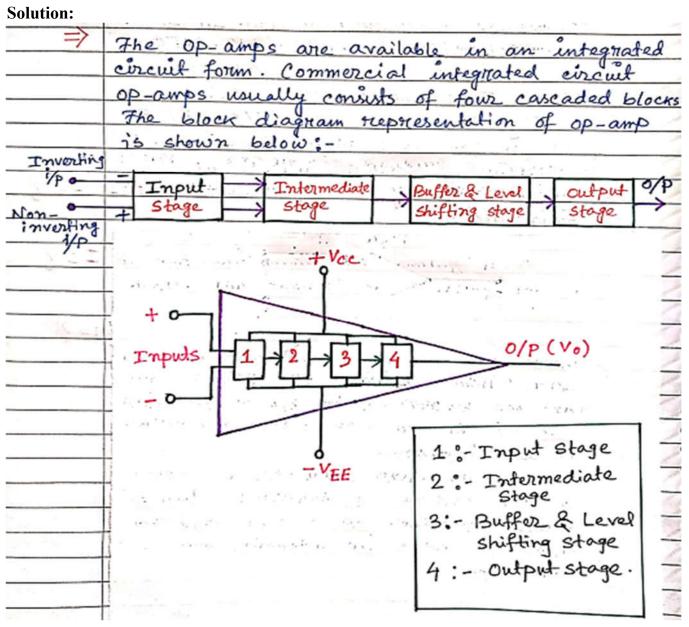


# CMR Institute of Technology, Bengaluru DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL & ELECTRONICS ENGINEERING

Solutons of Internal Assesment Test – I Subject: OPERATIONAL AMPLIFIERS AND LINEAR ICS (18EE46) Semester: 4A

