# Transconductance Amplifier for Optical Metrology Applications of Light-Emitting Diodes

Timo Dönsberg<sup>10</sup>, Tuomas Poikonen, and Erkki Ikonen

Abstract—Light-emitting diodes (LEDs) have many applications in optical metrology. Depending on the measurement scheme, an LED might be driven, for example, using constant current, amplitude or pulsewidth modulated current, or current pulses. We present the design and characterization of a transconductance amplifier (TCA) optimized to drive LEDs in optical metrology applications. The device is capable of delivering peak and root mean square (rms) currents up to 10 and 1 A, respectively, and has a selectable transconductance ranging from 100  $\mu$ S to 10 S. The typical cutoff frequency for the current output is around 10 MHz for various types of LEDs.

*Index Terms*—Light-emitting diode (LED), optical metrology, pulsewidth modulation, transconductance amplifier (TCA).

## I. INTRODUCTION

**L** IGHT-EMITTING diodes (LEDs) are an essential part of optical metrology. First, the optical, electrical, and thermal properties of LEDs are an important part of fundamental and applied research. Second, LEDs are used as light sources in a wide variety of metrological applications. Third, there is a recent interest in replacing incandescent lamp-based calibration sources with LED-based solutions [1]–[4].

Current through an LED varies approximately exponentially with applied voltage, and it is also temperature-dependent. Therefore, LEDs are typically driven with current instead of voltage. While constant current is often used, many measurement techniques require the use of current pulses [5]–[7], pulsewidth modulation (PWM) [7]–[10], amplitude modulation (AM) [11], [12], or more complex modulation schemes [13], [14].

In addition to nonlinear current-to-voltage characteristics, LEDs can also have a large junction capacitance, or the measurement setup may be such that large parasitic capacitances and inductances cannot be avoided. This may become problematic, especially if high-frequency current signals are used. Furthermore, one must take into account in the design

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of the drive electronics that most LEDs can handle only a few volts of reverse voltage.

Arbitrary voltage signals can be easily realized with a modern signal generator. These can be converted to current signals using a transconductance amplifier (TCA). As the name suggests, the output current of the TCA is the input voltage multiplied by some transconductance  $G_m$ . A large number of TCA implementations have been reported [15]–[26], but none provides a direct solution to the requirement of combining wide frequency and current ranges with high accuracy and stability. Yet, such designs are urgently needed for advanced applications of LED metrology.

In this article, we present the design and characterization of a TCA optimized to drive LEDs in optical metrology applications. The TCA provides selectable transconductance from 100  $\mu$ S to 10 S, and peak and root mean square (rms) currents of 10 and 1 A, respectively. The design is done using common components and provides an affordable and robust solution for operating different types of LEDs at frequencies ranging from constant current up to 15 MHz.

A similar device as described in this article has been utilized in the PWM-based technique to obtain the LED spectrum at a known temperature [10], and in LED spectrum measurements at cryogenic temperatures, where the pulsed operation is used to minimize the heating of the LED junction [7].

# II. PRINCIPLE OF OPERATION

The principle of operation of the TCA is illustrated in Fig. 1. Our design utilizes a current-feedback operational amplifier (CFOA) that is buffered with a common drain connected N-channel MOSFET. The noninverting input of the CFOA has high impedance similar to that of a conventional voltage-feedback operational amplifier (VFOA), whereas the inverting input has very low input impedance  $R_i$  (tens of ohms to just a few ohms). The open-loop output voltage of a CFOA is the feedback current  $I_{\rm fb}$  multiplied with the transimpedance  $R_{\rm tr}$ , which is typically in the order of megaohms.

