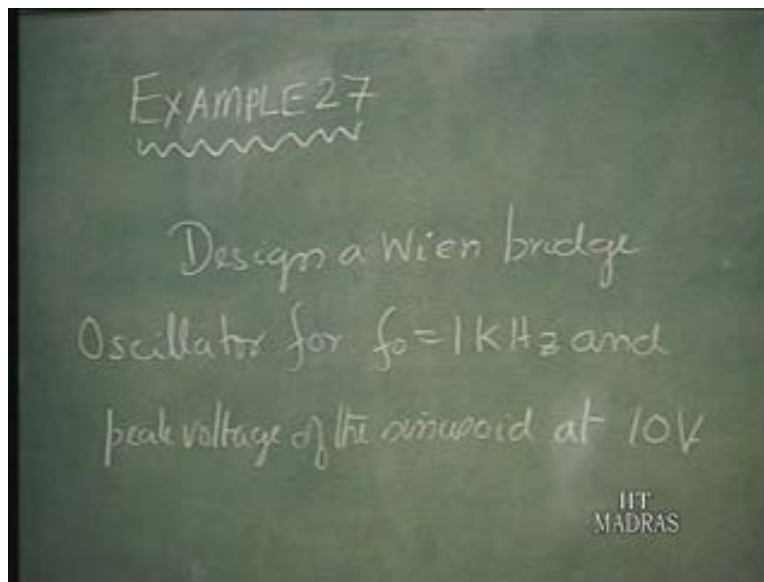


Electronics for Analog Signal Processing - II
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Department of Electrical Engineering
Indian Institute of Technology – Madras

Lecture - 35
AGC/AVC (Continued)
Amplitude Stabilization of Oscillators & Multiplier Applications

In the last class, we discussed about A G C and A V C and also started mentioning the fact that the same system can be utilized in amplitude stabilization of oscillators. We have shown how that can be indicated by adjusting the loop gain to be exactly equal to 1, when the phase shift is... the required value, zero.

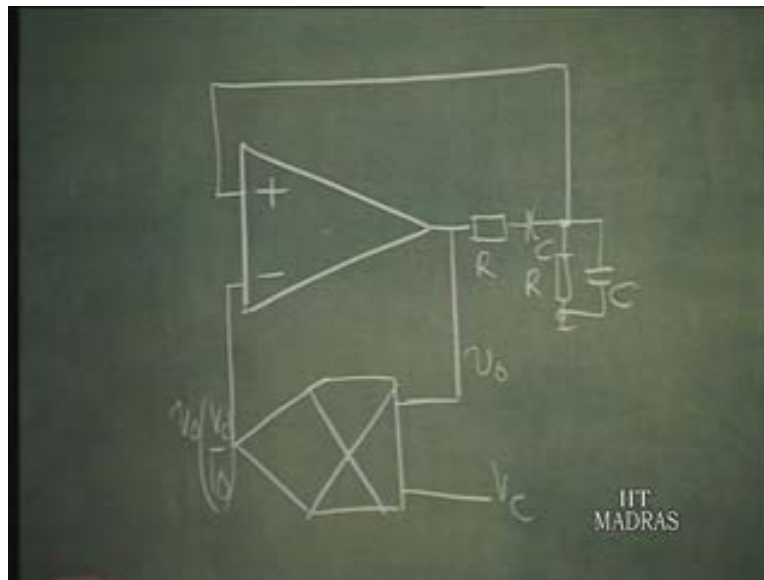
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Now, a problem illustrates how this can be achieved in a wien bridge oscillator for oscillating at a frequency of 1 Kilo hertz with a peak voltage of the sinusoid at 10 volts. So, the basic configuration let us draw.

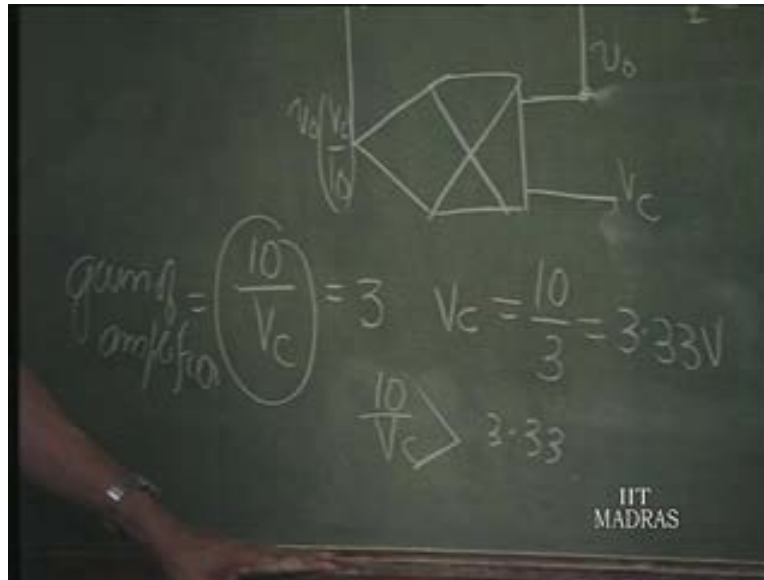
Wien bridge oscillator uses an R C network for fixing up the frequency. R, C, R, C. And that is used in the feedback path; and we have to have a gain fixed at 3 and that is, let us say being done by a multiplier put in the feedback path. So, the Beta of the network is determined by the multiplier as...in fact, if this is V_{naught} , this is going to be V_{naught} into V_c by 10. So, the gain of this is going to depend upon the Beta factor which is V_c by 10.

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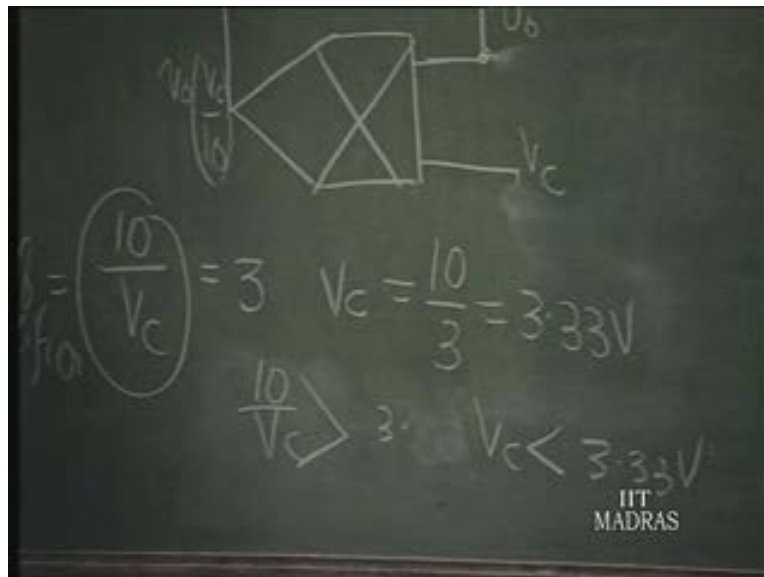
And therefore, since the gain of this amplifier is 1 over Beta, the gain of the amplifier is 10 by V_c . This should be exactly equal to 3 for the amplitude to be stabilized at exactly equal to 10 volts. So, at 10 volts, the gain should be 3; or V_c should be equal to 10 by 3 or 3 point 33, so on...volts. But prior to that, most probably it was not oscillating when it was switched on. It should build up. That means the gain should be greater than...gain...gain of the amplifier. So, this should be greater than this 3 point 33.

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That is, the gain should be greater than 3. Let us say therefore, V_c should be less than 3 point 33 volts. Gain should be greater than 3 and therefore V_c should be less than 3 point 33 volts.

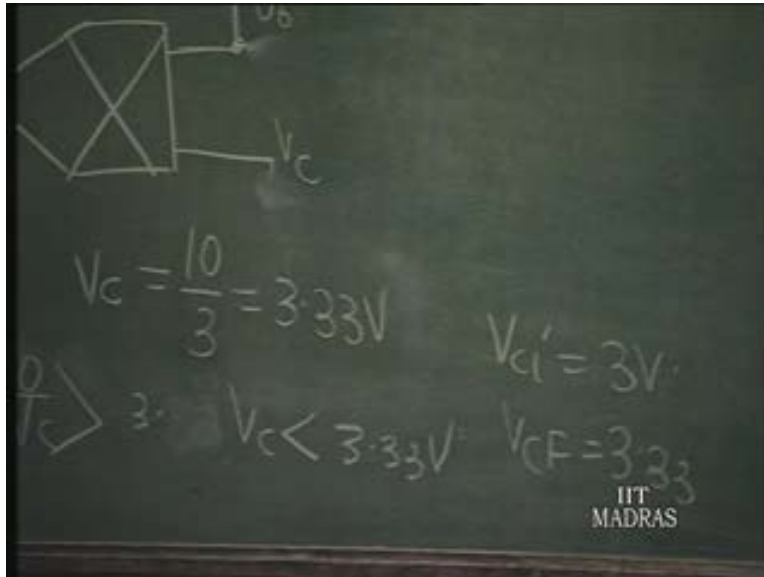
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So, let us say it should start at 3 volts or so. We can now put our A G C, A V C system here such that to start with, this voltage is somewhere around 3 volts let us say; and then

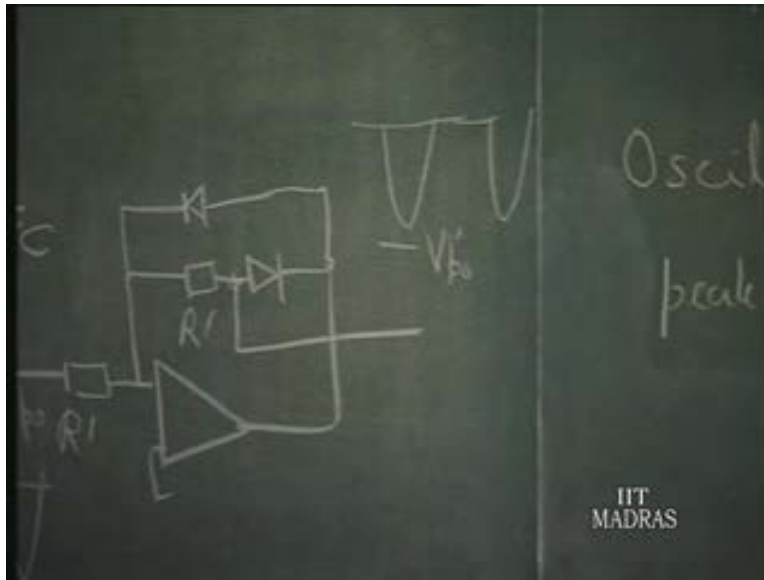
it goes on to 3 point 33. So, we can have an arrangement where V_c starts with, let us say 3. V_c initial is 3 and V_c final is 3 point 33, let us say. So, we must have an arrangement like that. This is necessary for us to start the oscillation.

