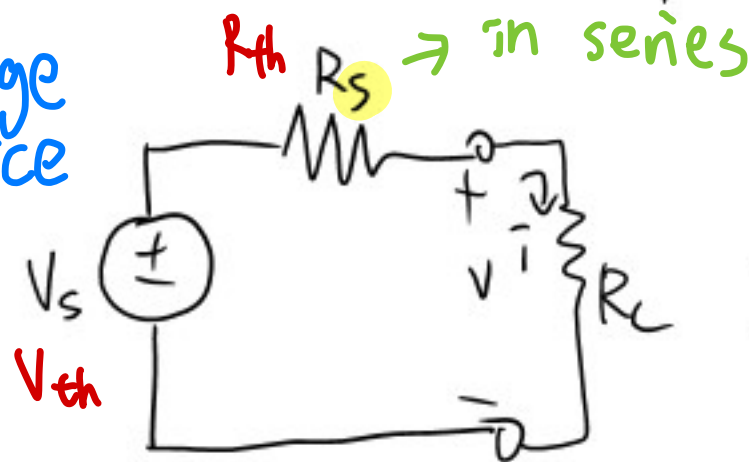


Circuit theorems: a way to reduce the complexity of the circuit

② Source transformation

voltage source



Thevenin's Law

① $R_L = \infty$ (open circuit)

$$V = V_s \quad V = I_s \cdot R_p$$

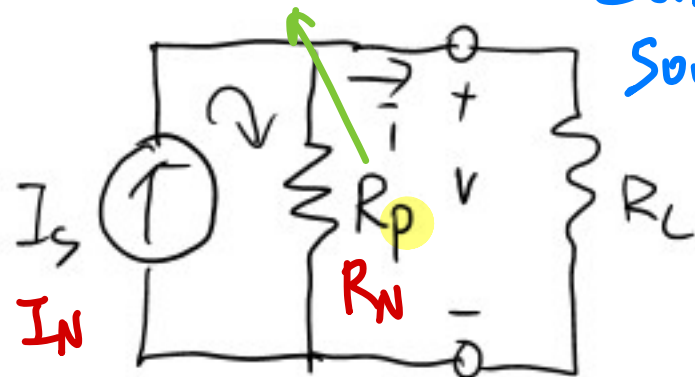
② $R_L = 0$ (short circuit)

$$I = \frac{V_s}{R_s} \quad I = I_s$$

model for practical voltage or current source

in parallel

current source



Norton's Law

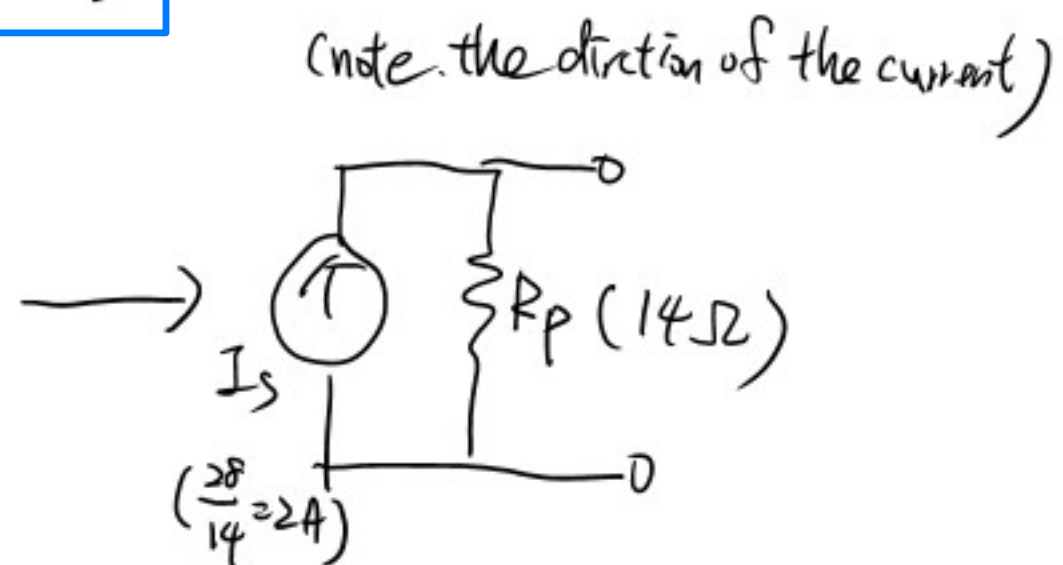
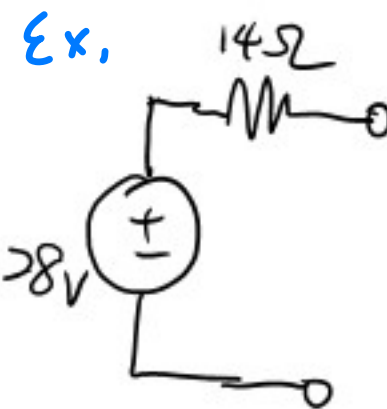
$$V_s = I_s \cdot R_p \Rightarrow R_p = \frac{V_s}{I_s}$$

