

— LINEARITY AND SUPERPOSITION

Def:

Consider a function f
The function is linear if

$$f(ax+by) = af(x) + bf(y)$$

A circuit is linear if the effect due to the source X is proportional to X itself

A resistor is a linear component because $V=RI$ so if we double the current flowing through it, the voltage doubles (here we consider the current to be the source and the voltage to be the effect).

All circuit we have seen until now are linear. Given a circuit, solve it using for instance the node-voltage analysis and obtain

$$[G][V] = [I] \quad \left([X] \text{ means the matrix } X \right)$$

conductance matrix

mode voltages

current sources

mead

$[G]$ is non singular so it is invertible:

$$[V] = [G]^{-1} [I]$$

So each mode voltage is a linear combination of current sources:

$$V_i = g_{i1} I_1 + g_{i2} I_2 + \dots + g_{iN} I_N$$

Which is a linear function.

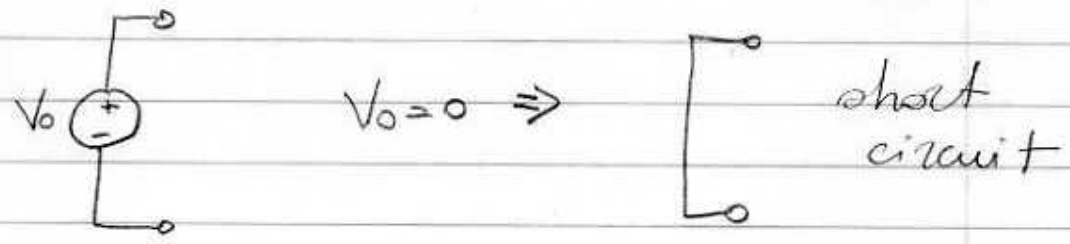
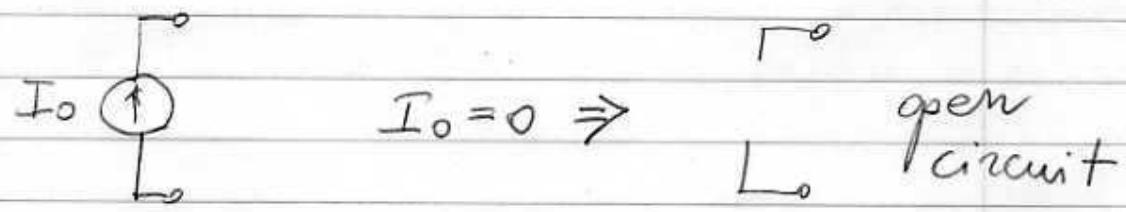
I_j is a current source (we can always reduce our circuit to have only current sources but nothing changes if you consider the indirect method because it adds other terms to that equation of the form αV_j where V_j is a voltage source).

If you look at that expression it is the sum of the contribution of each current to the mode voltage.

so we could compute the contribution of I_j to V_i by setting all the other current generators to 0 ($I_k = 0 \forall k \neq j$). If we do that for each current source, then we can combine the individual contributions to obtain the total voltage.

This method is called superposition of effects.

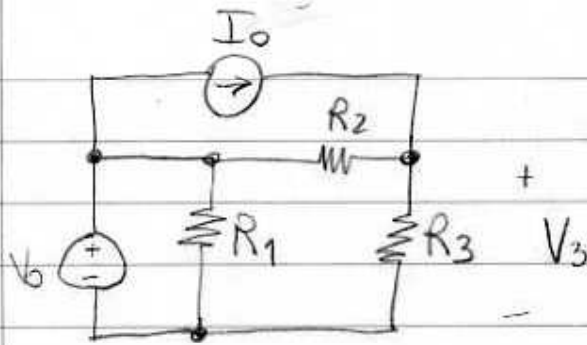
What does it mean to set a source to zero?