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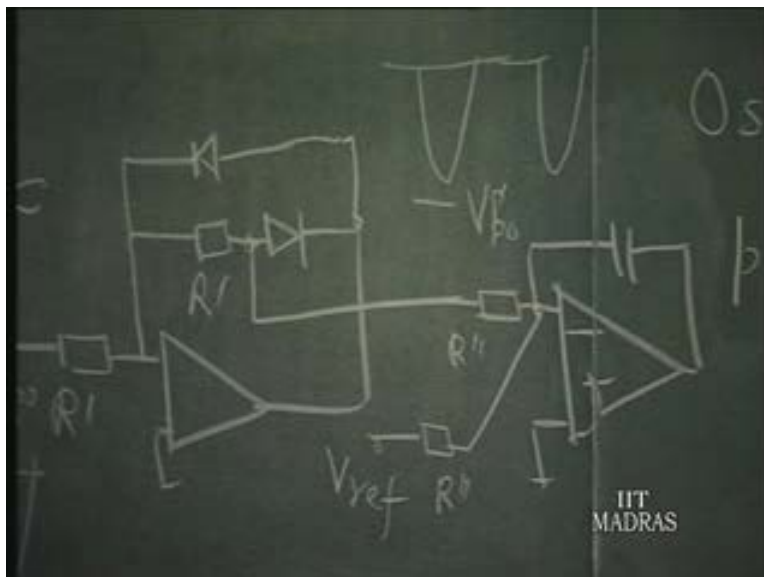
So, let us therefore put our usual A G C scheme where we have put a precision rectifier. So, it will rectify the half wave here. So, we get negative going half wave here. If this is, let us say R_{dash} , this should be R_{dash} . So, if this is a sinusoid like this with peak like this, V_{peak} naught, this will be the negative half wave, wave like this, minus V_{op} here.

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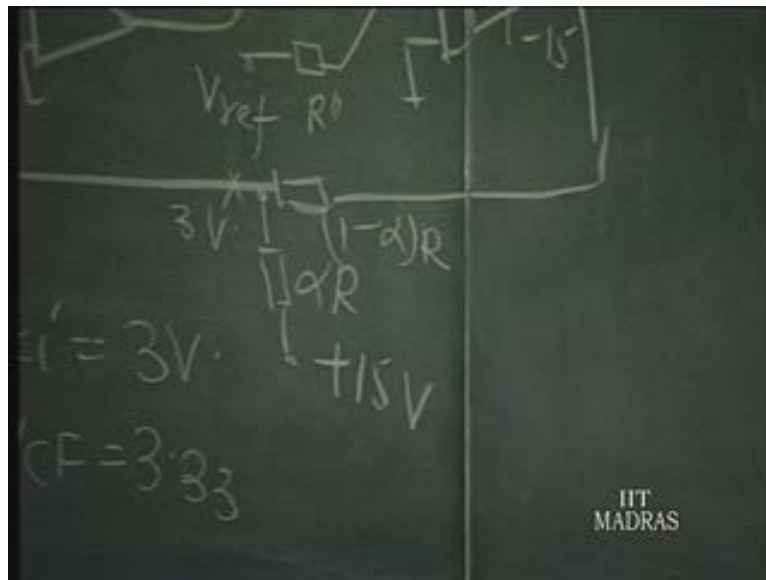
And then we put the low pass filter which is now converted into an integrator. We have seen this, the Miller effect and all comes into picture; R double dash. And we will put a voltage reference here. Since this is negative, it will give a negative average; voltage reference should be positive. So, at the time of starting, this has no voltage here; amplitude has not built up. So, there is V reference which is positive. This will be driven to negative saturation.

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Let us say, the supply voltage is plus 15, minus 15 for this op-amp. So, it will go to minus 15 volts here. So, this minus 15 volts has to be converted into something suitable so that V_c becomes equal to your 3 volts so that it can start oscillating. So, we will put an attenuator here. So, we will connect here plus 15 volts let us say. So, this voltage becomes 3 volts initially. That means this αR , this is $1 - \alpha$ times R , an attenuator.

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So, the voltage here is minus 15 into α plus $1 - \alpha$ into 15. Minus 15 into α comes here. Due to this plus 15, we have $1 - \alpha$ times that. That should be equal to 3 volts. So...which is nothing but $1 - 2\alpha$ into 15 is equal to 3 volts; or, $1 - 2\alpha$ is 3 by 15; so, which is 1 by 5. So, 2α is equal to $1 - 1/5$ which is $4/5$. Therefore α is equal to $4/10$ which is point 4.

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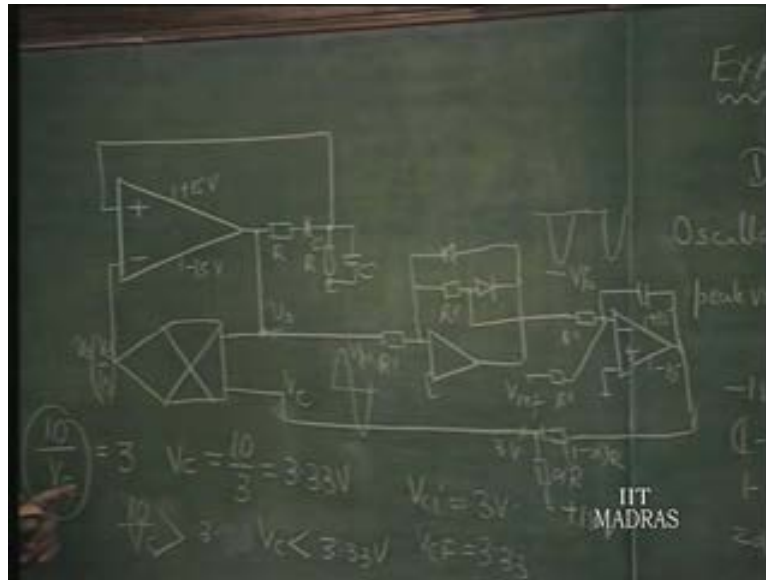
The image shows a chalkboard with the following handwritten equations and steps:

$$-15\alpha + (1-\alpha)15 = 3V$$
$$(1-2\alpha)15 = 3$$
$$1-2\alpha = \frac{3}{15}$$
$$2\alpha = \frac{4}{15}$$
$$\alpha = 0.4$$

The value $\alpha = 0.4$ is underlined twice. In the bottom right corner of the chalkboard, the text "IIT MADRAS" is visible.

So, if Alpha is point 4, the voltage here is going to be at 3 volts. Now what happens? The amplitude starts building here from zero. This negative voltage keeps increasing; and this negative voltage keeps increasing means it is not applied to minus. So, this will become more positive. So, from 3 volts it will keep increasing. So, it becomes more positive. So, it might become 3 point 1. Amplitude is still increasing. 3 point 2, 3 point... Ultimately, it will go to 3 point 33 at which point, once when this becomes 3 point 33 automatically, what happens is the gain is exactly equal to 3 for this stage.

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Further amplitude build-up will not occur because now the amplitude is going to be such that V_{ref} is going to be equal to V_p naught by π for this kind of relationship. And therefore, if we want output voltage peak amplitude of 10 volts; that divided by π should be the voltage reference that you have to connect here. 10 by π here. This is one answer. What is that equal to? About 3 point... 3 point 18 volt.

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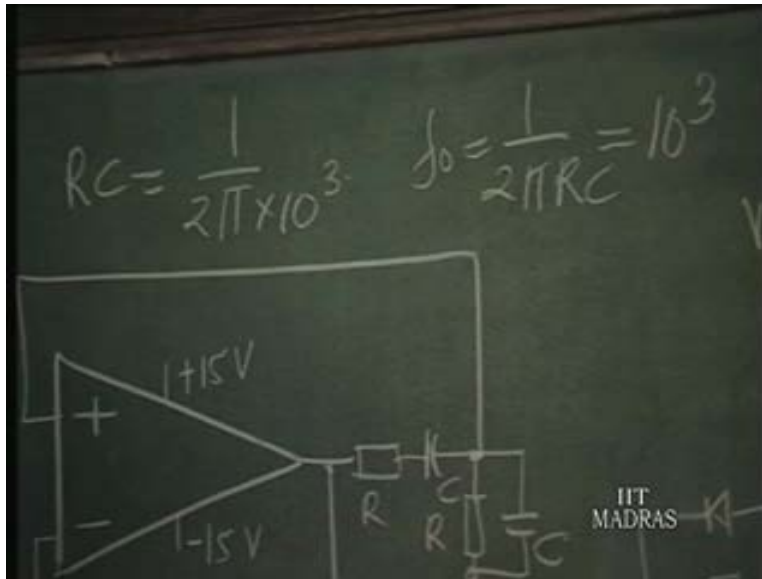
The equation shown is:

$$V_{ref} = \frac{V_{po}}{\pi} = \frac{10}{\pi} = \underline{\underline{3.18V}}$$

The result 3.18V is underlined. The circuit diagram from the previous slide is partially visible at the bottom.

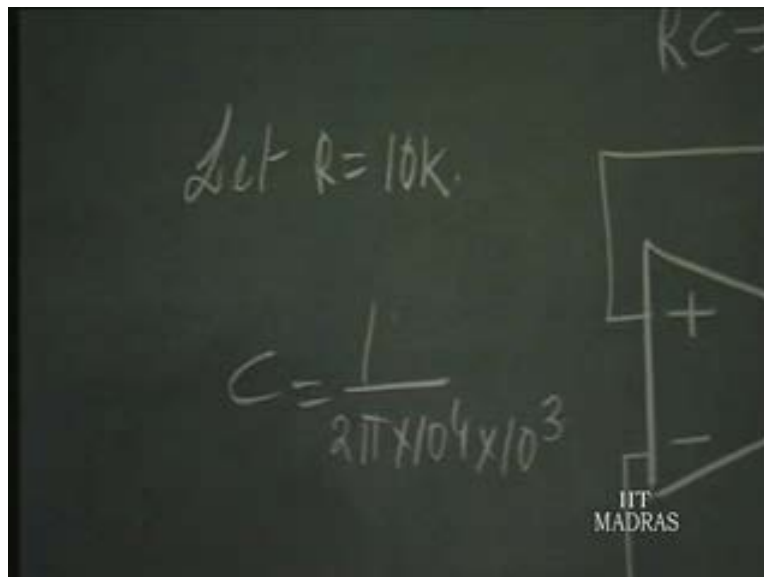
So, if you apply that voltage here, then the amplitude is automatically going to be adjusted to exactly 10 volts peak. Now, one...only one thing is left out. The frequency f ought is equal to $\frac{1}{2\pi RC}$. That is required to be 1 Kilo hertz. So, 10^3 hertz. So, RC is going to be equal to $\frac{1}{2\pi \times 10^3}$.