$$\frac{V_s}{R_s} = I_s \Rightarrow R_s = \frac{V_s}{I_s}$$

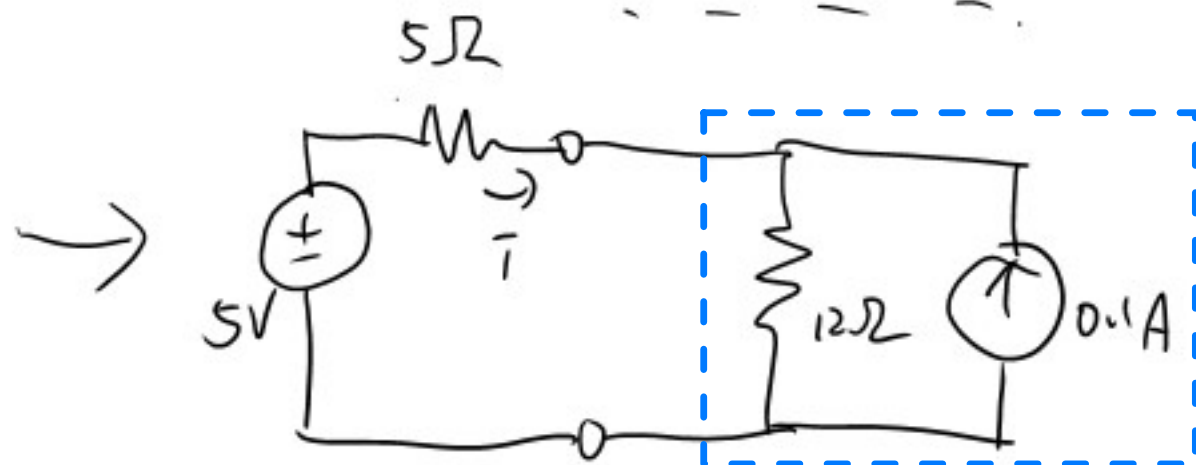
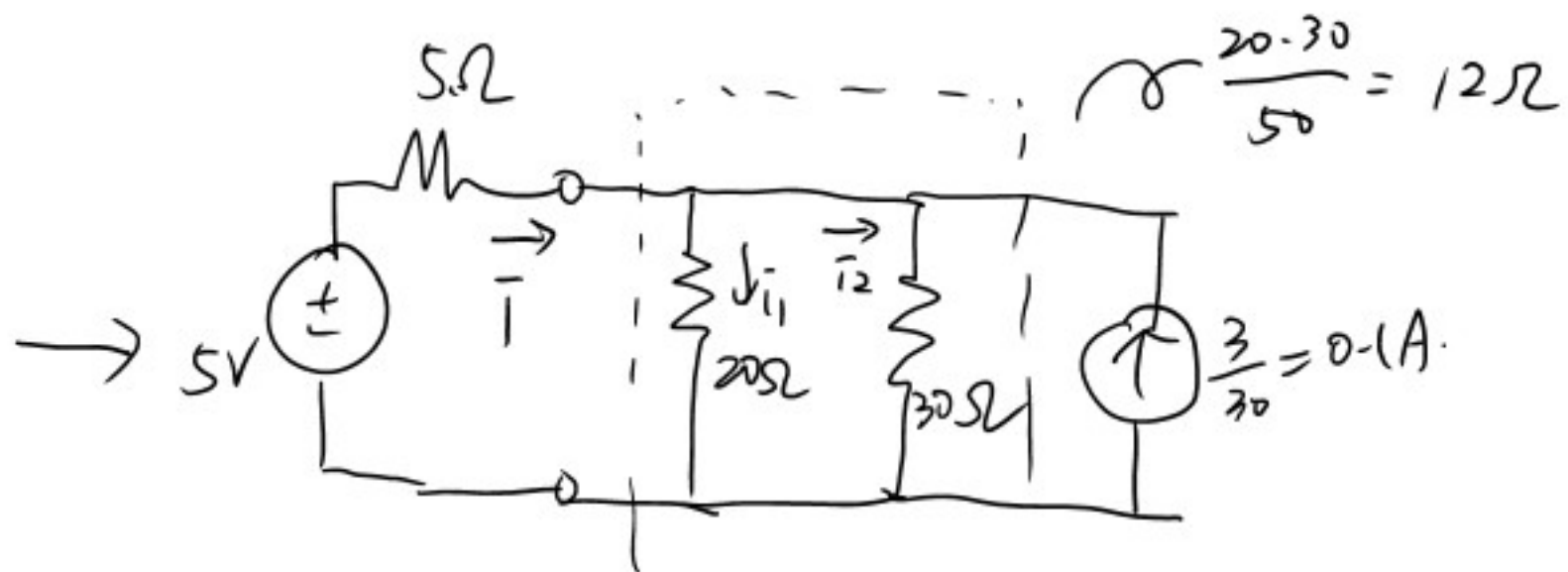
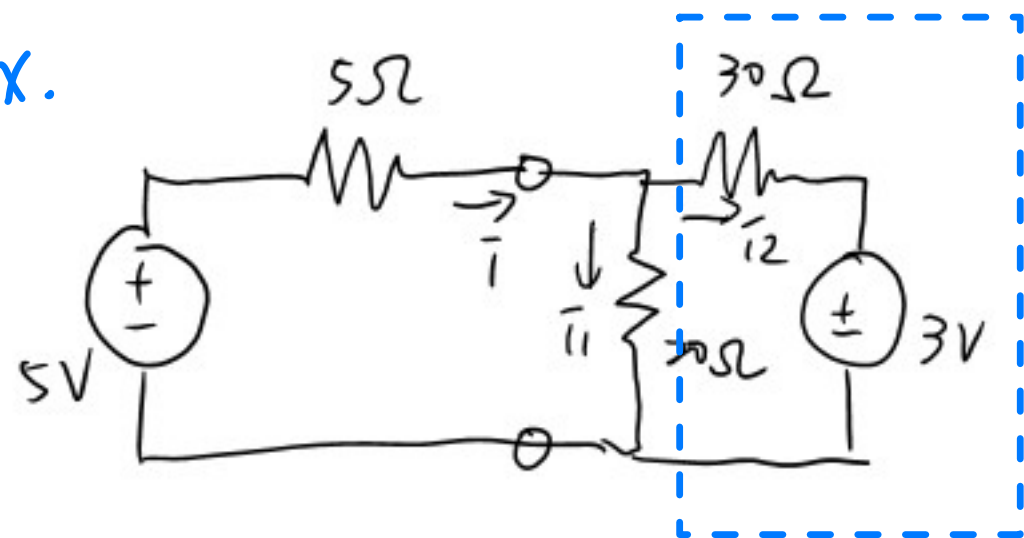
R_L : load resistance
负载电阻

internal resistance lowers the real voltage and current than we expect.

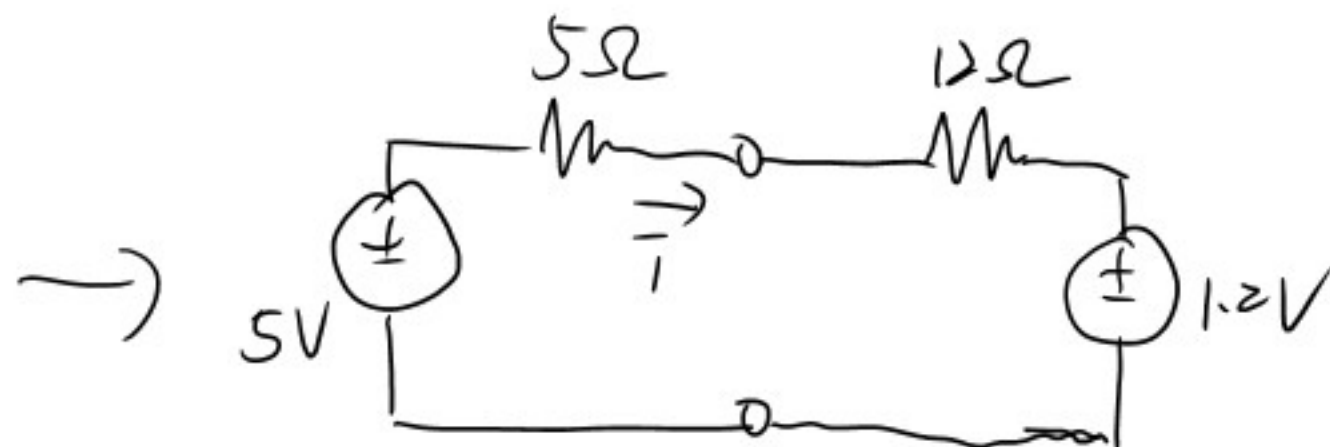
$$R_p = R_s = \frac{V_s}{I_s}$$



Ex.



