



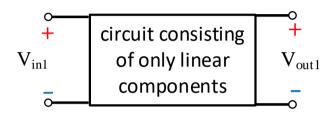
48510 LEC 4 – HIGHER LEVEL CIRCUIT ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES-2 Topic 4-2-1: Superposition principle

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Considering a circuit consisting of only linear components and no independent sources are involved, we pick two nodes in arbitrary and put in between a voltage source providing a voltage input of V_{in1} . We measure the voltage across another two arbitrary nodes and define the voltage as V_{out1} .



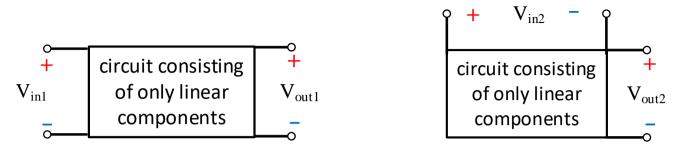
Linear circuits possess the property that "outputs are proportional to inputs".

If V_{in1}=0, V_{out1}=0

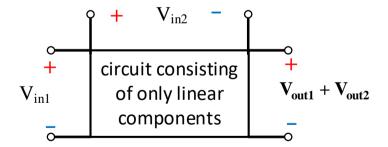
If V_{in1} is doubled, V_{out1} is doubled.

Then we disconnect the voltage source V_{in1} . We feed the circuit at another two arbitrary nodes with a voltage source V_{in2} . In this case, the output voltage we measured is V_{out2} . The output voltage is also in proportional to the input.

If V_{in2} is doubled, V_{out2} is doubled.



Now if we feed the circuit with two voltage sources at the same time, what is the output voltage?



The output voltage is $V_{out1} + V_{out2}$.

This example is a manifestation of the superposition principle.

Definition: The **superposition principle** states that a response in a linear circuit is equal to the sum of the responses for each independent source acting alone with the other independence source zeroed.

When zeroed, current source became open circuits and voltage source became short circuit.

Case 1: When both the two sources present

Node voltage analysis

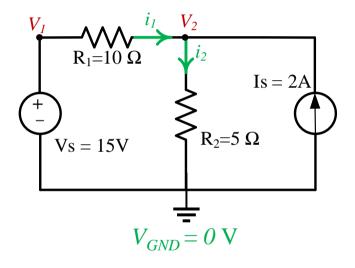
Conduct KCL at node 2:

$$i_1 + I_s = i_2 \implies \frac{V_1 - V_2}{R_1} + I_s = \frac{V_2 - 0}{R_2}$$

Special case at node 1:

$$V_1 = 15 \text{ V}$$

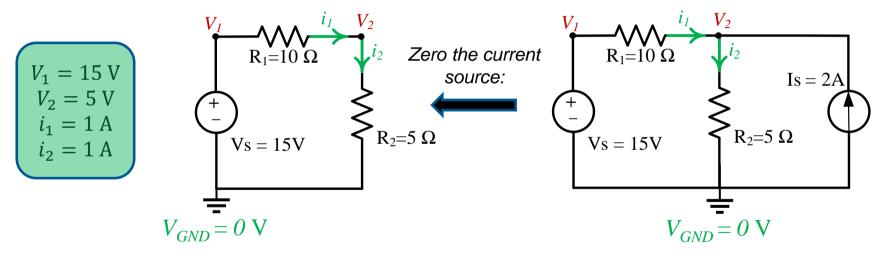
$$V_1 = 15 \text{ V}$$
 $i_1 = \frac{1}{3} \text{ A}$
 $V_2 = \frac{35}{3} \text{ V}$ $i_2 = \frac{7}{3} \text{ A}$



Definition: The **superposition principle** states that a response in a linear circuit is equal to the sum of the responses for each independent source acting alone with the other independence source zeroed.

When zeroed, current source became open circuits and voltage source became short circuit.

Case 2: Only the voltage source presents

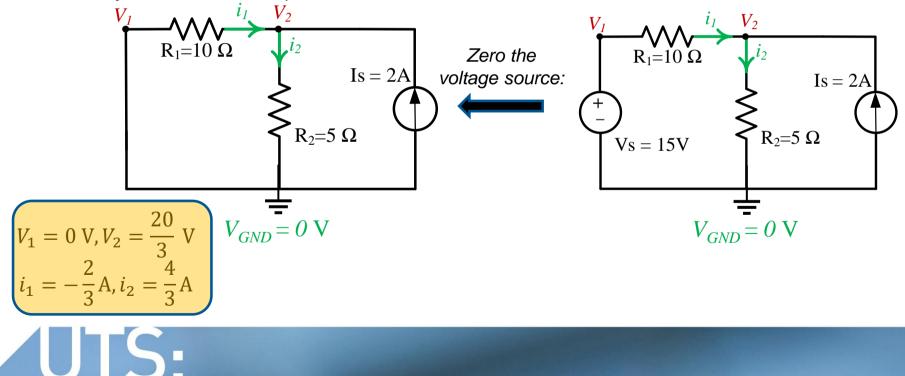




Definition: The **superposition principle** states that a response in a linear circuit is equal to the sum of the responses for each independent source acting alone with the other independence source zeroed.

