

Integrated Circuit (IC) :-

is the outcome of solid-state devices & components. In the regard of characteristics & miniaturisation of solid-state devices when solid-state devices such as transistors & diodes were invented, they replaced vacuum tubes.

→ Similarly, a new generation of solid-state electronics, i.e. IC's, is replacing the discrete components like resistors, capacitors, diodes, transistors, FETs etc. In a discrete circuit, the components are separable, whereas the components of IC circuits are inseparable.

→ Most of the IC's are silicon chips with devices such as transistors, resistors & capacitors fabricated in them. A single silicon chip can contain a few devices (a) many thousands of devices. i.e. Large & complex circuits can be reduced to a small size by IC technology.

- The advantages of IC's over discrete components
- Small size
 - Improved performance
 - Low cost
 - High reliability & ruggedness
 - Low power consumption
 - Less weight & portable
 - simpler design of systems

Unit 2

Classification :- Based on the complexity levels IC's are classified as

→ Small Scale Integration (SSI)		100 Transistors/chip
→ Medium	"	[MSI] 100-1000 "
→ Large	"	[LSI] 1,000 - 20,000 "
→ Very Large	"	[VLSI] 20,000 - 10,00,000
→ Ultra Large	"	[ULSI] $10^6 - 10^7$
→ Giant scale	"	[GSI] more than 10^7

→ On the basis of fabrication process used, IC's can be classified as → Monolithic $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Bipolar} \\ \text{Unipolar} \end{array} \right.$
→ Hybrid

→ Based on the treatment of the signal, IC's can be classified as → Linear or Analog IC's
→ Digital IC's
→ Mixed signal IC's.

→ An analog signal is

Unit 2 Introduction to Linear Integrated Circuits ①

A Linear Integrated Circuit is used in a variety of modern electronic equipments. The linear integrated circuit is able to receive, process & produce a variety of diff. levels of energy as the device operates.

→ To understand, what a linear integrated circuit is, first of all it is very important to understand what an "integrated circuit" (IC) is.

→ As we all know that, the technology grows day by day very fastly, i.e. to day the growth of any thing like, communication, control instrumentation (or) computers is dependent upon electronics to a great extent.

→ The "integrated circuit" (or) "IC" is a miniature, low cost electronic circuit consisting of active & passive components that are joined together on a single crystal chip of silicon.

→ Each IC can have hundreds (or) millions of active & passive elements. These IC's can be either "Analog" (or) "Digital".

→ So, these Analog IC's are nothing but, "Linear Integrated Circuits", why because, the signal o/p level of the circuit is a linear function of the signal i/p level.

→ In other words, as the i/p changes, the o/p of the ckt changes proportionately (or) when we draw a graph between i/p & o/p, it would produce a straight line.

→ Linear IC's are used for functions, where the signal o/p needs to vary such as — for audio freq. & radio freq.: amplifiers.

→ Devices like audio amplifiers, D.C. amplifiers, oscillators, & multivibrators use these circuits.

→ The most common type of "Linear IC" is an "operational amplifier" (or) "op-amp".

→ Linear IC's are being used in a no. of electronic applications such as in fields like audio & radio comm., medical electronics, instrumentation control ---

Operational amplifiers :-

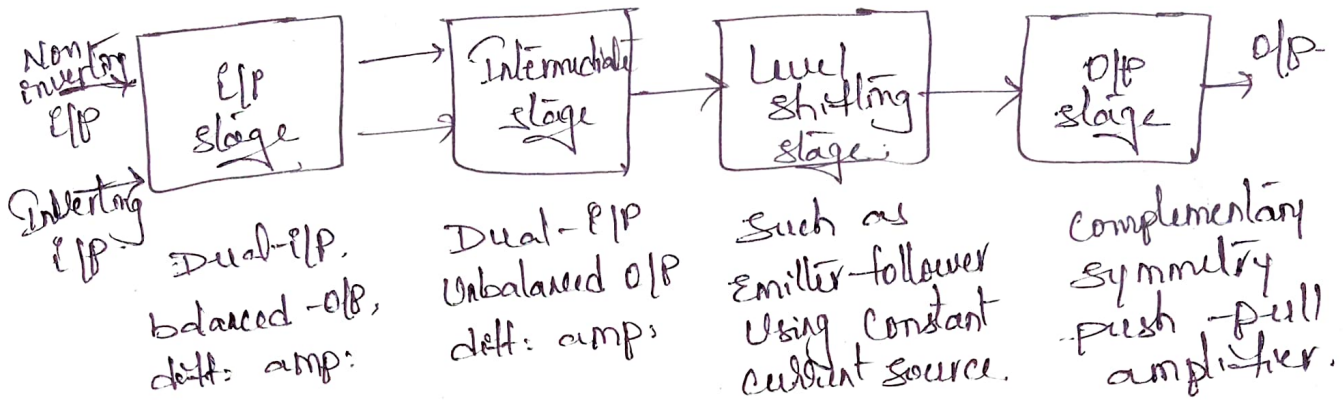
The operational amplifier is commonly referred to as "Op-amp", it is a multi-terminal device, which internally is quite complex.