$$\bar{i} = \frac{5 - 1.2}{17} = 0.224A$$



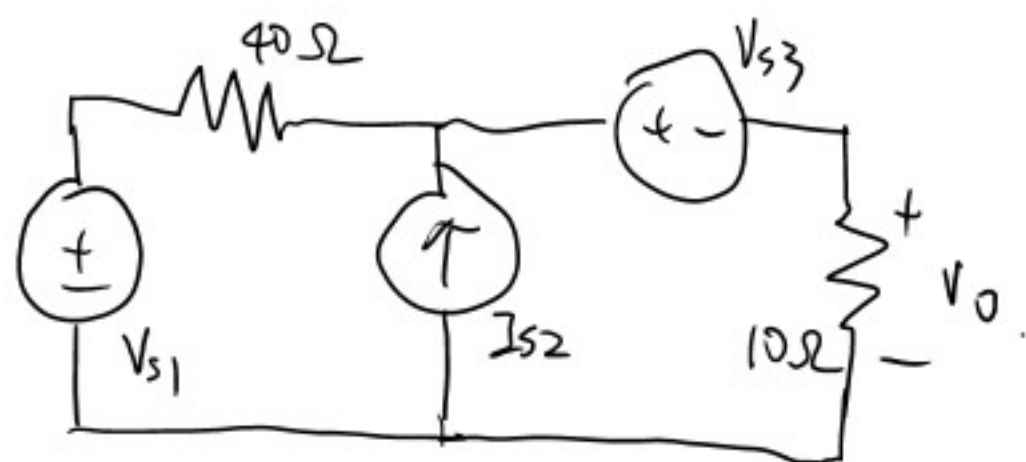
superposition: output of the linear circuit can be expressed as a linear combination of its input

Linear circuit: (satisfies Ohm's law: $V = IR \Rightarrow V \propto I$)

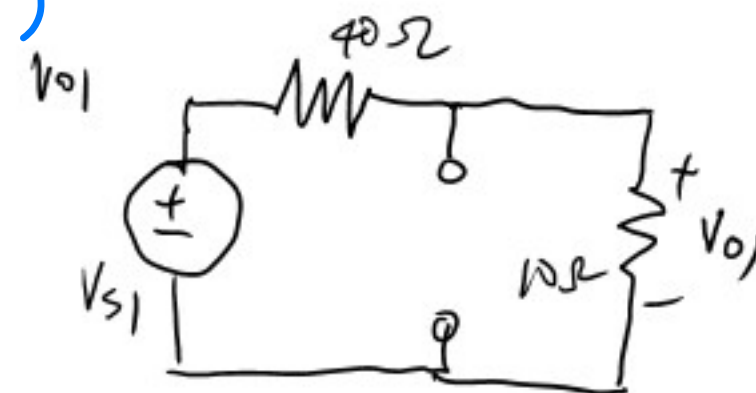
1. consist of only resistor and source (both dependent and independent)
2. inputs are independent sources
3. output can be v or i of an **element** \rightarrow circuit element

$$V_o = \underbrace{a_1 V_{s1}}_{V_{o1}} + \underbrace{a_2 V_{s2}}_{V_{o2}} + \underbrace{a_3 I_{s3}}_{V_{o3}} + \dots + \underbrace{a_n V_{sn} \text{ (or } I_{sn})}_{\text{linear combination}}$$

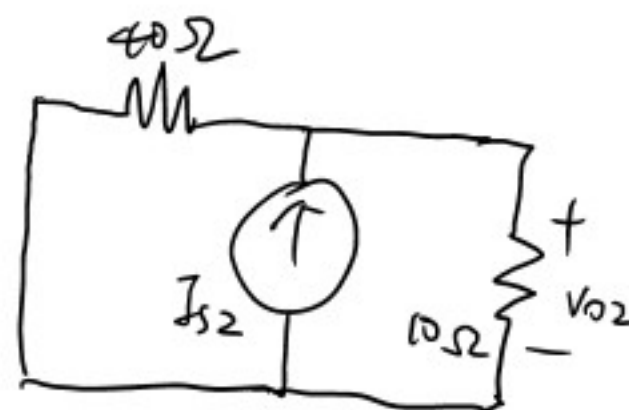
$$V_{o1} = a_1 V_{s1}, \text{ when } V_{s2}, I_{s3}, \dots, V_{sn} \text{ (or } I_{sn}) = 0$$



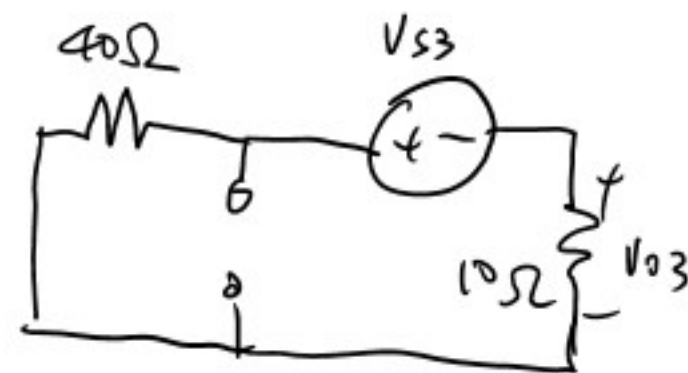
$$V_o = \frac{1}{5} V_{s1} + 8 I_{s2} - \frac{1}{5} V_{s3}$$



$$V_{o1} = V_{s1} \cdot \frac{10}{50} = \frac{1}{5} V_{s1}$$



$$V_{o2} = I_{s2} \cdot \frac{40 \cdot 10}{40 + 10} = 8 I_{s2}$$



$$V_{o3} = -V_{s3} \cdot \frac{10}{40 + 10} = -\frac{1}{5} V_{s3}$$

* Analyzing the effect of each energy source one at a time, setting others to zero, and summing the contributions.

1. Turning off a Voltage Source → Short Circuit

An **ideal voltage source** always maintains a fixed voltage difference, regardless of the current.

