
Chapter 5

Handy Circuit Analysis

Techniques

- 5.1 Linearity and Superposition
- 5.2 Source Transformation
- 5.3 Thévenin and Norton Equivalent Circuits
- 5.4 Maximum Power Transfer
- 5.5 Delta–Wye Conversion
- 5.6 Selecting an Approach: A Summary of Various Techniques

- Linear Elements and Linear Circuits

linear element: a passive element that has a linear voltage-current relationship

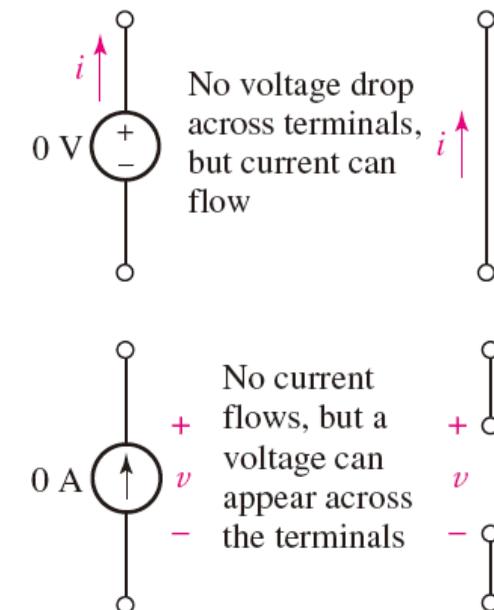
linear dependent source: a dependent source whose output is proportional only to the first power of a specified variable in the circuit (or to the sum of such quantities)

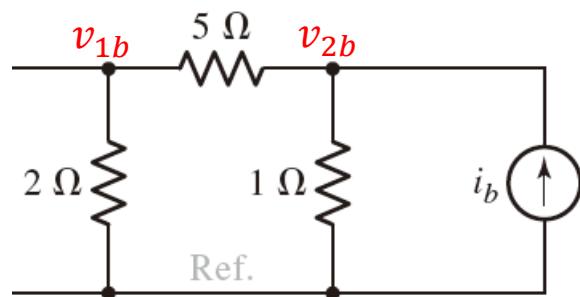
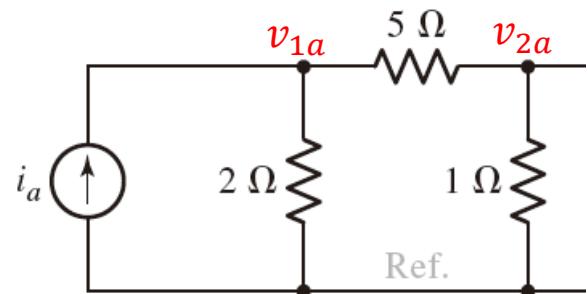
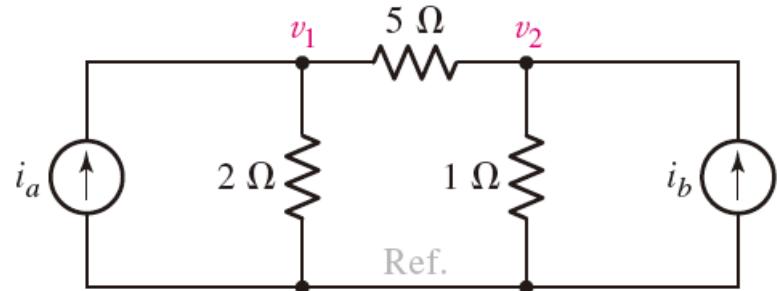
$$v_s = 0.5i_1 + 3v_2 \text{ vs. } v_s = 0.5i^2_1$$

linear circuit: a circuit composed entirely of independent sources, linear dependent sources, and linear elements.

- Superposition Theorem

In any linear resistive network, the voltage across or the current through any resistor or source may be calculated by **adding algebraically all the individual voltages or currents caused by the separate independent sources acting alone**, with all other independent sources "turned off" or "zeroed out".





$$\text{Node 1: } i_a = \frac{v_1}{2} + \frac{v_1 - v_2}{5} = 0.7v_1 - 0.2v_2$$

$$\text{Node 2: } i_b = \frac{v_2}{1} + \frac{v_2 - v_1}{5} = -0.2v_1 + 1.2v_2$$

$$\Rightarrow v_1 = 1.5i_a + 0.25i_b, v_2 = 0.25i_a + 0.875i_b$$

$$\text{Node 1: } i_a = \frac{v_1}{2} + \frac{v_1 - v_2}{5} = 0.7v_1 - 0.2v_2$$

$$\text{Node 2: } \frac{v_2}{1} = \frac{v_1 - v_2}{5} \rightarrow 0.2v_1 - 1.2v_2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{1a} = 1.5i_a, v_{2a} = 0.25i_a$$

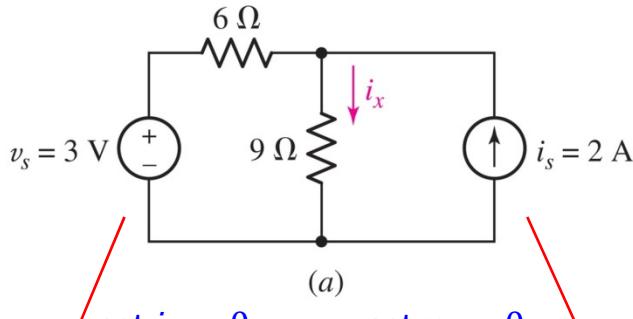
$$\text{Node 1: } \frac{v_1}{2} = \frac{v_2 - v_1}{5} \rightarrow 0.7v_1 - 0.2v_2 = 0$$

$$\text{Node 2: } i_b = \frac{v_2}{1} + \frac{v_2 - v_1}{5} = -0.2v_1 + 1.2v_2$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{1b} = 0.25i_b, v_{2b} = 0.875i_b$$

Superposition : $v_1 = v_{1a} + v_{1b}, v_2 = v_{2a} + v_{2b}$

Example 5.1 Use superposition to determine the branch current i_x

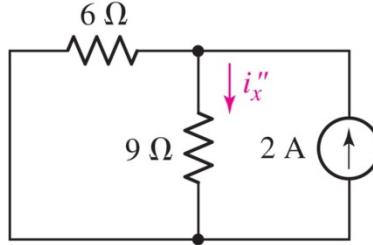
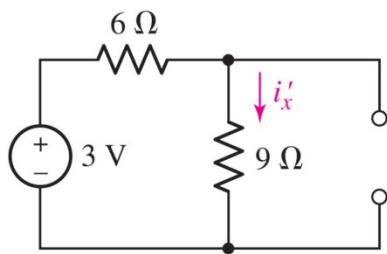


$$(b) i'_x = \frac{3}{6+9} = \frac{3}{15} A$$

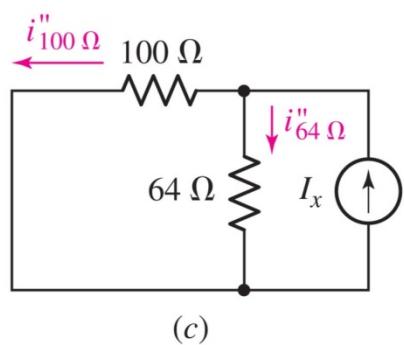
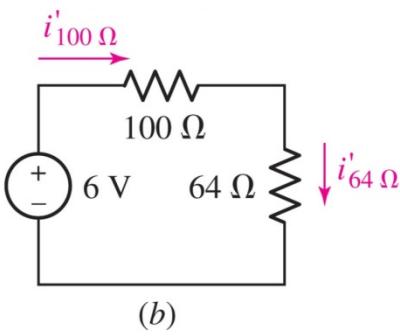
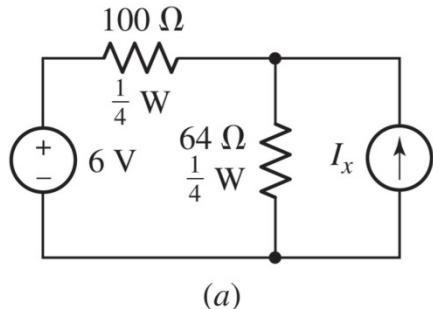
$$(c) i''_x = \frac{6}{6+9} i_s = \frac{6}{15} 2 = \frac{12}{15} A$$

(by current division)

$$\Rightarrow i_x = i'_x + i''_x = \frac{3}{15} + \frac{12}{15} = 1 A$$



Example 5.2 Determine the maximum *positive* current to which the source I_x can be set.



