1.6 Circuit Elements

As we discussed in Section 1.1, an element is the basic building block of a circuit. An electric circuit is simply an interconnection of the elements. Circuit analysis is the process of determining voltages across (or the currents through) the elements of the circuit.

There are two types of elements found in electric circuits: passive elements and active elements. An active element is capable of generating energy while a passive element is not. Examples of passive elements are resistors, capacitors, and inductors. Typical active elements include generators, batteries, and operational amplifiers. Our aim in this section is to gain familiarity with some important active elements.

The most important active elements are voltage or current sources that generally deliver power to the circuit connected to them. There are two kinds of sources: independent and dependent sources.

An ideal independent source is an active element that provides a specified voltage or current that is completely independent of other circuit elements.

In other words, an ideal independent voltage source delivers to the circuit whatever current is necessary to maintain its terminal voltage. Physical sources such as batteries and generators may be regarded as approximations to ideal voltage sources. Figure 1.11 shows the symbols for independent voltage sources. Notice that both symbols in Fig. 1.11(a) and (b) can be used to represent a dc voltage source, but only the symbol in Fig. 1.11(a) can be used for a time-varying voltage source. Similarly, an ideal independent current source is an active element that provides a specified current completely independent of the voltage across the source. That is, the current source delivers to the circuit whatever voltage is necessary to maintain the designated current. The symbol for an independent current source is displayed in Fig. 1.12, where the arrow indicates the direction of current i.

An ideal dependent (or controlled) source is an active element in which the source quantity is controlled by another voltage or current.

Dependent sources are usually designated by diamond-shaped symbols, as shown in Fig. 1.13. Since the control of the dependent source is achieved by a voltage or current of some other element in the circuit, and the source can be voltage or current, it follows that there are four possible types of dependent sources, namely:

- A voltage-controlled voltage source (VCVS).
- A current-controlled voltage source (CCVS).
- 3. A voltage-controlled current source (VCCS).
- 4. A current-controlled current source (CCCS).

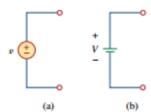


Figure 1.11

Symbols for independent voltage sources:
(a) used for constant or time-varying voltage, (b) used for constant voltage (dc).



Figure 1.12 Symbol for independent current source.

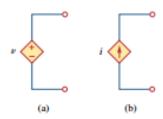


Figure 1.13

Symbols for: (a) dependent voltage source, (b) dependent current source.

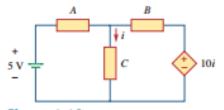


Figure 1.14
The source on the right-hand side is a current-controlled voltage source.

Dependent sources are useful in modeling elements such as transistors, operational amplifiers, and integrated circuits. An example of a current-controlled voltage source is shown on the right-hand side of Fig. 1.14, where the voltage 10i of the voltage source depends on the current i through element C. Students might be surprised that the value of the dependent voltage source is 10i V (and not 10i A) because it is a voltage source. The key idea to keep in mind is that a voltage source comes with polarities (+-) in its symbol, while a current source comes with an arrow, irrespective of what it depends on.

It should be noted that an ideal voltage source (dependent or independent) will produce any current required to ensure that the terminal voltage is as stated, whereas an ideal current source will produce the necessary voltage to ensure the stated current flow. Thus, an ideal source could in theory supply an infinite amount of energy. It should also be noted that not only do sources supply power to a circuit, they can absorb power from a circuit too. For a voltage source, we know the voltage but not the current supplied or drawn by it. By the same token, we know the current supplied by a current source but not the voltage across it.

Example 1.7

Calculate the power supplied or absorbed by each element in Fig. 1.15.

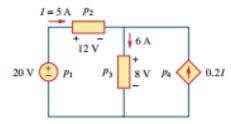


Figure 1.15 For Example 1.7.