- **Turning it off** means setting its voltage to 0V.
 - A 0V voltage source acts like a **short circuit** — there's no voltage drop, so it's just like a wire.
-

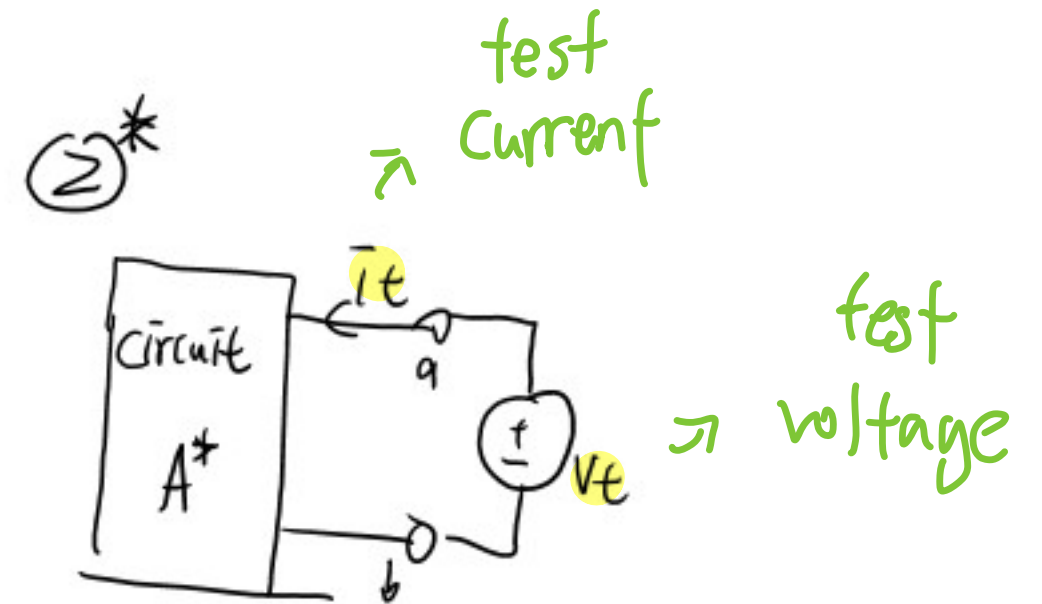
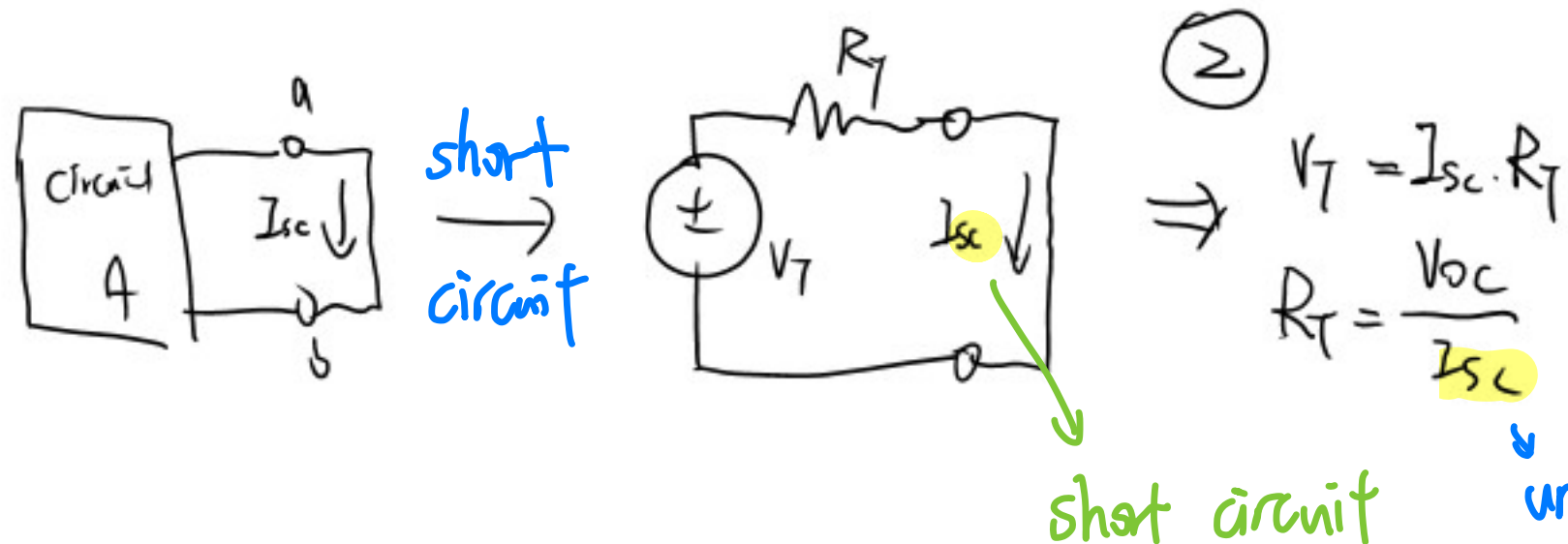
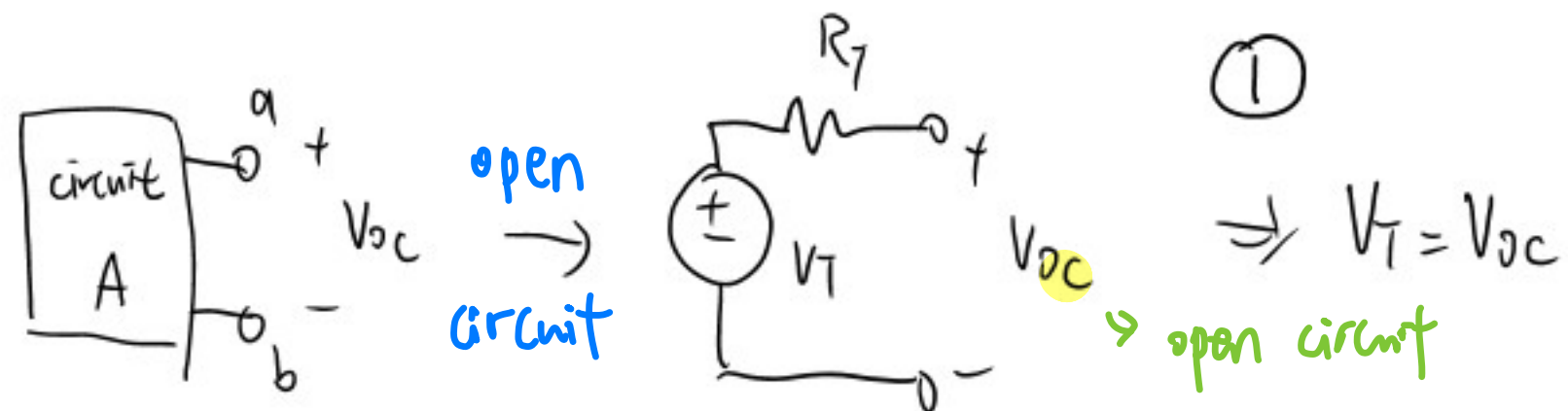
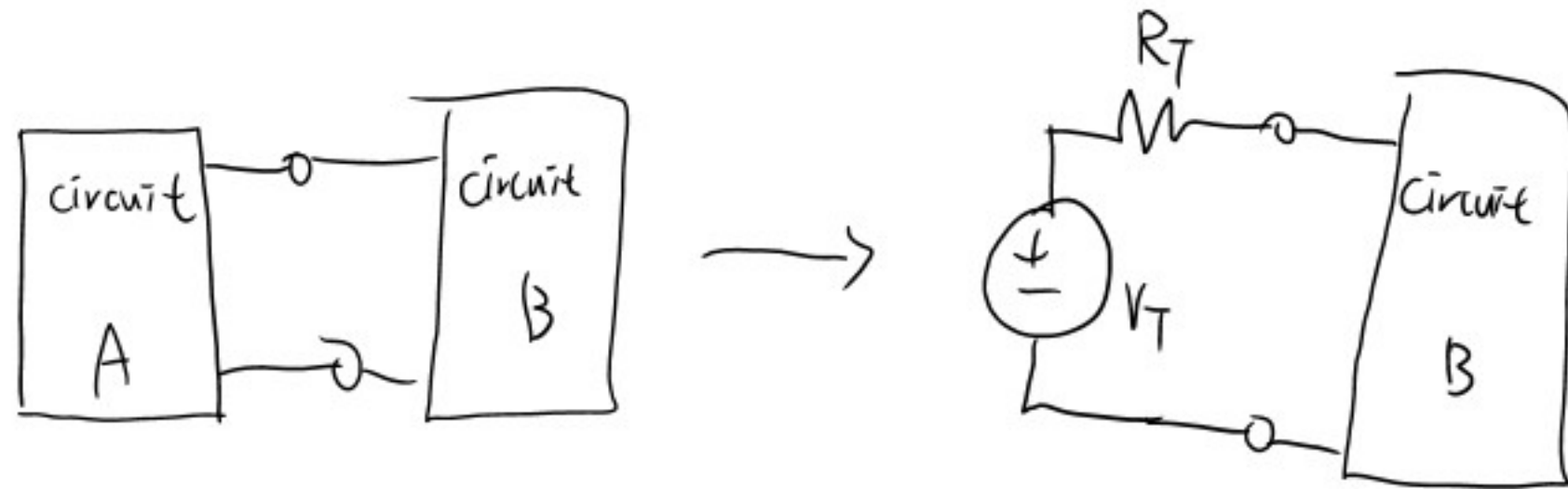
2. Turning off a Current Source → Open Circuit