$$P = i^2 R \rightarrow i^2 = \frac{P}{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow i_{\max(100\Omega)} = \sqrt{\frac{P_{\max}}{R}} = \sqrt{\frac{1/4}{100}} = 50 \text{ mA}$$

$$\Rightarrow i_{\max(64\Omega)} = \sqrt{\frac{P_{\max}}{R}} = \sqrt{\frac{1/4}{64}} = 62.5 \text{ mA}$$

$$(b) i'_{100\Omega} = i'_{64\Omega} = \frac{6}{100 + 64} = \frac{6}{164} \text{ mA}$$

$$(c) i''_{100\Omega} = \frac{64}{100 + 64} I_x, \\ i''_{64\Omega} = \frac{100}{100 + 64} I_x$$

$$(a) i_{100\Omega} = -\frac{6}{164} + \frac{64}{164} I_x, \quad \text{positive } I_x \\ i_{64\Omega} = \frac{6}{164} + \frac{100}{164} I_x$$

$$i_{100\Omega} = -\frac{6}{164} + \frac{64}{164} I_x < 50 \times 10^{-3}$$

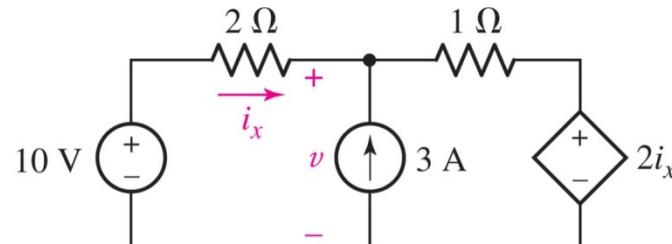
$$\Rightarrow I_x < (86.59 \times 10^{-3}) \left(\frac{164}{64} \right) = 222 \text{ mA}$$

$$i_{64\Omega} = \frac{6}{164} + \frac{100}{164} I_x < 62.5 \times 10^{-3}$$

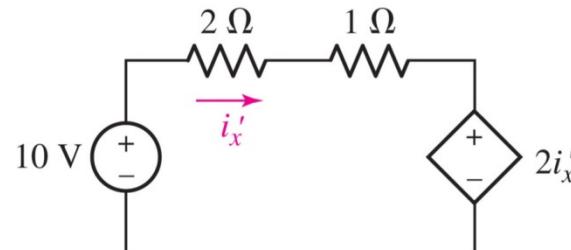
$$\Rightarrow I_x < (25.91 \times 10^{-3}) \left(\frac{164}{100} \right) = 42.5 \text{ mA}$$

$I_{x_max} = 42.5 \text{ mA}$

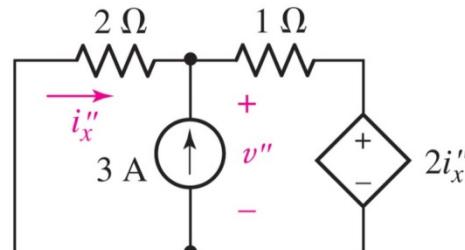
Example 5.3 Use the superposition principle to determine the current i_x



(a)



(b)



(c)

$$(b) -10 + 2i'_x + i'_x + 2i'_x = 0$$

$$\rightarrow i'_x = 2 \text{ A}$$

$$(c) \frac{0 - v''}{2} + 3 + \frac{2i''_x - v''}{1} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow i''_x + 3 + 2i''_x + 2i''_x = 0$$

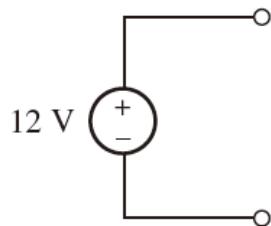
$$\rightarrow i''_x = -0.6 \text{ A}$$

$$v'' = -2i''_x$$

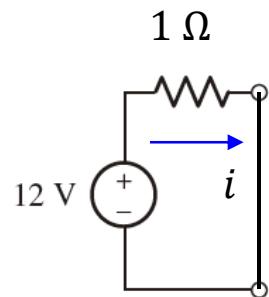
$$\therefore i_x = i'_x + i''_x = 2 - 0.6 = 1.4 \text{ A}$$

- Practical Voltage Sources

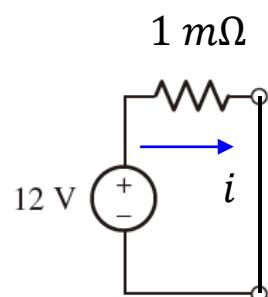
ideal 12 V voltage source



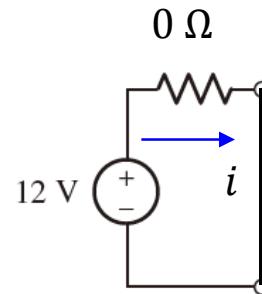
independent of the current flowing through them



$$i = \frac{12}{1} = 12 A$$

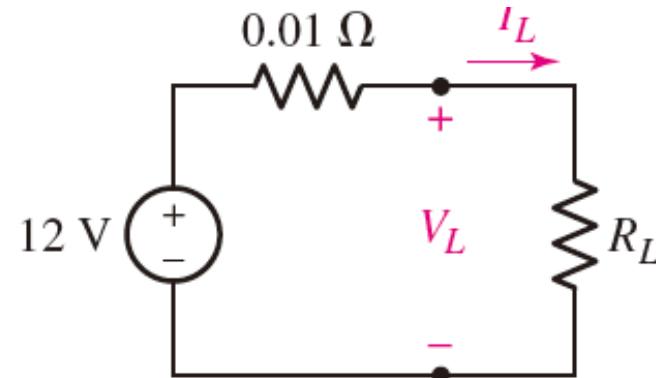
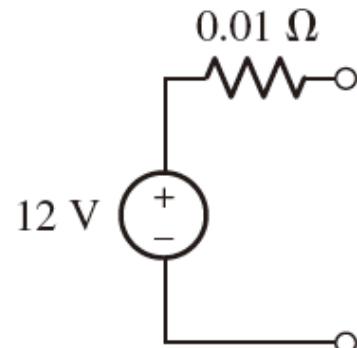


$$i = \frac{12}{10^{-3}} = 12,000 A$$



What happens?

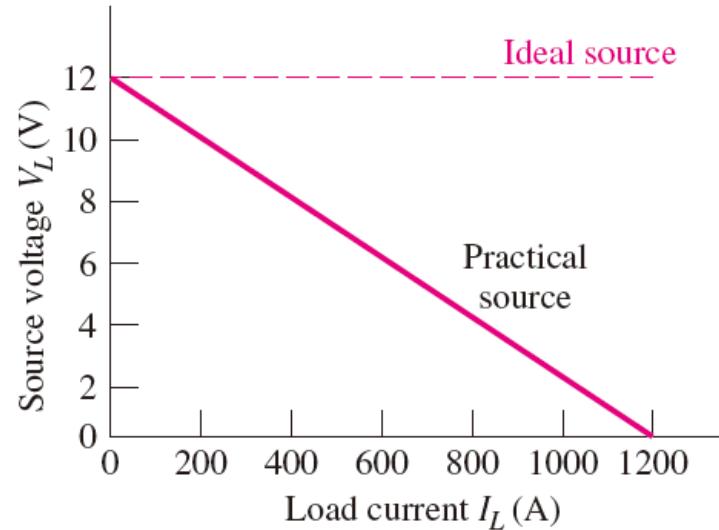
$$i = \infty ?$$

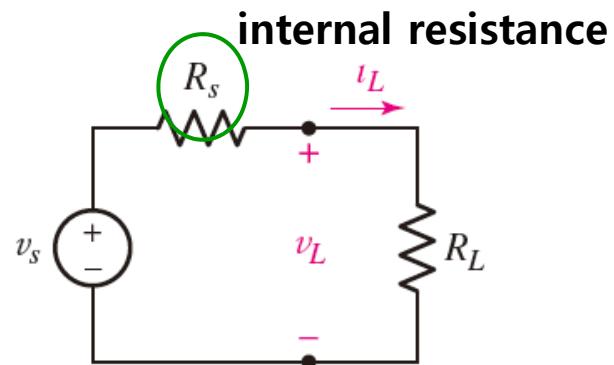
practical 12 V voltage source

$$-12 + 0.01I_L + V_L = 0$$

$$\rightarrow V_L = -0.01I_L + 12$$

$$\rightarrow V_L = -0.01 \frac{12}{R_L + 0.01} + 12$$





$$-v_s + i_L R_s + v_L (= i_L R_L) = 0$$

$$\rightarrow v_L = v_s - i_L R_s$$

$$\rightarrow i_L = \frac{v_s - v_L}{R_s}$$

$R_L = \infty$ (open circuit)