An operational amp is a direct-coupled high-gain amplifier, usually consists of one or more "differential amplifiers" & usually followed by a "level translator" & an OP stage. The OP stage is generally a "push-pull" or "push-pull-complementary-symmetry pair".

→ The op-amp is a versatile device that can be used to amplify "D.C" as well as "A.C" signals & was originally designed for computing mathematical functions such as addition, subtraction, multiplication & integration.

→ So, the name "Op-amp" is comes from its original use of these mathematical operations. With the addition of suitable external feed-back components, the modern day op-amp can be used for a variety of applications, such as a.c & d.c amplification, active filters, oscillators, comparators, regulators & others.

Block diagram of op-amp



→ As, we already discussed that, an op-amp is a multistage amplifier, the Block diagram consists of

→ The I/P stage is the dual-I/P, balanced O/P diff: amp. This stage generally provides most of the voltage gain of the amplifier & also establishes I/P resistance of the op-amp.

→ The intermediate stage is usually another diff: amp, which is driven by the O/P of the first stage. In most amps, the intermediate stage is dual-I/P, unbalanced O/P.

→ Because of the direct-coupling used, the dc voltage at the O/P of the intermediate stage is well above ground potential. Therefore generally, the level shifter is used after intermediate stage.

→ which is used to shift the d.c. level at the ⁽³⁾ o/p of the intermediate stage down ward to zero volt w.r. to ground.

→ The final stage is usually, a push-pull complementary amp. The o/p stage increases the o/p voltage swing & raises the current supplying capability of the op-amp. A well designed o/p stage also provides low o/p resistance.

Differential Amplifiers -

Differential amplifier is a multi-transistor amplifier. It is the fundamental building block of analog ckt.

→ It is virtually formed the diff: amp: of the μp part of an op-amp. It is used to provide \rightarrow cons: its charac:ls are:

- a high voltage gain
- high common mode rejection ratio
- Very high μp impedance
- Very low offset voltage
- Very low μp bias current.

→ Diff: amp: Can operate in two modes.

→ Common mode

→ Differential mode

→ In common mode, the diff: amp: gives zero OP.

→ In diff: mode, it gives the high OP, means that the amp: has high "Common mode rejection ratio".

→ As its name implies, the differential amplifier amplifies the difference b/w two IP signals - " V_{in1} " & " V_{in2} " - so, the diff: amp: is also referred to as "difference amplifier".

→ The main purpose of the diff: amp: stage is to provide high gain to the difference-mode signal & cancel the common mode signal.

→ The diff: amp: can be configured in four ways by the no. of IP signals used & the way the OP voltage is measured. They are:

→ Dual-IP, balanced-OP diff: amp:

→ Dual-IP, unbalanced^{OP} diff: amp:

→ single-IP, balanced OP diff: amp:

→ single-IP, unbalanced OP diff: amp:

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→ If we use two I/P signals, that configuration is said to be "Dual I/P", other wise, it is a "single I/P" configuration.

→ If the OP voltage is measured b/w two collectors, it is referred to as "Balanced OP", because both collectors are at the same d.c. potential wrt to GND.

→ However, if the OP is measured at one of the collectors, wrt to GND, that configuration is called "Unbalanced OP".

→ Before going a deep into the diff. amp: Let me tell you, the general req: (or) Observations of diff. amp: are:

→ Two matched semi-conductors of the same type may be BJT (or) FET's are required for the diff. amp: & they will be in emitter-bias & all the components must be matched in all respects for proper operation of diff. amp:

→ Further more, the magnitude of the supply voltages $+V_{CC}$ & $-V_{EE}$ must be equal.

→ The diff. amp: is capable of amplifying "D.C." as well as "A.C." I/P signals. In instrumentation systems, diff. amp:s are widely used to compare two I/P signals.