An **ideal current source** always forces a specific current, regardless of the voltage across it.

- **Turning it off** means setting the current to 0A.
 - A 0A current source is equivalent to **no current flow**, which is an **open circuit** — as if the wire is cut.
-

This convention ensures the rest of the circuit behaves naturally when isolating individual sources for superposition analysis.

Thevenin's theorem



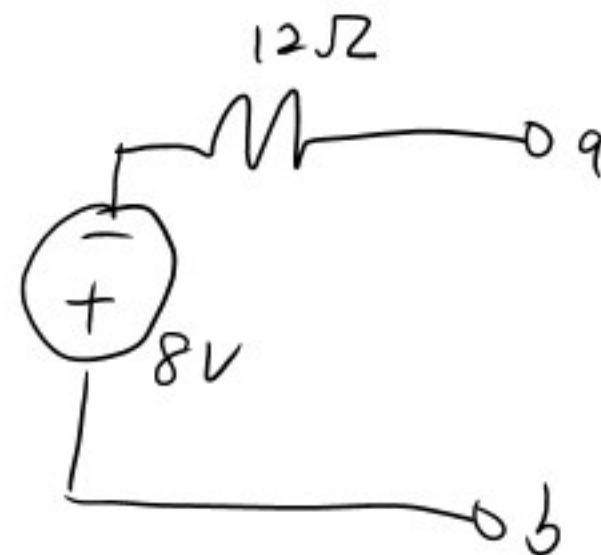
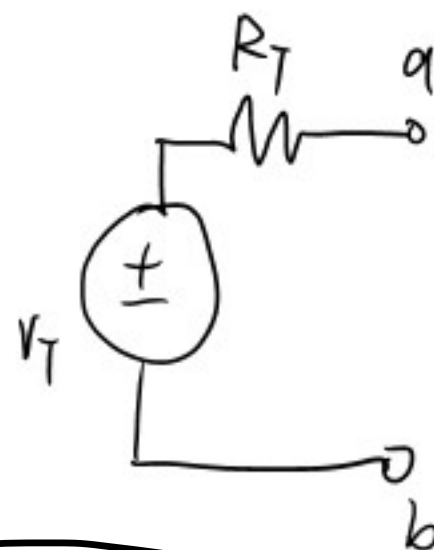
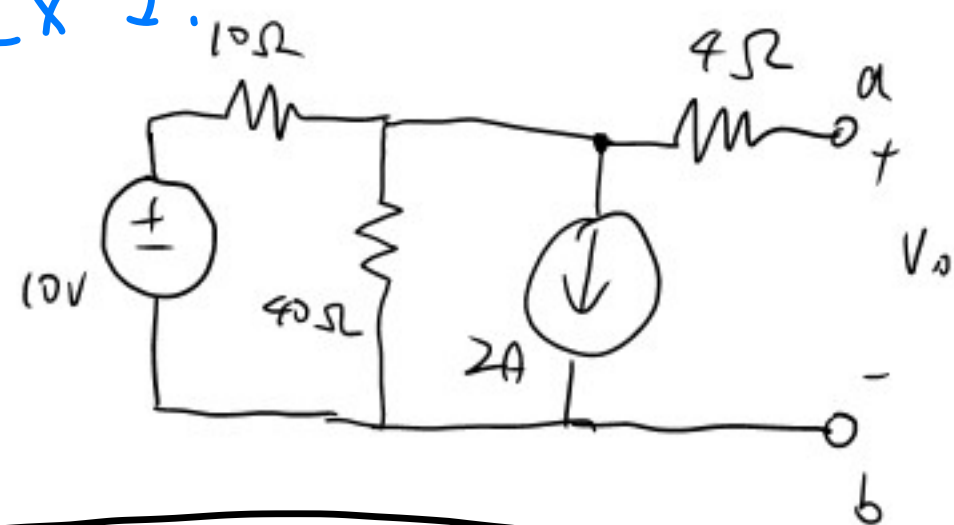
A^* , all independent sources to zero

$$R_T = \frac{V_t}{i_t}$$

\downarrow unsuitable when there are dependent sources in the circuit

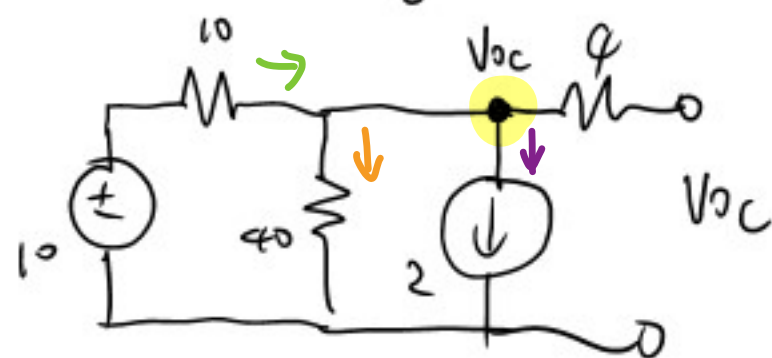
\downarrow unsuitable when I_{SC} is difficult to work out