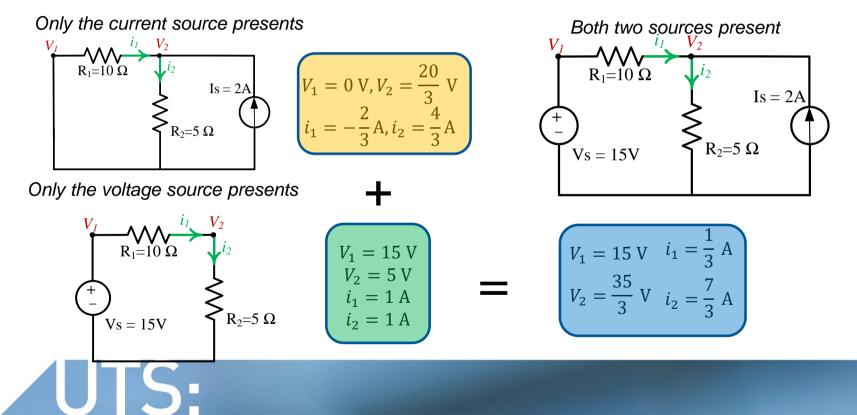
When zeroed, current source became open circuits and voltage source became short circuit.

Case 3: Only the current source presents



Definition: The **superposition principle** states that a response in a **linear circuit** is equal to the sum of the responses for each independent source acting alone with the other independence source zeroed.

When zeroed, current source became open circuits and voltage source became short circuit.







48510 LEC 4 – HIGHER LEVEL CIRCUIT ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES-2 Topic 4-2-2: Superposition principle example

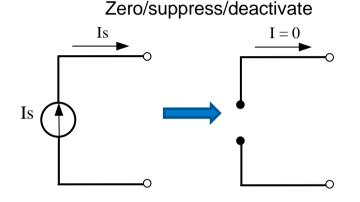
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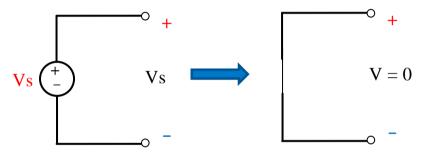
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Definition: The **superposition principle** states that a response in a **linear circuit** is equal to the sum of the responses for each independent source acting alone with the other independence source zeroed.

When zeroed, current source became open circuits and voltage source became short circuit.



Zero/suppress/deactivate



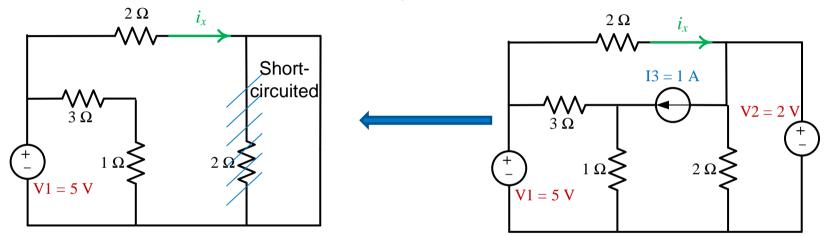
Current sources became open circuits because the current flow across an open circuit is 0.

Voltage sources became short circuits because the voltage across a short circuit is 0.



When zeroed, current source became open circuits and voltage source became short circuit.

Keep source 1, zero source 2 and 3, conduct the circuit analysis;

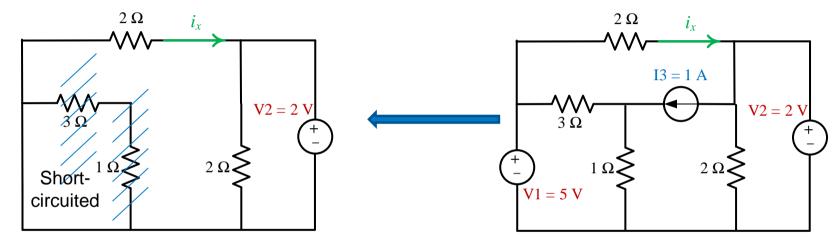


$$i_{x1} = 2.5 \text{ A}$$



When zeroed, current source became open circuits and voltage source became short circuit.