→ As we already discussed that, the diff. amp. requires two identical emitter-biased circuits. In that all the components should be matched. As shown in fig:

→ Here, two transistors are identical, means they have the same characteristics.

$$\& RE = RE_2, RC_1 = RC_2$$

& magnitude of $+V_{CC}$ is equal to magnitude of $-V_{EE}$.

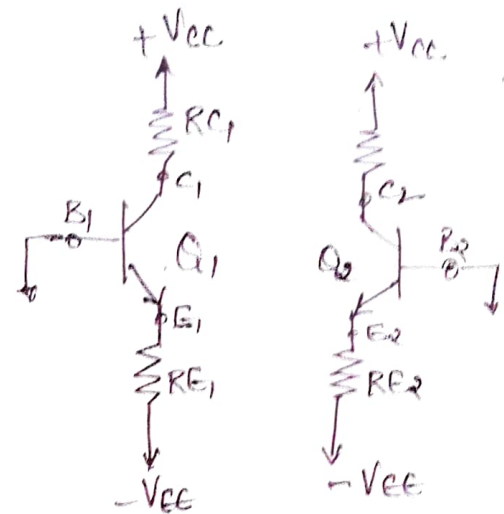


fig: two identical emitter-biased ckt.

→ If we are interconnecting these two identical emitter-biased ckt, we will get the diff. amplifier. first of all let we see the Dual P.P, Balanced O/P config:

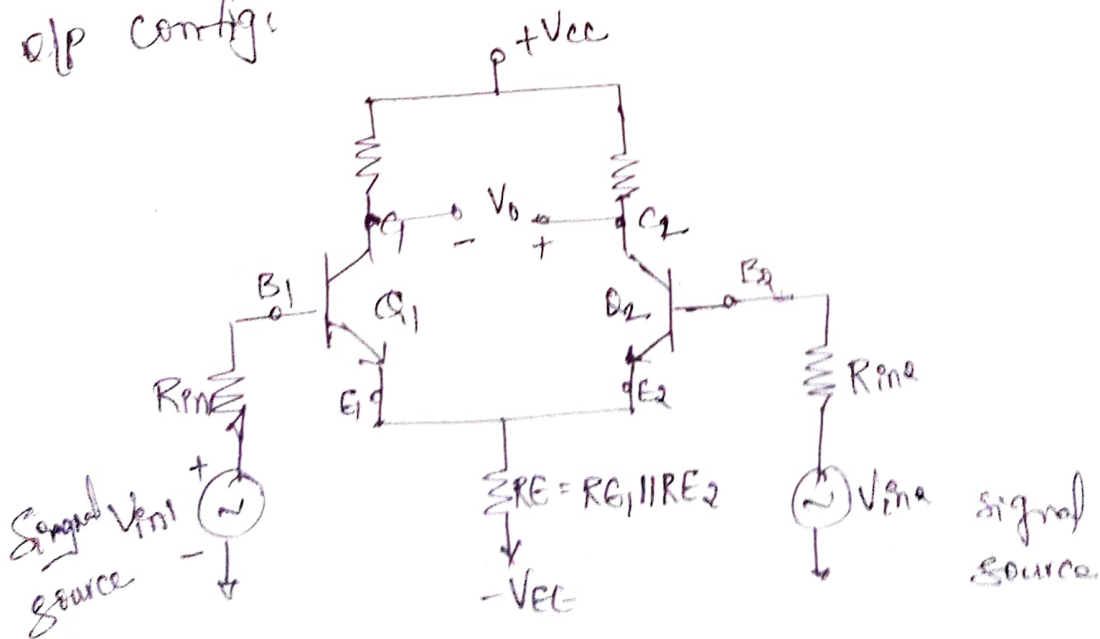


fig: Dual-P.P, balanced O/P diff. amp.

Working:-

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To understand the working of diff. amp.

Let we consider the case, when both the bases B_1 & B_2 are joined together & connected to a common mode voltage V_{cm} . So, $V_1 = V_2 = V_{cm}$.

→ As both the transistors Q_1 & Q_2 are forward biased, & matched due to symmetry of the ckt, the current I_Q divides equally through Q_1 & Q_2 i.e. $i_{E1} = i_{E2} = I_Q/2$

→ The collector currents i_{C1} & i_{C2} through the resistor R_C is $\alpha \frac{I_Q}{2}$. & the voltage at each collector is $V_{CC} - \alpha \frac{I_Q}{2} R_C$ & therefore the diff. of two collector voltages $V_{O1} - V_{O2} = 0$.