# 1. (a) Draw the block diagram of Op-amp and explain each stage

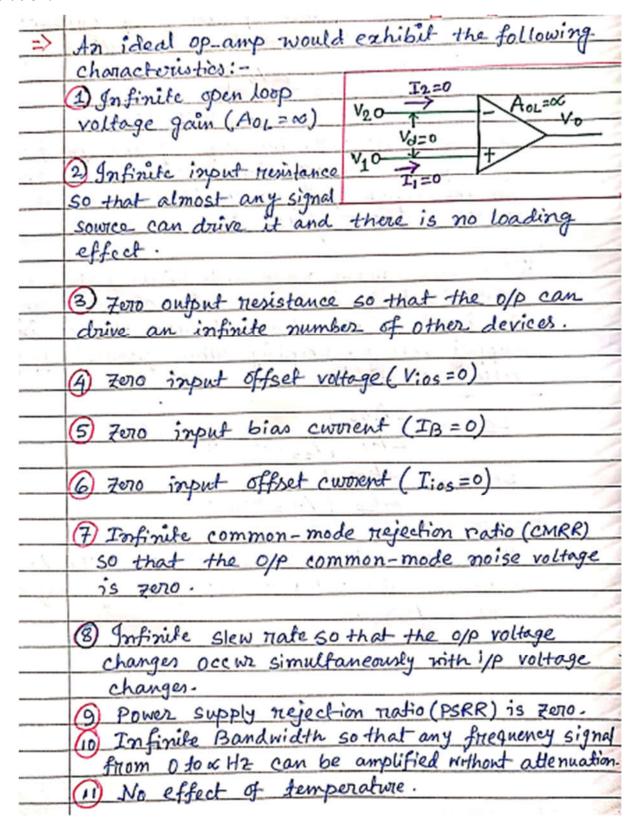


1) Input Stage:-	
-> The input stage is a dual i/p balanced o/p (two o/ps) differential amplifier.	
(two 0/ps) differential amplifier.	
The state of the s	
→ 9+ provides most of the voltage gain of the amplifier and establishes the high i/p impedance.	_
amplifier and establishes the high i/p impedance.	
See	
-> This stage also negects the noise by	
eliminating the common mode signal.	_
though the the township and make the section	_
2) Intermediate stage:	_
> The O/P of the input stage is directly fed to	_
the intermediate stage. This is another	_
differential amplifier with dual i/P and	_
differential amplifier with dual i/P and unbalanced o/P (i.e single ended o/P).	
and the second s	_
-> The input stage alone cannot provide such	
a high gain. The main Tunction of This stage	
is to provide an additional vottage gain.	_
F.	-
3) Buffer and Level shifting stage:-	-
since the 2/D stage amplifier and the interme-	-
diate stage amplifier are diffectly coupled, so	_
the ac voltage at the off of the inverteur	-
Stage tends to ruse above the ground, which	-
15 not desinable.	=
To bring down this de voltage to zero,	-
a level shifter is employed. This is usually an	
as then follower relich also acts as a buffer	-
with very large i/p resistance and low o/p	-
Heristance.	-
4) Output stage:-	
The old stage consists of complementary	
bush- pull amplifier, which helps to increase	_
the o/p voltage swing and the current	_
supplying capacity of the op-amp.	
[ push-pull amplifiers use two complementary	4
& matching transistors, one being NPN and	_
anothe PNP type with common input signal	_
together i.e equal in magnitude but	
opposite in sign].	
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	9

# 1. (b) Define the following terms: CMRR, PSRR

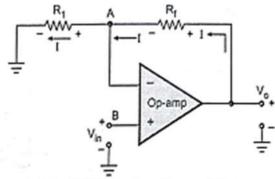
i) CMRR: - The ability of a differential amplifier
to reject a common mode signal is expressed
by a factor called common mode rejection
tratio (CMRR). It is expressed as the reatio of
differential gain (Ay) to the common mode
gain (Ac)
: CMRR = Ad
Many times, CMRR is expressed in decibel (dB).
CMRR = 20109 Ad dB
Ideally, the common mode voltage gain (Ac) is 7070, hence the ideal value of CMRR is
7070, hence the ideal value of CMRR is
mfinite.
But, for a practical differential amplifier,
At is large and Ac is small, hence the
At is large and Ac is small, hence the value of CMRR is also very high. For IC 741 the value of CMRR is godB.
NOTE: - A good op-amp should always have a
very high CMRR value. So that if
can cancel the common mode signal.
0
(0.00)
(ii) POWER SUPPLY REJECTION RATIO (PSRR):-
PSRR is defined as the natio of the change
in input offset voltage to the change in
supply voltage, keeping other power supply
voltage constant
AV:os
PSRR = DVcc VEE = constant.
PSRR 2 AVios / Avios
AVEE Vcc = constant.
- many material printer and the first of the second
The PSRR value for IC741 is 30 MV/V.
PSRR is also called as supply voltage Rejection
Rodio (SVRR).

## 2. (a) Explain the ideal characteristics of op-amp



# 2. (b) Deduce the expression for a closed loop voltage gain of non-inverting amplifier Solution:

An amplifier which amplifies the input without producing any phase shift between input and output is called non-inverting amplifier. The basic circuit diagram of a non-inverting amplifier using op-amp is shown in the Fig. 1.16.1. The input is applied to the non-inverting input terminal of the op-amp.



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Fig. 1.16.1 Non-Inverting amplifier

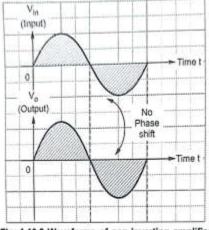


Fig. 1.16.2 Waveforms of non-inverting amplifier

The node B is at potential  $V_{in}$ , hence the potential of point A is same as B which is  $V_{in}$ , from the concept of virtual share.

$$V_A = V_B = V_{in}$$
 ... (1.16.1)

From the output side we can write,

$$I = \frac{V_o - V_A}{R_f}$$

$$I = \frac{V_o - V_{in}}{R_f} \qquad \dots (1.16.2)$$

At the inverting terminal,

$$I = \frac{V_A - 0}{R_1}$$
 i.e.  $I = \frac{V_{in}}{R_1}$  ... (1.16.3)

Entire current passes through R<sub>1</sub> as input current of op-amp is zero.