Keep source 2, zero source 1 and 3, conduct the circuit analysis;

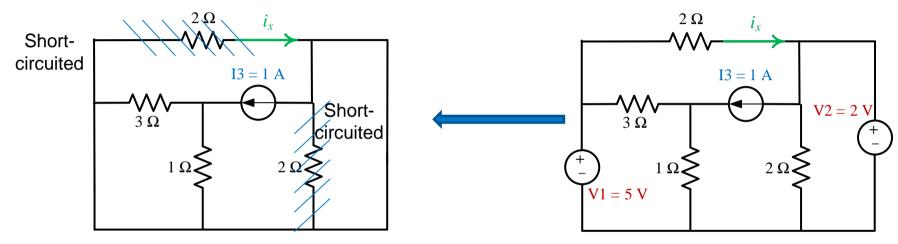


$$i_{x2} = -1 \text{ A}$$



When zeroed, current source became open circuits and voltage source became short circuit.

Keep source 3, zero source 1 and 2, conduct the circuit analysis;



$$i_{x3} = 0 A$$

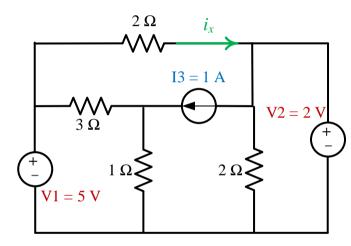


When zeroed, current source became open circuits and voltage source became short circuit.

Keep source 1, zero source 2 and 3, conduct the circuit analysis; Keep source 2, zero source 1 and 3, conduct the circuit analysis; Keep source 3, zero source 1 and 2, conduct the circuit analysis;

 $i_{x1} = 2.5 \text{ A}$ $i_{x2} = -1 \text{ A}$ $i_{x3} = 0 \text{ A}$

$$i_{x1} = i_{x1} + i_{x2} + i_{x3} = 1.5$$
 A









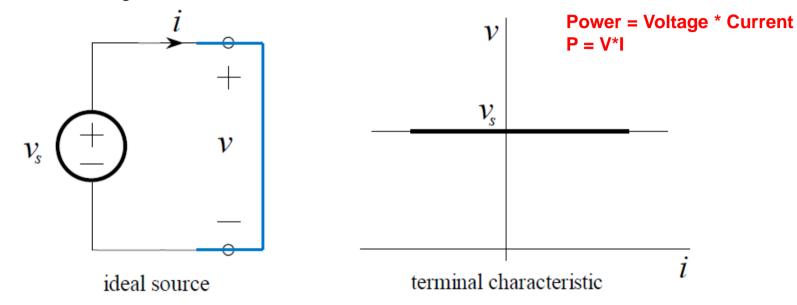
48510 LEC 4 – HIGHER LEVEL CIRCUIT ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES-2 Topic 4-3-1: Practical sources

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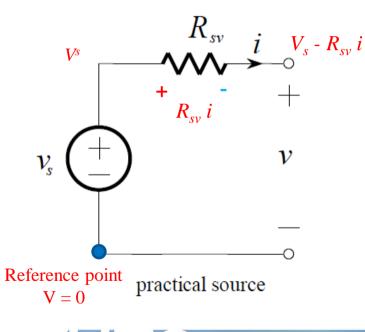
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The **ideal voltage source** is defined as a device whose terminal voltage is independent of the current through it.





All **practical voltage sources suffer from a voltage drop when they deliver current** – the larger the current, the larger the voltage drop. Such behaviour can be modelled by the inclusion of a resistor in series with an ideal voltage source.

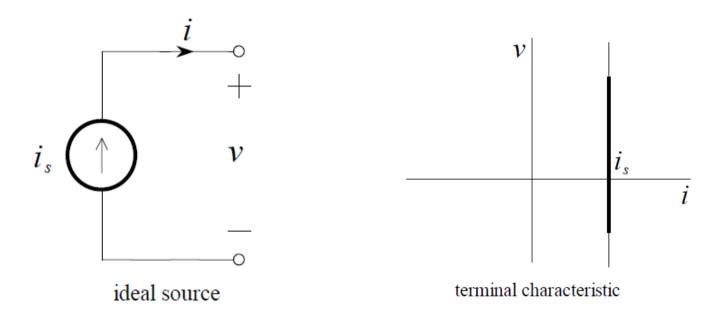




This resistor (in most cases) is not a real physical resistor! It is more like an equivalent resistor that represents the characteristic of the source.