→ Now, even if the value of V_{cm} is changed, the voltage across collectors will not change. Thus the diff. amp. doesn't respond to or rejects the common mode P/P signals.

→ Now, let we consider another case, when the voltage V_2 is made zero & $V_1 = 1V$ say, It can be seen that transistor Q_1 is conduct & Q_2 will OFF. The entire current I_Q flows through Q_1 .
The collector voltage $V_{O1} = V_{CC} - \alpha I_Q R_C$ & $V_{O2} = V_{CC}$

→ How ever if, $V_1 = -1V$. & $V_2 = 0V$, It can be seen that Q_2 will be ON & Q_1 is OFF. So, the entire current flows through Q_2 .

The collector voltage, $V_{O2} = V_{CC} - \alpha I_Q R_C$ & $V_{O1} = V_{CC}$

→ Thus we can say that, the diff. amp. responds only to diff. mode signal & rejects common mode signals.

→ Already we know that, diff: amp. amplifies A.C. as well as d.c. i/p signals. To analyse the diff: amp: we use g -parameters instead of h -parameters for a no. of reasons.

→ Because of the nature of g -parameters, ac analysis of diff: amp: with g -parameters is simpler, more straight-forward, & less cumbersome.

→ Unlike with h -parameters, there is no need to manipulate the g -parameters at diff: operating levels. Except for the g_e value.

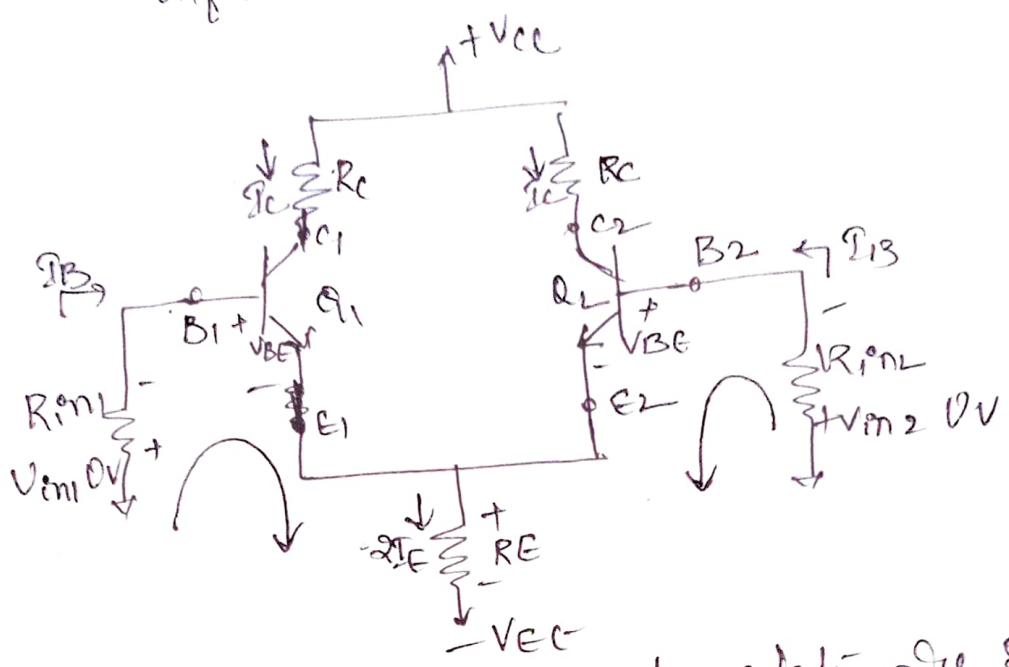
→ The performance eq's obtained are easy to remember since they are not as complex as lengthy as h -parameters eq's.

→ The results obtained using g -parameters are favored with actual results.

D.C. Analysis:-

To determine the operating point values (I_{CQ} & V_{CEQ}) for the diff: amp, we need to obtain d.c. eq: circuit. The d.c. eq: can be obtained by reducing the i/p signals V_{in1} & V_{in2} to zero.

Let we draw d.c. Eq. Ckt of dual-PTP balanced op/ diff. amp.



→ Here both the emitter biased ckt are symmetrical we need to determine the operating point for only one section. Let it will be 'Q1'.
 I_{CQ} & V_{CEQ} .