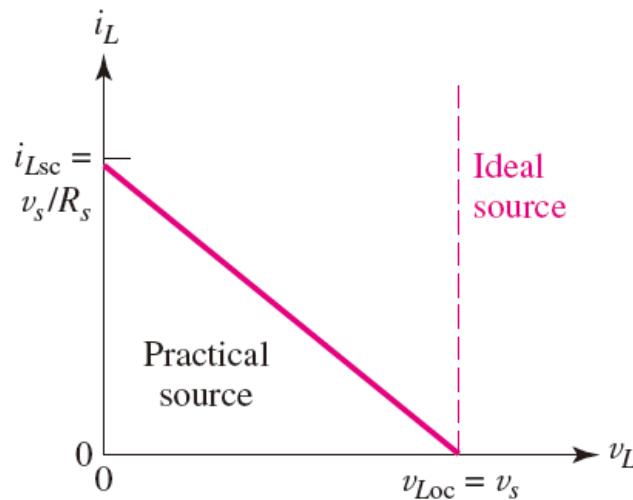
$$\Rightarrow i_L = 0$$

$v_{Loc} = v_s$ **open circuit voltage**

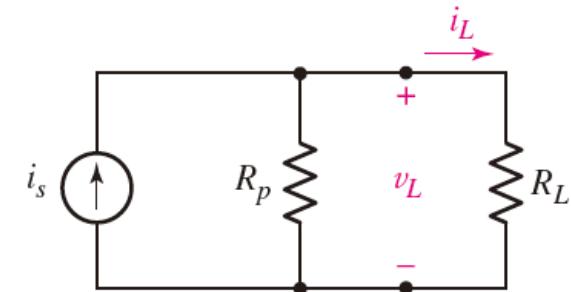
$R_L = 0$ (short circuit)

$$\Rightarrow v_L = 0$$

$i_{Lsc} = \frac{v_s}{R_s}$ **short circuit current**



- Practical Current Sources

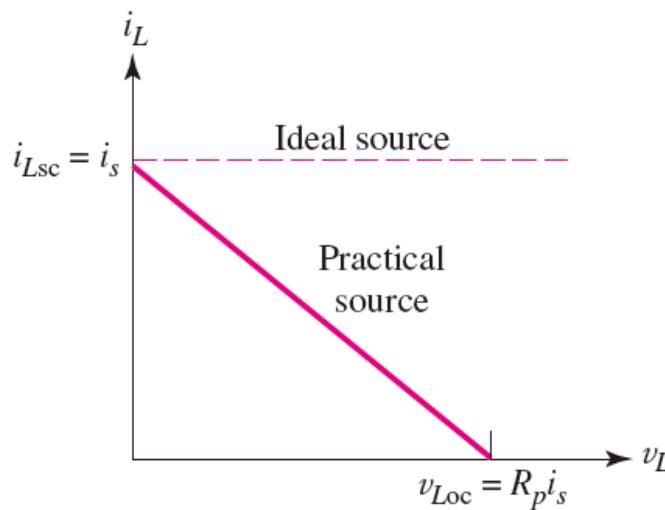


$$i_L = i_s - \frac{v_L}{R_p}$$

$R_L = \infty$ (open circuit)

$$i_L = 0$$

$v_{Loc} = i_s R_p$ **open circuit voltage**

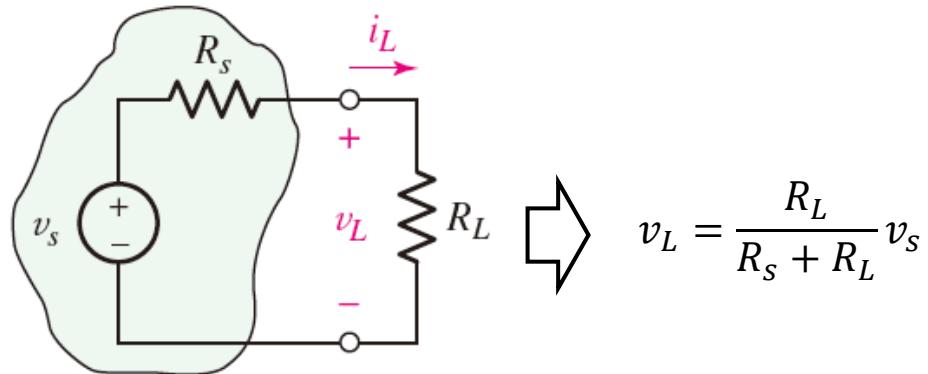


$R_L = 0$ (short circuit)

$$v_L = 0$$

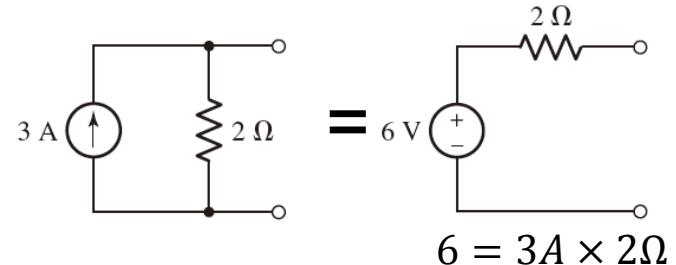
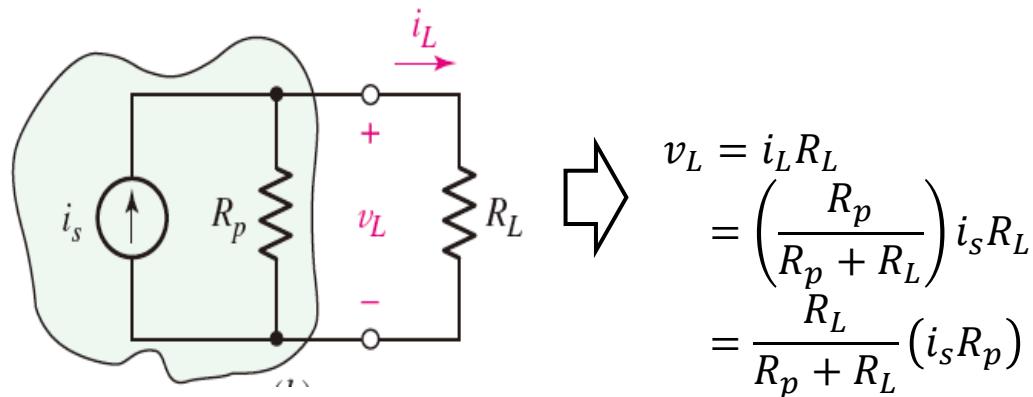
$i_{Lsc} = i_s$ **short circuit current**

- Equivalent Practical Sources

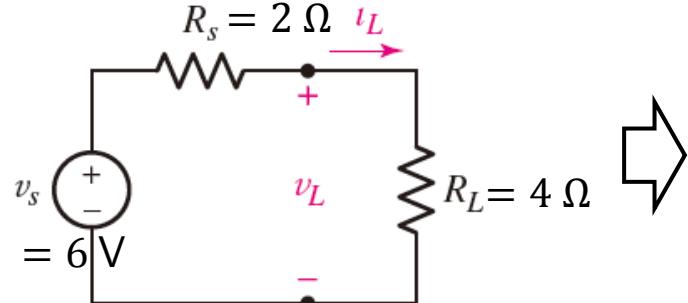


equivalent if

$$\begin{aligned} R_s &= R_p \\ v_s &= i_s R_p = i_s R_s \end{aligned}$$



- Equivalent Practical Sources

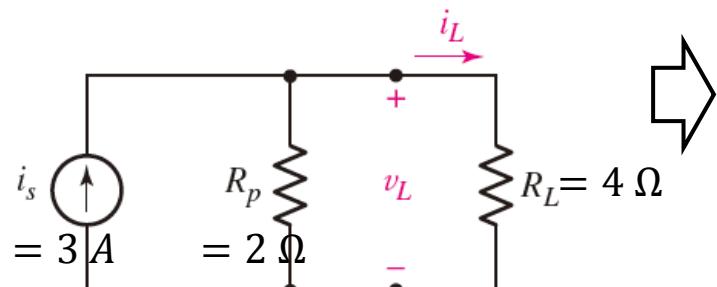


$$\begin{aligned}v_L &= \frac{4}{2+4} 6 = 4 V \\i_L &= \frac{6}{2+4} = 1 A \\p_{R_L} &= 4 W\end{aligned}$$