As compared to the conventional operational amplifier, the CFOA has the benefit of having high bandwidth, high slew rate, and low distortion that are fairly independent of the closed-loop gain [27]–[30]. In addition, the low impedance of the inverting input reduces the effects of input capacitance. The CFOA has the drawbacks of having higher offset voltages and lower open-loop gain. The former can be compensated in the design, as discussed in Section III, and the effects of

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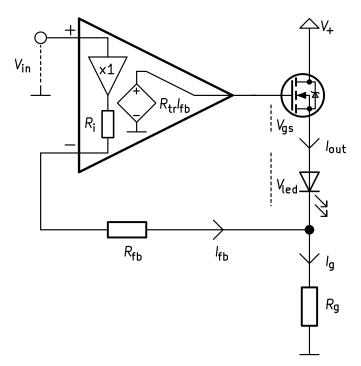


Fig. 1. Basic principle of the TCA.

the latter can be accurately characterized, as demonstrated in Section IV. CFOAs are also optimized for a limited range of feedback resistor values and are sensitive to stray capacitances across the feedback resistor. However, this is not an issue in our design since the feedback circuitry is fixed regardless of the selected transconductance.

As seen in Fig. 1, the output current  $I_{out}$  flows through the LED and the shunt resistor  $R_g$ , whereas  $R_{fb}$  provides the feedback to the inverting input of the CFOA. In an ideal case, the transimpedance  $R_{tr}$  of the CFOA is infinite, and the circuitry balances the output current so that the voltage over the shunt resistor  $R_g$  is equal to the input voltage. For example, the transconductance is solely determined by the value of  $R_g$ and the ideal output current becomes

$$I_{\text{ideal}} = G_m V_{\text{in}} = \frac{V_{\text{in}}}{R_g}.$$
 (1)

In practice, however,  $R_{tr}$  is finite, which causes an error in the output current  $I_{out}$ . The error can be approximated by assuming the voltages  $V_{gs}$  and  $V_{led}$  to be constant. This leads to

$$I_{\text{out}} = \frac{(R_{\text{tr}} - R_g)V_{\text{in}} - (R_i + R_{\text{fb}} + R_g)(V_{\text{led}} + V_{\text{gs}})}{R_g(R_i + R_{\text{fb}} + R_{\text{tr}})}.$$
 (2)

The situation is actually more complex, since both  $V_{gs}$  and  $V_{led}$  are current-dependent. Nonetheless, this simple approach serves as an order of magnitude estimation for the error of the output current. Subtracting (1) from (2) yields

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$$\Delta I_{\text{out}} = I_{\text{out}} - I_{\text{ideal}} = -\frac{(R_i + R_{\text{fb}} + R_g)(V_{\text{in}} + V_{\text{led}} + V_{\text{gs}})}{R_g(R_i + R_{\text{fb}} + R_{\text{tr}})}.$$
 (3)

Since  $R_i \ll R_{\rm fb} \ll R_{\rm tr}$ , this can be approximated as

$$\Delta I_{\text{out}} \approx -\frac{1}{R_{tr}} \left( 1 + \frac{R_{\text{fb}}}{R_g} \right) (V_{\text{in}} + V_{\text{led}} + V_{\text{gs}}). \tag{4}$$

Note that the  $V_{in}$ -dependent term of  $\Delta I_{out}$  can be seen as error in the transconductance value set by  $R_g$ , and the other terms as output load-dependent error current. Clearly, both terms become insignificant if  $R_{tr}$  is sufficiently large and  $R_g$  is not exceedingly small. The effects of limited open-loop gain and other practical limitations are further discussed in Section IV.

# **III. PRACTICAL DESIGN**

Simplified schematic of the TCA is shown in Fig. 2. AD810 [31] is used as the CFOA, as it combines high transimpedance (typical value around 3.5 M $\Omega$ ) with 80 MHz bandwidth and low noise. It also features an offset null option and disable function, both utilized in the design. Although significantly faster CFOAs are available, they tend to have smaller transimpedance. Moreover, as higher bandwidth is not necessary for this application, the excess bandwidth only compromises robustness.

The input of the amplifier is terminated with a 50- $\Omega$  low inductance planar thick film power resistor R1. The resistor R6 in the output is mandatory to provide pull-down, as the MOSFET follower Q2 can only increase the output voltage. The value 1 k $\Omega$  of R6 was found to be sufficiently small for typical output configurations without having a significant load to the CFOA output. If a high capacitance load is unavoidable, an additional pull-down resistor or synchronized active pull-down circuitry may be used [7].