→ To find I_{CQ} , Apply Kirchhoff's Voltage law at the Base-Emitter junction loop for Q_1

$$-R_{in} I_B - V_{BE} - R_E 2(I_E) + V_{EE} = 0.$$

We know that, $I_B = \frac{I_E}{\beta_{dc}}$ & $I_C \approx I_E$

Substitute I_B value, we get

$$-R_{in} \frac{I_E}{\beta_{dc}} - V_{BE} - R_E 2 I_E + V_{EE} = 0$$

$$I_E = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{2R_E + \frac{R_{in}}{\beta_{dc}}}$$

Generally $\frac{R_{in}}{\beta_{dc}} \ll 2R_E$ therefore, it will neglect.

$$\therefore I_E = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{2R_E}$$

From this we can say that, by selecting proper value of R_E , we can obtain a desired value of I_E for a known value of $-V_{EE}$.

→ Next we have to determine V_{CE} .

$$V_{CE} = V_C - V_E$$

$$= (V_{CC} - I_C R_C) - (-V_{BE})$$

$$= V_{CC} + V_{BE} - I_C R_C$$

$$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$$

$$V_E \approx -V_{BE}$$

A.C. Analysis

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To perform A.C. analysis, to derive the expression for the voltage gain (A_d) & the input Susceptance (B_i) of the differential amplifier.

- To perform a.c. analysis (i) derive the a.c. analysis ckt.
- set the d.c. voltages $+V_{cc}$ & $-V_{ee}$ at zero
- Substitute the small-signal T-equivalent models for the transistors.

→ Now, let we draw the small signal T-Eq. model for the dual-EP balanced OP config:

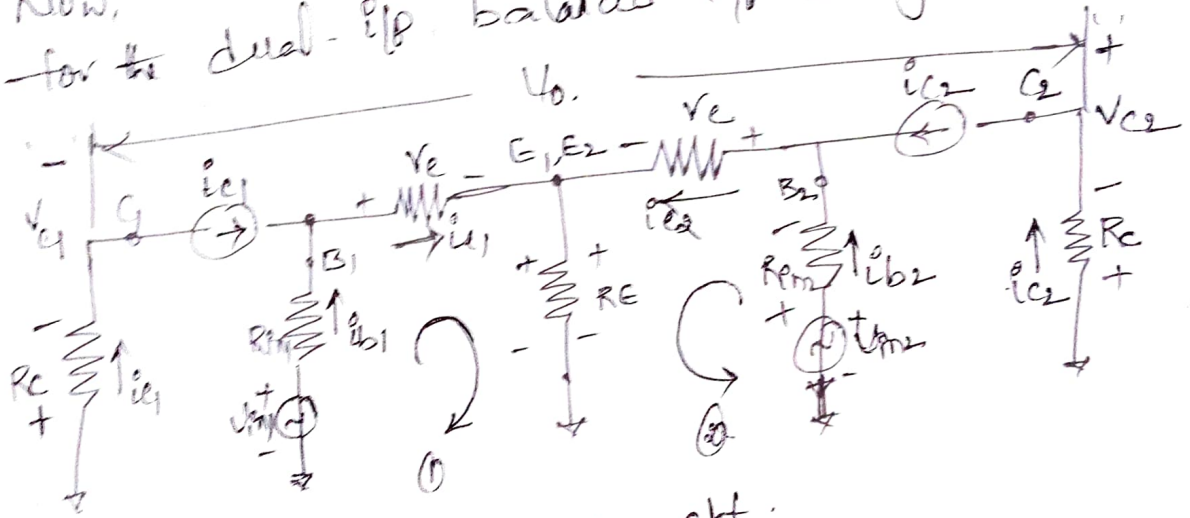


Fig. a.c. Eq. ckt.

Voltage gain :-

Before going to calculate voltage gain A_d it should be noted that, here, $R_{E1} = R_{E2} \therefore r_{e1} = r_{e2}$. For this reason, the a.c. emitter susceptance of transistor Q_1 & Q_2 is simply denoted by " r_e ".

→ The voltage across each collector resistor is shown out of phase w.r. to EP voltages V_{en1} & V_{en2} .

* It should be noted that, the polarity of O/P voltage V_o indicates that, the voltage at collector i_{c2} is assumed to be more +ve w.r.to that i_{c1} , even though both of them are -ve w.r.to GND.

