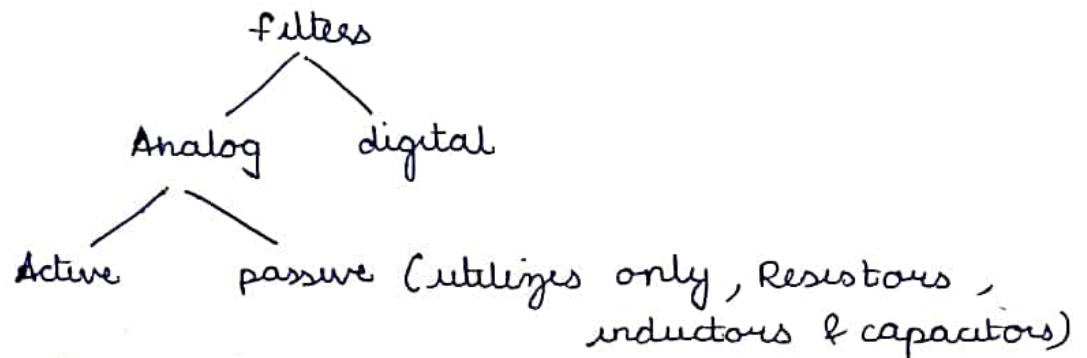


## UNIT- IV ACTIVE FILTERS & VOLTAGE REGULATORS

filter is frequency selective circuit that allows only desired frequency band to pass through and attenuates undesired frequency components.



Active n/w interconnects passive elements (R, C) & Active elements (Transistor, tunnel diodes & operational amplifiers)

### COMPARISON BETWEEN PASSIVE & ACTIVE NETWORKS:

#### Limitations of passive RLC Networks over Active RC n/w:

- (i) In RLC n/w, practical inductors tend to deviate from the inductance realized.
- (ii) There is power loss because of the dissipation in resistive and inductive elt.
- (iii) Q factor,  $Q = \frac{\omega L}{r_L}$ ; for ideal inductor  $r_L = 0$  but  $Q = \infty$  <sup>&  $Q = \infty$</sup>   
for practical inductor  $r_L \neq 0$ ; therefore  $Q \neq \infty$
- (iv) for practical inductors, total dissipative loss  $\uparrow$  as  $f \uparrow$   
as a result Q does not  $\uparrow$  linearly.
- (v) magnetic coupling creates unwanted stray fields which is harmful for applications like Satellite instrumentation
- (vi) for low freq application such as control S/m inductors of reasonable Q becomes bulky & expensive.

(vii) dissipation losses starts increasing when inductors is miniaturized



### Advantage of Active filters over passive filters

- (i) gain  $>$  unity
- (ii) loading effect is minimal
- (iii) They do not exhibit insertion loss.
- (iv) complex filters can be realized without inductors.
- (v) Stable & economical design
- (vi) easily tuneable, flexible gain & frequency adjustment
- (vii) Active filter uses op-amp. hence it has high input impedance & low output impedance. hence they do not cause loading effect



### Limitation of Active filter over passive filter

- (i) Slew rate of op amps leads to lower bandwidth than the designed B/W
- (ii) design is costly for high freq.
- (iii) Active filters require dual polarity dc power supply.
- (iv) sensitive to temperature and parameter variations

## ACTIVE NETWORK DESIGN

A filter is a linear two port n/w with transfer function  $H(s) = V_o(s)/V_i(s)$ . This response is also expressed as  $H(j\omega) = |H(j\omega)| e^{j\phi(\omega)}$

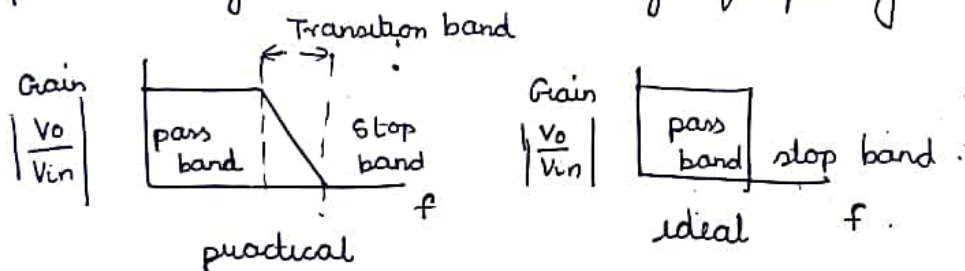
$H(j\omega) \rightarrow$  magnitude response.

$\phi(\omega) \rightarrow$  phase response.

filter can be realized in one of the following four basic response types.

### (i) LOW PASS FILTER (LPF)

LPF allows only low frequency signal to pass through & suppresses high frequency components

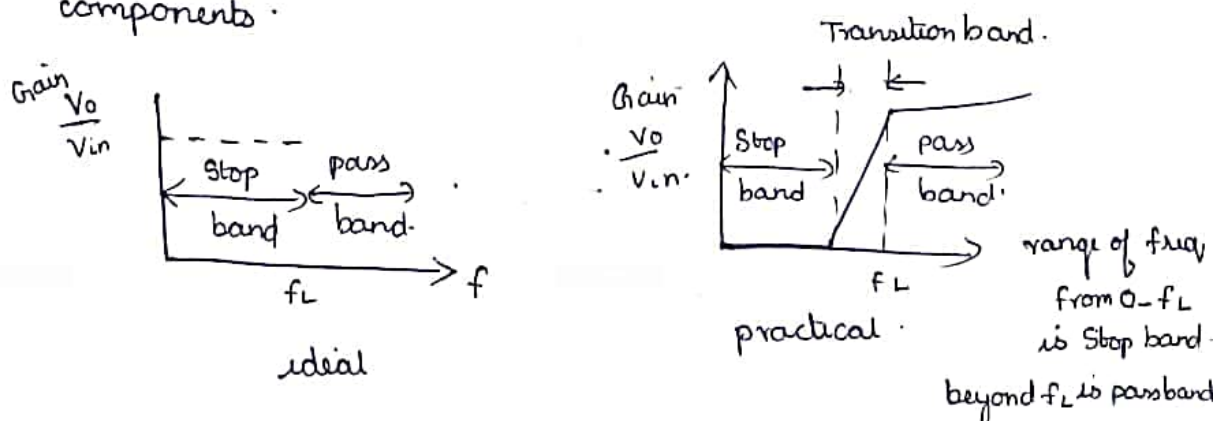


range of freq from 0 to higher cut off freq  $f_H$  is pass band.

range of freq beyond  $f_H$  is stop band

### (ii) HIGH PASS FILTER (HPF)

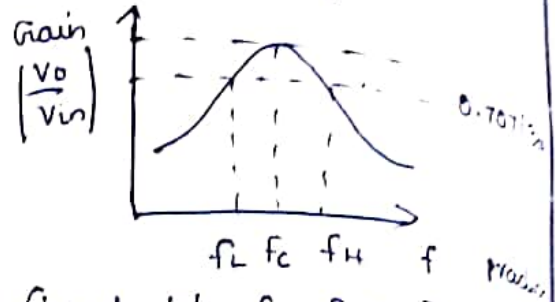
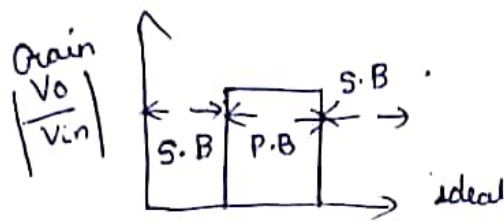
HPF allows only frequencies above a certain breakpoint to pass through and attenuates low freq components.





### (iii) BAND PASS FILTER (BPF)

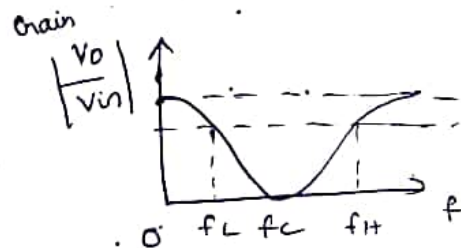
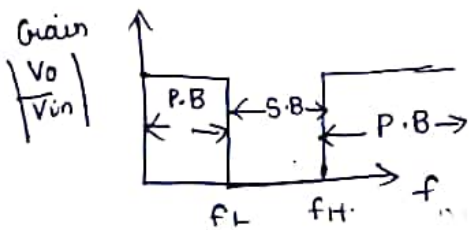
combination of HPF & LPF & this allows specified range of frequencies to pass through



2 stop bands & 1 pass band (band b/w  $f_L$  &  $f_H$ )  
 $(0 - f_L)$  & beyond  $f_H$

### (iv) BAND REJECT FILTER (BRF)

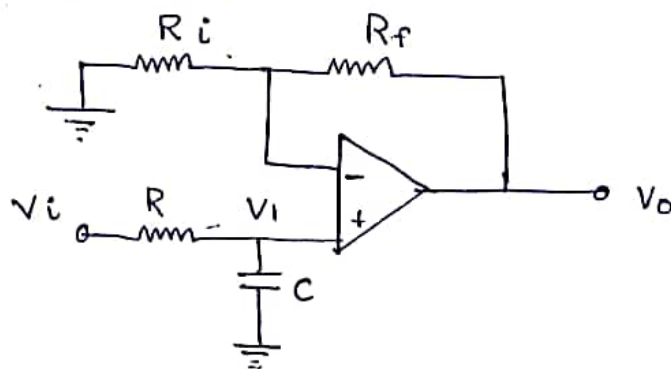
inverse of BPF which does not allow specified range of frequency to pass through.

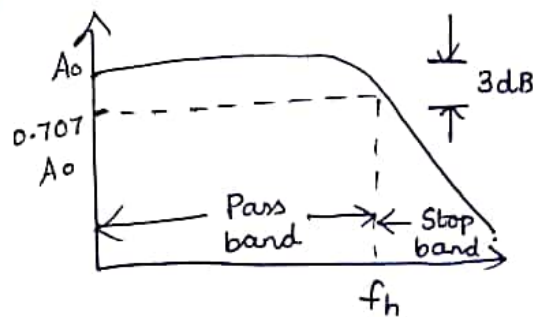


$(f_L - f_H) \rightarrow$  Stop band.  
 $(0 - f_L)$  & beyond  $f_H$  - pass band.

### FIRST ORDER LOW PASS FILTER

First order low pass filter consists of single RC network connected to (+) input terminal of non inverting op-amp.  $R_i$  &  $R_f$  determine gain of filter in pass band.





The voltage  $V_c$  across capacitor  $C$  in  $s$ -domain is

$$V_c(s) = \frac{1/sC}{R + 1/sC} V_i(s) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\frac{V_c(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{1}{1 + RCs}}$$

where  $V(s)$  is Laplace Transform of  $V$  in time domain

W.K.T  $\rightarrow$  close loop gain  $A_o$  of op-amp is

$$A_o = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = \left(1 + \frac{R_F}{R_I}\right) \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$\therefore$  overall Transfer function is

$$H(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} \cdot \frac{V_c(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{A_o}{RCs + 1} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\text{Let } \omega_H = 1/RC$$

$$\text{Therefore, } H(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{A_o}{\frac{s}{\omega_H} + 1} = \frac{A_o \omega_H}{s + \omega_H} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

This is standard form of transfer function of first order LPF.

