3.1 INTRODUCTION

Having understood the fundamental laws of circuit theory (Ohm's law and Kirchhoff's laws), we are now prepared to apply these laws to develop two powerful techniques for circuit analysis: nodal analysis, which is based on a systematic application of Kirchhoff's current law (KCL), and mesh analysis, which is based on a systematic application of Kirchhoff's voltage law (KVL). The two techniques are so important that this chapter should be regarded as the most important in the book. Students are therefore encouraged to pay careful attention.

With the two techniques to be developed in this chapter, we can analyze almost any circuit by obtaining a set of simultaneous equations that are then solved to obtain the required values of current or voltage. One method of solving simultaneous equations involves Cramer's rule, which allows us to calculate circuit variables as a quotient of determinants. The examples in the chapter will illustrate this method; Appendix A also briefly summarizes the essentials the reader needs to know for applying Cramer's rule.

Also in this chapter, we introduce the use of *PSpice for Windows*, a circuit simulation computer software program that we will use throughout the text. Finally, we apply the techniques learned in this chapter to analyze transistor circuits.

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Nodal analysis is also known as the *node-voltage method*.

3.2 NODAL ANALYSIS

Nodal analysis provides a general procedure for analyzing circuits using node voltages as the circuit variables. Choosing node voltages instead of element voltages as circuit variables is convenient and reduces the number of equations one must solve simultaneously.

To simplify matters, we shall assume in this section that circuits do not contain voltage sources. Circuits that contain voltage sources will be analyzed in the next section.

In *nodal analysis*, we are interested in finding the node voltages. Given a circuit with n nodes without voltage sources, the nodal analysis of the circuit involves taking the following three steps.

Steps to Determine Node Voltages:

1. Select a node as the reference node. Assign voltages $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_{n-1}$ to the remaining $n - 1$ nodes. The voltages are referenced with respect to the reference node.
2. Apply KCL to each of the $n - 1$ nonreference nodes. Use Ohm's law to express the branch currents in terms of node voltages.
3. Solve the resulting simultaneous equations to obtain the unknown node voltages.

We shall now explain and apply these three steps.

The first step in nodal analysis is selecting a node as the *reference* or *datum node*. The reference node is commonly called the *ground* since it is assumed to have zero potential. A reference node is indicated by any of the three symbols in Fig. 3.1. The type of ground in Fig. 3.1(b) is called a *chassis ground* and is used in devices where the case, enclosure, or chassis acts as a reference point for all circuits. When the potential of the earth is used as reference, we use the *earth ground* in Fig. 3.1(a) or (c). We shall always use the symbol in Fig. 3.1(b).

Once we have selected a reference node, we assign voltage designations to nonreference nodes. Consider, for example, the circuit in Fig. 3.2(a). Node 0 is the reference node ($v = 0$), while nodes 1 and 2 are assigned voltages v_1 and v_2, respectively. Keep in mind that the node voltages are defined with respect to the reference node. As illustrated in Fig. 3.2(a), each node voltage is the voltage rise from the reference node to the corresponding nonreference node or simply the voltage of that node with respect to the reference node.

The number of nonreference nodes is equal to the number of independent equations that we will derive.

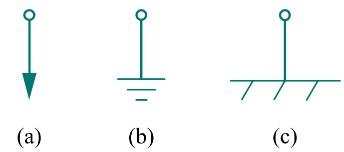


Figure 3.1 Common symbols for indicating a reference node.

As the second step, we apply KCL to each nonreference node in the circuit. To avoid putting too much information on the same circuit, the circuit in Fig. 3.2(a) is redrawn in Fig. 3.2(b), where we now add i_1, i_2, and i_3 as the currents through resistors R_1, R_2, and R_3, respectively. At node 1, applying KCL gives

$$I_1 = I_2 + i_1 + i_2 \tag{3.1}$$

At node 2,

$$I_2 + i_2 = i_3 \tag{3.2}$$

We now apply Ohm's law to express the unknown currents i_1, i_2, and i_3 in terms of node voltages. The key idea to bear in mind is that, since resistance is a passive element, by the passive sign convention, current must always flow from a higher potential to a lower potential.

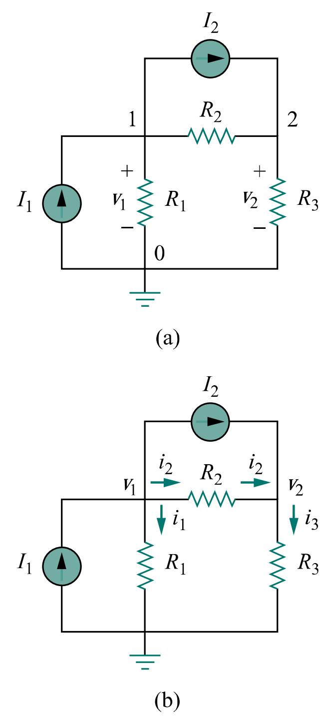


Figure 3.2 Typical circuit for nodal analysis.

Current flows from a higher potential to a lower potential in a resistor.

We can express this principle as

$$\boxed{i = \frac{v_{\text{higher}} - v_{\text{lower}}}{R}} \tag{3.3}$$

Note that this principle is in agreement with the way we defined resistance in Chapter 2 (see Fig. 2.1). With this in mind, we obtain from Fig. 3.2(b),

$$\begin{aligned} i_1 &= \frac{v_1 - 0}{R_1} \quad \text{or} \quad i_1 = G_1 v_1 \\ i_2 &= \frac{v_1 - v_2}{R_2} \quad \text{or} \quad i_2 = G_2(v_1 - v_2) \\ i_3 &= \frac{v_2 - 0}{R_3} \quad \text{or} \quad i_3 = G_3 v_2 \end{aligned} \tag{3.4}$$

Substituting Eq. (3.4) in Eqs. (3.1) and (3.2) results, respectively, in

$$I_1 = I_2 + \frac{v_1}{R_1} + \frac{v_1 - v_2}{R_2} \tag{3.5}$$

$$I_2 + \frac{v_1 - v_2}{R_2} = \frac{v_2}{R_3} \tag{3.6}$$

In terms of the conductances, Eqs. (3.5) and (3.6) become

$$I_1 = I_2 + G_1 v_1 + G_2(v_1 - v_2) \tag{3.7}$$

$$I_2 + G_2(v_1 - v_2) = G_3 v_2 \tag{3.8}$$

The third step in nodal analysis is to solve for the node voltages. If we apply KCL to $n-1$ nonreference nodes, we obtain $n-1$ simultaneous equations such as Eqs. (3.5) and (3.6) or (3.7) and (3.8). For the circuit of Fig. 3.2, we solve Eqs. (3.5) and (3.6) or (3.7) and (3.8) to obtain the node voltages v_1 and v_2 using any standard method, such as the substitution method, the elimination method, Cramer's rule, or matrix inversion. To use either of the last two methods, one must cast the simultaneous equations in matrix form. For example, Eqs. (3.7) and (3.8) can be cast in matrix form as

Appendix A discusses how to use Cramer's rule.

$$\begin{bmatrix} G_1 + G_2 & -G_2 \\ -G_2 & G_2 + G_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_1 - I_2 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{3.9}$$

which can be solved to get v_1 and v_2. Equation 3.9 will be generalized in Section 3.6. The simultaneous equations may also be solved using calculators such as HP48 or with software packages such as *Matlab*, *Mathcad*, *Maple*, and *Quattro Pro*.

EXAMPLE 3.1

Calculate the node voltages in the circuit shown in Fig. 3.3(a).

Solution:

Consider Fig. 3.3(b), where the circuit in Fig. 3.3(a) has been prepared for nodal analysis. Notice how the currents are selected for the application of KCL. Except for the branches with current sources, the labeling of the currents is arbitrary but consistent. (By consistent, we mean that if, for example, we assume that i_2 enters the 4 Ω resistor from the left-hand side, i_2 must leave the resistor from the right-hand side.) The reference node is selected, and the node voltages v_1 and v_2 are now to be determined.

At node 1, applying KCL and Ohm's law gives

$$i_1 = i_2 + i_3 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad 5 = \frac{v_1 - v_2}{4} + \frac{v_1 - 0}{2}$$

Multiplying each term in the last equation by 4, we obtain

$$20 = v_1 - v_2 + 2v_1$$

or

$$3v_1 - v_2 = 20 \tag{3.1.1}$$

At node 2, we do the same thing and get

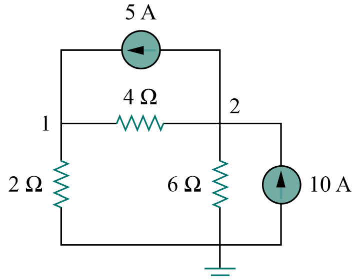
$$i_2 + i_4 = i_1 + i_5 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{v_1 - v_2}{4} + 10 = 5 + \frac{v_2 - 0}{6}$$

Multiplying each term by 12 results in

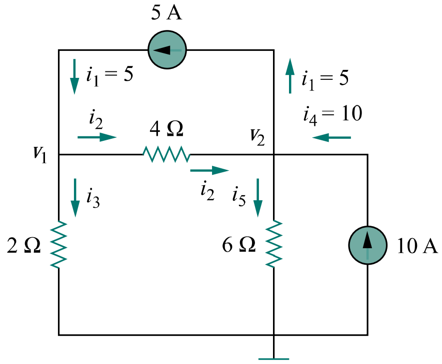
$$3v_1 - 3v_2 + 120 = 60 + 2v_2$$

or

$$-3v_1 + 5v_2 = 60 \tag{3.1.2}$$



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.3 For Example 3.1: (a) original circuit, (b) circuit for analysis.

Now we have two simultaneous Eqs. (3.1.1) and (3.1.2). We can solve the equations using any method and obtain the values of v_1 and v_2.

METHOD 1 Using the elimination technique, we add Eqs. (3.1.1) and (3.1.2).

$$4v_2 = 80 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad v_2 = 20 \text{ V}$$

Substituting $v_2 = 20$ in Eq. (3.1.1) gives

$$3v_1 - 20 = 20 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad v_1 = \frac{40}{3} = 13.33 \text{ V}$$

METHOD 2 To use Cramer's rule, we need to put Eqs. (3.1.1) and (3.1.2) in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 20 \\ 60 \end{bmatrix} \tag{3.1.3}$$

The determinant of the matrix is

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -3 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 15 - 3 = 12$$

We now obtain v_1 and v_2 as

$$v_1 = \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 20 & -1 \\ 60 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{\Delta} = \frac{100 + 60}{12} = 13.33 \text{ V}$$

$$v_2 = \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 20 \\ -3 & 60 \end{vmatrix}}{\Delta} = \frac{180 + 60}{12} = 20 \text{ V}$$

giving us the same result as did the elimination method.

If we need the currents, we can easily calculate them from the values of the nodal voltages.

$$i_1 = 5 \text{ A}, \qquad i_2 = \frac{v_1 - v_2}{4} = -1.6667 \text{ A}, \qquad i_3 = \frac{v_1}{2} = 6.666$$

$$i_4 = 10 \text{ A}, \qquad i_5 = \frac{v_2}{6} = 3.333 \text{ A}$$

The fact that i_2 is negative shows that the current flows in the direction opposite to the one assumed.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 3.1

Obtain the node voltages in the circuit in Fig. 3.4.

Answer: $v_1 = -2$ V, $v_2 = -14$ V.

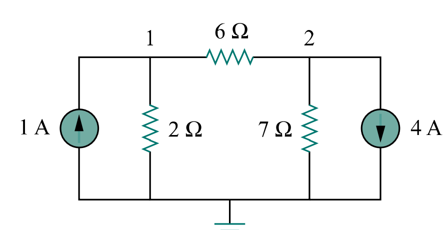


Figure 3.4 For Practice Prob. 3.1.

EXAMPLE 3.2

Determine the voltages at the nodes in Fig. 3.5(a).

Solution:

The circuit in this example has three nonreference nodes, unlike the previous example which has two nonreference nodes. We assign voltages to the three nodes as shown in Fig. 3.5(b) and label the currents.

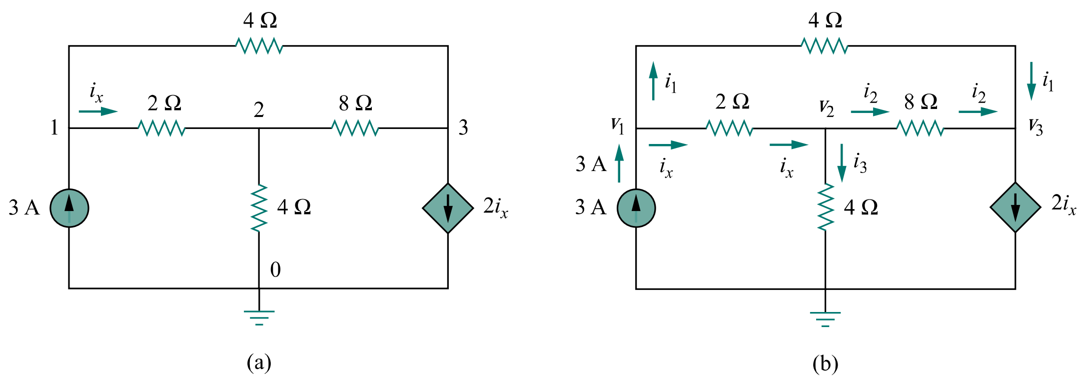


Figure 3.5 For Example 3.2: (a) original circuit, (b) circuit for analysis.

At node 1,

$$3 = i_1 + i_x \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad 3 = \frac{v_1 - v_3}{4} + \frac{v_1 - v_2}{2}$$

Multiplying by 4 and rearranging terms, we get

$$3v_1 - 2v_2 - v_3 = 12 \tag{3.2.1}$$

At node 2,

$$i_x = i_2 + i_3 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \frac{v_1 - v_2}{2} = \frac{v_2 - v_3}{8} + \frac{v_2 - 0}{4}$$

Multiplying by 8 and rearranging terms, we get

$$-4v_1 + 7v_2 - v_3 = 0 \tag{3.2.2}$$

At node 3,

$$i_1 + i_2 = 2i_x \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \frac{v_1 - v_3}{4} + \frac{v_2 - v_3}{8} = \frac{2(v_1 - v_2)}{2}$$

Multiplying by 8, rearranging terms, and dividing by 3, we get

$$2v_1 - 3v_2 + v_3 = 0 \tag{3.2.3}$$

We have three simultaneous equations to solve to get the node voltages v_1, v_2, and v_3. We shall solve the equations in two ways.

METHOD 1 Using the elimination technique, we add Eqs. (3.2.1) and (3.2.3).

$$5v_1 - 5v_2 = 12$$

or

$$v_1 - v_2 = \frac{12}{5} = 2.4 \tag{3.2.4}$$

Adding Eqs. (3.2.2) and (3.2.3) gives

$$-2v_1 + 4v_2 = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad v_1 = 2v_2 \tag{3.2.5}$$

Substituting Eq. (3.2.5) into Eq. (3.2.4) yields

$$2v_2 - v_2 = 2.4 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad v_2 = 2.4, \qquad v_1 = 2v_2 = 4.8 \text{ V}$$

From Eq. (3.2.3), we get

$$v_3 = 3v_2 - 2v_1 = 3v_2 - 4v_2 = -v_2 = -2.4 \text{ V}$$

Thus,

$$v_1 = 4.8 \text{ V}, \qquad v_2 = 2.4 \text{ V}, \qquad v_3 = -2.4 \text{ V}$$

METHOD 2 To use Cramer's rule, we put Eqs. (3.2.1) to (3.2.3) in matrix form.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & -1 \\ -4 & 7 & -1 \\ 2 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

From this, we obtain

$$v_1 = \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta}, \qquad v_2 = \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta}, \qquad v_3 = \frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta}$$

where Δ, Δ_1, Δ_2, and Δ_3 are the determinants to be calculated as follows. As explained in Appendix A, to calculate the determinant of a 3 by 3 matrix, we repeat the first two rows and cross multiply.