(this is why I like another 'set' of symbols for the sources: $\uparrow \ominus I_0$ and $\oplus \ominus V_0$ (read))

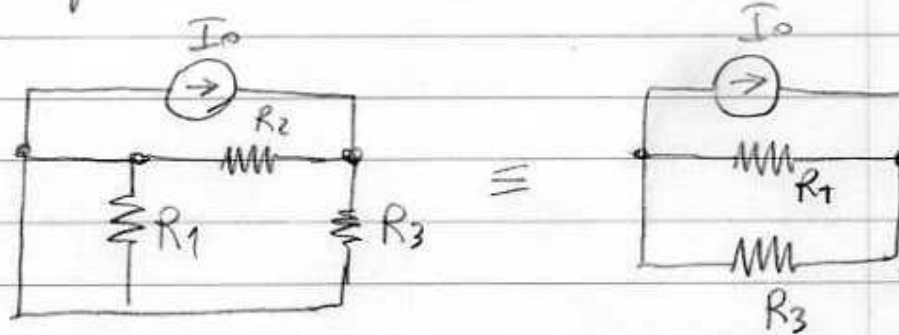
Example

4
lec 5



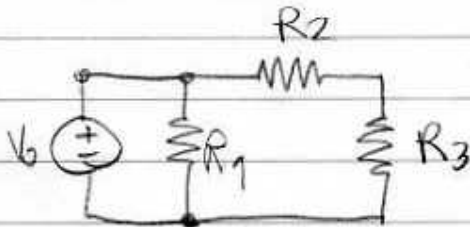
we want
to compute
 V_3

We first set $V_0 = 0$



$$I_3 \Big|_{V_0=0} = I_0 \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_3} \Rightarrow V_3 \Big|_{V_0=0} = I_0 \frac{R_1 R_3}{R_1 + R_3}$$

Then we set $I_0 = 0$



$$V_3 \Big|_{I_0=0} = V_0 \frac{R_3}{R_2 + R_3}$$

Finally we sum the two contributions

$$V_3 = V_3|_{I_0=0} + V_3|_{V_0=0} = V_0 \frac{R_3}{R_2+R_3} + I_0 \frac{R_1 R_3}{R_1+R_3}$$

This works only for linear circuits!!!

Leave dependent sources intact!!!

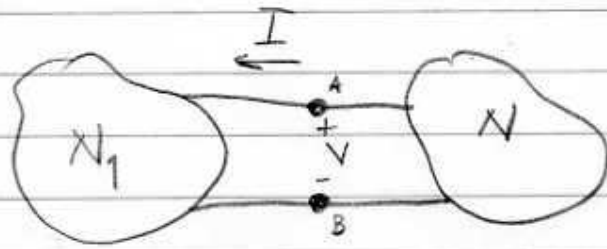
Superposition cannot be used to compute power: Consider the power on the element i :

$$P_i = V_i I_i = (g_{i1} I_1 + \dots + g_{ii} I_i + \dots + g_{in} I_n) I_i = \\ = g_{i1} I_1 I_i + \dots + g_{ii} I_i^2 + \dots + g_{in} I_n I_i$$

This function is not linear. If you double I_i the power is going to be 4 times bigger.