To determine frequency response put  $s = j\omega$  in (3)

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{A_o}{1 + j\omega RC} = \frac{A_o}{1 + j(f/f_H)} \quad \text{where } f_H = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$

At low frequency i.e.  $f \ll f_H$

$$|H(j\omega)| \approx A_o$$

At  $f = f_H$

$$|H(j\omega)| = \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707 A_0$$

At high frequency i.e.  $f \gg f_H$

$$|H(j\omega)| \ll A_0 \approx 0$$

from dia At  $f=0$ , it has max gain  $A_0$

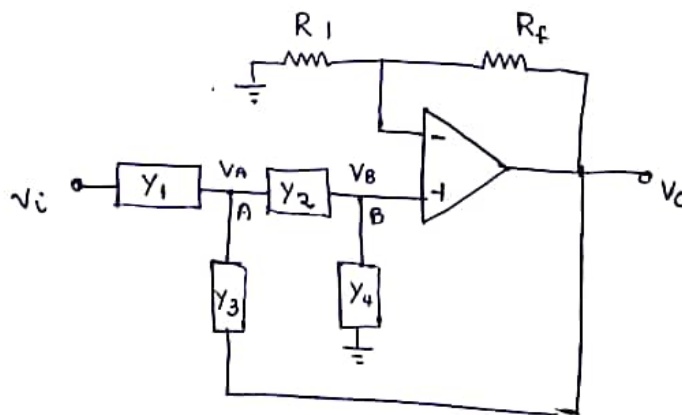
At  $f_H$ , gain falls to 0.707 times  
(-3dB down)  
the max gain.

At  $f > f_H$ , the gain  $\downarrow$  at -20dB/decade

$\therefore$  [when freq. is  $\uparrow$  ten times, voltage gain is divided by ten in terms of dB. Therefore gain decreases by 20 dB]

### SECOND ORDER ACTIVE FILTER

Improved filter response can be obtained by using second order filter. Second order filter has two RC pairs & has roll off rate of -40dB/decade. General Second order filter is shown below



$$V_0 = \left(1 + \frac{R_F}{R_i}\right) V_B = A_0 V_i$$

$$A_0 = 1 + \frac{R_F}{R_i}$$

$V_B \rightarrow$  voltage at node B

KCL at node A

$$V_i Y_1 = V_A (Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3) - V_0 Y_3 - V_B Y_2$$

$$= V_A(Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3) - V_0 Y_3 - \frac{V_0 Y_2}{A_0}$$

$V_A \rightarrow$  voltage at node A

KCL at node B give

$$V_A Y_2 = V_B(Y_2 + Y_4)$$

$$= \frac{V_0}{A_0}(Y_2 + Y_4) \quad ; \quad V_A = \frac{V_0(Y_2 + Y_4)}{A_0 Y_2} \quad - (2)$$

on simplification of (1) & (2), we get

$$\frac{V_0}{V_i} = \frac{A_0 Y_1 Y_2}{Y_1 Y_2 + Y_4(Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3) + Y_2 Y_3(1 - A_0)}$$

To make LPF,  $Y_1 = Y_2 = 1/R$  and  $Y_3 = Y_4 = sC$

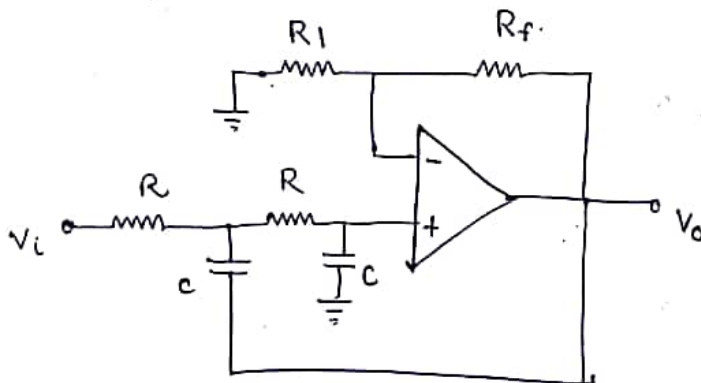
we get T.F of LPF as

$$H(s) = \frac{A_0}{s^2 C^2 R^2 + sCR(3 - A_0) + 1}$$

$$H(0) = A_0; \text{ for } s=0$$

$$H(\infty) = 0; \text{ for } s=\infty$$

} So this is obviously LPF.



$$H(s) = \frac{A_0 \omega_h^2}{s^2 + \omega s + \omega_h^2}$$

Taking  $\omega_h = 1/RC$

$A_0 =$  gain,  $\omega_h =$  upper cut off freq,  $\omega =$  damping co-efficient

$$\omega = (3 - A_0).$$

↓  
damping co-efficient

put  $s = j\omega$ , we get

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{A_0 \omega_h^2}{\left(\frac{j\omega}{\omega_h}\right)^2 + \alpha \omega_h (j\omega) + \omega_h^2}$$

÷ by  $\omega_h^2$  on num & denom

$$= \frac{A_0}{\left(j\omega/\omega_h\right)^2 + j\alpha(\omega/\omega_h) + 1}$$

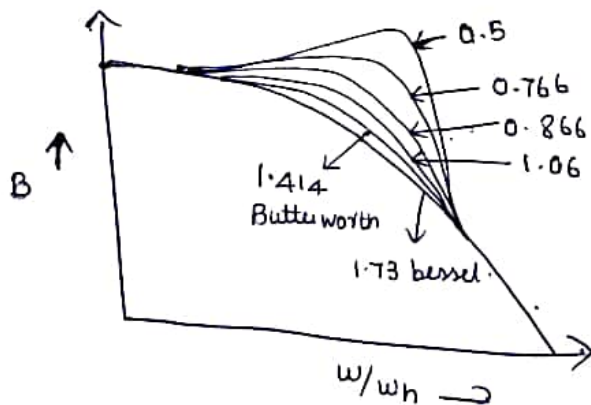
Normalized expression for LPF is

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{A_0}{s_h^2 + \alpha s_h + 1} ; s_h = j\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_h}\right)$$

expression of magnitude in dB for T.F is

$$20 \log |H(j\omega)| = 20 \log \left| \frac{A_0}{1 + j\alpha\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_h}\right) + \left(j\frac{\omega}{\omega_h}\right)^2} \right|$$

$$= 20 \log \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_h^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\alpha\omega}{\omega_h}\right)^2}}$$



only for  $\alpha > 1.7$   
response is stable.

If  $\alpha$  is reduced, response exhibits overshoot & ripple begins to appear.

If  $\alpha$  is reduced further, the filter becomes oscillatory.



## HIGHER ORDER LPF

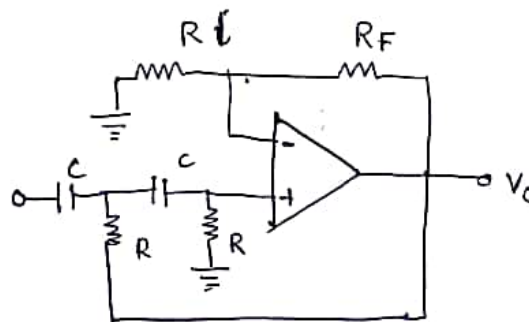
Second order LPF provides -40 dB/decade roll off rate. roll off rate increases by increasing order of filter.

Each increase in order produces -20 dB/decade additional increase in roll off rate.

## BUTTERWORTH POLYNOMIAL

1	$S_n + 1$
2	$S_n^2 + 1.414 S_n + 1$
3	$(S_n + 1)(S_n^2 + S_n + 1)$
4	$(S_n^2 + 0.765 S_n + 1)(S_n^2 + 1.618 S_n + 1)$

## HIGH PASS ACTIVE FILTER



complement of LPF  
HPF configuration is obtained by simply interchanging R & C in LPF

put  $Y_1 = Y_2 = SC$ ;  $Y_3 = Y_4 = G = 1/R$

The Transfer fn is written as

$$H(s) = \frac{A_0 s^2}{s^2 + (3 - A_0) \omega_L s + \omega_L^2} \quad (a)$$

where  $\omega_L = 1/RC$

$$H(s) = \frac{A_0}{1 + (3 - A_0) \frac{\omega_L}{s} + \left(\frac{\omega_L}{s}\right)^2}$$

At  $s = 0$ ,  $H = 0$

$s = \infty$ ;  $H = A_0$

The circuit acts as HPF

put  $s = j\omega$  in above eqn

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{A_0}{1 + \frac{\omega L}{j\omega} (3 - A_0) + \left(\frac{\omega L}{j\omega}\right)^2}$$

Magnitude eqn of HPF is given by

$$|H(j\omega)| = \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{f_L}{f}\right)^4}}$$

### BAND PASS FILTER

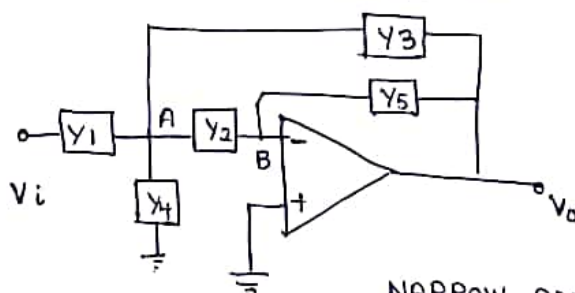
There are two types of BPF

- (i) Narrow band pass filter ( $Q > 10$ )
- (ii) wide band pass filter ( $Q < 10$ )

$$Q = \frac{f_0}{BW} = \frac{f_0}{(f_H - f_L)} \quad \text{where } f_0 = \sqrt{f_H \cdot f_L}$$

$f_H$  = upper cut off freq.  $f_L$  = lower cut off freq.  
 $f_0$  = central freq.

### Band pass Configuration



op-amp is in inverting mode of operation.