Having a single MOSFET output instead of a push-pull configuration also has the benefit that the maximum negative output current of the TCA is automatically limited to about 15 mA. This enables the use of low capacitance signal diodes in the TCA output as polarity protection. Such protection is needed in case a negative voltage is accidentally applied to the TCA input or transient spikes occur. Having four 1N4148 diodes in series (D2–D5) limits the minimum output voltage to about -3 V and has a capacitance below 1 pF over a wide frequency range [32].

Signal relays are used to select the transconductance of the amplifier, by effectively changing the value of  $R_g$  in 2. For clarity, only one of the six relays and resistors—K1 and R8, respectively—are drawn in Fig. 2. MHP20-series high-frequency and high-power thin-film resistors [33] with resistances ranging from 100 m $\Omega$  to 10 k $\Omega$  were used as gain selection resistors. The relays are controlled with a microcontroller (MC) in such a way, that when the gain is changed, the disable pin of the CFOA is grounded with the Q1 transistor. In addition to the MC-controlled reset, a delayed reset pull-up circuit consisting of D1, C3, and C4 was added. The former is to avoid unstable operation during gain change and the latter during startup.

The offset nulling option of the CFOA is adjusted in such a way that when the input is unconnected, the output current of the TCA is just above zero. This guarantees that the output is prebiased close to the MOSFET threshold voltage,

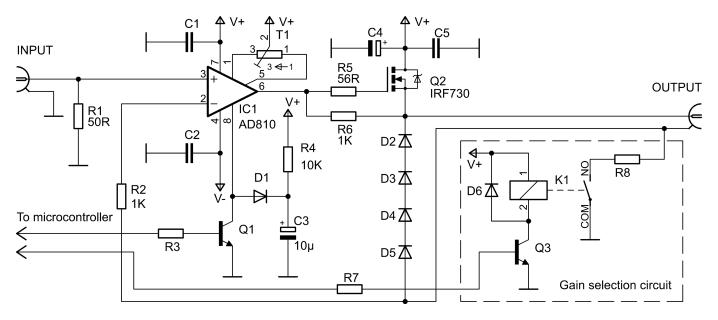


Fig. 2. Simplified schematic of the TCA. Only one gain selection circuit is drawn; the actual device has six similar circuits connected in parallel, out of which one is enabled at a time.

TABLE I Measured Transconductance Values of the TCA. The Uncertainties Are Given at 95% Confidence Level

Nominal	Measured
transconductance	transconductance
$\begin{array}{c} 100 \ \mu \mathrm{S} \\ 1 \ \mathrm{mS} \\ 10 \ \mathrm{mS} \\ 100 \ \mathrm{mS} \\ 1 \ \mathrm{S} \\ 10 \ \mathrm{S} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (99.741 \pm 0.011) \ \mu \mathrm{S} \\ (999.40 \pm 0.03) \ \mu \mathrm{S} \\ (9.9896 \pm 0.0007) \ \mathrm{mS} \\ (99.935 \pm 0.010) \ \mathrm{mS} \\ (975.26 \pm 0.31) \ \mathrm{mS} \\ (8.494 \pm 0.026) \ \mathrm{S} \end{array}$

minimizing the change of  $V_{gs}$  in 3. The CFOA controls the gate of the MOSFET Q2 via resistor R5. This prevents parasitic oscillations and ringing of the MOSFET [34].

## IV. PERFORMANCE

# A. Transconductance and Load-Dependent Error Current

The transconductances of the TCA were calibrated by applying a voltage to the input with a Keithley 263 calibrator and measuring the output current with a Hewlett Packard 3458A multimeter. Since the output resistance of the calibrator affects the voltage seen at the TCA input, the input voltage was also measured with Agilent 34410A multimeter. The calibration results are shown in Table I.

For transconductances of 100 mS and below, most of the deviation from the nominal value is due to the tolerance of gain selection resistors, whereas the uncertainty of the transconductance calibration is dominated by the statistical component of the measurements. For the two highest transconductances, most of the deviation and calibration uncertainty of the transconductance is due to contact resistance of the signal relays. Simple calculation from the deviation of the nominally 10-s transconductance gives an estimation of 18 m $\Omega$  for the contact resistance. Based on the fluctuation of the transconductance observed when switched back and forth 20 times, we estimated the standard deviation of the contact resistance to be around 180  $\mu\Omega$ . A straightforward improvement would be to use a different type of relays for the highest transconductances or to connect multiple relays in parallel.