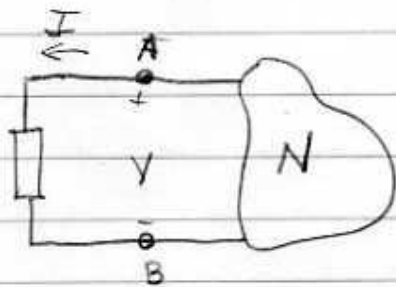
- SUBSTITUTION THEOREM

Consider a circuit and split it into two parts

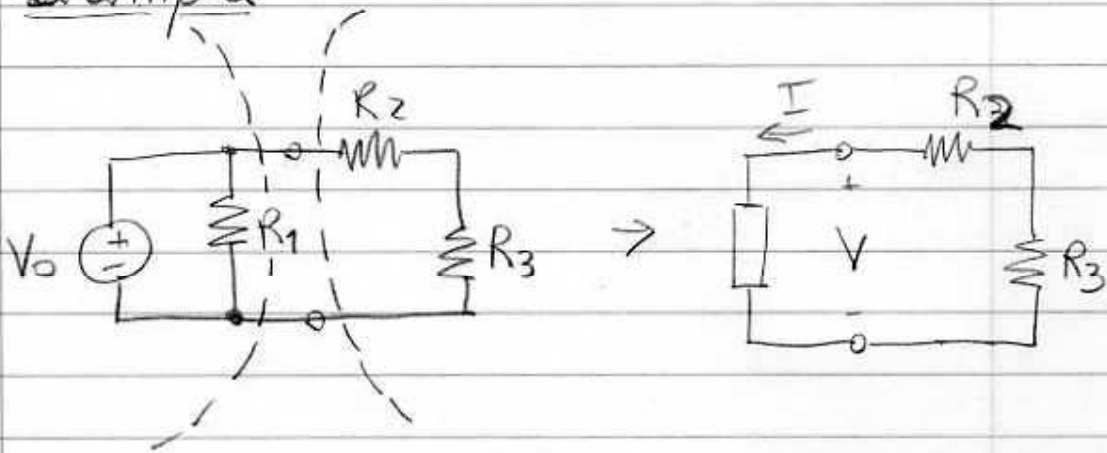


here we can compute v and I

We want to find an element (a black box) to substitute to N_1



Since we don't know this element, in solving this circuit we have to consider both v and I unknown. So basically we have more unknown than equations.

Example

$$V = -I(R_2 + R_3)$$

Anyway, in general, if N is a complicated circuit you will find a system of equations where I and V are present and unknown.

By applying substitution you can reduce your circuit to only one equation in the variables I and V (like in the small example above).

$$V = f(I) \quad \text{and} \quad I = f^{-1}(V)$$

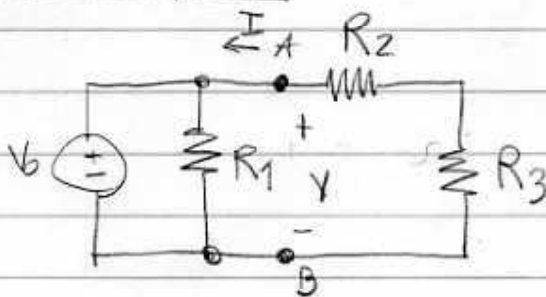
So if we fix one of the two quantities, the other is going

to be determined as well.

So it is sufficient to impose one of the two quantities to be equal to the original circuit and the other will be the same as a consequence.

It means that we can set the element to be a current source or a voltage source (substitution theorem)

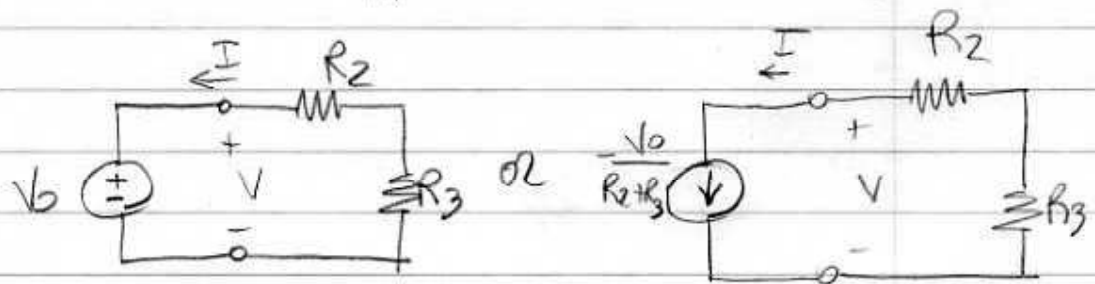
Example



$$V = V_0$$

$$I = -\frac{V_0}{R_2 + R_3}$$

|||



$$V = V_0$$

$$I = -\frac{V_0}{R_2 + R_3}$$

$$I = -\frac{V_0}{R_2 + R_3}$$

$$V = -I(R_2 + R_3) = V_{\text{load}}$$

There are exceptions:

After substitution you could obtain

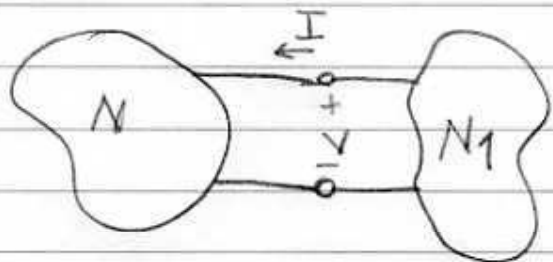
- ① $I = \text{constant}$ or
- ② $V = \text{constant}$

it means that N behaves as a current source in ① and a voltage source in ②.