### NARROW BAND PASS FILTER

node voltage eqn at node A is

$$V_i Y_1 + V_o Y_3 = V_A (Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3 + Y_4) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$V_B = 0$  (virtual ground), node voltage eqn at node B is

$$V_A Y_2 = -V_o Y_5$$

$$V_0 = -V_0 (Y_5/Y_2) \text{ sub in ①}$$

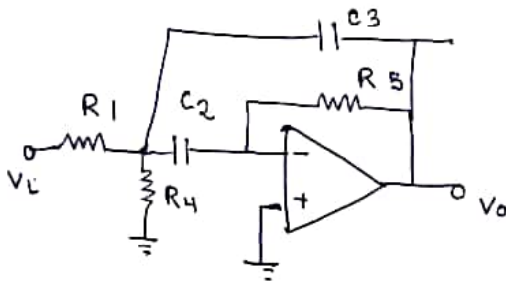
we get

$$V_i Y_1 + V_0 Y_3 = \frac{-V_0 Y_5 (Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3 + Y_4)}{Y_2}$$

$$V_i Y_1 = V_0 \left[ \frac{-Y_2 Y_3 + Y_1 Y_5 + Y_2 Y_5 + Y_3 Y_5 + Y_4 Y_5}{Y_2} \right]$$

$$\frac{V_0}{V_i} = \frac{-Y_1 Y_2}{Y_2 Y_3 + Y_1 Y_5 + Y_2 Y_5 + Y_3 Y_5 + Y_4 Y_5}$$

put  $Y_1 = G_1, Y_2 = sC_2, Y_3 = sC_3, Y_4 = G_4$  &  $Y_5 = G_5$



$$H(s) = \frac{V_0(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{-sG_1 C_2}{s^2 C_2 C_3 + s(C_2 + C_3)G_5 + sG_5(G_1 + G_4)}$$

This Transfer function is equivalent to gain expression of parallel RLC circuit given by.

$$\frac{V_0(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{-G_1'}{Y} = \frac{-G_1'}{sC + G_1 + 1/sL} \quad \text{comparing we get}$$

$$G_1' = G_1$$

$$L = \frac{C_2}{G_5(G_1 + G_4)}$$

$$G_1 = \frac{G_5(C_2 + C_3)}{C_2}$$

$$C = C_3$$

resonance freq.

$$\omega_0^2 = 1/LC = \frac{G_5(G_1 + G_4)}{C_2 C_3}$$

At resonance, imaginary part is zero.

$\therefore$  gain at resonance is

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{V_o}{V_i} \right|_{\omega=\omega_0} &= -\frac{G_1'}{G_1} = -\frac{(G_1/G_5)C_2}{C_2 + C_3} \\ &= -\frac{(R_5/R_1)C_2}{C_2 + C_3} \end{aligned}$$

Q factor at resonance is  $Q_0 = \frac{\omega_0 L}{R} = \omega_0 RC = \frac{\omega_0 C}{G_1}$

B.W is given by  $B.W = f_h - f_l = \frac{f_0}{Q_0} = \frac{\omega_0}{2\pi Q_0}$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{\omega_0}{2\pi R \omega_0 C} = \frac{1}{2\pi RC} = \frac{G_1}{2\pi C} \\ &= \frac{G_5 (C_2 + C_3)}{2\pi C_2 C_3} \end{aligned}$$

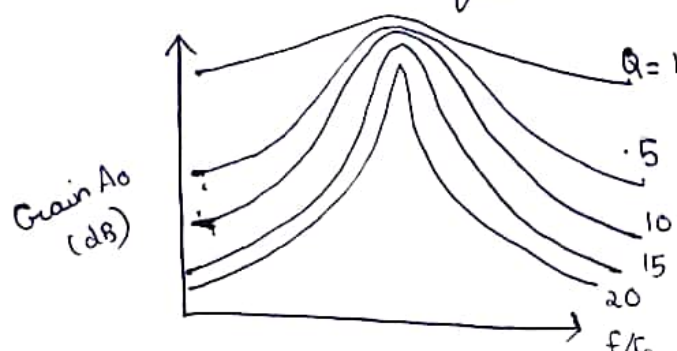
centre frequency  $f_0 = \sqrt{f_h \cdot f_l}$

If  $C_2 = C_3 = C$ , then  $\left. \frac{V_o}{V_i} \right|_{\omega=\omega_0} = -\frac{R_5}{2R_1} = -A_0$

$$\omega_0 = \frac{\sqrt{G_5(G_1 + G_4)}}{C}$$

$$BW = \frac{G_5}{\pi C} = \frac{1}{\pi R_5 C}$$

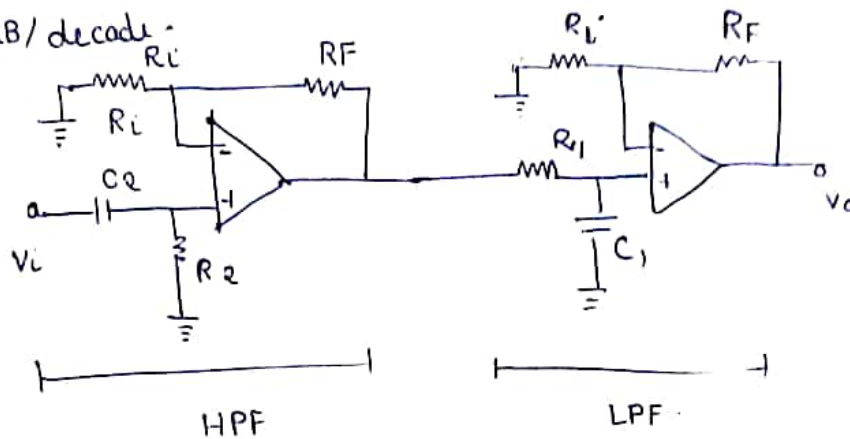
choose one parameter arbitrarily among  $C, G_1, G_4$  &  $G_5$   
higher the  $Q$ , sharper the filter





## WIDE - BAND PASS FILTER

It is formed by cascading HPF & LPF Section. If LPF & HPF are of first order, BPF will have roll off rate of -20 dB/decade.



↳ 1st order HPF, but previously we derived  
For HP section, magnitude of gain is  $H(j\omega)$  for 2nd order HPF

$$|H_{HP}| = \frac{A_{01} (f/f_L)}{\sqrt{1 + (f/f_L)^2}} \quad \text{where } f_L = \frac{1}{2\pi R_2 C_2}$$

For LP section, magnitude of gain is

$$|H_{LP}| = \frac{A_{02}}{\sqrt{1 + (f/f_H)^2}} \quad \text{where } f_H = \frac{1}{2\pi R_1 C_1}$$

magnitude gain of BPF is product of that of LPF & HPF.

$$|H_{BP}| = \left| \frac{A_0 (f/f_L)}{\sqrt{(1 + (f/f_L)^2) [1 + (f/f_H)^2]}} \right|$$

$$\text{where } A_0 = A_{01} \times A_{02}$$

In similar fashion Second order HPF & LPF are cascaded to get -40 dB/decade fall-off rate

## BAND REJECT FILTER

A band reject filter can be either

(i) Narrow band reject (ii) wide band reject.

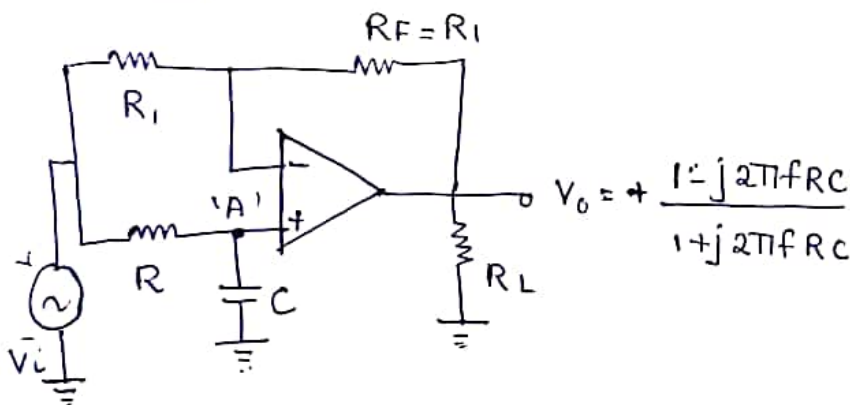
Narrow band reject filter is called notch filter. It rejects a single frequency.

There are several ways to make notch filter. One way is to subtract band pass output from its i/p. Other way is to use a twin-T network cascaded with voltage follower.

## ALL PASS FILTER

passes all frequencies of input signal without attenuation and provides desired phase shifts at different frequencies of input signal.

When signals are transmitted over transmission lines such as telephone wires, they undergo change in phase. These phase changes are compensated by all pass filter. So they are called as delay equalizers or phase correctors.



here  $R_F = R_1$

$$V_o = + \frac{1 - j2\pi fRC}{1 + j2\pi fRC}$$

$V_o$  is obtained by using superposition theorem

$$V_o = -\frac{R_F}{R_1} V_i + \left(1 + \frac{R_F}{R_1}\right) V_a \quad ; \quad V_a \rightarrow \text{voltage at node 'A'}$$

- (1)

But  $R_F = R_1$

$$\boxed{V_o = -V_i + 2V_a} \quad - (2)$$

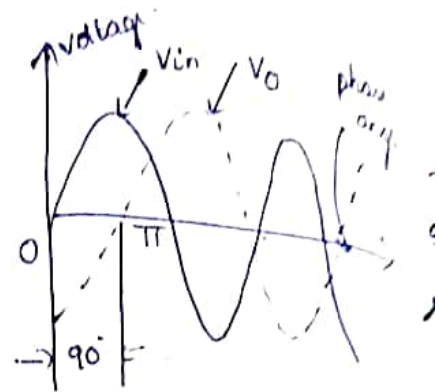
$$\text{where } V_a = \left( \frac{-jX_c}{R - jX_c} \right) V_i$$

$$V_o = -V_i + 2 \left( \frac{-jX_c}{R - jX_c} \right) V_i$$

÷ num & den by  $-j\omega C$

$$= V_i \left( -1 + \frac{2}{1 + j2\pi fRC} \right)$$

$$\therefore \frac{V_o}{V_i} = \left( \frac{1 - j2\pi fRC}{1 + j2\pi fRC} \right)$$



magnitude of  $\frac{V_o}{V_i}$  is given by

$$\frac{|V_o|}{|V_i|} = \frac{\sqrt{1 + (2\pi fRC)^2}}{\sqrt{1 + (2\pi fRC)^2}} = 1$$

$\therefore |V_o| = |V_i|$  for all frequencies

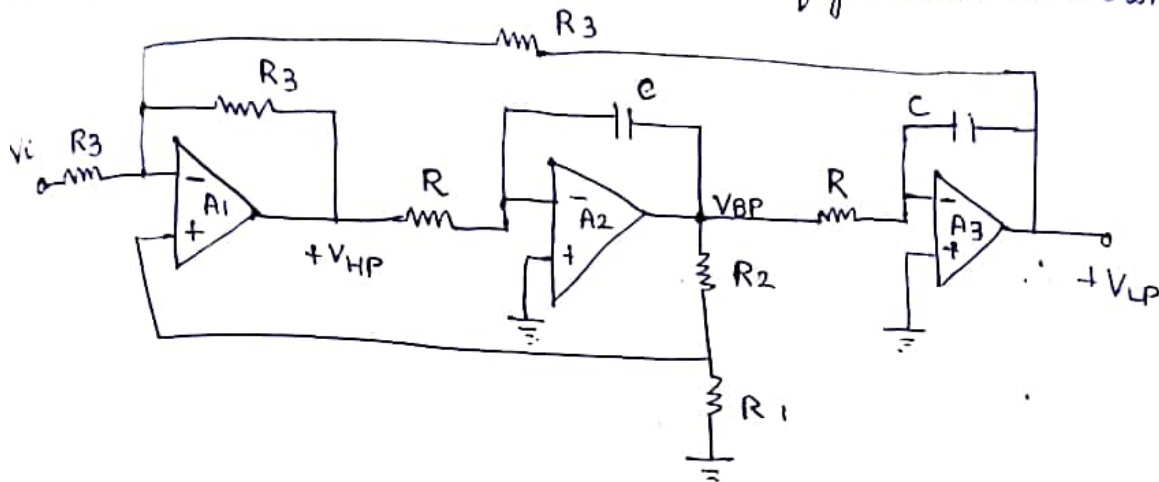
$$\begin{aligned} \phi &= -\tan^{-1} 2\pi fRC - \tan^{-1} 2\pi fRC \\ &= -2\tan^{-1} (2\pi fRC) \end{aligned}$$

$\phi$  can be varied with frequency for given  $R$  and  $C$ , and can be varied from  $0$  to  $-180^\circ$  as freq varied from  $0$  to  $\infty$ . As phase shift is  $-ve$ ,  $V_o$  lags  $V_i$ . phase shift can be made  $+ve$  by interchanging  $R$  and  $C$ .