Solution:

We apply the sign convention for power shown in Figs. 1.8 and 1.9. For p_1 , the 5-A current is out of the positive terminal (or into the negative terminal); hence,

$$p_1 = 20(-5) = -100 \text{ W}$$
 Supplied power

For p_2 and p_3 , the current flows into the positive terminal of the element in each case.

$$p_2 = 12(5) = 60 \text{ W}$$
 Absorbed power
 $p_3 = 8(6) = 48 \text{ W}$ Absorbed power

For p_4 , we should note that the voltage is 8 V (positive at the top), the same as the voltage for p_3 , since both the passive element and the dependent source are connected to the same terminals. (Remember that voltage is always measured across an element in a circuit.) Since the current flows out of the positive terminal,

$$p_4 = 8(-0.2I) = 8(-0.2 \times 5) = -8 \text{ W}$$
 Supplied power

We should observe that the 20-V independent voltage source and 0.2I dependent current source are supplying power to the rest of the network, while the two passive elements are absorbing power. Also.

$$p_1 + p_2 + p_3 + p_4 = -100 + 60 + 48 - 8 = 0$$

In agreement with Eq. (1.8), the total power supplied equals the total power absorbed.

2

Basic Laws

There are too many people praying for mountains of difficulty to be removed, when what they really need is the courage to climb them!

-Unknown

9.9 Ohm's Law

..........

symbol for the resistor is shown in Fig. 2.1(b), where R stands for the resistance of the resistor. The resistor is the simplest passive element.

Georg Simon Ohm (1787–1854), a German physicist, is credited with finding the relationship between current and voltage for a resistor. This relationship is known as *Ohm's law*.

Ohm's law states that the voltage ν across a resistor is directly proportional to the current i flowing through the resistor.

That is,

$$v \propto i$$
 (2.2)

Ohm defined the constant of proportionality for a resistor to be the resistance, R. (The resistance is a material property which can change if the internal or external conditions of the element are altered, e.g., if there are changes in the temperature.) Thus, Eq. (2.2) becomes

$$v = iR (2.3)$$

which is the mathematical form of Ohm's law. R in Eq. (2.3) is measured in the unit of ohms, designated Ω . Thus,

The resistance R of an element denotes its ability to resist the flow of electric current; it is measured in ohms (Ω) .

We may deduce from Eq. (2.3) that

$$R = \frac{v}{i} \tag{2.4}$$

so that

$$1 \Omega = 1 V/A$$

To apply Ohm's law as stated in Eq. (2.3), we must pay careful attention to the current direction and voltage polarity. The direction of current i and the polarity of voltage v must conform with the passive 31

circuit components including resistors are either surface mounted or integrated, as typically shown in Fig. 2.6.

It should be pointed out that not all resistors obey Ohm's law. A resistor that obeys Ohm's law is known as a *linear* resistor. It has a constant resistance and thus its current-voltage characteristic is as illustrated in Fig. 2.7(a): Its *i-v* graph is a straight line passing through the origin. A *nonlinear* resistor does not obey Ohm's law. Its resistance varies with current and its *i-v* characteristic is typically shown in Fig. 2.7(b). Examples of devices with nonlinear resistance are the light bulb and the diode. Although all practical resistors may exhibit nonlinear behavior under certain conditions, we will assume in this book that all elements actually designated as resistors are linear.

A useful quantity in circuit analysis is the reciprocal of resistance R, known as conductance and denoted by G:

$$G = \frac{1}{R} = \frac{i}{v} \tag{2.7}$$

The conductance is a measure of how well an element will conduct electric current. The unit of conductance is the *mho* (ohm spelled backward) or reciprocal ohm, with symbol \Im , the inverted omega. Although engineers often use the mho, in this book we prefer to use the siemens (S), the SI unit of conductance:

$$1 S = 1 U = 1 A/V$$
 (2.8)

Thus,

Conductance is the ability of an element to conduct electric current; it is measured in mhos (T) or siemens (S).