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -2 & -1 \\ -4 & 7 & -1 \\ 2 & -3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & 3 & -2 & -1 & \\ & -4 & 7 & -1 & \\ & 2 & -3 & 1 & \\ - & 3 & -2 & -1 & + \\ - & -4 & 7 & -1 & + \\ - & & & & + \end{array}$$

$$= 21 - 12 + 4 + 14 - 9 - 8 = 10$$

Similarly, we obtain

$$\Delta_1 = \begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & 12 & -2 & -1 & \\ & 0 & 7 & -1 & \\ & 0 & -3 & 1 & \\ - & 12 & -2 & -1 & + \\ - & 0 & 7 & -1 & + \\ - & & & & + \end{array} = 84 + 0 + 0 - 0 - 36 - 0 = 48$$

$$\Delta_2 = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 12 & -1 \\ -4 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 12 & -1 \\ -4 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = 0 + 0 - 24 - 0 - 0 + 48 = 24$$

$$\Delta_3 = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -2 & 12 \\ -4 & 7 & 0 \\ 2 & -3 & 0 \\ 3 & -2 & 12 \\ -4 & 7 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 0 + 144 + 0 - 168 - 0 - 0 = -24$$

Thus, we find

$$v_1 = \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta} = \frac{48}{10} = 4.8 \text{ V}, \qquad v_2 = \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta} = \frac{24}{10} = 2.4 \text{ V}$$

$$v_3 = \frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta} = \frac{-24}{10} = -2.4 \text{ V}$$

as we obtained with Method 1.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 3.2

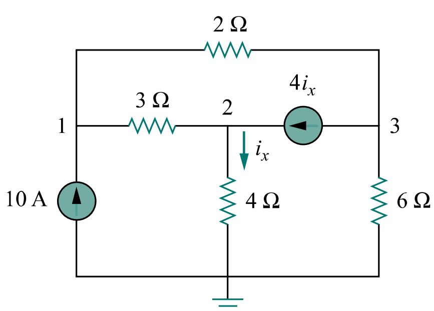


Figure 3.6 For Practice Prob. 3.2.

Find the voltages at the three nonreference nodes in the circuit of Fig. 3.6.

Answer: $v_1 = 80$ V, $v_2 = -64$ V, $v_3 = 156$ V.

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3.3 NODAL ANALYSIS WITH VOLTAGE SOURCES

We now consider how voltage sources affect nodal analysis. We use the circuit in Fig. 3.7 for illustration. Consider the following two possibilities.

CASE 1 If a voltage source is connected between the reference node and a nonreference node, we simply set the voltage at the nonreference node equal to the voltage of the voltage source. In Fig. 3.7, for example,

$$v_1 = 10 \text{ V} \tag{3.10}$$

Thus our analysis is somewhat simplified by this knowledge of the voltage at this node.

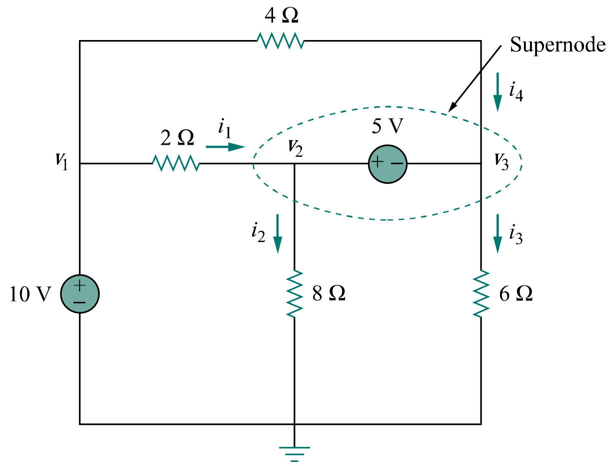

Figure 3.7 A circuit with a supernode.

CASE 2 If the voltage source (dependent or independent) is connected between two nonreference nodes, the two nonreference nodes form a *generalized node* or *supernode*; we apply both KCL and KVL to determine the node voltages.

A supernode may be regarded as a closed surface enclosing the voltage source and its two nodes.

> A supernode is formed by enclosing a (dependent or independent) voltage source connected between two nonreference nodes and any elements connected in parallel with it.

In Fig. 3.7, nodes 2 and 3 form a supernode. (We could have more than two nodes forming a single supernode. For example, see the circuit in Fig. 3.14.) We analyze a circuit with supernodes using the same three steps mentioned in the previous section except that the supernodes are treated differently. Why? Because an essential component of nodal analysis is applying KCL, which requires knowing the current through each element. There is no way of knowing the current through a voltage source in advance. However, KCL must be satisfied at a supernode like any other node. Hence, at the supernode in Fig. 3.7,

$$i_1 + i_4 = i_2 + i_3 \tag{3.11a}$$

or

$$\frac{v_1 - v_2}{2} + \frac{v_1 - v_3}{4} = \frac{v_2 - 0}{8} + \frac{v_3 - 0}{6} \tag{3.11b}$$

To apply Kirchhoff's voltage law to the supernode in Fig. 3.7, we redraw the circuit as shown in Fig. 3.8. Going around the loop in the clockwise direction gives

$$-v_2 + 5 + v_3 = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad v_2 - v_3 = 5 \tag{3.12}$$

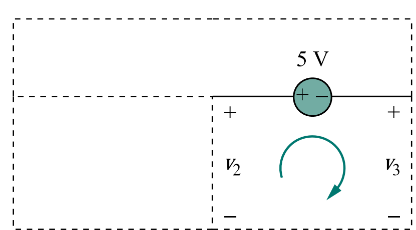

Figure 3.8 Applying KVL to a supernode.

From Eqs. (3.10), (3.11b), and (3.12), we obtain the node voltages.

Note the following properties of a supernode:

1. The voltage source inside the supernode provides a constraint equation needed to solve for the node voltages.
2. A supernode has no voltage of its own.
3. A supernode requires the application of both KCL and KVL.

EXAMPLE 3.3

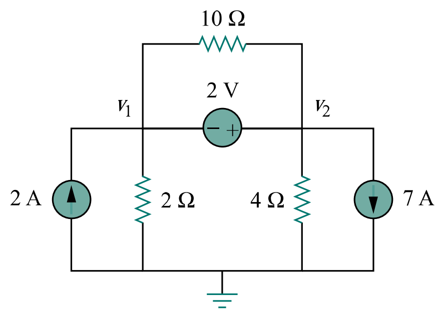

Figure 3.9 For Example 3.3.

For the circuit shown in Fig. 3.9, find the node voltages.

Solution:

The supernode contains the 2-V source, nodes 1 and 2, and the 10-Ω resistor. Applying KCL to the supernode as shown in Fig. 3.10(a) gives

$$2 = i_1 + i_2 + 7$$

Expressing i_1 and i_2 in terms of the node voltages

$$2 = \frac{v_1 - 0}{2} + \frac{v_2 - 0}{4} + 7 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad 8 = 2v_1 + v_2 + 28$$

or

$$v_2 = -20 - 2v_1 \tag{3.3.1}$$

To get the relationship between v_1 and v_2, we apply KVL to the circuit in Fig. 3.10(b). Going around the loop, we obtain

$$-v_1 - 2 + v_2 = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad v_2 = v_1 + 2 \tag{3.3.2}$$

From Eqs. (3.3.1) and (3.3.2), we write

$$v_2 = v_1 + 2 = -20 - 2v_1$$

or

$$3v_1 = -22 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad v_1 = -7.333 \text{ V}$$

and $v_2 = v_1 + 2 = -5.333$ V. Note that the 10-Ω resistor does not make any difference because it is connected across the supernode.

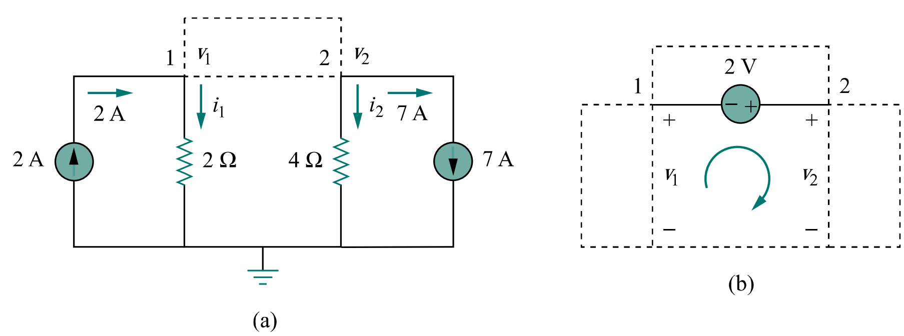

Figure 3.10 Applying: (a) KCL to the supernode, (b) KVL to the loop.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 3.3

Find v and i in the circuit in Fig. 3.11.

Answer: -0.2 V, 1.4 A.

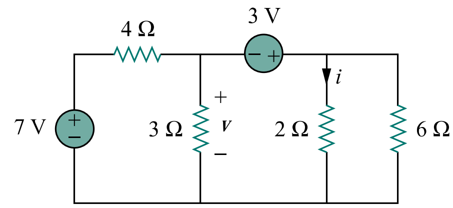

Figure 3.11 For Practice Prob. 3.3.

EXAMPLE 3.4

Find the node voltages in the circuit of Fig. 3.12.

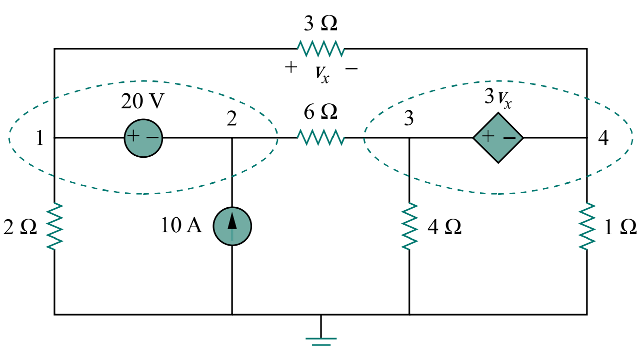

Figure 3.12 For Example 3.4.

Solution:

Nodes 1 and 2 form a supernode; so do nodes 3 and 4. We apply KCL to the two supernodes as in Fig. 3.13(a). At supernode 1-2,

$$i_3 + 10 = i_1 + i_2$$

Expressing this in terms of the node voltages,

$$\frac{v_3 - v_2}{6} + 10 = \frac{v_1 - v_4}{3} + \frac{v_1}{2}$$

or

$$5v_1 + v_2 - v_3 - 2v_4 = 60 \tag{3.4.1}$$

At supernode 3-4,

$$i_1 = i_3 + i_4 + i_5 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \frac{v_1 - v_4}{3} = \frac{v_3 - v_2}{6} + \frac{v_4}{1} + \frac{v_3}{4}$$

or

$$4v_1 + 2v_2 - 5v_3 - 16v_4 = 0 \tag{3.4.2}$$

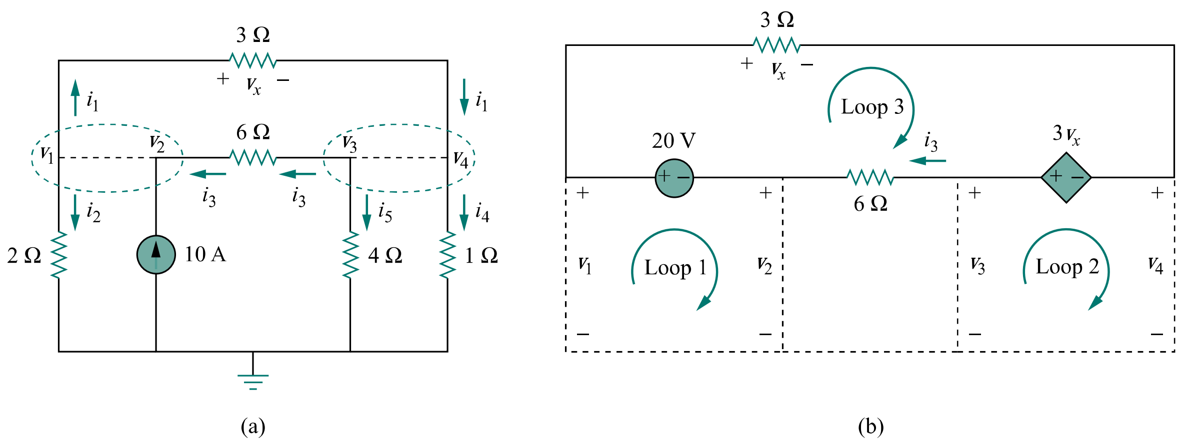

Figure 3.13 Applying: (a) KCL to the two supernodes, (b) KVL to the loops.

We now apply KVL to the branches involving the voltage sources as shown in Fig. 3.13(b). For loop 1,

$$-v_1 + 20 + v_2 = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad v_1 - v_2 = 20 \tag{3.4.3}$$

For loop 2,

$$-v_3 + 3v_x + v_4 = 0$$

But $v_x = v_1 - v_4$ so that

$$3v_1 - v_3 - 2v_4 = 0 \tag{3.4.4}$$

For loop 3,

$$v_x - 3v_x + 6i_3 - 20 = 0$$

But $6i_3 = v_3 - v_2$ and $v_x = v_1 - v_4$. Hence

$$-2v_1 - v_2 + v_3 + 2v_4 = 20 \tag{3.4.5}$$

We need four node voltages, v_1, v_2, v_3, and v_4, and it requires only four out of the five Eqs. (3.4.1) to (3.4.5) to find them. Although the fifth equation is redundant, it can be used to check results. We can eliminate one node voltage so that we solve three simultaneous equations instead of four. From Eq. (3.4.3), $v_2 = v_1 - 20$. Substituting this into Eqs. (3.4.1) and (3.4.2), respectively, gives

$$6v_1 - v_3 - 2v_4 = 80 \tag{3.4.6}$$

and

$$6v_1 - 5v_3 - 16v_4 = 40 \tag{3.4.7}$$

Equations (3.4.4), (3.4.6), and (3.4.7) can be cast in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & -2 \\ 6 & -1 & -2 \\ 6 & -5 & -16 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 80 \\ 40 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using Cramer's rule,

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 & -2 \\ 6 & -1 & -2 \\ 6 & -5 & -16 \end{vmatrix} = -18, \qquad \Delta_1 = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 80 & -1 & -2 \\ 40 & -5 & -16 \end{vmatrix} = -480$$

$$\Delta_3 = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 0 & -2 \\ 6 & 80 & -2 \\ 6 & 40 & -16 \end{vmatrix} = -3120, \qquad \Delta_4 = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ 6 & -1 & 80 \\ 6 & -5 & 40 \end{vmatrix} = 840$$

Thus, we arrive at the node voltages as

$$v_1 = \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta} = \frac{-480}{-18} = 26.667 \text{ V}, \qquad v_3 = \frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta} = \frac{-3120}{-18} = 173.333 \text{ V}$$

$$v_4 = \frac{\Delta_4}{\Delta} = \frac{840}{-18} = -46.667 \text{ V}$$

and $v_2 = v_1 - 20 = 6.667$ V. We have not used Eq. (3.4.5); it can be used to cross check results.