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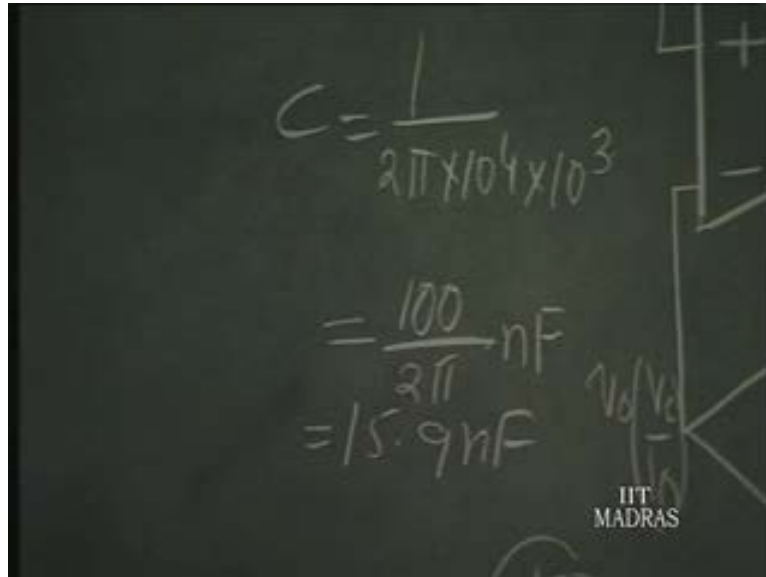
Let us select R as 10 K.

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So, C is going to be...let R be equal to 10 K. Then C is equal to $2\pi \times 10^4$ to power 4 into 10^3 , which is equal to...this is nanofarad. So, let us say, 100 by 2π nanofarads which is equal to 15.9 nanofarad. Is it correct?

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$$C = \frac{1}{2\pi \times 10^4 \times 10^3}$$
$$= \frac{100}{2\pi} \text{ nF}$$
$$= 15.9 \text{ nF}$$

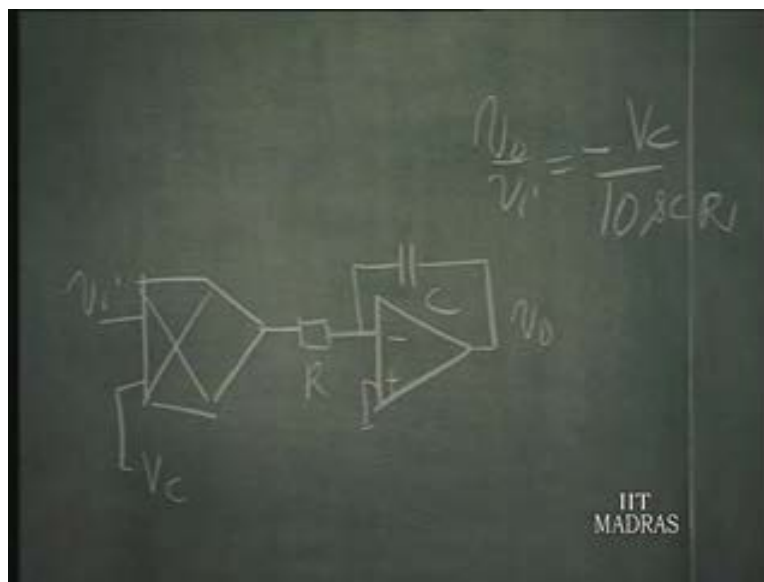
So, we will now discuss what is called as voltage controlled oscillator. It is an important circuit which is basically used for F M generation. We had seen earlier how multiplier can be used for A M generation, for example. In fact, the circuit that we have just now discussed in example...earlier example itself can be used for A M generation because we know that we are able to build sort of an oscillator to oscillate at a certain frequency. In that example, it was 1 Kilo hertz.

Let us suppose that is the carrier frequency and you want to modulate the amplitude of the carrier. So, you simply vary the V reference based on the modulating frequency. So, now you will get at the output an amplitude modulated sort of carrier at 1 Kilo hertz. So, this is very easy to generate, A M, using such amplitude stabilized oscillator. So, you just simply vary the V reference by a modulating frequency. Automatically, you will have an amplitude which is controlled by the modulating frequency; so it will become an A M.

If you want an F M to be generated on the other hand, you have to have control over frequency and this can be done by using the following circuit. We had earlier discussed circuits which can generate voltage controlled oscillators by using multiplier. You can actually use double integrator loop oscillator, quadrature oscillator and triplage each integrator with multiplier integrator combination and obtain a voltage controlled oscillator.

For example, if an integrator is being used, R, C, and I put a multiplier along with it, this is V_c , this is V_i , this is V_{naught} . We know that V_{naught} over V_i is equal to minus V_c by $10scR$. This we had earlier itself indicated and we discussed filters and all that.

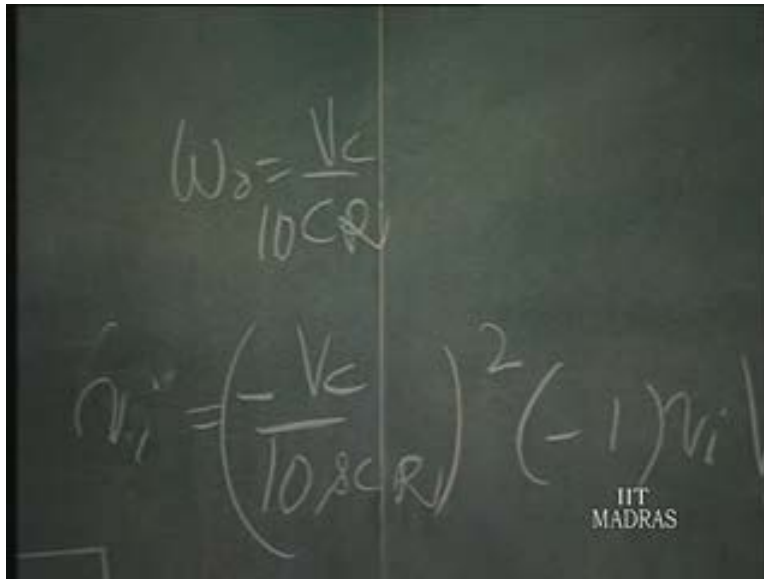
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Suppose therefore, we use another integrator like this and give it to the same V_c and put this integrator in the loop. So, we give the feedback now. This ideally speaking, should go into oscillation because minus V_c by $10scR$, if you start from here...so, that into V_i and that again squared...if you further integrate; and then with a negative sign, minus 1 inverter, is going to be equal to V_i . So, this into V_i is equal to V_i .

This can happen only at a certain frequency because $\Omega C R$ square will give you this with a negative sign because S square is going to be $J \Omega C R$ square. So, J square is minus 1. That gets cancelled. So, that happens at Ω equal to $1 / C R$ into V_c by 10.

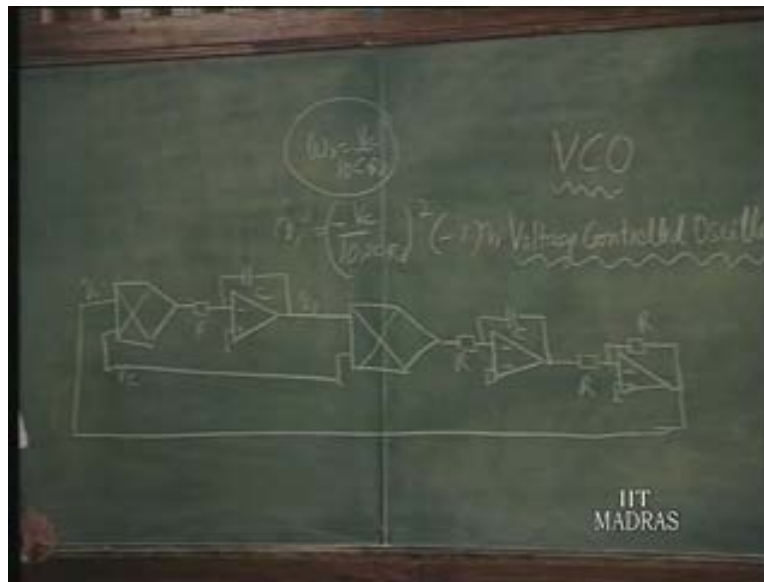
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$$\omega_o = \frac{V_c}{10CR}$$
$$v_o = \left(\frac{-V_c}{10sCR} \right)^2 (-1)v_i$$

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So, if you build an oscillator like this, it is a voltage controlled oscillator. It is linearly proportional to the control voltage. The frequency is linearly proportional to the control voltage.

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Only thing is this may not oscillate because of the non-ideality of the op-amp. So, what it means is there is certain amount of, let us say negative feedback here which might have to be countered by positive feedback from this side. So, you might have to give a positive feedback in order to make this go into oscillation; and you can bring about again the amplitude stabilization loop such that the positive feedback is there only when the amplitude is zero and the positive feedback gets compensated by the negative feedback exactly at the required amplitude.

All that can be done by using again a multiplier from here; we can put a multiplier here and then...So, this gives you negative feedback here. This one...this has given you fixed positive feedback so that initially this positive feedback only dominates. There is no negative feedback here.

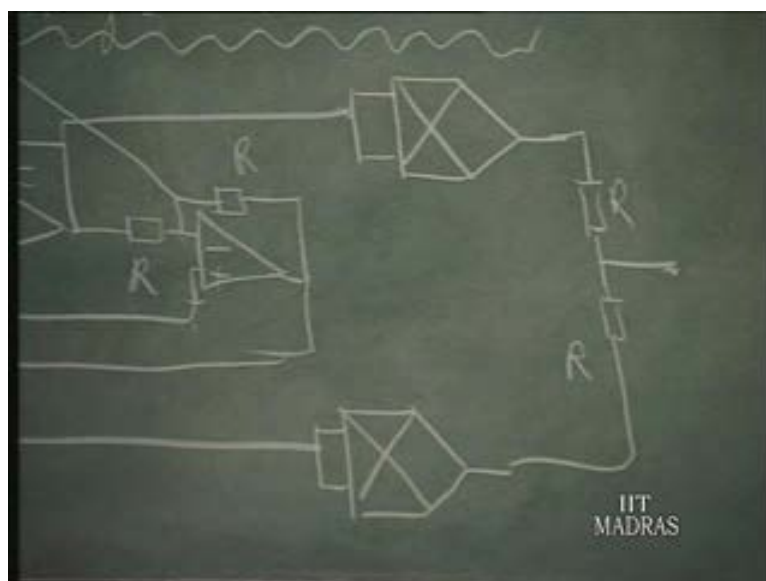
So, the control voltage is zero. That means this output is zero and only positive feedback exists and then this output builds up. V_c becomes positive and some portion of this is fed back here so that the negative feedback comes into picture. So, this is a voltage controlled oscillator with amplitude stabilization scheme possible. How do you stabilize amplitude once?