→ So, in order to find the voltage gain, Apply Kirschhoff's voltage laws for the two loops, we get,

$$V_{in1} - R_{in1} i_{b1} - V_{ce1} - R_E (i_{e1} + i_{e2}) = 0$$

$$V_{in2} - R_{in2} i_{b2} - V_{ce2} - R_E (i_{e1} + i_{e2}) = 0$$

Substituted, $i_{b1} = \frac{i_{e1}}{\beta_{ac}}$ & $i_{b2} = \frac{i_{e2}}{\beta_{ac}}$

$$\therefore V_{in1} - \frac{R_{in1}}{\beta_{ac}} i_{e1} - V_{ce1} - R_E (i_{e1} + i_{e2}) = 0$$

$$V_{in2} - \frac{R_{in2}}{\beta_{ac}} i_{e2} - V_{ce2} - R_E (i_{e1} + i_{e2}) = 0$$

→ Generally, $\frac{R_{in}}{\beta_{ac}}$ & $\frac{R_{out}}{\beta_{ac}}$ values are very small, therefore we shall neglect them, then we get,

$$V_{in1} = (V_{ce} + R_E) i_{e1} + (R_E) i_{e2}$$

$$V_{in2} = (R_E) i_{e1} + (V_{ce} + R_E) i_{e2}$$

We can solve the eq:ls for i_{e1} & i_{e2} by using

Cramer's rule.

$$i_{e1} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} V_{in1} & R_E \\ V_{in2} & V_{ce} + R_E \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} V_{ce} + R_E & R_E \\ R_E & V_{ce} + R_E \end{vmatrix}}$$

$$i_{e1} = \frac{(v_e + R_E) V_{in1} - (R_E) V_{in2}}{(v_e + R_E)^2 - (R_E)^2}$$

Similarly,

$$i_{e2} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} v_e + R_E & V_{in1} \\ R_E & V_{in2} \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} v_e + R_E & R_E \\ R_E & v_e + R_E \end{vmatrix}}$$

$$= \frac{(v_e + R_E) V_{in2} - (R_E) V_{in1}}{(v_e + R_E)^2 - (R_E)^2}$$

The O/P voltage, $V_o = V_{c2} - V_{c1}$

$$= -i_{c2} R_c - (-i_{c1} R_c)$$

$$= i_{c1} R_c - i_{c2} R_c$$

$$= R_c (i_{e1} - i_{e2}) \quad (\because i_e \approx i_c)$$

$$= R_c (i_{e1} - i_{e2})$$

then substitute i_{e1} & i_{e2} in V_o . then, we get.

$$V_o = R_c \left[\frac{(v_e + R_E) V_{in1} - (R_E) V_{in2}}{(v_e + R_E)^2 - (R_E)^2} - \frac{(v_e + R_E) V_{in2} - (R_E) V_{in1}}{(v_e + R_E)^2 - (R_E)^2} \right]$$

$$= R_c \left[\frac{(v_e + R_E)(V_{in1} - V_{in2}) + (R_E)(V_{in1} - V_{in2})}{(v_e + R_E)^2 - (R_E)^2} \right]$$

$$= R_c \left[\frac{(v_e + 2R_E)(V_{in1} - V_{in2})}{v_e^2 + 2v_e R_E + R_E^2 - R_E^2} \right]$$

$$= R_c \left[\frac{(v_e + 2R_E)(V_{in1} - V_{in2})}{v_e (v_e + 2R_E)} \right]$$

$$\therefore V_o = \frac{R_c}{r_e} (V_{in1} - V_{in2})$$

→ Thus, from this eq. we can say that, the diff. amp. amplifies the difference b/w two IP signals.

→ By defining " $V_{id} = V_{in1} - V_{in2}$ " as the diff. IP voltage, we can write the voltage gain for the dual IP, balanced OP amp. is

$$\text{Voltage gain, } A_d = \frac{V_o}{V_{id}} = \frac{R_c (V_{in1} - V_{in2})}{(V_{in1} - V_{in2})}$$

$$\therefore A_d = \frac{R_c}{r_e}$$

→ From this eq., we can say that, the voltage gain of diff. amp. is independent of ' R_c '.

Differential IP Resistance :-

Differential IP Resistance is defined as the eq. resistance, that would be measured at either IP terminal with other terminal grounded.

→ This means that, the IP resistance ' R_{IP} ' seen from the IP signal source V_{in1} is determined with the signal source V_{in2} set at zero.

→ Similarly, the IPB signal source, V_{in1} is set at (9) zero to determine the IPB distance ' R_{i2} ' seen from the IPB signal source V_{in2} .