Network Analysis

PRACTICE PROBLEM 3.4

Find v_1, v_2, and v_3 in the circuit in Fig. 3.14 using nodal analysis.

Answer: $v_1 = 3.043$ V, $v_2 = -6.956$ V, $v_3 = 0.6522$ V.

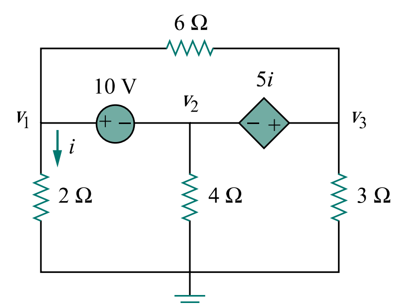

Figure 3.14 For Practice Prob. 3.4.

3.4 MESH ANALYSIS

Electronic Testing Tutorials

Mesh analysis provides another general procedure for analyzing circuits, using mesh currents as the circuit variables. Using mesh currents instead of element currents as circuit variables is convenient and reduces the number of equations that must be solved simultaneously. Recall that a loop is a closed path with no node passed more than once. A mesh is a loop that does not contain any other loop within it.

Mesh analysis is also known as *loop analysis* or the *mesh-current method.*

Nodal analysis applies KCL to find unknown voltages in a given circuit, while mesh analysis applies KVL to find unknown currents. Mesh analysis is not quite as general as nodal analysis because it is only applicable to a circuit that is *planar*. A planar circuit is one that can be drawn in a plane with no branches crossing one another; otherwise it is *nonplanar.* A circuit may have crossing branches and still be planar if it can be redrawn such that it has no crossing branches. For example, the circuit in Fig. 3.15(a) has two crossing branches, but it can be redrawn as in Fig. 3.15(b). Hence, the circuit in Fig. 3.15(a) is planar. However, the circuit in Fig. 3.16 is nonplanar, because there is no way to redraw it and avoid the branches crossing. Nonplanar circuits can be handled using nodal analysis, but they will not be considered in this text.

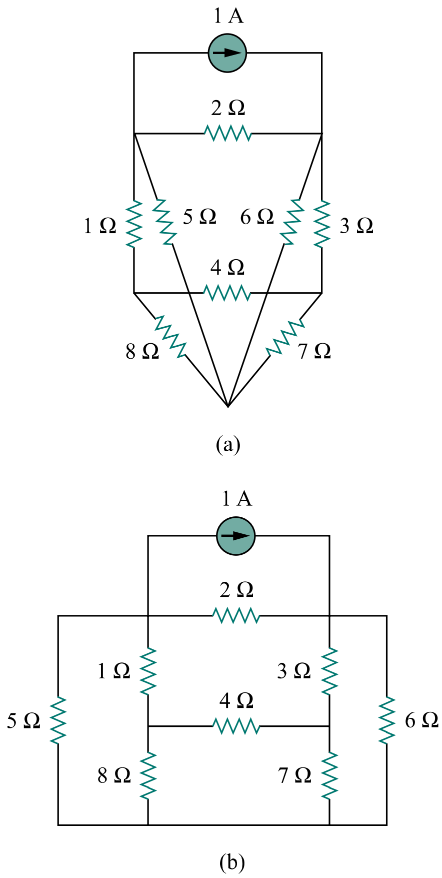

Figure 3.15 (a) A planar circuit with crossing branches, (b) the same circuit redrawn with no crossing branches.

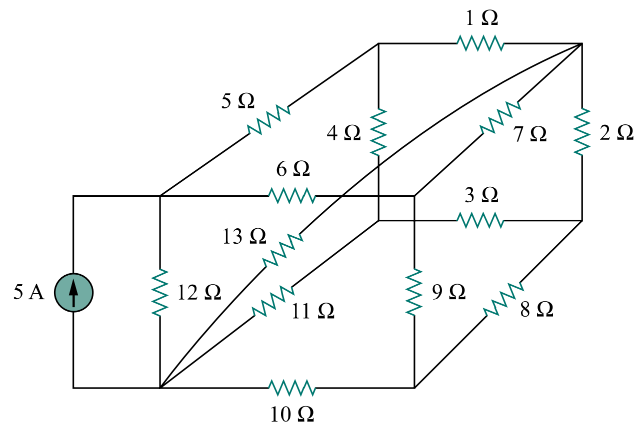

Figure 3.16 A nonplanar circuit.

To understand mesh analysis, we should first explain more about what we mean by a mesh.

> A **mesh** is a loop which does not contain any other loops within it.

Although path *abcdefa* is a loop and not a mesh, KVL still holds. This is the reason for loosely using the terms *loop analysis* and *mesh analysis* to mean the same thing.

In Fig. 3.17, for example, paths *abefa* and *bcdeb* are meshes, but path *abcdefa* is not a mesh. The current through a mesh is known as *mesh current*. In mesh analysis, we are interested in applying KVL to find the mesh currents in a given circuit.

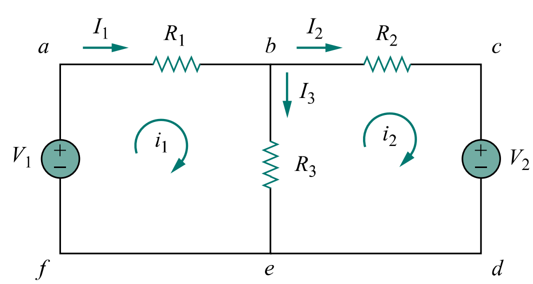

Figure 3.17 A circuit with two meshes.

In this section, we will apply mesh analysis to planar circuits that do not contain current sources. In the next sections, we will consider circuits with current sources. In the mesh analysis of a circuit with n meshes, we take the following three steps.

Steps to Determine Mesh Currents:

1. Assign mesh currents $i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n$ to the n meshes.
2. Apply KVL to each of the n meshes. Use Ohm's law to express the voltages in terms of the mesh currents.
3. Solve the resulting n simultaneous equations to get the mesh currents.

To illustrate the steps, consider the circuit in Fig. 3.17. The first step requires that mesh currents i_1 and i_2 are assigned to meshes 1 and 2. Although a mesh current may be assigned to each mesh in an arbitrary direction, it is conventional to assume that each mesh current flows clockwise.

The direction of the mesh current is arbitrary—(clockwise or counterclockwise)—and does not affect the validity of the solution.

As the second step, we apply KVL to each mesh. Applying KVL to mesh 1, we obtain

$$-V_1 + R_1 i_1 + R_3(i_1 - i_2) = 0$$

or

$$(R_1 + R_3)i_1 - R_3 i_2 = V_1 \tag{3.13}$$

For mesh 2, applying KVL gives

$$R_2 i_2 + V_2 + R_3(i_2 - i_1) = 0$$

or

$$-R_3 i_1 + (R_2 + R_3)i_2 = -V_2 \tag{3.14}$$

Note in Eq. (3.13) that the coefficient of i_1 is the sum of the resistances in the first mesh, while the coefficient of i_2 is the negative of the resistance common to meshes 1 and 2. Now observe that the same is true in Eq. (3.14). This can serve as a shortcut way of writing the mesh equations. We will exploit this idea in Section 3.6.

The shortcut way will not apply if one mesh current is assumed clockwise and the other assumed anticlockwise, although this is permissible.

The third step is to solve for the mesh currents. Putting Eqs. (3.13) and (3.14) in matrix form yields

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_1 + R_3 & -R_3 \\ -R_3 & R_2 + R_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ -V_2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{3.15}$$

which can be solved to obtain the mesh currents i_1 and i_2. We are at liberty to use any technique for solving the simultaneous equations. According to Eq. (2.12), if a circuit has n nodes, b branches, and l independent loops or meshes, then $l = b - n + 1$. Hence, l independent simultaneous equations are required to solve the circuit using mesh analysis.

Notice that the branch currents are different from the mesh currents unless the mesh is isolated. To distinguish between the two types of currents, we use i for a mesh current and I for a branch current. The current elements I_1, I_2, and I_3 are algebraic sums of the mesh currents. It is evident from Fig. 3.17 that

$$I_1 = i_1, \qquad I_2 = i_2, \qquad I_3 = i_1 - i_2 \tag{3.16}$$

EXAMPLE 3.5

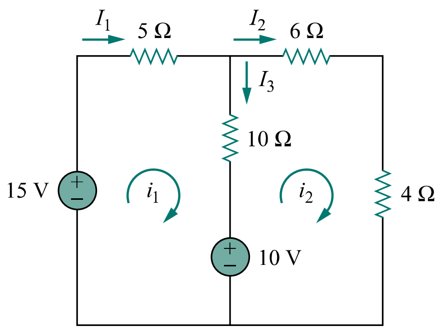

Figure 3.18 For Example 3.5.

For the circuit in Fig. 3.18, find the branch currents I_1, I_2, and I_3 using mesh analysis.

Solution:

We first obtain the mesh currents using KVL. For mesh 1,

$$-15 + 5i_1 + 10(i_1 - i_2) + 10 = 0$$

or

$$3i_1 - 2i_2 = 1 \tag{3.5.1}$$

For mesh 2,

$$6i_2 + 4i_2 + 10(i_2 - i_1) - 10 = 0$$

or

$$i_1 = 2i_2 - 1 \tag{3.5.2}$$

METHOD 1 Using the substitution method, we substitute Eq. (3.5.2) into Eq. (3.5.1), and write

$$6i_2 - 3 - 2i_2 = 1 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad i_2 = 1 \text{ A}$$

From Eq. (3.5.2), $i_1 = 2i_2 - 1 = 2 - 1 = 1$ A. Thus,

$$I_1 = i_1 = 1 \text{ A}, \qquad I_2 = i_2 = 1 \text{ A}, \qquad I_3 = i_1 - i_2 = 0$$

METHOD 2 To use Cramer's rule, we cast Eqs. (3.5.1) and (3.5.2) in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We obtain the determinants

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 6 - 2 = 4$$

$$\Delta_1 = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2 + 2 = 4, \qquad \Delta_2 = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 3 + 1 = 4$$

Thus,

$$i_1 = \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta} = 1 \text{ A}, \qquad i_2 = \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta} = 1 \text{ A}$$

as before.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 3.5

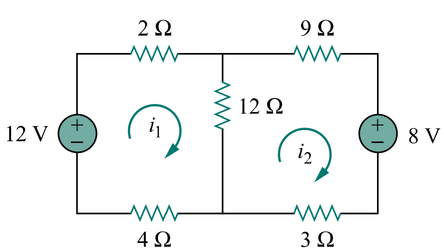

Figure 3.19 For Practice Prob. 3.5.

Calculate the mesh currents i_1 and i_2 in the circuit of Fig. 3.19.

Answer: $i_1 = \frac{2}{3}$ A, $i_2 = 0$ A.

EXAMPLE 3.6

Use mesh analysis to find the current i_o in the circuit in Fig. 3.20.

Solution:

We apply KVL to the three meshes in turn. For mesh 1,

$$-24 + 10(i_1 - i_2) + 12(i_1 - i_3) = 0$$

or

$$11i_1 - 5i_2 - 6i_3 = 12 \tag{3.6.1}$$

For mesh 2,

$$24i_2 + 4(i_2 - i_3) + 10(i_2 - i_1) = 0$$

or

$$-5i_1 + 19i_2 - 2i_3 = 0 \tag{3.6.2}$$

For mesh 3,

$$4i_o + 12(i_3 - i_1) + 4(i_3 - i_2) = 0$$

But at node A, $i_o = i_1 - i_2$, so that

$$4(i_1 - i_2) + 12(i_3 - i_1) + 4(i_3 - i_2) = 0$$

or

$$-i_1 - i_2 + 2i_3 = 0 \tag{3.6.3}$$

In matrix form, Eqs. (3.6.1) to (3.6.3) become

$$\begin{bmatrix} 11 & -5 & -6 \\ -5 & 19 & -2 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ i_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

We obtain the determinants as

$$\Delta = \begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & 11 & -5 & -6 & \\ & -5 & 19 & -2 & \\ & -1 & -1 & 2 & \\ - & 11 & -5 & -6 & + \\ - & -5 & 19 & -2 & + \\ - & & & & + \end{array}$$

$$= 418 - 30 - 10 - 114 - 22 - 50 = 192$$

$$\Delta_1 = \begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & 12 & -5 & -6 & \\ & 0 & 19 & -2 & \\ & 0 & -1 & 2 & \\ - & 12 & -5 & -6 & + \\ - & 0 & 19 & -2 & + \\ - & & & & + \end{array} = 456 - 24 = 432$$

$$\Delta_2 = \begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & 11 & 12 & -6 & \\ & -5 & 0 & -2 & \\ & -1 & 0 & 2 & \\ - & 11 & 12 & -6 & + \\ - & -5 & 0 & -2 & + \\ - & & & & + \end{array} = 24 + 120 = 144$$

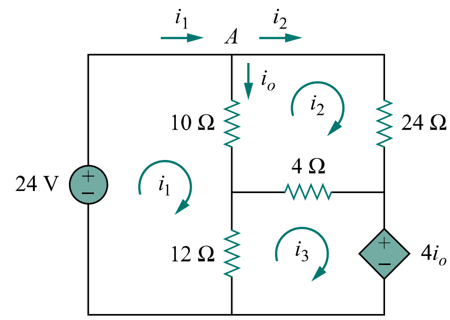

Figure 3.20 For Example 3.6.

$$\Delta_3 = \begin{array}{|rrr|} 11 & -5 & 12 \\ -5 & 19 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 11 & -5 & 12 \\ -5 & 19 & 0 \end{array} = 60 + 228 = 288$$

We calculate the mesh currents using Cramer's rule as

$$i_1 = \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta} = \frac{432}{192} = 2.25 \text{ A}, \qquad i_2 = \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta} = \frac{144}{192} = 0.75 \text{ A}$$

$$i_3 = \frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta} = \frac{288}{192} = 1.5 \text{ A}$$

Thus, $i_o = i_1 - i_2 = 1.5$ A.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 3.6

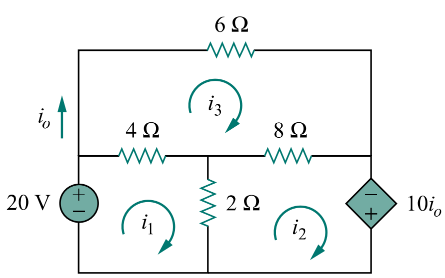

Figure 3.21 For Practice Prob. 3.6.

Using mesh analysis, find i_o in the circuit in Fig. 3.21.

Answer: -5 A.

Electronic Testing Tutorials

3.5 MESH ANALYSIS WITH CURRENT SOURCES

Applying mesh analysis to circuits containing current sources (dependent or independent) may appear complicated. But it is actually much easier than what we encountered in the previous section, because the presence of the current sources reduces the number of equations. Consider the following two possible cases.

CASE 1 When a current source exists only in one mesh: Consider the circuit in Fig. 3.22, for example. We set $i_2 = -5$ A and write a mesh equation for the other mesh in the usual way, that is,

$$-10 + 4i_1 + 6(i_1 - i_2) = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad i_1 = -2 \text{ A} \tag{3.17}$$

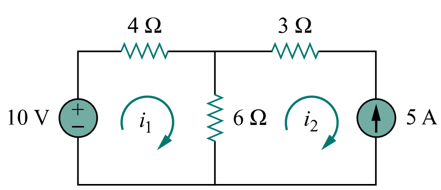

Figure 3.22 A circuit with a current source.