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In this particular circuit, you... if this is $V_p \sin \Omega T$, this output is going to be $V_p \cos \Omega T$ because this is integrator; and if this is $V_p \sin \Omega T$, this is going to be $V_p \cos \Omega T$ and therefore we can square these using multipliers and simply add. Therefore, the way to build this circuit is you just take these outputs, square these and add. Adding can be done by using just a resistive network like this.

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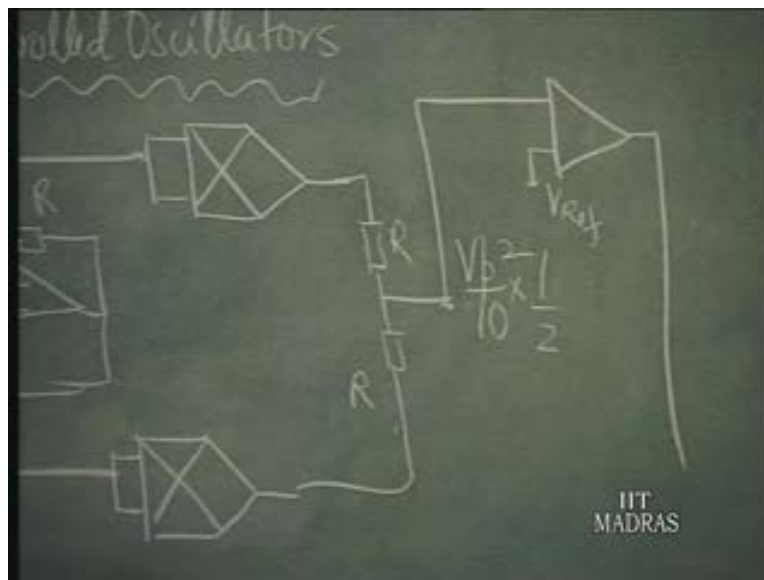


If this is done, this is $V_p \sin \Omega T$. This is $V_p \cos \Omega T$. So, what will be getting here will be V_p^2 by 10 divided by half, because of this resistive attenuator, into $\sin^2 \Omega T$ plus $\cos^2 \Omega T$, which is constant.

So, you get a D C voltage which is V_p^2 by 20 here straightaway without really using any rectifier. This is the uniqueness of this circuit. This is why it is called quadrature oscillator. These two outputs are at quadrature. That is, a phase shift of 90 degrees.

So, that can be exploited in getting an amplitude which is D C dependent upon the amplitude, V_p^2 by 20; and this can be therefore compared by means of this comparator. And we can actually... V reference we can put; and this can be used to control the...

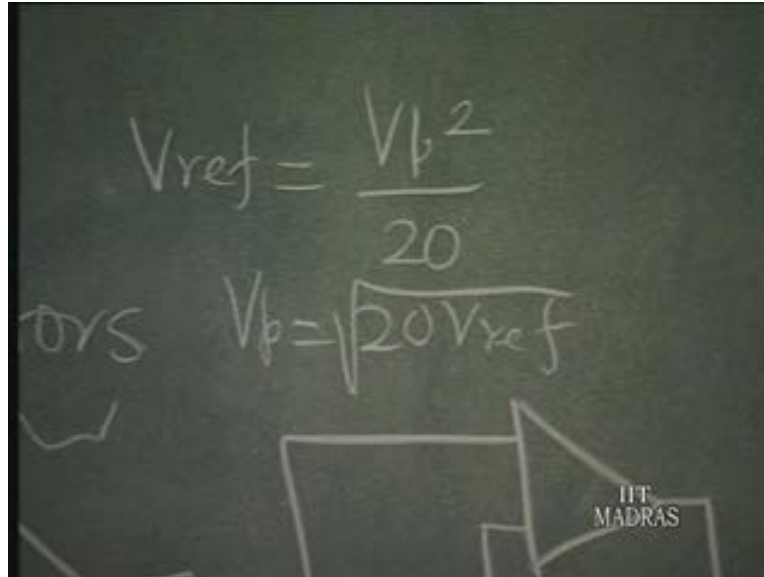
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You can see so many multipliers being freely used. These two multipliers are used in order to make the frequency become directly proportional to the control voltage. This, let us say, V_c is primarily for amplitude control. So, this is something that will control

the amplitude. Amplitude therefore is going to be V_{ref} . When that becomes equal to V_p square divided by 20.... So, V_p is 20 into V_{ref} under the root.

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$$V_{ref} = \frac{V_p^2}{20}$$
$$\text{OR } V_p = \sqrt{20 V_{ref}}$$

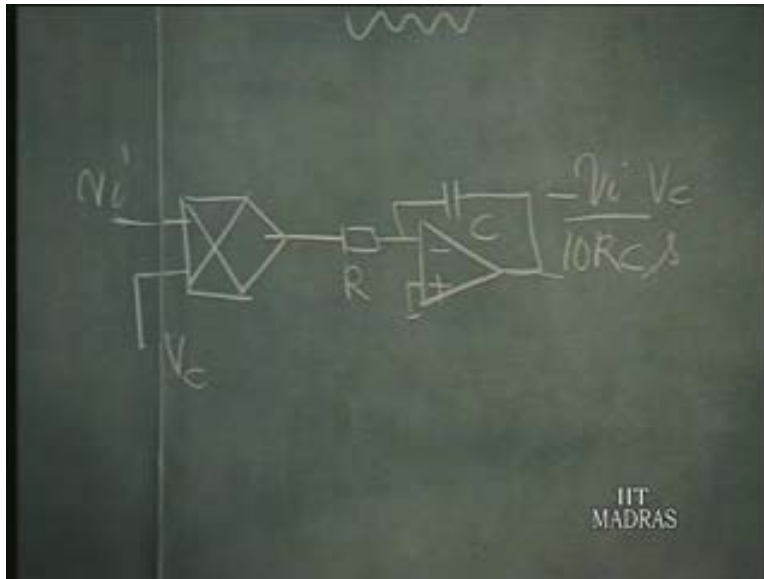
So, you can see that in order to build a good voltage controlled oscillator using this circuit, I have to use two multipliers in order to make it a linear voltage controlled oscillator and then must also stabilize the amplitude. This circuit therefore is not very popular. Only thing is it gives you a sine wave with linear voltage dependence of frequency.

You just now saw the complexity of the linear voltage controlled oscillator, if that has to be a sine wave, because it has to have a voltage amplitude stabilization scheme and the frequency should be directly proportional to voltage. Normally, the VCOs that are abundantly used are not sinusoidal. The reason being that it is pretty complicated to get VCOs which have stable amplitude and linear frequency control.

What is done is you use an integrator along with a Schmitt trigger. This we had already discussed in...we discussed a stable multivibrator; use of Schmitt trigger in generating wave forms.

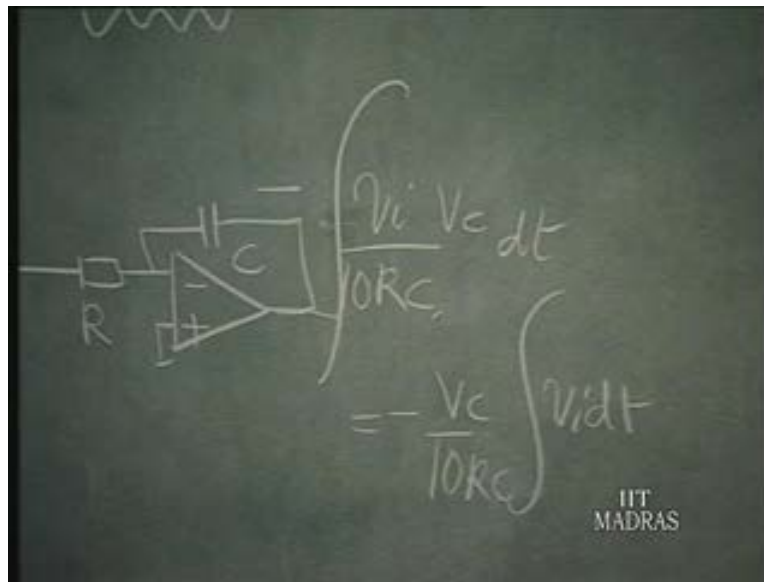
So, what we can do is put an integrator and then let this integrator have a multiplier so that the time constant of the integrator is again controlled by the multiplier. So this is R, this is C. So, if this is V_i , this is going to be V_i by R into V_c with a negative sign into S, integration.

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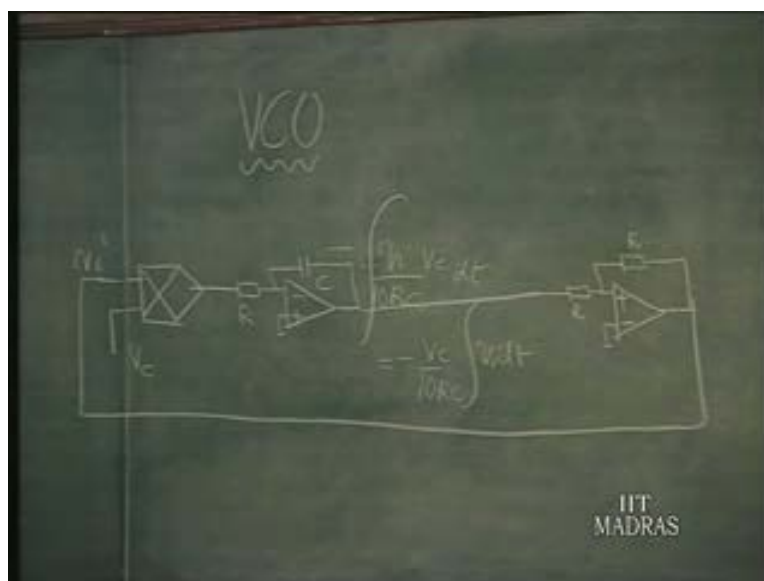
So, what it really does is that it will do integration $d t$. So, this is equal to minus V_c by $10 R C$ into integral $V_i d t$.

