



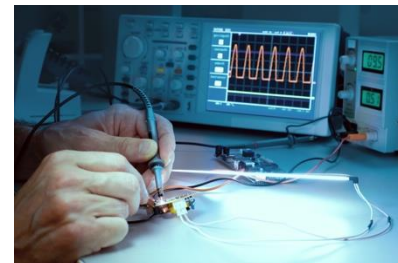
# Circuit Analysis and Design

Academic Year 2025/2026 – Semester 1

Lecture 9 - Circuit Theorems

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# Agenda

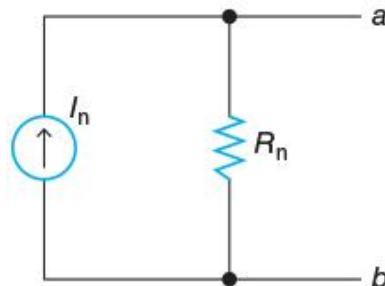
- Norton's theorem
- Maximum power transfer
- Summary

# Norton's Theorem

- A circuit looking from terminals  $a$  and  $b$  can be replaced by a **current source with current  $I_n$  and a parallel resistor** with resistance  $R_n$ , as shown in Figure 4.93.
- This equivalent circuit consisting of a current source and a parallel resistor is called **Norton equivalent circuit**.
- The current  $I_n$  is called **Norton equivalent current** and the resistance  $R_n$  is called **Norton equivalent resistance**.
- When the terminals  $a$  and  $b$  are short-circuited in the Norton equivalent circuit, as shown in Figure 4.94, the **short-circuit current  $I_{sc}$**  is equal to  $I_n$  from the current divider rule.
- Thus, the Norton equivalent current can be obtained by finding the short-circuit current.

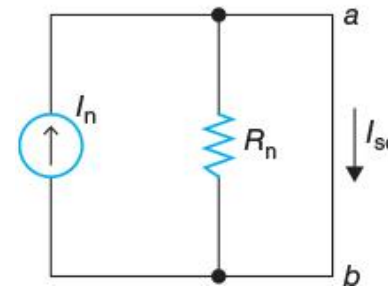
**FIGURE 4.93**

A Norton equivalent circuit.



**FIGURE 4.94**

Short-circuit current.



# Finding Norton Equivalent Resistance

## Method 1:

- Deactivate all the independent sources by short-circuiting voltage sources and open-circuiting current sources.
- $R_n$  is the equivalent resistance looking into the circuit from terminals  $a$  and  $b$ .
- This method can be used if the circuit does not contain dependent sources.

## Method 2:

- Find the open-circuit voltage  $V_{oc}$  and the short-circuit current  $I_{sc}$ .
- The Norton equivalent resistance is given by  $R_n = V_{oc}/I_{sc} = V_{oc}/I_n$ .

## Method 3:

- Deactivate all the independent sources by open-circuiting current sources and short-circuiting voltage sources.
- Apply a test voltage of 1 V (or any other value) between terminals  $a$  and  $b$  with terminal  $a$  connected to the positive terminal of the test voltage.
- Measure the current flowing out of the positive terminal of the test voltage source.
- The Norton equivalent resistance  $R_n$  is given by the ratio of the test voltage to the current flowing out of the positive terminal of the test voltage source.
- Alternatively, apply a test current between terminals  $a$  and  $b$  after deactivating the independent sources, and measure the voltage across  $a$  and  $b$  of the test current source. The Norton equivalent resistance  $R_n$  is the ratio of the voltage across  $a$  and  $b$  to the test current.

# Thévenin and Norton Equivalent Circuits

- Application of **source transformation** to the Norton equivalent circuit shown in Figure 4.95(a) yields the Thévenin equivalent circuit shown in Figure 4.95(b).
- The Thévenin equivalent voltage is  $V_{th} = I_n R_n$  and the Thévenin equivalent resistance is  $R_{th} = R_n$ .
- The source transformation does not change the resistance value.
- Application of source transformation to the Thévenin equivalent circuit shown in Figure 4.96(a) yields the Norton equivalent circuit, as shown in Figure 4.96(b).
- The Norton equivalent current is  $I_n = V_{th}/R_{th}$  and the Norton equivalent resistance is  $R_n = R_{th}$ .

FIGURE 4.95

Transformation from Norton equivalent circuit to Thévenin equivalent circuit.

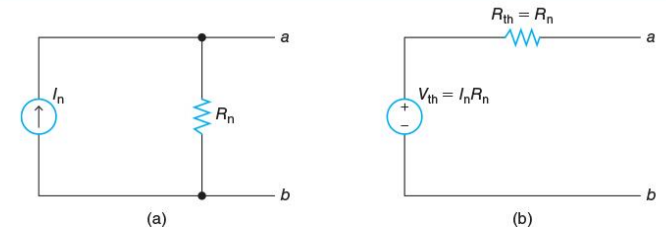
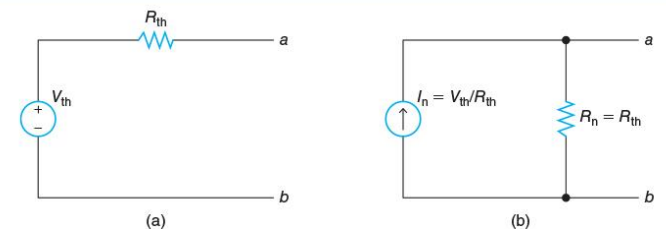


FIGURE 4.96

Transformation from Thévenin equivalent circuit to Norton equivalent circuit.