## STATE VARIABLE FILTER

State variable configuration uses two op-amp integrators and one op-amp adder to provide simultaneous second order low pass, band pass & high pass filter responses. Simple state variable configuration is shown below



It uses two op-amp integrators  $[A_2, A_3]$  and one op-amp summer  $[A_1]$ . outputs  $V_{HP}$ ,  $V_{BP}$ ,  $V_{LP}$  of high pass, band-pass and low-pass filters are obtained at o/p of  $A_1, A_2$  &  $A_3$

$V \rightarrow$  Laplace Transform of  $v$  in time domain.

$A_2$  works as inverting integrator, Laplace transformed output  $V_{BP}$  is given by

$$V_{BP} = -\frac{1}{RCs} V_{HP} \quad \text{if } R = 1M\Omega; C = 1\mu F; RC = 1,$$

we get,

$$V_{BP} = -\frac{1}{s} V_{HP}$$

$A_3$  is also inverting integrator  $A_3$ ;

$$V_{LP} = -\frac{1}{s} V_{BP} = \frac{1}{s^2} V_{HP}$$

op-amp  $A_1$  is three input summer. o/p  $V_{HP}$  can be

written using superposition theorem

$$V_{HP} = -\left(\frac{R_3}{R_3}\right)V_i + \left(\frac{R_3}{R_3}\right)V_{LP} + \left(1 + \frac{R_3}{R_3 \parallel R_2}\right)\left(\frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}\right)V_{BP}$$

$$= -V_i - V_{LP} + 3\left(\frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}\right)V_{BP}$$

$$\text{put } \alpha = 3\left(\frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}\right)$$

$$\therefore V_{HP} = -V_i - V_{LP} + \alpha V_{BP} \quad \left[ \text{Sub } V_{LP} = \frac{1}{s^2} V_{HP} \text{ \& } V_{BP} = \frac{1}{s} V_i \right]$$

$$\therefore V_{HP} = -V_i - \frac{V_{HP}}{s^2} + \frac{\alpha V_{HP}}{s}$$

$$V_{HP} \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha}{s} + \frac{1}{s^2} \right) = -V_i$$

high pass Transfer function  $H_{HP}$  is

$$H_{HP} = \frac{V_{HP}}{V_i} = \frac{-s^2}{s^2 + \alpha s + 1} \quad \alpha \rightarrow \text{damping factor}$$

comparing this eqn with std HP Transfer fn  $\frac{A_0 s^2}{s^2 + \alpha \omega_c s + 1}$   
we have  $A_0 = -1$  &  $\omega_c = 1$

From Transfer fn eqn of LPF we have  $TF = \frac{A_0}{s^2 + \alpha \omega_h s + 1}$

$$\therefore H_{LP} = \frac{V_{LP}}{V_i} = \frac{-1}{s^2 + \alpha s + 1} \quad \text{where } A_0 = -1 \text{ \& } \omega_h = 1$$

Finally Band-pass impulse response is obtained by eliminating VHP & VLP.

$$HBP = \frac{V_{BP}}{V_i} = \frac{s}{s^2 + \alpha s + 1}$$

Standard BPF T.F is given by

$$\frac{A_0 \alpha \omega_0 s}{s^2 + \alpha \omega_0 s + \omega_0^2}$$

comparing we get  $A_0 \alpha \omega_0 = 1$ ;

$$\omega_0 = 1/RC = 1$$

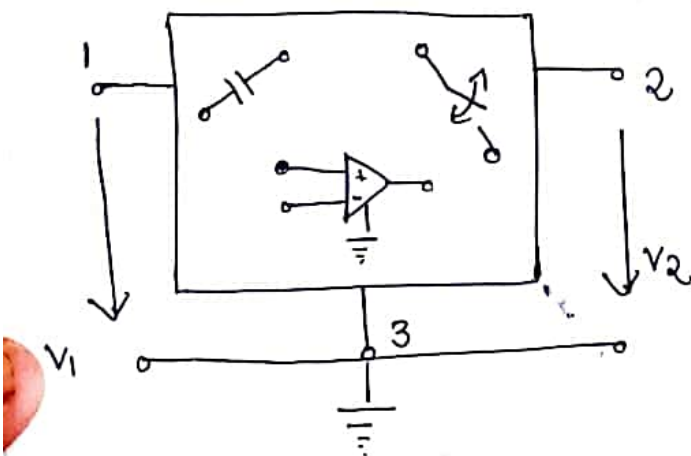
$$\therefore A_0 = 1/\alpha = \frac{R_1 + R_2}{3R_1}$$

from analysis, w.F.T BPF response is obtained by integrating HP response & L.P is generated by integrating band ~~pass~~ pass.



## SWITCHED CAPACITOR FILTERS

- (i) The resistor value needed for RC filters are generally too large
- (ii) Large value resistors occupies large amount of chip area & have poor linearity characteristics
- (iii) This is the reason for not using active filters in MOS technology.
- (iv) Switched capacitor filter offers an attractive alternative to RC active filter.



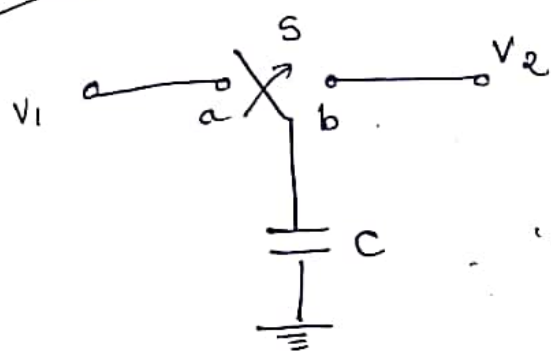
(iv) This is a three terminal element with capacitor, switch & op amps.

- (vi) not possible to achieve desired RC products of sufficient magnitude & accuracy unless switched capacitor filter is used.
- (vii) <sup>In</sup> Switched capacitor filter it is achieved by setting capacitor ratios & switch periods
- (viii) large resistor values required for active filter are achieved by combination of small value capacitors (say 10pF) & MOS switching transistors



(ix) Thus even a filter of high order becomes an integrated circuit of very small size with low power consumption. It is more reliable & low price.

### Realization of Resistor by Single capacitor



Initially switch is in position 'a'. capacitor is charged to  $V_1$ .  
Then switch is thrown to position 'b'. capacitor is discharged to  $V_2$ .  
 $V_2 < V_1$

amount of charge  $Q = C(V_1 - V_2)$

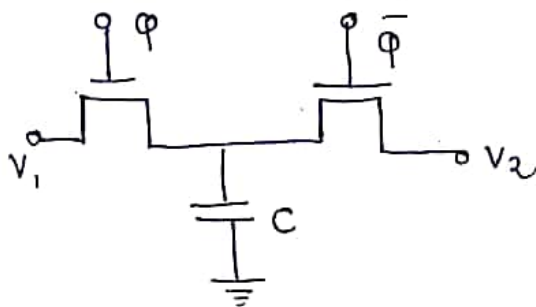
S is thrown back every  $T_{CK}$  second, then  $i$  that flows through is given by

$$i = \frac{Q}{T_{CK}} = \frac{C(V_1 - V_2)}{T_{CK}} = f_{CK} C (V_1 - V_2)$$

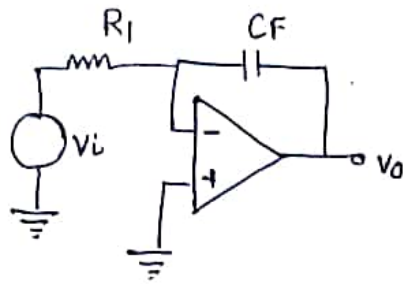
$T_{CK} \rightarrow$  clock period

$$f_{CK} = 1/T_{CK}$$

Resistance  $R$  is given by  $R = \frac{T_{CK}}{C} = \frac{1}{f_{CK} \cdot C}$



# SWITCHED CAPACITOR INTEGRATOR

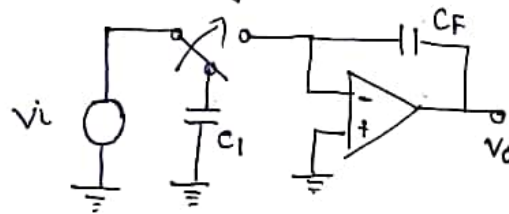


ordinary integrator  
Transfer function is

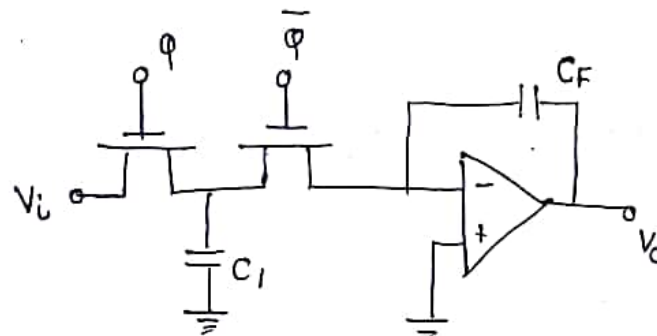
$$H = -\frac{1}{sR_iC_f} = -\frac{1}{j(-f/f_0)}$$

where  $f_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi R_i C_f}$

$R_i$  replaced by Switched capacitor  $C_1$



The MOS version.