Ex 1:

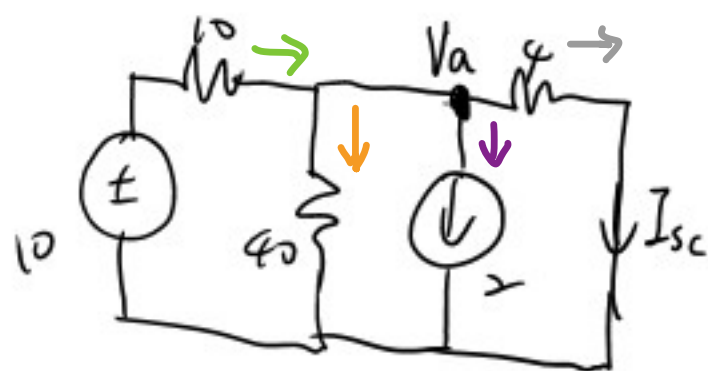


equivalent circuit

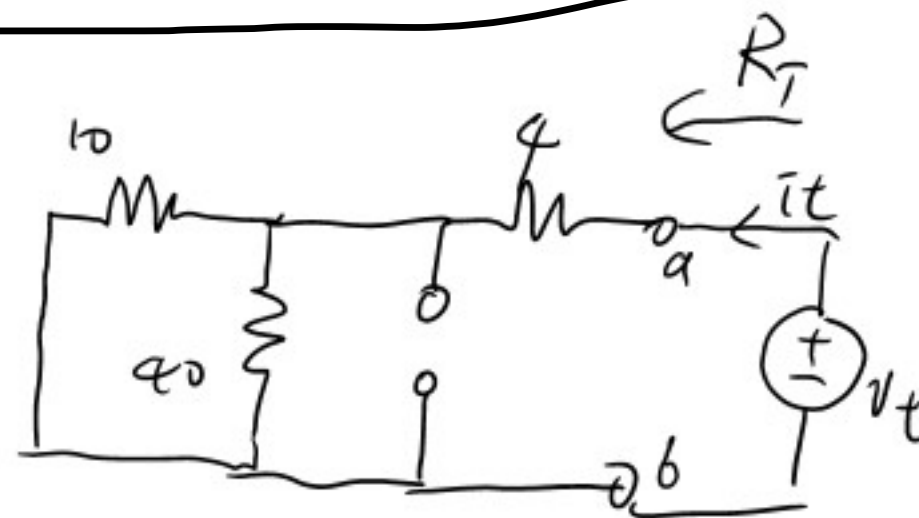
open circuit voltage V_{oc}



short circuit current I_{sc}



②*



①

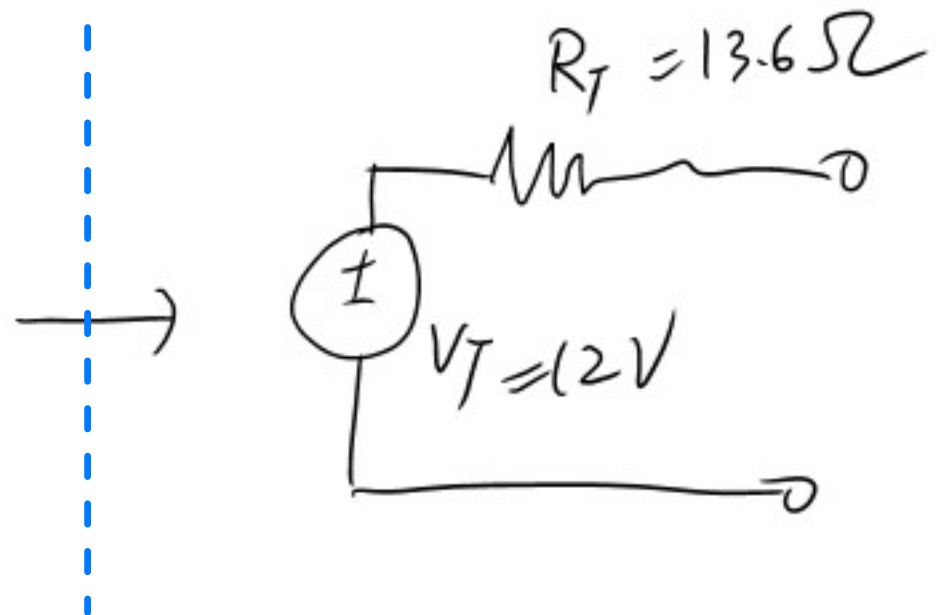
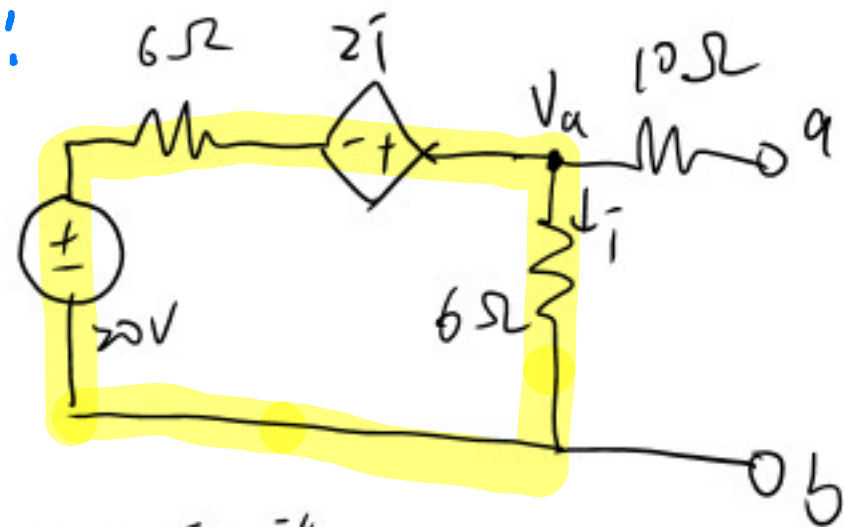
②