CASE 2 When a current source exists between two meshes: Consider the circuit in Fig. 3.23(a), for example. We create a *supermesh* by excluding the current source and any elements connected in series with it, as shown in Fig. 3.23(b). Thus,

> A supermesh results when two meshes have a (dependent or independent) current source in common.

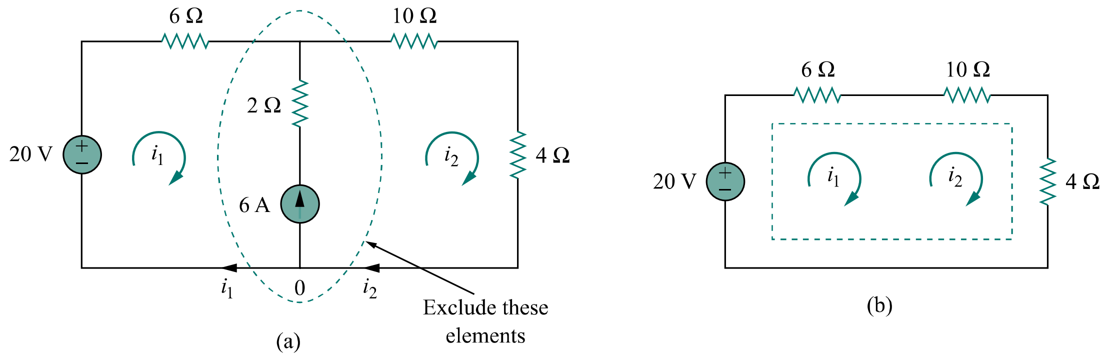

Figure 3.23 (a) Two meshes having a current source in common, (b) a supermesh, created by excluding the current source.

As shown in Fig. 3.23(b), we create a supermesh as the periphery of the two meshes and treat it differently. (If a circuit has two or more supermeshes that intersect, they should be combined to form a larger supermesh.) Why treat the supermesh differently? Because mesh analysis applies KVL—which requires that we know the voltage across each branch—and we do not know the voltage across a current source in advance. However, a supermesh must satisfy KVL like any other mesh. Therefore, applying KVL to the supermesh in Fig. 3.23(b) gives

$$-20 + 6i_1 + 10i_2 + 4i_2 = 0$$

or

$$6i_1 + 14i_2 = 20 \tag{3.18}$$

We apply KCL to a node in the branch where the two meshes intersect. Applying KCL to node 0 in Fig. 3.23(a) gives

$$i_2 = i_1 + 6 \tag{3.19}$$

Solving Eqs. (3.18) and (3.19), we get

$$i_1 = -3.2 \text{ A}, \qquad i_2 = 2.8 \text{ A} \tag{3.20}$$

Note the following properties of a supermesh:

1. The current source in the supermesh is not completely ignored; it provides the constraint equation necessary to solve for the mesh currents.
2. A supermesh has no current of its own.
3. A supermesh requires the application of both KVL and KCL.

EXAMPLE 3.7

For the circuit in Fig. 3.24, find i_1 to i_4 using mesh analysis.

Solution:

Note that meshes 1 and 2 form a supermesh since they have an independent current source in common. Also, meshes 2 and 3 form another supermesh

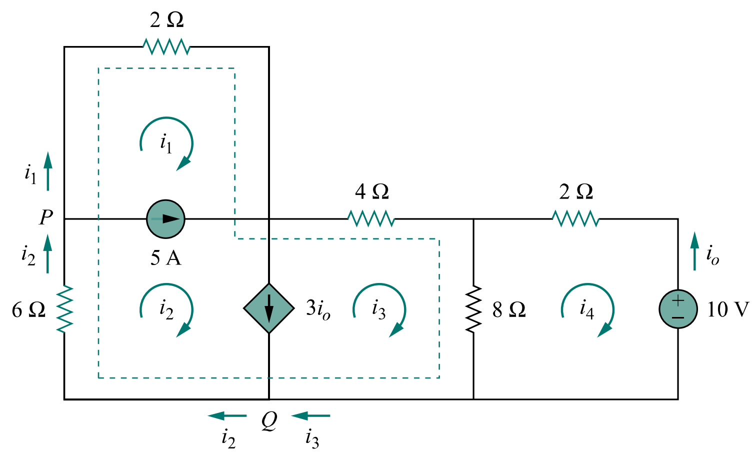

Figure 3.24 For Example 3.7.

because they have a dependent current source in common. The two supermeshes intersect and form a larger supermesh as shown. Applying KVL to the larger supermesh,

$$2i_1 + 4i_3 + 8(i_3 - i_4) + 6i_2 = 0$$

or

$$i_1 + 3i_2 + 6i_3 - 4i_4 = 0 \tag{3.7.1}$$

For the independent current source, we apply KCL to node P:

$$i_2 = i_1 + 5 \tag{3.7.2}$$

For the dependent current source, we apply KCL to node Q:

$$i_2 = i_3 + 3i_o$$

But $i_o = -i_4$, hence,

$$i_2 = i_3 - 3i_4 \tag{3.7.3}$$

Applying KVL in mesh 4,

$$2i_4 + 8(i_4 - i_3) + 10 = 0$$

or

$$5i_4 - 4i_3 = -5 \tag{3.7.4}$$

From Eqs. (3.7.1) to (3.7.4),

$$i_1 = -7.5 \text{ A}, \qquad i_2 = -2.5 \text{ A}, \qquad i_3 = 3.93 \text{ A}, \qquad i_4 = 2.143 \text{ A}$$

PRACTICE PROBLEM 3.7

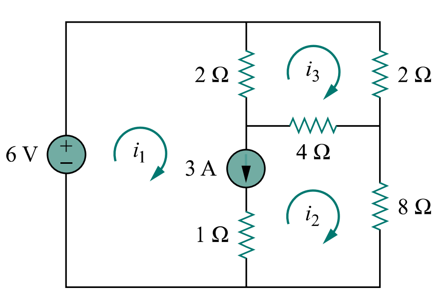

Figure 3.25 For Practice Prob. 3.7.

Use mesh analysis to determine i_1, i_2, and i_3 in Fig. 3.25.

Answer: $i_1 = 3.474$ A, $i_2 = 0.4737$ A, $i_3 = 1.1052$ A.

Network Analysis

EXAMPLE 4.2

Assume $I_o = 1$ A and use linearity to find the actual value of I_o in the circuit in Fig. 4.4.

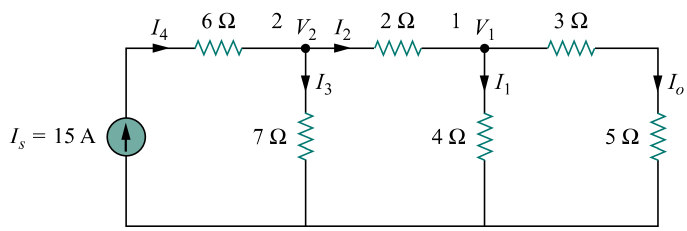

Figure 4.4 For Example 4.2.

Solution:

If $I_o = 1$ A, then $V_1 = (3+5)I_o = 8$ V and $I_1 = V_1/4 = 2$ A. Applying KCL at node 1 gives

$$I_2 = I_1 + I_o = 3 \text{ A}$$

$$V_2 = V_1 + 2I_2 = 8 + 6 = 14 \text{ V}, \qquad I_3 = \frac{V_2}{7} = 2 \text{ A}$$

Applying KCL at node 2 gives

$$I_4 = I_3 + I_2 = 5 \text{ A}$$

Therefore, $I_s = 5$ A. This shows that assuming $I_o = 1$ gives $I_s = 5$ A; the actual source current of 15 A will give $I_o = 3$ A as the actual value.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.2

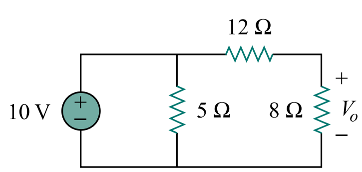

Figure 4.5 For Practice Prob. 4.2

Assume that $V_o = 1$ V and use linearity to calculate the actual value of V_o in the circuit of Fig. 4.5.

Answer: 4 V.

4.3 SUPERPOSITION

If a circuit has two or more independent sources, one way to determine the value of a specific variable (voltage or current) is to use nodal or mesh analysis as in Chapter 3. Another way is to determine the contribution of each independent source to the variable and then add them up. The latter approach is known as the *superposition.*

The idea of superposition rests on the linearity property.

> The **superposition** principle states that the voltage across (or current through) an element in a linear circuit is the algebraic sum of the voltages across (or currents through) that element due to each independent source acting alone.

Superposition is not limited to circuit analysis but is applicable in many fields where cause and effect bear a linear relationship to one another.

The principle of superposition helps us to analyze a linear circuit with more than one independent source by calculating the contribution of each independent source separately. However, to apply the superposition principle, we must keep two things in mind:

1. We consider one independent source at a time while all other independent sources are *turned off*. This implies that we replace every voltage source by 0 V (or a short circuit), and every current source by 0 A (or an open circuit). This way we obtain a simpler and more manageable circuit.
2. Dependent sources are left intact because they are controlled by circuit variables.

Other terms such as *killed*, *made inactive*, *deadened*, or *set equal to zero* are often used to convey the same idea.

With these in mind, we apply the superposition principle in three steps:

Steps to Apply Superposition Principle:

1. Turn off all independent sources except one source. Find the output (voltage or current) due to that active source using nodal or mesh analysis.
2. Repeat step 1 for each of the other independent sources.
3. Find the total contribution by adding algebraically all the contributions due to the independent sources.

Analyzing a circuit using superposition has one major disadvantage: it may very likely involve more work. If the circuit has three independent sources, we may have to analyze three simpler circuits each providing the contribution due to the respective individual source. However, superposition does help reduce a complex circuit to simpler circuits through replacement of voltage sources by short circuits and of current sources by open circuits.

Keep in mind that superposition is based on linearity. For this reason, it is not applicable to the effect on power due to each source, because the power absorbed by a resistor depends on the square of the voltage or current. If the power value is needed, the current through (or voltage across) the element must be calculated first using superposition.

For example, when current i_1 flows through resistor R, the power is $p_1 = Ri_1^2$, and when current i_2 flows through R, the power is $p_2 = Ri_2^2$. If current $i_1 + i_2$ flows through R, the power absorbed is $p_3 = R(i_1 + i_2)^2 = Ri_1^2 + Ri_2^2 + 2Ri_1i_2 \neq p_1 + p_2$. Thus, the power relation is nonlinear.

EXAMPLE 4.3

Use the superposition theorem to find v in the circuit in Fig. 4.6.

Solution:

Since there are two sources, let

$$v = v_1 + v_2$$

where v_1 and v_2 are the contributions due to the 6-V voltage source and

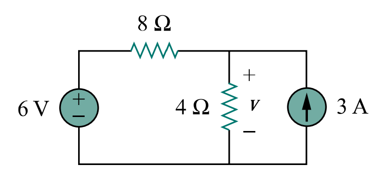

Figure 4.6 For Example 4.3.

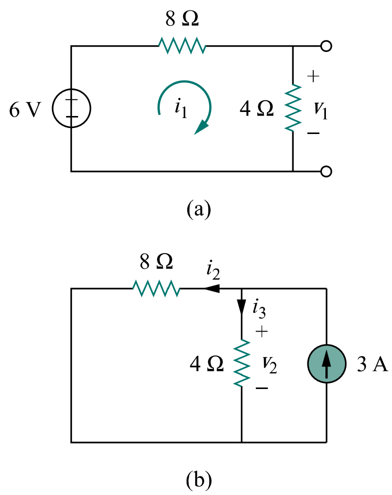

Figure 4.7 For Example 4.3: (a) calculating v_1, (b) calculating v_2.

the 3-A current source, respectively. To obtain v_1, we set the current source to zero, as shown in Fig. 4.7(a). Applying KVL to the loop in Fig. 4.7(a) gives

$$12i_1 - 6 = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad i_1 = 0.5 \text{ A}$$

Thus,

$$v_1 = 4i_1 = 2 \text{ V}$$

We may also use voltage division to get v_1 by writing

$$v_1 = \frac{4}{4+8}(6) = 2 \text{ V}$$

To get v_2, we set the voltage source to zero, as in Fig. 4.7(b). Using current division,

$$i_3 = \frac{8}{4+8}(3) = 2 \text{ A}$$

Hence,

$$v_2 = 4i_3 = 8 \text{ V}$$

And we find

$$v = v_1 + v_2 = 2 + 8 = 10 \text{ V}$$

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.3

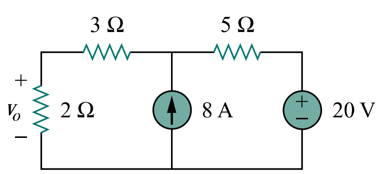

Figure 4.8 For Practice Prob. 4.3.

Using the superposition theorem, find v_o in the circuit in Fig. 4.8.

Answer: 12 V.

EXAMPLE 4.4

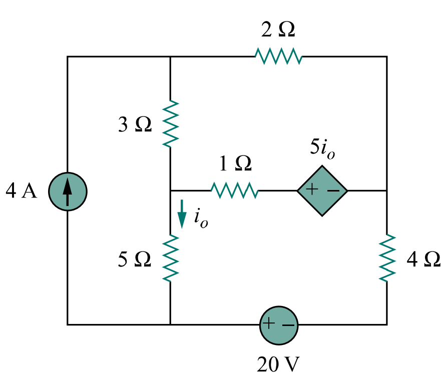

Figure 4.9 For Example 4.4.

Find i_o in the circuit in Fig. 4.9 using superposition.

Solution:

The circuit in Fig. 4.9 involves a dependent source, which must be left intact. We let

$$i_o = i_o' + i_o'' \tag{4.4.1}$$

where i_o' and i_o'' are due to the 4-A current source and 20-V voltage source respectively. To obtain i_o', we turn off the 20-V source so that we have the circuit in Fig. 4.10(a). We apply mesh analysis in order to obtain i_o'. For loop 1,

$$i_1 = 4 \text{ A} \tag{4.4.2}$$

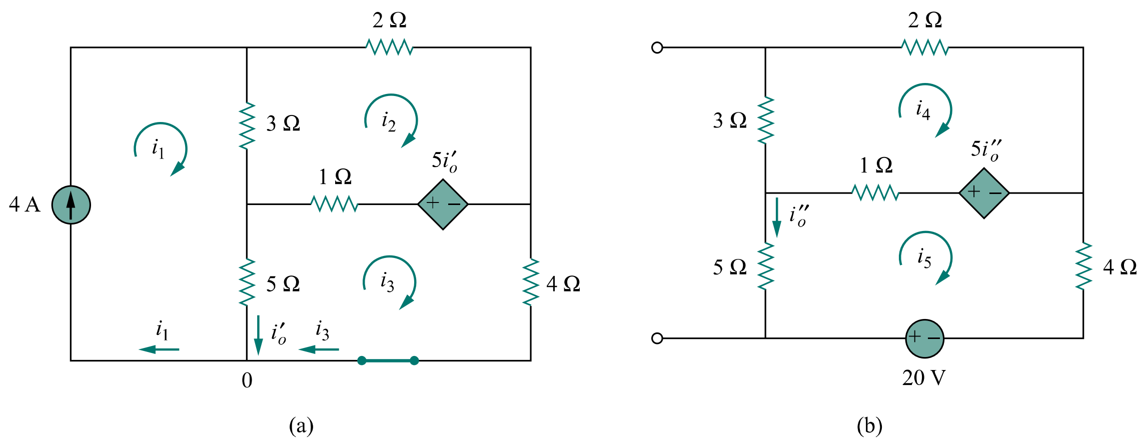

Figure 4.10 For Example 4.4: Applying superposition to (a) obtain i_0', (b) obtain i_0''.