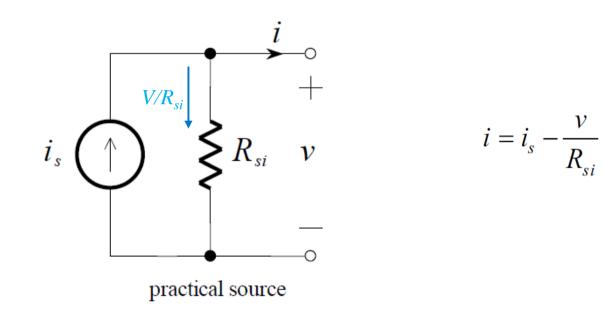
$$v = v_s - R_{sv}i$$

The **ideal current source** is defined as a device whose current is independent of the voltage across it.





A practical current source can be modelled by the inclusion of an inner resistor in parallel with an ideal current source:









48510 LEC 4 – HIGHER LEVEL CIRCUIT ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES-2

Topic 4-3-2: Equivalent practical source and source transformation

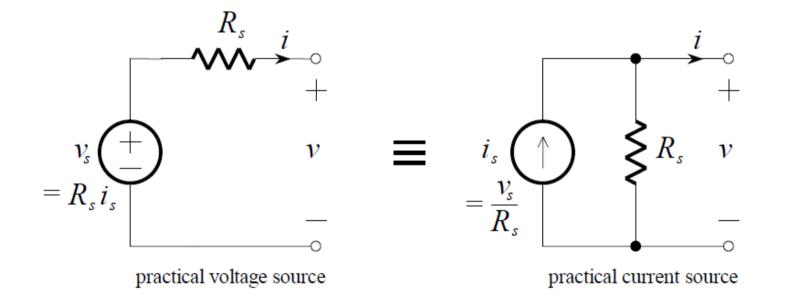
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A practical voltage source (an ideal voltage source in series with a resistor) is equivalent to a practical current source (an ideal current source in parallel with a resistor) if

$$R_{sv} = R_{si}$$
 $v_s = i_s R_{si}$



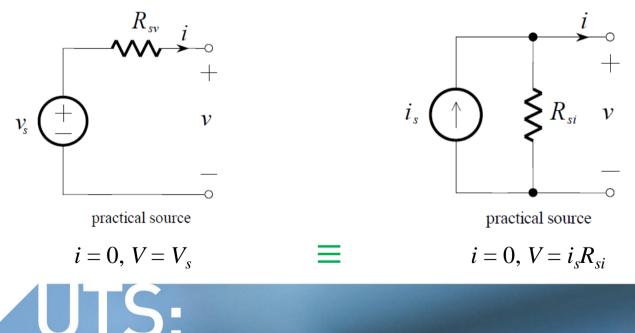
A practical voltage source (an ideal voltage source in series with a resistor) is equivalent to a practical current source (an ideal current source in parallel with a resistor) if

$$R_{sv} = R_{si} \qquad v_s = i_s R_{si}$$

The two sources are considered to be equivalent to each other because they provide the same voltage and current outputs when connected to a same load.

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Case 1: Open circuit



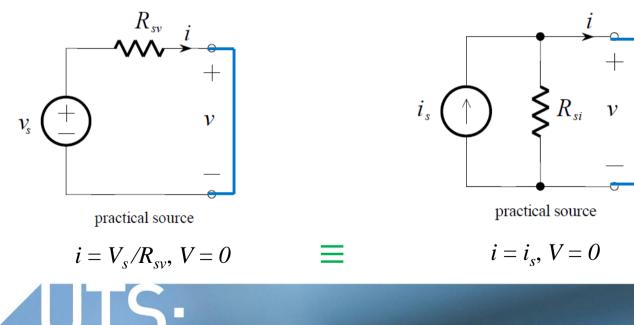
A practical voltage source (an ideal voltage source in series with a resistor) is equivalent to a practical current source (an ideal current source in parallel with a resistor) if

$$R_{sv} = R_{si} \qquad v_s = i_s R_{si}$$

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Case 2: Short circuit

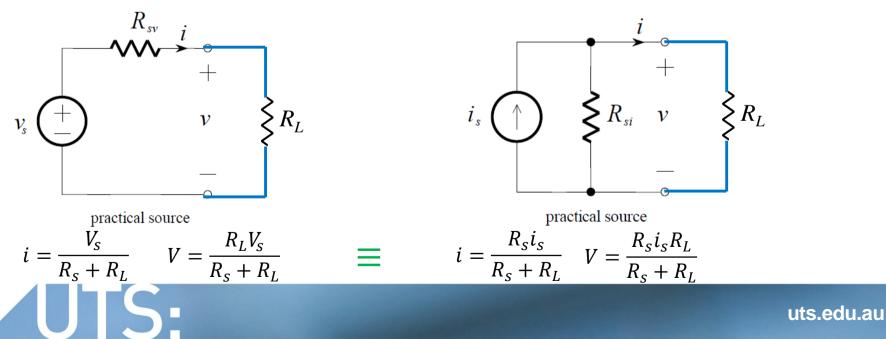


A practical voltage source (an ideal voltage source in series with a resistor) is equivalent to a practical current source (an ideal current source in parallel with a resistor) if