KCL: $\frac{10 - V_{oc}}{10} = \frac{V_{oc}}{40} + 2$
 $V_{oc} = -8V$

KCL: $\frac{10 - V_a}{10} = \frac{V_a}{40} + 2 + \frac{V_a}{4}$
 $V_a = -\frac{8}{3}$
 $I_{sc} = \frac{V_a}{4} = -\frac{2}{3}A$
 $R_T = \frac{-8}{-2/3} = 12\Omega$

$R_T = \frac{V_t}{i_t} = 8 + 4 = 12\Omega$
 $\frac{1}{\frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{40}}$

Ex 2:



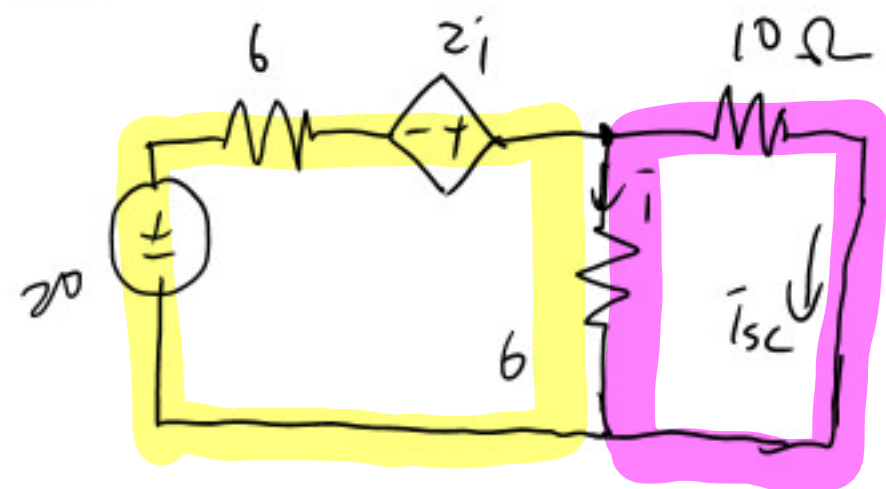
Result

① open circuit

KVL: $20 - 6\bar{i} + 2\bar{i} - 6\bar{i} = 0 \Rightarrow \bar{i} = 2$ $V_a = V_{oc} = 2 \cdot 6 = 12V = V_T$

→ the equivalent resistance is difficult to work out when $V_s = 0$

② short circuit



$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 20 - (\bar{i} + \bar{i}_{sc})6 + 2\bar{i} - 6\bar{i} = 0 \Rightarrow 20 = 16\bar{i}_{sc} - \frac{10}{3}\bar{i}_{sc} + 10\bar{i}_{sc} \\ 6\bar{i} = 10\bar{i}_{sc} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\bar{i}_{sc} = \frac{60}{68} = \frac{15}{17} A$$

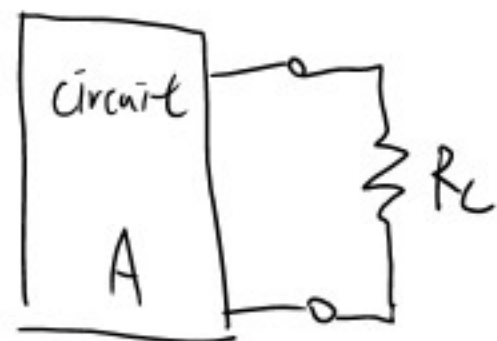
$$R_T = \frac{12}{(15/17)} = \frac{68}{5} = 13.6 \Omega$$

Norton's equivalent circuit

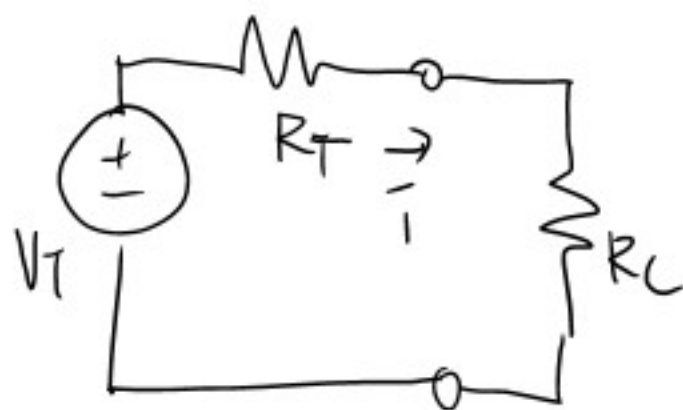


$$R_N = R_T$$

$$I_N = \frac{V_T}{R_T}$$



R_L : load resistance



maximum power transfer

in the case of signal transmission, the problem is to attain maximum signal strength at the load

$$P = I^2 \cdot R_L = \left(\frac{V_T}{R_T + R_L} \right)^2 \cdot R_L$$

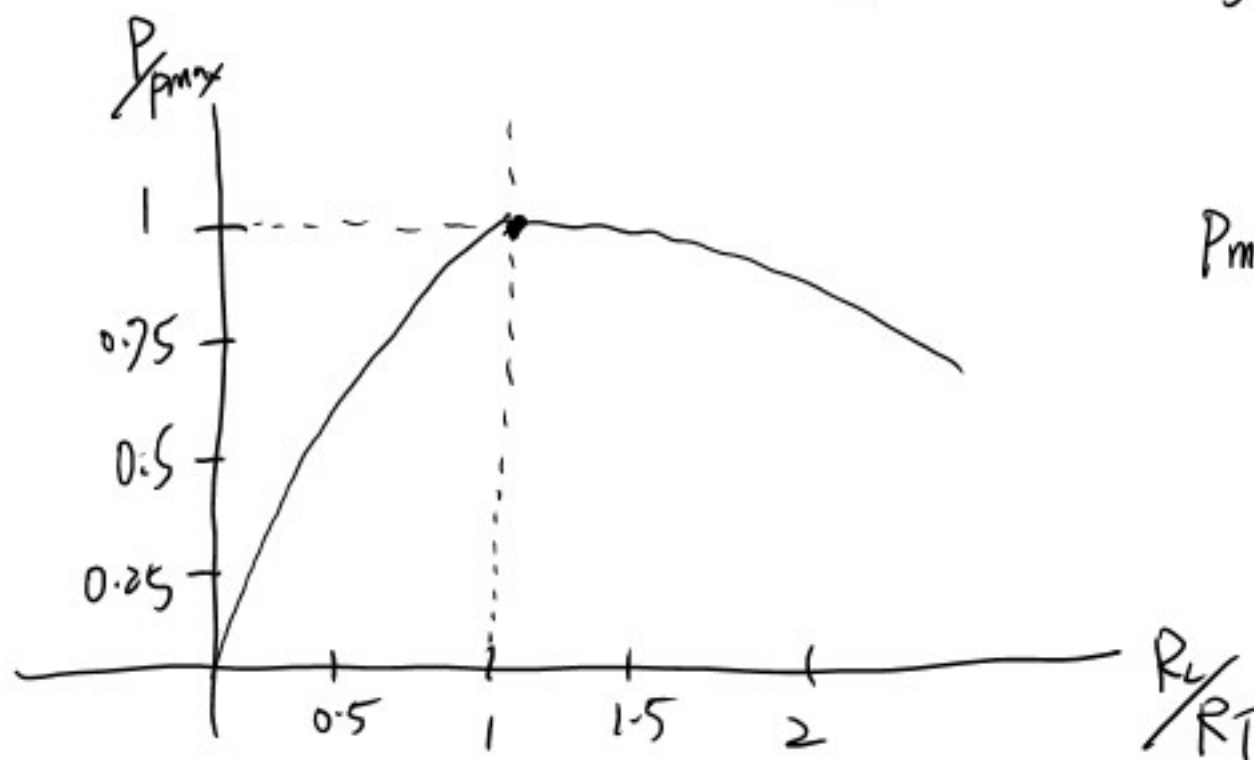
let $\frac{dP}{dR_L} = 0$ to find max.