# Finding $I_n$ and $R_n$

- We are interested in finding  $I_n$  and  $R_n$  for the circuit shown in Figure
- To find  $I_n$ :
  - To find the short circuit current, we short-circuit  $a$  and  $b$  as shown in Figure 4.98.  $V_3 = 0$ . No current through  $R_5$ .
  - Sum the currents leaving node 1:  $-0.002 + \frac{V_1}{1500} + \frac{V_1 - V_2}{1500} = 0$
  - Multiply by 1500:  $2V_1 - V_2 = 3$  (1)
  - Sum the currents leaving node 2:  $\frac{V_2 - V_1}{1500} + \frac{V_2 - 2.5}{1000} + \frac{V_2}{3000} = 0$
  - Multiply by 3000:  $2V_2 - 2V_1 + 3V_2 - 7.5 + V_2 = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow -2V_1 + 6V_2 = 7.5$  (2)
  - Add (1) and (2):  $5V_2 = 10.5 \Rightarrow V_2 = 2.1$  V,  
 $V_1 = (V_2 + 3)/2 = 2.55$  V
  - $I_n = V_1/R_4 + V_2/R_3 = 1.7$  mA +  $0.7$  mA =  $2.4$  mA

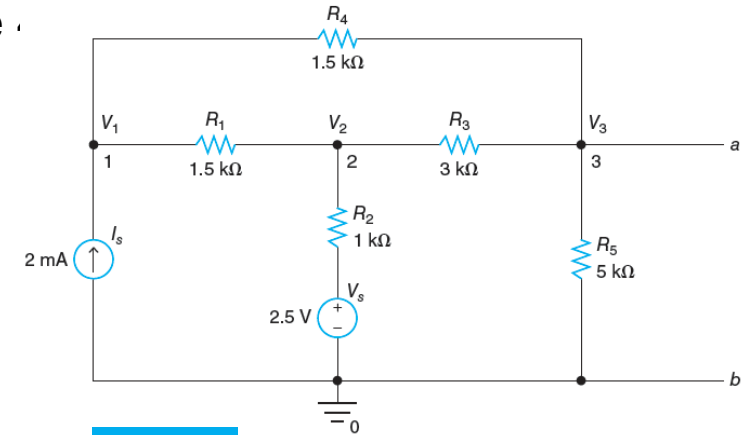


FIGURE 4.97

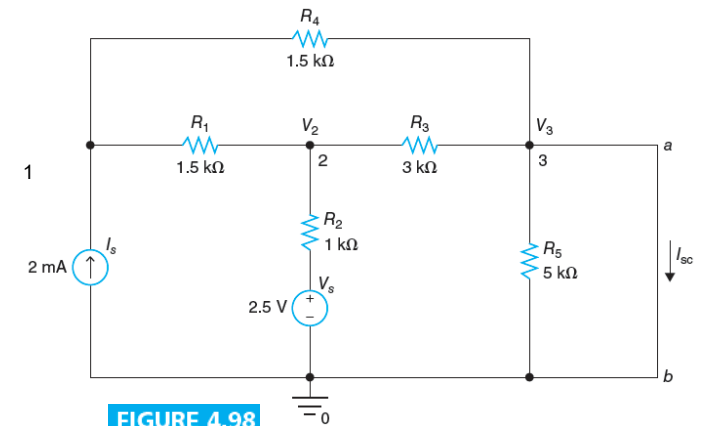


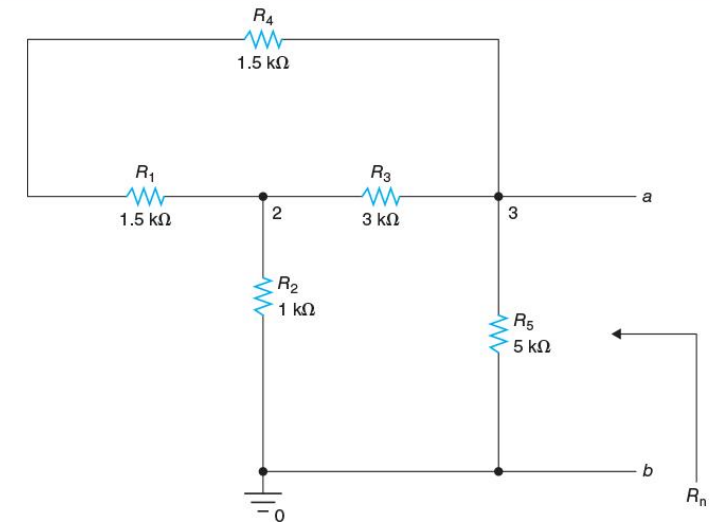
FIGURE 4.98

# Finding $I_n$ and $R_n$ (Continued)

- To find  $R_n$  (**Method 1**):
  - Deactivate  $V_s$  and  $I_s$  as shown in Figure 4.101.
  - $R_a = R_1 + R_4 = 1.5 \text{ k}\Omega + 1.5 \text{ k}\Omega = 3 \text{ k}\Omega$
  - $R_b = R_3 \parallel R_a = 3 \times 3 / (3 + 3) \text{ k}\Omega = 9/6 \text{ k}\Omega = 1.5 \text{ k}\Omega$
  - $R_c = R_b + R_2 = 1.5 \text{ k}\Omega + 1 \text{ k}\Omega = 2.5 \text{ k}\Omega$
  - $R_n = R_5 \parallel R_c = 5 \times 2.5 / (5 + 2.5) \text{ k}\Omega$   
 $R_n = (12.5/7.5) \text{ k}\Omega = 1.6667 \text{ k}\Omega$

**FIGURE 4.101**

The circuit from Figure 4.97 with sources deactivated.



# Finding $I_n$ and $R_n$ (Continued)

- Find  $I_n$  and  $R_n$  for the circuit shown in Figure 4.117.
- To find  $I_n$ :
  - To find  $I_{sc}$ , we short circuited the terminals  $a$  and  $b$  (Figure 4.118).
  - Sum the currents leaving node 1:

$$0.001 + \frac{V_1}{18000} + \frac{V_1 - V_2}{12000} = 0$$

- Multiply by 36000:  $36 + 2V_1 + 3V_1 - 3V_2 = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow 5V_1 = 3V_2 - 36 \Rightarrow V_1 = 0.6V_2 - 7.2$  (1)

- Sum the currents leaving node 2:

$$\frac{V_2 - V_1}{12000} - 0.002 + \frac{V_2}{20000} + \frac{V_2}{3000} = 0$$

- Multiply by 60000:  $5V_2 - 5V_1 - 120 + 3V_2 + 20V_2 = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow 28V_2 - 5V_1 = 120$  (2)
- Substitute (1) into (2):  $28V_2 - 3V_2 = 84 \Rightarrow 25V_2 = 84$   
 $\Rightarrow V_2 = 84/25 = 3.36$  V
- $I_n = I_{sc} = V_2/R_4 = 1.12$  mA