$$p_{v_s} = v_s i_L = 6 \times 1 = 6 W$$

$$p_{R_s} = 2 \times 1^2 = 2 W$$

Equivalent
at load

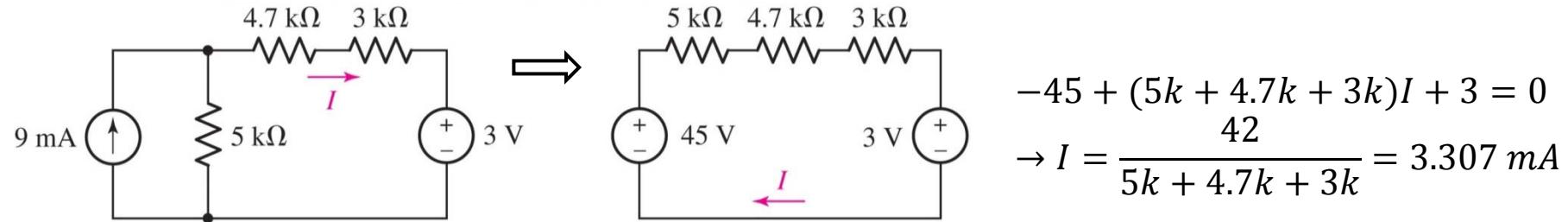


$$\begin{aligned}v_L &= \frac{2}{2+4} (3 \times 4) = 4 V \\i_L &= \frac{2}{2+4} 3 = 1 A \\p_{R_L} &= 4 W\end{aligned}$$

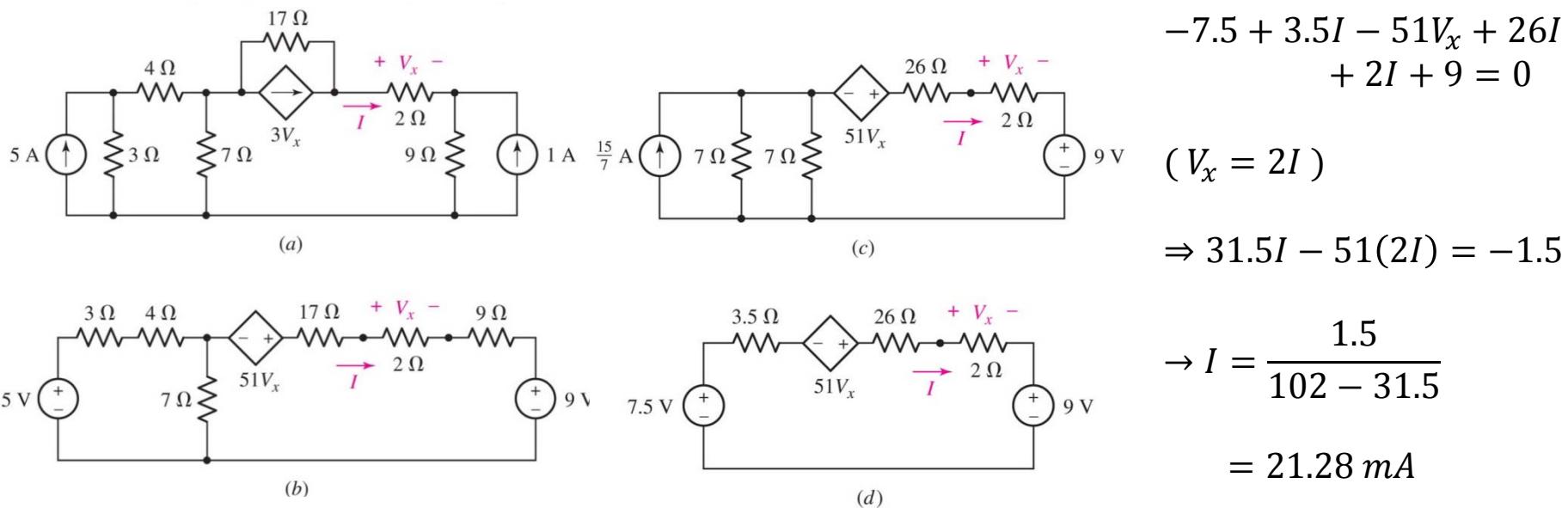
$$p_{i_s} = v_L i_s = 4 \times 3 = 12 W$$

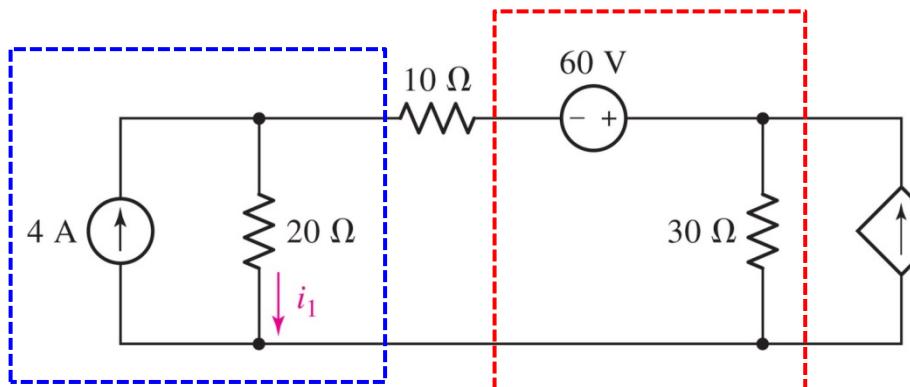
$$p_{R_p} = (3 - 1) \times 2^2 = 8 W$$

Example 5.4 Compute the current through the $4.7 \text{ k}\Omega$ resistor



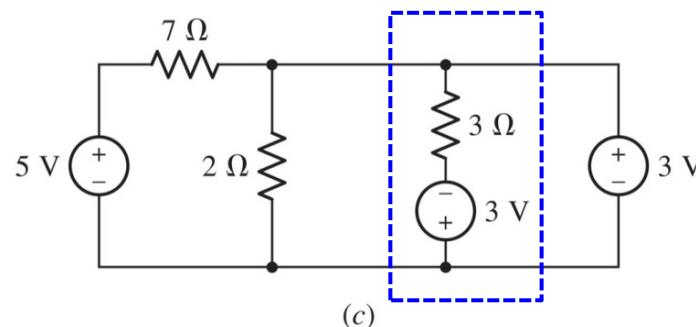
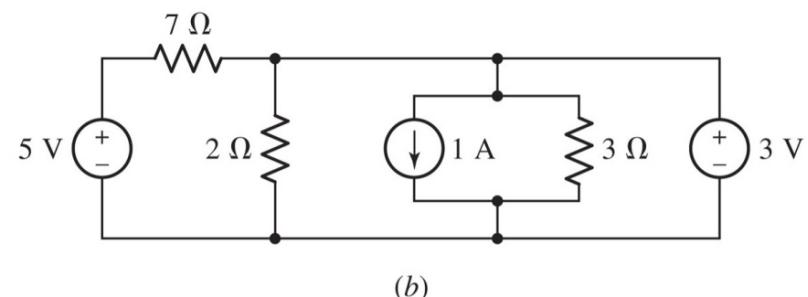
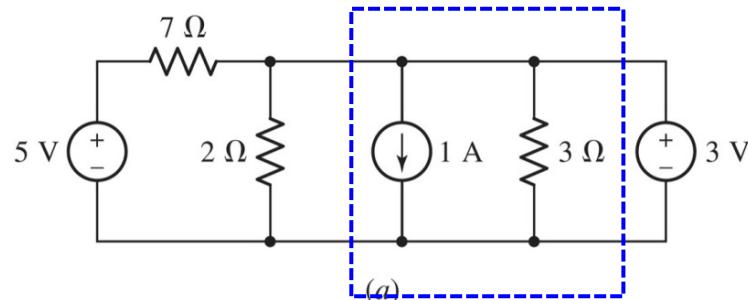
Example 5.5 Calculate the current through the 2Ω resistor