For loop 2,

$$-3i_1 + 6i_2 - 1i_3 - 5i_o' = 0 \tag{4.4.3}$$

For loop 3,

$$-5i_1 - 1i_2 + 10i_3 + 5i_o' = 0 \tag{4.4.4}$$

But at node 0,

$$i_3 = i_1 - i_o' = 4 - i_o' \tag{4.4.5}$$

Substituting Eqs. (4.4.2) and (4.4.5) into Eqs. (4.4.3) and (4.4.4) gives two simultaneous equations

$$3i_2 - 2i_o' = 8 \tag{4.4.6}$$
$$i_2 + 5i_o' = 20 \tag{4.4.7}$$

which can be solved to get

$$i_o' = \frac{52}{17}\text{ A} \tag{4.4.8}$$

To obtain i_o'', we turn off the 4-A current source so that the circuit becomes that shown in Fig. 4.10(b). For loop 4, KVL gives

$$6i_4 - i_5 - 5i_o'' = 0 \tag{4.4.9}$$

and for loop 5,

$$-i_4 + 10i_5 - 20 + 5i_o'' = 0 \tag{4.4.10}$$

But $i_5 = -i_o''$. Substituting this in Eqs. (4.4.9) and (4.4.10) gives

$$6i_4 - 4i_o'' = 0 \tag{4.4.11}$$
$$i_4 + 5i_o'' = -20 \tag{4.4.12}$$

which we solve to get

$$i_o'' = -\frac{60}{17}\ \text{A} \tag{4.4.13}$$

Now substituting Eqs. (4.4.8) and (4.4.13) into Eq. (4.4.1) gives

$$i_o = -\frac{8}{17} = -0.4706\ \text{A}$$

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.4

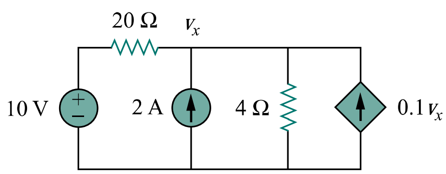

Figure 4.11 For Practice Prob. 4.4.

Use superposition to find v_x in the circuit in Fig. 4.11.

Answer: $v_x = 12.5$ V.

EXAMPLE 4.5

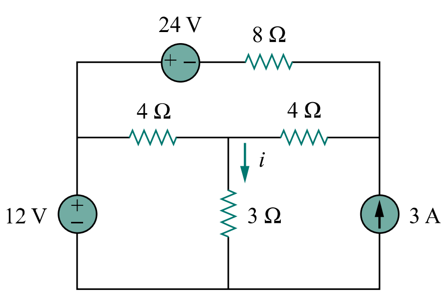

Figure 4.12 For Example 4.5.

For the circuit in Fig. 4.12, use the superposition theorem to find i.

Solution:

In this case, we have three sources. Let

$$i = i_1 + i_2 + i_3$$

where i_1, i_2, and i_3 are due to the 12-V, 24-V, and 3-A sources respectively. To get i_1, consider the circuit in Fig. 4.13(a). Combining 4 Ω (on the right-hand side) in series with 8 Ω gives 12 Ω. The 12 Ω in parallel with 4 Ω gives $12 \times 4/16 = 3$ Ω. Thus,

$$i_1 = \frac{12}{6} = 2\ \text{A}$$

To get i_2, consider the circuit in Fig. 4.13(b). Applying mesh analysis,

$$16i_a - 4i_b + 24 = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad 4i_a - i_b = -6 \tag{4.5.1}$$

$$7i_b - 4i_a = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad i_a = \frac{7}{4}i_b \tag{4.5.2}$$

Substituting Eq. (4.5.2) into Eq. (4.5.1) gives

$$i_2 = i_b = -1$$

To get i_3, consider the circuit in Fig. 4.13(c). Using nodal analysis,

$$3 = \frac{v_2}{8} + \frac{v_2 - v_1}{4} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad 24 = 3v_2 - 2v_1 \tag{4.5.3}$$

$$\frac{v_2 - v_1}{4} = \frac{v_1}{4} + \frac{v_1}{3} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad v_2 = \frac{10}{3}v_1 \tag{4.5.4}$$

Substituting Eq. (4.5.4) into Eq. (4.5.3) leads to $v_1 = 3$ and

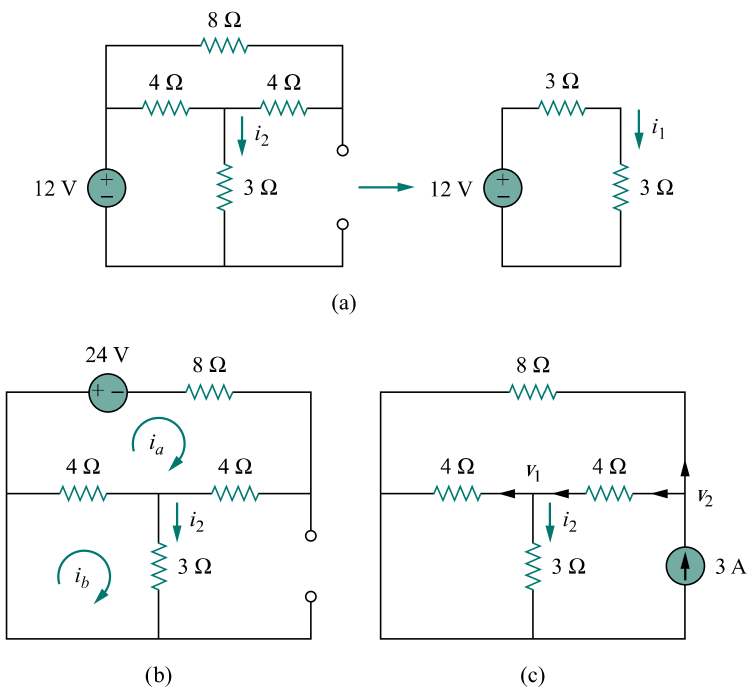

Figure 4.13 For Example 4.5.

$$i_3 = \frac{v_1}{3} = 1 \text{ A}$$

Thus,

$$i = i_1 + i_2 + i_3 = 2 - 1 + 1 = 2 \text{ A}$$

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.5

Find i in the circuit in Fig. 4.14 using the superposition principle.

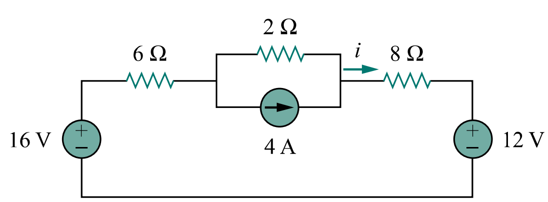

Figure 4.14 For Practice Prob. 4.5.

Answer: 0.75 A.

4.4 SOURCE TRANSFORMATION

We have noticed that series-parallel combination and wye-delta transformation help simplify circuits. *Source transformation* is another tool for simplifying circuits. Basic to these tools is the concept of *equivalence*.

We recall that an equivalent circuit is one whose v-i characteristics are identical with the original circuit.

In Section 3.6, we saw that node-voltage (or mesh-current) equations can be obtained by mere inspection of a circuit when the sources are all independent current (or all independent voltage) sources. It is therefore expedient in circuit analysis to be able to substitute a voltage source in series with a resistor for a current source in parallel with a resistor, or vice versa, as shown in Fig. 4.15. Either substitution is known as a *source transformation*.

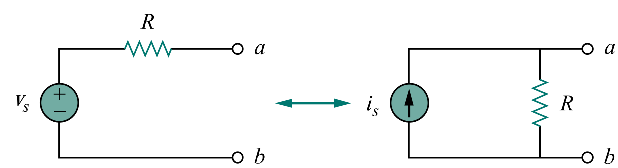

Figure 4.15 Transformation of independent sources.

> A **source transformation** is the process of replacing a voltage source v_s in series with a resistor R by a current source i_s in parallel with a resistor R, or vice versa.

The two circuits in Fig. 4.15 are equivalent—provided they have the same voltage-current relation at terminals a-b. It is easy to show that they are indeed equivalent. If the sources are turned off, the equivalent resistance at terminals a-b in both circuits is R. Also, when terminals a-b are short-circuited, the short-circuit current flowing from a to b is $i_{sc} = v_s/R$ in the circuit on the left-hand side and $i_{sc} = i_s$ for the circuit on the right-hand side. Thus, $v_s/R = i_s$ in order for the two circuits to be equivalent. Hence, source transformation requires that

$$v_s = i_s R \qquad \text{or} \qquad i_s = \frac{v_s}{R} \tag{4.5}$$

Source transformation also applies to dependent sources, provided we carefully handle the dependent variable. As shown in Fig. 4.16, a dependent voltage source in series with a resistor can be transformed to a dependent current source in parallel with the resistor or vice versa.

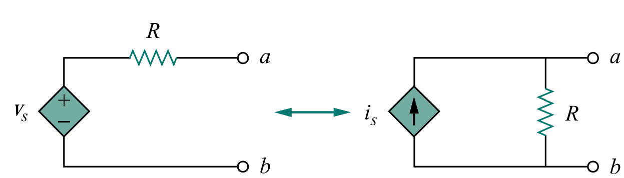

Figure 4.16 Transformation of dependent sources.

Like the wye-delta transformation we studied in Chapter 2, a source transformation does not affect the remaining part of the circuit. When applicable, source transformation is a powerful tool that allows circuit manipulations to ease circuit analysis. However, we should keep the following points in mind when dealing with source transformation.

1. Note from Fig. 4.15 (or Fig. 4.16) that the arrow of the current source is directed toward the positive terminal of the voltage source.
2. Note from Eq. (4.5) that source transformation is not possible when $R = 0$, which is the case with an ideal voltage source. However, for a practical, nonideal voltage source, $R \neq 0$. Similarly, an ideal current source with $R = \infty$ cannot be replaced by a finite voltage source. More will be said on ideal and nonideal sources in Section 4.10.1.

EXAMPLE 4.6

Use source transformation to find v_o in the circuit in Fig. 4.17.

Solution:

We first transform the current and voltage sources to obtain the circuit in Fig. 4.18(a). Combining the 4-Ω and 2-Ω resistors in series and transforming the 12-V voltage source gives us Fig. 4.18(b). We now combine the 3-Ω and 6-Ω resistors in parallel to get 2-Ω. We also combine the 2-A and 4-A current sources to get a 2-A source. Thus, by repeatedly applying source transformations, we obtain the circuit in Fig. 4.18(c).

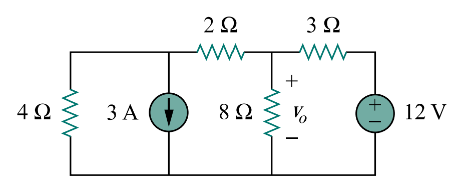

Figure 4.17 For Example 4.6.

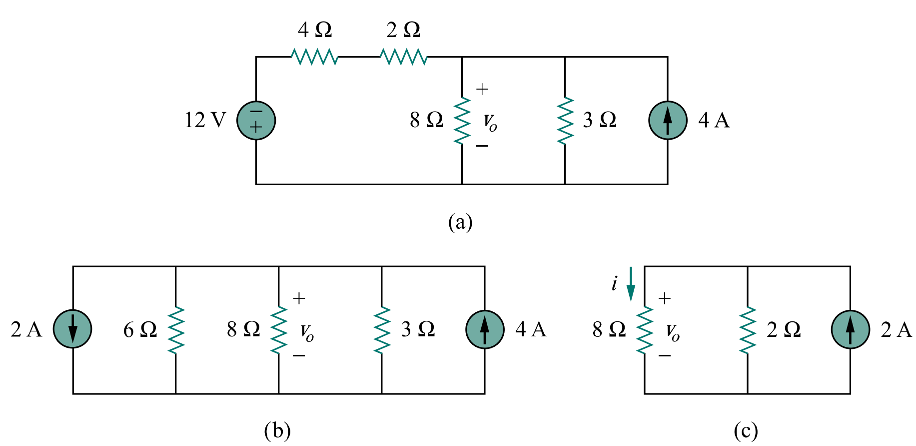

Figure 4.18 For Example 4.6.

We use current division in Fig. 4.18(c) to get

$$i = \frac{2}{2+8}(2) = 0.4$$

and

$$v_o = 8i = 8(0.4) = 3.2 \text{ V}$$

Alternatively, since the 8-Ω and 2-Ω resistors in Fig. 4.18(c) are in parallel, they have the same voltage v_o across them. Hence,

$$v_o = (8 \parallel 2)(2\text{ A}) = \frac{8 \times 2}{10}(2) = 3.2\text{ V}$$

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.6

Find i_o in the circuit of Fig. 4.19 using source transformation.

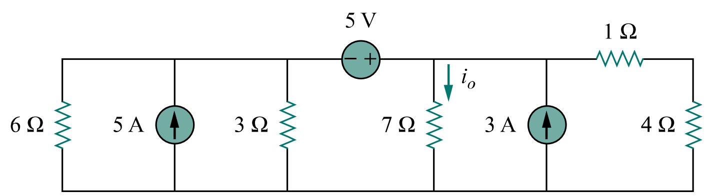

Figure 4.19 For Practice Prob. 4.6.

Answer: 1.78 A.

EXAMPLE 4.7

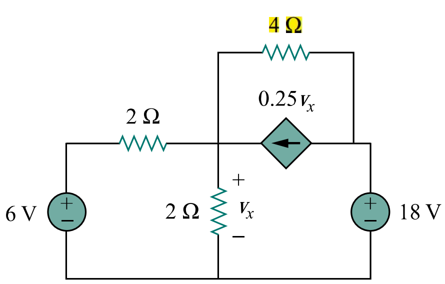

Figure 4.20 For Example 4.7.

Find v_x in Fig. 4.20 using source transformation.

Solution:

The circuit in Fig. 4.20 involves a voltage-controlled dependent current source. We transform this dependent current source as well as the 6-V independent voltage source as shown in Fig. 4.21(a). The 18-V voltage source is not transformed because it is not connected in series with any resistor. The two 2-Ω resistors in parallel combine to give a 1-Ω resistor, which is in parallel with the 3-A current source. The current is transformed to a voltage source as shown in Fig. 4.21(b). Notice that the terminals for v_x are intact. Applying KVL around the loop in Fig. 4.21(b) gives

$$-3 + 5i + v_x + 18 = 0 \tag{4.7.1}$$

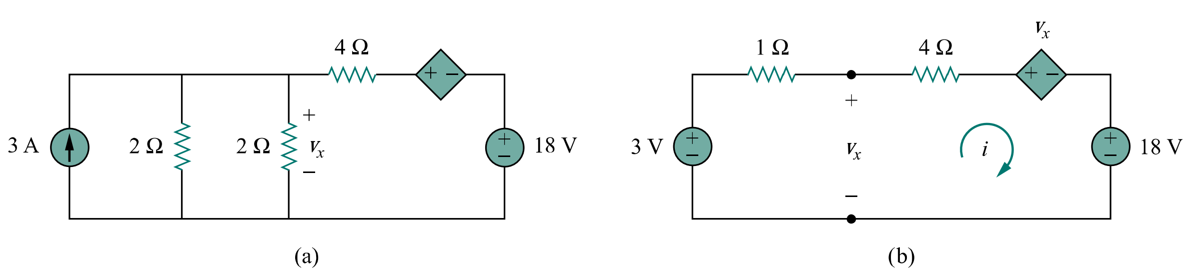

Figure 4.21 For Example 4.7: Applying source transformation to the circuit in Fig. 4.20.