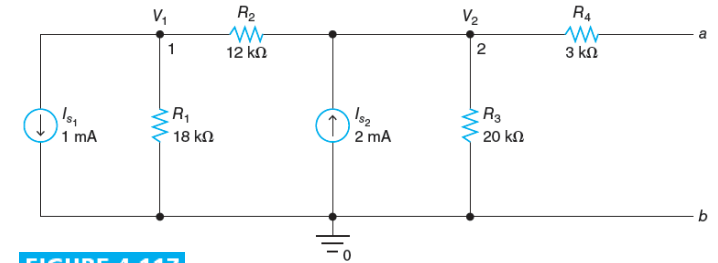


FIGURE 4.117

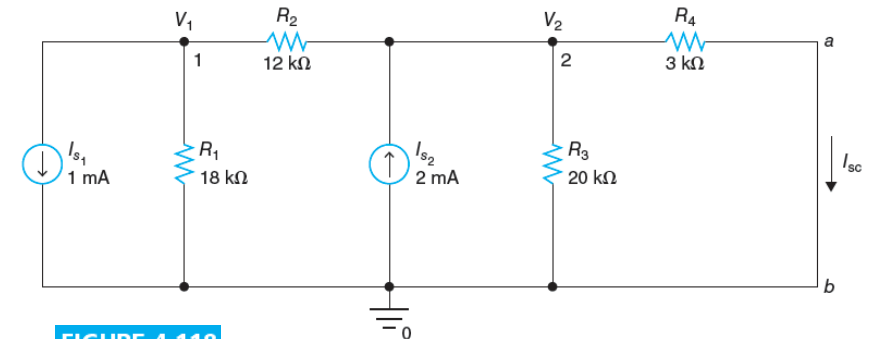


FIGURE 4.118



# Finding $I_n$ and $R_n$ (Continued)

- To find  $R_n$  (**Method 2**):
  - Sum the currents leaving node 1 (Figure 4.117):

$$0.001 + \frac{V_1}{18000} + \frac{V_1 - V_2}{12000} = 0$$

- Multiply by 36000:  $36 + 2V_1 + 3V_1 - 3V_2 = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow 5V_1 = 3V_2 - 36 \Rightarrow V_1 = 0.6V_2 - 7.2$  (1)
- Sum the currents leaving node 2 :

$$\frac{V_2 - V_1}{12000} - 0.002 + \frac{V_2}{20000} = 0$$

- Multiply by 60000:  $5V_2 - 5V_1 - 120 + 3V_2 = 0$  (2)
- Substitute (1) into (2):  
 $8V_2 - 3V_2 + 36 - 120 = 0 \Rightarrow 5V_2 = 84 \Rightarrow V_{oc} = V_2 = 16.8 \text{ V}$
- $R_n = V_{oc}/I_{sc} = 16.8 \text{ V}/1.12 \text{ mA} = 15 \text{ k}\Omega$
- The Norton equivalent circuit is shown in Figure 4.119.

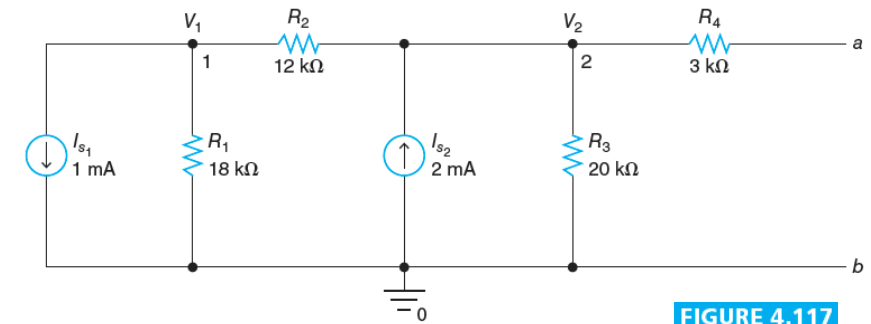


FIGURE 4.117

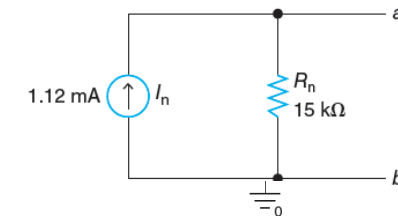


FIGURE 4.119

## Finding $I_n$ and $R_n$ (Continued)

- We are interested in finding  $I_n$  and  $R_n$  for the circuit shown in Figure 4.103.
- To find  $I_n$ :
  - To find the short circuit current, we short-circuit  $a$  and  $b$  as shown in Figure 4.104.  $V_2 = 0$ .
  - Sum the currents leaving node 1:

$$-0.003 + \frac{V_1}{3000} + \frac{V_1}{2000} = 0$$

- Multiply by 6000:  $5V_1 = 18$   
 $\Rightarrow V_1 = 3.6 \text{ V}$
- $i = V_1/3000 = 3.6 \text{ V}/3000 \Omega = 0.0012 \text{ A}$
- $V_{CCVS} = 2000i = 2.4 \text{ V}$
- $I_{R2} = V_1/R_2 = 1.8 \text{ mA}$
- $I_{R3} = V_{CCVS}/R_3 = 2.4 \text{ mA}$
- $I_n = I_{R2} + I_{R3} = 1.8 \text{ mA} + 2.4 \text{ mA} = 4.2 \text{ mA}$