$$R_{sv} = R_{si} \qquad v_s = i_s R_{si}$$

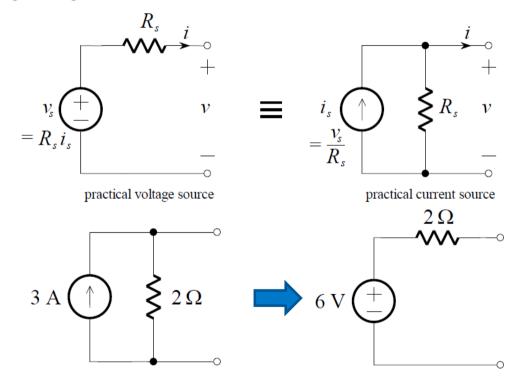
The two sources are considered to be equivalent to each other because they provide the same voltage and current outputs when connected to a same load.

Case 3: Connect with a load resistor R_L



4-3-2 SOURCE TRANSFORMATION

Source transformation is the process of simplifying a circuit solution, especially with mixed sources, by transforming voltage sources into current sources, and vice versa.



4-3-2 SOURCE TRANSFORMATION

Example of source transformation 4Ω 4Ω $\int_{2} \Omega$ 2Ω 4Ω 4Ω 2 V 0.5 A i = 0.25 A4//4 = 22Ω 0.5 A





48510 LEC 4 – HIGHER LEVEL CIRCUIT ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES-2 Topic 4-4-1: Thevenin Equivalent Circuit

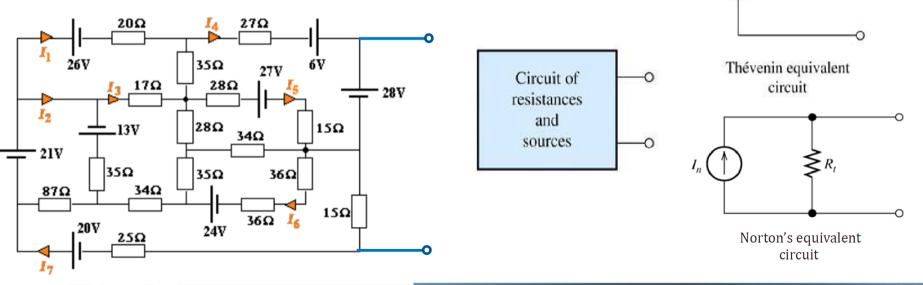
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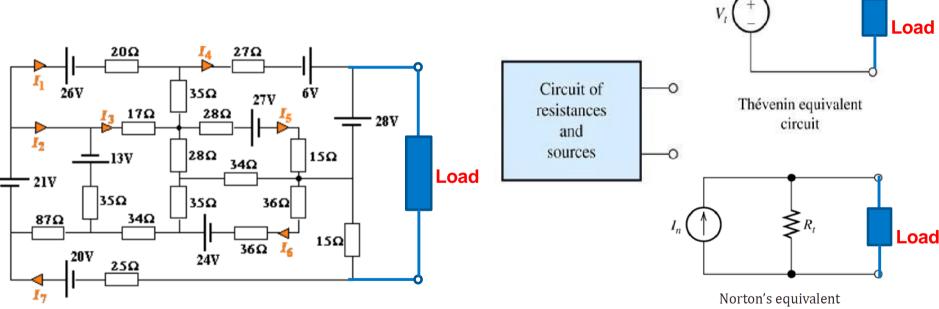
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Thévenin's and Norton's equivalent circuits are circuit simplification techniques that focus on terminal behaviour.

They state that any circuit consisting of independent sources and a network of resistors can be transformed into **one voltage source in series with one resistor** (Thévenin thereom) or **one current source in parallel with one resistor** (Norton thereom).



When two circuits have the same load, the voltage on and the current flow across load are exactly the same, we can call the circuits are equivalent to each other.