As seen from (3), the TCA output has a small load and transconductance-dependent error current. In order to quantify this, the transconductances were also calibrated with a resistor connected in the output of the TCA in series with the multimeter. The resistor values were chosen in such a way that the voltage over the resistor is 1 V. This is effectively the same as changing the value of  $V_{\text{led}}$  in 3 by 1 V.

Table II shows the measured effect of output load and values calculated using 3. The measured values are a factor of 2–3 smaller than the calculated ones. This is understandable, as the calculations were meant to serve as the order of magnitude estimations. For example, the  $R_{tr}$  of a CFOA is inversely dependent on output load resistance [31], and the  $R_{tr}$  value specified by the manufacturer assumes the load resistance of the CFOA output to be a factor 2.5 smaller than in our design. Nonetheless, the calculated and measured values are very consistent, and the theoretical model provides a useful tool for understanding the sources of error.

# B. Noise

Fig. 3 shows the output current noise of the TCA at different transconductances, measured when the input is disconnected. The noise currents were measured with Hewlett Packard 3458A multimeter that was connected directly to the TCA output. The multimeter was set to ac current measurement mode at  $100-\mu A$  range, which uses an internal 730- $\Omega$  shunt resistor to determine the current. In order to limit the noise

TABLE II CALCULATED AND MEASURED EFFECT OF OUTPUT LOAD VOLTAGE. THE UNCERTAINTIES ARE GIVEN AT 95% CONFIDENCE LEVEL

Nominal trans-	Calculated effect	Measured effect
conductance	of output load	of output load
$ \begin{array}{c} 100 \ \mu S \\ 1 \ mS \\ 10 \ mS \\ 100 \ mS \\ 1 \ S \\ 10 \ S \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} -315 \text{ nS} \\ -583 \text{ nS} \\ -3.26 \ \mu\text{S} \\ -30.0 \ \mu\text{S} \\ -297 \ \mu\text{S} \\ -2.97 \ \text{mS} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (-167 \pm 10) \text{ nS} \\ (-284 \pm 8) \text{ nS} \\ (-1.8 \pm 0.2) \ \mu\text{S} \\ (-10.6 \pm 1.0) \ \mu\text{S} \\ (-170 \pm 3) \ \mu\text{S} \\ (-1.2 \pm 0.4) \ \text{mS} \end{array}$

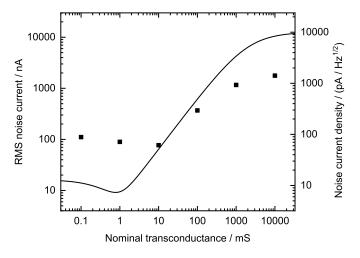


Fig. 3. Measured (squares) and modeled (line) rms noise current of the TCA output. The right axis shows the values converted into noise current density.

signal to a frequency range suitable for the multimeter, a 220-pF capacitor was added to the TCA output. The capacitor—in parallel with the multimeter shunt resistor—acts as a single-pole 1-MHz low-pass filter. The intrinsic noise of the multimeter was quadratically subtracted from the measured values.

The output noise current was also calculated by using a noise model of the measurement scheme. The model takes into account the voltage and current noises of the CFOA and the Johnson–Nyquist noise of the resistors. The measurements indicate a higher noise floor density than the modeled values—an average of around 70 pA/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$  for the three smallest transconductances. At higher transconductances, the output noise is more dependent on  $R_{\text{tr}}$  and the voltage noise of the CFOA. At the highest transconductances, the noise model overestimates the noise level, most likely because the values specified by the manufacturer are given for a smaller output impedance. Moreover, the simple model does not take into account the frequency dependence of these parameters.