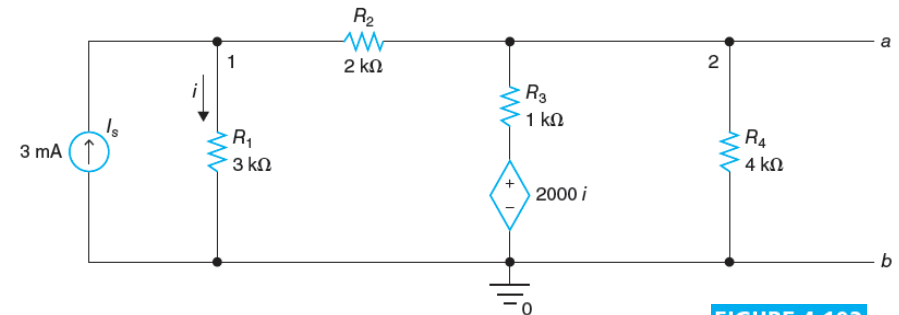


FIGURE 4.103

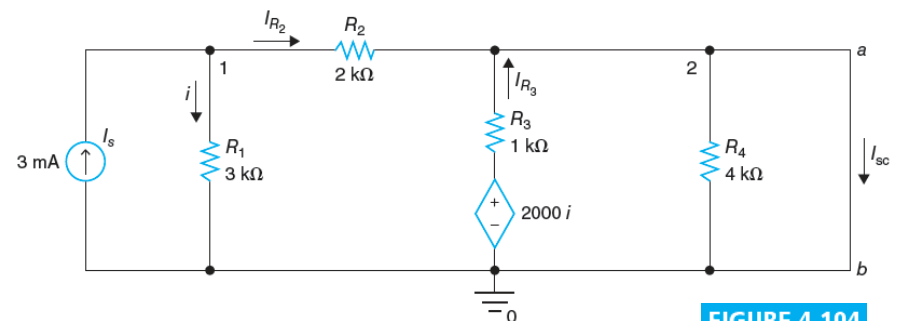


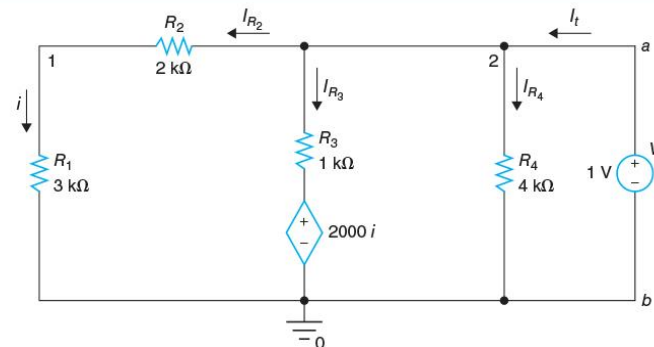
FIGURE 4.104

## Finding $I_n$ and $R_n$ (Continued)

- To find  $R_n$  (**Method 3**):
  - After deactivating the current source, a test voltage of 1 V is applied across  $a$  and  $b$  as shown in Figure 4.105.
  - $V_t = 1 \text{ V}$
  - $I_{R2} = i = V_t / (R_1 + R_2) = 1 \text{ V} / 5 \text{ k}\Omega = 0.2 \text{ mA}$
  - $V_{CCVS} = 2000i = 0.4 \text{ V}$
  - $I_{R3} = (V_t - V_{CCVS}) / R_3 = 0.6 \text{ mA}$
  - $I_{R4} = V_t / R_4 = 0.25 \text{ mA}$
  - $I_t = I_{R2} + I_{R3} + I_{R4} = 0.2 \text{ mA} + 0.6 \text{ mA} + 0.25 \text{ mA} = 1.05 \text{ mA}$
  - $R_n = V_t / I_t = 952.381 \Omega$

FIGURE 4.105

A circuit with a test voltage source.



## EXAMPLE 4.14

Find  $I_n$  and  $R_n$  for the circuit shown in Figure 4.112.

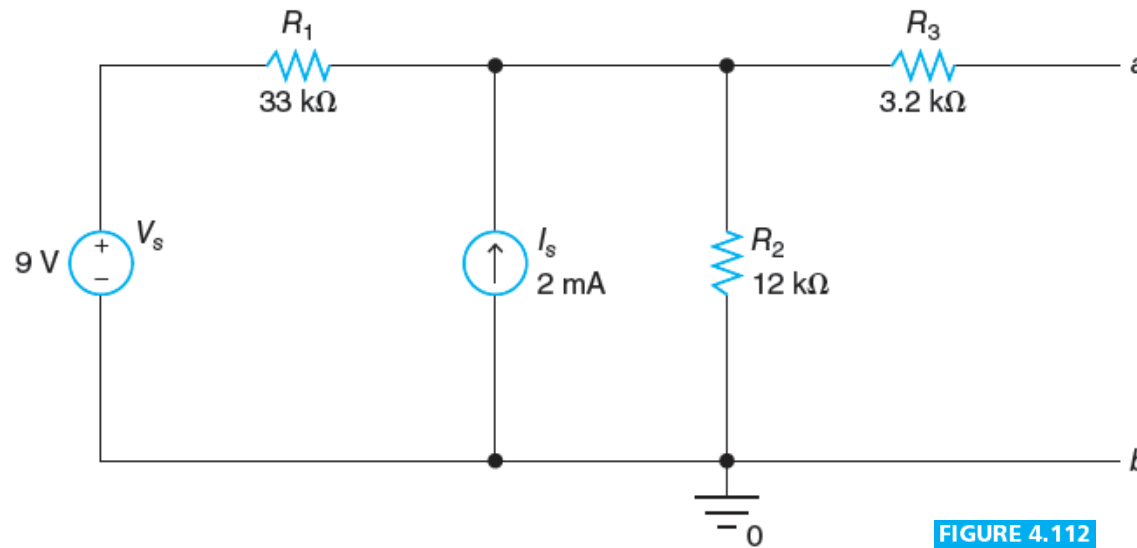


FIGURE 4.112

## EXAMPLE 4.17

Find  $I_n$  and  $R_n$  for the circuit shown in Figure 4.126.