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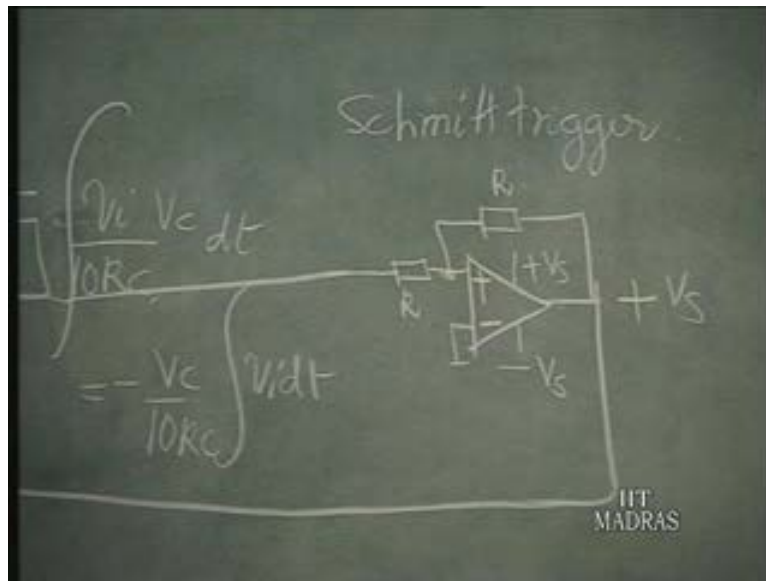
So now, we will do the time domain analysis rather than Laplace because this is going to be connected to a Schmitt trigger which is going to be a regenerative negative feedback circuit that we have discussed earlier. Let us say, this is now plus, positive feedback, local positive feedback is there; and therefore this is R. This is, let us say R and then this is now connected to the input. Let us see what happens?

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So, because there is regenerative positive feedback here, output has got to be either at plus V supply... Let us say this is plus V supply and this is minus V supply. Either plus V supply or minus V supply. It cannot be at any intermediate point because of the regenerative positive feedback. This is the Schmitt trigger.

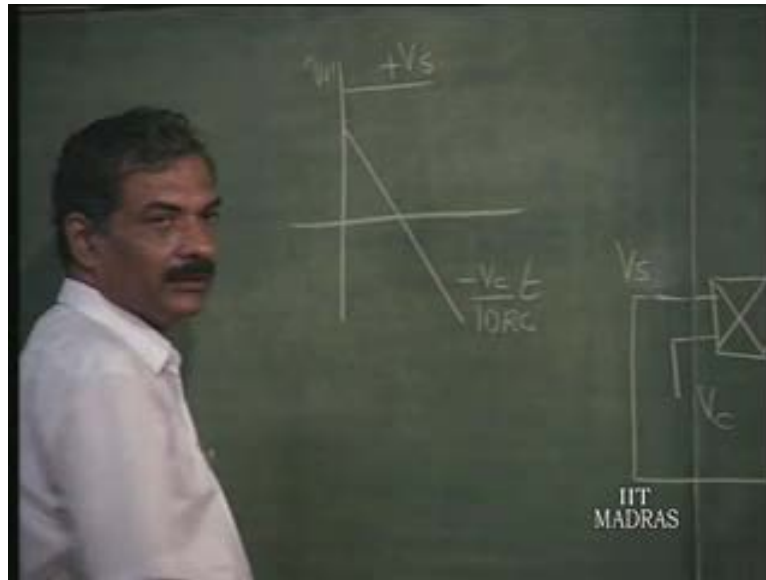
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So, if this is at V s, this voltage is V s. So, this particular thing is a constant voltage V s. So, it will integrate that. So, this is V s. So, it will be coming out of it and this will be simply T. That means this will be directly proportional to time; the voltage will be decreasing.

So, if this is V s, let us plot that. Let us call this V naught 1. Then, this is V naught 2. This is V naught 1 and V naught 2 is going to be decreasing like this, linearly. What will be the rate at which it is decreasing? It will be minus V c by 10 R c, minus V c by 10 R c into t. This is the way it is going to decrease.

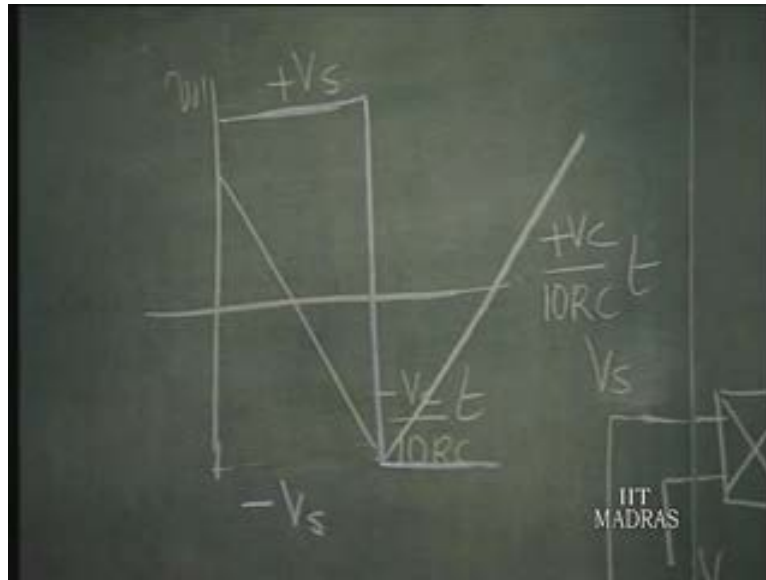
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So, this is going on decreasing. This voltage is plus V_s . As soon as this reaches minus V_s , this voltage is going to become zero. That is the state in which this Schmitt trigger is going to change state from minus to plus. So, it will go to minus...plus to minus here. So, this has gone to minus. So, this will go from plus to minus at that point.

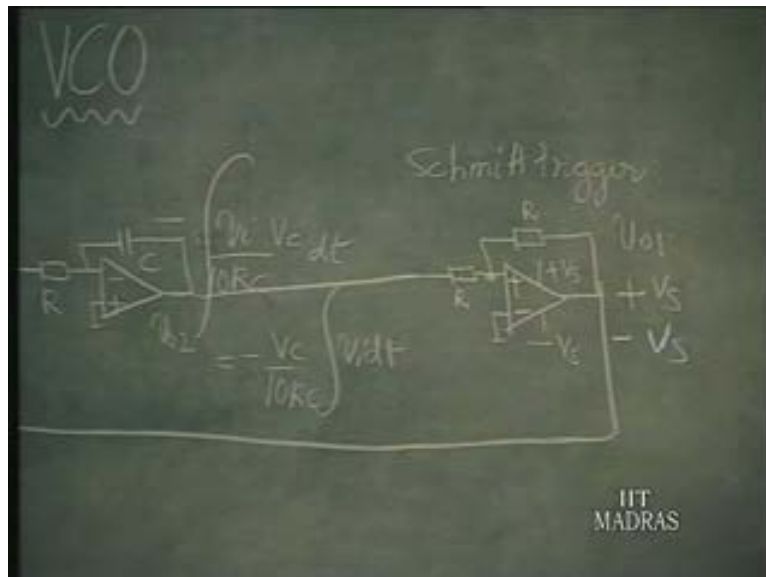
So this, as soon as it reaches minus V_s , this change, this particular thing will change state from plus V_s to minus V_s . So, this has gone to minus V_s . The moment this goes to minus V_s , this is minus V_s now. So this slope here will become for this wave form – plus; and it will be plus V_c by $10RC$ into t .

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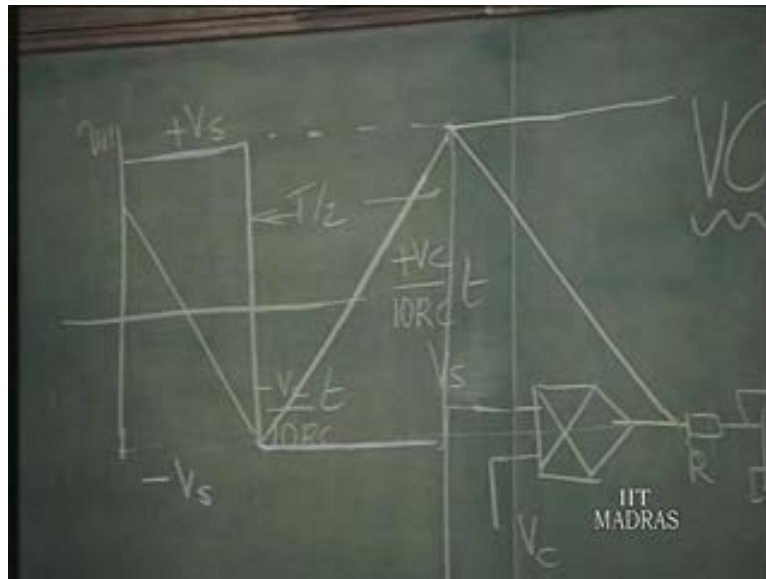
So, it will go on like this. This is already at minus V_s . So, this is going on increasing... The moment this voltage becomes plus V_s , this voltage will become zero. It will again change from minus to plus.

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So, this will keep happening for ever. So, the moment this is this thing, it will go to plus V_s and this will go down. So, this will be kept at that until this goes to minus. Again it changes state. So, you will get triangle wave form here at this point and square wave form here. The time period can easily computed. This is T by 2 because this whole thing is T .

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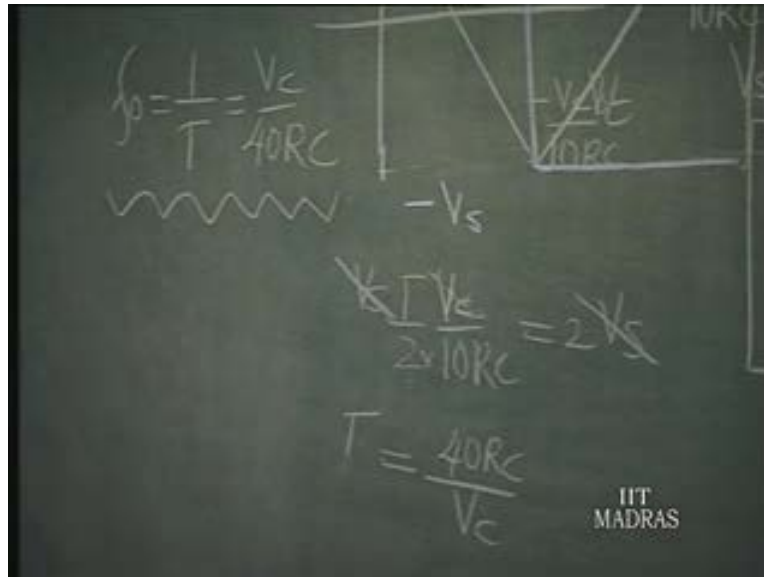


So, T by 2 into V_c by $10RC$. This is the rate at which it goes. V_c by $10RC$ into T by 2. It acquires a voltage of twice V_s . This minus V_s to plus V_s , it goes.

So, V_c sort of...sorry, this V_c is going to be there. This particular thing into V_s . This particular thing into V_s ... Please remember that this particular thing into V_s is all the time there because this is V_s , constant. So, this V_s gets cancelled with this V_s .