$$\frac{dP}{dR_L} = V_T^2 \left[\frac{1}{(R_T + R_L)^2} - \frac{2R_L}{(R_T + R_L)^3} \right] \rightarrow R_T - R_L = 0$$

$$\rightarrow R_T = R_L$$

$$P_{max} = \frac{V_S^2}{4R_T}$$

impedance matching



1. Express the power P in terms of R_L :

- Current in the circuit:

$$i = \frac{V_T}{R_T + R_L}$$

- Power delivered to the load:

$$P = i^2 R_L = \left(\frac{V_T}{R_T + R_L} \right)^2 R_L$$

Expand:

$$P = \frac{V_T^2 R_L}{(R_T + R_L)^2}$$

2. Differentiate P with respect to R_L to find maximum:

Using the quotient rule:

$$\frac{dP}{dR_L} = \frac{V_T^2 (R_T + R_L)^2 - V_T^2 R_L \cdot 2(R_T + R_L)}{(R_T + R_L)^4}$$

Simplify numerator:

$$= V_T^2 (R_T + R_L)(R_T - R_L)$$

3. Solve for maximum:

Set:

$$\frac{dP}{dR_L} = 0$$

Thus:

$$(R_T + R_L)(R_T - R_L) = 0$$

→ Physically meaningful solution:

$$R_L = R_T$$

4. Maximum power:

Substituting $R_L = R_T$ into P .

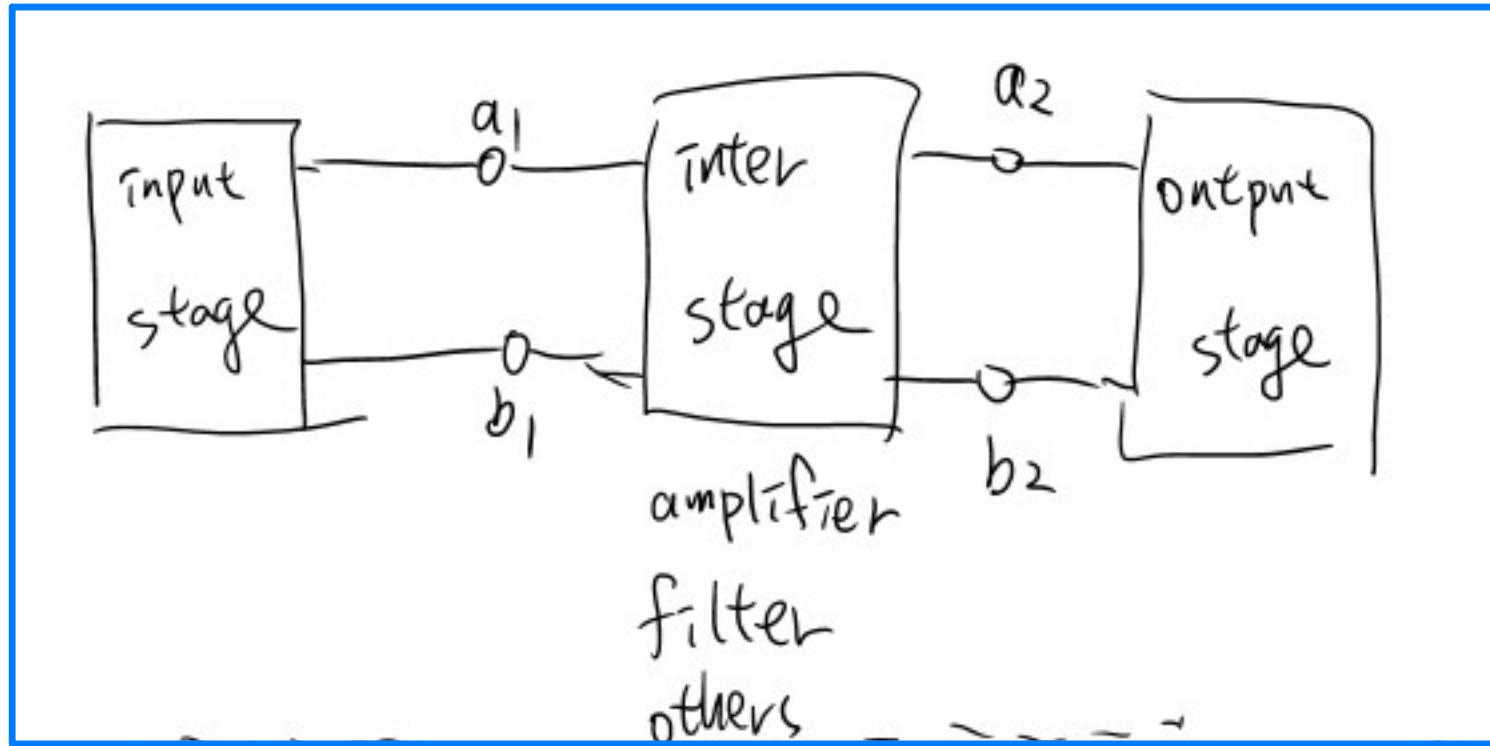
$$P_{\max} = \frac{V_T^2 R_T}{(2R_T)^2} = \frac{V_T^2}{4R_T}$$

✨ Final Conclusion:

- **Condition:** $R_L = R_T$

- **Maximum power:** $P_{\max} = \frac{V_T^2}{4R_T}$

system model and input/output resistance



R_{in} as large as possible
($V_{s1} \leadsto V_s$)

R_{out} as small as possible
($V_{out} \leadsto A V_{s1}$)