Equating equations (1.16.2) and (1.16.3),

$$\frac{V_o - V_{in}}{R_f} = \frac{V_{in}}{R_1}$$

$$\frac{V_o}{R_f} = \frac{V_{in}}{R_f} + \frac{V_{in}}{R_1}$$

$$\frac{V_o}{R_f} = V_{in} \left[ \frac{(R_1 + R_f)}{R_1 R_f} \right]$$

$$\frac{V_o}{V_{in}} = \frac{(R_1 + R_f) R_f}{R_1 R_f} = \frac{R_1 + R_f}{R_1}$$

$$A_{VF} = \frac{V_o}{V_{in}} = 1 + \frac{R_f}{R_1}$$

# 3. (a) Show that the output of a subtractor is equal to the difference between the two input voltages

#### **Solution:**

Similar to the summer circuit, the subtraction of two input voltages is possible with

the help of op-amp circuit, called subtractor or difference amplifier circuit.

The circuit diagram is shown in the Fig. 1.19.1.

To find the relation between the inputs and output let us use Superposition principle.

Let  $V_{o1}$  be the output, with input  $V_1$  acting, assuming  $V_2$  to be zero. And  $V_{o2}$  be the output, with input  $V_2$  acting, assuming  $V_1$  to be zero.

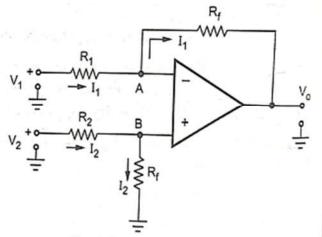
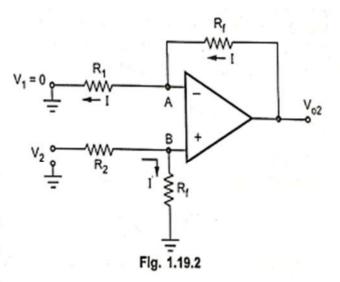


Fig. 1.19.1 Subtractor circuit

Case 1: With 
$$V_2$$
 zero, the circuit acts as an inverting amplifier. Hence we can write,  $V_{o1} = -\frac{R_f}{R_1}V_1$  ... (1.19.1)

Case 2: While with V<sub>1</sub> as zero, the circuit reduces to as shown in the Fig. 1.19.2.

Let potential of node B is  $V_B$ . The potential of node A is same as B i.e.  $V_A = V_B$ .



Applying voltage divider rule to the input V2 loop,

$$V_B = \frac{R_f}{R_2 + R_f} V_2 \qquad ... (1.19.2)$$

Now 
$$I = \frac{V_A}{R_1} = \frac{V_B}{R_1}$$
 ... (1.19.3)

And 
$$I = \frac{V_{o2} - V_A}{R_f} = \frac{V_{o2} - V_B}{R_f}$$
 ... (1.19.4)

Equating the equations (1.19.3) and (1.19.4),

$$\frac{V_{B}}{R_{1}} = \frac{V_{o2} - V_{B}}{R_{f}} \quad \text{i.e.} \quad V_{o2} = \frac{R_{1} + R_{f}}{R_{1}} V_{B}$$

$$\therefore \quad V_{o2} = \left[1 + \frac{R_{f}}{R_{1}}\right] V_{B} \quad \dots (1.19.5)$$

Substituting V<sub>B</sub> from equation (1.19.2) in equation (1.19.5) we get,

$$V_{o2} = \left[1 + \frac{R_f}{R_1}\right] \left[\frac{R_f}{R_2 + R_f}\right] V_2 \qquad ...(1.19.6)$$