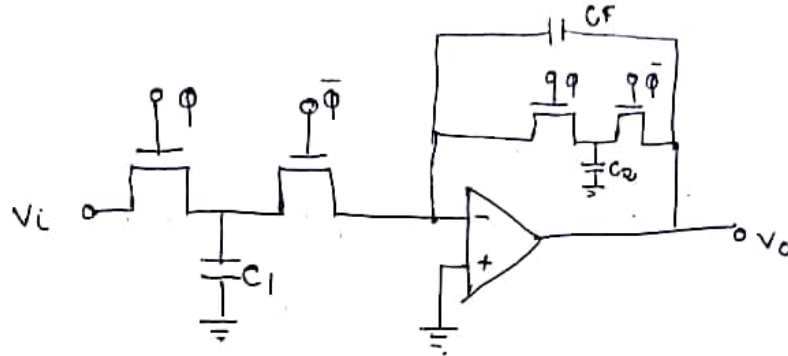
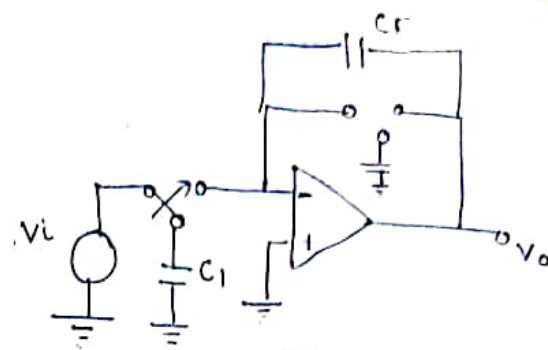
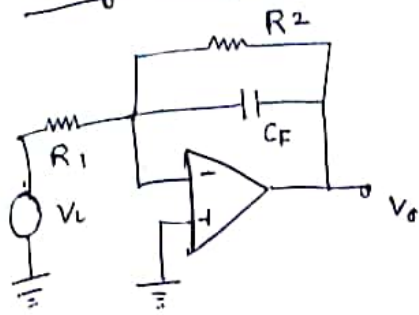
here  $R_i = \frac{1}{C_1 f_{ck}}$

$f_{ck} \rightarrow$  clock frequency.

$f_0$  is given by  $f_0 = \frac{C_1}{2\pi C_f} f_{ck}$

By proper choice of  $f_{ck}$  and  $C_1/C_f$ , it is possible to avoid use of high capacitance value even if low values of  $f_0$  are desired.

## Lossy integrator



$$R_2 = \frac{1}{f_{ck} C_2} ; R_1 = \frac{1}{f_{ck} C_1}$$

$$\frac{R_2}{R_1} = \frac{C_1}{C_2}$$

$$f_h = \frac{1}{2\pi C_F R_2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{C_2}{C_F} f_{ck}$$

## SWITCHED CAPACITOR FILTER ICS

MF5 - Universal second order filter

MF6 - unity gain sixth order Butterworth LP filter

MF8 - Two second order BP filter

MF10 - State variable filter IC

## VOLTAGE REGULATOR

provides stable dc voltage for powering electronic circuits

voltage regulators are classified as

- (i) series regulator
- (ii) switching regulator

## Series regulator

It uses a power transistor connected in series between unregulated dc i/p & load.

O/p voltage is controlled by voltage drop taking place across series pass transistor. Since Transistor operates in linear region, it is called linear regulator.

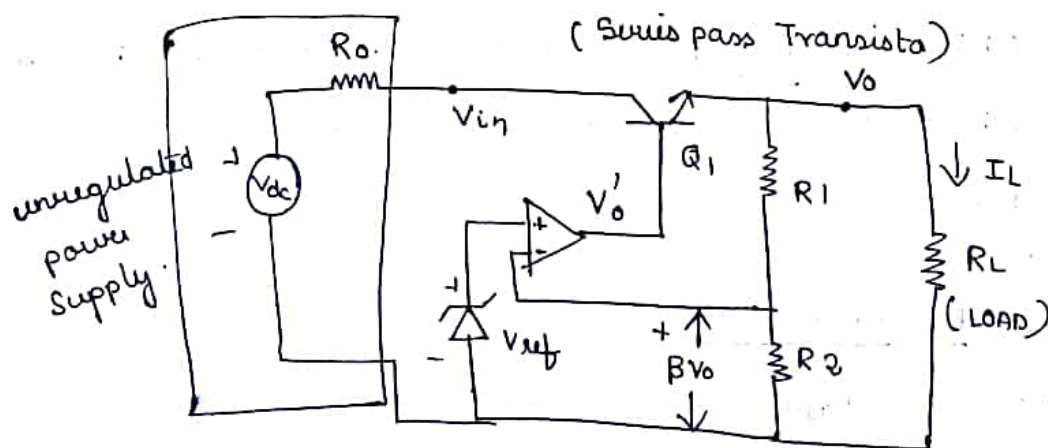
## Switching regulators

They operate power transistors as high frequency on/off switch, so that power transistor does not conduct current continuously. This has improved efficiency.

### SERIES OP-AMP REGULATOR - LINEAR VOLTAGE REGULATOR

circuit consists of four parts:

- (i) Reference voltage circuit
- (ii) Error amplifier
- (iii) Series pass transistor
- (iv) feedback network



$Q_1$  is in series with unregulated dc voltage  $V_{in}$  & regulated output voltage  $V_o$ .

So it must absorb the difference between these two voltage whenever fluctuation in  $V_o$  occurs.



$Q_1$  is also connected as emitter follower. Therefore it provides sufficient current gain to drive the load.

o/p voltage is sampled by  $R_1$ - $R_2$  divider & feedback to (-) terminal of op amp error amplifier.

This sampled voltage is compared with reference voltage  $V_{ref}$ .

o/p  $V_o'$  drives the  $Q_1$ .

If o/p voltage  $\uparrow$  due to variation in load current the sampled voltage  $\beta V_o$  increases where

$$\beta = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

This reduces o/p voltage  $V_o'$  due to  $180^\circ$  phase difference provided by op-amp amplifier.

$V_o'$  is applied to base of  $Q_1$ , which is used as emitter follower.  $V_o$  follows  $V_o'$ , so  $V_o$  also reduces. Hence increase in  $V_o$  is nullified, i.e., reduction in o/p voltage also gets regulated.

### IC VOLTAGE REGULATORS

IC voltage regulators are versatile, relatively inexpensive and available with features such as programmable o/p, current/voltage boosting & floating operation for high voltage application.

Types:

- (i) fixed positive/negative o/p voltage regulators
- (ii) adjustable o/p voltage regulators

## fixed voltage regulators

78XX series are three terminal positive fixed voltage regulators.

78XX

→ used to identify o/p voltage of regulator

79XX series are negative fixed voltage regulators.

## ADJUSTABLE O/P VOLTAGE REGULATOR:

These are regulated voltage sources which are variable.

Adjustable positive voltage regulator: LM117, LM317

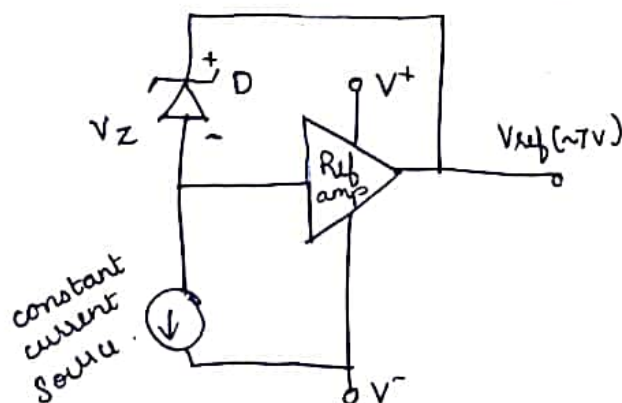
Adjustable negative voltage regulator: LM137, LM337

## 723 GENERAL PURPOSE REGULATOR

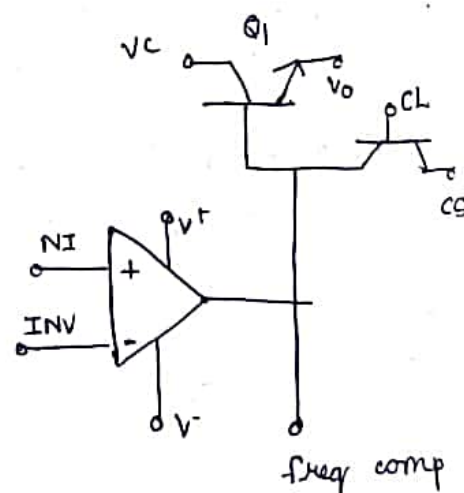
The regulators discussed earlier have fold limitation  
(i) No short circuit protection.

~~Limitation~~

This limitation is overcome in 723, which can be adjusted over wide range of both positive or negative regulated voltage.



(Section 1)



limitation is no - built thermal protection.  
It has two separate sections.  
Zener diode, a constant current source and reference  
amplifier produces fixed voltage of 7 volts at terminal

$V_{ref}$ .  
constant current source forces the Zener to  
operate at fixed points. So Zener outputs a fixed  
voltage.

other section consists of an error amplifier,  
series pass transistor  $Q_1$  and current limit  
transistor  $Q_2$ . error amp. compares sample of  
o/p voltage applied at INV input terminal to  
reference voltage  $V_{ref}$  applied at NJ-terminal

error signal controls conduction of  $Q_2$ .

These sections are not internally connected.  
but various points are brought out on IC  
package.

IC 723 can be used to realize both

- (i) Low voltage regulator.
- (ii) High voltage regulator.



## SWITCHING REGULATOR:

### disadvantage of Series regulator

- (i) To give unregulated dc ~~off~~ <sup>voltage as i/p</sup>, Step down transformer is used which is bulky & expensive
- (ii) large values of filter capacitors are required
- (iii) i/p voltage must be greater than o/p voltage. greater the difference in i/p-o/p voltage, more will be the power dissipated as series pass transistor is always in active region
- (iv) one dc supply voltage is enough for TTL but where as for op-amp  $\pm 15V$  is needed

In switched mode regulator, pass transistor acts as control switch and operates in either cut-off or saturated state

power transmitted is discrete, rather than steady current. when pass device is cut off, no current & dissipates no power. when pass device is in saturation - max current is given to load & power wasted is little. hence efficiency is high.

bridge rectifier & capacitor filter - converts ac to unregulated dc.

Thermistor  $R_t$  - limits high initial capacitor charge current

reference voltage regulator - is series pass regulator & provides power supply voltage for all other circuits

[power loss in series pass reg is very less, hence it does not affect]

over all efficiency

$Q_1$  &  $Q_2$  are alternatively switched ON or OFF so they dissipate very little power. They drive primary of Transformer.

Secondary is centre tapped & full wave rectification is achieved by  $D_1$  &  $D_2$ .

$V_o$  is sampled by  $R_1, R_2$  divider and fraction is compared with  $V_{ref}$  in comparator 1.

o/p of voltage comparison is  $V_{control}$  which is applied to (-) input terminal of comparator 2 &  $\Delta^{1st}$  wave form is applied to +ve - terminal.

comparator 2 acts as Pulse width modulator & o/p is square wave  $V_A$ .

width of  $V_A$  varies with  $V_{control}$  which in turn varies with  $V_o$ . 40KHZ OSC cascaded with F.F. to produce  $V_Q$  &  $\bar{V}_Q$ .