→ Usually, the source impedances, R_{s1} & R_{s2} are very small & hence they will be ignored.

$$R_{i1} = \left| \frac{V_{in1}}{i_{e1}} \right|_{V_{in2}=0} = \left| \frac{V_{in1}}{i_{e1}/\beta_{ac}} \right|_{V_{in2}=0}$$

Substitute ' i_{e1} ' value in this eq., we get,

$$R_{i1} = \frac{\beta_{ac} V_{in1}}{(v_e + R_e) V_{in1} - (R_e)(0)} \quad \left[\because V_{in2}=0 \right]$$

$$= \frac{\beta_{ac} (v_e + 2v_e R_e)}{(v_e + R_e)^2 - (R_e)^2} \Rightarrow v_e + 2v_e R_e + R_e - R_e$$

$$R_{i1} = \frac{\beta_{ac} v_e (v_e + 2R_e)}{(v_e + R_e)}$$

Generally, $R_e \gg v_e$, which implies that, $(v_e + 2R_e) \approx 2R_e$
 $(v_e + R_e) \approx R_e$

$$\therefore R_{i1} = \frac{\beta_{ac} v_e (2R_e)}{R_e}$$

$$\boxed{\therefore R_{i1} = 2 \cdot \beta_{ac} v_e}$$

Similarly, $R_{i2} = \left| \frac{V_{in2}}{i_{e2}} \right|_{V_{in1}=0} = \left| \frac{V_{in2}}{i_{e2}/\beta_{ac}} \right|_{V_{in1}=0}$

By substituting 'is' value in 'R_{is}', we get,

$$R_{is} = \frac{\beta_{ac} V_{im}}{(v_e + R_c) I_{im} - R_c (0)} = \frac{\beta_{ac}}{(v_e + R_c) - 0}$$

$$= \frac{\beta_{ac} v_e (v_e + 2R_c)}{(v_e + R_c)}$$

However, $(v_e + 2R_c) \approx 2R_c$ & $(v_e + R_c) \approx R_c$.

$$\therefore R_{is} = \frac{\beta_{ac} v_e (2R_c)}{R_c}$$

$$\boxed{\therefore R_{is} = 2\beta_{ac} v_e}$$

Output Resistance :- Output resistance is defined as the eq. resistance that would be measured at either O/P terminal w.r. to GND.

→ Therefore, the O/P resistance 'R_{o1}' is measured b/w collector 'C₁' & GND is equal to that of collector resistance 'R_c'.

→ Similarly, the O/P resistance 'R_{o2}' is measured at collector 'C₂' w.r. to GND is equal to that of collector resistance 'R_c'.

$$\boxed{\therefore R_{o1} = R_{o2} = R_c}$$

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(10)

→ The current gain of the diff: amp: is unlimited.
Why because, the diff: amp: uses the common-emitter amplifier, so like the CE-amp: the diff: amp: is also a "small signal-amp:"

→ Therefore, generally it is used as a voltage amplifier, & not as a current (or) power amp.

→ So, in the a.c analysis we are calculating the voltage gain of diff: amp:

→ We are performing D.C analysis, in order to know the operating points $I_E \approx I_C$ & V_{CE} . means here we have to bias the amp.

→ Biasing means the process of applying proper supply voltages & currents.

→ Here, we are using emitter biasing, so, for that reason, in the d.c analysis, we are calculating ' I_E ' & ' V_{CE} '

→ And the a.c analysis is performed to know the gain of the amp: (or) to know how the amp: is better works

→ And in the a.c analysis, the voltage gain is independent of ' R_E ' it depends only on a.c emitter resistance ' r_e '.

Dual-EP. Balanced O/P :-

D.C. analysis :- $V_{o1} = V_{o2} = V_{c1}$

$$I_E = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{2R_E}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{ce} + V_{BE} - I_E R_C$$

A.C. analysis :-

$$A_d = \frac{R_C}{r_e}$$

$$R_{i1} = R_{i2} = 2 \beta_{ac} r_e$$

$$R_{o1} = R_{o2} = R_C$$

Single-EP. Balanced O/P :-

D.C. analysis :-

$$I_E = I_{EQ} = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{2R_E + R_{in}/\beta_{dc}}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CEQ} = V_{CE} + V_{BE} - I_{EQ} R_C$$