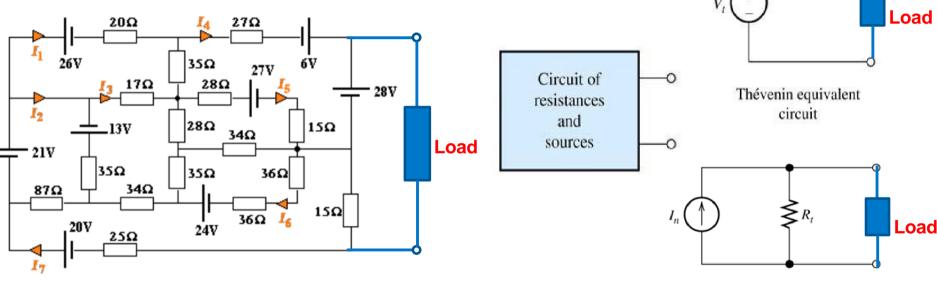


circuit

R,



Through the use of Thévenin's theorem and Norton's theorem, we will see that we can replace a large portion of a complex circuit (often a complicated and uninteresting part) with a very simple equivalent circuit, thus enabling analysis and focus on one particular element of the circuit.



Norton's equivalent circuit

R,

How to find out V_t , I_n , and R_t ?



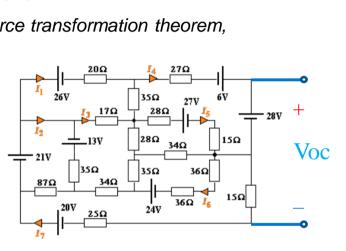
How to find out Vt, In, and Rt?

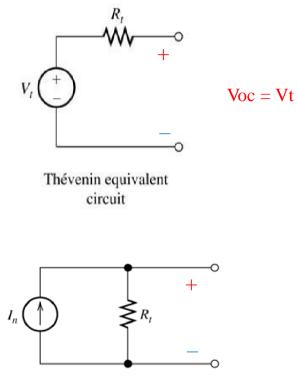
What are known information?

According to the source transformation theorem, Rt * In = Vt

If we left the circuit open







Norton's equivalent circuit



27Ω

34Ω

27V

36Ω

36Ω 🕻

35Ω

28Ω

35Ω

24V

28Ω

бV

15Ω

15Ω

28V

 R_t

Thévenin equivalent

circuit

V.

Isc

How to find out Vt, In, and Rt?

What are known information?

According to the source transformation theorem, Rt * In = Vt

21V

87Ω

20Ω

17Ω

34Ω

13V

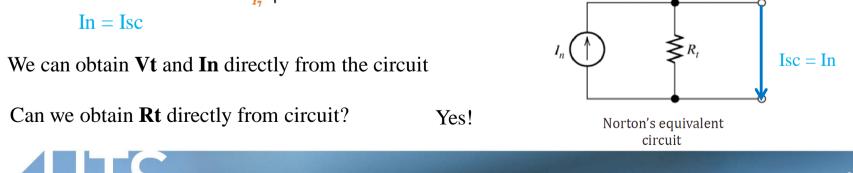
25Ω

35Ω

If we left the circuit open

Vt = Voc

If we short-circuit the two terminals

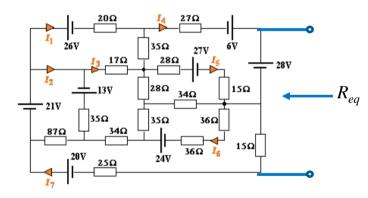


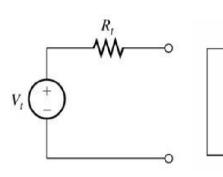
How to find out Vt, In, and Rt?

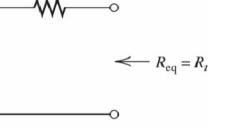
Can we obtain Rt directly from circuit?

Yes, by zeroing the source

Thevenin equivalent resistance is the equivalent resistant you observed across the two terminals when all the sources are zeroed.

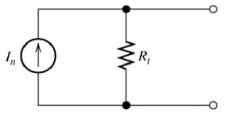






 R_t

Thévenin equivalent circuit

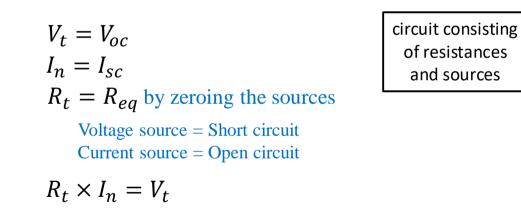


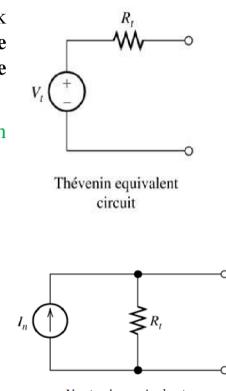
 $R_{eq} = R_t$

Norton's equivalent circuit

They state that any circuit consisting of independent sources and a network of resistors can be transformed into **one voltage source in series with one resistor** (Thévenin thereom) or **one current source in parallel with one resistor** (Norton thereom).