- To find  $I_{sc}$ ,  $a$  and  $b$  are short-circuited as shown in Figure 4.127.
- Sum the currents leaving node 1:

$$\frac{V_1 - 0.6}{1100} + \frac{V_1}{2700} + \frac{V_1}{1800} + 0.005V_1 = 0$$

- Multiply by 59400:  $54V_1 - 32.4 + 22V_1 + 33V_1 + 297V_1 = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow 406V_1 = 32.4 \Rightarrow V_1 = 32.4/406 = 0.079803 \text{ V}$
- $I_n = I_{sc} = V_1/R_3 + 0.005V_1 = 443.3498 \text{ } \mu\text{A}$
- To find  $R_n$ , a test voltage of 1 V is applied after short-circuiting  $V_s$  as shown in Figure 4.128.
- Sum the currents leaving node 1:

$$\frac{V_1}{1100} + \frac{V_1}{2700} + \frac{V_1 - 1}{1800} + 0.005V_1 = 0$$

- Multiply by 59400:  $54V_1 + 22V_1 + 33V_1 + 297V_1 = 33$   
 $\Rightarrow V_1 = 33/406 \text{ V} = 0.0813 \text{ V}$
- $I_t = (1 - V_1)/R_3 - 0.005V_1 = 103.9956 \text{ } \mu\text{A}$
- $R_n = V_t/I_t = 9.6158 \text{ k}\Omega$

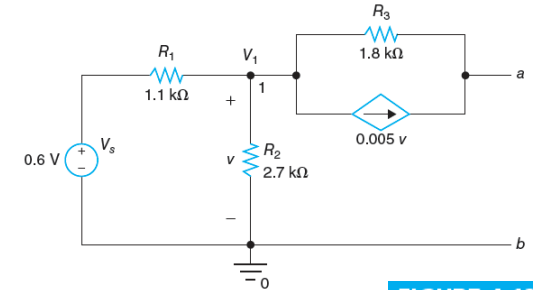


FIGURE 4.126

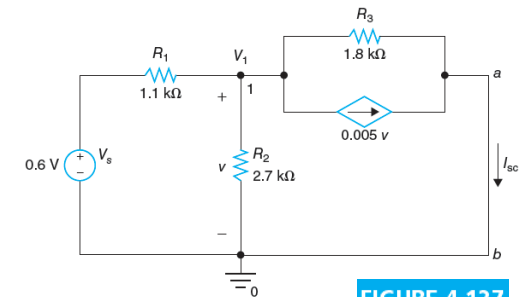


FIGURE 4.127

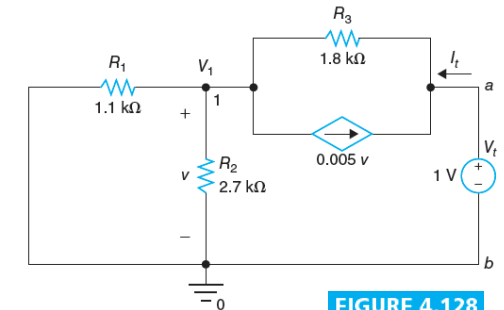


FIGURE 4.128

## EXAMPLE 4.18

Find  $I_n$  and  $R_n$  for the circuit shown in Figure 4.131.

- Sum the currents leaving node 1:

$$\frac{V_1 - 3}{1200} + \frac{V_1}{3500} + \frac{V_1 + 800 \frac{V_1}{3500}}{5500} = 0$$

- Multiply by 46,200:  $38.5V_1 - 115.5 + 13.2V_1 + 8.4V_1 + 1.92V_1 = 0 \Rightarrow 62.02V_1 = 115.5$   
 $\Rightarrow V_1 = 115.5/62.02 = 1.8623 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{oc} = (V_1 + 800 \times V_1/R_2) \times R_4/(R_3 + R_4) = 1.3728 \text{ V}$
- To find  $I_{sc}$ ,  $a$  and  $b$  are short-circuited as shown in Figure 4.132.
- Sum the currents leaving node 1 of Figure 4.132:

$$\frac{V_1 - 3}{1200} + \frac{V_1}{3500} + \frac{V_1 + 800 \frac{V_1}{3500}}{2200} = 0$$

- Multiply by 46,200:  $38.5V_1 - 115.5 + 13.2V_1 + 21V_1 + 4.8V_1 = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow V_1 = 115.5/77.5 = 1.4903 \text{ V}$
- $I_n = I_{sc} = (V_1 + 800 \times V_1/R_2)/R_3 = 832.2581 \text{ } \mu\text{A}$
- $R_n = V_{oc}/I_{sc} = 1.6495 \text{ k}\Omega$

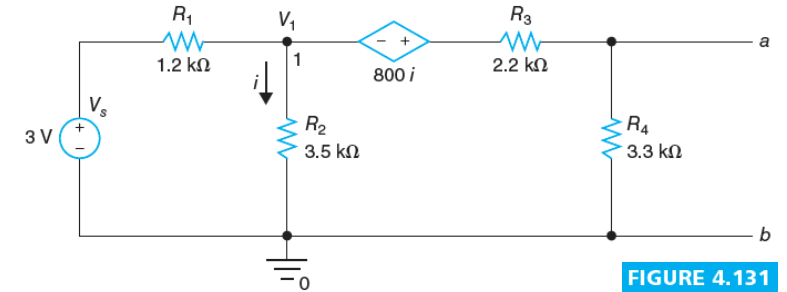


FIGURE 4.131

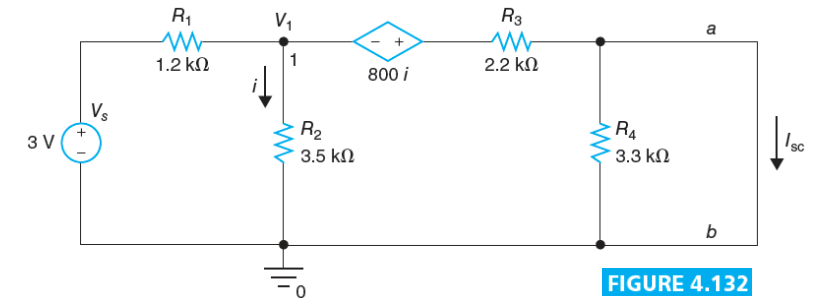


FIGURE 4.132

# Maximum Power Transfer

- Suppose that a load with resistance  $R_L$  is connected to a circuit between terminals  $a$  and  $b$ .
- We are interested in finding the power  $p_L$  delivered to the load and finding the **load resistance  $R_L$  that maximizes the power delivered to the load.**
- We first find the Thévenin equivalent circuit with respect to the terminals  $a$  and  $b$ .
- Let  $V_{th}$  be the Thévenin equivalent voltage and  $R_{th}$  be the Thévenin equivalent resistance. With the original circuit replaced by the Thévenin equivalent circuit, we obtain the circuit shown in Figure 4.135.
- The current through the load resistor is given by

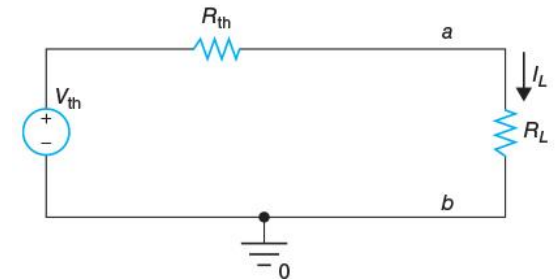
$$I_L = \frac{V_{th}}{R_{th} + R_L}$$

- The voltage across the load resistor is given by

$$V_L = R_L I_L = \frac{R_L V_{th}}{R_{th} + R_L}$$

FIGURE 4.135

A load connected to the Thévenin equivalent circuit.