Hence using Superposition principle,

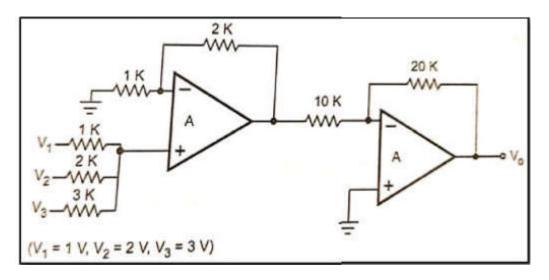
$$V_o = V_{o1} + V_{o2} = -\frac{R_f}{R_1} V_1 + \left[1 + \frac{R_f}{R_1}\right] \left[\frac{R_f}{R_2 + R_f}\right] V_2$$
 ... (1.19.7)

Now if the resistances are selected as  $R_1 = R_2$ ,

$$V_{o} = -\frac{R_{f}}{R_{1}} V_{1} + \left[1 + \frac{R_{f}}{R_{1}}\right] \left[\frac{R_{f}}{R_{1} + R_{f}}\right] V_{2} = -\frac{R_{f}}{R_{1}} V_{1} + \frac{R_{f}}{R_{1}} V_{2}$$

$$V_{o} = +\frac{R_{f}}{R_{1}} (V_{2} - V_{1}) \qquad ...(1.19.8)$$

## 3. (b) Find the output voltage for the following circuit:



(ox 1: 
$$V_1 = present$$
,  $V_2 = V_3 = 0$   
 $Req = \frac{2x3}{2t3} = 102$   
 $V_{B_1} = V_1 = \frac{1.2}{1+1.2}$   $V_1$   
 $V_{B_2} = 0.545h V_1$ 

$$V_{1}=V_{1}$$
.

 $V_{1}=V_{2}$ .

 $V_{2}=V_{2}$ .

 $V_{1}=V_{3}=0$ .

 $V_{3}=V_{2}$ .

 $V_{4}=V_{3}=0$ .

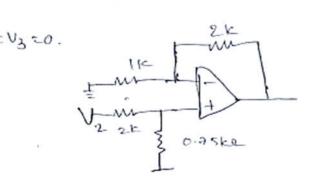
 $V_{5}=V_{2}$ .

 $V_{5}=V_{5}$ .

 $V_{5}=V_{5}$ .

 $V_{6}=V_{5}$ .

 $V_{6}=V_{6}$ .



Cox 3!. 
$$V_3$$
 procest,  $V_1 = V_2 = 0$ 

Requ:  $\frac{1 \times 2}{1 + 2} = 0.666$ 
 $V_{B_3} = V_3 \cdot \frac{0.66}{3 + 6.66}$ 
 $V_{B_3} = 3V$ .

 $V_{B_3} = 3 \cdot \frac{0.66}{3.66}$ 
 $V_{B_3} = 3 \cdot \frac{0.66}{3.66}$ 

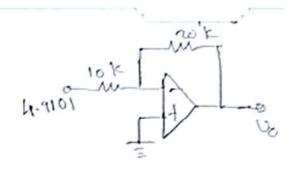
terally 
$$V_B = V_{B_1} + U_{B_2} + U_{B_3}$$