$V_{A1}$  and  $V_{A2}$  are o/p of AND gates  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ .

They are applied to base of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$ .

depending on whether  $Q_1$  or  $Q_2$  is on, waveform at i/p of transformer will be square wave.

if  $V_o \uparrow$ ,  $V_{control} \uparrow$ , which decreases  $T_1$  in turn

decreases pulse width driving main power transformer.



## SWITCHING REGULATOR!

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$V_{A1}$  and  $V_{A2}$  are o/p of AND gates  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ .

They are applied to base of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$ .

depending on whether  $Q_1$  or  $Q_2$  is on, waveform at i/p of transformer will be square wave.

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## UNIT-V

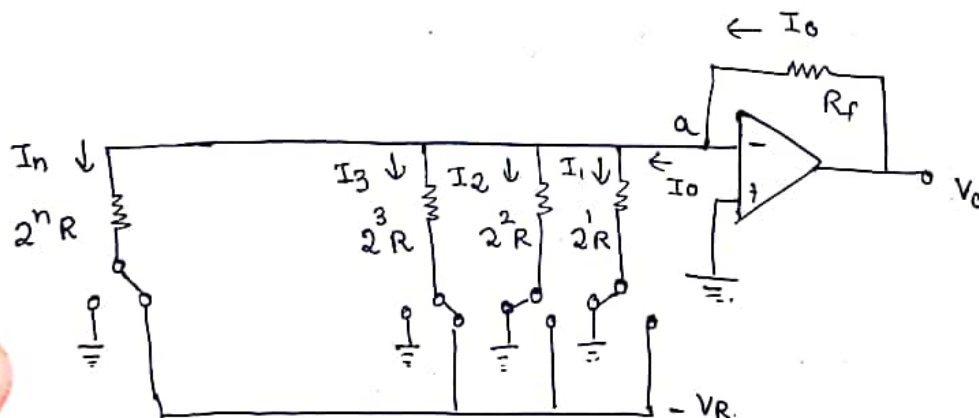
### DATA CONVERSION DEVICES

for processing, transmission & storage, it is often convenient to express analog values in digital form because it gives better accuracy and reduces noise

#### DAC Types

- (i) weighted resistor DAC
- (ii) R-2R ladder
- (iii) Inverted R-2R ladder.

#### WEIGHTED RESISTOR DAC



Summing amplifier with binary weighted resistor network. It has  $n$  - electronic switches  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n$  connected by binary input word. They are single pole double throw (SPDT) type. If binary i/p is 1, it connects resistance to reference voltage ( $-V_R$ ). And if input bit is 0, switch connects resistor to ground.

$$I_0 = I_1 + I_2 + \dots + I_n$$

$$= \frac{V_R}{2^n R} d_1 + \frac{V_R}{2^{n-1} R} d_2 + \dots + \frac{V_R}{2^1 R} d_n$$

$d_1 d_2 \dots d_n$  -  $n$  bit binary word.

$$\therefore = \frac{V_R}{R} [d_1 2^{-1} + d_2 2^{-2} + \dots + d_n 2^{-n}]$$

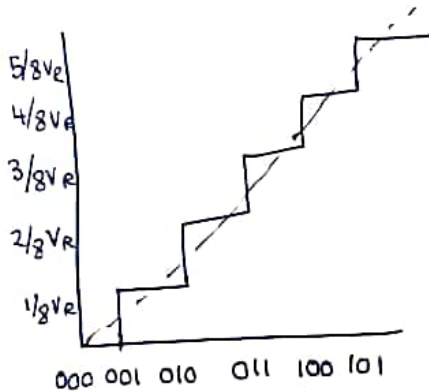
output voltage

$$V_o = I_o R_f$$

$$= V_R \frac{R_f}{R} [d_1 2^{-1} + d_2 2^{-2} + \dots + d_n 2^{-n}]$$

reference voltage is  $-V_R$

$\therefore$  positive staircase is obtained



Circuit shown is connected in inverting mode.

It can also be connected in non inverting mode.

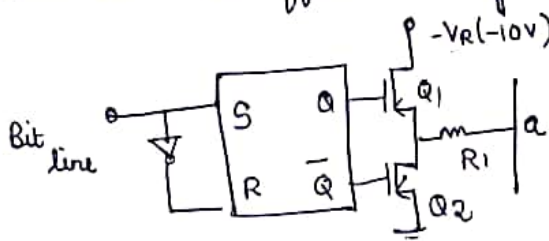
op-amp acts as I to V converter.

Accuracy & Stability of DAC depends on accuracy of resistors

disadv (i) wide range of resistors used.

(ii) for better resolution binary word length should be large.

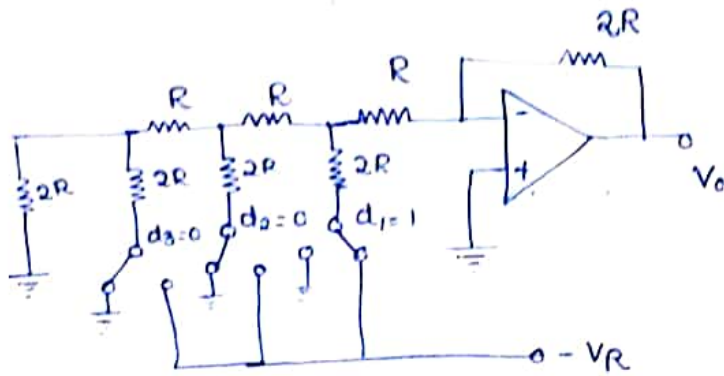
Bipolar transistors do not perform well as voltage switches hence by using totem pole MOSFET SWITCH low ON resistance & zero offset voltage can be achieved





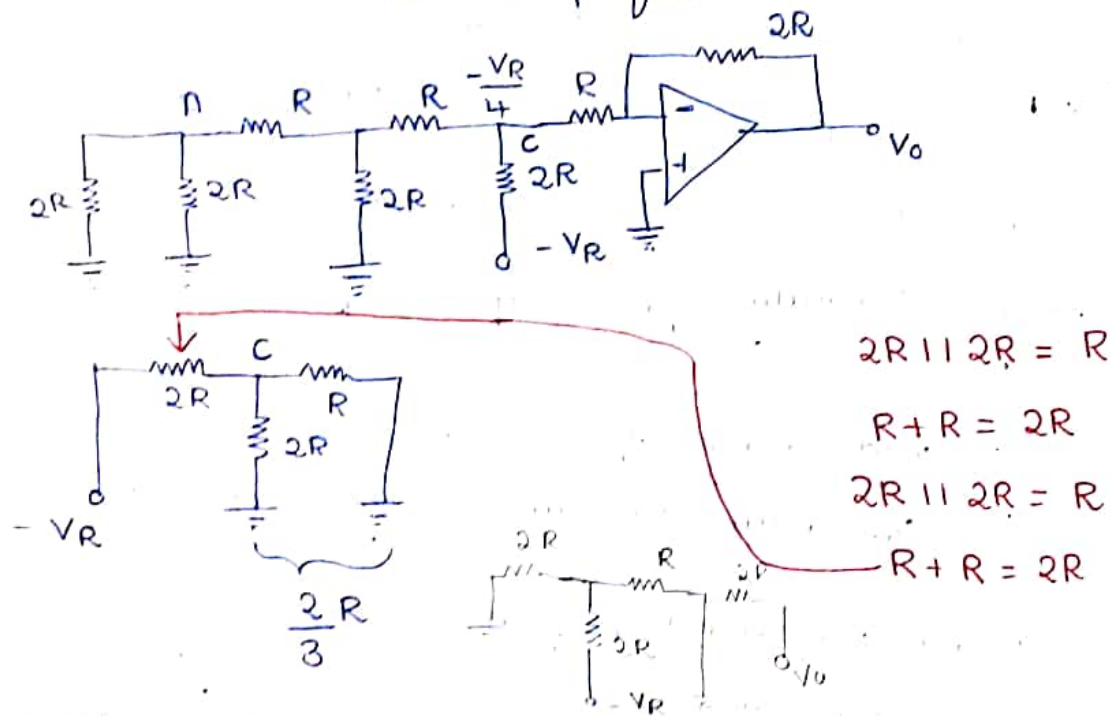
## R-2R LADDER DAC

wide range of resistors are required in binary weighted resistor type DAC. This is avoided by using R-2R ladder type DAC where only two values of resistors are required. consider 3 bit DAC as shown below.



Switch position  $d_1, d_2, d_3$  corresponds to binary word 100

The circuit can be simplified as shown below

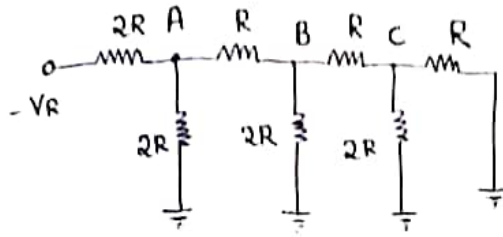


voltage at node c can be calculated as

$$\frac{-V_R \left( \frac{2R}{3} \right)}{2R + \frac{2R}{3}} = -\frac{V_R}{4}$$



The output voltage:  $V_0 = -\frac{2R}{D} \left( -\frac{VR}{1} \right) = VR = V_{FS}$



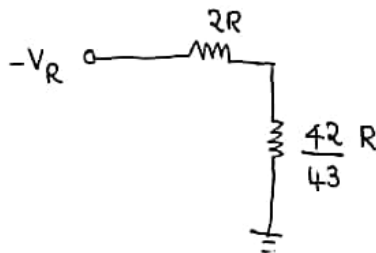
At A  $(R \parallel 2R) = \frac{2R^2}{3R} = \frac{2R}{3}$  ; series with R

$$\frac{2R}{3} + R = \frac{5R}{3} ; \parallel \text{ with } 2R$$

$$\frac{\left(\frac{5R}{3}\right) 2R}{\frac{5R}{3} + 2R} = \frac{10R}{11}$$

series with R ;  $\frac{10R}{11} + R = \frac{21R}{11}$

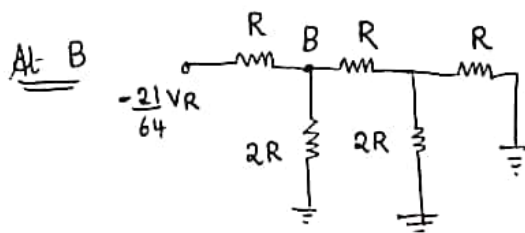
$$\parallel \text{ to } 2R ; \frac{\left(\frac{21R}{11}\right) 2R}{\frac{21R}{11} + 2R} = \frac{42R}{43}$$