# Maximum Power Transfer (Continued)

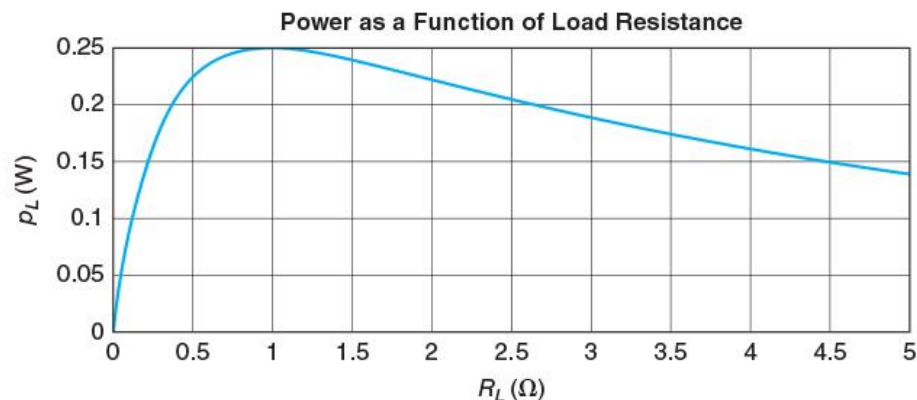
- The power delivered to the load is

$$p_L = I_L V_L = \frac{R_L V_{th}^2}{(R_{th} + R_L)^2} \quad (1)$$

- When  $R_L = 0$ ,  $p_L = 0$ ; and when  $R_L = \infty$ ,  $p_L = 0$ .
- The power delivered to the load  $p_L$  must peak at a certain value.
- The plot shown in Figure 4.136 shows  $p_L$  as a function of  $R_L$  for  $0 \leq R_L \leq 5R_{th}$  ( $V_{th} = 1 \text{ V}$ ,  $R_{th} = 1\Omega$ ).

**FIGURE 4.136**

Plot of the power on the load as a function of load resistance.





# Maximum Power Transfer (Continued)

- The load resistance value for the maximum power transfer can be found by differentiating Equation (1) with respect to  $R_L$  and setting that equal to zero using

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{u(t)}{v(t)} \right) = \frac{v(t) \frac{du(t)}{dt} - u(t) \frac{dv(t)}{dt}}{v^2(t)}$$

$$\frac{dp_L}{dR_L} = \frac{d}{dR_L} \left( \frac{R_L V_{th}^2}{(R_{th} + R_L)^2} \right) = \frac{(R_{th} + R_L)^2 \frac{dR_L}{dR_L} - R_L \frac{d(R_{th} + R_L)^2}{dR_L}}{(R_{th} + R_L)^4} V_{th}^2 = \frac{(R_{th} + R_L)^2 \times 1 - R_L 2(R_{th} + R_L)}{(R_{th} + R_L)^4} V_{th}^2$$

$$\frac{(R_{th} + R_L)[(R_{th} + R_L) - 2R_L]}{(R_{th} + R_L)^4} V_{th}^2 = \frac{[(R_{th} + R_L) - 2R_L]}{(R_{th} + R_L)^3} V_{th}^2 = 0$$

- The answer is  $R_L = R_{th}$ . Thus, the load resistance that maximizes the power transfer to load is given by

$$R_L = R_{th} \quad (2)$$

# Maximum Power Transfer (Continued)

- The maximum power delivered to the load when the load resistance is  $R_L = R_{th}$  is obtained by using Equation 2 in Equation 1

$$p_{L,\max} = \frac{R_{th} V_{th}^2}{(R_{th} + R_{th})^2} = \frac{V_{th}^2}{4R_{th}} = \frac{V_{th}^2}{4R_L} \quad (3)$$

- When a load resistor is connected to a Norton equivalent circuit as shown below, it can be shown that the load resistance value that provides maximum power to the load is given by

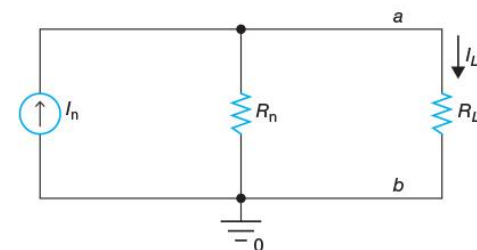
$$R_L = R_n \quad (4)$$

- The maximum power delivered to the load when  $R_L = R_n$  is given by

$$p_{L,\max} = \frac{I_n^2 R_n}{4} = \frac{I_n^2 R_L}{4} \quad (5)$$

FIGURE 4.137

A Norton equivalent circuit with load  $R_L$ .



## EXAMPLE 4.19

Find the load resistance value  $R_L$  that maximizes the power transfer to load for the circuit shown in Figure 4.138. Also find the maximum power delivered to load.