So, T is equal to $40 RC$ or f is equal to 1 over T . This $40 RC$ by V_c ; 1 over T is V_c by $40 RC$.

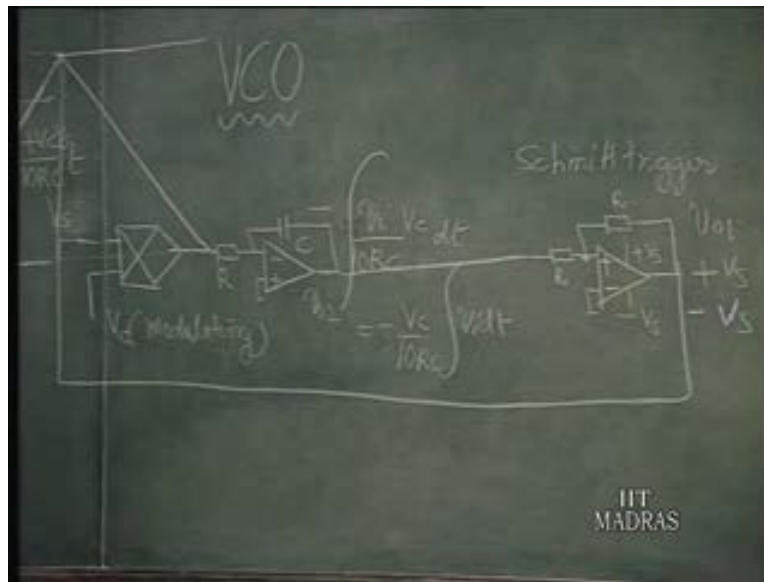
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So, this particular thing is a nice voltage controlled oscillator, linear, but it uses only one multiplier. It does not require any amplitude stabilization scheme because already the amplitude gets neatly stabilized at plus V_s and minus V_s and this rate of rise and rate of fall become same; equal to minus V_c by $10 RC$ and plus V_c by $10 RC$, respectively.

Therefore, this is a very popular circuit for generating FM as I told you; and because here...we give the modulating frequency here. So automatically, we can now have the carrier getting modulated by this particular frequency here, voltage here, and this frequency will start changing according to this controls here, linearly.

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So, this circuit can be also converted into its transistor counterpart wherein this portion is going to be replaced by a voltage controlled integrator. That means you will have a voltage controlled current source driving a capacitor. That is all. And a transistor I Schmitt trigger; but the basic circuit is essentially this.

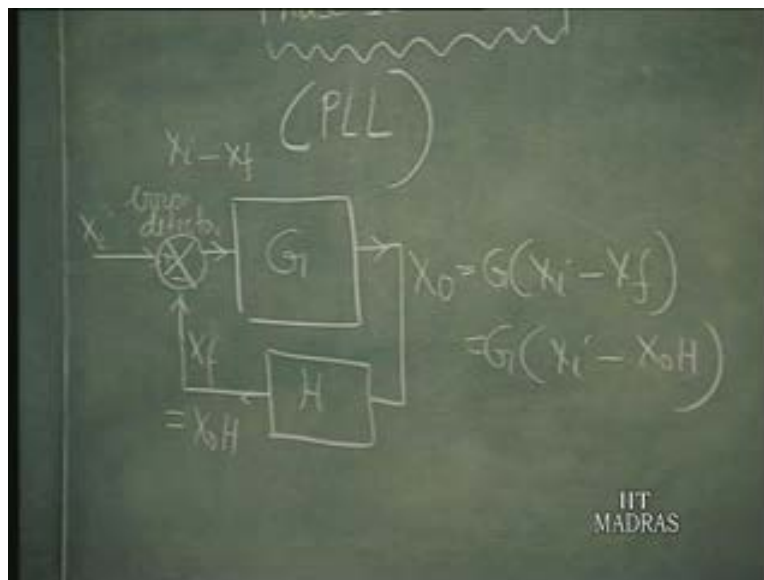
And it is this VCO which is very popular and this entire circuit is normally called a function generation circuit because it is giving you a square wave, a triangular wave and also, if we just put a function generator, in the sense, diode function generator to convert this triangular wave form into sin wave....that we have done long ago in the first part of our lecture, we can convert this sine wave, the triangular wave into sine wave. You get all the three important wave forms: sine, square and triangle, with voltage control of frequency. This chip is available as a function generator I C chip.

Now we will consider an important control loop which is called Phase Locked Loop or PLL it is called. This has become very popular because of the fact that such a phase locked loop is available as an integrator circuit and it can achieve a lot number of communication as well as control systems like speed control, frequency synthesis, FM detection, AM detection, etcetera.

Therefore, let us see the basic principle of what is called phase locked loop. Before we go to phase locked loop, I would like you to understand the basic principle of negative feedback as taught to you in control system. If X_i is the input and X_f is the feedback factor coming from the output which is X_o , this is called error detector. In control system, this is called error detector. This will give you an output which is X_i ; this is put here plus, minus, saying that it will give $X_i - X_f$ as the error; and this is called the error amplifier.

Therefore X_o is going to be equal to the gain G times X_i minus the feedback factor X_f . This is how you have been writing your control loop equations where X is any variable. So, this particular feedback factor, if it is H , this is the way this signal gets transmitted. Output is fed back to the input. So, X_f is equal to X_o into H . Then, this is equal to G into X_i minus X_o into H .

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So now, from that we get X_o by X_i is equal to G divided by $1 + GH$. This is an important control system equation which tells us that if GH is...this is called loop gain. In our control R circuits, we have been calling this as loop gain.

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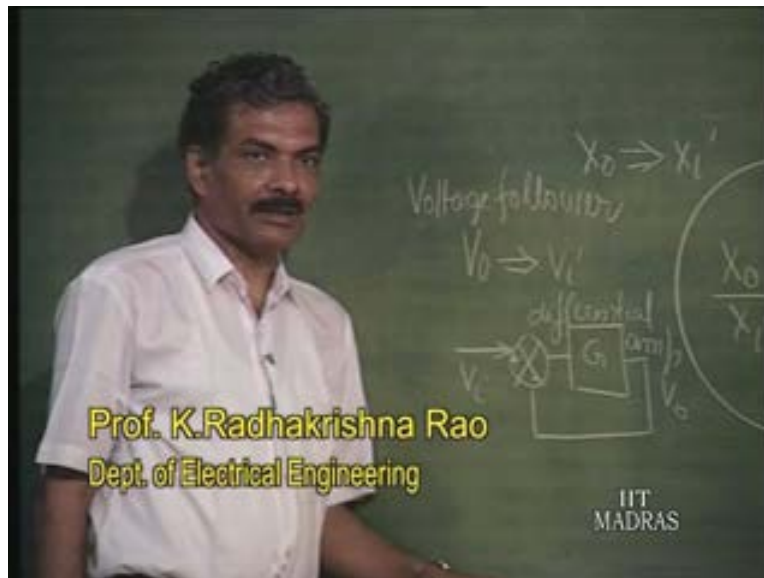
This particular loop gain in this... In this case, it is negative feedback. Actually therefore, the loop gain if you really consider the loop, is negative. So, this is a negative feedback configuration. If this loop gain is much greater than 1, then we can show that this is approximately equal to 1 over H. It becomes independent of G, the amplifier. It becomes only dependent upon the feedback factor H; and if H is 1, if H is 1, this is equal to 1. That means X_o will follow X_i . X_o is going to be following X_i .

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This particular thing...if X_i is voltage, you can call this... V_o is going to follow V_i . V_i is going to be narrow (Refer Slide Time: 34:30) amplifier which is nothing but a differential amplifier. So, plus, minus. So, this entire thing is nothing but a differential amplifier. This error detector with G ; and if I give feedback fully, V_o follows V_i . This is therefore called a voltage follower. This we have discussed again in the first part of our series of lectures, voltage follower.

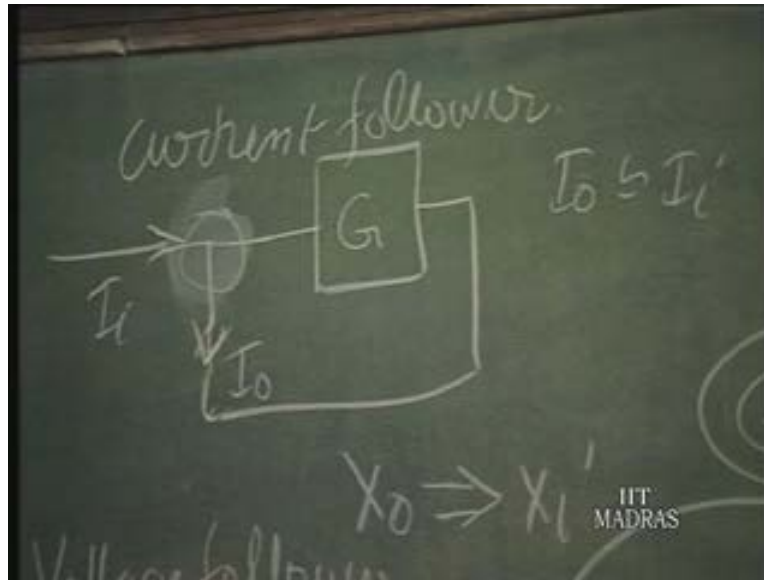
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Again, if I say this is I_i and this is I_o and this is a current amplifier...this also we have done in what we call as a transistor connected as a diode. This error detector in fact can be very easily done by just merging this into a node because then this particular thing is going to be...in fact, if the direction is changed, it will just give you I_i minus I_o as the error output.

So, if you change the direction of the current here, the error detector becomes just a node. This is a current amplifier and therefore I_o is going to be very nearly equal to I_i . It is therefore called a current follower.

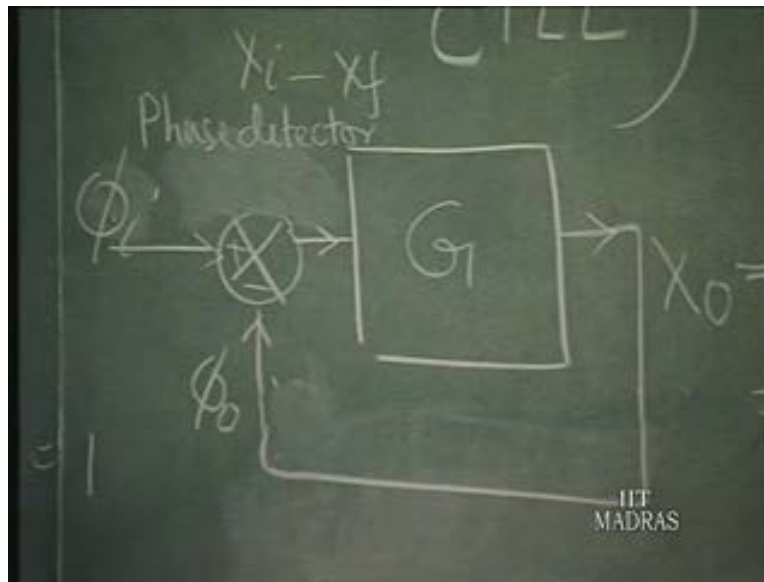
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So, that in fact is nothing but a current amplifier. Like common emitter amplifier, when entire collected current is fed back to the input, it becomes a common base amplifier and the current gain becomes very nearly equal to unity. So, you have understood long ago that I can design such control system equivalents in circuits by using voltage as the parameter, current as the parameter, etcetera. Now, when we go to phase locked loop, neither voltage or current is going to be the considered input here.