## C. Bandwidth

The bandwidth of the TCA is limited either by the bandwidth CFOA or the frequency dependence of the shunt resistances. The former was measured with the test setup,

 TABLE III

 SMALLEST VALUES OF  $C_{comp}$  FOR WHICH PEAKING AT THE OUTPUT

 CURRENT FREQUENCY RESPONSE DOES NOT OCCUR

	$C_{comp}$ value / nF		
Nominal trans- conductance	Short circuit	High power LED	Low power LED
$100 \ \mu S$	1.5	1.2	1.8
1  mS	1.2	1.2	1.7
$10 \mathrm{~mS}$	1.2	1.9	2.2
100  mS	2	1.8	-
$1 \mathrm{S}$	1.1	1.1	-
10 S	0	0	-

shown in Fig. 4, by measuring the voltage over the gain setting resistors inside the device. Since the bandwidth is dependent on the output load, three different loads were tested: short circuit (only a 20-cm wire loop), high-power LED (Kingbrite L-53SRD-E), and low-power LED (Edixeon EDSX-KLC8-E5). The low-power LED was only used with the three smallest transconductance settings. The current output bandwidths were measured with an input signal

$$V_{\rm in}(t) = \left(0.55 + \frac{\sin(2\pi f t)}{2}\right) V$$
 (5)

except the 10-S transconductance, for which a signal with ten times smaller offset and amplitude was used. The results are shown in Fig. 5.

The frequency response of the TCA has shown peaking at frequencies near the 3-dB bandwidth limit. Typically, such features are compensated, for example, by tweaking the feedback or output circuitry, or by adding a capacitor to an internal node of the CFOA [28], [31]. For our purpose, this option was considered somewhat impractical, as the transconductance, output load, and wiring affect the peaking conditions. Instead, the compensation can be done by adding a capacitor ( $C_{comp}$ in Fig. 4) in parallel with the TCA input, which forms a low-pass filter with the signal generator output impedance and TCA input impedance. This approach of reference signal filtering has previously been used to compensate for more complex nonlinearities of current generators [35]. Optimal values of C<sub>comp</sub> for different output loads, *i.e.*, smallest values for which peaking does not occur, are given in Table III. Fig. 5 also shows the bandwidths in the cases when compensation is used.

It should be noted that the use of  $C_{\text{comp}}$  is not necessary if the highest frequency component of the input voltage is well below the cutoff frequency, or the overshoot is taken into account in the signal generator. The latter is straightforward, for example, if a single modulation frequency is used as it can be achieved simply by adjusting the modulation amplitude.

For the  $100-\mu$ S transconductance, the parasitic capacitance of shunt resistor begins to affect the frequency response at a smaller frequency than the limit set by the CFOA, reducing the 3-dB bandwidth to 4 MHz [33]. The parasitic inductances of the shunt resistors, on the other hand, limit the usable frequency range of 1 and 10 S transconductances

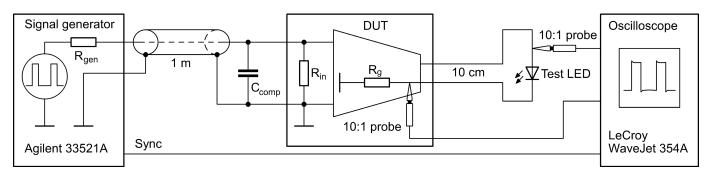


Fig. 4. Schematic of the test measurement setup used to measure the bandwidth and pulsing properties of the TCA.

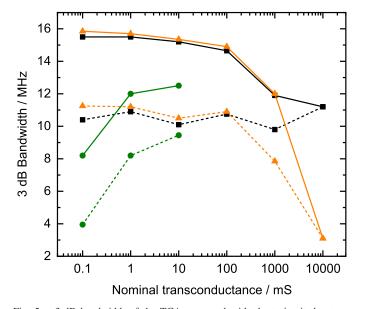


Fig. 5. 3-dB bandwidth of the TCA measured with short circuited output (black squares) and with high-power LED (orange triangles) and small power LED (green circles) as output load. Values with solid lines were measured without  $C_{\rm comp}$ , and for values with dashed lines, capacitances listed in Table III were used as  $C_{\rm comp}$ .