= 0.5454 + 0.5459 + 0.5459

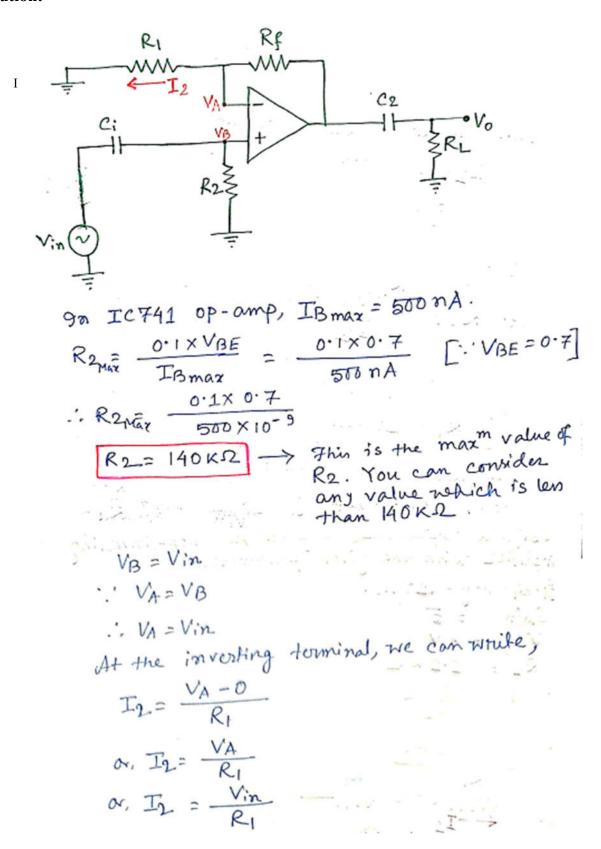
 $V_B = 1.6367 V$ 

Non Enverting amplifier:

 $\frac{V_0}{V_{R_0}} = 1 + \frac{P_1}{P_2}$ 
 $\frac{V_0}{V_0} = \frac{V_0}{V_0} = \frac$ 



# 4. Design a capacitor coupled AC non-inverting amplifier for the frequency of 120 Hz, voltage gain of 5, and input voltage of 1V using 741 op-amp.



: 
$$T_2 = \frac{V_{in}}{R_1 V_{in}}$$

or,  $R_1 = \frac{1}{50 \times 10^{-6}}$ 

We know that, Grain = 
$$\frac{Vo}{Vin}$$
For non-inverting,  $\frac{Vo}{Vin} = 1 + \frac{RF}{RI}$ 

$$XCi = \frac{R^2}{10}$$
or, 
$$\frac{1}{2\pi f Ci} = \frac{R^2}{10}$$

$$\alpha_{i}, \frac{1}{2\pi fc_{i}} = \frac{140 \, \text{K}^{32}}{10}$$

or, 
$$C_1^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi \times 120 \times 14 \times 10^3}$$

$$XC_2 = R_L$$

or,  $\frac{1}{2\pi f C_2} = 2.2 \times 10^3$ 

5. (a) In a AC inverting amplifier, The following parameters are given: Source Resistance ( $R_{in}$ )= 50 $\Omega$ , Coupling capacitor ( $C_i$ )=0.1  $\mu F$ , Input Resistance ( $R_1$ )=100 $\Omega$ , Feedback Resistance ( $R_f$ ) = 1K $\Omega$ , Load Resistance ( $R_L$ )= 10K $\Omega$ , Supply voltage= 15V. Find the bandwidth of the amplifier. (UGB = 10 $^6$ , K=0.909 for 741 IC).

Solution : For an inverting amplifier,  $R_{iF} \approx R_1 = 100 \Omega$ 

$$R_{in} = R_s = 50 \Omega$$
,  $C_i = 0.1 \mu F$ ,  $R_f = 1 k\Omega$   

$$f_L = \frac{1}{2\pi C_i (R_s + R_{iF})} = \frac{1}{2\pi \times 0.1 \times 10^{-6} \times (50 + 100)} = 10.61 \text{ kHz}$$

$$A_F = -\frac{R_f}{R_1} = -\frac{1 \times 10^3}{100} = -10$$

$$f_H = \frac{UGB \times K}{A_F} = \frac{10^6 \times 0.909}{10} = 90.9 \text{ kHz}$$

$$BW = f_H - f_L = 80.29 \text{ kHz}$$

## 5. (b) With neat diagram, explain the working of Peaking amplifier.

#### **Solution:**

The circuit which gives out the frequency response which exhibits a peak at a certain frequency is called as a peaking amplifier. Such a circuit is possible with the help of parallel LC network along with the op-amp. This parallel LC network must be connected in the feedback path as shown in the Fig. 1.27.1.