The same resistance can be expressed in ohms or siemens. For example, 10Ω is the same as 0.1 S. From Eq. (2.7), we may write

$$i = Gv$$
 (2.9)

The power dissipated by a resistor can be expressed in terms of R. Using Eqs. (1.7) and (2.3),

$$p = vi = i^2 R = \frac{v^2}{R} \tag{2.10}$$

The power dissipated by a resistor may also be expressed in terms of G as

$$p = vi = v^2G = \frac{i^2}{G}$$
 (2.11)

We should note two things from Eqs. (2.10) and (2.11):

- The power dissipated in a resistor is a nonlinear function of either current or voltage.
- Since R and G are positive quantities, the power dissipated in a resistor is always positive. Thus, a resistor always absorbs power from the circuit. This confirms the idea that a resistor is a passive element, incapable of generating energy.



Figure 2.6
Resistors in an integrated circuit board.

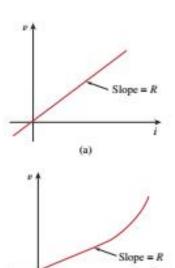


Figure 2.7
The i-v characteristic of: (a) a linear resistor, (b) a nonlinear resistor.

(b)

Example 2.1

An electric iron draws 2 A at 120 V. Find its resistance.

Solution:

From Ohm's law,

$$R = \frac{v}{i} = \frac{120}{2} = 60 \Omega$$

Practice Problem 2.1

The essential component of a toaster is an electrical element (a resistor) that converts electrical energy to heat energy. How much current is drawn by a toaster with resistance 15 Ω at 110 V?

Answer: 7.333 A.

Example 2.2



Figure 2.8 For Example 2.2.

In the circuit shown in Fig. 2.8, calculate the current i, the conductance G, and the power p.

Solution:

The voltage across the resistor is the same as the source voltage (30 V) because the resistor and the voltage source are connected to the same pair of terminals. Hence, the current is

$$i = \frac{v}{R} = \frac{30}{5 \times 10^3} = 6 \text{ mA}$$

The conductance is

$$G = \frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{5 \times 10^3} = 0.2 \text{ mS}$$

We can calculate the power in various ways using either Eqs. (1.7), (2.10), or (2.11).

$$p = vi = 30(6 \times 10^{-3}) = 180 \text{ mW}$$

or

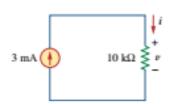
$$p = i^2 R = (6 \times 10^{-3})^2 5 \times 10^3 = 180 \text{ mW}$$

or

$$p = v^2G = (30)^20.2 \times 10^{-3} = 180 \text{ mW}$$

For the circuit shown in Fig. 2.9, calculate the voltage v, the conduc-

Practice Problem 2.2



tance G, and the power p.

Answer: 30 V, 100 μS, 90 mW.

Figure 2.9 For Practice Prob. 2.2

A voltage source of $20 \sin \pi t$ V is connected across a 5-k Ω resistor. Find the current through the resistor and the power dissipated. Example 2.3

Solution:

$$i = \frac{v}{R} = \frac{20 \sin \pi t}{5 \times 10^3} = 4 \sin \pi t \text{ mA}$$

Hence,

$$p = vi = 80 \sin^2 \pi t \, \text{mW}$$

A resistor absorbs an instantaneous power of $30 \cos^2 t$ mW when connected to a voltage source $v = 15 \cos t$ V. Find i and R.

Practice Problem 2.3

Answer: $2 \cos t \text{ mA}$, $7.5 \text{ k}\Omega$.

2.3 [†]Nodes, Branches, and Loops

Since the elements of an electric circuit can be interconnected in several ways, we need to understand some basic concepts of network topology. To differentiate between a circuit and a network, we may regard a network as an interconnection of elements or devices, whereas a circuit is a network providing one or more closed paths. The convention, when addressing network topology, is to use the word network rather than circuit. We do this even though the word network and circuit mean the same thing when used in this context. In network topology, we study the properties relating to the placement of elements in the network and the geometric configuration of the network. Such elements include branches, nodes, and loops.

A branch represents a single element such as a voltage source or a resistor.