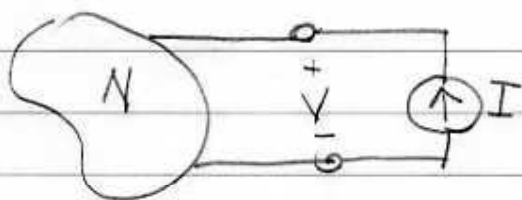
Then the only thing you can do is to set the element to a voltage source in ① and a current source in ② whose values are equal to the original I or V .

- NORTON AND THEVENIN EQ.

Consider again a circuit which is divided into two parts:



The substitution theorem says that we can substitute N_1 with a current source:

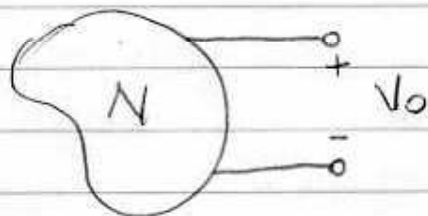


What is V ? How can we compute it?

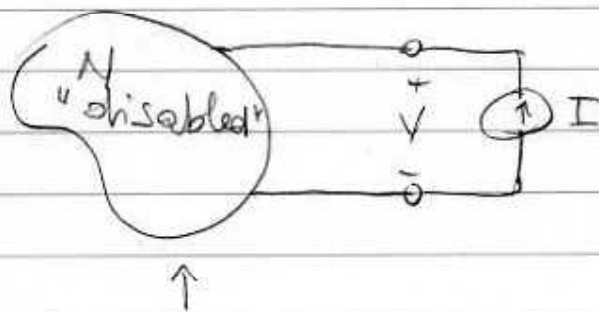
We can use the superposition principle considering two sets of sources: I and all the sources in N

$$\text{then } V = V \Big|_{I=0} + V \Big|_{\substack{N \text{ is} \\ \text{"disabled"}}$$

"N is disabled" means that all current sources are considered open circuits and all voltage sources are considered short-circuits. So we first set $I=0$

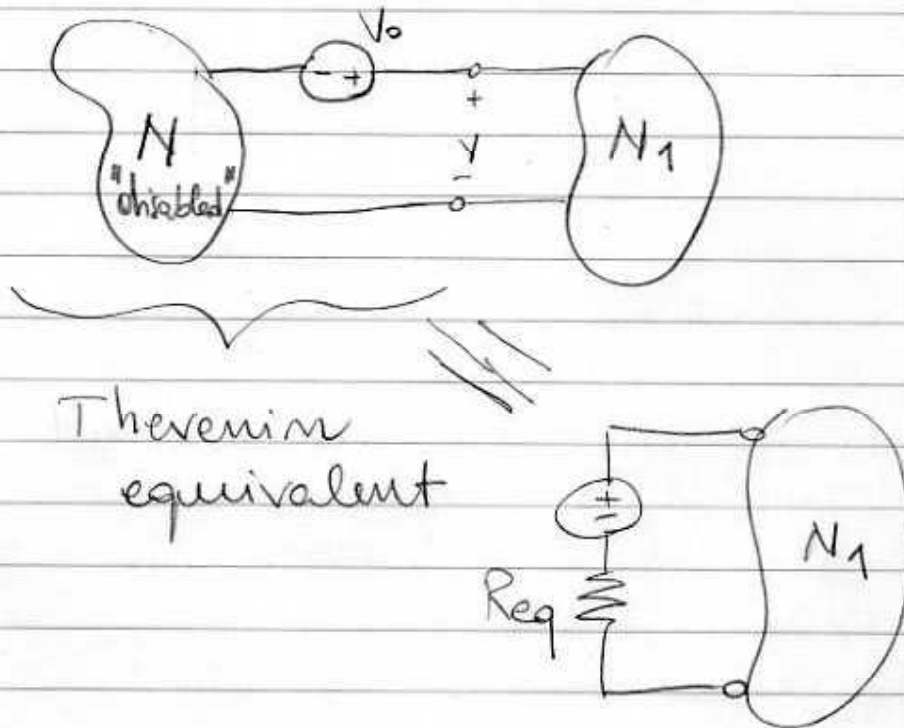


this is the voltage that we observe when N is disconnected from the rest of the circuit. Then we "disable" N:



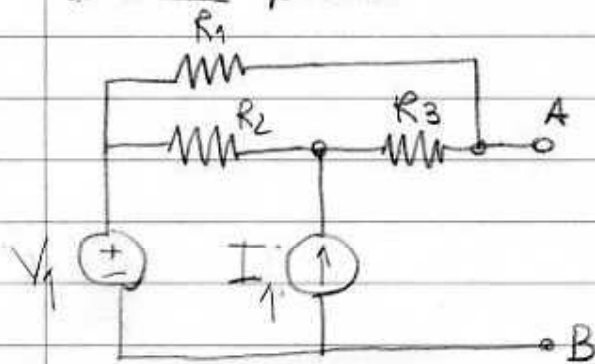
this look like a resistor.

Since the voltage is the sum,
the situation is like this



Now you help me in
finding the Norton equivalent.

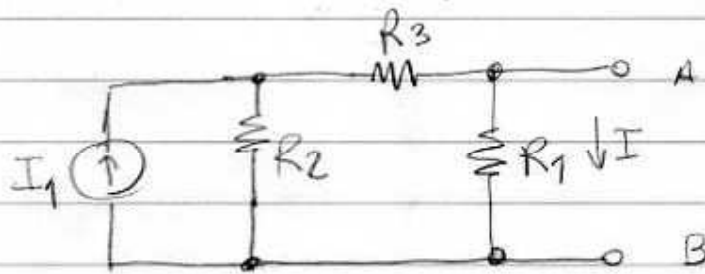
The exceptions to the applications
of equivalences are for the
same cases of the substitution
method.

Example

use
Thevenin eq.
to characterize
the circuit
at A-B.

Compute V_0 (voltage V_{AB} when the circuit is open, nothing is connected)

$$V_0 = V_1 + V_{AB} \Big|_{V_1=0}$$

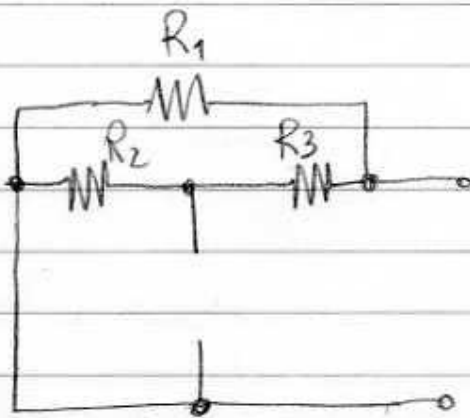


$$I = I_1 \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3}$$

$$V_{AB} \Big|_{V_1=0} = I_1 \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3}$$

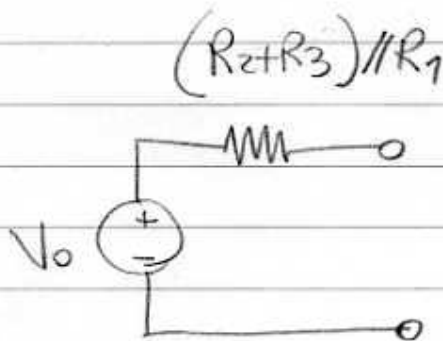
$$V_0 = V_1 + I_1 \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3}$$

We have to compute R_{eq} :



$$R_{eq} = (R_2 + R_3) \parallel R_1$$

the Th. equivalent circuit is

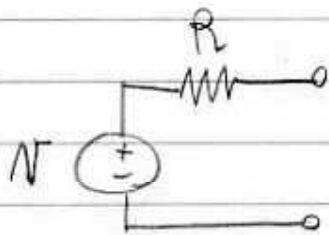


Find now the Norton eq.