Applying KVL to the loop containing only the 3-V voltage source, the 1-Ω resistor, and v_x yields

$$-3 + 1i + v_x = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad v_x = 3 - i \tag{4.7.2}$$

Substituting this into Eq. (4.7.1), we obtain

$$15 + 5i + 3 - i = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad i = -4.5 \text{ A}$$

Alternatively, we may apply KVL to the loop containing v_x, the 4-Ω resistor, the voltage-controlled dependent voltage source, and the 18-V voltage source in Fig. 4.21(b). We obtain

$$-v_x + 4i + v_x + 18 = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad i = -4.5 \text{ A}$$

Thus, $v_x = 3 - i = 7.5$ V.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.7

Use source transformation to find i_x in the circuit shown in Fig. 4.22.

Answer: 1.176 A.

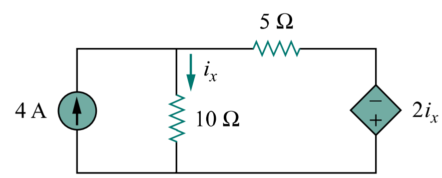

Figure 4.22 For Practice Prob. 4.7.

4.5 THEVENIN'S THEOREM

Electronic Testing Tutorials

It often occurs in practice that a particular element in a circuit is variable (usually called the *load*) while other elements are fixed. As a typical example, a household outlet terminal may be connected to different appliances constituting a variable load. Each time the variable element is changed, the entire circuit has to be analyzed all over again. To avoid this problem, Thevenin's theorem provides a technique by which the fixed part of the circuit is replaced by an equivalent circuit.

According to Thevenin's theorem, the linear circuit in Fig. 4.23(a) can be replaced by that in Fig. 4.23(b). (The load in Fig. 4.23 may be a single resistor or another circuit.) The circuit to the left of the terminals *a-b* in Fig. 4.23(b) is known as the *Thevenin equivalent circuit*; it was developed in 1883 by M. Leon Thevenin (1857–1926), a French telegraph engineer.

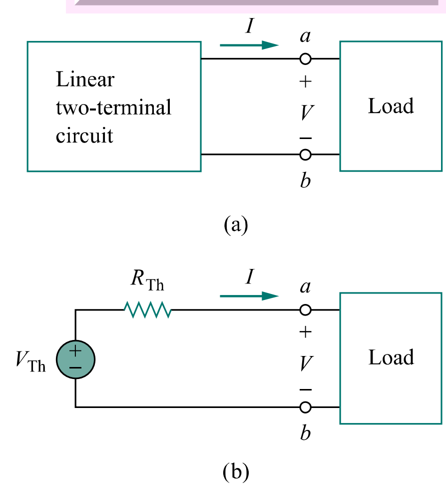

Figure 4.23 Replacing a linear two-terminal circuit by its Thevenin equivalent: (a) original circuit, (b) the Thevenin equivalent circuit.

> **Thevenin's theorem** states that a linear two-terminal circuit can be replaced by an equivalent circuit consisting of a voltage source V_{Th} in series with a resistor R_{Th}, where V_{Th} is the open-circuit voltage at the terminals and R_{Th} is the input or equivalent resistance at the terminals when the independent sources are turned off.

The proof of the theorem will be given later, in Section 4.7. Our major concern right now is how to find the Thevenin equivalent voltage

V_{Th} and resistance R_{Th}. To do so, suppose the two circuits in Fig. 4.23 are equivalent. Two circuits are said to be *equivalent* if they have the same voltage-current relation at their terminals. Let us find out what will make the two circuits in Fig. 4.23 equivalent. If the terminals a-b are made open-circuited (by removing the load), no current flows, so that the open-circuit voltage across the terminals a-b in Fig. 4.23(a) must be equal to the voltage source V_{Th} in Fig. 4.23(b), since the two circuits are equivalent. Thus V_{Th} is the open-circuit voltage across the terminals as shown in Fig. 4.24(a); that is,

$$V_{Th} = v_{oc} \tag{4.6}$$

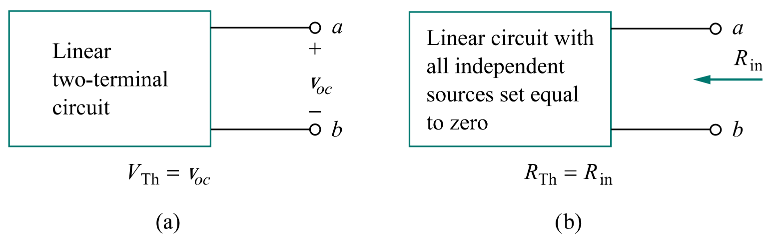

Figure 4.24 Finding V_{Th} and R_{Th}.

Again, with the load disconnected and terminals a-b open-circuited, we turn off all independent sources. The input resistance (or equivalent resistance) of the dead circuit at the terminals a-b in Fig. 4.23(a) must be equal to R_{Th} in Fig. 4.23(b) because the two circuits are equivalent. Thus, R_{Th} is the input resistance at the terminals when the independent sources are turned off, as shown in Fig. 4.24(b); that is,

$$R_{Th} = R_{in} \tag{4.7}$$

To apply this idea in finding the Thevenin resistance R_{Th}, we need to consider two cases.

CASE 1 If the network has no dependent sources, we turn off all independent sources. R_{Th} is the input resistance of the network looking between terminals a and b, as shown in Fig. 4.24(b).

CASE 2 If the network has dependent sources, we turn off all independent sources. As with superposition, dependent sources are not to be turned off because they are controlled by circuit variables. We apply a voltage source v_o at terminals a and b and determine the resulting current i_o. Then $R_{Th} = v_o/i_o$, as shown in Fig. 4.25(a). Alternatively, we may insert a current source i_o at terminals a-b as shown in Fig. 4.25(b) and find the terminal voltage v_o. Again $R_{Th} = v_o/i_o$. Either of the two approaches will give the same result. In either approach we may assume any value of v_o and i_o. For example, we may use $v_o = 1$ V or $i_o = 1$ A, or even use unspecified values of v_o or i_o.

It often occurs that R_{Th} takes a negative value. In this case, the negative resistance ($v = -iR$) implies that the circuit is supplying power.

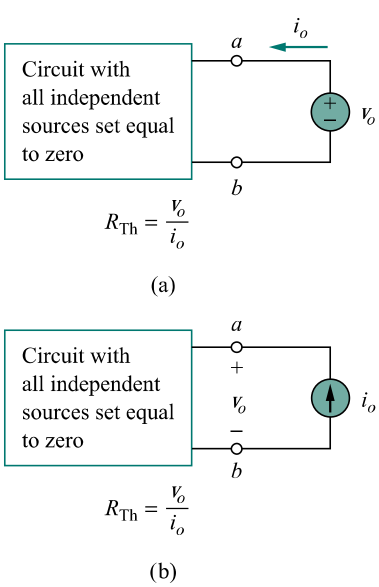

Figure 4.25 Finding R_{Th} when circuit has dependent sources.

Later we will see that an alternative way of finding R_{Th} is $R_{Th} = v_{oc}/i_{sc}$.

This is possible in a circuit with dependent sources; Example 4.10 will illustrate this.

Thevenin's theorem is very important in circuit analysis. It helps simplify a circuit. A large circuit may be replaced by a single independent voltage source and a single resistor. This replacement technique is a powerful tool in circuit design.

As mentioned earlier, a linear circuit with a variable load can be replaced by the Thevenin equivalent, exclusive of the load. The equivalent network behaves the same way externally as the original circuit. Consider a linear circuit terminated by a load R_L, as shown in Fig. 4.26(a). The current I_L through the load and the voltage V_L across the load are easily determined once the Thevenin equivalent of the circuit at the load's terminals is obtained, as shown in Fig. 4.26(b). From Fig. 4.26(b), we obtain

$$I_L = \frac{V_{\text{Th}}}{R_{\text{Th}} + R_L} \tag{4.8a}$$

$$V_L = R_L I_L = \frac{R_L}{R_{\text{Th}} + R_L} V_{\text{Th}} \tag{4.8b}$$

Note from Fig. 4.26(b) that the Thevenin equivalent is a simple voltage divider, yielding V_L by mere inspection.

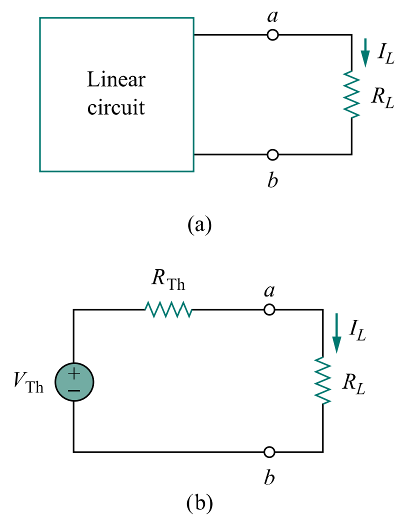

Figure 4.26 A circuit with a load: (a) original circuit, (b) Thevenin equivalent.

EXAMPLE 4.8

Find the Thevenin equivalent circuit of the circuit shown in Fig. 4.27, to the left of the terminals a-b. Then find the current through $R_L = 6$, 16, and 36 Ω.

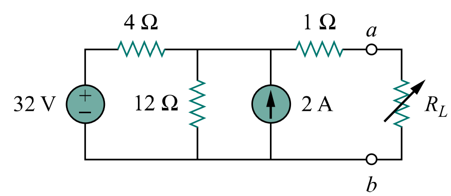

Figure 4.27 For Example 4.8.

Solution:

We find R_{Th} by turning off the 32-V voltage source (replacing it with a short circuit) and the 2-A current source (replacing it with an open circuit). The circuit becomes what is shown in Fig. 4.28(a). Thus,

$$R_{\text{Th}} = 4 \parallel 12 + 1 = \frac{4 \times 12}{16} + 1 = 4\ \Omega$$

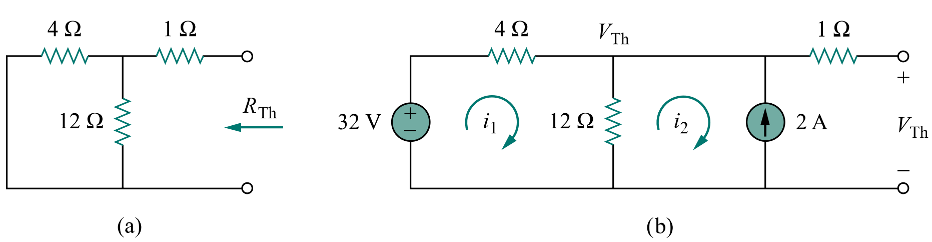

Figure 4.28 For Example 4.8: (a) finding R_{Th}, (b) finding V_{Th}.

To find V_{Th}, consider the circuit in Fig. 4.28(b). Applying mesh analysis to the two loops, we obtain

$$-32 + 4i_1 + 12(i_1 - i_2) = 0, \qquad i_2 = -2\text{ A}$$

Solving for i_1, we get $i_1 = 0.5$ A. Thus,

$$V_{Th} = 12(i_1 - i_2) = 12(0.5 + 2.0) = 30 \text{ V}$$

Alternatively, it is even easier to use nodal analysis. We ignore the 1-Ω resistor since no current flows through it. At the top node, KCL gives

$$\frac{32 - V_{Th}}{4} + 2 = \frac{V_{Th}}{12}$$

or

$$96 - 3V_{Th} + 24 = V_{Th} \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad V_{Th} = 30 \text{ V}$$

as obtained before. We could also use source transformation to find V_{Th}.

The Thevenin equivalent circuit is shown in Fig. 4.29. The current through R_L is

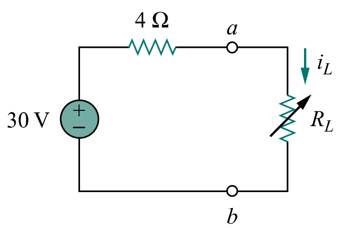

Figure 4.29 The Thevenin equivalent circuit for Example 4.8.

$$I_L = \frac{V_{Th}}{R_{Th} + R_L} = \frac{30}{4 + R_L}$$

When $R_L = 6$,

$$I_L = \frac{30}{10} = 3 \text{ A}$$

When $R_L = 16$,

$$I_L = \frac{30}{20} = 1.5 \text{ A}$$

When $R_L = 36$,

$$I_L = \frac{30}{40} = 0.75 \text{ A}$$

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.8

Using Thevenin's theorem, find the equivalent circuit to the left of the terminals in the circuit in Fig. 4.30. Then find i.

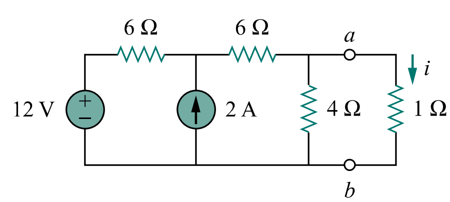

Figure 4.30 For Practice Prob. 4.8.

Answer: $V_{Th} = 6$ V, $R_{Th} = 3$ Ω, $i = 1.5$ A.

EXAMPLE 4.9

Find the Thevenin equivalent of the circuit in Fig. 4.31.

Solution:

This circuit contains a dependent source, unlike the circuit in the previous example. To find R_{Th}, we set the independent source equal to zero but leave the dependent source alone. Because of the presence of the dependent source, however, we excite the network with a voltage source v_o connected to the terminals as indicated in Fig. 4.32(a). We may set $v_o = 1$ V to ease calculation, since the circuit is linear. Our goal is to find the current i_o through the terminals, and then obtain $R_{\text{Th}} = 1/i_o$. (Alternatively, we may insert a 1-A current source, find the corresponding voltage v_o, and obtain $R_{\text{Th}} = v_o/1$.)

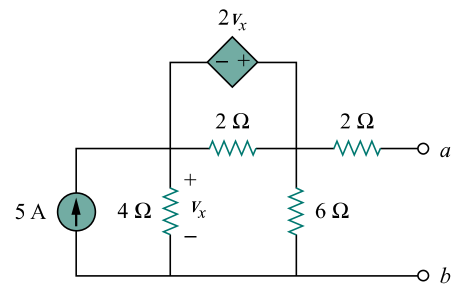

Figure 4.31 For Example 4.9.