What is going to be the considered input here is nothing but phase; and this is going to be... let us say we will put this whole thing H equal to 1. This is not going to be error detector. It will be called...this is ϕ_i and ϕ_{naught} . This is going to be therefore called phase detector.

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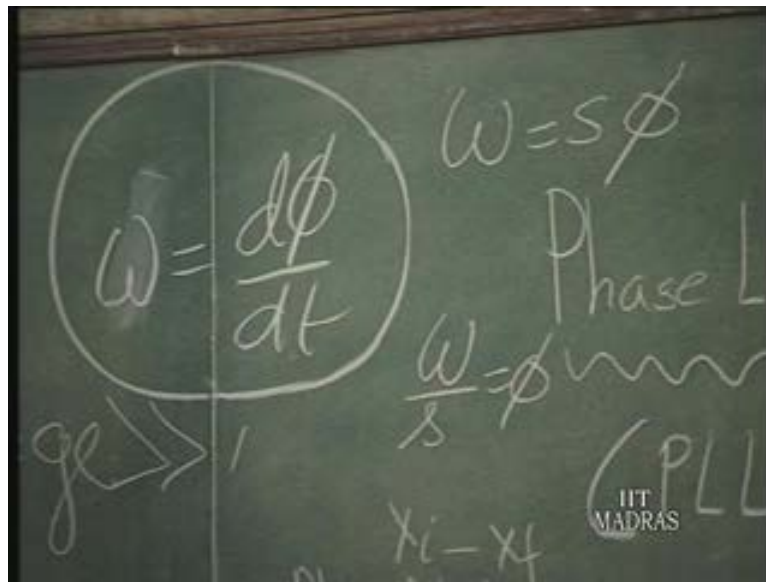


That means, a phase detector is something that...when phase is given as the input, phase difference is given as the input, it will give a D C output corresponding to the phase difference. This D C output is amplified and this output of the amplifier has to be converted again into phase.

So, what is that that converts a D C voltage into phase? That is nothing but a VCO because when I apply voltage, D C voltage here, you get a frequency. What is the relationship between frequency and phase? I know that if phase is ϕ , the frequency f is nothing but $d\phi/dt$. Frequency and phase, they are linearly related.

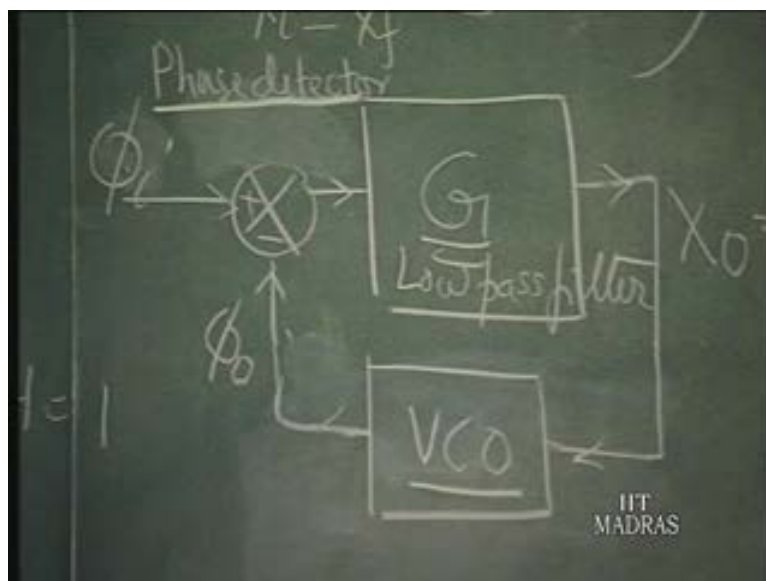
The frequency ϕf or actually speaking, this is equal to Ω in radian per second is nothing but $d\phi/dt$...this is radiant frequency; this is nothing but $d\phi/dt$, rate of change of phase. If you now put Laplace transform, Ω is equal to s times ϕ or Ω/s is equal to ϕ .

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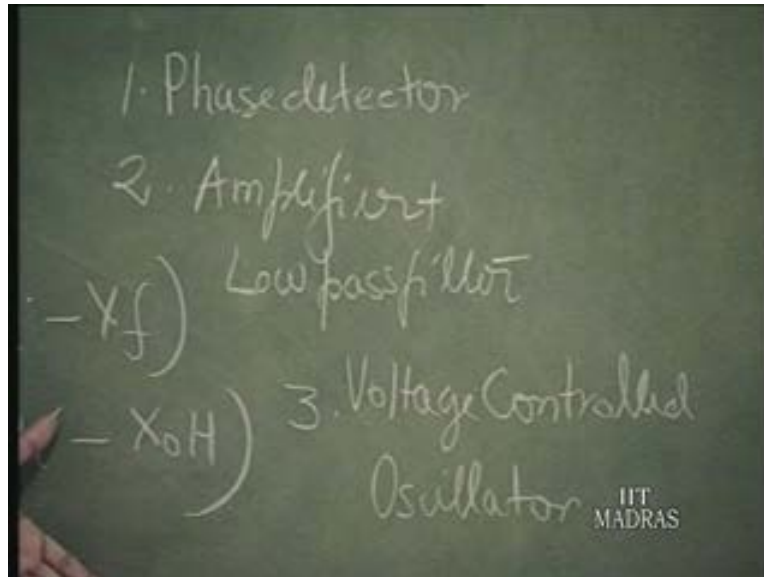
So, if I have frequency, I can say that if the frequency output is given to a phase detector, it will respond to phase change. Therefore, the basic building blocks of a phase locked loop will be a phase detector, a VCO and an amplifier; and it should respond to only average here because D C, I said. So, amplifier with a low pass filter.

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So, let us now list out the basic building block phase detector, amplifier, plus low pass filter. Then 3 - voltage controlled oscillator.

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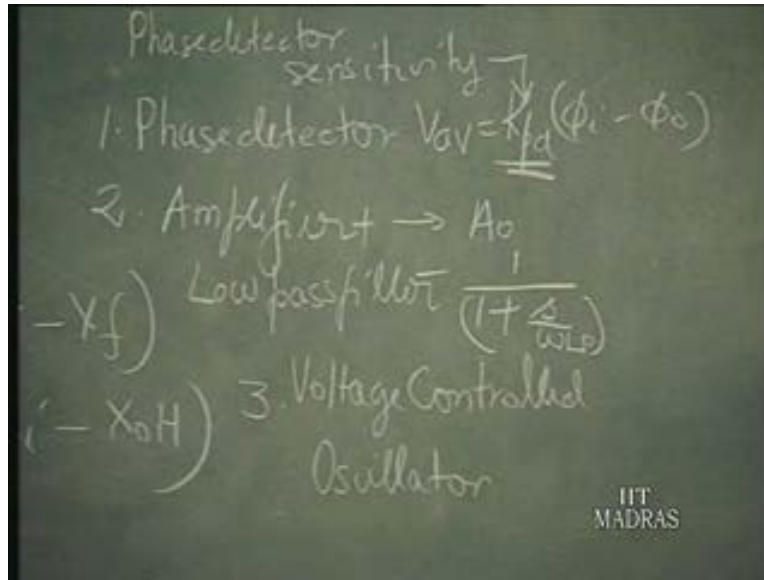


In fact, we had discussed all these three building blocks just earlier. Voltage controlled oscillator has just been discussed; amplifiers and low pass filters were also earlier discussed. How to design amplifiers and how to design low pass filters. Phase detector was discussed when we discussed multipliers.

So, all these basic building blocks of the phase lock loop have been earlier discussed. Their characteristics, we have obtained. What is the phase detector characteristic? It will give you an average output corresponding to some, let us say K_{pd} into ϕ_i minus ϕ_o .

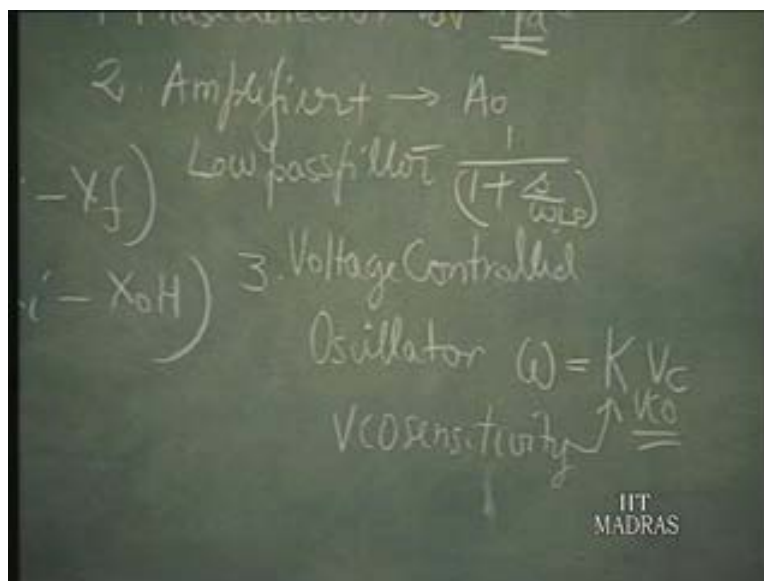
This particular K_{pd} is called the phase detector sensitivity. Amplifier sensitivity is called gain. So, amplifier gain is called A_o . V c gain. Low pass filter has a cut-off frequency. So, that low pass filter characteristic will be looking like this: $1 / (1 + s / \omega_{lp})$; first order low pass, this also we have discussed earlier. That is ω_{lp} is the cut-off frequency of the low pass filter.

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Voltage controlled filter. Voltage controlled oscillator also has a sensitivity. What is it? - frequency Ω is dependent upon control voltage. If it is linear, it will be directly proportional to the control voltage. So, this is called K_{vco} . This VCO sensitivity, Ω is equal to K_{vco} times V_c .