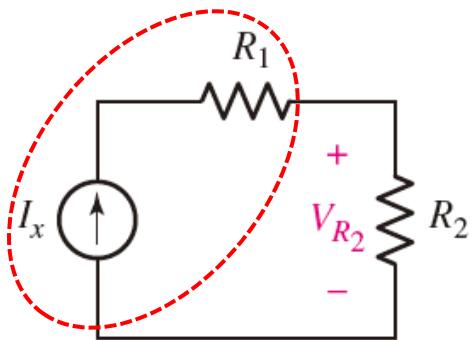


source transformation: OK!
: current source and resistor are in parallel

source transformation: invalid!
: voltage source and resistor are NOT in series



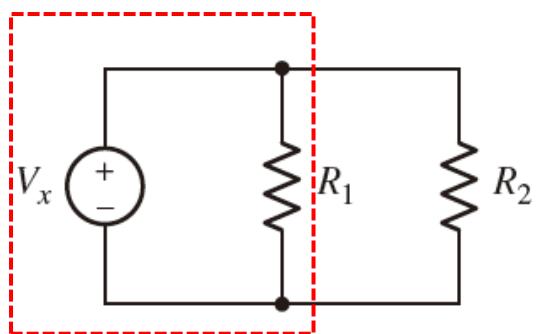
- Unusual Cases



Current source and resistor are in series

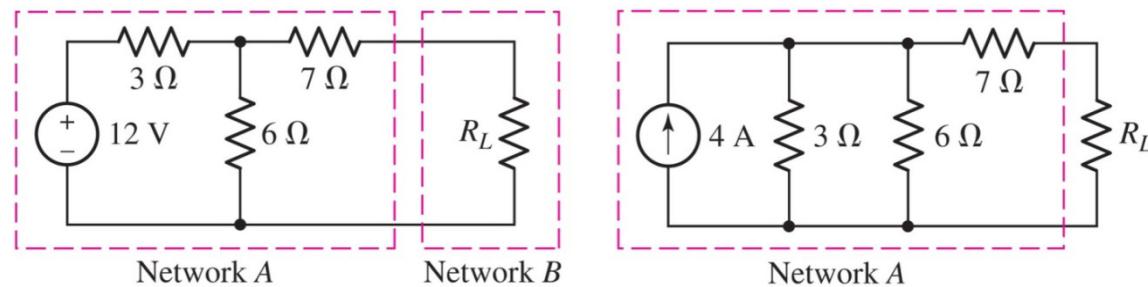
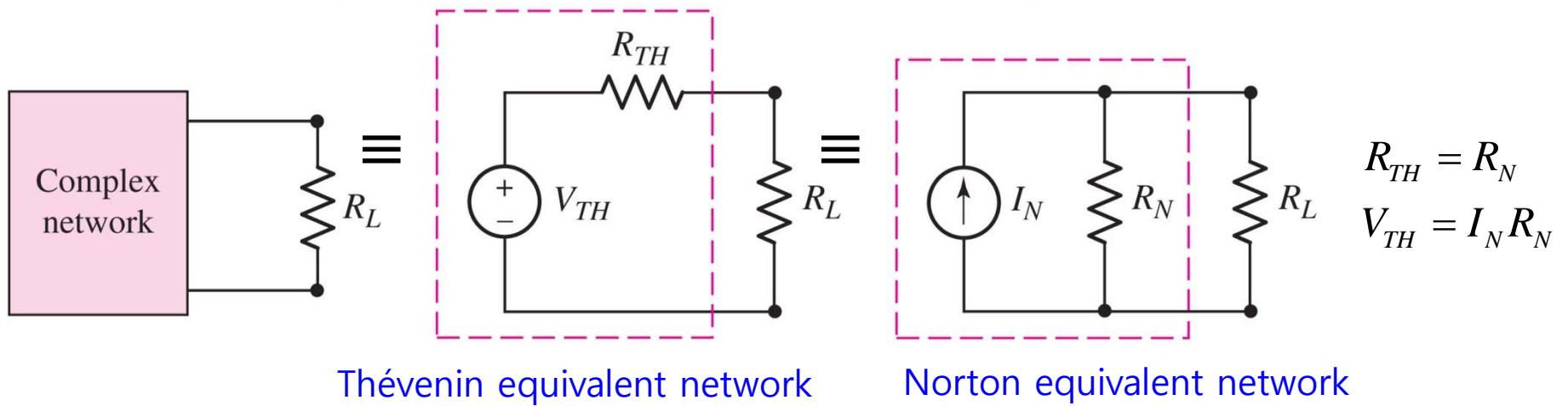
Regardless of R_1 value, may omit R_1

$$V_{R_2} = I_x R_2$$

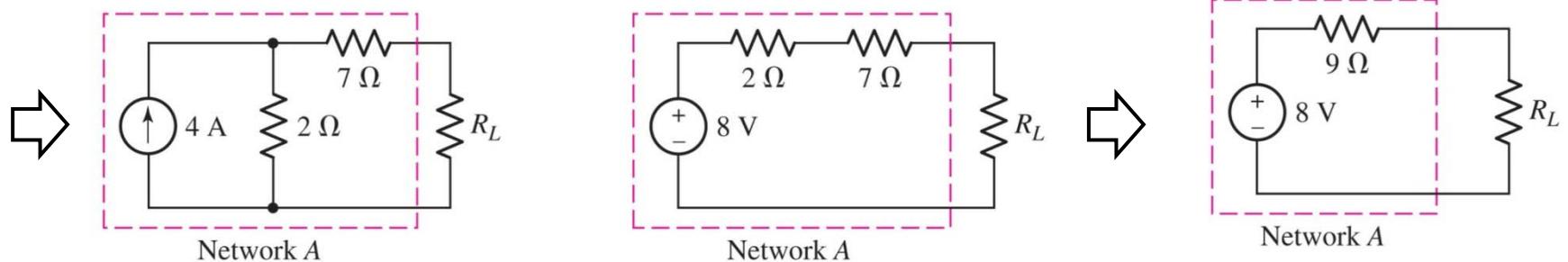


Voltage source and resistor are in parallel

R_1 does not alter the voltage across, the current through, or the power dissipated by R_2



Voltage, current, and power at the load is maintained !!!



- Thévenin's Theorem

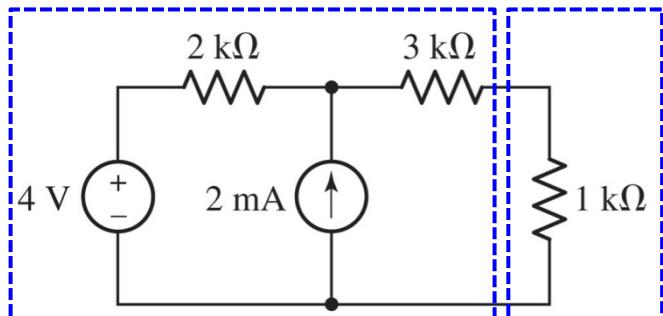
1. Given any linear circuit, rearrange it in the form of two networks, A and B, connected by two wires. A is the network to be simplified; B will be left untouched.
2. Disconnect network B. Define a voltage V_{oc} as the voltage now appearing across the terminals of network A.
3. Turn off or “zero out” every independent source in the network A to form an inactive network. Leave dependent sources unchanged.
4. Connect an independent voltage source with value V_{oc} in **series** with the inactive network. Do now complete the circuit; leave the two terminals **disconnected (open)**.
5. Connect network B to the terminals of the new network A. All currents and voltages in B will remain unchanged.
6. The only restriction that we must impose on A or B is that all dependent sources in A have their control variables in A, and similarly for B
7. The inactive network A can be represented by a single equivalent resistance R_{TH} , which we will call the *Thévenin equivalent resistance*.

- Norton's Theorem

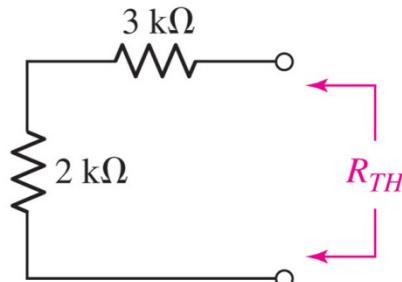
1. Given any linear circuit, rearrange it in the form of two networks, A and B, connected by two wires. Network A is the network to be simplified; B will be left untouched. As before, if either network contains a dependent source, *its controlling variable must be in the same network*
2. Disconnect network B and short the terminals of A. Define a current i_{sc} as the current now flowing through the shorted terminals of network A.
3. Turn off or “zero out” every independent source in the network A to form an inactive network. Leave dependent sources unchanged.
4. Connect an independent voltage source with value i_{sc} in **parallel** with the inactive network. Do now complete the circuit; leave the two terminals **disconnected**.
5. Connect network B to the terminals of the new network A. All currents and voltages in B will remain unchanged.

$$v_{oc} = R_{TH} i_{sc}$$

Example 5.8 Find the Thévenin and Norton equivalent circuits, faced by the $1\text{ k}\Omega$ resistor.