- Figure 4.139 shows circuit without  $R_L$ . Summing currents at node 1:

$$\frac{V_1 - 9}{10} + \frac{V_1}{25} + \frac{V_1 - V_2}{10} = 0$$

- Multiplying by 50:  $5V_1 - 45 + 2V_1 + 5V_1 - 5V_2 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow 12V_1 - 5V_2 = 45 \quad (1)$$

- Summing currents at node 2:

$$\frac{V_2 - V_1}{10} + \frac{V_2}{15} = 0$$

- Multiplying by 30:  $5V_1 - 45 + 2V_1 + 5V_1 - 5V_2 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow 5V_2 - 3V_1 = 0 \Rightarrow V_2 = 3/5V_1 \quad (2)$$

- Substituting (2) in (1):  $9V_1 = 45 \Rightarrow V_1 = 5 \text{ V}$

- $V_2 = V_{th} = 3/5 \times (5) = 3 \text{ V}$

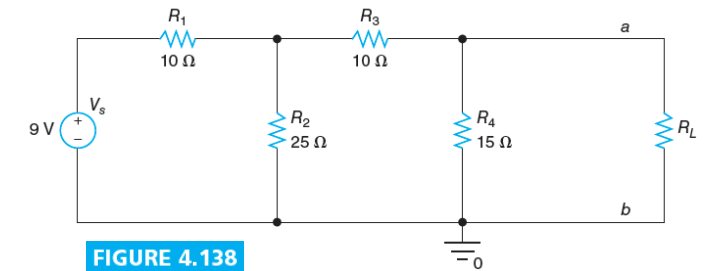


FIGURE 4.138

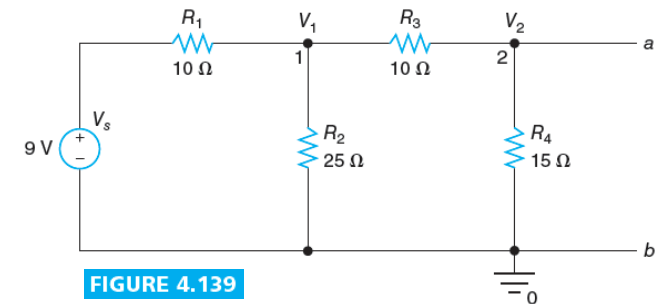


FIGURE 4.139

## EXAMPLE 4.19 (Continued)

- We now find  $R_{th}$  using Method 1. Figure 4.140 shows the circuit.
- $R_a = R_1 \parallel R_2 = 250/35 \, \Omega = 50/7 \, \Omega$
- $R_b = R_3 + R_a = 120/7 \, \Omega$
- $R_{th} = R_4 \parallel R_b = 1800/225 \, \Omega = 8 \, \Omega$
- $R_L = R_{th} = 8 \, \Omega$
- The maximum power would be:
- $p_{L,max} = V_{th}^2/(4R_L) = 9/32 \, W = 281.25 \, mW$

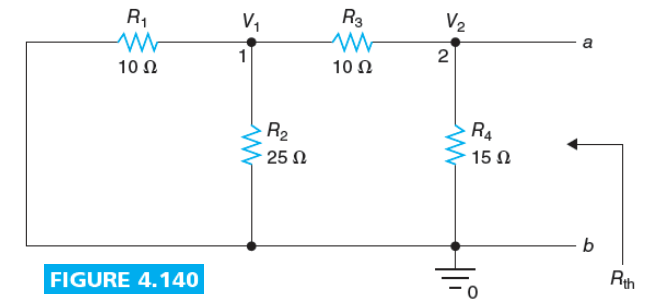
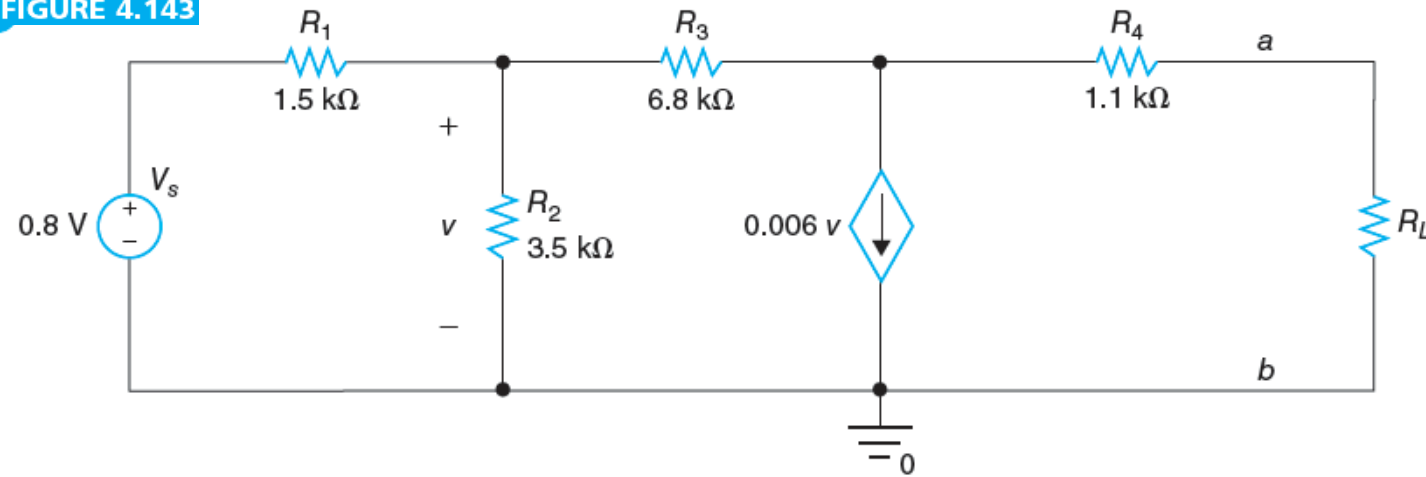


FIGURE 4.140

## EXAMPLE 4.20

Find the load resistance value  $R_L$  that maximizes the power transfer to load for the circuit shown in Figure 4.143. Also find the maximum power delivered to load.

FIGURE 4.143



## EXAMPLE 4.21

Find the load resistance value  $R_L$  that maximizes the power transfer to load for the circuit shown in Figure 4.147. Also find the maximum power delivered to load.