When the input frequency is changed, at a particular frequency, the parallel LC circuit shows the resonance. Hence the circuit output shows the peak in the frequency response. Such a frequency is called resonant

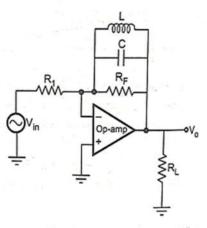


Fig. 1.27.1 Peaking amplifier

frequency or peak frequency denoted by  $f_r$ . It is totally dependent on the values of l and C and is given by

$$f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}} \text{ if } Q_{coil} \ge 10 \quad \text{where } Q_{coil} = \text{Quality factor of coil} \qquad \dots (1.27.1)$$

$$Q_{coil} = \frac{\omega L}{R} \qquad \dots (1.27.2)$$

At resonance the impedance of the parallel LC circuit is very large hence the gain of the circuit is also at its maximum. This is the reason why amplifier shows peak at the output.

The gain of the amplifier at resonance is given by,

$$A_F = -\frac{R_f || R_p}{R_1}$$
 ... (1.27.3)

where

Rp = Equivalent parallel resistance of tank circuit

$$R_P = Q_{coil}^2 R$$
 where  $R$  = Internal resistance of the coil ... (1.27.4)

Below and above the resonating frequency the gain of the amplifier is less than the  $(R_f || R_p)/R_1$  as the impedance of the parallel LC circuit is less than  $R_p$ .

The frequency response of the peaking amplifier is shown in the Fig. 1.27.2.

The bandwidth of the peaking amplifier is given by,

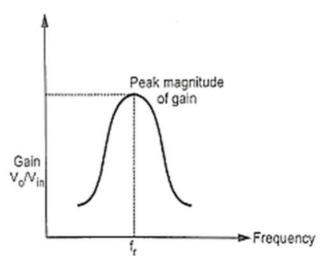


Fig. 1.27.2 Frequency response of peaking amplifier

$$BW = \frac{f_r}{Q_L}$$
 ... (1.27.5)

where

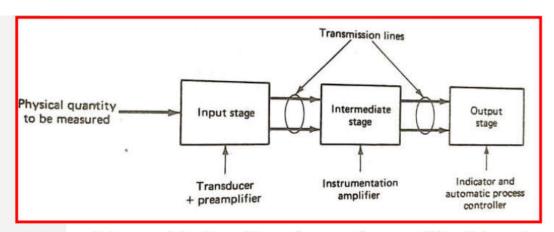
f<sub>r</sub> = Resonating frequency

Q<sub>L</sub> = Loaded quality factor of parallel resonating circuit

$$Q_L = (R_f || R_p) / X_L$$
 ... (1.27.6)

6. What is Instrumentation amplifier? Find the expression for the output of three op-amp Instrumentation amplifier.

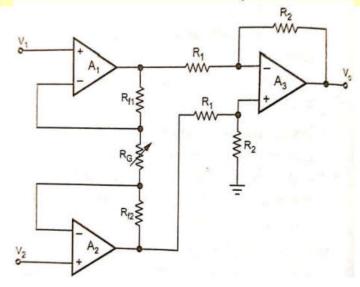
- It is a high gain differential amplifier with high CMRR value and also allows to adjust the gain of the amplifier circuit without having to change more than one resistor value.
- ♣ This is mainly used in industries where the accurate measurement and control of physical parameters (like temperature, humidity, pressure etc.) are very important.
- ♣ For example: 1. Maintaining a constant temperature and humidity inside a dairy or meat plant is very important. 2. Precise temperature control of plastic furnace is needed to produce a particular type of plastic. In both the cases Instrumentation amplifier is used.
- In short, Instrumentation Amplifier is intended for precise and low level signal amplification with low noise, high CMRR, high slew rate, low thermal and time drift, high input impedance, and accurate closed-loop gain.