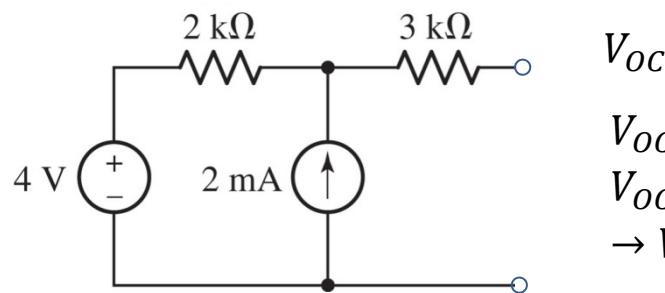


Network A



Zero-out the independent sources in network A.

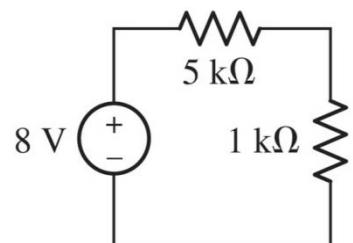
$$R_{TH} = 3 + 2 = 5 \Omega$$



$$V_{OC} = V_{OC|4V} + V_{OC|2mA}$$

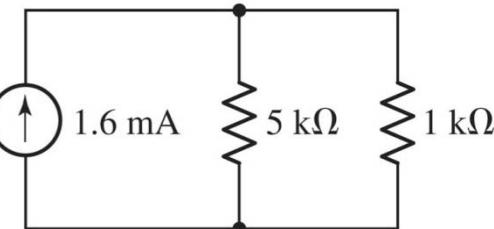
$$V_{OC|4V} = 4V$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{OC|2mA} &= (2 \times 10^{-3})(2 \times 10^3) = 4V \\ \rightarrow V_{OC} &= V_{OC|4V} + V_{OC|2mA} = 4 + 4 = 8V \end{aligned}$$

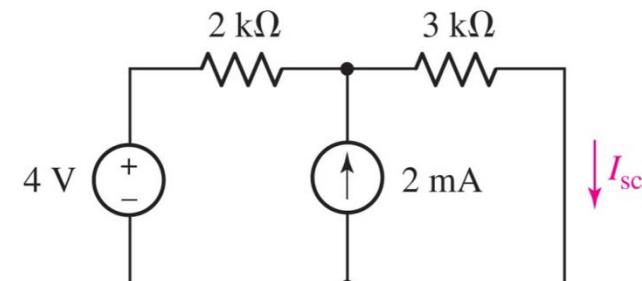


Thévenin equivalent network

Source transform
→



Norton equivalent network

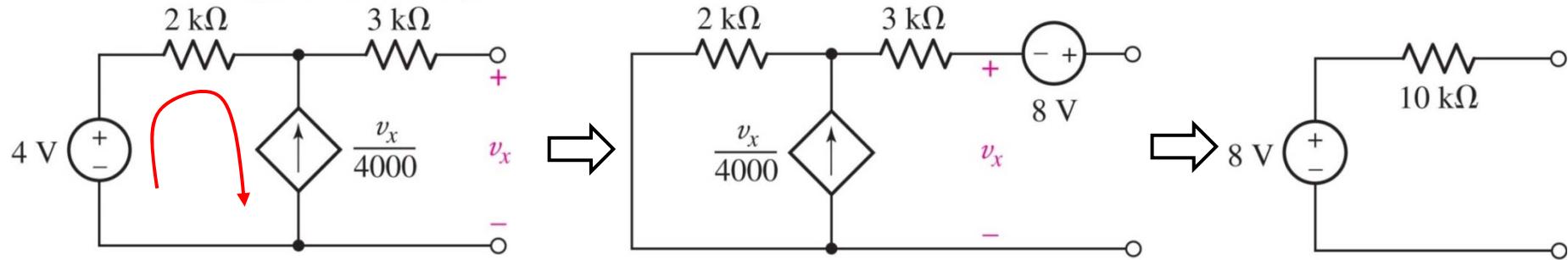


$$\begin{aligned} I_{SC} &= I_{SC|4V} + I_{SC|2mA} \\ &= \frac{4}{2+3} + \frac{2}{2+3} 2 = \frac{8}{5} A \end{aligned}$$

- When Dependent sources are present

- Controlling variable and its associated element(s) should be in the same network.

Example 5.9 Determine the Thévenin equivalent circuits



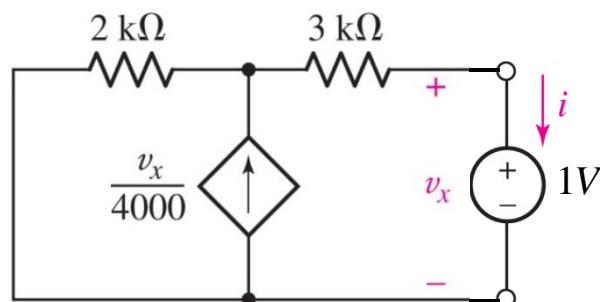
$$-4 + 2 \times 10^3 \left(-\frac{v_x}{4000} \right) + v_x = 0$$

$$\rightarrow v_x = v_{oc} = V_{TH} = 8 V$$

- Finding R_{TH}

Useless form of Thévenin circuit

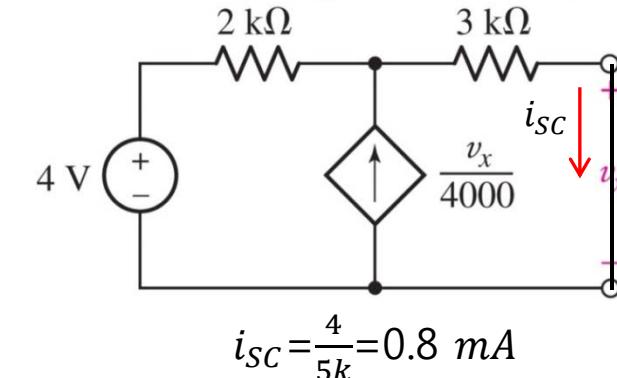
$$v_{oc} = R_{TH} i_{sc}$$



$$v_x = 1 V$$

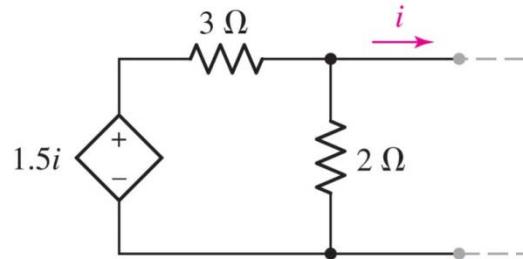
$$i = \frac{1}{4000} \times \frac{2}{3+2} = 0.1 mA$$

$$R_{TH} = \frac{1 V}{i} = 10 k\Omega$$

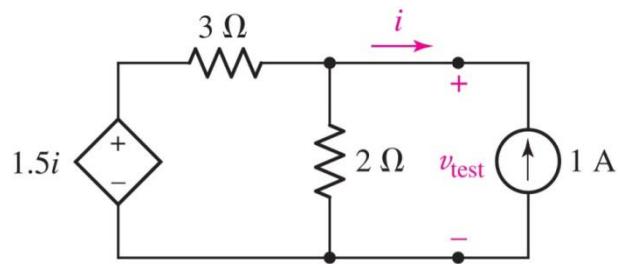


$$i_{sc} = \frac{4}{5k} = 0.8 mA$$

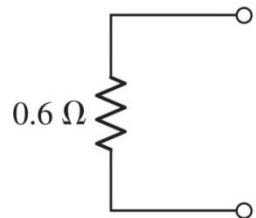
Example 5.10 Determine the Thévenin equivalent circuits (No independent source)



$$\begin{aligned} v_{oc} &= 0 \\ i_{sc} &= 0 \end{aligned} \implies R_{TH} = \frac{0}{0} : \text{Too much answer}$$

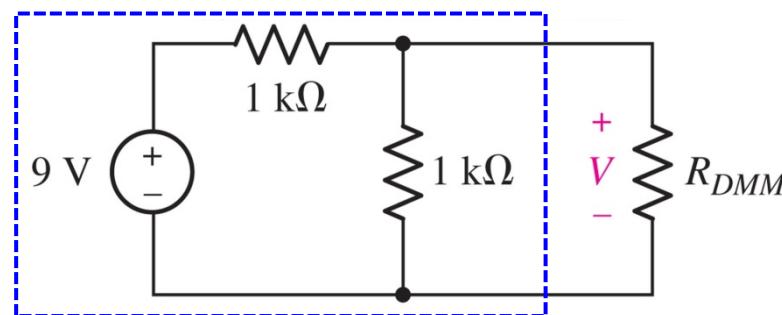
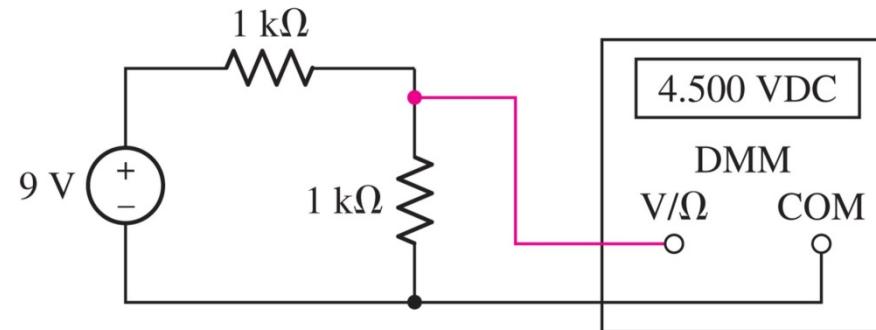