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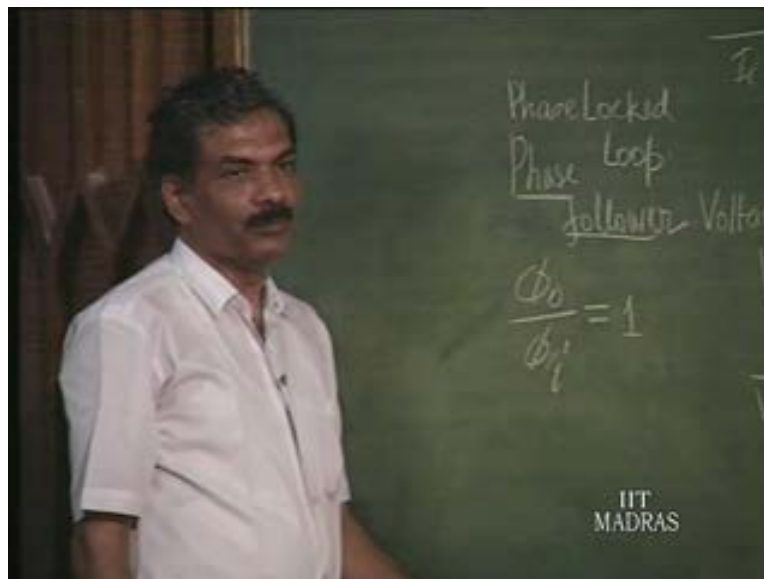


So, the basic parameters associated with these building blocks will be phase detector. If it is linear phase detector, it has a sensitivity factor, amplifier - gain A_{naught} , low pass filter - cut-off frequency Ω_{lp} , voltage controlled oscillator has its sensitivity factor K_{vco} . So, if we now try to analyze this for the phase, what will we get?

If ϕ_i changes and ϕ_{naught} will follow it, ϕ_i by ϕ_{naught} should be equal to 1 because that is what we have been all throughout telling. It is immaterial what the variables are. In this case, ϕ_i by... ϕ_{naught} by ϕ_i or ϕ_i ... ϕ_{naught} by ϕ_i , in fact, is equal to 1.

So, we can call this as a phase follower; or as it is popularly called, we can call it as phase locked loop. The phase follower action is going to be considered as phase locked loop.

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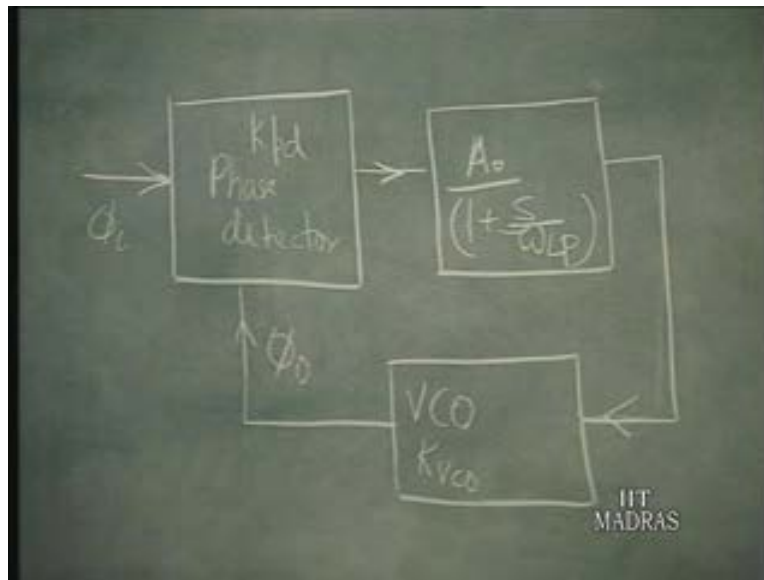
So, what it means is $d\phi_i$ by... $d\phi_{naught}$ by $d\phi_i$ - change in phase is going to be followed at the output, if there is a change in phase at the input.

We have just now seen how the phase locked loop comprises of three basic building blocks. A phase detector whose phase sensitivity is K_{pd} , amplifier with low pass filter; it

is necessary so that the output of the phase detector which is really...this is actually multiplier. So, it will comprise of both high frequency and low frequency component; it is the low frequency component, the average component to which output should respond.

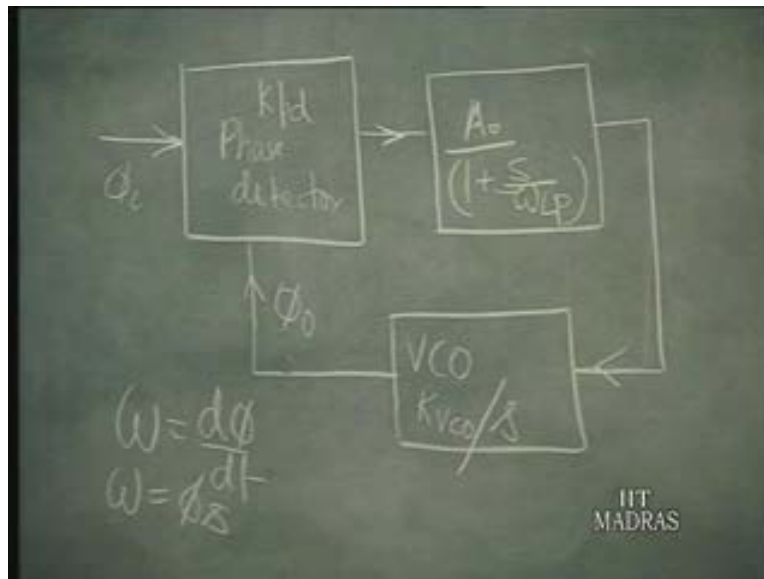
So, we have put an amplifier with low pass filter here and then this D C or the low frequency input is controlling the VCO frequency. So, output is going to be a frequency.

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But just now I said the phase and frequency they are related. Omega is d phi by dt, change of phase. That means when I am using phase here in the analysis, this frequency Omega should be converted into phase. That is done by dividing by s because this Omega is equal to phi into s. Laplace transform. Differentiation means multiplication by s. So, phi is equal to Omega by S. So, K_{vco} by s is the transfer function of the VCO here, which will indicate that it is the phase that is of interest for the phase detector. If that is the case now, we can do the analysis. Assumption is that only the phase is varied.

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Let us now see how this is going to respond. ϕ_i minus ϕ_0 is the phase difference and K_{pd} into that is the D C voltage here or low frequency voltage here and that is getting amplified by A_0 divided by $1 + S$ by Ω_{LP} .

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$$\frac{K_{pd}(\phi_i - \phi_0) A_0}{(1 + \frac{S}{\omega_{LP}})}$$

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That is the D C voltage appearing here and K_{vco} by S is the phase conversion factor here. So, K_{vco} by S and that should be equal to π naught itself. So, this is exactly similar to our writing X naught is equal to X i minus X naught into G .

This whole thing is going to be called as deep gain or the loop gain. So, we will call this G into ϕ_i minus ϕ naught.

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$$\phi_0 = \frac{K_{pd}(\phi_i - \phi_0) A_0 K_{vco}}{\left(1 + \frac{S}{WLP}\right)} \rightarrow$$

$$= G(\phi_i - \phi_0)$$

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So, what do we get? We get ϕ naught by ϕ_i equal to G by $1 + G$. If this loop gain is very high, this is going to be very nearly equal to 1. So, that is why we call this a phase follower. ϕ naught is going to be followed; change in phase at the input is going to be followed at the output.

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Handwritten equations on a chalkboard:

$$\frac{\phi_o}{\phi_i} = \frac{G}{1+G}$$

$$\phi_o = \frac{K_{pd}(\phi_i - \phi_o) A_o K_{vco}}{\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{LP}}\right)}$$

$$= G(\phi_i - \phi_o)$$

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Now, what is G? The loop gain here is nothing but $K_{pd} K_{vco}$ into A_{naught} . So, that divided by s into $1 + s$ by Ω_{LP} . This factor, which is independent of frequency, is called the D C loop gain of the...this K_1 , which is nothing but...you go through this... K_{pd} , A_{naught} , K_{vco} , all the sensitivity factor products. You call this as D C loop gain. So, this is going to be equal to K_1 divided by s into $1 + s$ by Ω_{LP} .

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Handwritten equations on a chalkboard:

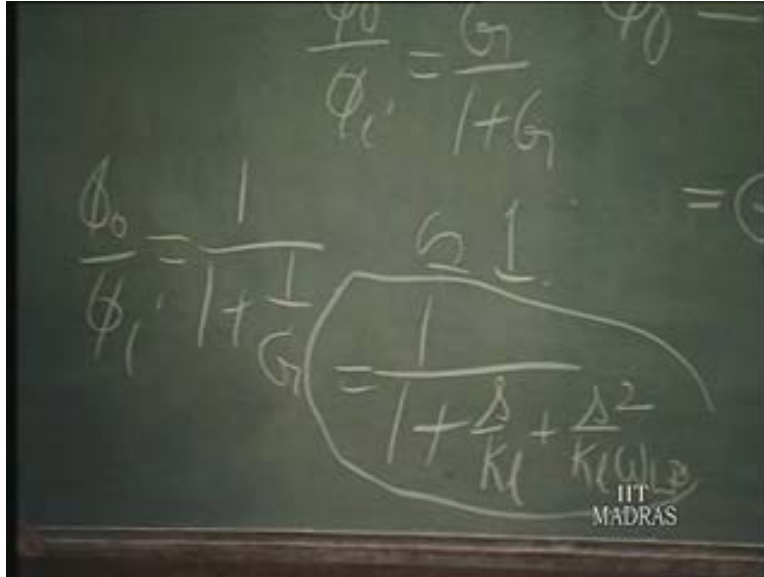
ke dc loop gain

$$G = \frac{K_{pd} K_{vco} A_o}{s \left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{LP}}\right)} = \frac{K_1}{s \left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{LP}}\right)}$$

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If you write therefore, this equals 1 by 1 plus 1 over G, this is going to be...1 by 1 plus...G is... here, 1 over G, s by K l plus s square by K l into Omega L p. This is going to be equal to phi naught over phi i.

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If all these factors can be ignored, if K l is very large, this is going to be equal to 1 so that we have also shown that Omega naught...here, phi into s is equal to Omega. So, Omega naught into s is equal to phi naught; Omega i into s is equal phi i. So, this gets cancelled. So, if it becomes a phase follower, it will also have frequency following action. Output frequency is going to be same as input frequency.

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$$\frac{\phi_0}{\phi_i} = \frac{G}{1+G}$$
$$\frac{\omega_0}{\omega_i} = \frac{\omega_0}{\omega_i} \frac{\phi_0}{\phi_i} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{G}}$$
$$\frac{1}{1 + \frac{\Delta}{K_V} + \frac{\Delta^2}{K_V \omega_i}}$$

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This is an important property of phase lock loop; output frequency will be exactly equal to input frequency.