A.C. analysis :- $V_{o1} = V_{o2} = V_{c1}$

$$A_d = \frac{R_C}{r_e}$$

$$R_{i1} = R_{i2} = 2 \beta_{ac} r_e$$

$$R_{o1} = R_{o2} = R_C$$

Dual-EP. Unbalanced O/P

D.C. analysis :- $V_{o1} = V_{c2}$

$$I_E = I_{EQ} = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{2R_E + R_{in}/\beta_{dc}}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CEQ} = V_{CE} + V_{BE} - R_C I_{EQ}$$

A.C. analysis :-

$$A_d = \frac{V_o}{V_{pd}} = \frac{R_C}{2r_e}$$

$$R_{i1} = R_{i2} = 2 \beta_{ac} r_e$$

$$R_o = R_C$$

Single-EP Unbalanced O/P

D.C. analysis :-

$$I_E = I_{EQ} = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{2R_E + R_{in}/\beta_{dc}}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CEQ} = V_{CE} + V_{BE} - I_{EQ} R_C$$

A.C. analysis :-

$$V_{o1} = V_{c2} = V_{c1}$$

$$A_d = \frac{R_C}{2r_e}$$

$$R_{i1} = R_{i2} = 2 \beta_{ac} r_e$$

$$R_o = R_C$$

Voltage follower :-

In the non-inverting amp: if,

$R_f = 0$ & $R_1 = \infty$, we get $V_o = V_i \left(\frac{R_f + R_1}{R_1} \right) \left(\frac{\infty + 0}{\infty} \right) = \frac{\infty}{\infty}$

\therefore we get $V_o = V_i$

→ That is the O/P voltage is equal to the I/P voltage, both in magnitude & phase. In other words, we can also say that, the O/P voltage follows the I/P voltage exactly.

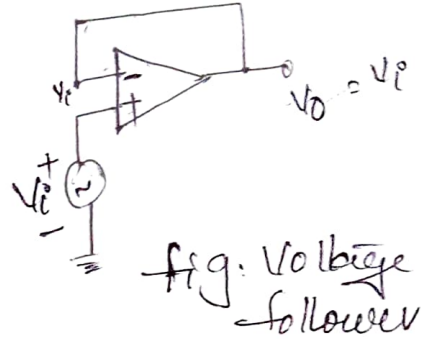


fig. Voltage follower

→ Hence, such a circuit is called, a Voltage-follower i.e its gain is unity. So, that it is also called as "Unity gain ckt"

→ The use of unity gain ckt, lies in the fact that, its I/P impedance is very high (i.e. MΩ) & O/P impedance is zero. Therefore, it draws negligible current from the source.

→ Thus a voltage follower may be used as "buffer" for impedance matching, i.e. to connect to a high impedance source & to a low impedance load.

Differential Amplifier:-

A circuit, that amplifies the difference b/w two signals is called a "difference" or "differential amplifier" is shown in below fig:

Analysis:-

Since, the diff: voltage (V_d) at the EIP terminals of op-amp is zero, the nodes 'a' & 'b' are at the same potential i.e. " V_3 ".

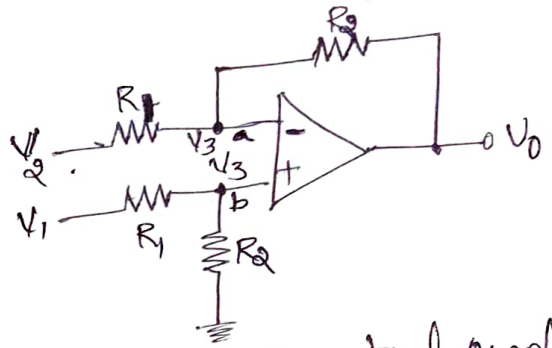


Fig. Differential Amplifier

→ The nodal eq: at node 'a' is

$$\frac{V_3 - V_2}{R_2} + \frac{V_3 - V_0}{R_3} = 0$$

$$= V_3 \left(\frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} \right) - \frac{V_2}{R_2} = \frac{V_0}{R_3} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

At node 'b' is

$$\frac{V_3 - V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_3}{R_4} = 0$$

$$= V_3 \left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_4} \right) - \frac{V_1}{R_1} = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Subtract eq. (2) from (1) we get,

$$\frac{1}{R_1} (V_1 - V_2) = \frac{V_0}{R_3}$$

$$\therefore V_0 = \frac{R_3}{R_1} (V_1 - V_2)$$

→ Such a ckt is very useful in detecting very small differences in signals, since the gain R_3/R_1 can be chosen to be very large.

→ For ex: if $R_3 = 100R_1$, then a small diff: $(V_1 - V_2)$ is "amplified 100 times".