$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \frac{v_{test}}{2} + \frac{v_{test} - 1.5i}{3} \\ \rightarrow 6 &= 3v_{test} + 2v_{test} - 1.5 \times (-1) \times 2 \\ \rightarrow v_{test} &= \frac{3}{5} V \end{aligned}$$



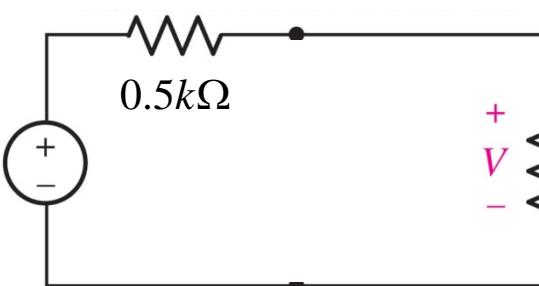
$$R_{TH} = \frac{v_{test}}{1 A} = 0.6 \Omega$$

- Digital Multimeter: Voltage



$$R_{TH} = 1 \parallel 1 = 500 \Omega$$

$$V_{OC} = \frac{1}{1+1} 9 = 4.5 V$$



$$V = \frac{R_{DMM}}{R_{TH} + R_{DMM}} V_{OC}$$

$$= \frac{10 \times 10^6}{500 + 10 \times 10^6} 4.5 = 4.4998 V$$

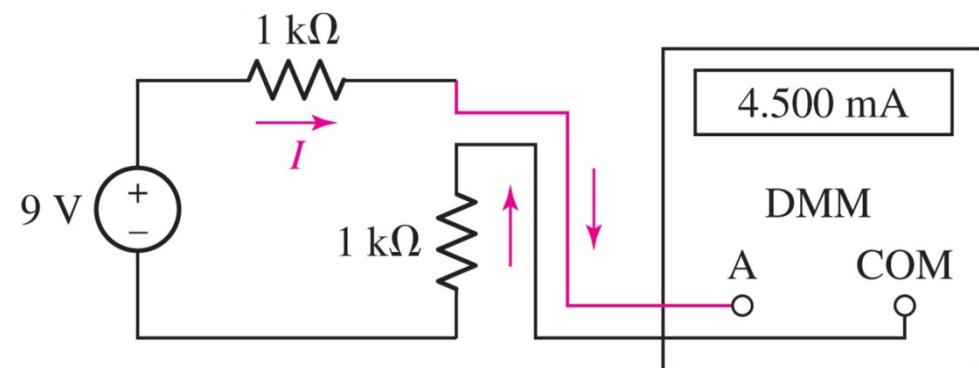
- Digital Multimeter: Current

$$-9 + 1000I + R_{DMM}I + 1000I = 0$$

$$\rightarrow I = \frac{9}{2000 + R_{DMM}}$$

$$R_{DMM} = 0.1 \Omega \rightarrow I = 4.4998 \text{ mA}$$

Less than 4.5 mA (ideal value)



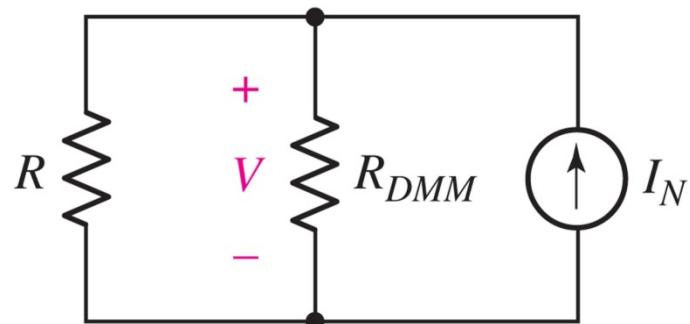
Ideal DMM

$R_{DMM} = 0$ for current measurement

$R_{DMM} = \infty$ for voltage measurement

- Digital Multimeter: Resistance

DMM actually measures $R \parallel R_{DMM}$



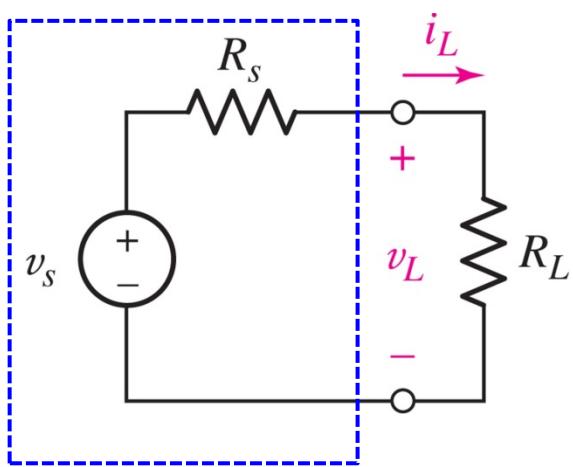
$$V = (R \parallel R_{DMM}) I_N$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{DMM} &= 10 M\Omega \\ R &= 10 \Omega \end{aligned}$$

$$\rightarrow R_{DMM} \parallel R = 9.9999 \Omega$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{DMM} &= 10 M\Omega \\ R &= 10 M\Omega \\ \rightarrow R_{DMM} \parallel R &= 5 M\Omega \end{aligned}$$

- An independent voltage source in series with a resistance R_s , or an independent current source in parallel with a resistance R_s , delivers maximum power to a load resistance R_L such that $R_L = R_s$.



$$i_L = \frac{v_s}{R_s + R_L}$$

Minimum power transfer

$$p_L = i_L^2 R_L = \frac{R_L v_s^2}{(R_s + R_L)^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad R_L = 0 \rightarrow p_L = 0, \\ R_L = \infty \rightarrow p_L = 0$$

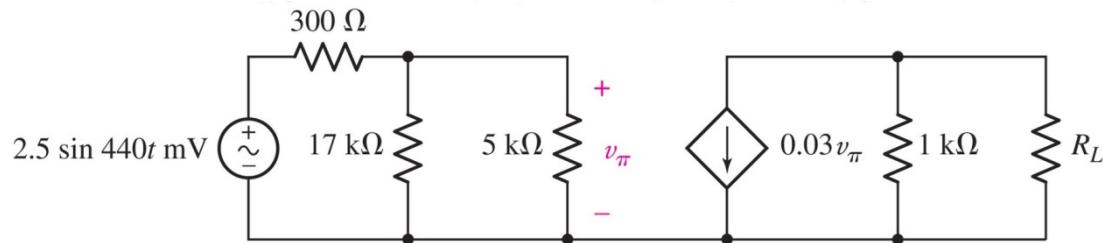
$$\frac{dp_L}{dR_L} = \frac{(R_s + R_L)^2 v_s^2 - 2v_s^2 R_L (R_s + R_L)}{(R_s + R_L)^4} = 0 \\ \Rightarrow 2R_L(R_s + R_L) = (R_s + R_L)^2$$

$$R_{TH} = R_s \\ V_{TH} = v_s$$

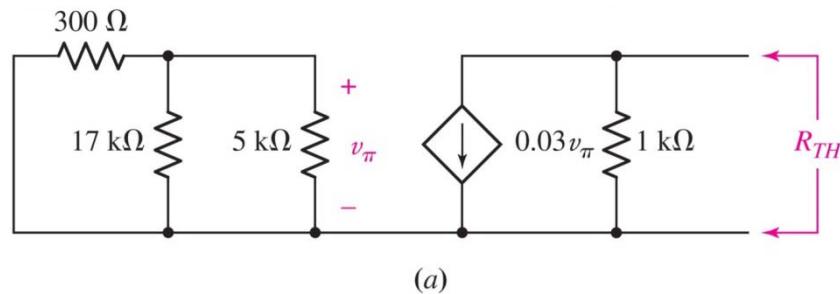
$\Rightarrow R_L = R_s$ Condition for maximum power transfer

$$p_L = \frac{R_s v_s^2}{(R_s + R_s)^2} = \frac{v_s^2}{4R_s} = \frac{v_{TH}^2}{4R_{TH}}$$

Example 5.11 Choose a load resistance so that maximum power is transferred.