We can get Vt, In, and Rt directly from circuit or from source transition principle.





Norton's equivalent circuit





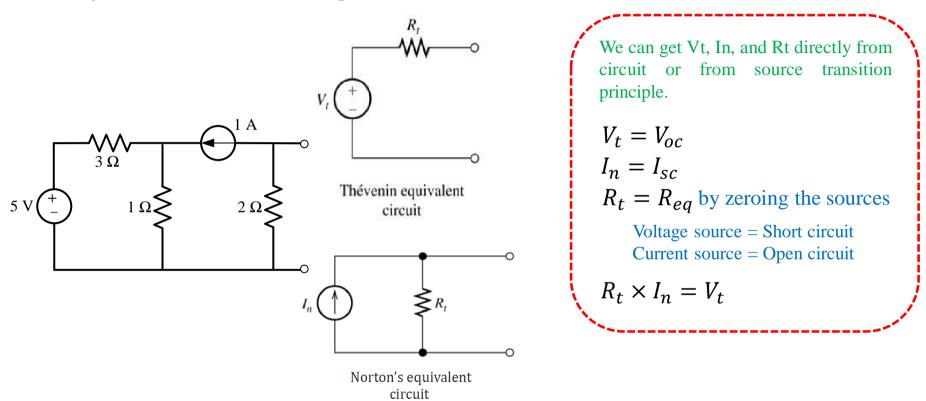
48510 LEC 4 – HIGHER LEVEL CIRCUIT ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES-2 Topic 4-4-2: Thevenin Equivalent Circuit example

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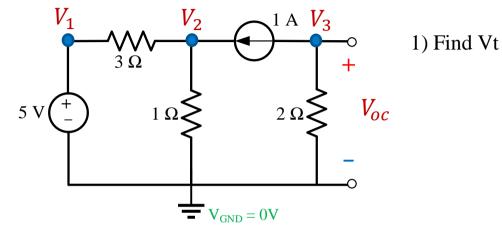
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Finding the Thevenin and Norton equivalent circuit of the circuit below.



Finding the Thevenin and Norton equivalent circuit of the circuit below.



Node voltage analysis

$$V_{1} = 5$$

$$1 = \frac{V_{2} - V_{1}}{3} + \frac{V_{2} - 0}{1} \longrightarrow V_{3} = -2 V = V_{oc}$$

$$\frac{V_{3} - 0}{2} + 1 = 0 \qquad V_{t} = -2 V$$

We can get Vt, In, and Rt directly from circuit or from source transition principle.

$$V_t = V_{oc}$$

$$I_n = I_{sc}$$

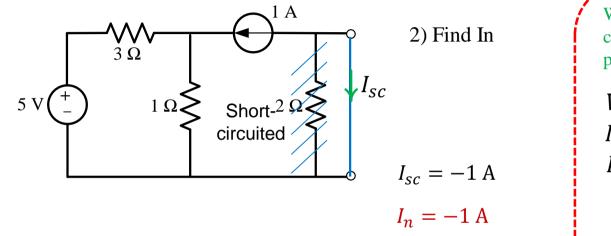
$$R_t = R_{eq} \text{ by zeroing the sources}$$

$$Voltage \text{ source} = Short circuit$$

$$Current \text{ source} = Open circuit$$

$$R_t \times I_n = V_t$$

Finding the Thevenin and Norton equivalent circuit of the circuit below.



We can get Vt, In, and Rt directly from circuit or from source transition principle.

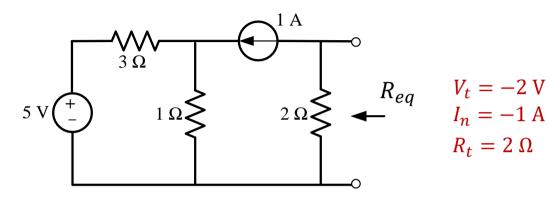
$$V_t = V_{oc}$$

$$I_n = I_{sc}$$

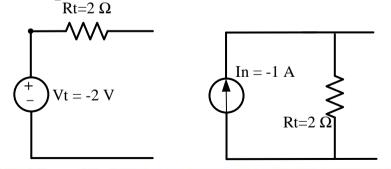
$$R_t = R_{eq} \text{ by zeroing the sources}$$
Voltage source = Short circuit
Current source = Open circuit

 $R_t \times I_n = V_t$

Finding the Thevenin and Norton equivalent circuit of the circuit below.



