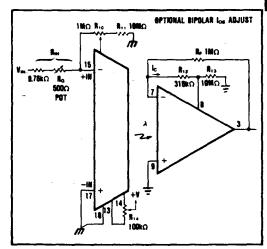


FIGURE 7. Adjusting the Bipolar Errors.

### **BASIC CIRCUIT CONNECTIONS**

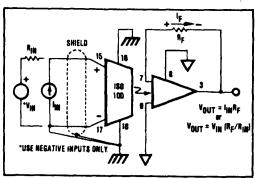


FIGURE 8. Unipolar Noninverting.

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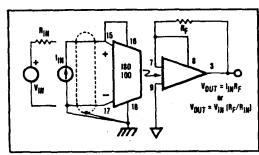


FIGURE 9. Bipolar Noninverting.

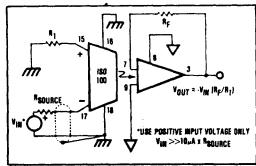


FIGURE 10. Unipolar Inverting.

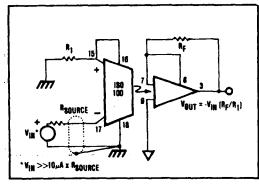


FIGURE II. Bipolar Inverting.

# **APPLICATION INFORMATION**

The small size, low offset and drift, wide bandwidth, ultra-low leakage, and low cost, make the ISO100 ideal for a variety of isolation applications. The basic mode of operation of the ISO100 will be determined by the type of signal and application.

Major points to consider when designing circuits with the 150100

- Input Common (pin 18) and -IN (pin 17) should be grounded through separate lines. The Input Common can carry a large DC current and may cause feedback to the signal input
- 2. Use shielded or twisted pair cable at the input, for long

- 3. Care should be taken to minimize external capacitance across the isolation barrier.
- 4. The distance across the isolation barrier, between external components, and conductor patterns, should be maximized to reduce leakage and arcing.
- Although not an absolute requirement, the use of conformally-coated printed circuit boards is recommended.
- When in the unipolar mode, the reference currents (pins 8 and 16) must be terminated. I<sub>IN</sub> should be greater than 20nA to keep internal LED on.
- The noise contribution of the reference currents will cause the bipolar mode to be noisier than the unipolar mode.
- 8. The maximum output voltage swing is determined by  $I_{\rm IN}$  and  $R_{\rm F}$ .

$$V_{SWING} = I_{IN_{max}} \, x \, |R_F$$

A capacitor (about 3pF) can be connected across R<sub>1</sub> to compensate for peaking in the frequency response.
 The peaking is caused by the pole generated by R<sub>1</sub> and the capacitance at the input of the output amplifier.

Figures 12 through 18 show applications of the ISO100.

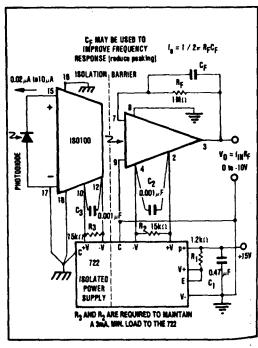


FIGURE 12. Two-Port Isolation Photodiode Amplifier Unipolar.