- VOLTAGE AMPLIFIER

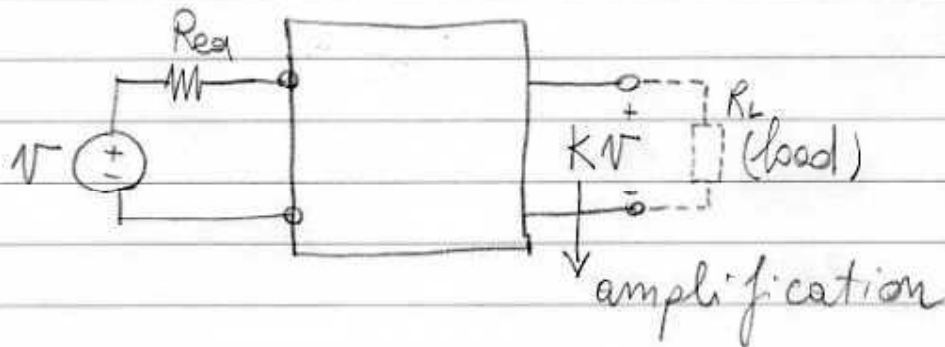
We need a device that amplifies our voltage signal

A model for our source is:



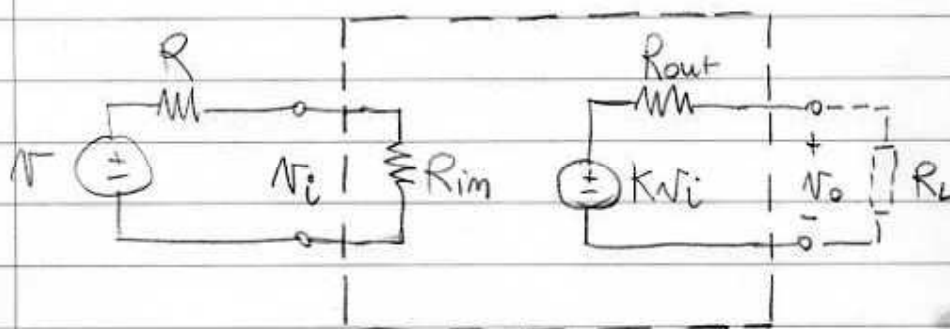
(Why? a little Hint,
only two letters T.E.)

We need a box that multiplies the input signal by a constant



A simple model for the amplifier is then a controlled voltage source. It is actually a little bit more complicated because we cannot build an

ideal controlled voltage source.
It looks like this:



If you look at the black box
the amplification is:

$$K' = \frac{v_o}{v_i} = \frac{K v_i R_L}{(R_{out} + R_L)}$$

$$\approx \frac{R_{in}}{R + R_{in}}$$

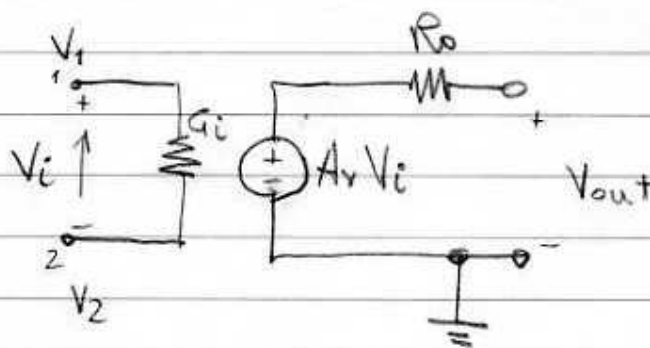
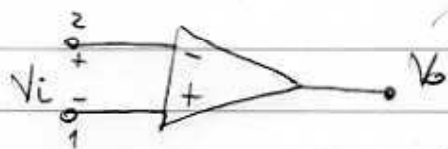
In order to have $K' \approx K$
We need $R_{in} \gg R$ and $R_{out} \ll R_L$.

So, to make it closer to ideal we
have to make R_{in} very big
and R_{out} very small.

- THE OPERATIONAL AMPLIFIER

It is a component that we define, we play with. Then there are many ways of implementing it but all of them can just approximate our mathematical definition (well, the approximation is not that bad).

Symbol:



$$1) G_i = 0$$

$$2) R_o = 0$$

3) $A_v = -\infty$

4) $B = \infty$ (bandwidth)

5) If $V_1 = V_2 \Rightarrow V_o = 0$

6) All the characteristics are temperature invariant