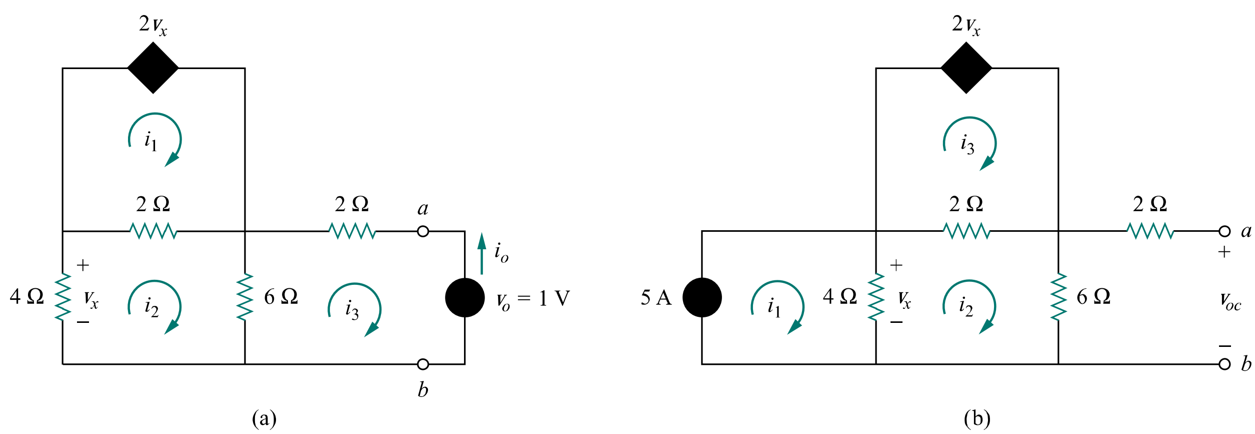

Figure 4.32 Finding R_{Th} and V_{Th} for Example 4.9.

Applying mesh analysis to loop 1 in the circuit in Fig. 4.32(a) results in

$$-2v_x + 2(i_1 - i_2) = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad v_x = i_1 - i_2$$

But $-4i_2 = v_x = i_1 - i_2$; hence,

$$i_1 = -3i_2 \tag{4.9.1}$$

For loops 2 and 3, applying KVL produces

$$4i_2 + 2(i_2 - i_1) + 6(i_2 - i_3) = 0 \tag{4.9.2}$$

$$6(i_3 - i_2) + 2i_3 + 1 = 0 \tag{4.9.3}$$

Solving these equations gives

$$i_3 = -\frac{1}{6}\ \text{A}$$

But $i_o = -i_3 = 1/6$ A. Hence,

$$R_{\text{Th}} = \frac{1\ \text{V}}{i_o} = 6\ \Omega$$

To get V_{Th}, we find v_{oc} in the circuit of Fig. 4.32(b). Applying mesh analysis, we get

$$i_1 = 5 \tag{4.9.4}$$

$$-2v_x + 2(i_3 - i_2) = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad v_x = i_3 - i_2 \tag{4.9.5}$$

$$4(i_2 - i_1) + 2(i_2 - i_3) + 6i_2 = 0$$

or

$$12i_2 - 4i_1 - 2i_3 = 0 \tag{4.9.6}$$

But $4(i_1 - i_2) = v_x$. Solving these equations leads to $i_2 = 10/3$. Hence,

$$V_{\mathrm{Th}} = v_{oc} = 6i_2 = 20 \text{ V}$$

The Thevenin equivalent is as shown in Fig. 4.33.

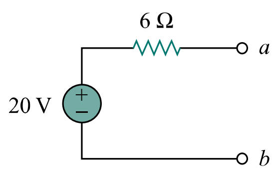

Figure 4.33 The Thevenin equivalent of the circuit in Fig. 4.31.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.9

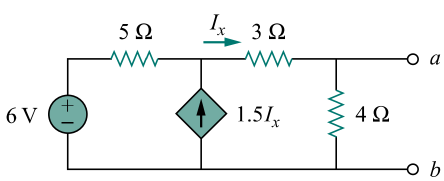

Figure 4.34 For Practice Prob. 4.9.

Find the Thevenin equivalent circuit of the circuit in Fig. 4.34 to the left of the terminals.

Answer: $V_{\mathrm{Th}} = 5.33$ V, $R_{\mathrm{Th}} = 0.44\ \Omega$.

EXAMPLE 4.10

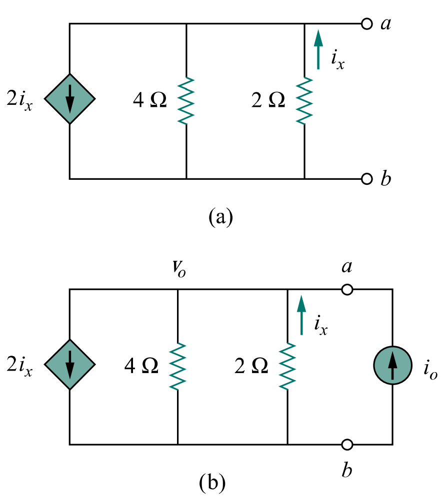

Figure 4.35 For Example 4.10.

Determine the Thevenin equivalent of the circuit in Fig. 4.35(a).

Solution:

Since the circuit in Fig. 4.35(a) has no independent sources, $V_{\mathrm{Th}} = 0$ V. To find R_{Th}, it is best to apply a current source i_o at the terminals as shown in Fig. 4.35(b). Applying nodal analysis gives

$$i_o + i_x = 2i_x + \frac{v_o}{4} \tag{4.10.1}$$

But

$$i_x = \frac{0 - v_o}{2} = -\frac{v_o}{2} \tag{4.10.2}$$

Substituting Eq. (4.10.2) into Eq. (4.10.1) yields

$$i_o = i_x + \frac{v_o}{4} = -\frac{v_o}{2} + \frac{v_o}{4} = -\frac{v_o}{4} \qquad \text{or} \qquad v_o = -4i_o$$

Thus,

$$R_{\mathrm{Th}} = \frac{v_o}{i_o} = -4\ \Omega$$

The negative value of the resistance tells us that, according to the passive sign convention, the circuit in Fig. 4.35(a) is supplying power. Of course, the resistors in Fig. 4.35(a) cannot supply power (they absorb power); it is the dependent source that supplies the power. This is an example of how a dependent source and resistors could be used to simulate negative resistance.

Network Analysis

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.10

Obtain the Thevenin equivalent of the circuit in Fig. 4.36.

Answer: $V_{Th} = 0$ V, $R_{Th} = -7.5\ \Omega$.

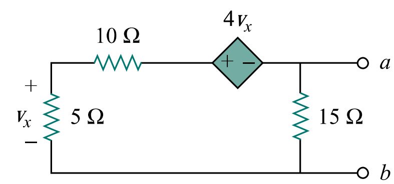

Figure 4.36 For Practice Prob. 4.10.

4.6 NORTON'S THEOREM

Electronic Testing Tutorials

In 1926, about 43 years after Thevenin published his theorem, E. L. Norton, an American engineer at Bell Telephone Laboratories, proposed a similar theorem.

> **Norton's theorem** states that a linear two-terminal circuit can be replaced by an equivalent circuit consisting of a current source I_N in parallel with a resistor R_N, where I_N is the short-circuit current through the terminals and R_N is the input or equivalent resistance at the terminals when the independent sources are turned off.

Thus, the circuit in Fig. 4.37(a) can be replaced by the one in Fig. 4.37(b).

The proof of Norton's theorem will be given in the next section. For now, we are mainly concerned with how to get R_N and I_N. We find R_N in the same way we find R_{Th}. In fact, from what we know about source transformation, the Thevenin and Norton resistances are equal; that is,

$$\boxed{R_N = R_{Th}} \tag{4.9}$$

To find the Norton current I_N, we determine the short-circuit current flowing from terminal a to b in both circuits in Fig. 4.37. It is evident that the short-circuit current in Fig. 4.37(b) is I_N. This must be the same short-circuit current from terminal a to b in Fig. 4.37(a), since the two circuits are equivalent. Thus,

$$I_N = i_{sc} \tag{4.10}$$

shown in Fig. 4.38. Dependent and independent sources are treated the same way as in Thevenin's theorem.

Observe the close relationship between Norton's and Thevenin's theorems: $R_N = R_{Th}$ as in Eq. (4.9), and

$$\boxed{I_N = \frac{V_{Th}}{R_{Th}}} \tag{4.11}$$

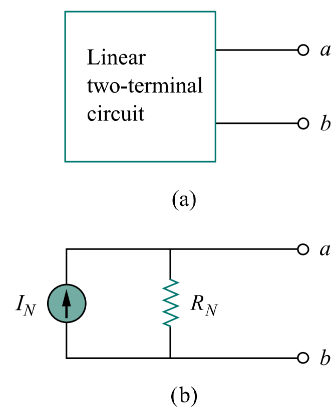

Figure 4.37 (a) Original circuit, (b) Norton equivalent circuit.

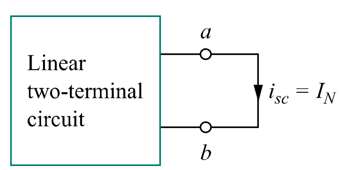

Figure 4.38 Finding Norton current I_N.

The Thevenin and Norton equivalent circuits are related by a source transformation.

This is essentially source transformation. For this reason, source transformation is often called Thevenin-Norton transformation.

Since V_{Th}, I_N, and R_{Th} are related according to Eq. (4.11), to determine the Thevenin or Norton equivalent circuit requires that we find:

- The open-circuit voltage v_{oc} across terminals a and b.
- The short-circuit current i_{sc} at terminals a and b.
- The equivalent or input resistance R_{in} at terminals a and b when all independent sources are turned off.

We can calculate any two of the three using the method that takes the least effort and use them to get the third using Ohm's law. Example 4.11 will illustrate this. Also, since

$$V_{\mathrm{Th}} = v_{oc} \tag{4.12a}$$

$$I_N = i_{sc} \tag{4.12b}$$

$$R_{\mathrm{Th}} = \frac{v_{oc}}{i_{sc}} = R_N \tag{4.12c}$$

the open-circuit and short-circuit tests are sufficient to find any Thevenin or Norton equivalent.

EXAMPLE 4.11

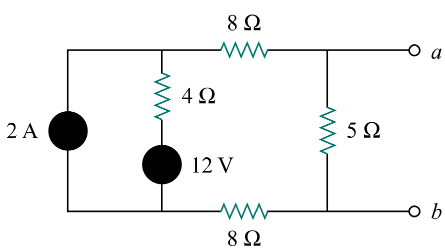

Figure 4.39 For Example 4.11.

Find the Norton equivalent circuit of the circuit in Fig. 4.39.

Solution:

We find R_N in the same way we find R_{Th} in the Thevenin equivalent circuit. Set the independent sources equal to zero. This leads to the circuit in Fig. 4.40(a), from which we find R_N. Thus,

$$R_N = 5 \parallel (8 + 4 + 8) = 5 \parallel 20 = \frac{20 \times 5}{25} = 4\ \Omega$$

To find I_N, we short-circuit terminals a and b, as shown in Fig. 4.40(b). We ignore the 5-Ω resistor because it has been short-circuited. Applying mesh analysis, we obtain

$$i_1 = 2\ \mathrm{A}, \qquad 20i_2 - 4i_1 - 12 = 0$$

From these equations, we obtain

$$i_2 = 1\ \mathrm{A} = i_{sc} = I_N$$

Alternatively, we may determine I_N from $V_{\mathrm{Th}}/R_{\mathrm{Th}}$. We obtain V_{Th} as the open-circuit voltage across terminals a and b in Fig. 4.40(c). Using mesh analysis, we obtain

$$i_3 = 2\ \mathrm{A}$$

$$25i_4 - 4i_3 - 12 = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad i_4 = 0.8\ \mathrm{A}$$

and

$$v_{oc} = V_{\mathrm{Th}} = 5i_4 = 4\ \mathrm{V}$$

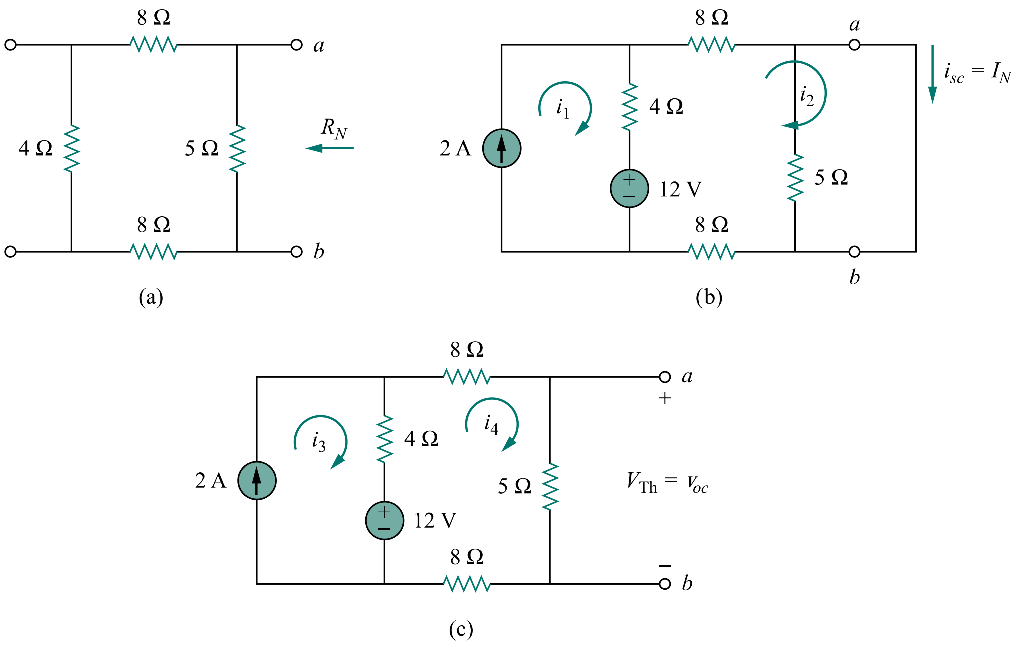

Figure 4.40 For Example 4.11; finding: (a) R_N, (b) $I_N = i_{sc}$, (c) $V_{Th} = v_{oc}$.

Hence,

$$I_N = \frac{V_{Th}}{R_{Th}} = \frac{4}{4} = 1 \text{ A}$$

as obtained previously. This also serves to confirm Eq. (4.7) that $R_{Th} = v_{oc}/i_{sc} = 4/1 = 4\ \Omega$. Thus, the Norton equivalent circuit is as shown in Fig. 4.41.

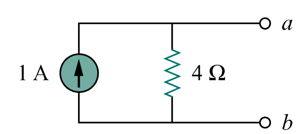

Figure 4.41 Norton equivalent of the circuit in Fig. 4.39.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.11

Find the Norton equivalent circuit for the circuit in Fig. 4.42.

Answer: $R_N = 3\ \Omega$, $I_N = 4.5$ A.

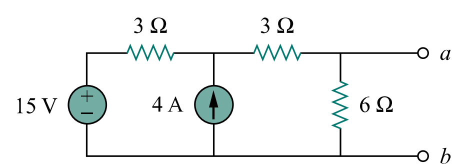

Figure 4.42 For Practice Prob. 4.11.

EXAMPLE 4.12

Using Norton's theorem, find R_N and I_N of the circuit in Fig. 4.43 at terminals *a*-*b*.