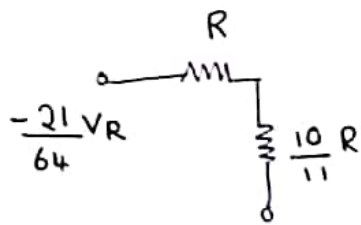


$$\text{voltage at A} = -VR \times \frac{\frac{42R}{43}}{\frac{42R}{43} + 2R}$$

$$= -VR \times \frac{21}{128} \times \frac{42}{43}$$

$$V_A = -\frac{21}{64} VR$$

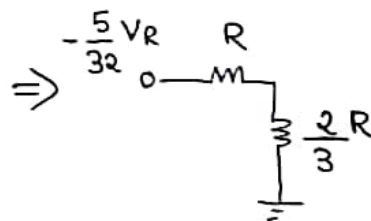
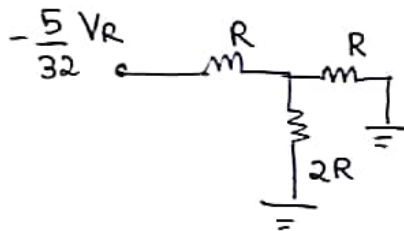




$$V_B = \frac{-\frac{21}{64} V_R \times \frac{10}{11} R}{\frac{10}{11} R + R}$$

$$= \frac{-\frac{21}{64} V_R \times \frac{10}{11} R}{\frac{21}{11} R}$$

$$= -\frac{10 V_R}{64} = -\frac{5}{32} V_R$$

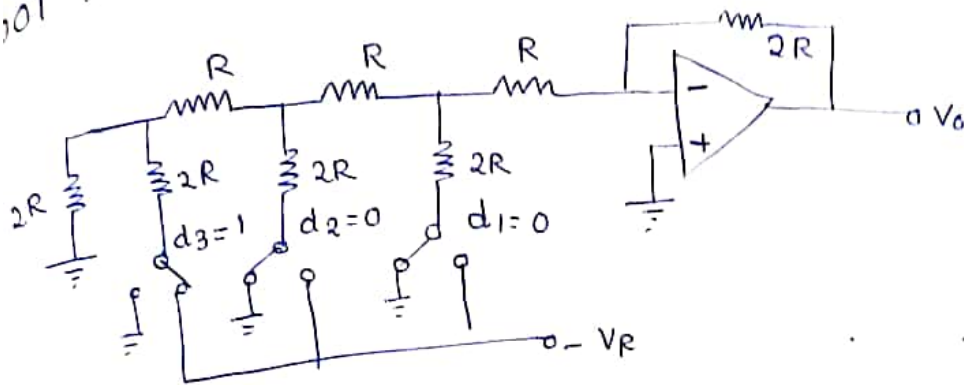


$$\Rightarrow V_C = \frac{-\frac{5}{32} \times \frac{2}{3} R}{\frac{2}{3} R + R} = \frac{-\frac{5}{32} \times \frac{2}{3} R}{\frac{5}{3} R}$$

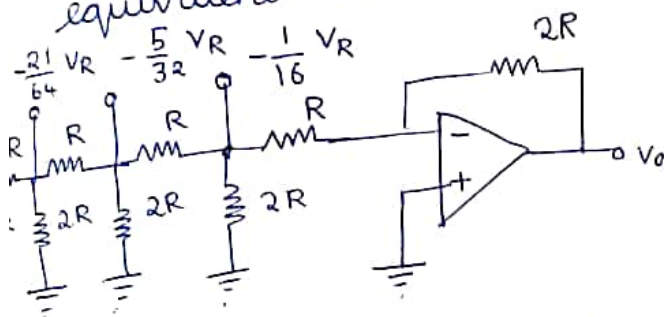
$$V_C = -\frac{1}{16} V_R$$

The output voltage  $V_0 = -\frac{2R}{R} \left( -\frac{V_R}{4} \right) = \frac{V_R}{2} = \frac{V_{FS}}{2}$

The switch position corresponding to binary word 101 in 3 bit DAC is shown in circuit below



equivalent circuit is



The output voltage eqn for this circuit is given by.

$$V_0 = -\frac{2R}{R} \left( -\frac{V_R}{16} \right) = \frac{V_R}{8} = \frac{V_{FS}}{8}$$

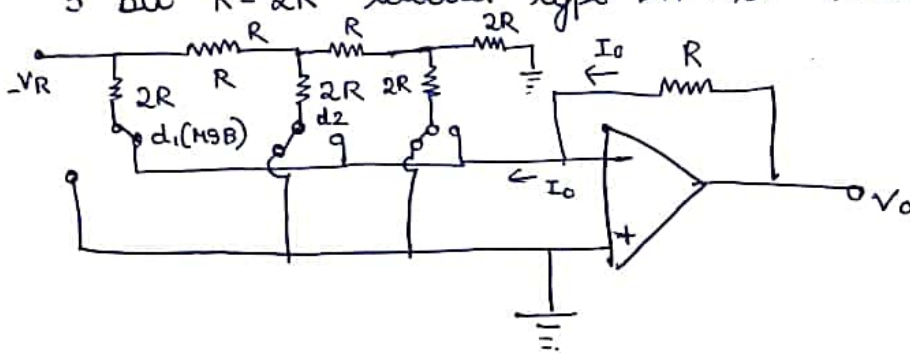
In similar fashion, output voltage for R-2R ladder type DAC corresponding to other 3 bit binary words can be calculated.

## INVERTED R-2R LADDER

In weighted resistor type DAC and R-2R ladder type DAC, current flowing in resistor changes as input data changes.

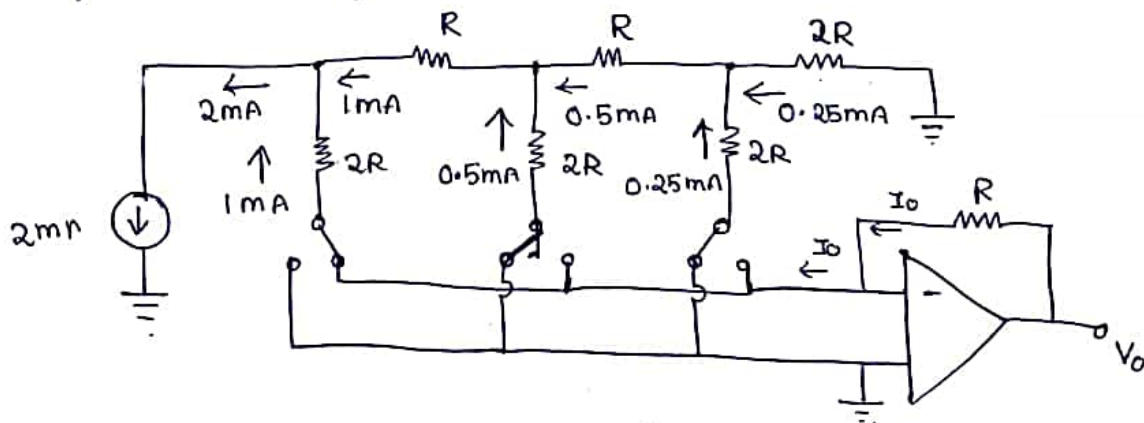
More power dissipation causes heating, which in turn creates non linearity in DAC.

3 bit R-2R ladder type DAC is shown below



each input binary word corresponds switch either to ground or to inverting input terminal of opamp which is at virtual ground.

Since both terminals of switches  $d_i$  are at ground potential, current flowing in the resistances is constant and independent of switch position (a) independent of input binary word.



The circuit has important property that the current divides equally at each of the nodes. This is because equivalent resistance to the right or to the left of any node is exactly  $2R$ .

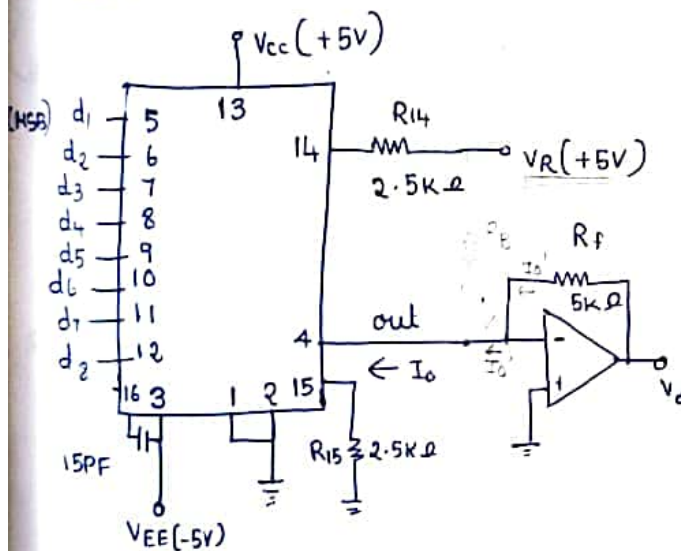
equal division of current in successive nodes ~~adder~~ remains the same in Inverted R-2R ladder irrespective of input binary word.  
constant current implies constant voltage, the ladder node voltages remains constant at  $\frac{V_R}{2^0}, \frac{V_R}{2^1}, \frac{V_R}{2^2}$

Most important advantage is that since ladder node voltage remains constant, the stray capacitance are not able to produce slow down effects on performance of circuit

Switches are SPDT Switches

### MONOLITHIC DAC

Monolithic DAC consist of R-2R ladder, Switches & feedback resistors. 8, 10, 12, 14 & 16 bit resolution are available for various manufacturers.



It has 8 data lines  $d_1$  to  $d_8$

It requires 2mA reference current for full scale i/p & two power supplies  $V_{CC}=+5V$  &  $V_{EE}=-5V$

Reference current is determined by resistor  $R_{14}$  &  $V_R$

$$I_R = \frac{V_R}{R_{14}} = \frac{5V}{2.5K} = 2mA$$

$R_{15} = R_{14}$  match i/p impedance of reference source.

$$I_0 = \frac{V_R}{R_{14}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^8 d_i 2^{-i} \right); d_i = 0 \text{ or } 1$$

for full scale i/p  $d_8$  through  $d_1 = 1$



$$\therefore I_0 = \frac{5V}{2.5K\Omega} \left( \sum_{i=1}^8 1 \times 2^{-i} \right) = 2mA \left( \frac{255}{256} \right) = 1.992mA$$

o/p voltage for full scale i/p is

$$V_0 = 2mA \left( 255/256 \right) \times 5K\Omega$$

$$V_0 = 9.961V$$

In general o/p voltage is given by

$$V_0 = \frac{V_R}{R_{14}} \cdot R_f \left[ \frac{d_1}{2} + \frac{d_2}{4} + \dots + \frac{d_8}{256} \right]$$

The DAC can be calibrated for bipolar range from -5V to +5V by adding  $R_B$  between  $V_R$  & o/p pin 4.