- Input Stage: It is a combination of transducer and preamplifier. A transducer is a device which converts one form of energy into another. Most of the transducer outputs are as low as few mV or  $\mu$ V.
- The intermediate stage: It consists of Instrumentation amplifier whose input is connected to the output of the Input stage. The Instrumentation amplifier will amplify the low level signal from the transducer unit. For the rejection of noise, amplifiers must have high common-mode rejection ratio (CMRR).
- The output stage: It consists of devices like Meters, Oscilloscpes, Charts, Magnetic records etc.

# 3 Op-amp Instrumentation Amplifier

- → The op-amps A1 & A2 are the non-inverting amplifier forming the first stage of the Instrumentation Amplifier.
- ♣ The op-amp A3 is the normal difference amplifier forming the output stage of the Instrumentation Amplifier.



It can be seen that the output state is a standard basic difference amplifier. So if the output of the op-amp  $A_1$  is  $V_{o1}$  and the output of the op-amp  $A_2$  is  $V_{o2}$ , we can write,

$$V_o = \frac{R_2}{R_1} (V_{o2} - V_{o1})$$
 ... (1.30.1)

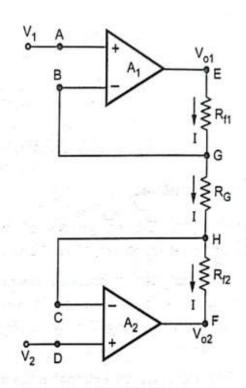
Let us find out the expression for  $V_{o2}$ and  $V_{o1}$  interms of  $V_1$ ,  $V_2$ ,  $R_{f1}$  and  $R_{f2}$ and  $R_{G}$ .

Consider the first stage as shown in the Fig. 1.30.3.

The node A potential of op-amp  $A_1$  is  $V_1$ . From the realistic assumption, the potential of node B is also  $V_1$ . And hence potential of G is also  $V_1$ .

The node D potential of op-amp  $A_2$  is  $V_2$ . From the realistic assumption, the potential of node C is also  $V_2$ . And hence potential of H is also  $V_2$ .

The input current of op-amp  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  both are zero. Hence current I remains same through  $R_{fl}$ ,  $R_G$  and  $R_{f2}$ .



Flg. 1.30.3

Applying Ohm's law between the nodes E and F we get,

$$I = \frac{V_{o1} - V_{o2}}{R_{f1} + R_{G} + R_{f2}}$$
 ... (1.30.2)

Let 
$$R_{f1} = R_{f2} = R_f$$
 ... (1.30.3)

$$I = \frac{V_{01} - V_{02}}{2R_f + R_G} \qquad ... (1.30.4)$$

Now from the observation of nodes G and H,

$$I = \frac{V_G - V_H}{R_G} = \frac{V_1 - V_2}{R_G} \qquad ... (1.30.5)$$

Equating the two equations (1.30.4) and (1.30.5),

$$\frac{V_{01} - V_{02}}{2R_f + R_G} = \frac{V_2 - V_1}{R_G}$$
 ... (1.30.6)

$$\frac{V_{o2} - V_{o1}}{2R_f + R_G} = \frac{V_1 - V_2}{R_G}$$
 ... (1.30.7)

$$V_{o2} - V_{o1} = \frac{(2 R_f + R_G) (V_2 - V_1)}{R_G}$$
 ... (1.30.8)

Substituting the  $V_{o2} - V_{o1}$ , in the equation (1.30.1),

$$V_{o} = \frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}} \cdot \left[ \frac{2R_{f} + R_{G}}{R_{G}} \right] (V_{2} - V_{1}) \qquad ... (1.30.9)$$

$$V_o = \frac{R_2}{R_1} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{2R_f}{R_G}\right) (V_2 - V_1)$$
 ... (1.30.10)