Solution:

To find R_N, we set the independent voltage source equal to zero and connect a voltage source of $v_o = 1$ V (or any unspecified voltage v_o) to the

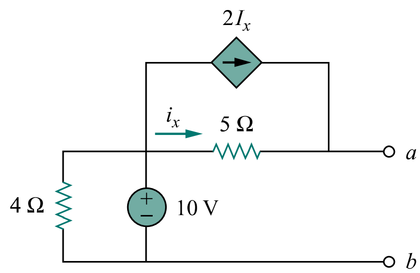

Figure 4.43 For Example 4.12.

terminals. We obtain the circuit in Fig. 4.44(a). We ignore the 4-Ω resistor because it is short-circuited. Also due to the short circuit, the 5-Ω resistor, the voltage source, and the dependent current source are all in parallel. Hence, $i_x = v_o/5 = 1/5 = 0.2$. At node a, $-i_o = i_x + 2i_x = 3i_x = 0.6$, and

$$R_N = \frac{v_o}{i_o} = \frac{1}{-0.6} = -1.67\ \Omega$$

To find I_N, we short-circuit terminals a and b and find the current i_{sc}, as indicated in Fig. 4.44(b). Note from this figure that the 4-Ω resistor, the 10-V voltage source, the 5-Ω resistor, and the dependent current source are all in parallel. Hence,

$$i_x = \frac{10 - 0}{5} = 2\ \text{A}$$

At node a, KCL gives

$$i_{sc} = i_x + 2i_x = 2 + 4 = 6\ \text{A}$$

Thus,

$$I_N = 6\ \text{A}$$

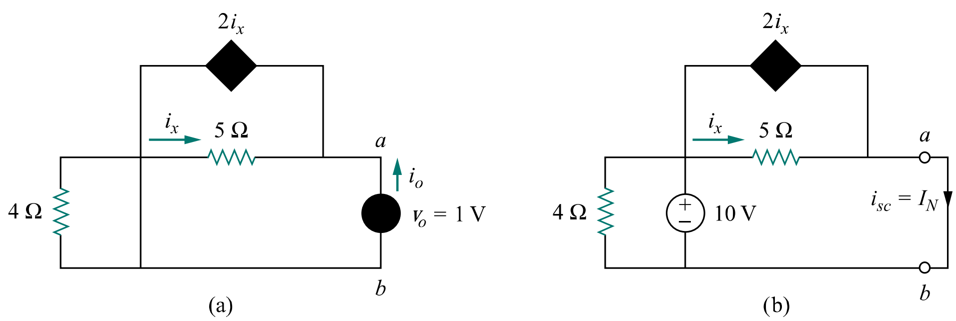

Figure 4.44 For Example 4.12: (a) finding R_N, (b) finding I_N.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.12

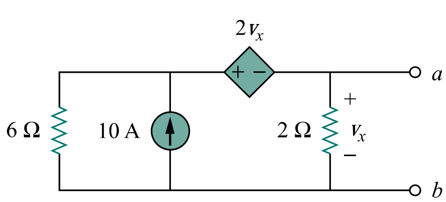

Figure 4.45 For Practice Prob. 4.12.

Find the Norton equivalent circuit of the circuit in Fig. 4.45.

Answer: $R_N = 1\ \Omega$, $I_N = 10$ A.

†4.7 DERIVATIONS OF THEVENIN'S AND NORTON'S THEOREMS

In this section, we will prove Thevenin's and Norton's theorems using the superposition principle.

Consider the linear circuit in Fig. 4.46(a). It is assumed that the circuit contains resistors, and dependent and independent sources. We have access to the circuit via terminals a and b, through which current from an external source is applied. Our objective is to ensure that the voltage-current relation at terminals a and b is identical to that of the Thevenin equivalent in Fig. 4.46(b). For the sake of simplicity, suppose the linear circuit in Fig. 4.46(a) contains two independent voltage sources v_{s1} and v_{s2} and two independent current sources i_{s1} and i_{s2}. We may obtain any circuit variable, such as the terminal voltage v, by applying superposition. That is, we consider the contribution due to each independent source including the external source i. By superposition, the terminal voltage v is

$$v = A_0 i + A_1 v_{s1} + A_2 v_{s2} + A_3 i_{s1} + A_4 i_{s2} \tag{4.13}$$

where A_0, A_1, A_2, A_3, and A_4 are constants. Each term on the right-hand side of Eq. (4.13) is the contribution of the related independent source; that is, $A_0 i$ is the contribution to v due to the external current source i, $A_1 v_{s1}$ is the contribution due to the voltage source v_{s1}, and so on. We may collect terms for the internal independent sources together as B_0, so that Eq. (4.13) becomes

$$v = A_0 i + B_0 \tag{4.14}$$

where $B_0 = A_1 v_{s1} + A_2 v_{s2} + A_3 i_{s1} + A_4 i_{s2}$. We now want to evaluate the values of constants A_0 and B_0. When the terminals a and b are open-circuited, $i = 0$ and $v = B_0$. Thus B_0 is the open-circuit voltage v_{oc}, which is the same as V_{Th}, so

$$B_0 = V_{\text{Th}} \tag{4.15}$$

When all the internal sources are turned off, $B_0 = 0$. The circuit can then be replaced by an equivalent resistance R_{eq}, which is the same as R_{Th}, and Eq. (4.14) becomes

$$v = A_0 i = R_{\text{Th}} i \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad A_0 = R_{\text{Th}} \tag{4.16}$$

Substituting the values of A_0 and B_0 in Eq. (4.14) gives

$$v = R_{\text{Th}} i + V_{\text{Th}} \tag{4.17}$$

which expresses the voltage-current relation at terminals a and b of the circuit in Fig. 4.46(b). Thus, the two circuits in Fig. 4.46(a) and 4.46(b) are equivalent.

When the same linear circuit is driven by a voltage source v as shown in Fig. 4.47(a), the current flowing into the circuit can be obtained by superposition as

$$i = C_0 v + D_0 \tag{4.18}$$

where $C_0 v$ is the contribution to i due to the external voltage source v and D_0 contains the contributions to i due to all internal independent sources. When the terminals a-b are short-circuited, $v = 0$ so that $i = D_0 = -i_{sc}$, where i_{sc} is the short-circuit current flowing out of terminal a, which is the same as the Norton current I_N, i.e.,

$$D_0 = -I_N \tag{4.19}$$

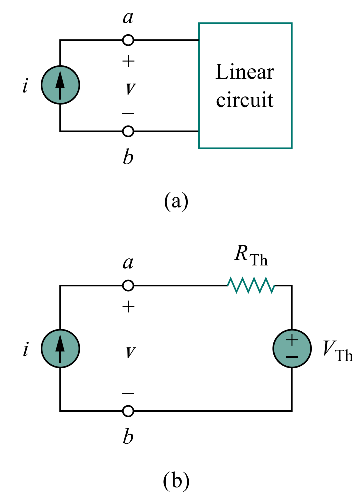

Figure 4.46 Derivation of Thevenin equivalent: (a) a current-driven circuit, (b) its Thevenin equivalent.

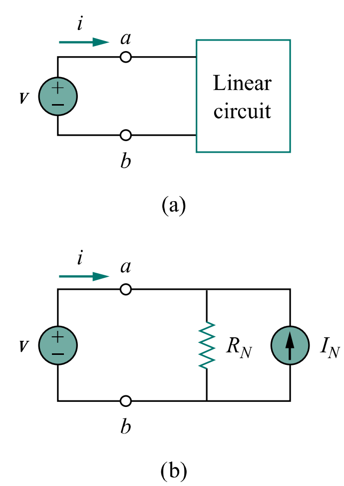

Figure 4.47 Derivation of Norton equivalent: (a) a voltage-driven circuit, (b) its Norton equivalent.

When all the internal independent sources are turned off, $D_0 = 0$ and the circuit can be replaced by an equivalent resistance R_{eq} (or an equivalent conductance $G_{eq} = 1/R_{eq}$), which is the same as R_{Th} or R_N. Thus Eq. (4.19) becomes

$$i = \frac{v}{R_{Th}} - I_N \tag{4.20}$$

This expresses the voltage-current relation at terminals a-b of the circuit in Fig. 4.47(b), confirming that the two circuits in Fig. 4.47(a) and 4.47(b) are equivalent.

4.8 MAXIMUM POWER TRANSFER

In many practical situations, a circuit is designed to provide power to a load. While for electric utilities, minimizing power losses in the process of transmission and distribution is critical for efficiency and economic reasons, there are other applications in areas such as communications where it is desirable to maximize the power delivered to a load. We now address the problem of delivering the maximum power to a load when given a system with known internal losses. It should be noted that this will result in significant internal losses greater than or equal to the power delivered to the load.

The Thevenin equivalent is useful in finding the maximum power a linear circuit can deliver to a load. We assume that we can adjust the load resistance R_L. If the entire circuit is replaced by its Thevenin equivalent except for the load, as shown in Fig. 4.48, the power delivered to the load is

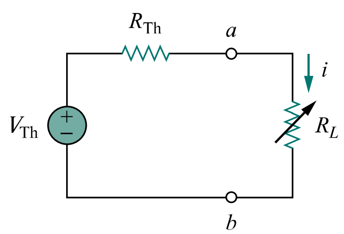

Figure 4.48 The circuit used for maximum power transfer.

$$p = i^2 R_L = \left(\frac{V_{Th}}{R_{Th} + R_L}\right)^2 R_L \tag{4.21}$$

For a given circuit, V_{Th} and R_{Th} are fixed. By varying the load resistance R_L, the power delivered to the load varies as sketched in Fig. 4.49. We notice from Fig. 4.49 that the power is small for small or large values of R_L but maximum for some value of R_L between 0 and ∞. We now want to show that this maximum power occurs when R_L is equal to R_{Th}. This is known as the *maximum power theorem.*

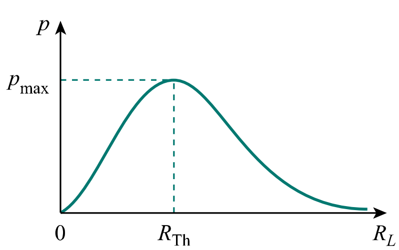

Figure 4.49 Power delivered to the load as a function of R_L.

> **Maximum power** is transferred to the load when the load resistance equals the Thevenin resistance as seen from the load ($R_L = R_{Th}$).

To prove the maximum power transfer theorem, we differentiate p in Eq. (4.21) with respect to R_L and set the result equal to zero. We obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dp}{dR_L} &= V_{Th}^2 \left[\frac{(R_{Th} + R_L)^2 - 2R_L(R_{Th} + R_L)}{(R_{Th} + R_L)^4}\right] \\ &= V_{Th}^2 \left[\frac{(R_{Th} + R_L - 2R_L)}{(R_{Th} + R_L)^3}\right] = 0\end{aligned}$$

This implies that

$$0 = (R_{Th} + R_L - 2R_L) = (R_{Th} - R_L) \tag{4.22}$$

which yields

$$\boxed{R_L = R_{Th}} \tag{4.23}$$

showing that the maximum power transfer takes place when the load resistance R_L equals the Thevenin resistance R_{Th}. We can readily confirm that Eq. (4.23) gives the maximum power by showing that $d^2p/dR_L^2 < 0$.

The source and load are said to be *matched* when $R_L = R_{Th}$.

The maximum power transferred is obtained by substituting Eq. (4.23) into Eq. (4.21), for

$$\boxed{p_{max} = \frac{V_{Th}^2}{4R_{Th}}} \tag{4.24}$$

Equation (4.24) applies only when $R_L = R_{Th}$. When $R_L \neq R_{Th}$, we compute the power delivered to the load using Eq. (4.21).

EXAMPLE 4.13

Find the value of R_L for maximum power transfer in the circuit of Fig. 4.50. Find the maximum power.

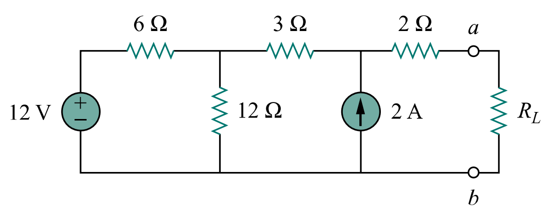

Figure 4.50 For Example 4.13.

Solution:

We need to find the Thevenin resistance R_{Th} and the Thevenin voltage V_{Th} across the terminals a-b. To get R_{Th}, we use the circuit in Fig. 4.51(a) and obtain

$$R_{Th} = 2 + 3 + 6 \parallel 12 = 5 + \frac{6 \times 12}{18} = 9\ \Omega$$

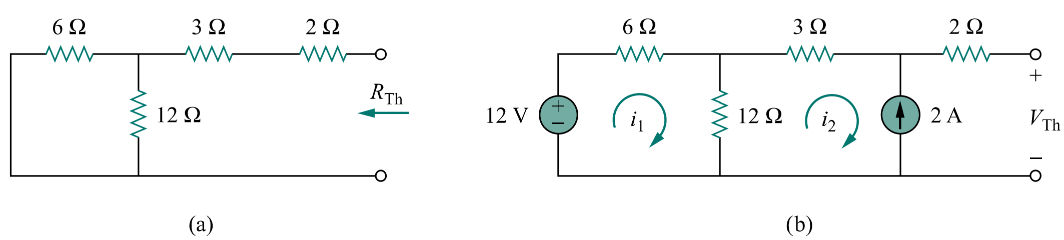

Figure 4.51 For Example 4.13: (a) finding R_{Th}, (b) finding V_{Th}.

To get V_{Th}, we consider the circuit in Fig. 4.51(b). Applying mesh analysis,

$$-12 + 18i_1 - 12i_2 = 0, \qquad i_2 = -2 \text{ A}$$

Solving for i_1, we get $i_1 = -2/3$. Applying KVL around the outer loop to get V_{Th} across terminals a-b, we obtain

$$-12 + 6i_1 + 3i_2 + 2(0) + V_{\text{Th}} = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad V_{\text{Th}} = 22 \text{ V}$$

For maximum power transfer,

$$R_L = R_{\text{Th}} = 9\ \Omega$$

and the maximum power is

$$p_{\max} = \frac{V_{\text{Th}}^2}{4R_L} = \frac{22^2}{4 \times 9} = 13.44 \text{ W}$$

PRACTICE PROBLEM 4.13

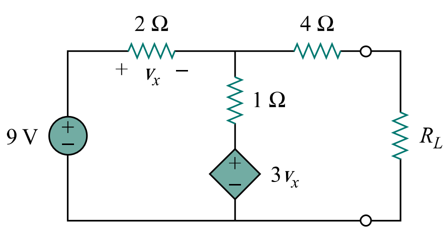

Figure 4.52 For Practice Prob. 4.13.

Determine the value of R_L that will draw the maximum power from the rest of the circuit in Fig. 4.52. Calculate the maximum power.

Answer: 4.22 Ω, 2.901 W.

4.9 VERIFYING CIRCUIT THEOREMS WITH *PSPICE*

In this section, we learn how to use *PSpice* to verify the theorems covered in this chapter. Specifically, we will consider using dc sweep analysis to find the Thevenin or Norton equivalent at any pair of nodes in a circuit and the maximum power transfer to a load. The reader is advised to read Section D.3 of Appendix D in preparation for this section.

To find the Thevenin equivalent of a circuit at a pair of open terminals using *PSpice*, we use the schematic editor to draw the circuit and insert an independent probing current source, say, Ip, at the terminals. The probing current source must have a part name ISRC. We then perform a DC Sweep on Ip, as discussed in Section D.3. Typically, we may let the current through Ip vary from 0 to 1 A in 0.1-A increments. After simulating the circuit, we use Probe to display a plot of the voltage across Ip versus the current through Ip. The zero intercept of the plot gives us the Thevenin equivalent voltage, while the slope of the plot is equal to the Thevenin resistance.

To find the Norton equivalent involves similar steps except that we insert a probing independent voltage source (with a part name VSRC), say, Vp, at the terminals. We perform a DC Sweep on Vp and let Vp vary from 0 to 1 V in 0.1-V increments. A plot of the current through