$R_B = 5K\Omega$  ;  $\therefore$  current supplied  $(= V_R/R_B = 1mA)$  in opposite direction of current generated by i/p signal.

$$\therefore I_0' = I_0 - (V_R/R_B) = (V_R/R_{14}) \left( \sum_{i=1}^8 d_i 2^{-i} \right) - (V_R/R_B)$$

for binary i/p word = 00000000

o/p voltage

$$V_0 = I_0' R_f = (I_0 - V_R/R_B) R_f = \left( 0 - \frac{5V}{5K\Omega} \right) \times 5K\Omega$$

$$= -5V$$

for binary i/p word = 10000000

$$\begin{aligned} V_0 &= (I_0 - V_R/R_B) R_f = \left[ \left( \frac{V_R}{R_{14}} \right) \left( \frac{d_1}{2} \right) - \left( \frac{V_R}{R_B} \right) \right] R_f \\ &= \left[ \left( \frac{5V}{2.5K\Omega} \right) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) - \left( \frac{5V}{5K\Omega} \right) \right] 5K\Omega \\ &= [1mA - 1mA] 5K\Omega = 0V \end{aligned}$$

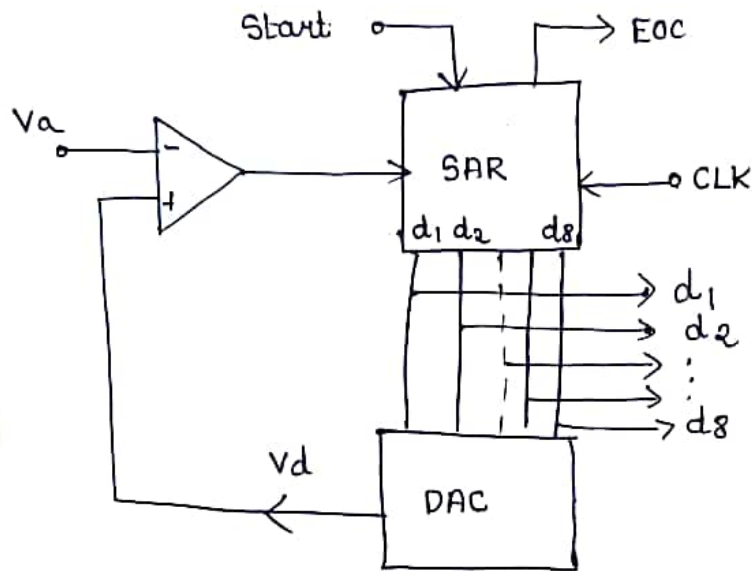
for binary input word = 11111111

$$\begin{aligned}V_o &= \left[ \left( \frac{V_R}{R_{14}} \right) \left( \frac{255}{256} \right) - \left( \frac{V_R}{R_B} \right) \right] R_f \\&= [1.9992 \text{ mA} - 1 \text{ mA}] 5 \text{ k}\Omega \\&= 0.992 \text{ mA} \times 5 \text{ k}\Omega \\&= +4.960 \text{ V}\end{aligned}$$

## SUCCESSIVE APPROXIMATION ADC

Successive approximation technique uses a very efficient code search strategy to complete  $n$ -bit conversion in  $n$ -clock periods.

eight bit converter requires eight clock pulses to obtain a digital o/p



circuit uses SAR (Successive approximation register) to find the required value of each bit by trial & error.

With the arrival of "Start" command, SAR sets MSB  $d_1 = 1$  with all other bits Zero so that the trial code is 1000 0000.

O/p  $V_d$  of DAC is now compared with analog i/p  $V_a$

If  $V_a > V_d$ , then 1000 0000 is less than correct digital representation

MSB is left at '1' and next MSB is made '1' & further tested

If  $V_a < V_d$ , then 10000000 is greater than correct digital representation.  
 So reset MSB to '0' & go to next lower significant bit

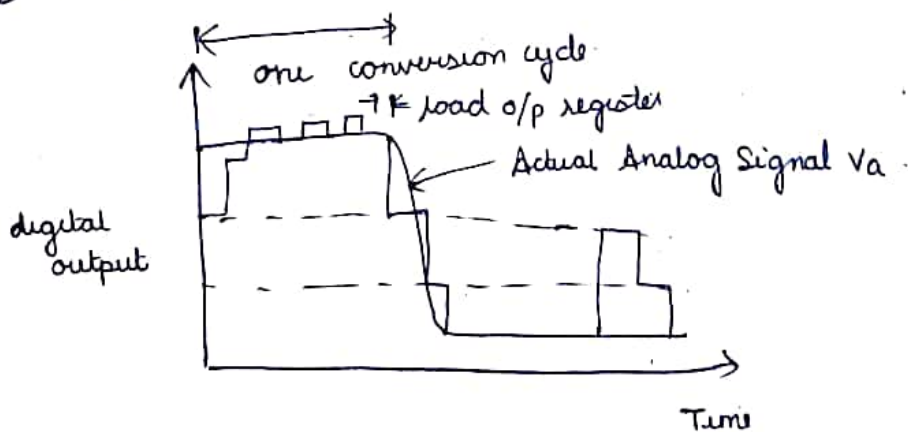
The procedure is repeated for all subsequent bits one at a time, until all bit positions have been

- tested

correct digital representation	( $V_d$ ) SAR o/p at different stages in conversion	comparator o/p.
11010100	10000000	1
	11000000	1
	11100000	0
	11010000	1
	11011000	0
	11010100	1
	11010110	0
	11010101	0
	11010100	

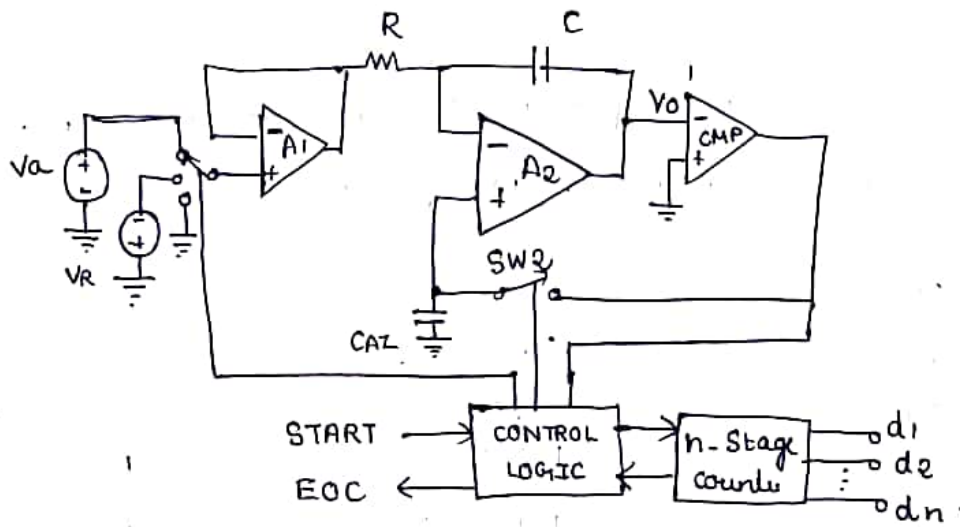
It requires eight pulses to establish the accurate output regardless of the value of analog input

one additional clock is used to load the output register and reinitializing the circuit



# DUAL SLOPE ADC

- Integrating type ADC



$A_1 \rightarrow$  high input impedance buffer

$A_2 \rightarrow$  precision integrator

CMP - voltage comparator

The converter first integrates the analog input signal  $V_a$  for fixed duration of  $2^n$  clock periods.

Then it integrates an internal reference voltage  $V_R$  of opposite polarity until integrator output is zero.

The Number of clock cycles  $N$  required to return the integrator to zero is proportional to value of  $V_a$  averaged over the integration period.

Hence  $N$  represents desired o/p code.

~~Before~~ Before START command arrives,  $SW_1$  is connected to ground &  $SW_2$  is closed.

Any offset voltage present in  $A_1, A_2$ , comparator loop after integration, appears across  $V_{cal}$  till the threshold of the comparator is achieved.



Thus CAZ provides automatic compensation for input offset voltages of all the three amplifiers.

Later when  $SW_2$  opens, CAZ acts as memory to hold the voltage required to keep the offset null.

At arrival of START, at  $t=t_1$ , control logic opens  $SW_2$  and connects  $SW_1$  to  $V_a$  and enables counter starting from zero.

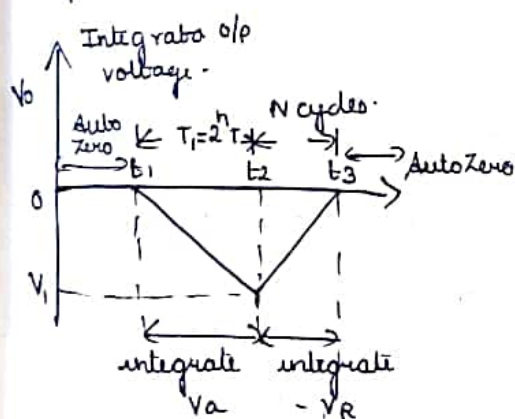
$n$ -Stage counter is used, therefore counter resets to zero after counting  $2^n$  pulses.

$V_a$  is integrated for fixed number  $2^n$  counts of clock pulses after which the counter resets to zero.

If clock period is  $T$ , integration takes place for time  $T_1 = 2^n \times T$  and o/p is ramp going downwards.

counter resets after  $T_1$  &  $SW_1$  is connected to reference voltage  $V_R$ .

The output voltage  $V_o$  will now have a positive slope.



As long as  $V_o$  is -ve, o/p of comparator is +ve and control logic allows the clock pulse to be counted.

$V_o = 0$  at  $t=t_3$ , the control logic issues EOC.

& no further clock pulse enters the counter.

Reading of counter at  $t_3$  is proportional to analog input voltage  $V_a$ .

$$T_1 = t_2 - t_1 = \frac{2^n \text{ counts}}{\text{clock rate}}$$

$$t_3 - t_2 = \frac{\text{digital count } N}{\text{clock rate}}$$

for integrator,

$$\Delta V_0 = \left(-\frac{1}{RC}\right) V(\Delta t)$$

$V_0 = V_1$  at  $t_2$  & can be written as

$$V_1 = (-1/RC) V_a(t_2 - t_1)$$

voltage  $V_1$  is also given by

$$V_1 = (-1/RC) (-V_R)(t_2 - t_3)$$

$$\text{So, } V_a(t_2 - t_1) = V_R(t_3 - t_2)$$

$$\text{put } t_2 - t_1 = 2^n ; t_3 - t_2 = N$$

$$\therefore V_a(2^n) = V_R(N)$$

$$V_a = V_R(N/2^n)$$

(i)  $V_R$  &  $n$  are constant;  $V_a$  & count reading  $N$  & is independent of  $R, C$  and  $T$

(ii) dual Slope ADC integrates input signal for fixed time, hence it provides excellent noise rejection.

(iii) disadvantage : long conversion time

### applications

- (i) accurate measurement of slowly varying signals.  
such as thermocouples & weighing scales.