#### TABLE IV

TYPICAL BANDWIDTHS OF THE TCA AT DIFFERENT TRANSCONDUCTANCES. THE VALUES ARE TAKEN AS THE AVERAGE OF SHORT CIRCUIT AND HIGH-POWER LED BANDWIDTHS. UNLESS NOTED OTHERWISE, THE BANDWIDTHS ARE LIMITED BY THE CFOA

Nominal trans-	3 dB Bandwidth / MHz $$	
conductance	With $C_{comp}$	Without $C_{comp}$
$100 \ \mu S$	$4^{\mathrm{a}}$	$4^{\mathrm{a}}$
1  mS	11	16
10  mS	10	15
100  mS	11	15
1 S	9	$10^{\mathrm{b}}$
$10 \mathrm{S}$	$1^{\mathrm{b}}$	$1^{\mathrm{b}}$

<sup>a</sup> Limited by the shunt resistor capacitance.

<sup>b</sup> Limited by the shunt resistor inductance.

to 10 and 1 MHz, respectively, [33]. The usable frequency ranges of the TCA are summarized in Table IV.

#### D. Pulsed Operation

One of the main applications of the TCA is to provide sharp current pulses for LEDs. The sharpness of a current pulse is

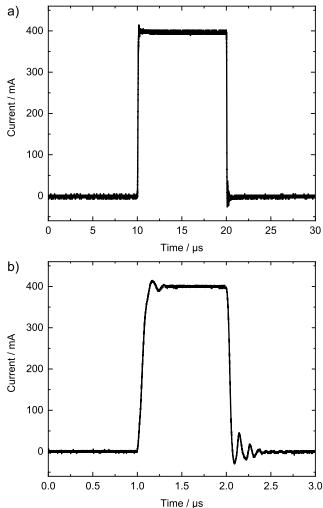


Fig. 6. Current pulses of 400 mA having the widths of 10  $\mu$ S (a) and 1  $\mu$ S (b). Pulses were produced with the transconductance setting of 100 mS and with the high-power LED as output load.  $C_{\text{comp}} = 1.8$  nF was used in the TCA input. Part of the observed overshoot may arise from the overshoot of the signal generator, which is specified to be 2%.

limited by the rise and fall time of the TCA, which is closely related to the bandwidth of the system. For an ideal single-pole low-pass filter, the relationship between 10% and 90% rise time (or corresponding fall time) and the cutoff frequency  $f_c$  is

$$t_r = \frac{\ln 9}{2\pi f_c} \approx \frac{0.35}{f_c}.$$
 (6)

The current output rise and fall times of the TCA, measured also with the setup of Fig. 4, were remarkably close to what one would expect based on 6. Typical deviation from the expected value was in the order of few nanoseconds. Therefore, in the transconductance range of 1 mS–1 S, *i.e.*, in ranges where shunt resistors do not limit the bandwidth, pulse widths down to 1  $\mu$ S remain reasonably sharp, assuming the wiring can be kept short and parasitic capacitances small. Examples of 1- and 10- $\mu$ S current pulses, measured using the setup of Fig. 4, are shown in Fig. 6.

# V. CONCLUSION

In this article, a TCA based on MOSFET buffered CFOA was presented. Intuitively, practical limitations of the CFOA, such as the limited transimpedance and the error caused by feedback current, would appear to limit its use in metrological applications, where high accuracy is mandatory. In our article, we have theoretically shown and demonstrated in practice that these error terms are sufficiently small that they can be accurately characterized.

The fairly simple design of the TCA is constructed using common and affordable components. It provides selectable transconductance from 100  $\mu$ S to 10 S, and peak and rms currents of 10 and 1 A, respectively. Regardless of the type of LED used in the output or the transconductance, 1-MHz bandwidth was achieved for the TCA. For the transconductances of 1-mS–1-S, typical bandwidth is around 10 MHz without peaking in the frequency response of the output current. If peaking is acceptable, bandwidths up to 15 MHz are achievable.

There are examples of TCAs with higher bandwidth [25], [26], higher output current [15]–[18], or higher precision [15]. However, our device provides a unique combination of these properties optimized for various applications of LEDs in optical metrology.

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