- Figure 4.148 shows circuit without  $R_L$ . No current through  $R_4$ .
- Sum the currents leaving node 1:

$$-0.001 + V_1/4500 + V_1/3900 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_1 = 0.001/(1/4500 + 1/3900) = 2.0893 \text{ V}$$

- $i = V_1/R_1 = 0.4642857 \text{ mA}$
- $V_{th} = V_{oc} = V_1 \times R_3/(R_2 + R_3) + 2500i = 2.6071 \text{ V}$

FIGURE 4.147

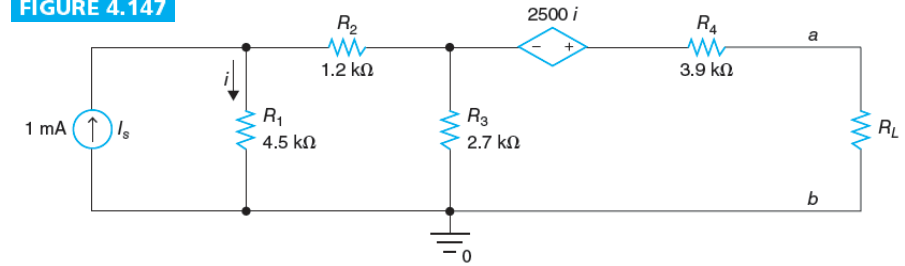
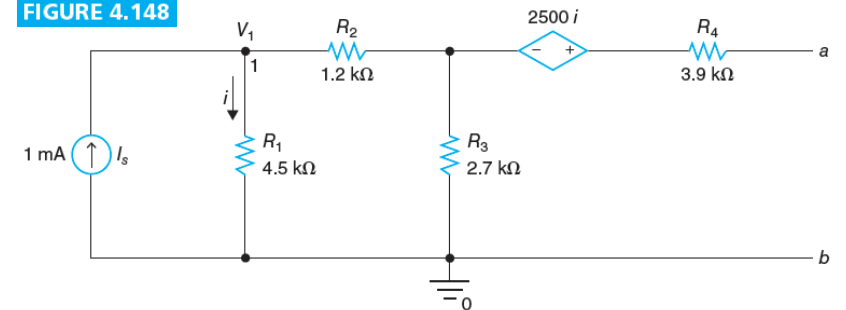


FIGURE 4.148



## EXAMPLE 4.21 (Continued)

- To find the short-circuit current,  $a$  and  $b$  are short-circuited as shown in Figure 4.149.

- Sum the currents leaving node 1:

$$-0.001 + \frac{V_1}{4500} + \frac{V_1 - V_2}{1200} = 0$$

- Multiply by 18000:  $4V_1 + 15V_1 - 15V_2 = 18 \Rightarrow 19V_1 - 15V_2 = 18$  (1)

- Sum the currents leaving node 2:

$$\frac{V_2 - V_1}{1200} + \frac{V_2}{2700} + \frac{V_2 + 2500 \frac{V_1}{4500}}{3900} = 0$$

- Multiply by 14040:  $11.7V_2 - 11.7V_1 + 5.2V_2 + 3.6V_2 + 2V_1 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow -9.7V_1 + 20.5V_2 = 0 \Rightarrow V_1 = (205/97)V_2$$
 (2)

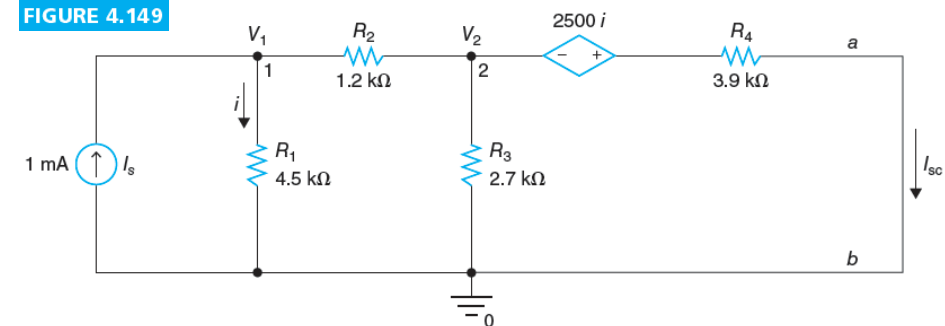
- Substitute (2) into (1):  $V_2 = 0.71557377$  V,  $V_1 = 1.5123$  V

- $I_{sc} = (V_2 + 2500 \times V_1/R_1)/R_4 = 0.3989$  mA

- $R_{th} = V_{oc}/I_{sc} = 6.5357$  k $\Omega = R_L$

- $p_{L,max} = V_{th}^2/(4R_L) = 0.26$  mW

FIGURE 4.149



# Summary

- **Norton's Theorem:** A circuit looking from terminals  $a$  and  $b$  can be replaced by a current source with current  $I_n$  and a parallel resistor with resistance  $R_n$ . This equivalent circuit consisting of a current source and a parallel resistor is called **Norton equivalent circuit**. The current  $I_n$  is called **Norton equivalent current** and the resistance  $R_n$  is called **Norton equivalent resistance**.
- Finding Norton equivalent resistance:
  - **Method 1:** Deactivate all the independent sources by short-circuiting voltage sources and open-circuiting current sources. Find the equivalent resistance looking into the circuit from terminals  $a$  and  $b$ .
  - **Method 2:** Short-circuit terminals  $a$  and  $b$ . Find the short-circuit current  $I_{sc}$ . The Norton equivalent resistance is given by  $R_n = V_{oc}/I_{sc} = V_{oc}/I_n$ .
  - **Method 3:** Deactivate all the independent sources. Apply a test voltage of 1 V between terminals  $a$  and  $b$  with terminal  $a$  connected to the positive terminal of the test voltage. Measure the current flowing out of the positive terminal of the test voltage source. The Norton equivalent resistance is the ratio of the voltage to current. Test current can be used also.



# Summary (Continued)

- Maximum Power Transfer

Suppose that a load with resistance  $R_L$  is connected to a circuit between terminals  $a$  and  $b$ . The load resistance that maximizes the power transfer to the load is given by:

$$R_L = R_{th}$$

where  $R_{th}$  is the Thévenin equivalent resistance when the circuit between terminals  $a$  and  $b$  looking from the load is replaced by Thévenin equivalent circuit.

- The maximum power delivered to the load when the load resistance is  $R_L = R_{th}$  is given by:

$$p_{L,max} = \frac{V_{th}^2}{4R_{th}} = \frac{V_{th}^2}{4R_L}$$

- What will we study in next lecture.