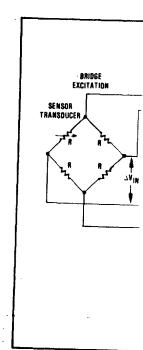


FIGURE 13. Precision Bridg

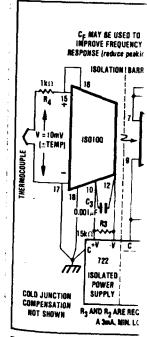


FIGURE 14. Three-Port Isol. Amplifier (Bipo

50kΩ 50k:: BRIDGE EXCITATION IREF, V<sub>REF</sub> = +1V IMI 3500 10 SENSOR TRANSOUCER חלח (3) 100kg INA10) IS0100 x 100 X 10 V<sub>OUT</sub> 17 12 0 וויס זלדת INPUT COMMON QUTPUT TOTAL GAIN = 1000 COMMON +159 (1) -159 (1) FOR ISOLATED SUPPLIES SEE FIGURES 10 AND 11. [2] IN THIS EXAMPLE THE INTERNAL PRECISION CURRENT REFERENCE. REF PROVIDES BRIDGE EXCITATION. (3) PIN 8 OF THE IMA101 MUST BE MORE NEGATIVE THAN  $\cdot 2mv$  for linear operation of the 180100 with  $R_1=100k(t)$ .

FIGURE 13. Precision Bridge Isolation Amplifier (Unipolar).

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Amplifier

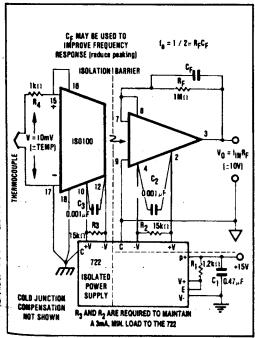


FIGURE 14. Three-Port Isolation Thermocouple
Amplifier (Bipolar).

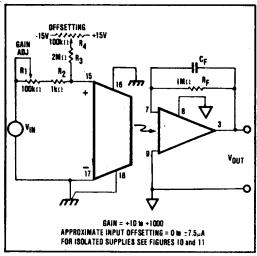


FIGURE 15. Isolated Test Equipment Amplifier (Unipolar with Offsetting).

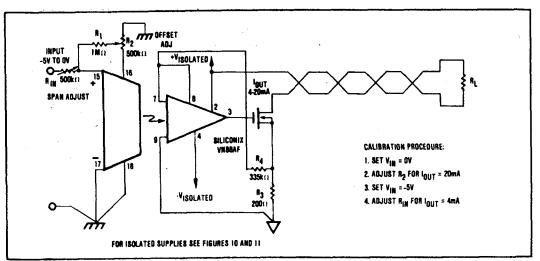


FIGURE 16. Isolated 4mA to 20mA Transmitter (Example of an isolated voltage controlled current source).

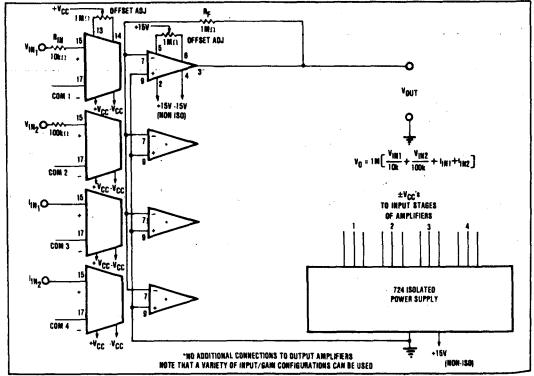


FIGURE 17. Four-Port Isolated Summing Amplifier (Unipolar).

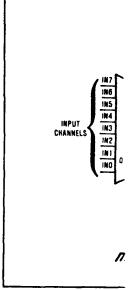


FIGURE 18. Multiple Chai Systems).

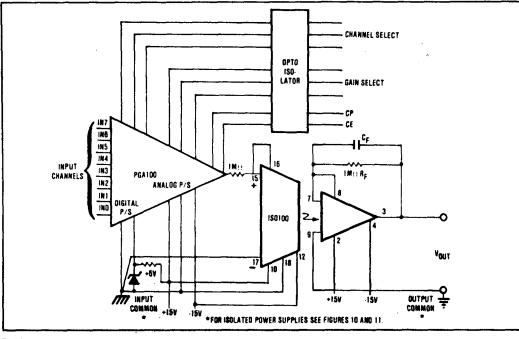


FIGURE 18. Multiple Channel Isolation Amplifier (Bipolar) with programmable Gain (Useful in Data Acquisition Systems).