In other words, a branch represents any two-terminal element. The circuit in Fig. 2.10 has five branches, namely, the 10-V voltage source, the 2-A current source, and the three resistors.

A node is the point of connection between two or more branches.

A node is usually indicated by a dot in a circuit. If a short circuit (a connecting wire) connects two nodes, the two nodes constitute a single node. The circuit in Fig. 2.10 has three nodes a, b, and c. Notice that the three points that form node b are connected by perfectly conducting wires and therefore constitute a single point. The same is true of the four points forming node c. We demonstrate that the circuit in Fig. 2.10 has only three nodes by redrawing the circuit in Fig. 2.11. The two circuits in Figs. 2.10 and 2.11 are identical. However, for the sake of clarity, nodes b and c are spread out with perfect conductors as in Fig. 2.10.

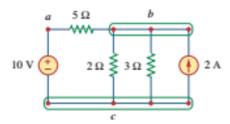


Figure 2.10 Nodes, branches, and loops.

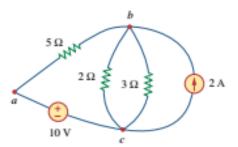


Figure 2.11
The three-node circuit of Fig. 2.10 is redrawn.

A loop is any closed path in a circuit.

A loop is a closed path formed by starting at a node, passing through a set of nodes, and returning to the starting node without passing through any node more than once. A loop is said to be *independent* if it contains at least one branch which is not a part of any other independent loop. Independent loops or paths result in independent sets of equations.

It is possible to form an independent set of loops where one of the loops does not contain such a branch. In Fig. 2.11, abca with the 2Ω resistor is independent. A second loop with the 3Ω resistor and the current source is independent. The third loop could be the one with the 2Ω resistor in parallel with the 3Ω resistor. This does form an independent set of loops.

A network with b branches, n nodes, and l independent loops will satisfy the fundamental theorem of network topology:

$$b = l + n - 1 (2.12)$$

As the next two definitions show, circuit topology is of great value to the study of voltages and currents in an electric circuit.

Two or more elements are in series if they exclusively share a single node and consequently carry the same current.

Two or more elements are in parallel if they are connected to the same two nodes and consequently have the same voltage across them.

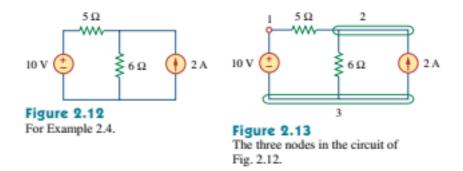
Elements are in series when they are chain-connected or connected sequentially, end to end. For example, two elements are in series if they share one common node and no other element is connected to that common node. Elements in parallel are connected to the same pair of terminals. Elements may be connected in a way that they are neither in series nor in parallel. In the circuit shown in Fig. 2.10, the voltage source and the 5- Ω resistor are in series because the same current will flow through them. The 2- Ω resistor, the 3- Ω resistor, and the current source are in parallel because they are connected to the same two nodes b and c and consequently have the same voltage across them. The 5- Ω and 2- Ω resistors are neither in series nor in parallel with each other.

Example 2.4

Determine the number of branches and nodes in the circuit shown in Fig. 2.12. Identify which elements are in series and which are in parallel.

Solution:

Since there are four elements in the circuit, the circuit has four branches: 10 V, 5Ω , 6Ω , and 2 A. The circuit has three nodes as identified in Fig. 2.13. The 5- Ω resistor is in series with the 10-V voltage source because the same current would flow in both. The 6- Ω resistor is in parallel with the 2-A current source because both are connected to the same nodes 2 and 3.



How many branches and nodes does the circuit in Fig. 2.14 have? Identify the elements that are in series and in parallel. Practice Problem 2.4

Answer: Five branches and three nodes are identified in Fig. 2.15. The $1-\Omega$ and $2-\Omega$ resistors are in parallel. The $4-\Omega$ resistor and 10-V source are also in parallel.