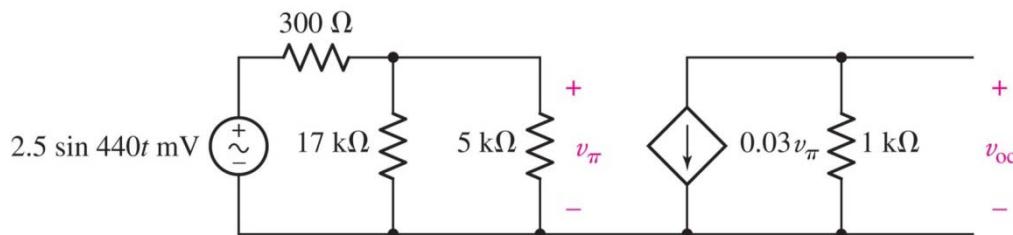
$$R_{TH} = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$$



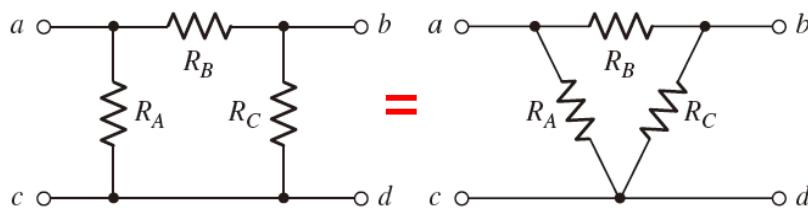
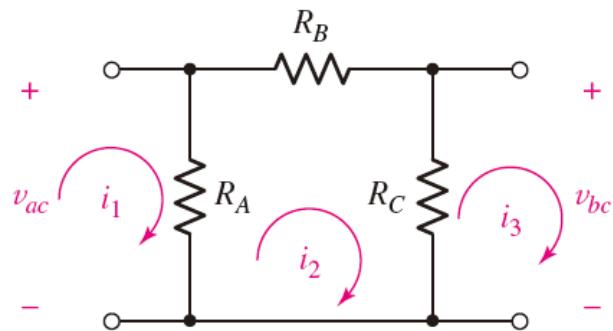
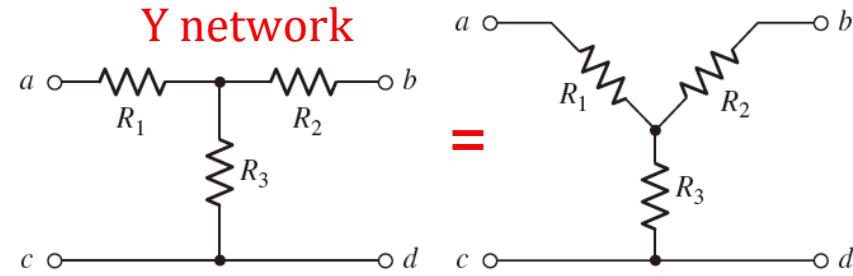
$$v_{oc} = 1k \times (-0.03v_\pi) = -30v_\pi$$

$$v_\pi = \frac{17||5}{0.3+17||5} (2.5 \sin 440t) \text{ mV}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{oc} = -69.6 \sin 440t \text{ mV}$$



$$p_{max} = \frac{v_{oc}^2}{4R_{TH}} \\ = 1.211 \sin^2 440t \mu\text{W}$$

Δ network**Y network**

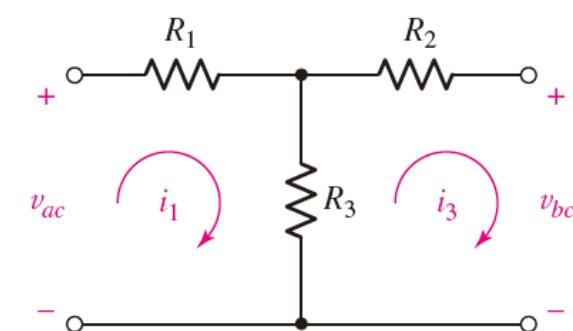
v_{ac} , v_{bc} , i_1 ,
and i_3 are
same in both
networks

$$\begin{aligned}v_{ac} &= R_A(i_1 - i_2) \\R_A(i_2 - i_1) + R_B i_2 + R_C(i_2 - i_3) &= 0 \\-v_{bc} &= R_C(i_3 - i_2)\end{aligned}$$

$$R_A = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_2}$$

$$R_B = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_3}$$

$$R_C = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_1}$$



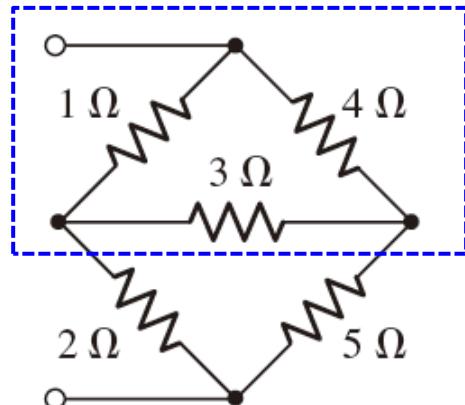
$$\begin{aligned}v_{ac} &= R_1 i_1 + R_3(i_1 - i_3) \\-v_{bc} &= R_2 i_3 - R_3(i_3 - i_1)\end{aligned}$$

$$R_1 = \frac{R_A R_B}{R_A + R_B + R_C}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{R_B R_C}{R_A + R_B + R_C}$$

$$R_3 = \frac{R_C R_A}{R_A + R_B + R_C}$$

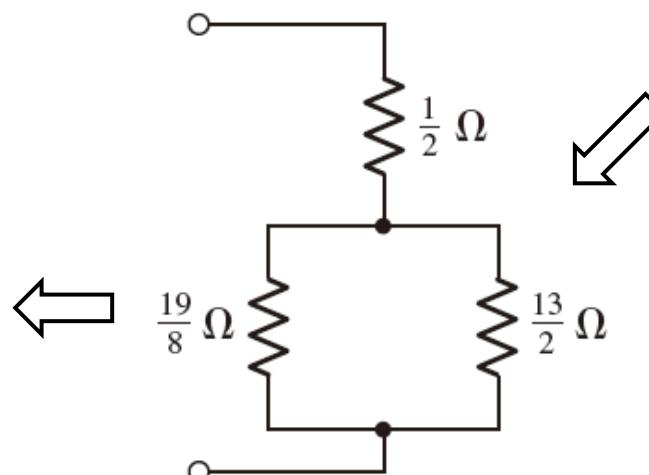
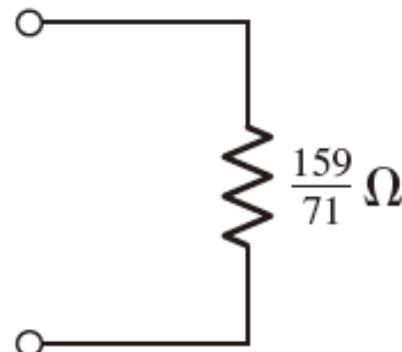
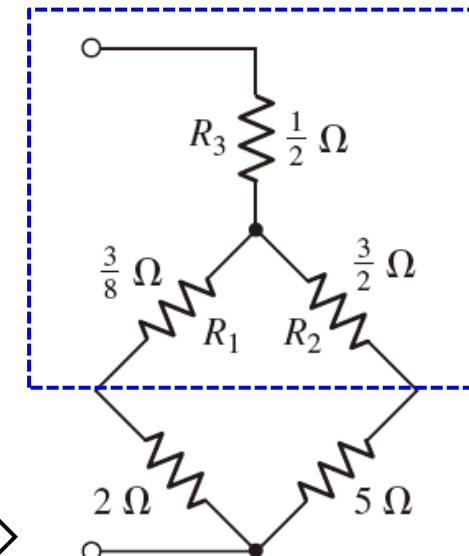
Example 5.12 Find the Thévenin equivalent circuits (using Δ -Y conversion)



$$R_1 = \frac{1 \times 3}{1 + 3 + 4} = \frac{3}{8}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{3 \times 4}{1 + 3 + 4} = \frac{12}{8}$$

$$R_3 = \frac{4 \times 1}{1 + 3 + 4} = \frac{4}{8}$$



Homework : 5장 Exercises 5의 배수 문제 (70번 문제까지)

- Due day : 5장 수업 끝나고 일주일 후 수업시작 전까지 제출.

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