4) Draw equivalent circuits



We can get Vt, In, and Rt directly from circuit or from source transition principle.

 $V_t = V_{oc}$ $I_n = I_{sc}$ $R_t = R_{eq} \text{ by zeroing the sources}$ Voltage source = Short circuit Current source = Open circuit $R_t \times I_n = V_t$







48510 LEC 4 – HIGHER LEVEL CIRCUIT ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES-2 Topic 4-5: Maximum power transfer

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Maximum power transfer theorem states that a practical DC voltage source will deliver maximum power to the variable load resistor only when the load resistance is equal to the source resistance.

Consider a practical DC source shown as below, if we connect a resistive load with this source, only when $R_L = R_t$, the maximum power is delivered to the load.

According to the definition of power:

$$P_L = V_L I_L = (I_L R_L) I_L = I_L^2 R_L$$

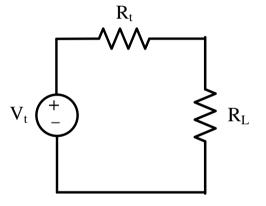
The current can be obtained as

$$I_L = \frac{V_t}{R_t + R_L}$$

Substitute I_L into P_L , we have

$$P_L = V_t^2 \frac{R_L}{(R_t + R_L)^2}$$

Once the source is given, V_t and R_t are unchangeable. Now we need to find the appropriate value of R_L to achieve maximum power transfer.



The problem turns into finding the maximum value of where R_I is the variable and R_t is a constant.

The result is that only when $R_L = R_t$, it has the maximum value.

The maximum power is

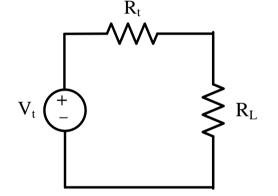
$$P_L = V_t^2 \frac{R_L}{(R_t + R_L)^2} = V_t^2 \frac{R_t}{(R_t + R_t)^2} = V_t^2 \frac{R_t}{4R_t^2}$$
$$= \frac{V_t^2}{4R_t}$$

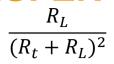
The total power generated by the source is

$$P_{T} = V_{T}I_{T} = \frac{V_{t}^{2}}{R_{t} + R_{t}} = \frac{V_{t}^{2}}{2R_{t}}$$

It is noticed that, in this case, only the half of power generated by the source is received by the load, i.e., $(P_L = 0.5P_T)$.







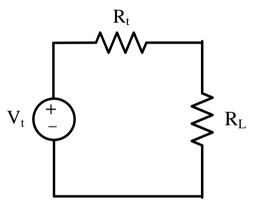
How to find the maximum value of $\frac{R_L}{(R_t + R_L)^2}$ where R_L is the variable and R_t is a constant.

(Knowing this derivation is not compulsory.)

The problem is to find the peak value of a function $f(R_L) = \frac{R_L}{(R_t + R_L)^2}$

It has a maximum or minimum value when $f'(R_L)=0$

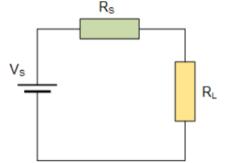
$$f'(R_L) = \frac{d[\frac{R_L}{(R_t + R_L)^2}]}{dR_L}$$
$$= \frac{(R_t + R_L)^2 \times 1 - R_L \times 2(R_t + R_L)}{(R_t + R_L)^4} = 0$$



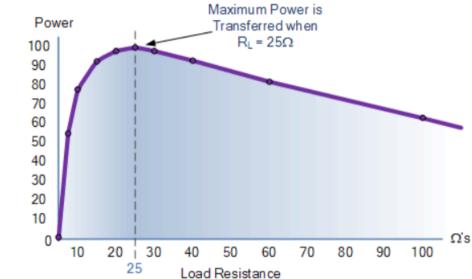
$$(R_t + R_L)^2 - 2R_L(R_t + R_L) = 0$$
$$R_t + R_L - 2R_L = 0$$
$$R_t = R_L$$
One can easily the second sec

One can easily find this is the maximum value rather than the minimum value.





Where: $R_S = 25\Omega$ R_L is variable between 0 – 100 Ω $V_S = 100v$ If you give specific values to the source, the inner resistance and the load resistance, you can plot the power received by the load.



R _L (Ω)	l (amps)	P (watts)	R _L (Ω)	l (amps)	P (watts)
0	4.0	0	25	2.0	100
5	3.3	55	30	1.8	97
10	2.8	78	40	1.5	94
15	2.5	93	60	1.2	83
20	2.2	97	100	0.8	64